In vivo solvent-suppressed localized hydrogen magnetic resonance spectroscopy: A window to metabolism?

Paul A. Bottomley, William A. Edelstein, Thomas H. Foster, and William A. Adams

General Electric Corporate Research and Development Center, P.O. Box 8, Schenectady, NY 12301

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ABSTRACT Solvent-suppression NMR techniques are combined with a pulsed magnetic field gradient and surface coil detection method of spatial localization. The result is a technique that enables observation of metabolites in the hydrogen $^1$H NMR chemical-shift spectra from preselected disk-shaped volumes of biological tissue in vivo. Localized spectra are recorded from the normal human brain and forearm and from a dog in acquisition periods of 2 s using a 1.5-T imaging/spectroscopy system. This is several hundred-fold faster than acquiring similar state-of-the-art $^{31}$P NMR spectra of brain metabolites in vivo. Spectroscopy experiments are followed by conventional surface coil imaging sequences to precisely define the selected volume. Contamination of spectra by lipid resonances is a problem.

Localized phosphorus ($^{31}$P) NMR is proving a valuable tool in the in vivo investigation of animal models of stroke (1-5), myocardial ischemia (6-8), tumors (9, 10), and the efficacy of drug therapy (11, 12) as well as human muscular metabolic diseases (13-15) and cerebral disorders in neonates (16). Its value resides in the ability to detect and monitor intracellular pH and in vivo concentrations of metabolites such as phosphocreatine (PCr), ATP, and Pi, which directly measure the state of health of tissue. A major impediment limiting utility of this technology in clinical medicine is the low sensitivity of the $^{31}$P resonance. Thus, data acquisition times are typically of the order 10 min for a single coarsely resolved localized volume of the order 20 cm$^3$ in the currently available large-aperture, 1.5- to 2-T, magnet-based spectroscopy systems (16-18).

Nucleus for nucleus, the hydrogen $^1$H resonance offers a 15-fold improvement in signal-to-noise ratio (19, 20) or a reduction by a factor of 227 in signal averaging time over $^{31}$P NMR at the same magnetic field strength. $^1$H NMR spectra can reveal the relative concentrations of the total PCr/creatinine (Cr) pool, phosphocholine (PCho), N-acetyl-aspartate (N-AcAsp), some lipid (—CH$_2$—), and lactate metabolites. Such resonances have been detected in vivo in rat brain (21) and isolated perfused heart spectra at 8.5 T (22) and recently in rabbit brain at 1.9 T (23), all with spectral averaging times of 2-2.5 min and sample volumes of the order 1-10 cm$^3$. The amplitude of the lactate (—CH$_3$) resonance appears as sensitive to hypoxia and ischemia as the P$_i$ resonance in $^{31}$P spectra and contains 3-fold as many nuclei. Thus, localized in vivo $^1$H NMR spectroscopy could provide spectacular sensitivity/scan time advantages over $^{31}$P for certain metabolic studies and clinical applications.

Key difficulties encountered with the implementation of in vivo $^1$H metabolic spectroscopy are the suppression of H$_2$O and lipid (—CH$_2$—) resonances (21-23) and the method of spatial localization. The H$_2$O resonance is of order 10,000-fold more intense than the metabolites and normally swamps the spectrum. Solvent-suppression techniques that rely on avoiding excitation of the H$_2$O resonance (24) are unsuitable for localized spectroscopy schemes involving spatially selective excitation rf pulses because these excite the entire spectrum (20, 25). Thus, the best approach is to either selectively saturate the H$_2$O resonance or otherwise ensure that the net H$_2$O magnetization is nulled or directed parallel to the main field during data acquisition. The latter method has recently been used to separately image H$_2$O and lipid components in the head and limbs (20, 26). Suppression of the lipid (—CH$_2$—) signal is more difficult because its chemical shift essentially overlaps that of the lactate resonance (21-23). Fortunately, the NMR-detectable lipid concentration in brain and homogeneous muscle tissue is minute compared to that of adipose tissue (17, 18, 20-23, 25). The problem therefore shifts to that of providing sufficiently sharp spatial localization that surface adipose and other infiltrating tissue high in lipid content are effectively excluded from spectra.

