The need for optoacoustic microscopy

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Optoacoustic (photoacoustic) microscopy resolves optical absorption in cells and tissues, thus offering a complementary contrast mechanism to optical microscopy. Yet, the marked advances in optical microscopy techniques and their widespread use beg the question on the particular need and utility of an additional microscopy modality that resolves optical absorption. We present recent advances that point to advantageous features and uses of optoacoustic microscopy in biological and clinical interrogation. We review how these advances can be manifested as part of hybrid implementations using optical, optoacoustic and possibly other forms of microscopy to enhance the ability of the microscopic interrogation. We further examine developments in the miniaturized optical detection of ultrasound, that can transform any optical microscope into a hybrid opticaloptoacoustic system, and present recent progress with label-free molecular sensing and with new classes of novel reporters that expand the visualization capacity of the optoacoustic method. Finally, we discuss how hybrid optical-optoacoustic microscopy offers a next step in multimodal interrogations, impacting biological and clinical readings.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Optical microscopy spans 3.5 centuries of developments that have played a fundamental role in the progress of biology and the life sciences, enabling unprecedented insights into biological systems. Seminal advances over the last decades, including confocal (Davidovits and Egger, 1969), multiphoton (Denk et al., 1990; Hellwarth and Christensen, 1974) and super-resolution microscopy (Bailey et al., 1993; Heintzmann and Cremer, 1999; Rust et al., 2006), and the introduction of fluorescent proteins (Chalfie et al., 1994; Shimomura et al., 1962), have tremendously expanded the use of the optical modality. A search in PubMed using the term "optical microscopy" reports more than 35,000 publications per year in the last few years, a marked and constant growth from ≈ 500 publications per year in the mid-1950's.

In the past few decades, the optoacoustic (OptA) method has received attention as a microscopy modality. While OptA approaches were first considered for gas sensing in the 1940's and 50's (Callisen, 1947; Delany, 1959), microscopy applications were described in the late 70's (Wong et al., 1978) and 80's (Wada et al., 1986, 1985). The term "optical", typically used for methods that use light for scientific measurements and imaging, is employed in many modalities such as *optical* microscopy, optical spectroscopy, optical coherence tomography, etc. (Ntziachristos, 2024). Similarly, the prefix "opto" in optoacoustics was initially employed in scientific publications (Callisen, 1947; Delany, 1959). Nevertheless, OptA microscopy (OptAM) is also broadly referred to as *photo*acoustic, i.e. photoacoustic microscopy (PAM) (Wang and Hu, 2012). Today, a search with the terms "optoacoustic microscopy" or "photoacoustic

microscopy" reveals a volume of ~ 150 publications per year. This number marks a significant growth of the modality since its initial introduction in the 1970's and 80's, and also indicates the challenges of adopting OptAM in biomedical applications. Indeed, inspection of this literature reveals publications that primarily drive the technology, rather than indicating a broad propagation of the method in the biomedical sciences.

The potential and challenges for a broad biomedical OptAM adoption can be explained by first describing its relation to the depth and the resolution that the method achieves in tissues (Fig.1). The OptA effect operates by converting light to ultrasound energy by means of thermo-elastic expansion. Briefly, chromophores that absorb light of transient energy (e.g. photon pulses) generate local volumetric expansions and contractions which give rise to ultrasound waves that are subsequently detected by ultrasound detectors (Delany, 1959; Jackson and Amer, 1980; Read, 1968; Rosencwaig, 1973). Consequently, the OptA method "listens" to light absorption in cells and tissues (Ntziachristos et al., 2005), and then uses image formation techniques to generate images. Optoacoustics may be implemented to achieve microscopy resolutions using two approaches. The first is excitation with focused light, yielding images that obey optical diffraction principles. The second relates to employing broad illumination and recording frequencies at several tens of MHz and beyond, leading to images obeying ultrasound diffraction principles.

This second approach, the detection of optical contrast based on ultrasound diffraction, yields a fundamental advantage: images are formed without being significantly affected by photon scattering (Ntziachristos, 2010; Ntziachristos et al., 2005; Wang and Hu, 2012). This feature enables the formation of high-resolution images in turbid media, deeper than optical microscopy, as originally described in the 80's and more thoroughly demonstrated in the 90's (Chen et al., 1993; Kruger and Liu, 1994; Olsen and Lin, 1983). Since then, progress with powerful nanosecond lasers that can generate one cross-sectional image per single pulse, parallel detection of ultrasonic signals at the few MHz range and advanced model-based reconstruction methods (Taruttis and Ntziachristos, 2015) have allowed real-time OptA imaging at depths of at least a few centimeters in tissue, i.e. in the macroscopy range (see Fig.1a), for more than a decade now. OptA macroscopy typically operates in tandem with ultrasonography by means of using a common ultrasound detector for both modalities. The method has demonstrated broad imaging applications in humans, including imaging of breast cancer (Asao et al., 2016; Diot et al., 2017; Dogan et al., 2019; Kukačka et al., 2022; Oraevsky et al., 2018; Zalev et al., 2019), muscular dystrophy (Regensburger et al., 2019),



Figure 1 Resolution and penetration depth in optoacoustics. a) Comparison between common optical imaging technologies and optoacoustics with the penetration depth given as mean free path MFP and transport mean free path TMFP. OR-OptA optical-resolution optoacoustics, AR-OptA acoustic-resolution optoacoustics, CFM confocal fluorescence microscopy, MPM multiphoton microscopy, OCT optical coherence tomography, OPT optical projection tomography, SPIM selective plane illumination microscopy, FMT fluorescence molecular tomography (based on Ntziachristos 2010). b) Acoustic attenuation coefficient for tissue as a function of frequency (see equation 25 with $\alpha_0 \approx 0.5$ dBMHz⁻¹cm⁻¹ and n \approx 1; adapted from Deán-Ben *et al.* 2011).

metabolism and brown fat activation (Reber *et al.*, 2018), or the visualization of inflammation (Dogan *et al.*, 2019; Knieling *et al.*, 2017; Ntziachristos, 2024). Operation with ultra-wide bandwidths (few MHz to >100MHz) gives rise to optoacoustic mesoscopy (Omar *et al.*, 2019), which exchanges depth to resolution over macroscopy (see Fig.1a). OptA mesoscopy has enabled several clinical applications in monitoring dermatological and cardiometabolic conditions using the skin as a window to disease (Ntziachristos, 2024).

Nevertheless, as high ultrasound frequencies, at several tens of MHz and beyond, are utilized to match the resolution of optical microscopy, the OptAM depth also becomes similar to that of optical microscopy methods. The reason is that higher ultrasound frequencies experience steeper attenuation as a function of the distance that ultrasound propagates in tissues, compared to lower frequencies (see Fig.1b). Therefore, when using focused light beams or high ultrasound frequencies, OptAM generally operates within resolution and tissue penetration boundaries that match those of optical microscopy, as captured at the lower left corner of Fig.1a. Moreover, since hemoglobin is a common absorber of light in tissues, and concentrated in blood vessels, most OptAM works have focused on demonstrating imaging of tissue micro-vasculature or separating arterioles and venules in high resolution by resolving oxygenated and deoxygenated hemoglobin using multiple-wavelength illumination in the visible range (Kim et al., 2019; Maslov et al., 2005, 2008; Omar et al., 2015; Ruan et al., 2013; Seeger et al., 2021; Wang and Hu, 2012; Zhang et al., 2009). However, compared to the application

profiles developed around optical microscopy, including fluorescence microscopy that utilizes contrasts that broadly reveal cellular and molecular structure and function, imaging micro-vasculature and micro-vascular oxygenation remains a very narrow target in biological interrogations. Initial efforts to identify genetic reporters for OptA contrast generation did not yield promising characteristics suited for broad OptAM adoption in biomedical communities. For example, fluorescent proteins have been resolved by OptA measurements (Märk et al., 2017; Razansky et al., 2009) but their absorption cross-sections and quantum yields have been optimized for fluorescence emission, and not OptA signal generation. Tyrosinase has also been considered as a reporter gene (Jathoul et al., 2015; Stritzker et al., 2013) to produce melanin, a strong light absorber, but the flat spectral response of melanin that lacks characteristic spectral features (peaks), and possible toxicity effects (Weissleder et al., 1997) have limited tyrosinase applications. Therefore, despite the technological interest in OptAM, the method has faced challenges in relation to its use as a mainstream biological imaging modality.

The major aim of this review paper is to outline four technology and concept advances that have the potential to broadly propel OptAM adoption in the biomedical sciences. Advancements are required in

- hybrid optoacoustic implementations for multimodal interrogation, which employ OptAM modes to deliver enhanced biological information to the combined investigation.
- optical detection of ultrasound, which can seam-

lessly convert optical microscopes to hybrid opticaloptoacoustic systems.

- the label-free OptA detection of molecules without needing external agents by using mid-infrared (mid-IR) illumination to significantly enhance the OptAM contrast.
- the development of new classes of photo-switching and bacterial reporters that can impart cellular and molecular contrasts to OptAM and OptA imaging.

Coupled with the use of three-dimensional pointspread functions for reaching theoretically predicted resolutions, this progress (Fig.3) can impart new abilities and serve as the basis for the wider dissemination of OptAM in the life sciences. In the following, we present the basis of OptA signal generation and propagation in tissues and describe the advances in the aforementioned emerging concepts and technologies and their relevance to introducing a number of new imaging modes not available to current optical methods. We outline examples of using these new modes in biological interrogations, explain how the described technologies can synergize to enhance the abilities of OptAM, and discuss their potential use in biomedical applications. Finally, we discuss the remaining limitations and give an outlook for the OptA modality.

II. THE OPTOACOUSTIC METHOD

A. Governing equations

Optoacoustic signal generation is based on the thermoelastic expansion of tissue structures that absorb light of transient intensity. This absorption of transient optical energy leads to a minute temperature increase and therefore a corresponding volumetric expansion and contraction, which generates a pressure wave. The propagation of this OptA pressure wave p in a homogenous medium can be expressed in terms of a thermoelastic wave equation

$$\ddot{p}(x,t) - v_s^2 \Delta p(x,t) = \frac{\beta}{\kappa} \ddot{T}(x,t), \qquad (1)$$

where $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is the spatial variable, $t \in \mathbb{R}$ is the time variable, p is pressure, v_s is the speed of sound, β is the thermal coefficient of volume expansion, κ is the isothermal compressibility, and T is excess temperature, i.e., the temperature difference relative to the ambient temperature. For simplicity, we do at first not consider dispersive effects.

The dynamics of excess temperature are governed by the heat diffusion equation

$$\rho C_v T(x,t) = k_{\rm th} \Delta T(x,t) + H(x,t), \qquad (2)$$

where ρ is mass density, C_v is specific heat capacity, $k_{\rm th}$ is thermal conductivity, and H is a heat source. In optoacoustics, the heat source is given by the heat generated by illumination with light

$$H(x,t) = \eta_{\rm th} \mu_a(x) \varphi(x,t), \qquad (3)$$

where $\eta_{\rm th}$ is the thermal conversion efficiency, μ_a is the absorption coefficient, and φ is fluence rate. We also introduce the total heat accumulated over time

$$H_{\rm tot}(x) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} H(x, t') dt' = \eta_{\rm th} \mu_a(x) F(x), \qquad (4)$$

where $F(x) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi(x, t') dt'$ is fluence.

B. Thermal confinement

In most OptA implementations, temperature changes are induced by illuminating a target with short light pulses. The regime of thermal confinement is defined by a pulse width τ_L that satisfies $\tau_L \ll \tau_{\rm th}$, where

$$\tau_{\rm th} := \frac{d_c^2}{\alpha_{\rm th}} \tag{5}$$

is the thermal relaxation time with d_c being the characteristic dimensions of the heated region, e.g. the diameter of a spherical region, and $\alpha_{\rm th} = \frac{k_{\rm th}}{\rho C_v}$ is thermal diffusivity. In such temporal confinement, the thermal diffusion term in eq. (2) does not significantly affect the temperature change in the heated region during the optical energy deposition and thus is negligible¹ (Kruger and Liu, 1994; Patel and Tam, 1981). On the timescale of the laser pulse, the effective dynamics reduce to $\rho C_v \dot{T}(x,t) = H(x,t)$. Plugging this equation into eq. (1), we get the OptA wave equation in the regime of thermal confinement, which is the commonly known wave equation in optoacoustics (Carome *et al.*, 1964; Rosencwaig and Gersho, 1976; Westervelt and Larson, 1973)

$$\ddot{p}(x,t) - v_s^2 \Delta p(x,t) = \Gamma \dot{H}(x,t), \tag{6}$$

where $\Gamma := \frac{\beta}{\kappa \rho C_v}$ is the Grüneisen coefficient.

