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Accelerated Sodium MRI using undersampled 3D SPARKLING at 7T

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43

Abstract

Purpose: To evaluate the benefits of SPARKLING, a stochastic k-space sampling approach
 over the deterministic sampling scheme TPI (Twisted Projection Imaging) in the context of
 accelerated cerebral ²³Na MRI and assessing its impact on tissue sodium concentration (TSC)
 estimation.

44

Methods: Guided by simulation results, in vitro and in vitro UTE ²³Na MRI datasets were 49 acquired at a 4 mm isotropic resolution from healthy volunteers using both TPI or SPARKLING 50 trajectories with different acceleration factors (AF) on a 7T MR scanner equipped with a 32 51 channels head coil. Following reconstruction using NUFFT or Proximal Optimized Gradient 52 Method (POGM) algorithms with or without regularization, respectively, the resulting sodium 53 images were compared in terms of effective resolution (FWHM of the PSF), SNR and overall 54 quality. with an in vitro assement of the accuracy of the TSC was performed via external 55 referencing using a 4-point calibration approach. 56

Results: In vivo cerebral sodium images acquired using SPARKLING with an acceleration
factor of 32 (TA= 5 min 38 s) are similar to those obtained using TPI at AF=8 (TA= 22 min
34 s) with minimal impact on the accuracy of our TSC quantification.

Conclusion: In conditions compatible with clinical examination, undersampled SPARKLING
 ²³Na MRI can outperform the conventional TPI k-space sampling scheme allowing for shorter
 acquisition times.

Keywords: ²³Na, SPARKLING, UHF, human brain, TSC, compressed sensing

64 Introduction

Cerebral sodium (²³Na) magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) provides unique information about brain 65 tissue viability in vivo. Indeed, neurons rely on the energy-hungry sodium-potassium (Na⁺/K⁺-66 ATPase) pump to regulate their transmembrane Na⁺ and K⁺ concentration gradients, which in their 67 turn define their resting membrane potential. In pathological conditions where the cell membranes 68 are damaged or their energy synthesis capabilities are compromised, an increase in intracellular 69 sodium concentration is bound to occur, while extracellular sodium concentration stays constant. 70 This leads to an increase in tissue sodium concentration (TSC), neuronal dysfunction, and ultimately 71 cell death (Mccarthy et al., 2015). 72

Therefore changes in TSC are considered potential early biomarkers for many neurodegenerative diseases. Several studies confirmed the relevance of assessing tissue sodium concentration (TSC) in neurological disorders such as Alzheimer's (Haeger et al., 2021), Multiple Sclerosis (MS) (Zaaraoui et al., 2012; Eisele et al., 2019), Huntington's, (Reetz et al., 2012) and others (Zaric et al., 2021).

⁷⁷ However, ²³Na-MRI faces several technical challenges, limiting its clinical use. This is mainly due ⁷⁸ to the moderate sodium concentration in the human brain (about 40 mM in the brain parenchyma ⁷⁹ and 140 mM in the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF)) and its low intrinsic nuclear magnetic resonance ⁸⁰ (NMR) sensitivity compared to proton MRI. In the healthy brain, those differences can lead to up ⁸¹ 5500 fold less Signal-To-Noise Ratio (SNR) (Ladd et al., 2018) . Consequently, ²³Na images have ⁸² to be acquired at lower spatial resolutions and require long acquisition time (TA) compared to ¹H ⁸³ MRI..

Another difficulty is the fast transverse relaxation times (T_2/T_2^*) of ²³Na NMR signal, which are 84 typically less than 5 ms (Ridley et al., 2018). Consequently, ultra-short echo time (UTE) sequences 85 combined with deterministic non-Cartesian k-space trajectories have been preferred (Konstandin 86 and Nagel, 2014) by the ²³Na MRI community. Among the most commonly used non-Cartesian 87 k-space sampling schemes, we can cite radial, density-adapted three-dimensional radial projection 88 reconstruction pulse sequence (DA-3DPR) (Nagel et al., 2009), twisted projection imaging (TPI) 89 (Boada et al., 1997) or Fermat-looped orthogonally-encoded trajectories (FLORET) (Robison et al., 90 2017). 91

