

Effects of vessel tortuosity on coronary hemodynamics: an idealized and patient-specific computational study

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1 **Abstract**

2 Although coronary tortuosity can influence the hemodynamics of coronary arteries, the
3 relationship between tortuosity and flow has not been thoroughly investigated partly due
4 to the absence of a widely accepted definition of tortuosity and the lack of patient-
5 specific studies that analyze complete coronary trees. Using a computational approach
6 we investigated the effects of tortuosity on coronary flow parameters including pressure
7 drop, wall shear stress, and helical flow strength as measured by helicity intensity. Our
8 analysis considered idealized and patient-specific geometries. Overall results indicate
9 that perfusion pressure decreases with increased tortuosity, but the patient-specific
10 results show that more tortuous vessels have higher physiological wall shear stress
11 values. Differences between the idealized and patient-specific results reveal that an
12 accurate representation of coronary tortuosity must account for all relevant geometric
13 aspects, including curvature imposed by the heart shape. The patient-specific results
14 exhibit a strong correlation between tortuosity and helicity intensity, and the
15 corresponding helical flow contributes directly to the observed increase in wall shear
16 stress. Therefore, helicity intensity may prove helpful in developing a universal
17 parameter to describe tortuosity and assess its impact on patient health. Our data
18 suggest that increased tortuosity could have a deleterious impact via a reduction in
19 coronary perfusion pressure, but the attendant increase in wall shear stress could afford
20 protection against atherosclerosis.

21 **Key words:** Coronary artery; tortuosity; computational fluid dynamics; wall shear stress;
22 helicity.
23

1 **1 Introduction**

2 Coronary vessel tortuosity is an anatomical variant in which the epicardial vessels
3 display abnormally curved or helically coiled paths (1-5). Cardiologists often encounter
4 coronary tortuosity, but its mechanisms and impacts are not well studied or understood.
5 Although coronary tortuosity has been associated with coronary artery disease (1), it
6 can also occur in the absence of significant stenosis (2). Tortuosity has been commonly
7 associated with hypertension (6, 7) and aging (2-4, 6, 8) and has been observed in long
8 standing collateral vessels that form after myocardial infarction (3). Arterial tortuosity
9 has been observed in a variety of other organ systems (9-11), where age-dependent
10 degeneration of elastin fibers is considered a potential etiologic factor, (2) and in some
11 cases there appears to be a genetic predisposition (12-14). While mild tortuosity is often
12 asymptomatic, severe tortuosity may lead to angina, positive stress test, or other
13 manifestations of myocardial ischemia (1, 2, 6, 15).

14 Tortuosity has been characterized using a variety of mathematical parameters. These
15 include: the distance metric or relative length variation (1, 13, 16-20); the inflection
16 count metric (13); the sum of angles metric (13); the total torsion (21); the total
17 curvature (18, 21); the average torsion (16); the average curvature (16); the total
18 squared curvature (18); and the normalized root-mean squared curvature (10, 14).
19 Some of these metrics are appropriate for specific types of tortuosity. For example, the
20 sum of angles is good for measuring the tortuosity of tight low-amplitude coils, while the
21 distance metric and inflection count metric are good for characterizing vessels with
22 broad meandering curves (13).

23 Vessel curvature and torsion induce secondary flow (22). Curvature generates
24 circumferential flow (23), first investigated by Dean (24), creating helical fluid motion. As
25 a result, the pressure drop in an idealized curved pipe is larger than the pressure drop,
26 for the same flow rate, in a corresponding straight pipe of the same length (25, 26).
27 Torsion breaks the symmetry of the curvature-generated helical motions making one
28 helical structure more dominant (22). The pressure drop required for blood flow through

1 an idealized helically coiled vessel grows with the number of helical coils for the same
2 vessel length (27). Patient-specific numerical simulations have shown that the blood
3 flow resistance increases in the presence of tortuosity in coronary arteries (28).

4 Atherosclerotic lesions appear in regions of low or oscillatory wall shear stress (WSS),
5 or regions of “disturbed” WSS (29). The influence of tortuosity on the susceptibility of
6 arteries to atherosclerosis is not understood, in part because coronary tortuosity, or
7 tortuosity in general, is not well defined in the literature and only a limited number of
8 patient-specific studies have been performed. Moreover, contradiction exists regarding
9 the development of atherosclerosis in tortuous coronary arteries. A clinical study by Li *et*
10 *al.* showed that coronary tortuosity could have a suppressing effect on atherosclerosis
11 (30). In contrast, a numerical study by Xie *et al.* suggested that severe coronary
12 tortuosity could lead to atherosclerosis (28, 31). Theoretical, experimental, and
13 numerical investigations of different aspects of tortuosity such as flow in bends of
14 constant curvature (24, 25, 32, 33), helically coiled pipes of constant curvature and
15 torsion (25, 27), idealized helical arterio-venous graft designs (34), S-shaped pipes with
16 planar centerline (22, 31, 35) and with torsion (22, 36), and two subsequent S-shaped
17 vessels (22), have shown different impacts on WSS. For example, a numerical
18 investigation of flow in a curved pipe without torsion showed extensive regions of
19 disturbed WSS (31). Torsion, on the other hand, leads to more complex flow patterns,
20 reducing the areas exposed to atherogenous conditions (34), leading to more uniform
21 spatial distribution of WSS (23), which reduces the risk of vessel occlusion (37). Clinical
22 and numerical studies of femoral arteries have shown that tortuosity may cause
23 atherosclerosis (17, 19), while the numerical study by Gallo *et al.* showed tortuosity of
24 the carotid bifurcation to be atheroprotective (16).

25 This work explored the dependence of flow parameters on vessel tortuosity and
26 investigated the correlation between tortuosity, pressure drop, and WSS distribution for
27 idealized and patient-based geometries. In the analysis of the idealized cases we
28 focused on the influence of torsionless curvature on the flow in the vessel. In contrast to
29 previous studies (22, 31, 35), each idealized vessel consists of segments with
30 progressively increasing curvature and the vessel diameter tapers uniformly along the

1 vessel length, thus providing better physiological fidelity. The geometric parameters,
2 such as the number of coils, the amplitude of coils, and the tapering angle, were
3 obtained from clinical data. Coronary trees from three subjects are investigated for the
4 patient-specific cases. Each vessel of the coronary trees was individually analyzed,
5 resulting in 23 segments, thus allowing for statistical analysis of the effect of coronary
6 tortuosity on hemodynamic parameters. Finally, we explored if intensity of the helical
7 flow can capture the effects of tortuosity and thus serve as a parameter to describe flow
8 alterations and potential health risks.

