

## Chapter 38

# Application of MOBILE (*M*apping of *O*xygen *B*y *I*maging *L*ipids relaxation *E*nhancement) to Study Variations in Tumor Oxygenation

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**Abstract** The aim of the study was to sensitively monitor changes in tumor oxygen using the MOBILE (mapping of oxygen by imaging lipids relaxation enhancement) technique. This method was applied in mammary tumor mouse models on an 11.7T Bruker MRI system. MOBILE was compared with functional imaging  $R_2^*$ ,  $R_1$  of water and with  $pO_2$  measurements (using EPR oximetry and  $O_2$ -dependent fluorescence quenching measurements). MOBILE was shown to be capable to monitor changes in oxygenation in tumor tissues.

### 38.1 Introduction

Tumor hypoxia is acknowledged as a major factor of resistance of solid tumors to treatment [1–3]. Quantitative follow-up of changes in tumor oxygenation can find relevant applications in radiation therapy planning [4, 5] as well as with regard to antiangiogenic and antivascular treatment optimization [6].

Direct quantitative methods, including Eppendorf microelectrodes [7], electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) oximetry [8],  $^{19}F$  relaxometry [9], or Overhauser-enhanced magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) [10], either are invasive or require the injection of a reporter probe and are currently not clinically applicable. Nowadays, the clinically available armamentarium for this purpose only includes radiolabeled nitroimidazoles detected by positron emission tomography (PET) which prominently accumulate in hypoxic areas, thereby acting as potential markers for tissue hypoxia [11]. Endogenous sources of contrast in MRI include variations of  $T_1$

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(longitudinal relaxation rate) and  $T_2^*$  (effective transversal relaxation rate) values in tissue [12].  $T_1$  discloses sensitivity to dissolved oxygen, which acts as a  $T_1$ -shortening paramagnetic contrast agent [13];  $T_2^*$  is sensitive to the relative deoxy-hemoglobin/oxyhemoglobin (Hb/HbO<sub>2</sub>) ratio in vessels [14].  $T_2^*$  mapping, also referred to as functional MR imaging or “BOLD” (blood oxygen level dependent) imaging, is sensitive to variations in oxygenation in the vascular compartment and has been successfully applied to monitor changes in tissue oxygenation [15, 16]. However, BOLD-MRI has also demonstrated significant limitations in terms of quantitative relationships between response signal intensity and true changes in tissue pO<sub>2</sub> and is sensitive to changes in total hemoglobin content [17–19]. Recently, changes in tissue oxygen concentrations have been shown to produce changes in relaxation rate  $R_1$  ( $=1/T_1$ ) of water [20–22]. Unfortunately, the technique still suffers from insufficient sensitivity.

In our lab, we have developed an MR method for mapping variations in oxygenation based on changes in relaxation properties of the tissue lipids, which we called “MOBILE,” for mapping of oxygen by imaging lipids relaxation enhancement [23]. In vitro, a gain in sensitivity (compared with water) was demonstrated and evaluated to a factor of 7.5 in pure oil and 2.1 and 11.4 in tissue homogenates corresponding to two distinct common lipid peaks with a chemical shift of ~1.3 (fatty acid chains) and ~4.0 ppm (glycerol backbone of triglycerides), respectively [23]. In vivo we also demonstrated the feasibility in several tissues on preclinical and clinical studies. In the present study, our goal was to apply the MOBILE technique to monitor tumor oxygenation during carbogen challenge and to compare this technique with two quantitative measurements of tumor pO<sub>2</sub> (invasive MR compatible fiber-optic fluorescence quenching probes, OxyLite™, and EPR oximetry). We also compared MOBILE to two currently used MR parameters, namely,  $R_2^*$  and  $R_1$  of water.

