Chapter 1

DETECTION OF MULTIPLY SCATTERED LIGHT IN OPTICAL COHERENCE MICROSCOPY

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Abstract In this study a number of experimental and computational methods were employed to examine the effect of multiply scattered light detection on image quality and penetration depth of optical coherence microscopy (OCM) in turbid media. Measurements of the OCM resolution at different optical depths in the scattering media reveal that detection of multiply scattered light causes significant degradation of the lateral and axial resolution and that the deterioration effect is dependent on the turbid media scattering anisotropy and the numerical aperture (NA) of the imaging objective.

Keywords: scattering, optical coherence microscopy, imaging, diffusion

Introduction

A major problem in biomedical optical imaging is the fact that image quality degrades with depth penetration: the deeper the imaged object is buried in turbid media like tissue, the less precise is the determination of it’s location, size, shape and optical properties. Various microscopy techniques like confocal (CM) and optical coherence microscopy / tomography (OCM/OCT) [4-6] can produce high-resolution images (1-10 μm) in tissue by selectively detecting mainly ballistic and single scattered light. The image penetration depth though, is
typically limited to a range of a few hundred microns up to a millimeter. Other methods like diffuse optical tomography (DOT) [7, 8] utilize the statistical properties of light thus permitting imaging of objects buried at a depth of a few centimeters at the expense of significantly reduced image quality (5-10 mm resolution).

Currently, the intermediate regime spanning between optical microscopy and DOT, where light is multiply scattered (a few photon scattering events) but not yet diffuse, is still relatively unexplored. Multiply scattered light reflected off an object embedded in a turbid medium carries a significant amount of information about the object location and properties. Therefore, development of new imaging modalities utilizing multiply scattered light will depend on how accurately this information can be interpreted. Proper interpretation though, will require thorough knowledge of the process of light interaction with the imaged object, and the turbid background for the imaging system employed.

The detection of multiply scattered light and its deteriorating effect on image contrast, resolution and depth penetration has been partially investigated for both CM and OCM/OCT [9-13]. All of these studies employed measurements of back-scattered light in homogeneous or inhomogeneous samples as a function of the imaging lens focal depth or the total photon path length in the medium.

A typical intensity profile acquired with an OCM system in a homogeneous scattering medium is shown in Fig. 1. For shallow depths of the focal point, the detected light is mainly single scattered resulting in an exponential decay (Beer-Lambert law) of the measured intensity (linear on a semi-log scale). As the objective focal point is translated deeper into the turbid medium, the contribution of multiply scattered light to the total intensity becomes more pronounced and after a certain depth the only light collected is diffuse. Since the transition from single scattered to diffuse light in the intensity profile (Fig. 1) is smooth, it is difficult to distinguish clearly the boundaries between regions where single scattered, multiply scattered and diffuse light are the dominant components of the measured intensity. The intensity profile in Fig. 1 poses various questions: when does detection of light that has scattered a few times become significant; when does the detected light become completely diffuse; how does partial detection of multiply scattered and diffuse light affect image contrast and resolution; how does the cumulative detection of multiply scattered light depend on the media optical properties, the instrument imaging geometry and the applied photon gating methods; is OCM imaging signal-to-noise or signal-to-background limited and can we define penetration depth limits as functions of the imaging geometry parameters and sample optical properties?

The main goal of this chapter is to provide answers to some of these questions. To do that a number of experimental and computational methods were utilized. To aid the investigation of the transition from single scattered to diffuse light detection in imaging systems, a new method, Dynamic Low Coherence Interferometry (DLCI) was developed, as described in the Quasi-Eric-Diffuse Wave Spectroscopy (QEDS) section. The pathlength selectivity of an OCM is sensitive to the number of photons in the measurement. DLCI is limited therefore additional experimental study the effect of multiply scattered light point-spread function (PSF).

The information presented in section 1 reviews the methods used for scattered light and the subsection 2 describes in detail the experimental methods discussed in section 3. Last section of the study and presents an outline

1. METHODS FOR DETECTION DIFFUSE LIGHT DIFFUSION

The following section reviews the optical measurement (section measurements) and comput
ons up to a millimeter. Other \cite{7,8} utilize the statistical aspects buried at a depth of a few microns, the total image quality (5-10 mm between optical microscopy photon scattering events) but multiply scattered light reflected carries a significant amount of information. Therefore, development of light will depend on how proper interpretation of these interactions is achieved. Imaging system employed. 

The deteriorating effect on image quality partially investigated for single scattering events employing measurements on homogeneous samples as a function of path length in the medium. In a homogeneous medium, the total intensity becomes more and more diffuse. Since the intensity profile (Fig. 1) shows boundaries between regions, diffuse light are the dominant scattering profile in Fig. 1, the light that has scattered a few times, becomes completely diffuse; and diffuse light affects image detection of multiply scattered light. Imaging geometry (image signal-to-noise ratio) and penetration depth limits as well as sample optical properties. 

Answers to some of these questions are computational methods were used for single scattered to diffuse light. Dynamic Low Coherence Interferometry (DLCI) was developed in our lab \cite{14,15}. The idea for DLCI was derived from the Quasi-Elastic Light Scattering (QELS) \cite{16,17} and Diffuse Wave Spectroscopy (DWS) \cite{18,19,20,21,22} theories and utilizes the pathlength selectivity of an OCT/OCM system. DLCI measures cumulative changes in the photon total momentum transfer as a function of the photon path length in homogeneous, dynamic random media therefore it is more sensitive to the number of photon scattering events than a regular intensity measurement. DLCI is limited to measurements in dynamic systems, therefore additional experimental and computational techniques were employed to study the effect of multiply scattered light detection on the quality of the OCM point-spread function (PSF).

The information presented in this book chapter is organized as follows: section 1 reviews the methods used to study the cumulative detection of multiply scattered light and the subsequent image degradation in OCM. Section 2 describes in detail the experimental and computational results, which are later discussed in section 3. Last section summarizes the accomplishments of this study and presents an outline of the future work.

1. METHODS FOR INVESTIGATING OF THE TRANSITION FROM SINGLE SCATTERING TO LIGHT DIFFUSION

The following section reviews the experimental (DLCI and OCM resolution measurements) and computational (Monte Carlo models) methods used to
investigate the transition from single scattered to diffuse light for the case of imaging in turbid media with OCM and OCT systems.

