

Image Reconstruction Under Contact Impedance Effect in Micro Electrical Impedance Tomography Sensors

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Abstract—Contact impedance has an important effect on micro electrical impedance tomography (EIT) sensors compared to conventional macro sensors. In the present work, a complex contact impedance effect ratio ξ is defined to quantitatively evaluate the effect of the contact impedance on the accuracy of the reconstructed images by micro EIT. Quality of the reconstructed image under various ξ is estimated by the phantom simulation to find the optimum algorithm. The generalized vector sampled pattern matching (GVSPM) method reveals the best image quality and the best tolerance to ξ . Moreover, the images of yeast cells sedimentary distribution in a multilayered microchannel are reconstructed by the GVSPM method under various mean magnitudes of contact impedance effect ratio $|\xi|$. The result shows that the best image quality that has the smallest voltage error $U_E = 0.581$ is achieved with measurement frequency $f = 1$ MHz and mean magnitude $|\xi| = 26$. In addition, the reconstructed images of cells distribution become improper while $f < 10$ kHz and mean value of $|\xi| > 2400$.

Index Terms—Contact impedance, electric double layer, micro electrical impedance tomography, multilayered microchannel.

I. INTRODUCTION

CELL sensing is a key process for biochemical parameter characterization in biomedical applications. Guo demonstrated a very meaningful work: a pulse activated cell imaging system which greatly saves the memory needed during the imaging process [1], [2]. Tang developed a microfluidic impedance cytometer with inertial focusing and liquid electrodes for high-throughput cell counting and discrimination [3]. However, these

methods could not detect the cells distribution in the cross-section of the microfluidic device. Current research points out the detection of cells' distribution in micro devices has the potential to improve the control of cells in microfluidic devices such as in the application of different cells separation. In this context, Electrical Impedance Tomography (EIT) has been widely used in application of biological industries since EIT reconstructs the distribution image based on the electrical properties of the cells with no radioactive source, non-invasiveness, fast measurement and low cost [4]. Since York developed a miniaturized electrical capacitance tomography sensor with an average sensor diameter of $750 \mu\text{m}$ comprising 8 to 16 electrodes [5], many researchers have been drawn attention to study the micro sensor for biological industries. Sun developed a miniaturized EIT sensor with a chip containing a circular 16-electrode array with diameter of 6 mm to visualize the cell culture process [6]. Yang applied a miniature EIT sensor to visualize 3D cell culture such as spheroids, artificial tissues and organs [7]. Chai used a Complementary Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor (CMOS) microchip with a planar array of electrodes to observe cellular behavior *in-vitro* [8]. With the development of micro manufacturing technology, size of EIT sensor is decreased from millimeter to micrometer order. In the previous study, our laboratory has developed a multi-layered microchannel which is integrated 80 platinum electrodes by MEMS technique and has a diamond shape with side length of $550 \mu\text{m}$. The electrode-multi-layered microchannel has an advantage and potential to suit the cell sensing and manipulations [9]–[12].

In micro EIT sensing, a crucial problem is the effect of contact impedance on the interface between solution and electrodes. The contact impedance affects the measurements more seriously in micro EIT devices than conventional macro EIT sensors.

Many researchers are trying to improve the image quality with the consideration of the effect caused by contact impedance on the EIT sensing. Boyle and Adler show that a potential drop reaching to 53% in average contact impedance among electrodes affects seriously the quality of the reconstructed image [13]. Boverman proposed a new algorithm to improve the EIT image quality by compensating the poor contact of surface impedance [14]. Dardé and Stiboulis developed a complete electrode model to improve the measurement accuracy and image quality [15]. As their results, improving of image reconstruction algorithm

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and mathematic method become effective ways to reduce the effect of contact impedance in micro EIT sensing.

However, in micro EIT sensing, the principle of the contact impedance affecting the measurement is different from that of the macro one. Few researchers focus on the effect of contact impedance from the perspective of electro-chemical principle in micro device. Few researchers investigate the details of how contact impedance affects image quality and the key factor that affects contact impedance most in micro device. Furthermore, quantification of contact impedance effects on algorithms and the most suitable conditions for micro EIT become a crucial problem.

Algorithm of EIT image reconstruction is a key point of solving EIT inverse problem. The non-iterative and iterative algorithms were exhaustively reviewed by Yang and Peng [16]. Among the Conventional EIT algorithms applied to the micro EIT sensing, Tikhonov Regularization (TK) is a popular algorithm for solving linear equation systems or linear least-squares problems with a severely ill conditioned matrix, which replaces the given problem with a penalized least squares problem [17]. Projected Landweber Iteration (PLW) is widely used with the advantage of high image quality [18] because PLW improves the problem of time consumption during the iteration process. Generalized Vector Sampled Pattern Matching (GVSPM) is getting to be applied to solve the ill-posed inverse problem without empirical relaxation value to achieve stable convergence; mostly, GVSPM accomplishes high quality images in a few iterations [19].

The principle of micro EIT sensing is similar to the conventional macro EIT, which measures voltage under the condition of applied electrical current. Biophysical study reveals that the impedance measurements are frequency dependent [20]. At the relatively low-frequency, the cell/fluid solution is primarily affected by the electrical currents flowing around the cells (paracellular current) while at the relatively high frequency, the solution is primarily affected by the electrical currents flowing across the cell membranes (transcellular current) [21]. In the micro devices, the contact impedance in the range of frequency is also variable, it is decreased by frequency increases, but also depends on sensor size [22]. It is necessary to survey both contact impedance and cell solutions' impedance at various applied current frequencies because the contact impedance is also dependent on current frequency. In micro EIT sensing, the contact impedance is different from conventional macro sensing, which is the key point to the imaging accuracy of micro EIT; however, few researches work on it to clarify the tolerance of algorithms on contact impedance.

