Kilohertz-rate two-photon voltage imaging of population dynamics *in vivo*

Min Zhang[1,2#], Shoupei Liu[1,2#], Yaoguang Zhao[1,2], Yanfeng Zhu[1,2], Xinyang Gu[3,4], Cihang Kong[1],

Jiahao Hu[1,2], Huiyun Yu[5], Jingchuan Wu[3,4], Fang Xu[6], Liang Chen[3,4], Ying Mao[3,4], Bo Li[2,7*]

[1]Jinshan Hospital, MOE Frontiers Center for Brain Science, Institutes for Translational Brain Research, Fudan University, Shanghai 200032, China

[2]School of Psychology, Institute of Chinese Cultural Psychology, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Shanghai 200030, China.

[3]Department of Neurosurgery, Huashan Hospital, Shanghai Medical College, Fudan University, Shanghai 200040, China.

[4]National Center for Neurological Disorders, Shanghai, China.

[5]Department of Pharmacology, School of Basic Medical Sciences, Fudan University, Shanghai 200032, China.

[6]Interdisciplinary Center for Brain Information, Brain Cognition and Brain Disease Institute, Shenzhen Institutes of Advanced Technology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shenzhen, 518055, China.

[7]Jinshan Hospital, Huashan Hospital, Institutes for Translational Brain Research, Fudan University, Shanghai 200032, China.

[#]These authors contributed equally: Min Zhang, Shoupei Liu.

*Correspondence: bo-li@sjtu.edu.cn (B.L.)

Abstract

Understanding how neural circuits compute requires capturing voltage dynamics across large neuronal populations with millisecond resolution *in vivo*. However, two-photon voltage imaging remains fundamentally limited by a trade-off among imaging speed, field of view, and excitation efficiency. We introduce HS2PM, a hybrid scanning two-photon microscope that overcomes this bottleneck, enabling kilohertz-rate imaging over a $650 \times 524 \ \mu m^2$ field of view at single-cell resolution while preserving the photon efficiency of single-point excitation. HS2PM stably records deep-layer membrane potentials from over 160 neurons simultaneously, with minimal photobleaching and phototoxicity. It resolves both spikes and subthreshold voltage dynamics *in vivo*, revealing how these jointly shape sensory adaptation and population coding. Beyond voltage imaging, HS2PM supports high-speed fluorescence lifetime and vascular flow imaging, establishing a multimodal platform for dissecting fast circuit dynamics with precision previously inaccessible to optical methods.

Introduction

Neural circuits compute at millisecond timescales, coordinating rapid voltage changes across distributed neuronal populations. Capturing these fast dynamics *in vivo* is essential for understanding how brain activity underlies behavior[1,2]. While calcium imaging has revolutionized population-scale neural recording[3,4], its inherently slow kinetics obscure the fast electrical signals that drive synaptic integration and action potentials[2,5,6].

Two-photon voltage imaging (TPVI) with genetically encoded voltage indicators (GEVIs) offers a path toward high-speed, deep-tissue recordings of membrane potential[7–13]. However, efforts to scale TPVI to large populations remain constrained by a three-way trade-off between imaging speed, field of view (FOV), and excitation efficiency. Parallelized approaches such as multi-point[7,14], line[15], or light-sheet[16,17] scanning increase acquisition rates by distributing excitation across space, but they sacrifice photon efficiency, increase laser power demand[18], and introduce cross-talk in scattering tissue[7]. In contrast, single-point scanning maximizes signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) and the number of sampled neurons[18–20], but it is limited by the speed of mechanical deflection systems[21–23].

To overcome these limitations, we developed HS2PM, a hybrid scanning two-photon microscope that integrates high-speed scanning with photon-efficient single-point excitation. This system achieves kilohertz-rate imaging across a $650 \times 524 \ \mu m^2$ FOV at single-cell resolution. HS2PM enables stable, high-SNR recordings from over 160 neurons in awake mice, reaching depths of 700 μm with minimal phototoxicity. It resolves both spikes and subthreshold voltage dynamics *in vivo*, revealing how they jointly contribute to sensory adaptation and population coding. In addition to voltage imaging, HS2PM supports high-speed fluorescence lifetime and

56 vascular flow imaging, offering a versatile platform for multimodal interrogation of circuit

57 dynamics at millisecond resolution.

Results

Overcoming the speed-efficiency bottleneck

TPVI is fundamentally limited by a trade-off between excitation efficiency and imaging speed.

Single-point scanning provides high efficiency but limited speed, whereas parallel strategies

improve speed at the expense of per-focus efficiency and fidelity in scattering tissue. This

efficiency loss is particularly detrimental for voltage imaging, where the photon budget is already

tight due to membrane-localized GEVIs and millisecond-scale dynamics. A theoretical analysis

(Supplementary Note 1) showed that, even under ideal single-point conditions, voltage imaging

would require more than 50-fold greater laser power than calcium imaging to achieve comparable

discriminability index (d'). When parallel strategies further divide excitation across multiple foci,

the effective power requirement multiplies[18], rapidly driving the system beyond safe limits ($\leqslant$250

mW at 920 nm[24]). Together, these considerations establish that voltage imaging fundamentally

requires single-point excitation to maximize efficiency, while speed gains must instead be realized

through innovations in scanning architecture.

HS2PM overcomes the speed bottleneck of single-point scanning, achieving kilohertz-rate

imaging across a large population-scale FOV. This is enabled by a hybrid scanning architecture

that combines fast angular encoding with high line-rate deflection (Fig. 1a; Extended Data Fig. 1).

