

GSA DATA REPOSITORY 2012310

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21

Data Repository
for
Unraveling the complexity of deep gas accumulations with 3D multimodal CARS
microscopy

Robert C. Burruss¹

Aaron D. Slepko²

Adrian F. Pegoraro^{2,3}

Albert Stelow^{2,3}

¹U.S. Geological Survey, Reston, VA, USA

²Steacie Institute for Molecular Sciences, National Research Council, Ottawa, ON,

Canada

³Department of Physics, Queen's University, Kingston, ON, Canada

Samples

Fluid inclusions were analyzed in the five samples listed in Table DR1. The samples are doubly-polished thin-sections that were prepared for microthermometric measurements. With the exception of Sample 1, these are archival samples of studies in which basic descriptive information has been previously published.

Table DR1: Sample information

Sample No.	Sample ID	Location information	Geologic setting	Host mineral	Reference
1	Bilger	Central Pennsylvania	Fracture-filling cement, Marcellus Formation	Quartz	Evans, M., unpublished
2	K-Ap	Eastern Pennsylvania	Fracture-filling cement, Devonian rocks	Quartz	(Kisch and van den Kerkhof, 1991)
3	G-STP-13	Western Maine	Siluro-Devonian metamorphic terrain	Quartz	(Burruss, 1977)
4	25-1-2	Southwest Indian Ridge, Indian Ocean	Oceanic plutonic rocks, layer 3 of ocean crust	Hornblende	(Vanko and Stakes, 1991)
5	FAF-1	North-central Arkansas	Septarian fracture-filling cement, Fayetteville Formation	Calcite	(Burruss, 1981)

CARS Methodology and Image Processing

Laser scanning nonlinear optical microscopy was implemented on a commercial inverted microscope platform (Olympus FluoView 300), modified to allow non-descanned signal collection in the forward direction through a multimode fiber (Slepkov et al., 2011). The two-photon excitation fluorescence (TPEF) signal was isolated and collected in the epi-direction with a built-in photomultiplier tube (PMT), and second

harmonic generation (SHG) and CARS signals were separated by wavelength with a dichroic mirror and collected in the forward direction by separate PMTs. The imaging objective was either a 40×, 1.15 NA water immersion lens, with coverslip correction collar (Olympus, U Plan Apo IR) or a 40×, 0.8 NA water immersion dipping lens (Olympus, LUMPlanFI). The forward scatter was collected with a long-working-distance 0.55 NA condenser.

Laser light for TPEF and SHG was provided by a tunable Ti:sapphire oscillator (Coherent Inc., Mira 900) emitting 60 fs pulses at a repetition rate of 80 MHz and an average power of 1.5 W. For CARS microscopy, 200 mW was split and coupled through a commercial supercontinuum-generating photonic crystal fiber module (NKT Photonics, FemtoWHITE CARS), and the subsequent 65 mW of output continuum was filtered by a sequence of filters and a dichroic combiner to send 16 mW of >950 nm light comprised our CARS “Stokes” beam to the microscope scan head. The remaining laser power—comprising our CARS “pump” beam and our SHG and TPEF beam—was attenuated to 150–300 mW, and was combined on a 45° dichroic mirror (Chroma Technology 950dcxr) with the Stokes pulses. By varying the path length for the pump pulses with a computer-controlled retro-reflector stage, the relative temporal overlap between the pump and Stokes pulses is scanned to yield the continuous CARS spectrum. Furthermore, the insertion of 10 cm of SF₆ glass in the joint pump and Stokes arms and an additional 5 cm of SF₆ glass in the Stokes arm stretches both pulses in time, and allows for the necessary pulse shaping (chirp-matching (Hellerer et al., 2004)) to yield both 20 cm⁻¹ resolution in the CARS spectrum, and sufficient peak pulse intensity at the microscope focus to allow for simultaneous SHG and TPEF imaging. Without the use of matched glass blocks, the

62 resolution of our femtosecond-laser based CARS spectra is nominally 200 cm^{-1} . Various
63 central wavelengths ranging from 795 nm to 826 nm were used for the data presented
64 herein. At a central wavelength of 800 nm, the SHG signal is generated at 400 nm, the
65 TPEF signal ranges from 650 nm to 450 nm, and the anti-Stokes (CARS signal) light
66 ranges from 649 nm at the C-H stretch peak at 2900 cm^{-1} to 639 nm at the O-H peak at
67 3150 cm^{-1} .