We have combined spatially selective excitation (25) and H$_2$O suppression by chemical-selective irradiation NMR pulse sequences (20, 26) with surface coil detection (17, 18, 27) to observe $^1$H metabolite-level spectra from the human brain. Spectra are acquired at 1.5 T in averaging periods of 2 s consistent with the expected sensitivity advantage of the $^1$H nucleus. Spectroscopy sequences are immediately followed by conventional planar imaging with the same NMR coils (28, 29) to precisely determine the location and size of the spectroscopy volume element (voxel). Studies of the human arm and the head of a dog are also presented.

METHODS

In vivo experiments were performed on a 1.5-T, 1-m bore Oxford Instruments superconducting magnet and a broadband quadrature phase-sensitive detection spectroscopy research system operating at 62.2 MHz with a spectrometer noise figure of around 0.8 dB (decibel) (17, 18). Resonance was excited with a 25-cm (diameter) saddle-shaped head-sized NMR coil with distributed capacitance and detected with either a 3-cm (diameter) or a 6.5-cm (diameter) surface coil. The transmitter and receiver rf fields were orthogonal and crossed diodes placed in series with the head coil and in parallel with the 6.5-cm coil to minimize mutual interactions. Crossed diodes were unnecessary in the smaller coil. In a homogeneous sample excited by a uniform rf field, the surface coil sensitivity profile of both coils is such that 50% of the total integrated NMR signal derived from a plane lying 5 cm deep and parallel to the coil falls within a 6.5-cm (radius) disk, as computed from the formula for the field component of a circular loop lying perpendicular to the main field (30).

Abbreviations: PCr, phosphocreatine; Cr, creatine; PCho, phosphocholine; N-AcAsp, N-acetylaspartate.
The loaded signal-to-noise ratio (\( \phi \)) of a pure H_2O sample detected by the 6.5-cm (diameter) coil at a 5-cm depth (on axis) was measured at 38,000 Hz/\( \sqrt{2} \) ml by using the projection technique (31). Assuming a partial saturation factor of 0.71 (\( T_1 = 0.8 \) s), \( T_2 \approx 0.1 \) s, and two averages yield \( \phi (\text{H}_2\text{O}) = 0.71 \times 38,000 \times 0.1^{1/2} = 8500 \) per ml (31). A metabolite present at 10 mM concentrations (e.g., N-AcAsp) with comparable relaxation times is then detectable in the 1H NMR spectrum with \( \psi (10 \text{ mM}) = 1.5 \) per ml, or \( \psi (10 \text{ mM}) \approx 50 \) from the 13-cm (diameter) sensitive disk, assuming a 5-mm slice thickness and an additional halving of \( \psi \) due to fading of the sensitivity profile off axis. The corresponding estimate for the 3-cm coil is \( \psi (10 \text{ mM}) = 25 \) in a spectrum averaging two acquisitions.

Four solvent-suppressed localized hydrogen spectroscopy NMR pulse sequences were investigated, as depicted in Fig. 1. Sequences shown in Fig. 1 a and b employ a 100-ms duration, sinc function amplitude-modulated \( \pi/2 \) rf pulse of 0.7 ppm measured linewidth in the frequency domain centered on the H_2O resonance, for subsequent H_2O suppression. The chemical-selective pulse is followed by a conventional \( \pi/2 \) sinc function amplitude-modulated slice-selective pulse applied in the presence of a magnetic field gradient (\( G_z \)) directed perpendicular to the NMR surface coil used for detection (25). This excites all of the nuclei in a selected plane parallel to the surface coil and affects a \( \pi \) net nutation to the H_2O magnetization, thereby rendering it in principle unobservable (20). There is no need to change the rf of the slice-selective pulse because its bandwidth is much greater than the range of chemical shifts present in the sample. A 5-mm-thick slice was used throughout. The amplitude of the H_2O-selective pulse is adjusted for maximal annihilation of the H_2O resonance during data acquisition (20). The remaining NMR signal is then either detected immediately following the slice-selective pulse (sequence in Fig. 1a) or refocused to a spin echo by using a subsequent (nonselective) \( \pi \) pulse at time \( \tau \) following the \( \pi/2 \) pulse (sequence in Fig. 1b). The latter sequence provides additional attenuation of any inherently broad H_2O resonance component with short NMR spin–spin relaxation time (\( T_2 \)).

