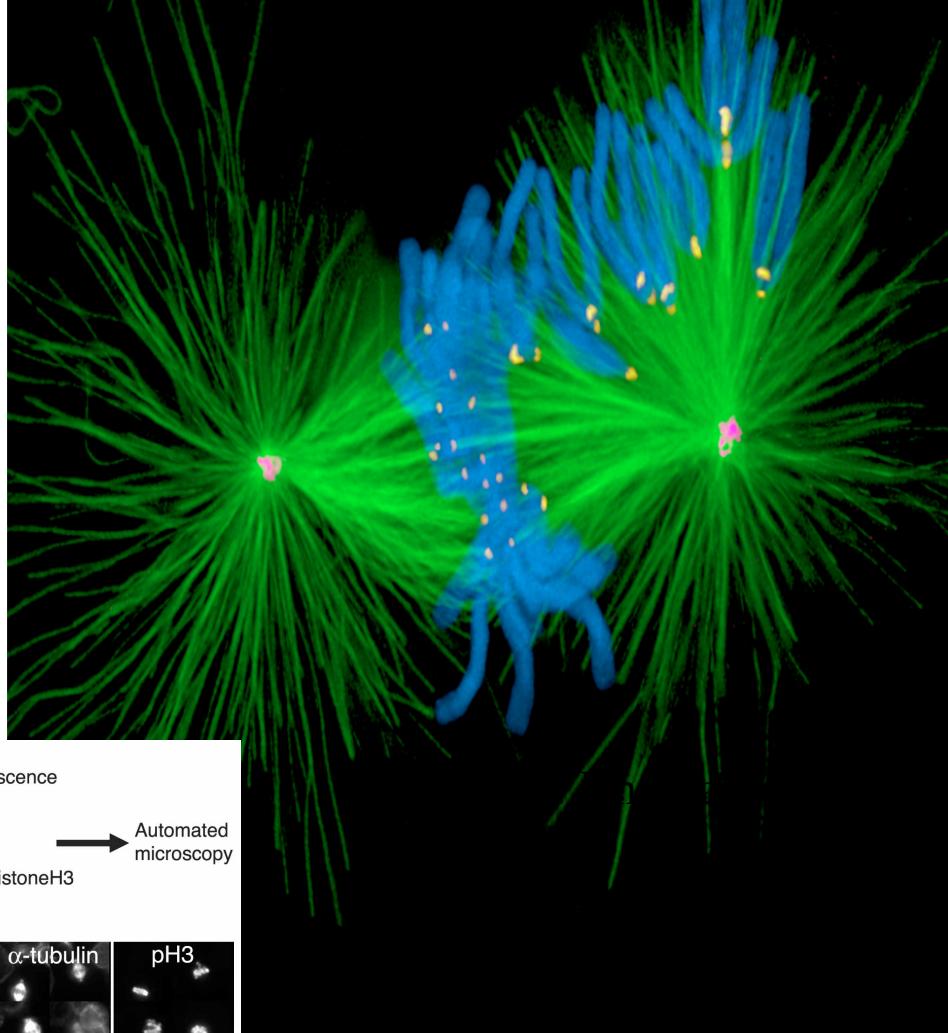
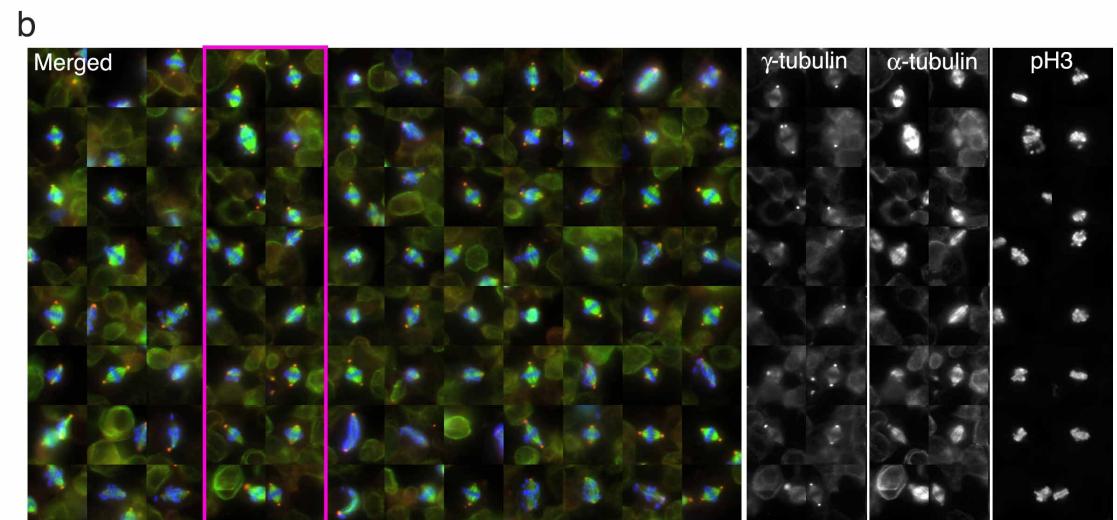
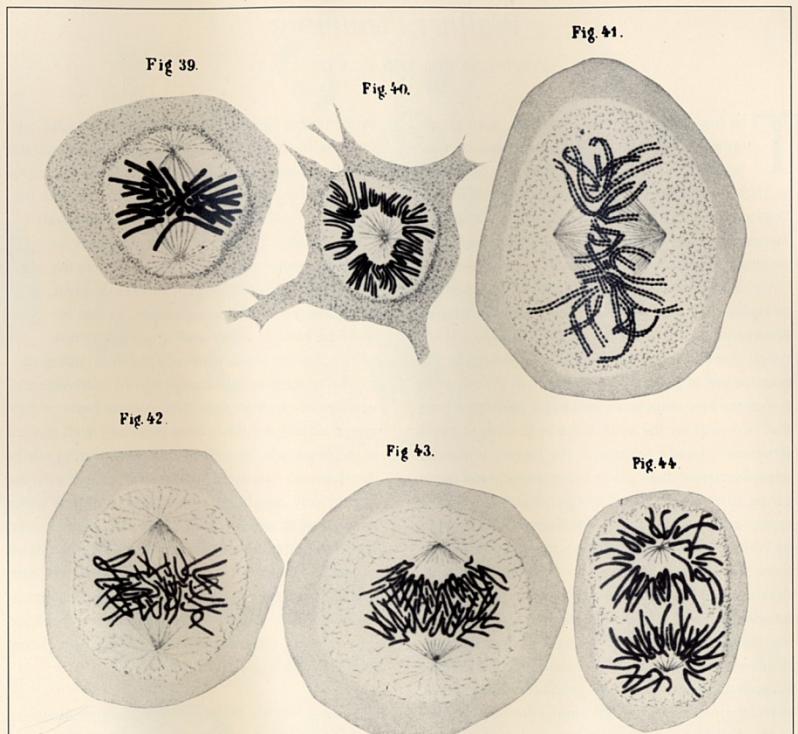


(Image: T. Wittman, Scripps)

# The Light Microscope

- Four centuries of history
- Vibrant current development
- One of the most widely used research tools





# **Major Imaging Functions of the Microscope**

- Magnify
- Resolve features
- Generate Contrast
- Capture and Display Images

# An Upright Epifluorescence Microscope

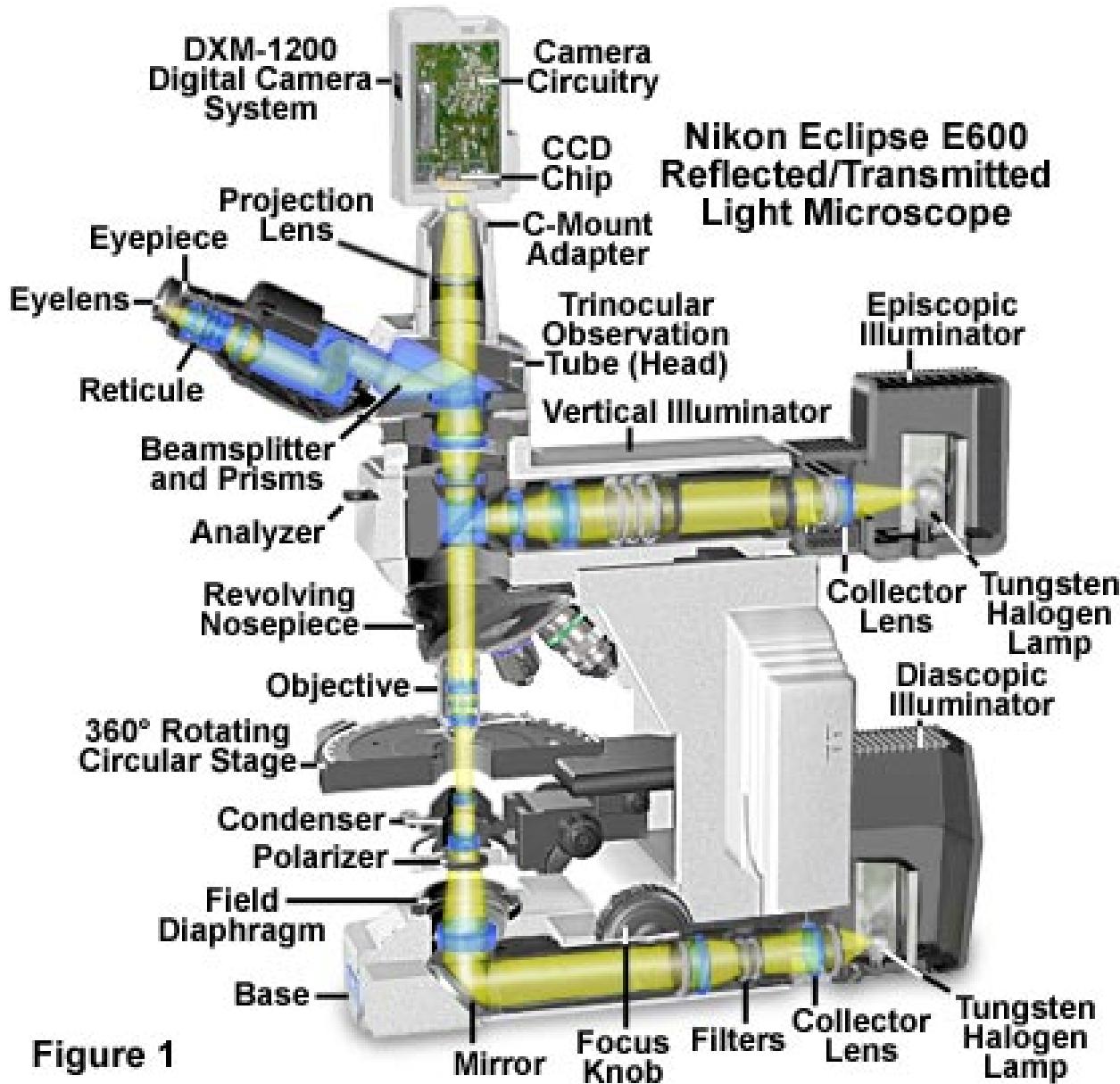
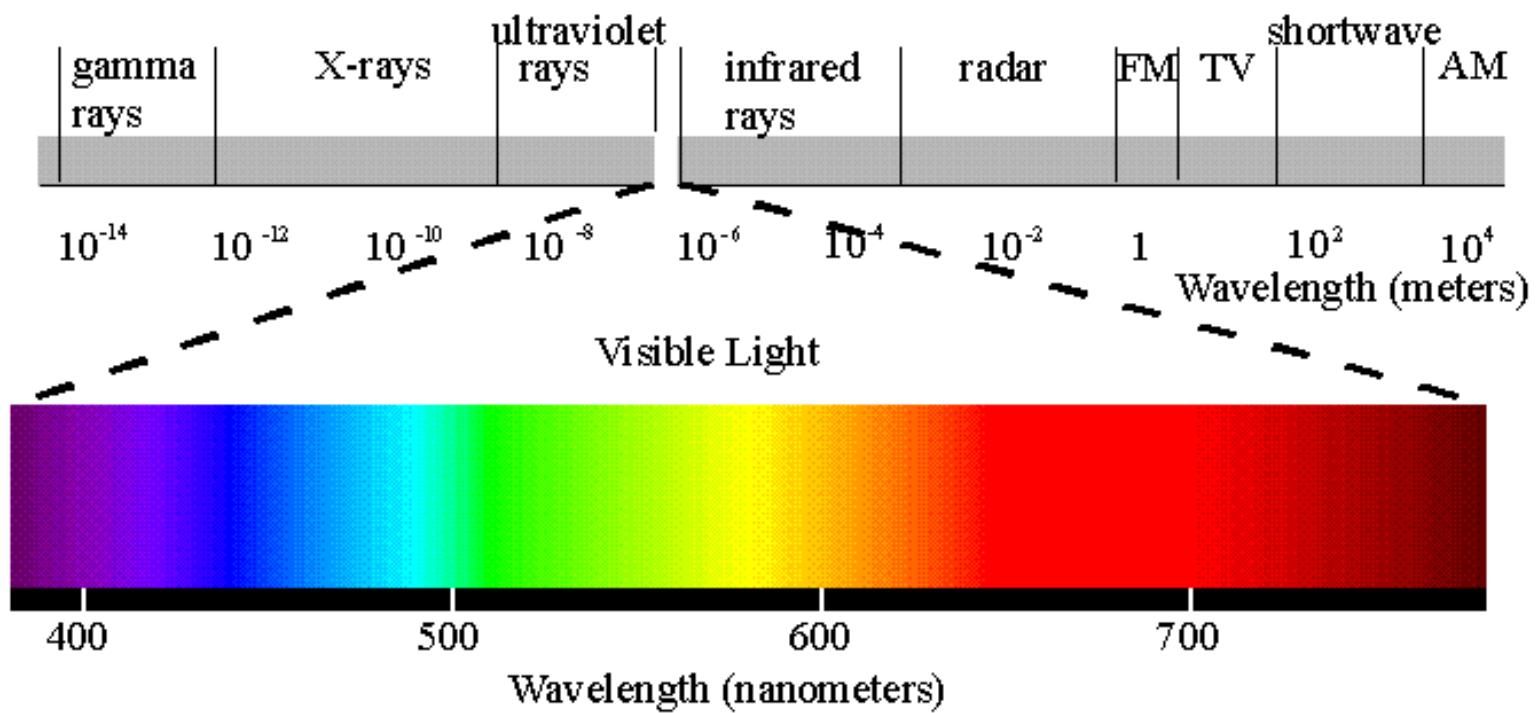


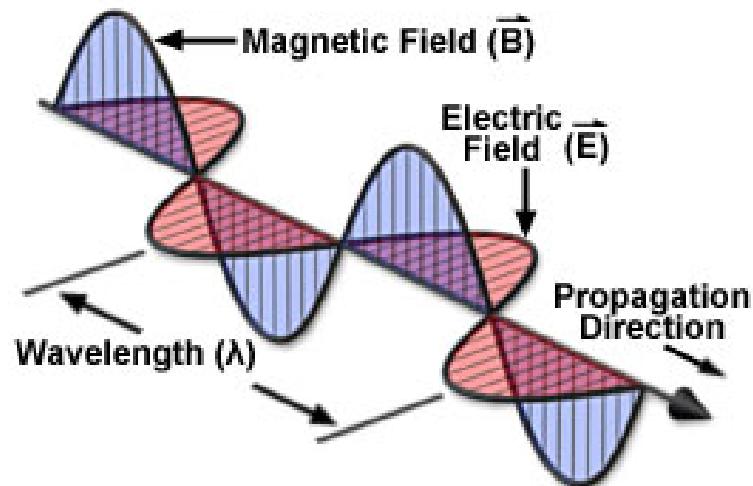
Figure 1

# Electromagnetic Waves

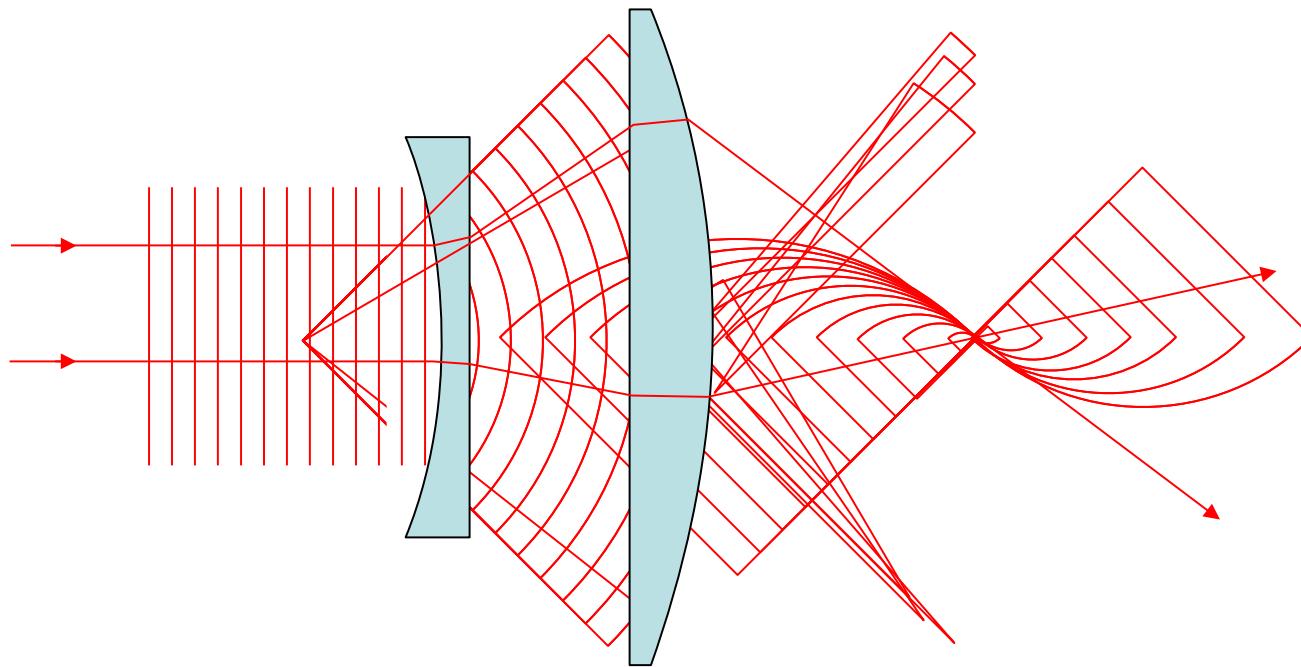


# Waves vs. Photons vs. Rays

- Quantum wave-particle duality
- Rays: photon trajectories
- Rays: propagation direction of waves



