

# PET Imaging: Comprehensive Guide

## Positron annihilation

511 keV photons in opposite directions

## Coincidence detection

Simultaneous detection localizes source

## Radiotracers (FDG, etc.)

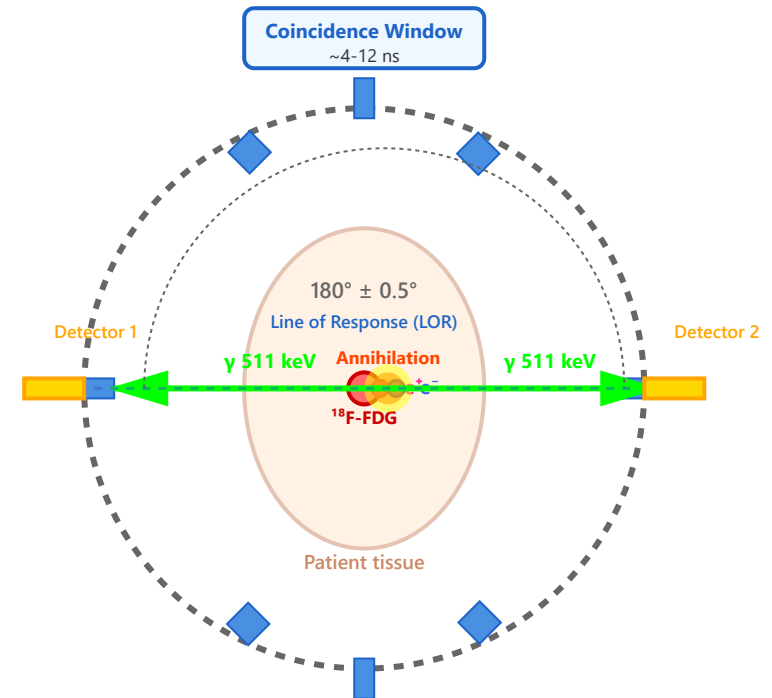
FDG shows glucose metabolism

## SUV calculations

Standardized uptake value quantification

## PET/CT integration

Functional and anatomical fusion



## 1

# Positron Annihilation

## Physical Principle

Positron annihilation is the fundamental physical process that enables PET imaging. When a positron-emitting radioisotope decays, it releases a positron ( $e^+$ ), the antimatter counterpart of an electron. This positron travels a short distance (typically 1-2 mm) through tissue before encountering an electron ( $e^-$ ).

When the positron and electron collide, they annihilate each other, converting their combined mass into pure energy according to Einstein's mass-energy equivalence equation ( $E=mc^2$ ). This annihilation produces exactly two gamma-ray photons, each with an energy of 511 keV.

### Key Characteristics:

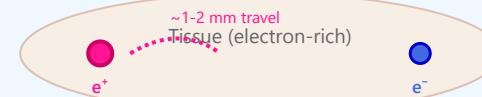
- **Energy conservation:** Each photon carries exactly 511 keV (the rest mass energy of an electron/positron)
- **Momentum conservation:** The two photons are emitted in nearly opposite directions ( $180^\circ \pm 0.5^\circ$ )

## Positron Annihilation Process

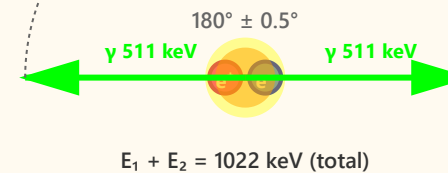
### Stage 1: Radioactive Decay



### Stage 2: Positron Travel



### Stage 3: Annihilation



- **Positron range:** Limited travel distance before annihilation affects spatial resolution
- **Simultaneous emission:** Both photons are created at the same instant

#### Annihilation Equation



Two photons at 180° to conserve momentum

### Clinical Significance

The positron range before annihilation is a fundamental limit on PET spatial resolution. Different isotopes have different positron energies and thus different ranges:  $^{18}\text{F}$  has a short range (~0.6 mm), while  $^{82}\text{Rb}$  has a longer range (~2.6 mm), affecting image quality accordingly.