¹ Formally, we can derive the dynamics in the limit $\frac{\tau_L}{\tau_{\rm th}} \to 0$ by introducing a rescaled version of the heat source $H_{\varepsilon}(x,t) := \frac{1}{\varepsilon}H\left(x,\frac{t}{\varepsilon}\right), \varepsilon > 0$, which satisfies $\int_{\mathbb{R}} H_{\varepsilon}(x,s) ds = H_{\rm tot}(x)$ for all $\varepsilon > 0$. On the time-scale of H_{ε} , eq. (2) becomes $\frac{\rho C_v}{\varepsilon} \dot{T}\left(x,\frac{t}{\varepsilon}\right) = k\Delta T\left(x,\frac{t}{\varepsilon}\right) + H_{\varepsilon}(x,t)$. Multiplying with ε and taking the limit $\varepsilon \to 0$, we arrive at the effective dynamics on the timescale of the laser pulse.



Figure 2 Key innovations for next generation optoacoustic microscopy (OptAM) in-particular: a) hybrid systems, b) multimodal hybrid operation (adapted from Seeger *et al.* 2021), c) point-spread-function (adapted from Seeger *et al.* 2020), d) new optical detectors Shnaiderman *et al.* 2017, e) label free molecular detection with mid-infrared OptAM (adapted from Pleitez *et al.* 2020) and f) reporter genes (adapted from Gujrati *et al.* 2019; Lei *et al.* 2020. PMT photomultiplier tube, SHG secondharmonic generation, THG third-harmonic generation, 2PEF two photon excitation fluorescence, OA Optoacoustic, TIR total impulse response.

C. Stress confinement

The regime of stress confinement (Oraevsky *et al.*, 1993) is defined by laser pulses that additionally satisfy $\tau_L \ll \tau_s$, where

$$\tau_s := \frac{d_c}{v_s} \tag{7}$$

is the stress relaxation time, which in this context describes the timescale of wave propagation. In this regime, pressure is induced by the short laser pulse on a timescale much shorter than the time-scale of wave propagation.² The resulting equation is $\ddot{p}(x,t) = \Gamma \dot{H}(x,t)$ which can be integrated twice to get $p(x,t) = \Gamma \int_{-\infty}^{t} H(x,t') dt'$. In other words, on this time-scale, the pressure rises with the induced heat. If the laser pulse is infinitely short, i.e.,

² Similar to the situation for thermal confinement, we can derive the dynamics in the limit $\frac{\tau_L}{\tau_s} \to 0$. The resulting equation is $\frac{1}{\varepsilon^2}\ddot{p}\left(x,\frac{t}{\varepsilon}\right) - v_s^2\Delta p\left(x,\frac{t}{\varepsilon}\right) = \frac{\Gamma}{\varepsilon}\dot{H}_{\varepsilon}(x,t)$, which yields the reduced equation when multiplying with ε^2 and letting ε go to zero.

confined to t = 0, on the time-scale of wave propagation, then this situation intuitively results in an instantaneous initial pressure³ $p_0 := p(\cdot, 0)$ equal to ΓH_{tot} . We confirm this intuition in the following by deriving the initial conditions on the timescale of wave propagation. Mild conditions on the laser pulse (e.g., finite duration is sufficient) imply that the rescaled heat source $H_{\varepsilon}(x, t) := \frac{1}{\varepsilon} H\left(x, \frac{t}{\varepsilon}\right)$ satisfies

$$\Gamma \dot{H}_{\varepsilon}(x,t) \rightharpoonup_{\varepsilon \to 0}^{*} \delta'(t) \Gamma H_{\text{tot}}(x) = \delta'(t) \Gamma \eta_{\text{th}} \mu_{a}(x) F(x)$$

for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$, (8)

where δ' is the derivative of the Dirac delta.⁴ The result is the source term formulation of the OptA wave equation in the regime of thermal and stress confinement

$$\ddot{p}(x,t) - v_s^2 \Delta p(x,t) = \delta'(t) \Gamma \eta_{\rm th} \mu_a(x) F(x).$$
(9)

Infinitely short source terms induce instantaneous initial conditions. The derivative of the delta in time corresponds to an infinitely short velocity that is induced, leading to instantaneous initial values. As a consequence, the solution to the OptA wave equation (9) in stress confinement can be found by solving the initial value problem for $t \geq 0$

$$\ddot{p}(x,t) - v_s^2 \Delta p(x,t) = 0$$

$$p_0(x) := p(x,0) = \Gamma H_{\text{tot}}(x) = \Gamma \eta_{\text{th}} \mu_a(x) F(x) \qquad (10)$$

$$\dot{p}(x,0) = 0.$$

D. Solution of the optoacoustic wave equation in thermaland stress confinement

The general solution of the initial value problem introduced in eq. (10) is given by the following formula as an inverse Fourier transform

$$p(x,t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \cos(v_s |k|t) \widehat{p_0}(k) e^{ik \cdot x} dk$$

= $\mathcal{F}^{-1} [\cos(v_s |\cdot|t)] * p_0(x) =: G'_t * p_0(x),$ (11)

where the Fourier transform is defined as $\widehat{f}(k) := \mathcal{F}[f](k) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) e^{-ik \cdot x} dx$, * is convolution, and we introduced a variant of Green's function

$$G'_t(x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \frac{1}{4\pi v_s^2 t} \delta\left(t - \frac{|x|}{v_s}\right),\tag{12}$$

for initial values, where the integration over the sphere is formally written as a delta distribution.⁵ This variant is obtained by considering $\delta'(t)\delta(x)$ as source term.

We next consider the contribution of the initial pressure at a certain location x' by investigating the special case of a point-like absorber $\mu_a(x) = \mu_a(x')\delta(x - x')$. Noting that $v_s t = |x - x'|$ on that sphere, we obtain

$$p_{x'}^{\delta}(x,t) = \frac{\Gamma \eta_{\rm th} \mu_a(x') F(x')}{4\pi v_s} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \frac{\delta \left(t - \frac{|x-x'|}{v_s}\right)}{|x-x'|}, \quad (13)$$

which can be interpreted as radiated spherical pressure waves from an absorber point of view (Diebold *et al.*, 1991; Kruger and Liu, 1994; Wang and Wu, 2007; Westervelt and Larson, 1973). The usual expression for the full solution is obtained by integrating eq. (13) w.r.t. x'

$$p(x,t) = \frac{1}{4\pi v_s} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{S^2_{v_s t}(x)} \frac{\Gamma \eta_{\rm th} \mu_a(x') F(x')}{|x - x'|} \mathrm{d}A(x'), \quad (14)$$

with $S_{v_st}^2(x) := \{y \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid |x - y| = v_st\}$. This is Poisson's solution of the initial value problem (10) (Cox *et al.*, 2007). Eq. (14) may be interpreted as a detector obtaining pressure signals from sources carrying an initial pressure p_0 on a spherical shell centered around the observation point x with a radius of $v_s t$ as shown in Fig.3a.

E. Radially symmetric initial pressure

We investigate the special case of a radially symmetric initial pressure, i.e., the initial pressure p_0 satisfies $p_0(x) = p_0^{\text{rad}}(|x|)$, where we introduced the radial profile p_0^{rad} that uniquely defines p_0 . This situation can occur, for example, if a radially symmetric absorber is illuminated homogeneously. As a consequence, the solution pis also radially symmetric, i.e., there is a function p^{rad} such that $p(x,t) = p^{\text{rad}}(|x|,t)$. Plugging this formula into eq. (11), and assuming that $p_0^{\text{rad}}(r) = 0$ for $r > R_s$, one obtains the following expression for p^{rad} after a short calculation

³ Throughout these notes, we use dot-notation to indicate dependence on variables, e.g., if a function f depends on multiple variables, say f(x, y, z), we write $f(x, \cdot, z)$ for the function that depends on y with fixed values for x and z.

⁴ The derivative of the Dirac delta is the distribution that maps a test function to its derivative at zero, and \rightarrow^* denotes weak-star convergence in the space of tempered distributions.

⁵ Mathematically rigorous, G'_t is defined as the tempered distribution $G'_t = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \frac{1}{4\pi v_s^2 t} \delta_{S^2_{v_s t}}$ with $\delta_{S^2_{v_s t}}(\varphi) := \int_{S^2_{v_s t}} \varphi(x) dA(x)$ for $\varphi \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^3)$, $S^2_{v_s t} := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid |x| = v_s t\}$, where dA is the surface element, and $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^3)$ is the space of Schwartz functions on \mathbb{R}^3 .

$$p^{\rm rad}(r,t) = \frac{1}{4\pi r} \int_0^\infty p_0^{\rm rad}(r') \left(\delta(r' + (v_s t - r)) - \delta(r' - (v_s t - r))\right) r' dr'$$
for $t > 0$, and $r > R_s$. (15)

Introducing the profile of the radially symmetric initial pressure p_0^{profile} as the even extension of p_0^{rad} , i.e., $p_0^{\text{profile}}(r) := p_0^{\text{rad}}(|r|)$ for $r \in \mathbb{R}$, we observe that the above equation can be simplified to

$$p^{\text{rad}}(r,t) = \frac{r - v_s t}{4\pi r} p_0^{\text{profile}}(r - v_s t)$$

for $t > 0$, and $r > R_s$, (16)

which, in case of a homogeneous radially symmetric initial pressure with radius R_s , yields the N-shape of the wave, since the profile is given by a rectangular pulse $p_0^{\text{profile}}(r) = \text{rect}(r/2R_s).^6$ A physical interpretation of eq. (16) is to consider p_0 as the initial pressure inside the spherical absorber upon delta heating. The initial pressure is then distributed into two equal parts that initiate two spherical waves at the boundaries. The first wave travels away from the heated object as a diverging compression wave while the second wave travels inwards as a converging compression wave and becomes a diverging rarefaction wave after passing The second wave then follows the first the center. compression wave (Wang and Wu, 2007). The theory for a spherical absorber in a homogeneous medium has been experimentally confirmed in the early 1990s as shown in Fig.3b. The N-shaped pulse pattern in optoacoustics also occurs for example for a bursting balloon which presents an equivalent scenario – an initial pressure distribution in a spatially confined region (Deihl and Carlson, 1968; Diebold et al., 1990; F. J. W. W, 1911).

The size of a homogeneous spherical absorber is inversely related to the frequency components of its OptA response, i.e., the bandwidth becomes wider for smaller absorbers. The Fourier transform of the N-shape $\hat{N} := \mathcal{F}\left[p^{\mathrm{rad}}(r, \cdot)\right]$ is, up to a complex constant that depends on r, given by

$$\widehat{N}(\omega) \sim \frac{\left(\frac{\omega R_s}{v_s}\right) \cos\left(\frac{\omega R_s}{v_s}\right) - \sin\left(\frac{\omega R_s}{v_s}\right)}{\left(\frac{\omega R_s}{v_s}\right)^2}, \quad (17)$$

where $\omega = 2\pi f$ and the first maximum and -3dB cutoff frequencies are

$$f_{\text{max},1} \approx 0.33 \frac{v_s}{R_s},$$

$$f_{\text{lower},1} \approx 0.16 \frac{v_s}{R_s}, \quad \text{and} \quad f_{\text{upper},1} \approx 0.51 \frac{v_s}{R_s}$$
(18)

⁶ With rect(r) = 1 for $|r| \le \frac{1}{2}$ and rect(r) = 0 for $|r| > \frac{1}{2}$.

(Oraevsky and Karabutov, 2000). For differently shaped absorbers, e.g., a cylinder or slab, but also for nonhomogeneous mediums due to acoustic boundaries, different pulse shapes are obtained and, thus, the frequency components vary (Diebold *et al.*, 1991; Zuomin Zhao *et al.*, 1998).

F. System response

Transducer elements integrate the pressure over their surface. Let $E \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ be at the surface of the element. Integrating the response of a point source as given in eq. (13) yields the total pressure asserted by the point source $p_{x'}^{E,\delta}$:

$$p_{x'}^{E,\delta}(t) := \int_{E} p_{x'}^{\delta}(x,t) \mathrm{d}A(x) =$$

$$\Gamma \eta_{\mathrm{th}} \mu_{a}(x') F(x') \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \frac{1}{v_{s}} \int_{E} \frac{\delta\left(t - \frac{|x - x'|}{v_{s}}\right)}{4\pi |x - x'|} \mathrm{d}A(x).$$
(19)

Introducing the spatial impulse response (SIR) $SIR_{x'}^E$, and writing the time derivative as a convolution with the derivative of a delta, we get

$$p_{x'}^{E,\delta}(t) = \Gamma \eta_{\rm th} \mu_a(x') F(x') \delta' * \operatorname{SIR}_{x'}^E(t)$$

with $\operatorname{SIR}_{x'}^E(t) := \frac{1}{v_s} \int_E \frac{\delta \left(t - \frac{|x - x'|}{v_s}\right)}{4\pi |x - x'|} \mathrm{d}A(x).$ (20)

The definition of the SIR can be interpreted as the integration of pressure along the intersection of the detector element and the sphere of radius $v_s t$ around x'. The derivative of the delta can be interpreted as an infinitesimally short N-shape.

