

# Simultaneous Multislice Imaging for Native Myocardial $T_1$ Mapping: Improved Spatial Coverage in a Single Breath-Hold

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**Purpose:** To develop a saturation recovery myocardial  $T_1$  mapping method for the simultaneous multislice acquisition of three slices.

**Methods:** Saturation pulse-prepared heart rate independent inversion recovery (SAPPHIRE)  $T_1$  mapping was implemented with simultaneous multislice imaging using FLASH readouts for faster coverage of the myocardium. Controlled aliasing in parallel imaging (CAPI) was used to achieve minimal noise amplification in three slices. Multiband reconstruction was performed using three linear reconstruction methods: Slice- and in-plane GRAPPA, CG-SENSE, and Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE. Accuracy, spatial variability, and interslice leakage were compared with single-band  $T_1$  mapping in a phantom and in six healthy subjects.

**Results:** Multiband phantom  $T_1$  times showed good agreement with single-band  $T_1$  mapping for all three reconstruction methods (normalized root mean square error <1.0%). The increase in spatial variability compared with single-band imaging was lowest for GRAPPA (1.29-fold), with higher penalties for Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE (1.47-fold) and CG-SENSE (1.52-fold). In vivo multiband  $T_1$  times showed no significant difference compared with single-band ( $T_1$  time  $\pm$  intersegmental variability: single-band, 1580  $\pm$  119 ms; GRAPPA, 1572  $\pm$  145 ms; CG-SENSE, 1579  $\pm$  159 ms; Tikhonov, 1586  $\pm$  150 ms [analysis of variance;  $P = 0.86$ ]). Interslice leakage was smallest for GRAPPA (5.4%) and higher for CG-SENSE (6.2%) and Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE (7.9%).

**Conclusion:** Multiband accelerated myocardial  $T_1$  mapping demonstrated the potential for single-breath-hold  $T_1$  quantification in 16 American Heart Association segments over three

slices. A 1.2- to 1.4-fold higher in vivo spatial variability was observed, where GRAPPA-based reconstruction showed the highest homogeneity and the least interslice leakage. **Magn Reson Med 000:000–000, 2017. © 2017 International Society for Magnetic Resonance in Medicine.**

**Key words:** myocardial  $T_1$  mapping; simultaneous multislice imaging; multiband; saturation recovery; SAPPHIRE

## INTRODUCTION

Quantitative imaging of the heart using MRI has recently emerged to a major focus area within the cardiac MRI community. The quantification of various relaxation parameters [ $T_1$  (1,2),  $T_{1\rho}$  (3,4),  $T_2$  (5–7),  $T_2^*$  (8,9)] has revealed clinical sensitivity to a wide range of ischemic and non-ischemic cardiomyopathies (10–12). In particular, the spatially resolved assessment of the longitudinal relaxation time  $T_1$  (referred to as  $T_1$  mapping) shows promising potential to enhance quality of cardiac MRI for prognosis and diagnosis of cardiomyopathies (13).

Parameter maps of the myocardium are commonly obtained from a series of single-shot images with different contrast weightings, all of which are acquired during a single breath-hold. Three-slice coverage in short axis orientation is recommended for evaluation because it captures the heterogeneity across the left ventricle better than single-slice acquisitions (14). Conventional myocardial  $T_1$  mapping methods acquire only a single slice per breath-hold, necessitating rest periods between subsequent breath-holds, leading to patient discomfort and long scan times. Furthermore, repeated breath-holds may compromise image registration (15–18).

Free-breathing  $T_1$  mapping methods have been proposed to improve patient comfort and enable increased spatial resolution or coverage. In these techniques, respiratory motion compensation may be performed via prospective triggering (19) or gating based on diaphragmatic image navigators (20–22), retrospective self-gating (23,24), or prospective slice tracking (25). However, respiratory gating and triggering lead to increased scan times, whereas tracking potentially induces blurring in the presence of heavy breathing. Consequently, a fast single breath-hold acquisition is the preferred approach.

Image acceleration techniques, such as parallel imaging, are frequently used in breath-held myocardial  $T_1$

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Grant sponsor: National Institutes of Health; Grant numbers: R00HL111410, P41EB015894.

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Sebastian Weingärtner and Mehmet Akçakaya are inventors of a pending US and European patent entitled “Methods for scar imaging in patients with arrhythmia” that describes the SAPPHIRE imaging sequence.

Received 14 December 2016; revised 10 April 2017; accepted 6 May 2017  
DOI 10.1002/mrm.26770

Published online 00 Month 2017 in Wiley Online Library (wileyonlinelibrary.com).

