The $^{18}$F-fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography/computed tomography in breast cancer

Pozitronska emisiona tomografija/kompjuterizovana tomografija primenom $^{18}$F-fluorodeoksiglukoze kod karcinoma dojke

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Introduction

Breast cancer is the most common malignancy diagnosed in women. A number of 231,840 new cases of breast cancer was expected in 2015, and 40,290 women were estimated to die from breast cancer in 2015 1. In 2012 in Central Serbia, 3,186 new cases of breast cancer in women were registered and 1,175 cause-related deaths 2, 3. There is an increasing incidence and mortality of breast cancer in Vojvodina, a northern part of Serbia (Figure 1) 3.

Positron emission tomography (PET) is a modern imaging method which plays an important role in oncology. $^{18}$F-fluorodeoxyglucose ($^{18}$F-FDG) is a radiolabelled glucose analogue presenting a glucose metabolism marker. Since glucose uptake is increased in malignant tumors, $^{18}$F-FDG PET has a major performance in oncology. A quantitative measurement of FDG uptake is expressed by the standardized uptake value (SUV) and is used mostly for diagnosis and response to treatment assessment. In fact, the SUV represents a relative measure of FDG uptake in tissue and is automatically calculated by PET and PET/computed tomography (CT) scanners as follows: \( \text{SUV} = \frac{r}{a/w} \), where \( r \) is the radioactivity measured within the region of interest (ROI) in kilobecquerels per millimeter (kBq/mm), \( a \) is the decay-corrected amount of injected radiolabeled FDG (kBq), and \( w \) is the weight of the patient (g). There are several factors that affect the SUV, such as plasma glucose concentration, the amount of injected FDG, the patient size and, the time from injection to imaging which is perhaps one of the most important factors 4, 5.

$^{18}$F-FDG PET imaging is a so-called metabolic imaging because of the ability to detect malignant metabolism changes. These changes in fact, precede morphologic changes which are visualized by conventional anatomic imaging such as CT and magnetic resonance (MR).

In the last decade, PET and combined PET/CT were introduced in imaging of breast cancer. The CT part provides exact anatomic information and is used for attenuation correction of PET images. Comparing these two imaging modalities, PET/CT has been accepted to have better diagnostic accuracy than PET itself 6−8.

General considerations

Several authors have studied intensity of FDG uptake in different types of breast cancer. In comparison to ductal carcinoma, the lower FDG uptake was detected in infiltrating lobular carcinoma 9−13. This phenomenon might be explained by several reasons: lower tumor cell density, a diffuse infiltration of surrounding tissue, a low level of glucose transporter 1 (GLUT1) expression and a decreased proliferation rate in infiltrating lobular carcinoma 10, 14, 15.
It has been reported that FDG uptake strongly correlates with high tumor proliferation index (Ki67 expression measured by immunohistochemical analysis) and p53 factor status. The relation between FDG uptake and steroid hormone receptor status is still controversial. Some authors reported no correlation between hormone receptor status and SUV values. Several studies detected a higher SUV in estrogen receptor negative (ER−) than in estrogen receptor positive (ER+) tumors. In contrast to Osborne et al. who detected no correlation between the SUV and progesterone receptor status, Groheux et al. documented a significant difference in FDG uptake in progesterone receptor negative (PR−) tumors vs progesterone receptor positive (PR+) tumors. Triple-negative breast tumors (negative for estrogen and progesterone receptors, and no human epidermal growth factor-HER 2/neu overexpression) present a great subject to investigate because of their aggressiveness, poor prognosis and lack of targeted regimens. They are characterized with significantly higher SUV values than non-triple negative tumors.

**Indications**

**Primary tumor**

FDG PET or FDG PET/CT plays an important role in the diagnostic workup of breast cancer. However, it has no role in breast cancer screening due to limited spatial resolution (disability to detect tumors less than 10 mm) and the low sensitivity in less FDG-avid low-grade breast tumors. In a comparison study, Kumar et al. concluded that tumor size and tumor grade are independent factors associated with false negative results. The eight times higher chances of obtaining false negative results were detected in smaller (< 10 mm) tumors vs larger (>10 mm) tumors. Results from another study showed that breast carcinomas were identified with an overall sensitivity of 64.4% and 80.3%, respectively. FDG-PET detected only 68.2% breast cancer at stage T1, compared to 91.9% of breast malignancy stage T2. Analyzing 13 different studies, Samson et al. reported that FDG PET was 88% sensitive and 80% specific for detection of primary breast cancer showing false negative results in 12% cases. In another PET study done by Danforth et al., the primary breast cancer was accurately imaged with 90% sensitivity in early staged breast cancer (stage I, II). Moreover, 18FDG-PET is able to image locally advanced skin changes in locally advanced tumors (stage III, IV). In the same study, 18FDG-PET sensitivity for detection of the primary tumor, skin, and axillary lymph node metastases was 96%, 77%, and 83%, respectively. However, in comparison to MR, 18FDG-PET is less sensitive and accurate in the assessment of the primary tumor and screening for tumor multifocality (54% vs 77%, respectively).

