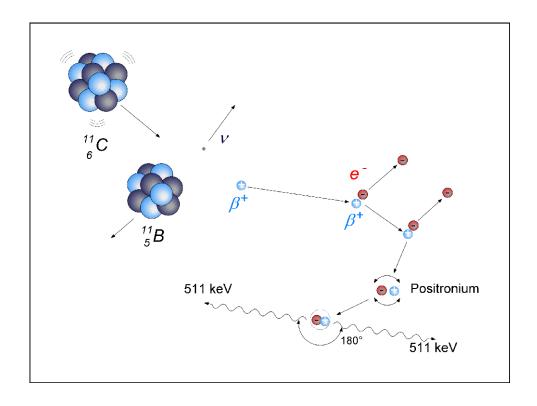
Positron Emission Tomography - PET

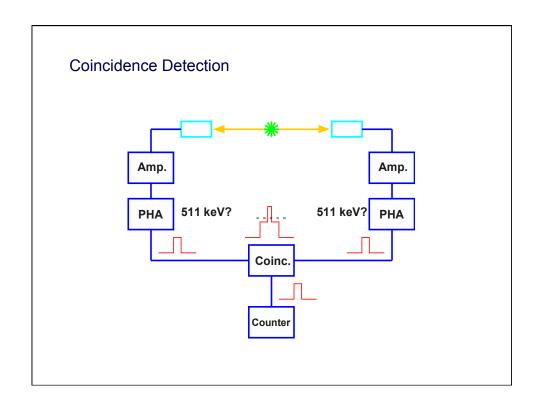
Positron Emission Tomography

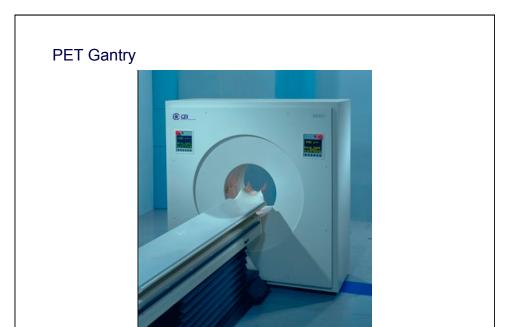
Positron Emission Tomography (PET): Coincidence detection of annihilation radiation from positron-emitting isotopes followed by tomographic reconstruction of 3-D activity distribution.

Some unique features of PET:

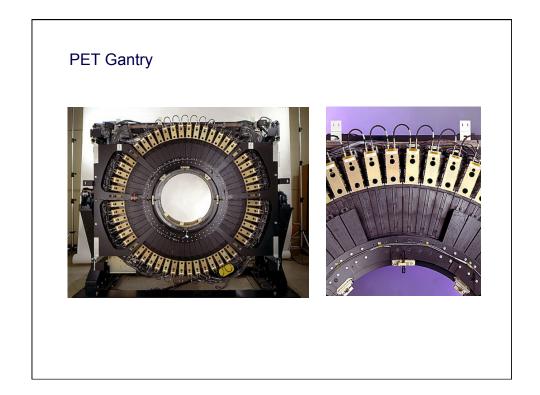
- Use of "electronic collimation" instead of lead collimation.
- · High detection efficiency
- Uniform resolution
- · Accurate attenuation correction
- · "Absolute" Quantification
- Use of short-lived biologically active radio-pharmaceuticals:
 - ¹¹C-glucose
 - ¹³N-ammonia
 - ¹⁵O-water
 - ¹⁸FDG
 - ¹⁸FDOPA

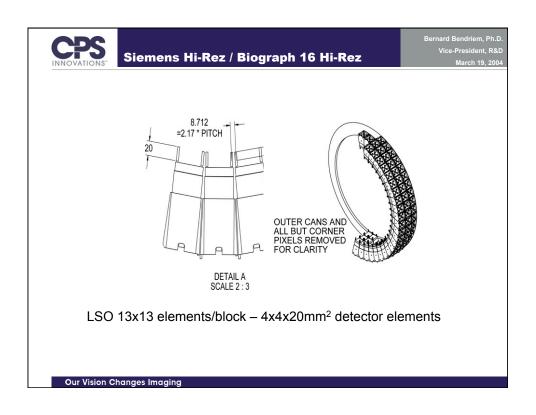


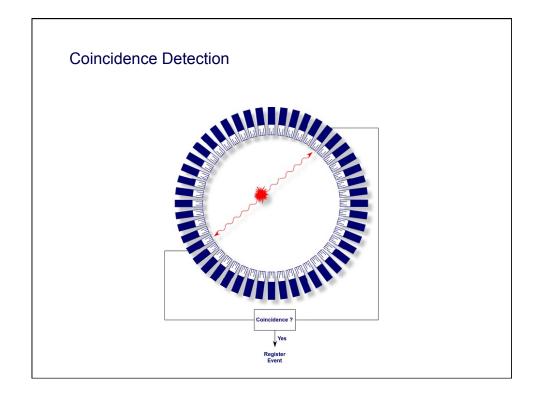


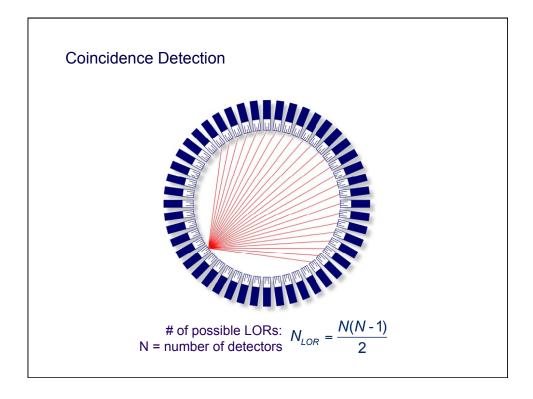












The spatial resolution in PET is primarily determined by:

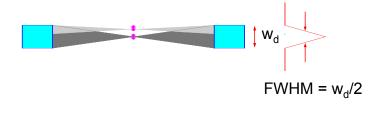
Detector size

Physics of positron decay

System geometry

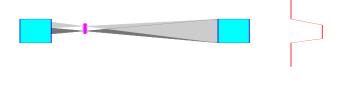
Detector material

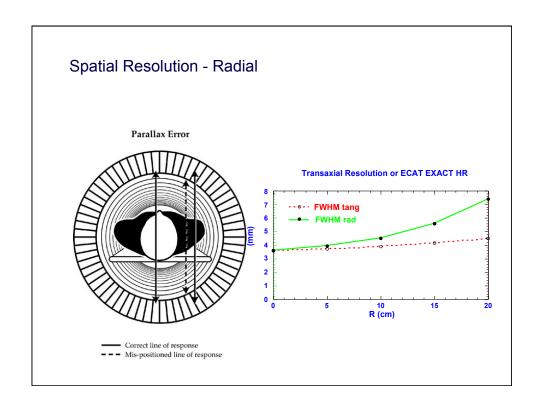
For a source placed at the midpoint between two scintillation detectors with a width $w_{\rm d}$, the geometric line spread function has a triangular shape with a FWHM of $w_{\rm d}$ /2.

