¹⁷O-Decoupled ¹H Spectroscopy and Imaging with a Surface Coil: STEAM Decoupling

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¹⁷O-decoupled ¹H spin-echo imaging has been reported as a means of indirect ¹⁷O detection, with potential application to measurement of blood flow and metabolism. In its current form, ¹⁷O decoupling requires large RF amplitudes and a 180° refocusing pulse, complicating its application in volume and surface coils, respectively. To overcome this problem, we have developed an ¹⁷O-decoupled proton stimulated echo sequence ("STEAM decoupling") to allow ¹⁷O detection with a surface coil. A high B_1 amplitude is easily generated, allowing complete decoupling of ¹⁷O and ¹H. Slice-selective, ¹⁷O-decoupled ¹H imaging is readily performed and the sequence is easily adapted for localized spectroscopy. Intrinsic correction for variations in B_1 and further compensation for B_1 inhomogeneity are discussed. @ 2000 Academic Press

Key Words: ¹⁷O; decoupling; stimulated echo; surface coil.

INTRODUCTION

Techniques for NMR detection of ¹⁷O have continued to progress toward clinical feasibility, approaching adequate sensitivity and specificity for use in vivo. The ultimate goal of these technique-development efforts is compelling: conversion of ${}^{17}O_2$ to $H_2{}^{17}O$ may be monitored directly, providing a potentially unambiguous measure of oxidative metabolic rate (1-9). While the physical basis for most ¹⁷O detection techniques has been established for over 20 years (10), these principles have only recently been applied to proton MRI, resulting in a host of so-called "indirect" ¹⁷O detection methods, whereby ¹⁷O concentration is ascertained through changes in the proton NMR signal (7, 11-13). In particular, the development of ¹⁷O-decoupled proton spectroscopy has been met with enthusiasm; H₂¹⁷O concentration is calculated by measuring the effect of ¹⁷O decoupling on the evolution of a proton spin-echo (11). This method has been used for imaging $H_2^{17}O$ distribution in tissue phantoms and animals (8, 13, 14).

However, use of ¹⁷O-decoupled proton MR in its current form is limited by several considerations. First, ¹⁷O decoupling as it is currently done requires a proton π refocusing pulse; generating a spin echo in this manner requires sufficient RF homogeneity, which can be obtained only in a volume coil. However, ¹⁷O decoupling requires substantial RF power for adequate sensitivity. Previous work has shown that decoupling efficiency is optimal for a B_1 of at least 2.6 to 3.5 G ($\omega_1 = 1.5$ to 2 kHz) for ¹⁷O concentrations less than 1.4 atom% (8, 13). This high RF amplitude would clearly be difficult to obtain in large volume coils such as those used in clinical MRI. Finally, signal-to-noise ratio is of paramount importance to indirect ¹⁷O detection *in vivo*, and use of a volume coil offers suboptimal sensitivity to the NMR signal (15) and lower filling factors.

In this article, we present a method for performing ¹⁷Odecoupled ¹H spectroscopy and imaging using a double-tuned surface coil. By applying ¹⁷O-decoupling pulses during a proton stimulated echo sequence ("STEAM decoupling"), we are able to reduce or eliminate ¹⁷O-mediated proton T_2 relaxation, in exact analogy to ¹⁷O decoupling during a spin echo (8, 11, 13). By comparing proton stimulated echo signal intensity with and without ¹⁷O decoupling, we can quantify ¹⁷O concentration. We also demonstrate that STEAM decoupling is readily adapted for indirect ¹⁷O imaging and discuss its potential in localized spectroscopy as well.

THEORY

In studying the pH dependence of water proton T_2 relaxation times, Meiboom determined that the spin-5/2 nucleus ¹⁷O was an important contributor to proton transverse relaxation (*10*). When bound in H₂¹⁷O, ¹H and ¹⁷O exhibit scalar coupling (J =90 Hz) (*16*). This interaction is modulated by chemical exchange of protons between water molecules and by rapid longitudinal relaxation of ¹⁷O. As a result, water proton T_2 times are shortened by ¹⁷O, according to a standard formula for relaxivity:

$$\frac{1}{T_2} = \frac{1}{T_2^0} + R_2 f,$$
 [1]

where T_2 represents the proton transverse relaxation time, T_2^0 is the proton T_2 in the absence of ¹⁷O, R_2 is the T_2 relaxivity of ¹⁷O, and *f* is the ¹⁷O atom fraction (0.037 atom% is natural abundance, about 20 mM in pure water). ¹⁷O relaxivity is