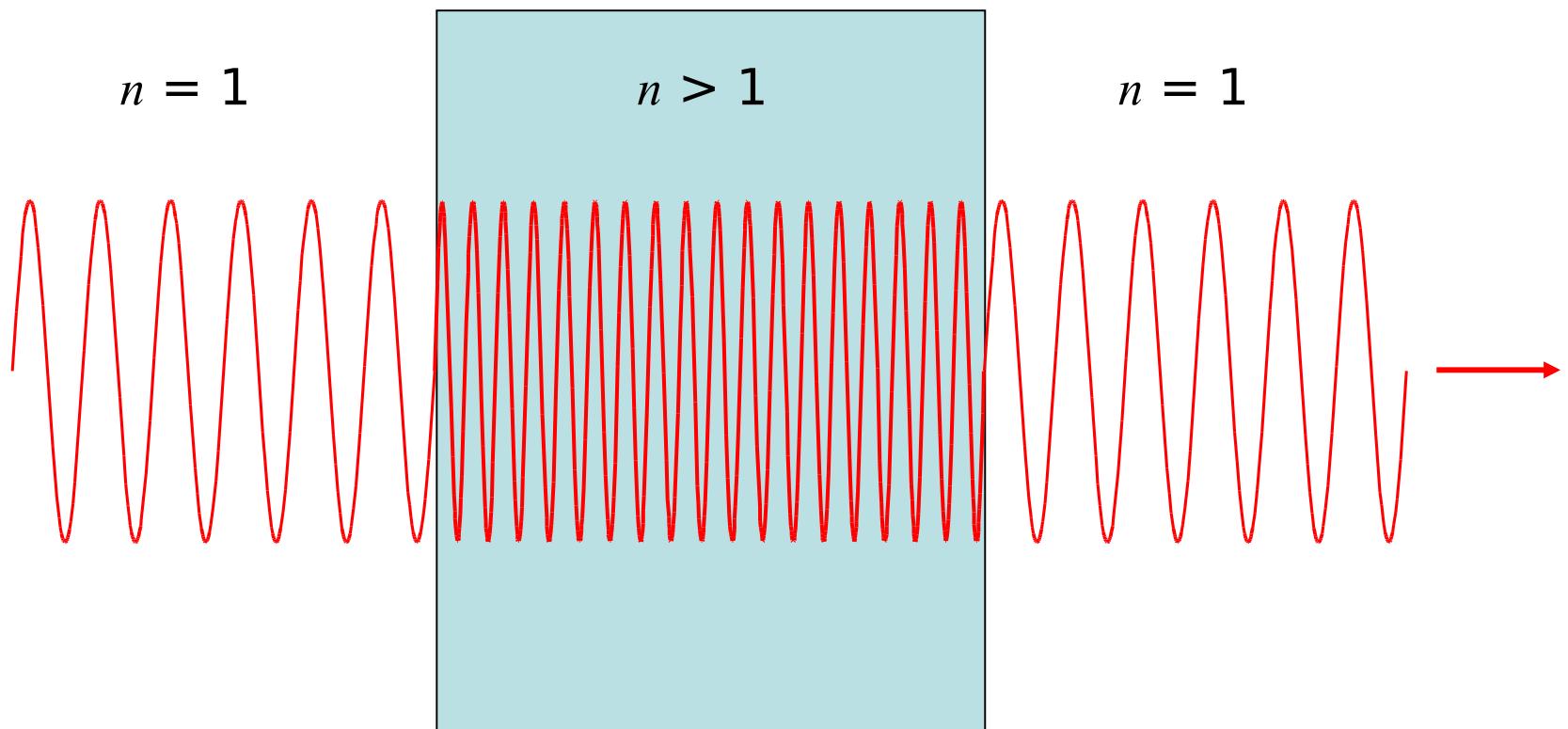
# Rays are perpendicular to wavefronts



# Light travels more slowly in matter

The speed ratio is the ***Index of Refraction, n***

$$v = c/n$$



# Refractive Index Examples

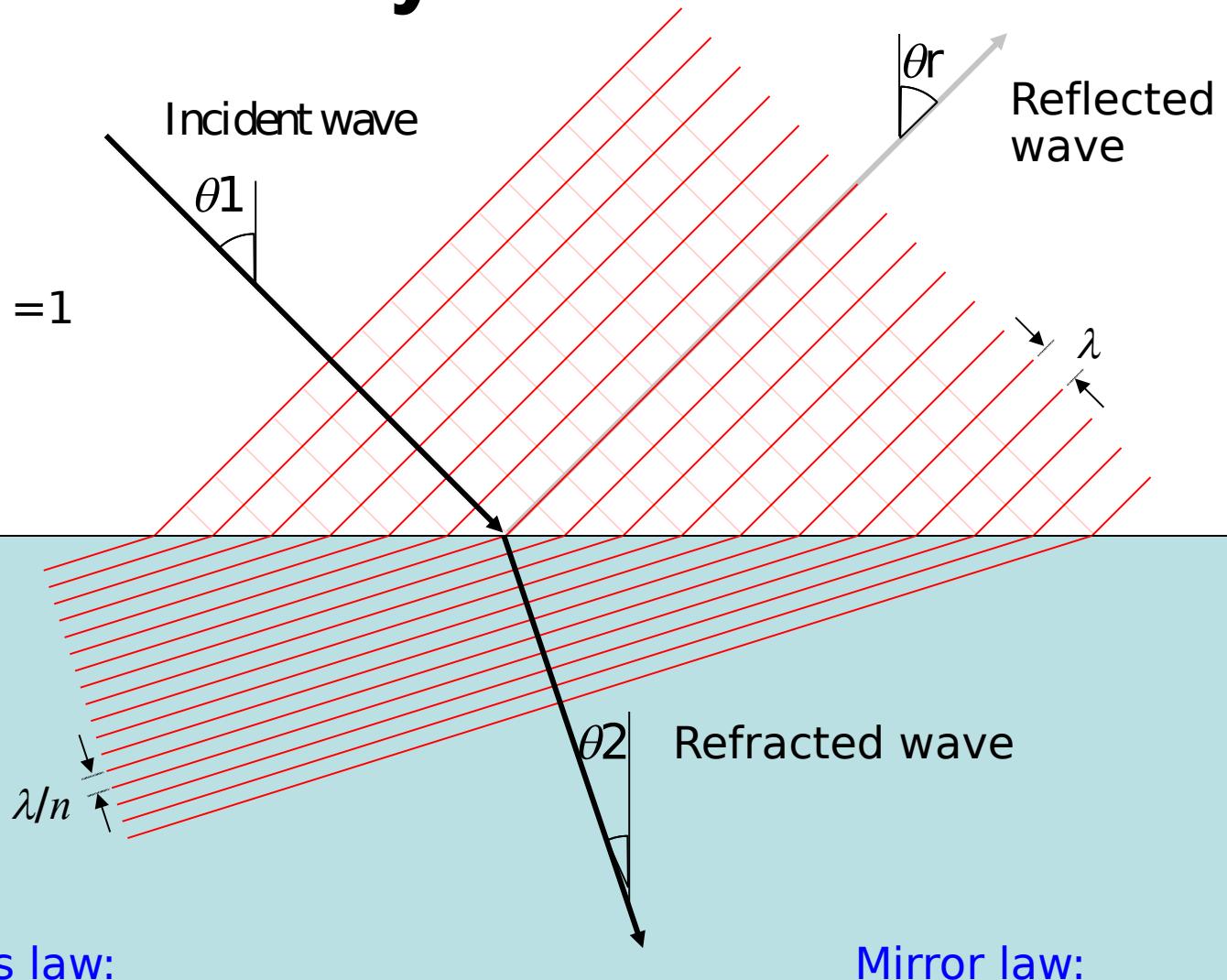
- Vacuum 1
- Air 1.0003
- Water 1.333
- Cytoplasm 1.35-1.38 ?
- Glycerol 1.475 (anhydrous)
- Immersion oil 1.515
- Fused silica 1.46
- Optical glasses 1.5-1.9
- Diamond 2.417

Depends on wavelength and temperature

# Refraction by an Interface

Refractive index  $n_1 = 1$   
Speed =  $c$

Refractive index  $n_2$   
Speed =  $c/n$



⇒ Snell's law:

$$n_1 \sin(\theta_1) = n_2 \sin(\theta_2)$$

Mirror law:

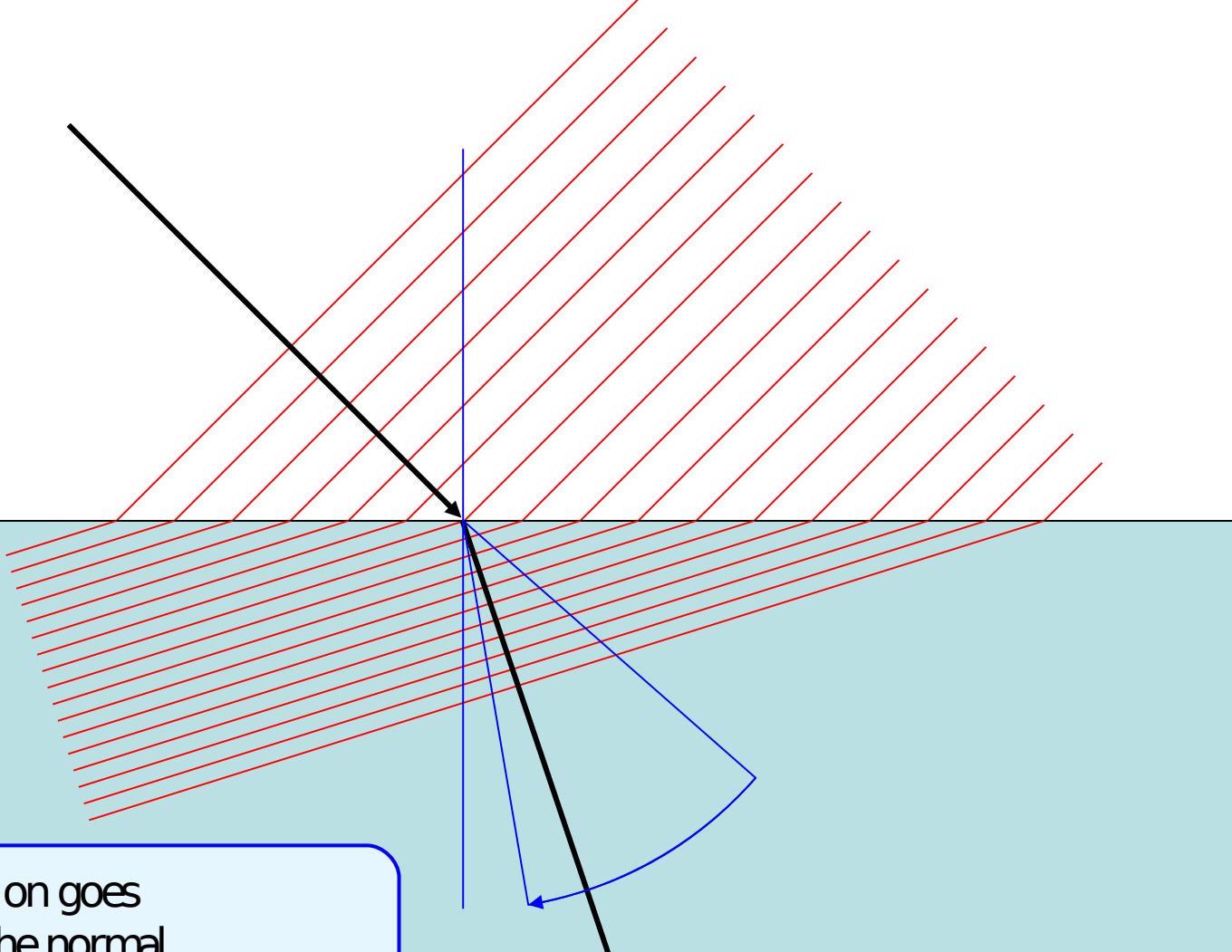
$$\theta_r = \theta_1$$

# Which Direction?

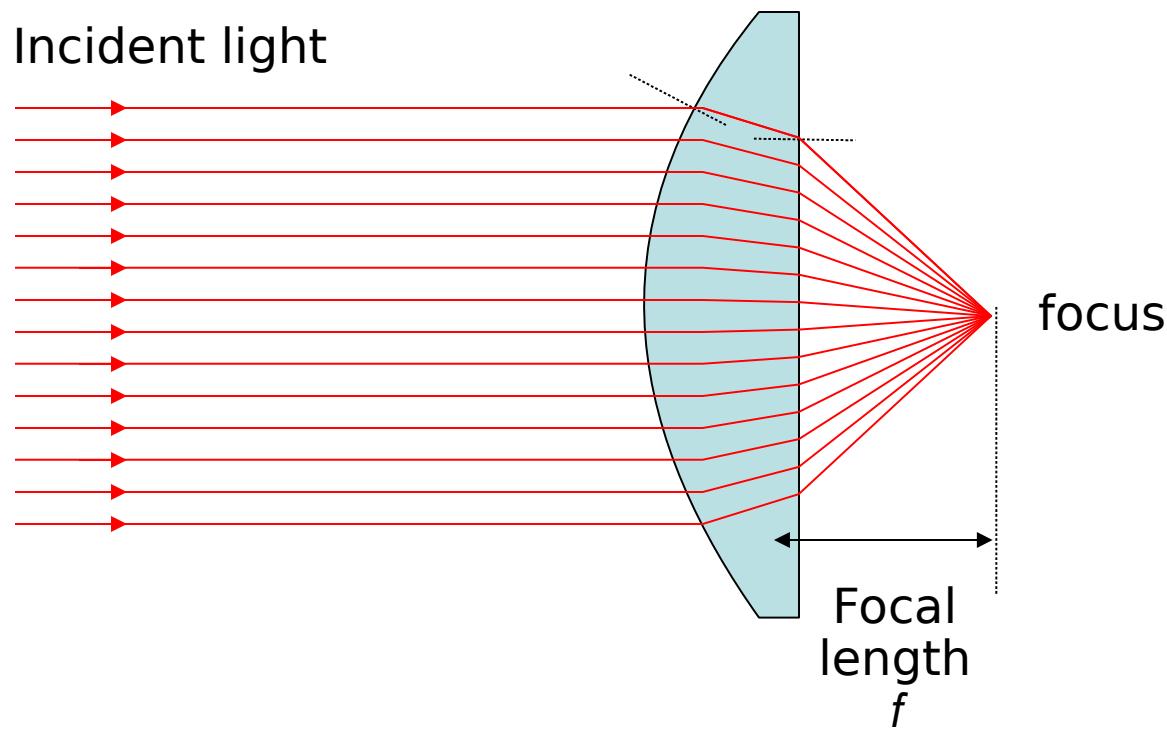
$n1$

$n2 > n1$

Refraction goes  
*towards* the normal  
in the *higher-index* medium



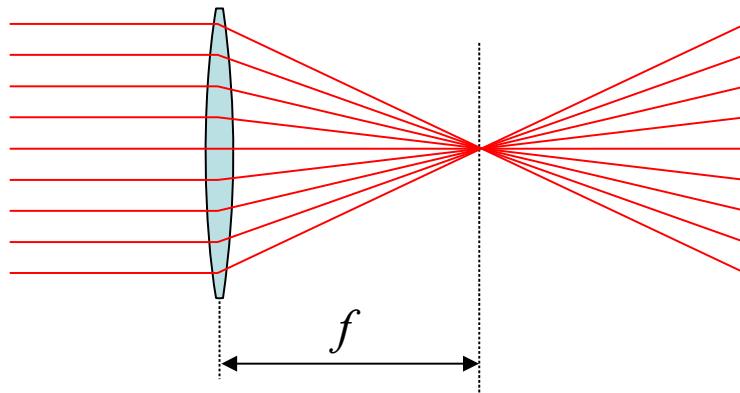
# Lenses work by refraction



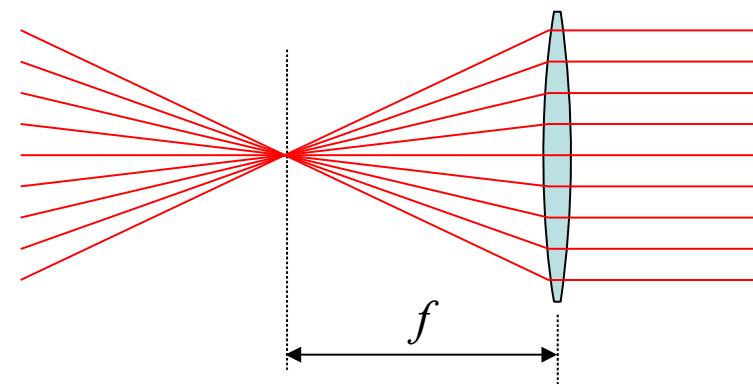
# Ray Tracing Rules of Thumb

(for thin ideal lenses)

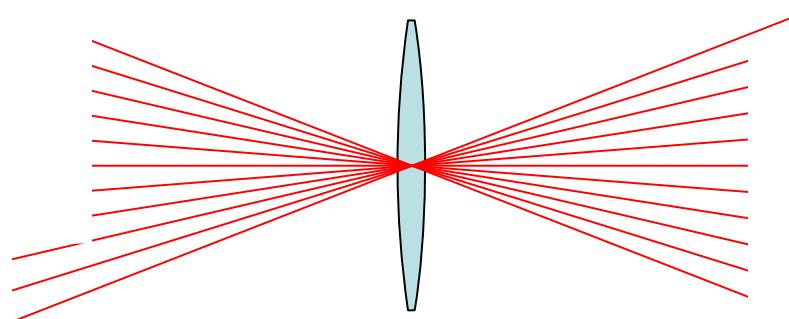
Parallel rays converge at the focal plane



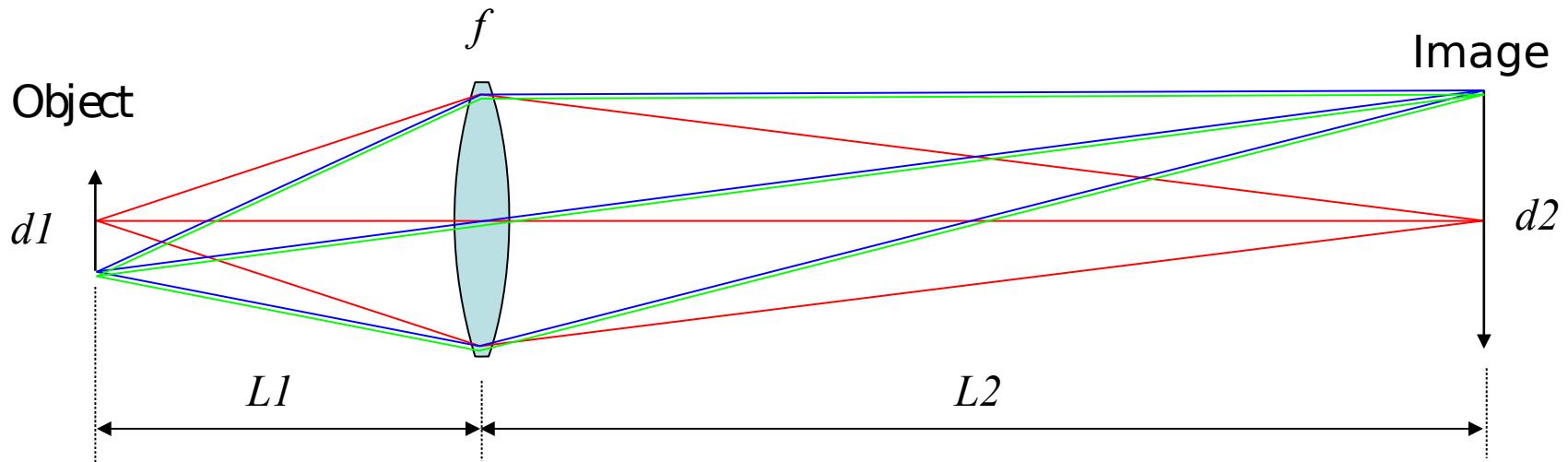
Rays that cross in the focal plane end up parallel



