

2016 ESC Guidelines for the management of atrial fibrillation developed in collaboration with EACTS

Kirchhof, Paulus; Benussi, Stefano; Kotecha, Dipak; Ahlsson, Anders; Atar, Dan; Casadei, Barbara; Castella, Manuel; Diener, Hans-Christoph; Heidbuchel, Hein; Hendriks, Jeroen; Hindricks, Gerhard; Manolis, Antonis S.; Oldgren, Jonas; Popescu, Bogdan Alexandru; Schotten, Ulrich; Van Putte, Bart; Vardas, Panagiotis; Agewall, Stefan; Camm, John; Baron Esquivias, Gonzalo

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2016 ESC Guidelines for the management of atrial fibrillation developed in collaboration with EACTS

The Task Force for the management of atrial fibrillation of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC)

Developed with the special contribution of the European Heart Rhythm Association (EHRA) of the ESC

Endorsed by the European Stroke Organisation (ESO)

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180	Abbreviations and acronyms	
181	ABC	age, biomarkers, clinical history
182	ACE	angiotensin-converting enzyme
183	ACS	acute coronary syndromes
184	AF	atrial fibrillation
185	AFFIRM	Atrial Fibrillation Follow-up Investigation of Rhythm Management
186	AFNET	German Competence NETwork on Atrial Fibrillation
187	AHRE	atrial high rate episodes
188	ARB	angiotensin receptor blocker
189	ARISTOTLE	Apixaban for Reduction in Stroke and Other Thromboembolic Events in Atrial Fibrillation
190	ARNI	angiotensin receptor neprilysin inhibition
191	ATRIA	AnTicoagulation and Risk factors In Atrial fibrillation
192	AXAFA	Anticoagulation using the direct factor Xa inhibitor apixaban during Atrial Fibrillation
193		catheter Ablation: Comparison to vitamin K antagonist therapy
194	BAFTA	Birmingham Atrial Fibrillation Treatment of the Aged Study
195	BMI	body mass index
196	bpm	beats per minute
197	CABANA	Catheter Ablation versus Antiarrhythmic Drug Therapy for Atrial Fibrillation Trial
198	CAD	coronary artery disease
199	CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VASc	Congestive Heart failure, hypertension, Age ≥ 75 (doubled), Diabetes, Stroke (doubled), Vascular disease, Age 65–74, and Sex (female)
200		
201	CHADS ₂	Cardiac failure, Hypertension, Age, Diabetes, Stroke (Doubled)
202	CI	confidence interval
203	CKD	chronic kidney disease
204	CrCl	creatinine clearance
205	CT	computed tomography
206	DIG	Digitalis Investigation Group
207	EACTS	European Association for Cardio-Thoracic Surgery
208	EAST	Early treatment of Atrial fibrillation for Stroke prevention Trial
209	ECG	electrocardiogram/electrocardiography
210	EHRA	European Heart Rhythm Association
211	ENGAGE AF-TIMI 48	Effective Anticoagulation with Factor Xa Next Generation in Atrial Fibrillation–Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction 48
212		
213	EORP	EURObservational Research Programme
214	FAST	Atrial Fibrillation Catheter Ablation vs Surgical Ablation Treatment
215	FEV1	forced expiratory volume in 1 second
216	GDF-15	growth differentiation factor 15
217	GFR	glomerular filtration rate
218	GFR	glomerular filtration rate
219	GUCH	grown up congenital heart disease
220	HARMONY	A Study to Evaluate the Effect of Ranolazine and Dronedarone When Given Alone and in Combination in Patients With Paroxysmal Atrial Fibrillation
221		
222	HAS-BLED	hypertension, abnormal renal/liver function (1 point each), stroke, bleeding history or predisposition, labile INR, elderly (>65 years), drugs/alcohol concomitantly (1 point each)
223		
224	HFmrEF	heart failure with mid-range ejection fraction
225	HFpEF	heart failure with preserved ejection fraction
226	HFrfEF	heart failure with reduced ejection fraction
227	HR	hazard ratio
228	INR	international normalized ratio
229	LA	left atrium/atrial
230	LAA	left atrial appendage
231	LAAOS	Left Atrial Appendage Occlusion Study
232	LV	left ventricular
233	LVEF	left ventricular ejection fraction
234	LVH	left ventricular hypertrophy
235	MANTRA-PAF	Medical ANtiarrhythmic Treatment or Radiofrequency Ablation in Paroxysmal Atrial Fibrillation
236		
237	MERLIN	Metabolic Efficiency With Ranolazine for Less Ischemia in Non ST-Elevation Acute Coronary Syndrome
238		
239	MRI	magnetic resonance imaging

240	NOAC	non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulant
241	NYHA	New York Heart Association
242	OAC	oral anticoagulation/oral anticoagulant
243	OR	odds ratio
244	ORBIT	Outcomes Registry for Better Informed Treatment of Atrial Fibrillation
245	PCI	percutaneous coronary intervention
246	PREVAIL	Prospective Randomized Evaluation of the Watchman LAA Closure Device In Patients with AF Versus Long Term Warfarin Therapy trial
247		
248	PROTECT AF	Watchman Left Atrial Appendage System for Embolic Protection in Patients With AF trial
249	PVI	pulmonary vein isolation
250	RACE	Rate Control Efficacy in Permanent Atrial Fibrillation
251	RATE-AF	Rate Control Therapy Evaluation in Permanent Atrial Fibrillation
252	RCT	randomized controlled trial
253	RE-CIRCUIT	Randomized Evaluation of dabigatran etexilate Compared to warfarin in pulmonaRy vein ablation: assessment of different peri-proCedUral anticoagulation sTrategies
254		
255	RE-LY	Randomized Evaluation of Long-Term Anticoagulation Therapy
256	ROCKET-AF	Rivaroxaban Once Daily Oral Direct Factor Xa Inhibition Compared with Vitamin K Antagonism for Prevention of Stroke and Embolism Trial in Atrial Fibrillation
257		
258	RR	risk ratio
259	SD	standard deviation
260	SPAF	Stroke Prevention in Atrial Fibrillation
261	TIA	transient ischaemic attack
262	TIMI	Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction
263	TOE	transoesophageal echocardiography
264	TTR	time in therapeutic range
265	UFH	unfractionated heparin
266	US	United States
267	VKA	vitamin K antagonist
268	WOEST	What is the Optimal antiplatElet and anticoagulant therapy in patients with oral anticoagulation and coronary StenTing
269		
270	WPW	Wolff-Parkinson-White syndrome
271		
272		

1 Preamble

Guidelines summarize and evaluate all available evidence on a particular issue at the time of the writing process, with the aim of assisting health professionals in selecting the best management strategies for an individual patient with a given condition, taking into account the impact on outcome, as well as the risk–benefit ratio of particular diagnostic or therapeutic means. Guidelines and recommendations should help health professionals to make decisions in their daily practice. However, the final decisions concerning an individual patient must be made by the responsible health professional(s) in consultation with the patient and caregiver as appropriate.

A great number of Guidelines have been issued in recent years by the European Society of Cardiology (ESC) and by the European Association for Cardio-Thoracic Surgery (EACTS), as well as by other societies and organisations. Because of the impact on clinical practice, quality criteria for the development of guidelines have been established in order to make all decisions transparent to the user. The recommendations for formulating and issuing ESC Guidelines can be found on the ESC website (<http://www.escardio.org/Guidelines-&-Education/Clinical-Practice-Guidelines/Guidelines-development/Writing-ESC-Guidelines>). ESC Guidelines represent the official position of the ESC on a given topic and are regularly updated.

Members of this Task Force were selected by the ESC, including representation from the European Heart Rhythm Association (EHRA), and EACTS as well as by the European Stroke Organisation (ESO) to represent professionals involved with the medical care of patients with this pathology. Selected experts in the field undertook a comprehensive review of the published evidence for management (including diagnosis, treatment, prevention and rehabilitation) of a given condition according to ESC Committee for Practice Guidelines (CPG) policy and approved by the EACTS and ESO. A critical evaluation of diagnostic and therapeutic procedures was performed, including assessment of the risk–benefit ratio. Estimates of expected health outcomes for larger populations were included, where data exist. The level of evidence and the strength of the recommendation of particular management options were weighed and graded according to predefined scales, as outlined in *Tables 1* and *2*.

The experts of the writing and reviewing panels provided declaration of interest forms for all relationships that might be perceived as real or potential sources of conflicts of interest. These forms were compiled into one file and can be found on the ESC website (<http://www.escardio.org/guidelines>). Any changes in declarations of interest that arise during the writing period must be notified to the ESC and EACTS and updated. The Task Force received its entire financial support from the ESC and EACTS without any involvement from the healthcare industry.

The ESC CPG supervises and coordinates the preparation of new Guidelines produced by task forces, expert groups or consensus panels. The Committee is also responsible for the endorsement process of these Guidelines. The ESC Guidelines undergo extensive review by the CPG and external experts, and in this case by EACTS and ESO-appointed experts. After appropriate revisions the Guidelines are approved by all the experts involved in the Task Force. The finalized document is approved by the CPG, EACTS and ESO for publication in the *European Heart Journal*, *Europace*, and in the *European Journal of Cardio-Thoracic Surgery* as well as in the *International Journal of Stroke (TBC)*. The Guidelines were developed after careful consideration of the scientific and medical knowledge and the evidence available at the time of their dating.

The task of developing ESC and EACTS Guidelines covers not only integration of the most recent research, but also the creation of educational tools and implementation programmes for the recommendations. To implement the guidelines, condensed pocket guideline versions, summary slides, booklets with essential messages, summary cards for non-specialists and an electronic version for digital applications (smartphones, etc.) are produced. These versions are abridged and thus, if needed, one should always refer to the full text version, which is freely available on the ESC website. The National Societies of the ESC are encouraged to endorse, translate and implement all ESC Guidelines. Implementation programmes are needed because it has been shown that the outcome of disease may be favourably influenced by the thorough application of clinical recommendations.

Surveys and registries are needed to verify that real-life daily practice is in keeping with what is recommended in the guidelines, thus completing the loop between clinical research, writing of guidelines, disseminating them and implementing them into clinical practice.

Health professionals are encouraged to take the ESC and EACTS Guidelines fully into account when exercising their clinical judgment, as well as in the determination and the implementation of preventive, diagnostic or therapeutic medical strategies. However, the ESC and EACTS Guidelines do not override in any way whatsoever the individual responsibility of health professionals to make appropriate and accurate decisions in consideration of each patient's health condition and in consultation with that patient and the patient's caregiver where appropriate and/or necessary. It is also the health professional's responsibility to verify the rules and regulations applicable to drugs and devices at the time of prescription.

333 **Table 1** Classes of recommendations

Table 1: Classes of Recommendations		
Classes of Recommendations	Definition	Suggested wording to use
Class I	Evidence and/or general agreement that a given treatment or procedure is beneficial, useful, effective.	Is recommended/is indicated
Class II	Conflicting evidence and/or a divergence of opinion about the usefulness/efficacy of the given treatment or procedure.	
Class IIa	Weight of evidence/opinion is in favour of usefulness/efficacy.	Should be considered
Class IIb	Usefulness/efficacy is less well established by evidence/opinion.	May be considered
Class III	Evidence or general agreement that the given treatment or procedure is not useful/effective, and in some cases may be harmful.	Is not recommended

334
335
336 **Table 2** Levels of evidence

Level of Evidence A	Data derived from multiple randomized clinical trials or meta-analyses.
Level of Evidence B	Data derived from a single randomized clinical trial or large non-randomized studies.
Level of Evidence C	Consensus of opinion of the experts and/or small studies, retrospective studies, registries.

337
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339
340 **2 Introduction**

341 Despite good progress in the management of patients with atrial fibrillation (AF), this arrhythmia remains one of
342 the major causes of stroke, heart failure, sudden death, and cardiovascular morbidity in the world. Furthermore,
343 the number of patients with AF is predicted to rise steeply in the coming years. To meet the growing demand for
344 effective care of patients with AF, new information is continually generated and published, and the last few
345 years have seen substantial progress. It therefore seems timely to publish this 2nd edition of the ESC guidelines
346 on AF.

347
348 Reflecting the multidisciplinary input into the management of patients with AF, the Task Force includes
349 cardiologists with varying subspecialty expertise, cardiac surgeons, stroke neurologists, and specialist nurses
350 amongst its members. Supplementing the evidence review as outlined in the preamble, this task force identified
351 three PICOT questions on relevant topics for the guideline. The ESC commissioned external systematic reviews
352 to answer these three questions. These reviews informed specific recommendations.

353
354 Further to adhering to the standards for generating recommendations that is common to all ESC guidelines (see
355 preamble), this task force discussed each draft recommendation during web-based conference calls dedicated to
356 specific chapters, followed by consensus modifications and an online vote on each recommendation. Only
357 recommendations that were supported by at least 75% of the task force members were included in the guideline.

358
359 We hope that this guideline will help to deliver good care to all patients with AF based on the current state-of-
360 the-art evidence in 2016.

361
362 **3 Epidemiology and impact for patients**

3.1. Incidence and prevalence of atrial fibrillation

In 2010, the estimated numbers of men and women with atrial fibrillation (AF) worldwide were 20.9 million and 12.6 million, respectively, with higher incidence and prevalence rates in developed countries.^{1,2} One in four middle-aged adults in Europe and the United States (US) will develop AF.³⁻⁵ By 2030, 14–17 million AF patients are anticipated in the European Union, with 120,000–215,000 newly diagnosed patients per year.^{2,6,7} Estimates suggest an AF prevalence of approximately 3% in adults age 20 years or older,^{8,9} with more AF in elderly persons¹ and in patients with conditions such as hypertension, heart failure, coronary artery disease (CAD), valvular heart disease, diabetes mellitus, and chronic kidney disease (CKD).^{7,10-15} The increase in AF prevalence can be attributed to better detection of silent AF¹⁶⁻¹⁸ and increasing age and conditions predisposing to AF.¹⁹

3.2. Morbidity, mortality, and healthcare burden of atrial fibrillation

AF is independently associated with a twofold increased risk of all-cause mortality in women and a 1.5-fold increase in men²⁰⁻²² (Table 3). Death due to stroke can largely be mitigated by anticoagulation, while other cardiovascular deaths, for example due to heart failure and sudden death, remain common even in AF patients treated according to the current evidence-base.²³ AF is also associated with increased morbidity, such as heart failure and stroke.^{21,24,25} Contemporary studies show that 20–30% of patients with an ischaemic stroke have AF diagnosed before, during, or after the initial event.^{17,26,27} White matter lesions in the brain, cognitive impairment,²⁸⁻³⁰ decreased quality of life,^{31,32} and depressed mood³³ are common in AF patients, and between 10% and 40% of AF patients are hospitalized each year.^{23,34,35}

The direct costs of AF already amount to approximately 1% of total healthcare spending in the UK, and between \$6.0 and \$26.0 billion in the US for 2008,^{36,37} driven by AF-related complications (e.g. stroke) and AF-related treatment costs (e.g. hospitalizations). These costs will increase dramatically unless AF is prevented and treated in a timely and effective manner.

Table 3 Cardiovascular morbidity and mortality associated with AF

Event	Association with AF
Death	Increased mortality, especially cardiovascular mortality due to sudden death, heart failure, or stroke
Stroke	20–30% of all strokes are due to AF. A growing number of patients with stroke are diagnosed with ‘silent’, paroxysmal AF
Hospitalizations	10–40% of AF patients are hospitalized every year
Quality of life	Quality of life is impaired in AF patients independent of other cardiovascular conditions
LV dysfunction and heart failure	LV dysfunction is found in 20–30% of all AF patients. AF causes or aggravates LV dysfunction in many AF patients, while others have completely preserved LV function despite long-standing AF
Cognitive decline and vascular dementia	Cognitive decline and vascular dementia increase even in anticoagulated patients. Brain white matter lesions are more common in AF patients than in patients without AF

AF = atrial fibrillation; LV = left ventricular.

3.3. Impact of evidence-based management on outcomes in atrial fibrillation patients

Figure 1 depicts the major milestones in the management of AF. Despite these advances, substantial morbidity remains. Oral anticoagulation (OAC) with vitamin K antagonists (VKAs) or non-VKA oral anticoagulants (NOACs) markedly reduces stroke and mortality in AF patients.^{38,39} Other interventions such as rhythm control and rate control improve AF-related symptoms and may preserve cardiac function, but have not demonstrated a reduction in long-term morbidity or mortality.^{40,41}



Figure 1 Timeline of major landmarks in AF management, including treatment of concomitant conditions and prevention (green), anticoagulation (blue), rate and rhythm control (orange and red), and surgical therapy (purple).

ACEi = angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor; AF = atrial fibrillation; ARB = angiotensin receptor blocker; HF = heart failure; HFrEF = heart failure with reduced ejection fraction; LVH = left ventricular hypertrophy; NOAC = non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulant; PUFA = polyunsaturated fatty acid; PVI = pulmonary vein isolation; QoL = quality of life; RACE = Rate Control Efficacy in Permanent Atrial Fibrillation; RF = radiofrequency; SR = sinus rhythm; VKA = vitamin K antagonist.

In contemporary, well-controlled, randomized clinical trials in AF, the average annual stroke rate is about 1.5% and the annualized death rate is around 3%.⁴⁰ In real life, the annual mortality can be different (both higher and lower).⁴² A minority of these deaths are related to stroke, while sudden cardiac death and death from progressive heart failure are more frequent, emphasizing the need for interventions beyond anticoagulation.^{43, 44} Furthermore, AF is also associated with high rates of hospitalization, commonly for AF management, but often also for heart failure, myocardial infarction, and treatment-associated bleeding.^{34, 45}

3.4. Gender

In both developed and developing countries, the age-adjusted incidence and prevalence of AF are lower in women, while the risk of death in women with AF is similar to or higher than that in men with AF.^{1, 46, 47} Female AF patients who have additional stroke risk factors (particularly older age) are also at greater risk than men of having a stroke,^{48, 49} even those anticoagulated with warfarin⁵⁰ (see Chapter 8 for details). Women with diagnosed AF can be more symptomatic than men and are typically older with more comorbidities.^{51, 52} Bleeding risk on anticoagulation is similar in both sexes,^{49, 50, 53} but women appear less likely to receive specialist care and rhythm control therapy,⁵⁴ while the outcomes of catheter ablation or AF surgery are comparable to those in men.^{55, 56} These observations highlight the need to offer effective diagnostic tools and therapeutic management equally in women and men.

Recommendations relating to gender

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
AF clinicians must offer effective diagnostic tools and therapeutic management to women and men equally to prevent stroke and death	I	A	39, 46, 57
Catheter or surgical ablation techniques should be regarded as equally effective in women and men	Ila	B	55, 56

428 AF = atrial fibrillation

429 ^aClass of recommendation.

430 ^bLevel of evidence.

431 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

432

433 **4 Pathophysiological and genetic aspects that guide management**

434 **4.1. Genetic predisposition**

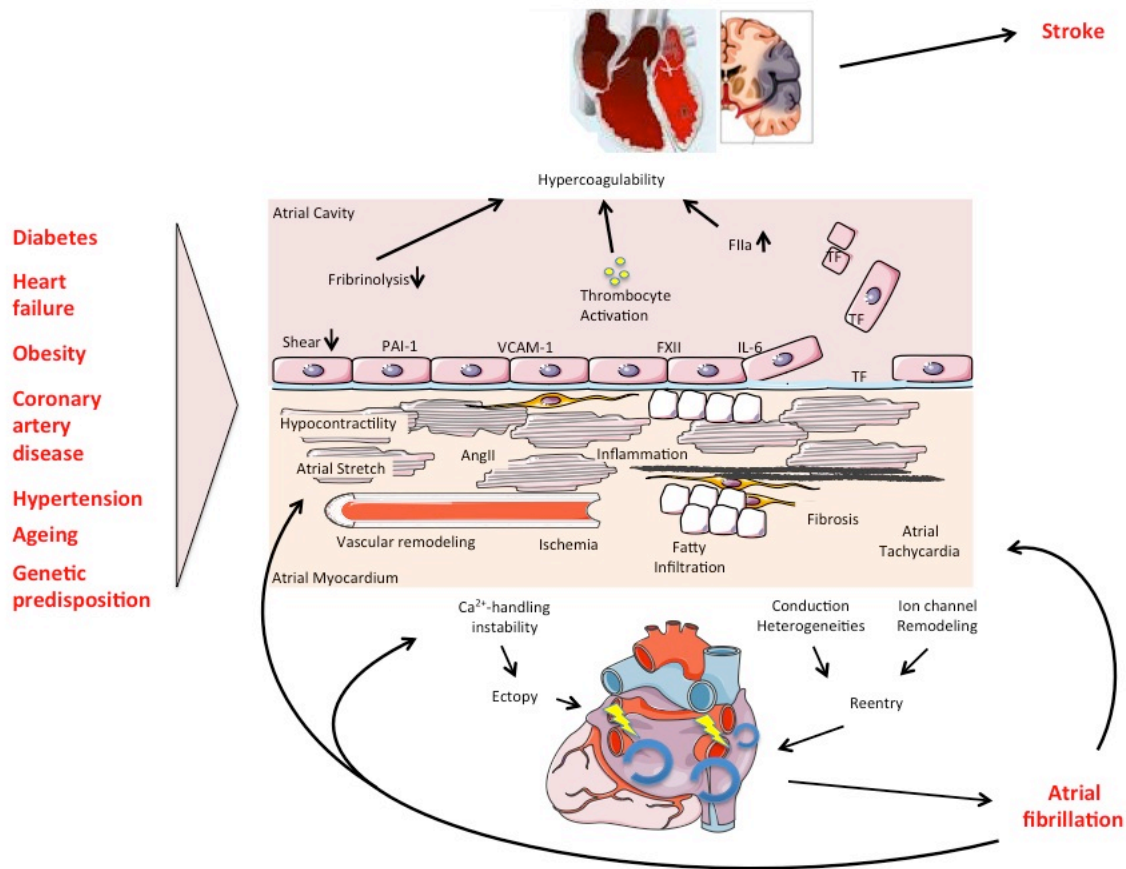
435 AF, especially early-onset AF, has a strong heritable component, independent of concomitant cardiovascular
 436 conditions.^{58,59} A few young AF patients suffer from inherited cardiomyopathies or channelopathies mediated
 437 by disease-causing mutations. These monogenic diseases also convey a risk for sudden death (see Chapter 5).
 438 Up to one-third of AF patients carry common genetic variants that predispose to AF, albeit with a relatively low
 439 added risk. At least 14 of these common variants, often single nucleotide polymorphisms, are known to increase
 440 the risk of prevalent AF in populations.⁶⁰⁻⁶² The most important variants are located close to the paired-like
 441 homeodomain transcription factor 2 gene on chromosome 4q25.^{63,64} These variants modify the risk of AF up to
 442 sevenfold.⁶⁴ Several of the AF risk variants are also associated with cardioembolic or ischaemic stroke, possibly
 443 due to silent AF (see section 4.1).^{62,65,66} Changes in atrial action potential characteristics,⁶⁷⁻⁷⁰ atrial remodelling,
 444 and modified penetration of rare gene defects⁶¹ have been suggested as potential mechanisms mediating
 445 increased AF risk in carriers of common gene variants. Genetic variants could in the future become useful for
 446 patient selection of rhythm control strategies,⁷¹⁻⁷³ but it is currently unknown whether common gene variants
 447 differentially affect the efficacy of antiarrhythmic drugs or rate control medication.⁷⁴ While genomic analysis
 448 may provide an opportunity to improve diagnosis and management of AF in the future,^{75,76} routine genetic
 449 testing for common gene variants associated with AF cannot be recommended at present.⁷⁷
 450

451 **4.2. Mechanisms leading to atrial fibrillation**

452 **4.2.1. Remodelling of atrial structure and ion channel function**

453 External stressors such as structural heart disease, hypertension, possibly diabetes, but also AF itself induce a
 454 slow but progressive process of structural remodelling in the atria (*Figure 2*). Activation of fibroblasts,
 455 enhanced connective tissue deposition, and fibrosis are the hallmarks of this process.⁷⁸⁻⁸⁰ In addition, atrial fatty
 456 infiltration, inflammatory infiltrates, myocyte hypertrophy, necrosis, and amyloidosis are found in AF patients
 457 with concomitant conditions predisposing to AF.⁸¹⁻⁸⁴ Structural remodelling results in electrical dissociation
 458 between muscle bundles and local conduction heterogeneities,⁸⁵ favouring reentry and perpetuation of the
 459 arrhythmia.⁸⁶ In many patients, the structural remodelling process occurs before the onset of AF.⁷⁸ As some of
 460 the structural remodelling will be irreversible, early initiation of treatment seems desirable.⁸⁷ *Table 4* gives an
 461 overview of the most relevant pathophysiological alterations in atrial tissue associated with AF, and lists
 462 corresponding clinical conditions that can contribute to these changes.

463 The functional and structural changes in atrial myocardium and stasis of blood, especially in the left
 464 atrial appendage (LAA), generate a prothrombotic milieu. Furthermore, even short episodes of AF lead to
 465 myocardial damage and expression of prothrombotic factors on the atrial endothelial surface, and activation of
 466 platelets and inflammatory cells, and contribute to a generalized prothrombotic state.^{88,89} The atrial and
 467 systemic activation of the coagulation system can partially explain why short episodes of AF convey a long-
 468 term stroke risk.



469
470

471 **Figure 2** Major mechanisms causing AF that can be considered when guiding therapy. The various aetiological
 472 factors (left) cause a complex array of pathophysiological changes in the atria, including stretch-induced atrial
 473 fibrosis, hypocontractility, fatty infiltration, inflammation, vascular remodelling, ischaemia, ion channel
 474 dysfunction, and Ca²⁺-instability. These changes enhance both ectopy and conduction disturbances, increasing
 475 the propensity of the atria to develop or maintain AF. At the same time, some of these alterations are involved in
 476 the occurrence of the hypercoagulable state associated with AF. For example, hypocontractility reduces local
 477 endothelial shear stress, which increases PAI-1 expression, and ischaemia-induced inflammation enhances the
 478 expression of endothelial adhesion molecules or promotes shedding of endothelial cells, resulting in tissue factor
 479 exposure to the blood stream. These changes contribute to the thrombogenic milieu in the atria of AF patients.
 480 AF in itself can aggravate many of the mechanisms shown, which may explain the progressive nature of the
 481 arrhythmia.
 482 AngII = angiotensin II; TF = tissue factor; FXII = factor XII; IL-6 = interleukin 6; PAI-1 = plasminogen
 483 activator inhibitor 1; VCAM-1 = vascular cell adhesion molecule 1.

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Table 4 Pathophysiological alterations in atrial tissue associated with AF and clinical conditions that could contribute to such alterations

Pathophysiological alteration	Clinical conditions contributing to the alteration	Proarrhythmic mechanism/functional consequence	References
<i>Changes of the extracellular matrix, fibroblast function, and fat cells</i>			
Interstitial and replacement fibrosis	AF (especially forms with a high AF burden), hypertension, heart failure, valvular heart disease (via pressure and volume overload)	Electrical dissociation, conduction block, enhanced AF complexity	78, 79, 90, 91
Inflammatory infiltration		Profibrotic responses, enhanced AF complexity	81
Fatty infiltration	Obesity (fatty infiltration)	Profibrotic/proinflammatory responses, localized conduction	82, 92

Amyloid deposition	Ageing, heart failure, CAD (via atrial scarring), genetic factors	block Conduction disturbances	83, 93
<i>Ion channel alterations</i>			
Ion channel remodelling	AF (especially forms with a high AF burden), genetic predisposition to AF	AF cycle shortening (if due to atrial tachycardia), AF cycle length prolongation (if due to heart failure), enhanced heterogeneity of atrial repolarization	94-96
Ca ²⁺ handling instability	AF (especially forms with a high AF burden), possibly heart failure and hypertension (possibly through increased sympathetic activation)	Enhanced propensity to ectopy	97, 98
Gap-junction redistribution	AF	Conduction disturbances	99
<i>Myocyte alterations</i>			
Apoptosis and necrosis	CAD, heart failure (through cardiomyocyte death and atrial scarring)	May induce replacement fibrosis	100
Myocyte hypertrophy	Atrial dilatation, AF	Aggravates conduction disturbances	84, 101
<i>Endothelial and vascular alterations</i>			
Microvascular changes	Atherosclerosis, CAD and peripheral artery disease, possibly AF	Aggravation of atrial ischaemia, heterogeneity of electrical function, structural remodelling	102
Endocardial remodelling		Enhanced risk for thrombus formation	103, 104
<i>Changes of the autonomic nervous system</i>			
Sympathetic hyperinnervation	Heart failure, hypertension	Enhanced propensity to ectopy	80, 105

488 AF = atrial fibrillation; CAD = coronary artery disease.

489

490 3.2.1. Electrophysiological mechanisms of atrial fibrillation

491 AF provokes a shortening of the atrial refractory period and AF cycle length during the first days of the
 492 arrhythmia, largely due to downregulation of the Ca²⁺-inward current and upregulation of inward rectifier K⁺
 493 currents.^{94, 95} Structural heart disease, in contrast, tends to prolong the atrial refractory period, illustrating the
 494 heterogeneous nature of mechanisms that cause AF in different patients.⁹⁶ Hyperphosphorylation of various
 495 Ca²⁺ handling proteins may contribute to enhanced spontaneous Ca²⁺ release events and triggered activity,^{97, 98}
 496 thus causing ectopy and promoting AF. Although the concept of Ca²⁺ handling instability has been challenged
 497 recently,^{106, 107} it may mediate AF in structurally remodelled atria and explain how altered autonomic tone can
 498 generate AF.^{80, 105}

499

500 ***Focal initiation and maintenance of AF:*** The seminal observation by Haissaguerre et al¹⁰⁸ was that a focal
 501 source in the pulmonary veins can trigger AF, and ablation of this source can extinguish the arrhythmia. The
 502 mechanism of focal activity might involve both triggered activity and localized reentry.^{109, 110} Hierarchic
 503 organization of AF with rapidly activated areas driving the arrhythmia has been documented in patients with
 504 paroxysmal AF,^{111, 112} but is more challenging in patients with persistent AF.¹¹³

505

506 ***The multiple wavelet hypothesis and rotors as sources of AF:*** Moe and Abildskov¹¹⁴ proposed that AF can be
 507 perpetuated by continuous conduction of several independent wavelets propagating through the atrial
 508 musculature in a seemingly chaotic manner. As long as the number of wavefronts does not decline below a
 509 critical level, they will be capable of sustaining the arrhythmia. Numerous experimental and clinical
 510 observations can be reconciled with the multiple wavelet hypothesis.¹¹⁵ All localized sources of AF (ectopic

511 foci, rotors, or other stable reentry circuits) cause fibrillatory conduction remote from the source, which is
512 difficult to distinguish from propagation sustaining AF by multiple wavelets, and either of these phenomena
513 may generate ‘rotors’ picked up by intracardiac^{116,117} or body surface¹¹⁷ recordings.
514
515

516 **5 Diagnosis and timely detection of atrial fibrillation**

517 **5.1. Overt and silent atrial fibrillation**

518 The diagnosis of AF requires rhythm documentation using an electrocardiogram (ECG), with the typical pattern
519 of AF. ECG-documented AF was the entry criterion in trials forming the evidence for these guidelines. By
520 accepted convention, an episode lasting at least 30 seconds is diagnostic. Individuals with AF may be
521 symptomatic or asymptomatic (‘silent AF’). Many AF patients have both symptomatic and asymptomatic
522 episodes of AF.¹¹⁸⁻¹²¹

523 Silent, undetected AF is common,^{120, 122} with severe consequences such as stroke and death.¹²³⁻¹²⁵
524 Prompt recording of an ECG is an effective and cost-effective method to document chronic forms of AF.¹²⁶ The
525 technology to detect paroxysmal, self-terminating AF episodes is rapidly evolving (see Chapter 5 for a
526 definition of AF patterns). There is good evidence that prolonged ECG monitoring enhances the detection of
527 undiagnosed AF, for 72 hours after a stroke,^{27, 127} for even longer periods,^{18, 128} or by daily short-term ECG
528 recording in patients over 75 years of age¹²⁹ (*Web Addenda Figure 1*). Ongoing studies will determine whether
529 such early detection alters management (e.g. initiation of anticoagulation) and improves outcomes.

530 Once the ECG diagnosis of AF has been established, further ECG monitoring can inform management
531 in the context of: (1) a change in symptoms or new symptoms; (2) suspected progression of AF; (3) monitoring
532 of drug effects on ventricular rate; and (4) ECG monitoring of antiarrhythmic drug effects or catheter ablation
533 for rhythm control.
534

535 **5.2. Screening for silent atrial fibrillation**

536 **5.2.1. Screening for atrial fibrillation by electrocardiogram in the community**

537 Undiagnosed AF is common, especially in older populations and in patients with heart failure.¹³⁰ Opportunistic
538 screening for silent AF seems cost-effective in elderly populations (e.g. > 65 years),¹³¹ and similar effects have
539 been reported using single-lead ECG screening in other at-risk populations.^{132, 133} Screening of elderly
540 populations (mean age 64 years) yielded a prevalence of 2.3% for chronic forms of AF in 122,571 participants
541 using either short-term ECG or pulse palpation (followed by ECG in those with an irregular pulse).¹³⁴
542 Previously undiagnosed AF was found in 1.4% of those aged > 65 years, suggesting a number needed to screen
543 of 70. These findings encourage the further evaluation of systematic AF screening programmes in at-risk
544 populations.
545

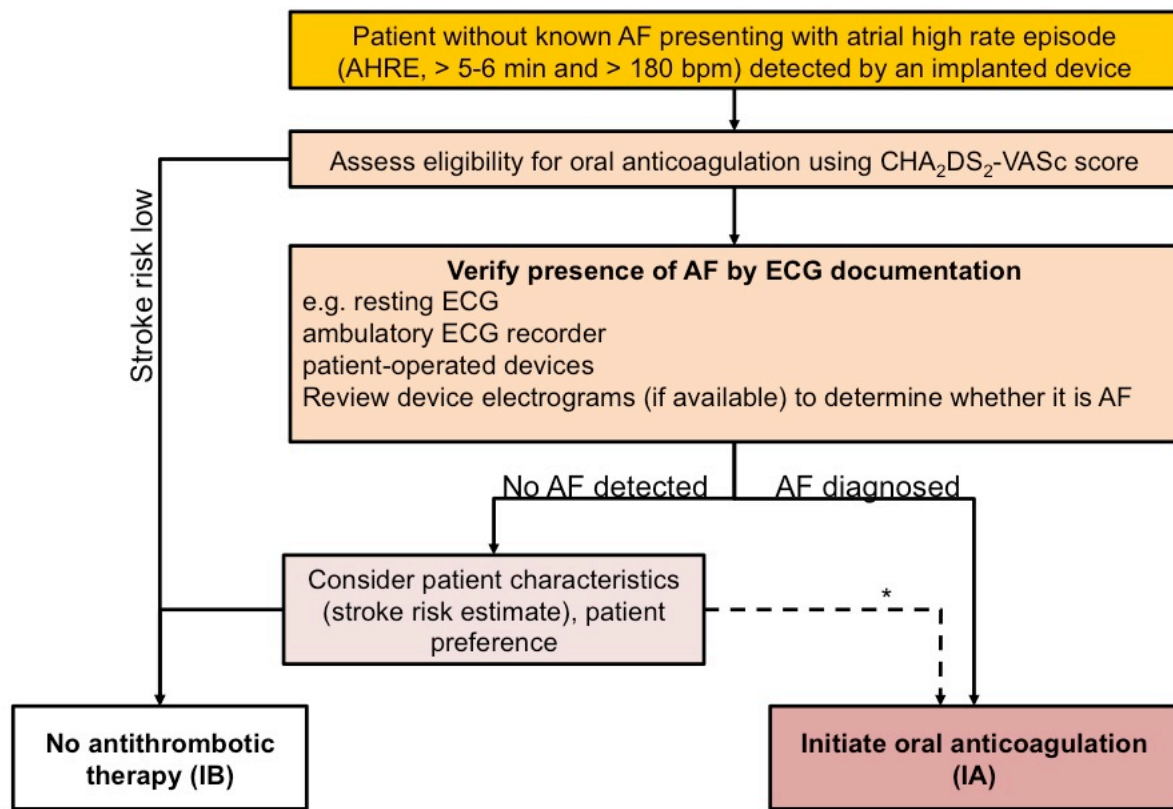
546 **5.2.2. Prolonged monitoring for paroxysmal atrial fibrillation**

547 Paroxysmal AF is often missed.¹²⁰ Repeated daily ECG recordings increased the detection of silent,
548 asymptomatic paroxysmal AF in an unselected Swedish population aged > 75 years.^{120, 135} Several patient-
549 operated devices^{136, 137} and extended continuous ECG monitoring using skin patch recorders¹³⁸ have been
550 validated for detection of paroxysmal AF.¹³⁹ The detection rate of asymptomatic AF by new technologies such
551 as smartphone cases with ECG electrodes, smart watches, and blood pressure machines with AF detection
552 algorithms, has not yet been formally evaluated against an established arrhythmia detection method.¹⁴⁰
553

554 **5.2.3. Patients with pacemakers and implanted devices**

555 Implanted pacemakers or defibrillators with an atrial lead allow continuous monitoring of atrial rhythm. Using
556 this technology, patients with atrial high rate episodes (AHRE) can be identified. Depending on the risk profile
557 of the population studied, such AHRE are detected in 10–15% of pacemaker patients.¹⁴¹ AHRE are associated
558 with an increased risk of overt AF (hazard ratio [HR] 5.56; 95% confidence interval [CI] 3.78–8.17; $P < 0.001$)
559 and ischaemic stroke or systemic embolism (HR 2.49; 95% CI 1.28–4.85; $P = 0.007$). The stroke risk in AHRE
560 patients seems lower than the stroke risk in patients with diagnosed AF, and not all AHRE represent AF.¹⁴²
561 Strokes often occur without AHRE detected within 30 days before the event.¹⁴³⁻¹⁴⁷ Consequently, it is unclear
562 whether AHRE imply the same therapeutic requirements as overt AF,¹⁴⁸ and the benefit of OAC in patients with
563 AHRE is being evaluated in ongoing clinical trials (e.g. ARTESiA [NCT01938248] and NOAH
564 [NCT02618577]). At present, pacemakers and implanted devices should be interrogated on a regular basis for
565 AHRE, and patients with AHRE should undergo further assessment of stroke risk factors and for overt AF,

566 including ECG monitoring (Figure 3).¹⁴⁹



*In rare individual circumstances, oral anticoagulation may be considered in patients with AHRE, but without diagnosed AF. This clearly needs discussion with the patient and careful evaluation of perceived benefit and risk.

