

## **Supporting Information**

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Imaging Dynamics Beneath Turbid Media via Parallelized Single-Photon Detection

Shiqi Xu, Xi Yang, Wenhui Liu, Joakim Jönsson, Ruobing Qian, Pavan Chandra Konda, Kevin C. Zhou, Lucas Kreiß, Haoqian Wang, Qionghai Dai, Edouard Berrocal and Roarke Horstmeyer\*

# Imaging dynamics beneath turbid media via parallelized single-photon detection: supplementary document

### S1 Photon sensitive path and surface fluence analysis

In this section, we present the details of a simulation to studied the photon sensitive path, detected photon number, and scattering distributions of the tissue-like scattering s volume used in our experiment. These values and photon-sensitive regions are mentioned a repeatedly in the introduction and method sections to motivate the need of a multi-10 detector, parallelized speckle imaging system and provide valuable insight for our system 11 design. The study uses a recently developed Monte Carlo light scattering simulator [1]. 12 We use the Lorenz-Mie theory to generate the scattering, absorption, and the anistropy 13 function of the microsphere solution used in the experiment. To match the experimental 14 setup(see parallelized speckle detection setup in the Method section), we put detectors 15 9mm away from the illumination. The trajectory of the detected photon are recorded 16 to study the volume region most detected photon has travelled through. Figure S1 (A) 17 plots the center slice of the photon path that detected by two detectors placed 9mm away 18 from the illumination. Although 12 detectors are used in the real setup, a cross section 19 of photon trajectory from two detectors are presented here for a better visual illustration 20 propose. Visualizations of 3D trajectories of detected photon from all 12 fibers, and 6,4, 21 and 3 fibers are plotted in fig.S2(B). As expected, the light travel through banana-shaped 22 paths, with the most sensitive region penetrates around 5mm deep. The surface fluence 23 is plotted in fig. S1 (B), and a line-plot of the center line is provided. 10 billion photon is 24 pumped into the surface center of the tissue phantom. The photon number is re-scaled to 25 the 200mW 670nm illumination used in the experiment via the Planck-Einstein relation 26 to give quantitative predictions of the photon number per speckle area per us exposure on 27 the tissue phantom surface. On average 9.4 photon per speckle per us exiting the tissue 28 phantom surface 9mm away from the illumination. The emperically measured number of 29 photon using the SPAD array within this exposure time is less than 2 photon per pixel 30 per µs, which is lower. This is due to the fiber detection and transmission efficiency, and 31 the quantum efficiency of the SPAD. Hence, the measured photon number falls into the 32 expected range. Figure S1 (C) gives the probabilistic distribution of the number of times 33 photon gets scattered before detection, with an average number of scattering above 400 34 times. The distribution has a long tail, and no photon scattering less than 80 scattering 35 are detected at 9mm source-detector seperation. Therefore, the simulation predicts all 36 the detected light are highly scattered. However, in reality, as we used glass material to 37 make both the cuvette and the probe surface, capturing leaking photon from the phantom

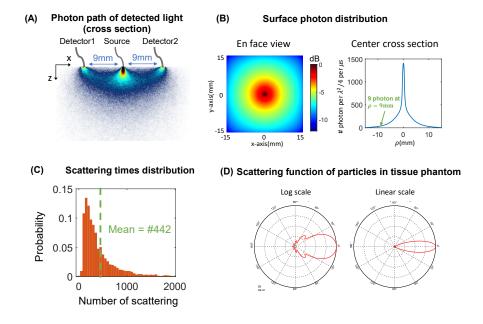


Figure S1: Monte carlo simulation of (A) Photon sensitive path of two source-detector pairs. (B) Left: En face view of the surface photon number distribution. Right: a center slice of the surface photon distribution. The y-axis is scaled to the number of backscattered photon on the surface per speckle area per micro-second when 200mW light is used. (C) The distribution of the number of scattering of detected photon. (D) The scattering function of the microsphere solution we used.

surface is also anticipated, as discussed in *Discussion* section in the main text. Figure S1 <sup>39</sup> (D) shows the phase function for the microsphere solution calculated by the Mie scattering <sup>40</sup> theory. In addition, we provide 3D trajectory of the detected photon and plot the imaging <sup>41</sup> sensitivity of the PDCI system using different number of fiber detectors in fig.S2. These <sup>42</sup> visualizations greatly help understand the imaging space of the system with different <sup>43</sup> number of fiber detectors, and explains why employing more detectors can noticeably <sup>44</sup> improve the imaging quality, as shown in the *Experimental validation* section in the main <sup>45</sup> text.

