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## A Multi-echo Length and Offset VARied Saturation (MeLOVARS) Method for Improved CEST Imaging

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### Abstract

**Purpose**—To develop a technique for rapid collection of CEST images with the saturation varied to modulate signal loss transfer and enhance contrast.

**Theory and Methods**—MeLOVARS divides the saturation pulse of length  $T_{\text{sat}}$  into  $N = 3-8$  submodules, each consisting of a saturation pulse with length of  $T_{\text{sat}}/N$  (~0.3-1 s), one or more low flip-angle gradient-echo readout(s) and a flip back pulse. This results in  $N$  readouts with increasing saturation time from  $T_{\text{sat}}/N$  to  $T_{\text{sat}}$  without extra scan time.

**Results**—For phantoms, 8 images with  $T_{\text{sat}}$  incremented every 0.5s from 0.5-4 s were collected simultaneously using MeLOVARS, which allows rapid determination of exchange rates for agent protons. For live mice bearing glioblastomas, the Z-spectra for 5 different  $T_{\text{sat}}$  values from 0.5-2.5 s were acquired in a time normally used for one  $T_{\text{sat}}$ . With the additional  $T_{\text{sat}}$ -dependence information, LOVARS phase maps were produced with a more clearly defined tumor boundary and an estimated 4.3-fold enhanced CNR. We also show that enhancing CNR is achievable by simply averaging the collected images or transforming them using the Principal Component Analysis (PCA).

**Conclusion**—MeLOVARS enables collection of multiple saturation-time-weighted images without extra time, producing a LOVARS phase map with increased CNR.

### Introduction

Chemical Exchange Saturation Transfer (CEST) imaging is an emerging technology based on the following unique characteristics: 1) the ability to detect signals from low concentration diamagnetic compounds based on selective saturation of rapidly exchanging spins, and 2) the capability of detecting changes in environmental parameters *in vivo*, including: pH, temperature and metal ion concentration (1-5). There have been a number of preclinical (3,6-13) and clinical applications (12,14) involving the detection of either

administered CEST agents or endogenous molecules and metabolites. Upon injection of glucose, glutamate, CT agents and nanocarriers (15-18), CEST imaging has been applied for characterizing tumor vasculature, metabolism, extracellular pH, and nanocarrier uptake.

Tumors also display contrast without administering agents, an effect that has been attributed predominantly to the amide protons of extra soluble peptides/proteins found in brain tumors which resonate ~3.5 ppm from water, known as amide proton transfer (APT) imaging (8,13,14,19). The APT signal has been shown to correlate with the histopathological grade for brain tumors in patients on clinical 3T scanners (14,20,21), and to be a marker for differentiating tumor recurrence from radiation necrosis (8). Other applications include lung (22), breast (23,24) and prostate cancer (25) imaging. Furthermore, APT contrast has been exploited to determine tumor response to various therapeutic methods such as chemotherapy (23,26), radiation (8) and HIFU (27).

Despite the potential for tumor imaging, there are obstacles towards widespread application of CEST, including the low effective contrast (a few percent of the water signal), sensitivity to  $B_0$  field inhomogeneities, and susceptibility to interference from other sources of contrast (28). A typical scheme for a CEST pulse sequence is shown in **Fig. 1a**. Before the water signal readout, a long frequency-selective continuous wave (CW) pulse or pulse train is applied at the resonance frequency of the agent to prepare the magnetization. The saturation preparation is usually on the order of seconds to obtain sufficient amplification of the solute signal.

The most common method to detect and quantify CEST contrast is by calculating the asymmetry in the magnetization transfer ratio ( $MTR_{\text{asym}}$ ) at the frequency of the exchangeable protons ( $\omega$ ):  $MTR_{\text{asym}} = [S(-\omega) - S(+\omega)] / S_0$  which is the subtraction of the two water signal intensities with saturation pulses at  $+\omega$  and  $-\omega$  with respect to water,  $S(+\omega)$  and  $S(-\omega)$ , normalized by the signal without saturation ( $S_0$ ). However, for most *in vivo* data, the  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  value is not purely CEST contrast, but also includes interference from other sources of water signal loss generated by the saturation pulse, including conventional magnetization transfer contrast (MTC), direct saturation (DS) and relayed nuclear Overhauser enhancement (NOE) transfer (29,30). In addition, most endogenous CEST agents resonate very close to water (1-4 ppm) (29), resulting in low contrast-to-noise ratio (CNR) and specificity.

Because of these challenges, new CEST methods are needed for improving CNR and specificity or reducing image acquisition times. We previously proposed a strategy based on acquiring multiple saturation transfer weighted (STw) images with different saturation lengths ( $T_{\text{sat}}$ ), termed Length and Offset VARied Saturation (LOVARS) (31). We propose here a new Multi-echo LOVARS (MeLOVARS) method, which demonstrates the feasibility of collecting all of the saturation length images within one TR through placement of multiple water signal readouts during the saturation preparation instead of at the end as in conventional CEST imaging. This scheme is based on the idea of Look-Locker fast  $T_1$  mapping (32,33), with the concept demonstrated using CW saturation, but also readily applicable to the pulse-train saturation modules typically used on clinical scanners by

employing the same readout strategy. In addition, we show this multi-echo strategy can be used *in vitro* to speed up measurements of the exchange properties of CEST compounds.

