

Managing fat in MRI: a technical perspective

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Cancer Center**
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Outline

- ***Background***
 - *why we are interested in managing fat in MRI*
- ***Different fat suppression techniques***
 - *what they are and how they work*
 - *pros*
 - *limitations*
- ***Summary and possible future development***

Disclaimer

The speaker is an inventor of US patents or patent applications that are licensed to GE Healthcare Technologies.

Fat in the body

- ***Major body functions despite “bad press”***
 - *efficient energy storage*
 - *structural functions such as body insulation and organ protection*
 - *metabolic functions such as in transport and function of fat soluble vitamins (vitamin A, D, E and K)*
 - *and many other important functions*
- ***Obesity is a culprit for some major diseases***
 - *Type 2 diabetes and coronary heart disease*
 - *Cancer (esophagus, breast, colon, prostate,...)*
 - *Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH)*

We need to watch our weight and manage the body fat!

Fat in MRI

- Fat is present in a lot of places in our body
- In MRI:
 - fat is one of the two primary sources of signal, besides water
 - Fat is bright in many sequences, particularly T1 and T2-weighted sequences
 - Fat signal is usually not of the primary interest, although it can aid diagnosis in certain situations
 - Fat obscures underlying or nearby pathology
 - Fat causes strong artefacts due to motion, chemical shift, etc.

Just like family doctors, radiologists usually do not like to see fat!

Fat suppression

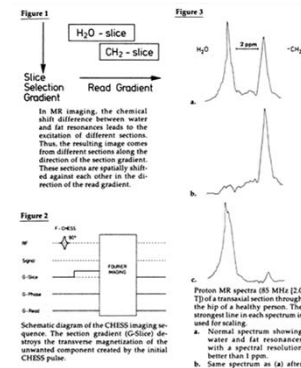
- Fat suppression is almost as old as MRI itself
- Fat suppression is desired and used in a large majority of clinical MRI studies
- Many different types of fat suppression techniques have been developed and continue to be developed
- Unfortunately, fat suppression is also one of the perennial image quality issues in MRI, besides motion.

Fat suppression techniques

Two major types:

- Magnetization preparatory techniques (control what goes in or “dietary type”)
 - selective saturation such as CHESS
 - selective excitation
 - inversion recovery such as STIR
 - other variants
- Post-processing techniques (remove what’s already in or “exercise type”)
 - Dixon or Dixon type techniques
 - MT-based
 - balanced SSFP type

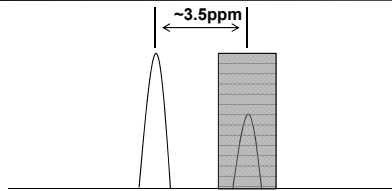
Chemical shift selective saturation



- a.k.a CHESS, ChemSat, FatSat...
- fat has a chemical shift that is separated from that of water by ca. 3.5 ppm
- selective excitation followed by gradient spoiling can be used to eliminate signal from one of the two species (fig. 3)
- any imaging sequence can in principle be preceded with the CHESS module (fig. 2)
- most widely used fat-suppression technique
 - flexibility
 - water signal is unperturbed

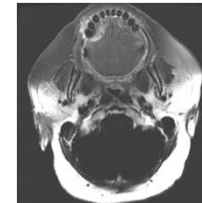
Frahm et al, Radiology 1985

Chemical shift selective saturation

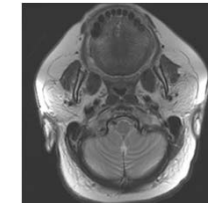


- Chemical shift separation needs to be larger than the bandwidth of the RF pulse → difficult for low-field systems
- The 90° needs to be 90° pulse → B1 inhomogeneity.
- The 90° pulse needs to cover fat and fat-only over the imaging FOV
 - B0 inhomogeneity
 - hard to meet in different imaging scenarios

Chemical shift selective saturation



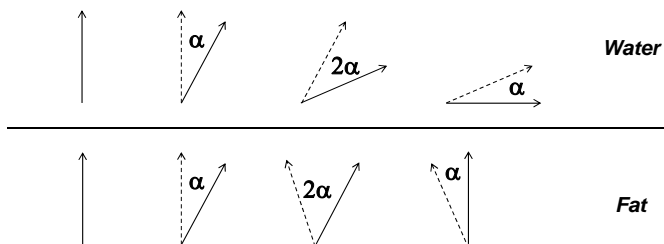
Fatsat on



No fatsat

Selective excitation

Binomial RF pulses:



Selective excitation

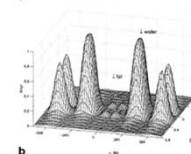
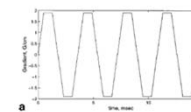
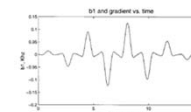


FIG. 5. a) RF and gradient waveforms for a type II spin water-selective excitation pulse. Pulse parameters and flip angles are the same as in Fig. 3. The synthesizer frequency is set on the fat resonance and a phase of π radians is applied between subpulses by inverting the amplitudes of even subpulses. In $M_{xy}(0)$ for this pulse, the fat is not excited and the value of $\pi = 200$ Hz is selectively excited by M_z .

