III.D FOURIER IMAGE PROCESSING TECHNIQUES

III.D.3 Digital Fourier Analysis of Electron Micrographs

Outline

Optical vs. Computer Image Analysis/Processing

Digital Processing Steps

Hardware / Software

Advantages of Computer Analysis :

Several advantages to processing images by digital rather than optical Fourier methods

Main advantages derive from the **quantitative** nature and **virtual infinite flexibility** of data manipulation

- 1. Example: In "pseudo" optical filtering (digital equivalent of OF), filter masks can be designed with an infinite variety and combination of hole sizes, shapes and "transparencies"
- 2. **3D reconstruction** and **rotational filtering** are impractical or impossible using the optical Fourier techniques
- 3. Quantitative analysis or manipulation of data not practical by optical means, but is the essence of computational processing

3. Quantitative analysis or manipulation of data not practical by optical means, but is the essence of computational processing

Examples:

- Removal of **image aberrations** (*e.g.* astigmatism; defocus)
- Removal of **specimen distortions** (*e.g.* filament curvature)
- Averaging of **separate** 2D or 3D reconstructions

Disadvantages of Computer Analysis:

- Necessity for discrete sampling of data

Introduces aliasing artifacts (transform overlap) which can be reduced by judicious choice of scanning conditions, but never totally removed

- Cost: may be prohibitive

No sense developing a system whose main purpose is to provide qualitative examination of specimen OD patterns (Optical diffractometers are cheap and operate at speed of light)

- OD still provides best method for screening images (quick and inexpensive)

OPTICAL

COMPUTER

Original micrograph used	Micrograph digitized and "floated"
OD bench can be simple and inexpensive	Fast computer needed for "interactive" results
Formation of diffraction pattern instantaneous	Careful digitization normally slow and compu- tation of diffraction patterns may take several seconds
Filtering operations require high quality (<i>i.e.</i> expensive) optics	Computers get more powerful and cheaper every day
Accurate filter masks tedious to make	Only limited by quality of software
Filtered image recorded photographically	Reconstructed images displayed and photo- graphed using computer graphics devices
Quantitative information difficult or nearly impossible to obtain	Essence of computing IS to be quantitative
Amplitudes and phases difficult to manipulate	Infinite control over amplitudes and phases

OPTICAL

Attenuation of zero-order beam to improve contrast in filtered image (may cause frequency doubling)

Imposing idealized, <u>**non**</u>-translational symmetries virtually impossible

Correction for lattice distortion virtually impossible

Data (ODs and filtered images) are continuous (*i.e.* vary smoothly)

Fast for screening and selecting best images for additional analysis

Reconstruction of 3D structure essentially impossible

Impractical to average data from different micrographs

COMPUTER

Control of contrast simple and straightforward

Any symmetries (even incorrect) can be easily imposed

Lattice distortions can be corrected (reinterpolate original image onto perfect lattice

Data are discrete (pixels)

Not until CCD technology gets cheap

Procedures rather straightforward with "right" software

Easy to average data from different micrographs

Typical digital processing procedure includes:

- 1. Selection of images
- 2. Densitometry
- 3. Boxing and floating the digital image
- 4. Fourier transformation
- 5. Indexing of two-dimensional lattices
- 6. 2D filtering/3D reconstruction (back-transformation)

Typical digital processing procedure includes:

- 1. Selection of images
- 2. Densitometry
- 3. Boxing and floating the digital image
- 4. Fourier transformation
- 5. Indexing of two-dimensional lattices
- 6. 2D filtering/3D reconstruction (back-transformation)

III.D.3 Digital Fourier Analysis of Electron MicrographsIII.D.3.b Digital Processing Steps1. Image Selection

Micrographs are examined by eye and/or by OD to select a subset of 'best' images for digital processing

- OD pattern from carbon support film provides **rapid check on microscope CTF conditions** at the time the micrograph was recorded (*i.e.* defocus level, astigmatism, drift or vibrations, etc.)
- OD is generally unsuitable for selecting **individual particles** for digital, rotational filtering

Goal:

Convert **optical densities** in the photographic emulsion to a digitial image (a **numerical array** corresponding to the relative optical densitites in the image)

Each density value in the digitized image is represented as a **pixel** with an intensity ranging between 0 and 255 (an eight bit number) or 4096 (12-bit number) or even higher in some CCD cameras

Information content in a **single 1024 by 1024** digital image (1,048,576 pixels) is quite staggering: more than the text portion of the lecture notes for both BIO 595R and 595W!

