

Advancements in PET and SPECT Imaging for Brain Neuron Receptors: Insights, Challenges, and Future Directions

Yasser Alzamil*

Department of Diagnostic Radiology, College of Applied Medical Sciences, University of Ha'il, Ha'il, Saudi Arabia.

Received: 18 Dec. 2024, Revised: 22 Dec. 2024, Accepted: 24 Dec. 2024.

Published online: 10 Jan. 2025.

Abstract: Brain neuron receptor imaging plays an essential role in understanding the mechanisms of neurotransmission and diagnosing various neurological and psychiatric disorders. Single-Photon Emission Computed Tomography (SPECT) and Positron Emission Tomography (PET) are two widely used imaging techniques that allow for the visualization and quantification of brain receptor activity. This review compares SPECT and PET in terms of their imaging capabilities, clinical applications, and challenges. SPECT is a cost-effective tool with longer-lasting radiotracers, commonly used in clinical diagnostics. PET, however, offers superior spatial resolution and sensitivity, making it more suited for detailed receptor studies in research settings. Advances in hybrid PET/MRI systems have further enhanced the precision of PET imaging, allowing for simultaneous acquisition of functional and structural brain data. Despite these advancements, challenges remain, including the need for more specific radiotracers and reducing radiation exposure. The future of brain receptor imaging holds great potential, with advancements in artificial intelligence, personalized medicine, and the development of novel tracers. These innovations will continue to expand our understanding of brain function and improve the diagnosis and treatment of neurological diseases.

Keywords: receptor binding, radioligands, PET, SPECT, dopamine and serotonin.

1 Introduction

Brain neuron receptors play an essential role in neurotransmission, regulating the flow of signals between neurons and other cells. These receptors are proteins located on the surface of neurons and other cells, responsible for receiving and transmitting signals from neurotransmitters, which are chemical messengers.

Through these complex interactions, neuron receptors control a wide array of physiological and psychological functions, such as mood, cognition, memory, and motor control [1].

The disruption of neuron receptor function has been implicated in a variety of neurological and psychiatric disorders, ranging from depression and anxiety to Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease. As a result, understanding the distribution and activity of these receptors in the brain has become a critical focus for neuroscientific research and clinical diagnostics. With the advancement of brain imaging technologies, scientists and clinicians can now visualize the activity of specific

Neuron receptors in vivo, providing crucial insights into the underlying mechanisms of various brain diseases [2].

Single-photon emission computed tomography (SPECT) and positron emission tomography (PET) are two leading imaging modalities that have revolutionized the study of brain neuron receptors. While both methods rely on radiotracers to detect brain activity, they differ in their sensitivity, resolution, and clinical applications. SPECT, though more accessible and cost-effective, provides lower spatial resolution and sensitivity compared to PET. PET, on the other hand, is renowned for its superior ability to capture detailed images of receptor activity but comes with higher operational costs and complexity [3].

This literature review will explore and compare the use of SPECT and PET for brain neuron receptor imaging, discussing the types of receptors studied, the imaging technologies involved, and the clinical applications of these methods. It will also address the challenges faced in the field and highlight future directions for research and clinical practice.

*Corresponding author e-mail: y.alzamil@uoh.edu.sa

2 Brain Neuron Receptors: Types and Functions

Neuron receptors are specialized proteins that bind to neurotransmitters, allowing them to transmit signals across synapses between neurons. There are several types of neuron receptors in the brain, each associated with specific neurotransmitters and functions Fig1. The most extensively studied neuron receptors include dopamine, serotonin, gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA), and glutamate receptors. These receptors play critical roles in the regulation of mood, behavior, cognition, and overall brain function.

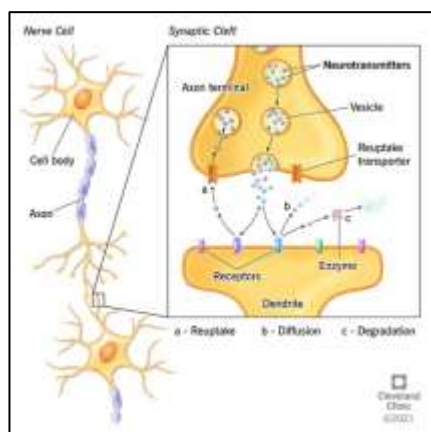


Fig.1.Neurotransmitters carry chemical signals (“messages”) from one neuron (nerve cell) to the next target cell.

