

ICG clearance test based on photoacoustic imaging for assessment of human liver function reserve: An initial clinical study

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ABSTRACT

Liver function reserve (LFR) plays an extensive and important role in patients with liver disease. Indocyanine green (ICG) clearance test is the standard diagnostic approach for LFR evaluation which was performed by spectrophotometry or pulse dye densitometry (PDD). Spectrophotometry is the gold standard, it's invasive and not real-time. PDD is non-invasive, but accuracy of PDD is controversial. Taken spectrophotometry as the reference standard, this study investigated the accuracy of photoacoustic imaging (PAI) method for LFR assessment and compared to PDD in healthy volunteers. The results demonstrated a strong correlation between PAI method and spectrophotometry ($r = 0.9649$, $p < 0.0001$). No significant difference was shown in ICG clearance between PAI and spectrophotometry method (rate constant k_1 vs. k_2 , 0.001158 ± 0.00042 vs. 0.001491 ± 0.00045 , $p = 0.0727$; half-life t_1 vs. t_2 , 601.2 s vs. 474.4 s, $p = 0.1450$). These results indicated that PAI may be valuable as a noninvasive, accurate diagnostic tool for LFR assessment in human.

1. Introduction

Liver function reserve (LFR) is the sum of remnant functional hepatic cells after liver injury. Hepatitis B or C infections, nonalcoholic fatty liver disease, and long-term alcohol abuse can cause repeated liver injury and progressive liver fibrosis, leading to insufficient LFR or even liver failure [1–3]. LFR assessment plays an extensive and important role in patients with various liver diseases: it can help determine the safe scope of a liver resection or drug regimen and predict prognosis [3–5].

Indocyanine green (ICG), a U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA)-approved dye, which can be selectively taken up by hepatic cells, eliminated through bile in its original form without any metabolic change in liver or extrahepatic intake. Due to this exclusive hepatic clearance, an ICG clearance test is the standard diagnostic approach to evaluate LFR, with the dynamic change of blood ICG concentration measured by spectrophotometry or pulse dye densitometry (PDD) [6]. Spectrophotometry is the gold standard, however, it's an invasive, complex and not real-time procedure that demands serial blood sampling [7]. PDD is non-invasive, but it's a blind test without any imaging guidance. Additionally, according to previous study results the accuracy

of PDD is controversial [8,9]. Besides the ICG clearance test, a scoring system such as Child-Pugh is widely used for clinical estimation of liver function, but it suffers from low sensitivity and specificity [10]. Computed tomography (CT) volumetry measures liver volume to reflect liver function indirectly, but liver function can't be evaluated directly by CT [11]. Other novel methods such as ^{99m}Tc-GSA SPECT and gadoxetic acid-enhance MRI are also being translated and evaluated for LFR assessment in the clinic. However, both are not suitable for frequent screening or real-time monitoring and suffer from poor spatial resolution, high cost, limited availability, and ionizing radiation exposure in the case of SPECT [12,13].

Photoacoustic imaging (PAI) is a non-invasive and non-ionizing technique that provides structural and functional information with high spatial resolution based on optical absorption. PAI has demonstrated its utility for in vivo imaging from organelles to organs [14]. However, clinical application studies of PAI have been traditionally restricted to superficial structures such as breast [15], thyroid [16], arthritis [17], skin [18] and blood vasculature of extremities [19]. Recent advancements in technology have shown promise for the integration of PAI into the imaging of internal organs such as prostate [20].

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Due to the optical absorption of skin and muscles above the liver, PAI studies on the liver were conducted on small animals of fatty liver or liver fibrosis. These studies utilized photoacoustic spectral analysis to evaluate hepatic fat rate or fibrosis severity [21,22]. However, translating these promising results to humans presents a significant challenge due to the deep location of the human liver. Fortunately, when using ICG clearance to evaluate LFR, it is feasible to precisely measure the concentration or clearance of ICG in any blood vessel within the human body subsequent to ICG administration, including the superficial peripheral vessels. Our research team has delineated and authenticated the ICG clearance test utilizing the PAI technique, by employing tissue-mimicking phantoms, in vivo normal and partial hepatectomy rabbit models [23]. The encouraging outcomes obtained from the previous in vitro and in vivo animal studies prompted us to further explore the potential for clinical translation.

