List of Figures

Fig 1.1:	Bright field microscope image of human red blood cells. Magnification was achieved using a positive lens of 6mm focal length.	02
Fig. 1.2:	Quantitative phase image of blood cells obtained using wavefront division DHIM.	05
Fig. 2.1:	Basic concept of a compound microscope	12
Fig. 2.2:	Schematic of single lens bright field microscope	13
Fig. 2.3	Single lens, field portable bright field microscope. (a) Schematic of the microscope showing the position of various optical and imaging components. (b) Photograph of the microscope, showing various components mounted on a 3D printed structure. (c) Control unit of the microscope. It controls the focusing and lateral movement of the magnifying lens as well as the intensity of the LED sources and selection of LED source.	14
Fig. 2.4:	Bright field images recorded with the field portable microscope with (a) 50× magnification and (b) 20× magnification. These images were then processed to yield different sample parameters such as the number of red blood cells, number of white blood cells as well as number of cells infected with malaria parasites. All these sample parameters were deduced using simple image processing steps, which makes the microscope suitable for use by an untrained person.	15
Fig. 2.5:	Portable bright field microscope attached to smart-phone.	16
Fig. 2.6:	(a) Color images recorded with portable bright field microscope with 20× magnification. (b) Image converted to gray scale. In Fig. 2.6a shows a stained WBC. Cells indie the blue circles are platelets and rest of the cells are RBCs	18
Fig. 2.7:	Identified cell locations (a) using global thresholding. (b) using local thresholding.	18
Fig. 2.8:	Counting of WBC after thresholding the image shown in Fig. 2.7b with the gray value of stained WBC. This leads to isolation of WBCs in the image.	18
Fig. 2.9:	(a) Edge detection by computing the partial derivatives of the image shown in Fig. 2.7b. (b) Binary image after edge detection the region inside the edges are filled. This may lead to regions not containing cells to be included in the counting of cells.	19
Fig. 2.10:	Regions of the image identified as having red blood cells	19
Fig. 2.11:	(a) Binary mask for detection of platelets and (b) Identified platelets	20
Fig. 2.12:	Cell counting algorithm	20
Fig. 2.13:	Comparison of manual and automatic cell counting. (a) RBC count. (b) Platelet count. Solid line represent the manual count and solid circles represents automatic counting.	21

Fig. 2.14:	Recorded image using microscope with 50x magnification. RBCs infected with malaria parasites are marked.	22
Fig. 2.15:	(a) Identified red blood cells after background removal. (b) After edge detection, this image is gain thresholded with gray level value of the malaria parasite, leading to their detection.	22
Fig. 3.1:	(a) Imaging intensity of the probe beam leads to low contrast images of unstained sample since the absorption is less. (b) One the other hand imaging the phase of the probe beam leads to high contrast images of unstained samples since the probe beam phase changes appreciably even for small thickness (of the order of λ of the probe beam used) variation.	25
Fig. 3.2:	Superposition of object and reference beams leads to formation of interference fringes or holograms. If there is no object in present, the superposition will lead to creation of carrier fringes. Fringes in the region where object existed gets modulated due pathlength/phase change.	27
Fig. 3.3:	Re-illumination of the hologram by replica of the reference beam.	28
Fig. 3.4:	Generation of different diffracted beams and their direction when hologram is illuminated by reference beam.	29
Fig. 3.5:	Propagation of the complex amplitude distribution at the hologram	30
Fig. 3.6:	(a) Hologram of red blood cell. (b) Area of interest inside the black rectangle showing fringe modulation due to the object. (c) Spatial frequency spectrum of the hologram illuminated by digital version of the reference beam, showing different diffracted components. (d) Filtered frequency spectrum showing the term corresponding to object and carrier frequency.	31
Fig. 3.7:	(a) Hologram of a red blood cell. (b) Reference hologram of the same region	33
Fig. 3.8:	Numerical focusing of digital holograms. (a) Image situated 8μ m inside focus. (b) Image at the best focus plane. (c) Image situated 8μ m outside focus.	33
Fig. 3.9:	(a) Phase difference between object and reference holograms. (c) Thickness profile of the object after plugging in the refractive index values in Eq. (3.9).	34
Fig. 3.10:	Concept of off-axis digital holographic microscope	35
Fig. 3.11:	Transmission mode two-beam off-axis Mach-Zehnder interferometer based Digital Holographic Interference Microscope for 3D imaging of phase micro- objects.	36
Fig. 3.12:	(a) Hologram of red blood cell distribution in thin blood smears. (b) Reference hologram for the same set of cells.	37

