

# Hyperpolarized Lithium-6 as a Sensor of Nanomolar Contrast Agents

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**Lithium is widely used in psychotherapy. The <sup>6</sup>Li isotope has a long intrinsic longitudinal relaxation time  $T_1$  on the order of minutes, making it an ideal candidate for hyperpolarization experiments. In the present study we demonstrated that lithium-6 can be readily hyperpolarized within 30 min, while retaining a long polarization decay time on the order of a minute. We used the intrinsically long relaxation time for the detection of 500 nM contrast agent in vitro. Hyperpolarized lithium-6 was administered to the rat and its signal retained a decay time on the order of 70 sec in vivo. Localization experiments imply that the lithium signal originated from within the brain and that it was detectable up to 5 min after administration. We conclude that the detection of submicromolar contrast agents using hyperpolarized NMR nuclei such as <sup>6</sup>Li may provide a novel avenue for molecular imaging. Magn Reson Med 61:1489–1493, 2009. © 2009 Wiley-Liss, Inc.**

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In clinical practice, lithium (Li) salts are used for the treatment of manic-depressive (bipolar) and depressive disorders (1,2). Once dissolved, lithium does not bind to any complexes and remains in its cationic form. It naturally exists as a mixture of two stable isotopes (3): lithium-6 (7.42%) and lithium-7 (92.58%). Because of its higher natural abundance, shorter relaxation times, and higher relative sensitivity, <sup>7</sup>Li NMR has been established as a noninvasive tool to study lithium pharmacokinetics and distribution in vivo (4,5). Given the interest in psychiatric treatment, most studies have focused on the brain.

The isotope <sup>6</sup>Li has a long longitudinal relaxation time  $T_1$  as well as a low gyromagnetic ratio and natural abundance, yielding a disadvantageously low sensitivity; hence, virtually no in vivo studies using <sup>6</sup>Li NMR have to date been reported. However, the long  $T_1$  of 170 sec in H<sub>2</sub>O at room temperature (6) and 1040 sec in D<sub>2</sub>O at 80°C (7) makes it a suitable candidate for hyperpolarization experiments.

Dynamic nuclear polarization (DNP) (8) has recently found renewed interest in the field of medical NMR and MRI due to the rapid dissolution from a solid-state polarized sample in the polarizer to a room-temperature injectable solution (9). Dissolution DNP has been reported to enhance the polarization (and thus signal strength) of nuclei such as <sup>13</sup>C by several orders of magnitude; however, once the sample is taken out of the polarizer this large polarization relaxes with the nuclei's intrinsic longitudinal relaxation time ( $T_1$ ). Given the limited time that the signal amplification is available, research using dissolution DNP has been limited to nuclei with long  $T_1$ , primarily the <sup>13</sup>C nuclei in carboxyl groups (-COOH) with  $T_1$  on the order of 20–60 sec, such as pyruvate (10), acetate (11), and bicarbonate (12).

While much of the research has focused on <sup>13</sup>C and its potential for metabolic studies, we have recently proposed that hyperpolarization NMR could be used for the detection of small concentrations of contrast agents (13). Because <sup>6</sup>Li has an intrinsic  $T_1$  that is several-fold longer than that of most <sup>13</sup>C nuclei, it could potentially provide enhanced signal much longer. This longer lasting of its signal can be combined with the principle that the relative effect of a contrast agent on a medium becomes more pronounced if the signal relaxes over a longer time. We have recently predicted that detection of contrast agent concentrations in the nanomolar range should be feasible, allowing novel avenues in molecular imaging.

