Advantages, Methods and System Architecture of Spectral Imaging in Biomedical Engineering

¹Arulmurugan R and ²Anandakumar H

¹Mattu University, Metu, Ethiopia. ²Sri Eshwar College of Engineering, Coimbatore, India, ¹arulmr@gmail.com, ²anandakumar.psgtech@gmail.com

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Abstract – Spectral imaging combines traditional imaging with spectrometry to obtain both spectral and spatial data from an item. Even though this technique was designed for spatial data, it has now been used in the area of biomedical design as a potent analytical technique for biomedical and pharmaceutical investigations. This overview covers the fundamentals of spectrum imaging, image processing methodologies, current instrumentation, and contemporary biological developments. Biomedical Spectral and Imaging (BSI) technologies' functionality and quantitative capacities for biomedical and pharmaceutical screening are explored. The current successes and limits of these technologies in bioengineering are discussed in depth. The advantages and developments of therapeutic spectrum imaging are presented to give the readers an understanding of current technology advancements and their prospects for clinical study.

Keywords - Biomedical Spectral and Imaging (BSI), Red Green Blue (RGB), Charge-Coupled Device (CDD), Prism-Grating-Prism (PGP)

I. INTRODUCTION

Spectral imaging (also referred to as imaging spectroscopy) is a technique that integrates traditional scanning and spectrometry approach to achieve both spectral and spatial data about an item. It was first described in the delayed 1980s by Goetz and mentioned for Earth virtual detection [1]. Multispectral tomography, Hyper-Spectral Imaging (HSI), and ultraspectral tomography are the three types of spectroscopy tomography based on the spectral precision, number of spectra, band width, and spectral contiguousness. Multispectral imaging methods gather information in a few, noncontiguous wide spectral channels, which are usually quantified in micrometers. Spectroscopic band had been selected to retrieve concentration in certain spectral segments, and to be streamlined for particular types of data that are most visible in those spectra. Ultraspectral imaging techniques can gather hundereds of spectral channels, while HSI processes can only collect a few. Because of its inherent framework, the spectroscopic imaging information could be determined as the three-dimensional (3D) cuboid and the heap of several two-dimensional (2D) pictures, with the cube face being a mechanism of geographic co-ordinates and the depth being a feature of spectrum.

One of the most significant advantages of this approach is that it can obtain a refractive index, assimilation, or fluorescence spectral response for each part of the images, which could be utilized in identifying biochemical transitions in the objects, which are challenging in identifying using conventional gray and color tomography methods. Spectroscopy visualization technologies were developed for the purposes of remote sensing applications like airborne monitoring and aerial photography, and have since been effectively implemented to extraction and geomorphology, farming, army, ecologic, and climatic changes study. Various biological components have unique wavelength fingerprints, based on electromagnetism. These fingerprints are created by reactions among substances and electromagnetic radiation, like electronic transition, atoms and molecule movements, and rotations. Pathologic and Metabolic alteration in organs and tissues are also closely linked to the spectrum. A distinct spectrum fingerprint [2] is produced by spectral features in various wavelength areas, which may be utilized to diagnose pathological alterations.

Since a consequence, spectrum imaging techniques may be utilized in the field of biomedical science to assess the physical status of biological materials, as it may take privilege of geographical connections among the various spectra in the nearest domain. The advancement might be used to identify and measure interactions between biologically active compounds, observe living animals without harming them, conduct histopathology and fluorescence research, and increase biological knowledge of illnesses. In the previous years, experts have established numerous spectral imaging methodologies [3] for metabolic examination of dissimilar biological materials and organs. The studies have designated that embracing the advancement in the segment of biological science may help researchers understand a lot more about systems, structures, and even cells than they could with traditional optical tomographic methods (such as Charge-Coupled

Device (CDD) cameras and light microscopes). Medical spectra imaging has received a lot of interest recently, and it's becoming more significant in study. This article discussed the advantages, methods and system architecture of spectrum imaging in the biological field. This paper has been organized as follows: Section II focuses on a critical analysis of Biomedical Spectral and Imaging (BSI). Section III focuses on architecture of BSI system. Section IV draws conclusions to the recommends directions to future research.