Fig. 3.13	Thickness computation of red blood cells. (a) Phase distribution of object hologram. (b) Phase distribution of reference hologram. (c) Phase difference obtained by subtracting reference phase from object phase. (d) Cell thickness distribution obtained by using the phase difference distribution in Eq. (3.9) along with the refractive index values of the cell and the surrounding medium.	38
Fig. 3.14	Cleaning of phase maps and identification of cell locations. (a) Cells at the boundary and connected cells. (b) Phase map after thresholding and removal of boundary as well as connected cells. (c) Identified cells and cell locations. (d) Thickness distribution of identified cells.	39
Fig. 3.15:	Obtained thickness distribution and cross-sectional thickness profile of healthy red blood cells	42
Fig. 3.16:	Obtained thickness distribution and cross-sectional thickness profile of red blood cells in malaria tested positive sample.	43
Fig. 3.17:	Mean optical thickness of cells measured form the OPL profile. (a) Values obtained for individual cells. (b) Probability distribution. The straight line in Fig. 3.17a indicates the mean value.	44
Fig. 3.18:	Surface area to volume ratio. (a) Values for individual cells. (b) Probability distribution	46
Fig. 3.19:	Sphericity value. (a) Values for individual cells. (b) Probability distribution	46
Fig. 3.20:	Correlation map between optical volume and optical surface area to volume ratio.	47
Fig. 3.21:	Automatic cell identification by shape comparison. Reconstructed OPL distribution from 20 layers (N=20) were used for identification of cells.	48
Fig. 3.22:	Quantitative phase images of red blood cells at 10 axial planes separated by $0.24\mu m$. (a) For healthy cells. (b) For malaria infected cells.	49
Fig. 3.23:	Automatic, label free identification of malaria infected red blood cells using shape correlation values. (a) Computed shape correlation values for individual cell pairs. (b) Distribution plot of shape correlation values. Straight black line in Fig. 3.23a act as the cell discriminator shape correlation value.	50
Fig. 3.24:	Clinical version of the two-beam DHIM employing Mach-Zehnder interferometer geometry	51
Fig. 4.1:	Basic concept of self-referencing DHIM	53
Fig. 4.2:	Basic concept of Lateral Shearing DHIM	54
Fig. 4.3:	Superposition of wavefronts reflected from the front and back surface of a glass plate show in Fig. 4.3a. (b) Scenario in which the amount of shearing less than the size of the magnified image of the object leading to formation of shearogram [90]. (c) Scenario in which the shearing is larger than the size of the magnified image of the object leading to hologram formation. (d) Shearogram and (e) Hologram in the case of RBC.	55