Rays through the lens center are unaffected



# Imaging



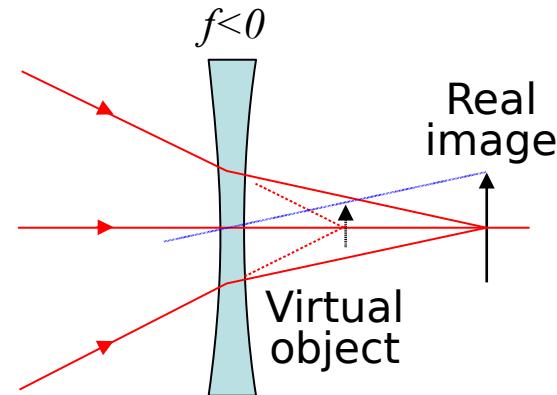
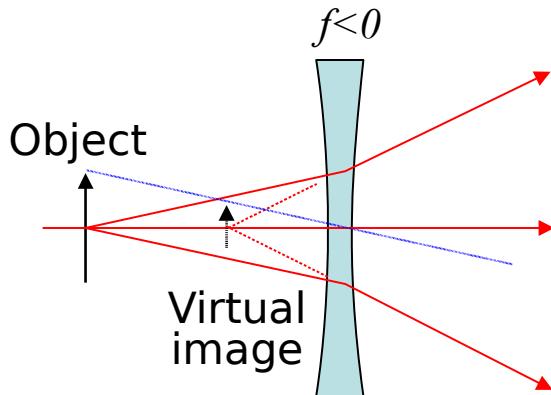
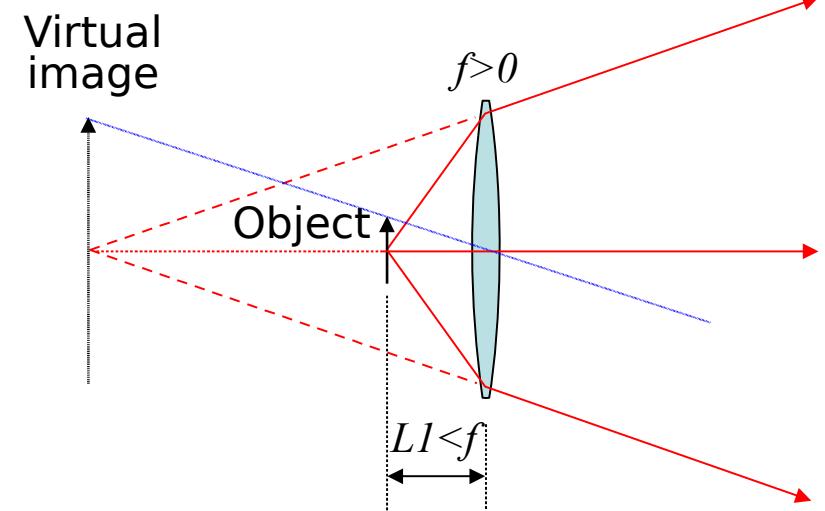
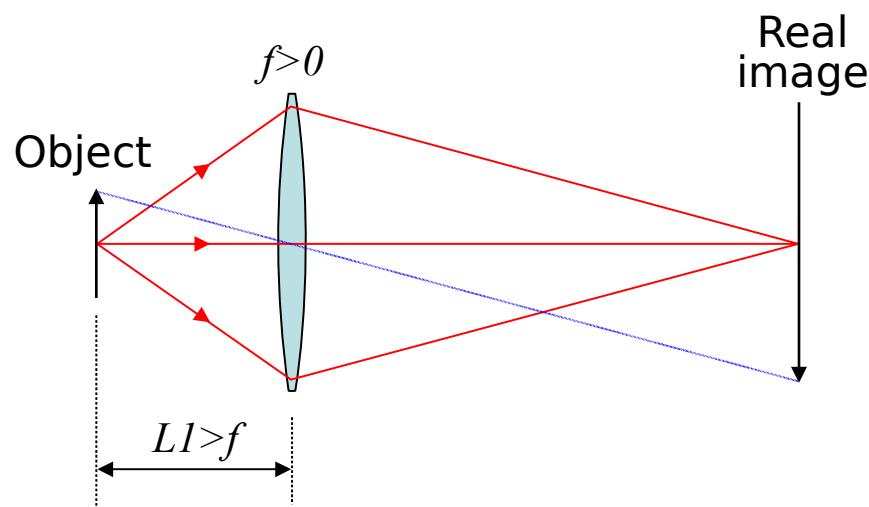
The lens law:

$$\frac{1}{L_1} + \frac{1}{L_2} = \frac{1}{f}$$

Magnification:

$$M = \frac{d_2}{d_1} = \frac{L_2}{L_1}$$

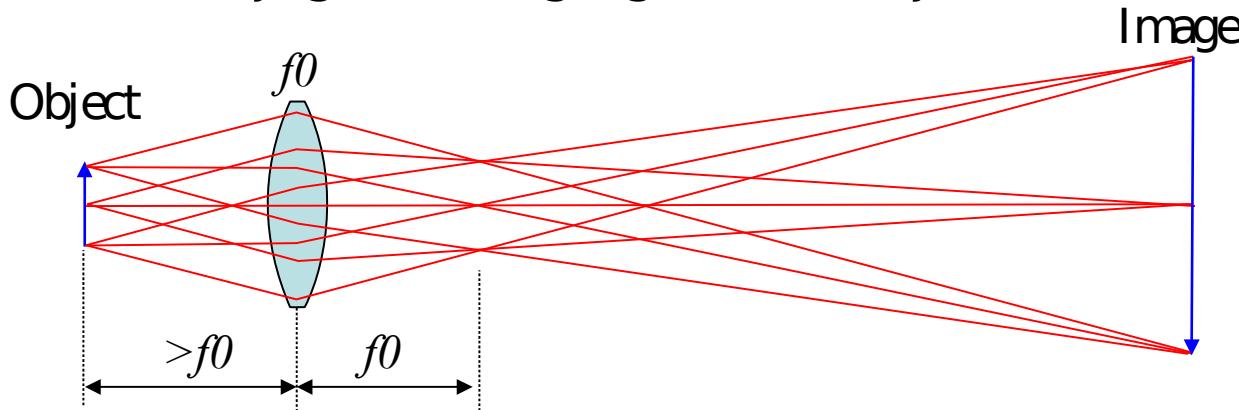
# Real and virtual images



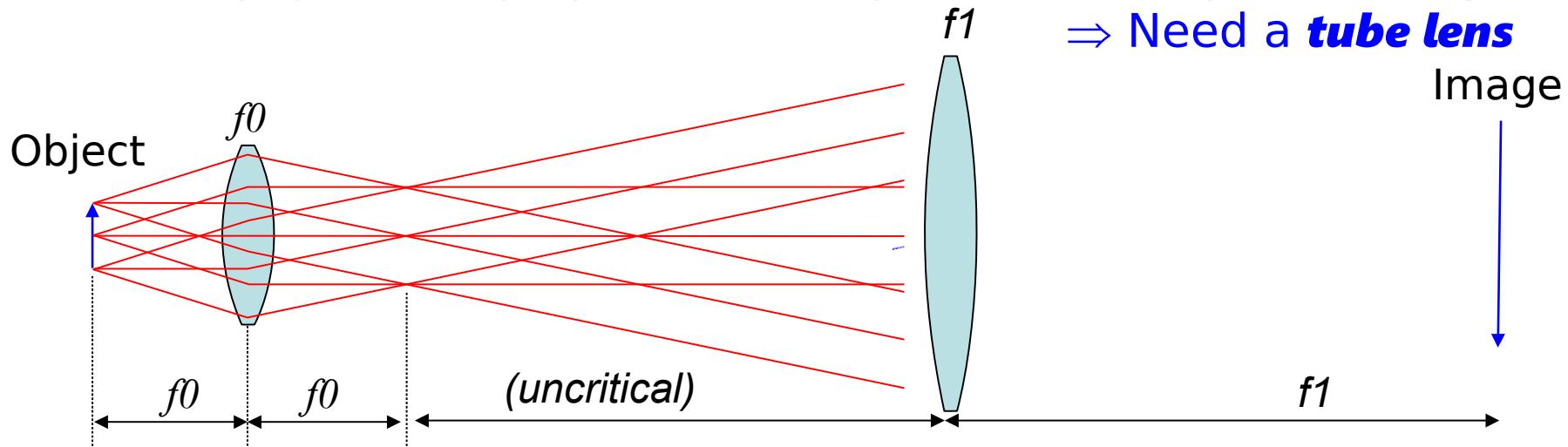
The same lens law applies: Negative lenses have negative  $f$   
Virtual objects or images have negative values of  $L_1$  or  $L_2$

# Finite vs. Infinite Conjugate Imaging

- Finite conjugate imaging (older objectives)

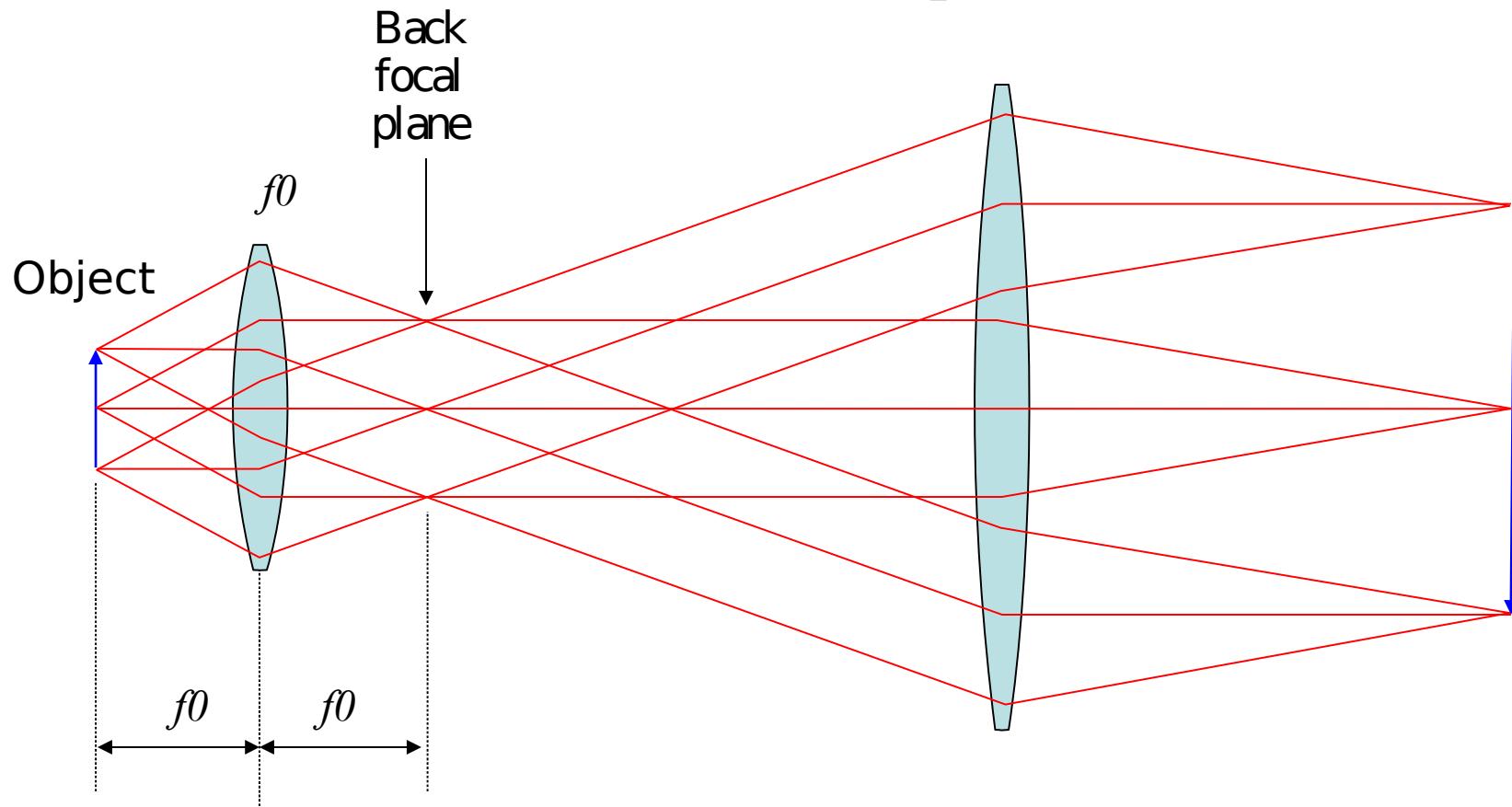


- Infinite conjugate imaging (modern objectives). Image at infinity



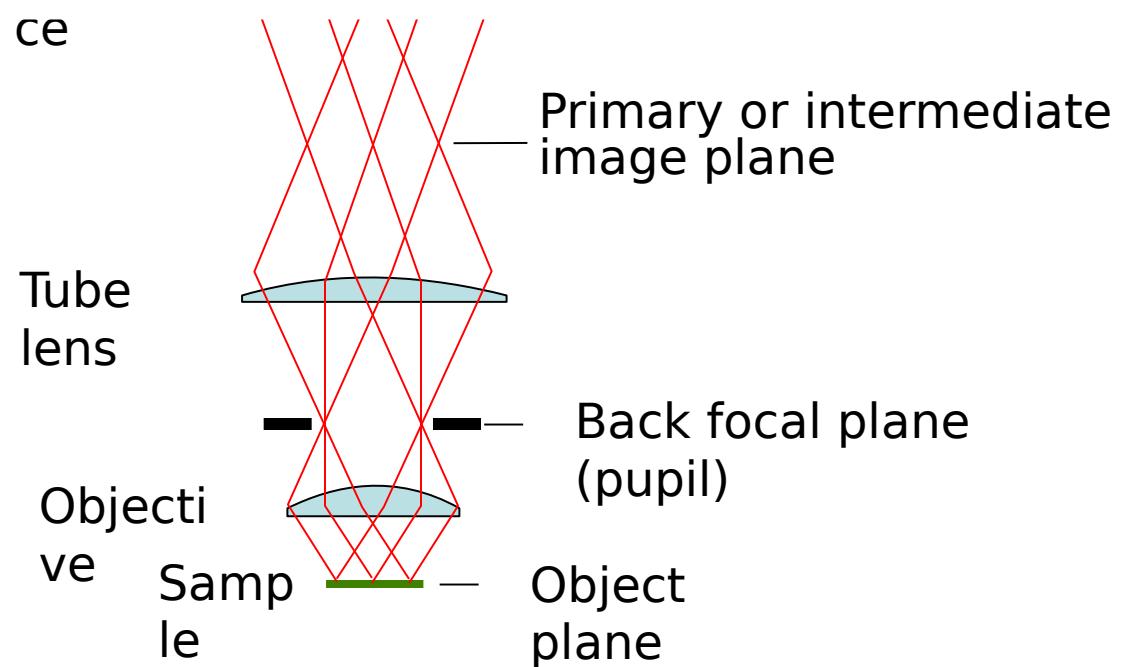
Magnification:  $M = \frac{f_1}{f_0}$

# Back focal plane

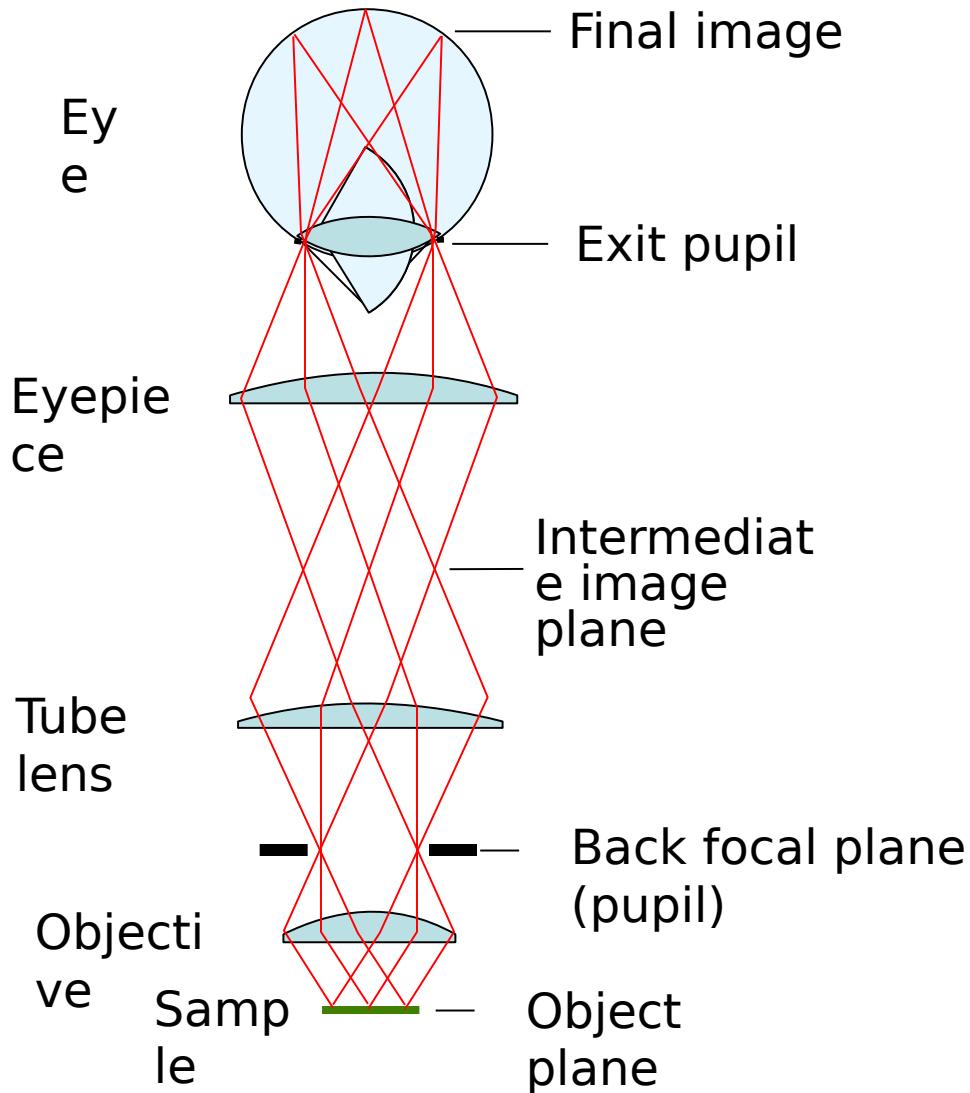


Rays that leave the object with the same angle  
meet in the objective's *back focal plane*

