

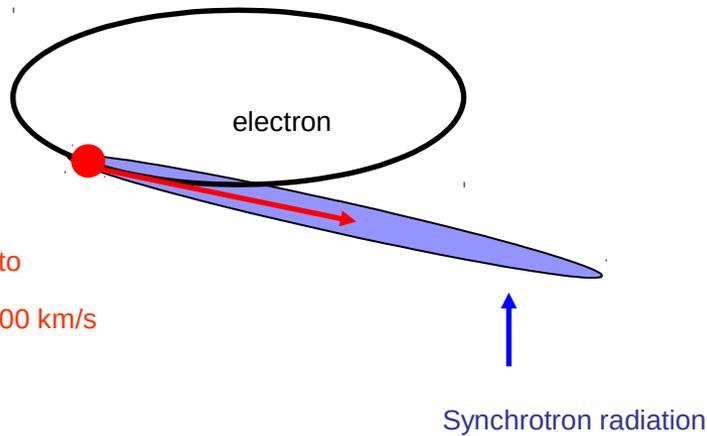
Soft X-ray microscopy with diffractive optics

E. Pereiro

- **Brief description of a synchrotron**
- **X-rays, what for?**
- **Soft X-ray microscopy with diffractive optics**
- **Two common microscopes (TXM & STXM)**
- **Challenges: radiation damage, depth of focus limitation**
- **2 applications with TXM and STXM**



A synchrotron is a piece of equipment that produces synchrotron light.



Synchrotron radiation is a set of electromagnetic waves emitted by charged particles that move within a curved trajectory at velocities close to the speed of light.

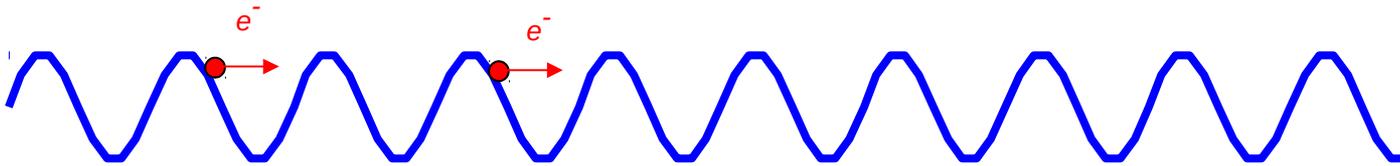
How does it work ?

An **electric field** accelerates an electron and increases its speed.

LINAC

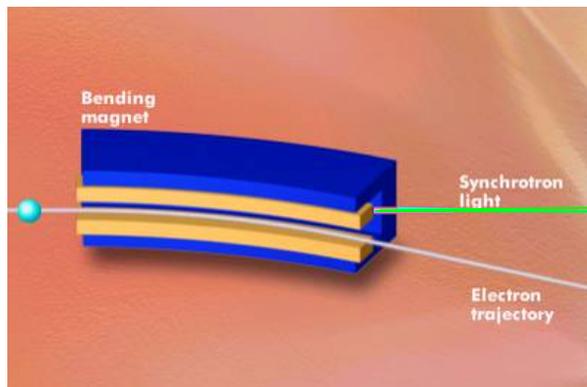
Booster

RF Cavities



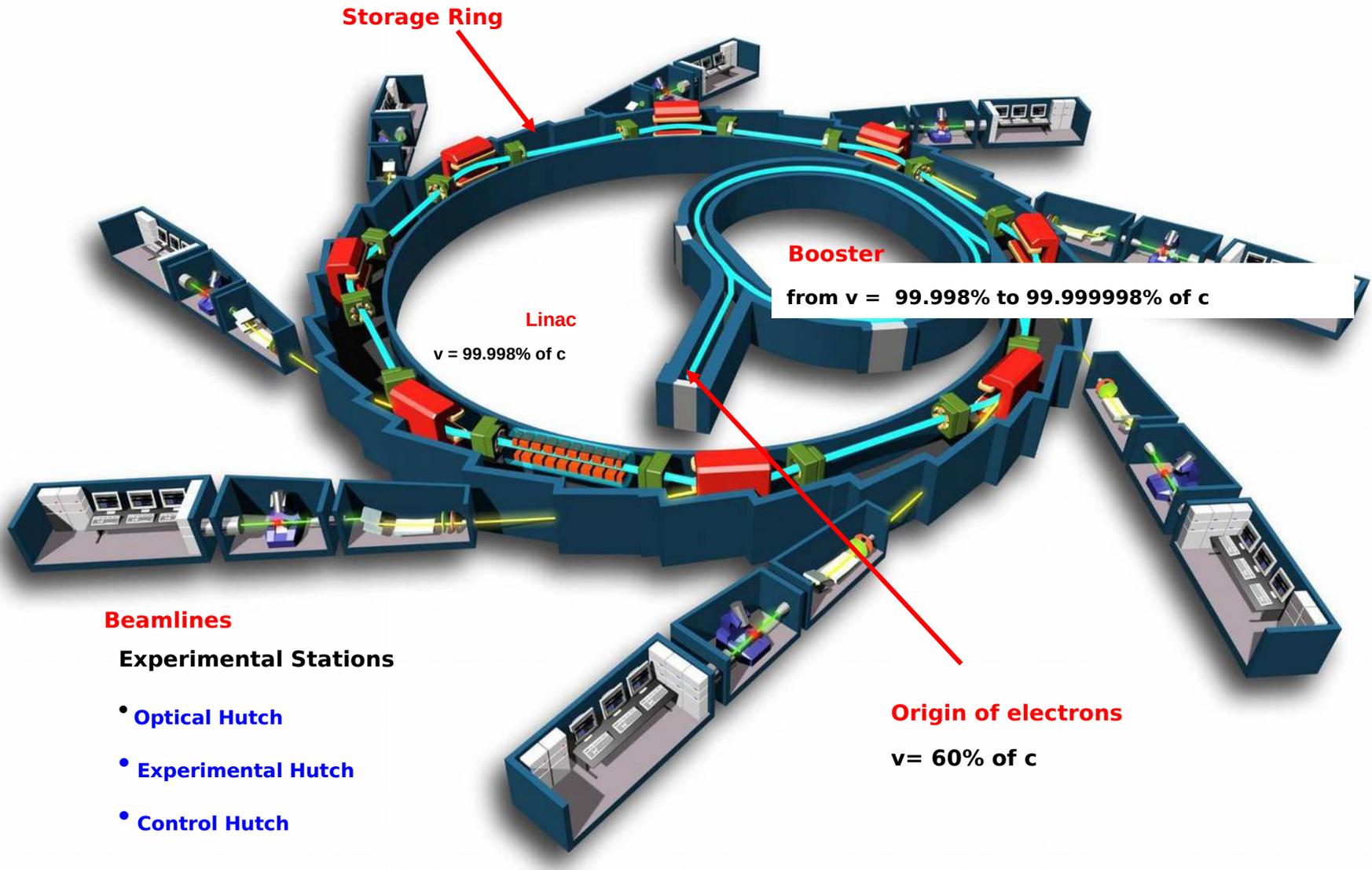
When electrons are deflected through a **magnetic field** they emit synchrotron light.

Bending Magnets



Synchrotron Light:
IR, VL, UV, X-ray etc.

Anatomy of a Synchrotron



Beamlines

Experimental Stations

- Optical Hutch
- Experimental Hutch
- Control Hutch

The Linac is the first of the accelerators that accelerates the e^- up to 100 MeV



v from 60% to 99.998% of c

Booster and Storage Ring



Storage Ring

Booster

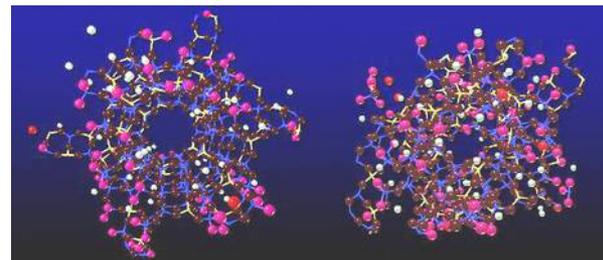
Accelerates the e^- from 100 MeV to 3 GeV

**A SYNCHROTRON IS A TOOL THAT IS USED TO
STUDY THE STRUCTURE OF MATTER**

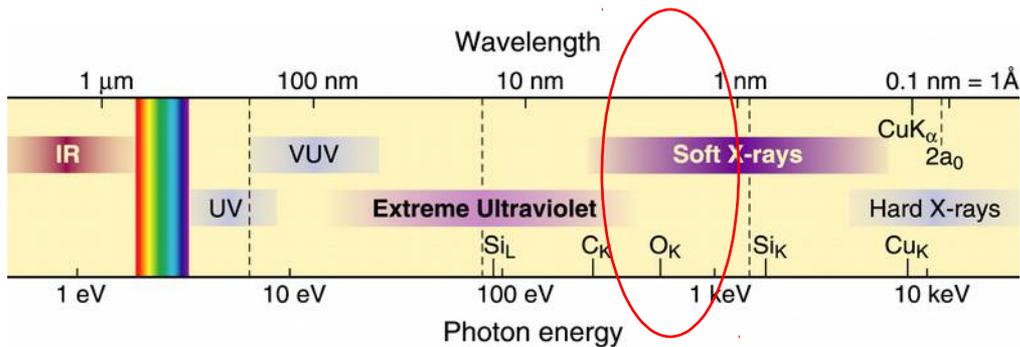
- Atomic
- Molecular
- Nano-, Micro-, Milli-metric

APPLICATIONS

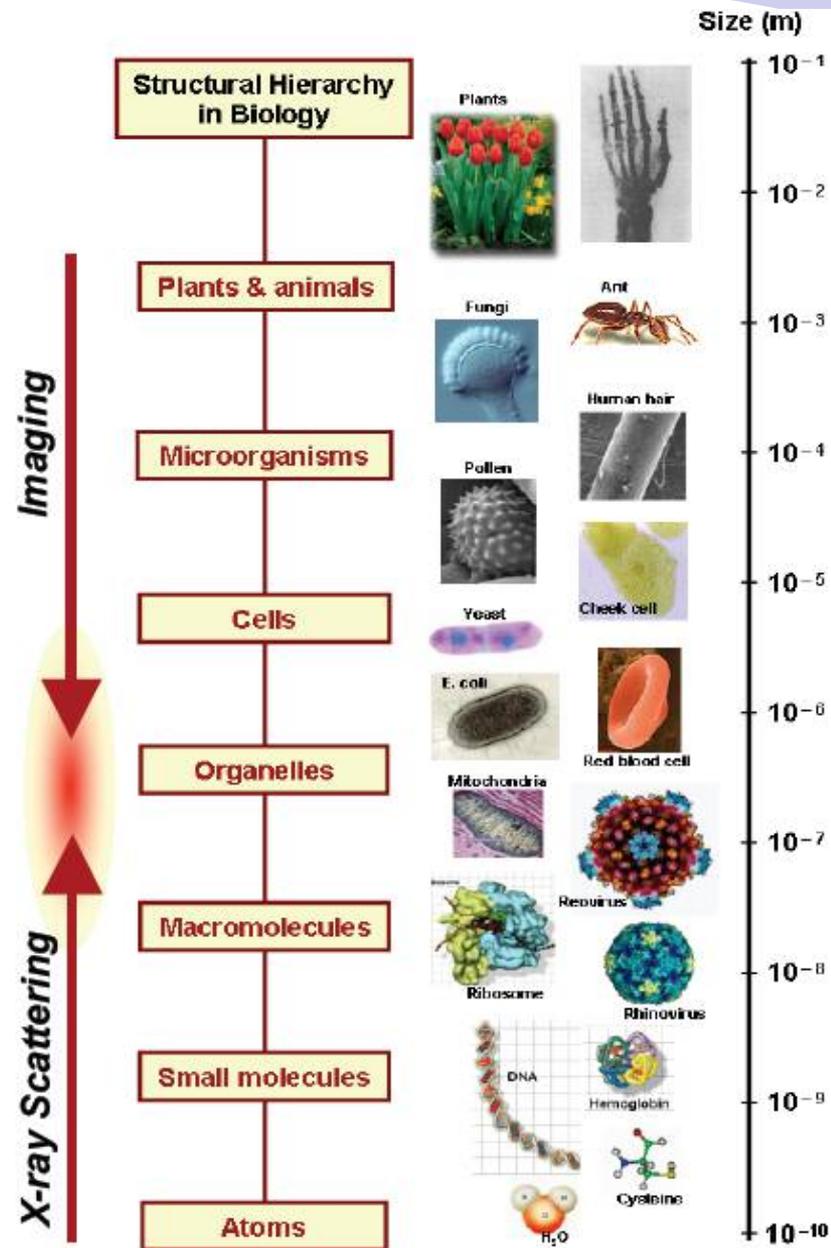
- Chemistry
- Physics
- Biology
- Materials science
- Geology
- Cultural Heritage
- Environment
- Industry
- Medicine



Why imaging with X-rays?

