

# Preliminary experience of cardiac proton spectroscopy at 0.75 T

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# **RESEARCH ARTICLE**

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# Preliminary experience of cardiac proton spectroscopy at 0.75 T

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Recent work on high-performance lower-field MR systems has renewed the interest in assessing relative advantages and disadvantages of magnetic fields less than 1 T. The objective of the present work was to investigate signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) scaling of point-resolved spectroscopy as a function of field strength and to test the feasibility of proton MRS of triglycerides (TGs) in human in vivo myocardium at 0.75 T relative to 1.5 T and 3 T. Measurements at 0.75 T were obtained by temporarily ramping down a clinical 3 T MR scanner. System configurations at 0.75, 1.5 and 3 T featured identical hard- and software, except for differences in transmit/receive coil geometries and receive channel count, which were accounted for in SNR comparisons. Proton MRS was performed at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T in ex vivo tissue and in vivo calf muscle to measure  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  values as a function of field strength, which in turn served as input to simulations of SNR scaling and field-dependent TG fit errors. Preliminary in vivo spectra of myocardium were acquired at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T in healthy subjects. Measurements of both ex vivo tissue and in vivo muscle tissue at 0.75 T versus 1.5 T and 3 T confirmed decreasing  $T_1$  and increasing  $T_2^*$  for decreasing field strengths. Using measured  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_2^*$  as input and using fielddependent echo time and bandwidth scaling, simulated Cramér-Rao lower bounds of TG amplitudes at 0.75 T were 2.3 and 4.5 times larger with respect to 1.5 T and 3 T, respectively. In vivo measurements demonstrate that human proton spectroscopy of TGs in cardiac muscle is feasible at 0.75 T, supporting the potential practical value of lower-field high-performance MR systems.

#### KEYWORDS

cardiac muscle, heart, lower-field MR, PRESS, proton spectroscopy, triglyceride

Abbreviations: <sup>1</sup>H-MRS, proton MRS; CR, creatine; CRLB, Cramér-Rao lower bound; ECG, electrocardiogram; EMCL, extramyocellular lipid; IMCL, intramyocellular lipid; NSA, number of signal averages; PRESS, point-resolved spectroscopy; SAR, specific absorption rate; SNR, signal-to-noise ratio; T<sub>F</sub>, echo time; TG, triglyceride; TMA, trimethylammonium; T<sub>R</sub>, repetition time.

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# 1 | INTRODUCTION

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Proton (<sup>1</sup>H) MRS has shown promise to assess cardiac metabolism of healthy and diseased hearts.<sup>1</sup> The main metabolites of interest are total creatine (CR) and triglycerides (TGs), which are found to be altered in cases of heart failure, infarction and different types of cardiomyopathy.<sup>2–4</sup> Increased levels of TG correlate to impaired myocardial function in patients with diabetes mellitus or metabolic syndrome,<sup>5–7</sup> underlining the importance of intramyocardial lipid quantification.

Today's clinical MR is primarily performed at 1.5 T or 3 T, and, lately, also at 7 T. Higher field strengths come with the advantage of higher thermal polarization and therefore higher signal-to-noise ratios (SNRs) along with larger peak separation in spectroscopy. These benefits are, how-ever, partly counterbalanced by larger field inhomogeneities, higher specific absorption rates (SARs) and consequently longer RF pulse durations. Additionally, potential electrocardiogram (ECG) mis-triggering due to an increased magnetohydrodynamic effect<sup>8</sup> can compromise the robustness of cardiac MRS at high fields.

In contrast, lower field strengths can benefit from lower SAR levels. To this end, the RF duration can be shortened, which in turn allows reduction of echo times, and, in conjunction with steady/increased  $T_2$  values<sup>9,10</sup> at lower fields, leads to SNR gains relative to classical field-strength dependent SNR scaling.<sup>11</sup> Depending on the repetition time, the decrease in  $T_1$  values at lower static fields can be SNR advantageous as well. The reduced spectral separation at lower field can be partly compensated by smaller linewidths due to more homogeneous intravoxel phasing and therefore higher  $T_2^*$  values. In addition, chemical shift artefacts decrease with lower magnetic field strengths for a given RF pulse bandwidth, leading to improved spatial localization. From the perspective of patient comfort, acoustic noise is reduced at lower fields due to reduced Lorentz forces on the gradient coils.<sup>12,13</sup> From an economical point of view, lower-field MRI systems come with an intrinsically lower cost, opening up possibilities for improved accessibility to MRI scanners.

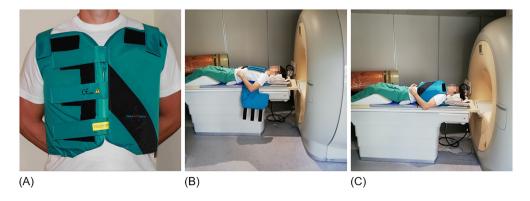
Despite the promises of lower fields, commercial low-field systems are traditionally equipped with lower-performance RF amplifiers, gradient drivers and receiver hardware. However, recent work on ramped-down high-performance MRI systems has renewed the interest in reassessing advantages and disadvantages of lower-field MRI. Cardiac cine imaging and assessment of cardiac function, blood flow and myocardial tissue relaxation parameters have been performed on commercial 0.35 T systems<sup>14,15</sup> and on custom-designed 0.55 T instrumentation.<sup>16,17</sup> Lower-field MRI has been pointed out to offer advantages for MR-guided cardiovascular interventions, imaging of high-susceptibility regions and sampling-efficient acquisition methods. However, the feasibility of in vivo human cardiac <sup>1</sup>H spectroscopy at lower fields has not yet been demonstrated.

