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Tomographic diffractive microscopy with isotropic resolution

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Microscopy techniques allowing observation of unlabeled samples have recently experienced a regain of interest. In particular, approaches based on recording of the optical field diffracted by the specimen, in amplitude and phase, have proven their capacities for biological investigations. When combined with variations of specimen illumination, tomographic acquisitions are possible. One limitation of previously developed approaches is the anisotropic resolution, characteristic of all transmission microscopes. In this context, an instrument, characterized by isotropic high-resolution 3D imaging capabilities, is still awaited. For the first time, to the best of our knowledge, we have developed tomographic diffractive microscopy combining specimen rotation and illumination rotation, which delivers images with (almost) isotropic resolution below 200 nm. The method is illustrated by observations of nanoscopic fiber tips, microcrystals and pollens, and should be helpful for characterizing freestanding natural (diatoms, spores, red or white blood cells, etc.) or artificial samples. © 2017 Optical Society of America

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Fluorescence microscopy is the tool of choice for functional investigations, thanks to the immense variety of labels, and to the development of fluorescence nanoscopy, recognized by the attribution of the Nobel Prize in Chemistry 2014 for the development of super-resolved fluorescence microscopy. But for scientists who do not want to, or cannot, use fluorescence or electron microscopy, imaging capabilities of conventional optical microscopes are still limited.

Among the various techniques developed to image non-fluorescent samples, phase microscopy has already found many applications, in biology as well as material science [1–5].

Tomographic diffractive microscopy [6–14] (TDM, also referred to as synthetic aperture microscopy, tomographic phase microscopy, phase nanoscopy, optical diffraction tomography, etc.; see Ref. [14] for a general introduction to these techniques) is an extension of phase microscopy, combining amplitude and phase imaging with a variation of the conditions of illumination and/or the conditions of observation. It relies on computer-assisted image reconstruction of the sample, from the electromagnetic field it diffracts. The simplest approach considers that the first Born approximation is valid, so that the diffracted field is linked to the 3D Fourier transform of the specimen index of refraction distribution [15].

Figure 1 describes the acquisition process for common holographic and tomographic configurations, highlighting the interest of this technique, in terms of sample frequency acquisition. In the Fourier domain of spatial frequencies, the diffracted field is represented by the $k_{\rm diff}$ wavevectors depicting the Ewald sphere. In holographic microscopy, one direction of illumination, usually parallel to the optical axis (depicted by $k_{\rm ill}$ vector), is used, and because of the limited numerical aperture (NA) of the microscope objective, only a cap of sphere of $k_{\rm diff}$ vectors is detected [Fig. 1(a)]. The elastic scattering condition links the registered field to specimen frequencies by momentum conservation $k_{\rm obj} = k_{\rm diff} - k_{\rm ill}$. The lateral extension of the $k_{\rm obj}$ cap of sphere provides a good lateral resolution, whereas its axial extension being very restricted, the imaging capabilities along the optical axis are strongly affected [8–12].

To improve the resolution, one can use inclined illumination [6-12], shifting the detected $k_{\rm diff}$ vectors towards higher $k_{\rm obj}$ vectors [Fig. 1(b)]. When many illuminations are sequentially used, a virtual condenser is synthetized, and the optical transfer function (OTF) support is extended, and filled [6] [Fig. 1(c)]. The lateral and axial resolutions are improved and true 3D imaging becomes possible [8–12]. However, the smaller extension of the OTF