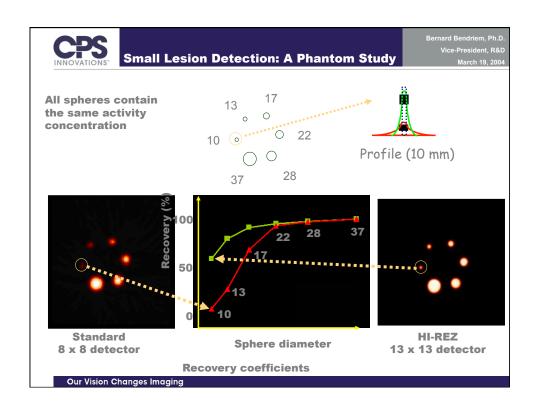


Spatial Resolution - Tangential

For sources located between the midpoint and the detector surface the LSF will have a trapezoidal shape with width varying from w_d /2 (at the center) and w_d at the detector surface.



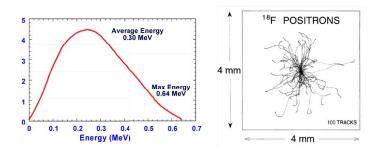


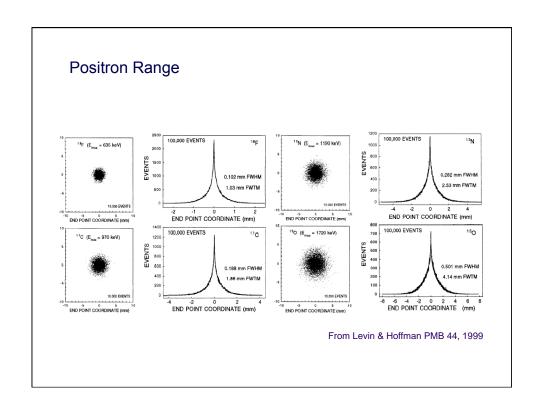


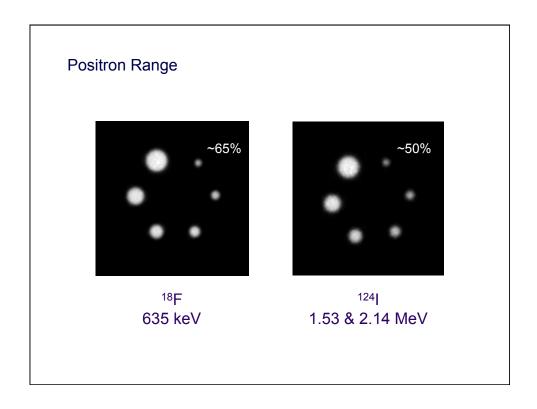
Although the most energetic positrons can travel several mm before annihilating, only a few of these are emitted.

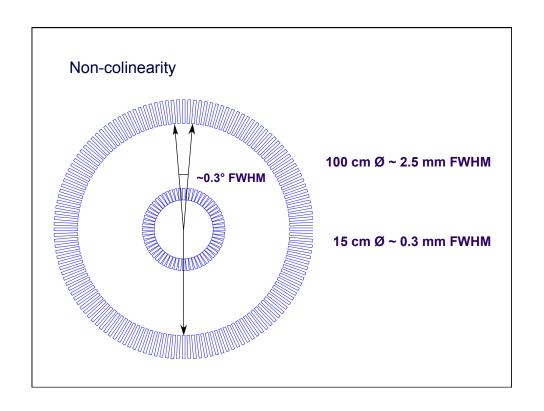
The average positron energy emitted is approximately 1/3-1/2 of the maximum energy.

The total path length the positrons travel is not along a straight path. Through inelastic interactions with electrons in the positrons path is deflected. The distance from the mother nucleus is therefore much shorter.





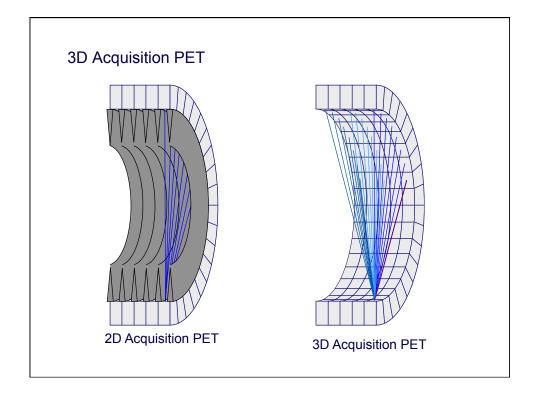




The measured resolution (intrinsic resolution) of the system is a convolution of the various resolution components.

If the different resolution components are assumed to be Gaussian in shape and are described by a FWHM then the combined resolution is the squared sum of the individual resolution components:

$$FWHM_{total} = \sqrt{FWHM_{det \, ector}^2 + FWHM_{positron}^2 + FWHM_{angulation}^2}$$



3D vs. 2D PET

The main advantage of the 3-D acquisition in PET is an improved sensitivity of \sim 5-7 times the 2-D sensitivity.

The drawback is that the scatter fraction increases by a factor of 3.

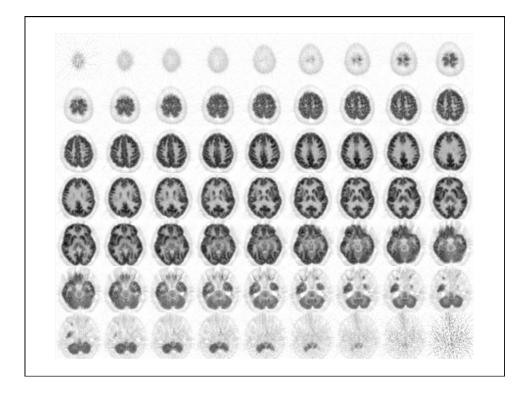
Non-uniform axial sensitivity

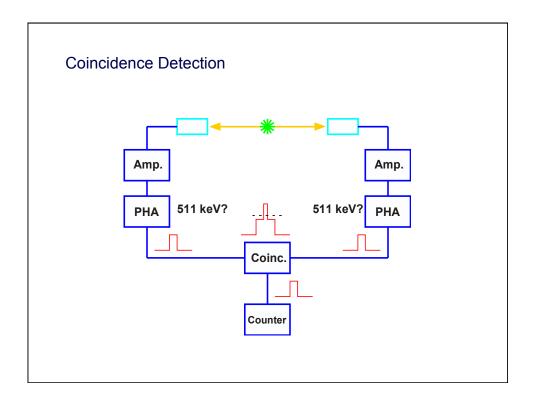
Higher Randoms Rates → Increased Noise (offsets sensitivity gain)