## Detection Mechanism

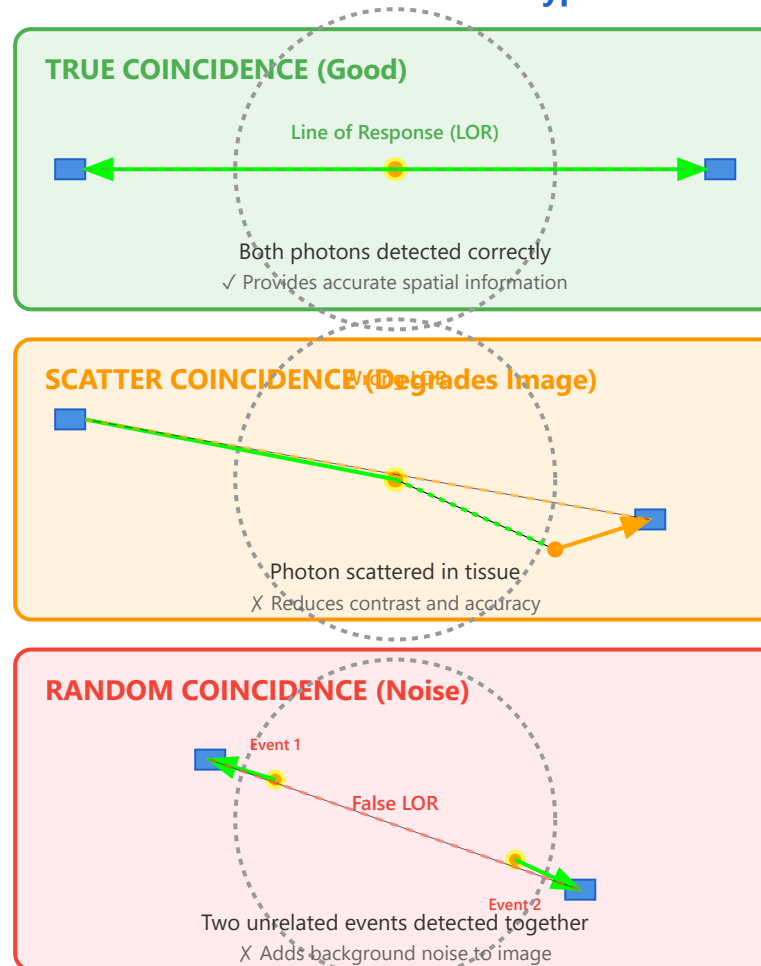
Coincidence detection is the cornerstone technology that distinguishes PET from other nuclear medicine imaging modalities. The system consists of a ring of detectors (typically scintillation crystals) surrounding the patient. When a positron-electron annihilation occurs, the two 511 keV photons travel in opposite directions.

The system registers a "coincidence event" only when two detectors on opposite sides of the ring detect photons within a narrow time window (typically 4-12 nanoseconds). This electronic collimation eliminates the need for physical collimators, dramatically increasing sensitivity compared to SPECT imaging.

### Types of Coincidence Events:

- **True coincidences:** Both photons from the same annihilation detected correctly - provides accurate spatial information
- **Scatter coincidences:** One or both photons scatter before detection - degrades spatial accuracy and contrast

## Coincidence Detection Types



- **Random coincidences:** Photons from two different annihilations detected within timing window - adds noise to the image
- **Multiple coincidences:** More than two photons detected simultaneously - typically rejected by the system

## Line of Response (LOR)

When a true coincidence is detected, the system knows the annihilation occurred somewhere along the straight line connecting the two detecting crystals. This line is called the Line of Response (LOR). Millions of LORs are collected during a scan and reconstructed into a 3D image showing the distribution of radiotracer in the body.

### Coincidence Timing Window

$$\Delta t = 4-12 \text{ nanoseconds}$$

Time-of-flight (TOF) PET: ~500 ps timing resolution

## Time-of-Flight (TOF) Technology

Modern PET scanners incorporate TOF technology, which measures the tiny time difference between the arrival of the two photons. This allows the system to localize the annihilation

event more precisely along the LOR, significantly improving image quality, particularly in larger patients.

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## Radiotracers (FDG and Others)

### Fundamentals of PET Radiotracers

PET radiotracers are molecules labeled with positron-emitting radioisotopes. These tracers are designed to participate in specific biological processes without perturbing them, allowing visualization of metabolism, receptor binding, blood flow, and other physiological functions.