## Methods

### MeLOVARS Design

Instead of employing a single long saturation module of length  $t_{\text{sat}}$  before readout (**Fig. 1a**), the MeLOVARS method divides the saturation preparation into  $N = 3-8$  sub-modules, each with a length of  $t_{\text{sat}}/N$  ( $\sim 0.3$  s - 1 s) and interleaves a low flip-angle ( $\text{FA} = \theta$ ) fast gradient echo read-out sequence followed by a flip back pulse ( $\text{FA} = -\theta$ ) for retaining longitudinal magnetization (**Fig. 1b**). Thus, multiple ( $N$ ) readouts are achieved during the preparation, each with an increased effective saturation time. For gradient echo sequences, after the excitation pulse the longitudinal and transverse magnetizations for the  $n$ th module become:

$$\begin{aligned} M_n^{z,\theta} &= M_n^{z,\text{sat}} \cdot \cos\theta & a) \\ M_n^{x,\theta} &= M_n^{z,\text{sat}} \cdot \sin\theta & b) \end{aligned} \quad [1]$$

where  $M_n^{x,\theta}$  is the FID signal for reconstructing the  $n$ th image. After the readout module, the transverse magnetization decays to  $M_n^{x,\theta} \cdot e^{-\frac{2TE}{T_2^*}}$ . Upon application of a flip-back pulse ( $\text{FA} = -\theta$ ), the longitudinal magnetization is:

$$\begin{aligned} M_n^{z,-\theta} &= M_n^{z,\theta} \cdot \cos\theta + M_n^{x,\theta} \cdot e^{-\frac{2TE}{T_2^*}} \cdot \sin\theta \\ &= M_n^{z,\text{sat}} \left[ 1 - \sin^2\theta \left( 1 - e^{-\frac{2TE}{T_2^*}} \right) \right] \end{aligned} \quad [2]$$

### Simulations

To determine initial estimates on the imaging parameters, we numerically solved the 2-pool Bloch equations for  $N$  iterations of the MeLOVARS module (**Fig. 1b**). A decay factor (DF) for the signal was calculated by subtracting  $\text{MTR}_{\text{asym}}$  for MeLOVARS from  $\text{MTR}_{\text{asym}}$  using a single readout with the same  $T_{\text{sat}}$ , and normalizing by  $\text{MTR}_{\text{asym}}$  for single readout. The parameters for the water pool were:  $T_{1w} = 3.55$  s,  $T_{2w}^* = 1.11$  s, concentration = 111.2 M; for the solute pool:  $T_{1s} = 1.41$  s,  $T_{2s}^* = 0.025$  s,  $k_{\text{sw}} = 660$  s<sup>-1</sup>,  $\omega = 9.3$  ppm, concentration = 25 mM. These parameters were also used to perform the QUEST fits for the phantoms.

To simulate the CEST contrast produced by MeLOVARS on mice bearing glioblastomas and to optimize  $\theta$  and  $N$ , we numerically solved the 4-pool Bloch equations including a semi-solid pool (ss), amide pool (am), aliphatic pool (al) and water pool with  $\omega = 0$  ppm, 3.5 ppm,  $-3.7$  ppm and 0 ppm, respectively (28,34). Each module of MeLOVARS was simulated as the pulse-sequence described in **Fig. 1b**, including a Sat. pulse, an excitation pulse with flip angle  $= \theta$ , a decay factor (DF) during readout, and a flip-back pulse of angle  $= -\theta$ . The initial guess of parameters were set as reported previously (28,34-36) e.g.  $T_{1w}$  between 1.8 s to 2.5 s and  $T_1$  for the remaining 3 pools set to be  $= T_{1w}$ , and  $T_{2w}^*$  between 20 ms to 50 ms,  $T_{2am}^*$  and  $T_{2al}^*$  between 1 ms to 10 ms, and  $T_{2ss}^*$  between 1  $\mu$ s and 10  $\mu$ s

with taking account of *in vivo* line-broadening. The simulations used the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm to fit the experimental MeLOVARS Z-spectra for ROI's enclosing tumor and contralateral white matter (WM), with the assumption that only the concentration changes for these pools between tumor and WM. Noted that for consistency, we use  $T_2^*$  instead of  $T_2$  for the Bloch simulations, without including the  $B_0$ -inhomogeneity and susceptibility effects. With these fit parameters, we then simulated how the 5  $MTR_{asym}$  values change as a function of  $N$  and  $\theta$  for both tumor and contralateral tissue to maximize the difference for *in vivo* experiments. All simulations were performed using python scripts written in-house.

### In vitro Phantom Experiments

To evaluate the MeLOVARS sequence, a phantom was prepared consisting of four 5mm NMR tubes, with one filled with 0.01 M phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) as the negative control, and the other three each filled with a CEST agent at a concentration of 25 mM in PBS. The three agents were: 1) D-Glucose ( $\omega = 0.9$ -1.5 ppm, pH 7.4) (16), 2) Salicylic Acid ( $\omega = 9.3$  ppm, pH 7.1) (37), 3) 5-Chloro-2-(methyl-sulfonamido) benzoic acid ( $\omega = 7.2$  ppm, pH 7.1) (38), with all agents titrated using NaOH and HCl. All *in vitro* MR scans were acquired on a Bruker vertical 750MHz scanner at a temperature of 310K.

