Optical Tomography and PhotoAcoustic Tomogrpahy

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- 2 Modelling in Optical Tomography
- 3 PhotoAcoustics
- Coupled Physics Imaging : Quantitative PhotoAcoustic Tomography

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Outline

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Introduction Optics in BioPhysics

Light propagation through tissue used for mammographic investigations (Cutler 1929)



Introduction Optics in BioPhysics

Light propagation through tissue used for mammographic investigations (Cutler 1929)

Jösis 1977, used optical radiation in the near-infrared band as a method for studying cerebral haemodynamics on the exposed cortex of a cat.



Noninvasive, Infrared Monitoring of Cerebral and Myocardial Oxygen Sufficiency and Circulatory Parameters

Abstract. The relatively good transparency of biological materials in the near infrared region of the spectrum permits sufficient photon transmission through organs in situ for the monitoring of cellular events. Observations by infrared transillumination in the exposed heart and in the brain in cephalo without surgical intervention show that oxygen sufficiency for cytochrome $a_{,a_3}$, function, changes in tissue blood volume, and the average hemoglobin-oxyhemoglobin equilibrium can be recorded effectively and in continuous fashion for research and clinical purposes. The copper atom associated with heme a_3 did not respond to anoxia and may be reduced under normoxic conditions, whereas the heme-a copper was at least partially reducible.

• In Near Infrared Spectroscopy (NIRS), tissue is illuminated with selected wavelengths, and light that has travelled through the tissue between source and detector optodes is measured.

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- The change in chromophore concentration is assumed to be spread over the volume being measured. This leads to a partial-volume effect, and underestimation of the magnitude of localized changes.

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- In Near Infrared Spectroscopy (NIRS), tissue is illuminated with selected wavelengths, and light that has travelled through the tissue between source and detector optodes is measured.
- The change in chromophore concentration is assumed to be spread over the volume being measured. This leads to a partial-volume effect, and underestimation of the magnitude of localized changes.
- From the attenuation of the light changes in the concentrations of chromophores such as oxygenated (HbO2) and deoxygenated heamoglobin (HbR), and cytochrome oxidase can be calculated.

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- In Near Infrared Spectroscopy (NIRS), tissue is illuminated with selected wavelengths, and light that has travelled through the tissue between source and detector optodes is measured.
- The change in chromophore concentration is assumed to be spread over the volume being measured. This leads to a partial-volume effect, and underestimation of the magnitude of localized changes.
- From the attenuation of the light changes in the concentrations of chromophores such as oxygenated (HbO2) and deoxygenated heamoglobin (HbR), and cytochrome oxidase can be calculated.
- NIRS is widely used to refer to monitoring of haemodynamic processes in tissues such as muscle and breast, and the brain of both adults and infants.

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Functional Near Infrared Spectroscopy (fNIRS) refers to the application of NIRS to the haemodynamic *response* to an external stimulus; this is a direct analogy to the term *Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging* (fMRI) as distinguished from strutural or "static" MRI. Thus fNIRS is a *dynamic* modality (compare fMRI).

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Functional Near Infrared Spectroscopy (fNIRS) refers to the application of NIRS to the haemodynamic response to an external stimulus; this is a direct analogy to the term Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI) as distinguished from strutural or "static" MRI. Thus fNIRS is a dynamic modality (compare fMRI).





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Introduction Comparison of Modalities

OT is faster than fNIRS

• OT gives a *spectral* contrast



figure taken from S. Lloyd-Fox, Neuroscience and BioBehavioral Reviews 2009



Spatial Resolution

Fig. 2. This figure shows the spatial and temporal resolution of NIRS compared with other infant functional neuroimaging methods. It also illustrates the relative degree of tolerance needed from the infant for each method, nanging from yellow (low) to red (high). EEG, electmencephalography; ERP, event-related potential; MEG, magnetoencephalography; NIRS, near infrared spectroscopy; fMRI, functional magnetic resonance imaging; DTI, diffusion tensor imaging; PET, positron emission tomography. (This figure was inspired by Walsh and Cowey, 2000.) (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of the article.)