9 **2 Materials and methods**

10 **2.1 Models of arterial geometries**

11 **2.1.1 Idealized geometries**

12 Idealized 3D geometries of tortuous coronary vessels were modeled in order to
13 compare flow parameters in vessels with different numbers of curved arcs but without
14 torsion or branching. The centerline of each vessel was taken to lie on a plane. Three
15 cases were considered, denoted T-5, T-6, and T-7 (Figure 1 a–c), where the integer
16 signifies the number of curved arcs in the vessel. The amplitude of each subsequent
17 bend is smaller than that of the previous bend. All cases have an inlet radius of 1.5 mm
18 and taper uniformly to a final radius of 0.75 mm.

19 **2.1.2 Patient-specific geometries**

20 Computed Tomography Angiograms (CTA) from three patients (patient-A, -B, and -C)
21 were used to generate 3D geometries. The use of these data was approved by the
22 ethical committee of Carilion Clinic (Roanoke, VA, USA) and informed consent was
23 obtained for this study. The left coronary artery tree was segmented from each CTA
24 using ITK-SNAP (38). Each segmentation was manually improved in locations where
25 the automatic segmentation failed, smoothed, and exported to CAD using MeshLab (39)
26 and Geomagic Studio® (3D Systems, Cary, NC, USA). The resulting geometries for all
27 three cases are shown in Figure 1 (d-f).

1 **2.1.3 Post-processing and centerline extraction**

2 For post-processing of the idealized cases, the straight sections at the beginning and
 3 end of each vessel were excluded from the analysis, as shown in Figure 2a. The
 4 horizontal distance from the vessel inlet to points P1 and P2 is the same for all cases.
 5 For post-processing of the patient-specific cases, bifurcating regions were excluded,
 6 and each vessel tree was split into individual segments, as shown in Figure 2b. Splitting
 7 the three patient-specific cases gives 23 vessel segments, which, in contrast to the
 8 idealized cases, allowed for a statistical analysis of the solution.

9 For each vessel segment we determined its geometric centerline (21, 40, 41), which can
 10 be described parametrically by means of a curvilinear variable s as

$$11 \quad g(s) = (x(s), y(s), z(s)). \quad (1)$$

12 A local fifth-order polynomial filter with Gaussian kernel is used to reduce high-
 13 frequency noise from patient-specific data obtained during segmentation and centerline
 14 tracking (20, 42). Deviation of the centerline from a straight line at each point is given
 15 by the curvature

$$16 \quad k(s) = \frac{|g'(s) \wedge g''(s)|}{|g'(s)|^3}, \quad (2)$$

17 where the prime denotes differentiation with respect to s . Torsion, a measure of how
 18 sharply the curve is twisting out of the plane of curvature, is calculated as

$$19 \quad t(s) = \frac{(g'(s) \wedge g''(s)) \times g'''(s)}{|g'(s) \wedge g''(s)|}. \quad (3)$$

20 **2.1.4 Tortuosity metrics**

21 Three standard metrics were used to characterize the degree of tortuosity. The distance
 22 metric,

$$1 \quad DM = \frac{L}{l}, \quad (4)$$

2 quantifies the “lengthening effect” of tortuosity (1, 13), where L is the total path-length of
 3 the centerline and l is the straight-line distance between the beginning and end of the
 4 segment. The total curvature,

$$5 \quad TC = \int_0^L k(s) ds, \quad (5)$$

6 and total torsion ,

$$7 \quad TT = \int_0^L |\tau(s)| ds, \quad (6)$$

8 are calculated by integrating the curvature and the absolute value of torsion,
 9 respectively, along the centerline (17, 18, 21, 41).

10 **2.2 Computational fluid dynamics modeling**

11 **2.2.1 Boundary conditions and simulation settings**

12 Pulsatile flow simulations were performed using ANSYS Fluent 14.5 (ANSYS Inc.,
 13 Canonsburg, PA, USA). For both the idealized and patient-specific cases, a uniform
 14 velocity profile designed to match coronary artery flow waveforms (44) was imposed at
 15 the inlet. Following van der Giessen *et al.* (45), the average flow rate for each patient-
 16 specific case was adjusted according to

$$17 \quad q = 1.43d^{2.55}, \quad (7)$$

18 where q is the flow rate and d is the inlet diameter. The outlet boundary condition for
 19 the idealized cases was taken to be a constant reference pressure. For the patient-
 20 specific cases, the outlet boundary condition was taken to be a time-dependent
 21 pressure based on a lumped parameter resistance model, with the outlet pressure

1 calculated at each time step as

$$2 \quad p(t) = R \times q(t) , \quad (8)$$

3 where R is the resistance of the downstream vascular system. Resistance values were
4 adopted from Pietrabissa *et al.* (46). No-slip boundary conditions were imposed on the
5 vessel walls, which were assumed rigid. The blood density was assumed to be
6 constant, $\rho=1060 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$, and the Carreau model (47) was used to model the blood as a
7 non-Newtonian fluid. Flow was assumed to be laminar.

8 A coupled solver was used with a second-order upwind scheme. The convergence
9 criterion for continuity and velocity residuals was set to give a relative error less than
10 0.01%. Coupled grid and time sensitivity analysis is performed. For idealized and
11 patient-specific cases, 100 and 800 time steps were used per cardiac cycle,
12 respectively. Three cardiac cycles were simulated to ensure temporal periodicity of the
13 solution.

14 Grid and time sensitivity analyses were performed to ensure independence of the
15 results on the mesh and time step size. For patient-specific study, coarse, medium, and
16 fine were considered with 1487340, 702440 and 3045176 elements, respectively. Time
17 step for each mesh was set to 0.002115 s, 0.001551 s, 0.00116325 s respectively,
18 which corresponded to 440, 600, and 800 time steps per cardiac cycle. Thus, the time
19 step was refined equally to the mesh size refinement. The sensitivity analysis showed
20 that the relative discretization error for the fine mesh does not exceed 0.1% for selected
21 pressure and wall shear dependent flow parameters.

22 **2.3 Quantification of results**

23 The pressure drop along the tortuous vessel segment was quantified by calculating the
24 time-averaged difference between the area-weighted average of the pressure values at
25 the entrance and exit of the vessel segment per unit length, $\frac{DP}{L}$. For the idealized
26 cases, $\frac{DP}{L}$ is non-dimensionalized by the value for an equivalent straight vessel of the

1 same total length. For patient-specific cases, $\frac{DP}{L}$ is non-dimensionalized by the viscous
 2 scale (48). Hereafter, $\frac{DP}{L}$ will refer to the non-dimensionalized pressure drop per unit
 3 length.

