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1    **Title page**

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4    **Derivation of flow related risk indices for stenosed left anterior descending**  
5    **coronary arteries with the use of computer simulations.**

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## 1. Abstract

The geometry of the coronary vessel network is believed to play a decisive role to the initiation, progression and outcome of coronary artery disease (CAD) and the occurrence of acute coronary syndromes (ACS). It also determines the flow field in the coronary artery which can be linked to CAD evolution.

In this work geometric 3D models of left anterior descending (LAD) coronary arteries associated with either myocardial infarction (MI) or stable (STA) CAD were constructed. Transient numerical simulations of the flow for each model showed that specific flow patterns develop in different extent in the different groups examined. Recirculation zones, present distal the stenosis in all models, had larger extent and duration in MI cases. For mild stenosis (up to 50%) areas with low time averaged wall shear stress TAWSS ( $< 0.15\text{Pa}$ ) as well as areas with high TAWSS ( $>3\text{Pa}$ ) appeared only in MI models; in moderate and severe stenosis ( $>50\%$ ) these areas were present in all models but were significantly larger for MI than STA models. These differentiations were expressed via numerical indices based on TAWSS, oscillating shear index (OSI) and relative residence time (RRT). Additionally we introduced the coagulation activation index (CAI), based on the threshold behaviour of coagulation initiation, which exceeded the suggested threshold only for MI models with intermediate stenosis (up to 50%). These results show that numerical simulations of flow can produce arithmetic indices linked with the risk of CAD complications.

## 2. Introduction

The term coronary artery disease (CAD) describes the formation of atherosclerotic plaques in epicardial coronary arteries. The formed plaques cause the narrowing of

the vessel and reduce the blood and oxygen supply to the myocardium. In a significant number of cases CAD leads to complications such as myocardial infarction. These complications are often lethal and make CAD the leading cause of mortality worldwide [1]. Patients diagnosed with CAD receive either pharmacological treatment or coronary revascularization. The choice is based on the severity of the stenosis and the clinical condition of the patient. However several patients receiving pharmacological treatment suffer from complications while at the same time it is possible that other patients take the risk of an unnecessary intervention [2].

While the triggering of thrombus formation is generally considered the rupture of an atherosclerotic plaque, intracoronary ultrasound studies have suggested that plaque rupture itself may not necessarily lead to clinical events [3-5]. Plaque ruptures have been identified in patients with acute coronary syndromes at multiple sites away from the culprit lesion (ACS) [3] and in patients with stable angina or asymptomatic ischemia [4]. Therefore, plaque rupture seems to be a frequent event that requires the contribution of additional factors in order to lead to ACS.

The idea of using quantitative characterization of the coronary geometry and flow conditions as a dynamic risk factor for coronary disease is not novel [6, 7]. Several studies on the distribution of atherosclerotic plaques in human arterial systems have shown that atherosclerosis occurs predominantly at certain locations of the vascular tree where the arteries have complex geometry that results in “disturbed” blood flow behaviour [8-11]. Geometry [12] and flow [13] might also be responsible for the thickening of the vessel wall a fact that is considered to predispose to atherogenesis [14]. Statistical correlation lesion and the incidence of ACS [15] has also been reported. Flow conditions influence the formation of thrombus via identified

64 mechanisms that act both on the vessel wall and on the biochemical reactions in  
65 flowing blood. Mechanical stimulation can influence the endothelium cells' response  
66 [16, 17]; wall shear stress (WSS) can also affect the vulnerability [18], the evolution  
67 [19] and even the composition of plaques [20] while mechanical stresses contribute  
68 to the rupture of the plaques. Flow directly influences the reactions related to  
69 thrombus formation by regulating the transport of involved substances [21];  
70 pathological shear distribution can independently activate the coagulation  
71 mechanism [22]; platelet deposition is correlated to flow patterns like flow separation,  
72 and recirculation [23, 24]. These findings indicate that the thrombogenic potential of  
73 a partially blocked coronary artery can be linked to characteristics of the flow field.

74 As coronary network is located on the heart, it follows the contractions of the heart  
75 muscle. This has been simulated [25-27] .and it has been shown to influence the  
76 flow distribution in the bifurcations [27] while it has no significant effect on  
77 (computed) time averaged values of WSS [25, 27, 28]. The rheological behaviour of  
78 blood is also complex, as it exhibits shear thinning behaviour for low values of shear  
79 rate. However, for coronary flow conditions this is important for lower values of inlet  
80 flow rate [29] occurring during a small part of the cardiac cycle [25, 30]. So, in most  
81 related studies it is modelled as a Newtonian fluid [26, 31-36]. For the flow rate in the  
82 coronary inlet a number of different approaches have been proposed. 'Average' and  
83 widely accepted waveforms for the mass flow and the inlet pressure that can be  
84 found in literature [25, 26], obtained from MRI [37] or catheter [38] measurements or  
85 animal models [33, 34, 39], in vitro measurements [26, 40]. Simplified pulses with  
86 adjusted average mass flow rate have also been used [27, 38], as it has been  
87 demonstrated that the exact form of the inlet pulse has small influence over the time

averaged quantities [38]. The problem of the outlet boundary conditions is more complicated, as the outflow of the main branches of the coronary is mainly determined by the unknown downstream vessel network. In the case of healthy vessel the flow rate in each branch can be defined under the assumption of (almost) constant WSS and Poiseuille flow [25, 31]. A more sophisticated approach for the boundary conditions is the use of lumped parameter models analogous to electrical circuits for the inlet/ outlet of the computational domain. These models impose relationships between the pressure and the mass flow and in some cases their time integrals and derivatives at each boundary [41-44].

Existing computational studies on coronary flow have been proved in good agreement with in-vitro experimental results [40]. A number of the published works focus on the effect of different parameters on the results, such as the motion of the vessels [25-27], the existence of bifurcations [45], the off-plane geometry of the coronary and the small alterations of the geometry [40] and the use of non-Newtonian models for blood viscosity [25, 29, 30]. Other studies apply computational techniques on several problems related to coronary flow that cannot be accessed by experiments or medical examinations, as the study of flow patterns for different types of atheromatic plaques [36], the comparison of different cases of coronary anastomosis [46], pre and post stenting haemodynamics [31, 33, 47], the effect of foreshortening (deformation) of stents on WSS [34], different methods and types of coronary aneurysm stenting [48] recently CFD of blood flow has been used as diagnostic method of stenosis-caused ischemia, via the calculation of the fractional flow reserve [49, 50].

111 We have previously shown that a combination of specific anatomic parameters  
112 predispose to vulnerable plaque development, rupture of the plaque and consequent  
113 thrombosis [51, 52]. In the present study we hypothesized that the different risk for  
114 ACS that was statistically attributed to different LAD models can be quantified via  
115 specific flow related quantities. These quantities are calculated from the flow field as  
116 it is obtained with the use of computational fluid dynamics (CFD) simulations. Finally,  
117 using the CFD results we established a set of risk indices appropriate for  
118 assessment of an arbitrary case.

