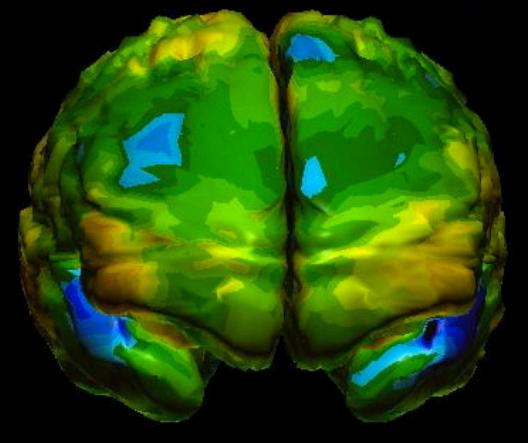
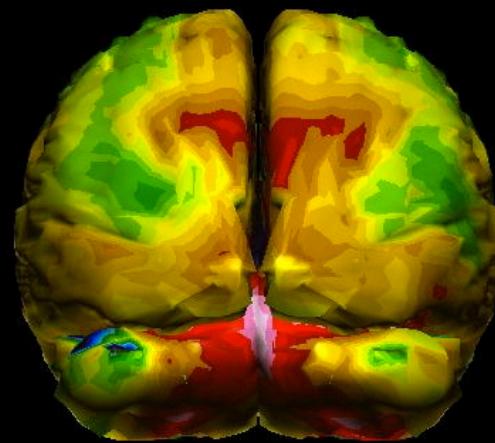
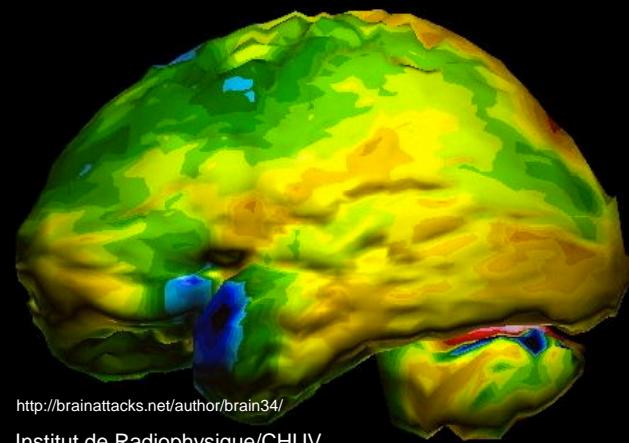


Radiopharmaceuticals in Nuclear Medicine



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Program

Part I: Applications in Nuclear Medicine

Part II: Radionuclide Production

Part III: Radiopharmaceutical Products

Part IV: Facilities

Part V: Legislation for Radiopharmaceuticals

Part VI: Quality Control Methods

Part I: Applications in Nuclear Medicine

- PET Radionuclides
- SPECT Radionuclides
- Therapeutic Radionuclides
- Theranostics

What is a *radiopharmaceutical*?

A radioactive pharmaceutical compound used for the diagnosis and therapeutic treatment of human diseases.

Radionuclide + Pharmaceutical

Applications in Nuclear Medicine

■ Imaging

- Gamma or positron emitting isotopes
 - ^{99m}Tc (γ), ^{111}In (γ), ^{18}F (β^+), ^{11}C (β^+), ^{64}Cu (β^+)
- Visualization of a biological process
 - Cancer, myocardial perfusion agents,...

■ Therapy

- Particle emitters
- Alpha, beta, gamma
 - ^{188}Re , ^{89}Sr , ^{90}Y , ^{212}Bi , ^{225}Ac , ^{131}I , ^{177}Lu , ^{223}Ra ...
- Treatment of disease
 - Cancer, hyperthyroidism, ...

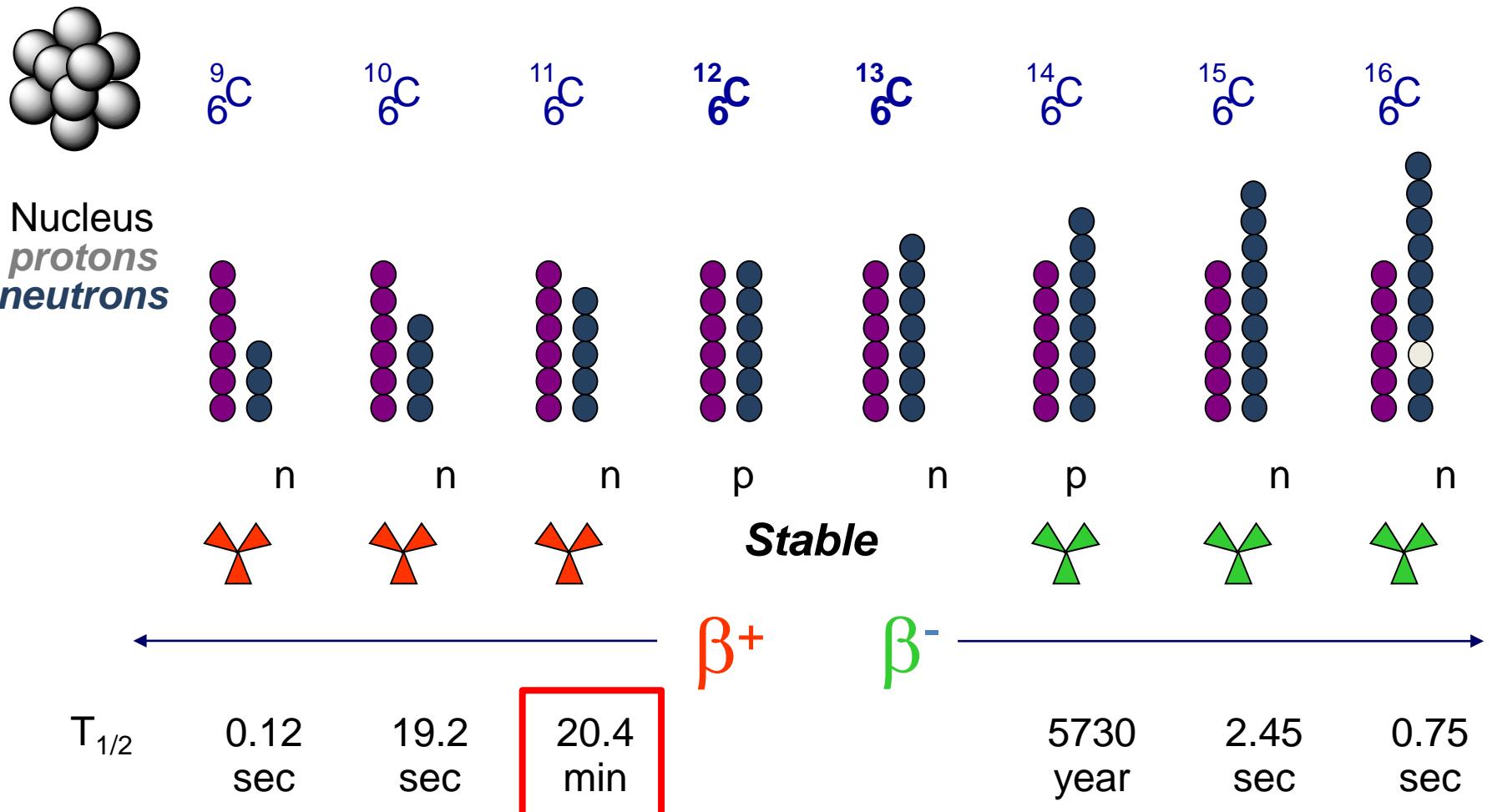
Criteria used to select radionuclides

- Physical half-life (should be in the range few minutes to several hours)
- Purity
- Nuclear Properties
- Wide Availability
- Effective Half life
- High target to non target ratio
- Simple preparation
- Biological stability
- Production costs

