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Received: 8 September 2025

Accepted: 19 February 2026

Cite this article as: Zhu, X., Zhou, K., Cao, Y. *et al.* Downfield magnetic resonance signals serve as endogenous imaging biomarkers of nucleotide metabolism in glioma. *Commun Biol* (2026). <https://doi.org/10.1038/s42003-026-09780-y>

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Downfield magnetic resonance signals serve as endogenous imaging biomarkers of nucleotide metabolism in glioma

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Abstract

Gliomas, the most common primary brain tumors, exhibit profound metabolic alterations that can be non-invasively probed using magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS). Compared to upfield signals in traditional MRS, downfield signals exhibit complex composition with limited understanding of their metabolite origins. Correlating high-throughput metabolic profiles provided by untargeted metabolomics with MRS signals can help elucidate the origins of metabolites in MRS. In this study, upfield and downfield MRS spectra are obtained from control and glioma-bearing male Wistar rats, followed by correlation analysis with untargeted metabolomics from corresponding brain tissues. Here, we show that multiple downfield MRS peaks are significantly elevated in glioma rats and correlate with metabolomic features. Notably, downfield MRS demonstrate the capability of capturing adenosine triphosphate (ATP)-associated nucleotide metabolism. Furthermore, MRS signatures exhibit predictive potential for tumor growth parameters. This work establishes an integrated MRS-metabolomics framework, providing a basis for non-invasively monitoring dynamic metabolic reprogramming and predicting glioma progression.

Introduction

Glioma is one of the most common primary malignant tumors of the central nervous system, accounting for approximately 49%^{1,2}. Given its high prevalence, precise diagnosis for glioma is critical for effective clinical management. Although molecular subtyping advances tumor classification^{3,4}, the rapid progression of tumor necessitates non-invasive tools to monitor dynamic metabolic states, which are crucial for assessing metabolic reprogramming and treatment.

MRS provides a non-invasive technique to measure the resonance peaks of protons from different metabolic molecules based on chemical shifts. Traditionally, MRS typically focuses on upfield signals (0~4 ppm), where higher metabolite concentrations are readily detectable and widely used for tumor evaluation. In contrast, the downfield region (6~10 ppm) remains challenging to detect due to rapid proton exchange with water and lower metabolite concentrations⁵ and is often overlooked^{6,7}. Nevertheless, this spectral region was reported to contain signals from potential metabolites such as ATP, whose pivotal role in cellular energetics makes it a potential theranostic target⁸, along with homocarnosine, protein amide, tyrosine^{6,7}. Altered downfield phenylalanine resonance was also observed in phenylketonuria patients⁹. These insights, which are inaccessible in conventional upfield MRS, make the simultaneous detection of both upfield and downfield signals essential for a more comprehensive tumor MRS profile.

Technical innovations have been developed to detect downfield signals. Recently, non-water-saturation techniques have been suggested to capture the full downfield signal intensity¹⁰. For instance, metabolite-cycling (MC) methods have been applied to study the physical properties of downfield signals^{7,11}, and image-selected in vivo spectroscopy (ISIS)¹⁰ combined with selective excitation has been used for single-voxel downfield spectroscopy in glioma-bearing mice¹². Furthermore, spectral-spatial selective excitation pulses combined with magnetic resonance spectroscopic imaging (MRSI) improve acquisition efficiency, enabling the measurement of the spatial distribution of downfield MRS signals^{13,14}. Despite these advancements in signal detection, downfield signals still face challenges: (1) the spectral complexity and peak overlap hinder the precise interpretation of metabolic signatures, which consequently limits

clinical applications¹², and (2) the signal composition could vary significantly across different TEs, as suggested by previous studies¹⁵. Meanwhile, upfield analysis is also confounded by overlapping signals from macromolecules and mobile lipids, particularly at short TE¹⁶. Thus, investigating both the upfield and downfield MRS signal compositions is critically needed for non-invasive interpretation of tumor metabolism.

To address these analytical challenges in MRS, untargeted metabolomics, with its ability to measure all detectable metabolites within a tissue, provides a molecular level reference. This technique is known to reveal tumor-specific metabolic profiles by sensitively detecting various small-molecule metabolites^{17, 18, 19}. For example, 2-hydroxyglutarate (2-HG)²⁰ has been identified as highly specific in IDH-mutant gliomas, serving as a key diagnostic indicator. By correlating the macroscopic metabolic landscape from in vivo MRS with the microscopic molecular details from untargeted metabolomics, we aim to further elucidate the metabolic origins of MRS, especially for downfield signals.

Predicting tumor progression is as crucial as diagnosis, offering valuable insights into tumor biology. While tumor size informs staging and correlates with survival²¹, the tumor growth rate (TGR) is a critical indicator of tumor aggressiveness, as rapidly growing tumors often exhibit increased invasiveness and treatment resistance. Consequently, this study also explores the associations between MRS and metabolomics features with tumor growth dynamics to evaluate this metabolic information as non-invasive biomarkers for predicting tumor progression.

In summary, this study aims to: (1) simultaneously acquire upfield and downfield MRS signals with a metabolic-cycling PRESS (MC-PRESS) at two TEs; (2) correlate MRS signals with untargeted metabolomics data from corresponding tissues to elucidate the origins of MRS spectra; (3) evaluate the associations of these metabolic features with tumor growth dynamics (tumor size and TGR). Our integrated analysis demonstrates a strong correlation between several downfield MRS signals and nucleotide metabolites in the ATP metabolic pathway. Furthermore, MRS signals also correlate with tumor growth parameters, highlighting their potential as non-invasive biomarkers for predicting tumor progression.

Results

Upfield and downfield MRS: in situ metabolism dysregulation in glioma

As shown in Fig. 1a, MRS spectra were acquired at TE of 6.9 ms and 15 ms from C6 glioma rat models (tumor-bearing group, TB) and healthy control rats (HC). Based on longitudinal monitoring of tumor size and morphology²², the TB group was subdivided into early-stage (ES) and late-stage (LS) glioma. Representative spectra (Fig. 1b) and normalized average spectra (Fig. 1c) within each of the three groups were presented. The MRS spectra from normal and tumor tissues showed similar inter-group differences with previous studies^{12,23}.

Statistical analysis revealed progressive changes in MRS signals during tumor progression (Fig. 2). For upfield signals (Fig. 2a), glutathione (GSH), inositol (Ins), lactate (Lac), and tCr levels increased in the LS group at both TEs; whereas N-acetylaspartate (NAA), glutamate (Glu), and glutamine (Gln) were gradually reduced during tumor progression at both TEs. And taurine (Tau) increased in the LS group compared to HC only at TE = 15 ms. tCr and γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) showed no statistically significant difference between groups at either TE. The coefficients of variation (CV) for tCr signals within the three groups were 20.4%, 20.0%, and 15.5% at TE = 6.9 ms, and 20.1%, 27.1%, and 23.6% at TE = 15 ms, respectively.

For downfield signals (Fig. 2b), DF6.83 and DF7.09 were significantly elevated in the TB group at both TEs. DF8.18, DF8.37, and DF8.x showed increasing trends with tumor progression only at TE = 6.9 ms, whereas DF7.30 and DF8.49 were higher in the TB group compared to the HC group only at TE = 15 ms. All downfield signals showed marked decay with increasing TE in the three groups, with all average decay ratio > 20% (Supplementary Table 1). The total sum of the downfield signals (Fig. 2c, d) in the tumor was higher than in normal tissue at both TEs.

Water signals (Fig. 2e, f) significantly increased in tumor at both TEs. The correlation between water signal and metabolite signals were summarized in Supplementary Table 2. Several upfield and downfield

signals in HC group exhibited significant correlation with water, while this correlation were mostly disrupted in the ES and LS groups.

Untargeted metabolomics: metabolic reprogramming in glioma

Tissue samples were extracted based on MRS voxel locations and further analysed via liquid chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). A total of 1625 metabolites were identified (Fig. 3a), and the heatmap of hierarchical clustering analysis illustrated distinct metabolic differences between tumor and normal tissues. Among the identified metabolites, 180 with unknown classification were excluded, resulting in a total of 1,445 metabolites over 12 classes (Fig. 3b). Principal component analysis (PCA) and orthogonal projections to latent structures-discriminant analysis (OPLS-DA) effectively separated tumor from metabolomics profiles of normal brain tissues (Fig. 3c-d). The OPLS-DA model did not overfit according to random permutation tests (Fig. 3e). Compared to normal tissues, tumor tissues showed 380 significantly upregulated and 312 significantly downregulated metabolites (Fig. 3f). As shown in Fig. 3g, the top-ranked downregulated metabolites included phosphatidylcholine (22:2), N-acetyl aspartic acid, and γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA), while the top-ranked upregulated metabolites included deoxycytidine and acetic acid in tumor tissues.

As depicted in Fig. 4a, PCA was applied to each metabolite class with sufficient members ($n > 12$). Principal components (PCs) were selected using a 90% explained variance threshold, and the resulting PCs were then tested for their ability to differentiate between normal and tumor groups (Fig. 4b). The first PC significantly discriminated between normal and tumor tissues across most metabolite categories, with the most pronounced differences ($P \leq 0.001$) in nucleotides, benzenoids, and lipids, indicating marked alterations in their metabolic network activity in tumor tissues.