As a measurement method DLCI is sensitive to changes in the photon total momentum transfer, occurring after each scattering event. Therefore it can provide valuable insight on the effect of a turbid background on the OCM point-spread function in the absence of an imaged object. Additional information on the deteriorating effect of a scattering background on image quality (contrast and resolution) can be obtained from experimental measurements of the OCM lateral and axial resolution. Unfortunately, often in experimental studies detailed information on changes occurring at a single photon scale, necessary for understanding and modeling of the transition scattering regime, is lost. This type of information can be obtained from Monte Carlo (MC) models that can "label" photons, store information about the photon position, polarization state and momentum transfer after each scattering event and gate photons spatially (CM) and by their total path length (OCM).

1.1. DYNAMIC LOW COHERENCE INTERFEROMETRY

The principle of operation of DLCI is the same as of any standard interferometer with the only exception that one of the mirrors is substituted with the examined sample (Fig. 2). In our case the single-mode fiber optic interferometer is illuminated with light from an 850 nm super-luminescent diode (25 nm spectral bandwidth, 1.2 mW output power). The optical properties of the sample generate a distribution of optical path lengths in the sample arm, while the path length in the reference arm is determined solely by the position of the retroreflector. Interference is observed only when the optical path length difference between the reference and the sample arms is within the coherence length of the source. Thus, a "coherence gate" is used to select specific path lengths within the sample. The amplitude of the interference signal is therefore proportional to the path length dependent reflection/scattering properties of the sample. The position of the reference mirror (retroreflector) is adjusted in such a way as to align the coherence gate with the beam waist, thus optimizing the rejection of out-of-focus background light. The instrument lateral and axial resolution in air is determined by the objective NA and the size and shape of the spatial filter applied to result in confocal detection. In our case spatial filtering was realized by using a single mode fiber system. The instrument axial resolution is further enhanced for small NA objectives by the presence of a coherence gate.

For a fixed position of the reference mirror the photocurrent at the detector can we written as:

\[ i_d \propto I_r + I_s + I_{\text{fluct}}(z,t), \]  

where \( I_r \) (\( I_s \)) is the intensity of the reference (sample) beam; \( I_{\text{fluct}}(z,t) \) is the cross term (or optical heterodyning) term representing the phases of the reference electric field \( E_r(z) \) and the sample electric field \( E_s(z) \) of the scattered light. Any variation in the reference beam from changes in the amplitude and/or phase of the retroreflective mirror is held fixed, the amplitude/phase of the sample beam is used.

Any dynamics in the turbid sample cause changes in the sampling of a distribution of Doppler frequencies within the sample, which causes phase changes of the cross term intensity \( I_{\text{fluct}}(z,t) \). The overall photocurrent \( i_d \) is then detected by the photo detector current \( i_d \) in response to the presence of moving particles undergoing Brownian motion.

where \( A \) is the amplitude of the fluctuation term

This equation does not account for the effect of an optically dilute suspension (i.e. the incident light is not scattered), therefore the scattering angle or path of single scattered light, associated with particles, the power spectrum line, or particle diffusion coefficient \( D_B \):

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photon scale, necessary for scattering regime, is lost. This
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INTERFEROMETRY
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\[ I_r (z, t) \]

\[ I_s (z, t) \]

\[ I^{\text{fluct}} (z, t) \]

where \( I_r (z, t) \) is the intensity from the reference (sample) arm and \( I^{\text{fluct}} (z, t) \) is the cross term (or optical heterodyne term) resulting from the coherent mixing of the reference electric field \( E_r \) with the path length dependent electric field \( E_s (z) \) of the scattered light. Temporal fluctuations in the cross term may result from changes in the amplitude and/or phase of \( E_r \) or \( E_s \). When the reference mirror is held fixed, the amplitude and the phase of \( E_r \) do not change over time. Any dynamics in the turbid sample such as flow or Brownian motion, result in a distribution of Doppler frequency shifts in the light propagating through the medium, which causes phase variations in \( E_s (z) \), resulting in fluctuations in the cross term intensity \( I^{\text{fluct}} (z, t) \). The power spectrum (a Fourier transform of the photo detector current \( i_d \) derived for a system consisting of light scattering particles undergoing Brownian motion is a Lorentzian [16, 17]:

\[ P(\omega) = \frac{1}{\Omega} \frac{A}{1 + \left( \frac{\omega}{\Omega} \right)^2}, \]

where \( A \) is the amplitude of the power spectrum and \( \Omega \) is the spectrum linewidth.

This equation does not account for the \( \Omega = 0 \) contribution of \( I_r \) and \( I_s \). In an optically dilute suspension (Fig. 3a), light scatters only once before detection, therefore the scattering angle and polarization are well defined. For the case of single scattered light, assuming weak scattering and non-interacting particles, the power spectrum linewidth is proportional to the particle self-diffusion coefficient \( D_B \):

\[ \Omega = q^2 D_B = 4k_0^2 D_B \sin^2(\theta/2), \]
where \( D_B = k_B T / (3 \pi \eta d) \), \( k_B \) is the Boltzmann constant, \( T \) is the temperature of the sample, \( \eta \) is the viscosity of the suspending liquid (in our case \( H_2O \eta = 1.0 \text{ cps} \)), and \( d \) is the hydrodynamic diameter of the scattering particle. Here \( q \) denotes the photon momentum transfer, \( q = 2k \sin(\theta/2) \), where \( k \) is the wave number in the scattering medium and \( \theta \) is the scattering angle. Note that eq. (2) is valid for optical heterodyne detection, while in the case of a homodyne measurement, the expression is multiplied by a factor of two.

In an optically dense medium (Fig. 3b), where light scatters multiple times before detection, the scattering angle, the polarization of the scattered wave and consequently the photon momentum transfer, \( q \), changes with each scattering event. In the case of light diffusion through a turbid medium undergoing Brownian motion, the power spectrum of the detected diffuse light is also a Lorentzian, but with a linewidth dependent on the scattering properties of the suspension and the photon path length within it:

\[
\Omega = 2k_0^2 D_B \mu_s (1 - g) s .
\]  

Here \( s \) is the total path length traveled by the light in the medium, \( \mu_s \) is the scattering coefficient and \( g \) is the scattering anisotropy of the turbid medium defined as an average of the cosine of the scattering angle. For polystyrene microspheres the scattering anisotropy factor and the scattering coefficient can be calculated using Mie theory and the Percus-Yevick structure factors for hard-spheres [21].