FIG. 1. Pulse sequence diagrams for ¹⁷O measurement using conventional and STEAM decoupling: (A) proton spin-echo sequence previously used for ¹⁷O-decoupled spectroscopy. Irradiation of the ¹⁷O resonance during the evolution time prolongs the proton T_2 in a ¹⁷O-concentration-dependent manner; (B) proton stimulated echo with ¹⁷O decoupling pulses (STEAM decoupling). ¹⁷O decoupling pulses are applied during the evolution time where proton relaxation is governed by T_2 ; (C) ¹⁷O-decoupled proton stimulated echo imaging. ¹⁷O decoupling pulses are applied when gradients are off, to prevent off-resonance effects. In general, long TEs are required for adequate ¹⁷O sensitivity.

maximized in water at neutral pH; deviations from neutral pH increase the proton exchange time (by base or acid catalysis) and reduce the relaxivity of ¹⁷O. On the other hand, shortening ¹⁷O T_1 also reduces ¹⁷O relaxivity. In effect, this can be accomplished by irradiating the ¹⁷O nucleus with a decoupling pulse at the ¹⁷O Larmor frequency. The application of a decoupling pulse essentially removes any effect ¹⁷O may have on proton transverse relaxation, increasing proton T_2 to T_2^0 . This has traditionally been done by applying ¹⁷O decoupling pulses during the evolution time of a proton spin echo, as shown in Fig. 1A (*11*). Using this sequence, the proton signal can be calculated as (8)

$$S_{0} = S \exp\left[-\text{TE} \times \left(\frac{1}{T_{2}^{0}} + R_{2}f\right)\right]$$
$$S_{\text{DC}} = S \exp\left[-\text{TE} \times \left(\frac{1}{T_{2}^{0}} + R_{2}f \cdot \{1 - d\}\right)\right], \quad [2]$$

where S_{DC} and S_0 represent the proton signal intensities for a spin echo of echo time TE with and without decoupling, respectively, and *d* represents the decoupling "efficiency"

(ranging from 0 to 1). 17 O concentration is calculated from proton signal enhancement by (8)

$$f = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{S_{\rm DC}}{S_0}\right)}{\operatorname{TE} \cdot R_2 \cdot d}.$$
[3]

Typically, the optimal decoupling power for measuring ¹⁷O concentration is determined empirically. Decoupling power is increased until proton signal enhancement reaches a plateau, and this power level is assumed to be sufficient for complete decoupling of ¹⁷O from ¹H.

In order to perform ¹⁷O detection with a surface coil, it is necessary to circumvent the need for a 180° refocusing pulse. This is possible by applying decoupling pulses during, for example, a three-pulse stimulated echo sequence, as shown in Fig. 1B. The important feature of the decoupling pulses is that they be applied while proton T_2 relaxation is occurring. In a stimulated echo sequence, T_2 relaxation occurs between pulses 1 and 2 and after pulse 3. By irradiating ¹⁷O at these times, we can eliminate ¹⁷O as a proton T_2 relaxation pathway and calculate ¹⁷O concentration.

However, the B_1 inhomogeneity intrinsic to a surface coil implies a nonuniform decoupling efficiency over the sample volume. Therefore, by Eq. [3], the calculated ¹⁷O concentration is potentially susceptible to changes in RF intensity. It is possible to deal with this source of error by noting that decoupling efficiency is essentially one for powers above some threshold value (13). By applying a decoupling power beyond this level, high decoupling efficiency can be obtained for a large portion of the sample.

Slice-selective ¹⁷O-decoupled ¹H imaging can be performed by converting the square RF pulses of the stimulated echo sequence to sinc pulses during slice-select gradients, as in Fig. 1C. This can be further modified for localized spectroscopy by applying the slice-select gradients along three orthogonal directions (*17*). ¹⁷O was not irradiated during the application of imaging gradients to avoid off-resonance decoupling effects (*13*). In all pulse sequences, both imaging and spectroscopic, ¹⁷O irradiation was turned off during proton signal acquisition (see Fig. 1); this meant that the linewidth of the actual acquired proton signal was unchanged by the application of ¹⁷O decoupling during the pulse sequence.

