Hybrid PET/MR Imaging of Bone Metabolism and Morphology

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**Declaration:**

*Hereby I declare that this doctoral thesis, my original investigation and achievement, submitted for the doctoral degree at Tallinn University of Technology has not been submitted for any other academic degree.*

/Andrei Šamarin/

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List of Publications


Author's Contribution to the Publications:

Publication I: study design, analysis of the images, statistical analysis of the data, writing of the manuscript

Publication II: study design, conduction of the study including modification and reconstruction of image data, analysis of the images, statistical analysis of the data, writing of the manuscript

Publication III: study design, analysis of the images, interpretation of the data, writing of the manuscript
Approbation


INTRODUCTION

Cancer is serious medical and social problem causing humanitarian and economic losses worldwide. Appearance of bone metastases demonstrates that cancer is entering an advanced stage which seriously complicates clinical history as well as management of this disease (Roodman 2004). In recent years a paradigm shift in cancer control is observed towards implementation of precision medicine tools (Prasad et al. 2016). The concept of precision medicine that takes individual disease variability into account for prevention and treatment has the full potential to give everyone the best chance at good health (Collins and Varmus 2015). To achieve this goal powerful methods for characterizing the patients and the disease are needed. Hybrid PET/CT and PET/MR imaging methods using various biomarkers provide a molecular approach to diagnose cancer and assess treatment response. Non-invasive evaluation of bone with regards to the presence of bone metastases enables accurate staging and selection of the optimum treatment of the oncological patient as well as prognosis determination.

With the introduction of fully integrated whole body PET/CT cameras (Beyer et al. 2000), a new area in nuclear medicine has opened. PET/CT technology offers a sequential combination of anatomic information provided by diagnostic CT and imaging of physiology by PET in one integrated device. PET/CT integration is truly synergistic as CT allows anatomical localization and morphological characterization of the metabolic alterations detected by PET as well as providing attenuation correction data. It has become quickly apparent that diagnostic accuracy of integrated PET/CT is superior to PET alone, CT alone and PET and CT read side-by-side (Bar-Shalom et al 2003, Cohade et al 2003, Czernin et al 2007). As a result, the use of fluorine-18 fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG) PET/CT in tumour staging and therapy response assessment has increased markedly (Lardinois et al 2003, von Schulthess et al 2006). The acceptance and clinical use of the PET/CT was widespread and fast (Czernin et al 2007). PET/CT has become one of the mainstays of oncological imaging influencing therapeutic management in up to 36% of the examined patients (Hillner et al 2008).

Major efforts have been made to develop integrated PET/MR systems as MR imaging has certain advantages over CT. MR imaging provides higher soft tissue contrast allowing potentially better anatomical characterization of the disease in organs like brain, breast, liver and prostate, in head and neck and pelvic region and bone marrow (Czernin et al 2013). Furthermore, additional functional imaging capabilities of MR combined with anatomical information and PET data may provide new insights into disease phenotypes and biology (Czernin et al 2014). MR technology allows imaging without ionized radiation resulting in less radiation exposure in PET/MR systems in comparison to PET/CT, an important factor in vulnerable populations such as children and women of childbearing age (Miglioretti et al. 2013).
PET/MR as a whole body imaging modality became clinically available later than PET/CT. Substantial engineering efforts were required to overcome technical challenges (Wehrl et al. 2015). The technological tasks included the development of semiconductor-based light detectors insensitive to high magnetic fields and MR imaging based attenuation correction (AC) of PET data. While MR compatible avalanche photo-diodes based PET detectors have been successfully developed (Pichler et al 2006), MR based attenuation correction of PET data still remains a topic of active research (Attenberger et al 2015). It has been shown that in integrated PET/MR scanners the erroneous PET attenuation correction leads to substantially lower mean standardized uptake values (SUV) in bone tissue compared to PET/CT (Eiber et al 2014), the finding that may be especially important when assessing treatment response in bone metastases or comparing PET/CT and PET/MR studies.

Several imaging techniques are currently available for the detection of the metastatic bone lesions – whole body scintigraphy with technetium-99m methyl diphosphonate (MDP-WBS), CT, MR, PET/CT and PET/MR imaging (Choi and Raghavan 2012; Lecouvet et al. 2013; Schraml et al. 2015). Whole-body MR imaging has been shown to have superior diagnostic accuracy compared with CT and bone scintigraphy in detection of bone metastases because of its ability to assess early infiltration of bone marrow which precedes osteoblastic and osteoclastic response of the bone matrix to malignant tissue infiltration (Steinborn et al.; Engelhard et al. 2004; Mentzel et al. 2004; Yang et al. 2011; Lecouvet et al. 2013). Superiority of MR imaging over CT imaging in early detection of metastatic bone marrow infiltration generates expectation of superiority of PET/MR over PET/CT in respective clinical settings. However, the advantages of PET/MRI as a new technology in patient care need to be compared with PET/CT as a clinical standard.

This doctoral thesis aims on improvement of assessment of bone metabolism and morphology in patients with malignant disease using hybrid PET/MR imaging providing support for diagnosis, treatment and prognosis evaluation.

The doctoral thesis covers the methodology and the results of three studies performed for further development of quantitative PET/MR imaging and assessment of potential clinical utility of PET/MRI, particularly in patients with metastatic bone disease. The current work seeks the solution for accurate fusion of PET and MRI datasets acquired in stand-alone imaging systems that can potentially be solved by development and validation of novel dedicated patient transporter system. The impact of imperfect attenuation correction algorithms currently used in integrated PET/MR systems on bone lesion assessment was not previously fully understood and needed further investigation. We developed a robust approach that allowed to clarify this issue in multiple bone lesions in different parts of the skeletal system - an information potentially leading to improvement of the photon attenuation correction in integrated PET/MR systems. Besides necessary technical solutions, clinical utility of PET/MR in assessment bone morphology and metabolism needed further evaluation. For
this purpose FDG-PET/MR performance in assessment of bone lesions was compared with FDG-PET/CT imaging.

The first study (Publication I) describes implementation of the newly developed dedicated patient transporter system which enables hybrid sequential tri-modality PET/CT + MR imaging. The developed patient shuttle system allowed robust transfer of the patients between PET/CT and MR or SPECT/CT and diagnostic CT scanners, resulting in "hardware-based" fusion of the PET and MR datasets or SPECT and diagnostic CT images. Tri-modality PET/CT + MR setup served as a platform for further investigation of the technical challenges (Publication II) and clinical benefits (Publication III) of PET/MR imaging.

The second study (Publication II) investigates the fundamental issue of photon attenuation correction in integrated PET/MR imaging systems where X-ray based attenuation cannot be used. For this purpose MR based attenuation correction maps were simulated by “removing” bone with its high attenuation values on CT based attenuation maps, and replacing the affected regions with soft tissue specific attenuation values. This approach allowed to evaluate the consequence of using deficient attenuation correction and to point out the need for assigning correct attenuation coefficients for bone tissue in PET/MR imaging.

The third study (Publication III) focuses on the clinical evaluation of a PET/MR system by comparing the diagnostic performance of FDG-PET/MR with FDG-PET/CT in oncological patients with FDG avid bone metastases. In this study an optimized imaging protocol with reduced number of MR pulse sequences was designed thanks to availability of diagnostic information from PET. The MR protocol was without contrast administration and consisted of three MR pulse sequences that allow to perform whole-body PET/MR imaging approximately within the same time as a standard PET/CT.
ABBREVIATIONS

AC – attenuation correction
Ac-CT – computed tomography for attenuation correction
CoM – external cobalt-57 markers
CT – computed tomography
D-CT – diagnostic computed tomography
FDG – fluorine-18 fluorodeoxyglucose
MDP-WBS – whole body scintigraphy with technetium-99m methyl diphosphonate
MR – magnetic resonance
MR STIR – short T1 inversion recovery magnetic resonance sequence
MR T1 water, fat, in-phase, out-phase – T1-weighted 3D dual-echo gradient-recalled echo pulse sequence, liver accelerated volume acquisition, corresponding water, fat, in-phase and out-phase reconstruction
MRI – magnetic resonance imaging
NaF – fluorine-18 sodium fluoride
PET – positron emission tomography
PETvol – metabolic tumour volume
PMT – photomultiplier tube
RF – radiofrequency
SD – standard deviation;
SUV – standardized uptake value
SUVmax – maximum standardized uptake value
SUVmean – mean standardized uptake value
TLG – total lesion glycolysis
1. HYBRID PET/MR IMAGING

Cancer is a major source of morbidity and mortality worldwide. Molecular imaging has a major role in diagnosis and management of malignant disease, currently mainly by using FDG as a tracer of energy metabolism. This to a certain extent provides a characterisation of biochemical signatures in an individual tumour, and it can be expected that - as cancer therapies move into an era of precision medicine (Leiblich et al. 2016) – other tracers will provide more specific biochemical information.

Bone metastases are a common complication of cancer and bone is the third most common organ affected by metastases, surpassed only by the lungs and the liver (O’Sullivan et al. 2015). Biological factors like higher blood flow in the areas of red bone marrow and the production of the adhesive molecules that allow binding to marrow stroma by disseminated tumour cells result in the high frequency of skeletal metastases (Woolf et al. 2015). Depending on the tumour type, skeletal metastases can cause an osteolytic reaction with destruction of the bone tissue (lytic metastases), an osteoblastic reaction with excessive bone formation (sclerotic metastases) or a mixed bone tissue response. Bone metastases often have devastating effects as osteolytic metastases can cause severe pain, pathologic fractures, life-threatening hypercalcemia, spinal cord compression and other neural compression syndromes (Roodman 2004). Osteoblastic metastases can cause bone pain and pathologic fractures because of the poor quality of the newly produced excessive bone tissue (Roodman 2004). Therefore early and confident detection of bone metastases enabling accurate staging and selection of the optimum treatment is essential in cancer patients. Once the diagnosis of bone metastases has been established, consistent, reproducible and validated imaging methods are the prerequisite of effective management of cancer patients (Woolf et al. 2015).

Hybrid PET/MR has the potential for accurate diagnosis, treatment response assessment and the surveillance of patients living with metastatic cancer.

1.1. General principles of PET and MR imaging

1.1.1. PET imaging

Positron emission tomography (PET) is based on detection of biologically active targeted molecules administered to the patient and labelled with a positron emitting radioactive isotope. These molecules are selected and applied upon their affinity to particular pathophysiological processes of interest. The positron emitted by the radioactive isotope interacts by annihilation with an electron of the surrounding tissue after very short travelling distance of typically less than 2 millimetres. As a result the annihilation reaction two 511 keV photons are emitted in opposite directions. The near-simultaneous detection of
both emitted photons by a ring of PET camera detectors identifies the line, along which the annihilation has occurred and from this, the location of the administered targeted molecule inside the human body can be inferred (Fig. 1). PET detectors consist of a high-density scintillator and a photomultiplier tube (PMT). The scintillator is used to convert the high-energy annihilation photons to multiple photons with much lower energy in the spectrum of visible light, which is then collected and amplified by the PMTs.

Fig. 1. PET imaging principle. A radioactive isotope emits a positron during its disintegration. The positron annihilates with an electron of the surrounding tissue producing gamma radiation in the form of two photons. The photons are emitted at an angle of nearly 180 degrees. When both photons interact with two of the scintillator crystals of the PET detector ring, a coincidence event is recorded and the location of the radioactive isotope can be established. Adapted with permission from Gaspar Delso. Source: Delso G et al. (2015) Abdom Imaging 40:1352-1357.

The detector positions, the energy of the photons and the precise timing of their detection are critical. This information is processed to localize the annihilation and reject – among others - the scattered photons due to Compton interactions with patient tissue or hardware placed in the field of view. A good timing accuracy of the PET detectors can be applied to narrow further localization of annihilation event by obtaining so called Time of Flight information, TOF. One of the main strengths of PET technology is its high sensitivity as in theory photons produced by just a few hundreds of molecules of
radiotracer at a given location can already be detected by a PET scanner (Delso et al. 2015).

### 1.1.2. PET attenuation correction

Several physical factors affect the correct visualisation of the tracer uptake in tissues in PET images. These factors include photon attenuation, scattered and random coincidences, detector efficiency variations, and scanner dead-time (Kinahan et al. 2003). The major factor is attenuation of the emitted photons in the human body and the hardware present in the field of view incorporating two types of interaction: photoelectric absorption and Compton scattering. These two phenomena can significantly affect both visual image quality and quantitative accuracy of the data. Improper photon attenuation correction of the PET data can lead to impaired detection of the lesions in the areas of non-uniform density (Kinahan et al. 2003). Therefore compensation for photon attenuation needs to be implemented in PET image reconstruction. Several approaches can be used for photon attenuation correction: transmission scans obtained from positron or gamma-ray emitting sources, x-ray sources and more recently, from MR imaging.

In PET scanners the transmission data needed to calculate the attenuation map can be recorded in coincidence-timing mode with an external source of radiation like a Ge-68/Ga-68 positron source (Kinahan et al. 2003). Another option is to use gamma-ray sources like Cs-137. The benefit of this gamma source is reduced transmission noise, but a drawback is a potential bias introduced by transforming the attenuation maps obtained at the 662 keV Cs-137 energy to annihilation gamma ray energy of 511 keV, and an increase in the fraction of scattered photons (Kinahan et al. 2003).

In integrated PET/CT scanners the CT scans can be used for PET attenuation correction purposes allowing to omit the separate, lengthy PET transmission scan. The use of the CT scan for attenuation correction leads to reduction of whole-body scan times by at least 30% and provides essentially noiseless attenuation correction factors compared to those from a standard PET transmission scan (Townsend et al. 2003). Additionally, this approach eliminates the issue of contamination of radionuclide-based transmission scans from emission photons. In CT based PET attenuation correction, the PET-attenuation maps at 511 keV are obtained by using a bilinear function to transform the Hounsfield unit CT maps, which are obtained at photon energies at around 70 keV (Kinahan et al. 1998; Burger et al. 2002). However, it should be kept in mind that mismatch between PET and CT images due to patient respiration, truncation of the CT field-of-view, the use of intravenous and oral CT contrast media, and the presence of metal objects can potentially lead to errors in CT based attenuation correction (Townsend et al. 2003).

In PET/MR scanners, MR images are used for photon attenuation correction. MR signal intensity usually is a complicated function of proton density and the T1- and T2-relaxation times. Therefore, a direct conversion of
the MR image signals to PET attenuation coefficients is not possible. Advanced MR image processing required for generation of MR based photon attenuation maps is an area of active research, as multiple factors can lead to inaccurate MR-based attenuation correction maps. These factors are inaccurate bone and lung tissue segmentation, motion-induced misregistration, RF coils in the PET field of view, B0 and B1 field inhomogeneities, metallic implants and MR contrast agents (Aznar et al. 2014; Attenberger et al. 2015).

1.1.3. MR imaging

The principle of MR imaging is based on the magnetic properties of the hydrogen nuclei inside mostly water and fat molecules and their interaction with different molecular environments. In clinical practice this provides the opportunity to characterize tissues with different structural and molecular properties. The MR imaging signal is generated by the manipulation of the magnetic moments of the protons, which have been aligned by a strong magnetic field. This manipulation is done by applying sequences of excitations through radiofrequency (RF) waves and recording the small signals of relaxation after the excitations detectable outside the body (Shah and Huang 2015). Localization of the origin of the signals from within the body and therefore generation of MR images is achieved by using additional magnetic fields. The recorded signal strengths are dependent on the different densities and relaxation properties of protons in different tissues. In order to improve transmission and reception of RF waves and therefore signal and image quality (Fig. 2), local radiofrequency coils (surface coils) can be placed directly on the patient body.

![Image](image.png)  
**Fig. 2.** Schematic sagittal view of an MR scanner. The permanent superconducting coil, gradient coils and RF coils are arranged as concentric cylinders around the patient opening. Local RF coils are placed on the patient for improved signal quality. Adapted with permission from Gaspar Delso.  

PET and MR systems can be integrated in three major ways (von Schulthess and Schlemmer 2009). This allows characterization of tissue properties from different aspects including metabolism and morphology.

1.2.1. Separate imaging

The scanners are located in the different rooms, commonly far from each other. The patient needs to be offloaded from the one scanner and then get onto second scanner. The integration of PET and CT or MR data is performed by the fusion of PET and CT or MR datasets, respectively using dedicated software. The postural position of the patient on the scanner tables will not be exactly the same therefore causing spatial misregistration between the fused images. Integration of images from two separate devices with software-based image fusion is possible and has been used mainly for brain tumours (Grosu et al. 2005) and prostate (Park et al. 2012) or pelvic tumours (Vargas et al. 2013); however, in body applications, any positional change of the patient will impair fusion accuracy and therefore, software-only based fusion for PET and CT or MR is not considered to be an alternative to hardware integrated PET/CT (Kim et al. 2005) or PET/MR.

1.2.2. Sequential imaging

A dedicated patient transporter (shuttle) is used to integrate PET and CT or MR scanners. The idea is to eliminate patient motion and postural changes during the transfer between the two scanners and therefore achieve "hardware"-based image fusion. In PET/CT, the gantries of PET and CT are juxtaposed and axially aligned, so that axial table motion transfers the patient from one into the other gantry. PET- and MR scanners can be integrated by a similar patient table arrangement in a single room. In this setup the scanners are placed at a distance of 3 or more meters opposing each other and the patient table can swivel such that the patient can be moved into one or the other scanner. Alternatively, a patient shuttle is used, which relies on the undockable MR table. A flat patient transfer board is placed onto this shuttle. After the MR scan, the patient lying on the board is transferred with the board from the undocked MR table to the shuttle system. The shuttle is moved to the other room and patient still lying on the board is transferred on the board from shuttle system to the PET/CT table. This arrangement constitutes a triple-modality PET/CT-MR system. In both arrangements, there are no electromagnetic interferences between PET and MRI components and extensive technical modifications of the individual imaging systems are therefore not required (Spick et al. 2016).