## 38.2 Methods

Syngeneic NT2 and MDA human mammary tumor cells were injected subcutaneously (implanted orthotopically) into the right upper mammary fat pad of 6-week-old FVB/N or nude NMRI female mice (Janvier), respectively ( $n=5$ /model). Tumors were analyzed when reaching 6 mm in diameter. Animals were anesthetized by inhalation of isoflurane (Forene; Abbot, England; mixed with 21 % oxygen, 1.5 l/h). Respiration rate and body temperature (37.0 °C  $\pm$  1.0 °C) were monitored. Studies were undertaken in accordance with the national and local regulations of the ethical committee (agreement number LA 1230467).

Experiments were performed with an 11.7T MRI system (Bruker, BioSpec; Ettlingen, Germany) and with a quadrature volume coil (inner diameter of 40 mm). Three MR measurements of each type ( $R_1$  H<sub>2</sub>O,  $R_1$  lipids,  $R_2^*$ ) were acquired sequentially and repeated three times during air breathing. Then, breathing gas was switched to carbogen. Respiratory triggering was employed to avoid motion artifacts. We used the OxyLite™ fiber-optic microprobes for continuously monitoring tumor oxygenation simultaneously with MRI [24]. Independent experiments

were also performed to compare MOBILE with EPR oximetry using a similar breathing challenge.

A segmented IR FISP [25] (inversion-recovery fast imaging with steady-state precession) sequence (SSFP FID mode) was used to acquire parametric images of  $T_1$  relaxation time. The acquisition parameters were TR/TE/FA/BW/matrix = 4 ms/1.2 ms/5°/100 kHz/64×64, four segments, and a total acquisition time of 1 min 20 s. For the total proton experiment, a series of 100 images were acquired (spaced by a scan repetition time TR = 120 ms) with a slice thickness of 1 mm. For the lipid experiments, we first evaluated the frequency difference in hertz between water and lipid peaks in the  $^1\text{H}$  spectrum with a single pulse sequence. These offsets were then used as an imaging frequency offset in the same IR FISP protocol. Typically, the lipid peak of interest was approximately 4.0 ppm for tumor as identified experimentally [26]. We added a  $\pi/2$  hermite saturation pulse to cancel the water signal. A series of 40 images (spaced by scan repetition time TR = 100 ms) with a slice thickness of 3 mm were acquired. Then, images were fitted using a homemade program in Matlab (the MathWorks, Inc., Natick, MA, USA) to determine the  $T_1$  relaxation in regions of interest (ROIs). Raw data were filtered so as to disregard nonrelevant fits with a  $T_1$  error/ $T_1$  > 30 %.  $T_1$  values were then calculated from the effective  $T_1^*$  values measured experimentally [27]. Finally,  $R_1$  ( $1/T_1$ ) data were filtered according to the calibration curves obtained in vitro from tissue extracts ( $R_1$  0 %  $\text{O}_2$  < measured  $R_1$  <  $R_1$  100 %  $\text{O}_2$ ).

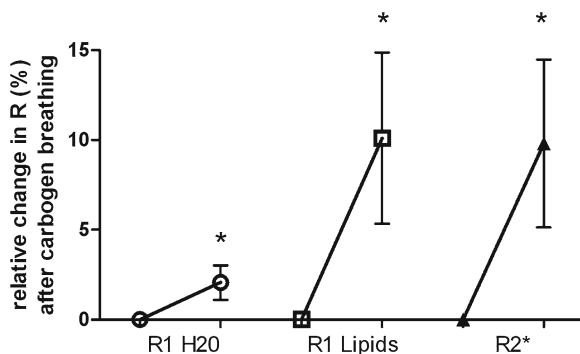
For  $T_2^*$  measurements, a multi-gradient echo (MGE) sequence was performed with eight echoes (between 3.5 and 31.5 ms) with a total acquisition time of 4 min 48 s. A 256×256 matrix was used with TR/flip angle/slice thickness = 1,500 ms/30°/1 mm.

