

## Chapter 5

### EFFECT OF SAMPLING ON REAL OCULAR ABERRATION MEASUREMENTS.

This chapter is based on the article by Llorente, L. et al., "The effect of sampling on real ocular aberration measurements", *Journal of the Optical Society of America A* 24, 2783- 2796 (2007). The co-authors of the study are: Susana Marcos, Carlos Dorronsoro and Steve Burns. A preliminary version of this work was presented as an oral paper (Llorente et al., 2004b) at the II EOS Topical Meeting on Physiological Optics in Granada. The contribution of the author to the study was the performance of the experimental measurements, and data processing and analysis, as well as statistical analysis of the experimental data and of the data from simulations performed by Steve Burns.

#### 5.1.- ABSTRACT

*PURPOSE:* To assess the performance of different sampling patterns in the measurement of ocular aberrations and to find out whether there was an optimum pattern to measure human ocular aberrations.

*METHODS:* Repeated measurements of ocular aberrations were performed in 12 healthy non surgical human eyes, and 3 artificial eyes,

with a LRT using different sampling patterns (Hexagonal, Circular and Rectangular with 19 to 177 samples, and three radial patterns with 49 samples coordinates corresponding to zeroes of the Albrecht, Jacobi, and Legendre functions). Two different metrics based on the RMS of difference maps (RMS\_Diff) and the proportional change in the wave aberration (W%) were used to compare wave aberration estimates as well as to summarize results across eyes. Some statistical tests were also applied: hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA) and Student's t-test. Computer simulations were also used to extend the results to "abnormal eyes" (Keratoconic, post-LASIK and post-RK eyes).

*RESULTS:* In general, for both artificial and human eyes, the "worst" patterns were those undersampled. Slight differences were found for the artificial eye with different aberrations pattern, compared to the other artificial eyes. Usually those patterns with greater number of samples gave better results, although the spatial distribution of the samples also seemed to play a role, for our measured, as well as our simulated "abnormal" eyes. There was agreement between the results obtained from our metrics and from the statistical tests.

*CONCLUSIONS:* Our metrics proved to be adequate to compare aberration estimates across sampling patterns. There may be an interaction between the aberration pattern of an eye and the ability of a sampling pattern to reliably measure the aberrations. This implied that just increasing the number of samples was not as effective as choosing a better sampling pattern. In this fashion, moderate density sampling patterns based on the zeroes of Albrecht cubature or hexagonal sampling performed relatively well, being a good compromise between accuracy and density. These conclusions were also applicable in human eyes, in spite of the variability in the measurements masking the sampling effects except for undersampling patterns. Finally, the numerical simulations

proved to be useful to assess *a priori* the performance of different sampling patterns when measuring specific aberration patterns.

## 5.2.- INTRODUCTION

As previously described in Chapter 1, aberrometry techniques currently used for human eyes consist on measuring ray aberrations at a discrete number of sampling points, and then estimate the wave aberration using modal, zonal or combined reconstruction methods (Chapter 1, section 1.2.2). It is, therefore, crucial for these techniques to find out which is the minimum number of samples necessary to fully characterize the aberration pattern of the eye. This is a question under debate in the clinical as well as the scientific community. The optimal number of sampling points represents a trade-off between choosing a number of samples large enough to accurately estimate the wave aberration (see Chapter 1, section 1.2.5.3), and reducing the measuring and processing time. In addition, the distribution of the samples throughout the pupil of the eye may also play a role. In this chapter, the influence of the number and distribution of samples used in the aberrations measurement on the resulting estimated wave aberration will be studied.

To our knowledge, there has not been a systematic experimental study investigating whether increasing the sampling density over a certain number of samples provides significantly better accuracy in ocular aberration measurements, or whether alternative sampling configurations would be more efficient. There have been theoretical investigations of sampling configuration from both analytical and numerical approaches which are described below. However, the applicability to human eyes should be ultimately tested experimentally.

Cubalchini (Cubalchini, 1979) was the first to study the modal estimation of the wave aberration from derivative measurements using a least squares method, concluding that the geometry and number of

samples affected the wavefront estimations and that the variance of higher order Zernike terms could be minimised by sampling as far from the centre of the aperture as possible and minimising the number of samples used to estimate a fixed number of terms and to take the measurements.

In 1997, Rios et al. (1997) found analytically for Hartmann sensing that the spatial distribution of the nodes of the Albrecht cubatures (Bará et al., 1996) made them excellent candidates for modal wavefront reconstruction in optical systems with a centrally obscured pupil. This sampling scheme could also be a good candidate for ocular aberrations, due to the circular geometry of the cubature scheme. In addition, as the Zernike order increases (i.e., higher order aberrations), the area of the pupil more affected by aberrations tends to be more peripheral (McLellan et al., 2006, Applegate et al., 2002, Cubalchini, 1979), and therefore ocular wavefront estimates would potentially benefit by a denser sampling of the peripheral pupil.

He et al. (1998) used numerical simulations to test the robustness of the fitting technique they used for their SRR (least-square fit to Zernike coefficients) to the cross-coupling or modal aliasing (interaction between orders) as well as the error due to the finite sampling aperture. They found that the error could be minimized by extracting the coefficients corresponding to the maximum complete order possible (considering the number of samples), in agreement with Cubalchini (Cubalchini, 1979), and by using a relatively large sampling aperture, which practically covered the measured extent of the pupil. Although this large sampling aperture introduced some error due to the use of the value of the derivatives at the centre of the sampling apertures to perform the fitting, and the rectangular pattern they used did not provide an adequate sampling for radial basis functions, simulations confirmed that the overall effect was relatively small.

In 2003, Burns et al. (2003) computationally studied the effect of different sampling patterns on measurements of wavefront aberrations of the eye, by implementing a complete model of the wavefront processing used with a “typical” HS sensor and modal reconstruction. They also analyzed the effect of using a point estimator for the derivative at the centre of the aperture, versus using the average slope across the subaperture, and found that the second decreased modal aliasing somewhat, but made little practical difference for the eye models. Given that the higher order aberrations tended to be small, the modal aliasing they found was subsequently small. Finally, they found that non-regular sampling schemes, such as cubatures, were more efficient than grid sampling, when sampling noise was high.

Díaz-Santana et al (Diaz-Santana et al., 2005), and Soloviev and Vdovin (2005) developed analytical models to test different sampling patterns applied to ocular aberrometry and HS sensing in astronomy, respectively. Díaz-Santana et al. (2005) developed an evaluation model based on matrices that included as input parameters the number of samples and their distribution (square, hexagonal, polar lattice), shape of the subpupil, size and irradiance across the pupil (uniform irradiance vs. Gaussian apodisation), regarding the sampling. The other input parameters were the statistics of the aberrations in the population, the sensor noise, and the estimator used to retrieve the aberrations from the aberrometer raw data. According to their findings, no universal optimal pattern exists, but the optimal pattern will depend, among others on the specific aberrations pattern to be measured. Soloviev et al.’s model (Soloviev and Vdovin, 2005) used a linear operator to describe the HS sensing, including the effects of the lenslets array geometry and the demodulation algorithm (modal wavefront reconstruction). When applying this to different sampling configurations, using the Kolmogorov statistics as a model of the incoming wavefront, they found that their pattern with 61 randomly spatially distributed samples gave better results

than the regular hexagonal pattern with 91 samples of the same sub-aperture size (radius=1/11 times the exit pupil diameter), which covered completely the extent of the pupil in the case of the 91-sample pattern. In these theoretical models, an appropriate statistical input was crucial so that their predictions can be generalized in the population. McLellan et al. found (McLellan et al., 2006) that high order aberration terms show particular relationships (i.e. positive interactions that increase the MTF over other potential combinations), suggesting that general statistical models should include these relationships in order to describe real aberrations.

In this study, LRT2 was used to measure wave aberrations in human eyes, with different sampling patterns and densities. Hexagonal and Rectangular configurations were chosen because they are the most commonly used. Different radially symmetric geometries were also used to test whether these patterns were better suited to measuring ocular aberrations. These geometries included uniform polar sampling, arranged in a circular pattern, and three patterns corresponding to the zeroes of the cubatures of Albrecht, Jacobi and Legendre equations. Additionally, different densities were tested for each pattern in order to evaluate the trade-off between accuracy and sampling density. To separate variability due to biological factors from instrumental issues arising from the measurement and processing, measurements on artificial eyes were also performed. Noise estimates in human eyes as well as realistic wave aberrations were used in computer simulations to extend the conclusions to eyes other than normal eyes (meaning healthy eyes with no pathological condition and that have not undergone any ocular surgery). For all these three cases (human, artificial and simulated eyes), two metrics (defined below, in section 5.3.4.2.-) to assess the differences across the aberration maps obtained with the different sampling patterns were tested, and the estimated Zernike terms which changed depending on the sampling pattern used were identified.