II. BIOMEDICAL SPECTRAL AND IMAGING (BSI)

Advantages

Most typical biomedicine visual imaging devices can only scan biological elements in gray or color. Height, form, and material characteristics of the topics of concern in these sorts of images are often researched. It has been identified that monochromes and the Red Green Blue (RGB) color scans have limitations in the initial detections and diagnosis of the tissue illnesses. Diagnostics data retrieved is not enough because various compositional changes happen during the course of illnesses and does not have a significant impact on the color characteristics of aberrant tissues. Spectrographic diagnostic method, which may acquire the whole spectra of a specific tissue location within a wavelength area of concern, is another widely used optical approach. This approach is known as the point measuring technique since it does not give geospatial data about the materials.

Healthcare spectral imaging systems, unlike standard optical diagnostic approaches, could capture complete band for every image pixel over particular wavelength ranges. The property allows not only for the detection of physiologic changes in ecosystem tissues using their reflection or transmission spectral fingerprints, but also for the early detection of illnesses using the patterns of the spectra. **Table 1** lists some of the benefits of biomedical spectrum imaging (multispectral, hyper-spectral) over traditional monochromatic, RGB, and spectroscopic. Biological spectral imagery integrates more data compared to typical monochromes, RGB, and spectroscopic approaches, as seen in the table. Biological spectra imaging enables more intricate spectral-spatial concepts to be used for more accurate picture classification and segmentation by making use of the spatial interactions between the various spectra in a neighbourhood. As a result, pathologies, genetic analysis, histopathology, immune-histology, and medical assessment may all benefit from spectrum imaging technologies.

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| Features V Some Some Some Some Some Some Some Some | 20m 40m 220m |
|---|--------------------|
| Monochrome Red Green Imaging Multi- Blue (RGB) Spectroscopy spectral | Hyper- spectral |
| • • | spectru |
| Spatial data V V x V | \checkmark |
| Frequency13Dozens to3-10numberhundreds | Dozens to hundreds |
| Spetral data x x ✓ Restricted | \checkmark |
| Multi-elementxRestricted✓Restricteddata | \checkmark |
| Sensitive- x x x Restricted | \checkmark |

Methods

Various spectrum imaging techniques and associated technologies have been suggested in the acquisition of spectrum visual information of natural fibres throughout the last few years. This study concentrates on four popular strategies: whiskbroom, pushbroom, gazing, and snapshots, which have been widely employed in the virtual sensor sector and have recently been applied to diagnostic imaging modalities, in order to make the contents and architecture evident.

Hadamard, miscellaneous, and Raman methodologies, among others, will not be covered in depth in this paper.

Whiskbroom

The Earth Science Innovation Spacecrafts first employed the whiskbroom visualization method, commonly recognized as the point-scanning approach, which was later adopted by the Integrated Visually distinguishable Scanning Spectrometry. Revolving reflectors were often utilized in the whiskbroom sensors to monitor the environment from sideways transverse to the detector platform's orientation. The reflecting light is redirected by spinning mirrors to a place where a solitary or a few sensing detectors are clustered altogether. A specific area is examined along two discrete directions (x and y) through the rotation of specimen or sensors. Aftermath, the light rays that have been reflected is therefore dispersed by the prisms and therefore recorded by the linear array sensors. Data for spectral imagery cubes (x, y, λ) might thus be acquired centered on 2D scanning ((x, y), and via the dispersing (λ), wavelength realm.