Optical Tomography Neonatal imaging



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DOT and PAT

Optical Tomography Neonatal imaging



Figure 1. A fibre holder helmet on the head of an infant during an imaging scan

Figure 2. Ultrasound image of infant with haemorrhage in left ventricle.



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The Radiative Transfer Equation (RTE) is a natural description of light considered as photons. It represents a balance equation where photons in a constant refractive index medium, in the absence of scattering, are propagated along rays $\boldsymbol{I} := \boldsymbol{r}_0 + l\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}$

$$\hat{\mathbf{S}} \cdot
abla \phi + \mu_{\mathrm{a}} \phi = \mathbf{0} \equiv \mathcal{T}_{\mu_{\mathrm{a}}} \phi = \mathbf{0}$$
 (1)

whose solution

$$\phi = \phi_0 \exp\left[-\int_{\boldsymbol{I}} \mu_{\rm a}(\boldsymbol{r}_0 + l\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}) \mathrm{d}l\right]$$
(2)

is the basis for the definition of the Ray Transform

$$g_{\hat{\mathbf{s}}}(\boldsymbol{p}) := -\ln\left[\frac{\phi}{\phi_0}\right] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mu_{\mathbf{a}}(\boldsymbol{p}\hat{\mathbf{s}}_{\perp} + l\hat{\mathbf{s}}) dl \quad \equiv \quad g_{\hat{\mathbf{s}}} = \mathcal{R}_{\hat{\mathbf{s}}}\mu_{\mathbf{a}} \quad (3)$$

The Radiative Transfer Equation

In the presence of scattering, and with source terms q, eq.(1) becomes

$$(\hat{\boldsymbol{s}} \cdot \nabla + \mu_{a}(\boldsymbol{r}) + \mu_{s}(\boldsymbol{r})) \phi(\boldsymbol{r}, \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}) = \mu_{s} \int_{S^{n-1}} \Theta(\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}') \phi(\boldsymbol{r}, \hat{\boldsymbol{s}}') d\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}' + q(\boldsymbol{r}, \hat{\boldsymbol{s}})$$

$$\equiv \underbrace{[\mathcal{T}_{\mu_{tr}} - \mu_{s} S]}_{\mathcal{L}} \phi = q$$
(4)

 $\mu_{tr} = \mu_s + \mu_a$ is the attenuation coefficient S is the scattering operator, (local, non propagating). Method of successive approximation (Sobolev 1963) :

$$\phi = \left[\mathcal{T}_{\mu_{\mathrm{tr}}}^{-1} + \mathcal{T}_{\mu_{\mathrm{tr}}}^{-1} \mu_{\mathrm{s}} \mathcal{S} \mathcal{T}_{\mu_{\mathrm{tr}}}^{-1} + \dots \left(\mathcal{T}_{\mu_{\mathrm{tr}}}^{-1} \mu_{\mathrm{s}} \mathcal{S} \right)^{k} \mathcal{T}_{\mu_{\mathrm{tr}}}^{-1} \dots \right] q$$
(5)

The first term may be found from the Ray Transform, giving an alternative equation for the collided flux

$$[\mathcal{T}_{\mu_{tr}} - \mu_{s}\mathcal{S}] \phi_{\text{collided}} = \mu_{s}\mathcal{S} \underbrace{\mathcal{T}_{\mu_{tr}}^{-1} q}_{\text{uncollided}} (6)$$

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RTE solutions



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RTE solutions



Modelling in Optical Tomography Diffusion Approximation

In the Diffusion pproximation (DA), the radiance is approximated by first order spherical harmonics only ($\hat{\boldsymbol{s}} \equiv [Y_{1,-1}, Y_{1,0}, Y_{1,1}]$), giving

$$\phi(\mathbf{r}, \hat{\mathbf{s}}) \approx \frac{1}{4\pi} \Phi(\mathbf{r}) + \frac{3}{4\pi} \hat{\mathbf{s}} \cdot J(\mathbf{r})$$
 (7)

where $\Phi(\mathbf{r})$ and $J(\mathbf{r})$ are the photon density and current defined as

$$\Phi(\mathbf{r}) = \int_{S^{n-1}} \phi(\mathbf{r}, \hat{\mathbf{s}}) \mathrm{d}\hat{\mathbf{s}}$$
(8)

$$J(\mathbf{r}) = \int_{S^{n-1}} \hat{\mathbf{s}} \phi(\mathbf{r}, \hat{\mathbf{s}}) \mathrm{d}\hat{\mathbf{s}}.$$
 (9)