This paper focuses on the effect of contact impedance on the imaging quality of micro EIT. Firstly, a complex coefficient ξ which is called contact impedance effect ratio is defined to quantitatively evaluate the influence of contact impedance. Secondly, tolerability of the various image reconstruction algorithms to ξ is estimated by phantom simulation to determine the optimum algorithm for micro EIT. Finally, experiments of yeast cells sedimentation in a multi-layered microchannel are conducted to validate the effectiveness of the proper measurement condition and optimum algorithm of micro EIT.

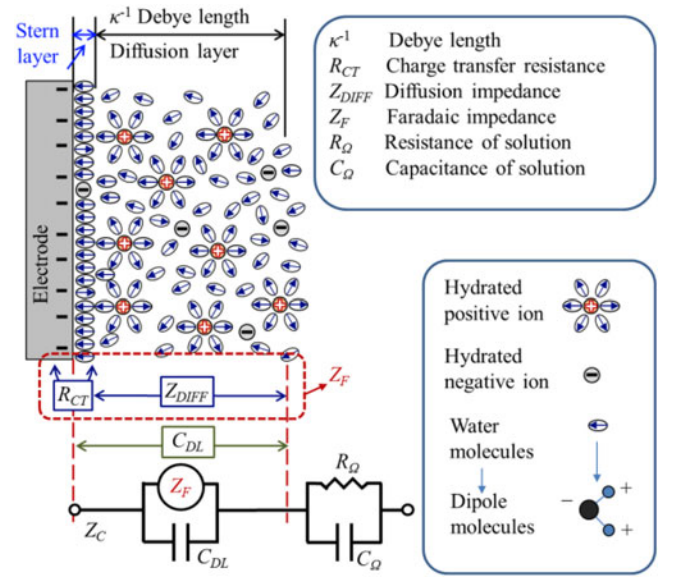


Fig. 1. Electrical properties on electrode surface and equivalent electrical circuit.

II. PRINCIPLE ELECTRO-CHEMICAL APPROACH OF CONTACT IMPEDANCE IN MICRO EIT SENSORS

A. Principle Electro-Chemical Approach of Contact Impedance

Measurement results are affected by contact impedance in the interface of electrode and solution. In order to quantitatively evaluate the influence caused by contact impedance, a complex coefficient ξ which is called contact impedance effect ratio is defined as

$$\begin{aligned}\xi &= \xi_{Re} + j\xi_{Im} \\ \xi_{Re} &= \frac{dR_C}{\kappa^{-1}R_\Omega}, \\ \xi_{Im} &= \frac{dX_C}{\kappa^{-1}X_\Omega}, \\ |\xi| &= \sqrt{\xi_{Re}^2 + \xi_{Im}^2}\end{aligned}\quad (1)$$

where ξ_{Re} is the real part of ξ , ξ_{Im} is the imaginary part of ξ , $|\xi|$ is the magnitude value of ξ , R_C [Ω] is the real part of contact impedance Z_C [Ω], X_C [Ω] is the imaginary part of Z_C . R_Ω [Ω] is the real part of solution's impedance Z_Ω [Ω], X_Ω [Ω] is the imaginary part of Z_Ω . The equivalent circuit of contact impedance is shown in the bottom of Fig. 1. The result of ξ depends on the ratio of solution's impedance Z_Ω to contact impedance Z_C .

For the physical phenomenon of contact impedance shown in Fig. 1, once electrical current is injected to the electrode, contact impedance Z_C occurs in the electrical double layer (EDL) which includes the stern layer and diffusion layer. EDL is formed as ions and other charged species from the solution stick on the electrode surface in stern layer and diffuse in the diffusion layer. Under an assumption of the equivalent electrical circuit, Z_C is

represented by a paralleled combination of capacitance of EDL C_{DL} [F/m²] and Faraday impedance Z_F [Ω] [22].

The EDL capacitance C_{DL} appears at the interface between the conductive electrode and solution. At this surface two layers of ions with opposing polarity form with an applied voltage are separated by ions adheres to the surface of the electrode and acts like a dielectric in a conventional capacitor. C_{DL} is expressed by [22]

$$C_{DL} = A\epsilon_0\epsilon_r/\kappa^{-1} \quad (2)$$

where κ^{-1} [m] is the Debye length, ϵ_0 [F/m] is the vacuum permittivity $\epsilon_0 = 8.854 \times 10^{-12}$ F/m, ϵ_r is the relative permittivity. Debye length κ^{-1} [22] is approximately calculated by

$$\kappa^{-1} = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_0\epsilon_r k_B T}{2n_e n_z^2 e^2}} \quad (3)$$

where k_B [J/K] is the Boltzmann constant $k_B = 1.38 \times 10^{-23}$ J/K, e [C] is the elementary charge $e = 1.60 \times 10^{-19}$ C, and n_e [m⁻³] is the ion density.

The contact impedance Z_C [Ω] is expressed by

$$Z_C = 1/(1/Z_F + j\omega C_{DL}) \quad (4)$$

Z_F is represented by a series combination of charge transfer resistance R_{CT} [Ω] and diffusion impedance Z_{DIFF} [Ω] [22]. Z_{DIFF} occurs by the migration and convection of ions in the diffusion layer. Here, Z_{DIFF} is treated as semi-infinite diffusion at the frequency range from $f = 10$ Hz to $f = 5$ MHz. R_{CT} occurs when the interface which is perturbed by the charges in the both side of interface take place. Z_F is expressed by

$$Z_F = R_{CT} + Z_{DIFF} = \frac{R_G T}{n_z F i_0} + \frac{R_G T}{n_z^2 F^2 c_0 A (2\pi f D j)^{1/2}} \quad (5)$$

where R_G is the gas constant $R_G = 8.31$ J/(K mol), T [K] is the absolute temperature, n_z is the integer charge number, F is the Fraday constant $F = 96500$ C/mol, i_0 [A] is the electrode current, A [m²] is the area surface of the electrode, f [Hz] is frequency of exciting alternating current (AC), c_0 [mol/m³] is the charge concentration and D [m²/s] is the ions diffusion coefficient, they are depended on the positive/negative ions.