Discrimination on the basis of relaxation times is extended in the sequence shown in Fig. 1c, wherein the chemical-selective pulse is abandoned to be replaced by an initial \( \pi \) inversion pulse applied at time \( \tau_{null} \) preceding the slice-selective \( \pi/2 \) pulse. \( \tau_{null} \) is adjusted to eliminate the H_2O resonance at \( \tau_{null} = 0.69 T_1 (\text{H}_2\text{O}) \), where \( T_1 \) is the spin-lattice relaxation time. Inversion pulses are used in a similar fashion for solvent suppression in conventional NMR spectroscopy (32). The sequence shown in Fig. 1d is a reduction of that in Fig. 1b, in which the initial \( \pi/2 \) excitation pulse is a chemical-selective pulse tailored to select only the metabolically useful portion of the 1H spectrum, excluding the H_2O resonance. Slice selection is subsequently performed by the \( \pi \) refocusing pulse applied in the presence of the gradient. In all cases, data were averaged from two applications of the sequences repeated at 1-s periods with the phase of the \( \pi/2 \) excitation pulse alternated to remove unwanted spurious signals generated by the other rf pulses (33).

The magnetic field homogeneity was shimmed for the narrowed linewidth of the H_2O resonance with resistive shim gradient coils during application of the desired solvent-suppressed localized hydrogen spectroscopy sequence with solvent suppression turned off (20). Typically, 0.1- to 0.2-ppm linewidths were achieved on the head with all surface coils. This procedure enabled compensation for gradients occurring during data acquisition due to eddy currents induced in the magnet cryostat or structural metal by the slice-selection gradient (20, 25). However, shimming precludes use of any external or internal spectrometer reference standards for assigning absolute chemical-shift values. Instead, the chemical shifts of H_2O and lactate (—CH_3) at 37°C were measured with a Varian XL300 300-MHz high-resolution NMR spectrometer at 4.67 ppm and 1.32 ppm (doublet), respectively, relative to sodium trimethylsilylpropionate, and the observed chemical shifts of a prominent brain resonance assigned to 3.03 ppm (21, 23) served as spectral reference markers. Absence of substantial lipid —CH_3— resonances (0.9–1.7 ppm) in the 1H spectrum is indicative of satisfactory spectroscopy voxel localization in (normal) muscle or brain tissue (20, 25).

Spectroscopy experiments were repeated on five conscious adult male volunteers and on a dog anesthetized with sodium pentobarbital (25 mg/kg) to serve as a control for studies involving pathology models. Raw spectroscopy data were multiplied by a 100-ms time constant exponential filter, complex Fourier transformed, baseline flattened by using a convolution difference method (27), and corrected for zeroth and first-order phase drift. Conventional spin echo planar imaging (18, 28, 29) was then performed with the identical coil set and slice-selection characteristics as used for spectroscopy, without moving or disturbing the subject. Transition from spectroscopy to imaging operation modes requires only readjustment of the spectrometer data acquisition filter bandwidths and recall of a new imaging pulse sequence program from the operating computer. Image arrays consist of 256 \times 256 0.9 mm \times 0.9 mm resolution picture points recorded in 102 s (0.2-s sequence repetition period) or 512 s (1.0-s sequence repetition period).
RESULTS

Solvent suppression of brain H2O in a selected plane 4 cm deep in the human head with sequences of Fig. 1 b and c is demonstrated in Fig. 2 a and c, respectively. The H2O signal in the spectrum of Fig. 2b is attenuated 33-fold in an integrated area compared to the spectrum of Fig. 2a and shows a notched profile characteristic of the chemical-selective irradiation pulse. In the spectrum shown in Fig. 2c, where H2O is suppressed by adjustment of τ, only a reduction in H2O amplitude by a factor of about 20 ensued. This proved inadequate to prevent obliteration of PCho/PiCr/Cr resonances in the region 3.0–3.3 ppm. The sequence shown in Fig. 1a produced comparable results to that of Fig. 1b, but an excessive broad baseline component in brain spectra rendered phasing difficult. Recording spin-echo data with the sequence of Fig. 1b 40–160 ms (τ = 20–80 ms) after slice selection provided adequate suppression of this short T2 component in brain studies. The sequence shown in Fig. 1d produced essentially equivalent results to that of Fig. 1b.