567 **Figure 3** Management of AHRE detected on an implanted device. Adapted from the report of the 3rd
568 AFNET/EHRA consensus conference.¹⁵⁰

569 AF = atrial fibrillation; AFNET = German Competence NETwork on Atrial Fibrillation; AHRE = atrial high
570 rate episodes; bpm = beats per minute; CHA₂DS₂-VASc = Congestive Heart failure, hypertension, Age ≥75
571 (doubled), Diabetes, Stroke (doubled), Vascular disease, Age 65–74, and Sex (female); ECG =
572 electrocardiogram; EHRA = European Heart Rhythm Association.
573

574 **5.2.4. Detection of atrial fibrillation in stroke survivors**

576 Sequential stratified ECG monitoring detected AF in 24% (95% CI 17–31) of stroke survivors,¹⁵¹ and in 11.5%
577 (95% CI 8.9%–14.3%) in another meta-analysis,¹⁷ with large variations depending on the timing, duration, and
578 method of monitoring. AF detection is not uncommon in unselected stroke patients (6.2%, 95% CI 4.4–8.3),¹²⁸
579 but is more likely in patients with cryptogenic stroke implanted with loop recorders or who have had ECG
580 monitors for several weeks.^{18, 128, 152} Cryptogenic stroke is defined as a stroke in which the cause could not be
581 identified after extensive investigations.¹⁵³ A broader definition is embolic stroke of undetermined source.¹⁵⁴
582 Several studies have also found AF in patients in whom another competing cause for stroke has been identified
583 clinically (e.g. hypertension or carotid artery stenosis).^{27, 127} Hence, prolonged ECG monitoring seems
584 reasonable in all survivors of an ischaemic stroke without an established diagnosis of AF.
585

586 **Recommendations for screening for AF**

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Opportunistic screening for AF is recommended by pulse taking or ECG rhythm strip in patients > 65 years of age	I	B	130, 134, 155
In patients with TIA or ischaemic stroke, screening for AF is recommended by short-term ECG recording followed by continuous ECG monitoring for at least 72 hours	I	B	27, 127

It is recommended to interrogate pacemakers and ICDs on a regular basis for atrial high rate episodes (AHRE). Patients with AHRE should undergo further ECG monitoring to document AF before initiating AF therapy	I	B	141, 156
In stroke patients, additional ECG monitoring by long-term non-invasive ECG monitors or implanted loop recorders should be considered to document silent AF	IIa	B	18, 128
Systematic ECG screening may be considered to detect AF in patients aged > 75 years, or those at high stroke risk	IIb	B	130, 135, 157

587 AF = atrial fibrillation; AHRE = atrial high rate episodes; ECG = electrocardiogram; ICD = implantable
 588 cardioverter defibrillator; TIA = transient ischaemic attack.

589 ^aClass of recommendation.

590 ^bLevel of evidence.

591 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

592

593 5.3. Electrocardiogram detection of atrial flutter

594 Right atrial isthmus-dependent flutter has a typical ECG pattern and ventricular rate.¹⁵⁸ The prevalence of atrial
 595 flutter is less than one-tenth of the prevalence of AF.¹⁵⁹ Atrial flutter often coexists with or precedes AF.¹⁶⁰ In
 596 typical, isthmus-dependent flutter, P waves will often show a 'saw tooth' morphology, especially in the inferior
 597 leads (II, III, aVF). The ventricular rate can be variable (usual ratio of atrial to ventricular contraction 4:1 to 2:1,
 598 in rare cases 1:1) and macro-reentrant tachycardias may be missed in stable 2:1 conduction. Vagal stimulation
 599 or intravenous adenosine may be helpful to unmask atrial flutter. The management of atrial flutter is discussed
 600 in Section 12.7. Left or right atrial macro-reentrant tachycardia is usually confined to patients after catheter
 601 ablation for AF, AF surgery, or after open heart surgery.¹⁵⁸

602

603 6 Classification of atrial fibrillation

604 6.1. Atrial fibrillation pattern

605 In many patients, AF progresses from short, infrequent episodes to longer and more frequent attacks. Over time,
 606 many patients will develop sustained forms of AF. In a small proportion of patients, AF will remain paroxysmal
 607 over several decades (2–3% of AF patients).¹⁶¹ The distribution of paroxysmal AF recurrences is not random,
 608 but clustered.¹⁶² AF may also regress from persistent to paroxysmal AF. Furthermore, asymptomatic recurrences
 609 of AF are common in patients with symptomatic AF.¹²⁰

610

611 Based on presentation, duration, and spontaneous termination of AF episodes, five types of AF are
 612 traditionally distinguished: first diagnosed, paroxysmal, persistent, long-standing persistent, and permanent AF
 613 (*Table 5*). If patients suffer from both paroxysmal and persistent AF episodes, the more common type should be
 614 used for classification. Clinically determined AF patterns do not correspond well to the AF burden measured by
 615 long-term ECG monitoring.¹⁶³ Even less is known about the response to therapy in patients with long-standing
 616 persistent AF or long-standing paroxysmal AF. Despite these inaccuracies, the distinction between paroxysmal
 617 and persistent AF has been used in many trials and therefore still forms the basis of some recommendations.

618 There is some evidence suggesting that AF burden may influence stroke risk^{44, 124, 164} and could modify
 619 the response to rhythm control therapy.^{76, 165} The evidence for this is weak. Therefore, AF burden should not be
 620 a major factor in deciding on the usefulness of an intervention that is deemed suitable for other reasons.

621

622 **Table 5** Patterns of AF

AF pattern	Definition
First diagnosed AF	AF that has not been diagnosed before, irrespective of the duration of the arrhythmia or the presence and severity of AF-related symptoms.
Paroxysmal AF	Self-terminating, in most cases within 48 hours. Some AF paroxysms may continue for up to 7 days. ^a Most AF episodes that are cardioverted within 24-48 hours should be considered paroxysmal. ^a
Persistent AF	AF that lasts longer than 7 days, including episodes that are terminated by cardioversion, either with drugs or by direct current cardioversion, after 7 days or more.
Long-standing persistent AF	Continuous AF lasting for ≥ 1 year when it is decided to adopt a rhythm control strategy.
Permanent AF	AF is accepted by the patient (and physician). Hence, rhythm control

interventions are, by definition, not pursued in patients with permanent AF. Should a rhythm control strategy be adopted, the arrhythmia would be re-classified as 'long-standing persistent AF'.

623 AF = atrial fibrillation.

624 ^aThe distinction between paroxysmal and persistent AF is often not made correctly without access to long-term
625 monitoring.¹⁶³ Hence, this classification alone is often insufficient to select specific therapies. If both persistent
626 and paroxysmal episodes are present, the predominant pattern should guide the classification.
627

628 6.2. Atrial fibrillation types reflecting different causes of the arrhythmia

629 The risk of developing AF is increased in a variety of physiological and disease states, and the historic term
630 'lone AF' is probably misleading and should be avoided.¹⁶⁶ Although the pattern of AF may be the same, the
631 mechanisms underpinning AF vary substantially between patients¹⁶⁷ (Table 6). This suggests that stratifying AF
632 patients by underlying drivers of AF could inform management, for example, considering cardiac and systemic
633 comorbidity (e.g. diabetes and obesity¹⁶⁸), lifestyle factors (e.g. activity level, smoking, alcohol intake^{169, 170}),
634 markers of cardiac structural remodelling (e.g. fibrosis¹⁷¹⁻¹⁷³ or electrocardiographic parameters of AF
635 complexity¹⁷⁴), or genetic background. Table 6 provides such a taxonomy, informed by expert consensus,^{76, 120,}
636 ¹⁷⁵ but without much evidence to underpin its clinical use.¹⁷⁶ Systematic research defining the major drivers of
637 AF is clearly needed to better define different types of AF.¹⁷⁶
638

639 **Table 6 Clinical types of AF (modified from the report on the 4th AFNET/EHRA consensus conference⁷⁶)^a**

AF type	Clinical presentation	Possible pathophysiology
AF secondary to structural heart disease	AF in patients with LV systolic or diastolic dysfunction, long-standing hypertension with LVH, and/or other structural heart diseases. The onset of AF in these patients is a common cause of hospitalization and a predictor of poor outcome	Increased atrial pressure and atrial structural remodelling, together with activation of the sympathetic and renin-angiotensin system
Focal AF	Patients with repetitive atrial runs and frequent, short episodes of paroxysmal AF. Often highly symptomatic, younger patients with distinguishable atrial waves (coarse AF), atrial ectopy, and/or atrial tachycardia deteriorating in AF	Localized triggers, in most cases originating from the pulmonary veins, initiate AF. AF due to one or a few reentrant drivers is also considered to be part of this type of AF
Polygenic AF	AF in carriers of common gene variants that have been associated with early onset AF	Currently under study. The presence of some gene variants may also influence treatment outcomes
Postoperative AF	New onset of AF (usually self-terminating) after major (typically cardiac) surgery in patients who were in sinus rhythm before surgery and had no history of AF	Acute factors: inflammation, atrial oxidative stress, high sympathetic tone, electrolyte changes, and volume overload, possibly interacting with a pre-existing substrate
AF in patients with mitral stenosis or prosthetic heart valves	AF in patients with mitral stenosis, after mitral valve surgery and in some cases other valvular disease	Left atrial pressure (stenosis) and volume (regurgitation) load are the main drivers of atrial enlargement and structural atrial remodelling in these patients
AF in athletes	Usually paroxysmal, related to duration and intensity of training	Increased vagal tone and atrial volume
Monogenic AF	AF in patients with inherited cardiomyopathies, including channelopathies	The arrhythmogenic mechanisms responsible for sudden death are likely to contribute to the occurrence of AF in these patients

640 AF = atrial fibrillation; LV = left ventricular; LVH = left ventricular hypertrophy.

641 ^aIt is recognized that these types of AF will overlap in clinical practice, and that their impact for management
642 needs to be evaluated systematically.
643

644 6.3. Symptom burden in atrial fibrillation

645 Patients with AF have significantly poorer quality of life than healthy controls, experiencing a variety of
 646 symptoms including lethargy, palpitations, dyspnoea, chest tightness, sleeping difficulties, and psychosocial
 647 distress.^{32, 177-180} Improved quality of life has been noted with both pharmacological and interventional
 648 therapies,¹⁸¹⁻¹⁸⁵ but there are limited data to compare the benefit of different treatments.^{32, 186} Assessment of
 649 quality of life is further constrained by a lack of cross-validation of the several AF-specific quality-of-life
 650 tools.¹⁸⁷⁻¹⁹¹ With regard to symptom assessment, the European Heart Rhythm Association (EHRA) suggested
 651 the EHRA symptom scale (*Table 7*) to describe symptom severity in AF patients.¹⁹² A similar scale (the
 652 Canadian Cardiovascular Society Severity of Atrial Fibrillation Scale) is used in Canada.¹⁹³ The EHRA scale
 653 has been used and validated.¹⁹⁴⁻¹⁹⁹ A modification was proposed in 2014, subdividing EHRA class 2 into mild
 654 (2a) or moderate (2b) impact.¹⁹⁹ As symptoms in class 2b ('troubling' symptoms) identified patients with a
 655 health utility benefit of rhythm control in that study, this modification may provide a threshold for potential
 656 treatment decisions, but this remains to be tested. While some AF patients had no or minimal symptoms (25–
 657 40%), many (15–30%) reported severe or disabling symptoms.^{194, 196} The EHRA scale should be used to guide
 658 symptom-orientated treatment decisions and for longitudinal patient profiling.

660 **Table 7 Modified EHRA symptom scale (modified from Wynn et al¹⁹⁹)**

Modified EHRA score	Symptoms	Description
1	None	AF does not cause any symptoms
2a	Mild	Normal daily activity not affected by symptoms related to AF ^a
2b	Moderate	Normal daily activity not affected ^a
3	Severe	Normal daily activity affected
4	Disabling	Normal daily activity discontinued

661 AF = atrial fibrillation; EHRA = European Heart Rhythm Association.

662 ^aEHRA class 2a and 2b can be differentiated by evaluating whether patients are functionally affected by their
 663 AF symptoms. AF-related symptoms are most commonly fatigue/tiredness and exertional shortness of breath, or
 664 less frequently palpitations and chest pain.^{42, 194, 200-202}

666 Recommendation on use of the modified EHRA symptom scale

Recommendation	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Use of the modified EHRA symptom scale is recommended in clinical practice and research studies to quantify AF-related symptoms	I	C	192, 199

667 AF = atrial fibrillation; EHRA = European Heart Rhythm Association.

668 ^aClass of recommendation.

669 ^bLevel of evidence.

670 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

672 7 Detection and management of risk factors and concomitant cardiovascular diseases

673 Many cardiovascular diseases and concomitant conditions increase the risk of developing AF (*Table 8*),
 674 recurrent AF, and AF-associated complications. Identification of such conditions, their prevention and treatment
 675 is an important leverage to prevent AF and its disease burden. Knowledge of these factors and their management
 676 is hence important for optimal management of AF patients.^{203, 204}

677 **Table 8 Cardiovascular and other conditions independently associated with AF**

Characteristic/comorbidity	Association with AF
Genetic predisposition (based on multiple common gene variants associated with AF) ⁶⁴	HR range 0.4–3.2

Older age ¹⁹ 50–59 years 60–69 years 70–79 years 80–89 years	HR: 1.00 (reference) 4.98 (95% CI 3.49–7.10) 7.35 (95% CI 5.28–10.2) 9.33 (95% CI 6.68–13.0)
Hypertension (treated) vs. none ¹⁹	HR 1.32 (95% CI 1.08–1.60)
Heart failure vs. none ¹⁹	HR 1.43 (95% CI 0.85–2.40)
Valvular heart disease vs. none ²⁰⁵	RR 2.42 (95% CI 1.62–3.60)
Myocardial infarction vs. none ¹⁹	HR 1.46 (95% CI 1.07–1.98)
Thyroid dysfunction ^{206, 207} hypothyroidism subclinical hyperthyroidism overt hyperthyroidism	(reference: euthyroid) HR 1.23 (95% CI 0.77–1.97) RR 1.31 (95% CI 1.19–1.44) RR 1.42 (95% CI 1.22–1.63)
Obesity ^{19, 208} none (BMI < 25 kg/m ²) overweight (BMI 25–30 kg/m ²) obese (BMI ≥ 31 kg/m ²)	HR: 1.00 (reference) 1.13 (95% CI 0.87–1.46) 1.37 (95% CI 1.05–1.78)
Diabetes mellitus vs. none ¹⁹	HR 1.25 (95% CI 0.98–1.60)
Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease ²⁰⁹ FEV1 ≥ 80% 60–80% < 60%	RR: 1.00 (reference) 1.28 (95% CI 0.79–2.06) 2.53 (95% CI 1.45–4.42)
Obstructive sleep apnoea vs. none ²¹⁰	HR 2.18 (95% CI 1.34–3.54)
Chronic kidney disease ²¹¹ none stage 1 or 2 stage 3 stage 4 or 5	OR: 1.00 (reference) 2.67 (95% CI 2.04–3.48) 1.68 (95% CI 1.26–2.24) 3.52 (95% CI 1.73–7.15)
Smoking ²¹² never former current	HR: 1.00 (reference) 1.32 (95% CI 1.10–1.57) 2.05 (95% CI 1.71–2.47)
Alcohol consumption ²¹³ None 1–6 drinks/week 7–14 drinks/week 15–21 drinks/week > 21 drinks/week	RR: 1.00 (reference) 1.01 (95% CI 0.94–1.09) 1.07 (95% CI 0.98–1.17) 1.14 (95% CI 1.01–1.28) 1.39 (95% CI 1.22–1.58)
Habitual vigorous exercise ²¹⁴ Non-exercisers < 1 day/week 1–2 days/week 3–4 days/week 5–7 days/week	RR: 1.00 (reference) 0.90 (95% CI 0.68–1.20) 1.09 (95% CI 0.95–1.26) 1.04 (95% CI 0.91–1.19) 1.20 (95% CI 1.02–1.41)

680 AF = atrial fibrillation; BMI = body mass index; CI = confidence interval; FEV1 = forced expiratory volume in
681 1 second; HR = hazard ratio; OR = odds ratio; RR = risk ratio
682

683 7.1. Heart failure

684 Heart failure and AF coincide in many patients.^{215–217} They are linked by similar risk factors and share a
685 common pathophysiology.²¹⁸ Heart failure and AF can cause and exacerbate each other through mechanisms
686 such as structural cardiac remodelling, activation of neurohormonal mechanisms, and rate-related impairment of
687 left ventricular (LV) function. Patients with AF and concomitant heart failure, both with preserved ejection
688 fraction (LV ejection fraction [LVEF] ≥ 50%) and reduced ejection fraction (LVEF < 40%),^{219, 220} suffer from a
689 worse prognosis, including increased mortality.^{16, 221} The recent ESC Guidelines on heart failure²²² have also
690 introduced a new category of heart failure with mid-range ejection fraction (HFmrEF; LVEF 40–49%), although
691 data on AF patients in this group are currently limited. Prevention of adverse outcomes and maintenance of a
692 good quality of life are the aims of management in all patients with AF and concomitant heart failure, regardless

693 of LVEF.²²³ The general approach to AF management does not differ between heart failure patients and others,
694 but a few considerations are worthwhile to consider. Of note, the only therapy with proven prognostic value in
695 these patients is anticoagulation, and appropriate OAC should be prescribed in all patients at risk of stroke (see
696 Chapter 8).

697
698 **7.1.1. Patients with atrial fibrillation and heart failure with reduced ejection**
699 **fraction**

700 In addition to OAC, standard heart-failure therapy should be used in patients with heart failure with reduced
701 ejection fraction (HFrEF), as detailed in the ESC Guidelines.²²² This includes angiotensin-converting enzyme
702 (ACE) inhibitors or angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs), mineralocorticoid antagonists, defibrillators and
703 cardiac resynchronization therapy,²¹⁸ in addition to combined angiotensin receptor neprilysin inhibition (ARNI)
704 in patients able to tolerate an ACE inhibitor or ARB with ongoing symptoms.²²⁴

705 Rate control of AF is discussed in detail in Chapter 9. In brief, only beta-blockers and digoxin are
706 suitable in HFrEF because of the negative inotropic potential of verapamil and diltiazem. Beta-blockers are
707 usually the first-line option in patients with clinically stable HFrEF, although a meta-analysis using individual
708 patient data from randomized controlled trials (RCTs) found no reduction in mortality from beta-blockers versus
709 placebo in those with AF at baseline (HR 0.97, 95% CI 0.83–1.14).²³ Digoxin is commonly prescribed in
710 clinical practice but no head-to-head RCTs in AF patients have been performed. In a meta-analysis of
711 observational studies, digoxin had a neutral effect on mortality in patients with AF and concomitant heart failure
712 (adjusted observational studies HR 0.90, 95% CI 0.70–1.16; propensity-matched observational studies RR 1.08,
713 95% CI 0.93–1.26).²²⁵ Initial and combination rate-control therapy for AF in HFrEF should therefore take
714 account of individual patient characteristics and symptoms; beta-blocker initiation should be delayed in patients
715 with acute decompensated heart failure, and digoxin has more adverse effects in patients with renal impairment
716 (see Chapter 9).

717 Patients with AF and HFrEF who present with severe symptoms may require rhythm control therapy in
718 addition to rate control therapy. For patients who develop HFrEF as a result of rapid AF (tachycardiomyopathy),
719 a rhythm control strategy is preferred, based on several relatively small patient cohorts and trials reporting
720 improved LV function after restoration of sinus rhythm.^{185, 226-228} The diagnosis of tachycardiomyopathy can be
721 challenging, and at times requires restoration of sinus rhythm.²²⁹ Catheter ablation may be a useful method to
722 restore LV function and quality of life in AF patients with HFrEF,^{185, 226-228} but further data are needed. *Figure 4*
723 summarizes the approach to patients with AF and heart failure.

Management of patients presenting acutely with AF and heart failure

Acute management

Chronic management

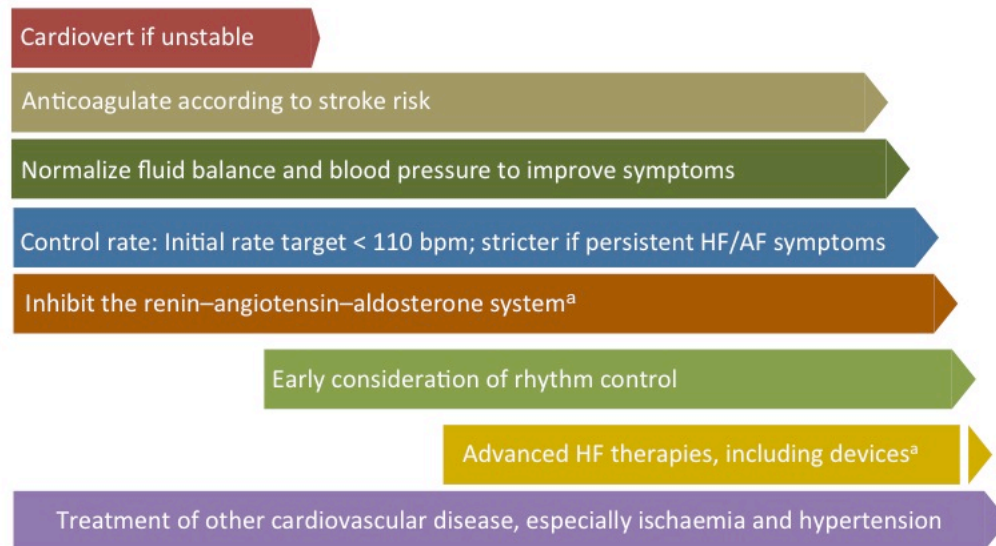


Figure 4 Initial management of newly diagnosed with AF and heart failure. Adapted from Kotecha and Piccini.²¹⁸

ACE = angiotensin-converting enzyme; AF = atrial fibrillation; ARB = angiotensin receptor blocker; ARNI = angiotensin receptor neprilysin inhibition; bpm = beats per minute; HF = heart failure.

^aIn patients with heart failure and reduced ejection fraction; also consider combined ARNI in patients able to tolerate an ACE inhibitor or ARB with ongoing symptoms.

7.1.2. Atrial fibrillation patients with heart failure with preserved ejection fraction

The diagnosis of heart failure with preserved ejection fraction (HFpEF) in patients with AF is problematic because of the difficulty in separating symptoms that are due to HF from those due to AF. Although diagnostic differentiation can be achieved by cardioversion and clinical reassessment, this option is often not appropriate in this group, particularly as a specific therapy that improves prognosis in HFpEF is currently lacking. Echocardiography can support detection of HFpEF in patients with symptomatic AF by providing evidence of relevant structural heart disease (e.g. LV hypertrophy [LVH]) and/or measurement of diastolic dysfunction. Reduced early diastolic myocardial velocity e' by tissue Doppler reflects impaired LV relaxation, while the ratio of E/e' has demonstrated a significant correlation with invasive measurement of LV filling pressures.²³⁰⁻²³⁴ Natriuretic peptide levels are part of the diagnostic assessment of HFpEF,²²² although natriuretic peptide levels are elevated in AF patients and the optimum diagnostic cut-off is still unknown.²³⁵ The management of patients with AF and concomitant HFpEF should focus on control of fluid balance and concomitant conditions such as hypertension and ischaemia.

7.1.3. Atrial fibrillation patients with heart failure with mid-range ejection fraction

HFmrEF is a recently defined entity, describing patients with symptoms and signs of heart failure, LVEF 40–49%, elevated levels of natriuretic peptides, and either LV hypertrophy, left atrial (LA) enlargement, or evidence of diastolic dysfunction.²²² However, diagnosis is more difficult in patients with AF, as natriuretic peptides are elevated in AF and LA dilatation is common, regardless of concomitant heart failure. LVEF is also variable and difficult to assess in AF patients because of AF-induced reduction in systolic LV function and

753 variable cardiac cycle length. Further study of this group is required before particular treatment strategies in AF
754 patients with HFmrEF can be recommended.

755

756 **7.1.4. Prevention of atrial fibrillation in heart failure**

757 Retrospective analyses from large randomized trials have reported a lower incidence of new-onset AF in
758 patients treated with ACE inhibitors/ARBs compared with placebo.²³⁶⁻²³⁸ The reduced incidence of AF with
759 ACE inhibitors/ARBs is less evident in patients with HFpEF²³⁹ and is lost in patients without heart failure.²⁴⁰⁻²⁴²
760 Nephilysin inhibition does not seem to add to this effect.²²⁴ Beta-blocker therapy was associated with a 33%
761 reduction in the adjusted odds of incident AF in HFrEF patients pretreated with ACE inhibitors/ARBs,
762 reinforcing the importance of beta-blocker therapy in HFrEF patients in sinus rhythm.²³ Eplerenone, a
763 mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist, also reduced the risk of new-onset AF in patients with LVEF \leq 35%,
764 New York Heart Association (NYHA) Class II, and pretreatment with ACE inhibitors/ARBs and beta-
765 blockers.²⁴³

766

767 **7.2. Hypertension**

768 **7.2.1. Treatment of hypertension to prevent incident atrial fibrillation**

769 Inhibition of the renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system can prevent structural remodelling and recurrent AF.^{236,}
770 ²⁴⁴ A recent analysis of the Danish healthcare database with long-term monitoring of the effect of different
771 antihypertensive agents on the occurrence of overt AF suggests a beneficial effect of ACE inhibitors or
772 ARBs.²⁴⁵ Secondary analyses of ACE inhibitors or ARBs in patients with heart failure or LVH show a lower
773 incidence of new-onset AF.^{238, 246}

774

775 **7.2.2. Blood pressure control in patients with atrial fibrillation**

776 Hypertension is a stroke risk factor in AF, and uncontrolled high blood pressure enhances the risk of stroke and
777 bleeding events and may lead to recurrent AF. Good blood-pressure control should therefore form an integral
778 part of the management of AF patients.²⁴⁷ In patients with established AF, but without LV dysfunction or heart
779 failure, ARBs do not prevent recurrent AF better than placebo.^{240, 241} ACE inhibitors or ARBs may reduce
780 recurrent AF after cardioversion when coadministered with antiarrhythmic drug therapy compared with an
781 antiarrhythmic drug alone.^{248, 249} Meta-analyses driven by these studies suggested a lower risk of recurrent
782 AF,^{236-238, 250} but at least one controlled trial failed to demonstrate benefit.^{240, 251}

783

784 **7.3. Valvular heart disease**

785 Valvular heart disease is independently associated with incident AF.²⁵² Approximately 30% of patients with AF
786 have some form of valvular heart disease, often detected only by echocardiography.^{201, 253-255} AF worsens
787 prognosis in patients with severe valvular heart disease,²⁵⁶ including those undergoing surgery or transcatheter
788 interventions for aortic or mitral valve disease.²⁵⁷⁻²⁶² Valvular heart disease can be associated with an increased
789 thromboembolic risk, which probably also adds to the stroke risk in AF patients.²⁶³ Similar to heart failure,
790 valvular disease and AF interact and sustain each other through volume and pressure overload,
791 tachycardiomyopathy, and neurohumoral factors.²⁶⁴⁻²⁷⁰ When valve dysfunction is severe, AF can be regarded as
792 a marker for progressive disease, thus favouring valve repair or replacement.²⁷¹

793

794 Traditionally, patients with AF have been dichotomized into ‘valvular’ and ‘non-valvular’ AF.²⁷²
795 Although slightly different definitions have been used, valvular AF mainly refers to AF patients that have either
796 rheumatic valvular disease (predominantly mitral stenosis) or mechanical heart valves. In fact, while AF implies
797 an incremental risk for thromboembolism in patients with mitral valve stenosis,^{263, 273, 274} there is no clear
798 evidence that other valvular diseases, including mitral regurgitation or aortic valve disease, need to be
799 considered when choosing an anticoagulant or indeed to estimate stroke risk.²⁷⁵ We have therefore decided to
800 replace the historic term ‘non-valvular’ AF with reference to the specific underlying conditions.

801

801 **Recommendations for patients with valvular heart disease and AF**

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Early mitral valve surgery should be considered in severe mitral regurgitation, preserved LV function, and new-onset AF, even in the absence of symptoms, particularly when valve repair is feasible	IIa	C	276

Mitral valvotomy should be considered for asymptomatic patients with severe mitral stenosis and suitable valve anatomy who have new-onset AF	Ila	C	
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802 AF = atrial fibrillation; LV = left ventricular.

803 ^aClass of recommendation.

804 ^bLevel of evidence.

805 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

806

807

808 7.4. Diabetes mellitus

809 Diabetes and AF frequently coexist because of associations with other risk factors.²⁷⁷⁻²⁸³ Diabetes is a risk factor
 810 for stroke and other complications in AF.²⁸⁴ In patients with AF, a longer duration of diabetes appears to confer
 811 a higher risk of thromboembolism, albeit without greater risk of OAC-related bleeding.²⁸⁵ Unfortunately,
 812 intensive glycaemic control does not affect the rate of new-onset AF,²⁸⁴ while treatment with metformin seems
 813 to be associated with a decreased long-term risk of AF in diabetic patients²⁸⁶ and may even lower long-term
 814 stroke risk.¹³ Diabetic retinopathy, a measure of disease severity, does not increase the risk of ocular bleeding in
 815 anticoagulated patients.²⁸⁷
 816

817 7.5. Obesity and weight loss

818 7.5.1. Obesity as a risk factor

819 Obesity increases the risk for AF (risk ratio 1.5–1.8),²⁸⁸⁻²⁹¹ with a progressive increase according to body mass
 820 index.^{288, 290-292} Obese patients may have more LV diastolic dysfunction, increased sympathetic activity and
 821 inflammation, and increased fatty infiltration of the atria.²⁹³⁻²⁹⁵ Obesity may also be a risk factor for ischaemic
 822 stroke, thromboembolism, and death in AF patients.²⁹²
 823

824

824 7.5.2. Weight reduction in obese patients with atrial fibrillation

825 Intensive weight-reduction management in addition to management of other cardiovascular risk factors (in the
 826 range of 10–15 kg weight loss achieved) led to fewer AF recurrences and symptoms compared with an approach
 827 based on general advice in obese patients with AF.^{203, 204, 296} Improved cardiorespiratory fitness can further
 828 decrease AF burden in obese patients with AF.²⁹⁷ Although the findings in these studies have to be confirmed,
 829 they underpin the positive effect of weight reduction in obese patients.
 830

831

831 7.5.3. Catheter ablation in obese patients

832 Obesity may increase the rate of AF recurrence after catheter ablation,²⁹⁸⁻³⁰¹ with obstructive sleep apnoea as an
 833 important potential confounder. Obesity has also been linked to a higher radiation dose and complication rate
 834 during AF ablation.^{302, 303} Notably, the symptomatic improvement after catheter ablation of AF in obese patients
 835 seems comparable to the improvement in normal-weight patients.²⁹⁸ In view of the potential to reduce AF
 836 episodes by weight reduction (see Section 6.5.2.), AF ablation should be offered to obese patients in conjunction
 837 with lifestyle modifications that lead to weight reduction.
 838

839

839 Recommendation for obese patients with AF

840

841 AF = atrial fibrillation.

Recommendation	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
In obese patients with AF, weight loss together with management of other risk factors should be considered to reduce AF burden and symptoms	IIa	B	204, 288, 296

842

843 ^a Class of recommendation

844 ^b Level of evidence

845 ^c Reference(s) supporting recommendation(s)

846

847 7.6. Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, sleep apnoea, and other respiratory 848 diseases

849 AF has been associated with obstructive sleep apnoea.^{304, 305} Multiple pathophysiological mechanisms can
 850 contribute to AF in obstructive sleep apnoea, including autonomic dysfunction, hypoxia, hypercapnia, and
 851 inflammation.^{96, 304-307} Obstructive sleep apnoea exaggerates intrathoracic pressure changes, which in itself and
 852 via vagal activation can provoke shortening of the atrial action potential and induce AF. Risk factor reduction
 853 and continuous positive airway pressure ventilation can reduce AF recurrence.³⁰⁸⁻³¹² It seems reasonable to
 854 consider obstructive sleep apnoea screening in AF patients with risk factors. Obstructive sleep apnoea treatment
 855 should be optimized to improve AF treatment results in appropriate patients. Servo-controlled pressure support
 856 therapy should not be used in HFrEF patients with predominantly central sleep apnoea (of which 25% had
 857 concomitant AF).³¹³

858 Patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease often suffer from atrial tachycardias, which need
 859 to be differentiated from AF by ECG. Agents used to relieve bronchospasm, notably theophyllines and beta-
 860 adrenergic agonists, may precipitate AF and make control of the ventricular response rate difficult. Non-
 861 selective beta-blockers, sotalol, propafenone, and adenosine should be used with caution in patients with
 862 significant bronchospasm, while they can safely be used in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease.
 863 Beta-1 selective blockers (e.g. bisoprolol, metoprolol, and nebivolol), diltiazem, and verapamil are often
 864 tolerated and effective (see Chapter 9).

865 **Recommendations for patients with AF and respiratory diseases**

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Correction of hypoxaemia and acidosis should be considered as initial management for patients who develop AF during an acute pulmonary illness or exacerbation of chronic pulmonary disease	IIa	C	
Interrogation for clinical signs of obstructive sleep apnoea in all AF patients should be considered	IIa	B	304, 305, 314, 315
Obstructive sleep apnoea treatment should be optimized to reduce AF recurrences and improve AF treatment results	IIa	B	307-311

867 AF = atrial fibrillation.

868 ^aClass of recommendation.

869 ^bLevel of evidence.

870 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

871

872 **7.7. Chronic kidney disease**

873 AF is present in 15–20% of patients with CKD.³¹⁶ The definition of CKD in most AF trials is relatively strict.
 874 Although an estimated creatinine clearance (CrCl) rate of < 60 mL/min is indicative of CKD, a number of trials
 875 in AF patients have used CrCl < 50 mL/min to adapt NOAC dosage, usually estimated using the Cockcroft–Gault
 876 formula. CrCl in AF patients can deteriorate over time.³¹⁷ The management of OAC in patients with CKD is
 877 discussed in Section 8.2.4.

878

879 **Recommendations for patients with kidney disease and AF**

880

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
The assessment of kidney function by serum creatinine or creatinine clearance is recommended in all AF patients to detect kidney disease and to support correct dosing of AF therapy	I	A	316, 318-321
All AF patients treated with oral anticoagulation should be considered for at least yearly renal function evaluation to detect kidney disease	IIa	B	

881 AF = atrial fibrillation.

882 ^aClass of recommendation.

883 ^bLevel of evidence.

884 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

885

886

8 Integrated management of patients with atrial fibrillation

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Most patients access the healthcare system initially through pharmacists, community health workers, or primary care physicians. As AF is often asymptomatic, these healthcare professionals are important stakeholders to enable adequate detection of AF and to ensure consistent management. The initial assessment should be performed at the point of first contact with the healthcare system, and is feasible in most healthcare settings (when an ECG is available). We propose to consider five domains in the initial assessment of patients presenting with newly diagnosed AF (*Figure 5*). These domains are:

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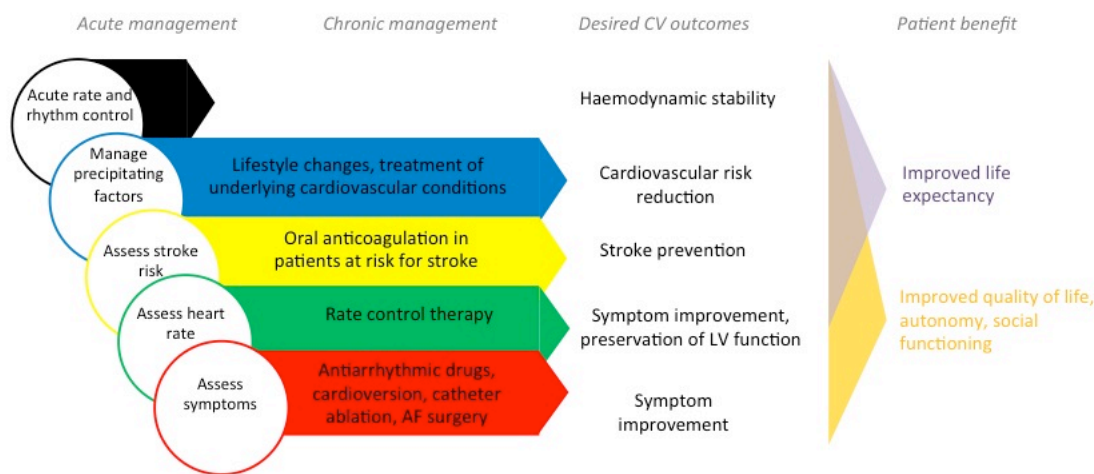
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1. Haemodynamic instability or limiting, severe symptoms
2. Presence of precipitating factors (e.g. thyrotoxicosis, sepsis, or postoperative AF) and underlying cardiovascular conditions
3. Stroke risk and need for anticoagulation
4. Heart rate and need for rate control
5. Symptom assessment and decision for rhythm control



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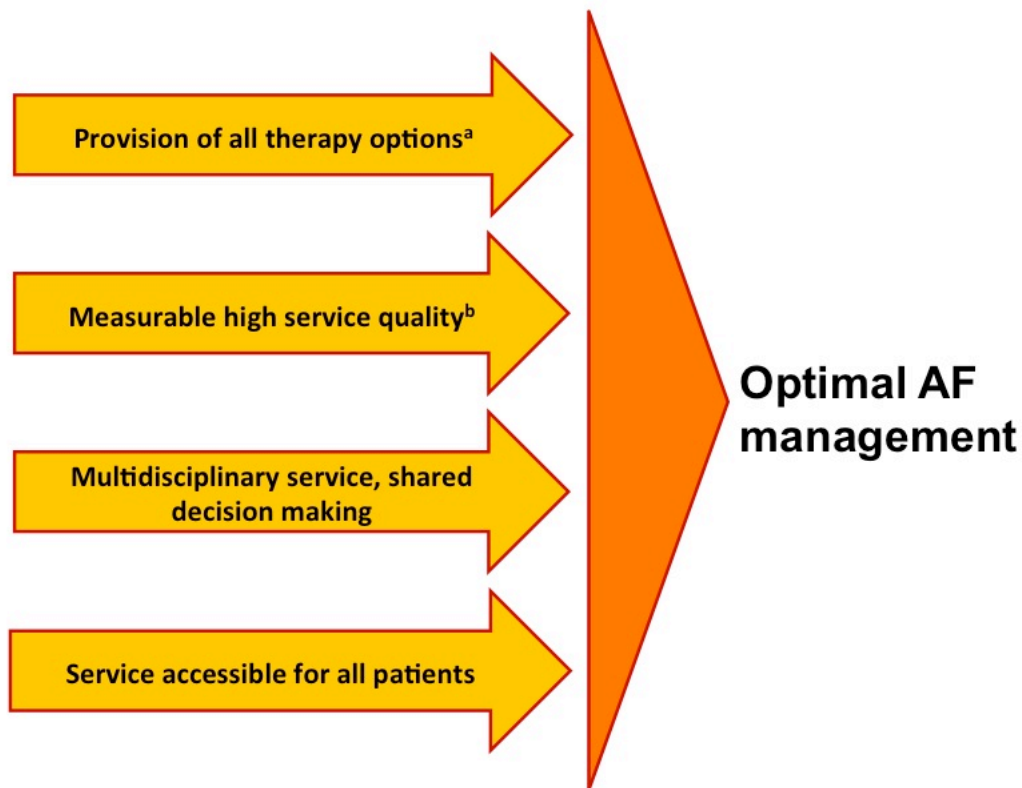
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Figure 5 Acute and chronic management of AF patients, desired cardiovascular outcomes, and patient benefits. Adapted from the report on the 4th AFNET/EHRA consensus conference.⁷⁶ AF = atrial fibrillation; AFNET = German Competence NETwork on Atrial Fibrillation; EHRA = European Heart Rhythm Association.