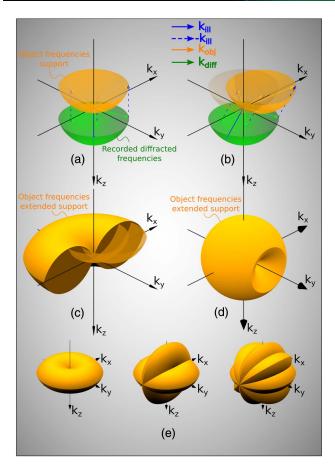


Fig. 1. Construction of the OTF for various configurations of TDM. (a) Digital holographic microscopy. The recorded k-vectors k_{diff} are shifted back according to momentum conservation to provide object vectors k_{obj} : the OTF depicts a cap of sphere of a large lateral, but limited, longitudinal extension. (b) When using inclined illumination in TDM-IR, the same positions of the $k_{\rm diff}$ vectors provide new $k_{\rm obj}$ vectors. (c) A large set of illuminations results in a filled and extended OTF: TDM-IR provides improved-resolution, higher quality 3D images. Note, however, the presence of a so-called "missing cone" along the optical axis z, limiting longitudinal resolution and sectional capabilities. (d) OTF for TDM-SR. An almost completely filled sphere is obtained, but of lesser extension than in the previous case. (e) OTFs obtained for TDM-IRSR when combining TDM-IR with 0°, (0°; 90°) and (0°; 45°; 90°; 135°) specimen rotations [displayed at half-scale compared with (a)–(d)]. A missing-cone-free and extended support is obtained, showing that TDM-IRSR can deliver 3D, isotropic- and improved-resolution images. See also Visualization 1.

along k_z direction (optical axis) and the so-called "missing cone" translates into lower axial resolution, and limits sectioning capabilities [12], as for any transmission microscope.

Another approach consists of rotating the sample [Fig. 1(d)]: an almost complete spherical OTF is obtained, albeit with a smaller extension, and a small set of missing frequencies does exist along the rotation axis [16] (here y axis), slightly degrading the resolution in this direction [17]. This configuration also requires a large number of sample rotations to properly fill the OTF [17–19].

In order to simultaneously obtain improved- and isotropic-resolution images, one can combine [13] illumination and specimen rotations. Figure 1(e) shows the OTF support for 1, 2, and 4 views: few rotations permit obtaining a quasi-spherical, extended OTF (see also Visualization 1 for an animated construction of the

frequency supports). Theoretically proposed in Ref. [13] and studied by simulations, such a configuration had, however, not been tested experimentally up to now. The lateral and axial extensions of the frequency support for holographic microscopy are given, respectively, by [6]

$$\Delta \nu_{x,y}^{\mathrm{Holo}} = \frac{2n \sin \theta}{\lambda}$$
 and $\Delta \nu_z^{\mathrm{Holo}} = \frac{n(1 - \cos \theta)}{\lambda}$.

For TDM with illumination rotation (TDM-IR), one doubles the lateral frequency support [6] and

$$\Delta \nu_{x,y}^{\text{TDM-IR}} = \frac{4n \sin \theta}{\lambda}$$
 and $\Delta \nu_{z}^{\text{TDM-IR}} = \frac{2n(1 - \cos \theta)}{\lambda}$.

For TDM with sample rotation (TDM-SR), one gets [13]

$$\Delta \nu_{x,z}^{\text{TDM-SR}} = \frac{4n \sin(\theta/2)}{\lambda}$$
 and $\Delta \nu_y^{\text{TDM-SR}} = \frac{2n \sin \theta}{\lambda}$.

When combining both approaches (TDM-IRSR), one obtains

$$\Delta \nu_{x,y,z}^{\text{TDM-IRSR}} = \frac{4n \sin \theta}{\lambda}.$$

To overcome the resolution limitations of previously developed TDM systems [6–12,17–19], we have developed TDM-IRSR by adapting a special sample rotation system, compatible with a high-NA objective and a condenser (NA_{obj} = NA_{con} = 1.4), onto our previously built TDM-IR system. The system is based on a modified Mach–Zehnder interferometer, the angle of incidence of the illumination beam (633 nm or 475 nm) being controlled using a fast tip–tilt mirror. The diffracted and reference beams are recombined prior to detection, in an off-axis configuration. Interferograms are corrected for residual aberrations [20] and merged in Fourier space. Image reconstruction can be performed under a Born or Rytov approximation (see also Supplement 1 for more details about the experimental setup).

To illustrate the superior imaging capabilities of this new instrument, a tapered optical fiber is first imaged at 475 nm illumination. The heat-and-pull technique [21] produces very sharp tips, a few micrometers long, and with a tip end diameter below 100 nm. These characteristics make of such an object a good test pattern to compare the quality of the images obtained from different configurations.