## 5.3.- METHODS

### 5.3.1.- LASER RAY TRACING

Optical aberrations of the eyes were measured using the device LRT2 which allowed the selection of distribution and density of the sampling pattern by software (see Chapter 2, section 2.2.2.1). For this study the following sampling patterns were used: Hexagonal (H), evenly-distributed Circular (C), Rectangular (R) and three radial patterns with 49 samples coordinates corresponding to zeroes of Albrecht (A49), Jacobi (J49) and Legendre (L49) functions (see Figure 5.1). Different densities for the Hexagonal, and Circular patterns were also used to sample the pupil: 19, 37 and 91 samples over a 6 mm pupil. In addition, for the artificial eyes, Rectangular patterns with 21, 37, 98 and 177 samples were also used. The coordinates of the samples of Jacobi, Legendre and Albrecht patterns can be found in the appendix of this thesis. In order to simplify the reading, an abbreviated notation throughout the text was used: the letter indicates the pattern configuration and the number indicates the number

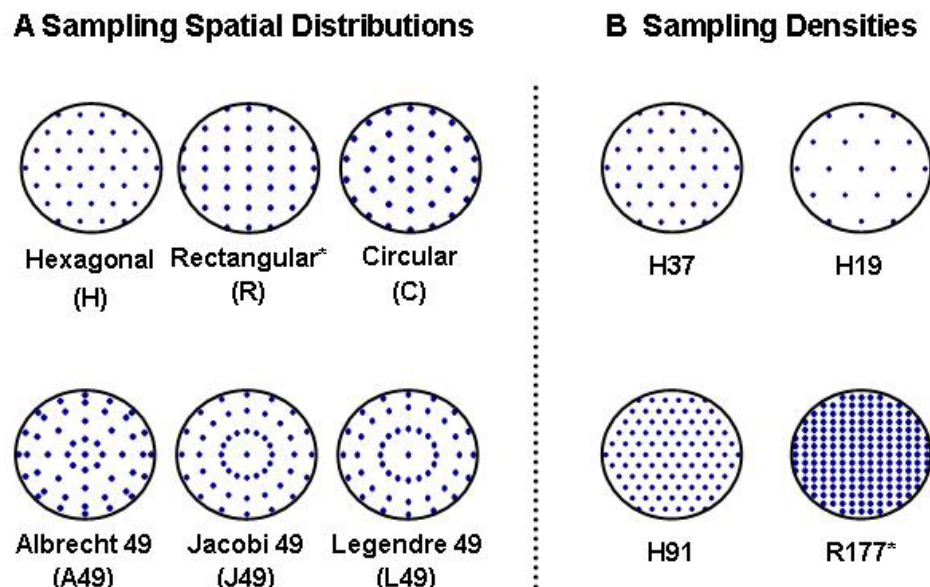


Figure 5.1. Pupil sampling patterns used in this work. A Spatial distributions include equally spaced hexagonal (H), rectangular (R) and polar distributions (C), and radial distributions with 49 coordinates corresponding to zeroes of Albrecht, Jacobi and Legendre functions (A49, J49, and L49, respectively). B Sampling densities include patterns with 19, 37, 91, and 177 samples over a 6 mm pupil. Asterisks indicate those patterns only used for artificial eyes.

of sampling apertures, i.e., for example H91 stands for a hexagonal pattern with 91 samples.

### 5.3.2.- EYES

The three polymethylmethacrylate artificial eyes used in this work, A1, A2 and A3, were designed and extensively described by Campbell (Campbell, 2005). Nominally, A2 shows only defocus and SA. A1 and A3 show nominally, in addition to defocus and SA, different amounts of 5<sup>th</sup> (term  $Z_5^{-1}$ , secondary vertical coma) and 6<sup>th</sup> (term  $Z_6^2$ , tertiary astigmatism) Zernike order aberrations.

Twelve healthy non surgical eyes (eyes R1 to R12, where even numbers indicate left eyes, odd numbers right eyes) of six young subjects (age =  $28 \pm 2$  years) were also measured. Spherical error ranged from -2.25 to +0.25 D ( $1.08 \pm 1.17$  D), and 3<sup>rd</sup> and higher order RMS from 0.17 to 0.62  $\mu\text{m}$  ( $0.37 \pm 0.15$   $\mu\text{m}$ ).

### 5.3.3.- EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

#### 5.3.3.1.- Artificial Eyes

A specially designed holder with a mirror was attached to the LRT apparatus for the measurements on the artificial eyes. This holder allowed the eye to be placed with its optical axis in the vertical perpendicular to the LRT optical axis. In this way, the variability due to mechanical instability or the effect of gravity was minimised. The pupil of the artificial eye was aligned to the optical axis, and optically conjugated to the pupil of the setup. Defocus correction was achieved in real time by minimizing the size of the aerial image for the central ray.

The pattern sequence was almost identical in the three artificial eyes: H37, H19, H91, C19, C37, H37\_2, C91, R21, R37, R98, H37\_3, R177, A49, J49, L49, H37\_4. However, for L2 the pattern A49 was the last pattern measured in the sequence. As a control, identical H37 patterns were



repeated throughout the session (indicated by H37, H37\_2, H37\_3 and H37\_4). A measurement session lasted around 40 minutes in these artificial eyes.

### 5.3.3.2.- *Human Eyes*

The protocols used during the measurements in human eyes were those described in Chapter 2, section 2.4 of this thesis, considering each different sampling pattern as a condition to test. Custom passive eye-tracking routines (see Chapter 2, section 2.2.2.3) were used to analyse the pupil images, captured simultaneously to retinal images, and to determine the effective entry pupil locations as well as to estimate the effects of pupil shift variability in the measurements. Scan times for these eyes ranged from 1 to 6 seconds, depending on the number of samples of the pattern. In the measurements of these eyes fewer patterns (H37, H19, H91, C19, C37, C91, A49, J49, L49, H37) were used to keep measurement sessions within a reasonable length of time. To assess variability, each pattern was repeated 5 times within a session. In addition, the H37 pattern was repeated at the end of the session (H37\_2) to evaluate whether there was long term drift due to fatigue or movement. An entire measurement session lasted around 120 minutes for both eyes.

### 5.3.4.- *DATA PROCESSING*

#### 5.3.4.1.- *Wave aberration estimates*

LRT measurements were processed as described in Chapter 2. Local derivatives of the wave aberrations were fitted to a 7th order Zernike polynomial, when the number of samples of the sampling pattern allowed (36 or more samples), or to the highest order possible. From each set of Zernike coefficients the corresponding third and higher order (i.e., excluding tilts, defocus and astigmatism) wave aberration map and the corresponding RMS were computed. All processing routines were written in Matlab (Mathworks, Natick, MA). Processing parameters were chosen

(as were filters during the measurement, to obtain equivalent intensities at the CCD camera) so that in both, human and artificial eyes, the computation of the centroid was similar and not influenced by differences in reflectance of the eye “fundus”.

The wave aberration estimated using the H91 sampling pattern was used as a reference when computing the metrics, as there was no “gold standard” measurement for the eyes. This fact can limit the conclusions based on the metrics, which use a reference for comparison. The influence of this choice in the results was tested by checking the effect of using the other pattern with the highest number of samples (C91) as a reference. Similar results were obtained.