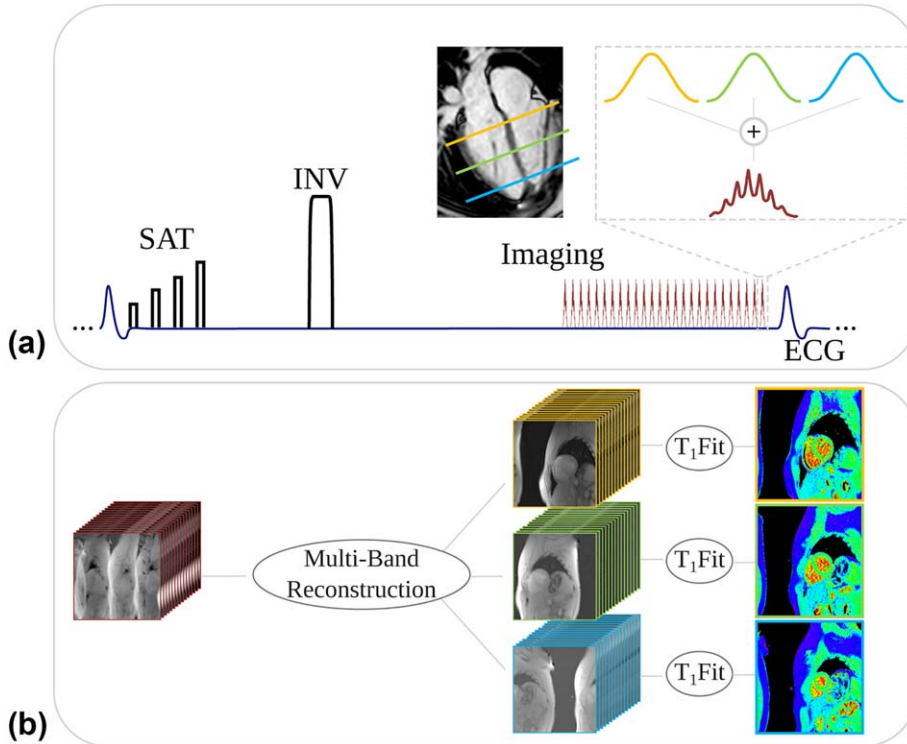


FIG. 1. (a) Schematic description of the MB  $T_1$  mapping sequence. (b) Reconstruction pipeline. A SAPPHIRE sequence with combined saturation/inversion recovery preparation is combined with a FLASH imaging readout. The MB excitation pulses are obtained as the sum of three sinc SB excitations at different frequency bands. Image reconstruction is performed to unalias the MB slices and the in-plane under-sampling, with subsequent phase-sensitive fitting of the saturation/inversion recovery curve to obtain quantitative  $T_1$  maps.

mapping to provide sufficient spatial resolution in the single-shot acquisitions during the brief diastolic quiescence (14). Compressed sensing has also been used to improve spatial resolution in  $T_1$  mapping in a single breath-hold (26,27). However, these approaches, as commonly used, do not affect the coverage or the total acquisition time and thus do not change the breath-hold duration.

Simultaneous multislice (SMS) or multiband (MB) imaging is an alternative acceleration technique for acquiring multiple slices simultaneously (28), where the only SNR reduction compared with single-slice imaging is due to coil geometry (29). In MB imaging, the simultaneous excitation of multiple slices is achieved by playing an excitation pulse, which is obtained as the sum of pulses at different resonance frequencies, corresponding to different slice locations (30). To decrease the noise amplification from unaliasing, better encoding has been proposed with controlled aliasing in volumetric parallel imaging (CAIPIRINHA) (29). Here, cyclic phase shifts, or equivalently a sheared undersampling pattern, is used to induce a shifted object position benefitting 3D and 2D SMS unaliasing (31).

MB imaging has become a popular tool in neurological applications (32); however, its use in cardiac applications has been limited, due to unfavorable coil geometries used in body imaging. MB imaging has been used in myocardial perfusion imaging with a 2-fold MB and 2.5-fold in-plane acceleration (33), as well as 3- to 5-fold MB and no in-plane acceleration (34). Cardiac cine imaging with 2-fold MB and 3-fold in-plane acceleration at 3T (35) and with 2- to 3-fold MB and 2- to 4-fold in-plane acceleration at 7T (36) have also been investigated. However, its effect on myocardial MR parameter quantification and precision has not been explored.

In this study, we sought to evaluate the potential of MB imaging to accelerate myocardial  $T_1$  mapping and to enable 16-segment quantification in a single breath-hold. A saturation pulse-prepared heart rate independent inversion recovery (SAPPHIRE) sequence with CAIPIRINHA-MB accelerated FLASH imaging was proposed for the simultaneous acquisition of three slices.  $T_1$  time accuracy and precision were compared with conventional single-band (SB) SAPPHIRE imaging in phantom scans. In vivo results were presented for native  $T_1$  mapping in healthy subjects.

## METHODS

### Sequence

Figure 1a depicts the schematic of the proposed pulse sequence. Combined sinc excitation pulses (bandwidth time product = 2.0; pulse duration = 1.0 ms) at three frequencies were employed for MB excitation in the FLASH imaging readout of a SAPPHIRE (37) sequence, using hybrid saturation/inversion preparation for  $T_1$  sensitization. Fifteen images with different inversion times were acquired during a single breath-hold. All inversion times are confined to a single heartbeat, resulting in an acquisition over 15 heartbeats. The inversion times are linearly distributed between the minimal inversion time (185 ms in this study) and the maximum inversion time, determined by the start of the diastolic phase. For phantom imaging, the maximum inversion time was selected as 760 ms, corresponding to a heart rate of 60 beats per minute. Pulse phases of the three base excitation pulses were cycled with a phase increment of  $2\pi/3$  from slice to slice to achieve a field of view (FOV) shift of  $1/3$  in the images between adjacent slices. Additionally, a constant slice-specific phase shift was added to each individual pulse

phase, previously optimized to minimize peak  $B_1^*$  amplitude to reduce SAR burden of the sequence (38,39).

All MB and SB  $T_1$  mapping were performed at 3T with a single-shot electrocardiography (ECG)-triggered FLASH sequence with the following imaging parameters: uniform in-plane undersampling = 2; FOV =  $320 \times 320$  mm<sup>2</sup>; spatial resolution =  $2.0 \times 2.1$  mm<sup>2</sup>; slice thickness = 10 mm; slice gap = 10 mm; partial Fourier = 6/8; number of phase-encode lines = 69; repetition time = 4.0 ms; echo time = 2.0 ms; flip angle = 10°; bandwidth = 505 Hz/pixel; linear k-space ordering; inversion pulse: tan/tanh adiabatic full passage, 2.56 ms (40); saturation pulse: four compartment Water Suppression Enhanced through  $T_1$  effect (WET) module (41). 24 reference lines were acquired in the k-space center for each image.

