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Additional Information

**Relation between Denaturation Time Measured by Optical Coherence Reflectometry and Thermal Lesion Depth during Radiofrequency Cardiac Ablation: Feasibility Numerical Study**

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## **Abstract**

**Background/Objective:** Radiofrequency (RF) catheter ablation is a minimally invasive medical procedure used to thermally destroy the focus of cardiac arrhythmias. Novel optical techniques are now being integrated into RF catheters in order to detect the changes in tissue properties. Loss of birefringence due to fiber denaturation at around 70°C is related to changes in accumulated phase retardation and can be measured by polarization-sensitive optical coherence reflectometry (PS-OCR). Since irreversible thermal lesions are produced when the tissue reaches 50°C, our goal was to seek the mathematical relationship between both isotherms.

**Materials and Methods:** A two-dimensional model based on a coupled electric-thermal problem was built and solved using the finite element method. The model consisted of cardiac tissue, blood and a non-irrigated electrode with a sensor embedded in its tip to maintain a specific target electrode temperature. Computer simulations were conducted by varying the tissue characteristics. Lesion depth was estimated by the 50°C isotherm, while the denaturation time (TD) was taken as the time at which the 70°C isotherm reached a depth of 0.75 mm (which corresponds to the optical depth reached by PS-OCR technology).

**Results:** A strong correlation ( $R^2 > 0.83$ ) was found between TD and lesion depth and an even stronger correlation ( $R^2 > 0.96$ ) was found between TD and the time required to achieve a specific lesion depth. For instance, the ablation time required to ensure a minimum lesion depth of 3 mm was  $1.33 \times \text{TD} + 3.93$ .

**Conclusions:** The computer results confirmed the strong relationship between denaturation time and lesion depth and suggest that measuring denaturation time by PS-OCR could

provide information on the ablation time required to reach a specific lesion depth.

**Keywords:** Cardiac ablation, computer model, polarization-sensitive optical coherence reflectometry, radiofrequency ablation.

## **INTRODUCTION**

The clinical success of radiofrequency ablation (RFA) for atrial fibrillation depends on achieving a transmural lesion, i.e. a lesion that occupies the entire thickness of the atrial wall [1]. Since this can be as little as 2 mm [2], and may be close to the esophagus [3,4], it is thus crucial to ensure a specific lesion depth. Different technologies have attempted to evaluate lesion size [5-8], but the correlation of their parameters with lesion size was seen to be low. Optical techniques such as optical coherence reflectometry (OCR) or polarimetry seem to be the most appropriate technology due to their high resolution in the thin wall [9]. Recently, optical polarimetry [10] has been successfully used to detect lesion size in excised myocardial sections, although depth-resolved birefringence measures are required to study the evolution of the lesion over time in clinical conditions. OCR is a non-invasive high-resolution imaging technique capable of sampling the internal optical properties of biological tissues by measuring the intensity of back reflected light as a function of depth. The authors considered that this technique could improve RF cardiac ablation of atrial fibrillation. Polarization sensitive OCR (PS-OCR) is a functional extension of OCR that measures depth-resolved birefringence [11], an optical property of an anisotropic medium, by which the propagation velocity of the light traveling through the medium depends on the polarization state of the light. Muscular tissue is known to exhibit birefringent properties [12,13], but loses its

anisotropic ultrastructure due to protein denaturation when exposed to temperatures of around 70°C [14]. A new integrated catheter was therefore designed to enable simultaneous RFA and PS-OCR operation [15,16]. This catheter is able to measure denaturation time (TD), which is the time at which the optical birefringence of the tissue 0.75 mm below the surface (PS-OCR spatial window) is completely lost. While TD is related to the progress of the 70°C isotherm [14], the thermal lesion is known to be related to the 50°C isotherm [17].

## **OBJECTIVES**

The objective of the present work was thus to model the relationship between the lesion depth (assessed by the 50°C isotherm) and denaturation time (TD), which is the time at which the 70°C isotherm reaches a depth of 0.75 mm (equivalent to the denaturation contours of fibers in an experimental scenario). The mathematical relationship obtained between TD and lesion depth would allow algorithms to be implemented to enable real-time monitoring of lesion depth by PS-OCR images.

## **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

As computational models are a powerful, fast and cheap tool to attain useful information on the electrical-thermal processes associated with energy-based therapies [18-21], this method was used to simulate the electric, thermal and tissue damage response of a two-dimensional model of cardiac tissue subjected to RF ablation.

## Model geometry

Figure 1 shows the model geometry, including a fragment of cardiac tissue, a volume of blood (cardiac chamber), and a non-irrigated electrode (7Fr diameter and 4 mm long). Although irrigated electrodes are usually employed to ablate atrial tissue, we first focused on a non-irrigated electrode as it provides a very simple temperature distribution in which the hottest point is at the electrode–tissue interface. The catheter was assumed to be perpendicular with respect to the cardiac tissue and inserted to a depth of 0.5 mm (no realistic details were required on the mechanical deformation of the tissue surface due to the electrode, since this value was assumed to be lower than 2 mm [22]). The electrode included a sensor embedded in its tip (thermistor  $0.75 \times 0.3$  mm), which was used to monitor the electrode temperature [23]. The dispersive electrode was modeled as an electrical boundary condition at a distance from the active electrode, while the voltage applied to the active electrode was modulated throughout the ablation in order to keep the electrode temperature approximately constant at  $T_{target}$ .