In order to complete the capturing of images in the whiskbroom stage, two-axis mechanized alignment table are frequently required, making the electronics arrangement more complicated. Furthermore, since it is fundamental to scan in the "x" and "y" geographical coordinates, this tomography mode is frequently time-consuming. As a result, the spectroscopic confocal laser-scanning technique has been presented as alternative scanning strategy with great impact in developing and resolution. To limit the in-focus visual sector thickness, this approach often involves lighting and obtaining pictures via confocal or conjugate pinholes, as well as combining several lamps and frequency diffraction spectroscopy to get spectral data. The capacity to regulate depth of focus, remove or decrease background knowledge away from the reference spot, and gather sequential optic segments from thick samples are all advantages provided by this technology. When contrasted to other kinds of sensors, the whiskbroom scanning has less sensory receptors to calibrate. This is the imaging mode used by the majority of commercially spectrum confocal scanners..

Pushbroom

Some earth science spacecraft programs, like the SPOT network and the Powerful Development Imager, have employed the pushbroom method, sometimes referred as line scanning, to collect data from orbit. Unlike the whiskbroom technique, which detects one piece at the time, the pushbroom methodology could instantly retrieve a slit of geographic data and the spectroscopic dataset that correlate to every geographical juncture in the slit in a single scan, resulting in a distinctive y picture with one spatial structure (y) and one spectroscopic measurement. The pushbroom approach gathers a slit picture from an item scattered onto a 2D sensor with the spatially data shown along that axis and the frequency study relied along the other.

By screening the slits in the directions of some other geographical axis, the spectra picture information cube may be acquired. A pushbroom scanner might accumulate more light than a whiskbrooms scanner for it can remain in one spot for longer, giving the matrix sensor a higher exposure and a higher spectral precision. 8 Because one column of the picture is captured at each scanning with most pushbroom imaging techniques, that either camera or the subject should operate in sync with the array detector's frames collection rate to obtain a clean image assessment. Another option to use the pushbroom method is to use an adjusted slit opening or a rotating shutter in corresponding planes of images to block out of the focus light. This approach, which has widely been utilized in multi-spectral line visual imaging techniques, improves light penetration while only slightly increasing optical depth sensitivity.

Staring

The starring method (which is also referred to as the sequential approach) is the spectral scanning approach that attracts the single spectrum 2D gray-scale images (x and y) with more wide-ranging spatial datasets at once. Instead of prismatic or diffraction in front of vector sensors, this mode therefore integrates the filters [(e.g. filtering wheel integrating constant spectrum-pass filtration, Wedged Filtration, and Linear Variable Filter (LVF), adjustable filter, and Variable Interference Filters (VIFs)]. The light is focused by the concentrating lenses. Then it's filtered, resulting in just a narrowband section of the spectra imaging on the detector's reference spot (typically is a matrix CCD) [4]. As a result, a 2D picture in one frequency may be collected at any moment, and the picture cube is completed by modulating the filter's outgoing wavelengths as a proportion of duration. The whole view is projected onto the focus plane one spectrum group at a time in the starring mode, which differs from the whiskbroom and pushbroom techniques in that the entire sequence is pictured onto the reference spot one spectrum bands at a time and traverses through the various wavelengths. As a result, the user has total control over how many spectral bands are obtained. Furthermore, and more crucially, a dynamic range may be kept by using separate exposures at various wavelengths

Snapshot

With a single experience, the snapshots (also referred to as single) approach is designed to capture both spectral and spatial data on an area detector. The picture mode, except the whiskbroom, pushbroom, and gazing modalities, does not require scanning in either the geographical or spectrum dimensions, limiting its resolving power. By concurrently photographing the rebind and scattered image regions onto an Analyser, the snapshot mode may obtain a full spectra information cube in a single analysis. Even though this mode can gather data instantly and generate a 3D data cube with little subsequent processing, the spectral and spatial sensitivities are restricted since the overall amount of voxels on the CCD sensor cannot surpass the pixel value. As a result, increasing geographical capturing at the price of spectrum sampling is always possible for a particular CCD, and inversely.

