

# 1 High-precision neural stimulation by a highly efficient candle soot fiber 2 optoacoustic emitter

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## 19 **Abstract**

20 Highly precise neuromodulation with a high efficacy poses great importance in neuroscience. Here, we  
21 developed a candle soot fiber optoacoustic emitter (CSFOE), capable of generating a high pressure of over 10  
22 MPa, enabling highly efficient neuromodulation in vitro. The design of the fiber optoacoustic emitter,  
23 including the choice of the material and the thickness of the layered structure, was optimized in both  
24 simulations and experiments. The optoacoustic conversion efficiency of the optimized CSFOE was found to  
25 be ten times higher than the other carbon-based fiber optoacoustic emitters. Driven by a single laser, the  
26 CSFOE can perform dual-site optoacoustic activation of neurons, confirmed by calcium (Ca) imaging. Our  
27 work opens potential avenues for more complex and programmed control in neural circuits using a simple  
28 design for multisite neuromodulation in vivo.

## 29 **1 Introduction**

30 Highly precise neural modulation is of great importance in neuroscience, as the firing of specific neuronal  
31 populations in the brain could alter the behavior of animals which could serve as a novel tool for studying  
32 neural pathways in disease and health. Sophisticated control of neuronal circuits and brain functions requires  
33 stimulating multiple functional regions at high spatial resolution. For example, a previous study by Li, et al  
34 used two ultrasound transducers to stimulate primary somatosensory cortex barrel field (S1BF) of a free  
35 moving mouse and successfully controlled the head turning direction of the mouse by applying stimuli at  
36 different position (Li et al., 2019). Among the current neuromodulation platforms, electrical neuron  
37 stimulation has been proven to be efficient and allows for deep brain stimulation, while it provides a limited  
38 spatial resolution of millimeters in vivo, due to electric current spread (Boon et al., 2007). Optogenetics neural  
39 stimulation with single neuron resolution has been shown as a powerful tool in fundamental studies, but the  
40 requirement of viral infection makes it challenging to apply to human brains (Boyden et al., 2005).  
41 Transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) and transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS) are capable of  
42 non-invasive transcranial neuromodulation, while suffering from the resolution at the centimeter level (Rosa  
43 and Lisanby, 2012; Davidson et al., 2020). Infrared neuron stimulation (INS) takes advantage of the near-  
44 infrared absorption of water to generate heat for neuron stimulation. However, the thermal toxicity and

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45 potential tissue damage is a concern in real clinical scenarios (Cayce et al., 2014;Zhu et al., 2022). Focused  
46 ultrasound is an emerging non-invasive modality with deep penetration depth in tissue (Beisteiner et al.,  
47 2020;Bobola et al., 2020;Brinker et al., 2020). It has a spatial resolution limited by the acoustic wave's  
48 diffraction, therefore it is challenging for low-frequency (< 1 MHz) ultrasound to reach submillimeter level.  
49 New technologies and methods are still being sought for precise and non-genetic neural stimulation.

50 Recently, our team developed a miniaturized fiber-optoacoustic converter (FOC) converting pulsed laser into  
51 ultrasound (Jiang et al., 2020). FOC succeeded in spatially confined neural stimulation of mouse brain and  
52 modulation of motor activity in vivo. It was found that, for successful FOC based optoacoustic neural  
53 stimulation, a pressure of around 0.5 MPa is needed (Jiang et al., 2020). Typical FOC generate a pressure of  
54 0.48 MPa upon laser pulse energy of 14.5  $\mu$ J, with an estimated photoacoustic conversion efficiency of 1374  
55 Pa m<sup>2</sup>/J. Considering the typical energy and repetition rate of nanosecond lasers, the low conversion efficiency  
56 of FOC limits its application in multi-site stimulation. Thus, new fiber optoacoustic emitters with a higher  
57 conversion efficiency are needed to enable multisite optoacoustic neuromodulation.

58 According to a simplified model of optoacoustic generation, the output optoacoustic pressure is related to the  
59 laser fluence ( $F$ ), the absorption coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) and the thermal expansion coefficient ( $\beta$ ) (Xu and Wang,  
60 2006). The pressure generated can be calculated following the equation below:

$$P = \Gamma(\beta)\alpha F$$

62 where the Grüneisen parameter ( $\Gamma$ ) is a function of the thermal expansion coefficient  $\beta$ . To improve the  
63 optoacoustic conversion efficiency, materials with greater light absorption and larger thermal expansion  
64 coefficients will be preferable choices. Previously, many materials have been studied for efficient optoacoustic  
65 conversion, including metal, carbon material, etc. Metals, in the form of gold nanoparticles (Wu et al.,  
66 2011;Wu et al., 2012;Tian et al., 2013;Wu et al., 2013;Zou et al., 2014) and Cr and Ti films(Lee and Guo,  
67 2017) were used due to their high absorption coefficient. However, the high light reflection by metal films and  
68 scattering of metal nanoparticles limits the energy conversion efficiency. Different carbon materials have also  
69 been studied, including carbon nanoparticle (CNP) (Biagi et al., 2001), carbon nanotube (CNT) (Won Baac et  
70 al., 2010;Colchester et al., 2014;Baac et al., 2015;Alles et al., 2016;Noimark et al., 2016;Moon et al.,  
71 2017;Poduval et al., 2017;Shi et al., 2020;Thompson et al., 2022), graphite (Jiang et al., 2020) and candle soot  
72 films(CS) (Chang et al., 2015;Huang et al., 2016;Chang et al., 2018). Among these, candle soot stands out for  
73 its high light absorption coefficient, low interfacial thermal resistance, and easy fabrication process. Direct  
74 comparison of optoacoustic conversion efficiency among CS, CNT and CNP showed CS can generate a  
75 pressure six times higher than that generated by the other two materials (Chang et al., 2018). The CS layer  
76 deposited onto polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS), a material with high thermal expansion coefficient(Wolf et al.,  
77 2018), forms a diffused mixture – an excellent choice for highly efficient optoacoustic generation.

78 In this work, we developed a candle soot-based fiber optoacoustic emitter (CSFOE) for the first time.  
79 COMSOL simulation was used to simulate the optoacoustic generation process of a CSFOE. We optimized the  
80 design of the CSFOE by identifying the optimal thickness of the CS layer through simulation. A CSFOE with  
81 a CS layer of an optimal ~ 10  $\mu$ m thickness was found to achieve the highest peak-to-peak pressure.  
82 Experimentally, we fabricated CSFOEs with controlled thickness of candle soot layers in the range of 1  $\mu$ m to  
83 60  $\mu$ m. By comparing their optoacoustic performance, we confirmed that the optimal thickness of the CS layer  
84 is 10  $\mu$ m, consistent with the simulation prediction. The maximum optoacoustic pressure reached ~10 MPa,  
85 which is 9.6 times larger compared with that generated by FOC (Jiang et al., 2020;Shi et al., 2021). The  
86 application of CSFOE to non-genetic optoacoustic neural stimulation was demonstrated in GCaMP labeled  
87 neuron culture. Successful high precision activation of neurons confined in an area of 200  $\mu$ m was verified by  
88 calcium imaging. Significantly, we demonstrated dual-site optoacoustic neuron stimulation driven by a single  
89 laser utilizing the high optoacoustic conversion efficiency of CSFOE. The highly localized ultrasound field  
90 generated by each CSFOE allows the two stimulated sites to be sub-millimeter apart. Our work opens up  
91 potentials for complex and programmed control in neural circuits using a simple design for multisite  
92 neuromodulation.