68 Regardless of the central wavelength of the Ti:sapphire oscillator used for these
69 experiments (ranging from 795 nm to 826 nm), the output supercontinuum of the
70 photonic crystal fiber module essentially remains constant in extent in the near-infrared,
71 ranging from 975 nm to 1175 nm. This light constitutes our Stokes beam. Throughout
72 this range, the spectral density of the Stokes beam varies considerably, and, in general, it
73 has the highest density between 1025 nm and 1060 nm, as described previously (Slepkov
74 et al., 2010). At a pump wavelength of 795 nm, the peak of the supercontinuum Stokes
75 spectral density covers the strong C-H vibrational band and most of the O-H vibrational
76 band. Thus, this wavelength was used for most methane- and water-inclusion imaging.
77 To effectively image nitrogen-bearing inclusions, the pump wavelength is tuned to 826
78 nm, where it mixes with the peak in the Stokes pulse to probe the N-N vibrational mode
79 at 2320 cm^{-1} , but where there is also sufficient spectral density in the Stokes beam to
80 fully probe the methane peak around 2910 cm^{-1} .

81 The “chirp rate” of a pulse describes how its wavelength varies in time. More
82 specifically, the chirp rate is the variation in frequency (energy) as a function of time
83 within the pulse. To obtain the best CARS spectral resolution within a given pump pulse
84 duration, the chirp rate of the pump and Stokes pulses must be identical. For the

experiments presented here, 15 cm of total SF₆ glass is placed in the Stokes arm, and 10 cm of SF₆ glass is present in the pump arm. This yields a measured spectral resolution for CARS of 20 cm⁻¹, as shown by the line shape of the spectrum presented in Fig. 1(G). Different frequency components overlap between the pump and Stokes arms depending on the optical path length settings of the pump arm. This optical path length is varied to overlap different frequency components between the Stokes and pump beams, and thus to probe different vibrational frequencies. A retro-reflector on a computerized translation stage is used to scan this delay (i.e. to scan the CARS spectrum). To calibrate the CARS frequency scale, we directly measure the generated anti-Stokes spectrum as a function of optical delay. By collecting the non-descanned anti-Stokes light in the forward direction with a multimode fiber (Slepkov et al., 2011) we are able to send this signal to a portable off-board spectrometer (Ocean Optics Inc.). Anti-Stokes central wavelength as a function of delay stage position data, together with knowledge of the central pump pulse wavelength can be converted to yield a calibration of CARS frequency as a function of stage position. CARS signals in a glass slide pumped at 300 mW are used for this purpose, because the response across the entire accessible frequency scale (2100 cm⁻¹–4500 cm⁻¹) is nonresonant and largely unstructured. For the experimental conditions described here a linear fit to the data yields a Stokes chirp rate of 414 cm⁻¹/ps (11 data points; R²=0.9994).

When the CARS microscope is operated in spectral-scanning mode, a single plane of the sample is imaged and the CARS spectrum is built up at each pixel by scanning the delay stage through the CARS resonance. Thus, for images in the manuscript where a region of interest (ROI) is identified and a spectrum is shown, there is complete

hyperspectral information at each pixel (representing a volume of $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}^3$). The CARS spectra for any given ROI are an average of the spectra of every pixel within the specified ROI. We have not averaged any spectra at different depths within an image stack.

CARS spectroscopy vs. Raman spectroscopy in geoscience applications: There are some key differences between spontaneous Raman scattering spectra and CARS spectra that complicate their direct comparison. Two of these differences, peak shape and peak intensity are inherent to the nonlinear optical processes that generate the CARS signal. A third, the range of the CARS spectrum that can be recorded, is a function of our implementation of CARS spectroscopy.

