1 Introduction

For understanding the macroscopic properties of matter, often a detailed knowledge of its microstructure is necessary. Therefore experimental non-invasive tools with sub-micron resolution are essential. For example materials containing a regular refractive index modulated by a periodic sub-micrometer pattern can exhibit a photonic band gap (for a review about this subject see [1]). In the mammalian inner ear, tissue vibration amplitudes of a few nanometres result in the generation of electrical signals—the action potentials—which encode the acoustic information, leading to hearing sensation [2–4]. For both examples, it is important to study the structures with sub-micron resolution without destroying the integrity of the structure. However, contemporary methods often either lack sufficient spatial resolution and/or sensitivity (like NMR) or cannot image the structure of interest [5].

Methods providing high spatial resolution often require extensive sample modifications. However, sample modifications bias the experimental results or make the study impossible. For example soft tissue in the cochlea has been studied using light microscopy. Samples had to be fixed, dehydrated, and embedded before being sliced with a microtome. Furthermore, for dynamical measurements, the cochlea should not be altered and should be made in vivo without opening it.

Hard X-ray imaging is an excellent tool to examine structures on the micro- and nanometre length scale. For high photon energies, bulk materials become translucent because of the high penetration depth of the radiation. Furthermore, hard X-ray imaging is possible under various external thermal and mechanical conditions.

With the development of powerful light sources, novel hard X-ray imaging techniques have evolved. Third generation synchrotrons are optimised radiation sources for X-ray science, providing highly coherent and intense X-ray light at high photon energies, with a high penetration depth into the sample.

When imaging soft tissue or very small objects, the contrast due to the absorption of X-ray photons is very weak. However, the phase shift that occurs when a light wave propagates through material of different optical density can still be significant. Phase contrast imaging methods transform the phase shift information into amplitude, which is measurable with a detector. Structures with small absorption contrast or smaller than the detector resolution (in particular when using in-line phase contrast) can still be imaged. In-line phase contrast imaging is based on the propagation of X-rays in the near-field. The distance between detector and sample \( d_{\text{det-sam}} \) is small, compared to the objects’ smallest structures \( \delta_{\text{obj}} \) to resolve \( (d_{\text{det-sam}} < \delta_{\text{obj}} / \lambda, \lambda \) is the wavelength of the X-rays) and is typically in the order of several millimetres to centimetres for the given energies. The detected image closely resembles the sample structure with its edges enhanced. Phase contrast imaging has an especially large impact for biomedical studies where the objective is to image soft tissue like muscles [6] or soft tissue encapsulated in a bony shell [7].

Resolution is limited by the detector performance but can be drastically improved by increasing the sample’s X-ray projection on the detector plane. With X-ray optics, it is possible to build optical instruments for the hard X-ray regime similar to those used for visible light. We built a hard X-ray microscope using a Kirkpatrick–Baez mirror as the condenser optics and a Fresnel–Zone plate as the high-resolution objective lens. The instrument can image 50-nm structures and is ideal for high-resolution and non-destructive imaging.
In this paper, we provide an overview of the experimental possibilities with in-line phase contrast and hard X-ray microscopy.

2 Experimental

The instrument has been installed on the undulator beamline 34 ID at the Advanced Photon Source (APS), a third generation synchrotron at Argonne National Laboratory (Fig. 1). X-rays are generated in an electron storage ring by insertion devices (ID), deviating the electron path with alternating high magnetic fields. The undulator is one type of insertion device, producing a series of narrow peaks in the energy spectrum. The source size is 600 μm by 25 μm (horizontal × vertical) and the beam divergence is 30 μrad by 7 μrad (horizontal × vertical). The beam is shared between two stations. When the settings of the undulator are controlled by the 34 ID-E station, this operation mode is called ‘parasitic mode’. A silicon mirror with differently coated stripes deflects the beam to the C-hutch (Fig. 1a, left side). In this case, the photon flux is 50–100 times more intense.

The experimental table is 55 m from the source. At this distance, the beam size is ≈1 mm². The intensity of the monochromatic beam is $10^{12}$ photons/s. Because of small source size s and large distance d, the transverse coherence of the beam $I_{\text{lat}}$ is very high for a given wavelength $\lambda$: $I_{\text{lat}} = d \cdot \Delta \lambda / \lambda$. The theoretical value is 240 μm vertically by 10 μm horizontally. The longitudinal coherence length $I_{\text{lon}}$ is given by the monochromaticity of the X-rays $\lambda / \Delta \lambda$ and the wavelength: $I_{\text{lon}} = \lambda / \Delta \lambda$. For the monochromatic beam ($\lambda / \Delta \lambda \approx 10^{-2}$), this value is 1.4 μm for 9-keV photon energy.