METHODS

Experiments were performed on a 2-T whole body superconducting magnet interfaced to a custom-built NMR spectrometer. A 3-cm-diameter surface coil was double-tuned to the ¹⁷O and ¹H Larmor frequencies (11.7 and 86.1 MHz, respectively) according to the method of Schnall *et al.* (18) and placed in a gradient insert capable of 2.3 G/cm. In all experiments, B_1 was calibrated by determining the RF pulse width INDIRECT ¹⁷O DETECTION WITH STEAM DECOUPLING

generating maximum signal amplitude; this "nominal" $\pi/2$ pulse was used to calculate the effective B_1 of the excited volume. Animal experiments were performed on male Sprague–Dawley rats weighing approximately 300–400 g. Rats were anesthetized using intramuscular injections of a ketamine/xylazine mixture.

The pulse sequence shown in Fig. 1B was applied to a spherical 10-ml water phantom containing natural abundance $H_2^{17}O$ in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) placed on the surface coil, in order to determine the decoupling power (B_1) generating maximum proton signal enhancement. Proton spectra for decoupling powers varying from 0 to 2.2 kHz were collected with a TR of 15 s, TE of 600 and 1300 ms, and 2048 points at 5 kHz bandwidth. To demonstrate ¹⁷O imaging, the surface coil was used to image a cylindrical phantom containing three 5-mm-diameter borosilicate tubes, each containing 200 μ l of water enriched with H₂¹⁷O. The concentrations were 0.037 (natural abundance), 0.2, and 0.5 atom%. The tubes were immersed in water to minimize susceptibility artifacts. Imaging parameters were TR of 10 s, TE of 600 ms, FOV of approximately 2 cm with 5 kHz bandwidth, slice thickness of approximately 5 mm, and a 256 by 128 acquisition matrix. For the decoupled image, decoupling power was 2.5 kHz.

STEAM decoupling was also used for *in vivo* ¹⁷O detection. The sequence for STEAM decoupled spectroscopy (Fig. 1B) was applied to rat brain containing natural abundance H₂ ¹⁷O; proton spectra from rat brain were collected with a TR of 5 s, TE of 200 ms, and 1024 points at 5 kHz bandwidth. Finally, the sequence was applied to the calf of a human volunteer; proton spectra were acquired with TR of 8 s, TE of 40 ms, and 1024 points at 5 kHz bandwidth. In each case, decoupling power was approximately 1 kHz, and a crusher gradient as shown in Fig. 1B was necessary to eliminate transverse magnetization created by the second $\pi/2$ pulse.

RESULTS

Efforts to calibrate the surface coil on a PBS phantom yielded the data shown in Fig. 2. Proton signal enhancement was greatest for a B_1 beyond 1 kHz. The profile of the curve is similar to that of previous decoupling experiments with a double-tuned volume coil (13), with a steep increase in proton signal enhancement as B_1 approaches 1 kHz and a plateau occurring beyond 1 kHz. Figure 3 shows slice-selective images of three tubes with different H₂¹⁷O concentrations. The surface coil was located near the bottom of the tubes; the imaged slice was parallel to the plane of the coil. For subsequent *in vivo* experiments, a decoupling power of approximately 1 kHz was utilized.

Application of STEAM decoupling for *in vivo* ¹⁷O detection followed. Stimulated echo proton spectra of rat brain collected with and without ¹⁷O decoupling are displayed in Fig. 4. The signal enhancement with decoupling was approximately 12%, which is in good agreement with signal enhancement obtained

FIG. 2. Graph of proton stimulated echo signal enhancement as a function of decoupling power. Data were collected on a spherical water phantom with a TR of 15 s (30 s per decoupled/nondecoupled pair), TE of 600 ms, and 2048 points at 5 kHz bandwidth. Once adequate decoupling power is achieved, the signal enhancement reaches a plateau. Choosing a decoupling power well above the "threshold" value ensures high decoupling efficiency even with substantial B_1 fall off.

using volume coils on natural abundance water phantoms (data not shown). Finally, the STEAM decoupling sequence and surface coil were used to detect ¹⁷O in the human calf. Decoupled and nondecoupled spectra are shown in Fig. 5. The water peak of the proton spectrum shows a signal enhancement of 8%, while the fat peak shows exceedingly small, insignificant enhancement (0.06%).

