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New X-ray imaging modalities and their integration with intravascular imaging and interventions

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Abstract During recent years various techniques emerged providing more detailed images and insights in the cardiovascular system. C-Arm computed tomography is currently introduced in cardiac imaging offering the potential of three dimensional imaging of the coronary arteries, the cardiac chambers, venous system and a variety of anatomic anomalies inside the interventional environment. Furthermore it might enable perfusion imaging during percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI). Intravascular ultrasound (IVUS) and optical coherence tomography (OCT) are meanwhile established tools for detailed assessment of the coronary arteries. Their use might further increase with automated tissue characterization, three dimensional reconstruction, integration in angiography systems, and new emerging techniques. Parameters of fluid tissue interactions are important factors in the pathogenesis

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of atherosclerosis. These parameters can be calculated using computational fluid dynamics based on three dimensional models of the coronary vessels which can be derived from various sources including mulitslice computed tomography (MSCT), C-Arm CT or 3D reconstructed IVUS or OCT. Their use in the clinical setting has yet to be determined especially with regard to their ability in increasing treatment efficiency and clinical outcome.

Keywords C-Arm computed tomography · Intravascular ultrasound · Optical coherence tomography · Computational fluid dynamics

Introduction

Cardiovascular disease remains a leading cause of morbidity and mortality among the developed countries and is also becoming increasingly important in the emerging countries [1–4]. During the last decades various different disease entities have been discovered and for many of them also treatment options have been proposed. Further miniaturization of the devices has led to a trend towards less invasive therapies for coronary artery disease, valvular heart disease, congenital anomalies and cardiac arrhythmias [5–10]. Accurate imaging modalities are of paramount importance for the guidance of these complex interventional procedures in the cath lab. Depending on the procedure different types of information are desired ranging

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from an overview of the gross vascular anatomy to submilimeter structures and functional parameters. These different problems require a variety of imaging modalities in the interventionalist's armamentarium. The aim of this paper is to give an overview about some available and emerging techniques and provide a glimpse into the future for potential new developments and applications.

C-Arm computed tomography (C-Arm CT)

Angiography is considered the standard of reference for imaging and guiding of cardiovascular interventions. It is a technique that is relatively easy to perform and provides an overview of the vascular system with an unsurpassed spatial and temporal resolution [11].

Traditionally angiography was performed using monoplane or biplane system, consisting of a radiation source and a detector. With the improvement in detector technology these systems can today not only be used for two dimensional (2D) display but can also acquire three dimensional (3D) data similar to multislice computed tomography (MSCT) [12-17]. The common principle is that the tube and the detector are rotating around the patient, e.g. over 200°. Several hundred images are acquired depending on the specific protocol. The 2D raw projection data is used to reconstruct 3D volume data sets using a 3D cone-beam reconstruction algorithm [6, 18]. Subsequently the data can be displayed as either tomographic images or as 3D models. This approach is called C-Arm computed tomography (C-Arm CT). The technique requires state-of-the-art C-Arm systems equipped with flat panel detectors. To achieve C-Arm CT results with good low-contrast visibility, sophisticated correction techniques are needed including correction for overexposure, scatter, beam-hardening, truncation and ring artifacts [19].

For imaging of the heart the C-Arm system performs multiple runs around the patient while the electrocardiogram (ECG) is monitored. For better enhancement a continous injection of contrast dye is necessary. Using retrospective ECG gating the raw data can be reconstructed for a particular phase of the cardiac cycle [6]. The main advantage of these systems is their availability during interventions in the cath lab without any patient transfer.

One application is the treatment of atrial fibrillation. The disease affects a large number of patients and although it is per se benign can lead to variety of complications and significantly reduces the patient's quality of life [20]. In certain cases the origin of the disease can be located in the area of the orifice of the pulmonary veins. In these cases atrial fibrillation can be treated by isolating the pulmonary veins from the atrium by catheter ablation. Such procedures may take several hours and are often associated with fluoroscopy times of 60 min and more [21-23]. Exact imaging might help to reduce procedure time, radiation exposure and complication rates especially when available during the procedure. Using the 3D information provided by C-Arm CT the relevant parts of the cardiac geometry can be segmented and an overlay can be created to guide the intervention (Fig. 1). Furthermore C-Arm CT can display surrounding structures and therefore prevent and detect complications like esophageal fistulas which is a typical complication during pulmonary vein isolation [24, 25].

