

1 **Light-sheet photonic force optical coherence elastography for high-throughput quantitative**
2 **3D micromechanical imaging**

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11
12 **Abstract:** Microscale mechanical properties of the extracellular matrix (ECM) and dynamic cell-ECM interactions
13 play an important role in physiological processes and disease. However, it remains a challenge for current mechanical
14 characterization methods to combine quantitative 3D imaging of ECM mechanics with cellular-scale resolution and
15 dynamic monitoring of cell-mediated changes to pericellular viscoelasticity. Here, we present light-sheet photonic
16 force optical coherence elastography (LS-pfOCE) to address these challenges by leveraging a light-sheet for
17 parallelized, non-invasive, and localized mechanical loading. We demonstrate the capabilities of LS-pfOCE by
18 imaging the micromechanical heterogeneity of fibrous 3D collagen matrices and perform a live-cell study to image
19 micromechanical heterogeneity induced by NIH-3T3 cells seeded in 3D fibrin constructs. We also show that LS-
20 pfOCE is able to quantify temporal variations in pericellular viscoelasticity in response to altered cellular activity. By
21 providing access to the spatiotemporal variations in the micromechanical properties of 3D complex biopolymer
22 constructs and engineered cellular systems, LS-pfOCE has the potential to drive new discoveries in the rapidly
23 growing field of mechanobiology.

24 Introduction

25 Mechanical properties of the extracellular matrix (ECM) and biological tissues play an important role in regulating
26 cellular functions^{1,2}. The ECM not only provides a physical scaffold for cell adhesion and migration³, but the
27 mechanical properties of the ECM also serve as prominent mechanical cues in various pathophysiological processes⁴.
28 Reciprocally, cells can also alter the micromechanical heterogeneity and stiffness of the ECM via cell-mediated matrix
29 deformation and degradation^{5,6}. In the rapidly growing field of mechanobiology, importance has been given to the
30 study of these bi-directional cell-ECM biomechanical interactions in physiologically relevant three-dimensional (3D)
31 environments^{7,8}. Given the dynamic nature of biological systems, the ability to characterize 3D spatial *and* temporal
32 variations of ECM mechanical properties at the cellular-scale could be useful for understanding the role of
33 biomechanical cell-ECM interactions in physiological processes such as stem cell differentiation⁹⁻¹¹, morphogenesis¹²,
34 and wound healing¹¹, as well as the onset and/or progression of diseases including cancer¹³⁻¹⁸, muscular dystrophy¹⁹,
35 and calcific aortic valve diseases^{20,21}. Thus, a method for high-throughput 3D quantitative micromechanical imaging
36 of the ECM in engineered cellular systems has the potential to unlock new avenues of research in the field of
37 mechanobiology.

38 Despite the efforts in the development of a variety of techniques for mechanical characterization of biological
39 tissues and engineered ECM constructs²²⁻³⁴, it still remains as a challenge for current techniques to simultaneously
40 support cellular-scale spatially-resolved measurements, practical 3D volumetric acquisition times, and quantitative
41 reconstruction of mechanical properties. Conventional bulk mechanical testing methods such as shear rheometry are
42 unsuitable for spatially-resolved live-cell imaging studies²². On the other hand, atomic force microscopy (AFM)—the
43 gold standard for high-resolution mapping of stiffness—is only capable of 2D measurements on the surface of the
44 sample²³. Emerging optical elastography techniques are under development to fill the gaps between these two extremes.
45 Existing optical coherence elastography (OCE) techniques are most suitable for tissue-level measurements (due to the
46 geometric size of applied mechanical loading) or do not support quantitative reconstruction of viscoelastic properties²⁴⁻
47 ²⁶. Brillouin microscopy has demonstrated 3D micromechanical imaging with sub-cellular resolution, but accurate
48 physiological interpretation of the measured GHz longitudinal modulus in relation to the more conventional shear or
49 Young's modulus remains a challenge²⁷⁻²⁹. Particle-tracking passive microrheology is capable of quantitative
50 measurements in 3D, but it is predominantly applicable in highly-compliant (shear modulus <100 Pa) viscosity-
51 dominant materials³⁰⁻³⁴. Alternatively, optical tweezer-based active microrheology (OT-AMR) can support
52 microrheological measurements in more rigid elasticity-dominant viscoelastic materials³⁰⁻³⁴. However, the practicality
53 of OT-AMR for volumetric measurements is still limited due to the need to serially align (with 0.1- μ m precision) the
54 high numerical aperture (NA) trapping and detection beams to individual probe beads that are randomly distributed in
55 3D space.

56 Inspired by the pioneering work of Nobel laureate Arthur Ashkin³⁵, we exploited another mode of optical
57 manipulation, based on radiation pressure from a low-NA beam, to develop photonic force (PF)-OCE for 3D
58 mechanical microscopy³⁶. PF-OCE utilizes radiation pressure from a low-NA beam ($NA \leq 0.4$, compared to $NA \geq 1$
59 in conventional high-NA OTs) to provide “AFM-like” localized mechanical loading that is applied to micron-sized
60 probe beads randomly distributed in 3D space. Leveraging interferometric detection from phase-sensitive optical
61 coherence tomography (OCT), oscillations of these probe beads induced by harmonically-modulated radiation
62 pressure can be detected with sub-nanometer displacement sensitivity after compensating for the confounding
63 photothermal (PT) response of the medium. The measured complex mechanical responses of individual probe beads
64 reflect the local viscoelastic properties of the medium in the vicinity of each bead (i.e., bead “microenvironment”).
65 With the extended depth coverage afforded by the use of a low-NA beam, and no prerequisite for precise bead-wise
66 optical alignment that restricts the practicality of OT-AMR, PF-OCE is well-suited for volumetric measurements in
67 3D engineered cell culture systems, with additional benefits of OCT providing label-free, rapid volumetric imaging
68 in scattering media. However, our previous implementation of PF-OCE for 3D mechanical microscopy, based on
69 transverse raster-scanning of a Gaussian forcing beam, resulted in a pulse-train temporal excitation profile on each
70 probe bead instead of the desired continuous sinusoidal waveform (see Supplementary Fig. 2b in Ref.³⁶). The pulse-
71 train excitation, with the duty cycle determined by the “dwell time” of the excitation beam on each bead, is: 1)
72 inefficient due to over an order of magnitude reduction in time-averaged force exerted on each probe bead compared
73 to continuous excitation³⁶, and 2) does not readily support microrheological quantification of viscoelasticity^{37,38} due
74 to the presence of higher harmonics in the comb-like excitation profile.

75 Here, we present light-sheet photonic force OCE (LS-pfOCE), a methodology based on an efficient parallel
76 radiation-pressure excitation provided by a light-sheet as opposed to a standard focused Gaussian beam of light, to
77 address the aforementioned limitations and dramatically improve the capability for quantitative volumetric time-lapse
78 micromechanical imaging. LS-pfOCE can support volumetric imaging with quantitative reconstruction of
79 viscoelasticity in 3D physiologically relevant ECM constructs and engineered cellular systems. We validate and
80 demonstrate LS-pfOCE in polyacrylamide (PAAm) gels, collagen matrices with varying fibre architecture, and live-
81 cell imaging of cell-mediated ECM remodelling in 3D fibrin hydrogels seeded with NIH-3T3 fibroblast cells.

82

83 Results

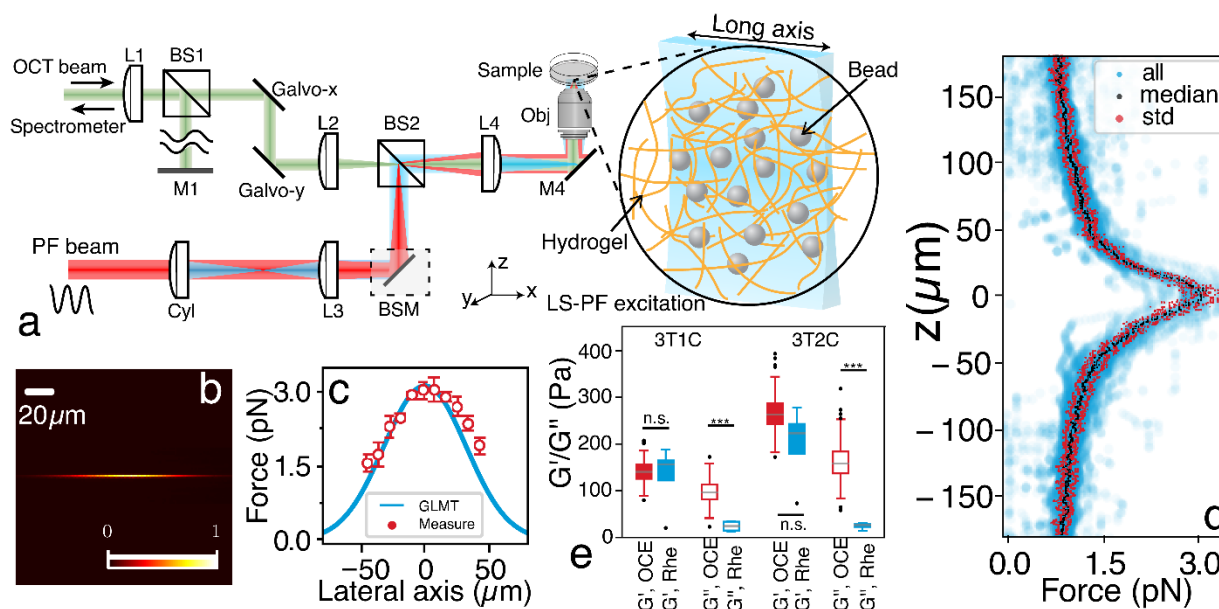
84 LS-pfOCE system characterization and validation