Shuttle integration of two devices installed in two neighbouring rooms can help to make PET/MR integration more cost effective (von Schulthess and
Burger 2010), as this tri-modality imaging setup provides more flexibility in the operation, as the two standalone systems can be run in parallel and separately, which is not possible in a single room system. To reduce the overall imaging time, MR scanning can be performed first and during the PET tracer uptake time. The main drawback of such systems is non-simultaneity of the image acquisition and potential misregistration of the images due to patient motion.

1.2.3. Fully integrated systems

In this configuration PET and MR systems are integrated in one device allowing simultaneous data acquisition without patient or table motion when imaging single fields of view. The main advantages of an integrated device are simultaneous assessment of biological processes (perfusion, oxygenation, hypoxia and others) by PET and MR, substantial time saving due to simultaneous image acquisition and accurate registration of the resulting fused PET and MR images. Additional potential advantages in integrated PET/MR include motion correction of the PET images based on the navigator scans, multiple PET attenuation corrections during different breathing and heart phases, and MR-based PET reconstruction and partial volume correction (Wehrl et al. 2015). It is important to note that a simultaneous PET/CT system cannot be built, that is, PET/CT systems are always of the type discussed under 1.2.2.

However, multiple technological challenges needed to be solved before clinical whole-body integrated PET/MR imaging became a reality. MR compatible solid state PET detectors were developed (Pichler et al. 2006), as PMTs do not work properly in the high magnetic field, which deflects the path of the PMT electrons created by the photoelectric effect (Delso et al. 2015). In addition, special radiofrequency shielding and cooling by means of a constant flow of water or air were developed for the new PET photodetectors. On MR side the main coil and gradients of the wide-bore MR scanner were kept while the innermost radiofrequency coil was replaced with narrow-bore version making approximately 10 cm available for the PET detector ring to be inserted (Delso et al. 2015) (Fig. 3).
Fig 3. Integrated PET/MR scanner. MR compatible solid-state PET detectors are installed between the superconducting coil, gradient coils and radiofrequency coils. Adapted with permission from Gaspar Delso.

One of the major challenges of the integrated PET/MR system remains the accurate attenuation correction of the PET data. Variable photon attenuation in the human body and surrounding hardware will cause PET image degradation. Therefore measurement of the spatial distribution of the attenuation is the prerequisite to correct PET image reconstruction showing true tracer distributions and permitting semi-quantitative evaluation of images by measuring SUV (von Schulthess and Schlemmer 2009). For accurate reconstruction of the PET data it is of paramount importance to know where the attenuating elements such as gradient and surface coils are located inside the field of view of the scanner. Moreover, in integrated PET/MR scanners the redesign of the hardware placed in the field of view was needed (Delso et al. 2015).

1.3. MR based PET attenuation correction in integrated PET/MR systems

Accurate attenuation correction is essential for quantitative analysis of PET tracer distribution, especially for assessing treatment response and comparing PET/MR to PET/CT data. AC of PET data based on MR images is challenging (Hofmann et al. 2009). In PET/CT systems attenuation correction is straightforward as CT data reflecting the density of the patient tissues can be easily transformed into attenuation map at 511 kVp for PET using a bilinear function (Burger et al. 2002) relating mu-values to Hounsfield units. In contrast to CT data, intensity values in MR images do not reflect the X-ray density of tissues, but rather tissue proton densities and relaxation times (Beyer et al.
Most critical is the differentiation of air from bone tissue as they have the lowest and highest attenuation coefficients, respectively, but both appear as a low signal structures in conventional MR sequences. Thus image processing of MR data is necessary for the generation of AC maps.

Proposed approaches to MR-based AC are tissue segmentation, the use of atlases or templates and pattern recognition techniques or a combination of these (Hofmann et al. 2008; Martinez-Möller et al. 2009; Schulz et al. 2011; Hofmann et al. 2011).

In commercially available integrated whole-body PET/MR scanners MR based PET attenuation correction relies on the four-class tissue segmentation (air, lungs, soft tissue, fat) that is performed based on a fast 3D T1-weighted gradient-echo sequence (Beyer et al. 2016). Then for each tissue class the predefined linear attenuation coefficients are applied to obtain a map for PET attenuation correction. However, this approach has certain limitations such as not correctly accounting for bone tissue, poor representation of the lung parenchyma (including incorrect segmentation due breathing artefacts), not accounting for interindividual variability in attenuation coefficients and sensitivity to the presence of metallic implants (Delso et al. 2015). The lack of cortical bone signal in standard MR sequences makes bone segmentation difficult, and therefore in the currently available integrated PET/MR systems bone tissue is ignored and treated as soft tissue in whole-body scans.

Several studies have evaluated the important issue of differences in attenuation correction in PET-imaging deriving from CT-based AC or MR-based AC. The topic of active research is a question whether it is necessary to segment bone in MR AC maps or whether the stronger attenuation of the 511 keV photons by bone can be replaced by the attenuation of soft tissue in such maps. Some investigators state that segmentation of CT images into three (background, lung and soft tissue) or four (background, lungs, fat and soft tissue) tissue classes to generate attenuation maps does not substantially change PET data compared to the use of standard CT AC with a mean underestimation of bone lesion SUV of 6.5% and 8%, respectively (Martinez-Möller et al. 2009; Schulz et al. 2011). In contrast, another study has shown that segmentation of whole-body CT data into four classes, while neglecting bone, results in SUV errors of > 10% in 58% of osseous lesions (Hofmann et al. 2011). Phantom studies demonstrated an increase of the relative error by up to 6.8% in the body and up to 31.0% for bony regions when the bones are ignored by the AC-algorithm. In simulated clinical studies, the mean relative error may be as high as 15% for body-lesions and 30.7% for bony lesions (Akbarzadeh et al. 2013). Differences for the head and brain are lower (Larsson et al. 2013). All these studies evaluated the effects on a lesion-by-lesion basis, but did not consider that bone lesion density can vary considerably spanning from lytic to sclerotic.

Those MR AC issues may have a potential impact on the evaluation of bone disease in simultaneous PET/MRI, especially for assessing treatment response and comparing PET/MR to PET/CT data.
One of the proposed approaches to retrospectively add bone information to attenuation correction maps is to use the data from previously generated atlases (atlas-based AC). However, the approach can fail when patient anatomy does not match the normal anatomy in atlases due to various anatomical variants and deformation of the tissues caused by disease (Boellaard and Quick 2015). Currently the most promising remedy is provided by ultrashort or zero echo time MR pulse sequences, which can directly visualize bone tissues by MRI (Robson and Bydder 2006; Keereman et al. 2010).

Despite active research and significant technological improvements, the issue of creating valid MR-based AC maps has not yet been solved in PET/MR technology. In a very recent study the whole-body MR-based AC was compared on three clinical PET/MR systems from different vendors (Beyer et al. 2016). Significant differences of MR based AC maps generated for the same subjects but different PET/MR systems was found therefore, limiting the quantitative use of PET/MR in multi-centre imaging studies (Beyer et al. 2016).

1.4. Advantages of hybrid imaging in diagnostic workup

Evolution of imaging technology resulted in development of the integrated PET/CT scanner that became clinically available at the turn of millennium. At University Hospital of Zurich, where the author of current thesis had the opportunity to familiarize himself with hybrid imaging, the first clinical PET/CT started operation in March 2001. Synergistic combination of morphological and functional imaging was successful and PET/CT became the reference standard in oncologic imaging in many centres (Spick et al. 2016). In hybrid PET/CT systems the alterations in metabolism detected by PET are accompanied by the detection of the corresponding structural changes by CT in one imaging session, therefore increasing the diagnostic accuracy. It has been shown that the accuracy of hybrid PET/CT for assessment of the cancers is higher than that of PET and CT alone (Lardinois et al. 2003; Schöder et al. 2004; Antoch et al. 2004; Hillner et al. 2008). The main reasons for the incremental value of hybrid PET/CT imaging compared to PET and CT alone are: mutually enhanced lesion detection on both CT and PET images, better anatomical localization of PET tracer uptake and assessment of structural changes on CT leading to better differentiation of physiologic from pathologic uptake, detection of lesions negative on PET scans and vice versa, CT-based attenuation correction of PET data.

PET and PET/CT have been shown to be highly influential on the management of the oncological patient. Hillner et al reported that incorporation of the tumour metabolism data provided by PET or PET/CT into the imaging strategy of the oncological patients influenced the intended patient management in one third (36.5%) of cases (Hillner et al. 2008).

The most commonly used biological marker in PET imaging is FDG. FDG is an analogue of glucose with the radioactive F-18 isotope substituting for the normal hydroxyl group at the second position in the glucose molecule. FDG
allows imaging of glucose uptake and metabolism. FDG has a half-life of 110 min and can be produced in large quantities, allowing the transfer of the radiopharmaceutical to sites without on-site cyclotron needed for its production. FDG-PET tumour imaging is based on the increased FDG uptake observed into malignant cells due to overexpression of the intracellular and cell membrane glucose transporter proteins and slow intracellular dephosphorylation of FDG (Som et al. 1980). As a result, the distribution of FDG in the body allows detection of the tumour tissue, as malignant tumours most frequently show increased glycolytic activity compared to normal tissue. Of note, increased FDG uptake is not specific for malignant cells, but can also be seen in activated inflammatory cells (Yamada et al. 1995). While FDG-PET/CT is a mainstay of oncological hybrid imaging today, various other PET tracers are available for clinical use in disease states, where FDG uptake is not helpful in improving on the diagnosis of the patient.

PET/MR imaging is a promising recent development in hybrid imaging first introduced in 2010 (Delso et al. 2011). MRI provides multiparametric imaging and higher soft tissue contrast (than CT) potentially allowing to further improve the diagnostic accuracy and phenotyping of cancer. The recent data show that PET/MR imaging is feasible and performs at least equally well as PET/CT in most cancers (Spick et al. 2016). Based on the published literature bone metastases and prostate cancer are the areas where diagnostic advantages of PET/MR maybe achieved while disadvantages of PET/MR in comparison to PET/CT exist in lung nodule assessment (Spick et al. 2016).

1.5. Hybrid imaging of bone metastases

Bone metastases are a frequent site of distant spread of the cancer. Bone metastases can occur in up to 70% of patients with advanced breast or prostate cancer, and in up to 30% of patients with other advanced cancers (Roodman 2004). Non-invasive evaluation of the osseous tissue against the presence of bone metastases enables accurate staging and selection of the optimum treatment of oncological patient as well as prognosis determination.

Multiple imaging techniques can be used for the detection of the metastatic bone disease including MDP-WBS, CT, MR, PET/CT and PET/MR imaging (Choi and Raghavan 2012; Lecouvet et al. 2013; Eiber et al. 2014). The choice of the imaging strategy depends on the histologic type of the tumour. In breast cancer, in many centres currently the most commonly used methods for systemic staging are FDG-PET/CT or MDP-WBS with CT (Dashevsky et al. 2015). It has been shown that FDG-PET is more sensitive in the detection of lytic bone metastases whereas MDP-WBS is more sensitive in diagnosing sclerotic metastases (Cook et al. 1998; Uematsu et al. 2005; Huyge et al. 2009). In patients with prostate- (Even-Sapir et al. 2006) and breast cancers (Withofs et al. 2011) NaF-PET/CT has been shown to have superior sensitivity and specificity in comparison to MDP-WBS. In hybrid FDG-PET/CT imaging sensitivity in sclerotic bone metastases is increased due to detection of increased
bone density on CT images. However, in patients who received treatment, sclerotic lesions might indicate a treated lesion rather than an active metastasis. Additionally, histopathological verification of bone metastases is not always available. Adams and colleagues have evaluated the malignancy rate of bone lesions identified on FDG-PET/CT using CT-guided biopsy of suspicious lesions (Adams et al. 2016). They found that bone lesions showing FDG uptake exceeding mediastinal uptake yielded a PPV for malignancy of 89.2%, which was deemed not sufficiently high to justify changes in patient management without histopathological confirmation (Adams et al. 2016).

Whole-body MR imaging has been shown to have superior diagnostic accuracy compared with CT and bone scintigraphy in the detection of bone metastases because of its ability to assess early infiltration of bone marrow that precedes osteoblastic and osteoclastic response of the bone matrix to malignant tissue infiltration (Steinborn et al.; Engelhard et al. 2004; Mentzel et al. 2004; Yang et al. 2011; Lecouvet et al. 2013). Therefore the combination of FDG-PET with morphological information acquired by MR rather than CT may further increase the diagnostic accuracy of hybrid imaging. Some authors have reported that FDG-PET/MR was superior to FDG-PET/CT for anatomic delineation and allocation of bone lesions, and this finding may have clinical relevance in some clinical conditions (primary bone tumours, early bone marrow infiltration, and tumours with low uptake on PET) (Eiber et al. 2014). In another study the diagnostic performance of FDG-PET/MR versus PET/CT was evaluated in a small cohort of 10 patients with bone metastases from various primary tumours (Beiderwellen et al. 2014). Authors reported superior malignant lesion conspicuity in PET/MR compared to PET/CT without significant differences in lesion detection (Beiderwellen et al. 2014). In the most recent study performed in 109 patients with breast cancer higher sensitivity of contrast-enhanced FDG-PET/MR was reported in comparison to contrast enhanced FDG-PET/CT (Catalano et al. 2015). In particular, in this study multi-parametric FDG-PET/MR was positive for 12% of the patients deemed osseous metastasis-negative on the basis of contrast-enhanced PET-CT (Catalano et al. 2015).

While the ability of MR to assess infiltration of the bone marrow makes PET/MRI a promising modality in assessment of metastatic bone disease compared to PET/CT, currently available data is still limited and more evidence is highly anticipated to define the role of hybrid PET/MR in malignant bone disease. The use of multi-parametric MR protocols might provide a diagnostic advantage for PET/MR (Spick et al. 2016).

1.6. Resume

Current review of the literature points out the potential role of PET/MR in clinical management of patients with malignant disease and bone tissue involvement thanks to the ability of this method to image bone metabolism and morphology.
2. AIM OF THE STUDY

This doctoral thesis aims to improve the assessment of bone metabolism and morphology in patients with malignant disease using hybrid PET/MR imaging, providing enhanced support for diagnosis, treatment and prognosis evaluation.

In order to achieve this aim following tasks were set:

1) to achieve an accurate fusion of images acquired in stand-alone imaging systems. For this purpose a new dedicated patient transporter system was developed, and the registration accuracy of image fusion in a tri-modality PET/CT+MR system as well as a SPECT+D-CT system using this shuttle system was assessed.

2) to evaluate the need for accurate bone segmentation in MR based attenuation correction maps for whole body PET/MR imaging and to specifically look at tracer uptake quantification errors in bone lesions of various compositions and lesions close to bone.

3) to compare bone lesion detection, conspicuity and reader confidence of FDG-PET/MR and FDG-PET/CT in patients with FDG avid bone metastases.
3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Multimodality image fusion using a newly developed PET/CT-MR and SPECT-CT patient shuttle system (Publication I)

A shuttle system was developed to sequentially integrate PET/CT and MR as well as SPECT/CT and diagnostic CT (D-CT) scanners. The purpose of the system was to produce ‘hardware’-based fused images of the resulting PET, SPECT, D-CT and MR datasets. The system enabled the transfer of patients from one to the other scanning table without patient repositioning (Publication I). The patient was transferred between the scanners, while lying still on the shuttle board in a constant position. Therefore patient motion and postural changes between the scans on the two independent systems were minimized allowing instant fusion of the images. This avoided the need to use a special image registration software for correcting spatial offsets between images.

3.1.1. Patient transport/shuttle

A flexible side-loading shuttle prototype was developed and constructed in collaboration with a prototyping engineering company (Innovation Design Center, Thalwil, Switzerland). A side-loading shuttle system consisted of a metal trolley with counter balance weights (60 kg) on each side (orange) (Fig. 4). Two sliding ‘arms’ (coloured in red on image) hold a carbon or glass fibre board (coloured in blue on image) serving as a ‘shuttle patient table’, which can be slid either to the right or to the left of the shuttle system. This permits approaching and loading the patient onto a scanner table from either side. After sliding the board over the scanner table, the table is elevated until the board is entirely supported by it. Thereby, the board can be released from the arms, which are pulled back.

Fig 4. Schematic of the side-loading patient shuttle allowing the transport of the patient from one scanner to another.
For SPECT/CT + D-CT integration, the patient transport board consisted of carbon fibre, whereas for the PET/CT + MR system integration, the transport board was built with fibre glass to minimize radio frequency attenuation effects. The MR scanner table was undocked and the patient was positioned on it outside the MR room as the current shuttle prototype was not built with MR-compatible materials. For the integration of MR with PET/CT, the shuttle system was designed such that MR surface coils could be installed and removed without moving the patient. Thus, surface coil-induced CT streak artefacts and PET attenuation artefacts could be avoided. Patient transfer time was around 10 min for both settings. No special, additional restraints were used to reduce patient motion.

