

# CT of Coronary Artery Disease<sup>1</sup>

Gorka Bastarrika, MD, PhD<sup>2</sup>  
Yeong Shyan Lee, MD<sup>3</sup>  
Walter Huda, PhD  
Balazs Ruzsics, MD, PhD  
Philip Costello, MD  
U. Joseph Schoepf, MD

Technical innovation is rapidly improving the clinical utility of cardiac computed tomography (CT) and will increasingly address current technical limitations, especially the association of this test with relatively high levels of radiation. Guidelines for appropriate indications are in place and are evolving, with an increasing evidence base to ensure the appropriate use of this modality. New technologies and new applications, such as myocardial perfusion imaging and dual-energy CT, are being explored and are widening the scope of coronary CT angiography from mere coronary artery assessment to the integrative analysis of cardiac morphology, function, perfusion, and viability. The scientific evaluation of coronary CT angiography has left the stage of feasibility testing and increasingly, evidence-based data are accumulating on outcomes, prognosis, and cost-effectiveness. In this review, these developments will be discussed in the context of current pivotal transitions in cardiovascular disease management and their potential influence on the current role and future fate of coronary CT angiography will be examined.

© RSNA, 2009

<sup>1</sup> From the Department of Radiology and Radiological Science (G.B., Y.S.L., W.H., B.R., P.C., U.J.S.) and Division of Cardiology, Department of Medicine (U.J.S.), Medical University of South Carolina, Ashley River Tower, MSC 226, 25 Courtenay Dr, Charleston, SC 29401. Received September 28, 2008; revision requested November 22; revision received March 22, 2009; accepted May 6; final version accepted June 24. P.C. is a medical consultant for Bracco and is supported by Siemens. U.J.S. is a medical consultant for and is supported by Bayer-Schering, Bracco; GE Healthcare, Medrad; and Siemens. **Address correspondence to** U.J.S. (e-mail: [schoepf@musc.edu](mailto:schoepf@musc.edu)).

**Current addresses:**

<sup>2</sup> Department of Radiology, University of Navarra, Pamplona, Spain.

<sup>3</sup> Department of Diagnostic Radiology, Tan Tock Seng Hospital, Singapore.

© RSNA, 2009

**T**he rapid rise of coronary computed tomographic (CT) angiography from a research application to a robust, widely embraced clinical tool over the last decade has very few parallels in medicine. We currently observe a convergence of factors that has the potential of making coronary CT angiography a piv-

otal cornerstone in cardiovascular disease management, deserving of the highest level of attention of our field. Factors with critical influence on the clinical implementation of coronary CT angiography are related to the scope and importance of cardiovascular disease, rapidly evolving technology, widening use of coronary CT angiography for established indications, emerging new applications, fundamental changes in clinical cardiovascular disease management, and increased emphasis on cost-effectiveness in health care. In this article, we review each of these factors as they relate to the current and future role of coronary CT angiography.

### Essentials

- Innovations in scanner technology and acquisition protocols continue to improve the performance and usefulness of coronary CT angiography and enable substantial reductions in radiation exposure associated with this test.
- Compared with invasive coronary catheterization, coronary CT angiography has high accuracy for stenosis detection; the exceedingly high negative predictive value of this test enables reliable noninvasive exclusion of significant coronary artery stenosis.
- The available evidence suggests that the use of electrocardiographically synchronized CT for the assessment of patients with acute chest pain is accurate and safe and can effectively address limitations of the traditional diagnostic work-up.
- Coronary CT angiography enables the noninvasive assessment of the calcified and noncalcified atherosclerotic plaque burden and may play an increasing future role for cardiac risk stratification and therapeutic monitoring.
- Technologies and acquisition protocols are currently under development that aim at combining coronary CT angiography with CT-based methods for the evaluation of myocardial function, perfusion, and viability for the comprehensive assessment of coronary heart disease, with CT as the sole imaging modality.
- Rapidly accumulating evidence-based data increasingly supports that coronary CT angiography, if used according to established guidelines, is cost-effective.

### The Scope

We currently are observing a sharp decline in cardiovascular disease mortality, which has been mainly attributed to substantial improvements in primary and secondary prevention and medical (ie, pharmaceutical) disease management (1). However, the fact remains that cardiovascular disease continues to be the most important health problem globally; particularly in the westernized world. In the United States, the current prevalence of coronary heart disease is estimated at 16 000 000 individuals (about 8 700 000 men and 7 300 000 women) among adults older than 20 years of age. The prevalence of myocardial infarction is estimated at 8 100 000. In 2004, coronary artery disease (CAD) caused 451 326 deaths (233 538 male and 217 788 female deaths), of which 156 816 (82 909 men, 73 907 women) were owing to myocardial infarction (1).

### Technical Evolution

While electron-beam CT (2,3) for the time of its existence had a role in noninvasive cardiac imaging, primarily as a technique for coronary artery calcium scoring, the rapid rise of cardiac CT was driven by the introduction of multi-detector row CT in 1998. The first generation of four-detector row CT technology enabled electrocardiographically (ECG) synchronized high spatial and temporal resolution imaging of the heart (4), and

soon after its introduction was shown to be capable of quantifying coronary artery calcification (5), evaluating coronary artery stenosis (4,6), measuring cardiac function (7), and analyzing atherosclerotic plaque (8). With each subsequent scanner generation, for example, introduction of 16-detector row CT in 2001 (9,10), the proportion of patients that could be successfully imaged with noninvasive coronary CT angiography gradually increased. For example, improvements in temporal resolution reduced the percentage of vessel segments that were not evaluable because of motion artifacts (11), shorter overall scan times enabled higher contrast medium attenuation with lower volumes (11,12), and the gradual implementation of radiation protection techniques lowered the overall patient radiation exposure (13,14).

The recent rapid widespread growth in coronary CT angiography parallels the introduction of 64-detector row CT systems (15) in 2004. These are currently the most commonly used platform for performing cardiac CT. These scanners have a temporal resolution of up to approximately 165 msec and enable image acquisition of the cardiac anatomy within 5–10 seconds of scan time (16). However, while a substantial improvement over previous generations, the temporal resolution of these scanners, even with use of multisegment reconstruction algorithms, which can potentially yield temporal resolution of up to approximately 43 msec at some heart rates (17,18), is still too limited in subjects with high resting heart rates and irregular heart rhythm. As a result, pharmacological rate control above heart rates of 60–70 beats per minute remains a necessity (19,20).

Dual-source CT entered the field in 2006; its design reflects the concepts of an earlier experimental prototype (ie, the “dynamic spatial reconstructor”) (21,22). This

#### Published online

10.1148/radiol.2532081738

**Radiology** 2009; 253:317–338

#### Abbreviations:

CAD = coronary artery disease

ECG = electrocardiogram

LAD = left anterior descending coronary artery

3D = three-dimensional

scanner consists of two x-ray tubes and two detectors mounted perpendicularly in the same gantry (23). Because of this configuration, sufficient projection data for full image reconstruction can be sampled during quarter-rotation scanning as opposed to half-rotation scanning with conventional single-source multidetector CT systems, thus improving the temporal resolution to one-fourth of the gantry rotation time (ie,  $330 \text{ msec}/4 = \text{approximately } 83 \text{ msec}$ ) (23,24). Because of this excellent temporal resolution, high diagnostic accuracy for the detection of coronary artery stenosis at high and irregular heart rates without pharmacological rate control has repeatedly been reported (25,26) (Fig 1).

Technical innovations in cardiac CT are continuing at a rapid rate. Recently, 256-row and 320-row single-source systems, as well as 128-row dual-source CT scanners, have been introduced (27,28). The quest for broader detector arrays is motivated by the thought that complete volume coverage of the heart within a single heartbeat and isophasic datasets may reduce patient radiation (29) and can reduce susceptibility to arrhythmia, thus eliminating the type of ECG-misregistration artifacts that are still occasionally problematic with 64-row CT

acquisitions (27,30,31). The availability of detector arrays that are wide enough to cover the entire cardiac anatomy (27,28) also enables new approaches in the assessment of cardiac function. This includes the acquisition of dynamic, time-resolved data on myocardial perfusion and the myocardial blood supply, which previously had been limited by insufficient detector coverage (32).

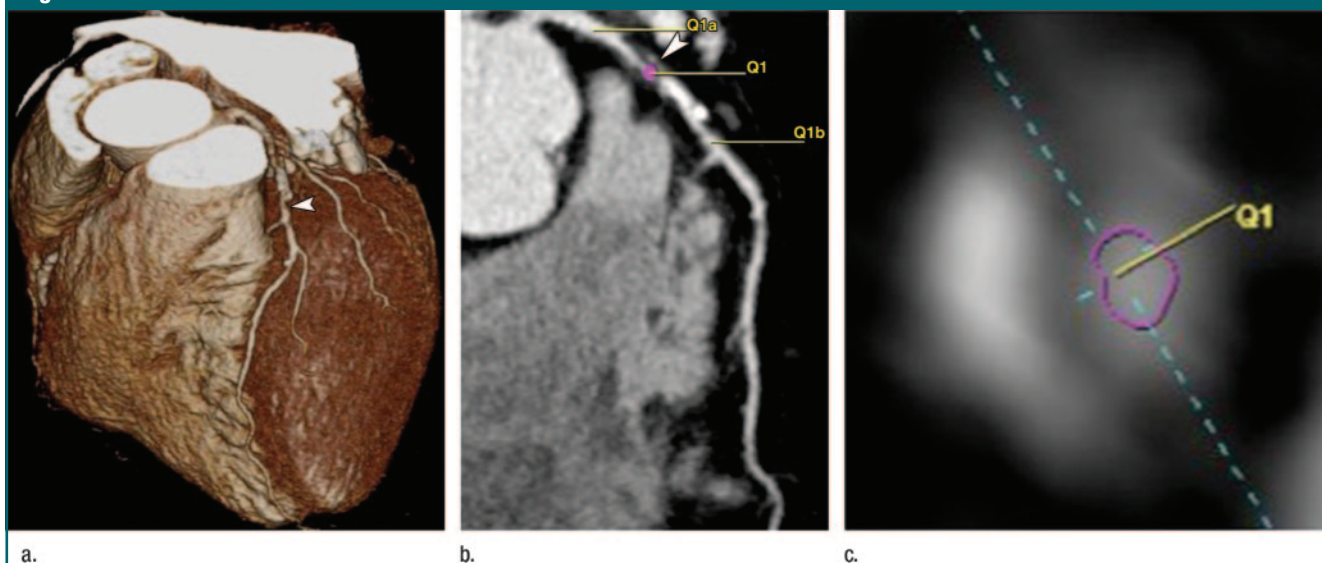
An alternative strategy, dual-energy acquisition, for evaluating the myocardial blood supply based on static, non-time-resolved coronary CT angiograms has also been proposed with dual-source CT (33,34). First, concepts of dual-energy CT imaging date back more than 2 decades (35–38). However, early experimental efforts ordinarily required the acquisition of two separate CT scans at different kilovoltage levels with subsequent image coregistration, which limited their clinical utility and naturally precluded imaging the beating heart. The recent availability of dual-source CT with its two-tube configuration enables the simultaneous acquisition of high and low x-ray energy spectra with a single CT scan (39). In the heart, dual-energy CT has been shown to permit the analysis of the myocardial blood supply by

analyzing the iodine (and thus blood) volume within the myocardium (33,34), exploiting the fact that tissues in the human body and iodine-based contrast media have unique absorption characteristics when penetrated with different x-ray energy levels (see below). The application of the dual-energy approach using first-generation dual-source CT, however, results in decreasing the temporal resolution to 165 msec compared with the available 83 msec when both tubes are operated at the same kilovoltage. Other strategies for the acquisition of multiple energy image data that provide integrative information on coronary artery morphology and the state of myocardial perfusion are currently under investigation and include rapid switching of kilovoltage levels during scan acquisition and multilayer detectors that filter specific photon energies from the x-ray spectrum.

### Radiation Dose

Recent reports (40,41) on increasing radiation exposure from diagnostic CT examinations have sparked increasing concern and discussion among the medical community and public at large. A multicenter study reported an average effective radiation

**Figure 1**



**Figure 1:** Contrast-enhanced retrospectively ECG-gated dual-source coronary CT angiography in 79-year-old man with atypical chest pain. Average heart rate during scan acquisition was 129 beats per minute (minimum, 103 beats per minute; maximum, 150 beats per minute). (a) Three-dimensional (3D) volume rendering from left anterior oblique perspective, (b) curved multiplanar reformation, and (c) transverse section orthogonal to the vessel lumen demonstrate significant coronary artery stenosis (arrowhead) in the proximal left anterior descending coronary artery (LAD) caused by predominantly noncalcified plaque.

dose equivalent of 12 mSv associated with cardiac CT and demonstrated large variations (5–30 mSv) among participating centers depending on the scanner manufacturer, geographic location, and use of radiation protection regimens (42). As with all imaging studies involving radiation, the individual assessment of the patient's risk-benefit ratio and the responsibility to keep radiation exposure at a minimum is incumbent on us as the stewards of radiation use in medical imaging. Accordingly, all approaches to lowering radiation dose in cardiac CT are welcome and should be carefully considered. There are time-honored approaches such as ECG-dependent tube current modulation (14) and use of lower tube voltage (43,44) in slimmer individuals (Fig 2), which should be used whenever possible.

However, the greatest radiation dose reductions have been reported with the recently rediscovered technique of prospectively ECG-triggered coronary CT angiography (45–47). This technique consists of sequential acquisition of transverse sections

with application of radiation only during a predetermined interval in the cardiac cycle (ordinarily diastole). This had been the default method for ECG synchronization of scan acquisition used with electron-beam CT (48). Prospective ECG triggering enables performing coronary CT angiography at a fraction of the effective radiation dose equivalent (ie, 1–4 mSv), when compared with the constant application of radiation used in retrospectively ECG-gated slow-pitch spiral multidetector CT (4) (Fig 3).

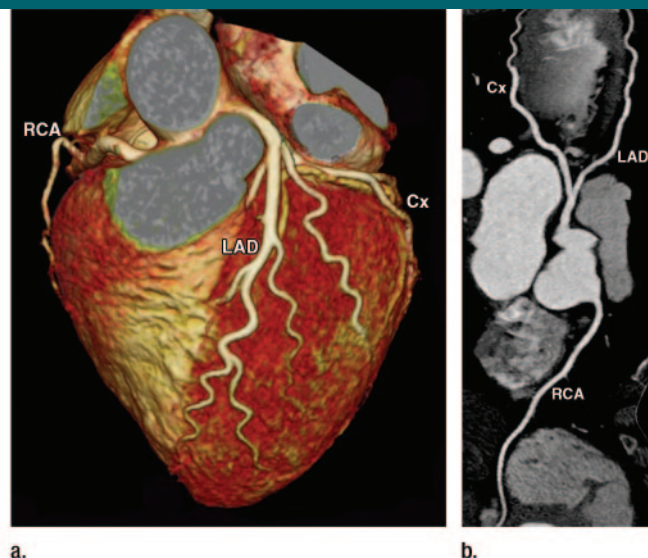
The main limitations of prospective ECG triggering to date have been the inability to evaluate cardiac function. More important, this technique has a limited ability to retrospectively (ie, after scan acquisition) change the simultaneous registration of image data with more suitable phases of the cardiac cycle, which is one of the hallmarks of retrospective ECG gating. Also, patients with arrhythmia have traditionally not been eligible for prospectively ECG-triggered examinations, because arrhythmia naturally precludes reliable simultaneous registration of image data with the

desired cardiac phase. There are various technical attempts at improving the robustness of this acquisition technique for faster and more irregular heart rates. These include single heart beat volume CT acquisition (27), prolonging the acquisition interval during the RR-cycle to provide more flexibility in choosing the most suitable phase of image reconstruction (49), or adaptive online monitoring of the ECG for the occurrence of extra systoles to ensure image acquisition only during the desired cardiac phase (49). Despite these technical advances, we currently recommend restricting the use of prospective ECG triggering to subjects with stable and slow (ie, < 65 beats per minute) heart rates. This may make it advisable to pharmacologically control heart rate, regardless of the scanner's temporal resolution.