Spectral-spatial RF pulses (1st described by Meyers, Pauly, et al in 1990)

- Typically a set of RF sub-pulses modulated under a broad RF envelop and played under an oscillating gradient waveform
- Each subpulse selects a spatial slice
- Phase accumulation or adjustment of RF phases between subpulses is used for spectral selectivity
- RF envelop controls the spectral content

Zur, Magnetic Resonance in Medicine 2000

Selective excitation

- Typically much longer than conventional RF pulses
- Much more demanding on system hardware and gradient and RF fidelity
- The maximum width of the subpulse is determined by water-fat frequency separation
- Most successfully used in echo planar imaging-based pulse sequences

Short-tau inversion recovery (STIR)

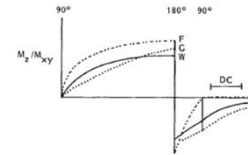
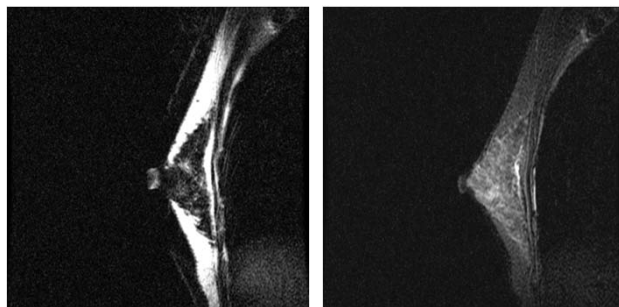


FIG. 6. Changes in M_z/M_{xy} with time for fat (F), white matter (W), and grey matter (G) using a fat-suppressed short inversion time inversion recovery sequence. The signal from G is greater than that for W and F gives no signal using field echo data collection (DC).

Bydder and Young, J. Comput Assist Tomogr 1985

- non-selective 180 inversion pulse followed by a wait time until fat magnetization crosses the null point (thus T1-selective)
- the IR pulse is usually adiabatic, removing B1 sensitivity
- independent of B0-inhomogeneity
- Probably the most robust fat suppression technique
- Drawbacks include reduced SNR, increased scan time, and altered contrast/inadvertent suppression of water-signals with short T1.

Short-tau inversion recovery (STIR)



FatSat

STIR

Other variants: spectral inversion

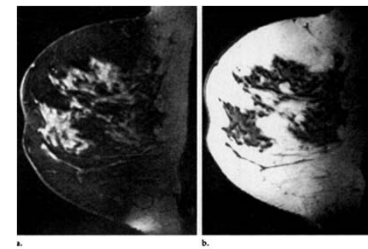


Figure 9. Images of a healthy volunteer, obtained with fat (a) and water (b) suppression with the same 100 msec TP but with the frequency of the inversion pulse set to the fat and water resonances, respectively. Note the good suppression of fat and water in the respective images. Imaging parameters were as follows: 16-cm FOV, 1.5-mm section thickness, $64 \times 256 \times 192$ matrix, 30° flip angle, and TE/TR = 3.2/11.6. The total imaging time was 2.7 minutes. A prototype phased-array coil was used for this acquisition. Either fat or water suppression was attained in 2.7 minutes for this volume image. In these images, B_0 inhomogeneity resulted in nonuniform suppression, especially in the chest wall.

Foo et al, Radiology 1994

Challenges of the magnetization preparatory approaches

- ChemSat and selective excitation are based on the chemical shift difference of fat, and are all intrinsically sensitive to B_0 inhomogeneity
- STIR is only T1-specific, reduces SNR, and may cause contrast change
- Preparatory pulses take up time and may be difficult to implement with fast sequences
- ChemSat → spin echo, fast spin echo
- STIR → fast spin echo
- Spectral spatial pulse → echo planar imaging
- Application of the preparatory pulses to only a selected region of k -space for gradient echo and fast gradient echo sequences

The Dixon technique

W. Thomas Dixon, Ph.D.

Simple Proton Spectroscopic Imaging¹

Simple modification of a spin echo imaging pulse sequence generates useful spectroscopic information at 0.35 T. New images are produced that show water only, fat only, and the difference between water and fat intensity. Imaging speed, spatial resolution, and signal-to-noise ratio are comparable with ordinary imaging. The method provides new parameters for tissue characterization and improved contrast between some organs.

Index terms: Magnetic resonance, spectroscopy • Magnetic resonance, technology
Radiology 1984; 155: 189-194

MAGNETIC resonance is one of the most widely used spectroscopic techniques that combine imaging and spectroscopy. It has been demonstrated on the nuclei of hydrogen (1), carbon (2), carbon (3), carbon (5), and P-31 (2, 4, 6). There is a growing interest in these techniques. For example, in an animal model, spectra of ATP, phosphocreatine, and inorganic phosphate are obtained simultaneously. Complicated results like this are usually obtained as spectra from specified regions in an organism rather than as images at specified chemical shifts. Since most of the total nuclear magnetization in a body comes from protons in water, and most of what is left, from protons in fat, an unsophisticated approach may skim off a good fraction of the possible benefits of spectroscopy at low cost. The technique demonstrated here simply separates an image at the water chemical shift from one at the CH_2 chemical shift.