A 2-shot EPI readout scheme was used with  $TR/TE = 8$  s / 5.25 ms, EPI module time = 7.5ms and Matrix Size =  $32 \times 32$ . Z-spectra were acquired using a CW saturation pulse with  $B_1 = 2.4, 3.6,$  and  $4.8$   $\mu$ T and the saturation offset incremented 0.3 ppm for  $-9.9$  ppm  $\rightarrow -6.9$  ppm,  $-2.7$  ppm  $\rightarrow 2.7$  ppm, and  $6.9$  ppm  $\rightarrow 9.9$  ppm and 0.6 ppm increment for  $-6.9$   $\rightarrow -2.7$  ppm and  $2.7$  ppm  $\rightarrow 6.9$  ppm.

### In vivo Animal Studies

SCID/NCR mice ( $n=5$ ) were xenografted intracranially with 100,000 human glioblastoma stem-like neurosphere cells derived from patients (HSR-GBM1A) (39,40) with MR imaging performed 6 weeks post-injection. Immediately following the final MRI, mice were perfused with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA). Their brains were removed, cryosectioned (25  $\mu$ m thick) and stained using hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). MR images were acquired on a Bruker Biospec 11.7T scanner, using a 72mm body coil for transmission and a 4-channel phase-array surface coil for reception. The MeLOVARS parameters were:  $N=5$  for 3 mice with each saturation pulse length of 0.5 s ( $1/5T_{sat}$ ) and 6 segment EPI (6.4 ms per segment). The other parameters were:  $\theta = 25^\circ$ ,  $TR/TE = 4s/4.3ms$ ,  $FOV = 16.5 \times 15.8 \times 1mm$ , matrix size =  $96 \times 64$ , saturation offsets = [ $\pm 4.8, \pm 4.2, \pm 3.9, \pm 3.6, \pm 3.3, \pm 3, \pm 2.4, \pm 1.5, \pm 0.6, \pm 0.3, 0$ ] ppm and  $B_1$  was set to 1.2  $\mu$ T, 1.9  $\mu$ T and 3  $\mu$ T. For comparison, conventional CEST images were also acquired using the same EPI readout as MeLOVARS with  $T_{sat} = 2.4$  s. For MeLOVARS, the Z-spectra acquisition time is 8 min 48 sec, plus an additional 80 sec for the WASSR image-set for  $B_0$  mapping and corrections, resulting in  $\sim 10$  min of scanning. Apart from CEST, diffusion-weighted images of the same slice were acquired with three b values of 500, 1000, 1500 for generating apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC) map. Multi-slice STw images ( $-6ppm$ ) with a matrix size of  $128 \times 96$  and half slice thickness of 0.5mm were also collected, for checking the partial volume effects of CEST images.

## Post-processing

All data were processed using custom-written MATLAB scripts. For both phantom and *in vivo* studies, a voxel-by-voxel Z-spectra  $B_0$  correction was performed through interpolating the original data to every 0.1ppm using a piecewise polynomial fitting, with  $B_0$  values from WASSR. CEST contrast was quantified using  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  for module  $n$  in MeLOVARS,

$$MTR_{\text{asym},n} = \left[ S_n^\theta(-\Delta\omega) - S_n^\theta(+\Delta\omega) \right] / S_{0,n}^\theta$$

with  $S_{0,n}^\theta$  being the image with same FA readout without saturation pulse. For *in vitro* measurements of glucose with  $k_{\text{sw}} > 1,000 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and three different proton types, we calculated an average  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  over three frequencies [0.9ppm, 1.2ppm, 1.5ppm], similar to previous studies (15,16). For other agents with a single type,  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  is calculated at the peak frequency of the CEST contrast. For *in vivo* measurements, the contrast maps for amide (-NH, APT weighted) were obtained by averaging  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  from 3.3 to 3.9ppm.

The LOVARS phase map was generated using 2 LOVARS units (4 min 48 s), based on averaging the Module 1 and Module 2 images to produce the  $T_{\text{sat},1}$  images, and averaging the Module 4 and Module 5 images to produce the  $T_{\text{sat},2}$  images, for both  $+\omega$  and  $-\omega$ . All other processing was as described previously (31).

The Principal Component Analysis (PC1) map was generated from the 5  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  images with different  $T_{\text{sat}}$  using the Matlab function “pca”. The resulting **PC<sub>1</sub>** map preserved the most significant contrast, and was displayed with a scale factor of  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

## RESULTS

To elucidate how the MeLOVARS signal using multiple readouts compares to the CEST signal with the same  $T_{\text{sat}}$  and a single readout, we plotted a contour surface displaying a decay factor (DF) of 10% (**Fig. 2a**), based on 2-pool Bloch simulations. This can be used to select the appropriate  $\theta$  and  $n$  based on  $T_2^*$  for the volume of interest and the TE's attainable on the scanner. **Fig. 2b** shows the DF and  $M_n^\theta(\text{MeLOVERS}) / M_n^\theta(\text{Conv.})$  as a function of  $TE/T_2^*$  and  $\theta$ , with  $N = 8, 5$  and  $3$ , which we used in the *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments. As seen, to ensure a  $DF < 10\%$  with  $\theta \sim 35^\circ$ ,  $TE/T_2^* < 0.07$  is required for  $N = 8$ ,  $TE/T_2^* < 0.125$  for  $N = 5$ ,  $TE/T_2^* < 0.295$  for  $N = 3$ .