Fig. 4.4:	Lateral Shearing DHIM (prototype version 1.0). It uses a laser diode module as the source and a 5mm thick fused silica glass plate for shearing. The one shown above uses a $40\times$, NA=0.65 microscope objective for object magnification. Inset shows the device attached to a PC for live cell imaging.	56
Fig. 4.5:	(a) Hologram of 10µm diameter polystyrene microsphere. (b) Reference hologram used for phase subtraction.	57
Fig. 4.6:	(a) Phase contrast image of polystyrene microsphere. (b) Three-dimensional rendering of the thickness profile of the microsphere. (c) Cross-sectional thickness profile.	58
Fig. 4.7:	(a) Spatial variation in thickness obtained without any object in the field of view. The standard deviation of the thickness variation acts as the quantifier for spatial stability. (b) Histogram of the thickness variation along with the standard deviation of the distribution.	58
Fig. 4.8:	(a) Hologram of red blood cells recorded with device shown in Fig. 4.4. (b) Region of interest inside the white box. (c) Computed thickness distribution from the reconstructed phase.	59
Fig. 4.9:	Temporal stability of the device shown in Fig. 4.4	60
Fig. 4.10:	Thickness fluctuation measurement of red blood cells. (a) Thickness variation across the field of view (computed from 300 holograms). (b) Time varying thickness fluctuation for the cell inside the white box (computed from 30 holograms which represents 1s)	60
Fig. 4.11:	Schematic of the field portable version of LS-DHIM. (a) Alignment of optical components and the light path in the device. (b) Inside view of the packaged device.	61
Fig. 4.12:	Photograph of the 3D printed microscope. (a) Showing different components of the device. (b) Compact device attached to a smart-phone via an USB-OTG cable.	61
Fig. 4.13:	(a) DVD pick-up unit lens mounted on voice-coil used for magnification of the sample. (b) Back and (c) Front view of the optical pick-up unit.	62
Fig. 4.14:	Thickness profiling of polystyrene microspheres using portable unit. (a) Recorded hologram. (b) Numerically reconstructed phase distribution of the object. (c) Three dimensional rendering of the computed thickness distribution. (d) Cross sectional thickness profile along the direction of the white line shown in Fig. 4.14b	63
Fig. 4.15:	Thickness profiling of polystyrene microspheres using portable unit. (a) Recorded hologram. (b) Numerically reconstructed phase distribution of the object. (c) Three dimensional rendering of the computed thickness distribution. (d) Cross sectional thickness profile along the direction of the white line shown in Fig. 4.14b	64
Fig. 4.16:	Temporal stability of compact field portable device.	65

Fig. 4.17:	Holograms of red blood cells recorded by translating the magnifying lens laterally.	65
Fig. 4.18:	Quantitative phase images of blood cells obtained by stitching together multiple field of views	66
Fig. 4.19:	Blood cell thickness distribution obtained using phase map in Fig. 4.18	66
Fig. 4.20:	Point-of-care application of the portable LS-DHIM	67
Fig. 4.21:	(a) Sending data (hologram) to the off-site computer. The computer processes the holograms and extracts the cell parameters. (b) Cell parameters and the phase maps are send back to the user.	68
Fig. 4.22:	Converting bright field microscope to quantitative phase imaging microscope. (a) Optical alignment and laser beam ray path. (b) 3D printed quantitative phase imaging module.	69
Fig. 4.23:	Microscope fitted with quantitative phase imaging unit.	70
Fig. 4.24:	Holograms recorded using the bright field microscope fitted with the 3D imaging module. (a) Object hologram. (b) Reference hologram	71
Fig. 4.25:	Quantitative phase imaging using bright field microscope fitted with the 3D imaging unit. (a) Phase distribution of 10µm diameter polystyrene microspheres. (b) Three dimension rendering of the computed thickness distribution.	72
Fig. 4.26:	Quantitative phase imaging of red blood cells using bright field microscope fitted with the 3D imaging unit. (a) Recorded hologram. (b) Three dimension rendering of the computed thickness distribution.	72
Fig. 5.1:	Wavefront division digital holographic microscope using constructed using laser diode module and CCD array.	75
Fig. 5.2:	Two-lens wavefront division module	76
Fig. 5.3:	Conversion of incident laser beam into object and reference wavefronts.	76
Fig. 5.4:	WD-DHM calibration. (a) Hologram of 6µm diameter polystyrene microsphere (object hologram) (b) Area of interest inside the blue rectangle showing fringe modulation due to object. (c) Hologram of the medium (oil) surrounding the microsphere (reference hologram). (d) Region of reference hologram corresponding to where the object was situated in Fig. 5.4b. It shows a set of linear carrier fringes.	78
Fig. 5.5:	Phase subtraction (a) Object phase. (b) Reference phase. (c) Phase difference. Phase difference is further processed to reduce the background noise.	79