The prerequisite for accurate fusion of the images originating from different scanners (e.g. PET/CT and MR, SPECT/CT and D-CT) was matching of scanners coordination systems. In case of sequential integration of PET/CT and MR it was a straightforward process as the gantry laser systems can be used successfully to match the coordinate systems of both scanners. For SPECT + D-CT fusion, fully automatic coregistration with matched coordinate systems was not possible as there is no laser patient positioning system for the SPECT/CT system used in the study (GE Hawkeye SPECT/CT system). Therefore for SPECT/CT and D-CT integration, the approach utilizing cobalt-57 registration markers (CoM) attached to the shuttle system was developed and used to match the coordinate systems (Fig 5).

Fig. 5. Matching of the SPECT and D-CT images using the cobalt registration marker. (a) SPECT MIP of the pelvis with a cobalt-57 marker at the left lateral side of the carbon board. (b–d) Visual confirmation of accurate marker fusion in the fused SPECT + diagnostic CT (D-CT) images in (b) axial, (c) coronal and (d) sagittal views using the CoM.

3.1.2. Assessment of image registration accuracy

For tri-modality PET/CT + MR imaging fusion, the matched coordinate system allowed fully automatic image fusion of the CT and MR data sets without any software-based or manual registration correction. The misalignment from the automatic registration was recorded as offsets in the X-axis (lateral), Y-axis (anterior-posterior) and Z-axis (cranio-caudal) between anatomical landmarks on CT and MRI. The magnitude of absolute displacement vector was calculated on the basis of the mean three-dimensional offsets. Anatomical landmarks least affected by respiratory motions and well depicted on both CT and MR images were selected: spine, pelvic bones and large paraspinal or pelvic muscles. For assessment of image registration accuracy thirty-one patients underwent sequential PET/CT + MR imaging. In each patient, at least six anatomical landmarks were selected manually: three in the bony structures and three in the large muscles.

For SPECT/CT + D-CT fusion cobalt markers attached to the shuttle table were used to align the coordinate systems and match SPECT and D-CT data with manual registration (Integrated Registration, Advantage Workstation 4.5; GE Healthcare). Attenuation correction CT (Ac-CT) data was acquired in the same imaging session as the SPECT data. The accuracy of CoM-assisted SPECT + D-CT image fusion was verified against the Ac-CT by matching the bony structures between D-CT and Ac-CT datasets. Three anatomical landmarks were selected for each patient. The offsets between the landmarks were recorded in the X-axis (lateral), Y-axis (anterior–posterior) and Z-axis (cranio-caudal). For assessment of image registration accuracy twelve patients underwent sequential SPECT + D-CT imaging. For each patient, the mean offset for the three landmarks was then calculated. The magnitude of the absolute displacement vector was calculated on the basis of the mean three-dimensional offsets.

The imaging setup described above was used in the following studies (Publications II and III).

3.2. Evaluation of the need for accurate bone segmentation in MR-based attenuation correction maps for whole-body PET/ MR imaging (Publication II).

Accurate attenuation correction is essential for quantitative analysis of PET tracer distribution. In conventional MR, the lack of cortical bone signal makes bone segmentation difficult and may require implementation of special sequences. In order to better understand the effects of bone attenuation using MR based AC, we undertook the following experiment. Artificial CT-based AC maps were created by segmenting all bony structures out of the CT images using a thresholding procedure. The thus identified bone regions were thereafter replaced with soft tissue densities. The AC-maps were then generated from these altered CT-data, and PET scans were reconstructed using the correct and
the altered CT-data. By subtraction of the thus generated two image data sets we finally generated whole-body error maps using CT data. These maps allowed us to visualize the areas of the body in which the resulting errors from ignoring bone in AC were substantial or only minimal.

3.2.1 Reconstruction of attenuation maps

Twenty two patients with osseous lesions and soft-tissue lesions adjacent to bone underwent sequential PET/CT and 3T MR imaging. In each patient standard and modified CT AC maps were generated from the regular and the “deboned” data sets as described above by a trilinear transformation of non-enhanced low-dose CT images to 511 keV PET attenuation maps (Burger et al. 2002). According to the performed histogram analysis of the CT images (Fig. 6) the density cut-off for the bone tissue segmentation was defined as 100 HU while the representative density value for the soft tissue was set at 36 HU.

Modified AC maps (AC-Mod) were produced using PMOD software (PMOD Technologies, Zurich, Switzerland) by replacing pixels with values higher than 100 HU by pixels with a constant value of 36 HU, thereby simulating substitution of bone by soft tissue in MR-derived segmented AC maps. Standard AC maps (AC-St) were produced from the same but unmodified non-enhanced low-dose CT images. Hounsfield units were transformed into 511 keV attenuation using the following algorithm: AC [1/cm] = intercept + CT value * slope. CT values below 50 HU were converted to attenuation using the kVp-independent soft-tissue conversion with an intercept of 0.096 and a slope of $9.6 \times 10^{-5}$. CT values of 50 HU and above were converted using the 120-kVp
bone scale with an intercept of 0.0982 and a slope of $5.11 \times 10^{-5}$. Subsequently, two sets of attenuation-corrected PET images were reconstructed based on the modified and standard AC maps. An overview of the image reconstruction procedure is given in Fig. 7.

**Fig. 7.** Generation of AC maps followed by PET data reconstruction. The "no-bone" CT data were used for AC for modified PET images and compared to the PET images that were AC-corrected in standard mode. Source: Samarin A, Burger C, Wollenweber SD, Crook DW, Burger IA, Schmid DT, von Schulthess GK, Kuhn FP. PET/MR imaging of bone lesions – implications for PET quantification from imperfect attenuation correction. Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging. 2012 July;39:1154-1160

3.2.2. Generation of a whole-body SUV error map

Whole-body maps showing the percentage differences in SUV between PET images reconstructed using the modified AC map ($PET_{AC-Mod}$) and the standard AC map ($PET_{AC-St}$) were generated using the following formula: 

$$\frac{(PET_{AC-Mod} - PET_{AC-St})}{PET_{AC-St}} \times 100\%.$$ 

The resulting difference map was analysed for body regions showing the largest differences in SUV.

3.2.3. Image analysis

The mean SUV of FDG avid lesions located in bone and in soft tissues adjacent to bone (within 10 mm) were measured by placing a volume of interest of 10 mm
diameter on PETAC-St and PETAC-Mod images. Subsequently, the standard error of SUVmean in the lesions was calculated for the PETAC-Mod images using the PETAC-St images as a reference.

Bone lesions were then divided into lesions involving spine, pelvic bones and other bones. Spine and pelvic lesions were further classified into three classes based on their appearance on CT images: (1) lytic lesions showing predominant and clearly visible destruction of osseous matrix with CT density below 100 HU, (2) sclerotic lesions showing predominantly increased bone density with CT density above 200 HU, and (3) lesions of mixed density showing a combination of destructive and sclerotic changes or lesions without visible change in bone density on CT images with a CT density in the range 100–200 HU.

3.3. Evaluation of clinical benefit of FDG-PET/MR in evaluation of bone metastases compared with FDG-PET/CT (Publication III).

The aim of this study was to investigate whether PET/MR provides an advantage compared with PET/CT for the detection and evaluation of bone metastases. For this purpose we compared detection, lesion conspicuity and reader confidence of FDG-PET/MR and FDG-PET/CT in patients with FDG avid bone metastases.

3.3.1. Patients and image acquisition

In this prospective study, 24 patients underwent sequential whole-body tri-modality FDG-PET/CT – MR imaging as a part of clinical work-up for either staging or restaging of various malignant tumours and suspicion of bone metastases (30 examinations). The primary diseases were breast cancer (12 patients), lung cancer (three patients), tonsil cancer (two patients), non-Hodgkin lymphoma (two patients) and carcinoma of the urethra, gastric cancer, cervical cancer, spindle cell skin cancer and medullary thyroid carcinoma (one patient each). Clinical indication for the PET/CT-examination was primary staging (10 exams) and restaging (20 exams). All patients had histological confirmation of their primary disease.

Sequential PET/CT and MR imaging was performed on a tri-modality PET/CT-MR set-up (full-ring, time-of-flight Discovery PET/CT 690 and a 3-T Discovery MR 750; both GE Healthcare, Waukesha, Wisconsin, USA). A dedicated shuttle board was used to transfer the patients from the MR table to the PET/CT table (Publication I). Patients fasted for at least 4 h before injection of a standard dose of an average of 4.5 MBq/kg body weight of FDG.

The MR imaging protocol consisted of whole-body multisection imaging using T1-weighted three-dimensional (3D) dual-echo gradient-recalled echo pulse sequence [liver accelerated volume acquisition (LAVA)-flex; GE Healthcare] and a coronally acquired short TI inversion recovery (STIR) sequence using parallel imaging. Additionally, a T2-weighted sequence with
motion correction [periodically rotated overlapping parallel lines with enhanced reconstruction (Propeller); GE Healthcare] was acquired using a breathing trigger in the thorax for enhanced breathing-triggered lung imaging. Low-dose CT data were acquired for PET attenuation correction and for diagnostic purposes. The PET data were acquired in 3D TOF mode with scan duration of 2 min per bed position, an overlap of bed positions of 23%, an axial FOV of 153 mm and a 700 mm diameter FOV.

3.3.2. Image analysis

Lesion detection

Up to ten PET-positive lesions were evaluated per patient with a maximum of three lesions per body compartment (e.g. cervical, thoracic, lumbar spine, pelvis). Lesions were considered PET positive if their maximum standardized uptake value ($SUV_{max}$) was higher than liver uptake.

Lesion conspicuity

The conspicuity of PET-positive bone lesions was evaluated on the corresponding PET/CT and PET/MR images. For this analysis, the conspicuity of the morphological imaging component was assessed (CT or MR). Lesions were assessed on the basis of a five-point scale: grade 0 – lesion was not detectable, grade 1 – 1–25% lesion contour detectable, grade 2 – 26–50% contour detectable, grade 3 – 51–75% contour detectable and grade 4 – 76–100% contour detectable.

Reader confidence

Reader confidence was determined qualitatively to evaluate if PET/CT or PET/MR was found more useful for the assessment of bone metastases under evaluation. The following score was used for assessment:

   High reader confidence: FDG positive lesions had a morphologic correlate and overall hybrid imaging findings were deemed to be metastatic involvement – 2 points.

   Moderate reader confidence: PET-positive findings were suggestive of metastatic disease but showed a questionable morphologic correlate – 1 point.

   Low reader confidence: PET findings were inconclusive, no clear morphologic correlate was seen corresponding to the FDG-positive lesion – 0 points
4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Registration accuracy of a newly developed PET/CT-MR and SPECT-CT patient shuttle system (Publication I)

For both PET/CT+MR and SPECT/CT+D-CT systems, the ‘hardware’ fusion of imaging data provided registration between datasets with small offsets, showing the feasibility of this sequential approach with a dedicated patient shuttle system.

The mean offset between CT and MR images for the PET/CT + MR setting was 8.1 ± 5.7 mm in the X-axis, 5.0 ± 4.0 mm in the Y-axis and 4.9 ± 5.6 mm in the Z-axis. The magnitude of the absolute displacement vector calculated on the basis of the mean three-dimensional offsets was 10.7 mm.

The mean offset between anatomical landmarks on Ac-CT and D-CT in the SPECT + D-CT setting was 0.7 ± 0.8 mm in the X-axis, 2.1 ± 1.7 mm in the Y-axis and 0.8 ± 1.8 mm in the Z-axis. The magnitude of the absolute displacement vector calculated on the basis of the mean three-dimensional offsets was 2.4 mm.

In sequential integration of PET/CT and MR, the gantry laser systems can be used successfully to match the coordinate systems of both scanners. In the case of SPECT and D-CT integration, the approach utilizing cobalt sources attached to the shuttle system was developed and successfully used to match the coordinate systems. Although not used in our study, potentially, metal and oil-containing markers attached to the shuttle table can be developed to match the coordination systems of PET/CT and MR in a similar way as for the SPECT D-CT system to complement the scanner gantry laser systems. The present study focused on image fusion accuracy arising from patient motion as well as transportation and repositioning errors. It should be taken into account that respiratory motion can cause considerable registration errors between the PET, CT and MR data. Therefore, in this study, anatomical structures least affected by respiratory motion were used for the analysis of misalignment. Previously, only software-based image fusion data have been published for separate scanner systems like SPECT+D-CT (Grosu et al. 2005; Chowdhury and Scarsbrook 2008; Patel et al. 2009; Park et al. 2012; Vargas et al. 2013) or PET/CT+MR (Nakamoto et al. 2009; Kim et al. 2009; Donati et al. 2010). While the rigid structure of the skull ascertains that software fusion of brain structures is adequate, postural changes in the trunk and extremities may impair fusion accuracy (Kim et al. 2005).

Although fully integrated SPECT with high-end CT scanner systems (≥16 slices) are available, less busy services may opt to install shuttle systems between their nuclear cameras and a nearby D-CT to be more cost effective (von Schulthess and Burger 2010). The same could in fact be true for PET/MR implementations. Although fully integrated PET/MR have the advantage of simultaneous data acquisition without moving the patient or the table when imaging single FOVs, separate PET/CT and MR systems have the advantage of
full flexibility when placed in two separate rooms and might therefore be used more effectively. Furthermore, integrated ‘hybrid’ PET/MR systems are costly and may be beyond the financial reach for the many centres (von Schulthess and Burger 2010). A simple patient shuttle system could allow the integration of existing scanners to answer specific clinical questions without the need for costly investments.

4.2. Attenuation correction in bone lesions - implications for PET quantification in whole-body PET/MR imaging (Publication II).

4.2.1. Whole-body error maps

Analysis of the whole-body error maps showed that ignoring bone tissue in AC maps resulted in substantial error in SUV quantification. Not surprisingly, the largest errors were present in bone. The errors are caused by an underestimation of the SUV, which is due to the fact, that the AC algorithm corrects the pixel counts corresponding to soft tissues with smaller attenuation numbers than those in bone. The magnitude of this error decreases rapidly with distance from bone and shows only a very small difference in other areas of the body with the exception of the brain. In addition to areas of underestimation, regions of slight overestimation of SUV were also identified in soft tissue on the SUV error maps, but not exceeding 5%. This is potentially due to differences caused by the interaction between changes in attenuation and the scatter correction of the data.

While all patients were scanned in a sequential PET/CT-MR system, for the generation of the SUV error maps, only original and modified CT data with bone replaced by soft tissue was used in order to determine the error in SUV. Areas in bone and next to bone showed marked errors on the map and therefore 191 lesions, 141 in bone and 50 adjacent to bone were examined in more detail.

4.2.2. SUV errors in bone lesions

Substitution of bone by soft tissue density values in AC maps resulted in a mean underestimation of SUV in all bone lesions of 11.2 ± 5.4%. A minimum SUV underestimation of 1.5% was seen in a rib lesion while a maximum SUV underestimation of 30.8% was identified in a sclerotic lesion located in the femoral bone. A summary of SUV errors in bone lesions of different composition in various regions produced by reconstruction of PET images using the modified AC maps is given in Table 1.
Table 1. Summary of SUV underestimation produced by reconstruction of PET images using modified attenuation correction maps.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Number of lesions</th>
<th>Mean error ± SD (%)</th>
<th>Min error (%)</th>
<th>Max error (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SPINE, vertebral bodies</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sclerotic</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.9 ± 3.4</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mixed density</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10.6 ± 1.5</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lytic</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.2 ± 1.7</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PELVIC BONES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sclerotic</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14.2 ± 4</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mixed density</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.1 ± 4.9</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lytic</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.8 ± 2.7</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spine, vertebral processes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.6 ± 3.8</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sacrum</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.6 ± 4.6</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sternum</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.5 ± 2.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ribs</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3 ± 1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scapula</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.7 ± 3.3</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humerus</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.4 ± 3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Femur</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16.8 ± 7</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL BONE LESIONS</strong></td>
<td>141</td>
<td>11.2 ± 5.4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SOFT TISSUE LESIONS LOCATED NEAR BONE</strong></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.2 ± 1.7</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Compared to the studies performed by Martinez-Möller et al. (Martinez-Möller et al. 2009) (21 osseous lesions with an average SUV change of 8 ± 3% and maximal underestimation of 13.1% seen in a lesion in the pelvic bone) and by Schulz et al. (Schulz et al. 2011) (7 bone lesions with an average underestimation of 6.5 ± 4.1% and maximum error of –13.4% seen in a pelvic bone lesion), the average and maximum errors seen in osseous lesions were significantly higher in our study. We found the maximum SUV underestimation for bone lesions of more than 20% in dense sclerotic lesions: 23.5% for spine lesions, 23.8% for pelvic bone lesions and 30.8% for femoral lesions. The results of our study support the findings of Hofmann et al. which showed tracer uptake quantification errors of > 10% in 58% of osseous lesions and errors more than 20% in 22% of the lesions (Hofmann et al. 2011). The difference in the magnitude of
underestimation may be explained by the larger number of osseous lesions examined in our study (n=141), and their location and composition. Additionally, another important factor may be the different approaches to reconstruction of the AC maps as we substituted only bone by soft tissue values rather than using a full three- or four-class CT segmentation. This approach allowed us to determine the effect of bone attenuation by changing only one parameter.

The errors observed are of interest for understanding the systematic errors in MR AC-based PET scans, but are particularly relevant when comparing the data obtained from PET/CT and PET/MR for treatment response assessment. In fact, an AC-induced 20–30% error in SUV of a lesion might change the assessment of treatment response.