Correlations of MRS and untargeted metabolomics: global metabolic alterations and specific metabolites origins

The overall correlation patterns between MRS signals and untargeted metabolomics metabolites were presented in Figure 5. The cosine similarity of overall correlation patterns between two TEs was 0.8026 for upfield signals (Fig. 5a) and 0.3077 for downfield signals (Fig. 5b). Correlation coefficient difference matrices (Fig. 5c) further interpreted the differences in correlation distributions between the two TEs. Supplementary Table 3 presented the cosine similarity for each MRS peak's correlation patterns across TEs. Notably, upfield NAA, tCr, tCh, Lac, and Glu showed high pattern consistency (cosine similarity > 0.9), while only downfield DF7.09 showed high pattern consistency.

Based on the PCs and their eigenvalues derived from metabolomics data, the composite PCA score vector for each metabolomics category was calculated, and the correlations between this composite vector and MRS signals were then evaluated. For upfield signals (Fig. 6a), NAA, Glu, and Gln showed negative correlation with nucleotides and benzenoids. In addition, tCh, Lac, Ins, GSH, and GABA exhibited similar correlation distributions, showing positive correlation with benzenoids while negatively correlating with organic acids and lipids. Downfield signals exhibited TE-specific correlation profiles (Fig. 6b). Crucially, at TE = 6.9 ms, DF7.09, DF7.30, DF8.18 and DF8.x exhibited positive correlations with nucleotides, and DF6.83, DF7.09, DF7.30 and DF8.x exhibited positive correlations with benzenoids; While at TE = 15 ms, DF8.49 was positively correlated with benzenoids. Based on correlation distribution (Fig. 5b), probability densities were calculated for correlations between metabolite classes and each downfield signal (Supplementary Figure 1). The integrated density for strong correlations ($r > 0.7$) was quantified (Fig. 6c). At TE = 6.9 ms, nucleotides showed a high probability (probability density > 0.24) of strong positive correlations with DF6.83, DF8.18, and DF8.x, while no such strong correlations were observed at TE = 15 ms.

Table 1 systematically summarized the correlation analysis between MRS signals and their known/suspected corresponding specific omics-derived metabolites to explore specific metabolite-spectral linkages. Significant positive correlations were observed between upfield Glu and NAA and their corresponding omics-derived metabolites at both TEs, whereas Gln, tCr, and GABA demonstrated stronger correlations at TE = 15 ms compared to TE = 6.9 ms. While for downfield MRS signals, at TE = 6.9 ms,

several ATP downstream products, including xanthine, uric acid, deoxyadenosine, deoxyinosine, and ribose-1-phosphate showed positive correlations with DF6.83. Moreover, uric acid, deoxyadenosine, and deoxyinosine were positively correlated with DF8.18. At TE = 15 ms, xanthine, uric acid, deoxyadenosine, and deoxyinosine exhibited positive correlations with DF8.49, deoxyadenosine and deoxyinosine were additionally correlated with DF6.83. Besides, GSH showed a correlation with DF7.09 at TE = 15 ms.

Correlations of MRS and tumor growth parameters: metabolic-morphological linkage

As illustrated in Fig. 7a, longitudinal anatomical images acquired during tumor progression were used to calculate tumor volumes for all TB rats. The TGR for each rat (Fig. 7b) was then fitted using longitudinal tumor volume data collected at multiple time points. The correlations between all MRS signals and either tumor size or TGR were summarized in Supplementary Table 4. Tumor size was positively correlated with upfield Ins and Lac, while negatively correlated with NAA and Gln at both TEs. Additionally, GSH showed a positive correlation with tumor size at TE = 6.9 ms. Furthermore, tumor size also exhibited a positive correlation with DF8.18 and a negative correlation with DF8.24 at TE = 6.9 ms (Fig. 7d). Regarding TGR (Fig. 7e), at TE = 6.9 ms, TGR was positively correlated with GSH; while at TE = 15 ms, TGR demonstrated positive correlations with Ins, Tau, DF8.18, and DF8.x.

Discussion

Downfield MRS signals can provide unique metabolite information that cannot be detected in upfield MRS, thus holding promise for complementing conventional upfield biomarkers in neuro-oncology^{12, 24}. However, their metabolite origins are still areas of active research, and there is a lack of research exploring the relationship between in vivo MRS signals and ex vivo metabolomics, or their relationship to tumor growth. Here, we systematically correlated in vivo MRS signals with ex vivo untargeted metabolomics and revealed the potential of downfield signals to characterize nucleotide metabolism and provided support for the metabolic compositions of both upfield and downfield signals. Building on biochemical insights, the

correlation between MRS signals and tumor growth dynamics further deepens our metabolic understanding of tumor development and invasion.

MRS signals revealed distinct metabolism patterns between normal and tumor tissues. Notably, the TEs used were much shorter than the T2 relaxation time of upfield signals, thus no significant decay was observed. In contrast, downfield signals have significantly shorter apparent T2 relaxation times due to rapid exchange with water, resulting in noticeable signal decay. Thus, previous studies emphasized the use of short TE to minimize downfield signal loss and maximize signal-to-noise ratio (SNR)^{10, 13, 15}. Furthermore, we systematically evaluate several potential factors to ensure the reliability of our SNR-based comparison: First, the observed metabolic differences are unlikely to be driven by variations in water, as the correlation between the water signal and multiple metabolite signals were observed in HC but were absent in tumors. This linkage in normal tissue may suggest an underlying physiological covariation²⁵, whereas its absence in tumors likely indicates disruption by tumor-specific biological processes, such as metabolic reprogramming and liquefactive necrosis. Additionally, while macroscopic B0 homogeneity was comparable across groups (Supplementary Figure 4), tumor heterogeneity can still affect locally induced magnetic fields and intrinsic T2 relaxation²⁶, thereby increasing linewidth (Supplementary Figure 3). Moreover, the general lack of correlation between metabolite linewidth and SNR (Supplementary Table 7) suggests that spectral broadening had limited impact on our SNR-based comparisons. The observed negative correlation for NAA in LS tumor likely reflects the co-occurrence of neuronal loss and increased tissue heterogeneity. Finally, the consistency between our SNR-based analysis and the results derived from tCr-referenced metabolite ratios (Supplementary Figure 2) further ensure the reliability of our methodological approach.

Untargeted metabolomics revealed extensive reprogramming in tumor tissues. The upregulated metabolites including deoxycytidine (related to nucleotide metabolism, promoting DNA synthesis), acetic acid, and propanoic acid indicated tumor metabolic reprogramming; conversely, decreased levels of NAA, GABA, and specific amino acids suggested impaired neuronal function and metabolic pathways, consistent with the displacement of normal brain parenchyma by tumor tissue. Additionally, PCA based on metabolite

categories demonstrated significant alterations in nucleotides, benzenoids, and lipid metabolism. These shifts reflect important tumor metabolism reprogramming: Lipids are known to play crucial roles in promoting tumor growth and regulating cell death^{27,28}; Nucleotide metabolism is commonly upregulated in human cancers²⁹ to support uncontrolled proliferation and immune evasion, and nucleotide synthesis inhibitors are also backbones of therapy for many cancer indications³⁰; Benzenoids, such as hippuric acid from purine degradation, also exacerbate brain tissue damage due to potential neurotoxicity³¹.

Upfield MRS resonances of NAA and Glu showed significant correlations with their corresponding metabolomics metabolites. Enhanced correlations for some metabolites (Gln/tCr/GABA) at TE=15 ms likely resulted from macromolecule signal decay, improving baseline fitting and quantification accuracy³². The lack of correlation for other metabolites may due to signal overlap, for instance, the lactate MRS signal overlaps with macromolecule (MM)³³ and lipid signals³⁴.

The downfield signals DF6.83 and DF8.18 at TE = 6.9 ms were specifically correlated with metabolites in the ATP pathway. Although ATP itself is highly unstable and has been reported to be rapidly consumed in ex vivo glioblastoma samples³⁵, its downstream products showed significant correlations. This is chemically plausible, as the adenine moiety of ATP produces signals at ~8.2 ppm and 8.51 ppm²⁴, and its amino group resonates at 6.755 ppm³⁶. From a physiological perspective, cells are known to maintain high intracellular levels of adenine-based nucleotides, releasing ATP at rest³⁷, and the concentration of ATP in the normal brain is ~3mM³⁷. Dysregulated cancer cell growth is largely driven by altered mitochondrial energy production³⁸, and tumor-associated cells in glioblastoma are reported to have enhanced mitochondrial activity and increased ATP to promote tumor growth and invasion³⁹. These evidences collectively imply the contribution of ATP to downfield signals.