4 Both experimental (49) and theoretical (24, 50) studies have shown that curvature and
 5 torsion contribute to the initiation and development of helical flow patterns. Hence, we
 6 calculate the local normalized helicity (LNH), which describes the interplay between
 7 rotational and translational motion (16, 34, 51-54):

$$8 \quad LNH = \frac{(\nabla \times v) \cdot v}{|\nabla \times v| \cdot |v|} = \cos \alpha, \quad (9)$$

9 where α is the angle between the velocity vector v and the vorticity vector $(\nabla \times v)$.
 10 Positive or negative values of LNH indicate clockwise or counter-clockwise rotating
 11 structures along the flow direction, respectively. We also considered the helicity
 12 intensity of the flow,

$$13 \quad h_2 = \frac{1}{TW} \int_0^T \int_W |(\nabla \times v) \cdot v| dW dt, \quad (10)$$

14 where W is the volume of the segment and T is the duration of a cardiac cycle (16, 51).
 15 Calculating LNH helps visualize flow patterns (16, 34, 51-54), while h_2 captures the
 16 strength of the helical flow (16, 51). Previous studies have shown that for carotid
 17 bifurcations h_2 is curvature-driven, and high values of h_2 suppress disturbances of the
 18 WSS distribution (16, 51). The helicity intensity h_2 can be non-dimensionalized as $\frac{h_2 \times L}{V^2}$,

19 where L is the centerline length and V is the volume-averaged and time-averaged
 20 velocity of each vessel segment." To study the dependence of h_2 on the degree of
 21 tortuosity, we calculated the helicity intensity. Correlation between vessel geometry and
 22 helical flow was determined through regression analysis of h_2 versus the tortuosity
 23 metrics DM, TT, and TC.

24 Another important quantity is the WSS, which we evaluated in terms of the time
 9

1 averaged wall shear stress (TAWSS) distribution (55). Areas of the vessel wall with low
2 TAWSS (smaller than 0.5 Pa) correlate with a higher risk for atherosclerosis (56, 57).
3 This correlation is attributed to increased uptake of blood-borne particles in areas of low
4 WSS (58). The risk may increase if the particles stay near the wall for a relatively long
5 time. The residence times of particles near the wall were evaluated using the Relative
6 Residence Time (RRT) defined in (59). Regions of high RRT are regions near the wall
7 where particles move slower than in regions of low RRT. When occurring in combination
8 with low TAWSS, regions of high RRT are associated with an increased risk of coronary
9 artery disease (60). Hereafter, we refer to regions that have both low TAWSS and high
10 RRT as regions of “disturbed WSS”. Following Lee *et al.* (61, 62), we characterize the
11 TAWSS and RRT distributions for each segment by two threshold values for which 90%
12 of the vessel segment surface is exposed to higher TAWSS and lower RRT than
13 corresponding TAWSS and RRT thresholds. Those thresholds are denoted as
14 TAWSS90 and RRT90.

15 **3 Results**

16 **3.1 Idealized study**

17 We investigated simple geometries in order to explore basic dependencies between the
18 parameters of interest. Table 1 presents the calculated tortuosity metrics and geometric
19 descriptors, such as average radius, average tapering, and vessel length, for the three
20 idealized cases T-5, T-6, and T-7. As expected, DM (equation 4) and TC (equation 5)
21 grow with the number of curved arcs.

22 Dimensionless pressure drop for the tortuous part of the main vessel increases with the
23 number of curved segments, as shown in Figure 3a, as well as with the tortuosity
24 degree of the main vessel. Figure 3b also shows that the helicity intensity is higher for
25 those cases with a larger number of curved segments. In addition, these results indicate
26 that a more tortuous vessel has a lower TAWSS90 and higher RRT90 (Figure 3 c-d),
27 resulting in larger area of lower TAWSS and a larger area of higher RRT. It is evident
28 that helicity intensity changes significantly with the number of arcs, while the
29 hemodynamic parameters increase by about 5%. Hence, there is a relationship

1 between the number of curved arcs and the flow parameters.

2 **3.2 Patient-specific study**

3 **3.2.1 Relation between tortuosity metrics**

4 We analyzed 23 segments of 3 patient-specific coronary trees to investigate the
5 influence of realistic geometry on arterial flow. The corresponding tortuosity metrics and
6 geometric descriptors for each vessel segment are presented in Table 2. Figure 4a
7 shows the variation of total torsion with the corresponding total curvature. These results
8 reveal the varying severity of non-planarity and curvature in the left coronary arteries. It
9 is worth noting that the minimum total torsion for any of the 23 vessel segments was
10 found to be approximately 4.7, indicating that all of the vessels exhibit substantial
11 torsion. There is also a weak positive correlation between the total torsion and total
12 curvature for these vessels, as shown by the linear regression of $R^2 = 0.45$. Figure 4 (b)
13 and (c) show a positive correlation between DM and TT and TC with $R^2=0.42$ and
14 $R^2=0.56$, respectively, suggesting that the lengthening of a vessel affects the curvature
15 and torsion of the vessel and vice versa.

16 **3.2.2 Flow Patterns**

17 Representative flow patterns from each of the three patient-specific cases are shown in
18 Figures 5, 6, and 7. The corresponding cases are indicated by red circles in Figure 4.
19 Two of the three vessels (patient-A, patient-C) do not have a pronounced helically
20 coiled shape, and torsion is mainly due to the curvature of the heart. In contrast, the
21 vessel for patient-B has torsion due to a significantly helically coiled shape. For the
22 vessel segment of patient-A (Figure 5a), we selected three cross-sections (Figure 5c)
23 and determined the axial velocity magnitude at each of them, as shown in Figure 5 (d-f).
24 The WSS distribution is shown in Figure 5g. LNH iso-surfaces (LNH= ± 0.4), shown from
25 two angles in in Figure 5h, highlight the presence and shape of helical structures in the
26 branch flow. The corresponding plots for patient-B and patient-C are shown in Figure 6
27 and 7.

28 We observed helical counter-rotating structures in multiple regions of the vessel tree,

1 which can be attributed to the high values of the Dean number ($K = \frac{\rho V d}{\mu} \left(\frac{d}{R} \right)^{1/2}$), where d
2 is the local diameter, R is local curvature radius, V is an average velocity on the cross-
3 section, μ is the dynamic viscosity of the flow, and ρ is density of the blood) (24, 63). It
4 has been shown that secondary flow is dependent on this parameter (33, 49). For very
5 small values of K , the flow can be approximated as Poiseuille flow, and increasing K
6 gives rise to secondary flow. The maximum K is 123.98 for patient-A, 148.33 for patient-
7 B, and 352.36 for patient-C; for all of these we expect two vortical structures to appear
8 (33).