To enable the reconstructions for slice unaliasing, a 1-second reference scan was used to acquire low-resolution images of three slices, during free-breathing and without ECG-gating (FOV =  $320 \times 320$  mm<sup>2</sup>; spatial resolution =  $2 \times 5$  mm<sup>2</sup>; slice thickness = 10 mm, repetition time = 3.6 ms; echo time = 1.8 ms; flip angle = 10°; bandwidth = 500 Hz/pixel). For comparison, an additional three-heartbeat reference scan with the same parameters was also acquired with end-diastolic ECG triggering and breath-holding.

### Reconstruction

The acquired raw data with MB aliasing and in-plane acceleration were exported from the scanner, and the  $T_1$ -weighted images were reconstructed offline in MATLAB (MathWorks, Natick, Massachusetts, USA) using three different linear reconstruction approaches:

1. Multislice unaliasing performed using slice-GRAPPA (42), followed by in-plane GRAPPA (43), whose kernels were calibrated from the low resolution reference scan, with (5,5) and (4,5) kernel sizes, respectively. The final images were generated using a coil sensitivity-weighted combination of the individual coil images.
2. CG-SENSE (44) reconstruction for slice and in-plane unaliasing. CG-SENSE was used instead of SENSE to use the signal from the fully sampled MB-encoded k-space center. Coil sensitivity maps for each band and each coil were generated from the reference scan.
3. CG-SENSE reconstruction with additional Tikhonov regularization (45). A separate sub-study, detailed in Supporting Information S1 and Supporting Figure S1, was performed to empirically optimize the Tikhonov regularization parameter as 0.05.

For each of the three methods, following the MB slice and in-plane unaliasing, phase-sensitive fitting, as proposed for inversion recovery  $T_1$  mapping (15) was performed on the final  $T_1$ -weighted images to obtain  $T_1$  maps (Fig. 1b).

### Phantom Imaging

All imaging was performed using a 3T Siemens Magnetom Prisma (Siemens Healthcare, Erlangen, Germany) system with a 30-channel receiver coil array.

Phantom imaging for  $T_1$  quantification accuracy and precision was performed using SB and MB SAPPHERE in a cylindrical phantom containing multiple spherical compartments of gadolinium or sucrose-doped agarose gel, with  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  times in the in vivo range [ $T_1 = 200$ –2500 ms;  $T_2 = 50$ –250 ms (46)]. All scans were performed with 10 repetitions to allow assessment of noise-dependent variation.

### In Vivo Imaging

The study was approved by our institutional review board, and written informed consent was acquired before each examination. Imaging was performed in six healthy subjects (three men and three women; mean age,  $36 \pm 16$  years) with no contraindications to MRI. Native  $T_1$  maps were acquired using conventional SB and the proposed MB SAPPHERE in these short-axis slices. Conventional SB SAPPHERE was performed in three breath-holds for coverage of the three slices. MB SAPPHERE images of matching slices were acquired in a single breath-hold. Free-breathing and breath-hold calibration scans were acquired before the MB acquisition.

### Data Analysis

Phantom accuracy was defined as the deviation of the average  $T_1$  time within manually drawn regions of interest (ROIs), averaged over all repetitions. Spatial variability was assessed as the standard deviation across the ROI in the homogenous phantom vials, averaged over all repetitions.

Leakage analysis was performed using the respective MB reconstruction on spatially shifted SB acquisitions (31). The three slices from the SB acquisitions, corresponding to no saturation preparation, were shifted to match the FOV shifts of the MB acquisition. Then, each of these shifted slices were run through the three separate reconstruction algorithms, using the kernels/coil sensitivity maps as generated from the respective reference scans. Ideally, this leads to only the original input slice being reconstructed, with no signal content in the other two slices. Thus, the leakage was defined as the resulting residual signal in the two non-input slices. This was repeated for the other two shifted SB slices. Using the linearity of the reconstructions, the total leakage in each slice was generated by addition of the leakages from the three shifted SB slices as inputs.

In vivo  $T_1$  and leakage maps were evaluated in manually drawn ROIs, delineating the endo- and epicardial contours while carefully avoiding areas of partial volume. Quantitative comparison of the  $T_1$  times and  $T_1$  time spatial variability was performed according to the American Heart Association (AHA) 16-segment model (47). In vivo  $T_1$  time spatial variability was defined as the inter-segment variation.

Statistical differences in the  $T_1$  times, and interslice leakage were assessed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with subsequent paired Student  $t$  tests. Kruskal-Wallis group analysis and Wilcoxon signed rank tests were used to statistically compare the spatial variability of  $T_1$  times.  $P$  values < 0.05 were considered to be significant for group tests, and Bonferroni correction was

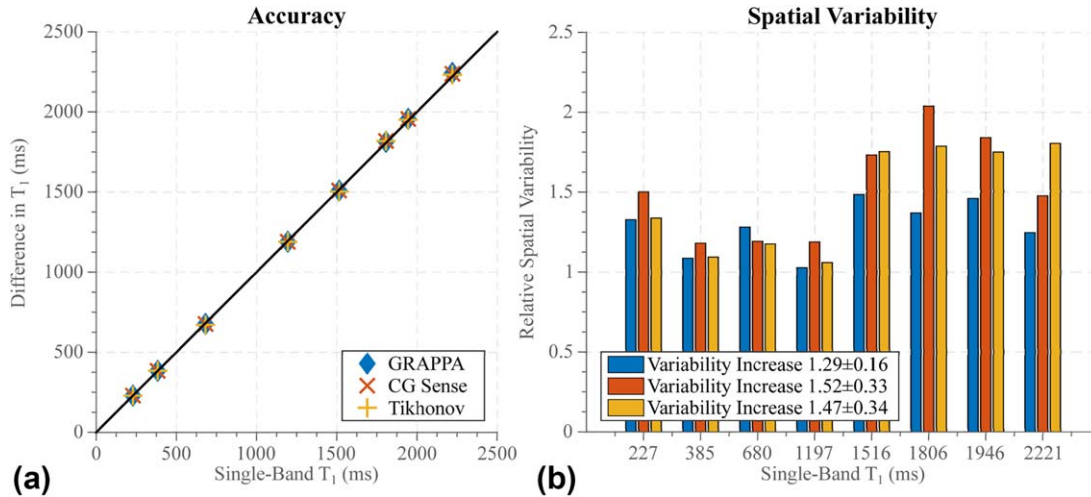


FIG. 2. Phantom results depicting the accuracy (a) and spatial variability (b) of the proposed technique in comparison with conventional SB imaging for three different linear reconstruction methods. The MB  $T_1$  times show good agreement with the SB acquisition. A 1.3- to 1.5-fold increase of noise variability is shown with the different MB reconstruction techniques compared with SB imaging.