Dopamine is a neurotransmitter that plays a significant role in the brain’s reward system, motivation, and motor function. Dopamine receptors, which include D1-like and D2-like receptor families, are involved in processes such as pleasure, reinforcement learning, and the regulation of movement Fig2-A. Dysfunction in dopamine receptors is a hallmark of several neurological conditions, such as Parkinson’s disease, where there is a loss of dopamine-producing neurons, leading to motor impairment (Neve & Sibley, 2007). Imaging of dopamine receptors, particularly using PET with radiotracers like [^{18}F]-FDOPA and [^{11}C]-raclopride, has been pivotal in studying diseases such as schizophrenia and Parkinson’s disease. PET scans can reveal the distribution and density of dopamine receptors, providing valuable insights into disease progression and the effectiveness of treatments. Additionally, research into the dopamine system has expanded beyond movement disorders, implicating dopamine receptor dysfunction in addiction, schizophrenia, and mood disorders [5].

Serotonin is another critical neurotransmitter that modulates mood, emotion, sleep, and appetite. Serotonin

receptors, particularly the 5-HT receptor family, are involved in regulating mood and anxiety Fig2-B.

Dysfunction in serotonin receptor activity is strongly associated with psychiatric disorders, including depression, anxiety, and bipolar disorder. PET and SPECT imaging have been used to study serotonin receptors, employing radiotracers like [^{11}C]-WAY-100635 and [^{18}F]-MPPF to visualize 5-HT $_{1A}$ receptor binding in the brain. These studies have contributed to a deeper understanding of the serotonergic system and its role in mental health conditions. For example, reduced serotonin receptor binding has been observed in patients with major depressive disorder, leading to the development of targeted treatments such as selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) [6], [7].

Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) is the brain’s primary inhibitory neurotransmitter, which helps regulate excitatory signals and maintain balance in neural activity Fig2-C. GABA receptors, including GABA-A and GABA-B receptor subtypes, play an essential role in reducing neuronal excitability. Dysfunction in GABAergic signaling is implicated in epilepsy, anxiety disorders, and schizophrenia. Both PET and SPECT imaging have been utilized to study GABA receptor activity. Radioligands such as [^{11}C]-flumazenil, which binds to GABA-A receptors, have been used to map GABAergic activity in the brain. This has provided insights into conditions like epilepsy, where altered GABA receptor activity leads to hyperexcitation and seizures. Imaging studies have also revealed changes in GABA receptor distribution in patients with anxiety disorders, suggesting potential therapeutic targets. The GABA-B receptor family is essential for regulating synaptic transmission, and its dysfunction is linked to several neurological and psychiatric disorders. GABA-B-R1 and GABA-B-R2 subunits form functional receptors that mediate slow inhibitory synaptic transmission. PET imaging studies using radiotracers like [^{11}C]-CGP62349 and [^3H] CGP62349 have shown that these receptors are highly concentrated in the hippocampus and thalamus, regions critical for cognition and memory [8], [9].

Glutamate is the brain’s primary excitatory neurotransmitter, involved in synaptic plasticity, learning, and memory. Glutamate receptors, including NMDA, AMPA, and kainate receptors, are critical for excitatory neurotransmission. Dysregulation of glutamate receptor activity has been linked to a variety of neurological and psychiatric conditions, including schizophrenia, depression, epilepsy and neurodegenerative diseases.

Imaging of glutamate receptors has been more challenging due to the lack of highly specific radiotracers. However, recent advances in PET and SPECT imaging

have led to the development of novel radioligands like [^3H]MK801, [^3H]TCP, [^{18}F]FNM, [^{123}I]CNS-1261 and that target glutamate receptors, providing new opportunities to study excitatory neurotransmission in the brain. These imaging studies hold promise for advancing our understanding of disorders like schizophrenia, where abnormal glutamate signaling is thought to contribute to cognitive deficits and psychotic symptoms [10], [11], [12]. Ionotropic receptors, also known as ligand-gated ion channels, directly control the flow of ions across the neuronal membrane. When neurotransmitters bind to ionotropic receptors, they open ion channels that allow ions such as Na^+ , K^+ , and Cl^- to flow into or out of the neuron. This rapid ion movement results in fast synaptic transmission, typically on the order of milliseconds. Ionotropic receptors include **GABA-A**, **NMDA**, and **AMPA** receptors.

In disorders like epilepsy, altered ionotropic receptor function can lead to hyperexcitation and seizures Fig3. Metabotropic receptors, such as **GABA-B**, function through G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) that activate second messenger systems inside the cell. These receptors have slower but longer-lasting effects compared to ionotropic receptors. They modulate various processes such as synaptic plasticity, learning, and memory, making them critical in maintaining long-term brain function.

Dysfunction in metabotropic receptors has been implicated in psychiatric disorders, including schizophrenia and anxiety. Given the critical role of these Ionotropic receptors in various neurological and

neurodegenerative disorders, imaging these receptors by PET or SPECT would provide invaluable information on disease diagnosis and therapeutic intervention. During the past decades, significant advances have been made in the field of developing radioligands for Ionotropic receptors.