First, an electro-optic deflector (EOD) angularly encoded the 80 MHz pulse train, cycling every

four pulses to generate four spatiotemporally indexed points (Fig. 1b). These were further

expanded by a spatiotemporal division multiplexing (STDM) module, which split each pulse into

four time-staggered replicas, yielding 16 spatiotemporally indexed points at an effective sampling

Fig. 1 Hybrid scanning architecture and optical design of HS2PM. a, Optical layout of the HS2PM system. An 80 MHz femtosecond (fs) laser (920 nm) beam is first angularly encoded by an EOD. It is then split into four time-delayed replicas by the STDM module and scanned along the *x*- and *y*-axes by a polygon and galvo scanner, respectively. This enables 916 Hz raster imaging over a 650 × 524 μm² FOV, with fluorescence collected via a dual-channel wide-angle detection system. **b**, Angular encoding by the EOD generates four spatially offset pulses from the 80 MHz pulse train. **c**, Polarization beam splitters (PBSs), half-wave plates (HWPs), and achromatic delay lines in the STDM module replicate each pulse into four delayed beams (~3 ns spacing). **d**, The polygon scanner scans all 16 beams to produce 16 lines per facet. A continuous-wave (CW) laser and photodiode (PD) generate synchronization clocks for scan alignment. **e**, Bidirectional galvo scanning fills the *y*-axis gaps between four-line clusters, producing 544 lines per frame.

f, Excitation pattern per frame, covering the full FOV. **g**, Comparison with other single-point scanning TPVI systems shows HS2PM achieves the largest FOV at near-kilohertz frame rates. **h**, Comparison of emission collection strategies. The custom-designed collection system achieves higher collection efficiency than conventional epi-fluorescence relays within ± 8°. **i**, FLIM mode. STDM channels are reconfigured to generate two temporally offset intensity windows per pixel. Lifetime is estimated from their intensity ratio using a pre-calibrated lookup table.

clock of 320 MHz (Fig. 1c). A 36-facet polygon scanner rotating at 54,945 rpm then provided a base line rate of ~33 kHz. Scanning the 16 indexed points generated 16 lines, with an effective line rate of 527 kHz (Fig. 1d). Finally, a bidirectionally driven galvo performed *y*-axis scanning to generate 544 lines per frame (Fig. 1e). Together, this architecture enabled 916 Hz across 571 × 544 pixels (650 × 524 μm^2 FOV; Fig. 1f; see also Extended Data Fig. 2 for pixel order map). Among previously reported fast point-scanning systems capable of voltage imaging[11,20,25–27], HS2PM achieves the largest FOV and the highest sampling speed at kilohertz frame rates (Fig. 1g; Supplementary Table 1).

HS2PM substantially improves photon detection efficiency to boost SNR and depth penetration. Conventional epi-fluorescence relays, typically comprising one or two lenses[7,11,28], capture only a small fraction of the multiply scattered emission emerging from the objective back aperture at large angles. In HS2PM, we replaced this relay with a three-lens condenser coupled to a custom frustum-of-cone light guide (CFCL), which improves the photon collection efficiency within ± 8° and achieves an overall detection efficiency >80% (Fig. 1h; Extended Data Fig. 3). This configuration substantially increases the number of scattered photons reaching the detector, thereby improving SNR and extending the usable imaging depth at a given excitation power.

HS2PM can also be reconfigured for high-speed fluorescence lifetime imaging (FLIM), enabling *in vivo* estimation of indicator fluorescence lifetimes. In this mode, the STDM output is configured to two active channels, and for each pixel we acquire two temporally separated

sampling windows: one corresponding to the prompt emission and the other delayed by

approximately 1.56 ns (Fig. 1i; Extended Data Fig. 4b). The fluorescence lifetime at each pixel is

then derived from the ratio of the two intensity values, based on the exponential decay kinetics of

the fluorophore. Although disabling two STDM channels reduces spatial throughput and halves

the accessible FOV, this FLIM mode enables quantitative *in vivo* estimation of indicator

fluorescence lifetimes, broadening HS2PM's functionality beyond intensity imaging.

HS2PM integrates a streamlined data-processing pipeline that preserves millisecond

dynamics and enhances neuron identifiability at scale (Extended Data Fig. 5). Raw frames are first

rearranged to restore raster images using a pixel-wise order map (Extended Data Fig. 2), with an

additional correction for odd-even offsets from bidirectional galvo scanning. STDM crosstalk is

then demixed to suppress signal contamination when fluorescence lifetimes exceed the sampling

interval (see Methods). Finally, VolPy[29] is used for motion correction, denoising and robust spike

extraction. This end-to-end pipeline ensures high-fidelity voltage readout, enabling reliable

population-scale imaging with millisecond precision.

Stable and deep-layer population voltage imaging with minimal phototoxicity

HS2PM stably resolves millisecond-scale voltage dynamics from large populations of cortical

neurons *in vivo*, overcoming the long-standing difficulty of maintaining high-SNR recordings

hundreds of micrometers below the cortical surface[6]. Using a soma-targeted voltage indicator

(ASAP5-Kv[12]) in awake, head-fixed mice, we imaged a 650×524 μm^2 FOV with a $16\times$ 0.8 NA

objective, identifying 165 neurons in a single plane at 490 μm depth under 200 mW excitation

(Fig. 2a). Voltage traces from these neurons exhibited robust action potentials with peak $-\Delta F/F$

amplitudes of ~35% on average (Fig. 2b). Low-pass filtering revealed subthreshold fluctuations,

Fig. 2 HS2PM enables stable, deep-layer, and long-duration population voltage imaging in awake mouse cortex. a, Time-averaged projection of an *in vivo* ASAP5-Kv-labeled image recorded at 490 μm depth in sensory cortex. FOV: 650 × 524 μm² (571 × 544 pixels), acquired at 916 Hz using 920 nm excitation at 200 mW post-objective (Nikon 16×, 0.8 NA). Scale bar, 100 μm. **b**, Representative -ΔF/F

voltage traces (gray) from indexed neurons in **a**, showing robust spike events (black ticks) and subthreshold

fluctuations (red). **c**, Raster plot of detected spikes from 165 simultaneously imaged neurons, aligned with

the average population firing rate (gray) and its low-pass filtered trace (red). **d**, Example of an individual

spike waveform captured in raw fluorescence, exhibiting high temporal resolution and clear peak structure.

e, ACGs of neurons with ≥20 spikes (each row), indicating the ± 2.2 ms ISI. Bottom histogram: population-

averaged ACG. **f**, Time-averaged projection of ASAP5-Kv-labeled neurons across cortical depths (150-700

μm) captured in a 373×300 μm^2 FOV using an Olympus 25×, 1.05 NA objective. Image size: 571×544

pixels. Scale bar, 100 μm. **g**, Representative $-\Delta F/F$ voltage traces (gray) and subthreshold components (red)

from neurons at various depths in **f**. **h-k**, Quantification of spike $-\Delta F/F$, d', spike SNR and bleaching rate.

l, One-hour continuous imaging using ASAP5 ($n = 61$ neurons, 2 FOVs, 2 animals) and JEDI-2P ($n = 55$

neurons, 2 FOVs, 2 animals) shows stable performance with < 35% bleaching under 200 mW excitation.