### 119 **3. Materials and methods**

#### 120 *Coronary models*

121 Geometric models of coronary arteries were obtained from previous analyses of  
122 patients with an anterior ST-elevation myocardial infarction (MI) and a patent LAD or  
123 patients with stable coronary stenoses (STA) and a significant LAD stenosis via  
124 coronary angiography [52]. Statistical analysis indicated that coronary stenoses  
125 associated with MI were closer to the ostium (inlet) of the LAD compared with  
126 stenoses associated with stable CAD. Additionally, in patients with stable CAD the  
127 stenosed part of the vessel does not involve bifurcations whereas in MI models there  
128 are bifurcations within the stenotic lesion. In our study we used two different groups  
129 associated with ACS, MI1 and MI2, according to the statistical analysis [52, 53]. The  
130 difference between the MI1 and MI2 models is the location of the affected side-  
131 branch: in MI1 models it is located upstream the peak of the stenosis while in MI2  
132 models it is located downstream the peak of the stenosis.



Based on these characteristics an 'average' healthy LAD model [52] was constructed, consisting of one main branch and 5 side branches (6 outflows), with total volume  $6.922 \cdot 10^{-7} m^3$  and total wall surface  $0.0012 m^2$ . Starting from the healthy LAD geometry the models with maximum stenosis (90%) associated either with MI (MI1 and MI2) or with stable CAD (STA) were constructed (Figure 1), by introducing a sinusoidal radius reduction as done in previous studies [34, 35, 54-56]. The geometries with intermediate degrees of stenosis were obtained via linear interpolation. As mesh independence tests indicated that above 1 million cells the results did not change significantly (~2%) for outlet pressures and WSS, computational grids of about 1.5 million hexahedral cells were created for each geometry, using the Hexa-Block tool of ANSA [57]. 16 different geometries were used for the simulations (Figure 1), one healthy and 15 with different degrees of stenosis. The results for the models with 90% of stenosis were used only to investigate the flow-rates calculated from the boundary conditions.

#### *Fluid model and boundary flow conditions*

Blood was modelled as a Newtonian fluid with the use of the incompressible Navier-Stokes equations, as for LAD dimensions the shear rate is well above the limit where blood exhibits shear –thinning behaviour for almost the whole of the cardiac cycle [25, 30, 58]. Flow was modelled as laminar (no turbulence model used) as the calculated Reynolds numbers were below 100 even for 90% stenosis. The vessel walls were considered rigid and stationary and no slip boundary condition was imposed for the walls.

Except from the resistance of the coronary arterial network, the movement of the heart muscle is the main determining factor, as the vessels that enter the myocardium are compressed due to contractions. As the structure of the coronary network for each case is inaccessible, the boundary conditions always include some assumptions, and the results are approximate. In this study the method of boundary conditions is based on three main hypotheses: (i) the existence of the stenosis is not changing the aortic pressure or the behaviour of the coronary network downstream the computational domain; (ii) the behaviour of the downstream network can be approximated by a time depended resistance; (iii)  $WSS(\tau_w)$  for the computational domain of the healthy case is almost constant and approximately 1.5 Pa [8] and flow is approximately Poiseuille [2, 6, 7].

For the healthy coronary model inlet, a generic waveform for the coronary mass flow [5-7] was used; the resulting average velocity at the inlet is shown in Figure 2. Under the assumption of constant WSS, the distribution of flow rate among the main branch  $Q_m$  and the i-th side branch  $Q_{i,0}$  is determined by the radii ( $r_{m,i}$ ,  $r_i$ ) of the two branches, and it follows Equation 1 ( $\mu$  is the fluid viscosity):

$$\tau_w = \frac{4\mu Q}{\pi r^3} \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow \frac{Q_{i,0}}{r_i^3} = \frac{Q_{m,i}}{r_{m,i}^3}$$

*Equation 1*

From Equation 1, the flow rate fraction for the LAD branch (0.52, based on the diameters of the vessels) and the flow rates for each branch of the computational domain can then be expressed as a function of the radii of the main and the side branches at the sites of bifurcations (Equation 2):

$$Q_i = Q_{tot} \cdot f(r_1, \dots, r_i) = Q_{tot} \cdot f_i$$

Equation 2

$$f_i = (1 - \sum_{n=1}^{i-1} f_n) \cdot \frac{r_i^3}{r_i^3 + r_{m,i}^3}$$

Simulation obtained for the non-stenosed (healthy) model showed small variation of WSS, with more than 99% of the vessel wall surface having TAWSS values in the range 1-3Pa; these values are within the reported non-pathological arterial range [8]. From the simulations for the healthy model the pressure drop between the inlet and each outlet  $i$  ( $\Delta P_{out,i}$ ) of the computational domain were obtained. The aortic pressure pulse [9], (Figure 2), and atrial pressure were used as inlet and far out pressure. The the calculated pressure drops ( $\Delta P_{out,i}$ ), mass flow rates ( $Q_{out,i}$ ) for each outlet of the healthy model are linked with the time dependent resistance ( $R_i$ ) downstream each outflow with the relation:

$$\Delta P_{tot}(t) = \Delta P_{out,i}(t) + Q_{out,i}(t) \cdot R_i(t)$$

Equation 3

Using Equation 3 and the values of flowrates and pressure drops from the simulation of the healthy model, the downstream resistance  $R_i(t)$  for each outflow was calculated.

For the stenosed models, the pressure pulse of Figure 2 was used as inlet boundary condition

Equation 3 and the values of the downstream resistance calculated from the non-stenosed model. The boundary condition applied at the outlets was ‘target mass flow’ as described in the Ansys Fluent User’s Guide [1] combined with a User

Defined Function (UDF); the applied algorithm used for the calculation of the flow rate at each outlet is shown in Figure 3. The mass flow at the inlet  $Q_{in}$  was calculated from **Error! Reference source not found.** to satisfy the mass conservation.

$$Q_{in} = \sum_i Q_{out,i}$$

*Equation 4*

In order to avoid stability issues a very small under-relaxation factor (0.05) was used for the pressure correction, combined with a sufficient number of iterations (~200) for each timestep in order to ensure stabilization of the mass flow rate values at the outlets before moving on to the next timestep. A number of cardiac cycles (3-4) was simulated for each case in order to eliminate any effect of the initial flow field; as the calculated flow rates were identical after the 2<sup>nd</sup> cardiac cycle, only the results of the last cycle have been processed. To verify the above process, we applied outflow resistance boundary conditions on the healthy vessel and the results were almost identical (less than 1% variation) with the results obtained with the assumption of constant WSS.

Finally, further analysis of the results obtained with the above method, indicated a simplified approximation for estimating the resistance downstream each branch. For the non-stenosed model the pressure drop between the inlet and the outlets ( $\Delta P_{out,i}$ ) was found to be very small (<4%) compared to the total pressure drop. Thus, the downstream resistance could be estimated using Equation 5:

$$R_i = \frac{\Delta P_{tot} - \Delta P_{out,i}}{Q_{tot} \cdot f_i} \approx \frac{\Delta P_{tot}}{Q_{tot} \cdot f_i} = \frac{R_{tot}}{f_i}$$

*Equation 5*

This approximation results to a small (less than 2%) increase of the calculated flow rates, but it allows for the method to be applied on any arbitrary stenosed geometry without necessitating simulations for non-stenosed model as the values for the downstream resistance can be derived directly from Equation 3 and Equation 5, avoiding the simulations for the non stenosed model.

As a test, we applied outflow resistance boundary condition on the healthy vessel and the results were almost identical (less than 1% variation) with the results obtained with the assumption of constant WSS.

