

Perspective

Intracranial artery stenosis: Current status of evaluation and treatment in China

Bin Cai, Bin Peng*

Department of Neurology, Peking Union Medical College Hospital, Chinese Academy of Medical Sciences & Peking Union Medical College, Beijing 100730, China

Received 4 August 2017

Available online 14 November 2017

Abstract

Intracranial artery stenosis (ICAS), a common cause of ischemic stroke, is a growing cause of concern in China. Recently, many epidemiological, etiological, pathophysiological, therapy, and diagnostic imaging studies have focused on ICAS, and guidelines and consensus on the diagnosis and treatment of ICAS have been published and updated by domestic experts. Such work is pivotal to our enhanced comprehension, diagnosis, and treatment of ICAS. In this review, we summarize the latest progress in the evaluation and treatment of ICAS in China.

© 2017 Chinese Medical Association. Production and hosting by Elsevier B.V. on behalf of KeAi Communications Co., Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

Keywords: Intracranial artery stenosis; Evaluation; Treatment

Introduction

Stroke burden in China has increased over the last 30 years. Stroke is the leading cause of death in China. The incidence of ischemic stroke is estimated to be 69.6%, based on the Chinese intracranial atherosclerosis (CICAS) study,¹ and intracranial artery stenosis (ICAS) is estimated to account for 46.6% of all ischemic stroke cases.² Therefore, due attention should be paid to the problem.

Recently, many epidemiological, etiological, pathophysiological, therapy, and diagnostic imaging studies have focused on ICAS, and guidelines and consensus on the diagnosis and treatment of ICAS have been published or updated by Chinese experts.^{3–10} Such work is fundamental to enhancing our understanding of ICAS, as well as improving the disease evaluation and treatment.

Epidemiology

In China, ICAS is estimated to account for 33–50% of all stroke cases, and more than 50% of transient ischemic attacks (TIA), contrary to Caucasian patients who are prone to extracranial carotid stenosis.^{11–14} Both angiographic and autopsy studies suggest that intracranial artery lesions demonstrate higher severity

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: pengbin3@hotmail.com (B. Peng).

Peer review under responsibility of Chinese Medical Association.



than extracranial artery lesions in Chinese patients, similar to Japanese patients but different from Caucasian patients.^{15,16} It remains unclear why the occurrence and severity of extracranial and intracranial lesions differ, and requires further investigation. Recently, a large, prospective, multicenter, hospital-based, cohort study, the CICAS study, indicated that the prevalence of ICAS was 46.6% in Chinese patients, consistent with previous research by Hong Kong-based academics.^{2,12,13} According to the CICAS study, patients with ICAS experience more severe stroke at admission, have longer hospital stays, and higher risk of recurrent stroke.² The recurrent stroke rate was only 5% in the CICAS study patients with 70–99% stenosis, and lower than previous trials (23% in the WASID study and 12.2% in the medical arm of the SAMMPRIS study).^{2,17–19} However, the occurrence rate was exceptionally high among patients with severe stenosis and multiple risk factors.^{2,17–19} Moreover, the CICAS study reported both a geographic and gender variation in the distribution of ICAS in China; higher rates were recorded in northern China and women aged >63 years.²⁰ Northern patients were more likely, than the southern patients, to have both intracranial and extracranial lesions, multiple intracranial atheroscleroses, and occlusive lesions, which may be explained by the higher number of risk factors observed in northern patients, such as diabetes mellitus, hyperlipidemia, family history of stroke, smoking, heavy drinking, hyperhomocysteinemia, and overweight.²⁰

Contrary to symptomatic ICAS, asymptomatic ICAS is often ignored. Wong et al studied 590 asymptomatic villagers in central rural China, and found 41 individuals (6.9%) with ICAS.²¹ However, when the investigators applied transcranial Doppler (TCD) to screen 3057 patients with no history of stroke or TIA but at least one vascular risk factor, including hypertension, diabetes, or hyperlipidemia, they found that 385 patients (12.6%) had middle cerebral artery (MCA) stenosis.²² These data suggest that asymptomatic ICAS is not uncommon, especially in patients with vascular risk factors. Moreover, ICAS was most common in young Chinese patients with ischemic stroke, likely due to high exposure to hypertension, smoking, dyslipidemia, and diabetes.^{23,24} Thus, more attention and further studies are required for these special subgroups.

Etiology

Many studies indicate that vascular risk factors, including hypertension, diabetes mellitus, hyperlipidemia, family history of stroke and heart disorders,

smoking, heavy drinking, hyperhomocysteinemia, and overweight, are associated with ICAS.^{2,16,17,20–25} However, there are some inconsistencies in the data. Unlike the CICAS study, most studies are limited by, for example, small sample sizes and single-center, retrospective designs. Moreover, several studies have attempted to explain the different distributions of extracranial and intracranial stenosis between Asians and Caucasians, with inconsistent conclusions.^{15,26–28} Thus, well-designed epidemiological studies are required to provide more valuable clinical information for enhanced patient management.

Evaluation of ICAS

The most widely used tools used for the diagnosis and assessment of ICAS include TCD, computed tomography angiography (CTA), magnetic resonance angiography (MRA), and digital subtraction angiography (DSA). However, whilst these techniques are able to measure arterial lumen stenosis, they cannot provide sufficient information on the characteristics of artery walls or plaques, or the status of collateral vessels and fractional flow, all of which play vital roles in predicting the risk of subsequent ischemic stroke.²⁹ More recent studies focus on atherosclerotic plaque morphology and hemodynamic assessment, and many new techniques, including high-resolution magnetic resonance imaging (HR-MRI), molecular imaging, intravascular ultrasound, and optical coherence tomography, have been developed.²⁹

HR-MRI

HR-MRI is a non-invasive and effective tool to depict the vessel wall and plaque components. Xu et al demonstrated that HR-MRI can clearly display the wall structure of MCA, compensate for the limitations of MRA, and help to detect atherosclerotic lesions not visible via MRA.³⁰ By comparing the vessel wall properties of symptomatic and asymptomatic MCA stenosis using HR-MRI, investigators have found that symptomatic MCA lesions have a larger wall area, greater remodeling ratio, higher prevalence of expansive remodeling, and lower prevalence of constrictive remodeling, suggesting a possible correlation between the MCA wall features and clinical manifestations.³¹ Moreover, MCA plaques tend to be located in the ventral and inferior walls, opposing the penetrating arteries orifices, whilst symptomatic MCA stenosis is characterized by superior rather than inferior plaques, especially in patients with penetrating infarction.³²

Similarly, Sui et al also demonstrated that ventral and superior wall plaques are common in MCA stenosis with acute infarction.³³ Both studies indicate that plaque distribution may play an important role in stroke occurrence related to MCA stenosis.