To evaluate other potential contributors to the downfield signals, we examined metabolites previously associated with the ~8.2 ppm region, such as GSH and amide protons. In our study, oxidized GSH products did not show a significant correlation with DF8.18 but instead exhibited a correlative trend with DF7.09 at TE = 15 ms, which suggests DF7.09 may better reflect GSH metabolism. This aligns with the reported resonance of the glycine NH group in GSH at 7.15 ppm³², while the lack of significant correlation at TE =

6.9 ms can be explained by overlap with homocarnosine (7.1 ppm)³⁶. Additionally, amide protons are widely distributed in protein and peptide backbones and are closely associated with organic acids within the untargeted metabolomics categories. However, our study found no correlation other than nucleotides and aromatic compounds with DF8.18 (Figure 6). And most free amino acids were also not correlated with DF8.18 (Supplementary Table 5). Notably, an independent study combining chemical exchange saturation transfer (CEST) and MRS⁴⁰ further support our interpretation. This work demonstrated that downfield saturation effects persist at a relatively long TE (45 ms) at 3T. Considering the rapid exchange of amide protons, they attributed it to the potential contribution of ATP, which exchanges with water through Nuclear Overhauser Effect (NOE).

The impact of different sequence acquisition methods on downfield signal composition is also noteworthy. Specifically, the MC method yielded relatively lower intensity of DF8.x peaks^{7, 10, 41} compared to selective excitation/refocusing methods^{10, 12, 42}. Notably, the selective excitation/refocusing method maximizes signals with rapid water exchange (e.g., DF8.x) by maintaining the water proton pool near thermal equilibrium, a mechanism known as longitudinal relaxation enhancement (LRE) effect^{43, 44}. However, in the MC method, the non-selective excitation pulse drives the entire water proton away from thermal equilibrium, potentially resulting in a less pronounced LRE effect⁴⁵. Furthermore, the exchange with water protons in the transverse magnetization could also lead to a shorter apparent T2 for the DF signals⁷, thereby accelerating the decay of DF8.x. Additionally, the delay between the inversion pulse and the excitation pulse in the MC method could also contribute to a minor signal reduction²³. The above methodological differences are critical for interpreting the downfield signals. Since amide protons exchange more rapidly with water (10-300 s⁻¹)⁴⁶ than the C-H protons on the purine ring of ATP, signals from amide protons with fast exchange can be attenuated in the MC method. Consequently, the slow-exchangeable protons within ATP likely contribute more to DF8.x. This mechanism is self-consistent with our observed significant correlation between DF8.18 and downstream ATP metabolites. Therefore, the potential influence of sequence design must be explicitly considered when comparing downfield spectra across

studies, and future studies comparing the performance of these two methods in detecting downfield signals will be of great significance.

Although C6 cells are consistently used for tumor modeling to ensure genetic and cell line consistency, tumor size and TGR varied among rats, likely due to individual immune responses and tumor microenvironments. Nevertheless, all tumors exhibited the progressive growth patterns and invasion characteristic of C6 cell-induced tumors, similar to human tumors^{47, 48}. The significant decrease in NAA signal with increasing tumor size indicates progressive neuronal damage during tumor growth. Meanwhile, the correlation between both lactate MRS signals and metabolomics data with tumor size (Supplementary Table 6) suggests sustained activation of anaerobic glycolysis within the tumor microenvironment. In addition, the strong correlation between Ins with TGR revealed its important role in tumor progression, as evidence suggesting upregulated de novo inositol synthesis to promote cell proliferation in cancer⁴⁹.

Several limitations of this study should be acknowledged. First, LC-MS/MS metabolite detection can be complicated by differences in ionization efficiency and fragmentation behaviour^{50, 51}, more mechanistic studies are needed to establish causality of our findings. Subsequent studies using high-resolution magic angle spinning (HRMAS) solid-state nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) or targeted metabolomics could provide complementary validation for the MRS-metabolomics associations. A recent study successfully correlated biochemical changes in mouse brain tissue with plasma profiles using HRMAS⁵², also highlighting the broad potential of multidimensional NMR techniques. Clearly, larger sample sizes are needed to improve the statistical power and reliability of omics analysis. Second, the MRS SNR values in this study were not corrected for relaxation times and therefore cannot be directly equated to absolute concentrations. Given that the TEs used were much shorter than the transverse relaxation time of upfield metabolite signals (>120 ms at 7T)⁵³, we suggest that T2 have little impact on the upfield signal. Considering the limited research on T2 relaxation times of downfield signals in tumor tissues, future studies comparing DF signals in normal and tumor tissues would be meaningful. Furthermore, future studies could detect downfield signals changes across tumor types and neuropsychiatric disorders⁵⁴, and explore their correlations with critical clinical indicators such as recurrence, survival, and treatment efficacy.

In conclusion, by applying the MC-PRESS sequence, our integrated analysis establishes a direct link between in vivo MRS and the ex vivo untargeted metabolomic of glioma and normal brains. Specifically, downfield signals, particularly DF6.83 and DF8.18, show promise as endogenous molecular imaging markers for metabolic changes in nucleotide metabolism, particularly ATP. MRS signals also demonstrate potential for non-invasively monitoring dynamic tumor metabolic turnovers. Collectively, these findings advance the biological interpretation of MRS signals while establishing guidance for their clinical application in precise neuro-oncology, with promising prospects for extending this methodology to other diseases.

Methods

Animal model preparation

All animal procedures were approved by the Animal Ethics Committee of Wenzhou Medical University (Experimental Animal Center, Wenzhou Medical University; approval number: wyd2024-0564). We have complied with all relevant ethical regulations for animal use. Thirteen male Wistar rats (~300 grams, 8-10 weeks old) were divided into two groups (TB group: n = 7 and HC group: n = 6). All TB group rats were immobilized and anesthetized by intraperitoneal injection of 5 mL/kg of 10% chloral hydrate. Based on the brain atlas, the drilling site was determined (AP: 1 mm; ML: 2.5 mm; DV: 5 mm), 1×10^6 C6 glioma cells were injected into the rat brain using a 10 μ L gastight syringe with an injection rate of 2 μ L/min. After the injection, the needle was left in place for 5 minutes, then slowly retracted. The burr hole was sealed with bone wax, the wound sutured and disinfected, and the rats returned to their cages for normal care after regaining consciousness. After surgery, the rats' recovery time, behavioural status, food intake, and activity levels were monitored over the next 24 hours to ensure normal conditions. After 10 days post-surgery, all tumor-bearing rats were scanned with MRI at a 3-day interval to monitor the tumor growth.

MR data acquisition

Experiments were performed using a 7T Bruker BioSpin MRI GmbH scanner, equipped with 570 mT/m gradients. A dual-channel transmit coil and a single-channel surface coil were used for signal transmission and reception. Spectroscopy data were acquired approximately 3-5 weeks after tumor cell injection. The rats anesthetized with 1.5% isoflurane were scanned. The anatomical T₂-weighted (T₂W) images of the rat brain were acquired with a RARE sequence (TE/TR = 8.8/3398 ms, FOV = 3.5 × 3.2 cm², matrix size = 256 × 256, and 0.75-mm slice thickness). Throughout the scan, anaesthesia was maintained via a face mask at a concentration of 1-2% isoflurane, maintaining the rats' respiratory rate at 80-90 BPM, while the ambient temperature was stabilised at 37 °C. B₀ shimming was performed before MRS acquisition, and a B₀ field map was acquired. A voxel mask corresponding to the MRS voxel was applied to extract B₀ values within the voxel, and the standard deviation of the within-voxel B₀ map (B₀_std) was calculated. The B₀_std was comparable across groups (Supplementary Figure 4), and the mean linewidth of the water signals across all three groups was below 16 Hz (Supplementary Table 8). The MC-PRESS sequence was used to acquire single-voxel MRS data. This sequence employed the metabolite-cycling method⁷ by applying inversion pulses before PRESS localization excitation. The parameters for MC-PRESS were as follows: TR = 6000 ms, two TEs of 6.9 ms and 15 ms, excitation bandwidth = 5000 Hz. Notably, TE = 6.9 ms represents the shortest achievable TE for this sequence, maximizing the SNR of downfield signals. TE = 15 ms was chosen to be comparable with previous studies of downfield signals. The inversion pulse was a hyperbolic secant adiabatic pulse to ensure stable slice profiles and alternately flips the upfield and downfield signals. The inversion pulse bandwidth was 2000 Hz, with its centre frequency alternately set to 0.5 ppm and 8.9 ppm, targeting the upfield and downfield signals, respectively. In addition, outer volume suppression (OVS) modules were implemented to improve localization accuracy. A total of 120 averages were acquired over 12 minutes. For HC rats, the voxel was placed in the right hemisphere of the brain, centered at the tumor injection point, while for tumor rats, tumor voxel sizes were adjusted according to tumor morphology to encompass the majority of the parenchyma region, and the voxel size is around 41.25-165 μL. All MR data were collected from tumor rats between day 17 and day 35 post-injection. Based on tumor growth size and upfield MRS signals, the tumor group was further divided into ES tumor group

(tumor size = 19.26 ± 9.80 mL, tCr/NAA = 0.97 ± 0.06) and LS tumor group (tumor size = 188.71 ± 96.31 mL, tCr/NAA = 1.91 ± 0.66) tumor groups²². For comparison, the tCr/NAA ratio in HC was 0.89 ± 0.11 .

