

Review **Contribution of [18F]FET PET in the Management of Gliomas, from Diagnosis to Follow-Up: A Review**

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Abstract: Gliomas, the most common type of primary malignant brain tumors in adults, pose significant challenges in diagnosis and management due to their heterogeneity and potential aggressiveness. This review evaluates the utility of $O-(2-[18F]fluoroethyl)-L-tyrosine([18F]FET)$ positron emission tomography (PET), a promising imaging modality, to enhance the clinical management of gliomas. We reviewed 82 studies involving 4657 patients, focusing on the application of $[18F]FET$ in several key areas: diagnosis, grading, identification of IDH status and presence of oligodendroglial component, guided resection or biopsy, detection of residual tumor, guided radiotherapy, detection of malignant transformation in low-grade glioma, differentiation of recurrence versus treatment-related changes and prognostic factors, and treatment response evaluation. Our findings confirm that $[18F]FET$ helps delineate tumor tissue, improves diagnostic accuracy, and aids in therapeutic decision-making by providing crucial insights into tumor metabolism. This review underscores the need for standardized parameters and further multicentric studies to solidify the role of $[18F]FET$ PET in routine clinical practice. By offering a comprehensive overview of current research and practical implications, this paper highlights the added value of $[$ ¹⁸F]FET PET in improving management of glioma patients from diagnosis to follow-up.

Keywords: neuro-oncology; glioma; fluoroethyltyrosine (FET); PET; nuclear medicine

1. Introduction

Gliomas represent the majority of primary malignant brain tumors in adults, with a yearly incidence of approximately 6 per 100,000 in Europe [\[1\]](#page-56-0). They are categorized according to the World Health Organization (WHO) classification into grades ranging from 1 to 4 depending on their malignancy [\[2\]](#page-56-1). Glioblastoma, the most aggressive and common type of glioma, remains incurable with an almost systematic progression within the year and a median survival of 14.6 months despite optimal treatment [\[3\]](#page-56-2).

In high-grade tumors, treatment usually consists of maximal resection of the tumor (if feasible) followed by chemotherapy and radiotherapy depending on tumor grade and analysis of molecular markers (i.e., 1p/19q codeletion, IDH mutation, and MGMT promoter methylation) [\[4\]](#page-56-3). Treatment of grade 4 gliomas, the same since 2005, is based on the so-called "Stupp protocol", which includes concomitant radiochemotherapy with Temozolomide [\[3\]](#page-56-2).

Patients' monitoring consists of MRI before and after treatment with periodic followup. An increase in enhancing areas is considered suspect of recurrence according to the

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Response Assessment in Neuro-Oncology (RANO) criteria but is not specific [\[5\]](#page-56-4). Indeed, frequent post-radiation changes such as pseudoprogression and radionecrosis can cause the same type of suspicious gadolinium-enhancing lesion.

Pseudoprogression typically occurs several weeks up to months (often less than 3 months) after completion of radiotherapy. This phenomenon is responsible for a transitory worsening of MR imaging with an increased contrast enhancement area, resolving without changes in treatment on subsequent MRI scans. There is generally no symptom associated.

Radionecrosis is a severe reaction to radiotherapy, which generally occurs later, months to several years after radiation therapy. MRI findings involve a space-occupying necrotic lesion with a mass effect, which can cause neurological dysfunction.

MRI changes can also be induced by treatments such as corticosteroids, antiangiogenic therapy, or immunotherapy.

For these reasons, there is a need to find other reliable methods to differentiate glioma recurrence from treatment-related changes, given the different managements of these two processes.

Different MRI techniques have been implemented in this indication, such as diffusion weighted imaging (DWI) [\[6\]](#page-56-5), perfusion-weighted imaging (PWI) [\[7\]](#page-56-6), and magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) [\[8\]](#page-56-7).

In nuclear medicine, positron emission tomography using 2-deoxy-2-[18F]fluoro-Dglucose ($\rm I^{18}$ FJFDG) has already proven itself in oncology imaging and has become common practice in numerous pathologies. However, its physiologically high brain metabolism and increased uptake in inflammatory lesions make it difficult to appreciate tumor uptake [\[9\]](#page-56-8).

