

Quantum enhanced fluorescence microscopy with a single photon avalanche diode array

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Localization microscopy uses precise localization of isolated fluorescent emitters to produce super-resolved images. The number of fluorescent emitters is a critical piece of information during localization, which cannot be reliably estimated with conventional microscopies. Photon statistics can enable localization in non-sparse scenes by providing information on the number of active fluorescent emitters. This work introduces a model for accurately counting active fluorescent emitters, demonstrated using a single photon avalanche diode (SPAD) array. SPAD cameras, with their high temporal resolution and single photon sensitivity, offer significant advantages for widefield imaging. Integrating photon statistics with conventional super-resolution techniques may enhance bioimaging capabilities, building on previous methods utilizing small detector bundles and laser scanning.

Introduction

Far-field optical microscopy is fundamentally limited by diffraction, with the maximum attainable resolution being limited to approximately half the wavelength of light. Several schemes to beat the diffraction limit have been developed in recent years. Many of these schemes utilize the concept of precise localization of isolated fluorescent emitters which blink over a time series of frames. One inherent problem of these methods is the requirement that fluorescent emitters be isolated, slowing down the acquisition of super-resolved images. To address this, gathering additional information on the number of active emitters by computing photon correlation statistics, enables localization in non-sparse scenes. However, photon correlation statistics indirectly provide information on the number of active fluorescent emitters in the sample. In this work, we introduce a model for precise counting of the number of active fluorescent emitters and demonstrate our method using a single photon avalanche diode (SPAD) array.

Molecular counting with photon statistics has a fairly simple motivation: coincidence of photons at multiple detector elements during high speed imaging provides evidence for the number of emitters present in the imaged region. Combining the ideas of conventional super-resolution approaches, with photon statistics may prove to be a powerful set of methods for bioimaging. Innovations in single photon detection technologies have begun to be integrated into fluorescence microscopes (Forbes 2019). Importantly, single photon detectors such as SPAD cameras have orders of magnitude higher temporal resolutions than standard CMOS cameras, single photon sensitivity, and theoretically zero readout noise. Such properties make these devices highly desirable for wide-field imaging applications; however, application of SPAD arrays in imaging have been limited to small bundles of detector elements combined with laser scanning (Israel 2017; Forbes 2019; Tenne 2019).

Basic Scheme

We consider a simplified description of widefield photon counting for a single photon source in the object plane labeled by a continuous-valued coordinate $r = (x, y)$. The point-spread function O of the field in object space to image space is presumed to have a Gaussian shape (Zhang 2007)

$$O(s - r) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(s - r)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \quad (1)$$

The field operator in object space is $\hat{E}(r) \propto \hat{a}$ and in image space $\hat{E}(s) \propto O(s - r)\hat{a}$. Since our SPAD detectors at the image plane must be discrete, the total field at a detector element i centered in image space at $s_n = (u_n, v_n)$ is then given by

$$\hat{E}(s_i) \propto \int d^2s O(s - r)\hat{a} \quad (2)$$

where $\int d^2s O(s - r) = \frac{1}{2}\lambda_x(x)\lambda_y(y)$ where, for example,

$$\lambda_x(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{u_i + \frac{1}{2} - x}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right) - \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{u_i - \frac{1}{2} - x}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right) \right)$$

We consider the case of pulsed excitation where the interval between pulses much longer than the fluorescence lifetime. Upon excitation of an isolated fluorescent emitter, a photon is detected at a particular detector element n with probability $\zeta \propto \langle \hat{E}^\dagger(s_i)\hat{E}(s_i) \rangle = \frac{1}{4}\lambda_x^2\lambda_y^2\operatorname{Tr}(\rho a^\dagger a)$ where ρ is the density matrix for a two-level system. Similarly, the probability of detection in a region of interest collecting all photons emitted is $\zeta \propto \operatorname{Tr}(\rho a^\dagger a)$. Here, we are primarily concerned with the latter quantity, and its application in counting fluorescent emitters.

For N fluorophores emitting photons which can be detected within a region of interest of the SPAD array, the

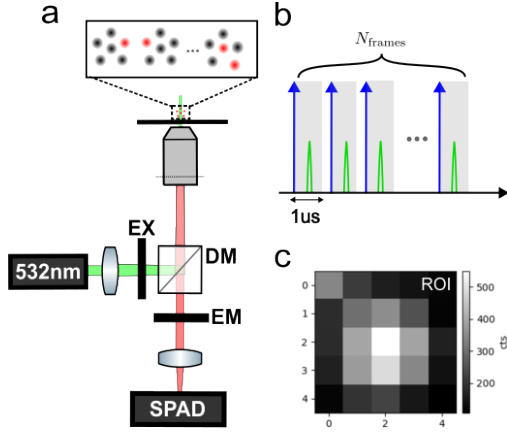


FIG. 1: Single photon counting with a SPAD array (a) Conventional widefield microscopy with integrated SPAD array (b) Single photon imaging scheme using 1us exposures containing a picosecond laser pulse (c) Sum of photon counts over a 5x5 region of interest (ROI), taken with $N_{\text{frames}} = 5 \times 10^5$

number of photons emitted n following a single excitation pulse will have Binomial statistics $n_{\text{signal}} \sim \text{Binom}(N, \zeta)$. The probability of photon pile-up at a single detector element is neglected. We model the background signal at each detector element within the region of interest as a coherent state, which must follow Poissonian statistics $n_{\text{background}} \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$. The total number of counts n is then distributed by the likelihood

$$p(n = k | N, \zeta) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \binom{N}{i} \zeta^i (1 - \zeta)^{N-i} \frac{\lambda^{k-i}}{(k-i)!} e^{-\lambda} \quad (3)$$

The likelihood in (2) can be used to model photon arrivals measured by a SPAD array.