Shaded region, s.d. **m**, Immunostaining of HSP-70/72 to assess photodamage. Three cortical regions (white

box)—the imaged area, contralateral control region, and surgical injury site—show no significant damage

in the imaged area. Scale bar, 500 μm. **n**, Quantification of relative HSP-70/72 expression in imaged and

injured regions, normalized to contralateral control ($n = 3$ animals; Welch's t test; *$p < 0.05$, ns = not

significant). Error bars: s.e.m.

including slow-wave dynamics distinct from suprathreshold spikes. At the population level, spike

raster plots revealed coordinated activity (Fig. 2c, top), and the population-averaged firing rate

exhibited rhythmic fluctuations (Fig. 2c, bottom). We analyzed population activities from one of

our experimental animals, which exhibited more distinct synchronized spiking that was tightly

phase-locked to the oscillation cycles (Extended Data Fig. 6). Similar membrane oscillations have

previously been observed from neurons in sensory cortex[30]. Single-neuron traces exhibited

stereotyped action potential waveforms, with a rapid depolarization followed by a clear after-

hyperpolarization, consistent with refractory periods (Fig. 2d). Autocorrelogram (ACG) analysis

across the recorded neurons yielded inter-spike interval distributions of approximately ± 2.2 ms

(Fig. 2e), confirming the millisecond precision of HS2PM recordings *in vivo*.

HS2PM also maintains high-fidelity voltage recordings across cortical layers, achieving

reliable spike detection down to 700 μm depth. With a higher NA objective (25×, 1.05 NA; FOV

$373 \times 300\ \mu m^2$), we captured population-level voltage dynamics spanning layers 1-5 and part of

layer 6 (Fig. 2f). Voltage traces from neurons at all depths exhibited robust action potentials (Fig.

2g). Spike -$\Delta F/F$ amplitudes remained consistently high across depths ($\geq$22% on average; Fig. 2h)

and showed a slight increase with depth. Spike detection was highly reliable across depths.

Although d' declined modestly and quasi-linearly from 150 μm to 700 μm, the mean value

remained ~3.5, and at 700 μm it was still >3 (Fig. 2i), corresponding to a high probability of

detection[31]. Spike SNR was largely preserved (~5) across cortical layers (Fig. 2j), and bleaching

rates remained low <0.012 s^{-1} (Fig. 2k). These results confirm that HS2PM preserves reliable spike

detection and signal fidelity in deep cortical layers.

Finally, HS2PM enables long-duration population imaging with minimal bleaching and

negligible phototoxicity, overcoming a critical barrier to extended *in vivo* voltage recordings.

Continuous 1-h recordings at 200 mW in six mice (three expressing ASAP5-Kv and three JEDI-

2P[13]) produced only a modest ~35% fluorescence decline (Fig. 2l), indicating stable performance

with limited bleaching. To further assess phototoxicity, we examined HSP-70/72 expression.

Immunostaining revealed no detectable increase in the imaged regions compared to contralateral

controls ($n = 3$, $t = 1.385$, $p = 0.2440$, Welch's t test; Fig. 2m, 2n), whereas strong staining was

evident at surgically injured sites caused by head restraint ($n = 3$, $t = 4.194$, $p = 0.0248$). Together,

these results establish HS2PM as a robust platform for high-fidelity, long-duration voltage imaging

in vivo, combining stable population recordings with minimal bleaching and negligible

phototoxicity.

Resolving spikes and subthreshold dynamics during sensory processing

Large-scale calcium imaging has revealed transient reorganizations of cortical population activity

during sensory responses[32]. Yet the slow kinetics of calcium indicators obscure the millisecond

voltage transients that drive these dynamics, leaving the relative roles of spikes and subthreshold

fluctuations unresolved. Using HS2PM, we directly imaged *in vivo* voltage responses to sensory

stimulation, capturing both suprathreshold spiking and subthreshold membrane dynamics with

millisecond precision.

HS2PM revealed that sustained sensory stimulation drives a rapid and coordinated spiking

response across cortical populations. We applied a 3-s continuous air puff (Fig. 3a, top) to head-

fixed mice and imaged neuronal voltage dynamics in sensory cortex with a 25× 1.05 NA objective

at 355 µm depth (Fig. 3b; 200 mW). Analysis of 9-s voltage traces showed that responsive neurons

generated nearly synchronous spikes at stimulus onset (Fig. 3c). This activation was reflected in

normalized spike-rate heat maps from 297 neurons in two mice (Fig. 3d), where population-

averaged firing rates rose abruptly to ~9.5 Hz and peaked ~62.6 ms post-stimulus before relaxing

to baseline. Response-latency mapping (Fig. 3e) revealed substantial cell-to-cell variability, yet all

activations occurred within 223 ms. Across the entire population, latency histograms exhibited a

unimodal peak at 115.6 ms (Fig. 3f), consistent with rapid neuronal adaptation and feed-forward

drive[33]. Statistical analyses confirmed that, compared to the period without air puff, the air-puff

period showed both an overall increase in spike rate (Fig. 3g) and a modest rise in pairwise

correlations (Fig. 3h). Finally, three-dimensional principal component analysis (PCA) trajectories

showed a clear transition from pre- to post-stimulus states (Fig. 3i), indicating a pronounced

reorganization of cortical activity.

Repeated stimulation revealed a dissociation between spiking adaptation and stable

subthreshold dynamics. We applied a 10 × 1-s air puffs within 20 s (Fig. 3a, bottom), across five

trials per FOV. Each puff evoked an immediate spike-rate increase, with the strongest response