Sample preparation and untargeted metabolomics profiling

Tissue extraction was performed within one hour after MRS scanning, following anaesthesia and perfusion. Sampling location and size were aligned with MRS voxel positions, and samples were stored at -80 °C for analysis. 25 mg of each sample was weighed at low temperature into an EP tube, and 500 μ L of extraction solution (methanol: acetonitrile: water = 2:2:1) was added. After vortexing for 30 s, the mixture was homogenized using a homogenizer (35 Hz, 4 min) and then sonicated on ice for 5 min. The homogenization and sonication cycle were repeated three times. The samples were incubated at -40 °C for 1 h and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm at 4 °C for 15 min. The supernatant was then transferred to a vial for instrument analysis.

LC-MS/MS analyses were performed using a UHPLC system (Vanquish, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and a Waters ACQUITY UPLC BEH Amide (2.1 mm \times 50 mm, 1.7 μ m)⁵⁵ coupled to Orbitrap Exploris 120 mass spectrometer (Orbitrap MS, Thermo). The mobile phase consisted of 25 mmol/L ammonium acetate and 25 mmol/L ammonia hydroxides in water (pH = 9.75) (A) and acetonitrile (B). The auto-sampler temperature was 4 °C, and the injection volume was 2 μ L. The Orbitrap Exploris 120 mass spectrometer was used for its ability to acquire MS/MS spectra on information-dependent acquisition (IDA) mode in the control of the acquisition software (Xcalibur, Thermo). In this mode, the acquisition software continuously evaluates the full scan MS spectrum. The ESI source conditions were set as following: sheath gas flow rate as 50 Arb, Aux gas flow rate as 15 Arb, capillary temperature 320 °C, full MS resolution as 60000, MS/MS resolution as 15000, collision energy: SNCE 20/30/40, spray voltage as 3.8 kV (positive) or -3.4 kV (negative), respectively.

ProteoWizard was used to convert the raw data to the mzXML format, and peak detection, extraction, alignment, and integration were performed using R based on XCMS. The R package and the BiotreeDB (V3.0) were applied in metabolite identification⁵⁶, metabolites were identified according to the

Metabolomics Standards Initiative (MSI)⁵⁷, the identified metabolites matched the retention time (RT), precursor ion m/z (MS1), and product ion m/z (MS2). Metabolites were classified according to the Human Metabolome Database (HMDB)⁵⁸. In this study, a total of 38518 peaks were detected and 1625 metabolites were left after relative standard deviation de-noising. Then, the missing values were filled with half of the minimum value. Also, the internal standard normalization method was applied to the raw data. Following preprocessing, Z-score normalization was performed on the sample data, and hierarchical clustering heatmap analysis was conducted to evaluate the overall metabolic differences between normal and tumor tissues. SIMCA software (V18.0.1, Sartorius Stedim Data Analytics AB, Umea, Sweden) was used to perform multivariate analysis. Data was logarithmically transformed to minimize the impact of both noise and high variance of the variables. PCA was carried out to visualize the distribution and grouping of the samples⁵⁹. OPLS-DA⁶⁰ was then applied to visualize group separation and find significantly changed metabolites. The permutation test established 200 OPLS models by randomly changing the order of the categorical variables Y to obtain the R2 and Q2 values of the stochastic model. Furthermore, the values of variable importance in the projection (VIP) of the first principal component in OPLS-DA analysis were obtained. The metabolites with $VIP > 1$ and $P < 0.05$ were considered as significantly differential metabolites. The top 10 significantly upregulated and top 10 significantly downregulated metabolites were selected based on P significance and visualized using a heatmap, and hierarchical clustering of the top differentially expressed metabolites was performed using the complete linkage method.

For each metabolomics category, PCA was performed using the built-in sklearn package in Python. Specifically, for a single-class metabolomics dataset $D_{n \times m}$, where n represents the number of tissue samples and m represents the number of metabolites in an individual metabolomics category. PCA was applied to obtain the eigenvector matrix $U_{m \times m}$ and eigenvalue matrix $V_{m \times 1}$. Based on a threshold of no more than 90% of the total explained variance, the eigenvector matrix $U'_{m \times k}$ ($k < m$) and eigenvalue matrix $V'_{k \times 1}$ were obtained. The PCA score matrix $P_{n \times k}$ was computed according to equation (1):

$$P_{n \times k} = D_{n \times m} \times U'_{m \times k} \quad (1)$$

$P(i, j) \in n \times k$ denoted the PCA score of sample i across the j principal components.

Eigenvalue-weighted feature vector $E'_{m \times 1}$ for each metabolite category was calculated using equation (2) to represent its overall metabolic variation:

$$E'_{m \times 1} = U'_{m \times k} \times V'_{k \times 1} \quad (2)$$

Subsequently, by projecting all samples onto the eigenvalue-weighted feature vector using Equation (3), the composite PCA score vector $P'_{n \times 1}$ within each metabolite category were obtained:

$$P'_{n \times 1} = D_{n \times m} \times E'_{m \times 1} \quad (3)$$

Metabolites listed in Table 1 met the following inclusion criteria: For upfield signals, the metabolite origins are relatively well-established, thus the corresponding metabolites identified through metabolomics were selected. It should be noted that NAA and GSH are unstable *ex vivo*; therefore, their respective metabolic derivatives — aspartate (breakdown product of NAA) and glutathione disulfide (GSSG, oxidation product of GSH) — were used as *ex vivo* markers. PCr is also unstable and has been reported to be rapidly consumed in *ex vivo* glioblastoma samples³⁵, therefore, only the correlation between creatine and tCr MRS signal was calculated. For downfield signals, since their metabolite attribution is primarily based on theoretical speculation, potential contributors such as NAA, glutathione, ATP, phenylalanine, histidine, Gln, tryptophan, and tyrosine, as reported in prior literature²⁴, were included. Considering the instability of ATP under *ex vivo* conditions and its undetectability via direct measurement, analysis was performed on the downfield resonances associated with its sequential degradation products (Supplementary Figure 5).

MR data processing

The MRS spectra were processed using the MATLAB FID-A toolbox. After coil combination and zero-filling, frequency and phase alignment were performed using the water peak. A correction factor was calculated from the first 16 points FID signals⁶¹ to minimize water sideband errors. During acquisition, the

upfield and downfield signals were alternately flipped, thus summing the flipped signals yielded the water spectrum, while subtracting them yielded the upfield and downfield spectra.

Water signals were fitted by AMARES using a Lorentzian shape in JMRUI. Metabolite spectra were fitted using LCModel⁶², as shown in Supplementary Figure 6. Upfield signals were fitted between 0 and 4.2 ppm using a simulated basis set⁶³ consisting of 16 metabolites, with tCh as the sum of glycerophosphorylcholine and phosphorylcholine, and tCr as the sum of creatine and phosphocreatine. Macromolecule and background fitting was performed with default LCModel settings, using built-in splines⁶⁴. The fitting errors of the overlapping signals were evaluated using Cramér-Rao lower bounds (CRLBs). The fitting results of upfield signals with CRLB > 35% would be individually excluded for statistical analysis. Downfield spectra were fitted with a basis set consisting of nine Gaussian peaks ranging in frequency from 6.83 to 8.49 ppm, and the baseline stiffness was set using the control parameter “DKNTMN” = 5, following a previous study^{24, 65}. A composite peak (8.x ppm) was also fitted to represent the region of 8.18-8.37 ppm⁶⁵. Due to the relatively low SNR of downfield signals compared to upfield signals, the fitting results of downfield signals with CRLB > 50% would be individually excluded for statistical analysis. Therefore, the sample size for each metabolite was varied. The sample size and CRLB for each MRS resonance in each group were listed in Supplementary Table 8. For each metabolite, the SNR was calculated individually by dividing the fitted signal amplitude by the standard deviation of the spectral noise. Specifically, metabolite signal amplitudes were obtained by fitting each respective resonance peak using LCModel. In addition, the spectral noise was estimated as the standard deviation of the last 200 points of the free induction decay (FID), acquired from a signal-free region. To enable comparison across subjects and groups, the SNR was further normalized by the voxel size, the results were presented in “institutional units” (i.u.). The robustness of the primary normalization method was assessed by performing an alternative normalization using total creatine (tCr) as an internal reference metabolite. Specifically, ratios (e.g., NAA/tCr, DF6.8/tCr) were derived by dividing the peak area of the target metabolite by the peak area of tCr.

The tumor size was measured using the anatomical T₂W images. The TGR in the TB group was fitted using nonlinear least-squares regression in MATLAB 2018b. The exponential model fitted all tumor growth curves with high accuracy, as evidenced by R² values (mean ± SD = 0.980 ± 0.027). To perform the correlation analysis, the average downfield signals from late-stage timepoints for each TB rat were calculated and correlated with the corresponding TGR.

Statistics and Reproducibility

Sample sizes were determined according to previous literature^{12, 24} and our preliminary experiments. For analysis of inter-group differences in the normalized MRS spectra, outliers were first removed based on the mean ± 1.75 × interquartile range (IQR). Then, a mixed-effects model was applied to account for repeated measures and sample dependence within groups, with samples as a random effect and group as a fixed effect. In untargeted metabolomics statistics between HC and TB tissues, normal data were compared using independent t-tests, while non-normal data were compared with Wilcoxon rank-sum tests. For all correlation analyses, Pearson correlation was used for normal distributions, and Spearman's rank correlation was used for non-normal distributions. Statistical significance was set at + $P < 0.1$, * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$. The Benjamini & Hochberg false discovery rate adjusted p-FDR was also calculated. All statistical analyses were performed using Python version 3.10.10. Blinding and randomization were not performed.

