GOLDEN'S DIAGNOSTIC RADIOLOGY Laurence L. Robbins, Editor



William N. Hanafee (Section Editor), E. W. L. Fletcher, John P. Gartland, Julius H. Grollman, James W. Lecky, Josef Rösch, Richard J. Steckel, Gabriel H. Wilson



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Clinical Professor of Radiology, Harvard Medical School; Radiologist-in-Chief, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston

# Section 18: SELECTIVE ANGIOGRAPHY

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The Williams & Wilkins Company Baltimore



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Made in the United States of America

Library of Congress Catalog Card Number 73-175644 SBN 683-03865-6

Issued as Section 18 of Golden's Diagnostic Roentgenology in both loose-leaf and book form.

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Composed and printed at Waverly Press, Inc. Mt. Royal and Guilford Avenues Baltimore, Maryland 21202 U.S.A.

### **GOLDEN'S DIAGNOSTIC RADIOLOGY**

# Section 18: SELECTIVE ANGIOGRAPHY

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## Editor's Introduction—1972

The recent ten years of the new editor of Golden's Diagnostic Roentgenology/Radiology have seen a large number of rapid advances in particular areas of Radiology. These unique developments are reflected in the revisions and new sections which have appeared and are appearing in these volumes. It is further expected that the material of the future will encompass all of Diagnostic Radiology, including technical matters as well as radionuclides.

The present editor has enjoyed the continued influence and effect of his predecessor; may he continue his activities for many more years. It is intended that the authors will continue to have their own literary license, and that there may be variation in presentation from author to author without loss of clarity of fact. Should there be certain repetitions from one particular presentation to another, it is an accepted method in publications of this type and accomplishes an intended variety of opinions available only in such a conglomerate approach to a subject as vast as Diagnostic Radiology.

The editor and authors will welcome any suggestions as to format and content for the future. In addition, the editor and authors extend appreciation to the publishers for their outstanding cooperation in the preparation and presentation of *Diagnostic Roentgenology/Radiology*.

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## **Author's Introduction**

Difficulties are immediately apparent when multiple authors try to cover a subject so heavily dependent upon technique as selective arteriography. Many so-called "tricks" of technique must, of necessity, be left out since they are somewhat dependent upon the skill of the individual operator and his available equipment. By having multiple authors, we hope to reach a compromise of varied opinions as to approach and yet remain parochial in the sense that the consolidated ideas of one institution remain dominant.

The authors tend to direct their remarks to the level of a second-year radiology resident. Hopefully, in this fashion the presentations will be clear enough as an introduction to selective angiography, and only moderately boring to the more advanced angiographer. At UCLA, angiography is the most rapidly growing segment of our department in terms of professional time and expenditures. The reader must maintain a spirit of tolerance if new technical advances supersede the submission of this manuscript. Perhaps this is one reason why we all enjoy the enthusiasm and stimulation of this new modality.

Our thanks to the contributing authors, to our photographers, Mr. Paul Stout and Miss Yolanda Fuentes, and to Mrs. Lois Haas and the secretarial staff at UCLA for their energetic pursuit of this chapter.

## **Dedication**

We humbly dedicate this book to three giants of radiology who continue to shape the medical thinking of UCLA—to Dr. Ross Golden, who exemplifies the gentleman in radiology; to Dr. Andrew Dowdy, with his wisdom for stimulating freedom of ideas and expression; and to Dr. Leo Rigler, the master diagnostician who serves as a model for all students of radiology.

# Section 18: SELECTIVE ANGIOGRAPHY

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## 1

# Fundamentals of Selective Angiography

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### INTRODUCTION

After the pioneer work of Brooks (1924) in the area of femoral arteriography, Moniz et al. (1928) in carotid arteriography, and dos Santos et al. (1929) in translumbar aortography, arteriography rapidly gained acceptance. Injection of contrast through a needle only, however, limited the examination to the abdominal agrta and peripheral vessels. With the introduction of the catheter into arteriographic techniques, it became possible to visualize more remote parts of the vascular system including pathologic changes in smaller vessels and individual organs. The surgical exposure of the artery actually first restrained broad acceptance of catheter arteriography, as it was used only in a few institutions despite stimulative work of Farinas (1941), Radner (1948), and others.

Arteriography as a routine examination first became feasible with Seldinger's (1953) description of the catheter replacement technique. With the continuous refinement of techniques and development of improved catheter materials, visualization of arteries nearly anywhere in the body became possible, especially with selective arteriography.

The developments in contrast agents, x-ray equipment, and rapid film changers

have greatly aided this progress, with arteriography, once primarily a surgical procedure, passing into the field of radiology. Radiologists have assumed responsibility for the performance as well as the interpretation of the angiographic studies, and angiography has become a subspecialty of radiology in which there are individuals spending a major portion of their time. Under the guidance of angiographers, the risks of angiography have decreased immensely, while techniques have progressed even to the point of application to therapeutic intervention.