In their research on intraplaque hemorrhage, Xu et al found that the occurrence rate of high signals on HR-MRI T1-weighted fat-suppressed images (HST-1), highly suggestive of fresh or recent intraplaque hemorrhage, was significantly higher in symptomatic versus asymptomatic MCA stenosis, although further pathological verification is needed.³⁴ Another HR-MRI research found that deep tiny flow voids (DTFVs) are commonly observed along MCA atherosclerotic occlusions, especially in asymptomatic patients, but are rarely detected in patients with large territorial infarctions or healthy control subjects.^{35,36} Moreover, the distribution pattern of DTFVs is different from that of penetrating arteries or moyamoya collaterals.^{35,36} These reports indicate that DTFV, a unique HR-MRI finding, is pathological but associated with relatively good outcomes, which may originate from new vessel network formation in response to chronic cerebral ischemia.^{35,36} Thus, HR-MRI is a feasible and effective tool for evaluating the prognosis of MCA stenosis, and may provide new insight into the mechanisms of ICAS.

A recent study aimed to investigate the relationship between compensatory remodeling in symptomatic MCA stenosis with HR-MRI and TCD monitoring of microembolic signals (MESs); MESs were observed more frequently in the positive remodeling (PR) group than non-PR group and the authors hypothesized that PR may represent an early feature of plaque vulnerability and rupture.³⁷ This is the first study to explore vessel wall morphology in ICAS patients using MESs and HR-MRI.³⁷ Combining different techniques to assess plaque instability and evaluate subsequent stroke risk may be a valuable approach for prospective research.

Chinese academics have also made substantial efforts to explore vertebral basilar artery stenosis using HR-MRI. Huang et al detected that plaques were mainly distributed at the ventral site of basilar arteries, away from penetrating artery orifices, suggesting that HR-MRI may provide precious information to avoid unnecessary endovascular therapy complications in the basilar artery.³⁸ Jiang et al utilized HR-MRI to guide endovascular interventions of basilar artery stenosis, reporting reduced risks of perforator stroke and iatrogenic dissection with HR-MRI.³⁹ These studies suggest that HR-MRI may directly delineate the anatomical relationship between plaque and penetrating artery

orifices, and effectively guide endovascular therapy in basilar artery stenosis to avoid unnecessary complications. The researchers also investigated arterial remodeling of severe symptomatic basilar artery atherosclerosis with HR-MRI.⁴⁰ They found that PR was more commonly observed in patients with advanced basilar artery stenosis, and that PR compared to non-PR lesions have higher plaque sizes and represent a greater burden.⁴⁰

Other technical progress in the assessment of ICAS

Recent advances in cardiology indicate that assessment of the hemodynamic impact of coronary artery lesions is superior to measuring stenosis in terms of guiding revascularization therapy and predicting outcome. This inspired neurologists to move from evaluating the degree of stenosis to exploring hemodynamic features when assessing ICAS.^{29,41,42} Leng et al reconstructed computational fluid dynamics (CFD) models based on CTA images to assess the hemodynamic features of ICAS.⁴³ The investigators found that changes in shear strain rates and blood flow velocities across lesions significantly related to ischemic stroke in the territory at 1 year, potentially predictive of risk of stroke recurrence.⁴³ The first study in which pressure guidewire was floated across the intracranial lesion site to measure fractional flow reserve (FFR), a superior approach to anatomic stenosis for determining ischemic risk in coronary research, was conducted by a group of neurologists from China and the USA in ICAS.⁴⁴ The preliminary outcome indicated that fractional flow measurement across intracranial artery lesions with a pressure guidewire was technically feasible and safe.⁴⁴ Moreover, based on the CFD method, the researchers designed a non-invasive technique for computing the fractional pressure ratio (FPR), to evaluate the hemodynamic significance of severe ICAS; they found that this non-invasive parameter was comparable with the invasive parameter.⁴⁵ Although these outcomes are preliminary and require further confirmation, these results are promising in terms of guiding clinical decisions for the treatment of ICAS and patient selection for relevant clinical trials.

Recently, more attentions have been given to investigate collateral circulation and angiogenesis, as extensive research has confirmed their vital role in predicting prognosis and risk of ischemic events in patients with ICAS.^{46,47} Previous studies indicated that angiogenesis can be induced by hypoperfusion in chronic cerebral ischemia.^{48,49} Recently, Shu et al

directly depicted angiogenesis with ^{68}Ga -NOTA-PRGD2⁶⁷ positron emission tomography/computed tomography (PET/CT), on the stenotic/occlusive artery side, in patients with severe ICAS. They found that the post-qualified event time interval can affect the extent of angiogenesis; hence, this is the first study to evaluate the collateral circulation route at the level of angiogenesis *in vivo*.⁵⁰ These studies of collateral circulation and angiogenesis may provide more information on the prognosis and adaption of treatment in ICAS patients.

Treatment

A large number of clinical trials on the treatment and management of ICAS have been undertaken or are currently underway. In general, ICAS treatment includes medication and revascularization while the medical treatments, involving antiplatelet therapy and management of vascular risk factors, are fundamental treatments.