Another example where an optimal 3D orientation is extremely helpful are cases of congenital anomalies.



Fig. 1 Visualization of the segmented cardiac chambers and large thoracic vessels by C-Arm CT. The left atrium and the pulmonary veins (*red*), the left ventricle (*orange*), the aorta (*green*), the right atrium and ventricle (*light blue*), the pulmonary arteries (*dark blue*) and the esophagus (*purple*) can clearly be identified. (By courtesy of Prof. J. Brachmann, Coburg Hospital, Germany)



Fig. 2 Example of a 5-year old patient with hypoplastic left heart syndrome. The patient underwent palliative surgery with a cavopulmonary anastomosis and placement of a stent in the pulmonary artery. C-Arm CT was performed for evaluation before Fontan surgery. The pulmonary vasculature, the cavopulmonary anastomosis (*arrow*) and the patent stent within the pumonary artery (*arrowhead*) were clearly displayed. Radiation exposure was less compared to conventional CT imaging. (By courtesy of Dr. P. Ewert; German Heart Institute, Berlin)

Beyond open surgical approaches the optimal treatment also frequently comprises interventional techniques such as dilation of stenosis of the great arteries or closure of shunts [8, 9]. Since C-Arm CT is capable of providing high quality 3D imaging in complex cases with usually lower radiation doses than conventional CT [19] this technique is more and more applied also in pediatric cardiology (Fig. 2).

Since the rotation speed of the C-Arm is significantly slower than in traditional CT, this causes problems if a visualization of moving structures is desirable. In this case an automated motion correction has to be applied. Motion is estimated by 3D/3D registration of a set of preliminary 3D volume images of different cardiac phases reconstructed from a sparse subset of ECG gated projection data. For the final reconstruction the complete projection data is used. The motion in the data is compensated by a deformed backprojection step along curved lines according to the precalculated motion vector field [26, 27].

An especially interesting application of this technique is the 3D imaging of the coronary artery tree by intracoronary injection of contrast dye similar to a 2D



Fig. 3 Motion compensated 3D reconstruction of the left coronary artery obtained by C-Arm CT. The picture shows the coronary catheter (A), the left main (B), the left anterior descending (C) and the left circumflex artery (D)

conventional coronary angiography (Fig. 3). A 3D representation of the coronary anatomy may be desired for percutaneous coronary interventions (PCI) in complex cases like stenosis of the left main coronary artery or branching points.

Furthermore visualization of the coronary veins is important in some patients suffering from heart failure. Besides optimal medical treatment some patients benefit from cardiac resynchronization therapy by reestablishing a synchronous contraction of the left ventricular septum and free wall [28–31]. In addition to the right atrial and right ventricular lead a third lead, which is introduced in the coronary sinus for stimulation of the left ventricular free wall is used. The placement of this lead is often difficult and time consuming [31, 32]. Innovative approaches for mitral valve regurgitation repair may also rely on detailed information of the coronary sinus (CS) [33, 34]. An exact 3D reconstruction of the CS, which can be obtained by C-Arm CT might facilitate these procedures. By retrograde injection contrast dye is brought into the venous system via the CS using a



Fig. 4 Motion compensated reconstruction of the coronary venous system obtained by C-Arm CT. The picture was acquired after retrograde injection of contrast dye via a special catheter into the coronary sinus (A). Besides the coronary sinus the great cardiac vein (B) and the posterior vein of the left ventricle are displayed (C)

special blocking catheter to prevent a fast drain of the contrast dye [31] (Fig. 4).

Beyond the cardiac morphology also information about physiological parameters is desired. One vital example is the perfusion and vitality of the myocardium itself. This information can be used to detect myocardial ischemia or scarring. Traditionally photon emission tomography or magnetic resonance imaging is performed for that purpose [35, 36]. Newer studies indicate also a potential role for MSCT in perfusion analysis [37–39]. However, all these modalities are not available in the catheterization laboratory during PCI when this information is mostly desired for decision making. First images show that C-Arm CT might have the potential to aid in the assessment of perfusion as well and therefore further improve the workflow (Fig. 5).