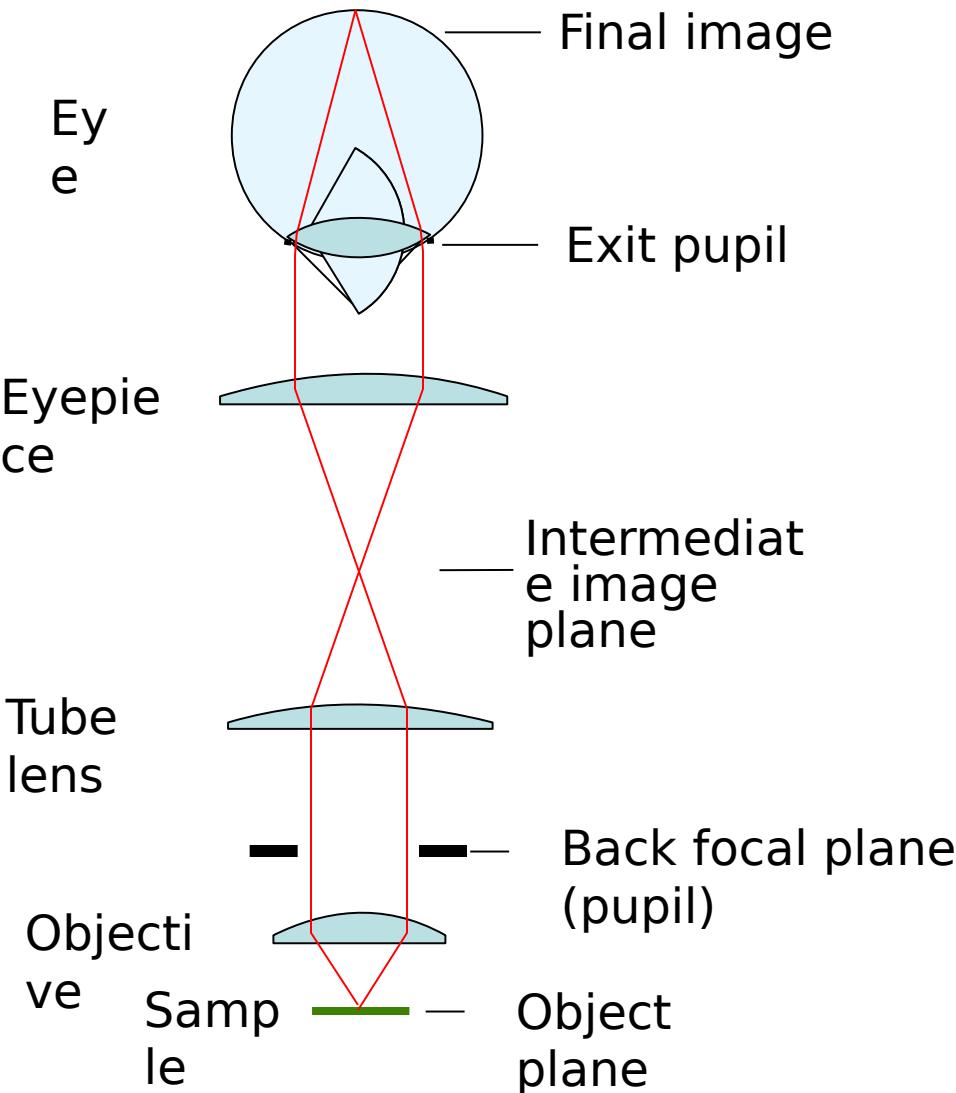
# The Compound Microscope



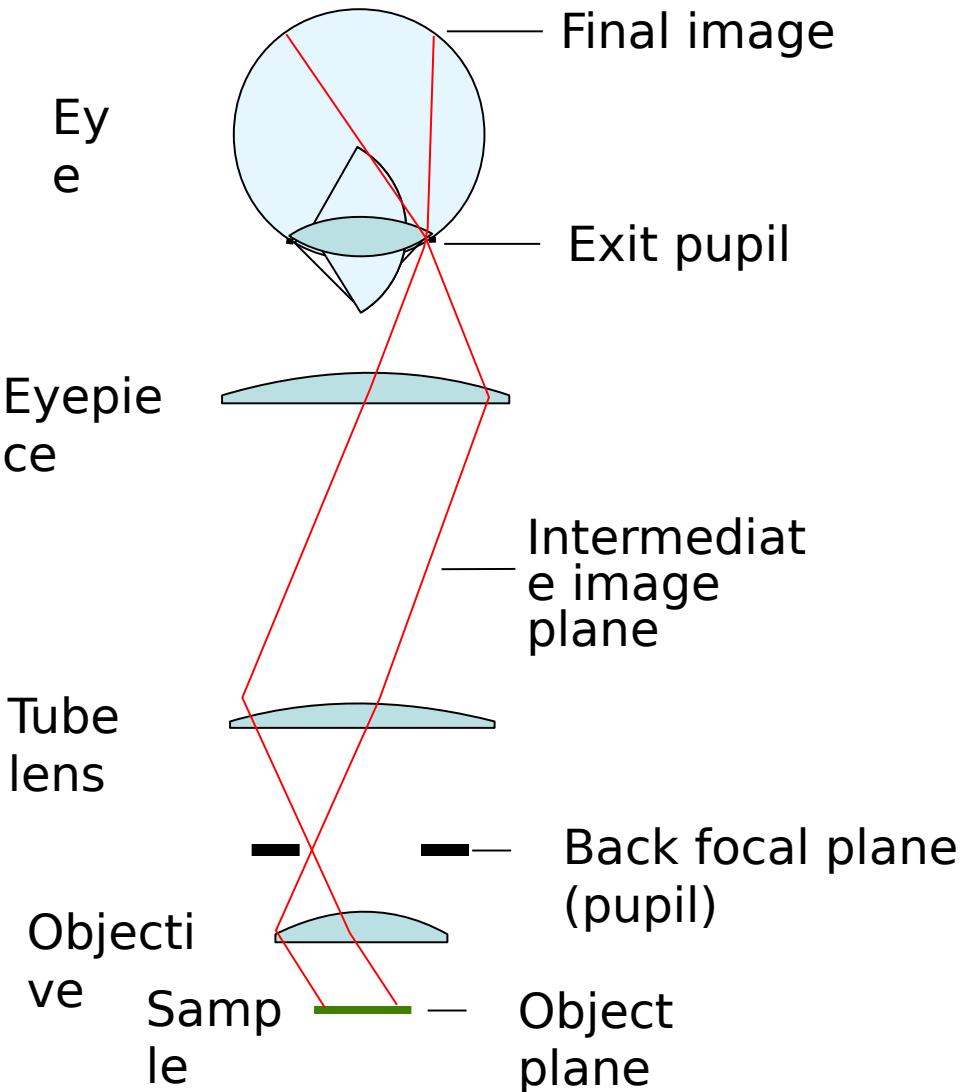
# The Compound Microscope



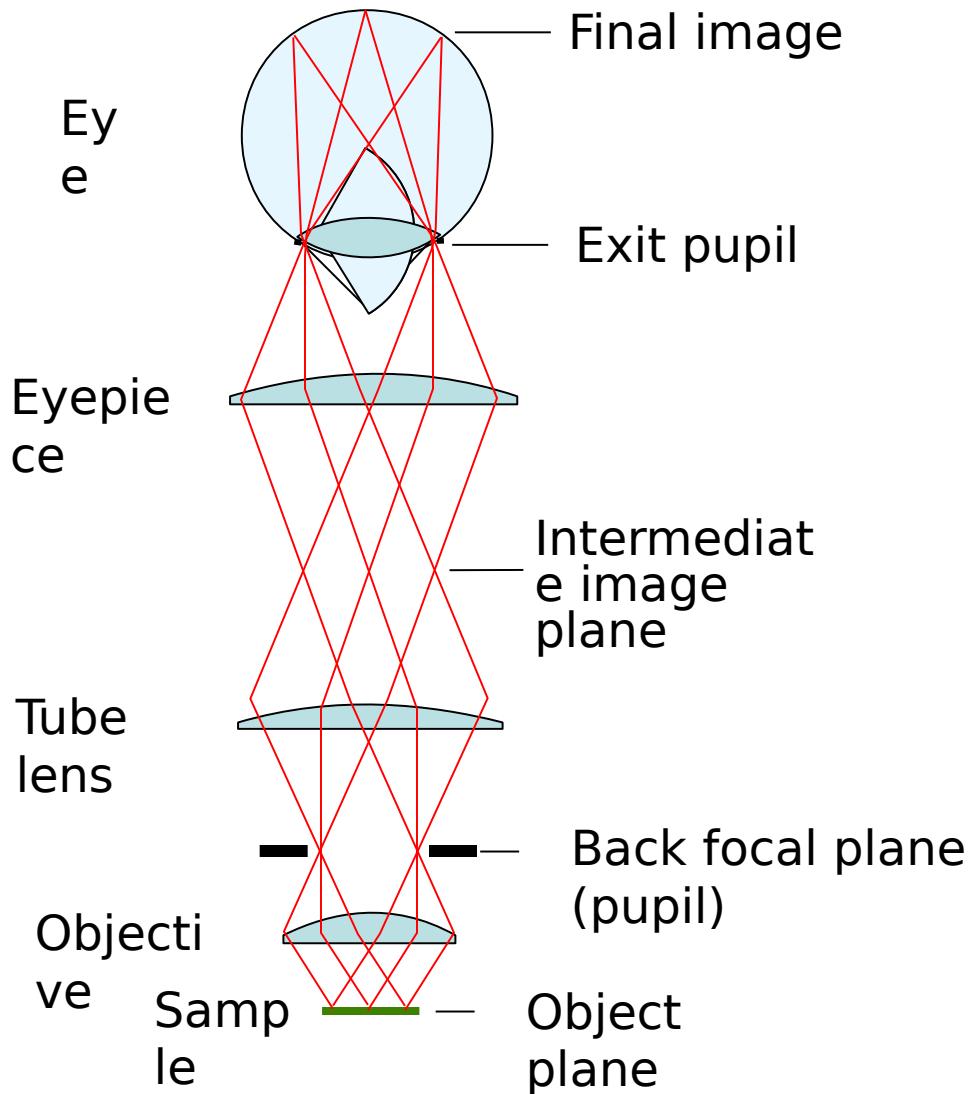
# The Compound Microscope



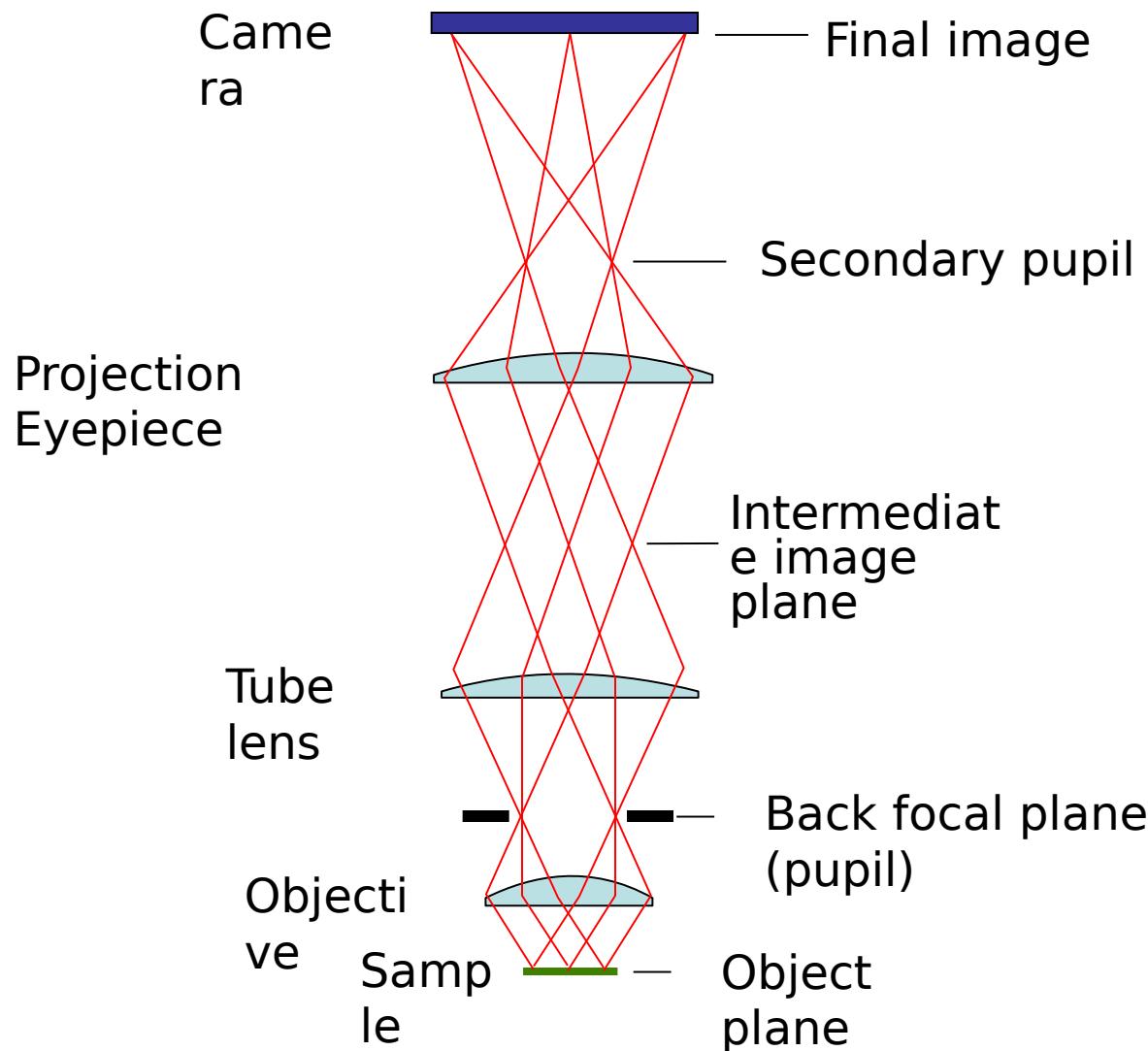
# The Compound Microscope



# The Compound Microscope



# The Compound Microscope



# Eyepieces (Oculars)

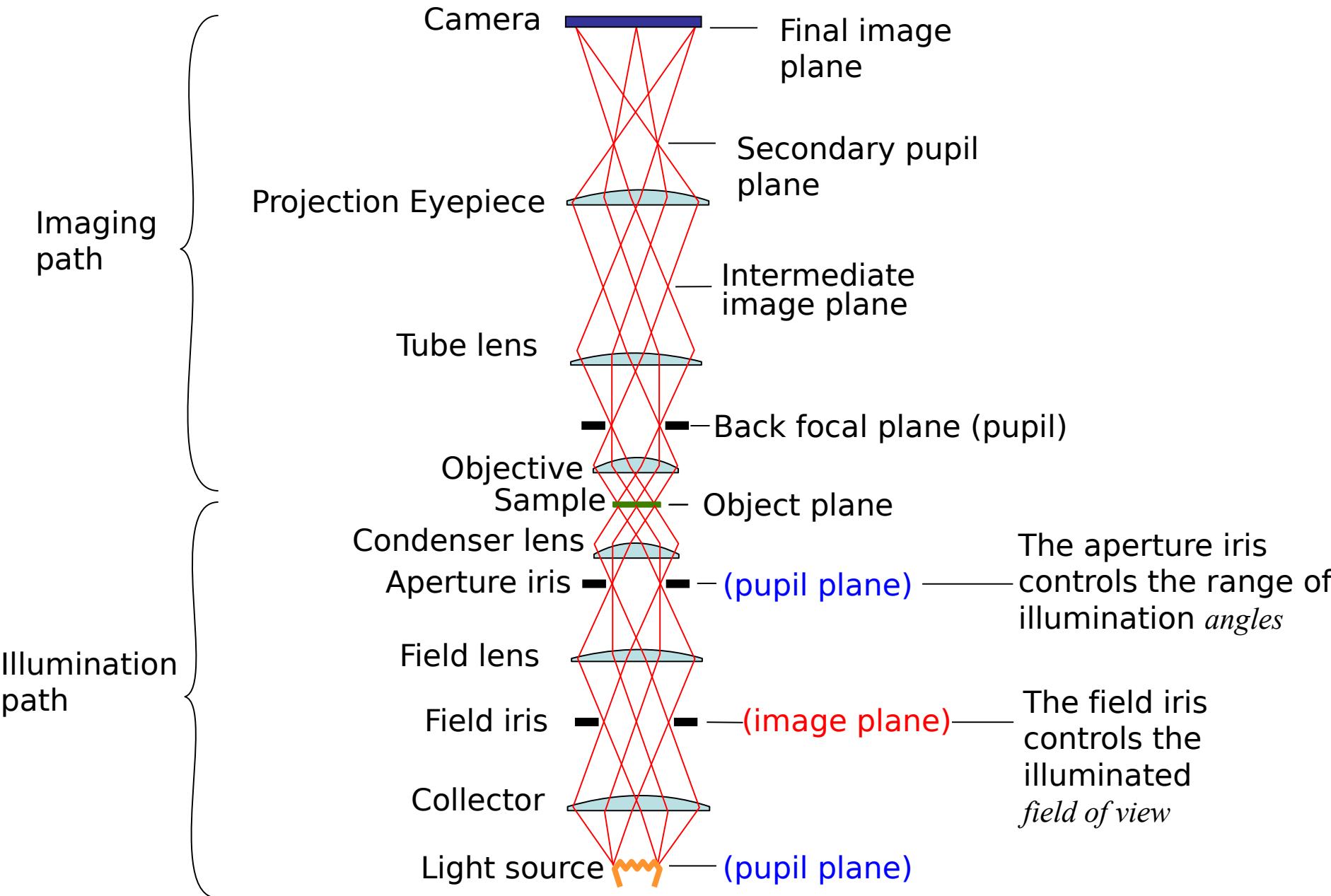
Aberration-Free 10x Eyepiece With Diopter Adjustment



## Features

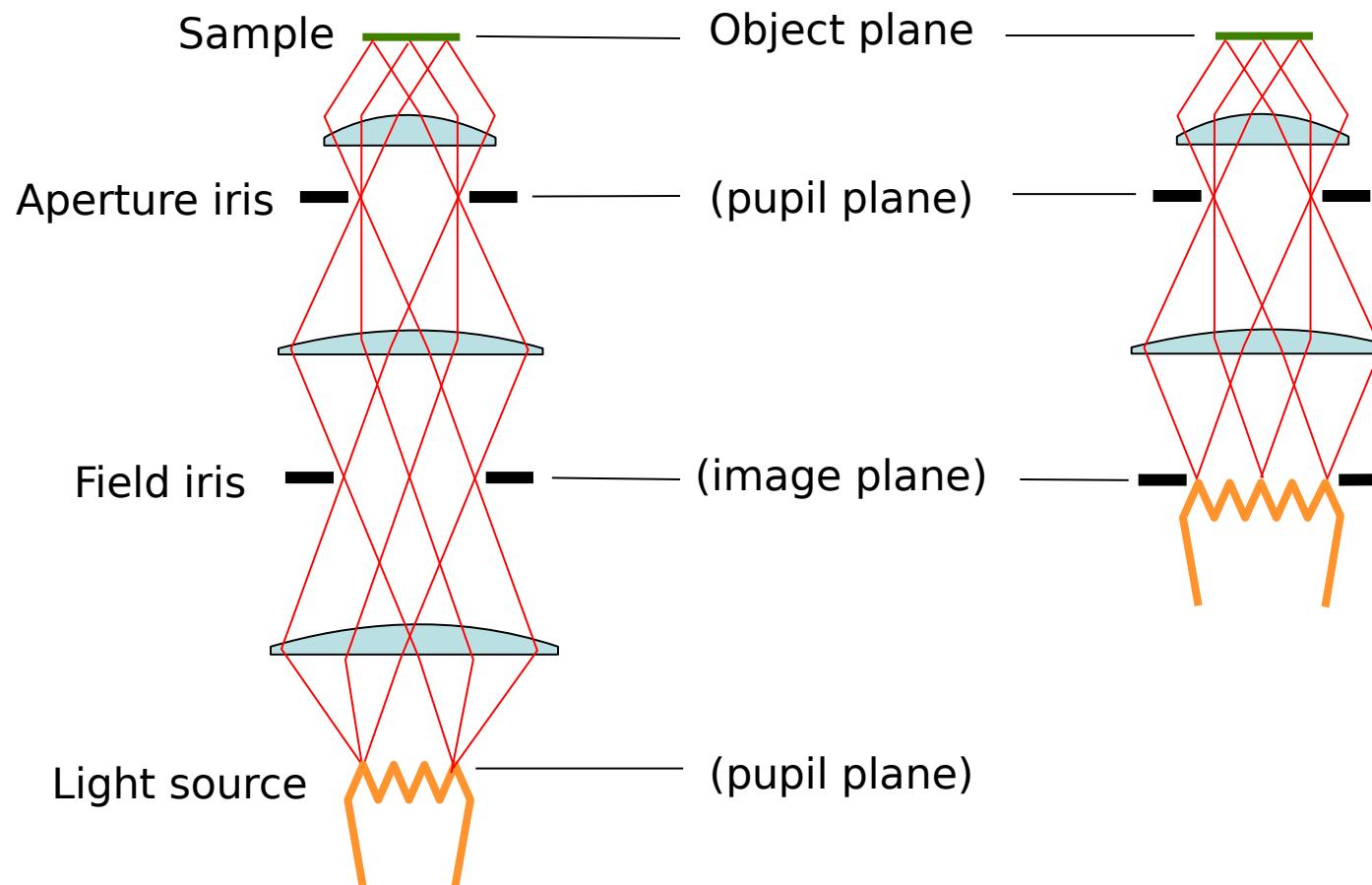
Magnification (10x typical)  
“High eye point” (exit pupil high enough to allow eyeglasses)  
Diopter adjust (at least *one* must have this)  
Reticle or fitting for one Eye cups

# Trans-illumination Microscope



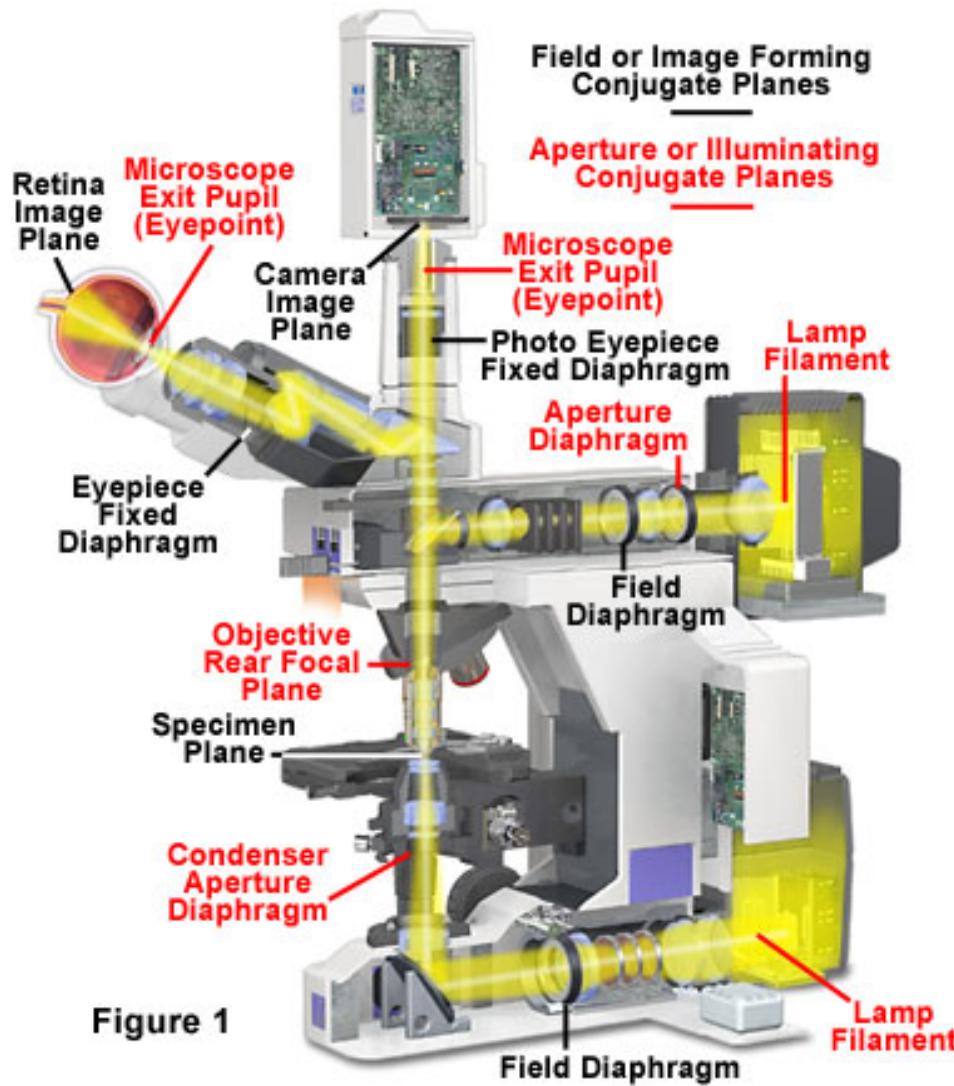
# Köhler Illumination

# Critical Illumination



- Each light source point produces a parallel beam of light at the sample
- Uniform light intensity at the sample even if the light source is “ugly” (e.g. a filament)
- The source is imaged onto the sample
- Usable only if the light source is perfectly uniform