Another recent technical development with potential to lower radiation exposure of CT studies, including cardiac CT, is statistical iterative image reconstruction. Traditional filtered back projection image reconstruction has limitations regarding 3D cone-beam geometry, data completeness, and low radiation dose acquisitions. Iterative image reconstruction approaches provide more flexibility for accurate physical noise modeling and geometric system description (50). Initial experience (50) suggests that these reconstruction methods allow for improvements in image quality and lower image noise and thus appear to be particularly promising for low-radiation dose cardiac CT (Fig 4).

Scanner technology continues to evolve; the heightened awareness of increasing radiation exposure from medical imaging will stimulate the expedited development of systems and acquisition strategies that are capable of imaging the heart at much lower radiation dose than current CT systems, which should, in the future, ameliorate current radiation concerns about cardiac CT.

**Figure 2**



**Figure 2:** Contrast-enhanced retrospectively ECG-gated coronary CT angiography in 52-year-old woman (height, 1.63 m; weight, 51 kg; body mass index, 19.2) with atypical chest pain. A low-voltage (100-kVp) protocol and ECG dose modulation were used with an effective radiation dose equivalent of approximately 5 mSv (dose-length product = 274 mGy · cm). **(a)** Three-dimensional volume rendering from left anterior oblique perspective and **(b)** automatically generated curved multiplanar reformation show normal coronary arteries. RCA = right coronary artery, Cx = circumflex coronary artery. The high negative predictive value of a normal or near-normal coronary CT angiogram can reliably exclude coronary artery stenosis as a reason for chest pain and obviate further work-up for CAD.

#### Framework for Appropriate Use and Indication

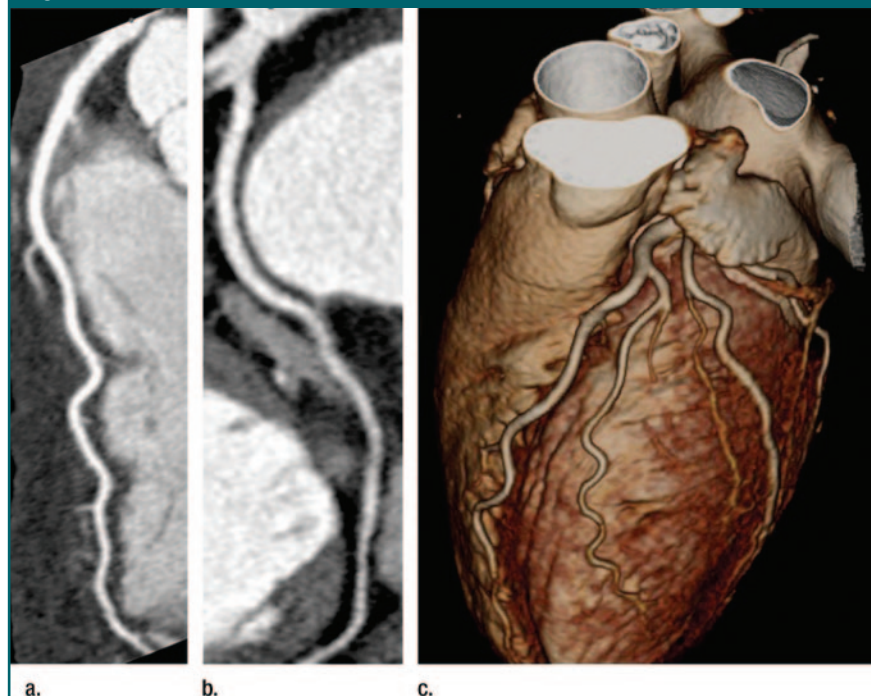
As with all diagnostic procedures involving the use of ionizing radiation, the assessment of the risk-benefit ratio for each patient, appropriate patient selection, and indication for coronary CT angiography

should guide referring physicians and radiologists in the use of this examination. Initially, patient selection and indications for cardiac CT were variable and largely institutionally driven. However, with more widespread use, the need for defining patient selection and appropriate use has become more apparent. Recently, several documents have been issued by the pertinent professional societies (51–55) that provide more informed guidance on appropriate indications for the use of cardiac CT. These recommendations confirm a number of traditional indications for cardiac CT, such as the assessment of coronary artery anomalies (Fig 5) and bypass grafts. There is consensus that the use of coronary CT angiography is appropriate in symptomatic individuals, especially if symptoms, sex, and age suggest a low to intermediate probability of significant coronary artery stenosis (Fig 6). There is also consensus that coronary CT angiography to date has no role for general screening for coronary atherosclerosis in asymptomatic individuals, because the current levels of radiation are incompatible with the prerequisites of a successful screening test (56,57) and data on the cost-effectiveness of this indication are lacking. The issuance of guidelines and appropriateness criteria by the professional societies has helped to define the indications for coronary CT angiography and curb potential overutilization, although they do not replace the need for individual assessment of the risk-benefit ratio in each patient. In addition, these recommendations only reflect the current status of our understanding of the appropriate use of this test and are subject to change as new data and experience are gathered.

#### Comparison with Conventional Coronary Angiography

The early observations using four- and 16-row (6,58–60) CT scanners with regard to the diagnostic performance of noninvasive coronary CT angiography were seminal in demonstrating the potential usefulness of this test for visualizing the coronary artery lumen and vessel wall in subjects suspected of having CAD. Early investigations reported sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value, and negative predictive value of 75%–90%, 90%–95%, 70%–90%, and

**Figure 3**



**Figure 3:** Contrast-enhanced prospectively ECG-triggered 128-section coronary CT angiography performed with 120 kV and 220 mAs in 49-year-old woman (height, 1.65 m; weight, 54 kg; body mass index, 19.8; heart rate, 54 beats per minute) with atypical chest pain, equivocal stress test, and an effective radiation dose equivalent of approximately 2.4 mSv (dose-length product = 135 mGy · cm). Curved multiplanar reformations of (a) LAD and (b) circumflex coronary artery and (c) 3D volume rendering from a left anterior oblique perspective show normal coronary arteries enabling confident noninvasive exclusion of coronary artery stenosis at radiation dose levels that are lower than the average annual background radiation from natural sources.

80%–90%, respectively, for the detection of hemodynamically significant stenosis (58,61–63). However, these early results were substantially limited by motion artifacts or extensive calcification. These artifacts frequently necessitated the exclusion of coronary artery segments, vessels, or patients from data analysis in the early descriptions and to some extent overstated the diagnostic performance that was achievable at that time (6,64). Subsequently, more systematic analyses of the performance of coronary CT angiography using four- and 16-row CT in patients suspected of having CAD demonstrated a pooled sensitivity for detecting any stenosis of about 89% (range, 85%–92%), concluding that the sensitivity obtainable with these scanner generations may not be completely satisfactory to reliably rule out coronary artery stenosis (15,65).

The subsequent introduction of 64-row

CT technology led to substantial improvements in spatial and temporal resolution that resulted in increased sensitivity and specificity for detecting significant coronary stenosis when compared with conventional coronary angiography. Results of representative studies evaluating the performance of 64-row CT and dual-source CT for detecting hemodynamically significant coronary artery stenosis (Fig 7) are shown in the Table (25,26,66–77). These studies report sensitivity and specificity of 86%–99% and 92%–98%, respectively. Most important, with the exception of a single, recent study (78) that showed lower sensitivity than specificity (85% sensitivity, 90% specificity, 91% positive predictive value, 83% negative predictive value), all investigations performed with current generations of multidetector CT scanners have consistently reported high negative predictive values that approach or reach

100% on a per-patient basis. This exceedingly high negative predictive value, which allows reliable exclusion of significant coronary artery stenosis following a normal or near-normal noninvasive coronary CT angiogram (Figs 2, 3), is the cornerstone for the use of cardiac CT in the management of symptomatic patients suspected of having CAD. In this patient population, a normal or near-normal coronary CT angiogram can effectively obviate further testing (79–82).

Despite the considerable advances in scanner technology and image postprocessing techniques, there are still instances (about 1% of vessels [67]) where results at coronary CT angiography are ambiguous and inconclusive. Causes of ambiguous results include motion artifacts from high and irregular heart rates, excessive image noise in obese patients, heavy vascular calcifications (67,74), and the limited accuracy of coronary CT angiography for measuring stenosis severity (83).

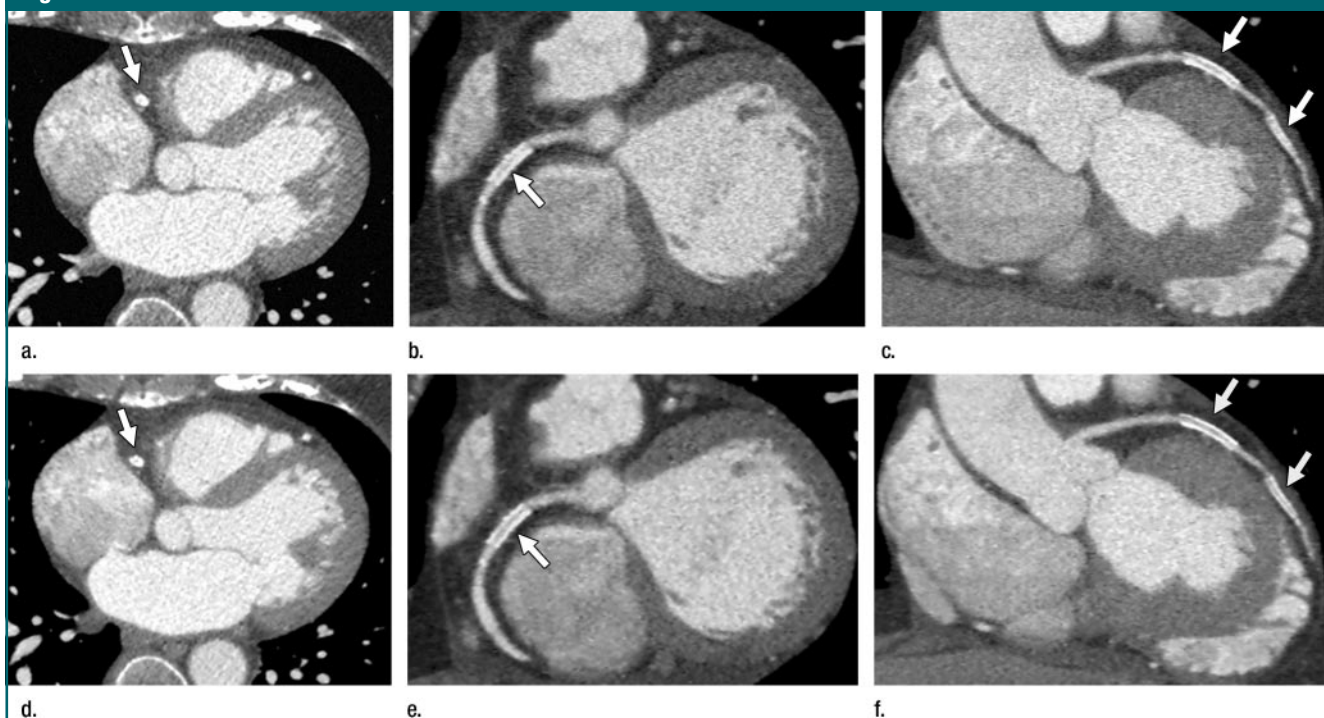
Newer scanner technology has improved the robustness of the examination in patients with high and arrhythmic heart rates (84,85). Similarly, recent technical developments have enhanced our ability to evaluate heavily calcified vessel segments and to determine lesion severity when compared with the earlier results. Promising recent *ex vivo* work has suggested the potential of dual-energy CT (86,87) in reducing blooming artifacts from heavy calcification and metallic stent struts, which may further improve diagnostic accuracy of coronary CT angiography in these patients. Currently, however, the presence of excessive coronary artery calcium, particularly in combination with motion or low signal-noise ratio, continues to reduce the specificity we can obtain in differentiating clinically significant from nonclinically significant coronary artery lesions. Thus, in symptomatic patients with inconclusive results at coronary CT angiography, further evaluation with noninvasive physiologic test-

ing (eg, nuclear myocardial perfusion imaging, ergometric stress testing) is advised so that hemodynamically significant lesions are not missed and the hemodynamic effect of borderline (ie, 30%–70% luminal narrowing [88]) lesions can be assessed. The percentage of patients in whom results at coronary CT angiography are ambiguous and inconclusive has become successively smaller with each new iteration of multidetector CT technology and can be expected to decrease further with coming technical innovations, such as further improvements in temporal resolution, more sensitive detector materials, and more advanced postprocessing techniques.

#### Beyond Feasibility Testing

Virtually all investigations that compare the diagnostic performance of coronary CT angiography with invasive catheterization have suffered from verification bias, because results have been obtained in

**Figure 4**



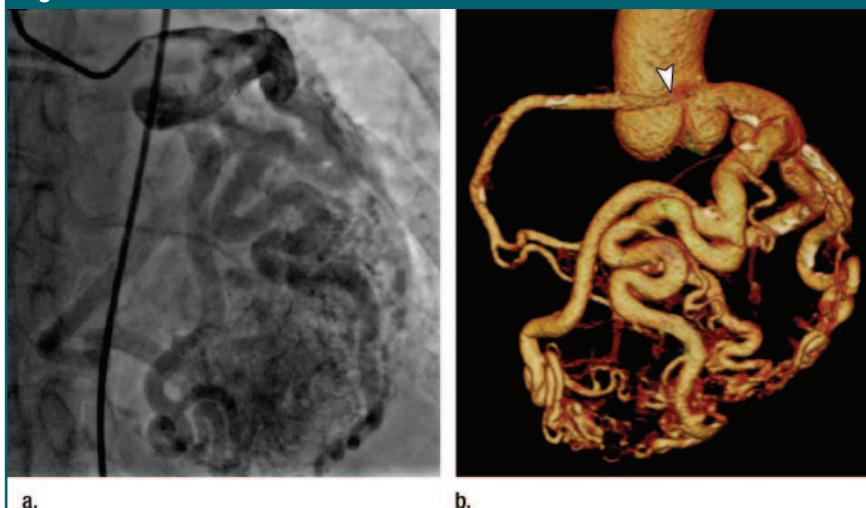
**Figure 4:** Contrast-enhanced retrospectively ECG-gated dual-source coronary CT angiography in 56-year-old man with body mass index of 34 kg/m<sup>2</sup> after coronary artery stent placement. (a–c) Image reconstruction with conventional filtered back projection and (d–f) iterative reconstruction with two iterations. (a, d) Transverse sections and multiplanar reformations of the (b, e) right coronary artery and (c, f) LAD show substantial reduction in image noise that corresponds to a potential dose reduction by 50% without loss of resolution, enabling improved visualization of coronary artery stents (arrows).

populations who clinically require invasive work-up and may be different from those in the general population. More recently, the clinical performance in nonselected patient populations has also been investigated (89,90). In a segment-based analysis for detection of significant stenosis (>50%) performed in 40 consecutive individuals, Grosse et al found a sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value, and negative predictive value of 87%, 99%, 98%, and 95%, respectively. In this study, patient-based analysis demonstrated a negative predictive value of 91% for excluding significant CAD (89). Gaemperli et al (90) prospectively compared the accuracy of 64-section coronary CT angiography with that of technetium 99m tetrofosmin single photon emission computed tomography (SPECT) myocardial perfusion imaging, as the reference standard, for the detection of functionally relevant CAD in 100 consecutive patients. Using a cut-off threshold of 75% or greater area stenosis, these authors found a sensitivity, specificity, negative predictive value, and positive predictive value for the detection of any (fixed and reversible) perfusion defect of 75%, 90%, 93%, and 68%, respectively, on a per-patient basis.

