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Ioannis N. Papadopoulos, Jean-Sébastien Jouhanneau, James F. A. Poulet, Benjamin Judkewitz

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Scattering compensation by focus scanning holographic

2 **aberration probing (F-SHARP)**

- 3 Ioannis N. Papadopoulos¹, Jean-Sébastien Jouhanneau², James F. A. Poulet² and Benjamin
- 4 Judkewitz¹*
- 5 1: Bioimaging and Neurophotonics Lab, NeuroCure Cluster of Excellence, Charité Berlin,
- 6 Humboldt University, Charitéplatz 1, 10117 Berlin, Germany
- 7 2: Max Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine, Robert-Rössle-Str. 10, 13092 Berlin,
- 8 Germany
- 9 *corresponding author (benjamin.judkewitz@charite.de)

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Abstract

- 13 A longstanding goal in biomedical imaging, the control of light inside turbid media
- 14 requires knowledge of how the phase and amplitude of an illuminating wavefront are
- 15 transformed as the electric field propagates inside a scattering sample onto a target plane. So
- 16 far, it has proved challenging to non-invasively characterise the scattered optical wavefront
- 17 inside a disordered medium. Here, we present a non-invasive scattering compensation
- 18 method, termed F-SHARP, which allows us to measure the scattered electric-field point
- 19 spread function (E-field PSF) in three dimensions. Knowledge of the phase and amplitude of
- 20 the E-field PSF makes it possible to optically cancel sample turbulence. We demonstrate the
- 21 imaging capabilities of this technique on a variety of samples, and notably though vertebrate
- brains and across thinned skull *in vivo*.

Optical microscopy is an indispensable tool for biomedical research. Yet, the same structures that make biological samples interesting to study under a microscope (such as cells, vasculature and subcellular organelles) scatter light and thus render tissues opaque. Tissue opacity poses a major challenge to all optical imaging and photo-stimulation methods, fundamentally limiting them to thin sections, cultured cells or superficial layers of tissue.

Advanced fluorescence microscopy techniques, such as confocal and two-photon (2P) microscopy¹, allow researchers to push the limits of imaging deep inside turbid biological tissue² by selectively exploiting those photons that have not been scattered (ballistic photons). However, beyond the depth of a few scattering mean free paths (typically several hundred μm in biological tissues) this strategy becomes futile because hardly any ballistic photons remain³.

Tissue turbidity has been studied in two regimes: aberration and scattering. Aberrations are caused by refractive index variations at a spatial scale larger than the wavelength – such as tissue surface curvature or bulk tissue variations. Their effect can be mitigated by adaptive optics (AO) microscopy⁴⁻⁹. Modal AO techniques employ a deformable mirror that iterates through low order deformations^{10,11} and pupil segmentation approaches^{6,7} acquire images through segments of the objective back aperture to estimate the phase gradient in order to correct aberrations.

Yet, as tissue depth increases, scattering due to wavelength-scale and sub-wavelength inhomogeneities starts to overtake aberration as the major source of turbidity. It was long considered fundamentally impossible to correct for such diffuse scattering, but recent work on complex wavefront shaping confirmed that even entirely scattered light can be controlled and utilized for imaging. Optical phase conjugation 12-14, iterative optimization wavefront shaping 15 and transmission matrix based approaches^{16,17} were used to image through scattering media^{18,19}, convert them into lenses²⁰, mirrors²¹, waveplates²² and pulse shapers^{23,24}. However, all these techniques rely on physical access through the scattering medium, which makes them impractical for realistic imaging applications. To overcome this limitation, researchers have exploited so-called 'guide-stars'25 inside the scattering medium. Acousto-optic²⁶⁻²⁹, photoacoustic^{30,31} and nonlinear³²⁻³⁴ reference beacons can be used to find the wavefront correction – for example by using them as feedback in an iterative optimization approach. The correct wavefront that will lead to a focus inside the medium is found by optimizing the phase of each pixel of the wavefront shaper, either sequentially or in a multiplexed manner. Because such techniques have to iterate through each correction mode (e.g. each pixel on a wavefront shaper) they have to trade off measurement time with wavefront resolution. This is why highresolution scattering compensation (>1000 pixels) has only been demonstrated in static samples, such as dead tissue. Live tissue scattering compensation methods^{35,36} have so far

been limited to low pixel numbers (<1000) and are thus unable to resolve steep wavefront gradients, such as those caused by strong aberrations⁷.

There is an unmet need for a method that bypasses this trade-off and combines the strengths of AO (speed, steep gradients) with the strengths of scattering compensation (number of modes, not dependent on quasi-ballistic light). Here we present a new turbidity suppression approach, termed Focus Scanning Holographic Aberration Probing (F-SHARP), which achieves this combination thanks to an inverse strategy. Unlike previous work that was based on iterating through the modes of a wavefront shaper, F-SHARP directly measures the phase and amplitude of the scattered electric field point-spread-function (E-field PSF or E_{PSF}). We demonstrate that knowledge of this E-field permits rapid, high-resolution optical correction of both aberrations and scattering in living tissue.