These standard non-Cartesian readouts are flexible, as they are analytically and geometrically constrained, and, when combined with density-compensated reconstruction, can provide good image quality. However they can be sub-optimal in sampling the k-space, especially for **k** values at the ⁹⁵ borders of k-space which can lead to fast degrading spatial resolutions when the k-space is under⁹⁶ sampled (as demonstrated by their computed point spread function (PSF) (Konstandin and Nagel,
⁹⁷ 2014)). In recent years, compressed-sensing (CS) approaches have been proposed for proton MRI
⁹⁸ (Dale et al., 2004; Mir et al., 2004; Kumar Anand et al., 2008; Vasanawala et al., 2010) in order to
⁹⁹ to accelerate image acquisition while preserving image quality.

At first, proton MRI CS approaches took advantage (i) of the sparse characteristic of MRI signals, (ii) incoherent sampling schemes, and (iii) nonlinear reconstruction with a sparsity promoting prior. Currently, the concept of an incoherent sampling scheme is considered sub-optimal (Adcock et al., 2017) and newer CS techniques focus on (i) globally variable density sampling non-uniformally the high and low spatial frequencies but managing (ii) a locally uniform coverage of k-space (Donoho, 2006).

Recently, Chen et al. reviewed the first attempts at applying CS to ²³Na MRI (Chen et al., 2021). 106 Some of those studies have evaluated the impact of acceleration on TSC, as TSC is the primary goal 107 of ²³Na MRI. Twelve out of seventeen studies used radial or DA-3DPR as a sampling scheme, and 108 only one used a version of TPI (Nagel et al., 2009). Yet the authors assumed the incoherence of those 109 density-adapted three-dimensional radial projection reconstruction pulse sequence (DA-3DPR) or 110 TPI trajectories. Indeed, the efficacy of CS approach relies on the fulfilment of an "incoherence" 111 criterion. This criterion states that the measurement basis and the sparse representation basis must 112 be uncorrelated so that the k-space undersampling artifacts add incoherently to the sparse signal 113 coefficients. While few studies have proposed optimized undersampling schemes for proton MRI by 114 using a series of second-order cone optimization sub-problems, ideas from the missile guidance field 115 or other strategies (Kumar Anand et al., 2008; Mir et al., 2004; Dale et al., 2004), none of those 116 previously cited CS ²³Na MRI studies explored such solutions to optimize the incoherence of their 117 undersampled density-adapted three-dimensional radial projection reconstruction pulse sequence 118 (DA-3DPR) or TPI trajectories. 119

Here, we propose to apply SPARKLING (Spreading Projection Algorithm for Rapid K-space sampLING) (Lazarus et al., 2020; Chaithya et al., 2022) to accelerate ²³Na MRI acquisitions. SPARKLING is inspired by CS approaches with a (i) global variable density sampling but (ii) locally uniform coverage of k-space. Compared to more classical approaches, this approach is an excellent candidate for shortening the TA while preserving image quality in ²³Na MRI.

The application of CS techniques to sodium imaging presents its specific challenges because the acceleration achievable using CS approaches depends on the image size and available SNR: for both, the bigger it is, the better Lazarus et al. (2018). Unfortunately for ²³Na MRI, both are limiting
factors compared to ¹H MRI.

In this study, for the first time, we aimed at demonstrating that we can accelerate *in vivo* ²³Na acquisitions at 7T and perform valid TSC quantification using 3D SPARKLING. We compare our effort to current state-of-the-art TPI acquisitions with identical acquisitions parameters (T_{obs} , bandwidth (BW), flip angle, and repetition time (TR)). Our study design was divided in two parts (i) *in vitro* measurements to assess the impact of the different AF on TSC quantification, and (ii) *in vivo* experiments to analyze the resulting quality of our cerebral TSC maps acquired from healthy human volunteers.

