

## Magnetic resonance imaging techniques for risk stratification in cardiovascular disease

Roes, S.D.

## Citation

Roes, S. D. (2010, June 24). *Magnetic resonance imaging techniques for risk stratification in cardiovascular disease*. Retrieved from https://hdl.handle.net/1887/15730

Version:	Corrected Publisher's Version
License:	Licence agreement concerning inclusion of doctoral thesis in the Institutional Repository of the University of Leiden
Downloaded from:	https://hdl.handle.net/1887/15730

**Note:** To cite this publication please use the final published version (if applicable).



**General introduction** 

and outline

Cardiovascular disease remains a major burden in the Western world accounting for nearly 30% of all deaths in The Netherlands (1). The growing epidemic of obesity further increases the prevalence of cardiovascular disease. In the Netherlands, 53% of the men and 41% of the women older than 20 years were overweight (body mass index  $\ge$  25 kg/m<sup>2</sup>) in 2009 (2). This growing prevalence of obesity is associated with an increase in type 2 diabetes and the metabolic syndrome, a clustering of cardiovascular risk factors including abnormalities in glucose and lipid metabolism, hypertension and abdominal obesity (3,4). The metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes are both associated with an elevated risk of cardiovascular morbidity and mortality (5,6).

In order to reduce this morbidity and mortality, identification of subjects at risk of cardiovascular disease, and identification of patients with cardiovascular disease who are at risk of complications is highly desirable. Furthermore, optimization of treatment of patients with for instance a previous myocardial infarction (ischemic cardiomyopathy) can reduce hospitalization and may improve prognosis (7).

During the last decades, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) has emerged as a reliable, accurate, noninvasive imaging modality providing information on anatomy and function of the heart and vessels without the need for ionizing radiation (8). Multiple technical innovations have improved image quality dramatically (8). In the early days of MRI, imaging relied on magnets with field strengths of 0.35 Tesla (T) and 0.5T, while cardiac MRI is currently performed on MRI systems equipped with 1.5T magnets and more recently introduced 3T magnets. MRI systems with higher field strengths enable imaging with increased signal-to-noise ratio, allowing for improved spatial resolution, improved temporal resolution, or reduced scanning times. Furthermore, image blurring due to cardiac contraction has been minimized by synchronization of data acquisition with the cardiac cycle using electrocardiographic gating or triggering (8,9). In addition, the development of respiratory navigator technology enables imaging during free-breathing while reducing the adverse effect of respiratory motion on image quality (10,11).

Accordingly, MRI is now routinely applied and enables evaluation of various manifestations of cardiovascular disease at all anatomical levels, from subclinical atherosclerosis of the aortic vessel wall to overt myocardial infarction. This thesis evaluates MRI techniques for imaging of the aorta, the heart and coronary arteries, that are optimized and can be applied for risk stratification in cardiovascular disease, as is summarized in the following paragraphs.

First, morphology and function of the aortic vessel wall can be accurately assessed using MRI. Atherosclerosis is regarded as a chronic systemic disease of the vessel wall that occurs in the peripheral arteries, the coronary arteries, and the aorta (12). Autopsy studies and in vivo studies report a strong association between thoracic aortic atherosclerosis and coronary artery disease (CAD) (13,14). Consequently, imaging of (subclinical) aortic atherosclerosis (by measuring aortic vessel wall thickness) may provide valuable information on cardiovascular risk (15). Also, aortic stiffness, expressed as pulse

1

wave velocity, is associated with an increased risk of cardiovascular events (16,17). Accordingly, the capability of MRI to measure aortic vessel wall thickness and aortic pulse wave velocity enables cardiovascular risk stratification.

Furthermore, over the past 15 years, substantial progress has been made in noninvasive assessment of the anatomy (coronary stenosis) and function (coronary flow and flow reserve) of the coronary arteries using magnetic resonance angiography (MRA) and velocity encoded MRI (18). These techniques remain challenging due to the small vessel size and cardiac and respiratory motion, and are not yet routinely applicable clinical tools. However, ongoing research and technical innovations in software and hardware may in the future make MRI of the coronary arteries valuable for diagnosis of significant CAD.

Valvular regurgitation is frequently seen in clinical practice and can be due to primary abnormalities of the valvular apparatus or secondary to ischemic or non-ischemic dilated cardiomyopathy (19-23). Volume overload due to valvular regurgitation may cause (or aggravate) ventricular remodeling, which can lead to heart failure and ultimately death (19,24). Surgical repair or replacement of the regurgitant valve may reduce heart failure symptoms and improve survival (24,25). MRI enables accurate quantification of valvular regurgitation and is therefore important for identification of patients with valvular regurgitation, optimization of treatment and timing of surgical intervention (19,25).

Contrast-enhanced MRI permits accurate delineation of scar tissue in patients with previous myocardial infarction enabling distinction between non-transmural and transmural scar tissue and can therefore be used for viability assessment (26-28). Low-dose dobutamine MRI also allows for detection of viable myocardial tissue by evaluation of contractile reserve (29,30). Assessment of viability is essential for optimization of treatment in patients with ischemic left ventricular (LV) dysfunction, since dysfunctional but viable myocardium is likely to improve after revascularization, whereas dysfunctional but nonviable myocardium will not benefit (31). Furthermore, patients with viable myocardium have improved survival after revascularization compared to medical treatment (7).