#### CT for Acute Chest Pain Assessment in the Emergency Department

ECG-synchronized CT is increasingly used to assess patients with acute chest pain for pulmonary embolism, acute aortic syndrome, acute coronary syndrome (the so-called triple rule-out strategy), and other thoracic pathologic conditions with a single examination (52). Even after detailed patient history, physical examination, an ECG, cardiac biomarkers, and cardiac risk stratification (eg, using the Thrombosis in Myocardial Infarction, or TIMI, score [91]), there is a considerable ( $\approx 10\%$ ) proportion of patients with acute myocardial infarction who are inappropriately discharged from the emergency department. ECG-synchronized CT has been proposed as a means to address this dilemma by rapidly triaging patients for admission, if actionable disease is found, or discharge them on the basis of normal CT findings (92–95).

**Figure 5**



**Figure 5:** Images in 70-year-old woman with continuous systolic murmur and anterior wall motion abnormality at stress nuclear myocardial perfusion imaging. **(a)** Coronary angiogram (right anterior oblique perspective) was initially obtained and depicted abundant coronary-cameral fistulas; however, the right coronary artery could not be cannulated. **(b)** Contrast-enhanced retrospectively ECG-gated coronary CT angiogram displayed as 3D volume rendering from a left anterior oblique perspective shows the extent of fistulas of the left coronary system and reveals anomalous origin of the right coronary artery (arrowhead) from the left coronary artery cusp.

**Figure 6**

1. Detection of CAD
  - 1.1. Acute chest pain in symptomatic subjects
    - Intermediate pretest probability of CAD
    - No ECG changes and serial enzymes negative
  - 1.2. Evaluation of chest pain syndrome in symptomatic subjects
    - Intermediate pretest probability of CAD
    - ECG uninterpretable or unable to exercise
  - 1.3. Evaluation of intracardiac structures in symptomatic subjects
    - Evaluation of suspected coronary anomalies
2. Detection of CAD with prior test results
  - 2.1. Evaluation of chest pain syndrome
    - Uninterpretable or equivocal stress test (exercise, perfusion, or stress echo)
3. Structure and function
  - 3.1. Evaluation of intra- and extracardiac structures
    - Noninvasive coronary arterial mapping, including internal mammary artery prior to repeat cardiac surgical revascularization
  - 3.2. Morphology
    - Assessment of complex congenital heart disease, including anomalies of coronary circulation, great vessels, and cardiac chambers and valves
    - Evaluation of coronary arteries in patients with new onset heart failure to assess etiology

**Figure 6:** List of appropriate clinical indications for the performance of coronary CT angiography based on Hendel et al study (54).

Image acquisition strategies vary depending on whether the scan range includes the entire thorax or is restricted to a dedicated coronary CT angiogram (96). There is also discussion regarding the exact time-point when the CT study should be performed in the work up of patients with acute chest pain. This mainly depends on the risk profile and general presentation of the patient and the local availability of this test. The role of CT in the assessment of acute thoracic disease involving the great vessels such as pulmonary embolism (97–99) and acute aortic syndromes (100,101), as well as other noncardiac causes of acute chest pain, is well established (102). In addition to diagnosing or excluding these diseases, ECG-synchronized CT acquisitions using 64-section CT angiography depict significant coronary artery stenosis, with sensitivity and specificity of 86%–100% and 92%–98%, respectively (66–73,103). CT-based evaluation for significant coronary artery stenosis has been shown to decrease the number of unnecessary hospital admissions without reducing the rates of appropriate admissions (104) by ruling out the absence of acute coronary syndrome (105). The accuracy and safety of CT appear to be at least as good as those

of stress nuclear imaging for diagnosing patients with acute coronary syndrome, while time to diagnosis is shortened and costs are potentially reduced (106–108, see below). Finally, coronary CT angiography has been shown to have prognostic value in the acute chest pain setting, with normal findings portending an extremely low risk of future cardiovascular events (109).

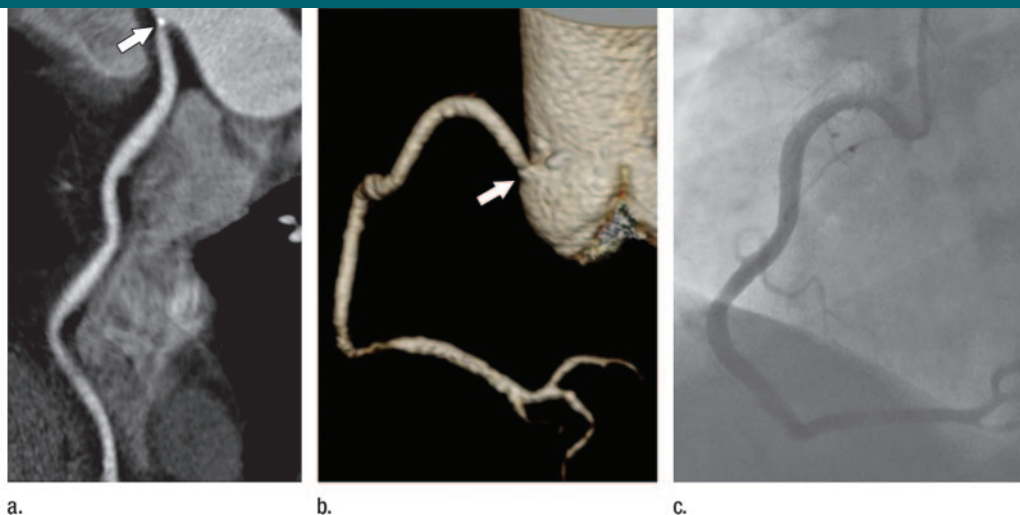
#### Left Ventricular Function

The evaluation of left ventricular function is a crucial component in the assessment of patients with coronary heart disease and has substantial prognostic implications (110,111). CT may also be useful in patients with new decreased left ventricular function to differentiate ischemic from nonischemic causes. Despite the clinical importance of this parameter, CT has never been and likely never will be the primary method for the assessment of cardiac function, even if superiority of CT over echocardiography, scintigraphy, and left ventriculography has been demonstrated (112–114). For the primary assessment of cardiac function, there are less invasive (eg, cardiac ultrasonography [US]) and better (eg, magnetic resonance

[MR] imaging [115–117]) technologies available, which should be preferentially used. However, whenever retrospectively ECG-gated coronary CT angiography is performed, the data inherently contain image information across the cardiac cycle, which can be reconstructed and used for analyzing myocardial and valvular motion and for measuring global functional parameters (Fig 8).

While CT-based cardiac function analysis was initially time-consuming and laborious (7), modern postprocessing software allows intuitive cine viewing and rapid quantification of cardiac function parameters (118,119). Initial studies performed with four-row CT underestimated left ventricular ejection fraction (118), primarily due to limited temporal resolution. The increased temporal resolution of 16-row CT improved the accuracy of left ventricular function measurements in comparison with other diagnostic techniques (120–123). The results obtained with modern-era scanners approach the accuracy of cardiac MR imaging (116,117,124) for this application, with slight overestimation of end-systolic volume at multidetector CT when compared with MR imaging, resulting in a systematic underestimation

Figure 7



**Figure 7:** Images in 57-year-old man with persistent chest pain despite negative prior conventional angiography findings (heart rate, 79 beats per minute). Contrast-enhanced retrospectively ECG-gated dual-source coronary CT angiogram displayed as (a) curved multiplanar reformation and (b) 3D volume rendering from right anterior oblique perspective show significant ostial stenosis (arrow) of the right coronary artery due to calcified plaque. This lesion had not been appreciated on (c) prior coronary angiogram in straight left anterior oblique projection because the tip of the catheter was advanced beyond the stenosis prior to contrast medium injection.

of left ventricular ejection fraction that ranges from 1% to 7%, especially with earlier generation scanners (118,125–127). In addition to measuring global cardiac function, cine viewing of multiphasic cardiac CT reconstructions enables diagnosis of focal wall motion abnormalities according to the standardized 17-segment model proposed by the American Heart Association (Fig 8) (128). Visual evaluation of wall motion abnormalities at cardiac CT has shown good agreement with cardiac US and MR imaging using four-row (129,130) and 16-row CT (120,131) and has further improved with current scanners (122,132–134). The temporal resolution of CT, however, remains limited compared with that of echocardiography and MR imaging. The recent availability of detector arrays that cover the entire cardiac anatomy, such as 320-detector row scanners (23,24), is expected to further improve the assessment of cardiac function and, more important, permit dynamic time-resolved evaluation of myocardial perfusion, which has, to date, been limited by insufficient detector coverage (28).

### Emerging Applications

#### Coronary Atherosclerotic Plaque Imaging

Coronary artery calcium scoring has been used for decades to quantify the calcified atherosclerotic plaque burden (135–137). Despite the recognized limitations of this test (136), it is currently seeing renewed interest as an aid for further cardiovascular risk stratification and risk factor management. Since it has been shown that contrast material-enhanced coronary CT angiography can noninvasively depict calcified and noncalcified atherosclerotic plaque components (138) (Fig 9), there has been intense interest in the evaluation of coronary CT angiography as a tool for risk stratification and for monitoring risk factor management. The rationale behind these efforts is our growing understanding of the relationship between plaque composition and the different clinical manifestations of CAD. It has long been recognized that symp-

toms of chronic stable angina find their correlate in stenotic, predominantly fibro-calcified lesions (139), whereas the acute coronary syndrome and sudden cardiac death are more likely to be associated with the rupture of previously non-stenotic, predominantly lipid-rich, “vulnerable” plaques (140–142). MR coronary angiography (143) has contributed to our current understanding of these relationships, and coronary artery plaque composition has been studied invasively with intravascular US (144) and more recently with optical coherence tomography (145). The complexity, expense, invasiveness, and limited availability of these modalities make them prohibitive for more widespread clinical application beyond specific clinical scenarios and research. Coronary CT angiography with its high temporal and spatial resolution currently enables coronary artery stenosis detection along with atherosclerotic plaque burden analysis. Significant efforts have been undertaken to investigate and refine plaque detection and characterization based on CT findings (25,146–150). Attenuation-based atherosclerotic plaque characterization at coronary CT angiography has been shown to correlate reasonably well with histologic findings (151). On the

basis of ex vivo histopathologic correlation, specific attenuation ranges for different plaque components according to Hounsfield units have been proposed (152).

However, attenuation measurement of coronary artery plaques in vivo is fraught with multiple confounding factors: The small size and irregular shapes of target lesions result in substantial volume averaging. Plaque attenuation is strongly influenced by the contrast medium attenuation in the adjacent coronary lumen (153), and there is substantial overlap in the attenuation ranges of fibrous and lipid-rich plaque types (154). Currently, in routine clinical practice, reliable differentiation of plaque composition beyond that of distinguishing calcified from noncalcified plaque components is very limited. Furthermore, it appears unlikely that in the near future, CT technology will be able to prospectively identify the truly “vulnerable” plaque that is at risk of rupture and cause acute coronary syndrome. Newly developed software algorithms that can volumetrically quantify calcified and noncalcified atherosclerotic plaque components (Fig 10) may permit use of multidetector CT in risk stratification and monitoring therapies designed to manage and

#### Accuracy of 64-Section CT and Dual-Source CT for Detection of Coronary Stenosis in Comparison with Conventional Coronary Angiography (Per-segment Analysis)

Author	Scanner Type	No. of Patients	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)	PPV (%)	NPV (%)
Raff et al (67)	64-Section CT	70	86	95	66	98
Leschka et al (66)	64-Section CT	67	94	97	87	99
Mollet et al (69)	64-Section CT	51	99	95	76	99
Fine et al (68)	64-Section CT	66	95	96	97	92
Ropers et al (73)	64-Section CT	81	93	97	56	100
Ehara et al (70)	64-Section CT	69	90	94	89	95
Ong et al (72)	64-Section CT	134	82	96	79	96
Oncel et al (71)	64-Section CT	80	96	98	91	99
Meijboom et al (77)	64-Section CT	360	88	90	47	99
Weustink et al (76)	Dual-Source CT	100	95	95	75	99
Johnson et al (75)	Dual-Source CT	35	88	98	78	99
Leber et al (25)	Dual-Source CT	88	94	99	81	99
Ropers et al (26)	Dual-Source CT	100	92	97	68	99
Brodoefel et al (74)	Dual-Source CT	100	91	92	75	97

Note.—NPV = negative predictive value, PPV = positive predictive value.

reduce risk of major adverse cardiac events (155,156). These algorithms may also help in overcoming previous limitations of plaque burden measurements as noted, for instance, by Leber et al (146), who observed an underestimation of mixed and noncalcified plaque volumes and a trend to overestimate calcified plaque volumes at 64-section CT compared with intravascular US when manual plaque volumetry is used. Furthermore, in this study, the interobserver variability in determining plaque volumes with CT was as high as 37% (146). Newer software applications have reduced interobserver variability ( $R = 0.885$ – $0.920$ ) for the volumetric assessment of the

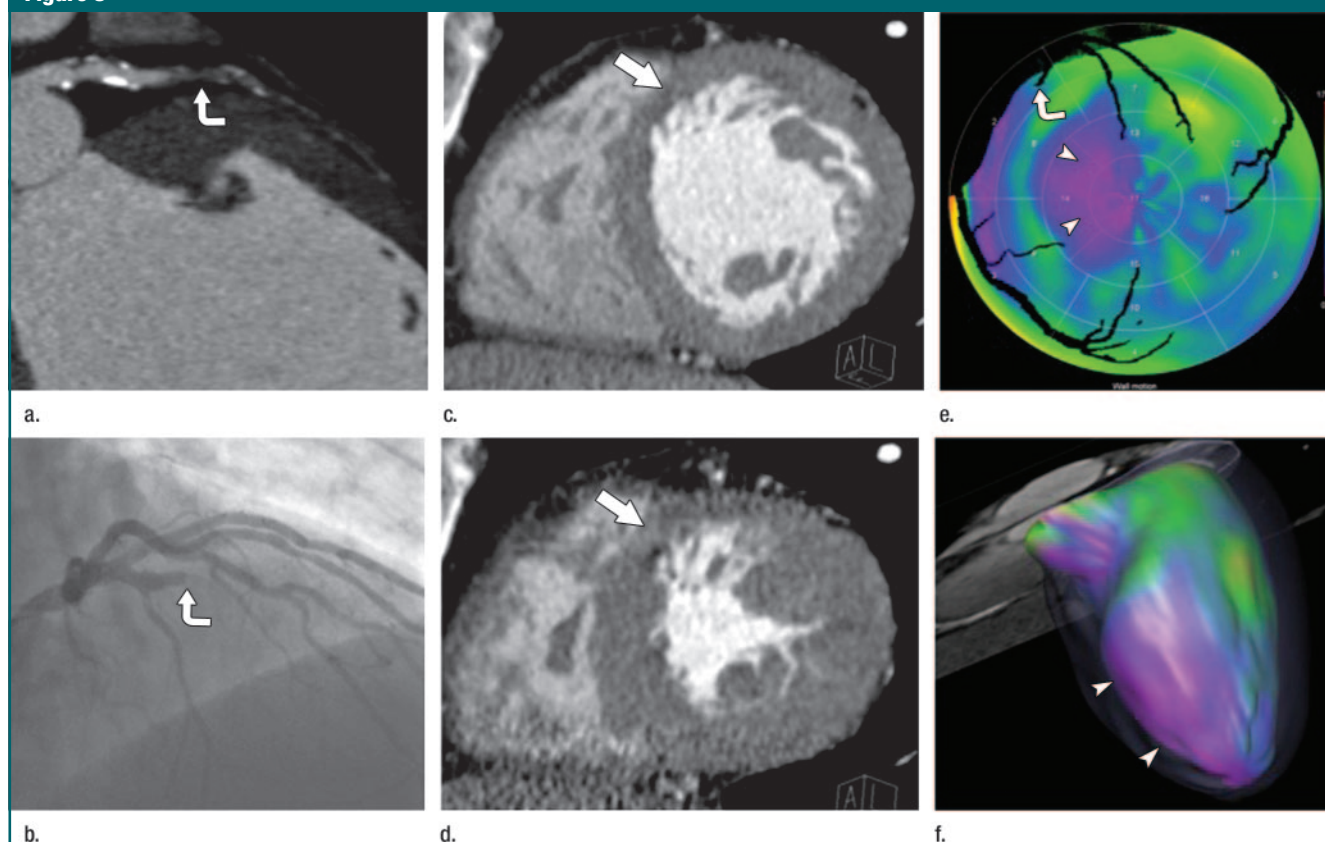
noncalcified atherosclerotic plaque burden (157).