¹³⁶ Material and methods

137 SPARKLING trajectories

The SPARKLING algorithm (Lazarus, 2019) generates optimized k-space sampling patterns $\mathbf{K}[i] = (k_{x,i}, k_{y,i}, k_{z,i})$, where *i* represents a sample which comply to a target acquisition density. At the same time, SPARKLING respects MR hardware limitations such as maximum gradient amplitudes and slew rates. SPARKLING generally focuses on radially symmetric densities, which present the advantage of yielding results invariant to translation and rotation of the sample to the image. This target density is defined by two parameters: cutoff (C) and decay (D) (figure 1). They are defined as follows:

$$\pi_{C,D}(x) = \begin{cases} K & |x| < C \\ K \left(\frac{C}{|x|}\right)^D & |x| > C \end{cases}$$

$$\tag{1}$$

where K is a constant obtained through normalization:

$$K = \frac{1 - D}{2C(C^{D-1} - D)}$$

This algorithm has been extended to 3D and is described in detail elsewhere (Chaithya et al., 2022). 3D SPARKLING offers a locally uniform coverage of k-space, differently from TPI or radial strategies. The trajectory $\hat{\mathbf{K}}$ is optimized as:

$$\hat{\mathbf{K}} = \underset{\mathbf{K}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} F_p(\mathbf{K}) = F_p^a(\mathbf{K}) - F_p^r(\mathbf{K})$$
[2]

where $F_p^a(\mathbf{K})$ is the attraction term enforcing the sampling pattern \mathbf{K} and $F_p^r(\mathbf{K})$ is the repulsion term which guarantees a good filling of the k-space. The repulsion term $F_p^r(\mathbf{K})$ and $F_p^a(\mathbf{K})$ are defined as:

$$F_p^r(\mathbf{K}) = \frac{1}{2p^2} \sum ||\mathbf{K}[i] - \mathbf{K}[j]||_2$$
[3a]

$$F_p^a(\mathbf{K}) = \frac{1}{p} \sum \int_{\omega} ||(x - \mathbf{K}[i])||_2 \rho(x) dx$$
[3b]

Here, we adopted a variation of SPARKLING, called MORE SPARKLING, (Chaithya G R et al., 2022) to define sets of center-out spokes for ²³Na imaging. In this variation, the F_p^r factor incorporates a temporal weighting that notably enforces spokes to homogeneously move away from the center and is defined as:

$$F_p^r(\mathbf{K}) = \frac{1}{2p^2} \sum \exp^{|t_i - t_j|} ||\mathbf{K}[i] - \mathbf{K}[j]||_2$$
 [4a]

where t_i and t_j correspond to the times when the samples $\mathbf{K}[i]$ and $\mathbf{K}[j]$ are acquired. This is important to reduce off-resonance artifacts and avoid signal loss due to averaging points at different observation times, which is especially important for the fast relaxing sodium nuclei.

The calculation of F_p^r and F_p^a is made through a gradient descent algorithm (Chaithya et al., 2022). The code has been optimized for GPU computing, (Chaithya et al., 2022). Interested researchers are invited to contact the authors to obtain access to this package.

¹⁶¹ TPI trajectories

Twisted projection trajectories (TPI) were introduced in 1997 (Boada et al., 1997). At that time, the state-of-the-art k-space sampling schemes for ²³Na MRI were based on radial trajectories. The premise behind TPI is that improvements in the sampling efficiency of three dimensional projection imaging can be attained by removing the non-uniform sample density that results from uniform sampling in time along radial lines in k-space.

In three dimensions, the improvement in the efficiency is done through a twist in the trajectories that preserves the sample density. In a thin spherical shell the number of trajectories will be constant if the number of samples inside a thin spherical shell is proportional to the volume of the shell. This can be describe through the equations:

$$\dot{k} = \frac{\alpha}{k^2} \tag{5}$$

and

$$\dot{k} + k^2 (\dot{\theta} + \sin^2 \theta \dot{\varphi}^2) = \gamma^2 G^2 \tag{6}$$

Examples of TPI and SPARKLING trajectories can been seen in figure 2. The algorithm to generate TPI trajectories was implemented in MATLAB along with others (radial and density adaptive radial) and they are available in a public repository (https://github.com/rpbaptista/Trajectories/).

174 In vitro experiments

175 Test objects

For our in vitro acquisitions, a realistic human head phantom was used Jona et al. (2021). This phantom is composed of two compartments (figure 3): the inner compartment was filled with a solution of 40 mmol/L of NaCl and the outer compartment was filled with a NaCl solution at a higher concentration of 100 mmol/L. This phantom with known design and concentrations was used to assess the effect of the different acceleration strategies on TSC quantification.