Almost
1000
citations

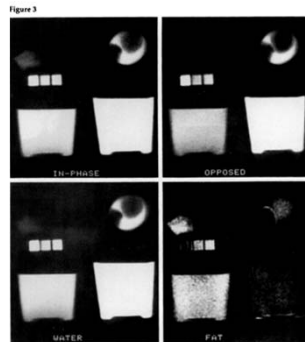
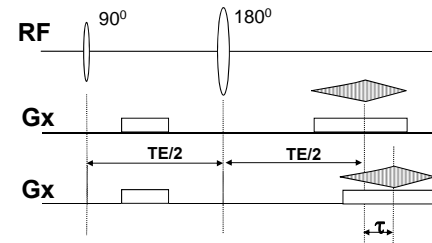
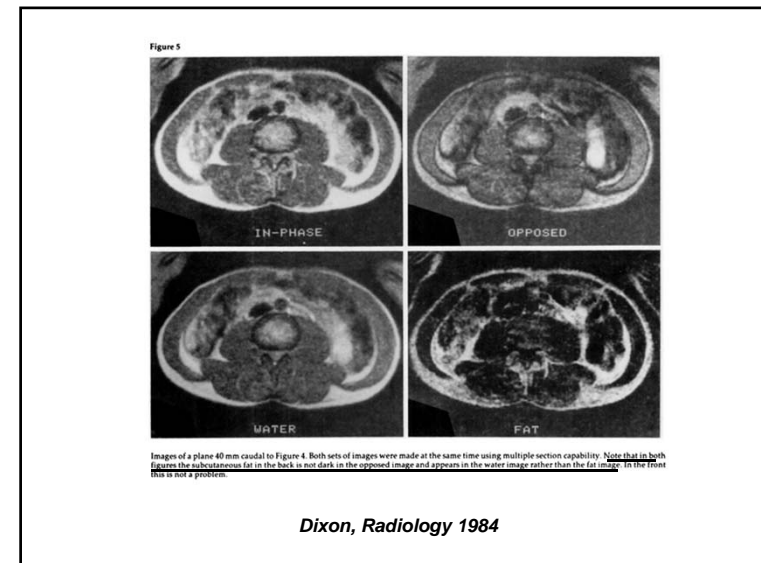
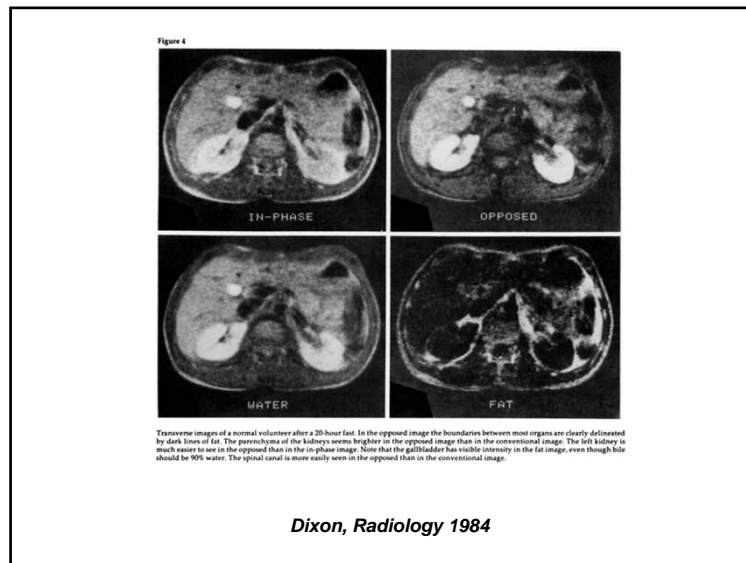
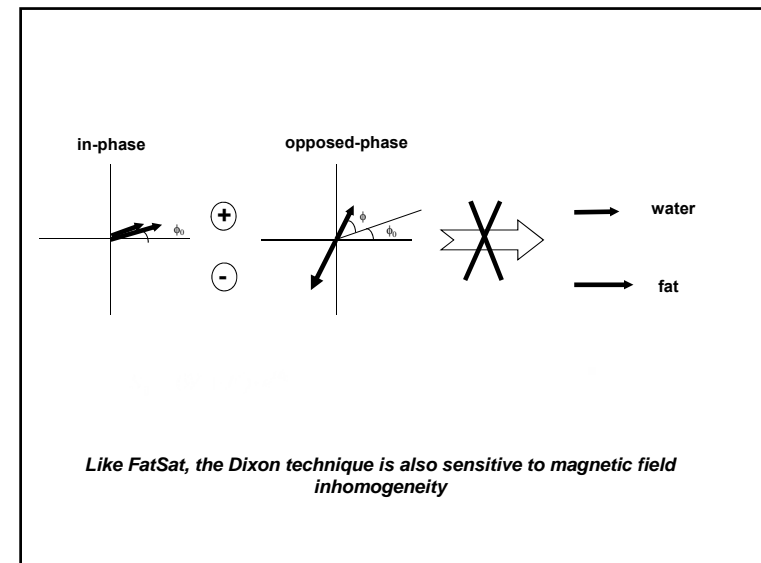
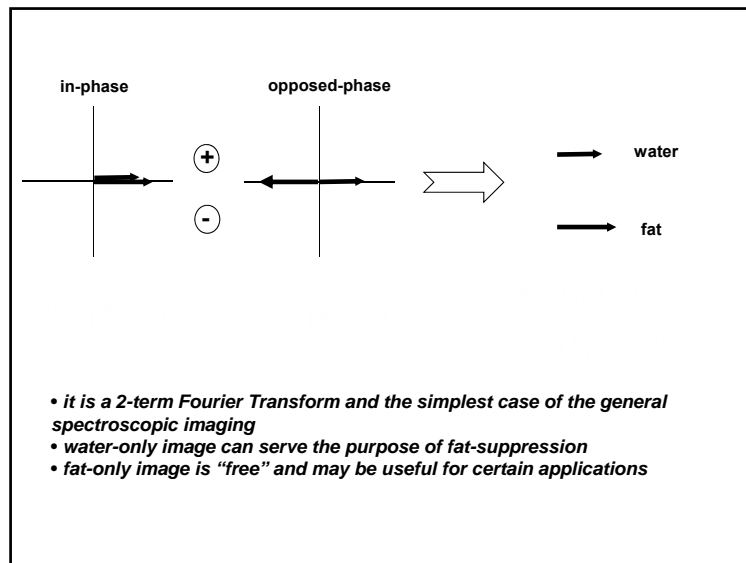