Data Availability

The main data supporting the results of this study are available within the paper and the supplementary information. The raw and analysed data are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request, and we will respond within two weeks. Source data underlying graphs can be obtained from Supplementary data.

Code Availability

The sequence development is based on the 7T Bruker BioSpin platform, with the system version ParaVision 360V3.0. The MC-PRESS sequence was developed using the PRESS sequence provided by the platform. Postprocessing code will be shared upon request, and we will respond within two weeks.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported in part by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 32301159, and 82572290) and Zhejiang Provincial Natural Science Foundation of China (Z25H180012) and the National Key Research and Development Program of China (2021YFA1101700).

Author Contributions

MRS data acquisition: X.Z, C.Y, K.Z, M.W. Sequence development: X.Z, M.W. Data post-processing: X.Z, M.W. Tissue sampling: X.Z, C.Y, S.C, YB.L, M.W. Statistical: X.Z, M.W. Funding acquisition: M.W. Writing-original draft: X.Z. Writing—review & editing: X.Z, J.Z, YC.L, M.W. All authors read the final version of the manuscript and provided critical feedback.

Ethics declarations

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Tables

Table 1 Correlation analysis of specific omics metabolite with corresponding MRS signals.

Metabolite compound	CAS number	Resonance(ppm)	TE = 6.9 ms				TE = 15 ms			
			n	r	P	p-FDR	n	r	P	p-FDR
Glutamate	56-86-0	2.04/2.35/3.75	9	0.800	0.010	0.063	9	0.786	0.012	0.154
Aspartate (NAA)	56-84-8	2.01/2.49/2.67/4.38	9	0.933	<0.001	0.001	9	0.909	0.001	0.055
Glutamine	56-85-9	7.82	9	-0.439	0.237	0.447	9	0.114	0.770	0.919
		2.12/2.46/3.77	5	0.402	0.502	0.719	8	0.814	0.014	0.154
		6.8	9	-0.800	0.010	0.063	9	-0.550	0.125	0.362
Creatine (tCr)	57-00-1	7.5	9	-0.633	0.067	0.195	9	-0.467	0.205	0.470
		3.03/3.93	9	0.548	0.127	0.279	9	0.615	0.078	0.297
		62-49-7	9	-0.239	0.536	0.737	9	-0.209	0.589	0.790
Choline (tCh)	62-49-7	3.21/3.66/4.31	9	-0.239	0.536	0.737	9	-0.209	0.589	0.790
Lactate	50-21-5	1.31/4.10	9	-0.402	0.284	0.488	8	-0.467	0.244	0.537
Taurine	107-35-7	3.25/3.42	9	0.433	0.244	0.447	9	0.317	0.406	0.657
myo-Inositol	87-89-8	3.27/3.52/3.61/4.05	9	-0.607	0.083	0.217	9	-0.387	0.304	0.539
Glutathione disulfide (GSH)	27025-41-8	2.15/2.55/2.93/2.98/3.77/4.56	7	-0.328	0.472	0.702	6	-0.386	0.450	0.678
		7.154	9	0.522	0.149	0.315	9	0.671	0.048	0.245
		8.177	8	0.403	0.323	0.537	8	-0.520	0.187	0.462
4-Aminobutyric acid (GABA)	56-12-2	1.89/2.28/3.00	9	-0.217	0.576	0.754	9	0.583	0.099	0.303
Phenylalanine	63-91-2	7.30	9	-0.031	0.936	0.977	9	0.348	0.358	0.615
		7.45	9	-0.097	0.804	0.884	9	0.117	0.764	0.919
Histidine	71-00-1	7.1	9	-0.855	0.003	0.055	9	-0.684	0.042	0.245
		7.8	9	-0.779	0.013	0.063	9	0.067	0.864	0.950
Tryptophan	73-22-3	7.31/7.20/7.28	9	0.158	0.685	0.819	9	0.513	0.157	0.432
Tyrosine	60-18-4	6.89	9	-0.011	0.977	0.977	9	0.480	0.191	0.462
		7.19	9	-0.162	0.677	0.819	9	0.417	0.264	0.539
Adenosine 5'-diphosphate (ADP)	58-64-0	6.755	9	-0.473	0.199	0.391	9	0.028	0.944	0.998
		~8.2	8	-0.631	0.093	0.232	8	-0.006	0.990	1.000
		8.51	9	-0.254	0.510	0.719	8	-0.234	0.577	0.790
Adenosine monophosphate (AMP)	61-19-8	6.755	9	-0.778	0.014	0.063	9	-0.669	0.049	0.245
		~8.2	8	-0.758	0.029	0.106	8	0.227	0.588	0.790
		8.51	9	0.102	0.795	0.884	8	-0.683	0.062	0.267
Adenosine	58-61-7	6.755	9	0.135	0.730	0.854	9	0.083	0.831	0.933
		~8.2	8	-0.217	0.606	0.758	8	-0.514	0.193	0.462
		8.51	9	-0.012	0.976	0.977	8	-0.322	0.436	0.678
Inosine	58-63-9	6.755	9	-0.817	0.007	0.063	9	-0.392	0.296	0.539
		~8.2	8	-0.828	0.011	0.063	8	0.114	0.788	0.919
		8.51	9	0.019	0.961	0.977	8	-0.776	0.023	0.193
Hypoxanthine	68-94-0	6.755	9	-0.316	0.407	0.640	9	-0.406	0.278	0.539
		~8.2	8	-0.790	0.020	0.079	8	-0.007	0.987	1.000
		8.51	9	-0.552	0.123	0.279	8	-0.651	0.081	0.297
Xanthine	69-89-6	6.755	9	0.687	0.041	0.141	9	0.102	0.794	0.919
		~8.2	8	0.449	0.265	0.470	8	0.139	0.743	0.919
		8.51	9	-0.224	0.563	0.754	8	0.626	0.097	0.303
Uric acid	69-93-2	6.755	9	0.801	0.010	0.063	9	0.335	0.379	0.632
		~8.2	8	0.693	0.057	0.184	8	0.041	0.924	0.996
		8.51	9	-0.299	0.435	0.665	8	0.681	0.063	0.267
Deoxyadenosine	958-09-8	6.755	9	0.783	0.013	0.063	9	0.583	0.099	0.303
		~8.2	8	0.810	0.015	0.063	8	0.000	1.000	1.000
		8.51	9	0.367	0.332	0.537	8	0.762	0.028	0.193
Deoxyinosine	890-38-0	6.755	9	0.933	<0.001	0.001	9	0.833	0.005	0.138
		~8.2	8	0.667	0.071	0.195	8	-0.262	0.531	0.769
		8.51	9	-0.100	0.798	0.884	8	0.752	0.028	0.193
Ribose-1-phosphate	14075-00-4	6.755	8	0.658	0.071	0.195	8	-0.429	0.289	0.539
		~8.2	9	0.500	0.170	0.346	8	0.310	0.456	0.678
		8.51	9	-0.067	0.865	0.933	9	0.100	0.798	0.919
Deoxyribose-1-phosphate	17210-42-3	6.755	8	-0.624	0.098	0.234	8	0.107	0.802	0.919
		~8.2	9	-0.200	0.606	0.758	8	-0.849	0.008	0.147
		8.51	9	-0.850	0.004	0.055	9	-0.408	0.275	0.539

NOTE: “Metabolite compound” denoted metabolites identified via metabolomics. For the upfield region, the correlations between MRS signals and their corresponding omics-identified metabolites are presented, as their metabolic origins are relatively well-established. Given that NAA is unstable *ex vivo* and hydrolyzes into aspartate and acetate, aspartate is selected as a surrogate marker for NAA. PCr is also unstable and has been reported to be rapidly consumed in *ex vivo* glioblastoma samples, therefore only the correlation between creatine and tCr signals is shown. In addition, GSH is prone to oxidation in the extracellular environment, and its oxidized form is glutathione disulfide (GSSG), thus GSSG is used as an *in vitro* representation of GSH. For the downfield signals, potential contributors reported in prior literature were included, such as NAA (amide proton), glutathione (amide proton), ATP (adenosine and amino group), phenylalanine (phenyl moiety), histidine (imidazole moiety), Gln (amide proton), tryptophan (indole moiety) and tyrosine (phenol moiety). Due to the instability of ATP under *ex vivo* conditions, downstream metabolites in its metabolic pathway (Supplementary Figure 5) are selected as surrogate indicators for its *ex vivo* characterization. “**CAS number**” (Chemical Abstracts Service Registry Number) serves as a unique numerical identifier for every chemical substance appearing in scientific literature, and is assigned by the American Chemical Abstracts Service. The chemical shift for the “**Resonance**” of all the metabolites are obtained from reference²⁸. For upfield metabolites, correlation analysis was performed between the metabolite levels detected by untargeted metabolomics and the normalized values derived from fitted upfield MRS signals. For downfield metabolites, correlation analysis was performed between the metabolite levels detected by untargeted metabolomics and the normalized values derived from fitted downfield MRS signals with the closest resonance frequencies. For example, downfield metabolite ATP, which resonates at 6.755 ppm, ~8.2 ppm, and 8.51 ppm, was correlated with DF6.83, DF8.18, and DF8.49, respectively. “**n**” represents the actual number included in the correlation analysis. Values with a correlation coefficient $r > 0.5$ and $P < 0.1$ are marked in blue, while values with a correlation coefficient $r > 0.5$ and $P < 0.05$ are marked in blue and **bolded**.