Principle of operation

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In a laser-scanning microscope, incident light is brought to a focus at a location of interest. The spatial variation of the light intensity in the focal plane is defined as the intensity PSF (I_{PSF}). In analogy, we call the complex-valued electric field at the focal plane the electric-field point spread function (E-field PSF or E_{PSF} , with $I_{PSF} = |E_{PSF}|^2$). In linear fluorescence microscopy, fluorescence excitation is proportional to the illumination intensity, and the excitation PSF equals the intensity PSF. To form an image, one can either raster-scan the excitation PSF or the excitation beam may be kept stationary while scanning the sample. In both schemes, we can describe the acquired image as the convolution of the excitation PSF with the object. In a perfect optical imaging system, the excitation PSF is diffraction-limited and has almost all of its energy concentrated in one location, resembling a point-like δfunction. However, as the focal plane is advanced deeper into an inhomogeneous medium, photons start to get deflected due to aberrations and scattering. Instead of coherently combining at the desired focus location, they spread, adding noisy side-lobes to the E-field PSF. This leads to a deterioration of the image quality, both in terms of resolution and signalto-noise ratio (SNR). A 2P microscope is an implementation of a laser-scanning microscope that takes advantage of 2P absorption³⁷. Due to this nonlinearity, the excitation PSF of the 2P microscope is equal to the square of the intensity PSF, i.e., the 4th power of the amplitude of the electric field $(I_{PSF}^2 = |E_{PSF}|^4)$. This nonlinear process suppresses some of the scattered sidelobes and leads to an improved excitation PSF compared to linear ('one photon' or 1P) excitation. Yet, as the imaging depth increases further towards the transport mean-free path, scattered photons begin to dominate even in 2P microscopy. The focus intensity drops, the resolution decreases and squaring alone is not enough to recover a point-like focus. For brevity we use the term "scattered E-field PSF" as an inclusive term for both aberrations and

scattering and in general as a description for any E-field PSF that deviates from the perfect diffraction-limited one.

The goal of F-SHARP is to measure and optically correct the scattered E-field PSF of a 2P microscope and thus optically cancel the effect of turbidity. An F-SHARP microscope is based on the basic layout of a regular 2P microscope, with several important modifications: in addition to the scanning beam, we introduce a second beam, which is not scanned, but parked within the field-of-view (Figure 1a). Because both beams travel through the same scattering medium, they undergo similar scattering and their E-field PSF profiles can be assumed to be identical (this is a helpful but non-essential simplification which we will relax later). As we show below, increasing the intensity of one of the two beams relative to the other, causes the strong beam to become point-like (due to the nonlinear response) and by scanning one beam against the other we end up, in effect, scanning a point-like probe across the weak beam's E-field PSF. Analogously to image formation in 2P microscopy, where the nonlinear excitation PSF probes the object, F-SHARP probes the weaker scattered beam with the strong beam (Figure 1b).

Assuming a uniform fluorescent sample, in the case of 2P excitation, the signal generated by the superposition of the scanning and the stationary beams across a scanning coordinate x and at a given location x', respectively, reads

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$$I(x) \propto \left[\left| E_{\text{scan}}(x' - x) + E_{\text{stat}}(x') \right|^4 dx' \right]$$
 (0)

where both the stationary (stat) and the scanning (scan) beams are scaled versions of the E-field PSF, $E_{stat}(x') \propto E_{scan}(x') \propto E_{PSF}(x')$. If the stationary E-field has a weaker intensity than the scanning E-field (e.g. $|E_{stat}|^2 / |E_{scan}|^2 < 0.1$), we can discard all the powers of E_{stat} equal and larger than 2 in the algebraic expansion of Equation 1 (since they contribute only a very small component to the final signal, e.g. < 1%) therefore yielding

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$$I(x) \propto \underbrace{\int \left| E_{\text{scan}}(x'-x) \right|^4 dx'}_{\text{uniform}} + 2 \underbrace{\int \left| E_{\text{scan}}(x'-x) \right|^2 E_{\text{scan}}^*(x'-x)}_{\delta - \text{like function}} E_{\text{stat}}(x') dx'$$

$$+ 2 \underbrace{\int \left| E_{\text{scan}}(x'-x) \right|^2 E_{\text{scan}}(x'-x)}_{\delta - \text{like function}} E_{\text{stat}}^*(x') dx'$$

$$(0)$$

Considering the E-field as a scattered focus with a stronger centre and weaker sidelobes, the cubic term $|E_{\text{scan}}(x'-x)|^2 E_{\text{scan}}^*(x'-x) = |E_{\text{scan}}(x'-x)|^3 e^{-i\phi_{\text{scan}}(x'-x)}$ can be considered as a highly peaked, δ -like function that is convolved with the stationary scattered E-field, E_{stat} . Therefore, the final acquired signal will consist of a uniform background together with the complex scattered E-field and its conjugate. This is equivalent to on-axis holography³⁸ where the captured intensity is a combination of a DC term together with the field and its conjugate

$$I(x) \propto I_{\text{background}} + E_{\text{PSF}}(x) + E_{\text{PSF}}^*(x) \tag{0}$$

where E_{stat} has been replaced by E_{PSF} .

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The complex E-field parked within the field of view (FOV) can be easily isolated from the DC and its conjugate by means of a phase stepping scheme³⁹ (see Supplementary Information).