For TSC calibration, four cylindrical 50mL tubes were filled with 2% agarose gels to obtain 181 shorter, more realistic relaxation times for ²³Na. Sodium (NaCl) concentrations for each tubes were: 182 51, 105, 155 and 209 mM. For each acquisition and reconstruction, the tubes were masked and the 183 signal intensity histograms were analyzed to estimate the reference signal value corresponding to 184 each known sodium concentrations by considering the N^{th} percentile of the signal distribution, the 185 precise value of this percentile (ranging from 50 to 70) was calibrated separately from full Nyquist 186 images to account for the different partial-volume effects and artifacts affecting the signal intensity 187 distributions in the reference tubes. 188

189 Data acquisition

²³Na MRI sequence parameters were those determined previously by Coste et al. (2019) to maximize SNR for *in vivo* ²³Na MRI: TE/TR=0.8/20 ms, FOV=296 mm isotropic, FA= 55°, gradient raster time = 10 μ s, dwell time = 2 μ s, T_obs = 12.48 ms, N_s =6240, 32 averages, oversampling factor (OS) was set to 5. As a reference image, a 3D radial acquisition fulfilling the Nyquist criteria $(N_s \ge 4\pi (k_{max}FOV)^2)$ was performed. The acceleration factor (AF) was defined relatively to this full-Nyquist radial acquisition: $\left(AF = \frac{N_{s_{radialfullNyquist}}}{N_{s_{currentacquisition}}}\right)$.

For TPI acquisitions, the radial fraction parameter was set at 0.3, it was optimal parameter in the literature Romanzetti et al. (2014). For SPARKLING acquisitions, the cutoff and decay parameters of the targeted density function were: C = 30% and D = 2 (Fig 2). Four different acceleration factors (AF=(8,32,64,128), TA=(22'30",5'40",2'48",1'28")) were explored for both TPI and SPARKLING sampling schemes. (Fig 2).

²⁰² 23 Na images were acquired at two flip angles (VFA₁=25°/VFA₂ = 50) to allow for TSC quan-²⁰³ tification according to our Variable Flip Angle (VFA) approach Coste et al. (2019).

The B_1^+ field map was measured with the TPI sequence using a double angle method (DAM) (Stollberger and Wach;, 1995) approach with $\alpha_1/\alpha_2 = 45/90$ at 8 mm isotropic and TE/TR=0.8/120 ms. The acquisition time was 1 min 36 seconds per scan. The B_1^+ map was used to improve the robustness of the computed T_1 and M_0 maps.

²⁰⁸ In vivo experiments

209 Participants

This study was approved by local and French national ethics committees (2019-A02689-48) informed consent was obtained from all participants. Five healthy volunteers were recruited. The participants were split in two groups: one cohort in which image quality was assessed (1M/1F) (35 ± 5 years old) and a second cohort (2M/1F) (22 ± 6 years old) in which the accuracy of the TSC quantification was assessed.

215 Data acquisition

MRI data were acquired on a Terra 7T MRI scanner (Siemens Healthineers, Erlangen, Germany) equipped with a whole-body gradient coil (G_{max} =80mT/m, slew rate of 200mT/m/s) and a doubletune 1Tx/1Rx birdcage coil for ¹H and 1Tx/32Rx helmet coil for ²³Na (Rapid Biomedical GmbH, Rimpar, Germany).

In vivo acquisitions also included an T₁-weighted image (MPRAGE, TE/TR/TI = 1.85/1310/500ms, FA= 6°, 1 mm isotropic resolution, TA=3:46 min) for anatomical reference. An iterative secondorder B₀ shimming procedure was performed and the optimal shimming parameters were used during ²²³ the sodium acquisitions.

Sequence parameters for our 23 Na MRI and B_1^+ field acquisitions were identical to our in vitro acquisitions.

For the three volunteers of the second cohort, and only for AF=32, 64 and 128 (due to the limited examination time), ²³Na images were acquired using the second flip angle of 25° to allow for TSC quantification Coste et al. (2019).

