

Usg And Cta Correlation In Carotid Artery Stenosis

Meltem Duraklı Ulukök^{1*}, Ümit Derundere²

¹0000-0002-09850103, sevimeltem@gmail.com, Cankaya Medical Center, Izmir, Turkey

²0000-0002-0865-1073, umitderundere@yahoo.com, Cankaya Medical Center, Izmir, Turkey

***Corresponding author:** Meltem Duraklı Ulukök
sevimeltem@gmail.com, Cankaya Medical Center, Izmir, Turkey

Cerebrovascular pathologies due to atherosclerosis are the most common cause of morbidity and cardiovascular diseases and the 3rd widely known cause of mortality after cancer (Silvennoinen HM ,2007). Cerebrovascular pathologies are responsible for 95% of stroke, and ischemic stroke is the cause of approximately 80% of stroke cases due to cerebrovascular pathologies. Cardiac thromboembolism is responsible for only 1/5 of transient or permanent cerebral ischemia, and 4/5 is due to atherosclerosis (Landeweher P ,1995). It is stated in the literature that extracranial carotid artery atherosclerosis ranks third among the causes of ischemic stroke. (Ooi Y.C, 2015).

Present knowledge base indications for the solving of carotid artery stenosis on the presence of detectable symptoms and the degree of percentage (%CS) of carotid artery stenosis (Hobson RW 2nd, 2008). Therefore, in order to plan the treatment that will provide the most benefit to the patient, it is of great importance to determine the pathology correctly and to measure the degree of stenosis correctly. In the previous European Carotid Surgery Study (ECST) and North American Symptomatic Carotid Endarterectomy Studies (NASCET), carotid endarterectomy (CEA) has been reported to be beneficial in patients who are symptomatic and have stenosis between 70% and 99%. (European Carotid Surgery Trial,1991, North American Symptomatic Carotid Endarterectomy Trial Collaborators.1991).

However, DSA is far from being a screening method due to its invasiveness, relatively high mortality-morbidity (1-4%) and high cost. It has been reported that the risk of stroke and TIA is 0.4-2% after DSA (Heiserman JE, 1994). It has even been shown that minor asymptomatic infarcts due to microemboli develop in patients who do not have any obvious neurological complications after DSA (Bendszus M, 1999). The morbidity of angiography is increased in patients with "pseudocclusion" (very narrow stenosis with a "string sign" on angiography) and emphasize the need of a safer method in order to diagnose possible cases.

This is the reason why non-invasive or minimally invasive diagnostic methods such as US, MRA and CTA are more preferred as screening methods.

Color Doppler US (CDUS) is used as an inexpensive, noninvasive and important screening test that provides morphological and hemodynamic information. Even with a high degree of stenosis, the accuracy of conventional ultrasound in detecting ICA stenosis is uncertain. It is stated that this rate is between 95-99% (Ascher E, 2002, Mansour MA, 1995). Considering the diagnosis of occlusion, the positive predictive value (PPV) of RDUS scan is in the range of 86-98% when compared with standard angiography (Mattos MA, 1992, Kirsch JD, 1994, Bridgers SL. 1989, Bornstein NM, 1987). Some centers have used CDUS as the only standard method for carotid artery exploration before endarterectomy (Patel SG, 2002). On the other hand, it is known that some symptomatic patients with near-obstructive stenosis are mistakenly classified as having occlusion in their evaluation with CDUS (Hammond CJ, 2007, Verlato F, 2000). There are disadvantages such as the technical equipment of the device used in this imaging method, the anatomical features of the patient and the experience of the practitioner being decisive, and the inability to visualize the vessel lumen in the presence of dense plaque calcification. The main disadvantage of CDUS is interobserver variability, which raises concerns about its safety and highlights the need for another noninvasive, but less operator-dependent and more reliable imaging modality (Corti R, 1998, Wessels T, 2004, Nonent M, 2004, Patel SG). , 2002, Leclerc X, 1995, Leclerc X, 1999). Although

MRA is a reliable method especially in advanced stenosis, it tends to overestimate the degree of stenosis (Masaryk TJ, 1993).

CTA is a rapid, noninvasive and relatively inexpensive test. The development of multi-detector computed tomography (MDCT) systems has revolutionized the field of CTA, and the entire carotid-vertebral system, from the aortic arch to the intracranial segments, can be visualized in the arterial phase within a few seconds. Today, CTA is used in addition to or as an alternative to DSA in the investigation of carotid and vertebral artery stenosis and intracranial aneurysms. Moreover, some studies in the literature suggest that it is possible to consider CTA as a gold standard. (Chen CJ, 2004, Lubezky N, 1998, Droste DW, 1999). However, catheter angiography continues to be a reference examination method today due to its known advantages.

In addition to the degree of carotid stenosis, the morphological features of the plaque causing stenosis are also important determinants of stroke risk (Rothwell PM, 2000). Recent studies on carotid artery disease suggest that plaque morphology should be evaluated for better treatment planning. With the introduction and widespread use of carotid USG, which is a non-invasive method, carotid artery stenosis is more easily detected and its importance as a stroke risk factor becomes clearer. Determining the degree of stenosis in the carotid system, the contents of the plaques and the surface properties of the plaques by Doppler ultrasonography and evaluating the risk of rupture of the plaques are important in the choice of treatment in stroke patients.

Medical treatment is applied in patients with stenosis below 50% who are symptomatic. In stenosis between 50-69%, in addition to medical treatment, Doppler USG is used every 6 months to investigate whether there is a progression. Carotid endarterectomy is performed in patients with stenosis greater than 70% and symptomatic in the 'near occlusion' group. Surgery is not possible in case of complete occlusion.

The annual risk of developing stroke in asymptomatic carotid stenosis is 1.3-3.3%. Thus, it is important to determine which types of plaques cause stroke to prevent stroke (Mathiesen EB, 2001). Of the morphological features of the plaques, rupture of the fibrous cap, intra-plaque hemorrhage, lipid-rich large necrotic body, erosion on the mural thrombus, and neovascularization of the plaque were associated with ischemic cerebrovascular disease (Shyam Prabhakaran, 2006, Peng Gao, 2007). It was found that plaques with irregular surfaces increase the risk of ischemic stroke 3 times (Mathiesen EB, 2001). Plaque structure and content are equally important in the preference of surgical treatment in patients with symptomatic and moderate stenosis and in patients with asymptomatic stenosis (Hatsukami TS, 2010). Atheromatous carotid plaques should be carefully examined to determine plaque extension, localization, surface contour, and luminal stenosis.

The USG B mode image shows the physiological characteristics of blood flow along with plaque morphology in the artery wall, including flow velocity and flow direction. Ulceration plaque morphology (ulcer, ulcerless), plaque type (fatty, calcified, mixed) are important parameters to determine the risk of plaque rupture and subsequent thromboembolism (Sun R, 2018). The plaque structure is characterized as low, medium or high echogenicity and homogeneous or heterogeneous. The homogeneous plaque has a single echo and its surface is smooth (Langsfield M, 1988). The heterogeneous plaque has more complex echoes and contains at least one or more sonolucent areas. Heterogeneous plaque contains intraplaque hemorrhage and/or lipid, cholesterol and protein materials. Low-echogenic plaques are common in symptomatic cases, and hemorrhage and ulceration often accompany such plaques (Polak JF, 1998).