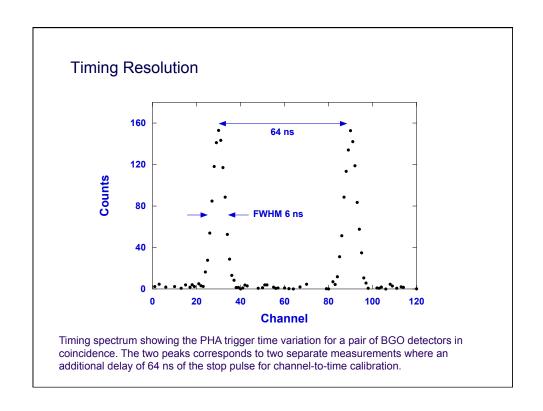
Dead-time problems when using slow detectors

Image reconstruction is more complex

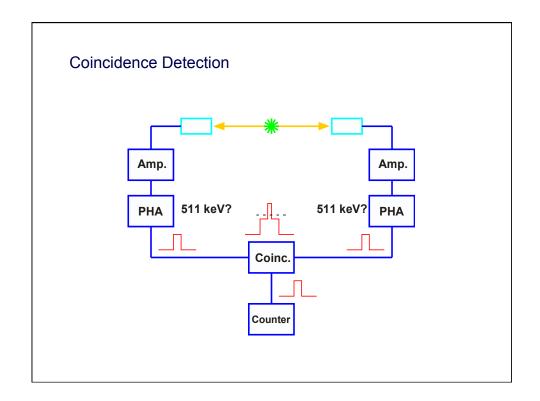
More data





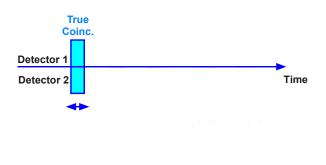


Coincidence Detection All coincidence detection systems have a finite time resolution BGO ~6 ns FWHM Nal ~4 ns FWHM GSO ~2 ns FWHM LSO ~0.5 ns FWHM





Because of the finite width of the logic pulses that are fed into the coincidence circuit, there is a probability for random or accidental coincidences between unrelated events.

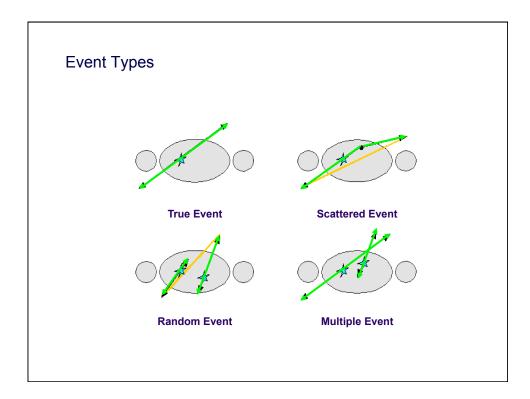


Random Coincidences

If $\rm N_1$ and $\rm N_2$ are the individual average count rates of detector 1 and 2, respectively, then it can be shown that the random coincidence rate for the pair of detectors is:

$$N_{R} = 2\tau N_{1} N_{2}$$

Where 2τ is the coincidence window (or τ is the width of the singles pulses)



Signal-to-Noise

True Coincidences
 ~ Activity
 Good events!

$$S/N \sim \frac{T}{\sqrt{T}}$$

Signal-to-Noise

Random Coincidences

~ Activity²

Can be accurately corrected for

Correction increases image noise

Detector material dependent

$$S/N \sim \frac{T}{\sqrt{T+2R}}$$

Signal-to-Noise

Scattered Coincidences

~ Activity

Reduces Image Contrast

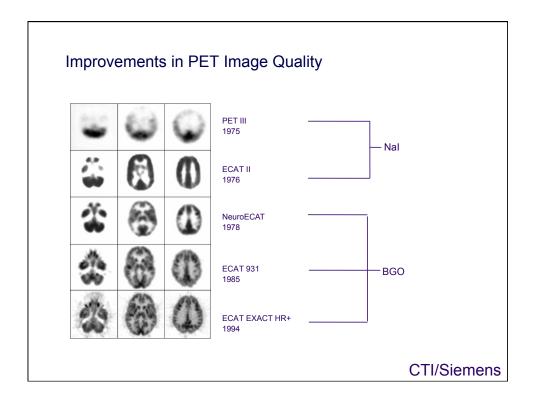
Requires correction

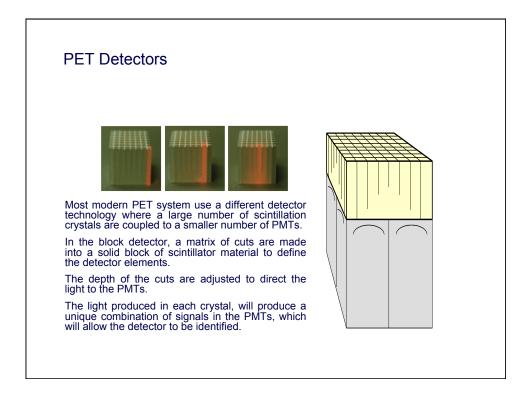
Analytical estimation

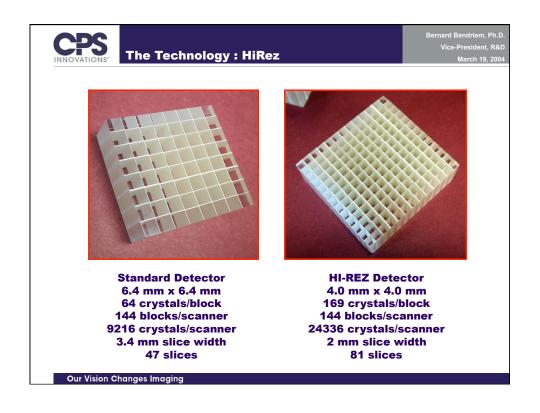
Correction increases image noise

$$S/N \sim \frac{T}{\sqrt{T+S+2R}}$$

Signal-to-Noise Multiple Coincidences: ~ Activity³ Never saved Source of Dead time