9 Figure 5 (d-f) for patient-A, Figure 6 (d-f) for patient-B, and Figure 7 (d-f) for patient-C
10 show that the velocity profiles are skewed towards the outer side of the distal part of the
11 bend. Regions of local maximum WSS are also located on the outer side of the distal
12 part of the bend (Figure 5g, Figure 6g, Figure 7g). The position and intensity of the peak
13 velocity and WSS distribution are dependent on the vessel geometry. All three vessels
14 show helical structures in the curved parts of the vessel, as depicted in Figure 5h,
15 Figure 6h and Figure 7h. For patient-A and patient-C, these structures are relatively
16 symmetric, while for patient-B a clock-wise rotating structure dominates.

17 Similar to Gallo *et al.* (16, 51), we investigated how the strength of the helical flow
18 depends on tortuosity and if the flow parameters of interest are affected by it. Figure 8
19 shows a statistically significant dependence of the helicity intensity (h^2) on TC ($R^2 =$
20 0.7); slightly weaker correlations are observed for DM ($R^2 = 0.55$) and TT ($R^2 = 0.58$). In
21 all cases, the helicity intensity is positively correlated with tortuosity metrics, indicating
22 that a larger tortuosity causes higher intensity of the helical flow.

23 To elucidate how the pressure drop and WSS change when the flow in the vessel
24 becomes more helical due to the tortuosity, we investigated a correlation between the
25 flow parameters of interest and the helicity of the flow for each vessel. Figure 9 shows
26 pressure drop per unit length, TAWSS90, and RRT90 vary with the helicity intensity for
27 all of the segments. The plots show clear positive correlation of the dimensionless
28 pressure drop per unit length and dimensionless helicity intensity with $R^2 = 0.67$ (Figure

1 9a), positive correlation of TAWSS90 and h_2 with $R^2 = 0.62$ (Figure 9b), and negative
2 correlation of RRT90 and h_2 with $R^2 = 0.73$ (Figure 9c). In agreement with the results of
3 the idealized cases, there is a pronounced increase in the pressure drop per unit length
4 of the vessel as the helicity intensity of the flow increases in more tortuous vessels.
5 However, unlike the idealized cases, Figure 9 (b) and (c) show that the higher helicity
6 intensity is a strong predictor that a smaller vessel area will be subjected to low TAWSS
7 and large RRT.

8 **4 Discussion**

9 Tortuosity is considered a predictor of abnormal coronary hemodynamics leading to
10 reduced perfusion (2, 15) and, potentially, to an increased risk of atherosclerosis (1, 2,
11 31, 64, 65). The current study investigated how different aspects such as curvature,
12 torsion, and lengthening due to tortuosity affect the pressure drop, WSS, and RRT. We
13 performed calculations of the 3D idealized and patient-based geometries. The idealized
14 geometries represent a simplified tortuous coronary artery without branches and were
15 designed to investigate the curvature aspect of tortuosity in the absence of torsion. The
16 patient-specific models were produced from 3D coronary CTs of the left coronary tree.
17 We found a correlation between total curvature and torsion metrics and that torsion is
18 present for each segment due to the shape of the heart.

19 Our investigation revealed a complex relation between tortuosity metrics and
20 hemodynamic parameters that is governed by helicity intensity. Visualization of the flow
21 indicated that helical motion is very pronounced in tortuous vessels, and calculations for
22 both idealized and patient-based cases showed a pronounced correlation between
23 tortuosity and helicity intensity. We observed that an increasing tortuosity is a
24 statistically significant predictor of enhanced helicity intensity.

25 The relationships between tortuosity metrics, helicity intensity, and pressure drop per
26 unit length indicate that tortuosity can cause decreased perfusion. The dimensionless
27 pressure drop per unit length of the vessel is positively correlated with the non-
28 dimensional helicity intensity. For both the idealized and patient-specific cases, there is

1 an increase in pressure drop per unit length with increasing tortuosity.

2 Previously, it has been reported that regions exposed to high RRT and low TAWSS are
3 more susceptible to atherosclerotic lesion formation (29, 56). In this study we used
4 RRT90 and TAWSS90, defined as the higher 10-percentile threshold for RRT and lower
5 10-percentile threshold for TAWSS. Increasing TAWSS90 suggests that the area of low
6 TAWSS is diminishing. Similarly, a decreasing RRT90 signifies a decreasing area of
7 high RRT. By inference (29, 56), reducing RRT90 and TAWSS90 suggests protection
8 against atherosclerosis.

9 The results of the idealized cases show that an increasing degree of tortuosity makes
10 the helicity intensity grow, while values of TAWSS90 and RRT90 decrease and increase
11 respectively. Consequently, this indicates that TAWSS90 and RRT90 are positively and
12 negatively correlated with helicity intensity in the case of zero torsion. However, for the
13 patient-based cases, we observed that the non-dimensional helicity intensity shows an
14 opposite correlation with the WSS derived descriptors. Thus, our results show that,
15 when torsion is present, real tortuous artery vessels are potentially less prone to
16 atherosclerosis. This finding represents an important difference between the idealized
17 and patient specific cases and is attributed to the fact that, in reality, tortuous vessels
18 have significant torsion due to the heart shape. Our results suggest that the torsion
19 present in real tortuous coronary arteries may have a mitigating effect on
20 atherosclerosis.

21 One long-standing challenge with respect to coronary tortuosity is to define one
22 parameter that clearly describes the degree of vessel tortuosity and how flow
23 parameters change with that degree. With such a parameter, it would be straightforward
24 to categorize tortuous vessels and estimate possible cardiovascular implications related
25 to tortuosity. Our study shows that different aspects of tortuosity, like torsion or
26 curvature, have different impacts, and it is not appropriate to use a single tortuosity
27 metric. However, our observations also indicate that helicity intensity strongly depends
28 on the degree of tortuosity and is a statistical predictor of flow alterations that cause
29 pressure drop and WSS change. Thus, even though further investigations are required,

1 including the analysis of a possible correlation between helicity indexes and local
2 hemodynamics variables different from TAWSS, and RRT (e.g. wall shear stress
3 gradient), we propose that helicity intensity might be a generalized parameter to
4 describe the effect of tortuosity on coronary flow and its implications on the health of a
5 patient.

6 **4.1 Limitations**

7 The current study has some limitations. Due to resolution restrictions, the segmentation
8 and smoothing of the patient-based geometries are expected to have introduced errors.
9 For both the idealized and patient-specific models the wall of the vessel was considered
10 rigid. In the patient-specific cases the myocardium was assumed to be non-moving,
11 analyzing only the diastolic geometrical configuration; thus the influence of the
12 displacement of the myocardium during the cardiac cycle is neglected. In addition, only
13 three patient-specific coronary trees were investigated. Despite these limitations, we
14 believe that this study represents an important step toward offering insights into
15 coronary tortuosity and its effect on coronary hemodynamics.