All flow simulations were performed in Fluent. The The time averaged WSS vector and magnitude ( $TAWSS$  and  $TAWSS^{(V)}$ ), oscillating shear index (OSI) and relative residence time (RRT) were computed according to the following formulas [48, 62] using the META [57] post processor:

$$TAWSS = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T |\overline{WSS}| dt,$$

*Equation 6*

$$TAWSS^{(V)} = \frac{1}{T} \left| \int_0^T \overline{WSS} dt \right|$$

*Equation 7*

$$OSI = 0.5 \times \left( 1 - \frac{\left| \int_0^T \overline{WSS} dt \right|}{\int_0^T |\overline{WSS}| dt} \right)$$

*Equation 8*

$$RRT = [(1 - 2 \times OSI) \times TAWSS]^{-1}$$

*Equation 9*

351 In brief, OSI expresses the variation in the direction of the WSS (and velocity) vector  
352 in respect to the dominant direction of the flow, while RRT gives a relative estimation  
353 of the residence time of the fluid in an area, as it has increased values in the areas  
354 where the near-wall velocity has large direction changes over one period and small  
355 magnitude.

#### 356 *Coagulation activation index (CAI)*

357 The activation of the coagulation process occurs within an area of the vessel wall  
358 where a triggering stimuli exists, either due to rupture of atheromatous plaque or  
359 possibly due to alteration of the behaviour of endothelium cells caused by  
360 pathological flow conditions. However the stimulation does not guarantee the  
361 activation of the coagulation process. It has been demonstrated [63] that the initiation  
362 of the coagulation exhibits a threshold behaviour with respect to wall shear rate and  
363 the stream-wise length of the triggering surface. A feasible explanation for this  
364 behaviour is that a minimum contact time between the blood flowing reactants and  
365 the reacting surface is required for the transition from the initiation to the  
366 amplification phase of coagulation. In order to estimate this flow-related aspect of the  
367 coagulation process in this study we introduce the coagulation activation index (CAI)  
368 as follows.

369 The initiation reactions occur in a small layer of depth  $h$  above the reacting area.  
370 Considering steady flow conditions, the value of wall shear rate  $\gamma$  determines the  
371 flow velocity at a specific distance  $h$  near the wall,  $u = \gamma \cdot h$ . If the reacting area has  
372 a constant stream-wise length  $L$  the contact time between the flowing substances  
373 and the reacting surface is approximately:

$$t_{res} = \frac{L}{u} = \frac{2L}{\gamma h}$$

Equation 10

Under the reasonable approximation that the reaction zone depth does not change significantly for different values of shear, a threshold value for the quantity  $L/\gamma$  can be defined regarding the activation of the coagulation process. From the threshold conditions for the initiation of the coagulation process previously reported in respect to the wall shear rate and the stream-wise length of the reacting area [63] the threshold value for CAI was calculated  $0.8 - 1 \times 10^{-5} m \times s$ .

In order to estimate this in our results we used the CAI, defined as  $\sqrt{S}/\gamma_{th}$  where S is the area where the average wall shear rate was below a certain value, in this study we used  $\gamma < 43 s^{-1}$ . As threshold value for CAI we used  $1.2 \times 10^{-5} m \times s$ , approximately 10% above the value calculated for the non stenosed case and close to the value calculated with the use of the experimental data [63].

## 4. Results

### *Flow rates*

In all coronary models with induced stenosis, mass flow rate is reduced compared to the healthy case at the inlet and at the outlet of the side branches distal to the peak of the stenosis similar to previous works [47, 60]. However as shown in Table 1 only high degrees of stenosis ( $\geq 70\%$ ) have significant impact on the mass flow rate at the inlet and the outlets distal the stenosis while the flow rate in the branches upstream the stenosis exhibit small ( $<4\%$ ) variation.

### *Flow recirculation*

Recirculation zones were observed distal to the lesion for some part of the cardiac cycle in all models with stenosis of 50% and above and for the MI1 model with 35%. In MI1 and MI2 models these zones were larger, and occupied a larger fraction of the cycle. It is also interesting that in the cases MI1 mainly but also in MI2 part of the recirculating flow ends up in the side branch (magenta streamlines in Figure 4), and in some cases there is also a small recirculation zone in the side branch distal the stenosis, something that was not observed in STA models. The velocity profiles of the normal (0% stenosis) and the diseased models downstream the stenosis differ considerably (Figure 5). In the cases of 70% stenosis a jet-like flow develops in the vessel whereas in specific areas of the cross section the average velocity is opposite to the main flow direction (Figure 5). Note that a small difference in the location of the stenosis (<3mm, less than 20% of the total length of the whole lesion) as it is between MI1 and MI2, changes significantly the location of the areas with inversed average flow velocity.

#### *Flow parameters*

The surface averaged values for TAWSS (Table 2) and RRT and OSI (Table 3) for the whole vessel surface had small variations among the considered models. The area averaged TAWSS for the whole vessel wall was 0.7-1.1Pa for all models, within the range measured in vivo [64]. Based on the results of the healthy model and also on literature data (for TAWSS) [7, 32, 33, 45, 65] we calculated the areas with low (<0.15Pa) and high TAWSS (>3Pa) (Table 1), high OSI (>0.3) and RRT (>15) (Table 3) for each model. Areas with high TAWSS are located at the stenotic lesion and are larger for higher degrees of stenosis, while areas with low TAWSS, found



downstream the stenosis (Figure 6) are mainly present in cases with stenosis up to 50%. The size of these areas generally larger for MI models (Table 2).

RRT (Figure 7) and OSI had significant variations at the areas of the recirculation zones shown in Figure 7. The differentiation of the values (especially this of RRT) was in accordance to the bigger size and duration of the recirculation zones for MI cases (Table 3). Finally, in order to demonstrate the difference of the distribution of OSI and RRT among different groups we calculated the magnitude of surface where OSI and RRT are above specific values. As shown in Figure 8 the extent of the vessel wall with high OSI and RRT was significantly greater for the MI1 and MI2 models for the cases of moderate and high degrees of stenosis (>35%).

#### *Risk indices*

Using the calculated flow parameters we sought to propose a set of arithmetic risk indices that describe the susceptibility to deterioration and coronary thrombosis. The indices express the magnitude of the vessel wall where the calculated values have extremely low (only for TAWSS) or high values. The thresholds proposed for the indices are summarized in Table 4

As shown in Table 5 for intermediate stenosis (50%) in the MI1 and MI2 models all indices exceed the threshold values while even for mild stenosis (20% and 35%) some of the indices of the MI1 and MI2 models also exceeded the threshold values. For the most severe stenosis (70%) all indices thresholds except Low TAWSS were exceeded for all models.

The calculated CAI values for each model are shown in Figure 9 together with the threshold value (dotted line). All considered stenosis for the MI2 model result in CAI values above the threshold value whereas for the MI1 model the threshold is

exceeded only for the intermediate stenosis (35% and 50%). For the STA model the threshold value is exceeded only in the case of the most severe stenosis (70%). Nevertheless in STA and MI2 model with 70% stenosis the value of CAI is slightly above the threshold therefore the result cannot lead to safe conclusion.

## **5. Discussion**

We presented CFD results in a number of LAD models which are associated either with MI or with stable CAD. The boundary conditions were based both on geometry and aortic pressure and gave reasonable results in terms of flow rates (which mainly determine the WSS values [29, 38, 66]) and can be applied on any coronary geometry. The whole process has low computational cost and can be performed with the use of commercial home computers. The simulations presented in this work were performed using a single processor of an Intel i-7 330GHz computer. Each cardiac cycle consisted of 200 time-steps, required approximately 16h CPU time and used approximately 4GB of RAM.