With the aim to overcome the low spatial resolution of FDG-PET, a high-resolution PET scanners dedicated to breast imaging, so-called “positron emission mammography (PEM)” has been recently introduced. There are several publications based on clinical performance of PEM. In comparison to conventional whole-body PET, PEM is favorable in detection of ductal carcinoma in situ and lesions ≤ 1.0 cm. The advantages of 18FDG-PEM include: reduced attenuation, improved geometric sensitivity, higher spatial resolution, shorter acquisition time (4–10 min), easy feasibility, device mobility, gentle breast immobilization, possible PEM-guided biopsy. The limitation of the study includes imaging of posterior lesions and variable FDG uptake in small tumors.

In a recent study done by Berg et al., the efficacy of PEM was compared to MR imaging. At the lesion-level, PEM was more specific than MR (79.9% vs 65.6%) which helps in avoiding unnecessary biopsies. However, in detection of additional malignant lesions MR imaging was more sensitive than PEM which results in better assessment of disease extent and less frequent mastectomy (53% vs 41%).

As generally accepted, 18FDG-PET has no clinical role in diagnostic algorithm of suspicious breast lesions.
ever, if there is inconclusive or suspicious mammography, 
$^{18}$FDG PET may be useful. If $^{18}$FDG PET unexpectedly de-
tects FDG avid breast foci, patient needs additional conven-
tional imaging and biopsy 12.

**Axillary staging**

The status of axillary lymph nodes remains one of the most
important prognostic indicators in patients with breast cancer. Sentinel lymph node biopsy (SLNB) and axillary lymph node
dissection (ALND) are standard procedures that are used for
axillary staging. If axillary metastases are identified on SLNB, ALND is necessary. However, patients with negative SNB re-
results may avoid ALND 33.

Despite high diagnostic accuracy, both SLNB and
ALND are invasive procedures associated with morbidity,
including lymphedema. Therefore, a non-invasive $^{18}$FDG-
PET imaging has been introduced for axillary staging in bre-
ast cancer. It is a metabolic radionuclide imaging technique
that detects higher glycolytic rate of cancer cells in compari-
son to normal cells. The axillary lymph node involvement is
shown at $^{18}$F-FDG PET/CT (Figure 2).

Veronesi et al. 34 compared SLNB and $^{18}$FDG-PET ima-
ging, in detection of occult axillary metastases. Sensitivity of
$^{18}$FDG-PET scan was low (37%). However, specificity and
positive predictive values were high (96% and 88%,
respectively). The high specificity of PET imaging indicates
that patients with a PET-positive axilla should have an
ALND without SLNB for axillary staging. On the contrary,
poor sensitivity of PET scan suggests the need for SLNB in
patients with a PET-negative axilla.

A recent meta-analysis reported about lower
sensitivity and specificity of PET in comparison to SLNB. Analysis of 7 PET/CT studies on 862 patients showed the
mean sensitivity and specificity of 56% and 96%,
respectively. Across 19 PET studies on 1,729 patients the
mean sensitivity was 66% and the mean specificity 93%. In
terms of evaluation of axillary extension, $^{18}$FDG-PET can-
not replace SLNB 35. In another study, Gil-Rendo et al. 36
reported about 84.5% sensitivity and 98.5% specificity of
FDG-PET in detecting axillary involvement. Avril et al. 37
performed FDG PET in women with suspected breast can-
cer in preoperative staging. They reported the sensitivity of
79% and specificity of 96% for detection of axillary lymph
node metastases. Sensitivity increased to 94% in patients
with primary breast tumors sized more than 2 cm. Similarly,
Danforth et al. 24 suggested that sensitivity of
PET in detection of axillary metastases increases with the
stage of the disease. He reported sensitivity of 43% for sta-
ge I/II and 83% in stage III/IV.

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**Fig. 2 – a)** A 61-year-old woman with right invasive ductal breast cancer, stage pT1, underwent mastectomy,
chemotherapy and radiation followed by tamoxifen and trastuzumab (Herceptin®). Transaxial sections (a) and cor-
ronal sections (b) detect hypermetabolic lymph node in the left axilla 1.7 cm in size, SUVmax = 10, consistent with
axillary involvement.