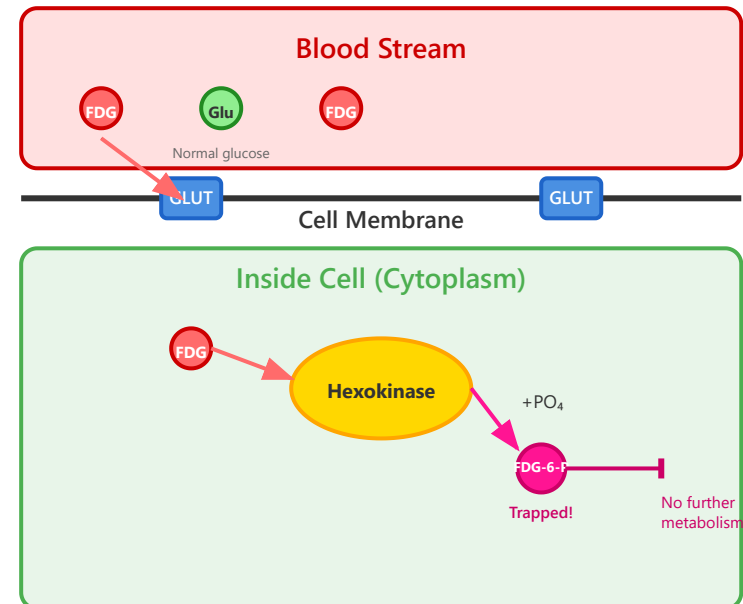
### $^{18}\text{F}$ -FDG: The Most Common Tracer

Fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG) labeled with fluorine-18 is by far the most widely used PET radiotracer. FDG is a glucose analog that is taken up by cells through glucose transporters (GLUT) and phosphorylated by hexokinase to FDG-6-phosphate. However, unlike glucose, FDG-6-phosphate cannot be further metabolized and becomes trapped in cells, providing a measure of glucose metabolism.

#### Clinical Applications of FDG-PET:

- **Oncology:** Cancer detection, staging, and treatment monitoring (tumors show high glucose metabolism)
- **Neurology:** Alzheimer's disease, epilepsy focus localization, brain metabolism studies

### FDG Metabolism and Uptake



#### Normal Glucose Pathway:

Glucose  $\rightarrow$  Glucose-6-P  $\rightarrow$  Glycolysis  $\rightarrow$  Energy (ATP)  
✓ Continues through metabolic pathways

#### Clinical Significance

- Cancer cells: High glucose metabolism  $\rightarrow$  High FDG uptake
- Brain: Naturally high uptake (25% of glucose use)
- Heart: Variable uptake depending on substrate utilization

- **Cardiology:** Myocardial viability assessment in ischemic heart disease
- **Infection/Inflammation:** Detection of inflammatory processes and fever of unknown origin

## Other Important Radiotracers

**$^{18}\text{F}$ -Fluciclovine:** Amino acid tracer for prostate cancer imaging, particularly useful for recurrence detection.

**$^{18}\text{F}$ -PSMA:** Targets prostate-specific membrane antigen, highly sensitive for prostate cancer detection and staging.

**$^{11}\text{C}$ -PIB and  $^{18}\text{F}$ -Florbetapir:** Bind to amyloid plaques in the brain, used for Alzheimer's disease diagnosis.

**$^{13}\text{N}$ -Ammonia and  $^{82}\text{Rb}$ :** Myocardial perfusion tracers for cardiac imaging.

**$^{18}\text{F}$ -DOPA:** For imaging dopaminergic pathways in Parkinson's disease and neuroendocrine tumors.

### Common Radioisotope Half-lives

$^{18}\text{F}$ : 110 min |  $^{11}\text{C}$ : 20 min |  $^{13}\text{N}$ : 10 min |  $^{15}\text{O}$ : 2 min |  $^{82}\text{Rb}$ : 75 sec

Short half-lives require on-site cyclotron or generator

## Tracer Kinetics



Understanding tracer kinetics is essential for proper image interpretation. After injection, the tracer distributes throughout the body based on blood flow, specific binding, and metabolic trapping. Optimal imaging times vary by tracer: FDG typically requires 60-90 minutes uptake time, while other tracers may have different optimal timing windows.