Inserting the approximation (7) into equation (4) results in a second order PDE in the photon density

$$-\nabla \cdot \kappa \nabla \Phi(\mathbf{r}) + \mu_{a} \Phi(\mathbf{r}) = q_{0}(\mathbf{r}) \equiv \mathcal{D} \Phi = q_{0} , \qquad (10)$$

with $\kappa = \frac{1}{\mu_a + (1-g)\mu_s)}$. Equation(10) and its associated frequency and time domain versions, including the Telegraph Equation, are the most commonly used in DOI.

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The Inverse Problems in Optical Tomography

Parameter Identification

Non-linear reconstruction $x \equiv \{\mu_a, \kappa\}$ or $x \equiv \{\mu_a, \mu'_s\}$ and

$$\mathsf{A}'_{i} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_{\mathrm{a}}^{\delta} \\ \kappa^{\delta} \end{pmatrix} = - \int_{\Omega} \begin{pmatrix} U_{i}^{*} U_{i} \\ \nabla U_{i}^{*} \cdot \nabla U_{i} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \mu_{\mathrm{a}}^{\delta} \\ \kappa^{\delta} \end{pmatrix}$$





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The Early Years

The Early Years...

- 1. 1880 Alexander Graham Bell observes photoacoustic effect
- 2. 1960 Invention of the laser by Theodore Maiman
- 1995 First <u>photoacoustic</u> image of a tissue phantom (R. Kruger)
- 4. 1999 First in vivo image (A. Oraevsky)
- 5. 2003 *In vivo* non invasive image of the mouse brain (L. Wang)





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PhotoAcoustic Tomography Motivation

- Optical Imaging : Pros
 - High intrinsic contrast based upon optical absorption and scattering
 - Spectroscopic specificity chemical information
 - Functional imaging of physiological parameters blood oxygenation
- Optical Imaging : Cons
 - Imaging depth/spatial resolution limited by strong optical scattering
- Ultrasound Imaging : Pros
 - Images of soft tissue anatomy
 - High spatial resolution: scalable with depth 100's $\mu m - \sim mm$
 - Large penetration depth: $\sim 10 cm$
 - Physiological information via measurement of blood flow
- Ultrasound Imaging : Cons
 - Weak contrast provided by certain important targets e.g. the microvasculature
 - Limited specificity: weak sensitivity to chemical differences

PhotoAcoustic Signal Generation



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PhotoAcoustic Spherical BackProjection



Some PAT systems



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Point Detectors and the wave equation model

Initial value Problem

$$\begin{array}{llll} \left(\boldsymbol{c}^{2}(\boldsymbol{r}) \nabla^{2} - \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial t^{2}} \right) \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{r},t) &=& 0 \qquad t \geq 0, \boldsymbol{r} \in \mathbb{R}^{3} \\ & \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{r},0) &=& \boldsymbol{\Gamma}(\boldsymbol{r}) \mu_{a}(\boldsymbol{r}) \boldsymbol{\Phi}(\boldsymbol{r}) \\ & & \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{r},t)}{\partial t} \Big|_{t=0} &=& 0 \end{array}$$

Data $p^{obs}(\mathbf{r}_s, t)$ measured on $\partial \Omega$, but model assumes propagation beyond this, i.e. $\partial \Omega$ is *not* a boundary condition forward model

$$\boldsymbol{A}: \boldsymbol{\rho}_0(\boldsymbol{r}) \mapsto \boldsymbol{\rho}^{\mathrm{obs}}(\boldsymbol{r}_s,t) \qquad t \ge 0, \boldsymbol{r}_s \in \partial \Omega$$

Acoustically Homogeneous Media and Spherical Means

In the constant speed case c(r) = c, the signal detected at an observation point at time *t* is the sum of waves arriving from a distance r = ct.