The peak shape is a function of the four-wave mixing nature of the CARS process because the collected anti-Stokes light is a mixture of vibrationally-resonant light and electronically-derived “nonresonant background” (Cheng et al., 2001). The relative amount of one source to the other is determined by a host of experimental conditions—unique to each particular experimental implementation of CARS—including spectral resolution and excitation bandwidth, Raman resonance line width, and concentration of resonant oscillators within the excitation volume (Ganikhanov et al., 2006; Pegoraro et al., 2009). These features manifest themselves commonly as a reshaping of the vibrational line shape on the high-energy side of a resonance, most often resulting in a dip below the baseline and gradual return. This so-called dispersive line shape is a direct effect of coherent addition of the electric fields of the nonresonant signal and the resonant signal, which are out of phase on the high-energy side of the vibrational resonance. At high resonant-to-nonresonant signal ratios, this reshaping diminishes and the line shape

approaches that of a Lorentzian, as in conventional Raman spectroscopy. The nonresonant background in quartz is miniscule compared to the strength of the C-H vibrational resonant signal in methane at our experimental conditions, and thus our CARS spectra for methane in inclusions closely resemble traditional Raman spectra (but currently limited to 20 cm^{-1} resolution), as seen in Fig. 1G. The Lorentzian fit to the spectrum in Fig 1G is excellent on the low-energy side of the spectrum, but slightly diminished on the high-energy side of the spectrum. These effects ultimately further result in a slight bathochromic shift of the CARS peak compared to the Raman peak. Indeed, we consistently find the strong C-H vibrational peak for methane at 2904–2910 cm^{-1} , as compared to 2914 cm^{-1} in spontaneous Raman scattering spectra.

In a conventional microfocused Raman spectrometer, the intensity of a Raman band is a linear function of the number of molecules in the focal volume of the laser and a linear function of the laser power. However, the nonlinear optical processes that generate the CARS signal cause the signal to be a quadratic function of both the number of molecules in the focal volume and the laser power. Furthermore, the baseline of the spectrum is affected by the nonresonant background as discussed above. Therefore, relatively weak scatterers or molecules at low concentration can yield very weak signals in CARS, making resolution from background and quantitative calibration of intensity to concentration difficult (Day et al., 2011). A conventional Raman microprobe can be calibrated to quantitatively estimate the concentration of methane dissolved in the aqueous phase of a 2-phase inclusion such as incl. #3 in Fig. 3B and Fig. DR1A (Dubessy et al., 2001). However, as shown in the spectrum of the aqueous phase of incl. 3 in Fig. DR1B our implementation of CARS spectroscopy cannot resolve a peak for CH_4

dissolved in the aqueous phase. As the technology of microfocused CARS spectroscopy and related stimulated Raman scattering methods evolve, quantitative calibration of these methods may be possible (Day et al., 2011).

As noted in the text, the frequency range of CARS resonance that can be recorded by our system is currently 2100 to 4500 cm^{-1} . This is a design limitation based on optimization for biomedical imaging and spectroscopy of the C-H stretch of lipids and the O-H stretch of water at the cellular level. This is not an inherent limitation of CARS. Systems using lasers with different tuning ranges and different types of detectors have been constructed for imaging and spectroscopy over the frequency range of 500 to 3500 cm^{-1} (Lee et al., 2011). However, each implementation of CARS involves tradeoffs in frequency range, spectral resolution, speed of imaging, and multimodal imaging capability, not to mention complexity and cost of the system. Our initial experiments with a modified setup indicate that imaging CO_2 -rich fluid inclusions is possible at 1284 and 1388 cm^{-1} , but further modifications are required to allow routine imaging.

Manuscript images and image processing: All nonlinear microscopy images were acquired using the Olympus FluoView software, which synchronizes the laser scanners (x-y), the objective position along the optical axis (z), and the acquisition from photomultiplier tube (PMT) detectors. We typically obtain 256×256 pixel images, especially when collecting hyperspectral images (x-y images + spectrum at each pixel), but we occasionally collect 512×512 pixel images, particularly when collecting three-dimensional volumes at a fixed CARS frequency. For hyperspectral imaging, the computerized optical delay stage that scans the spectrum is synchronized with the

FluoView software by a custom-made user-defined LabView (National Instruments Inc.) program that allows us to control the scan speed and spectral sampling rate. Typical 256×256 images are collected in 0.33 s (5 μ s pixel dwell time). A hyperspectral scan, such as shown in Figs. 1G and 3B takes approximately 3–6 minutes to collect. Data analysis and further image processing is conducted in ImageJ (release 1.43u, in the public domain from NIH), with an expanded set of plugins for 3D rendering and the “Intensity v Time Monitor.”

