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Physics of single-photon emission computed tomography (SPECT)

Master of Science EPF-ETH Degree in Nuclear Engineering and Medical Radiation Physics

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Contents:

- Principles of Gamma Camera
- > Bases of Emission Computed Tomography in nuclear medicine
- Single Photon Emission Computed Tomography (SPECT)



Gamma emission imaging.. a long story



Rectilinear scanner 1951 Simple scintillator counter

I-131 Thyroid Planar imaging

Ink intensity is proportional To measured photon count-rate

> H. Anger 1958 First Gamma Camera Tc-99m Pertechnetate Brain scan of a patient with a glioma





Production of radioisotopes for medical use



¹³⁰Te (n, γ) ¹³¹Te (β - 25min) \rightarrow ^{^131}I (β -, γ =364keV 8d) \rightarrow ¹³¹Xe



⁹⁹Y (β - 1.5s) \rightarrow ⁹⁹Zr (β - 21s) \rightarrow ⁹⁹Nb (β - 15s) \rightarrow ⁹⁹Mo (β - 66h) \rightarrow ^{99m}Tc* (γ =140keV 6h) \rightarrow ⁹⁹Tc (stable)



¹⁸O (p,n) ¹⁸F ¹⁰⁹Ag (α,2n) ¹¹¹In ¹¹¹Cd (p,n) ¹¹¹In

⁹⁹Mo^{-99m}Tc generator

Radio-tracers

The radio-tracer



Radio-diagnostic and/or Radio-therapeutic agent

Vectors:

- Molecule (MIBG, DTPA,...)
- Peptide (DOTATATE,...)
- Antibody
- Microparticle (microspheres)









TABLE 1-1 SELECTED CLINICAL NUCLEAR MEDICINE PROCEDURES

Radiopharmaceutical	Imaging	Measurement	Examples of Clinical Use
^{99m} Tc-MDP	Planar	Bone metabolism	Metastatic spread of cancer, osteomyelitis vs. cellulitis
 ^{99m}Tc-sestamibi (Cardiolite) ^{99m}Tc-tetrofosmin (Myoview) ²⁰¹Tl-thallous chloride 	SPECT or planar	Myocardial perfusion	Coronary artery disease
^{99m} Tc-MAG3 ^{99m} Tc-DTPA	Planar	Renal function	Kidney disease
^{99m} Tc-HMPAO (Ceretec)	SPECT	Cerebral blood flow	Neurologic disorders
^{99m} Tc-ECD	SPECT	Cerebral blood flow	Neurologic disorders
¹²³ I-sodium iodide	Planar	Thyroid function	Thyroid disorders
¹³¹ I-sodium iodide			Thyroid cancer
⁶⁷ Ga-gallium citrate	Planar	Sequestered in tumors	Tumor localization
^{99m} Tc-macroaggregated albumin and ¹³³ Xe gas	Planar	Lung perfusion/ ventilation	Pulmonary embolism
¹¹¹ In-labeled white blood cells	Planar	Sites of infection	Detection of inflammation
¹⁸ F-fluorodeoxyglucose	PET	Glucose metabolism	Cancer, neurological disorders, and myocardial diseases
⁸² Rb-rubidium chloride	PET	Myocardial perfusion	Coronary artery disease

MDP, methylene diphosphonate; MAG3, mercapto-acetyl-triglycine; DTPA, diethylenetriaminepenta-acetic acid; HMPAO, hexamethylpropyleneamine oxime; ECD, ethyl-cysteine-dimer; SPECT, single photon emission computed tomography; PET, positron emission tomography.

Production of radioisotopes for medical use



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The gamma camera Introduction to basic principles

Gamma camera: main components



Parallel hole collimator

Emission imaging is based on scintillation detection

Organic (liquids)

Scintillation material

Inorganic (crystals Nal, BGO, LSO)

The amount of emitted light (visible) is proportional to the deposited energy





Gamma camera: Problems in event localization



- A) Valid event (useful for correct localization on the imaged region)
- B) Scatter on the crystal
- C) Scatter on the patient
- D) Septal penetration

Incorrect source localization



Intrinsic spatial resolution (detector)



Gamma Camera: collimator resolution

Collimator resolution (parallel-hole) ~10 mm







Gamma camera total resolution

- R₁ = 3.5 mm
- R_{coll} = 10 mm

Compute the total resolution !!!!

$$R_{tot} = \sqrt{R_{I}^{2} + R_{coll}^{2}}$$
$$= \sqrt{3.5^{2} + 10^{2}} = 10.7 mm$$



Gamma camera Sensitivity

Collimator Efficiency $S_{coll} = \frac{\Omega}{4\pi} \frac{A_{holes}}{A_{crystal}} = \frac{\pi \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^2 / l^2}{4\pi} \frac{A_{holes}}{A_{crystal}}$