This leads to the Spherical Mean Transform (SMT). In 3D this is stated

$$\mathcal{M}f(\boldsymbol{r},t) := \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{S^2} f(\boldsymbol{r} + ct\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}) \mathrm{d}^2\hat{\boldsymbol{s}}$$

In analogy to the *Radon Transform* which integrates functions over planes, the SMT can be used as a basis for analytical inversions. In particular the adjoint of \mathcal{M} can be used as the basis for *back Projection* and *Filtered Back Projection* formulae.
Filtered backprojection

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Filtered Back projection formulae for SMT (Finch, Patch, Rakesh, 2006), constant speed case. Complete data on sphere radius *R*. 'Universal' Backprojection, valid for spheres, cylinders and planes (Xu and Wang, 2005)

$$\boldsymbol{p}_{0}(\boldsymbol{r}) = \frac{1}{8\pi^{2}} \nabla \cdot \int_{\partial \Omega} \hat{\boldsymbol{n}}(\boldsymbol{r}') \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} \frac{\boldsymbol{p}^{\text{obs}}(\boldsymbol{r}',\rho)}{\rho} \right) \Big|_{\rho = |\boldsymbol{r}' - \boldsymbol{r}|} d^{2}\boldsymbol{r}'$$

$$p_0(\mathbf{r}) = -\frac{1}{8\pi^2} \int_{\partial\Omega} \frac{\partial}{\partial n} \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} \frac{\mathbf{p}^{\text{obs}}(\mathbf{r}', \rho)}{\rho} \right) \Big|_{\rho = |\mathbf{r}' - \mathbf{r}|} \, \mathrm{d}^2 \mathbf{r}'$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{r}')$ is the outward normal vector to $\partial\Omega$. Differentiation in space is the filtering step, and integration over spheres is the backprojection step. Extensions to arbitrary n > 2 in (Kunyansky 2007) More details

Extensions to arbitrary $n \ge 2$ in (Kunyansky 2007). More details (Kuchment 2014).

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Time Reversal

Initial value Problem

$$\begin{pmatrix} c^2 \nabla^2 - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \end{pmatrix} p = 0 p|_{t=0} = \Gamma \mu_a \Phi \frac{\partial p}{\partial t}\Big|_{t=0} = 0$$

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Time Reversal

Initial value Problem

$$\begin{pmatrix} c^2 \nabla^2 - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \end{pmatrix} p = 0 \\ p|_{t=0} = \Gamma \mu_a \Phi \\ \frac{\partial p}{\partial t}\Big|_{t=0} = 0$$

Boundary value Problem (t running backwards from T to 0)

$$\begin{pmatrix} c^2 \nabla^2 - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \end{pmatrix} p = 0 p(\boldsymbol{r}, t)|_{t=T} = 0 p(\boldsymbol{r}, t)|_{\partial\Omega} = p^{\text{obs}}(\boldsymbol{r}_s, t)$$

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Time Reversal

Initial value Problem

$$\begin{pmatrix} c^2 \nabla^2 - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \end{pmatrix} p = 0 \\ p|_{t=0} = \Gamma \mu_a \Phi \\ \frac{\partial p}{\partial t}\Big|_{t=0} = 0$$

Boundary value Problem (t running backwards from T to 0)

20mm x 20mm x 6mm dx=dy=250µm

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λ=670nm. =6.7mJ/cm2

$$\begin{pmatrix} c^2 \nabla^2 - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \end{pmatrix} p = 0 p(\boldsymbol{r}, t)|_{t=T} = 0 p(\boldsymbol{r}, t)|_{\partial\Omega} = p^{\text{obs}}(\boldsymbol{r}_s, t)$$

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Coupled Physics Imaging

Quantitiative PhotoAcoustic Tomography



- Naturally occuring contrast agents (chromphores) give rise to optical absorption in the medium.
- The absorption and scattering coefficients μ_a and μ'_s determine the fluence distribution Φ,
- $\mu_a \Phi \mapsto H$ (deposited energy).
- Γ*H* → *p*₀ (pressure distribution) via thermalisation,
- *p*₀ propagates as an acoustic pulse (elasticity of tissue).
- Sensor detects PA time series p(t).
- Cox, A. Laufer, Beard, 2012.