The relationship of hemodynamic factors and thrombus formation has been previously investigated in various experimental and CFD studies [23, 24, 67, 68]. In these studies the flow parameters than have been most closely associated with thrombosis are surface related, mainly WSS, as It is generally accepted that low WSS promotes atherosclerosis and vulnerable plaque formation [69, 70] and possibly alters the endothelium properties [16, 17]. Therefore low TAWSS values in a large area of the vessel imply increased possibility for both deterioration and thrombosis. These conditions were expressed via the index related to low TAWSS

value and the value of this index was significantly higher in MI1 and MI2 geometries with 35% and 50% stenosis (Table 5)

High WSS may trigger plaque rupture but the evidence on that is weak [70, 71]. In any case, at least for the examined models, the index related to high TAWSS depends strongly on the degree of the stenosis while extremely high values of shear stress ( $>30$  Pa), capable of causing platelet activation [72] were observed only in the cases of severe stenosis ( $>70\%$ ) and in a very small part of the vessel surface. In respect to shear induced platelet activation and the effect of high values of WSS it is possibly of more interest to examine the exposure time of platelets to high values of shear stress or stress accumulation along the streamlines [23] than looking into local values.

The increased residence time and the recirculation in the post stenotic region are expressed via the RRT and OSI. The RRT index has clearly higher values ( $>3$ ) in all cases where recirculation occurs near the recirculation zone (Table 5 and Figure 5 and Figure 7). OSI related index has similar variation to RRT (Table 5) and at least for the examined models does not provide any additional information. RRT and OSI indices have distinctively higher values for the cases where recirculation zones were observed and the variation of their values is in accordance to the different size and duration of the vortices observed via visualization.

Previous studies also showed that slowly recirculating flow due to core jet flow patterns through a stenosis promote aggregation of platelets and that blood stagnation occurring at areas with disturbed flow may facilitate the accumulation of blood thrombogenic factors near the wall [73]. Since adhesion of platelets to a surface is greatly enhanced by prior stimulation [74], this mechanism offers an

490 explanation for the increased platelet deposition at the recirculation zone. An  
491 estimation of the strength of this mechanism can be obtained using the the product  
492 of the high TAWSS and the RRT related indices (Table 5). In cases with elevated  
493 values of TAWSS (50% and 70%) stenosis, for STA models is around 40 while for MI  
494 it is above 55.

495 Finally, the CAI index significantly exceeds the calculated threshold only in MI1 and  
496 MI2 cases with intermediate (35-50%) stenosis (Figure 9) showing that in these  
497 cases there are areas with higher probability of coagulation initiation. It is interesting  
498 to note here that when we applied the thrombin submodel [75] on two cases  
499 described in [63], the ratio of the CAI (0.8) matched exactly the ratio of the maximum  
500 thrombin concentration (0.799) and was really close to the ratio of the average  
501 thrombin generation downstream the reacting area (0.759)[76]. This could indicate  
502 that CAI, while calculated via flow simulations is strongly related to the  
503 thrombogenic potential of pathological flow.

504 Regarding the examined cases it can be said that the calculated quantities generally  
505 agree the statistically derived risk assumption, showing that the MI2 models are of  
506 higher risk, followed by MI1 models while STA models appear by far less dangerous.  
507 The visualization of the results correlated the indices with the calculated flow field  
508 and pointed out the specific vessel segments where the local flow conditions (are  
509 assumed to) predispose to thrombosis. These parts of the vessel surfaces were  
510 within the areas of interest (near and downstream the stenotic lesion) and not in  
511 random sites of the geometry. It is remarkable that CAI, while derived using data  
512 from experiments performed in a different context was found in very good agreement  
513 with the statistical hypothesis.

514 The proposed method is possibly overlapping with already published works for  
515 coronary assessment based on anatomy [53] or on combined data related to  
516 anatomy and WSS [45] but it attempts a more detailed assessment as it suggests 5  
517 flow related indices. Additionally, as we believe that for biological processes the  
518 actual size of the quantities is important, our results are normalized but they are not  
519 non-dimensional. As flow simulations are not able to follow the variations of the flow  
520 conditions due to changes to blood pressure and heart beat rate, this is still mainly a  
521 geometrical assessment, but as it also shows (e.g. MI1 and MI2 models with 20% of  
522 stenosis) that small geometry changes can result to significantly different values for  
523 flow parameters.

524 The main weakness of this work is the relatively small number (13) of examined  
525 cases and the non-variation of the general LAD shape, as all models were derived  
526 from a single initial geometry, obtained by three-dimensional reconstruction of  
527 conventional coronary angiography images [77]. However, as medical imaging  
528 techniques advance, coronary models appropriate for CFD simulations can also be  
529 derived with the use of non-invasive methods as computed tomography coronary  
530 angiography [78, 79] or rotational angiography [49] thus making the future  
531 application of the method easier. Obviously before such a tool is ready for use in  
532 clinical practice it is necessary to apply the underlying methodology in large numbers  
533 of real patients' coronary geometries with known outcome in order to validate and  
534 possibly modify the range of non-pathological values of the indices suggested here.  
535 Additionally, as the proposed indices are sensitive to small geometry changes, the  
536 range of the non-pathological values should be related to the accuracy of the  
537 imaging and reconstruction methods.

## 6. Conclusions

A method for coronary flow simulations was presented and applied on a set of geometrical models previously characterized as of low or high complication risk. The results revealed that culprit flow patterns are present to a greater extent in the geometries characterized as of high risk. Additionally, it was demonstrated that disturbed flow can be expressed via arithmetic quantities instead of just visualized via plots. The quantitative expression of pathological flow patterns can make possible the use of CFD simulation as an additional tool for estimating the complication risk in stenosed coronary vessels.

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763

## 764 9. Tables and Figures

stenosis (%)	MI1			MI2			STA		
	inflow	prox	dist	inflow	prox	dist	inflow	prox	dist
0	31.11	9.51	21.66	31.11	9.51	21.66	31.11	14.78	16.39
20	31.00	9.46	21.54	31.00	9.46	21.54	31.00	14.70	16.30
35	30.91	10.69	20.22	30.94	9.45	21.49	30.95	14.65	16.30
50	30.78	9.70	21.08	30.78	9.53	21.25	30.81	15.00	15.81
70	27.87	9.81	18.07	29.54	9.87	19.67	28.40	18.95	14.73
90	17.22	9.88	7.40	15.83	9.40	6.49	19.23	14.72	4.72

765 **Table 1:**

766 The effect of stenosis of flow rates. Calculated flow-rates in ml/min for the models with  
 767 stenosis for the inlet, the outlets proximal to the peak of the stenotic lesion (prox) and the  
 768 outlets distal the peak of the stenotic lesion (dist). The flowrates are expressed as a fraction  
 769 of the respectively flow rates of the healthy model. All the groups follow similar pattern with  
 770 the stenosis having important impact on the flow-rates only for high degree of stenosis ( $\geq$   
 771 70%).