Knowing the scattered E-field PSF, we can use the time reversal symmetry of optical propagation to correct for scattering by phase conjugation. With the wavefront-shaping element lying on the Fourier conjugate plane to the image plane (Figure 1a, c), the required correction pattern is the 2D Fourier transform of the measured E-field PSF. However, since the scanning kernel in the previous analysis is not exactly a δ -function, the estimated E-field PSF will approximate, but not perfectly match the true E-field PSF. After applying the Fourier transform of the estimated E-field PSF on the wavefront shaper, the updated beam will nevertheless be closer to a diffraction-limited spot, which in turn means that the third power of its amplitude will more closely resemble a δ-function. Repeating the process using the updated beam as the scanning δ -like-function the reconstruction of the scattered E-field will be more accurate with each correction step of the method. Although, for simplicity, we have described the scattered E-field to have a centre peak with smaller sidelobes, it can be proven (see Supplementary Material) that irrespective of the shape of the original E-field PSF, the amplitude of the corrected E-field PSF will be taken to the 3rd power after each correction step. Consecutive cubing of the corrected E-field PSF amplitude will theoretically turn any speckle pattern into a sharply peaked focus in a finite number of steps.

It is usually assumed in microscopy that the PSF of an imaging system is invariant to the measurement strategy, be it scanning of the excitation focus over a sub-diffraction bead, or inversely moving the bead across a stationary focus. However, the addition of a volume inhomogeneous medium within the imaging path invalidates this assumption outside the so-called memory-effect range⁴¹⁻⁴⁴. To better understand how this affects the ability of F-SHARP to obtain wavefront corrections, we consider the propagation from the image plane (Figure 1c, plane A) to the focal plane in the scattering medium (plane B or sample plane) as a linear transformation, represented by the transmission matrix T_{AB} (Figure 1c). Placing a point source at location j along the image plane (A) and measuring the resulting scattered E-field in the focal plane (B), which we label $E_B(j)$, leads to the measurement of the jth column of the transmission matrix, $T_{AB}(:,j) = E_B(j)$.

Within this framework, we may now reinterpret the scanning procedure described above (scanning of a strong beam against a stationary weak beam) as a strategy to measure $E_B(j)$, and thus the j^{th} column of T_{AB} . The position of the shifted δ -function beam effectively

defines which entry of the column of $T_{AB}(:,j)$ we sample at each scan location along the focal plane (Figure 1d).

The transmission matrix model also offers a helpful description for an alternative scanning strategy, that is, keeping the strong δ -like beam fixed at one location in the scattering medium and scanning the weaker scattered beam against it. Since the strong δ -like beam is fixed at one location along the focal plane, it is helpful to interpret its interaction with the scattered beam as a stationary single-pixel photodetector that "samples" the scattered field. As the two beams interfere, this alternative F-SHARP strategy effectively measures the complex field value at one fixed location j along plane (B) (i.e., the location of the δ -like beam "pixel"), as we shift the source of the scattered field along plane (A) (Figure 1c, d). This offers, in effect, a method to measure one *row* of the transmission matrix, $T_{AB}(j,:)$. Instead of examining one scattered field at multiple locations along the focal plane like our first F-SHARP strategy, this alternative F-SHARP strategy examines the response at one focal plane location for multiple inputs.

Under the assumption of an infinite memory effect range, the two measurements described above, corresponding to rows and columns of the transmission matrix, are identical and both approaches will give the same results. As soon as the memory effect becomes finite, the measurements performed with the two strategies will only coincide within the memory effect range and will start to deviate outside of it. Since we are interested in focusing light to as tight a spot as possible at one location j along the focal plane (at a given time point), we are interested in knowing the jth transmission matrix row. Therefore, we adopt the second F-SHARP scanning technique outlined above for our following experimental demonstrations (strong beam fixed, weak scattered beam scanned). We note that this strategy does not require any memory effect for converging onto a tight focus.

As described previously, the strong beam is corrected after each correction step based on the measurement of the previous one, therefore being transformed quickly into a sharp focus. After the E-field PSF has been properly estimated, the weak beam is turned off and the strong corrected beam is scanned to form a 2P image of the sample, using the same scanning and detection strategy as conventional 2P imaging.

Results

To test the performance of F-SHARP, we placed 1 μ m diameter fluorescent beads under a 500 μ m thick slab of chicken muscle tissue (Figure 2a). In the conventional 2P image (corrected for all system aberrations) the sample appears as a dim, diffuse fluorescence (Figure 2f). In contrast, F-SHARP allows us to distinguish between individual beads at the object plane while at the same time increasing the detected fluorescence signal 77.5-fold (Figure 2g and

h). Because photons that were scattered are redirected towards the focus, the use of F-SHARP microscopy has a dual effect on the excitation PSF: First, it increases the signal level. Second, it sharpens the excitation PSF to deliver sharper images. The reconstructed E-field PSF (Figure 2b) appears as a random speckle modulated by a bell-shaped envelope. Its Fourier transform provides the phase correction pattern for the wavefront-shaping element (Figure 2e). We can quantify the number of corrected modes by comparing the mean mode size in the Fourier domain against the size of the back aperture. The mean modal size is calculated from the full width at the half maximum (FWHM) of the complex autocorrelation of the field which yields a measurement of 1181 corrected modes (Supplementary Figure 3). Knowledge of the complex E-field PSF at the image plane allows us to create a 3D reconstruction of the scattered E-field (Figure 2c) using scalar wave propagation. Furthermore, it allows us to infer the 3D shape of the corrected focus after phase-only wavefront modulation (Figure 2d), which is a sharp spot. The inferred 3D shape will be valid within the extent of a scattering mean free path (typically >100 μm for brain tissue, ~50 μm for chicken muscle).