Intravascular ultrasound (IVUS)

An intravascular ultrasound (IVUS) examination is performed during a cardiac catheterization procedure. By using a miniaturized ultrasound transducer mounted on a specially designed coronary catheter, cross-sectional images of the vessel can be obtained. IVUS uses a frequency spectrum of about 20–50 MHz to generate images with a axial and lateral resolution of about 150 –250 µm, respectively [40].

This technique allows a detailed assessment of the coronary vessel wall and geometry with a low intra and interobserver variability [41, 42]. IVUS is capable of visualizing non stenotic lesions undergoing positive remodeling which are often not recognized by coronary angiography but are frequently associated with plaque rupture leading to coronary



Fig. 5 Cross-sectional short axis of the left ventricle obtained by C-Arm CT (**a**) and magnetic resonance imaging (**b**). During first pass myocardial perfusion following intracoronary contrast injection into the left coronary artery, the C-Arm CT shows clearly a hypoperfusion of the left anterior wall (*arrow*).

The MRI (*T1 weighted sequence*) revealed an area of late contrast enhancement of the respective area (*arrow*) indicating myocardial scar tissue. (By courtesy of Dr. H. Rittger and Dr. A. Sinha, Coburg Hospital, Germany)

thrombosis and myocardial infarction [43–47]. Furthermore IVUS is capable of assessing plaque burden and composition and is often used in clinical studies as a reference standard [48–51]. Nevertheless IVUS suffers from a couple of limitations especially in the identification of lipid rich plaques [51].

A reflected ultrasound signal consists of waves of different amplitude and frequency depending on the tissue where it has been reflected. Gray-scale IVUS only uses the information of signal amplitude. Radiofrequency data analysis (RF) also uses the information of the frequency spectrum for tissue characterization. Different parameters and different mathematical approaches have been used for RF [52–54]. Currently Virtual HistologyTM (VH), a commercially available software tool uses eight different spectral parameters. In VH four different plaque types are defined: fibrous, fibro-fatty, calcium, necrotic. Each plaque type is assigned a different color and the image is overlaid the gray scale image (Fig. 6) [55]. Nair et al. [56] showed that VH is able to differentiate between the various plaque components with accuracy between 89.5 and 92.8% depending on the plaque type. Using VH, vulnerable plaques are more often found in patients presenting with acute coronary syndrome, then in patients with stable angina [57]. RF thus might contribute to more sophisticated diagnosis and therapy of atherosclerotic coronary lesions. Current objectives for technical development include improvements of automation of signal processing and characterization of more tissue components.

IVUS as well as other modern invasive imaging techniques has a very high spatial resolution but almost no spatial orientation is provided. To estimate the position of the actual image, certain anatomic landmarks like sidebranches or bifurcations have to be used. Alternatively, angiography has to be performed during acquisition of the IVUS pullback to identify the position of the IVUS probe. Since the tissue information as provided by IVUS might have an increasing role for future interventional strategies, exact co-registration with other modalities such as angiography is desired. To achieve this goal several approaches have been investigated. One of these is the combination if the IVUS probe with a magnetic positioning system. The principle of the system is a magnetic array mounted on the table or the angiography system which generates a magnetic field. The positioning sensor can be miniaturized and coupled with the IVUS transducer. These systems yield submilimeter accuracy. Since these systems are operating using magnetic fields, no additional radiation is necessary. In fact, a reduction of the radiation burden is possible, since the positioning of the IVUS probe could be performed with less fluoroscopy. The disadvantage beyond the costs is the need for a designated magnetic array which can hamper the flexibility of the system.