Accordingly, the objective of the present study was to investigate the feasibility of <sup>1</sup>H-MRS for the assessment of TGs of cardiac muscle on a custom 0.75 T MRI system in comparison with measurements on clinical 1.5 T and 3 T systems with identical hard- and software. Simulations based on measured  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_2^*$  values were performed to assess SNR dependences on field strength, and <sup>1</sup>H spectra acquired in human myo-cardium at 0.75 T versus 1.5 T and 3 T are presented.

## 2 | METHODS

#### 2.1 | Experimental setup

A 3 T Achieva scanner (Philips Healthcare, Best, the Netherlands) was ramped down to a field strength of 0.75 T. The target field strength of 0.75 T, i.e., a quarter of 3 T, allowed the use of the scanner's <sup>13</sup>C multi-nuclei hardware for transmit and receive ( $\gamma_{13C} \approx \frac{1}{4}\gamma_{1H}$ ) on protons. For transmit, a custom-built double Helmholtz pair-like two-loop coil (Clinical MR Solutions, Brookfield, WI, USA) was employed, while a four-channel



**FIGURE 1** Experimental setup: a custom-made double Helmholtz transmitter and a four-channel receive coil array, originally designed to measure <sup>13</sup>C at 3 T, were used to acquire <sup>1</sup>H images and spectra at 0.75 T.

local receive array (Clinical MR Solutions) with two posterior and two anterior elements was used for signal reception at 0.75 T (Figure 1). Shim iron placement on the shim rails was re-optimized for the lowered field strength, compensating for both static field inhomogeneity and fields induced by the fixed 3 T factory shims that are bolted to the cryostat. The 3 T <sup>1</sup>H body coil could not be used and remained disconnected inside the scanner during the 0.75 T experiments. Changes in pulse sequence programming encompassed (1) adjustment of  $\gamma$  to calculate correct fields, (2) overwriting resonance frequency ranges to allow values outside the normal 3 T ranges and (3) adaptation of preparation phases for automatic frequency, transmit power, shim and receive gain adjustment using the local coils instead of the body coil.

Comparative measurements were performed on both a 1.5 T Philips Achieva scanner using a five-channel cardiac receiver array and a 3 T Philips Achieva scanner using a two-channel receiver coil (phantom and calf muscle measurements) and a six-channel cardiac receiver array (cardiac measurements). All scanner configurations featured identical software versions and gradient settings (gradient strength of 31 mT/m at a slew rate of 200 T/m/s).

## 2.2 | Ex vivo measurements

Phantom measurements were performed at room temperature in duck breast. Prior to all spectroscopic measurements, first-order pencil-beam volume shimming was carried out.<sup>18,19</sup> Spectra were acquired using a point-resolved spectroscopy (PRESS) sequence<sup>20</sup> in a voxel volume of  $10 \times 20 \times 40 \text{ mm}^3$ . The bandwidth BW was set to 1000, 2000 and 4000 Hz at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T, respectively, and  $N_s = 512$  samples were acquired. The repetition time  $T_R$  was 2000 ms. A schematic diagram of the pulse sequence at the different field strengths including scaling of  $B_1^+$  is shown in Figure 2. Peak  $B_1$  ( $B_{1max}$ ) was scaled inversely with  $B_0$  according to

$$B_{1max} = \frac{40.5\,\mu\text{T}}{B_0}.$$
 (1)

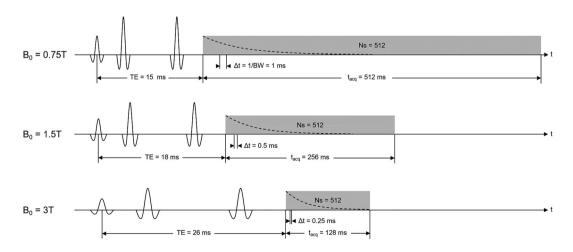
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Accordingly, minimum echo times T<sub>E</sub> were 15, 18 and 26 ms at 0.75, 1.5 and 3 T, respectively.

Series with different echo times ( $T_E$  range = 15-26, ..., 400 ms, 11 steps) and repetition times ( $T_R$  range = 375-5000 ms, nine steps) were acquired without water suppression (number of signal averages (NSA) = 8) to determine the  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  of tissue water at 0.75, 1.5 and 3 T. Water-suppressed spectra were acquired using chemical-shift selective water suppression<sup>21</sup> (excitation bandwidth of 200 Hz at 3 T, 100 Hz at 1.5 T and 50 Hz at 0.75 T) with NSA set to 48. To determine  $T_2$  of TG the series with different echo times was repeated with water suppression.

#### 2.3 | Numerical simulations

To assess field-dependent SNR scaling and TG fit errors, simulation code was implemented in MATLAB (MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA). Six intramyocardial resonances were simulated (residual water at 4.7 ppm, TGs at 2.1, 1.3 and 0.9 ppm, CR at 3.0 ppm and trimethylammonium



**FIGURE 2** Schematic diagram of echo time- and bandwidth-adapted PRESS pulse sequence for different field strengths. The peak radiofrequency amplitude  $B_1^+$  is scaled inversely with  $B_0$ , resulting in reduced echo times  $T_E$  with decreasing field strengths. The bandwidth  $BW=1/t_{acq}$  is proportionally reduced as  $B_0$  decreases, while the number of sampling points ( $N_s$ ) is kept constant.