An integrated, structured approach to AF care, as applied successfully to other domains of medicine,³²²⁻³²⁴ will facilitate consistent, guideline-adherent AF management for all patients³²⁵ (*Figure 6*), with the potential to improve outcomes.^{42, 326, 327} Such approaches are consistent with the Innovative Care for Chronic Conditions Framework proposal put forward by the World Health Organization.³²⁸ Review by an AF service, or at least referral to a cardiologist, will usually be required after the initial assessment to fully evaluate the effect of AF on cardiovascular health.³²⁹ There may also be reasons for early or urgent referral (*Table 9*). Integrated care of all patients with newly diagnosed AF should help to overcome the current shortcomings of AF management, such as underuse of anticoagulation, access to rate and rhythm control therapy, and inconsistent approaches to cardiovascular risk reduction. Integrated AF care requires the cooperation of primary care physicians, cardiologists, cardiac surgeons, AF specialists, stroke specialists, allied health practitioners and patients,

915 encompassing lifestyle interventions, treatment of underlying cardiovascular diseases and AF-specific therapy
916 (Figure 7).



917
918 **Figure 6** Achieving optimal management of AF patients.
919 AF = atrial fibrillation.

920 ^aOn-site or through institutionalized cooperation.

921 ^bSafety outcomes should be collected in published and monitored central databases.

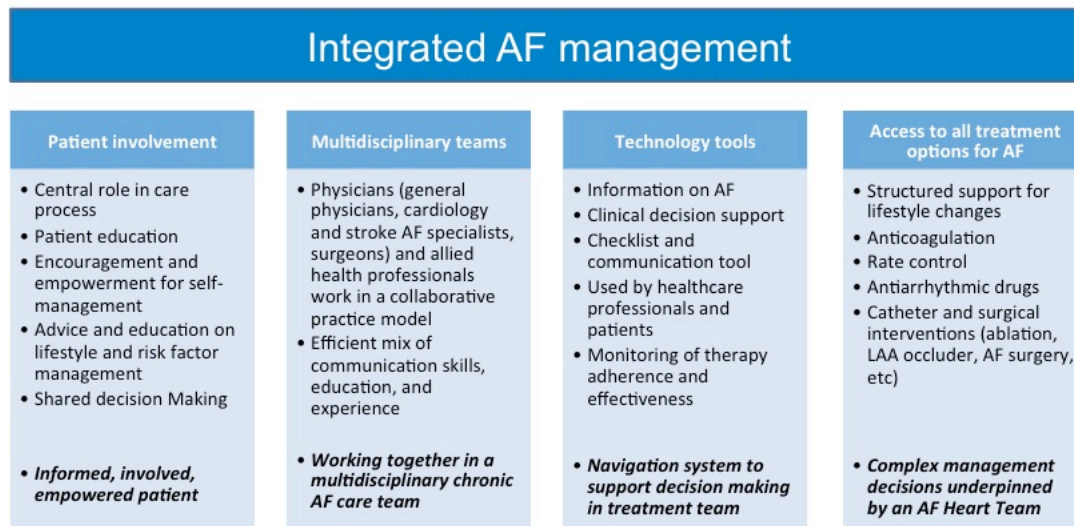


Figure 7 Fundamentals of integrated care in AF patients.
AF = atrial fibrillation; LAA = left atrial appendage.

Table 9 Clinical signs calling for urgent involvement of a specialized AF service.^a

Haemodynamic instability
Uncontrollable rate
Symptomatic bradycardia not amenable to reduced dosing of rate control agents
Severe angina or worsening left ventricular function
Transient ischemic attack or stroke

AF = atrial fibrillation

^aAnticoagulation should be initiated early in all suitable patients and will not routinely require specialist input.

8.1. Evidence supporting integrated atrial fibrillation care

Several structured approaches to AF care have been developed. Some evidence underpins their use, while more research is needed into the best way of delivering integrated AF care. Integrated AF management in an RCT increased the use of evidence-base care and reduced by approximately one-third the composite outcome of cardiovascular hospitalization and cardiovascular death over a mean follow-up of 22 months (14.3% vs. 20.8%, HR 0.65; 95% CI 0.45–0.93; $P = 0.017$) compared with usual care in a large tertiary care centre.³³⁰ Integrated AF management appeared cost-effective in that study.³³¹ However, an Australian RCT showed only a marginal effect on unplanned admissions and death using integrated AF care limited to the initial care period, possibly emphasizing the need for sustained integration of AF care.³³² Two observational studies of integrated AF care found fewer hospitalizations,^{333, 334} one study showed fewer cases of stroke,³³³ and a further non-randomized study identified a trend for a lower rate of the composite outcome of death, cardiovascular hospitalization, and AF-related emergency visits.³³⁵ More research is needed, and integrated AF care is likely to require different designs in different healthcare settings.

8.2. Components of integrated atrial fibrillation care

8.2.1. Patient involvement

946 Patients should have a central role in the care process. As treatment of AF requires patients to change their
 947 lifestyles and adhere to chronic therapy, at times without an immediately tangible benefit, they need to
 948 understand their responsibilities in the care process. Physicians and healthcare professionals are responsible for
 949 providing access to evidence-based therapy, but adherence to therapy is ultimately the responsibility of
 950 informed and autonomous patients, best described as ‘shared accountability’.³³⁶ Hence, information and
 951 education of patients and often of their partners and relatives is indispensable to encourage a self-management
 952 role and to empower patients to participate in shared decision-making,^{326, 328} and to support their understanding
 953 of the disease and the suggested treatments.³³⁷

955 **8.2.2. Multidisciplinary atrial fibrillation teams**

956 Delegation of tasks from specialists to general physicians and from physicians to allied health professionals is a
 957 fundamental concept of integrated care models. A multidisciplinary AF team approach includes an efficient mix
 958 of interpersonal and communication skills, education and expertise in AF management, as well as the use of
 959 dedicated technology. This approach underlines the importance of redesigning daily practice in a way that
 960 encourages non-specialists and allied professionals to have an important role in educating patients and
 961 coordinating care, while the specialist remains medically responsible. Cultural and regional differences will
 962 determine the composition of AF teams.

964 **8.2.3. Role of non-specialists**

965 AF patients often initially present to general practitioners or pharmacists. Some physicians in primary care have
 966 extensive expertise in stroke prevention and initial management of AF patients. Others may seek training to
 967 acquire such knowledge. Other components of AF management (e.g. assessment of concomitant cardiovascular
 968 conditions, antiarrhythmic drug therapy, or interventional treatment) often require specialist input. Integrated
 969 AF care structures should support treatment initiation by non-specialists where appropriate, and provide ready
 970 access to specialist knowledge to optimize AF care.

972 **8.2.4. Technology use to support atrial fibrillation care**

973 Technology, such as decision support software, has the potential to enhance the implementation of evidence-
 974 based care and improve outcomes, when used to enhance expert advice.³³⁸ Electronic tools can also ensure
 975 coherent communication within the AF team. With a view to support the wider use of such technology, this
 976 Task Force is providing tools free of charge, in the form of smartphone apps, to AF healthcare professionals and
 977 to AF patients.

979 **Recommendations for an integrated approach to care**

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
An integrated approach with structured organization of care and follow-up should be considered in all patients with AF, aiming to improve guideline adherence and reduce hospitalization and mortality	IIa	B	330-332
Placing patients in a central role in the decision-making should be considered in order to tailor management to patient preferences and improve adherence to chronic therapy	IIa	C	330, 332, 334

980 AF = atrial fibrillation

981 ^aClass of recommendation.

982 ^bLevel of evidence.

983 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

984

985 **8.3. Diagnostic workup of atrial fibrillation patients**

986 AF is often found in patients with other, at times undiagnosed, cardiovascular conditions. Thus, all AF patients
 987 will benefit from a comprehensive cardiovascular assessment.³³⁹

988

989 **8.3.1. Recommended evaluation in all atrial fibrillation patients**

990 A complete medical history should be taken and all patients should undergo clinical evaluation that includes
 991 thorough assessment for concomitant conditions, establishing the AF pattern, estimation of stroke risk and AF-
 992 related symptoms, and assessment of arrhythmia-related complications such as thromboembolism or LV
 993 dysfunction. A 12-lead ECG is recommended to establish a suspected diagnosis of AF, to determine rate in AF,

and to screen for conduction defects, ischaemia, and signs of structural heart disease. Initial blood tests should evaluate thyroid and kidney function as well as serum electrolytes and full blood count. Transthoracic echocardiography is recommended in all AF patients to guide treatment decisions. Transthoracic echocardiography should be used to identify structural disease (e.g. valvular disease) and assess LV size and function (systolic and diastolic), atrial size, and right heart function.^{339, 340} Although biomarkers such as natriuretic peptides are elevated in AF patients, there is insufficient data to suggest that blood-based parameters are independent markers for AF.³⁴¹⁻³⁴³

8.3.2. Additional investigations in selected patients with atrial fibrillation

Ambulatory ECG monitoring in AF patients can assess the adequacy of rate control, relate symptoms with AF recurrences, and detect focal induction of bouts of paroxysmal AF. Transoesophageal echocardiography (TOE) is useful to further assess valvular heart disease and to exclude intracardiac thrombi, especially in the LAA, to facilitate early cardioversion or catheter ablation.³⁴⁴ Patients with symptoms or signs of myocardial ischaemia should undergo coronary angiography or stress testing as appropriate. In patients with AF and signs of cerebral ischaemia or stroke, computed tomography (CT) or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of the brain is recommended to detect stroke and support decisions regarding acute management and long-term anticoagulation. Delayed-enhancement MRI of the left atrium using gadolinium contrast,³⁴⁵⁻³⁴⁷ T1 mapping using cardiac MRI,³⁴⁷ and intracardiac echo³⁴⁸ may help to guide treatment decisions in AF, but require external validation in multicentre studies.

8.4. Structured follow-up

Most AF patients need regular follow-up to ensure continued optimal management. Follow-up may be undertaken in primary care, by specially trained nurses, by cardiologists, or by AF specialists.^{325, 330} A specialist should coordinate care and follow-up. Follow-up should ensure implementation of the management plan, continued engagement of the patient, and therapy adaptation where needed.

Recommendations for diagnostic workup of AF patients

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
ECG documentation is required to establish the diagnosis of AF	I	B	349
A full cardiovascular evaluation, including an accurate history, careful clinical examination, and assessment of concomitant conditions, is recommended in all AF patients	I	C	
Transthoracic echocardiography is recommended in all AF patients to guide management	I	C	339
Long-term ECG monitoring should be considered in selected patients to assess the adequacy of rate control in symptomatic patients and to relate symptoms with AF episodes	Ila	C	

AF = atrial fibrillation; ECG = electrocardiogram.

^aClass of recommendation.

^bLevel of evidence.

^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

8.5. Defining goals of atrial fibrillation management

AF management comprises therapies with prognostic impact (anticoagulation and treatment of cardiovascular conditions) and therapies predominantly providing symptomatic benefit (rate control, rhythm control, *Table 10*). Therapies with prognostic benefit need careful explanation to patients when their benefits are not directly felt. Rhythm control therapy can be successful if symptoms are controlled, even when AF recurs. Explaining the expected benefits to each patient at the start of AF management will prevent unfounded expectations and has the potential to optimize quality of life.

Table 10 Goal-based follow-up

Category	Intervention	Follow-up aspects	Performance indicator (examples)
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Prognostic	Comorbidity control (relevant examples given)	Obesity	Weight loss
		Arterial hypertension	Blood pressure control
		Heart failure	Heart failure therapy
		Coronary artery disease	Statin and antiplatelet therapy Revascularization
		Diabetes	Glycaemic control
	Valvular Heart Disease	Valve repair or replacement	
Prognostic	Anticoagulation	Indication (risk profile; timing, e.g. post-cardioversion); Adherence (NOAC or VKA) and INR (if VKA); NOAC dosing (co- medications, age, weight, renal function)	Stroke Bleeding Mortality
Mainly symptomatic Partly prognostic	Rate control	Symptoms Average resting heart rate < 110 bpm	EHRA score Heart failure status LV function Exercise capacity
Symptomatic at present	Rhythm control	Symptoms vs. side-effects Exclusion of proarrhythmia (PR; QRS; QTc interval)	Hospitalization Therapy complications
Relevant for implementation of and adherence to therapy	Patient education and self-care capabilities	Knowledge (about disease; about treatment; about management goals) Capabilities (what to do if...)	Adherence to therapy Directed evaluation, preferably based on systematic checklists
Relevant for chronic care management	Caregiver involvement	Who? (spouse; GP; home nurse; pharmacist) Clearly spelling out participation roles Knowledge and capabilities	Directed evaluation of task performance (e.g. via patient card) Dispensed medication GP log of follow-up visits

1035 bpm = beats per minute; EHRA = European Heart Rhythm Association; GP = general practitioner; INR =
1036 international normalized ratio; LV = left ventricular; NOAC = non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulant;
1037 VKA = vitamin K antagonist.
1038

1039 **9 Stroke prevention therapy in atrial fibrillation patients**

1040 OAC therapy can prevent the majority of ischaemic strokes in AF patients and can prolong life.^{38, 39, 42, 194, 201, 329,}
1041 ³⁵⁰⁻³⁵² It is superior to no treatment or aspirin in patients with different profiles for stroke risk.^{353, 354} The net
1042 clinical benefit is almost universal, with the exception of patients at very low stroke risk, and OAC should
1043 therefore be used in most patients with AF (*Figure 8*). Despite this evidence, underuse or premature termination
1044 of OAC therapy is still common. Bleeding events, both severe and nuisance bleeds, a perceived 'high risk of
1045 bleeding' on anticoagulation, and the efforts required to monitor and dose-adjust VKA therapy are among the
1046 most common reasons for withholding or ending OAC.^{352, 355-359} However, the considerable stroke risk without
1047 OAC often exceeds the bleeding risk on OAC, even in the elderly, in patients with cognitive dysfunction, or in
1048 patients with frequent falls or frailty.^{360, 361} The bleeding risk on aspirin is not different to the bleeding risk on
1049 VKA³⁶² or NOAC therapy,^{354, 363} while VKA and NOACs, but not aspirin, effectively prevent strokes in AF
1050 patients.^{38, 354, 362, 363}
1051

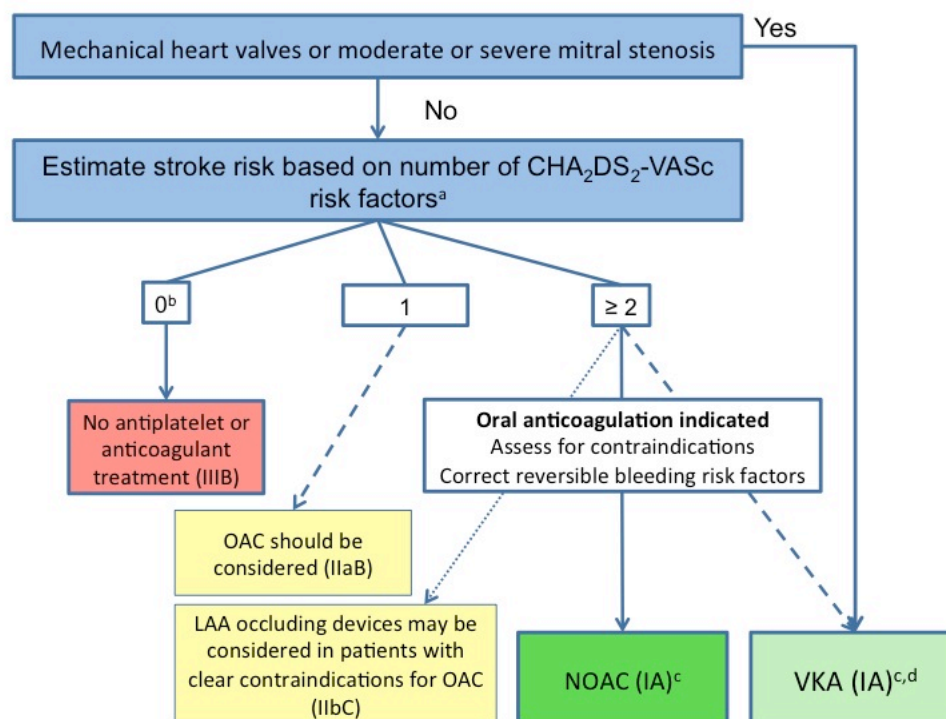


Figure 8 Stroke prevention in AF.

AF = atrial fibrillation; CHA₂DS₂-VASc = Congestive Heart failure, hypertension, Age ≥75 (doubled), Diabetes, Stroke (doubled), Vascular disease, Age 65–74, and Sex (female); LAA = left atrial appendage; NOAC = non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulant; OAC = oral anticoagulation; VKA = vitamin K antagonist.

^aCongestive heart failure, hypertension, age ≥75 years (2 points), diabetes, prior stroke/TIA/embolus (2 points), vascular disease, age 65–74, female sex.

^bIncludes women without other stroke risk factors.

^cIIaB for women with only one additional stroke risk factor,

^dIB for patients with mechanical heart valves or mitral stenosis

9.1. Prediction of stroke and bleeding risk

9.1.1. Clinical risk scores for stroke and systemic embolism

Simple, clinically applicable stroke risk-stratification schemes in AF patients were developed in the late 1990s in small cohort studies and have later been refined and validated in larger populations.³⁶⁴⁻³⁶⁸ The introduction of the CHA₂DS₂-VASc score (*Table 11*) has clearly simplified the initial decision for OAC in AF patients. Since its first incorporation in the ESC guidelines in 2010,³⁶⁹ it has been widely used.³⁷⁰ We recommend estimating stroke risk in AF patients based on the CHA₂DS₂-VASc score.³⁶⁸ In general, patients without clinical stroke risk factors do not need antithrombotic therapy, while patients with stroke risk factors (i.e. CHA₂DS₂-VASc score of 1 or more for men, and 2 or more for women) are likely to benefit from OAC.

Table 11 Clinical risk factors for stroke, transient ischemic attack, and systemic embolism in the CHA₂DS₂-VASc score.

CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VASc risk factor	Points
Congestive heart failure	+1
Signs/symptoms of heart failure or objective evidence of reduced left-ventricular ejection fraction	

Hypertension Resting blood pressure > 140/90 mmHg on at least two occasions or current antihypertensive treatment	+1
Age 75 years or older	+2
Diabetes mellitus Fasting glucose > 125 mg/dL or treatment with oral hypoglycaemic agent and/or insulin	+1
Previous stroke, transient ischemic attack, or thromboembolism	+2
Vascular disease Previous myocardial infarction, peripheral artery disease, or aortic plaque	+1
Age 65 to 74 years	+1
Sex category (female)	+1

1076 CHA₂DS₂-VASc = Congestive Heart failure, hypertension, Age ≥75 (doubled), Diabetes, Stroke (doubled),
1077 Vascular disease, Age 65–74, and Sex (female).

1078
1079 Other, less established risk factors for stroke include unstable international normalized ratio (INR) and low time
1080 in therapeutic range (TTR) in patients treated with VKAs; previous bleed or anaemia; alcohol excess and other
1081 markers for decreased therapy adherence; CKD; elevated high-sensitivity troponin T; and elevated N-terminal
1082 pro-B-type natriuretic peptide.

1084 9.1.2. Anticoagulation in patients with a CHA₂DS₂-VASc score of 1 in men and 2 1085 in women

1086 Controlled trials studying OAC in AF patients have been enriched for patients at high risk of stroke,^{38, 39, 42, 194,}
1087 ^{201, 329, 351, 352} and hence there is strong evidence that patients with a CHA₂DS₂-VASc risk score of 2 or more in
1088 men, and 3 or more in women benefit from OAC. Fortunately, we now have a growing evidence-base regarding
1089 stroke risk in patients with one clinical risk factor (i.e. CHA₂DS₂-VASc score of 1 for men, and 2 for women),
1090 although this relies largely on observed stroke rates in patients not receiving OAC. In many of these patients,
1091 anticoagulation seems to provide a clinical benefit.³⁷¹⁻³⁷⁵ The rates of stroke and thromboembolism vary
1092 considerably in patients with CHA₂DS₂-VASc scores of 1 or 2 due to differences in outcomes, populations, and
1093 anticoagulation status (*Web Addenda Table 1*).^{371, 376, 377, 1041} OAC should be considered for men with a
1094 CHA₂DS₂-VASc score of 1 and women with a score of 2, balancing the expected stroke reduction, bleeding
1095 risk, and patient preference. Importantly, age (65 years and older) conveys a relatively high and continuously
1096 increasing stroke risk that also potentiates other risk factors (such as heart failure and sex). Hence, an
1097 individualized weighing of risk, as well as patient preferences, should inform the decision to anticoagulate
1098 patients with only one CHA₂DS₂-VASc risk factor, apart from female sex. Female sex does not appear to
1099 increase stroke risk in the absence of other stroke risk factors (*Web Addenda Table 1*).^{378, 379}

1100 Measurement of cardiac troponin (high-sensitivity troponin T or I) and N-terminal pro-B-type
1101 natriuretic peptide may provide additional prognostic information in selected AF patients.³⁸⁰⁻³⁸² Biomarker-
1102 based risk scores may in the future prove helpful to better stratify patients (e.g. those at a truly low risk of
1103 stroke).^{75, 382}

1104 1105 9.1.3. Clinical risk scores for bleeding

1106 Several bleeding risk scores have been developed, mainly in patients on VKAs. These include HAS-BLED
1107 (hypertension, abnormal renal/liver function [1 point each], stroke, bleeding history or predisposition, labile
1108 INR, elderly [>65 years], drugs/alcohol concomitantly [1 point each]), ORBIT (Outcomes Registry for Better
1109 Informed Treatment of Atrial Fibrillation), and more recently, the ABC (age, biomarkers, clinical history)
1110 bleeding score, which also makes use of selected biomarkers.³⁸³⁻³⁸⁵ Stroke and bleeding risk factors overlap
1111 (compare *Table 11* and *Table 12*). For example, older age is one of the most important predictors of both
1112 ischaemic stroke and bleeding in AF patients.^{386, 387} A high bleeding risk score should generally not result in
1113 withholding OAC. Rather, bleeding risk factors should be identified and treatable factors corrected (see Section
1114 8.5). *Table 12* provides details of modifiable bleeding risk factors.

1115
1116 **Table 12** Modifiable and non-modifiable risk factors for bleeding in anticoagulated patients based on
1117 bleeding risk scores.

Modifiable bleeding risk factors
Hypertension (especially when systolic blood pressure is > 160 mmHg) ^{a,b,c}

Labile INR (in patients on vitamin K antagonists) or time in therapeutic range < 60% ^a
Medication predisposing to bleeding, such as antiplatelet drugs and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs ^{a,d}
Excess alcohol (≥ 8 drinks/week) ^{a,b}
Potentially modifiable bleeding risk factors
Anaemia ^{b,c,d}
Impaired renal function ^{a,b,c,d}
Impaired liver function ^{a,b}
Reduced platelet count or function ^b
Non-modifiable bleeding risk factors
Age ^e (> 65 years) ^a (≥ 75 years) ^{b,c,d}
History of major bleeding ^{a,b,c,d}
Previous stroke ^{a,b}
Dialysis-dependent CKD or renal transplant ^{a,c}
Cirrhotic liver disease ^a
Malignancy ^b
Genetic factors ^b
Biomarker-based bleeding risk factors
High-sensitivity troponin T ^e
Growth differentiation factor-15 ^e
Serum creatinine/estimated CrCL ^e

1118 ABC = age, biomarkers, clinical history; ATRIA = AnTicoagulation and Risk factors In Atrial fibrillation; CKD
 1119 = chronic kidney disease; CrCl = creatinine clearance; HAS-BLED = hypertension, abnormal renal/liver
 1120 function (1 point each), stroke, bleeding history or predisposition, labile INR, elderly (>65 years), drugs/alcohol
 1121 concomitantly (1 point each); INR = international normalized ratio; ORBIT = Outcomes Registry for Better
 1122 Informed Treatment of Atrial Fibrillation; TTR = time in therapeutic range; VKA = vitamin K antagonist.

1123 ^aDerived from the HAS-BLED score.³⁸⁴

1124 ^bDerived from the HEMORR₂HAGES score.³⁸³

1125 ^cDerived from the ATRIA score.³⁸⁵

1126 ^dDerived from the ORBIT score.³⁸⁸

1127 ^eDerived from the ABC bleeding score.³⁸⁷

1128

1129 **Recommendations for prediction of stroke and bleeding risk**

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
The CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VASc score is recommended for stroke risk prediction in patients with AF	I	A	368, 371, 386
Bleeding risk scores should be considered in AF patients on oral anticoagulation to identify modifiable factors for major bleeding	IIa	B	384, 386, 387, 389-392
Biomarkers such as high-sensitivity troponin and N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide may be considered to further refine stroke and bleeding risk in AF patients	IIb	B	380-382, 387, 393

1130 AF = atrial fibrillation; CHA₂DS₂-VASc = Congestive Heart failure, hypertension, Age ≥75 (doubled),

1131 Diabetes, Stroke (doubled), Vascular disease, Age 65–74, and Sex (female); OAC = oral anticoagulation.

1132 ^aClass of recommendation.

1133 ^bLevel of evidence.

1134 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

1135

1136 9.2. Stroke prevention

1137 9.2.1. Vitamin K antagonists

1138 Warfarin and other VKAs were the first anticoagulants used in AF patients. VKA therapy reduces risk of stroke
 1139 by two-thirds and mortality by one-quarter compared with control (aspirin or no therapy).³⁸ VKAs have been
 1140 used in many patients throughout the world with good outcomes,³⁹⁴⁻³⁹⁶ and this is reflected in the warfarin arms
 1141 of the NOAC trials (see Section 8.2.2.). The use of VKAs is limited by the narrow therapeutic interval,
 1142 necessitating frequent monitoring and dose adjustments, but VKAs, when delivered with adequate TTR, are

1143 effective for stroke prevention in AF patients. Clinical parameters can help to identify patients who are likely to
1144 achieve a decent TTR on VKA therapy.³⁹⁷ These have been summarized in the SAME-TT₂R₂ score. Patients who
1145 fare well on this score, when treated with a VKA, have on average a higher TTR than patients who do not fare
1146 well on the score.^{398, 399} VKAs are currently the only treatment with established safety in AF patients with
1147 rheumatic mitral valve disease and/or a mechanical heart valve prosthesis.⁴⁰⁰

1148 1149 **9.2.2. Non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulants**

1150 NOACs, including the direct thrombin inhibitor dabigatran and the factor Xa inhibitors apixaban, edoxaban, and
1151 rivaroxaban, are suitable alternatives to VKAs for stroke prevention in AF (*Table 13*). Their use in clinical
1152 practice is increasing rapidly.⁴⁰¹ All NOACs have a predictable effect (onset and offset) without need for regular
1153 anticoagulation monitoring. The phase III trials have been conducted with carefully selected doses of the
1154 NOACs, including clear rules for dose reduction that should be followed in clinical practice (*Table 13*).

1155 *Apixaban*

1156 In the ARISTOTLE (Apixaban for Reduction in Stroke and Other Thromboembolic Events in Atrial
1157 Fibrillation) trial,³¹⁹ apixaban reduced stroke or systemic embolism by 21% compared with warfarin, combined
1158 with a 31% reduction in major bleeding and an 11% reduction in all-cause mortality (all statistically significant).
1159 Rates of haemorrhagic stroke and intracranial haemorrhage, but not of ischaemic stroke, were lower on
1160 apixaban. Rates of gastrointestinal bleeding were similar between the two treatment arms.⁴⁰²

1161 Apixaban is the only NOAC that has been compared with aspirin in AF patients: apixaban significantly
1162 reduced stroke or systemic embolism by 55% compared with aspirin, with no significant difference in rates of
1163 major bleeding or intracranial haemorrhage.^{354, 403}

1164 *Dabigatran*

1165 In the RE-LY (Randomized Evaluation of Long-Term Anticoagulation Therapy) study,^{318, 404} dabigatran 150 mg
1166 twice daily reduced stroke and systemic embolism by 35% compared with warfarin without a significant
1167 difference in major bleeding events. Dabigatran 110 mg twice daily was non-inferior to warfarin for prevention
1168 of stroke and systemic embolism, with 20% fewer major bleeding events. Both dabigatran doses significantly
1169 reduced haemorrhagic stroke and intracranial haemorrhage. Dabigatran 150 mg twice daily significantly
1170 reduced ischaemic stroke by 24% and vascular mortality by 12%, while gastrointestinal bleeding was
1171 significantly increased by 50%. There was a non-significant numerical increase in the rate of myocardial
1172 infarction with both dabigatran doses,^{318, 404} which has not been replicated in large post-authorization
1173 analyses.³⁹⁶ These data have also replicated the benefit of dabigatran over VKAs found in the RE-LY trial in
1174 patients enriched for the higher dabigatran dose (150 mg twice daily).³⁹⁶

1175 *Edoxaban*

1176 In the ENGAGE AF-TIMI 48 (Effective Anticoagulation with Factor Xa Next Generation in Atrial Fibrillation–
1177 Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction 48) trial,³²¹ edoxaban 60 mg once daily and edoxaban 30 mg once daily
1178 (with dose reductions in certain patients according to *Table 13*), were compared with adjusted-dose warfarin.⁴⁰⁵
1179 Edoxaban 60 mg once daily was non-inferior to warfarin (primary outcome, HR 0.87; 97.5% CI 0.73–1.04; *P* =
1180 0.08). In an on-treatment analysis, edoxaban 60 mg once daily significantly reduced stroke or systemic
1181 embolism by 21% and significantly reduced major bleeding events by 20% compared with warfarin, while
1182 edoxaban 30 mg once daily was non-inferior to warfarin for prevention of stroke and systemic embolism but
1183 significantly reduced major bleeding events by 53%. Cardiovascular death was reduced in patients randomized
1184 to edoxaban 60 mg once daily or edoxaban 30 mg once daily compared with warfarin. Only the higher dose
1185 regimen has been approved for stroke prevention in AF.

1186 *Rivaroxaban*

1187 In the ROCKET-AF (Rivaroxaban Once Daily Oral Direct Factor Xa Inhibition Compared with Vitamin K
1188 Antagonism for Prevention of Stroke and Embolism Trial in Atrial Fibrillation) trial,³²⁰ patients were
1189 randomized to rivaroxaban 20 mg once daily or VKA, with a dose adjustment to 15 mg daily for those with
1190 estimated CrCl 30–49 mL/min by the Cockcroft–Gault formula. Rivaroxaban was non-inferior to warfarin for the
1191 prevention of stroke and systemic embolism in the intent-to-treat analysis, while the per-protocol on-treatment
1192 analysis achieved statistical superiority with a 21% reduction in stroke or systemic embolism compared with
1193 warfarin. Rivaroxaban did not reduce the rates of mortality, ischaemic stroke, or major bleeding events
1194 compared to VKA. There was an increase in gastrointestinal bleeding events, but a significant reduction in
1195 haemorrhagic stroke and intracranial haemorrhage with rivaroxaban compared with warfarin. Comparable event
1196 rates have been reported in post-authorization analyses, which are part of the post-approval risk-management
1197 process.^{406, 407}

1202 **Table 13** NOACs compared with warfarin in controlled trials

	Dabigatran (RE-LY)	Rivaroxaban (ROCKET-AF)	Apixaban (ARISTOTLE)	Edoxaban (ENGAGE AF-TIMI 48)
Mechanism	Oral direct thrombin inhibitor	Oral direct factor Xa inhibitor	Oral direct factor Xa inhibitor	Oral direct factor Xa inhibitor
Bioavailability, %	6	66 fasting, 80–100 with food	50	62
Time to peak levels, h	3	2–4	3	1–2
Half-life, h	12–17	5–13	9–14	10–14
Excretion	80% renal	66% liver, 33% renal	27% renal	50% renal
Dose	150 mg or 110 mg twice daily	20 mg once daily	5 mg twice daily	60 mg or 30 mg once daily
Dose reduction in selected patients		Rivaroxaban 15 mg once daily if CrCl 30–49 mL/min	Apixaban 2.5 mg twice daily if at least 2 of age ≥ 80 years, body weight ≤ 60 kg or serum creatinine level ≥ 1.5 mg/dL (133 μmol/L)	Edoxaban 60 mg reduced to 30 mg once daily, and edoxaban 30 mg reduced to 15 mg once daily, if any of the following: CrCl 30–50 mL/min, body weight ≤ 60 kg, concomitant use of verapamil or quinidine or dronedarone
Study design	Randomized, open-label	Randomized, double-blind	Randomized, double-blind	Randomized, double-blind
Number of patients	18,113	14,264	18,201	21,105
Follow-up period, years	2	1.9	1.8	2.8
Randomized groups	Dose-adjusted warfarin vs. blinded doses of dabigatran (150 mg twice daily or 110 mg twice daily)	Dose-adjusted warfarin vs. rivaroxaban 20 mg once daily	Dose-adjusted warfarin vs. apixaban 5 mg twice daily	Dose-adjusted warfarin vs. edoxaban (60 mg once daily or 30 mg once daily)
Age, years	Mean ± SD 71.5 ± 8.7	Median 73; IQR 65–78	Median 70; IQR 63–76	Median 72; IQR 64–78
Men, %	63.6	60.3	64.5	61.9
CHADS ₂ score (mean)	2.1	3.5	2.1	2.8

1203

	Warfarin	Dabigatran 150	Dabigatran 110	Warfarin	Rivaroxaban	Warfarin	Apixaban	Warfarin	Edoxaban 60	Edoxaban 30
	<i>n</i> = 6022	<i>n</i> = 6076	<i>n</i> = 6015	<i>n</i> = 7133	<i>n</i> = 7131	<i>n</i> = 9081	<i>n</i> = 9120	<i>n</i> = 7036	<i>n</i> = 7035	<i>n</i> = 7034
	Event rate, %/year	Event rate, %/year (RR vs. warfarin)	Event rate, %/year (RR vs. warfarin)	Event rate, %/year	Event rate, %/year (HR vs. warfarin)	Event rate, %/year	Event rate, %/year (HR vs. warfarin)	Event rate, %/year	Event rate, %/year (HR vs. warfarin)	Event rate, %/year (HR vs. warfarin)
Stroke/systemic embolism	1.72	1.12 (0.65, 0.52–0.81; <i>P</i> for non-inferiority and superiority < 0.001)	1.54 (0.89, 0.73–1.09; <i>P</i> for non-inferiority < 0.001)	2.42	2.12 (0.88, 0.75–1.03; <i>P</i> for non-inferiority < 0.001, <i>P</i> for superiority = 0.12)	1.60	1.27 (0.79, 0.66–0.95; <i>P</i> < 0.001 for non-inferiority, <i>P</i> = 0.01 for superiority)	1.80	1.57 (0.87, 0.73–1.04; <i>P</i> < 0.001 for non-inferiority, <i>P</i> = 0.08 for superiority)	2.04 (1.13, 0.96–1.34; <i>P</i> = 0.005 for non-inferiority, <i>P</i> = 0.10 for superiority)
Ischaemic stroke	1.22	0.93 (0.76, 0.59–0.97; <i>P</i> = 0.03)	1.34 (1.10, 0.88–1.37; <i>P</i> = 0.42)	1.42	1.34 (0.94; 0.75–1.17; <i>P</i> = 0.581)	1.05	0.97 (0.92, 0.74–1.13; <i>P</i> = 0.42)	1.25	1.25 (1.00, 0.83–1.19; <i>P</i> = 0.97)	1.77 (1.41, 1.19–1.67; <i>P</i> < 0.001)
Haemorrhagic stroke	0.38	0.10 (0.26, 0.14–0.49; <i>P</i> < 0.001)	0.12 (0.31, 0.17–0.56; <i>P</i> < 0.001)	0.44	0.26 (0.59; 0.37–0.93; <i>P</i> = 0.024)	0.47	0.24 (0.51, 0.35–0.75; <i>P</i> < 0.001)	0.47	0.26 (0.54, 0.38–0.77; <i>P</i> < 0.001)	0.16 (0.33, 0.22–0.50; <i>P</i> < 0.001)
Major bleeding	3.61	3.40 (0.94, 0.82–1.08; <i>P</i> = 0.41)	2.92 (0.80, 0.70–0.93; <i>P</i> = 0.003)	3.45	3.60 (1.04; 0.90–2.30; <i>P</i> = 0.58)	3.09	2.13 (0.69, 0.60–0.80; <i>P</i> < 0.001)	3.43	2.75 (0.80, 0.71–0.91; <i>P</i> < 0.001)	1.61 (0.47, 0.41–0.55; <i>P</i> < 0.001)
Intracranial bleeding	0.77	0.32 (0.42, 0.29–0.61; <i>P</i> < 0.001)	0.23 (0.29, 0.19–0.45; <i>P</i> < 0.001)	0.74	0.49 (0.67; 0.47–0.93; <i>P</i> = 0.02)	0.80	0.33 (0.42, 0.30–0.58; <i>P</i> < 0.001)	0.85	0.39 (0.47, 0.34–0.63; <i>P</i> < 0.001)	0.26 (0.30, 0.21–0.43; <i>P</i> < 0.001)
Gastrointestinal major bleeding	1.09	1.60 (1.48, 1.19–1.86; <i>P</i> < 0.001)	1.13 (1.04, 0.82–1.33; <i>P</i> = 0.74)	1.24	2.00 (1.61; 1.30–1.99; <i>P</i> < 0.001)	0.86	0.76 (0.89, 0.70–1.15; <i>P</i> = 0.37)	1.23	1.51 (1.23, 1.02–1.50; <i>P</i> = 0.03)	0.82 (0.67, 0.53–0.83; <i>P</i> < 0.001)
Myocardial infarction	0.64	0.81 (1.27, 0.94–1.71; <i>P</i> = 0.12)	0.82 (1.29, 0.96–1.75; <i>P</i> = 0.09)	1.12	0.91 (0.81; 0.63–1.06; <i>P</i> = 0.12)	0.61	0.53 (0.88, 0.66–1.17; <i>P</i> = 0.37)	0.75	0.70 (0.94, 0.74–1.19; <i>P</i> = 0.60)	0.89 (1.19, 0.95–1.49; <i>P</i> = 0.13)
Death from any cause	4.13	3.64 (0.88, 0.77–1.00; <i>P</i> = 0.051)	3.75 (0.91, 0.80–1.03; <i>P</i> = 0.13)	2.21	1.87 (0.85; 0.70–1.02; <i>P</i> = 0.07)	3.94	3.52 (0.89, 0.80–0.99; <i>P</i> = 0.047)	4.35	3.99 (0.92, 0.83–1.01; <i>P</i> = 0.08)	3.80 (0.87, 0.79–0.96; <i>P</i> = 0.006)

1204 AF = atrial fibrillation; CHADS₂ = Cardiac failure, Hypertension, Age, Diabetes, Stroke (Doubled); CrCl = creatinine clearance; HR = hazard ratio; IQR = interquartile range (25th to

1205 75th quartiles); RR = risk ratio; SD = standard deviation.