Medical treatment

Risk factor management, including hypertension, diabetes mellitus, hyperlipidemia, smoking, heavy drinking, hyperhomocysteinemia, and overweight, plays a crucial role in the treatment and prevention of subsequent ischemic events associated with ICAS. Many studies have confirmed the relationship between ideal health behaviors and the lower prevalence of ICAS, yet detailed recommendations and criteria are still unclear.^{51–53}

A number of studies indicate that hypertension, even pre-hypertension, is associated with a high prevalence of both asymptomatic and symptomatic ICAS.^{54–60} However, relevant studies on blood pressure management in ICAS are limited. Although some trials, such as WASID and SAMMPRIS, suggest that blood pressure control is safe and beneficial in patients with ICAS, there is research indicating that over dose of hypotensive drugs increases the risk of stroke in patients with MCA stenosis.⁶¹ Moreover, research indicates that stenotic lesions can affect the local hemodynamic environment and impair the capacity of dynamic cerebral autoregulation among asymptomatic and symptomatic patients with ICAS.^{62,63} Thus, balancing the benefits of blood pressure control and the risks of hypoperfusion is still challenging. Hao et al found that the relationship between blood pressure on admission and outcomes in acute ischemic stroke patients with severe ICAS presented a U-shaped curve. In their study, patients with systolic blood pressures

(SBPs) of more than 160 mmHg or less than 120 mmHg had an increased tendency toward death or disability, whilst patients with SBP of 120–159 mmHg had the lowest rates of adverse outcomes.⁶⁴

Modulation of blood lipid and treatment with statin is currently a topic of great interest. A previous small sample trial showed that 54% (29/54) of stenosed intracranial vessels improved after treatment with 40 mg of atorvastatin per day, for at least 6 months, particularly in women.⁶⁵ Recently, a single-center, prospective, randomized, single-blind, parallel-group trial indicated that intensive doses atorvastatin therapy (40 mg/day) improved the serum lipid profiles, degree of stenosis, perfusion-related parameters, and probability of cerebrovascular events more effectively than low (10 mg/day) and standard doses (20 mg/day), without increasing adverse events, in patients with atherosclerotic ICAS.⁶⁶ Moreover, irregular use of statins has been found to be a risk factor for recurrent ischemic events in ICAS patients.⁶⁷ All these studies suggest that intensive statin therapy is safe and effective in Chinese patients with atherosclerotic ICAS. In addition, based on a subgroup analysis of CICAS patients, a low high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) level is associated with the development of ICAS. Thus, strategies for raising HDL-C level should be the focus of future work as well.⁶⁸

With regards to the medical treatment of ICAS, dual antiplatelet therapy (DAPT) with clopidogrel plus aspirin is a topic receiving much attention at present. Subgroup analysis of an previous randomized, open-label, blinded-endpoint, multicenter trial, the Clopidogrel plus Aspirin for Infarction Reduction (CLAIR) study, indicated that DAPT for 7 days is more effective than aspirin alone for reducing the number of microembolic signals in acute stroke or TIA patients with ICAS.^{69,70} The results of Clopidogrel in High-Risk Patients with Acute Non-disabling Cerebrovascular Events (CHANCE) trial verified that short-course DAPT in the acute phase, compared with aspirin alone, reduces the risk of recurrent stroke in patients with acute non-cardioembolic minor stroke or high-risk TIA, without increasing the risk of severe or moderate hemorrhage or intracranial hemorrhage.⁷¹ A subgroup analysis of CHANCE indicated that although the rate of recurrent stroke in patients with ICAS is higher than those without ICAS, no significant difference in response to the 2 kinds of antiplatelet therapies between patients with ICAS or without was observed.⁷² Thus, compared with aspirin alone, the efficacy and safety of DAPT for reducing the risk of recurrent stroke without increasing

the risk of hemorrhage may be no different in patients with and without ICAS.⁷²

Despite DAPT and risk factor management, recurrent ischemic events still occurred in some patients, possibly due to aspirin or clopidogrel resistance. Studies on the genetic variants associated with aspirin or clopidogrel resistance have found that *PON1rs662*, *P2Y12rs2046934*, *COX1rs1330344*, and *CYP2C19*3rs4986893* polymorphisms are associated with an increased risk of subsequent ischemic events, whilst *CES1rs8192950* mutations are associated with a decreased risk of ischemic events, in Chinese patients with either extracranial or intracranial stenosis.^{73,74} Although these studies had relatively small sample sizes and included patients with extracranial disease, they demonstrate the important role of genetic polymorphisms in guiding antiplatelet therapy. For example, increasing drug dose, or switching to other antiplatelet drugs, may help to prevent subsequent ischemic events in patients with aspirin or clopidogrel resistance.

Endovascular intervention

Although antiplatelet therapy and management of vascular risk factors are effective and safe for the treatment on ICAS and prevention of subsequent stroke and TIA, some recurrent ischemic events still occur following aggressive medical treatment. Thus, revascularization may be an option for these subgroups. There are many devices applied in therapies for ICAS, including the Apollo stent, Gateway-Wingspan system, Enterprise stent, and coronary stent. A great many studies have demonstrated that angioplasty and stenting are safe and feasible, with high success and low periprocedural complication rates, in Chinese patients with ICAS.^{75–84} However, most of these trials have limitations, such as small sample sizes, single-center and retrospective designs, and the absence of medication control groups.

With the publication of negative results in some large clinical trials, such as SAMMPRIS and VISSIT, endovascular therapy was not recommended as a primary treatment for patients with symptomatic ICAS; poor outcomes and high rates of perioperative complications were observed among patients treated with angioplasty and stenting compared with aggressive medical therapy.^{19,85} Nevertheless, there were some limitations to these trials, such as defects in patients recruitment and poor operator experience. To resolve these problems (i.e. to reduce periprocedural

complications and benefit patients), Chinese investigators carried out extensive studies.

The first multicenter, prospective, registry study of stenting for symptomatic ICAS in China demonstrated favorable outcomes; successful revascularization was observed in 97.3% of cases, and the 30-day rate of stroke, TIA, and death was 4.3%, lower than in the SAMMPRIS and VISSIT trials (14.7% and 24.1%, respectively).^{19,85,86} Investigators attributed the positive results to the following: all operators were experienced and able to choose the appropriate stent, when both balloon-mounted and self-expanding stents were available, based on the anatomical features of vessel lesions; patients were required to have evidence of hypoperfusion, but no evidence of long lesions (≥ 15 mm) or acute infarction within 3 weeks or severe vessel tortuosity.⁸⁶ Moreover, balloon-mounted stents were found to have lower degrees of residual stenosis than self-expanding stents, in accordance with a previous multicenter trial of stenting in ICAS.^{86,87} The latter study also observed that Mori type B or C lesions potentially increase the risk of periprocedural stroke.^{43,87} Another multicenter, prospective trial of stenting in patients with severe symptomatic ICAS also yielded acceptable results. The technical success rate and 30-day stroke and death rate were 100% and 2% respectively, better than those of the SAMMPRIS trial.⁸⁸ In this research, patients with ischemic events within 3 weeks or perforator strokes alone were similarly excluded, and the annual volume was greater than 30 procedures at each site.⁸⁸ A recent study on angioplasty and stenting with Wingspan in patients with symptomatic MCA stenosis indicated that the 30-day stroke or death rate at the learning stage was significantly higher than that at the technical maturation stage (16.0% vs. 4.1%). It is thought that high adverse events rate at the learning stage may be associated with insufficient experience and unskillful operation, highlighting the importance of the learning curve effect in avoiding perioperative complications.⁸⁹ Thus, the significance of patient selection and operator experience at high-volume sites in reducing the 30-day stroke and death rate was highlighted by these studies.