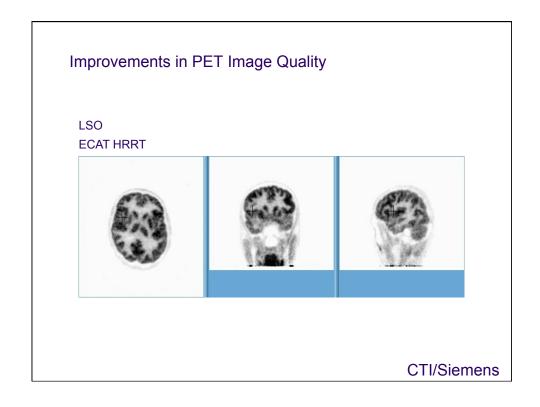




Scintillator Materials						
	Nal (TI)	BGO	GSO	LSO	LYSO	LaBr ₃
Density [g/ml]	3.67	7.13	6.71	7.35	7.1	5.29
1/μ [cm]	2.88	1.05	1.43	1.16	1.2	~2
Index of Refraction	1.85	2.15	1.85	1.82	1.81	1.9
Hygroscopic	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes
Rugged	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Peak Emission [nm]	410	480	430	420	420	380
Decay Constant [ns]	230	300	60	40	41	25
Light Output	100	15	35	75	75	>100
Energy Resolution	7.8	20	8.9	<9	11	7.5







Corrections in PET

In most nuclear medicine procedures, the goal is to produce an image in which the gray scale or count density is directly proportional to the regional isotope concentration.

In order to achieve this in PET it is necessary to apply a number of corrections:

Attenuation of photons in tissue

Non-uniform response of detector elements

Random coincidence events

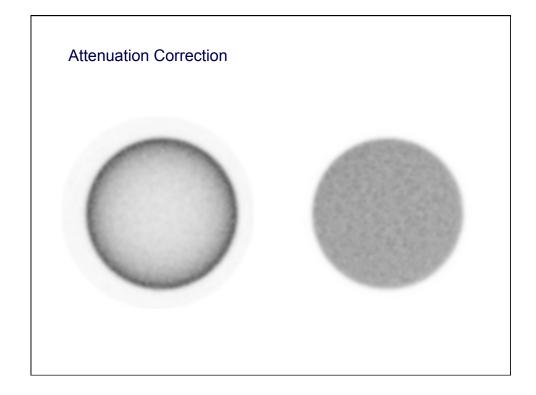
Detection of scattered events

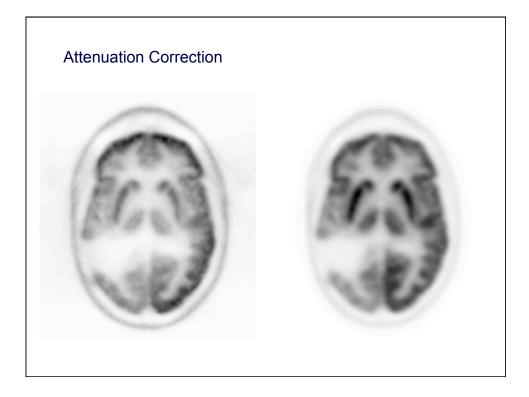
Loss of counts at high count rates - dead-time

Isotope decay

Absolute Calibration & cross calibration with other instruments

How accurate these corrections are will have a direct impact on the quantitative measurement.

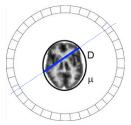




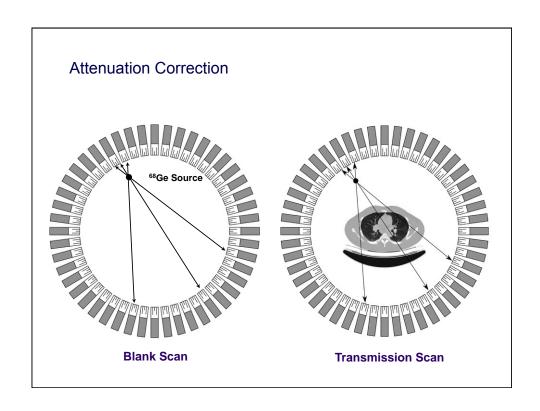
Attenuation Correction

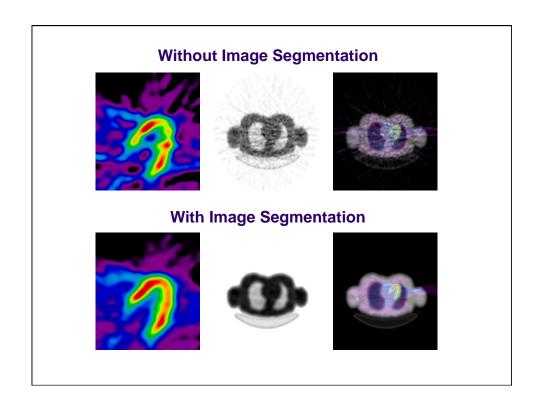
In PET imaging of the brain, the shape of the head can be approximated with an ellipse. The dimensions of the fitted ellipse can be estimated by first reconstructing the data without attenuation correction. Then an ellipse is drawn onto the image from which the attenuation correction can be derived. The attenuation correction is the applied to the data and the image is reconstructed again.

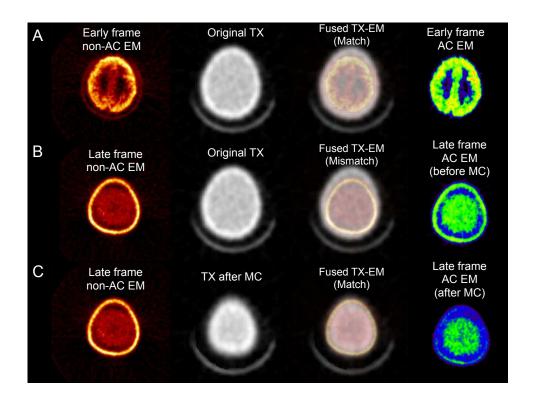
This method can be fairly time consuming, especially on system producing a large number of transaxial slices.