## S2 A model-based reconstruction

We compare our learning-based method with a model-based method. We assume the perturbation (object present subtract object absent)  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  generated by the DMD 49 patterns is linearly related to the displayed pattern pixels  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  by  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{W} \in {}_{50}\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , where each column of  $\mathbf{W} = [\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, ..]$  are the perturbations generated by the decorrelating point source located at pixels  $[x_1; x_2, ..]$  of  $\mathbf{x}$ ; i.e., the perturbation generated  ${}_{52}$  by displaying both pattern 1 and pattern 2 is equal to the sum of the perturbations  ${}_{53}$  generated by displaying pattern 1 and 2 individually. While analytical Green's functions  ${}_{54}$  of diffuse correlation equation(DCE) exist for simple media geometry, such as infinite or  ${}_{55}$  semi-infinite geometries, it is *not* available for most arbitrary tissue shapes. Moreover,  ${}_{56}$  as mentioned in the text, the diffuse correlation equation is not a good approximation

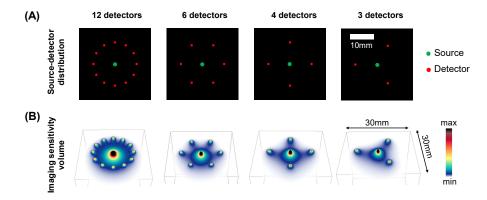


Figure S2: (A) PDCI system with different number of fiber detectors. The source-detector configurations are used to generate Fig.8 in the main article. (B) shows the imaging space of the PDCI systems with different number of detectors, with 12-fiber covers the most volume underneath. Images in each row share the same scale bar.

of the transported correlation equation for small source-detector separations used here.  $^{58}$  Hence, we measure the perturbation generated from each positions over a 0.67mm-pitch  $^{59}$  grid by turning on a small 1.36mm-radius circular DMD area centered at each grid point  $^{60}$  in sequence, which is smaller than the expected achievable resolution [2]). We apply  $\ell_1$   $^{61}$  and isotropic total variation penalties to regularize the ill-posed reconstruction. Such  $^{62}$  regularizations has been successfully applied to diffuse optical tomography to improve  $^{63}$  reconstruction quality [3, 4]. The inverse problem can be formulated as

$$\mathbf{x} = \underset{\mathbf{x}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_{2}^{2} + \beta \|\mathbf{x}\|_{1} + \gamma \|\mathbf{x}\|_{\text{tv}}. \tag{1}$$

To solve this, we use a variable splitting method. We first rewrite the problem as

$$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} = \underset{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}}{\operatorname{arg min}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_{2}^{2} + \beta \|\mathbf{y}\|_{1} + \gamma \|\mathbf{z}\|_{\text{tv}}, \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{z},$$
(2)

which is equivalent to solving the augmented Lagrangian

$$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} = \underset{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{z}; \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}}{\min} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}; \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}),$$
 (3)

where

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}; \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_{2}^{2} + \beta \|\mathbf{y}\|_{1} + \gamma \|\mathbf{z}\|_{\text{tv}}$$

$$+ \mathbf{u}^{\top}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{v}^{\top}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}) + \frac{\rho_{1}}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_{2}^{2} + \frac{\rho_{2}}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}\|_{2}^{2}.$$
(4)

This can be solved efficiently using the alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) [5] encapsulated in algorithm 1, where the primal variables minimization steps can be sim-71 plified as

$$\mathbf{x} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_{2}^{2} + \frac{\rho_{1}}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{u}\|_{2}^{2} + \frac{\rho_{2}}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{v}\|_{2}^{2},$$
 (5)

$$\mathbf{y} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{y}} \beta \|\mathbf{y}\|_1 + \frac{\rho_1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{u}\|_2^2, \tag{6}$$

$$\beta \|\mathbf{z}\|_{\text{tv}} +$$
  $\mathbf{z} = \underset{\mathbf{z}}{\operatorname{arg min}} \qquad \frac{\rho_2}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{v}\|_2^2,$  (7)

respectively. Equation 5 has a close-form solution

$$\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{W}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{W} + \rho_{1}\mathbf{I} + \rho_{2}\mathbf{I})^{-1} \operatorname{geometric} 6 \operatorname{also}(\rho_{1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{u}) + \rho_{2}(\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{W}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{b}).$$
(8)

has a close-form solution

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathcal{S}(\mathbf{y}, {}^{2\beta/\rho_1}), \tag{9}$$

where  $S(\cdot, \lambda)$  is the soft-threshold function with a threshold  $\lambda$ . Unfortunately the proximal 82 of the TV regularization in equation 7 does not have a close-form solution; however, we 83 can solve it efficiently using the method proposed by Beck and Teboulle [6] that converges 84 in 10 iterations.