This was the first study showing a substantial difference in underestimation of SUV in PET between dense sclerotic and destructive lytic bone lesions when neglecting the bone in AC maps. The presence of 52 spine and 41 pelvic bone lesions allowed the assessment of the dependence of the error on the density of the bone lesions. A substantial difference in SUV underestimation was found between the sclerotic lesions with an average error of −15.9% in spine and −14.2% in pelvic lesions and lytic lesions with respective underestimation values of −7.2% and −6.8%. The commonly used approach to MR-based AC is tissue segmentation with substitution of bone by soft tissue values (Martinez-Möller et al. 2009; Schleyer et al. 2010; Eiber et al. 2011; Schulz et al. 2011; Hofmann et al. 2011). In bone lesions with little or no change in density over the therapeutic course, this type of segmentation will result only in a systematic under-correction of bone attenuation between consecutive PET/MR scans and interpretation is not truly affected. However, the density of the bone lesions can change significantly during the course of the disease—and this will have an impact on their attenuation properties. Treating bone as soft tissue in the MR AC maps of consecutive PET/MR scans performed for assessment of treatment response may result in SUV differences solely due to changes in lesion density and not due to a change in the metabolic activity of the lesion.

The magnitude of the SUV error of bone lesions is dependent not only on their own density but also on the density of the surrounding bones, being smaller in osteoporotic bones and larger in the presence of degenerative changes or in certain disease states (e.g. myelofibrosis, mastocytosis, osteopetrosis).

In summary, MR AC issues have a potential impact on the evaluation of bone disease in simultaneous PET/MRI, especially for assessing treatment response and comparing PET/MR to PET/CT data.

4.2.3. SUV errors in soft tissue lesions near the bone

A total of 50 FDG-positive lesions were identified in the soft tissues adjacent to bony structures in six patients. In these lesions, substitution of the bone by soft tissue values in the AC maps resulted in underestimation errors of 3.2 ± 1.7% (mean ± SD). Among these lesions, the smallest error of 0.2% was found in a lung lesion adjacent to a rib, while the largest error of 4% was seen in a lymph node adjacent to the osseous pelvis.
Such errors lower than 5% may be negligible for clinical purposes. While the data do not allow the relevance of skull bone for the AC of brain lesions to be addressed, other authors have shown that this is mandatory to quantify brain PET examinations (Catana et al. 2010).

In agreement with lesion-based evaluations of other studies (Martinez-Möller et al. 2009; Schulz et al. 2011), our AC maps suggest that for lesions in soft tissues, fat or lung, the omission of bone from the AC of PET data is clinically not relevant, at least at the levels of accuracy at which SUV values are used nowadays.

4.3. FDG-PET/MR increases diagnostic confidence in detection of bone metastases compared to FDG-PET/CT (Publication III).

A total of 86 FDG positive bone lesions were identified in 30 PET/CT and PET/MRI data sets performed in 24 patients. In 12 data sets, patients had multiple disseminated bone lesions, while in the remaining 18 data sets less than 10 lesions were present per patient. The metabolic and morphologic characteristics of the lesions are summarized in Table 2.

4.3.1. Detection of bone lesions

Overall, in both examinations, PET/CT and PET/MRI detected the same number of lesions based on the PET-component (since both examinations used the same PET-data set). In those 30 data sets, 95% of analyzed FDG positive bone lesions (82/86 lesions) had a morphologic correlate on the MR-component. Furthermore, on all PET/MRI examinations at least one morphological correlate was found on the MR-component. PET/CT imaging allowed identification of structural changes on the CT-component in 76% of the FDG positive lesions (65/86 lesions). A morphologic correlate on the CT component of the PET/CT was clearly identified in 23 PET/CT studies out of 30.

Overall, in seven examinations (7 patients), FDG-positive bone lesions (n=9) were seen only on the MR component while no clearly visible changes were noted in the bony structures on CT. In two of those examinations (2 patients), patients had one single FDG positive lesion that was neither visible on MR nor CT images. However, in both of these examinations a single additional FDG-positive bone lesion (2 lesions in total) were seen again only on MR in a different location. No additional lesions were seen on CT in those cases. The remaining lesions, which were FDG-positive but CT-negative, were all seen in patients where several other bone metastases were detected on both, the PET-component and the CT-component.

In two different examinations (2 patients), a structural bone change in two FDG positive lesions was noted only on CT but not on the MRI. Again, in those patients additional FDG positive bone lesions (4 lesions) showed a morphological correlate on MR.

The study performed suggests that one of the clinical scenarios where
PET/MRI may be beneficial over PET/CT, is an oncological patient with only few early bone metastases. In the series of patients evaluated in the current study, 25% of the lesions evaluated showed no definite morphological change of the bony structure on CT, while 95% of lesions had a clear morphological correlate on MR. Although all these lesions were still detected because of their FDG-avidity, in cases of low metabolic activity (e.g. post-therapy), moving artefacts and small size, a pathological FDG uptake in those lesions might not be very obvious. In this situation the clear depiction of lesions on the MR-component would ensure the detection of the lesions and correct distant staging of the disease. This observation is supported by the recent work of Eiber et al. who draw a similar conclusion (Eiber et al. 2014).

Table 2. Summary of metabolic and morphologic characteristics of all FDG positive bone lesions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Metabolic characteristics</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUVmax</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>7.96</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUVmean</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>2.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TLG</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>477</td>
<td>441931</td>
<td>32243.91</td>
<td>77688.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PETvol</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>83.8</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Size, mm</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>17.03</td>
<td>16.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 in-phase</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>20.63</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conspicuity, score</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR STIR</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>1.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 water</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 fat</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 in-phase</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>1.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 out-phase</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


4.3.2. Lesion conspicuity

In lesion-by-lesion analysis of FDG-PET positive bone lesions, PET/MR imaging provided better results in detection of morphologic changes: the mean
lesion conspicuity was significantly better on T1 fat MR imaging compared to CT imaging (p=0.005, Table 3). The overall lesion conspicuity on STIR MR was similar to CT images.

Table 3. Comparison of lesions conspicuity scores between CT and MR images.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesions conspicuity</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MR STIR versus CT</td>
<td>0.496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 water versus CT</td>
<td>0.516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 fat versus CT</td>
<td>0.005a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 in-phase versus CT</td>
<td>0.834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 out-phase versus CT</td>
<td>0.069</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a - the mean lesion conspicuity was significantly higher on T1 fat MR imaging compared to CT imaging.


In the sub-analysis based on lesions density (on the CT-component) the mean conspicuity of neither lytic nor sclerotic lesions was not significantly different on T1 fat MR imaging compared to CT imaging. However, the mean conspicuity of both sclerotic and lytic lesions was significantly higher on CT imaging compared to STIR MR imaging (p=0.014 and p=0.004, respectively).

Further characteristics of this sub-analysis are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4. Conspicuity scores (mean values) of the lesions based on their CT density.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Lytic</th>
<th>Sclerotic</th>
<th>Non-visible on CT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>N of lesions</strong></td>
<td>48</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(CT based)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CT score</strong></td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MR STIR score</strong></td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>2.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MR T1 water score</strong></td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MR T1 fat score</strong></td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MR T1 in-phase score</strong></td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MR T1 out-phase score</strong></td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the 21 FDG positive bone lesions without a corresponding structural change visible in PET/CT imaging (65/86 were seen), the lesions were seen best in T1 fat sequence of PET/MR imaging with a mean conspicuity of 3.52 and a mean size on T1 imaging of 19.5 mm. Further characteristics of these lesions are summarized in Table 5. The mean size of the FDG positive bone lesions was found to be significantly larger on T1 weighted MR images compared to CT images.

Table 5. Metabolic and morphologic characteristics (mean values) of FDG positive bone lesions non-visible on CT by location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Thorax</th>
<th>Spine</th>
<th>Pelvis</th>
<th>Extremities</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Metabolic characteristics

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUVmax</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUVmean</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Size, mm

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 in-phase</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conspicuity, score

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MR STIR</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 water</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 fat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 in-phase</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 out-phase</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Overall, improved lesion conspicuity was found in the current study in evaluation of PET/MRI compared to PET/CT. The lesion-by-lesion analysis revealed that the highest lesion conspicuity was achieved by PET/MR imaging using a T1 weighted sequence highlighting the alterations in the bone marrow (T1 fat reconstruction). The significant increase in lesion conspicuity on MR imaging was mainly due to 21 FDG positive bone lesions not visible on CT imaging. These lesions likely represent bone marrow infiltration that have not yet resulted in substantial changes in bone density, but already resulted in MR signal alterations (Choi and Raghavan 2012). Interestingly, the mean size of these lesions was quite large (19.5 mm). These results are partly in line with a recent study with a similar number of evaluated lesions (Eiber et al. 2014).
There, PET/MRI with a T1w-sequence in addition to the Dixon-based attenuation correction sequence was superior in lesion delineation. Several differences have to be noted compared to the current study. One of the reasons for the improved delineation in this additional T1w sequence might be the higher matrix compared to the Dixon sequence. However, overall detection was not significantly different. Additional differences are that the PET/CT was partly done with contrast media compared to a non-contrast PET/MRI. In the current study, strictly non-contrast PET/CT was used for comparison with PET/MR.

The presence of FDG-positive bone lesions on PET with negative findings at CT is not uncommon and a known clinical issue. In the study of Taira et al. 27% (31 out of 113) of analysed FDG-positive bone lesions were found to be CT-negative (Taira et al. 2007). Additionally, MRI has been shown to find metastasis not visible on FDG-PET or CT imaging (Ghanem et al. 2007). In an early comparison, Antoch et al. reported that MRI was more accurate in evaluating the bone structure for the presence of metastasis in a study comparing the staging accuracies of whole-body MRI and PET/CT (Antoch et al. 2003). These findings were later supported by a study of Schmidt and co-workers where whole-body MR imaging was found to have superior sensitivity and accuracy compared to PET/CT in detection of bone metastases (Schmidt et al. 2007). Therefore, in PET/MRI even in cases of low FDG-activity, the likelihood of correct detection and staging seems to be higher than PET/CT. On the other hand, according to the results of our study, in patients with a high likelihood of metastatic bone disease, the use of PET/MRI would likely not result in improved diagnostic confidence, as both PET/CT and PET/MRI would detect multiple lesions with no further therapeutic consequence.

Interestingly, in the patient population of the current study the mean conspicuity of neither lytic nor sclerotic lesions was significantly different on T1 imaging compared to CT-density. However, there was a difference of sclerotic and lytic lesions compared to STIR. This is remarkable, because usually in MR-imaging fat-saturated T2 imaging is being considered the ideal sequence to search for the major pathologies and especially bone lesions (Vanel et al. 2000; Vanel et al. 2009). In PET/MRI (or PET/CT-MRI) the PET-component is always available (no choice) but one has a choice which sequences are being used in the MR-part of the examination. In fact, in order to minimize imaging time, one has to strive to use the minimal number of MR pulse sequences in PET/MR. Thus, in the context of PET/MR, the sequences of choice might be different to those used MR-imaging alone.

4.3.3. Reader confidence in diagnosing bone metastases

The overall reader confidence based on the above mentioned scale for PET/CT was 1.76 and 2.0 for PET/MRI (p=0.0029). PET/MR showed a high confidence in all patients. In PET/CT a high confidence was found in 23 cases and a moderate confidence in 7 cases. In 23 studies no difference of reader confidence
was observed between PET/CT and PET/MR imaging. These patients either had several lesions seen on both modalities or had multiple disseminated lesions where the difference in detection of single lesions didn’t lead to change of overall reader confidence. Thus, in the seven studies in which all FDG-positive bone lesions (n=9) were seen only on the MR component, a significant increase was found concerning reader confidence for PET/MRI vs. PET/CT.

Although overall lesion detection was the same on PET/CT and PET/MRI, the additionally detected lesions on the MRI-component obviously support the diagnostic confidence for the reader – a fact not neglectable in clinical routine reading, again, and this is particularly true, when lesions exhibit low FDG-uptake.

In summary, in this study the overall detection rate of PET/CT and PET/MRI was the same, based on the FDG-positivity of the evaluated bone metastases. However, we could demonstrate that the lesion conspicuity as well as the reader confidence was improved in PET/MRI compared to PET/CT based on the soft tissue contrast of the MR-component. Furthermore, several morphological correlates were identified in PET/MRI that were not present in PET/CT.
5. CONCLUSIONS

The main results of the current study were as follows:

1). Sequential PET/CT + MR imaging using a newly developed dedicated patient shuttle system is feasible, resulting in clinically acceptable offsets between data sets using the gantry laser systems. Therefore in the absence of a fully integrated PET/MR system, sequential connection of the available standalone PET/CT and MR scanners allows achievement of benefits of hybrid PET/MR imaging in the daily clinical setting.

2). Treating bone as soft tissue in simulated MR-derived attenuation correction maps for PET/ MR leads to a substantial underestimation of SUV values in bone lesions. The errors depend substantially on lesion composition, with the largest error being seen in sclerotic lesions. Thus in fully integrated PET/MR systems depiction of the cortical bone and sclerotic areas in MR-based attenuation correction maps is essential for accurate quantification of tracer uptake values in bone lesions.

3). FDG-PET/MRI offers higher reader confidence and improved conspicuity in bone metastases compared with FDG-PET/CT.

The analysis of FDG avid bone metastases showed that the highest lesion conspicuity was achieved by FDG-PET/MR imaging using a T1-weighted MR sequence highlighting the alterations in the bone marrow: the mean lesion conspicuity was significantly better on T1 fat reconstruction MR imaging compared with CT imaging. The significant increase in lesion conspicuity on MR imaging was mainly because of multiple FDG-positive bone lesions not visible on CT imaging. In studies in which all FDG-positive bone lesions were seen only on the MR component, a significant increase was found in reader confidence for PET/MRI versus PET/CT.

Finally, the results of this doctoral study support the use of PET/MR for imaging of bone metabolism and morphology in patients with malignant disease. In fully integrated PET/MR systems, segmentation of the bone tissue in MR-based attenuation correction maps is a prerequisite for quantitative hybrid imaging.
REFERENCES


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ABSTRACT

Hybrid PET/MR imaging of bone metabolism and morphology

Recent developments of imaging technologies point out the potential role of PET/MRI in the clinical management of patients with malignant disease and bone tissue involvement, thanks to the ability of this method to image bone metabolism and morphology together. There are a number of technological issues which have to be solved in order to achieve clinical usefulness of PET/MRI. Current work deals with three major aspects of this development: co-registration of three cardinal 3D imaging techniques (PET, CT and MRI), assessment of photon attenuation correction in the human body, and clinical comparison of PET/CT and PET/MRI based hybrid imaging of bone metabolism and morphology.

In the current study a tri-modality PET/CT-MRI setup was used as a platform to investigate the need for accurate bone segmentation in MR based PET attenuation correction maps and for the assessment of the potential clinical utility of PET/MRI in patients with metastatic bone disease. The patient shuttle system developed and described allowed robust transfer of the patients between PET/CT and MR scanners resulting in "hardware-based" fusion of the PET and MR datasets.

In order to better understand the effects of bone attenuation in a MR based PET AC approach lacking bone segmentation, whole-body SUV error maps were generated using original and modified "no-bone" CT AC data. This approach allowed the visualization of the areas of the body in which the resulting errors from ignoring bone in AC were substantial or only minimal. For evaluation of the potential clinical benefit of FDG-PET/MRI in bone imaging compared to FDG-PET/CT, detection and assessment of FDG avid bone metastases by both techniques was performed.

The study showed that neglecting bone in simulated MR based AC for whole-body PET can lead to substantial underestimation of tracer uptake in bone lesions depending on location and lesion composition. Therefore accurate quantification of tracer uptake values in PET/MR imaging requires application of MR sequences that are able to depict bone and calcified areas.

Hybrid FDG-PET/MRI achieved higher reader confidence and improved conspicuity of bone metastases compared to FDG-PET/CT imaging. MR imaging allowed improved visualization of the morphologic correlates of metabolically active bone lesions detected on FDG-PET images compared with CT imaging. This finding supports the use of PET/MRI for assessment of bone marrow infiltration in patients with oncological diseases.

Results of this doctoral study support the use of PET/MRI as a precision medicine tool for imaging of bone metabolism and morphology in patients with malignant disease. In fully integrated PET/MR systems segmentation of the bone tissue in MR-based attenuation correction maps is a prerequisite for quantitative hybrid imaging.
KOKKUVÕTE

Luustiku ainevahetuse ja morfoloogia hübridikuvaamine
positronemissioontomograafia ja magnetresonantstomograafia abil

Kuvamistehnikate äsased arengud osutavad PET/MRT võimalustele pahaloomuliste kasvajatega patsientide kliinilises käsitluses, eriti luustiku haaratuse korral. Seda tänul antud meetodi võimele kajastada luukoe metabolismi ja morfoloogi. PET/MRT laialdase kliinilise juurutamise eelduseks on olud mitmete tehnikaalaste väljakutsete lahendamine. Käesolev töö tegeleb kolme olulise kliinilise hübriidkuvaamine PET/KT ja PET/MRT abil.


Uuring näitas, et luukoest tingitud sumbuvuse eiramisel MRT-põhisel sumbuvuskorrektsiooni puhul alahinnata kogu keha PET uuringul märkamine kogunemist luukolletes sõltuvalt kolde asukohast ja tihedusest. Seetõttu tuleb PET/MRT uuringul märkaini kogunemise täpseks kvantifitseerimiseks kasutada MRT sekkumist, mis toovad esile luustiku ja kalsifitseerunud piirkond.