93

94 **2 Material and Methods**

95 **2.1 Simulation of the ultrasound field generated from CSFOE**

96 The ultrasound field generated by CSFOE was simulated by COMSOL Multiphysics 5.4. The CSFOE was  
97 modeled by a 2D axisymmetric model with a double-layer structure, including an absorber layer of CS and  
98 PDMS mixture and a pure PDMS layer. The backing material was set to be a fiber ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ). Radiative Beam in  
99 Absorbing Media module was used to simulate the absorption of the CSNP-PDMS mixture layer when being  
100 applied a nanosecond pulsed laser. The Heat Transfer and Solid Mechanics modules were used to model the  
101 thermal expansion caused by the photothermal effect. The Transient Pressure Acoustic module converted the  
102 thermal expansion of the absorber into the acoustic signal and simulated the propagation of ultrasound in the  
103 water medium. The absorption coefficient of the absorber layer used in the simulation was a measured value  
104 by our experiment, and all the other material parameters were set according to COMSOL's material library  
105 database.

106 **2.2 Fabrication of CSFOE**

107 A schematic of the CSFOE is shown in **Figure 1a**. A flame from a paraffin wax candle served as the source of  
108 the candle soot. To fabricate the CSFOE, the tip of a polished multimode optical fiber (with a 200  $\mu\text{m}$   
109 diameter (200EMT, Thorlabs)) was placed into the center of the flame for three to five seconds. This step was  
110 repeated until the optical fiber was fully coated with flame synthesized candle soot. To prepare the PDMS, the  
111 silicone elastomer (Sylgard 184, Dow Corning Corporation, USA) was carefully dispensed into a container to  
112 minimize air entrapment. Then, the curing agent was added for a weight ratio of ten to one (silicone elastomer  
113 to curing agent). A nanoinjector deposited the PDMS onto the tip of the candle-soot coated fiber. The position  
114 of the fiber and the nanoinjector were both controlled by 3D manipulators for precise alignment, and the  
115 PDMS coating process was monitored under a lab-made microscope in real time. The coated fiber was stored  
116 overnight in a temperature-controlled environment, to allow the PDMS to cure and fully diffuse into the  
117 porous structure of the candle soot.

118 **2.3 Characterization of absorption ability of CSNP**

119 The absorption of CS with different deposition thickness was measured with a photodiode (Thorlabs, USA).  
120 Different thicknesses of CS were controlled by the deposition durations. The fiber was connected to a Q-  
121 switched 1030-nm nanosecond laser (Bright Solution, Inc. Calgary Alberta, CA), and the transmission power  
122 was detected by a laser diode.

123 **2.4 Characterization of optoacoustic signals**

124 The amplitude of the CSFOE-generated acoustic wave was measured using a needle hydrophone with a 40  $\mu\text{m}$   
125 core sensor (Precision Acoustics, UK). A digital oscilloscope (DSO6014A, Agilent Technologies, CA, USA)  
126 recorded the electrical signal from the hydrophone. A four-axis micro-manipulator (MC1000e controller with  
127 MX7600R motorized manipulator, Siskiyou Corporation, OR, USA), with a resolution of 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$ , controlled  
128 the distance between the CSFOE tip and the hydrophone, which was incremented from 0 to 400  $\mu\text{m}$ . The  
129 distance was measured using a widefield microscope with a 10 $\times$  objective. The CSFOE tip and the  
130 hydrophone tip were both immersed in a drop of degassed water placed on a glass microscope slide. The  
131 CSFOE was connected to a Q-switched 1030-nm nanosecond laser (Bright Solution, Inc. Calgary Alberta,  
132 CA) with a laser pulse energy of 56  $\mu\text{J}$ . The setup of the measurement is shown in **Figure 2d**. The acoustic  
133 pressure values were calculated based on the calibration curve obtained from the hydrophone manufacturer.  
134 The frequency data were obtained through the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) using MATLAB R2020a. For  
135 visualizing the acoustic wavefront, a Q-switch Nd: YAG laser (Quantel Laser CFR ICE450) was used to  
136 deliver 8 ns pulses to the CSFOE. The generated acoustic signal was capture by a 1 $\times$ 128 linear transducer  
137 array (L22-14, Verasonics Inc.) and processed by an ultrasound imaging system (Vantage128, Verasonics).

138 **2.5 Embryonic neuron culture**

139 Primary cortical neuron cultures were derived from Sprague-Dawley rats. Cortices were dissected from  
140 embryonic day 18 (E18) rats of either sex and then digested in papain (0.5 mg/mL in Earle's balanced salt  
141 solution) (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., MA). Dissociated cells were washed with and triturated in 10% heat-  
142 inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS, Atlanta Biologicals, GA, USA), 5% heat-inactivated horse serum (HS,  
143 Atlanta Biologicals, GA, USA), 2mM Glutamine- Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Thermo  
144 Fisher Scientific Inc., MA, USA), and cultured in cell culture dishes (100 mm diameter) for 30 minutes at  
145 37 °C to eliminate glial cells and fibroblasts. The supernatant containing neurons was collected and seeded on  
146 poly-D- lysine coated cover glass and incubated in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO<sub>2</sub> at 37 °C with  
147 10% FBS + 5% HS + 2 mM glutamine DMEM. After 16 hours, the medium was replaced with Neurobasal  
148 medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., MA, USA) containing 2% B27 (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., MA,  
149 USA), 1% N2 (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., MA, USA), and 2mM glutamine (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.,  
150 MA, USA). On day five, cultures were treated with 5 µM FDU (5-fluoro-2'-deoxy- yuridine, Sigma-Aldrich,  
151 MO, USA) to further reduce the number of glial cells. Additionally on day five, the  
152 AAV9.Syn.Flex.GCaMP6f.WPRE.SV40 virus (Addgene, MA, USA) was added to the cultures at a final  
153 concentration of 1 µl/mL for GCaMP6f expression. Half of the medium was replaced with fresh culture  
154 medium every three to four days. Cells cultured in vitro for 10–13 days were used for CSFOE stimulation  
155 experiment.

156 **2.6 In vitro neurostimulation**

157 In vitro neurostimulation experiments were performed using a Q-switched 1030-nm nanosecond laser (Bright  
158 Solution, Inc. Calgary Alberta, CA). A 3-D micromanipulator (Thorlabs, Inc., NJ, USA) was used to position  
159 the CSFOE in the cell culture dish. Calcium fluorescence imaging was performed on a lab-built wide-field  
160 fluorescence microscope based on an Olympus IX71 microscope frame with a 20× air objective  
161 (UPLSAPO20X, 0.75NA, Olympus, MA, USA), illuminated by a 470 nm LED (M470L2, Thorlabs, Inc., NJ,  
162 USA) and a dichroic mirror (DMLP505R, Thorlabs, Inc., NJ, USA). Image sequences were acquired with a  
163 scientific CMOS camera (Zyla 5.5, Andor) at 20 frames per second. Neurons expressing GCaMP6f at DIV  
164 (day in vitro) 10–13 were used for the stimulation experiment. For the tetrodotoxin (TTX) control group,  
165 tetrodotoxin citrate (ab120055, Abcam, MA, USA) was added to the culture to reach 3 µM final concentration  
166 10 min before Calcium imaging. The fluorescence intensities, data analysis, and exponential curve fitting were  
167 analyzed using ImageJ (Fiji) and MATLAB R2020a.