85 The LS-pfOCE system adopts a pump-probe configuration. A weakly-focused light-sheet generated by a cylindrical
86 lens is used for radiation-pressure excitation, instead of a Gaussian beam (Fig. 1a, see Supplementary Fig. 1 for a
87 detailed system schematic). The light-sheet has a measured full-width half-maximum (FWHM) dimension of $80\ \mu\text{m}$
88 $\times 1.4\ \mu\text{m}$ at the focal plane (Fig. 1b) and a total beam power of 120 mW at the sample surface, providing a light-sheet
89 radiation-pressure force with a peak of $\sim 3\ \text{pN}$ and a FWHM spatial extent of $80\ \mu\text{m}$ in the lateral (long-axis) and axial
90 dimensions (Fig. 1c, d). By harmonically modulating its power, the light-sheet PF beam can exert continuous
91 sinusoidal radiation-pressure force on multiple probe beads located within the span of its long-axis in parallel, without
92 the need for beam-scanning (Fig. 1a, inset). The radiation-pressure-induced bead oscillations are detected by a phase-
93 sensitive OCT, whose fast-axis scanning is parallel to and co-aligned with the long axis of the light-sheet, operating
94 in a 2D BM-mode acquisition scheme at each slow-axis position (see Methods for specific acquisition parameters).
95 Volumetric imaging was accomplished by translating the sample with a motorized actuator stage in a direction
96 perpendicular to the long axis of the light-sheet (equivalent to the slow-axis scanning of the OCT system). Under this
97 acquisition scheme, the light-sheet implementation provides a $7\times$ improvement in the time-averaged radiation-
98 pressure force exerted on each probe bead over the equivalent Gaussian-beam implementation with the same PF beam
99 power. The presented LS-pfOCE acquisition scheme supports quantitative 3D micromechanical imaging up to a
100 maximum shear elastic modulus of 550-1200 Pa (with an experimental displacement sensitivity of 36-76 pm for OCT
101 signal-to-noise ratio $\geq 28\ \text{dB}$) over a volumetric field-of-view (FOV) of $80\ \mu\text{m} \times 350\ \mu\text{m} \times 80\ \mu\text{m}$ (fast-axis \times slow-
102 axis \times depth), which typically contains several hundreds of embedded probe beads (the *en-face* FOV can be readily
103 adjusted by extending the range of the slow-axis scan; see Methods and Discussion).

104 Light-sheet radiation-pressure-induced complex mechanical response of individual probe beads is measured via
105 phase-sensitive OCT following compensation for the PT response of the medium. Compared to our previous work³⁶,
106 in order to improve the compatibility for live-cell imaging applications, LS-pfOCE implements a more robust PT
107 response compensation approach that eliminates the need to incorporate exogenous PT reporters into the sample³⁶.
108 The micromechanical properties (i.e., the local complex shear modulus $G^* = G' + iG''$ in the “microenvironment” of
109 each bead) can be reconstructed from the measured bead-wise complex mechanical response and the experimentally
110 measured light-sheet radiation-pressure force profiles (Fig. 1c, d; Supplementary Note 2 provides a detailed
111 description the LS-pfOCE reconstruction procedure). Quantification of G^* by LS-pfOCE is validated in homogeneous
112 PAAm gels (see Methods for sample preparation) by comparison to parallel-plate shear rheometry (Fig. 1e). Under
113 the premise that the mesh size of the PAAm polymer network is smaller than the size of LS-pfOCE probe beads
114 ($1.7\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ diameter), a micro-to-macroscale comparison can reasonably be made between the storage modulus, G' ,
115 measured by LS-pfOCE and shear rheometry³⁷. The measurement of G' by LS-pfOCE is in good agreement with that
116 of shear rheometry at the same modulation frequency of 20 Hz. However, LS-pfOCE measurement of the loss modulus,
117 G'' , differs from that of shear rheometry due to distinct viscous responses (e.g., viscous drag of fluid flow through the
118 porous polymer network) at the micro- versus macroscale, which is in agreement with our prior PF-OCE work based
119 on a Gaussian-beam excitation^{37,38}.

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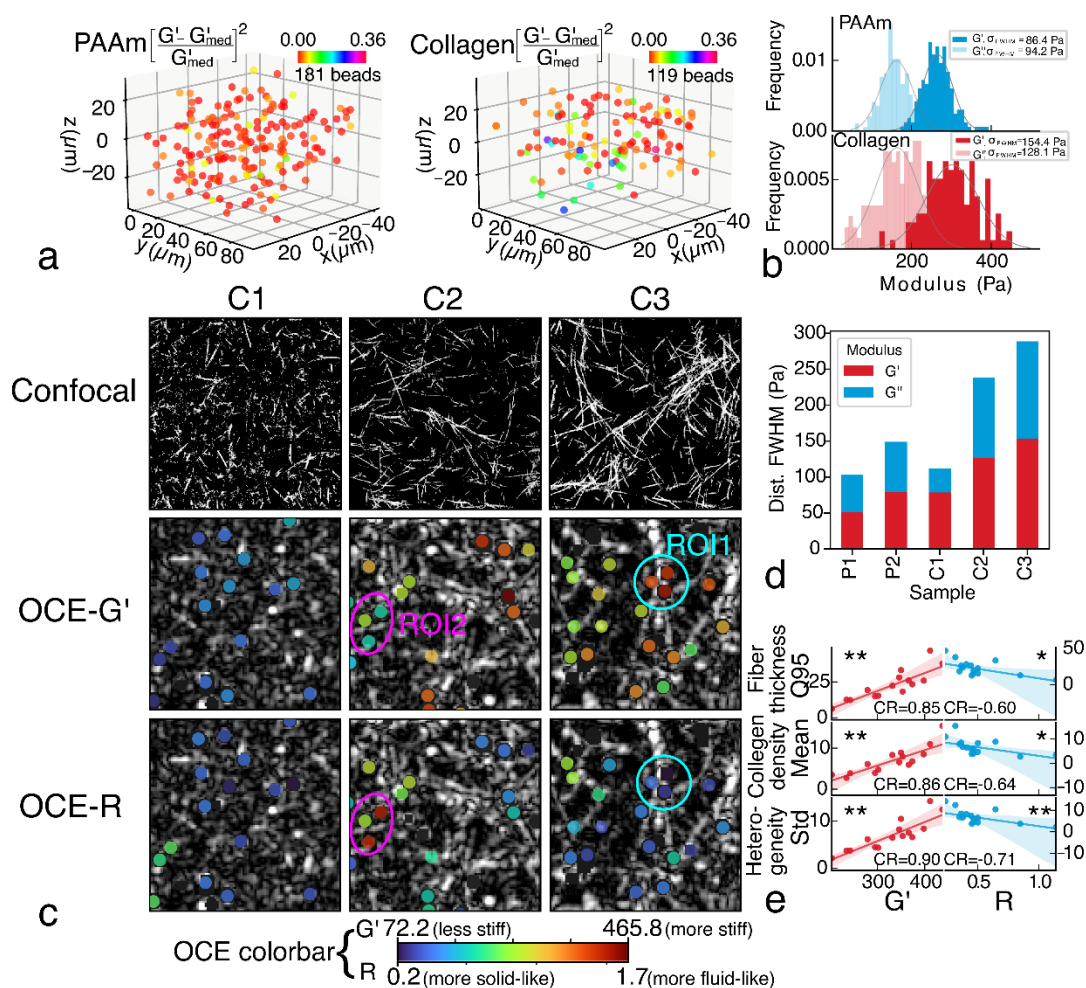