Comparison of Different Methods

When it came to analyzing body organs, each of these four types of spectroscopic scanning techniques had benefits and limitations. The contrast of the whiskbroom, pushbroom, gazing, and snap imagery modalities is shown in **Table 2**. There is no "obviously" ideal mode, but the characteristics of various body materials and the identification aim must be regarded while choosing the best one for a certain biological application.

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|---|------------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------------|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| Comparison point | Snapshot | Starring | Pushbroom | Whiskbroom | | | | | |
| Coupled optics | Microscopes, | Microscope, endoscope, | Microscopes, lens | Microscopes, lens | | | | | |
| | endoscope, fundus | fundus camera | | | | | | | |
| | camera | | | | | | | | |
| Substitutability | †† | Ť | †† | ††† | | | | | |
| Cost | †† | ††† | Ť | Ť | | | | | |
| Complexity | † † | Ť | *** | <u>+++</u> | | | | | |
| Data cubes collection | Ť | (††)d | <u>†</u> †† | (†††) c | | | | | |
| timetable | | | | | | | | | |
| Throughput | † † | Ť | *†† | <u>+++</u> | | | | | |
| Brand numbers | Multi-spectral | Hyper-spectral | Hyper-spectral | Hyper-spectral | | | | | |
| Spectral-resolution | Ť | †† | *** | *** | | | | | |
| Wavelength | No | Yes | Partiala | Partiala | | | | | |
| selectability | | | | | | | | | |
| Wavelength ranges | <u>†</u> †† | †† | *†† | <u>+++</u> | | | | | |
| Spectral dispersion | Diffractive components | Interferometer, tunable | Dispersive elements | Dispersive elements | | | | | |
| component | (Digital holograms, | filters (LCTF, AOTF, | [Prism Grating Prism | [Prism Grating Prism | | | | | |
| | grating, prism) | linear and circular variable filters) | (PGP), grating, prism] | (PGP), grating, prism] | | | | | |
| Scanning | No scan | Spectral scans | Spatial scans | Both spatial scenes (x and y dimensions). | | | | | |

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| | | 007 | | | | |

Note – Various applicability parameters and utility for more accurate application are compared based on relative ranks and marks: † to mean difficult or worse; †† to mean permitted or better; and ††† to mean ideal/wide/high.

- Some pushbroom and whiskbroom permit selections of the spectral resolution and range eg Nikon and Zeiss system.
- Alludes to the overall duration taken capturing a similar size of data cubes x, y, and λ .
- A number of the laser scanning models (for instance Nikon and Zeiss point scanning models) have a fast snapshot system. Most of these system have conventional mechanical x-y scanning that takes time in capturing data cubes x, y, and λ.

In Table 2, it is palpable that the pushbrooms and whiskbrooms modes employ the dispersive constituent (grating, prism, and Prism-Grating-Prism (PGP) for light splitting, which signifies the element that renders merits to uniformly higher efficacy, lower scatter, and lower costs to the images [5]. Another key merit of the pushbrooms more is that they can collect images and potentially reflect y to λ planes, therefore a single line of light practicable as image fundamentals for an radiance of of light. Because the whole band of each image in the slit picture is accessible in real moment, this method is useful for purposes such as finding for an item with certain spectral characteristics. Furthermore, structure based on distribution components, such like polarizers and grilles are effective for analyzing spectrum pictures using confocal microscopy that use monitoring optics to accomplish the scanning method. Both the whiskbroom and pushbroom variants have drawbacks. For traditional mechanically scanning techniques, the optic structure is complicated, and the information cube gathering time is considerable. Although certain optical detection methods, such as Nikon and Zeiss, laser detectors methodologies, can attract datasets just like the snapshot procedures, the collection of high-contrast images often results in significant photo-bleaching, which is especially problematic in long-term imaging investigations. The whiskbroom and pushbroom imagers were frequently used in conjunction with microscopes for fluorescence and histological studies.