For our studies a spectrum analyzer (Stanford Research, SR760) was used to measure the power spectrum of light back scattered from concentrated turbid samples (see Fig. 2). The linewidth and the amplitude of the spectrum were determined by fitting the raw data with a Lorentzian function. The turbid samples used in all experiments were prepared by suspending polystyrene microspheres (Bangs Labs, Inc.) in distilled water. The particle volume fraction in each monodisperse suspension was measured at a length \( (l_s) \) of approximately 100 \( \mu m \) at a temperature, which was required to ensure the invariance of the experiments investigating the effect of spatial filters. All experiments investigating the effect of spatial filters, including the normalized spatial filter parameter \( L_0 \), were carried out at a temperature of 20 \( \text{C} \), where the particle diameter was varied between 0.05 and 0.2 \( \mu m \).

1.2. EXPERIMENTAL COHERENCE MAPPING

A slightly modified version of the experiments (Fig. 2) was used to study the effect of varying the standard image resolution on the imaging of the turbid medium with known optical properties. We first mounted an XYZ translation stage on a confocal microscope on the layer of scattering medium, which was placed in the cuvette. The imaging objective was also mounted on an XYZ stage, as shown in Fig. 3a. The imaging objective was focused at a focal point in the medium. The confocal microscope objective was then moved onto the focal point of the scanning the focal point over the scattering medium. The OCT axial and lateral resolutions are determined by the polystyrene microspheres (particle diameter of 0.1 \( \mu m \)), and the particle concentration was chosen to be of approximately 200 \( \mu m \). The number of photons within the objective NA and the collection NA.

1.3. MONTE CARLO SIMULATIONS

For our studies we have used the Monte Carlo method for simulation. The general principles of computational simulation of turbid media are described by Jacques and Wang [24]. In our simulations each photon was treated as a point source with a particular direction of propagation. Monte Carlo code was modified to simulate the trajectories of photons by their path length [23]. Since we were particularly interested in the behavior of photons within the turbid medium according to their path length, the code was modified to simulate the propagation of each photon and track its path length within the medium.
each monodisperse suspension was chosen to result in a photon mean scattering length ($l_s$) of approximately 100 μm. Samples were kept at a constant room temperature, which was recorded prior to each experiment. For the measurements investigating the effect of the NA on the power spectrum broadening, the normalized spatial filter parameter $\nu_p$ ($\nu_p = 2\pi r_p NA/\lambda$), where $r_p$ is the filter diameter was varied between 2 and 6.

1.2. EXPERIMENTAL MEASUREMENTS OF THE OPTICAL COHERENCE MICROSCOPE POINT SPREAD FUNCTION

A slightly modified version of the set-up employed in the Doppler experiments (Fig. 2) was used to measure the OCM axial and lateral resolution. A standard image resolution chart was fixed at a particular position in a scattering medium with known optical properties. The turbid sample was mounted on an XYZ translation stage, which made it possible to alter the thickness of the layer of scattering medium separating the chart from the front surface of the cuvette. The imaging optics in the sample arm of the interferometer was also mounted on an XYZ stage to allow for translation of the objective focal point in the medium. The OCM axial and lateral resolution was evaluated by scanning the focal point over the resolution chart in the X and Z directions and measuring the back-scattered light intensity. The turbid samples used for the OCM axial and lateral resolution measurements were prepared by suspending polystyrene microspheres ($d = 0.22 \mu m$, $g = 0.2$) in distilled water. The particle concentration was chosen to result in a photon mean scattering length ($l_s$) of approximately 200 μm. In this particular measurement, the combination of the objective NA and the confocal spatial filter resulted in $\nu_p = 6$.

1.3. MONTE CARLO SIMULATIONS

For our studies we have developed a Monte Carlo code to simulate light detection in OCM geometry for turbid samples with known optical properties. The general principles of our Monte Carlo code are similar to that described by Jacques and Wang [24]. A schematic of the imaging geometry used in all simulations is presented in Fig. 4. A non-uniform photon distribution at the sample surface is used to map out a focused Gaussian beam. The initial photon direction of propagation is determined by simulating a diffraction-limited volume centered at the chosen focal point position. Photons are propagated in the turbid medium according to the rules described by Jacques and Wang [23]. Since we were particularly interested in coherence detection, (OCM), the code was modified to simulate spatial filtering (CM) [24] and gate the detected photons by their path length (OCM).

To explore the changes in the OCM PSF due to a presence of a reflecting object within the medium positioned at the focus of the imaging lens, we have
simulated measurements of the axial and lateral OCM resolution. This was done by moving a perfectly reflecting mirror along the optical axis and transverse to the axis at the beam waist. The Monte Carlo code designed to simulate OCM resolution measurements was used to investigate the dependence of the resolution loss on the objective NA and the sample scattering anisotropy $g$. Simulations were run for $g=0.1$, 0.9 and NA=0.1, 0.5. Diffraction theory was used to calculate the confocal lateral and axial resolution in air for the two simulated objectives. For a wavelength of 850 nm and NA=0.1 ($\Delta x = 5 \mu m$, $\Delta z = 128 \mu m$), and for NA=0.5 ($\Delta x = 1 \mu m$, $\Delta z = 5 \mu m$). The coherence gate parameter corresponding to the SLD coherence length was fixed to $L_c = 10 \mu m$, which ultimately determined the measurement axial resolution for the small NA lens case. For all simulations the normalized pinhole parameter was fixed to $\nu_p = 7.4$ and the photon scattering length was kept constant ($l_s = 100 \mu m$). The axial resolution was defined as the FWHM for the normalized intensity profile derived from the simulations, while the lateral resolution was determined as HWHM, where the half maximum (HW) in this case was defined as the middle point between 10% and 90% of the total intensity.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 4.** Schematic representation of the Monte Carlo model. $D$ is the diameter of the objective, $h$ is the distance of the objective from the surface of the medium, $z_i$ is the depth of the focal point in the medium.

2. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The following section reviews measurements and Monte Carlo results in subsections depending on...

2.1. DYNAMIC LOW

To demonstrate that DLCL is motion within highly scattering and very dilute media, we measured monodisperse suspensions (50 nm) at a sample depth of 200 $\mu m$ with pathlengths within the highly scattering sample to avoid Fresnel reflections. Detection of only single scattered Lorentzian (eq. (2)) as indicated in linewidths obtained from the Brownian diffusion coefficients for backscattered angle of 180$^\circ$ and 0.997 $\mu m$ were within 1% of one another. Multiple experiments showed the same accuracy.