Currently, LV ejection fraction and LV volumes are the established predictors of mortality in patients with ischemic cardiomyopathy. However, several studies have now been published stressing the prognostic value of the extent of scar tissue assessed with contrast-enhanced MRI in patients with ischemic cardiomyopathy (32,33). In addition, recent studies showed that infarct tissue heterogeneity (i.e., spatially complex structures containing a mixture of viable and necrotic tissue) is a predictor of ventricular arrhythmias, which is an important complication in patients with ischemic cardiomyopathy (34,35). Accordingly, contrast-enhanced MRI is a valuable tool for identification of patients who are at risk of complications after myocardial infarction, for optimization of treatment and for assessment of prognosis.

This thesis describes and evaluates various MRI techniques that can be applied for risk stratification in cardiovascular disease.

**Chapter 2** describes an optimized free-breathing three-dimensional dual inversion recovery segmented k-space gradient echo imaging sequence at 3T for the quantification of aortic vessel wall dimensions and its reproducibility is evaluated. In chapter 3, the effect of a real-time adaptive trigger delay on image quality to correct for heart rate variability in three-dimensional whole-heart coronary MRA is tested. Chapter 4 studies the accuracy and reproducibility of flow velocity and volume measurements in a phantom and in human coronary arteries using breath-hold velocity-encoded MRI with spiral k-space sampling at 3T. Chapter 5 validates flow assessment at the mitral valve and tricuspid valve using three-dimensional three-directional velocityencoded MRI with retrospective valve tracking, which is compared to conventional two-dimensional one-directional velocity encoded MRI in healthy subjects and in patients with regurgitation. Chapter 6 describes the application of three-dimensional three-directional velocity-encoded MRI with retrospective valve tracking as introduced in chapter 5, in order to measure forward and regurgitant flow through all four heart valves simultaneously. In chapter 7, the influence of lipid and glucose metabolism in the metabolic syndrome on aortic pulse wave velocity and left ventricular diastolic function is evaluated. Chapter 8 studies the effect of lifestyle intervention in conjunction with rosiglitazone versus placebo therapy on LV mass in subjects with the metabolic syndrome. Chapter 9 compares contrast-enhanced MRI and nuclear imaging with 99mTc-tetrofosmin and 18F-fluorodeoxyglucose single photon emission computed tomography (SPECT) for assessment of myocardial viability. Chapter 10 compares longitudinal strain assessed by two-dimensional speckle tracking assessed with echocardiography with scar tissue on contrast-enhanced MRI in patients with ischemic cardiomyopathy. Chapter 11 studies the predictive value of infarct tissue heterogeneity assessed with contrast-enhanced MRI on the occurrence of spontaneous ventricular arrhythmia with subsequent implantable cardioverter-defibrillator therapy (as surrogate of sudden cardiac death) in patients with previous myocardial infarction. Chapter 12 evaluates the prognostic value of infarct size assessed with contrast-enhanced MRI relative to LV ejection fraction and LV volumes for long-term survival in patients with healed myocardial infarction. Chapter 13 assesses the predictive value of myocardial infarct size assessed with contrast-enhanced MRI in medically treated patients with chronic myocardial infarction relative to contractile reserve (hibernation) on low-dose dobutamine MRI for long-term event-free survival.