 $\Omega\text{:}$ solid angle subtended by the collimator hole from the source d : collimator hole diameter

I : collimator length (septa length)

Total Efficiency

$$S_{tot} = \frac{\Omega}{4\pi} \frac{A_{holes}}{A_{crystal}} \times \left[1 - e^{-\mu d_{crystal}}\right]$$



> Ex-1 Determine the sensitivity of a parallel-hole collimator characterized by:

I = 3 cmd = 2.5 mm (A _{holes} /A _{crystal}) =0.8



$$= \{[(2.5/2)^2]/(4 \times 30^2)\} \times 0.8$$

= 3.47E-04



➢EX-2 Determine the global system sensitivity for a camera system having the same collimator, NaI crystal thickness of 7 mm measuring ^{99m}Tc gamma rays.

$$S_{tot} = \frac{\Omega}{4\pi} \frac{A_{holes}}{A_{crystal}} \times \left[1 - e^{-\mu d_{crystal}}\right]$$

 μ (Nal, 140 keV) = 3.04 cm⁻¹

 $S_{coll} = \{[(2.5/2)^2]/(4 \times 30^2)\} \times 0.8$ = 3.47E-04

 $S_{tot} = S_{coll} \times [1 - exp(-3.04 \text{ cm}^{-1} \times 0.7 \text{ cm})]$

= 3.47E-04 × 0.88 = 3.05E-04

Gamma camera Sensitivity

Collimator Efficiency



- Ω : solid angle subtended by the collimator hole from the source
- d : collimator hole diameter
- I : collimator length (septa length)

Total Efficiency

$$S_{tot} = \frac{\Omega}{4\pi} \frac{A_{holes}}{A_{crystal}} \times \left[1 - e^{-\mu d_{crystal}}\right]$$

Source-collimator distance (cm)

Collimator Type	Recommended Max. Energy (keV)	Efficiency, g	Resolution $R_{ m coll}$ (FWHM at 10 cm)
Low-energy, high-resolution	150	$1.84 imes10^{-4}$	7.4 mm
Low-energy, general-purpose	150	$2.68 imes10^{-4}$	9.1 mm
Low-energy, high-sensitivity	150	$5.74 imes10^{-4}$	13.2 mm
Medium-energy, high-sensitivity	400	$1.72 imes 10^{-4}$	13.4 mm

The reasons for SPECT... ... Beyond planar imaging





- Improved emission localization
- Disentangle signal overlap
- Pave the way to 3D quantitative imaging

Introduction to tomography in nuclear medicine

Bases of tomography reconstruction in nuclear medicine



Head rotation around the imaged object

Many projections at different angles are obtained

Projections in a simple 1-D detector case

Signal proportional to the summed activity along the line of response (assumption of no attenuation and scatter)









N projections are recorded around the emitting Object (0-360 deg)

N projections $p(r,\phi)$

Angular spacing is $A_s = 360/N \text{ deg}$

Typically $A_s = 3 \text{ deg for } N = 120 \text{ projections}$ $\phi = (0=360 \text{ deg}), 3 \text{ deg}, 6 \text{ deg},...$

Dual Head Camera \rightarrow 60 acquisition steps 15 sec per step \rightarrow 15 minutes image acquisition

Projection data are arranged in (r, ϕ) : coordinate frame stationary with respect to the detector-camera frame

 $(x,y) \rightarrow (r,\phi)$

$$r = x\cos\varphi + y\sin\varphi$$

 $s = y \cos \varphi - x \sin \varphi$

Base for SINOGRAM representation





1-D Projection data are arranged in a 2D (r, ϕ) **SINOGRAM representation**

Each row (ϕ) in the sinogram displays the intensity profile measured in the corresponding projection







What we have: a discrete number of measured projections $P(r,\phi)$ Arranged in a sinogram

What we want: Recover the unknown activity distribution (f(x,y))



The reconstructed activity distribution f'(x,y)in a 2D plane of discrete pixels.