Figure captions

Figure 1. MC-PRESS and visualization of spectra of the HC and ES/LS gliomas at two TEs. (a) MC-PRESS sequence schedule. Outer volume suppression (OVS) pre-saturation pulses and an inversion pulse were applied sequentially prior to PRESS localization excitation. (b) Representative downfield (6~10 ppm) and upfield (0~4 ppm) magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) spectra of health control rats (HC) and early-stage/late-stage (ES/LS) gliomas at two echo times (TE). The rat brain structural image is shown, with the red square representing the MRS voxel. The blue line indicates TE = 15 ms, while the black line indicates TE = 6.9 ms. The vertical scale for the upfield signals is consistent across all samples, while the downfield signals are displayed with a vertical scale expanded by a factor of 6 compared to the upfield signals. DF8.x refers to the sum of DF8.18, DF8.24, and DF8.37. (c) Average normalized spectra in the HC and ES/LS gliomas groups (HC: n = 10, ES: n = 8, LS: n = 12). Solid lines represent the mean spectra, and shaded regions indicate the 95% confidence interval of the mean.

Figure 2. Altered MRS signals in HC and ES/LS glioma groups. (a) Mixed-effects model comparison for upfield signals of three groups at two TEs. Red boxes indicate echo time (TE) = 6.9 ms, while blue boxes represent TE = 15 ms. Box plots overlaid with scatter points display individual data distributions. The boxes represent the interquartile range (IQR), the central line indicates the median, whiskers extend to data points within $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$, and points beyond are considered outliers. Points from the same sample at different TEs are connected by gray lines. GSH: glutathione, Ins: inositol, Lac: lactate, NAA: N-acetyl aspartate, Tau: taurine, tCh: total choline, tCr: total creatine, Glu: glutamate, Gln: glutamine, GABA: γ -aminobutyric acid. (b) Mixed-effects model comparison for downfield signals of three groups at two TEs. (c) Mixed-effects model comparison for the downfield sum peak signal of three groups at TE = 6.9 ms. (d) Mixed-effects model comparison for the downfield sum peak signal of three groups at TE = 15 ms. (e) Mixed-effects model comparison for water signals of three groups at TE = 6.9 ms. (f) Mixed-effects model

comparison for water signals of three groups at TE = 15 ms. The sample sizes used for statistical analysis are provided in Supplementary Table 8. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$.

Figure 3. Untargeted metabolomic profiling of normal and tumor rat brain tissues. (a) Heatmap of metabolomics metabolite clustering for health control (HC) tissue samples ($n = 4$) and tumor-bearing (TB) tissue samples ($n = 5$). Colors represent relative metabolite abundance, with red indicating higher abundance and blue indicating lower abundance. (b) Distribution of metabolite categories identified by untargeted metabolomics. (c) Unsupervised principal component analysis (PCA) score plot of untargeted metabolomics data, with all sample points falling within the 95% confidence interval. (d) Supervised orthogonal projections to latent structures-discriminant analysis (OPLS-DA) score plot of untargeted metabolomics data, showing distinct differences between groups, with all sample points falling within the 95% confidence interval. (e) Permutation plot tests of OPLS-DA model. All Q2 points from left to right are lower than the original blue Q2 points on the right side, indicating that the model is robust and reliable without overfitting. (f) Volcano plot selecting differential metabolites based on variable importance in the projection (VIP) ($VIP > 1$) and P ($P < 0.05$). The x-axis shows fold change (\log_2) and the y-axis shows P (negative \log_{10}) from the t-test. The fold change is defined as the ratio of quantitative values between two groups (TB/HC). Red points indicate significantly upregulated metabolites, blue points indicate significantly downregulated metabolites, and gray points indicate metabolites without significant differences. (g) Hierarchical clustering heatmap of the top 10 significantly upregulated and downregulated metabolites identified. The x-axis represents the samples, the y-axis represents the differential metabolites, and the color blocks at different positions indicate the z-scores of the corresponding metabolites.

Figure 4. Metabolite category–based principal component patterns in normal and tumor tissues. (a) Explained variance plot of principal components derived from metabolite category–level untargeted metabolomics data. The line plot shows the explained variance for each principal component, while the bar chart represents the cumulative explained variance. Principal components are selected based on a threshold

of no more than 90% of the total explained variance. **(b)** Mean principal component scores of health control (HC) and tumor (TB) tissues (HC: $n = 4$, TB: $n = 5$) for each principal component. The most significant intergroup differences ($P \leq 0.001$) involved nucleotides, benzenoids, and lipids. Significant differences were analyzed using a two-sample independent t-test: * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$.

Figure 5. Correlation patterns between MRS signals and individual metabolites in untargeted metabolomics. **(a)** Heatmaps of correlation coefficients and correlation significance between upfield signals and untargeted omics metabolites at two TEs. The vertical axis represents 1425 omics metabolites (8 metabolite classes), as shown in the table on the left, and the horizontal axis corresponds to the ten upfield signals. In the correlation significance matrix, red represents metabolites with $r \geq 0.7$ and $p\text{-FDR} < 0.10$, while blue represents metabolites with $r \leq -0.7$ and $p\text{-FDR} < 0.10$. **(b)** Heatmaps of correlation coefficients and correlation significance between downfield signals and untargeted omics metabolites at two echo times (TE). The vertical axis represents the omics metabolites, while the horizontal axis corresponds to the 10 downfield signals. **(c)** Difference correlation coefficients matrix between two TEs for upfield and downfield signals. It was calculated by subtracting the correlation matrix at TE = 15 ms from the correlation matrix at TE = 6.9 ms.

Figure 6. Correlation of upfield and downfield MRS signals with metabolite categories. **(a)** Heatmap of the correlation between the composite principal component analysis (PCA) score vector of each metabolite category and upfield signals at two echo times (TE) ($n = 9$). **(b)** Heatmap of the correlation between the composite PCA score vector of each metabolite category and downfield signals at two TEs ($n = 9$). A number of downfield signals showed correlations with nucleotides and benzenoids at TE = 6.9 ms. **(c)** Bar chart of the statistical probability for strong correlations ($r > 0.7$) between each metabolomic category and downfield signals at two TEs. DF6.83, DF8.18, and DF8.x exhibited the highest probability distribution of strong correlation with nucleotides at TE = 6.9 ms (probability density > 0.24 , as indicated by the red dashed line). * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$.

Figure 7. Correlation between MRS signals and tumor growth parameters. (a) Schematic representation of tumor progression. The red segmentation mask delineates the tumor region. (b) Fitting of the exponential growth curve of brain tumors in tumor-bearing rats ($n = 7$). The black dashed line (tumor size = 50 μL) represents the boundary between early-stage and late-stage groups. (c) Significant correlations between tumor size and upfield signals at two echo times (TE). (d) Significant correlations between tumor size and downfield signals. Only DF8.18 and DF8.24 showed correlations with tumor size at echo time = 6.9 ms. (e) Significant correlations between tumor growth rate (TGR) and MRS signals at two TEs. Ins and TGR show good linear consistency at TE = 15 ms. Shaded areas represent the 95% confidence interval of the fitted linear regression. The sample sizes used for correlation analysis are shown in Supplementary Table 4.