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Strategy used here : fit a model of light transport to the reconstructed data

$$\{\hat{\mu_a}, \hat{\mu_s}\} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\mu_a, \mu_s} \left[\mathcal{E} := rac{1}{2} || \mathcal{H}^{\mathrm{obs}} - \mathcal{F}(\mu_a, \mu_s) ||^2 + \mathcal{R}(\mu_a, \mu_s)
ight]$$

where $F(\mu_a, \mu'_s) = \mu_a \Phi(\mu_a, \mu'_s)$ is the *forward model* of optical energy absorption, and *R* is a regularisation term.

- Forward model *F* can be based on RTE or diffusion.
- Principle regularisation term used : Total Variation.

Quantitative PhotoAcoustic Tomography Error functionals

Rearranging we get

$$D\mathcal{E}\begin{pmatrix} \mu_{a}^{\delta} \\ \mu_{s}^{\delta} \end{pmatrix} = -\left\langle \Phi(\mathcal{H}^{\text{obs}} - \mathcal{F}(\mu_{a}, \mu_{s})), \mu_{a}^{\delta} \right\rangle_{L^{2}(\Omega)} + \left\langle \phi \phi^{*}, \mu_{a}^{\delta} \right\rangle_{L^{2}(\Omega \times S^{n-1})} \\ + \left\langle \phi \phi^{*}, \mu_{s}^{\delta} \right\rangle_{L^{2}(\Omega \times S^{n-1})} - \left\langle \phi \mathcal{S} \phi^{*}, \mu_{s}^{\delta} \right\rangle_{L^{2}(\Omega \times S^{n-1})}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathcal{E}}{\partial \mu_{a}} &= -\Phi(\mathcal{H}^{\text{obs}} - \mathcal{F}(\mu_{a}, \mu_{s})) + \int_{S^{n-1}} \phi(\hat{\mathbf{s}}) \phi^{*}(\hat{\mathbf{s}}) d\hat{\mathbf{s}} \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{E}}{\partial \mu_{s}} &= \int_{S^{n-1}} \phi(\hat{\mathbf{s}}) \phi^{*}(\hat{\mathbf{s}}) d\hat{\mathbf{s}} - \int_{S^{n-1}} \int_{S^{n-1}} \phi(\hat{\mathbf{s}}) \Theta(\hat{\mathbf{s}}, \hat{\mathbf{s}}') \phi^{*}(\hat{\mathbf{s}}') d\hat{\mathbf{s}} d\hat{\mathbf{s}}' \end{aligned}$$

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Quantitative PhotoAcoustic Tomography

Matrix Free method

Explicit construction of Jacobians is too expensive \Rightarrow use matrix free method based on adjoint fields Limited memory BFGS optimisation



Using 4 images from 4 illumination directions, Tikhonov regularisation (Saratoon, Tarvainen, Cox, A., 2013)

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DOT and PAT

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Optical Model

Diffusion Approximation (DA) is solved with Finite Element Method (FEM). Discretisation :

$$\mu_{a}(\boldsymbol{r}) \approx \mu_{a}^{h}(\boldsymbol{r}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_{a}} \mu_{a,j} u_{j}(\boldsymbol{r}), \qquad \hat{\mu}_{a} = (\mu_{a,1}, \dots, \mu_{a,N_{a}})$$
$$\mu_{s}'(\boldsymbol{r}) \approx \mu_{s}^{'h}(\boldsymbol{r}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_{s}} \mu_{s,j}' u_{j}(\boldsymbol{r}), \qquad \hat{\mu}_{s}' = (\mu_{s,1}', \dots, \mu_{s,N_{s}}')$$
$$\Phi(\boldsymbol{r}) \approx \Phi^{h}(\boldsymbol{r}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_{F}} \Phi_{j} u_{j}(\boldsymbol{r}), \qquad \hat{\Phi} = (\Phi_{1}, \dots, \Phi_{N_{F}})$$