Figure 1 processing. Fig. 1B is a single slice snapshot from a three-dimensional rendering rotation sequence shown in video DR1. The physical scan dimensions are $350 \mu\text{m} \times 350 \mu\text{m} \times 78 \mu\text{m}$, obtained as a $512 \times 512 \times 78$ voxel volume, each slice collected as an average of 3 images. Two image stacks are obtained to yield the best contrast for the purely resonant signal from methane; an “on resonance” sequence at 2910 cm^{-1} , and an “off resonance” signal at 2700 cm^{-1} . These image stacks are then subtracted to yield the purely resonant signal at 2910 cm^{-1} . The display settings were chosen for maximum contrast, and thus represent the maximum volume of methane observable. Fig. 1C–1F) represent a re-scan close-up of the inclusion labeled “i” in Fig. 1B. These were obtained simultaneously as a spectral scan sequence of $279 \times 256 \times 256$ images. Figs. 1C and 1D, representing the SHG and TPEF response from the inclusions are averages of five consecutive images taken at an arbitrary spectral position, whereas Fig. 1E is an average of five consecutive images spanning the C-H peak centered at 2910 cm^{-1} , subtracted by five consecutive images taken off resonance at 2700 cm^{-1} . The spectral data for Fig. 1G

were obtained by projecting the average signal from the selected region of interest (ROI) shown in Fig. 1F across the hyperspectral scan stack.

Figure 2 processing. Fig. 2 is a single-slice snapshot from a three-dimensional rendering rotation sequence shown in video DR2. The physical scan dimensions are $175\text{ }\mu\text{m} \times 175\text{ }\mu\text{m} \times 60\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, obtained as a $512 \times 512 \times 60$ voxel volume, each slice collected as an average of 3 images. For the CARS (red) channel, two image stacks are obtained to yield the best contrast for the purely resonant signal from methane; an “on resonance” sequence at 2910 cm^{-1} , and an “off resonant” signal at 3080 cm^{-1} . These image stacks are then subtracted directly to yield only the purely resonant signal at 2910 cm^{-1} . The display settings were chosen for heightened contrast. For the SHG (green) channel, signal was collected simultaneously with CARS, and no processing was done aside from overlaying it with the processed CARS channel data and adjusting the contrast settings for best visualization.

Figure 3 processing. Fig. 3A is a 2D projection of a 3D volume stack of the CARS signal from CH_4 and H_2O in Sample 2. A 3D rendering rotation sequence of this volume is shown in video DR3. The physical scan dimensions are $78\text{ }\mu\text{m} \times 78\text{ }\mu\text{m} \times 44\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, obtained as a $512 \times 512 \times 88$ voxel volume, each slice collected as an average of 3 images. Three image stacks are obtained to yield the best contrast for the purely resonant signal from methane and water; a “C-H resonance” sequence at 2910 cm^{-1} , a “O-H resonance” sequence at 3230 cm^{-1} , and an “off resonant” signal at 2620 cm^{-1} . The “off resonance” stack is subtracted from the “C-H resonance” stack to yield only the purely

resonant signal for methane (red). The “C-H resonance” stack is subtracted from the “O-H resonance” stack to yield only the purely resonant signal for water (green). The display settings were chosen for maximum contrast. For the 3D rotation rendering (video DR3) a Gaussian blurring filter of 1 pixel diameter is used to reduce speckle and random noise. No blurring was used for the image in Fig. 3A.

Figure 4 processing. Fig. 4A is an overlay of the CARS image collected at 2845 cm^{-1} , representing the peak signal from crude oil (red), and TPEF signal collected in the epi-direction (green). These were obtained simultaneously as a spectral scan sequence of $298\ 256 \times 256$ images, with $55\ \mu\text{m} \times 55\ \mu\text{m}$ scan dimensions and no averaging. For the CARS signal (red), a sequential five-frame average taken at 3080 cm^{-1} , representing the nonresonant signal, was subtracted from a sequential five-frame average taken across $2841\text{--}2848\text{ cm}^{-1}$, to yield the best contrast for the purely resonant signal from crude oil at 2845 cm^{-1} . Fig. 4B shows the CARS spectra from an inclusion containing crude oil and methane and from a bubble within the same inclusion that contains mostly methane and some higher hydrocarbons. The raw spectra are averaged over the selected ROIs and are normalized to the spectrum taken from the host matrix adjacent to the inclusions, representing the nonresonant background.

References

Burruss, R. C., 1977, Analysis of fluid inclusions in graphitic metamorphic rocks from Bryant Pond, Maine, and Khtada Lake, British Columbia: Thermodynamic basis

244 and geologic interpretation of observed fluid compositions and molar volumes
245 [Ph.D. thesis: Princeton University, 156 p.