# Conjugate Planes in A Research Microscope

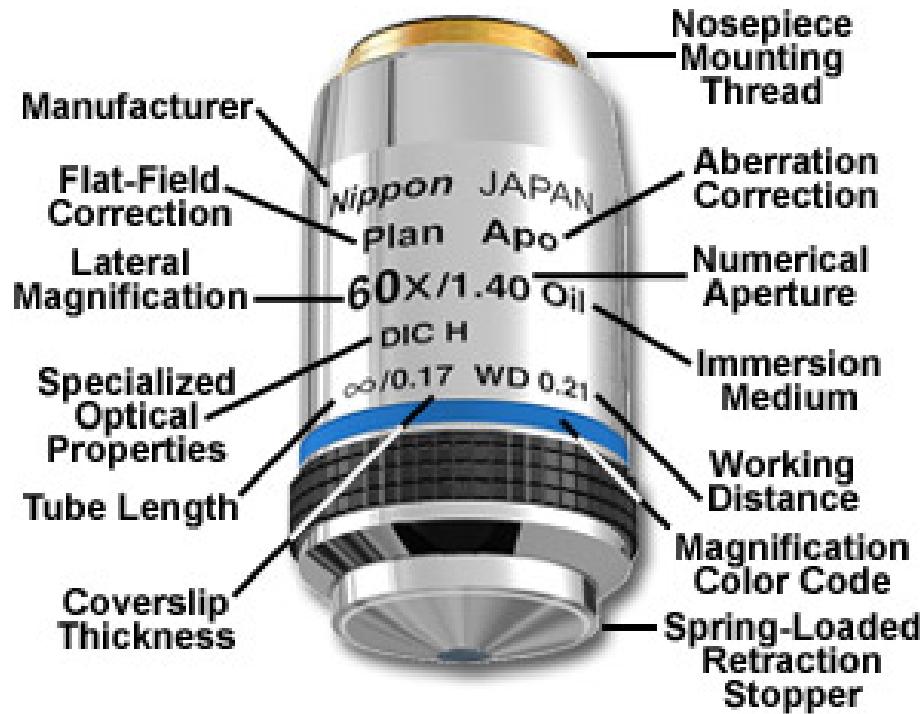


# **How view the pupil planes?**

## **Two ways:**

- “Eyepiece telescope”
- “Bertrand lens”

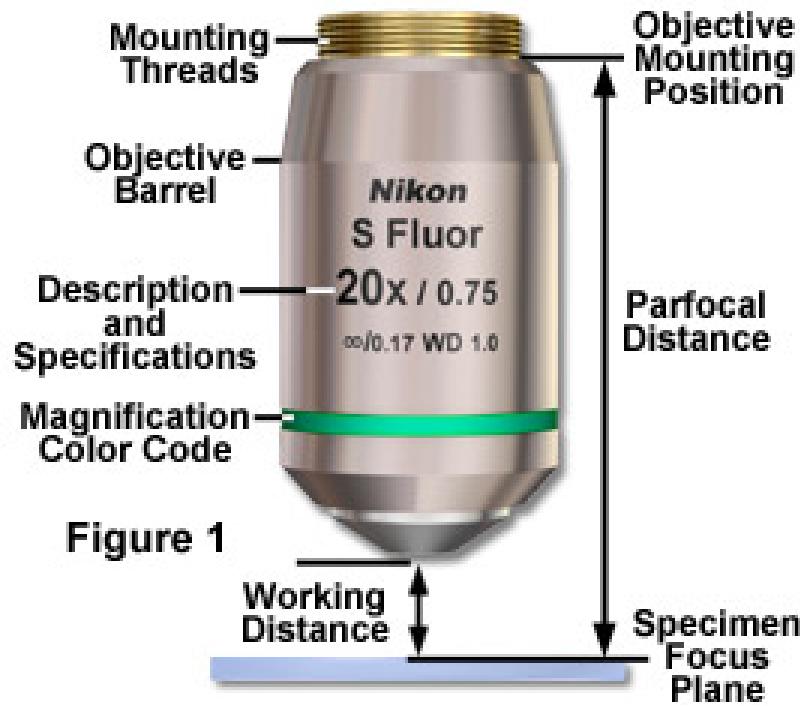
By far the most important part:  
***the Objective Lens***



Each major manufacturer sells 20-30 different **categories** of objectives.  
What are the important distinctions?

# Working Distance

## Objective Working and Parfocal Distance



In general, high NA lenses have short working distances

However, extra-long working distance objectives do exist

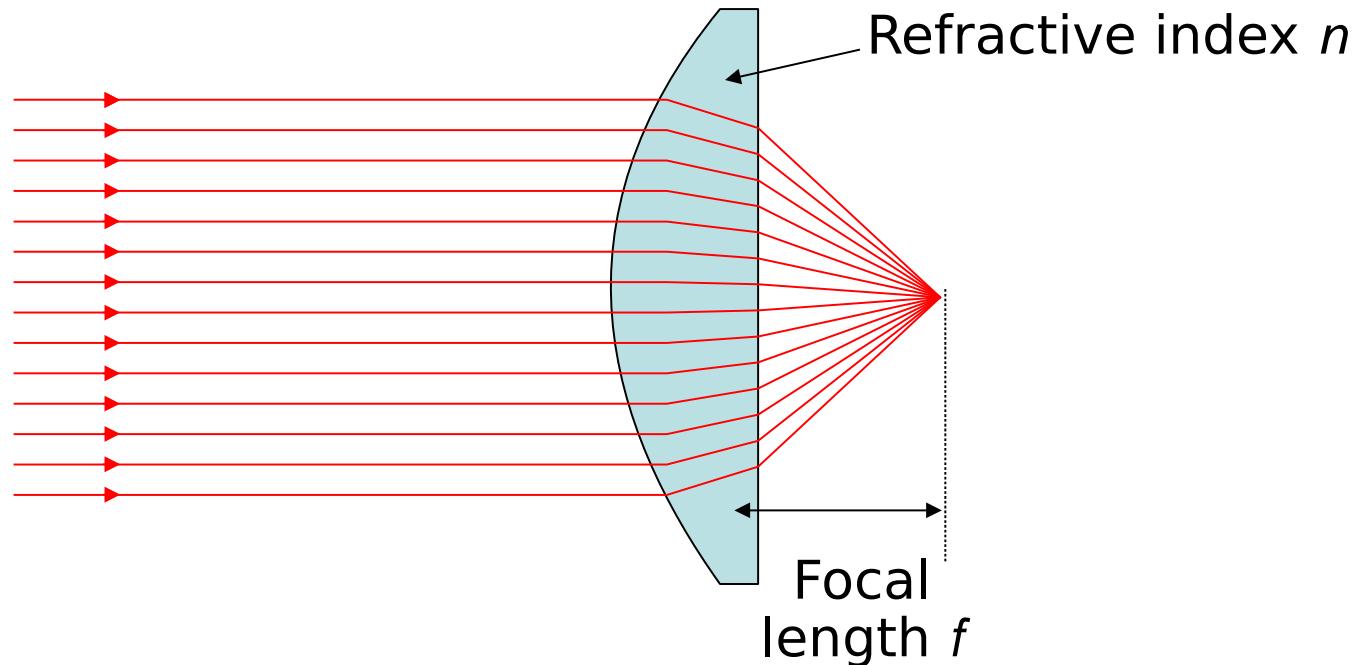
Some examples:

10x/0.3 WD = 15.2mm

20x/0.75 WD = 1.0mm

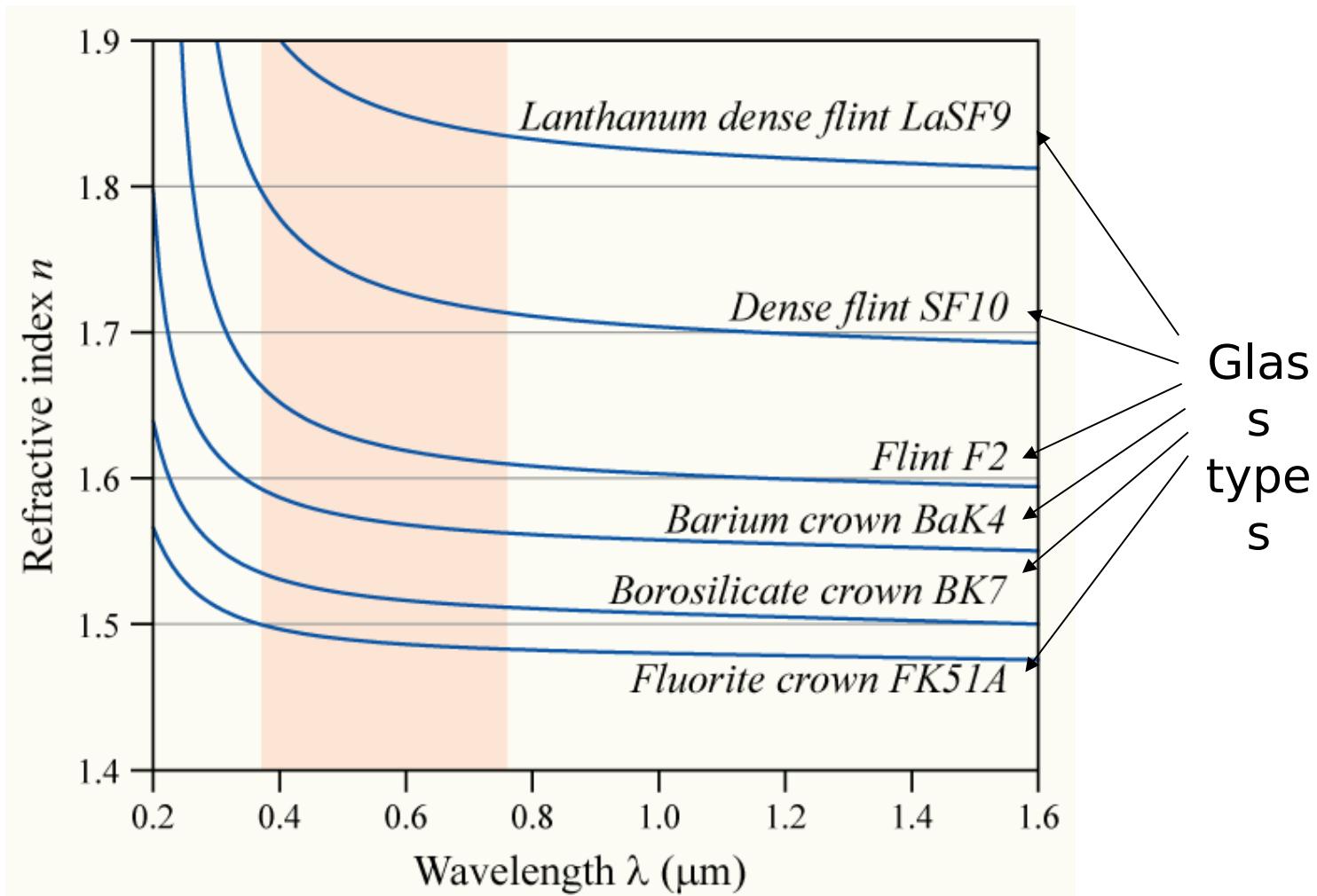
100x/1.4 WD = 0.13mm

# The focal length of a lens depends on the refractive index...



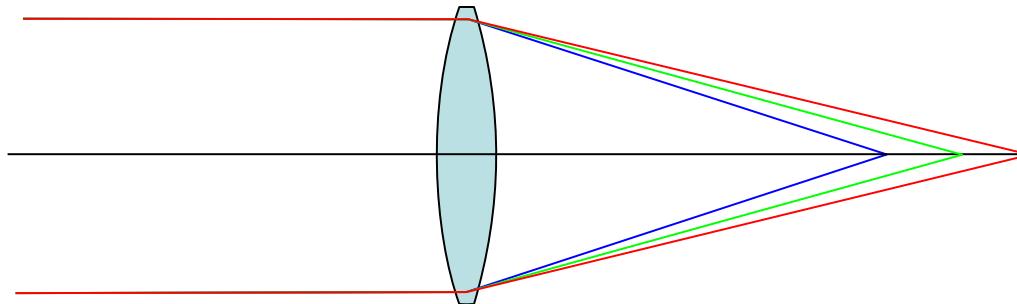
$$f \propto 1/(n-1)$$

... and the refractive index depends on the wavelength (“dispersion”)

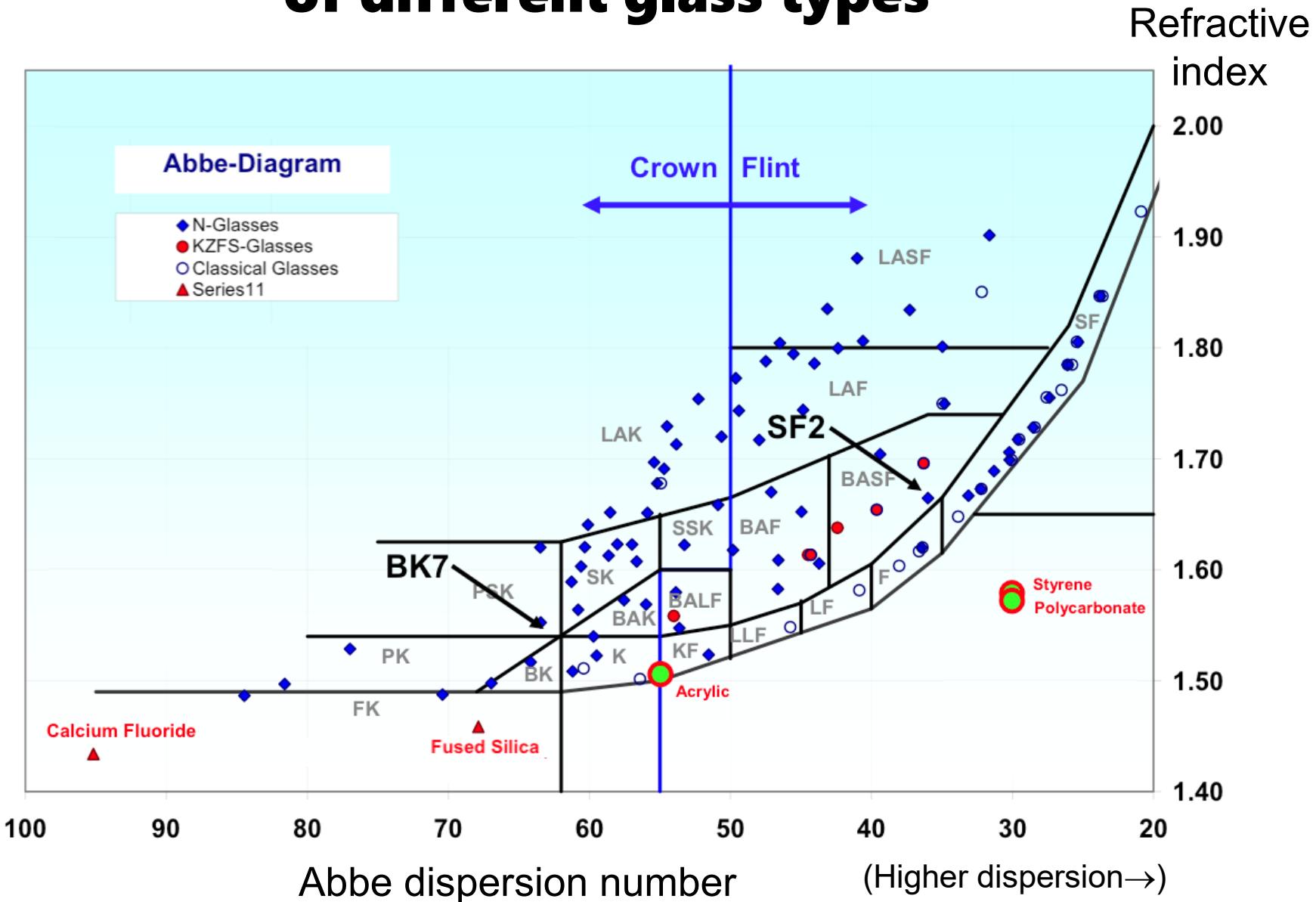


# ⇒ Chromatic aberration

- Different colors get focused to different planes
- Not good...