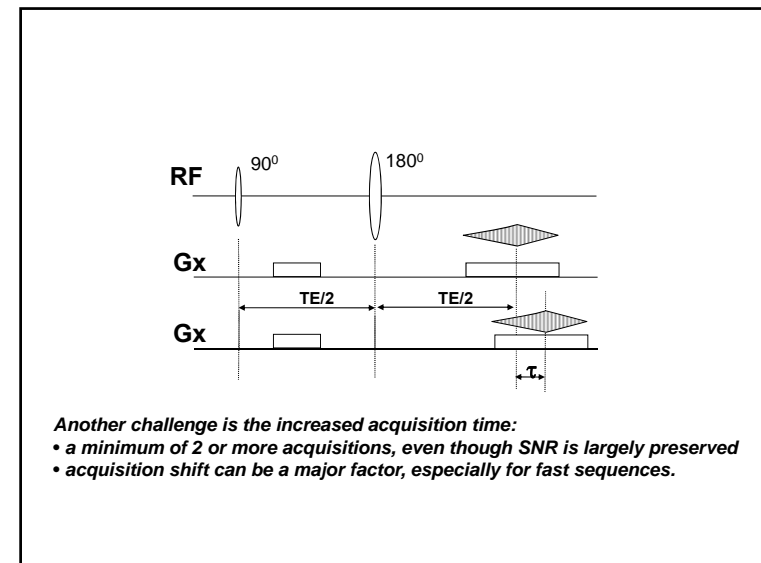
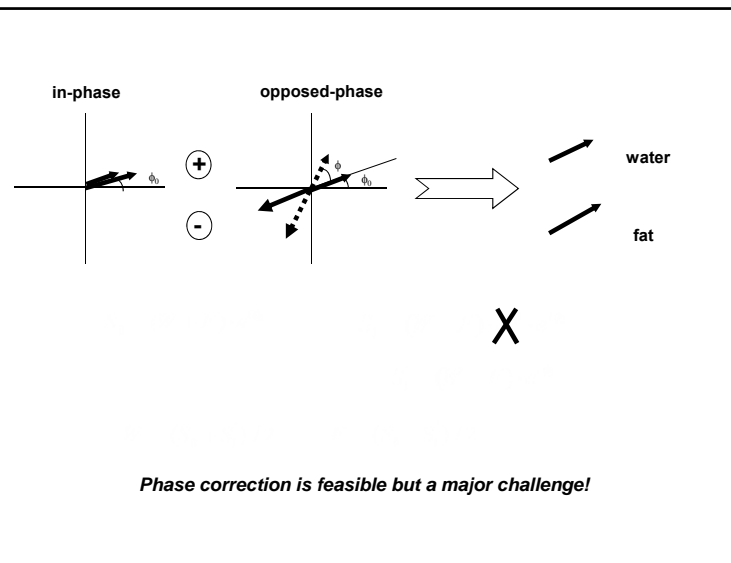
Figure 3
Spectroscopic images. The material above the three squares is Blueberry Margarita (Nabisco). Below is three detergent (Procter and Gamble). The blueberry is above a container of 1% CuSO_4 in water. The detergent container has no fat in it so it is bright on the water image but nearly invisible on the fat image. The detergent appears on all images, its relative brightness on the water and fat images depends on the relative concentration of aliphatic and water protons and on the T1 and T2 values. The detergent is faint because it is fairly solid and so has a short fat T2 value, and it contains little water. In three of the images of the egg, both the yolk and white are visible, but in the fat image only the yolk is visible, showing that egg white does not contain fat but the yolk does.

Dixon, Radiology 1984

The Dixon technique







The three-point Dixon technique

Glover GH.
J. Magn. Reson. Imaging
1991

- now requires three acquisitions, tripling the scan time
- phase calculation is only determined with $-\pi$ to $+\pi$
- phase wrapping will swap the water and fat

Two-point Dixon revisited

Coombs et. al. MRM 1997

Skinner et. al. MRM 1997

- original two-point acquisitions
- the second in-phase image is redundant except for pixels with equal amounts of water and fat and assuming relaxation is negligible

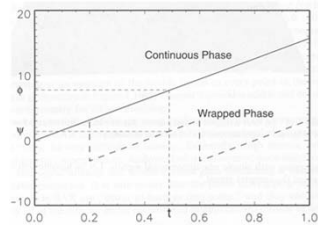
However,

- phase calculation is only determined with $-\pi$ to $+\pi$
- phase wrapping will swap the water and fat
- it was generally believed that 2-point Dixon is less reliable than 3-point Dixon

Phase unwrapping

- a well-studied problem, particularly in Synthetic Aperture Radar
- also a long-standing problem still with no general solution
- mathematically can be stated as:

Where:



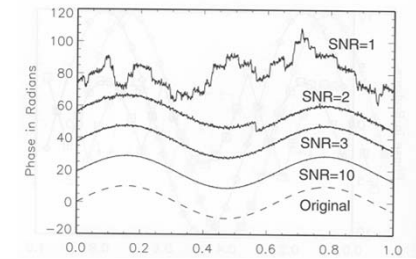
From: Ghiglia and Pritt, 2D Phase Unwrapping: theory, algorithms and software

Ito's method for 1-D phase unwrapping:

1. Compute the phase difference
2. Compute the wrapped phase difference
3. Initialize a first phase value
4. Unwrap by summing the wrapped phase difference

Phase unwrapping

Unwrappability Criterion:

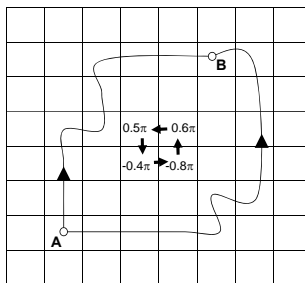


From: Ghiglia and Pritt, 2D Phase Unwrapping: theory, algorithms and software

Other common sources of non-unwrappability are undersampling, artefacts.

2D phase unwrapping

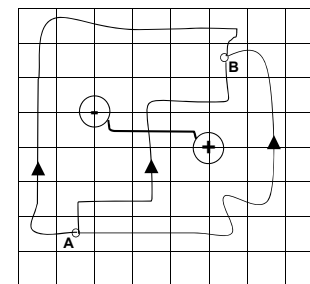
Violation of the unwrappability criterion leads to phase poles or residues



$$\begin{aligned} &W(-0.8+0.4) + W(0.6+0.8) \\ &+ W(0.5-0.6) + W(-0.4-0.5) \\ &= (-0.4-0.6-0.1-0.9) \\ &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

Existence of poles and residues leads to a dilemma that phase unwrapping may be path-dependent.

The "cutline" approach for phase unwrapping



what "cutlines" are correct?