Results

Fluorophores were excited using a picosecond 532nm pulsed laser triggered at 500kHz. Emission light was collected using an oil-immersion 100 \times objective with numerical aperture (NA) 1.4 (Nikon). The emission signal was then filtered to exclude the laser line (Semrock) and projected onto the SPAD512 sensor (Pi Imaging Technologies) using a tube lens. A simplified diagram of the complete system is depicted in (Figure 1a). Each acquisition consists of $N = 5 \times 10^5$ frames, synchronized with each laser pulse, using a 1us exposure per frame (Figure 1b).

We then investigated properties of the zero-lag second order coherence function $g^{(2)}(0)$ over a region of interest, which represents one mechanism for obtaining information on the number of active fluorescent emitters (Israel 2017).

$$g^{(2)}(0) = \frac{G^{(2)}(0) - B}{\langle G^{(2)}(m) \rangle - B} \quad (4)$$

where $B = N_{\text{frames}}\lambda\zeta$ is the expected number of background-signal coincidences in the region of interest. The quantity $G^{(2)}(m)$ represents the number of signal-signal coincidences in the region of interest at a lag time m , and is also binomially distributed $G^{(2)}(m) \sim \text{Binom}(N_{\text{frames}}, \zeta_m)$.

Sampling from (2), we find a lack of sensitivity in $g^{(2)}(0)$, making inference of the fluorophore number N intractable. We therefore choose to write a posterior distribution on the Binomial parameters used in the likelihood (2) using Bayes rule

$$p(N, \zeta | x) \propto p(x | N, \zeta) p(N) p(\zeta)$$

$p(N)$ is taken to be uniform and $p(\zeta) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_{\zeta}, \sigma_{\zeta})$

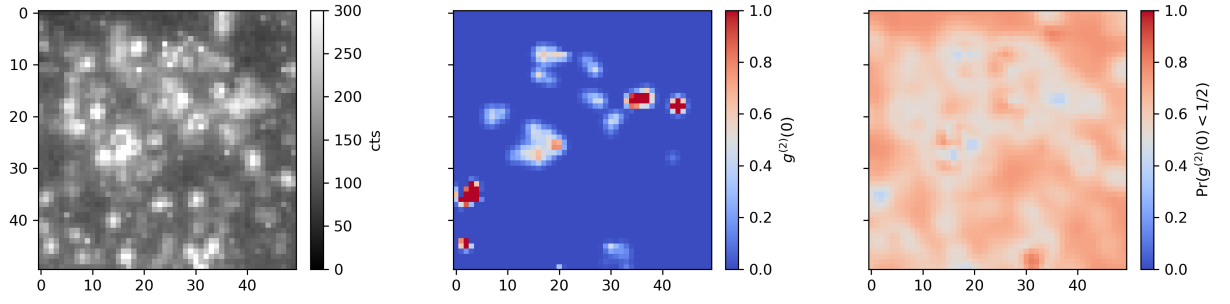


FIG. 2: Zero-lag second order coherence

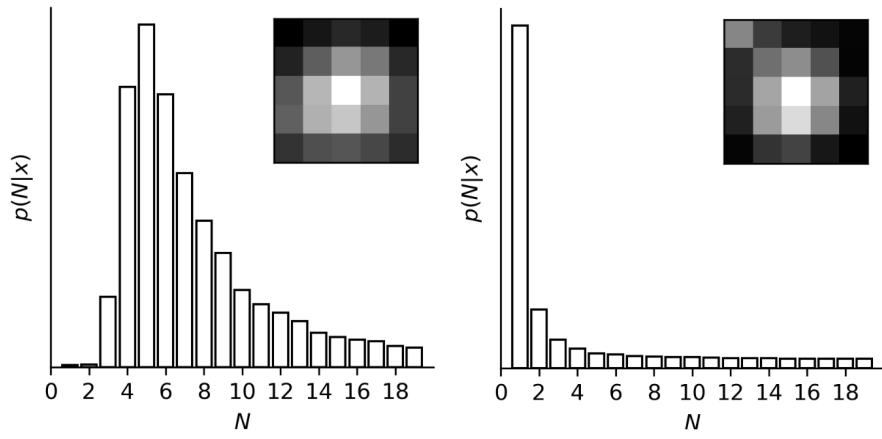


FIG. 3: Zero-lag second order coherence

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APPENDIX

$$p(N = n|x) \propto \int_0^1 \prod_j p(x_j|n, \zeta) p(\zeta) d\zeta$$

which is estimated via MC integration. Minibatch the data and average the posterior $p(N|x)$ over minibatches of size M

When $N = 1$, we see some unique behavior of this function

$$g^{(2)}(0) = \frac{G^{(2)}(0) - B}{\langle G^{(2)}(m) \rangle - B} = -\frac{B}{N_{\text{frames}} \zeta (\zeta - \lambda)}$$

$$G^{(2)}(0) \sim \text{Binomial}(N_{\text{frames}}, \zeta_0)$$

$$\zeta_0 = 1 - (1 - \zeta)^n - n\zeta(1 - \zeta)^{n-1}$$

The quantity $G^{(2)}(m)$ represents the number of signal-signal coincidences at lag m in the region of interest

$$G^{(2)}(m) \sim \text{Binomial}(N_{\text{frames}}, \zeta_m)$$

$$\zeta_m = (1 - (1 - \zeta)^n)^2$$