Therefore, the aim of the present study was 3-fold: first, to establish the feasibility of dissolution DNP of <sup>6</sup>Li and to study the relaxation behavior of hyperpolarized <sup>6</sup>Li in the spectrometer. Second, to demonstrate that hyperpolarized <sup>6</sup>Li can detect contrast agent in the submicromolar concentration range. Third, to detect hyperpolarized <sup>6</sup>Li in the rat brain in vivo.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

For the hyperpolarization of <sup>6</sup>Li, a 15 M 95% isotopically enriched lithium-6 chloride (Icon Isotopes, Summit, NJ) in 33/67 vol% ethanol-d<sub>6</sub>/D<sub>2</sub>O (Cambridge Isotope Laborato-

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ries, Andover, MA) solution was prepared. 300  $\mu\text{L}$  (phantom) or 40  $\mu\text{L}$  (in vivo) of this solution was frozen in liquid nitrogen as beads. 33 mM of TEMPO (2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-1-piperidinyloxy, 98% purity, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) was added as polarizing agent. DNP of this sample and dissolution into 5 mL  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  was performed in a custom-built 3.35 T polarizer as previously described (11,14). Briefly, after microwave irradiation at 94 GHz (3.35 T) and  $T = 1.2$  K, superheated (180°C) high-pressure ( $\approx 12$  bar)  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  was blown over the sample into a combined phase separator and infusion pump placed in the bore of the 9.4 T/31 cm magnet with 12 cm i.d. high-performance gradients (400 mT/m in 130  $\mu\text{s}$ , Varian, Palo Alto, CA), positioned  $\approx 4$  m from the DNP polarizer. 2.5 mL of the sample with a final  $^6\text{Li}$  concentration of 900 mM (phantom) or 120 mM (in vivo) was then injected from the separator/infusion pump using a remote injection pump within  $\approx 9$  sec.

Signal acquisition typically started 18 sec after dissolution. A custom-built 4-loop 8 mm diameter surface coil was used for  $^6\text{Li}$  excitation and detection, with quadrature 14 mm  $^1\text{H}$  coils used for localized MRI and shimming with FASTMAP (15).

Lithium-6 has the potential to detect low concentrations of contrast agents as follows: since hyperpolarized media have a nonregenerating initial longitudinal magnetization that will decay with an intrinsic decay time  $\tau$ , a contrast agent will affect this magnetization with its longitudinal relaxivity  $r_1$  (in  $\text{mM}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ ), with an observed decay time  $\tau_{\text{obs}}$  expressed as  $1/\tau_{\text{obs}} = 1/\tau + r_1[\text{CA}]$ , where  $[\text{CA}]$  is the contrast agent concentration. As a consequence, while a contrast agent may not have generated much contrast between a compartment with it and one without it 1 sec after a first excitation (and acquisition), 10 sec later the difference in  $\tau$  between the compartments may generate significant signal difference. More formally, if the signal  $S$  of a hyperpolarized medium at a time  $t$  after dissolution is described by  $S = S_0 e^{-t/\tau}$ , where  $S_0$  is the starting signal, then the contrast  $C = S_A/S_B$  between two compartments A and B with the same starting signal can be expressed as:

$$C = \frac{e^{-t/\tau_{\text{obs}}}}{e^{-t/\tau}} = \frac{e^{-t[\text{CA}]r_1 - t/\tau}}{e^{-t/\tau}} = e^{-t[\text{CA}]r_1}. \quad [1]$$

As a demonstration, let us take for example a contrast agent with  $r_1 = 5 \text{ mM}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$  at a concentration of 500 nM, and wait  $t = 100$  sec, which should be feasible given the relaxation times of  $^6\text{Li}$ . The contrast generated after 100 sec according to Eq. [1] would be  $C = 0.78$ , which, given a high enough signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), should easily be discernible by NMR. Gd-DOTP had previously been shown to have a relaxivity  $r_1 = 11 \text{ mM}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$  for  $^6\text{Li}$  (13), which should create a notable effect on the lithium signal decay over 100 sec even when applied at concentrations below 1  $\mu\text{M}$ .