Moreover, R_Ω [Ω] and X_Ω [Ω] in Eq. (1) represent the real part and the imaginary part of solution impedance Z_Ω [Ω], respectively, which are expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} Z_\Omega &= R_\Omega + jX_\Omega \\ R_\Omega &= \frac{A d \sigma_c}{A^2 \sigma_c^2 + 4\pi^2 f^2 \epsilon_0^2 \epsilon_{rc}^2 A^2} \\ X_\Omega &= \frac{2\pi f d \epsilon_0 \epsilon_{rc} A}{A^2 \sigma_c^2 + 4\pi^2 f^2 \epsilon_0^2 \epsilon_{rc}^2 A^2} \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where d [m] is the distance between electrodes, A [m²] is the surface of electrode, σ_c is the conductivity of cells solution.

According to the definition of contact impedance effect ratio ξ , the value of ξ is frequency depended. Fig. 2 shows the real part ξ_{Re} , the imaginary part ξ_{Im} and the magnitude $|\xi|$ of cells solution at different frequencies. The results are calculated from (1) based on the value of the parameters shown in Table I. As shown in Fig. 2, the frequency affects ξ seriously. In the low frequencies

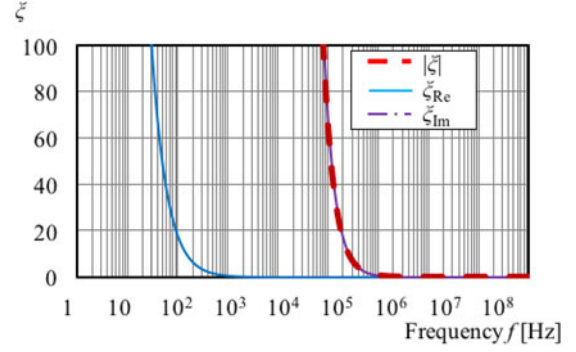


Fig. 2. Effect of contact impedance by frequency in micro EIT sensor.

TABLE I
SYMBOL AND VALUES OF CALCULATION IN ξ AND THE COMPARISON OF
MACRO AND MICRO SENSORS

Symbol	Quantity
R_G	Gas constant [J·K ⁻¹ ·mol ⁻¹]
T	Absolute temperature [K]
n_z	Valence charge number
F	Fraday constant [C/mol]
i_0	Exchange current [A]
c_0	Charge concentration [mol/m ³]
A	Electrode surface [m ²]
d	Distance of electrode pair
D	Ions diffusion coefficient [m ² /s]
κ^{-1}	Debye length [m]
ϵ_0	Permittivity of vacuum [F/m]
ϵ_{rw}	Reletive permittivity of pure water [-]
ϵ_{rc}	Reletive permittivity of cells solution [-]
σ_w	Conductivity of pure water [S/m]
σ_c	Conductivity of cells solution [S/m]

at $f < 100$ kHz, the value of ξ_{Im} and $|\xi|$ are much larger than the frequency in the case of $f > 100$ kHz. The real part has the same tendency, in the low frequencies at $f < 100$ Hz, the value of ξ_{Re} is much larger than the frequency in the case of $f > 100$ Hz. It reveals that contact impedance affects the measurements more strongly. The value of ξ_{Re} and ξ_{Im} are converged to a very small value at $f = 1$ kHz and $f = 1$ MHz respectively. The magnitude $|\xi|$ almost coincides with the ξ_{Im} . This phenomenon means that imaginary part of contact impedance impacts the measurement greatly.

In addition, from the principle of electrical chemical contact impedance, ξ led to different impact on the measurements of micro EIT sensors and conventional macro EIT sensors. Mostly, the obvious difference of micro and macro EIT sensors is the surface area. Fig. 3 shows the comparison of real part, imaginary part and magnitude of Z_C for micro and macro EIT sensor calculated by (2) in a frequency range from $f = 1$ Hz to $f = 100$ MHz. Surface area of micro and macro EIT sensor is assumed as $A_{micro} = 2 \times 10^{-9}$ m² (200 μ m \times 10 μ m) and $A_{macro} = 2 \times 10^{-5}$ m² (4 mm \times 10 mm) respectively. Table I shows the summarized other relevant parameters used in the calculation. As shown in Fig. 2, the magnitude of Z_C for macro sensor is decreased rapidly in the frequency range $f < 100$ Hz, but for micro EIT sensors, it decreased rapidly in the frequency range $f < 100$ kHz. The comparison shows the frequency range

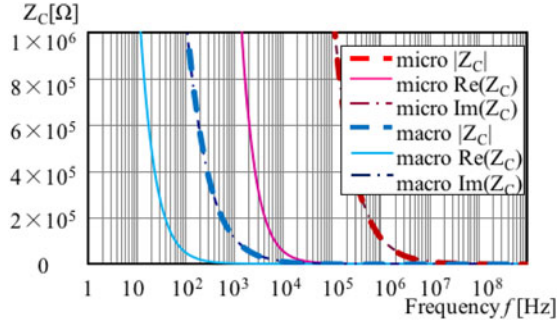


Fig. 3. Comparison of impedance in micro EIT sensor and macro sensor by calculation.

affected by contact impedance in micro EIT sensors is much larger than macro sensor. The real part and imaginary part of contact impedance have same consequences with the magnitude. This phenomenon is induced by the different electrode surface area between micro EIT sensor and conventional macro sensor. This phenomenon causes the frequency range affected by contact impedance in micro EIT sensors is much larger than macro sensors. Therefore, micro EIT sensors are much more insensitive than macro sensors at low frequencies because of the large contact impedance.