In addition, we introduce the electrical impulse response (EIR) of the transducer. Since we consider the system to be linear and time-invariant, the effect is fully described by convolution with a function EIR^E . The signal $s_{x'}^E$ acquired by the system is thus given by

$$s_{x'}^{E,\delta}(t) = \Gamma \eta_{\rm th} \mu_a(x') F(x') \delta' * \operatorname{SIR}_{x'}^E * \operatorname{EIR}^E(t).$$
(21)

Integrating over all source locations yields the full signal s^E recorded by the detector element:

$$s^{E}(t) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^{3}} \Gamma \eta_{\mathrm{th}} \mu_{a}(x) F(x) \delta' * \mathrm{SIR}_{x}^{E} * \mathrm{EIR}^{E}(t) \mathrm{d}x.$$
(22)

The electrical and spatial impulse responses are often combined in the so-called total impulse response (TIR) $\text{TIR}_x^E := \text{SIR}_x^E * \text{EIR}^{E,7}$

⁷ Eq. (21) simplifies to $s_{x'}^{E,\delta}(t) = \Gamma H_{tot}(x') \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \text{TIR}_x^E(t)$, i.e., measurements of signals generated by sub-resolution absorbers approximate the derivative of the TIR.

G. Detection limit

The detection of a pressure signal is limited by the presence of thermal noise. The minimally detectable pressure level for an ultrasonic detector is therefore usually given by the noise equivalent pressure (NEP) which is defined as

$$NEP(f) := \sqrt{\frac{k_B T \left[1 + \frac{F_n}{\eta_{ac}(f)}\right] Z_a}{A}} \tag{23}$$

whereby k_B is the Boltzmann constant, F_n the amplifier's noise factor, $\eta_{ac}(f)$ the conversion efficiency from acoustic to electrical power at acoustic frequency f, Z_a the acoustic impedance of the coupling medium and A the area of the detector (Oraevsky and Karabutov, 2000; Winkler et al., 2013). Considering a spherically focused piezoceramic detector operated in water (i.e. $Z_a \approx 1.5 \cdot 10^6 \text{Pa} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$) at room temperature with a detection area A of 25mm², a focal distance L of 5mm, an efficiency η_{ac} of 0.001, which is assumed constant over the entire bandwidth $\Delta f = 50$ MHz, and an amplifier's noise factor $F_n \approx 2$ would result in a total NEP ≈ 5 Pa if the frequency-dependent NEP is integrated over the detector's bandwidth. For a spherical droplet of hemoglobin in the focus ($\mu_a \approx 200 \text{cm}^{-1}$ and $\eta_{th} \approx 1$ at 532nm, with stress and thermal confinement being fulfilled) illuminated at a fluence F of $20 \text{mJ} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$, with Γ being 0.2 and the speed of sound v_s being 1450ms^{-1} the NEP would limit the radius R_s of the droplet that could be detected to $\approx 0.8 \mu \text{m}$ according to eq. (16)⁸ or $\approx 1.4 \mu \text{m}$ if acoustic attenuation is considered as well.

H. Acoustic attenuation

With the conversion from optical energy to acoustic energy the resulting pressure wave undergoes the laws of acoustic wave propagation and experiences attenuation in dispersive media. Dispersion and attenuation are captured by a dispersion relation that describes the relationship between frequency ω and wave vector k

$$k = \frac{\omega}{c(\omega)} - i\alpha(\omega). \tag{24}$$

For biological tissue, the acoustic attenuation coefficient is modeled as a power law in the frequency domain

$$\alpha(\omega) = \alpha_0 |\omega|^n, \tag{25}$$

with $n \approx 1$ and $\alpha_0 \approx 0.5 \text{dBMHz}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$ (Deán-Ben et al., 2011; Duck, 1990). To describe dispersion and attenuation of acoustic signals, we consider these effects on a Dirac delta by integrating over all frequencies. The resulting function ATN captures both the broadening and the decay of the amplitude of a signal

$$\operatorname{ATN}(d,t) := \Re \left(\mathcal{F}^{-1} \left[e^{-ikd} \right](t) \right)$$
$$= \Re \left(\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{\left(-i\frac{\omega}{c(\omega)} - \alpha(\omega) \right) d} e^{i\omega t} \mathrm{d}\omega \right), \qquad (26)$$

where $\Re(z)$ denotes the real part of a complex number $z \in \mathbb{C}$ and d the distance over which the effect is introduced. While it seems plausible to add this filter ATN to eq. (22) to include the dispersive effects, it is instead necessary to formulate the dispersive wave equation defined by the dispersion relation (24) and derive its solution (see Treeby and Cox 2009), which goes beyond the scope of this paper as all introduced equations in this chapter would change.

I. Optoacoustic image reconstruction

Optoacoustic image reconstruction aims to obtain the initial pressure distribution, given the measured OptA signals. According to eq. (14), the pressure wave p measured by a detector placed at location x and time t has potentially been generated at any point on the spherical surface with radius $v_s t$ centered at the detector's position. Reconstruction algorithms intend to find the correct distribution of absorbers, using measurements of p at multiple detector locations to overcome this ambiguity.

Although the field of reconstruction in OptA is wide, it is useful to differentiate two major and common approaches (Lutzweiler and Razansky, 2013; Omar *et al.*, 2019). The first approach relates to back-projection formulas (Andreev *et al.*, 2002; Xu and Wang, 2005), which are analytic solutions of the inverse problem in a setting with multiple simplifying assumptions (e.g., point detectors, full angular coverage). In this situation, the initial pressure is uniquely determined by the signals and recovered via the following formula that is correct for the three common geometries (planar, cylindrical, and spherical detection):

$$p_0(x) = \frac{1}{\Omega_0} \int_{S_0} b\left(x', \frac{|x - x'|}{v_s}\right) d\Omega_0(x', x), \qquad (27)$$

where $b(x,t) := 2p(x,t) - 2t\dot{p}(x,t)$,

$$d\Omega_0(x',x) := n_{S_0}(x') \cdot \frac{(x-x')}{|x-x'|} \frac{dA(x')}{|x-x'|^2}$$
(28)

is the contribution of the detection surface element to the reconstruction, and Ω_0 is the solid angle of the

⁸ The initial pressure p_0 is calculated via eq. (10), while the peak pressure of the N-shape at a distance *L* is given by eq. (16). Note that the solid angle is already considered in the definition of NEP by the surface *A*.

detector array (i.e., $\Omega_0 = 2\pi$ for the planar geometry, $\Omega_0 = 4\pi$ for the spherical and cylindrical geometries), S_0 is the detection surface, and $n_{S_0}(x')$ is the surface normal at $x' \in S_0$ pointing towards the source (Xu and Wang, 2005). The reconstruction can be interpreted as the projection of the term b(x,t) that depends on the observed OptA signals p via a spherical surface centered at the observation point x. This reconstruction formula is intimately related to the inverse spherical radon transformation (Kunyansky, 2007; Lutzweiler and Razansky, 2013; Wang and Wu, 2007). Due to its computational efficiency, backprojection is often used even if the underlying assumptions are violated, resulting in image artefacts.

The second approach is called model-based reconstruction (Paltauf *et al.*, 2002). In this approach, the reconstruction is reformulated as an optimization problem of the following form

$$p_0^* := \arg\min_{p_0} \|Mp_0 - s\|^2 + \lambda \Omega(p_0), \qquad (29)$$

where p_0^* is the reconstructed initial pressure distribution, M is the matrix that represents the linear forward model (e.g., as given in eq. (22)) in a chosen basis, s is the measured signal, λ is the regularization parameter, and Ω is the regularization functional. In other words, the model-based approach finds the initial pressure distribution with the following property: If the forward model is applied to the initial pressure distribution, the resulting sinogram is as close to the measured sinogram as possible.

The optimization problem (29) is usually solved with iterative methods (Deán-Ben and Razansky, 2022; Laufer *et al.*, 2010; Omar *et al.*, 2019; Rosenthal *et al.*, 2011b), which are notoriously slow. The model-based approach allows the integration of specific details of the imaging system into the image reconstruction via the model matrix, and to counteract the ill-posedness of the reconstruction problem via the regularization. Consequently, model-based inversion leads to a higher fidelity reconstruction and quantification over back-projection methods. The requirement for reconstruction depends on the implementation of the imaging system and is usually anticipated for tomography setups.

III. OPTOACOUSTIC MODES OF OPERATION

The two fundamental implementations of OptAM, briefly mentioned in the introduction, are shown in (Fig.4a and b). The implementation which uses focused light, first described in the late 70's (Wong *et al.*, 1978), can be referred to as optical-resolution (OR) OptAM. The method is generally limited to sub-1mm depths by photon scattering and resolution limited by optical diffraction in ways similar to optical microscopy (Ntziachristos, 2010; Wang and Hu, 2012). The second implementation, which uses non-focused, broad beam light illumination, results in image formation and resolution that is based on the characteristics of the ultrasound detector employed and ultimately limited by ultrasound diffraction (Chen et al., 1993; Olsen and Lin, 1983). This implementation is also referred to as acoustic resolution (AR) OptAM. Detection bandwidths of 20-40MHz with central frequencies in the few tens of MHz lead to resolutions of $\sim 20-30 \mu m$ (Laufer *et al.*, 2012; Zhang et al., 2006), whereby bandwidths of >100MHz at central frequencies of several tens of MHz or higher allow resolutions within the sub-10 micrometer range (Aguirre et al., 2017), at more superficial depths. The depth vs. resolution exchange depends on both the optical and ultrasound attenuation. Generally, the optical attenuation is steeper than the ultrasound attenuation for frequencies of a few tens of MHz. Therefore, the selection of wavelength dictates the depth reached by OptA macroscopy and mesoscopy. Conversely, for OptA microscopy, ultrasound attenuation contributes to the overall attenuation of the OptA signal and may become the main attenuation factor for several tens of MHz and higher, limiting the depth achieved. Consequently, resolutions of up to 1.3μ m have been shown at the 1GHz frequency range, albeit only for *in-vitro* imaging of cells (Strohm et al., 2013).

OR-OptAM and AR-OptAM can be implemented in epi-illumination or transmission modes (Fig.4c and d), and have been extensively employed to visualize microvasculature, based on the absorption of hemoglobin (Aguirre et al., 2018; He et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2016, 2019; Liao et al., 2010; Maslov et al., 2008; Omar et al., 2015; Ruan et al., 2013; Schwarz et al., 2016; Seeger et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2009, 2006). Hemoglobin is a natural tissue photon absorber that is concentrated in blood vessels, giving rise to strong OptA signals and allowing label-free visualization of microvasculature with high contrast. It has been shown that single red blood cell resolution can be achieved in OR-OptAM mode (Seeger et al., 2020; Strohm et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013). Moreover, since the absorption spectra between its oxygenated and deoxygenated forms are different, it is possible to differentiate oxy- from deoxy-hemoglobin when using illumination at multiple wavelengths (Schwarz *et al.*, 2016). Other endogenous tissue chromophores have also been visualized in exploratory studies by OptAM. Melanin is another naturally occurring strong optical absorber and has been used as endogenous contrast for cell imaging *in-vitro* (Strohm et al., 2013), visualization of melanocyte populations in zebrafish larvae *ex-vivo* (Tserevelakis *et al.*, 2014), melanophore migration in developing zebrafish *in-vivo*,



Figure 3 OptA in Theory. a) The forward solution in eq. (14) can be considered as a spherical shells with radius $v_s t$ centered at an observation point x. Once the shell intersects the arbitrary shaped source an OptA signal is obtained at the observation point. A particular optoacoustic point source is depicted at x'. b) N-shape like signal as the theoretical solution for a spherical absorber in a homogenous medium (left) and experimentally derived N-shape like signal generated from a benzaldehyde droplet suspended in water (adapted from Diebold *et al.* 1991).