Figures 2(a)-2(c) show (x-y), (x-z), and (y-z) views, respectively, of the 3D image of the fiber tip, obtained in TDM-IR. The high lateral resolution permits observing the 1 μ m long fiber tip in the (x-y) view. In Fig. 2(a), a 95 nm resolution (or $\lambda/3.5$ NA, as in Ref. [8]) is estimated (with classical lateral resolution in incoherent imaging, $R_{\text{lat}} = \lambda/2$ NA = 170 nm). Note that measuring resolution in coherent imaging may be challenging [22] (see Supplement 1 for details about resolution estimation). The system suffering from the previously mentioned z-axis elongation, the sharp tip is, however, not visible in the (x-z) view [Fig. 2(b)]. Furthermore, the fiber itself is not observed as a cylindrical object [Fig. 2(c)].

In order to perform TDM-IRSR, the fiber is connected to a stepper motor, to ensure rotation [23]. Figures 2(d)–2(f) show the fiber, after combining four views obtained at 0°, 54°, 90°, and 126°. The section of the fiber now almost depicts a disc and the sharp tip is visible in both (x-y) and (z-y) views (see Supplement 1 for details about the data fusion procedure). A lateral resolution of 150 nm and a longitudinal resolution of 180 nm are obtained (with classical longitudinal resolution, $R_{\rm long} = n\lambda/({\rm NA})^2 = 490$ nm). These

indicate that the fusion process is not perfect, the lateral resolution being slightly degraded, but a large gain in longitudinal resolution is indeed obtained. Higher lateral resolutions have been reported [10,12], but such a high and (almost) isotropic resolution in transmission microscopy is a novelty, which constitutes a breakthrough in the domain and should permit more precise investigations, for example, at the cellular level in biology.

To observe specimens, like pollens, diatoms or microcrystals, we attach them to an optical fiber by photopolymerization (Supplement 1 describes in detail the sample attachment procedure), the fiber being used as both a sample holder and a rotator.

Figures 3(a)-3(c) depict a *Bellis perennis* pollen grain, imaged at 633 nm. Figure 3(a) shows an (x-y) view, highlighting the characteristic spikes of these pollens. Note the photopolymer tip, which connects the pollen grain to ensure controlled rotation. Figure 3(b) shows an (x-z) view, the spikes not being visible along that direction. Figure 3(c) shows the superimposition of three views of the pollen grain, after 0° (red), 54° (green) and 108° (blue) rotations. The spikes visible in one view are not identifiable in the others, but data fusion should permit delivering images with isotropic characteristics.

Figures 3(d)–3(h) illustrate image quality gain for a zeolite crystal imaged with one view, Fig. 3(d), and after fusion of eight views. Note the microbubbles attached to the crystal, which appear spherical in Figs. 3(e) and 3(f), but noticeably elongated in Fig. 3(d) (see also Visualization 2): when imaging cells, precise shape and volume determination of smaller organelles could be hampered by this anisotropy when observed with TDM-IR (TDM-SR delivering anyway lower-resolution images), whereas TDM-IRSR would allow much more precise measurements.

Figure 4 shows a *Betula pendula* triporate pollen grain. TDM delivers dual views of the sample, identifying refraction and absorption in two separate images [14]. The contact sheet depicts volumetric cuts in the z direction (x–y views) through the index image, Fig. 4(a), and the absorption image, Fig. 4(b), highlighting the inner

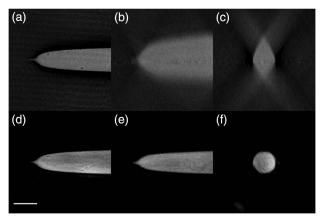


Fig. 2. Lateral, axial and sagittal views of a tapered fiber tip, obtained by heat-and-pull technique and observed with TDM. (a) With TDM-IR. (x-y) lateral plane view: note the excellent lateral resolution. (b) (x-z) axial plane view: the missing cone in this configuration induces low resolution along the optical axis and the fiber tip is not visible. (c) (y-z) sagittal view: the low sectional capabilities of TDM-IR translate into a deformed image of the specimen—the fiber section is not circular. Panels (d)–(f) show the same fiber observed with TDM-IRSR. The fiber tip is now clearly visible in both (x-y) and (x-z) views and the fiber section is almost circular, as expected. Combination of four acquisitions after specimen rotations of 0° , 54° , 90° , and 126° steps. Scale bar: $3 \mu m$.