Radiolabeled amino acids are preferred in neuro-oncology due to low uptake in normal brain tissue contrasting with increased uptake in neoplastic processes, resulting in a better signal-to-noise ratio [\[10\]](#page-56-9).

The most widely used amino acid tracers for PET are $[{}^{11}C$ -methyl]-methionine ($[{}^{11}C$]MET), O-(2-[¹⁸F]fluoroethyl)-L-tyrosine ([¹⁸F]FET), and 3,4dihydroxy-6-[¹⁸F]fluoro-L-phenylalanine $(I^{18}F|F-DOPA)$ (Table [1\)](#page-1-0). Their uptake is believed to be driven by an overexpression of the L-type amino-acid transporter (LAT) by brain tumors (Figure [1\)](#page-2-0).

Table 1. Comparative table of different radiolabeled amino acids.

Figure 1. Radiolabeled amino acids O-(2-[¹⁸F]fluoroethyl)-L-tyrosine ([¹⁸F]FET), [¹¹C-methyl]methionine ($[11C]$ MET), and L-3,4-dihydroxy-6- $[18F]$ fluoro-phenyl-alanine ($[18F]$ FDOPA) metabolic pathways. Molecular structures (**A**) and associated uptake mechanism (**B**) of each radiolabeled pathways. Molecular structures (**A**) and associated uptake mechanism (**B**) of each radiolabeled amino pathways. *Morecular structures* (1) and asseted acid. Created with [BioRender.com.](BioRender.com)

[18F]FET market authorizations have been delivered in Europe recently, enabling its *Detailed Description of different radiolabeled amino acids*

$11C$ -Methionine ($\left[$ ¹¹C]MET)

Mechanism: $[11C]$ MET is an amino acid analog taken up by tumor cells via the L-type amino acid transporter (LAT). It reflects increased protein synthesis, which is often elevated in gliomas.

Advantages: High sensitivity in detecting both low- and high-grade gliomas; more effective in high-grade gliomas [\[11\]](#page-56-10). Provides rapid uptake and good contrast between and in monitoring therapy response [\[13\]](#page-57-1). tumor and normal brain tissue. It is particularly effective to detect tumor recurrence [\[12\]](#page-57-0)

Disadvantages: The short half-life of ¹¹C (about 20 min) necessitates the use of an on-site cyclotron, limiting its use to specialized centers. $[$ ¹¹C]MET may also accumulate in inflammatory tissues, leading to potential false positives [\[14\]](#page-57-2).

[¹⁸F]F-DOPA

Mechanism: [¹⁸F]F-DOPA is a precursor to dopamine and is taken up by dopaminergic neurons, with uptake also observed in gliomas due to increased amino acid transport and altered tumor metabolism. It is decarboxylated to dopamine and subsequently trapped in cells.

Advantages: The longer half-life of ${}^{18}F$ (about 110 min) allows for broader clinical application as it can be transported from off-site production facilities. It has high sensitivity for gliomas [\[15\]](#page-57-3) and is particularly useful in differentiating between tumor recurrence and radiation necrosis [\[16\]](#page-57-4).

Disadvantages: Uptake of [18F]F-DOPA in inflamed tissues can lead to false-positive results [\[17\]](#page-57-5).

 $18F$ -Fluoroethyl-L-tyrosine ([$18F$]FET)

Mechanism: $[18F]FET$ is an artificial amino acid taken up by glioma cells via LAT, reflecting the increased amino acid transport associated with tumor proliferation.

Advantages: $[18F]FET$ has a longer half-life, like $18F-DOPA$, allowing it to be produced off-site. It has high sensitivity for gliomas, especially high-grade gliomas [\[18\]](#page-57-6), with low uptake in inflammatory lesions, making it particularly effective in distinguishing tumor recurrence from treatment-induced changes. Additionally, dynamic acquisition allows information on tracer kinetics, particularly useful for tumor grading [\[19\]](#page-57-7).

Disadvantages: Though it offers high specificity. There is also potential, though reduced, for uptake in inflammatory tissues [\[20\]](#page-57-8).