The purpose of this monograph is to review the field of selective angiography. It will be based upon published reports, of course deeply influenced by our own experience. Exclusion of any approach or experience should not be taken as an indication of their lack of merit. Any technique used safely by an angiographer that reliably obtains good results should be continued. However, an open mind should be kept with a willingness to try new methods as they become available. Arteriography is still under development with much remaining to be accomplished both in technique and interpretation.

### MATERIALS

### X-ray Equipment

At least a 500 MA generator is required, but newer 1,000 MA three-phase equipment is preferable because it allows techniques using a low peak kilovoltage to enhance contrast. In addition, a far too frequently forgotten point is the focal spot size of the x-ray tube. For routine angiography, a focal spot of approximately 1 mm. should be employed. We have found a 2-mm. focal spot to allow too much penumbra for good definition of small vessels and atheromatous plaques. Clinical serial magnification angiography is now possible with newer tubes having a 0.3-mm. focal spot.

Either a floating table top or a standard fluoroscopic tilt table may be utilized. The former is preferable because of the ease and the greater speed in which the examination may be accomplished. However, the more conventional type of tilt table is satisfactory and allows use of the examination room for other purposes.

A film changer is imperative, preferably one which will allow three or more films per second. Film rates of 2 per sec. are permissible, but will occasionally miss important information. A cut-film changer without individual cassettes or a roll-film changer are the most popular because of their ease of loading. Individual cassettes, although potentially giving the greatest detail, are somewhat inconvenient and time-consuming in their loading. Roll-film changers are the most reliable, but film storage is a problem unless individual film frames are cut.

An image intensifier of high quality is necessary. Marginal intensifier tubes do not allow the detail that is so important during manipulation of catheters. Television monitoring is very helpful as it permits the angiographer greater flexibility of movement. Tape recording and cine capabilities are useful, but not imperative, except in selctive coronary angiography.

Pressure injectors of the flow rate type are most valuable in selective angiography, as they allow within certain limits predetermination of a desired flow rate. Their reliability has been shown to be best at the lower flow rates which of course are more often used with selective techniques (Komar et al., 1966). Angiographers are still reluctant to give up any knowledge of the "pressure" used during an injection. It must be remembered, however, that the pressure dialed on an injector is generally that at the tip of the injection syringe and not at the tip of the catheter. The actual pressure drops considerably along the catheter, dependent upon its length and internal diameter; therefore, it is our feeling that notation of the pressure used for an injection is of no real relevance, but the flow rate is.

With the advent of rapid film processing, the performance time of angiography has been decreased significantly resulting in greater safety to the patient. The importance of rapid processing is not that it takes 90 sec. for a film to be developed, but rather that a complete series can be developed in a few minutes as opposed to 15 min. or more.

### Tools

Vascular needles of many types are available, depending upon the preference of the angiographer. We prefer to use needles without an inner stylet or obturator because of their simplicity. However, no great argument may be made for any particular type other than that it probably should not be larger than 17 gauge in adults, 18 gauge in children, and 19 gauge in infants. It should be mentioned that the bevel should be short, lessening the possibility of subintimal passage of the guide wire. A helpful modification is the use of a special hollow-ground tip which decreases wear and tear on the guide wire (fig. 1).

#### Catheters

For most purposes of selective angiography, opaque polyethylene catheters are preferred either thin-wall or thick-wall. They should be as small as possible, yet allowing adequate delivery of the contrast bolus for a particular examination. We prefer not to use a larger size than 8F in adults of normal size, with appropriately smaller

sizes for smaller patients. For most selective studies sizes between 6 and 7F will be applicable, but even smaller catheters are appropriate for certain examinations to be discussed in subsequent chapters.

Teflon catheters have been used by some for selective catheterizations (Klatte et al., 1968); however, in older patients with atheromatous changes, the use of Teflon catheters is associated with a greater risk because of their marked rigidity. In addition, molding of Teflon catheters is difficult as they tend to lose their curve unless specially tempered. We prefer restricting their use to aortic injections.

Woven Dacron catheters have been employed in selected incidences for selective angiography. A prime example is coronary arteriography which is commonly performed with woven Dacron catheters designed by Sones and Shirey (1962). They are not, however, well suited to percutaneous techniques because they are relatively rough on arteries and absorb water, allowing change in size during use. With prolonged use within the blood stream, flexibility increases making manipulation more difficult.

Polyurethane is a more recently available catheter material having excellent torque control and memory for curves, yet allowing considerable flexibility. Unfortunately, they are somewhat difficult to work with because of their rubbery nature and therefore require special Teflon coated guide wires. There will be more discussion of these catheters in subsequent chapters.

### Guide Wires and Systems

The standard guide size used by most angiographers is 0.35 inch in diameter. We prefer to use a slightly smaller size, 0.032 inch, because of its greater ease of use with catheters with an internal diameter of 0.040 inch or less. Other wires that should be available to the angiographer for specific purposes are the 0.025- and 0.045-inch wires, the former for its greater flexibility, which is of value in superselective angiography, and the latter to give greater strength to very thin-walled, flexible polyethylene catheters. Movable core guides, J-guides, Teflon coated wires, and their

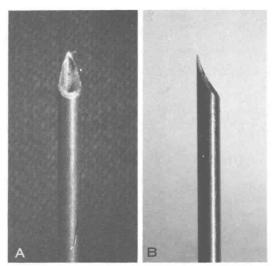


Fig. 1 (A and B).—Hollow-Ground "Scoop" Bevel of UCLA Vascular Needle

Note that in the frontal view the base of the bevel is rounded. With a conventional straight bevel the base is "V"-shaped which offers resistance to movement of the guide wire.

combinations are also other adjuncts that the angiographer should be familiar with and have available for specific purposes as will be discussed in subsequent chapters. Many angiographers will use only Teflon coated wires.