Ideal Nuclear Properties for imaging agents

- Reasonable energy emissions.
 - Radiation able to penetrate several layers of tissue (ideal: 120 – 150 keV)
- No particle (β , α) emission (gamma only)
- Short effective half life
- Cost effective

Example of carbon isotopes

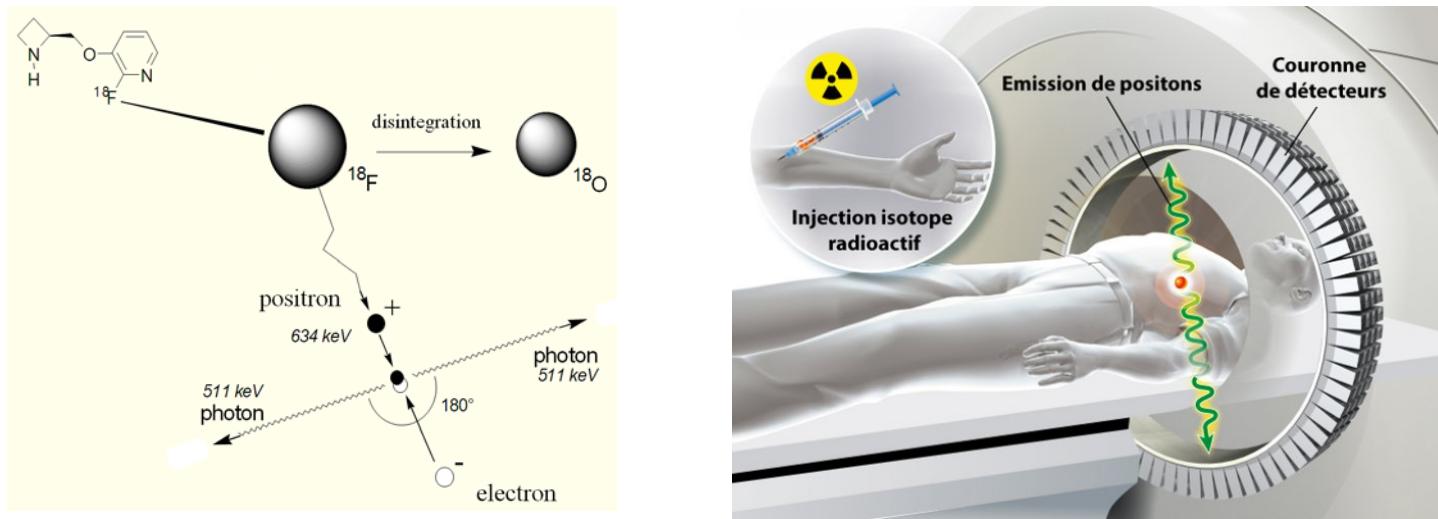


Important PET radionuclides

Radionuclide	$T_{1/2}$	Mean β^+ energy (keV)	Resolution (mm)
¹¹C	20 min	386	1.1
¹⁵O	2 min	735	1.5
¹⁸F	110 min	250	0.7
⁶⁴ Cu	12.7 h	278	0.7
⁶⁸Ga	1.1 h	830	2.4
⁷⁶ Br	16.3 h	1180	3.2
¹²⁴ I	4.17 d	820	2.3
⁸⁹ Zr	3.27 d	396	1.1



Principle of PET (positron emission)

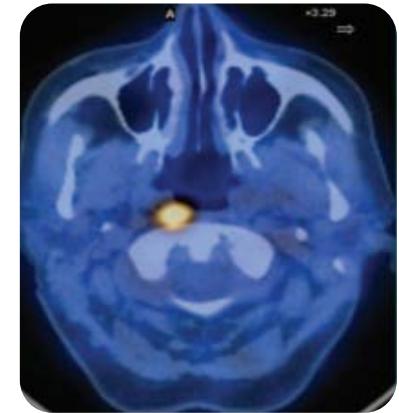


Radionuclide	Half-Life	β^+ fraction	Maximum β^+ Energy	How Produced
^{11}C	20.4 min	0.99	960 keV	Cyclotron
^{13}N	9.96 min	1.00	1.19 MeV	Cyclotron
^{15}O	123 sec	1.00	1.72 MeV	Cyclotron
^{18}F	110 min	0.97	635 keV	Cyclotron
^{62}Cu	9.74 min	0.98	2.94 MeV	Generator (from ^{62}Zn)
^{64}Cu	12.7 hr	0.19	580 keV	Cyclotron
^{68}Ga	68.3 min	0.88	1.9 MeV	Generator (from ^{68}Ge)
^{76}Br	16.1 hr	0.54	3.7 MeV	Cyclotron
^{82}Rb	78 sec	0.95	3.35 MeV	Generator (from ^{82}Sr)
^{124}I	4.18 days	0.22	1.5 MeV	Cyclotron

Most commonly used: ^{18}F luorodeoxyglucose (FDG)

- β^+ emission
- PET scans
- Sugar metabolic pathway
- Rate dependence on cell type

- Brain, heart, tumor...
- Dementia, Alzheimer's,
- Drug abuse...



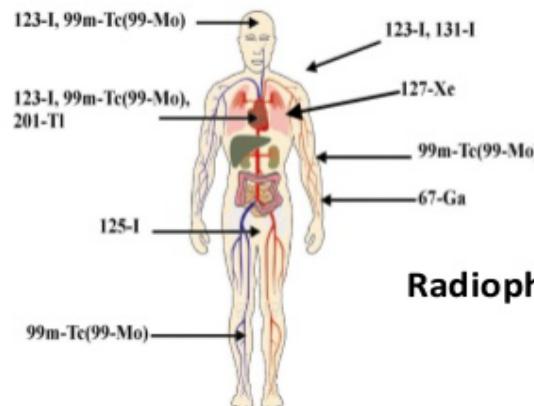
Important SPECT radionuclides (gamma)

Radionuclide	T_{1/2}	gamma (%)
Tc-99m	6.02 hr	140 KeV (89)
TI-201	73 hr	167 KeV (9.4)
In-111	2.21 d	171(90), 245(94)
Ga-67	78 hr	93 (40), 184 (20), 300(17)
I-123	13.2 hr	159 (83)
I-131	8d	284(6), 364(81), 637(7)
Xe-133	5.3 d	81(37)

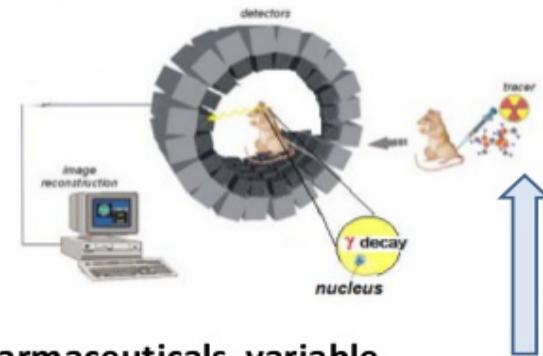
Principle of SPECT (gamma emitting radioisotopes)

Single Photon Emission Computerized Tomography

Radionuclides and tissues



Apparatus



Radiopharmaceuticals variable



- Generator methodology :
- no Mo-99 is injected, just Tc-99m

PET

PET tracers emit positrons that annihilate with electrons, causing two gamma photons:

- Biologically useful isotopes.
 $(^{11}\text{C}, ^{13}\text{N}, ^{15}\text{O}, ^{18}\text{F})$
- Very short $T_{1/2}$
- Production on site (cyclotron)
- Very expensive

SPECT

Tracers used in SPECT emit gamma radiation that is measured directly:

- Complex and larger molecules.
 $(^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}, ^{123}\text{I}, ^{111}\text{In}, \dots)$
- Longer half lives
- Available world wide (No special production equipment needed)
- Less expensive