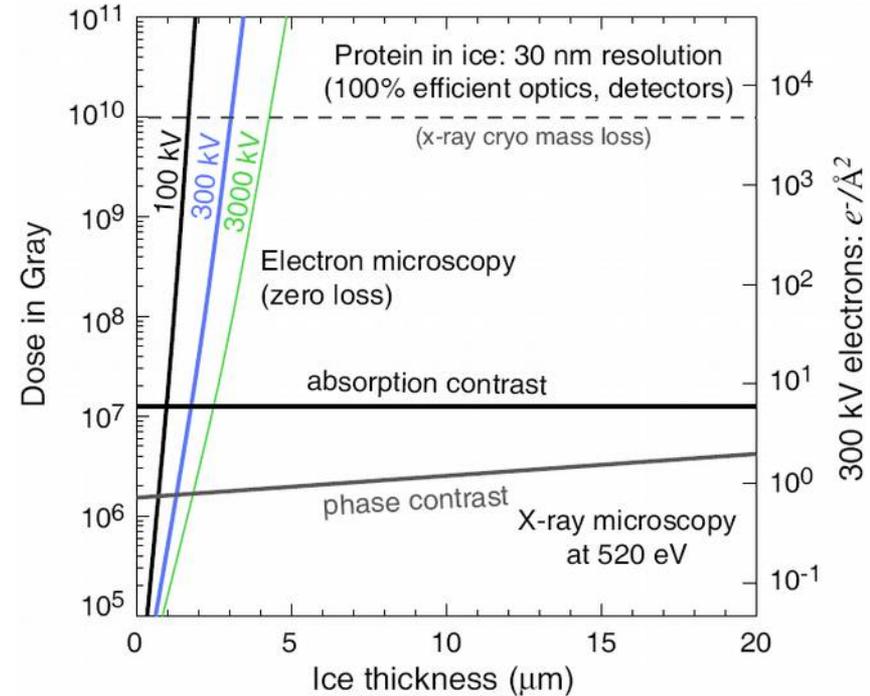
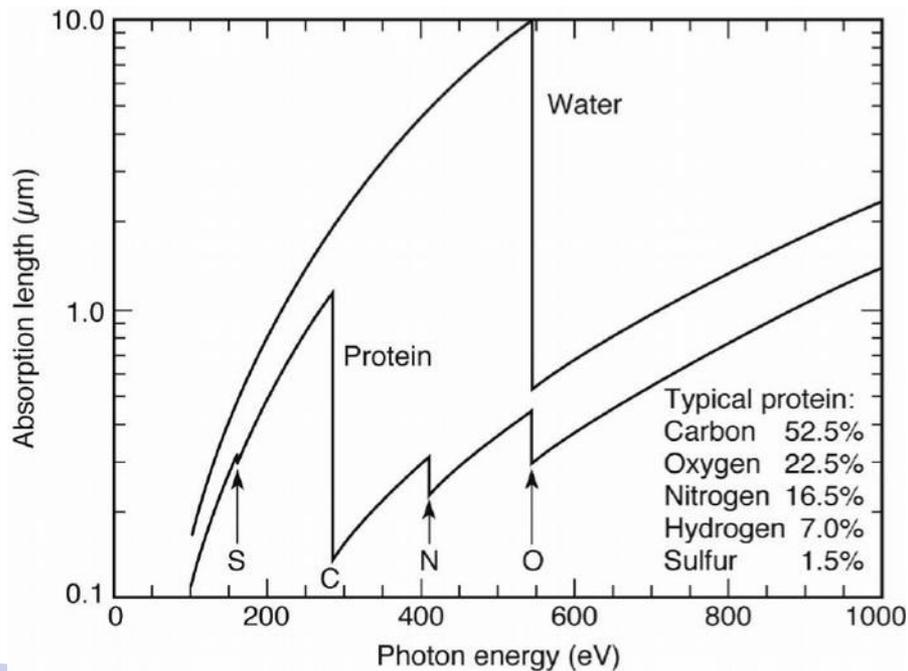


- See small features in “thick” samples (3D)
- Element and chemical sensitivity



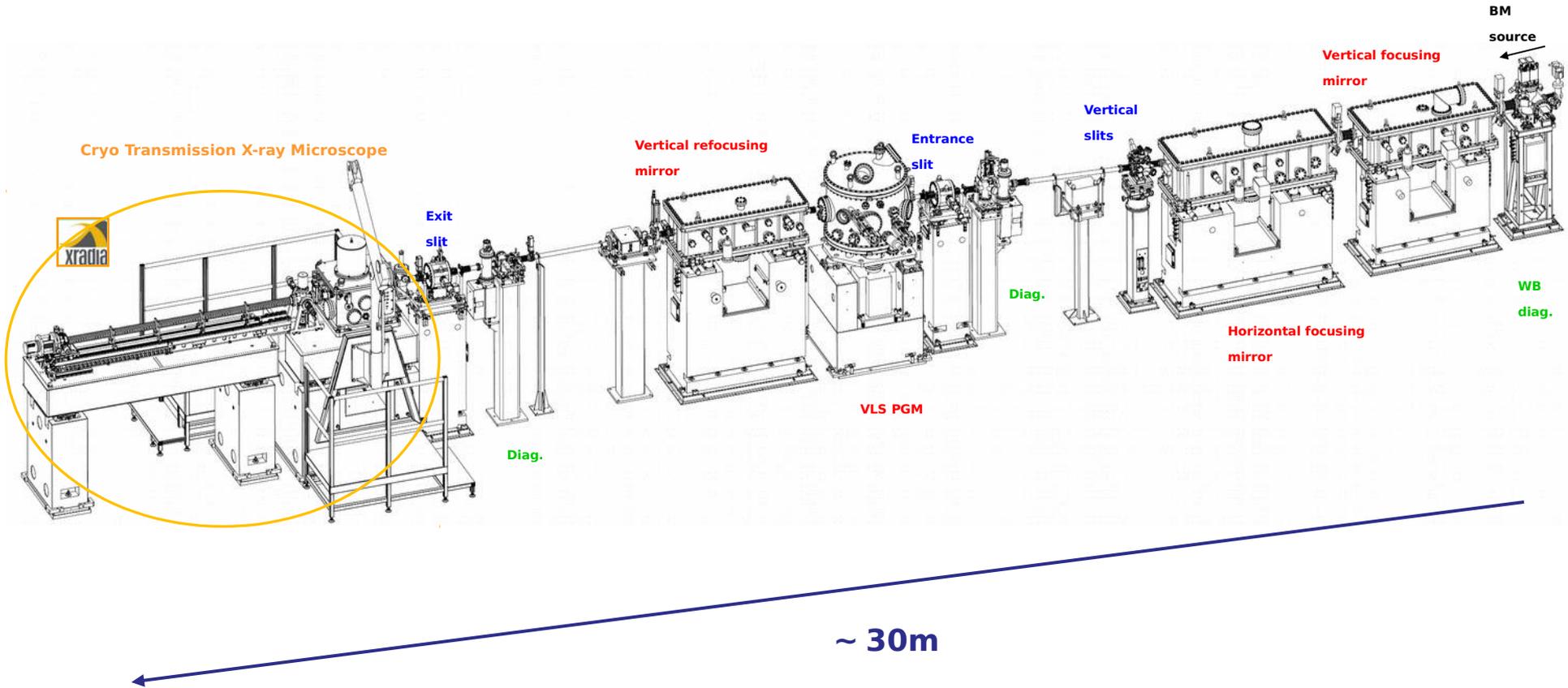
- thick samples
- water window: natural contrast of wet samples
- tomography in statistical numbers
- spectroscopic imaging

★ radiation damage of both electrons & X-rays



**XRM complementary to TEM and
light microscopy**

MISTRAL Beamline @ ALBA



Soft X-ray microscopy with diffractive optics

Ref: **Soft X-rays and Extreme Ultraviolet Radiation. Principles and Applications.**

David Attwood

What for?

- imaging the internal structure of a sample.
- spectroscopic imaging to map chemical states.

Transmission signal through a sample

- absorption contrast
- phase contrast

How to form an image with SXR wavelengths (0.3-5 nm)?

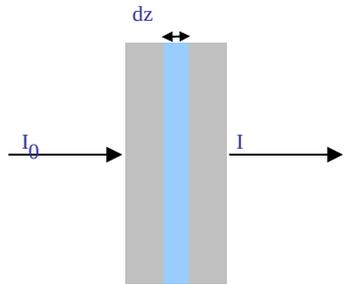
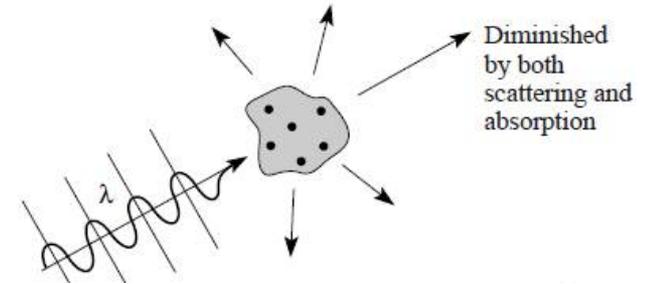
- **Refraction**, as in optical microscopy ($n=1.2-1.5$), is impractical as $n=1-\delta+i\beta$ is too close to unity (refraction is too weak).
- **Glancing incidence total external reflection** with curved optics works but the image resolution is significantly compromised by aberrations.
- **Diffraction** allows forming images at high resolution - tens of nm.

Contrast mechanism: absorption

Basic absorption and emission processes

The total cross section describes the likelihood of interaction between particles (absorption and scattering).

$$\sigma_T = \sigma_{abs} + \sigma_s$$



$$I = I_0 \exp(-\rho\mu z) = I_0 \exp(-n_a \sigma_{abs} z)$$

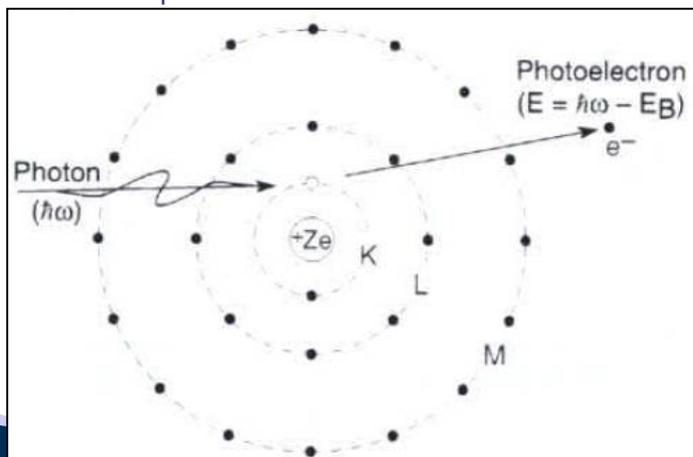
$$\mu = \mu(E, Z)$$

ρ : mass density

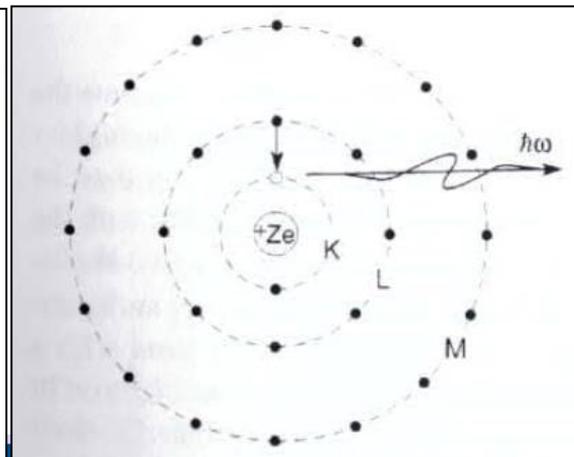
μ : absorption coefficient

n_a : atomic density

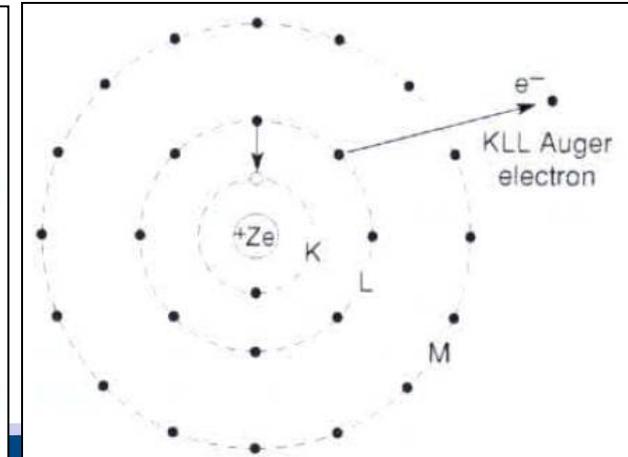
photoionization



fluorescent emission

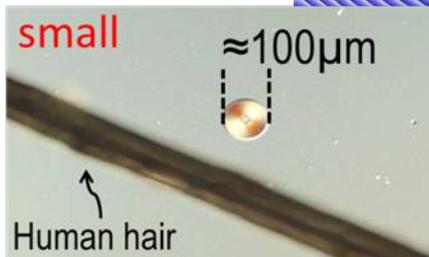
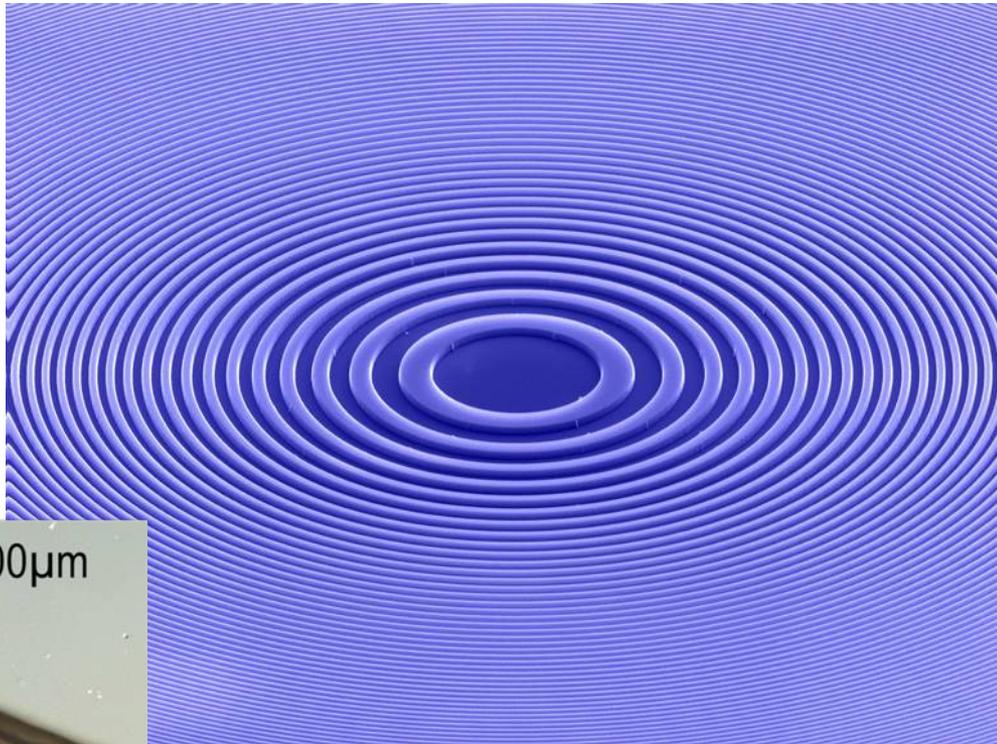


Auger process



Fresnel Zone Plate lens

Soft X-ray microscopy uses diffractive lenses.