*SUV – standardized uptake value.*

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A review by Rosen et al. suggests that $^{18}$FDG-PET has no clinical role in a routine axillary staging of early stage breast cancer. However, preoperative $^{18}$FDG-PET may be worthwhile in locally advanced and inflammatory breast cancers. In a multicentric study, detection of axillary nodal metastases by $^{18}$FDG-PET was evaluated in 360 patients with newly diagnosed invasive breast cancer. The reported sensitivity and specificity were 61% and 80%, respectively.

Distant metastases

$^{18}$FDG-PET is also important for detection of occult distant metastases. In high stage breast cancer, Alberini et al. discovered more distant lesions by PET/CT than by conventional diagnostic procedures (31% vs 10%). Some authors reported advantage of PET/CT over conventional staging and detecting metastatic involvement of internal mammary chain nodes in patients with stage II and stage III breast cancer. In a work by Carkaci et al., out of 41 studied patients with inflammatory breast cancer, 24% of mediastinal nodal metastases and 15% of liver metastases were correctly identified by PET/CT. Figure 3 shows a patient with breast cancer and liver metastasis.

In the evaluation of metastatic bone involvement, PET is complementary to bone scintigraphy which remains the standard imaging procedure. PET is superior for the detection of osteolytic and mixed bone metastases, but often fails to demonstrate blastic lesions. In contrast, bone scintigraphy is better for depicting sclerotic (blastic) lesions. In a comparison study of bone scintigraphy versus PET/CT, Nakai et al. reported on different detection rate for blastic, mixed and lytic type of lesions (100% vs 56%; 84% vs 95%; and 70% vs 100%, respectively).

In terms of accurate detection of bone metastases, $^{18}$F sodium fluoride PET seems to be better than bone scintigraphy and $^{18}$F-FDG PET/CT.

Recurrent cancer and restaging

Current diagnostic strategy for the detection of recurrent disease in patients with breast cancer includes physical examination and imaging tests such as mammography, ultrasonography (US), CT, MR and bone scintigraphy. These diagnostic tests are part of routine clinical monitoring during the course of breast cancer. In patients without clinical symptoms and with rising levels of tumors markers PET imaging alone or combined with CT (PET/CT) is useful in detection of recurrent disease. Additionally, in proven recurrent disease or in suspicious recurrence by using conventional imaging, PET/CT helps to distinguish between isolated and multiple metastatic disease.

In a recent study by Aukema et al., additional lesions not visible at conventional imaging were detected by PET/CT in 45% cases. Results of one meta-analysis indicated that MR and PET (including PET and PET/CT) had higher sensitivity than US or CT, which resulted in higher detection rate of recurrent breast cancer. However, there was no difference in sensitivity between PET and MR. Accross 28 studies included in the review Pennant et al. found that PET had a significantly higher sensitivity (89% vs 79%) and significantly higher specificity (93% vs 83%) compared with conventional imaging tests. In addition, PET/CT had a significantly higher sensitivity compared with CT (95% vs 80%) but without a significant increase in specificity (89% vs 77%). Furthermore, PET/CT had a significantly higher sensitivity compared with PET (96% vs 85%) but no significant increase in specificity (89% vs 82%). There were no significant differences in the sensitivity or specificity of PET versus MRI, and PET/CT versus MRI, respectively.

In another study by Piperkova et al., PET/CT and contrast enhanced CT were compared for initial staging in patients with breast cancer. They reported better diagnostic accuracy for PET/CT than contrast-enhanced CT: the sensitivity, specificity, accuracy, positive productive value, and negative productive value for PET/CT were 97.8%, 93.5%, 97.3%, 99.1%, and 85%, respectively, and for CE-CT were 87.6%, 42%, 82.1%, 91.6%, and 31.7%, respectively. The staging of the disease was changed in 65% of cases: 36% of patients were down-staged and 64% of patients were up-staged. PET imaging is important in restaging of breast cancer, because it might affect treatment management. An example of patient upstaging after $^{18}$FDG PET/CT is shown in Figure 4.