applied for pairwise tests with significance levels of 0.0083 for  $T_1$  time and spatial variability comparison (six tests) and 0.017 for leakage analysis (three tests).

## RESULTS

### Phantom Imaging

Figure 2 depicts the results of phantom imaging, showing good agreement between SB  $T_1$  mapping and all MB reconstruction methods, with minor differences between the three reconstruction techniques (normalized root mean square error: GRAPPA, 0.62%; CG-SENSE, 0.66%;

Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE, 0.59%). Spatial variability in the homogeneous  $T_1$  phantom shows the highest increase for the nonregularized CG-SENSE reconstruction and only minor changes for GRAPPA (variability relative to single-band  $T_1$  mapping: GRAPPA,  $1.29 \pm 0.16$ ; CG-SENSE,  $1.52 \pm 0.33$ ; Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE,  $1.47 \pm 0.34$ ).

### In Vivo Imaging

Figure 3 shows representative  $T_1$  maps acquired in two subjects with SB and MB SAPPHERE, using the free-breathing calibration scan. All volunteer scans are shown

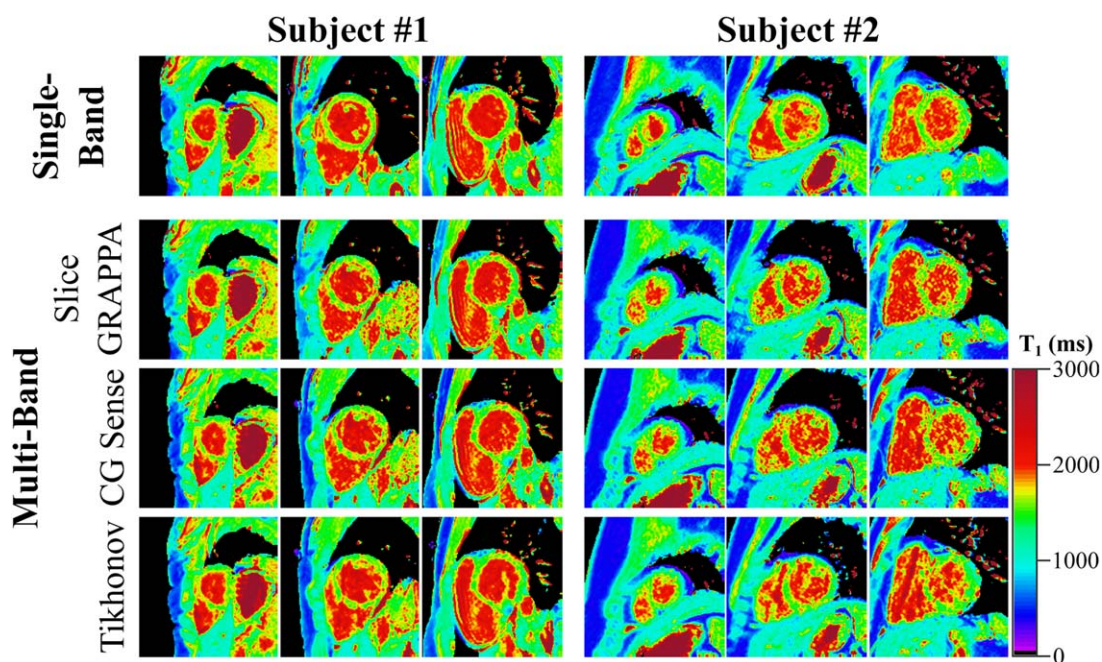


FIG. 3. Representative  $T_1$  maps from two subjects, comparing an MB acquisition with various linear reconstructions with conventional SB  $T_1$  mapping. Increased heterogeneity of the  $T_1$  times is observed using conventional CG-SENSE, compared with SB  $T_1$  mapping. GRAPPA and Tikhonov-regularized MB imaging achieves image quality that is visually comparable to SB imaging, although Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE displayed increased interslice leakage, as apparent in subject #1.