Chavez et. al. IEEE TMI 2002

- Identify all the poles
- Construct "cutlines" that pair up or annihilate the "poles"
- Phase unwrapping is path-independent as long as it does not cross the "cutlines".

The minimum norm approach

- The goal is to find unwrapped phase whose local derivatives match the measured derivatives “as closely as possible”
- L^p -norm formulation:

When $p = 2$, this leads to the familiar Poisson equation:

Song et. al. IEEE TIP 1995

Requires segmentation to exclude noise regions and specification of proper boundary conditions

The quality-guided path following approach

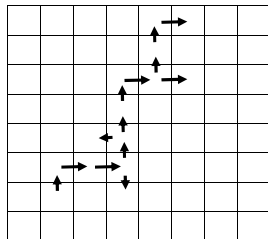
- works under the assumption that a good quality map will guide the phase unwrapping path without encircling unbalanced poles
- there are many potential candidates for quality maps:
 - first or second derivatives of the phase
 - some measure of SNR
 - any combinations of SNR and phase variations
- it has produced some remarkably good results
- implementation-wise, it requires a huge dynamic array to store the quality map

Ching et. al. IEEE TIP 1992

An et. al. IEEE TMI 2000

Minimum spanning tree

A similar traveling salesman problem: given a number of cities and costs of traveling from any city to any city, what is the least cost round trip route that visits each city exactly once and then returns to the starting city?

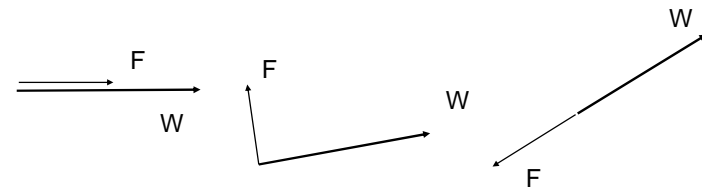


“NP-hard”: considered one of the deepest, most perplexing open research problems in theoretical computer science!

Cormen et al, Introduction to Algorithms, 2nd Edition

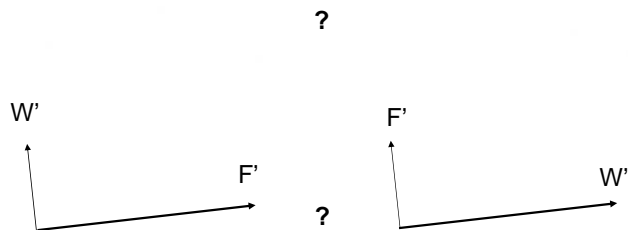
Direct Phase Encoding (DPE)

data sampling at $(0, \alpha, 2\alpha)$, where $\alpha \neq 180^\circ$



Xiang, An. J. Magn. Reson. Imaging, 1997

Direct Phase Encoding (DPE)



No ambiguity because fat has lower Larmor frequency than water (so fat must be leading in phase)!

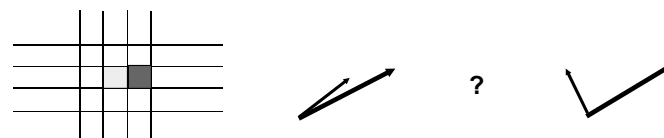
Xiang, An. J. Magn. Reson. Imaging 1997

Direct Phase Encoding (DPE)

Relative phase may be poorly defined:

- single component pixels
- low SNR or artifact-contaminated pixels

Region-growing based on orientation filters:



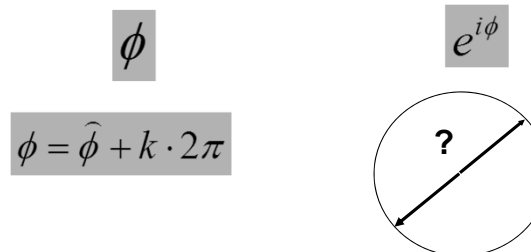
Xiang, An. J. Magn. Reson. Imaging 1997

IDEAL: iterative decomposition of water and fat with echo asymmetry

Reeder et. al. MRM 2004
Reeder et. al. MRM 2005
Yu et. al. MRM 2005

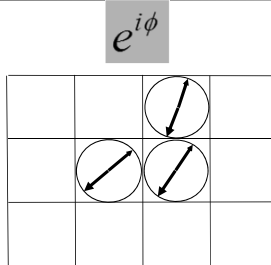
- solve for p_i iteratively, starting with $\psi = 0$ and until $\Delta\psi < 1\text{Hz}$.
- a minimum of three acquisitions with flexible time shifts
- a set of acquisitions with $(-\pi/6, \pi/2, 7\pi/6)$ produces "IDEAL" SNR that is independent of relative water and fat ratio
- pixel based processing unable to resolve pixels of single peak and the cost function in general may have local minima
- region-growing IDEAL helps reduce the processing failures

Back to a two-point Dixon technique



multiple vs. binary choices

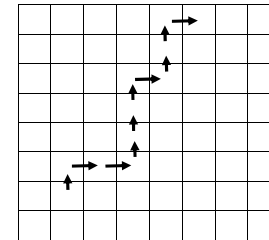
Back to two-point Dixon technique



- indeterminate on a pixel basis
- however, we expect directional smoothness because the underlying field is slowly varying
- the spatial distribution can thus be determined in a region growing or other algorithms