FDG-PET/MRT hübridikuvaamine ilmnes luumetaasaside visualiseerumise suurem usaldusväärus ja parem nähtavus võrreldes FDG-PET/KT hübridikuvaamisega. FDG-PET kujutisel avastati sumbuvuskorrektsiooni üksikate morfoloogilise mõjutuseks. See tähelepanek toetab PET/MRT kasutamist pahaloomuliste kasvajatega patsientide luuüdi haaratuse hindamiseks.

Käesoleva väitekirja tulemused osutavad PET/MRT-le kui täppismeditsiini meetodile luustiku ainevahetuse ja morfoloogi uurimiseks pahaloomuliste kasvajatega haigetel. Täielikult integreeritud PET/MRT seadme kasutamisel on kvantitatiivse hübridikuvaamine eelduseks luukoe korrektne eristamine MRT põhisel sumbuvuskorrektsioonil.
Publication I

Image registration accuracy of an in-house developed patient transport system for PET/CT + MR and SPECT + CT imaging
Andrei Samarina, Felix P. Kuhnä, Fredrik Brandsbergb, Gustav von Schulthessa and Irene A. Burgera

Objective The aim of this study was to investigate the registration accuracy of a newly developed patient shuttle system that can integrate different scanners by patient transfer without repositioning for ‘hardware-based’ image fusion. We aimed to assess the registration accuracy of image fusion in two different settings: a tri-modality PET/CT + MR system and a SPECT + CT system.

Materials and methods In this prospective study, 43 patients underwent either sequential PET/CT and MR (n = 31) or sequential SPECT and diagnostic CT (D-CT) (n = 12). A side-leading patient shuttle system was used for patient transport. For PET/CT + MR, hardware-only coregistration was performed and then validated with anatomical landmarks on CT and MR. SPECT + D-CT image fusion was performed with external cobalt-57 markers and manual fusion. Registration accuracy was analysed by anatomical landmarks on the attenuation correction CT and the D-CT.

Results For the PET/CT + MR system, the mean offset between original CT and MR images in all 31 patients was 8.1 ± 5.7 mm in the X-axis, 5.4 ± 4 mm in the Y-axis and 4.9 ± 5.6 mm in the Z-axis. The validation of the cobalt-57 marker-assisted SPECT + D-CT fusion yielded offsets of 0.7 ± 1.7 mm in the X-axis, 2.1 ± 1.7 mm in the Y-axis and 0.8 ± 1.8 mm in the Z-axis.

Conclusion Sequential PET/CT + MR and SPECT + D-CT imaging using a dedicated patient shuttle system is feasible, resulting in mean offsets between data sets of 10.7 mm using the gantry laser system and 2.4 mm with fiducial markers. Nucl Med Commun 36:194–200 © 2015 Wolters Kluwer Health | Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.

Nuclear Medicine Communications 2015, 36:194–200

Keywords: coregistration, image fusion, patient transporter, PET/CT + MR, sequential hybrid imaging, SPECT + CT

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Introduction
With the introduction of fully integrated PET/CT cameras more than a decade ago, a new area in nuclear medicine was opened, combining the anatomical information of a diagnostic CT (D-CT) with PET. As a result, the use of fluorine-18 fluorodeoxyglucose (18F-FDG) PET/CT in tumour staging and therapy response assessment has increased markedly [1–3]. Inspired by the success of PET/CT, major efforts have been made to develop integrated PET/CT systems as PET/MR systems as MR has certain advantages over CT, providing higher soft tissue contrast and additional functional imaging capabilities. It has already been established that the information of a SPECT/CT is superior in diagnostic accuracy and confidence to that of SPECT and CT separately, especially in skeletal lesions [4–7]. The success of integrated imaging has thereby led to an increasing use of SPECT/CT and may lead to widespread clinical applications of PET/MR.

However, from a workflow and cost perspective, it is not obvious that fully integrated systems are the optimal solution for cost-effective image acquisition. A calculation of the scanning costs as a function of investment and operating costs showed that PET/CT is a cost-effective implementation of an integrated device while most current SPECT/CT systems are not because only data acquisition on the SPECT system blocks fast data acquisition on the CT system during a large fraction of the imaging time [8]. Integration of two devices deployed in two neighboring rooms by a patient transfer device (shuttle) could help to make SPECT/CT and potentially PET/MR systems more cost effective [8]. Integration of images from two separate devices with software-based image fusion is possible and has been used mainly for brain tumours [9], prostate [10] or pelvic tumours [11]; however, in body applications, any positional change of the patient will impair fusion accuracy and therefore only software-based fusion for PET and CT was not considered as an alternative for PET/CT [12].

We have developed a shuttle system to integrate PET, SPECT, D-CT and MR systems enabling the transfer of patients from one to the other scanning table without patient repositioning between scans. This allows ‘hardware-based’ image fusion. For the integration of MR with PET/CT, the shuttle system was designed such that MR surface coils could be installed and removed without
moving the patient. Thus, surface coil-induced CT streak artefacts and PET attenuation artefacts could be avoided. We have already shown that lesion discrimination and anatomical mapping with this shuttle system is feasible with a fast two-point Dixon-based T1w 3D MRI sequence and leads to similar results when comparing lesion characterization and conspicuity with low-dose CT [13]. Furthermore, our group investigated the possibility of the use of MRI sequences for attenuation correction in a trimodality PET/CT+MR system [14]. Other groups are also investigating the feasibility and benefit of fully integrated versus in-line PET/MR systems [15]; however, a tool that allows the flexible combination of a several different imaging systems has not been developed or investigated as yet.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to assess the registration accuracy of image fusion in two different settings: a trimodality PET/CT+MR system as well as a SPECT+D-CT system.

Materials and methods

Patients

In this institutional review board-approved prospective study, 43 patients underwent either sequential PET/CT+MR (n=31) or SPECT+D-CT (n=12) between July 2010 and June 2011 as part of their clinical work-up. Patient characteristics are summarized in Table 1 for PET/CT+MR and Table 2 for SPECT+D-CT. All SPECT scans were performed for the assessment of osseous pathology.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>PET/CT+MR patient characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of patients (n)</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (mean±SD) (years)</td>
<td>56.3±14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male [n [%]]</td>
<td>19 (61)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Injected dose of 18F-FDG (MBq)</td>
<td>348±8.4</td>
</tr>
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<td>Region of MR scan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abdomen</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abdomen and pelvis</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chest</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chest and abdomen</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chest, abdomen and pelvis</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indications</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head and neck [n [%]]</td>
<td>3 (9.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oropharyngeal cancer</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thora [n [%]]</td>
<td>11 (35.5)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pleural mesothelioma</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bronchial carcinoma</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breast cancer</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gastrointestinal cancer</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lymphoma [n [%]]</td>
<td>5 (16.1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hodgkin lymphoma</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Hodgkin lymphoma</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abdominal [n [%]]</td>
<td>8 (25.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cholangiocellular carcinoma</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pancreatic cancer</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colon cancer</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melanoma [n [%]]</td>
<td>4 (12.9)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

18F-FDG, fluorine-18 fluorodeoxyglucose.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2</th>
<th>SPECT+D-CT patient characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of patients (n)</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (mean±SD) (years)</td>
<td>69.5±6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male [n [%]]</td>
<td>3 (25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Injected dose of 99mTc-DPD (MBq)</td>
<td>669±12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field of view</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knee</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lumbar spine</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pelvis</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower leg</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indication</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osseous metastasis [n [%]]</td>
<td>7 (58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breast cancer</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prostate cancer</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflammatory disease [n [%]]</td>
<td>5 (42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prostate</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osteomyelitis</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D-CT, diagnostic CT.

SPECT+CT scanning

SPECT data were acquired on a Hawkeye (Millennium VG; GE Healthcare) SPECT/CT system with integrated attenuation correction CT (Ac-CT) with a 128×128 matrix, a 30 s acquisition time per step and a 3° rotation step size. For emission data acquisition, low-energy/high-resolution collimators were used with an energy window of 140±10% keV and a FOV of 40 cm. Ac-CT parameters were as follows: 2.5 mA, 140 kV, slice thickness 10 mm and matrix 256×256.

After SPECT imaging, the patient was transported to a 64-slice CT (Lightspeed VCT; GE Healthcare) for a D-CT of the region of interest. D-CT parameters were as follows: 70–300 mA/slice, 120 kV, pitch 1.188, rotation time of 0.75 s, collimation of 64×0.625 mm, FOV of 50 cm, a noise index of 25%, reconstructed to images of...
0.625-mm transverse pixel size and 1.5-mm slice thickness.

Cobalt-57 markers (CoM) were placed on the patients' shuttle board for manual matching of the coordinate systems of Hawkeye SPECT/CT and D-CT scanners and registration of the acquired data sets.

**Patient transport/shuttle**

The primary goal of this study was to assess the accuracy of image fusion with a flexible shuttle system that enables the sequentially integrated use of PET/CT and MR as well as SPECT and D-CT scanners. A flexible side-loading shuttle prototype was developed and constructed in collaboration with a prototyping engineering company (Innovation Design Center, Thalwil, Switzerland) (Fig. 1). Development and production costs for this prototype were around €22k.

For SPECT + CT, the patient transport board consisted of carbon fibre, whereas for the PET/CT + MR system, the transport board was built with fibre glass to minimize radio frequency attenuation effects. The MR scanner table was undocked and the patient was positioned on it outside the MR room as the current shuttle prototype is not built with MR-compatible materials. Patient transfer time was around 10 min for both settings. No special additional restraints were used to reduce patient motion.

**Assessment of image registration accuracy**

**PET/CT + MR system**

For tridimensional PET/CT + MR imaging fusion, the matched coordinate system allowed fully automatic image fusion of the CT and MR data sets without any software-based or manual registration correction. The misalignment from the automatic registration was recorded as offsets in the X-axis (lateral), Y-axis (anterior–posterior) and Z-axis (cranio-caudal) between anatomical landmarks on CT and MRI. The magnitude of absolute displacement vector was calculated on the basis of the mean three-dimensional offsets. Anatomical landmarks least affected by respiratory motions and well depicted on both CT and MR images were selected: spine, pelvic bones and large paraspinal or pelvic muscles. In each patient, at least six anatomical landmarks were selected manually: three in the bony structures and three in the large muscles. Assessment of misalignment from the automatic registration was performed by two board-certified radiologists in consensus. Dedicated registration software package (Integrated Registration, Advantage Workstation 4.5; GE Healthcare) was used for the analysis.

**SPECT + D-CT system**

For SPECT + D-CT fusion, fully automatic coregistration with matched coordinate systems was not possible as

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**Fig. 1**

Side-loading shuttle. Frontal view (a) and top view (b) of the side-loading shuttle system, consisting of a metal trolley with counter balance weights (60 kg) on each side (orange). Two sliding 'arms' (red) hold a carbon or glass-fibre board (blue) serving as a 'shuttle patient table', which can be slid either to the right or to the left of the shuttle system. This permits approaching and loading the patient onto a scanner table from either side. After sliding the board over the scanner table, the table is elevated until the board is entirely supported by it. Thereby, the board can be released from the arms, which are pulled back.
Fig. 2

Cobalt registration marker. (a) SPECT MIP of the pelvis with a cobalt-57 marker (CoM) at the left lateral side of the carbon board. (b–d) Visual confirmation of accurate marker fusion in the fused SPECT + diagnostic CT (D-CT) images in (b) axial, (c) coronal and (d) sagittal views using the CoM.

Fig. 3

PET/CT + MR in a patient with melanoma. Bone metastasis in a 63-year-old man with malignant melanoma. (a) On CT cortical destruction is seen in the left posterior aspect of the L5 vertebral body (white arrow). (b) Fused fluorine-18 fluorodeoxyglucose (18F-FDG) PET/CT image shows increased 18F-FDG uptake in the osseous lesion. (c) Nonenhanced T1-weighted MR image acquired on a standalone MR scanner clearly shows the hyperintense lesion consistent with melanoma metastasis (white arrow). (d) Accurate PET/MR fusion of sequential PET and MR imaging achieved with the side-loading shuttle system with subsequent manual correction.
there is no laser patient positioning system for the Hawkeye SPECT/CT system. We therefore used external CoM attached to the shuttle table to align the coordinate systems and match SPECT and CT data (Fig. 2) with manual registration (Integrated Registration, Advantage Workstation 4.5; GE Healthcare). The accuracy of CoM-assisted image fusion was then verified against the Ac-CT by matching the bony structures between D-CT and Ac-CT datasets. Three anatomical landmarks were selected for each patient. The offsets between the landmarks were recorded in the X-axis (lateral), Y-axis (anterior–posterior) and Z-axis (cranio-caudal). For each patient, the mean offset for the three landmarks was then calculated. The magnitude of the absolute displacement vector was calculated on the basis of the mean three-dimensional offsets.

Results
PET/CT + MR
The mean offset between CT and MR images for the PET/CT + MR setting was 8.1 ± 5.7 mm in the X-axis, 5.0 ± 4.0 mm in the Y-axis and 4.9 ± 5.6 mm in the Z-axis. The magnitude of the absolute displacement vector calculated on the basis of the mean three-dimensional offsets was 10.7 mm. Two clinical examples of sequential PET/CT + MR imaging with resulting accurate fusion of PET/MR images are presented in Figs 3 and 4.

SPECT + D-CT
The mean offset between anatomical landmarks on Ac-CT and D-CT in the SPECT + D-CT setting was 0.7 ± 0.8 mm in the X-axis, 2.1 ± 1.7 mm in the Y-axis and 0.8 ± 1.8 mm in the Z-axis. The magnitude of the absolute displacement vector calculated on the basis of the mean three-dimensional offsets was 2.4 mm. A clinical example of sequentially fused SPECT + D-CT images is shown in Fig. 5.

Discussion
The present results show that the principle of a flexible side-loading patient shuttle can be used to achieve ‘hardware’ fusion with offsets between PET/CT + MR of mean 10.7

PET/CT + MR in a patient with colorectal cancer. Male patient (65 years old) with a liver metastasis of colorectal cancer in liver segment VII. (a) On nonenhanced CT image, no lesion is visible in the liver parenchyma. (b) Fused PET/CT images shows focal increased fluorine-18 fluorodeoxyglucose (18F-FDG) uptake in liver segment VII. (c) Nonenhanced T1-weighted MR image acquired on a standalone MR scanner clearly shows a hypointense lesion in segment VII. (d) Accurate PET/MR fusion of sequential PET and MR imaging achieved with the shuttle system with subsequent manual correction, showing the hepatic metastasis in segment VII.
and 2.4 mm using fiducial markers with the SPECT + D-CT systems. Until now, only software-based image fusion data have been published for separate scanner systems such as SPECT + CT or PET/CT + MR [9–11,16–20]. Although the rigid structure of the skull ascertains that software fusion of brain structures is adequate, postural changes in the trunk and extremities may impair fusion accuracy [12].

Therefore, we developed and evaluated a dedicated shuttle system. In sequential integration of PET/CT and MR, the gantry laser systems can be used successfully to match the coordinate systems of both scanners. In the case of SPECT and D-CT integration, the approach utilizing cobalt sources attached to the shuttle system was developed and used to match the coordinate systems. For the trimodality PET/CT + MR system, the ‘hardware’ fusion of PET/CT and MR data provided registration between datasets with small offsets, showing the feasibility of this sequential approach with a dedicated patient shuttle system.

Although fully integrated SPECT with high-end CT scanner systems (≥16 slices) are available, less busy services may opt to install shuttle systems between their nuclear cameras and a nearby D-CT to be more cost effective [8]. The same could in fact be true for PET/MR implementations. Although fully integrated PET/MR have the advantage of simultaneous data acquisition without moving the patient or the table when imaging single FOVs, separate PET and MR systems have the advantage of full flexibility when placed in two separate rooms and might therefore be used more effectively. Furthermore, integrated ‘hybrid’ PET/MR or SPECT/CT systems are costly and beyond reach from the financial perspective for the majority of centres. A simple patient shuttle system could allow the integration of existing scanners to answer specific clinical questions without the need for costly investments.

The present study focused on image fusion accuracy arising from patient motion as well as transportation and
repositioning errors. It could be seen as a limitation that no phantom study is included to evaluate pure physical error arising from transportation and repositioning with the shuttle. However, as we were mainly interested in the performance in a daily clinical setting, patient data were analysed to evaluate the total robustness of the system. It should be taken into account that respiratory motion can cause considerable registration errors between the PET, CT and MR data. Therefore, in this study, anatomical structures least affected by respiratory motion were used for the analysis of misalignment.

A fully automatic coregistration of SPECT + D-CT data was not possible. However, manual fusion of the shuttle system cobalt sources (CoM) between SPECT and D-CT in a first step is tantamount for the laser positioning system. With this preparatory step, osseous landmarks in Ac-CT versus D-CT were only 1.2 ± 2.6 mm apart. Although not used in our study, potentially, metal and oil-containing markers attached to the shuttle table can be developed to match the coordination systems of PET/CT and MR in a similar way as for the SPECT D-CT system to complement the scanner gantry laser systems.

Further technical improvements of patient shuttle systems, such as interlocks of the shuttle with the imaging tables, might result in even more accurate coregistration between different modalities, minimizing operator dependence and obviating manual fusion.

**Conclusion**

Sequential PET/CT + MR and SPECT + D-CT imaging using a newly developed in-house solution for a dedicated patient shuttle system is feasible, resulting in mean offsets between data sets of 10.7 mm using the gantry laser system and 2.4 mm with fiducial markers.

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Andrei Samarin was supported by the European Union through the European Regional Development Fund.

**Conflicts of interest**

Fredrik Brandsberg is co-owner of Innovation Design Center, Thalwil, Switzerland. For the remaining authors there are no conflicts of interest.