To characterize the performance of the F-SHARP microscope and to confirm that we indeed measure the E-field PSF, we placed an imaging system in transmission, which directly recorded the intensity PSF (schematic shown in Figure 3a). We then applied F-SHARP on an artificial test sample, which consisted of a diffuser film placed 0.58 mm above a uniform green fluorescent layer containing sparsely distributed red beads (Figure 3a). We chose the uniform fluorescence for correction because this is the most challenging (least forgiving) scenario to test our approach. Based on the E-field PSF measured by F-SHARP (Figure 3b), we can compare its intensity (Figure 3c) against the intensity of the scattered focus imaged in transmission (Figure 3d). Moreover, the 2P PSF of the system can be independently captured by scanning the scattered E-field PSF over a small bead (Figure 3g), and comparing it against the 4th power of the amplitude of the reconstructed PSF (Figure 3f). From the comparisons in Figure 3c-f and d-g we observe that the predicted PSFs based on F-SHARP match the intensity PSF measured with the imaging sensor in transmission and also the 2P PSF (4th power of field amplitude). Using the imaging system in transmission we can observe the evolution of the corrected PSF after each correction step (Figure 3h). Based on the aforementioned analysis we expect the intensity of the corrected PSF to be taken to the 3rd power each correction step, which can be confirmed by comparing Figure 3h with the 3rd power of the previous correction step as plotted in Figure 3i.

Next, we set out to demonstrate the ability of F-SHARP to correct for aberrations and scattering inside living tissue. We used F-SHARP to obtain images of the live brain of a 18 days post-fertilization (dpf) zebrafish larva expressing cytosolic GCaMP6f⁴⁵ (Figure 4a), a genetically encoded fluorescent calcium indicator⁴⁶. We imaged a region 300 µm below the

surface. Conventional 2P microscopy (corrected for all system aberrations) allowed us to find a blurred cluster of neurons (Figure 4b and e). In the F-SHARP corrected image, (Figure 4c and f), the neurons can be individually separated and the signal intensity is increased 3.3-fold (Supplementary Video 1). The reconstructed E-field PSF (Figure 4d) appears strongly aberrated, explaining the poor image quality of the uncorrected image (Figure 4c and f). The correction pattern applied onto the SLM (Figure 4g) contains mainly low order modes (low spatial frequencies) implying aberrations as the dominant mechanism of image deterioration. Based on the complex amplitude of the PSF at the imaging plane, we can infer the 3D shape of the aberrated PSF (Figure 4h) and the corrected PSF (Figure 4i).

We then tested F-SHARP microscopy for *in vivo* mouse brain imaging. We used an anesthetized GAD67 mouse with GFP-labelled interneurons⁴⁷ and imaged 480 µm below the brain surface through a craniotomy (Figure 5a). Employing F-SHARP we can successfully enhance the image quality, with the corrected image (Figure 5c) exhibiting a 5-fold increase of the signal intensity compared to conventional 2P microscopy (corrected for all system aberrations) (Figure 5b). The resolution of the image is increased, with the proximal dendrites becoming more pronounced, as observed in the cross-section plot (Figure 5d, see also Supplementary Video 2). The measured scattered E-field PSF (Figure 5f) contains a central lobe, indicating the presence of ballistic light, with higher order modes surrounding it. The F-SHARP correction pattern displayed on the SLM (Figure 5e) exhibits a combination of low order and higher order modes, indicating a mixed contribution of both aberrations and scattering. As before, we can predict the shape of the scattered and the corrected E-field PSF in three dimensions (Figure 5g and h).

Having demonstrated the ability of F-SHARP to measure and correct aberrations, we next tested its capabilities in a scenario where scattering is expected to be the dominant factor of image deterioration. We imaged a single apical trunk dendrite of a layer 5 pyramidal neuron through the thinned skull (~50 μm thickness) of an anaesthetized Thy1-YFP⁴⁸ mouse (Figure 6a). We followed the same dendrite starting 25 μm under the surface of the brain down to a depth of 325 μm. We used F-SHARP to correct aberrations and scattering every 50 μm and used the corrected PSF to capture a z-stack, ±25 μm above and below the correction depth. We then rendered the dendrite in 3D (Figure 6b) and compared data obtained without and with correction (Figure 6c and d). The image quality of the conventional 2P microscope (corrected for all system aberrations) is poor even at the more superficial layers under the skull (Figure 6c, top) with the dendrite being barely visible and appearing as a non-distinct speckle pattern. Using F-SHARP we reconstructed the dendrite down to a depth of 325 μm (Supplementary Video 3). Furthermore, we resolved single spines through a thinned skull down to a depth of 200 μm (Figure 6d, middle). The reconstructed E-field PSF (Figure 6f)

quickly turns into a random speckle pattern, indicative of scattering processes. This is also observable in the phase correction pattern applied on the SLM (Figure 6e) with the number of modes increasing as we image deeper.