Ma. MRM 2004

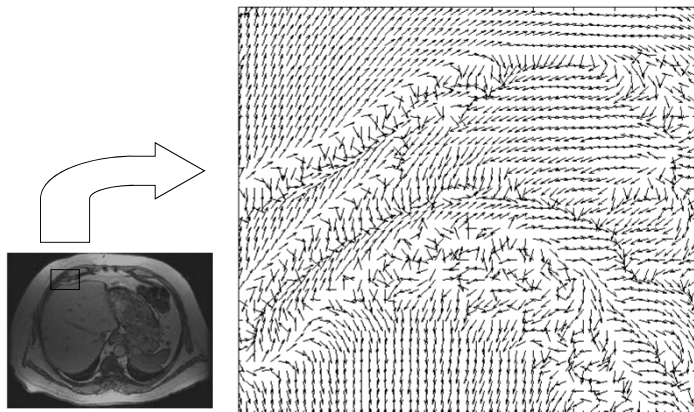
Region growing



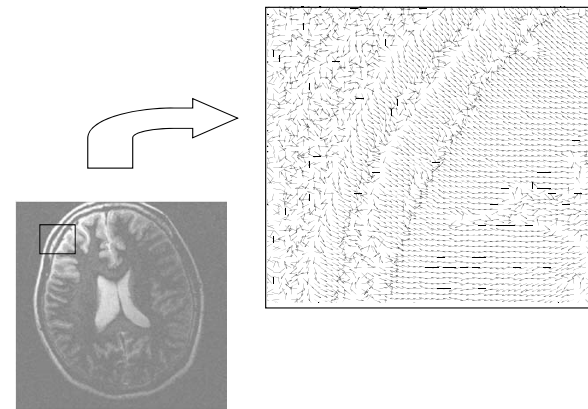
- selection of an initial seed
- selection of growth paths
- selection of growth criteria

Often empirical and results are unreliable due to noise, artifacts, image shading