While recent meta-analyses report high sensitivity and specificity of both ¹⁸F-DOPA and $[{}^{18}F]FET$ to differentiate true progression to treatment-related changes, there are still discrepancies in determining the best radiolabeled amino acid [\[21](#page-57-9)[–23\]](#page-57-10).

[¹⁸F]FET market authorizations have been delivered in Europe recently, enabling its widespread use in hospitals.

Its high efficiency production and its half-life of 110 min allow its transportation to other sites. For these reasons, it is being increasingly used in glioma management in Europe.

In the present review, we aimed to summarize its performance in different indications in low- and high-grade gliomas.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Search Strategy

The primary literature was searched up to 31 December 2023, using the PubMed database.

A combination of the search terms «PET», «FET» OR «amino acid» OR «fluoroethyltyrosine» OR «fluoroethylltyrosine», «Glioma» OR «brain tumor», «pediatric», and «neurooncology» were used. The screening of abstracts and full-text articles was performed by one reviewer (J.A.R.).

Inclusion criteria were studies in English, using FET, and in humans with a full text available.

Exclusion criteria included studies that included less than 20 patients, did not report on diagnostic test parameters or metrics representing impact on clinical management decisions and/or survival outcomes, did not give information about histology or tumor grades, and studies that included other malignancies. We also excluded studies that did not include histological confirmation or follow-up.

2.2. Data Synthesizing

For each study, the indication, principal author, publication year, study design, number of patients, grade, age, sex, type of imaging modality, test parameter, cut-off used, and their performances were recorded.

3. Results

3.1. Literature Search

We selected 152 studies according to their title and abstract, but upon full-text review, 70 studies were excluded (Figure [2\)](#page-33-0).

The remaining 82 studies [\[19,](#page-57-7)[24](#page-57-11)[–104\]](#page-61-0) were included in this review, with a total of 4657 patients. Details of these study characteristics can be found in Table [2.](#page-4-0)

Table 2. Characteristics of the 82 included studies. §: did not reach significance, &: did not reach significance after Bonferroni multiple-test correction, #: significance

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Indication Author, *Reference* **Design Number of** *Ratients* **Patients Grade Mean Age Sex Imaging Modality Parameters Optimal Sensitivity Specificity AUC Accuracy** PET/MRI TBR30–40 min + TTP + rCBVcor + nADC - 78% 92% 0.891 Werner
et al., 2021 et al., 2021 [\[66\]](#page-59-12) Retrospective 23 Grade 4:23 58 13 M 10 F PET TBRmax 2.85 64% 92% 0.75 78%
et al., 2021 TBRmean 1.95 82% 92% 0.77 87% Slope § 0.02 cr N/ α $\frac{0.02}{\text{SUV/h}}$ 73% 75% 0.72 74% TTP 35 min 64% 83% 0.82 74% TBRmax + TTP $\qquad \qquad 2.85$ and $\qquad \qquad 35$ min 35 min 36% 100% - 70% TBRmean + TTP 1.95 and 35 min $\frac{35 \text{ min}}{35 \text{ min}}$ 55% 100% - 78% MRI RANO criteria § - 30% 79% - 58% Galldiks
et al., 2015 et al., 2015 [\[67\]](#page-59-13) Retrospective 22 Grade 4:22 56 14 M 8 F PET TBRmax 2.3 100% 91% 0.94 96%
et al., 2015 TBRmean 2.0 82% 82% 0.91 82% Kinetic pattern II/III - - - - - - - - -TBRmax+ Kinetic pattern 2.3 and $\frac{II}{III}$ $\frac{1}{11}$ 11I 80% 91% - 86% TBRmean+ Kinetic pattern 2.0 and $\frac{II}{III}$ $\frac{1}{11}$ 60% 91% - 76% Werner
et al., 2019 et al., 2019 [\[68\]](#page-59-14) Retrospective 48 Grade 3:8 50 29 M 19 F PET TBRmax 1.95 100% 79% 0.89 83%
et al., 2019 Grade 4:40 TBRmean 1.95 100% 79% 0.89 83% TTP 32.5 min 80% 69% 0.79 72% Slope 0.32 $\frac{0.52}{\text{SUV/h}}$ 70% 75% 0.82 74% TBRmax/mean + **TTP** 1.95 and 1.95 and 89% 91% - 90% TBRmax/mean + Slope 1.95 and 0.32 SI IV/h 78% 97% - 93%