In line with the results of the consensus meeting, which was formed by a large number of US users, published in 2003, the parameters that should be used in carotid artery stenosis today are determined as in the table (Table 1). It is the method recommended by NASCET, which was defined for angiography and is now accepted for US, for the proportional determination of the amount of narrowing in the stenosis area (Figure 1). In this method, the diameter at the narrowest point in the longitudinal plane is proportional to the diameter of the normal distal artery.

Stenosis Degree (%)	ICA PSV (cm/s)	ICA / CCA PSV ratio	ICA EDV (cm/s)
Standard	<125	<2,0	<40
<50	>125	<2,0	<40
50–69	125–230	2,0–4,0	40–100
70 – pre-occlusion	>230	>4,0	>100
Pre-occlusion	Variable	Variable	Variable
Occlusion	No flow	-	No flow

Table 1. ICA stenosis criteria of ‘Society of Radiologists in Ultrasound’. (ICA: Internal Carotid Artery, PSV: Peak Systolic Velocity, CCA: Common Carotid Artery, EDV: End-Diastolic Velocity)

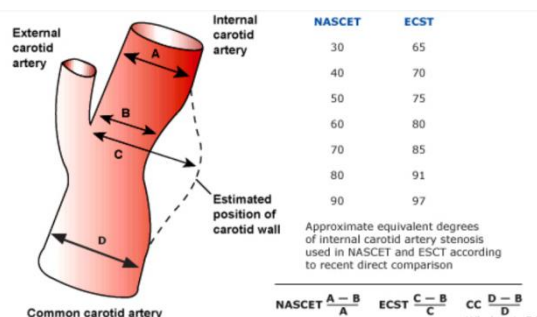


Figure 1. Schematic representation of stenosis measurement methods.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

In this study, we tried to determine the correlation between the efficacy of CTA compared to CDUS in the detection, characterization and quantification of carotid artery disease and the percentage of detected carotid stenosis. For this purpose, 47 (20 female, 27 male) patients who presented to the neurology outpatient clinic with the clinical suspicion of carotid artery stenosis and had complaints of imbalance, dizziness, history of TIA, hemiparesis, hemihypoesthesia, temporary vision loss in our center for 14 months from September 2021 to December 2022 were included in the study. A total of 94 carotid arteries were evaluated with CDUS and CTA. Those who had previous endarterectomy or stenting, and those with contraindications for contrast material were not included in the analysis.

CDUS: Sonographic examination was performed using the Samsung R7 device. Doppler examination includes gray scale, color Doppler, power Doppler and spectral Doppler examination of bilateral common carotid artery (CCA), internal carotid artery (ICA), external carotid artery (ECA) and vertebral arteries for each case. Determination of stenosis grades in color mode was determined by the lumen-filling pattern of the flow, the presence of jet or turbulent flow in plaque-detected areas, and the ratio of the residual lumen diameter in the stenosis region to the total vessel diameter in that region. Appropriate doppler angle was adjusted to measure peak systolic velocity (PSV), end-diastolic velocity (DSH) values in the stenotic area and to calculate ICA/CCA PSV and DSH ratios. The cut-off values used to define the stenosis were as follows; No significant stenosis was diagnosed when PSV was <80cm/s (<30%); Mild stenosis (30% to 40%) was found when PSV was <125cm/s; Moderate (50% to 69%) stenosis was diagnosed when the PSV ranged from 125 to 230 cm/s; and severe (70% to 99%) stenosis was mentioned when PSV was detected >230cm/s (Fig. 2). Failure to detect flow in CDUS was determined as a criterion for suspecting occlusion. The degree of stenosis expressed as a percentage was determined by combining both the morphological and hemodynamic approaches. "Society of Radiologists in Ultrasound" criteria were used for the percentage (%) stenosis grading of plaques (Table 1). If the height difference on the examined plaque surface was more than 2 mm and was irregular, the plaque was considered to be ulcerated. If

the deformation of the plate surface was equal to or less than 2 mm, the plate was considered as having a smooth ground (Manolio Ta, 1999).



Figure 2: 80-90% stenosis in the right ICA proximal in CDUS

CTA: CTA examinations were carried out with a Canon brand device with 80 rows of detectors. The patient was placed in the supine position and the head was extended as far as possible. It was stated to the patients that they should not swallow during the scanning, but that they could breathe very superficially. Anterior-posterior and lateral cervical topograms were then taken. 60 ml of nonionic contrast agent was administered through a 20 G cannula placed in the antecubital vein and with an automatic pump injector at a rate of 4-5 ml/s for the application of direct contrast scanning without non-contrast examination. 12 seconds after the start of contrast agent administration, the examination area was scanned from caudal to cranial, with collimation 2 mm, table speed 4 mm/sec, tube settings 120 kVp, automatic modulation in the range of 80-180 mA depending on the patient. Scanning was completed in 30 seconds on average. While the matrix was 512x512, the FOV (field of view) ranged between 110-190 mm. After the scanning was completed, reconstruction was performed with a section thickness of 0.3 mm. The number of sections varied between 200-250 depending on the length of the imaged area. In order to distinguish mural calcifications from contrast material in axial sections, the window width was adjusted to 500 and the window level to 225. 3D images were created from the axial sections obtained by using the MIP program in the work station of the multi-detector CT device. Percentage of diameter stenosis was calculated according to NASCET criteria (Figure 3)

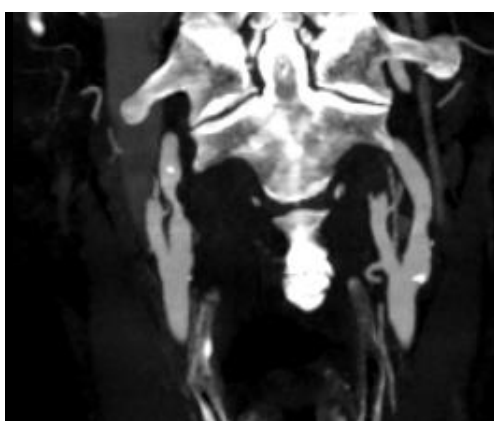


Figure 3: 70-80% stenosis in right proximal ICA in CTA

FINDINGS

First of all, the data obtained in the research were summarized with descriptive statistics. Then, the relationships between the variables were examined by chi-square analysis. 54 male and 40 female patients were included in the study. DM was detected in 37.2% of the participants, and HT in 59.6%. 59.6% of the participants smoke. 60.6% of them applied with the complaint of dizziness. Stenosis was found in the right ICA in 50% of the patients and in the left ICA in 47.9%. While USG

detected ICA stenosis less than 50% in 43.6% of the participants, this rate was 46.8% in CTA. When the plaque morphology was examined, ulcerated plaque was detected at a rate of 92.6% by US and 89.4% by CTA. The mean age of the participants was 66.78 ± 9.03 (Table 2).