Important radionuclides for therapy

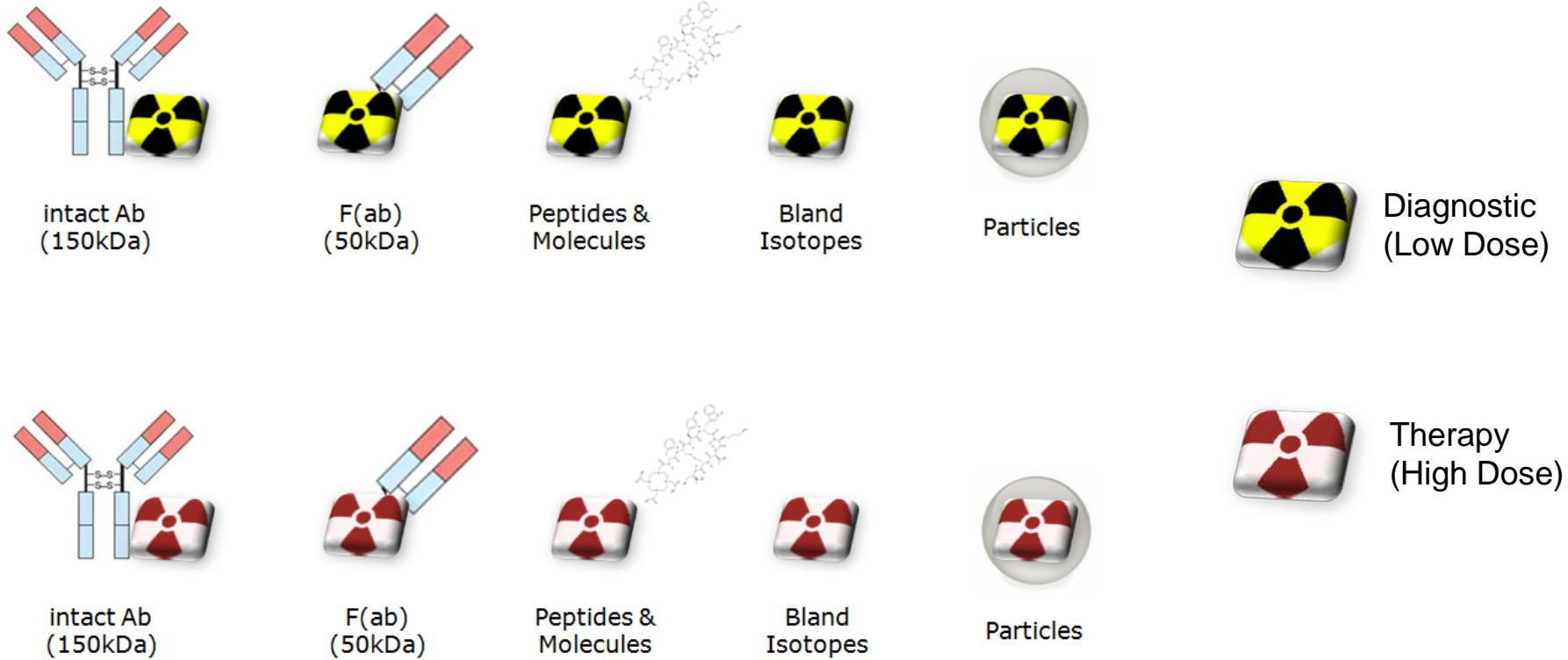
Radionuclide	T _{1/2}	Particle (MeV)
I-131(MIBG)	8 d	β^- (0.6) max
Sm-153	1.9 d	β^- (0.8) max
Re-186	3.8 d	β^- (1.1) max
Sr-89	50.6 d	β^- (1.5) max
P-32	14.3 d	β^- (1.7) max
Re-188	17 hrs	β^- (2.1) max
Y-90 (SIR-Spheres)	2.7 d	β^- (2.3) max
Lu-177 (Luthathera)	6.6 d	β^- (0.5) max
Bi-212	1 hr	α (6.05) max
Ra-223 (Xofigo)	11.4 d	α (5.78) max

Effective half life (radio and biological)

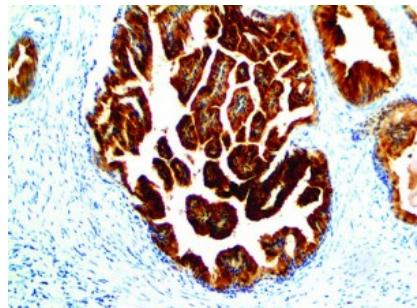
Rate of accumulation or elimination of the radioactive substance in the organism.

- Nuclear Decay ($T_{1/2}$)
 - Inherent statistical decay of the nuclide
- Biological $T_{1/2}$
 - Uptake/washout of the radiopharmaceutical
 - Equilibration
 - Decomposition

Evolution of Theragnostics



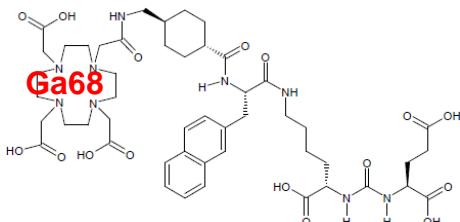
Prostate Cancer (Gallium 68 PSMA)