#### *5.3.4.2.- Wave aberration variability metrics*

Two metrics were defined to evaluate differences between sampling patterns:

*RMS\_Diff*: A difference pupil map (Diff. Map) was obtained by subtracting the wave aberration for the reference pattern from the wave aberration corresponding to the pattern to be evaluated. *RMS\_Diff* was computed as the RMS of the difference pupil map computed. Larger *RMS\_Diff* values corresponded to less accurate sampling pattern. For each eye, a threshold criterion was established to estimate the differences due to factors other than the sampling patterns. This threshold was obtained by computing the value of the metric for maps obtained using the same pattern (H37) at different times within a session. Differences lower than the threshold were considered within the measurement variability. For artificial eyes, the map obtained from one of the measurements was subtracted from the map obtained for each of the other three measurements and the threshold was computed as the average *RMS\_Diff* value corresponding to each map. For human eyes, the threshold was determined based on two sets of five consecutive measurements each, obtained at the beginning and at the end of the session using the H37

pattern (H37 and H37\_2, respectively). Each of the five wave aberration maps of the H37\_2 set was subtracted from each of the corresponding wave aberration map of the H37 set to obtain the corresponding five difference maps. The threshold was computed as the RMS corresponding to the average map of the five difference maps.

*W%*: This is the percentage of the area of the pupil in which the wave aberration for the test pattern differs from the wave aberration measured using the reference pattern. Wave aberrations were calculated on a 128x128 grid, for each of the five repeated measurements for each sampling pattern and for the reference. Then, at each of the 128x128 points, the probability that the differences found between both groups of measurements (for the sampling and for the reference) arose by chance was computed. Binary maps were generated by setting to one the areas with probability values below 0.05, and setting to zero those areas with probability values above 0.05. *W%* was then computed as the number of pixels with value one divided by the total number of pixels in the pupil, all multiplied by 100. The larger *W%* the less accurate the corresponding sampling pattern was. This metric was applied only for human eyes, where, as opposed to artificial eyes, variability was not negligible, and repeated measurements were performed.

*Ranking*: To summarize the results obtained for all measured eyes, a procedure that was named Ranking was performed. It consisted of 1) sorting the patterns, according to their corresponding metric values, for each eye; 2) scoring them in ascending order, from the most to the least similar to the reference, i.e., from the smallest to the greatest value obtained for the metric (from 0, for the reference, to the maximum number of different patterns: 9 for the human eyes and 15 for the artificial eyes); 3) add up the scores for each pattern across eyes. Since this procedure was based on the metrics, and therefore used the reference, the conclusions obtained were relative to the reference.

#### 5.3.4.3.- *Statistical analysis*

A statistical analysis was also performed. It involved the application of 1) a HCA represented by a dendrogram plot (tree diagram shown to illustrate the clustering) using average linkage (between groups), and 2) an ANOVA (General Linear Model for repeated measurements, with the sampling patterns as the only factor) to the Zernike coefficients obtained for each pattern, followed by a pair-wise comparison (Student t-test) to determine, in those cases where ANOVA indicated significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ), which patterns were different. The statistical tests were performed using SPSS (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, Illinois).

The aim of the HCA was to group those patterns producing similar Zernike sets, in order to confirm tendencies found in the metrics (i.e., patterns with large metrics values can be considered as “bad”, whereas those with small metrics values can be considered as “good”). Each significant cluster indicated by the dendrogram was framed in order to group patterns yielding the same results. The colour and contour of the frame indicates whether the group was considered as “good” (green solid line), “medium” (amber dashed line) or “bad” (red dotted line) according to the metrics. The algorithm for this test starts considering each case as a separate cluster and then combined these clusters until there was only one left. In each step the two clusters with minimum Euclidean distance between their variables (Zernike coefficients values) were merged. The analysis was performed eye by eye, and also by pooling the data from all eyes (global) to summarize the results.

The ANOVA was computed coefficient by coefficient, with Bonferroni correction (the observed significance level is adjusted to account for the multiple comparisons made), by pooling the data from all the eyes. When probability values were below a threshold of 0.05, i.e., significant differences existed, the pair-wise comparison allowed us to identify those particular sets significantly different, and therefore which

sampling patterns produced significantly different results. Given that the number of artificial eyes measured was smaller than the number of sampling patterns, using an ANOVA on these eyes was not possible. Instead, a Student t-test for paired samples was performed on the three eyes, Zernike coefficient by Zernike coefficient, with Bonferroni correction. In the human eyes, the number of Zernike coefficients significantly different according to the Student t-test relative to total number of possible Zernike coefficients (33 coefficients x 9 alternative patterns) was computed. In addition, those coefficients which were repetitively statistically different across pairs of patterns (statistically different across the greatest number of patterns) were identified. In the case of statistical analysis no references were used, and therefore the results are not relative to any particular sampling pattern.

#### *5.3.4.4.- Numerical Simulations*

Some numerical simulations were performed to extend further the conclusions obtained from experimental data. Simulations were performed as follows. First, a “true” aberration pattern for a simulated eye, which was basically represented by a set of Zernike coefficients (either 37 or 45 terms) was assumed. From these coefficients, a wave aberration function was computed (“true” wave aberration). The simulation then involved sampling the wave aberration. The sampling was performed by computing a sampling pattern (sample location and aperture size) and computing the wave aberration slopes across the sampling aperture. Noise was then introduced into the slope estimates. For this simulation, the noise values estimated from the actual wave aberration measurements described above were used. While the simulation software can include light intensity and centroiding accuracy, for the current simulations it was deemed most important to set the variability of the centroid determinations to experimentally determined values. Once a new set of centroids was computed, for each sample, a

wave aberration was estimated using the standard least-squares estimation procedure used for the actual data, fitting up to either 17 (for the Hex19 and Circ19) or 37 terms. Twenty-five simulated wave aberrations for each simulated condition were calculated, although only the five first sets of Zernike coefficients were used to compute the metrics, in order to reproduce the same conditions as in the measurements.

First, it was verified that the results obtained from the simulations were realistic by using the Zernike coefficients of the real eyes (obtained with the H91 pattern). The aberrations obtained with the sampling patterns used in the measurements of our human eyes as well as with R177 (previously used in the artificial eyes) were sampled, and the corresponding coefficients computed. Finally, the different metrics and ranking were applied to these simulated coefficients, sorting the patterns for each metric across all eyes. The HCA was also applied to these simulated data eye by eye.

Once the simulations were validated in normal (healthy, non surgical) human eyes, they were applied to three different sets of Zernike coefficients corresponding to: 1) A keratoconus eye measured using LRT with H37 as sampling pattern (Barbero et al., 2002b). The main optical feature of these eyes is a larger magnitude of 3<sup>rd</sup> order terms (mainly coma) than in normal eyes. RMS for HOA was 2.362  $\mu\text{m}$  for the original coefficients used to perform the simulation; 2) A post LASIK eye measured using LRT with H37 as sampling pattern (Marcos et al., 2001). These eyes show an increase of SA towards positive values, and a larger amount of coma, after the surgery. RMS for HOA was 2.671  $\mu\text{m}$  for the original coefficients used to perform the simulation; 3) an eye with aberrations higher than 7<sup>th</sup> order. In this case the coefficients up to 7<sup>th</sup> order corresponding to the previous post LASIK eye were used, with additional 0.1 microns on the coefficient  $Z_8^8$ , simulating a post-Radial

Keratotomy (RK) eye. RMS for HOA was  $2.67 \mu\text{m}$  for the original coefficients used to perform the simulation.

## 5.4.- RESULTS

### 5.4.1.- ARTIFICIAL EYES

#### 5.4.1.1.- Wave Aberrations

Figure 5.2 shows the wave aberration (W.A. map), and the difference (Diff. map) maps (subtraction of the reference map from the corresponding aberration map) for third and higher order corresponding to the sixteen patterns used to measure the artificial eye A3. The wave aberration map at the top right corner is that obtained using the pattern H91, used as the reference. On the left of this map, the corresponding RMS is indicated. The contour lines are plotted every  $0.5 \mu\text{m}$  for the wave aberration maps, and  $0.1 \mu\text{m}$  for the difference maps. Positive and negative values in the map indicate that the wavefront is advanced or delayed, respectively, with respect to the reference. The value below each map is the corresponding RMS.

Qualitatively, the wave aberration maps are similar among patterns, except for those corresponding to the patterns with the fewest samples (H19, C19 and R21). Spherical aberration was predominant in these undersampled patterns, which fail to capture higher order defects. These differences among patterns are more noticeable in the difference maps, which reveal the highest values for the patterns with the fewest samples, followed by L49, J49 and C37. The RMS\_Diff values for these six patterns were larger than for the other patterns.