		N	%
Gender	Male	54	57,4
	Female	40	42,6
DM	Yes	35	37,2
	No	59	62,8
HT	Yes	56	59,6
	No	38	40,4
Smoking	Yes	38	40,4
	No	56	59,6
Complaint	Dizziness	57	60,6
	TIA	32	34,0
	Hemiparesis	5	5,3
US Blocked Vein	Right ICA	47	50,0
	Left ICA	45	47,9
	Right CCA	1	1,1
	Left CCA	1	1,1
CTA Blocked Vein	Right ICA	47	50,0
	Left ICA	45	47,9
	Right CCA	1	1,1
	Left CCA	1	1,1
US stenosis %	<50	41	43,6
	50-69	23	24,5
	70-99	21	22,3
	100	9	9,6

CTA stenosis %	<50	44	46,8		
	50-69	21	22,3		
	70-99	24	25,5		
	100	5	5,3		
US Plaque	Ulcerated	7	7,4		
	Non-ulcerated	87	92,6		
CTA Plaque	Ulcerated	10	10,6		
	Non-ulcerated	84	89,4		
	N	Min	Max	Mean	S.d.
Age	94	38	84	66,78	9,03

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics

A statistically significant relationship was found between CTA and US in determining the percentage of stenosis according to the Fisher's Exact Test ($p < 0.01$), (Table 3).

		CTA %				Total	Test value	p	
		<50	50-69	70-99	100				
US %	<50	Count	38	3	0	0	41	99,030*	0,000
		% within US %	92,7%	7,3%	0,0%	0,0%	100,0%		
		% within CTA %	86,4%	14,3%	0,0%	0,0%	43,6%		
	50-69	Count	6	11	6	0	23		
		% within US %	26,1%	47,8%	26,1%	0,0%	100,0%		
		% within CTA %	13,6%	52,4%	25,0%	0,0%	24,5%		
	70-99	Count	0	7	14	0	21		
		% within US %	0,0%	33,3%	66,7%	0,0%	100,0%		
		% within CTA %	0,0%	33,3%	58,3%	0,0%	22,3%		
	100	Count	0	0	4	5	9		
		% within USG %	0,0%	0,0%	44,4%	55,6%	100,0%		

		% within CTA %	0,0%	0,0%	16,7%	100,0%	9,6%		
Total		Count	44	21	24	5	94		
		% within USG %	46,8%	22,3%	25,5%	5,3%	100,0%		
		% within CTA %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%		

Table 3: Percentage of stenosis detected in CTA and US, *Fisher's Exact Test

A statistically significant, positive and strong correlation was found between CTA and US in detecting ICA stenosis ($p < 0.01$, $r = 0.866$) (Table 4).

		US %	CTA %
US %	r	1,000	,866*

Table 4: Correlation between CTA and USG in determining the percentage of stenosis, * $p < 0,01$

While evaluating the plaque morphology, it was determined that there was a statistically significant, positive and strong correlation between CTA and US in determining whether the plaque is ulcerated or not ($p < 0.01$, $r = 0.822$), (Table 5).

		US Plaque	CTA Plaque
US Plaque	r	1,000	,822*

Table 5: CTA US correlation for plaque morphology, * $p < 0,01$

DISCUSSION

In symptomatic patients with suspected ICA occlusion, knowledge of the residual lumen supports decisions regarding the choice of the ideal treatment method, whether medical or surgical. Thus, it improves prognosis and prevents neurological symptoms with cessation of embolic events. Differentiating advanced stenosis of the carotid artery from total occlusion is very important in terms of treatment and prognosis. The presence of symptomatic stenosis ($>70\%$) is an indication for CEA. On the other hand, it is stated that ICA complete occlusion cases are treated conservatively. DSA was accepted as the gold standard in the diagnosis of carotid and vertebral artery origin stenosis in NASCET and ECST (European Carotid Surgery Trial) methods (Barnet HJ, 1998). Today, DSA remains the "gold standard" imaging method for the preoperative evaluation of carotid artery stenosis and cerebrovascular circulation before carotid endarterectomy. It is known that the complication rate is high because it is an invasive procedure. In the previous NASCET study, the rate of death or major stroke after angiography was expressed as 1% (North American Symptomatic Carotid Endarterectomy Trial Collaborators.1991). In one study, it has been suggested that there are both prospective and retrospective studies in the literature, in which 1% of major strokes, 3% of minor neurologic problems, and 2.1% of hypersensitivity are found after performing angiography (Hankey GJ, 1990).

These complications have led to the need for new imaging methods that can be used as noninvasive and screening tests. Today, DSA is used to guide the treatment planning and/or interventional treatment procedures of the cases examined with noninvasive imaging methods rather than being a screening method. Among the methods, the most used ones today are CDUS, MRA and CTA. In

many studies in the literature, it has been determined that the accuracy of non-invasive methods is measured by taking DSA as a reference. Nowadays, a common practice in carotid-vertebral artery stenosis in many centers around the world is to use CDUS and CTA together and to refer to DSA if there is inconsistency between these test results. Recent developments in MRA techniques show that it can contribute significantly to the definition of carotid artery pathologies. However, MRA has limitations such as overestimation of stenosis, less sensitivity in detecting ulceration, less coverage of the anatomical area, and flow dependence, especially when performed without contrast (Patel MR, 1994, Debernardi S, 2004).

CDUS is a noninvasive imaging method used as the first diagnostic test in symptomatic patients and as a screening test in asymptomatic patients in the evaluation of extracranial carotid artery disease (Worthy SA, 1997, Polak JF 1993, Khaw KT. 1997, Urwin RW, 1996, Horrow MM, 2000, Grant. EG, 2000, Perkins JMT, 2000). In many studies, it has been reported that the accuracy rate of CDUS is over 90% (Horrow MM, 2000, Grant EG, 2000). CDUS reveals all stages of atherosclerosis very successfully and accurately, from preclinical intimal-medial thickening to total occlusion (Khaw KT. 1997, Grant EG, 2000, Byrnes KR, 2012). It can be used safely in patients who cannot be given contrast due to allergies or kidney failure. It is a relatively inexpensive, reliable examination when performed by experienced personnel, with high sensitivity and specificity, and is superior to angiography for plaque characterization and examination of flow changes (Anzidei M, 2012, Khaw KT, 1997, Byrnes KR, 2012). While performing CDUS in patients with carotid artery disease, the percentage of stenosis may differ from center to center. The main diagnostic parameters of the percentage of carotid stenosis in CDUS are based on rate criteria. Accordingly, measurement errors due to improper selection of the Doppler spacing or incorrect determination of the Doppler angle may result in measurement error in the percentage of stenosis during duplex US of the carotid artery. Also, the "overestimation phenomenon", which is defined as the overestimation of the lesion contralateral to the occlusion or high-grade stenosis in CDUS, is another limitation that can lead to false positive results if not known (Horrow MM ,2000, Byrnes KR, 2012). This phenomenon is explained as the compensatory flow increase causing velocity increase without changing vessel diameter on the opposite side of high stenosis or occlusion (Horrow MM ,2000). Another disadvantage of the method is that CDUS is technically limited to extracranial vessels (Worthy SA, 1997, Polak JF, 1993, Khaw KT, 1997, Polak JF, 1992). Since atherosclerosis is a common disease, it can involve multiple vessels or multiple regions in one vessel. On the other hand, tandem lesions can be missed due to the inability of US to directly evaluate the cerebral circulation, the aortic arch and the proximal part of the brachiocephalic trunk, which is a factor that may change the choice of treatment (Worthy SA, 1997,). In a study by Worthy et al., they found an accompanying severe intracranial tandem lesion in 7% of their cases with extracranial carotid stenosis (Worthy SA, 1997,). Another important disadvantage of CDUS is that it is not always sufficient to distinguish total occlusion from subtotal occlusion. As the stenosis approaches occlusion, the flow velocity falls below 2 cm/s, which is not possible to detect with most Doppler systems.