Deflecting systems have become quite popular in many centers. Many systems are available, each with different attributes and disadvantages (Grollman et al., 1968; Rabinov and Simon, 1969; Reuter, 1969; Rösch and Grollman, 1969; Viamonte and Stevens, 1965; Wholey and Jackman, 1966). Most often they are used with very flexible catheters working on the principle of deflection of the catheter tip by deflection of the wire guide.

Another technique of guided angiography reported by Viamonte and Stevens (1965) involves changing the deflection of a preformed catheter by advancing or withdrawing a straight wire. More recently use of a preformed but flexible catheter in combination with a deflectible guide wire system has been applied (Reuter, 1969; Rösch and Grollman, 1969). A complete, although rather complicated, review of this subject plus preliminary observations on another system

may be found in a monograph by Almen (1966).

### Miscellaneous Adjuncts

Various assorted clips, syringes, and hemostats are important, but their use is up to the discretion of the angiographer. We recommend the use of heparinized saline for flushing, preferably in a closed system. A pressure pack to allow constant flushing of an arterial catheter is extremely helpful. It is of value to the angiographer to have a pressure monitoring system available for use as occasionally the necessity arises to measure pressures or pressure gradients during performance of selective angiography.

#### CONTRAST MEDIA

In selective angiography, chemotoxicity is the most important aspect of toxicity with which the angiographer is concerned. This is dependent on the molecular formula, concentration, and osmolarity of the contrast agent. There is probably not much actual difference in toxicity due to minor differences in the molecular configuration between the diatrizoates, iothalamates, and metrizoates (Fischer and Cornell, 1965; Gensini and Di Giorgi, 1964). Therefore, for clinical purposes, there is no reason to

TABLE I
CLINICAL APPROACH TO CONTRAST MEDIA\*

Concen- tration Group	Agent	I	Na	Vis- cosity at 37°C.
		mg/ml	mg/ml	cps
Low	Hypaque Meglu- mine 60% <sup>3</sup> †	282	0.02	4.1
	Conray‡	282	0.1	4.0
	Reno-M-60§	282	0.9	4.1
	Renografin-60§	293	3.8	4.3
	Hypaque Sodium 50%†	300	17.7	2.3
Medium	Cardiografin 85§	400	0.7	13.7
	Reno-M-76§	358	0.9	8.6
	Renografin-76§	370	4.5	9.3
	Hypaque-M 75%†	385	9.3	8.4
	Vascoray‡	400	9.4	9.7
	Renovist§	372	13.5	6.1
	Conray 400‡	400	24.1	4.4
High	Hypaque-M 90%†	462	10.3	18.7
	Angio-Conray‡	480	29.0	8.4

<sup>\*</sup> Data obtained from manufacturers.

pick one over the other for this reason alone.

The major differences between the presently used angiographic contrast media are related then to concentration and osmolarity (Fischer, 1965 and 1968). Osmolarity is influenced by the relative sodium and meglumine salt content of the agents used. The use of meglumine reduces the osmolarity and toxicity significantly, but also increases the viscosity, impairing the delivery rate (Fischer, 1965; Gensini and Di Giorgi, 1964). Stating this in another way, the concentration of sodium ion is directly related to the chemotoxicity of a given contrast agent.

It is convenient to divide the various available angiographic contrast media into three groups: low, medium, and high concentration (table I). In the low concentration group Conray-60, Reno-M-60, and Hypaque Meglumine 60% are essentially entirely meglumine salts whereas Renografin-60 contains a small proportion of sodium salt (roughly 13% (Fischer, 1965)) and Hypaque Sodium 50% is entirely a sodium salt. The iodine content of these agents is similar.

In the medium concentration group are included several agents with iodine contents ranging between 358 and 400 mg. per ml. It should be noted that, whereas Cardiografin-85 and Reno-M-76 contain essentially 100% meglumine diatrizoate, Conray-400 is 100% sodium iothalamate. The remaining three agents are varying mixtures in between with the approximate relative amount of sodium ion being as follows (Fischer, 1965): Renografin-76, 13%; Hypaque-M 75%, 33%; Vascoray, 33%; and Renovist, 50%.

Finally, in the high concentration group there are Hypaque-M 90% and Angio-

<sup>†</sup> Formulations of diatrizoate from Winthrop Laboratories, New York, New York.

<sup>‡</sup> Formulations of iothalamate from Mallinck-rodt Pharmaceuticals, St. Louis, Missouri.

<sup>§</sup> Formulations of diatrizoate from E. R. Squibb & Sons, New York, New York.