To test the ability to detect such low concentrations of Gd-DOTP, a phantom consisting of a block of Ertacetal (a magnetically neutral plastic, Angst+Pfister, Switzerland) with two  $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$  holes with a 0.5 mm thick bottom, separated by a 2 mm thick wall was used ( $n = 2$  experiments). The RF coil was placed directly under the separa-

tion wall. Both holes were filled with 1.5 mL  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$ , while one of them was doped with 500 nM Gd-DOTP (16) (Gd(III)-(1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7,10-tetra(methylenephosphonate)), Macrocylics, Dallas, TX). The signal of the two compartments was measured with 120 separately stored repetitions of a gradient-recalled sequence (3 ms  $10^\circ$  BIR-4 pulse, TR = 5 sec), resulting after fast Fourier transform (FFT) in 1D projections that consisted of 32 points (TE = 1043  $\mu\text{s}$ ). These projections were then zero-filled to 256 points, and the integral of the signal of each compartment was calculated. Curve fitting was done from  $t = 30$  to 300 sec in OriginPro (OriginLab, Northampton, MA) using an exponential decay function.

In vivo experiments were performed on male Sprague-Dawley rats ( $\approx 400$  g, Charles River Laboratories, France). All experiments were approved by the local ethics committee. Animals were anesthetized with 1.5% isoflurane in a 30%  $\text{O}_2/70\%$   $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  mixture and a femoral vein was catheterized for infusion of lithium. The rat was then inserted in the scanner, where physiology was monitored and kept stable: body temperature was kept at  $37.3 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ , while the respiration rate was maintained at  $60 \text{ min}^{-1}$  by adjustment of the isoflurane dose. Since the injected volume of 2.5 mL had an estimated lithium concentration of 120 mM, the dilution in an estimated blood volume of 30 mL resulted in a final blood concentration of LiCl in animals of  $\approx 10$  mM; above the chronic therapeutic dose of 0.6–1.2 mM (2), but still almost an order of magnitude below the acute  $\text{LD}_{50}$  of 75 mM (calculated from Ref. (17)).

The relaxation constant  $\tau$  was determined ( $n = 5$  experiments) from the signal decay measured with a  $10^\circ$  BIR-4 pulse (18) applied every 3 sec over 600 sec. Following 5 Hz line broadening, the peak area was determined and the  $n^{\text{th}}$  excitation was corrected for the magnetization decrease due to the previous repetitive excitations by dividing by  $\cos(10^\circ)^{n-1}$ . This correction did not account for in-flow into the sensitive volume, and as such provides an upper estimate of the in vivo relaxation time.

The  $^6\text{Li}$  distribution was imaged in four experiments with a gradient echo sequence (2 ms sinc pulse) with an echo time of 2 ms and a repetition time of 100 ms: a total of 32 sequential images were thus acquired in 51.2 sec. The matrix size was  $16 \times 16$  with a field of view of  $6 \times 6 \text{ cm}^2$  and a single slice of 1 cm thickness. Prior to FFT, images were zero-filled to  $128 \times 128$  and corrected for DC offset. Three  $10^\circ$  BIR-4 pulse-acquire experiments preceded the imaging to estimate the relative signal strength and decay of the hyperpolarized  $^6\text{Li}$ , thus the imaging started 25 sec after dissolution.

In two experiments localized spectroscopy was performed every 60 sec with outer volume suppression in three dimensions. A  $6 \times 8 \times 10 \text{ mm}^3$  voxel was placed in the top of the rat brain, as close to the detection coil as possible. A  $45^\circ$  BIR-4 pulse was used for excitation, while three pairs of hyperbolic secant pulses performed the outer volume suppression. Due to the longer time between pulses, no correction for the flip angle was made in this case, resulting in the technique providing a lowest estimate of the in vivo relaxation time.

## RESULTS

In the polarizer, the lithium-6 chloride sample polarized with a time constant of  $\approx 450$  sec, while the enhancement factor at 1.2 K in the 3.35 T cryostat was  $\approx 135$ , equivalent to  $\approx 7\%$  total polarization or an  $\approx 12,000$ -fold enhancement compared to room temperature polarization at 9.4 T. The sample was dissolved and transferred to the spectrometer in  $\approx 6$  sec.