1206 RRs and HRs compared to warfarin therapy are presented with 95% confidence intervals and *P*-values.

1207

1208 **9.2.3. Non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulants or vitamin K antagonists**

1209 Both VKAs and NOACs are effective for the prevention of stroke in AF. A meta-analysis³⁹ based on the high-
 1210 dose treatment groups of the pivotal studies of warfarin versus NOACs included 42,411 patients receiving a
 1211 NOAC and 29,272 receiving warfarin. NOACs in these dosages significantly reduced stroke or systemic
 1212 embolic events by 19% compared with warfarin (RR 0.81; 95% CI 0.73–0.91; $P < 0.0001$), mainly driven by a
 1213 reduction in haemorrhagic stroke (RR 0.49; 95% CI 0.38–0.64; $P < 0.0001$). Mortality was 10% lower in
 1214 patients randomized to NOAC therapy (RR 0.90; 95% CI 0.85–0.95; $P = 0.0003$) and intracranial haemorrhage
 1215 was halved (RR 0.48; 95% CI 0.39–0.59; $P < 0.0001$), while gastrointestinal bleeding events were more
 1216 frequent (RR 1.25; 95% CI 1.01–1.55; $P = 0.04$).³⁹ The stroke reduction with NOACs was consistent in all
 1217 evaluated subgroups, while there was a suggestion of greater relative reduction in bleeding with NOACs at
 1218 centres with poor INR control (interaction $P = 0.022$). Notably, the substantial reduction in intracranial
 1219 haemorrhage by NOACs compared with warfarin seems unrelated to poor or good INR control.^{408, 409}

1220

1221 **9.2.4. Oral anticoagulation in atrial fibrillation patients with chronic kidney disease**

1222

1223 CKD is associated with stroke and bleeding in large data sets.^{410, 411} Anticoagulation can be safely used in AF
 1224 patients with moderate or moderate-to-severe CKD (glomerular filtration rate [GFR] ≥ 15 mL/min): the SPAF
 1225 (Stroke Prevention in Atrial Fibrillation) III trial randomized 805/1936 participants with stage 3 CKD (estimated
 1226 GFR < 59 mL/min/1.73 m²), and reported good outcomes on warfarin (INR 2–3).⁴¹² This finding is supported by
 1227 a large Swedish database, in which stroke risk was lower in CKD patients with AF treated with warfarin
 1228 (adjusted HR 0.76; 95% CI 0.72–0.80),⁴¹³ while bleeding was also slightly increased, especially during therapy
 1229 initiation.⁴¹⁴ In a meta-analysis of the major NOAC trials, patients with mild or moderate CKD suffered fewer
 1230 strokes, systemic emboli, or major bleeding events on NOACs than on warfarin.⁴¹⁵ Kidney function should be
 1231 regularly monitored in AF patients on OAC to allow dose adaptation for those on NOACs (Table 14) and to
 1232 refine risk estimation.⁴¹⁶

1233

1234 **Table 14** Inclusion criteria, dose adjustments, and outcomes in patients with chronic kidney disease in the
 1235 four major randomized trials comparing NOACs with warfarin in patients with AF. Adapted from Hart
 1236 *et al.*³¹⁶

	Dabigatran (RE-LY) ^{318, 425}	Rivaroxaban (ROCKET-AF) 320, 426	Apixaban (ARISTOTLE) ^{319, 427}	Edoxaban (ENGAGE AF- TIMI 48) ³²¹
Renal clearance	80%	35%	25%	50%
Number of patients	18,113	14,264	18,201	21,105
Dose	150 mg or 110 mg twice daily	20 mg once daily	5 mg twice daily	60 mg or 30 mg once daily
Exclusion criteria for CKD	CrCl < 30 mL/min	CrCl < 30 mL/min	Serum creatinine > 2.5 mg/dL or CrCl < 25 mL/min	CrCl < 30 mL/min
Dose adjustment with CKD	None	15 mg once daily if CrCl < 30 –49 mL/min	2.5 mg twice daily if serum creatinine ≥ 1.5 mg/dL plus age ≥ 80 years or weight ≤ 60 kg	30 mg or 15 mg once daily if CrCl < 50 mL/min
Per cent of patients with CKD	20% with CrCl 30–49 mL/min	21% with CrCl 30–49 mL/min	15% with CrCl 30–50 mL/dL	19% with CrCl < 50 mL/min
Reduction of stroke and systemic embolism	No interaction with CKD status	No interaction with CKD status	No interaction with CKD status	NA
Reduction of major haemorrhages compared with warfarin	Reduction in major haemorrhage with dabigatran was greater in patients with	Major haemorrhage similar	Reduction in major haemorrhage with apixaban	NA

	estimated GFR > 80 mL/min with either dose			
--	--	--	--	--

1237 AF = atrial fibrillation; CKD = chronic kidney disease; CrCl = creatinine clearance; GFR = glomerular filtration
1238 rate; NA = not available; NOAC = non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulant.

1239

1240 9.2.5. Oral anticoagulation in atrial fibrillation patients on dialysis

1241 Approximately one in eight dialysis patient suffers from AF, with an incidence rate of 2.7/100 patient-years.⁴¹⁷
1242 AF is associated with increased mortality in patients on dialysis.⁴¹⁷ There are no randomized trials assessing
1243 OAC in haemodialysis patients,⁴¹⁸ and no controlled trials of NOACs in patients with severe CKD (CrCl < 25–
1244 30 mL/min).³¹⁸⁻³²¹ Warfarin use was associated either with a neutral or increased risk of stroke in database
1245 analyses of patients on dialysis,⁴¹⁹⁻⁴²¹ including a population-based analysis in Canada (adjusted HR for stroke
1246 1.14; 95% CI 0.78–1.67, adjusted HR for bleeding 1.44; 95% CI 1.13–1.85).⁴²² In contrast, data from Denmark
1247 suggest a benefit of OAC in patients on renal replacement therapy.⁴²³ Hence, controlled studies of
1248 anticoagulants (both VKAs and NOACs) in AF patients on dialysis are needed.⁴²⁴

1249

1250 9.2.6. Patients with atrial fibrillation requiring kidney transplantation

1251 There are no randomized trials assessing OAC in patients after kidney transplantation. The prescription of
1252 NOAC therapy should be guided by the estimated GFR of the transplanted kidney. Potential pharmacokinetic
1253 interactions of OAC with immunosuppressive agents should be considered.

1254

1255

1256 9.2.7. Antiplatelet therapy as an alternative to oral anticoagulants

1257 The evidence supporting antiplatelet monotherapy for stroke prevention in AF is very limited.^{38, 428-430} VKA
1258 therapy prevents stroke, non-central nervous system embolus, myocardial infarction, and vascular death better
1259 than single or dual antiplatelet therapy with aspirin and clopidogrel (annual risk of 5.6% for aspirin and
1260 clopidogrel vs. 3.9% with VKA therapy).⁴³¹ Even greater benefits were seen in VKA-treated patients with a high
1261 TTR.⁴³² Antiplatelet therapy increases bleeding risk, especially dual antiplatelet therapy (2.0% vs. 1.3% with
1262 antiplatelet monotherapy; $P < 0.001$),⁴³³ with bleeding rates that are similar to those on OAC.^{354, 362, 431, 434} Thus,
1263 antiplatelet therapy cannot be recommended for stroke prevention in AF patients.

1264

1265 Recommendations for stroke prevention in patients with AF

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Oral anticoagulation therapy to prevent thromboembolism is recommended for all male AF patients with a CHA₂DS₂-VASc score of 2 or more	I	A	38, 318-321, 354, 404
Oral anticoagulation therapy to prevent thromboembolism is recommended in all female AF patients with a CHA₂DS₂-VASc score of 3 or more	I	A	38, 318-321, 354, 404
Oral anticoagulation therapy to prevent thromboembolism should be considered in male AF patients with a CHA₂DS₂-VASc score of 1, considering individual characteristics and patient preferences	IIa	B	371, 375-377
Oral anticoagulation therapy to prevent thromboembolism should be considered in female AF patients with a CHA₂DS₂-VASc score of 2, considering individual characteristics and patient preferences	IIa	B	371, 376, 377
Vitamin K antagonist therapy (INR 2.0–3.0 or higher) is recommended for stroke prevention in AF patients with moderate-to-severe mitral stenosis or mechanical heart valves	I	B	274, 435-440
When oral anticoagulation is initiated in a patient with AF who is eligible for a NOAC (apixaban, dabigatran, edoxaban, or rivaroxaban), a NOAC is recommended in preference to a Vitamin K antagonist	I	A	39, 318-321, 404
When patients are treated with a vitamin K antagonist, time	I	A	395, 432, 441-444

in therapeutic range (TTR) should be kept as high as possible and closely monitored			
AF patients already on treatment with a vitamin K antagonist may be considered for NOAC treatment if TTR is not well controlled despite good adherence, or if patient preference without contraindication (e.g. prosthetic valve)	IIb	A	39, 318, 319, 404, 408
Combinations of oral anticoagulants and platelet inhibitors increase bleeding risk and should be avoided in AF patients without another indication for platelet inhibition	III (harm)	B	429, 445
In male or female AF patients without additional stroke risk factors, anticoagulant or antiplatelet therapy is not recommended for stroke prevention	III (harm)	B	368, 371, 376, 377
Antiplatelet monotherapy is not recommended for stroke prevention in AF patients, regardless of stroke risk	III (harm)	A	38, 429, 430
NOACs (apixaban, dabigatran, edoxaban, and rivaroxaban) are not recommended in patients with mechanical heart valves (Level of evidence B) or moderate-to-severe mitral stenosis (Level of evidence C)	III (harm)	B/C	318-321, 400, 404

1266 AF = atrial fibrillation; CHA₂DS₂-VASc = Congestive Heart failure, hypertension, Age ≥75 (doubled),
 1267 Diabetes, Stroke (doubled), Vascular disease, Age 65–74, and Sex (female); INR = international normalized
 1268 ratio; NOAC = non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulant; OAC = oral anticoagulation; TTR = time in
 1269 therapeutic range; VKA = vitamin K antagonist.

1270 ^aClass of recommendation.

1271 ^bLevel of evidence.

1272 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

1273

1274 9.3. Left atrial appendage occlusion and exclusion

1275 9.3.1. Left atrial appendage occlusion devices

1276 Interventional LAA occlusion,⁴⁴⁶⁻⁴⁴⁹ and limited experience with percutaneous LAA ligation, has mainly been
 1277 reported in observational studies and registries. Only one device (Watchman®) has been compared with VKA
 1278 therapy in randomized trials (PROTECT AF [Watchman Left Atrial Appendage System for Embolic Protection
 1279 in Patients With AF trial], see *Web Addenda Table 2*; and PREVAIL [Prospective Randomized Evaluation of
 1280 the Watchman LAA Closure Device In Patients with AF Versus Long Term Warfarin Therapy trial]).⁴⁴⁹⁻⁴⁵¹ In
 1281 these data sets, LAA occlusion was non-inferior to VKA treatment for the prevention of stroke in AF patients
 1282 with moderate stroke risk, with a possibility of lower bleeding rates in the patients who continued follow-up.⁴⁵²
 1283 ⁴⁵³ These data were confirmed in a patient-level meta-analysis of the two trials and their associated registries.⁴⁵³
 1284 LAA occlusion may also reduce stroke risk in patients with contraindications to OAC.^{454, 455} The implantation
 1285 procedure can cause serious complications,^{446, 456-458} with high event rates reported in analyses from insurance
 1286 databases and systematic reviews, possibly identifying a certain degree of reporting bias.^{446, 456} A large recent
 1287 European registry reported a high rate of implantation success (98%), with an acceptable procedure-related
 1288 complication rate of 4% at 30 days.⁴⁵⁹ Most patients who historically would be considered unsuitable for OAC
 1289 therapy seem to do relatively well on contemporarily managed OAC.^{396, 407, 460} Adequately powered controlled
 1290 trials are urgently needed to inform the best use of these devices, including LAA occluders in patients who are
 1291 truly unsuitable for OAC or in patients who suffer a stroke on OAC, randomized comparisons of LAA occluders
 1292 with NOACs, and assessment of the minimal antiplatelet therapy acceptable after LAA occlusion.

1293

1294 9.3.2. Surgical left atrial appendage occlusion or exclusion

1295 Surgical LAA occlusion or exclusion concomitant to cardiac surgery has been performed for many decades and
 1296 with various techniques. Multiple observational studies indicate the feasibility and safety of surgical LAA
 1297 occlusion/exclusion, but only limited controlled trial data are available.⁴⁶¹⁻⁴⁶⁴ Residual LAA flow or incomplete
 1298 LAA exclusion can increase stroke risk.⁴⁶⁵ In most studies, LAA occlusion/exclusion was performed during
 1299 other open heart surgery, and more recently in combination with surgical ablation of AF⁴⁶³ or as a stand-alone
 1300 thoracoscopic procedure. One randomized trial evaluating the role of concomitant AF surgery and LAA
 1301 occlusion reported in 2015, without a clear benefit of LAA exclusion for stroke prevention in the subgroup
 1302 undergoing AF surgery.⁴⁶⁶ A large randomized trial is currently underway.⁴⁶⁷

1303

1304 Recommendations for occlusion or exclusion of the LAA

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
After surgical occlusion or exclusion of the LAA, it is recommended to continue anticoagulation in at-risk patients with AF for stroke prevention	I	B	461, 462
LAA occlusion may be considered for stroke prevention in patients with AF and contraindications for long-term anticoagulant treatment (e.g. those with a previous life-threatening bleed without a reversible cause)	IIb	B	449, 453, 454
Surgical occlusion or exclusion of the LAA may be considered for stroke prevention in patients with AF undergoing cardiac surgery	IIb	B	463
Surgical occlusion or exclusion of the LAA may be considered for stroke prevention in patients undergoing thoracoscopic ablation surgery	IIb	B	468

1305 AF = atrial fibrillation; LAA = left atrial appendage.

1306 ^aClass of recommendation.

1307 ^bLevel of evidence.

1308 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

1309

1310 9.4. Secondary stroke prevention

1311 The most important risk factors for stroke in patients with AF are advanced age and previous cardioembolic
1312 stroke or TIA,³⁸² emphasizing the need for OAC in these patients. The highest risk of recurrent stroke is in the
1313 early phase after a first stroke or TIA.^{469, 470}

1314

1315 9.4.1. Treatment of acute ischaemic stroke

1316 Systemic thrombolysis with recombinant tissue plasminogen activator (rtPA) is an effective and approved
1317 medical treatment for acute ischaemic stroke in patients presenting within 4.5 hours of symptom onset.⁴⁷¹

1318 Systemic thrombolysis is contraindicated in patients on therapeutic OAC.^{472, 473} Recombinant tissue
1319 plasminogen activator can be given in patients treated with a VKA if the INR is below 1.7,⁴⁷⁴ or in dabigatran-
1320 treated patients with a normal activated partial thromboplastin time and last intake of drug > 48 hours previously
1321 (based on expert consensus).⁴⁷² Whether specific NOAC antidotes⁴⁷⁵ could be used followed by systemic
1322 thrombolysis needs to be investigated. Thrombectomy can be performed in anticoagulated patients with distal
1323 occlusion of the internal carotid artery or middle cerebral artery in a 6-hour window.⁴⁷⁶

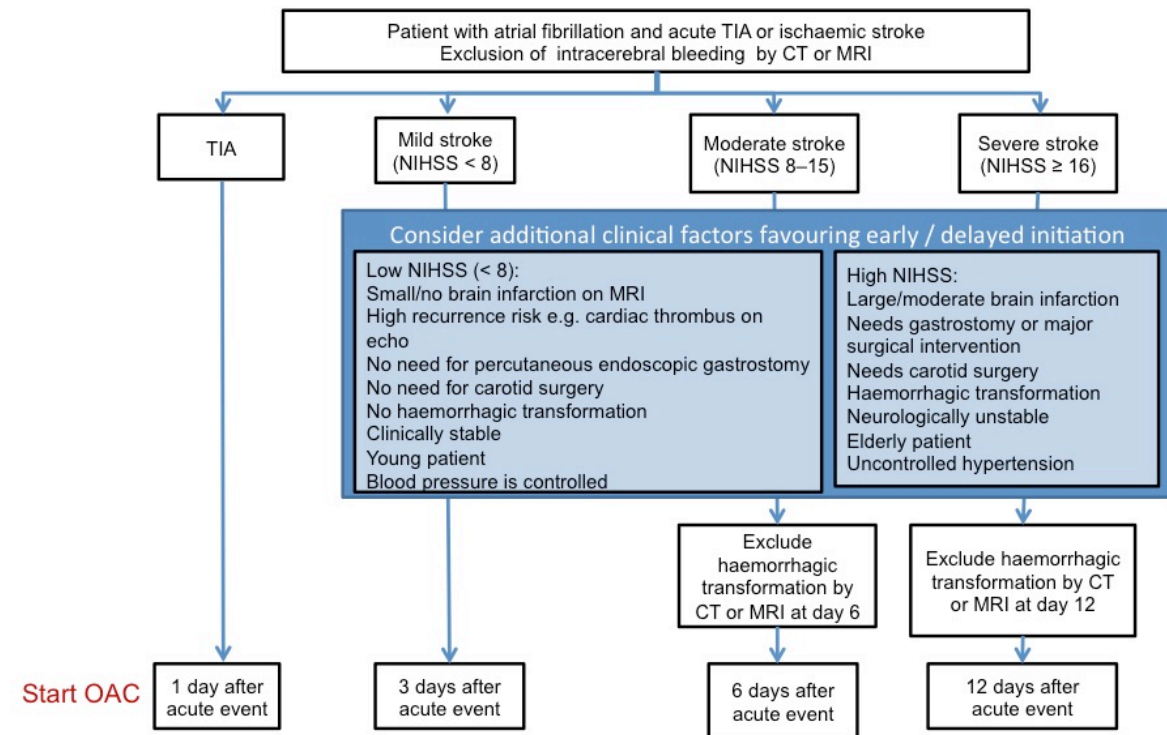
1324

1325 9.4.2. Initiation of anticoagulation after transient ischaemic attack or ischaemic 1326 stroke

1327 Data on the optimal use of anticoagulants (heparin, low-molecular-weight heparin, heparinoid, VKA, NOAC) in
1328 the first days after a stroke are scarce. Parenteral anticoagulants seem to be associated with a non-significant
1329 reduction in recurrent ischaemic stroke when administered 7 to 14 days after the acute stroke (odds ratio [OR]
1330 0.68; 95% CI 0.44–1.06), with a significant increase in symptomatic intracranial bleeding (OR 2.89; 95% CI
1331 1.19–7.01), and a similar rate of death or disability at final follow-up.⁴⁷⁷ It seems likely that the bleeding risk on
1332 parenteral anticoagulation exceeds the stroke prevention benefit in the first days after a large stroke, whereas
1333 patients with a TIA or a small stroke may benefit from early (immediate) initiation or continuation of
1334 anticoagulation. Therefore, we propose to initiate anticoagulation in AF patients between 1 and 12 days after an
1335 ischaemic stroke, depending on its severity (*Figure 9*).⁴⁷⁸ We suggest repeat brain imaging to determine the
1336 optimal initiation of anticoagulation in patients with a large stroke at risk for haemorrhagic transformation.
1337 Long-term OAC with a VKA^{363, 479–481} or NOAC⁴⁸² conveys benefits in AF patients who survived a stroke.
1338 NOACs seem to convey slightly better outcomes, mainly driven by fewer intracranial haemorrhages and
1339 haemorrhagic strokes (OR 0.44, 95% CI 0.32–0.62).⁴⁸² Detailed data for edoxaban have not yet been
1340 published.³²¹ If a patient suffers a stroke or TIA whilst taking an anticoagulant, switching to another
1341 anticoagulant should be considered.

1342

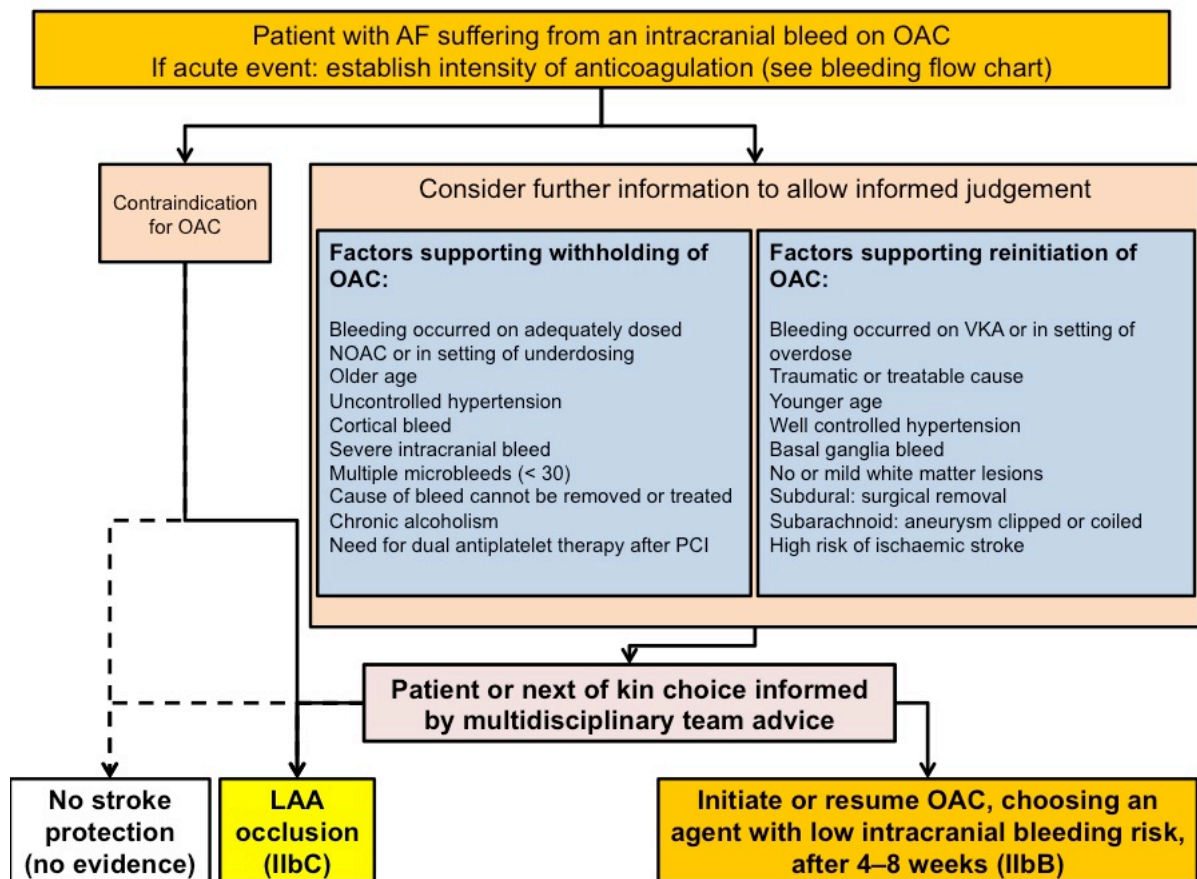
1343 **Figure 9** Initiation or continuation of anticoagulation in AF patients after a stroke or TIA. This approach is
 1344 based on consensus rather than prospective data.



1345 AF = atrial fibrillation; CT = computed tomography; MRI = magnetic resonance imaging; NIHSS = National
 1346 Institutes of Health stroke severity scale (available at [http://www.strokecenter.org/wp-](http://www.strokecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/08/NIH_Stroke_Scale.pdf)
 1347 [content/uploads/2011/08/NIH_Stroke_Scale.pdf](http://www.strokecenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/08/NIH_Stroke_Scale.pdf)); OAC = oral anticoagulation; TIA = transient ischaemic
 1348 attack.
 1349

1350 9.4.3. Initiation of anticoagulation after intracranial haemorrhage

1352 No prospective studies have investigated the benefit or risk of the initiation of OAC after intracranial
 1353 haemorrhage,⁴⁸³ and patients with a history of intracranial bleeding were excluded from the randomized trials
 1354 comparing NOACs with VKAs. The available evidence indicates that anticoagulation in patients with AF can be
 1355 reinitiated after 4–8 weeks, especially when the cause of bleeding or the relevant risk factor (e.g. uncontrolled
 1356 hypertension) has been treated, and that such treatment leads to fewer recurrent (ischaemic) strokes and lower
 1357 mortality.^{460, 484} If anticoagulation is resumed, it seems reasonable to consider anticoagulants with a low
 1358 bleeding risk.³⁹ *Figure 10* depicts a consensus opinion on the initiation or resumption of OAC after an
 1359 intracranial haemorrhage. We recommend a multidisciplinary decision with input from stroke
 1360 physicians/neurologists, cardiologists, neuroradiologists, and neurosurgeons.



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1363
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Recommendations for secondary stroke prevention

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Anticoagulation with heparin or low-molecular-weight heparin immediately after ischaemic stroke is not recommended in AF patients	III (harm)	A	477
In patients who suffer a transient ischemic attack or stroke while on anticoagulation, adherence to therapy should be assessed and optimized	IIa	C	
In patients who suffer a moderate-to-severe ischaemic stroke while on anticoagulation, anticoagulation should be interrupted for 3–12 days based on a multidisciplinary assessment of acute stroke and bleeding risk	IIa	C	
In AF patients who suffer a stroke, aspirin should be considered for prevention of secondary stroke until the initiation or resumption of oral anticoagulation.	IIa	B	485
Systemic thrombolysis with a recombinant tissue plasminogen activator is not recommended if the INR is above 1.7 (or, for patients on dabigatran, if activated partial thromboplastin time is outside the normal range)	III (harm)	C	472, 474
NOACs are recommended in preference to VKAs or aspirin in AF patients with a previous stroke	I	B	363, 482
After TIA or stroke, combination therapy of OAC and an	III (harm)	B	486

antiplatelet is not recommended			
After intracranial haemorrhage, oral anticoagulation in patients with AF may be reinitiated after 4–8 weeks provided the cause of bleeding or the relevant risk factor has been treated or controlled	IIb	B	483, 484, 487

1369

1370

1371 AF = atrial fibrillation; INR = international normalized ratio; NOAC = non-vitamin K antagonist oral
1372 anticoagulant; OAC = oral anticoagulation; TIA = transient ischaemic attack; VKA = vitamin K antagonist.

1373 ^aClass of recommendation.

1374 ^bLevel of evidence.

1375 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

1376

1377 **9.5. Strategies to minimize bleeding on anticoagulant therapy**

1378 In a meta-analysis of 47 studies, the overall incidence of major bleeding with VKAs was 2.1 (range 0.9–3.4) per
1379 100 patient-years in controlled trials and 2.0 (range 0.2–7.6) per 100 patient-years for observational data sets.⁴⁸⁸

1380 Minimizing treatable bleeding risk factors (see *Table 12*) seems paramount to reduce the bleeding rate on
1381 anticoagulants.

1382

1383 **9.5.1. Uncontrolled hypertension**

1384 Uncontrolled blood pressure increases the risk of bleeding on OAC.⁵³ Hence, keeping systolic blood pressure
1385 well controlled is of particular relevance in anticoagulated patients with AF. Treatment according to current
1386 guidelines is recommended in patients with known hypertension.⁴⁸⁹

1387

1388 **9.5.2. Previous bleeding event**

1389 History of bleeding events and the presence of anaemia are important parts of the assessment of all patients
1390 receiving OAC. The majority of bleeding events are gastrointestinal. Compared with warfarin, the risk of
1391 gastrointestinal bleeds was increased for dabigatran 150 mg twice daily,^{396, 490} rivaroxaban 20 mg once daily,⁴⁹¹
1392 and edoxaban 60 mg once daily.³²¹ The risk of gastrointestinal bleeds was comparable to warfarin on dabigatran
1393 110 mg twice daily⁴⁹⁰ and on apixaban 5 mg twice daily.³¹⁹ Recent observational analyses do not replicate these
1394 findings, suggesting a smaller effect.^{396, 492, 493} In patients in whom the source of bleeding has been identified and
1395 corrected, OAC can be reinitiated. This also appears true for patients who have had an intracranial haemorrhage,
1396 once modifiable bleeding risk factors (e.g. uncontrolled hypertension) have been corrected.^{460, 484}

1397

1398 **9.5.3. Labile international normalized ratio and adequate non-vitamin K 1399 antagonist oral anticoagulant dosing**

1400 TTR on VKA therapy is an important predictor of major haemorrhage.^{432, 441, 494} Therefore we recommend
1401 targeting the INR between 2.0 and 3.0 in patients on VKAs, maintaining a high TTR (e.g. $\geq 70\%$ ⁴⁹⁴), and to
1402 consider switching to a NOAC when a high TTR cannot be sustained.⁴⁴⁴ NOAC dosing should follow the dose-
1403 reduction criteria evaluated in the clinical trials, considering renal function, age, and weight. Patient information
1404 and empowerment, best delivered through integrated AF management, seem paramount to achieve this goal.

1405

1406 **9.5.4. Alcohol abuse**

1407 Alcohol excess is a risk factor for bleeding in anticoagulated patients,³⁸⁴ mediated by poor adherence, liver
1408 disease, variceal bleeding, and risk of major trauma. Severe alcohol abuse and binge drinking habits should be
1409 corrected in patients eligible for OAC.

1410

1411 **9.5.5. Falls and dementia**

1412 Falls and dementia are associated with increased mortality in AF patients,⁴⁹⁵ without evidence that these
1413 conditions markedly increase the risk of intracranial haemorrhage.^{495, 496} Hence, anticoagulation should only be
1414 withheld from patients with severe uncontrolled falls (e.g. epilepsy or advanced multisystem atrophy with
1415 backwards falls), or in selected patients with dementia where compliance and adherence cannot be ensured by a
1416 caregiver.

1417

1418 **9.5.6. Genetic testing**

1419 In addition to food and drug interactions, multiple genetic variations affect the metabolism of VKAs.⁴⁹⁷ The
1420 systematic use of genetic information for adjustment of VKA dosage has been evaluated in several controlled
1421 clinical studies.⁴⁹⁸⁻⁵⁰⁰ Genetic testing has little effect on TTR or bleeding risk on warfarin, and is not
1422 recommended for clinical use at present.⁵⁰¹

1423

1424 **9.5.7. Bridging periods off oral anticoagulation**

1425 Most cardiovascular interventions (e.g. percutaneous coronary intervention or pacemaker implantation) can be
1426 performed safely on continued OAC. When interruption of OAC is required, bridging does not seem to be
1427 beneficial, except in patients with mechanical heart valves. In a randomized trial of 1884 patients with AF,
1428 interruption of anticoagulation was non-inferior to heparin administration for the outcome of arterial
1429 thromboembolism (incidence of 0.4% and 0.3%, respectively) and resulted in a lower risk of major bleeding
1430 (1.3% and 3.2%, respectively).⁵⁰² A short interruption or continued OAC should be considered in patients at
1431 highest risk of stroke.

1432

1433 **9.6. Management of bleeding events in anticoagulated patients with atrial fibrillation**

1434 **9.6.1. Management of minor, moderate, and severe bleeding**

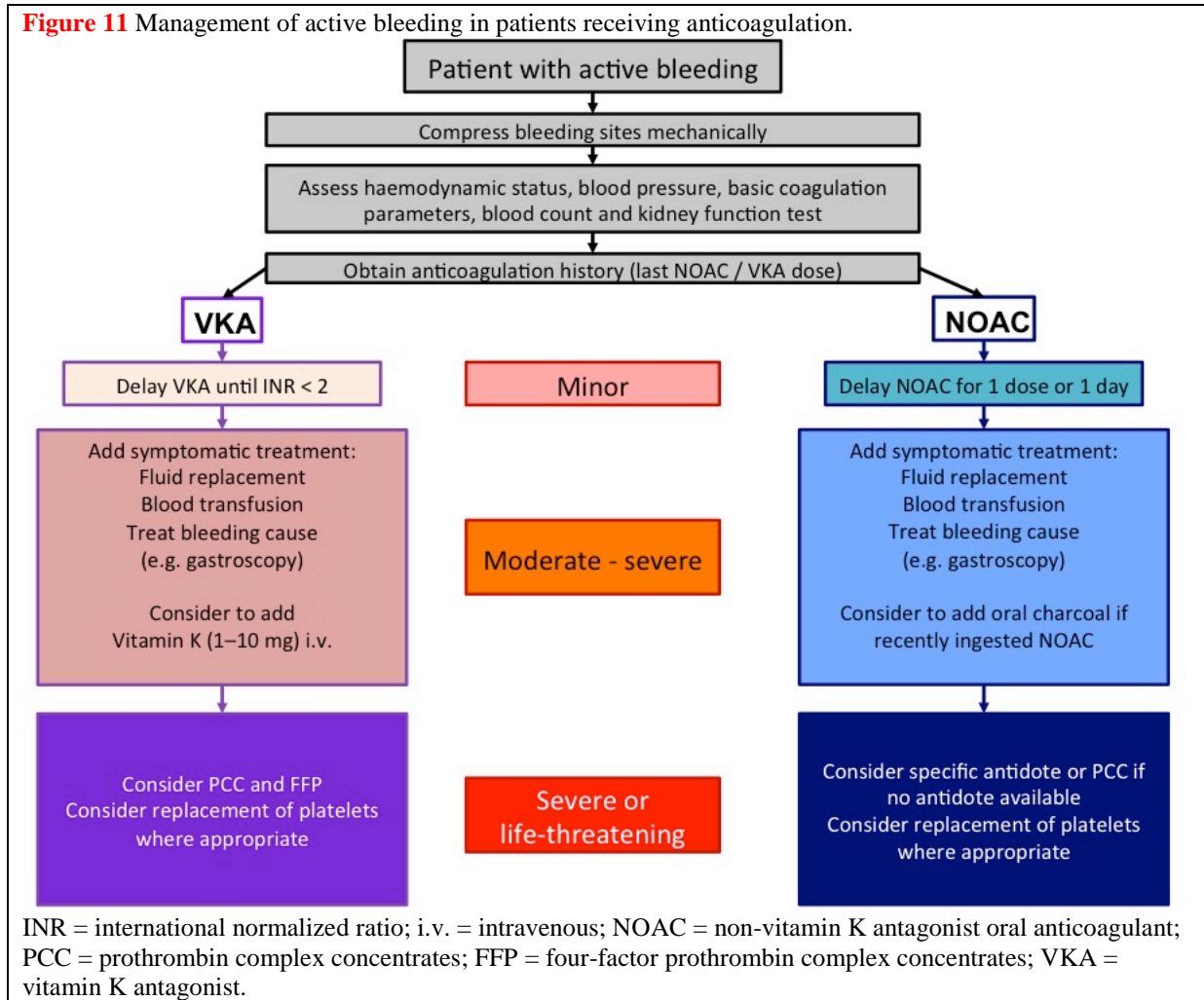
1435 General assessment of an anticoagulated patient with AF experiencing a bleeding event should include
1436 assessment of bleeding site, onset, and severity of the bleeding, the time-point of last intake of OAC and other
1437 antithrombotic drugs, and other factors influencing bleeding risk such as CKD, alcohol abuse, and concurrent
1438 medications. Laboratory tests should include haemoglobin, haematocrit, platelet count, renal function, and for
1439 VKA patients, prothrombin time, activated partial thromboplastin time, and INR. Coagulation tests do not
1440 provide much information in patients on NOACs, except for activated partial thromboplastin time in the case of
1441 dabigatran. More specific coagulation tests do exist, including diluted thrombin time (HEMOCLLOT) for
1442 dabigatran and calibrated quantitative anti-factor Xa assays for factor Xa inhibitors.⁵⁰³ However, these tests are
1443 not always readily available and are often unnecessary for bleeding management.⁵⁰⁴

1444 We propose a simple scheme to manage bleeding events in patients on OAC (*Figure 11*). Minor
1445 bleeding events should be treated with supportive measures such as mechanical compression or minor surgery to
1446 achieve haemostasis. In patients receiving VKAs, the next dose of VKA can be postponed. NOACs have a short
1447 plasma half-life of approximately 12 hours and improved haemostasis is expected within 12–24 hours after a
1448 delayed or omitted dose. Treatment of moderate bleeding events may require blood transfusions and fluid
1449 replacement. Specific diagnostic and treatment interventions directed against the cause of the bleeding (e.g.
1450 gastroscopy) should be performed promptly. If the intake of NOAC was recent (< 2–4 h), charcoal
1451 administration and/or gastric lavage will reduce further exposure. Dialysis clears dabigatran but is not effective
1452 for the other NOACs.