772

	TAWSS								
	surface average			area with TAWSS>3Pa			area with TAWSS<0.15Pa		
stenosis	STA	MI1	MI2	STA	MI1	MI2	STA	MI1	MI2
0%	0.697			0.000			0.222		
20%	0.719	0.727	0.728	0.00	0.07	6.75	0.000	0.092	0.656
35%	0.750	0.747	0.765	0.00	0.49	0.88	0.139	2.010	1.072
50%	0.795	0.822	0.824	25.08	31.25	32.08	0.204	0.650	1.289
70%	0.994	1.113	1.012	25.53	36.73	36.01	0.442	0.044	0.364

**Table 2**

Average values of TAWSS for the whole geometry and surface of the geometry with TAWSS>3 and TAWSS<0.15 (area in mm<sup>2</sup>). Coloured figures indicate the cases where the specific value is more than 25% (orange) or more than 50% (red) than the lowest (green) value among the models with same degree of stenosis

	OSI						RRT					
	surface average(x1000)			area with OSI>0.3			surface average			area with RRT>5		
stenosis	STA	MI1	MI2	STA	MI1	MI2	STA	MI1	MI2	STA	MI1	MI2
0%	7.62			0.00			1.57			1.41		
20%	5.49	5.41	5.63	0.00	0.00	0.05	1.54	1.51	1.52	1.26	1.06	2.15
35%	5.58	6.42	5.91	0.00	0.00	0.55	1.55	1.55	1.54	1.33	6.35	3.10
50%	8.23	10.39	11.02	4.59	6.77	9.78	1.72	1.70	1.78	12.58	18.30	19.88
70%	13.67	20.32	18.81	8.09	16.36	16.40	1.86	1.89	1.82	16.42	23.36	27.29

**Table 3**

Average values of OSI and RRT for the whole model and surface of the geometry with OSI>0.3 and RRT>15 (area in mm<sup>2</sup>). Coloured figures indicate that the specific value is more than 25% (orange) or more than 50% (red) than the lowest (green) value among the models with same degree of stenosis

785

Calculated Quantity	Minimum/maximum value	Maximum area/ threshold	Value for healthy model
Low WSS	<0.15 Pa	0.5mm <sup>2</sup>	0.222 mm <sup>2</sup>
High WSS	>3Pa	5mm <sup>2</sup>	0 mm <sup>2</sup>
OSI	>0.25	5mm <sup>2</sup>	0.09 mm <sup>2</sup>
RRT	>15 Pa <sup>-1</sup>	2mm <sup>2</sup>	1.41mm <sup>2</sup>
CAI	n/a	$1.2 \times 10^{-5} \text{m} \times \text{s}$	$0.95 \times 10^{-5} \text{m} \times \text{s}$

786 **Table 4**

787 Proposed indices and threshold values for assessing the complication risk of  
788 stenosed coronary arteries. For the surface related quantities the risk is estimated  
789 based on the magnitude of the surface where the calculated quantity exceeds a  
790 specific value, while for the CAI the calculations are explained in detail within the  
791 text.

792

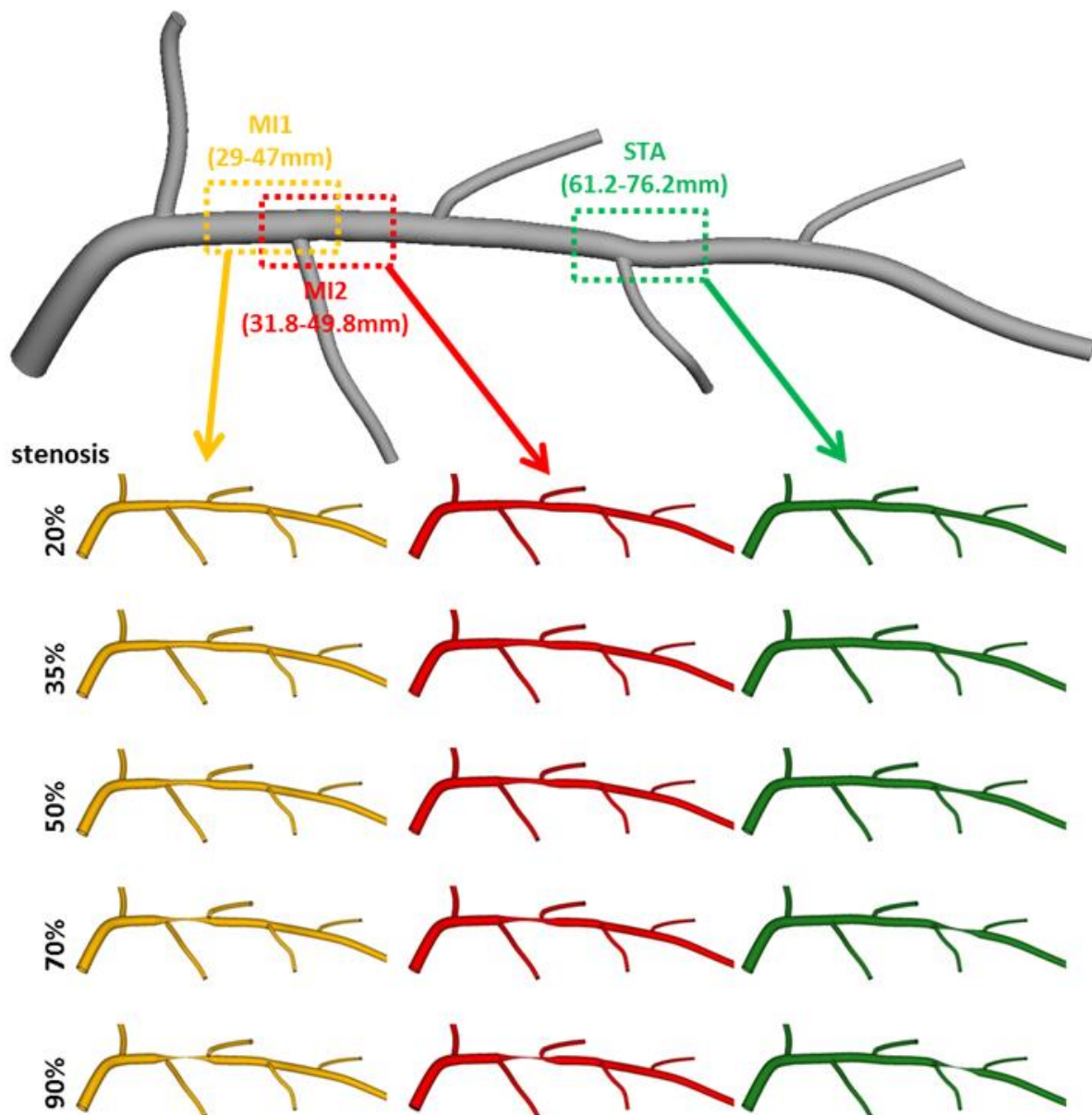
	Index	Low TAWSS	High TAWSS	OSI	RRT	CAI
Model						
20%	STA	-(0.0)	-(0.0)	-(0.0)	-(0.63)	-(0)
	MI1	-(0.18)	-(0.014)	-(0.0)	-(0.53)	-(0.59)
	MI2	<b>+(1.3)</b>	<b>+(1.4)</b>	-(0.010)	<b>+(1.1)</b>	<b>+(1.6)</b>
35%	STA	-(0.28)	-(0.00011)	-(0.0)	-(0.66)	-(0.72)
	MI1	<b>+(4.2)</b>	-(0.098)	-(0.0)	<b>+(3.2)</b>	<b>+(2.8)</b>
	MI2	<b>+(2.1)</b>	-(0.18)	-(0.11)	<b>+(1.55)</b>	<b>+(2.0)</b>
50%	STA	-(0.41)	<b>+(5.0)</b>	-(0.91)	<b>+(6.3)</b>	-(0.88)
	MI1	<b>+(1.3)</b>	<b>+(6.3)</b>	<b>+(1.36)</b>	<b>+(9.1)</b>	<b>+(1.6)</b>
	MI2	<b>+(2.6)</b>	<b>+(6.4)</b>	<b>+(3.0)</b>	<b>+(9.9)</b>	<b>+(2.2)</b>
70%	STA	-(0.88)	<b>+(5.11)</b>	<b>+(1.7)</b>	<b>+(8.2)</b>	<b>+(1.3)</b>
	MI1	-(0.088)	<b>+(7.2)</b>	<b>+(3.27)</b>	<b>+(12)</b>	-(0.41)
	MI2	-(0.73)	<b>+(7.2)</b>	<b>+(3.28)</b>	<b>+(14)</b>	<b>+(1.2)</b>

794 **Table 5**

795 Indices of risk for the different models. The + and – signs indicate whether the value  
796 of the index is above the suggested threshold while the number in the parenthesis is  
797 the fraction of the threshold to the specific value. In the cases where the value  
798 exceeds the suggested limit the digits are red.