Discussion

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We have presented a novel scattering compensation method, F-SHARP, which allows us to non-invasively measure the scattered complex-valued E-field PSF. Knowledge of the phase and amplitude of the E-field PSF allows us to compensate for both scattering and aberrations and acquire high contrast images inside turbid tissue. We used F-SHARP to correct for aberrations and scattering in zebrafish larvae and mice *in vivo*, and obtain high-resolution images of fluorescently labelled structures, including submicron dendritic spines through the thinned mouse skull *in vivo* down to a depth of 200 μm.

We derived analytically and validated experimentally that F-SHARP 'cubes' the corrected E-field PSF amplitude with each correction step. This explains why F-SHARP does not have to rely on the presence of any residual ballistic light, because any enveloped random speckle pattern can be transformed into a sharp focus after a finite number of correction steps (see also Supplementary Material). The number of correction steps needed will depend on two factors: First, it depends on the shape of the original E-field. The more point-like the initial scattered E-field is, the faster F-SHARP will converge towards a diffraction-limited spot. Second, the convergence rate also depends on the sparsity of the sample. We proved that for a uniform fluorescent sample, the corrected beam amplitude will be equal to the 3rd power of the strong beam amplitude that was used for the inference of the scattered E-field PSF. If the sample is sparse rather than uniform, the fluorescence of the strong beam will be spatially modulated by the sample structure. The sparsest sample possible is a single small fluorescent bead, which together with the strong beam would act as a sampling δ -function – leading to convergence in a single step. Therefore, a uniform fluorescence layer (as the one used in Figure 3) is the least forgiving scenario. We demonstrated that F-SHARP can efficiently reconstruct the E-field PSF even in this case. In nearly all imaging scenarios of interest, the sample sparsity will lie between the extremes of uniform fluorescence versus a single bead. For the considered examples, when carrying out in vivo imaging of the zebrafish brain, of the mouse brain through a craniotomy, and through the mouse skull, we needed 3 correction steps for F-SHARP to converge.

F-SHARP exploits the nonlinear interaction between two beams to non-invasively recover the scattered E-field PSF. In the current configuration, F-SHARP is implemented on a 2P fluorescence microscope. In principle, other nonlinear interactions could be used – such as higher harmonic generation^{49,50}, coherent Raman scattering^{51,52} or three-photon (3P)

microscopy⁵³. As discussed above, in the case of 2P fluorescence, the amplitude of the E-field PSF is taken to the third power with each F-SHARP correction step. In the Supplementary Material we prove that, for the general case of an nth order nonlinearity, the E-field PSF amplitude is taken to the (2n-1)th power. Thus, we predict that the use of higher order nonlinearities, such as 3P fluorescence, will further speed up the convergence rate of F-SHARP. 3P microscopy is currently pushing the depth limits of nonlinear imaging, but it still relies on ballistic photons. We anticipate that its combination with F-SHARP will maximize the attainable penetration depth.

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In existing iterative wavefront shaping methods, the measurement speed is limited by the time needed to iterate through all the modes of the wavefront shaper. In contrast, F-SHARP determines the correction by raster-scanning the E-field PSF using fast galvanometric scanners. F-SHARP therefore decouples the wavefront measurement speed from the limited speed of wavefront shapers. Practically, wavefront measurement is no longer limited by hardware, but only by the required pixel dwell time for a sufficient SNR of the E-field PSF measurement. Higher SNR leads to a more accurate reconstruction of the E-field PSF and therefore a higher enhancement in the corrected image. In the presented experiments, the excitation power delivered to the sample did not exceed 25 mW. The integration time needed for every line acquired was 18 ms, with every line consisting of 100 pixels (modes) and 4 phase shifts for the reconstruction of the complex E-field. This yields a measurement time per mode equal to 0.72 ms/mode, which is two-fold faster than any other previously reported method³⁵. This was sufficient for in vivo imaging of an anaesthetized head-fixed mouse as we demonstrated in Figure 5 and 6. Still, we have not yet reached the limit of the measurement speed. A more power-efficient implementation of the optical system could allow us to realistically deliver 100 mW to the sample. Moreover, a 2-phase stepping scheme can be implemented, further reducing the number of needed phase-steps by a factor of two. These adjustments could well bring the measurement time per mode to less than 0.1 ms/mode. After the E-field PSF is measured and the wavefront corrected, imaging can be performed at the speed of the scanning mirrors as in any conventional multi-photon microscope.

We note that the wavefront correction is valid as long as the relevant transmission channels do not decorrelate. In our mouse in vivo experiments the correction lasted for at least 20 minutes. This means that wavefront measurements only have to be performed rarely compared to the amount of time that can be spent imaging inside tissues, but at lower excitation power and higher sharpness than conventional 2P microscopy.