1453 Immediate reversal of the antithrombotic effect is indicated in severe or life-threatening bleeding
1454 events. An agreed, the institutional procedure for the management of life-threatening bleeds should be
1455 documented and accessible at all times to ensure adequate initial management. For VKAs, administration of
1456 fresh frozen plasma restores coagulation more rapidly than vitamin K, and prothrombin complex concentrates
1457 achieve even faster blood coagulation.⁵⁰⁵ Registry data suggest that the combination of plasma and prothrombin
1458 complex concentrates is associated with the lowest case fatality following intracranial haemorrhage on VKA
1459 treatment with an INR ≥ 1.3 .⁵⁰⁶ In a multicentre randomized trial of 188 patients, four-factor prothrombin
1460 complex concentrates achieved more rapid INR reversal and effective haemostasis than plasma in patients
1461 undergoing urgent surgical or invasive procedures.⁵⁰⁷ Administration of prothrombin complex concentrates may
1462 also be considered for severe bleeding on NOAC treatment if specific antidotes are not available.

1463 Several antidotes to NOACs are under development. Idarucizumab (approved in 2015 by the US Food
1464 and Drug Administration and the European Medicines Agency) is a clinically available humanized antibody
1465 fragment that binds dabigatran and rapidly and dose-dependently reverses the effects without over-correction or
1466 thrombin generation.⁴⁷⁵ Andexanet alpha, a modified recombinant human factor Xa that lacks enzymatic
1467 activity, reverses the anticoagulant activity of apixaban and rivaroxaban in healthy probands within minutes
1468 after administration and for the duration of infusion, with a transient increase in markers of coagulation activity
1469 of uncertain clinical relevance.⁵⁰⁸ Another agent under development is ciraparantag (PER977), an antidote
1470 targeted to reverse both direct thrombin and factor Xa inhibitors as well as the indirect inhibitor enoxaparin.⁵⁰⁹
1471 The clinical usefulness of these specific antidotes needs further evaluation.

1472

1473 **Figure 11** Management of active bleeding in patients receiving anticoagulation.

9.6.2. Oral anticoagulation in atrial fibrillation patients at risk of or having a bleeding event

While anticoagulation therapy should be paused to control active bleeding, absolute contraindications to long-term OAC after a bleeding episode are rare. When nuisance bleeds are the reason to stop OAC, a change from one anticoagulant to another seems reasonable. Many causes or triggers of major bleeding events can be treated and/or eliminated, including uncontrolled hypertension, gastrointestinal ulcers, and intracranial aneurysms. Reinitiation of anticoagulation after a bleeding event is often clinically justified.^{460, 510} Difficult decisions, including the discontinuation and recommencement of OAC, should be taken by a multidisciplinary team, balancing estimated risk of recurrent stroke and bleeding, and considering the bleeding risk of different stroke prevention therapies. LAA exclusion or occlusion might be an alternative in selected patients.

Recommendations for management of bleeding

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Blood pressure control in anticoagulated patients with hypertension should be considered to reduce the risk of bleeding	IIa	B	511
When dabigatran is used, a reduced dose of dabigatran (110 mg twice daily) may be considered in patients > 75 years to reduce the risk of bleeding	IIb	B	490
In patients at high risk of gastrointestinal bleeding, a VKA or another NOAC should be preferred over dabigatran 150 mg twice daily, rivaroxaban 20 mg once daily, or edoxaban 60 mg once daily	IIa	B	321, 396, 402, 405, 490, 492, 493, 512

Advice and treatment to avoid alcohol excess should be considered in all AF patients considered for OAC	IIa	C	
Genetic testing before the initiation of VKA therapy is not recommended.	III (no benefit)	B	⁴⁹⁷
Reinitiation of OAC after a bleeding event should be considered in all eligible patients by a multidisciplinary AF team, considering different anticoagulants and stroke-prevention interventions, improved management of factors that contributed to bleeding, and stroke risk	IIa	B	⁴⁶⁰
In AF patients with severe active bleeding events, it is recommended to interrupt OAC therapy until the underlying cause is resolved	I	C	

1491 AF = atrial fibrillation; NOAC = non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulant; OAC = oral anticoagulation;

1492 VKA = vitamin K antagonist

1493 ^aClass of recommendation.

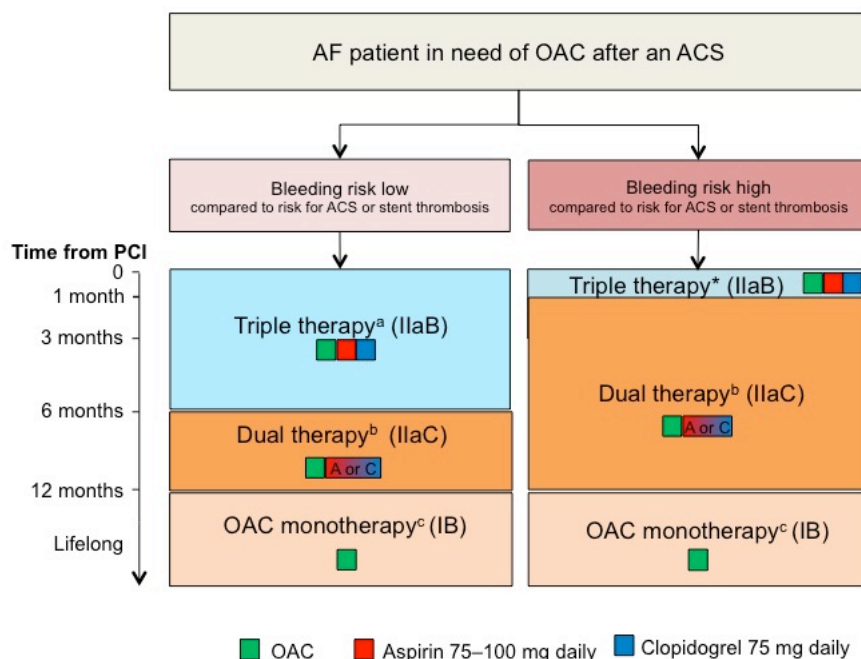
1494 ^bLevel of evidence.

1495 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

1496

1497 **9.7. Combination therapy with oral anticoagulants and antiplatelets**

1498 Approximately 15% of AF patients in contemporary trials⁵¹³ and registries⁵¹⁴⁻⁵¹⁶ have a history of myocardial
 1499 infarction. Between 5% and 15% of AF patients will require stenting at some point in their lives. This scenario
 1500 requires careful consideration of antithrombotic therapy, balancing bleeding risk, stroke risk, and risk of acute
 1501 coronary syndromes (ACS).⁵¹⁶ Co-prescription of OAC with antiplatelet therapy, in particular triple therapy,
 1502 increases the absolute risk of major haemorrhage.^{445, 517, 518} A recent meta-analysis involving 30,866 patients
 1503 with a recent ACS evaluated the effects of adding NOAC therapy to single (4135 patients) or dual (26,731
 1504 patients) antiplatelet therapy.⁵¹⁹ The addition of a NOAC increased the bleeding risk by 79–134%, while
 1505 reducing recurrent ischaemic events only marginally in patients without AF. OAC monotherapy, and not
 1506 combination therapy with antiplatelets, is recommended in AF patients with stable CAD but without an ACS
 1507 and/or coronary intervention in the previous 12 months. In patients treated for ACS and in those receiving a
 1508 coronary stent, short-term triple combination therapy of OAC, clopidogrel, and aspirin seems warranted (*Figure*
 1509 *12*).



1510

1511 **Figure 12** Antithrombotic therapy after an ACS in AF patients requiring anticoagulation.

1512 ACS = acute coronary syndrome; AF = atrial fibrillation; OAC = oral anticoagulation (using vitamin K

1513 antagonists or non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulants); PCI = percutaneous coronary intervention.

1514 ^aDual therapy with OAC and aspirin or clopidogrel may be considered in selected patients, especially those not

1515 receiving a stent or patients at a longer time from the index event.

1516 ^bOAC plus single antiplatelet.1517 ^cDual therapy with OAC and an antiplatelet agent (aspirin or clopidogrel) may be considered in patients at high

1518 risk of coronary events.

1519

1520

1521

1522

9.7.1. Antithrombotic therapy after acute coronary syndromes and percutaneous coronary intervention in patients requiring oral anticoagulation

1523 The optimal combination antithrombotic therapy or duration of combination therapy for AF patients undergoing

1524 percutaneous coronary intervention is not known, but the continued bleeding risk suggests a short duration.

1525 Expert consensus,⁵²⁰ reviewed and reconsidered by this Task Force, suggests the following principles: AF

1526 patients at risk for stroke, patients with mechanical valves, and patients with recent or recurrent deep vein

1527 thrombosis or pulmonary embolism should continue OAC during and after stenting. In general, a short period of

1528 triple therapy (OAC, aspirin, clopidogrel) is recommended, followed by a period of dual therapy (OAC plus a

1529 single antiplatelet) (Figure 13). When a NOAC is used, the consensus recommendation is that the lowest dose

1530 effective for stroke prevention in AF should be considered. Dose reduction beyond the dosing regimens tested in

1531 the phase III trials is not currently recommended, and awaits assessment in ongoing controlled trials. The

1532 combination of aspirin, clopidogrel, and low-dose rivaroxaban (2.5 mg twice daily) is not recommended for

1533 stroke prevention in AF.⁵²¹

1534 The use of prasugrel or ticagrelor as part of triple therapy should be avoided unless there is a clear need

1535 for these agents (e.g. stent thrombosis on aspirin plus clopidogrel), given the lack of evidence and the greater

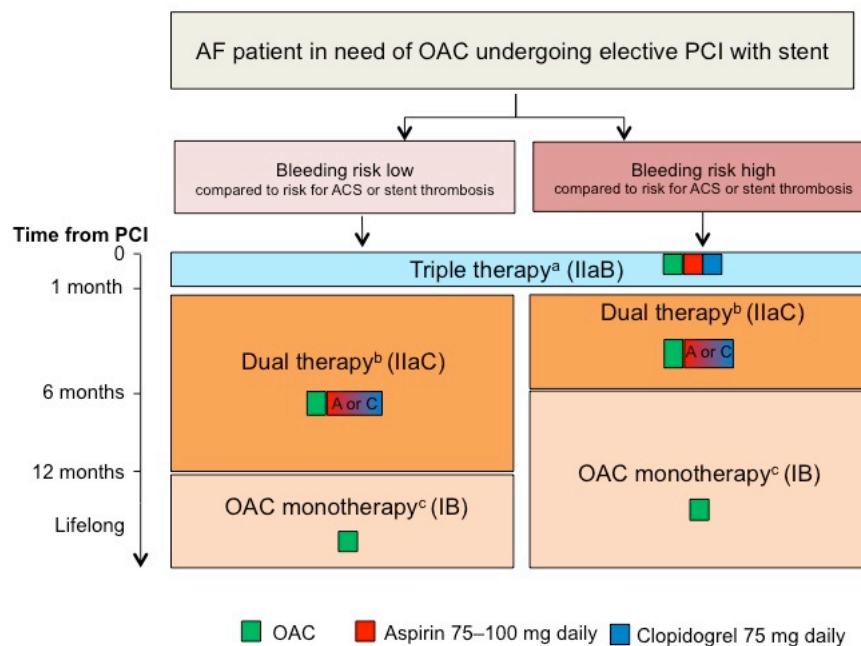
1536 risk of major bleeding compared with clopidogrel.^{522, 523} Ongoing trials will inform about such combination

1537 therapies in the future.

1538 The omission of aspirin while maintaining clopidogrel and OAC has been evaluated in the WOEST

1539 (What is the Optimal antiplatElet and anticoagulant therapy in patients with oral anticoagulation and coronary

1540 StenTing) trial, in which 573 anticoagulated patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention (70% with
 1541 AF) were randomized to either dual therapy with OAC and clopidogrel (75 mg once daily) or to triple therapy
 1542 with OAC, clopidogrel, and aspirin.⁵²⁴ Bleeding was lower in the dual versus triple therapy arm, driven by fewer
 1543 minor bleeding events. The rates of myocardial infarction, stroke, target vessel revascularization, and stent
 1544 thrombosis did not differ (albeit with low event numbers), but all-cause mortality was lower in the dual therapy
 1545 group at 1 year (2.5% vs. triple 6.4%). Although the trial was too small to assess ischaemic outcomes, dual
 1546 therapy with OAC and clopidogrel may emerge in the future as an alternative to triple therapy in patients with
 1547 AF and ACS and/or coronary intervention.⁵²⁵



1548
 1549 **Figure 13** Antithrombotic therapy after percutaneous intervention in AF patients requiring anticoagulation.
 1550 ACS = acute coronary syndrome; AF = atrial fibrillation; OAC = oral anticoagulation (using vitamin K
 1551 antagonists or non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulants); PCI = percutaneous coronary intervention.

1552 ^aDual therapy with OAC and aspirin or clopidogrel may be considered in selected patients.

1553 ^bOAC plus single antiplatelet.

1554 ^cDual therapy with OAC and an antiplatelet agent (aspirin or clopidogrel) may be considered in patients at high
 1555 risk of coronary events.

1556

1557 Recommendations for combination therapy with oral anticoagulants and antiplatelets

1558

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
After elective coronary stenting for stable coronary artery disease in AF patients at risk of stroke, combination triple therapy with aspirin, clopidogrel and an oral anticoagulant should be considered for 1 month to prevent recurrent coronary and cerebral ischaemic events	IIa	B	522, 524
After an ACS with stent implantation in AF patients at risk of stroke, combination triple therapy with aspirin, clopidogrel, and an oral anticoagulant should be considered for 1–6 months to prevent recurrent coronary and cerebral ischaemic events	IIa	C	520

After an ACS without stent implantation in AF patients at risk of stroke, dual therapy with an oral anticoagulant and aspirin or clopidogrel should be considered for up to 12 months to prevent recurrent coronary and cerebral ischaemic events	IIa	C	
The duration of combination antithrombotic therapy, especially triple therapy, should be kept to a limited period, balancing the estimated risk of recurrent coronary events and bleeding	IIa	B	520
Dual therapy with any oral anticoagulant plus clopidogrel 75 mg/day may be considered as an alternative to initial triple therapy with aspirin in selected patients.	IIb	C	524, 525

1559 ACS = acute coronary syndromes; AF = atrial fibrillation

1560 ^aClass of recommendation.

1561 ^bLevel of evidence.

1562 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

1563

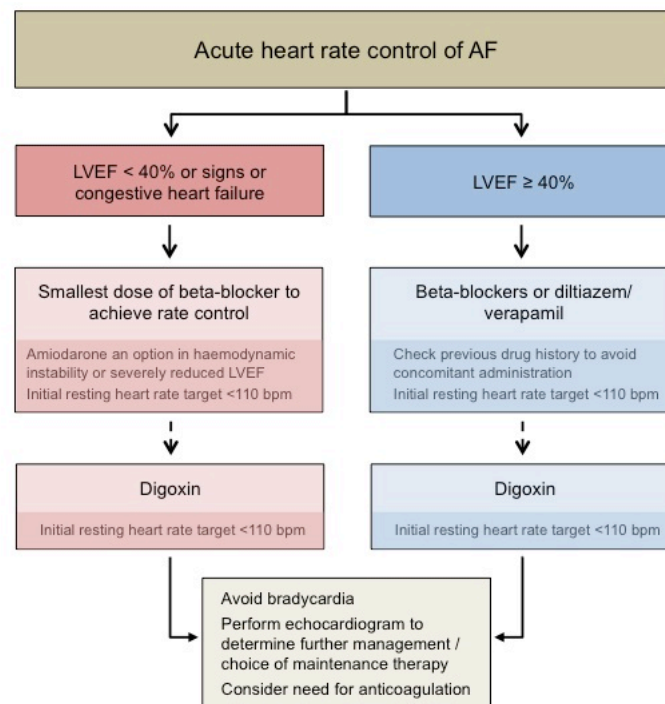
1564 **10 Rate control therapy in AF**

1565 Rate control is an integral part of the management of AF patients, and is often sufficient to improve AF-related
 1566 symptoms. Compared with stroke prevention and rhythm control, very little robust evidence exists to inform the
 1567 best type and intensity of rate control treatment, with the majority of data derived from short-term crossover
 1568 trials and observational studies.^{41, 526-528} Pharmacological rate control can be achieved for acute or long-term rate
 1569 control with beta-blockers, digoxin, the calcium channel blockers diltiazem and verapamil, or combination
 1570 therapy (*Table 15*). A number of antiarrhythmic drugs also have rate-limiting properties (amiodarone,
 1571 dronedarone, sotalol, and to some extent propafenone), but they should only be used in patients needing rhythm
 1572 control therapy (see Chapter 10).

1573

1574 **10.1. Acute rate control**

1575 In the setting of acute new-onset AF, patients are often in need of heart rate control. Physicians should evaluate
 1576 underlying causes of elevated heart rate, such as infection, endocrine imbalance, anaemia, and pulmonary
 1577 embolism. For acute rate control, beta-blockers and diltiazem/verapamil are preferred over digoxin because of
 1578 their rapid onset of action and effectiveness at high sympathetic tone.⁵²⁸⁻⁵³² The choice of drug (*Table 15*) and
 1579 target heart rate will depend on patient characteristics, symptoms, LVEF and haemodynamics, but a lenient
 1580 initial approach to heart rate seems acceptable. Combination therapy may be required (*Figure 14*). In patients
 1581 with evidence of HFrEF, beta-blockers, digitalis (digoxin or digitoxin), or their combination should be used,^{218,}
 1582 ⁵³³ as diltiazem and verapamil can have negative inotropic effects in patients with LVEF < 40%.^{222, 534, 535} In
 1583 critically ill patients and those with severely impaired LV systolic function, intravenous amiodarone can be used
 1584 where excess heart rate is leading to haemodynamic instability.⁵³⁶⁻⁵³⁸ Urgent cardioversion should be considered
 1585 in unstable patients (see Chapter 10.2).



1586
1587
1588
1589
1590

Figure 14 Acute heart rate control of AF.

See Table 15 for medication dosage. Digitoxin is a suitable alternative to digoxin, where available.
AF = atrial fibrillation; bpm = beats per minute; LVEF = left ventricular ejection fraction.

1591 10.2. Long-term pharmacological rate control

1592 10.2.1. Beta-blockers

1593 Beta-adrenoreceptor blocker monotherapy is often the first-line rate-controlling agent,⁵³⁹ largely based on
1594 observations of better acute heart rate control than digoxin. Interestingly, the prognostic benefit of beta-blockers
1595 seen in HFrEF patients with sinus rhythm is lost in those with AF. In an individual patient-level meta-analysis
1596 of RCTs, beta-blockers did not reduce all-cause mortality compared to placebo in those with AF at baseline (HR
1597 0.97; 95% CI 0.83–1.14; $P = 0.73$), whereas there was a clear benefit in patients with sinus rhythm (HR 0.73;
1598 95% CI 0.67–0.80; $P < 0.001$).²³ The study, which included 3066 participants with HFrEF and AF, showed
1599 consistency across all subgroups and outcomes, with no heterogeneity between the 10 RCTs included ($I^2 = 0\%$).
1600 Despite this lack of prognostic benefit in HFrEF, this Task Force still considers beta-blockers as a useful first-
1601 line rate control agent across all AF patients, based on the potential for symptomatic and cardiac function
1602 improvement as a result of rate control, the lack of harm from published studies, and the good tolerability profile
1603 across all ages in sinus rhythm and in AF.^{23, 540}

1604

1605 10.2.2. Non-dihydropyridine calcium channel blockers

1606 Verapamil or diltiazem provides reasonable rate control in AF patients.⁵⁴¹ They should be avoided in patients
1607 with HFrEF because of their negative inotropic effects.^{222, 534, 535} Verapamil or diltiazem can improve
1608 arrhythmia-related symptoms,⁵²⁶ in comparison with beta-blockers, which reduced exercise capacity and
1609 increased B-type natriuretic peptide in one small trial of low-risk patients with preserved LVEF.⁵⁴²

1610

1611 10.2.3. Digitalis

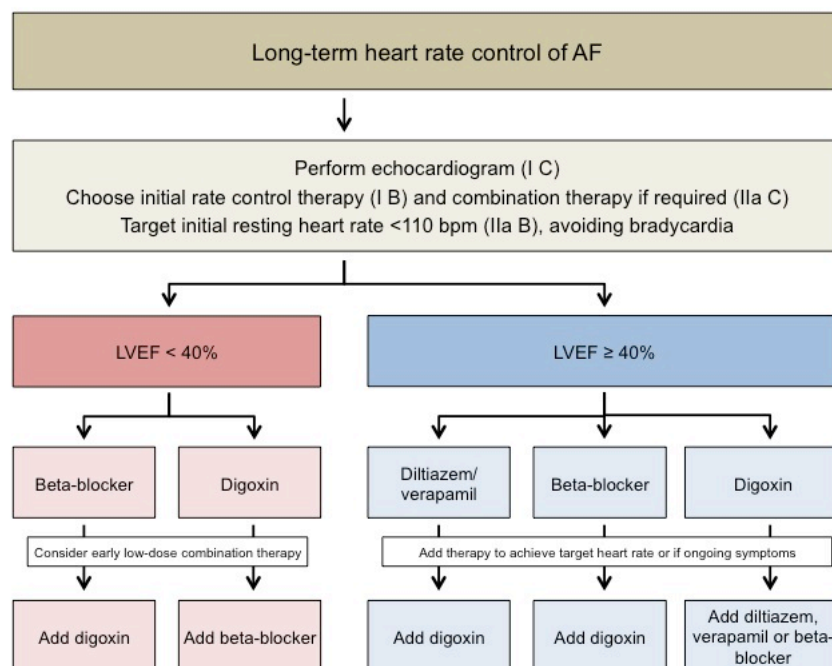
1612 Cardiac glycosides such as digoxin and digitoxin have been in use for over two centuries, although prescriptions
1613 have been declining steadily over the past 15 years.⁵⁴³ In the randomized Digitalis Investigation Group (DIG)
1614 trial, digoxin had no effect on mortality compared to placebo in HFrEF patients in sinus rhythm (RR 0.99; 95%

1615 CI 0.91–1.07), but reduced hospital admissions (RR 0.72; 95% CI 0.66–0.79).^{544, 545} There have been no head-
 1616 to-head RCTs of digoxin in AF patients.⁵⁴⁶ Observational studies have associated digoxin use with excess
 1617 mortality in AF patients,⁵⁴⁷⁻⁵⁴⁹ but this association is likely due to selection and prescription biases rather than
 1618 harm caused by digoxin,⁵⁵⁰⁻⁵⁵³ particularly as digoxin is commonly prescribed to sicker patients.²²⁵ In a
 1619 crossover mechanistic trial of 47 patients with HFrEF and AF, there were no differences in heart rate, blood
 1620 pressure, walking distance, or LVEF between carvedilol and digoxin, although beta-blockers did result in higher
 1621 B-type natriuretic peptide levels, combination carvedilol/digoxin improved LVEF, and digoxin withdrawal
 1622 reduced LVEF.⁵⁵⁴ Comparisons with other rate control therapies are based on small, short-duration studies that
 1623 identify no or marginal differences in exercise capacity, quality of life, or LVEF compared to digoxin.^{526, 554-558}
 1624 Lower doses of digoxin (≤ 250 μg once daily), corresponding to serum digoxin levels of 0.5–0.9 ng/mL, may be
 1625 associated with better prognosis.²²⁵

1627 10.2.4. Amiodarone

1628 Amiodarone can be useful for rate control as a last resort. The wide array of extracardiac adverse effects
 1629 associated with amiodarone renders it a reserve agent in patients whose heart rate cannot be controlled with
 1630 combination therapy (e.g. beta-blocker or verapamil/diltiazem combined with digoxin).

1631
 1632 In summary, there is equipoise for the use of different rate control agents in AF. The choice of beta-blocker,
 1633 diltiazem/verapamil, digoxin, or combination therapy should be made on an individual basis, after consideration
 1634 of patient characteristics and patient preference. All available therapies have the potential for adverse effects and
 1635 patients should initially be treated with a low dose and uptitrated to achieve symptom improvement. In practice,
 1636 achieving a heart rate < 110 bpm will often require combination therapy (*Figure 15*). The benefit of different
 1637 rate control strategies on symptoms, quality of life, and other intermediate outcomes is under investigation.⁵⁵⁹



1638

1639 **Figure 15** Long-term heart rate control of AF.

1640 See *Table 15* for medication dosage. Digitoxin is a suitable alternative to digoxin, where available.

1641 AF = atrial fibrillation; bpm = beats per minute; LVEF = left ventricular ejection fraction.

1642

1643 10.3. Heart rate targets in atrial fibrillation

1644 The optimal heart rate target in AF patients is unclear. The RACE (Rate Control Efficacy in Permanent Atrial
 1645 Fibrillation) II study randomized 614 patients with permanent AF to either a target heart rate < 80 bpm at rest
 1646 and < 110 bpm during moderate exercise, or to a lenient heart rate target of < 110 bpm. There was no difference
 1647 in a composite of clinical events (14.9% in the strict rate control group, 12.9% in the lenient group),⁵⁶⁰ NYHA
 1648 class, or hospitalizations.^{560, 561} Similar results were found in a pooled analysis of the AFFIRM (Atrial
 1649 Fibrillation Follow-up Investigation of Rhythm Management) and RACE trials (1091 participants), albeit with
 1650 smaller heart rate differences and without randomization.⁵⁶² It is worthwhile to note that many ‘adequately rate-
 1651 controlled’ patients (resting heart rate 60–100 bpm) are severely symptomatic, calling for additional
 1652 management.¹⁹⁴ Nonetheless, lenient rate control is an acceptable initial approach, regardless of heart failure
 1653 status, unless symptoms call for stricter rate control.
 1654

1655 10.4. Atrioventricular node ablation and pacing

1656 Ablation of the atrioventricular node/His bundle and implantation of a VVI pacemaker can control ventricular
 1657 rate when medications fail to control rate and symptoms. It is a relatively simple procedure with a low
 1658 complication rate and low long-term mortality risk,^{563, 564} especially when the pacemaker is implanted a few
 1659 weeks before the AV nodal ablation and the initial pacing rate after ablation is set at 70–90 bpm.^{565, 566} The
 1660 procedure does not worsen LV function⁵⁶⁷ and may even improve LVEF in selected patients.⁵⁶⁸⁻⁵⁷⁰ In some
 1661 patients in heart failure treated with biventricular pacing (cardiac resynchronization therapy), AF can
 1662 terminate,⁵⁷¹ although such a ‘rhythm control’ effect of cardiac resynchronization therapy is likely to be small
 1663 and clearly needs confirmation.⁵⁷² AV nodal ablation renders patients pacemaker-dependent for the rest of their
 1664 lives, limiting AV nodal ablation and pacing to patients whose symptoms cannot be managed by rate controlling
 1665 medication or by reasonable rhythm control interventions. The choice of pacing therapy (right ventricular or
 1666 biventricular pacing with or without an implantable defibrillator) will depend on individual patient
 1667 characteristics, including LVEF.^{573, 574}
 1668

1669 Recommendations for rate control

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Beta-blocker, digoxin, diltiazem, or verapamil are recommended to control heart rate in AF patients with LVEF ≥ 40%	I	B	225, 526, 528, 531, 532, 541, 555, 575
Beta-blocker and/or digoxin are recommended to control heart rate in AF patients with LVEF < 40%	I	B	23, 225, 526, 533, 554, 575, 576
Combination therapy comprising different rate controlling agents should be considered if a single agent does not achieve the necessary heart rate target	IIa	C	23, 554, 577
In cases of haemodynamic instability or severe depression in LVEF, amiodarone may be considered for acute control of heart rate	IIb	B	536-538
In patients with permanent AF (i.e. where no attempt to restore sinus rhythm is planned), antiarrhythmic drugs should not routinely be used for rate control	III (harm)	A	41, 578, 579
A resting heart rate of < 110 bpm (i.e. lenient rate control) should be considered as the initial heart rate target for rate control therapy	IIa	B	560
Rhythm rather than rate control strategies should be considered as the preferred management in pre-excited AF and AF during pregnancy	IIa	C	
Atrioventricular node ablation should be considered to control heart rate in patients unresponsive or intolerant to intensive rate and rhythm control therapy, accepting that these patients will become pacemaker dependent	IIa	B	184, 564, 569

1670 AF = atrial fibrillation; bpm = beats per minute; LVEF = left ventricular ejection fraction.

1671 Digitoxin is a suitable alternative to digoxin, where available. In patients with heart failure with reduced ejection
 1672 fraction (LVEF < 40%), recommended beta-blockers are bisoprolol, carvedilol, long-acting metoprolol, and
 1673 nebivolol.

1674 ^aClass of recommendation.

1675 ^b Level of evidence.1676 ^c Reference(s) supporting recommendations.

1677

1678 **Table 15 Rate control therapy in AF**

Therapy	Acute intravenous rate control	Long-term oral rate control	Side-effect profile	Comments
Beta-blockers^a				
Bisoprolol	Not available	1.25–20 mg once daily or split	Most common reported adverse symptoms are lethargy, headache, peripheral oedema, upper respiratory tract symptoms, gastrointestinal upset, and dizziness. Adverse effects include bradycardia, atrioventricular block, and hypotension	Bronchospasm is rare – in cases of asthma, recommend beta-1 selective agents (avoid carvedilol). Contraindicated in acute cardiac failure and a history of severe bronchospasm
Carvedilol	Not available	3.125–50 mg twice daily		
Metoprolol	2.5–10 mg intravenous bolus (repeated as required)	100–200 mg total daily dose (according to preparation)		
Nebivolol	N/A	2.5–10 mg once daily or split		
Esmolol	0.5 mg intravenous bolus over 1 min; then 0.05–0.25 mcg/kg/min			
Calcium-channel blockers				
Diltiazem	15–25 mg intravenous bolus (repeated as required)	60 mg three times daily up to 360 mg total daily dose (120–360 mg once daily modified release)	Most common reported adverse symptoms are dizziness, malaise, lethargy, headache, hot flushes, gastrointestinal upset, and oedema. Adverse effects include bradycardia, atrioventricular block, and hypotension (prolonged hypotension possible with verapamil)	Use with caution in combination with beta-blockers. Reduce dose with hepatic impairment and start with smaller dose in renal impairment. Contraindicated in LV failure with pulmonary congestion or LVEF < 40%
Verapamil	2.5–10 mg intravenous bolus (repeated as required)	40–120 mg three times daily (120–480 mg once daily modified release)		
Cardiac glycosides				
Digoxin	0.5 mg intravenous bolus (0.75–1.5 mg over 24 h in divided doses)	0.0625–0.25 mg daily dose	Most common reported adverse symptoms are gastrointestinal upset, dizziness, blurred vision, headache, and rash. In toxic states (serum levels > 2 ng/mL), digoxin is proarrhythmic and can aggravate heart failure, particularly with coexistent hypokalaemia	High plasma levels associated with increased risk of death. Check renal function before starting and adapt dose in patients with CKD. Contraindicated in accessory conducting pathways, ventricular tachycardia, and hypertrophic cardiomyopathy with outflow tract obstruction
Digitoxin	0.4–0.6 mg intravenous bolus	0.05–0.3 mg daily dose		
Specific indications				
Amiodarone	300 mg	200 mg daily	Hypotension,	Suggested as

intravenously diluted in 250 mL 5% dextrose over 30–60 min (preferably via central venous cannula) ^b	bradycardia, nausea, QT prolongation, pulmonary toxicity, skin discolouration, thyroid dysfunction, corneal deposits, and cutaneous reaction with extravasation	adjunctive therapy in patients where heart rate control cannot be achieved using combination therapy
---	---	--

1679 AF = atrial fibrillation; CKD = chronic kidney disease; LV = left ventricular; LVEF = left ventricular ejection
1680 fraction.

1681 ^aA number of other beta-blockers are also available, but are not recommended as specific rate control therapy in
1682 AF. These include atenolol (25–100 mg once daily with a short biological half-life), propranolol (non-selective,
1683 1 mg over 1 min and repeat up to 3 mg at 2-min intervals [acute] or 10–40 mg three times daily [long-term]), or
1684 labetalol (non-selective, 1–2 mg/min [acute]).

1685 ^bIf ongoing requirement for amiodarone, follow with 900 mg intravenous over 24 hours diluted in 500–1000 mL
1686 via a central venous cannula.

1687

1688 **11 Rhythm control therapy in atrial fibrillation**

1689 Restoring and maintaining sinus rhythm is an integral part of AF management. Antiarrhythmic drugs
1690 approximately double the rate of sinus rhythm compared with placebo.⁵⁸⁰⁻⁵⁸⁴ Catheter ablation or combination
1691 therapy is often effective when antiarrhythmic drugs fail.^{226, 585-587} Although many clinicians believe that
1692 maintaining sinus rhythm can improve outcomes in AF patients,⁵⁸⁸ all trials that have compared rhythm control
1693 to rate control (with appropriate anticoagulation) therapy have resulted in neutral outcomes.^{41, 578, 579, 582, 589-593}

1694 Whether modern rhythm control management involving catheter ablation, combination therapy, and early
1695 therapy leads to a reduction in major cardiovascular events (e.g. stroke and cardiovascular death) is currently
1696 under investigation (e.g. in the EAST [Early treatment of Atrial fibrillation for Stroke prevention Trial] –
1697 AFNET 4⁴⁰ and CABANA [Catheter Ablation vs Anti-arrhythmic Drug Therapy for Atrial Fibrillation Trial]⁵⁹⁴
1698 trials). For now, rhythm control therapy is indicated to improve symptoms in AF patients who remain
1699 symptomatic on adequate rate control therapy.

1700

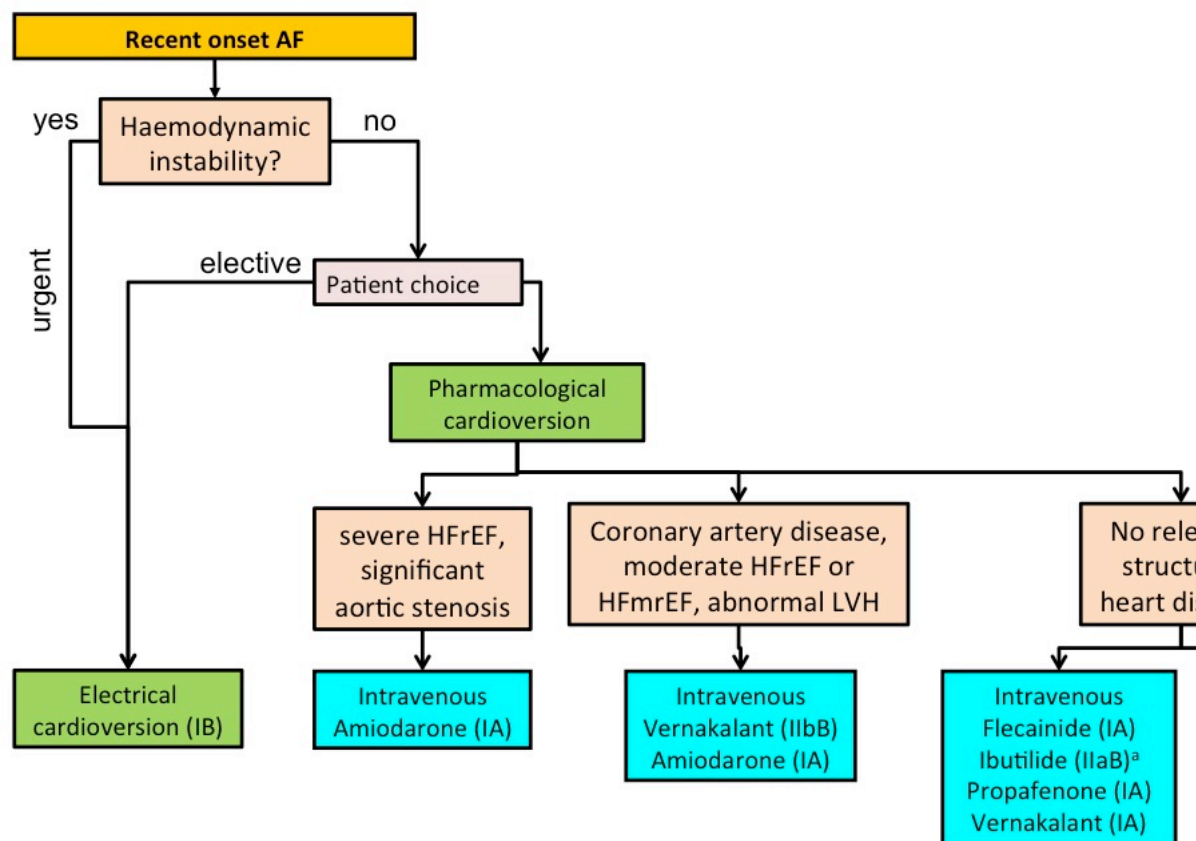
1701 **11.1. Acute restoration of sinus rhythm**

1702 **11.1.1. Antiarrhythmic drugs for acute restoration of sinus rhythm**

1703 **(‘pharmacological cardioversion’)**

1704 Antiarrhythmic drug can restore sinus rhythm in patients with AF (pharmacological cardioversion) as
1705 shown in small controlled trials, meta-analyses,^{41, 584, 595, 596} and in a few larger controlled trials.⁵⁹⁷⁻⁶⁰⁵
1706 Outside of Europe, dofetilide is available and can convert recent-onset AF.⁶⁰⁶ Pharmacological cardioversion
1707 restores sinus rhythm in approximately 50% of patients with recent-onset AF (*Table 16*).⁶⁰⁷⁻⁶⁰⁹ In the short term,
1708 electrical cardioversion restores sinus rhythm quicker and more effectively than pharmacological cardioversion
1709 and is associated with shorter hospitalization.⁶⁰⁹⁻⁶¹³ Pharmacological cardioversion, conversely, does not require
1710 sedation or fasting (*Figure 16*).

1711 Flecainide and propafenone are effective for pharmacological cardioversion,^{595, 602-605, 614, 615} but their
1712 use is restricted largely to patients without structural heart disease. Ibutilide is an alternative where available,
1713 but carries a risk of torsades de pointes.⁶¹⁵ Vernakalant⁶⁰²⁻⁶⁰⁵ can be given to patients with mild heart failure
1714 (NYHA Class I or II), including those with ischaemic heart disease, provided they do not present with
1715 hypotension or severe aortic stenosis.⁶¹⁶⁻⁶¹⁸ Amiodarone can be used in patients with heart failure and in patients
1716 with ischaemic heart disease (although patients with severe heart failure were excluded in most of the AF
1717 cardioversion trials).⁵⁹⁶ Amiodarone also slows heart rate by 10–12 bpm after 8–12 hours when given
1718 intravenously.⁵⁹⁶ Both amiodarone and flecainide appear more effective than sotalol in restoring sinus
1719 rhythm.^{600, 601, 619}



1720

1721 **Figure 16** Rhythm control management of acute AF.1722 AF = atrial fibrillation; HFmrEF = heart failure with mid-range ejection fraction; HFrEF = heart failure with
1723 reduced ejection fraction.1724 ^aIbutilide should not be used in patients with long QT interval.