**Figure 1**

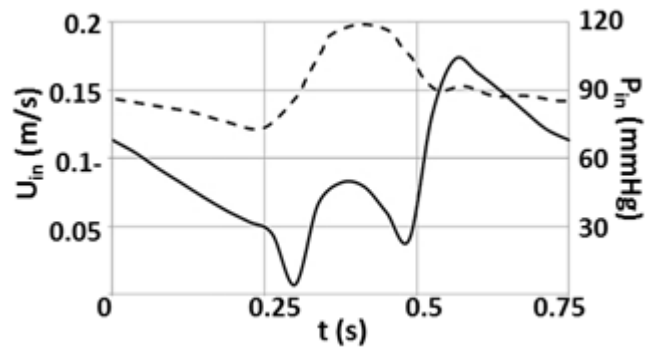
**Geometrical models:** The averaged normal LAD model, the locations of the stenotic regions for the different groups of geometries and the resulting models. The location of maximum stenosis is at the middle of each lesion. The starting and ending position of each lesion refer to the length of the centreline of the main branch of the model, measured from the inlet.





807 **Figure 2**

808 **Inlet waveforms:** Average velocity waveform for the inlet of the healthy coronary  
809 model and pressure waveform that was used as inlet boundary condition for the  
810 stenosed models.

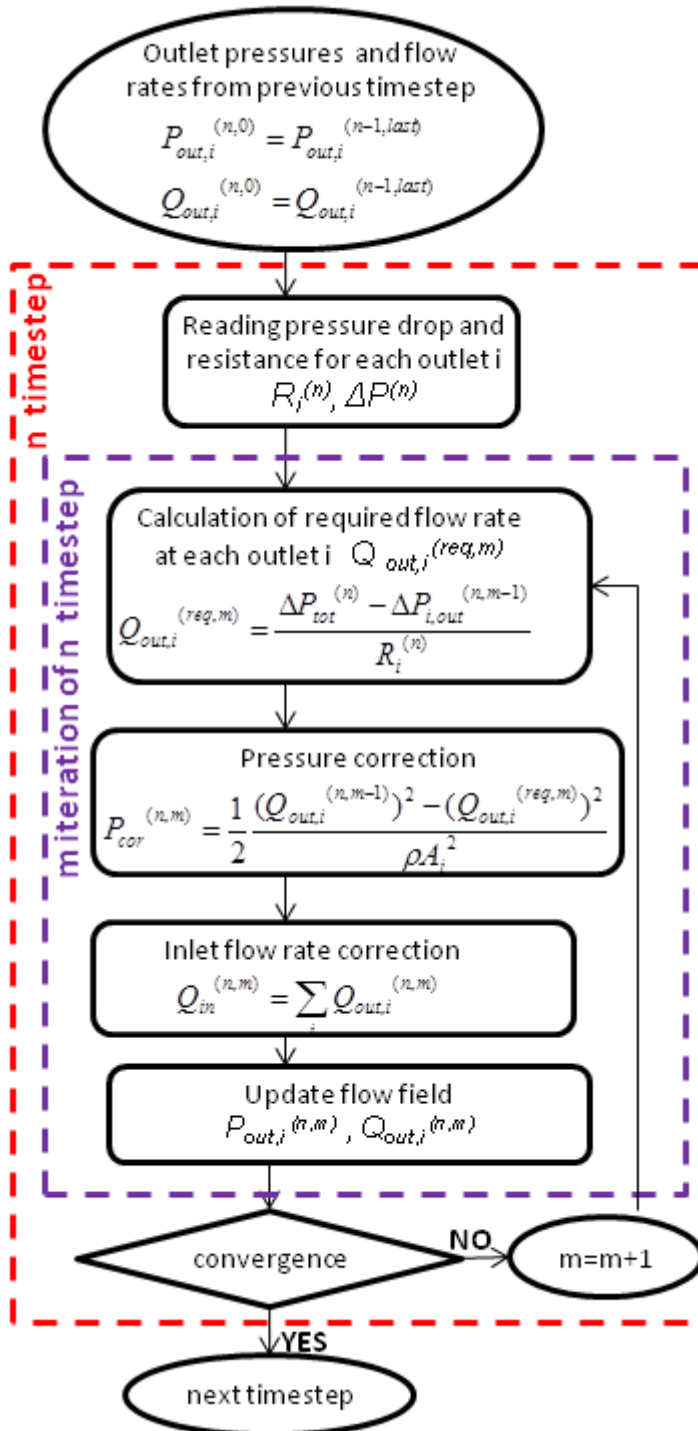


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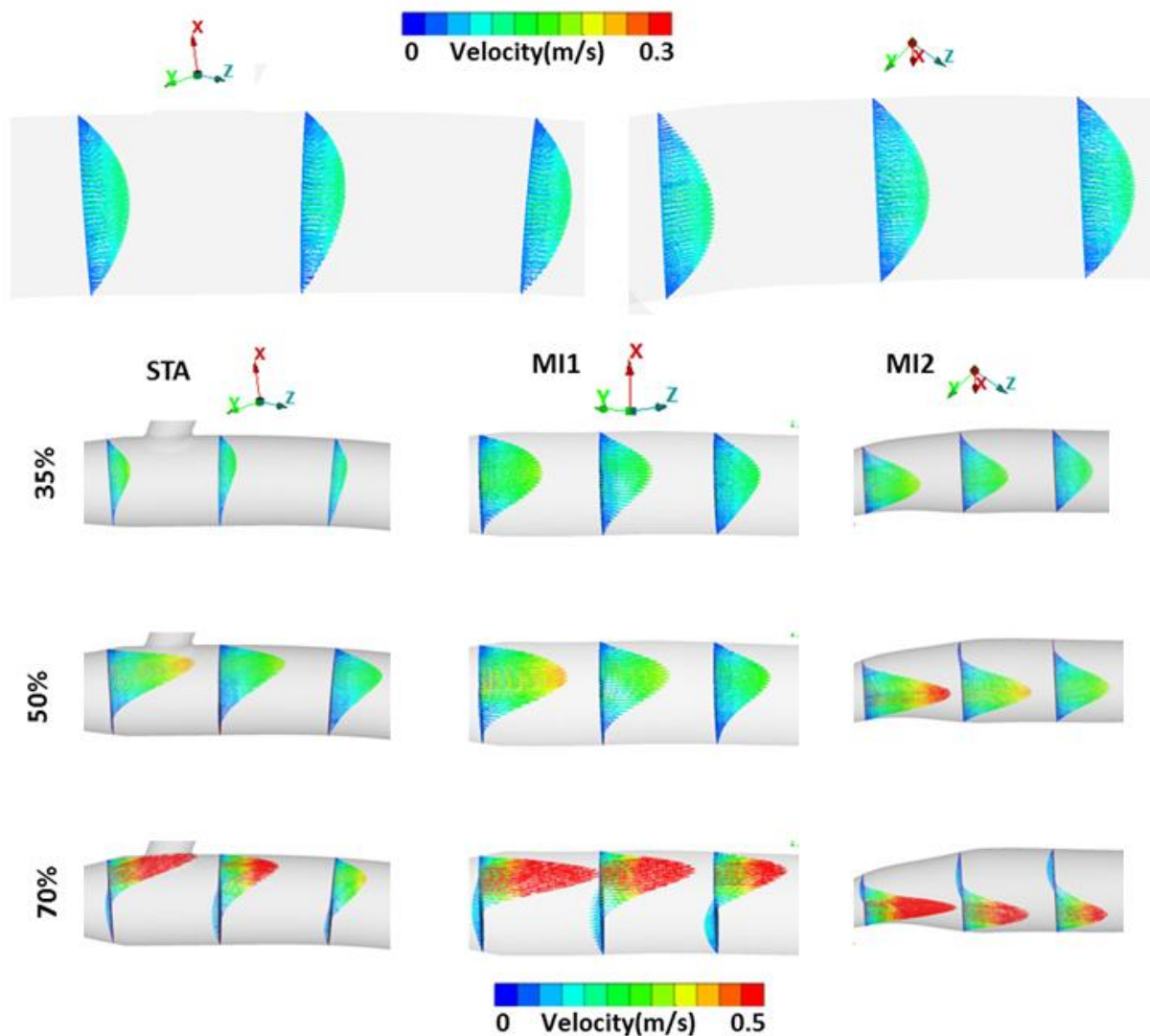
**Figure 3**