168 **2.7 Data analysis**

169 Calcium images were analyzed using ImageJ. The fluorescence intensity was measured by selecting the soma.  
170 Calcium traces, acoustic waveform and temperature traces were analyzed using MATLAB R2020a. All  
171 statistical analysis was done using MATLAB R2020a. Data shown are mean ± standard deviation.

172 **3 Results**

173 **3.1 Simulation of acoustic waveforms generated from CSFOE**

174 To identify the optimal condition towards maximized optoacoustic conversion efficiency, we used COMSOL  
175 Multiphysics to simulate the generation and propagation of the optoacoustic signals. Taking advantage of  
176 COMSOL multiple physics field simulations, we simulated the different steps of optoacoustic generation: laser  
177 absorption, thermal expansion, and acoustic wave propagation. Since the candle soot has a very porous  
178 structure, the PDMS diffuses into the candle soot layer, forming a uniformly mixed candle soot/PDMS  
179 mixture layer(Chang et al., 2015). Therefore, we included a candle soot/PDMS mixture layer and a pure  
180 PDMS layer in the 2D axisymmetric CSFOE model built in COMSOL Multiphysics 5.4 for simulation  
181 (**Figure 1b**). A single 3 ns laser pulse was delivered through a multimode fiber (with a 200 µm core diameter)  
182 to the double layer coating on the fiber tip. **Figure 1c** shows a representative wave front of the generated  
183 ultrasound 400 ns after the onset of the laser, indicating a bipolar pressure signal generated by CSFOE (**Figure**

184 **1c**, red: positive pressure; blue: negative pressure). **Figure 1d** plots the time domain waveforms when the  
185 thickness of the CS/PDMS layer varied from 1  $\mu\text{m}$  to 40  $\mu\text{m}$ . In **Figure 1e**, the normalized peak-to-peak  
186 amplitude of the generated PA signal is plotted as a function of the thickness of the CS/PDMS mixture layer.  
187 The optimal thickness of the CS/PDMS layer, which generates the largest amplitude PA signal, was found to  
188 be  $\sim 10 \mu\text{m}$ . This result is consistent with the previous work, where an optimal thickness generating the  
189 maximum pressure was also found (Chang et al., 2018).

190 **3.2 Fabrication and characterization of CSFOE**

191 To fabricate the optimal CSFOE, as guided by the simulations, we developed a two-step fabrication procedure  
192 to precisely control the CS layer thickness (**Figure 2a**). A polished multimode fiber with a 200  $\mu\text{m}$  core  
193 diameter (Thorlabs) was inserted into a fiber ferrule. The fiber tip was positioned so that it was flush with the  
194 distal end of the ferrule. Then, the distal tips of both the ferrule and fiber were placed into the flame core of a  
195 paraffin wax candle, where they were fully coated with flame synthesized candle soot (**Figure 2a**, left). The  
196 key parameter to control the thickness of the CS was the coating time, which ranged between 1 to 20 s. Then, a  
197 nanoinjector was used to deposit a controlled amount of PDMS ( $\sim 0.01 \mu\text{m}^3$ ) onto the tip of the fiber coated  
198 with candle soot (**Figure 2a**, middle). The transmission images of the CS-coated fiber before and after PDMS  
199 coating are also shown in **Figure 2a** (right). When varying the CS coating time, the thickness of the CS  
200 coating was measured from the transmission images of samples before PDMS coating. **Figure 2b** plots the  
201 thickness of the CS layer measured as a function of deposition time. The CS layer thickness was linearly  
202 proportional to the deposition time, with an estimated deposition rate of 3.04  $\mu\text{m}/\text{s}$ , similar to previous  
203 reports (Chang et al., 2018). Such a linear relation enables us to precisely control the thickness of the CS layer  
204 to study the PA conversion as a function of the layer thickness. Transmission of CS layers with different  
205 thicknesses were also measured (**Figure 2c**). The normalized transmission of the coating exponentially  
206 decreased as a function of the thickness. An absorption depth, the thickness when the transmission decreased  
207 to 1/e of initial transmission at the zero thickness was obtained as 6.6  $\mu\text{m}$ . This measured ultrathin absorption  
208 depth indicated strong absorption of CS in NIR, enabling efficient ultrasound generation.

209 The characterization of the CSFOE with various CS/PDMS layer thicknesses was performed with a 40  $\mu\text{m}$   
210 needle hydrophone. A 1030 nm nanosecond pulsed laser, with a 46  $\mu\text{J}$  pulse energy was delivered to the  
211 CSFOE to generate optoacoustic signals. The acoustic signals were measured for CSFOEs where the thickness  
212 of the CS-PDMS mixture layer ranged from 1  $\mu\text{m}$  to 57  $\mu\text{m}$  (**Figure 2d**). The peak-to-peak pressure is plotted  
213 as a function of the CS layer thickness in **Figure 2f**. An optimal thickness of  $\sim 10 \mu\text{m}$  was found to generate  
214 the highest peak-to-peak pressure of 9 MPa. Notably, the experimentally measured optimal thickness and the  
215 trend between the thickness and the peak-to-peak pressure are consistent with the simulation results.  
216 Importantly, the 10  $\mu\text{m}$  optimal thickness was also found to be close to the 6.6  $\mu\text{m}$  absorption depth of CS-  
217 PDMS layer obtained from the absorption shown in **Figure 2c**. The greatest optoacoustic conversion  
218 efficiency occurred when the absorption layer thickness equaled the material absorption depth. In the thickness  
219 range  $< 10 \mu\text{m}$ , when increasing the absorption layer thickness first, the thickness at the absorption depth  
220 allowed complete optical absorption. Further increasing the thickness beyond the absorption depth ( $> 10 \mu\text{m}$ )  
221 led to acoustic attenuation, as demonstrated in previous works (Chang et al., 2018).

222 Frequency characterization of the generated optoacoustic signal is shown in **Figure 2g**. The frequency  
223 spectrum of the measured acoustic waveforms after Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) exhibited a peak acoustic  
224 frequency of 12.8 MHz. This frequency was similar to previous studies on candle-soot-based optoacoustic  
225 films (Chang et al., 2018), in which a central frequency of  $\sim 10 \text{ MHz}$  was detected for  $\sim 2 \mu\text{m}$  CS coating  
226 thickness. To map the propagation of the optoacoustic wave generated by the CSFOE, the pressure was  
227 measured at different distances away from the CSFOE using a 40  $\mu\text{m}$  needle hydrophone as shown in **Figure**  
228 **2h**. The peak-to-peak pressure of the generated ultrasound is plotted as a function of distance in **Figure 2i**. The  
229 measurements were repeated for three times and the average values were plotted. The confinement of the  
230 generated acoustic field, defined by the distance where the pressure decreases to 1/e of the initial pressure at 0  
231  $\mu\text{m}$ , was found to be  $\sim 300 \mu\text{m}$ , approximately equal to the size of the fiber core. Such decay of optoacoustic  
232 pressure over the distance away from the CSFOE tip enables a sub-millimeter localized neuron stimulation. In

233 addition, **Figure 2i** shows that the dependence on distance is different from the previous  $1/r^2$  relation obtained  
234 in FOC. The difference is due to the fact that the ultrasound field emitted by CSFOE is at a higher frequency,  
235 therefore propagates more directionally, compared with more omnidirectional propagation of the lower  
236 frequency FOCs(Jiang et al., 2020).