246 Burruss, R. C., 1981, Hydrocarbon fluid inclusions in studies of sedimentary diagenesis,
247 *in* Hollister, L. S., and Crawford, M. L., eds., Short Course in Fluid Inclusions:
248 Applications to Petrology, Volume 6: Calgary, Mineralogical Association of
249 Canada, p. 138-156.

250 Cheng, J. X., Volkmer, A., Book, L. D., and Xie, X. S., 2001, An epi-detected coherent
251 anti-Stokes Raman scattering (E-CARS) microscope with high spectral resolution
252 and high sensitivity: Journal of Physical Chemistry B, v. 105, p. 1277-1280.

253 Day, J. P. R., Domke, K. F., Rago, G., Kano, H., Hamaguchi, H., Vartiainen, E. M., and
254 Bonn, M., 2011, Quantitative coherent anti-Stokes Raman scattering (CARS)
255 microscopy: Journal of Physical Chemistry B, v. 115, p. 7713-7725.

256 Dubessy, J., Buschaert, S., Lamb, W., Pironon, J., and Thiery, R., 2001, Methane-bearing
257 aqueous fluid inclusions: Raman analysis, thermodynamic modelling and
258 application to petroleum basins: Chemical Geology, v. 173, p. 193-205.

259 Ganikhanov, F., Evans, C. L., Saar, B. G., and Xie, X. S., 2006, High-sensitivity
260 vibrational imaging with frequency modulation coherent anti-Stokes Raman
261 scattering (FM CARS) microscopy: Optics Letters, v. 31, p. 1872-1874.

262 Hellerer, T., Enejder, A. M. K., and Zumbusch, A., 2004, Spectral focussing: high
263 spectral resolution spectroscopy with broad-bandwidth laser pulses: Applied
264 Physics Letters, v. 85, no. 25-27.

265 Kisch, H. J., and van den Kerkhof, A. M., 1991, CH₄-rich inclusions form quartz veins in
266 the Valley-and-Ridge province and the anthracite fields of the Pennsylvania
267 Appalachians: *American Mineralogist*, v. 76, p. 230-240.

268 Lee, Y. J., Moon, D., Migler, K. B., and Cicerone, M. T., 2011, Quantitative image
269 analysis of broadband CARS hyperspectral images of polymer blends: *Analytical*
270 *Chemistry*, v. 83, p. 2733-2739.

271 Liu, Y., Lee, Y. J., and Cicerone, M. T., 2009, Broadband CARS spectral phase retrieval
272 using a time-domain Kramers-Kronig transform: *Optics Letters*, v. 34, p. 1363-
273 1165.

274 Pegoraro, A. F., Ridsdale, A., Moffat, D. J., Jia, Y., Pezacki, J. P., and Stolow, A., 2009,
275 Optimally chirped multimodal CARS microscopy based on a single Ti:sapphire
276 oscillator: *Optics Express*, v. 17, p. 2984-2996.

277 Slepkov, A. D., Ridsdale, A., Pegoraro, A. F., Moffat, D. J., and Stolow, A., 2010,
278 Multimodal CARS microscopy of structured carbohydrate biopolymers:
279 *Biomedical Optics Express*, v. 1, p. 1347-1357.

280 Slepkov, A. D., Ridsdale, A., Wan, H. N., Wang, M. H., Pegoraro, A. F., Moffat, D. J.,
281 Pezacki, J. P., Kao, F. J., and Stolow, A., 2011, Forward-collected simultaneous
282 fluorescence lifetime imaging and coherent anti-Stokes Raman scattering
283 microscopy: *Journal of Biomedical Optics*, v. 16, no. 2.

284 Vanko, D. A., and Stakes, D. S., 1991, Fluids in oceanic layer 3: Evidence from veined
285 rocks, Hole 735B, southwest Indian Ridge, *in* Von Herzen, R. P., and Robinson,
286 P. T., eds., *Proceedings of the Ocean Drilling Program, Scientific Results*,
287 *Volume 118*: College Station, TX, Ocean Drilling Program, p. 181-215.