#### S3Liquid phantom optical and dynamic property

Here we present a way to estimate the scattering, absorption, and decorrelating properties 87 of the polystyrene microsphere liquid phantom we use in the experiments. Our phantom 88 is made of 1-micronmeter polystyrene microspheres suspension with a concentration of  $_{89}$  4.55  $\times$ 10<sup>6</sup>#/mm<sup>3</sup>. Using one of the most popular reported complex refractive index of 50 polystyrene (1.584-0.0004i) measured by Ma et.al. [7], the scattering  $(\mu'_s)$  and absorption of coefficient  $(\mu_a)$  of the polystyrene microsphere solution can be calculated with the Lorenz-92 Mie theory [8], which results in an calculated  $\mu'_s = 0.7 \text{mm}^{-1}$  and  $\mu_a = 0.02 \text{mm}^{-1}$ . How-93 ever, as the extinction coefficient of the polystyrene in 670nm wavelength is very small, 94 a tiny variance (on the order of  $10 \times -4$ ) caused by manufacturing process inconsistency 95 or discrepancy can result in noticeable difference in the absorption coefficient. Hence, we % experimentally measure the absorption coefficient using a relation between surface diffuse 97 reflectance and source-detector distance derived from the diffusion equation [9]

$$\ln\left(\rho^2 I_\rho\right) = -\mu_{eff} + I_0,\tag{10}$$

#### Algorithm 1 Proposed ADMM-based reconstruction method

```
1: Input: initial guess \mathbf{x}^0, system matrix \mathbf{W}, measurement \mathbf{b}, number if iteration T.
2: Init: \mathbf{y}^0 = \mathbf{x}^0, \mathbf{z}^0 = \mathbf{x}^0, \mathbf{u}^0 = \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{v}^0 = \mathbf{0}.
```

3: **for** t = 1, 2, ..., T **do** 

4: 
$$\mathbf{x}^t = \arg\min_{\mathbf{x}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}^{t-1}, \mathbf{y}^{t-1}, \mathbf{z}^{t-1}; \mathbf{u}^{t-1}, \mathbf{v}^{t-1})$$
  $\triangleright \text{Eq. 8}$ 

5: 
$$\mathbf{y}^t = \arg\min_{\mathbf{y}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{y}^{t-1}, \mathbf{z}^{t-1}; \mathbf{u}^{t-1}, \mathbf{v}^{t-1})$$
 > Eq.9

6:

3: 
$$\mathbf{for} \ t = 1, 2, \dots, T \ \mathbf{do}$$
4:  $\mathbf{x}^t = \arg\min_{\mathbf{x}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}^{t-1}, \mathbf{y}^{t-1}, \mathbf{z}^{t-1}; \mathbf{u}^{t-1}, \mathbf{v}^{t-1})$ 
5:  $\mathbf{y}^t = \arg\min_{\mathbf{y}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{y}^{t-1}, \mathbf{z}^{t-1}; \mathbf{u}^{t-1}, \mathbf{v}^{t-1})$ 
6:  $\mathbf{z}^t = \arg\min_{\mathbf{z}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{y}^t, \mathbf{z}^{t-1}; \mathbf{u}^{t-1}, \mathbf{v}^{t-1})$ 
7:  $\mathbf{u}^t = \mathbf{u}^{t-1} + \mathbf{x}^t - \mathbf{y}^t$ 
8:  $\mathbf{v}^t = \mathbf{v}^{t-1} + \mathbf{x}^t - \mathbf{z}^t$ 
 $\triangleright \text{Dual ascent}$ 

▶ Dual ascent

9: end for

10: Output:  $\mathbf{x}^T$ 

where  $\rho$  is the source-detector distance.  $\mu_{eff} = \sqrt{3\mu_s'\mu_a}$  is the effective attenuation coefficient.  $I_{\rho}$  and  $I_0$  are the surface diffuse reflectance at  $\rho$  and 0, respectively. In is the nature 101 logarithmic function. Fig. S3 plots the experimentally measured ln  $(\rho^2 I_{\rho})$  as a function 102 of the source-detector separation. Fitting the points with a straight line, we can derive 103 the absorption coefficient to be  $\mu_a = 0.01 \text{cm}^{-1}$ .