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(TMA) at 3.2 ppm) assuming PRESS volume selection and FID acquisition with  $N_s = 512$  samples. Signals and noise were calculated for 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T based on Equations (A1)-(A9) as found in the appendix for two different scenarios: (a)  $T_E \propto B_0$ , BW  $\propto B_0$  and (b)  $T_E = T_{E,3T} = \text{const}$ , BW = BW<sub>3T</sub> = const, the latter assuming no field-dependent change of  $T_E$  and BW. Relaxation parameter scaling of tissue water and TG was derived from the duck breast data and all sequence parameters were set according to values as used in the ex vivo measurements.  $T_1$  of TG was assumed to be sufficiently short for all field strengths to allow complete relaxation between acquisitions.<sup>22,23</sup>

The time-domain SNR  $(SNR_{TD})^{24}$  was calculated as the absolute signal of the first point of the FID divided by the standard deviation of the noise. Amplitudes and  $T_2^*$  were fitted in the time domain using a gradient-free simplex search method and fit errors are reported relative to ground truth. Cramér-Rao lower bounds (CRLBs) of the TG resonances were derived using the Hessian of the fit cost function. Simulations were repeated 500 times for statistics.

Relative differences in time-domain SNR<sub>TD</sub> with  $T_E \propto B_0$ ,  $BW \propto B_0$  were compared with experimental data of water signals acquired without water suppression in the ex vivo duck breast at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T as outlined in the previous section. To account for differences in the receive coils used at the different field strengths, the coil geometries were modeled in CST Microwave Studio (Dassault Systèmes, Vélizy-Villacoublay, France). The coil elements were excited with a broadband current source to ensure uniform current density along the element conductors. Coil elements were individually phased accordingly to resemble the excitation profile observed from experimental data. The simulated coil sensitivity maps can be found in the Supporting Information.

#### 2.4 | In vivo measurements

Measurements were made in both calf muscle and the interventricular septum of three healthy volunteers upon written informed consent and according to ethics and institutional guidelines. All spectra were acquired with a voxel size of  $10 \times 20 \times 40$  mm<sup>3</sup> (8 mL), bandwidths of 1000, 2000 and 4000 Hz at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T, respectively, and 512 samples, i.e. settings identical to the ex vivo measurements. First-order pencilbeam volume shimming was performed using a  $15 \times 25 \times 45$  mm<sup>3</sup> shim volume. Local power optimization was achieved by monitoring the intensity of the water peak for a series of incrementing flip angles of both excitation and refocusing pulses.<sup>25</sup> Measurements in the same subject across field strengths were performed within the time frame of one week.

For the calf measurements, the MRS voxel was positioned in the soleus muscle (see Figure 5A later) and data were acquired with a  $T_R$  of 2000 ms. For cardiac measurements, the MRS voxel was positioned in the interventricular septum (see Figure 8A later) using short-axis and long-axis cine balanced steady-state free precession images acquired in a breath hold. Cardiac PRESS data acquisition was ECG-triggered to end systole with a minimum  $T_R$  of 2000 ms. Water suppression in the heart was performed with a modified excitation bandwidth of 100 Hz at 0.75 T and a frequency offset of 25 Hz, given that the smaller water suppression pulse bandwidths did not fit the time available between the R-peak and end systole. Respiratory gating was performed using a navigator positioned on the right (1.5 T, 3 T) or left (0.75 T) hemidiaphragm (gating window = 4 mm).<sup>26</sup> A total of 192 water-suppressed and 16 water-unsuppressed averages were acquired. All other parameters were identical to those used in the ex vivo measurements. Finally, image-based  $T_1$  mapping (modified Look-Locker inversion recovery (MOLLI),  $T_R = 3.0$  ms, flip angle = 25°, reconstructed voxel size =  $1.4 \times 1.4 \times 20$  mm<sup>3</sup>) was performed in one midventricular slice in a breath hold.

#### 2.5 | Reconstruction

All spectra were reconstructed in MATLAB with a reconstruction pipeline developed and implemented in ReconFrame (GyroTools LLC, Winterthur, Switzerland). Noise decorrelation was performed; water-unsuppressed averages were used to calculate coil channel weights and coil combination was achieved using a singular value decomposition approach.<sup>27</sup> Water-unsuppressed averages were phased on the individual water peaks before averaging; water-suppressed averages were phased on the main TG resonance at 1.3 ppm.<sup>28</sup> Individual water-unsuppressed averages were frequency corrected based on the water signal and the average water frequency shift was used to correct all water-suppressed averages. Eddy current correction was performed by subtracting the phase of the average water signal from both the water-suppressed and water-unsuppressed signals.<sup>29</sup>

#### 2.6 | Data analysis

Water spectra were fitted with Lorentzian line shapes in the time-domain using AMARES<sup>30</sup> (jMRUI,<sup>31</sup> Version 5.2) and linewidth was assessed. Water amplitudes acquired with different repetition times were fitted according to the following function:

$$M_{z}(TR, T_{1}) = a \left( 1 - b \left( e^{-\frac{TR}{T_{1}}} \right) \right)$$

with a, b and  $T_1$  being fit parameters.  $T_2$  was acquired by fitting the data from the  $T_E$  series:

$$M_{xy}(T_{\rm E}, T_2) = a \left( e^{-\frac{T_{\rm E}}{T_2}} \right)$$
(3)

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(2)

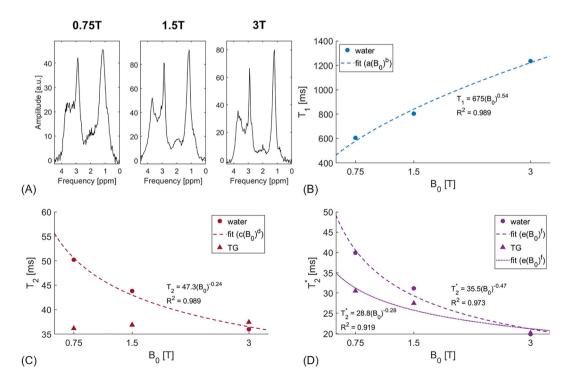
and  $T_2^*$  was calculated based on the linewidth LW of the water peaks according to

$$LW = \frac{1}{\pi T_2^*}.$$
 (4)