122
 123 **Fig. 1 LS-pfOCE system characterization and validation.** **a**, Schematic of the LS-pfOCE system. Light-sheet
 124 radiation-pressure excitation is generated by a cylindrical lens and combined in free-space with the sample arm of a
 125 spectral-domain OCT system for interferometric detection of radiation-pressure-induced bead oscillations. See
 126 Methods for a full description of the LS-pfOCE system. L: lens, Cyl: cylindrical lens, BS: beam splitter, BSM: beam-
 127 steering module, M: mirror, Obj: microscope objective. **b**, Light-sheet intensity profile measured at the focal plane. **c**,
 128 Measured (red, mean \pm standard deviation from $N = 48$ beads) and simulated (blue, Generalized Lorenz-Mie Theory
 129 (GLMT), see Supplementary Note 6) lateral light-sheet radiation-pressure profile at its focal plane on 1.9- μm
 130 melamine-resin beads. **d**, Measured axial light-sheet radiation-pressure profile at its lateral center on 1.9- μm
 131 melamine-resin beads, showing data (blue) and depth-dependent median (black) and median absolute difference (red)
 132 from $N = 48$ beads. See Methods for light-sheet radiation-pressure force measurement procedure. **e**, Comparison of
 133 G' and G'' in PAAm gels measured by 3D LS-pfOCE (blue) and bulk shear rheometry (red) at 20 Hz. $N = 5$ samples
 134 for rheometry and $N = 225$ and 263 beads for LS-pfOCE in 3T1C and 3T2C gels, respectively. Significant difference
 135 in group means is indicated by *** p -value < 0.001 and n.s. p -value > 0.05 .

136
 137 **Characterization of micromechanical heterogeneity in fibrous ECM.**

138 We demonstrate quantitative characterization of micromechanical heterogeneity in ECM constructs by performing
 139 LS-pfOCE in three microscopically heterogeneous fibrous collagen matrices with different microarchitectures (see
 140 Methods for sample preparation) and homogeneous PAAm hydrogel. LS-pfOCE is able to reveal the micromechanical
 141 heterogeneity of the fibrous collagen matrix compared to the homogeneous PAAm gel (Fig. 2a), where the
 142 distributions of both G' and G'' measured within a sample are broader (i.e., larger FWHM) for collagen than PAAm
 143 (Fig. 2b). LS-pfOCE measurements of G' (elasticity or “stiffness”) and $R = G''/G'$ (relative viscosity or “loss ratio”) is
 144 also able to reflect the distinct microarchitectural characteristics of the three collagen matrices (Fig. 2c). The most
 145 microarchitecturally homogeneous collagen sample C1, with the thinnest collagen fibres, exhibits an overall lower
 146 stiffness and little variability in both G' and R . In contrast, the thicker fibrous samples C2 and C3 exhibit an overall
 147 higher stiffness with significant variability in both G' and R . Quantitatively, samples C2 and C3, with the more
 148 heterogeneous microarchitecture, have a broader distribution for both G' and G'' compared to that of sample C1 and
 149 the PAAm gels (Fig. 2d).

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153
 154 **Fig. 2 Characterization of micromechanical heterogeneity in fibrous collagen matrices.** **a**, Normalized relative
 155 variation in stiffness measured by 3D LS-pfOCE in a PAAm gel (3T2C, left) and collagen matrix (C3, right), where
 156 larger variation is observed in collagen. $N = 181$ and 119 beads for PAAm and collagen, respectively. **b**, Histograms
 157 and statistical distributions of absolute (i.e., without normalization) G' and G'' measurements in **a**. σ_{FWHM} indicates the
 158 FWHM of the distributions. **c**, *En face* confocal reflectance microscopy (top, FOV $106 \mu\text{m} \times 106 \mu\text{m}$) and OCT
 159 images overlaid with color-coded LS-pfOCE measurements of G' (middle) and R (bottom) at the focal plane. ROI1
 160 (cyan circles) indicates a stiffer and more solid-like microenvironment in the presence of thick collagen fibres. ROI2
 161 indicates a more compliant and fluid-like microenvironment in the absence of any clear collagen fibres. All OCE
 162 images show FOV of $71 \mu\text{m} \times 71 \mu\text{m}$. **d**, FWHM of the distributions of LS-pfOCE G' (red) and G'' (blue) in PAAm
 163 gels and collagen matrices. $N = 137, 107, 105, 132$ and 100 beads for P1 (3T1C), P2 (3T2C), C1, C2, and C3,
 164 respectively. **e**, Correlation of LS-pfOCE G' (red) and R (blue) to surrogate measures of collagen matrix
 165 microarchitectural characteristics. $N = 15$ beads in sample C3. Q95, Mean, and Std indicate the 0.95 quantile,
 166 mean, and standard deviation of OCT scattering intensity within a $3\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ radial distance from the circumference of each bead,
 167 respectively (see Methods for further details). CR indicates the Spearman rank correlation coefficient; significance of
 168 the correlation is indicated by * p -value < 0.05 and ** p -value < 0.01 . Solid lines and shaded regions represent linear
 169 fits and 95% confidence intervals, respectively.

170
 171 The ability to microrheologically quantify viscoelasticity (i.e., both G' and G'') of LS-pfOCE also reveals an
 172 interesting observation: the variations in G' and R tend to follow opposite trends in more fibrous C2 and C3 samples.
 173 For instance, region of interest (ROI) 1 (cyan circles in Fig. 2c), where the microenvironment is dominated by a
 174 junction of thick collagen fibres, exhibits higher stiffness (higher G') and a more “solid-like” behaviour (lower R). On
 175 the other hand, ROI2 (magenta circles in Fig. 2c), where the microenvironment is absent of any clearly resolvable

176 collagen fibres, exhibits lower stiffness (lower G') and a more “fluid-like” behaviour (higher R). This observation may
177 be supported by the biphasic description of a porous hydrogel, where the collagen fibres form the solid phase with an
178 elastic response (which dominates in ROI1) and the rest of the material form the fluid phase with a viscous response
179 (which dominates in ROI2). These results may also support the “network connectivity” interpretation of a biopolymer
180 matrix³⁹⁻⁴³—ROI1 contains nodes with 3-6 connected collagen branches (thus, exhibiting higher node stiffness),
181 whereas ROI2 contains nodes with 0-2 connected branches at most (thus, exhibiting lower node stiffness). To
182 corroborate these interpretations, LS-pfOCE measurement in sample C3 is correlated to three surrogate measures of
183 the microarchitectural characteristics of the microenvironment of each bead (Fig. 2e): “Q95” for collagen fibre
184 thickness, “Mean” for collagen density, and “Std” for matrix heterogeneity (see Methods for further details of this
185 analysis). Both G' and R show a strong (correlation coefficient > 0.85) and statistically significant correlation to all
186 three measures of the collagen microarchitectures. Overall, the results in Fig. 2 demonstrate the capability of LS-
187 pfOCE for quantitative micromechanical characterization of microscopically heterogeneous fibrous ECM constructs,
188 which can enable correlative analysis between micromechanical and microarchitectural heterogeneities in the study
189 of biopolymer mechanics.

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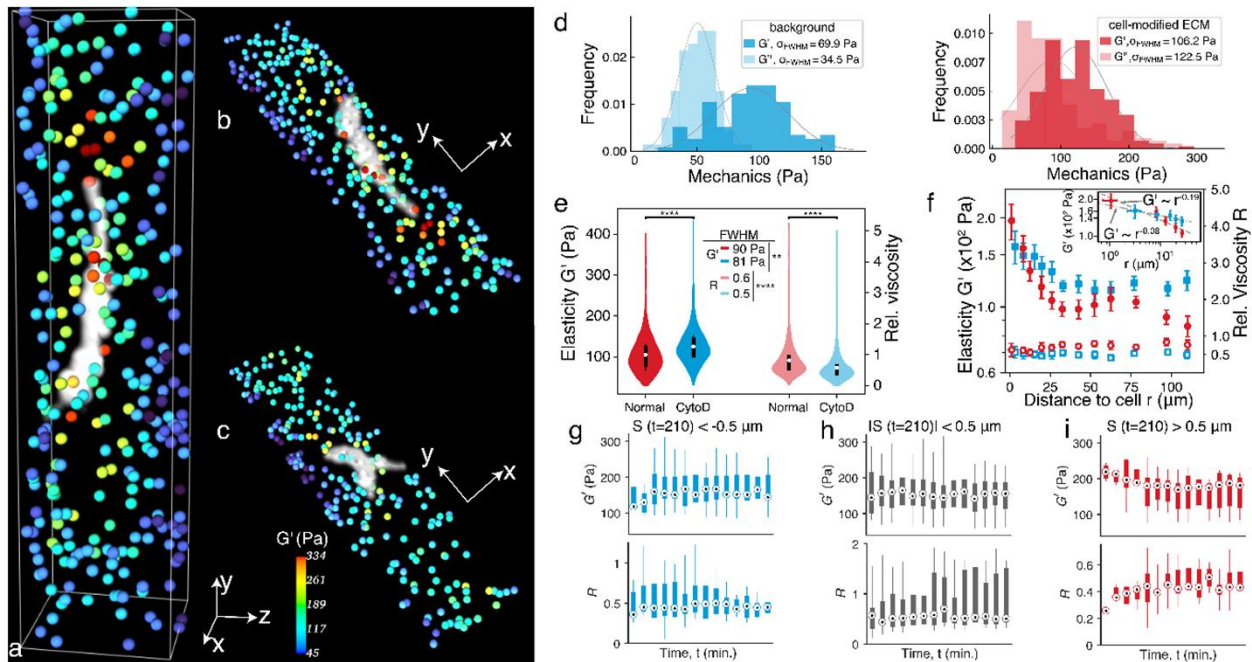
191 **Live-cell imaging of cell-mediated ECM micromechanical remodelling.**