288

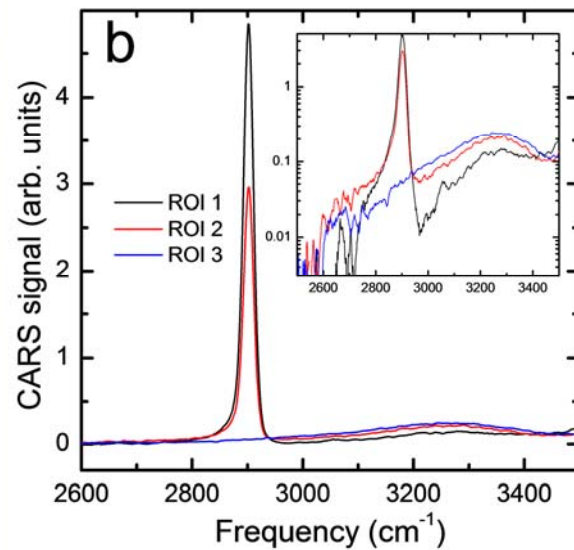
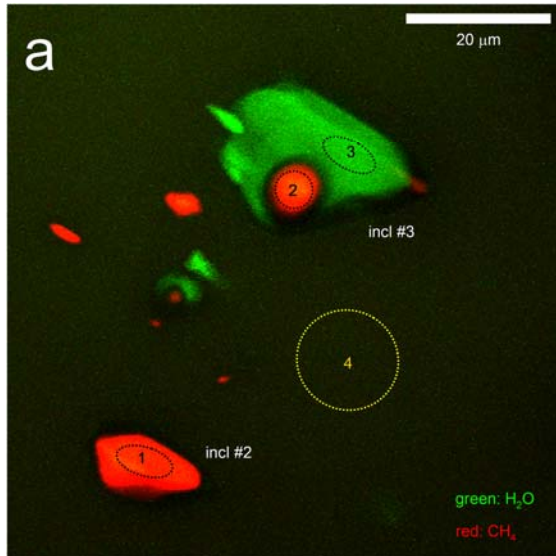


Fig. DR1. CARS image (a) and spectra (b) of methane and water in inclusions in text Fig. 3 and video DR3. The spectra of regions of interest (ROI) 1 to 3 in (a) were corrected for nonresonant background signal sampled from ROI 4. The inset shows the spectra plotted on a log-normal scale for clarity. We do not observe a spectrum for CH₄ dissolved in the aqueous phase (ROI 3) in incl. #3 because of the quadratic dependence on the CARS signal on concentration as discussed in the DR text. The presence of a water band in the spectrum of the CH₄-rich vapor bubble in incl. #3 (ROI 2) may be due to factors such as water vapor in the CH₄-rich phase and signal from the aqueous phase surrounding the vapor phase.