We had previously proposed that  $^6\text{Li}$  relaxation may be exquisitely sensitive to certain negatively charged contrast agents (13). We therefore sought to demonstrate the principle in a two-compartment phantom experiment. These experiments ( $n = 2$ ) displayed the expected effect of the contrast agent (Fig. 1): the signal in the contrast agent-doped compartment decayed faster than that of the other compartment. The decay time  $\tau_{\text{pure}}$  of the compartment without the contrast agent was  $180 \pm 12$  s (and  $R^2 = 0.986$ ), while that of the compartment containing the contrast agent was  $\tau_{\text{CA}} = 100 \pm 4$  sec (and  $R^2 = 0.995$ ). From the expression for relaxivity ( $1/\tau_{\text{CA}} = 1/\tau_{\text{pure}} + [\text{CA}] \cdot r_1$ , see Eq. [1]) with  $r_1 = 11 \text{ mM}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ ; this resulted in  $[\text{CA}] = 440 \text{ nM}$ , consistent with the estimated concentration of 500 nM. Conversely, taking the signal difference 100 sec after normalizing the two decay curves and using Eq. [1], the calculated contrast agent concentration was  $400 \pm 20 \text{ nM}$ .

In the in vivo pulse-acquire experiments ( $n = 5$ ) the relaxation displayed an exponential decay with a decay time of  $\tau = 72 \pm 5$  sec (Fig. 2). The signal remained observable for over 3 min (Fig. 2a), despite repeated RF pulsing. The SNR was  $\approx 10$ -fold lower than in the phantom experiments, ascribed to as both a lower polarized sample volume and a lower average final concentration.

All four  $^6\text{Li}$  imaging experiments show a distribution of lithium signal with a maximum in the brain (Fig. 3). Prior to zero-filling the four high-intensity voxels were located inside the brain. Image intensity persisted through multiple images, with a  $\tau$  in the same range as the pulse-acquire experiments described above.

In two studies we measured the in vivo  $^6\text{Li}$  signal using localized spectroscopy to establish its presence in the

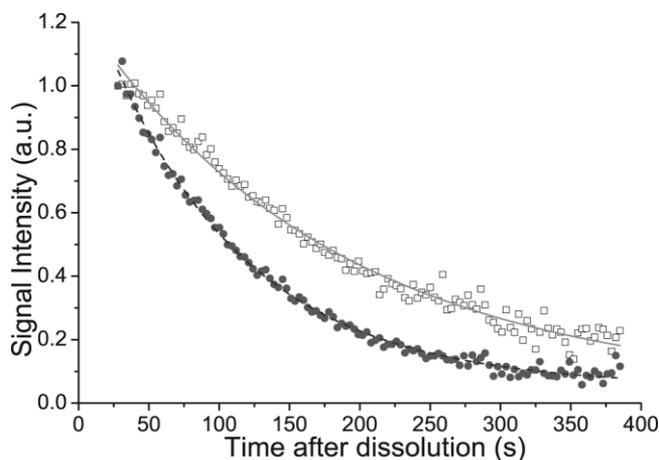


FIG. 1. Decay curves of a two-compartment phantom. Both curves were normalized to their first point. The compartment without contrast agent (upper curve) had a relaxation time of  $181 \pm 8$  sec, while the compartment with contrast agent decayed with  $T = 99 \pm 2$  sec.