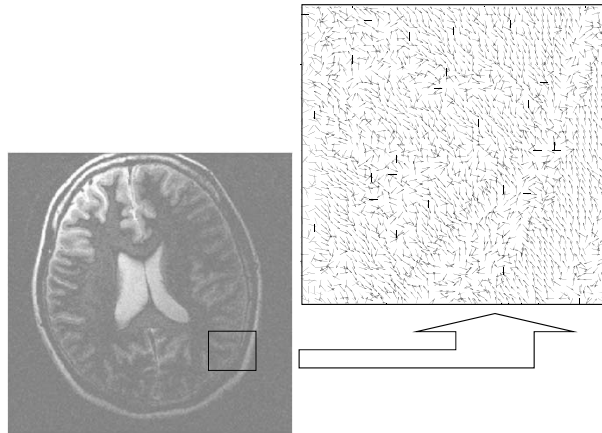
Noise and phase stability



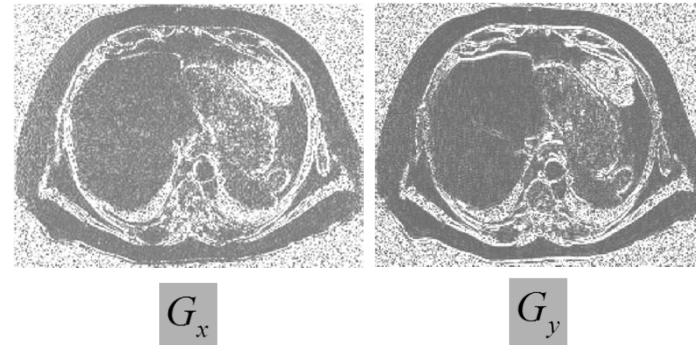
Noise and phase stability



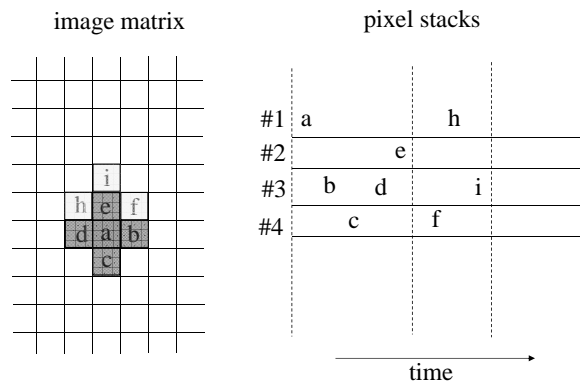
Noise and phase stability



Phase gradients

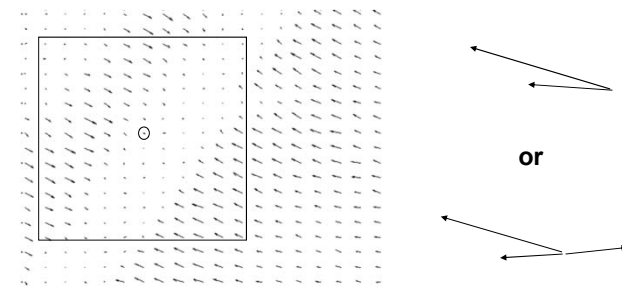


Region growing

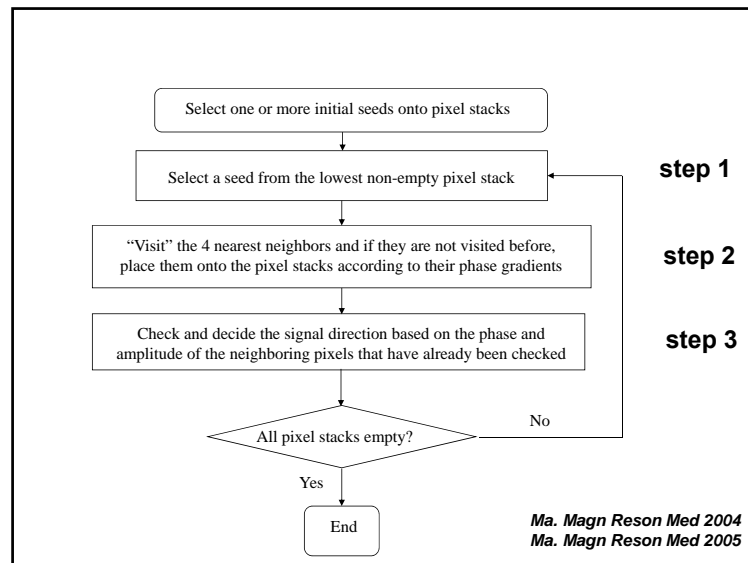


Ma. Magn Reson Med 2004

phase vector vs. phasor

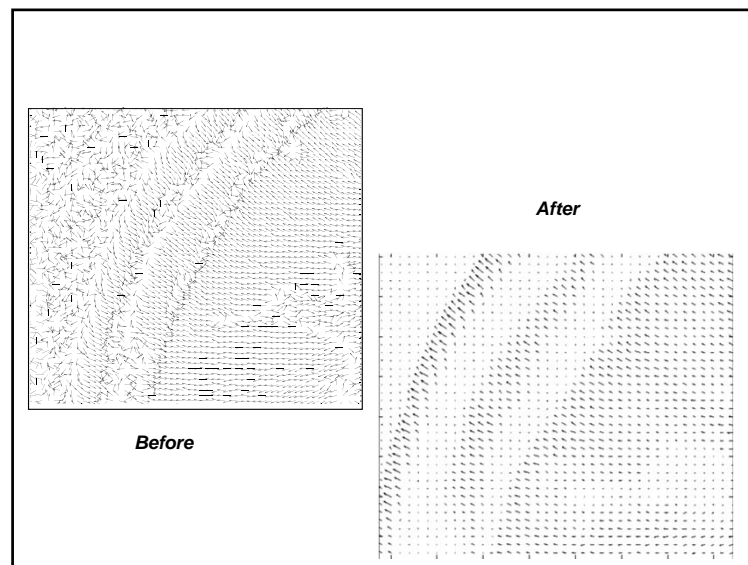


Information on both amplitude and phase is incorporated in phase vector



Region growing

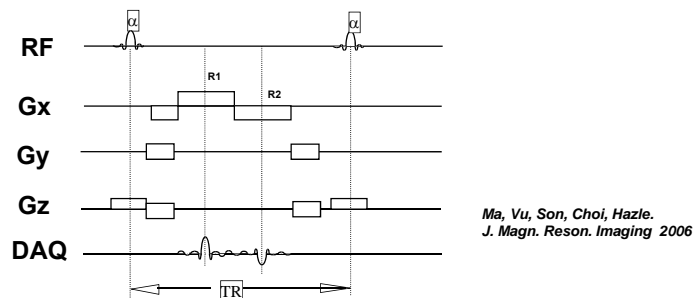
- “optimal” growth paths facilitated by phase gradients/pre-established pixel stacks
- the grown region can be viewed as islands surrounded by a sea of to-be-grown regions. As the water is drained, the islands grow in the order of the heights and eventually join together
- a “greedy solution” to the more general minimum spanning tree or traveling salesman problems



Advantages of 2-point Dixon

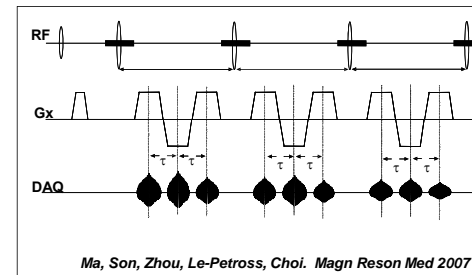
- At least 1/3 less acquisition time relative to a 3-point Dixon
 - less susceptibility to motion
 - less signal decay
- SNR can be optimal independent of water and fat ratio
- Other effects such as from eddy current can be taken care of

Dual echo acquisition



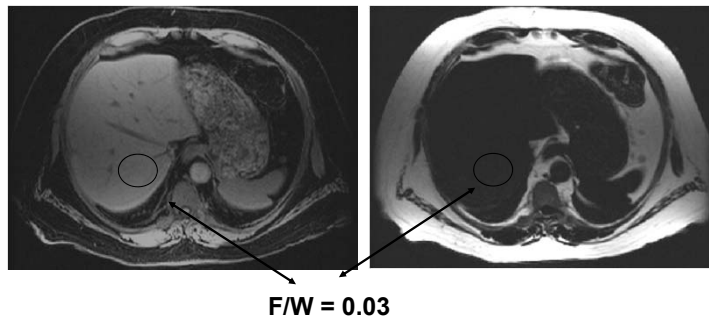
- dual echo acquisition substantially reduces the total scan time
- minimizes motion and other artefacts
- higher bandwidth improves image sharpness and chemical shift misregistration is always sub-voxel
- true steady state acquisition by removing intermittent prep pulses

Fast spin echo triple echo Dixon (FTED) sequence



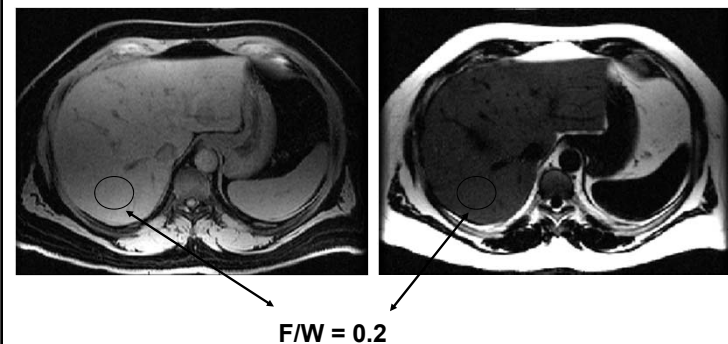
- maximum efficiency for fast spin echo acquisition
- minimal increase to echo spacing
- inter-echo phase errors can be dealt with independent of the sources and without any reference scan
- can be used for both T2 and T1-weighted imaging

Breath hold 2D gradient echo

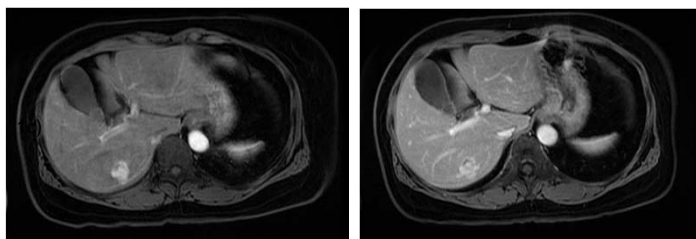


20 slices in 20 seconds without parallel imaging

patient with hepatic steatosis



^{1a)} **Contrast enhanced triphasic study with 3D**
^{1b)} **fast spoiled gradient echo dual echo Dixon**