DISCUSSION

The performance of the double-tuned surface coil was similar to that of the double-tuned volume coil in several respects. The decoupling calibration curve (Fig. 2) shows that at low decoupling powers, ¹⁷O persists as a T_2 relaxation pathway for ¹H, but that as decoupling power is increased, ¹⁷O contributes less to ¹H relaxation, causing a lengthening of proton T_2 and a corresponding narrowing of the proton resonance. At sufficiently high decoupling powers, the proton signal enhancement due to T_2 prolongation reaches a plateau, indicating complete ¹⁷O decoupling. Once this level is reached, proton signal enhancement can be reliably used to calculate ¹⁷O concentration. The surface coil exhibited complete decoupling at a B_1 beyond approximately 1 kHz, which is in good agreement with previous estimates of decoupling power requirements (8, 13).

While this power level has been shown to comply with SAR limitations (13), it may be difficult to achieve sufficient power for complete decoupling with standard clinical volume coils, such as head or body coils. If complete decoupling is not





FIG. 3. STEAM decoupled imaging of three tubes containing different concentrations of H₂ ¹⁷O. Tubes 1, 2, and 3 contain natural abundance (0.037), 0.2, and 0.5 atom% H₂ ¹⁷O. Imaging plane was approximately 1.5 cm above and parallel to the plane of the surface coil: (A) nondecoupled image. T_2 contrast, due to variations in ¹⁷O concentration, is evident; (B) decoupled image. T_2 contrast is markedly diminished; ¹⁷O decoupling has virtually eliminated ¹⁷O as a T_2 -relaxation pathway for ¹H; (C) ratio of images (A) and (B). ¹⁷O quantification is possible with the ratio image, and exhibits fewer artifacts than images (A) or (B). Imaging parameters were TR = 10 s, TE = 600 ms, 2 cm FOV, 5 kHz bandwidth, 5-mm slice thickness, and a 256 × 128 acquisition matrix; decoupling power was 2.5 kHz.

achieved, calculations of ¹⁷O concentration are susceptible to variations in B_1 due to coil inhomogeneities or other instrumental imperfections. Low decoupling efficiencies also compromise the overall sensitivity to ¹⁷O. In these situations, a surface coil would be a useful substitute for the purposes of localized spectroscopy or imaging.

Effects of B_{\perp} inhomogeneity are evident to some degree in surface coil images of phantoms with different ¹⁷O concentrations (Fig. 3). B_0 inhomogeneities may have produced some of the spatial differences in signal intensity, but this was likely to be small compared to the effect of B_{\perp} inhomogeneity because (1) susceptibility mismatch was minimized by immersing the tubes in water, and (2) the spectroscopic linewidth of the whole phantom was small-consider a small sample in a large-bore magnet. In any case, heterogeneity in image intensity is clearly visible in Figs. 3A and 3B, but the ratio image (Fig. 3C) is relatively free of such artifacts. In the process of generating the ratio image, artifacts common to both decoupled and nondecoupled images may potentially be canceled out. This demonstrates the concept of the decoupled image as an experimental control, allowing correction of ¹⁷O images for variations in B_1 . Ratio imaging may even correct for variations in water content and evolving tissue pathology, improving the specificity of STEAM decoupling for ¹⁷O. Further compensation for B_1 inhomogeneity can be achieved with the use of selective adiabatic pulses in place of the sinc pulses depicted in Fig. 1 (19, 20).

In Fig. 5, comparison of the nondecoupled and decoupled proton spectra of human calf demonstrates ¹⁷O detection in humans *in vivo*. The enhancement of the water peak (8%) upon decoupling indicates the presence of natural abundance H_2 ¹⁷O. We attribute the lack of lipid signal enhancement to the fact that lipid protons are not scalar coupled to oxygen atoms and are not undergoing rapid chemical exchange. The lipid reso-

nance could provide an internal control during *in vivo* localized spectroscopy experiments, allowing adjustment for changes in B_1 and other experimental variables. The enhancement of the water peak *in vivo* was lower than that obtained for natural abundance water phantoms, due to the presence of buffers which catalyze proton exchange and reduce ¹⁷O relaxivity (8). Since the major source of the water peak is calf muscle parenchyma, these results suggest that STEAM decoupling can be used to monitor oxidative metabolism in exercising or ischemic muscle. The fat peak is more intense than the water peak because the RF penetration from the surface coil was fairly superficial, and the excited volume consisted of a large



FIG. 4. *In vivo* ¹H spectra of rat brain collected with STEAM decoupled spectroscopy. TR was 5 s (requiring 10 s for a decoupled/nondecoupled pair), TE was 200 ms, and 1024 points were collected at 5 kHz bandwidth. A 12% enhancement was obtained for the water peak upon decoupling, indicating the presence of natural abundance H₂ ¹⁷O.



