

Detection of skeletal muscle perfusion differences with DCE-MRI: contrast agent and pharmacokinetic model

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Introduction

The introduction of neovascularization therapies in patients with peripheral arterial disease requires functional monitoring of vascular responses.¹ DCE-MRI combined with pharmacokinetic modeling is a promising technique to obtain information on and tissue perfusion and microvasculature.^{2,3} However, further optimization of the technique is needed to enable detection of subtle functional vascular responses. Simulation studies show that medium-sized contrast agents such as Gadomer (apparent molecular weight 32 kDa⁴) provide more reliable pharmacokinetic parameter estimation⁵ and might therefore be a better choice than small contrast agents such as Gd-DTPA (molecular weight 0.5 kDa).

In this study we investigated whether Gadomer is superior in detecting (patho-) physiological perfusion differences. For both contrast agents, the pharmacokinetic model optimally describing the data was chosen among three two-compartment models.

Methods

Animal model: Eight New Zealand White rabbits underwent ligation of the right femoral artery. At days 14 and 21 post ligation an MRI examination was performed on a clinical 3.0 Tesla MR system with a 5-element phased-array cardiac coil. The animals were intubated and ventilated with 2 – 3 % isoflurane in oxygen. Each animal was administered a different contrast agent (Gadomer 0.1 mmol/kg or Gd-DTPA 0.15 mmol/kg) on either day.

MRI: The DCE-MRI protocol was adjusted to the temporal requirements of each contrast agent, resulting in a higher spatial resolution for Gadomer, at the cost of temporal resolution (table 1).

Image analysis: Regions of interests were drawn in the soleus (red) and tibialis (white) muscle in both the control and ischemic hind limb. Signal curves were converted to tissue concentration time curves (C_t), using a linear approximation. Three two-compartment tracer kinetic models were used to fit the C_t . For all models a fixed biexponential plasma concentration time curve (C_p), as measured from blood samples in a previous study⁵, was used as arterial input function. The extended generalized kinetic model⁶ described the data in terms of the transfer constant K^{trans} , fractional interstitial space v_e , and fractional blood plasma space v_p :

$$C_t(t) = v_p C_p + K^{trans} \int_0^t C_p(u) \cdot e^{-\frac{K^{trans}}{v_e}(t-u)} du$$

This model can be simplified to 2 two-parameter models. In the original generalized kinetic model⁷ (GKM) the contribution of v_p is ignored, and in the Patlak model⁸ reflux is neglected (i.e. $K^{trans}/v_e = 0$).

For each model the mean fit error (FE) was calculated:

$$FE = 100\% \cdot \sqrt{\sum (C_{t,fit} - C_t)^2 / \sum C_t^2}$$

Fit errors of the different models were tested to define the most appropriate model. Paired Student's t-tests were used to test the differences between red and white, and ischemic and control muscle tissue for K^{trans} estimated with the optimal model.

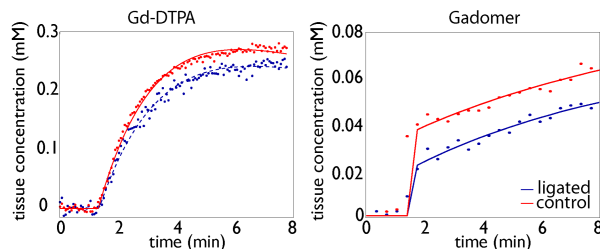


Figure 1: Tissue concentration time curves for Gd-DTPA (left) and Gadomer (right) in the tibialis of the ligated (blue) and control limb (white)

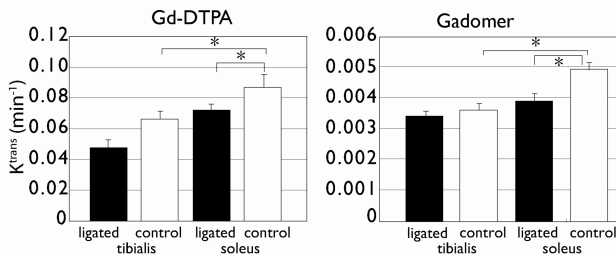


Figure 2: K^{trans} for Gd-DTPA (left) and Gadomer (right) in the tibialis and soleus of the ligated (black) and control limb (white)

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Table 1: DCE-MRI Acquisition parameters

	Gadomer	Gd-DTPA
Matrix	304 × 304 × 60	128 × 128 × 30
Voxel size (mm ³)	0.8 × 0.7 × 1.3	2.0 × 1.6 × 2.5
Repetition time (ms)	7.7	6.1
Echo time (ms)	2.0	1.0
Flip angle (°)	20	20
Acquisition time per phase (s)	22.3	3.9
Number of dynamic phases	60	220

Table 2: Pharmacokinetic parameters and fit errors (mean ± standard error in the tibial muscle of the control limb for three models.

GKM: Generalized kinetic model

		Gadomer	Gd-DTPA
GKM	K^{trans} (10 ⁻³ min ⁻¹)	5.3 ± 0.3	65.7 ± 5.1
	v_e (%)	17.2 ± 1.6	12.1 ± 0.5
	fit error (%)	12.3 ± 0.5	6.3 ± 1.2
Patlak	K^{trans} (10 ⁻³ min ⁻¹)	3.6 ± 0.2	24.4 ± 0.9
	v_p (%)	0.9 ± 0.1	2.4 ± 0.3
	fit error (%)	5.0 ± 0.6	11.1 ± 0.6
GKM extended	K^{trans} (10 ⁻³ min ⁻¹)	3.8 ± 0.2	50.4 ± 3.2
	v_e (%)	76.0 ± 8.9	12.3 ± 0.5
	v_p (%)	0.9 ± 0.1	1.1 ± 0.3
	fit error (%)	5.3 ± 0.7	4.7 ± 0.6

Results

For Gadomer the Patlak model was the best two-parameter model ($p < 0.001$), whereas for Gd-DTPA the GKM gave the smallest fit errors ($p < 0.001$). Adding a third parameter, resulting in the extended GKM, gave no significant improvement for either contrast agent. For both Gd-DTPA and Gadomer, K^{trans} was significantly higher in the tibialis compared to the soleus muscle. The difference between ischemic and control soleus muscle tissue was also significant ($p < 0.05$). In the tibialis the same trend was observed, but the differences were not significant ($p = 0.05$ and $p = 0.07$ for Gd-DTPA and Gadomer, respectively). Image quality was equal for both contrast agents ($SNR_{Gadomer} = 35 \pm 3.1$; $SNR_{Gd-DTPA} = 37 \pm 2.7$).

Conclusion

For optimal estimation of K^{trans} in skeletal muscle tissue, the pharmacokinetic model used should be adapted to the pharmacokinetic properties of the contrast agent. Apart from K^{trans} , the model should include v_e for rapidly extravasating contrast agents such as Gd-DTPA and v_p for larger agents such as Gadomer. Gadomer is equally successful in detecting physiological and pathophysiological perfusion differences as Gd-DTPA at a higher spatial resolution with equal image quality.

References

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[8] Patlak et al., J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 1983; 3:1-7