Indication Author, *Reference* **Design Number of** *Ratients* **Patients Grade Mean Age Sex Imaging Modality Parameters Optimal Sensitivity Specificity AUC Accuracy** DWI-MRI Visual visual $-$ 70% 66% - 67%
assessment § ADC § 1.09×10^{-3} $\frac{1.09 \times 10^{-6}}{\text{mm}^2/\text{s}}$ 60% 71% 0.73 69% PET/MRI TBRmax/mean + ADC - 67% 94% - 89% Lohmann
et al., 2020 et al., 2020 [\[69\]](#page-59-15) Retrospective 34 Grade 3:1 57 21 M 13 F PET TBRmax 2.25 81% 67% 0.79 74% Grade 4:33 TBRmean 1.95 75% 61% 0.73 68% TTP § 25 min 75% 44% 0.61 59% Slope § 0.3 SUV/h 56% 61% 0.55 59% TBRmean +
TBRmax TBRmax - 75% 72% - 74% TBRmean + TTP - 69% 78% - 74% TBRmean + Slope § - 50% 78% - 65% $TRRmax + TTP$ - 69% 83% - 76% $TBRmax + Slope$ - 50% 89% - 71% $TTP + Slope \, \S$ - 56% 61% - 59% TBRmax + 1 BKmax +

TBRmean + TTP - 69% 89% - 79% Radiomics features - 100% 40% 0.74 70% Kebir et al.,
2016 2016 [\[70\]](#page-59-16) Retrospective 26 Grade 4:26 58 21 M 5 F PET TBRmax 1.9 84% 86% 0.88 85%
2016 TBRmean 1.9 74% 86% 0.86 77% TAC II/III 84% 100% - 89% TTP - - - - 0.86 -Rachinger
et al., 2005 et al., 2005 [\[71\]](#page-59-17) Retrospective 45 Grade 1:1 45 23 M 22 F PET SUVmax 2.2 100% 93% Grade 2:10 MRI Volume/Gdenhancing area ∆25%/new area 94% 50%

Indication Author, *Reference* **Design Number of** *Ratients* **Patients Grade Mean Age Sex Imaging Modality Parameters Optimal Sensitivity Specificity AUC Accuracy** PET/MRI rCBVmax + TBRmax + Slope # - 98% 43% - 87% Pöpperl
et al., 2006 et al., 2006 [\[75\]](#page-60-1) Prospective 24 Grade 3:5 49 15 M 9 F PET Tumax/BG # 2.0 100% 78% Grade 4:19 **Tumax/BG** # 2.1 97% 91% 91% Tumax/BG # 2.2 82% 95% Tumax/BG # 2.3 74% 98% Tumax/BG # 2.4 74% 100% Tumax/BG # 2.5 62% 100% Visual analysis # Nodular vs. nonnodular 94% 94% Müller
et al., 2022 et al., 2022 [\[76\]](#page-60-2) Retrospective 151 Grade 2:28 52 97 M 54 F PET TBRmax - - - - Grade 3:40 TBRmean - - - - Grade $4:83$ TBRmax + TBRmean # $-$ 66% 80% 0.78 Radiomics kadiomics
features # 73% 80% 0.85 TBRmax + TBRmean + radiomics features # - 81% 70% 0.85 Mehrkens
et al., 2008 et al., 2008 [\[77\]](#page-60-3) Prospective 31 Grade 2:17 46 17 M 14 F PET SUVmax/BG § 2.0 Grade 3:6 Grade 4:8 Galldiks
et al., 2015 et al., 2015 [\[78\]](#page-60-4) Retrospective 124 Grade 2:55 52 81 M 43 F PET TBRmax 2.3 68% 100% 0.85 71%
et al., 2015 Grade 3:19 TBRmean 2.0 74% 91% 0.91 75% Grade 4:50 TTP 45 min 82% 73% 0.81 81%