Cardiac tissue thickness (H) was 20 mm [23] and the dimensions of the cardiac chamber (X and Z) were estimated by means of a convergence test in order to avoid boundary effects. In this test, the value of the maximal temperature achieved in the tissue ( $T_{max}$ ) after 60 s of RF heating was used as control parameter. We first considered a tentative spatial (i.e. minimum meshing size) and temporal resolution. To determine the appropriate parameters of X and Z, we increased their values by equal amounts. When the difference in the  $T_{max}$  between consecutive simulations was less than 0.5%, we considered the former values to be adequate. We then determined adequate spatial and temporal resolution by means of similar

convergence tests using the same control parameter as in the previous test. Discretization was spatially heterogeneous: the finest zone was always the electrode-tissue interface, where the largest voltage gradient was produced and hence the maximum value of current density. In the tissue, grid size was increased gradually with distance from the electrode-tissue interface.

### Governing equations

The model was based on a coupled electric-thermal problem, which was solved numerically using the Finite Element Method (FEM) with COMSOL Multiphysics software (COMSOL, Burlington, MA, USA). The governing equation for the thermal problem was the *Bioheat Equation*, modified by the enthalpy method [24,25], which includes the phase change to model tissue vaporization:

$$\frac{\partial(\rho h)}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (k \nabla T) + q - Q_p + Q_m \quad (1)$$

where  $\rho$  was density ( $\text{kg/m}^3$ ),  $h$  enthalpy,  $t$  time (s),  $k$  thermal conductivity ( $\text{W/m}\cdot\text{K}$ ),  $T$  temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ),  $q$  the heat source caused by RF power ( $\text{W/m}^3$ ),  $Q_p$  the heat loss caused by blood perfusion ( $\text{W/m}^3$ ) and  $Q_m$  the metabolic heat generation ( $\text{W/m}^3$ ).  $Q_p$  was not considered since its effect is expected to be minor [26]. Likewise,  $Q_m$  was not considered because its effect is negligible in comparison to the other terms [27]. In biological tissues, enthalpy is related to temperature by the following expression [24,25]:

$$\frac{\partial(\rho h)}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \cdot \begin{cases} \rho_l c_l & 0 \leq T \leq 99^{\circ}\text{C} \\ H_{fg} C & 99 < T \leq 100^{\circ}\text{C} \\ \rho_g c_g & T > 100^{\circ}\text{C} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where  $\rho_i$  and  $c_i$  were the density and specific heat of cardiac tissue before phase-change (i.e. liquid phase,  $i=l$ ) and post-phase-change (i.e. gas phase,  $i=g$ ), respectively;  $H_{fg}$  was the latent heat and  $C$  the tissue water content. We considered a latent heat value of  $2.162 \times 10^9$  J/m<sup>3</sup> which corresponds to the product of the water vaporization latent heat (2257 kJ/kg), the water density at 100°C (958 kg/m<sup>3</sup>), and the tissue water content inside the cardiac tissue (75%).

At the frequencies used in RF heating and over the distance of interest, the biological medium can be considered almost totally resistive, and a quasi-static approach can therefore be used to solve the electrical problem [28]. The distributed heat source  $q$  is then given by  $q = \sigma |\mathbf{E}|^2$ , where  $|\mathbf{E}|$  is the magnitude of the vector electric field (V/m) and  $\sigma$  the electrical conductivity (S m<sup>-1</sup>).  $\mathbf{E} = -\nabla\Phi$  is calculated from the gradient of the voltage  $\Phi$  (V), which, in absence of internal electric sources, satisfies  $\nabla \cdot (\sigma \nabla \Phi) = 0$ .

The Arrhenius ( $\Omega$ ) function was also employed to estimate the relation between the concentrations of native fibers at the initial time  $C(0)$ , and no denatured fibers at instant  $\tau$ ,  $C(\tau)$ , estimating the percentage of irreversibly damaged tissue [29]:

$$\Omega = \ln \left\{ \frac{C(0)}{C(\tau)} \right\} = \int_0^\tau A e^{\frac{-E_a}{RT(t)}} dt \quad (3)$$

where  $\tau$  was the heating time (s),  $R$  the gas constant (8.314 J/K mol),  $A$  the frequency factor (s<sup>-1</sup>), and  $E_a$  the activation energy for the irreversible damage (J/mol). The parameters  $A$  and  $E_a$  depend on the tissue, and specifically for cardiac tissue was considered  $A = 2.94 \times 10^{39}$  s<sup>-1</sup> and  $E_a = 2.596 \times 10^5$  J/mol [30].