To explore the effect of noise on linewidth we measured the power spectra of highly scattering, monodisperse polystyrene spheres in water ($g = 0.2$) with a backscattered angle of 180$^\circ$ and 1089 $\mu m$ below the surface. Pathlengths of 0.066 mm and longer through the data points normalized to facilitate their comparison. The noise for the 1/f electronic noise was assessed by directly measuring the electron noise.

The ability of DLCL to separate single scattered photons from the transition from single scattering to the goal the power spectrum was measured and all data was fit with a Lorentzian curve fitting are plotted as a function.
2. EXPERIMENTAL AND COMPUTATIONAL RESULTS

The following section reviews all results obtained from the experimental measurements and Monte Carlo simulations. The data presented are organized in subsections depending on the method used.

2.1. DYNAMIC LOW COHERENCE INTERFEROMETRY

To demonstrate that DLCl can be used to image and quantify Brownian motion within highly scattering media in a way similar to DLS methods in very dilute media, we measured the power density spectrum for two separate monodisperse suspensions (\(d = 0.22 \mu m\), \(\eta = 0.2\) and \(d = 1.02 \mu m\), \(\eta = 0.9\)) at a sample depth of 200 \(\mu m\) (see Fig. 5), i.e. at a depth of two scattering lengths within the highly scattering medium. This particular depth was chosen to avoid Fresnel reflections from the glass/suspension interface and to ensure detection of only single scattered light. The experimental data was fit with a Lorentzian (eq. (2)) as indicated by the solid lines through the data points. The linewidths obtained from these fits were used to determine the experimental Brownian diffusion coefficients and the corresponding particle sizes, assuming a backscattered angle of 180°. The calculated microsphere diameters (0.222 \(\mu m\) and 0.997 \(\mu m\)) were within 1-5% of the values cited by the manufacturer corresponding. Multiple experiments with different size polystyrene microspheres showed the same accuracy.

To explore the effect of multiply scattered light detection on the spectrum linewidth we measured the power spectrum as a function of pathlength in a highly scattering, monodisperse suspension of 0.22 \(\mu m\) polystyrene microspheres in water (\(\eta = 0.2\)) with an objective with an NA = 0.2. Figure 6 shows the power spectra measured with the focal point positioned at 33 \(\mu m\), 792 \(\mu m\) and 1089 \(\mu m\) below the surface of the sample, corresponding to photon total pathlengths of 0.066 mm and 1.584 mm and 2.178 mm respectively. The solid lines through the data points represent the Lorentzian fits. The spectra were normalized to facilitate their comparison. Note that for the measurements at longer pathlengths, where the signal was weaker, it was necessary to account for the 1/f electronic noise that was significant at lower frequencies. This was done by directly measuring the 1/f spectrum and including it in the Lorentzian fit.

The ability of DLCl to separate single scattered from multiply scattered light demonstrated with the results shown in Fig. 7a was further used to explore the transition from single scattered to diffuse light detection. To accomplish this goal the power spectrum was measured in steps of 33 \(\mu m\) inside the sample and all data was fit with a Lorentzian function. The results from the linewidth fitting are plotted as a function of the photon path length in the turbid medium.
The straight lines through the data points represent the expected Lorentzian profiles. The solid lines through the data points represent the expected Lorentzian profiles. The arrows in Fig. 7a mark the beginning of the light diffusion regime where light is scattered, multiply scattered, and single scattered. The arrows in Fig. 7b illustrate the dependence of the total momentum transfer coefficient $G_s$ on the source power spectrum.

A summary of the experimental results is shown in Fig. 7b as a plot of the data as a function of $s/l^*$, where $s$ is the mean free path and $l^*$ is the length scale of the experimental setup. The solid lines through the data points represent the Lorentzian fits.

To explore the transition regime between single scattering and multiple scattering, we measured power spectra at three different depths inside a highly scattering suspension of microspheres. The solid lines through the data points represent the Lorentzian fits.
The straight lines through the data points represent the linewidth behavior as predicted for the single scattering (eq. (2)) and diffusion (eq. (3)) regimes. The arrows on Fig. 7a mark the possible position of the boundaries between single scattering, multiply scattering, and diffusion regimes. The position of the arrows was defined following way: an assumption was made that a change in the spectrum linewidth greater than 10% of the initial value (single scattered light detection) demonstrates a significant detection of multiply scattered light. The corresponding number of photon mean free paths in the medium, necessary to cause such a broadening of the linewidth was defined as the end of the single scattering regime. In a similar way a limit was established to define the beginning of the light diffusion regime.

Figure 7b illustrates the effect of the detection of multiply scattered light on the Lorentzian amplitude as determined from the fits. As expected, in our practically non-absorbing sample, in the single scattering regime the amplitude decayed exponentially with the path length with an extinction coefficient equal to the scattering coefficient \( \mu_s \) of the medium \( \mu_s = 1/l_s \). The solid line through the data points represents the decay predicted from the single scattering theory. The arrows in Fig. 7 indicate the beginning and the end of the transition regime where light is scattered a few times as determined from the linewidth graph. The position of the arrows demonstrates clearly that a measurement of the total momentum transfer changes is a better method for separation of single scattered, multiply scattered and diffuse light than a regular intensity measurement.

To examine the dependence of the transition on the sample scattering anisotropy factor \( g \), power spectra were measured in turbid suspensions with \( g=0.2, 0.39 \) and \( 0.75 \), while keeping the NA of the focusing optics fixed (NA=0.32). A summary of the experimental results is presented in Fig. 8. Note that Fig. 8 is a plot of the data as a function of the number of photon random walk steps \( (l^* = l_s/(1 - g)) \) in the medium rather than scattering lengths \( l_s \) to utilize the \( s/l^* \) scaling predicted by DWS (eq. (3)). Furthermore, the data was normalized by the linewidth in the single scattering regime to facilitate the comparison.