DEFINITIONS

Scattering is a process by which incident radiation is redirected over a very wide angular range, generally by disordered systems or rough surfaces.

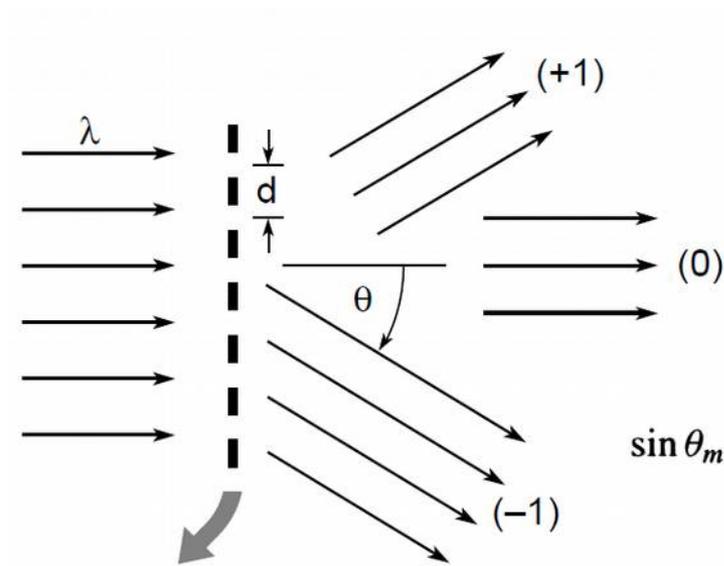
Diffraction is the process by which radiation is redirected into well-defined directions by ordered arrays of scatterers. As the radiation propagates away, it interferes with nearby undiffracted radiation, producing dark and bright bands known as interference patterns.

Example: diffraction of X-rays by a crystal

Transmission grating

Constructive interference occurs at angles where the path length is increased by one λ or $m \lambda$.

The fraction of incident E diffracted into the various orders depends on the nature of the periodic structure.



$$\sin \theta_m = \frac{m\lambda}{d}; \quad m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$$

$$\eta_m = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4} & m = 0 \\ 1/m^2\pi^2 & m \text{ odd} \\ 0 & m \text{ even} \end{cases}$$

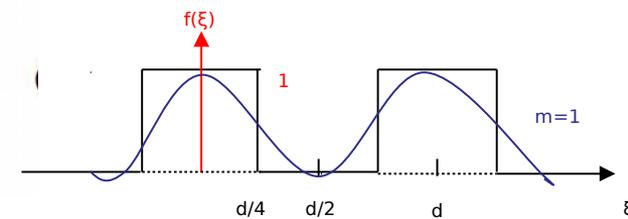
50% absorbed

transmission function:

$$f(\xi) = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} c_m \cos(2\pi m \xi / d)$$

$$c_m = \frac{\sin(m\pi / 2)}{m\pi}$$

$$I_m = I_0 |c_m|^2 = \eta_m I_0$$



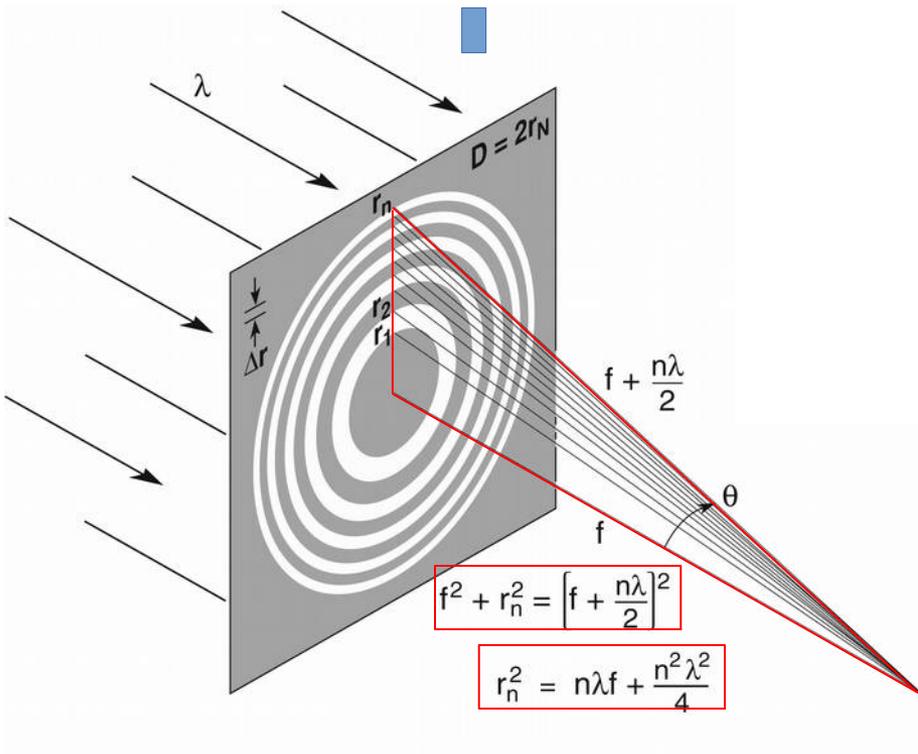
For small structures, diffracted radiation propagates at angles $\theta \sim \lambda/d$.

With repetitive structures, positive interference in certain directions can lead to a very strong redirection of E.

1) FZP can focus radiation

Consider a circular transmission grating with the zonal periods adjusted so that at increasing radius from the optics axis the periods become shorter, thus θ becomes larger allowing for a real focus.

The radial zones are located such that the increased path lengths through sequential transparent zones differ by one λ each and thus add in phase at the image point.



For $f \gg n\lambda/2$, which corresponds to a small NA lens

$$NA = \sin \theta = \frac{\lambda}{2\Delta r} \ll 1$$

the radius of the nth zone is given by:

$$r_n \approx \sqrt{n\lambda f}$$

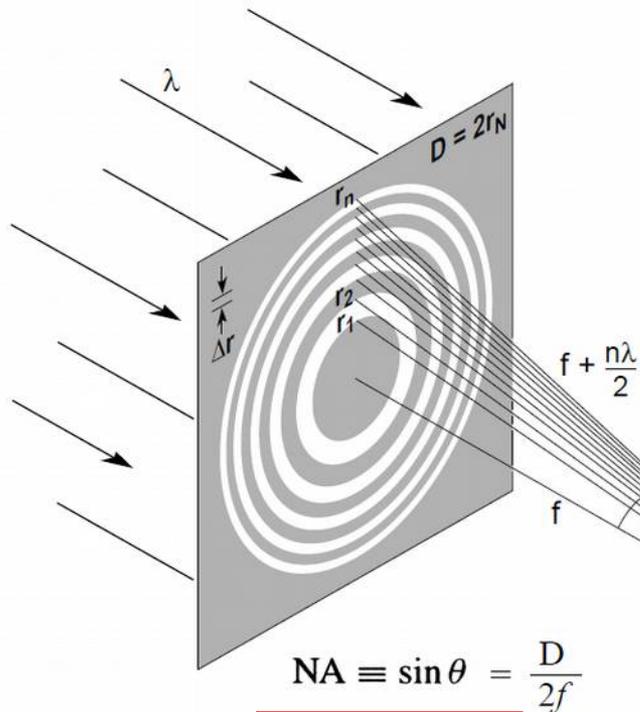
- A real first focus is achieved when successive zones increase in radius by

$$\sqrt{n}$$

- FZP are highly chromatic

Fresnel Zone Plates

Relationships for f and D in terms of λ , Δr and N



$$\text{NA} \equiv \sin \theta = \frac{D}{2f}$$

$$\text{NA} \simeq \frac{\lambda}{2 \Delta r} \quad (9.15)$$

$$F^\# \equiv \frac{f}{D} \simeq \frac{\Delta r}{\lambda} \quad (9.16)$$

Define the outer zone width for $n \rightarrow N$,

$$\Delta r \equiv r_N - r_{N-1} \quad (9.11)$$

$$r_n^2 \simeq n \lambda f$$

$$r_N^2 - r_{N-1}^2 = N \lambda f - (N-1) \lambda f = \lambda f$$

$$r_N^2 - (r_N - \Delta r)^2 = 2r_N \Delta r - (\Delta r)^2 \simeq 2r_N \Delta r$$

$$2r_N \Delta r \simeq \lambda f$$

$$D \Delta r \simeq \lambda f \quad (9.12)$$

$$\text{but } \lambda f = \frac{r_N^2}{N} = \frac{D^2}{4N} \quad (\text{from 9.10})$$

$$\therefore D \Delta r \simeq \frac{D^2}{4N}$$

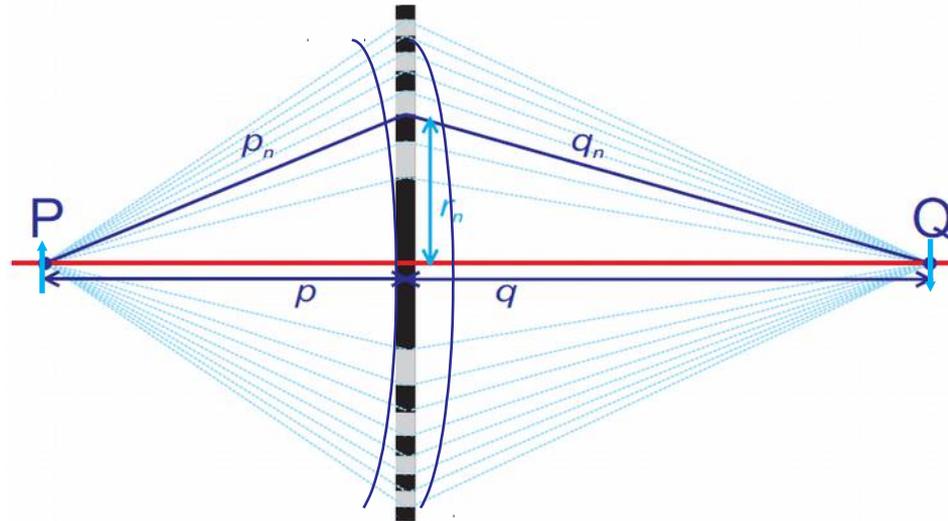
$$D \simeq 4N \Delta r \quad (9.13)$$

and from (9.12) above

$$f \simeq \frac{4N(\Delta r)^2}{\lambda} \quad (9.14)$$

Important relationship for the design of FZP showing that f scales directly with N , with the square of the outer zone width (which sets the resolution) and inversely to λ , introducing a strong chromatic effect.

2) FZP can form a real image



Successive zones, alternately transmissive and opaque, are constructed so as to add $\lambda/2$ to successive path lengths, so that

$$q_n + p_n = q + p + n\lambda/2 \quad (1)$$

where for NA small,

$$p_n = \sqrt{p^2 + r_n^2} \approx p + \frac{r_n^2}{2p} \quad (2)$$

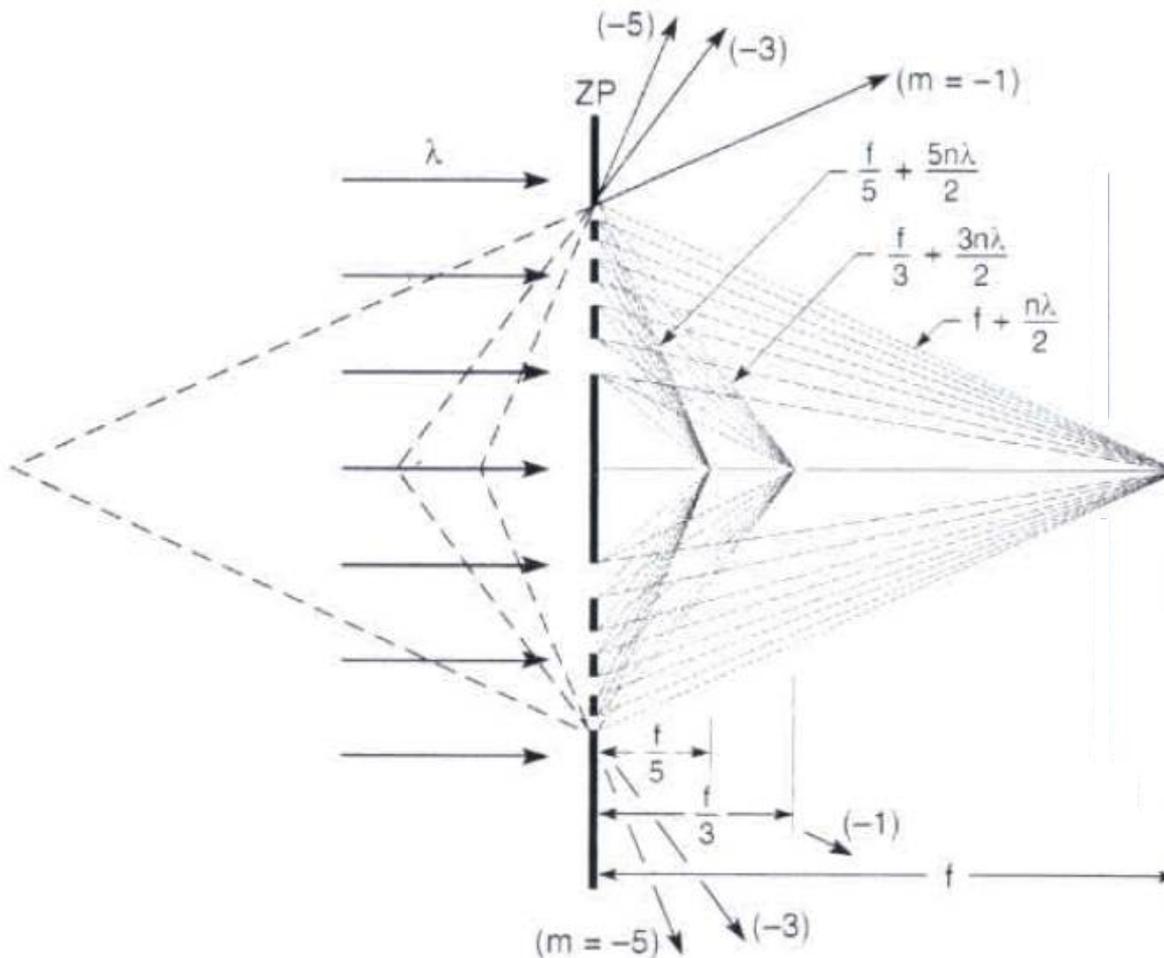
$$q_n = \sqrt{q^2 + r_n^2} \approx q + \frac{r_n^2}{2q} \quad (3)$$

Combining (1), (2) and (3) with $f = r_n^2/n\lambda$:

$$\frac{1}{q} + \frac{1}{p} \approx \frac{1}{f} \quad \text{and}$$

$$M = \frac{p}{q}$$

3) FZP: higher diffractive orders



FZP generates many diffractive orders (m).