In a study by Eubank et al., PET revealed more lesions than CT and consequently altered therapeutic manage-

Fig. 3 – A 57-year-old woman with invasive ductal carcinoma of the left breast. The patient underwent mastectomy followed by adjuvant chemotherapy, paclitaxel (Taxol<sup>®</sup>) and trastuzumab (Herceptin<sup>®</sup>). Transaxial images show a hypermetabolic liver mass in S6 segment, 3.1cm in size, SUVmax = 12.5 corresponding to hepatic involvement. SUV – standardized uptake value.
ment in up to 44% of patients with suspected locoregional recurrent disease. $^{18}$F-FDG PET/CT may have a potential role in clinically asymptomatic patients with rising markers and negative conventional imaging (US, X-mammography, CT and MR). Radan et al. $^{51}$ reported about 90% sensitivity of $^{18}$F-FDG-PET in detection of recurrent disease. Consequently, treatment management was changed in 51% of patients. Additionally, if compared to contrast-enhanced CT, PET/CT showed better sensitivity (85% vs 70%), specificity (76% vs 47%), and accuracy (81% vs 59%). Similar results were obtained in a recent study by Drisamer et al. $^{52}$. They studied 52 patients and detected suspicious recurrence and rising tumor markers levels in 62%. PET/CT had better patient-based accuracy than CE-CT (96% vs 73%, respectively), and lesion-based sensitivity and specificity (93% vs 66% and 100% vs 92%, respectively). Grassetto et al. $^{53}$ studied patients with post-treatment rising tumor serum levels of Ca 15–3 but negative clinical examination and conventional imaging. $^{18}$F-FDG PET/CT was able to detect cancer lesions in 45% of cases. Finally, there are reports that $^{18}$F-FDG-PET/CT imaging in patients with rising CA15-3 levels alters treatment management in up to 50% $^{54,56}$.

**Monitoring of the treatment response**

Neoadjuvant or so-called preoperative chemotherapy is the initial standard treatment for patients with locally advanced breast cancer. This treatment results in a reduction of the tumor volume and is followed by conservative surgery and radiotherapy. The assessment of treatment response includes conventional methods such as physical examination, radiography, ultrasound and mammography. However, these methods are usually evaluated after completion of three cycles of chemotherapy. In addition, clinical response does not necessarily reflect the pathological response $^{57}$. Due to the fact that changes in tumor metabolism precede the tumor shrinkage, $^{18}$FDG PET is able to detect tumor response at an earlier stage than conventional imaging methods $^{58,59}$.

Evaluation of changes in FDG uptake at different time points of the systemic treatment is based on comparison between the baseline (pretherapy) PET scan and posttherapy PET scan. Some authors performed PET imaging early, after only 1 or 2 cycles, or during midtherapy, or at treatment completion. In the settings of early stage at chemotherapy, PET imaging is capable of predicting the pathologic response. In addition, PET is possible to distinguish between patients who respond to treatment (responders) and those who do not (non-responders) $^{30}$. Approximately 70% of patients demonstrate clinical response to neoadjuvant chemotherapy, but only 20% achieve pathological complete response. Since the SUV decline early in the course of chemotherapy predicts a treatment failure, the regimen should altered with aim to avoid unnecessary toxic side effects $^{60,61}$. Jung et al. $^{62}$ suggested that the reduction rate of SUV has a prognostic value after the completion of the fourth cycle of chemotherapy before surgery. They detected 70% of sensitivity and specificity when 84.8% SUV reduction was used as a cutoff value for the pathologic complete response.

In another study, Schelling et al. $^{63}$ studied the role of $^{18}$F-FDG PET in the assessment of early response to neoadjuvant chemotherapy in locally advanced and inflammatory breast cancer. Decline in SUV values by more than 55% after one cycle, was predictive of a good response with sensitivity of 100% and specificity of 85%. In addition, after one and two cycles pathologic response was predicted with accuracy of 88% and 91%, respectively.

In nonmetastatic, non-inflammatory breast cancer, Ko-lesnikov-Gouthier et al. $^{64}$ detected <15% of SUV decline after the first chemotherapy course which was used as a strong predictor for inefficient neoadjuvant chemotherapy. Additionally, a 4-year recurrence free survival rate was significantly longer in metabolic responders than non-responders (85% vs 44%, respectively).

Park et al. $^{65}$ used diffusion weighted imaging (DWI) MR and PET/CT to predict pathologic complete response to preoperative neoadjuvant chemotherapy in patients with invasive breast cancer. PET/CT showed the same sensitivity of 100% as DWI MR, but better specificity (77.8% vs 70.4%). A study by Andrade et al. $^{66}$ indicated that decrease of SUV values after the second course of neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NAC) can predict pathological response in ductal breast carcinomas, and potentially identify a subgroup of non-responding patients. Keam et al. $^{67}$ analyzed the relation between changes in $^{18}$FDG uptake and different molecular phenotype of breast cancer treated with neoadjuvant chemotherapy. During the early metabolic response, they detected that the estrogen receptor negative phenotype showed...