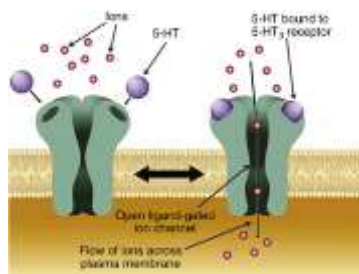
Several tracers have been transitioned into clinical research studies, among which [^{123}I]CNS 1261 ([^{123}I]11) is the only one that has gained promising yet limited success in studying NMDA receptors-related disorders, such as ketamine-induced blockade, psychoactive effects of (*S*)-ketamine and schizophrenia [13]. Development of [^{123}I] IPEB and [^{123}I]IMPEB as SPECT Radioligands for metabotropic glutamate receptor Subtype 5 has been studied and shows promising results may lead to more viable SPECT imaging radiotracers. [^{11}C]JNJ-16567083 and [^{11}C]MMTP are promising carbon-11- labeled metabotropic receptor PET radioligand and can bind sites in postmortem human brain slices containing the cerebellum, hippocampus, frontal cortex, and striatum using phosphor imaging autoradiography [14], [15], [16].

3 PET and SPECT Imaging for Brain Neuron Receptors

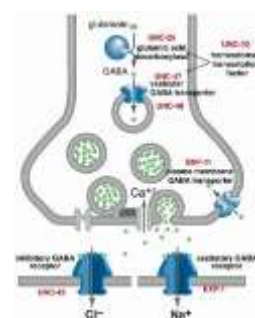
Single-photon emission computed tomography (SPECT) is a nuclear imaging technique that uses gamma rays to provide 3D images of the brain. In brain receptor imaging, SPECT allows for the visualization of specific receptors by using radioligands that bind selectively to receptor sites.



A



B



C

Fig. 2. A. Dopamine Metabolism showing reuptake of dopamine from synaptic cleft into presynaptic neuron. B. Binding of the neurotransmitter 5-hydroxytryptamine (serotonin) to the 5-HT₃ receptor opens the channel, which, in turn, leads to an excitatory response in neurons. C. GABA delivers a message through nervous system from one neuron to another.

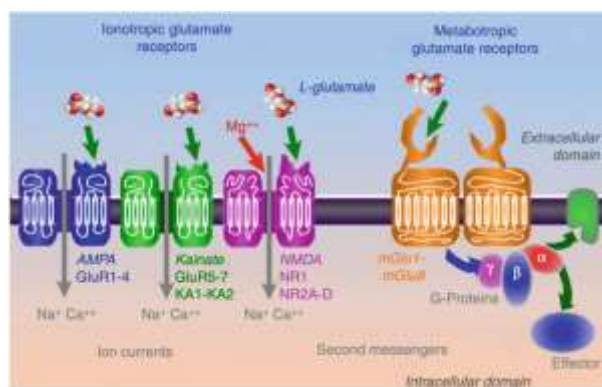


Fig. 3: Ionotropic and metabotropic glutamate receptors
(Source: <http://www.ucl.ac.uk/loo/research/salt/glutamat.htm> (Prof. Tom Salt)).

One of the primary advantages of SPECT is the ability to perform imaging with longer-lasting radiotracers, making it more accessible in certain clinical settings. Common tracers used in SPECT include iodine-123 (^{123}I) and technetium-99m-labeled compounds ($^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$). While SPECT is widely available and less expensive than PET, it has lower spatial resolution and sensitivity, limiting its ability to detect small or subtle changes in receptor distribution. Positron Emission Tomography (PET) is another widely used nuclear imaging technique that provides higher resolution images compared to SPECT. PET imaging uses positron-emitting radioisotopes such as fluorine-18 (^{18}F) to bind to specific brain receptors, allowing for detailed visualization and quantification. PET tracers are particularly useful for studying the dopamine, serotonin, and GABA receptors, which are crucial in understanding neurodegenerative diseases such as Parkinson's and Alzheimer's. When comparing SPECT and PET for brain receptor imaging, it is essential to consider several key factors, including spatial resolution, sensitivity, cost, and clinical applications. PET generally provides superior spatial resolution (around 1-2 mm) compared to SPECT, which has a lower resolution of 5-10 mm and more sensitive, capable of detecting lower concentrations of radioligands, which is crucial for studying subtle changes in receptor activity. PET is often preferred for research, SPECT remains a popular choice for routine clinical imaging [17], [18].

Both SPECT and PET have made significant contributions to the field of neuroscience by enabling researchers to visualize brain receptor activity in vivo. PET imaging, in particular, has been instrumental in studying neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's and Parkinson's. The ability to monitor receptor function and distribution in real-time has provided valuable insights into disease progression and the effectiveness of therapeutic interventions [19].

Recent advances in the development of new PET tracers have expanded the scope of receptor imaging, allowing for more precise targeting of specific receptors. Recent advancements in PET imaging, such as hybrid PET/MRI systems, have further improved the spatial resolution and accuracy of receptor localization. However, the shorter half-life of PET tracers makes the process more expensive and less accessible compared to SPECT [20].