Indication Author, *Reference* **Design Number of** *Ratients* **Patients Grade Mean Age Sex Imaging Modality Parameters Optimal Sensitivity Specificity AUC** Accuracy Non-overlap, $VolMRI + Vol >$ 40% SUVmax - Pyka et al., 2014 [\[93\]](#page-60-19) Retrospective 34 Grade 1:2 41 22 M 12 F PET TBRmax 2.5 2.5 0.696 Grade 2:19 TBRmean 2.3 0.696 Grade 3:3 TTP 20 min 0.848 Grade 4:10 Peak TBR 2.2 0.704 Slope-to-peak $7 \times 10^{-5}/s$ 0.711 Wollring
et al., 2022 Wollring [\[94\]](#page-61-1) Retrospective 36 Grade 3:8 54 20 M 16 F PET New distant FET
et al., 2022 [94] Retrospective 36 Grade 3:8 54 20 M 16 F PET hotspot New distant FET Yes vs. no
hotspot Yes vs. no Grade 4:28 TBRmax change 0% TBRmean FDKmean 0% change § 10% MTV change 0% TTP change § 0% MRI RANO criteria SD/PR/CR vs. PD Bauer
et al., 2020 et al., 2020 [\[95\]](#page-61-2) Retrospective 60 Grade 3:15 55 35 M 25 F PET TBRmax § 2.55 70% 57% 0.63 Grade 4:45 TBRmean § 2.05 60% 70% 0.69 MTV § 11.15 mL 72% 54% 0.56 TTP 25 min 90% 87% 0.90 Slope § -0.103 $\frac{-0.103}{\text{SUV/h}}$ 70% 90% 0.77 Piroth
et al., 2011 et al., 2011 [\[96\]](#page-61-3) Prospective 44 Grade 4:44 57 $16 M 28 F$ PET VolTBR ≥ 1.6 25 mL VolTBR ≥ 2.0 10 mL TBRmax 2.4 TBRmean 2.0 MRI Gd-volume § 10 mL

Figure 2. Flowchart of the literature selection*.* **Figure 2.** Flowchart of the literature selection.

Table 2. Characteristics of the 82 included studies. §: did not reach significance, &: did not reach Regarding PET parameters, we noticed a high variability in the determination of tumor region of interest (ROI) with an impact on the subsequent calculation of tumor-to-brain ratios (TBRs). We consequently sorted different TBRs according to the methodology used to obtain them (Table [3\)](#page-33-1) in order to be able to compare their performances and then grouped every PET parameter in Table [4.](#page-34-0) We signified the change of parameters in the legend of Table [4](#page-34-0) by writing the name of the parameter used in the table and the name of the original parameter(s) corresponding to this approach.

Table 3. Different tumor-to-brain ratios and the methodology used to obtain them.

Table 4. Summary of PET parameters. *: reached significance, X: did not reach significance, &: did not stay significant after Bonferroni multiple-test correction, NA: not available. TBR_{max}: L_{max}/B, SUV_{max}/BG, LNR, TNR, LBR_{max}, T/Wm, TBR_{max(20–40min)}, T_{max}/B, maximum FET uptake, Tu_{max}/BG; TBR_{3SD}: L_{mean}/B, mean FET uptake; TBR_{25mm2}: TBR, FET ratio; TBR_{10mm}: TBR_{mean}; TBR_{16mm}: TBR_{mean}, TBR_{max}; TBR_{70%}: SUV₇₀/BG; TBR_{80%}: SUV₈₀/BG; TBR: UR, FET lesion/brain ratio, FET uptake, tumor/brain tissue ratio, TBR_{mean}, TBR_{max}; TAC: kinetic pattern, curve pattern; TTP: Tpeak; BTV: volume, MTV, Vol, T_{vol 1.6}; radiomic features: textural parameters.