192 We demonstrate potential mechanobiological applications of LS-pfOCE for live-cell imaging studies of cell-mediated
193 ECM remodelling in 3D fibrin constructs seeded with NIH-3T3 fibroblasts (see Methods for sample preparation). LS-
194 pfOCE is able to quantitatively characterize, in 3D, the spatial variations in the micromechanical properties of the
195 fibrin ECM surrounding isolated cells (Fig. 3a, b). Higher G' can be observed closer to the cell body (especially
196 extending from the tip of the cell) compared to regions further away, which corroborate previous results from OT-
197 AMR^{32,33}. Quantitatively, both the mean G' value and the width of the distributions of G' and G'' measurements are
198 larger in the cell-modified ECM (i.e., pericellular space) than the native (i.e., cell-free region) fibrin ECM (Fig. 3d).
199 LS-pfOCE is also able to characterize changes in the pericellular micromechanical properties due to altered cellular
200 activity. As an example, we investigated the consequences of reduced cellular contractility via treatment with
201 Cytochalasin D (CytoD), an inhibitor of actin polymerization (Fig. 3c, measurement taken 2 hours after CytoD
202 treatment, see Methods for the live-cell imaging protocol). Compared to the normal condition (Fig. 3b), the CytoD-
203 treated sample exhibits strongly reduced stiffness in the pericellular space (especially at the cell tip) and the spatial
204 distribution of G' appears relatively uniform (Fig. 3c). Significant differences are observed in both the group means
205 and variances of G' and G'' measurements between the normal and CytoD conditions (Fig. 3e). Control experiments
206 with pure DMSO (solvent for CytoD treatment) and measurements in blank fibrin constructs (not seeded with cells)
207 are provided in Supplementary Data 1.

208 LS-pfOCE is also able to quantitatively characterize the variations in G' and R as a function of distance to the cell
209 body in 3D space (see Methods for details of this analysis). A decreasing trend in G' as a function of distance is
210 apparent within the pericellular space (within 30 μm of cell boundary) in both the normal and CytoD conditions (Fig.
211 3f, solid markers; and Supplementary Data 2). However, the stiffness gradient is significantly steeper in the normal
212 condition (decay exponent of -0.19 for normal versus -0.08 for CytoD condition, see inset of Fig. 3f), suggesting that
213 the degree of cell-mediated pericellular stiffening is reduced (as expected) after the inhibition of actin polymerization.
214 The weaker stiffness gradient that remains after CytoD treatment may be attributed to the accumulatively increased
215 fibrous matrix density in the pericellular space (i.e., cell-mediated accumulation of fibrin during the 12-hr incubation
216 period under normal conditions, prior to the treatment)³³. Compared to G' , the variation in R as a function of distance
217 to cell is less apparent and does not follow an obvious monotonic trend (Fig. 3f, open markers). However, a mild
218 increasing trend can be observed within the pericellular space ($\leq 30 \mu\text{m}$ to cell), opposing the decreasing trend in G' ,
219 in the normal condition.

220 The contributions of cell-force-mediated nonlinear ECM stiffening (i.e., strain- and/or stress-stiffening response
221 of the fibrous ECM induced by cellular contractility) versus fibrous concentration-dependent ECM stiffening (i.e.,
222 accumulation of higher matrix density around cell) to the observed pericellular stiffness gradient have been speculated
223 in a previous OT-AMR study, where similar results were observed after CytoD treatment³³. Furthermore, our 3D LS-
224 pfOCE results also reveal a small increase in G' after the CytoD treatment in the intermediate ECM ($\geq 30 \mu\text{m}$ away
225 from the cell boundary in Fig. 3f, see Supplementary Data 3)—a small difference which could not be clearly discerned
226 from previous bead-wise OT-AMR measurements³³. We hypothesize that this mild stiffening in the intermediate ECM
227 is related to the redistribution of the fibrin matrix—from where the matrix is concentrated by the contractile cell in the
228 pericellular space ($\leq 30 \mu\text{m}$ to cell), back into the intermediate regions ($\geq 30 \mu\text{m}$ to cell)—following the inhibition of

229 cellular contractility. Compared to the OT-AMR study³³, LS-pfOCE facilitates a more complete, high-throughput
 230 volumetric characterization of cell-mediated spatial variations in the micromechanical properties of surrounding ECM
 231 by providing quantitative measurements of both elasticity and viscosity in 3D (as opposed to serially measuring a
 232 selected number of probe beads, typically within a 2D plane).
 233



234
 235 **Fig. 3 Live-cell imaging of cell-mediated spatiotemporal variations in ECM micromechanical properties.** **a**, 3D
 236 LS-pfOCE measurements of G' (color-coded beads) around a cell (white) and z -projection of 3D measurements under
 237 **b**, normal condition and **c**, 2 hours after treatment with CytoD (**b** and **c** show two different cells). Size of the beads is
 238 not to scale with the cell body. All images share the same colour scale. (See Supplementary Videos 1 and 2 for
 239 visualization of **b** and **c** from different viewing angles.) **d**, Histograms and distribution fits of 3D LS-pfOCE
 240 measurements in the pericellular (red, $N = 205$ beads) and cell-free regions (blue, $N = 97$ beads) from 1 cell. σ_{FWHM}
 241 indicates the FWHM of the distributions. **e**, Violin plots of 3D LS-pfOCE measurements around cells under normal
 242 (red, $N = 1824$ beads) and CytoD (blue, $N = 1567$ beads) conditions from 8 cells. The FWHM of each distribution is
 243 stated. Significant difference in group means and variance is indicated by ** p -value < 0.01 and **** p -value < 0.0001 .
 244 **f**, 3D LS-pfOCE measurements of G' (left) and R (right) from the data in **e** as a function of distance to cell under
 245 normal (red) and CytoD (blue) conditions. Inset shows power law fits within $\leq 30 \mu\text{m}$ to cell; the decay exponent has
 246 a 95% confidence interval of -0.19 ± 0.064 (red) and -0.08 ± 0.024 (blue). Each data point represents mean \pm standard
 247 deviation from $N \geq 20$ beads. **g–i**, Boxplots of G' (top) and R (bottom) from 5 cells as a function of time after CytoD
 248 treatment in regions that experience high-negative (blue, $N = 10$ beads), low (grey, $N = 16$ beads), and high-positive
 249 (red, $N = 8$ beads) matrix deformation S , respectively. Whiskers represent the full range of values.

250
 251 LS-pfOCE also enables time-lapse monitoring of the spatiotemporal dynamics of micromechanical properties in
 252 live cellular systems. As an example, we investigated the temporal variations in the pericellular micromechanical
 253 properties (near the tip of the cell) as the CytoD treatment takes effect (see Methods for time-lapse imaging protocol).
 254 Time-lapse LS-pfOCE is able to simultaneously track the changes in both micromechanical properties and local matrix
 255 deformations (i.e., displacements of probe beads, see Methods for details of this calculation), which reveals
 256 statistically significant correlations between the former and the latter (Supplementary Data 4). This result is consistent
 257 with the hypothesis that the effect of CytoD treatment on pericellular micromechanical properties is governed by the
 258 spatiotemporal dynamics of the inhibition of actin polymerization, which in turn impacts cell-force-mediated matrix
 259 deformations.