16

1 **5 Conclusions**

2 This computational study suggests that tortuosity should be modeled by a parameter
3 that accounts for both curvature and torsion effects of tortuosity. Torsion due to the
4 shape of the heart and torsion due to the acquired helical shape of the vessels should
5 be included. Overall, our study shows that the pressure drop in a coronary artery
6 increases as a function of the tortuosity of the vessel, so the artery might be subject to
7 reduced perfusion. In agreement with previous idealized studies of Xie *et al.* (31, 36),
8 our investigation of idealized cases without torsion shows that tortuosity may *increase*
9 the risk of atherosclerosis. However, our patient-specific analysis shows that tortuosity
10 could *decrease* the risk of atherosclerosis, a result similar to observations of the clinical
11 study of Li *et al.* (30) and a recent investigation of tortuosity of carotid bifurcations (16,
12 51). This result is a counterintuitive and important finding, signifying that coronary
13 tortuosity in some cases can mitigate the risk of atherosclerosis in patients that may be
14 subject to other atherogenic factors. Finally, our study indicates the significance of
15 helical flow in tortuosity investigations. Future investigations will help determine whether
16 helicity intensity can be used as a generalizable tool to predict and elucidate the
17 consequences of coronary tortuosity on the health of a patient.

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21

1 **Conflict of Interest statement**

2 Authors Natalya Vorobtsova, Claudio Chiastra, Mark A. Stremmer, David C. Sane,
3 Francesco Migliavacca, Pavlos Vlachos have no conflicts of interest to report. No
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21

1 **Table captions**

2

3 Table 1. Values of geometric descriptors for three idealized cases (T-5, T-6, T-7):
4 distance metric (DM), total torsion (TT), total curvature (TC), vessel length, average
5 radius (R_{ave}), and average tapering coefficient (T_{ave}).

6

7 Table 2. Values of geometric descriptors for the 23 vessel segments obtained from the
8 three patient-specific cases (patient-A, patient-B, patient-C): distance metric (DM), total
9 torsion (TT), total curvature (TC), vessel length, average radius (R_{ave}), and average
10 tapering coefficient (T_{ave}). Bold denotes maximum value for each patient.

11

1 **Figure captions**

2 Figure 1. Geometries for the idealized and patient-specific studies. Geometries for the
3 idealized study: vessel models with (a) 5, (b) 6, and (c) 7 curved arcs. Geometries for
4 the patient-specific study: patient-A (d), patient-B (e), patient-C (f). A label for each
5 branch of the patient-specific geometries is shown.

6 Figure 2. (a) Idealized geometry segments considered in the post-processing of the
7 solution. (b) An example of vessel tree splitting for patient-A.

8 Figure 3. Idealized cases: (a) Dimensionless pressure drop, (b) Helicity intensity h_2 , (c)
9 Threshold of TAWSS for which 10% percent of the area has lower TAWSS, (d)
10 Threshold of RRT for which 10% percent of the area has higher RRT.

11 Figure 4. Correlations between tortuosity metrics: (a) Total Curvature (TC) versus Total
12 Torsion (TT), (b) Distance Metric (DM) versus TT, (c) DM versus TC. Red circles
13 indicate data for branches LCX123-patient-A, SPT3-patient-B, and LAD24-patient-C.
14 Black dotted line represents linear regression fit.

15 Figure 5. LCX123 branch of patient-A at time $t = 0.558$ s: (a) vessel tree geometry; (b)
16 flow rate at the inlet; the red dot indicates the flow rate at $t = 0.558$ s; (c) position of
17 three cross-sections; (d-f) axial velocity magnitude for three cross-sections; (g) wall
18 shear stress distribution on LCX123; (h) iso-surface of $LNH = \pm 0.4$.

19

1 Figure 6. SPT3 branch of patient-B at time $t = 0.558$ s: (a) vessel tree geometry; (b)
2 flow rate at the inlet; the red dot indicates the flow rate at $t = 0.558$ s; (c) position of
3 three cross-sections; (d-f) axial velocity for three cross-sections; (g) wall shear stress
4 distribution on SPT3; (h) iso-surface of $LNH = \pm 0.4$.

5 Figure 7. LAD24 branch of patient-C at the time $t = 0.558$ s: (a) vessel tree geometry;
6 (b) flow rate at the inlet; the red dot indicates the flow rate at $t = 0.558$ s; (c) position of
7 three cross-sections; (d-f) axial velocity for three cross-sections; (g) wall shear stress
8 distribution on LAD24; (h) iso-surface of $LNH = \pm 0.4$.

9 Figure 8. Scatter plots showing the helicity intensity h_2 calculated for each of 23 vessel
10 segments versus the tortuosity metrics DM (a), TT (b), and TC (c). The dotted line
11 shows the x-log regression fit, and R^2 is the determination coefficient.

12 Figure 9. For each of the 23 vessel segments across all patients: (a) dimensionless
13 pressure drop per unit length (b) TAWSS90 (c) RRT90 versus corresponding
14 dimensionless helicity intensity h_2 . The dotted lines show the log-log regression fit. R^2 is
15 the determination coefficient.

16

1 **Tables**

2 Table 1. Values of geometric descriptors for three idealized cases (T-5, T-6, T-7):
3 distance metric (DM), total torsion (TT), total curvature (TC), vessel length, average
4 radius (Rave) and average tapering coefficient (Tave).

	Length (mm)	Rave (mm)	Tave (arb. units)	DM (arb. units)	TT (arb. units)	TC (arb. units)
T-5	127.9229	1.125	0.5	1.279	0	17.055
T-6	131.1199	1.125	0.5	1.311	0	20.043
T-7	134.9229	1.125	0.5	1.349	0	22.844

5

6

1 Table 2. Values of geometric descriptors for the 23 vessel segments obtained from
 2 three patient-specific cases (patient-A, patient-B, patient-C): distance metric (DM), total
 3 torsion (TT), total curvature (TC), vessel length, average radius (R_{ave}), and average
 4 tapering coefficient (T_{ave}). Bold denotes maximum value for each patient.