Fig. 5.6:	(a) Quantitative phase image of the polystyrene microspheres obtained after phase subtraction and thresholding the resulting phase difference distribution with the mean of the background phase. (b) Reconstructed thickness profile of the microsphere obtained by plugging the quantitative phase information shown in Fig. 5.6a into Eq. (3.9). (c) Cross-sectional thickness profile of the polystyrene microspheres along the line shown in Fig. 5.6a.	79
Fig. 5.7:	(a) Phase variation across the field of view without object. (b) Histogram of phase variation. Spatial stability is 1.62nm.	80
Fig. 5.8:	 (a) Thickness fluctuation (standard deviation of the thickness variation with time at a particular spatial point) at 10000 spatial points in the field of view. (b) Histogram of the thickness fluctuation,> Mean thickness fluctuation is 0.88nm. 	81
Fig. 5.9:	(a) Recorded hologram of human red blood cells in thin blood smears. (b) Region of interest shown inside rectangle showing fringe modulation due to the cells.	81
Fig. 5.10:	Intensity obtained by numerical reconstruction of hologram in Fig. 5.9a	82
Fig. 5.11:	Quantitative phase image of red blood cells obtained after hologram reconstruction and phase subtraction.	82
Fig. 5.12:	(a) Thickness distribution in red blood cells obtained from phase map shown in Fig. 5.11. (b) Cross-sectional thickness profile along the line on the cell inside the rectangle in Fig. 5.11.	83
Fig. 5.13:	Computed cell parameter distributions (from 2115 cells). (a) Mean cell thickness. (b) Cell volume. (c) Surface Area to Volume ratio. (d) Cell Sphericity. Volume of the cells is one of the most important parameters clinicians look for. This depends upon the thickness. Also surface area to volume ratio decides the oxygen carrying capacity of red blood cells. The sphericity index indicates how much RBC deviates from its flats double discoid structure.	84
Fig. 5.14:	Amplitude of thickness fluctuation at different spatial points inside red blood cells. Inset shows the three dimensional rendering of thickness fluctuation for the cell inside the rectangle.	85
Fig. 5.15:	Peak frequency of thickness fluctuation at different spatial points inside the cell. Inset shows the three dimensional rendering of peak frequency for the cell inside the rectangle.	86
Fig. 5.16:	Photograph of the field-portable Wavefront Division Digital Holographic Microscope. WD module – Wavefront division module.	87
Fig. 6.1:	Scattered (reflected) and refracted light work together to hold the particle at the same position.	91
Fig. 6.2:	A shift of the particle from the trapped position results in a net fore towards the region of higher intensity there by keeping the particle in the trapped position.	93

Fig. 6.3:	Low cost optical tweezer integrated with lateral-shearing DHIM	97
Fig. 6.4:	Photograph of the Low cost optical tweezer and the necessary electronics.	98
Fig. 6.5:	Indigenously developed QPD for corner frequency and trap stiffness measurement	99
Fig. 6.6:	Intensity images of immobilization of $6\mu m$ diameter polystyrene microsphere.	101
Fig. 6.7:	Intensity images of optical trapping of RBCs. They flip along the direction of beam propagation.	101
Fig. 6.8:	Brownian fluctuations of the 6μ m diameter polystyrene bead measured using the in-house developed QPD in (a) <i>x</i> -direction and (b) <i>y</i> -direction	102
Fig. 6.9:	Power spectrum for (a) 6µm diameter sphere and (b) 10µm diameter microsphere. Red line in the figures represent the Lorentzian fit.	102
Fig. 6.10:	Histogram of the corner frequencies in the (a) x-direction and (b) y-direction for 6µm diameter micro-spheres, (c) x-direction and (d) y-direction for 10µm diameter micro-spheres.	103
Fig. 6.11:	Histogram of corner frequency distribution fitted using normal probability density function. (a) displacement in x-direction and (b) displacement in y-direction	104
Fig. 6.12:	Measured corner frequency of individual objects (a) $f_{c,X}$ and (b) $f_{c,Y}$	104
Fig. 6.13:	Holograms of immobilized 6μ m diameter polystyrene micro-spheres at different time instances. The trap beam is marked inside the red circle in each figure.	106
Fig. 6.14:	Reconstructed phase profiles for the holograms shown in Fig. 6.13	107
Fig. 6.15:	Contour plots of thickness profile of the object at different time instances (a) 0s, (b) 3s, (c) 6s, (d) 9s and (d) 12s. The thickness fluctuation profile computed from time varying thickness for the entire acquisition time (15s) is shown in (e).	108
Fig. 6.16	(a) Hologram of a RBC trapped by the optical tweezer. Inset of the figure shows detailed view of the modulated interference fringes due to the trapped RBC. (b) Reconstructed phase profile of the trapped RBC obtained after phase subtraction.	108