

21. Mathias CJ, Welch MJ, Green MA, et al. In vivo comparison of copper blood-pool agents: potential radiopharmaceuticals for use with copper-62. *J Nucl Med* 1991;32:475-482.
22. Anderson CJ, Connett JM, Schwarz SW, et al. Copper-64 labeled antibodies for PET imaging. *J Nucl Med* 1992;33:1685-1691.
23. van Lier JE. Phthalocyanines as sensitizers for the PDT of cancer. In: Kessel D, ed. *Photodynamic therapy of neoplastic disease*, volume 1. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press; 1990:279-291.
24. van Lier JE, Brasseur N, Paquette B, et al. Phthalocyanines as sensitizers for photodynamic therapy of cancer. *NATO ASI Series* 1988;H15: 435-444.
25. Rousseau J, Langlois R, Ali H, van Lier JE. Biological activities of phthalocyanines: synthesis, tumor uptake and biodistribution of ^{14}C -labeled disulfonated and trisulfonated gallium phthalocyanine in C3H mice. *J Photochem Photobiol B* 1990;6:121-132.
26. Rousseau J, Boyle RW, MacLennan AH, Truscott G, van Lier JE. Biodistribution and tumor uptake of [^{67}Ga]chlorogallium-tetraoctadecyloxy phthalocyanine and its sulfonation products in tumor bearing C3H mice. *Nucl Med Biol* 1991;18:777-782.
27. Rousseau J, Autenrieth D, van Lier JE. Synthesis, tissue distribution and tumor uptake of [$^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$]tetrasulfophthalocyanine. *Int J Appl Radiat Isot* 1983;34:571-579.
28. Rousseau J, Ali H, Lamoureux G, LeBel E, van Lier JE. Synthesis, tissue distribution and tumor uptake of $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ - and ^{67}Ga -tetrasulfophthalocyanine. *Int J Appl Radiat Isot* 1985;36:709-716.
29. Scasnar V, van Lier JE. Biological activities of phthalocyanines—XV. Radiolabeling of the differently sulfonated ^{67}Ga -phthalocyanines for photodynamic therapy and tumor imaging. *Nucl Med Biol* 1993;20:257-262.
30. Weber JH, Busch DH. Complexes derived from strong field ligands: XIX. Magnetic properties of transition metal derivatives of 4, 4', 4'', 4'''-tetrasulfophthalocyanines. *Inorg Chem* 1965;4:469-471.
31. Lecomte R, Cadorette J, Rodrigue S, et al. A PET camera simulator with multispectral data acquisition capabilities. *IEEE Trans Nucl Sci* 1993;40: 1067-1074.
32. Alpert NM, Barker WC, Gelman A, Weise S, Senda M, Correia JA. The precision of positron emission tomography: theory and measurement. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab* 1991;11:A26-A30.
33. Erlandsson K, Ivanovic M, Strand SE, Sjögren K, Weber DA. High resolution pinhole SPECT for small animal imaging [Abstract]. *J Nucl Med* 1993;34:9P.
34. Jaszczak RJ, Li J, Wang H, Zalutsky MR, Coleman RE. Pinhole collimation for ultra-high resolution small field of view SPECT studies [Abstract]. *J Nucl Med* 1993;34:10P.
35. Rogers WL, Slosar J, Hua L, Chiao P, Zhang Y, Clinthorne NH. A high resolution slit aperture for imaging small animals with SPECT [Abstract]. *J Nucl Med* 1993;34:9P.

EDITORIAL

Are Animal Scanners Really Necessary for PET?

For nuclear medicine not only to survive, but also to prosper, it must constantly seek out new radiopharmaceuticals that yield more information about tissue physiology than can be obtained by any other imaging modality. This process of radiopharmaceutical development is difficult, time-consuming and hindered by the lack of suitable instrumentation to facilitate evaluation of tracer pharmacokinetics (1,2).

Novel pharmaceuticals are routinely being developed at considerable cost. Human tumor lines have been successfully replicated in animals. Both these initiatives benefit from imaging procedures that can determine the interaction of drugs on regional metabolism, blood flow, and receptor occupancy and the extent of therapeutic intervention (3). Hence, radiopharmaceutical imaging is poised to play an even greater role in diagnosis, characterization and management of disease and dysfunction.

Two steps are entailed in the development of new radiopharmaceuticals that foster this approach: (1) synthesis

and purification of a radiopharmaceutical, followed by (2) biodistribution and imaging studies to determine regional localization of the tracer. The easiest developmental path for new agents is by PET, since these agents are directly compatible with natural and man-made biomolecules. Incorporation of nuclides such as ^{13}N , ^{11}C and ^{18}F , is usually more straightforward than developing complex chelates from classical nuclear medicine nuclides such as $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ and ^{111}In . The short half-life of PET nuclides can be helpful when utilized for human studies (a lower patient dose is required and repeatability of imaging procedures is good), but they can also hinder successful tracer development (specific activity is reduced over time, rapid synthesis and quality assurance procedures are required, long incorporation times are not possible, and biodistribution studies are very difficult). But radiochemists have the ability to develop many more PET radiopharmaceuticals than can be thoroughly tested. Why? Quite simply, it takes too long to realistically evaluate whether a new radiopharmaceutical can be used to successfully visualize the desired physiological or biochemical parameter for which it was designed. Animal biodistribution

studies must be performed for each new agent prior to undertaking human imaging (4-6). Numerous animals are required to gather limited amounts of kinetic data. The early uptake phase of a rapidly cleared tracer is difficult to measure by these techniques. Inter-animal variability further increases the number of animals that must be killed. The cost and more importantly, the effort to collect biodistribution data for a few time points along this uptake process are significant, and become even more difficult when short half-life PET nuclides are used. Furthermore, conventional biodistribution methods of dissection provide no regional tissue uptake information.