The steps used for the application of the time dependent resistance on the outlets. In the equations  $\rho$  is the density of the fluid and  $A_i$  the surface of the boundary. The plot is showing the process for the m-th iteration of the n-th time step, starting from the values of the last iteration of the previous time step (n-1).



**Figure 4**

**Average velocity profiles:** Time averaged velocity profiles downstream the stenotic lesion and the profiles of the non stenosed geometry in the same locations. Note that a small difference in the location of the stenosis (<3mm, less than 20% of the total length of the whole lesion) as it is between MI1 and MI2, changes significantly the location of the areas with inversed average flow velocity.



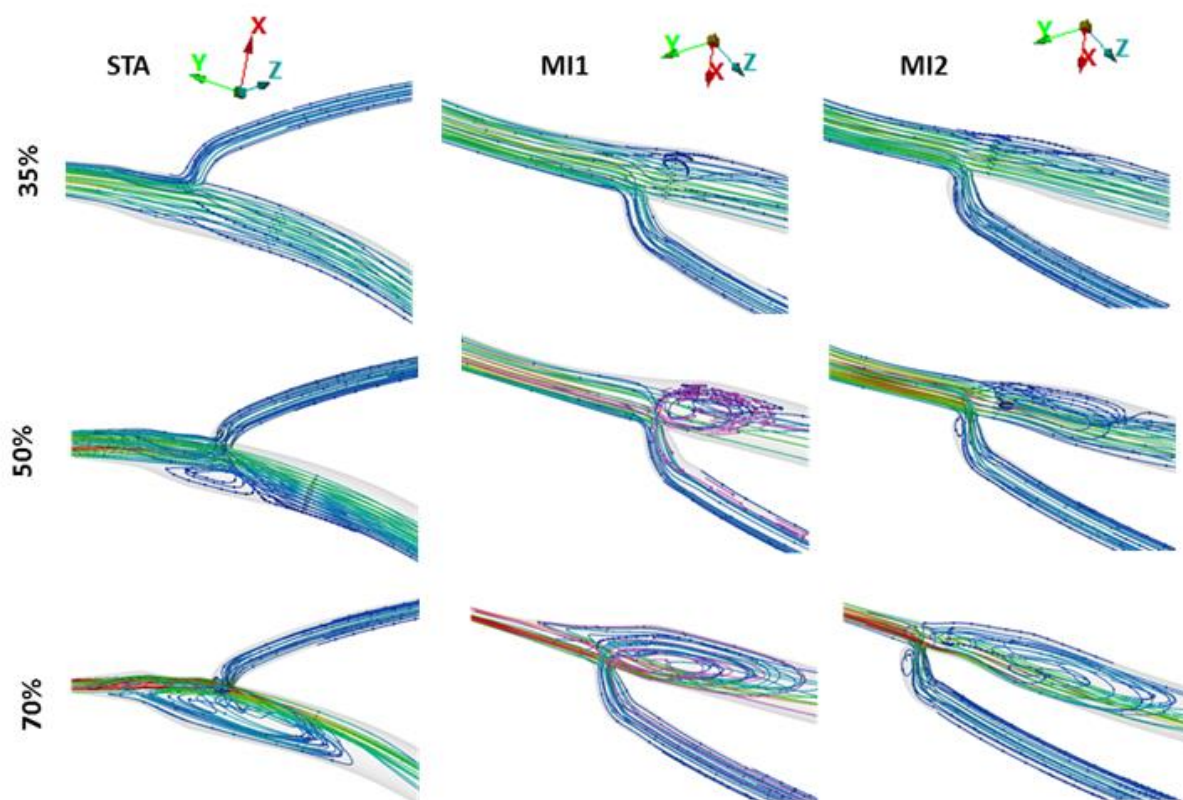
827 **Figure 5**

828 **Recirculation zones:** Recirculation zones downstream the stenotic lesion. Magenta

829 streamlines indicate that part of the flow from the vortex area ends up in the side

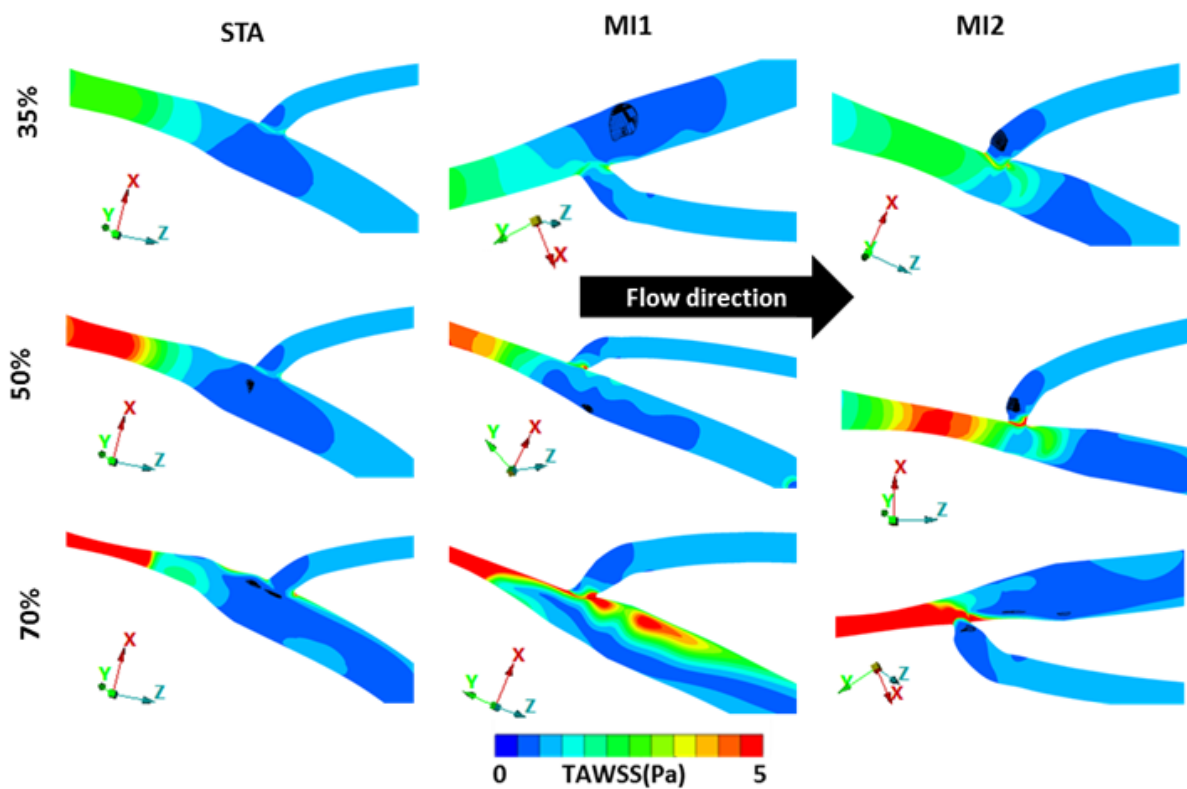
830 branch mainly in MI1 cases. Vortex stream-wise length is considerably larger for MI1