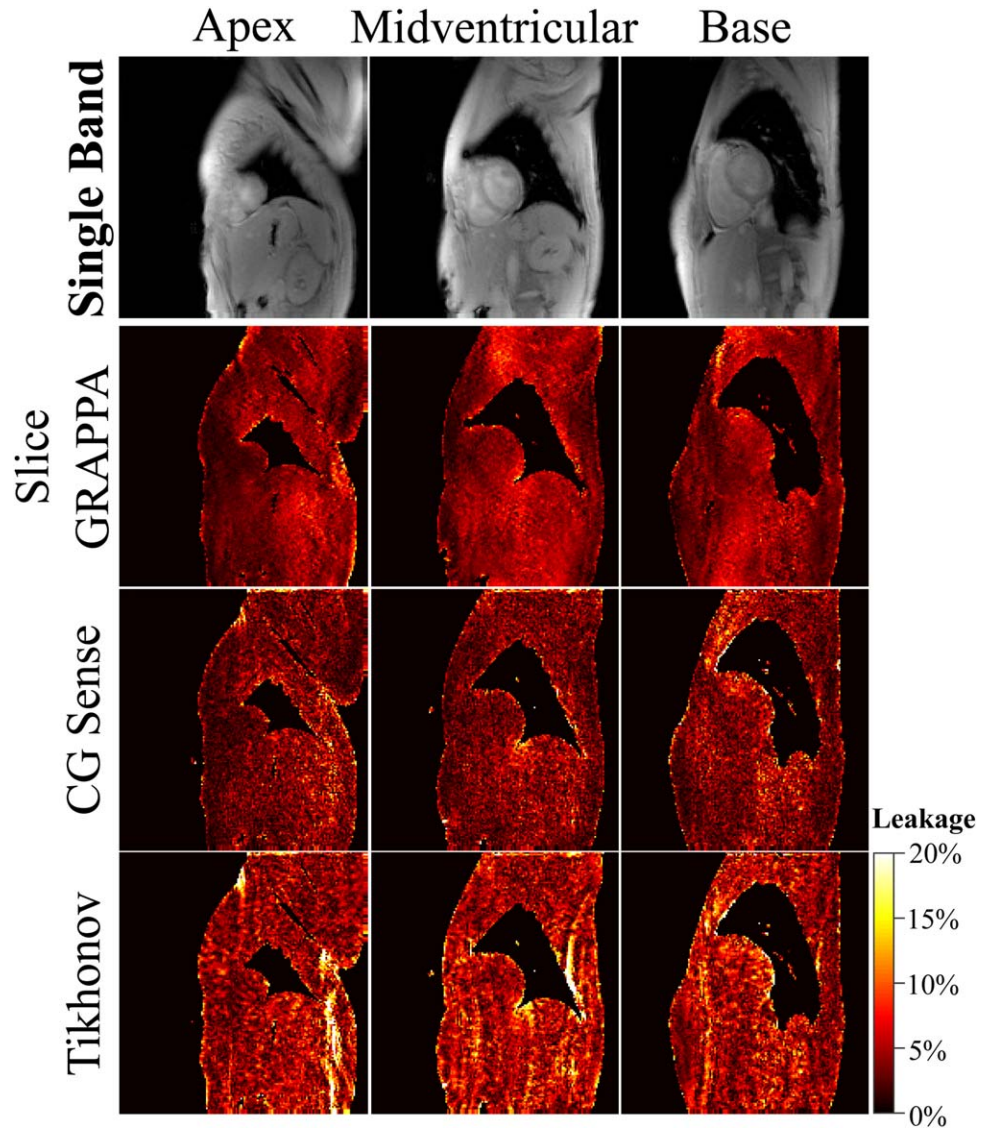


FIG. 4. Leakage maps comparing three MB reconstructions. The top row presents the corresponding SB images with no magnetization preparation, as used to generate the leakage maps. GRAPPA shows mild and noise-like leakage across the FOV. Slightly decreased leakage, albeit with increased intensity hot spots is depicted for CG-SENSE. Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE displays the highest interslice leakage of the three methods, though the intensity hot spots lie predominantly outside the myocardium.

in Supporting Figure S2. Conventional SB acquisition produces visually homogeneous  $T_1$  maps ( $T_1$  time  $\pm$  spatial variability: subject #1,  $1572 \pm 95$  ms; subject #2,  $1546 \pm 126$  ms). For the MB  $T_1$  scans, reconstruction with slice GRAPPA resulted in the least amount of spatial variability (subject #1,  $1567 \pm 111$  ms; subject #2,  $1563 \pm 139$  ms), providing images that are visually comparable to SB imaging. Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE also provided images with comparable quality, although with slightly increased spatial variability (subject #1,  $1567 \pm 112$  ms; subject #2:  $1583 \pm 155$  ms). CG-SENSE showed the strongest increase in spatial variability (subject #1,  $1563 \pm 118$  ms; subject #2,  $1593 \pm 170$  ms). On visual inspection, CG-SENSE-based reconstructions showed higher leakage, especially in the basal slice, whereas less leakage was observed for slice GRAPPA. The same trend is observed in the leakage maps of the three reconstruction techniques (Fig. 4): Leakage using GRAPPA reconstruction appears visually homogeneous and noise-like. Increased structure but reduced noise-like variation can be observed using CG-SENSE, while the highest leakage is observed with regularized CG-SENSE.

Bullseye representations of the quantitative evaluation of myocardial  $T_1$  times, in vivo spatial variability and interslice leakage for MB and SB  $T_1$  mapping across all subjects in the 16 AHA segments are depicted in Figure 5. For MB acquisitions, all reconstruction techniques result in  $T_1$  values comparable to the SB reference (ANOVA;  $P=0.86$ ). As in phantom scans, the increase in spatial variability is the least for GRAPPA, followed by Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE and CG-SENSE (Kruskal-Wallis  $P=0.07$ , pair-wise  $P \leq 0.031$ , except for GRAPPA versus Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE  $P=0.44$  and CG-SENSE versus Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE  $P=0.094$ ). However, the Tikhonov-regularized reconstruction also shows the highest interslice leakage, particularly in segments 2, 5, and 6 of the basal slice. GRAPPA showed the most uniform leakage performance across segments with the smallest mean (Kruskal-Wallis  $P=0.22$ ; GRAPPA versus Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE  $P=0.25$ , GRAPPA versus CG-SENSE  $P=0.031$ , CG-SENSE versus Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE  $P=0.031$ ).