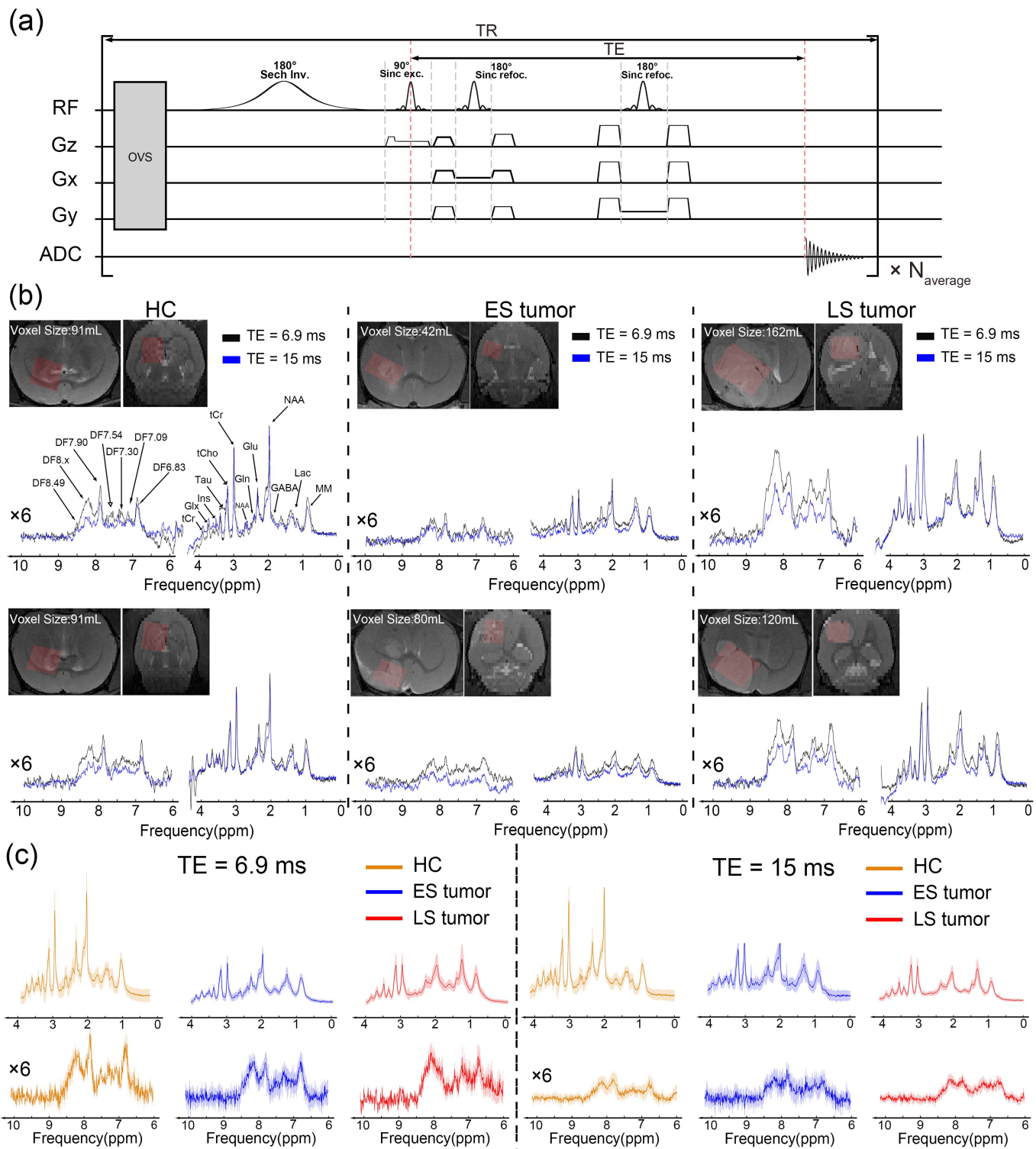
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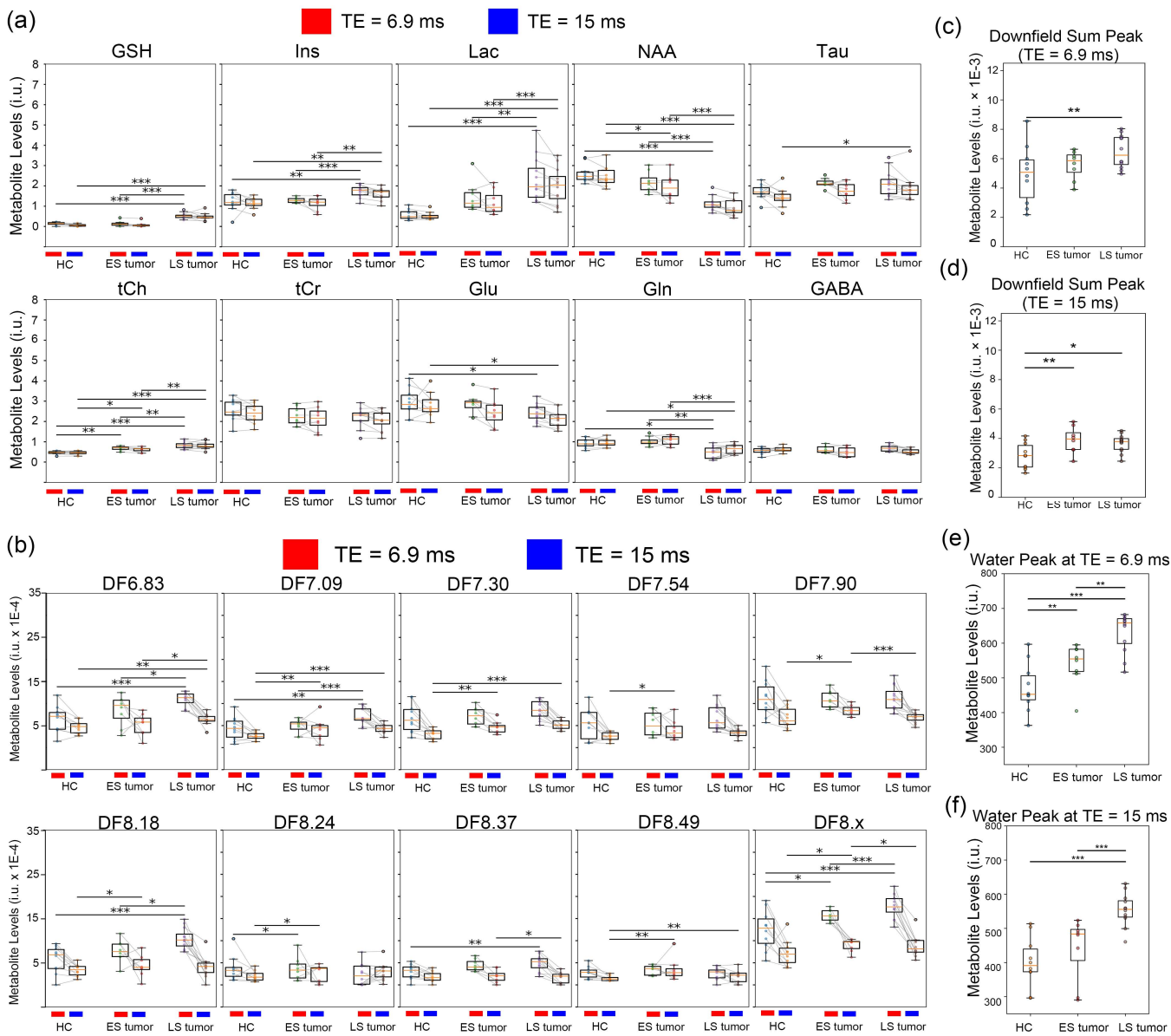
Integrated magnetic resonance spectroscopy and untargeted metabolomics help elucidate the metabolic origins of downfield MRS signals in glioma, enabling non invasive capturing adenosine triphosphate (ATP)-associated nucleotide metabolism.