PSMA – R +++
Metastatic Prostate Cancer



PET
Ga68 PSMA-617

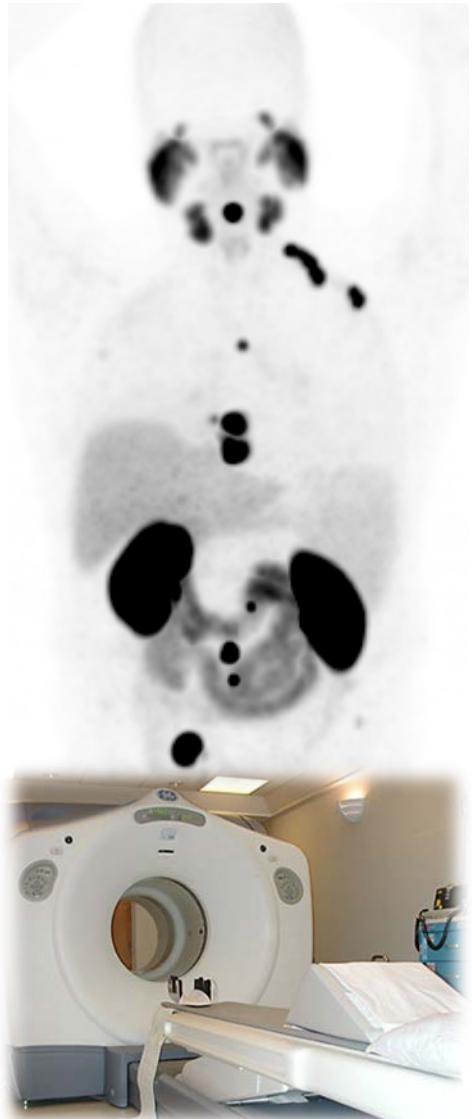


Ga68 PSMA-617

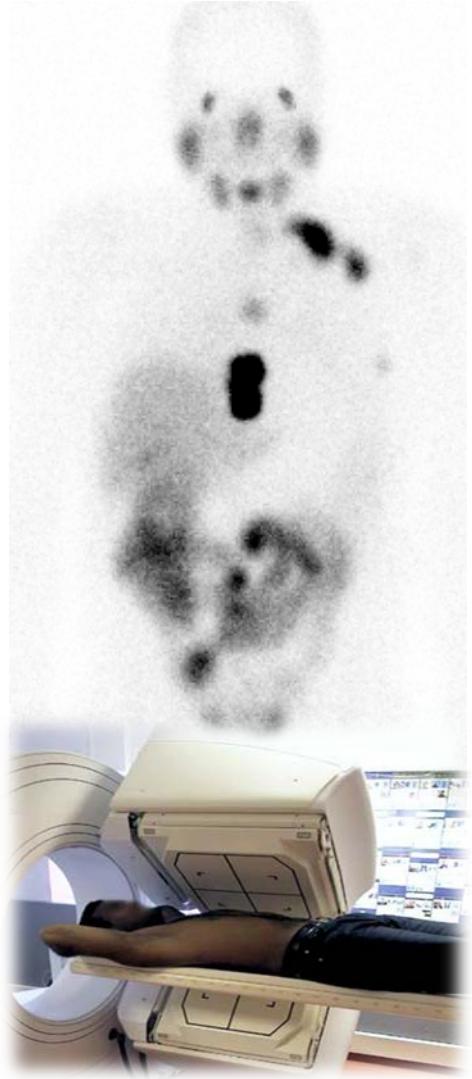
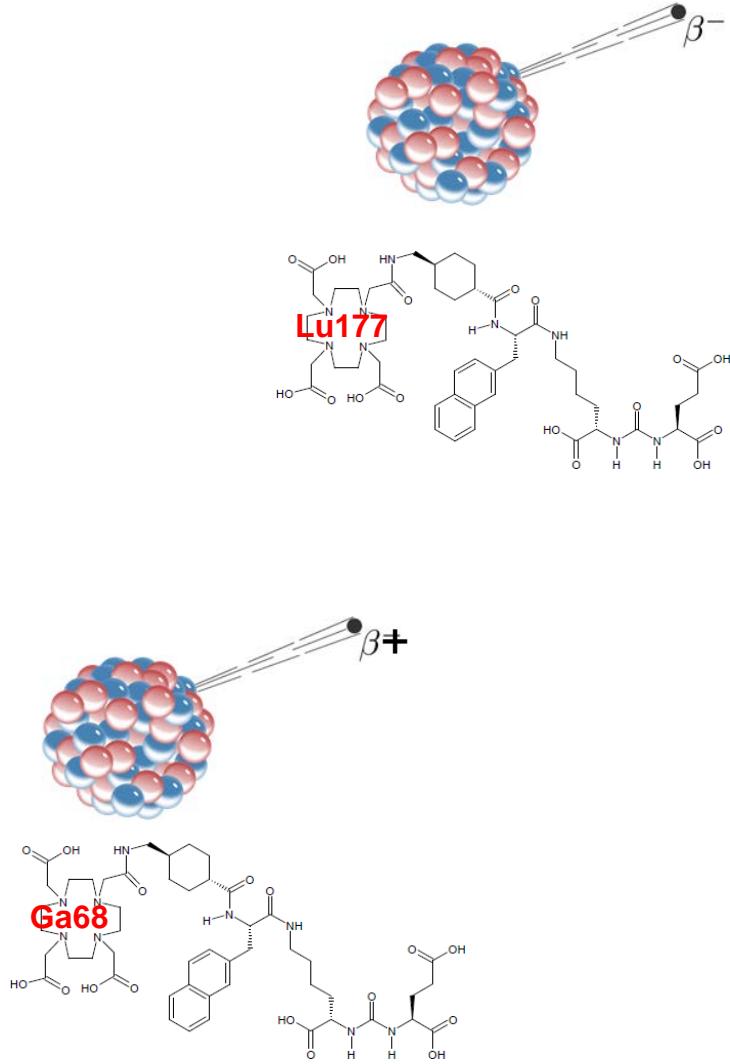


PET
18F CHOLIN (Standard)

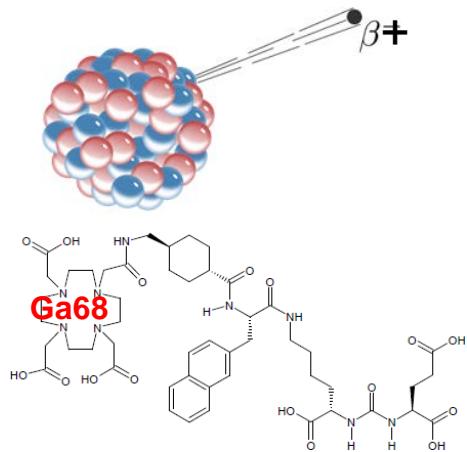
Ga68 / Lu177 PSMA



Ga68 PSMA-617



Lu 177 PSMA-617 ¹⁹



Summary Part I

- Choice of nuclide depends on application (diagnostic or therapeutic)
 - Ideally, short lived for diagnostics, longer lived for therapeutics
 - New approaches in the fields of so called ‘theragnostics’:
 - Similar characteristics, same binding sites
 - Imaging and therapy combined
- Focus on development in antibody and peptide labeled radiopharmaceuticals

Part II: Radionuclide Production

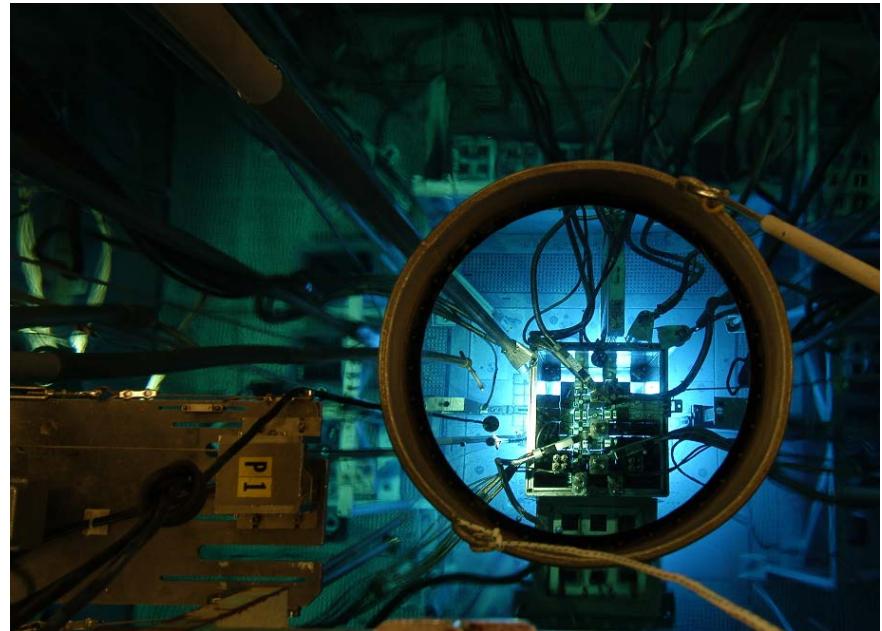
- Nuclear reactors, fission products
- Cyclotron Production (accelerators)
- Generators

Different modes of production

- Bombardment *using an electrically neutral particle*
- Bombardment *using particles electrically charged*
- Fission produced radio-nuclides
- Generators

Bombardment using an electrically ***neutral*** particle

- Type of particles: **neutrons**
- Source of particles: nuclear reactor
- Energy of the neutrons: 0,025 eV



Vue du cœur du réacteur Osiris. La réaction nucléaire est caractérisée par la lueur bleutée dûe à l'effet Cerenkov. Crédit : L.Godart/CEA