		Length (mm)	R_{ave} (mm)	T_{ave} (-)	DM (-)	TT (-)	TC (-)
Patient-A	LMCA	7.881	2.540	1.006	1.009	4.778	0.714
	LAD	42.764	1.798	1.000	1.054	12.071	1.717
	LAD24	41.502	1.192	0.970	1.114	15.262	4.592
	LCX	25.683	1.920	0.590	1.053	6.159	1.523
	LCX123	84.027	1.429	1.005	1.344	26.841	5.297
	MARG1	37.648	1.152	0.456	1.059	9.530	3.274
	SPT2	33.394	1.148	0.400	1.041	8.497	2.257
Patient-B	LAD	33.465	1.557	1.001	1.031	7.169	1.723
	LAD2_2	16.402	1.085	0.490	1.200	6.133	2.495
	LCX	13.651	1.607	0.411	1.010	5.754	0.970
	LCX1	36.428	1.362	0.999	1.070	11.515	2.253
	ATR	18.994	0.917	0.514	1.133	5.327	2.296
	MARG2	18.742	1.170	0.508	1.173	8.520	5.368
	SPT2	18.626	1.128	0.527	1.030	8.163	1.177
	SPT3	30.647	1.022	0.858	1.123	14.275	6.526
Patient-C	LAD_1	17.574	1.998	0.998	1.045	5.831	1.366
	LAD_2	20.874	2.062	1.006	1.015	9.463	0.885
	LAD1	26.893	1.564	1.006	1.170	7.078	3.383
	LAD24	43.672	1.295	1.006	1.228	16.677	5.732
	LCX	18.675	1.933	0.411	1.014	8.117	0.805
	LCX12	54.162	1.238	1.003	1.109	9.175	2.186
	MARG1	63.429	1.696	1.004	1.180	13.520	3.472
	SPT2	34.560	1.523	0.540	1.043	9.435	1.717

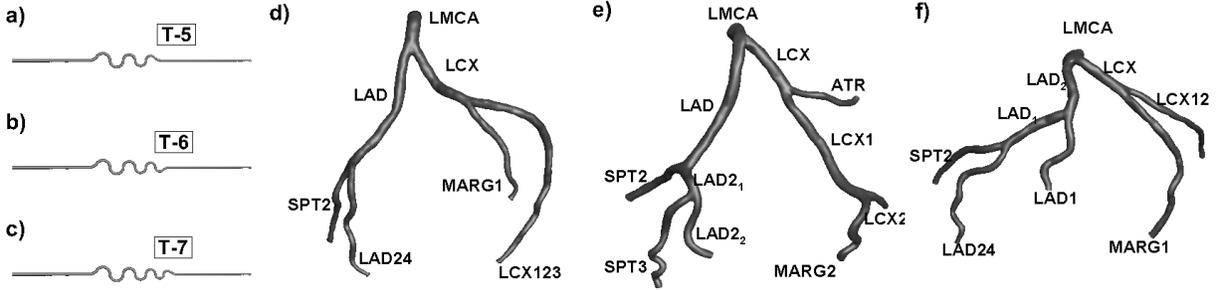
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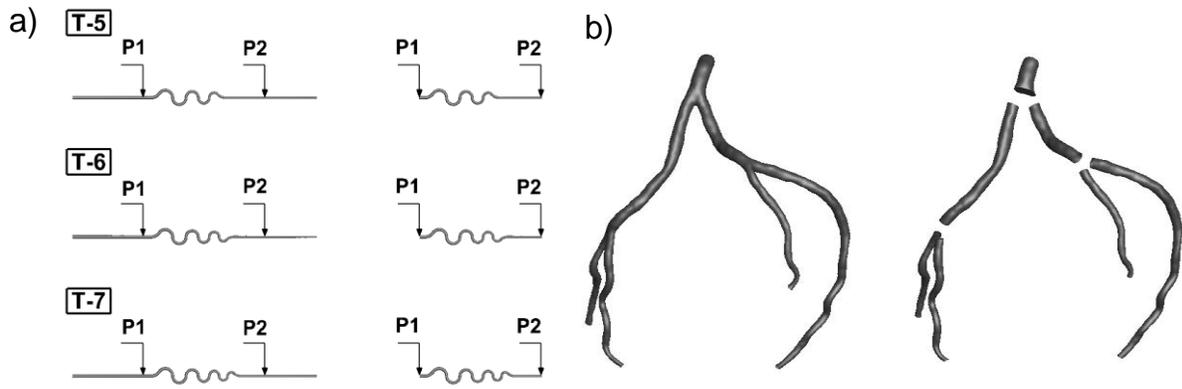
1 Figures

2



4 Figure 1. Geometries for the idealized and patient-specific studies. Geometries for the
5 idealized study: vessel models with (a) 5, (b) 6, and (c) 7 curved arcs. Geometries for
6 the patient-specific study: patient-A (d), patient-B (e), patient-C (f). A label for each
7 branch of the patient-specific geometries is shown.

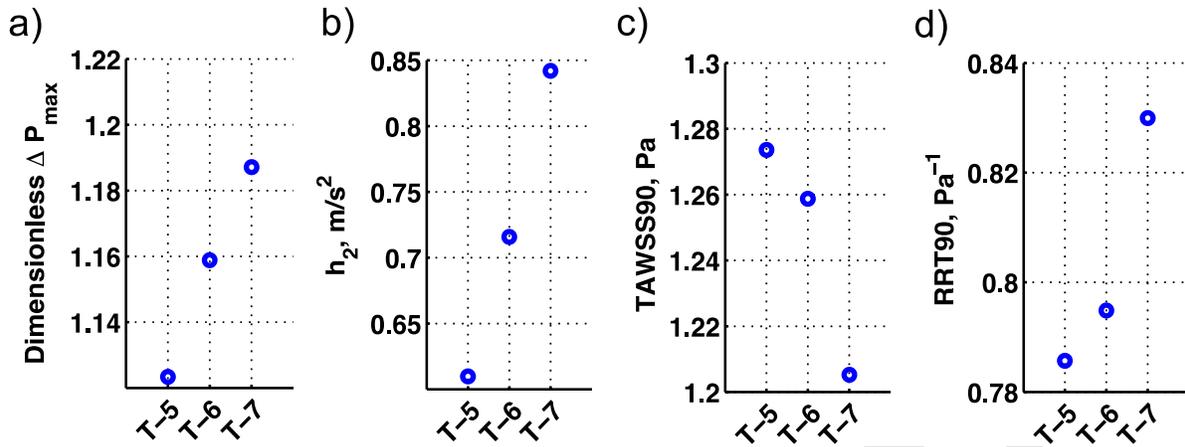
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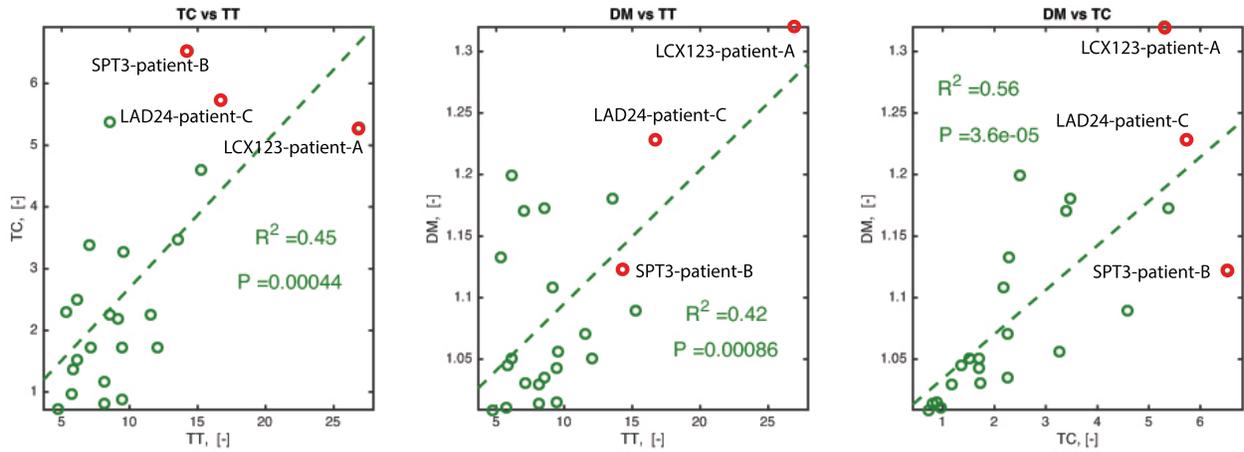
2 Figure 2. (a) Idealized geometry segments considered in the post-processing of the
3 solution. (b) An example of vessel tree splitting for patient-A.