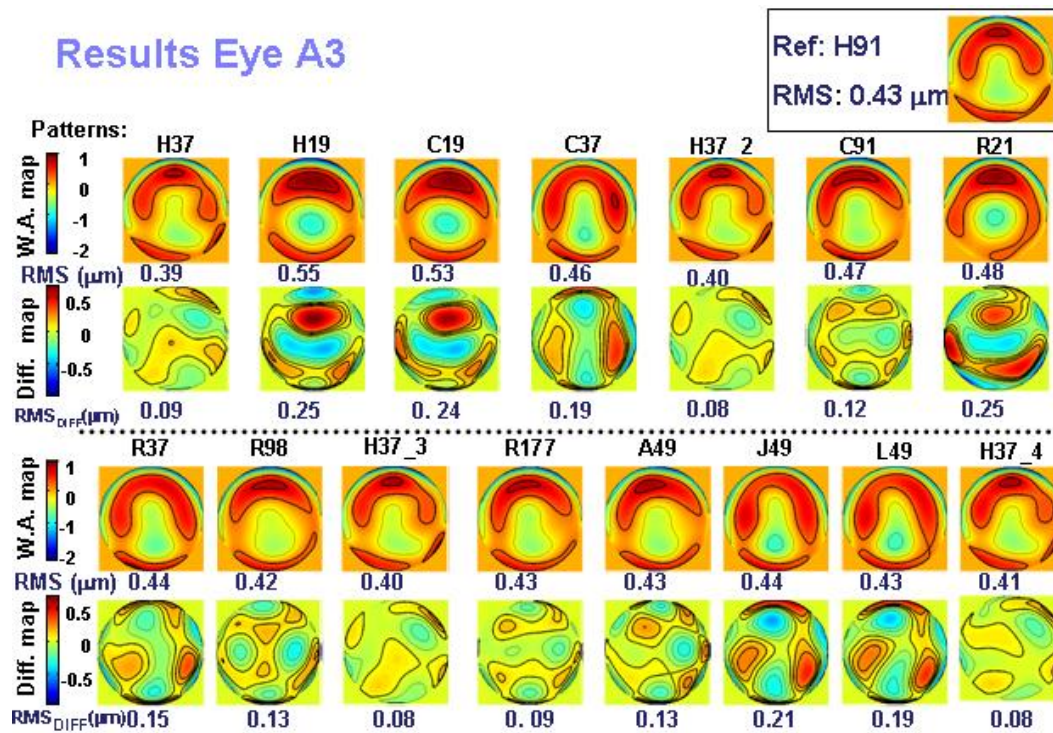


Figure 5.2. Wave aberration maps for 3<sup>rd</sup> and higher Zernike order, and corresponding difference maps (after subtracting the reference) obtained using the different sampling patterns for the artificial eye A3. Contour lines are plotted every 0.5 microns and 0.1 microns, respectively. Maps are sorted in the order used during the measurement. Thicker contour lines indicate positive values. Corresponding RMSs are indicated below each map. The number after H37\_ indicates four different repetitions throughout the measurement. The wave aberration map corresponding to the reference (H91) is plot on the top right corner, with its corresponding RMS on the left of the map.

#### 5.4.1.2.- Difference Metrics

RMS\_Diff ranged from 0.06 to 0.46  $\mu\text{m}$  ( $0.15 \pm 0.05 \mu\text{m}$ ) across eyes and patterns. The values obtained for the threshold, averaged across measurements were  $0.07 \pm 0.01 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $0.09 \pm 0.08 \mu\text{m}$ , and  $0.05 \pm 0.01 \mu\text{m}$  for eyes A1, A2 and A3, respectively ( $0.07 \pm 0.03 \mu\text{m}$  averaged across the three eyes).

Figure 5.3 A, B and C show the values for the metric RMS\_Diff obtained for each pattern, for artificial eyes A1, A2 and A3, respectively. Within each eye, patterns are sorted by RMS\_Diff value in ascending order (from most to least similarity to the reference). The thick horizontal line in each graph represents the threshold for the corresponding eye, indicating that differences below this threshold can be attributed to variability in the measurement. The results of eyes A1 and A3 for RMS\_Diff are similar: the



values for all the patterns are above the corresponding threshold, and the worst patterns (largest value of the metric) are those with the smallest number of samples (H19, C19 and R21), as expected. H37 patterns, R177, A49 and C91 were the best patterns for these eyes. In the case of A2, the values of some of the patterns (H37, H37\_2, C37, and H19) were below the threshold, indicating that the differences were negligible. The ordering of the patterns for this eye was also different, with H19 and C19 obtaining better results (4<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> positions out of 15, respectively) than for the other eyes.

When comparing the outcomes for all three eyes, the following consistent trends were found: C91 gave better results than R98, and A49 was better than L49, and J49. For patterns with 37 samples, H patterns were found to give better results than the R patterns.

#### 5.4.1.3.- *Statistical Tests*

A HCA was performed for A1, A2 and A3, and plotted the resulting dendrogram in Figure 5.3 D, E and F, respectively, below the RMS\_Diff plot corresponding to each eye. The groups of patterns obtained in the dendrogram for each eye was consistent with the RMS\_Diff plot. C37, R37 and R21 differ for A1 and A3. For A2 (with only defocus and SA), H19 and C19 provide similar results to a denser pattern, as found with RMS\_Diff. For the t-test, significant differences were found only for coefficient  $Z_5^5$ , between the patterns R177 and H37.

Summarizing, for these eyes, the worst patterns, according to RMS\_Diff metric, were H19, C19 and R21 (least samples), and H37, R177, A49 and C91 were the best. For A2, with only defocus and SA, R21, J49 and L49 were the worst patterns, although the differences with the other patterns were small. The grouping obtained from the metrics was in agreement with the groups formed by the HCA, which does not depend on the reference. Results from a metric that compares individual Zernike

terms (Student t-test with Bonferroni correction) showed very few significant differences.