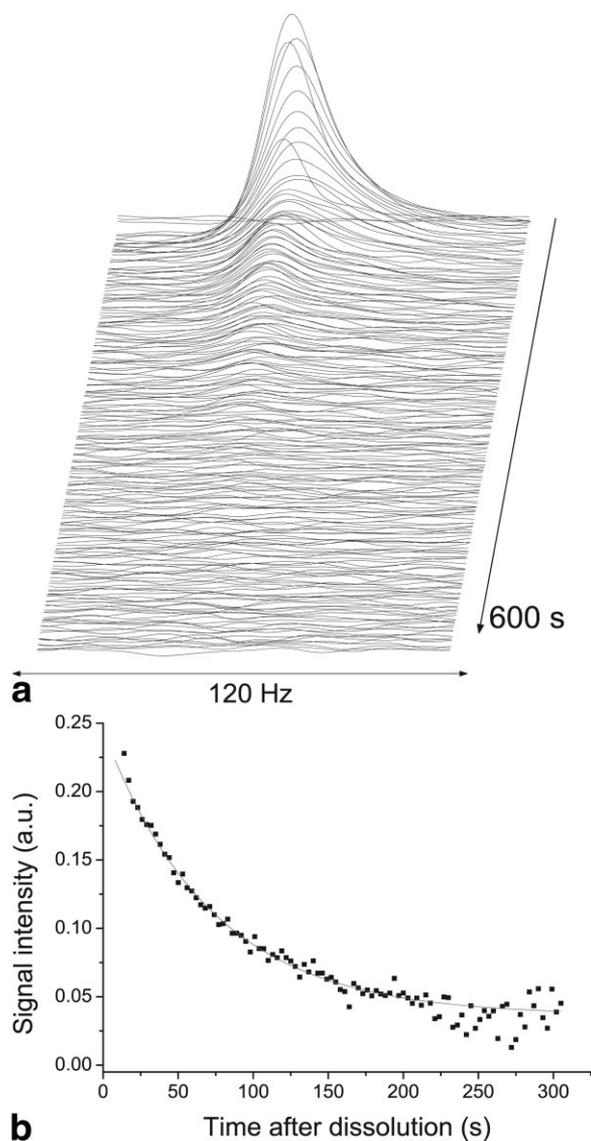


FIG. 2. **a:** Series of spectra of hyperpolarized lithium in the rat brain. Individual spectra were processed with 5 Hz line broadening. Signal is visible up to 300 sec after dissolution. **b:** Integrals of the same peaks in the rat head, corrected for the flip angle of the excitation pulse. The solid line is an exponential fit with a decay time of  $72 \pm 5$  sec.

brain (Fig. 4). The signal was still detected 5.5 min after dissolution, confirming a similar decay constant as the pulse-acquire studies (bottom trace in Fig. 4).

## DISCUSSION

The present study shows for the first time that lithium-6 can be readily hyperpolarized via dissolution DNP to a total polarization of 7% in  $\approx 30$  min. We furthermore demonstrated a unique sensitivity to contrast agents in the submicromolar range and the injection and detection of hyperpolarized  $^6\text{Li}$  in the live rat brain.

The polarization decay appeared to be influenced by the presence of the TEMPO radical, which itself acts as a

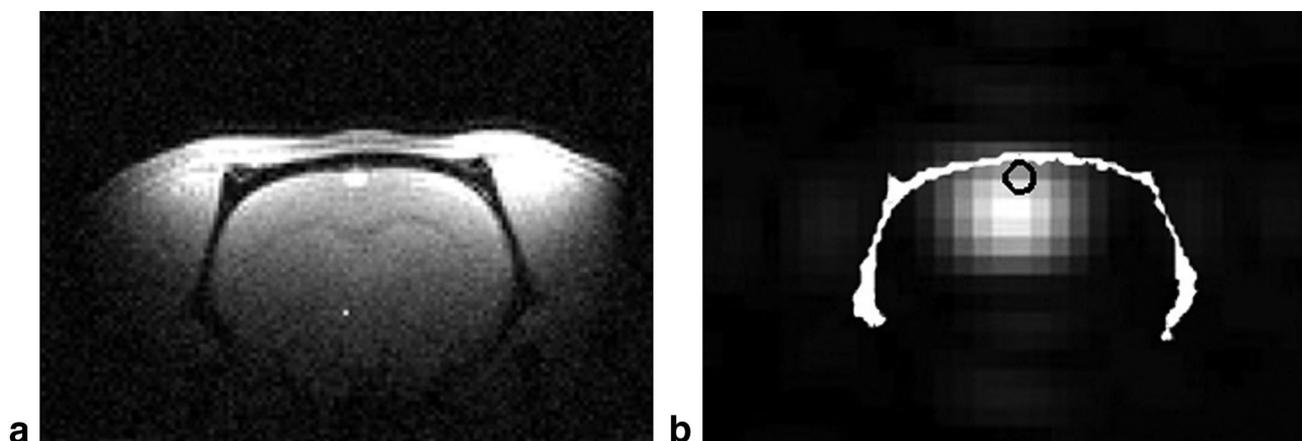


FIG. 3. **a**: Gradient echo axial scout image of the brain. The dorsal sagittal vein can be seen in the top of the brain as a bright spot. **b**: Lithium image with the skull from the proton image projected on top of it in white, and the dorsal sagittal vein as a black circle. The lithium signal is clearly located in the brain. Note that the distribution of the lithium signal was limited by the sensitive radius of the circular surface coil of 8 mm.