However, a common limitation of all these domestic clinical trials was the absence of a medication control group. Only one previous prospective, randomized, controlled, single-center trial compared the efficacy and safety of endovascular therapy with standard medical treatment in low-risk Chinese patients with symptomatic MCA stenosis.⁹⁰ Unfortunately, enrollment ceased early as there was no chance that endovascular treatment

could be better than medication, despite the fulfilled enrollment.⁹⁰ Although the 30-day rate of stroke or death was only 2.8% in intervention group, lower than that in the SAMMPRIS trial, no significant difference was observed when the rate was compared with the medical group.⁹⁰ Likewise, another study that compared the stroke risk of stenting between severe and moderate ICAS patients indicated that only patients with severe stenosis may benefit from intervention therapy.⁹¹ Thus, both reports did not recommend endovascular treatment among low-risk ICAS patients, which may be useful when devising a therapy strategy and patients selection criteria in subsequent clinical trials.

Studies on the complications associated with angioplasty and stenting in patients with ICAS are helpful for increasing operation success rates and preventing adverse periprocedural events. Jiang et al retrospectively investigated complications after endovascular treatment for patients with ICAS and associated risk factors, and found that there was a spectrum of periprocedural complications, including intracranial hemorrhage, stent thrombosis, posterior inferior cerebellar artery thrombosis, perforator stroke, embolic stroke, TIA from vasospasm, and dissection.⁹² Moreover, the investigators found that preoperative perforator infarction adjacent to the stenotic segment might predict a high frequency of perforator stroke, as well as deterioration of perforator stroke after stenting placement in ICAS.⁹³ Furthermore, another research exploring the factors associated with perforator stroke after endovascular treatment in basilar artery stenosis reported that diabetes mellitus, time from last symptom procedure, and pre-procedure stenosis percentage may correlate with occurrence of subsequent perforator stroke after angioplasty and stenting.⁹⁴ In addition, Jiang et al detected that patients with severe basilar artery stenosis have a higher rate of stroke or death within 30 days of stenting placement compared with those with vertebral artery stenosis, and deemed that the discrepancy may be caused by the richer perforators originating from basilar versus vertebral arteries.⁹⁵ Despite these reports, a recent study indicated that endovascular therapy for severe symptomatic intracranial vertebrobasilar artery stenosis was safe when it was conducted by experienced operators at a high-volume stroke center.⁹⁶ There was also a research indicating that awake vertebrobasilar stenting under local anesthesia can help with timely detection of intraoperative TIAs and avoidance of irreversible perforator stroke.⁹⁷ Thus, enhanced understanding and aggressive management of periprocedural complications may reduce the occurrence of adverse events and enhance patient benefit.

Studies concentrated on some subtypes of ICAS patients play a part in patient selection and treatment, which is a hot issue as well. Intervention therapy for some lesions that are close to or across a bifurcation or with very tortuous proximal vessel may result in high risk of poor outcomes.⁹⁸ Miao et al reported that primary angioplasty was safe and feasible with a long-term benefit in this subtype of patients although concerns on high rate of dissection was still required.⁹⁸ Recently, a single-center, prospective study on angioplasty and/or stenting for a subgroup of symptomatic ICAS patients caused by hypoperfusion with poor collateral vessels suggested that results of individualized treatment according to arterial access and lesion morphology were acceptable.⁹⁹ Therefore, to choose proper devices and make individualized treatment approach based on characters of patients with ICAS is reasonable and beneficial.

In general, acute stroke subsequent to ICAS increases the risk of endovascular treatment. However, in some patients with acute intracranial artery occlusion, especially in posterior circulation, the consequence can be disastrous if timely recanalization of the occluded artery is not carried out. Gao et al reported the safety and feasibility of a combination of mechanical thrombectomy with angioplasty and stenting to treat acute basilar artery occlusion with underlying severe vertebrobasilar stenosis.¹⁰⁰ Furthermore, this group found that recanalization rates were high in patients with acute basilar artery occlusion treated by mechanical thrombectomy with a Solitaire Device; about one-third of patients had favorable outcomes.¹⁰¹ Likewise, optimal treatment for chronic intracranial artery occlusion is controversial, and there are few relevant studies. Ma et al reported two cases of chronic symptomatic MCA occlusion treated with angioplasty and stenting; the long-term outcomes were acceptable, suggesting that endovascular treatment for chronic symptomatic MCA total occlusion is feasible, despite the potential risk of severe complications.¹⁰² Recently, a retrospective study described the safety and feasibility of continuous indirect encephaloduroarteriosynangiosis (EDAS) bypass in anterior circulation arterial steno-occlusion.¹⁰³ Although the outcomes only provide initial evidence and further studies are required to confirm the results, this research provided an optional treatment for patients with ICAS who fail with medical or endovascular therapy.¹⁰³

Of note, a recent study showed that, compared with medical treatment, angioplasty and stenting improved cognitive status and decreased serum levels of A β 1-40 and A β 1-40/A β 1-42 ratio in patients with intracranial

and/or extracranial artery stenosis.¹⁰⁴ A previous study confirmed that cognition and function declined faster in patients with moderate or severe ICAS, than in those without ICAS.¹⁰⁵ According to these studies, ICAS is a risk factor for dementia progression and treatment on the ischemic statuses, given that ICAS might prevent the decline of cognitive function.