Initially, attempts were made to observe lactate development in muscle during exercise because of the success of 31P NMR in muscle studies (13–15). The sequence in Fig. 1a with the 6.5-cm coil and two averages was employed. Dramatic changes between resting and exercised arm 1H spectra occur in the peak at 1.3 ppm in Fig. 3 a and b, but the corresponding images (Fig. 3 c and d) indicate that the source of the variation is intrusion of bone marrow lipid into the selected slice as the internal anatomy distorts during muscular contraction. Some metabolite level resonances are discernible in the baseline, but the 0.6- to 2.0-ppm region of the spectra is swamped by lipid.

Fig. 4a is a normal human brain spectrum recorded in 2 s with the sequence of Fig. 1b (τ = 20 ms) and 3-cm coil. The selected plane was sagittal and located 5 cm deep from the surface of the head. A spectrum from the dog head acquired with the 3-cm coil, 2-s averaging time, 5-cm-deep selected sagittal plane, and the sequence of Fig. 1b (τ = 80 ms) is shown in Fig. 4b. The signal-to-noise ratio of the N-AcAsp resonance is consistent with the H2O measurement/calculation. Images in Fig. 4 c and d illustrate the sensitivity profiles in the sample across the same sagittal slices corresponding to the selected volumes represented by the spectra in Fig. 4 a and b, respectively. The images verify that lipid signal contributions to the selected plane from scalp tissue are minimal. However, it is evident from the image in Fig. 4d that only about half of the 1H NMR signal in the dog spectrum derives from the brain. The image in Fig. 4e shows the effect in the human head of increasing the surface coil size to 6.5 cm: the relative lipid signal amplitude was roughly tripled and the signal-to-noise ratio was doubled. The image in Fig. 4f is a transaxial scan corresponding to Fig. 4e showing the slice location in the human head. By comparison, a 31P spectrum recorded from a similar-sized localized volume in the brain with a 1-s repetition period and 6.5-cm (diameter) surface coil required a 20-min averaging period (25) to achieve a comparable signal-to-noise ratio.

DISCUSSION

Clearly, lipid contamination of spectra is problematic, particularly in muscle spectra. Devising localization schemes that spatially discriminate against lipid signals lying outside the selected volume with attenuation factors of more than 1000-fold is a nontrivial feat. However, since shimming for optimal magnetic field homogeneity within the selected volume inevitably degrades the homogeneity outside the volume, external lipid resonances are broadened and even shifted relative to the spectral markers. In the head, such broad components are largely eliminated by the baseline flattening operation. This effect is analogous to the "topical magnetic resonance" localization technique for spectroscopy (34) and is likely responsible for differences between lipid regions of the human head and dog spectra (compare spatial distributions of adipose/lipid tissues in Fig. 4 a and b) as well as the improved lipid suppression achieved with the 3-cm coil compared to the 6-cm coil. The calculations of the rf coil sensitivity profiles do not take this into account.

Techniques for eliminating lipid signals derived from within the selected volume would be necessary for investigations of lactate metabolism in pathologies such as muscular dystrophy and liver cirrhosis. One method for isolating the lactate (―CH3) resonance contribution is to record spectra with and without selective NMR decoupling of other lactate nuclei and calculate a difference spectrum (35). Another possibility is to add an inversion pulse prior to the sequence.
of Fig. 1b and adjust \( \tau_{\text{null}} \) to minimize the lipid at \( \tau_{\text{null}} = 0.69 T_1 \) (lipid) in the H\textsubscript{2}O-suppressed spectrum.

The ability to acquire metabolite-level localized \(^{1}H\) NMR spectra on such a rapid time scale compared to \(^{31}P\) raises the possibility that the lactate resonance might be usefully imaged. However, this would be difficult using chemical-selective pulses for H\textsubscript{2}O suppression due to the problem of

obtaining sufficiently high magnetic field homogeneity across the whole head (20). The use of conventional surface coil NMR imaging with depth-localized spectroscopy is nevertheless a valuable adjunct for determining the precise nature of the selected volume under investigation.

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