In this study, we present a clinical trial of LFR assessment in healthy volunteers by PAI-based ICG clearance test. Taken spectrophotometry as the reference standard, the accuracy of this PAI-based method for LFR assessment was investigated and compared to PDD. Additionally, we demonstrated the use of PAI-derived parameters for describing LFR.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study design

The aim of this study was to clinically implement the PAI-based ICG clearance test for LFR assessment, based on the results of our previously published phantom and animal studies. Between August 10, 2020, and September 1, 2020, 16 healthy volunteers without any history of liver disease were recruited. The exclusion criteria were as follows: (1) a history of iodine allergy ($n = 1$), (2) hemolysis of blood sample ($n = 2$), and (3) unexpected movement of the elbow or nose, such as sneezing ($n = 1$). In total, 12 healthy volunteers (man = 6, woman = 6) were included in the final analysis. These volunteers were intravenously administered ICG and received PAI, PDD and spectrophotometry simultaneously. This initial clinical trial was approved by Ethics Committee on Biomedical research, University of Electronic Science and Technology of China. Informed consent was obtained from all participating volunteers.

2.2. Patient data

The demographic data and blood work results were displayed in Table 1.

2.3. Photoacoustic imaging (PAI) system

Fig. 1 depicts the schematic representation of the PAI system utilized for imaging human blood vessels. The PAI system is based on a Q-switched Nd:YAG - pumped optical parameter oscillator (Surelite,

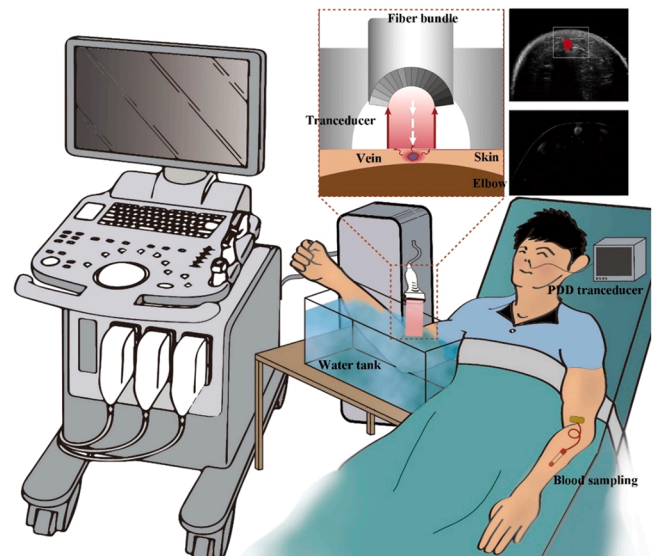


Fig. 1. Schematic of the experiment system.

Continuum, California), a 128-element hollow concave array (center frequency: 2.0 MHz, with a bandwidth of 80%, element size: The elements are evenly distributed and have a pitch of 1.6 mm and a height of 20 mm. The central region of the array, consisting of 32 elements (from the 49th to the 80th element), is hollow and contains two segments that are 1.5×5 mm each. This allows for the insertion of the linear transducer array. The concave array has a cylindrical focal length of 70 mm in the $y - z$ plane, and the radius of curvature in the $x - y$ plane is chosen to be 65 mm, enabling 180° imaging coverage, ULSCO TECH CO., LTD, China) [24]. The laser provides tunable laser pulses from 700 to 960 nm at a repetition rate of up to 20 Hz. The output laser light is coupled into a custom-made fiber bundle [23]. The output shape of the fiber bundle is a rectangular region with a $10 \text{ mm} \times 5 \text{ mm}$ area. The maximum light fluence from the fiber bundle at 805 nm is estimated to be 10 mJ/cm^2 (within the safety limit of the American National Standards Institute regulations) in this study. The PA signals emitted by the blood and ICG are collected by the hollow concave array and first transmitted into a homemade 128-to-64 multiplexing system, then amplified by a custom-made 64-channel preamplifier. The PA signals were finally averaged for 10 times and recorded by a 64-channel acquisition system with two 32-channel data acquisition cards (DAQ, 5752B, NI, Inc., USA) at a sampling rate of 50 MS/s. Under 20 Hz working frequency of the laser, the whole data acquisition time was about 1 s. PA image was recovered using a delay-and-sum algorithm in Matlab (Mathworks Inc., Natic, MA) [25].