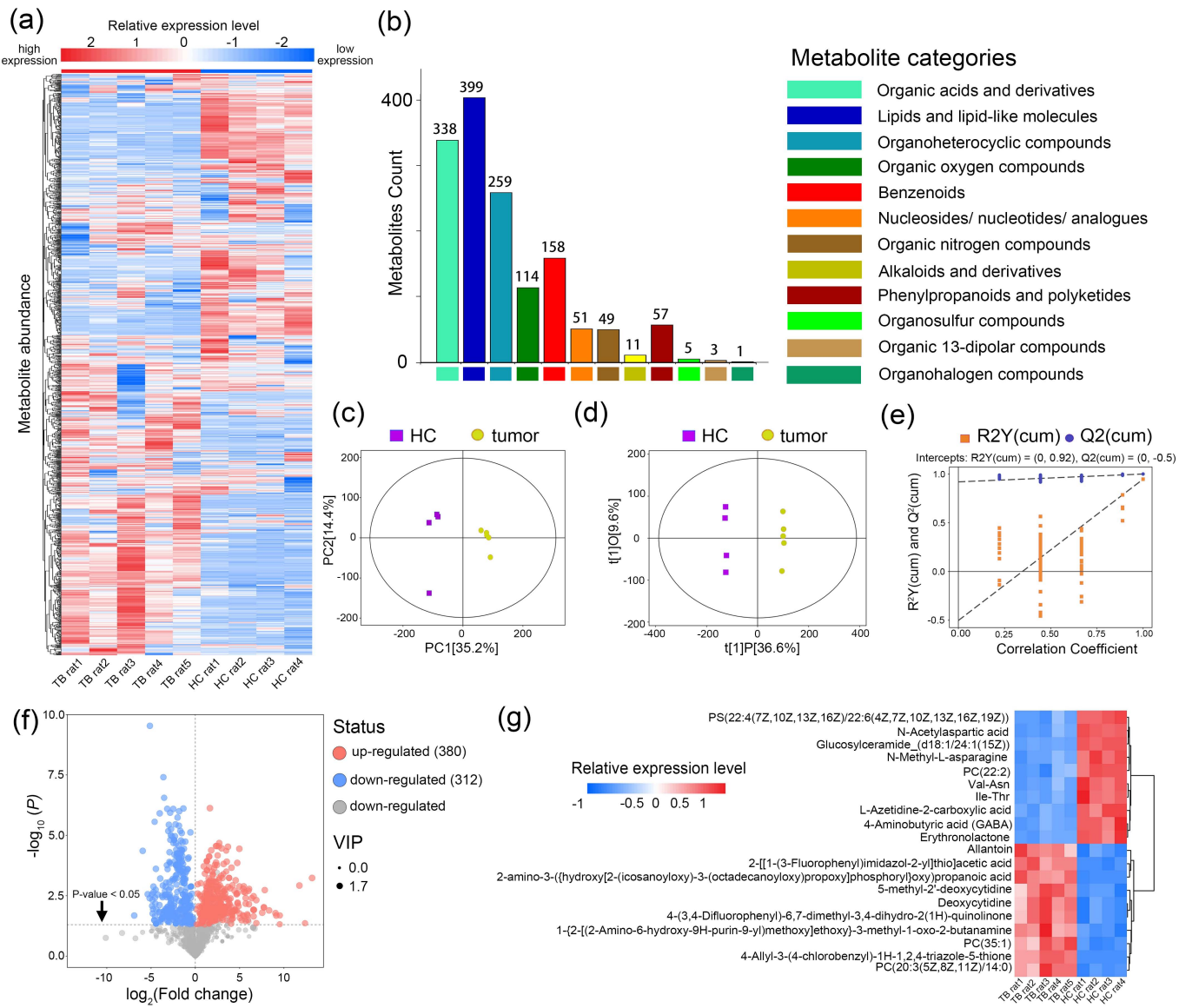
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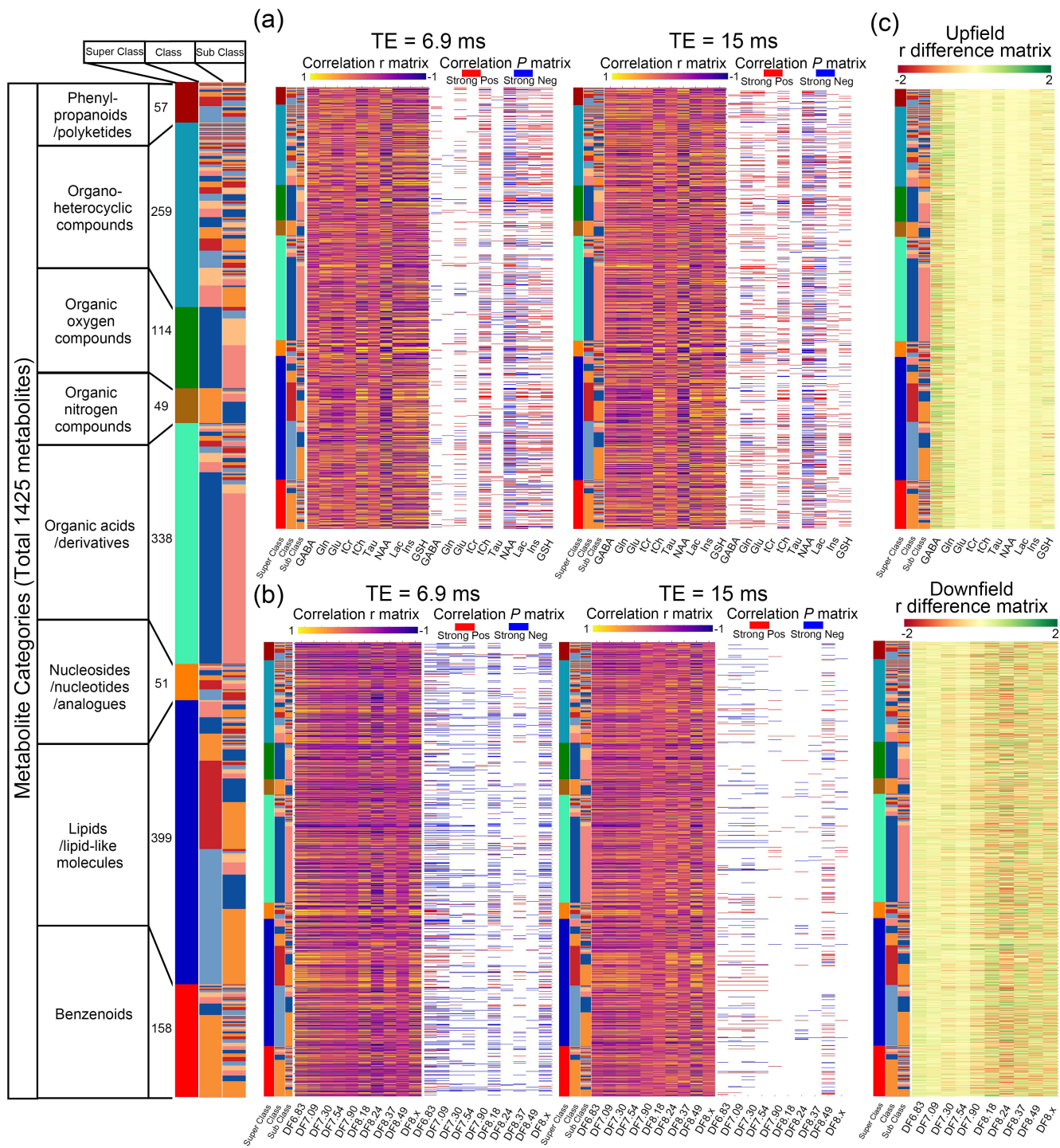
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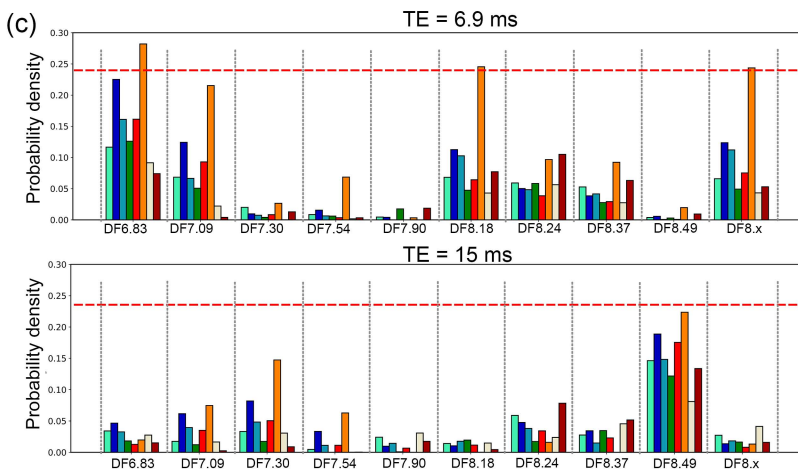
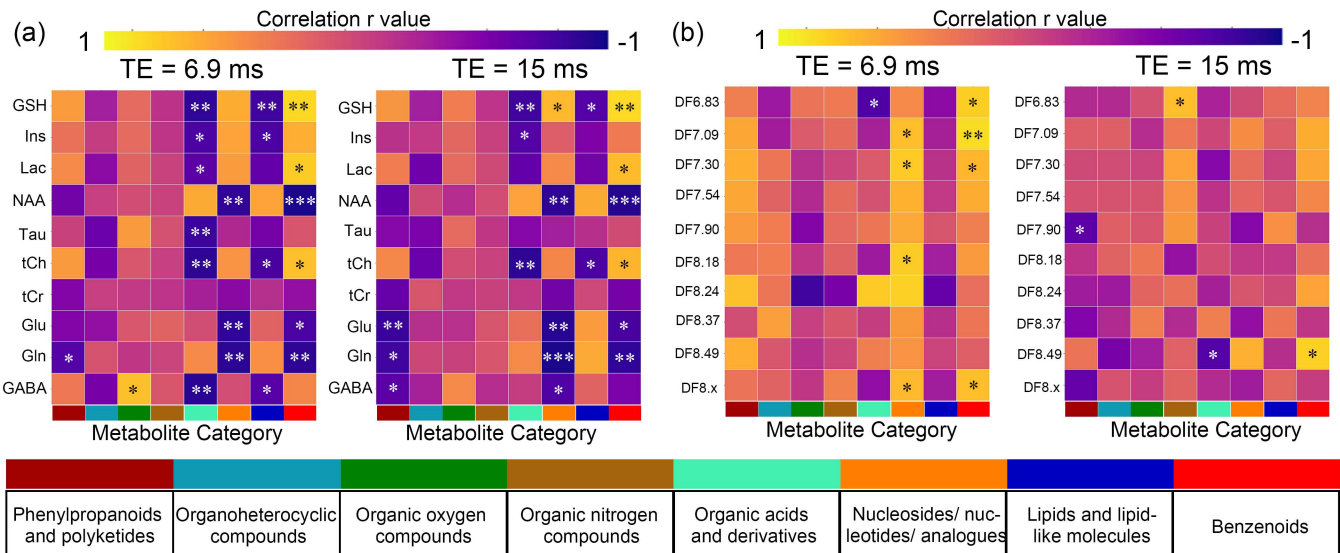
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Metabolite Categories

- Organic acids and derivatives
- Lipids and lipid-like molecules
- Organoheterocyclic compounds
- Organic oxygen compounds
- Benzenoids
- Nucleosides/ nucleotides/ analogues
- Organic nitrogen compounds
- Phenylpropanoids and polyketides