contrast agent. The more diluted in  $D_2O$  the sample is (and thus the lower the  ${}^6Li$  and TEMPO concentrations), the longer its  $T_1$ : 1040 sec in pure  $D_2O$  and 179 sec in the two-compartment phantom (i.e.,  $D_2O$  with TEMPO).

To test whether  ${}^6Li$  can detect contrast agents in the submicromolar range we demonstrated the effect of 500 nM Gd-DOTP. The detection limit, however, can be lowered substantially compared to what we demonstrated in this study: assume for example that sensitivity is such that 10% signal difference due to Gd-DOTP can be detected, which is equivalent to setting  $C = 0.9$  in Eq. [1]. The consequent calculation results in a detectable contrast agent concentration [CA] of 10 nM after 100 sec, and 5 nM after 200 sec. We noted that the  ${}^6Li$  signal was still detected 200 sec after dissolution even in the pres-

ence of 500 nM GdDOTP. Designing even more powerful contrast agents is likely to push the detection limit into the picomolar range, which opens novel perspectives for molecular imaging.

Our studies, both by imaging and localized spectroscopy, suggest a localization of  ${}^6Li$  to the brain. However, it is in principle possible that the signal remained confined to the vascular compartment. The images, however, suggest a predominantly cerebral localization of  ${}^6Li$ , in particular considering that the maximum signal does not colocalize with major blood vessels. Although lithium uptake into the brain is considered slow, it is of interest to note that all studies measuring lithium uptake show a sizeable fraction of their maximum lithium signal in the first measurement within minutes (5,19,20). Our present study suggests that a sufficient fraction of lithium enters the brain over the time of  ${}^6Li$  hyperpolarization, i.e., 3–5 min. It is in principle possible to enhance the transient uptake of lithium in the brain by transiently opening the blood–brain barrier using, e.g., mannitol. In a parallel manner, hyperpolarized  ${}^6Li$  might be applied to detect cerebral tumors that disrupt the blood–brain barrier.

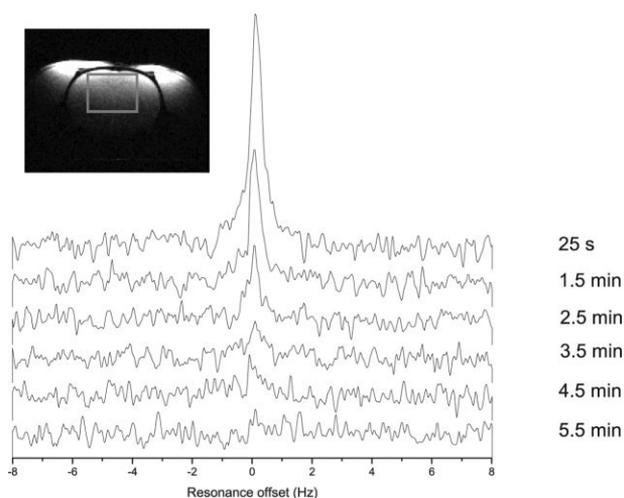


FIG. 4. Lithium-6 spectrum localized in the brain, acquired 25 sec after dissolution (top trace). The spectra below were acquired every 60 sec after it. The time after dissolution is mentioned to the right of each trace. After 5.5 min, a signal is still visible (bottom trace). Processing consisted of zero-filling and apodization by 5 Hz prior to FFT. The location of the voxel is indicated in the inset proton image.

## CONCLUSIONS

We conclude that  ${}^6Li$  can 1) be hyperpolarized, 2) that it can be used to detect very low contrast agent concentrations, and 3) that it can be administered in vivo, upon which it enters the brain in sufficient concentrations to be detected with localized spectroscopy.

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