To explore the transition dependence on the imaging lens NA, the power spectra were measured in a suspension with scattering anisotropy factor \( g=0.2 \) using three different microscope objectives (NA=0.12, 0.32 and 0.55). The experimental results are shown in Fig. 9a, where the measured spectrum linewidth is plotted as a function of the photon pathlength scaled in terms of photon mean free paths in the medium. The results clearly demonstrate that an increase in the NA causes the transition to occur after a fewer number of photon mean free paths (MFP). Same measurements were repeated for samples with scattering anisotropy \( g=0.75 \) and a summary of the results is presented in Fig. 9b.
2.2. EXPERIMENTAL MEASUREMENTS OF THE OPTICAL COHERENCE MICROSCOPE AXIAL AND LATERAL RESOLUTION

Lateral scans obtained inside the turbid medium demonstrate a clear loss of resolution as the objective focal point is translated deeper into the sample. A
pathlength in a turbid medium. The behavior in the single scattering and the region of photon pathlengths cor-
se light. (b) Lorentzian amplitude a. The solid line represents the ex-
iate the region of photon pathlengths

Figure 8. Normalized Lorentzian linewidth as a function of the number of photon random walks measured in media with three different scattering anisotropy factors (g). The dotted and the solid lines through the data points indicate the expected linewidth behavior in the single scattering and light diffusion regimes respectively.

Figure 9. (a) Linewidth as a function of the number of photon mean free paths (\( m_{s, a} \)) in a suspension with low scattering anisotropy (g=0.2) measured for three different NA's of the imaging lens. (b) Linewidth as a function of the number of photon mean free paths (\( m_{s, a} \)) in a suspension with high scattering anisotropy (g=0.75) measured for three different NA’s of the imaging lens.
summary of the experimental results is presented in Fig. 10a where the measured lateral resolution is plotted as a function of the imaging lens focal depth in the scattering suspension in terms of photon MFPs.

A summary of the OCM axial resolution experimental results is presented in Fig. 10b where the measured axial resolution is plotted as a function of the focal point depth. Scans obtained at various depths within the turbid sample demonstrate no apparent change in the OCM axial resolution.

Due to measurement difficulties, no experimental data is currently available for turbid samples with different scattering properties therefore no definitive conclusions can be drawn for the effect of media scattering anisotropy on the OCM resolution degradation.

2.3. MONTE CARLO SIMULATIONS

A summary of the lateral resolution simulation results is shown in Fig. 11a, where the OCM lateral resolution is plotted as a function of the focal depth (in photon MFPs). The OCM lateral resolution was determined as HWHM, where the half maximum (HW) in this case was defined as the middle point between 10% and 90% of the total intensity. The graph presents data for two cases of low and high imaging lens NA and two different suspensions with scattering anisotropy $g=0.1$ and 0.9.

Simulation results for the axial OCM resolution are summarized in Fig. 11b. The OCM axial resolution was defined as the FWHM for the normalized intensity profile derived from the simulations. The graph represents the axial resolution as a function of the focal depth for four possible combinations of objective lens NA and sample scattering anisotropy.

3. DISCUSSION

Initial measurements with scattering suspensions reveal (Fig. 5) that DLS theory (eq. 2), an increase in the spectral linewidth may be attributed to changes in the temperature, the particle diffusion coefficient or both. Since the sample is maintained at constant temperature, the observed broadening of the power spectrum may be attributed to changes in the particle diffusion coefficient or the addition of multiple scattering to the single scattered light. A linewidth of 1089 μm is in good agreement with either the single or multiple scattering theory, indicating that at such depth, not all particles scatter the light completely diffuse. The data does not allow us to distinguish between single
scattering suspension as a function of mean free paths). (b) OCM axial resolution as a function of the imaging lens focal depth (scaled by the number of photon mean free paths) in a scattering suspension.

Figure 11. (a) Simulated OCM lateral resolution as a function of the imaging lens focal depth (scaled by the number of photon mean free paths) in a scattering suspension. (b) Simulated OCM axial resolution as a function of the imaging lens focal depth (scaled by the number of photon mean free paths) in a scattering suspension.

3. DISCUSSION

Initial measurements with DLCl at shallow depths (2 photon MFPs) in highly scattering suspensions reveal good agreement between experimental data and DLS theory (Fig. 5). This result demonstrates that at superficial depths DLCl is able to reject out of focus multiply scattered light and to assure precise determination of the size of the scattering particles. Hence DLCl can be applied as a non-invasive, accurate, flexible and inexpensive tool for real-time particle sizing in optically dense media.

For measurements deeper in the suspension though, there is a pronounced broadening of the power spectrum as demonstrated in Fig. 6. According to eq. (2), an increase in the spectrum linewidth can result from changes either in the particle diffusion coefficient or the total accumulated momentum transfer or both. Since the sample is a homogeneous, monodisperse suspension held at constant temperature, the observed broadening of the spectrum could only be attributed to changes in the accumulated photon momentum transfer resulting from detection of multiply scattered light. Comparison with DLS theory reveals that the spectrum acquired at a depth of 33 μm corresponds to detection of only single scattered light. The broadened spectrum measured at a depth of 1089 μm is in good agreement with that predicted by eq. (3) (DWS theory), thus indicating that at such depth the light collected with the DLCl is completely diffuse. The linewidth of the spectrum acquired at a depth of 792 μm does not agree with either the single scattering or light diffusion theories, which leads to the conclusion that in this case the detected light is multiply scattered but not completely diffuse. The data in Fig. 6 clearly demonstrates the ability of DLCl to distinguish between single scattered, multiply scattered and diffuse light.
The actual transition from single scattered to diffuse light as detected with DLCl manifests itself as a non-linear broadening of the Lorentzian linewidth shown in Fig. 7a. As indicated in the figure, the combination of confocal filtering and coherence photon gating results in a very good rejection of multiply scattered background light for measurement depths up to 5 photon MFPs in the turbid suspension (corresponding to a photon total pathlength of 1 mm in the figure). The linewidth data also demonstrates detection of predominantly diffuse light for imaging depths greater than 10 MFPs (photon pathlength of 2 mm). It is important to note though that the arrows in Fig. 7a indicate imaging depths at which multiply scattered and diffuse light become the dominant components of the detected light. The linewidth data exhibits between 2% and 10% deviation from the theoretically calculated value for imaging depths of 2-5 photon MFPs in the suspension. Considering that measurement error due to uncertainties in the particle size and concentration and small fluctuations in the sample temperature can amount up to 2%, the spectrum broadening observed for depths greater than 2 and smaller than 5 photon MFPs can be attributed to partial detection of multiply scattered light.