260 Our time-lapse LS-pfOCE measurements also reveal an interesting behaviour that has never been reported by
 261 other techniques to our knowledge. While previous OT-AMR studies have only reported the softening of the ECM

262 following contractility inhibition^{32,33}, time-lapse LS-pfOCE shows that the changes in micromechanical properties and
263 local matrix deformation occur in both positive *and* negative directions. Specifically, regions of the matrix that
264 experience a negative deformation tend to exhibit an initially lower G' (~100 Pa, similar to the native fibrin in the cell-
265 free regions in Fig. 3d) that increases over time (Fig. 3g). Conversely, regions of the matrix that experience a positive
266 deformation tend to exhibit an initially higher G' (>200 Pa, similar to the cell-modified pericellular fibrin in Fig. 3a,
267 b) that decreases over time; this is also accompanied by an opposite trend in R (Fig. 3i). The latter behaviour is
268 consistent with previous reports^{32,33}, and may be attributed to the "relaxation" of cell-force-mediated ECM stiffening
269 governed by CytoD inhibition of actin polymerization⁴⁴. Notably, both G' and R stabilize after approximately 2 hr,
270 consistent with the amount of time taken for the total cell force to approach zero following CytoD treatment in a
271 previous traction force microscopy study⁴⁴. The former behaviour, which has not been reported previously, may be
272 attributed to the redistribution of fibrin network in the pericellular space (see discussion of Fig. 3f above) as well as
273 the cell-mediated ECM stiffening by any residual actin filaments that have yet to be affected by CytoD (noting that
274 attachment proteins on the cell surface to the ECM can remain even after the inhibition of actin polymerization).

275 Meanwhile, regions of the matrix that experience minimal deformation in either direction also tend to exhibit
276 smaller changes in G' and an overall higher R (Fig. 3h), which suggests that the microarchitecture of these regions
277 may be dominated by large fluid-filled pores. Remarkably, all three types of dynamic responses stabilize to a similar
278 level (G' ~160 Pa and R ~0.4) over time after CytoD inhibition of cellular contractility, even though they initially
279 exhibit distinct cell-mediated ECM micromechanical properties (Fig. 3g-i). Overall, the results in Fig. 3 demonstrate
280 that the live-cell imaging capability of LS-pfOCE can provide access to previously unavailable measurements, which
281 emphasizes its potential to support new discoveries in the field of mechanobiology.

282 283 **Discussion**

284 LS-pfOCE can readily perform quantitative 3D micromechanical imaging in live cellular systems because of two key
285 innovations—a parallel radiation-pressure force scheme that enables volumetric imaging with continuous harmonic
286 excitation on each individual probe bead, and a more robust PT compensation approach that eliminates the need for
287 exogenous PT reporters (see Methods). We applied LS-pfOCE to characterize the micromechanical heterogeneity in
288 fibrous collagen matrices, and for the first time, characterized the 3D spatial variations and temporal dynamics of cell-
289 mediated ECM micromechanical properties via live-cell imaging of fibroblasts within 3D fibrin constructs. The 3D
290 imaging of cell boundaries based on OCT speckle fluctuations^{6,44}, as well as ECM deformations and micromechanical
291 properties allows the measurements of pericellular mechanical properties to be interpreted within the context of the
292 cell orientation (i.e., extension direction) and cell-induced ECM deformations.

293 Although the fast-axis scan range and depth coverage of the current LS-pfOCE system is limited by the lateral
294 extent (long-axis width) and the NA (short-axis focusing) of the light-sheet, a larger volumetric FOV can be achieved
295 by simply tuning the long-axis width of light-sheet PF beam. More sophisticated light-sheet generation optics can be
296 introduced to generate laterally uniform light-sheet PF excitation with extended depth of focus, such as those
297 previously developed for light-sheet fluorescence microscopy⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷. In addition, the volumetric throughput of LS-
298 pfOCE can be further improved by increasing the mechanical response amplitude-to-noise ratio^{37,38} (such as by
299 increasing the power of the PF beam or reducing the OCT system noise), which would allow reliable measurements
300 of bead mechanical response to be made with a lower number of temporal frames per slow-axis position^{37,38}. One way
301 to reduce noise in the current LS-pfOCE system is by replacing the motorized actuator with a high-fidelity stepper
302 motor. Additional improvements may be realized by implementing common-path phase-sensitive detection⁴⁸.

303 The acquisition scheme of LS-pfOCE can be flexibly tailored to best fit the experimental needs of specific
304 mechanobiological applications—by adjusting the number of temporal (BM-mode) frames acquired at each slow-axis
305 position. This navigates the trade-off between acquisition time and the maximum stiffness that can be reliably
306 quantified (i.e., the displacement sensitivity supported by a given number of temporal frames^{37,38}). Meanwhile, LS-
307 pfOCE may also be implemented with other high-speed OCT imaging approaches such as swept-source and parallel
308 line-field OCT, in order to further improve its imaging speed⁴⁹. A faster option for OCT beam-scanning, such as a
309 resonant scanner for multi-MHz-OCT⁵⁰ or even a MEMS scanner⁴⁹ (since LS-pfOCE does not require a large scanning
310 angle to span the long axis of the light-sheet), that can support BM-mode frame rate in the kHz range will significantly
311 improve the acquisition speed overall (see Supplementary Discussion 1 for further considerations related to high speed
312 imaging).

313 LS-pfOCE has the potential to enable numerous novel research studies in the field of mechanobiology. Recent
314 developments in traction force microscopy (TFM) have enabled the study of time-varying cell forces and cell-mediated
315 ECM deformations in 3D, including both isolated^{8,44,51,52} and collective cellular behaviours (such as stromal-cell-
316 mediated dissemination of cancer cells from co-cultured tumour spheroids^{6,53,54} and epithelial-mesenchymal
317 transitions in multicellular epithelial clusters⁵⁵). LS-pfOCE has the potential to significantly elevate such studies by
318 providing crucial (albeit currently missing) information on the 4D spatiotemporal dynamics of the ECM
319 micromechanical properties (our correlative analysis of the changes in ECM viscoelasticity and matrix deformation
320 in Fig. 3g–i and Supplementary Fig. 12 is an example of how new mechanobiological insights may be obtained with
321 the combination of LS-pfOCE and TFM-based measurements). Furthermore, LS-pfOCE can be integrated into a
322 multimodal microscopy platform that incorporates confocal or light-sheet fluorescence microscopy to enable
323 simultaneous characterization of micromechanics and molecular signalling pathways.

324 Moreover, ongoing efforts in the field of biophysics are focused on the development of computational models to
325 describe and unravel the complexities of biopolymer mechanics, including fibrous ECM constructs^{5,39-43}. LS-pfOCE
326 has the potential to help inform and validate the development of these computational models by providing
327 experimental quantification of the micromechanical properties of biopolymer constructs (such as the fibrous collagen
328 matrices in Fig. 2). To this end, future applications of LS-pfOCE may extend beyond the scope of linear viscoelasticity,
329 to investigate poroelasticity and anisotropy (e.g., by rotating the sample to exert force from different directions) of
330 fibrous biopolymer networks.

331

332 Reference

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443

444 **Methods**

445 **LS-pFOCE system and beam alignment procedure**

446 The LS-pFOCE system consisted of a spectral-domain (SD)-OCT imaging system and a light-sheet for radiation-
447 pressure force excitation, which is combined into the OCT sample arm in a pump-probe configuration (see
448 Supplementary Note 1 for detailed system schematic). The OCT system was sourced by a broadband superluminescent
449 diode (Thorlabs, LS2000B) with a centre wavelength and a FWHM bandwidth of 1300 nm and 200 nm, respectively.
450 Spectral data was detected by a spectrometer (Wasatch Photonics, Cobra 1300) with a bandwidth of 245 nm and a
451 2048-pixel line-scan camera (Sensors Unlimited, GL2048). The sample arm utilized a double-pass
452 illumination/collection configuration with an inverted 20× microscope objective (Olympus, LCPLN20XIR) with an
453 NA of 0.45. Telecentric beam-scanning was accomplished with a 2-axis galvanometer (Cambridge Technology,
454 ProSeries 1, 10 mm) and a unit-magnification telescope, which imaged the galvanometer to the back focal plane of
455 the objective. The transverse and axial resolutions (in air) of the OCT system were 2.3 μm and 3.4 μm, respectively.
456 The light-sheet pump beam was generated by a laser diode (Frankfurt Laser Company, FLU0786M250, HI780 fibre
457 output) at a wavelength of 789 nm and a cylindrical lens (Thorlabs, ACY254-100-B). The light-sheet was injected
458 into the telescope of the OCT system via a longpass dichroic mirror (Thorlabs, DMLP1180R) and shared the same
459 objective. The long axis of the light-sheet was collimated with a FWHM beam width of 80 μm while the short axis
460 was focused to a FWHM beam width of 1.4 μm. The power of the light-sheet pump beam was harmonically modulated
461 with a peak power of 120 mW measured directly after the objective. 3D imaging was accomplished via galvanometer
462 scanning of the OCT beam along the fast axis and a motorized actuator (Thorlabs, ZST225B motor, KST101 controller,
463 and KCH601 controller hub/power supply) stepping the sample along the slow axis, while the light-sheet pump beam
464 remained stationary.