2.4. ICG clearance test by spectrophotometry

As illustrated in Fig. 1, the volunteer was in supine position with his left arm extended. The ICG (Dandong Yi Chuang, Liaoning, China) was dissolved in distilled water to achieve a concentration of 5 mg/ml immediately prior to administration. A dose of 0.1 ml/kg ICG solution was injected into the left median cubital vein (MCV) followed by a 5 ml saline flush over a period of 10 s. Blood samples were collected at the following designated time intervals: 0 s (prior to ICG injection), 30 s, 60 s, 100 s, 180 s, 300 s, 480 s, 600 s, 760 s, 900 s after ICG injection through the left MCV into an anticoagulant vacuum tube. Subsequently, the collected blood was centrifuged at 3000r/m for a duration of 10 min. The absorbance of each plasma sample was then measured at 805 nm by means of a spectrophotometer (ZB006, Shanghai INESA Scientific Instrument Co., Ltd, China).

Table 1

Demographic data and blood work of volunteers.

Characteristic	Value
Gender, n (%)	
male	6 (50)
female	6 (50)
Age (mean \pm sd, years old)	30.8 \pm 6.7
Blood work (mean \pm sd)	
hemoglobin (Hb, g/L)	141.5 \pm 16.0
red blood cell (RBC) count (10^{12} /L)	4.7 \pm 0.6
platelet (PLT) count (10^9 /L)	227.5 \pm 65.4
alanine aminotransferase (ALT, IU/L)	21.3 \pm 12.5
aspartate aminotransferase (AST, IU/L)	21.3 \pm 6.0
albumin (ALB, g/L)	47.7 \pm 3.0
total bilirubin (TB, $\mu\text{mol/L}$)	11.8 \pm 7.6
direct bilirubin (DB, $\mu\text{mol/L}$)	2.8 \pm 1.2

2.5. ICG clearance test by PAI

As shown in Fig. 1., the volunteer was in supine position. Right arm was outstretched. Initially, B-mode ultrasound (Resona 9, Mindray, China) was utilized to identify the location of the right MCV, and the resulting transverse ultrasound section of the right MCV is presented in Fig. 2A. Following this, the identified location was marked, and the right arm was submerged in a water tank. The PAI imaging probe was then positioned on the marked right MCV, and the transverse section of the marked right MCV was clearly visualized through PAI, as demonstrated in Fig. 2B. The white dashed box delineated the region of interest (ROI) for the subsequent analysis.

PAI scanning of the marked right MCV at a wavelength of 805 nm was conducted for a duration of 15 min. The acquisition rate was set at 0.5 frames per second. Prior to the injection of ICG, a baseline PAI scan of the target MCV was conducted for a period of 10 s. Subsequently, the PA image was continuously acquired for an additional 900 s following the administration of ICG. Owing to the rapid changes in ICG concentration at the beginning and the slower changes in concentration in the later stages [6,7,9,23], we acquired PA images at 5-second intervals during the first 180 s, followed by 10-second intervals in the subsequent stage.

For image processing, firstly, the delay and sum algorithm based on MATLAB is used to obtain PA images (Fig. 3) of each frame. Due to the presence of motion artifacts during the experiment, image registration is required. ImageJ software is used to perform rigid registration on the images to obtain a series of new images. Then, taking the first image as a reference and combining it with ultrasound imaging results, a professional ultrasound clinician manually selects the vascular region for annotation and calculates the total sum of pixel values in the selected region. The same vascular region is then annotated and calculated for all frame images in turn. Since the obtained PA vascular images include information on both oxygenated and deoxygenated hemoglobin components, when calculating the ICG concentration changes, the signals collected 10 s prior to ICG injection are averaged as a baseline. Then, all vascular signals after ICG injection are subtracted from this baseline to obtain the required values for calculating the ICG concentration changes, and the curve of ICG concentration changes over time after ICG administration is plotted in Fig. 4.

2.6. ICG clearance test by PDD

The instrument used for measuring blood ICG concentration after intravenous injection was the PDD (DDG-3300 K, Nihon Kohden, Tokyo, Japan). A pulse-by-pulse monitoring of blood ICG concentrations was performed through an optical probe attached to the volunteer's nasal wing. The obtained blood ICG concentrations were automatically converted to logarithmic scale, and linearly regressed against time with the method of least squares, from 2.5 min (when ICG was assumed to completely mixed with blood) through 5.5 min after the mean transit

time, to acquire the slope of the regression line. The elimination rate constant (k value) and half-life were automatically computed from the time course of blood ICG concentration.