NOTE: at a raster step size of 7 μm (smallest step size on Zeiss scanner), the area of the micrograph digitized for a 1024 by 1024 array would be ~50 mm² or 0.625% (1/160th) of an 8 x 10 cm micrograph

Hence, the information content of **one** micrograph digitized at 7 μ m is about **160 times** the entire course contents!!!

Rule of Thumb:

Images should be scanned to give pixels of a size corresponding to **ONE-THIRD OR LESS** than the expected resolution in the image in order to minimize **aliasing** artifacts

This condition is referred to as **over-sampling** the data

Data under-sampling leads to loss of resolution



Continuous

















Negatively-stained T4 bacteriophage sampled at different pixel resolutions (in dpi)



















Data Over-Sampling: Good News / Bad News

Good News:

- No loss of resolution recorded in the micrograph

Bad News:

- Increased computation owing to increased data

Step size (pixel resolution) in the biological specimen depends on magnification of the micrograph scanned

Example: Micrograph magnification = 45,000XScan raster size = $14 \mu m$ Each pixel corresponds to 0.311 nm at specimen

Thus, based on the scanning *Rule of Thumb*, at best can only recover information out to ~0.933 nm (= 3 x 0.311)

Note: Calculation assumes the specimen is preserved to this resolution and the electron optical conditions allow recovery of this information

Table of **nominal pixel sizes** (in nm) recoverable from a digitized image for different scanner step sizes:

FEI CM300 MICROGRAPH	SCA	ZEISS F N STEP	PHODIS SIZE (um)
MAG	7	14	28	μπ) 56
13,500	0.519	1.037	2.074	4.148
19,500	0.359	0.718	1.436	2.872
24,000	0.292	0.583	1.167	2.333
33,000	0.212	0.424	0.848	1.697
45,000	0.156	0.311	0.622	1.244
61,000	0.115	0.230	0.459	0.918

Nominal Pixel Size (nm)

Table of **nominal pixel sizes** (in nm) recoverable from a digitized image for different scanner step sizes:

FEI CM300 MICROGRAPH	ZEISS PHODIS SCAN STEP SIZE (μm)			
MAG	7	14	28	56
13,500	0.519	1.037	2.074	4.148
19,500	0.359	0.718	1.436	2.872
24,000	0.292	0.583	1.167	2.333
33,000	0.212	0.424	0.848	1.697
45,000	0.156	0.311	0.622	1.244
61,000	0.115	0.230	0.459	0.918

Nominal Pixel Size (nm)

Note: Actual pixel size must be determined from <u>calibrated</u> microscope magnifications

Scanning Rule of Thumb #1:

Scan images at raster settings corresponding to ONE-THIRD OR LESS than the expected resolution in the image in order to minimize aliasing artifacts

Scanning Rule of Thumb #2:

Generally best to scan images and store them with the smallest nominal pixel size (*e.g.* 7 μm on Zeiss)

Subsequent processing can be performed if desired with larger size pixels by **reinterpolating** or **binning** the original scanned image (the 'gold' standard)

KEY CONCEPT:

Always wise to carefully plan out your experiments

- Take a best guess at the resolution you might expect to achieve in your images
- Divide this value by 3 and choose a magnification appropriate for the scanner step size you select
- If radiation damage is a problem (always is!), opt for the **smallest step size and lowest magnification**

FEI CM300 MICROGRAPH	ZEISS PHODIS SCAN STEP SIZE (μm)			
MAG	7	14	28	56
13,500	0.519	1.037	2.074	4.148
19,500	0.359	0.718	1.436	2.872
24,000	0.292	0.583	1.167	2.333
33,000	0.212	0.424	0.848	1.697
45,000	0.156	0.311	0.622	1.244
61,000	0.115	0.230	0.459	0.918