For in-line phase contrast imaging [9, 10], a sample stage and a detector are mounted on the experimental table. The distance between the sample and the detector is adjustable to modulate the contrast. The sample stage consists of several high quality translation and rotation stages, adapted to the requirements for nano-tomography. The detector registers the radiation transmitted through the sample. X-rays are transformed into visible light by a scintillation screen and then recorded via microscope optic on the chip of a CCD camera. The camera has 14-bit resolution with a 1560 × 1024 pixel array and the pixel dimension is 9 × 9 μm². The scintillation screen is an europium (Eu) doped Yttrium–Aluminium–Garnet (YAG) crystal. The resolution and light conversion efficiency of the crystal depend on the thickness of the doped active layer. The depth of focus and the magnification of the optical microscope are selected accordingly to the active layer thickness of the scintillation screen and the achievable resolution. For example, the resolution of the system is $\approx 1.2 \mu m$ when using a screen with a 6 μm thick doped active europium layer and $50 \times$ optical magnification.

The hard X-ray microscope can be set up on the same experimental table. High spatial resolution up to 50 nm is achieved with magnifying X-ray optics, such as X-ray lenses. The function of this microscope is similar to a visible light microscope. For this reason, concepts known from visible light microscopy (components, sample illumination, contrast mechanisms) can be applied to the novel instrument.

For X-ray microscopy, a condenser is placed in front of the sample stage. It consists of a Kirkpatrick–Baez (KB)-mirror, which is a pair of a horizontal and a vertical platinum-coated silicon mirrors [11] (for more recent developments see [12–14]). The mirrors focus the beam in both directions onto the centre of the sample stage. The beam spot is $\approx 3 \times 2 \mu m²$. In order to increase the (illuminated) field of view, the condenser is scanned. The KB system is achromatic and is very light efficient and can focus more than 60% of the incoming intensity. A high resolution objective lens [15] is positioned $\approx 2–3 \mu m$ behind the sample. Most of the beam passes straight through the zone plate without being diffracted (0th order) and does not produce a magnified image. The central part of the beam (which is close to the optical axes) is blocked by a beam-stop placed directly in front of the KB mirror system. The first diffraction order of the zone plate forms a real image in the shadow of the beam-stop.

The diameter of the zone plates is between 50 and 80 μm and their focal distance is 22.5 mm at 9-keV photon energy. The illumination by the condenser system is matched to the numerical aperture of the zone plate. Under these conditions, the full resolution of the zone plate is achieved. The outermost zone width of the zone plate $\Delta r_0$ is 40–70 nm, providing a resolution $\delta$ between 50 and 80 nm ($\delta = 1.22 \cdot \Delta r_0$). The zone plate has to be refocused for individual photon energies because of its chromatic aberration. In the working energy range of the microscope between 6 and 12 keV the depth of focus $d_{\text{Dof}}$ is 15–30 μm (50-nm resolution) and 50–100 μm (85-nm resolution) given by $d_{\text{Dof}} = 2 \cdot \Delta r_0 / \lambda$. The efficiency of the 500-nm thick gold-made zone plate is $\approx 5\%$ at 9-keV photon energy. With a distance of 50–70 cm between zone plate and detector, the typical X-ray magnification is between 20 and 40 times. With high X-ray magnification, a highly efficient detector configuration with moderate spatial resolution can be chosen without compromising the overall resolution of the system. Scintillation screens, such as caesium-iodide (CsI) or Eu:YAG, with 26-μm active europium layer were used for tomography experiments, providing slightly lower resolution. In this case, the exposure time is reduced from several minutes to some seconds. Complete scans with up to 180

![Fig. 1](image-url)

**Fig. 1** Scheme of the beamline and experiment for

*In-line phase contrast imaging with micrometer resolution with ‘Pink-beam’*

*Hard X-ray microscopy on the nano-length-scale with monochromatic beam*

The condenser system in (b) consists of a horizontal and vertical focusing mirror, the focal distance for the latter is 10 cm (not represented)
projections were recorded within hours and less (currently under evaluation).

In-line phase contrast imaging has been used to study a mammalian cochlea and a photonic crystal. The detailed structure of photonic crystals is imaged with nanometre resolution using the hard X-ray microscope. The experimental results are presented to demonstrate the capabilities of these imaging techniques.