4 Challenges with brain imaging

Despite the significant advances in brain neuron receptor imaging with SPECT and PET, several challenges remain. One of the primary limitations of both modalities is the inherent trade-off between spatial resolution and sensitivity [21]. In addition, the short half-life of PET tracers, such as fluorine-18, limits the time window available for imaging [22]. Another challenge is the limited availability of specific radiotracers for certain brain receptors, such as glutamate and GABA. Moving forward, the future of brain receptor imaging will likely involve the development of new, more specific, and longer-lasting radiotracers. Advances in molecular imaging techniques, such as hybrid PET/MRI systems, are also expected to improve the precision of receptor imaging [23]. Additionally, the integration of artificial intelligence and machine learning into imaging technologies will enhance the diagnostic capabilities and research potential of receptor imaging [21].

The use of PET and SPECT in brain research presents several ethical challenges that need to be carefully considered, particularly due to the sensitive nature of brain imaging and its potential implications for both research participants and clinical patients. One of the most significant ethical challenges is ensuring informed consent from participants in clinical studies. Given the complexity of the procedure, participants must be thoroughly informed about the nature of PET and SPECT, including its use of radioactive tracers, potential risks, including exposure to ionizing radiation, the purpose of the study and the potential uses of the data collected and how their personal brain images will be handled, stored, and potentially shared in future research. Informed consent can be particularly challenging in studies involving vulnerable populations, such as individuals with cognitive impairments (e.g., Alzheimer's disease), psychiatric disorders, or minors. These groups may have limited capacity to fully understand the implications of their participation, requiring additional safeguards to ensure their protection.

Although PET and SPECT imaging is generally considered safe, it involves the administration of radioactive tracers, which expose participants to ionizing radiation. Repeated exposure or participation in long-term

studies can increase the cumulative radiation dose, raising concerns about potential long-term health risks, such as cancer. The ethical challenge here is balancing the benefits of research with the minimization of harm. Researchers must justify the use of ionising radiation modalities when alternative, non-ionizing imaging methods (such as MRI) are available. This is particularly important in vulnerable populations, including children, pregnant women, and individuals who may require multiple scans.

Brain imaging data, provide detailed information about a person's neural activity and cognitive functioning. There are significant concerns about how this sensitive data is stored, shared, and protected to prevent breaches of privacy and confidentiality. In some cases, scans can reveal incidental findings, unrelated abnormalities that may have clinical significance, such as tumors or degenerative changes. Ethical guidelines must be in place to manage such findings:

- Should participants be informed about incidental findings that may affect their health?
- How should researchers address findings that may cause distress but have unclear clinical relevance?

Additionally, researchers must ensure that participants' brain imaging data cannot be misused, whether by healthcare providers, insurers, or employers, to discriminate or stigmatize individuals based on their brain characteristics or risk for certain disorders. Another ethical issue is the interpretation of imaging results, particularly in research settings. The interpretation of brain imaging data can be complex, and findings may not always have clear or immediate clinical relevance. For example, in studies involving Alzheimer's disease, a PET or SPECT scan might show early signs of beta-amyloid accumulation, but it may be years before cognitive symptoms appear. Ethical questions arise regarding whether participants should be informed about such findings, especially if there are no available treatments to mitigate the disease. Telling someone they are at risk of a neurodegenerative disorder can cause significant psychological distress without providing actionable benefits [24]. As PET and SPECT imaging technology advances, there is growing interest in its use for predictive diagnostics, such as identifying individuals at high risk for developing conditions like Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, or psychiatric disorders. However, this raises ethical concerns:

- Should individuals be informed about potential future risks of brain disorders if no effective prevention or cure is available?

- How will this information affect a person's mental well-being, personal relationships, and insurance or employment status?

The use of predictive diagnostics also raises questions about the potential for discrimination based on brain data. If insurers or employers gain access to this information, there is a risk that individuals may face unfair treatment based on their predicted risk for developing a neurological or psychiatric condition [25].

With the increasing commercialization of brain imaging technologies, there are concerns about equitable access to PET and SPECT imaging. The high cost of scans limits their availability, raising ethical issues about whether such powerful diagnostic tools will only be accessible to wealthier individuals or specific regions with advanced healthcare infrastructure. This can lead to disparities in diagnosis and treatment, particularly for underprivileged or rural populations. Furthermore, the potential for private companies to profit from brain imaging data also raises ethical questions. Companies that offer neuroimaging services, including those using PET and SPECT, must ensure that participants understand how their data will be used and whether it will be shared with third parties for research or commercial purposes [3]. Brain imaging provides detailed insights into brain activity and function, which can lead to broader ethical debates about neuroethics and cognitive liberty. There is growing concern that as brain imaging technologies become more advanced, they could be used to predict or manipulate behavior in ways that infringe on an individual's autonomy or freedom of thought. For example, if PET scans can detect biomarkers linked to aggression, addiction, or mental illness, could this information be used to pre-emptively intervene in a person's life? Could it be used to justify punitive or coercive measures based on brain data? These questions highlight the need for strong ethical frameworks to prevent the misuse of brain imaging in ways that infringe on individual rights