4



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2 Figure 3. Idealized cases: (a) Maximum dimensionless pressure drop per unit length, (b)
3 Helicity intensity h_2 , (c) Threshold of TAWSS for which 10% percent of the area has
4 lower TAWSS, (d) Threshold of RRT for which 10% percent of the area has higher RRT.

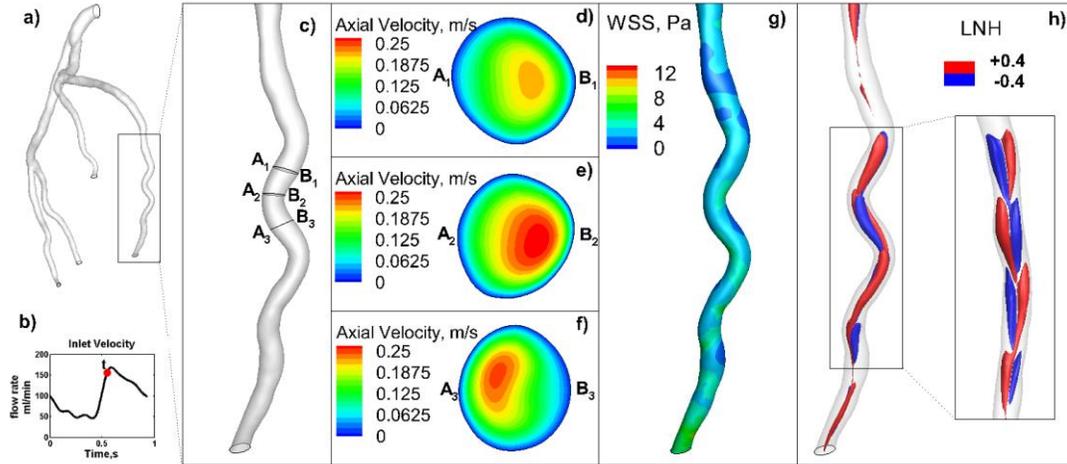
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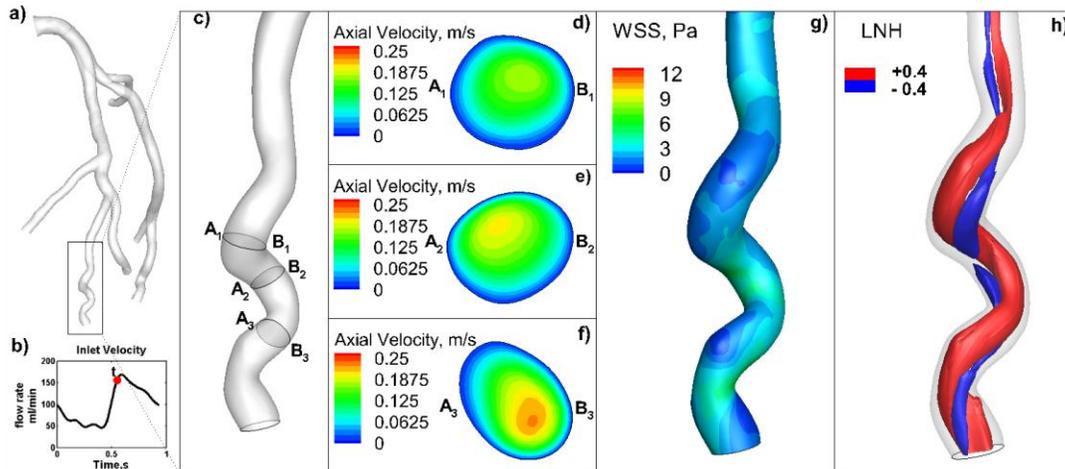
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3 Torsion (TT), (b) Distance Metric (DM) versus TT, (c) DM versus TC. Red circles
4 indicate data for branches LCX123-patient-A, SPT3-patient-B, and LAD24-patient-C.
5 Black dotted line represents linear regression fit. R^2 is the determination coefficient, P is
6 the p-value.

7



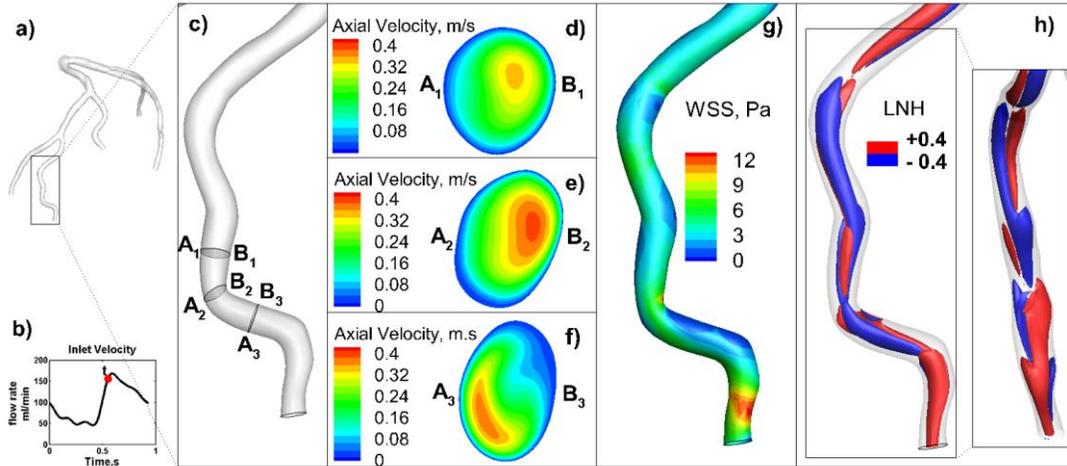
1
 2 Figure 5. Geometry and flow characteristics for the LCX123 branch of patient-A at time t
 3 = 0.558 s: (a) vessel tree geometry; (b) flow rate at the inlet of the branch, with the red
 4 dot indicating the flow rate at $t = 0.558$ s; (c) position of the three selected cross-
 5 sections; (d-f) axial velocity magnitude at these three cross-sections; (g) WSS
 6 distribution; and (h) iso-surfaces of $LNH = \pm 0.4$.