 $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_2^*$  were fitted as functions of magnetic field according to  $T_1 = a(B_0)^b$ ,  $T_2 = c(B_0)^d$  and  $T_2^* = e(B_0)^f$ , respectively. Residual water peaks were removed from the duck breast, calf and heart metabolite spectra using Hankel Lanczos singular value decomposition (HLSVD) in AMARES. Cardiac spectra were fitted using five resonances: TGs at 0.9, 1.3 and 2.1 ppm, CR at 3.0 ppm and TMA at 3.2 ppm. Spectra acquired in the calf muscle were fitted with resonances at 0.9 ppm (intramyocellular lipid (IMCL) -CH<sub>3</sub>), 1.3 ppm (IMCL-CH<sub>2</sub>), 1.1 ppm (extramyocellular lipid (EMCL) -CH<sub>3</sub>),  $\sim$ 1.5 ppm (EMCL-CH<sub>2</sub>), 3.0 ppm (CR-CH<sub>3</sub>), 3.2 ppm (TMA) and 2.1 ppm (TGs). CR-CH<sub>3</sub> and TMA were fitted using Lorentzian line shapes, whereas all lipid peaks were fitted with Gaussian shapes. Relative chemical shifts were fixed except for EMCL, as the chemical shift of EMCL-CH<sub>2</sub> can vary as a function of the angle between the muscle and  $B_0$ .<sup>32</sup> Relative phases were set to zero for all metabolites; there were no restrictions for linewidths and amplitudes.

Additionally, TGs (defined as the sum of the fitted resonances at 0.9 and 1.3 ppm) in spectra acquired in the duck breast with different echo times were fitted according to Equation (3).  $\Delta B_0$  was calculated for the different field strengths based on  $T_2$  and  $T_2^*$  values of the water signal, enabling estimation of  $T_2^*$  values of TG.

A region of interest was drawn in the septal region of the  $T_1$  maps to derive myocardial  $T_1$ . All variables are presented as mean ± standard deviation.



**FIGURE 3** (A) Spectra acquired in an ex vivo duck breast at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T. B–D,  $T_1$  (B),  $T_2$  (C) and  $T_2^*$  (D) dependences on field strength for water and main TG signals.  $R^2$  values are given for all fits.

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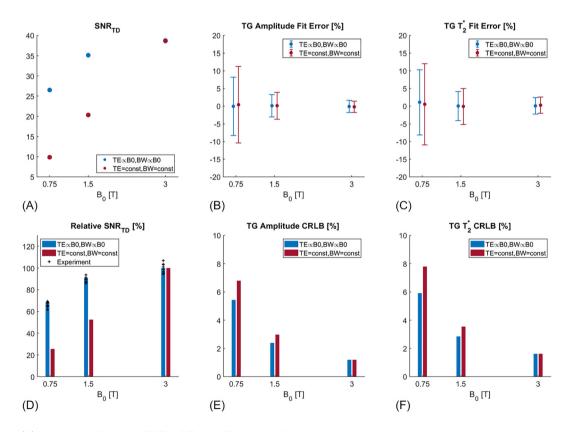
# 3 | RESULTS

Figure 3 shows the  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_2^*$  values of the ex vivo duck breast fitted as a function of magnetic field. Data were fitted as  $T_1 = 675(B_0)^{0.54}$ ( $R^2 = 0.989$ , water),  $T_2 = 47.3(B_0)^{-0.24}$  ( $R^2 = 0.989$ , water),  $T_2^* = 35.5(B_0)^{-0.47}$  ( $R^2 = 0.973$ , water) and  $T_2^* = 28.8(B_0)^{-0.28}$  ( $R^2 = 0.919$ , TG).  $T_2$  of TG was approximately constant for all field strengths. Measured  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_2^*$  values of the water and main TG signals are given in Table 1.

Figure 4 shows simulated SNR<sub>TD</sub> as a function of magnetic field as calculated according to Equations (A1)–(A9) and  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_2^*$  values as presented in Figure 3. It can be seen that scaling of both  $T_E$  and BW with  $B_0$  reduces SNR<sub>TD</sub> losses at lower field when compared with the case where both  $T_E$  and BW are constant for all field strengths (Figure 4A and 4D). Using field-dependent echo time and bandwidth scaling, simulated SNR<sub>TD</sub> at 0.75 T is 75.4% of SNR at 1.5 T and 68.5% of SNR at 3 T. This as opposed to using constant  $T_E$  and BW, where SNR<sub>TD</sub> at 0.75 T is 48.6% and 25.5% of SNR at 1.5 T and 3 T, respectively. Fit errors of TG amplitude and  $T_2^*$  are shown in Figure 4B and 4C. Reduction of  $T_E$  and BW for decreased field strengths reduces fit errors and relative CRLBs (Figure 4B, 4C, 4E and 4F). Scaling of both  $T_E$  and BW with  $B_0$  leads to simulated CRLBs of TG amplitudes that are 2.3 and 4.5 times larger at 0.75 T with respect to 1.5 T and 3 T, respectively, and simulated CRLBs of  $T_2^*$ 

TABLE 1	Measured $T_1$ , $T_2$ and $T_2^*$ values of the water and main TG signals of an ex vivo duck breast at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T.	
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	0.75 T	1.5 T	3 T
T <sub>1</sub> (water) [ms]	604.7	803.6	1234.0
T <sub>2</sub> (water) [ms]	50.2	43.8	36.0
T <sub>2</sub> (TG) [ms]	36.2	36.9	37.4
T <sub>2</sub> * (water) [ms]	39.9	31.2	19.9
<i>T</i> <sub>2</sub> * (TG) [ms]	30.5	27.5	20.2



**FIGURE 4** (A) Simulated SNR<sub>TD</sub> for 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T based on field-dependent relaxation parameters determined in ex vivo experiments comparing echo time and bandwidth adapted (blue) versus PRESS with echo time and bandwidth values fixed to 3 T (red). (B, C) Fitting errors of TG resonance amplitudes and  $T_2^*$ . (D–F) Relative SNR<sub>TD</sub> (D) representing the integral over all resonances and CRLBs of TG amplitudes and  $T_2^*$  (E, F); black crosses in D represent experimental data of eight averages of water signals derived from ex vivo duck measurements without water suppression and normalized to the mean of SNR<sub>TD</sub> obtained at 3 T.