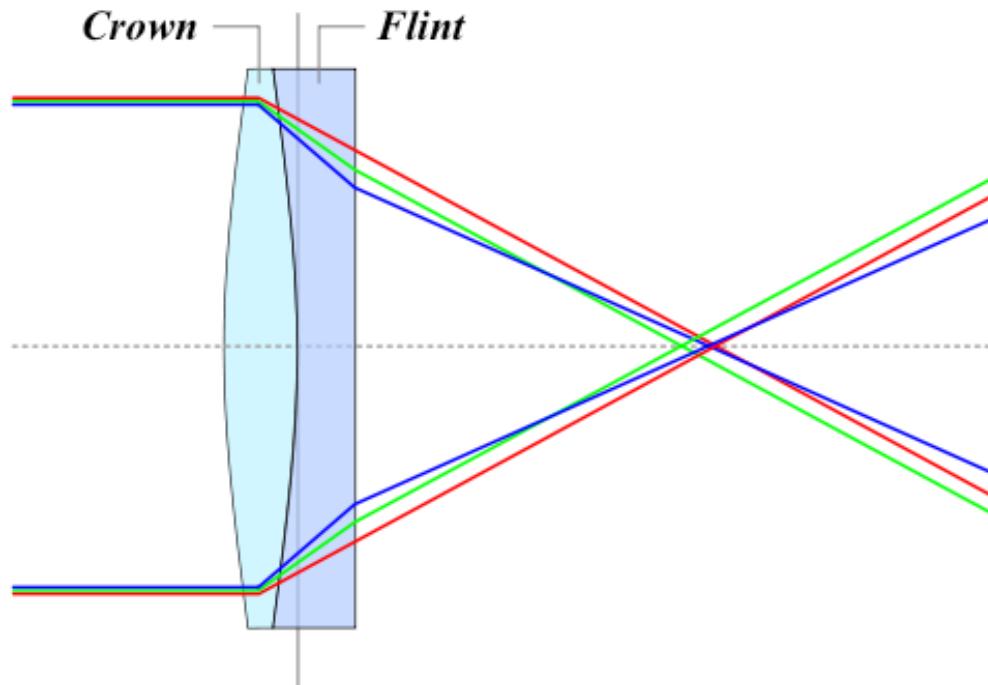


# Dispersion vs. refractive index of different glass types

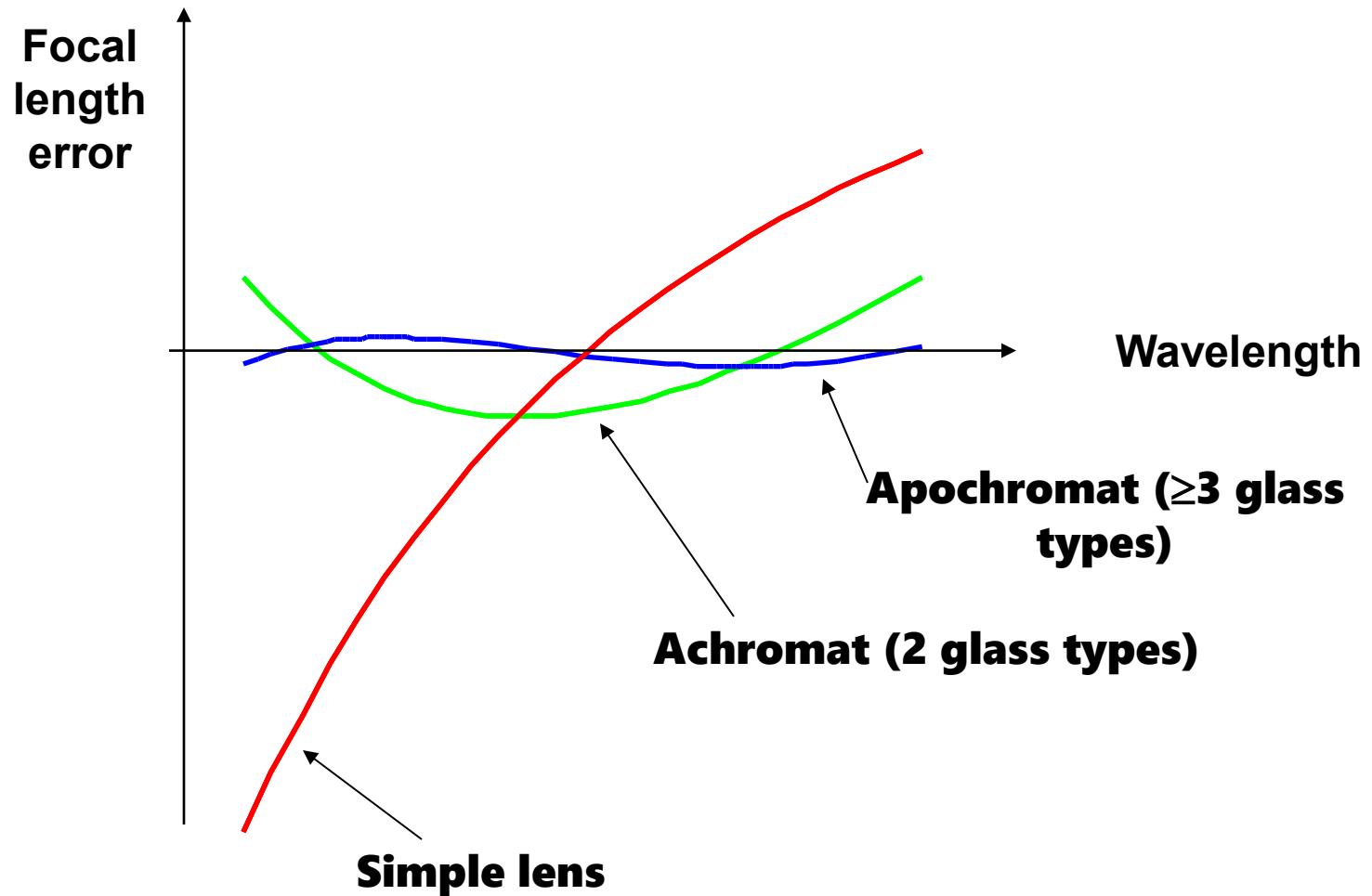


# Achromatic Lenses

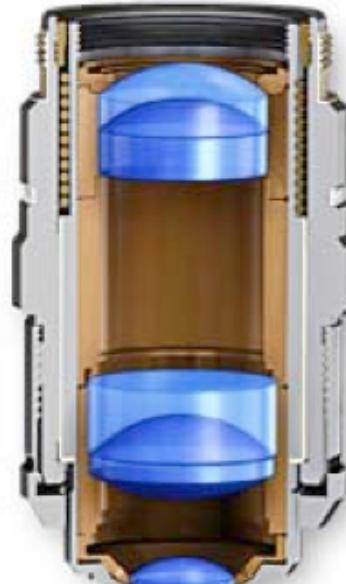
- Use a weak negative flint glass element to compensate the dispersion of a positive crown glass element



# Achromats and Apochromats



# Correction classes of objectives



**Achroma  
t**  
(cheap)



**Fluor**  
“semi-apo”  
(good  
correction,  
high UV  
transmission)



**Apochromat**  
(best  
correction)

**Correction for other (i.e. monochromatic) aberrations  
also improves in the same order** →

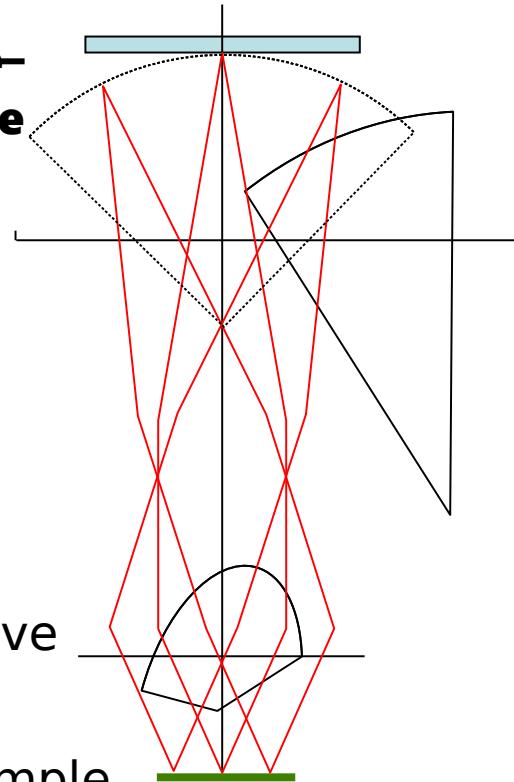
# Curvature of Field

**Focal plane-  
Focal surface**

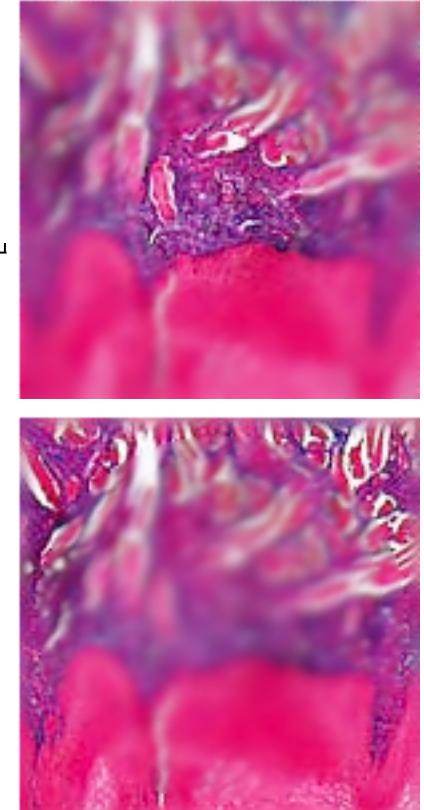
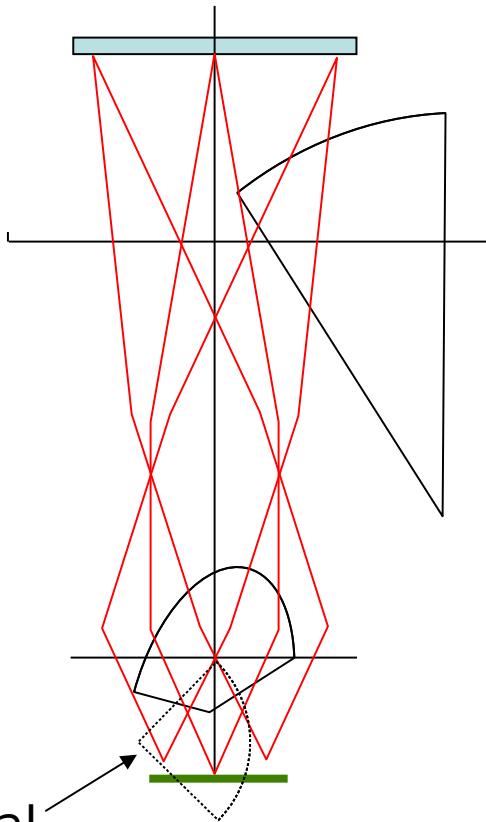
Tube lens

objective

sample

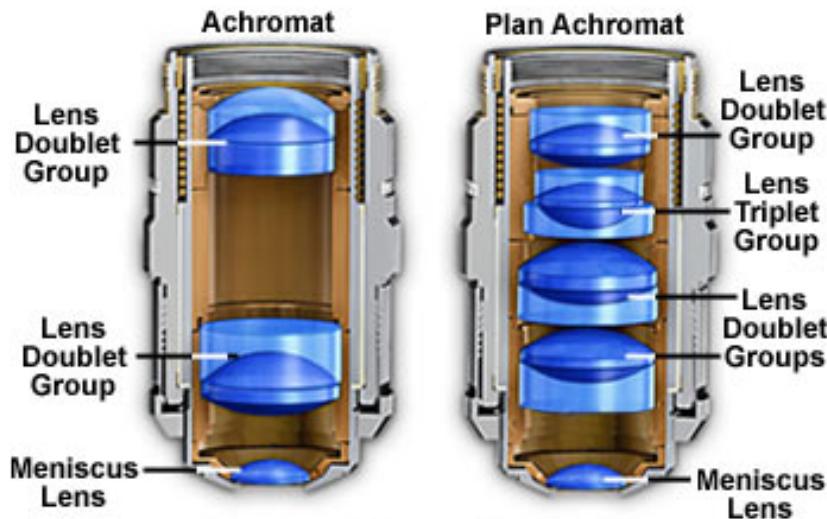


Focal  
surface



# Plan objectives

- Corrected for field curvature
- More complex design
- Needed for most photomicrography



- **Plan-APOCHROMATS** have the highest performance  
(and highest complexity and price)

# Putting one brand of objectives onto another brand of microscope?

## Usually a bad idea:

- May not even fit
- May get different magnification than is printed on the objective
- Incompatible ways of correcting lateral chromatic aberration (LCA)  
⇒ mixing brands can produce severe LCA

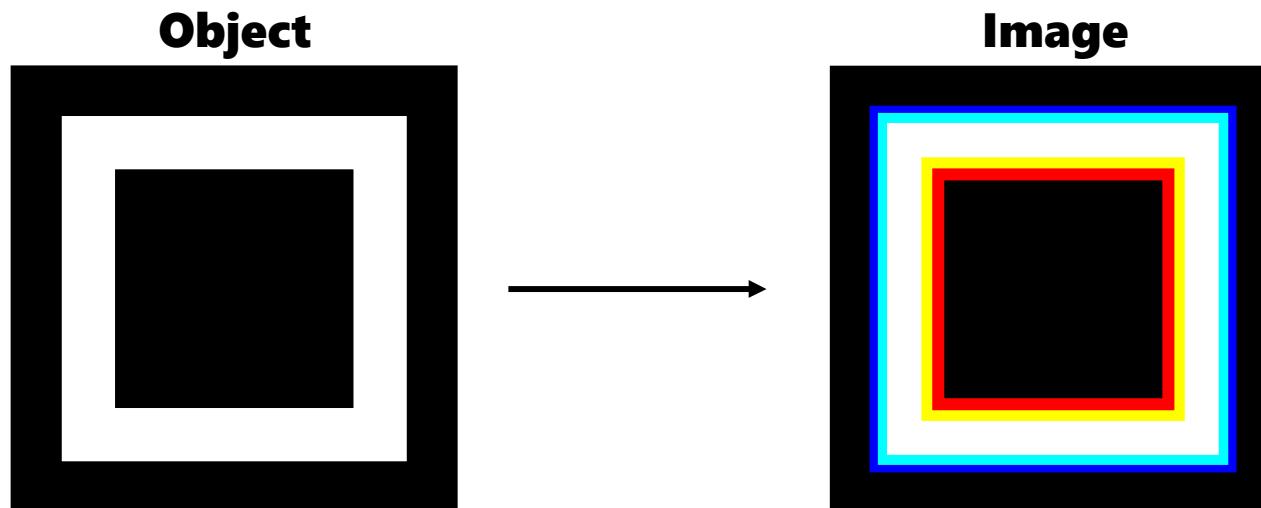


Tube lens focal length	
Nikon	200
Leica	200
Olympus	180
Zeiss	165

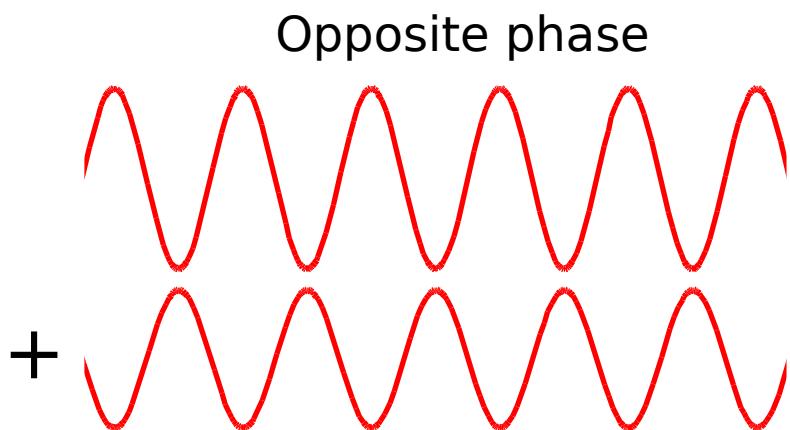
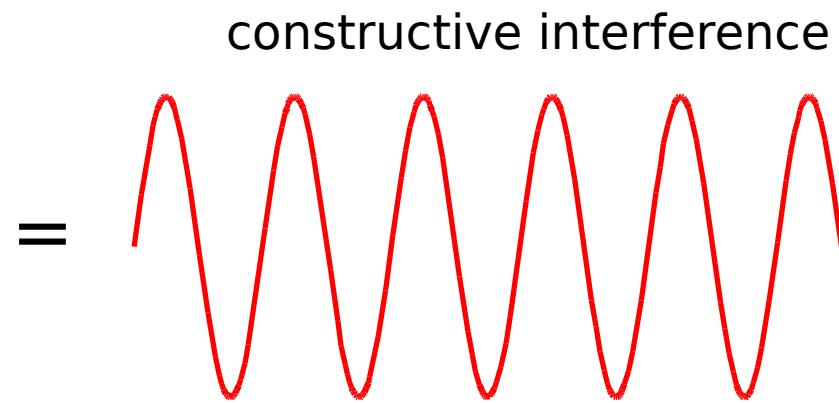
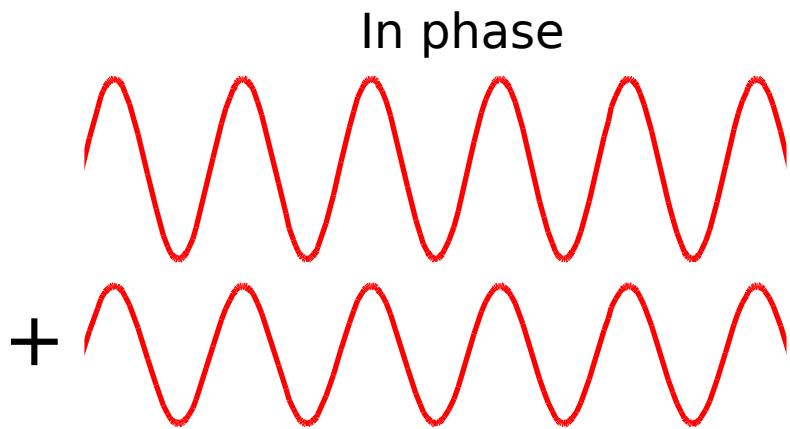
LCA correction:	
<u>In objective</u>	<u>In tube lens</u>
Nikon	Leica
Olympus	Zeiss

# Lateral chromatic aberration

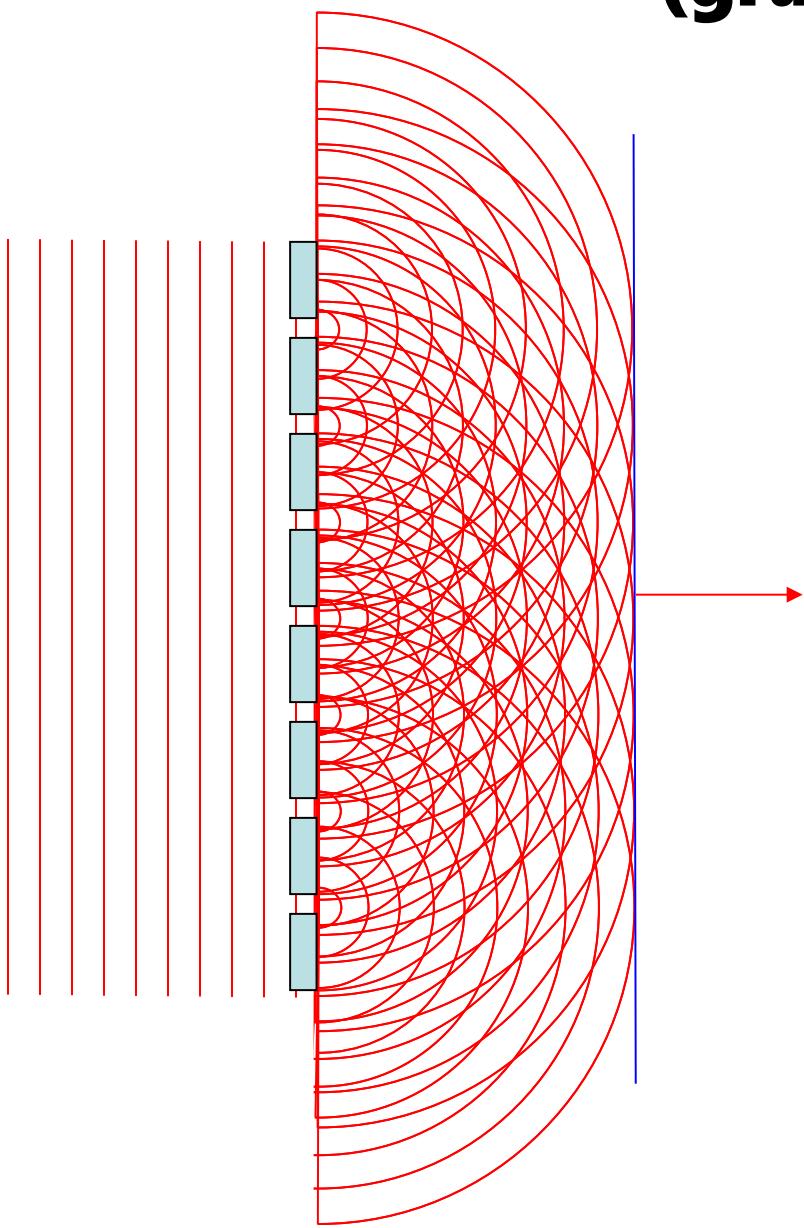
(= LCA, lateral color, chromatic difference of magnification)  
= Different magnification for different colors



