

Progress In Design And Applications Of CCD Cameras For Electron Microscopy

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Over the last several years the long-awaited revolution in direct-digital readout systems has begun, with the introduction of efficient slow-scan CCD cameras. Earlier, the introduction of video cameras to electron microscopes had brought a quantum leap in the speed and efficiency of carrying out a host of operations. The high sensitivity of the video cameras provided the ability to see the image in much more detail and at a lower beam intensity than had been previously possible by viewing the fluorescent screen. The ability to assess, on line, characteristics such as specimen quality and image focus, even qualitatively, gave feedback to the operator that previously took hours to obtain. Due to the low resolution of these video systems, however, they were rarely useful for data recording.

The current generation of CCD cameras goes a long way toward meeting the needs of data recording in many, though certainly not all, applications. Immediate access to the data recorded in digital form has provided another quantum leap in efficiency. With their high dynamic range, linearity, and increased resolution, CCDs are capable of replacing photographic data recording in a number of applications. The on-line quantitative analysis of the image and imaging conditions, as well as avoiding the tedious processes of developing and printing or digitizing negatives, allow a tremendous improvement in data collection. Digital image information can be fed back to a control computer for automating a number of complex microscope operations, such as the long repetitive sequences of steps involved in tomographic data collection.

For some applications, such as electron crystallography of proteins, the limited number of pixels in the CCD still poses a serious problem. We discuss here some of these limitations, along with our approach to circumventing them by use of a larger-format CCD. Most present CCDs used for data collection consist of an array of 1024 pixels on edge. CCD cameras coupled to electron microscopes also suffer from a rather poor modulation transfer function (MTF) that limits the useful array size to something closer to 512 pixels. In contrast, arrays of 6000 or even 10000 pixels on edge are now frequently used when micrographs on film are digitized. Thus the transition from the use of film to CCD requires careful consideration of our requirements and the camera system limitations.

A recent series of experiments (Perkins, Downing and Glaeser, *Ultramicroscopy* in press) was aimed at determining the minimum array size that could be efficiently used for the crystallographic extraction of high resolution data from crystal images. We found that data from a set of 1000 x 1000 pixel images of purple membrane could be combined to provide the same quality as would be obtained from larger images of the same total number of unit cells. With smaller images, however, parameters such as lattice vectors could not be determined with sufficient accuracy to yield data of the same quality at high resolution. This experiment sets a lower limit on the actual image array size that is required for extraction of high resolution data from images of protein crystals.

In an effort to overcome the limitations of current CCDs, we did a careful study of ways to increase the number of pixels in the image and still have a system that would perform at least as well as film in terms of both MTF and detective quantum efficiency (DQE). As the system is intended primarily for low-dose work, we need to see how the DQE at low exposure will compare to that of film. We assume for the present that images are to be digitized at around one angstrom per pixel, either on film or on the CCD.

At an exposure of $10 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$, the exposure is about 10 electrons per pixel. The DQE of the image on film is limited at low exposure by the fog level of the film. The fog has a typical optical density of around 0.1, which corresponds to an effective exposure of $\sim 5 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$ when $10 \mu\text{m}$ pixels are used. The system noise for a slow scan CCD is on the order of one primary electron per pixel, so it is expected that the CCD will outperform film more and more as the exposure level is decreased.

The MTF is principally limited by the point spread function (PSF) of

the scintillator. One needs a reasonably thick scintillator to produce enough photons from each electron to give an adequate signal. On the other hand, the width of the PSF increases with the scintillator thickness. Most present systems employ scintillators that have a PSF on the order of $50 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter. CCDs, on the other hand, have pixel sizes only up to around $25 \mu\text{m}$. One approach to improving the resolution is to demagnify the image formed on the scintillator onto the CCD using either lens coupling or a reducing fiber optic. Either of these, however, has a light coupling efficiency roughly proportional to one over the square of the demagnification. To compensate for a two-fold demagnification, which would decrease the light incident on the CCD by a factor of four, the scintillator could be made four times as thick, but the resultant degradation of its PSF would more than offset the gain from demagnifying the image. Thus, the most efficient approach seems to be to use direct coupling (e.g., 1:1 fiber optics) of a thin scintillator to the CCD.

We are led to the conclusion that the best approach to matching the scintillator PSF and the CCD is to bin adjacent pixels during readout, doubling the effective pixel size. This is a straightforward way to meet our requirements, although it is expensive, since it requires us to use a larger CCD in order to obtain the necessary field of view. The camera uses a Tektronix 2048 x 2048 CCD that has $24 \mu\text{m}$ pixels. There are a number of less expensive CCDs available with even larger pixel arrays, but they have smaller pixels that make them unsuitable for this application. As shown in fig. 1, the MTF of this camera at the Nyquist limit with 2×2 binned pixels is nearly the same as that of film with $10 \mu\text{m}$ sampling, as is frequently used for digitizing micrographs.