**References**


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Publication II

PET/ MR imaging of bone lesions – implications for PET quantification from imperfect attenuation correction

Andrei Samarin · Cyrill Burger · Scott D. Wollenweber · David W. Crook · Irene A. Burger · Daniel T. Schmid · Gustav K. von Schulthess · Felix P. Kuhn

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Abstract
Purpose Accurate attenuation correction (AC) is essential for quantitative analysis of PET tracer distribution. In MR, the lack of cortical bone signal makes bone segmentation difficult and may require implementation of special sequences. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the need for accurate bone segmentation in MR-based AC for whole-body PET/MR imaging.
Methods In 22 patients undergoing sequential PET/CT and 3-T MR imaging, modified CT AC maps were produced by replacing pixels with values of ≥100 HU, representing mostly bone structures, by pixels with a constant value of 36 HU corresponding to soft tissue, thereby simulating current MR-derived AC maps. A total of 141 FDG-positive osseous lesions and 50 soft-tissue lesions adjacent to bones were evaluated. The mean standardized uptake value (SUVmean) was measured in each lesion in PET images reconstructed once using the standard AC maps and once using the modified AC maps. Subsequently, the errors in lesion tracer uptake for the modified PET images were calculated using the standard PET image as a reference.

Results Substitution of bone by soft tissue values in AC maps resulted in an underestimation of tracer uptake in osseous and soft tissue lesions adjacent to bones of 11.2±5.4 % (range 1.5–30.8 %) and 3.2±1.7 % (range 0.2–4 %), respectively. Analysis of the spine and pelvic osseous lesions revealed a substantial dependence of the error on lesion composition. For predominantly sclerotic spine lesions, the mean underestimation was 15.9±3.4 % (range 9.9–23.5 %) and for osteolytic spine lesions, 7.2±1.7 % (range 4.9–9.3 %), respectively.

Conclusion CT data simulating treating bone as soft tissue as is currently done in MR maps for PET AC leads to a substantial underestimation of tracer uptake in bone lesions and depends on lesion composition, the largest error being seen in sclerotic lesions. Therefore, depiction of cortical bone and other calcified areas in MR AC maps is necessary for accurate quantification of tracer uptake values in PET/MR imaging.

Keywords PET · MR · Attenuation correction · Bone segmentation · CT simulation

Introduction
Accurate attenuation correction (AC) is essential for quantitative analysis of PET tracer distribution, especially for assessing treatment response and comparing PET/MR to PET/CT data. AC of PET data based on MR images is challenging [1]. In contrast to CT data which can be easily transformed into attenuation coefficients for PET, intensity values in MR images do not reflect the X-ray density of tissues [2, 3]. Thus image processing of MR data is necessary for the generation of AC maps. Proposed approaches to
MR-based AC (MR AC) are tissue segmentation, the use of atlases or templates and pattern recognition techniques or a combination of these [4–7]. Tissue segmentation has worked well in PET/CT; however, the lack of cortical bone signal in currently available MR sequences makes bone segmentation difficult. A remedy might be provided by ultrashort or zero echo time sequences [8, 9].

There are no substantial clinical data showing whether it is necessary to segment bone in MR AC maps or whether the stronger attenuation of the 511 keV photons by bone can be replaced by the attenuation of soft tissue in such maps. Some investigators state that segmentation of CT images into three (background, lung, and soft tissue) or four (background, lungs, fat, and soft tissue) tissue classes to generate attenuation maps does not substantially change PET data compared to the use of standard AC with a mean underestimation of bone lesion SUV of 6.5% and 8%, respectively [5, 6]. In contrast, a recent study has shown that segmentation of whole-body CT data into four classes, while neglecting bone, results in SUV errors of >10% in 58% of osseous lesions [7]. All these studies evaluated the effects on a lesion by lesion basis, but did not consider that bone lesion density can vary considerably spanning from lytic to sclerotic.

In order to better understand the effects of bone attenuation using MR AC without bone segmentation, we generated whole-body error maps using CT data that allowed us to visualize the areas of the body in which the resulting errors from ignoring bone in AC were substantial or were only minimal. Additionally, this approach allowed determination of the systematic error in PET/AC compared to PET/CT when neglecting bone for MR AC. Approaches for correcting for such errors may be necessary because some patients will undergo PET/MR and PET/CT examinations interchangeably for therapy monitoring in the future.

Errors in SUV from MR AC ignoring bone not only depend on the body region, but also on the density of the bone lesions themselves. This in turn depends on the underlying disease process and may change significantly during the course of a disease or after therapy. Frequently bone lesions are initially lytic, but on follow-up examinations the bone lesions may become sclerotic. These changes in lesion density will not be evident when treating bone as soft tissue in MR AC maps. The influence of the composition of bone lesions on the errors in SUV in segmented AC approaches has not been studied before.

The purpose of this study was therefore twofold: to generate error maps to estimate the accuracy of bone segmentation in MR AC for whole-body PET/MR imaging and to specifically look at errors in bone lesions of various compositions and lesions close to bone.

Materials and methods

Patients

This institutional review board-approved retrospective study included 22 patients with osseous lesions and soft tissue lesions adjacent to bone who were selected from a total of 120 patients. All 22 patients underwent sequential PET/CT and 3-T MR imaging between December 2010 and June 2011 as part of a clinical/research work-up. In this study, only the PET/CT part of the studies was used. The patient characteristics are summarized in Table 1.

Image acquisition

PET/CT imaging was performed on a full-ring, state-of-the-art time-of-flight PET/CT system (Discovery PET/CT 690; GE Healthcare). Patients fasted for at least 4 h prior to injection of a dose of 360.7±18 of 18F-FDG (Table 1). After an uptake time of 60 min, native low-dose CT data and PET emission data were acquired from the mid-thigh to the vertex of the skull. CT data were acquired with 50–79 mAs per slice, 120 kVp, a pitch of 0.984:1, a collimation of 64×0.625 mm, a measured FOV of 50 cm and a noise index of 20%, and were reconstructed to images of 0.625 mm transverse pixel size and 3.75 cm slice thickness.

PET data were acquired in 3-D mode with a fixed scan duration of 2 min and an axial FOV of 153 mm per bed position. Seven axial FOVs were used.

Reconstruction of attenuation maps

In each patient standard and modified CT AC maps were generated by a trilinear transformation of non-enhanced low-dose CT images to 511 keV PET attenuation maps [2]. According to the performed histogram analysis of CT images (Fig. 1) the density cut-off for the bone tissue segmentation was defined as 100 HU while the representative density value for the soft tissue was set at 36 HU. Modified AC maps (AC-Mod) were produced using PMOD software (PMOD Technologies, Zurich, Switzerland) by replacing pixels with values higher than 100 HU by pixels with a

Table 1  Patient characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of patients</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (years, mean ± SD)</td>
<td>58.2±14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight (kg, mean ± SD)</td>
<td>75.3±8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>16 (73%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18F-FDG dose (MBq, mean ± SD)</td>
<td>360.7±18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18F-FDG uptake time (min, mean ± SD)</td>
<td>62.2±3.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
constant value of 36 HU, thereby simulating substitution of bone by soft tissue in MR-derived segmented AC maps. Standard AC maps (AC-St) were produced from the same but unmodified non-enhanced low-dose CT images. Hounsfield units were transformed into 511 keV attenuation using the following algorithm: AC [1/cm]=intercept + CT value * slope. CT values below 50 HU were converted to attenuation using the kVp-independent soft-tissue conversion with an intercept of 0.096 and a slope of $9.6 \times 10^{-5}$. CT values of 50 HU and above were converted using the 120-kVp bone scale with an intercept of 0.0982 and a slope of $5.11 \times 10^{-5}$. Subsequently, two sets of attenuation-corrected PET images were reconstructed based on the modified and standard AC maps. An overview of the image reconstruction procedure is given in Fig. 2.

**Fig. 2** Generation of AC maps followed by PET data reconstruction. The modified CT data were generated by replacing all pixels in CT sections with values $>100$ HU by pixels with a value of 36 HU. The “no-bone” CT data obtained were then used for AC of PET images and compared to the PET images which were AC-corrected in standard mode.

Generation of a whole-body SUV error map

Whole-body maps showing the percentage differences in SUV between PET images reconstructed using the modified AC map (PET$_{AC-mod}$) and the standard AC map (PET$_{AC-St}$) were generated using the following formula: $(PET_{AC-mod} - PET_{AC-St}) / PET_{AC-St} \times 100\%$. The resulting difference map was analysed for body regions showing the largest differences in SUV.

Image analysis

First, the mean SUV of FDG avid lesions located in bone and in soft tissues adjacent to bone (within 10 mm) were measured by placing a volume of interest of 10 mm diameter on PET$_{AC-St}$ and PET$_{AC-mod}$ images. The volume of interest was placed within PET-positive lesions of at least 1 cm$^3$. Subsequently, the standard error of SUVmean in the lesions was calculated for the PET$_{AC-mod}$ images using the PET$_{AC-St}$ images as a reference. SUVmean rather than SUVmax was measured because recent literature suggests that reporting SUVmean gives results closer to reality than SUVmax [10, 11].

Bone lesions were then divided into lesions involving spine, pelvic bones and other bones. Spine and pelvic lesions were further classified into three classes based on their appearance on CT images: (1) lytic lesions showing predominant and clearly visible destruction of osseous matrix with CT density below 100 HU, (2) sclerotic lesions showing predominantly increased bone density with CT density above 200 HU, and (3) lesions of mixed density showing a combination of destructive and sclerotic changes or lesions without visible change in bone density on CT images with a CT density in the range 100–200 HU. The means and standard errors were similarly calculated for these classes as for all bone lesions and for the various anatomic locations (Table 2).
Table 2: Summary of SUV underestimation produced by reconstruction of PET images using modified AC maps

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Number of lesions</th>
<th>Mean error ± SD (%)</th>
<th>Minimum error (%)</th>
<th>Maximum error (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spine, vertebral bodies</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.9±3.4</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sclerotic</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14.2±4</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed density</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.1±4.9</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lytic</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.8±2.7</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pelvic bones</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.6±3.8</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sclerotic</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.6±4.6</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed density</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.5±2.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>19.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lytic</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3±1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sternum</td>
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<td>8.4±3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scapula</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16.8±7</td>
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<td>30.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Humerus</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>11.2±5.4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soft-tissue lesions located near bone</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.2±1.7</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results

Analysis of the whole-body error maps showed that the largest errors with an average of 15–20% were present in bone (Figs. 3 and 4). In the soft tissues the highest SUV errors were seen in the brain and tissues just adjacent to the bones (10–15%) with a rapid decrease in error magnitude with distance from bone. Errors in other areas of the body SUV error maps were generally below 5%. In addition to areas of underestimation, regions of slight overestimation of SUV were also identified in soft tissue on the SUV error maps (Fig. 3), but again not exceeding 5%. Bone lesions and soft-tissue lesions adjacent to bone were quantitatively assessed for SUV errors (Table 2). Quantitative analysis of brain lesions was not performed as the focus was on body imaging and our series contained only a single patient with a brain lesion. In Fig. 4, axial images of a fusion of SUV error maps and original CT images are shown with colour codes giving error ranges.

A total of 141 FDG-positive osseous lesions were found in 13 patients including 43 lesions in the vertebral bodies of the thoracic and lumbar spine, 41 lesions in the pelvic bones and 57 lesions in other bones. Further analysis of the density of vertebral body lesions on CT images revealed 23 sclerotic, 13 with normal or mixed density and 7 lytic lesions. In the pelvis, 17 sclerotic, 15 normal or mixed density and 9 lytic lesions were found.

Substitution of bone by soft tissue density values in AC maps resulted in a mean underestimation of SUV in all bone
lesions of $11.2 \pm 5.4 \%$. A minimum SUV underestimation of $1.5 \%$ was seen in a rib lesion while a maximum SUV underestimation of $30.8 \%$ was identified in a sclerotic lesion located in the femoral bone. A summary of SUV errors in bone lesions of different composition in various regions produced by reconstruction of PET images using the modified AC maps is given in Table 2.

Analysis of 52 spine and 41 pelvic lesions revealed an important dependence of the underestimation error on the composition of the lesions, while this error was substantially smaller in other lesions and thus not further analysed. For predominantly sclerotic, normal/mixed density and lytic lesions of the thoracic and lumbar spine vertebral bodies, the underestimation errors were $15.9 \pm 3.4 \%$ (mean $\pm$ SD, range 23.5–9.9 %), 10.6±1.5 % (range 11.2–8.7 %) and 7.2±1.7 % (range 9.3–4.9 %), respectively. For osseous lesions in the pelvis, the corresponding underestimation errors for sclerotic, normal/mixed density and lytic lesions were $14.2 \pm 4 \%$ (range 23.8–8.4 %), $13.1 \pm 4.9 \%$ (range 21.3–6.2 %) and $6.8 \pm 2.7 \%$ (range 12–3.1 %), respectively.

A total of 50 FDG-positive lesions were identified in the soft tissues adjacent to bony structures in six patients. In these lesions, substitution of the bone by soft tissue values in the AC maps resulted in underestimation errors of $3.2 \pm 1.7 \%$ (mean $\pm$ SD). Among these lesions, the smallest error of 0.2 % was found in a lung lesion adjacent to a rib, while the largest error of 4 % was seen in a lymph node adjacent to the osseous pelvis.

**Discussion**

Decreases in SUV were highest for lesions within or next to bone when PET images were reconstructed using a modified AC map treating bone as soft tissue versus a standard AC map. The magnitude of this error decreased rapidly with the distance...
form bone and showed only a very small difference in other areas of the body (brain not analysed in this study). Therefore, 191 lesions, 141 in bone and 50 adjacent to bone were examined in more detail. Based on the analysis of the 141 FDG-positive bone lesions, substitution of bone by soft tissue in AC maps for PET resulted in average underestimation of SUV in bones by around 10%. Lesions located in the ribs showed an average error below 5%, while lesions located in the proximal femur showed a larger average error of more than 15%. Importantly, in our study the maximum SUV underestimation for bone lesions of more than 20% was seen in dense sclerotic lesions: 23.5% for spine lesions, 23.8% for pelvic bone lesions and 30.8% for femoral lesions.

Compared to the studies performed by Martínez-Möller et al. [5] (21 osseous lesions with an average SUV change of 8±3% and maximum underestimation of 13.1% seen in a lesion in the pelvic bone) and by Schulz et al. [6] (7 bone lesions with an average underestimation of 6.5±4.1% and maximum error of −13.4% seen in a pelvic bone lesion), the average and maximum errors seen in osseous lesions were significantly higher in our study. The results of our study support the findings of Hofmann et al., which showed tracer uptake quantification errors of >10% in 58% of osseous lesions and errors >20% in 22% of the lesions [7]. The difference in the magnitude of underestimation may be explained by the larger number of osseous lesions examined in our study (141), and their location and composition. Additionally, another important factor may be the different approaches to reconstruction of the AC maps as we substituted only bone by soft tissue values rather than using a full three- or four-class CT segmentation. This approach allowed us to determine the effect of bone attenuation by changing only one parameter.

PET image reconstructed using the modified CT AC map. In the modified CT AC map bone is substituted by soft tissue. In this case modification of the AC map has resulted in underestimation of FDG uptake by 23% in this bone metastasis in the modified PET image.

The errors observed are of interest for understanding the systematic errors in MR AC-based PET scans, but are particularly relevant when comparing the data obtained from PET/CT and PET/MR for treatment response assessment. In fact, an AC-induced 20–30% error in SUV of a lesion might change the assessment of treatment response.

To our knowledge this is the first study showing a substantial difference in underestimation of SUV in PET between dense sclerotic and destructive lytic bone lesions when neglecting the bone in AC maps. The presence of 52 spine and 41 pelvic bone lesions allowed us to assess the dependence of the error on the density of the bone lesions. We found a substantial difference in SUV underestimation between the sclerotic lesions with an average error of −15.9% in spine and −14.2% in pelvic lesions and lytic lesions with respective underestimation values of −7.2% and −6.8%. The commonly used approach to MR-based AC is tissue segmentation with substitution of bone by soft tissue values [5–7, 12, 13]. In bone lesions with little or no change in density over the therapeutic course, this type of segmentation will result only in a systematic under-correction of bone attenuation between consecutive PET/MR scans and interpretation is not truly affected. However, the density of the bone lesions can change significantly during the course of the disease—and this will have an impact on their attenuation properties. Treating bone as soft tissue in the MR AC maps of consecutive PET/MR scans performed for assessment of treatment response may result in SUV differences solely due to changes in lesion density and not due to a change in the metabolic activity of the lesion.

The magnitude of the SUV error of bone lesions is dependent not only on their own density but also on the density of the surrounding bones, being smaller in osteoporotic bones and
larger in the presence of degenerative changes or in certain disease states (e.g. myelofibrosis, mastocytosis, osteopetrosis).

Analysis of whole-body SUV error maps also revealed an underestimation of tracer uptake in soft tissues adjacent to bone. Dedicated analysis of 48 soft tissue lesions in close proximity to bone revealed that the errors were lower than 5 % (mean underestimation 3.2 %, maximum 4 %), which for clinical purposes may be negligible. While our data do not allow the relevance of skull bone for the AC of brain lesions to be addressed, other authors have shown that this is mandatory to quantify brain PET examinations [14]. In addition to the SUV underestimation highlighted above, minor SUV overestimation was also seen in some soft tissue regions. This is potentially due to differences caused by the interaction between changes in attenuation and the scatter correction of the data, but again is hardly clinically relevant.