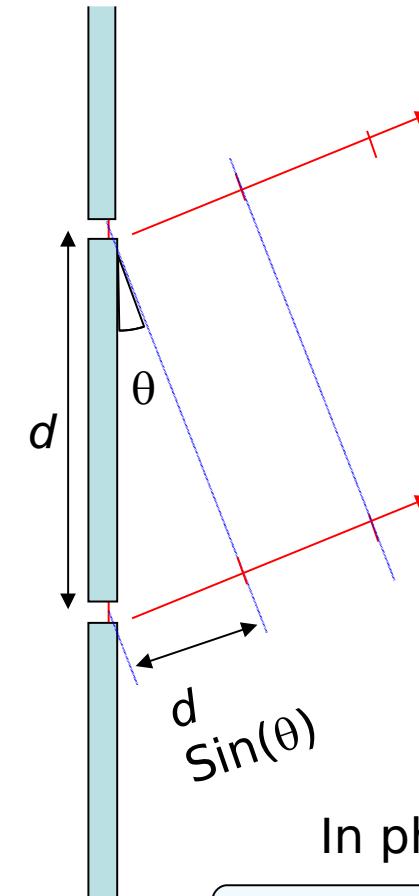
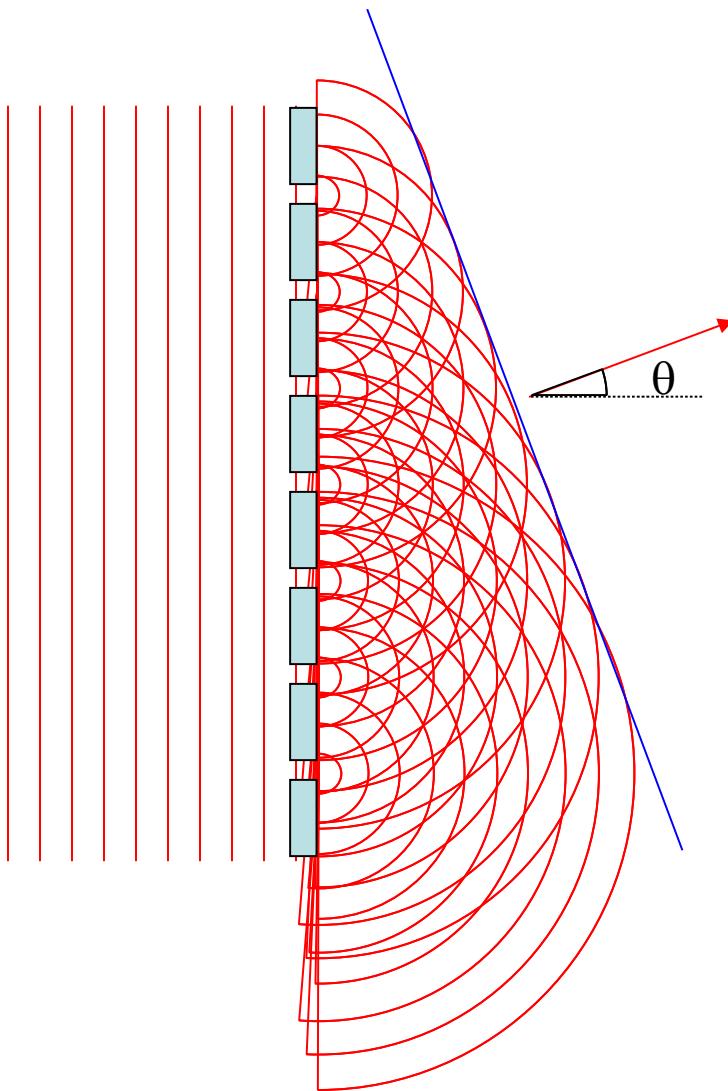
# Interference



# **Diffraction by a periodic structure (grating)**



# Diffraction by a periodic structure (grating)



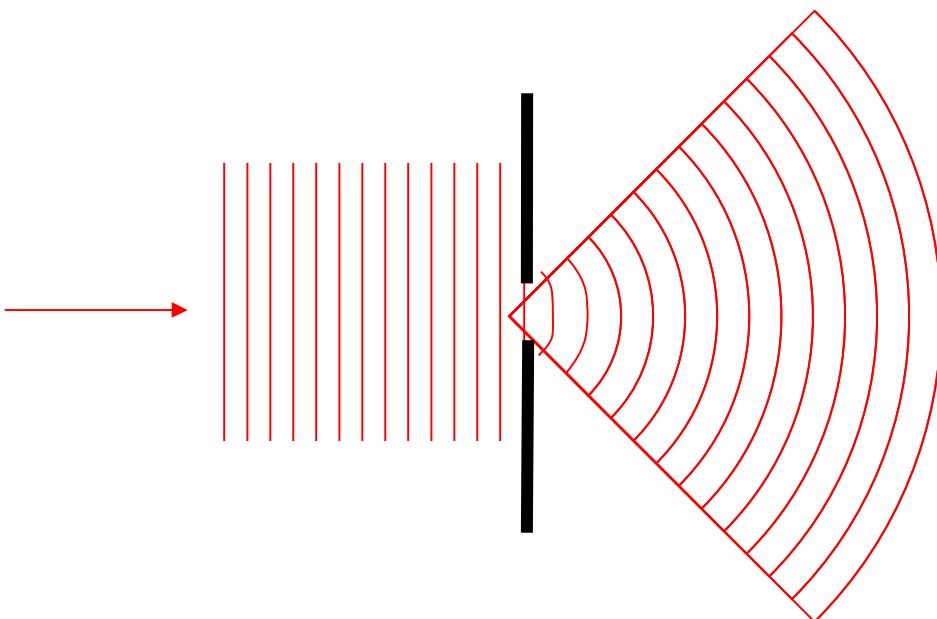
In phase if:

$$d \sin(\theta) = m \lambda$$

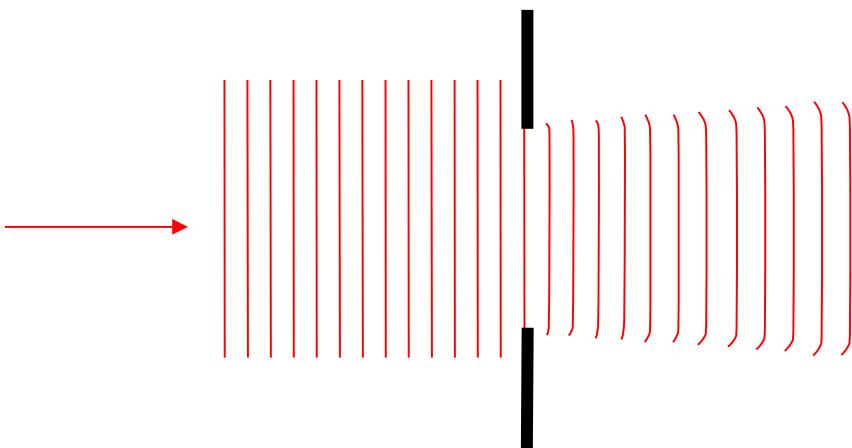
for some integer  $m$

# Diffraction by an aperture

drawn as waves



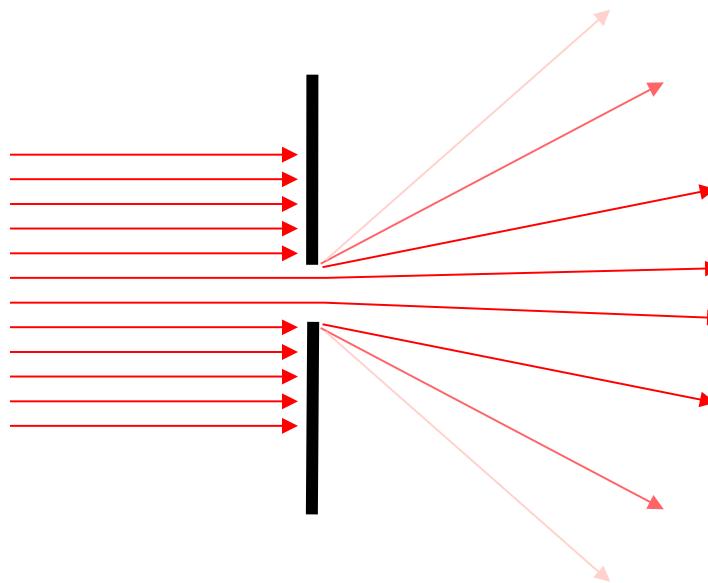
Light spreads to new angles



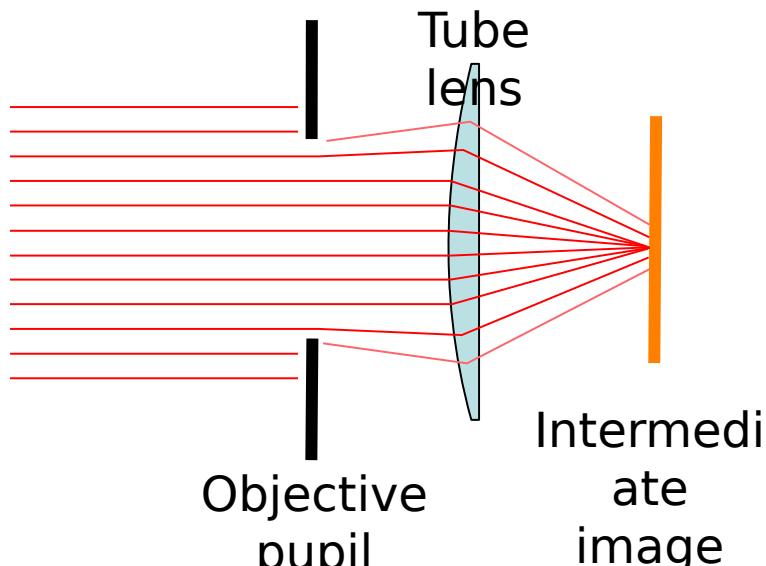
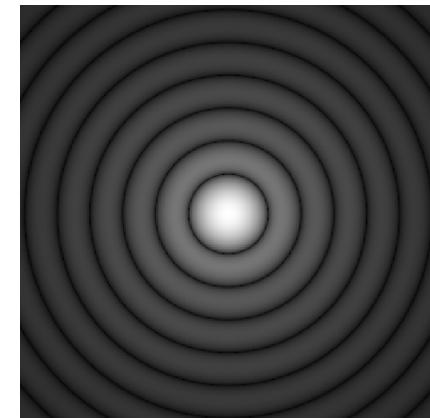
Larger aperture  
↔  
weaker diffraction

# Diffraction by an aperture

drawn as rays



The pure, “far-field”  
diffraction pattern  
is formed at  $\infty$  distance...

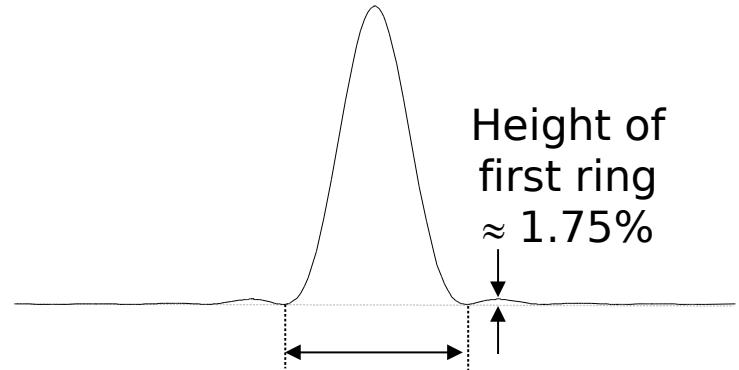
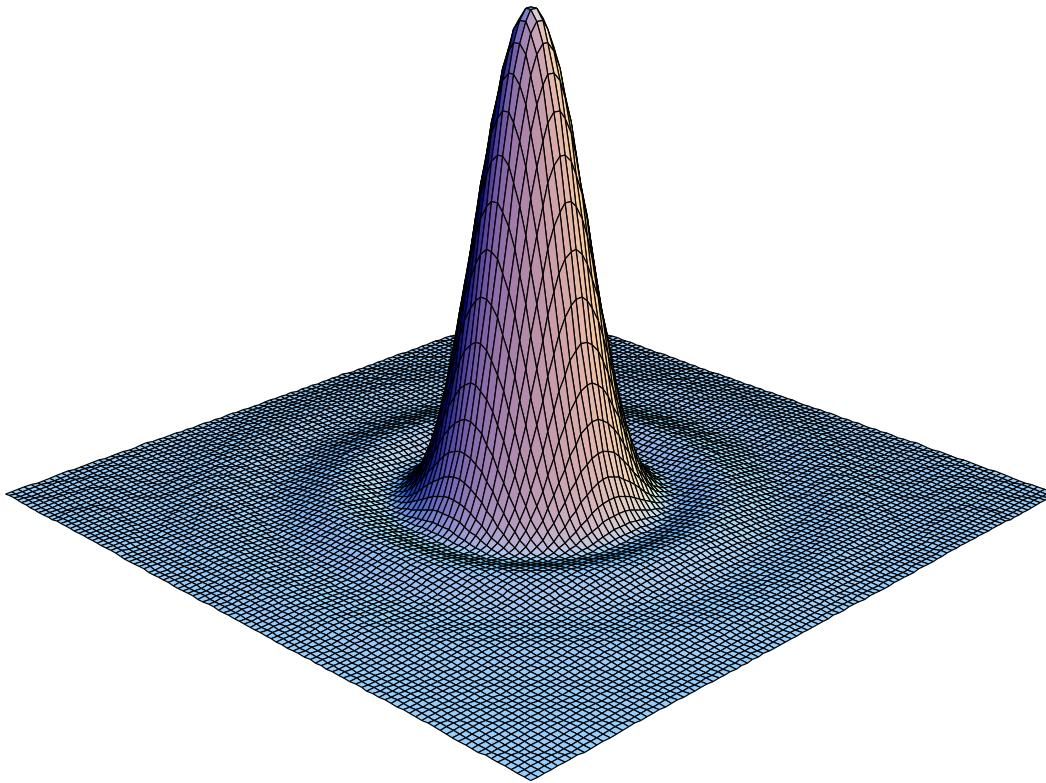


...or can be formed  
at a finite distance  
by a lens...

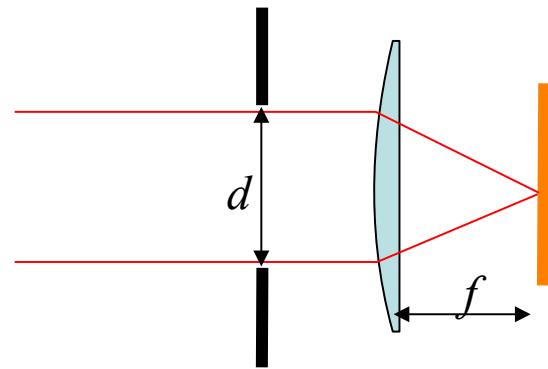
*...as happens in a microscope*

# The Airy Pattern

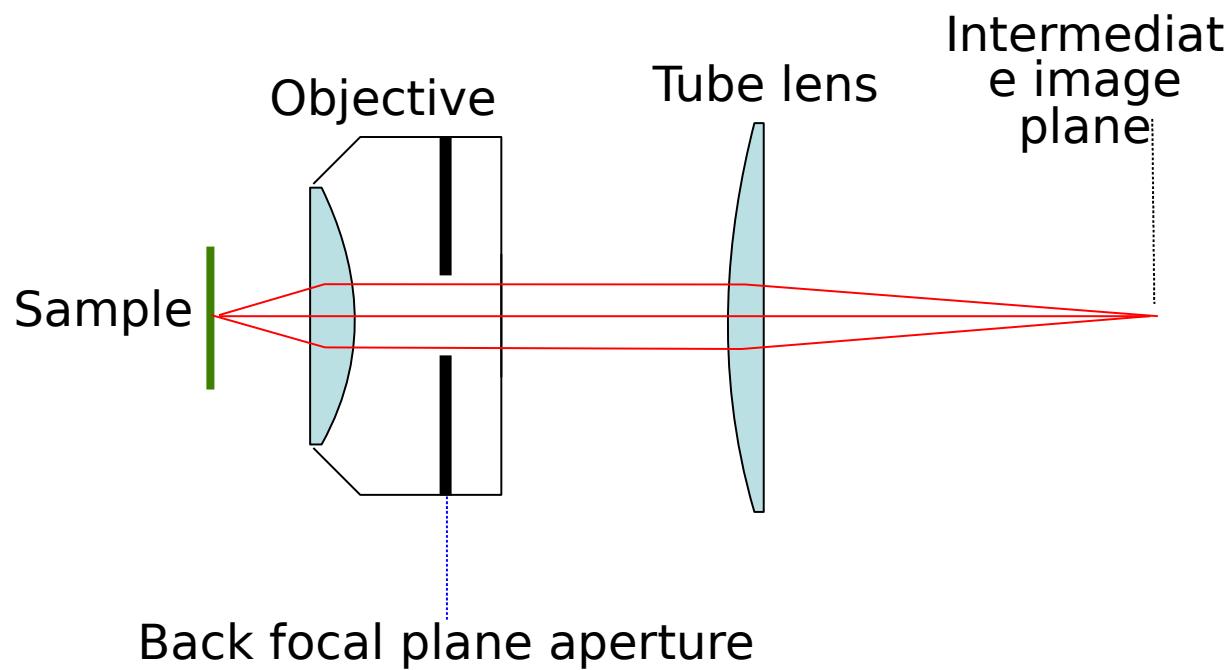
= the far-field diffraction pattern from a round aperture



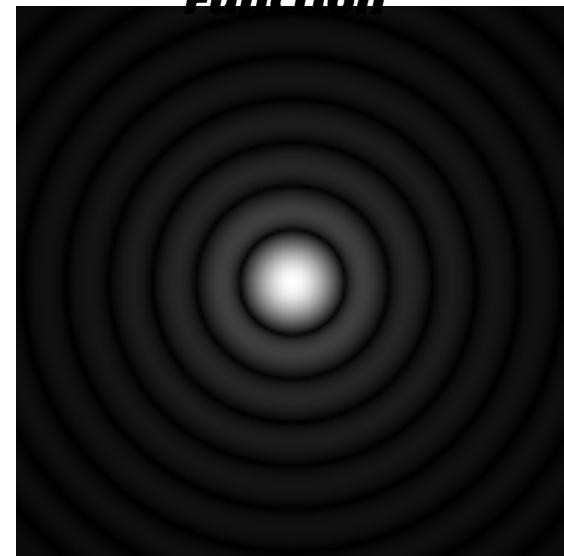
“Airy disk” diameter  
 **$d = 2.44 \lambda f/d$**   
(for small angles  $d/f$ )



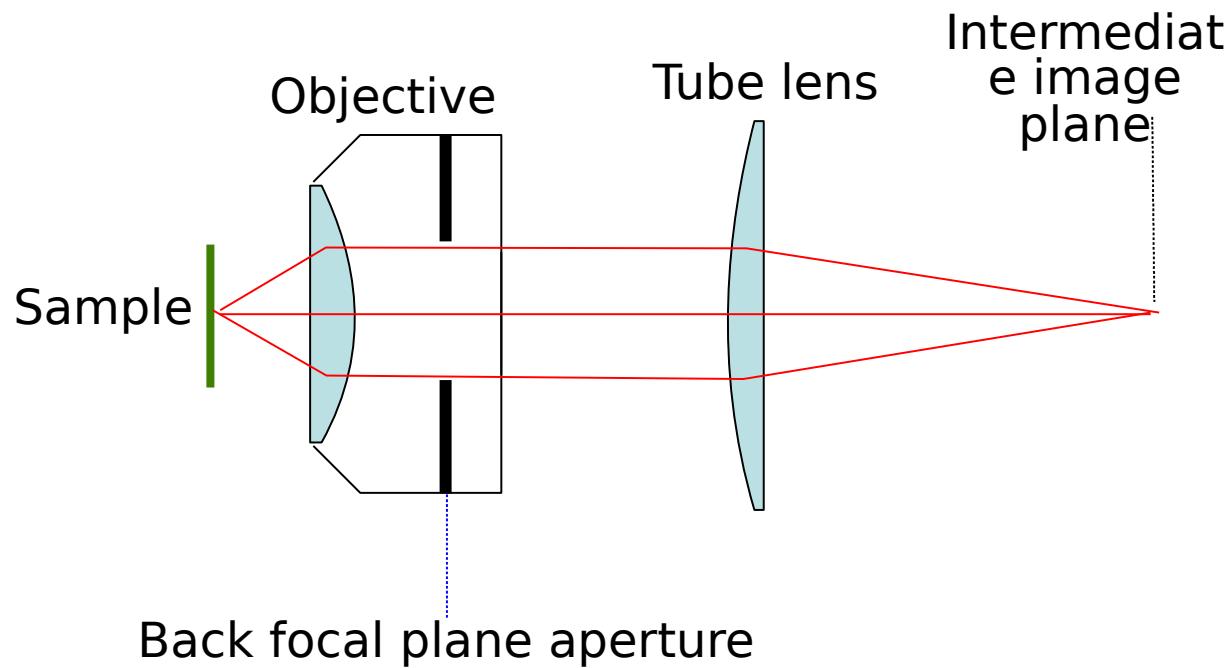
# Aperture and Resolution



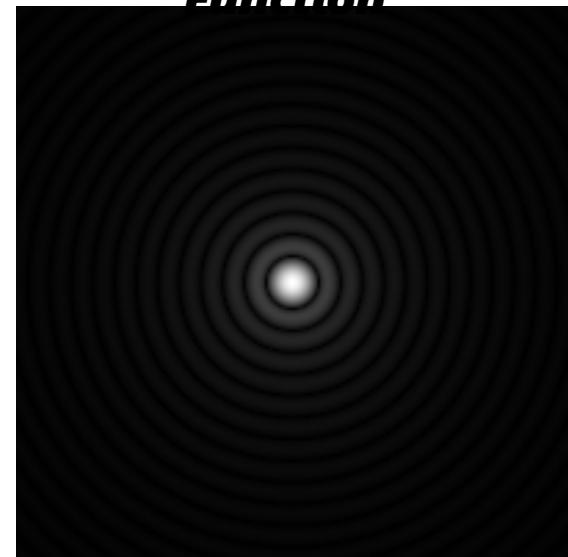
Diffraction spot  
on image plane  
= **Point Spread  
Function**