1

## References

- 1. Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek. Gezondheid en zorg in cijfers 2009. p 131.
- Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek. Permanent Onderzoek Leefsituatie (POLS). Gezondheid en welzijn; lichaamslengte en overgewicht. http://www.cbs.nl/nl-NL/menu/themas/gezondheidwelzijn/cijfers/default.htm (March 16<sup>th</sup>, 2010)
- 3. Eckel RH, Grundy SM, Zimmet PZ. The metabolic syndrome. Lancet 2005;365:1415-1428.
- 4. Zimmet P, Alberti KG, Shaw J. Global and societal implications of the diabetes epidemic. Nature 2001;414:782-787.
- 5. Lakka HM, Laaksonen DE, Lakka TA, et al. The metabolic syndrome and total and cardiovascular disease mortality in middle-aged men. JAMA 2002;288:2709-2716.
- Malik S, Wong ND, Franklin SS, et al. Impact of the metabolic syndrome on mortality from coronary heart disease, cardiovascular disease, and all causes in United States adults. Circulation 2004;110:1245-1250.
- Allman KC, Shaw LJ, Hachamovitch R, et al. Myocardial viability testing and impact of revascularization on prognosis in patients with coronary artery disease and left ventricular dysfunction: a meta-analysis. J Am Coll Cardiol 2002;39:1151-1158.
- Geva T. Magnetic resonance imaging: historical perspective. J Cardiovasc Magn Reson 2006;8:573-580.
- 9. Lanzer P, Botvinick EH, Schiller NB, et al. Cardiac imaging using gated magnetic resonance. Radiology 1984;150:121-127.
- McConnell MV, Khasgiwala VC, Savord BJ, et al. Comparison of respiratory suppression methods and navigator locations for MR coronary angiography. AJR Am J Roentgenol 1997;168:1369-1375.
- 11. Oshinski JN, Hofland L, Mukundan S Jr, et al. Two-dimensional coronary MR angiography without breath holding. Radiology 1996;201:737-743.
- 12. Fuster V, Fayad ZA, Badimon JJ. Acute coronary syndromes: biology. Lancet 1999;353 Suppl 2:SII5-SII9.
- 13. Solberg LA, Strong JP. Risk factors and atherosclerotic lesions. A review of autopsy studies. Arteriosclerosis 1983;3:187-198.
- Taniguchi H, Momiyama Y, Fayad ZA, et al. In vivo magnetic resonance evaluation of associations between aortic atherosclerosis and both risk factors and coronary artery disease in patients referred for coronary angiography. Am Heart J 2004;148:137-143.
- Jaffer FA, O'Donnell CJ, Larson MG, et al. Age and sex distribution of subclinical aortic atherosclerosis: a magnetic resonance imaging examination of the Framingham Heart Study. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol 2002;22:849-854.
- Sutton-Tyrrell K, Najjar SS, Boudreau RM, et al. Elevated aortic pulse wave velocity, a marker of arterial stiffness, predicts cardiovascular events in well-functioning older adults. Circulation 2005;111:3384-3390.

- 17. Mitchell GF, Hwang SJ, Vasan RS, et al. Arterial stiffness and cardiovascular events: the Framingham Heart Study. Circulation 2010;121:505-511.
- 18. Bluemke DA, Achenbach S, Budoff M, et al. Noninvasive coronary artery imaging: magnetic resonance angiography and multidetector computed tomography angiography: a scientific statement from the american heart association committee on cardiovascular imaging and intervention of the council on cardiovascular radiology and intervention, and the councils on clinical cardiology and cardiovascular disease in the young. Circulation 2008;118:586-606.
- 19. Bekeredjian R, Grayburn PA. Valvular heart disease: aortic regurgitation. Circulation 2005;112:125-134.
- 20. Shah PM, Raney AA. Tricuspid valve disease. Curr Probl Cardiol 2008;33:47-84.
- Boudoulas H, Sparks EE, Wooley CF. Mitral valvular regurgitation: etiology, pathophysiologic mechanisms, clinical manifestations. Herz 2006;31:6-13.
- 22. Bonow RO, Cheitlin MD, Crawford MH, et al. Task Force 3: valvular heart disease. J Am Coll Cardiol 2005;45:1334-1340.
- Geha AS, El Zein C, Massad MG. Mitral valve surgery in patients with ischemic and nonischemic dilated cardiomyopathy. Cardiology 2004;101:15-20.
- Bouzas B, Kilner PJ, Gatzoulis MA. Pulmonary regurgitation: not a benign lesion. Eur Heart J 2005;26:433-439.
- 25. Borer JS, Bonow RO. Contemporary approach to aortic and mitral regurgitation. Circulation 2003;108:2432-2438.
- 26. Kim RJ, Wu E, Rafael A, et al. The use of contrast-enhanced magnetic resonance imaging to identify reversible myocardial dysfunction. N Engl J Med 2000;343:1445-1453.
- Isbell DC, Kramer CM. Cardiovascular magnetic resonance: structure, function, perfusion, and viability. J Nucl Cardiol 2005;12:324-336.
- Isbell DC, Kramer CM: Magnetic resonance for the assessment of myocardial viability. Curr Opin Cardiol 2006;21:469-472.
- Dendale P, Franken PR, Block P, et al. Contrast enhanced and functional magnetic resonance imaging for the detection of viable myocardium after infarction. Am Heart J 1998;135:875-880.
- 30. Sandstede JJ. Assessment of myocardial viability by MR imaging. Eur Radiol 2003;13:52-61.
- 31. Rahimtoola SH. The hibernating myocardium. Am Heart J 1989;117:211-221.
- Cheong BY, Muthupillai R, Wilson JM, et al. Prognostic significance of delayed-enhancement magnetic resonance imaging: survival of 857 patients with and without left ventricular dysfunction. Circulation 2009;120:2069-2076.
- 33. Wu E, Ortiz JT, Tejedor P, et al. Infarct size by contrast enhanced cardiac magnetic resonance is a stronger predictor of outcomes than left ventricular ejection fraction or end-systolic volume index: prospective cohort study. Heart 2008;94:730-736.
- Bello D, Fieno DS, Kim RJ, et al. Infarct morphology identifies patients with substrate for sustained ventricular tachycardia. J Am Coll Cardiol 2005;45:1104-1108.

1

35. Yan AT, Shayne AJ, Brown KA, et al. Characterization of the peri-infarct zone by contrast-enhanced cardiac magnetic resonance imaging is a powerful predictor of post-myocardial infarction mortality. Circulation 2006;114:32-39.