Another step towards workflow improvement is image based co-registration. Here IVUS and angiographic data of a coronary segment are acquired and then matched using registration techniques. By this



Fig. 6 IVUS and corresponding RF analysis image of a large atherosclerotic plaque. In the center is the catheter artifact (*arrow head*). *Gray scale* IVUS image (a) and color encoded

RF analysis (**b**) show a large plaque with necrotic (*red*), calcified (*white*), fibro-lipidic (*light green*), fibrous (*dark green*) regions

the position and information of the IVUS catheter is linked to the angiographic information either in 2D or in 3D. Since IVUS is getting more and more important many of the cath labs have nowadays already integrated the IVUS imaging system into the angiography suite. Due to the combined use of IVUS and angiography as well as other imaging methods an additional benefit is achieved, which will most likely further increase the utilization of these new technologies.

Optical coherence tomography (OCT)

Optical coherence tomography (OCT) is a technique providing high resolution cross sectional images of biologic tissues [58-60]. Unlike IVUS, OCT uses light instead of ultrasound. The light beam is sent into the vessel wall and is then backscattered from different structures. Due to the high speed of light, it is not possible to measure the time-of-flight delay of the optical echoes for depth information directly. Therefore OCT uses the principles of interference and coherence for spatial resolution. The backscattered light from the tissue sample is superimposed to a light beam with a known reference path. Positive interference and therefore registration of the signal can only occur, if both pathways have exactly the same length, with an accuracy of the coherence length of the light used [58]. The main advantage of OCT is the superior resolution of 5-30 µm compared to other imaging techniques [58, 61]. For the use in coronary arteries a dedicated imaging catheter must be introduced into the vessels. Due to the different refractivity of blood plasma and cells a detailed assessment of the vessel wall in the presence of blood is not possible. A special occlusion catheter or high flow saline flushing has to be used to clean the artery from blood. Therefore imaging time is restricted to about 30 s [62, 63].

The first OCT systems used a rotating mirror to change the length of the reference pathway for the depth scan (time domain OCT). Unfortunately this was associated with a low imaging acquisition speed which precluded fast complete scans of the entire vessel. Newer systems which are currently evaluated in clinical trials are based on Fourier domain OCT which allows high speed imaging of long vessel segments within a few seconds during saline flushing without occlusion of the vessel. In Fourier domain OCT the depth information is gathered by dispersing different frequencies onto a detector. Through this the information of the depth scan can be obtained within a single light exposure. Another approach is swept source OCT. This technique uses a tunable laser source that rapidly sweeps its wavelength over the bandwidth. Due to the Fourier relation the depth scan can be immediately calculated by a Fourier-transform from the acquired spectra, without movement of the reference arm. Hereby imaging speed can be dramatically improved [64–68].

OCT provides a clear and detailed visualization of the vascular layers including the internal and external elastic membrane (Fig. 7) [69, 70]. It is also able to differentiate between different plaque components like fibrous, lipid rich and calcified tissue with high accuracy [63, 71–73]. OCT is the only imaging modality which allows the direct visualization of the thin fibrous cap of vulnerable plaques [62, 70, 74]. In post mortem study OCT was able to quantify the macrophage content of atherosclerotic lesions [75]. Therefore, OCT is the only technique capable of imaging all major features of high risk vulnerable plaques [76]. A drawback is the limited penetration depth of 1–2 mm, which is not sufficient to visualize large atheromas completely [77].

Since the introduction of drug eluting stents neointimal coverage of stent struts is a major concern. OCT is able to measure the thickness of coverage on sirolimus eluting stent struts [78]. It has shown to be able to detect balloon-induced dissection, intraluminal thrombus, cuts made by cutting ballons, tissue prolpse and suboptimally deployed stents (Fig. 7) [79]. OCT outperformes IVUS in the detection of dissection, tissue prolapse and incomplete stent deployment [80].

As mentioned earlier OCT is able to measure the macrophage density of atherosclerotic lesions [75]. Furthermore it is also possible to assess the collagen fiber content [81]. Therefore an automated tissue characterization as available for IVUS seems feasible. This technique may either be based on analysis of the frequency pattern as in VH or may use the texture information of the acquired images [82]. Due to its unique resolution OCT might be capable of extracting more features of atherosclerotic plaques allowing for a more precise plaque characterization then IVUS based techniques.