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Grade 3 vs. 4 1 HGG Complexity 0.069 - - - 0.633 * *

 HGG and HGG

1 HGG SUV_{mean}/BG pre re-RT 2.2 - - X X

3.2. Diagnosis

Four prospective studies [\[24–](#page-57-11)[27\]](#page-57-23) evaluated the performance of $[18F]FET PET$ in patients with cerebral lesions suspicious of glioma. Each study chose a different method of TBR determination to detect glioma tissue with a threshold of 1.6 in two of them [\[26,](#page-57-24)[27\]](#page-57-23), resulting in a sensitivity of 88 to 92% and a specificity of 81 to 88%.

3.3. Grading

Thirteen studies [\[19](#page-57-7)[,28–](#page-57-25)[39\]](#page-58-20) evaluated the performance of $[18F]FET$ PET in glioma grading. Most studies aimed at differentiating low-grade gliomas (LGGs) from high-grade gliomas (HGGs). Multiple TBR methods were used, with a predominance of maximum tumor-to-brain ratio (TBR $_{\text{max}}$) with sensitivity and specificity ranging from 67 to 92% and 61 to 85%, respectively. Dynamic parameters and notably tumor-activity curves (TAC) had better performance, with a sensitivity of 73 to 96% and a specificity of 63 to 100%.

Notably, one study by Lohmann et al. [\[31\]](#page-57-26) chose to supplement dynamic imaging from 0 to 50 min post-injection (p.i.) with an additional acquisition from 70 to 90 min p.i. The goal was to compare conventional dynamic imaging to dual-time-point imaging: one acquisition from 20 to 40 min p.i. and a delayed second acquisition from 70 to 90 min p.i. Mean tumor-to-brain ratio (TBR_{mean}) change and TAC achieved similar accuracy of 81% and 83%, respectively.

3.4. IDH Status Determination

Six retrospective studies $[34,40-44]$ $[34,40-44]$ $[34,40-44]$ evaluated the performance of $[18F]FET PET$ in IDH status determination. Static parameters' significancy was variable depending on the studies, whereas dynamic ones (Slope, Time-to-peak (TTP), TAC) always showed significant differences between IDH mutated and IDH wild-type groups with an accuracy of around 73%.

3.5. Prediction of Oligodendroglial Components

Two studies [\[38](#page-58-24)[,44\]](#page-58-23) reported on the performance of $[^{18}F]FET$ PET to determine the presence of oligodendroglial tumor components. Every static parameter tested was significant. Tumor-to-brain ratios showed good sensitivity, but specificity did not exceed 65%.

There were no dynamic parameters studied.

3.6. Guided Resection or Biopsy

Four studies $[45-48]$ $[45-48]$ tested the addition of $[18F]FET$ PET to better detect tumor tissue for resection or biopsy. In a study by Ewelt et al. [\[47\]](#page-58-27), results were separated according to glioma grades (LGG vs. HGG), showing better tissue detection in high-grade glioma with sensitivity and specificity of 88% and 46%. Sensitivity was higher than those of MRI and 5-ALA-fluorescence, with a specificity being the lowest. Combining different modalities did not improve results compared to those of 5-ALA-fluorescence alone (sensitivity of 71% and specificity of 92%).

3.7. Detection of Residual Tumor

Two studies [\[49](#page-58-28)[,50\]](#page-58-29) aimed at detecting residual tumor tissue after surgery.

Buchmann et al. [\[49\]](#page-58-28) also aimed to assess whether performing $[{}^{18}$ F]FET PET after 72 h after neurosurgery had an influence, as it is the case with MRI. Indeed, postoperative MRI after 72 h can lead to falsification of results because of inflammatory reactions. This study found higher sensitivity of PET using a TBR > 1.6 compared to MRI and no influence of timing of $[$ ¹⁸F]FET PET imaging.

3.8. Guided Radiotherapy

Studies [\[51](#page-58-30)[–56\]](#page-59-20) used the TBR threshold of 1.6 to define the tumor volume to be irradiated. This PET-based volume was increased compared to the MRI-based volume commonly used.

One study (Harat et al. [\[54\]](#page-59-21)) reported 74% of failures inside primary gross tumor volume (GTV) PET volumes, with no solitary progressions inside the MRI-defined margin +20 mm but outside the GTV PET detected.