CTA correlates perfectly with angiography in identifying and grading carotid stenosis (Schwartz RB, 1992, Dillon EH, 1993, Gunning MJ, 1994, Link J, 1996). Because of these determinations, CTA has been accepted as the new "gold standard" (Chen CJ, 2004, Lubezky N, 1998). In two meta-analysis studies, sensitivities between 85% and 95% and specificities between 93% and 98% were reported to detect severe stenosis (>70%) via CTA (Koelemay MJ,2004, Hollingworth W,2003). With the development of multi-detector computed tomography (MDCT) devices, the entire carotid system, including the intracranial section from the aortic arch, can be scanned in the arterial phase in as little as 10 seconds. Therefore, more than one level of stenosis can be demonstrated in a single study in patients with extensive atherosclerotic disease. MDCT is an operator-independent, rapidly applicable imaging method and has high sensitivity and specificity in the diagnosis of carotid artery stenosis (Rubin GD, 1999). With axial sections, mural calcification

and contrast material discrimination can be easily made if the appropriate window width and level are provided. It has been shown that CTA can show many lesions that cannot be detected by Doppler US (Oliver TB, 1999). Vascular anatomy and the percentage of stenosis can be evaluated very well with multiplanar reconstruction. It can distinguish lipid, fibrous component and calcium in atheromatous plaques. In the same session, intracranial anatomy can also be demonstrated, and thus, concomitant pathologies (stenosis, aneurysm, etc.) at this level can be detected noninvasively. However, it is not suitable for monitoring the response to treatment because it contains ionizing radiation and nephrotoxic contrast material is required (Anzidei M, 2012, Byrnes KR, 2012).

In the study of Balcı et al. investigating the compatibility of CTA with DSA, the results showing the highest compatibility with DSA were obtained from axial images. The compatibility ratio of DSA and axial-CTA was found to be 0.84. A 0.82 agreement was found between maximum intensity projection (MIP)-CTA and DSA results (Balcı Y, 2014). Many studies with similar results to these findings have shown that axial-CTA is more reliable than MIP-CTA in the evaluation of carotid artery stenosis (Silvennoinen HM, 2007).

In the current literature, it is reported that a series of attempts have been made to determine whether RDUS is sufficient to diagnose occlusion (Mattos MA, 1992, Kirsch JD, 1994, Bridgers SL, 1989, Bornstein NM, 1987). Bridgers et al showed that the PPV of the CDUS scan for occlusion diagnosis was 86%. PPV was 97% in asymptomatic patients, but PPV decreased to 72% in symptomatic patients (Bridgers SL, 1989). A 1994 study concluded that angiography is only necessary when patients are symptomatic and in case of possible suspicion of CEA. Moreover, the PPV of duplex scanning was found to be 92% in the same study (Kirsch JD, 1994). In another study, 87% of PPV was reported for duplex scanning for the diagnosis of occlusion, while in another study this rate was stated as 98%. In these two studies, it was concluded that angiography is valid if CDUS screening is suspicious (Mattos MA, 1992; Mansour MA, 1995). There are also studies that found a color flow Doppler PPV of 97%, which is stated to be sufficient for the diagnosis of carotid artery occlusion (Berman SS, 1995).

In many studies in the literature, it has been reported that Doppler US can lead to many wrong occlusion diagnoses (Chen CJ, 2004, Lubezky N, 1998, Mansour MA, 1995, Hammond CJ, 2008, El-Saden SM, 2001, Sardanelli F, 1999). From the reviewed literature, it is clear that CDUS is not sufficient for the diagnosis of carotid artery occlusion in all cases. CTA offers an excellent alternative to angiography, with a PPV of 95%, with high accuracy in distinguishing advanced stenosis from occlusion, and a negative predictive value of 100% in cases where CDUS-based occlusion is suspected. In our study, the results were found to be compatible with each other, except for 12 of 94 arteries evaluated with CDUS and CTA. Accordingly, the correlation between both analyzes was found to be 0.86 (strong positive correlation).

In some studies in the literature, it has been reported that the accuracy of B-mode US for carotid stenosis increases when interpreted together with flow rate criteria (Rotstein AH, 2002, Beebe HG, 1999). According to MacKenzie et al., B-mode US image was 85.3% (CS > 65% in B-mode US), 82.2% (CS > 70% in B-mode US), and 87% in carotid stenosis subgroups. Calculated overall accuracy of 0 (CS > 78% in B-mode US) (MacKenzie KS, 2002). In another study, it was stated that any method that does not show the feature of being invasive is not reliable enough to be used instead of DSA. In the same study, it was stated that patients primarily preferred CDUS. It was stated that this was followed by CTA, followed by DSA and MRA, respectively (Patel 2002). According to another study, it is stated in terms of the presence of moderate symptomatic carotid disease that concordant results should be sought in conventional angiography or two non-invasive imaging studies. Here, it has been suggested that a noninvasive menstrual imaging technique is appropriate only in the presence of severe symptomatic stenosis (Kennedy J, 2004).

In our study, when CDUS showed a mild-to-moderate stenosis (n:64), it was confirmed by CTA with a compliance rate of 86.5% (49/64). The compliance rate was 66.6% (14/21) in cases where CDUS showed severe stenosis. In the study of Titi et al., the overall compliance calculated between

CDUS and CTA was 79.1% (Titi M, 2007). Nonent et al. (2003) showed CDUS-CTA compliance rate of 79.1% in asymptomatic surgical patients (>60% stenosis) and between 75% and 83% in symptomatic patients (Nonent M, 2004). These limitations highlight the need to combine other non-invasive imaging techniques to assist in decision making prior to endarterectomy. In many centers, two non-invasive methods are used before proceeding to endarterectomy, and CDUS and CTA are the most preferred. We also use CDUS and CTA together in our center before CEA.