(Kneipp *et al.*, 2015) or visualization of laser-induced retinal injury and neovascularization in the rat retina in-vivo (Xiao et al., 2020). Neuromelanin can also be used as an endogenous absorber and has been visualized in intact human midbrain organoids (Englert et al., 2023). Cytochrome C has offered OptA contrast in differentiating cytoplasm and nuclei in fixed fibroblasts (Zhang et al., 2013) and HeLa live cell cultures (Haven et al., 2020). Imaging in the ultraviolet (UV) range has enabled label-free visualization of DNA/RNA at epithelial cell nuclei of a mouse ear (Yao et al., 2010) and adipose tissue (Bell et al., 2021). In two studies, myoglobin, a protein mainly present in muscles and involved in oxygen transport, has also been imaged exvivo to reveal myocardial sheet architecture in excised dog tissue (Zhang et al., 2012a) or its bio-distribution in rat muscles as in the stomach and heart (Sun et al., 2020).

While these studies have demonstrated the basic principles of OptAM, they only offer a small set of niche applications compared to the operation modes and contrast available in optical microscopy, which is capable of visualizing complex functions at multiple levels of cellular organization and function. However, key advances over the past decade have the potential to expand the utility and applications of OptAM, addressing a larger number of biological and possibly medical imaging applications, as summarized in the following.

IV. HYBRID OPTOACOUSTIC MICROSCOPY

The OptA method offers two compelling advantages over the optical method. First, when applied in AR mode, it can visualize deeper than optical microscopy and therefore extend the scale of visualization. As depth increases, the resolution decreases, but in contrast to optical methods, it retains ability to form high-resolution images; for example, resolutions in the tens of microns through several millimeters of tissue (Ntziachristos, 2010). Second, OptA detection resolves light absorption, as opposed to fluorescence or other contrast mechanisms. Therefore, it can visualize endogenous absorbers (see Section VII) or novel reporters for contrast generation (see Section VIII) complementing structural and functional observations of optical methods. However, since optical microscopy is already very advanced and can reveal a very broad range of biological targets, well beyond the contrast achieved so far by OptAM, adoption of OptA microscopy in biomedical applications requires the identification of clearly established application advantages offered by the OptA mode.

In this vein, a major recent drive for considering the OptA method in biological imaging is its combination with established microscopy techniques in hybrid implementations. Recent progress with optical detection of sound (see Section V) can be combined with inexpensive sources (see Stylogiannis *et al.* 2022) to offer the potential for a seamless and economic integration, opening up the possibility for synergy between the two modalities. Different modes of hybrid integration lead to particular advantages. For example, the combination of optical microscopy with OR-OptAM generally operates on the same resolution and depth specifications but can enhance optical contrast with OptA detection modes, for example label-free detection of molecules (see Section VII). Critically, integration with AR-OptAM is a strategy that can extend the penetration depth over optical microscopy. However, this advantage becomes particularly relevant when the contrast visualized by the two methods is of biological interest. For example, interest to visualize a particular cell function on the optical mode using fluorescent labels may not be compatible with visualizing microvasculature, deeper in tissue, offered by AR-OptAM contrast. This interplay with physical performance and biological contrast is of



Figure 4 Optoacoustic principle with acoustic-resolution optoacoustic microscopy (AR-OptAM) and optical-resolution optoacoustic microscopy (OR-OptAM) in transmission and epi-illumination mode. a) AR-OptAM employs wide-field illumination and generates optoacoustic signals from multiple absorbers over the illuminated volume. The signals are detected using a detector which scans over the area of interest. Multiple stationary or scanning detectors can be also used. Image formation may then use mathematical inversion. b) OR-OptAM scans focused illumination to generate optoacoustic signals primarily from the optical focus. Image formation can then be based on appending consecutive scans acquired by the ultrasound detector (UT). Depth selection, at the focal point, can be achieved by time-gating the optoacoustic signal collected. c) AR-OptAM with a fiber bundle delivering wide-field illumination to the sample in transmission and epi-illumination mode. d) OR-OptAM with an objective lens focusing the beam in the transmission mode implementation while, in the epi-illumination mode implementation, a high numerical aperture (NA) objective lens focuses the light with the ultrasound detector being placed centrally below the objective lens output's optical aperture on an optical window connected via a small bridge.

key importance for the adoption of OptA microscopy in biological sciences (see discussion in Section X). In addition, OptA microscopy modes can be also combined with other microscopy methods, such as ultrasound microscopy.

In the following we review progress with hybrid OptA systems and the complementary achieved in contrast. Tables I – III summarize technical and imaging performance specifications, modes of operation, and application on hybrid systems.

A. Hybrid optoacoustic and nonlinear/confocal/light sheet microscopy

Confocal or two-/multi-photon microscopy utilizes techniques that reduce the sensitivity of conventional optical microscopy to scattering and enable optical diffraction-limited visualization at several tens to hundreds of micrometers under the tissue surface, an ability also referred to as optical tissue sectioning. These microscopy methods are well suited for hybrid implementations with OptAM, since they match the operational OptAM characteristics. Two photon excitation fluorescence (2PEF) and three photon excitation fluorescence (3PEF) microscopy generally penetrate deeper into tissues ($\sim 0.5 - 1$ mm) than confocal fluorescence microscopy (CFM: 0.1-0.2 mm) and may be better suited for OptAM hybrid implementations. Nevertheless, all combinations have been explored and showcase the value in contrast enhancement by hybrid operation.

Hybrid multi-photon and OptAM setups have been considered for visualizing optical and OptA contrast in-vivo and ex-vivo (Rao et al., 2014; Seeger et al., 2021, 2016, 2019; Soliman et al., 2015a,b; Song et al., 2016; Tserevelakis et al., 2014). A first hybrid implementation demonstrated up to 6-modal operation (see Table I) by employing conventional bright-field microscopy, a femtosecond laser source for 2PEF, second-harmonic generation (SHG) and third-harmonic generation (THG) contrast and a nanosecond laser for OR- and AR-OptAM capturing of absorption contrast. The method was applied to revealing structural and functional features *in-vivo* in mice and in zebrafish larva associated with anatomical features or to revealing the spatiotemporal tissue reorganization over 68 days of wound healing (Seeger et al., 2021, 2019; Soliman et al., 2015b; Tserevelakis et al., 2014). Contrast has been obtained from elastin and hair follicles by two-photon excitation fluorescence (2PEF) microscopy, collagen (SHG), lipid accumulations predominantly in sebaceous glands (THG), and microvasculature due to hemoglobin (OptAM) while an additional bright-field (BF) channel provided orientation on the tissue (Seeger *et al.*, 2021, 2019) (Fig.5a). Furthermore, contrast from melanin has been obtained with the OptAM channel in zebrafish larvae (Tserevelakis et al., 2014). Hybrid investigation of carotid atheroma ex-vivo also revealed co-registered differences from collagen, elastin and red blood cells from healthy and atheromatous tissue without the need for multiple staining (Seeger et al., 2016). Hybrid dynamic imaging of cardiac organoids at 1Hz has also been demonstrated using an OptA calcium sensor (Roberts et al., 2018).

Similar implementations of nonlinear microscopy and OptAM (see Table I) were used to generate highresolution images in the sub-micron range of an *in-vivo* mouse ear in full reflection mode (Song et al., 2016). Autofluorescence from nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NADH), an enzyme related to redox metabolism, and collagen (SHG) were used to visualize cells and hair shafts, whereby hemoglobin contrast revealed the mouse ear vasculature by OptAM. Furthermore, using a cranial window to expose the cortex, OptAM visualized the cortical vasculature and fine neural microstructures including dendrites and cell bodies based on contrast from the Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP) captured with 2PEF in a thy1-GFP mouse *in-vivo*. These applications demonstrated complementary readouts between OptAM and autofluorescence or GFP-expressing structures, enabling broader understanding of tissue microarchitecture in living animals.

Confocal microscopy, based on continuous wave (CW) light sources, has also been used in hybrid implementations with OptAM to visualize human and animal eve morphology and function (Tserevelakis et al., 2017, 2020, 2022, 2016; Wang et al., 2011; Yu Wang et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2010a,b, 2011). Contrast from autofluorescent lipofuscin in the retinal pigment epithelium resolved by CFM and melanin in the choroid, i.e., the vascular layer of the eye, was resolved by OptAM was applied to reveal age-related macular degeneration (Zhang et al., 2010b). In a similar study, OptAM (melanin) and CFM (tissue autofluorescence from collagen, elastin etc.) differentiated nevi and melanomas in human conjunctival nevus ocular biopsies from patients (Tserevelakis et al., 2020). An OptAM-CFM implementation with a single shared tunable laser source was also shown to visualize morphological and functional features of blood and lymphatic vessels in mouse ears, in-vivo (Yu Wang et al., 2010). OptAM images at two different wavelengths resolved the vasculature system and hemoglobin oxygen saturation (sO_2) maps. The CFM channel was used to image the lymphatic network using a Rhodamin-B-Isothiocvanat-dextran dye. In a subsequent study (Wang et al., 2011), the system was used to assess the hemoglobin oxygen saturation and oxygen partial pressure in mouse ears. For validation of the OptAM readings, an oxygen sensitive phosphorescent probe was injected into the vasculature and excited at 532nm to sense the oxygen partial pressure pO_2 via the phosphorescence lifetime using the CFM channel. Separation of sebaceous glands from blood vasculature was based on temporally modulating the induced phosphorescence signals over the autofluorescence signal.

A combination of OptAM together with CFM and 2PEF has also been investigated (Rao et al., 2014) in moss leaves and showcased the collection of 2PEF signals from leaf cell boundaries and chloroplasts inside leaf cells, using autofluorescence from chloroplasts collected with CFM and background absorption signals recorded by OptAM. Using only the CFM and OptAM modes, this system was also employed to image the sectioned retina of a transgenic mouse *ex-vivo*, whereby CFM resolved autofluorescence from photoreceptor cells and vellow fluorescent protein expressing labeled bipolar cells while OptAM imaged the retinal pigmented epithelium laver. CFM and OptAM also visualized the ventral tract of the spinal cord, the posterior lateral line nerve, bright interneuron-like cells (CFM) and skin melanin content and vasculature (OptAM) in the skin of zebrafish embryo.

The combination of hybrid OptA and selective plane illumination microscopy (SPIM), also known as light sheet microscopy (LSM), has also allowed imaging zebrafish development during stages not possible by purely optical methods. Using a single common illumination source, a hybrid OptA-SPIM system (Lin et al., 2015) was shown to resolve melanocytes and morphology based on other naturally occurring chromophores (OptAM), autofluorescence from muscle fibers and ganglions and GFPexpressing afferent neurons around the head (SPIM). This implementation emphasizes the use of OptA to reach deeper in tissue and visualize in the presence of strong photon-scattering, enabling zebrafish imaging over development times of several weeks, whereby the fish transform from early-stage transparent organisms into their adult opaque appearance, a process not possible to image by SPIM. Therefore, the hybrid OptA/SPIM system has become the first system to continuously visualize zebrafish development from early stages to adulthood, capturing up to 6 weeks of development (Vetschera et al., 2023). Using multi-wavelength illumination and spectral unmixing techniques, visualization of lipids, melanin and hemoglobin has also been shown to be possible in live zebrafish (Vetschera et al., 2023).

B. Hybrid optoacoustic and optical coherence tomography

OptAM and optical coherence tomography (OCT) also share optical tissue sectioning abilities and can capitalize on the complementary contrast offered. OCT primarily reveals morphological contrast based on photons backscattered from tissue micro-interfaces at different depths (Aumann et al., 2019) and may reach depths beyond 1mm, depending on the amount of scatter present in tissue. This scattering contrast is well complemented by OptA contrast, in particular as provided by ultrabroadband OptA mesoscopy (Omar et al., 2019). Operating at bandwidths of several tens of MHz, up to 100Mhz, OptA offers resolutions that are similar to the ones achieved by OCT, while extending the contrast visualized to absorption-based morphology, functional and molecular detection. Proof-of-principle demonstrations on mouse ears and ophthalmic applications have been shown with a multitude of systems (Bondu *et al.*, 2018; Dadkhah and Jiao, 2020; Dadkhah et al., 2019; Jiao et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2015, 2016; Song et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2018, 2012c, 2011). A first implementation, based on Doppler spectral domain OCT (SD-OCT) combined with OptAM, assessed the retinal metabolic rate of oxygen of rats (Song et al., 2014) (Song et al. 2014). Multispectral OptAM evaluated the retinal sO_2 of individual vessels of a rat's eye while Doppler SD-OCT analyzed the retinal flow in the vessels. Sensing of sO_2 and blood flow enabled assessment of the retinal oxygen metabolic rate rMRO₂ in a label-free non-invasive manner. A more advanced system combining OptAM, fluorescence microscopy (FM) and OCT was developed to assess retinal neovascularization (RNV), an abnormal growth of blood vessels in the retina associated with numerous ophthalmic diseases, representing a major cause

of vision loss and blindness (Zhang et al., 2018). The system has been used to visualize RNV in albino and pigmented rabbits in-vivo. RNV was triggered in living rabbits and compared to normal rabbits after 7 days based on OptAM, FM and OCT. OptAM and color fundus images revealed a significant increase in the tortuosity and numerous new tortuous angiogenetic vessels grown over the retina for the RNV group. Fluorescein sodiuminduced fluorescence images corroborated the OptAM and color fundus findings, whereby OCT provided cross sections of the different retinal layers. A further combination of OCT, OCT angiography (OCTA), CFM and OptAM has been demonstrated in a single setup to assess complementary information of the vasculature in small animals (Dadkhah and Jiao, 2020). OptAM was used to visualize the vasculature network of a mouse ear *in-vivo*. while CFM revealed the autofluorescence of the tissue, OCT revealed the general tissue structure, and OCTA added the ability to assess blood flow in the vessels, thus complementing the study of functional microvasculature characteristics with a potential use in retinal imaging for the study and diagnosis of degenerative retinal diseases (Fig.5b).