5 Future Directions

PET and SPECT has become one of the most promising tools in the diagnosis and research of Alzheimer's disease, a progressive neurodegenerative disorder characterized by cognitive decline, memory loss, and brain atrophy. PET imaging offers unique insights into the molecular changes that occur in the brain long before clinical symptoms become apparent. As the prevalence of Alzheimer's disease continues to rise globally, the role of PET in early detection, disease monitoring, and therapeutic development is expected to grow significantly in the coming years [27]. PET imaging can detect two hallmark pathological features of Alzheimer's: beta-amyloid plaques and tau tangles. Amyloid PET imaging uses radiotracers like [18F]-florbetapir and [11C]-

Pittsburgh Compound-B (PiB) to bind to amyloid plaques in the brain. This technique allows for the detection of amyloid deposition years before cognitive symptoms emerge [28]. Similarly, tau PET imaging with tracers like [18F]-AV-1451 (florbetapir) provides insights into tau pathology, which is more closely correlated with cognitive decline [29]. Future advancements in PET imaging for Alzheimer's include the development of novel radiotracers, multitarget tracers for both amyloid and tau, and the incorporation of PET/MRI hybrid systems. Additionally, artificial intelligence and machine learning hold the potential to improve the analysis of PET scans, allowing for earlier detection and more accurate predictions of disease progression.

SPECT utilizes various radiotracers to image specific brain receptors, aiding in the diagnosis and study of neurological conditions. [123I]Ioflupane (DaTSCAN), is a radiotracer targets dopamine transporters and is commonly used to assess presynaptic dopaminergic function, particularly in the evaluation of Parkinsonian syndromes [30]. [123I] IBZM (Iodobenzamide) binds to dopamine D2/D3 receptors, facilitating the assessment of postsynaptic dopaminergic function. It is employed in differentiating between various movement disorders [31].

The radiotracer [123I] Epidepride has a high affinity for dopamine D2-like receptors and is utilized in imaging studies to evaluate the distribution and density of these receptors in the brain [32].

These radiotracers enhance the capability of SPECT imaging to visualize and quantify receptor distributions, contributing significantly to the understanding and management of neurological disorders. Artificial Intelligence (AI) has significant potential to enhance imaging of brain receptors, improving accuracy, speed, and clinical outcomes. Several ways AI can contribute to the advancement of PET imaging in neuroscience. The image reconstruction and quality can be improved with AI applications. PET and SPECT images are often noisy due to the low signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) that results from the limited number of positron and gamma emitting radioactive tracers used in each scan. AI, specifically machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) algorithms, can help reconstruct clearer images from the noisy raw data, producing higher-resolution images with improved contrast. This is especially important for imaging small brain structures and detecting subtle changes in receptor activity. Deep learning algorithms such as convolutional neural networks (CNNs) can be trained to enhance image reconstruction by learning from large datasets of PET images Fig4. AI can reduce noise and artifacts, producing sharper images with greater anatomical detail, which is essential for accurate localization of brain receptors like dopamine, serotonin,

and GABA receptors. AI can also assist in accelerating image acquisition, reducing the amount of radioactive tracer needed and shortening scan times without sacrificing image quality. This minimizes radiation exposure for patients and improves the overall efficiency of PET and SPECT imaging [33].

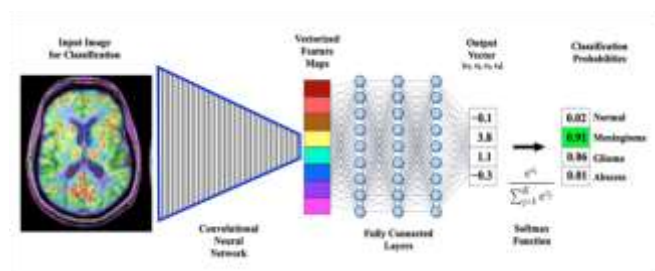


Fig 4. Convolutional neural networks (CNNs) can automatically learn hierarchical features from image data, making them highly effective at tasks like image classification.

Accurate segmentation of brain regions is essential for analyzing PET and SPECT data and quantifying receptor distribution in specific areas of interest. Manual segmentation is time-consuming and prone to human error, especially in complex brain structures. AI algorithms can automate this process, making it faster and more reliable. AI-driven segmentation tools can automatically delineate brain regions and identify areas of receptor activity. These algorithms can differentiate between different brain tissues, such as gray matter, white matter, and cerebrospinal fluid, improving the precision of receptor mapping. In PET imaging of brain receptors, AI can help in the identification of subtle differences in receptor distribution across different brain regions, which is particularly useful for studying conditions like Parkinson's disease, Alzheimer's disease, and schizophrenia [34].