Only a fraction of light goes to the 1st order.

For higher orders, $mn\lambda/2$ is added to the path length and

$$r_n^2 \approx mn\lambda f_m$$

$$f_m = \frac{f}{m}$$

4) FZP efficiency

In theory...

50% of the incident energy is absorbed by the opaque zones.

25% is transmitted in the forward direction: $m = 0$.

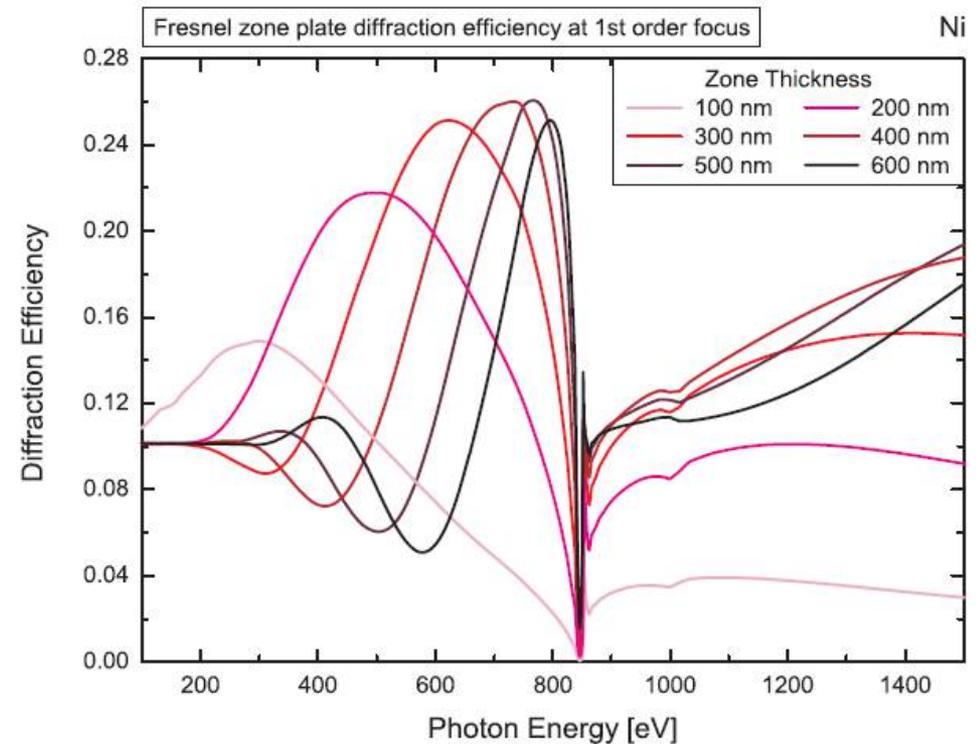
10% is focus onto $m = 1$ and 10% onto $m = -1$.

<5% is focus onto higher orders.

$$\eta_m = \begin{cases} 1/4 & m=0 \\ 1/m^2\pi^2 & m \text{ odd} \\ 0 & m \text{ even} \end{cases}$$

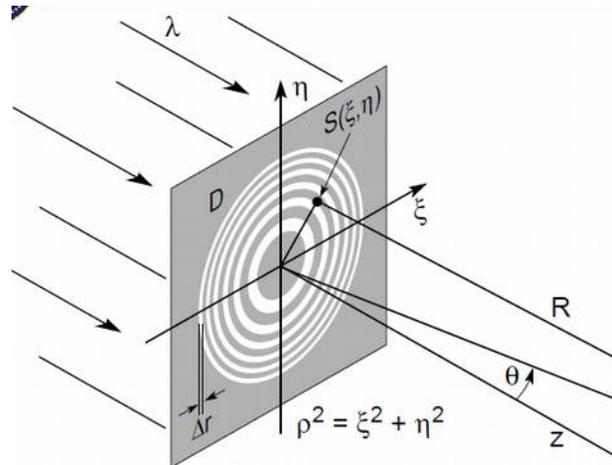
...but opaque zones are difficult to manufacture and therefore η_m depends on the material thickness and $n=1-\delta-i\beta$.

□ the extra phase change introduced by the material reinforces η_m when material and zone thickness are conveniently chosen.



5) FZP diffraction

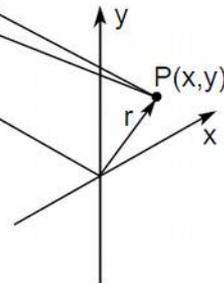
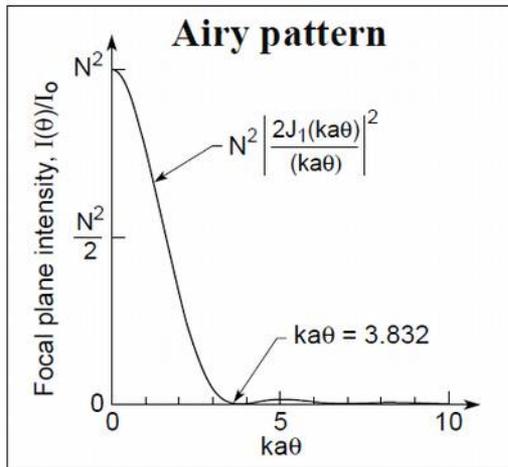
Intensity distribution for a coherently illuminated FZP.



$$\frac{I_1(\theta)}{I_0} = N^2 \left| \frac{2J_1(ka\theta)}{ka\theta} \right|^2 \quad (9.45)$$

$$r_{\text{null}} = \frac{0.610\lambda}{NA} \quad (9.46)$$

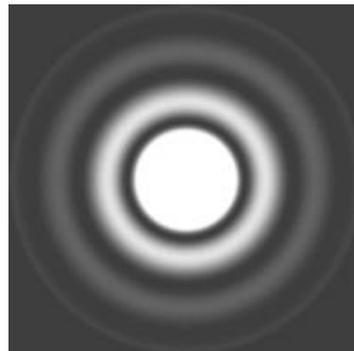
$$k = 2\pi / \lambda$$



The FZP forms an Airy pattern in the focal plane with characteristic lateral dimension.

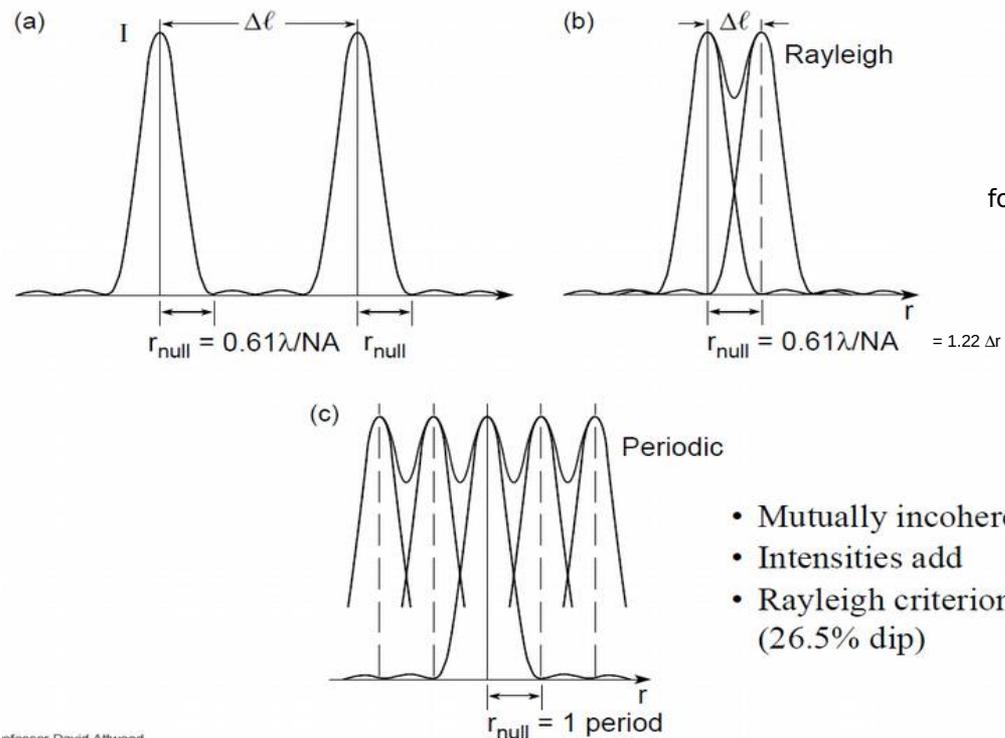
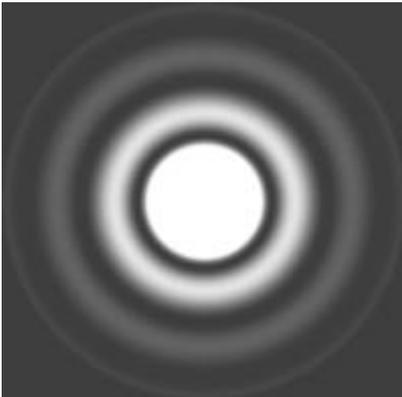
The resolution of an ideal lens is limited by NA and λ .

The Airy pattern carries 85% of the power in the first ring.



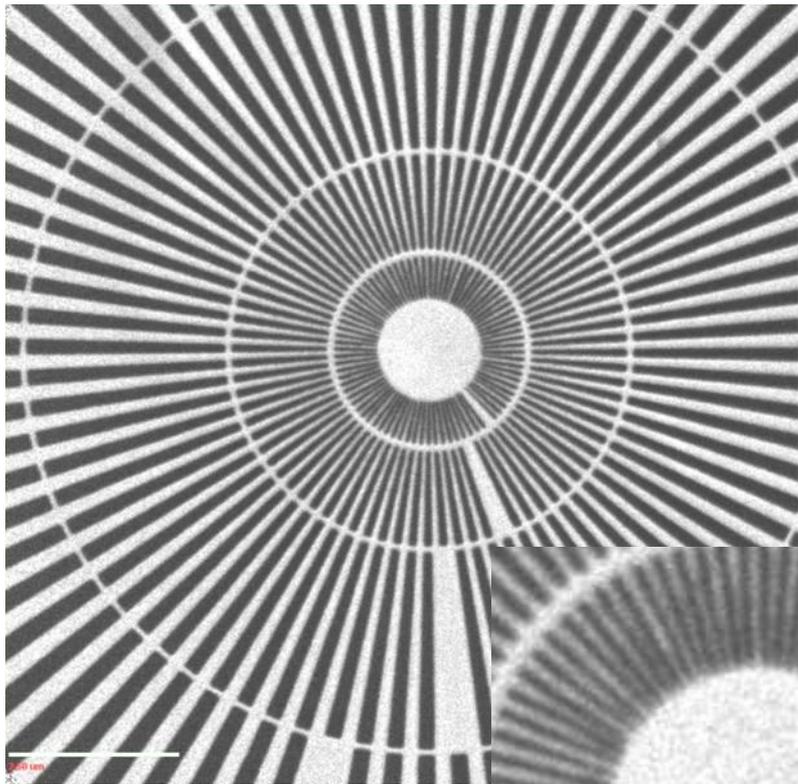
6) Spatial resolution: resolving 2 point sources

One measure of the resolution of a lens is the minimum discernible separation of 2 mutually incoherent point sources. This depends on the **point spread function**, that is the image plane intensity distribution due to a distant point source. For an ideal lens, including FZP, the PSF is an Airy pattern whose lateral extent (spread) depends on both λ and NA.

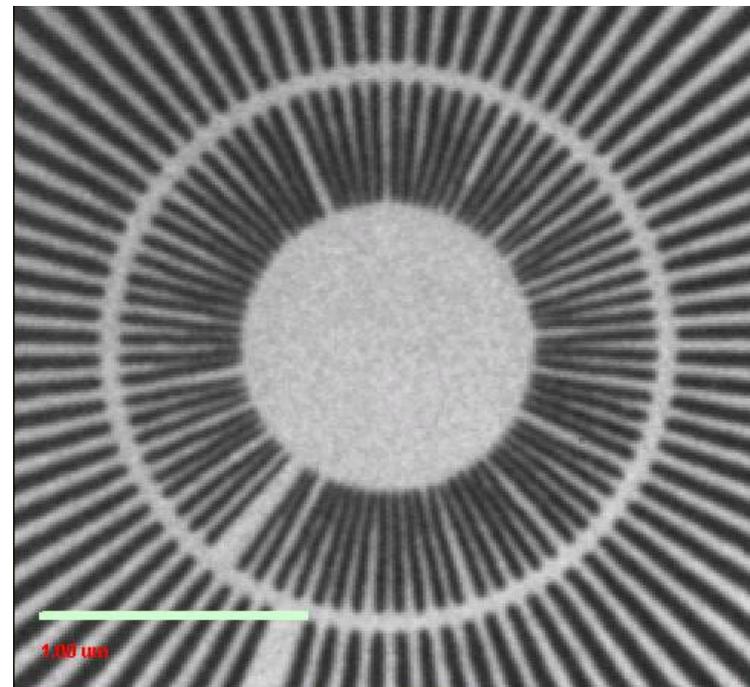
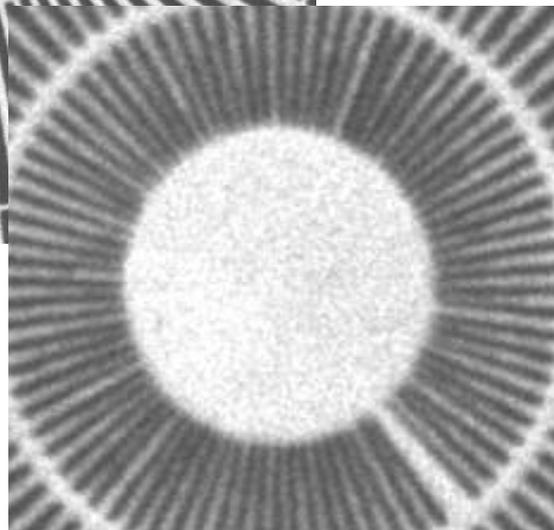


6) Spatial resolution: resolving 2 point sources

Au Siemens star with 30 nm smallest features.