## Model parameters

Table 1 shows the thermal and electrical properties of the model elements (electrode, thermistor, catheter, cardiac chamber and cardiac tissue) [23]. The cardiac tissue characteristics were varied in a range according to the literature [31,32] (see Table 2). The initial model temperature was 37°C. The electrical ( $\sigma$ ) and thermal ( $k$ ) conductivities of cardiac tissue were temperature-dependent piecewise functions: for  $\sigma$  we considered an exponential growth of +1.5%/°C up to 100°C [33], where  $\sigma_o$  was the value of the electrical conductivity assessed at 37°C (see Table 2), which was then reduced by 4 orders for five degrees to model the tissue desiccation process [35], after which it remained constant.  $k$  grew linearly 0.12%/°C up to 100°C,  $k_o$  being the value of the thermal conductivity assessed at 37°C (see Table 2), after which  $k$  was kept constant [35]. Other model parameters,  $T_{target}$  and thermal convective coefficients between blood and tissue/electrode ( $h_T$  and  $h_E$ ), were chosen in a range which is believed to be representative of relevant ablation conditions. The effect of changing the value of thermal convective coefficients at the electrode-blood and tissue-blood interface simulates different blood velocities according to the position of the ablating electrode in the cardiac chamber [36].

## Boundary conditions

Figure 2a shows the electrical boundary conditions. We considered a constant temperature ablation protocol, which is the usual ablation mode for non-irrigated electrodes in RFA. We implemented a proportional-integral (PI) control algorithm [23,37] using MATLAB (MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA) and the applied voltage was modulated to maintain the temperature in the sensor at  $T_{target}$ . A Dirichlet voltage boundary condition was

therefore applied to the active electrode surface. All the outer surfaces of the model except the bottom surface were fixed to zero electric flux (Neumann boundary condition). The voltage on the bottom surface was set to 0 V (dispersive electrode) to mimic a monopolar configuration in which RF current was forced to flow between the active and dispersive electrodes.

Regarding the thermal boundary conditions (Figure 2b), a null thermal flux was used on the symmetry axis and a constant temperature of 37°C was fixed on the outer surfaces of the model at a distance from the ablating electrode (this was also the initial temperature value). The effect of blood circulating inside the cardiac chamber was modeled by thermal convection coefficients at the electrode–blood ( $h_E$ ) and the tissue–blood ( $h_T$ ) interfaces, considering electrical conductivity of blood independent of temperature (as in Method 2 in [23]). We calculated the control coefficients (see Table 2) according to Method 2 explained in [23] considering a blood velocity value of 0.01 m/s.

### **Analyzed parameters**

The thermal lesion depth was assessed using the 50°C isotherm, which is usually considered to reasonably represent the isotherm of irreversible myocardial injury in hyperthermic ablation [23]. The 70°C isotherm was also computed since is strongly related with the birefringence change in fibers, and hence with changes in the optical signal of phase retardation (PR) [14]. Figure 3 shows the expected progress of the depths of the 50°C and 70°C isotherms (ISO-50°C and ISO-70°C, respectively). In the context of this study we were also interested in identifying the following specific instants: 1) the time when the 70°C isotherm reaches a depth of 0.75 mm (denaturation time (TD)) as this value is approximately

the depth at which the background noise is clearly negligible for PS-OCR images in the integrated catheter [15]; and 2) the times when the 50°C isotherm reaches a depth of 2, 3 and 4 mm ( $t_{2\text{mm}}$ ,  $t_{3\text{mm}}$  and  $t_{4\text{mm}}$ ), as these values are relevant in the context of RFA in the atrial wall.

## **RESULTS**

### **Temperature distributions and thermal damage**

Figure 4(a) shows the computed temperature distributions around the ablation electrode. The contour where optical birefringence is expected to be lost due to fiber denaturation (i.e. 70°C isotherm, ISO-70°C) correlated well with the  $\Omega = 4.6$  isoline (calculated from Equation 3), and extended above the area of thermal lesion assessed with the 50°C isotherm (ISO-50°C). Figure 4(b) shows the time course of the percentage of denatured fibers across the depth of the tissue. It is interesting to note that at ~12 s there is a zone of tissue at a depth of ~0.75 mm where the fibers have been almost 100% denatured.

### **Relationship between denaturation time and thermal lesion depth**

Figure 5 shows the strong correlation ( $R^2 > 0.96$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) found between the depth of the 50°C (D50) and 70°C (D70) isotherms for different ablation times. This finding is certainly the first step in exploring how measuring the denaturation time (TD) could be used to predict lesion depth. In this respect, Figure 6 shows the relationship between the TD (in seconds), assessed as the time at which the 70°C isotherm reaches 0.75 mm, and the

thermal lesion depth at that time ( $D_{TD}$ , in mm). The following linear relationship was found:

$$D_{TD} = 0.035 \times TD + 2.33 \quad (4)$$

### **Denaturation time as predictor of thermal lesion depth**

Figure 7 shows the relationship between the denaturation time (TD) and the time required to achieve lesion depths of 2, 3 and 4 mm ( $t_{2mm}$ ,  $t_{3mm}$  and  $t_{4mm}$ ). In all cases TD was seen to be a good predictor ( $R^2 > 0.96$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). The following mathematical relationships were found for each lesion depth:

$$t_{2mm} = 0.64 \times TD + 2.76 \quad (5)$$

$$t_{3mm} = 1.33 \times TD + 3.93 \quad (6)$$

$$t_{4mm} = 2.85 \times TD + 4.41 \quad (7)$$

## **DISCUSSION**

Our goal was to find the mathematical expression relating the lesion depth created during RF cardiac ablation with the denaturation time measured from PS-OCR. The first step was to assess whether computer modeling could provide consistent results in physical terms. In this respect, Fig. 4 confirms that the 70°C isotherm correlated well with the  $\Omega = 4.6$  isoline, which corresponds to a 99% probability of cell death [38], while the 50°C isotherm represents the thermal lesion reasonably well [17], which is obviously deeper than the fiber denaturation zone. The result shown in Figure 4(b) also seems reasonable, since a

previous experiment had shown that within the spatial window of PS-OCR (~0.75 mm), optical birefringence was completely lost within a short interval [15].

The computer results obtained also suggest a strong relationship between the evolution of lesion depth (related with the 50°C isotherm) and TD. The first relationship analyzed (Eq. (4)) suggests that lesion depth can be estimated from a known TD value. For instance, if PS-OCR images indicate the complete loss of optical birefringence across the 0.75 mm spatial window at 12 s, it would be possible to estimate a lesion depth of 2.75 mm with 83% of variance in the fit. Interestingly, Eq. (4) also indicates that if denaturation is detected very early (i.e. TD almost zero), a lesion depth of 2.33 mm could have already been created. This can also be concluded from Equation (5): it is not possible to predict a lesion depth smaller than 2 mm by measuring denaturation time, as this depth has already been reached at that time. In contrast, Equations (6) and (7) could be used to predict the ablation time required to ensure a specific lesion depth. Eq. (6) suggests that a lesion depth of 3 mm will almost certainly be created if ablation time is prolonged accordingly. For instance, if denaturation time is detected at 10 s, an extension of ~7 s (i.e. a total time of  $1.33 \times 10 + 3.93 = 17.23$  s) would ensure a minimum lesion depth of 3 mm. The same process can be followed with Eq. (7) to ensure a lesion depth of 4 mm.

### **Clinical importance**

The present findings have important clinical implications in the context of real time monitoring of the progress of lesion depth during RF ablation of atrial fibrillation. As atrial wall thickness is ~2 mm [2], a depth around this value would be enough to produce

transmural lesions. If the lesion is not entirely transmural the treatment has failed, while if the lesion is too deep the esophagus could be thermally injured [39]. Our results suggest that using PS-OCR to measure denaturation time would provide the exact ablation time required to reach a specific, and hence transmural, lesion depth and thus minimize the risk of esophageal injury. These findings now need to be confirmed in actual clinical and pre-clinical scenarios.

### **Limitations**

This study has certain limitations that need to be pointed out. Firstly, although RF cardiac ablation is always conducted using irrigated electrodes, we initially opted to model a non-irrigated electrode, since it provides simpler temperature distributions in which the hottest point is always close to the electrode-tissue interface. This means that all the tissue occupying the PS-OCR spatial window (0.75 mm under the tissue surface) is exposed to heating, as opposed to irrigated electrodes, where the hottest point is several millimeters away [40], so that the surface tissue may not be heated. Future studies should be conducted to confirm the utility of PS-OCR with irrigated electrodes.

Secondly, the esophagus and other adjacent structures were not included in the model, since this was an exploratory study and we were not interested in how PS-OCR technology works in the presence of a realistic pattern of surrounding tissues. However, in a previous computational study, we observed that the temperature distributions were hardly affected by the presence of the esophagus and other adjacent structures (lung, aorta, connective tissue, etc.) [41], since these organs and tissues have similar electrical and thermal

characteristics. We observed that the most important factor in damage to the esophagus was really the distance between the ablating electrode and the esophagus.

Thirdly, the model assumed healthy tissue properties. However, in a recent study, we assessed the thermal impact of the heterogeneity of pathological tissue (including fibrotic tissue and fat) during RF cardiac ablation [42] and observed that it did not have a significant impact on the thermal lesion size, since the density of the electrical current was only affected on a small-scale. However, the effect of including the specific optical properties of pathological tissue could be important in terms of birefringence loss and future experimental studies on the substrate of arrhythmia should take this issue into account. Unfortunately, to our knowledge, there is no experimental data available on the optical properties of the different arrhythmogenic substrates.

Future work should include the study of the variation of optical properties with temperature to compare the effects of laser ablation vs RF ablation.

## **CONCLUSIONS**

The computer results confirmed the strong relationship between denaturation time (TD) and lesion depth. The mathematical relationships between TD (estimated by PS-OCR) and lesion depth could be used to provide the exact ablation time required to ensure a specific lesion depth.

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**Table 1.** Thermal and electrical characteristics of the model elements [23].