One of the most challenging aspects of PET imaging is accurately quantifying the binding of radiotracers to specific brain receptors. This requires complex modeling and analysis of the kinetic behavior of radiotracers in the brain, which can be labor-intensive and prone to variability. AI can simplify and automate the quantification of receptor binding by using advanced algorithms to analyze time-activity curves and binding potential. AI models can rapidly calculate parameters such as receptor density, affinity, and radiotracer kinetics, improving the speed and consistency of data analysis [35]. Additionally, AI-based tools can help reduce inter-operator variability and improve reproducibility in receptor quantification, ensuring that results are more consistent across different studies and clinical sites. AI

can enhance the integration of PET imaging with other imaging modalities, such as Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) and functional MRI (fMRI). Multimodal imaging provides a more comprehensive view of brain structure, function, and receptor distribution, and AI can facilitate the co-registration and analysis of these data sources. Multimodal AI models can combine PET's molecular insights with MRI's high-resolution anatomical data to produce more detailed and accurate images. AI algorithms can improve the alignment of PET and MRI scans, ensuring that receptor activity is accurately mapped to specific brain regions. AI can also be used to correlate functional activity (from fMRI) with receptor binding (from PET), helping to identify how neurotransmitter activity influences neural circuits and cognitive processes. This is particularly valuable for understanding complex brain disorders such as depression, schizophrenia, and addiction [20], [36].

AI can assist in the early detection and monitoring of neurodegenerative diseases by analyzing patterns in PET scans that may not be visible to the human eye. For example, in Alzheimer's disease, AI can identify early amyloid or tau deposition in the brain before clinical symptoms manifest, allowing for earlier diagnosis and intervention. Predictive models using machine learning can analyze longitudinal PET data to predict disease progression. For instance, AI can track changes in amyloid or tau levels over time and predict how these molecular changes will affect cognitive decline or other clinical outcomes. AI algorithms can also help stratify patients based on their risk profiles, tailoring treatments to individual patients and monitoring how their receptor activity responds to therapeutic interventions [37], [38].

6 Conclusions

Brain neuron receptor imaging using SPECT and PET has significantly advanced our understanding of the brain's complex functions and its involvement in various neurological and psychiatric disorders. SPECT offers a cost-effective solution with widely available radiotracers, while PET provides superior sensitivity and resolution, particularly with the development of hybrid PET/MRI systems. However, it also poses several ethical challenges, including issues related to informed consent, radiation exposure, privacy, and the interpretation of brain data. As PET imaging technology continues to evolve, it will be essential to address these ethical concerns through the development of robust guidelines and frameworks that prioritize the well-being, autonomy, and rights of research participants and patients. Future research is likely to focus on the development of more specific radiotracers, improved imaging technologies, and their application in personalized medicine. The integration of artificial intelligence with PET and SPECT will further enhance the diagnostic capabilities and

research potential of brain receptor imaging, paving the way for novel insights into brain function and disease. AI has the potential to revolutionize PET imaging of brain receptors by improving image quality, automating data analysis, and enabling personalized treatment approaches. By integrating AI into the PET and SPECT imaging process, clinicians and researchers can obtain more accurate and detailed insights into receptor activity, enabling earlier diagnosis, better disease monitoring, and more effective treatment strategies. As AI technology continues to advance, its role in PET imaging is expected to grow, offering new opportunities to enhance the diagnosis and treatment of brain disorders.

References

- [1] R. Knapp, M. Rubenzik, E. Malatynska, E. Varga, W. R. Roeske, and H. I. Yamamura, "Neurotransmitter Receptors," *Encyclopedia of the Neurological Sciences: Volumes 1-4*, vol. 3, pp. V3-602-V3-614, Jan. 2003, doi: 10.1016/B0-12-226870-9/01585-9.
- [2] R. I. Teleanu, A. G. Niculescu, E. Roza, O. Vladăenco, A. M. Grumezescu, and D. M. Teleanu, "Neurotransmitters—Key Factors in Neurological and Neurodegenerative Disorders of the Central Nervous System," *Int J Mol Sci*, vol. 23, no. 11, Jun. 2022, doi: 10.3390/IJMS23115954.
- [3] K. M. Davis, J. L. Ryan, V. D. Aaron, and J. B. Sims, "PET and SPECT Imaging of the Brain: History, Technical Considerations, Applications, and Radiotracers," *Seminars in Ultrasound, CT and MRI*, vol. 41, no. 6, pp. 521–529, Dec. 2020, doi: 10.1053/J.SULT.2020.08.006.
- [4] K. Neve and D. R. Sibley, "D2-like dopamine receptors," *xPharm: The Comprehensive Pharmacology Reference*, pp. 1–4, 2007, doi: 10.1016/B978-008055232-3.60156-4.
- [5] M. R. Kilbourn, "11C- and 18F-Radiotracers for In Vivo Imaging of the Dopamine System: Past, Present and Future," 2021, doi: 10.3390/biomedicines9020108.
- [6] S. Kitamura et al., "Serotonergic Neurotransmission in Limbic Regions May Reflect Therapeutic Response of Depressive Patients: A PET Study With 11C-WAY-100635 and 18F-MPPF," *International Journal of Neuropsychopharmacology*, vol. 26, no. 7, pp. 474–482, Jul. 2023, doi: 10.1093/ijnp/pyad026.
- [7] G. M. Sullivan, R. T. Ogden, Y. Huang, M. A. Oquendo, J. J. Mann, and R. V. Parsey, "HIGHER IN VIVO SEROTONIN-1A BINDING IN POSTTRAUMATIC STRESS DISORDER: A PET STUDY WITH [11C]WAY-100635," *Depress Anxiety*, vol. 30, no. 3, pp. 197–206, Mar. 2013, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1002/da.22019>.
- [8] E. Barresi, C. Giacomelli, C. Martini, F. Da Settimo, M. L. Trincavelli, and S. Taliani, "Allosteric Modulators of Adenosine Receptors BT - Purinergic