229 Data Processing

230 Image reconstruction

Density compensation (Pipe and Menon, 1999) was performed using Pysap-MRI (El Gueddari
et al., 2020) in all the data. This package allows for the management of large 3D non-Cartesian
multichannel datasets. The iterative method was the same for TPI and SPARKLING datasets.
As the density compensation function depends solely on the k-space trajectories, the comparison
between TPI and SPARKLING acquisitions remains fair.

While iterative reconstruction methods are expected to be used for CS acquisitions since they typically yield nicer images, it would be difficult to discriminate between the benefits of the undersampled trajectories and those of the iterative reconstruction. Consequently, we chose to reconstruct and evaluate our data using both an iterative reconstruction method using proximal optimized gradient method (POGM) (Kim et al., 2021) and an non-iterative regridding method using NUFFT(Fessler and Sutton, 2003).

242 Our non-linear iterative reconstruction can be described as follows:

$$\hat{\mathbf{z}} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\mathbf{z}} \frac{1}{2} ||y - ||_2^2 + \lambda ||z||_1$$

For each iterative reconstruction, the regularization parameter (λ) were selected visually in the 10⁻⁷ to 10⁻²⁰ range (30 steps) to maximize image quality. λ was kept constant between volunteers for a given acceleration factor and a given trajectory.

246 TSC Quantification

In this study, the variable flip angle (VFA) approach was used as described in Coste et al. (2019) to estimate M_0 maps which were corrected for residual T_1 -weighting from the combination of two sodium images acquired at two different FA. Those M_0 images were also corrected for any B_1^+ inhomogeneities by accounting for the effective flip angles as measured from the independently acquired B_1^+ field map.

To obtain quantitative TSC maps, four 50mL tubes were used as external references of concentration. The quantification process consisted in automatically segmenting those tubes in the ²³Na images, extracting their signal intensity distribution and performing a four-point linear regression using the reference signal values corresponding to each tubes against their known sodium concentrations.

²⁵⁷ Evaluation of TSC quantification accuracy

The accuracy of the TSC quantification was evaluated based on in vitro ²³Na images of the anthropomorphic human head phantom with known sodium concentrations. Relative errors in the TSC quantification were calculated and compared between undersampled TPI and SPARKLING acquisitions.

$_{262}$ Results

²⁶³ Expected spatial resolution - Point spread functions

Table 1 summarizes the FWHM of the PSF computed for each set of SPARKLING and TPI spokes.
The effective spatial resolution was consistently higher for undersampled SPARKLING trajectories
compared to their TPI counterparts. Figure 4 shows the central slice of the log of the PSF for the
investigated TPI and SPARKLING trajectories.

²⁶⁸ In vivo ²³Na images

Figure 5 shows a gallery of axial ²³Na MRI obtained from our first two healthy volunteers. As expected from the comparison of the PSF, undersampled SPARKLING strategies seems to better preserve high spatial frequency details such as the cortex delineation for bigger accelerations factors compared to TPI. This is particularly clear when comparing the images acquired with SPARKLING with an AF=32 to the ones acquired with TPI and an AF=8.

Figure 6 shows the result of the reconstruction of our accelerated ²³Na MRI using the POGM algorithm.

²⁷⁶ In vitro validation of TSC quantification

For all our linear regressions performed across different accelerations factors for calibration, R^2 values were systematically superior to 0.96, demonstrating the robustness of the 4-point calibration method (see figure S1 for illustration).

Tables 2 and 3 summarize the average sodium concentration in the inner compartment of our anthropomorphic phantom estimated from TSC maps acquired *in vitro* with the different undersampled strategies and reconstructed with NUFFT or POGM respectively.

One can notice that undersampled TPI acquisitions lead to slightly larger apparent sodium concentration and quantification errors compared to undersampled SPARKLING acquisitions. This is consistent with the broader PSF of undersampled TPI. Yet for both TPI and SPARKLING, the quantification remained quite accurate up to an acceleration factor of 32, the relative quantification error being at about 2.5% when NUFFT was used for the reconstruction.

When using the POGM iterative method, the resulting TSC maps exhibited systematically larger quantification errors than their NUFFT counterparts. Yet for AF=8 or even for AF=32 and SPARKLING, the quantification biais introduced by the regularization in POGM seemed to be manageable.