Although the degree of stenosis is considered a distinguishing factor in determining the patients to be selected for carotid endarterectomy in studies, it is now suggested that plaque morphology is an important factor in this regard (Anzidei M, 2012, Khaw KT, 1997). Especially in complicated structures, ulcerated plaques have been shown to increase the incidence of embolism and ischemic stroke. For this reason, it has been shown that plaque characterization is also important in atherosclerotic involvement of the carotid artery, besides the rate of stenosis, and which examination is successful in this area has been investigated.

Since 1986, there has been a debate about which imaging modality US is the most appropriate imaging modality for diagnosing carotid ulcerations and is superior to angiography for ulceration detection (Bornmyr S, 1986). In some studies, it is suggested that the sensitivity and specificity of the methods are high (Fürst H, 1992, O'Donnell TF Jr, 1985), while some studies suggest that US is insufficient in the diagnosis of ulcers due to its low sensitivity (23-47%). 1987, Anderson DC, 1983, Comerota AJ, 1990). On the other hand, this rate is higher in plaques with <50% stenosis (Comerota AJ, 1990). The diagnostic accuracy of the US technique for ulceration needs to be investigated extensively. Because US is the first-line modality in the evaluation of the carotid arteries (Fürst H, 1992, Johnson JM, 1982, Connolly JE, 1985, O'Donnell TF Jr, 1985, Friedrich JM, 1987, Hansen F)., 1989). Compatibility between observers is low for US, in addition to its low accuracy (Sitzer M, 1996). However, considering the technological developments in the field of US, current US devices are expected to provide wide accuracy in the diagnosis of carotid ulceration. These technological developments include modern transducers and image optimization techniques (Hu CH, 2006). The different acceptance of diagnostic criteria and definitions for ulceration in different studies may be the reason for the difference in results regarding US accuracy. In the current study, a statistically significant, positive and strong correlation was found between CTA and US in terms of detecting whether the plaque is ulcerated or not ($p < 0.01$, $r = 0.822$).

Advances in US equipment and examination techniques have made it possible to determine arterial wall layers and to measure layer thickness on US images. Therefore, in today's practice, duplex US seems to be an important initial diagnosis method in carotid artery disease. Although it does not cause hemodynamically significant stenosis, heterogeneous plaques can lead to embolism and acute thrombosis. It is predicted that patients with plaque ulceration may benefit from carotid endarterectomy, increasing the importance of CDUS, which shows plaque characterization well (Anzidei M, 2012, Khaw KT, 1997). There are also US studies in which the volume of atherosclerotic plaque is shown in three dimensions (Landry A, 2007, Ludwig M, 2008). The limitations of the method are the issue of giving proper angle in tortuous veins, underestimating the degree of stenosis because small ulcerations are overlooked or large ulcerations are evaluated as normal lumen, high-grade stenosis is evaluated as occlusion, acoustic shadowing caused by calcific plaque, differences in parameter selections, operator dependence and technical differences depending on the device (Anzidei M, et al. 2012, Worthy SA, 1997, Polak JF 1993, Khaw KT, 1997, Urwin RW, 1996, Horrow MM, 2000, Grant EG, 2000, Perkins JMT, 2000- Byrnes KR, 2012, Serfaty JM, 2000, Polak JF, 1992, Dix J, 2000). There are many factors that affect the velocity measurement of duplex US. These factors include anatomical factors (such as kinking of the carotid artery), hemodynamic factors (such as occlusion of the contralateral carotid artery), presence of a tandem lesion or an existing carotid intervention (AbuRahma AF, 1998, Hood DB, 1996, Moneta GL, 1995, Moneta GL 1993) systemic factors (such as change in blood pressure or cardiac output) (Sprouse LR 2nd, 2005, MacKenzie KS, 2002). It has been found that CTA is

very successful in showing calcific, fatty or complicated plaques and can reveal even small ulcerations. On the other hand, DSA is quite insufficient to detect plaque ulcerations (Streifler JY, 1994). MDCT for the evaluation of carotid disease is a valuable modality for accurate stenosis grading of disease and fewer complications compared to DSA. (Saba L, 2007, Berg M, 2005). Plaque morphology is of great importance in terms of the treatment method to be preferred in the patient. According to some researchers, ulcerating plaques constitute a contraindication for percutaneous transluminal angioplasty (PTA) and stenting (Moore WS, 2000).

Studies comparing US and MDCT have shown little agreement between these methods, both for diagnosing ulcerations and categorizing plaques as flat or irregular (Saba L, 2011). MDCT with histology is known as the reference method. Moreover, this method is superior to US, with a sensitivity of 37% versus 93% and a specificity of 91% versus 98% in the diagnosis of ulceration. (Saba L, 2007, Vucaj-Cirilovic V, 2011). CT is superior to other modalities in demonstrating calcification and can show even very fine calcifications. MDCT's ability to easily detect ulcers is partially due to remodeling software such as specialized three-dimensional multiplanar reconstruction (MPR), maximum intensity projection (MIP), and volume rendering (VR). Especially with axial sections, it is possible to distinguish mural calcification from contrast material and to examine both the vessel wall and its lumen in detail. However, it should be kept in mind that dense mural calcifications surrounding the lumen may cause beam hardening artifacts and reduce luminal opacity. The disadvantages of CTA are that it contains ionizing radiation and requires the use of nephrotoxic contrast material.

In conclusion, recent advances in the sensitivity of Doppler US equipment make it possible to accurately diagnose the vast majority of patients with ICA stenosis, regardless of their level. However, in cases where patients are symptomatic or with suspicious CDUS scans, it is necessary to combine other non-invasive imaging techniques so that more accurate results can be obtained at the decision point for endarterectomy.

REFERENCES

1. AbuRahma AF, Robinson PA, Strickler DL, Alberts S, Young L. Proposed new duplex classification for threshold stenoses used in various symptomatic and asymptomatic carotid endarterectomy trials. *Ann Vasc Surg* 1998;12: 349-58.
2. Anderson DC, Loewenson R, Yock D, Farber R, Larson D, Bromer M (1983) B-mode, real-time carotid ultrasonic imaging. Correlation with angiography. *Arch Neurol* 40(8):484-488
3. Anzidei M, Napoli A, Zaccagna F, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of colour Doppler ultrasonography, CT angiography and blood-pool-enhanced MR angiography in assessing carotid stenosis: a comparative study with DSA in 170 patients. *Radiol Med* 2012;117:54-71.
4. Ascher E, Markevich N, Hingorani A, Kallakuri S. Pseudo-occlusions of the internal carotid artery: a rationale for treatment on the basis of a modified carotid duplex scan protocol. *J Vasc Surg*. 2002;35(2):340-5, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1067/mva.2002.120379>.
5. Balcı Y , Yıldız A, Özgür A, Yılmaz A , Kara E. Karotis ve Vertebral Arter Darlıklarında 64 Kesitli BT Anjiyografi ile DSA Bulgularının Karşılaştırılması Acıbadem Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Dergisi 2014. 5:204-212
6. Barnett HJ, Taylor DW, Eliasziw M, Fox AJ, Ferguson GG, Haynes RB. et al. Benefit of carotid endarterectomy in patients with symptomatic moderate or severe stenosis. North American Symptomatic Carotid Endarterectomy Trial Collaborators. *N Eng J Med* 1998; 339:1415-25.