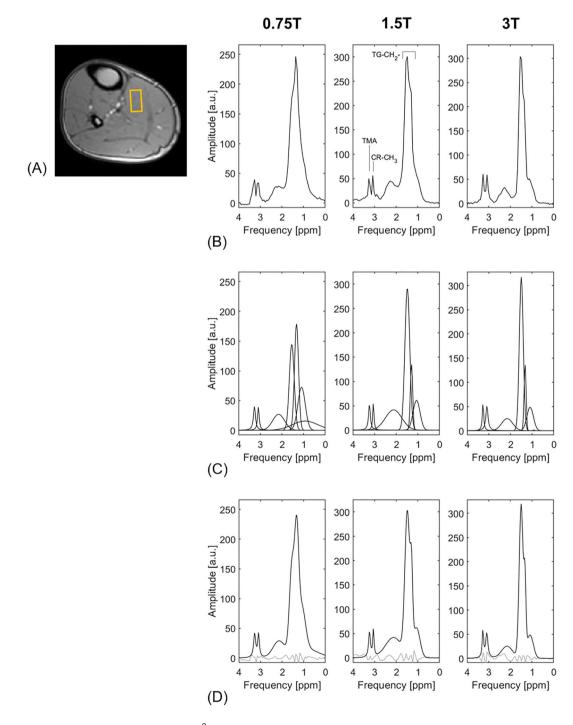
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that are 2.1 and 3.6 times larger at 0.75 T compared with 1.5 T and 3 T, respectively. Experimental data of relative SNR<sub>TD</sub> derived from ex vivo duck breast measurements are provided in Figure 4D for comparison (black crosses).

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Exemplary spectra acquired from the soleus muscle at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T are shown in Figure 5B; Figure 5C and 5D shows the fitted components, the estimated spectra and the residuals of the fits. CR can be distinguished at all field strengths. The lipid–CH<sub>2</sub> peak cannot be separated into IMCL and EMCL with the current protocols and experimental setup.

In Figure 6  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_2^*$  dependences on field strength for the water signal of in vivo calf muscle are presented. The relationship between relaxation parameters and field strength is given by  $T_1 = 887(B_0)^{0.35}$  ( $R^2 = 0.989$ ),  $T_2 = 36.5(B_0)^{-0.21}$  ( $R^2 = 0.979$ ) and  $T_2^* = 30.2(B_0)^{-0.12}$ 

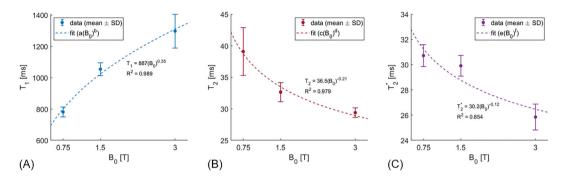


**FIGURE 5** (A) Positioning of a  $10 \times 20 \times 40 \text{ mm}^3$  voxel in the soleus muscle. The image was acquired at a field strength of 1.5 T. (B) Exemplary spectra acquired in the calf muscle of the same subject at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T. (C, D) Fitted components (C) and estimated spectra (D) together with residuals of the fits. CR can be distinguished. The lipid CH<sub>2</sub>-peak cannot be separated into IMCL and EMCL.

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( $R^2 = 0.854$ ). This corresponds to water peak linewidths of 10.37 ± 0.29 Hz at 0.75 T, 10.65 ± 0.29 Hz at 1.5 T and 12.23 ± 0.43 Hz at 3 T. Measured  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_2^*$  values of the water signal are given in Table 2.

Exemplary cardiac short-axis and four-chamber cine images of one volunteer acquired at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T are shown in Figure 7. High intensities close to the flexible transmit/receive coils were observed at 0.75 T, while more homogeneous excitation was obtained at 1.5 T and 3 T given the presence of a body coil. Image quality was sufficient at all field strengths to ensure adequate planning of the MRS voxel.



**FIGURE 6**  $T_1$  (A),  $T_2$  (B) and  $T_2^*$  (C) dependences on field strength of the water signal of in vivo soleus muscle. Data are shown as mean ± standard deviation over all volunteers (n = 3).  $R^2$  values are given for all fits.

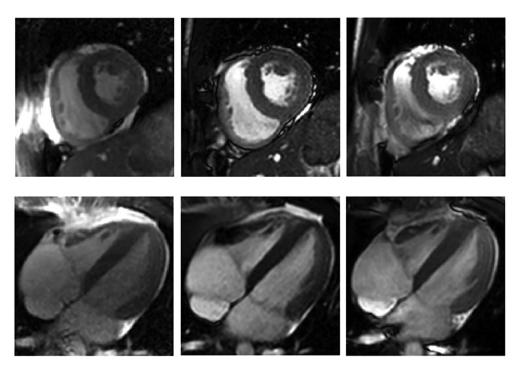
**TABLE 2** Measured  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_2^*$  values of the water signal of in vivo soleus muscle at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T. Values are shown as mean ± standard deviation over all volunteers (n = 3).

