Modulation Transfer Function of a Selenium-Based Digital Mammography System

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Abstract—Digital mammography systems with detectors based on amorphous selenium exhibit outstanding spatial resolution characterized by the modulation transfer function (MTF). We measured the detector behavior of the Siemens Mammomat NovationDR® with 70 µm pixel pitch and compared the results to analytical evaluations based on Monte Carlo simulations.

Experimentally, the MTF of the mammography system is obtained from the images of a lead bar pattern or an edge phantom using different X-ray spectra. The simulations take into account all relevant X-ray interactions in the selenium layer. The resulting line-spread function is transformed to the MTF. Even at the Nyquist frequency (i.e. 7.14 mm⁻¹), the measured MTF is well above 40% and thus close to its theoretical limit. The MTF shows a few percentage points of low-frequency drop, which can be explained in part by the presence of scattered radiation. The simulations allow the features observed to be explained. The detector investigated provides excellent spatial resolution and appears well suited for high-end mammography.

I. INTRODUCTION

Digital mammography systems with detectors based on amorphous selenium are currently being introduced [1], [2]. Such mammography detectors are advantageous compared to those combining a scintillator and a photodiode matrix because of their outstanding spatial resolution characterized by the modulation transfer function (MTF).

The MTF can be analyzed by numerical procedures based on various kinds of images. An image of a test object, i.e. a bar pattern grid, a totally absorbing edge, or a slit, is recorded and the resulting modulation, edge spread function, or line spread function, respectively, is derived from the image. The MTF can be calculated from either one of these quantities. To understand the underlying processes, we also studied all relevant X-ray interactions (absorption, generation of secondary quanta, scattering) by Monte-Carlo simulations. Special attention was placed on backscattering by the different components of the detector in order to explain the observed low-frequency drop in the MTF.

II. SIMULATIONS

The signal-generating processes have been studied by Monte Carlo simulations [3] using the program ROSI (Roentgen Simulation) [4] and applying a set of realistic X-ray spectra for mammography (Table I).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anode material</th>
<th>Prefilter</th>
<th>Additional filter</th>
<th>Tube voltage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>Thickness</td>
<td>Material</td>
<td>Thickness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mo</td>
<td>30 µm</td>
<td>No additional filter</td>
<td>23 kV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>50 µm</td>
<td>Al</td>
<td>2 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>50 µm</td>
<td>Al</td>
<td>2 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>50 µm</td>
<td>PMMA</td>
<td>40 mm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first simulation step is the X-ray interaction of the incident radiation with the absorber. Quanta can be elastically scattered (Rayleigh scattering), inelastically scattered (Compton scattering) where they lose energy and fast electrons are created, or completely absorbed by a photoelectric process where fluorescence quanta as well as fast electrons are generated. The secondary quanta travel a certain distance and either finally leave the absorber or interact in a consecutive process. Thus, the X-ray absorption process is distributed in space.

The second simulation step is the energy loss of the fast electrons. They can be scattered either elastically or inelastically. In the latter process, multiple electron-hole pairs are excited. Thus, electron energy loss is also a process, which leads to signal sources distributed in space.

In the case of a directly absorbing semiconductor an electrical drift field collects the excited charge carriers. Moreover, carrier diffusion again tends to spread out the signal in space. The ratio of diffusion length to drift length is relevant to describe how the signal is blurred by charge transport.

The excited charge carriers are collected by an electrical drift field, whereas carrier diffusion tends to distribute the signal in space. The electrical field of 10 V/µm applied in the
selenium detector proved to be more than high enough to prevent MTF deterioration. Moreover, the signal is integrated over the active pixel area. The upper limit for the MTF is defined by assuming that the pixel aperture constitutes the only blur mechanism. It is quantitatively determined as a function of spatial frequency $f$ and pixel aperture $a$ by the sinc function

$$\text{sinc}(af) = \frac{\sin(af)}{af}$$

which would be the MTF of an ideal detector related to an orientation parallel to one of the pixel lattice directions. The idealized MTF in diagonal direction [5] is given by

$$MTF_{\text{ideal, diagonal}} = \text{sinc}^2\left(\frac{af}{\sqrt{2}}\right).$$

The detector has a 250 µm thick Se absorber on an a-Si thin-film transistor matrix deposited on a few mm thick glass substrate. Backscattering from this substrate of quanta, which had transmitted the absorber, is taken into account.

### III. MEASUREMENTS

The MTF of the Siemens Mammatron Novation® was measured according to the standard procedure defined in IEC 62220-1 using an edge phantom (Fig. 1) or by means of a lead bar pattern (Fig. 2). Although this standard relates to radiographic detectors, we have adopted this scheme since a draft for a similar standard for mammographic detectors is in preparation.

Fig. 1. A 2 mm thick tungsten edge phantom produced by Scanditronix / Wellhöfer.

Fig. 2. Lead bar pattern type “40” produced by Hüttner. Spatial frequencies cover the range from 0.05 nm$^{-1}$ to 10 nm$^{-1}$.

The anti-scatter grid was removed prior to all measurements.

Both resolution objects bring about comparable results (Fig. 3). Since the lead bar method delivers the MTF only at a few points along the frequency axis, a smooth polygon can be drawn. The edge method results in a noisier curve.