In summary, we demonstrated that F-SHARP is capable of measuring and correcting a large number of scattered modes (>1000) with a measurement speed that is decoupled from the speed of wavefront shapers. Unlike previous work, F-SHARP is not limited to correcting

- 338 either aberrations or scattering. It can efficiently measure and correct low spatial frequency
- 339 aberrations with steep phase changes, as well as high spatial frequency turbulence as caused
- 340 by scattering.

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Material and correspondence

476 Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to B.J.

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Author contributions

- BJ and INP conceived and developed the idea. INP designed experiments with help from BJ.
- 480 INP built the set-up, collected and analysed data. JSJ performed mouse procedures under
- supervision of JFAP. INP and BJ wrote the manuscript. BJ supervised the project.

482 Competing financial interests

483 INP and BJ applied for a patent on aspects of the presented work.

Figure captions

Figure 1 | Principle of F-SHARP microscopy. a, F-SHARP is implemented by adapting a conventional 2P microscope, introducing a second copy of the excitation beam, controlling the relative phase and intensities of both beams and correcting the strong beam with a wavefront shaper (spatial light modulator, SLM). b, Theoretical description of the operating principle of F-SHARP. In a laser scanning microscope the image can be described as the convolution of the excitation PSF (in 2P microscopy: 4th power of the amplitude of the Efield PSF) and the object – an approximation that holds within the memory effect range. When imaging through an inhomogeneous medium the PSF is scattered. If the scattered Efield PSF contains a peak, the microscope can still render a (distorted) image (top row). In analogy, F-SHARP probes the scattered E-field PSF with the 3rd power of the scattered Efield PSF. This provides an estimate of the scattered E-field PSF (middle row). After every measurement and subsequent application of estimated correction pattern, the updated beam amplitude is taken to the third power compared to the previous correction step (bottom row). c, Transmission matrix representation of an imaging system from the image plane (A) to the focal plane (B) through an inhomogeneous medium, T_{AB}. A point source at the image plane (A) will get scattered to the focal plane (B) corresponding to a column of T_{AB}. Inversely, a point source in the focal plane (B) will propagate through the scattering medium and will result in a E-field at the image plane, which in turn will correspond to a row of the T_{AB}.

Figure 2 | **F-SHARP** microscopy of fluorescent beads through muscle tissue. **a**, Schematic of the sample. Fluorescent beads are dispersed under the scattering tissue, separated by a coverslip. **b**, The reconstructed E-field PSF appears as a random speckle pattern modulated by a bell shape envelope. **c-d**, 3D propagation profile along y-z plane of scattered (c) and corrected (d) real part of the E-field PSF. After the estimation of the E-field PSF, the applied correction transforms it into a sharp focus in 3D (d). **e**, Correction pattern applied on wavefront shaping device. The number of corrected modes (mean mode size over aperture) is 1181. **f-h**, Comparison of imaging before (f) and after correction (g) and cross-sectional plot along dotted lines (h). After correction the maximum signal is enhanced 77.5-fold and individual beads are distinguishable. In (b) the complex field is plotted with the amplitude encoded in the brightness and the phase in the colormap. Images in (c) and (d) were saturated to 0.7 of the respective maximum value to better visualize the sidelobes. Scale bars, 5 μm in (b-d) and (f, g).

Figure 3 | Characterization of E-field PSF estimation. a, Schematic of the sample. Sparse set of 1 µm red fluorescent beads dispersed in a fluorescein solution placed 0.58 mm below a 125 µm thick scattering film. F-SHARP corrections are calculated based on the uniform fluorescein signal and the bead is used only for subsequent 2P PSF characterization while the PSF is monitored in transmission. b, e, Reconstruction of the complex scattered field at the image plane (b) and corresponding Fourier transform, $\mathcal{F}(E_{PSF})$, yielding the correction wavefront (e). **c-d, f-g,** Comparisons of squared amplitude of reconstructed E_{PSF} (c) against measured intensity of PSF in transmission (d) and 4th power of amplitude of reconstructed Efield PSF (f) against 2P image of a single 1 µm fluorescent bead (g). The comparisons between (c-f) and (d-g) verify that F-SHARP indeed reconstructs the correct PSF at the imaging plane. h, i, Evolution of the intensity of the corrected PSF measured in transmission after each correction step (h). The original scattered PSF is transformed into a focus spot within 3 correction steps. The correspondence between the PSF intensity and its 3rd power during the previous correction step (i) confirms the theoretically expected convergence. Images in (h and i) are presented saturated to increase the visibility of weaker sidelobes. Scale bars, 10 µm in (b), 2 µm in (d-i).

Figure 4 | In vivo F-SHARP imaging of a transgenic zebrafish larval brain. a, Schematic of *in vivo* imaging in an anaesthetized, immobilized zebrafish larva expressing GCaMP6f, 300 μm under the brain surface. b, c, e, f, Image comparison before (b, e) and after (c, f) F-SHARP. Images in (b) and (c) are normalized to the maximum of the corrected image and the brightness is increased by a factor of 2 in (e, f) for better visualization of the weak fluorescence. In the conventional 2P image the cell population appears blurred. After F-SHARP all the neurons can be individually separated and are 3.3 fold brighter. d, The reconstructed E-field PSF is strongly aberrated explaining the poor image quality of the original image. g, The correction phase pattern applied on the SLM contains mainly of low order modes indicating aberrations as the main reason of image degradation. h, Cross-section of the real part of the 3D propagation of the scattered E-field PSF along the y-z plane. i, After phase corrections the E-field PSF turns into a sharp spot. Complex field in (d) is shown with amplitude encoded in the brightness and the phase in the colormap. Scale bars, 10 μm in (b, c, e, f) and 5 μm in (d, h, i).