Element/Material		$\sigma$ (S/m)	$k$ (W/m·K)	$\rho$ (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	$c$ (J/kg·K)
Electrode/Pt-Ir		$4.6 \times 10^6$	71	21500	132
Thermistor/Glass fiber		$10^{-5}$	0.038	32	835
Catheter/Polyurethane		$10^{-5}$	0.026	70	1045
Cardiac chamber/Blood		0.667	0.54	1000	4180
Myocardium/ Cardiac tissue	Liquid phase	$\sigma_o^*$	$k_o^*$	$\rho_l^*$	$c_l^*$
	Gas phase			370.44	2155.92

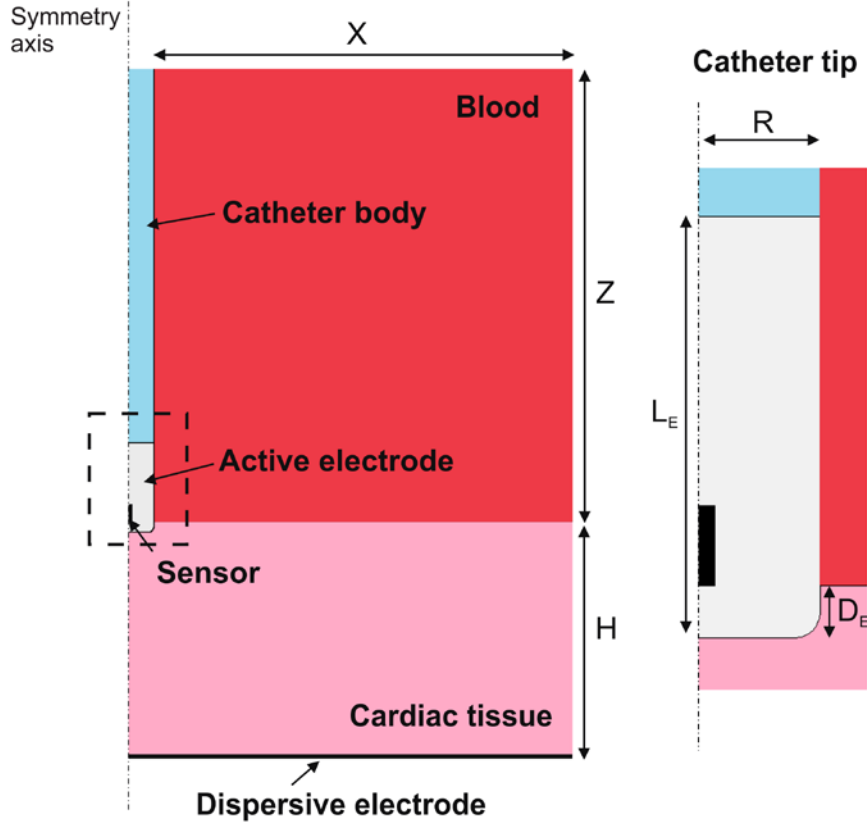
\* $\sigma$ : electric conductivity;  $k$ : thermal conductivity;  $\rho$ : density;  $c$ : specific heat. These terms

were varied according to Table 2.

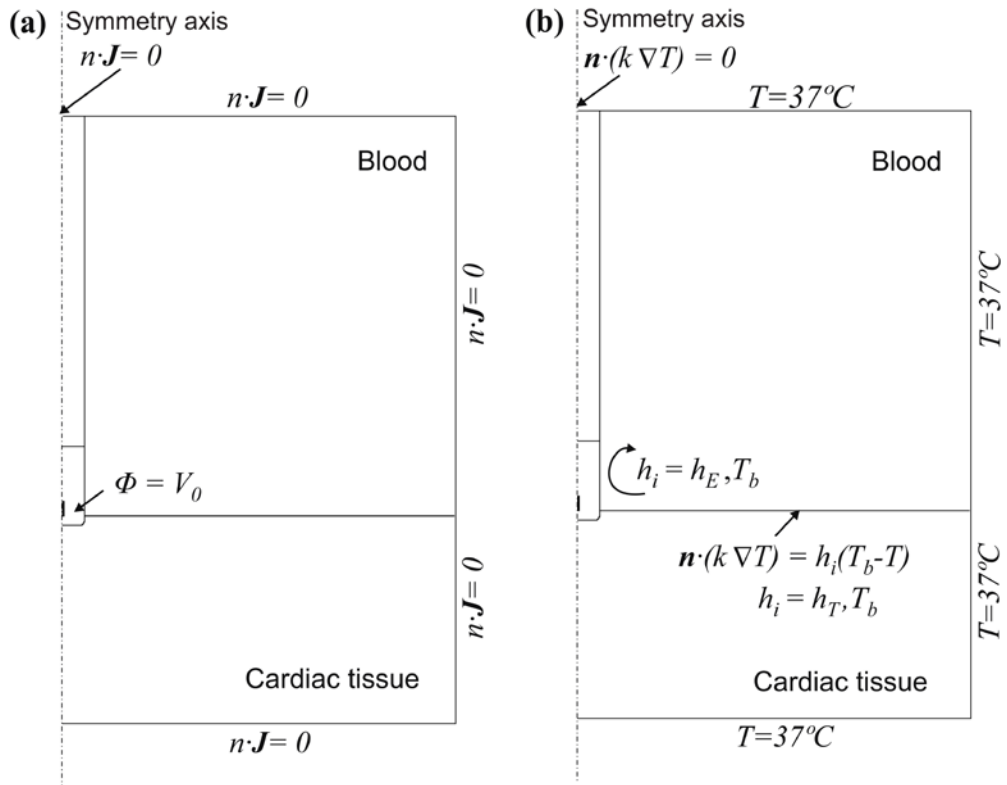
**Table 2.** Range of variation of the model parameters.