III. SIMULATION OF ALGORITHMS AFFECTED BY CONTACT IMPEDANCE

A. Simulation Methods

In order to find the optimum image reconstruction algorithm for micro EIT, qualities of the reconstructed images obtained by different image reconstruction algorithm are quantitatively estimated under various contact impedance effect ratio ξ . The widely-used algorithms, GVSPM (Generalized Vector Sampled Pattern Matching), TK (Iterative Tikhonov Regularization) and PLW (Projected Landweber Iteration), are employed in the present study.

The governing equation of GVSPM [19] is:

$$\sigma^{(k)} = \sigma^{(k-1)} - J^T \left(\frac{J\sigma^{(k)}}{|J\sigma^{(k)}|} - U_T' \right) \quad (7)$$

where J is the sensitive matrix, and U_T' is the normalized potential matrix from experiment and $\sigma^{(k)}$ is the k th iteration normalized conductivity. The first iterative conductivity value $\sigma^{(0)}$ is obtained from the LBP (Linear Back Projection) method expressed by

$$\sigma^{(0)} = J^T U_T / J^T I \quad (8)$$

where I is the unit matrix, U_T is the measured voltage.

The equation of TK [17] is expressed by

$$\sigma^{(0)} = (J^T J + \mu I)^{-1} J^T U_T \quad (9)$$

$$\sigma^{(k+1)} = \sigma^{(k)} + (J^T \cdot J + \mu I)^{-1} (J^T \cdot U_T + \mu \sigma^{(k)}) \quad (10)$$

where μ is the empirical coefficient as a small positive number, I is an unit matrix, the first iterative conductivity value $\sigma^{(0)}$ is obtained by (9).

TABLE II
LIST OF MEASUREMENTS

Measurement no.	Electrode transmitters		Electrode receivers	
	H _C	L _C	H _P	L _P
1	1	9	2	8
2	1	9	3	8
3	1	9	4	8
4	1	9	5	8
5	1	9	6	8
6	1	9	7	8
7	1	9	10	8
8	1	9	11	8
9	1	9	12	8
10	1	9	13	8
11	1	9	14	8
12	1	9	15	8
13	1	9	16	8
...
14	2	10	3	9
15	2	10	4	9
...
27	3	11	4	10
...
104	8	16	7	15

PLW is the most widely used iterative method for EIT to reconstruct images [18]. The solution is expressed by

$$f(\sigma) = \sigma^{(k+1)} = P \left[\sigma^{(k)} + \mu J^T (U_T - J \cdot \sigma^{(k)}) \right] \quad (11)$$

where P is a projection operator defined by

$$P[f(\sigma)] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } f(\sigma) < 0 \\ f(\sigma) & \text{if } 0 < f(\sigma) < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } f(\sigma) > 1 \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

the first iterative conductivity value $\sigma^{(0)}$ is obtained from the LBP method as shown in (8), U_T is the measured voltage.

In the simulation, ξ is employed as an impact factor to the input voltage data. It is described as (13), which affects the value of input voltage. In the simulation, all the input voltage is calculated at a range of ξ .

$$u_i = u_{\Omega i} (1 + \xi \kappa^{-1} / d_i) \quad (13)$$

where i is the i th measurement number while, Table II shows the measurements strategy of different electrode pairs, the samples of H and L are high potential and low potential. The total number is $M = 104$. u_i is the i th-measured voltage, $u_{\Omega i}$ is the solution voltage of i th measurement, d_i is the distance of i th-measured electrode pair.

Image error I_E is a common coefficient to evaluate image quality in phantom simulation [19], which is calculated as:

$$I_E = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^N (\sigma_j^{(K)} - \sigma_j^{(ori)})^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^N (\sigma_j^{(ori)})^2}} \quad (14)$$

where $\sigma_j^{(K)}$ is the j th element and K th iteration of the reconstructed image, K is the final iteration of the calculation. $\sigma_j^{(ori)}$ is the j th element of the original image conductivity. N is the pixel

number of the image. The lower value of I_E indicates a better image quality.

Another coefficients ψ_{IE} is defined to evaluate the variation of I_E in a range of ξ , which is explained as:

$$\psi_{IE} = \frac{I_E^{(\max)} - I_E^{(\min)}}{I_E^{(\min)}} \times 100\% \quad (15)$$

where $I_E^{(\max)}$ is the maximum of I_E , $I_E^{(\min)}$ is the minimum of I_E , the lower value ψ_{IE} indicates a smaller variation.

B. Simulation Conditions

In the simulation, two phantoms are created. The first phantom is created as 10 vol% cells solution which deposited at the bottom of domain. The second phantom is created as a cells group in the center of the domain. In the phantoms, the water conductivity is $\sigma_w = 5.5 \times 10^{-6}$ S/m, and the cells conductivity is $\sigma_c = 2.34 \times 10^{-3}$ S/m. In the simulation, 16 electrodes were equally spaced at the periphery of the multi-layered microchannel. Considering that the tendencies of $|\xi|$ and ξ_{Re} are same, DC current is applied to simplify the condition. Therefore, the imaginary part of ξ is ignored as $|\xi| = \xi_{Re}$. The current $i_C = 0.1$ mA was injected through opposite electrode pairs while the voltage responses across the remaining pairs were recorded in accordance with the order shown in Table II. For each current injection, the voltages were obtained by solving Poisson equation using finite-element method. The range of $|\xi|$ is varied from $|\xi| = 0$ to $|\xi| = 100$. Resolution of reconstructed image is $N = 32 \times 32 = 1024$. The optimum empirical coefficient μ in PLW and TK are chosen in a range of value by comparing I_E .