40 nm ZP at E=520 eV, t=1s.

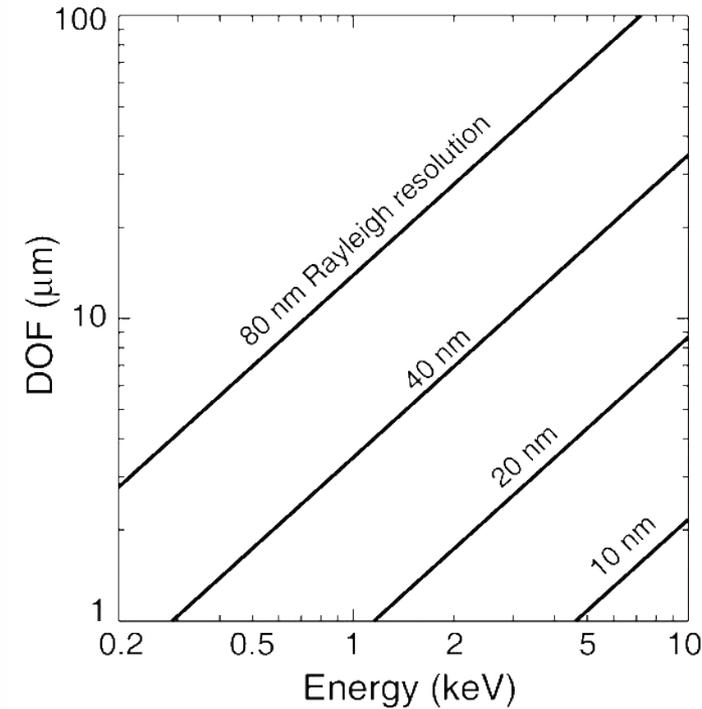
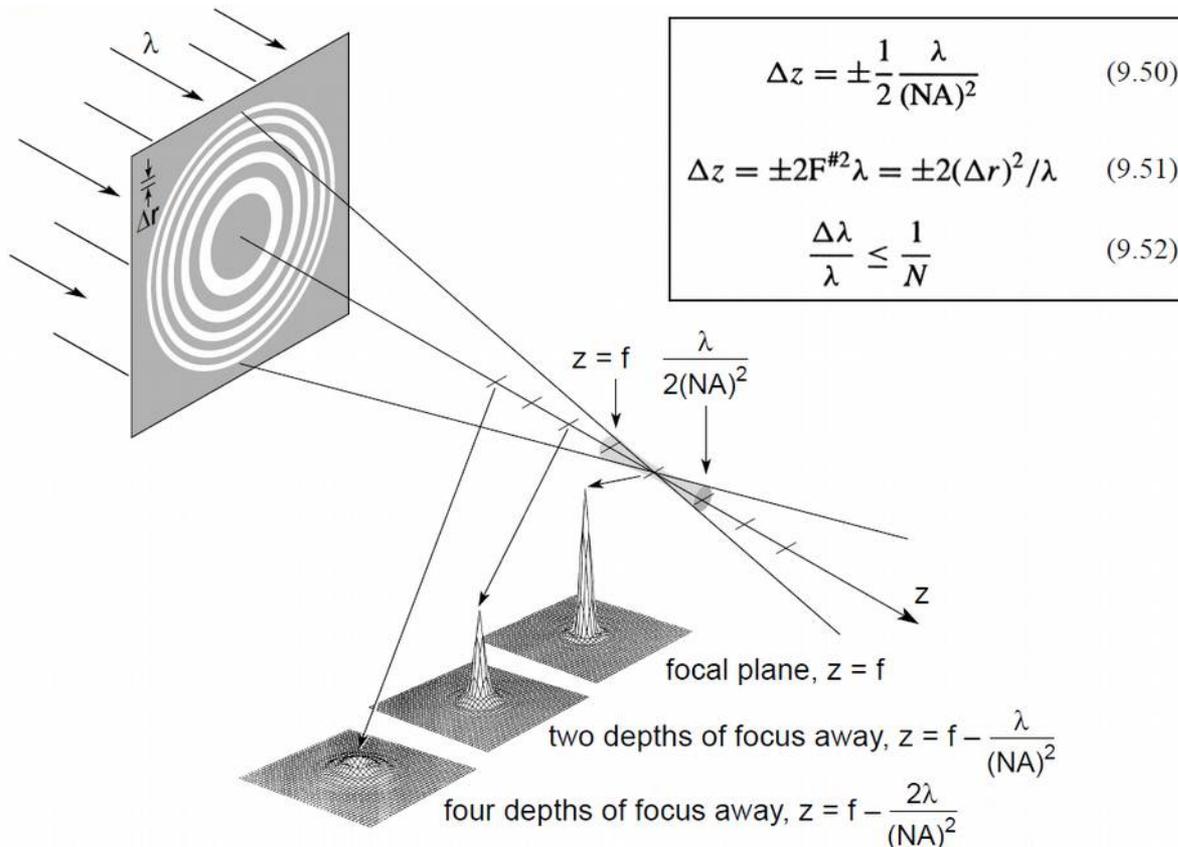


25 nm ZP at E=776 eV, t=4s

7) FZP depth of focus and spectral bandwidth

DoF = sample thickness that can be imaged allowing for only a 20% on-axis intensity decrease

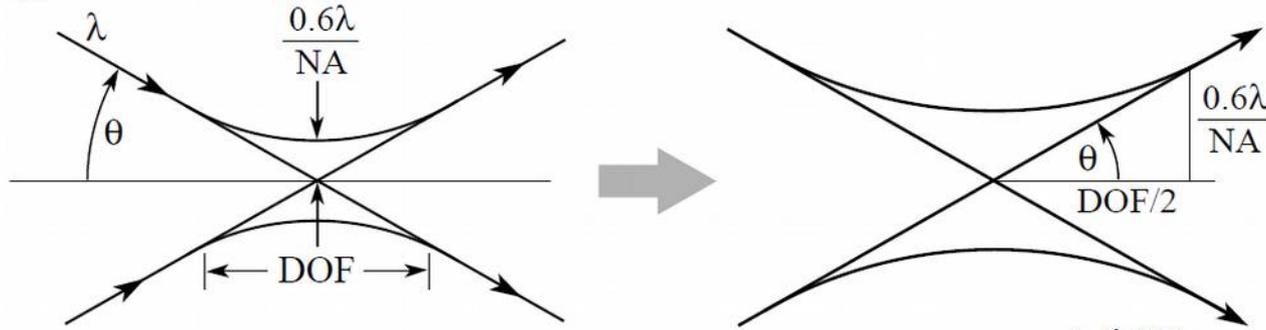
FZP are highly chromatic: for precise imaging spectral bandwidth illumination should be restricted



Fresnel Zone Plates

DoF scales as λ/NA^2

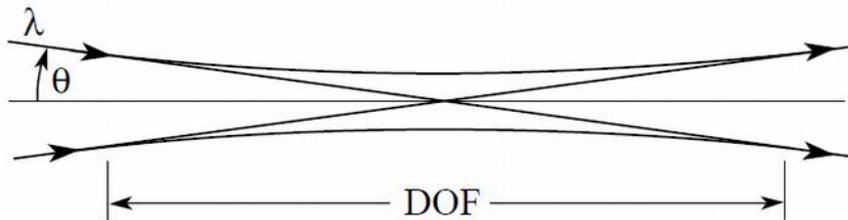
High NA



$$\tan\theta = \frac{0.6\lambda/NA}{DOF/2}$$

$$DOF = \frac{1.2\lambda/NA}{\tan\theta}$$

Low NA



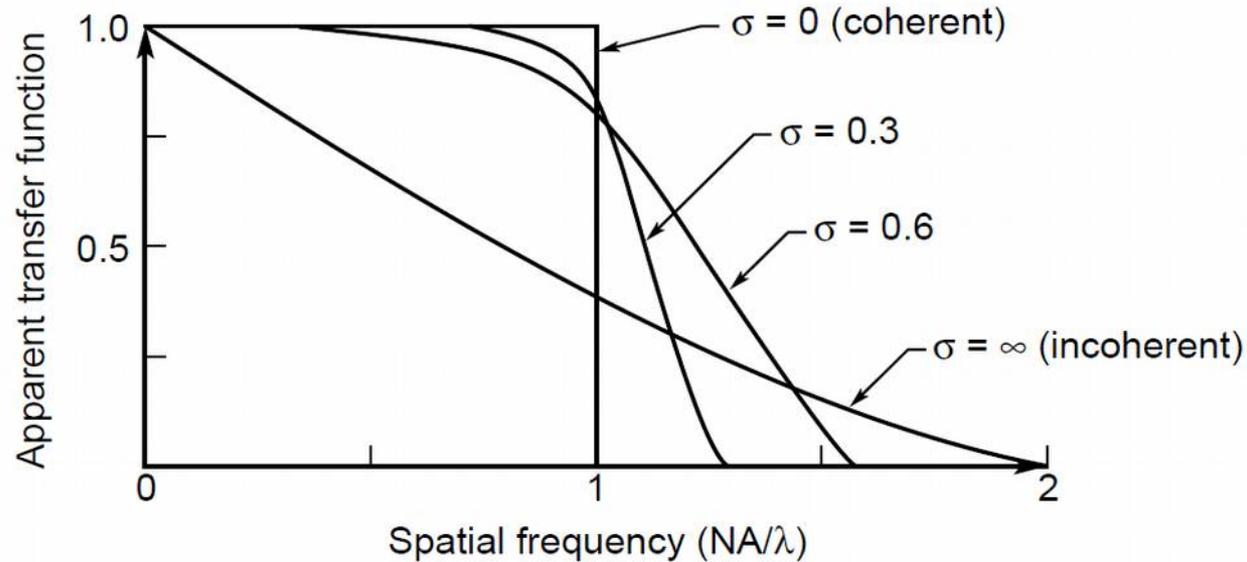
for small θ

$$\tan\theta \sim \sin\theta = NA$$

$$\therefore DOF \approx \frac{1.2\lambda}{NA^2}$$

in the text, eq. 9.50:

$$DOF = \pm \frac{1}{2} \frac{\lambda}{(NA)^2}$$



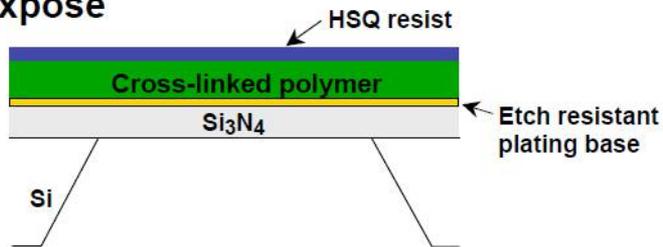
$$\sigma \equiv \frac{NA_{\text{illum.}}}{NA_{\text{obj.}}} = \frac{\sin\theta_{\text{illum.}}}{\sin\theta_{\text{obj.}}} \quad (\text{for } n = 1)$$

Depending on the coherence of the illumination you can have better resolution than the Rayleigh one ($1.22\Delta r$).

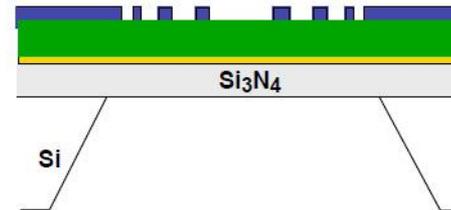
Nanofabrication of Fresnel Zone Plates

e-beam lithography is used to manufacture FZP.