The same trend can be observed in blood  $T_1$  times. No significant difference was found between SB and the three

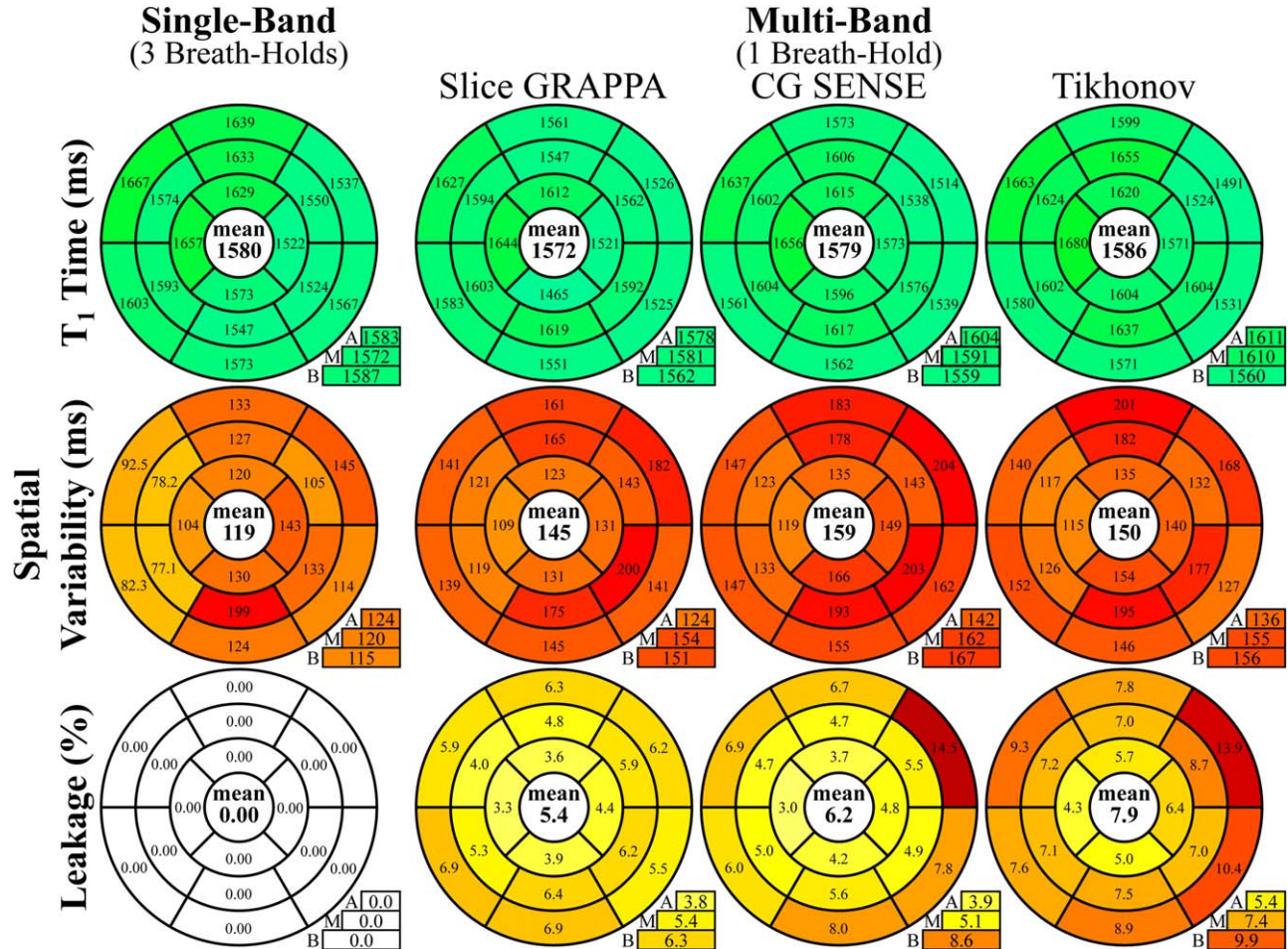


FIG. 5. Bullseye representation of myocardial  $T_1$  times,  $T_1$  time spatial variability, and interslice leakage, as quantitatively analyzed according to the AHA 16-segment model. All three reconstruction methods show  $T_1$  times comparable to SB imaging, though with increased intrasegment variability. Slice GRAPPA shows the smallest increase in spatial variability compared with SB  $T_1$  mapping and the smallest interslice leakage.

MB reconstructions (ANOVA,  $P=0.98$ ; SB,  $2043 \pm 80$  ms; GRAPPA,  $2034 \pm 71$  ms; CG-SENSE,  $2042 \pm 94$  ms; Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE,  $2026 \pm 93$  ms). Blood  $T_1$  time spatial variability was 1.3- to 1.6-fold higher using MB compared with SB  $T_1$  mapping, but differences were not found to be significant (Kruskal-Wallis  $P=0.102$ ; SB,  $130 \pm 13$  ms; GRAPPA,  $170 \pm 31$  ms; CG-SENSE,  $206 \pm 82$  ms; Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE,  $172 \pm 51$  ms).

In our study, no visual difference was observed when performing the MB reconstructions using the free-breathing versus breath-held calibration scans.  $T_1$  maps reconstructed with GRAPPA using the different types of calibration data are depicted in Figure 6. There were no significant differences among the  $T_1$  values ( $P > 0.57$ ) or the spatial variability ( $P > 0.59$ ) for the two types of calibration data. GRAPPA displayed the highest amount of resilience to changes in the calibration data (relative difference:  $T_1$ ,  $0.015 \pm 0.269\%$ ; variability,  $0.223 \pm 2.28\%$ ). CG-SENSE reconstructions showed a slight but nonsignificant trend of increased variability with the free-breathing calibration data (relative difference CG-SENSE:  $T_1$ ,  $-0.472 \pm 1.03\%$ ; variability,  $-7.82 \pm 11.9\%$ ; relative difference Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE:  $T_1$ ,  $-0.517 \pm 0.994\%$ ; variability,  $-3.62 \pm 7.19\%$ ).

## DISCUSSION

In this study, we evaluated an MB imaging sequence for accelerated myocardial  $T_1$  mapping that enables 16-segment quantification in a single breath-hold. We evaluated three linear reconstruction algorithms for unaliasing the MB data and their effect on  $T_1$  estimation and spatial variability. Phantom and in vivo experiments revealed that all three methods showed comparable accuracy to conventional single-band imaging, albeit at 1.2- to 1.4-fold loss in spatial variability.