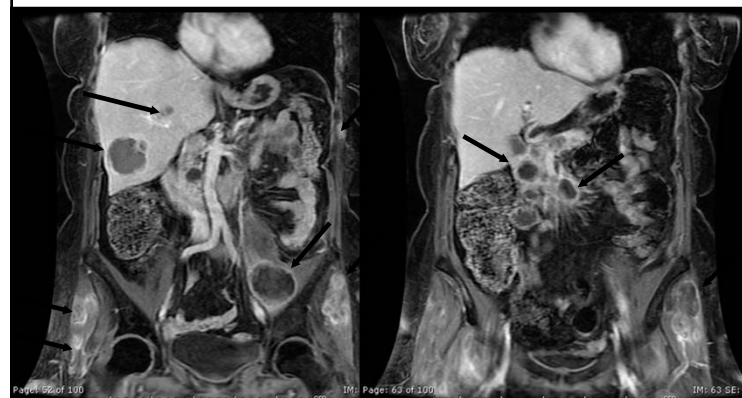


Arterial

Delayed

Courtesy Russell Low, MD, Sharp and Children's MRI Center

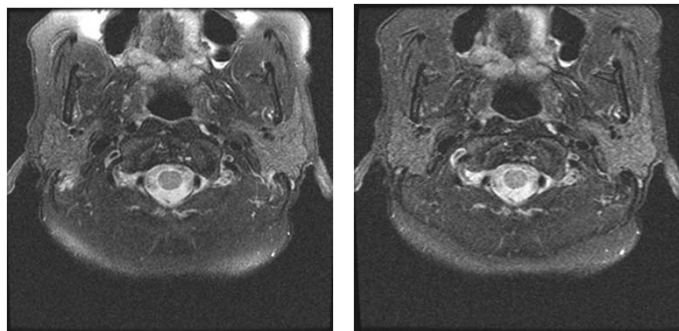
Large 3D volume imaging (breast cancer)



An entire abdomen-pelvis acquisition in less than 20 seconds

Courtesy Russell Low, MD, Sharp and Children's MRI Center

T2-weighted head and neck imaging

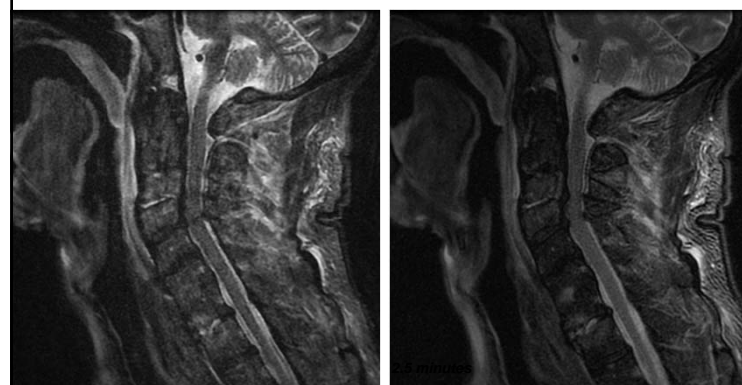


FatSat

Dixon

Ma, Jackson, Kumar, Ginsberg. AJNR 2009

T2-weighted C-Spine Trauma



IRFSE

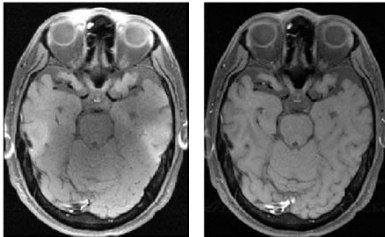
Dixon

Courtesy Russell Low, MD, Sharp and Children's MRI Center

Spin echo Dixon sequence

Existing T1-weighted sequence for head and neck imaging:

- severely degraded image quality (T1-contrast and fat suppression) at 3T



FatSat

Dixon

Dixon sequence:

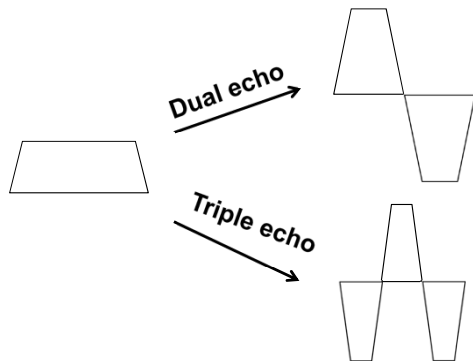
- substantially better contrast and overall image quality
- approximately 40% shorter scan time for identical scan parameters

Two-point Dixon with flexible echo times

- ***in-phase and opposed-phase images can be relaxed to somewhat arbitrary phases***
- ***complex fat spectrum can be included assuming fat spectrum is identical for different subjects and different anatomy***

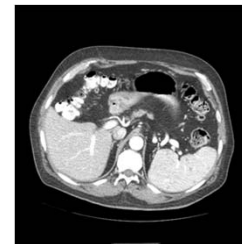
Xiang MRM, 2006
Eggers et al, MRM, 2011
Berglund et al MRM, 2011
Ma, ISMRM 2011

- ***increased flexibility and efficiency***
- ***more accurate water and fat decomposition***



Phase correction remains the underlying challenge

There is hope because a radiologist can tell fat before Dixon invented the Dixon technique, even on a CT image:



Summary

- *Fat suppression is widely used in clinical MRI and in different pulse sequences*
- *Many fat suppression techniques have been developed and continued to be developed*
- *they may all have their intrinsic pros and cons*
- *Further development of these techniques can substantially improve the current image quality, improve the scan efficiency, and enable new clinical applications in MRI*

Thank you for your attention.