### Myocardial Perfusion and Viability

**CT versus other imaging modalities.**—There has been ongoing speculation as to whether CT techniques will be able to replace nuclear myocardial perfusion imaging in CAD evaluation and management (158). Several studies have explored the relationship between stenosis at coronary CT angiography and myocardial perfusion defects at nuclear imaging (159–161) and invariably demonstrated relatively weak correlation. On the basis of a figure of merit of 50% or greater stenosis at coronary CT angiography, the sensitivity for detecting reversible myocardial per-

fusion defects ranged 85%–95% with a specificity of 53%–79% (159,161). Using the same threshold of 50% or greater stenosis, Nicol et al (160) found 87% agreement between coronary CT angiography and myocardial perfusion imaging, whereas this percentage increased to 96% when stenosis of 70% or greater was used. Accordingly, the authors argue that at coronary CT angiography, stenosis of 70% or greater should be used as the criterion to determine functional significance of the lesion (160). The relatively weak correlation between coronary CT angiography and nuclear myocardial perfusion imaging comes as little surprise considering the fundamentally different nature of these tests and the known vari-

**Figure 8**

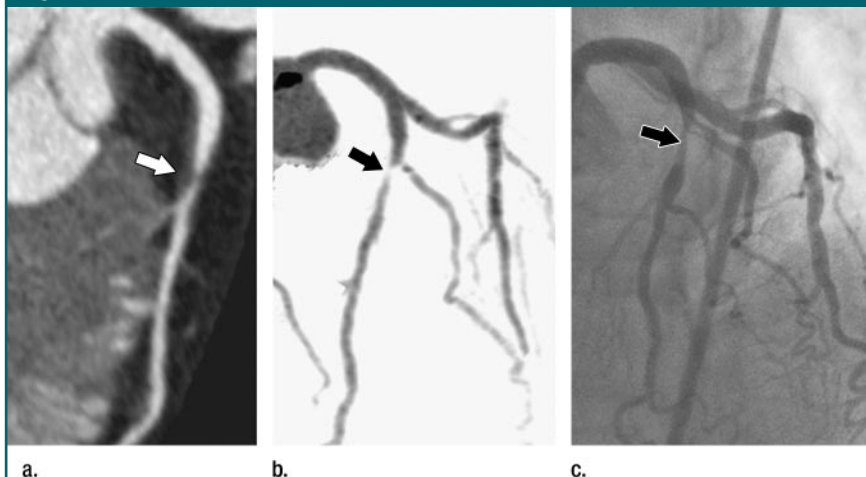


**Figure 8:** Images in 58-year-old woman with atypical chest pain and abnormal stress test. Contrast-enhanced retrospectively ECG-gated coronary CT angiogram displayed as (a) curved multiplanar reformation shows occlusion (arrow) of proximal LAD subsequently confirmed on (b) conventional angiogram in right anterior oblique cranial projection. Visual evaluation of (c) diastolic and (d) systolic multiplanar reconstructions in short-axis view show wall motion abnormality with hypokinesis (arrow) in the anteroseptal left ventricular myocardium. (e) A 17-segment polar view map with overlay of the coronary artery tree and (f) 3D functional model of the left ventricle also show hypokinetic segments (arrowheads) and normal wall motion in the remainder of the myocardium; e with vessel overlay illustrates the anatomic relationship of LAD occlusion (arrow) to myocardial segments with wall motion abnormalities (arrowheads).

ability in the hemodynamic effect of stenotic lesions on myocardial perfusion (90). Nuclear myocardial perfusion imaging is a pure physiologic test aimed at evaluating the myocardial blood supply and provides similar information as exercise stress testing, rest-stress cardiac US, and myocardial perfusion MR imaging. Coronary CT angiography per se is primarily an anatomic, morphologic test to evaluate coronary artery luminal integrity and typically provides information that has traditionally been obtained with coronary angiography. Both, physiologic and anatomic tests are important in the work up of patients suspected of having CAD, for detecting stenosis, and for gauging the hemodynamic effect of lesions on myocardial perfusion. Coronary CT angiography can replace coronary angiography in the appropriate clinical scenario but is a priori complimentary to, and not competitive with, physiologic testing.

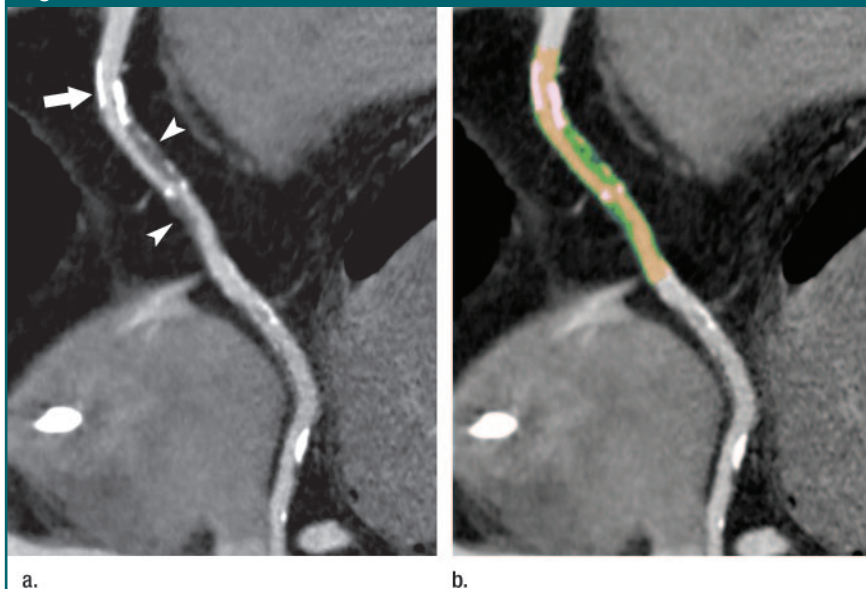
**Myocardial perfusion: CT development.**—Myocardial perfusion is one of the most important prognostic indicators for patient outcome in the management of CAD (162). The comprehensive assessment of myocardial perfusion from physiologic testing and morphologic evaluation of the coronary arteries by means of image fusion of nuclear imaging and coronary CT angiography has been shown to provide incremental diagnostic value over either technique alone (90,159,163,164). However, obtaining diagnostic information on coronary artery morphology and the status of myocardial perfusion with a single, stand-alone examination remains a coveted goal. Accordingly, there are a number of ongoing investigative efforts to supplement the information on vascular luminal integrity obtained from coronary CT angiography with the assessment of myocardial perfusion and viability. These efforts have their origins in the era of electron-beam CT (165) and the very early days of four-row CT when it was shown in animal models of acute myocardial infarction (166) that hypoattenuating myocardial segments reflect perfusion defects. Recently, these initial observations have been applied in the clinical setting to patients with acute and chronic myocardial infarction (167,168). For example, Nikolaou et al (168) reported a 91% sen-

Figure 9



**Figure 9:** Images in 70-year-old woman with atypical chest pain. Contrast-enhanced retrospectively ECG-gated coronary CT angiogram displayed as (a) curved multiplanar reformation and (b) 3D volume rendering in angiographic setting seen from a caudal left anterior oblique projection show significant stenosis (arrow) in the mid LAD subsequently confirmed on (c) conventional coronary angiogram in the same projection. The cross-sectional nature of coronary CT angiography reveals the completely noncalcified nature of the culprit lesion (arrow in a).

Figure 10



**Figure 10:** Contrast-enhanced retrospectively ECG-gated coronary CT angiography in 63-year-old man with atypical chest pain. (a) Curved multiplanar reformation shows 50% stenosis of the mid right coronary artery caused by predominantly noncalcified plaque (arrowheads), as well as more proximal nonobstructive calcified plaque (arrow). (b) Color-coded characterization and volumetry of atherosclerotic plaque components performed by using a dedicated plaque analysis and quantification algorithm. Low-attenuation, medium-attenuation, and calcified plaque components are differentiated and displayed in dark green, light green, and pink, respectively. Intravascular contrast material is displayed in orange.

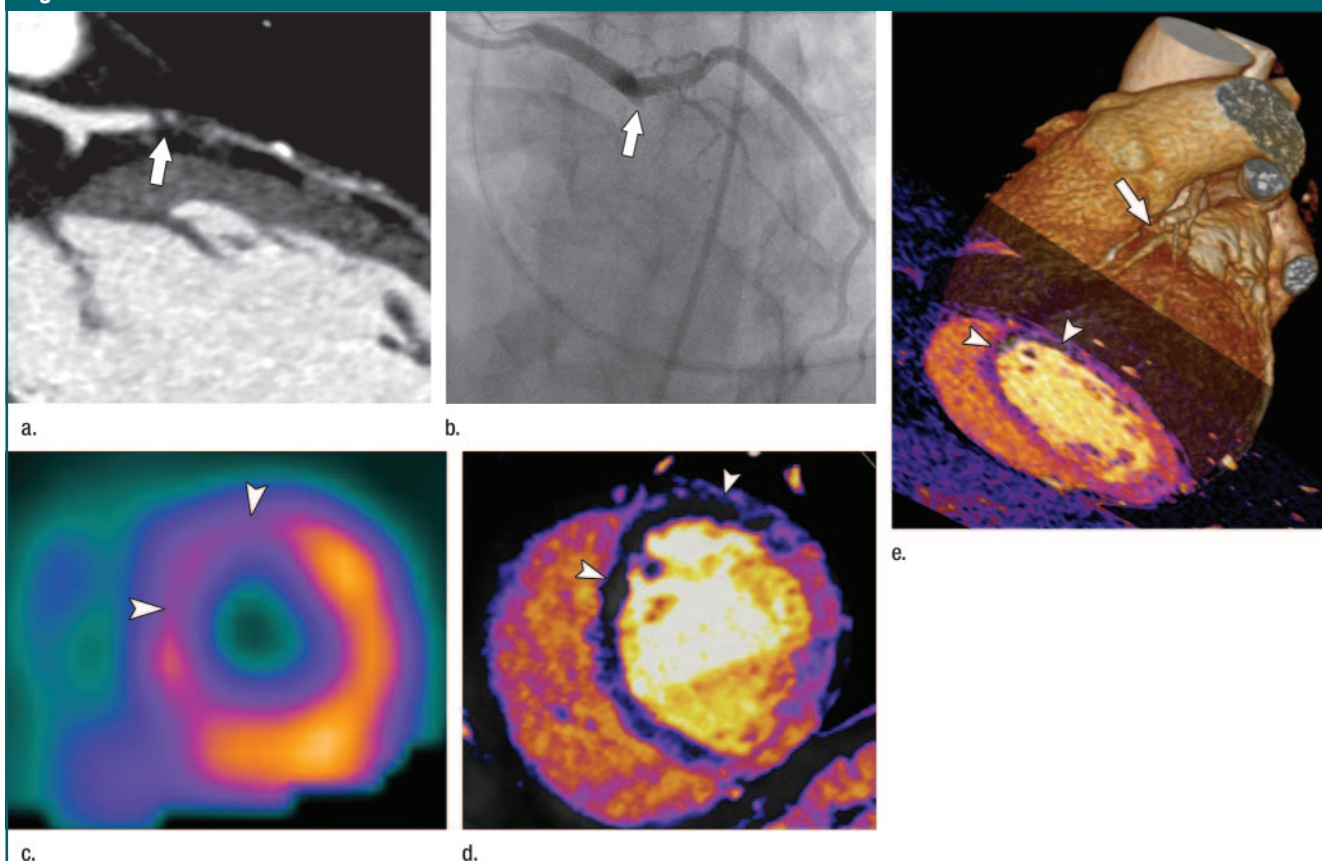
sitivity, 79% specificity, and 83% accuracy for the CT detection of myocardial infarct. More recently, initial reports have shown good correlation between dual-energy CT (see above) and SPECT nuclear myocardial perfusion imaging for detecting decreases in the myocardial blood supply (33) (Fig 11). Since dual-energy CT data can be postprocessed in different ways to provide routine morphologic information on vascular luminal integrity, as well as the status of the myocardial blood supply (Fig 11), this modality allows detection of obstructive CAD while simultaneously providing information on the hemodynamic effect of detected lesions on myo-

cardial perfusion from a single dual-energy CT acquisition.