	0.75 T	1.5 T	3 T
T <sub>1</sub> (water) [ms]	781.4 ± 31.3	1054.3 ± 41.1	1297 ± 108.4
T <sub>2</sub> (water) [ms]	39.1 ± 3.8	32.7 ± 1.5	29.6 ± 1.1
$T_2^*$ (water) [ms]	30.7 ± 0.9	29.91 ± 0.8	25.9 ± 1.0

0.75T

1.5T

**3T** 



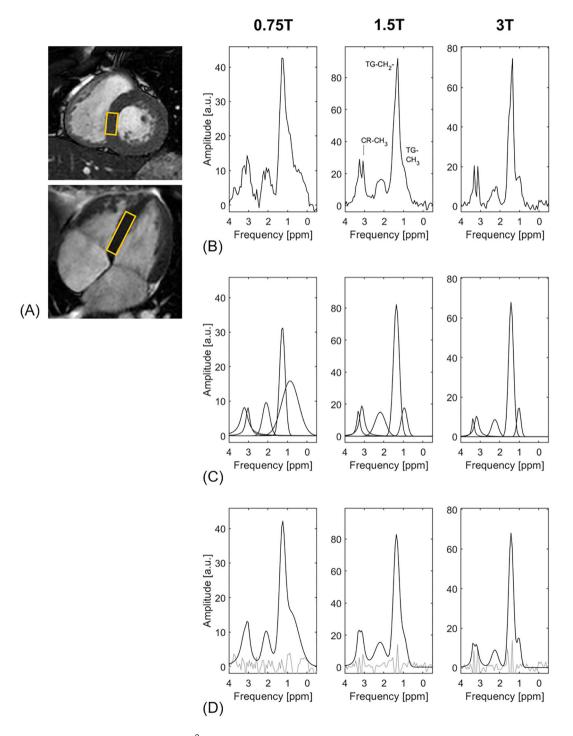
**FIGURE 7** Exemplary cardiac short-axis and four-chamber cine images of one subject acquired at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T as used to plan the MRS voxel. Signal intensity is less homogeneous for 0.75 T as compared with 1.5 T and 3 T, given the lack of a body coil and therefore less homogeneous RF transmission.

Figure 8B compares exemplary spectra acquired in the interventricular septum at different field strengths. Figure 8C and 8D shows the fitted components, the estimated spectra and the residuals of the fits. Despite the decrease in peak separation at lower field strengths, relevant metabolites can be detected in the heart at 0.75 T.

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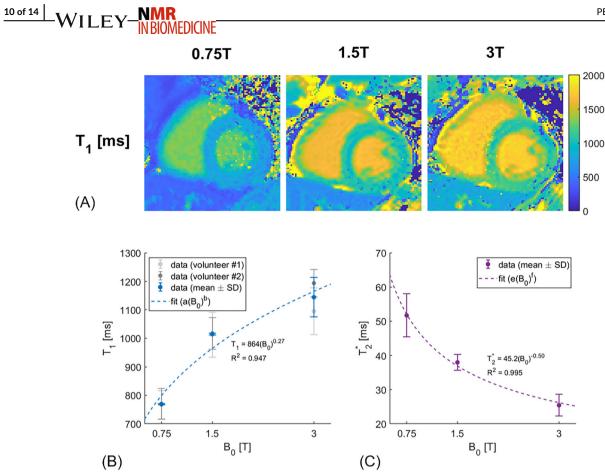
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 $T_1$  maps acquired in one volunteer at different field strengths are shown in Figure 9A.  $T_1$  shows a dependence on  $B_0$  according to  $T_1 = 864(B_0)^{0.27}$  with  $R^2 = 0.947$  (Figure 9B). Figure 9C shows  $T_2^*$  of myocardial water fitted as a function of magnetic field strength  $(T_2^* = 45.2(B_0)^{-0.50}, R^2 = 0.995)$ . This corresponds to linewidths of  $6.22 \pm 0.74$  Hz (0.75 T),  $8.40 \pm 0.51$  Hz (1.5 T) and  $12.65 \pm 1.57$  Hz (3 T). Measured  $T_1$  and  $T_2^*$  values of the water signal are given in Table 3.



**FIGURE 8** (A) Positioning of a  $10 \times 20 \times 40 \text{ mm}^3$  voxel in the interventricular septal wall. The images were acquired at a field strength of 1.5 T. (B) Exemplary cardiac spectra of one subject acquired at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T. (C, D) Fitted components (C) and estimated spectra together with residuals of the fits (D).





**FIGURE 9** (A)  $T_1$  maps acquired in the heart at different field strengths. (B)  $T_1$  dependence on field strength for a region in the myocardial septum. Data from two volunteers are shown in grey as mean ± standard deviation over all voxels in the selected regions. (C)  $T_2^*$  dependence on field strength of the water signal of the interventricular septum. Data are shown as mean ± standard deviation over all volunteers;  $R^2$  values of the fits are given.

**TABLE 3** Measured  $T_1$  and  $T_2^*$  values of the water signal of the interventricular septum at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T. Values are shown as mean ± standard deviation over all volunteers.

	0.75 T	1.5 T	3 Т
T <sub>1</sub> (water) [ms]	768.9 ± 2.3	1015 ± 3.5	1144 ± 69.7
T <sub>2</sub> * (water) [ms]	51.7 ± 6.3	38.0 ± 2.3	25.4 ± 3.2

# 4 | DISCUSSION

In this work we report our preliminary experience with cardiac <sup>1</sup>H spectroscopy on a clinical 3 T MR system ramped down to 0.75 T relative to measurements at 1.5 T and 3 T. Data on the field dependence of  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_2^*$  values were obtained and used as input to simulations to provide insights into SNR scaling and TG fit errors of point-resolved MRS as a function of static field strengths. To assess data quality as a function of field strength, CRLBs of data fitting were calculated to avoid dependences on whether signal and noise are measured in the time domain or frequency domain.<sup>24</sup>

While the field-dependent  $T_1$  of the water signal of the ex vivo duck breast scaled approximately with the square root of  $B_0$  (Figure 3B), both in vivo calf muscle (Figure 6A) and myocardium (Figure 9B) showed a stronger field dependence of  $T_1$  on  $B_0$ , in agreement with findings from literature.<sup>22</sup> Since a  $T_R$  of 2000 ms was used in our simulations and measurements, the increased  $T_1$  at higher field contributed to the non-linear scaling of the time-domain SNR as a function of field strength (Figure 4A and 4D).