FEM solution obtained by solving

$$\mathcal{K}(x)\hat{\Phi}(x;q) = b(q) \Leftrightarrow \hat{\Phi}(x,q) = \mathcal{K}^{-1}(x)b(q)$$

where *K* is the FEM matrix, *b* arises from the light source s, and $x = (\hat{\mu}_a, \hat{\mu}'_s)$ is a vector of optical parameters.

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The acoustic model is approximated with

$$\frac{1}{c^2}\frac{\partial}{\partial t^2}\rho(\boldsymbol{r},t) - \nabla^2\rho(\boldsymbol{r},t) = \frac{1}{c^2}\rho_0(\boldsymbol{r})\frac{\partial}{\partial t}g_{\tau}(\boldsymbol{r},t), \qquad \boldsymbol{r} \in \mathbb{R}^n, t \in \mathbb{R} \quad (11)$$

where g_{τ} is a Gaussian function approximating instantaneous heating (or delta function). Equation (11) has an analytical solution, that can be expressed as convolution

$$\rho(\mathbf{r},t) = \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{c^2} \rho_0(\mathbf{r}') \mathcal{F}^{-1} \{ \mathrm{i}\omega \hat{g}_{\tau}(\omega) \hat{G}(||\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}'||,\omega) \}(t) \mathrm{d}\mathbf{r}'$$

where \mathcal{F}^{-1} {}(*t*) is the temporal inverse Fourier transform, $\hat{g}_{\tau}(\omega) = \mathcal{F} \{g_{\tau}(t)\}(\omega)$, and

$$\hat{G}(||\boldsymbol{r} - \boldsymbol{r}'||, \omega)\} = \begin{cases} i\frac{1}{4}H_0^{(1)}\left(\frac{w}{c}||\boldsymbol{r} - \boldsymbol{r}'||\right), & n = 2\\ \frac{1}{4\pi||\boldsymbol{r} - \boldsymbol{r}'||}\exp\left(i\frac{w}{c}||\boldsymbol{r} - \boldsymbol{r}'||\right) & n = 3 \end{cases}$$

is the Green's function defined by $\nabla^2 \hat{G} + \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} \hat{G} = -\delta(\mathbf{r})$.

Acoustic Mode - continued I

Approximating p_0 with base functions v_m as

$$p_0(\mathbf{r}) \approx p_0^h(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{m=1}^M p_{0,m} v_m(\mathbf{r}) \quad \hat{p}_0 = (p_{0,1}, \dots, p_{0,M})$$

the photoacoustic time series at detector located at $d_k(k = 1 \dots n_K)$ is

$$p(d_k,t) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} p_{0,m} w_m(d_k,t)$$

where

$$w_m(\mathbf{r},t) = \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{c^2} v_m(\mathbf{r}') \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left\{ i\omega \hat{g}_{\tau}(\omega) \hat{G}(||\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}'||,\omega) \right\} (t) d\mathbf{r}'$$
(12)

$$\hat{p}_t = \mathbf{W}\hat{p}_0$$

with W being formed by e.g. Gaussian quadrature integration of (12).

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PhotoAcoustic Model

By writing

$$p_{0,q} = \gamma \mu_{a,q} \Phi_q$$

and assuming γ being known, the combined photoacoustic model describing acoustic time series corresponding to optical parameters $x = (\hat{\mu}_a, \hat{\mu}'_s)$ and illumination q is then

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\rho}}_t = \mathbf{W}$$
diag $\{\hat{\mu}_a\} K^{-1}(x) b(q)$.