The starring mode has many benefits, including a quick data cube collecting time and simplicity of interfacing with other clinical optical devices since no different spatial movement among the material and the sensor is needed. Another benefit is the ability to choose the best wavelength response for each operation. These features make it ideal for a variety of clinical purposes, including identifying tissues, structures, and cells "in vitro" and "in vivo" experimentations when utilized in relation to the lens systems, microscope and endoscope. This approach also has particular challenges, such as lesser spectral ranges, low transmission capacity (typically 36% - 61% centered on the type of spectrum and instruments), and most costs compared to the pushbroom and whiskbroom approaches (other than the lasser scanning system).

Even though controllable classifiers strive to reduce total acquisition time by preferentially obtaining spectral features or by adjusting every channel's shutter rapidity as a function of frequency to reduce total data acquisition period in bright networks, there are still flaws that can be challenging to conquer, like low throughput and sequenced acquiring method, which is required for multifluorophore image analysis, which requires a minimum 30 spectral channels. Interferometerbased spectrum imaging systems, on the other hand, often feature high optical throughput, changeable spectral information, mechanical/thermal stability, and a flexible spectral range option. They nevertheless have limits in terms of actual implementations, such as changing sensitivities over the whole spectral range and data transformation processing efficiency.

For collecting a spectrum information cube in the snapshots phase, no screening in either the spatially or spectra dimensions is required, making it appealing for implementations necessitating quick spectral picture captures. As a result, it's an excellent choice for situations where imaging speed is critical. It's ideal for research requiring time-sensitive

photography, such as seeing fast-diffusing particles or determining temporal specified complex biological mechanisms. When used in conjunction with a camera device, it may also determine oxygen level mapping in the retinal of human vision. Douarre, Crispim-Junior, Gelibert, Germain, Tougne, and Rousseau in [6] used a Computed Tomography Imaging Spectrometer (CTIS) with 3-ms observation duration to show this. This mode, meanwhile, is still in its early phases and hasn't been completely established. Only a few systems that depend on complex fore-optics architecture and statistically costly refinement for picture restorations are now available, and they have limitations in terms of geographic and optical range and quality.

In conclusion, when utilized in biological investigation, each spectral imaging modality offers benefits and drawbacks. Some whiskbroom and pushbroom technologies, for instance, may achieve great spatial and spectral precision while being low-cost, although their electronics construction is often difficult. The gazing mode is more costly than the others since it can be constructed quickly and readily with other optical equipment. The picture mode can collect a spectrum information cube fast, but it has restricted spatial and spectral sensitivities. Nevertheless, the benefits of various modes may be completely realized if they are carefully chosen and applied in accordance with the goals of various biological studies. In the next sections, we'll go through this in further depth. Section III focuses on architecture of BSI system.

III. SYSTEM ARCHITECTURE

A spectroscopic image processor appropriate for medical application must be established in order to obtain a 3D information cubes, spatial 2D data, and band as the third element of the biomedical components. A conventional medical spectrum visualization system has four pieces, as indicated in **Fig 1** collecting lenses or equipment, spectrum distribution component, sensor, and network management and data gathering module.



Fig 1. An architecture of the Common Biomedical Spectrum Imaging System

The gathered reflection or light beam travels through the spectrum distribution component and is focussed on the sensor. The computer management and data collecting component may control the sensor and spectrum distribution elements, as well as record and output visible pictures and findings.

The collecting lenses or equipment section applies to the collecting and photographic optics that may generate a picture on the spectrum dispersal component, like microscopy, imaging equipment, camera lenses, and so on. The spectrum dispersal component is the brains of the device, allowing light to be separated into distinct frequencies. Frequency distribution devices include diffraction spectrograph and spectroscopic filters. The dispersive spectroscopy consists of a group of transmission or reflected components spaced by a range equal to the visible range being studied. Prisms, gratings, PGP, and beam splitters are all examples of beam dividers that can be utilized with whiskbroom, pushbroom, and certain picture photography modalities. Spectrum filtering have the property of passing light via a very tiny passband, or spectra bin, which may be spectrally adjusted throughout a vast frequency region in a short amount of time.