Agents offering high optical absorption or scattering can be used for positive or negative contrast



Fig. 7 OCT images of a left circumflex coronary artery before (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) and after stent implantation (\mathbf{c}) . In the center the artifact caused by the OCT imaging catheter can be seen (*arrow head*). Before treatment a large thrombus is visualized $(\mathbf{a}, short arrow)$. After the implantation the gain of lumen and the stent struts with dorsal shadowing $(\mathbf{c}, long arrow)$ are clearly

displayed. Also a small protrusion of the thrombotic material is observed (C, *short arrow*). **b** Shows a magnification of the vessel wall with dark lumen (I) bright intimal thickening (2), dark media (3), bright external elastic membrane (4) and dark adventitia (5)

enhancement in OCT. Contrast agents which are currently developed include single molecules, nanoparticles and microspheres [83]. For the identification of atherosclerotic plaques agents indicating inflammation by phagocytosis of activated macrophages are of special interest [84].

Doppler wires are commonly used tools for the assessment of intracoronary flow characteristics and for determining the hemodynamic significance of intermediate stenosis. Like ultrasound, light reflected by a moving particle is Doppler shifted. Thus the direction and velocity of blood flow can be assessed. That way information about the anatomy and function of stenotic sites could be gathered with one examination [66].

Computational fluid dynamics calculations (CFD)

Most of the techniques described above offer detailed images of the coronary morphology but do not take into account physiologic and functional parameters and the interaction of the blood flow and vessel wall. Pathology studies revealed that atherosclerotic lesions are not randomly distributed within the vessel but show a preferred location at branches or bends. Therefore besides well known systemic risk factors local factors have to be taken into account. The complex vessel geometry disturbs the laminar flow and results in locally different shear stress levels which can promote atherosclerosis. In vitro research revealed a close correlation of endothelial shear stress and the natural history of atherosclerosis and vascular remodelling [85-87]. The parameters of flow-tissueinteraction namely Wall shear stress (WSS) are very difficult to measure directly in vivo. Nevertheless they can be calculated using computational fluid dynamics (CFD) if a 3D geometric model of the vessel is available [88–91]. The geometry information can be derived from various sources including MSCT, C-Arm CT or 3D reconstructed IVUS or OCT. The technique of CFD might lead to a more thorough understanding of plaque progression and might help to identify the vulnerability of a certain lesion. Furthermore stent implantations could be simulated before implantation to achieve optimal hemodynamic results [92, 93]. Initial in vivo studies show that very low as well as high shear stress levels are both associated with a higher prevalence of plaque and a higher average plaque thickness than intermediate shear stress (Fig. 8) [94]. Current limitation arise from the complex data processing and long computation time which could be solved by further automation and the use of higher processing power.



Fig. 8 Color encoded visualization of the wall shear stress as calculated by CFD in a right coronary artery. The 3D model was obtained by MSCT. *Dark blue* areas are exposed to low, *red areas* to high shear stress which is shown by the scheme on the *left*. The small pictures (**a**-**c**) show cross sectional IVUS images of the vessel. In the area of high shear stress a large

Conclusion

During the last decade the technology in medical imaging has made a substantial progress. Applying modern image reconstruction analysis C-Arm angiography is now able to supply 3-dimensional datasets that can be displayed as either tomographic images or as 3D models. Being comparable to conventional CT for special procedures this new technique of cardiac C-Arm CT is available inside the cath lab without any patient transfer. IVUS as well as OCT, deliver an unsurpassed spatial resolution and will allow for a detailed analysis during intervention. Improvements in automation of signal processing and characterization of more tissue components as well as angiographic integration allow improved guidance in complex interventional procedures which require an optimal spatial orientation. Post processing like CFD analysis of functional parameters is promising to further increase our understanding in plaque progression and maybe in the future allows an earlier treatment of danger prone lesions. However, clinical trials are needed to prove the expected additional benefit for the patient and the physicians.

plaque is shown, which causes an obstruction of the vessel lumen (a). The region with low shear stress also shows a high plaque burden, but no narrowing of the lumen can be observed (b). In the area with an intermediate level of shear stress the vessel wall remains normal (c)

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