Conclusion and outlook

Although our understanding of ICAS has improved, there are still limitations in recent research that need to be addressed in future work. Firstly, more high-quality clinical trials on the safety and efficacy of medicine and endovascular treatment for ICAS patients are urgently needed in China. Secondly, although there are extensive results on the diagnosis and assessment of ICAS with HR-MRI, Chinese studies on intravascular ultrasound and optical coherence tomography are absent, and studies on the molecular imaging and measurement of hemodynamic feature are only preliminary. A wide gap still exists between our knowledge and that of the international and cardiological forum. Furthermore, most domestic research has concentrated on the treatment of severe ICAS (stenosis $\geq 70\%$), whilst patients with moderate (50–69%) or mild (<50%) stenosis have been ignored. Importantly, the rate of recurrent stroke in these patients can be as high as half according to the WASID study.¹⁸ Finally, we should pay more attention to asymptomatic patients with ICAS, especially on the identification and screening of the subgroup at high risk of subsequent stroke and TIA. Maintaining asymptomatic ICAS, and preventing transformation to symptomatic ICAS, is important, but relevant studies are rare at present. Therefore, more large-scale and high-power studies are expected in the future.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Key Research and Development Program of China (2016YFC0901004), National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant number 81471206) and the Beijing Natural Science Foundation (grant number 7152121).

References

1. Liu L, Wang D, Wong KS, Wang Y. Stroke and stroke care in China: huge burden, significant workload, and a national priority. *Stroke*. 2011;42:3651–3654.
2. Wang Y, Zhao X, Liu L, et al. Prevalence and outcomes of symptomatic intracranial large artery stenoses and occlusions in China: the Chinese Intracranial Atherosclerosis (CICAS) Study. *Stroke*. 2014;45:663–669.
3. Chinese Stroke Association Scientific Statement Expert Group. Management standard of symptomatic intracranial and extracranial atherosclerotic large artery stenosis – scientific statement by Chinese Stroke Association [in Chinese]. *Chin J Stroke*. 2017;27:64–71.
4. Dong Q, Huang JX, Huang YN, et al. Chinese expert consensus on symptomatic atherosclerotic intracranial artery stenosis [in Chinese]. *Chin J Nerv Ment Dis*. 2012;38:129–145.
5. Chinese Society of Neurology, Chinese Society of Neurology Cerebrovascular Disease Group. 2014 Chinese Guideline on secondary prevention of ischemic stroke and transient ischemic attack [in Chinese]. *Chin J Neurol*. 2015;48:258–273.
6. Chinese Society of Neurology, Chinese Society of Neurology Neurovascular Intervention Group, Guideline group of interventional diagnosis and therapy on acute ischemic stroke. Chinese Guideline of early endovascular diagnosis and therapy on acute ischemic stroke [in Chinese]. *Chin J Neurol*. 2015;48:356–361.
7. Stroke Prevention and Control Society Intervention Group, Chinese Preventive Medicine Association. Chinese expert consensus of endovascular therapy on symptomatic atherosclerotic vertebral artery origin stenosis [in Chinese]. *Natl Med J China*. 2015;95:648–653.
8. Stroke Prevention and Control Society Intervention Group, Chinese Preventive Medicine Association, Chinese expert consensus group of endovascular therapy on acute ischemic stroke. Chinese expert consensus of endovascular therapy on acute ischemic stroke [in Chinese]. *Natl Med J China*. 2014;94:2097–2101.
9. Gao F, Xu AD. 2015 Chinese Guideline of endovascular therapy on acute ischemic stroke [in Chinese]. *Chin J Stroke*. 2015:590–606.
10. Chinese Society of Neurology, Chinese Society of Neurology Neurovascular Intervention Group. Expert consensus on treatment process and standard of early endovascular intervention of acute ischemic stroke [in Chinese]. *Chin J Neurol*. 2017;50:172–177.
11. Gorelick PB, Wong KS, Bae HJ, Pandey DK. Large artery intracranial occlusive disease: a large worldwide burden but a relatively neglected frontier. *Stroke*. 2008;39:2396–2399.
12. Wong LK. Global burden of intracranial atherosclerosis. *Int J Stroke*. 2006;1:158–159.
13. Wong KS, Huang YN, Gao S, Lam WW, Chan YL, Kay R. Intracranial stenosis in Chinese patients with acute stroke. *Neurology*. 1998;50:812–813.
14. Derdeyn CP, Chimowitz MI, Lynn MJ, et al. Aggressive medical treatment with or without stenting in high-risk patients with intracranial artery stenosis (SAMMPRIS): the final results of a randomised trial. *Lancet*. 2014;383:333–341.
15. Feldmann E, Daneault N, Kwan E, et al. Chinese-white differences in the distribution of occlusive cerebrovascular disease. *Neurology*. 1990;40:1541–1545.

