

Comparative efficacy and safety profile of high-power short duration with low power long duration radiofrequency ablation in atrial fibrillation: An updated systematic review and meta-analysis

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Abstract

Background: High power short duration (HPSD) radiofrequency ablation was expected to be more effective and safer than low power long duration (LPLD) in treating atrial fibrillation (AF). Given the limited data, the findings were controversial. This meta-analysis evaluated whether HPSD's clinical effects outweigh LPLD's. **Methods:** A systematic search of PubMed, EMBASE, and Google Scholar databases identified studies comparing HPSD to LPLD ablation. All the analyses used the random-effects model. **Results:** This analysis included 21 studies with a total of 4169 patients. Pooled analyses revealed that HPSD was associated with a lower recurrence of atrial tachyarrhythmias (ATAs) at one year (RR: 0.62; 95% CI: 0.50 to 0.78, p: 0.00001, I²: 0%). Furthermore, the HPSD approach reduced the risk of AF recurrence (RR: 0.64; 95% CI: 0.40 to 1.01, p: 0.06, I²: 86%). The HPSD approach was associated with a lower risk of esophageal thermal injury (ETI) (RR: 0.78; 95% CI: 0.58 to 1.04, p: 0.09, I²: 73%). The HPSD strategy increased first-pass pulmonary vein isolation (FPI) and decreased acute pulmonary vein re-connection (PVR) both of which were predominantly manifested in bilateral and left pulmonary veins (PVs). HPSD demonstrated a reduction in procedural time, ablation number for pulmonary vein isolation (PVI), and fluoroscopy time. **Conclusion:** The HPSD method reduces ETI, PV reconnection, and recurrent AF. The HPSD approach also reduced procedural time, PVI ablation number, fluoroscopy time, and post-ablation AF relapse in one year, improving patient outcomes and safety.

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Abstract

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Methods: A systematic search of PubMed, EMBASE, and Google Scholar databases identified studies comparing HPSD to LPLD ablation. All the analyses used the random-effects model.

Results: This analysis included 21 studies with a total of 4169 patients. Pooled analyses revealed that HPSD was associated with a lower recurrence of atrial tachyarrhythmias (ATAs) at one year (RR: 0.62; 95% CI: 0.50 to 0.78, p : 0.00001, I^2 : 0%). Furthermore, the HPSD approach reduced the risk of AF recurrence (RR: 0.64; 95% CI: 0.40 to 1.01, p : 0.06, I^2 : 86%), The HPSD approach was associated with a lower risk of esophageal thermal injury (ETI) (RR: 0.78; 95% CI: 0.58 to 1.04, p : 0.09, I^2 : 73%;). The HPSD strategy increased first-pass pulmonary vein isolation (FPI) and decreased acute pulmonary vein re-connection (PVR) both of which were predominantly manifested in bilateral and left pulmonary veins (PVs). HPSD demonstrated a reduction in procedural time, ablation number for pulmonary vein isolation (PVI), and fluoroscopy time.

Conclusion: The HPSD method reduces ETI, PV reconnection, and recurrent AF. The HPSD approach also reduced procedural time, PVI ablation number, fluoroscopy time, and post-ablation AF relapse in one year, improving patient outcomes and safety.

Keywords: High power short duration, HPSD, Low power long duration, LPLD, atrial fibrillation, radiofrequency ablation, meta-analysis.

Highlights:

- HPSD approach is associated with a decreased risk of recurrence of atrial tachyarrhythmias
- Treatment with HPSD approach is associated with a decreased risk of esophageal thermal injury.
- HPSD approach is associated with increased first pass pulmonary vein isolation.
- On the other hand, HPSD approach reduces the procedure time, ablation time, ablation number, fluoroscopy time and the risk of acute pulmonary vein reconnection.

Introduction:

Atrial fibrillation (AF) is the most prevalent continuous dysrhythmia in clinical settings, with a preponderance of over 33 million individuals worldwide. ^[1] The frequency and prevalence of atrial fibrillation are rising worldwide. According to the Framingham Heart Study (FHS), the prevalence of atrial fibrillation (AF) has tripled over the past five decades. ^[2] In 2016, the Global Burden of Disease program estimated that approximately 46.3 million people globally were affected by atrial fibrillation. AF is strongly correlated with a higher risk of death. Patients rarely perish from the arrhythmia itself but rather from the myriad of coexisting diseases and conditions that often worsen it. ^[2] Patients with AF are treated to reduce stroke risk, improve symptoms, and control rate or rhythm. Catheter ablation has become the most widely accepted ablation technique in cardiology. It has been shown to reduce symptoms and regulate heart rate and rhythm effectively. Although Catheter ablation is a relatively secure process with limited periprocedural adverse effects, several relevant factors must be considered when recognizing patients with comparatively lesser success rates or relatively high postoperative complications, including concurrent heart problems, obesity, sleep problems, left atrial size, age at diagnosis and vulnerability. Comparing AF catheter ablation manifestations from 2016 to 2018 was determined using the 2014 American Heart Association and American College of Cardiology. Class I indications for this procedure included symptomatic paroxysmal AF unresponsive to at least one potential therapeutic drug, class IIA indications for persistent AF unresponsive to at least one antiarrhythmic drug, and class IIB indications for persistent AF.^[3] In the 2019-centered revision, catheter ablation for symptomatic atrial fibrillation (AF) and cardiac failure with a lower ejection fraction was incorporated into class IIB to lessen heart failure hospital stays and mortality. This modification does not impact the category of guidelines for any patient populations included in the current analysis; however, cases meeting this implication may not be adequately portrayed in the sample population.^[3]

Myocardial thickness varies in different parts of the left atrium (LA), making it a frame of considerable

complexity. Impactful pulmonary vein isolation necessitates a comprehensive insight into the adjacent tissue that might be harmed by extreme radiofrequency (RF) power application to be achieved safely.^[4] The thick ridge between the left atrium and upper left pulmonary veins complicates ablation due to the variable thickness of the atrial surface. For PV isolation, it is recommended to use radiofrequency ablation over a large area.^[5] Radiofrequency (RF) energy is conveyed as low-power, long-duration (LPLD) lesions steered by factors such as the force–time integral (FTI); however, the ideal ablation specifications to accomplish resilient, long-term pulmonary vein isolation (PVI) in a relatively secure manner remain to be ascertained.^[4,5] HPSD lesions are gaining in popularity due to the resistive combustion of extracardiac frameworks; this technique may minimize procedure and fluoroscopy durations, as well as the risk of adverse effects.^[6] Conductive heating dominates the low-power, long-duration RF ablation. Compared to conventional ablation, HPSD ablation produces a broader domain of specific resistive heating of parenchyma with a more rapid temperature deterioration. This skyrockets resistance to conductive tissue heating and irreversibly damages the impedance endocardial zone. Many centers use catheters to isolate PVs and create extra-PV lesion configurations. Each site receives 20–40 W for 20–40 seconds at a contact force (CF) of 10–20 g. HPSD ablation is appealing due to lengthy procedure times and rising PV reconnection rates. HPSD ablation is defined arbitrarily as 40 to 90 W for less than 15 seconds per lesion.^[7]

In the past several Randomized control trials (RCTs) have been done to compare the efficacy and safety of the high-power short duration (HPSD) approach with Low power long duration (LPLD). However, the majority of studies produced transient and inconsistent results due to short-term follow-up results and a need for more recently available studies (RCTs and observational studies). In this meta-analysis, we report findings after analyzing the available literature on this topic. Based on an extensive literature search, we conclude that this is the most recent updated meta-analysis assessing the safety and efficacy profile of conventional LPLD with the newly adopted HPSD technique for PVI.

Methodology:

This meta-analysis adheres to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-analysis guidelines^[8,9].

Data sources and search strategy

The databases of PubMed, OVID, the Cochrane Library, and Elsevier’s ScienceDirect were thoroughly and without language restrictions electronically searched for clinical studies (updated in January 2023). To retrieve literature, straightforward keyword and medical subject heading (MeSH) term combinations (such as “high power short duration,” “atrial fibrillation,” “catheter ablation,” “radiofrequency ablation,” etc.) were used. Information about the search methodology is provided in Supplementary Table 1. The PICO (population, intervention, comparison, and outcome) approach was modified. The population of interest included patients with AF (paroxysmal AF [PAF] and persistent AF [PeAF]). Pulmonary vein isolation (additional lesions) was performed in the treatment of atrial fibrillation using RFCA (radiofrequency catheter ablation). The ablation energy was compared: high power, short duration vs. low power, long duration. Three researchers (MK, SK, and SuK) independently reviewed the titles and abstracts of potentially eligible studies.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Inclusion criteria:

- (1) A randomized controlled trial (RCT), a cohort study, a case-control study, and a cross-sectional study are all examples of research methods.
- (2) The HPSD approach (>40 W) was used in the isolation of PVs.
- (3) Baseline data balance.
- (4) A comparative study.