Tunable filters in spectrum scanning equipment include:

- Circular and Linear Variable Filters (CLVFs) [7];
- Acousto-Optical Tunable Filter (AOTF) [8]; and
- Liquid Crystal Tunable Filter (LCTF) [9].

Another commonly used spectral dispersion element in the interferometer, which attracts spectrum images through transformations of the Optical Path-Length Difference (OPD) [10] between two different beams, capturing datasets on interference intensity as an interferogram element and the fourier transforms an interferogram pixel. The Michelson and Sagnac interferometers, for example, have been used to construct a number of biomedical spectrum imaging systems for a variety of clinical applications. The detectors are used to gather the light intensity needed to evaluate the spectrum at each picture pixel.

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Most of the devices e.g. Complementary Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor (CMOS), area CCD, linear CCD, photomultiplier tube, Electron MultiplyingCharge Coupled Device (EMCCD), and focal plane arrays could be utilized as the detector based on various imaging necessities. Over the recent decades, scientific-CMOS (sCMOS) has been presented and utilize clinical imaging as it provides more advanced performance metrics, e.g. high resolution, without affecting the read noise, frame rate, and dynamic range. Features make sCMOS more effective for high-fidelity, quantitative scientific evaluations. In that regard, a number of commercial sCMOS (for instance, Flash 4.0 camera and the ORCA Flash 2.8 camera, Rolera[™] Bolt Camera (QImaging), and the Andor and PCO series sensor) could be utilized as a sensor of the spectral imaging systems. Over the past few years, experts have developed several spectral imaging models for biomedical evaluations on different biomedical cells, tissues and organs. **Table 3** shows the chosen spectral imaging systems utilized in the clinical field

| Table 3. Spectral Imaging Systems Employed in the Clinical Setting | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|--------------------------------------|------------------|--|-------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|---|
| Bioimagers | Spectral dispersion components | Coupled optic tools | Imaging modes | Detectors | Range of wavelenght | FWHM in "nm" | Spatial resolutions | Duration of acquisition |
| Hyper- spectral fluorescence imaging | Grating-centered imagery spectrography | 17 mm NIR and lens | Pushbrooms | 512 by 512/2048 by 506 CCD 576 by 288 | 400 - 1000 | 0.6 – 2.0 | 9 - 12 | |
| Hyper- spectral micro-array detectors | Grating-centered imagery spectrography | Infinity- rectified objectives | Pushbrooms | DV-465 detectors sianta-barbara too | 550 - 665 | 3.0 | 10 - 30 | 5 minutes |
| Hyper-spectal microscopy | Grating-centered coded aperture spectrum engines | Nikon | Pushbrooms | Group ST 7XME-CDD array S-7031 0907 | 500 - 745 | 1.0 | 1.54 – 7.7 | |
| Hadamard transforms of spectral microscopy | Grating-centered monoschromators | Fluorescence microscopes | Pushbrooms | TE 512 by 122 | 400 - 800 | 0.3 | - | - |
| SPLE | Prism-centered SPLE | Zeiss 150 FC colposcopes | Pushbrooms | CCD monochromes CCD cameras | 400 - 800 | 12.0 – 28.0 | - | - |
| Hyper- spectral tongue imaging systems | PGO-centered imagery spectrography | Camera lens | Pushbrooms | 499 by 652 CCD | 380 - 780 | 5.0 | - | - |
| Hyper- spectral fluorescence imagery microscope | Grating/PGP- centered spectrography | Olympus | Pushbrooms | 1024 by 1536 CCD or EM CCD | 380 - 800 | 2.0 | 1.2 | 1.2 seconds per line/340 milliseconds per band |
| MPHI | PGP-centered imagery spectrographs | Nikon | Pushbrooms | 300 by 460 CCD | 400 - 800 | 2.0 | 1.13 | - |
| Prototype openframe macroscope | Grating | Microscopes | Whiskbrooms | Linear PMT arrays | 500 - 720 | 6.8 | 1 | 200 milliseconds per band |
| Hyper- spectral imaging systems | Prism MEMS or Spectrographs | Lens | Whiskbrooms | PMT and CCD | 387 – 707 550 – 700 | 6.0 | 2 | 90 seconds |
| NIRSI (in vivo) | Study and tools Cambridge-MA | Nikon | Staring | 512 by 512 CCD cameras | 420 – 720 960 – 1700 | 5.0 – 10.0 | 0.2 | 536.80 milliseconds per band or 90 seconds |
| Spectroscopic imagers | LCTF | 50 mm Nikon | Staring | 512 by 768 cooled CCD | 420 - 750 | 6.8 – 550.0 | 0.45 | 50 milliseconds per band |
| Active DLP hyper- spectral systems | DLP-centered spectrum illuminators and grating | Standardized 50 mm Nikon | Staring | 1040 by 1392 CCD | 420 - 750 | 5.0 | 0.13 - 0.36 | 0.25 – 11.30 milliseconds per line |
| (MSIS) Multi- | LCTF | 18 - 108 | Staring | CCD | 380 - 780 | 3.0 | - | 40 |