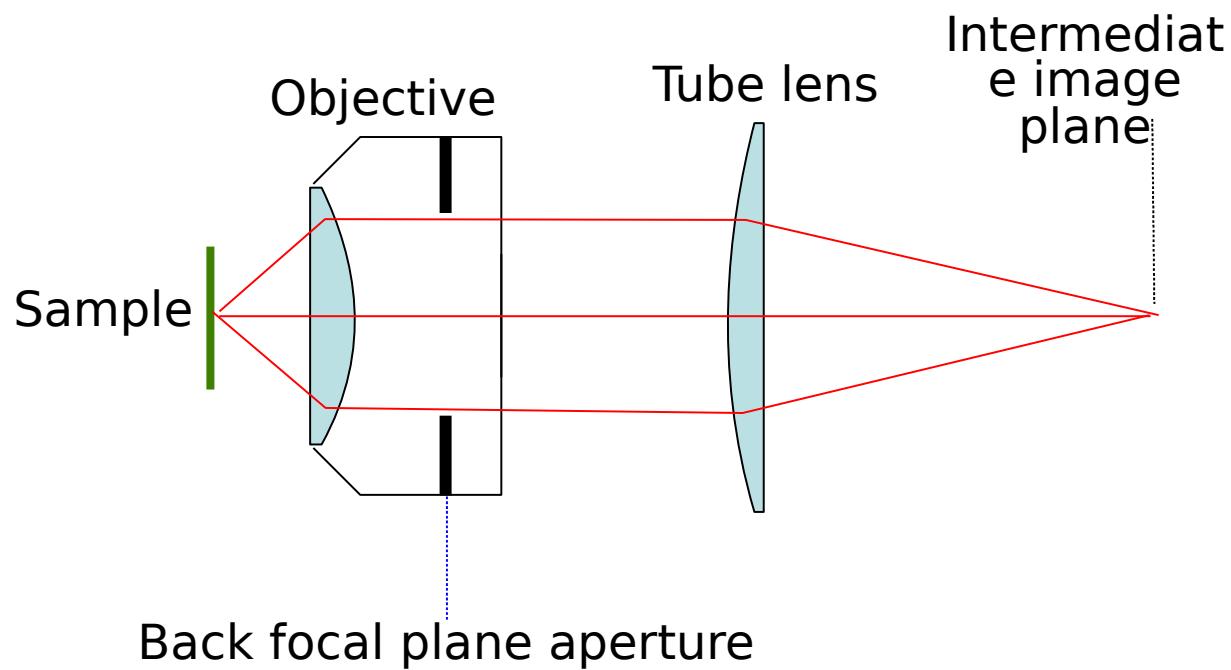
# Aperture and Resolution



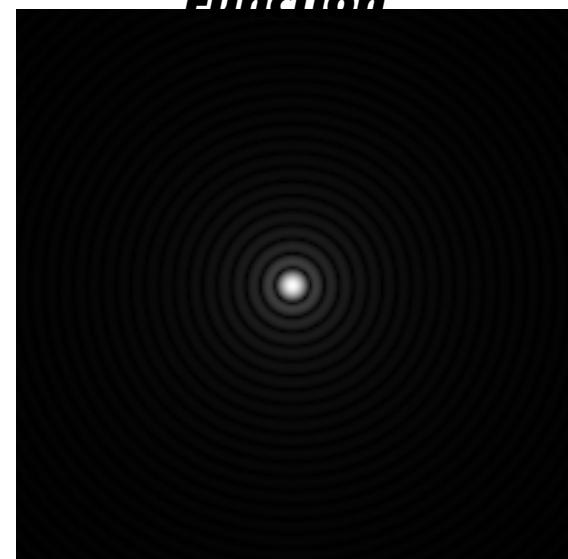
Diffraction spot  
on image plane  
= **Point Spread  
Function**



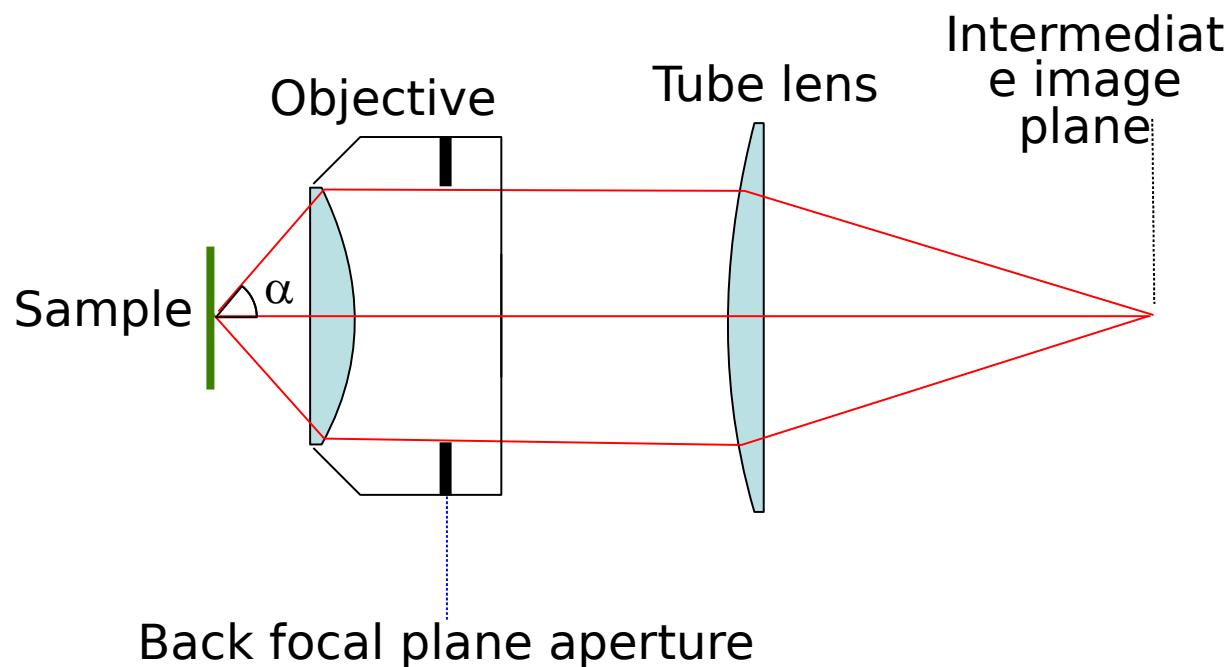
# Aperture and Resolution



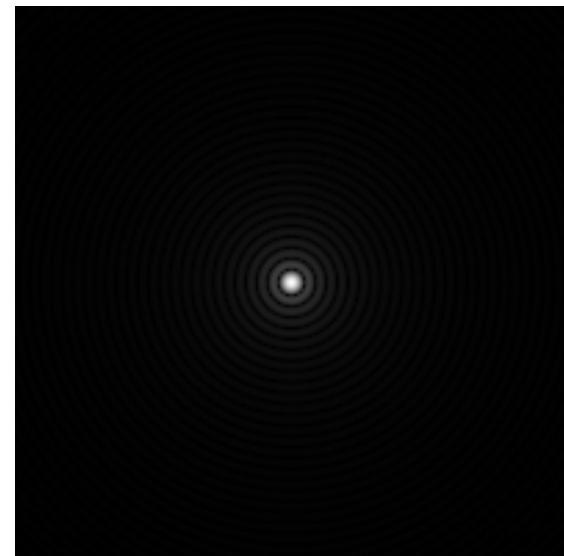
Diffraction spot  
on image plane  
= **Point Spread  
Function**



# Aperture and Resolution



Diffraction spot  
on image plane  
(resolution)

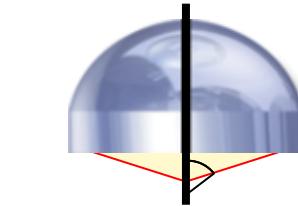
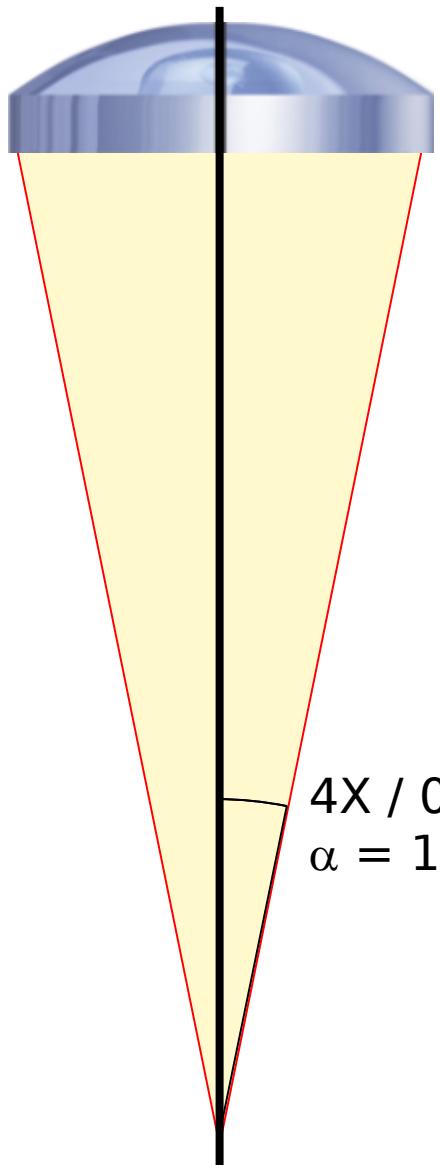


- Image resolution improves with ~~aperture size~~ Numerical Aperture (NA)

$$NA = n \sin(\alpha)$$

where:  $\alpha$  = light gathering angle  
 $n$  = refractive index of sample

# Numerical Aperture



100X / 0.95 NA  
 $\alpha = 71.8^\circ$

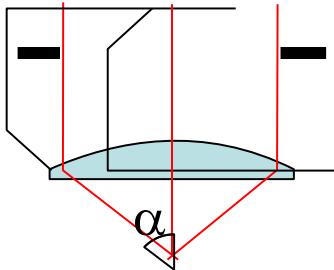
4X / 0.20 NA  
 $\alpha = 11.5^\circ$

# Numerical Aperture

Compare:

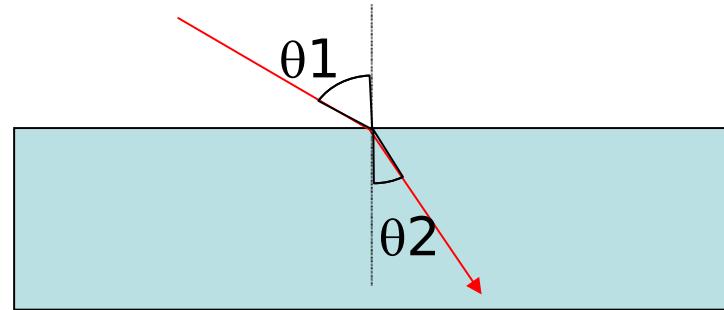
Numerical Aperture:

$$NA = n \sin(\alpha)$$

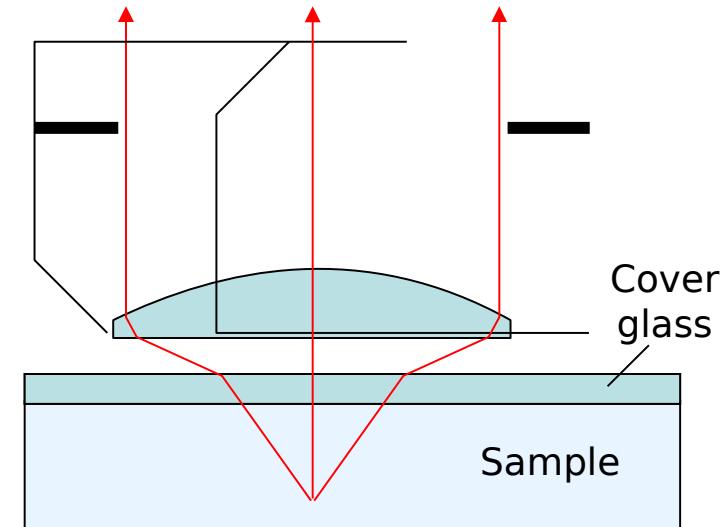


Snell's law:

$$n_1 \sin(\theta_1) = n_2 \sin(\theta_2)$$



- $n \sin(\theta)$  doesn't change at horizontal interfaces
  - $\sin(\text{anything}) \leq 1$
- ⇒ NA cannot exceed the *lowest*  $n$  between the sample and the objective lens

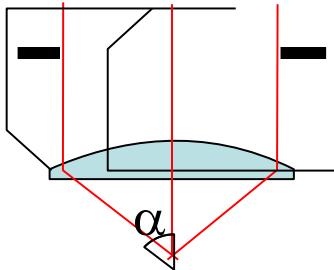


# Numerical Aperture

Compare:

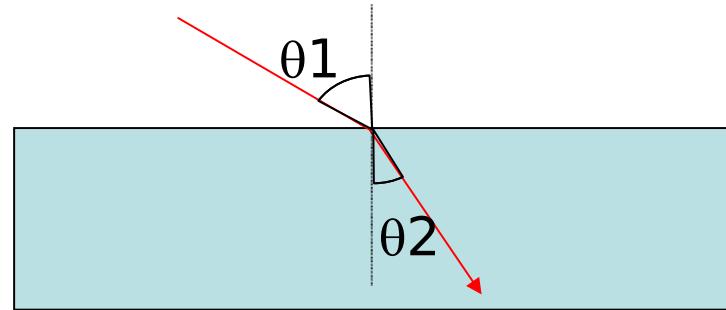
Numerical Aperture:

$$NA = n \sin(\alpha)$$

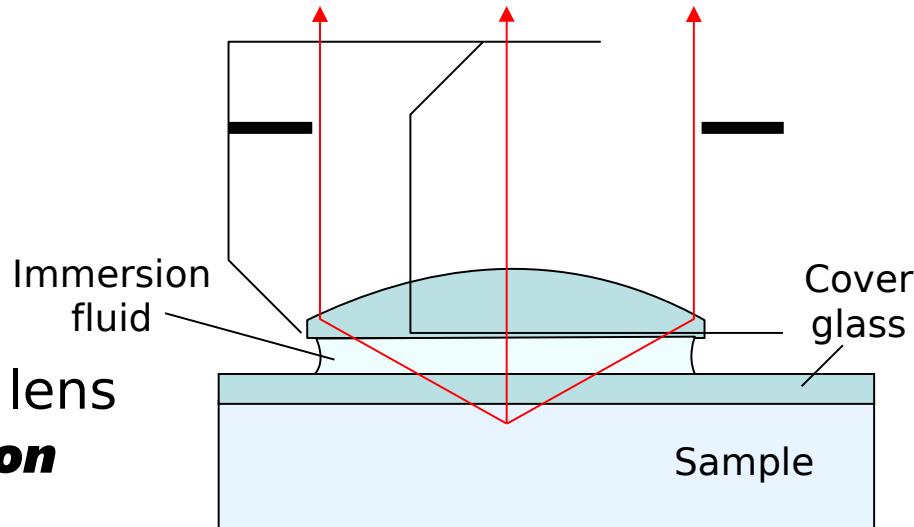


Snell's law:

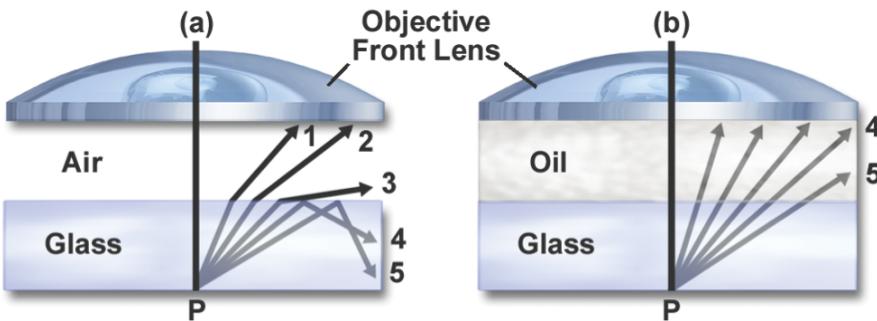
$$n_1 \sin(\theta_1) = n_2 \sin(\theta_2)$$



- $n \sin(\theta)$  doesn't change at horizontal interfaces
  - $\sin(\text{anything}) \leq 1$
- ⇒ NA cannot exceed the *lowest*  $n$  between the sample and the objective lens
- ⇒ NA > 1 requires **fluid immersion**



# Immersion Objectives



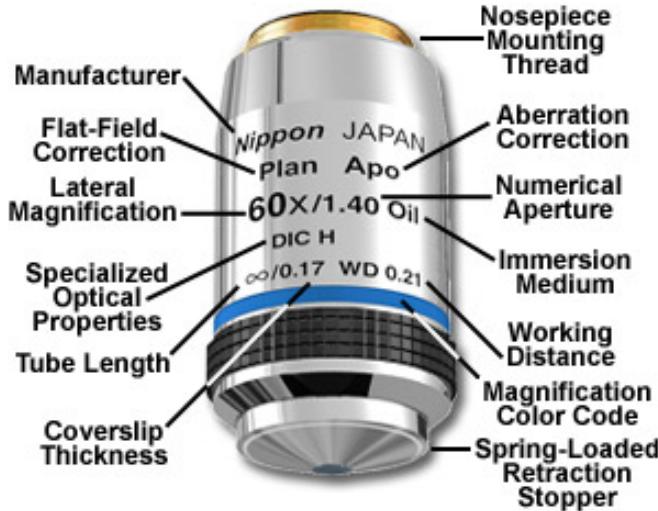
NA can approach  
the index of the  
immersion fluid

Oil immersion:  
 $n \approx 1.515$   
max NA  $\approx \mathbf{1.4}$  (1.45-1.49  
for TIRF)

Glycerol immersion:  
 $n \approx 1.45$  (85%)  
max NA  $\approx \mathbf{1.35}$  (Leica)

Water immersion:  
 $n \approx 1.33$   
max NA  $\approx \mathbf{1.2}$

# Objective Types



## Basic properties

- Magnification
- Numerical Aperture (NA)
- Infinite or finite conjugate
- Cover slip thickness if any
- Immersion fluid if any

## Correction class

- Achromat
- Fluor
- Apochromat

## Field flatness

- Plan or not

## Phase rings for phase contrast

- Positive or negative
- Diameter of ring (number)

## Special Properties

- Strain free for Polarization or DIC

## Features

- Correction collar for spherical aberration
- Iris
- Spring-loaded front end
- Lockable front end

# **Further reading**

[www.microscopyu.com](http://www.microscopyu.com)

[micro.magnet.fsu.edu](http://micro.magnet.fsu.edu)

Douglas B. Murphy "Fundamentals of Light Microscopy and Electronic Imaging"

James Pawley, Ed. "Handbook of Biological Confocal Microscopy, 3rd ed."

# Acknowledgements

Ron Vale / Mats Gustafsson