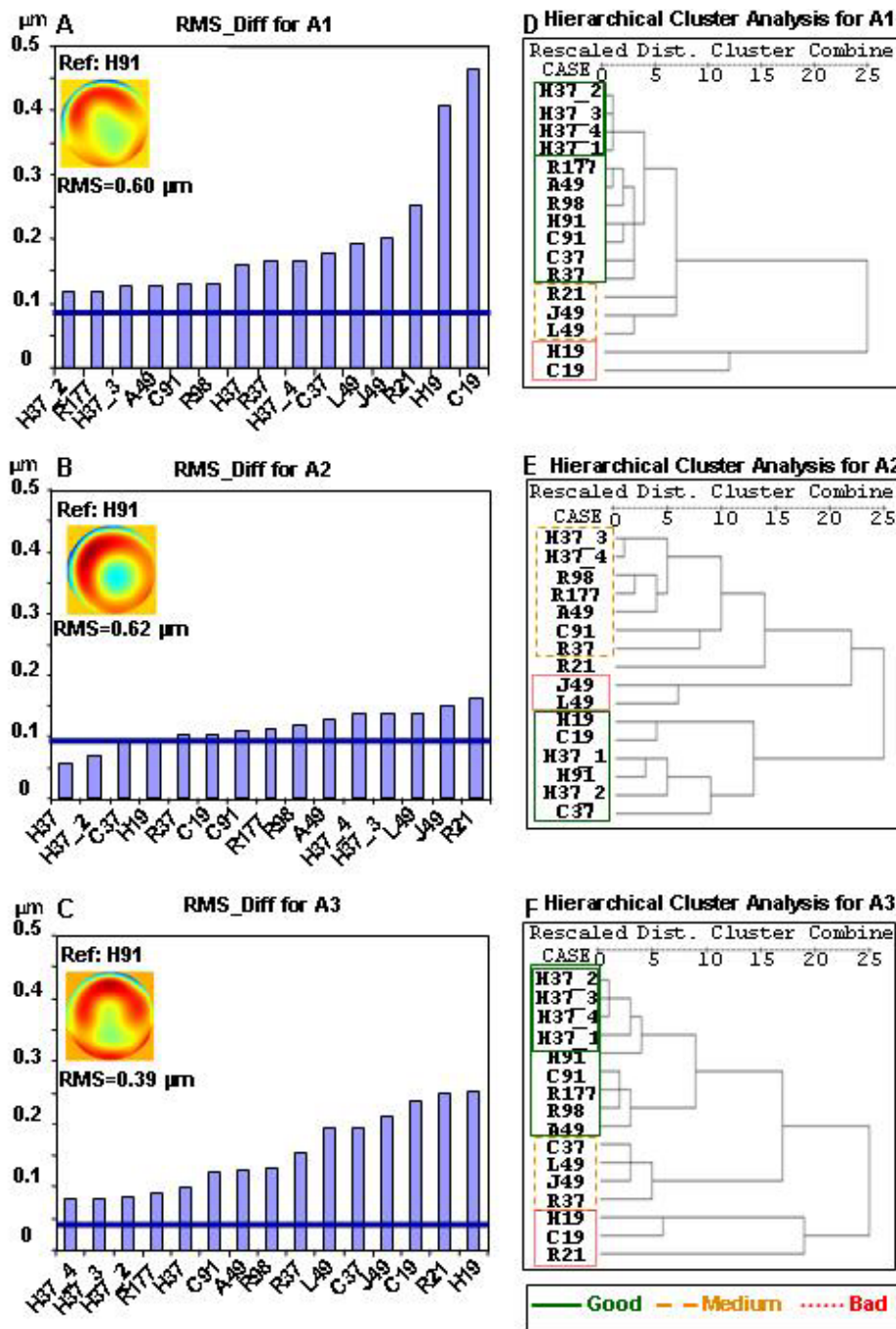


Figure 5.3. RMS\_Diff values corresponding to each pattern for the artificial eyes A1 (A), A2 (B) and A3 (C). Greater values indicate more differences with the reference. The horizontal line represents the threshold for to each eye. Values below this threshold indicate that the differences are due to variability in the measurement and not differences between patterns. Wave aberration maps corresponding to each eye, obtained with pattern H91, are shown in the upper left corner with the corresponding RMS value. D, E and F are dendrograms from the HCA for the same eyes. The less distance (Dist) between patterns, the more similar they are.

## 5.4.2.- HUMAN EYES

### 5.4.2.1.- Wave Aberrations

Figure 5.4 shows in the first row HOA maps (W.A.map), and corresponding RMS, for each sampling pattern, for human eye R12. The contour lines are plotted every 0.3  $\mu\text{m}$ . The map on the top right corner is that corresponding to the reference pattern, H91. Each map is obtained from an average of four (H19) to five measurements. Qualitatively, the aberration maps are quite similar across patterns, although those with fewer samples (H19 and C19) appear less detailed than the others, as expected.

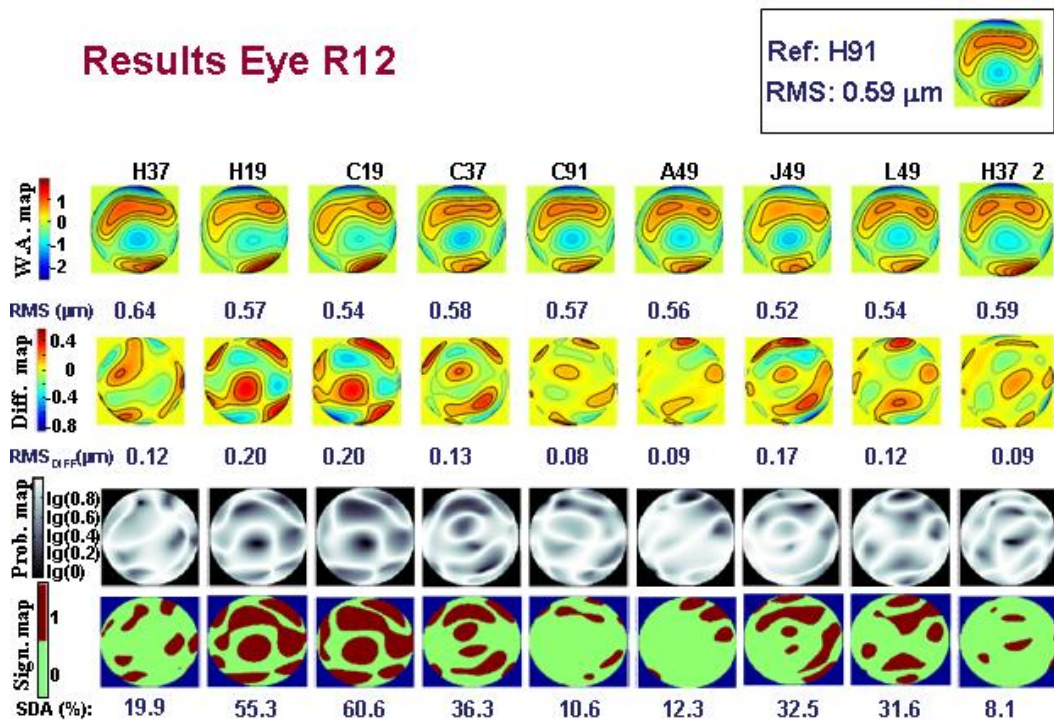


Figure 5.4. Results obtained for the human eye R12, using the different sampling patterns. First row: wave aberration maps for HOA. Second row: corresponding difference maps (after subtracting the reference). Contour lines are plotted every 0.3 microns, and 0.15 microns for the wave aberration maps and the difference maps, respectively. Maps are sorted in the order used during the measurement. Thicker contour lines indicate positive values. RMSs for wave aberration and difference maps are indicated below each map. Third row: Probability maps, representing the probability values obtained, point by point, when comparing the wave aberration height values obtained using the reference pattern, and those corresponding to the assessed pattern. Fourth row: Regions of the pupil where the significance values were above 0.05 (significantly different areas). The number below each map indicates the corresponding value of the metric W%, i.e., the percentage of the pupil significantly different between the pattern and the reference. The reference wave aberration map and its corresponding RMS are located on the top right corner.

#### 5.4.2.2.- *Difference Metrics*

Difference maps (Diff.map), obtained by subtracting the reference map from the map corresponding to each pattern, are plotted in the second row of Figure 5.4, with the corresponding RMS (RMS\_Diff) indicated below each map. RMS\_Diff ranged from 0.04 to 0.38  $\mu\text{m}$  ( $0.13\pm 0.06\mu\text{m}$ ) across eyes and patterns. The value of the threshold for the eye in Figure 5.4 (R12) was 0.15  $\mu\text{m}$ . Therefore, in principle, only J49, H19, and C19, with values over the threshold, are considered different from the reference. The most similar patterns were H91, A49 and H37\_2. The mean threshold value obtained for all our human eyes (mean RMS\_Diff for measurements obtained with H37) was  $0.11\pm 0.04 \mu\text{m}$ , an order of magnitude larger than the std of the RMS for the two sets of five repeated measurements using H37, which was  $0.05\pm 0.03 \mu\text{m}$ . This indicates that std (RMS) is less sensitive to differences between wave aberrations than RMS\_Diff.

The third row shows maps (Prob.map) representing the value of significance obtained point by point when computing W% metric. The darker areas indicate a higher probability of a difference. The maps on the fourth row (Sign.map) indicate those points for which the significance value is below the threshold ( $<0.05$ ), i.e., those points that are significantly different from the reference. The number below each map indicates the corresponding value of the W% metric. W% ranged from 0.7 to 80% ( $29\pm 13\%$ ) across eyes and patterns. A threshold was also computed for this metric, using the two sets of measurements with H37 obtained in each session. For the eye of the example (R12), a value for the threshold of 20.6% was obtained. This implies that differences in patterns other than L49, J49, C37, H19, and C19 (with values for W% above the threshold) can be attributed to the variability of the experiment. The patterns that differ most from the reference, according to this metric are C19, H19, C37 and

J49. Although H37\_2, C91 and A49 are the most similar patterns to the reference, the differences are not significant, according to the threshold.

Figure 5.5 A and B show the results obtained for the metrics RMS\_Diff and W%, respectively, after Ranking across all the human eyes. The scale for the y axis indicates the value that each pattern was assigned in the Ranking. This means that the “best” possible score for the ordinate (y) would be 12 (for a pattern that was the most similar to the reference for each of the twelve eyes). Similarly, for a pattern being the least similar to the reference for each of the twelve eyes, the ordinate value would be 120 (12 eyes\*10 patterns). In both graphs, patterns are sorted from smallest to greatest value of the metric, i.e., from most to least similarity with the reference. The resulting order of the patterns is very similar for both metrics, showing that the worst results are obtained for the 19-sample patterns. The best results are obtained for H91, A49, L49 and H37. The H patterns were found to provide in general better results than C patterns (for thirty seven and nineteen samples), in the Ranking for both metrics. Among the forty nine samples patterns, J49 produced the worst results.