7. Beebe HG, Salles-Cunha SX, Scissons RP, Dosick SM, Whalen RC, Gale SS, et al. Carotid arterial ultrasound scan imaging: a direct approach to stenosis measurement. *J Vasc Surg* 1999;29:838-44.
8. Bendszus M, Koltzenburg M, Burger R, et al. Silent embolism in diagnostic cerebral angiography and neurointerventional procedures: a prospective study. *Lancet* 1999;354:1594-1597.
9. Berg M, Zhang Z, Ikonen A et al (2005) Multi-detector row CT angiography in the assessment of carotid artery disease in symptomatic patients: comparison with rotational angiography and digital subtraction angiography. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 26(5): 1022–1034
10. Berman SS, Devine JJ, Erdoes LS. Distinguishing internal carotid artery pseudo-occlusion with color flow doppler. *Stroke* 1995; 26: 434-438.
11. Bornmyr S, Jugquist G, Olivecrona H, Takolander R, Bergqvist D, Lindell SE (1986) Ulceration of the carotid bifurcation. A preliminary report on a diagnostic problem. *Acta Chir Scand* 152:499–501
12. Bornstein NM, Beleov ZG, Norris JW. The limitations of diagnosis of carotid occlusion by doppler ultrasound. *Ann Surg* 1987; 397: 315-317.
13. Bridgers SL. Clinical correlates of Doppler/ultrasound errors in the detection of internal carotid artery occlusion. *Stroke* 1989; 20: 612-615.
14. Byrnes KR, Ross CB. The current role of carotid duplex ultrasonography in the management of carotid atherosclerosis: foundations and advances. *Int J Vasc Med* 2012;2012:187872. doi: 10.1155/2012/187872.
15. Chen CJ, Lee TH, Hsu HL, Tseng YC, Lin SK, Wang LJ, et al. Multi-Slice CT angiography in diagnosing total versus near occlusions of the internal carotid artery: comparison with catheter angiography. *Stroke*. 2004;35(1): 83-5.
16. Comerota AJ, Katz ML, White JV, Grosh JD (1990) The preoperative diagnosis of the ulcerated carotid atheroma. *J Vasc Surg* 11(4):505–510
17. Connolly JE, Brownell DA, Levine EF, McCart PM (1985) Accuracy and indications of diagnostic studies for extracranial carotid disease. *Arch Surg* 120(11):1229–1232
18. Corti R, Ferrari C, Roberti M, Alerci M, Pedrazzi PL, Gallino A. Spiral computed tomography: A novel diagnostic approach for investigation of the extra cranial cerebral arteries and its complementary role in duplex ultrasonography. *Circulation* 1998; 98(10): 984-9
19. Debernardi S, Martincich L, Lazzaro D, Comelli S, Raso AM, Regge D. CT angiography in the assessment of carotid atherosclerotic disease: results of more than two years' experience. *Radiol Med*. 2004;108:116-27.
20. Dix J, Skrocki J. Evaluation of carotid stenosis by angiography: potential bias toward overestimated measurements introduced by prior interpretation of doppler sonograms. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 2000;21:639-642.

21. Dillon EH, Van Leeuwen MS, Fernandez MA, Eikelboom BC, Mali WP. CT angiography: application to the evaluation of carotid artery stenosis. *Radiology* 1993; 189: 211-219.
22. Droste DW, Juergens R, Nabavi DG, Schuierer G, Weber S, Ringelstein EB. Echocontrast-enhanced ultrasound of extracranial internal carotid artery high-grade stenosis and occlusion. *Stroke*. 1999;30(11):2302-6, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/01.STR.30.11.2302>.
23. El-Saden SM, Grant EG, Hathout GM, Zimmerman PT, Cohen SN, Baker JD. Imaging of the internal carotid artery: the dilemma of total versus near total occlusion. *Radiology*. 2001;221(2):301-8, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2212001606>.
24. Friedrich JM, Arlart IP, Schumacher KA, Hamann H (1987) Role of digitalized angiography by venous route in the study of carotid bifurcation. Value in the diagnosis of ulcerated lesions. *J Radiol* 68(4):275–283
25. Fürst H, HartlWH, Jansen I, Liepsch D, Lauterjung L, Schildberg FW(1992) Color-flow Doppler sonography in the identification of ulcerative plaques in patients with high-grade carotid artery stenosis. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 13(6):1581–1587
26. Grant EG, Duerinckx AJ, El Saden SM, et al. Ability to use Duplex US to quantify internal carotid arterial stenoses: Fact or fiction? *Radiology* 2000;214:247-252.
27. Gunning MJ, Morrow IM. Carotid artery stenosis: a prospective comparison of CT angiography and conventional angiography. *Am J Roentgenol* 1994; 163: 517-552.
28. Hammond CJ, McPherson SJ, Patel JV, Gough MJ. Assessment of apparent internal carotid occlusion on ultrasound: prospective comparison of contrast-enhanced ultrasound, magnetic resonance angiography and digital subtraction angiography. *Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg*. 2008;35(4):405-12, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ejvs.2007.12.008>.
29. Hankey GJ, Warlow CP, Sellar RJ. Cerebral angiographic risk in mild cerebrovascular disease. *Stroke* 1990; 21: 209-222.
30. Hansen F, Bergqvist D, Eriksson A, Maly P, Takolander R (1989) Evaluation of ulceration in the extracranial carotid artery with ultrasonography: a comparison with arteriography. *Eur J Vasc Surg* 3(5):443–448
31. Hatsukami TS, Yuan C. MRI in the early identification and classification of high-risk atherosclerotic carotid plaques. *Imaging Med*.2010 Feb 1;2(1):63-75.
32. Heiserman JE, Dean BL, Hodak JA, et al. Neurologic complications of cerebral angiography. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 1994;15:1401-1407.
33. Hobson RW 2nd, Mackey WC, Ascher E, Murad MH, Calligaro KD, Comerota AJ, et al. Management of atherosclerotic carotid artery disease: clinical practice guidelines of the Society for Vascular Surgery. *J Vasc Surg* 2008; 48:480-6.
34. Hollingworth W, Nathens AB, Kanne JP, et al. The diagnostic accuracy of computed tomography angiography for traumatic or atherosclerotic lesions of the carotid and vertebral arteries: a systematic review. *Eur J Radiol* 2003;48:88– 102