Fig. 3 HS2PM resolves rapid cortical voltage dynamics during sensory processing. a, Schematic of the two air-puff stimulation paradigms. **b**, Time-averaged image of neurons expressing ASAP5 in sensory cortex (355 μm depth) acquired at 916 Hz (25×, 1.05 NA). **c**, Representative voltage traces from indexed neurons in **b**, showing spikes (black ticks) and subthreshold signals (red) aligned to stimulus onset. **d**, Normalized spike rates of 297 neurons from 2 mice reveal rapid, synchronized responses following stimulus onset; population average shown below. **e**, Latency map of responsive neurons color-coded by time to first evoked spike; see also **f**, histogram of response latencies (peak at ~116 ms). **g**, Spike rates significantly

increased post-stimulation (****$p < 0.0001$, paired t-test). **h**, Pairwise Pearson's correlation coefficients of

spike trains also increased after stimulation. **i**, PCA of population spiking activity revealed a clear trajectory

shift following stimulus onset. **j-k**, Repeated stimuli evoked robust initial spiking (**j**) but stable subthreshold

responses across trials (**k**). **l-m**, Both spikes and subthreshold signals increased during stimulation and

returned to baseline. **n**, Classifiers trained on subthreshold signals outperformed those based on spike rates

in decoding stimulus identity (SVM accuracy: 64% vs. 55%). **o**, Air puff increased neuron-population

synchrony in both spike rate and subthreshold domains (****$p < 0.0001$, 2-way ANOVA). **p-q**, K-means

clustering based on subthreshold dynamics yielded more cohesive and interpretable response types

(Calinski-Harabasz score: 1527 vs. 1030). **r**, Subthreshold-based clusters exhibited distinct adaptation

patterns across repeated stimuli: Type 1 neurons remained responsive, while Types 2/3 adapted and Type

4 was non-responsive. Scale bars: 100 μm in **b** and **e**. Shaded region in **l-n**, s.e.m.

during the first puff and progressively attenuated activity thereafter (Fig. 3j). In contrast,

subthreshold voltage traces exhibited reproducible -$\Delta F/F$ transients for every puff, with amplitudes

remaining stable across repetitions (Fig. 3k). At the population level, both spike rates and

subthreshold signals rose physically at puff onset and decayed back to baseline (Fig. 3l and 3m),

confirming consistent stimulus encoding across suprathreshold and subthreshold domains.

Quantitative analyses further highlighted the informational advantage of subthreshold signals:

support vector machine (SVM) classifiers trained on subthreshold traces outperformed those based

on spike-rate vectors (64.01 ± 4.42 % vs. 54.61 ± 4.54 %, Fig. 3n), and both spike and subthreshold

correlations with the surrounding population increased significantly during stimulation (r_{rate} =

0.0327 ± 0.0019 vs. 0.0074 ± 0.0008; $r_{sub} = 0.1515 \pm 0.0038$ vs. 0.0573 ± 0.0016; $p < 0.0001$; Fig.

3o). Together, these results demonstrate that while spikes adapt under repeated stimulation,

subthreshold dynamics remain robust, supporting enhanced network-level coordination.

Subthreshold activity provided a more reliable basis for classifying functional response types.

We applied unsupervised k-means clustering to neurons grouped by either spike-rate profiles or

subthreshold voltage dynamics. Both approaches partitioned the population into four functional

classes. Subthreshold-based clustering produced higher intra-cluster cohesion, as quantified by the

Calinski-Harabasz (CH) score (1527 vs. 1030; Fig. 3p,q), and produced distributions that were

more consistent with biologically interpretable response types (Type 1-4: $n_1 = 210$, $n_2 = 82$, $n_3 =$

60, $n_4 = 233$ in Fig. 3p vs. $n_1 = 158$, $n_2 = 254$, $n_3 = 97$, $n_4 = 76$ in Fig. 3q). We therefore adopted

the subthreshold classification for subsequent analyses. The four classes exhibited distinct

response patterns to repeated air puff stimuli (Fig. 3r): Type 1 neurons responded robustly to every

puff, Type 4 neurons remained largely inactive, and Types 2 and 3 showed strong initial responses

that rapidly attenuated with repetition. These results demonstrate that subthreshold-based

clustering yielded higher fidelity and revealed functional heterogeneity in neuronal adaptation to

repeated stimuli.

Together, HS2PM resolves millisecond-scale reorganization of cortical activity and reveals

how spikes and subthreshold dynamics jointly contribute to population coding, providing insights

into sensory processing that remain inaccessible with calcium imaging.

Population-scale vascular imaging and high-speed fluorescence lifetime imaging

HS2PM enables population-scale vascular imaging by overcoming the one-vessel limitation of

conventional two-photon line-scanning approaches[34,35]. Whereas traditional methods restrict flow

measurements to a single vessel, the near-kHz frame rates of HS2PM provide the temporal

resolution needed for high-throughput analysis of flow velocity and diameter across many vessels

simultaneously. To demonstrate this capability, we labeled the cerebral vasculature in mice with

Rhodamine-B and recorded vascular fluorescence at 916 Hz, using a 25× objective at 90 μm depth

(100 mW; Fig. 4a). Millisecond-resolved traces from two representative vessel segments revealed

flow fluctuations with average velocities of 0.0875 mm/s and 0.0935 mm/s, respectively (Fig. 4b).

Fig. 4 HS2PM enables high-speed population-scale vascular imaging and pixel-resolved fluorescence lifetime mapping. a, Time-averaged projection of vasculature labeled with Rhodamine-B at 100 μm depth. Two vessel segments (ROIs) are traced for flow analysis. **b**, Flow velocity fluctuations over 5 s from the two vessel ROIs. **c**, Kymographs showing RBC movement as diagonal streaks. **d**, Vessel diameter extracted by Radon transform and FWHM. **e**, Positive correlation between vessel diameter and flow velocity ($n = 33$ vessels). **f-g**, FLIM calibration curves and color-coded map linking fluorescence lifetime to intensity ratio (ξ) across dual time-offset channels (see methods for details). **h-i**, Prompt and delayed emission frames of ASAP5-expressing neurons (185 μm depth) and Texas Red-labeled vasculature (90 μm depth). **j-k**, Corresponding pixel-resolved lifetime maps. **l-n**, Lifetime contrast across vessel cross-section reveals elevated lifetime within lumen; fluctuations and spatial profile are consistent with erythrocyte flux. **o**,

Summary of lifetime measurements across indicators: Texas Red, Rhodamine-B, and ASAP5 (n = 86, 86,

58 ROIs). Scale bars: 50 μm in **a** and **h**, 100 μm in **i**.

Spatiotemporal kymographs visualized red blood cell movement as diagonal streaks (Fig. 4c),

while vessel diameter was extracted from fluorescence cross-sections using Radon transform and

defined as the full-width at half-maximum (FWHM; Fig. 4d). Across 33 vessel segments, HS2PM

enabled simultaneous quantification of flow velocity and vessel diameter, revealing a positive

correlation between the two metrics (R^2 = 0.3188; Fig. 4e), consistent with physiological

expectations. These results establish the feasibility of population-scale vascular flow

measurements with HS2PM.