PhotoAcoustic Model

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$$\hat{\boldsymbol{p}}_t = \mathbf{W}$$
diag $\{\hat{\mu}_a\} K^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x}) \boldsymbol{b}(\boldsymbol{q}).$

Given n_Q illuminations $q_1 \dots q_{n_Q}$, and corresponding photoacoustic time series $\hat{p}_{t,1}, \dots, \hat{p}_{t,n_Q}$, the forward model can be written as

$$z=f(x),$$

with

$$\mathbf{z} = \left(\hat{\mathbf{p}}_{t;1}, \dots, \hat{\mathbf{p}}_{t,n_Q}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_K imes n_T imes n_Q}$$

and $f(x) : \mathbb{R}^{N_a + N_s} \to \mathbb{R}^{n_K \times n_T \times n_Q}$ given by

$$f(x) = \left(\mathbf{W} \text{diag } \{ \hat{\mu}_a \} \, \mathcal{K}^{-1}(x) b(q_1), \dots, \mathbf{W} \text{diag } \{ \hat{\mu}_a \} \, \mathcal{K}^{-1}(x) b(q_{n_Q}) \right)$$

Inverse Problem Bayesian Approach

Taking Bayesian approach to the photoacoustic inverse problem, and assuming additive noise model

$$y = f(x) + e$$

where *y* is z = f(x) polluted by noise e,

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Inverse Problem Bayesian Approach

Taking Bayesian approach to the photoacoustic inverse problem, and assuming additive noise model

$$y = f(x) + e$$

where y is z = f(x) polluted by noise e, the posterior distribution, corresponding to additive noise model, is

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{y}) \propto \pi_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\boldsymbol{x})\pi_{\boldsymbol{e}}(\boldsymbol{y}-\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x})),$$

where π_e and π_x are the probability densities of the noise and the prior.

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where π_e and π_x are the probability densities of the noise and the prior. Assuming Gaussian distribution for the noise *e* and the prior of *x*

$$\boldsymbol{e} \sim \mathcal{N}(\eta_{\boldsymbol{e}}, \Gamma_{\boldsymbol{e}}), \quad \boldsymbol{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\eta_{\boldsymbol{x}}, \Gamma_{\boldsymbol{x}})$$

the maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimate can be obtained as

$$x_{\text{MAP}} = \arg \min_{x} \left[\left| \left| L_{\theta}(y - f(x) - \eta_{\theta}) \right| \right|^{2} + \left| \left| L_{x}(x - \eta_{x}) \right| \right|^{2} \right]$$

where $L_e L_e^T = \Gamma_e^{-1}$ and $L_x L_x^T = \Gamma_x^{-1}$ are Cholesky decompositions of the covariance matrices.

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Bayesian Approach - continued

In addition to point estimates, such as MAP, Bayesian approach enables approximation of the error of the estimate. One such approximation is the credibility interval.

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Inverse Problem

Bayesian Approach - continued

In addition to point estimates, such as MAP, Bayesian approach enables approximation of the error of the estimate. One such approximation is the credibility interval.

Given MAP estimate x_{MAP} , it is possible to linearize the forward model f(x) using Taylor series as

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{x}_{\text{MAP}}) + \mathbf{J}_{f(\mathbf{x}_{\text{MAP}})}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{\text{MAP}});$$

where $\mathbf{J}_{f(x_{\text{MAP}})}$ is the Jacobian of *f* evaluated at x_{MAP} .

Inverse Problem

Bayesian Approach - continued

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Given MAP estimate x_{MAP} , it is possible to linearize the forward model f(x) using Taylor series as

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where $\mathbf{J}_{f(x_{\text{MAP}})}$ is the Jacobian of *f* evaluated at x_{MAP} . Substituting the linearization into the observation model

$$y = f(x_{\text{MAP}}) + \mathbf{J}_{f(x_{\text{MAP}})}(x - x_{\text{MAP}}) + \boldsymbol{e},$$

one finds posterior distribution being approximated as Gaussian, s.t. $x|y \propto \mathcal{N}(\eta, \Gamma),$ where $\eta = x_{\text{MAP}}$, and $\Gamma = \left(\mathbf{J}_f^{\text{T}}\Gamma_e^{-1}\mathbf{J}_f + \Gamma_x^{-1}\right)^{-1}$

is the approximative covariance matrix of the posterior distribution of the original inverse problem.