## Phantom experiments

We performed a phantom study to determine whether the MeLOVARS acquisition scheme enables more rapid quantification of exchange rates ( $k_{\text{sw}}$ ) using the QUEST method, and how the data compares with a single module. Z-spectra were collected with number of modules ( $N$ ) = 8 (from 0.5s to 4s with every 0.5s increment) and fit allowing 8X acceleration over the conventional 8 single readouts. **Fig. 3a** shows the build-up of  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  for three representative diaCEST agents: glucose, 5-Chloro-2-(methyl-sulfonamido) benzoic acid, and salicylic acid (SA) which are spaced over the range of  $\omega$  values currently accessible for diaCEST agents. A negative control (PBS) is also shown. We further compared the conventional method ( $\theta = 20^\circ$ ) build-up curves with MeLOVARS using  $\theta = 10^\circ$  to  $50^\circ$ . For SA and 5-Chloro-2-(methyl-sulfonamido) benzoic acid, when  $\theta <$

30° the QUEST curves are comparable to using a single readout (**Fig. 3b&c**). For glucose, even for  $\theta = 10^\circ$  and  $20^\circ$ , the MeLOVARS curve deviates substantially from the conventional method for  $N > 4$  (**Fig. 3d**). This is presumably due to a ~50% reduction of  $T_2$  for glucose ( $T_2 < 200$  ms, estimated by the Swift-Connick equation (41)), leading to a  $DF > 10\%$  at  $N = 8$ , with  $T_2^*$  dropping to ~100 ms for this phantom of multiple quartz tubes at 17.6 T. There is also a more pronounced spill-over for glucose with its smaller  $\omega$ , which reduces  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$ . For the other two contrast agents, at 25 mM the  $T_2$  values are similar to that of PBS and as a result the  $T_2$  decay is not as prominent as glucose. It's reasonable to assume that there is a large error for  $\theta = 40^\circ$ , as indicated by **Fig. 2**, keeping  $DF < 10\%$  requires  $TE/T_2^* < 0.03$ , i.e.  $T_2^* > 240$  ms which is difficult to guarantee due to the ultra-high  $B_0$  field and resulting field inhomogeneity (36).

## In vivo Imaging of mice brain

We then acquired MeLOVARS data on mice bearing glioblastomas, with 5 modules each 0.5 s long (**Fig. 4**). The saturation pulse perturbs the magnetization of solute protons, semi-solid protons and water protons *in vivo*, and as a result the Z-spectra are influenced by CEST, conventional MT, and also NOE-relayed transfers from aliphatic protons. We were able to fit the 5 Z-spectra collected on both tumor (**Fig. 4a**) and contralateral WM (**Fig. 4b**) tissue to a 4-pool Bloch equation model. Based on these parameters, we simulated how the multiple  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  data collected in MeLOVARS changes as a function of flip angle ( $\tau$ ). As is shown in **Fig. 4c**, for the tumor tissue which has a longer water  $T_2$ , higher concentration of exchangeable protons and smaller concentration of semi-solid and aliphatic protons, the  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  value increases from Module 1 to Module 5 when  $\theta < 35^\circ$ . However, for WM, the  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  value is largest for Module 1 and drops for the remaining Modules. Also, for both tumor and WM, Module 1 is constant as a function of  $\theta$  because there is no extra  $T_2^*$  decay.

**Fig. 5** further illustrates the performance of MeLOVARS with  $N=5$ , and 0.5s long modules. The ADC map created using an EPI readout (**Fig. 5a**) shows the tumor as hyperintense as previously reported for GBM (42). For comparison, **Fig. 5b** displays the 5  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  maps acquired using the conventional CEST method, for  $T_{\text{sat}} = 0.5$  s, 1 s, 1.5 s, 2 s and 2.5 s respectively. The STw image at +3.6 ppm from the 5<sup>th</sup> Module readout using MeLOVARS is shown in **Fig. 5c**, with the same  $B_1$  as that in **Fig. 5b**. **Fig. 5d** displays the 5  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  maps from MeLOVARS ( $n=1,2,3,4,5$ ), which only used 1/5 of acquisition time of the conventional method. Note that the tumor rim is highlighted in Module 1 as was seen previously for other tumors (31). In addition, the contrast between tumor and contralateral tissue increases for MeLOVARS when  $N > 1$  because of the differences in  $T_2^*$  for these tissues. As MeLOVARS enables acquisition of 5  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  spectra simultaneously, we further display the build-up of the  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  for both tumor and contralateral WM and the metric  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  obtained by taking the subtraction of  $MTR_{\text{asym\_tumor}}$  and  $MTR_{\text{asym\_WM}}$  (**Fig. 5e&f**). As can be seen, in the  $MTR_{\text{asym\_tumor}}$  increases in the region from 3 – 4 ppm from Module 1 to Module 5 while  $MTR_{\text{asym\_WM}}$  decreases, resulting in a more significant increase in  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  for MeLOVARS. **Fig. 5f** further highlights the  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  dependence on  $T_{\text{sat}}$  at frequencies between 3.3 – 3.9 ppm for  $n = 3$  mice.

We also quantitatively compared the  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  and the CNR values for the CEST images collected using conventional or MeLOVARS methods on  $n = 3$  mice (**Table 1**). The first 3 rows compare the averaged  $MTR_{\text{asym\_Tumor}}$ ,  $MTR_{\text{asym\_Ctrl}}$  and  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  of the 3 mice and their standard deviations. As is seen, the averaged values of  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  for tumor tissue are very similar between the two methods for  $T_{\text{sat}} = 1$  s or larger, whereas these values determined using MeLOVARS in WM are consistently lower than measured using conventional methods. This is presumably due to the shorter  $T_2^*$  of WM and larger decay factor. This leads to an increase in contrast from 3.6% for Module 1 to ~6% by Modules 4&5 for MeLOVARS. The same saturation times show a more constant  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  using conventional methods. Furthermore, we evaluated how the SNR of the MeLOVARS images changes compared to conventional images. There is a slight decrease of SNR for the MeLOVARS Module 2 and higher images due to  $T_2^*$  decay from the readouts, however because the contrast between tumor and control tissue ( $MTR_{\text{asym}}$ ) increases the resulting CNR is nearly the same.