465 A beam steering module ensured co-alignment between the pump and probe beams such that 1) the optical axes
466 of both beams were parallel and overlapped, 2) the focal planes of both beams were ≤10 μm from each other inside
467 the sample, and 3) the long axis of the light-sheet was parallel to the fast galvanometer scanning axis of the OCT
468 system. The beam alignment was visualized in real-time by placing a CCD camera (Thorlabs, DCC1545M) above the
469 objective to image the light-sheet and OCT beam spots at different axial position relative to the focal plane. After the
470 real-time alignment, the light-sheet radiation-pressure force was measured as a final LS-pFOCE system performance
471 check prior to each experiment.

472

473 **LS-pFOCE radiation-pressure force measurement**

474 The measurement of radiation-pressure force from the light-sheet followed a previously described OCT-based depth-
475 resolved force measurement method⁵⁶, with modifications to extend the previous 1D measurement to 2D in order to
476 characterize both the axial and lateral (along light-sheet long axis) force profiles (Fig. 1b, d). A 10% w/w solution of
477 glycerol and water (refractive index 1.3469, close to those of hydrogels, see Table 1 in Ref.⁵⁶ for other relevant
478 physical properties) was used as the viscous fluid medium for the force measurements. The 2D measurement was
479 accomplished via a BM-mode acquisition scheme (instead of M-mode in Ref.⁵⁶), with the fast-axis scanning parallel
480 to the long axis of the light-sheet. The ‘M-mode-equivalent’ space-time axial bead trajectory images were obtained
481 across the BM-mode frames (i.e., temporal dimension) at different lateral segments along the fast axis (i.e., long axis
482 of light-sheet). The depth-resolved axial radiation-pressure force profile at each lateral segment was reconstructed by
483 tracking the instantaneous axial velocity and acceleration of each bead from the space-time axial bead trajectory image,
484 then, solving the 1D equation of motion along the axial direction using known fluid viscosity and other physical
485 properties, as previously described⁵⁶. This procedure is described in full in Supplementary Note 4. The final output is
486 a 2D light-sheet radiation-pressure force profile $F_{\text{rad}}(x, z)$.

487 Another modification from the previously described method¹ was the implementation of a rapid automated
488 algorithm based on Radon transform to extract depth-resolved bead axial velocity and acceleration from the space-
489 time bead trajectory images. The automated algorithm significantly reduced the time and labour that would otherwise
490 be required to perform the coarse manual bead trajectory tracking over the entire 2D BM-mode datasets (200-400
491 beads total). This was essential to streamline the routine system alignment and force measurement procedure prior to
492 each experiment. The full description of the Radon-transform-based automated force measurement algorithm is
493 provided in Supplementary Note 5.

494

495 **LS-pFOCE data acquisition procedure**

496 Volumetric imaging with LS-pFOCE adopted a 3D BM-mode acquisition scheme³⁶, with the modification that slow-
497 axis scanning was accomplished by translating the sample with a motorized stage (instead of galvanometer scanning
498 as typically done for 3D-OCT data acquisition). For all LS-pFOCE results presented here, a BM-mode frame rate of
499 425 Hz was implemented with a radiation-pressure force modulation frequency of 20 Hz, which ensured sufficient
500 temporal sampling per modulation cycle to reliably measure the phase shift w.r.t. to the drive waveform of the bead
501 response. The fast-axis scan range was kept at 90 μm to match the width (long axis) of the light-sheet. A total of 6400
502 BM-mode frames were acquired at each slow-axis position, supporting a theoretical (SNR-limited shot-noise)^{36,57} and
503 experimental displacement sensitivity of 27 pm and 76 pm at an OCT SNR of 28 dB, respectively. The lateral pixel
504 size was 0.75 $\mu\text{m} \times 0.75 \mu\text{m}$, which ensured that each probe bead (diameter of 1.7 μm for polystyrene and 1.9 μm for
505 melamine-resin) were sampled at multiple lateral pixels. These acquisition parameters result in an acquisition time of
506 15 seconds per slow-axis position, which would total to 117 minutes for a slow-axis scan range of 350 μm
507 implemented in Fig. 3a–c. However, due to the delayed stabilization after stepping of our current motorized actuator
508 (Thorlabs, ZST225B), we implemented a wait time of 6 seconds before initiating the acquisition at each slow-axis
509 position. This significant wait time would not be necessary with a high-fidelity stepper motor. All instrument control
510 and synchronization were accomplished with a custom LabVIEW (2014 64-bit version) acquisition software.

511

512 **LS-pFOCE reconstruction procedure**

513 The reconstruction of micromechanical properties of the medium in the vicinity of each probe bead from the raw 3D
514 BM-mode LS-pFOCE data followed the previously describe quantitative procedure³⁷, with modifications to implement
515 the processing routine at multiple spatial voxels in the volumetric datasets (as opposed to 1D M-mode datasets in Ref.⁴)
516 and accommodate for the excitation by the light-sheet (instead of Gaussian) pump beam. The full description of the
517 LS-pFOCE reconstruction procedure is provided in Supplementary Note 2 together with a flowchart that outlines the
518 full procedure (Supplementary Fig. 2). Briefly, the LS-pFOCE reconstruction procedure can be divided into the
519 following 6 steps.

- 520 1) OCT image reconstruction, which implemented Fourier-domain OCT reconstruction and computational
521 image formation procedure⁴⁴ for defocus correction along the fast axis to obtain the complex 3D BM-mode
522 OCT image, $\tilde{S}(x, y, z, t)$.

- 523 2) Phase-sensitive OCE reconstruction, which implemented the procedure in Ref.³⁷ to extract the optical path
524 length (OPL) response from the phase of $\tilde{S}(x, y, z, t)$, after phase registration. The OPL response as a
525 function of time at each spatial voxel is described as a complex phasor with amplitude $A(x, y, z)$ and phase
526 shift $\varphi(x, y, z)$ w.r.t. to the drive waveform (for brevity, subsequent mention of “phase shift” shall refer to
527 the phase shift w.r.t. to the drive waveform).
- 528 3) Image segmentation, which assigned the OPL response at each spatial voxel to either the PT response or the
529 total response data region based on OCT image magnitude thresholds (values provided in Supplementary
530 Note 2) and data exclusion criteria (indicated on Supplementary Fig. 2)³⁷.
- 531 4) Photothermal (PT) response reconstruction, which reconstructed the 2D PT response amplitude $A_{PT}(x, z)$
532 and phase shift $\varphi_{PT}(x, z)$ from the OPL response at the spatial voxels assigned to the PT response data region
533 in step 3.
- 534 5) Isolation of bead mechanical response, which subtracted the PT response reconstructed in step 4 from the
535 OPL response at the spatial voxels assigned to the total response data region to isolate the mechanical
536 response with amplitude $A_{mech}(x, y, z)$ and phase shift $\varphi_{mech}(x, y, z)$ at each spatial voxel. Then, the
537 individual spatial voxels were clustered into their respective beads to compute the median mechanical
538 response of each bead $A_{mech}(\mathbf{r}_c)$ and $\varphi_{mech}(\mathbf{r}_c)$, where $\mathbf{r}_c = (x_c, y_c, z_c)$ denotes the spatial coordinates of the
539 bead centroid.
- 540 6) Complex shear modulus reconstruction, which solved the 1D axial equation of motion of a sphere forced into
541 an oscillatory motion, described by an amplitude $A_{mech}(\mathbf{r}_c)$ and phase shift $\varphi_{mech}(\mathbf{r}_c)$, in a viscoelastic
542 medium by an external harmonically-varying force with amplitude $F_{rad}(\mathbf{r}_c)$, extracted from the measured
543 force profile $F_{rad}(x, z)$. The complex shear modulus of the medium in the vicinity of each bead $G^*(\mathbf{r}_c)$ is
544 given by:

$$546 \tilde{G}_{eff}(\mathbf{r}_c) = \frac{F_{rad}(\mathbf{r}_c) + m\omega^2 [A_{mech}(\mathbf{r}_c) \exp(i\varphi_{mech}(\mathbf{r}_c))]}{6\pi a [A_{mech}(\mathbf{r}_c) \exp(i\varphi_{mech}(\mathbf{r}_c))]}, \quad (1)$$

547 where ω , m , and a denote the angular modulation frequency, mass, and radius of the oscillating sphere,
548 respectively. The parameter $\tilde{G}_{eff}(\mathbf{r}_c)$ is a function of $G^*(\mathbf{r}_c)$ and is given by Oestreicher’s model of an
549 oscillating sphere in a viscoelastic medium, described by a complex shear wave number k^* , according to:

$$552 \tilde{G}_{eff}(\mathbf{r}_c) = G^*(\mathbf{r}_c) \left[1 - ik^*(\mathbf{r}_c)a - \frac{1}{9}k^{*2}(\mathbf{r}_c)a^2 \right], \quad (2)$$

553 which can be inverted to obtain $G^*(\mathbf{r}_c)$.