<b>Parameter</b>		<b>Control</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Ref.</b>
Tissue electrical conductivity	$\sigma_o$ (S/m)	0.381	0.61	0.281	[31,32]
Tissue thermal conductivity	$k_o$ (W/m·K)	0.56	0.60	0.50	[31]
Tissue density	$\rho_l$ (kg/m <sup>3</sup> ) (liquid phase)	1081	1143	1059	[31]
Tissue specific heat	$c_l$ (J/kg·K) (liquid phase)	3686	3724	3614	[31]
Thermal convective coefficient at the tissue-blood interface	$h_T$ (W/m <sup>2</sup> K)	110	121	99	
Thermal convective coefficient at the electrode-blood interface	$h_E$ (W/m <sup>2</sup> K)	1234	1357	1111	
Target temperature	$T_{target}$ (°C)	70	80	60	

Tissue characteristics were considered to be at 37°C.

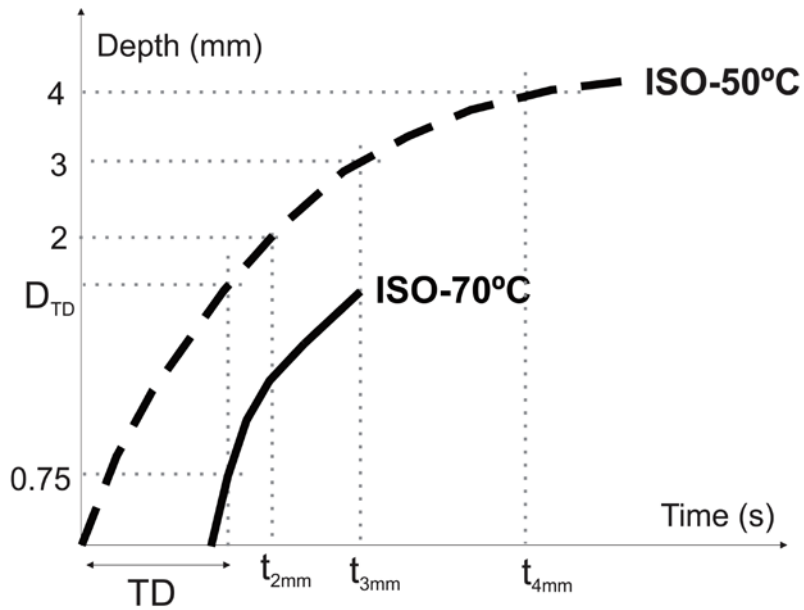


**Figure 1** Geometry of the computational model and detail of the electrode tip. Dimensions  $X$  and  $Z$  ( $X=Z=40$  mm) were checked to validate their sufficiency and avoid boundary problems.  $H$ : Thickness of cardiac tissue (20 mm),  $D_E$ : insertion depth of the electrode in the tissue ( $D_E=0.5$  mm),  $L_E$ : electrode length ( $L_E=4$  mm),  $R$ : catheter radius ( $R=1.165$  mm). A temperature sensor ( $0.75 \times 0.3$  mm black rectangle) was assumed to be embedded in the electrode in order to simulate a constant temperature protocol.

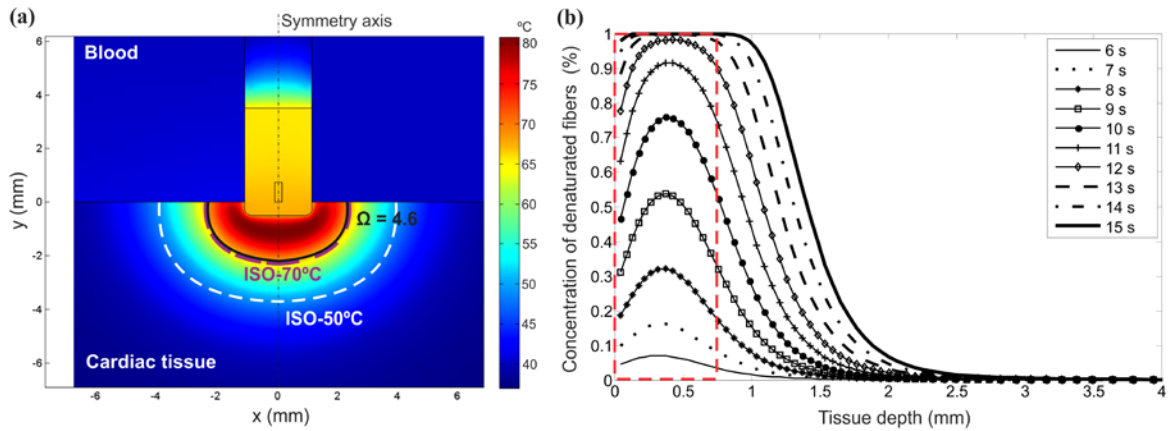


**Figure 2** Electrical (a) and thermal (b) boundary conditions of the model.  $h_E$  and  $h_T$  are the thermal convection coefficients at the electrode–blood and the tissue–blood interfaces, respectively.