For both trajectories, the higher accelerations were extremely detrimental to the accuracy of the quantification and should not be considered as a viable option for quantitative ²³Na MRI. For instance, for AF=128, the resulting TSC maps displayed relative errors of about 85% for TPI and 67.5% for SPARKLING with the NUFFT reconstruction. These values would increase to 175% for TPI and 153% for SPARKLING when POGM is used.

²⁹⁷ In vivo TSC maps

Figure 7 shows the TSC maps acquired from three healthy volunteers using both TPI and SPARKLING trajectories with an acceleration factor of 32 (acquisition time = 5'40"). As already observed for our *in vitro* data, TSC values were found sensibly higher for TPI compared to SPARKLING, the average difference being 2 ± 3 mM when using the NUFFT reconstruction whereas it was 11 ± 2 mM when using the iterative POGM iterative reconstruction.

303 Discussion

In this study, we investigated for the first time the application of SPARKLING (precisely MORE-SPARKLING)Lazarus (2019); Chaithya G R et al. (2022), a stochastic k-space sampling strategy to accelerate the acquisition of quantitative ²³Na MRI of the human brain at 7T.

As a popular and efficient deterministic non-Cartesian k-space sampling scheme, undersampled TPI datasets Boada et al. (1997) were acquired systematically to serve as comparison points.

From those comparisons, one can conclude that in the right conditions (i.e. at 7T for a resolution of 4 mm isotropic, a 32 channel coil and 32 averages) undersampled SPARKLING acquisitions outperform TPI for the same AF both in terms of image quality and accuracy of the TSC quantification.

In particular, we observed that sodium images acquired using undersampled SPARKLING at AF=32 exhibited similar visual qualities than the ones acquired using undersampled TPI at AF=8. We also estimated that this level of acceleration (AF=32) using SPARKLING (with either NUFT or POGM reconstructions) led to acceptable quantification errors (2,5%) while the relative error for TPI and AF=32 was much larger (27%).

There are likely two reasons for these differences between undersampled TPI and SPARKLING 318 strategies. The first one should be the narrower PSF estimated for SPARKLING compared to TPI 319 for the same number of spokes (Table 1). It is of import to notice than these computed PSF did 320 not take into account the impact of B_0 inhomogeneities across the brain, nor the influence of the 321 reconstruction algorithm used of CS reconstructions. Such evaluation is not trivial and was not 322 explored in this work. The second factor should be that deterministic trajectories such TPI are 323 less likely to satisfy the "incoherence criterion" compared to the stochastic SPARKLING approach, 324 especially in absence of some optimization of the undersampling of k-space. 325

Recent studies (Gnahm et al., 2014; Blunck et al., 2020) have explored CS techniques for 3 mm isotropic at 7T while using DA-3DPR. Here, we targeted a resolution of 4 mm isotropic, which is a good trade-off for clinical examination in terms of TA and image quality. The authorship should refrain from extrapolating these results to different spatial resolutions or nuclei as the performance of CS approaches depends strongly on the available SNR and image sizes. This means that deterministic k-space sampling strategies such as TPI remain of actuality in most scenarios, especially in absence of acceleration or for modest acceleration factors.

As the determination of scenarios of interest for SPARKLING is not trivial (Lazarus, 2019), a

simulation tool was developed to assess efficiently different scenarios in silico (Porciuncula Baptista
et al., 2022).

In preliminary studies, we measured image quality via the structural similarity index measure (SSIM) compared to a Full-Nyquist radial reference. This approach was not kept because SSIM (Wang et al., 2015) is known to not be robust to blurring effects and PSF distortions, leading to misleading results, ie, high SSIM and low image quality.

One of the main limitation of SPARKLING as a k-space sampling strategy is its lack of flex-340 ibility. Indeed, compared to deterministic and parametric sampling schemes, the computation of 341 SPARKLING trajectories is quite intensive and the different trajectories must be determined of-342 fline or made available in a library. These constitute real hurdles for the future application of such 343 approach in a clinical research setting. Still we believe that improvements in image quality and 344 reduction in acquisition times while preserving the accuracy of the TSC quantification are worth 345 the continuing investment in developing and implementing ever faster optimization techniques and 346 reconstruction systems. 347

In the future, those promising results could be improved further by adding a priori anatomical constraints or using dictionary learning techniques (Behl et al., 2016).