Main radionuclides via neutron bombardment

Radionuclide	Decay mode	Mode of production	Natural abundance in the target	Cross section (10^{-24} cm^2)
^{14}C	β_-	$^{14}\text{N}(\text{n},\text{p})^{14}\text{C}$	99,6	1,81
^{24}Na	(β_-, γ)	$^{23}\text{Na}(\text{n},\gamma)^{24}\text{Na}$	100	0,53
^{32}P	β_-	$^{31}\text{P}(\text{n},\gamma)^{32}\text{P}$	100	0,19
		$^{32}\text{S}(\text{n},\text{p})^{32}\text{P}$	95,0	--
^{35}S	β_-	$^{35}\text{Cl}(\text{n},\text{p})^{35}\text{S}$	75,5	--
^{42}K	(β_-, γ)	$^{41}\text{K}(\text{n},\gamma)^{42}\text{K}$	6,8	1,2
^{51}Cr	(EC, γ)	$^{50}\text{Cr}(\text{n},\gamma)^{51}\text{Cr}$	4,3	17
^{59}Fe	(β_-, γ)	$^{58}\text{Fe}(\text{n},\gamma)^{59}\text{Fe}$	0,3	1,1
^{75}Se	(EC, γ)	$^{74}\text{Se}(\text{n},\gamma)^{75}\text{Se}$	0,9	30
^{125}I	(EC, γ)	$^{124}\text{Xe}(\text{n},\gamma)^{125}\text{Xe}^{125}\text{I}$	0,1	110
^{131}I	(β_-, γ)	$^{130}\text{Te}(\text{n},\gamma)^{131}\text{Te}^{131}\text{I}$	34,5	0,24

Bombardment using *particles* **electrically charged**

- Particles are accelerated using magnetic fields (cyclotrons)
- Type of particles generally accelerated: H- and D-
- Different cyclotrons are used for the production of radionuclides:
 - Medical** cyclotrons (10 MeV-18MeV)
 - Industrial** cyclotrons (15 MeV to 70 MeV)

Small medical cyclotrons



GE PETtrace

$p = 16.5 \text{ MeV}$
 $d = 8.4 \text{ MeV}$

I up to $100 \mu\text{A}$

negative ion acceleration:
 H^- , D^- !

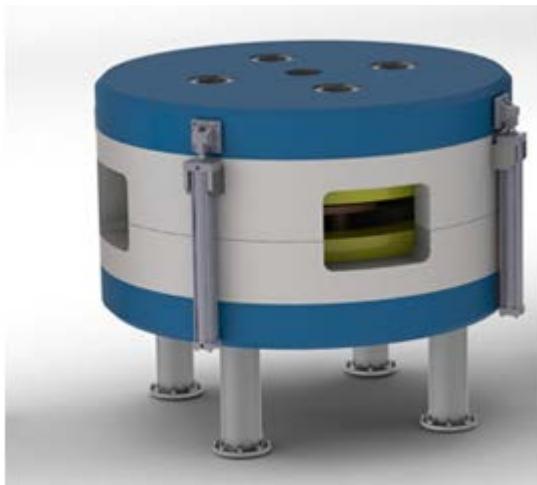
IBA Cyclone 18/9

$p = 18 \text{ MeV}$
 $d = 9 \text{ MeV}$

I up to $150 \mu\text{A}$



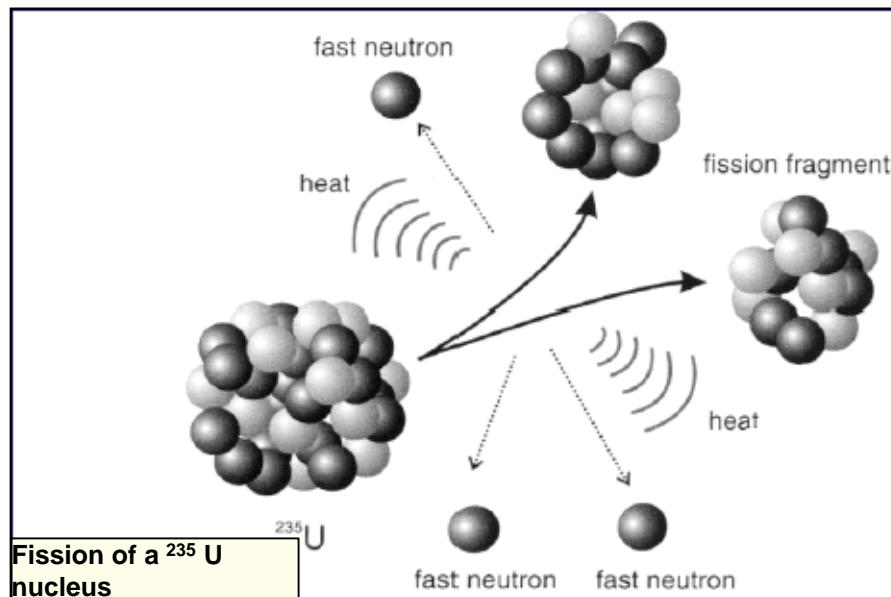
- Main radionuclides produced : ^{11}C , ^{15}O , ^{13}N , ^{18}F
- Energy required : in the range of **10 MeV** to **18 MeV**
- Size: “baby cyclotrons” easy to implant in hospitals
- Targets: mainly made of gas or liquid (very quick transfer from the irradiation site to the « hot » lab for the radioactive synthesis)



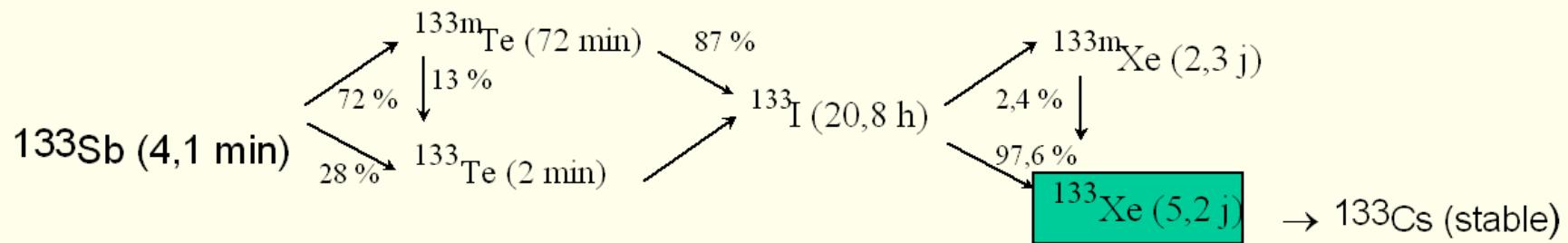
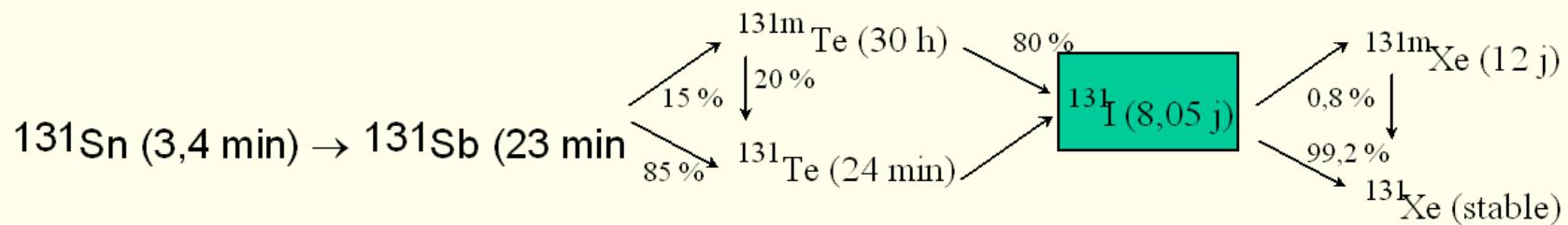
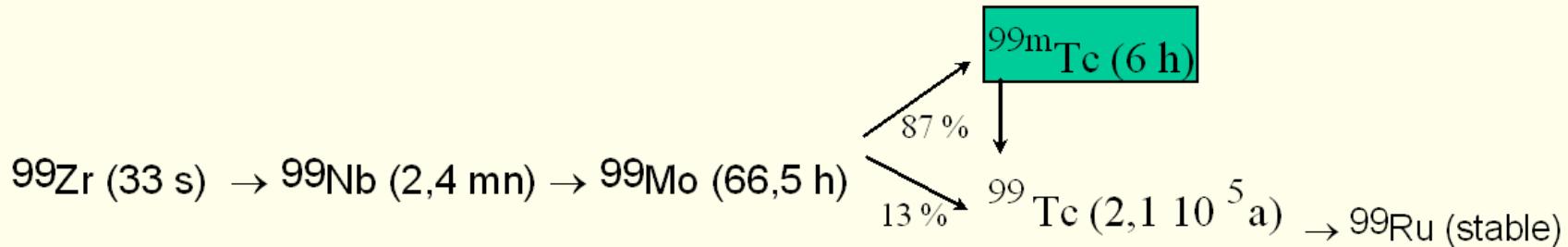
Fission reaction → ex. for generators (^{99m}Tc)

Nuclear fission is either a nuclear reaction or a radioactive decay process in which the nucleus of an atom splits into smaller parts (lighter nuclei). The fission process often produces free neutrons and gamma photons, and releases a very large amount of energy even by the energetic standards of radioactive decay.