HS2PM extends beyond intensity imaging by enabling high-speed, pixel-resolved FLIM. We

implemented a dual-channel ratio method in which fluorescence was acquired in two temporally

offset sampling windows, corresponding to prompt and delayed emission (Extended Data Fig. 4b).

The ratio ζ between these signals directly encodes fluorescence lifetime based on exponential

decay kinetics (Fig. 4f), thereby converting conventional intensity images into quantitative, pixel-

resolved lifetime maps (Fig. 4g). Applying this approach, we resolved lifetime contrasts in both

neurons and vasculature. ASAP5-labeled neurons and Texas Red-labeled vessels produced distinct

peak and faded intensity images (Figs. 4h,i), which were converted into pixel-resolved lifetime

maps (Figs. 4j,k). In vessel cross-section, lifetime mapping revealed clear contrasts between

intravascular and extravascular regions: the vessel lumen exhibited fluctuating lifetimes, whereas

surrounding tissue showed consistently short values (~0.58 ns; Fig. 4l,m,n), consistent with

endogenous autofluorescence. Finally, quantitative analysis across regions of interests (ROIs)

confirmed robust fluorophore-specific lifetimes: Texas Red- and Rhodamine-B-labeled

vasculature exhibited mean values of 3.57 ± 0.07 ns and 1.50 ± 0.10 ns, respectively, while

ASAP5-expressing neurons showed 2.72 ± 0.01 ns (mean ± s.e.m.; Fig. 4o), consistent with prior

benchmarks[36–38].

Discussion

We present HS2PM, a hybrid scanning two-photon microscope that resolves the long-standing

trade-off between imaging speed, FOV, and excitation efficiency in TPVI. By preserving the

photon efficiency inherent to single-point excitation while achieving kilohertz frame rates across

a population-scale FOV, HS2PM enables reliable *in vivo* recording of both spiking and

subthreshold voltage dynamics with single-cell and one-millisecond resolution.

This study introduces a conceptual and technical framework that redefines the design

constraints of TPVI. Through theoretical modeling, we demonstrate that the fundamental

limitation lies not only in scanning speed but also in photon flux under the biological power ceiling.

Our analysis shows that within realistic power limits, single-point excitation offers the most

practical route to achieving sufficient excitation efficiency for reliable voltage detection

(Supplementary Note 2). This underscores that excitation efficiency is as critical as frame rate.

Based on this insight, we developed a hybrid scanning strategy that overcomes the intrinsic speed

limit of point scanning. Operating near the theoretical upper bound imposed by fluorophore

lifetimes of approximately 3 nanoseconds, HS2PM achieves kilohertz-rate imaging at 320 MHz

effective sampling without compromising FOV, thereby achieving the highest sampling rate and

the largest FOV among existing single-point scanning methods[11,20,25–27]. The resulting square-

format population-scale imaging field allows seamless adaptation of established calcium imaging

paradigms to voltage imaging. In addition, the same temporal multiplexing framework supports

high-speed fluorescence lifetime imaging, enabling kilohertz-rate lifetime mapping without

requiring electro-optic gating[39] while also integrating deep, fast, and quantitative voltage imaging

within a single system.

By scaling voltage imaging to the population level, HS2PM enables circuit-level analyses

that were previously limited to calcium imaging, but with millisecond precision sufficient to

resolve both action potentials and subthreshold membrane fluctuations *in vivo*. This capability

allows direct dissection of how spikes and subthreshold dynamics jointly shape sensory adaptation,

network coordination, and population coding. These results provide new experimental access to

fundamental questions in systems neuroscience, for example how neural circuits compute[40], how

subthreshold activity contributes to collective dynamics[41,42], and how excitatory and inhibitory

inputs interact to shape cortical responses[42], questions that have remained inaccessible with

calcium imaging alone.

Several limitations remain. The fluorescence lifetime of existing GEVIs ($\sim$3 ns)[38] restricts

further gains in temporal multiplexing and introduces signal crosstalk[43], necessitating demixing

algorithms for correction. In addition, the 36-facet polygon scanner imposes a physical constraint

on FOV, though recent two-pass geometries suggest this could be expanded up to twofold[27].

Biologically, variable GEVI expression levels and the absence of demonstrations in chronic or

freely moving models remain critical challenges to broader application.

Future directions include pairing HS2PM with next-generation voltage indicators that offer

shorter lifetimes, enhanced brightness, or red-shifted spectra. This would further improve imaging

speed, depth, and multiplexing capabilities. Beyond neuronal populations, HS2PM may be applied

to vascular dynamics, neuron-glia interactions, and all-optical physiology. The system provides a

flexible platform for multimodal interrogation of neural circuits. With continued development,

HS2PM has the potential to achieve population-scale millisecond-resolved imaging of brain

activity in both healthy and diseased states. This positions voltage imaging to fulfill a

transformative role in neuroscience research comparable to that of two-photon calcium imaging

over the past two decades.

Methods

HS2PM microscope

We simulated and optimized the placement of optical components using Zemax OpticStudio

software (Zemax LLC). The complete design was then assembled in a 3D SolidWorks

environment to verify there was no component interference. Custom aluminium holders and

frames were machined for rigid mounting of the optics. A detailed schematic of the HS2PM setup

is shown in Extended Data Fig. 1 (see the animated rendering in Supplementary Video 1), with

components listed in Supplementary Table 2. A 920-nm, 2-W fiber laser (ALCOR920, Sparks

Lasers; 100-fs pulse duration, 80-MHz repetition rate) was used. The laser spot was focused onto

the sample via optical scanning devices, relay lenses and an objective (CFI75 LWD 16X W, Nikon;

16×/0.8 NA). The $1/e^2$ beam diameter at the back aperture is ~5.31 mm, leading to an excitation

NA of ~0.28. A 1.05 NA objective (XLPLN 25xWMP2, Olympus; 25×) was used for higher-

resolution voltage imaging with an excitation NA of ~0.46. The post-objective power was

controlled by the acousto-optic modulator (AOM) integrated in the laser.