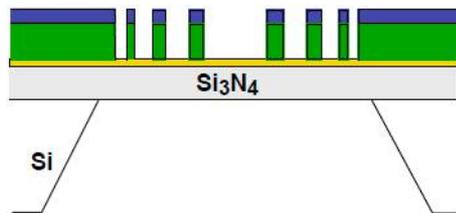
1. Expose



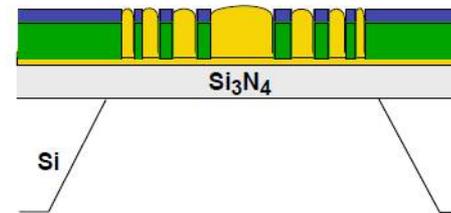
2. Develop



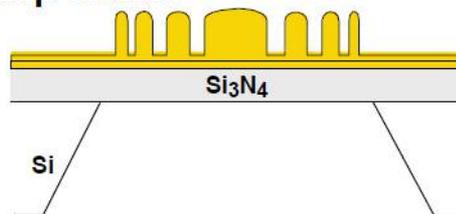
3. Cryogenic ICP Etch



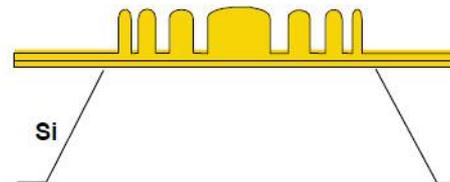
4. Plate



5. Strip Resist

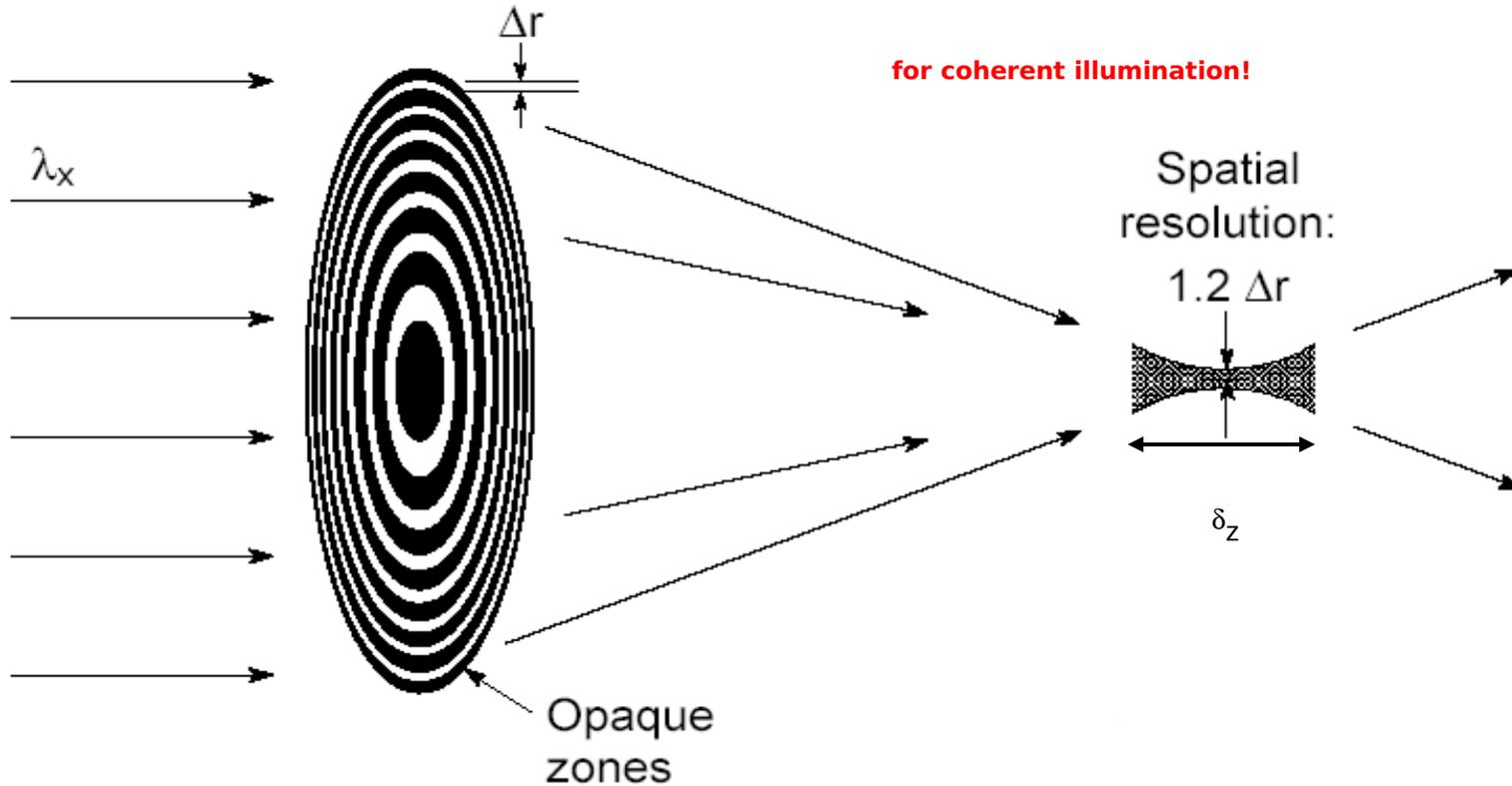


6. Strip Si_3N_4 and Cr/Au Plating Base



Courtesy of E. Anderson, A. Liddle, W. Chao, D. Olynick, and B. Harteneck (LBNL)

Fresnel Zone Plates: summary



$$\lambda = 2.3843 \text{ nm for } E = 520 \text{ eV}, \Delta r = 40 \text{ nm}$$

$$NA = \lambda / 2\Delta r = 0.03$$

$$f \approx \frac{4N(\Delta r)^2}{\lambda} = 2.516 \text{ mm}$$

$$\delta_{x,y} \Big|_{\text{coherent}} = \frac{1.22\Delta r_N}{m} = 48.8 \text{ nm for } m=1$$

$$\delta_z = \pm \frac{2(\Delta r_N)^2}{m^2 \lambda} = \pm 1.342 \text{ } \mu\text{m for } m=1$$

To sum up!

increasing spatial resolution implies decreasing DOF (λ/NA^2)

higher resolution with reasonable DOF @ multi-keV

★ low efficient (high aspect ratio)

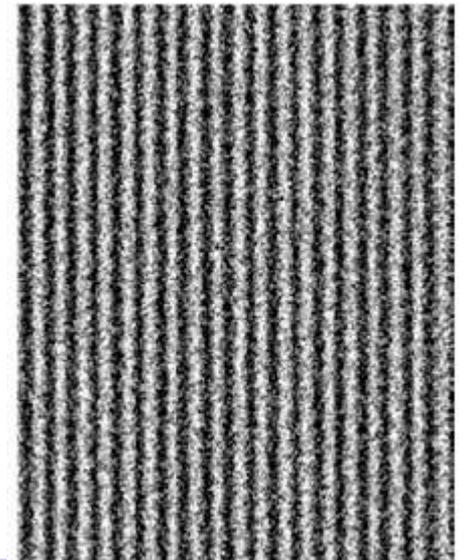
★ sensitive to heat load

★ few suppliers

State of the art

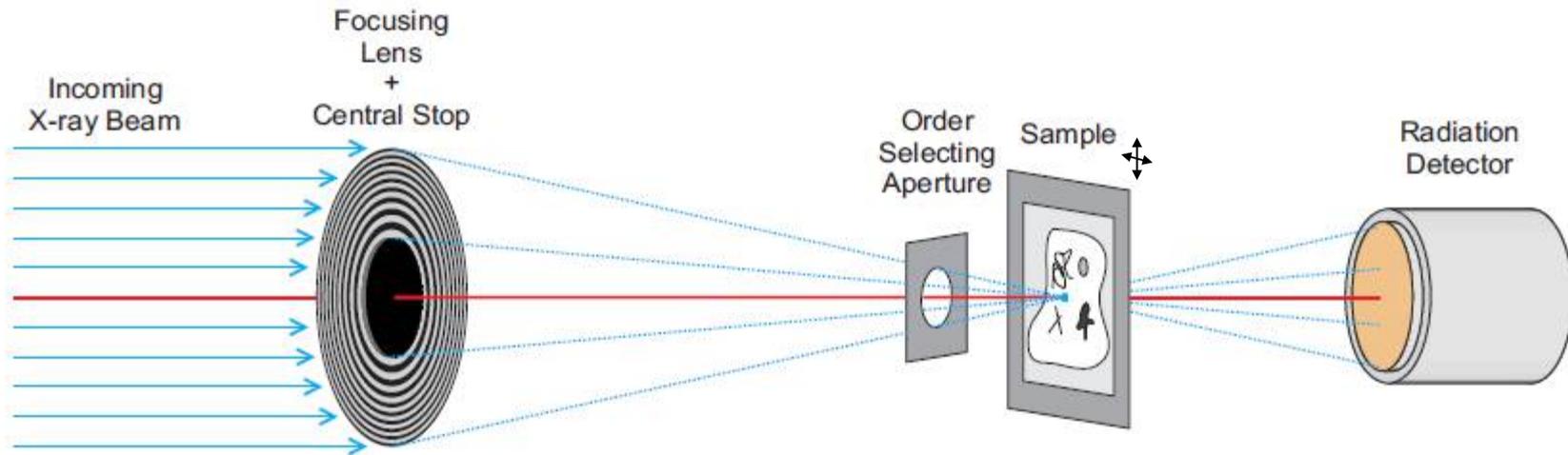
“Cr/Si multilayers with 15.1 nm half-period imaged with 15 nm ZP”

- efficiency ~3%
- focal length at C edge: 100 μm



Two common soft X-ray microscopes

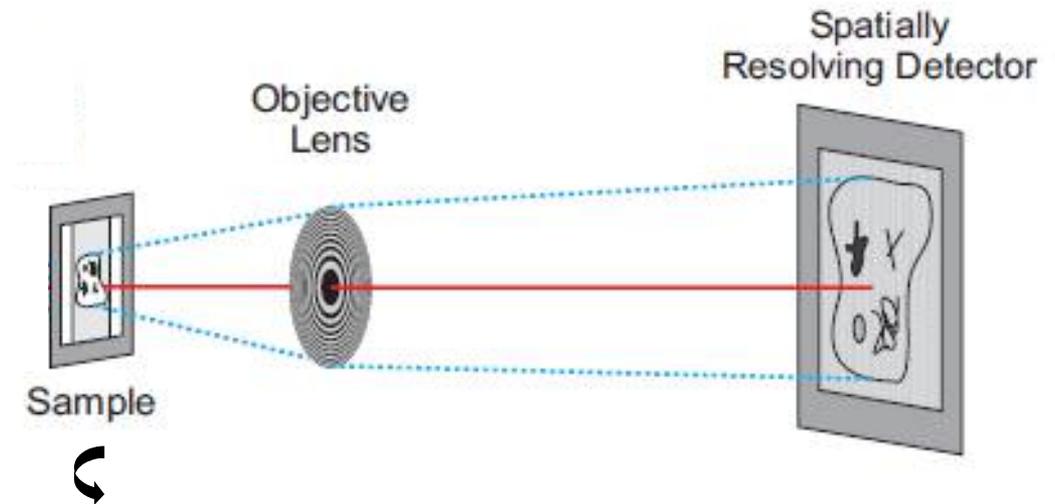
The scanning X-ray microscope (STXM)



1. least radiation dose
2. high spatial resolution (Δr_N)
3. requires spatially coherent radiation
4. longer exposure time
5. spectroscopic capabilities
6. allows detecting fluorescent emission

The transmission X-ray microscope (TXM)

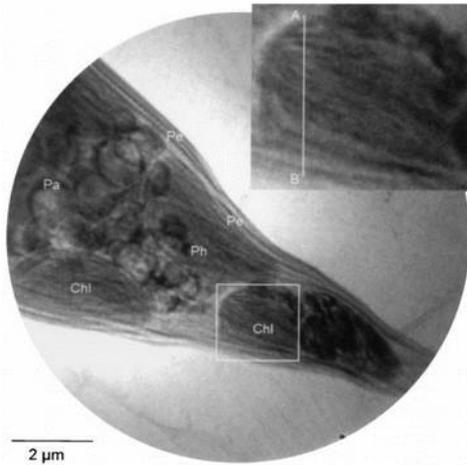
1. high spatial resolution (Δr_N)
2. short exposure time (snapshot)
3. higher radiation dose
4. fast 3D imaging



Illumination can be provided by a FZP or a glass capillary.

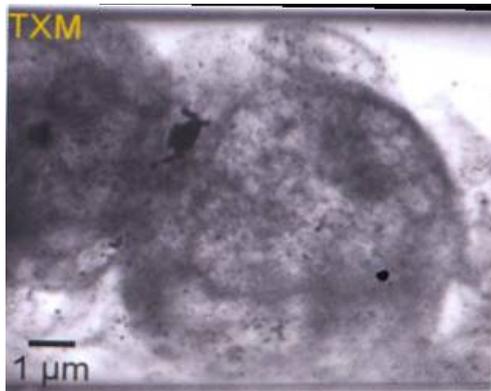
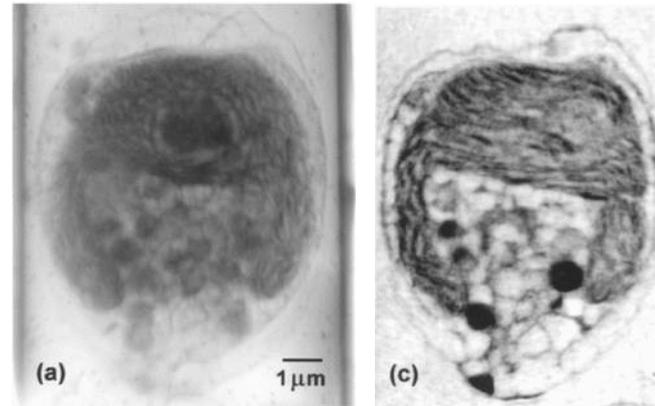
1. X-ray projection of frozen hydrated alga

G. Schneider, Ultramicroscopy 75 (1998)



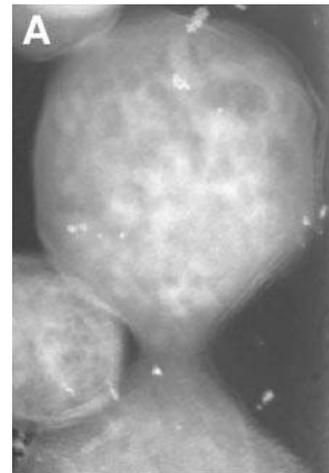
2. 1st cryo-tomo of a frozen alga

D. Weiss *et al.* Ultramicrosc. 84 (2000)



3. *Drosophila melanogaster* cell

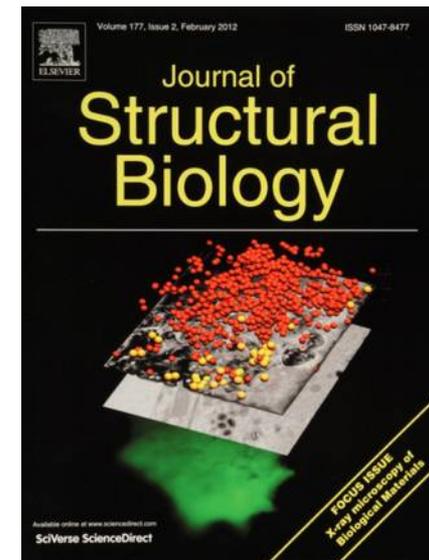
G. Schneider *et al.* Surf. Rev. Lett 9, 1 (2002)