MB imaging suffers from decreased SNR due to unfavorable coil geometry in cardiac applications. Our results show that a combination of slice and in-plane GRAPPA showed the least noise amplification, with the least amount of interslice leakage and a uniform leakage profile across all the myocardial segments. Among the SENSE-based reconstructions, Tikhonov regularization reduced the effects of noise amplification. However, it also increased the interslice leakage, albeit most of the increased leakage being evident outside the heart, with the exception of some basal segments. Nonlinear reconstruction techniques with appropriate regularization can also be used for further removal of artifacts due to noise

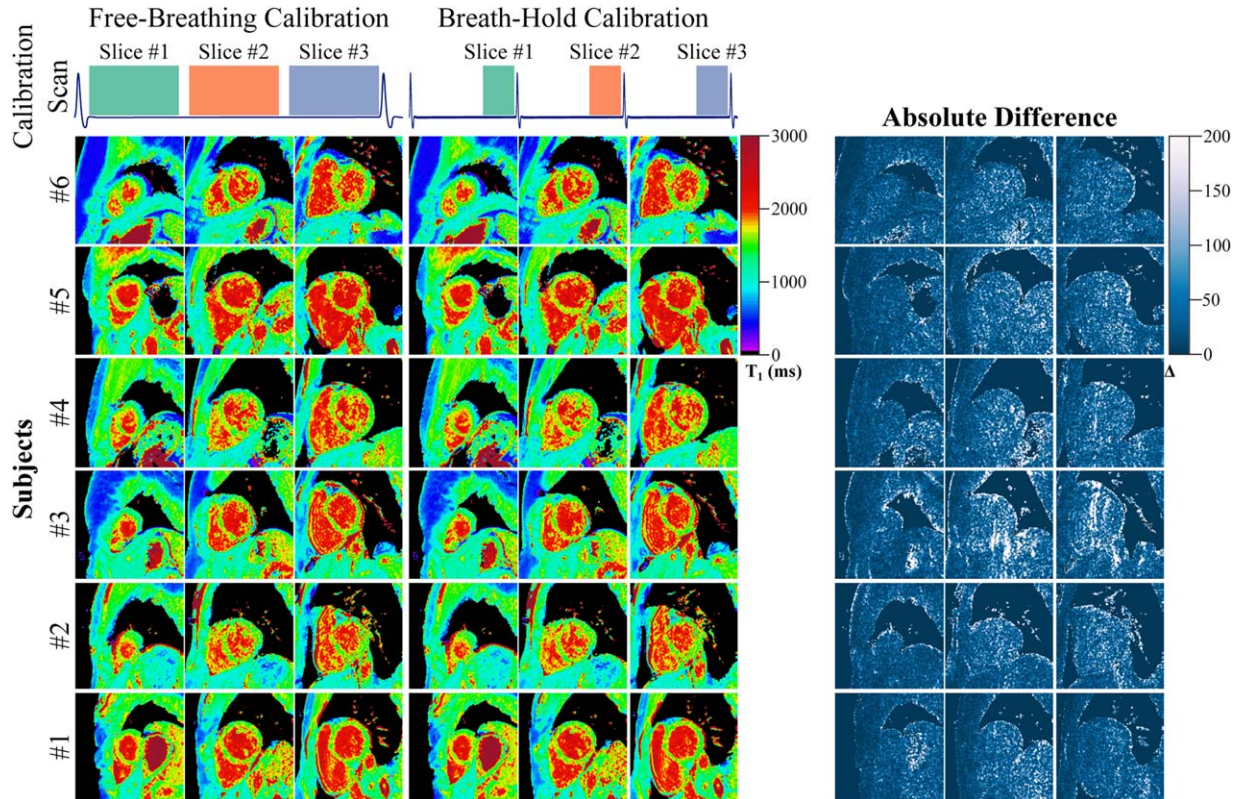


FIG. 6. MB  $T_1$  maps reconstructed with slice GRAPPA using free-breathing or breath-hold calibration data. The acquisition scheme for the calibration data is depicted in the top row. Images of six healthy subjects are presented below, along with the corresponding difference maps. MB  $T_1$  maps with both calibration data are of similar quality and differences are barely noticeable on visual assessment. Difference maps reveal minor noise-like changes when using a differently acquired calibration data set.

and leakage. However, these were not explored in the current study in order to provide a uniform comparison of spatial variability and leakage for the linear reconstruction techniques.

The position of the heart is known to show major variations between separate breath-holds even in healthy volunteers. Hence,  $T_1$  map acquisition of three short-axis slices in separate breath-holds provides potentially non-equidistant coverage with bias toward basal or apical  $T_1$  times. Because all slices are acquired simultaneously in MB  $T_1$  mapping, equidistant and uniform coverage of the left ventricle is ensured in a short-axis stack scan with the proposed technique.

In this study, MB reconstructions, in particular slice GRAPPA, were observed to be resilient to interscan motion between the calibration and the measurement data. This result is encouraging for the applicability of SMS imaging to cardiac applications, where potential mismatches in cardiac or respiratory phases might be unavoidable. The use of calibration scans without cardiac or respiratory gating is advantageous, as additional scan time requirements are minimized. Further studies are needed to verify this trend in other cardiac MR applications.