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a higher pre-chemotherapy SUV (8.6 vs 6.4) and reduction rate of SUV (48% vs 30%) than estrogen receptor positive phenotype. In triple negative breast cancer, the pre-chemotherapy SUV was higher than in not triple-negative breast cancer (9.8% vs 6.4%).

In another study, Rousseau et al. demonstrated the efficacy of $^{18}$F-FDG PET in the assessment of early response to neoadjuvant chemotherapy in I/II staged breast cancer. They also analyzed the variation of SUV values after the first, second, third and six chemotherapeutic cycles. After 1 cycle of chemotherapy, using a 60% decline in baseline SUV as their threshold for response, PET was 61% sensitive and 96% specific with 68% predictive negative value. After 2 cycles, PET showed better sensitivity, specificity and negative predictive value (89%, 95%, 85%, respectively). After 3 courses of chemotherapy, when compared to values obtained after the second cycle, lower sensitivity, specificity and negative predictive value of PET were detected (88%, 73%, 83%, respectively). These results may suggest possible prediction of final response to treatment.

However, if $^{18}$F-FDG PET is performed after the completion of chemotherapy residual FDG uptake may predict residual disease. In contrast, the absence of FDG uptake does not exclude residual microscopic malignancy and may not indicate pathologic response. In patients with large residual disease, $^{18}$F-FDG PET is complementary to MR to define the degree of residual mass. Moreover, if $^{18}$F-FDG PET is performed after the chemotherapy it has a prognostic value. Cachin et al. showed that negative PET scan was an indicator for a significantly better survival than PET positive scan. Additionally, $^{18}$F-FDG PET scan was the most powerful and independent predictor of survival. Patients with negative post-treatment $^{18}$F-FDG PET had a longer median survival than patients with positive $^{18}$F-FDG PET (24 months vs 10 months).

The examples of PET/CT imaging in the assessment of the treatment response are shown in Figures 5a and b, and Figures 6a and b.

**New positron emission tomography/computed tomography tracers in breast cancer imaging**

FDG is specific for increased metabolism of glucose and $^{18}$F-FDG-PET/CT is able to detect the presence of viable tumor tissue in the human body. However, the new agents that are able to target the cellular processes have been recently developed. These agents are still under investigation and are not available in the routine clinical practice. The recent development of radiolabeled-thymidine compounds allows measurement of the exact tumor proliferation. According to some authors, the $^{18}$F-fluoro-thymidine PET ($^{18}$FLT-PET) imaging has a role in the assessment of therapeutic response and prediction of response to therapy. Regarding recently published data, PET is also able to evaluate estrogen (ER) expression by using estrogen receptor ligand, $^{16}$α-$^{[18]F}$-fluoro-$^{17}$β-estradiol ($^{18}$F-FES). While increased up-
A 54-year-old woman with right invasive ductal breast cancer. Hormone receptor ER, PR positive; HER2 negative. She underwent breast quadrectomy, chemotherapy and external radiation therapy. This is the pretherapeutic PET/CT scan. The MIP image shows multiple hypermetabolic foci in the skeleton located in the spine (cervical level 2, thoracic level 6, 8 and 10, lumbar level 1, 4 and 5), 8th rib on the right and 8th rib and 10th on the left, both iliac and ischiadic bones bilaterally, left pubic bone, and right femoral diaphysis.

MIP – maximal intensity projection; PET/CT – positron emission tomography/computed tomography.

The same patient, posttherapeutic 18F-FDG PET/CT scan patient. After the completion of chemotherapy, MIP image shows persistent FDG avid foci and new hypermetabolic foci spread all over the skeleton which indicates progressive disease. This is an example of patient, who is non-responder or shows no response to the treatment.

18F-FDG – 18F-fluorodeoxyglucose. PET/CT – positron emission tomography/computed tomography; MIP – maximal intensity projection.

The future will bring the results of currently ongoing studies with new, 18F-FDG-PET, PET tracers 18FMISO-PET evaluating tumor angiogenesis, chemo resistance and metastatic potential of malignant tumors.

Conclusion

18F-FDG PET/CT is new non-invasive whole-body imaging of breast cancer. In particular, it helps in staging of recurrent or metastatic cancer and in evaluating the treatment response in patients with locally advanced and metastatic disease. Besides evaluation of increased glucose metabolism by FDG-PET, recently developed radiotracers have the ability to assess receptor expression, tumor cell proliferation and tumor viability in patients with breast tumors. However, future molecular imaging studies are necessary for better understanding of tumor biology and behavior. This is directly connected with the development of new PET agents and their introduction in clinical practice.
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