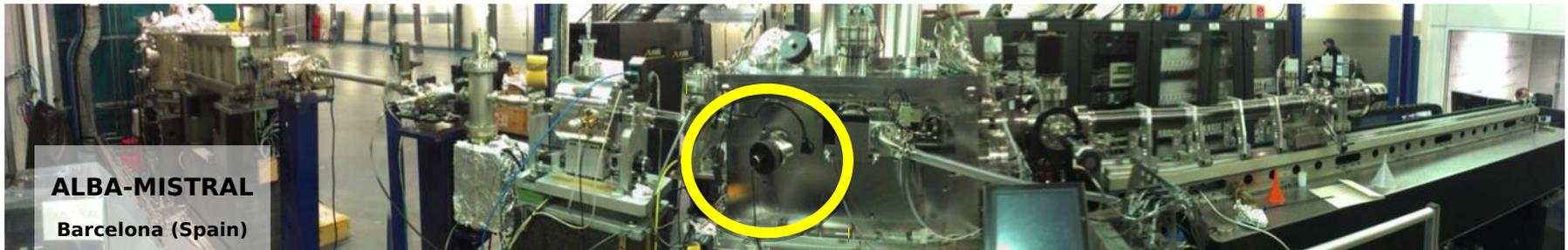
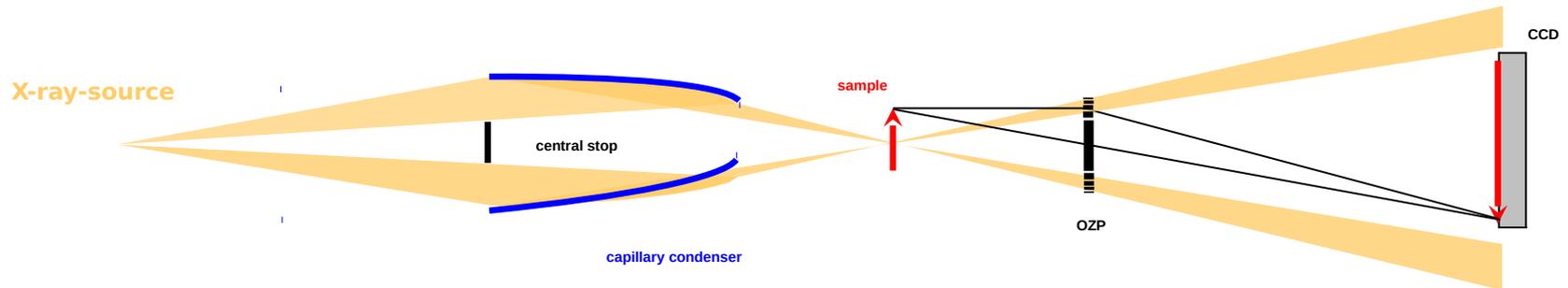
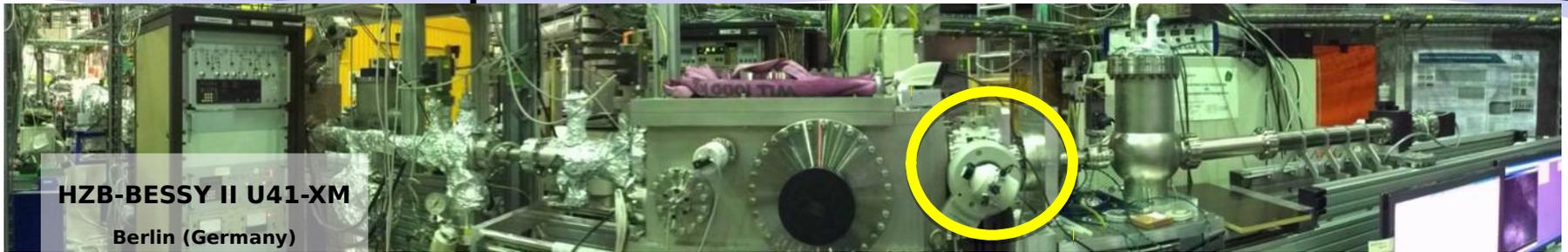
4. cryo-tomography of a yeast

C. A. Larabell *et al.*, Mol. Bio. Cell, **15** (2005)

XRM focused issue (2012)



The cryo-Transmission Soft X-ray Microscopes

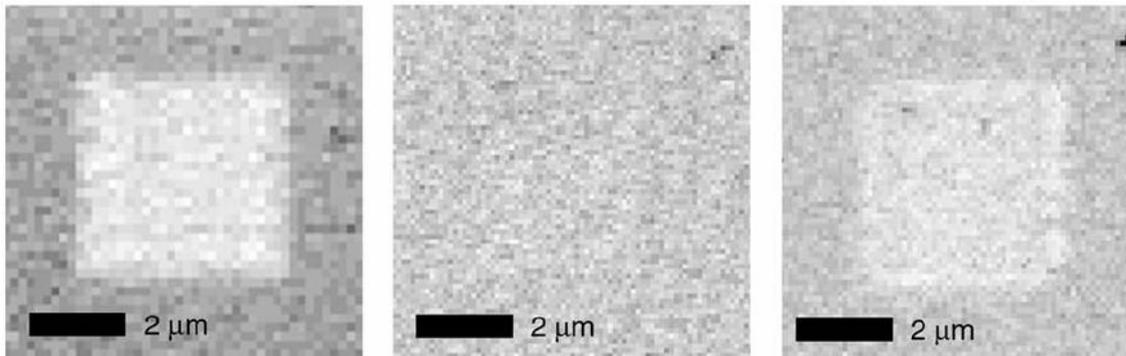


National Center for X-ray Tomography - XM2 - ALS (Berkeley, USA)

Challenges: radiation damage

radiation damage studies using XANES spectroscopy in PMMA

by T. Breez & C. Jacobsen, *J. Synchr. Rad.* **10** (2002)



(a)

(b)

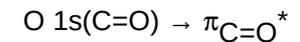
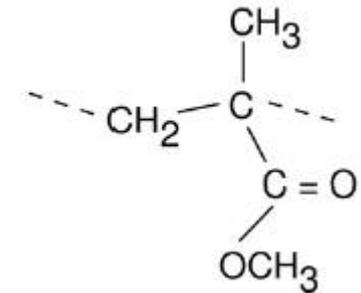
(c)

298 K
dose $\sim 13 \times 10^6$ Gy

113 K
dose $\sim 10^{10}$ Gy

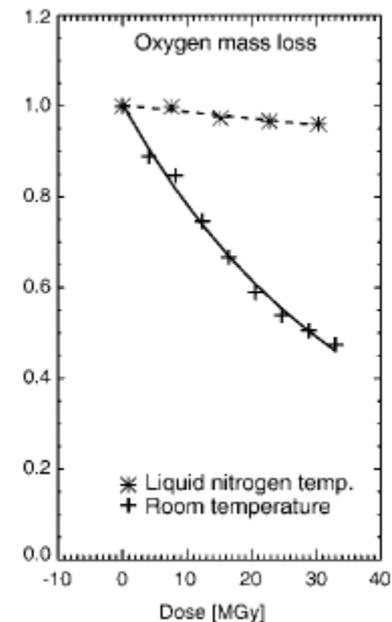
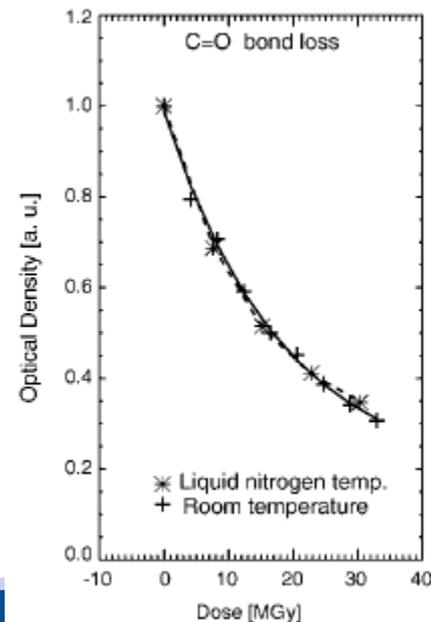
warming up

298 K



with cryo no mass loss up to 10^{10} Gy @ 50 nm

critical dose for bond breaking $\sim 15 \times 10^6$ Gy



Dose and ultimate resolution

- Calculation based on dose fractionation theorem (Hegerl and Hoppe (1976))
- The coherent scattering cross section of a cubic voxel is $r_e^2 \lambda^2 |\rho|^2 d^4$.
- Therefore the dose D and the flux F required to deliver P scattered x-rays into a detector with collection angle chosen for resolution d is

$$D = \frac{\mu P h\nu}{\varepsilon} \frac{1}{r_e^2 \lambda^2 |\rho|^2 d^4} \quad F = \frac{P}{r_e^2 \lambda^2 |\rho|^2 d^4}$$

μ = the voxel intensity absorption coefficient

$h\nu$ = the photon energy

r_e = the classical electron radius

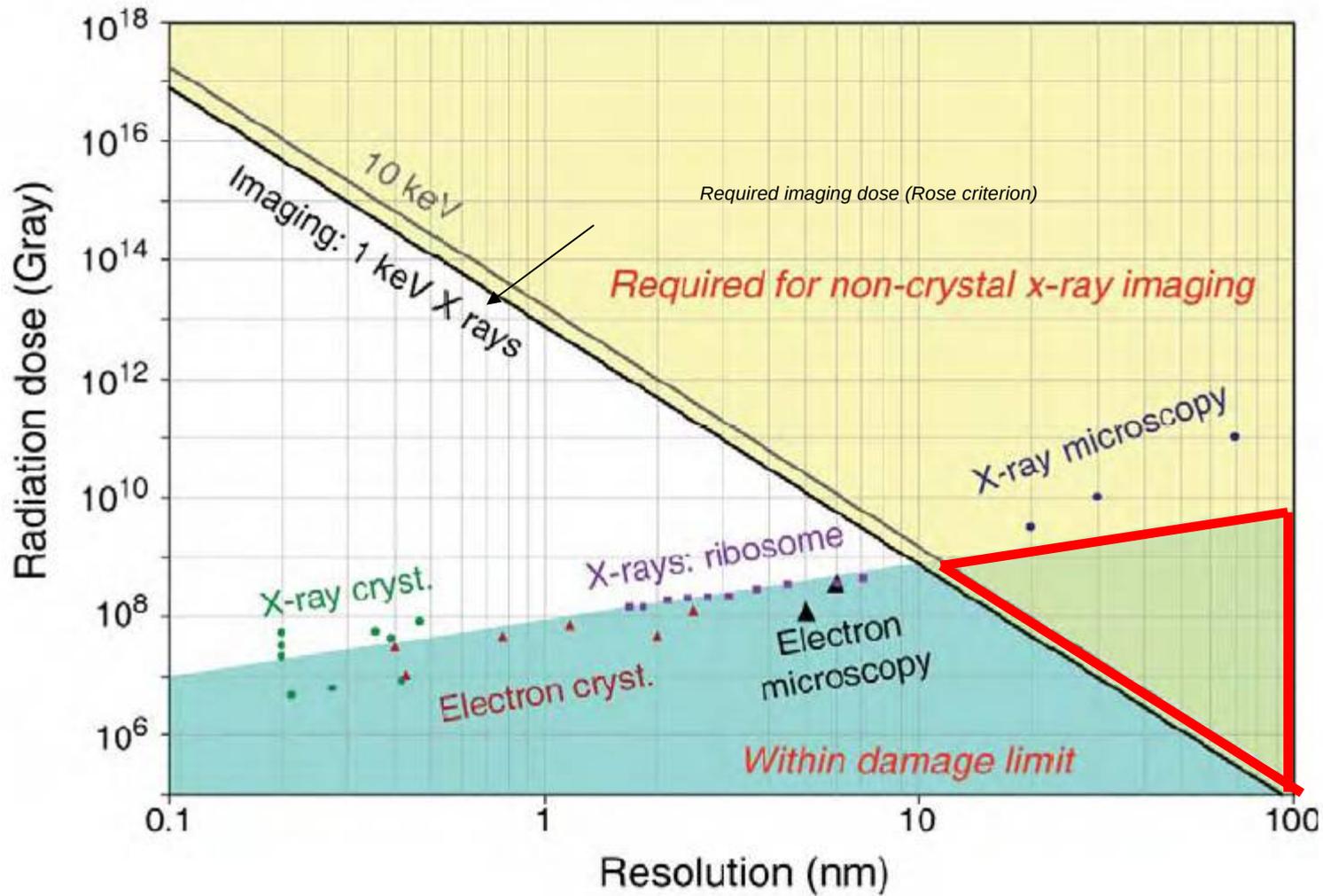
λ = the photon wave length

ρ = the voxel electron density

ε = the density

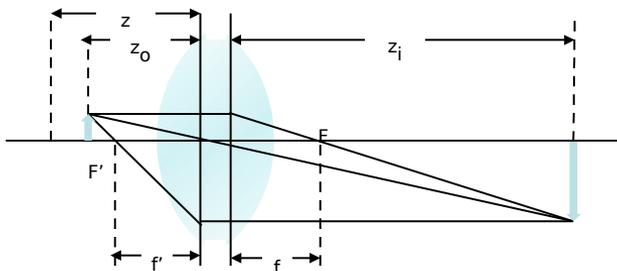
DOSE SCALES AS THE INVERSE FOURTH POWER OF THE RESOLUTION

radiation damage sets the ultimate resolution



from Howells et al., JESRP (2005)

Challenges. Depth of focus limitation: what can be done?



Blurring in soft X-ray tomography?

1) missing wedge (as in ET): “elongation” along Z axis

2) depth of field smaller than sample thickness: “elongation” along Z with a strong radial component.

40 nm ZP



~2.6 μm depth of field @ 520 eV

Hz z-dependence blurring is worse than missing wedge (both happen)

PSF

$$h(z, z_i) \equiv h(x, y, D(z, z_i))$$

Beer-Lambert absorption coeff.