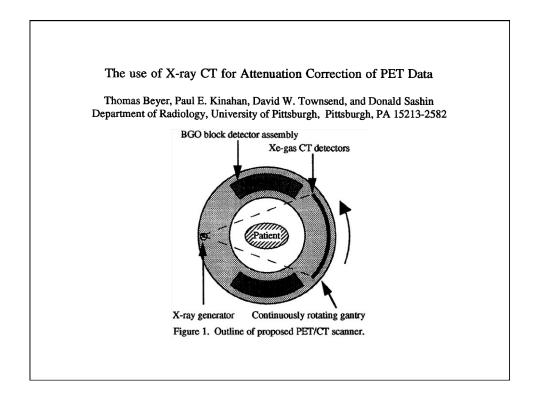


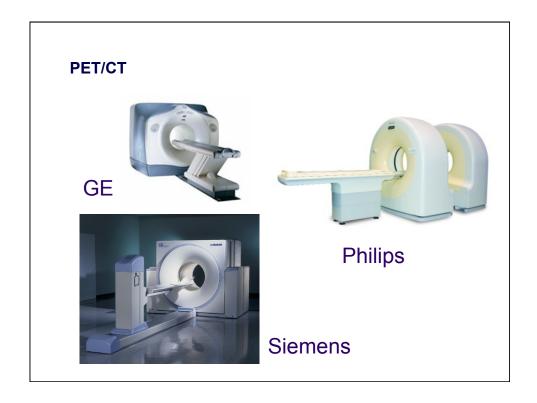
Atten. Corr. $= e^{\mu D}$

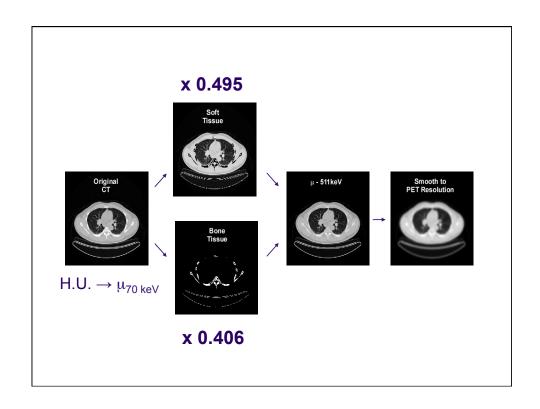


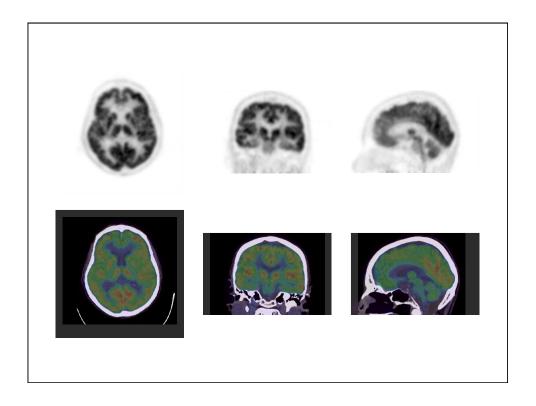


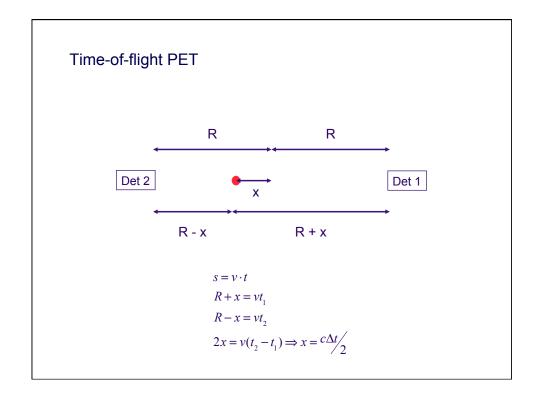












Time-of-flight PET

For ideal detectors, TOF would eliminate the need for image reconstruction, since the measurement would allow each event to be accurately positioned in space.

All detectors have a finite time resolution, or uncertainty in timing. This translates to an uncertainty in positioning.

BGO ~ 5 ns75 cmNal ~ 1.5 ns22.5 cmCsF, LaBr $_3$ ~ 0.45 ns6.7 cmBaF $_2$, LSO, LYSO ~ 0.3 ns4.5 cm

Time-of-flight PET

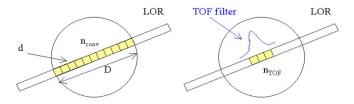
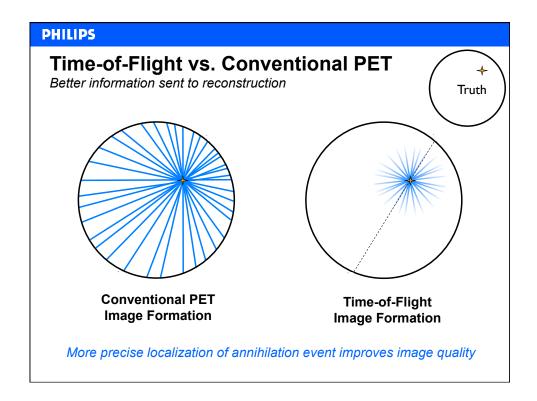


Figure 1. Image elements contributing to a LOR, for conventional PET (left) and TOF PET (right).

Time-of-flight PET

Even with a finite time resolution, using the TOF information an improvement in signal-to-noise ratio (S/N) can be achieved:

$$SNR_{TOF} \cong \sqrt{\frac{D}{\Delta x}}SNR_{conv.} = \sqrt{\frac{2D}{c\Delta t}}SNR_{conv.}$$



Time-of-flight PET - 1980's

Problems with TOF in the 80's Poor detection efficiency of available scintillators

TOF Gain did not offset the poor efficiency

To improve the efficiency, large detector modules were used

A more significant gain in S/N could be achieved by using high resolution detectors and conventional detection methods (Phelps, Hoffman, Huang, 1982).

Time-of-flight PET - 2006

Scintillators:

CsF, BaF₂ → LSO, <u>LYSO</u> - fast, high light, and dense

Detectors/PMTs:

1:1 coupling \rightarrow 100:1 crystal encoding - spatial resolution

Geometry:

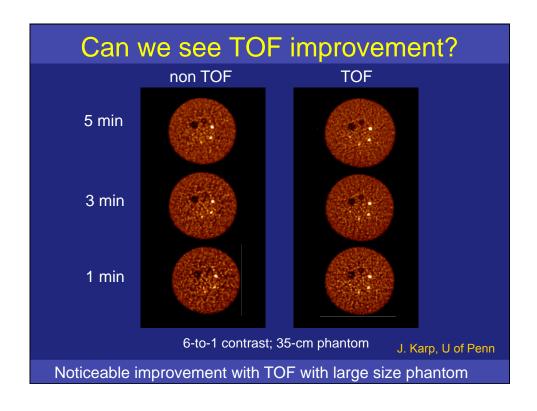
2D (septa) → 3D with large axial FOV - sensitivity