In agreement with lesion-based evaluations of other studies [5, 6], our AC maps suggest that for lesions in soft tissues, fat or lung, the omission of bone from the AC of PET data is clinically not relevant, at least at the levels of accuracy at which SUV values are used nowadays. However, neglecting bone can lead to relatively high SUV errors in lesions within bone, especially in sclerotic areas. Therefore, in PET/MR, the application of MR sequences able to depict bone might be necessary not only for MR AC in brain tissue, but also for lesions within bone throughout the body. In such lesions we have no a priori knowledge without CT data if they are lytic, sclerotic or mixed, and this can change during the course of a disease, making therapy monitoring challenging when using MR AC ignoring attenuation by bone.

Conclusion

Treating bone as soft tissue in MR-derived AC maps for PET/MR leads to a substantial underestimation of SUV values in bone lesions. The errors depend substantially on lesion composition, with the largest error being seen in sclerotic lesions. Therefore depiction of the cortical bone and sclerotic areas in MR AC maps is necessary for accurate quantification of tracer uptake values in whole-body PET/MR imaging.

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Conflicts of interest One of the authors (S.W.) is an employee of GE Healthcare, Waukesha, WI, USA.

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References


Publication III

Original article

\[^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}-\text{PET/MR}\] increases diagnostic confidence in detection of bone metastases compared with \[^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}-\text{PET/CT}\]

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**Purpose** The aim of this study was to compare detection, lesion conspicuity and reader confidence of \[^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}-\text{PET/MR}\] and \[^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}-\text{PET/computed tomography (CT)}\] in patients with \[^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}\] avid bone metastases.

**Materials and methods** In this prospective study, a total of 30 PET/CT and PET/MRI data sets were performed in 24 patients. Each examination was evaluated for the presence of PET-positive bone lesions consistent with metastatic involvement. Conspicuity of PET-positive bone lesions was evaluated on the corresponding PET/CT and PET/MRI images and compared using the Wilcoxon signed-ranks test. Reader confidence was determined to evaluate whether PET/CT or PET/MRI was more useful for the assessment of the bone metastases and was compared using Student’s t-test.

**Results** Overall, in both examinations, PET/CT and PET/MRI detected 86 \[^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}-\text{positive bone lesions}\]. On all 30 PET/MRI examinations, at least one morphological correlate for \[^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}-\text{positive bone lesions}\] was found on the MR component (82 out of 86 lesions). PET/CT imaging allowed identification of corresponding structural changes on the CT component in 23 out of 30 studies (65 out of 86 lesions). In lesion-by-lesion analysis, the mean lesion conspicuity was significantly better on T1 fat MR imaging compared with CT imaging (\(P = 0.005\)). In seven out of 30 studies, a significant increase in reader confidence of PET/MRI compared with PET/CT was found.

**Conclusion** PET/MRI offers higher reader confidence and improved conspicuity in bone metastases compared with PET/CT. However, the overall detection rate was not different. The highest possible clinical impact of PET/MRI appears to be in patients with limited, early bone metastatic disease. *Nucl Med Commun* 36:1165–1173 Copyright © 2015 Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc. All rights reserved.

**Keywords:** bone metastases, hybrid imaging, PET/CT, PET/MRI

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**Introduction**

The presence of bone metastases is a major prognostic factor in patients with oncological disease. Early and confident detection of bone metastases enables accurate staging and selection of the optimum treatment of oncological disease.

Multiple imaging techniques are currently available for the detection of the metastatic bone disease including bone scintigraphy, CT, MR and PET/CT imaging [1,2]. Recently, PET/MR hybrid imaging was introduced as a promising tool in oncological imaging research [3]. One of the potential benefits of PET/MR compared with other imaging modalities may be improved detection and characterization of bone metastases.

Whole-body MR imaging has been shown to have superior diagnostic accuracy compared with CT and bone scintigraphy in detection of bone metastases because of its ability to assess early infiltration of bone marrow that precedes osteoblastic and osteoclastic response of the bone matrix to malignant tissue infiltration [4,2,5–7]. The comparison of whole-body MR and PET/CT for the detection of bone metastases in solid tumours and haematological malignancies yielded heterogeneous results depending on the tumour histology and the PET tracer used [8–14]. Importantly, integrated PET/CT has been reported to show a high positive predictive value of 98% for identification of bone metastases when both PET and CT components of the examination are concordant [15]. However, when CT and PET results are discordant, the positive predictive value of PET/CT significantly decreases to 61% [15]. The implementation of hybrid PET/MR imaging may potentially improve detection of early bone marrow infiltration, reduce the number of discordant findings and therefore increase diagnostic confidence in the detection and evaluation of bone metastasis.

It is not yet clear whether PET/MR provides a clinical benefit compared with PET/CT for the detection and evaluation of bone metastasis.

The aim of our study was to compare detection, lesion conspicuity and reader confidence of \[^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}-\text{PET/MR}\]
and $^{18}$F-FDG-PET/CT in patients with $^{18}$F-FDG avid bone metastases.

**Materials and methods**

**Patients**

In this prospective study, 24 patients (nine men, 15 women; median age 61.5 years, range 43–89 years) underwent sequential whole-body trimodality $^{18}$F-FDG-PET/CT – MR between May 2011 and June 2013 as a part of clinical work-up for either staging or restaging/ follow-up of various malignant tumours and suspicion of bone metastases (30 examinations). The primary diseases were breast cancer (12 patients), lung cancer (three patients), tonsil cancer (two patients), non-Hodgkin lymphoma (two patients) and carcinoma of the urethra, gastric cancer, cervical cancer, spindle cell skin cancer and medullary thyroid carcinoma (one patient each). Clinical indication for the PET/CT-examination was therapy follow-up (11 exams), primary staging (10 exams) and restaging (nine exams). All patients had histological confirmation of their primary disease. The mean follow-up period was 18.5 months (range: 12–36 months). No further selection was applied for patient inclusion. Patients unwilling to undergo an additional MR examination, those who had claustrophobia and those with MR-incompatible medical devices (e.g. cardiac pacemaker, insulin pump, neurostimulator, cochlear implant) were not considered for study inclusion. Six out of 24 patients underwent the PET/CT + MR study twice (mean interval 311 days) and, therefore, 30 studies were available for overall analysis. This study was approved by the institutional ethics committee and written informed consent was obtained from all patients before the examination. Patient characteristics are summarized in Table 1.

**Image acquisition**

Sequential PET/CT and MR imaging was performed on a trimodality PET/CT-MR set-up (full-ring, time-of-flight Discovery PET/CT 690 and a 3-T Discovery MR 750; both GE Healthcare, Waukesha, Wisconsin, USA). Patients fasted for at least 4 h before injection of a standard dose of an average of 4.5 MBq/kg body weight of $^{18}$F-FDG.

After injection, all patients were positioned on a dedicated shuttle board that was placed on top of the MR table. Patients had a resting time of ~30 min before going into the MR. A mechanism able to transfer the shuttle board from the MR-table to the PET/CT table ensured that patient transport from the MR system to the PET/CT and placement/removal of dedicated radiofrequency coils were possible without repositioning the patient [16]. With this, image sets of PET/CT and PET/MR were available for diagnostic and comparative purposes. After placing the patient onto the shuttle board, a dedicated radiofrequency coil (GEM 32-channel torso coil, posterior and anterior array combined; GE Healthcare) was positioned on the patient. The MR imaging protocol consisted of three different sequences. Whole-body multisction imaging was performed using a T1-weighted three-dimensional (3D) dual-echo gradient-recalled echo pulse sequence [liver accelerated volume acquisition (LAVA)-Flex; GE Healthcare]. LAVA acquisition was performed during end-expiratory breath-hold for breathing sensitive areas (thorax, abdomen). Whole-body multisction imaging was also performed with a coronally acquired short T1 inversion recovery (STIR) sequence using parallel imaging. No breath-hold technique was used. Finally, a T2-weighted sequence with motion correction [periodically rotated overlapping parallel lines with enhanced reconstruction (Propeller); GE Healthcare] was acquired using a breathing trigger in the thorax. This sequence was used for enhanced breathing-triggered lung imaging. The total MR acquisition time was ca. 16 min. Detailed acquisition parameters for all MR sequences are presented in Table 2.

After completion of the MR examination, patients were shuttled to the PET/CT.

Low-dose CT data were acquired for PET attenuation correction (AC) and for diagnostic purposes. Tube voltage was 120 kV (peak), reference tube current was 12.35 mAs/slice, automated dose modulation range was 15–80 mAs/slice, collimation was $64 \times 0.625$ mm, pitch was 0.984: 1, rotation time was 0.5 s, field of view (FOV) was 50 cm and noise index was 20%. CT image sets were reconstructed using an iterative algorithm (Adaptive Statistical Iterative Reconstruction; GE Healthcare). The PET data were acquired in 3D TOP mode with a scan duration of 2 min per bed position, an overlap of bed

**Table 1: Patient characteristics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patient number</th>
<th>Age (years)</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Diagnosis</th>
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<td>46</td>
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<td>Breast carcinoma</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>3</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Breast carcinoma</td>
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<td>54</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Breast carcinoma</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Renal carcinoma, Tonsil carcinoma</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Spindle cell skin cancer</td>
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<td>M</td>
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<td>Breast carcinoma</td>
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<td>F</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>69</td>
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<td>M</td>
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<td>24</td>
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<td>Breast carcinoma</td>
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F, female; M, male.
Table 2. Acquisition parameters for MR imaging

<table>
<thead>
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<th>LAVA</th>
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<td>902/122</td>
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<tr>
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<td>40</td>
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<tr>
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<td>288 x 288</td>
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<td>100</td>
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<tr>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total acquisition time (min)</td>
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<td>ca, 8</td>
<td>ca, 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coverage</td>
<td>Whole body</td>
<td>Whole body</td>
<td>Chest, upper abdomen</td>
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</table>

FOV, field of view; IP, in-phase; LAVA, liver accelerated volume acquisition; TI-weighted 3D dual-echo gradient-recalled echo pulse sequence; OP, opposed phase; Propeller, periodically rotated overlapping parallel lines with enhanced reconstruction; T2-weighted sequence with motion correction; STIR, short TI inversion-recovery sequence; TE, time to echo; TI, inversion time; TR, time of repetition.

positions of 23%, an axial FOV of 153 mm and a 700 mm diameter FOV. The emission data were corrected for attenuation using the low-dose CT (CTAC) and iteratively reconstructed [matrix size 256 x 256, VUE Point FX (3D TOF-OSEM) with three iterations, 18 subsets]. Images were filtered in image space using an in-plane Gaussian convolution kernel with a full-width at half-maximum of 4.0 mm, followed by a standard axial filter with a three-slice kernel. This procedure has been used in this standard manner in other studies as well [17].

Image processing
The PET, CT and MR images acquired were sent to a dedicated review workstation (Advantage workstation, version 4.6; GE Healthcare) that enables simultaneous review of PET, CT and MR images side by side or in fused/overlay mode (PET/CT, PET/MR). For this study, PET/CT and PET/MRI data sets were compared. The standard of reference consisted of histology (if available) or follow-up with at least one additional cross-sectional imaging examination.

Image analysis
Assessment of lesions in all below-mentioned categories was performed by two readers (certified in radiology and nuclear medicine) in consensus. PET/CT was evaluated first. Then, with a time gap of 6 weeks, the PET/MR images were also evaluated by the same readers in consensus. The readers were blinded to any possible previous PET/CT or MR imaging. However, the readers were aware of the diagnosis of the patients and were aware of the clinical question for the respective clinical PET/CT.

Detection of PET-positive bone lesions
First, each PET examination was evaluated for the presence of PET-positive bone lesions. Lesions were considered PET positive if their maximum standardized uptake value (SUV<sub>max</sub>) was significantly higher than liver uptake. In cases where increased uptake was visible but inferior to liver uptake, the surrounding tissue was taken as a reference. For every lesion SUV<sub>max</sub> the mean standardized uptake value (SUV<sub>mean</sub>), total lesion glycolysis and metabolic tumour volume (PET<sub>vol</sub>) were measured. The threshold value as percentage of SUV<sub>max</sub> was adjusted manually for each lesion such that the borders of the volume of interest only included activity that could be ascribed to the lesion. The location and the number of the lesions were recorded. Up to ten PET-positive lesions were evaluated per patient with a maximum of three lesions per body compartment (e.g. cervical, thoracic, lumbar spine, pelvis). In patients with multiple confluent lesions in the same compartment, lesions that were clearly distinguishable from each other were selected for analysis. 18F-FDG-negative lesions with benign radiological appearance were not evaluated in this study.

Lesion conspicuity
The conspicuity of PET-positive bone lesions was evaluated on the corresponding PET/CT and PET/MR images. For this analysis, the conspicuity of the morphological imaging component was assessed (CT or MR). Lesions were assessed on the basis of a five-point scale: grade 0 – lesion was not detectable, grade 1 – 1–25% lesion contour detectable, grade 2 – 26–50% contour detectable, grade 3 – 51–75% contour detectable and grade 4 – 76–100% contour detectable. The evaluation described was applied for all the reconstructions of the T1-weighted 3D gradient echo sequence (in-phase, out-phase, fat and water), for the whole-body STIR sequence and for the CT images. A time gap of 6 weeks between the assessment of PET/CT and PET/MR images was applied to eliminate potential bias.

Lesion size
Measurements of the maximum lesion diameters on CT and MR images were obtained. Lesions not visible on the CT or MR images were not measured in that particular modality and noted as ‘not measurable’. Measurements on the MRI component were taken on the reconstructed T1 in-phase images.

Lesion density
All lesions were assigned to three groups on the basis of their CT appearance. (a) Sclerotic lesions with predominantly an increase in bone density. (b) Lytic lesions with predominantly destruction of bone tissue. (c) 18F-FDG-positive lesions without change in bone density, for example lesions not visible on CT imaging.

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Reader confidence
Reader confidence was determined qualitatively to evaluate whether PET/CT or PET/MR was more useful for the assessment of the evaluated bone metastases. The following score was used for assessment.

High reader confidence
18F-FDG-positive lesions had a morphologic correlate and overall hybrid imaging findings correlated to metastatic involvement – 2 points.

Moderate reader confidence
PET-positive findings are suggestive of metastatic disease, but only partially show a morphologic correlate – 1 point.

Low reader confidence
PET findings are inconclusive, no clear morphologic correlate is seen for 18F-FDG-positive lesions – 0 points.

Statistical analysis
Ordinal variables were expressed as median (range), nominal variables as mode (percentage) and ratio variables as geometric mean ± SD. For the purpose of clarity, the conspicuity score was also expressed as mean ± SD. The size and conspicuity of lesions in different modalities were compared using the Wilcoxon signed-ranks test for matched pairs. Size, conspicuity and PET parameters of lesions stratified by CT-density and location on CT and MR images were compared using the Mann–Whitney U-test for independent samples. Reader confidence was compared using Student’s t-test. A P-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant. All statistical analyses were carried out with IBM SPSS Statistics 19.0.1 (IBM, Armonk, New York, USA).

Results
A total of 30 PET/CT and PET/MRI data sets were performed in 24 patients. A total of 86 18F-FDG-positive bone lesions were identified. In 12 data sets, patients had multiple disseminated bone lesions, whereas in the remaining 18 data sets, less than 10 lesions were present in each patient. The metabolic and morphologic characteristics of the lesions are summarized in Table 3.

PET/CT imaging enabled identification of structural changes on the CT component in 76% of the 18F-FDG-positive lesions (65/86 lesions). A morphologic correlate on the CT component of the PET/CT was clearly identified in 23 PET/CT studies out of 30.

Overall, in seven examinations (seven patients), 18F-FDG-positive bone lesions (n = 9) were seen only on the MR component without clearly visible changes of the bony structure on CT. In two of these examinations (two patients), patients had one single 18F-FDG-positive lesion that was not visible on MR or CT images. However, in both of these examinations, a single additional 18F-FDG-positive bone lesion (two lesions in total) was seen again only on the MR component in a different location. No additional lesions were seen on the CT component in those cases. The remaining lesions that were 18F-FDG positive but CT negative were all seen in patients where several other bone metastases were detected on both the PET component and the CT component.

In two different examinations (two patients), the structural bone change in two 18F-FDG-positive lesions was seen only in the CT component but not in the MRI component. Again, in those patients, additional 18F-FDG-positive bone lesions (four lesions) showed a morphological correlate on the MR component.

Table 3 Summary of metabolic and morphologic characteristics of all 18F-FDG-positive bone lesions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metabolic characteristics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
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<td>86</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>7.96</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUV&lt;sub&gt;mean&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>2.69</td>
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<tr>
<td>TLD</td>
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<td>477</td>
<td>441.931</td>
<td>22.243.91</td>
<td>77688.86</td>
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<td>PET&lt;sub&gt;vol&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
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<td>0.42</td>
<td>93.8</td>
<td>5.74</td>
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<td>65</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>16.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 in-phase</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>20.63</td>
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<td>MR T1 fat</td>
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<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.44</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>1.46</td>
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<td>MR T1 ex-phase</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>1.47</td>
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</table>

MR T1 water, fat, in-phase, out-phase, T1-weighted 3D dual-echo gradient-echo pulse sequence, liver accelerated volume acquisition, corresponding water, fat, in-phase and out-phase reconstruction; MR STR: short T1 inversion recovery sequence; PET<sub>vol</sub>, metabolic tumour volume; SUV<sub>mean</sub>, maximum standardized uptake value; SUV<sub>max</sub>, mean standardized uptake value; TLD, total lesion glycolysis.