Nominal Pixel Size (nm)
III.D.3 Digital Fourier Analysis of Electron MicrographsIII.D.3.b Digital Processing Steps2. Densitometry

Microdensitometers are computer-driven devices

Measure optical densities in micrograph on a square grid pattern (*i.e.* at equal step sizes in two mutually perpendicular directions)

Transmission of small beam of light passing through micrograph is measured with a photomultiplier or CCD camera which **converts analog signal** (beam of light) **to a digital signal** (number ranging between 0 and 255 or higher)

III.D.3.b Digital Processing Steps 2. Densitometry





Data smearing



No smearing; Minimal data loss



No smearing; Substantial data loss

III.D.3 Digital Fourier Analysis of Electron MicrographsIII.D.3.b Digital Processing Steps2. Densitometry





- (1) Cast-iron enclosure
- (2) Primary guideway and primary carriage with (3) linear encoder
- (4) Secondary carriage with (5) mirror lens and (6) CCD module
- (7) Photo stage for scan copy and (8) glass cover plate
- (9) Lamp module with (10) fiber glass optics
- (11) Autowinder with (12) film roll (14) instrument enclosure with cover and (15) control panel
- (16) Electronics module

III.D.3 Digital Fourier Analysis of Electron MicrographsIII.D.3.b Digital Processing Steps2. Densitometry

Digital images typically displayed on a graphics workstation monitor and stored on magnetic disk or magnetic tape

- Amount of data generated can quickly get quite large
- 1 entire micrograph scanned at 7 μm step size generates about 163 x 10⁶ pixels which translates into 326 Mb of data (*i.e.* only 3 micrographs per Gbyte!!!)

Entire digital image or selected (boxed) areas may used for subsequent processing steps

To use only a portion of the scanned image:

- Area of interest is boxed (windowed) in manner similar to masking micrographs for OD or OF
- Thus, **areas outside** the biological specimen (*e.g.* carbon film or vitrified water or other "junk"), which mainly contribute noise to the image, are **selectively removed**

Boxing:

- Operation that zeroes regions in the digital image outside the area of interest (equivalent to "masking" in OD or OF experiments)
- Performed directly on digital image displayed on a computer graphics monitor
- **Note:** with auto- or semi-automated boxing routines, human intervention is reduced or eliminated and so too the requirement for graphics display of the data

Floating:

- Average image intensity around box perimeter is subtracted from <u>all</u> image intensities within the masked area
- This suppresses strong diffraction "spikes" which arise from the high-contrast edges of the masked area







Windowed



Windowed and Apodized





Windowed



Windowed and Apodized











Square window; unfloated



Circular window; <u>un</u>floated



Circular window; floated



Circular window; apodized & floated



Square window; unfloated



Square window; floated



Circular window; apodized & floated

Fourier transform of numerical array computed by fast-Fourier (FFT) methods

- Nothing magical or mystical to FFT routines
- Have been readily available for decades and are well tested

Fourier transform of an *n* by *m* pixel image results in an *n* by *m* complex array of numbers (structure factors)



Fourier transform of an *n* by *m* pixel image results in an *n* by *m* complex array of numbers (structure factors)

Each structure factor is stored in computer memory either as an **amplitude and phase** or as a **real** (A-part) **and imaginary** (B-part) part

Transforms or diffraction patterns generally displayed on a graphics monitor (*e.g.* in RobEM)

Fourier transform of an *n* by *m* pixel image results in an *n* by *m* complex array of numbers (structure factors)