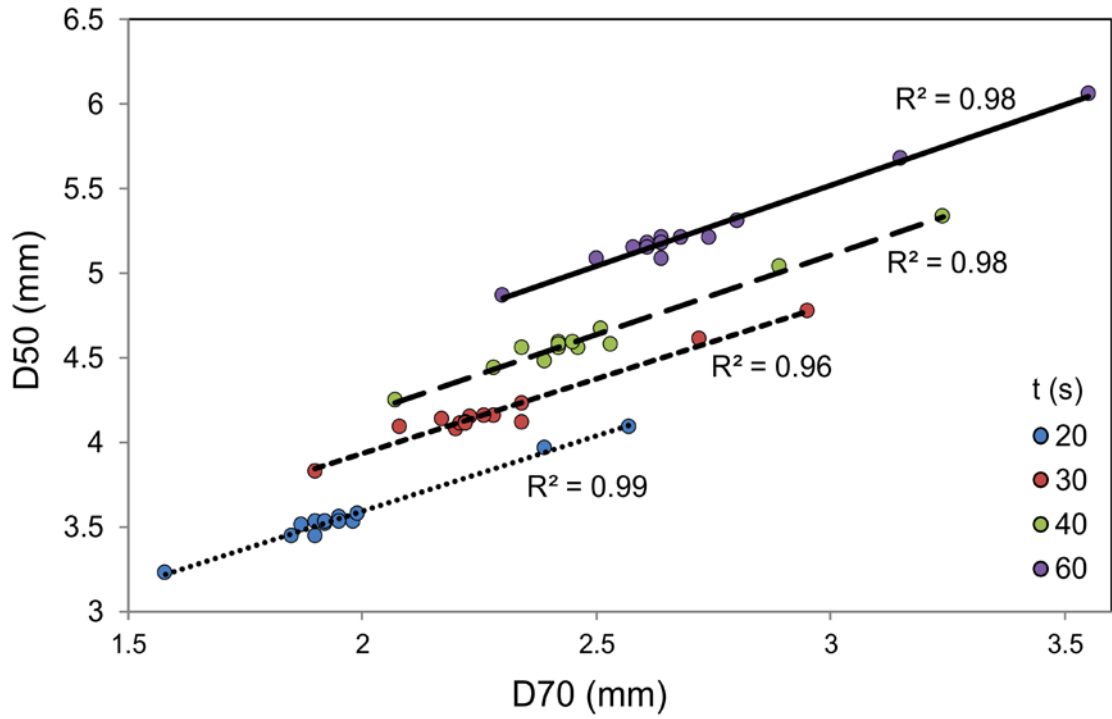




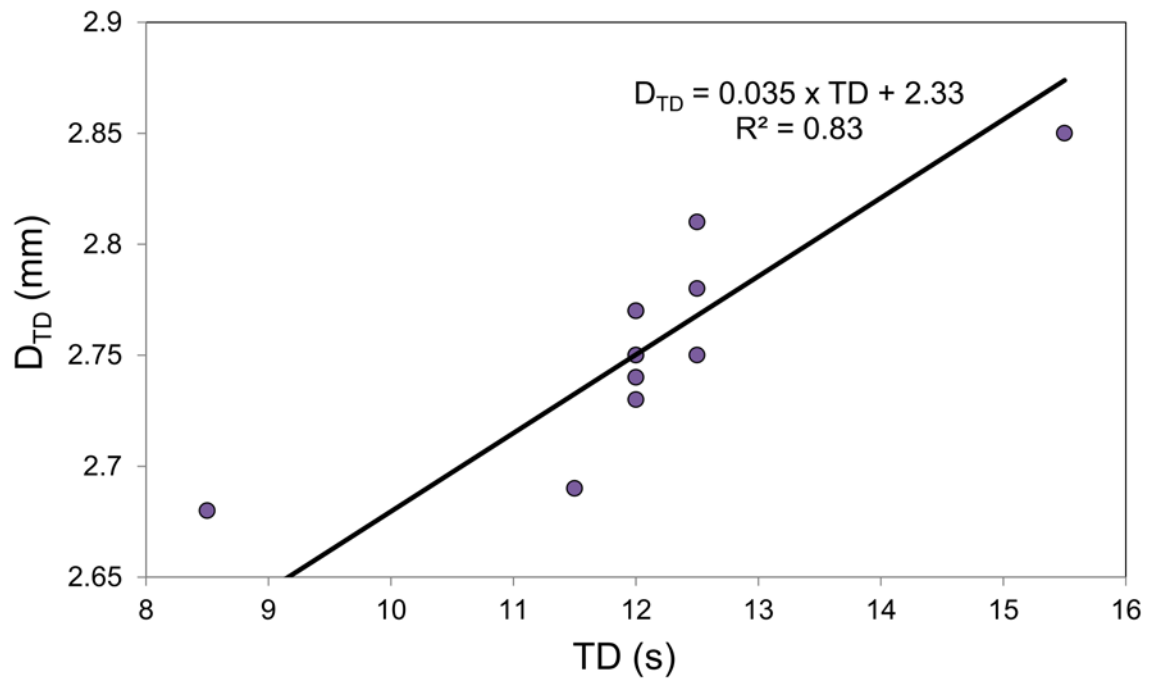
**Figure 3** Our hypothesis was that there is a relationship between the progress of the thermal lesion depth assessed by the 50°C isotherm (dashed line ISO-50°C) and the change in fiber birefringence assessed by the 70°C isotherm, (solid line ISO-70°C). The objective was to obtain mathematical relationships between the denaturation time (TD, the time when the birefringence change measured by PS-ORC is detected at a depth of 0.75 mm) and the time required for the thermal lesion to reach a specific depth of 2, 3 or 4 mm ( $t_{2\text{mm}}$ ,  $t_{3\text{mm}}$  and  $t_{4\text{mm}}$ ).