Fission of ^{235}U induces the formation of about 200 different radionuclides



Radionuclides for diagnostic/therapeutic applications



Molybdenum Radionuclides, Iodine and Xenon Extracted from Fission Products

Molybdenum			Iodine			Xenon		
Atomic Mass	half-life	Fission yield %	Atomic Mass	half-life	Fission yield %	Atomic mass	Period	Fission yield %
95	Stable	6.27	127	stable	0.13	129	stable	0.8
97	Stable	6.09	129	1.7 x 10 y	0.8	131m	12 d	3.1
98	Stable	5.78	131	8.05 d	3.1	131	stable	3.1
99	66.5 h	6.06	132	2.30 h	4.7	132	stable	4.38
100	stable	6.30	133	20.8 h	6.62	133m	2.3 d	6.62
101	14.6 min.	5.0	134	52.5 min.	8.06	133	5.27 d	6.62
102	11.5 min.	4.3	135	6.70 h	6.3	134	stable	8.06
			136 to 139	a few sec. to a few min.		135	9.2 h	6.3
						136	stable	6.46
						137 to 140	a few sec. to a few min.	

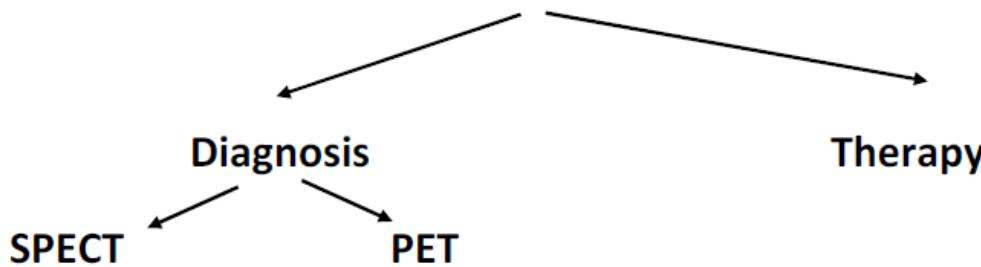
Radionuclide Generators

**Permanent, convenient access to short or medium lived RNs:
A RADIONUCLIDE GENERATOR supplies a dedicated
radionuclide for routine clinical practice**



"isotope cow"

Important RN generators for medical application in nuclear medicine



$^{113}\text{Sn}/^{113}\text{In}$

$^{68}\text{Ge}/^{68}\text{Ga}$

$^{90}\text{Sr}/^{90}\text{Y}$ Beta emitters

$^{81}\text{Rb}/^{81}\text{Kr}$

$^{62}\text{Zn}/^{62}\text{Cu}$

$^{188}\text{W}/^{188}\text{Re}$ Beta emitters

$^{99}\text{Mo}/^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$

$^{82}\text{Sr}/^{82}\text{Rb}$

$^{225}\text{Ac}/^{213}\text{Bi}$ Alpha emitters

under development

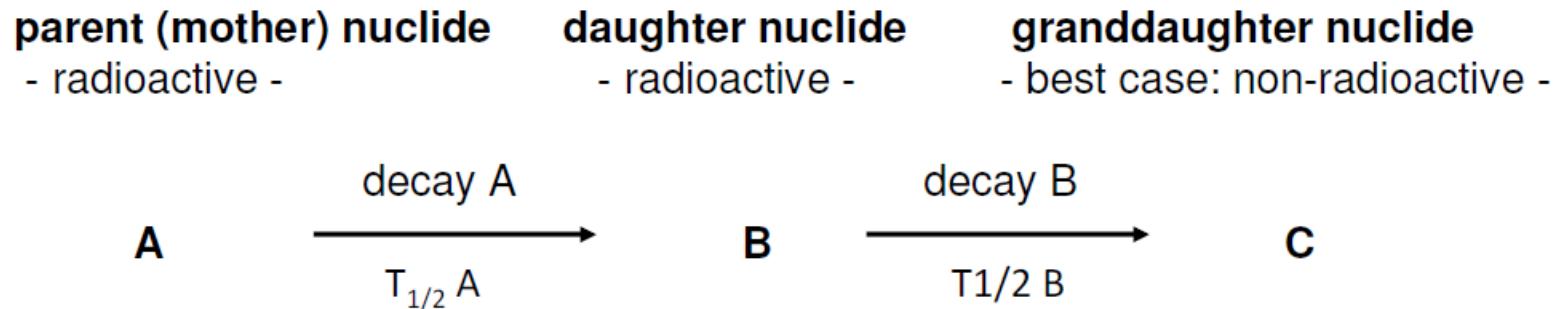
$^{44}\text{Ti}/^{44}\text{Sc}$

under development

$^{99}\text{Mo}/^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ generator:
"working horse" of NM



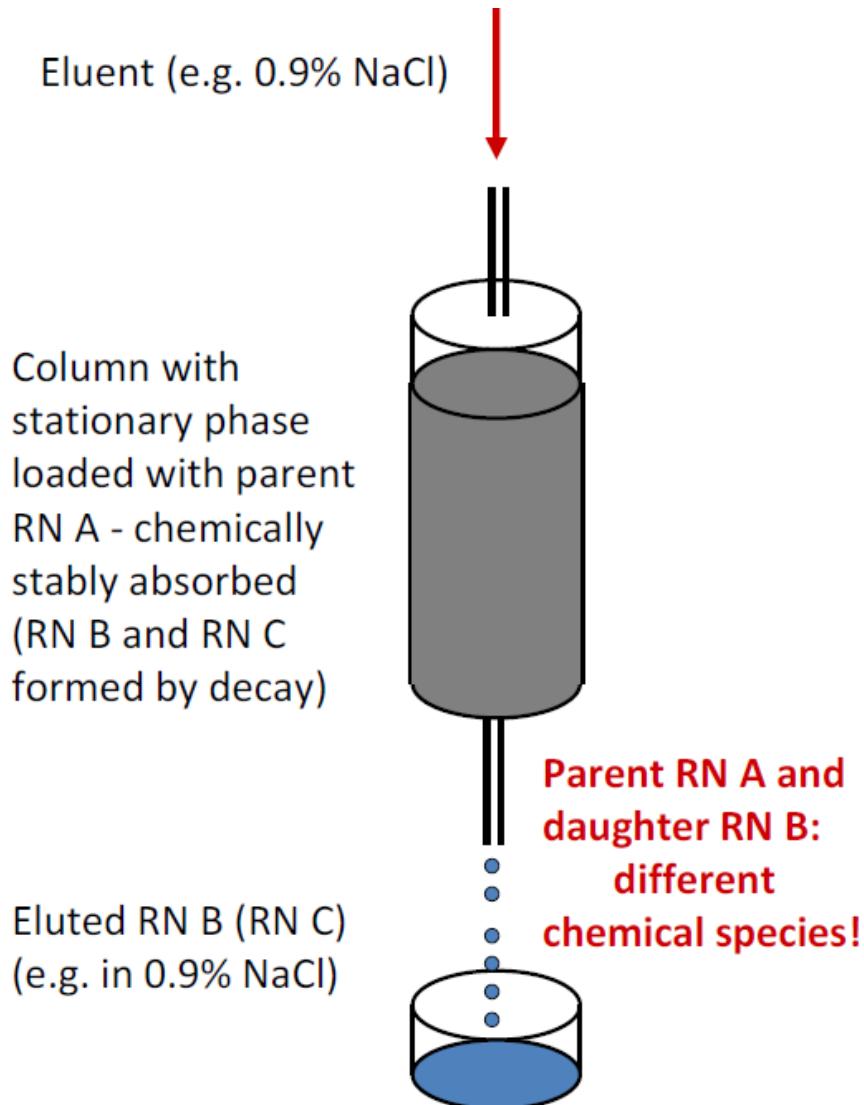
Working principle of a generator



If $T_{1/2} A > T_{1/2} B$, C non-radioactive \rightarrow best prerequisite for a generator system.