Efforts are underway to apply the principles of nuclear rest-stress myocardial perfusion imaging for CT applications. Preclinical studies (32,169) investigating CT image acquisition under adenosine-induced stress demonstrate the feasibility of detecting reversible ischemia and accurately measuring myocardial blood flow during first-pass contrast-enhanced CT. On the basis of this preclinical evidence and emerging human investigations, it is conceivable that adenosine stress CT may provide similar information about the status of the myocardial blood supply as does stress nuclear myo-

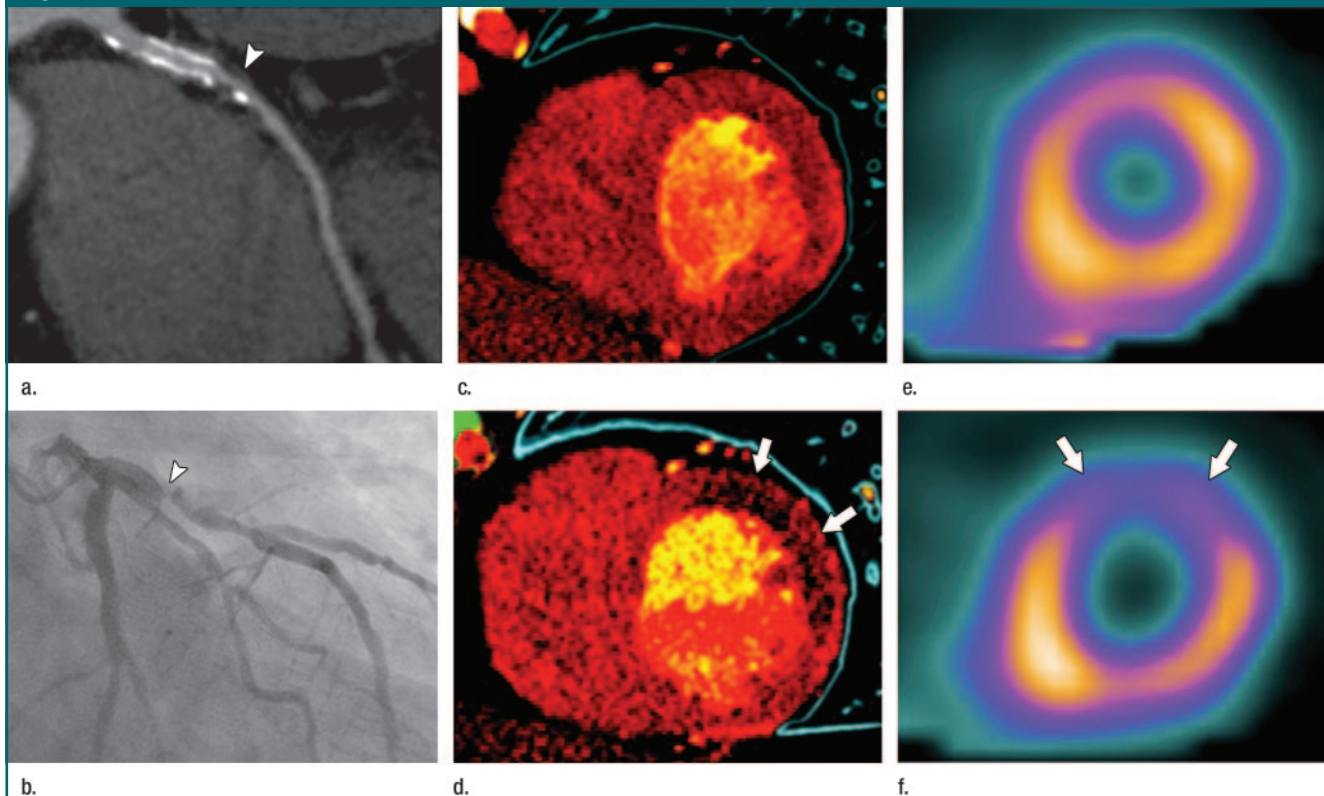
cardial perfusion imaging, while at the same time enabling the assessment of coronary artery morphology (Fig 12). George et al (170) recently performed a pilot study using adenosine stress 64- and 256-row CT in 40 patients with abnormal myocardial perfusion SPECT findings. They compared the combination of coronary CT angiography and rest-stress CT myocardial perfusion imaging to detect hemodynamically significant stenosis, with the combination of rest-stress SPECT and quantitative coronary angiography as the reference standard. These authors reported 86% sensitivity, 92% specificity, 92% positive predictive value, and 85% negative predictive value on per-

**Figure 11**



**Figure 11:** Images in 58-year-old woman with atypical chest pain and prior abnormal stress test. Contrast-enhanced retrospectively ECG-gated dual-source coronary CT angiogram obtained with dual-energy technique and displayed as (a) curved multiplanar reformation shows occlusion (arrow) of the mid LAD, which is subsequently confirmed at (b) invasive coronary catheterization in left anterior oblique caudal projection. (c) Prior rest perfusion SPECT in short-axis view shows corresponding fixed perfusion defect (arrowheads) in the anteroapical myocardium. Dual-energy reconstruction of the same CT scan displayed in (d) short-axis view and as (e) 3D volume rendering from a caudal left anterior oblique perspective show corresponding lack of iodine-based contrast material in the anteroapical left ventricular wall (arrowheads in d); e illustrates the anatomic relationship of LAD occlusion (arrow) to myocardial segments with decreased blood supply (arrowheads).

Figure 12



**Figure 12:** Contrast-enhanced retrospectively ECG-gated rest-stress dual-source coronary CT angiography performed with dual-energy technique at rest in 58-year-old man with prior LAD stent implantation, atypical chest pain, and abnormal stress test. **(a)** Curved multiplanar reformation of the rest CT scan shows patent LAD stent but complex, predominantly noncalcified lesion (arrowhead) just distal to the stent, subsequently confirmed at **(b)** conventional angiography in right anterior oblique cranial projection. **(c)** Dual-energy reconstruction of the same rest CT scan displayed in short-axis view shows unremarkable left ventricular iodine distribution at rest. **(d)** Repeat dual-energy CT scanning during adenosine-induced hyperemia shows decreased blood supply (arrows) in the anterolateral left ventricular myocardium. Findings are in good correlation with prior SPECT myocardial perfusion images acquired at **(e)** rest and **(f)** stress, which show reversible perfusion defect in the same myocardial area (arrows).

patient analysis and 79% sensitivity, 91% specificity, 75% positive predictive value, and 92% negative predictive value on per-vessel territory analysis. In this study, the estimated mean effective radiation dose was 21.6 mSv for combined rest and stress 256-row CT imaging and 16.8 mSv for 64-row stress CT examinations.

**Myocardial viability.**—The determination of myocardial viability with nuclear imaging (171) and MR imaging (172) is playing an increasing role in predicting the success of revascularization therapy. Myocardial viability has traditionally been assessed by using nuclear techniques (173,174), and more recently, MR imaging, which is now considered the clinical reference standard (172,175,176). De-

layed contrast-enhanced imaging with MR detects accumulation of gadolinium-based chelates in areas of myocardial necrosis after infarction (177). The same principle may apply to cardiac CT (Fig 13), since iodine-based intravenous contrast material has similar kinetics as gadolinium. It has repeatedly been shown in animal models that CT can depict iodine accumulation in areas of irreversibly damaged myocardium (178,179). CT has been shown to correlate well with delayed-enhancement MR imaging during the different stages of infarction, enabling assessment of reperfused infarction during acute, subacute, and chronic stages (180,181) and accurate determination of transmural involvement (182). In humans, delayed-enhancement CT

also correlates well with delayed-enhancement MR imaging, even though CT systematically underestimates the true infarct size as compared with MR imaging (168,183–185).

So far, there is no universal agreement on the most suitable protocol for delayed-enhancement CT imaging. Some studies indicate that the highest difference in contrast attenuation between a normal and infarcted myocardium occurs 5 minutes after intravenous iodinated contrast material injection (178); however, intervals of up to 15 minutes after contrast material injection have been proposed. Low kilovoltage (eg, 80 kVp) protocols for delayed-enhancement CT imaging have been shown to result in better iodine

contrast differentiation (186). The calculated additional radiation exposure from performing delayed enhancement CT for assessment of myocardial viability is approximately 3.8 mSv in female and 2.8 mSv in male patients (183).

The efforts at further refining cardiac CT into a technique that can assess coronary artery anatomy, function, perfusion, and viability are likely to continue and intensify. The effectiveness of these efforts in challenging the role of traditional physiologic testing remains to be seen. However, patient evaluation with a single, noninvasive modality is likely to provide safer and cheaper evaluation with less radiation than the routine combination of nuclear myocardial perfusion imaging and conventional angiography currently needed to obtain this information.

### Coronary CT Angiography in a Changing Health Care Environment

#### Emerging Data about Outcome and Prognosis

As coronary CT angiography is increasingly becoming a clinical tool in widespread use, we note substantial growth of the evidence base regarding

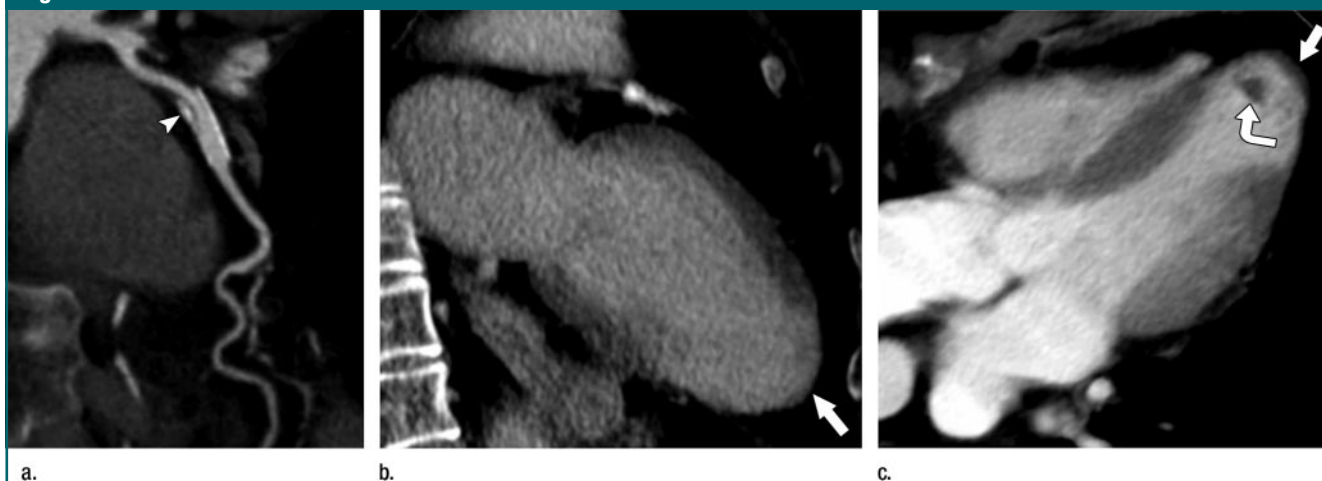
outcomes and prognostic value of this test. There is evidence that the extent and severity of CAD defined at coronary CT angiography predicts all-cause mortality. In a consecutive cohort of more than 1000 symptomatic patients older than 45 years of age, disease markers obtained at coronary CT angiography could identify increased risk for all-cause death, whereas a negative coronary CT angiogram portended an extremely low risk (79). In another cohort of 100 patients undergoing coronary CT angiography, the extent and severity of CT markers of CAD during 16-month follow-up was closely associated with the occurrence of major cardiac events, while the excellent prognosis in patients with a normal test result was confirmed (82). A recent study (81) documented the safety of ruling out coronary artery stenosis solely on the basis of a normal coronary CT angiogram and showed a concomitant reduction in conventional coronary catheterizations. In a cohort of more than 1000 consecutive symptomatic outpatients who were initially managed solely on the basis of coronary CT angiography findings, there were only two patients in whom significant stenosis was detected at subsequent cor-

onary catheterization during 6-month clinical follow-up (187). Clinical outcomes over a 9-month follow-up in almost 2000 patients who underwent coronary CT angiography were no different from those of a matched cohort of more than 7000 patients undergoing SPECT (188). The results of these studies are consistent with the high negative predictive value of a normal coronary CT angiogram, which has been consistently demonstrated in the early investigations and strongly supports the potential role of coronary CT angiography as a frontline test in the diagnostic algorithm of CAD.

#### Evolution of Cardiovascular Disease Management

The paradigm for CAD management is undergoing pivotal transitions. For the longest time, percutaneous coronary intervention with coronary artery stent placement had been one of the most rapidly growing procedures in medicine, while the number of coronary artery bypass surgeries was steadily declining (1). Controversy remains as to whether patient outcome is better with percutaneous or with surgical revascularization (189–193). With the availability of ever more refined and potent pharmaceutical

Figure 13



**Figure 13:** Contrast-enhanced retrospectively ECG-gated dual-source coronary CT angiography in a 49-year-old woman with previous inferoapical infarct and prior LAD stent placement. (a) Curved multiplanar reformation shows mild proximal in-stent re-stenosis (arrowhead) of the LAD stent due to intimal hyperplasia. Multiplanar reformations of delayed, low-radiation-dose repeat CT acquisition after 6 minutes displayed as (b) two-chamber long-axis and (c) three-chamber views show delayed enhancement (straight arrow) of the infarcted inferoapical myocardium, as well as formation of a layered apical thrombus (curved arrow) as an incidental finding.

agents, however, medical therapy is emerging as a formidable contender to invasive therapies for CAD management. One of the most publicized recent testimonies to this development is the Clinical Outcomes Utilizing Revascularization and Aggressive Drug Evaluation (COURAGE) trial (194). This investigation and prior work (195–197) support the notion that the outcome of patients with chronic angina does not differ with optimal medical treatment compared with percutaneous coronary intervention. Although the design and conclusions of these trials have predictably been challenged (198,199), the paradigm of optimal medical treatment as the core of CAD management is increasingly gaining support. For the first time since their introduction, we see slowed growth or even decline of coronary artery stent-placement procedures (200). Use of medical therapy as part of a program of primary and secondary prevention and improvements in screening and risk stratification have widely been credited with the current sharp downward trend in cardiovascular disease mortality (1). Efforts are ongoing to further improve this approach by identifying new markers and developing new strategies for ever finer risk stratification and disease prevention. The current renaissance of coronary artery calcium scoring is reflective of the desire for more sensitive methods of identifying at-risk individuals and for customizing the aggressiveness of risk modification. As outlined above, coronary CT angiography is the only non-invasive modality that enables appreciation of the entire coronary atherosclerotic plaque burden (Fig 10). The atherosclerotic plaque burden is the substrate of all coronary events, for example, stable angina in the presence of heavily calcified stenotic lesions (142) or acute coronary syndrome due to sudden rupture of predominantly noncalcified plaque (201). The current evidence base does not justify the use of coronary CT angiography for population-based screening of asymptomatic individuals for coronary athero-

sclerosis (54). However, the above considerations along with ongoing technical refinement (eg, lower radiation dose) and emerging data (82,202) on the prognostic implications of plaque composition at coronary CT angiography may suggest that select asymptomatic high-risk (ie, those with a dismal combination of multiple risk factors) individuals could benefit from finer risk stratification by determining the extent and phenotype of their entire coronary atherosclerotic disease burden to help determine the appropriate level of aggressiveness of medical risk management and its success (203).

### Cost-effectiveness

Initial reports demonstrate that coronary CT angiography is particularly cost-effective in symptomatic subjects with low and intermediate pretest probability of obstructive disease (204), which supports this indication as appropriate (51–55). In their study, Dewey et al (204) concluded that for patients with a 10%–50% pretest likelihood of CAD, coronary CT angiography was the most cost-effective approach, whereas in individuals with a likelihood for disease above 60%, conventional catheterization remains the most effective first line test. Several investigations highlighted the cost-effectiveness advantage of coronary CT angiography over nuclear myocardial perfusion imaging (80,188). A recent analysis of Medicare category III transaction codes showed a reduction of 27% in adjusted total health care costs and of 33% in disease-specific expenditures when coronary CT angiography was used instead of SPECT (188).

In the assessment of patients with acute chest pain, all analyses available to date demonstrate substantial savings when CT is integrated in the diagnostic algorithm (107,108,205,206). Compared with the standard of care work-up, significant reductions in the length of hospital stay and cost-savings ranging from the hundreds to thousands of dollars per patient have been reported (107,108). Khare et al (206) used a

computer model to estimate the cost-effectiveness of coronary 64-section CT angiography in the emergency department compared with an observation unit stay that included stress ECG or stress echocardiography for the evaluation of low-risk patients with chest pain in the emergency department. According to their analysis, the thresholds where coronary CT angiography constituted a cost-saving strategy compared with the conventional work-up were the cost of CT of less than \$2097, the cost of observation unit care of more than \$1092, and a prevalence of CAD of less than 70% (206), again emphasizing the impact of pretest likelihood on cost-effectiveness. In a randomized controlled trial of coronary CT angiography for evaluation of acute chest pain, Goldstein et al (107) investigated 203 individuals with acute chest pain in the emergency department. The authors found that CT evaluation reduced the time to diagnosis compared with the standard of care (3.4 hours vs 15.0 hours) and lowered costs (\$1586 vs \$1872). The use of CT in the triage of patients with acute chest pain has been shown to be particularly cost-effective in women, who traditionally present a greater challenge for the diagnostic work-up of acute chest pain than men (205). For example, Ladapo et al observed that coronary CT angiography was cost-saving in women under a wide variety of model assumptions (205).