In vivo tumor  $\text{pO}_2$  was monitored using electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) oximetry using charcoal as the oxygen-sensitive probe [8]. EPR spectra were recorded using a 1.1 GHz EPR spectrometer (Magnetech, Berlin, Germany). Calibration curves were made by measuring the EPR line width as a function of the  $\text{pO}_2$ . Mice were injected in the center of the tumor using the suspension of charcoal (100 mg/ml, 60  $\mu\text{l}$  injected). The tumor under study was placed in the center of the extended loop resonator whose sensitive volume extends 1 cm into the tumor mass. The  $\text{pO}_2$  measurements correspond to an average of  $\text{pO}_2$  values in this volume of the NT2 tumor models. Charcoal was injected 24 h before experiments. MOBILE and EPR measures were performed the same day, and it was verified that charcoal did not perturb MOBILE or  $T_1$  MRI measurements.

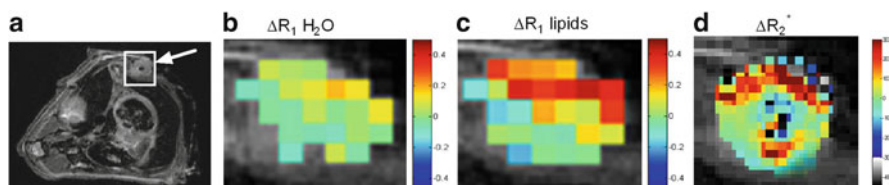
Paired  $t$ -tests (carbogen versus air breathing), linear fits, and Pearson correlations ( $p < 0.05$  (\*),  $p < 0.01$  (\*\*), or  $p < 0.001$  (\*\*\*) were considered significant) were performed using the GraphPad software.

### 38.3 Results and Discussion

The basal  $\text{pO}_2$  measured with OxyLite in MDA tumors ranged from 2 to 25 mmHg (mean of  $\text{pO}_2 = 14.15 \pm 5.46$  mmHg), whereas basal  $\text{pO}_2$  in NT2 tumors was between 35.5 and 46.7 mmHg (mean of  $\text{pO}_2 = 37 \pm 0.8$  mmHg). Tumor oxygenation was

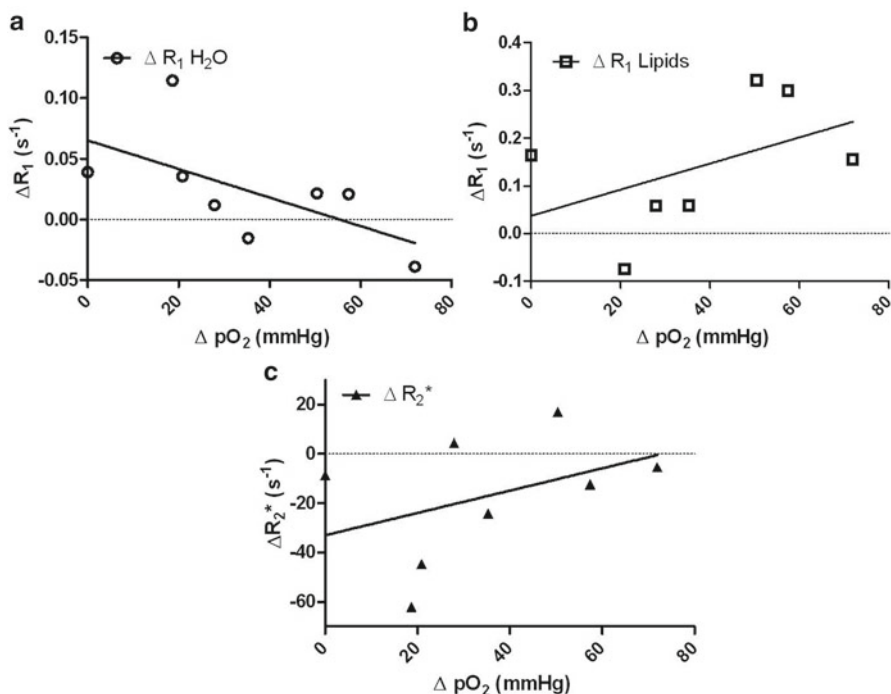


**Fig. 38.1** Pooled results of MDA and NT2 tumors ( $n=12$ ). Relative changes over the whole tumors in relaxation times under air and carbogen breathing conditions for global R1 (water), R1 of lipids, and R2\* [ $R=1/T$ ]. Note the higher change in R1 of lipids versus global R1 in response to carbogen breathing