Exclusion criteria:

- (1) Nonclinical studies.
- (2) No controls.
- (3) Conference abstracts, case reports, case series studies, editorials, and review articles.
- (4) Sample size < 20.
- (5) Equivocal study results.
- (6) Full text unavailable.

Data extraction and definitions:

The data from each study, including the author's name, year of publication, country, study population, demographic data of participants, ablation procedure strategies, and clinical outcomes, were extracted to a specific data collection form. The primary outcomes were atrial tachyarrhythmias (ATAs) and AF, atrial tachycardia/atrial flutter (AT/AFL) recurrence post-blanking (two- or three-months post-ablation depending on the studies included), and major complications. The latter included esophageal thermal injury (ETI) and catheter ablation (CA)-related heart complications such as cardiac tamponade, among others. Secondary outcomes included first-pass pulmonary vein isolation (FPI) and acute pulmonary vein reconnection (PVR), procedural time, pulmonary vein isolation (PVI) ablation number, radiofrequency (RF) time and fluoroscopy time.

ATAs recurrence: Symptomatic or asymptomatic ATAs lasting more than 30 s after the blanking period post-ablation. ETI: The esophageal collateral thermal injury brought on by ablation. Endoscopy and/or MRI late gadolinium enhancement were used to evaluate the morphology of the abnormal esophageal inner exhibition. The esophageal temperature monitor's abnormal temperature rise was also considered. First-pass PVI: The first-pass radiofrequency delivery PVI achievement rate. Adenosine test and/or waiting time are used to measure the rate of pulmonary vein electrical reconnection following the first-pass ablation in acute PVR. Procedure time: the time between the beginning of anesthesia and the removal of all sheaths. The number of PVI ablation sites that will be used during the procedure. Fluoroscopy time: The total amount of time spent using a fluoroscope during the procedure.

Quality of included studies:

Quality assessment of all the included RCTs and observational studies was done by using the Cochrane risk of bias tool^[9] Newcastle-Ottawa scale^[10] (Supplementary Appendix, Table 2 and Figure 1).

Data Analysis:

Statistical analysis was done only for comparative studies using Review Manager version 5.4.1 (The Nordic Cochrane Centre, The Cochrane Collaboration, 2014, Denmark). This meta-analysis presents a pooled effect of relative risks (RRs) for dichotomous outcomes and weighted mean differences (WMDs) for continuous outcomes calculated using the generic-inverse variance with a random-effects model. All p-values less than 0.05 were deemed statistically significant. The results of pooled analyses were displayed through forest plots. Funnel plots for all primary outcomes were visualized to assess publication bias. Heterogeneity was evaluated using Higgin's I^2 test, which corresponded to low ($< 25\%$), moderate ($25-75\%$), and high ($> 75\%$) heterogeneity^[11]. A sensitivity analysis was performed to assess the influence of the individual studies on the overall results by omitting one study at a time when substantial heterogeneity ($I^2 > 75\%$) was present. A p-value of < 0.05 was considered significant for all analyses.

Results:

The literature review initially yielded 1050 articles. After removing duplicates and screening studies based on their titles and abstracts, a total of twenty-one^[12-32] studies, including both retrospective and prospective studies, were found. Comparative studies comprised the entirety of those included in this meta-analysis. The PRISMA diagram illustrates a comprehensive search strategy (Figure 1). This collection of articles spans the years 2018 through 2022. High power was defined as > 40 W, and the extracted data were separated into high power group (HP) and low power group (LP).

Characteristics of patients:

There were a total of 4169 participants (2285 in the HP group and 1884 in the LP group), with mean ages ranging from 58.2 ± 10.0 to 69.0 ± 11.8 and follow-up duration ranging from 2 to 3 years. 2,803 males (66.8%) and 1366 females (32.7%) were included and 2258 patients (54.16%) with paroxysmal AF and 1911 patients (45.8%) with persistent AF were included, respectively. Age, gender, CHA2DS2-VASc, the diameter of the left atrium, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, and other relative characteristics were comparable between the