The images from the multiple modules of MeLOVARS can be combined and analyzed in different ways for improving image CNR (**Fig. 6**). Apart from directly generating 5  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  maps from each module (**Fig. 6a**,  $B_1 = 3$  uT), a LOVARS phase map (**Fig.6b**) was produced from the two repetitions of the MeLOVARS acquisition at  $+\omega$  and  $-\omega$ , showing a more clearly defined tumor boundary and enhanced CNR. Based on **Table 1** which shows that the images for modules 2-5 have comparable CNR with conventionally acquired images, the displayed phase map from 2 LOVARS units with each image averaging 2 modules achieves a 4.3-fold CNR enhancement (Table 2 in (31)) compared with conventionally acquired  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  maps with the same readout. Alternatively, a PCA contrast map can be generated (**Fig. 6c**) which retains the same  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  contrast scale instead of transforming to phase, and displays a higher CNR than the individual images. Also, simple averaging of all 5  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  maps can be performed (**Fig. 6d**), with ~ 5 times increase in CNR over the single module image. The tumor shape was further confirmed through H&E stain (**Fig. 6e**).

## DISCUSSION

We propose an efficient method for acquisition of multiple saturation length images that can be readily applied to both *in vitro* and *in vivo* CEST imaging. Compared to the conventional CW saturation method with a single module, there is an additional dephasing process caused by the multiple readouts. We have introduced simple guidelines based on the two pool model for choosing the  $N$ ,  $\theta$  and  $TE/T_2^*$  for the sequence to limit the  $T_2^*$  decay. For *in vivo* APT imaging, we determined an optimal  $\theta = 25^\circ$  based on setting DF to ~10% and using a 4-pool model with the parameters fitted to the experimental data. Several acquisition methods have been developed to measure exchange rates or isolate protons with a certain rate e.g. CERT (43), Spin-Lock (44), SAFARI (45), Two-frequency (46), VDMP (47) and FLEX (48,49). As shown in Fig. 3, our method in phantoms enables fast acquisition of QUEST data which can be fit to determine  $k_{\text{sw}}$  for  $\theta < 30^\circ$  at high magnetic fields.

Acceleration of CEST data acquisition can also be accomplished using CEST-FISP (50) or other steady-state sequences (51-53) or through application of a gradient during the

saturation pulses (54,55). One major advantage of MeLOVARS is that it can be readily implemented in live animal and patient studies as it is based on a gradient-echo readout (GE or GRE) scheme (52,56,57). As proof-of-principle, we applied MeLOVARS for imaging endogenous APT contrast in mice bearing glioblastoma at 11.7 T, and demonstrate this sequence produces Z-spectra and  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  spectra with an additional  $T_{\text{sat}}$  dimension. As is shown in **Fig. 5&6** and also quantitatively in **Table 1**, each module of MeLOVARS has either a higher or comparable  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  and CNR than the conventional method using the same readout sequence and parameters (i.e. GE-EPI). The N-fold image-increase allows an increase of CNR by N. The N groups of experimental Z-spectra with different  $T_{\text{sat}}$  values allows a more stable fitting to 4-pool Bloch equation models because of the additional measured points. We demonstrate that the 5  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  images can be combined to create LOVARS phase maps, PCA maps or average  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  maps as well. There could be other methods for analyzing MeLOVARS data, such as the QUESTRA method (58). Also, while the  $T_2^*$  is between 7–28 ms for mouse gray matter at 11.7 T allowing acquisition of 5 modules,  $T_2^* \sim 50$  ms for human frontal gray matter at 3 T (59) which might allow acquisition of 10 modules if the same  $\theta$  and TE are used. Although we have only focused on the endogenous APT contrast of brain tumor in the manuscript, this method is applicable to many other applications either for detecting endogenous molecules such as glutamate (60), creatine, and glycosaminoglycans or exogenous compounds. Although the concept of MeLOVARS is demonstrated on a high field small animal scanner, this method can be readily translated to clinical scanners, either using a multi-channel parallel transmission coil for generating the CW saturation pulse (21), or through substitution of a train of saturation pulses for the CW pulse in between the multiple “Look-Locker” readouts (61).

Regarding the gradient-echo readout used in MeLOVARS, there could be practical concerns, especially at high magnetic field due to imperfect shimming, air-tissue interfaces and the distribution of magnetic susceptibility. Fortunately on lower-field clinical scanners (e.g. 1.5 T and 3 T) with longer and more homogeneous  $T_2^*$ , gradient-echo readout sequences are used very frequently esp. in brain such as in fast  $T_1$ w imaging, Dynamic Contrast Enhanced (DCE) imaging, perfusion and BOLD functional imaging. Although the small  $\theta$  sacrifices signal, it also allows shorter recovery times which increase efficiency as has been discussed previously (62).