The EOD (Model 400-120, Conoptics; 8.5 μrad/V deflection efficiency) was driven by an

amplifier (Model 25A, Conoptics) synchronized to the laser clock. An arbitrary waveform

generator (AWG; including PCI-8361, PXIe-8360 and PXIe-1062Q; National Instruments) output

20 MHz periodic waveforms, switching the voltage applied to the EOD every 12.5 ns. By cycling

through four distinct voltage levels, the EOD deflected successive laser pulses into four

longitudinal positions. These beams then entered the multiplexing module, which further split each

into four spatially separated channels via a combination of time- and space-division multiplexing.

This produced four vertical excitation points per scanning region, totaling 16 aligned points across

the full FOV.

The multiplexing module consisted of three half-wave plates (HWP; 2 × WPH05M-915, 1 ×

WPH10M-915, Thorlab), three polarizing beam splitter cubes (PBS; PBS105, Thorlabs), eight

lenses, and several mirrors. Three HWPs were individually placed before each PBS to balance

optical power across the four output paths. The STDM module employed four sets of achromatic

doublets (listed in Supplementary Table 2), with each set arranged in a 4F configuration and

optimized with channel-specific focal lengths. Differential path lengths of 900 mm between

adjacent channels introduced ~3 ns inter-pulse delays, raising the effective pulse repetition rate to

320 MHz. This value was chosen to approach the theoretical limit for single-point excitation,

which is set by the fluorescence lifetime of the indicators at a ~3 ns inter-pulse interval[38], and to

minimize fluorescence crosstalk. To minimize aberrations across the FOV, the EOD and

multiplexing module were mounted on an inclined metal plate tilted at ~1.465° (Extended Data

Fig. 1d), ensuring symmetric beam arrangement relative to the subsequent optical axis. Due to

small inter-channel angles and proximity to the beam convergence point, the second lens in the

first channel was trimmed into a 3.5-mm-wide strip to avoid obstructing adjacent beams (Extended

Data Fig. 1e).

The output beam from the multiplexing module was first reduced in diameter by a two-lens

group and reimaged onto a 36-facet polygon scanner (SA34, Lincoln Laser) rotating at 54,945 rpm

(916 Hz). The imaging frame rate matched the polygon rotation frequency. The beam was then

relayed to a galvanometer scanner pair (6215H, Cambridge Technology). The Galvo-X scanner

performed *y*-axis scanning, with its deflection angle set by inter-channel angular differences. To

improve speed and stability, Galvo-X scanner operated in a vertical bidirectional scanning mode

at half the frame rate (top-down for odd frames, bottom-up for even frames), minimizing flyback

dead time (see Supplementary Fig. 1). Galvo-Y scanner remained stationary during voltage

imaging due to its slower response. The last two facets of each polygon rotation were allocated to

accommodate Galvo-X flyback, resulting in 34 effective scanning facets per frame. It was

multiplied by 16 through the combined action of the EOD and STDM, yielding a total of 544 scan

lines covering a 524 μm vertical FOV per frame.

To reduce system cost, two identical TTL200MP lenses (Thorlabs) were used as the scan and

tube lenses. A dichroic mirror (DM$_1$; FF735-Di02-25x36, Semrock) transmitted excitation light to

the objective while reflecting fluorescence toward the detection path. A second dichroic mirror

(DM$_2$; FF552-Di02-25x36, Semrock) then split the fluorescence into two spectral channels. Each

channel was equipped with a photomultiplier tube (PMT; H7422-40, Hamamatsu) coupled to an

amplifier (C11184, Hamamatsu; DC-300 MHz), and signals were digitized at 2.56 GHz using a

vDAQ™-HS system (Vidrio Technologies).

In addition to kilohertz voltage imaging, the HS2PM system supported low-frame-rate and

bright-field imaging modes. For low-frame-rate scanning, the system switched to a conventional

two-photon mode: the polygon scanner and EOD were disabled, and only one channel in the

multiplexing module remained open, while the Galvo-X and Galvo-Y scanners worked in tandem.

This configuration provided a large FOV of 2.06 × 2.06 mm^2 (1024×1024 pixels, 1.71 Hz,

Supplementary Fig. 2a), enabling rapid target identification after which the system could switch

back to kHz voltage imaging of the region of interest (see Supplementary Video 2 for comparison).

The system also offered a bright-field imaging mode, where an LED source was used. Under

remote control, the movable mirror (MM; Extended Data Fig. 1c) could be moved into the path

between the scan and tube lenses, blocking the 920 nm laser and directing LED light to the

objective. Simultaneously, DM_1 was removed from the optical path, allowing sample-reflected

light to reach the eyepiece or CCD camera for bright-field visualization.

Optimized fluorescence collection system

The dichroic mirror split the collected fluorescence into two channels, each equipped with a

bandpass filter (FF01-593/46, FF01-520/35-25, Semrock). Both channels featured identical optical

assemblies. Fluorescence exiting the objective's back aperture first passed through a 75 mm focal

length plano-convex lens (LA1386-A, Thorlabs; Ø38.1 mm). The beam then traversed a second

plano-convex lens (LA1274-A, Thorlabs; $f = 40$ mm, Ø30 mm) and an aspheric condenser lens

(ACL25416U-A, Thorlabs; $f = 16$ mm, Ø25.4 mm), spaced 1 mm apart. This dual-lens

configuration coupled the fluorescence to a custom conical frustum light guide (front surface

Ø5.85 mm, back surface Ø4.45 mm). A critical innovation involved integrating the CFCL into the

7.4 mm pathway between the PMT's front window and its internal protective window. For

assembly, the 8.5 mm long CFCL was coaxially bonded to a glass disc (Ø14 mm, 1 mm thickness).

An annular spacer was first placed at the original PMT window position to create a buffer zone.

The CFCL-disc assembly was then inserted into the pathway, with UV-curable adhesive used to

co-axially bond the PMT housing, spacer, and glass disc.

We performed Zemax non-sequential ray-tracing simulations of fluorescence emission at

varying angles from the objective's back aperture. The simulations utilized an Embedded Monte

Carlo approach, tracing 5×10^5 rays per angle at a wavelength of 550 nm. Collection efficiency at

each emission angle was determined as the ratio of optical power recorded by the detector to the

1-W input power (Extended Data Fig. 3).