7



1
 2 Figure 6. Geometry and flow characteristics for the SPT3 branch of patient-B at time $t =$
 3 0.558 s: (a) vessel tree geometry; (b) flow rate at the inlet of the branch, with the red dot
 4 indicating the flow rate at $t = 0.558$ s; (c) position of the three selected cross-sections;
 5 (d-f) axial velocity at these three cross-sections; (g) WSS distribution; and (h) iso-
 6 surfaces of $LNH = \pm 0.4$.

7



1
 2 Figure 7. Geometry and flow characteristics for the LAD24 branch of patient-C at time t
 3 = 0.558 s: (a) vessel tree geometry; (b) flow rate at the inlet of the branch, with the red
 4 dot indicating the flow rate at t = 0.558 s; (c) position of the three selected cross-
 5 sections; (d-f) axial velocity at these three cross-sections; (g) WSS distribution; and (h)
 6 iso-surfaces of LNH = ± 0.4 .

7

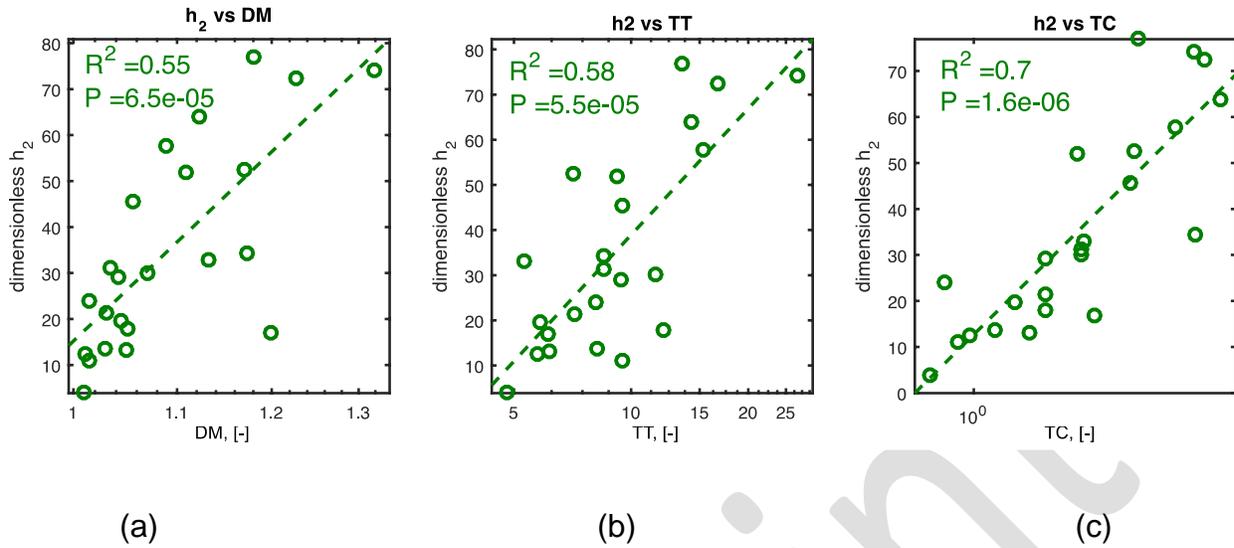
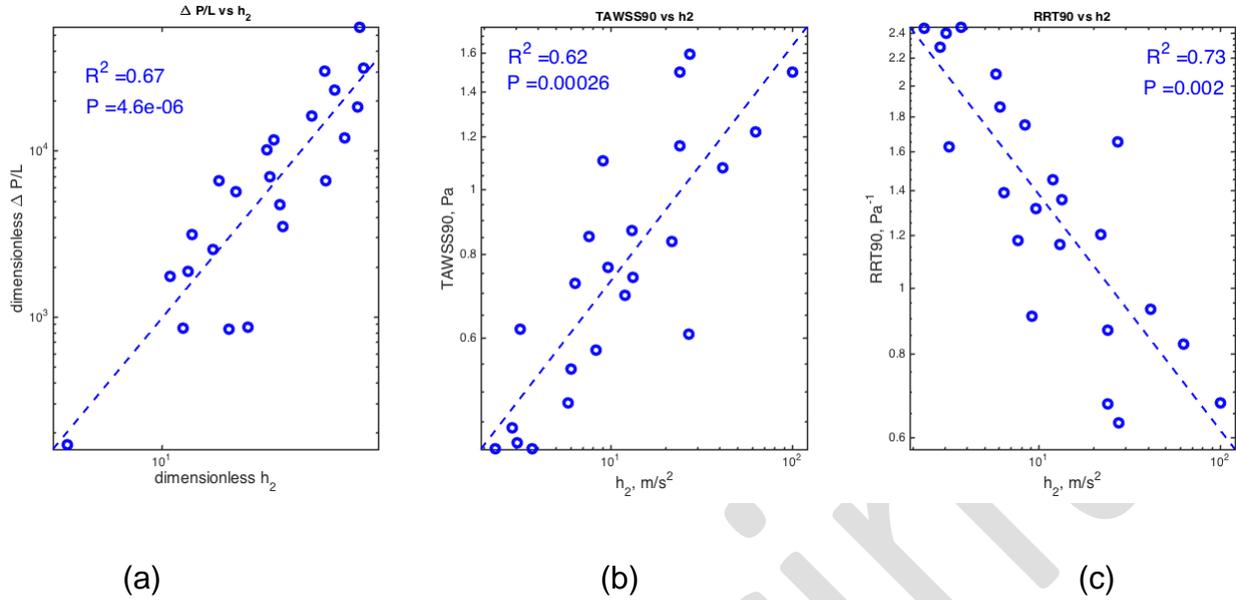


Figure 8. Scatter plots showing the dimensionless helicity intensity h_2 calculated for each of 23 vessel segments relative to the tortuosity metrics DM (a), TT (b), and TC (c). The dotted line shows the x-log regression fit; R^2 is the determination coefficient, P is the p-value.



3 Figure 9. Comparison of flow characteristics with the (dimensionless) helicity intensity
4 for each of the 23 vessel segments across all patients: (a) dimensionless pressure drop
5 per unit length, (b) TAWSS90, and (c) RRT90. The dotted lines show the log-log
6 regression fit; R^2 is the determination coefficient, P is the p-value.