16. Leung SY, Ng TH, Yuen ST, Lauder IJ, Ho FC. Pattern of cerebral atherosclerosis in Hong Kong Chinese. Severity in intracranial and extracranial vessels. *Stroke*. 1993;24:779–786.
17. Yu DD, Pu YH, Pan YS, et al. High blood pressure increases the risk of poor outcome at discharge and 12-month follow-up in patients with symptomatic intracranial large artery stenosis and occlusions: subgroup analysis of the CICAS study. *CNS Neurosci Ther*. 2015;21:530–535.
18. Kasner SE, Chimowitz MI, Lynn MJ, et al. Predictors of ischemic stroke in the territory of a symptomatic intracranial arterial stenosis. *Circulation*. 2006;113:555–563.
19. Chimowitz MI, Lynn MJ, Derdeyn CP, et al. Stenting versus aggressive medical therapy for intracranial arterial stenosis. *N Engl J Med*. 2011;365:993–1003.
20. Pu Y, Liu L, Wang Y, et al. Geographic and sex difference in the distribution of intracranial atherosclerosis in China. *Stroke*. 2013;44:2109–2114.
21. Wong KS, Huang YN, Yang HB, et al. A door-to-door survey of intracranial atherosclerosis in Liangbei County, China. *Neurology*. 2007;68:2031–2034.
22. Wong KS, Ng PW, Tang A, Liu R, Yeung V, Tomlinson B. Prevalence of asymptomatic intracranial atherosclerosis in high-risk patients. *Neurology*. 2007;68:2035–2038.
23. Ojha R, Huang D, An H, et al. Distribution of ischemic infarction and stenosis of intra- and extracranial arteries in young Chinese patients with ischemic stroke. *BMC Cardiovasc Disord*. 2015;15:158.
24. Wang GH, Wong YJ, Jiang WJ, et al. The relationship between smoking and cerebral large-artery atherosclerotic stenosis in young adults with ischemic stroke [in Chinese]. *Chin J Stroke*. 2006;1:88–90.
25. Huang HW, Guo MH, Lin RJ, et al. Hyperhomocysteinemia is a risk factor of middle cerebral artery stenosis. *J Neurol*. 2007;254:364–367.
26. Caplan LR, Gorelick PB, Hier DB. Race, sex and occlusive cerebrovascular disease: a review. *Stroke*. 1986;17:648–655.
27. Gorelick PB. Distribution of atherosclerotic cerebrovascular lesions. Effects of age, race, and sex. *Stroke*. 1993;24:116–121.
28. Inzitari D, Hachinski VC, Taylor DW, Barnett HJ. Racial differences in the anterior circulation in cerebrovascular disease. How much can be explained by risk factors. *Arch Neurol*. 1990;47:1080–1084.
29. Leng X, Wong KS, Liebeskind DS. Evaluating intracranial atherosclerosis rather than intracranial stenosis. *Stroke*. 2014;45:645–651.
30. Li ML, Xu WH, Song L, et al. Atherosclerosis of middle cerebral artery: evaluation with high-resolution MR imaging at 3T. *Atherosclerosis*. 2009;204:447–452.
31. Xu WH, Li ML, Gao S, et al. In vivo high-resolution MR imaging of symptomatic and asymptomatic middle cerebral artery atherosclerotic stenosis. *Atherosclerosis*. 2010;212:507–511.
32. Xu WH, Li ML, Gao S, et al. Plaque distribution of stenotic middle cerebral artery and its clinical relevance. *Stroke*. 2011;42:2957–2959.
33. Sasaki S, Kobayashi M, Futagi Y, Ogura J, Yamaguchi H, Iseki K. Involvement of histidine residue His382 in pH regulation of MCT4 activity. *PLoS One*. 2014;10:e0122738.
34. Xu WH, Li ML, Gao S, et al. Middle cerebral artery intraplaque hemorrhage: prevalence and clinical relevance. *Ann Neurol*. 2012;71:195–198.
35. Xu WH, Li ML, Niu JW, Feng F, Jin ZY, Gao S. Deep tiny flow voids along middle cerebral artery atherosclerotic occlusions: a high-resolution MR imaging study. *J Neurol Sci*. 2014;339:130–133.
36. Xu YY, Li ML, Gao S, et al. Non-moyamoya vessel network formation along steno-occlusive middle cerebral artery. *Neurology*. 2016;86:1957–1963.
37. Shi MC, Wang SC, Zhou HW, et al. Compensatory remodeling in symptomatic middle cerebral artery atherosclerotic stenosis: a high-resolution MRI and microemboli monitoring study. *Neurol Res*. 2012;34:153–158.
38. Huang B, Yang WQ, Liu XT, Liu HJ, Li PJ, Lu HK. Basilar artery atherosclerotic plaques distribution in symptomatic patients: a 3.0T high-resolution MRI study. *Eur J Radiol*. 2013;82:e199–203.
39. Jiang WJ, Yu W, Ma N, Du B, Lou X, Rasmussen PA. High resolution MRI guided endovascular intervention of basilar artery disease. *J Neurointerv Surg*. 2011;3:375–378.
40. Ma N, Jiang WJ, Lou X, et al. Arterial remodeling of advanced basilar atherosclerosis: a 3-tesla MRI study. *Neurology*. 2010;75:253–258.
41. Pijls NH, De Bruyne B, Peels K, et al. Measurement of fractional flow reserve to assess the functional severity of coronary artery stenoses. *N Engl J Med*. 1996;334:1703–1708.
42. Tonino PA, Fearon WF, De Bruyne B, et al. Angiographic versus functional severity of coronary artery stenoses in the FAME study fractional flow reserve versus angiography in multivessel evaluation. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;55:2816–2821.
43. Leng X, Scalzo F, Ip HL, et al. Computational fluid dynamics modeling of symptomatic intracranial atherosclerosis may predict risk of stroke recurrence. *PLoS One*. 2014;9:e97531.
44. Miao Z, Liebeskind DS, Lo W, et al. Fractional flow assessment for the evaluation of intracranial atherosclerosis: a feasibility study. *Interv Neurol*. 2016;5:65–75.
45. Liu J, Yan Z, Pu Y, et al. Functional assessment of cerebral artery stenosis: a pilot study based on computational fluid dynamics. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab*. 2017;37:2567–2576.
46. Nishijima Y, Akamatsu Y, Weinstein PR, Liu J. Collaterals: implications in cerebral ischemic diseases and therapeutic interventions. *Brain Res*. 2015;1623:18–29.
47. Bang OY, Goyal M, Liebeskind DS. Collateral circulation in ischemic stroke: assessment tools and therapeutic strategies. *Stroke*. 2015;46:3302–3309.
48. Hai J, Li ST, Lin Q, Pan QG, Gao F, Ding MX. Vascular endothelial growth factor expression and angiogenesis induced by chronic cerebral hypoperfusion in rat brain. *Neurosurgery*. 2003;53:963–972.
49. Jing Z, Shi C, Zhu L, et al. Chronic cerebral hypoperfusion induces vascular plasticity and hemodynamics but also neuronal degeneration and cognitive impairment. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab*. 2015;35:1249–1259.
50. Shu S, Zhang L, Zhu YC, et al. Imaging angiogenesis using (68) Ga-NOTA-PRGD2 positron emission tomography/computed tomography in patients with severe intracranial atherosclerotic disease. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab*. 2017, 271678X17696322.
51. Zhang Q, Zhang S, Wang C, et al. Ideal cardiovascular health metrics on the prevalence of asymptomatic intracranial artery stenosis: a cross-sectional study. *PLoS One*. 2013;8:e58923.
52. Zhang Z, Xiao M, Ye Z, Zhang W, Han B, Li Y. Non-cardiogenic stroke patients with metabolic syndrome have more border-zone infarction and intracranial artery stenosis. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis*. 2015;24:629–634.