Fluorescence crosstalk characterization

To quantify temporal and spatial crosstalk in scattering tissue, we imaged a cranial-window-

implanted mouse expressing ASAP5. For each measurement, only one scanning region was

excited at ~50 mW by enabling a single channel of the multiplexing module, while fluorescence

was collected from all four channels. This procedure was repeated sequentially for each of the four

channels. At each imaging depth from 150 to 700 μm below the pial surface (in 50 μm steps),

10,000 frames were acquired at 916 Hz, and average intensity images were generated (see

Extended Data Fig. 7a). It should be noted that while the schematics in Fig. 1 and Extended Data

Fig. 2 illustrate four scanning regions (A-D) for conceptual clarity, the actual spatiotemporal

arrangement of the four channels after the multiplexing module is shown in Extended Data Fig.

7a, where channels 1-4 represent the true scanning sequence and spatial layout. Pixels within the

excited subregion corresponding to ASAP5 fluorescence were defined as those whose intensities

ranked among the top 5%. To quantify crosstalk, the mean intensity of these bright pixels in the

excited subregion was compared to the mean intensity of spatially corresponding pixels in each

non-excited subregion. The crosstalk percentage was calculated as the ratio of the non-excited to

excited mean intensities (see Extended Data Fig. 7b).

Synchronization and data acquisition

A complete synchronization diagram of the scanning and acquisition system is provided in

Extended Data Fig. 8. Polygon scanner synchronization was achieved using a 780-nm reference

laser (LM15-780, Lbtek) focused via a plano-convex lens (LA1484-A, Thorlabs) onto the polygon

mirror (Extended Data Fig. 1f). The reflected beam was detected by a photodiode (S2506-02,

Hamamatsu) mounted on a dedicated circuit board (3-1-5248-900-00, Cambridge Technology),

which generated a TTL start-of-line (SOL) pulse at each polygon facet transition. This SOL pulse

triggered the data acquisition system, ensuring temporal alignment between the scanning trajectory

and signal digitization. The laser clock was synchronized with the SOL signal, galvanometer

drivers, AWG, and acquisition card to generate raw data frames that were subsequently

reconstructed into spatially accurate images.

The high-speed acquisition system could sample each laser pulse 32 times, but the data

acquisition setting was configured differently for voltage imaging and FLIM modes. In voltage

imaging, acquisition windows for the four multiplexed channels were strategically aligned to

capture each channel's peak signal. Each window spanned 4 consecutive sampling points within

the 32-point pulse cycle, separated by 4-point intervals to minimize inter-channel crosstalk

(Extended Data Fig. 4a). This configuration enabled full-FOV imaging at 916 Hz. In FLIM mode,

the system was reconfigured to estimate fluorescence lifetimes *in vivo* by blocking two non-

adjacent multiplexing channels (e.g., channels 2 and 4), effectively imaging half of the full FOV.

The remaining two active channels operated with a 6.25 ns pulse interval. Each pixel was acquired

by two sampling windows: one capturing the prompt intensity and the other capturing the intensity

after a 1.5625 ns delay (Fig. 1i; Extended Data Fig. 4b). The intensity ratio between these windows

was then used for pixel-wise lifetime calculation.

FLIM

Given that fluorescence emission follows an exponential decay, we use τ to represent fluorescence

lifetime, and the fluorescence intensity $F(t)$ can be expressed as $F_0 e^{-t/\tau}$. Fluorescence was

simultaneously sampled by two contiguous, width-matched detection windows, producing two

subareas' images corresponding to the prompt (P) and delayed (D) intensity:

$$\begin{cases} F_{\mathrm{P}} = \int_0^T F(t)dt \\ F_{\mathrm{D}} = \int_T^{2T} F(t)dt \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where T presents the equal-time ~1.5625 ns during each sampling window. The intensity ratio ξ between the two adjacent sampling windows directly correlates with the fluorescence lifetime:

$$\xi = F_{\mathrm{D}} / F_{\mathrm{P}} = e^{-T/\tau} \quad (2)$$

Therefore, the two-subarea pair encoded nanosecond time information in their intensity ratio. The relationship curve between ξ and τ is shown in Fig.1i. We can compute the lifetime values for each pixel using this intensity ratio, and the principle is similar to existing wide-field lifetime imaging techniques[39].

Animal preparation

All mice used were male and of a C57BL/6JNifdc background, purchased from Charles River Co., Ltd. All mice were socially housed in the Animal Facility at the Department of Laboratory Animal Science at Fudan University under a 12 h light/dark cycle (lights on 08:00, off 20:00) and room temperature with food and water ad libitum. All animal experiments were conducted in accordance with the guidelines of the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the Department of Laboratory Animal Science at Fudan University (2022JSITBR-013, 2024-JSYY-035). *In vivo* voltage imaging data in this study were collected from 9 wild-type mice, six eight-week-old male mice were injected with pAAV-CaMKiia-ASAP5-Kv (a generous gift from Michael Z. Lin in Stanford University) in the sensory cortex (2/1.5 mm left medial-lateral and -1.06 mm anterior-posterior to lambda), and the other three were injected with AAV-CaMKii-JEDI-2P-Kv in the same site at the same age. The microinjection pump (KDS 130, KD Scientific) was used to inject at a rate of 50 nl/min at each viral injection site, with a total volume of 200 nl using

a 10 μl Hamilton syringe (Model 701N). For visualization of GEVI-labeled neurons via

fluorescence microscopy, the mice underwent cranial window implantation surgery after 2 months

for sufficient expression of the indicators. In brief, mice aged 4 months were anesthetized with

1~2% isoflurane (RWD Life 524 Science #R510-22-10) and head-fixed in a stereotaxic apparatus,

then a 4 mm circular craniotomy was made using a high-speed dental drill over the virus injection

position. A glass window made of a single coverslip customized by us was flushed with the skull,

and sealed by a tissue adhesive (VetBond, 3M). A stainless-steel head- fixator was then firmly

attached to the skull with dental acrylic and cyanoacrylate adhesive (ergo, 5800). Implanted mice

were allowed a one-week recovery period, during which they received daily intraperitoneal

injection of Dexamethasone (ST1254, Beyotime Biotechnology) and Cefazolin (Shanghai Macklin

Biochemical Technology #HY-B0712A). Both drugs were prepared as 0.5 mg/ml solutions, and

each mouse was injected 0.1 ml of each drug. Two-photon calcium imaging was conducted in a 6-

month-old male transgenic CaMKii-Cre::Ai162 mice derived from the crossbreeding of CaMKii-

Cre (#C001015, from Cyagen Biosciences) and Ai162 mice (#031562, from Jackson Labs). All

surgical procedures and pharmacological manipulations followed the same protocol used for the

voltage indicator-labelled mice, except that a 6-mm-diameter craniotomy was made over the

central brain region. Mice were then adapted to head fixation for 30 mins per day over one week

before imaging. After imaging experiments, unless specified, experimental animals were

euthanized by CO_2 asphyxiation followed by cervical dislocation.