1725

1726 **11.1.2. 'Pill in the pocket' cardioversion performed by patients**

1727 In selected patients with infrequent symptomatic episodes of paroxysmal AF, a single bolus of oral flecainide
1728 (200–300 mg) or propafenone (450–600 mg) can be self-administered by the patient at home ('pill in the pocket'
1729 therapy) to restore sinus rhythm, after safety has been established in the hospital setting.⁶²⁰ This approach seems
1730 marginally less effective than hospital-based cardioversion,⁶²¹ but is practical and provides control and
1731 reassurance to selected patients.

1732

1733 **Table 16** Antiarrhythmic drugs for pharmacological cardioversion

Drug	Route	First dose	Follow-up dose	Risks	References
Flecainide	Oral	200–300 mg	N/A	Avoid in patients with IHD and/or significant structural heart disease. Hypotension, atrial flutter with 1:1 conduction, QT prolongation	595, 598
	IV	1.5–2 mg/kg over 10 min			
Amiodarone	IV ^a	5–7 mg/kg over 1–2 h	50 mg/h to a maximum of 1.0 g over 24 h	Phlebitis, hypotension, bradycardia/AV block. Will slow ventricular rate. Delayed conversion to sinus rhythm (8–12 h)	596–601
Propafenone	IV	1.5–2 mg/kg over 10 min		Avoid in patients with IHD and/or significant structural heart disease. Hypotension, atrial flutter with 1:1	622–625

	Oral	450–600 mg		conduction, QRS prolongation (mild)	
Ibutilide^b	IV	1 mg over 10 min	1 mg over 10 min after waiting for 10 min	Avoid in patients with QT prolongation, hypokalemia, severe LVH, or low ejection fraction. QT prolongation, polymorphic ventricular tachycardia/torsades de pointes (3–4% of patients). Will slow ventricular rate	614, 615
Vernakalant	IV	3 mg/kg over 10 min	2 mg/kg over 10 min after waiting for 15 min	Avoid in patients with systolic blood pressure < 100 mmHg, recent (< 30 days) ACS, NYHA Class III and IV heart failure, QT interval prolongation (uncorrected QT > 440 ms), and severe aortic stenosis. Hypotension, non-sustained ventricular arrhythmias, QT and QRS prolongation	602-605, 618

1734 ACS = acute coronary syndromes; IHD = ischaemic heart disease; IV = intravenous; LVH = left ventricular
 1735 hypertrophy; NYHA = New York Heart Association.

1736 ^aUse a large peripheral vessel and change to oral amiodarone within 24 h of IV (central line) administration.

1737 ^bIbutilide is only available in selected European countries.

1738

1739 11.1.3. Electrical cardioversion

1740 Synchronized direct current electrical cardioversion quickly and effectively converts AF to sinus rhythm and is
 1741 the method of choice in severely haemodynamically compromised patients with new-onset AF (*Figure 16*).⁶²⁶⁻
 1742 ⁶²⁸ Electrical cardioversion can be performed safely in sedated patients treated with intravenous midazolam
 1743 and/or propofol. Continuous monitoring of blood pressure and oximetry during the procedure is important.⁶²⁹
 1744 Skin burns may occasionally be observed. Intravenous atropine or isoproterenol or temporary transcutaneous
 1745 pacing should be available to mitigate post-cardioversion bradycardia. Biphasic defibrillators are more effective
 1746 than monophasic waveforms, and have become industry standard.^{626, 628} Anterior–posterior electrode positions
 1747 generate a stronger shock field in the left atrium than anterolaterally positioned electrodes, and restore sinus
 1748 rhythm more effectively.^{626, 627, 630}

1749 Pretreatment with amiodarone (requiring a few weeks of therapy),^{631, 632} sotalol,⁶³¹ ibutilide,⁶³³ or
 1750 vernakalant⁶³⁴ can improve efficacy of electrical cardioversion, and similar effects are likely for flecainide⁵⁸⁴
 1751 and propafenone.⁶³⁵ Beta-blockers,⁶³⁶ verapamil, diltiazem,⁶³⁷⁻⁶³⁹ and digoxin^{640, 641} do not reliably terminate AF
 1752 or facilitate electrical cardioversion. When antiarrhythmic drug therapy is planned to maintain sinus rhythm
 1753 after cardioversion, it seems prudent to start therapy 1–3 days before cardioversion (amiodarone: a few weeks)
 1754 to promote pharmacological conversion and to achieve effective drug levels.^{584, 601}

1755

1756 11.1.4. Anticoagulation in patients undergoing cardioversion

1757 Cardioversion carries an inherent risk of stroke in non-anticoagulated patients,⁶⁴² which is reduced substantially
 1758 by the administration of anticoagulation.⁶⁴³ Immediate initiation of anticoagulation is important in all patients
 1759 scheduled for cardioversion.⁶⁴⁴⁻⁶⁴⁶ Patients who have been in AF for longer than 48 hours should start OAC at
 1760 least 3 weeks before cardioversion and continue it for 4 weeks afterwards (in patients without a need for long-
 1761 term anticoagulation), and continue it indefinitely in patients at risk of stroke. This practice has never been
 1762 evaluated in controlled trials, but seemed safe in a large observational data set from Finland.⁶⁴⁷ When early
 1763 cardioversion is desired, TOE can exclude the majority of left atrial thrombi, allowing immediate
 1764 cardioversion.^{648, 649} Ongoing studies will inform about the safety and efficacy of newly initiated anticoagulation
 1765 using NOACs in patients scheduled for electrical cardioversion.

1766

1767 11.2. Long-term antiarrhythmic drug therapy

1768 The aim of antiarrhythmic drug therapy is improvement in AF-related symptoms.^{41, 580} Hence, the decision to
 1769 initiate long-term antiarrhythmic drug therapy needs to balance symptom burden, possible adverse drug
 1770 reactions, and patient preferences. The principles of antiarrhythmic drug therapy outlined in the 2010 ESC AF
 1771 guidelines³⁶⁹ are still relevant and should be observed:

- 1772 1. Treatment is aimed at reducing AF-related symptoms;
- 1773 2. Efficacy of antiarrhythmic drugs to maintain sinus rhythm is modest;

- 1774 3. Clinically successful antiarrhythmic drug therapy may reduce rather than eliminate the recurrence of
1775 AF;
1776 4. If one antiarrhythmic drug ‘fails’, a clinically acceptable response may be achieved with another agent;
1777 5. Drug-induced proarrhythmia or extra-cardiac side-effects are frequent;
1778 6. Safety rather than efficacy considerations should primarily guide the choice of antiarrhythmic drug.
1779

1780 Antiarrhythmic drug therapy approximately doubles sinus rhythm maintenance compared with no therapy.⁵⁸⁰
1781 There is no appreciable effect on mortality or cardiovascular complications, but rhythm control therapy can
1782 slightly increase the risk of hospitalizations (often for AF).^{41, 578, 579, 582, 589-593} To reduce the risk of side-
1783 effects,^{201, 580} a shorter duration of antiarrhythmic drug therapy seems desirable. As an example, short-term
1784 treatment (4 weeks) with flecainide for 4 weeks after cardioversion of AF was well-tolerated and prevented
1785 most (80%) AF recurrences when compared with long-term treatment.⁵⁸⁴ Short-term antiarrhythmic drug
1786 therapy is also used to avoid early AF recurrences after catheter ablation⁶⁵⁰ and may be reasonable in patients
1787 deemed at increased risk of antiarrhythmic drug side-effects or in those with a low perceived risk of recurrent
1788 AF.

1789 In addition to antiarrhythmic drug therapy and catheter ablation (see Section 10.3), management of
1790 concomitant cardiovascular conditions can reduce symptom burden in AF and facilitate maintenance of sinus
1791 rhythm.^{203, 204, 296, 312} This includes weight reduction, blood pressure control, heart failure treatment, increasing
1792 cardiorespiratory fitness, and other measures (see Chapter 6).
1793

1794 11.2.1. Selection of antiarrhythmic drugs for long-term therapy: Safety first!

1795 Usually, the safety of antiarrhythmic drug therapy determines the initial choice of antiarrhythmic drugs (*Figure*
1796 *17*). The following major antiarrhythmic drugs are available to prevent AF:
1797

1798 **Amiodarone** is an effective multichannel blocker, reduces ventricular rate, and is safe in patients with heart
1799 failure.^{582, 651} Torsades de pointes proarrhythmia can occur, and QT interval and TU waves should be monitored
1800 on therapy (see *Table 17*).⁶⁵² Amiodarone often causes extracardiac side-effects, especially on long-term
1801 therapy,^{653, 654} rendering it a second-line treatment in patients who are suitable for other antiarrhythmic drugs.
1802 Amiodarone appears less suitable to episodic short-term therapy (unless after catheter ablation),⁶⁵⁵ probably
1803 because of its long biological half-life.
1804

1805 **Dronedarone** maintains sinus rhythm, reduces ventricular rate, and prevents cardiovascular hospitalizations
1806 (mostly due to AF) and cardiovascular death in patients with paroxysmal or persistent AF or flutter who had at
1807 least one relevant cardiovascular comorbidity.^{583, 588, 656} Dronedarone increases mortality in patients with
1808 recently decompensated heart failure (with or without AF)⁶⁵⁷ and in patients with permanent AF in whom sinus
1809 rhythm is not restored.⁶⁵⁸ Dronedarone moderately increases serum creatinine, reflecting a reduction in
1810 creatinine excretion rather than a decline in kidney function.⁶⁵⁹
1811

1812 **Flecainide** and **propafenone** are effective in preventing recurrent AF.^{581, 584, 620} They should only be used in
1813 patients without significant ischaemic heart disease or heart failure to avoid the risk of life-threatening
1814 ventricular arrhythmias.⁶⁶⁰ High ventricular rates resulting from the conversion of AF into atrial flutter with 1:1
1815 conduction by flecainide or propafenone can be prevented by preadministering a beta-blocker, verapamil, or
1816 diltiazem.
1817

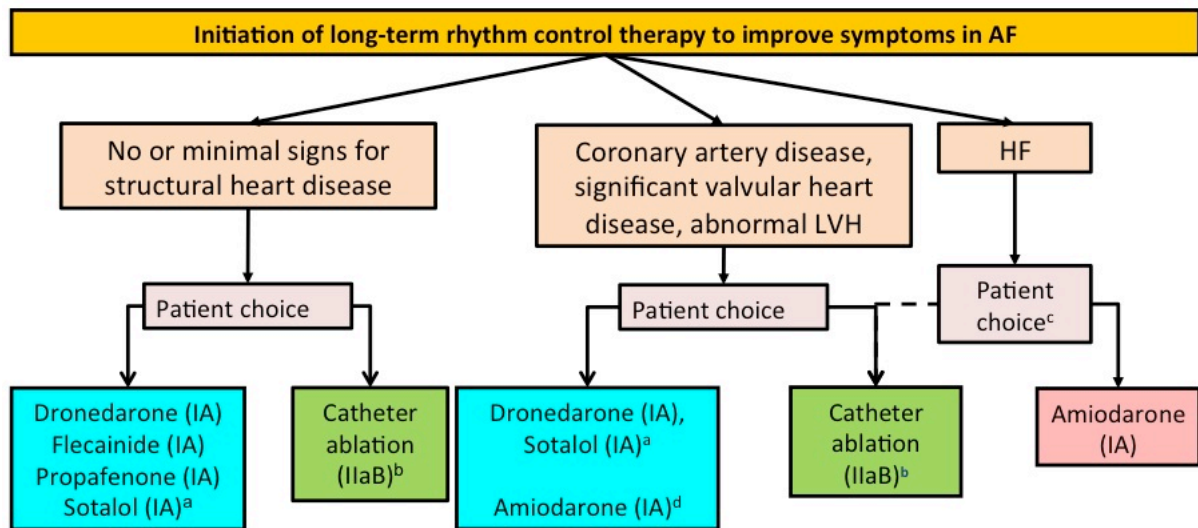
1818 **Quinidine** and **disopyramide** have been associated with an increase in all-cause mortality (OR 2.39; 95% CI
1819 1.03–5.59; number needed to harm 109; 95% CI 34–4985) at 1-year follow-up,^{580, 661} likely due to ventricular
1820 arrhythmias (torsades de pointes).^{580, 661} Although this proarrhythmic effect is more common at higher doses,
1821 they are less commonly used for rhythm control in AF. Disopyramide may be useful in ‘vagally mediated’ AF
1822 (e.g. AF occurring in athletes and/or during sleep⁷⁶), and has been shown to reduce LV outflow gradient and
1823 improve symptoms in patients with hypertrophic cardiomyopathy.⁶⁶²⁻⁶⁶⁴
1824

1825 **Sotalol** has a relevant risk of torsades de pointes (1% in the Prevention of Atrial Fibrillation After Cardioversion
1826 [PAFAC] trial¹¹⁸). Its d-enantiomer is associated with an increased mortality compared to placebo in patients
1827 with LV dysfunction post-myocardial infarction,⁶⁶⁵ probably due to ventricular arrhythmias (OR 2.47; 95% CI
1828 1.2–5.05; number needed to harm 166; 95% CI 61–1159).^{580, 665} On the other hand, d,l sotalol has been used in
1829 AF patients without safety signals in two controlled trials.^{581, 601}
1830

1831 **Dofetilide** is another potassium channel blocker that is mainly available outside of Europe. Dofetilide restores
1832 and maintains sinus rhythm in heart failure patients⁶⁶⁶ and occasionally in patients refractory to other
1833 antiarrhythmic drugs.⁶⁶⁷

1834

1835 Overall, it seems prudent to limit the use of quinidine, disopyramide, dofetilide, and sotalol to specific
 1836 situations. Similarly, combinations of QT-prolonging antiarrhythmic drugs should generally be avoided (*Table*
 1837 *17*).



1838

1839 **Figure 17** Initiation of rhythm control therapy in symptomatic patients.

1840 AF = atrial fibrillation; HF = heart failure; LVH = left ventricular hypertrophy;

1841 ^aSotalol requires careful evaluation of proarrhythmic risk.

1842 ^bCatheter ablation should isolate pulmonary veins and can be performed using radiofrequency or cryoballoon catheters.

1843 ^cCatheter ablation as a first-line therapy is usually reserved for heart failure patients with tachycardiomyopathy.

1844 ^dAmiodarone is a second-choice therapy in many patients because of its extracardiac side-effects.

1845

1846

1847

11.2.2. Twelve-lead electrocardiogram as a tool to identify patients at risk of proarrhythmia

1848

1849 Identifying patients at risk of proarrhythmia can help to mitigate the proarrhythmic risk of antiarrhythmic
 1850 drugs.⁶⁶⁸ In addition to the clinical characteristics mentioned above, monitoring PR, QT, and QRS durations
 1851 during initiation of antiarrhythmic drug therapy can identify patients at higher risk of drug-induced
 1852 proarrhythmia on longer-term treatment.⁶⁶⁹⁻⁶⁷¹ In addition, the presence of ‘abnormal TU waves’ is a sign of
 1853 imminent torsades de pointes.⁶⁵² Periodic ECG analysis for proarrhythmia signs has been used successfully in
 1854 recent antiarrhythmic drug trials.^{118, 584, 672} Specifically, ECG monitoring was used systematically on days 1–3 in
 1855 patients receiving flecainide, propafenone, or sotalol to identify those at risk of proarrhythmia.^{118, 584, 601} Based
 1856 on this evaluated practice, we suggest to record an ECG in all patients before initiation of antiarrhythmic drugs.
 1857 Scheduled ECGs during the initiation period seem reasonable (*Table 17*).

1858

1859

Table 17 Oral antiarrhythmic drugs used for maintaining sinus rhythm after cardioversion.

Drug	Dose	Main contraindications and precautions	Warning signs warranting discontinuation	Atrioventricular nodal slowing	Suggested ECG monitoring during initiation
Amiodarone	600 mg in divided doses for 4 weeks, 400 mg for 4 weeks, then 200 mg once daily	Caution when using concomitant therapy with QT-prolonging drugs and in patients with sinoatrial node or atrioventricular node and conduction disease. The dose of VKAs and of digitalis should be reduced. Increased risk of myopathy with statins. Caution in patients with pre-existing liver disease	QT prolongation > 500 ms	10–12 bpm in AF	Baseline, 1 week, 4 weeks
Dronedarone	400 mg twice daily	Contraindicated in NYHA class III or IV or unstable heart failure, during concomitant therapy with QT-prolonging drugs, or powerful CYP3A4 inhibitors (e.g. verapamil, diltiazem, azole antifungal agents), and when CrCl < 30 mg/mL. The dose of digitalis, beta-blockers, and of some statins should be reduced. Elevations in serum creatinine of 0.1–0.2 mg/dL are common and do not reflect a decline in renal function. Caution in patients with pre-existing liver disease	QT prolongation > 500 ms	10–12 bpm in AF	Baseline, 1 week, 4 weeks
Flecainide	100–150 mg twice daily	Contraindicated if CrCl < 50 mg/mL, liver disease, IHD, or reduced LVEF.	QRS duration increases > 25% above baseline	None	Baseline, day 1, day 2–3
Flecainide slow release	200 mg once daily	Caution in the presence of sinoatrial node or atrioventricular node or conduction system disease. CYP2D6 inhibitors (e.g. fluoxetine, tricyclic) increase plasma concentration			
Propafenone	150–300 mg three times daily	Contraindicated in IHD or reduced LV ejection fraction. Caution in the presence of sinoatrial node or atrioventricular node and conduction system disease, renal or liver impairment, and asthma. Increases concentration of digitalis and warfarin	QRS duration increase > 25% above baseline	Slight	Baseline, day 1, day 2–3
Propafenone SR	225–425 mg twice daily				
d,l sotalol	80–160 mg twice daily	Contraindicated in the presence of significant LV hypertrophy, systolic heart failure, asthma, pre-existing QT prolongation, hypokalaemia, CrCl < 50 mg/mL. Moderate renal dysfunction requires careful adaptation of dose	QT interval > 500 ms, QT prolongation by > 60 ms upon therapy initiation	Similar to high-dose blockers	Baseline, day 1, day 2–3

1860 AF = atrial fibrillation; bpm = beats per minute; CrCl = creatinine clearance; ECG = electrocardiogram; IHD =
 1861 ischaemic heart disease; LV = left ventricular; LVEF = left ventricular ejection fraction; NYHA = New York
 1862 Heart Association; VKA = vitamin K antagonist.

1863

1864 11.2.3. New antiarrhythmic drugs

1865 Several compounds that inhibit the ultrarapid potassium current (I_{Kur}) and other inhibitors of atypical ion
 1866 channels are in clinical development.⁶⁷³⁻⁶⁷⁵ They are not available for clinical use at present. The antianginal
 1867 compound ranolazine inhibits potassium and sodium currents and increases glucose metabolism at the expense
 1868 of free fatty acid metabolism, thereby enhancing efficient use of oxygen.^{676, 677} Ranolazine was safe in patients
 1869 with non-ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction and unstable angina evaluated in the MERLIN
 1870 (Metabolic Efficiency With Ranolazine for Less Ischemia in Non ST-Elevation Acute Coronary Syndrome)
 1871 trial.⁶⁷⁸ In a post-hoc analysis of continuous ECG recordings obtained during the first 7 days after
 1872 randomization, patients assigned to ranolazine had a trend towards fewer episodes of AF than those on placebo
 1873 (75 [2.4%] vs. 55 [1.7%] patients; $P = 0.08$).⁶⁷⁹ In the HARMONY (A Study to Evaluate the Effect of
 1874 Ranolazine and Dronedaron When Given Alone and in Combination in Patients With Paroxysmal Atrial
 1875 Fibrillation) trial, the highest tested dose of a combination of ranolazine (750 mg twice daily) and dronedarone
 1876 (225 mg twice daily) slightly reduced AF burden in 134 subjects with paroxysmal AF and dual-chamber
 1877 pacemakers.⁶⁸⁰ Small, open-label studies suggest that ranolazine might enhance the antiarrhythmic effect of
 1878 amiodarone for cardioversion,⁶⁸¹⁻⁶⁸³ whereas the results from a controlled trial of ranolazine and the ranolazine-
 1879 dronedarone combination to prevent AHRE in pacemaker patients were ambiguous.⁶⁸⁴ At present, there is
 1880 insufficient evidence to recommend ranolazine as an antiarrhythmic drug, alone or in combination with other
 1881 antiarrhythmic drugs. Of note, the ‘funny channel blocker’ ivabradine, which is used for angina and heart
 1882 failure, increases the risk of AF.⁶⁸⁵

1883

1884 11.2.4. Antiarrhythmic effects of non-antiarrhythmic drugs

1885 ACE inhibitors or ARBs appear to prevent new-onset AF in patients with LV dysfunction and in hypertensive
 1886 patients with LV hypertrophy.^{219, 236, 237, 239, 246, 250, 686} Nephilysin inhibition needs to be studied further, but does
 1887 not seem to enhance this effect.²²⁴ A Danish cohort study also suggested that initial treatment of uncomplicated
 1888 hypertension with ACE inhibitors or ARBs reduces incident AF compared with other hypertensive agents.²⁴⁵
 1889 ARB therapy did not reduce the AF burden in patients with AF without structural heart disease.²⁴¹ Thus, ACE
 1890 inhibitors or ARBs are unlikely to have a relevant direct antiarrhythmic effect. However, it might be justified to
 1891 consider adding ACE inhibitors or ARB therapy to antiarrhythmic drugs to reduce AF recurrences after
 1892 cardioversion.^{248, 249, 687}

1893

1894 Compared with placebo, beta-blockers are associated with a reduced risk of new-onset AF in patients
 1895 with reduced ejection fraction and sinus rhythm.²³ Beta-blockers have also been reported to reduce symptomatic
 1896 AF recurrences,^{580, 636, 688} but this finding may be driven by the beneficial effect of rate control, which will
 1897 render AF more often asymptomatic.

1898

1899 Perioperative statin therapy appeared to reduce the risk of postoperative AF in a number of small
 1900 RCTs^{689, 690}; however, an adequately powered placebo-controlled trial has shown no effect of perioperative
 1901 rosuvastatin therapy on postoperative AF.⁶⁹¹ Statin treatment does not prevent AF in other settings.^{692, 693}
 1902 Similarly, polyunsaturated fatty acids failed to show convincing benefit.^{241, 694-698} The role of aldosterone
 1903 antagonists in the management of AF has not been extensively investigated in humans; although preliminary
 1904 evidence from trials of eplerenone is encouraging for primary prevention,²⁴³ at present there is no robust
 1905 evidence to make any recommendation for the use of aldosterone antagonists for secondary prevention of AF.<sup>699-
 1906 701</sup>

1906

1906 Recommendations for rhythm control therapy

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^d
General recommendations			
Management of cardiovascular risk factors and avoidance of AF triggers should be pursued in patients on rhythm control therapy to facilitate maintenance of sinus rhythm	Ila	B	203, 204, 296, 312
Rhythm control therapy is indicated for symptom improvement in patients with AF	I	B	120, 586, 601
With the exception of AF associated with haemodynamic instability, the choice between electrical and pharmacological cardioversion	Ila	C	

should be guided by patient and physician preferences			
Cardioversion of AF			
Electrical cardioversion of AF is recommended in patients with acute haemodynamic instability to acutely restore cardiac output	I	B	612, 702-704
Cardioversion of AF (either electrical or pharmacological) is recommended in symptomatic patients with persistent or long-standing persistent AF as part of rhythm control therapy	I	B	584, 601, 627, 628, 648, 705
Pretreatment with amiodarone, flecainide, ibutilide, or propafenone should be considered to enhance success of electrical cardioversion and prevent recurrent AF	Ila	B	248, 584, 633
In patients with no history of ischaemic or structural heart disease, flecainide, propafenone, or vernakalant are recommended for pharmacological cardioversion of new-onset AF	I	A	602-605, 614, 618, 622, 706, 707
In patients with no history of ischaemic or structural heart disease, ibutilide should be considered for pharmacological conversion of AF	Ila	B	
In selected patients with recent-onset AF and no significant structural or ischaemic heart disease, a single oral dose of flecainide or propafenone (the 'pill in the pocket' approach) should be considered for patient-led cardioversion, following safety assessment	Ila	B	620, 621
In patients with ischaemic and/or structural heart disease, amiodarone is recommended for cardioversion of AF	I	A	597-601
Vernakalant may be considered as an alternative to amiodarone for pharmacological conversion of AF in patients without hypotension, severe heart failure, or severe structural heart disease (especially aortic stenosis)	Ilb	B	602-605, 616, 618
Stroke prevention in patients designated for cardioversion of AF			
Anticoagulation with heparin or a NOAC should be initiated as soon as possible before every cardioversion of AF or atrial flutter	Ila	B	708, 709
For cardioversion of AF/atrial flutter, effective anticoagulation is recommended for a minimum of 3 weeks before cardioversion	I	B	648, 708
Transoesophageal echocardiography (TOE) is recommended to exclude cardiac thrombus, as an alternative to preprocedural anticoagulation when early cardioversion is planned	I	B	648, 708
Early cardioversion can be performed without TOE in patients with a definite duration of AF < 48 hours	Ila	B	648
In patients at risk for stroke (e.g. presence of CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VASc factors), anticoagulant therapy should be continued long-term after cardioversion according to the long-term anticoagulation recommendations, irrespective of the method of cardioversion or the apparent maintenance of sinus rhythm. In patients without stroke risk factors, anticoagulation is recommended for 4 weeks after cardioversion	I	B	353, 710
In patients where thrombus is identified on TOE, effective anticoagulation is recommended for at least 3 weeks	I	C	
A repeat TOE to ensure thrombus resolution should be considered before cardioversion	Ila	C	
Antiarrhythmic drugs for the long-term maintenance of sinus rhythm/prevention of recurrent AF			

The choice of antiarrhythmic drug needs to be carefully evaluated, taking into account the presence of comorbidities, cardiovascular risk and potential for serious proarrhythmia, extracardiac toxic effects, patient preferences, and symptom burden	I	A	41, 580
Dronedaron, flecainide, propafenone, or sotalol are recommended for prevention of recurrent symptomatic AF in patients with normal left ventricular function and without pathological left ventricular hypertrophy.	I	A	581, 583, 584, 588, 601
Dronedaron is recommended for prevention of recurrent symptomatic AF in patients with stable coronary artery disease, and without heart failure	I	A	583, 588
Amiodarone is recommended for prevention of recurrent symptomatic AF in patients with heart failure	I	B	596-598
Amiodarone is more effective in preventing AF recurrences than other antiarrhythmic drugs but extracardiac toxic effects are common and increase with time. For this reason, other antiarrhythmic drugs should be considered first	IIa	C	596-598
Patients on antiarrhythmic drug therapy should be periodically evaluated to confirm their eligibility for treatment	IIa	C	583, 588, 657, 658, 660
ECG recording during the initiation of antiarrhythmic drug therapy should be considered to monitor heart rate, detect QRS and QT interval prolongation, and the occurrence of atrioventricular block	IIa	B	584 582, 583, 588, 601
Antiarrhythmic drug therapy is not recommended in patients with prolonged QT interval (> 0.5 s) or with significant sinoatrial node disease or atrioventricular node dysfunction who do not have a functioning permanent pacemaker	III (harm)	C	
Adding atrial-based bradycardia pacing to drug treatment that induces or exacerbates sinus node dysfunction should be considered to allow continuation of antiarrhythmic drug therapy in patients in whom AF ablation is declined or not indicated	IIa	B	711, 712
Continuation of antiarrhythmic drug therapy beyond the blanking period after AF ablation should be considered to maintain sinus rhythm when recurrences seem likely	IIa	B	713
Antiarrhythmic effects of non-antiarrhythmic drugs			
ACE inhibitors, ARBs, and beta-blockers should be considered for prevention of new-onset AF in patients with heart failure and reduced ejection fraction	IIa	A	23, 219, 236, 237, 239, 250, 714
ACE inhibitors and ARBs should be considered for prevention of new-onset AF in patients with hypertension, particularly with LV hypertrophy	IIa	B	238, 246, 686, 714
Pretreatment with ACE inhibitors or ARBs may be considered in patients with recurrent AF undergoing electrical cardioversion and receiving antiarrhythmic drug therapy	IIb	B	236, 237, 248, 249
ARBs or ACE inhibitors are not recommended for the secondary prevention of paroxysmal AF in patients with little or no underlying heart disease.	III (no benefit)	B	241, 697

1907 ACE = angiotensin-converting enzyme; AF = atrial fibrillation; ARB = angiotensin receptor blocker; CHA₂DS₂-
1908 VASc = Congestive Heart failure, hypertension, Age ≥75 (doubled), Diabetes, Stroke (doubled), Vascular
1909 disease, Age 65–74, and Sex (female); ECG = electrocardiogram; NOAC = non-vitamin K antagonist oral
1910 anticoagulant; TOE = transoesophageal echocardiography.

1911 ^aClass of recommendation.

1912 ^bLevel of evidence.

1913 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

1914

1915 **11.3. Catheter ablation**

1916 Since the initial description of triggers in the pulmonary veins that initiate paroxysmal AF,¹⁰⁸ catheter ablation
 1917 of AF has developed from a specialized, experimental procedure into a common treatment to prevent recurrent
 1918 AF.^{587, 715} This is primarily achieved through isolation of the pulmonary veins, probably requiring complete
 1919 isolation for full effectiveness,⁷¹⁶ and additional ablation in the posterior left atrial wall. AF ablation, when
 1920 performed in experienced centres by adequately trained teams, is more effective than antiarrhythmic drug
 1921 therapy in maintaining sinus rhythm, and the complication rate, though not negligible, is similar to the
 1922 complication rate for antiarrhythmic drugs.^{585, 717, 1042}

1924 11.3.1. Indications

1925 Catheter ablation of AF is effective in restoring and maintaining sinus rhythm in patients with symptomatic
 1926 paroxysmal, persistent, and probably long-standing persistent AF – in general as second-line treatment after
 1927 failure of or intolerance to antiarrhythmic drug therapy. In such patients, catheter ablation is more effective than
 1928 antiarrhythmic drug therapy.^{185, 586, 713, 717-720} As first-line treatment for paroxysmal AF, randomized trials
 1929 showed only modestly improved rhythm outcome with catheter ablation compared to antiarrhythmic drug
 1930 therapy.^{585, 721-723} Complication rates were similar, but ablation was performed in expert centres, justifying
 1931 catheter ablation as first-line therapy in selected patients with paroxysmal AF who ask for interventional
 1932 therapy. Fewer data are available reporting the effectiveness and safety of catheter ablation in patients with
 1933 persistent or long-standing persistent AF, but all point to lower recurrence rates after catheter ablation compared
 1934 to antiarrhythmic drug therapy with or without cardioversion.^{185, 717, 723-726, 1039} In patients who experience
 1935 symptomatic recurrences of AF despite antiarrhythmic drug therapy, all RCTs showed better sinus rhythm
 1936 maintenance with catheter ablation than on antiarrhythmic drugs.^{586, 713, 727, 728} There is no current indication for
 1937 catheter ablation to prevent cardiovascular outcomes (or desired withdrawal of anticoagulation), or to reduce
 1938 hospitalization.^{40, 594}

1940 11.3.2. Techniques and technologies

1941 Complete pulmonary vein isolation (PVI) on an atrial level is the best documented target for catheter
 1942 ablation,^{716, 729-731} achievable by point-by-point radiofrequency ablation, linear lesions encircling the pulmonary
 1943 veins, or cryoballoon ablation, with similar outcomes.⁷³²⁻⁷³⁴ Complete isolation of the pulmonary veins has
 1944 better rhythm outcomes than incomplete isolation.⁷¹⁶ PVI was initially tested in patients with paroxysmal AF,
 1945 but appears to be non-inferior to more extensive ablation in persistent AF as well.^{729, 735} More extensive
 1946 ablations have been used in patients with persistent AF, but there are insufficient data to guide the use of these at
 1947 present.^{117, 718, 719, 735-737} Extended ablation procedures (beyond PVI) consistently require longer procedures and
 1948 more ionizing radiation, potentially creating risk for patients. Left atrial macro-reentrant tachycardia is relatively
 1949 uncommon after PVI ($\approx 5\%$). It also seems even less common after cryoballoon ablation,⁷³⁴ but may occur in up
 1950 to 25% of patients after left atrial substrate modification ablation, often due to incomplete ablation lines. Thus,
 1951 for patients with persistent AF, ablation of complex fractionated electrograms, ablation of rotors, or routine
 1952 deployment of linear lesions or other additional ablations does not seem justified in the first procedure.^{735, 738, 739}
 1953 However, additional ablation on top of complete PVI⁷¹⁶ may be considered in patients with recurrent AF after
 1954 the initial ablation procedure.^{719, 740, 741} In patients with documented right atrial isthmus-dependent flutter
 1955 undergoing AF ablation, right atrial isthmus ablation is recommended. Adenosine testing to identify patients in
 1956 need of additional ablation remains controversial after evaluation in several reports.^{739, 742-744} Ablation of so-
 1957 called ‘rotors’ guided by body surface mapping or endocardial mapping is under evaluation and cannot be
 1958 recommended for routine clinical use at present.

1960 11.3.3. Outcome and complications

1961 The rhythm outcome after catheter ablation of AF is difficult to predict in individual patients.^{173, 227, 713, 728} Most
 1962 patients require more than one procedure to achieve symptom control.^{713, 726, 728} In general, better rhythm
 1963 outcome and lower procedure-related complications can be expected in younger patients with a short history of
 1964 AF and frequent, short AF episodes in the absence of significant structural heart disease.⁷⁴⁵ Catheter ablation is
 1965 more effective than antiarrhythmic drug therapy in maintaining sinus rhythm (*Web Addenda Figure 2*).^{746, 1039}
 1966 Sinus rhythm without severely symptomatic recurrences of AF is found in up to 70% of patients with
 1967 paroxysmal AF, and around 50% in persistent AF.^{713, 728, 735, 1042} Very late recurrence of AF after years of sinus
 1968 rhythm is not uncommon and may reflect disease progression, with important implications for continuation of
 1969 AF therapies.⁷²⁸ Multiple variables have been identified as risk factors for recurrence after catheter ablation of
 1970 AF, but their predictive power is weak. The decision for catheter ablation thus should be based on a shared
 1971 decision-making process⁷⁴⁷ (see Chapter 7), following thorough explanation of the potential benefits and risks,
 1972 and of the alternatives such as antiarrhythmic drug or acceptance of current symptoms without rhythm control
 1973 therapy.¹⁷⁵

1974 *Complications of catheter ablation for AF*

1975 There is a clear need to systematically capture complications in clinical practice to improve the quality of AF
 1976 ablation procedures.¹⁷⁵ The median length of hospital stay in AF patients undergoing their first ablation as part
 1977 of the EURObservational Research Programme (EORP) was 3 days (interquartile range 2–4 days), based on
 1978 data from 1391 patients from hospitals performing at least 50 ablations per year. Five to seven per cent of
 1979 patients will suffer severe complications after catheter ablation of AF, and 2–3% will experience life-threatening
 1980 but usually manageable complications.^{727, 748-750} Intraprocedural death has been reported, but is rare (< 0.2%).⁷⁵¹
 1981 The most important severe complications are stroke/TIA (< 1%), cardiac tamponade (1–2%), pulmonary vein
 1982 stenosis, and severe oesophageal injury leading to atrio-oesophageal fistula weeks after ablation (*Table 18*).
 1983 ‘Silent strokes’ (i.e. white matter lesions detectable by brain MRI), have been observed in around 10% of
 1984 patients treated with radiofrequency and cryoballoon ablation.⁷⁵² The clinical relevance of this observation is
 1985 unclear.⁷⁴⁹ Post-procedure complications include stroke, with the highest risk within the first week,⁷⁵³ late
 1986 pericardial tamponade several days after catheter ablation,⁷⁵¹ and oesophageal fistulas, which usually become
 1987 apparent 7–30 days after ablation. Timely detection of atrio-oesophageal fistulas can be life-saving and should
 1988 be based on the typical triad of infection without a clear focus, retrosternal pain, and stroke or TIA.⁷⁴⁸
 1989

1990 **Table 18** Complications related to catheter ablation of AF

Complication severity	Complication type	Rate ^{727, 748, 750, 754-759}
Life-threatening complications	Periprocedural death	< 0.2%
	Oesophageal injury (perforation/fistula) ^a	< 0.5%
	Periprocedural stroke (including TIA/air embolism)	< 1%
	Cardiac tamponade	1–2%
Severe complications	Pulmonary vein stenosis	< 1%
	Persistent phrenic nerve palsy	1–2%
	Vascular complications	2–4%
	Other severe complications	≈ 1%
Other moderate or minor complications		1–2%
Unknown significance	Asymptomatic cerebral embolism (silent stroke) ^b	5–20%
	Radiation exposure	

1991 AF = atrial fibrillation; TIA = transient ischaemic attack.

1992 ^aOesophageal fistula should be suspected in patients presenting with the triad of unspecific signs of infection,
 1993 chest pain, and stroke or TIA in the first weeks after an ablation procedure. It requires immediate therapy.1994 ^b< 10% for cryoablation or radiofrequency ablation, > 20% for phased radiofrequency ablation

1995

1996 **11.3.4. Anticoagulation – before, during, and after ablation**1997 Patients anticoagulated with VKAs should continue therapy during ablation (with an INR of 2–3).⁷⁶⁰1998 Anticoagulation with NOACs is an alternative to warfarin.^{478, 761-765} There is no safety signal from observational
 1999 cohorts treated with uninterrupted NOAC therapy undergoing catheter ablation in experienced centres.^{761, 763, 766,}2000 ⁷⁶⁷ The first controlled trial, enrolling around 200 patients, has recently been published,⁷⁶⁸ as well as several
 2001 observational data sets.^{761, 769, 770} Ongoing studies compare uninterrupted VKA with NOAC therapy in AF2002 patients undergoing ablation (e.g. AXAFA – AFNET 5 [Apixaban During Atrial Fibrillation Catheter Ablation:
 2003 Comparison to Vitamin K Antagonist Therapy – Anticoagulation using the direct factor Xa inhibitor apixaban2004 during Atrial Fibrillation catheter Ablation: Comparison to vitamin K antagonist therapy; NCT02227550] and
 2005 RE-CIRCUIT [Randomized Evaluation of dabigatran etexilate Compared to warfarin in pulmonaRy vein

2006 ablation: assessment of different peri-procedural anticoagulation strategies; NCT02348723]). During ablation,
 2007 heparin should be given to maintain an activated clotting time > 300 seconds. Anticoagulation should be
 2008 maintained for at least 8 weeks after ablation for all patients. The true incidence of thromboembolic events after
 2009 catheter ablation has never been systematically studied and the expected stroke risk has been adopted from non-
 2010 ablation AF cohorts. Although observational studies suggest a relatively low stroke rate in the first few years
 2011 after catheter ablation of AF,^{737, 771-776} the long-term risk of recurrent AF and the safety profile of
 2012 anticoagulation in ablated patients need to be considered. In the absence of controlled trial data, OAC after
 2013 catheter ablation should follow general anticoagulation recommendations, regardless of the presumed rhythm
 2014 outcome.