35. Hood DB, Mattos MA, Mansour A, Ramsey DE, Hodgson KJ, Barkmeier LD, et al. Prospective evaluation of new duplex criteria to identify 70% internal carotid artery stenosis. *J Vasc Surg* 1996;23:254-61.
36. Horrow MM, Stassi J, Shurman A, et al. The limitations of carotid sonography: Interpretive and technology-related errors. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 2000;174:189-194.
37. Hu CH, Xu XC, Cannata JM, Yen JT, Shung KK (2006) Development of a real-time, high-frequency ultrasound digital beamformer for high-frequency linear array transducers. *IEEE Trans Ultrason Ferroelectr Freq Control* 53(2):317–323
38. Johnson JM, Ansel AL, Morgan S, DeCesare D (1982) Ultrasonographic screening for evaluation and follow-up of carotid artery ulceration. A new basis for assessing risk. *Am J Surg* 144(6):614–618
39. Kennedy J, Quan H, Ghali WA, Feasby TE. Importance of the imaging modality in decision making about carotid endarterectomy. *Neurolog* 2004;62(6):901-04
40. Kirsch JD, Wagner LR, James EM. Carotid artery occlusion: positive predictive value of duplex sonography compared with arteriography. *J Vasc Surg* 1994; 19: 642-649.
41. Khaw KT. Does carotid duplex imaging render angiography redundant before carotid endarterectomy? *Br J Radiol* 1997;70:235-238.
42. Koelemay MJ, Nederkoorn PJ, Reitsma JB, et al. Systematic review of computed tomographic angiography for assessment of carotid artery disease. *Stroke* 2004;35:2306–12
43. Landeweher P. Carotid and vertebral arteries. In: Wolf KJ, Fobbe F, editors. *Color Duplex Sonography: Principles and Clinical Applications*. 1st ed. Germany: Georg Thieme Verlag; 1995; 45-66.
44. Landry A, Ainsworth C, Blake C, et al. Manual planimetric measurement of carotid plaque volume using threedimensional ultrasound imaging. *Med Phys* 2007;34:1496-1505.
45. Langsfield M, Gray-Weale AC, Lusby RJ. The role of plaque morphology and diameter reduction in the development of new symptoms in asymptomatic carotid arteries. *J Vasc Surgery* 1988;8:558-62.
46. Leclerc X, Godefroy O, Lucas C, Benhaim J-F, Saint Michel T, Leys D, Pruvo JP. Internal carotid arterial stenosis: CT angiography with volume rendering. *Radiology* 1999; 210: 673-82
Leclerc X, Godefroy O, Pruvo JP, Leys D. Computed tomographic angiography for the evaluation of carotid artery stenosis. *Stroke* 1995; 26(9): 1577-81
47. Link J, Brossman J, Grabener Met al. Spiral CT angiography and selective digital subtraction angiography of internal carotid artery stenosis. *Am J Neuroradiol* 1996; 17: 89-94.
48. Lubezky N, Fajer S, Barneir E, Karmeli R. Duplex scanning and CT angiography in the diagnosis of carotid artery occlusion: a prospective study. *Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg*. 1998;16(2):133-6, [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1078-5884\(98\)80154-8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1078-5884(98)80154-8).
49. Ludwig M, Zielinski T, Schremmer D, et al. Reproducibility of 3-dimensional ultrasound readings of volume of carotid atherosclerotic plaque. *Cardiovasc Ultrasound* 2008;6:42. doi: 10.1186/1476- 7120-6-42.
50. 51-MRC European Carotid Surgery Trial: Interim results for symptomatic patients with severe (70-99%) or with mild (0-29%) carotid stenosis. European Carotid Surgery Trialists' Collaborative Group. *Lancet* 1991; 337:1235-43.

51. MacKenzie KS, French-Sherry E, Burns K, Pooley T, Bassiouny HS. B-mode ultrasound measurement of carotid bifurcation stenoses: is it reliable? *Vasc Endovascular Surg* 2002;36:123-35.
52. Manolio Ta ., Burke GI., O'leary Dh., Evans G., Beauchamp N., Knepper L., Ward B.: Relationships Of Cerebral MRI Findings To Ultrasonographic Carotid Atherosclerosis in Older Adults: The Cardiovascular Health Study. Chs Collaborative Research Group. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol.* 1999; 19:356-65
53. Masaryk TJ, Obuchowski NA. Noninvasive carotid imaging: caveat emptor. *Radiology* 1993; 186:325-31.
54. Mansour MA, Mattos MA, Hood DB, Hodgson KJ, Barkmeier LD, Ramsey DE, et al. Detection of total occlusion, string sign, and preocclusive stenosis of the internal carotid artery by color-flow duplex scanning. *Am J Surg.* 1995;170(2):154-8.
55. Mattos MA, Hodgson KJ, Ramsey DE, Barkmeier LD, Sumner DS. Identifying total carotid occlusion with colour flow duplex scanning. *Eur J Vasc Surg* 1992; 6: 204-210.
56. ischemic cerebrovascular events in carotid stenosis: the Tromso study. *Circulation* 2001;103:2171- 2175.
57. Moneta GL, Edwards JM, Papanicolaou G, Hatsukami T, Taylor LM Jr, Strandness DE Jr, et al. Screening for asymptomatic internal carotid artery stenosis: duplex criteria for discriminating 60% to 99% stenosis. *J Vasc Surg* 1995;21: 989-94.
58. Moneta GL, Edwards JM, Chitwood RW, Taylor LM Jr, Lee RW, Cummings CA, et al. Correlation of North American Symptomatic Carotid Endarterectomy Trial (NASCET) angiographic definition of 70% to 99% internal carotid artery stenosis with duplex scanning. *J Vasc Surg* 1993;17:152-7.
59. Moore WS, Krupski WC. Indications, surgical technique and results for repair of extracranial occlusive lesions. In Rutherford RB ed: *Vascular Surgery*, ed 5. Philadelphia, WB Saunders, 2000:1789-822.
60. Nonent M, Serfaty JM, Nighoghossian N, Rouhart F, Derex L, Rotaru C, et al; CARMEDAS Study Group. Concordance rate differences of three non-invasive imaging techniques to measure carotid stenosis in clinical routine practice: Results of the CARMEDAS multicentre study. *Stroke* 2004; 35(3): 682-6
61. NORTH AMERICAN SYMPTOMATIC CAROTID ENDARTERECTOMY TRIAL COLLABORATORS. Beneficial effect of carotid endarterectomy in symptomatic patients with high grade carotid stenosis. *N Engl J Med* 1991; 325: 445-453.
62. O'Donnell TF Jr, Erdoes L, Mackey WC et al (1985) Correlation of B-mode ultrasound imaging and arteriography with pathologic findings at carotid endarterectomy. *Arch Surg* 120(4):443-449
63. O'Leary DH, Mattle H, Potter JE. Atheromatous pseudoocclusion of the internal carotid artery. *Stroke* 1989; 20: 1168-1173.
64. Oliver TB, Lammie OA, Wright AR, Wardlaw J, Patel SG, Peek R, et al. Atherosclerotic plaque at the carotid bifurcation: CT angiographic appearance with histopathologic correlation. *AJNR* 1999; 20:897-901.
65. Ooi, Y. C., Gonzalez, N. R. Management of extracranial carotid artery disease. *Cardiology clinics* 2015;33:1-35.
66. Patel SG, Collie DA, Wardlaw JM, Lewis SC, Wright AR, Gibson RJ, Sellar RJ. Outcome, observer reliability and patient preferences if CTA, MRA, or Doppler ultrasound were used individually or together, instead of digital subtraction angiography before carotid endarterectomy. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2002; 73(1): 21-8
67. Patel MR, Klufas RA, Kim D, Edelman RR, Kent KC. MR angiography of the carotid bifurcation: artifacts and limitations. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 1994;162:1431-7.