3.9. Detection of Malignant Transformation in Low-Grade Gliomas

Three studies [\[57–](#page-59-22)[59\]](#page-59-23) evaluated the use of $[18F]FET$ PET to detect differences between non-transformed LGGs and LGGs that had transformed to high-grade gliomas. Two studies found a good detection value of both static and dynamic parameters in this indication, whether by comparing to baseline or by using parameter thresholds.

The remaining study (Bashir et al. [\[59\]](#page-59-23)) did not find significant differences when considering all patients. After excluding the oligodendroglial subgroup, however, a significant difference was observed between non-transformed and transformed LGGs when combining $[18F]FET$ parameters. The best result was observed with a combined analysis of TBR $_{\text{max}}$ > 1.6 and TAC with a plateau or decreasing pattern (sensitivity of 75% and specificity of 83%).

3.10. Recurrence vs. Treatment-Related Changes

Twenty studies $[60-79]$ $[60-79]$ evaluated the performance of $[^{18}F]FET$ PET in the differentiation of recurrence from treatment-related changes.

The majority of studies included patients treated with multiple modalities (such as operation, chemotherapy, and radiotherapy) who had a suspected tumor recurrence or progression as revealed by follow-up MRI. High-grade gliomas represented 87% (992/1141) of tumors.

Most studies used static parameters TBR_{max} and TBR_{mean} along with dynamic parameters TTP and Slope.

 TBR_{max} was significant in 13 studies with thresholds between 1.64 and 3.69. TBR $_{mean}$ significantly differentiated recurrence from pseudoprogression in 11 studies. The thresholds used varied from 1.8 to 2.31. Accuracy of TBR_{max} and TBR_{mean} was comparable.

Dynamic parameters, when combined with static ones, allowed to increase diagnostic accuracy in some studies such as Werner et al. [\[68\]](#page-59-25) and Galldiks et al. [\[78\]](#page-60-21). In Werner et al., TBRs alone had a diagnostic accuracy of 83%, which increased to 90% and 93% when combined with TTP and Slope, respectively. This finding was not supported by other studies, such as Werner et al. [\[66\]](#page-59-26) and Galldiks et al. [\[67\]](#page-59-27).

3.11. Prognosis and Treatment Response Evaluation

Twenty-eight studies [\[39](#page-58-20)[,43,](#page-58-31)[61,](#page-59-28)[80–](#page-60-22)[104\]](#page-61-0) evaluated the performance of [¹⁸F]FET PET in prognosis and treatment response evaluation.

Prognostic parameters can be extracted before, during, and after treatment. For example, Pyka et al. [\[93\]](#page-60-23) studied patients with untreated, first-diagnosed gliomas and were able to predict tumor recurrence, with dynamic parameters showing better results than static ones, especially in the low-grade subgroup.

Overall, static parameters tended to not reach significance, whereas dynamic ones such as TTP and TAC demonstrated better results. TTP was the best parameter in two studies (Pyka et al. [\[93\]](#page-60-23) and Bauer et al. [\[95\]](#page-61-12)) with AUCs of 0.848 and 0.90, respectively.

Many studies also decided to use biological tumor volume (BTV), often determined by an autocontouring process using a TBR threshold of 1.6. Every study used a different cut-off when considering absolute values, and half of them did not reach significance. Three studies [\[82](#page-60-24)[,87](#page-60-25)[,94\]](#page-61-13) opted for a BTV change after the initiation of chemotherapy to separate responders (relative change $\leq 0\%$) from non-responders (relative change $> 0\%$). Two of them examined patients at first diagnosis and the third one at recurrence. These studies found a decreasing BTV to predict a significantly longer progression-free survival and to be associated with prolonged overall survival.

3.12. Radiomics

Radiomic parameters were used by 1 study, for grading [\[39\]](#page-58-20) (grade 3 vs. 4), 2 studies in IDH status determination $[40,41]$ $[40,41]$, 2 studies in the differentiation of recurrence vs. pseudoprogression [\[69,](#page-59-29)[76\]](#page-60-26), and 2 studies for prognosis [\[39,](#page-58-20)[89\]](#page-60-27).