Detection
Overall, in both examinations, PET/CT and PET/MRI detected the same number of lesions on the basis of the PET component (as both examinations used the same PET-data set).

In those 30 data sets, 95% of analyzed 18F-FDG-positive bone lesions (82/86 lesions) had a morphologic correlate on the MR component. Thus, on all PET/MRI examinations, at least one morphologic correlate was found on the MR component.

Copyright © 2015 Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc. All rights reserved.
Male patient (64 years old) with metastatic carcinoma of the urethra. (a) Three-dimensional $^{18}$F-FDG-PET image shows metastatic spread of the cancer. A single $^{18}$F-FDG avid bone metastasis is present in the right iliac bone (black arrow). (b) On axial CT image, only the partially visible sclerotic lesion is seen in the corresponding location (white arrow) – such findings can be easily overseen when reading CT images prospectively. (c) Fused PET/CT axial image. (d, e) In contrast to the CT image, this single bone lesion is clearly depicted on axial MR images (white arrows) as a signal increase on the T1 water image (d) and as a signal drop on the T1 fat image (e) compared with the normal bone marrow. (f, g) Corresponding fused PET/MR images. In this case, PET/MR imaging provided higher reader confidence for the diagnosis of metastatic bone marrow involvement compared with the PET/CT imaging as a morphologic correlate for the $^{18}$F-FDG avid bone lesion was clearly seen only on MR imaging. CT, computed tomography; $^{18}$F-FDG, $^{18}$fluorodeoxyglucose.
MR imaging. These patients either had several lesions seen on both modalities or had multiple disseminated lesions where the difference in the detection of single lesions did not lead to a change in overall reader confidence. Thus, in the seven studies in which all $^{18}$F-FDG-positive bone lesions ($n = 9$) were seen only on the MR component, a significant increase was found in reader confidence for PET/MRI versus PET/CT.

**Lesion conspicuity**

In lesion-by-lesion analysis, PET/MR imaging provided better results in the detection of morphologic changes in the $^{18}$F-FDG-positive bone lesions analysed: the mean lesion conspicuity was significantly better on T1 fat MR imaging compared with CT imaging ($P = 0.005$, Table 4).

The overall lesion conspicuity on STIR-weighted MR images was similar to CT images.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesions' conspicuity</th>
<th>$P$-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MR STIR vs. CT</td>
<td>0.496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 water vs. CT</td>
<td>0.516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 fat vs. CT</td>
<td>0.009*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 in-phase vs. CT</td>
<td>0.834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 out-phase vs. CT</td>
<td>0.069</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CT, computed tomography; MR T1 water, fat, in-phase, out-phase; T1-weighted 3D dual-echo gradient-recalled echo pulse sequence, liver accelerated volume acquisition, corresponding water, fat, in-phase and out-phase reconstruction; MR STIR: short T1 inversion recovery sequence.

*The mean lesion conspicuity was significantly higher on T1 fat MR imaging compared with CT imaging.

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In the subanalysis based on lesions density (on the CT component), the mean conspicuity of neither lytic nor sclerotic lesions was significantly different on T1 fat MR imaging compared with CT imaging. However, the mean conspicuity of both sclerotic and lytic lesions was significantly higher on CT imaging compared with STIR MR imaging (P = 0.014 and 0.004, respectively). Further characteristics of this subanalysis are summarized in Tables 5 and 6.

In the 21 \(^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}\)-positive bone lesions without a corresponding structural change visible in PET/CT imaging (65/86 were seen), the lesions were seen best in the T1 fat sequence of PET/MR imaging with a mean conspicuity of 3.52 and a mean size on T1 imaging of 19.5 mm. Further characteristics of these lesions are summarized in Table 7. The mean size of the \(^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}\)-positive bone lesions was found to be significantly larger on T1-weighted MR images compared with CT images.

**Discussion**

In our study, we found that the overall detection rate of PET/CT and PET/MRI was the same on the basis of the \(^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}\) positivity of the bone metastases evaluated here.

However, we could show that lesion conspicuity as well as reader confidence were improved in PET/MRI compared with PET/CT on the basis of the soft tissue contrast of the MR component. Furthermore, several morphological correlates were identified in PET/MRI that were not present in PET/CT.

**General**

The superior soft tissue contrast and the consecutive ability to assess early metastatic infiltration of bone marrow make PET/MRI a promising modality in staging and response assessment in metastatic bone disease compared with PET/CT. However, compared with PET/CT as a standard of reference, PET/MRI as a new technology should have clear advantages in patient care and should ideally not place additional examination burden on the patients. There is a general workflow issue currently discussed in the literature with current PET/MRI protocols. Most of the protocols in such an early phase of a new modality are just ‘normal’ MR protocols that do not take into account the additional diagnostic information of the PET component. However, in our study, here, we evaluated a PET/MRI protocol that consists of three noncontrast sequences that allow for a whole-body PET/MRI approximately within the same time as a standard PET/CT [17].

**Current literature**

Our study suggests that one of the clinical scenarios where PET/MRI may be beneficial over PET/CT is an oncological patient with only few early bone metastases. In our series of patients, 25% of the lesions evaluated showed no definite morphological change in the bony structure on CT imaging whereas 95% of lesions had a clear morphological correlate on MR imaging. Although all these lesions were still detected because of their \(^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}\) avidity, in cases of low metabolic activity (e.g. post-therapy), moving artefacts and small size, a pathological \(^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}\) uptake in those lesions might not be very obvious. In this situation, the clear depiction of lesions on the MR component would ensure the detection of the lesions and correct distant staging of the lesions.

---

**Table 5** Conspicuity scores (mean values) of the lesions on the basis of their CT density

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lytic</th>
<th>Sclerotic</th>
<th>Nonvisible on CT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N of lesions (CT base)</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT score</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR STIR score</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>1.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 water score</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 fat score</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>3.37</td>
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<td>MR T1 in-phase score</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>2.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 out-phase score</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CT, computed tomography; MR T1 water, fat, in-phase, out-phase, T1-weighted 3D dual-echo gradient-recalled echo pulse sequence, liver accelerated volume acquisition, corresponding water, fat, in-phase and out-phase reconstruction; MR STIR: short T1 inversion recovery sequence.

---

**Table 6** Comparison of sclerotic and lytic lesions conspicuity scores between CT and MR images

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesions' conspicuity</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lytic lesions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR STIR vs. CT</td>
<td>0.004*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 fat vs. CT</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sclerotic lesions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR STIR vs. CT</td>
<td>0.014*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 fat vs. CT</td>
<td>0.425</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CT, computed tomography; MR T1 water, fat, in-phase, out-phase, T1-weighted 3D dual-echo gradient-recalled echo pulse sequence, liver accelerated volume acquisition, corresponding water, fat, in-phase and out-phase reconstruction; MR STIR: short T1 inversion recovery sequence. *Mean conspicuity of both sclerotic and lytic lesions was significantly higher on CT imaging compared with STIR MR imaging.

---

**Table 7** Metabolic and morphologic characteristics (mean values) of \(^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}\)-positive bone lesions nonvisible on CT by location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Thorax</th>
<th>Spine</th>
<th>Pelvis</th>
<th>Extremities</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21</td>
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<tr>
<td>Metabolic characteristics</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUV(_{\text{max}})</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUV(_{\text{mean}})</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>5.4</td>
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<td>Size (mm)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 in-phase</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>19.5</td>
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<td>Genopositivity score</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 water</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 fat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 in-phase</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR T1 out-phase</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
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CT, computed tomography; \(^{18}\text{F}-\text{FDG}\), \(^{18}\text{F}\)-fluorodeoxyglucose; MR T1 water, fat, in-phase, out-phase, T1-weighted 3D dual-echo gradient-recalled echo pulse sequence, liver accelerated volume acquisition, corresponding water, fat, in-phase and out-phase reconstruction; MR STIR: short T1 inversion recovery sequence; SUV\(_{\text{max}}\), maximum standardized uptake value; SUV\(_{\text{mean}}\), mean standardized uptake value.
disease. This observation is supported by the recent work of Eibes et al. [18], who drew a similar conclusion.

The presence of $^{18}$F-FDG-positive bone lesions on PET with negative findings at CT is not uncommon and is a known clinical issue. In the study by Taira et al. [15], 27% (31 out of 113) of $^{18}$F-FDG-positive bone lesions analysed were found to be CT negative. In addition, MRI has been shown to find metastasis not visible on $^{18}$F-FDG-PET or CT imaging [9]. In an early comparison, Antoch et al. [8] reported that MRI was more accurate in evaluating the bone structure for the presence of metastasis in a study comparing the staging accuracies of whole-body MRI and PET/CT. These findings were later supported in a study by Schmidt et al. [12], where whole-body MR imaging was found to have superior sensitivity and accuracy compared with PET/CT in the detection of bone metastases [12]. Therefore, in PET/MRI, even in cases of low $^{18}$F-FDG activity, the likelihood of correct detection and staging seems to be higher than PET/CT. However, according to the results of our study, in patients with a high likelihood of metastatic bone disease, the use of PET/MRI would likely not result in improved diagnostic confidence as both PET/CT and PET/MRI would detect multiple lesions with no further therapeutic consequence.

Overall, we found an improved lesion conspicuity as well as higher reader confidence in the evaluation of PET/MRI compared with PET/CT. The lesion-by-lesion analysis showed that the highest lesion conspicuity was achieved by PET/MR imaging using the T1-weighted sequence highlighting the alterations in the bone marrow (T1 fat reconstruction). The significant increase in lesions conspicuity on MR imaging was mainly because of 21 $^{18}$F-FDG-positive bone lesions not visible on CT imaging. These lesions likely represent bone marrow infiltration that have not yet resulted in considerable change in bone density but already changed signal in MR imaging [1]. Interestingly, the mean size of these lesions was quite substantial (19.5 mm). These results are partly in agreement with a recent study with a similar number of evaluated lesions [18]. There, PET/MRI with a T1-weighted sequence in addition to the Dixon-based AC sequence was superior in lesion delineation. Several differences have to be noted compared with our study. One of the reasons for the improved delineation in this additional T1-weighted sequence might be the higher matrix compared with the Dixon sequence. However, overall detection was not significantly different. Additional differences are that the PET/CT was partly performed with contrast media compared with a non-contrast PET/MRI. In our study, we strictly used non-contrast PET/CT for our comparison. An important aspect that was evaluated in our study was the reader confidence. Interestingly, although overall lesion detection was the same between PET/CT and PET/MRI, the additionally detectable lesions on the MRI component obviously support the diagnostic confidence for the reader—a fact that cannot be neglected in clinical routine reading, again, especially in lesions with low $^{18}$F-FDG uptake.

Several studies have evaluated the important issue of differences in AC in PET imaging deriving from CT-based AC or MR-based AC. Phantom studies showed an increase in the relative error by up to 6.8% in the body and up to 31.0% for bony regions when the bones are ignored by the AC algorithm. In simulated clinical studies, the mean relative error may be as high 15% for body lesions and 30.7% for bony lesions [19]. Differences for the head and brain are lower [20]. These issues certainly have an impact on the detection of metastatic bone disease in simultaneous PET/CT/MRI. These issues are even more pronounced when simulating therapy response, where it was found that simulated PET AC leads to a considerable underestimation of tracer uptake in bone lesions. The underestimation is dependent on the lesion composition with the largest error in sclerotic lesions [21]. As we used a tridomality set-up for our evaluation, we cannot compare or comment on those differences; however, this might be considered an advantage of the tridomality set-up for scientific comparisons where no underestimation can occur. Interestingly, in our patient population, the mean conspicuity of neither lytic nor sclerotic lesions was significantly different on T1 imaging compared with CT density. However, there was a difference in sclerotic and lytic lesions compared with STIR. This is remarkable, because usually—in MR imaging—fat-saturated T2 imaging is considered the ideal sequence to search for the major pathologies and especially bone lesions [22,23]. In PET/MRI (or PET/CT-MRI), the PET component is always available (no choice), but one has a choice which sequences are being used in the MR part of the examination. Thus, in the context of PET/MR, the sequences of choice might be different from those in MR imaging alone.

Limitation
The possible limitation of the study is that only $^{18}$F-FDG-positive bone lesions were selected for the analysis. Thus, evaluation of benign lesions is not part of this study. Histological verification of $^{18}$F-FDG-positive bone lesions was not always possible (and ethically not justifiable), but all patients had histological verification of their primary disease and the available imaging and clinical data were used to assess the analysed lesions on the basis of standard imaging criteria. We did not evaluate a possible clinical impact of PET/MR versus PET/CT in our patient population.

Conclusion
PET/MRI offers higher diagnostic confidence and an improved conspicuity in bone metastases compared with PET/CT. However, the overall detection rate was not
different. The highest possible clinical impact of PET/MRI appears to be in patients with limited early bone metastatic disease.

Acknowledgements
This research project was supported by an institutional research grant from GE Healthcare. Research by Andrei Samarin was supported by the European Union through the European Regional Development Fund.

Conflicts of interest
Patrick Veit-Haibach received IIS Grants from Bayer Healthcare, Siemens Medical Solutions, Roche Pharmaceutical and speaker fees from GE Healthcare. Gustav von Schulthess is a grant recipient from GE Healthcare and receives speaker fees from GE Healthcare. For the remaining authors there are no conflicts of interest.

References

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ELULOOKIRJELDUS

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Kodakondsus: Eesti
E-posti aadress: andrei.samarin@regionaalhaigla.ee

2. Hariduskäik

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<tr>
<td>09/2005 - 10/2005</td>
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</table>

6. Teadustegevus

Ainevahetuse ja morfoloogia hübriidkuvamine positronemissioontomograafia, magnetresonantstomograafia ja kompuutertomograafia abil

7. Artiklid rahvusvahelistes eelretsentseeritavates ajakirjades (ETIS 1.1):


CURRICULUM VITAE

1. Personal data

Name   Andrei Šamarin
Date and place of birth  22.07.1979
E-mail address   andrei.samarin@regionaalhaigla.ee

2. Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational institution</th>
<th>Graduation year</th>
<th>Education (field of study/degree)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tallinn University of Technology</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Doctoral study/ PhD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tartu University</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Radiology residency /Radiologist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tartu University</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Faculty of Medicine/ MD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Language competence/skills (fluent, average, basic skills)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>Native language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonian</td>
<td>Fluent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>Fluent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>Basic skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Special courses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Educational or other organisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>03/2013</td>
<td>University Hospital Zurich, Switzerland - scientific visit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02/2011 - 11/2011</td>
<td>University Hospital Zurich, Switzerland - PET/MR imaging research fellowship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02/2010 - 03/2010</td>
<td>University Hospital Zurich, Switzerland - PET/CT imaging clinical fellowship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09/2005 - 10/2005</td>
<td>Armed Forces Institute of Pathology (AFIP), Washington, DC, USA - six week radiologic pathology correlation course</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Professional employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Since 2007</td>
<td>North Estonia Medical Centre Foundation</td>
<td>Radiologist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since 2014</td>
<td>Tallinn University of Technology, Technomedicum of TUT, Centre of Cardiology</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02/2011 - 11/2011</td>
<td>University Hospital Zurich, Switzerland</td>
<td>Research fellow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005–2007</td>
<td>North Estonia Medical Centre Foundation</td>
<td>radiology resident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003–2004</td>
<td>Tartu University Hospital</td>
<td>radiology resident</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Research activity

Hybrid PET/MR and PET/CT imaging of metabolism and morphology

7. Publications in international peer-reviewed journals (ETIS 1.1):


DISSERTATIONS DEFENDED AT TALLINN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY ON
NATURAL AND EXACT SCIENCES

33. **Merike Peld.** Substituted Apatites as Sorbents for Heavy Metals. 2005.
34. **Vitali Syritski.** Study of Synthesis and Redox Switching of Polypyrrole and Poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene) by Using in-situ Techniques. 2004.
41. **Maksim Säkki.** Intermittency and Long-Range Structurization of Heart Rate. 2005.
47. **Maria Kulp.** Capillary Electrophoretic Monitoring of Biochemical Reaction Kinetics. 2006.
49. **Lyudmila Chekulayeva.** Photosensitized Inactivation of Tumor Cells by Porphyrins and Chlorins. 2006.
52. Angela Ivask. Luminescent Recombinant Sensor Bacteria for the Analysis of Bioavailable Heavy Metals. 2006.
72. Vilja Mardla. Inhibition of Platelet Aggregation with Combination of Antiplatelet Agents. 2008.
82. Anna Menaker. Electrosynthesized Conducting Polymers, Polyppyrrrole and Poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene), for Molecular Imprinting. 2009.


106. Ove Pärn. Sea Ice Deformation Events in the Gulf of Finland and This Impact on Shipping. 2011.


125. Indrek Reile. 3-Alkylecyclopentane-1,2-Diones in Asymmetric Oxidation and Alkylation Reactions. 2012.
160. Irina Stulova. The Effects of Milk Composition and Treatment on the Growth of Lactic Acid Bacteria. 2013.
175. Sigrid Hade. GIS Applications in the Studies of the Palaeozoic Graptolite Argillite and Landscape Change. 2014.
189. Sven Siir. Internal Geochemical Stratification of Bentonites (Altered Volcanic Ash Beds) and its Interpretation. 2015.
193. Sergei Žari. Organocatalytic Asymmetric Addition to Unsaturated 1,4-Dicarbonyl Compounds. 2015.
198. Ieva Grudzinska. Diatom Stratigraphy and Relative Sea Level Changes of the Eastern Baltic Sea over the Holocene. 2015.