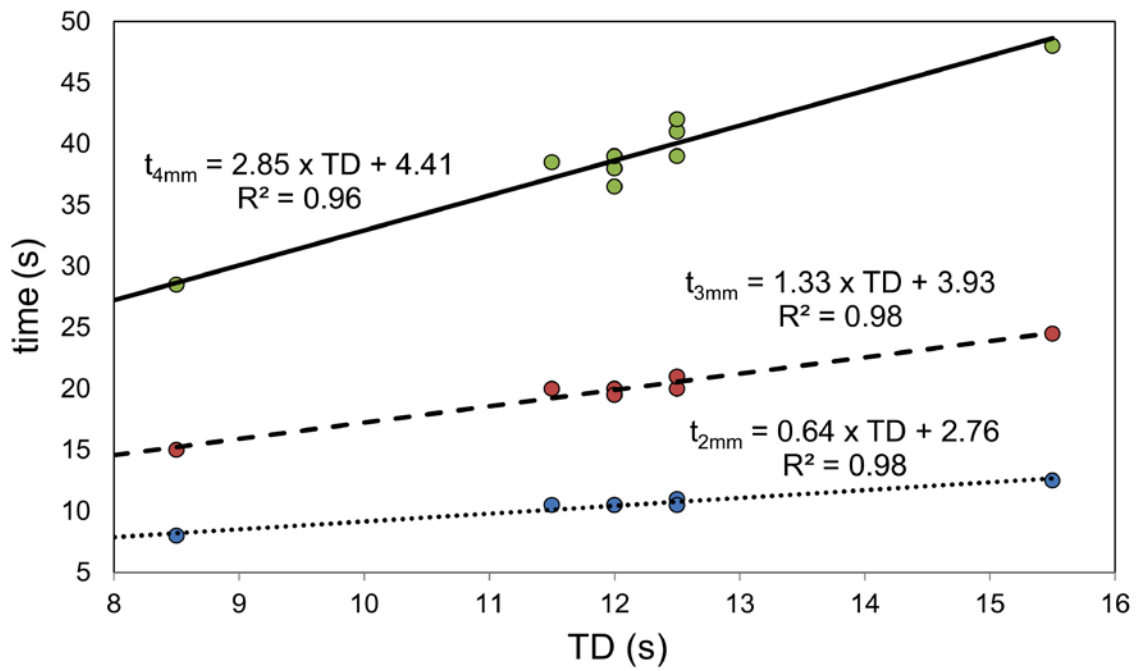
**Figure 4** (a) Spatial temperature distribution around the ablation electrode at 15 s obtained from the computer model. The purple dashed line represents the 70°C isotherm marking loss of birefringence by fiber denaturation. The white dashed line represents the 50°C isotherm marking the onset of irreversible thermal damage. The black line is the contour of the zone representing a 99% probability of cell death ( $\Omega=4.6$ ). (b) Time course of the percentage of denatured fibers in the tissue across the symmetry axis  $y$ . The dashed box shows the spatial window detected by PS-OCR (0–0.75 mm). Note that complete fiber denaturation occurs at around 12 s of RF ablation.



**Figure 5** Relationship between the depths of the 50°C and 70°C isotherms (D50 and D70, respectively) at different times (from 20 to 60 s).



**Figure 6** Relationship between the time at which the 70°C isotherm reaches a depth of 0.75 mm (TD, denaturation time) and thermal lesion depth at that time (D<sub>TD</sub>).



**Figure 7** Relationship between the time when ISO-70°C reaches a depth of 0.75 mm (TD) and the time required to achieve a lesion depth of 2 mm, 3 mm and 4 mm ( $t_{2mm}$ ,  $t_{3mm}$  and  $t_{4mm}$ ).