C. Hybrid optoacoustic and ultrasonography implementations

Hybrid implementations involving ultrasonography (US) and OptAM are relatively straightforward, as they can use the same ultrasound element for implementing both modalities. Nevertheless, a hybrid system requires implementation of timing and appropriate electronics that separate ultrasound emission from ultrasound and OptA detection. Hybrid US and OptA systems have been demonstrated both for AR-OptAM (Harrison et al., 2009; Jiang et al., 2010; Subochev et al., 2012, 2015) and OR-OptAM (Dai et al., 2015; Estrada et al., 2020; Rebling et al., 2018; Strohm et al., 2013, 2016) combining contrast from light absorption (OptAM) and tissue acoustic impedance mismatches (US). Cranial bone anatomy of mice *in-vivo* has been visualized by US, whereby cerebral vascular networks were co-registered based on OptAM contrast (Rebling et al., 2018). Additionally, by using optically fast switching between two wavelengths, OptAM visualized blood oxygenation in the vessels of the murine brain (Fig.5c). Besides providing anatomical images of the cranial bone, US was employed in a subsequent study to assist in OptAM image segmentation and to differentiate between calvarian vasculature and vasculature of the brain (Estrada et al., 2020). The combination of functional and anatomical readouts offer assessments of healthy and pathological neurovasculature in a label-free and non-invasive manner. High frequency US and hybrid OR/AR-OptAM was also combined in a single setup developed to image single cells

Table I Optoacoustic techniques with nonlinear, confocal and light sheet microscopy. AR-OptAM acoustic resolution optoacoustic microscopy, OR-OptAM optical resolution optoacoustic microscopy, (T) transmission mode, (R) reflection mode, MPM multiphoton microscopy, SHG second-harmonic generation, THG third-harmonic generation, 2PEF 2-photon excitation fluorescence, OCT optical coherence tomography, CFM confocal microscopy, SPIM selective plane illumination microscopy, BF bright-field, GFP green fluorescent protein, NADH Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide.

System overview	Mode	Wavelength (nm)	Contrast	Resolution lateral (µm)	Resolution axial (µm)	Applications	References	
6-modes AR-OptAM + OR-OptAM + SHG + THG + 2PEF + BF	OR- OptAM (T)	532	Hemoglobin, Melanin	0.4	6	Zebrafish larva morphology (<i>ex-vivo</i>) Mouse ear wound healing (<i>in-vivo</i>) Spatiotemporal distribution of calcium in heart organoid (<i>in-vitro</i>) Human carotid atheroma morphology	Tserevelakis <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Soliman <i>et al.</i> , 2015a; Soliman <i>et al.</i> , 2015b; Seeger <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Seeger <i>et al.</i> , 2021	
	AR- OptAM (T)	532	Hemoglobin, Melanin	20	6			
	MPM (T+R)	1043	Collagen, Lipids, Elastin	0.7	6			
3-modes	OR-OptAM (R)	532	Hemoglobin	<0.3	4	Mouse ear morphology	Song <i>et al.,</i> 2016	
OR-OptAM + SHG + 2PEF	MPM (R)	800	Collagen, NADH	<0.3	1.1	(in-vivo) Brain morphology (in- vivo)		
2(3)-modes OR-OptAM + CFM + OCT*	OR-OptAM (T)	532	Hemoglobin, Melanin	2.8	23	Mouse ear morphology (<i>in-vivo</i>) Human ocular tissue	Zhang <i>et al.,</i> 2010a; Zhang <i>et al.,</i> 2010b; Zhang <i>et al.,</i> 2011	
* guidance for OptAM	CFM (R)	532	Lipofuscin	2	108			
	OCT	830	unspecific	-	-	Rat ocular tissue morphology (<i>in vivo</i>)		
2-modes	OR-OptAM (R)	570 + 593	Hemoglobin	3.9	17	Mouse ear morphology +	Yu Wang et al., 2010;	
OR-OptAM + CFM	CFM (R)	570	unspecific	3.9	38	oxygen saturation map + partial oxygen pressure	Wang <i>et al.,</i> 2011	
2-modes	OR-OptAM (T)	532	Melanin	3	23	Rabbit ocular tissue	Tserevelakis <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Tserevelakis <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Tserevelakis <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Tserevelakis <i>et al.</i> , 2022	
OR-OptAM + CFM	CFM (R)	450	General autofluorescence	2	-	morphology (<i>ex-vivo</i>) Human ocular tissue morphology (<i>ex-vivo</i>) Fish scale morphology		
3-modes	OR-OptAM (T)	570, 578	Melanin	-	-	Mouse ocular tissue	Rao <i>et al.,</i> 2014	
OR-OptAM + CFM + 2PEF	CFM (R)	800	-	-	-	morphology (<i>ex-vivo</i>)		
	MPM (R)	635	-	-	-	Plant morphology		
2-modes AR-OptAM + SPIM	AR-OptAM (R)	420-700	Melanin, Lipids, Hemoglobin,	20-120	24	Zebrafish development (ex-vivo)	Lin <i>et al.,</i> 2015; Vetschera <i>et al.,</i> 2023	
	SPIM (R)	420-700	GFP	2.5	36			

Table II Hybrid optoacoustic microscopy (OptAM) systems with optical coherence tomography (OCT). AR-OptAM acoustic resolution optoacoustic microscopy, OR-OptAM optical resolution optoacoustic microscopy, (T) transmission mode, (R) reflection mode, OCTA optical coherence tomography angiography, SD-OCT spectral domain optical coherence tomography, CFM confocal microscopy, FM fluorescence microscopy.

System overview	Mode	Wavelength (nm)	Contrast	Resolution lateral (µm)	Resolution axial (µm)	Applications	References
2-modes OR-OptAM + OCT	OR- OptAM (R)	800	Hemoglobin, Melanin	7	-	Rat ocular tissue morphology (<i>in-vivo</i>)	Liu <i>et al.,</i> 2015; Liu <i>et al.,</i> 2016
	ОСТ	800	unspecific	≈7	9.9		
2-modes OR-OptAM + SD-OCT	OR-OptAM (R)	570, 578, 588	Hemoglobin, Melanin	20	23	Rat ocular tissue morphology and	Song <i>et al.,</i> 2014
	SD-OCT	840	Blood flow	20	5.6	retinal oxygen metabolic rate (<i>in-vivo</i>)	
3-modes OR-OptAM + OCT + FM	OR-OptAM (R)	532	Hemoglobin, Melanin	4.1	37	Rabbit ocular tissue morphology + assessment	Zhang <i>et al.,</i> 2018
	ОСТ	905	Lipofuscin	3.8	4	of retinal	
	FM	480	Fluorescein sodium	-	-	neovascularization	
4-modes	OR-OptAM (R)	532	Hemoglobin	6.4	31	Mouse ear morphology	Dadkhah <i>et al.,</i> 2019; Dadkhah and Jiao 2020
OR-OptAM + OCT + OCT angiography (OCTA) + CFM	OCT	840	unspecific	6.4	7.5	(in-vivo) + assessment of	
	OCTA	840	Blood flow	-	-	non-perfused vessels	
	CFM (R)	532	General autofluorescence	-	-		

(Strohm et al., 2013, 2016), reaching high resolutions on the order of 1µm, using ultrasound frequencies of up to 1.2GHz. Metachromatic stained leukocytes such as single neutrophils, lymphocytes and monocytes could be identified and differentiated based on differential staining (OptAM) and US images as the biomechanical properties of the cells scatter and attenuate acoustic waves differently. A combined OCT-US-OptAM proof-of-concept setup was also reported as a 3-modality miniature probe system for the imaging of a rat ear *in-vivo*. Similarly, to other hybrid setups, OptAM visualized the vasculature system, OCT revealed the morphology of the epidermis, dermis and cartilage and US visualized anatomical features of the subcutaneous tissue.

V. ALL-OPTICAL DETECTION OF SOUND

In addition to the hybrid implementations reviewed, advances in OptA components have enabled the seamless integration of optical and OptA technology. Since its emergence in the late 1970's, OptA imaging has primarily relied on detectors developed for ultrasonography and based on piezoelectric (PZT) technology. Piezoelectric transducers are well suited for ultrasonography, since they can not only detect but also generate and guide ultrasound beams, leading to the development of medical ultrasound using cost-effective designs of oneor two-dimensional PZT transducer arrays. However, piezoelectric transducers have relatively limited bandwidths and acceptance angles (Zhang et al., 2014) that capture only a part of the OptA signals generated in tissues, which results in loss of image quality. This is particularly relevant for AR-OptA microscopy and mesoscopy implementations, whereby the resolution and overall image quality and fidelity achieved depends on the frequencies captured. Moreover, the sensitivity of piezoelectric transducers, while sufficient for many macroscopic OptA applications, scales with the size of the active transducer area. Therefore, miniaturization of ultrasound detectors based on PZT technology reduces the sensitivity achieved in quadratic manner. Moreover, the size and opaqueness of PZT elements challenges the OptA illumination, imposing geometrical and delivery constraints on the imaging system designed, often leading to sub-optimal light delivery under the ultrasound detector. These challenges have led to research into alternative sound detection methods using optical techniques sensitive to vibration. This shift has given rise to OptA systems in which sound is generated and detected exclusively by optical components.

Different optical techniques are sensitive to ultrasound energy and come with different technical specifications and operational parameters. Generally, optical detection of ultrasound is based on interferometry or refractometry as exemplified in Table IV and contrasted to piezoelectric detectors.

Interferometry-based detection is based on perturbations of an interference pattern established in an optical interferometer due to mechanical changes induced by ultrasound energy, for example by generating vibrations in the resonance cavity or reflector elements. An optical detector detects these vibrations as a change of the intensity or frequency of the interferometer light to derive quantitative readings of the pressure of the impinging ultrasound wave. Several such detectors are implemented as interferometers within optical fibers, for example by embedding pi-shifted Bragg gratings (Dong et al., 2017; Wissmeyer et al., 2018). In this case the sensitivity does not scale with size but rather depends on the quality and sensitivity of the interferometer. Besides being transparent, optical fiber (OF) detectors attain sizes on the order of 100 micrometers in diameter and can be minimally obstructive to OptA illumination. It has been shown that it is possible to pass a side-looking fiber-based pi-shifted Bragg grating (pi-FBG) through the objective of an optical microscope (Fig.6a) and use it as the OptA detector (Shnaiderman et al., 2017). This strategy allows the conversion of any optical microscope to a hybrid optical-optoacoustic microscope, without loss of optical image quality due to the optical fiber sensor. An additional advantage of this approach is that the metal casing of the optical objective can be designed to offer sound amplification by reflecting and focusing in-phase sound waves to the point in space where the OptA fiber sensor is placed. An alternative OF design is based on Fabry-Perot interferometers, which can be used for forward ultrasound detection (Fig.6b) as opposed to the side-detecting manner of pi-FBG's. In this design, detection bandwidths can increase by reducing the thickness of the resonance cavity employed (Guggenheim et al., 2017) but at the expense of the sensitivity achieved (Beard *et al.*, 1999). Moreover. control of the thickness is challenging due to limitations in the required polymer deposition process (Guggenheim et al., 2017). A current limitation of OF-based OptA sensors is the maximum sensing bandwidth achieved, which limits the imaging resolution to the 40µm range (Xu and Wang, 2003), as summarized in Table IV.

Several other possibilities exist for interferometrybased sound detection (Wissmeyer *et al.*, 2018), including two recent approaches, one that yielded the world's smallest ultrasound sensor and one that pushed the sensitivity limits of optical detection of ultrasound. A silicon waveguide-etalon detector (SWED) platform using 220nm thick Si waveguides demonstrated an active detection area of <0.5 μ m and a bandwidth of >200MHz (Fig.6c). Pressure waves perturb the optical resonator on the silicon photonics wafer and the corresponding Table III Hybrid optoacoustic microscopy (OptAM) systems with ultrasonography (US). AR-OptAM acoustic resolution optoacoustic microscopy, (T) transmission mode, (R) reflection mode, OCT optical coherence tomography.