237 The propagation of generated ultrasound can be directly visualized using an optoacoustic tomography system  
238 (**Figure 2j**). The acoustic signal was detected by a  $1 \times 128$  linear transducer array (L22-14, Verasonics Inc.)  
239 and processed by an ultrasound imaging system (Vantage128, Verasonics). The emitted ultrasound waveform  
240 (red) obtained with a time interval of  $0.5 \mu\text{s}$  and the image of the tip of the CSFOE (yellow) are overlaid in  
241 **Figure 2j**. Through the photoacoustic waveform shown in **Figure 2j**, the emission angle of CSFOE was  
242 measured to be 25.3 degrees. For FOC reported previously (Jiang et al., 2020), the emission angle was  
243 measured to be 55.1 degrees which is around twice as large. This observation also supports the more  
244 directional propagation for the CSFOE generated ultrasound field(Jiang et al., 2020).

245 Different laser energy inputs also resulted in varied output pressures. Using different fiber attenuators to  
246 control the laser energy input, the waveform of generated acoustic signal was measured by the needle  
247 hydrophone (**Figure. 2k**), and the peak-to-peak pressure is plotted as a function of input energy in **Figure 2l**,  
248 showing a fitting curve of  $P = 0.226 * E$  ( $R^2 = 0.93$ , fitting coefficient of determination) and confirming the  
249 linear dependence of the pressure on the input laser energy.

250 Through controlling the distance away from the CFOE tip and laser energy, we can have a complete control of  
251 the generated pressure in a large range under 15 MPa for various applications. By rationale fabrication of the  
252 layered structure of CSFOE and control of PA pressure generated, CSFOE can serve as a robust device for  
253 repeatable neuromodulation and allows us to study neuron responses under different conditions.

### 254 3.3 CSFOE Stimulation of neurons *in vitro*

255 To confirm the stimulation function of the CSFOE, GCaMP6f-labeled primary neurons (DIV 12–14) were  
256 cultured on a glass bottom dish, and calcium imaging was performed to monitor neuronal activities. A 3 ns  
257 pulsed laser at 1030 nm with a repetition rate of 1.7 kHz was delivered to the CSFOE. The laser pulse train,  
258 with a duration of 3 ms (corresponding to 5 pulses) and pulse energy of  $65 \mu\text{J}$ , was used for CSFOE  
259 optoacoustic *in vitro* neural stimulation. The CSFOE was precisely controlled by a 4D micromanipulator to  
260 approach the target neurons. The distance between the neurons and the CSFOE tip was monitored to make  
261 sure neurons were within the sub-millimeter confinement area.

262 Representative fluorescence images of the neuron before and after stimulation are shown in **Figure 3a** and **b**.  
263 Maximum change of the fluorescence intensity is highlighted in **Figure 3c**. The dashed circles indicate the  
264 location of the CSFOE. Increase in fluorescence intensity reaching  $\Delta F/F_0 > 10\%$  upon stimulation confirms the  
265 successful activation. This map of fluorescence changes in **Figure 3c** also indicates that neurons within the  
266 stimulation area were successfully activated. The activation outside the stimulation area is due to networking  
267 effect (more details discussed later). To further investigate whether the CSFOE can activate neurons reliably  
268 and repeatedly, we stimulated the same area of neuron three times in four minutes (**Figure 3d**). Repeatable  
269 stimulations were successfully observed after the laser onset at  $t = 5 \text{ s}$ ,  $90 \text{ s}$  and  $180 \text{ s}$ , and all show  
270  $\Delta F/F_0 > 10\%$ . This result clearly shows that there is no damage caused by CSFOE after stimulation and  
271 demonstrates the repeatability and safety of CSFOE stimulation.

272 Next, we investigated the effect of laser pulse energy on CFOE stimulation. Each pulse train was fixed to be 3  
273 ms long. Three laser pulse energies,  $65$ ,  $56$ , and  $46 \mu\text{J}$ , were applied to the CSFOE to modulate neural  
274 activities. Responses from neurons at each pulse energy are plotted as heatmaps in **Figure 3e-g**.  
275 Representative calcium traces are plotted in **Figure 3h**. The averages of maximum fluorescence change  
276 obtained from these three groups are compared in **Figure 3i**. With the laser pulse energy of  $65$  and  $56 \mu\text{J}$ ,  
277 neurons showed an average maximum fluorescence change ( $\Delta F/F_0$ ) of  $99.8 \pm 23.3\%$  and  $47.4 \pm 33.9\%$ , while  
278 with laser energy of  $46 \mu\text{J}$ , the induced fluorescence change is negligible ( $1.2 \pm 1.0\%$ ). These results indicate

279 that at the laser pulse train with the repetition rate of 1.7 kHz and 3 ms duration, the activation threshold is  
280 between 46  $\mu$ J and 56  $\mu$ J, corresponding to a pressure of  $\sim$ 8 MPa.

281 To confirm that the observed activation was due to optoacoustic stimulation, we performed a laser-only  
282 control and compared it to the calcium traces of CSFOE-stimulated neurons. The laser-only control group used  
283 the same optical fiber without any coatings on the tip with the same repetition rate of 1.7 kHz, 3 ms duration  
284 and laser pulse energy of 56  $\mu$ J. No significant fluorescence response was observed in the laser only group  
285 (**Figure 3j** and **k**). Optical excitation alone triggered negligible activities. Additionally, to investigate whether  
286 the activations observed were caused by action potential, we performed a control experiment with addition of  
287 3 mM tetrodotoxin (TTX), a blocker of voltage-gated sodium channels. No significant fluorescence response  
288 was observed in the TTX group (**Figure 3j**), indicating that the observed calcium transients under CSFOE  
289 stimulation were induced by the firing of action potentials. These results are also consistent with previous  
290 studies of optoacoustic stimulation (Jiang et al., 2021).

291 To investigate how synaptic inputs affects the stimulation outcomes, we applied a cocktail of synaptic blockers  
292 (10 mM NBQX, 10 mM gabazine, and 50 mM DL-AP5). As shown in **Figure 3l** (and **Figure 3c**), when there  
293 was no synaptic blocker added, due to the network effect, many neurons outside the stimulation area were  
294 activated. With synaptic blocker added (**Figure 3m**), most of the stimulation effects were confined within the  
295 sub-millimeter area centered around the CSFOE. Averaged traces of stimulated neurons with and without  
296 synaptic blockers in both conditions are plotted in **Figure 3n**. Two types of neuron responses were observed: a  
297 transient response under synaptic blocking (blue) and a prolonged response without synaptic blocking  
298 (orange). The decay portion of the response curves can be fitted exponentially and a time constant for the  
299 decay can be defined at the time when the fluorescence intensity decreased by a factor of 1/e from the peak  
300 fluorescence intensity. The time constant decreased significantly from 12 s without synaptic blocking to 4 s  
301 with synaptic blocking. These results demonstrate that transient stimulation is likely the result of direct  
302 CSFOE optoacoustic stimulation, while the network effect through synaptic transmission results in prolonged  
303 stimulations (Jiang et al., 2021).

### 304 3.4 Comparison between CSFOE and FOC

305 To evaluate the performance improvement of CSFOE from the previous FOC fabricated using graphite and  
306 epoxy, we first compared the design of CSFOE and FOC. As shown in **Figure 4a**, both CSFOE and FOC have  
307 two-layer structures. Compared with FOC, several improvements were made on the CSFOE regarding the  
308 choice of material and structure design. Instead of using a graphite-epoxy system, a CS/PDMS mixture was  
309 used in CSFOE as the optoacoustic material. Compared to the previous design, CS has stronger absorption  
310 while PDMS is well known for its huge expansion coefficient of  $310 \mu\text{m m}^{-1} \text{C}^{-1}$ . The thickness of the CS layer  
311 in the CSFOE was optimized to obtain the largest pressure.