FIG. 5. *In vivo* ¹H spectra of human calf muscle collected with STEAM decoupled spectroscopy. Spectra were collected with a TR of 8 s, TE of 40 ms, and 1024 points at 5 kHz bandwidth. The water peak underwent an 8% enhancement, while the lipid peak showed almost no enhancement with decoupling. Protons in fat are not undergoing rapid chemical exchange with water; ¹⁷O in water does not contribute to their relaxation and ¹⁷O decoupling should produce no enhancement, as shown.

amount of subcutaneous and muscular fat along with a smaller amount of muscle water. These spectra were not localized, and therefore no particular slice was selected.

Localized *in vivo* measurements of ¹⁷O may be best accomplished by modifying the sequence in Fig. 1C for single-voxel or Hadamard spectroscopy. An advantage of using localized excitation is that B_1 tends to be homogeneous within a small voxel, facilitating the calibration of decoupling power. In other words, the pulse sequence in Fig. 1B can be modified to obtain data similar to those in Fig. 2, but for a single voxel, thereby assuring complete decoupling throughout the voxel.

It is interesting to note that the proton signal enhancements obtained with ¹⁷O decoupling *in vivo* differ from those predicted by previously published values for R_2 *in vitro* (9, 10). These results suggest a different value for R_2 *in vivo*; measurement of this parameter is a subject of our continued investigation. However, ¹⁷O quantification can be corrected for variations in R_2 by using a sample of known ¹⁷O concentration (e.g., natural abundance) as a reference.

Using a surface coil which is double-tuned to the ¹H and ¹⁷O Larmor frequencies carries several advantages over orthogonal coil setups, as has been presented earlier (*13*). In addition to the ease of calibrating B_1 and matching B_1 profiles at both frequencies, the double-tuned feature greatly facilitates the construction of the surface coil. As demonstrated by the variety of experiments in this paper, the coil is versatile and convenient. With no modification, the coil was used for studies of phantoms, animals, and humans and performed adequately in all situations. Finally, improvements in proton signal-to-noise ratio translate into improved accuracy in ¹⁷O quantification (*8*),

and this is of paramount importance in the study of perfusion and metabolism with ¹⁷O. Since surface coils are superior to volume coils in terms of sensitivity to the NMR signal, their use for ¹⁷O detection may considerably improve the measurement of physiological parameters *in vivo*.

¹⁷O can also be quantified indirectly with $T_{1\rho}$ -dispersion proton MRI, a technique which does not require irradiation of the ¹⁷O nucleus and may therefore be used on a clinical scanner without hardware modification (7, 9). $T_{1\rho}$ -dispersion imaging calculates ¹⁷O concentration by using spin-locking pulses to generate ¹⁷O-based contrast. Many analogies exist between ¹⁷O-decoupled and $T_{1\rho}$ -dispersion MRI, including the use of control images (where ¹⁷O has no effect on proton relaxation) and ratio images. It is possible that with a strategy similar to the one presented here, $T_{1\rho}$ -dispersion MRI may also be performed using a surface coil.

In conclusion, we have developed a pulse sequence based on the stimulated echo that allows ¹⁷O detection *in vivo* through the use of a double-tuned surface coil. Its performance is similar to that of a double-tuned volume coil, but does not require a refocusing pulse and is easily adapted for use in phantoms, animals, or humans. Given its small size, it can easily produce sufficient RF power for complete ¹⁷O decoupling and is readily utilized for localized spectroscopy and imaging. Careful choice of a decoupling power can reduce the effects of B_1 inhomogeneity on ¹⁷O quantification, although we are investigating other strategies to remove this effect altogether. Experiments using STEAM decoupling to measure cerebral blood flow and oxygen consumption are in progress.

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