System overview	Mode	Wavelength (nm)	Contrast	Resolution lateral (µm)	Resolution axial (µm)	Applications	References	
3 modes AR-OptAM + US + Doppler	AR- OptAM (R)	532	Hemoglobin, Melanin	140	<40	Human finger morphology (<i>in-vivo</i>) + flow detection	Harrison <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Jiang <i>et al.</i> , 2010	
US	US (R)	-	unspecific	180	<40	(in phantoms only)		
	Doppler US (R)	-	(Liquid) flow	-	-	-		
2-modes	AR-OptAM (R)	584	Hemoglobin,	130	55	Rat skull, tumor and tail	Subochev <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Subochev <i>et al.</i> , 2015	
AR-OptAM + US	US (R)	-	unspecific	75	30	morphology (in-vivo)		
2-modes	OR-OptAM (R)	532, 578	Hemoglobin	11-20	44	Mouse cranial bone and	Rebling et al., 2018;	
OR-OptAM + US	US (R)	-	Bone	11-20	44	brain morphology + oxygen saturation map (<i>in-vivo</i>)	Estrada <i>et al.,</i> 2020	
2-modes AR/OR-OptAM + US	AR/OR-OptAM (R)	532	Metachromatic staining	≈1	≈1	Single cell morphology and differentiation of	Strohm <i>et al.,</i> 2013; Strohm <i>et al.,</i> 2016;	
	US (R)	-	unspecific	≈1	≈1	stained leukocytes		
3-modes AR/OR-OptAM + US + OCT	OR-OptAM (R)	532	Hemoglobin	13.6	42.1	Rat ear morphology (in-	Dai <i>et al.,</i> 2015	
	US (R)	-	unspecific	>13.4	>14.3	vivo)		
	OCT	1310	unspecific	13.4	14.3	-		

Table IV Comparison of optical, piezoelectric, and micromachined ultrasound transducers. NEP noise equivalent pressure, QPD quadrant photodiode, CCD charge-coupled device, CMOS complementary metal-oxide-semiconductor, PET polyethylene terephthalate, SU8 epoxy-based photoresist, π -BG pi-phase-shifted Bragg grating, CMUT capacitive micromachined ultrasonic transducer, PCMR plano-concave optical microresonator, N.A. not applicable, N.R. not reported (table adapted from Wissmeyer *et al.* 2018 and extended by Guggenheim *et al.* 2017; Shnaiderman *et al.* 2020; Westerveld *et al.* 2021).

Refractometric transducer	Material	Read-out element	Bandwidt h (MHz)	Sensing element size (mm)	NEP e (mPa/Hz ^{1/2})	NEP x area (mPa mm²/Hz ^{1/2})	References
Intensity-sensitive	Silica	Photodiode	100	Prism (15)	100	22 × 10 ³	Zhu et al., 2017
Beam deflectometry	Coupling medium	QPD	17	Needle beam (0.09)	2.76	N.A.	Maswadi <i>et al.,</i> 2016
Phase-sensitive	Coupling medium	CCD/CMOS	110	Schlieren beam (10)	486	N.A.	Zanelli and Howard, 2006
Interferometric transducer	Material	Dimensions (H × W × L, μm)	Q-factor	Conversion efficiency (M/Pa) ⁻¹	NEP (mPa/Hz ^{1/2})	NEP x area (mPa mm²/Hz ^{1/2})	References
Micro-ring	Polystyrene	1.4 × 20 × 20 – 1.4 × 100 × 100	1.4 × 10 ⁵	130 × 10 ⁻⁶	5.61	1.8 × 10 ⁻³	Maxwell <i>et al.,</i> 2008; Cheng Zhang <i>et al.,</i> 2015
	Silicon	0.5 x 15 x 15	1.1×10^4	N.R.	2.3	2.9 × 10 ⁻²	
Fabry-Pérot	PET/Parylene C	38 × 90 × 90	2.8 × 10 ³	90 × 10 ⁻⁶	78	0.63	Zhang, Laufer, and Beard 2008; Preisser <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Rohringer <i>et al.</i> , 2016;
	SU8	10 × 15 × 15	300	N.R.	200	4.5 × 10 ⁻²	Ashkenazi <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Fluid with low optical absorption	60 × 60 × 2 × 10 ³	N.R.	N.R.	0.45	5.4 × 10 ⁻²	
PCMR	PET	Ø 2.470 x 340	1.0×10^{5}	N.R.	1.6	7.66	Guggenheim <i>et al.,</i> 2017
π-BG	Silica	$10 \times 10 \times 270$	1.2×10^{6}	3.8×10^{6}	25	6.75 × 10 ⁻²	Rosenthal, Razansky, and Ntziachristos
	Silicon	0.22 x 0.5 x 26	2.2 × 104	N.R.	9	9.9 × 10 ⁻⁷	2011; Rosenthal <i>et al.</i> , 2014a; Rosenthal <i>et al.</i> , 2014b; Shnaiderman <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Westerveld <i>et al.</i> , 2021
Piezoelectric	Model	Detector type	f (MHz)	Area (mm ²)	NEP	NEP x area	References
transducer					(mPa/Hz ^{1/2})	(mPa mm ² /Hz ^{1/2})	
Olympus NDT Panametrics	V214-BB-RM	Spherically focused piezoceramic	50	30	0.2	6	N.R.
Precision acoustics	Needle (1mm)	PVdF needle hydrophone	12	1	14.4	14.4	N.R.
Boston Scientific	Atlantis PV	Intravascular ultrasound probe	15	0.8	450	360	Wissmeyer et al., 2016
Micromachined transducer	Model	Detector type	f (MHz)	Area (mm ²)	NEP (mPa/Hz ^{1/2})	NEP x area (mPa mm²/Hz ^{1/2})	References
СМИТ	Silicon	Array of capacitor cells	5	0.06	1.8	0.11	Khuri-Yakub and Oralkan, 2011; Wygant et al., 2008



Figure 5 Hybrid optoacoustic microscopy (OptAM) schematics and applications. a) Hybrid microscopy setup involving OptAM (vasculature system), second-harmonic generation (extracellular collagen matrix), third-harmonic generation (sebaceous glands), two photon excitation fluorescence (extracellular elastin matrix) and bright-field (general tissue morphology) in the *in-vivo* imaging of a mouse ear. The schematic of the system is also included. OA optoacoustic, SHG second-harmonic generation, THG third-harmonic generation, BF bright-field, PMT photomultiplier tube, M mirror, DM dichroic mirror, OL objective lens, L lens, UT ultrasound detector, DAQ data acquisition card, AcL acoustic lens, AE active element (adapted from Seeger *et al.* 2021, 2019). b) Hybrid setup with a large-scale *in-vivo* optical coherence tomography angiography (OCTA) and optical coherence tomography (OCT) image of a mouse ear as well as small field of view images with OCTA (red, vasculature), optical-resolution-OptAM (black and white, vasculature), OCT (gray, general tissue structure) and confocal fluorescence microscopy (green, tissue autofluorescence). The schematic of the system is also included. CFM confocal fluorescence microscopy, DPSS diode pumped solid state laser, NIR near-infrared (adapted from Dadkhah and Jiao 2020). c) OptAM combined with ultrasonography (US) for structural and functional imaging of a murine cranial bone *in-vivo* with a US image (cranial bone) and two OptAM images (cranial vasculature morphology and blood oxygenation) (adapted from Rebling *et al.* 2018). PBS polarizing beamsplitter, GL GRIN lens, SSS superior sagittal sinus.

light intensity changes are recorded by a photodetector (Shnaiderman et al., 2020). A second approach uses ring resonators that demonstrated sensitivities close to those of PZT elements or better. Such resonators can also be transparent to allow OptA excitation (Cheng Zhang et al., 2015; Li et al., 2014; Wei and Krishnaswamy, 2017). A particularly adept recently developed detector offers favorable size scalability to a fine-pitch of less than 50µm and high-sensitivity, based on a silicon photonic chip (Fig.6d). A split-rib photonic waveguide separates the rib from the slab by a small air gap and is bounded by an acoustic membrane to achieve noise-limited detection, yielding high noise-equivalent pressure sensitivity below $1.3 \text{mPaHz}^{-1/2}$ for the full bandwidth (3–30MHz) and sizes that can reach 20µm. Advantageously, the split-rib waveguide can be fabricated on complementary metal-oxide-semiconductor (CMOS)-compatible technology, allowing a wide choice of membrane materials.

Detection that uses refractometry (deflectometry) has also yielded designs that can find broad applications in OptA imaging and hybrid implementations (Manwar et al., 2020; Maswadi et al., 2016; Wissmeyer et al., 2018). The approach uses an optical beam to interrogate the interface between two media. Ultrasound interacting with the interface induces mechanical stress that causes index of refraction changes which distort the interrogating optical beam of the interface by changing its intensity, phase or deflection angle. Then, similar to interferometry, an optical detector is employed to quantify these changes and convert them to ultrasound pressure (Wissmeyer et al., 2018). Refractometry has been demonstrated in OptA measurements using position-sensitive detectors, for example a CCD camera (Nuster et al., 2014) but also with conventional photodiode readouts (Hajireza et al., 2017).

VI. THE TEMPORAL AND SPATIAL OPTA POINT-SPREAD-FUNCTION

In addition to implementing hybrid systems and advancing detectors better suited for OptAM, a further technical advance has shown that OptAM performance can reach that of optical systems when the impulse response of the OptA system, i.e. the OptA pointspread-function (PSF) is considered in image formation. Deconvolution using the PSF is a common operation in optical microscopy (Sibarita, 2005). However, a critical difference with the OptA method is that the OptA PSF is a delta function not only in space but also in time, the latter leading to a rich frequency spectrum. The OptA PSF depends on the geometrical characteristics of the detector employed, the bandwidth collected and the impulse response of the illumination and detection components (Deán-Ben and Razansky, 2022; Wang and Wu, 2007). An OptA system is then characterized by its TIR, which describes the system's time- and space-resolved impulse response for each point in the volume of interest (Caballero *et al.*, 2013; Seeger *et al.*, 2020).

Different approaches have been considered for obtaining the OptA impulse response and subsequently, for correcting OptA signals and images (Chowdhury *et al.*, 2020; Deán-Ben and Razansky, 2022; Lu et al., 2020; Rosenthal et al., 2011a; Seeger et al., 2020; Strohm et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2012b). A single point impulse response has been measured by focused illumination of an a ink-layer (Zhang et al., 2012b). Then, Wiener-deconvolution of each scanned point achieved 1.7-fold improvement in the axial resolution compared to conventional OptA-signal processing, as demonstrated with melanoma cells ex-vivo and in mouse ears in-vivo (Zhang et al., 2012b). However, the impulse response measurement at only a single point does not capture the spatial sensitivity field of the detector. Prior knowledge about the detector's geometry has been combined with scanning an OptA point source at multiple points within the sensitivity field of the detector (Chowdhury et al., 2020; Lu et al., 2020). This approach was demonstrated by acquiring PSF's using a 532nm laser focused on a black carbon fiber that was 2D raster-scanned within the sensitivity field of a focused 93MHz detector (Lu et al., 2020). Then, the angular spectrum approach (ASA) that models ultrasonic wave propagation (Du et al., 2013; Orofino and Pedersen, 1993) was employed to model the detector geometry and reconstruct the entire TIR on a fine spatial grid yielding TIR sampling of a 0.2 x 0.2mm plane with steps of 10µm and a spatial resolution of 1.7µm. The accuracy of the ASA reconstructions was confirmed by comparing the computed results to three experimentally determined 2D-scans from three layers at different depths (Fig.7a).

In a similar approach, measurements of only a few single point OptA impulse responses together with simulations were used to synthesize the system's TIR (Chowdhury et al., 2020). The electrical impulse response was extracted from the experimentally obtained OptA impulse responses and combined with simulations taking into account the detector's geometry, resulting in a synthetic TIR. Incorporating the TIR in model-based reconstruction led to an enhanced lateral and axial resolution in the center of the field of view (FOV) of 54% and 37%, respectively. Improved TIR sampling was achieved by raster-scanning a focused 50MHz detector over a 250nm thick gold layer, the latter illuminated with a focused 532nm nanosecond pulsed laser via a 2-D galvo scanner. Stepwise movement of the gold layer along the axial direction of the detector resulted in a 3D-array of time resolved OptA signals sampling the volumetric sensitivity



Figure 6 All-optical detection of sound. a) Side-looking fiber-based pi-shifted Bragg grating (pi-FBG) in an acoustic cavity with schematics and picture of the implementation on an objective lens (adapted from Shnaiderman *et al.* 2017). b) Structure of a Fabry-Perot (FP) interferometer-based optical fiber probe (adapted from Ansari *et al.* 2018). c) Silicon waveguide-etalon detector (SWED) photograph and schematics (adapted from Shnaiderman *et al.* 2020). d) Silicon photonic technology ring resonator schematic and optical microscope top view picture (BF) of the fabricated ultrasound sensor with semi-transparent membrane (adapted from Westerveld *et al.* 2021).

field of the detector with steps of 6.3µm and a resolution of ≈ 600 nm (Fig.7b). Employed as a spatially matched filter, the application of the fine-grid TIR resulted in an SNR improvement of $\sim 5\text{-}10$ dB and an axial resolution improvement of 20-30% over uncorrected images, demonstrated by imaging a single red blood cell and a mouse ear *in-vivo*.