There are a number of additional benefits of using the larger format. A further enhancement of the DQE results from reducing the cross-talk between pixels that is caused by the PSF². For electron diffraction studies, magnifying the pattern by a factor of two decreases the effect of light diffusion within the fiber optic that arises from the high intensity of the direct beam, and increases by a factor of four the exposure required to saturate the CCD, which reduces blooming from the direct beam. ■

1. K. H. Downing and D.A. Grano. *Ultramicroscopy* 7, 381 (1982).
2. K. Ishizuka. *Ultramicroscopy* 52, 1 (1993)
3. O.L. Krivanek and P.E. Mooney. *Ultramicroscopy* 49, 95 (1993)

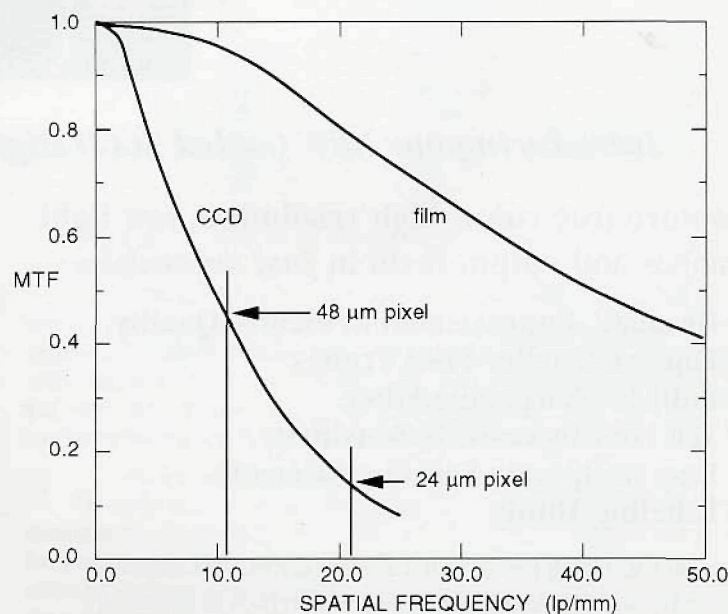
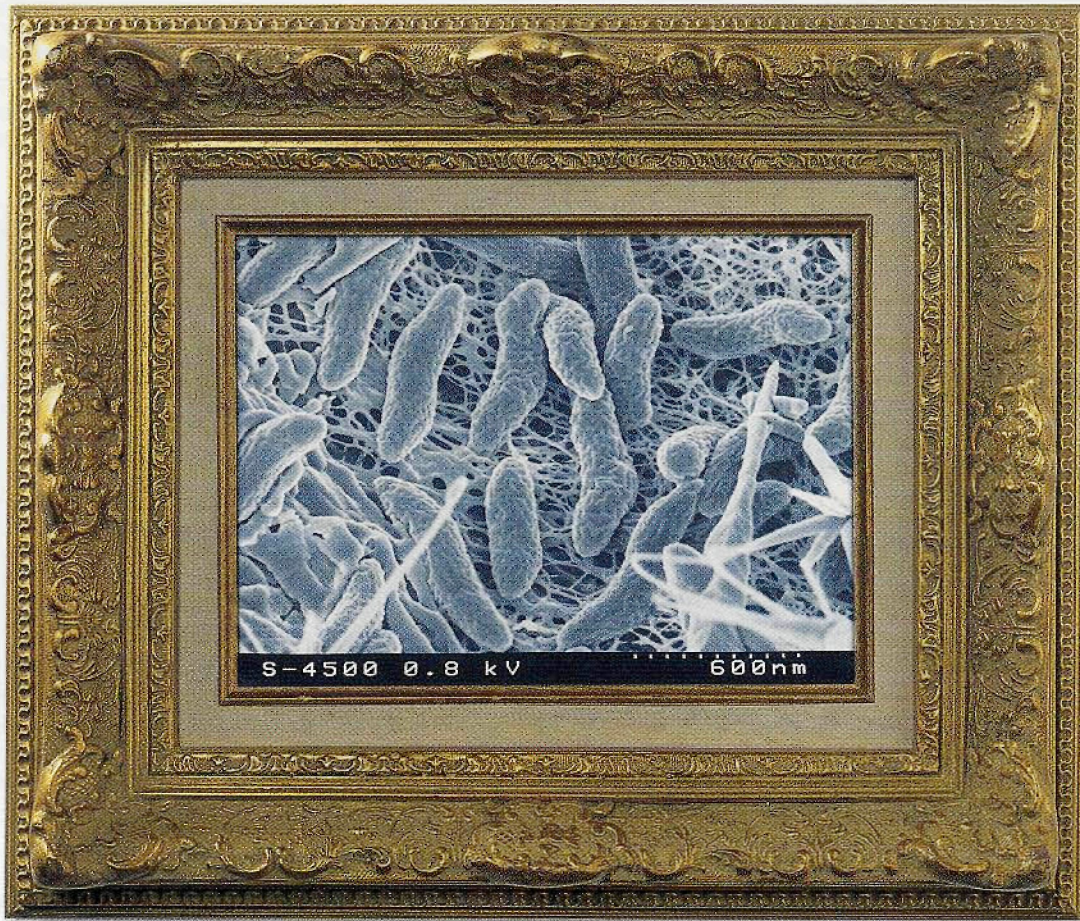


Figure 1: Modulation transfer functions for the Gatan Slow Scan CCD camera with gadolinium oxysulfide scintillator³ and for Kodak SO-163 film¹. Frequencies are indicated that correspond to the $24 \mu\text{m}$ pixel size of the Tektronix 2048 CCD and to the effective pixel size with 2×2 binning. With $48 \mu\text{m}$ pixels, the MTF is nearly the same as that of film with $10 \mu\text{m}$ pixels.

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