C. Simulation Results

Fig. 4(a) shows the simulation results of the relative conductivity distribution which is reconstructed by different algorithms and $|\xi|$. As shown in Fig. 4(b) and (c), image errors I_E of the three algorithms in both phantoms are increased as $|\xi|$ increases. It means the larger $|\xi|$ affects image quality more. From the chart of Fig. 4(b), in the case of $|\xi| = 0$, I_E value of GVSPM ($I_E = 0.572$) is smaller than I_E value of TK ($I_E = 0.587$) and PLW ($I_E = 0.586$). In the case of $|\xi| = 100$, I_E value of GVSPM ($I_E = 0.583$) is smaller than I_E value of TK ($I_E = 0.607$) and PLW ($I_E = 0.618$). From the chart of Fig. 4(c), in the case of $|\xi| = 0$, I_E value of GVSPM ($I_E = 0.721$) is smaller than I_E value of TK ($I_E = 0.828$) and PLW ($I_E = 0.739$). In the case of $|\xi| = 100$, I_E value of GVSPM ($I_E = 0.792$) is smaller than I_E value of TK ($I_E = 0.911$) and PLW ($I_E = 0.815$). GVSPM achieves better image quality than other two because it presents the smallest image error in each value of $|\xi|$. The reason is that GVSPM have no empirical coefficient like μ in PLW and TK. The variation of I_E in phantom 1 by GVSPM in the range of $|\xi|$ is $\psi_{IE} = 1.99\%$, smaller than PLW which is $\psi_{IE} = 5.33\%$ and TK which is $\psi_{IE} = 3.54\%$. The results in phantom 2 of GVSPM is $\psi_{IE} = 9.81\%$, which are smaller than PLW of $\psi_{IE} = 10.23\%$ and TK of $\psi_{IE} = 9.94\%$. These results reveal that GVSPM has a better toleration of ξ .

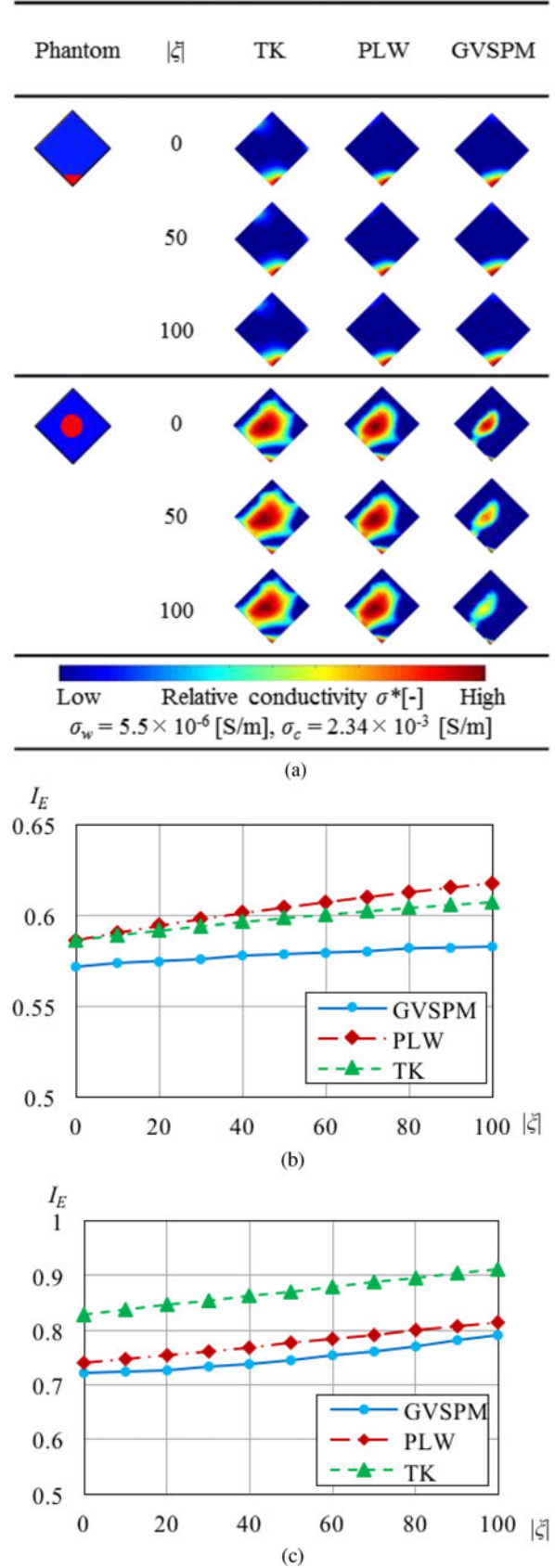


Fig. 4. Simulation results. (a) Image reconstructed by different algorithms, (b) I_E of 1st Phantom in different $|\xi|$, and (c) I_E of 2nd Phantom in different $|\xi|$.

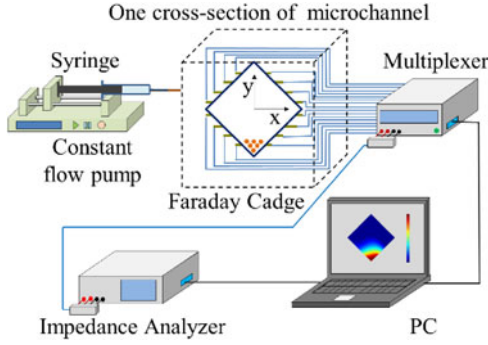


Fig. 5. Experimental set-up.