- Receptors and their Modulators,” V. Colotta and C. T. Supuran, Eds., Cham: Springer International Publishing, 2023, pp. 223–273. doi: 10.1007/7355_2022_156.
- [9] S. Todde et al., “Synthesis and in vivo evaluation of [11C]CGP62349, a new GABAB receptor antagonist,” *Nucl Med Biol*, vol. 27, no. 6, pp. 565–569, 2000, doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0969-8051\(00\)00124-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0969-8051(00)00124-4).
- [10] L. A. Marcondes, E. G. Nachtigall, A. Zanluchi, J. de Carvalho Myskiw, I. Izquierdo, and C. R. G. Furini, “Involvement of medial prefrontal cortex NMDA and AMPA/kainate glutamate receptors in social recognition memory consolidation,” *Neurobiol Learn Mem*, vol. 168, p. 107153, 2020.
- [11] T. Hanada, “Ionotropic glutamate receptors in epilepsy: a review focusing on AMPA and NMDA receptors,” *Biomolecules*, vol. 10, no. 3, p. 464, 2020.
- [12] J.-H. Kim, J. Marton, S. M. Ametamey, and P. Cumming, “A review of molecular imaging of glutamate receptors,” *Molecules*, vol. 25, no. 20, p. 4749, 2020.
- [13] H. Fu, Z. Chen, L. Josephson, Z. Li, and S. H. Liang, “Positron Emission Tomography (PET) Ligand Development for Ionotropic Glutamate Receptors: Challenges and Opportunities for Radiotracer Targeting N-Methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA), α -Amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic Acid (AMPA), and Kainate Recepto,” *J Med Chem*, vol. 62, no. 2, pp. 403–419, Jan. 2019, doi: 10.1021/acs.jmedchem.8b00714.
- [14] H. Fu, Z. Chen, L. Josephson, Z. Li, and S. H. Liang, “Positron emission tomography (PET) ligand development for ionotropic glutamate receptors: challenges and opportunities for radiotracer targeting N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA), α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid (AMPA), and kainate receptor,” *J Med Chem*, vol. 62, no. 2, pp. 403–419, 2018.
- [15] K.-E. Kil et al., “Development of [123I] IPEB and [123I] IMPEB as SPECT radioligands for metabotropic glutamate receptor subtype 5,” *ACS Med Chem Lett*, vol. 5, no. 6, pp. 652–656, 2014.
- [16] L. Mu and S. M. Ametamey, “Current Radioligands for the PET Imaging of Metabotropic Glutamate Receptors BT - PET and SPECT of Neurobiological Systems,” R. A. J. O. Dierckx, A. Otte, E. F. J. de Vries, A. van Waarde, and P. G. M. Luiten, Eds., Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2014, pp. 409–443. doi: 10.1007/978-3-642-42014-6_15.
- [17] J. Zhang, K. S. Traylor, and J. M. Mountz, “PET and SPECT imaging of brain tumors,” in *Seminars in Ultrasound, CT and MRI*, Elsevier, 2020, pp. 530–540.
- [18] T. Kaneta, “PET and SPECT imaging of the brain: a review on the current status of nuclear medicine in Japan,” *Jpn J Radiol*, vol. 38, no. 4, pp. 343–357, 2020.
- [19] G. Crişan, N. S. Moldovean-Cioroianu, D.-G. Timaru, G. Andrieş, C. Căinap, and V. Chiş, “Radiopharmaceuticals for PET and SPECT imaging: a literature review over the last decade,” *Int J Mol Sci*, vol. 23, no. 9, p. 5023, 2022.
- [20] M. Suzuki et al., “Quantitative and qualitative evaluation of sequential PET/MRI using a newly developed mobile PET system for brain imaging,” *Jpn J Radiol*, vol. 39, pp. 669–680, 2021.
- [21] H. Arabi, A. AkhavanAllaf, A. Sanaat, I. Shiri, and H. Zaidi, “The promise of artificial intelligence and deep learning in PET and SPECT imaging,” *Physica Medica*, vol. 83, pp. 122–137, 2021.
- [22] D. R. Schaart, “Physics and technology of time-of-flight PET detectors,” *Phys Med Biol*, vol. 66, no. 9, p. 09TR01, 2021.
- [23] N. Knippenberg et al., “Visualizing GABA transporters in vivo: an overview of reported radioligands and future directions,” *EJNMMI Res*, vol. 13, no. 1, p. 42, 2023.
- [24] S. K. Michopoulou et al., “Brain PET and SPECT imaging and quantification: a survey of the current status in the UK,” *Nucl Med Commun*, vol. 44, no. 10, pp. 834–842, 2023.
- [25] G. S. Nadella, S. Satish, K. Meduri, and S. S. Meduri, “A Systematic Literature Review of Advancements, Challenges and Future Directions of AI And ML in Healthcare,” *International Journal of Machine Learning for Sustainable Development*, vol. 5, no. 3, pp. 115–130, 2023.
- [26] P. Sommaggio, “Protecting My Mind: Cognitive Liberty, Commons, and Neurorights,” in *The Discourse of Biorights: European Perspectives*, Springer, 2024, pp. 133–145.
- [27] Y. Zhang, X. He, Y. H. Chan, Q. Teng, and J. C. Rajapakse, “Multi-modal graph neural network for early diagnosis of Alzheimer’s disease from sMRI and PET scans,” *Comput Biol Med*, vol. 164, p. 107328, 2023.
- [28] Y. Li et al., “Screening of [18F] Florbetazine for A β Plaques and a Head-to-Head Comparison Study with [11C] Pittsburgh Compound-B ([11C] PiB) in Human Subjects,” *ACS Pharmacol Transl Sci*, vol. 7, no. 7, pp. 2054–2062, 2024.
- [29] S. C. Burnham et al., “A review of the flortaucipir literature for positron emission tomography imaging of tau neurofibrillary tangles,” *Brain Commun*, vol. 6, no. 1, p. fcad305, 2024.
- [30] E. Missir et al., “Quantitative [123I] I-Ioflupane DaTSCAN single-photon computed tomography-computed tomography in Parkinsonism,” *Nucl Med Commun*, vol. 44, no. 10, pp. 843–853, 2023.
- [31] M. L. Pais, J. Crisóstomo, A. Abrunhosa, and M. Castelo-Branco, “Central dopamine receptors: Radiotracers unveiling the Role of dopaminergic tone