## CONCLUSION

We developed MeLOVARS as a new CEST acquisition method, which enables rapid acquisition of multiple  $ST_w$  images with different effective  $T_{\text{sat}}$  values. For phantoms, MeLOVARS collects images with 8  $T_{\text{sat}}$ 's from 0.5 s to 4 s simultaneously, enabling the measurement of the exchange rates for three CEST agents. For detecting glioblastoma in live mice, MeLOVARS enable acquisition of 5 Z-spectra,  $MTR_{\text{asym}}$  spectra and contrast maps in 8.5 min, with 5  $T_{\text{sat}}$ 's from 0.5 s to 2.5 s which can be employed to generate LOVARS phase maps and increase the CNR.



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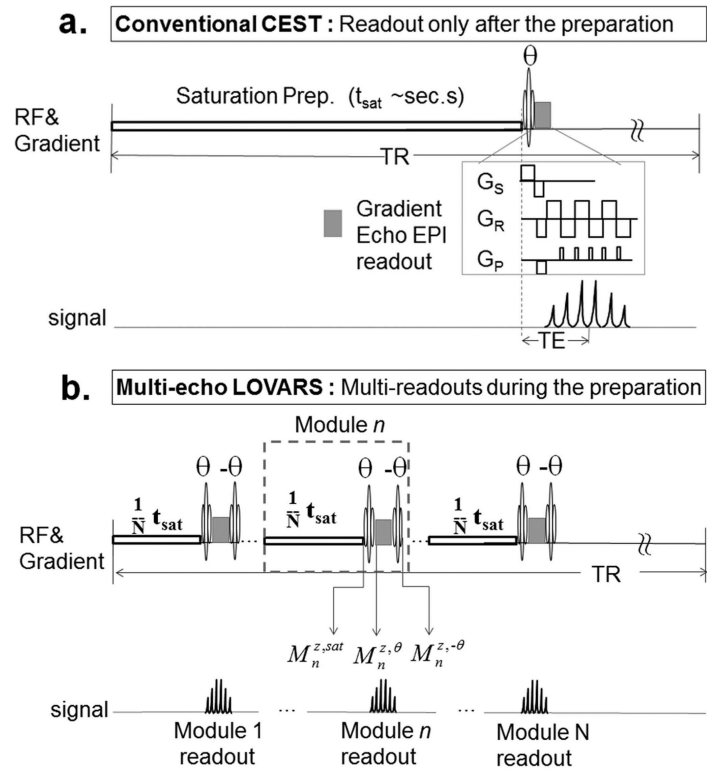
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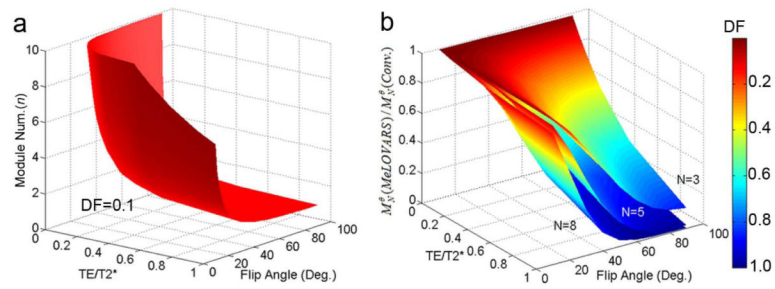
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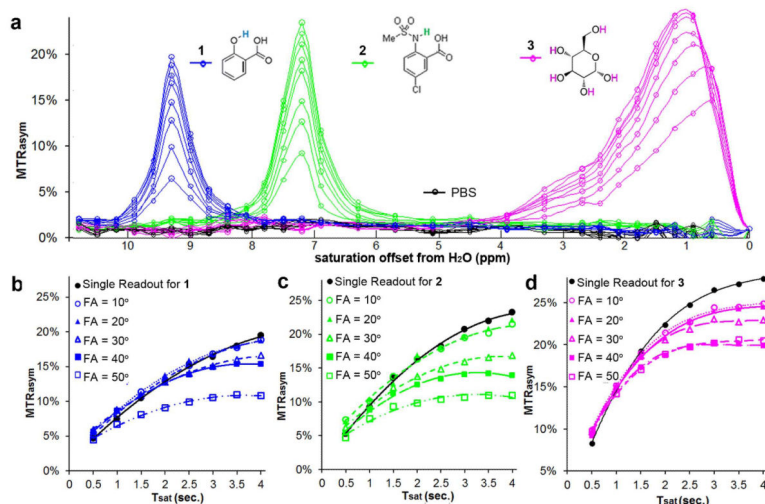


**Figure 1.** Acquisition schemes for **a.** conventional CW CEST with single readout after the saturation preparation and **b.** MeLOVARS consisting of N saturation modules with readouts