The transition from single scattered to diffuse light as detected with DLCl is also observed as a deviation in the Lorentzian amplitude data from the expected decay in the single scattering regime (Beer-Lambert law) (Fig. 7b). This deviation appears to occur for imaging depths greater than 7 photon MFPs in the scattering medium, though as observed from the linewidth data, at such depths a large portion of the total detected light is multiply scattered. To determine the significance of multiply scattered light detection at shallow imaging depths (2-7 photon MFPs) it is necessary to investigate its effect on the instrument PSF, which is related to image contrast and resolution. Comparison between the data presented in Fig. 7a and Fig. 7b demonstrates that an amplitude measurement lacks the sensitivity for early detection of multiply scattered light and the ability for discrimination between light that has scattered multiple times and light that is completely diffuse. The data in Fig. 7b also raises another question: what source of contrast should an object buried in homogeneous scattering media provide so that the light back-scattered from it raises above the diffuse light background? As determined from the graph, at an imaging depth of 10 photon MFPs (2 mm pathlength) the difference between single scattered and diffuse light intensity is more than two orders of magnitude and the signal light reflected from an object should at least match this difference in order to provide for a minimum image contrast.

Additional experiments performed with different NA's of the imaging objective in turbid samples with a variety of scattering anisotropy factors reveal that the transition from single scattered to diffuse light as detected with DLCl is dependent on the imaging geometry and sample scattering anisotropy. The experimental data shown in Fig. 8 demonstrates that the transition is dependent on the suspension scattering anisotropy (small g) it occurs. In contrast, in turbid media the single scattered to diffuse light photon random walk (total pathlength in Fig. 8). A quick referral to the diffuse regime (DWS) is equal to the shortest pathlength at which measurement the photons making diffuse due to the imposed in mind, the linewidth behavior.

In the case of highly anisotropic media smaller than the NA of the back-scattered light. In addition, coherence gate causes rejection of the snake-like propagation resulting in small changes of transition to the diffusion regime at depth of 1 random walk length media though, the presence of a significant rejection of multiply the transition to occur at great.

To test how sensitive the changes in the objective NA for measurements were performed in Fig. 9a demonstrates that in a shift of the transition between photon MFPs (total pathlength), better rejection of multiply scattering media with low scattering anisotropy in scattering media though, small NA objectives also result in noise ratio. As expected, single scattering anisotropy show a high contrast NA (Fig. 9b). This result is critical in biological tissue considering...

The results obtained from single scattered light detected analytically by Izatt et al. was used to make adjustments...
to diffuse light as detected with the Lorentzian linewidth of the combination of confocal filters being very good rejection of multiply scattered light up to 5 photon MFPs in the total pathlength of 1 mm in detection of predominantly 0 MFPs (photon pathlength of rows in Fig. 7a) indicate images of rows that exhibit between 2% and value for imaging depths of 3 - that measurement error due to small fluctuations in the spectrum broadening observed on MFPs can be attributed to light as detected with DLCI is amplitude data from the expected power law) (Fig. 7b). This device has 7 photon MFPs in the linewidth data, at such depths as to be multiply scattered. To determine on at shallow imaging depths - the effect on the instrument PSF, Comparison between the data at an amplitude measurement scattered light and the ability multiple times and light that raises another question: what heterogeneous scattering media raises above the diffuse light is imaging depth of 10 photon single scattered and diffuse light and the signal light re-difference in order to provide different NA’s of the imaging objective for imaging in media with low scattering anisotropy. The at the transition is dependent on the suspension scattering anisotropy, and for samples that scatter light almost isotropically (small g) it occurs after a greater number of photon random walks. In contrast, in turbid media with high scattering anisotropy, the transition from single scattered to diffuse light is very sharp and is centered at a depth of 1 photon random walk (total photon pathlength of 2 random walks as shown in Fig. 8. A quick referral to eq. (2) and eq. (3) shows that the linewidth in the diffuse regime (DWS) is equal to the single scattering linewidth when the depth (pathlength) in the sample is equal to 1 (2) random walk lengths. This is the shortest pathlength at which light can become diffuse. For the geometry of our measurement the photons may have to travel a greater pathlength before becoming diffuse due to the imposed confocal filter and coherence gate. Keeping this in mind, the linewidth behavior as shown in Fig. 8 can be explained as follows.

In the case of highly anisotropic media, the lateral spread of the light beam is smaller than the NA of the imaging objective thus ensuring collection of all back-scattered light. In addition, the presence of a confocal spatial filter and a coherence gate causes rejection of only a small portion of the light considering the snake-like propagation of scattered photons close to the lens optical axis resulting in small changes of the photon total pathlength. Therefore, the transition to the diffusion regime in highly anisotropic media occurs at an imaging depth of 1 random walk length. In the case of an almost isotropically scattering media though, the presence of confocal filtering and coherence gating causes a significant rejection of multiply scattered, background light, and thus forces the transition to occur at greater imaging depths.

To test how sensitive the transition from single scattered to diffuse light is to changes in the objective NA for imaging in media with low scattering anisotropy, measurements were performed with NA=0.12, 0.32 and 0.55 (Fig. 9a). The data in Fig. 9a demonstrates that a five-fold increase in the imaging lens NA results in a shift of the transition boundary positions toward the sample surface by 5 photon MFPs (total pathlength). It is apparent that smaller NA lenses provide better rejection of multiply scattered background light for measurements in media with low scattering anisotropy. If this result is to be applied for imaging in scattering media though, it is necessary to consider the fact that the use of small NA objectives also results in poor spatial resolution and a poor signal-to-noise ratio. As expected, similar measurements performed in media with high scattering anisotropy show no apparent dependence of the transition on the lens NA (Fig. 9b). This result is of particular importance to microscopic imaging of biological tissue considering its high scattering anisotropy.

The results obtained from the DLCI linewidth measurements are summarized in Fig. 12. The solid lines in the graph represent the depth penetration limits for single scattered light detection in CM and OCM in turbid media as derived analytically by Izatt et al. [12]. The analytical model proposed in ref. [12] was used to make adjustments in the position of the solid lines in order to
Figure 12. Parametric plot of the theoretical limits of CM and OCM as functions of the focal point depth, scaled by the number of photon mean free paths in the sample. The plot assumes \( D=7 \text{ mm}, n_0=1.33, L_c=20 \text{ mm}, t=850 \text{ nm}, \mu_s=0.3191, \mu_s^a, \) and \( E=130 \text{ mJ} \) (see Izatt[13]). The solid symbols indicate the end of the single scattering regime, while the open symbols correspond to the beginning of the light diffusion regime as determined from the DLCI measurements. The dotted and the dashed lines in the graph indicate the imaging depths at which diffuse light is being detected with DLCI in turbid media with \( g=0.9 \) and 0.95 respectively.