structures of the pollen grain, its double-layer outer structure (arrow) with chambers separating the inner and outer walls (vestibulum), and protruding pores (double-headed arrow) (see also Visualization 3). The refraction index (RI) is calibrated from the known RIs of the immersion medium and of the photopolymer tip. The pollen walls are composed of highly refractive components like sporopollenins and cellulose [24], while the vestibulum is of lower RI. Some regions of the nucleus exhibit high RI [25], and the absorptive components seem confined to the interior of the pollen.

Such clear discrimination between the refractive and absorptive parts of a sample, in 3D and at high resolution, also constitutes a novelty. Refraction images have proven to constitute a useful tool for biological investigations [7,9–11,26], whereas absorption images have not been used up to now, but indeed give complementary information [8,12,27–29].

Figures 4(c) and 4(d) show 3D views of the absorption within the pollen and the complex index of refraction (refraction and absorption), respectively. Note the photopolymer tip, identifiable in Fig. 4(d), but not in Fig. 4(c). The absorption image (yellow) is indeed embedded within the refraction image (cyan), as shown in Fig. 4(e), which is a cut through the pollen: attenuation is confined to the inner wall or intine, whereas the outer wall, or exine, is refractive only (see also Visualization 4). Finer characterization of pollen grain's optical properties would, for example, be necessary in view of better understanding their contribution by direct absorption and scattering to local radiative forcing. Current models, even if geometrically very elaborate, usually neglect absorption [30]. The method we propose may contribute to address this limitation.

In conclusion, we have developed a tomographic diffractive microscope combining illumination and specimen rotations, which circumvents an important limitation in transmission microscopy:

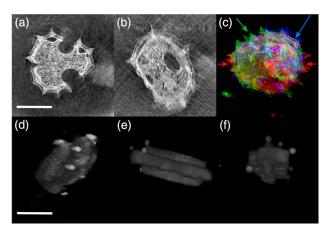


Fig. 3. *B. perennis* pollen grain and zeolite crystal observed with TDM. (a) (x-y) view for one angle of acquisition (TDM-IR). The polymer fiber tip, used to rotate the sample, is visible. Note the characteristic spikes of this type of pollen. (b) (x-z) view in TDM-IR. Note the elongation along the optical axis, and the vanishing aspect of the pollen surface, due to the missing cone. The spikes are hardly recognizable. (c) Colored superimposition of three views of the same pollen grain for three angles of rotation of the sample (red, 0°; green, 54°; and blue, 108°). Note the complementarity of the data (colored arrows): fusion should permit delivering isotropic-resolution images. Scale bar: 10 μm. Panels (d)–(f) show images of a zeolite crystal for (d) one angle of acquisition (TDM-IR) and [(e, f)] after eight acquisitions and data fusion (TDM-IRSR). The crystal is better imaged; the surrounding small bubbles attached to the crystal are spherical with TDM-IRSR, whereas they appear elongated with TDM-IR only. Scale bar: 10 μm. See also Visualization 2.

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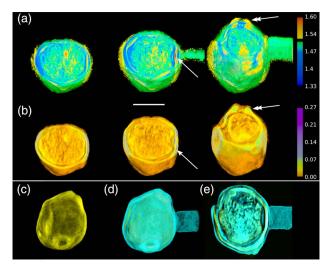


Fig. 4. Betula pollen grain observed with TDM. Panels (a) and (b) show volumetric cuts (x-y views) through the 3D index of refraction image and absorption image, respectively. Note the higher index of refraction of the pollen walls, especially near the pores (double-headed arrow), and the double-layer outer wall (arrow). Scale bar: 10 μm. See also Visualization 3. (c) Outer view of the pollen: image of the absorption component, displayed in yellow. (d) Outer view of the pollen: image of the complex index of refraction, with the refractive component displayed in cyan. The photopolymer tip used to handle the sample is purely refractive, and, hence, visible on the index component but not on the absorption image. (e) (x-y) cut through the pollen. Note that the absorptive components are confined to the interior of the pollen, nucleus and intine, and absent from the exine. See also Visualization 4.