Further preconditions:

- Suitable nuclear properties of RN B ($T_{1/2}$, photon/particle energies ...)
- Half life of RN A – some days ... years
- Half life of RN B – some minutes to hours ... days
- Simple separation of RN B from RN A in
 - high yields
 - very low breakthrough of A \rightarrow
 \rightarrow high radionuclidic purity
 - one suitable chemical form
 - meet GMP - requirements



General principle:

- A long-lived parent RN A is sorbed on a stationary phase of a column
- Long-lived parent RN A decays – generation of a daughter-RN B
- Daughter-RN B is eluted – the parent RN A sticks on the column
- use of RN B for (medical) application

Pro and Contra

Advantages:

- Radionuclide always available for use
- Easy delivery and operation of generator systems

Disadvantages:

- Eluate is not for all generator systems directly suitable for labelling reactions
- For long-lived generators: high elution volumes cause breakthrough
- For long-lived, high activity mother nuclides deterioration of the column material (radiolysis) is a serious problem!
 - breakthrough of the long-lived mother nuclide increases with each elution
 - shelf-life of the generator is short compared to actual half-life of the mother nuclide
 - clean-up procedures for the eluate are required, which require time and generate higher radiation exposure to personnel

Supply of mother radionuclides is for almost all generator systems critical!

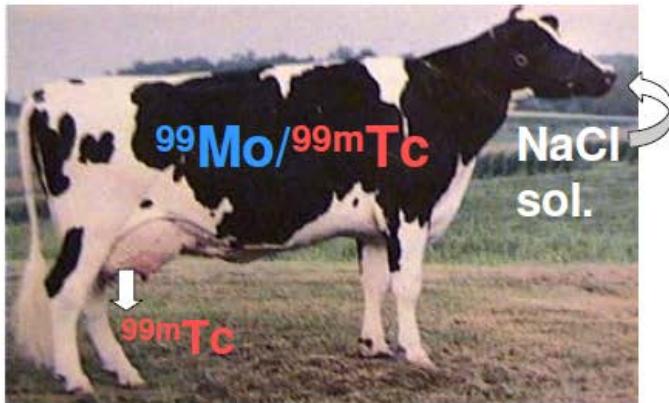
The $^{99}\text{Mo}/^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ Generator: Working horse of nuclear medicine

Walter Tucker and Margaret Greene developed first $^{99}\text{Mo}/^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ -Generator
1957:
 $^{99}\text{Mo}/^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ -generator
1961:
Clinical use
„Kit“
Basis of Nucl Med



Demonstration of eluting the $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ of ^{99}Mo
(shielding is removed, Brookhaven NL, 1957)

Mother/Daughter Radionuclide Generator (Cow)



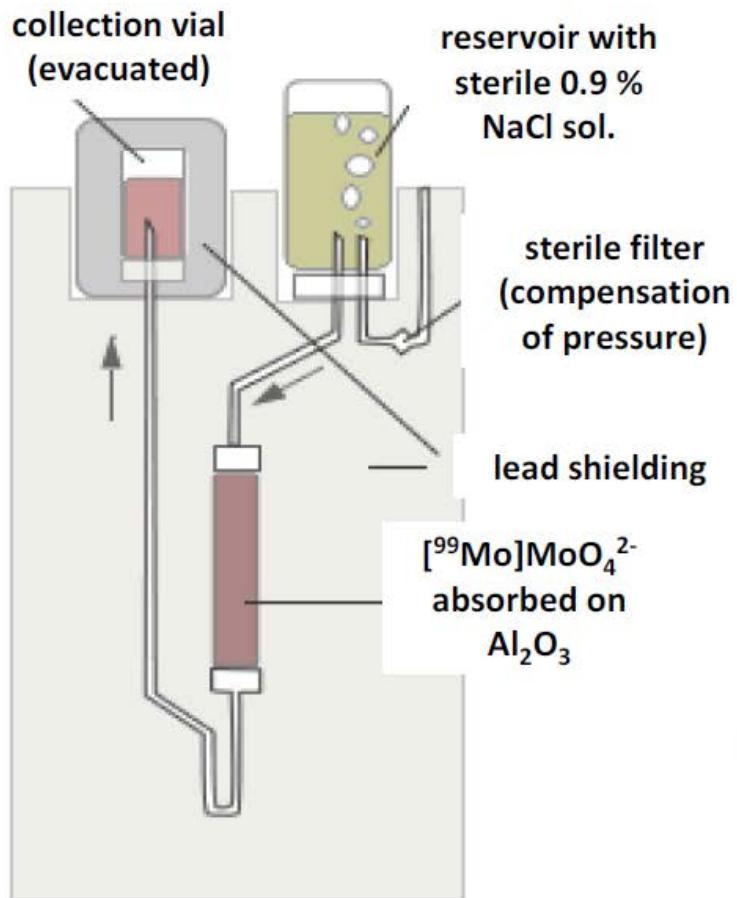
mother nuclide: ^{99}Mo
daughter nuclide: $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$