350 Conclusions

For the first time, SPARKLING a novel k-space sampling strategy for CS MRI was applied successfully to accelerate the acquisition of ²³Na MRI at 7T in few healthy volunteers. We showed that in those favorable conditions, the acquisition of quantitative TSC maps could be accelerated by a factor 32 using SPARKLING with minimal loss of anatomical details or accuracy in the calibration process. Besides the application of those accelerated TSC maps to investigate abnormally high TSC values in brain pathologies, the relative rapidity of these ²³Na acquisitions could be of interest to revisit the sodium changes observed during neuronal activation as proposed by Bydder et al. (2019).

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478 Figures and Tables



Figure 1: Target density function for SPARKLING and its parameters

Example of target density function for SPARKLING $Pi_{C,D}(x)$ illustrating the definition of both parameters: cutt-off (C) and decay (D).



Figure 2: **TPI (left) and SPARKLING (right) k-space sampling schemes** Each spoke is colored in blue at its start and in yellow at its end. For both TPI and SPARKLING, T_{obs} was equal to 12.48 ms.



Figure 3: Anthropomorphic human head phantom.

The inner and outer compartments were filled respectively with a 40 and 100 mmol/L NaCl solution. Courtesy of Thadee Delaree



Figure 4: Estimated Point-spread functions of each investigated undersampled SPARKLING and TPI k-space sampling strategy.

The PSF are plotted in log scale to better visualize the ripples surrounding the central lobe.



Figure 5: Undersampled TPI and SPARKLING acquisitions reconstructed with NUFFT with density compensation.

Isotropic resolution of 4 mm. TE/TR=0.8/20 ms. Acquisitions times indicated next to each image.



Figure 6: Undersampled TPI and SPARKLING acquisitions reconstructed with POGM iterative algorithm with density compensation.

Isotropic resolution of 4 mm. TE/TR=0.8/20 ms. Acquisitions times indicated next to each image.



Figure 7: Comparison of the TSC maps obtained using undersampled TPI and SPARKLING acquisitions (AF=32) and POGM iterative reconstruction.

Isotropic resolution of 4 mm. TE/TR=0.8/20 ms. TA= 11° 20 ".FA₁/FA₂=25/50.

Table 1: Full-width at half maximum (FWHM) for the Point-spread functions (PSF) estimated for each undersampling strategy.

Targeted spatial resolution (pixel size) is 4mm isotropic

	FWHM (in pixels in the three dimensions)			
	AF=8	AF=32	AF=64	AF=128
TPI	(2.4, 2.4, 2.4)	(2.6, 2.6, 2.6)	(2.6, 2.6, 2.6)	(2.6, 2.6, 2.6)
SPARKLING	(2.2, 2.2, 2.2)	(2.2, 2.2, 2.2)	(2.4, 2.4, 2.4)	(2.4, 2.4, 2.4)

Table 2: Mean TSC estimated within the inner compartment of the anthropomorphicphantom using NUFFT and increasing AF.

AF Trajectory	8	32	64	128
TPI	40 ± 4	42 ± 2	56 ± 4	74 ± 5
SPARKLING	42 ± 3	41 ± 2	55 ± 3	67 ± 4

mean \pm standard deviation, concentrations expressed in mM. Expected TSC is 40 mM.

Table 3: Mean TSC estimated within the inner compartment of the anthropomorphicphantom using POGM and increasing AF.

mean \pm standard deviation.	concentrations exp	pressed in mM	Expected	TSC is 40	mМ

AF Trajectory	8	32	64	128
TPI	42 ± 2	51 ± 3	70 ± 5	110 ± 7
SPARKLING	44 ± 2	39 ± 2	65 ± 5	103 ± 6



Figure S1: Example of a 4-point calibration curve for one of the *in vitro* undersampled SPARKLING (AF=128) acquisition.

The linear regression ($R^2=0.99$) does not cross at (0,0) due to the background noise with a non-zero mean due to its Rician nature.