VII. LABEL-FREE DETECTION OF MOLECULAR CONTRAST

While OptA in the visible and near-infrared regimes allows the detection of only a small number of biomolecules with high sensitivity based on electronic transitions, i.e., oxy- and deoxygenated hemoglobin, lipids, water or melanin, a recent expansion of OptAM in the midinfrared (mid-IR) significantly expands the potential to visualize different molecules without the use of contrast agents, i.e., in label-free operation. Detection in this case is based on the characteristic mid-IR spectral signatures of different molecules due to their inherent molecular vibrations, in particular bond-selective detection of specific vibrational transitions of biomolecules. Compared to conventional mid-IR spectroscopy or imaging, the OptA method operates with less attenuation due to the use of ultrasound waves for detection, and can operate in reflectance geometry due to the volumetric propagation of ultrasound waves, allowing for epi-illumination as well as trans-illumination microscopy implementations.

To capitalize on these advantages, mid-infrared optoacoustic microscopy (MiROM) was demonstrated with diffraction limited optical excitation (Pleitez *et al.*, 2020) and demonstrated absorption-contrast micrographs by raster-scanning the sample within the focal plane of the illumination, while simultaneously acquiring the OptA signal. Biomolecular specificity is achieved by tuning the emission of a tunable Quantum Cascade Laser (QCL) operating with pulses in the nanosecond range to wavelengths corresponding to specific vibrational



Figure 7 Point-spread-function in optoacoustic microscopy. a) Acoustic intensity distributions of a 93MHz focused ultrasound detector measured by single 2D-scans of a sub-resolution optoacoustic point source (PA) and reconstructed via the angular spectrum approach (ASA) method along the x axis and for 3 x-y-planes (adapted from Lu *et al.* 2020). b) Total impulse response (TIR) measurement with sub-resolution point sources created on a thin gold layer (GL). The frequency components of the TIR are visualized for different planes as well as the sensitivity field of the ultrasound detector (UT). TIR-corrected reconstruction led to an improved axial resolution and levelling for a mouse ear imaged with optoacoustic microscopy *in-vivo* (adapted from Seeger *et al.* 2020).

transitions. Bond-selective imaging was demonstrated by detecting lipid, protein and carbohydrate content in living HeLa cells, undifferentiated 3T3-L1/PreBAT preadipocytes and differentiated 3T3-L1 adipocytes (Fig.8a). The resolution of mid-infrared OptAM can be improved by using reading mechanisms at shorter wavelengths, e.g. in the UV (Shi et al., 2019). A pulsed mid-IR laser thermally excites the sample in the focal spot. Then, a coaxially-aligned second ultraviolet laser beam optoacoustically detects the resulting transient temperature rise of the mid-IR excitation. The image is therefore created based on high resolution UV-OptAM but exhibits the specificity for vibrational contrast due to mid-IR excitation. The technique was demonstrated in fixed 3T3 mouse fibroblasts, resolving the distribution of intracellular lipids and proteins at sub-micron resolution. Ex-vivo label-free histological analyses of fully hydrated cerebrum and cerebellum mouse brain slices has been shown as well and resulted in OptAM images exhibiting rich structural information about the nerve fibers or fiber bundles based on myelin lipids (Fig.8b).

While the penetration depth in the mid-IR is limited by strong water absorption (Hong *et al.*, 2017; Hui *et al.*, 2016; Upputuri and Pramanik, 2019), higher penetration depth could be achieved in shortwave infrared (SWIR, 1000-2000nm) OptAM by exciting the vibrational harmonic overtones of molecules, but at the expense of lower contrast and spectral specificity due to the overlapping absorption bands (Hui et al. 2016; P. J. Harris and Altaner 2013). SWIR OptAM has been shown to resolve water and lipid content from the human skin using spectral unmixing techniques (Berezhnoi *et al.*, 2019) or collagen in a mouse tail tendon *in-vivo* (Lee *et al.*, 2018). Also, SWIR OptAM has been demonstrated in visualizing intracellular lipids in fixed human white adipocytes (Lee *et al.*, 2022)(Fig.8c).

The ability imparted by the extended OptAM spectrum is in its infancy but presents strong potential as a method to enable the visualization of functional and molecular parameters in microscopy interrogations in unperturbed cells and tissues. In the mid-IR, molecular contrast can be orders of magnitude stronger that in Raman scattering methods, owing to the strong absorption of light by different biomolecules (Pleitez et al., 2020). Addition of these modes to an OptAM or hybrid system can significantly enhance the visualization abilities. Moreover, current research is geared towards utilizing specific spectral peaks to differentiate between various lipid or protein species, further enhancing the impact of this modality on molecular investigations. Operation in this extended spectral range offers a strong rationale for the use of OptA microscopy in various fields of the biomedical sciences and beyond.

VIII. REPORTER GENES

A critical next development that can further enhance the use of OptAM in biological imaging relates to recent advances in reporter genes (RG) and bacterial systems that are developed to impart strong OptA contrast (Lei *et al.*, 2020). While the invention of fluorescent proteins launched fluorescence microscopy as a definitive tool in biological research, the ability to ubiquitously generate



Figure 8 Extended optoacoustic contrast. a) 3T3-L1 cells imaged with bright-field (BF) and with mid-infrared optical-resolution optoacoustic microscopy (MIR OR-OptAM) at two wavelengths, revealing the CH3 and Amide II content of the cell (adapted from Pleitez et al. 2020). Optoacoustic (OA). b) MIR OptAM (MIR-OAM) images of myelin lipids in 300µm thick slices of the cerebrum and cerebellum (adapted from Shi et al. 2019). c) Fixed human white adipocytes imaged with BF (Oil-red O stain) and with shortwave infrared (SWIR) OR-OptAM revealing the CH content of the cell (adapted from Lee et al. 2022). d) Fluorescent histology and optoacoustic tomography image of the hindbrain area of a six-month-old zebrafish with mCherry expression shown in orange/red (adapted from Razansky et al. 2009). e) Tyr expressing K562 cells after subcutaneous injection into the flank of a nude mouse and longitudinal progression over 52 days (adapted from Jathoul et al. 2015). Fluorescence microscopy (FM). f) *In-vivo* whole-body OptA tomography images of the kidney region of a nude mouse with the ON-OFF state images visualizing the major blood-enriched internal organs and the differential image (DIFF) clearly indicating a tumor. Right kidney (RK), spinal cord (SC), renal vein (RV), bladder (BL), spleen (SP) (adapted from Yao et al. 2016). g) *In-vivo* OptA imaging (3D representation left and 2D image upper right) of a 4T1 tumor stably expressing the photo-switchable protein DrBphP-PCM (arrows II and III) immediately after injecting *E. coli* expressing the photo-switchable protein DrBphP-PCM (GFP primarily) (adapted from Mishra et al. 2020).

specific and strong contrast from cells and subcellular components has been lacking in OptA methods. Early attempts to use lacZ encoding b-galactosidase (Li *et al.*, 2006, 2007) or tyrosinase for the production of melanin (Jathoul *et al.*, 2015; Stritzker *et al.*, 2013), did not result in methodology with high dissemination potential. While b-galactosidase and melanin are strong light absorbers that are well suited for strong OptA signal generation, they come with limitations for biomedical use. b-galactosidase absorbs in the deep blue and UV that limits the contrast due to strong background absorption and the penetration of OptA methods. Melanin has a flat spectrum that also competes with strong background contrast from hemoglobin for *in-vivo* applications and its expression may be toxic to many cells. Nevertheless, a tyrosinase-based genetic reporter worked well with visualizing vaccinia virus-mediated melanin production in mouse models, demonstrating a powerful approach to visualize oncolytic approaches in high-resolution (Stritzker *et al.*, 2013). The same reporter was also employed to visualize tyrosinase expressing human lymphoblast (K562) xenografts in mice *in-vivo* over 52 days (Fig7.e) (Jathoul *et al.*, 2015). However, our attempts to express the virus ubiquitously in cells generally resulted in poor survival, possibly contributing to the lack of widespread adoption of this reporter system in OptA studies.

Fluorescent proteins (FP) have also been considered as OptA reporters (Lei et al., 2020). Enhanced green fluorescent protein (eGFP) and mCherry have been imaged in Drosophila melanogaster pupa and adult zebrafish *in-vivo* using a multispectral OptA tomography setup (Razansky et al., 2009). Spectral unmixing was employed to improve the specificity in visualizing salivary glands modified to specifically express eGFP in intact pupa. Likewise, the hindbrain area expressing mCherry was visualized in high-resolution in a six-month old zebrafish, despite the highly scattering conditions (Fig.8d). However, the challenge with FPs is that they are optimized to convert the energy absorbed into fluorescence re-emission, and may offer low absorption cross-sections. These factors reduce the contrast available for OptA signal generation. Therefore, the sensitivity of OptA methods when using FPs does not match that of fluorescence microscopy. Moreover, when it comes to intravital imaging, fluorescence detection generally operates on low background tissue auto-fluorescence, maximizing contrast, compared to OptA FP detection which competes with the absorption of other background chromophoric molecules such as hemoglobin. Spectral unmixing approaches can be enlisted to differentiate photo-absorbing molecules over background chromophores based on their spectral characteristics. Another approach that improves intravital contrast is operation with labels that exhibit absorption peaks in the near-infrared (NIR), a spectral region where light absorption by tissue is significantly lower than in the visible or mid-IR, as demonstrated on mouse xenografts using breast cancer cells expressing two near-infrared fluorescent proteins iRFP670 and iRFP720 (Krumholz et al., 2014). The use of non-fluorescent chromo-proteins that do not exhibit radiative relaxation has also been considered to improve upon the limitations of fluorescent For example, *E. coli* expressing the chroproteins. moprotein Ultramarine were injected in the ear of an anaesthetized rat and imaged at multiple wavelengths with subsequent spectral unmixing for hemoglobin and the chromoproteins, using an AR-OptAM system (Li et al., 2016). Significant progress was also made using violacein, which leads to strong OptA contrast (Weber et al., 2016). Violacein is another naturally occurring

and photobleaching-resistant deep purple chromophore originally found in the *Chromobacterium violaceum* bacterium and enzymatically generated from the sole precursor tryptophan. *E. coli* bacteria expressing essential enzymes for the synthesis of violacein were grown and imaged with an OR-OptAM system (Jiang *et al.*, 2015), demonstrating the *in-vivo* imaging possibility of this reporter system as well.

Recently, a new concept has emerged that promises to impart high-molecular sensitivity and specificity by differentiating contrast in the time domain. In particular, recent advances in the use of photo-switchable labels, developed and adapted to OptA requirements (Mishra et al., 2019; Stiel et al., 2015; Yao et al., 2016) enable detection of OptA contrast that is modulated by an external energy source, such as light. Using lock-in detection or similar techniques that can detect the modulation pattern or differences in the signal imposed because of it, contrast is generated only from labelled moieties. This principle has been demonstrated with fluorescent proteins (Dronpa) for the discrimination of protein filled tubes in the presence of highly-absorbing blood (Stiel et al., 2015). A photo-switchable bacterial phytochrome (BphP1) with spectral properties defined by biliverdin IX α was shown to enhance the OR-OptAM contrast of glioblastoma cancer cells (Yao et al., 2016) or of T lymphocytes and bacteria (Mishra et al., 2020) implanted in mouse organs such as kidneys (see Fig.8f) and brains or body (see Fig.8g). Recently, a genetically encoded photo-switchable Ca²⁺ sensor rsGCaMP1 based on GCaMP, a genetically encoded calcium indicator, has been conceptually demonstrated in implanted cells in mice *in-vivo* with an OptA tomography setup (Mishra et al., 2022). HeLa cells expressing rsGCaMP1 were subcutaneously implanted into the back of a mouse and imaged with OptA. The signals could clearly be delineated based on photo-switching and were used to differentiate between relative Ca^{2+} concentrations.