Thus, rapidly accumulating evidence-based data increasingly support that coronary CT angiography, if used according to established guidelines (54), is cost-effective. The increasing recognition of the utility of this test as a core component in the work-up and management of CAD can benefit patients and the health care system as a whole.

### Conclusion

In summary, current technical limitations, especially the association of coronary CT angiography with relatively high levels of radiation, will be increasingly addressed by ongoing re-

finements in technology. Along with an increasing evidence base, guidelines for appropriate indication are in place and are evolving to ensure appropriate use, curb overutilization, and ensure cost-effectiveness. New technologies and new applications are constantly being explored and are widening the scope of coronary CT angiography over mere coronary artery assessment to the complete analysis of cardiac morphology, function, perfusion, and viability. Considering all of the above, we believe that there can be no doubt over the rapidly expanding role and growing importance of coronary CT angiography.

## References

- Rosamond W, Flegal K, Furie K, et al. Heart disease and stroke statistics: 2008 update—a report from the American Heart Association Statistics Committee and Stroke Statistics Subcommittee. *Circulation* 2008;117:e25–e146.
- Boyd DP, Lipton MJ. Cardiac computed tomography. *Proc IEEE* 1983;71:298–307.
- Lipton MJ, Higgins CB, Farmer D, Boyd DP. Cardiac imaging with a high-speed cine-CT scanner: preliminary results. *Radiology* 1984;152:579–582.
- Ohnesorge B, Flohr T, Becker C, et al. Cardiac imaging by means of electrocardiographically gated multislice spiral CT: initial experience. *Radiology* 2000;217:564–571.
- Kopp AF, Ohnesorge B, Becker C, et al. Reproducibility and accuracy of coronary calcium measurements with multi-detector row versus electron-beam CT. *Radiology* 2002;225:113–119.
- Achenbach S, Ulzheimer S, Baum U, et al. Noninvasive coronary angiography by retrospectively ECG-gated multislice spiral CT. *Circulation* 2000;102:2823–2828.
- Juergens KU, Grude M, Fallenber EM, et al. Using ECG-gated multidetector CT to evaluate global left ventricular myocardial function in patients with coronary artery disease. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 2002;179:1545–1550.
- Schroeder S, Kopp AF, Baumbach A, et al. Noninvasive detection and evaluation of atherosclerotic coronary plaques with multislice computed tomography. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2001;37:1430–1435.
- Kuettner A, Beck T, Drosch T, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of noninvasive coronary imaging using 16-detector slice spiral computed tomography with 188 ms temporal resolution. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2005;45:123–127.
- Ropers D, Baum U, Pohle K, et al. Detection of coronary artery stenoses with thin-slice multi-detector row spiral computed tomography and multiplanar reconstruction. *Circulation* 2003;107:664–666.
- Dewey M, Hoffmann H, Hamm B. CT coronary angiography using 16 and 64 simultaneous detector rows: intraindividual comparison. *Rofo* 2007;179:581–586.
- Burgstahler C, Reimann A, Brodoefel H, et al. Quantitative parameters to compare image quality of non-invasive coronary angiography with 16-slice, 64-slice and dual-source computed tomography. *Eur Radiol* 2009;19:584–590.
- Deetjen A, Mollmann S, Conradi G, et al. Use of automatic exposure control in multislice computed tomography of the coronaries: comparison of 16-slice and 64-slice scanner data with conventional coronary angiography. *Heart* 2007;93:1040–1043.
- Jakobs TF, Becker CR, Ohnesorge B, et al. Multislice helical CT of the heart with retrospective ECG gating: reduction of radiation exposure by ECG-controlled tube current modulation. *Eur Radiol* 2002;12:1081–1086.
- Hamon M, Morello R, Riddell JW. Coronary arteries: diagnostic performance of 16- versus 64-section spiral CT compared with invasive coronary angiography—meta-analysis. *Radiology* 2007;245:720–731.
- Flohr T, Stierstorfer K, Raupach R, Ulzheimer S, Bruder H. Performance evaluation of a 64-slice CT system with z-flying focal spot. *Rofo* 2004;176:1803–1810.
- Herzog C, Nguyen SA, Savino G, et al. Does two-segment image reconstruction at 64-section CT coronary angiography improve image quality and diagnostic accuracy? *Radiology* 2007;244:121–129.
- Halliburton SS, Stillman AE, Flohr T, et al. Do segmented reconstruction algorithms for cardiac multi-slice computed tomography improve image quality? *Herz* 2003;28:20–31.
- Herzog C, Arning-Erb M, Zangos S, et al. Multi-detector row CT coronary angiography: influence of reconstruction technique and heart rate on image quality. *Radiology* 2006;238:75–86.
- Leschka S, Wildermuth S, Boehm T, et al. Noninvasive coronary angiography with 64-section CT: effect of average heart rate and heart rate variability on image quality. *Radiology* 2006;241:378–385.
- Ritman EL, Kinsey JH, Robb RA, Gilbert BK, Harris LD, Wood EH. Three-dimensional imaging of heart, lungs, and circulation. *Science* 1980;210:273–280.
- Wood EH. Noninvasive three-dimensional viewing of the motion and anatomical structure of the heart, lungs, and circulatory system by high speed computerized X-ray tomography. *CRC Crit Rev Biochem* 1979;7:161–186.
- Flohr TG, McCollough CH, Bruder H, et al. First performance evaluation of a dual-source CT (DSCT) system. *Eur Radiol* 2006;16:256–268.
- Johnson TR, Nikolaou K, Wintersperger BJ, et al. Dual-source CT cardiac imaging: initial experience. *Eur Radiol* 2006;16:1409–1415.
- Leber AW, Johnson T, Becker A, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of dual-source multislice CT-coronary angiography in patients with an intermediate pretest likelihood for coronary artery disease. *Eur Heart J* 2007;28:2354–2360.
- Ropers U, Ropers D, Pflederer T, et al. Influence of heart rate on the diagnostic accuracy of dual-source computed tomography coronary angiography. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2007;50:2393–2398.
- Rybicki FJ, Otero HJ, Steigner ML, et al. Initial evaluation of coronary images from 320-detector row computed tomography. *Int J Cardiovasc Imaging* 2008;24:535–546.
- Dewey M, Zimmermann E, Laule M, Rutsch W, Hamm B. Three-vessel coronary artery disease examined with 320-slice computed tomography coronary angiography. *Eur Heart J* 2008;29:1669.
- Mori S, Endo M, Nishizawa K, Murase K, Fujiwara H, Tanada S. Comparison of patient doses in 256-slice CT and 16-slice CT scanners. *Br J Radiol* 2006;79:56–61.
- Mori S, Kondo C, Suzuki N, Hattori A, Kusakabe M, Endo M. Volumetric coronary angiography using the 256-detector row computed tomography scanner: comparison in vivo and in vitro with porcine models. *Acta Radiol* 2006;47:186–191.
- Kido T, Kurata A, Higashino H, et al. Cardiac imaging using 256-detector row four-dimensional CT: preliminary clinical report. *Radiat Med* 2007;25:38–44.
- George RT, Jerosch-Herold M, Silva C, et al. Quantification of myocardial perfusion using dynamic 64-detector computed tomography. *Invest Radiol* 2007;42:815–822.
- Ruzsics B, Lee H, Powers ER, Flohr TG, Costello P, Schoepf UJ. Images in cardiovascular medicine: myocardial ischemia diagnosed by dual-energy computed to-

- mography—correlation with single-photon emission computed tomography. *Circulation* 2008;117:1244–1245.
34. Ruzsics B, Lee H, Zwerner PL, Gebregziabher M, Costello P, Schoepf UJ. Dual-energy CT of the heart for diagnosing coronary artery stenosis and myocardial ischemia: initial experience. *Eur Radiol* 2008;18:2414–2424.
  35. Chiro GD, Brooks RA, Kessler RM, et al. Tissue signatures with dual-energy computed tomography. *Radiology* 1979;131:521–523.
  36. Millner MR, McDavid WD, Waggener RG, Dennis MJ, Payne WH, Sank VJ. Extrac-tion of information from CT scans at differ-ent energies. *Med Phys* 1979;6:70–71.
  37. Kalender WA, Perman WH, Vetter JR, Klotz E. Evaluation of a prototype dual-en-ergy computed tomographic apparatus. I. Phantom studies. *Med Phys* 1986;13:334–339.
  38. Vetter JR, Perman WH, Kalender WA, Mazess RB, Holden JE. Evaluation of a pro-prototype dual-energy computed tomographic apparatus. II. Determination of vertebral bone mineral content. *Med Phys* 1986;13:340–343.
  39. Johnson TR, Krauss B, Sedlmair M, et al. Material differentiation by dual energy CT: initial experience. *Eur Radiol* 2007;17:1510–1517.
  40. Brenner DJ, Hall EJ. Computed tomography: an increasing source of radiation exposure. *N Engl J Med* 2007;357:2277–2284.
  41. Einstein AJ, Henzlova MJ, Rajagopalan S. Estimating risk of cancer associated with radiation exposure from 64-slice computed tomography coronary angiography. *JAMA* 2007;298:317–323.
  42. Hausleiter J, Meyer T, Hermann F, et al. Estimated radiation dose associated with cardiac CT angiography. *JAMA* 2009;301:500–507.
  43. Leschka S, Stolzmann P, Schmid FT, et al. Low kilovoltage cardiac dual-source CT: at-tenuation, noise, and radiation dose. *Eur Radiol* 2008;18:1809–1817.
  44. Abada HT, Larchez C, Daoud B, Sigal-Cinquallbre A, Paul JF. MDCT of the coro-nary arteries: feasibility of low-dose CT with ECG-pulsed tube current modulation to reduce radiation dose. *AJR Am J Roent-genol* 2006;186(6 suppl 2):S387–S390.
  45. Scheffel H, Alkadhi H, Leschka S, et al. Low-dose CT coronary angiography in the step-and-shoot mode: diagnostic performance. *Heart* 2008;94:1132–1137.
  46. Stolzmann P, Scheffel H, Schertler T, et al. Radiation dose estimates in dual-source computed tomography coronary angiogra-phy. *Eur Radiol* 2008;18:592–599.
  47. Husmann L, Valenta I, Gaemperli O, et al. Feasibility of low-dose coronary CT an-giography: first experience with prospec-tive ECG-gating. *Eur Heart J* 2008;29:191–197.
  48. Schoepf UJ, Becker CR, Ohnesorge BM, Yucel EK. CT of coronary artery disease. *Radiology* 2004;232:18–37.
  49. Earls JP, Berman EL, Urban BA, et al. Pro-spectively gated transverse coronary CT angiography versus retrospectively gated helical technique: improved image quality and reduced radiation dose. *Radiology* 2008;246:742–753.
  50. Thibault JB, Sauer KD, Bouman CA, Hsieh J. A three-dimensional statistical approach to improved image quality for multislice helical CT. *Med Phys* 2007;34:4526–4544.
  51. Jacobs JE, Boxt LM, Desjardins B, Fishman EK, Larson PA, Schoepf J. ACR practice guideline for the performance and inter-pretation of cardiac computed tomography (CT). *J Am Coll Radiol* 2006;3:677–685.
  52. Stillman AE, Oudkerk M, Ackerman M, et al. Use of multidetector computed tomogra-phy for the assessment of acute chest pain: a consensus statement of the North Ameri-can Society of Cardiac Imaging and the Eu-ropean Society of Cardiac Radiology. *Int J Cardiovasc Imaging* 2007;23:415–427.
  53. Stillman AE, Oudkerk M, Ackerman M, et al. Use of multidetector computed tomogra-phy for the assessment of acute chest pain: a consensus statement of the North Ameri-can Society of Cardiac Imaging and the Eu-ropean Society of Cardiac Radiology. *Eur Radiol* 2007;17:2196–2207.
  54. Hendel RC, Patel MR, Kramer CM, et al. ACCF/ACR/SCCT/SCMR/ASNC/NASCI/SCAI/SIR 2006 appropriateness criteria for cardiac computed tomography and cardiac magnetic resonance imaging: a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation Quality Strat-egic Directions Committee Appropriateness Criteria Working Group, American College of Radiology, Society of Cardiovascular Com-puted Tomography, Society for Cardiovascular Magnetic Resonance, American Society of Nu-clear Cardiology, North American Society for Cardiac Imaging, Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions, and Society of Interventional Radiology. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2006;48:1475–1497.
  55. Schroeder S, Achenbach S, Bengel F, et al. Cardiac computed tomography: indications, applications, limitations, and training re-quirements—report of a Writing Group de-veloped by the Working Group Nuclear Cardi-ology and Cardiac CT of the European Soci-ety of Cardiology and the European Council of Nuclear Cardiology. *Eur Heart J* 2008;29:531–556.
  56. Schoepf UJ, Becker CR, Obuchowski NA, et al. Multi-slice computed tomography as a screening tool for colon cancer, lung cancer and coronary artery disease. *Eur Radiol* 2001;11:1975–1985.
  57. Obuchowski NA, Graham RJ, Baker ME, Powell KA. Ten criteria for effective screening: their application to multislice CT screening for pulmonary and colorec-tal cancers. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 2001;176:1357–1362.
  58. Nieman K, Oudkerk M, Rensing BJ, et al. Coronary angiography with multi-slice computed tomography. *Lancet* 2001;357:599–603.
  59. Garcia MJ, Lessick J, Hoffmann MH. Accu-racy of 16-row multidetector computed to-mography for the assessment of coronary artery stenosis. *JAMA* 2006;296:403–411.
  60. Hoffmann MH, Shi H, Schmitz BL, et al. Non-invasive coronary angiography with multi-slice computed tomography. *JAMA* 2005;293:2471–2478.
  61. Kopp AF, Schroeder S, Kuettner A, et al. Non-invasive coronary angiography with high resolution multidetector-row com-puted tomography: results in 102 patients. *Eur Heart J* 2002;23:1714–1725.
  62. Becker CR, Ohnesorge BM, Schoepf UJ, Reiser MF. Current development of cardiac imaging with multidetector-row CT. *Eur J Radiol* 2000;36:97–103.
  63. Knez A, Becker C, Ohnesorge B, Haberl R, Reiser M, Steinbeck G. Noninvasive detec-tion of coronary artery stenosis by multi-slice helical computed tomography. *Circu-lation* 2000;101:E221–E222.
  64. Nieman K, Cademartiri F, Lemos PA, Raaijmakers R, Pattinama PM, de Feyter PJ. Reliable noninvasive coronary angiogra-phy with fast submillimeter multislice spiral computed tomography. *Circulation* 2002;106:2051–2054.
  65. van der Zaag-Loonen HJ, Dikkers R, de Bock GH, Oudkerk M. The clinical value of a negative multi-detector computed to-mographic angiography in patients suspected of coronary artery disease: a meta-analysis. *Eur Radiol* 2006;16:2748–2756.
  66. Leschka S, Alkadhi H, Plass A, et al. Accu-racy of MSCT coronary angiography with 64-slice technology: first experience. *Eur Heart J* 2005;26:1482–1487.
  67. Raff GL, Gallagher MJ, O'Neill WW,