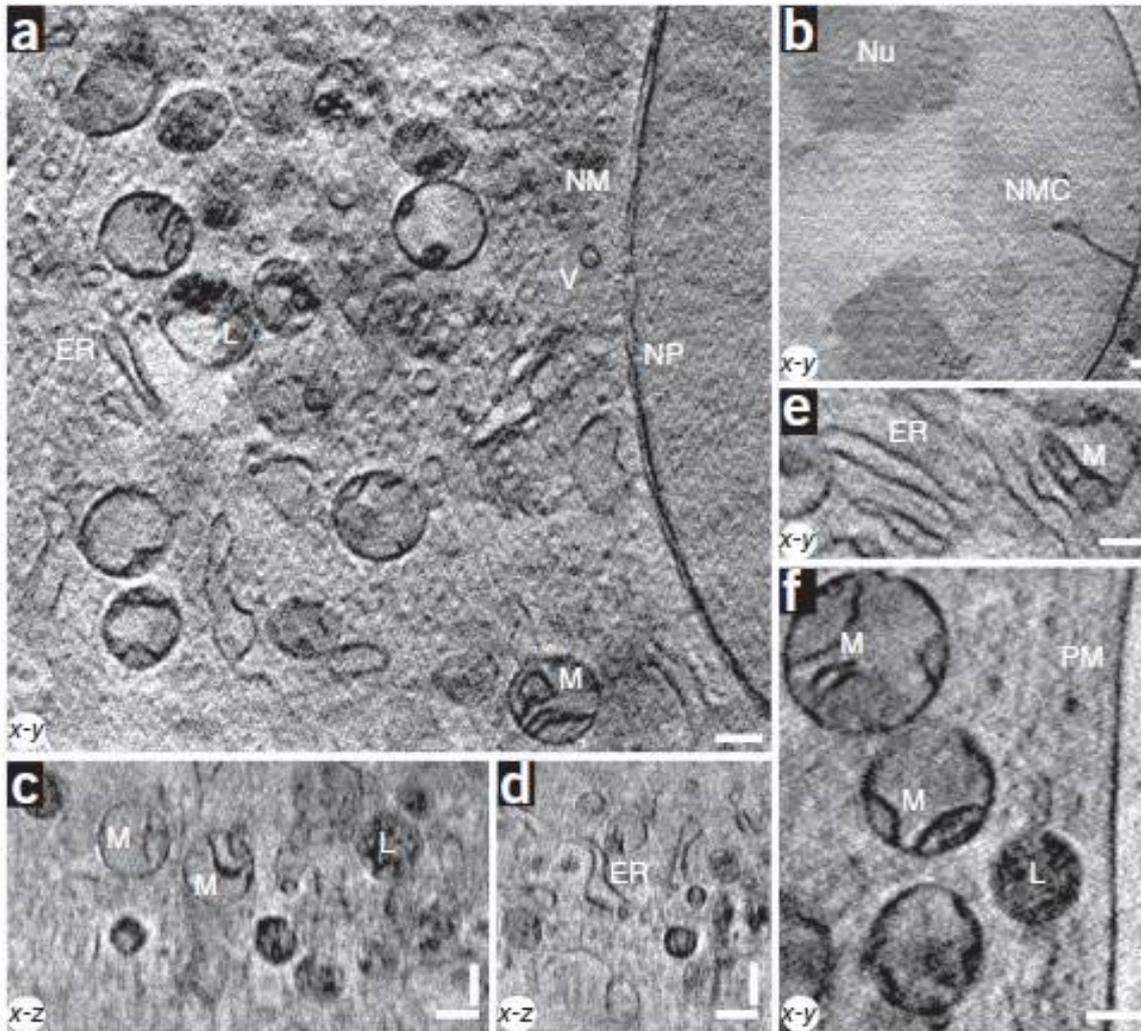
$$\mu(x, y, z)$$

What can be done? We need to explore

1. dual axis tomography could be explored
2. deconvolution of the Point Spread Function (PSF) of the lens

Applications: 3D imaging & spectroscopic imaging

Soft X-ray tomography of a cryo-fixed cell



3D X-ray tomograms of mouse adenocarcinoma cells showing many subcellular organelles:

- mitochondria (M)
- lysosomes (L)
- endoplasmic reticulum (ER)
- vesicles (V)
- plasma membrane (PM)
- nuclear membrane (NM)
- nuclear pores (NP)
- nucleoli (Nu)
- nuclear membrane channels (NMC)

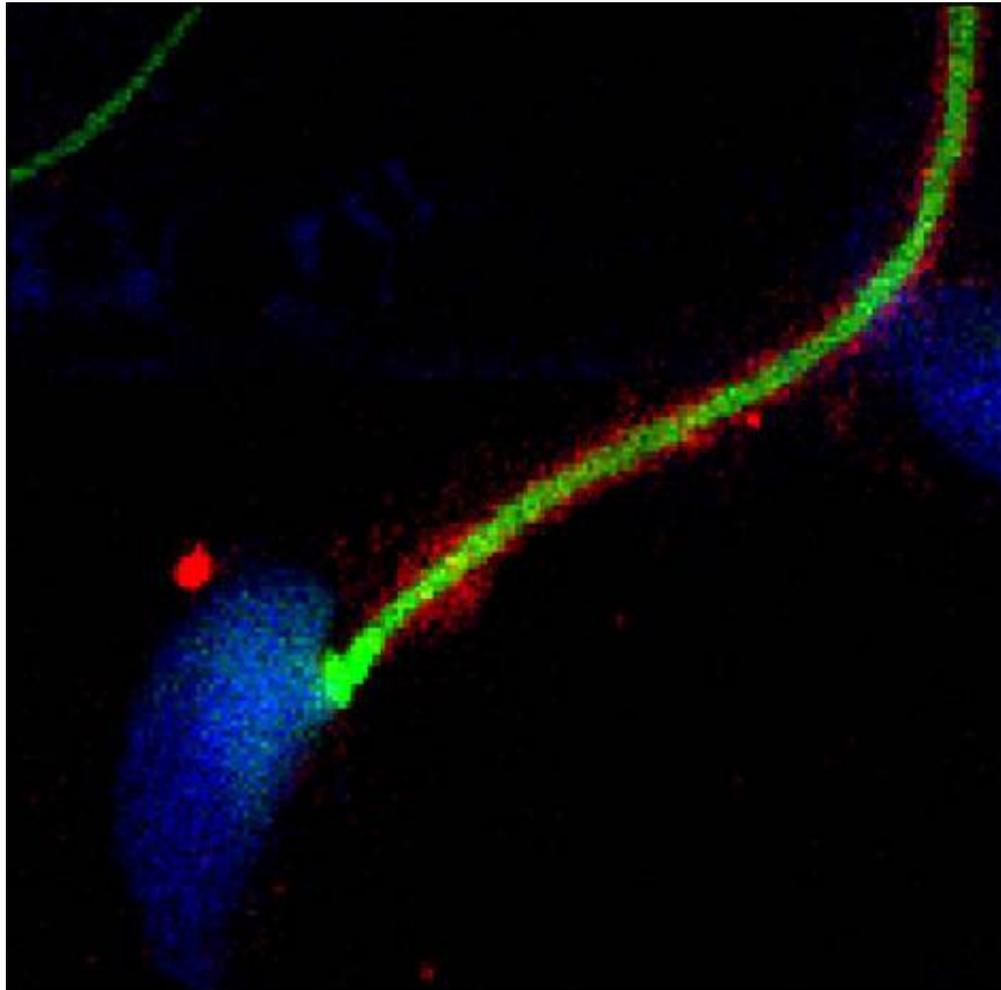
a, c, d, e & f acquired with 25-nm ZP at 510 eV

b acquired with 40-nm ZP.

Pixel sizes and slice thicknesses are 9.8 nm (**a, c -f**) and 15.6 nm (**b**).

Scale bars = 0.39 μm .

Hard X-ray 2D spectroscopic imaging



Mammalian spermatozoa

red: iron

blue: phosphorus

green: zinc

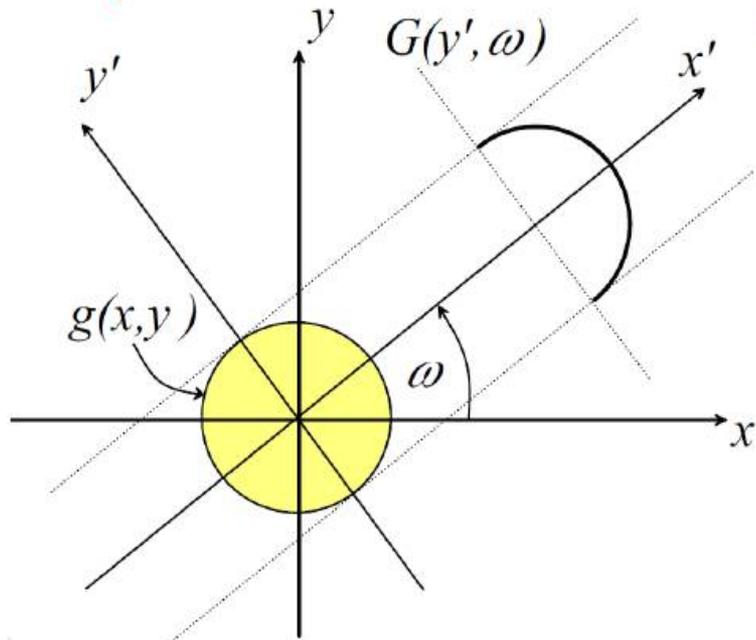
Selenium and zinc are necessary for motility and thus are often associated with infertility.

Thank you for your attention!

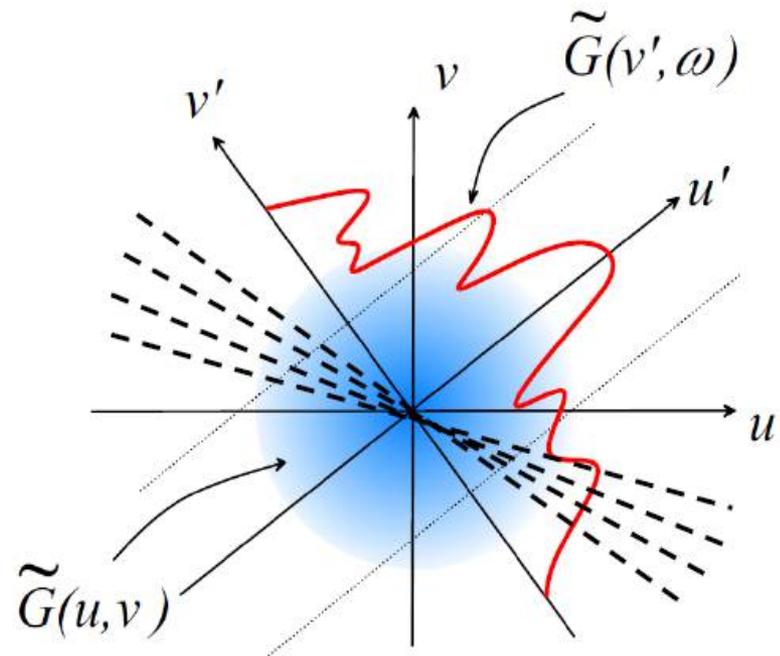
Computed Tomography

1D Fourier transform of a projection corresponds to a slice of the 2D Fourier transform of the original object

real space



1D FFT



2D FFT⁻¹



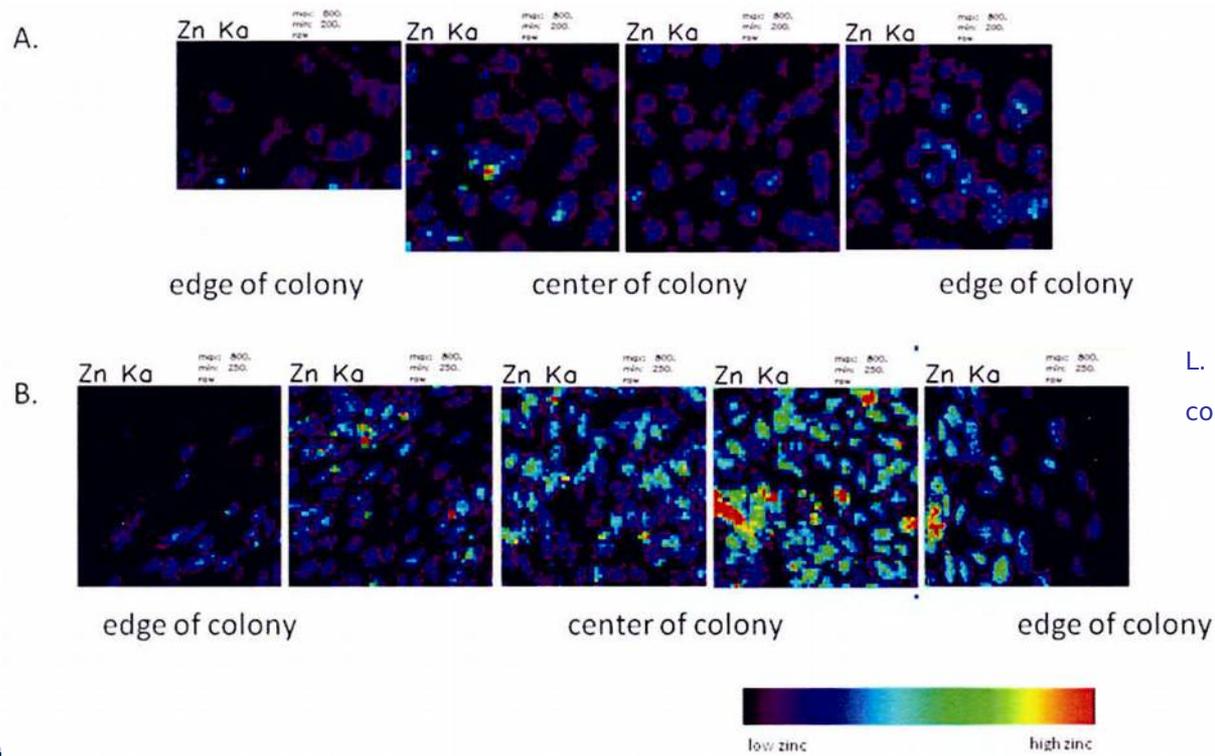
reciprocal space

Elements of living cells: H, C, N and O constitute 96% by weight

Na, Mg, P, S, Cl, K and Ca make up the remaining 4%

Examples of hard X-ray STXM:

- Subcellular X-ray fluorescence imaging as a tool to understand metal-induced pathologies.
- Zinc in stem cell differentiation



L. Finney *et al.*, XRM2010
communication (APS)