53. Jin H, Peng Q, Nan D, et al. Prevalence and risk factors of intracranial and extracranial artery stenosis in asymptomatic rural residents of 13 villages in China. *BMC Neurol.* 2017;17:136.
54. Du YL, Chen SX, Hu YR, et al. Prevalence and risk factors of asymptomatic intracranial vascular stenosis in paif en ~ with essential hypertension [in Chinese]. *Chin J Cardiol.* 2007;35:893–896.
55. Su LL, Huang HW, Tan SQ, Wu XH, Zhou GJ. Prevalence of asymptomatic intracranial artery stenosis in middle-aged and elderly population in the community of Foshan city, Guangdong province: a cross-sectional study [in Chinese]. *Zhonghua Liu Xing Bing Xue Za Zhi.* 2011;32:469–472.
56. Wang D, Zhou Y, Guo Y, et al. Arterial pre-hypertension and hypertension in intracranial versus extracranial cerebrovascular stenosis. *Eur J Neurol.* 2015;22:533–539.
57. Zhang J, Li Y, Wang Y, et al. Arterial stiffness and asymptomatic intracranial large arterial stenosis and calcification in hypertensive Chinese. *Am J Hypertens.* 2011;24:304–309.
58. Wang Y, Zhang J, Qain Y, et al. Association of brachial-ankle pulse wave velocity with asymptomatic intracranial arterial stenosis in hypertension patients. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis.* 2016;25:1922–1928.
59. Wang D, Wang C, Zhou Y, et al. Different blood pressure indexes on intracranial arterial stenosis in asymptomatic polyvascular abnormalities in community study in China. *J Hypertens.* 2015;33:1452–1457.
60. Zhang Y, Wu S, Jia Z, et al. The relationship of asymptomatic intracranial artery stenosis and framingham stroke risk profile in a Northern Chinese industrial city. *Neurol Res.* 2012;34:359–365.
61. Zeng Y, Li Y, Liu C, Zhang J, Huang H, Chen X. Predictors of internal borderzone infarcts in atherosclerotic middle cerebral artery stenosis. *Zhonghua Yi Xue Za Zhi.* 2014;94:3712–3716.
62. Wang S, Guo ZN, Xing Y, et al. Dynamic cerebral autoregulation in asymptomatic patients with unilateral middle cerebral artery stenosis. *Med (Baltim).* 2015;94:e2234.
63. Jiang Y, Peng W, Teng Z, et al. Local blood pressure associates with the degree of luminal stenosis in patients with atherosclerotic disease in the middle cerebral artery. *Biomed Eng Online.* 2016;15:67.
64. Hao Z, Liu M, Wang D, Wu B, Tao W, Chang X. High blood pressure on admission in relation to poor outcome in acute ischemic stroke with intracranial atherosclerotic stenosis or occlusion. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis.* 2014;23:1403–1408.
65. Tan TY, Kuo YL, Lin WC, Chen TY. Effect of lipid-lowering therapy on the progression of intracranial arterial stenosis. *J Neurol.* 2009;256:187–193.
66. Zhou P, Lu Z, Gao P, et al. Efficacy and safety of intensive statin therapy in Chinese patients with atherosclerotic intracranial arterial stenosis: a single-center, randomized, single-blind, parallel-group study with one-year follow-up. *Clin Neurol Neurosurg.* 2014;120:6–13.
67. Wang PQ, Liu JJ, Wang AP, et al. Recurrent ischemic events and risk factors in patients with symptomatic intracranial artery stenosis. *Eur Rev Med Pharmacol Sci.* 2015;19:2608–2613.
68. Qian Y, Pu Y, Liu L, et al. Low HDL-C level is associated with the development of intracranial artery stenosis: analysis from the Chinese IntraCranial AtheroSclerosis (CICAS) study. *PLoS One.* 2013;8:e64395.
69. Wong KS, Chen C, Fu J, et al. Clopidogrel plus aspirin versus aspirin alone for reducing embolisation in patients with acute symptomatic cerebral or carotid artery stenosis (CLAIR study): a randomised, open-label, blinded-endpoint trial. *Lancet Neurol.* 2010;9:489–497.
70. Wang X, Lin WH, Zhao YD, et al. The effectiveness of dual antiplatelet treatment in acute ischemic stroke patients with intracranial arterial stenosis: a subgroup analysis of CLAIR study. *Int J Stroke.* 2013;8:663–668.
71. Wang Y, Wang Y, Zhao X, et al. Clopidogrel with aspirin in acute minor stroke or transient ischemic attack. *N Engl J Med.* 2013;369:11–19.
72. Liu L, Wong KS, Leng X, et al. Dual antiplatelet therapy in stroke and ICAS: subgroup analysis of CHANCE. *Neurology.* 2015;85:1154–1162.
73. Li XQ, Ma N, Li XG, et al. Association of PON1, P2Y12 and COX1 with recurrent ischemic events in patients with extracranial or intracranial stenting. *PLoS One.* 2016;11:e0148891.
74. Zhao Z, Li X, Sun S, et al. Impact of genetic polymorphisms related to clopidogrel or acetylsalicylic acid pharmacology on clinical outcome in Chinese patients with symptomatic extracranial or intracranial stenosis. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol.* 2016;72:1195–1204.
75. Jiang WJ, Xu XT, Jin M, Du B, Dong KH, Dai JP. Apollo stent for symptomatic atherosclerotic intracranial stenosis: study results. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol.* 2007;28:830–834.
76. Zhao Y, Jin M, Liu Q, Liu D, Chen J, Du B. A long-term follow-up results of enterprise stent in treatment of severe symptomatic basilar artery atherosclerotic stenosis. *Zhonghua NeiKe Za Zhi.* 2016;55:372–376.
77. Jiang WJ, Yu W, Du B, Gao F, Cui LY. Outcome of patients with $\geq 70\%$ symptomatic intracranial stenosis after Wingspan stenting. *Stroke.* 2011;42:1971–1975.
78. Jiang WJ, Wang YJ, Du B, et al. Stenting of symptomatic M1 stenosis of middle cerebral artery: an initial experience of 40 patients. *Stroke.* 2004;35:1375–1380.
79. Miao ZR, Feng L, Li S, et al. Treatment of symptomatic middle cerebral artery stenosis with balloon-mounted stents: long-term follow-up at a single center. *Neurosurgery.* 2009;64:79–85.
80. Guo XB, Ma N, Hu XB, Guan S, Fan YM. Wingspan stent for symptomatic M1 stenosis of middle cerebral artery. *Eur J Radiol.* 2011;80:e356–360.
81. Zhang L, Huang Q, Zhang Y, et al. Wingspan stents for the treatment of symptomatic atherosclerotic stenosis in small intracranial vessels: safety and efficacy evaluation. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol.* 2012;33:343–347.
82. Zhang L, Huang Q, Zhang Y, et al. A single-center study of Wingspan stents for symptomatic atherosclerotic stenosis of the middle cerebral artery. *J Clin Neurosci.* 2013;20:362–366.
83. Zhao ZW, Deng JP, He SM, Qin HZ, Gao L, Gao GD. Intracranial angioplasty with Gateway-Wingspan system for symptomatic atherosclerotic stenosis: preliminary results of 27 Chinese patients. *Surg Neurol.* 2009;72:607–611.
84. Jiang WJ, Xu XT, Du B, et al. Long-term outcome of elective stenting for symptomatic intracranial vertebrobasilar stenosis. *Neurology.* 2007;68:856–858.
85. Zaidat OO, Fitzsimmons BF, Woodward BK, et al. Effect of a balloon-expandable intracranial stent vs medical therapy on risk of stroke in patients with symptomatic intracranial stenosis: the VISSIT randomized clinical trial. *JAMA.* 2015;313:1240–1248.
86. Miao Z, Zhang Y, Shuai J, et al. Thirty-day outcome of a multicenter registry study of stenting for symptomatic intracranial artery stenosis in China. *Stroke.* 2015;46:2822–2829.