Figure 5 | Aberration and scattering compensation inside living mouse brain. a, Schematic of *in vivo* mouse brain imaging. Imaging is performed through a 2 mm craniotomy in an anesthetized mouse. **b-c**, 2P imaging of a GFP-expressing interneuron 480 μm below the brain surface (dura mater), before (b) and after F-SHARP (c). **d,** Cross-sectional plot along

the dotted lines in (b-c). F-SHARP images show a 5-fold increase of the signal in the corrected region together with an enhancement of the resolution, demonstrated by the fact that dendrites can be distinguished at the top of the cell after corrections (d). **e**, Correction pattern applied on the SLM. **f-h**, Reconstructed E-field PSF at image plane (f) and real component of the scattered (g) and corrected (h) 3D E-field PSF plotted along y-z plane. In (f), amplitude is encoded in the brightness and phase in the colormap. Brightness has been saturated to 0.3 of the maximum value to make the side lobes more clearly visible in (f) and to 0.5 of the maximum value in (g) and (h). Scale bars, 20 µm in (b-c), 5 µm in (f-h).

Figure 6 | Imaging through thinned mouse skull in vivo. a, Schematic of imaging through thinned skull (50 μm mean thickness) in an anaesthetized Thy1-YFP mouse. During imaging we followed the same single apical dendrite 25 μm from the brain surface down to a depth of 325 μm. F-SHARP corrections were calculated every 50 μm and z-stack images were acquired at ± 25 μm around the correction plane. b, 3D rendering of the apical dendrite, before (left) and after correction (right). c-d, 2P images before and after F-SHARP correction at depths of z = 54 μm (top), z = 200 μm (middle) and z = 304 μm (bottom). The uncorrected 2P images exhibit poor quality already at the superficial layers with the dendrite appearing as a random speckle pattern. F-SHARP allows us to resolve the dendrite down to 325 μm and single spines down to a depth of 200 μm, (d, middle). e-f, Correction pattern applied on SLM (e) and reconstructed E-field PSF at corresponding depth. The reconstructed E-field PSF appears as a random speckle pattern already at the more superficial layer, (f, top). The number of corrected modes increases deeper into the brain (middle and bottom row). The streaking artefacts in (f) are due to random tissue motion during recording and do not considerably affect the reconstruction. Scale bars, 2 μm in (c-d), 5 μm in (f).

Methods

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Experimental setup

582 F-SHARP modifications on an existing 2P microscope. A conventional 2P microscope was 583 modified by introducing the following elements: a polarizing beamsplitter cube to split the 584 excitation beam (PBS252, Thorlabs, USA), a spatial light modulator (Pluto, Phase-only SLM, 585 Holoeye, Germany), a tip-tilt piezo-scanning mirror (S-334 Piezo Tip/Tilt Mirror, Physik 586 Instrumente, Germany), a phase-stepping piezo-scanner (S-314.10, Piezo Z-scanner, Physik 587 Instrumente, Germany), a recombining polarizing beamsplitter cube (PBS252, Thorlabs, 588 USA) and a polarizer (see Figure S1). The first polarizing beamsplitter splits the excitation 589 beam with one part (strong beam) directed towards the galvo scanning arm and the other 590 (weak beam) towards the piezo-scanning and phase stepper. The second polarizing 591 beamsplitter cube recombines the two beams before the scan lens and the polarizer is placed 592 at such angle in order to make the two beams interfere. During the measurement process the 593 strong beam is kept stationary in the FOV while the weak aberrated beam is scanned using the 594 piezo-scanners. The SLM was placed at the original galvo scanning arm and the strong beam 595 was corrected following each measurement. After the measurement of the E-field PSF is 596 finished, the final correction pattern is projected on the SLM with the strong beam forming a 597 sharp focus inside the scattering medium, the weak beam is blocked and the conventional 598 scanning arm (through the galvo mirrors) is used for 2P imaging. For a detailed description of 599 the experimental setup, see Supplementary Information.

Imaging system in transmission. The imaging system placed in transmission to better characterize the F-SHARP system (Figure 3) is comprised of a 40x water immersion objective (Nikon, CFI Apo 40x W NIR, NA=0.80) and a 200 mm tube lens (achromat doublet, f=200 mm, Thorlabs, USA) that project the image plane onto a CMOS camera sensor (Basler, Germany).

Calculation of correction phase pattern

The measurement of the complex amplitude of the E-field PSF at the focal plane allows us to compensate for scattering by using the process of Phase Conjugation. The complex-valued E-field PSF is Fourier transformed (since the number of pixels measured is considerably smaller than the pixels available on the SLM, we use zero padding before the Fourier transform). This complex-valued correction pattern is resized to the appropriate size of the back aperture by linear interpolation. The conjugate phase of the final resized correction field is then displayed on the phase-only SLM.