it delivers images with an isotropic and improved resolution, and also with clear distinction of refraction and attenuation, two quantities that are usually mixed in intensity-only microscopy [14]. Possible extensions of this technique include isotropic-resolution, combined TDM-fluorescence microscopy [12,28], and spectral TDM imaging [31], as attenuation is often strongly wavelength-dependent.

Biological research [1–5] on freestanding specimens (for example, microplankton science, palynology, bacteriology, hematology, gamete and fertilization studies) as well as research on transparent materials [5] like photopolymers, structured optical fibers, textile fiber science, micro- and nanofabrication characterization, microcrystal could benefit from the superior imaging capabilities of such an instrument.

Using glass microcapillaries [17–19,25], or contact-free sample rotation systems, based on optical [32,33] or dielectrophoretic forces [34,35] may also facilitate the use of this technique with living, freestanding samples, like red or white blood cells, egg cells, pollens or unicellular organisms (diatoms, radiolarians). For living specimens, however, the oil-immersion objectives used throughout this work should be replaced with water-immersion objectives (with slightly lowered resolution).

Alternatively, if observing larger inert samples, low-NA, long-working-distance air objectives could be used. For samples presenting high indices of refraction, the technique we have developed could also benefit from advanced numerical reconstruction methods, which allow true super-resolution in far-field microscopy [36].

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See Supplement 1 for supporting content.

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Tomographic diffractive microscopy with isotropic resolution: supplementary material

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This document provides supplementary information to "Tomographic diffractive microscopy with isotropic resolution", https://doi.org/10.1364/optica.4.000460. It describes the experimental setup used to perform full Ewald sphere tomographic acquisitions, the method of resolution estimation, the fusion techniques to merge data, and the technique to attach samples and perform specimen rotation. © 2017 Optical Society of America

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1. Experimental setup

The principle of our tomographic diffractive microscopy with illumination rotation has been described in previous works [1-4]. For the present study, we have developed (see Fig. S1) a compact system, based on a Mach-Zehnder interferometer, from off-the-shelf opto-mechanical elements (Thorlabs).

A 10 mW, linear polarization, 633 nm HeNe laser (HNL100L-EC Thorlabs) is used as coherent source, for sample illumination and for reference beam generation via a beam splitter. Alternately, a 475 nm DPSS laser (B&W Tek BWB-475-10-0EM) can also be used.

A high numerical aperture objective (100x NA = 1.4 oil immersion Olympus) serves as a condenser, in conjunction with a fast steering mirror (FSM300 Newport) to perform angular scanning illumination. A second high numerical aperture objective (100x NA = 1.4 oil immersion Olympus) collects the diffracted field and forms the image.

The diffracted beam is recombined with the reference beam, and detected using a GigE interface, 1280×1024 pixels CMOS camera (PHF-MV1-D2048-96-G2 PhotonFocus).

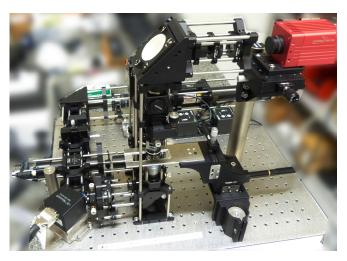


Figure S1: compact tomographic diffractive microscope with illumination rotation using high NA illumination and high NA detection, built from off-the-shelf elements.

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The tip-tilt mirror, via a LabJack U12 module (LabJack), and the camera are triggered by the acquisition computer. Holograms are acquired at a rate of 96 frames/s, and typically 400 holograms are acquired for one 3-D tomographic reconstruction.

Reconstructions are performed at a rate of 3 s for one 3-D image using an Intel i7, 4 GHz Linux computer, equipped with 32Mb of memory. Image reconstructions are performed on-line, which permits to immediately visualize the observed sample.