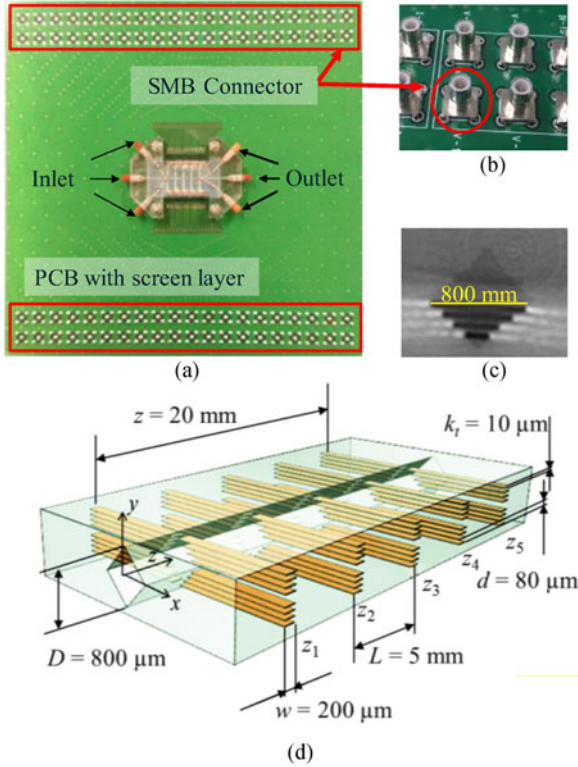


Fig. 6. Multi-layered microchannel. (a) Photograph of the microchannel and connectors, (b) SMB connectors, (c) microcomputed tomography image, and (d) dimension of the microchannel.

IV. EXPERIMENTS OF MICRO EIT IMAGES QUALITY IN ξ

A. Experimental Setup

As shown in Fig. 5, the experimental setup is consisted of a multi-layered microchannel, a syringe pump (Muromachi KDS-100), a Faraday cage, a multiplexer (Agilent 34970A, matrix switch Model Agilent 34904A), an impedance analyser (HIOKI IM3570) and a PC (Mouse computer W950JU). Fig. 6(a) shows the details of multi-layered microchannel. It is fixed on a PCB (printed circuit board). The connectors are SMB (Sub Miniature Version B) as shown in Fig. 6(b). Fig. 6(c) shows the micro CT (computed tomography) image of one cross-section in the multi-layered microchannel, which is obtained by the X-Ray CT scanner (Model: TDM1300-IS, Yamato Scientific, Japan). The dimension of the multi-layered microchannel is shown in

Fig. 6(d). The length of the main flow channel is $z = 20$ mm. Five electrode-integrated cross-sections with separation distance $L = 5$ mm are arrayed along the main flow-channel. The diagonal of the diamond cross-section is $D = 800$ μm . In each section, 16 platinum electrodes are integrated. The thickness of electrode is $k_t = 10$ μm and the width is $w = 200$ μm , the distance between two adjacent electrodes is $d = 80$ μm .

B. Experimental Methods

Experiments are conducted to visualize the cells distribution by EIT method with different values of magnitude $|\xi|$. GVSPM was employed to reconstruct the image due to its best image quality and tolerance of ξ shown in the simulation. Contact impedance Z_C and impedance of cells solution Z_Ω are calculated by fitting the experimental results of EIS (Electrical Impedance Spectroscopy) in each measured electrode pair. The equivalent circuit is shown in Fig. 1. $|\xi|$ is calculated by (1) from the value of fitted Z_C and Z_Ω in each electrode pair. In the measurements, the measured impedance Z is

$$Z = Z_C + Z_\Omega \quad (16)$$

as Z_C and Z_Ω are in series. After the calculation, the values of $|\xi|$ in the supported frequency are selected to evaluate the effect of contact impedance.

In the reconstruction of an EIT image, all the voltages from different electrode pairs are measured at a fixed frequency. The number of $|\xi|$ is the same as the number of measurements M which is shown in Table II, the mean value of $|\xi|$ is calculated to evaluate the effect of contact impedance in the frequency.

The voltage error U_E is employed to evaluate the image quality,

$$U_E = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^M (u_i^{(K)} - u_i^{(\text{exp})})^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^M (u_i^{(\text{exp})})^2}} \quad (17)$$

where i is the i th measurement number, the measurement strategy is as Table II. M is the total number of measurements. $u_i^{(K)}$ is the i th element of the final iterative potential which is calculated from the final $k = K$ iterative reconstructed image, u_i^{exp} is the i th measured voltage from experiments. U_E quantifies the difference between $u_i^{(k)}$ and $u_i^{(\text{exp})}$. A smaller value of U_E means better image quality.

C. Experiential Conditions

The measurement object of the experiments is yeast cells sedimentary distribution. The temperature of culturing yeast cells is $T = 298$ K. The volume concentration of cell solution is $\Phi = 10$ vol% which is mixed by yeast cells and pure water. The flow rate of the injected solution to the multi-layered microchannel by the syringe pump is $Q = 10$ mL/h. The cells deposition time is 30 min, after that, the measurement starts. The applied alternate current is $i_C = 0.1$ mA. The frequencies for image reconstruction are $f = 10$ kHz, 50 kHz, 100 kHz, 500 kHz and 1 MHz. The number of measured electrode pairs at each frequency is $M = 104$. The resolution of the reconstructed image is $N = 32 \times 32 = 1024$.