2.7. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis and graphical display of data were performed using GraphPad software (version 8.00; GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). Continuous variables were given as mean and standard deviation (sd) or median and interquartile range (IQR). Similar to previous study [23], averaged PA signal in the MCV were normalized as the relative photoacoustic signal intensity (PSI_{re}) to reflect the ICG concentration change as follows:

$$PSI_{re}(t) = \frac{PSI(t) - PSI_{base}}{PSI_{base}} \quad (1)$$

In order to quantify the kinetics of PSI_{re} change after the ICG administration, an exponential decay model [26] was used as follows:

$$PSI_{re}(t) = PSI_{re}(0)e^{-kt} \quad (2)$$

k is the elimination rate constant, expressed in reciprocal of the X axis time units. Half-life is in the time units of the X axis. It is computed as $\ln(2)/k$.

Comparison between groups (PAI versus Spectrophotometry, PDD versus Spectrophotometry) were conducted using unpaired t-test or unpaired t-test with Welch's correction when standard deviations were not equal. Pearson correlation test was used for correlation analysis. A value of $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. Correlation between PAI and spectrophotometry

A peak of high intensity was observed after the injection of ICG and gradually decreased over time, as depicted in Fig. 4. A strong correlation was demonstrated between the temporal photoacoustic signal (PAS) in vivo and the absorbance of blood samples in vitro ($r = 0.9649$, $p < 0.0001$).

3.2. Difference in rate constant and half-life between PAI and spectrophotometry

As demonstrated in Fig. 5, no significant difference was shown in ICG clearance between PAI and spectrophotometry method (rate constant k_1 vs. k_2 , 0.001158 ± 0.00042 vs. 0.001491 ± 0.00045 , $p = 0.0727$; half-life t_1 vs. t_2 , 601.2 s (25% percentile: 506.2 s, 75% percentile: 750.2 s) vs. 474.4 s (25% percentile: 366.4 s, 75% percentile: 664.2 s), $p = 0.1450$).

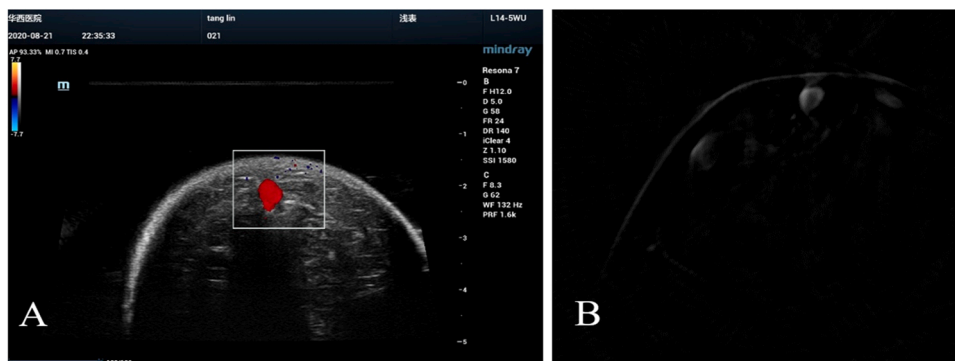


Fig. 2. Ultrasound A and photoacoustic B images of the volunteer's blood vessel (indicated by white dashed box).

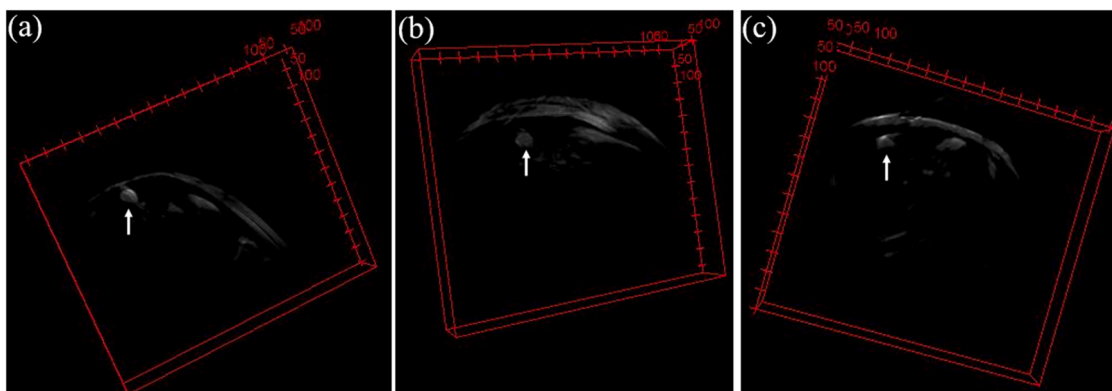


Fig. 3. Registered PA images of the volunteer's blood vessel. (indicated by white arrows).