312 To directly compare the performance, we compared the pressure generated by CSFOE and FOC under the  
313 same laser condition. A transducer with greater sensitivity compared with the hydrophone was used to  
314 measure the generated pressure. As shown in **Figure 4b**, under the same laser condition of 1030 nm, 3 ns, 1.7  
315 kHz, 48 mW, CSFOE generated a 9.6 times higher signal than that generated by FOC. In addition, the  
316 temperature rise associated with the optoacoustic conversion was measured for both fiber emitters using a  
317 thermal coupler placed on the surface the fiber tips. According to **Figure 4c**, the average temperature increases  
318 were  $0.79^\circ\text{C}$  for the CSFOE and  $0.77^\circ\text{C}$  for the FOC. Similar temperature increases suggest that while the  
319 CSFOE significantly increased the output pressure, the thermal effect remained minimal. Notably, both  
320 temperature increase was less than  $1^\circ\text{C}$ , which is far below the threshold for photothermal neuron  
321 stimulation (Zhu et al., 2022). Such a small temperature increase also minimizes the risk of thermal damage for  
322 the neural system.

323 To compare their performance in neuron modulation, CSFOE and FOC were tested in GCaMP labelled neuron  
324 culture. Under the the laser condition of 3 ms pulse train, 56  $\mu$ J pulse energy, 1030 nm, 1.7 kHz repetition rate,  
325 successful activation was observed when CSFOE was applied to neurons. The average maximum  $\Delta F/F_0$

326 reached over 20%. When FOC was applied under the same laser condition, no obvious activation occurred  
327 (Figure 4d). Notably, previous work showed Ca imaging signals indicating successful activation by FOC has  
328 been confirmed in Oregon Green labelled neuron culture. GCaMP and Oregon Green, as calcium sensors, have  
329 different sensitivity upon stimulation. It has been reported that for a single action potential, Oregon Green can  
330 generate ~50% fluorescence change, while GCaMP6f can only generate ~10%(Palmer et al., 2014;Dana et al.,  
331 2019). Collectively, our result clearly shows that CSFOE has a significantly higher stimulation efficacy and  
332 can be more widely used for recording based on different kinds of calcium sensors.

333

334 **3.5 Dual-site neuron stimulation by CSFOE**

335 To illustrate the advantage of the high optoacoustic conversion efficiency of CSFOE, we used CSFOE for  
336 dual-site neuron stimulation in vitro. A  $1 \times 2$  fiber splitter was used for splitting the laser energy into two  
337 identical paths. The laser pulse energy of each path was 56  $\mu\text{J}$  (Figure 5a). As shown in Figure 5b, the map of  
338 maximum fluorescence changes  $\text{Max } \Delta F/F_0$  clearly shows two groups of neurons, with each centered around a  
339 CSFOE, being successfully activated by two CSFOEs with fluorescence increase of around 10% at each site.  
340 Each group is confined within an area of  $\sim 200 \mu\text{m}$  associated with the corresponding CSFOE. The highly  
341 localized feature of CSFOE stimulation makes it possible to distinguish different sites of stimulation under the  
342 same field of view.

343 Ca traces from two groups at these two sites are plotted in a heatmap shown in Figure 5c. Representative  
344 traces of different sites are plotted in Figure 5d. Neurons in both sites showed significant change in  
345 fluorescence after the laser onset at  $t = 2 \text{ s}$ . The fluorescence changes at each site all reached over 10%, which  
346 shows that both sites are successfully stimulated (Figure 5c). The high optoacoustic conversion efficiency and  
347 the highly localized stimulation area open up potentials for multi-site neuron stimulation.

348 **4 Conclusion**

349 In this study, we developed a new fiber optoacoustic emitter based on CS for the first time with high  
350 optoacoustic conversion efficiency and demonstrated CSFOE neuromodulation with an improved efficacy  
351 compared to FOC. Based on these improvements, we demonstrated dual-site neuromodulation through two  
352 CFOE driven by a single laser source.

353 To obtain the highest optoacoustic pressure, we chose candle soot as the material of the absorber, which is  
354 considered as one of the best materials for optoacoustic generation owing to its high optical absorption. In  
355 addition, we optimized the layered design of the CSFOE through both simulation and experiment. The  
356 optimized CSFOE was able to generate over 15 MPa peak-to-peak pressure. A more detailed comparison of  
357 photoacoustic conversion efficiency between CSFOE and other two fiber optoacoustic emitters used in  
358 neuromodulation is shown in Table 1 below.

	CSFOE (This work)	TFOE (Shi et al., 2021)	FOC (Jiang et al., 2020)
Energy conversion efficiency (%)	1.5E-3	2.28E-6	3.14E-5
Optoacoustic conversion efficiency in pressure (Pa m <sup>2</sup> /J)	15600	130	1374

359 **Table 1:** optoacoustic conversion efficiency comparison of different fiber based optoacoustic emitters for  
360 neuromodulation.

361 Through the direct comparison, CSFOE is ~ 100 times more efficient than TFOE. Besides, CSFOE shows ~10  
362 times higher conversion efficiency compared with FOC, which is also evident in the results shown in **Figure**  
363 **4b.**

364 Detailed optoacoustic characterization for CSFOE has also been performed, including power-pressure  
365 dependence and distance-pressure dependence. The output optoacoustic peak to peak pressure is linearly  
366 proportional to the input pulse energy as  $P = 0.226 * E$ . The distance-pressure dependence confirmed a highly  
367 localized ultrasound field of around 300  $\mu\text{m}$ . Based on the results of optoacoustic characterization, we can  
368 precisely control the ultrasound intensity to be delivered to neurons by controlling the energy of the laser as  
369 well as the distance between CSFOE and neurons.

370 Successful CSFOE neuron activation has been demonstrated using Calcium imaging. It was found that under  
371 the pulse energy of 56  $\mu\text{J}$  and 65  $\mu\text{J}$ , at the repetition rate of 1.7 kHz, over a 3 ms duration, the maximum  
372 fluorescence change of the stimulated neurons were  $47.4 \pm 33.9\%$  to  $99.8 \pm 23.3\%$ , respectively. These laser  
373 conditions correspond to optoacoustic pressure of 8.8 MPa and 12.4 MPa at the peak of frequency of 12.8 MHz  
374 for CSFOE.

375 Taking advantage of its high energy conversion efficiency, we performed the dual-site neuron stimulation  
376 using two CSFOEs driven by a single laser, which is not feasible by previous fiber based optoacoustic  
377 emitters. Dual-site stimulation has lots of potential applications in animal behavior studies, since complex  
378 animal behavior is normally controlled by multiple functional area in the brain. CSFOE, offering a superior  
379 sub-millimeter spatial resolution and high-pressure conversion efficiency, has the potential to modulate more  
380 complex animal behavior by controlling multiple target sites in the circuitry.

381 In summary, this robust and highly efficient optoacoustic converter, with an easy and repeatable fabrication  
382 process, offers a new tool for effective neuron stimulation. With an improved efficiency and the ability to  
383 perform multi-site stimulation, CSFOE opens up a great potential for complex animal behaviors that needs  
384 multiple stimuli at different locations in a programmable manner.