555 All data processing was implemented in MATLAB 2017a.

556 Compared to the previous Gaussian-beam implementation of PF-OCE^{36,37}, the use of light-sheet radiation-
557 pressure force excitation has the largest impact on steps 4 and 6 listed above. This is due to the non-uniform lateral
558 intensity profile of the light-sheet along its long axis (Fig. 1c, d), which causes both the radiation-pressure force and
559 the PT response to vary not only as a function of depth (axial) but also across the fast axis (lateral along the long axis
560 of light-sheet). Supplementary Note 4 provides a full description of the LS-pfOCE force reconstruction procedure.
561 For the PT response, another important distinction implemented here compared to previously^{36,37} was that no
562 exogenous PT reporters were added to the sample. This was done to improve the biocompatibility of LS-pfOCE for
563 mechanobiological applications with live-cell imaging studies. The LS-pfOCE experiments presented here relied
564 entirely on the intrinsic OCT scattering signal of the medium and the cumulative PT response measured at the coverslip
565 (see Supplementary Fig. 3 the sample configuration) to reconstruct the full 2D profiles of the PT response amplitude
566 and phase shift (Supplementary Fig. 4). Supplementary Note 3 provides a full description of the PT response

567 calibration procedure for PAAm gels (Figs. 1e and 2a, b, d), collagen matrices (Fig. 2), and live-cell imaging in cell-
568 seeded fibrin constructs (Fig. 3).

569

570 **Sample preparation**

571 All samples were prepared in #1.5 glass-bottomed petri dishes (MatTek, P35G-1.5-10-C), where the OCT beam
572 interrogated the sample through the glass bottom (Supplementary Fig. 3). For the cell-free samples (i.e., PAAm gels
573 and collagen matrices), a coverslip (Fisherbrand, 12540A) was placed on top of the sample well to provide
574 measurements of the cumulative PT responses^{36,37}. For live-cell imaging, the sample petri dish was placed in a stage-
575 top incubated bio-chamber (Okolab, UNO-PLUS) for environmental control.

576 PAAm gels (Figs. 1e and 2a, b, d) were prepared as previously described³⁷. Briefly, acrylamide monomer (Bio-
577 Rad, 40% Acrylamide Solution, 1610140), bis-acrylamide crosslinker (Bio-Rad, 2% Bis Solution, 1610142), and
578 deionized water were mixed at appropriate concentrations (see Table 1 in Ref.³⁷ for the compositions of 3T1C and
579 3T2C gels). An aqueous suspension of 1.7- μm diameter polystyrene beads (Spherotech, PP-15-10) was added to the
580 mixture at a concentration of 30 $\mu\text{L}/\text{mL}$ to achieve a mean particle separation of 12 μm . The solution was mixed and
581 desiccated for 15 min. PAAm polymerization was activated with 10% ammonium persulfate (Bio-Rad, APS, 1610700)
582 as the redox initiator and tetramethylethylenediamine (Bio-Rad, TEMED, 1610800) as the catalyst. 10% APS and
583 TEMED were added at concentrations of 10 $\mu\text{L}/\text{mL}$ and 1 $\mu\text{L}/\text{mL}$, respectively. Hydrogels were allowed to polymerize
584 for 60 min prior to LS-pfOCE measurements.

585 Collagen matrices (Fig. 2) were prepared with rat tail type I collagen (Corning, 354236) at a final collagen
586 concentration of 2.0 mg/mL. An aqueous suspension of 1.9- μm diameter carboxyl-functionalized melamine-resin
587 beads (microParticles GmbH, MF-COOH-S1000) was added to the mixture at a concentration of 19 $\mu\text{L}/\text{mL}$ to achieve
588 a mean particle separation of 14 μm . Melamine-resin beads were used here instead of polystyrene beads because they
589 generated larger radiation-pressure force magnitude due the higher refractive index. Carboxyl functionalization
590 ensured that the probe beads adhered to the collagen matrix rather than freely floating inside the pores. Three
591 polymerization protocols were implemented to form collagen matrices with different fibre architecture. The C1 sample
592 was polymerized at 37 °C for 45 min to form a relatively uniform distribution of fine collagen fibre network. The C2
593 sample was polymerized at 22 °C (room temperature) for 45 min to promote formation of thicker collagen fibres with
594 more heterogeneous distribution. The C3 sample was polymerized at 4 °C for 15 min, 20 °C for 15 min, then 37 °C
595 for 15 min to form the most heterogeneous fibre architecture with the thickest collagen fibres⁶.

596 Cell-seeded fibrin constructs consisted of NIH-3T3 fibroblasts in 3D fibrin hydrogels. The cells were maintained
597 in tissue culture flasks with media consisting of Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Life Technologies,
598 11965092) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Life Technologies, 16170086) and 1% penicillin-
599 streptomycin (PS, Life Technologies, 15140122). Fibrin hydrogels were prepared with bovine fibrinogen (Sigma-
600 Aldrich, F8630) solution in DMEM without serum and antibiotics, at a final concentration of 2.5 mg/mL. NIH-3T3
601 cells and 1.9- μm diameter carboxyl-functionalized melamine-resin beads (microParticles GmbH, MF-COOH-S1000)
602 were added to the fibrinogen solution to achieve a final cell density of 7×10^4 cells/mL and an average bead spacing
603 of 20 μm , respectively. Lower bead density was utilized here compared to in the collagen matrices to keep the volume
604 fraction of exogenous beads below 1×10^{-4} for live-cell imaging. The mixture was deposited into the sample well of a
605 glass-bottomed petri dish, where polymerization into fibrin was initiated by 2 U of bovine thrombin (Sigma-Aldrich,
606 T4648) pre-aliquoted into the well. The cell-seeded constructs were incubated at room temperature for 5 min followed
607 by 37 °C for 25 min, then, rehydrated with DMEM containing 10% FBS and 1% PS. The LS-pfOCE measurements
608 were performed after 12 hr of incubation at 37 °C.

609

610 **Live-cell imaging protocols**

611 The cell-seeded fibrin constructs were incubated for 12 hr prior to the LS-pfOCE measurements to allow for the cells
612 to naturally spread. In the post-CytoD treatment condition, 50 μL of a 100- μM Cytochalasin D (Sigma-Aldrich, C2618)
613 dissolved in DMSO was administered to the cell-seeded 3D fibrin construct and incubated at 37° C for another 2 hr.
614 Immediately before LS-pfOCE measurements, the sample petri dish was placed inside the stage-mounted incubated
615 bio-chamber. For 3D LS-pfOCE measurements (Fig. 3a-f), a cell with an elongated morphology and roughly oriented
616 along the slow-axis scanning direction was selected for imaging. Guided by a real-time display of the *en face* OCT
617 image, the cell was roughly positioned at the centre of the 80 $\mu\text{m} \times 350 \mu\text{m}$ (fast axis \times slow axis) transverse FOV by

618 translating the sample stage. This FOV allowed the spatial variation in the pericellular space to be captured around
619 the cell, with an extended distance on either side of the cell tips (i.e., major elongated axis of the cell).

620 For dynamic monitoring of the response to CytoD treatment (Fig. 3g–i), time-lapsed LS-pfOCE was performed
621 15 min after adding 20 μL of the 100- μM CytoD to the dish. An elongated cell was likewise located, but instead of
622 positioning the cell at the centre of the FOV, a tip of the cell was positioned adjacent to an 80 $\mu\text{m} \times 26 \mu\text{m}$ (fast axis
623 \times slow axis) transverse FOV along the slow axis. This FOV allowed the spatiotemporal variations in the pericellular
624 space adjacent to the cell tip to be captured every 15 min while the CytoD treatment was taking effect. Two control
625 experiments were performed. For the blank control with CytoD (Supplementary Fig. 9a), 3D fibrin constructs were
626 prepared as described above but without seeding the cells. First, a 3D LS-pfOCE dataset was acquired, then, the CytoD
627 treatment was added (50 μL of a 100- μM CytoD in DMSO solution) before another 3D LS-pfOCE dataset was
628 acquired at approximately the same location. For the cell control with DMSO (Supplementary Fig. 9b), a 3D LS-
629 pfOCE dataset was acquired around a cell as described above. Then, 50 μL of pure DMSO (without CytoD) was added
630 and the sample was left in the bio-chamber for 2 hr before another 3D LS-pfOCE dataset was acquired around the
631 same cell.