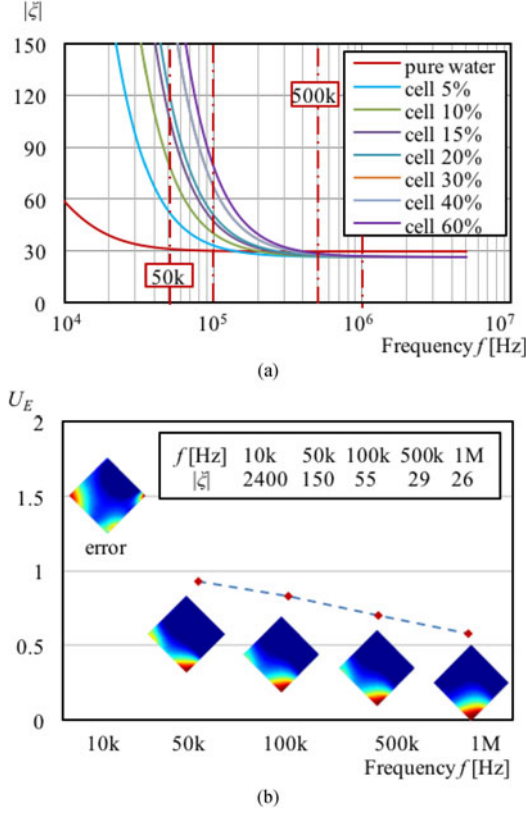


Fig. 7. Experiment results. (a) $|\xi|$ by frequency on different concentration solutions and (b) reconstructed EIT images.

D. Experimental Results

As the different distance of electrode pairs around the microchannel, the concentrations of cells in different electrode pairs are different while cells at the bottom of the multi-layered microchannel. Fig. 7(a) shows the magnitude values $|\xi|$ in different concentration of yeast cell solutions by a range of frequencies. At $f = 10$ kHz, $|\xi|$ under cell concentration $\Phi = 0$ to 60% is increased from $|\xi| = 70$ to $|\xi| = 4500$; at $f = 1$ MHz, this value increased from $|\xi| = 26$ to $|\xi| = 27$. The results show the variation of $|\xi|$ influenced by different cells concentration is much smaller than different frequency. In addition, the variation of $|\xi|$ is much smaller than the condition of $f > 100$ kHz. In the frequency range of $f < 100$ kHz, the contact impedance affects the measurement seriously. In the case of $f > 100$ kHz, the effect is much smaller. The image quality of different ξ is affected by the different frequencies. From the results, the effect of contact impedance is predicted.

Fig. 7(b) shows the reconstructed images at different mean values of $|\xi|$. At lower frequencies $f = 10$ kHz, the mean values of $|\xi|$ is very large as $|\xi| = 2400$, the reconstructed image displays an incorrect cell distribution, since the correct one shows the distribution of cells at the bottom of the multi-layered microchannel due to sedimentation. In the case of higher frequencies as $f > 50$ kHz, the mean value of $|\xi|$ are decreased from $|\xi| = 150$ to $|\xi| = 26$. From the comparison, the smallest $U_E = 0.581$ is found out at the smallest mean value $|\xi| = 26$ at $f = 1$ MHz.

From the result, contact impedance affects the image quality significantly. The much larger value of $|\xi|$ affects measurement

seriously and prevents correct reconstructed images. The small value of $|\xi|$ affects measurement less, the EIT images are correct and have a better image quality.

V. DISCUSSION

As addressed above, both the simulation and experiment results reveal serious negative effects of the contact impedance on micro EIT. However, these effects are also shown to be reducible by using a suitable algorithm and optimum frequency. Particularly, GVSPM shows better image reconstruction quality and toleration of contact impedance than PLW and TK. There are two reasons for the superiority of GVSPM.

Firstly, according to the governing equation of PLW, TK and GVSPM, PLW and TK method need empirical coefficient μ for each iteration process, which is important for solving the inverse problem. In PLW, μ is the relaxation factor, which controls the convergence for each iteration process. In TK, μ is regularization parameter, which regulars the results and improves the accuracy for each iteration process. However, the GVSPM method does not need an empirical value. It uses an inner product as the objective function of convergence in the iterative solution which is an advantage of self-convergence [19]. With this advantage, GVSPM has a better convergence controlling performance. PLW and TK are converged by the supported critical value, and they have no feasibility of self-convergence.

Secondly, GVSPM is less sensitive to contact impedance effect than PLW and TK. A coefficient I_P (inner product) is employed to discuss the convergence of algorithms in a range of $|\xi|$. In this method, the input voltage is treated as a unit vector expressed as $U^{(inp)} / |U^{(inp)}|$, and the calculated voltage from conductivity is also treated as a unit vector expressed as $J\sigma^{(k)} / |J\sigma^{(k)}|$. The inner product of the two vectors is closer to 1 since they are similar which means the reconstructed image is closed to the true cells distribution. An inner product value closes to 1 is a sufficient condition to measure cell distribution accurately.

In this paper, I_P is expressed by

$$I_P = \frac{U^{(inp)}}{|U^{(inp)}|} \cdot \frac{J\sigma^{(k)}}{|J\sigma^{(k)}|} \quad (18)$$

where $U^{(inp)}$ is the input voltage, J is the sensitive matrix, $\sigma^{(k)}$ is the calculated conductivity in k th iteration. The value of I_P is closer to 1 means the image quality is better. Another coefficients ψ_{IP} is defined to evaluate the variation of I_P in a range of ξ , which is explained as:

$$\psi_{IP} = \frac{I_P^{(\max)} - I_P^{(\min)}}{I_P^{(\max)}} \times 100\% \quad (19)$$

where $I_P^{(\max)}$ is the maximum of I_P , $I_P^{(\min)}$ is the minimum of I_P , the lower value ψ_{IP} indicates a smaller variation.