The sample is translated via an x-y motorized scanning stage. Focus can be performed optically, via a manual z-stage, and numerically, by computing hologram propagation.

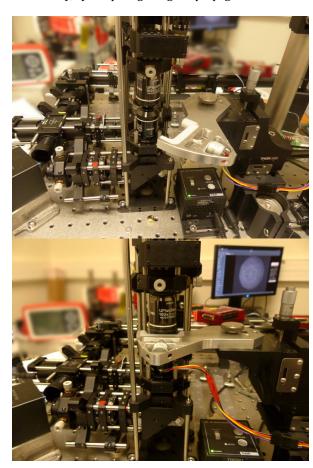


Figure S2: specific sample holder to perform specimen rotation using an optical fiber connected to a stepper motor, the sample being attached to the fiber by photopolymerization (see section d).

In order to perform sample rotation within the narrow space between the condenser-objective, and the detection-objective, we have developed a specific rotation stage depicted in Figure S2. A rotating arm permits to carefully insert the sample, attached to an optical fiber (see Section 4). The fiber is inserted into a fiber cannula, which is connected to a stepper motor, driven via a LabJack U12 module. Immersion oil between both objectives ensures optical contact.

After each TDM with illumination rotation, a sample rotation is performed, and a new TDM dataset is acquired.

Data fusion for isotropic resolution is performed off-line (see Section 3).

2. Estimation of the resolution

As pointed out by Horstmeyer, *et al.* [5], measuring the resolution in coherent imaging may be challenging, and poses specific problems, especially if one wants to compare resolution obtained

with different systems. For measuring lateral resolution, they consequently recommend the use of Siemens star targets, in either amplitude or phase, and propose a standardized method of resolution measurement. To generalize the method, such targets, extended in three dimensions (a Siemens 3-D star) should ideally be used, but are not, to the best of our knowledge, presently available. Throughout this work, we therefore stick to a simpler method, which, while obviously being less rigorous, permits a reasonable estimation of the 3-D resolution of our setup.

We have adopted the method already used in Ref. [6] to estimate resolution, fitting profiles obtained by cutting through the fiber, following the technique proposed by Bentzen [7] to align the profiles, and using the Python Imfit routine considering an edge profile [8]. The estimated σ from the edge profile is then multiplied by 2.355 to obtain the resolution [6]. Figure S3(a) shows the result obtained from Fig. 2(a) of the article. The method estimates a resolution of 95 nm using a 475 nm laser and with a numerical aperture of 1.4 at both illumination and detection, or $\lambda/3.5 NA$ (as in Ref. [6], but with shorter wavelength laser).

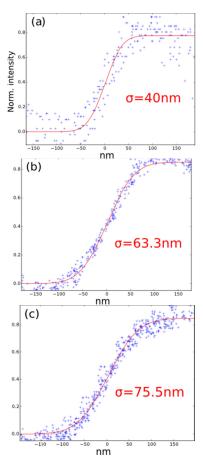


Figure S3: edge fit obtained on accumulated cuts through the tapered optical fiber. (a): lateral fit in TDM-IR. (b) lateral fit in TDM-IRSR. (c) longitudinal fit in TDM-IRSR. The resolution scales as 2.355σ .

After data fusion of 4 views, a lateral resolution of 149 nm is estimated (Fig. S3(b)) This result indicates that the fusion process is not fully optimal, slightly degrading the lateral resolution in the final image, but the obtained longitudinal resolution is estimated at 177 nm (Fig. S3(c)), demonstrating an almost isotropic 3-D resolution, which explains the very noticeable improvement in image quality observed on Figs. 2(e,f), Figs. 3(e-h) and Fig. 4 of the main article.

3. Data fusion

In order to obtain an image of the observed sample with isotropic resolution, data from the successive tomographic views obtained by rotating the specimen have to be recombined. The process requires several steps: hologram correction, 3-D stacks registration, Fourier data normalization, and final image reconstruction.