**Fig. 38.2** Anatomical transversal MR image of a mouse with an MDA tumor (shown by the arrow) with the OxyLite tip (black spot) at the center of the tumor (a). Typical maps of changes in relaxation times in response to carbogen breathing (b, c, d) ( $\Delta=R$  carbogen  $-R$  air). Color scales highlight the higher sensitivity of the MOBILE technique with a higher proportion of “hot” colors (c)

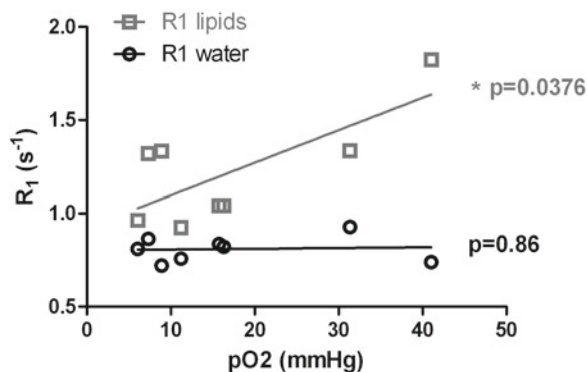
increased in the majority of the tumors (7/8) under carbogen breathing conditions. After carbogen breathing, MDA and NT2 tumors reached a  $pO_2$  around  $41.2 \pm 2.3$  mmHg and  $87.7 \pm 14.1$  mmHg, respectively. Mean relative changes in relaxation rates with respect to the hyperoxic challenge were compared (pooled results for both tumor models) between R1 H<sub>2</sub>O, R1 lipids and R2\*, with relative changes of  $2.1 \pm 1.0$  % ( $p < 0.05$ ;  $\Delta R_1$  H<sub>2</sub>O),  $10.1 \pm 4.8$  % ( $p < 0.05$ ;  $\Delta R_1$  lipids), and  $9.8 \pm 4.6$  % ( $p < 0.05$ ;  $\Delta R_2^*$ ) (Fig. 38.1). Although values are rather dispersed, an increase by a factor of 4.8 was achieved for R1 lipids compared to R1 H<sub>2</sub>O. The larger dispersion of the data obtained using R1 lipids compared to R1 H<sub>2</sub>O is explained by the fact that MOBILE is more sensitive to changes in oxygenation than R1 H<sub>2</sub>O and that the tumor is highly heterogeneous (Fig. 38.2): areas with a large change in  $pO_2$  will present a larger change in R1 lipids compared to R1 H<sub>2</sub>O, while areas with no change in  $pO_2$  will have no change in R1 (lipids or water). As tumors are heterogeneous (mixture of areas with response and areas without response to hyperoxic challenge), the effect of change in oxygenation leads to a larger distribution in the recorded values when using a method that is highly sensitive. The tip of the OxyLite™ probe could be localized on the MR images (Fig. 38.2a). Typical maps of



**Fig. 38.3** Relation between the quantitative change in tumor pO<sub>2</sub> (assessed by OxyLite probes) and the corresponding changes in relaxation times: global R<sub>1</sub> (a), R<sub>1</sub> of lipids (b), and R<sub>2</sub>\* (c). Note the positive trend for R<sub>1</sub> of lipids