	AMPLITUDES	PHASES
	6 6 21 9 3 8 1 13 9	3 30 24 31 36 31 31 6 23 33 18 10 9 31 7 9 9 10
Long and a start	4148853151 916157 🔫 11745	29 3 5 7 5 29 14 16 25 28 1 4 1 13 14 2 21 20
a contractor	9 14 19 10 95 16 25 14 10 10 10 13 15 46 27 15 18 7	7 26 3 17 23 25 4 24 16 1 20 30 15 23 31 9 25 33
AND	8 6 7 7 12 6 14 10 6	30 34 35 7 7 18 20 32 2
States and a state	6 3 5 7 15 13 4 13 5	29 17 26 25 13 12 17 19 32
	$ F_{h,k} $	$lpha_{h,k}$ / 10
$F_{h.k}$		

Correct indexing of diffraction pattern **ESSENTIAL** for successful image reconstruction analysis

For a well-ordered biological specimen (*e.g.* 2D crystal):

- Diffraction pattern is a series of discrete, sharp spots (Bragg reflections) on a reciprocal lattice
- Such patterns usually fairly easy to index (*i.e.* define reciprocal lattice parameters and assign a Miller index to each spot)

Example: Phosphorylase b crystal

III.D.2.a Indexing the Optical Diffraction Pattern



OD and Filtration of Negatively-stained Phosphorylase b Crystal

From Kiselev et al., (1971) Plate III

For multilayered or two-sided structures (*e.g.* biological aggregates with helical symmetry):

- Indexing can be quite tricky

Example: T4 Polyhead












Amplitudes in computed FT **zeroed** everywhere **except** at or near reciprocal lattice points

An averaged image is reconstructed by back-transforming the modified ("filtered") diffraction pattern

Recall:



"Pseudo-Optical" Filtering:

Here, "points" actually refers to **finite regions** (holes in the "filter mask") that surround the points of an **ideal** reciprocal lattice

Data inside the mask holes are left as is (*i.e.* multiplied by 1) or may be weighted according to the distance of each transform data value from the ideal lattice

Will demo this next time in RobEM

Amplitudes $(|F_{h,k}|)$

Phases ($\alpha_{h,k}$ / 10))

5	10	7	11	5	4	10	5	6	3	30	24	31	36	31	31	6	23
6	6	21	9	3	8	1	13	9	33	18	10	9	31	7	9	9	10
4	14	8	8	5	3	1	5	1	29	3	5	7	5	29	14	16	25
9	16	15	7	8	11	7	4	5	28	1	4	1	13	14	2	21	20
9	14	19	10	85	18	25	14	10	7	26	3	17	23	25	4	24	16
10	10	13	15	46	27	15	18	7	1	20	30	15	23	31	9	25	33
8	6	7	7	12	6	14	10	6	30	34	35	7	7	18	20	32	2
9	5	6	6	21	16	8	3	6	10	2	31	20	22	24	34	25	16
6	3	5	7	15	13	4	13	5	29	17	26	25	13	12	17	19	32

Amplitudes $(|F_{h,k}|)$

Phases ($\alpha_{h,k}$ / 10))



 $D_{HOLE} = 6d^*$

Amplitudes $(|F_{h,k}|)$

Phases ($\alpha_{h,k}$ / 10))



 $D_{HOLE} = 6d^*$

Amplitudes $(|F_{h,k}|)$

Phases ($\alpha_{h,k}$ / 10))



 $D_{HOLE} = 6d^*$

Amplitudes $(|F_{h,k}|)$

Phases ($\alpha_{h,k}$ / 10))



 $D_{HOLE} = 4d^*$

Amplitudes $(|F_{h,k}|)$

Phases ($\alpha_{h,k}$ / 10))



 $D_{HOLE} = 2d^*$

Amplitudes $(|F_{h,k}|)$

Phases ($\alpha_{h,k}$ / 10))

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	30	24	31	36	31	31	6	23
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	33	18	10	9	31	7	9	9	10
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	29	3	5	7	5	29	14	16	25
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	28	1	4	1	13	14	2	21	20
0	0	0	0	35	0	0	0	0	7	26	3	17	23	25	4	24	16
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	20	30	15	23	31	9	25	33
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	34	35	7	7	18	20	32	2
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	2	31	20	22	24	34	25	16
ں ہے اح	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	29	17	26	25	13	12	17	19	32