| spectral imaging systems | | mm lens | | | | | | milliseconds per band |
|--|--|---|-----------|--|----------------|----------------|------|--------------------------------|
| Spectral- microscope systems | VIF monochromators | Microscopes | Staring | Megapixels CCD | 400 - 1000 | 7.5 @ 500.0 | - | - |
| Hyper- spectral imaging systems | AOTF | Camera lens | Staring | CCD | 400 - 1000 | 2.0 @ 543.0 | - | 50 milliseconds per band |
| NIR hyper- spectral imagery systems | AOTF | 50 mm infrared lens | Staring | 256 by 320 in GasAs focal plane arrays | 400 - 880 | 10.0 | - | - |
| Endoscope imaging systems | AOTF | Flow cytometry systems, endoscopes | Staring | 512 by 512 CCD and intensive charge coupled devices | 1000 – 1650 | 1.0 – 4.0 | - | - |
| Hyperspectral videos endoscope | AOTF | Endocopes | Staring | 1002 by 1004 EM CCD | 400 - 700 | 5.0 | - | - |
| Hyper- spectral imagery microscope | LCTF | Microscopes | Staring | CCD | 400 - 720 | 10.0 | - | - |
| Molecular hyper- spectral imagery systems | Interferometers | Fluorescence microscope | Staring | CCD | 550 - 1000 | 2.0 – 5.0 | - | 15 milliseconds per band |
| ÁOTF microscopes | Colour filtering wheel | Camera lens | Staring | 1035 by 1317 CCD | 450 - 750 | - | 0.4 | - |
| Foureir transforms imagery spectrocope | LCTF | Canon | Staring | 100 by 100 CCD | 400 - 750 | 4.0 – 16.0 | 30.0 | 5 – 50 seconds |
| MSIS | Wollaston prism polarization beam splitter | Canon | Staring | In GaA/CCD cameras | RBG, NIR | - | - | - |
| Hyper- spectral fundus cameras | CGH dispensers | Olympus | Staring | CCD | 500 - 650 | 2.0 | | 10 – 15 minutes |
| IRIS | Polarization beam splitter | Fundus cameras | Snapshots | CCD | 575 - 615 | - | | - |
| CTIS microscopes | Lenslet arrays | Microscopes | Snapshots | CCD | 450 - 750 | 10.0 | 1.0 | - |
| Spectroscopic sensitive mult-aperture cameras | Filter arrays | Fundus camera | Snapshots | 1040 by 1392 12 bit CCD | 540 - 680 | 20.0 | - | 200 milliseconds |
| IMS/ISS | Imaging mappers and prisms | Zeiss Axio observers | Snapshots | 4096 by 4096 CCD | 450 - 650 | 5.6 | 5.6 | - |