831 and MI2 models. All snapshots correspond to the same instance of the pulse.



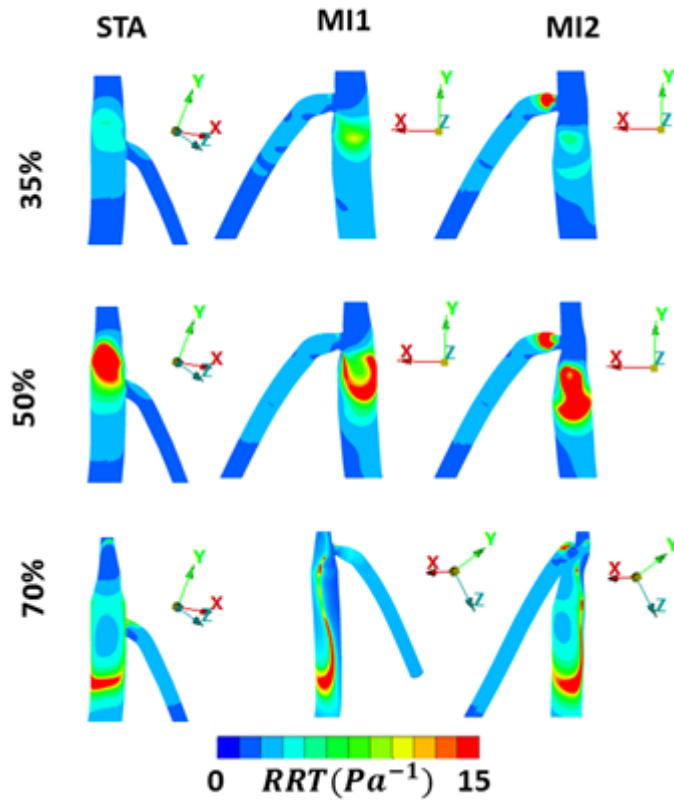
**Figure 6**

**Distribution of TAWSS-Areas with low TAWSS:** Contours of TAWSS for the different models. The black areas are the segments of the vessel wall with  $TAWSS < 0.15 \text{ Pa}$ ; note that in M1 and MI2 cases with 35% and 50% stenosis these areas are significantly larger. Also, in MI1 and MI2 models with 70% there are areas with high TAWSS ( $> 5 \text{ Pa}$ ) after the stenotic lesion while in all other model this is restricted near the point of maximum stenosis.



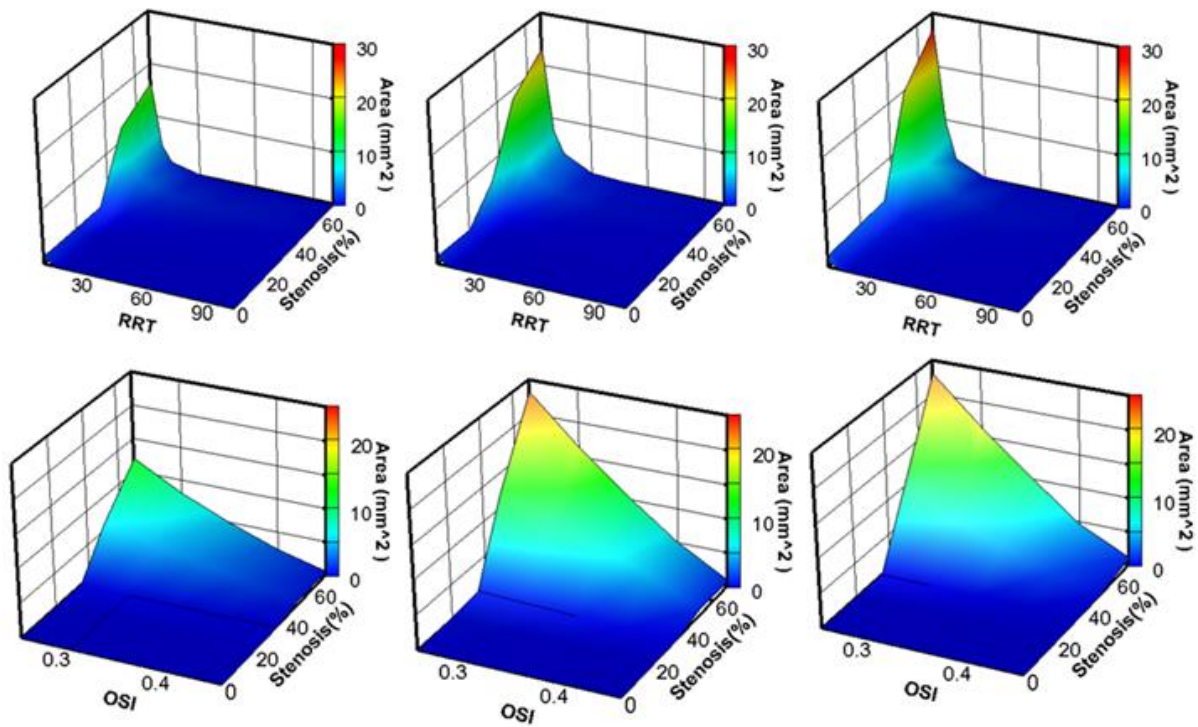
**Figure 7**

**Distribution of RRT:** Contours of RRT. For great degrees of stenosis the areas with high RRT values are moved downstream. MI1 and MI2 have larger areas with high RRT, and in MI2 models there is also an area with high RRT in the side branch after the stenosis.



**Figure 8**

**Area with high OSI and RRT for different models:** Area of the vessel wall with OSI and RRT above certain values. The areas with high RRT and OSI are definitively higher for MI2 and MI1 geometries compared to STA for the same degree of stenosis, but the change of these values is also strongly affected by the degree of stenosis.



**Figure 9**

**Coagulation activation index for all models:** Variation of CAI for STA (×) MI1 (■) and MI2 (●) geometries compared to the proposed threshold value (dashed line - -) for different degrees of stenosis. For the geometries of MI1 and MI2 with intermediate stenosis the value of CAI is clearly above the threshold line.