### 385 **Data Availability Statement**

386 The original contributions presented in this study are included in the article, further inquiries can be directed to  
387 the corresponding author/s.

### 388 **Ethics Statement**

389 All experimental procedures have complied with all relevant guidelines and ethical regulations for animal  
390 testing and research established and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Boston  
391 University (PROTO201800534).

### 392 **Author Contributions**

393 GC, LS, JXC and CY: drafting and refining the manuscript. GC: conducting of the simulation. GC and LS:  
394 conducting of the experiments. LL, JXC and CY: critical guidance of the project. RW, YL, ZD, MH: help with  
395 experiments. LL, YL and MH: critical reading of the manuscript. All authors have read and approved the  
396 manuscript.

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### 400 **Conflict of Interest**

401 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial  
402 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

403 **Publisher's Note**

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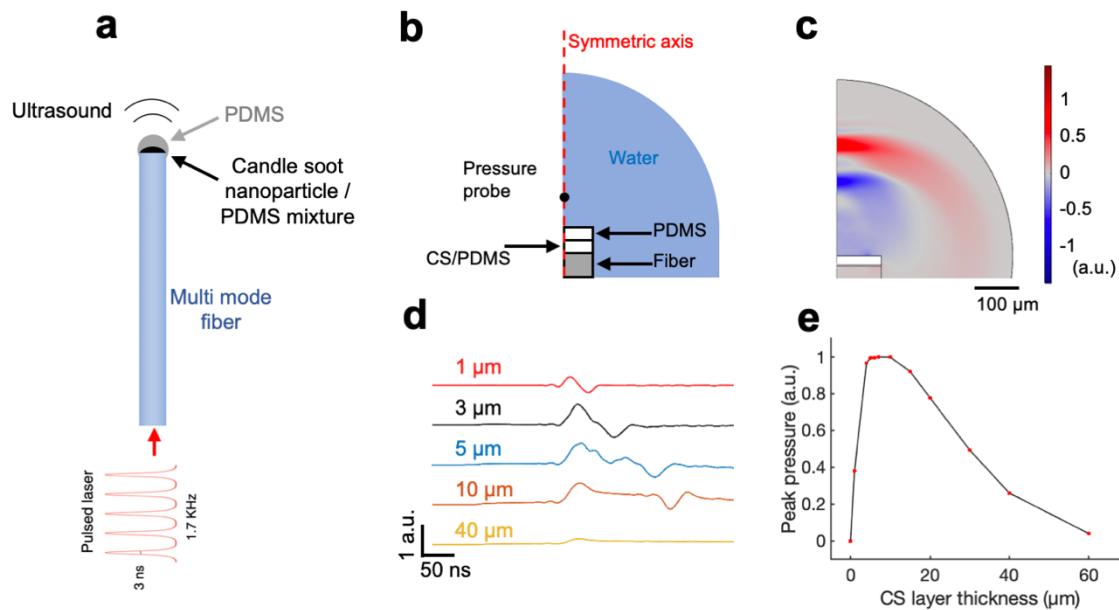
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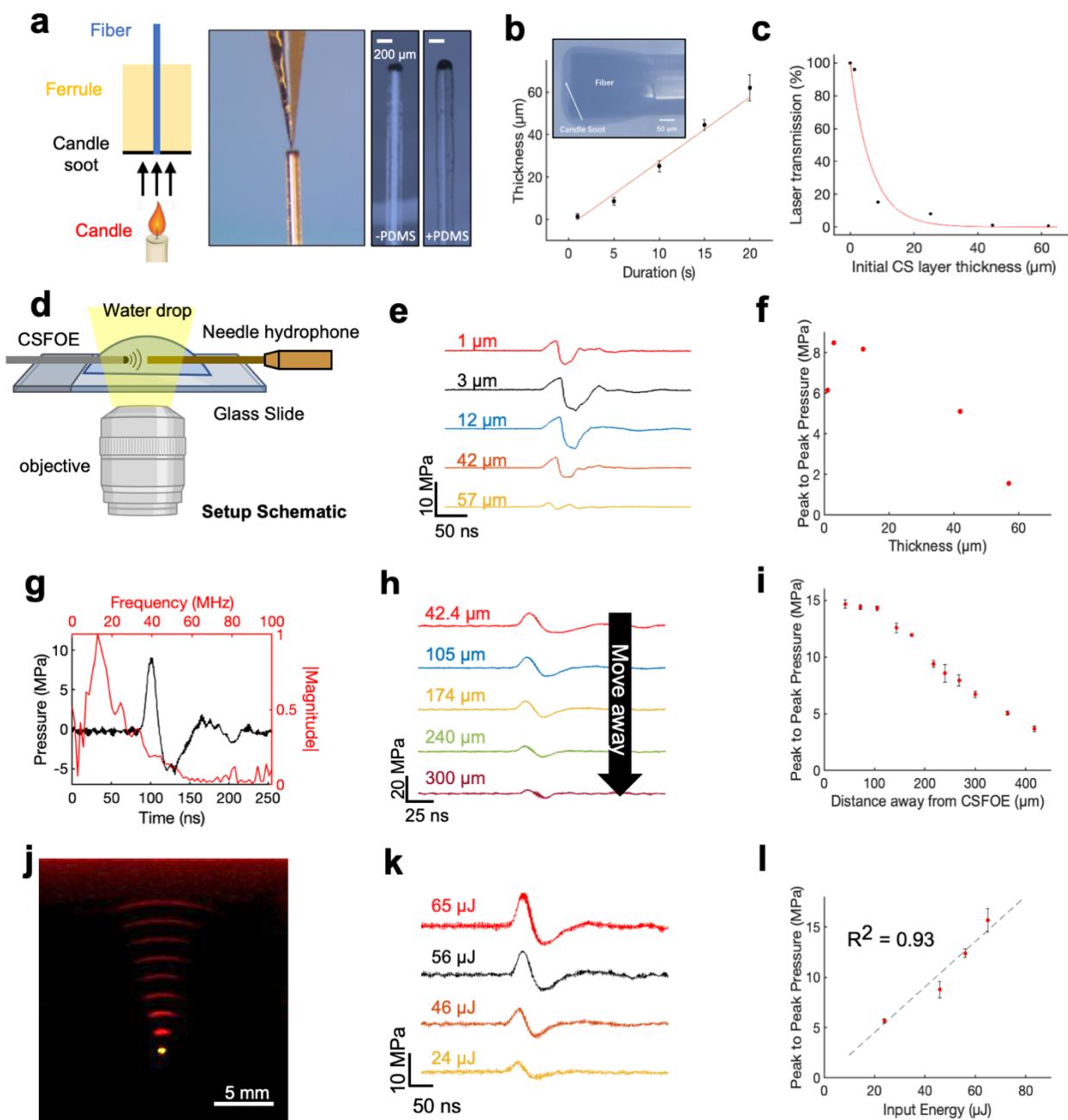
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505 **Figure 1.** COMSOL simulation of CSFOE performance. (a) Schematic of CSFOE. (b) Illustration of the CSFOE model  
506 used in simulation. Not to scale. (c) Representative ultrasound waveform, simulated at  $t=400$  ns under an input of a 3 ns  
507 pulsed laser. (d) Acoustic waveforms simulated at different thicknesses of the CS layer. (e) Peak-to-peak acoustic  
508 pressure plotted as a function of candle soot layer thickness.