Photo-switching may yield a ubiquitous approach for biological imaging using OptAM, since it offers the potential for significantly higher background suppression over spectral techniques, especially in *in-vivo* imaging. In this role it may play an essential role in OptAM, serving as the fluorescent protein analogue to the OptA method. We anticipate that progress with labels and hardware that enables sensitive implementation of photo-switching concepts will generate additional modes of operation in hybrid OptAM systems and enable visualization of elaborate biological contrasts deeper than what is possible with optical microscopy.

IX. MULTIMODAL AND MULTI-CONTRAST OPERATION

The combination of advances in hybrid systems, optical methods for ultrasound detection and TIR correction with new molecular contrast techniques facilitates the implementation of multiple imaging modes and ability to resolve a large number of morphological, functional and cellular or molecular parameters, going well beyond the early OptA demonstrations in imaging microvasculature. Therefore, a hybrid optical-optoacoustic system could advance from a few modes of visualization, for example 6 modes as discussed in Section IV, to visualizing a large number of biological parameters. This can be achieved by capitalizing on the extended spectrum possibilities when visualizing absorption contrast as well as when using spectral techniques and the possibility of adding temporal unmixing of photo-switchable OptA labels.

An example of multi-contrast generation was recently based on the use of a super-continuum source providing white-light nanosecond pulses with a spectral range from 475-2400nm (Nteroli et al., 2022), as part of a hybrid OR-OptAM and OCT system. The spectrally wide pulses from the super-continuum laser were narrowed down to the wavelength of interest by bandpass filters with 25nm and 50nm linewidths in the range between 475 to 1650nm and guided into the hybrid system. A second supercontinuum source was employed as the source for the OCT channel. The system was demonstrated *in-vivo* in a multimodal approach by showing the anatomy of a tadpole (Fig.9a) with OCT and overlaying the anatomical images with linearly unmixed OR-OptAM images of melanin and hemoglobin (VIS OR-OptAM) as well as collagen, glucose and lipids (NIR/SWIR OR-OptAM). This example showcases how the OptA modality can capitalize on spectra to resolve. in this case, 5 sources of contrast (5 molecules). The addition of mid-IR illumination could reveal several more molecules, including different lipids and proteins. Therefore, label-free OptAM operation over the visible and infrared could resolve at least 10 tissue molecules. By adding OptA temporal unmixing, hybrid fluorescence microscopy and other modes such as second and third-harmonics, it is possible to deliver microscopes that could visualize 20 or more molecules and their corresponding functions and structures, building more complete pictures of the observed target.

Another unique mode of operation is the combination of OR- and AR modes. As discussed in Section IV, it is possible to utilize one ultrasound detector with focused and broad illumination and enable multi-scale OptA interrogation at optical diffraction and acoustic diffraction resolutions reaching deeper than conventional optical microscopy. Such operation can be employed to visualize deeper into tissue samples or into large organisms (see Section IV.A), but also to improve imaging navigation by allowing the visualization of large fields of view using AR-OptAM and zoom-in operations at higher resolution using OR-OptAM and hybrid optical microscopy (Fig.9b). An alternative method for generating concurrent OR and AR-OptAM was demonstrated using co-axial focused illumination through a gradient-index (GRIN) lens and ultrasound detection using a spherically-focused ultrasound element (Fig.9c) (Estrada et al., 2014). The design and placement of the GRIN lens allows a user to adjust the location of the two foci with respect to the sample surface to enable OptAM with optical resolution at superficial depths that blends into acoustic-resolution for deeper tissue layers. The system has been demonstrated in transcranial imaging of the brain of a nude mouse *in-vivo* after removing the scalp (Fig.9c). Imaging of a 4x5mm FOV revealed the brain cortical vasculature on a large scale while zooming in allowed the identification of smaller capillaries in the range of the resolution of the OR-OptAM mode.

X. DISCUSSION, CHALLENGES & OUTLOOK

The fundamental advantages of the OptA method relate to offering high-resolution optical interrogation of light absorption by molecules and enabling visualization deeper than optical microscopy (Ntziachristos, 2010). However, despite technical advances and demonstrations in pilot studies, OptAM has not yet impacted biomedical sciences in a broad sense. A key reason is that the new ability must be coupled to contrast and sensitivity that addresses unmet need in biological investigations.

Initial demonstrations of OptAM focused on imaging microvasculature due to the strong contrast offered by concentrated hemoglobin in the vascular system. Being a strong absorber in the visible region, hemoglobin offered a convenient test bed to demonstrate system capabilities. Microvasculature and microvascular oxygenation is an important patho-physiological target with implications in many disease conditions (Beard, 2011; Karlas et al., 2021; Wang and Hu, 2012) and in biological observation (Taboada et al., 2022). However, biological imaging has much broader demands, requiring visualization of a multitude of cellular and molecular functions. Given the powerful observations already offered by optical microscopy techniques, OptA imaging may find critical applications in visualizing at greater depths and offering additional biological information through novel contrast mechanisms, especially when considered in hybrid implementations with established methods. The hybrid optical and OptA systems reviewed point toward that direction as they offer an innovative combination of



Figure 9 Multimodal operation in optoacoustic microscopy (OptAM): a) Qualitative illustrations of the superposition of a tadpole's optical coherence tomopgrahy (OCT) image with visible light optical-resolution OptAM (VIS OR-OptAM) revealing the melanin (pink) and hemoglobin content (magenta) and shortwave infrared (SWIR) OR-OptAM revealing collagen (green), glucose (yellow) and lipids (blue). Adapted from Nteroli *et al.* 2022. Optoacoustic (OA). b) 6-modal multi-scale, multi-contrast visualization of a mouse ear (upper row) and zebrafish larva (lower row) with acoustic-resolution Opt-AM (AR-OptAM) while high frequency (HF) AR-OptAM visualizes high frequency components in turquoise for the coarse structure of the specimen and zoomed in areas with OR-OptAM, multiphoton (MP) and bright-field (BF). AR- and OR-OptAM contrast is generated from hemoglobin in the mouse ear and from melanocytes in the zebrafish larva (visualized in red in the zoomed in area). Second-harmonic generation (SHG) contrast is generated from dermal collagen in the mouse ear and collagen of the fish musculature for the zebrafish larva (visualized in blue). Third-harmonic generation (THG) contrast is generated from Soliman *et al.* 2016. c) Combined OR-AR setup with separate illumination demonstrated in the imaging of the brain vasculature at a higher and lower scale *in-vivo*. GRIN gradient-index. UT ultrasound detector. Adapted from Estrada *et al.* 2014.

contrast and/or depth that is not available in any of the modalities alone. Likewise, in addition to the impressive technical developments in Sections IV-VI, a particularly promising advance is the generation of multimodal contrast that utilizes extended spectra (Section VII) or novel biotechnology approaches (Section VIII) to visualize contrast that covers a broader spectrum of biological interrogations and complements the elaborate interrogations already allowed by optical microscopy.

Expanding the contrast available to microscopy is a critical development and one of the great challenges of biological imaging in general and intravital microscopy in particular. Biomedical research is in need of capturing complex interactions between several different systems on the tissue, cellular and molecular levels. In particular, functional interrogations require *in-vivo* studies, i.e., an area of investigation whereby optical tissue sectioning techniques become necessary. Therefore, as OptAM developments transform from technology validation studies to advancing biomedical knowledge or developing solutions for medicine and healthcare, the use of multi-modal and multi-contrast abilities becomes particularly critical. In this vein, hybrid implementations with OptAM are a promising approach for expanding the contrast available to intravital optical microscopy. The CFM, 2PEF/3PEF and FM modes of the systems in Section IV mainly rely on fluorescence and can resolve NADH, lipofuscin, elastin and fluorescent proteins or other fluorescent reporters. Other modes or modalities, such as second and third-harmonic generation, OCT or ultrasound can resolve structural tissue elements such as collagen, lipids and tissue interfaces. Then, as discussed in Section IX, the addition of OptAM to resolve absorption offers a fundamentally different direction of contrast generation through label-free imaging of absorption and reporters based on absorption rather than fluorescence.

Using optical detection, as discussed in Section V, it is possible to seamlessly integrate OptAM contrast into optical microscopes. Coming with broadband performance, optical detection also allows scalable resolution and penetration depth, possibly reaching resolutions in the sub-10 micrometer scale or better, matching more closely the operation of optical microscopes even in AR mode. This is a promising feature of the OptA method as it could be employed as an add-on to optical microscopy, even in the currently installed base of systems. Coupled with accurate TIR characterization, as discussed in Section VI, optical detection of sound can be also utilized for high-fidelity imaging, enabling both OR and AR modes.

Another interesting direction of OptAM relates to label-free detection of molecules, as per Section VII. Similar to Raman methods, label-free OptA molecular sensing opens possibilities for the study of unperturbed systems and monitoring of specific molecular species. Using mid-IR absorption, OptA detection is up to 3 orders of magnitude more sensitive than Raman spectroscopy (Pleitez et al., 2020), although the performance in particular applications should be contrasted to signal enhancing Raman methods such as coherent anti-Stokes Raman scattering (CARS) or stimulated Raman scattering (SRS). For example a recent development demonstrates how OptAM can detect glucose with high accuracy (Uluc et al., 2024), possibly with higher sensitivity that Raman detection. The major limitation of mid-IR OptA is that it only reaches depths of ~ 140 micrometers (Uluc *et al.*, 2024)

due to the high absorption of light by water/tissue in the mid-IR. Nevertheless, mid-IR OptAM offers non-invasive operation, in contrast to electrochemical sensors or other technologies, so that it can also be applied to unperturbed environments. The approach can also be employed for label-free characterization of excised tissue (Visscher *et al.*, 2022), a mode that could become useful in stand-alone OptAM systems, not only hybrid implementations. Another area of investigation relates to shifting towards shorter excitation wavelengths with X-ray OptA (Xiang *et al.*, 2016) or ionoacoustics (Kellnberger *et al.*, 2016). However, the use of ionizing radiation and relatively low absorption of high energies by tissue may limit biological applications.

Going beyond biomedical microscopy, stand-alone OptA imaging can be useful in clinical translation and human applications, as underscored by the emergence of several companies commercializing OptA systems such as iThera Medical (Germany), OPTICHO (South Korea), Kyodo (Japan), Luxonus (Japan), FUJI-FILM, VisualSonics (Canada), Seno Medical (USA) and Photosound (USA). These systems are broadly utilized in human and animal studies based primarily on hemoglobin signals or for research with OptA agents and nanoparticles. They operate with frequencies in the few MHz (macroscopy) to a few tens of MHz (mesoscopy), rendering resolutions in the few hundreds to a few tens of micrometers respectively (Omar, Aguirre, and Ntziachristos 2019). Microvasculature and blood oxygenation patterns have been shown to resolve angiogenesis, hypoxia or inflammatory signals associated with cancer, inflammatory skin diseases and several other indications (Aguirre et al., 2017; Favazza et al., 2011; He et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2021; Nau et al., 2023; Omar et al., 2019; Oraevsky et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2009).Macroscopic implementations have also been explored in imaging cancer, cardiometabolic parameters, lipid dynamics and other conditions (Karlas *et al.*, 2021; Li et al., 2018; Reber et al., 2018) or response to pharmaceuticals (Taboada et al., 2022).

The extent by which OptAM and imaging will become as common to biomedical interrogations as mainstream optical microscopy approaches will depend on the particular applications that will be enabled by the technological and especially the contrast generation advances. Broad adoption of the new modality may be particularly compelling in research areas relating to organ on a chip and tissue engineering (Feinberg *et al.*, 2007; Haraguchi *et al.*, 2012; Huh *et al.*, 2010; Lancaster *et al.*, 2013; Ronaldson-Bouchard *et al.*, 2022; Sato and Clevers, 2013). Development of tissues and (mini-)organs in the laboratory requires observation and control at multiple levels of tissue organization and function. Therefore, the functional imaging abilities and depth penetration imparted by OptA, including label-free molecular sensing and the superb ability for imaging microvasculature and oxygen exchange may be critical for a detailed understanding of processes driving tissue viability and function. Similarly, we expect OptA methods to solidify their utility in intravital applications in animal and human research and potentially offer healthcare solutions in diagnostics and theranostics based on the microvasculature and metabolic readings. On the other hand, implementations that exchange depth for resolution, resembling optical microscopy in performance, are probably best implemented with optical microscopes in a hybrid fashion to combine the established utility of optical methods with the new features offered by optoacoustics. Developments in imparting cellular and sub-cellular contrast, for example using photo-switching techniques, may truly render a highly compelling biological imaging modality that could offer visualization beyond the limits of optical microscopy, yielding, in the future, to standalone OptAM systems with high dissemination potential.

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