## Human eyes

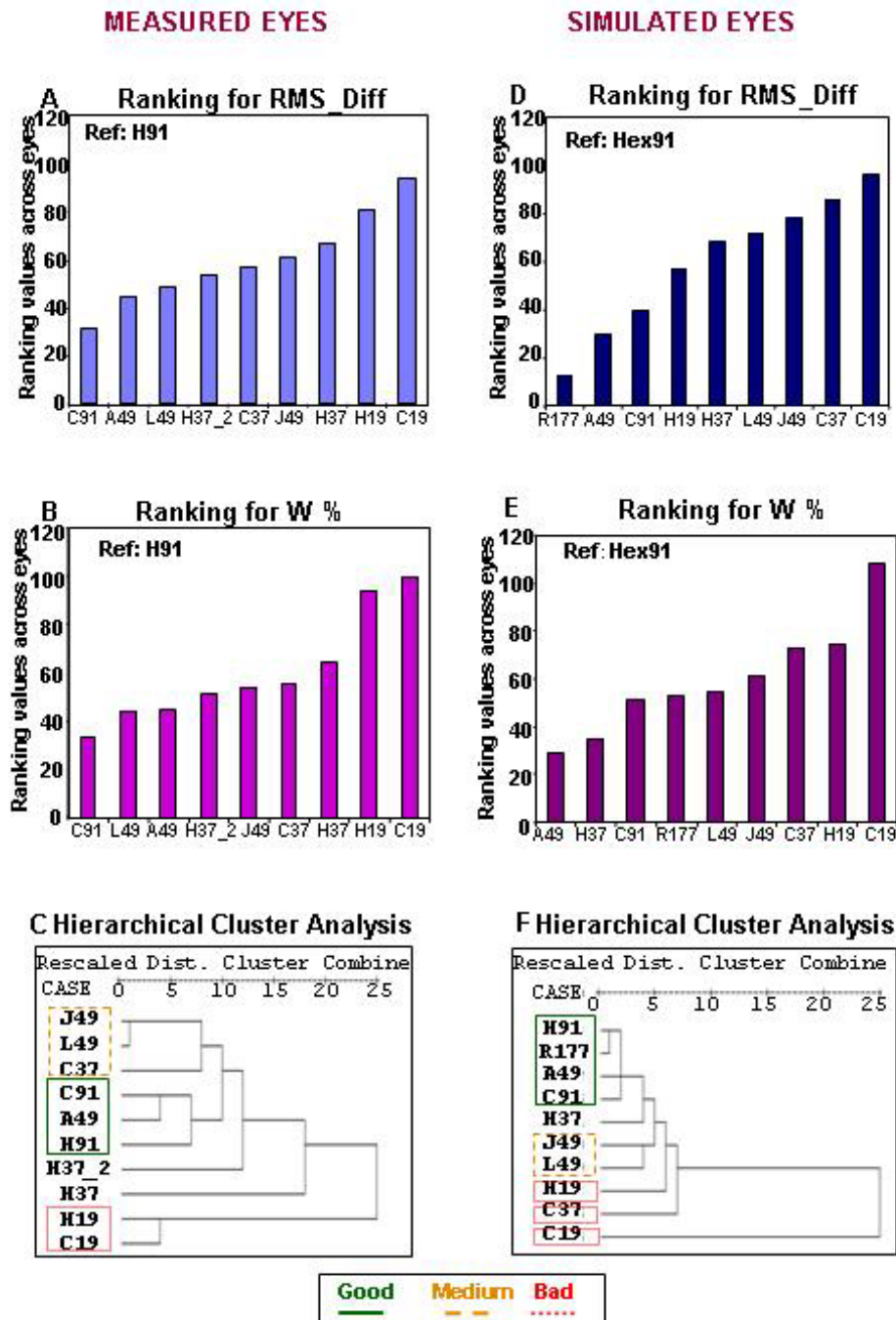


Figure 5.5. Ranking values for RMS\_Diff (A and D) and W% (B and E) corresponding to each sampling pattern across the measured and simulated human eyes, respectively, and dendrograms from the HCA for the measured (C) and simulated (F) human eyes. Solid green, dashed amber and red dotted lines indicate "good", "medium" and "bad" clusters, according to the classification obtained from the metrics. "Dist." stands for "Distance".

### 5.4.2.3.- Statistical Tests

The HCA was applied to the human eye data. While the test was performed eye by eye (i.e., one dendrogram per eye was obtained), a summary dendrogram obtained by pooling the data of all the eyes in the analysis (global) is shown in Figure 5.5 C is. This plot is representative of the plots corresponding to the individual eyes. The sampling patterns are distributed in three clusters: C91-A49-H91, J49-L49-C37 and H19-C19, which can be considered as “good”, “medium” and “bad”, respectively. Although this is the trend across eyes, some individual eyes yielded different results, as shown in Figure 5.6. H37 and H37\_2 did not form a specific cluster in the global dendrogram, and did not follow a specific trend across the eyes, so they were not included in the table. The most different eyes were #6, 7 and 8 (#7 and 8 belong to the same subject), for which the cluster H19-C19 gets separated out. The least reproducible cluster across eyes was C91-A49-H91.

Comparison between GLOBAL and EYE BY EYE HIERARCHICAL CLUSTER ANALYSIS												
E Y E:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
J49	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓
L49	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓
C37	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗
C91	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓
A49	○	✓	○	○	○	○	✗	✓	✓	✗	✗	○
H91	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓
H19	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓
C19	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓

— Good	- - Medium	..... Bad
✓ Match	○ Alb49 in Medium	✗ Mismatch

Figure 5.6. Comparison of the classification yielded by the global HCA on the 12 human eyes with the classifications yielded by eye by eye HCA for these eyes. The tick mark indicates that the pattern obtained for the corresponding eye belongs to the same cluster indicated by the global analysis), whereas the cross mark means there is no matching between the results of both HCA for that eye. The circle indicates that A49 was grouped with J49 and L49.

The patterns showing more differences according to the t-test were C19 (4.7%) and H19 (6.4%), and those showing less differences were H37, H91, C37 and C91 (1.01% each). Differences were found only for the following coefficients:  $Z^{-3}_7$  (2.20%),  $Z^{-1}_7$  (3.30%),  $Z^{-1}_5$  (4.40%),  $Z^0_4$  (5.50%),  $Z^0_2$  (12.09%), and  $Z^0_6$  (13.19%).

To summarize, similar results were obtained using both metrics comparing the shape of the wave aberrations (which depends on our reference) in consistency with the cluster analysis (which does not depend on the reference): C91, A49 and H37 were the best patterns and C19, L49 and H37\_2 the worst. However, the differences were of the order of the variability in most cases. When computing the percentage of differing patterns, those showing most differences were C19 and H19, whereas H37, H91, C37 and C91 showed the least differences. Regarding Zernike coefficients, only a few coefficients were significantly different:  $Z^{-3}_7$ ,  $Z^{-1}_7$ ,  $Z^{-1}_5$ ,  $Z^0_4$ ,  $Z^0_2$ , and  $Z^0_6$ .

#### 5.4.3.- NUMERICAL SIMULATIONS

Figure 5.5 D and E show the Ranking plot for RMS\_Diff and for W%, respectively, and Figure 5.5 F shows the dendrogram corresponding to the global HCA (i.e. including all the eyes) for the simulated human eyes. The results of the global HCA are presented, similar to the experimental data, as a summary of the results for each of the twelve simulated eyes. Similar trends to the measured human eyes are seen, with the main clusters repeating, although individual pairings changed. As with the measured human eyes, shown in Figure 5.5 C, H91, C91 and A49 are in the “good” group, J49 and L49 belong to the “medium” group, and H37, H19 and C19, although not clearly within any group, appear in borderline positions. The pattern R177 was included in the “good” group.

Figure 5.7 shows the results obtained for the three simulated pathological/surgical eyes, for RMS\_Diff (A, B and C), for W% (D, E and



F), and for the HCA (G, H, and I). The results were repetitive across the three eyes, with R177, H37 and A49 resulting as the best patterns, and C19 as the worst, for both RMS\_Diff and W%. The values for RMS\_Diff for the keratoconic eye were smaller (the three first patterns were not above the threshold for RMS\_Diff) compared to the other two eyes, i.e., differences with the reference pattern were smaller. The fact that most of the metric values are above the threshold indicates that in these eyes differences are not attributable to variability. The HCA results are similar across the three eyes, with the exception of H19, which for the surgical eyes is close to the “good” patterns group.