Suit the imaging parameters of the DLCI system. The data points in Fig. 12 indicate the boundaries between the single scattering, multiply scattering and diffuse regimes as defined from the linewidth data (see arrows in Fig. 7a) for different cases of sample scattering anisotropy and imaging lens NA. (The solid symbols (square and circle) indicate the depths at which multiply scattered light detection causes significant broadening of the spectrum linewidth measured in turbid samples with scattering anisotropy \( g=0.2 \) and 0.75. The hollow symbols indicate the experimentally determined imaging depths at which diffuse light becomes the dominant component in the light detected by DLCI. The dotted and the dashed lines in the graph indicate the imaging depths at which DLCI is expected to detect diffuse light in turbid media with \( g=0.9 \) and 0.95 respectively.

It is obvious from the graph that though OCM has the dynamic range to provide single scattered light detection in homogeneous turbid media at depths up to 15 photon MFPs, the detected light becomes predominantly diffuse at much shallower imaging depths (except for the case of \( g=0.95 \), see dashed line). Better rejection of multiply scattered and diffuse light is observed in cases of almost isotropically scattering media when low NA imaging objectives are used. Another interesting feature observed in the graph is the non-monotonic dependence of the position of the multiply scattered and diffuse light boundaries on the media scattering anisotropy. Due to the confocal and coherence gate rejection of background light utilized in \( g=0.2 \) appears at depths of \( 6 \), the suspension increases to \( 0.75 \) (toward the sample surface) according to DWS theory. Further increase in the shift of the boundary position (dotted lines) since highly forward scatter is randomized of the light occurs. As mentioned above, this can be explained with the fundamental gating techniques that use light in turbid media with low NA.

Figure 12 reminds us of another effect of multiply scattered light detection (image contrast and resolution) and lateral resolution was measured. In difficult cases, a Monte Carlo model results from the OCM lateral resolution data demonstrate a clear loss of photon MFPs. Comparison with almost two-fold loss of OCM lateral resolution change in the spectrum linewidths shows that the presented lateral resolution and therefore the chances for conclusion whether the OCM lateral resolution detection of multiply scattered light artifact cannot be reached using resolution data (Fig. 10b) demonstrates imaging depths that was investigated for the lens used (NA=0.32). This case is defined by the way it agrees well with the experimental data for the range of imaging depths with small linewidth broadening and NA (0.32) in samples with the conclusion that in this case detection of multiply scattered light experimental data is currently available and properties therefore no defined media scattering anisotropy.

Summarized results from axial resolution measurements
background light utilized in DLCI, the diffuse light boundary for media with $g=0.2$ appears at depths of 6-10 photon MFPs. As the scattering anisotropy of the suspension increases to $g=0.75$, the boundary moves to shallower depths (toward the sample surface) and appears at the position calculated from the DWS theory. Further increase in the scattering anisotropy factor results in a shift of the boundary position deeper into the turbid sample (dotted and dashed lines) since highly forward scattered light requires many more scattering events before randomization of the photon direction of propagation and polarization occurs. As mentioned above, the $g$ dependence of the diffuse boundary position can be explained with the fact that DLCI utilizes confocal and coherence photon gating techniques that very effectively reject multiply scattered background light in turbid media with low scattering anisotropy.

Figure 12 reminds us of a question addressed above: how significant is the effect of multiply scattered background light on the OCM point-spread function (image contrast and resolution). To answer this question, the OCM axial and lateral resolution was measured in turbid media. For experimentally difficult cases, a Monte Carlo model was used to simulate the measurements. The results from the OCM lateral resolution measurement presented in Fig. 10a demonstrate a clear loss of resolution for imaging depths greater than 3 photon MFPs. Comparison with DLCI linewidth data (Fig. 9a) reveals that an almost two-fold loss of OCM lateral resolution corresponds to only a few percent change in the spectrum linewidth at the same imaging depth. Considering that the presented lateral resolution data is derived from a single measurement and therefore the chances for an experimental error cannot be dismissed, a conclusion whether the OCM lateral resolution measurement is very sensitive to detection of multiply scattered background light or the data is a measurement artifact cannot be reached unless measurements are repeated. OCM axial resolution data (Fig. 10b) demonstrates no significant deterioration for the range of imaging depths that was investigated. Considering that the confocal parameter for the lens used (NA=0.32) was 17 μm in water, the OCM axial resolution in this case is defined by the width of the coherence gate ($L_c = 13$ μm) which agrees well with the experimental data. No loss of axial resolution is observed for the range of imaging depths explored. This result compares well with the small linewidth broadening measured with DLCI for the same imaging lens NA (0.32) in samples with the same scattering anisotropy ($g=0.2$), leading to the conclusion that in this case the OCM axial resolution is not as sensitive to detection of multiply scattered light as OCM lateral resolution. Since no experimental data is currently available for turbid samples with different scattering properties therefore no definitive conclusions can be drawn for the effect of media scattering anisotropy on the OCM resolution degradation.

Summarized results from the Monte Carlo simulations of OCM lateral and axial resolution measurements in turbid media are presented in Fig. 11a and
Fig. 11b correspondingly. The results in Fig. 11a demonstrate no significant change in the lateral OCM resolution for the case of high NA imaging lens for depths in the scattering medium smaller than 4 photon MFPs (hollow squares and circles). This behavior appears to be independent of the sample scattering anisotropy. For depths greater than 4 MFPs, a rapid degradation of the OCM lateral resolution is observed and it is more pronounced for suspensions with low $g$ factor. For the case of small NA of the imaging objective, simulation results also show deterioration of the OCM lateral resolution, though not as rapid as in the case of high NA (solid squares and circles). The resolution degradation appears to be more pronounced and to occur at shallower depths for media with high scattering anisotropy. This result compares very well with the DLCI experimental data where the effect of the multiply scattered light on the OCM PSF is measured as a total change in spectrum linewidth. Changes in OCM lateral resolution (Fig. 11a) are apparent for photons that had traveled between 6 and 16 mean paths in the scattering suspension (corresponding to focal depths of 3 to 8 photon MFPs) and for the same range of photon paths broadening of the Lorentzian linewidth is also observed (Fig. 9a and Fig. 9b).