3 Results

Fig. 2 shows a typical result of in-line phase contrast imaging for a bio-medical application. The object is a mammalian cochlea. The photon energy was 12 keV, using monochromatic beam. For the detector a YAG crystal with a 26-μm doped Europium layer and 10× light optical magnification were chosen. Under these conditions, the spatial resolution is ≈4 μm and the exposure time 1 s. The distance between sample and detector was 20 mm. Fig. 2a shows the X-ray image of a thick (>400 μm) cochlea. Fig. 2b shows the scheme of the corresponding structures. Between strongly absorbing bone, the fine little absorbing membranes are visible. The edges are revealed by the in-line phase contrast. Structures such as the tectorial membrane, organ of Corti, basilar membrane and Reissner’s membrane can be identified. This study is of major importance for further investigations with tomography or time resolved experiments. They are of particular interest to get a better understanding of the mechanism underlying the hearing process.

An application of in-line phase contrast imaging for material sciences is shown in Fig. 3. The sample is a metallic photonic crystal. It consists of an inverted nickel structure containing hollow spherical cavities. Regions of hexagonal closed packed (hcp) spheres can be identified over a large field of view. The sample thickness varies by some layers over the area. Also some disordered regions can be found (see lower right part). A part of the image is shown in detail on the lower left. The nickel walls, which separate the hollow spheres, are likely <100-nm thick. They are imaged at a detector–sample distance of 4 mm. The image was captured with a photon energy of 11 keV (monochromatic beam), an exposure time of 5 s and a detector resolution of 1.2 μm (50× optical magnification, Eu:YAG screen with 6-μm thick doped active Europium layer).

Fig. 4 demonstrates the performance of the hard X-ray microscope. The X-ray magnification is 26x and the magnification of the light microscope is 50x. The pixel of the CCD chip are binned by 2 × 2. Using a 6-μm thick doped Eu:YAG screen, the exposure time is 30 s for a 13 × 5-μm² field of view. Again, a photonic crystal made of nickel with hollow spheres was studied (Fig. 4a). Details of 50-nm ligaments connecting larger structures can be identified. A profile through such a wall is shown in Fig. 4b. The intensity is
integrated over \( \sim 140 \) nm perpendicular to the line. The width of the structure is \( \sim 65 \) nm, measured between the inflection points of the curve. Moreover, the derivative of the profile is plotted in the same graph. The full width at half maximum (FWHM) of a Gaussian, fitted in the left branch of the curve, is \( 50.4 \) nm \( \pm 10 \) nm. The latter figure is commonly used to quantify resolution, when using a knife-edge as test object. Analysing sections of broader structures give similar results to the one shown in Fig. 4b.

In order to prove that phase objects can be studied with the X-ray microscope, a boron fibre (with a different core) was studied as a test object (Fig. 5). The sample is nearly in focus. In the centre of Fig. 5, a fine line, corresponding to the boron–air interface can be identified. The intensities left and right of this line are almost identical as the absorption of the fibre is negligible.

4 Discussion and outlook

Synchrotron-based hard X-ray imaging is a valuable tool for micro- and nano-structured materials. Although methods like electron microscopy or atomic force microscopy have much higher spatial resolution, X-ray microscopy has an ultimate advantage for investigations on bulk samples. Tomographic data of materials that become translucent at high photon energies can be acquired straightforward. Sample handling is rather easy and many kinds of sample environments are feasible.

Further improvements of the instrument’s performance are possible. Spatial resolution of 15 nm is possible using the third diffraction order of the Fresnel–Zone plates under matched illumination. The efficiency and resolution of optics can be improved for both the X-ray and visible light components. The acquisition time might be also reduced by at least one order of magnitude, using a broader part of the energy spectrum and for this purpose adapted X-ray optics. Moreover, increasing the image contrast is a very profitable option. It is useful to consider therefore the Rose signal-to-noise ratio \( \text{SNR}_{\text{Rose}} = \frac{C \sqrt{\lambda}}{\sqrt{\lambda}} \), where \( C \) is the contrast, \( \lambda \) the average number of photons per unit area and \( A \) the area (for more information see [16] and citations within). The Rose signal-to-noise ratio is a measure for image quality and should be at least 5, in order to reliably detect a uniform object within the considered area. For images with a given \( \text{SNR}_{\text{Rose}} \), the number of photons diminishes by the square, when the contrast is increased linearly. One efficient way to increase the contrast is the Zernike method and has already been shown to work for X-ray energies up to 4 keV [17].

5 Conclusion

Hard X-ray imaging with synchrotron radiation is a valuable tool for different scientific fields, such as materials sciences or biomedicine. Bulk materials can be studied without extensive sample preparation. Structures with low absorption contrast are imaged on the micrometer scale making use of in-line phase contrast. Highest resolution is achieved when using a hard X-ray microscope. In this case, structures with 50-nm extension can be identified.

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6 References