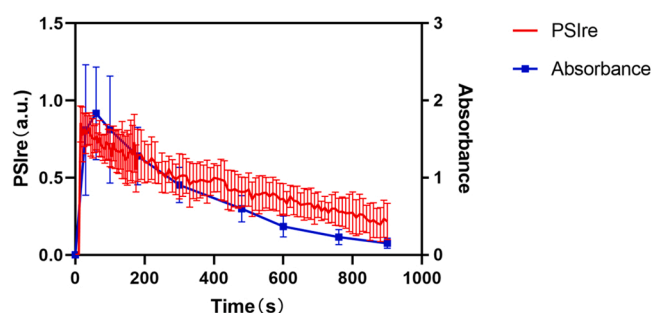


Fig. 4. The in vivo PAI data was collected from 12 healthy volunteers, while in vitro absorbance measurement was performed using blood sample. PSI measured in vivo (red line with error bars), and absorbance estimated in vitro by spectrophotometer (blue line with blue cube and error bars). ICG = indocyanine green, PAS= photoacoustic signal, PAI = photoacoustic imaging, PSIRE=relative photoacoustic signal intensity.

3.3. Difference in rate constant and half-life between PDD and spectrophotometry

As illustrated in Fig. 6, a significant difference was observed in ICG clearance between the PDD and Spectro method (rate constant k_3 vs. k_2 , 0.004604 ± 0.00073 vs. 0.001491 ± 0.00045 , $p < 0.0001$; half-life t_3 vs. t_2 , 156.0 s (25% percentile: 133.5 s, 75% percentile:174.0 s) vs. 474.4 s (25% percentile: 366.4 s, 75% percentile:664.2 s), $p < 0.0001$).

4. Discussion

ICG clearance test has been used as a LFR test to evaluate patient outcomes, as a prognostic marker and as diagnostic tool in mainly two

areas: in liver surgery (including hepatic resection and liver transplantation) and in critically ill patients (in patients with or without liver failure) [1–5]. A range of techniques, invasive or non-invasive, are available for assessing ICG elimination. These techniques yield various derived values that quantify ICG elimination, including the elimination rate constant (k), which reflects the decay rate of ICG. The half-life provides the time elapsed from the peak concentration of ICG to the point at which the concentration has decreased to half of its peak value. ICG retention rate at 15 min (ICGR15), which is the circulatory retention of ICG during the first 15 min following bolus injection, expressed as a percentage. ICGR15 derived from PDD method is a common value for LFR assessment. However, the accuracy of this value for predicting post-hepatectomy liver failure has been called into question [9]. It is recommended that additional methods be considered for a comprehensive assessment of LFR. Values obtained through invasive techniques, such as spectrophotometry, including elimination rate constant and half-life, may provide more reliable indicators of remnant liver function.

Our previous phantom and animal study has shown that PAI was useful for monitoring ICG clearance in normal and partial hepatectomy rabbits [23]. Other previous studies have demonstrated a mono-exponential decline in ICG plasma concentration over time after low doses (0.5 mg/kg) were administered to both humans and laboratory animals, as measured by spectrophotometry or high-pressure liquid chromatography [27–30]. These findings are in agreement with our observations obtained through PAI in both animal and human subjects. Recent studies demonstrated the utility of PAI in reflecting LFR in partial hepatectomy or liver fibrosis mouse models, results of which showed the significant difference of PAI-related parameters between the control and disease model groups [26,31].

Due to the depth limitations of PAI, direct imaging of liver tissue using PAI in humans is challenging. Nevertheless, this issue has been

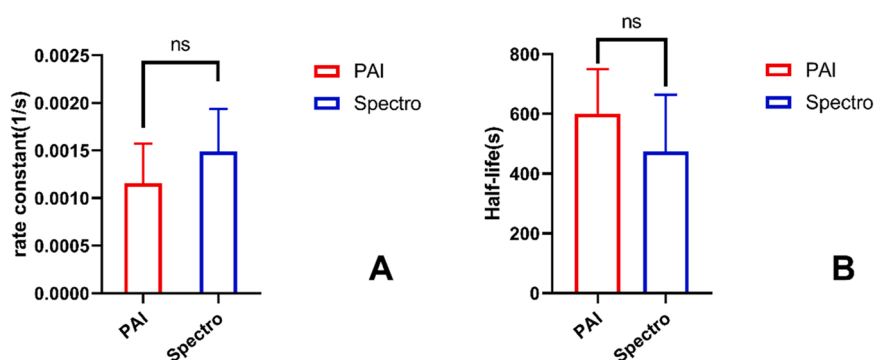


Fig. 5. Difference analysis between the PAI and spectrophotometry method. A. Rate constant k of ICG clearance between PAI and Spectro. B. half-life of ICG clearance between PAI and Spectro. ICG= indocyanine green, PAI=photoacoustic imaging, Spectro=spectrophotometer ns= not significant.