two groups. CF sensing irrigated catheters (ThermoCool SmartTouch NaviStar, ThermoCool SurroundFlow NaviStar [Biosense Webster], and TactiCath Quartz [St. Jude Medical]) were used in all 21 studies. In one study, irrigated catheters that did not have CF sensors (Thermocool SFTM, Biosense-Webster, and FlexAbilityTM, Abbott) were used^[19] (LP group). The Drag lesion technique and continuous point-by-point focal radiofrequency technique were used in 13 and 4 studies, respectively. Another two studies^[14,15] did not mention the ablation strategy, while two studies^[17,19] used both techniques. Every patient underwent the CPVI procedure protocol. In nine studies, additional linear ablations (box isolation, SV isolation, CI isolation, MI isolation, and roofline isolation) as well as or not matrix modification (LVZ or CFAE ablation or complex fractionated atrial electrogram ablation) were carried out. 6 and 8 studies, respectively, mentioned the AADs being discontinued for five half-lives prior to the procedure and being maintained post-ablation. Tables 1 and 2 detail the baseline characteristics of the patients.

Quality assessment and publication bias:

The New Castle-Ottawa scale, a tool used to assess study quality, discovered a low likelihood of bias in observational studies (Supplementary Table 2). Using the Cochrane method of assessing RCTs, we discovered trials of medium to high quality (Supplementary Figure 1). The results were unaffected by publication bias, as demonstrated by the funnel plots (Supplementary Figure 2).

Primary efficacy outcomes:

In a pooled analysis, seven studies found that the HP approach was associated with a lower recurrence of atrial tachyarrhythmias (ATAs) at 1-year follow-up (RR: 0.62; 95% CI: 0.50 to 0.78, p: 0.00001; I²: 0% Figure 2). In contrast, there was no statistically significant difference in the rate of ATA relapse after a 6-month follow-up (RR: 0.79; 95% CI: 0.46 to 1.36, p: 0.39; I²: 13% Figure 2). Eight studies indicated a lower AF recurrence in the HP group in the subgroup analysis (RR: 0.64; 95% CI: 0.40 to 1.01, p: 0.06, I²: 86%; Figure 3), while six studies indicated similar atrial tachycardia/atrial flutter (AT/AFL) recurrence in both groups (RR: 0.98; 95% CI: 0.56 to 1.71, p: 0.94, I²: 23%; Figure 3). Due to the high heterogeneity in AF recurrence, a leave-one-out analysis was performed, which revealed that excluding the study by Hansom et al^[27] reduced the in-study heterogeneity and made the results statistically significant (RR: 0.57; 95% CI: 0.40 to 0.80, p: 0.001, I²: 50%).

Primary safety outcomes:

The pooled analysis of seven studies that included ETI found that the HP approach was linked to a lower risk of ETI (RR: 0.78; 95% CI: 0.58 to 1.04, p: 0.09; I²: 73% Figure 4). When included studies were gradually eliminated because of high heterogeneity, it became clear that leaving out Kaneshiro et al.^[17] reduced heterogeneity and improved the significance of the findings (RR: 0.70; 95% CI: 0.61 to 0.81; p: 0.00001; I²: 5%). The HP approach was linked to a lower risk of other complications, such as pericardial tamponade, atrial-esophageal fistula, stroke, phrenic nerve injury, etc., according to eight studies that reported these issues (RR: 0.66; 95% CI: 0.29 to 1.50, p: 0.32; I²: 0% Figure 4).

Secondary outcomes:

A higher overall rate of FPI was discovered to be linked to the HP group (RR: 1.19; 95% CI: 1.08 to 1.30, p: 0.0003, I²: 85%; Figure 5). Bilateral PVs had a significantly higher FPI rate (RR: 1.57; 95% CI: 1.19 to 2.09, p: 0.002, I²: 95%; Figure 5). High in-study heterogeneity prompted, leave one-out analysis, which demonstrated that results were unaffected by any particular study. There was a significant decrease in acute PVR by the HP approach (RR: 0.57; 95% CI: 0.45 to 0.73, p: .00001, I²: 52%; Figure 6), which was primarily represented in the left PVs subgroup (RR: 0.57; 95% CI: 0.43 to 0.76, p: 0.0001, I²: 0%; Figure 6) and bilateral PVs subgroup (RR: 0.52; 95% CI: 0.37 to 0.75, p: 0.0004, I²: 69%; Figure 6). The HP/PSD strategy significantly reduced procedural time (WMD: -35.58; 95% CI: -46.16 to -25.01, p: .00001, I²: 95%; Figure 7), and sensitivity analysis was performed to determine the cause of high heterogeneity, which revealed that results were not affected by any single study. Total fluoroscopy time was significantly lower in the HP group (WMD: -3.16 95% CI: -4.64 to -1.68, p: <.00001, I²: 96%; Figure 8) particularly when PVI alone was done