All computations are performed on a Linux PC, equipped with an Intel quadcore i7 processor (3.2 GHz), with 16 Gbytes of DDR3 memory, and programmed in C++ using open source libraries (FFTW, OpenCV) for the CPU reconstructions, and with CUDA library for GPU computations [9], performed on an NVidia Tesla C2075 card [10].

Hologram correction

Because residual aberrations will deteriorate the reconstructed images, each hologram is pre-processed with the method described in [11], simply adapted to transmission microscopy. Indeed, as our system is designed to observed a single object, attached to the rotating device, a large part of the field of view is empty, and can be used as reference background to measure the aberrations of the entire optical setup, using a polynomial fit. The aberrations, computed for each angle of illumination, are then simply subtracted from the corresponding hologram.

Then, a single view of the observed sample is computed from the holograms obtained by angular scanning of the illumination, as in [1-4]. Sample rotation is performed, and a new view of the specimen is obtained. The several images of the sample are then to be recombined. To do so, two steps are necessary, volume registration, performed in image space, and data normalization, performed in Fourier space.

Volume registration

Taking into account the speed of acquisition of our system (typically 6s per view), the considered specimens under observation do not experience changes in morphology. However, unwanted translations or rotation conicity affect in practice the purely rotational desired movement. These parasitic movements may result from mechanical constraints imposed by the stepper motor onto the rotation device, or onto the fiber, and which slowly release, or from slight misalignment of the fiber with the motor rotation axis (conicity).

From an imaging point of view, one can therefore consider that the different images of the samples are connected by rigid transforms. Consequently, one must identify the parameters of these transforms before image registration and fusion. The problem is very similar to that encountered for example in SPIM microscopy [12], that also takes benefit of specimen rotation to obtain a final improved image of the observed sample, and for which specialized registration methods have been developed in order to automatically compute data registration [13,14]. Such methods, which rely on the inclusion of fluorescent micro-beads, embedded as landmarks for image registration [14], or which include a deconvolution process [13], are therefore not adapted to our problem.

We therefore simply adopted the methods used in PET or MRI imaging [15], as implemented through the AIR software [16], compiled for our Linux computer. Using AIR libraries, a presegmentation of the images and an adjustment of input variables of the registration process allow for automatic determination of the rigid transform parameters. Then, each volume can be registered in its own reference frame, properly rotated with respect to the first images, and corrected for parasitic movements.

Data normalization

In TDM-IR, when varying the direction of illumination with a tiptilt mirror, inevitable phase shifts of the illumination beam are induced. This renders necessary to correct the sample frequencies measured in Fourier space for each direction of illumination, which is easily performed by normalizing the data with respect to the specular beam [1,3,11]. This allows for obtaining a coherent subset of data before the final 3-D Fourier transform giving one image of the specimen.

When also rotating the specimen, after the necessary volume registration, a similar correction is to be performed between the different views of the sample: for example, a translation in the spatial domain corresponds to a multiplication of the frequencies by a phase ramp. Therefore, each volume is normalised again with respect to the zero frequency after registration. This allows for obtaining several views of the sample, which are correctly positioned in space, and coherent with each other, not only in intensity, but both in amplitude and in phase. Then, the Fourier components corresponding to each view can be assembled.

Frequency overlapping

When adding the Fourier components, we take benefit from the fact that lower frequencies are recorded several times, which permit to average them and improve the signal to noise ratio in the final images. As an example, Figure S4 shows two frequency supports, corresponding to two views acquired at 0° and after a 90° sample rotation. The central part in purple highlights the frequencies, which are in that case recorded twice.

So, the whole data fusion process in TDM-IRSR requires working both in the spatial domain for the volumes registration and in the Fourier domain for correctly merging data.

Time consumption of the procedure

The most critical point for correct volume registration is the identification of good landmarks, used to compute the rigid transforms. For Fig. 2 (4 angles) and Fig. 3 (8 angles for the crystal) of the manuscript, this step was performed manually.

For the pollen grain images displayed on Fig. 4 of the manuscript, 10 successive views have been merged, and the reconstruction was fully automatic, which required 30 min for automatic rigid transforms determination with AIR, 6 min for images registration (real part, imaginary part, OTF, normalization), and 20 min for the final image fusion. The final rendering for Visualizations 2-4 is about 30 s with Blender. Note that the programs for the multiview, isotropic-resolution setup have not been optimized, contrary to the programs used for single view reconstruction [17].