Fig. 3. MTF as a function of spatial frequency determined with a low energy mammography spectrum (Mo anode, 23 kV, 30 µm Mo prefiltration). Edge and lead bar method lead to comparable results. Further more, horizontal and vertical MTF are equal. The diagonal MTF is slightly higher, as is the theoretical limit, i.e. (2) instead of (1).

To investigate the differences between measured and simulated MTF, the X-ray spectra were varied from very soft (Mo anode, 23 kV, 30 µm Mo filtration, no additional filtering object) to hard (35 kV, W anode, 50 µm Rh filtration, 2 mm Al). Although the MTF is known to be rather isotropic, the measurements were again carried out in horizontal, vertical, and diagonal orientation on the detector plane.

Fig. 4. MTF determined with a mammography spectrum (W anode, 35 kV, 50 µm Rh prefiltration, 2 mm Al additional filter). The edge positioned flat on the detector or aligned to the focus leads to equivalent results. The simulated MTF well agrees with the measurements.

An additional problem can arise in the case of an edge phantom. With the phantom placed flat on the detector,
parallax effects might occur. Therefore, the measurements were repeated with the edge slightly tilted and thus aligned towards the X-ray tube focus. As can be seen from Fig. 4, the results were the same, because the 2 mm thick tungsten edge is thick enough to easily absorb the soft mammographic radiation in every orientation of the edge phantom.

IV. RESULTS

Fig. 5 shows the MTF curves obtained with a spectrum of a W anode, 28 kV, 50 µm Rh prefiltration, and an additional 2 mm Al filter. At low spatial frequencies (i.e. < 0.5 mm⁻¹) a small drop in MTF of magnitude 2% to 3% is visible. Long-range processes deteriorating the spatial resolution cause this so-called “low-frequency drop”. One phenomenon most likely to be responsible for such kind of behavior is X-ray scatter. Scattered quanta can emerge from objects between source and detector such as filters, phantoms, or the patient, but backscattering can also occur from matter behind the detector. The scattered quanta may hit any location on the detector surface and will therefore reduce the MTF over the whole spatial frequency range.

To take scattered quanta correctly into account, the simulations were performed with the edge phantom. This results in extremely long calculation times (about 100 h), because most quanta become scattered and, among these, most do not hit the detector. As a consequence of that, the resulting MTF curves look rather noisy.

![Fig. 5. MTF determined with a mammography spectrum (W anode, 28 kV, 50 µm Rh prefiltration, 2 mm Al additional filter). The low-frequency drop is 2% to 3%.](image)

In Fig. 6, we used a 40-mm PMMA block instead of the Al sheet. The simulated as well as the measured MTF curves are displayed in comparison to the sinc function. The PMMA causes much more scatter, which leads to a strong low-frequency drop of some 10% at 0.5 mm⁻¹. This behavior was already reported by Bätz et al. [6].

The simulated curves follow the overall trend given by the sinc function, but stay below it due to X-ray fluorescence. Since most of the incident X-ray spectra are at energies above the K-edge energy of Se (12.7 keV), fluorescence quanta are generated and reabsorbed up to some 100 µm away from the primary interaction location, thus reducing the MTF of the detector. Because this effect is the dominant interaction process below 50 keV, the different spectra investigated lead to similar results (Fig. 7).

An additional simulation run was performed with 80 keV monochromatic quanta. While in the mammographic energy range most of the X-rays impinging on the 250-µm thick a-Se layer are absorbed, 80 keV quanta can penetrate the absorber and may become backscattered from the substrate. This results in a pronounced low-frequency drop, as can be seen in Fig. 7.

The measured MTF curves taken with different spectra are rather similar. Only the curve acquired with the PMMA filter shows a strong low-frequency drop. This tampers with the measured MTF. To avoid this effect, scatter from the filters and phantoms at least should be kept as low as possible. Without the (strongly scattering) 40 mm thick PMMA filter, a higher MTF could be obtained.
Fig. 7. Simulated MTF determined with a mammography spectrum (W anode, 28 kV, 50 µm Rh prefiltering, 2 mm Al additional filter). The low-frequency drop amounts to 2% to 3%.

Fig. 8. Measured MTF for different mammographic spectra. PMMA filtering generates a low-frequency drop of around 10%. Data of a common film-screen system are given for comparison.
It can be expected that a-Se detector-based systems will soon replace existing film-screen systems. While films are an analog recording medium, solid-state detectors come pixelated. Fig. 8 shows that the detector under investigation with 70 µm pixels is superior in MTF over a wide spatial frequency range. The film MTF is slightly higher only beyond 13 mm⁻¹. But one has to bear in mind that the film DQE (detective quantum efficiency) at these high frequencies is too low to be advantageous for film-screen systems [7].

V. CONCLUSIONS

The detector material selenium operates far from its fundamental spatial resolution limits. The dominant shape of the MTF curve is given by the sinc function, i.e. it is determined by pixel aperture blur.

Moreover, the Mammomat Novation DR® by far exceeds conventional film-screen systems (e.g. Min-R) in spatial resolution, as can be seen from Fig. 8. This proves that a pixel size of 70 µm is sufficient to resolve details that are relevant for mammographic diagnosis.

Since at mammographic energies a fraction of about 90% of the X-ray energy incident on the detector is absorbed, taken together with the MTF found in this study, the prerequisites are excellent for an outstanding DQE.

VI. ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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VII. REFERENCES