Summarized results from the OCM axial resolution simulations are presented in Fig. 11b. As we have seen experimentally, for the case of an almost isotropically scattering background, there is no change in the axial resolution for small NA and depths less than 7 photon MFPs, where the resolution is determined by the coherence length $L_c$ of the light source. A small change in the axial resolution is observed for an NA=0.5 for the same background sample properties for shallow depths where there is a transition from the value predicted for non-scattering media to almost the full width of $L_c$. In the case of background with high anisotropy factor ($g=0.9$) there is a pronounced loss of OCM axial resolution with imaging depth for simulations with both small and large NA. Again, loss of axial resolution is observed for a region of photon MFPs in turbid media corresponding to a pronounced spectrum broadening measured with DLCI (Fig. 9a,b). A possible explanation for the observed OCM resolution dependence on sample optical properties and instrument imaging geometry is that in a medium with high scattering anisotropy, light scatters preferentially in the forward direction resulting in a relatively small lateral spread of the light beam. The small-angle scattering also causes a snake-like propagation of the scattered photons, causing small increase of the total photon pathlength compared to the case of photon ballistic travel from the sample surface to the lens focal point position and back. Therefore, the confocal filter and the coherence gate do not provide good rejection of multiply scattered light thus causing rapid and pronounced loss of both axial and lateral OCM resolution at shallower imaging depths. For the case of measurements in almost isotropically scattering media the combination of small NA lens and a coherence gate results in preferential detection of single scattered light, rather than apparent change in the measured lateral resolution.

Though the simulation results indicate that the lateral resolution in scattering media can be significantly worse than predicted, the simulation effect is not as dramatic as in the experimental data. It is imperative to point out that the data concerning the experiment was made and it is necessary to further investigation is necessary to clarify the experimental and the simulation findings.

Summary

In summary, a number of experiments were conducted to study the process of multiple scattering on image resolution. A new experimental method, known as total momentum transfer optical coherence imaging (TOMTICI), was developed to investigate the transition from confocal to non-confocal scattering regime. The results demonstrated the significant impact of the scattering mean free path (MFP) and the imaging depth (as a function of NA) at which a dominant position change occurs. The simulation data showed that the deterioration effect of multiple scattered light, measured with DLCI (DLCO), causes significant loss of image resolution. It is unclear whether the signal-to-noise ratio or the signal-to-noise degradation exclusively due to multiple scattering carry any information about the optical properties of the scattering medium. These findings are important for future research in the field of optical coherence imaging. Further investigation is necessary to clarify the experimental and simulation findings.

References


demonstrate no significant effect of high NA imaging lens for photon MFPs (hollow squares) and the sample scattering rapid degradation of the OCM measured for suspensions with imaging objective, simulation lateral resolution, though not as and circles). The resolution to occur at shallower depths result compares very well with the multiply scattered light on spectrum linewidth. Changes for photons that had traveled suspension (corresponding to the same range of photon paths observed (Fig. 9a and Fig. 9b).tion simulations are presented the case of an almost isotropi-cal resolution for small the resolution is determined. A small change in the axial background sample properly from the value predicted for c. In the case of background pronounced loss of OCM axial with both small and large NA. region of photon MFPs in turn broadening measured with observed OCM resolution de-ment imaging geometry is that scatters preferentially in the general spread of the light beam. propagation of the scattered lightpath length compared to the surface to the lens focal point and the coherence gate do light thus causing rapid and solution at shallower imaging isotropically scattering medias are results in preferential
detection of single scattered light at shallow imaging depths, thus causing no apparent change in the measured OCM axial and lateral resolution.
Though the simulation result presented in Fig. 11a demonstrate loss of OCM lateral resolution in scattering media as the imaging depth increases, the deterioration effect is not as dramatic as observed in the experimental results (Fig. 10a). It is imperative to point out again that due to the fact that only one experimental measurement was made and due to the high chance for experimental error, further investigation is necessary to reveal whether the discrepancy between the experimental and the simulation data is real.

Summary

In summary, a number of experimental and computational methods were used to study the process of multiply scattered light detection in OCM and its effect on image resolution. A new method (DLCI), sensitive to changes in the photon total momentum transfer occurring in the process of scattering, was employed to investigate the transition from single scattered to diffuse light in an imaging system applying confocal and coherence photon gating techniques. Experimental results demonstrated the ability of DLCI to discriminate between single scattered, multiply scattered and diffuse light and allowed for determination of the imaging depth (as a function of sample scattering anisotropy and imaging lens NA) at which a dominant portion of the detected light becomes diffuse. In addition other experimental and computational results revealed that the detection of multiply scattered light, manifesting itself as a spectrum linewidth broadening (DLCI), causes significant lateral and axial OCM resolution degradation and that the deterioration effect is dependent on the media scattering anisotropy and imaging lens NA. Though the work presented in this chapter provides answers to some of the questions raised in the introduction of this paper, some of them are left unanswered and even accompanied with a few more. For example, it is still unclear what the OCM image penetration depth is (as a function of sample and lens NA) and whether this depth is limited by the measurement signal-to-noise ratio or the signal-to-background ratio. Furthermore, is image resolution degradation exclusively due to background light detection (light that does not carry any information about the imaged object buried in the turbid media) or is light reflected off the object and multiply scattered traversing the turbid layer above also responsible for loss of image resolution? These questions and more will be addressed in our future studies.

References

Chapter 2

SCATTERING BY RANDOMLY LOCATED ELECTROMAGNETIC Dipoles

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Abstract

The paper is devoted to the study of scattering by randomly located dipoles. The problem has been solved numerically using a numerical solution of the radiative transfer equation. The numerical solution is applied to two-dimensional and three-dimensional systems where the dipoles are randomly distributed. The results are compared with the analytic solutions of the radiative transfer equation.

Keywords: scattering, radiative transfer

Introduction

Propagation of waves in optically thick and turbid media is a fundamental problem in various fields of physics and engineering. The simplest approach to solving this problem is the use of a radiative transfer equation (RTE). The RTE describes the propagation of light in a medium with anisotropic and inhomogeneous properties. However, the RTE does not take into account the phase of the light wave, which is an important aspect of the scattering process.

P. Sebbah (ed.), Waves and Imaging theories. The simplest approach to solving the problem of scattering is the use of a radiative transfer equation (RTE). The RTE describes the propagation of light in a medium with anisotropic and inhomogeneous properties. However, the RTE does not take into account the phase of the light wave, which is an important aspect of the scattering process.

The problem of scattering by randomly located dipoles is solved numerically using a numerical solution of the radiative transfer equation. The numerical solution is applied to two-dimensional and three-dimensional systems where the dipoles are randomly distributed. The results are compared with the analytic solutions of the radiative transfer equation.