generator column

mother selective resin
 MoO_4^{2-} (molybdate)
on Al_2O_3

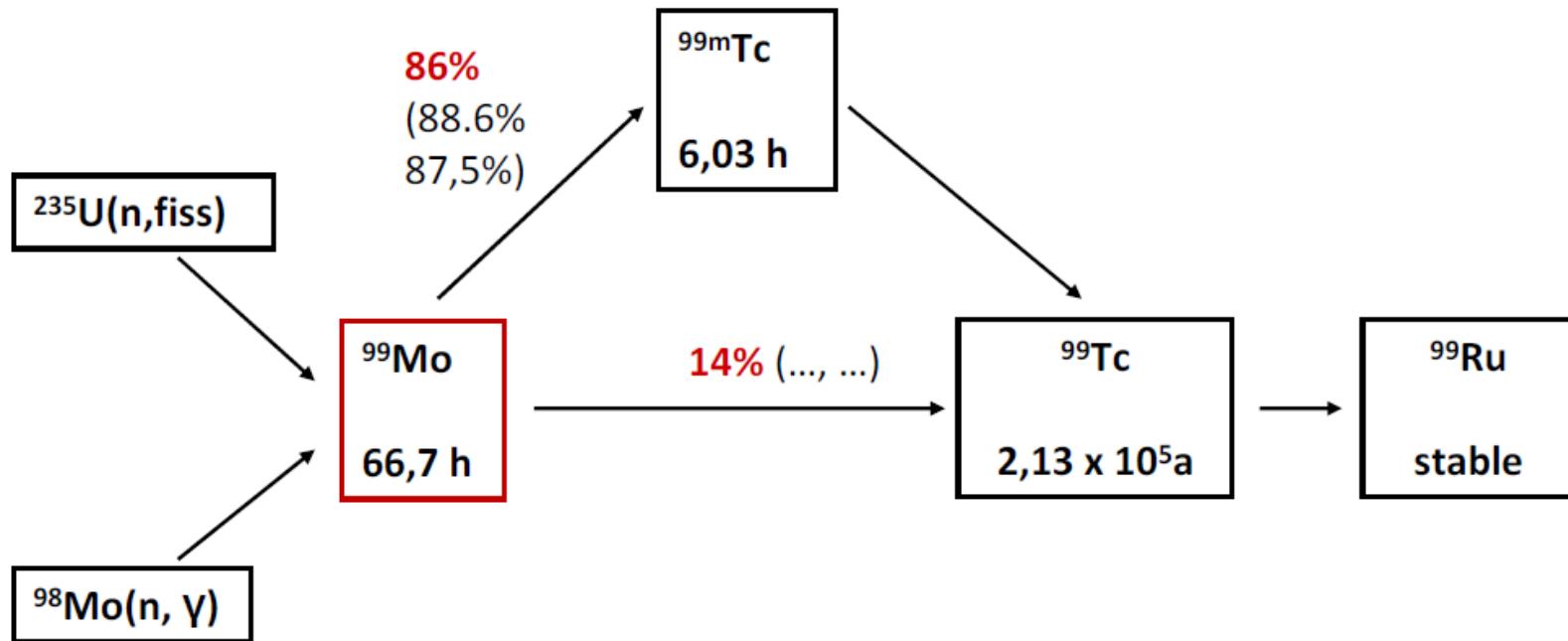


strip solution
0.9% NaCl sol.



$[^{99}\text{Mo}]\text{MoO}_4^{2-} \rightarrow$ absorbed on Al_2O_3
 $[^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}]\text{TcO}_4^{1-} \rightarrow$ eluted from Al_2O_3

Source: Mallinckrodt



- The ^{99m}Tc -generator provides n.c.a. ^{99m}Tc , chem. form: $^{[99m]\text{Tc}}\text{TcO}_4^-$
- A_s decreases depending on point in time of elution - "Generator history"
- 86% versus 14%: Difference in $A_{\text{Mo-99}}$ versus $A_{\text{Tc-99m}}$!!!

Remark: With growing yield A_s decreases $^{99m}\text{Tc} \rightarrow ^{99}\text{Tc}$

Pro and Contra ^{99m}Tc Generators

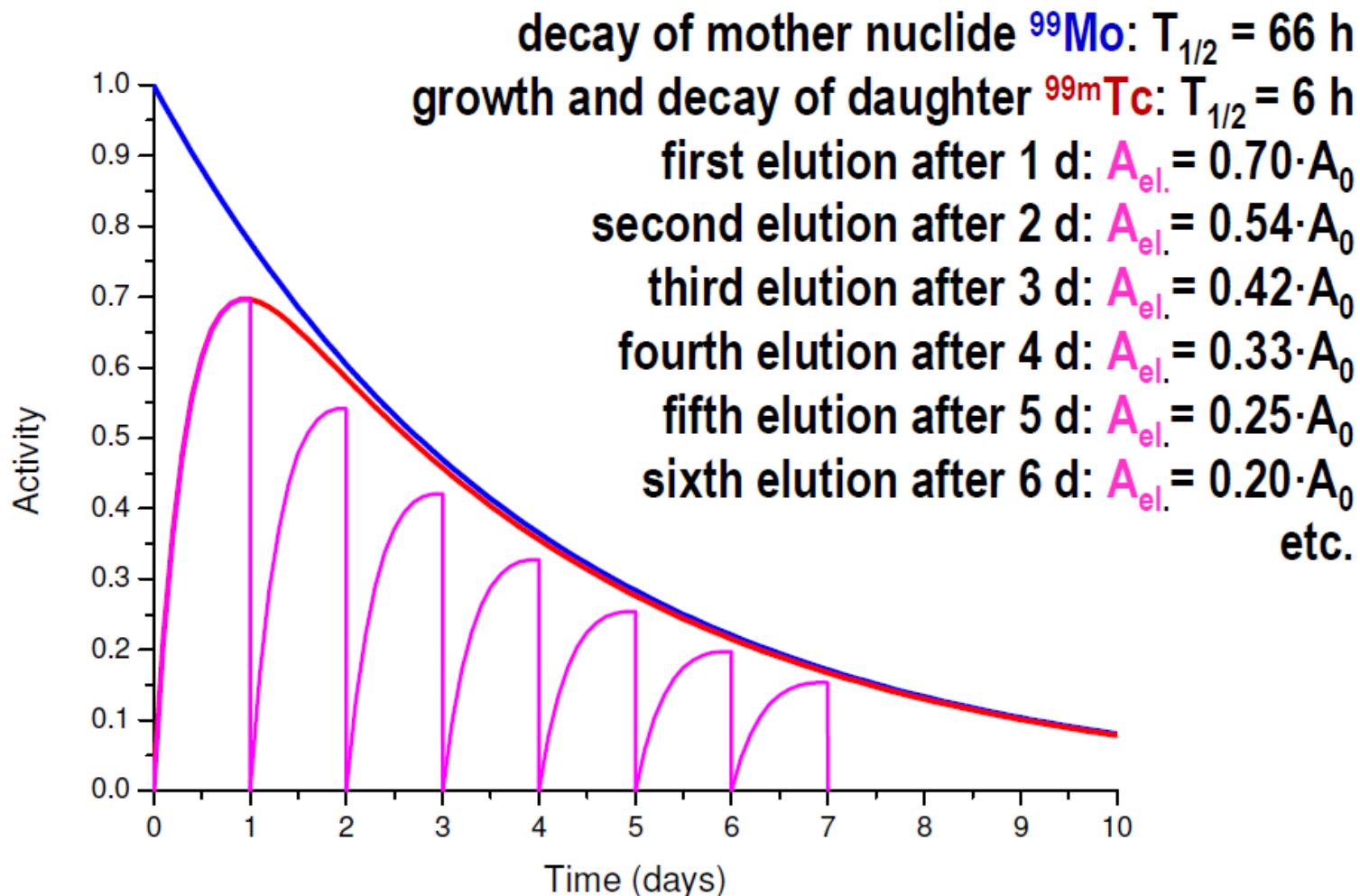
Advantages

- Worldwide availability and operation of the generator system.
- Simple operation of the generator system
- Eluate is directly suitable for labelling reactions (kit formulations)
- Eluate is sterile, pyrogen-free and as isotonic water solution ($\text{Na}^{188}\text{TcO}_4$)
- ^{99m}Tc is the most widely used radionuclide in nuclear medicine → numerous applications

Disadvantages

- $^{99}\text{Mo}/^{99m}\text{Tc}$ -Generator has a short shelf-life (usually 1 week).
- There has been a serious supply crisis for ^{99}Mo due to research reactor shut-downs and generally old nuclear reactors suitable for ^{99}Mo production.
 - ongoing discussion, will be solved with new reactors
- Chemical isolation of ^{99}Mo from irradiated ^{235}U is highly demanding and expensive and generates lots of radioactive waste.

Activity calculations



Other systems

Commercial realization by Eckert & Ziegler

Applied for licensing!

Problems may be:

- sterility after many elutions,
- breakthrough of ^{68}Ge after many elutions



Summary Part II

- Different production modes of radiopharmaceuticals (Fission, Cyclotrons, Generators)
- Cyclotron production are challenging, market for ‘baby cyclotrons’ is increasing
- Generators are still most widely used, in combination with synthesis modules for radionuclides like Ga-68
- ‘Kit’ approach for radiopharmaceuticals is the easiest to use, market increasing (ex. PSMA-11, Dotatate, ...)

Practical Exercise