2016 **11.3.5. Ablation of atrial fibrillation in heart failure patients**

2017 Catheter ablation, compared with amiodarone therapy, significantly reduces recurrent AF in AF patients with
 2018 HFrEF.⁷⁷⁷ Selected patients with HFrEF and AF can achieve recovery of LV systolic function after catheter
 2019 ablation (probably reflecting tachycardiomyopathy). Several smaller trials suggest improved LV function after
 2020 catheter ablation in HFrEF patients^{185, 226-228, 778, 779} and reduced hospitalizations,^{720, 777} especially in patients
 2021 without a previous myocardial infarction.⁷⁸⁰ Larger trials are warranted to confirm these findings. Catheter
 2022 ablation can be demanding in these patients. Thus, indications for catheter ablation in HFrEF patients should be
 2023 carefully balanced, and the procedures performed in experienced centres.

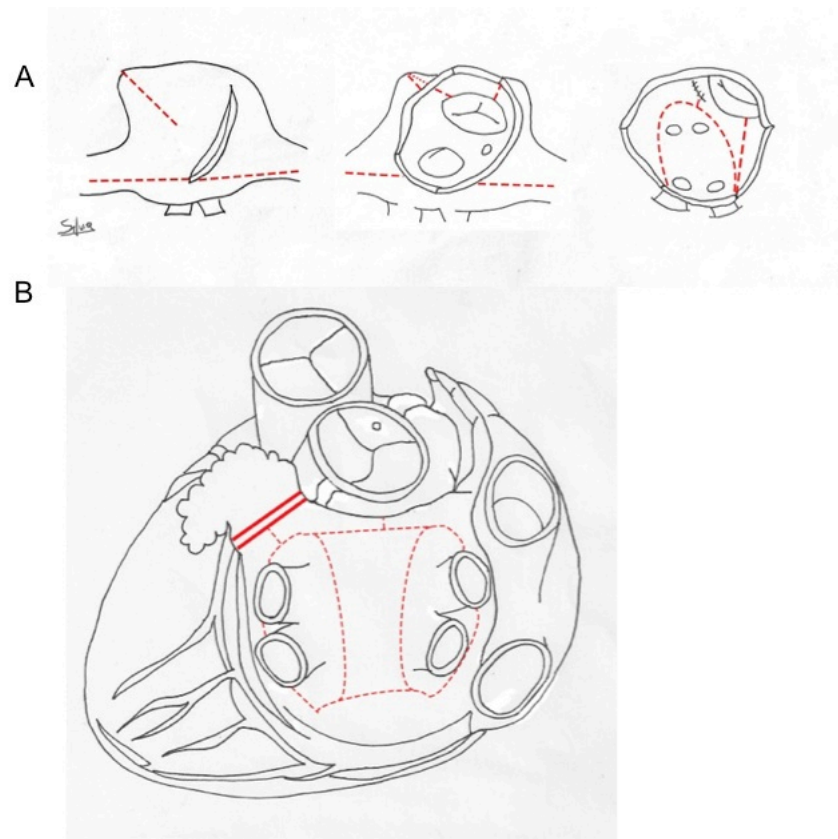
2025 **11.3.6. Follow-up after catheter ablation**

2026 Patients and physicians involved in the follow-up after catheter ablation should know the signs and symptoms of
 2027 late complications to allow swift referral for treatment. Patient should also be aware that symptomatic and
 2028 asymptomatic AF recurrences are frequent after catheter ablation.^{119, 781, 782} In line with the primary goal of
 2029 rhythm control therapy, asymptomatic episodes should generally not trigger further rhythm control therapy.
 2030 Patients should be seen at least once by a rhythm specialist in the first 12 months after ablation. Further rhythm
 2031 control options should be considered in patients with symptomatic recurrences, including discussion in a Heart
 2032 Team (*Figure 17*).

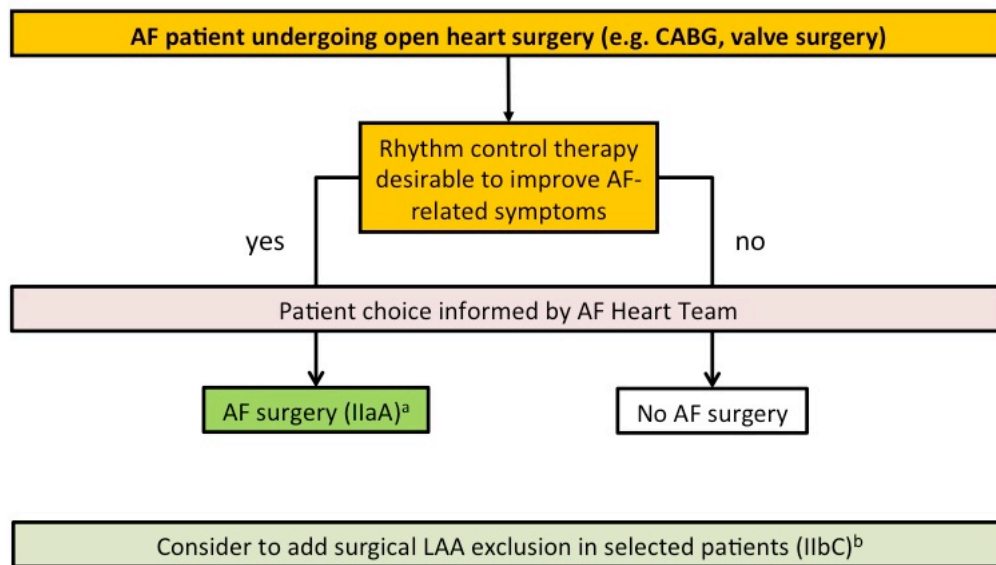
2034 **11.4. Atrial fibrillation surgery**

2035 **11.4.1. Concomitant atrial fibrillation surgery**

2036 The Cox maze procedure was first performed 30 years ago as a ‘cut-and-sew’ technique, including isolation of
 2037 the posterior left atrium, a connection to the posterior mitral annulus, a cavotricuspid connection, a cavocaval
 2038 connection, and exclusion of the LAA (*Figure 18*).⁷⁸³ Thereby, the Cox maze procedure creates an electrical
 2039 labyrinth (maze) of passages through which the sinoatrial node impulse finds a route to the atrioventricular node
 2040 while preventing fibrillatory conduction. The Cox maze procedure and other, often simpler, forms of AF surgery
 2041 have mainly been used in patients undergoing other open heart surgical procedures.^{461, 466, 784-798} In a systematic
 2042 review commissioned for these guidelines, concomitant AF surgery resulted in greater freedom from AF, atrial
 2043 flutter, and atrial tachycardia (RR 1.94, 95% CI 1.51–2.49; $n = 554$ from seven RCTs) (*Web Addenda Figure*
 2044 *3*).¹⁰⁴⁰ Patients undergoing the Cox maze procedure required pacemaker implantation more often (RR 1.69, 95%
 2045 CI 1.12–2.54; $n = 1631$ from 17 RCTs), without a detectable difference in other outcomes or complications.
 2046 These findings are underpinned by an analysis of Society of Thoracic Surgeons database comprising 67,389
 2047 patients in AF: mortality or major morbidity was not affected by concomitant AF surgery (adjusted OR 1.00;
 2048 95% CI 0.83–1.20), but pacemaker implantation was more frequent (adjusted OR 1.26; 95% CI 1.07–1.49).⁷⁹⁹
 2049 Predictors of AF recurrence after surgery include left atrial dilatation, older age, > 10-year history of AF, and
 2050 non-paroxysmal AF.⁸⁰⁰⁻⁸⁰⁴ Regarding AF type, surgical PVI seems effective in paroxysmal AF.⁸⁰⁵ Batrial lesion
 2051 patterns may be more effective in persistent and long-standing persistent AF.^{797, 803, 806} The suggested
 2052 management of patients with AF-related symptoms undergoing cardiac surgery is displayed in *Figure 19*, with
 2053 an important contribution of the AF Heart Team to advise and inform patient choice.



2054
2055 **Figure 18** A. Surgical lesion sets for the biatrial Cox maze procedure. Left and middle panel: right atrial lesions.
2056 Right panel: left atrial lesions.
2057 B: Left atrial lesions in a thoracoscopic minimally invasive surgical procedure (dashed lines), including left
2058 appendage exclusion (double line).



2059

2060 **Figure 19** Surgical rhythm control in patients undergoing cardiac surgery.2061 AF = atrial fibrillation; CABG = coronary artery bypass graft; LAA = left atrial appendage; PVI = pulmonary
2062 vein isolation.2063 ^aAF surgery may be PVI in paroxysmal AF and biatrial maze in persistent or long-standing persistent AF.2064 ^bOral anticoagulation should be continued in patients at risk of stroke irrespective of AF surgery or LAA
2065 exclusion.

2066

2067

2068

11.4.2. Stand-alone rhythm control surgery2069 Current technology (e.g. bipolar radiofrequency or cryotherapy) renders the procedure easier and more
2070 reproducible and feasible via a mini-thoracotomy.^{786, 807, 808} Thoracoscopic PVI with bipolar radiofrequency2071 prevents recurrence of paroxysmal AF (69–91% freedom from arrhythmias at 1 year, see *Figure 18B* for lesion
2072 set),^{468, 809, 810} and seems effective in patients refractory to catheter ablation.⁸¹¹ The average length of hospital2073 stay for thoracoscopic ablation varies from 3.6 to 6.0 days.^{468, 812, 813} The FAST (Atrial Fibrillation Catheter2074 Ablation vs Surgical Ablation Treatment) trial,⁴⁶⁸ and another smaller trial,⁸¹⁴ suggested that thoracoscopic AF2075 surgery could be more effective than catheter ablation for the maintenance of sinus rhythm,^{468, 814} while also2076 causing more complications (*Table 19*).⁸¹⁵ To improve results,^{468, 816-818} more extensive lesion sets have been2077 performed, connecting lines between the PVI encircling and towards the mitral annulus.^{812, 819-822} To improve the2078 generation of transmural lesions,⁷¹⁶ endo-epicardial ablation strategies have recently been proposed.^{812, 823-825}2079 Although preliminary experience with hybrid simultaneous ablation shows promise, procedural time and rates of
2080 bleeding complications are higher.^{812, 823}

2081

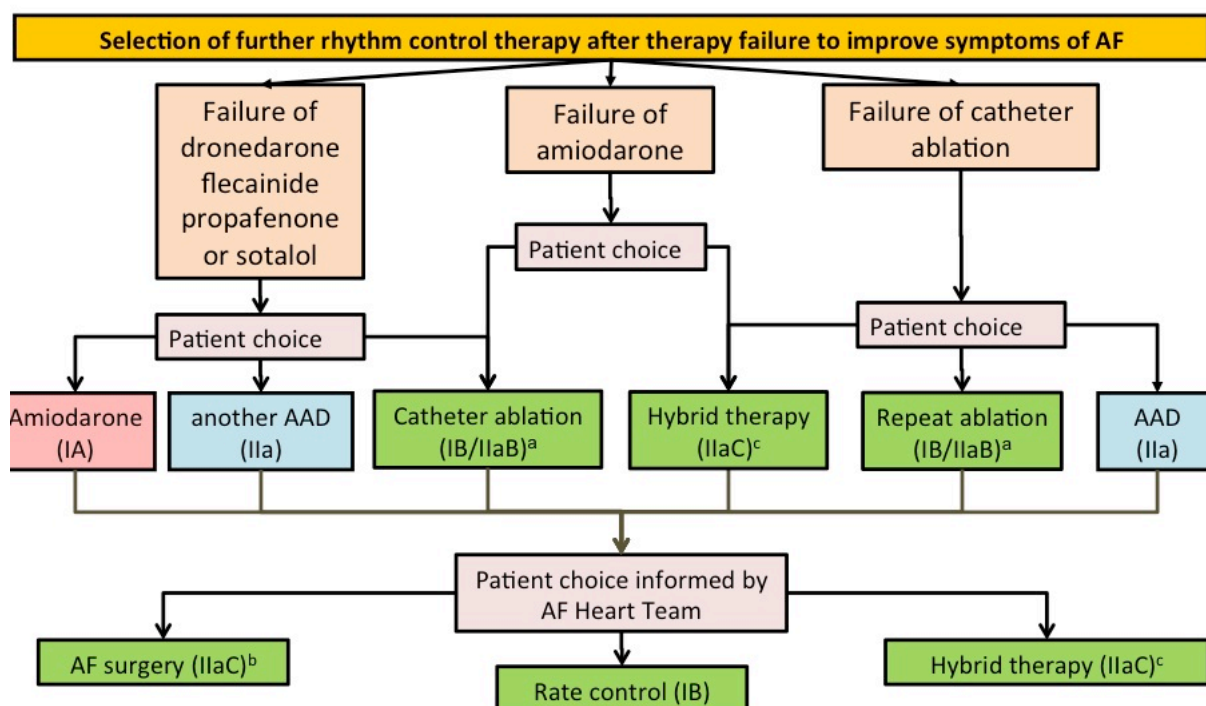
2082 **Table 19** Complications of thoracoscopic AF surgery

Complication	Rate ^{468, 815, 822, 826}
Conversion to sternotomy	0–1.6%
Pacemaker implantation	0–3.3%
Drainage for pneumothorax	0–3.3%
Pericardial tamponade	0–6.0%
Transient ischaemic attack ^a	0–3.0%

2083 AF = atrial fibrillation.
 2084 ^aThe rate of asymptomatic cerebral embolism is unknown
 2085

2086 11.5. Choice of rhythm control following treatment failure

2087 There is insufficient evidence on which to base clear recommendations on how to treat patients with recurrent
 2088 AF after catheter ablation. Early recurrences of AF or atrial tachycardias after ablation (occurring within 8
 2089 weeks) may be treated with cardioversion. Many of the published series of patients undergoing AF ablation
 2090 included those who failed antiarrhythmic drug therapy. Thus, considering ablation therapy in patients who have
 2091 symptomatic recurrences on antiarrhythmic drug therapy is often reasonable. Alternatively, trialling another
 2092 antiarrhythmic drug can be considered. Combining antiarrhythmic drug with ablation ('hybrid therapy', see
 2093 Section 11) should be considered based on the different and possibly synergistic effects of these drugs with AF
 2094 ablation, possibly benefitting patients in whom either treatment alone was previously ineffective. Rate control
 2095 without rhythm control, surgical ablation, or repeat catheter ablation should be considered as well as third-line
 2096 options (Figure 20). Patient preferences and local access to therapy are important considerations to inform the
 2097 therapy choice in patients who are in need of further rhythm control therapy after an initial therapy failure.



2098
 2099 **Figure 20** Choice of rhythm control approaches following treatment failure.
 2100 AAD = antiarrhythmic drug; AF = atrial fibrillation; PVI = pulmonary vein isolation.
 2101 ^a catheter ablation should target PVI. Class I level B for paroxysmal AF and Class IIa level B for persistent AF.
 2102 ^b AF surgery may be PVI (e.g. in paroxysmal AF) or maze surgery (e.g. in therapy-refractory or long-standing
 2103 persistent AF).
 2104 ^c Hybrid therapy involves combination of antiarrhythmic drugs, catheter ablation, and/or AF surgery.
 2105

2106 11.6. The atrial fibrillation Heart Team

2107 In view of the complexity of the different treatment options in patients with failed rhythm control therapy but
 2108 who still require or demand further rhythm control therapy, this Task Force proposes that decisions involving
 2109 AF surgery or extensive AF ablation should be based on advice from an AF Heart Team. This will also apply to
 2110 reversal to a rate control strategy in patients with severe (EHRA III or IV) AF symptoms. An AF Heart Team
 2111 should consist of a cardiologist with expertise in antiarrhythmic drug therapy, an interventional
 2112 electrophysiologist, and a cardiac surgeon with expertise in appropriate patient selection, techniques, and

2113 technologies for interventional or surgical AF ablation. Such AF Heart Teams – and a collaborative
 2114 infrastructure supporting a continued interaction between physicians delivering continued care, AF
 2115 cardiologists, interventional electrophysiologists, and AF surgeons – should be established to provide optimal
 2116 advice and ultimately to improve rhythm outcomes for patients in need of advanced and complex rhythm control
 2117 interventions.

2118

2119 **Recommendations for catheter ablation of AF and AF surgery**

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Catheter ablation of symptomatic paroxysmal AF is recommended to improve AF symptoms in patients who have symptomatic recurrences of AF on antiarrhythmic drug therapy (amiodarone, dronedarone, flecainide, propafenone, sotalol) and who prefer further rhythm control therapy, when performed by an electrophysiologist who has received appropriate training and is performing the procedure in an experienced centre	I	A	585-587, 713, 727
Ablation of common atrial flutter should be considered to prevent recurrent flutter as part of an AF-ablation procedure if previously documented or occurring during the AF ablation	Ila	B	827
Catheter ablation of AF should be considered as first-line therapy to prevent recurrent AF and to improve symptoms in selected patients with symptomatic paroxysmal AF as an alternative to antiarrhythmic drug therapy, considering patient choice, benefit, and risk	Ila	B	585
All patients should receive oral anticoagulation for stroke prevention for at least 8 weeks after catheter (IIaB) or surgical (IIaC) ablation.	Ila	B/C	727
Anticoagulation for stroke prevention should be continued indefinitely after apparently successful catheter or surgical ablation of AF in patients at high risk of stroke	Ila	C	
When catheter ablation of AF is planned, continuation of oral anticoagulation with VKA (IIaB) or NOAC (IIaC) should be considered during the procedure, maintaining effective anticoagulation	Ila	B/C	760, 768
Catheter ablation should target complete isolation of the pulmonary veins using radiofrequency ablation or cryotherapy balloon catheters	Ila	B	585, 715, 716, 734, 735
AF ablation should be considered in symptomatic patients with AF and heart failure with reduced ejection fraction to improve symptoms and cardiac function when tachycardiomyopathy is suspected	Ila	C	185, 226-228, 720, 777-779, 828
AF ablation should be considered as a strategy to avoid pacemaker implantation in patients with AF-related bradycardia	Ila	C	829, 830
Catheter or surgical ablation should be considered in patients with symptomatic persistent or long-standing persistent AF refractory to antiarrhythmic drug therapy to improve symptoms, considering patient choice, benefit and risk, supported by an AF Heart Team	Ila	C	468, 735, 777, 831, 832, 1040
Minimally invasive surgery with epicardial pulmonary vein isolation should be considered in patients with symptomatic AF when catheter ablation has failed. Decisions on such patients should be supported by an AF Heart Team	Ila	B	468 812, 819, 823
Maze surgery, possibly via a minimally invasive approach, performed by an adequately trained operator in an experienced centre, should be considered by an AF Heart Team as a treatment option for patients with symptomatic refractory persistent AF or post-ablation AF to improve symptoms	Ila	C	808, 832

Maze surgery, preferably biatrial, should be considered in patients undergoing cardiac surgery to improve symptoms attributable to AF, balancing the added risk of the procedure and the benefit of rhythm control therapy	IIa	A	461, 466, 790, 791, 796, 797
Concomitant biatrial maze or pulmonary vein isolation surgery may be considered in asymptomatic AF patients undergoing cardiac surgery	IIb	C	796, 797, 833

2120 AF = atrial fibrillation; NOAC = non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulant; VKA = vitamin K antagonist.

2121 ^aClass of recommendation.

2122 ^bLevel of evidence.

2123 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

2124

2125 **12 Hybrid rhythm control therapy**

2126 AF has many different drivers, which are only partially targeted by antiarrhythmic drug or catheter ablation.⁹⁶

2127 Hence, combination or 'hybrid' rhythm control therapy seems reasonable, although there is little evidence
2128 supporting its use.

2129

2130 **12.1. Combining antiarrhythmic drugs and catheter ablation**

2131 Antiarrhythmic drug therapy is commonly given for 8–12 weeks after ablation to reduce early recurrences of AF
2132 after catheter ablation, supported by a recent controlled trial where amiodarone halved early AF recurrences
2133 compared with placebo.⁶⁵⁰ Prospective studies have not been done, but a meta-analysis of the available (weak)
2134 evidence suggests slightly better prevention of recurrent AF in patients treated with antiarrhythmic drugs after
2135 catheter ablation.⁷¹³ Many patients are treated with antiarrhythmic drug therapy after catheter ablation (most
2136 often amiodarone or flecainide),⁵⁸⁷ and this seems a reasonable option in patients with recurrent AF after
2137 ablation. It seems common sense to consider antiarrhythmic drug therapy in patients who are in need of further
2138 rhythm control therapy after catheter ablation, but controlled trials to confirm this are desirable.

2139 Combining cavotricuspid isthmus ablation and antiarrhythmic drugs may lead to improved rhythm
2140 control without the need for left atrial ablation in patients who develop 'drug-induced atrial flutter' on therapy
2141 with flecainide, propafenone, or amiodarone,⁸³⁴⁻⁸³⁶ although recurrent AF is a concern in the long term.^{837, 838}

2142

2143 **12.2. Combining antiarrhythmic drugs and pacemakers**

2144 In selected patients with sick sinus syndrome and fast ventricular response during AF paroxysms requiring rate
2145 control therapy, the addition of a pacemaker not only optimizes rate control but may also help to control
2146 rhythm.^{711, 712} Moreover, when antiarrhythmic drug treatment leads to sinus node dysfunction and bradycardia,
2147 pacing may permit up titration of the antiarrhythmic drug dose. Such strategies have never been prospectively
2148 investigated and the existing populations studied are highly selected.^{839, 840} Some patients with AF-induced
2149 bradycardia may benefit from catheter ablation of AF, obviating the need for antiarrhythmic drugs and
2150 pacemaker implantation.^{829, 830}

2151

2152 **13 Specific situations**

2153 **13.1. Frail and 'elderly' patients**

2154 Many AF patients present at an older age (e.g. > 75 or > 80 years). There are no studies suggesting that
2155 cardiovascular risk reduction is less effective in these 'elderly' AF patients than in younger patients. Rather, age
2156 is one of the strongest predictors/risk factors for ischaemic stroke in AF (*Table 11*).³⁸² Good data are available to
2157 support the use of anticoagulants in older patients from BAFTA (Birmingham Atrial Fibrillation Treatment of
2158 the Aged Study),³⁶² the NOAC trials,³⁹ and from analyses in elderly Americans (Medicare).³⁹⁶ Elderly AF
2159 patients are at higher risk of stroke and thus are more likely to benefit from OAC than younger patients,⁸⁴¹ and
2160 yet OAC is still underutilized in the elderly.^{220, 842} Although the evidence base is smaller for other treatment
2161 options in AF, the available data support the use of available rate and rhythm control interventions, including
2162 pacemakers and catheter ablation, without justification to discriminate by age group. Individual patients at older
2163 age may present with multiple comorbidities including dementia, a tendency to falls, CKD, anaemia,
2164 hypertension, diabetes, and cognitive dysfunction. Such conditions may limit quality of life more than AF-
2165 related symptoms. Impairment of renal and hepatic function and multiple simultaneous medications make drug
2166 interactions and adverse drug reactions more likely. Integrated AF management and careful adaptation of drug
2167 dosing seem reasonable to reduce complications of AF therapy in such patients.⁸⁴³

2168

2169 **13.2. Inherited cardiomyopathies, channelopathies, and accessory pathways**

2170 Several inherited cardiac conditions are associated with early-onset AF (*Table 20*). Treatment of the underlying
 2171 cardiac condition is an important contribution to AF management in these young patients (see also ESC
 2172 guidelines on the sudden cardiac death⁸⁴⁴ and hypertrophic cardiomyopathy⁸⁴⁵).

2173

2174 **Table 20** Inherited cardiomyopathies, channelopathies, and pathways associated with AF

2175

Syndrome	Gene	Functional alteration	AF prevalence	References
Long QT syndrome	KCNQ1 KCNH2 SCN5A ANK2 others	IKs <input type="checkbox"/> IKr <input type="checkbox"/> INa <input type="checkbox"/> INa,K <input type="checkbox"/> Various effects	5–10%	846-850
Brugada syndrome	SCN5A GPDIL SCN1B CACNA1C CACNB2b others	INa <input type="checkbox"/> INa <input type="checkbox"/> INa <input type="checkbox"/> ICa <input type="checkbox"/> ICa <input type="checkbox"/> others	10–20%	851-855
Short QT syndrome	KCNH2 KCNQ1 KCNJ2 CACNA1C CACNB2b	IKr <input type="checkbox"/> IKs <input type="checkbox"/> IK1 <input type="checkbox"/> ICa <input type="checkbox"/> ICa <input type="checkbox"/>	Up to 70%	853, 856-858
Catecholaminergic ventricular tachycardia	RYR2 CASQ2	Abnormal Ca ²⁺ release from sarcoplasmic reticulum	Variable but significant	859-861
Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy	Sarcomeric genes		5–15%	862-864
Wolff–Parkinson–White syndrome	PRKAG		Variable	865
Holt–Oram syndrome	TBX5		Variable	866
Arrhythmogenic right ventricular cardiomyopathy	Several desmosomal genes, unknown gene loci		>40% in patients with VTs	867, 868

2176 AF = atrial fibrillation.

2177

2178 **13.2.1. Wolff–Parkinson–White syndrome**

2179 Patients with pre-excitation and AF are at risk of rapid conduction across the accessory pathway, resulting in a
 2180 fast ventricular rate, possibly ventricular fibrillation, and sudden death. In AF patients with evidence of an
 2181 antegrade accessory pathway, catheter ablation of the pathway is recommended.^{869, 870} This procedure is safe and
 2182 effective and may be considered as a prophylactic treatment strategy.^{871, 872} In AF patients surviving a sudden
 2183 death event with evidence of an accessory pathway, urgent catheter ablation of the pathway is recommended.⁸⁶⁹

2184 A documented short pre-excited RR interval (< 250 ms) during spontaneous or induced AF is one of the risk
 2185 markers for sudden death in Wolff–Parkinson–White syndrome (WPW) syndrome, in addition to a history of
 2186 symptomatic tachycardia, the presence of multiple accessory pathways, and Ebstein’s anomaly. Intravenous
 2187 procainamide, propafenone, or ajmaline can be used to acutely slow ventricular rate,^{873, 874} whereas digoxin,
 2188 verapamil, and diltiazem are contraindicated.⁸⁷⁵ Intravenous amiodarone should be used with caution, as there
 2189 are case reports of accelerated ventricular rhythms and ventricular fibrillation in patients with pre-excited AF
 2190 receiving intravenous amiodarone infusion.⁸⁷⁶

2191

2192 **13.2.2. Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy**

2193 AF is the most common arrhythmia in patients with hypertrophic cardiomyopathy, affecting approximately one-
 2194 quarter of this population.⁸⁷⁷ Observational data highlight a high stroke risk in hypertrophic cardiomyopathy

2195 patients with AF, confirming the need for OAC.⁸⁷⁸ While there is more experience with VKAs, there are no data
 2196 to suggest that NOACs cannot be used in these patients.⁸⁴⁵ Studies of rate or rhythm control medications in
 2197 patients with hypertrophic cardiomyopathy are relatively scarce. Beta-blockers and diltiazem or verapamil seem
 2198 reasonable treatment options for rate control in these patients. In the absence of significant LV outflow tract
 2199 obstruction, digoxin can be used alone or in combination with beta-blockers.⁸⁴⁵ Amiodarone seems a safe
 2200 antiarrhythmic drug in AF patients with hypertrophic cardiomyopathy,⁸⁷⁹ and expert opinion suggests that
 2201 disopyramide may be beneficial in those with outflow tract obstruction. AF ablation is effective to suppress
 2202 symptomatic AF recurrences.⁸⁸⁰⁻⁸⁸⁴ Surgical treatment of AF may be appropriate in patients with hypertrophic
 2203 cardiomyopathy undergoing surgery (e.g. for LV outflow tract obstruction or mitral valve surgery), but
 2204 experience is limited.

2205 2206 **13.2.3. Channelopathies and arrhythmogenic right ventricular cardiomyopathy**

2207 Many channelopathies and inherited cardiomyopathies are associated with AF. AF prevalence ranges from 5%
 2208 to 20% in patients with long QT syndrome or Brugada syndrome, and is up to 70% in short QT syndrome
 2209 (Table 20).^{853, 856-858} Penetrance of disease phenotype including AF is variable.^{61, 852, 885, 886} Both shortening as
 2210 well as prolongation of the atrial action potential have been demonstrated as likely mechanisms underlying AF
 2211 in these diseases. It seems reasonable to consider antiarrhythmic drugs that reverse the suspected channel defect
 2212 in AF patients with inherited cardiomyopathies (e.g. a sodium channel blocker in LQT3⁸⁵² and quinidine in
 2213 Brugada syndrome⁸⁸⁷). More importantly, new-onset AF in young, otherwise healthy individuals should trigger
 2214 a careful search for such inherited conditions, including clinical history, family history, ECG phenotype, and
 2215 echocardiography and/or other cardiac imaging.

2216 Monogenic defects only account for 3–5% of all patients with AF, even in younger populations.^{846, 848,}
 2217 ⁸⁸⁸⁻⁸⁹⁰ Furthermore, there is no clear link between detected mutations and specific outcomes or therapeutic needs.
 2218 For these reasons, genetic testing is not recommended in the general AF population.⁷⁷ Other guidelines have
 2219 described the indications for genetic testing in patients with inherited arrhythmogenic diseases.^{844, 891}

2220 2221 **Recommendations for inherited cardiomyopathies**

2222 Recommendations	Class^a	Level^b	Refs^c
WPW syndrome			
Catheter ablation of the accessory pathway in WPW patients with AF and rapid conduction over the accessory pathway is recommended to prevent sudden cardiac death	I	B	892-894
Catheter ablation of the accessory pathway is recommended without delay in WPW patients who survive sudden cardiac death	I	C	869
Asymptomatic patients with overt pre-excitation and AF should be considered for accessory pathway ablation after careful counselling	IIa	B	872, 895
Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy			
Lifelong oral anticoagulation to prevent stroke is recommended in hypertrophic cardiomyopathy patients who develop AF	I	B	878
Restoration of sinus rhythm by electrical or pharmacological cardioversion to improve symptoms is recommended in hypertrophic cardiomyopathy patients with symptomatic new-onset AF	I	B	845
In haemodynamically stable hypertrophic cardiomyopathy patients with AF, ventricular rate control using beta-blockers and diltiazem/verapamil is recommended	I	C	845
Treatment of LV outflow tract obstruction should be considered in AF patients with hypertrophic cardiomyopathy to improve symptoms	IIa	B	896
Amiodarone should be considered to achieve rhythm control and maintain sinus rhythm in hypertrophic cardiomyopathy patients	IIa	C	845, 897
Inherited cardiomyopathies and channelopathies			
Targeted genetic testing should be considered in patients with AF and a suspicion of inherited cardiomyopathies or channelopathies based on clinical history, family history, or electrocardiographic phenotype	IIa	A	852

2223 AF = atrial fibrillation; LV = left ventricular; WPW = Wolff–Parkinson–White syndrome.

2224 ^aClass of recommendation.

2225 ^bLevel of evidence.

2226 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

2227

2228 **13.3. Sports and atrial fibrillation**

2229 Physical activity improves cardiovascular health, which translates into a lower risk of AF.⁸⁹⁸ Therefore, physical
 2230 activity is a cornerstone of preventing AF. Intensive sports practice, especially endurance sports (> 1500 h of
 2231 endurance sports practice),⁸⁹⁹ increases the risk of AF later in life,⁹⁰⁰⁻⁹⁰² probably mediated by altered autonomic
 2232 tone, volume load during exercise, atrial hypertrophy, and dilatation.^{903,904} This results in a U-shaped
 2233 relationship of physical activity and incident AF.^{214,898,902,905,906} Detraining can reduce AF in models⁹⁰⁴ and
 2234 reduces ventricular arrhythmias in athletes,⁹⁰⁷ but the role of detraining for AF in human athletes is unknown.
 2235 The management of athletes with AF is similar to general AF management, but requires a few special
 2236 considerations. Clinical risk factors will determine the need for anticoagulation. Sports with direct bodily
 2237 contact or prone to trauma should be avoided in patients on OAC. Beta-blockers are not well tolerated and at
 2238 times prohibited, and digoxin, verapamil, and diltiazem are often not potent enough to slow heart rate during
 2239 exertional AF. Catheter ablation for AF probably has similar outcomes in athletes as in non-athletes,^{908,909} but
 2240 further data are needed. Pill-in-the-pocket therapy has been used as well.⁶²⁰ After ingestion of flecainide or
 2241 propafenone as pill-in-the-pocket, patients should refrain from sports as long as AF persists and until two half-
 2242 lives of the antiarrhythmic drug have elapsed. Prophylactic ablation of the flutter circuit may be considered in
 2243 athletes treated with sodium channel blockers.⁹¹⁰

2244

2245 **Recommendations for physical activity in patients with AF**

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Moderate regular physical activity is recommended to prevent AF, while athletes should be counselled that long-lasting, more intense sports participation can promote AF	I	A	214, 898, 900-902, 905, 906
AF ablation should be considered to prevent recurrent AF in athletes	IIa	B	908, 909
The ventricular rate while exercising with AF should be evaluated in every athlete (by symptoms and/or by monitoring), and titrated rate control should be instituted	IIa	C	
After ingestion of pill-in-the-pocket Class I antiarrhythmic drugs, patients should refrain from sports as long as AF persists and until two half-lives of the antiarrhythmic drug have elapsed	IIa	C	620

2246 AF = atrial fibrillation.

2247 ^aClass of recommendation.2248 ^bLevel of evidence.2249 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

2250

2251 **13.4. Pregnancy**

2252 AF in pregnant women is rare and is usually associated with pre-existing heart disease. AF is associated with
 2253 increased complications for the mother and foetus.^{911,912} Better treatment of congenital heart diseases will
 2254 probably increase the incidence of AF during pregnancy in the future.⁹¹³ Pregnant women with AF should be
 2255 managed as high-risk pregnancies in close collaboration with cardiologists, obstetricians, and neonatologists.

2256

2257 **13.4.1. Rate control**

2258 Owing to a lack of specific data, beta-blockers, verapamil, diltiazem, and digoxin all carry a US Food and Drug
 2259 Administration pregnancy safety category of C (benefits may outweigh risk), except for atenolol (category D:
 2260 positive evidence of risk). Their use should be at the lowest dose and for the shortest time required. None of the
 2261 agents are teratogenic, but they readily cross the placenta.⁹¹⁴ Beta-blockers are commonly used in clinical
 2262 practice (e.g. for management of gestational hypertension and pre-eclampsia), but may be associated with
 2263 intrauterine growth retardation,⁹¹⁵ and hence growth scans after 20 weeks gestation are recommended. Digoxin
 2264 is considered safe for maternal and foetal arrhythmias.⁹¹⁶ There are insufficient data to comment on verapamil or
 2265 diltiazem, hence rate control using beta-blockers and/or digoxin is recommended.⁹¹⁷ With regards to
 2266 breastfeeding, all rate control agents are present in breast milk, although levels of beta-blockers, digoxin, and
 2267 verapamil are too low to be considered harmful. Diltiazem will be present at high levels and should be
 2268 considered second-line treatment.⁹¹⁸

2269

2270 **13.4.2. Rhythm control**

2271 Rhythm control therapy in pregnant patients with AF has only been reported in case studies. Amiodarone is
 2272 associated with severe adverse foetal side-effects and should only be considered for emergency situations.⁹¹⁹
 2273 Flecainide and sotalol can both be used for conversion of foetal arrhythmias without major adverse effects,⁹²⁰
 2274 and thus are likely to be safe to treat maternal symptomatic AF. Electrical cardioversion can be effective for
 2275 restoration of sinus rhythm when tachyarrhythmia is causing haemodynamic instability, with low rates of
 2276 adverse outcomes for both mother and foetus.⁹²¹ However, in view of the risk of foetal distress, electrical
 2277 cardioversion should only be carried out where facilities are available for foetal monitoring and emergency
 2278 caesarean section. As with other emergencies during pregnancy, patients should receive 100% oxygen,
 2279 intravenous access should be established early, and the mother should be positioned in the left lateral position to
 2280 improve venous return.⁹²²

2281

2282 13.4.3. Anticoagulation

2283 VKAs should be avoided in the first trimester because of teratogenic effects, and in the 2–4 weeks preceding
 2284 delivery to avoid foetal bleeding. Low-molecular-weight heparins are a safe substitute, as they do not cross the
 2285 placenta.⁹²³ In the third trimester, frequent laboratory checks for adequate anticoagulation (e.g. every 10–14
 2286 days) and corresponding dose adjustments are advised, given that in some women high doses of both VKA and
 2287 heparin may be needed to maintain adequate anticoagulation. Pregnant patients with AF and mechanical
 2288 prosthetic valves who elect to stop VKA treatment in consultation with their specialist team between 6 and 12
 2289 weeks of gestation, should receive continuous, dose-adjusted unfractionated heparin or dose-adjusted
 2290 subcutaneous low-molecular-weight heparin. As only limited data are available about teratogenesis for NOACs,
 2291 these drugs should be avoided during pregnancy.

2292

2293 Recommendations during pregnancy

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Electrical cardioversion can be performed safely at all stages of pregnancy, and is recommended in patients who are haemodynamically unstable due to AF, and whenever the risk of ongoing AF is considered high, for the mother or the foetus	I	C	
Anticoagulation is recommended in pregnant patients with AF at risk of stroke. To minimize teratogenic risk and intrauterine bleeding, dose-adjusted heparins are recommended during the first trimester of pregnancy and in the 2–4 weeks before delivery. Vitamin K antagonists or heparin can be used in the remaining parts of the pregnancy	I	B	923
NOACs should be avoided in pregnancy and in women planning a pregnancy	III (harm)	C	

2294 NOAC = non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulants

2295 ^aClass of recommendation.

2296 ^bLevel of evidence.