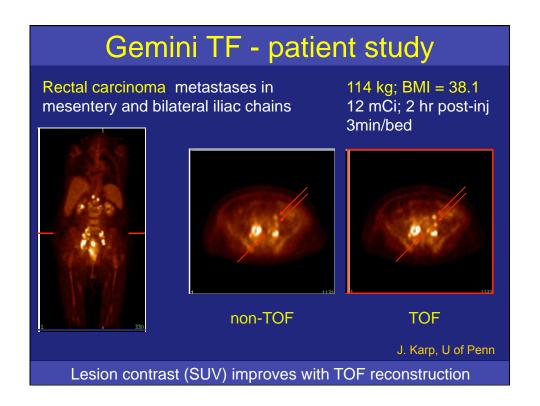
Reconstruction:

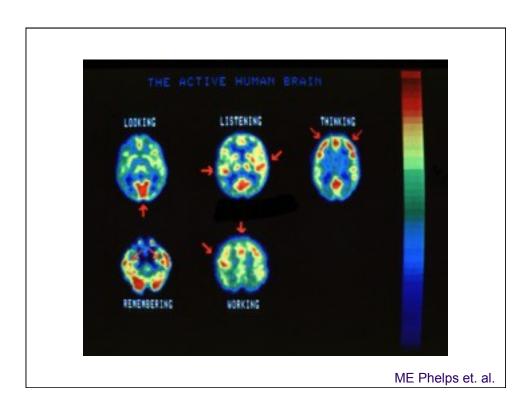
Analytic (FBP) → iterative (list-mode) - system modeling

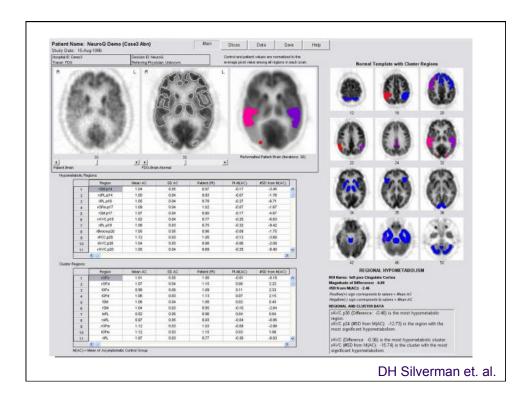
Electronics:

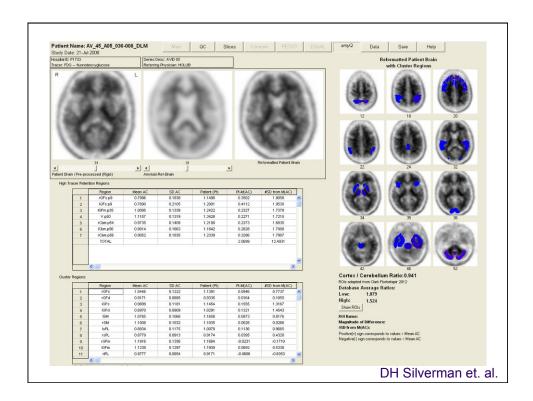
Accurate and stable

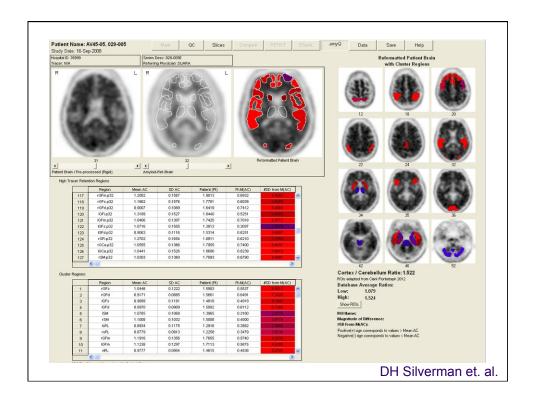


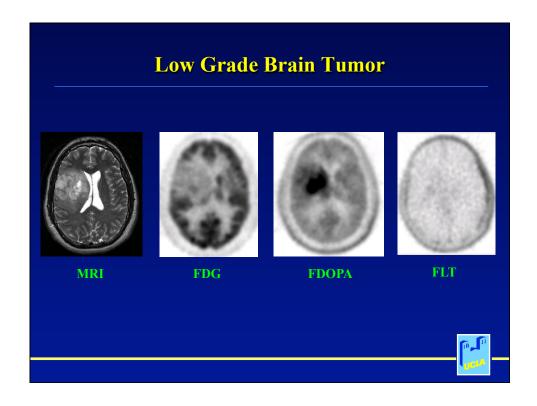


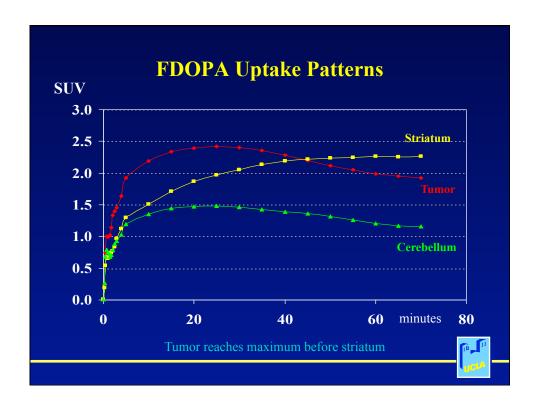


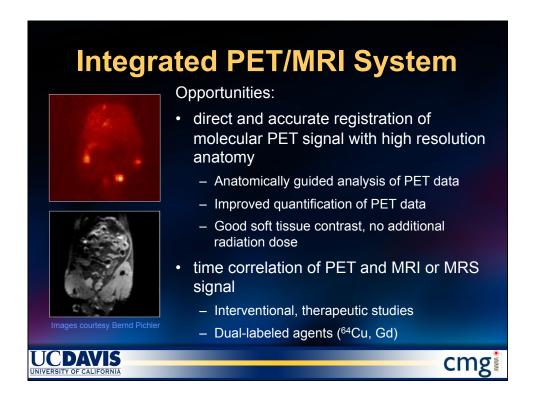


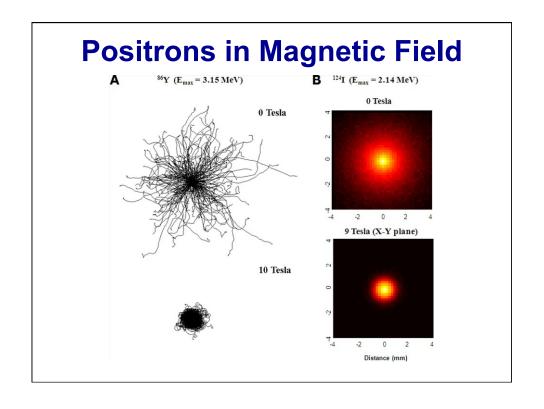


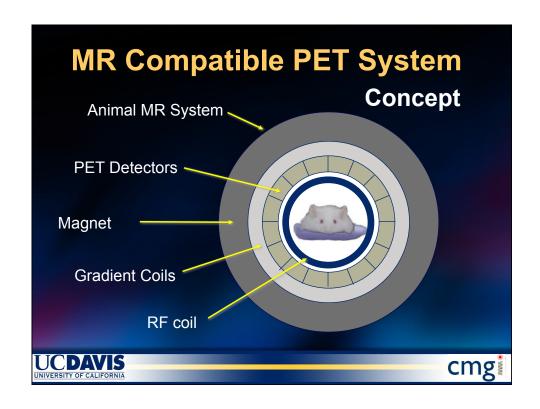


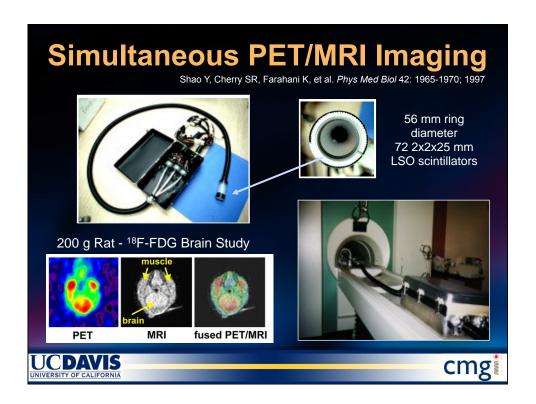








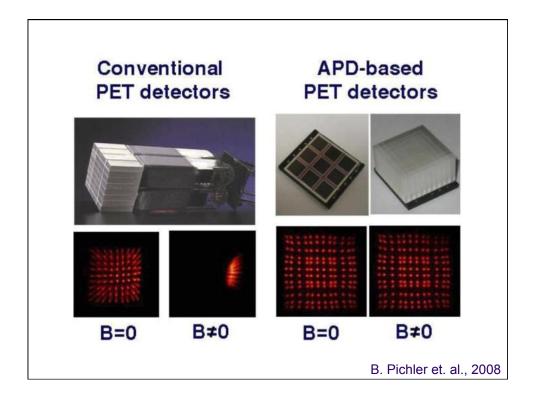




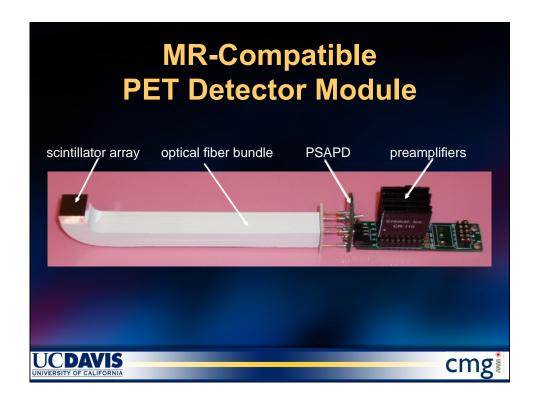
Challenges in Combining PET and MR imaging

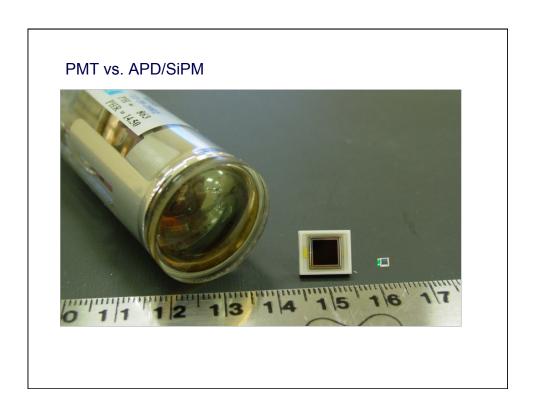
PET Detectors affected by: Static magnetic field Rapidly changing gradient field Radiofrequency signals

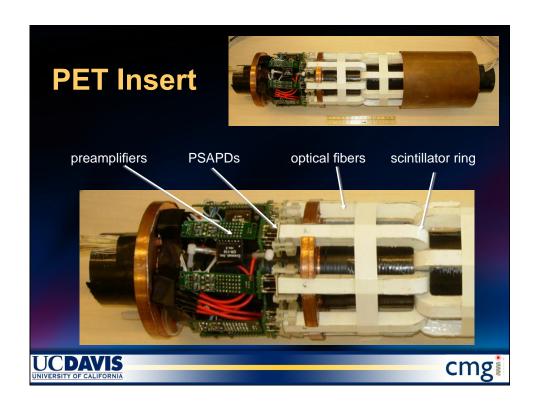
MR affected by PET detectors and electronics