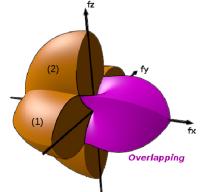


Figure S4: Illustration of the overlapping frequencies when recording two views of the same object. (1): frequencies for first view. (2): frequencies after 90° sample rotation. Purple: common frequencies.

4. Sample preparation

The fabrication of the microtip used as a sample holder was based on a self-guiding photopolymerization process at the extremity of an optical fiber as depicted in Refs. [18,19]. In this particular case, the monomer used was pentaerythritol triacrylate (PETIA), a trifunctional acrylate monomer and the photo-initiator was bis(2,4,6-trimethylbenzoyl)-phenylphosphineoxide, supplied by BASF under the brand name Irgacure 819 (2 wt %). This compound can initiate radical polymerization when illuminated at 375 nm.

The optical set-up used for holder fabrication is presented on Figure S5. First, a laser diode (375 nm, 60 mW) was coupled by an objective to a single mode optical fiber (SMF28e) with a 9 μ m core diameter. The light emerging from the opposite extremity is used to initiate photopolymerization. The coupling was adjusted to obtain an output power of 5 mW.

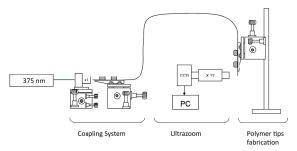


Figure S5: Optical set-up used for microtip fabrication and attachment microscopic samples to the microtip (see figures S6 and S7).

Figure S6 describes the fabrication of the tip, and attachment of a sample. The light guided in the fiber can initiate polymerization. A self-guiding process confines the polymerization to create a polymer tip with a diameter equal to the fiber core. After exposure, the fiber was rinsed in ethanol and a polymeric tip was visible as an extension of the fiber core (steps a to f of Figure S6).

The second step consisted in gluing the specimen to this holder. The microtip was dipped again in the formulation (step g), taking care that the formulation did not embed the whole holder but only its very end of the tip (step h). As in the first step, a small quantity of formulation remained at the extremity of the holder. Then, the specimen to study was placed under the holder and the holder extremity was displaced on top of the specimen (step i). A new exposure to the laser light polymerized the tiny formulation drop and glued the specimen to the holder (step j).

Finally, the fiber is removed from the setup to be cut, and inserted in the rotation device described in Section a (step k).

Figure S7 shows actual images of the process (steps b, c, g, k) when attaching a pollen grain to the optical fiber. Note that in this example, the laser was kept on after the attachment process, and, as UV light is used to cure the resin, the pollen fluoresces, and is therefore visible as a reddish spot.

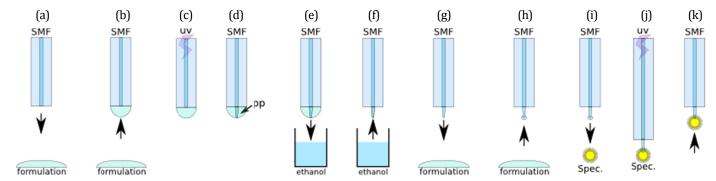


Figure S6: step by step attachment of a microscopic specimen to an optical fiber: microtip fabrication at the extremity of a single mode fiber and specimen gluing.

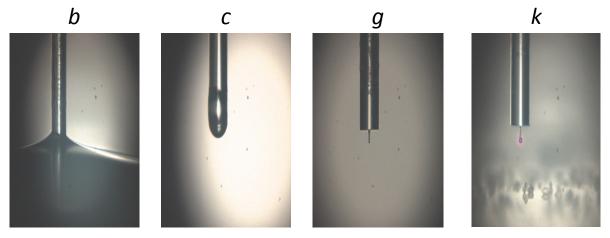


Figure S7: actual captures of steps b, c, g and k, when attaching a pollen grain to an optical fiber. The pollen is fluorescing and therefore visible in red on image k, as UV light is used for photopolymerization.

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