2297 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

2298

2299 13.5. Postoperative atrial fibrillation

2300 AF is common after cardiac surgery (occurring in 15–45% of patients),⁹²⁴⁻⁹²⁶ and is associated with increased
 2301 length of hospital stay and higher rates of complications and mortality.⁹²⁷ Postoperative AF is also not
 2302 uncommon after other major surgery, especially in elderly patients. The treatment of postoperative AF is mainly
 2303 based on studies of patients undergoing cardiac surgery, with much less evidence in the non-cardiac surgery
 2304 setting.

2305

2306 13.5.1. Prevention of postoperative atrial fibrillation

2307 Beta-blockers reduce postoperative AF and supraventricular tachycardias, albeit with high heterogeneity and
 2308 moderate risk of bias in a systematic review of published studies (the most commonly studied drug was
 2309 propranolol, with AF in 16.3% of the treatment group vs. 31.7% in the control group).⁹²⁵ In the majority of these
 2310 studies, beta-blockers were administered postoperatively, a regimen supported in a recent meta-analysis.⁹²⁸
 2311 Amiodarone reduced the incidence of postoperative AF compared to a beta-blocker regimen in several meta-
 2312 analyses, also reducing hospital stay.^{925, 929-931}

2313 Despite initial reports from meta-analyses,^{689, 932, 933} preoperative treatment with statins did not prevent
 2314 postoperative AF in a prospective controlled trial.⁹³⁴ Other therapies have also been studied in small, hypothesis-
 2315 generating trials, but have not demonstrated clear beneficial effects. These include magnesium,^{925, 935, 936} n-3
 2316 polyunsaturated fatty acids,⁹³⁷⁻⁹⁴⁵ colchicine,⁹⁴⁶ corticosteroids,^{947, 948} and posterior pericardectomy.⁹⁴⁹
 2317 Postoperative overdrive biatrial pacing has not gained widespread use despite some suggestion of prophylactic
 2318 effects.^{925, 950}
 2319

2320 13.5.2. Anticoagulation

2321 Postoperative AF is associated with an increased early stroke risk, increased morbidity, and 30-day mortality.^{927,}
 2322 ^{951, 952} In the long term, patients with an episode of postoperative AF have a twofold increase in cardiovascular
 2323 mortality and a substantially increased risk of future AF and ischaemic stroke compared with patients that
 2324 remain in sinus rhythm after surgery.⁹⁵²⁻⁹⁵⁸ OAC at discharge has been associated with a reduced long-term
 2325 mortality in patients with postoperative AF,⁹⁵⁹ without evidence from controlled trials. Good quality data are
 2326 needed to determine whether long-term anticoagulation can prevent strokes in patients with postoperative AF at
 2327 high stroke risk,^{368, 386} and to assess whether short episodes of postoperative AF (e.g. < 48 h) carry a similar risk
 2328 as longer episodes.⁹⁶⁰ The indication and timing of OAC in postoperative AF patients should take into
 2329 consideration the risk of postoperative bleeding.
 2330

2331 13.5.3. Rhythm control therapy in postoperative atrial fibrillation

2332 In haemodynamically unstable patients, cardioversion and consideration of antiarrhythmic drugs is
 2333 recommended. Amiodarone or vernakalant have been efficient in converting postoperative AF to sinus
 2334 rhythm.^{603, 950, 961} A recent medium-sized trial randomizing patients with postoperative AF to either rhythm
 2335 control therapy with amiodarone or to rate control did not find a difference in hospital admissions during a 60-
 2336 day follow-up,⁹⁶² underpinning that the aim of rhythm control therapy should be to improve AF-related
 2337 symptoms in postoperative AF. In asymptomatic patients and in those with acceptable symptoms, rate control or
 2338 deferred cardioversion preceded by anticoagulation is a reasonable approach.
 2339

2340 Recommendations for preventing postoperative AF

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Perioperative oral beta-blocker therapy is recommended for the prevention of postoperative AF after cardiac surgery	I	B	925, 928
Restoration of sinus rhythm by electrical cardioversion or antiarrhythmic drugs is recommended in postoperative AF with haemodynamic instability	I	C	
Long-term anticoagulation should be considered in patients with AF after cardiac surgery at risk for stroke, considering individual stroke and bleeding risk	IIa	B	368, 386
Antiarrhythmic drugs should be considered for recurrent or symptomatic postoperative AF after cardiac surgery in an attempt to restore sinus rhythm	IIa	C	
Perioperative amiodarone should be considered for prophylactic therapy to prevent AF after cardiac surgery	IIa	A	925
Intravenous vernakalant may be considered for cardioversion of postoperative AF in patients without severe heart failure, hypotension, or severe structural heart disease (especially aortic stenosis)	IIb	B	603
Asymptomatic postoperative AF should initially be managed with rate control and anticoagulation	IIa	B	962

2341 AF = atrial fibrillation.

2342 ^aClass of recommendation.

2343 ^bLevel of evidence.

2344 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

2345

2346 13.6. Atrial arrhythmias in grown-up patients with congenital heart disease

2347 Atrial arrhythmias (AF, atrial flutter, atrial tachycardias) often occur late after surgical repair of congenital heart
 2348 defects, occurring in 15–40% of grown-up patients with congenital heart disease (GUCH). They are associated
 2349 with heart failure, syncope, thromboembolic events, and sudden death.⁹⁶³⁻⁹⁶⁷ The pathophysiological substrate is
 2350 complex, associated with hypertrophy, fibrosis, hypoxaemia, chronic haemodynamic overload, and surgical
 2351 scars and patches. Additionally, related primary anomalies in the conduction pathways can lead to reentrant
 2352 atrial and ventricular tachycardia, heart block, and sinus node dysfunction.⁹⁶³ Macro-reentrant atrial tachycardia
 2353 or atypical atrial flutter may be seen after nearly any surgical procedure involving atriotomy or atrial patches.
 2354

2355 **13.6.1. General management of atrial arrhythmias in grown-up patients with** 2356 **congenital heart disease**

2357 The conventional stroke risk factors should be used to inform decisions on long-term anticoagulation in GUCH
 2358 patients with AF. In addition, anticoagulation should be considered in GUCH patients with atrial arrhythmias
 2359 when they present with intracardial repair, cyanosis, Fontan palliation, or systemic right ventricle, in addition to
 2360 those with conventional stroke risk factors.⁹⁶⁸ Beta-blockers, verapamil, diltiazem, and digitalis can be used.
 2361 Care should be taken to avoid bradycardia and hypotension.

2362 Sodium channel blockers suppress approximately half of atrial arrhythmias in Fontan patients.⁹⁶⁹
 2363 Amiodarone is more effective, but long-term treatment with an antiarrhythmic drugs carries a high risk of
 2364 extracardiac side-effects in this relatively young population. Intracardiac thrombi are common in GUCH
 2365 patients undergoing cardioversion for AF, but also in patients with atrial tachycardias or atrial flutter.⁹⁷⁰
 2366 Therefore, both a TOE and anticoagulation for a few weeks before the planned cardioversion should be
 2367 considered.⁹⁶⁴ Radiofrequency ablation may be a good option for symptomatic GUCH patients with atrial
 2368 arrhythmias, especially in those with atrial flutter and other macro-reentrant tachycardias. Interventions should
 2369 be performed in adequately qualified centres by specialized teams.
 2370

2371 **13.6.2. Atrial tachyarrhythmias and atrial septal defects**

2372 Atrial flutter and fibrillation occur in 14–22% of adults with unoperated atrial septal defects, especially in older
 2373 patients,⁹⁷¹ and can lead to heart failure.⁹⁷² Early repair can reduce but not eliminate the risk of AF.⁹⁷³ Biatrial
 2374 volume overload,⁹⁷⁴ pulmonary hypertension,⁹⁷⁵ and possibly the arrhythmogenic effect of atrial patches can
 2375 contribute to these arrhythmias.⁹⁷⁶ Anticoagulation should be decided based on stroke risk factors. In patients
 2376 with a history of paroxysmal or persistent AF, AF surgery could be considered at the time of surgical closure, or
 2377 catheter ablation in patients undergoing interventional atrial septal defect closure. Catheter ablation of late atrial
 2378 arrhythmias has shown to be effective in 46 consecutive patients after surgical atrial septal defect.⁹⁷⁷
 2379

2380 **13.6.3. Atrial tachyarrhythmias after Fontan operation**

2381 Atrial arrhythmias occur in up to 40% of patients with a Fontan circulation, and can manifest as atrial flutter,
 2382 primary atrial tachycardia, AF, and accelerated junctional rhythm or junctional tachycardia⁹⁷⁸ with or without
 2383 sinoatrial node dysfunction.⁹⁷⁹ Patients with atriopulmonary anastomoses (possibly due to higher atrial volume
 2384 and pressure load) and those with early postoperative atrial arrhythmias are more likely to develop long-term
 2385 atrial arrhythmias.⁹⁸⁰ Atrial arrhythmias can also be the first manifestation of obstruction of the atriopulmonary
 2386 anastomosis, a complication that must be identified. Right atrial thrombus formation is common in Fontan
 2387 patients with atrial arrhythmias and requires oral anticoagulation.⁹⁸¹ Operative conversion to total
 2388 cavopulmonary artery connection with concomitant arrhythmia surgery can in some patients improve heart
 2389 failure symptoms and reduce recurrent arrhythmias,^{969, 982} with low recurrence rates of clinically apparent atrial
 2390 arrhythmias in the first few years after repeat surgery.⁹⁸³⁻⁹⁸⁵ Catheter ablation of atrial arrhythmia in Fontan
 2391 patients has been successful in selected patients.⁹⁸⁶
 2392

2393 **13.6.4. Atrial tachyarrhythmias after tetralogy of Fallot correction**

2394 Approximately one-third of patients after repair of tetralogy of Fallot develop atrial arrhythmias, including intra-
 2395 atrial reentrant tachycardia, focal atrial tachycardia, and AF.⁹⁸⁷ Circuits involving the cavotricuspid isthmus and
 2396 areas of presumed surgical right atrial scarring have been described as responsible for atrial arrhythmias.
 2397

2398 **Recommendations in patients with GUCH**

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Atrial septal defect closure should be considered before the fourth decade of life to diminish the chance of atrial flutter and fibrillation	Ila	C	971, 972, 974

In patients who need surgical closure of an atrial septal defect and who have a history of symptomatic atrial arrhythmia, atrial ablation should be considered at the time of surgical closure	IIa	C	204, 988, 989
Cox maze surgery should be considered in patients with symptomatic AF and an indication for corrective repair of congenital heart defects. All such surgery should be done in experienced centres	IIa	C	988, 990
Oral anticoagulation should be considered in all adult patients with intracardiac repair, cyanosis, Fontan palliation, or systemic right ventricle and a history of AF, atrial flutter, or intra-atrial reentrant tachycardia. In all other congenital heart disease patients with AF, anticoagulation should be considered if the CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VAS _C score is ≥ 1	IIa	C	968
Catheter ablation of atrial arrhythmias associated with congenital heart defects may be considered when performed in experienced centres	IIb	C	991
In patients with congenital heart disease, transoesophageal echocardiography may be considered together with 3-week anticoagulation therapy before cardioversion	IIb	C	964, 970, 988, 990

2399 AF = atrial fibrillation; CHA₂DS₂-VASc = Congestive Heart failure, hypertension, Age ≥ 75 (doubled),
 2400 Diabetes, Stroke (doubled), Vascular disease, Age 65–74, and Sex (female); GUCH = grown-up patients with
 2401 congenital heart disease; OAC = oral anticoagulation; TOE = transoesophageal echocardiography.

2402 ^aClass of recommendation.

2403 ^bLevel of evidence.

2404 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

2405

2406 13.7. Management of atrial flutter

2407 The goals for the management of atrial flutter are similar to those for AF.⁹⁹² Based on the available evidence, the
 2408 stroke risk in patients with atrial flutter is not much different from that in AF.⁸²⁷ Furthermore, many patients
 2409 diagnosed with atrial flutter develop AF.⁹⁹³⁻⁹⁹⁵ Thus, anticoagulation should be used in patients with atrial flutter
 2410 similar to that in patients with AF. Rate control in atrial flutter is achieved with the same medications as in AF,
 2411 but is often more difficult to achieve. Flecainide, propafenone, dofetilide, and intravenous ibutilide are useful for
 2412 cardioversion of atrial flutter. They should be combined with a rate-controlling agent to avoid 1:1 conduction of
 2413 slowing flutter waves to the ventricles. Ibutilide is more effective for conversion of atrial flutter than AF,
 2414 whereas vernakalant is less effective in converting typical atrial flutter.^{996, 997} Electrical cardioversion of atrial
 2415 flutter can be performed using lower energies (50–100 J) than for AF.^{998, 999} Atrial overdrive pacing through
 2416 pacemaker leads or endocardial or transesophageal catheters can convert atrial flutter to sinus rhythm.^{1000, 1001}
 2417 Anticoagulation and transoesophageal echocardiography around cardioversion or overdrive pacing should be
 2418 used similar to that in AF.

2419 Ablation of the cavotricuspid isthmus for isthmus-dependent right atrial flutter (either the common
 2420 counter-clockwise atrial flutter or the less-common clockwise atrial flutter) restores and maintains sinus rhythm
 2421 with a success rate of 90–95%.¹⁰⁰² It may also reduce AF recurrences in selected patients,^{1003, 1004} and help to
 2422 prevent hospitalizations.^{1004, 1005} Isthmus ablation is comparably safe and more effective than antiarrhythmic
 2423 drug therapy, and is recommended for recurrent atrial flutter.^{585-587, 713} Catheter ablation of left atrial macro-
 2424 reentrant tachycardia is more complex, with lower success rates and higher recurrence rates.^{1006, 1007}

2425

2426 Recommendations for management of atrial flutter

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
For patients with atrial flutter, antithrombotic therapy is recommended according to the same risk profile used for AF	I	B	827
Overdrive atrial pacing of atrial flutter should be considered as an alternative to electrical cardioversion, depending on local availability and experience	IIa	B	1000, 1001

Management of typical atrial flutter with ablation of the cavotricuspid isthmus is recommended for patients failing antiarrhythmic drug therapy or as first-line treatment considering patient preference	I	B	158
If atrial flutter has been documented before AF ablation, ablation of the cavotricuspid isthmus should be considered as part of the AF ablation procedure	IIa	C	

2427 AF = atrial fibrillation.

2428 ^aClass of recommendation.

2429 ^bLevel of evidence.

2430 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

2431

2432 **14 Patient involvement, education and self-management**

2433 A fundamental aspect of a structured AF management programme is the focus on patient-centred care.

2434

2435 **14.1. Patient-centred care**

2436 Autonomous, informed patients are better placed to adhere to long-term therapy, and it is very likely that long-term management of chronic conditions such as AF will benefit from informed patients involved in the disease management who are aware of their own responsibilities.³²⁸ Shared decision-making⁷⁴⁷ and patient-centred organization of care can help to ensure adherence to management and empower patients, and respect individual patient preferences, needs, and values (see Chapter 7.2).^{326, 1008, 1009} Patients in an active role tend to have better health outcomes and care experiences, and engagement itself can be considered as an intermediate outcome, particularly where related to improved clinical outcomes.¹⁰¹⁰

2441

2442

2443

2444 **14.2. Integrated patient education**

2445 Education is a prerequisite for informed, involved patients and patient-centred care. However, lack of AF-related knowledge in patients is common, even in those who have received verbal and written information,^{32, 1011, 1012} indicating the need to further develop structured patient education. Several patient-information tools have been developed, largely focusing on oral anticoagulation.¹⁰¹³⁻¹⁰¹⁶ Understanding patients' perceptions and attitudes towards AF and its management can improve AF management and related outcomes.¹⁰¹⁷ This includes tailored patient education focusing on the disease, symptom recognition, therapy, modifiable risk factors for AF, and self-management activities.^{1018, 1019}

2451

2452

2453 **14.3. Self-management and shared decision-making**

2454 Self-management is primarily focused on tasks to manage the condition, such as adhering to a therapeutic regimen or modifying behaviour (e.g. resulting in smoking cessation or weight loss).¹⁰²⁰ It requires understanding of the treatment modalities and goals.³⁵⁰ Within a multidisciplinary team, allied health professionals can guide this interactive process in which communication, trust, and reciprocal respect foster patient engagement.¹⁰²¹ Shared decision-making should be considered as a routine part of the decision-making process,⁷⁴⁷ supported by decision aids where applicable.¹⁰²² Models of care that integrate education, engagement, and shared decision making are now available,¹⁰²³ and may be of particular value in the management of AF.

2461

2462

2463

Recommendations for patient involvement, education, and self-management

Recommendations	Class ^a	Level ^b	Refs ^c
Tailored patient education is recommended in all phases of AF management to support patients' perception of AF and to improve management	I	C	1014, 1017
Patient involvement in the care process should be considered to encourage self-management and responsibility for lifestyle changes	IIa	C	328, 1010
Shared decision-making should be considered to ensure that care is based on the best available evidence and fits the needs, values, and preferences of the patient	IIa	C	747

2464 AF = atrial fibrillation.

2465 ^aClass of recommendation.

2466 ^bLevel of evidence.

2467 ^cReference(s) supporting recommendations.

2468

2469 **15 Gaps in evidence**

2470 There are some areas of AF management that are supported by excellent evidence from multiple, adequately
2471 powered randomized trials (e.g. oral anticoagulation. Other areas, such as rhythm control therapy, integrated AF
2472 management, and lifestyle modifications are clearly developing the required evidence, while areas such as rate
2473 control are in dire need of better studies to underpin future guidelines. Here we identify areas in need of further
2474 research.

2475

2476 **15.1. Major health modifiers causing atrial fibrillation**

2477 Atrial fibrillation has different causes in different patients. More research is needed into the major causes (and
2478 electrophysiological mechanisms) of AF in different patient groups.^{176, 1024} Such research should consider the
2479 major comorbidities associated with AF, and characterize the response to AF therapy in patients with different,
2480 pathophysiologically distinct types of AF.

2481

2482 **15.2. How much atrial fibrillation constitutes a mandate for therapy?**

2483 Technological advances allow screening for an irregular pulse using patient-operated ECG devices,
2484 smartphones, and a variety of other technologies. These may be very useful to detect silent, undiagnosed AF.¹⁵⁷
2485 Adequately powered studies evaluating the diagnostic accuracy of such technologies, the diagnostic yield in
2486 different populations, the shortest duration of atrial arrhythmias conveying a stroke risk, and ideally the effect of
2487 ECG screening on outcomes are needed.

2488

2489 **15.3. Atrial high-rate episodes and need for anticoagulation**

2490 All of the information on the benefit of OAC has been in patients with AF diagnosed by ECG. Technological
2491 advances allow ready detection of AHRE in patients with implanted devices and an atrial lead. Such patients are
2492 at increased stroke risk, but it is unclear whether they benefit from OAC. Controlled trials evaluating OAC in
2493 AHRE patients are ongoing and will provide evidence on the best antithrombotic therapy in these patients.

2494

2495 **15.4. Stroke risk in specific populations**

2496 Several specific AF groups should be studied to better characterize their risk for AF, stroke, and other AF-
2497 related complications (e.g. patients with one stroke risk factor, and non-Caucasian patients). Confounding
2498 factors (e.g. different therapy of concomitant cardiovascular diseases) may help to explain the variability in the
2499 reported rates of incident AF, prevalent AF, and AF complications. This also applies to the effect of gender in
2500 AF patients.⁴⁷

2501

2502 **15.5. Anticoagulation in patients with severe chronic kidney disease**

2503 The use of NOACs has not been tested in patients with creatinine clearance < 30 mL/min, and there is very little
2504 evidence on the effects of OAC in patients on haemodialysis or on other forms of renal-replacement therapy.
2505 Studies evaluating OAC in patients with severe chronic kidney disease are needed to inform the best
2506 management in this patient group at high risk for stroke and bleeding.

2507

2508 **15.6. Left atrial appendage occlusion for stroke prevention**

2509 The most common justification for LAA occlusion devices in clinical practice is a perceived high bleeding risk
2510 and, less often, contraindications for OAC.⁴⁵⁹ Unfortunately, LAA occluders have not been tested in such
2511 populations. Furthermore, LAA occluders have not been compared with NOAC therapy in patients at risk for
2512 bleeding, or with thoracoscopic LAA clipping. There is a clear need to conduct adequately designed and
2513 powered trials to define the clinical role of LAA occluders compared with NOAC therapy in patients with
2514 relative or absolute contraindications for anticoagulation, and/or in those suffering from an ischaemic stroke on
2515 anticoagulant therapy.

2516

2517 **15.7. Anticoagulation in atrial fibrillation patients after a bleeding or stroke event**

2518 At least 2% of anticoagulated patients with AF will experience a serious bleeding event per year. Observational
2519 data suggest that OAC can be reinitiated even after an intracerebral bleeding event.^{460, 484} Controlled studies
2520 evaluating different anticoagulation and stroke prevention interventions are urgently needed to provide evidence
2521 on the best management of patients who have suffered a bleeding event that would usually lead to withholding

2522 OAC. Some studies (e.g. APACHE II¹⁰²⁵) are ongoing, but adequately powered trials are needed. Similarly,
2523 prospectively collected data are needed on the efficacy and bleeding risk following (re-)initiation of OAC after
2524 stroke or intracranial bleeding.
2525

2526 **15.8. Anticoagulation and optimal timing of non-acute cardioversion**

2527 Based on retrospective data, previous recommendations on the safe time-window in which a cardioversion can
2528 be performed in new-onset AF used ≤ 48 hours as the ‘gold standard’ for non-protected cardioversion. However,
2529 new evidence has emerged that initiating precardioversion anticoagulation in patients with AF episodes of < 24
2530 hours or even < 12 hours would provide even better safety.^{642, 647, 1026-1028} Further research is needed to establish
2531 a clear safety margin in this clinical situation.
2532

2533 **15.9. Competing causes of stroke or transient ischaemic attack in atrial fibrillation** 2534 **patients**

2535 Prospective RCTs have demonstrated the superiority of carotid endarterectomy compared to stenting in patients
2536 with symptomatic high-degree stenosis of the internal carotid artery.¹⁰²⁹ As endarterectomy minimizes the need
2537 for combination therapy with OAC and antiplatelets,¹⁰³⁰ this approach has appeal in patients with AF to reduce
2538 bleeding risk. However, few of these studies included patients with AF. In a large observational study, the
2539 composite of in-hospital mortality, post-procedural stroke, and cardiac complications was higher in AF patients
2540 undergoing carotid stenting (457/7668; 6.0%) compared with endarterectomy (4438/51320; 8.6%; $P <$
2541 0.0001).¹⁰³¹ Despite adjustment for baseline risk, this may just reflect the type of patients referred for each
2542 procedure, and further randomized studies are needed to confirm the optimal treatment strategy in AF patients
2543 with carotid disease.
2544

2545 **15.10. Anticoagulation in patients with biological heart valves (including transcatheter** 2546 **aortic valve implantation) and non-rheumatic valve disease**

2547 The optimal antithrombotic therapy in the first months after biological valve replacement (including after
2548 catheter-based valve replacement) is not known. VKAs remain the mainstay during the initial postoperative
2549 period; NOACs probably deliver the same protection. In patients without AF, many centres use platelet
2550 inhibitors only. NOACs appear to be equally effective as VKAs in patients with moderate aortic stenosis, based
2551 on a subanalysis from the ROCKET-AF (Rivaroxaban Once Daily Oral Direct Factor Xa Inhibition Compared
2552 with Vitamin K Antagonism for Prevention of Stroke and Embolism Trial in Atrial Fibrillation) trial¹⁰³² as well
2553 as the Loire Valley AF project.¹⁰³³ Further data would be helpful to confirm these observations.¹⁰³⁴ The safety
2554 and efficacy of NOACs in patients with rheumatic mitral valve disease has not been evaluated and should be
2555 studied.
2556

2557 **15.11. Anticoagulation after ‘successful’ catheter ablation**

2558 In view of the long-term recurrence rates of AF, this Task Force recommends to continue OAC in AF patients
2559 after ‘successful’ catheter ablation. Nonetheless, observational data suggest that the stroke risk may be lower
2560 after catheter ablation of AF compared with other AF patients. The ongoing EAST (Early treatment of Atrial
2561 fibrillation for Stroke prevention Trial) trial will inform in a more general way whether rhythm control therapy
2562 can reduce stroke rates in anticoagulated AF patients. If confirmed, there may be a place for a controlled trial
2563 evaluating the termination of OAC therapy at an interval after ‘successful’ catheter ablation.
2564

2565 **15.12. Comparison of rate control agents**

2566 Although the use of rate control therapy is very common in AF patients, robust data comparing rate control
2567 therapies are scant, with the majority of studies being small uncontrolled trials over short periods of follow-up.
2568 Some studies are funded (e.g. RATE-AF [Rate Control Therapy Evaluation in Permanent Atrial Fibrillation]⁵⁵⁹)
2569 and will investigate the potential benefits of different rate controlling agents, characteristics, or biomarkers that
2570 can help to personalize the use of rate control, and the adverse-event profile of specific drugs in defined groups
2571 of patients (e.g. AF with HFrEF).
2572

2573 **15.13. Catheter ablation in persistent and long-standing persistent AF**

2574 While a few recent randomized studies support the use of catheter or surgical ablation in patients with persistent
2575 AF and long-standing persistent AF, there is a clear need for more data evaluating this intervention in
2576 adequately powered randomized trials.

2577

2578 15.14. Optimal technique for repeat catheter ablation

2579 PVI emerges as the most important target for catheter ablation of AF. Although a plethora of different additional
2580 ablation techniques have been published, their added value is questionable in patients undergoing a first catheter
2581 ablation, including those with persistent AF.⁷³⁵ Many patients are in need of multiple catheter-ablation
2582 procedures, and such interventions often follow local or operator-specific protocols without clear evidence to
2583 support the choice of ablation target or intervention. There is a clear clinical need to define the best approach in
2584 patients who are in need of a second ablation procedure.
2585

2586 15.15. Combination therapy for maintenance of sinus rhythm

2587 In the follow-up after initially successful catheter ablation, even when done in experienced centres, many
2588 patients will experience symptomatic recurrences of AF. These patients are often managed with antiarrhythmic
2589 drugs. There is a surprising paucity of data evaluating different rhythm control interventions in patients with
2590 recurrent AF after catheter ablation. Such studies seem reasonable and feasible.
2591

2592 15.16. Can rhythm control therapy convey a prognostic benefit in atrial fibrillation patients?

2593 The progress in rhythm control therapy (catheter ablation, new antiarrhythmic drugs) and observational long-
2594 term analyses suggest that rhythm control therapy may have a prognostic benefit. Ongoing trials such as
2595 CABANA and EAST – AFNET 4 will provide initial answers to this important question, but more data are
2596 needed, in addition to trials of surgical ablation techniques.
2597
2598

2599 15.17. Thoracoscopic ‘stand-alone’ atrial fibrillation surgery

2600 Minimally invasive epicardial ablation surgery for the treatment of stand-alone AF was reported a decade
2601 ago.¹⁰³⁵ The procedure has since evolved towards a totally thoracoscopic procedure,¹⁰³⁶ and lesion sets were
2602 extended to a complete left atrial maze.⁸²² With such rapid development and the coexistence of different
2603 techniques and lesion sets, scientific evidence on long-term results is still limited. Randomized trials using a
2604 standardized procedure are urgently needed to clearly define the benefits and risks of thoracoscopic AF ablation,
2605 and to further support decisions of the AF Heart Team.
2606

2607 15.18. Surgical exclusion of the left atrial appendage

2608 Exclusion of the LAA has been performed by cardiothoracic surgeons for decades, but prospective randomized
2609 studies comparing the rate of ischaemic stroke with or without left appendage exclusion are presently lacking.
2610 The LAAOS (Left Atrial Appendage Occlusion Study) III is currently randomizing cardiac surgery patients with
2611 AF to undergo concomitant occlusion or no occlusion of the appendage.⁴⁶⁷ More data are also needed to confirm
2612 the safety and efficacy of thoracoscopic exclusion, following early positive observational data.¹⁰³⁷
2613

2614 15.19. Concomitant atrial fibrillation surgery

2615 Adequately powered randomized trials are needed, employing systematic follow-up, uniform lesion sets and
2616 energy sources to evaluate the benefits and risks of concomitant AF surgery in symptomatic AF patients. An
2617 RCT on non-uniform lesion sets with long-term follow-up is due to publish shortly.¹⁰³⁸ These will assist the AF
2618 Heart Team to decide on optimal therapy for individual patients, including the full repertoire of medical and
2619 surgical options for the treatment of AF.
2620

2621 **16 To do and not to do messages from the Guidelines**

2622

Recommendations for diagnosis and screening of AF	Class	Level
ECG documentation is required to establish the diagnosis of AF	I	B
Opportunistic screening for AF is recommended by pulse taking or ECG rhythm strip in patients > 65 years of age	I	B
In patients with TIA or ischaemic stroke, screening for AF is recommended by short-term ECG recording followed by continuous ECG monitoring for at least 72 hours	I	B
It is recommended to interrogate pacemakers and ICDs on a regular basis for atrial high rate episodes (AHRE). Patients with AHRE should undergo further ECG monitoring to document AF before initiating AF therapy	I	B
Recommendations for general management of AF	Class	Level
Tailored patient education is recommended in all phases of AF management to support patients' perception of AF and to improve management	I	C
A full cardiovascular evaluation, including an accurate history, careful clinical examination, and assessment of concomitant conditions, is recommended in all AF patients	I	C
Use of the modified EHRA symptom scale is recommended in clinical practice and research studies to quantify AF-related symptoms	I	C
Transthoracic echocardiography is recommended in all AF patients to guide management	I	C
The assessment of kidney function by serum creatinine or creatinine clearance is recommended in all AF patients to detect kidney disease and to support correct dosing of AF therapy	I	A
Recommendations for stroke prevention in AF	Class	Level
The CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VASc score is recommended for stroke risk prediction in patients with AF	I	A
Oral anticoagulation therapy to prevent thromboembolism is recommended for all male AF patients with a CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VASc score of 2 or more	I	A
Oral anticoagulation therapy to prevent thromboembolism is recommended in all female AF patients with a CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VASc score of 3 or more	I	A
When oral anticoagulation is initiated in a patient with AF who is eligible for a non vitamin-K-antagonist oral anticoagulant (NOAC, apixaban, dabigatran, edoxaban, or rivaroxaban), a NOAC is recommended in preference to a Vitamin K antagonist	I	A
Vitamin K antagonist therapy (INR 2.0–3.0 or higher) is recommended for stroke prevention in AF patients with moderate-to-severe mitral stenosis or mechanical heart valves	I	B
NOACs (apixaban, dabigatran, edoxaban, and rivaroxaban) are not recommended in patients with mechanical heart valves (Level of evidence B) or moderate-to-severe mitral stenosis (Level of evidence C)	III (harm)	B/C
When patients are treated with a vitamin K antagonist, time in therapeutic range (TTR) should be kept as high as possible and closely monitored	I	A
Combinations of oral anticoagulants and platelet inhibitors increase bleeding risk and should be avoided in AF patients without another indication for platelet	III (harm)	B

inhibition		
In male or female AF patients without additional stroke risk factors, anticoagulant or antiplatelet therapy is not recommended for stroke prevention	III (harm)	B
Antiplatelet monotherapy is not recommended for stroke prevention in AF patients, regardless of stroke risk	III (harm)	A
After surgical occlusion or exclusion of the left atrial appendage, it is recommended to continue anticoagulation in at-risk patients with AF for stroke prevention	I	B
Genetic testing before the initiation of vitamin K antagonist therapy is not recommended.	III (no benefit)	B
In AF patients with severe active bleeding events, it is recommended to interrupt oral anticoagulation therapy until the underlying cause is resolved	I	C
NOACs should be avoided in pregnancy and in women planning a pregnancy	III (harm)	C
For patients with atrial flutter, antithrombotic therapy is recommended according to the same risk profile used for AF	I	B
Management of typical atrial flutter with ablation of the cavotricuspid isthmus is recommended for patients failing antiarrhythmic drug therapy or as first-line treatment considering patient preference	I	B
Lifelong oral anticoagulation to prevent stroke is recommended in hypertrophic cardiomyopathy patients who develop AF	I	B
Anticoagulation with heparin or low-molecular-weight heparin immediately after ischaemic stroke is not recommended in AF patients	III (harm)	A
Systemic thrombolysis with a recombinant tissue plasminogen activator is not recommended if the INR is above 1.7 (or, for patients on dabigatran, if activated partial thromboplastin time is outside the normal range)	III (harm)	C
After TIA or stroke, combination therapy of OAC and an antiplatelet is not recommended	III (harm)	B
Recommendations for rate control of AF	Class	Level
Beta-blocker, digoxin, diltiazem, or verapamil is recommended to control heart rate in AF patients with LVEF \geq 40%	I	B
Beta-blocker and/or digoxin is recommended to control heart rate in AF patients with LVEF < 40%	I	B
In patients with permanent AF (i.e. where no attempt to restore sinus rhythm is planned), antiarrhythmic drugs should not routinely be used for rate control	III (harm)	A
Recommendations for rhythm control of AF	Class	Level
Rhythm control therapy is indicated for symptom improvement in patients with AF	I	B
Cardioversion of AF (either electrical or pharmacological) is recommended in symptomatic patients with persistent or long-standing persistent AF as part of rhythm control therapy	I	B
In patients with no history of ischaemic or structural heart disease, flecainide, propafenone, or vernakalant is recommended for pharmacological cardioversion of new-onset AF	I	A

In patients with ischaemic and/or structural heart disease, amiodarone is recommended for cardioversion of AF	I	A
For cardioversion of AF/atrial flutter, effective anticoagulation is recommended for a minimum of 3 weeks before cardioversion	I	B
Transoesophageal echocardiography (TOE) is recommended to exclude cardiac thrombus, as an alternative to preprocedural anticoagulation when early cardioversion is planned	I	B
The choice of antiarrhythmic drug needs to be carefully evaluated, taking into account the presence of comorbidities, cardiovascular risk and potential for serious proarrhythmia, extracardiac toxic effects, patient preferences, and symptom burden	I	A
Dronedarone, flecainide, propafenone, or sotalol is recommended for prevention of recurrent symptomatic AF in patients with normal left ventricular function and without pathological left ventricular hypertrophy.	I	A
Dronedarone is recommended for prevention of recurrent symptomatic AF in patients with stable coronary artery disease, and without heart failure	I	A
Amiodarone is recommended for prevention of recurrent symptomatic AF in patients with heart failure	I	B
Antiarrhythmic drug therapy is not recommended in patients with prolonged QT interval (> 0.5 s) or with significant sinoatrial node disease or atrioventricular node dysfunction who do not have a functioning permanent pacemaker	III (harm)	C
Catheter ablation of symptomatic paroxysmal AF is recommended to improve AF symptoms in patients who have symptomatic recurrences of AF on antiarrhythmic drug therapy (amiodarone, dronedarone, flecainide, propafenone, sotalol) and who prefer further rhythm control therapy, when performed by an electrophysiologist who has received appropriate training and is performing the procedure in an experienced centre	I	A
ARBs or ACE inhibitors are not recommended for the secondary prevention of paroxysmal AF in patients with little or no underlying heart disease.	III (no benefit)	B
Moderate regular physical activity is recommended to prevent AF, while athletes should be counselled that long-lasting, more intense sports participation can promote AF	I	A

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2624
2625

2626 17 A short summary of the management of AF patients

2627

2628 Here, we provide 17 simple rules to guide diagnosis and management of AF patients according to the 2016
2629 ESC/EACTS/ESO Guidelines for the management of atrial fibrillation

2630

2631 1. Use ECG screening in at risk populations for atrial fibrillation, especially stroke survivors and the
2632 Elderly.

2633

2. Document AF by ECG before starting treatment.

2634

2635 3. Evaluate all AF patients by clinical evaluation, ECG, and echocardiogram for underlying
cardiovascular conditions such as hypertension, heart failure, valvular heart disease, and others.

2636

2637 4. Provide tailored information and education to AF patients to empower them to support AF
management.

2638

5. Propose life style changes to all suitable AF patients to make their management more effective.

2639

2640 6. Treat underlying cardiovascular conditions adequately, e.g. valve repair or replacement in AF patients
2641 with significant valvular heart disease, treatment of heart failure, or management of hypertension,
among others.

2642

2643 7. Use oral anticoagulation in all AF patients unless they are at low risk for stroke based on the
CHA₂DS₂VASc score or have true contraindications for anticoagulant therapy.

2644

2645 8. Anticoagulate patients with atrial flutter similar to atrial fibrillation. Offer isthmus ablation to
symptomatic flutter patients.

2646

2647 9. Reduce all modifiable bleeding risk factors in all AF patients on oral anticoagulation, e.g. by treating
2648 hypertension, minimising the duration and intensity of concomitant antiplatelet and NSAID therapy ,
2649 treating anaemia and eliminating causes for blood loss, maintaining stable INR values in patients on
vitamin K antagonists, and moderating alcohol intake

2650

2651 10. Check ventricular rate in all AF patients and use rate control medications to achieve lenient rate
control.

2652

2653 11. Evaluate AF-related symptoms in all AF patients using the modified EHRA score. Whenever patients
2654 have AF-related symptoms, aim to improve symptoms by adjustment of rate control therapy and by
offering antiarrhythmic drugs, cardioversion, or catheter or surgical ablation.

2655

2656 12. Select antiarrhythmic drugs based on their safety profile and consider catheter or surgical ablation
when antiarrhythmic drugs fail.

2657

2658 13. Do not offer routine genetic testing in AF patients unless there is a suspicion for an inherited cardiac
condition.

2659

14. Do not use antiplatelet therapy for stroke prevention in AF.

2660

2661 15. Do not permanently discontinue oral anticoagulation in AF patients at increased risk of stroke unless
such a decision is taken by a multidisciplinary team.

2662

2663 16. Do neither use rhythm control therapy in asymptomatic AF patients, nor in patients with permanent
AF.

2664

2665 17. Do not perform cardioversion or catheter ablation without anticoagulation unless an atrial thrombus has
been ruled out by transesophageal echocardiogram.

2666

2667

2668

2669 18 Web Addenda

2670 All Web figures and Web tables are available in the Web addenda, available at European Heart Journal online
2671 and also via the ESC Website (www.escardio.org/guidelines).

2672

2673 19 Appendix

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2681 Stephan Windecker (Switzerland).

2682

2683 **ESC National Cardiac Societies** actively involved in the review process of the 2016 ESC Guidelines for the
2684 management of atrial fibrillation developed in collaboration with EACTS

2685

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2719 **20 References**

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