87. Jiang WJ, Cheng-Ching E, Abou-Chebl A, et al. Multicenter analysis of stenting in symptomatic intracranial atherosclerosis. *Neurosurgery*. 2012;70:25–31.
88. Gao P, Wang D, Zhao Z, et al. Multicenter prospective trial of stent placement in patients with symptomatic high-grade intracranial stenosis. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol*. 2016;37:1275–1280.
89. Wang ZL, Gao BL, Li TX, et al. Outcomes of middle cerebral artery angioplasty and stenting with Wingspan at a high-volume center. *Neuroradiology*. 2016;58:161–169.
90. Miao Z, Jiang L, Wu H, et al. Randomized controlled trial of symptomatic middle cerebral artery stenosis: endovascular versus medical therapy in a Chinese population. *Stroke*. 2012;43:3284–3290.
91. Jiang WJ, Xu XT, Du B, et al. Comparison of elective stenting of severe vs moderate intracranial atherosclerotic stenosis. *Neurology*. 2007;68:420–426.
92. Jiang WJ, Du B, Leung TW, Xu XT, Jin M, Dong KH. Symptomatic intracranial stenosis: cerebrovascular complications from elective stent placement. *Radiology*. 2007;243:188–197.
93. Jiang WJ, Srivastava T, Gao F, Du B, Dong KH, Xu XT. Perforator stroke after elective stenting of symptomatic intracranial stenosis. *Neurology*. 2006;66:1868–1872.
94. Jia B, Liebeskind DS, Ma N, et al. Factors associated with perforator stroke after selective basilar artery angioplasty or stenting. *J Neurointerv Surg*. 2017;9:738–742.
95. Jiang WJ, Du B, Hon SF, et al. Do patients with basilar or vertebral artery stenosis have a higher stroke incidence post-stenting. *J Neurointerv Surg*. 2010;2:50–54.
96. Liu L, Zhao X, Mo D, Ma N, Gao F, Miao Z. Stenting for symptomatic intracranial vertebrobasilar artery stenosis: 30-day results in a high-volume stroke center. *Clin Neurol Neurosurg*. 2016;143:132–138.
97. Jiang WJ, Yu W, Du B, Wong EH, Gao F. Wingspan experience at Beijing Tiantan Hospital: new insights into the mechanisms of procedural complication from viewing intraoperative transient ischemic attacks during awake stenting for vertebrobasilar stenosis. *J Neurointerv Surg*. 2010;2:99–103.
98. Miao Z, Wang B, Feng L, Hua Y, Ling F. Primary angioplasty for a subtype of symptomatic middle cerebral artery stenosis. *Neuroradiology*. 2011;53:651–657.
99. Miao Z, Song L, Liebeskind DS, et al. Outcomes of tailored angioplasty and/or stenting for symptomatic intracranial atherosclerosis: a prospective cohort study after SAMMPRIS. *J Neurointerv Surg*. 2015;7:331–335.
100. Gao F, Lo WT, Sun X, Mo DP, Ma N, Miao ZR. Combined use of mechanical thrombectomy with angioplasty and stenting for acute basilar occlusions with underlying severe intracranial vertebrobasilar stenosis: preliminary experience from a single Chinese center. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol*. 2015;36:1947–1952.
101. Huo X, Gao F, Sun X, et al. Endovascular mechanical thrombectomy with the solitaire device for the treatment of acute basilar artery occlusion. *World Neurosurg*. 2016;89:301–308.
102. Ma N, Mo DP, Gao F, Miao ZR. Endovascular recanalization for chronic symptomatic middle cerebral artery total occlusion. *J Neurointerv Surg*. 2013;5:e15.
103. Tong H, Ma Y, Zhang Z, et al. Indirect revascularization for non-moyamoya disease anterior circulation arterial stenosis: clinical features, surgical treatment, and medium-term outcomes in adults. *World Neurosurg*. 2016;89:293–300.
104. Zhao L, Zhao Y, Zhang H. Effect of stent-assisted angioplasty on cognitive status and serum levels of amyloid beta in patients with intracranial and/or extracranial artery stenosis. *Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat*. 2015;11:471–475.
105. Zhu J, Wang Y, Li J, Deng J, Zhou H. Intracranial artery stenosis and progression from mild cognitive impairment to Alzheimer disease. *Neurology*. 2014;82:842–849.

Edited by Jing-Ling Bao