68. Peng Gao, Zuo-quan Chen, Yu-hai Bao, et al. Correlation Between Carotid Intraplaque Hemorrhage and Clinical Symptoms Systematic Review of Observational Studies *Stroke* 2007;38:2382-2390.
69. Perkins JMT, Galland RB, Simmons MJ, et al. Carotid duplex imaging: variation and validation. *Br J Surg* 2000;87:320- 322.
70. Polak JF, Shemanski L, O’Leary HD, Lefkowitz D, Thomas PR, Savage JP, Brant EW, Reid C: Hypoechoic plaque at US of the carotid artery: an independent risk factor for incident stroke in adults aged 65 years or older. *Cardiovascular Health Study Radiology* 1998; 208:649-654
71. Polak JF, Kalina P, Donaldson MC, et al. Carotid endarterectomy: Preoperative evaluation of candidates with combined Doppler sonography and MR angiography. *Radiology* 1993;186:333- 338.
72. Polak JF, Bajakian RL, O’Leary DH, et al. Detection of internal carotid artery stenosis: comparison of MR angiography, color doppler sonography, and arteriography. *Radiology* 1992;182:35-40.
73. Rothwell PM, Gibson R, Warlow CP. Interrelation between plaque surface morphology and degree of stenosis on carotid angiograms and the risk of ischemic stroke in patients with symptomatic carotid stenosis. On behalf of the European Carotid Surgery Trialists’ Collaborative Group. *Stroke* 2000;31:615-621.
74. Ranaboldo C, Davies RJ, Cant A. duplex scanning alone before carotid endarterectomy: a 5-year experience. *Eur J Vasc Surg* 1991; 5: 415-419.
75. Rotstein AH, Gibson RN, King PM. Direct B-mode NASCET-style stenosis measurement and Doppler ultrasound as parameters for assessment of internal carotid artery stenosis. *Australas Radiol* 2002;46:52-6.
76. Rubin GD, Shiau MC, Schimidt AJ, , Fleischmann D, Logan L, Leung AN, et al. Computed tomographic angiography: historical perspective and new state-of-the-art using multi detector-row helical computed tomography. *J Comput Assist Tomogr* 1999; 23: 83-90.
77. Saba L, Caddeo G, Sanfilippo R, Montisci R, Mallarini G (2007) CT and ultrasound in the study of ulcerated carotid plaque compared with surgical results: potentialities and advantages of multidetector row CT angiography. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 28(6):1061–1066
78. Saba L, Sanfilippo R, Montisci R, Atzeni M, Ribuffo D, Mallarini G (2011) Vulnerable plaque: detection of agreement between
79. multi-detector-row CT angiography and US-ECD. *Eur J Radiol* 77(3):509–515
80. Sardanelli F, Zandrino F, Parodi RC, De Caro G. MR angiography of internal carotid arteries: breath-hold Gd-enhanced 3D fast imaging with steady-state precession versus unenhanced 2D and 3D time-of-flight techniques. *J Comput Assist Tomogr.* 1999;23(2):208-15, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/00004728-199903000-00008>.
81. Schwartz RB, Jones KM, Chernoff DM. Common carotid artery bifurcation: evaluation with spiral CT. *Radiology* 1992; 185: 513-519.
82. Serfaty JM, Chirossel P, Chevallier JM, et al. Accuracy of three-dimensional gadolinium-enhanced MR angiography in the assessment of extracranial carotid artery disease. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 2000;175:455-463.
83. Shyam Prabhakaran, Tatjana Rundek, Romel Ramas, et al. Carotid Plaque Surface Irregularity Predicts Ischemic Stroke The Northern Manhattan Study *Stroke* 2006 Nov;37(11):2696-701.
84. Silvennoinen HM, Ikonen S, Soine L, Railo M, Valanne L. CT angiographic analysis of carotid artery stenosis: comparison of manual assessment, semiautomatic vessel analysis, and digital subtraction angiography. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol.* 2007; 28: 97-103.
85. Sitzer M, Muller W, Rademacher J et al (1996) Colo-flow Doppler-assisted duplex imaging fails to detect ulceration in high-grade internal carotid artery stenosis. *J Vasc Surg* 23(3):461–465

86. Sprouse LR 2nd, Meier GH, Parent FN, Demasi RJ, Lesar CJ, Nelms C, et al. Are we undertreating carotid stenoses diagnosed by ultrasound alone? *Vasc Endovascular Surg* 2005;39:143-51.
87. Streifler JY, Eliasziw M, Fox AJ, Benavente OR, Hachinski VC, Ferguson GG, et al. Angiographic detection of carotid plaque ulceration. Comparison with surgical observations in a multicenter study. *North American Symptomatic Carotid Endarterectomy Trial. Stroke* 1994; 25: 1130-2.EIER
88. Sun, R., Wang, L., Guan, C., Cao, W. and Tian, B. Carotid Atherosclerotic Plaque Features in Patients with Acute Ischemic Stroke. *World Neurosurg.* 2018;112:e223-e228.
89. Urwin RW, Higashida RT, Halbach VV, et al. Endovascular therapy for the carotid artery. *Neuroimag Clin North Am* 1996;6:957-973.
90. Verlato F, Camporese G, Bernardi E, Salmistraro G, Rocco S, Mayellaro V, et al. Clinical outcome of patients with internal carotid artery occlusion: a prospective follow-up study. *J Vasc Surg.* 2000;32(2):293-8, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1067/mva.2000.106953>.
91. Vucaj-Cirilovic V, Lucic M, Petrovic K, Nikolic O, Govorcic M, Stojanovic S (2011) Color Doppler ultrasonography and multislice computer tomography angiography in carotid plaque detection and characterization. *Vojnosanit Pregl* 68(5):423–429
92. Wessels T, Harrer JU, Stetter S, Mull M, Klotzsch C. Three-dimensional assessment of extra cranial Doppler sonography in carotid artery stenosis compared with digital subtraction angiography. *Stroke* 2004; 35(8): 1847-51
93. Worthy SA, Henderson J, Griffiths PD, et al. The role of duplex sonography and angiography in the investigation of carotid artery disease. *Neuroradiology* 1997;39:122-126.
94. Titi M, George C, Bhattacharya D, Rahi A, Woodhead PM, Stevenson WJ, Pillai A, Al-Khaffaf H. Comparison of carotid Doppler ultrasound and computerised tomographic angiography in the evaluation of carotid artery stenosis. *Surgeon.* 2007 Jun;5(3):132-6. doi: 10.1016/s1479-666x(07)80039-4. PMID: 17575665.