Next, we want to estimate the dynamic property of the media. Since we use a 0.9cm  $_{105}$  source-detector separation in the experiment, a Monte Carlo method is used to give  $_{106}$  more accurate result [10]. Consider a photon n experience its  $i^{th}$  scattering inside the  $_{107}$  medium m, resulting a momentum transfer  $\mathbf{q}_{n,m}^i$  and a traveling path length  $l_{n,m}^i$ , where  $_{108}$   $\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{k}_{out} - \mathbf{k}_{in}$  with  $\mathbf{k}_{out}$  and  $\mathbf{k}_{in}$  are wave-vectors scattered from and towards the colli- $_{109}$  sion, respectively. The total dimensionless momentum transfer an photon traveling path  $\mathbf{q}$ 

length of photon n inside medium m can be written as  $Y_{n,m} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (q_{n,m}^i)^2/(2k_m^2)$  and  $L_{n,m} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} l_{n,m}^i$ , respectively, with each individual  $q_{n,m}^i$  and  $l_{n,m}^i$  tracked from the Monte Carlo simulation. Therefore, the field correlation can be calculated as [10]

$$G_1(\tau) = \frac{1}{N_p} \sum_{n=1}^{N_p} \exp(-\frac{1}{3} \sum_{m=1}^{M} Y_{n,m} k_m^2 \langle \Delta r_m^2(\tau) \rangle) \exp(\sum_{m=1}^{M} -\mu_{a_m} L_{n,m}),$$
(11)

where M is the number of different tissue types, and  $N_p$  is the number of detected photons. <sup>115</sup>  $k_m$  and  $\mu_{a_m}$  are the wave-number and absorption coefficient in medium m. Since we are <sup>116</sup> estimating the property for the background media, which is homogeneous, M=1 in this <sup>117</sup> case. Further, we assume the polystyrene bead suspension experience Brownian motion,

which makes  $\langle \Delta r_m^2(\tau) \rangle = 6D_v \tau$ . From field correlation curves, we can compute the normalized intensity correlation using the Siegert relation [11] 120

$$g_2(\tau) = 1 + |g_1(\tau)|^2, \tag{12}$$

where  $g_1(\tau) = G_1(\tau)/G_1(0)$  is the normalized field correlation. Fitting the experimentally 122 measured  $g_2(\tau)$  with simulated ones, we derive the diffusion coefficient for the media 123  $D_v = 1.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{mm}^2/\text{s}$ , which is close to the diffusion coefficient in small animals [12].

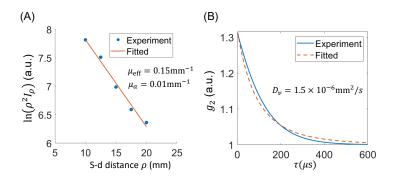


Figure S3: Validation of diffusion model and intensity autocorrelation function (A) Experimentally measured  $\ln{(\rho^2 I_{\rho})}$  as a function of source-detector separation. Fitting measured points gives an estimated  $\mu_a = 0.01 \text{cm}^{-1}$ . (B) Fitting intensity autocorrelation  $g_2(\tau)$  using simulation gives a predicted Brownian diffusion coefficient  $D_v = 1.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{mm}^2/\text{s}$ .

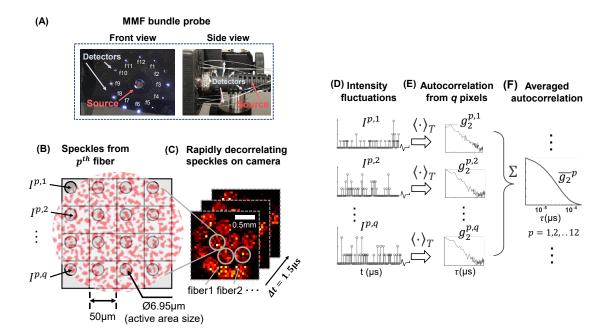


Figure S4: Data preprocessing flow for our parallelized speckle detection system. (A) Photos of fiber bundle probe, showing 12 detectors radially positioned around light delivery fiber in center. Light collected from each positions in (A) are mapped to and collected by the SPAD array, as displayed in (C). (B) shows a few frames of the raw data captured by the  $32 \times 32$  SPAD array camera at a  $1.5\mu$ s exposure. (C) illustrates the SPAD pixels that records the speckle fluctuations from the detector fiber p. (D) some representative time-resolved photon counting measurements from each SPAD pixel. The normalized intensity temperal autocorrelation curve for each pixel is calculated using the eq.?? as plotted in (E). All the computed correlations from SPAD pixels that measures the speckle p are averaged to generate a relatively smooth autocorrelation  $\overline{g_2}^p$  for the surface location p = 1, 2, ..., 12.

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