the relative difference in relaxation rates before and during the carbogen challenge were generated in order to compare the sensitivity of the R<sub>1</sub> of lipids (MOBILE), R<sub>1</sub> H<sub>2</sub>O, and R<sub>2</sub>\* methods (Fig. 38.2b–d), indicating that  $\Delta R_1$  lipids are more sensitive (more red pixels) than  $\Delta R_1$  H<sub>2</sub>O on the same tumor. It is possible to compare the quantitative values obtained by fluorescence quenching and the MR relaxation values obtained in the sensitive region of the probe (3\*3 pixels with the exclusion of the central pixel, Fig. 38.3a–c), similarly to previously published comparisons between R<sub>2</sub>\* and pO<sub>2</sub> changes [17]. Some trends were found between  $\Delta R_1$  lipids and  $\Delta pO_2$ , presenting a positive linear fit with a slope of  $0.0027 \pm 0.0023$  ( $r^2 = 0.22$ ,  $p = 0.11$ ). In contrast,  $\Delta R_1$  H<sub>2</sub>O presented a negative slope versus  $\Delta pO_2$  ( $-0.0012 \pm 0.0006$ ;  $r^2 = 0.37$ ,  $p = 0.28$ ), and  $\Delta R_2^*$  presented a positive slope ( $0.4527 \pm 0.4120$ ;  $r^2 = 0.17$ ,  $p = 0.31$ ), while this was expected to be negative (i.e., pO<sub>2</sub> is reported to be linked to  $T_2^* = 1/R_2^*$ ). In a parallel study, we compared EPR oximetry and R<sub>1</sub> lipids and R<sub>1</sub> H<sub>2</sub>O in the NT2 tumor model. The basal pO<sub>2</sub> was  $8.4 \pm 1.1$  mmHg and reached  $26.1 \pm 6.1$  mmHg after carbogen breathing. The correlation between R<sub>1</sub> H<sub>2</sub>O and pO<sub>2</sub> was not significant ( $p = 0.8611$ , positive linear fit  $0.000409 \pm 0.002241$ ;  $r^2 = 0.005529$ ) (Fig. 38.4), while a positive linear significant correlation was found between R<sub>1</sub> lipids and pO<sub>2</sub> ( $0.01744 \pm 0.00656$ ;  $r^2 = 0.5407$ ,  $p = 0.0376$ ) (Fig. 38.4).

**Fig. 38.4** Correlation between global  $pO_2$  measures with global  $R_1$  values and lipids  $R_1$  values



Overall, these data show that MOBILE is sensitive to changes in tumor oxygenation. Correlations between data sets from MOBILE and direct  $O_2$  measurements suggested that  $R_1$  lipids were significantly correlated with  $pO_2$  measured by EPR. Using OxyLite, we found a positive (but nonsignificant) fit between  $\Delta R_1$  lipids and  $\Delta pO_2$ . Differences observed between EPR and OxyLite measurements can be explained by the difference in the volume sampled, as OxyLite interrogates a very small volume while EPR provides  $pO_2$  measurements over the whole tumor.

Also,  $\Delta R_2^*$ , which was expected to be negatively correlated to  $pO_2$ , showed an apparently paradoxical positive fit versus  $\Delta pO_2$ , thereby emphasizing the multiplicity and complexity of the response of  $R_2^*$  to changes in oxygenation and perfusion that can be highly dependent on micro/macrovaskulature functional parameters [28]. Therefore, information provided by the two relaxation parameters should be complementary. Also, oxygen-enriched gases inhalation was used as a technique to modulate tumor oxygenation. However, actual effects of such gases might vary from one tissue to the other, e.g., according to the presence or absence of  $CO_2$  (i.e., for carbogen). This may explain the dispersion of the results, where tissue tumor heterogeneity is high. MOBILE presents the advantage of allowing longitudinal studies. Interestingly, the short acquisition time (1 min 20 s) of the MOBILE sequence should allow the follow-up of acute hypoxia in tumors in a quantitative and dynamic way, similarly to previous work using  $^{19}F$ -relaxometry or EPR oximetry [29, 30].

## 38.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, these initial studies suggest that MOBILE has the potential to provide a noninvasive method for obtaining measurements of the variations in tumor oxygenation. Further studies on other tumor models are needed to evaluate if changes in  $R_1$  lipids are quantitatively reflecting changes in  $pO_2$ .

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