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# SUV (Standardized Uptake Value) Calculations

## Definition and Purpose

The Standardized Uptake Value (SUV) is a semi-quantitative metric that normalizes radiotracer uptake in tissue relative to the injected dose and patient body weight. SUV provides a standardized way to compare uptake across different patients, time points, and institutions, making it invaluable for oncology applications.

### Basic SUV Formula

$$\text{SUV} = [\text{Tissue Activity (Bq/mL)}] / [\text{Injected Dose (Bq)} / \text{Body Weight (g)}]$$

Dimensionless quantity (g/mL)

## SUV Variants

**SUV<sub>bw</sub>**: Standard SUV normalized to body weight (most common)

**SUV<sub>lbm</sub>**: Normalized to lean body mass - reduces variability in obese patients

## SUV Calculation Components

### 1. Injected Dose

370 MBq  
(10 mCi)

Typical FDG dose:

- 370-555 MBq (10-15 mCi)
- Decay-corrected to injection time

### 2. Patient Body Weight

70 kg

Normalization options:

- Body weight (most common)
- Lean body mass (LBM)

### 3. Tissue Activity Concentration

Tumor

Measured in ROI:

- Activity: 15.2 kBq/mL
- Corrected for decay
- At scan time

### SUV Calculation Example

Given:

- Tissue activity = 15,200 Bq/mL = 15.2 kBq/mL
- Injected dose = 370,000,000 Bq = 370 MBq
- Body weight = 70,000 g

$$\text{SUV} = 15,200 / (370,000,000 / 70,000) = 2.88$$

**SUV<sub>bsa</sub>:** Normalized to body surface area - alternative normalization method

**SUV<sub>max</sub>:** Maximum SUV value in a region of interest (ROI) - most reproducible, less affected by partial volume effects

**SUV<sub>mean</sub>:** Average SUV within an ROI - may better represent overall tumor uptake

**SUV<sub>peak</sub>:** Average SUV in a small ( $\sim 1 \text{ cm}^3$ ) region around the hottest area - balance between SUV<sub>max</sub> reproducibility and SUV<sub>mean</sub> representativeness

#### Factors Affecting SUV:

- **Uptake time:** SUV increases with time post-injection due to blood pool clearance
- **Blood glucose level:** High glucose competes with FDG, reducing SUV
- **Partial volume effect:** Small lesions appear to have lower SUV due to limited spatial resolution
- **Patient motion:** Can blur uptake and reduce measured SUV
- **Reconstruction parameters:** Different algorithms affect SUV measurements
- **Dose infiltration:** Incorrect assumed injected dose if extravasation occurs

## Clinical Interpretation

While SUV thresholds vary by tumor type and clinical context, some general guidelines exist. Normal tissues typically show SUV values of 1-3. Malignant tumors often demonstrate SUV values greater than 2.5-3.0, though significant overlap exists between benign and malignant processes. SUV should never be used in isolation but rather as part of comprehensive clinical evaluation.

For treatment response assessment, changes in SUV (particularly SUVmax) are more meaningful than absolute values. The European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer (EORTC) criteria and PERCIST (PET Response Criteria in Solid Tumors) provide standardized frameworks for using SUV changes to classify treatment response.

## The Power of Fusion Imaging

PET/CT represents one of the most successful examples of multimodality imaging in modern medicine. By combining the functional information from PET with the anatomical detail of CT in a single examination, PET/CT provides complementary information that significantly exceeds what either modality can offer independently.