Fig. 8 shows the results of first phantom in Fig. 4(a), from the result, I_P is decreased while $|\xi|$ increases. GVSPM has a better image quality as the inner product decreased from 0.756 to 0.726 while the value of $|\xi|$ from $|\xi| = 0$ to $|\xi| = 100$, the results of TK are from 0.733 to 0.701 and PLW are from 0.745 to 0.717. In addition, the variation of I_E by GVSPM in the range of $|\xi|$

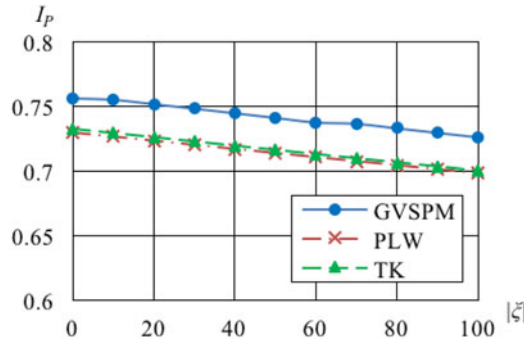


Fig. 8. Comparison of inner product in different $|\xi|$.

is $\psi_{IE} = 1.99\%$, smaller than PLW which is $\psi_{IE} = 5.33\%$ and TK which is $\psi_{IE} = 3.54\%$. The smallest variation of the inner product is $\psi_{IP} = 3.96\%$ by GVSPM, the result of TK is $\psi_{IP} = 4.45\%$ and PLW is $\psi_{IP} = 4.31\%$. As a result, GVSPM is better than other algorithms to tolerate the effect at the range of $|\xi|$. The reason lies in the fact that contact impedance effects are reduced by the division of unit vectors normalization in GVSPM. From (10) and (11), TK and PLW have no function to reduce $|\xi|$ in the iteration. Both are regulated by the empirical coefficients which are constant value and have a linear relationship with $|\xi|$.

Equation (13) shows the composing of measured voltage, it is also expressed by

$$u_i = u_{\Omega i} + u_{\Omega i} (\xi \kappa^{-1} / d_i) \quad (20)$$

the first term ($\xi = 0$) is constant. The key point is GVSPM has the characteristics to reduce the right second term. In (7), it is clear the regular part $J\sigma^{(k)} / |J\sigma^{(k)}|$ has a division, both numerator and denominator have the component of $|\xi|$. In the division, the effect of $|\xi|$ is reduced.

In the experiments, contact impedance affects the image quality in different conditions. At the lower frequencies $f < 100$ kHz, the measured voltages are mainly from the potential drop of the contact impedance. In the case of frequency $f = 10$ kHz, the mean value of $|\xi|$ is $|\xi| = 2400$, from (13), the mean ratio of the contact impedance potential drop in measured voltage is 87%, which reveals that, the voltages used for reconstructing the images are not from cells solution but mainly from contact impedance. Hence the images are not able to display the real cell distribution. At the frequencies $100 \text{ kHz} < f < 1 \text{ MHz}$, the contact impedance ratio ξ is reduced to a very small range as $26 < |\xi| < 55$. In this condition, the mean ratio of the contact impedance potential drop in measured voltage is from 7% to 20%, it means the contact impedance accounts for a small proportion of the measured voltage. Hence the reconstructed images display the cell distribution well at higher frequencies. Boone and Holder indicated that 20% variation of contact impedance results in an image that is enough to render the image in the previous study [23].

In addition, the contact impedance effect ratio ξ clarifies and quantizes the influence of contact impedance in micro EIT sensors, and explains the optimum frequency for micro EIT sensing. It is summarized by the principle of contact impedance of electrode-solution. For further research, the principle is feasible

to be applied in the situation which has the contact impedance in the interface such as EDL (electrical double layer).

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a contact impedance effect ratio ξ was defined to evaluate quantitatively the effect of contact impedance on micro EIT image quality. Based on ξ , simulation and experiments were conducted.

- 1) Contact impedance effect ratio ξ was defined to clarify the effect of contact impedance. The value of ξ was calculated by fitting the experimental data. In the micro EIT sensor, the measuring frequency affects the value of ξ much more than concentrations. From the result, the measurement data in the frequency range of $f < 100$ kHz is seriously affected by contact impedance, and the frequency range of $f > 100$ kHz is suitable for EIT measurement.
- 2) In the simulation, three different image reconstruction algorithms (GVSPM, TK and PLW) were compared by a range of ξ . GVSPM is the optimum algorithm due to its best image quality and smallest variation $\psi = 1.99\%$ in the range from $\xi = 0$ to $\xi = 100$.
- 3) In the experiments, the images of cell sedimentation at the bottom of multi-layered microchannel from different mean value of $|\xi|$ are reconstructed by GVSPM. The results proved the inference that smaller value of $|\xi|$ affects the image quality slightly and higher value of $|\xi|$ affects the image quality seriously. In the case of the mean value of $|\xi| < 150$ at the frequency range of $f > 50$ kHz, the images are correct and the image quality is high, the best image quality $U_E = 0.581$ is achieved at the smallest value as $|\xi| = 26$. In the case that the mean value of $|\xi|$ is very large at low frequencies $f < 10$ kHz, the images are not able to display the real cell distribution.

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TI Image Reconstruction Under Contact Impedance Effect in Micro Electrical Impedance Tomography Sensors

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LA English

DT Article

DE Contact impedance; electric double layer; micro electrical impedance tomography; multilayered microchannel

ID CAPACITANCE TOMOGRAPHY; CELLS; REGULARIZATION

AB Contact impedance has an important effect on micro electrical impedance tomography (EIT) sensors compared to conventional macro sensors. In the present work, a complex contact impedance effect ratio ξ is defined to quantitatively evaluate the effect of the contact impedance on the accuracy of the reconstructed images by micro EIT. Quality of the reconstructed image under various ξ is estimated by the phantom simulation to find the optimum algorithm. The generalized vector sampled pattern matching (GVSPM) method reveals the best image quality and the best tolerance to ξ . Moreover, the images of yeast cells sedimentary distribution in a multilayered microchannel are reconstructed by the GVSPM method under various mean magnitudes of contact impedance effect ratio $|\xi|$. The result shows that the best image quality that has the smallest voltage error $U-E = 0.581$ is achieved with measurement frequency $f = 1$ MHz and mean magnitude $|\xi| = 26$. In addition, the reconstructed images of cells distribution become improper while $f < 10$ kHz and mean value of $|\xi| > 2400$.

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