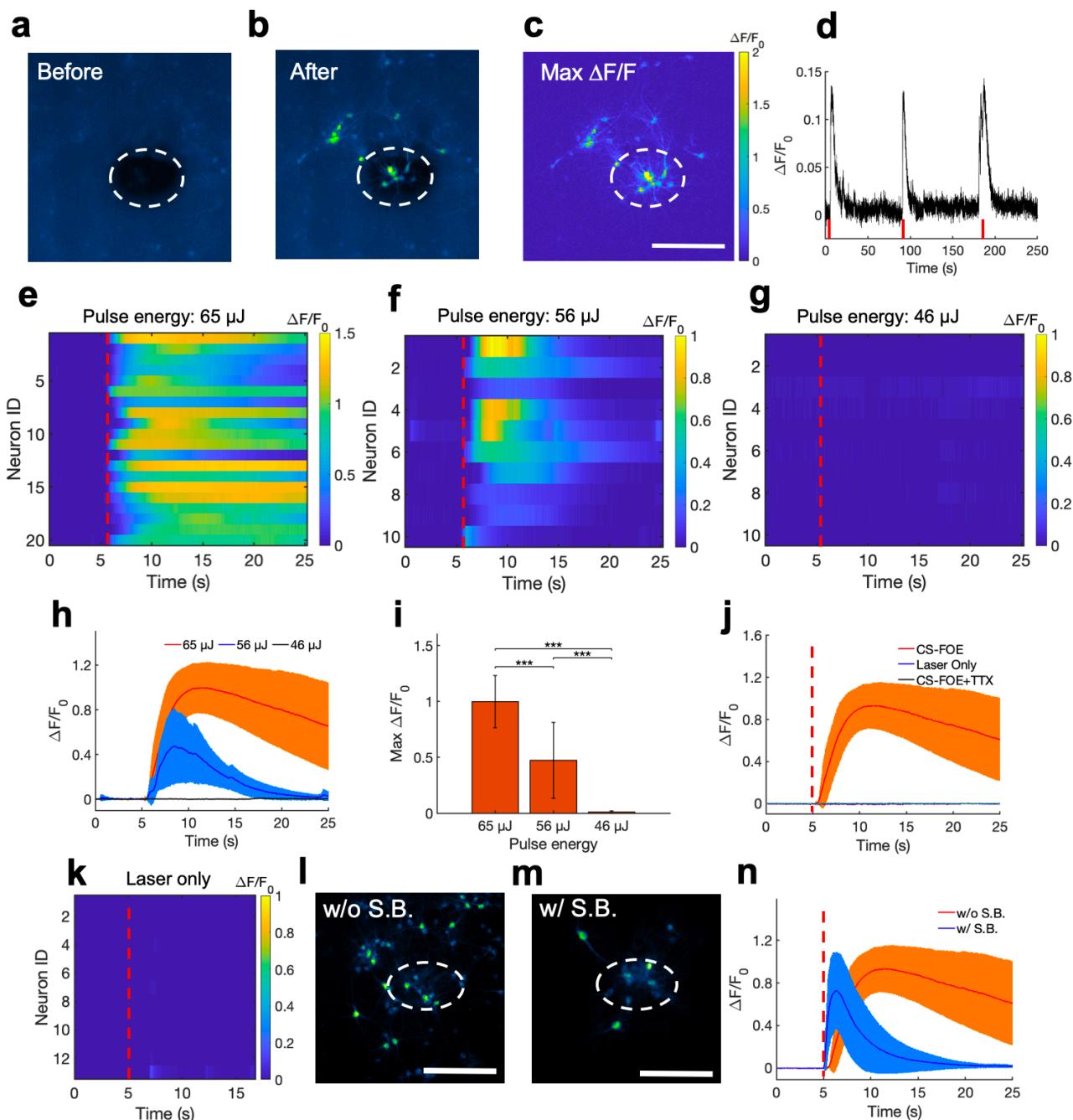
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**Figure 2.** Fabrication and characterization of CSFOE. (a) Key steps of CSFOE fabrication. (left) Candle soot deposition on an optical fiber tip. (middle) PDMS coating on the surface of the CS layer using a nanoinjector. (Right) Images of samples after CS deposition and PDMS coating, respectively. Scale bars: 200 μm. (b) Thickness of CS layer obtained as a function of deposition duration. Inset: representative image of a fiber coated with candle soot. (c) Transmission ratio plotted as a function of the thickness of CS layer. (d) Schematic of experimental configuration of photoacoustic signal measurement using a 40 μm needle hydrophone. (e) Acoustic signal of CSFOE as a function of the candle soot layer thickness detected by the hydrophone. Laser condition: 1030nm, 1.7 kHz repetition rate, 56 μJ per pulse. (f) Peak to peak pressure plotted as a function of the thickness of CS under the same laser condition as (e). (g) Representative photoacoustic waveform (black) detected by the hydrophone and its FFT frequency spectrum (red). (h, i) Acoustic signal and peak-to-peak pressure generated by CSFOE detected at different distances from the CSFOE tip. Each data point was an average of three trials. (j) Photoacoustic signal propagation in the medium detected by a linear transducer array. Fiber tip (yellow), PA waveform (red). (k, l) Photoacoustic waveforms and peak-to-peak pressures measured at different laser pulse input. Each data point was an average of three trials.