Note (terms): Computer Generated Hologram (CGH); Digital Light Processing (DLP); Image Mapping Spectrometer (IMS); Computed Tomography Imaging Spectrometer (CTIS); Imaging Slicing Spectrometer (ISS); Molecular Hyperspectral Imaging (MHI); Near-Infrared Spectroscopy (NIRSI), Prism-Grating-Prism (PGP), Photomultiplier Tube (PMT); Spectrally Programmable Light Engine (SPLE); Image Replicating Imaging Spectrometer (IRIS); and Variable Interference Filter (VIF).

Spectral imaging system was and remains to be utilized effectively in remote sensing to bring key insights into Geoscience. The capacity to define a heterogeneity surface structure physically and spectrally for the goal of recognizing and categorizing apparently indistinguishable objects or objectives, both environmental and manufactured, by leveraging known spectral reflectance properties is essential to the paradigm. The use of this technique to bioengineering solutions will open up new avenues of investigation into morphology, physiological, metabolism, and disease. In this study, we evaluated important efforts and improvements in spectrum imaging methods used in medical and physiological science investigation that spans from therapeutic to cinematography in vivo testing. The features of spectrum imaging were compared to established optical diagnostic techniques such as monochromatic, RGB, and spectroscopic. Four basic methods for obtaining spectral pictures were described: snapshot, staring, pushbroom, whiskbroom. The benefits and drawbacks of every imaging technique for therapeutic systems were also explored. Contemporary Biomedical Spectral and Imaging (BSI) technologies were studied, as well as their functionality and biotechnological. This review demonstrates that, while the advancement of spectroscopic photogrammetry and methods of data analysis is labor-intensive and time-consuming, the pieces of data procured by such methodologies allow us to evidently see qualities of different tissues in healthy and infected subjects that were heretofore not directly explored. Additional details will be accessible to aid deconstruct medical studies in the future when existing technologies are refined and new approaches are developed.

IV. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

In this research, spectral imaging is a sophistical method, which could be utilized in the identification of biomedical transformations in living organisms, and has the capacity to assist in the identification of diseases. Nonetheless, this research has different issues and limitations. One of the issues includes systems and software normalization. Diverse BSI technologies have been created and utilized for various biomedical research throughout the last few decades. Nonetheless, no uniform standard exists to ensure that various systems are consistent, comparative, and shareable. Additional study on system standardisation is required in areas such as calibration techniques, data creation and normalization, and so on. The image shift during spectrum adjustment is the second. According to optical propagation theory, when the wavelengths increases, the area of focus will migrate proportionately. Because the distance of the object is usually higher than the imaging range, this impact may be ignored in remote sensing techniques. It could not, however, be disregarded in spectrum imaging methods since the image distance is mostly smaller compared to the focal length, resulting in certain single-band pictures becoming blurry as the wavelength increases.

Finally, the method of the BSI evaluation is obscure. Spectral pictures offer a plethora of data, but knowing what features biomedical material we are purposing to review and how they relate to datasets generated by spectroscopic imaging sensors is required for interpretation. The majority of existing investigations have simply retrieved reflectance spectra and classified various types of tissue chemicals based on these characteristics. Nevertheless, few investigations have been performed to illustrate the significance of these reflectance spectra. More research into the consequences of these spectral patterns is required. Other concerns with the BSI structure include its lengthy procurement, high cost, sensitive and complex existence, and so on. As a result, further research into the construction of BSI technologies is still required. New instrumentation design ideas will be released on a regular basis, and existing instrumentation and subsystems may be upgraded to boost productivity. The advancements in BSI structures will serve as a model for future optical sensors technological advancements. Furthermore, while numerous feature extraction techniques, integrated spectrum and spatial characterization, and classification techniques are identical to those used in remote sensing, they are not included in this study.

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