In this issue of the *Journal* Marriott and coworkers present information about measuring biodistribution and regional uptake of PET radiopharmaceuticals in small animals (7). This builds upon their previous work (8) and employs avalanche photodiode detectors coupled to conventional BGO scintillator material. This work embodies two important issues, namely use of a dedicated small PET scanner for animal imaging and the development of new PET detector technology. The unique feature of their tomograph design is the application of the avalanche photodiode as the main

Received May 23, 1994; accepted May 23, 1994.
For correspondence or reprints contact: Richard Hichwa, Univ. of Iowa PET Imaging Center, Dept. of Radiology, Univ. of Iowa Hospital and Clinic, Iowa City, IA 52242.

detector element. The avalanche photodiode is a small, solid-state amplifier which performs well at high photon counting rates and replaces the conventional photomultiplier tube. Discrete detectors are utilized rather than a block design in order to achieve higher count rates and better resolution (9,10). The avalanche photodiode may indeed provide a necessary breakthrough for reducing costs of commercial PET scanners.

The concept of constructing smaller versions of PET ring tomographs for animal work using conventional technology is not new (2,3,11,12). Previously, it was just too costly to build a device for such a small market. The complexity and lack of recognition of need have stymied acceptance of specialized animal PET scanners. The approximate resolution of PET scanners used for human imaging is currently 4–5 mm FWHM in all dimensions. This is not good enough to clearly visualize animal tissues in the submillimeter range. Dedicated animal scanners for PET imaging must be capable of at least 1–2 mm FWHM resolution to be truly useful in biodistribution studies and in measuring regional kinetic information. Imaging of animals with conventional gamma cameras and collimators, while possible, is far from optimal since the thin NaI(Tl) crystal provides only minimal sensitivity to the high energy 511 keV annihilation photons. Lastly, epidemiologic issues severely restrict the use of human facilities for animal imaging.

The need to accelerate the process of testing and selecting promising radiopharmaceuticals from a long list of potential candidates has come of age. The ability to quantitatively conduct biodistribution studies without animal sacrifice (or at best minimize it) in order to obtain complete kinetic data of tracer uptake and washout is intriguing. Marriott et al. point out limitations in their work: (1) incomplete ring geometry, (2) choice of radiopharmaceutical, and (3) the necessity of killing the animal. These specific issues do not, however, detract from the general notion that animal PET scanners are realistic and necessary tools to carry out significant radiopharmaceutical development.

In summary, more experimentation is needed to test the avalanche photodiode system for stability, linearity and count rate performance. PET scanners that employ these devices will push the conventional limits of resolution, sensitivity and cost. But if the challenges are met, the benefits are significant. It is important to develop dedicated, high-resolution instrumentation that combines new detector technology with more rapid biodistribution analyses. The future of PET and nuclear medicine depends on new radiopharmaceuticals entering the imaging arena more rapidly and at an economical cost.

Richard Hichwa
University of Iowa Hospital and Clinic
Iowa City, Iowa

REFERENCES

1. Miyaoka RS, Lewellen TK, Bice AN. Dynamic high resolution imaging of rats: design considerations. *IEEE Trans Nucl Sci* 1991;38:670–677.
2. Cutler PD, Cherry SR, Hoffman EJ, et al. Design features and performance of a PET system for animal research. *J Nucl Med* 1993;33:595–604.
3. Ingvar M, Eriksson L, Rogers GA, et al. Rapid feasibility studies of tracers for positron emission tomography: high-resolution PET in small animals with kinetic analysis. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab* 1991;11:926–931.
4. Fowler JS, Volkow ND, Wolf AP, et al. Mapping cocaine binding sites in human and baboon brain in vivo. *Synapse* 1989;4:371–377.
5. Reith MEA, Sershen H, Lajtha. Binding sites for [³H]cocaine in mouse striatum and cerebral cortex have different kinetics. *J Neurochem* 1986;46:309–312.
6. Kessler RM, Ansari MS, de Paulis T, et al. High affinity dopamine D2 receptor radioligands. 1. Regional rat brain distribution of iodinated benzamides. *J Nucl Med* 1991;32:1593–1600.
7. Marriott CJ, Cadorette JE, Lecomte R, Scasnar V, Rousseau J, van Lier JE. High-resolution PET imaging and quantitation of pharmaceutical biodistributions in a small animal using avalanche photodiode detectors. *J Nucl Med* 1994;35:1390–1396.
8. Lecomte R, Cadorette J, Rodrigue S, et al. A PET camera simulator with multispectral data acquisition capabilities. *IEEE Trans Nucl Sci* 1993;40:1067–1074.
9. Casey ME, Nutt R. A multi-crystal two dimensional BGO detector system for positron emission tomography. *IEEE Trans Nucl Sci* 1986;33:460–463.
10. Derenzo SE, Huesman RH, Cahoon JL, et al. A positron tomograph with 600 BGO crystals and 2.6 mm resolution. *IEEE Trans Nucl Sci* 1988; NS-35:659–664.
11. Rajeswaran S, Bailey DL, Hume SP, et al. 2D and 3D imaging of small animals and the human radial artery with a high resolution detector for PET. *IEEE Trans Med Imag* 1992;11:386–391.
12. Watanabe M, Uchida H, Okada H, et al. A high resolution PET for animal studies. *IEEE Trans Med Imag* 1992;11:577–580.