(WMD: -3.06; 95% CI: -4.73 to -1.39, $p < .00001$, I^2 : 96%; Figure 8) rather than when additional strategies were used along with PVI (WMD: -3.12; 95% CI: -6.63 to 0.40, p : 0.08, I^2 : 96%; Figure 8). Treatment with the HPSD approach is associated with significantly decreased ablation time (WMD: -19.19; 95% CI: -24.83 to -13.55, $p < .00001$, I^2 : 97%; Figure 9), ablation number for PVI (WMD: -7.00; 95% CI: -9.74 to -4.25, $p < .00001$, I^2 : 41%; Figure 10), ablation index (WMD: -30.17; 95% CI: -54.86 to -5.48, p : 0.02, I^2 : 98%; Figure 11) and total RF time (WMD: -20.78; 95% CI: -26.46 to -15.10, $p < .00001$, I^2 : 98%; Figure 12). However, there is no significant difference in impedance decrease among the two groups (WMD: 0.22; 95% CI: -1.42 to 1.87, p : 0.79, I^2 : 96%; Figure 13). Due to the high heterogeneity of these outcomes, leave one out sensitivity analysis was performed for each outcome which showed no single study affected these results.

Discussion

The prevalence of AF is rising, notably in developed countries, as the population ages and the strain of cardiovascular disease rises.^[33] Finding that AF is often caused by ectopy inside the pulmonary veins prompted the introduction of pulmonary vein isolation as an extensively used therapy, and circumferential pulmonary vein isolation has become essential to the overwhelming majority of AF ablation practices.^[33] Ablation involves the passage of Radiofrequency (RF) energy current through parenchyma, resistively heating and necrotizing the tissue layer in proximity to the catheter tip. The majority of the ablation lesion is formed by heat transfer from resistive heating deeper in the tissue. The RF power generation augments the depth of resistive and conductive heating substantially.^[33,34] HPSD ablation definitions currently range from 50 W to 90 W for durations ranging from 2 to 20 seconds. For apparent patient safety purposes, the bulk of human experimentations to date have employed a peak energy of 50 W. The HPSD technique for AF catheter ablation is more proficient than the LPLD approach due to the reduced procedure, fluoroscopy, and ablation times. Compared to LPLD, the HPSD strategy lowers the risk of esophageal thermal injury (ETI) and has higher first-pass PVI. Furthermore, after a single radiofrequency catheter ablation (RFCA) procedure, the HPSD ablation technique effectively reduces the likelihood of PV reconnection and recurrent AF.^[33,35] The possibility of the HPSD technique to increase first-pass PVI and reduce PV restoration and recurrent AF has been due to the HPSD method's ability to generate a lesion with a broader area, greater uniformity, and greater consistency.^[35]

Main findings:

In this systematic review and meta-analysis, we included twenty-one studies comprising 4169 participants to compare the efficacy and safety profile of HPSD with the LPLD approach. Our findings suggested that the HPSD ablation technique is associated with a drop-in risk of recurrent atrial tachyarrhythmias and a drop in AF recurrence at 1-year follow-up. However, the Six-month follow-up showed no statistically-significant variation in ATA relapse rates. In addition, the AT/AFL recurrence rate did not differ between the two groups, which is a significant departure from the findings of previous meta-analyses.^[5]

From a safety standpoint, our meta-analysis demonstrated that implementing radiofrequency ablation for atrial fibrillation (AF) using the HPSD strategy may decrease the likelihood of ETI. In percentage terms, however, this result was more significant than previous meta-analyses.^[5,35] The HP approach was also associated with a reduced risk of complications such as pericardial tamponade, atrial-esophageal fistula, stroke, and phrenic nerve injury. The HPSD approach increased first-pass pulmonary vein isolation (FPI) and decreased acute pulmonary vein re-isolation (PVR) rate. In contrast to previous research, however, these findings did not demonstrate a reduction of more than half. Therefore, these variations in outcomes question previous studies' methodologies. The HPSD technique was strongly correlated with superior procedural characteristics, including reduced procedure time, ablation multitude for PVI, and fluoroscopy duration, thereby enhancing the efficacy of AF ablation. The results manifested a variety of heterogeneities, which were most evident in the retrospective cohort studies. Numerous studies contributed significantly to the high heterogeneity, necessitating a leave-one-out sensitivity analysis for each outcome.^[17,27] We speculate that this resulted from the operator's freedom of choice regarding the size of the isolation circle around the PVs, the power setting, the contact force, the determination of the ablation endpoints, the inclusion of ablation, and so on. Furthermore, the left atrium's anatomy differed depending on the participants' races.