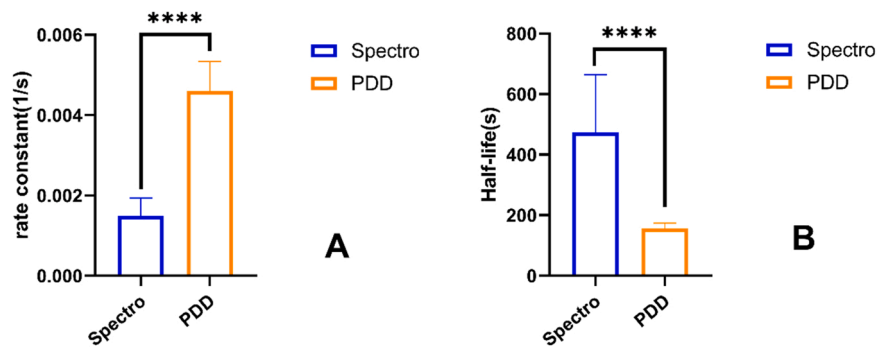


Fig. 6. Difference analysis between the PDD and Spectro method. A. Rate constant k of ICG clearance between PDD and Spectro. B. half-life of ICG clearance between PDD and Spectro. ICG= indocyanine green, PDD=pulse dye densitometry, Spectro=spectrophotometer, ****= $p < 0.0001$.

circumvented by conducting peripheral superficial vessel scanning, which has demonstrated promising potential for translating PAI to human use for assessing LFR. This study aimed to achieve clinical translation of real-time monitoring of ICG clearance via peripheral vessels using PAI for assessing LFR in humans. The crucial functional parameters, namely the elimination rate constant (k) and half-life ($t_{1/2}$) of liver function obtained through PAI, showed no significant difference compared to the gold standard method of spectrophotometry ($p = 0.0727$, $p = 0.1450$ respectively). A strong positive correlation was observed between temporal photoacoustic signal (PAS) obtained by PAI in vivo and absorbance of blood samples in vitro measured by spectrophotometry ($r = 0.9649$, $p < 0.0001$). However, the elimination rate constant (k) and the half-life ($t_{1/2}$) of ICG clearance calculated by PDD significantly differed from those measured by spectrophotometry ($p < 0.0001$ for both). When compared to spectrophotometry as the accepted standard, the PAI method exhibited a high level of accuracy in assessing LFR among healthy volunteers. However, the elimination rate constant (k) and half-life ($t_{1/2}$) measurements obtained through PDD demonstrated significant deviations from the results obtained through the gold standard. A similar result was reported by T. Imai, K et al., who presented evidence of poor consistency between PDD and spectrophotometry [9]. PDD is a blind-test based on two-wavelength near-infrared light (805 and 890 nm) in association with pulse oximetry to compute the arterial blood concentration ratio of ICG to hemoglobin (Hb). A slight movement of tested body parts, such as the nose or fingers, can result in inaccurate readings. Furthermore, various factors, including hemoglobin concentration, perivascular tissue, and weak arterial pulse, can also affect the precision of PDD. Additionally, the algorithm utilized by PDD for calculating ICG clearance parameters differs from that of spectrophotometry and PAI [8,9]. Therefore, the aforementioned factors may explain the disparity observed between PDD and spectrophotometry measurement outcomes.

Our study encountered several limitations. Firstly, it should be noted that the ICG clearance test is a comprehensive evaluation of liver function. However, the ability to assess functional heterogeneity among various hepatic segments using this method is restricted. Secondly, although the MCV was discernible through both PA and ultrasound imaging, it is imperative to develop a hybrid photoacoustic/ultrasound imaging platform to enable precise image co-registration for human implementation. Lastly, a prospective clinical study involving a substantial population, including patients, should be undertaken to provide further validation.

5. Conclusions

This study has demonstrated a strong correlation between photoacoustic imaging (PAI) and the gold standard spectrophotometry method for ICG clearance testing. Additionally, the accuracy of PAI was found to be superior to that of pulse dye densitometry.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data Availability

The data that has been used is confidential.

Acknowledgments

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