Alignment of F-SHARP

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- F-SHARP directly measures the scattered E-field PSF inside the inhomogeneous medium instead of scanning through the modes of the wavefront shaper. Therefore, in order to perform
- optical phase conjugation and correct the scattered E-field PSF, the SLM has to be properly
- aligned with respect to the back aperture of the objective. A known phase pattern was
- projected onto the SLM and modulated the galvo-scanned beam (Supplementary Figure 2a).
- We then set the galvo-scanned beam as the weak beam. We employed F-SHARP on a
- 620 uniform fluorescent sample and measured the E-field PSF of the modulated galvo scanned
- beam (Supplementary Figure 2c). The Fourier transform of the E-field PSF is an image of the
- back aperture of the objective lens (Supplementary Figure 2d). To finalize the alignment, we
- 623 mapped the measured back aperture to the SLM plane through an affine transformation and
- 624 corresponding z propagation. Alignment is considered satisfactory when the multiplication of
- the complex conjugate of the reconstructed back aperture field with the complex pattern
- projected onto the SLM yields a plane wave (Supplementary Figure 2b).

627 Correction of system aberrations

- 628 All conventional 2P images were acquired with the optical system aberrations corrected. The
- system aberrations were estimated by, first projecting a flat phase onto the SLM and then
- 630 imaging a uniform fluorescent sample. Similar to the SLM alignment process we set the
- 631 galvo-scanned beam as the weak beam and used the other beam as the strong δ -like beam.
- 632 The Fourier transform of the reconstructed E-field PSF provided a map of the system
- aberrations that was applied on all imaging and correcting experiments.

634 **Preparation of scattering samples**

- 635 Fluorescent beads. 1 µm red fluorescent beads (Latex beads, amine-modified polystyrene,
- fluorescent red, Sigma-Aldrich, USA) were dried on top of a Type 1 coverslip. A droplet of
- 637 mounting medium (ProLong® Diamond Antifade Mountant, ThermoFisher Scientific, USA)
- was placed on top and the sample was sealed with a Type 1 coverslip.
- 639 Chicken muscle tissue. Chicken breast tissue was cut perpendicular to the muscle fibers. The
- sample was sandwiched between two Type 1 coverslips separated by a 0.5 mm silicon spacer.
- The sample was then inspected under a light microscope to make sure it was free of air
- bubbles.
- 643 Fluorescein with sparse set of beads. 1 μm red fluorescent beads (Latex beads, amine-
- 644 modified polystyrene, fluorescent red, Sigma-Alrdich, USA) were dissolved in a saturated
- 645 fluorescein solution (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) and dried on a Type 1 coverslip. A droplet of
- 646 mounting medium (ProLong® Diamond Antifade Mountant, ThermoFisher Scientific, USA)
- was placed on top and the sample was sealed with a Type 1 coverslip.

- 648 Scattering film. A single layer of diffusing PARAFILM® M tape (measured thickness 125
- 649 µm) was placed on top of a Type 1 coverslip and was separated from the sample by 2 layers
- of self-adhesive spacer (Secure-SealTM Spacer, 9 mm diameter, 0.12 mm thickness,
- Invitrogen, USA). The total separation distance between the scatterer and the sample was 0.58
- 652 mm (2 spacers, 2 x 0.12 mm and 2 coverslips, 2 x 0.17 mm). The volume between the spacers
- was filled with water.
- 654 Zebrafish larva imaging. A 18 dpf zebrafish larva, expressing GCaMP6f under the NeuroD
- promoter⁴⁵ was anesthetized by placing it in a 0.168 mg/ml solution of MS222 in fish water.
- The anesthetized larva was then placed onto a petri dish with a droplet of 1% low melting
- 657 point Agarose (Sigma-Alrdich, USA) and mounted with the dorsal side towards the
- microscope objective.
- 659 Mouse surgery. A 5 week old GAD67-GFP⁴⁷ and a 8 week old Thy1-YFP H⁴⁸ mouse were
- 660 used to test the performance of F-SHARP in mammalian brains in vivo. Mice were
- anaesthetized with 1.5–2 % isoflurane. Mouse body temperature was monitored with a rectal
- probe and maintained at 37°C using a heating pad. A lightweight metal head support was
- implanted onto the skull with glue and dental cement. In the GAD67-GFP mouse, a 2 mm
- diameter craniotomy was drilled over the primary somatosensory whisker barrel cortex (1.2)
- 665 mm posterior, 3.5 mm lateral to Bregma) to expose the brain. Next, a 3 mm diameter glass
- 666 cover slip was placed on the brain surface. In the Thy1-YFP H mouse we carefully thinned
- the skull above the primary somatosensory whisker barrel cortex to a thickness of about 50
- 668 μm. The skull was covered with Ringer's solution (in mM): 135 NaCl, 5 KCl, 5 HEPES, 1.8
- 669 CaCl₂, 1 MgCl₂.
- 670 All experimental procedures were carried out in accordance with the national and state
- Animal Welfare Office.

672 Parameters of imaging experiments

- The excitation wavelength for all reported experiments was 920 nm. The maximum power
- used for all in vivo experiments was 25 mW. The intensity ratio between weak and strong
- beam for all experiments was fixed to 1/30.