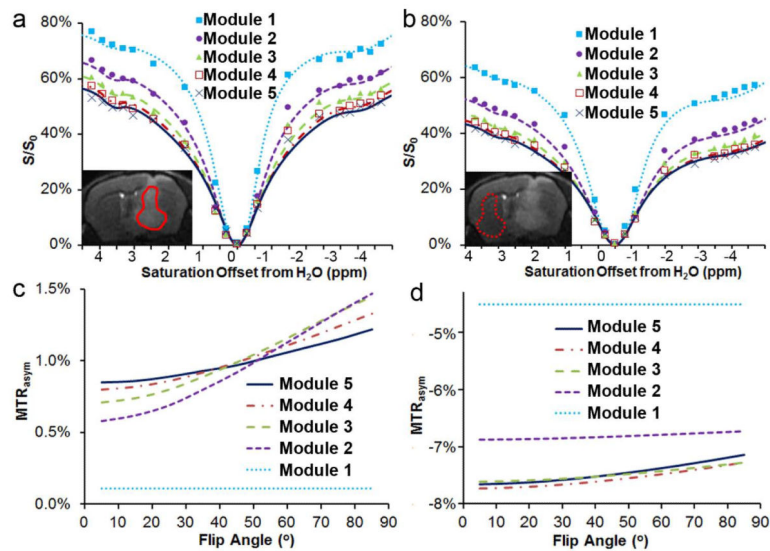
**Figure 2.**

**a.** Contour surface for the  $n$ th MeLOVARS Module readout with a Decay Factor (DF) = 10% comparing the signal using a single readout of same  $T_{\text{sat}}$ , to guide the choice of measurement parameters: Flip Angle, Num. of Modules based on  $TE/T2^*$ . **b.** Simulations of DF and  $M_n^{\theta}(\text{MeLOVERS}) / M_n^{\theta}(\text{Conv.})$  as a function of  $TE/T2^*$ ,  $\theta$  with N equal to 3, 5, 8, which we used in the phantom and *in vivo* experiments.



**Figure 3.**

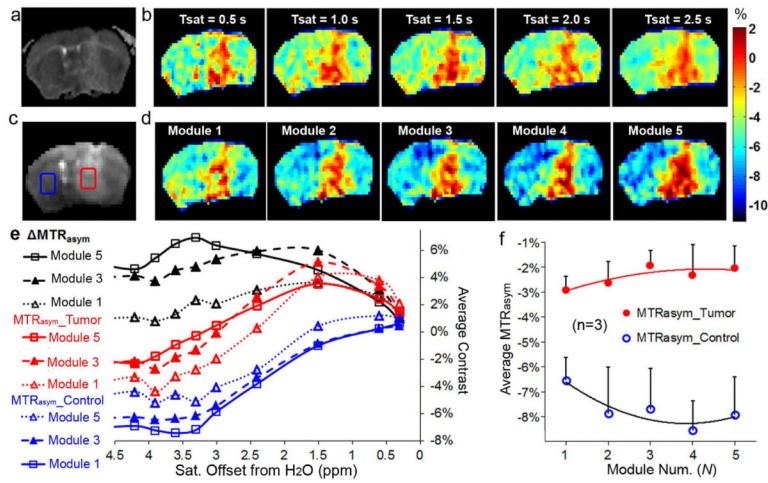
Phantom Experiments for 3 CEST agents with different  $\omega$  and exchange rates. **a.** Z-spectra acquired only using 1/8 time of that for conventional method. **b.** QUEST dataset for SA (**1**) with different FA comparing with a single readout. For compound **1**, the fits were performed assuming a single readout with QUEST determined rates:  $k_{sw\_single} = 620 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k_{sw\_}\theta=10^\circ = 630 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k_{sw\_}\theta=20^\circ = 660 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k_{sw\_}\theta=30^\circ = 520 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (above 15% error). **c.** QUEST dataset for 5-Chloro-2-(methyl-sulfonamido) benzoic acid (**2**) with different FA compared with a single readout. For compound **2**, QUEST determined rates:  $k_{sw\_single} = 940 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k_{sw\_}\theta=10^\circ = 980 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k_{sw\_}\theta=20^\circ = 940 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k_{sw\_}\theta=30^\circ = 1800 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (above 15% error). **d.** QUEST dataset for glucose (**3**) with different FA compared with a single readout, showing a pronounced contrast decay when  $n > 5$ , even for FA = 10°.



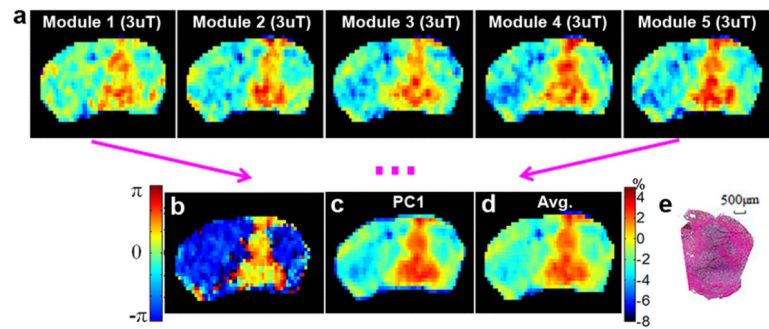
**Figure 4.**

In vivo experimental Z-spectra (symbols) and 4-pool Bloch equation simulations using MeLOVARS (lines) of tumor (a) and contralateral WM (b), with the experimental DF reaching  $\sim 10\%$  for  $\theta = 25^\circ$ ,  $N = 5$  compared to the conventional acquisition method with the same  $t_{sat}$ ; Plot of simulations using the same parameters to determine how  $MTR_{asymp}$  changes as a function of FA ( $\theta$ ) for tumor (c) and contralateral WM (d). The fit parameters were: bulk water pool:  $T_{1\_tumor} = 2.35$  s,  $T_{1\_WM} = 2.0$  s,  $T_{2\_tumor} = 35$  ms,  $T_{2\_WM} = 26$  ms; macromolecular pool:  $T_2 = 0.0078$  ms,  $k_{sw} = 159$  s $^{-1}$ ,  $conc\_tumor = 4598$  mM,  $conc\_WM = 9800$  mM; exchangeable amide pool:  $T_2 = 6$  ms,  $k_{sw} = 20$  s $^{-1}$ ,  $conc\_tumor = 629$  mM,  $conc\_WM = 290$  mM; and aliphatic pool:  $T_2 = 2.7$  ms,  $k_{sw} = 10.5$  s $^{-1}$ ,  $conc\_tumor = 1100$  mM,  $conc\_WM = 2900$  mM. The  $T_1$  values for the other 3 pools were set to be the same as bulk water.