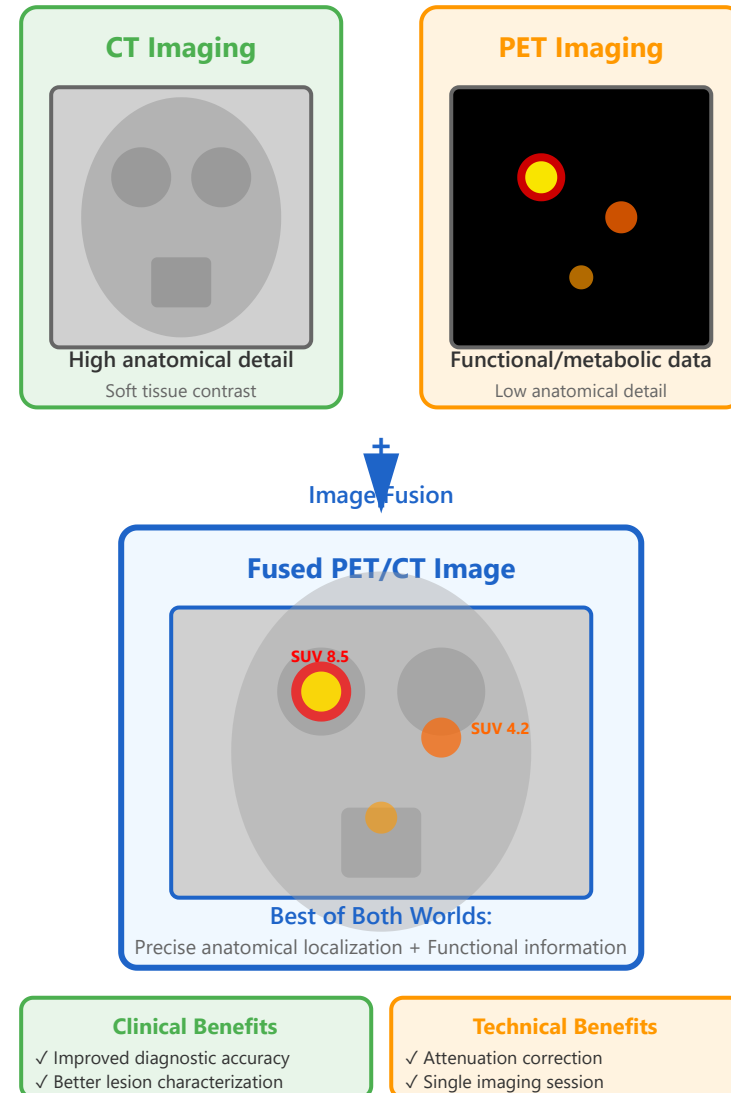
## Technical Integration

Modern PET/CT scanners consist of a PET detector ring and a CT scanner mounted on the same gantry, sharing a common patient bed. The patient is scanned sequentially: first through the CT scanner, then through the PET detector ring, while remaining in the same position. This design ensures accurate spatial registration between the two datasets.

### Advantages of PET/CT Integration:

- **Anatomical localization:** CT provides precise anatomical localization of PET findings, crucial for surgical planning and radiation therapy

### PET/CT Integration Concept



- **Attenuation correction:** CT data is used to correct PET images for photon attenuation in tissue, improving quantitative accuracy
- **Lesion characterization:** Combined metabolic and anatomical features improve diagnostic confidence
- **Efficient workflow:** Single examination replaces separate PET and CT scans, reducing patient inconvenience
- **Radiation therapy planning:** Integrated PET/CT enables precise definition of target volumes combining metabolic and anatomical boundaries

## CT Protocols in PET/CT

**Low-dose CT:** Primarily for attenuation correction and anatomical localization (1-3 mSv). Fast acquisition, reduced radiation exposure.

**Diagnostic CT:** Full diagnostic quality with or without contrast enhancement (5-15 mSv). Eliminates need for separate diagnostic CT scan.

**4D-CT:** Respiratory-gated acquisition for motion management in radiation therapy planning.

## Clinical Impact

PET/CT has revolutionized oncologic imaging, particularly for staging lymphoma, lung cancer, colorectal cancer, and melanoma. Studies have shown that PET/CT changes management in 20-40% of cancer patients compared to conventional imaging. The ability to distinguish active tumor from post-treatment changes (fibrosis, necrosis) is particularly valuable for treatment response assessment.

#### **PET/CT Workflow**

**FDG injection → 60 min uptake → Scout scan → CT scan → PET scan → Image reconstruction → Fusion**

Total procedure time: 90-120 minutes

### **Artifacts and Pitfalls**

Registration errors can occur due to patient motion between CT and PET scans, or respiratory motion causing misalignment of diaphragm and liver. Metal artifacts on CT can create false attenuation correction errors on PET. Careful review of both modalities separately and in fusion is essential to avoid misinterpretation.