 $D_{HOLE} = d^*$

Amplitudes $(|F_{h,k}|)$

Phases ($\alpha_{h,k}$ / 10))



D_{HOLE} = 4d* "Hard" edge

Amplitudes $(|F_{h,k}|)$

Phases ($\alpha_{h,k}$ / 10))



D_{HOLE} = 4d* "Soft" edge

Amplitudes $(|F_{h,k}|)$

Phases ($\alpha_{h,k}$ / 10))

5	10	7	11	5	4	10	5	6	3	30	24	31	36	31	31	6	23
6	6	21	9	3	8	1	13	9	33	18	10	9	31	7	9	9	10
4	14	8	8	5	3	1	5	1	29	3	5	7	5	29	14	16	25
9	16	15	7	8	11	7	4	5	28	1	4	1	13	14	2	21	20
9	14	19	10	8 5	18	25	14	10	7	26	В	17	2 3	25	4	24	16
10	10	13	15	46	27	15	18	7	1	20	30	15	23	31	9	25	33
8	6	7	7	12	6	14	10	6	30	34	35	7	7	18	20	32	2
9	5	6	6	21	16	8	3	6	10	2	31	20	22	24	34	25	16
6	3	5	7	15	13	4	13	5	29	17	26	25	13	12	17	19	32

Amplitudes $(|F_{h,k}|)$

Phases ($\alpha_{h,k}$ / 10))

5	10	7	11	5	4	10	5	6	3	30	24	31	36	31	31	6	23
6	6	21	9	3	8	1	13	9	33	18	10	9	31	7	9	9	10
4	14	8	8	5	3	1	5	1	29	3	5	7	5	29	14	16	25
9	16	15	7	8	11	7	4	5	28	1	4	1	13	14	2	21	20
9	14	19	10	85	18	25	14	10	7	26	3	17	23	25	4	24	16
10	10	13	15	46	27	15	18	7	1	20	30	15	23	31	9	25	33
8	6	7	7	12	6	14	10	6	30	34	35	7	7	18	20	32	2
9	5	6	6	21	16	8	3	6	10	2	31	20	22	24	34	25	16
6	3	5	7	15	13	4	13	5	29	17	26	25	13	12	17	19	32

Complete Fourier Averaging:

- All unit cells are averaged
- A **single** structure factor is computed for each reciprocal lattice point
- Fourier synthesis of this reduced set of structure factors gives the reconstructed structure of a <u>single</u> unit cell

Note: Process is formally equivalent to performing filtering with mask holes of **infinitely small** diameter

Will demo this next time in RobEM

3D Reconstruction:

Diffraction phases and amplitudes (structure factors) measured at all points of **3D** reciprocal lattice by combining data from 2D diffraction patterns from many, independent views of the specimen

Rationale for collecting and combining information from different views depends in part on the type of specimen studied (*i.e.* its **symmetry**)

III.D.3 Digital Fourier Analysis of Electron Micrographs III.D.3.c Hardware / Software

Two <u>Dis</u>advantages of Digital Processing:</u>

Expense and complexity of required hardware and software

Microdensitometer: >\$100,000 for precision instrument

Computers: Relatively cheap!

For \$2,000-5,000 can now get reasonable compute power and storage capacity for single-user, interactive image processing environment

For ~\$75,000 can build a 32 node Beowolf cluster of PCs for computationally intensive calculations

Software: Very expensive in effort and cost (>>\$100,000) to write, test, and support a stable suite of programs for running image processing procedures III.D.3 Digital Fourier Analysis of Electron Micrographs III.D.3.c Hardware / Software

Software:

Many labs engaged in image processing develop 'in-house' software tailored to needs of specific research projects

Established, portable systems: several are available either commercially or for "free" (*e.g.* SPIDER, IMAGIC, EMAN, MDPP, SEMPER, etc.)

Advantage: may save considerable effort (and frustration) in the development and testing of programs

Disadvantage: strong possibility of being incorrectly implemented by "black-box", novice users

End of Sec.III.D.3