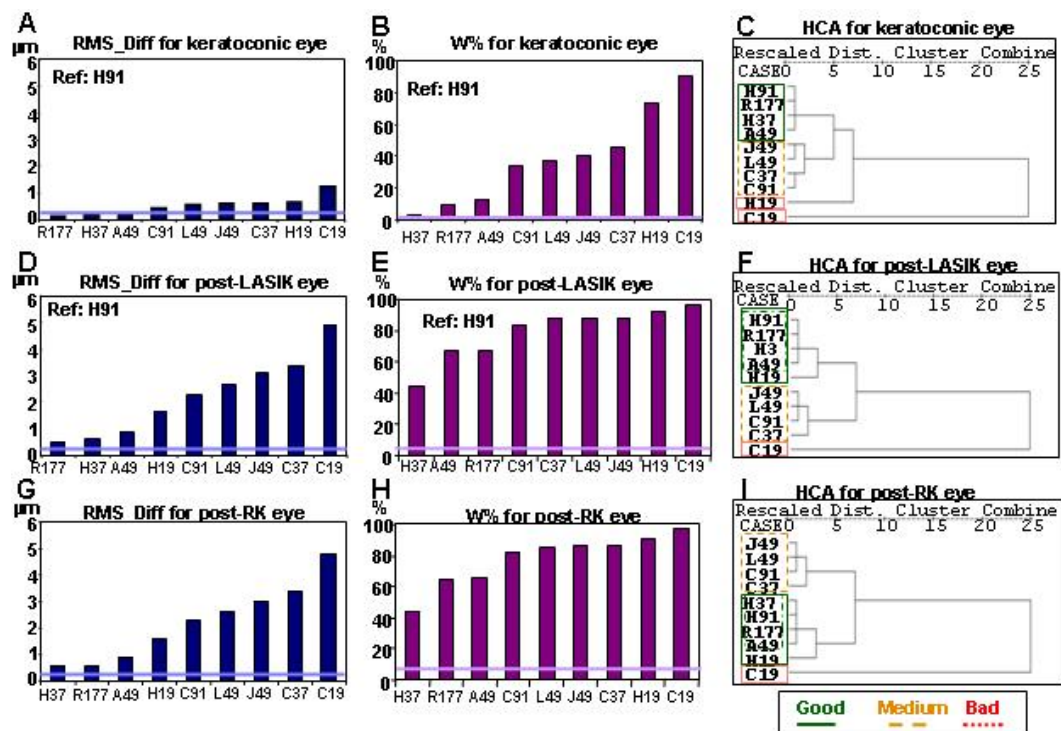


Figure 5.7. Results obtained for the keratoconic (first row: A, B, C), post-LASIK (second row: D, E, F), and post RK (third row: G, H, I) eyes.

The first (A, D, G) and second columns (B, E, H) show the results for the metrics RMS\_Diff and W%, respectively, corresponding to each pattern. The thicker horizontal line represents the threshold corresponding to each eye for the corresponding metric. Values of the metric below this threshold indicate that the differences are due to variability in the measurement and not differences between patterns. The third column (C, F, I) shows the dendrograms corresponding to the hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA) for the keratoconic, post-LASIK and post-RK eyes. “Dist.” stands for “Distance”. The less distance between patterns, the more similarity exists. Solid, dashed and dotted lines indicate “good”, “medium” and “bad” clusters, according to the classification obtained from the metrics.

## 5.5.- DISCUSSION

### 5.5.1.- ARTIFICIAL AND HUMAN EYES

Artificial eyes are a good starting point to study experimentally differences in the sampling patterns for wavefront sensing because they have fewer sources of variability (only those attributable to the measurement system, such as thermal noise in the CCD, photon noise, etc.) than real human eyes (including also variability due to the subject such as eye movements or microfluctuations of accommodation). The centroiding noise was estimated by computing the std of the coordinates of the centroids for each sample across different repetitions for pattern H37. The mean error averaged between x and y coordinates was 0.09 mrad for artificial eyes (37 samples and three eyes) and 0.34 mrad for human eyes (37 samples and twelve eyes). RMS\_Diff seems to be a good metric for artificial eyes, since it provides quantitative differences between the patterns. However, it would be desirable to rely on an objective independent reference for the computation of this metric, such as an interferogram. The differences in the ordering observed with eye A2 (with no higher terms than SA), where patterns with less samples gave slightly better results than for the other eyes, supports the idea that the wave aberrations present in each particular eye affect the optimum pattern, as would be expected from sampling theory. This finding was fundamental in previous theoretical work (Diaz-Santana et al., 2005, Soloviev and Vdovin, 2005), where the statistics of the aberrations to be measured is an input of the analytical models. The different sorting orders for repeated measures of the same pattern (H37, H37\_2, H37\_3, and H37\_4) indicate that the differences of this magnitude are not significant. However, the sorting of the different patterns is consistent across metrics and statistics for each eye. To evaluate if sample density affects variability, the std of

RMS\_Diff across eyes was computed for each pattern, and then the patterns were sorted in descending order, according to their corresponding variability. The worst patterns (C37, H19, C19, R21) also showed a larger variability, indicating that they were less accurate when sampling the aberrations pattern, in agreement with Diaz-Santana et al. (2005).

Conclusions based on the artificial eyes have the advantage of avoiding biological variability, but are restricted because they have very different aberration structures than human eyes. In our human eyes, the RMS\_Diff metric allowed us to sort the patterns systematically, and the values of the metric obtained for human and artificial eyes were of the same order. The W% metric was consistent with RMS\_Diff, and more sensitive. The Ranking procedure was successful at summarizing information obtained from the metrics, since the metric values are not as important as sorting the patterns within each eye. However, the main drawbacks of this procedure are that it does not provide information on statistical significance (although the results for the same pattern, H37, obtained for different measurements help to establish significant differences), and that the conclusions are relative to our reference, obtained in the same conditions as the assessed patterns, and therefore these rankings might be dependant on the chosen reference. These drawbacks are overcome by the HCA which classifies the patterns into different groups according to the values of the corresponding vectors of Zernike coefficients and therefore distinguishes between patterns yielding different results. It also helps to place the results obtained from the metrics in a more general context. Same as with the artificial eyes, the grouping of the sampling patterns is consistent across metrics. The spatial distribution of the samples is important, given that some patterns with the same number of samples (49) fall into the same group or can even be worse than patterns with a lower number of samples. Similarly, a “good” sampling pattern (A49) is grouped with patterns with a larger number of samples.

However, for the real eyes, the conclusions are weaker than for artificial eyes (only differences in patterns with 19 samples are significant), presumably because biological variability plays a major role, and because they have a discrete number of modes compared to human eyes, where the magnitude of the modes keeps decreasing as the orders increase (see Chapter 1, section 1.2.4.1). Overall, the undersampling patterns C19 and H19 were consistently amongst the most variable patterns, and this was confirmed by the ANOVA for Zernike coefficients. Long term drift was not problematic in these eyes, since final H37 measurements were not more variable than the standard measurements.