These differences were accentuated in historic cohort studies because of measurement errors and lost data. On the other hand, both primary and secondary outcome data were more consistently distributed across prospective studies.

Lesion variations and complications:

Prior research on humans has examined ablations with greater power and shorter duration. None of the research findings was large enough to investigate the emergence of rare complications such as gastroesophageal fistulas or pulmonary stenosis. Nilsson et al.^[36] evaluated by comparing ablations performed with 30 W for 120 seconds to those performed with 45 W for 20 seconds. In both groups, the long-term outcomes and consequences were identical. In the group that underwent the higher power, shorter-duration ablation, isolation time, mean fluoroscopy time, radiation dose, and total RF application time were all reduced.^[36] In previous studies, the minimum power used was 50 W for 5 s, which produced a mean depth of 2.3 mm. Since all lesions were transmural, the only limitation was tissue thickness. If the tissue is thicker, the lesion may also be thicker. Studies that have tried to deliver 50 W continuously have often had to reduce the power because of hyperechogenic tissue changes observed on ICE, a sharp interim impedance drop, or a lack of transmural lesions in relatively thick cardiac muscle (mitral annulus and the septal side of the right superior PV). In the in vitro model, 40 W/5 s was insufficient to produce a 2 mm cut-off point. In vivo ablations utilized 50–80 W. All configurations for in vivo ablation achieved transmural.^[13,37] In vitro, Fatima Ali-study Ahmed's indicated that a higher power setting (50 W/5s) produced a larger lesion with a maximum width of 7.2 versus 5.7 mm and a depth of 2.9 versus 2.1 mm within the identical radiofrequency period and irrigation stream (2 ml/min).^[38] According to Bhaskaran's study, the lesion thickness at 80 W/5s (6.5 mm) and 70 W/5s (5.9 mm) was greater than at 40 W/30s (5.2 mm) when the contact force was 10 g. In vitro, the depth was comparable (80/5, 70/5, 40/30 s: 2.9, 2.6, 2.7 mm).^[37] Additionally, catheter stability is a significant factor in lesion structure. Longer-duration power implementations may result in breached catheter contact consistency. Lesion features ascertained in ex vivo static tissue preparations do not precisely reflect the spectrum of movement observed in a beating heart, where there is greater variance among lesions and relatively small lesion dimensions, especially when compared to ablation in a fixed muscle formation.^[33] An atrial-esophageal fistula following left atrial ablation is exceedingly uncommon and frequently fatal. The esophagus is positioned 2 mm from the posterior wall of the left atrium and is vulnerable to damage from lesion depth changes. Even though the study group had a few more health problems, the left atrial volumes were bigger based on the volume index, and the esophagus was closer to the center of the left atrial wall; HPSD and LPLD severity patterns were the same.^[33,34,37,38]

Our meta-analysis has numerous advantages: (1) As a result of the inclusion of six additional studies, the sample group of our meta-analysis is more significant than that of past meta-analyses, lending credibility to our study results. (2) Using diverse plots and tests, including the funnel plot, Egger's test, and Begg's test, publication biases were determined and revealed to be nonexistent. (3) A sensitivity analysis was conducted to assess the effect of non-homogenous studies on the pooled estimate. (4) Furthermore, we compared our meta-analysis to those conducted by Min Xu et al. in the past. The fifteen studies comprising^[5] were predominantly retrospective studies and RCTs. Our meta-analysis entailed a plethora of prospective studies that may have addressed biases inherent to retrospective studies.

Even though this analysis produced sufficient statistical evidence, it is essential to note its limitations. (1) Variations in research design, intervention strategies, and patient characteristics such as BMI, age, sample sizes, ethnic background, and trial attributes may have caused clinical heterogeneity. (2) Second, the follow-up durations of the majority of studies were variable, with some studies reporting longer durations. When evaluating such techniques, longer-term follow-ups are more valuable. (3) Several studies employed varying power levels (35W, 45W, 50W, 60W, and 70W) at various weeks, which may have introduced ambiguity.

Conclusion:

Based on the results of this systematic review and meta-analysis, we conclude that the HPSD method reduces the likelihood of ETI, improves first-pass PVI, and reduces the risk of PV reconnection and recurrent AF.