Myocardial  $T_1$  mapping is most commonly performed using balanced Steady-State Free Precession (bSSFP) imaging readouts, which are less disruptive to the longitudinal magnetization recovery curve (48). Recently, the

use of FLASH imaging has been explored for inversion recovery-based  $T_1$  mapping (49,50). Saturation recovery  $T_1$  mapping methods are known to allow for accurate  $T_1$  quantification with FLASH imaging readout (51). Accordingly  $T_1$  times assessed with FLASH SAPHIRE in healthy subjects are in good agreement with a recent study of steady-state-free precession-based saturation recovery  $T_1$  mapping at 3T (41). FLASH imaging has been proven to be beneficial at 3T due to its resilience against off-resonance artifacts, which might be a major disruptive factor to bSSFP image quality at high field strengths. However, in  $T_1$  mapping, this comes at the cost of reduced noise resilience and increased end-diastolic imaging times. Due to the linear k-space ordering, and because border zones are commonly excluded when evaluating myocardial  $T_1$  maps, the increase in acquisition window duration caused by the long FLASH repetition time has been reported previously to not be an issue at 1.5T (52). Nonetheless, the repetition time of the FLASH sequence can be shortened further by optimizing spoiling strategies or increasing imaging bandwidth as a trade-off against  $T_1$  mapping precision. For MB imaging, FLASH has the additional advantage that MB phase cycling can be encoded in the radiofrequency phase of each band, rather than using encoding gradients as for EPI or SSFP imaging, which might introduce additional signal loss due to in-band dephasing (53).

To mitigate the reduced baseline SNR of FLASH imaging,  $T_1$  maps were acquired over 15 heartbeats, in contrast to previous bSSFP-based SAPHIRE protocols, which use nine to 11 images (37,41,54,55). The longer breath-hold duration was not disruptive in the study cohort. However, in critically ill patients or patients with respiratory restrictions, reduced sequence duration can be achieved at a trade-off against a slight loss in precision.

Although MB  $T_1$  mapping was demonstrated with a SAPHIRE saturation recovery sequence design, this acceleration technique can be applied straightforwardly to other saturation recovery techniques, such as saturation recovery single-shot acquisition (SASHA) (56). In this study, we chose SAPHIRE instead of SASHA because of recent results showing that SAPHIRE is more artifact resilient and more precise (41,54). The technique may also be applied to myocardial  $T_1$  mapping where the  $T_1$  recovery curve spans several heartbeats, such as the modified Look-Locker inversion recovery technique and its variants (48,57,58). However, progressive saturation of the blood in several slices simultaneously might lead to diminished signal from the blood pool over time, especially at high MB factors. Furthermore, the FLASH imaging readouts as used in the proposed MB acquisition substantially compromise the accuracy in commonly used inversion recovery  $T_1$  mapping sequences. Although tailored reconstruction schemes have been proposed to mitigate this effect (59), MB inversion recovery  $T_1$  mapping is beyond the scope of this study, but this method warrants further investigation.

All SAPHIRE  $T_1$  maps in the current study were reconstructed using curve fitting to phase-sensitive data. This approach has previously been proposed for inversion recovery  $T_1$  mapping (15), resulting in reduced in vivo variability, because it eliminates the necessity to restore the signal polarity along the inversion recovery curve. Furthermore, a Gaussian noise characteristic is maintained, potentially increasing  $T_1$  mapping accuracy, when least-squares fitting is used with low baseline SNR or when the  $T_1$ -weighted myocardial signal falls close to the zero crossing. These advantages of phase-sensitive  $T_1$  mapping can also be harvested in hybrid SAPHIRE  $T_1$  mapping, because the dynamic range spans across both the positive and negative longitudinal magnetizations.

In this study, in vivo imaging was performed during breath-holding. However, in some patients, end-expiration breath-holding cannot be maintained even for short durations. In these cases, respiratory drift may corrupt the  $T_1$  map quality and precision. Dedicated image registration algorithms have been proposed to closely realign the  $T_1$ -weighted baseline images, despite the substantial contrast variations (16,17). Although no significant motion-induced artifacts have been observed in our healthy cohort study, such registration techniques can be applied to MB  $T_1$  mapping. Additionally, due to the simultaneous acquisition of multiple slices, similar motion can be expected and simultaneous registration of all three slices may be performed. This may help to reduce the dimensionality of the registration problem and improve the realignment of the baseline images after

processing. Potential synergies of image registration and MB cardiac imaging will be explored in future studies.

This study has several limitations. Only a limited number of healthy subjects were included in this proof-of-concept study. Clinical evaluation of single breath-hold whole-heart  $T_1$  mapping in larger cohorts exhibiting specific pathologies is warranted. Because the excitation bands in MB imaging have to be parallel,  $T_1$  maps have only been evaluated in a short axis to allow for the 16-segment analysis. Only a single MB acceleration factor of 3 was studied to allow for  $T_1$  mapping in a single breath-hold, in accordance with the coverage requirements of the Society for Cardiovascular Magnetic Resonance's  $T_1$  mapping task force consensus statement (14).

In conclusion, the proposed technique enables acquisition of native myocardial  $T_1$  maps with improved spatial coverage, allowing for the quantification of the 16 AHA segments over three slices in a single breath-hold. More than 3-fold savings in acquisition time is achieved in young healthy volunteers, at an increased  $T_1$  spatial variability of 1.2- to 1.4-fold using a linear slice GRAPPA reconstruction.

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## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

**Fig. S1.** Spatial variability in the MB T<sub>1</sub> maps reconstructed with Tikhonov-regularized CG-SENSE using different values for the regularization parameter. Example images of the mid-ventricular slice are provided for one volunteer at four different parameter values. Minimum spatial variability is observed at 0.05. Lower regularization parameters cause noise-induced spatial inhomogeneity, whereas higher values lead to residual leakage artifacts (white arrows).

**Fig. S2.** SB and MB T<sub>1</sub> maps acquired in six healthy subjects. MB data were reconstructed using slice GRAPPA. Visually comparable T<sub>1</sub> map quality with largely homogeneous myocardial T<sub>1</sub> and clear delineation toward the blood-pools can be observed with both T<sub>1</sub> mapping sequences. Slightly increased spatial inhomogeneity is observed in the MB T<sub>1</sub> maps.