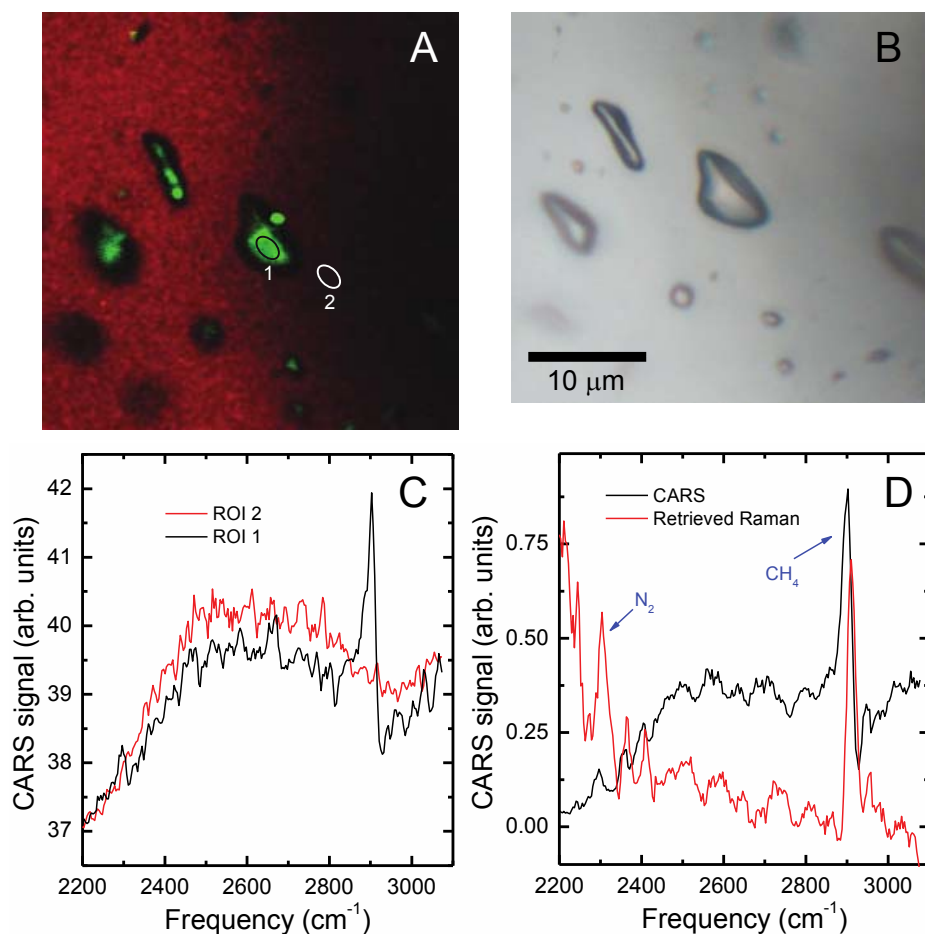
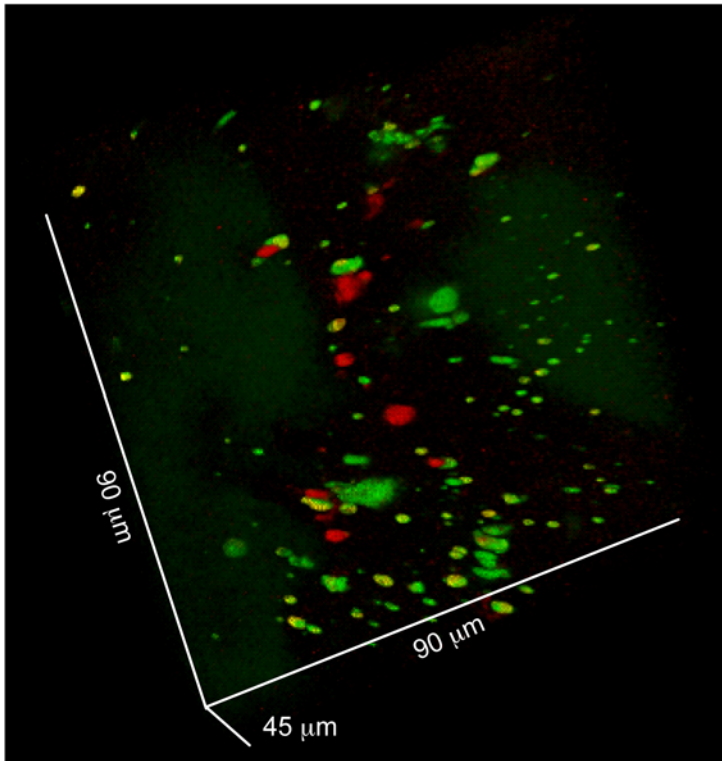


Fig. DR2. CARS image and transmitted light image of one-phase $\text{CH}_4\text{-N}_2$ inclusions in Sample 3 with raw and processed spectra. (A) The regions of interest (ROI) in the image from which spectra were extracted are the numbered ovals. The green color is the TPEF signal that most probably originates from high-molecular-weight aromatic molecules in these inclusions. Although the inclusions formed under amphibolite facies metamorphic P-T conditions, the traces of high-molecular-weight material in the inclusions may have formed on cooling of a fluid initially in equilibrium with graphite. (B) transmitted light image of inclusions in A (C) Raw CARS spectra from an inclusion and from the adjacent matrix. (D) Processed CARS spectra with nonresonant background removed and further

317 converted to an approximate spontaneous Raman spectrum with a Kramers-Kronig
318 transformation-based algorithm (Liu et al., 2009).

319

320



321

322

323

324

325

326 Fig. DR3. 2D image of 3D rendering (video DR4) of CH₄-rich inclusions within a

327 hornblende grain in Sample 4, fractured and hydrothermally altered basalt from oceanic

328 layer 3. CH₄-rich inclusions are shown in red. CH₄-rich inclusions that contain

329 fluorescent higher hydrocarbons and fluorescent mineral inclusions are colored green in

330 TPEF. Dimensions are given on the axes.

331

332

333

334