The HPSD technique was strongly correlated with decreased procedural time, ablation number for PVI, fluoroscopy time, and post-ablation AF relapse in one-year follow-up, thereby improving clinical outcomes with enhanced safety.

Declarations of interest

None

Disclosures

The authors report no proprietary or commercial interest in any product mentioned or concept discussed in the article.

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None

Author's contributions

Satesh Kumar: Protocol development, Data collection, Data analysis, Manuscript writing.

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Legends to figures:

Figure 1: Prisma flow chart

Figure 2: Forest plot of recurrence of atrial tachyarrhythmias (ATAs); RR: relative risk, CI; Confidence interval

Figure 3: Forest plot showing subgroup analysis of recurrence of atrial fibrillation (AF) and atrial tachycardia/atrial flutter (AT/AFL); RR: relative risk, CI; Confidence interval

Figure 4: Forest plot of major complications showing subgroup analysis of esophageal thermal injury (ETI) and other complications;RR: relative risk, CI; Confidence interval

Figure 5: Forest plot showing the rate of First pass Pulmonary vein isolation (FPI) ; RR: relative risk, CI; Confidence interval

Figure 6: Forest plot showing the risk of acute Pulmonary vein reconnection (PVR) and subgroup analysis of left, right, and bilateral PVR; RR: relative risk, CI; Confidence interval

Figure 7: Forest plot showing total procedure time; WMD: weighted mean difference, SD: Standard deviation, CI; Confidence interval.

Figure 8: Forest plot of total fluoroscopy time; WMD: weighted mean difference, SD: Standard deviation, CI; Confidence interval.

Figure 9: Forest plot of ablation time; WMD: weighted mean difference, SD: Standard deviation, CI; Confidence interval.

Figure 10: Forest plot of ablation number for PVI; WMD: weighted mean difference, SD: Standard deviation, CI; Confidence interval.

Figure 11: Forest plot for ablation index; WMD: weighted mean difference, SD: Standard deviation, CI; Confidence interval.

Figure 12: Forest plot of total RF time; WMD: weighted mean difference, SD: Standard deviation, CI; Confidence interval.

Figure 13: Forest plot showing impedance decrease; WMD: weighted mean difference, SD: Standard deviation, CI; Confidence interval.

Table 1: Study and Procedure characteristics

Study	Study design	Total no. of patients	No. of patients	No. of patients	Mapping tools
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Table 2: Demographics and co-morbidities of patients

Study	Age		Male		LVEF		CHA2DS2-VASc		LAD	LAD	BMI	BMI	Hypertension	Hypertension	Diabetes
	(Mean±SD)	(Mean±SD)	(No. (%))	(No. (%))	(Mean±SD)	(Mean±SD)	(No. (%))	(No. (%))	(Mean±SD)	(Mean±SD)	(Mean±SD)	(Mean±SD)	(No. (%))	(No. (%))	(No. (%))
	HPSD	LPLD	HPSD	LPLD	HPSD	LPLD	HPSD	LPLD	HPSD	LPLD	HPSD	LPLD	HPSD	LPLD	HPSD
Vassallo (2020)	59.7	60.7	50 (70.4)	50 (68.4)	N/A	N/A	2.57±5.92	2.22±5.18	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	52 (73.2)	53 (72.6)	20 (29.1)
Yavin (2020)	62.3±5.2	64.8±7.2	71 (63.3)	79 (70.5)	60.3±6.1	57.8±5.4	2.4±1.3	2.6±1.4	44.2±4.7	47.1±5.1	47.1±5.1	27.6±3.9	70 (62.5)	76 (67.8)	11 (9.1)
Yazaki (2020)	66±11	61±11	27 (84)	20 (63)	55±7	56±7	2	2	40±13	41±14	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Shin (2020)	58.5±7.9	58.7±11.1	39 (78)	33 (66)	55.7±11.4	58.9±8.3	1.6±1.5	1.7±1.6	39.9±4.6	40.7±6.5	23.8±2.8	24.6±2.7	24 (48)	22 (44)	8 (16)