Water signal  $T_2$  of the ex vivo duck breast and in vivo calf muscle increased with decreasing field with approximately the fourth to fifth root (Figures 3C and 6B), while TG  $T_2$  was largely independent of  $B_0$  (Figure 3C), a finding that agrees with data from literature where TGs in human skeletal muscle were investigated.<sup>23</sup> To this end, the scaling of time-domain SNR (Figure 4A and 4D), when adapting  $T_E$  and bandwidth relative to

fixed  $T_E$  and bandwidth, is explained. At the same time, the comparatively smaller reduction in TG fit error when adapting  $T_E$  and bandwidth is related to the almost constant  $T_2$  of TG as a function of field strength and the fact that the time-domain SNR represents the integral signal of all resonances present in the spectrum.

Relative differences in time-domain SNR<sub>TD</sub> with  $T_E \propto B_0$ , BW  $\propto B_0$  were compared with experimental data of water signals acquired without water suppression in the ex vivo duck breast at 0.75 T, 1.5 T and 3 T.

An SNR comparison was made between simulations and experimental water-unsuppressed data acquired in the ex vivo duck breast for the case where  $T_E \propto B_0$ , BW  $\propto B_0$ . Corrections for the different numbers of coil elements and geometries as used at the three different field strengths were applied, assuming voxel placement exactly in the center of the coil elements. SNR comparisons were not made for in vivo measurements; confounders such as motion artifacts and differences in coil positioning between field strengths would have compromised a fair SNR comparison.

Although peak separation in units of hertz reduces linearly with decreasing field strength, longer  $T_2^*$  made spectral quality adequate to distinguish relevant metabolites in our work. However, scaling of  $T_2^*$  varied considerably. While  $T_2^*$  of tissue water increased with decreasing field with approximately the square root in the ex vivo duck breast (Figure 3D) and in vivo myocardium (Figure 9C), only weak scaling was found in the in vivo calf muscle experiment (Figure 6C), a finding that we associate in part with inconsistent shimming across the in vivo calf muscle experiments.

Besides challenges with the automatic shimming procedure at 0.75 T given the surface transmit/receive coil configuration, the limited transmit field homogeneity and power available at 0.75 T also posed a challenge to  $B_1$  power calibration. Together with the relatively small receiver elements and therefore reduced sensitivity for regions outside the heart, it resulted in difficulties in acquiring a reliable navigator signal for respiratory triggering/gating on the right hemidiaphragm. Therefore the navigator had to be positioned on the left hemidiaphragm, which made respiratory gating possible for measurements at 0.75 T. Navigator-free metabolite-cycled cardiac spectroscopy as described by Peereboom et al.<sup>33</sup> was not performed in the present study since the transition bandwidth of the inversion pulse needed for metabolite cycling was not sufficiently narrow to ensure correct cycling of TG at 0.75 T.

Water suppression can be challenging at lower field strengths, as spectral separation is reduced. However, the narrower peaks as a result of longer  $T_2^*$  values are at the same time advantageous for water suppression. In this study, a detailed assessment of water suppression in vivo was unfortunately not possible due to experimental constraints. Based on the observed relative ratios of CR and TMA peak amplitudes relative to TG, it is believed that erroneous suppression of metabolites was not critical. This aspect needs to be studied in more detail in a future study.

Based on the time-averaged RF power equation (Equation A10), RF pulse lengths depend on the square of  $\omega$  and hence  $B_0$ . However, on the scanner a linear relationship between pulse length and  $B_0$  was implemented. This was due to the maximum RF amplifier power limit of 4 kW on the 0.75 T system.

To avoid contamination of spectra of calf muscle, care was taken not to include fasciae when positioning the MRS voxel.<sup>34</sup> As these fasciae were hardly visible in the MR images used for planning, some contamination of the spectra cannot be excluded. The choice of the soleus muscle for the measurements in the calf muscle was, together with a relatively large voxel, not optimal to draw conclusions on IMCL and EMCL separation. As the fibers of the soleus muscle are anatomically almost at the magic angle relative to the direction of the  $B_0$  field, the separation of IMCL and EMCL is minimal, and they cannot be distinguished reliably. A future study should be conducted using smaller voxels in the tibialis anterior muscle, where the separation of IMCL and EMCL peaks is more pronounced.

In the heart, intra- and extra-cellular lipids are difficult to distinguish since there is no common fiber orientation. The asymmetrical lipid peaks seen in the cardiac spectra can at this moment not be explained and further research is necessary to assess this observation.

It has been shown that cardiac TG levels are dependent on circadian rhythm.<sup>35</sup> The study setup did not allow the same subject to be scanned on the same day and at the same time of the day at all three scanners, which might have led to TG/W variations between different field strengths.

Both calf muscle and cardiac spectra were fitted with only relative chemical shifts and line shapes as prior knowledge; linewidths and amplitudes were unconstrained. More robust fits, as would be required for studies involving a larger number of subjects, require a larger amount of prior knowledge. The amount of data presented here is, however, not sufficient to determine a correct set of constraints for the different field strengths, and the spectra with according fits should be seen as an example of feasibility.