- Goldstein JA. Diagnostic accuracy of noninvasive coronary angiography using 64-slice spiral computed tomography. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2005;46:552–557.
68. Fine JJ, Hopkins CB, Ruff N, Newton FC. Comparison of accuracy of 64-slice cardiovascular computed tomography with coronary angiography in patients with suspected coronary artery disease. *Am J Cardiol* 2006;97:173–174.
  69. Mollet NR, Cademartiri F, van Mieghem CA, et al. High-resolution spiral computed tomography coronary angiography in patients referred for diagnostic conventional coronary angiography. *Circulation* 2005;112:2318–2323.
  70. Ehara M, Surmely JF, Kawai M, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of 64-slice computed tomography for detecting angiographically significant coronary artery stenosis in an unselected consecutive patient population: comparison with conventional invasive angiography. *Circ J* 2006;70:564–571.
  71. Oncel D, Oncel G, Tastan A, Tamci B. Detection of significant coronary artery stenosis with 64-section MDCT angiography. *Eur J Radiol* 2007;62:394–405.
  72. Ong TK, Chin SP, Liew CK, et al. Accuracy of 64-row multidetector computed tomography in detecting coronary artery disease in 134 symptomatic patients: influence of calcification. *Am Heart J* 2006;151:1323.e1–1323.e6.
  73. Ropers D, Rixe J, Anders K, et al. Usefulness of multidetector row spiral computed tomography with 64- x 0.6-mm collimation and 330-ms rotation for the noninvasive detection of significant coronary artery stenoses. *Am J Cardiol* 2006;97:343–348.
  74. Brodoefel H, Burgstahler C, Tsiflikas I, et al. Dual-source CT: effect of heart rate, heart rate variability, and calcification on image quality and diagnostic accuracy. *Radiology* 2008;247:346–355.
  75. Johnson TR, Nikolaou K, Busch S, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of dual-source computed tomography in the diagnosis of coronary artery disease. *Invest Radiol* 2007;42:684–691.
  76. Weustink AC, Meijboom WB, Mollet NR, et al. Reliable high-speed coronary computed tomography in symptomatic patients. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2007;50:786–794.
  77. Meijboom WB, Meijjs MF, Schuijf JD, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of 64-slice computed tomography coronary angiography: a prospective, multicenter, multivendor study. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2008;52:2135–2144.
  78. Miller JM, Rochitte CE, Dewey M, et al. Diagnostic performance of coronary angiography by 64-row CT. *N Engl J Med* 2008;359:2324–2336.
  79. Min JK, Shaw LJ, Devereux RB, et al. Prognostic value of multidetector coronary computed tomographic angiography for prediction of all-cause mortality. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2007;50:1161–1170.
  80. Mowatt G, Cummins E, Waugh N, et al. Systematic review of the clinical effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of 64-slice or higher computed tomography angiography as an alternative to invasive coronary angiography in the investigation of coronary artery disease. *Health Technol Assess* 2008;12:iii–iv, ix–143.
  81. Gilard M, Le Gal G, Cornily JC, et al. Mid-term prognosis of patients with suspected coronary artery disease and normal multislice computed tomographic findings: a prospective management outcome study. *Arch Intern Med* 2007;167:1686–1689.
  82. Pundziute G, Schuijf JD, Jukema JW, et al. Prognostic value of multislice computed tomography coronary angiography in patients with known or suspected coronary artery disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2007;49:62–70.
  83. Husmann L, Gaemperli O, Schepis T, et al. Accuracy of quantitative coronary angiography with computed tomography and its dependency on plaque composition: plaque composition and accuracy of cardiac CT. *Int J Cardiovasc Imaging* 2008;24:895–904.
  84. Oncel D, Oncel G, Tastan A. Effectiveness of dual-source CT coronary angiography for the evaluation of coronary artery disease in patients with atrial fibrillation: initial experience. *Radiology* 2007;245:703–711.
  85. Dewey M. Coronary CT angiography in patients with atrial fibrillation [letter]. *Radiology* 2008;248:701.
  86. Boll DT, Merkle EM, Paulson EK, Fleiter TR. Coronary stent patency: dual-energy multidetector CT assessment in a pilot study with anthropomorphic phantom. *Radiology* 2008;247:687–695.
  87. Boll DT, Merkle EM, Paulson EK, Mirza RA, Fleiter TR. Calcified vascular plaque specimens: assessment with cardiac dual-energy multidetector CT in anthropomorphically moving heart phantom. *Radiology* 2008;249:119–126.
  88. Schoepf UJ, Zwerner PL, Savino G, Herzog C, Kerl JM, Costello P. Coronary CT angiography. *Radiology* 2007;244:48–63.
  89. Grosse C, Globits S, Hergan K. Forty-slice spiral computed tomography of the coronary arteries: assessment of image quality and diagnostic accuracy in a non-selected patient population. *Acta Radiol* 2007;48:36–44.
  90. Gaemperli O, Schepis T, Koepfli P, et al. Accuracy of 64-slice CT angiography for the detection of functionally relevant coronary stenoses as assessed with myocardial perfusion SPECT. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2007;34:1162–1171.
  91. Antman EM, Cohen M, Bernink PJ, et al. The TIMI risk score for unstable angina/non-ST elevation MI: a method for prognostication and therapeutic decision making. *JAMA* 2000;284:835–842.
  92. Schull MJ, Vermeulen MJ, Stukel TA. The risk of missed diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction associated with emergency department volume. *Ann Emerg Med* 2006;48:647–655.
  93. Chan WK, Leung KF, Lee YF, Hung CS, Kung NS, Lau FL. Undiagnosed acute myocardial infarction in the accident and emergency department: reasons and implications. *Eur J Emerg Med* 1998;5:219–224.
  94. McCarthy BD, Beshansky JR, D'Agostino RB, Selker HP. Missed diagnoses of acute myocardial infarction in the emergency department: results from a multicenter study. *Ann Emerg Med* 1993;22:579–582.
  95. Meyer MC, Mooney RP, Sekera AK. A critical pathway for patients with acute chest pain and low risk for short-term adverse cardiac events: role of outpatient stress testing. *Ann Emerg Med* 2006;47:435.e1–435.e3.
  96. Lee HY, Yoo SM, White CS. Coronary CT angiography in emergency department patients with acute chest pain: triple rule-out protocol versus dedicated coronary CT angiography. *Int J Cardiovasc Imaging* 2009;25:319–326.
  97. Stein PD, Fowler SE, Goodman LR, et al. Multidetector computed tomography for acute pulmonary embolism. *N Engl J Med* 2006;354:2317–2327.
  98. Perrier A, Roy PM, Sanchez O, et al. Multidetector-row computed tomography in suspected pulmonary embolism. *N Engl J Med* 2005;352:1760–1768.
  99. Righini M, Le Gal G, Aujesky D, et al. Diagnosis of pulmonary embolism by multidetector CT alone or combined with venous ultrasonography of the leg: a randomised non-inferiority trial. *Lancet* 2008;371:1343–1352.
  100. Nienaber CA, Eagle KA. Aortic dissection: new frontiers in diagnosis and management. I From etiology to diagnostic strategies. *Circulation* 2003;108:628–635.
  101. Erbel R, Alfonso F, Boileau C, et al. Diagno-

- sis and management of aortic dissection. *Eur Heart J* 2001;22:1642–1681.
102. Thoongsuwan N, Stern EJ. Chest CT scanning for clinical suspected thoracic aortic dissection: beware the alternate diagnosis. *Emerg Radiol* 2002;9:257–261.
  103. Herzog C, Zwerner PL, Doll JR, et al. Significant coronary artery stenosis: comparison on per-patient and per-vessel or per-segment basis at 64-section CT angiography. *Radiology* 2007;244:112–120.
  104. Hoffmann U, Pena AJ, Moselewski F, et al. MDCT in early triage of patients with acute chest pain. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 2006;187:1240–1247.
  105. Hoffmann U, Nagurny JT, Moselewski F, et al. Coronary multidetector computed tomography in the assessment of patients with acute chest pain. *Circulation* 2006;114:2251–2260.
  106. Gallagher MJ, Ross MA, Raff GL, Goldstein JA, O'Neill WW, O'Neil B. The diagnostic accuracy of 64-slice computed tomography coronary angiography compared with stress nuclear imaging in emergency department low-risk chest pain patients. *Ann Emerg Med* 2007;49:125–136.
  107. Goldstein JA, Gallagher MJ, O'Neill WW, Ross MA, O'Neil BJ, Raff GL. A randomized controlled trial of multi-slice coronary computed tomography for evaluation of acute chest pain. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2007;49:863–871.
  108. Savino G, Herzog C, Costello P, Schoepf UJ. 64 slice cardiovascular CT in the emergency department: concepts and first experiences. *Radiol Med* 2006;111:481–496.
  109. Rubinshtein R, Halon DA, Gaspar T, et al. Usefulness of 64-slice cardiac computed tomographic angiography for diagnosing acute coronary syndromes and predicting clinical outcome in emergency department patients with chest pain of uncertain origin. *Circulation* 2007;115:1762–1768.
  110. White HD, Norris RM, Brown MA, Brandt PW, Whitlock RM, Wild CJ. Left ventricular end-systolic volume as the major determinant of survival after recovery from myocardial infarction. *Circulation* 1987;76:44–51.
  111. Hammermeister KE, DeRouen TA, Dodge HT. Variables predictive of survival in patients with coronary disease: selection by univariate and multivariate analyses from the clinical, electrocardiographic, exercise, arteriographic, and quantitative angiographic evaluations. *Circulation* 1979;59:421–430.
  112. Yamamuro M, Tadamura E, Kubo S, et al. Cardiac functional analysis with multidetector row CT and segmental reconstruction algorithm: comparison with echocardiography, SPECT, and MR imaging. *Radiology* 2005;234:381–390.
  113. Dewey M, Muller M, Eddicks S, et al. Evaluation of global and regional left ventricular function with 16-slice computed tomography, biplane cineventriculography, and two-dimensional transthoracic echocardiography: comparison with magnetic resonance imaging. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2006;48:2034–2044.
  114. Sugeng L, Mor-Avi V, Weinert L, et al. Quantitative assessment of left ventricular size and function: side-by-side comparison of real-time three-dimensional echocardiography and computed tomography with magnetic resonance reference. *Circulation* 2006;114:654–661.
  115. Bastarrika G, Arraiza M, Pueyo JC, Herraiz MJ, Zudaire B, Villanueva A. Quantification of left ventricular function and mass in cardiac dual-source CT (DSCT) exams: comparison of manual and semiautomatic segmentation algorithms. *Eur Radiol* 2008;18:939–946.
  116. Busch S, Johnson TR, Wintersperger BJ, et al. Quantitative assessment of left ventricular function with dual-source CT in comparison to cardiac magnetic resonance imaging: initial findings. *Eur Radiol* 2008;18:570–575.
  117. van der Vleuten PA, de Jonge GJ, Lubbers DD, et al. Evaluation of global left ventricular function assessment by dual-source computed tomography compared with MRI. *Eur Radiol* 2009;19:271–277.
  118. Juergens KU, Grude M, Maintz D, et al. Multi-detector row CT of left ventricular function with dedicated analysis software versus MR imaging: initial experience. *Radiology* 2004;230:403–410.
  119. Mahnken AH, Muhlenbruch G, Koos R, et al. Automated vs manual assessment of left ventricular function in cardiac multidetector row computed tomography: comparison with magnetic resonance imaging. *Eur Radiol* 2006;16:1416–1423.
  120. Mahnken AH, Koos R, Katoh M, et al. Sixteen-slice spiral CT versus MR imaging for the assessment of left ventricular function in acute myocardial infarction. *Eur Radiol* 2005;15:714–720.
  121. Raman SV, Shah M, McCarthy B, Garcia A, Ferketich AK. Multi-detector row cardiac computed tomography accurately quantifies right and left ventricular size and function compared with cardiac magnetic resonance. *Am Heart J* 2006;151:736–744.
  122. Cury RC, Nieman K, Shapiro MD, et al. Comprehensive assessment of myocardial perfusion defects, regional wall motion, and left ventricular function by using 64-section multidetector CT. *Radiology* 2008;248:466–475.
  123. Schepis T, Gaemperli O, Koepfli P, et al. Comparison of 64-slice CT with gated SPECT for evaluation of left ventricular function. *J Nucl Med* 2006;47:1288–1294.
  124. Bastarrika G, Arraiza M, De Cecco CN, Mastrobuoni S, Ubilla M, Rabago G. Quantification of left ventricular function and mass in heart transplant recipients using dual-source CT and MRI: initial clinical experience. *Eur Radiol* 2008;18:1784–1790.
  125. Grude M, Juergens KU, Wichter T, et al. Evaluation of global left ventricular myocardial function with electrocardiogram-gated multidetector computed tomography: comparison with magnetic resonance imaging. *Invest Radiol* 2003;38:653–661.
  126. Halliburton SS, Petersilka M, Schwartzman PR, Obuchowski N, White RD. Evaluation of left ventricular dysfunction using multiphasic reconstructions of coronary multi-slice computed tomography data in patients with chronic ischemic heart disease: validation against cine magnetic resonance imaging. *Int J Cardiovasc Imaging* 2003;19:73–83.
  127. Schlosser T, Pagonidis K, Herborn CU, et al. Assessment of left ventricular parameters using 16-MDCT and new software for endocardial and epicardial border delineation. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 2005;184:765–773.
  128. Cerqueira MD, Weissman NJ, Dilsizian V, et al. Standardized myocardial segmentation and nomenclature for tomographic imaging of the heart: a statement for healthcare professionals from the Cardiac Imaging Committee of the Council on Clinical Cardiology of the American Heart Association. *Circulation* 2002;105:539–542.
  129. Dirksen MS, Bax JJ, de Roos A, et al. Usefulness of dynamic multislice computed tomography of left ventricular function in unstable angina pectoris and comparison with echocardiography. *Am J Cardiol* 2002;90:1157–1160.
  130. Dirksen MS, Jukema JW, Bax JJ, et al. Cardiac multidetector-row computed tomography in patients with unstable angina. *Am J Cardiol* 2005;95:457–461.
  131. Fischbach R, Juergens KU, Ozgun M, et al. Assessment of regional left ventricular function with multidetector-row computed tomography versus magnetic resonance imaging. *Eur Radiol* 2007;17:1009–1017.
  132. Pflederer T, Ho KT, Anger T, et al. Assessment of regional left ventricular function by dual source computed tomography: inter-