Study	Age (Mean±SD)	Age (Mean±SD)	Male No. (%)	Male No. (%)	LVEF (Mean±SD)	LVEF (Mean±SD)	CHA2DS2-VASc	CHA2DS2-VASc	LAD mm (Mean±SD)	LAD mm (Mean±SD)	BMI (Mean±SD)	BMI (Mean±SD)	Hypertension No. (%)	Hypertension No. (%)	Hypertension No. (%)
Kottmann (2020)	60.8±13.9	60.8±10.5	57 (58)	60 (60)	57±5	55±9	1.95	1.64	N/A	N/A	27.9±4.0	28.0±4.5	56 (57.7)	58 (58)	N/A
Kaneshima (2020)	63±10	61±10	77 (76.2)	138 (81.2)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	40.8±6.3	38.8±6.5	24.9±4.0	24.5±3.7	N/A	N/A	N/A
Ejima (2020)	63±11.3	66.7±8.9	44 (73)	42 (70)	57.7±3.9	57.4±6.3	1.8±1.4	2.2	34.3±10.3	36.1±8.7	23.9±2.8	23.8±3.2	29 (48)	30 (50)	10
Castrejon (2020)	61±10	60±10	32 (67)	28 (60)	57±9	56±11	N/A	N/A	N/m HP 40(85%) M/S HP 7 (15%)	N/m LP 36 (82%), M/S LP 8 (18%)	28±4	29±5	N/A	N/A	N/A
Bunch 2020	67.1±10.5	66.4±12.2	253 (62.9)	262 (65.2)	54.6±12.1	54.7±12.8	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	30.8±7.0	30.5±6.8	358 (89.1)	348 (86.6)	12
Vassallo (2019)	64±10	61±12	34 (83)	22 (64.7)	N/A	N/A	2±1.6	2±1.97	43.3±6.3	41.9±6.1	27	28	33 (80)	26 (64.3)	18
Pambru (2019)	65±8.2	62.5±10.6	35 (70)	30 (60)	61.7±5.6	61.1±4.4	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	14 (28)	12 (24)	3
Okamoto (2019)	65±10	68±8	13 (65)	15 (75)	65±8.1	64±5.1	2±1.48	2±0.74	40±6	39±6	24±2.2	24±5.1	10 (50)	10 (50)	5
Berte (2019)	62±9	63±9	50 (62)	67 (71)	58±8	59±11	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Baher (2018)	69±11.8	68.3±11.6	385 (67.1)	67 (59.3)	N/A	N/A	2.9±1.7	2.5±1.6	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	369 (64.2)	68 (60.1)	11
Wieland (2021)	64±11	61±11	32 (67)	33 (69)	N/A	N/A	1±2.22	1±2.22	39±7	40±7	26.4±4.2	26.8±4.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
Hansom (2021)	62±9	62±9	69 (65)	81 (76)	N/A	N/A	1.9	2	41±0.7	41±0.6	N/A	N/A	44 (41)	47 (44)	9
Sousa (2022)	61±10.3	62±14.8	44 (55)	53 (66)	60±9.2	60±3.7	2±1.48	1±0.74	40.9±5.9	40.3±4.7	27.3±3.5	27.9±4	47 (59)	53 (66)	7
Sallo (2022)	58±8.14	60±6.48	27 (54)	32 (60)	55±5.9	60±5.9	2±1.48	2±1.48	43±5.9	44±6.6	N/A	N/A	37 (74)	33 (62)	7
Chieng (2022)	62.9±8.2	59.7±10	31 (77.2)	30 (68.1)	55.4±13	54.6±11.2	2±1.5	1.5	N/A	N/A	29.2±5.6	29.2±4.8	25 (56.8)	14 (31.8)	3
Cheng (2022)	58.9±11.9	63.1±9.9	27 (75)	20 (55.5)	63±4.4	61.5±4.07	1.69±1.4	1.31±1.9	38.1±6.4	38.0±6.4	24.11±2.9	25.3±3.2	20 (55.6)	18 (50)	6
Vassallo (2022)	58.4±14	52.9±10.5	131 (71.8)	113 (71.5)	61±9.2	63.2±7.4	2.4±5.92	2±5.18	42.9±5.1	40.6±4.25	N/A	N/A	126 (69.2)	105 (66.4)	34

Values are expressed as the (Mean± SD: Standard deviations) and no. (%) according to the original text
Abbreviations: SVC: superior vena cava, MIL: mitral isthmus line, RL: roof line, LVA: low voltage ablation,

FAT: focal atrial tachycardia, LVEF: left ventricular ejection fraction, HF: heart failure, LAD: left atrial diameter, LAVI: left atrial volume index, TIA: transient ischemic attack, N/m: Normal/Mild, M/s: Moderate/severe, DM: Diabetes mellitus, SVC: superior vena cava, CTI: cavotricuspid isthmus, BMI: body mass index