633 **Parallel-plate shear rheometry of polyacrylamide gels**

634 Bulk complex shear modulus of each PAAm gel in Fig. 1e was measured with a parallel-plate shear rheometer (TA
635 Instruments, DHR-3) using a 20-mm diameter plate, as described in Ref.³⁷. Polymerization was achieved directly on
636 the rheometer plate by pipetting 200 μL of the activated polymer solution (i.e., after adding 10% APS and TEMED)
637 onto the bottom plate. The gap was set 500 μm and the excess polymer solution was carefully removed. The sample
638 was sealed on the side with mineral oil to prevent evaporation. Polymerization was monitored in a time-sweep
639 oscillatory test at oscillation frequency of 1 rad/s and shear strain of 0.5%. All samples were left to polymerize for 60
640 minutes, during which the stabilization of shear moduli was confirmed. Then, a frequency-sweep oscillatory test was
641 performed at the oscillation frequency ranging from 1-50 Hz and applied torque of 10 $\mu\text{N}\cdot\text{m}$. A total of 5
642 measurements were made for each PAAm concentration.

644 **Confocal reflectance microscopy of collagen matrices**

645 The confocal reflectance images in Fig. 2c were obtained with a Zeiss LSM 710 laser-scanning confocal microscope,
646 operating in the reflection mode at 488 nm with C-Apochromat 40x/1.2 water-immersion objective. The images were
647 taken at a transverse FOV of 106 $\mu\text{m} \times 106 \mu\text{m}$ with transverse resolution of 250 nm. Each image was averaged over
648 16 *en face* planes. The collagen fibrous structures were then segmented by thresholding at 80 percentile of pixel values
649 in each image. To further enhance the collagen contrast, the processed images were gamma-corrected with a
650 coefficient of 0.4. All shown confocal images share the same grey colour scale. Image data was processed in Python
651 v3.7.7.

653 **Analysis of micromechanical heterogeneity in collagen matrices**

654 The micromechanical heterogeneity measured in sample C3 by LS-pfOCE was correlated to the microstructural
655 architecture of the collagen matrix in Fig. 2e. Three OCT image metrics were computed within a local volume
656 encompassing a 3- μm radius around each bead to serve as the surrogate measures of the microstructural characteristics
657 of the bead microenvironment. First, the probe beads were removed from the 3D OCT image via a magnitude-based
658 segmentation and dilation of the binary mask. Then, spatial voxels that were located $\leq 3 \mu\text{m}$ distance away from the
659 nearest circumference of each bead were collected. Three statistical metrics were computed from the collection of
660 spatial voxels around each bead:

- 661 1) 0.95 quantile of OCT intensity (“Q95” in Fig. 2e), 2) provided a surrogate measure for collagen fibre
662 thickness since thicker fibre generates higher OCT scattering intensity,
- 663 2) mean OCT intensity (“Mean” in Fig. 2e) provided a surrogate measure for local collagen density since the
664 presence of more collagen fibres generated an overall higher OCT scattering intensity,
- 665 3) standard deviation of OCT intensity (“Std” in Fig. 2e) provided a surrogate measure for collagen matrix
666 heterogeneity (e.g., a porous microenvironment next to a thick fibre would produce a large Std of the OCT
667 intensity).

668 Spearman rank correlation coefficients and *p*-values between the bead-wise *G'* and *R* measured by LS-pfOCE and the
669 three local image metrics are indicated on Fig. 2e. (Although linear fit lines were plotted to guide the visualization of

670 the trends, the reported correlation results represent the Spearman rank correlation and not the linear regression.) All
671 analysis was implemented in MATLAB 2017a.

672

673 **Analysis of cell-mediated spatiotemporal variations in ECM micromechanical properties**

674 For the analysis of spatial variations in the micromechanical properties in the pericellular space (Fig. 3f), the distance
675 r from each probe bead to the cell body was defined as the length of the shortest line connecting the centroid of the
676 bead to a point on the surface of the cell. The cell body (i.e., white cell structure in Fig. 3a–c) was segmented from
677 the 3D BM-mode image with a previously described method based on temporal speckle contrast to distinguish the
678 dynamic cellular structures from the static fibrin background³⁷. (Here, standard deviation of OCT magnitude image
679 was computed across temporal BM-mode frames instead of the ‘burst’ of 8 OCT volumes in Ref.³⁷.) To calculate G'
680 and R as a function of r , the beads were grouped based on the distance r , with each group spanning 3 μm . The error
681 bars were calculated as 95% confidence interval for the mean value in each distance group with Student's t -distribution.
682 The curve fit in the inset of Fig. 3f was conducted by least square polynomial fit over the domain of $r \leq 30 \mu\text{m}$. This
683 portion of the analysis was implemented in Python v3.7.7.

684 For time-lapse monitoring immediately after adding the CytoD treatment, the cumulative bead displacement S
685 reported on Fig. 3g–i was computed from the spatial coordinates of the bead centroid $\mathbf{r}_c = (x_c, y_c, z_c)$ at each time
686 point, after correcting for the bulk sample shift. The x component of the cumulative displacement of the m^{th} bead at
687 the n^{th} time point was computed from:

688

$$689 \Delta x_c(t_n; m) = \sum_{i=2}^n \left[x_c(t_i; m) - x_c(t_{i-1}; m) \right] - \frac{1}{N} \sum_j^N \left[x_c(t_i; j) - x_c(t_{i-1}; j) \right], \quad (3)$$

690

691 where N denotes the total number of beads in the field-of-view. The inner summation term represents the bulk shift,
692 estimated as the mean displacement of all beads between each adjacent time points. The y and z components of the
693 cumulative bead displacement were computed in the same manner. The signed cumulative displacement of the m^{th}
694 bead at the n^{th} time point was computed from the displacement vector $\Delta \mathbf{r}_c = (\Delta x_c, \Delta y_c, \Delta z_c)$ by:

695

$$696 S(t_n; m) = \text{sgn}[\Delta_{\text{major}}(t_n; m)] \|\Delta \mathbf{r}_c(t_n; m)\|, \quad (4)$$

697

698 where $\text{sgn}[\Delta_{\text{major}}]$ denotes the *sign* of the major $\Delta \mathbf{r}_c$ component (i.e., Δx_c , Δy_c or Δz_c), defined as the largest component
699 of the directional displacement vector, $(|\Delta x_c|, |\Delta y_c|, |\Delta z_c|) / \|\Delta \mathbf{r}_c\|$, averaged across all beads and time points. The beads
700 were divided into three groups based on their S values at the last time point to visualize the temporal variations of G'
701 and R in Fig. 3g–i. This portion of the analysis was implemented in MATLAB 2017a.

702

703 **Statistical analysis**

704 For PAAm gels, Welch's t -test was implemented to test the difference between group means of LS-pfOCE
705 measurements and shear rheometry measurements in both 3T1C and 3T2C PAAm gels in Fig. 1e. For collagen
706 matrices, two-tail Spearman rank correlation was computed to test the correlation between LS-pfOCE measurements
707 and local OCT image metrics in sample C3. The correlation was considered significant at 95% confidence level; the
708 p -values are reported on Fig. 2e. For 3D live-cell imaging study, Welch's t -test for equality of group means and
709 Levene's test for equality of variances were implemented to test the difference in group means and variances between
710 3D LS-pfOCE measurements under the normal and CytoD conditions, respectively. The difference was considered
711 significant at 95% confidence level; the p -values are reported in Fig. 3e. For time-lapsed dynamic monitoring of
712 response to cytoD, two-tail Pearson linear correlation was computed between cumulative change in LS-pfOCE
713 measurements and cumulative bead displacements. The correlation was considered significant at 95% confidence level;
714 the p -values are reported on Fig. 3g. All statistical tests were implemented in Python v3.7.7 except the analysis of
715 correlations, which were implemented in MATLAB 2017a.

716

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722

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729

730 **Author contributions**

731 Y.L. and N.L. constructed the LS-pfOCE system. Y.L. conducted all LS-pfOCE measurements. N.L. developed LS-
732 pfOCE reconstruction procedure and processed all data. J.C.L. maintained cell culture and prepared collagen matrices
733 and fibrin constructs for live-cell imaging study. Y.L. and N.L. wrote the manuscript. All authors helped revise the
734 manuscript.

735

736 **Competing interests**

737 The authors declare the following competing interests: N.L. and S.G.A. are listed as inventors on U.S. Patent No.
738 US10072920B2 and US10197379B2. Y.L., N.L., and S.G.A are listed as inventors on U.S. Provisional Patent
739 Application No. 62/968,961.