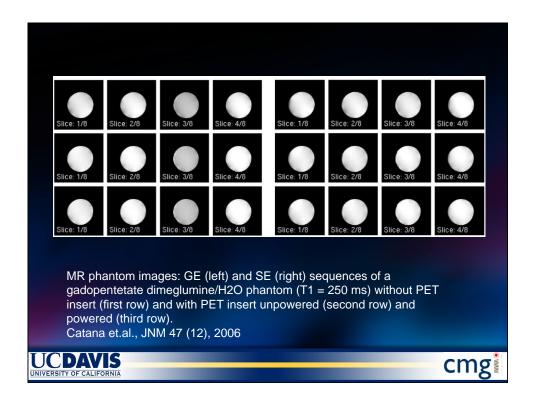


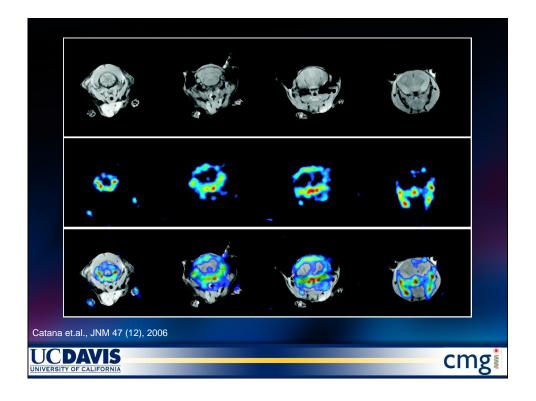


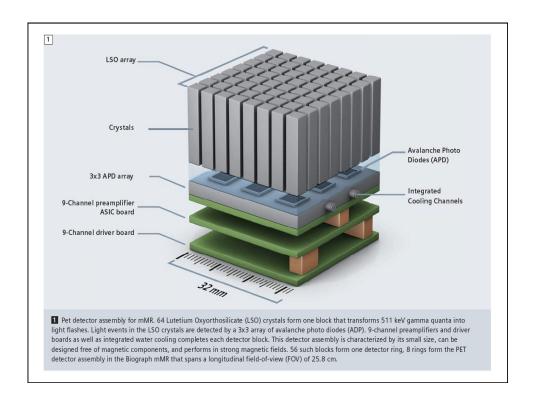


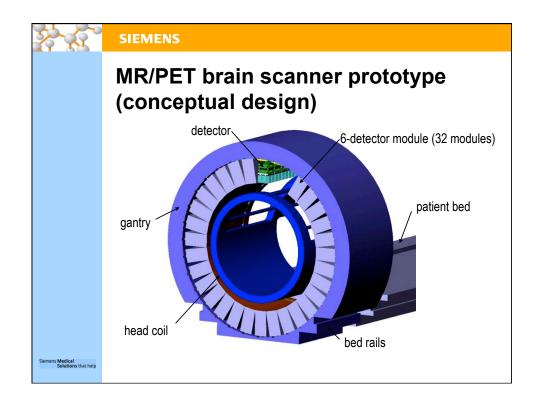


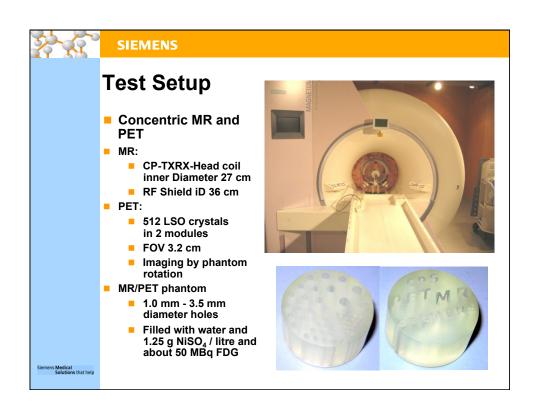


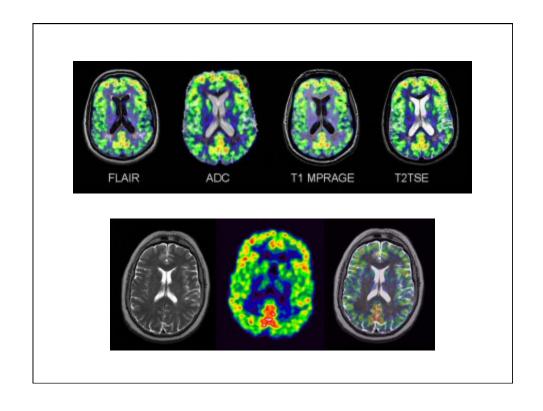


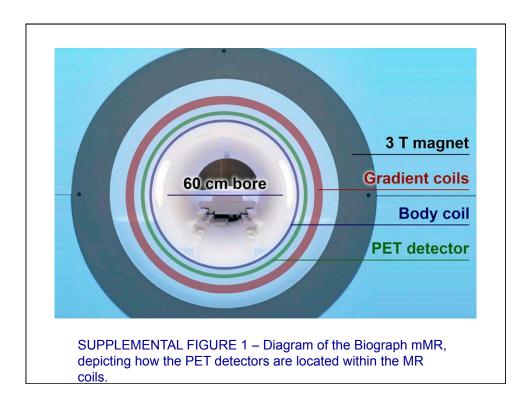


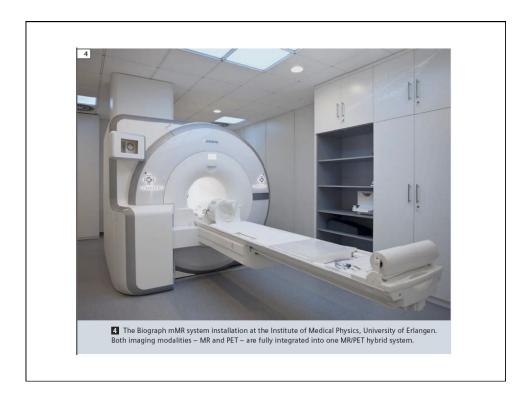




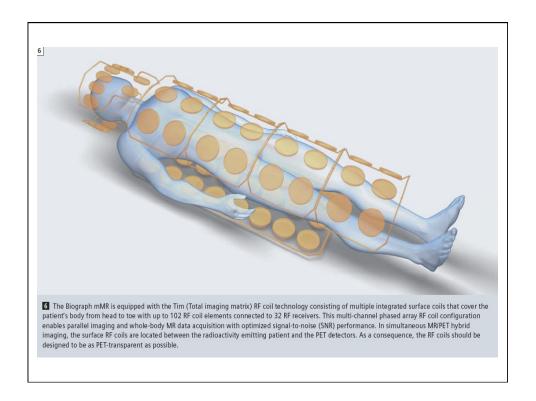


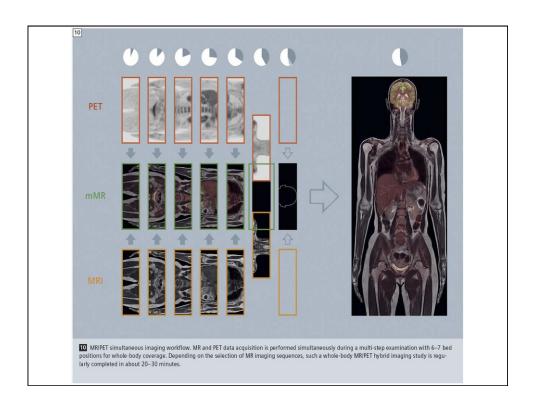






PET-MRI Attenuation Correction SA Soft-tissue attenuation correction (AC) based on MR imaging. (A) Uncorrected whole-body PET scan showing relative activity enhancement in the lungs and on the outer contours of the patient. (B and C) Dixon MR sequence providing separate waterifat 'in-phase' and 'opposed phase' imagest that serve as basis for soft-tissue segmentation. (D) Segmented tissue groups (af, fat, muscle, lungs) that can be assigned to 511 keV attenuation maps. (E) Resulting attenuation corrected whole-body PET scan of the initial data set (A).





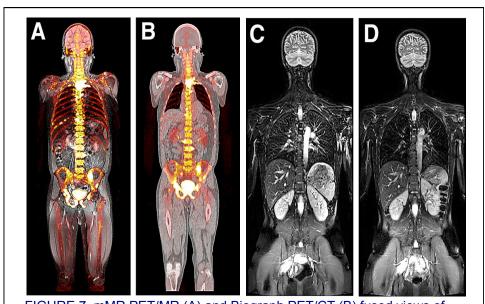


FIGURE 7. mMR PET/MR (A) and Biograph PET/CT (B) fused views of whole-body 18F-fluoride scan of same patient. mMR (C) and Verio (D) T2-weighted coronal views of healthy volunteer.