- observer variability and validation to laevo-cardiography. *Eur J Radiol* 2008 Jul 9. [Epub ahead of print]
133. Wu YW, Tadamura E, Yamamuro M, et al. Estimation of global and regional cardiac function using 64-slice computed tomography: a comparison study with echocardiography, gated-SPECT and cardiovascular magnetic resonance. *Int J Cardiol* 2008;128:69–76.
  134. Henneman MM, Schuijf JD, Jukema JW, et al. Assessment of global and regional left ventricular function and volumes with 64-slice MSCT: a comparison with 2D echocardiography. *J Nucl Cardiol* 2006;13:480–487.
  135. Agatston AS, Janowitz WR, Hildner FJ, Zusmer NR, Viamonte M Jr, Detrano R. Quantification of coronary artery calcium using ultrafast computed tomography. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 1990;15:827–832.
  136. Greenland P, Bonow RO, Brundage BH, et al. ACCF/AHA 2007 clinical expert consensus document on coronary artery calcium scoring by computed tomography in global cardiovascular risk assessment and in evaluation of patients with chest pain: a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation Clinical Expert Consensus Task Force (ACCF/AHA Writing Committee to Update the 2000 Expert Consensus Document on Electron Beam Computed Tomography). *Circulation* 2007;115:402–426.
  137. O'Rourke RA, Brundage BH, Froelicher VF, et al. American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Expert Consensus document on electron-beam computed tomography for the diagnosis and prognosis of coronary artery disease. *Circulation* 2000;102:126–140.
  138. Becker CR, Knez A, Ohnesorge B, Schoepf UJ, Reiser MF. Imaging of noncalcified coronary plaques using helical CT with retrospective ECG gating. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 2000;175:423–424.
  139. Leber AW, Knez A, White CW, et al. Composition of coronary atherosclerotic plaques in patients with acute myocardial infarction and stable angina pectoris determined by contrast-enhanced multislice computed tomography. *Am J Cardiol* 2003;91:714–718.
  140. Libby P. Molecular bases of the acute coronary syndromes. *Circulation* 1995;91:2844–2850.
  141. Burke AP, Farb A, Malcom GT, Liang YH, Smialek J, Virmani R. Coronary risk factors and plaque morphology in men with coronary disease who died suddenly. *N Engl J Med* 1997;336:1276–1282.
  142. Beckman JA, Ganz J, Creager MA, Ganz P, Kinlay S. Relationship of clinical presentation and calcification of culprit coronary artery stenoses. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* 2001;21:1618–1622.
  143. Botnar RM, Stuber M, Kissinger KV, Kim WY, Spuentrup E, Manning WJ. Noninvasive coronary vessel wall and plaque imaging with magnetic resonance imaging. *Circulation* 2000;102:2582–2587.
  144. Nissen SE, Yock P. Intravascular ultrasound: novel pathophysiological insights and current clinical applications. *Circulation* 2001;103:604–616.
  145. Yabushita H, Bouma BE, Houser SL, et al. Characterization of human atherosclerosis by optical coherence tomography. *Circulation* 2002;106:1640–1645.
  146. Leber AW, Becker A, Knez A, et al. Accuracy of 64-slice computed tomography to classify and quantify plaque volumes in the proximal coronary system: a comparative study using intravascular ultrasound. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2006;47:672–677.
  147. Achenbach S, Moselewski F, Ropers D, et al. Detection of calcified and noncalcified coronary atherosclerotic plaque by contrast-enhanced, submillimeter multidetector spiral computed tomography: a segment-based comparison with intravascular ultrasound. *Circulation* 2004;109:14–17.
  148. Achenbach S, Ropers D, Hoffmann U, et al. Assessment of coronary remodeling in stenotic and nonstenotic coronary atherosclerotic lesions by multidetector spiral computed tomography. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2004;43:842–847.
  149. Kopp AF, Schroeder S, Baumbach A, et al. Non-invasive characterisation of coronary lesion morphology and composition by multislice CT: first results in comparison with intracoronary ultrasound. *Eur Radiol* 2001;11:1607–1611.
  150. Sun J, Zhang Z, Lu B, et al. Identification and quantification of coronary atherosclerotic plaques: a comparison of 64-MDCT and intravascular ultrasound. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 2008;190:748–754.
  151. Becker CR, Nikolaou K, Munders M, et al. Ex vivo coronary atherosclerotic plaque characterization with multi-detector-row CT. *Eur Radiol* 2003;13:2094–2098.
  152. Galonska M, Ducke F, Kertesz-Zborilova T, Meyer R, Gusk H, Knollmann FD. Characterization of atherosclerotic plaques in human coronary arteries with 16-slice multidetector row computed tomography by analysis of attenuation profiles. *Acad Radiol* 2008;15:222–230.
  153. Cademartiri F, Mollet NR, Runza G, et al. Influence of intracoronary attenuation on coronary plaque measurements using multislice computed tomography: observations in an ex vivo model of coronary computed tomography angiography. *Eur Radiol* 2005;15:1426–1431.
  154. Schroeder S, Kuettner A, Leitritz M, et al. Reliability of differentiating human coronary plaque morphology using contrast-enhanced multislice spiral computed tomography: a comparison with histology. *J Comput Assist Tomogr* 2004;28:449–454.
  155. Naghavi M, Libby P, Falk E, et al. From vulnerable plaque to vulnerable patient: a call for new definitions and risk assessment strategies. II. *Circulation* 2003;108:1772–1778.
  156. Naghavi M, Libby P, Falk E, et al. From vulnerable plaque to vulnerable patient: a call for new definitions and risk assessment strategies. I. *Circulation* 2003;108:1664–1672.
  157. Blackmon KN, Streck J, Thilo C, Bastarrika G, Costello P, Joseph Schoepf U. Reproducibility of automated noncalcified coronary artery plaque burden assessment at coronary CT angiography. *J Thorac Imaging* 2009;24:96–102.
  158. Hachamovitch R, Di Carli MF. Nuclear cardiology will remain the “gatekeeper” over CT angiography. *J Nucl Cardiol* 2007;14:634–644.
  159. Gaemperli O, Schepis T, Valenta I, et al. Functionally relevant coronary artery disease: comparison of 64-section CT angiography with myocardial perfusion SPECT. *Radiology* 2008;248:414–423.
  160. Nicol ED, Stirrup J, Reyes E, et al. Sixty-four-slice computed tomography coronary angiography compared with myocardial perfusion scintigraphy for the diagnosis of functionally significant coronary stenoses in patients with a low to intermediate likelihood of coronary artery disease. *J Nucl Cardiol* 2008;15:311–318.
  161. Hacker M, Jakobs T, Hack N, et al. Sixty-four slice spiral CT angiography does not predict the functional relevance of coronary artery stenoses in patients with stable angina. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2007;34:4–10.
  162. Marcassa C, Bax JJ, Bengel F, et al. Clinical value, cost-effectiveness, and safety of myocardial perfusion scintigraphy: a position statement. *Eur Heart J* 2008;29:557–563.
  163. Adams GL, Trimble MA, Brosnan RB, et al. Evaluation of combined cardiac positron emission tomography and coronary computed tomography angiography for the de-

- tection of coronary artery disease. *Nucl Med Commun* 2008;29:593–598.
164. Sampson UK, Dorbala S, Limaye A, Kwong R, Di Carli MF. Diagnostic accuracy of rubidium-82 myocardial perfusion imaging with hybrid positron emission tomography/computed tomography in the detection of coronary artery disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2007;49:1052–1058.
  165. Wolfkiel CJ, Ferguson JL, Chomka EV, et al. Measurement of myocardial blood flow by ultrafast computed tomography. *Circulation* 1987;76:1262–1273.
  166. Mahnken AH, Bruners P, Katoh M, Wildberger JE, Gunther RW, Buecker A. Dynamic multi-section CT imaging in acute myocardial infarction: preliminary animal experience. *Eur Radiol* 2006;16:746–752.
  167. Nieman K, Cury RC, Ferencik M, et al. Differentiation of recent and chronic myocardial infarction by cardiac computed tomography. *Am J Cardiol* 2006;98:303–308.
  168. Nikolaou K, Sanz J, Poon M, et al. Assessment of myocardial perfusion and viability from routine contrast-enhanced 16-detector-row computed tomography of the heart: preliminary results. *Eur Radiol* 2005;15:864–871.
  169. George RT, Silva C, Cordeiro MA, et al. Multidetector computed tomography myocardial perfusion imaging during adenosine stress. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2006;48:153–160.
  170. George RT, Arbab-Zadeh A, Miller JM, et al. Adenosine stress 64- and 256-row detector computed tomography angiography and perfusion imaging: a pilot study evaluating the transmural extent of perfusion abnormalities to predict atherosclerosis causing myocardial ischemia. *Circ Cardiovasc Imaging* 2009;2:174–182.
  171. Di Carli MF, Davidson M, Little R, et al. Value of metabolic imaging with positron emission tomography for evaluating prognosis in patients with coronary artery disease and left ventricular dysfunction. *Am J Cardiol* 1994;73:527–533.
  172. 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.
  173. Wijns W, Vatner SF, Camici PG. Hibernating myocardium. *N Engl J Med* 1998;339:173–181.
  174. Knuuti J, Schelbert HR, Bax JJ. The need for standardisation of cardiac FDG PET imaging in the evaluation of myocardial viability in patients with chronic ischaemic left ventricular dysfunction. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2002;29:1257–1266.
  175. Pennell DJ, Sechtem UP, Higgins CB, et al. Clinical indications for cardiovascular magnetic resonance (CMR): Consensus Panel report. *Eur Heart J* 2004;25:1940–1965.
  176. Klein C, Nekolla SG, Bengel FM, et al. Assessment of myocardial viability with contrast-enhanced magnetic resonance imaging: comparison with positron emission tomography. *Circulation* 2002;105:162–167.
  177. Kim RJ, Fieno DS, Parrish TB, et al. Relationship of MRI delayed contrast enhancement to irreversible injury, infarct age, and contractile function. *Circulation* 1999;100:1992–2002.
  178. Gerber BL, Belge B, Legros GJ, et al. Characterization of acute and chronic myocardial infarcts by multidetector computed tomography: comparison with contrast-enhanced magnetic resonance. *Circulation* 2006;113:823–833.
  179. Lardo AC, Cordeiro MA, Silva C, et al. Contrast-enhanced multidetector computed tomography viability imaging after myocardial infarction: characterization of myocyte death, microvascular obstruction, and chronic scar. *Circulation* 2006;113:394–404.
  180. Mahnken AH, Bruners P, Kinzel S, et al. Late-phase MSCT in the different stages of myocardial infarction: animal experiments. *Eur Radiol* 2007;17:2310–2317.
  181. Baks T, Cademartiri F, Moelker AD, et al. Multislice computed tomography and magnetic resonance imaging for the assessment of reperfused acute myocardial infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2006;48:144–152.
  182. Brodoefel H, Klumpp B, Reimann A, et al. Sixty-four-MSCT in the characterization of porcine acute and subacute myocardial infarction: determination of transmural extent in comparison to magnetic resonance imaging and histopathology. *Eur J Radiol* 2007;62:235–246.
  183. Mahnken AH, Koos R, Katoh M, et al. Assessment of myocardial viability in reperfused acute myocardial infarction using 16-slice computed tomography in comparison to magnetic resonance imaging. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2005;45:2042–2047.
  184. Sanz J, Weeks D, Nikolaou K, et al. Detection of healed myocardial infarction with multidetector-row computed tomography and comparison with cardiac magnetic resonance delayed hyperenhancement. *Am J Cardiol* 2006;98:149–155.
  185. Nieman K, Shapiro MD, Ferencik M, et al. Reperfused myocardial infarction: contrast-enhanced 64-Section CT in comparison to MR imaging. *Radiology* 2008;247:49–56.
  186. Sigal-Cinqualbre AB, Hennequin R, Abada HT, Chen X, Paul JF. Low-kilovoltage multi-detector row chest CT in adults: feasibility and effect on image quality and iodine dose. *Radiology* 2004;231:169–174.
  187. Lesser JR, Flygenring B, Knickelbine T, et al. Clinical utility of coronary CT angiography: coronary stenosis detection and prognosis in ambulatory patients. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv* 2007;69:64–72.
  188. Min JK, Shaw LJ, Berman DS, Gilmore A, Kang N. Costs and clinical outcomes in individuals without known coronary artery disease undergoing coronary computed tomographic angiography from an analysis of Medicare category III transaction codes. *Am J Cardiol* 2008;102:672–678.
  189. Goy JJ, Kaufmann U, Hurni M, et al. 10-year follow-up of a prospective randomized trial comparing bare-metal stenting with internal mammary artery grafting for proximal, isolated de novo left anterior coronary artery stenosis the SIMA (Stenting versus Internal Mammary Artery grafting) trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2008;52:815–817.
  190. Seung KB, Park DW, Kim YH, et al. Stents versus coronary-artery bypass grafting for left main coronary artery disease. *N Engl J Med* 2008;358:1781–1792.
  191. Hannan EL, Wu C, Walford G, et al. Drug-eluting stents vs coronary-artery bypass grafting in multivessel coronary disease. *N Engl J Med* 2008;358:331–341.
  192. Park DW, Yun SC, Lee SW, et al. Long-term mortality after percutaneous coronary intervention with drug-eluting stent implantation versus coronary artery bypass surgery for the treatment of multivessel coronary artery disease. *Circulation* 2008;117:2079–2086.
  193. Javadi A, Steinberg DH, Buch AN, et al. Outcomes of coronary artery bypass grafting versus percutaneous coronary intervention with drug-eluting stents for patients with multivessel coronary artery disease. *Circulation* 2007;116:1200–1206.
  194. Boden WE, O'Rourke RA, Teo KK, et al. Optimal medical therapy with or without PCI for stable coronary disease. *N Engl J Med* 2007;356:1503–1516.
  195. Parisi AF, Folland ED, Hartigan P. A comparison of angioplasty with medical therapy in the treatment of single-vessel coronary artery disease: Veterans Affairs ACME Investigators. *N Engl J Med* 1992;326:10–16.
  196. Pitt B, Waters D, Brown WV, et al. Aggressive lipid-lowering therapy compared with

- angioplasty in stable coronary artery disease: Atorvastatin versus Revascularization Treatment Investigators. *N Engl J Med* 1999;341:70–76.
197. Hueb W, Soares PR, Gersh BJ, et al. The medicine, angioplasty, or surgery study (MASS-II): a randomized, controlled clinical trial of three therapeutic strategies for multivessel coronary artery disease—1-year results. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2004;43:1743–1751.
  198. Kereiakes DJ, Teirstein PS, Sarembock IJ, et al. The truth and consequences of the COURAGE trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2007;50:1598–1603.
  199. Tommaso CL. One year perspective on COURAGE. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv* 2008;72:426–429.
  200. Syre S. Bleeding stent sales. *Boston Globe*, July 19, 2007.
  201. Farb A, Burke AP, Tang AL, et al. Coronary plaque erosion without rupture into a lipid core: a frequent cause of coronary thrombosis in sudden coronary death. *Circulation* 1996;93:1354–1363.
  202. Hoffmann U, Moselewski F, Nieman K, et al. Noninvasive assessment of plaque morphology and composition in culprit and stable lesions in acute coronary syndrome and stable lesions in stable angina by multidetector computed tomography. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2006;47:1655–1662.
  203. Shaw LJ, Berman DS, Blumenthal RS, et al. Clinical imaging for prevention: directed strategies for improved detection of pre-symptomatic patients with undetected atherosclerosis. I. Clinical imaging for prevention. *J Nucl Cardiol* 2008;15:e6–e19.
  204. Dewey M, Hamm B. Cost effectiveness of coronary angiography and calcium scoring using CT and stress MRI for diagnosis of coronary artery disease. *Eur Radiol* 2007;17:1301–1309.
  205. Ladapo JA, Hoffmann U, Bamberg F, et al. Cost-effectiveness of coronary MDCT in the triage of patients with acute chest pain. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 2008;191:455–463.
  206. Khare RK, Courtney DM, Powell ES, Venkatesh AK, Lee TA. Sixty-four-slice computed tomography of the coronary arteries: cost-effectiveness analysis of patients presenting to the emergency department with low-risk chest pain. *Acad Emerg Med* 2008;15:623–632.