- in obesity,” *J Mol Med*, pp. 1–12, 2024.
- [32] D. Maruyama et al., “Comparative analysis of peri-nidal cerebral blood flow and metabolism using a novel quantitative 15O-PET method in patients with arteriovenous malformations,” *Journal of Cerebral Blood Flow & Metabolism*, p. 0271678X241270416, 2024.
- [33] V. Balaji, T.-A. Song, M. Malekzadeh, P. Heidari, and J. Dutta, “Artificial intelligence for PET and SPECT image enhancement,” *Journal of Nuclear Medicine*, vol. 65, no. 1, pp. 4–12, 2024.
- [34] C. Jimenez-Mesa, J. E. Arco, F. J. Martinez-Murcia, J. Suckling, J. Ramirez, and J. M. Gorriz, “Applications of machine learning and deep learning in SPECT and PET imaging: General overview, challenges and future prospects,” *Pharmacol Res*, vol. 197, p. 106984, 2023.
- [35] S. K. Kang, D. Kim, S. A. Shin, Y. K. Kim, H. Choi, and J. S. Lee, “Accurate Automated Quantification of Dopamine Transporter PET Without MRI Using Deep Learning-based Spatial Normalization,” *Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, vol. 58, no. 6, pp. 354–363, 2024.
- [36] C. Panigrahy, A. Seal, C. Gonzalo-Martín, P. Pathak, and A. S. Jalal, “Parameter adaptive unit-linking pulse coupled neural network based MRI–PET/SPECT image fusion,” *Biomed Signal Process Control*, vol. 83, p. 104659, 2023.
- [37] G. Castellano, A. Esposito, E. Lella, G. Montanaro, and G. Vessio, “Automated detection of Alzheimer’s disease: a multi-modal approach with 3D MRI and amyloid PET,” *Sci Rep*, vol. 14, no. 1, p. 5210, 2024.
- [38] M. B. Kale et al., “AI-Driven Innovations in Alzheimer’s Disease: Integrating Early Diagnosis, Personalized Treatment, and Prognostic Modelling,” *Ageing Res Rev*, p. 102497, 2024.