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The approximative credibility interval is then

$$\boldsymbol{C}_{\alpha} = [\boldsymbol{X}_{\text{MAP}} - \alpha \sigma, \boldsymbol{X}_{\text{MAP}} + \alpha \sigma];$$

where σ is vector of square roots of the diagonals of Γ , and α is 1, 2, or 3 for 68.3%, 95.5%, and 99.7% credibility intervals respectively.

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where σ is vector of square roots of the diagonals of Γ , and α is 1, 2, or 3 for 68.3%, 95.5%, and 99.7% credibility intervals respectively. It must be emphasized, that the credibility interval is dependent on the forward model and the prior. If either the model or the prior information is poor, then the estimates (and the credibility intervals) are bound to be misleading.

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Simulations

The investigated domain was $[-5mm, 5mm]^n$, n = 2 and n = 3. μ_a varied between $0.07 - 0.98mm^{-1}$ and μ'_s between $0.75 - 1.36mm^{-1}$. Sound speed of c = 1500 m=s was used. The data was formed by two different illuminations. Each illumination

had light entering the investigated domain from 1-3 sides with both illluminations covering at least 2 sides.

Acoustic detectors were located densely on 1-4 sides (2D) and 1 side (3D) of the domain, as well as sparsely on a circle (2D). Number of detectors was 31 - 128 (2D) and 1089 (3D).

Measurement data was simulated in grid with $37^2 = 1369$ (2D) and 373 = 50653 (3D) nodes. Reconstructions were computed in grids with 312 = 961 (2D) and 313 = 29791 (3D) nodes.

Noise was added to the simulated photoacoustic time series with standard deviation being 5%, 1%, or 0.1% of the peak-to-peak pressure amplitude.

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Simulations (continued)

Accurate noise statistics were assumed in the reconstructions. Ornstein-Ohlenbeck was used for the prior with $\zeta = 1 mm$. Prior parameters were chosen for μ_a and μ'_s separately, s.t. the mean of the prior corresponded to mean of peak-to-peak variation of parameters, and peak-to-peak variation corresponed to mean \pm standard deviation of the prior:

$$\eta = \frac{1}{2}(\max+\min), \quad \sigma = \frac{1}{2}(\max-\min),$$

MAP estimates were obtained in 2D and 3D for varying illumination and acoustic detector setups. 99.7% credibility intervals were computed for some 2D estimates.



Simulations (2D)



Reconstructions for different acoustic detector configurations. Illuminations from $\Leftarrow + \Rightarrow$ and $\Uparrow + \Downarrow$. Noise level 1%.

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Simulations (2D)



Reconstructions and 99.7% credibility intervals for 5%, 1%, and 0.1% noise. Illuminations from $\Leftarrow + \Rightarrow$ and $\Uparrow + \Downarrow$.

S.Arridge (University College London)

Simulations (2D)



Reconstructions for different illuminations. 0.1% noise. Illuminations are 1) $\Leftarrow + \Rightarrow$ and $\uparrow + \downarrow$, 2) $\Leftarrow + \downarrow$ and \uparrow , 3) \Leftarrow and \downarrow .

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Simulations (3D)



Reconstructions in 3D. Illuminations from three front sides and three back sides. Noise 0.1%. Acoustic detectors on the red edge.

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2 Modelling in Optical Tomography

3 PhotoAcoustics

4 Coupled Physics Imaging : Quantitative PhotoAcoustic Tomography

5 Summary

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 - Low resolution but relatively fast
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Many challenges remain, in solving both the acoustic and optical inverse problems together : "Quantitative PhotoAcoustic Tomography". Next step : combine numerical methods (time -reversal) with optical models (radiative transport equation).

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The goal is to get high resolution, dynamic and spectrally resolved quantitiative images (5D).

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6 Acknowledgements

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Collaborators :

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