Matrix dimension in SPECT is typically 128 x 128

Simple Back Projection

The unknown activity distribution is reconstructed by distributing the measured Intensity back across the (pixelized) construction plane



$$f'(x,y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} p(x \cos \varphi_i + y \sin \varphi_i, \varphi_i)$$

Simple Backprojection results in a blurred reconstructed image

$$f'(x,y) = f(x,y) * (1/r)$$

1/r blurring Low image contrast

Simple Backprojection of an activity distribution in phantom



- A: Simulated phantom activity distribution
- B: Sinogram (256 projection angles)
- C: Simple Backprojection Reconstruction

1/r blurring Degradation of sharper details (edges)Degradation of contrast



Simple Backprojection of an activity distribution in brain

Simple Backprojection results in a blurred reconstructed image

Direct Fourier Transform reconstruction

Avoid 1/r blurring

Image space (object space)

1D f(x)

 $2D \quad f(x,y)$

$$F^{-1}\left[F(k_x,k_y)\right] = f(x,y)$$

Frequency space k-space F(k) = FT(f(x))

$$F(k_x, k_y) = FT(f(x, y))$$



Still affected by 1/r noise (low spatial frequency noise)

Filtered Backprojections (FBP)



1) Projections are Fourier transformed in k-space

2) Filtering in k-space

3) Inverse Fourier Tranform

to obtain filtered projection in sinogram space (r, $\!\varphi)$

4) Backporjection in object space (x,y)

$$f'(x,y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} p'(x \cos \varphi_i + y \sin \varphi_i, \varphi_i)$$



Filtering in k-space precedes Backprojection into object space

Ramp filter≻Low frequency damping≻High frequency amplifications

1/r blurring is eliminated But high frequency noise is generated





Fitered Backprojection (FBP) of an activity distribution in brain



If noiseless projections are available And virtually infinite angles views are available Quantitative true activity distribution reconstruction

Summary of FBP characteristics



- Assets:
 - Accurate (quantitative) if noise-free measurements and completely sampled data
 - Fast and easy to implement
- Limitations:
 - Still noisy (steak artifacts)
 - No natural way to implement Corrections:
 - Spatial resolution
 - Scattering
 - attenuation

Iterative reconstruction techniques

Iterative Reconstruction algorithm



Iterative reconstruction

More computationally demanding Than FPB

Now become standard in clinic

True activity distribution f(x,y)is estimated by successive approximations f'(x,y)



Example of Iterative Reconstruction



Animations from: Floris HP van Velden, PhD EANM Milan 2012

Iterative reconstruction

Key points: Expectation maximization cost function *(convergence criterion)* Method to upgrade the image estimate Account for: > Detector and collimator response, > finite spatial resolution

➤Attenuation

➤Scattering

Quantitative more accurate than FBP



If 120 angular projections

 \rightarrow 120 x 128 = 15360 projection data

→M : (16348 x 15360)

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Object space} \\ \text{Activity distribution} \\ \hline f(x,y) \\ \hline \\ \text{Measured projections} \\ \hline \\ p(r,\phi) \\ \hline \\ \text{mage estimate} \\ f'(x,y) \\ \hline \\ f'(x,y) \\ \hline \\ \text{Update} \\ \text{image} \\ \text{estimate} \\ \hline \\ \end{array}$$

All image pixels (i) have a finite probability (M_{i,j}) to contribute to signal intensity into projection data (p_j)

$$p_j = \sum_{i=1}^n M_{i,j} f_i$$





Single Photon Emission Computer Thomography: SPECT

Single Photon Emission Computer Thomography: SPECT

SPECT systems are based on Gamma Camera technology



Single head



Double head



Triple head

Acquisition: 2D array of 1D-projections \rightarrow 2D planar image

Tomographic reconstruction



http://meditronics.wordpress.com/spect/

2D axial slices stacked in a 3D array (3D volume image)





More detection head \rightarrow increased detection sensitivity \rightarrow Reduced acquisition time

Acquisition orbit

 \rightarrow as close as possible to the Patient contour \rightarrow minimize resolution degradation with distance



Automatic patient detection systems





70

Voxel

80 90

60

70 80

90

40 50 60



Automatic adaptative orbit $R \sim 17 \text{ cm}$

Being a slim patient is a good idea !!!

fixed circular orbit R ~ 30 cm

How many projections are needed?

 $p(r,\phi=0)$ Projections are discrete data-sets $\Delta r \leq 1/2k_{\rm max}$ Sampling theorem: i=128 i=1 $k_{max} = Nyquist freq.$ $\Delta r \leq FWHM_{PSF}/3$ FOV Sampling requirement: Angular sampling requirement

Example

FOV D = 30 cmFWHM = 10 mm

Number of angular views

 $\Delta r \leq 10/300 \approx 3.3 mm$ Linear sampling interval should be :

Number of pixel in the r direction is : 300/3.3 = 90 (~100 samples are needed) \rightarrow typically power of 2 in digital data analysis \rightarrow projection discretisation in 128 samples (2⁷)

Number of views is : $(\pi \times 30)/(2x(1/3)) \approx 140$ views

- \rightarrow Thus typically 128 angular acquisitions are acquired
- \rightarrow Reconstruction matrix size = 128 x 128
- \rightarrow 16348 image pixels