Measurement errors in human eyes prevented from finding statistically significant differences between most sampling patterns. However, stds of repeated measurements of this study were less or equal to other studies. The mean variability across patterns and eyes for our human eyes was  $0.02 \mu\text{m}$  (average std across runs of the Zernike coefficient, excluding tilts and piston) for Zernike coefficients. This value is smaller than those obtained by Moreno-Barriuso et al. (2001a) on one subject measured with a previous version of the LRT system ( $0.06 \mu\text{m}$ ), with a HS sensor ( $0.07 \mu\text{m}$ ) and a Spatially Resolved Refractometer ( $0.08 \mu\text{m}$ ), and than those obtained by Marcos et al. (2002b), using the same LRT device ( $0.07 \mu\text{m}$  for 60 eyes), and a different HS sensor ( $0.04 \mu\text{m}$  for 11 eyes). A similar value ( $0.02 \mu\text{m}$ ) is obtained when computing the average of the std of the Zernike coefficients (excluding piston and tilts) corresponding to the eye reported by Davies et al. (2003) using HS. The negligible contribution of random pupil shifts during the measurements on the wave aberration measurement and sampling pattern analysis was further studied by examining the effective entry pupils obtained from passive eye-tracking analysis. The most variable set of series (according to std of RMS, and std of Zernike coefficients across series), which corresponded to Eyes #1 (H19) and 2 (H37\_2), respectively, was selected. Absolute random pupil shifts across the measurements were less than 0.17

mm for coordinate  $x$  and 0.11 mm for coordinate  $y$ . The mean shift of the pupil from the optical axis (i.e. centration errors, to which both sequential and non-sequential aberrometers can be equally subject) was in general larger than random variations. The estimates of the wave aberrations obtained using the nominal entry pupils were compared to those obtained using the actual pupil coordinates (obtained from passive eye tracking routines). When pupil shifts were accounted for by using actual coordinates, measurement variability remained practically constant both in terms of RMS std (changing from 0.09 when nominal coordinates were used to 0.07  $\mu\text{m}$  when actual coordinates were used and from 0.14 to 0.13  $\mu\text{m}$  for eyes #1 and 2 respectively), and in terms of average Zernike coefficients std (changing from 0.06 when nominal coordinates were used to 0.05  $\mu\text{m}$  when actual coordinates were used and from 0.03 to 0.03  $\mu\text{m}$ , for eyes #1 and 2, respectively). On the other hand, the differences between average RMS using nominal or actual entry locations (0.51  $\mu\text{m}$  vs 0.49  $\mu\text{m}$  for eye #1 and 0.61  $\mu\text{m}$  vs 0.59  $\mu\text{m}$  for eye #2) are negligible. Also, RMS\_Diff values (using the wave aberrations with nominal entry locations as a reference, and wave aberrations with the actual entry locations as a test),  $0.02 \pm 0.01$   $\mu\text{m}$  for eye #1 (mean  $\pm$  std across repeated measurements for the same pattern), and  $0.04 \pm 0.02$   $\mu\text{m}$  for eye #2, are below the threshold for these eyes.

### 5.5.2.- NUMERICAL SIMULATIONS

It has been shown with artificial eyes that sampling patterns with a small number of samples (19) are good at sampling aberration patterns with no higher order terms (eye A2), as expected from sampling theory. When analyzing our ranking results on normal human eyes, remarkable differences were found only in the patterns with a small number of samples. This is due to the presence of higher order aberrations and larger measurement variability in these eyes.

Due to the lack of a “gold standard” measurement, there are some issues that have not been addressed in the experimental part of this work, such as: 1) Does the magnitude of some particular aberrations determine a specific pattern as more suitable than others to sample that particular eye?; 2) Will eyes with aberration terms above the number of samples be properly characterised using the different patterns?; 3) Will measurements in eyes with aberration terms of larger magnitude than normal eyes yield different results?. From the results shown in section 5.3.4.4.- it can be concluded that the simulations provide a good estimate of the performance of the repeated measurements using different sampling schemes in real normal human eyes. Therefore, computer simulations were used as a tool to address these issues.

From the results corresponding to the pathological/surgical eyes, it should be noted that: 1) The pattern H37 is consistently classified as the best pattern apparently because this is the pattern used to perform the original measurement of aberrations from which the wave aberration was computed for the simulations; 2) The variability values used in the simulations were obtained from normal eyes, and they may be smaller than those corresponding to pathological/surgical eyes; 3) The pattern H19 was close to the “good” patterns group for the surgical eyes only, what may be due to the predominance of SA, characteristic of these eyes..

Although the values of the metrics are larger for these pathological/surgical eyes, the conclusions obtained from our real eyes seem applicable to eyes with greater amounts of aberrations: even though patterns with more samples tend to give better results, the spatial distribution of the samples is important. While a large number of samples helps (R177), the correct pattern at lower sampling was more efficient (A49, H91) for eyes dominated by some specific aberrations.

It should be pointed out that the conclusions related to pathological eyes displayed in this section are obtained from simulations, and should

be regarded as a preliminary approximation to the study of sampling pattern in pathological eyes, which should include experimental data.

### 5.5.3.- *COMPARISON TO PREVIOUS LITERATURE*

Díaz-Santana et al.'s analytical model (Díaz-Santana et al., 2005), previously described in the introduction of this chapter, allowed them to test theoretically different sampling patterns using as a metric the RMS introduced in wave aberration measurements by the different geometries. This model uses as an input the second order statistics of the population and hence it is bound to include the interactions reported by McLellan et al. (2006), as long as the population sample and number of Zernike terms are large enough to reflect all possible interactions. This fact also implies that the conclusions of their model are strongly dependent on the characteristics of the population. As an example, they applied their model to a population of 93 healthy non-surgical eyes, with aberration terms up to the 4<sup>th</sup> order, to compare square, hexagonal and polar geometries. They found that, for their population, the sampling density did not influence much RMS error for hexagonal and square grids, whereas lower sampling densities produced a smaller error for polar grids. When comparing grids with different geometries and similar densities they found, in agreement with our results, that the polar geometry was best (in terms of smaller error), followed by the hexagonal grid. Differences in performance between patterns decreased as density increased.

Soloviev et al.'s analytic model (Soloviev and Vdovin, 2005) of Kolmogorov's statistics, indicates that random sampling produces better results than regularly spaced ones. They also reported that aliasing error increases dramatically for regular samplings for fits reconstructing more modes, whereas the associated error of the HS sensor was smaller for irregular masks (with 61 subapertures of 1/11 of the pupil diameter of size), probably because an irregular geometry helps to avoid cross-coupling. Our experimental study supports their conclusion that simply

increasing the number of samples does not necessarily decrease the error of measurement, and that sampling geometry is important.

In the current study, the Zernike modal fitting was used to represent the wave aberration because it is the standard for describing ocular aberrations. Smolek and Klyce (Smolek and Klyce, 2003) questioned the suitability of Zernike modal fitting to represent aberrations in eyes with a high amount of aberrations (keratoconus and post-keratoplasty eyes), reporting that the fit error had influence in the subject's best corrected spectacle visual acuity. Marsack et al. (2006) revisited this question recently concluding that only in cases of severe keratoconus (with a maximum corneal curvature over 60 D), Zernike modal fitting failed to represent visually important aberrations. In the current study this question was not addressed, but our conditions were rather restricted to those more commonly encountered, and for which Zernike modal fitting is expected to be adequate.

#### *5.5.4.- CONCLUSIONS*

From this study we can conclude:

1) Comparison of optical aberrations of healthy non surgical human and artificial eyes measured using different sampling patterns allowed us to examine the adequacy of two spatial metrics, the RMS of difference maps and the wave aberration difference (W%) to compare estimates of aberrations across sampling schemes.

2) For artificial eyes, there is an interaction of the aberrations present and the ability of a given spatial sampling pattern to reliably measure the aberrations. Simply increasing the number of samples was not always as effective as choosing a better sampling pattern.

3) Moderate density sampling patterns based on the zeroes of Albrecht's cubature (A49) or hexagonal sampling performed relatively well.



4) For normal human eyes individual variability in local slope measurements was larger than the sampling effects, except, as expected, for undersampling patterns (H19 and C19). However, in these eyes it has also been found that the spatial distribution of the sampling can be more important than the number of samples: A49 and H37 were a good compromise between accuracy and density.

5) The numerical simulations are a useful tool to *a priori* assess the performance of different sampling patterns when measuring specific aberration patterns, since in general, the results are similar to those found for our measured normal human eyes.

This study should be taken as a first experimental approach to the problem of finding optimal patterns. Future studies on a larger number of eyes and with very different aberration patterns should be carried out in order to find the different patterns more suitable for different groups of population (young eyes or myopic eyes for example) or specific conditions (keratoconic or postsurgical eyes). However, finding a generic pattern that performs relatively well for general population is also necessary for screening and quick characterisation of the aberration pattern. Also, a reference independent of any particular sampling pattern is desirable in order to have a gold standard to compare to, rather than assume the “goodness” of some patterns.

Finally, the implementation of some of the patterns presented in this study in a HS, for example, would not be straight forward. Even if the manufacturers could produce lenslets distributed according to Jacobi, Legendre or Albrecht patterns, there are some issues such as the loss of resolution in those locations where the lenslets are too close (leakage of light from a lenslet into the pixels corresponding to the neighbour lenslet) that should be solved.