The number of volunteers measured in this study was relatively small and did not allow for reproducibility and statistical analyses. This limitation was governed by the short trial duration in which the clinical 3 T system was ramped down to 0.75 T before being brought back to the original field strength. More volunteers would also be needed to examine whether CR can be reliably distinguished from TMA at 0.75 T.

# 5 | CONCLUSION

The SNR loss predicted for lower field strengths based on classical field-strength dependent SNR scaling can be partly counteracted by considering favorable relaxation properties and by exploiting shorter RF pulses, making human in vivo cardiac <sup>1</sup>H spectroscopy feasible at 0.75 T.

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#### SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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#### APPENDIX A

The time-domain SNR (SNR<sub>TD</sub>) is defined as the maximum FID amplitude S divided by the standard deviation of the noise  $\sigma_{noise}$ :

$$SNR_{TD} = \frac{S(t=0)}{\sigma_{noise}}.$$
 (A1)

The signal amplitude S is given by

$$S \propto \omega M_{xy}(\mathbf{x}) C(\mathbf{x}) \Delta V$$
 (A2)

with  $\omega$  denoting frequency,  $M_{xy}$  the transverse magnetization in volume element  $\Delta V$  at position **x** and C the coil sensitivity. Given echo time  $T_E \ll T_1$  and assuming 90° excitation and 180° refocusing pulses with perfect slice profiles,  $M_{xy}$  is given as

$$M_{xy}(\mathbf{x}) = M_0(\mathbf{x}) \left( 1 - e^{-\frac{T_R}{T_1(\mathbf{x})}} \right) e^{-\frac{T_E}{T_2(\mathbf{x})}}$$
(A3)

with  $M_0 \propto B_0$  denoting the equilibrium magnetization and  $T_R$  the repetition time. Noise is described using the Johnson-Nyquist formula<sup>36,37</sup>:

$$\sigma_{\text{noise}} = \sqrt{4k_{\text{b}} (T_{\text{coil}} R_{\text{coil}} + T_{\text{sample}} R_{\text{sample}}) \text{BW},}$$
(A4)

where  $k_b$  is the Boltzman constant,  $T_{coil}$  and  $T_{sample}$  denote the temperature of the coil and sample;  $R_{coil}$  and  $R_{sample}$  are the equivalent resistances of the coil and sample, respectively, and BW is the receiver bandwidth. In the frequency range considered,  $R_{sample}$  can be approximated according to Darrasse and Ginefri<sup>38</sup> as

$$R_{\text{sample}} = \frac{2}{3\pi} \sigma(\omega) \mu_0^2 \omega^2 r^3 \frac{\pi r}{8d}$$
(A5)

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with  $\sigma(\omega)$  the frequency- and hence field-dependent conductivity of the sample,<sup>39</sup>  $\mu_0$  the vacuum permeability, r the coil radius and d the distance between the sample and the coil. The intrinsic coil resistance  $R_{coil}$  for a single loop is calculated according to<sup>40</sup>

$$R_{\rm coil} = \frac{r}{q} \sqrt{\mu_0 \omega \frac{\rho}{2}},\tag{A6}$$

where *r* is the coil radius, *q* is the radius of the coil wire and  $\rho$  is the electrical resistivity of the coil at temperature  $T_{coil}$  (copper resistivity taken from www.comsol.com). For the coil geometries used in this work and for field strengths above 0.5 T,  $T_{sample}R_{sample}$  is greater than  $T_{coil}R_{coil}$ .

Besides the  $B_0$  dependence of Equations (A2)–(A6),  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are functions of  $B_0$  as well and have been scaled with field strength according to<sup>22</sup>

$$\Gamma_1 = a(\mathsf{B}_0)^b \tag{A7}$$

$$T_2 = c(B_0)^d \tag{A8}$$

with *a*, *b*, *c* and *d* being tissue-dependent constants, which are determined using ex vivo duck breast and in vivo calf muscle measurements in this work.

In relation to RF transmission, the time-averaged power P deposited in the subject is frequency dependent according to

$$P = \int_{\Delta V} \left( \sigma(\mathbf{x}, \omega) \frac{1}{T_{\rm R}} \int_0^{T_{\rm P}} |E(\mathbf{x}, t)|^2 dt \right) d\mathbf{x}, \tag{A9}$$

where  $T_p$  denotes the duration of RF transmission. Since the electric field  $E(\mathbf{x}, t)$  is proportional to the rate of change of the  $B_1^+(\mathbf{x}, t)$  field generated by RF transmission of root-mean-square amplitude  $B_{1,rms}$  and pulse duration  $T_p$ , the frequency dependence of time-averaged power turns out to be

$$P \propto \sigma(\omega) \omega^2 \frac{B_{1,\text{rms}}^2 T_{\text{p}}}{T_{\text{R}}}.$$
(A10)

For a given power limit P, it is seen that reducing  $\omega$  allows for higher  $B_1^+$ . Approximating flip angle  $\alpha$  by

$$\alpha \approx \gamma B_{1,rms} T_p \tag{A11}$$

and assuming  $\sigma(\omega) \propto \omega^{0.25}$  for muscle tissue in the frequency range of 32–128 MHz<sup>39</sup> leads to

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$$T_{p} \propto \frac{a^{2} \omega^{2.25}}{P T_{R}}$$
(A12)

which shows that  $T_p$  and therefore  $T_E$  can be decreased at lower field strength ( $\omega \propto B_0$ ) by increasing  $B_1^+$  while keeping the deposited timeaveraged power *P* constant.

In the present work, and given power limits of coil components, linear scaling of RF pulse duration as a function of  $\omega$  (and hence magnetic field) was implemented (see Equation 1). Accordingly, pulse durations were decreased linearly with decreasing field, provided peak  $B_1^+$  was increased accordingly. It is noted that SAR depends on the average power deposited and hence scaling RF pulse amplitude and duration is an attractive opportunity at lower field.