

**FIGURE 272-5** Coronary stenoses on cine angiogram and intravascular ultrasound. Significant stenoses in the coronary artery are seen as narrowings (*black arrows*) of the vessel. Intravascular ultrasound shows a normal segment of artery (**A**), areas with eccentric plaque (**B, C**), and near total obliteration of the lumen at the site of the significant stenosis (**D**). Note that the intravascular ultrasound catheter is present in the images as a black circle.

Coronary angiography visualizes coronary artery stenoses as luminal narrowings on the cine angiogram. The degree of narrowing is referred to as the percent stenosis and is determined visually by comparing the most severely diseased segment with a proximal or distal “normal segment”; a stenosis  $>50\%$  is considered significant (**Fig. 272-5**). Online quantitative coronary angiography can provide a more accurate assessment of the percent stenosis and lessen the tendency to overestimate lesion severity visually. The presence of a myocardial bridge, which most commonly involves the left anterior descending artery, may be mistaken for a significant stenosis; this occurs when a portion of the vessel dips below the epicardial surface into the myocardium and is subject to compressive forces during ventricular systole. The key to differentiating a myocardial bridge from a fixed stenosis is that the “stenosed” part of the vessel returns to normal during diastole. Coronary calcification is also seen during angiography prior to the injection of contrast agents. Collateral blood vessels may be seen traversing from one vessel to the distal vasculature of a severely stenosed or totally occluded vessel. Thrombolysis in myocardial infarction (TIMI) flow grade, a measure of the relative duration of time that it takes for contrast to opacify the coronary artery fully, may provide an additional clue to the degree of lesion severity, and the presence of TIMI grade 1 (minimal filling) or 2 (delayed filling) suggests that a significant coronary artery stenosis is present.

#### INTRAVASCULAR ULTRASOUND, OPTICAL COHERENCE TOMOGRAPHY, AND FRACTIONAL FLOW RESERVE

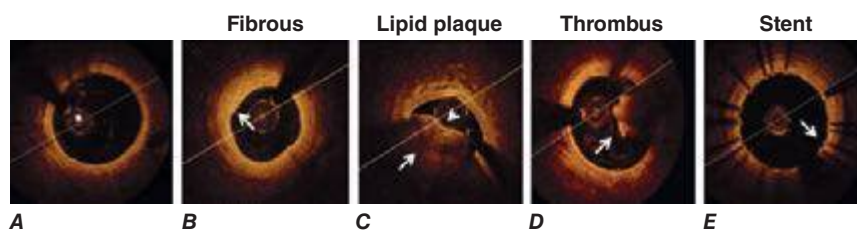
During coronary angiography, intermediate stenoses (40–70%), indeterminate findings, or anatomic findings that are incongruous with the patient’s symptoms may require further interrogation. In these cases, intravascular ultrasound provides a more accurate anatomic assessment of the coronary artery and the degree of coronary atherosclerosis

(**Fig. 272-5**). Intravascular ultrasound (IVUS) is performed using a small flexible catheter with a 40-MHz transducer at its tip that is advanced into the coronary artery over a guidewire. Data from intravascular ultrasound studies may be used to image atherosclerotic plaque precisely, determine luminal cross-sectional area, and measure vessel size; it is also used during or following percutaneous coronary intervention to assess the stenosis and determine the adequacy of stent placement. Optical coherence tomography (OCT) is a catheter-based imaging technique that uses near-infrared light to generate images with better spatial resolution than IVUS; however, the depth of field is smaller. The advantage of OCT imaging over IVUS lies in its ability to image characteristics of the atherosclerotic plaque (lipid, fibrous cap) with high definition and to assess coronary stent placement, apposition, and patency (**Fig. 272-6**).

Measurement of the fractional flow reserve provides a functional assessment of the stenosis and is more accurate in predicting long-term clinical outcome than imaging techniques. The fractional flow reserve is the ratio of the pressure in the coronary artery distal to the stenosis divided by the pressure in the artery proximal to the stenosis at maximal vasodilation. Fractional flow reserve is measured using a coronary pressure–sensor guidewire at rest and at maximal hyperemia following the injection of adenosine. A fractional flow reserve of  $<0.80$  indicates a hemodynamically significant stenosis that would benefit from intervention.

#### POSTPROCEDURE CARE

Once the procedure is completed, vascular access sheaths are removed. If the femoral approach is used, direct manual compression or vascular closure devices that immediately close the arteriotomy site with a staple/clip, collagen plug, or sutures are used to achieve hemostasis. These devices decrease the length of supine bed rest (from 6 hours to 2–4 hours) and improve patient satisfaction but have not been shown definitively to be superior to manual compression with respect to access-site complications. With radial-artery access, bed rest is needed for only 2 hours. When cardiac catheterization is performed as an elective outpatient procedure, the patient completes postprocedure bed rest in a monitored setting and is discharged home with instructions to liberalize fluids because contrast agents promote an osmotic diuresis, to avoid strenuous activity, and to observe the vascular access site for signs of complications. Overnight hospitalization may be required for high-risk patients with significant comorbidities, patients with complications occurring during the catheterization, or patients who have undergone a percutaneous coronary intervention. Hypotension early after the procedure may be due to inadequate fluid replacement or retroperitoneal bleeding from the access site. Patients who received  $>2$  Gy of radiation during the procedure should be examined for signs of erythema. For patients who received higher doses ( $>5$  Gy), clinical follow-up within 1 month to assess for skin injury is recommended.



**FIGURE 272-6** Optical coherence tomography imaging. **A**. The optical coherence tomography (OCT) catheter (\*) in the lumen of a coronary artery with limited neointima formation. The intima is seen with high definition, but unlike intravascular ultrasound imaging, the vessel media and adventitia are not well visualized. **B**. A fibrous plaque (*arrow*) is characterized by a bright signal. **C**. A large, eccentric, lipid-rich plaque obscures part of the vessel lumen. Because lipid in the plaque absorbs light, the lipid-rich plaque appears as a dark area with irregular borders (*arrow*). The plaque is covered by a thin fibrous cap (*arrowhead*) typical of a vulnerable plaque. **D**. A thrombus (*arrow*) adherent to a ruptured plaque that is protruding into the vessel lumen. **E**. A coronary stent is that is well opposed to the vessel wall. The stent struts appear as short bright lines with dropout behind the struts (*arrow*).