$N_{views} \leq \pi D / 2\Delta r$









Linear undersampling (Δr) \rightarrow Spatial resolution degradation \rightarrow Image artifacts Angular undersampling (N_{views}) →Spatial resolution degradation →Image artifacts Signal intensity in SPECT voxels is proportional to the amount of activity contained

But absolute quantification (Bq/mL) is very hard to achieve

Line of response are not straight cylinders but are diverging cones

➤Tissue attenuation results in depleted signal from deeper location in patient

Scattering in patient, detector and collimator results in event mislocalisaton









>An exact **detector collimator response** is needed (septal penetration, PSF resolution recovery)

Attenuation correction in SPECT

Attenuation is inverse of transmission

Attenuation coeff. Tissues

Tissue typeGamma Energy

$$\mu_w(E_\gamma)$$

$$T = e^{-\mu x}$$

$$\mu_{water} (140 keV) = 0.155 cm^{-1}$$
$$\mu_{bone} (140 keV) = 0.25 cm^{-1}$$

Conjugate counting

$$C_{G} = \sqrt{C_{1} \times C_{2}} \qquad C_{1} = A \times k \times e^{-\mu d_{1}} \qquad C_{2} = A \times k \times e^{-\mu d_{2}}$$
$$C_{G} = \sqrt{C_{1} \times C_{2}} = A \times k \times \sqrt{\exp(-\eta (d_{1} + d_{2}))}$$
$$C_{G} = A \times k \times \exp(-\mu D/2)$$

Geometric mean

Independent on source depth
→ only depends on total tissue thickness (D)





Attenuation correction in SPECT



Limitations

- Inaccurate for arbitrary source distribution in FOV
- Assumption of uniform linear attenuation thought the imaged object

Attenuation correction applied to voxels of reconstructed image (f'(x.y))

- 1. First uncorrected image estimation: f'(x,y) (ex. by FBP)
- 2. Estimation of projection path (di) along single pixels
- 3. Correction is applied:

$$f^{\text{icorr}}(x, y) = f'(x, y) \times ACF(x, y) \qquad ACF(x, y) = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} e^{-\mu d}}$$

Chang's multiplicative method

Limitations

Assumption of uniform linear attenuation thought the imaged object

20 cm diam. Cylinder filled with ^{99m}Tc

No attenuation correction



Chang methods are used in commercial SPECT systems Not accurate enough for absolute quantitation

 \rightarrow Approximation of uniform attenuation coeff. applies to :

≻Brain

≻Abdomen

Not appropriate for: ≻Thorax (lungs) ≻Pelvic region (bones)





CT based attenuation correction in SPECT





X-ray tube

X-ray detector

Tissue attenuation can be derived from transmission data (CT)



CT-Based Attenuation map For attenuation Correction of SPECT data



CT-AC is standard in modern hybrid SPECT/CT devices



Effective energy of the beam can be defined

120 kVp \rightarrow 75 keV

Appropriate $\mu(x,y,E\gamma)$ map need:

Energy scaling the attenuation coeff. from effective beam energy to the given radionuclide energy

CT based attenuation correction in SPECT

CT map is in Hounsfield units using a borad-energy Spectrum

- Segmentation on CT
- ≻Air
- ≻Bone
- ➤Soft tissues

Attenuation map $\mu(x,y,E\gamma)$

Continuous attenuation map $\mu(x,y,E\gamma)$ from CT





СТ



SPECT/CT fusion



AC-corrected SPECT

Non corrected

Scatter correction in SPECT

Scattering in patient, detector and collimator results in event mislocalisaton



Scatter fraction in the selected energy window in unfavorable condition cab be up to 40%

Scatter correction by Chang corrections → smaller attenuation coefficient Only works in regions of uniform activity distribution and attenuation

Scatter correction by measured scatter component subtraction in projections

Scatter correction by energy discrimination in PHA

Scatter correction in SPECT PHA based energy discrimination



Scatter correction must be performed before Attenuation correction to avoid amplification of scatter contribution

Attenuation and Scatter correction in SPECT Iterative reconstruction



Attenuating map data can be integrated into the Image Matrix (M)

To account for the probability of scatter radiation in the source region (x,y) to produce a signal into a given detector element (p_j)

Collimator/detector response can also be integrated in M

Monte Carlo simulations (gold standard)
Measured data

The way towards Quantitatively accurate SPECT imaging

Patient receiving a therapeutic administration (6 GBq) of Lu-177 DOTATATE

Signal recovery was assessed at organ and lesion level by varying the number of iterations



Signal recovery (and convergence) is size dependent

Protocol optimization has a direct impact on organs and lesion dose assessment

Physics in Nuclear Medicine

FOURTH EDITION

Simon R. Cherry James A. Sorenson Michael E. Phelps



SAUNDERS