Different textural features showed good performance in each study, and the combination of standard PET parameters with textural features could improve results, for example in IDH genotype determination, as shown by Lohmann et al. [\[41\]](#page-58-32). Combination of the dynamic parameter Slope with the radiomic feature SZHGE slightly increased diagnostic accuracy to 81% vs. 80% with Slope alone.

4. Discussion/Conclusions

This review proposes an up-to-date summary of PET performance in glioma management using $O-(2-[18F]$ fluoroethyl)-L-tyrosine. The homogenization of PET tumor-to-brain ratios according to the determination of the different regions of interest allowed to truly compare their sensibility, specificity, AUC, and accuracy.

[¹⁸F]FET can be useful in every step of glioma management, from diagnosis to suspicion of recurrence.

The ability to discriminate tumor tissue from healthy brain tissue is helpful in diagnosis, to guide a surgical procedure or radiotherapy, and to detect the presence of a residue after surgery. Most studies agree on a TBR threshold > 1.6 to delineate tumor extent.

Different thresholds of tumor-to-brain ratio are also useful to predict histological characteristics (low vs. high grade, malignant transformation of a low-grade glioma, and oligodendroglial components), to differentiate post-treatment changes from a true recurrence, and to extract prognostic parameters and assess treatment response.

It is important to note that while many studies used static parameters TBR_{max} and TBR_{mean}, the definition of these ratios differs depending on the article. For example, the ratio between the mean standard uptake value (SUV_{mean}) of a 16 mm ROI centered on the maximal tumor uptake and the SUV_{mean} of a contralateral background ROI, named TBR_{16mm} in this review, can be called TBR_{mean} in a study (Verger et al. [\[64\]](#page-59-30)) and TBR_{max} in another (Galldiks et al. [\[78\]](#page-60-21)).

Kertels et al. [\[63\]](#page-59-31) expressed the need to use comparable approaches to be able to obtain relevant and reliable results. Despite the absence of a significant difference between methods chosen, approaches focusing on voxels with the highest uptake tended to perform superior.

Dynamic acquisition also adds valuable information with parameters such as TTP, TAC, or Slope and should be preferred. An interesting alternative proposed by Lohmann et al. [\[31\]](#page-57-26) is dual-time point imaging, allowing to reduce costs due to higher patient throughput and imaging time.

Relatively new tools are also available, such as radiomics and hybrid PET/MR imaging, and could be of great interest in the future. The use of hybrid PET/MR is set to increase in neuro-oncology and could improve performance, as suggested by Lohmann et al. [\[41\]](#page-58-32) concerning radiomics.

Joint EANM/EANO/RANO practice guidelines [\[9\]](#page-56-8) published in 2018 summarized methods and cut-off values in different clinical situations concerning radiolabeled amino acids and $[{}^{18}F]FDG$. It is of importance to note that the studies used to extract these guidelines are often retrospective and/or based on small effectives.

At the beginning of the year, Albert et al. [\[105\]](#page-61-14) published the first version of PET RANO criteria in an effort to facilitate the structured implementation of PET imaging into clinical research and, ultimately, clinical routine.

The principal limitation of this review is the methodology used and the fact that many of the included studies are also retrospective and do not reflect clinical practice. Additionally, none of the studies included focused on pediatric gliomas, probably because of the limited number of patients in the available research.

While $[$ ¹⁸F]FET is becoming an important tracer in neuro-oncology, $[$ ¹⁸F]F-DOPA also showed good results and should not be overlooked. A recent meta-analysis and systematic review compared $[$ ¹⁸F]F-DOPA and $[$ ¹⁸F]FET for differentiating treatment-related change from true progression (Yu et al. [\[21\]](#page-57-9)) and found that $[$ ¹⁸F]F-DOPA seems to demonstrate superior sensitivity and similar specificity to $[{}^{18}F]FET$. Nevertheless, $[{}^{18}F]F-DOPA$ PET results were obtained from studies with limited sample sizes.

There is a need to pursue research with prospective, multicentric studies to be able to standardize imaging analysis and define the use of technological advancements such as hybrid PET/MRI imaging and radiomics and to compare [¹⁸F]FET with existing radiopharmaceuticals such as $[$ ¹⁸F]F-DOPA head-to-head comparisons.

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