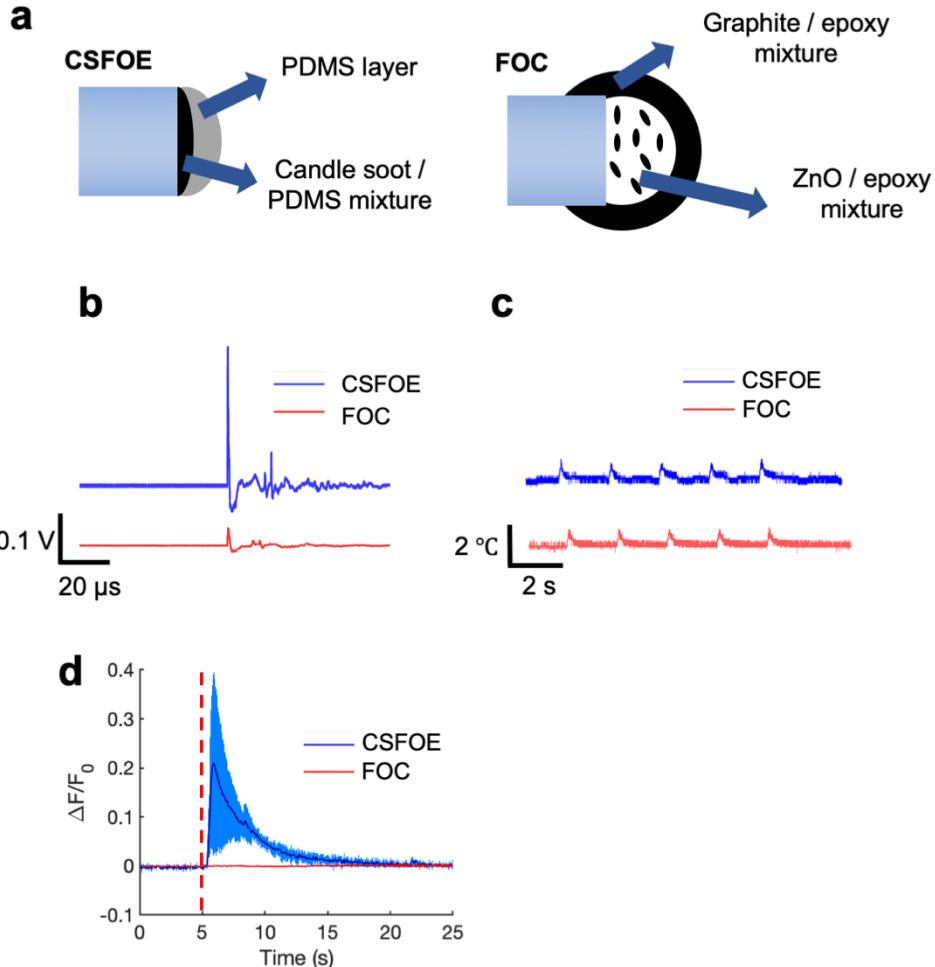
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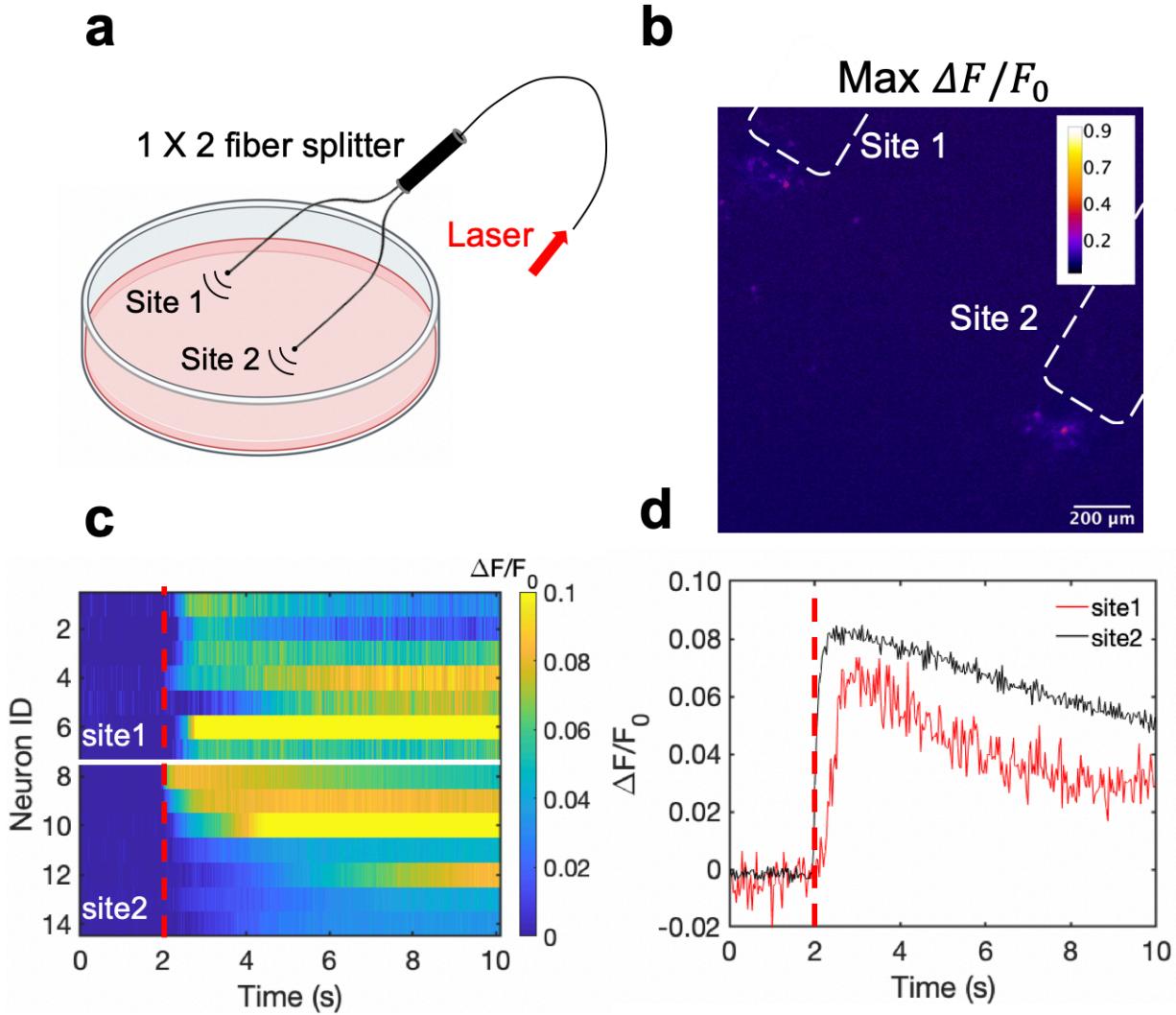
524 **Figure. 3** Activation of GCaMP6f-expressing cortical neurons by CSFOE stimulation. (a, b) representative fluorescence  
 525 of neurons stimulated by CSFOE before stimulation (a) and after stimulation (b). (c) Map of the maximum fluorescence  
 526 change  $\Delta F/F_0$  induced by the CSFOE stimulation. Laser condition: 3 ms duration, pulse energy 65  $\mu$ J. Scale bar: 200  $\mu$ m.  
 527 (d) Calcium trace shows repeatable activation of the same neuron. Laser condition: 3 ms duration, pulse energy 56  $\mu$ J. (e-  
 528 g) Colormaps of fluorescence change in neurons stimulated by CSFOE with a laser pulse energy of 65  $\mu$ J (e), 56  $\mu$ J (f),  
 529 and 46  $\mu$ J (g). (h) Average calcium traces of neurons obtained from (e, f, g) with the pulse energy of 65  $\mu$ J (red), 56  
 530  $\mu$ J (blue) and 46  $\mu$ J (black), respectively. The shaded region corresponds to one standard deviation. Laser turns on at  $t = 5$   
 531 s (red dashed lines). The duration of each stimulation was fixed at 3 ms. (i) Average of maximum fluorescence intensity  
 532 changes shown in (e)-(g). Error bars represent standard deviation. (j) Average calcium traces of neurons of CSFOE  
 533 stimulation, laser only control group, and TTX control group. (k) Colormaps of fluorescence change in neurons of a laser  
 534 only control group. (l, m) Contrast calcium imaging of GCaMP6f transfected neurons without synaptic blocker (l) and  
 535 with synaptic blocker (m). Scale bar: 200  $\mu$ m. (n) Average calcium traces without (red) and with (blue) synaptic blocker.  
 536 Laser turns on at  $t = 5$  s.

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**Figure. 4** Comparison of CSFOE and FOC. (a) Schematics of the CSFOE and FOC. (b) Photoacoustic signal of CSFOE and FOC, measured by a 5 MHz transducer under the same laser condition: 1030 nm, 3 ns, 1.7 kHz, 48 mW. (c) Temperature rise measured by a thermal probe placed at the surface of CSFOE and FOC, respectively. (d) Representative calcium traces of GCaMP6f transfected neurons stimulated by CSFOE (Blue) and FOC (Red) under the same laser energy input of 52  $\mu$ J.



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**Figure. 5** Dual site neuron stimulation by CSFOE. (a) Schematic of dual site stimulation using two CSFOEs with a fiber splitter. (b) Map of the max  $\Delta F/F$  image of two sites of neurons stimulated by two CSFOE. (c) Colormaps of fluorescence changes in neurons at two sites stimulated by CSFOE. (d) Representative calcium traces of neurons at site 1 (red) and site 2 (black).

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