**Figure 5.** MeLOVARS performance in a mouse bearing glioblastoma. **a.** ADC map of the diffusion-weighted image based on EPI readout; **b.** the conventional  $MTR_{asym}$  maps ( $B_1 = 1.9 \mu T$ ) with  $T_{sat} = 0.5s, 1s, 1.5s, 2s$  and  $2.5s$  respectively, which requires  $5\times$ 's the scanner time. **c.** STw image at  $+\omega$  from the 5<sup>th</sup> Module readout in MeLOVARS scheme; **d.** MeLOVARS  $MTR_{asym}$  maps ( $B_1 = 1.9 \mu T$ ) for 5 Modules respectively; Note that in both MeLOVARS echo1 in **b** and  $T_{sat} = 0.5s$  in **d**) only the rim of the tumor is enhanced, but not in **a**. **e.** The  $MTR_{asym}$  build-up for tumor core and for contralateral control region,  $MTR_{asym}$  were obtained by taking the subtraction of  $MTR_{asym}$  for Tumor core (red ROI in **c**) and  $MTR_{asym}$  for the contralateral WM (blue ROI in **c**). **f.**  $MTR_{asym}$  changes as a function of Module Num. for tumor and contralateral tissue is different, based on the data for  $n = 3$  mice.



**Figure 6.**

**a.** MeLOVARS  $MTR_{asym}$  maps with  $B_1 = 3\mu T$  for 5 Modules respectively; **b.** LOVARS phase map for defining the tumor territories (2 LOVARS unit, with the average of Module 1 and Module 2 as  $T_{sat,1}$  and the average of Module 4 and Module 5 as  $T_{sat,2}$ ). **c.**  $\frac{1}{2}$  PC1 map of the 5 maps in **a** using PCA; **d.** the  $MTR_{asym}$  map by averaging five images in **a**; **e.** H&E staining for one frozen slice

**Table 1**MTR<sub>asym</sub> Contrast and CNR comparison for Conventional and MeLOVARS at 11.7 T

(n=3)		T <sub>sat</sub> = 0.5s (Module 1)	T <sub>sat</sub> = 1s (Module 2)	T <sub>sat</sub> = 1.5s (Module 3)	T <sub>sat</sub> = 2s (Module 4)	T <sub>sat</sub> = 2.5s (Module 5)
MTR <sub>asym</sub> Tumor (%)	Conventional	-0.9 ± 0.3	-1.8 ± 1.0	-1.4 ± 0.4	-2.0 ± 0.7	-2.1 ± 0.5
	MeLOVARS	-2.4 ± 0.6	-2.2 ± 0.9	-1.4 ± 0.6	-1.8 ± 1.2	-1.6 ± 0.9
MTR <sub>asym</sub> Ctrl. (%)	Conventional	-4.9 ± 0.2	-6.0 ± 1.2	-6.0 ± 1.0	-5.9 ± 1.1	-5.8 ± 0.6
	MeLOVARS	-6.0 ± 0.9	-7.4 ± 1.8	-7.2 ± 1.6	-8.1 ± 1.2	-7.4 ± 1.5
MTR <sub>asym</sub> (%)	Conventional	4.0 ± 0.1	4.2 ± 0.2	4.5 ± 0.6	3.9 ± 0.5	3.6 ± 0.0
	MeLOVARS	3.6 ± 0.8	5.2 ± 1.6	5.8 ± 1.5	6.2 ± 1.2	5.9 ± 1.8
<sup>a</sup> SNR <sub>S<sub>0</sub></sub>	Conventional	74 ± 2.5	74 ± 2.5	74 ± 2.5	74 ± 2.5	74 ± 2.5
	MeLOVARS	79 ± 1.0	73 ± 7.6	62 ± 8.6	58 ± 10	55 ± 8.4
<sup>b</sup> CNR <sub>MTR<sub>asym</sub></sub>	Conventional	3.6 ± 0.2	3.7 ± 0.0	4.1 ± 0.4	3.5 ± 0.3	3.3 ± 0.1
	MeLOVARS	3.5 ± 0.7	4.7 ± 1.4	4.3 ± 0.7	4.4 ± 1.0	4.0 ± 1.3

<sup>a</sup>The SNR for S<sub>0</sub> in *n*th module in MeLOVARS was calculated using  $SNR_{0,n} = S_{0,n}^{\theta} / \sigma_n$ , with the noise level  $\sigma_n$  calculated by  $1/\sqrt{2}$  times of standard deviation for a control ROI on the subtraction of two consecutively-acquired images.

<sup>b</sup>The CNR of the MTR<sub>asym</sub> maps for the *n*th module was calculated using

$$CNR_n^{\theta} = \frac{S_n^{\theta}(-\Delta\omega) - S_n^{\theta}(+\Delta\omega)}{\sqrt{2}\sigma_n} = \frac{S_n^{\theta}(-\Delta\omega) - S_n^{\theta}(+\Delta\omega)}{S_{0,n}^{\theta}} \cdot \frac{S_{0,n}^{\theta}}{\sqrt{2}\sigma_n} = MTR_{asym,n} \cdot \frac{SNR_{0,n}}{\sqrt{2}}.$$