***In vivo* voltage imaging**

Voltage imaging was performed on awake, head-fixed mice using a total excitation power of

200 mW (measured post-objective). To characterize the imaging depth of HS2PM, spontaneous

neuronal activity was recorded at 50 μm intervals starting from 150 μm below the pial surface until

the signal could no longer be clearly resolved. At each depth, 10-second movie was acquired at

916 Hz for subsequent analysis of depth-dependent signal characteristics.

For sensory-evoked voltage recordings, two distinct whisker stimulation paradigms were

applied contralateral to the imaged hemisphere. The first paradigm consisted of alternating periods

of 3 s baseline, 3 s air-puff stimulation, and another 3 s post-stimulation, forming a single 9-s

imaging trial. Each mouse was imaged across three different FOVs, with 10 trials recorded per

FOV. The second paradigm featured transient whisker stimulation during 20-s continuous imaging

sessions, using repeated 1-s air puffs with 1-s inter-stimulus intervals. For this paradigm, five trials

were acquired per FOV across three FOVs per mouse. All stimuli were delivered at ~30 psi through

a 20-gauge blunt needle positioned 1-2 cm from the mouse's face.

Image processing and analysis

The HS2PM image processing workflow consists of the following steps: raw data

rearrangement, crosstalk removal, motion correction, denoising and extraction of neuronal voltage

traces (Extended Data Fig. 5). Each raw data frame initially contained 2284 × 34 pixels. Each raw

frame represented one of four multiplexed scanning regions within the full FOV. To reconstruct

complete frames, four consecutive raw frames were combined into a 571 × 544 composite image

at the system's native 916 Hz acquisition rate. Since the system employed bidirectional Galvo-X

scanning—with opposite scanning directions for odd and even frames—a correction algorithm was

applied during frame rearrangement to eliminate jitter artifacts caused by the alternating scan

orientations. A custom algorithm was developed to remove crosstalk arising from the STDM

scheme. This crosstalk was observed between temporally adjacent channels and negligible

between non-adjacent channels. The relationship between the measured signal in each channel

(CH$_i$, i=1, 2, 3, 4) and the underlying crosstalk-free signal (P$_j$, j=1, 2, 3, 4) was modeled as a linear

mixing process:

553
$$\begin{cases} CH_1 = P_1 + \alpha_4 P_4 \\ CH_2 = P_2 + \alpha_1 P_1 \\ CH_3 = P_3 + \alpha_2 P_2 \\ CH_4 = P_4 + \alpha_3 P_3 \end{cases}$$
(3)

in which α_i is the crosstalk ratio of each temporal adjacent channel. The demixed crosstalk-free

frame was obtained by solving the equations, and the images before and after crosstalk demixing

process were presented in Extended Data Fig. 5c and 5d for comparison. The original crosstalk

ratios were determined by the measured crosstalk in Extended Data Fig. 7, and then optimized

during the demixing process. Neurons were identified and selected manually on the averaged

images. Finally, the Volpy algorithm was used for motion correction, denoising and extracting

neuronal voltage activity traces.

For voltage imaging data analyses, -$\Delta F/F$ was calculated as the negative fractional change in

fluorescence relative to the baseline level. The fluorescence baseline was obtained by applying a

rolling percentile filter (50%, 500-ms window) to the mean-intensity trace of the ROI. We

classified optically identified action potentials (APs) as voltage transients only if they were labeled

as spikes by the VolPy algorithm and their peak -$\Delta F/F$ exceeded 2.5 times the standard deviation

of the voltage trace within a 20-frame (~21.84 ms) rolling window centered on the spike.

Subthreshold -$\Delta F/F$ was calculated through the application of a 20-Hz, 5th-order Butterworth

lowpass filter to the -$\Delta F/F$ voltage trace. Spike rate traces were obtained by applying a rolling 20-

ms window on the -$\Delta F/F$ voltage traces and calculating the spike rate within this window.

Alongside the -$\Delta F/F$ traces, the SNR traces were calculated as the ratio of ΔF (the functional

change in fluorescence) to $\sqrt{F}$ (Poisson noise). The neuronal spike SNR was determined by

averaging the SNR values at the time points of identified spikes. Photobleaching rate was

quantified as the slope of a linear fit to the normalized fluorescence decay relative to its initial

intensity. For sensory-evoked responses, neuronal latency was defined as the interval from

stimulus onset to the first subsequent action potential. For calcium indicator-labeled neurons, the

baseline fluorescence was calculated as the mean intensity of the initial 30% of each recording

trace. All statistical analyses were conducted using MATLAB (R2022b, MathWorks) or built-in

tests in SPSS (v20, IBM).

Photobleaching

Photobleaching measurements were conducted using the HS2PM on male adult mice with

implanted cranial windows. The tissue was scanned and imaged at a frame rate of 916 Hz using a

total laser power of 200 mW at the sample, and the scanning imaging was performed continuously

for 60 min. ROIs were extracted manually. Each data point in Fig. 2l corresponded to the mean

fluorescence intensity of every 50th frame across one session of imaging. Photobleaching rates

were determined by normalizing all data points to the first data point.

Photodamage

Three adult mice injected with virus and implanted with cranial windows were used for the

experiments. The laser exposure location was selected away from the viral injection sites: we first

found labeled neurons by using the microscope and then moved the stage until no neurons were

found in the FOV. For each photodamage session, continuous laser scanning was performed for 1

hour at a total power of 200 mW. Twenty hours after laser exposure, mice were anesthetized with

1% pentobarbital sodium and transcardially perfused with heparinized saline (20 U/mL), followed

by 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA). Cranial windows were removed to expose the cortex. Brains were

postfixed in 4% PFA at 4 °C overnight, then sequentially cryoprotected in 20% and 30%

sucrose/PBS solutions, and sectioned into slices with the thickness of 25 μm using a vibratome.

To assess photodamage after 1 h of continuous imaging through immunostaining, brain slices were

first incubated in blocking solution (5% normal donkey serum/PBST, where PBST was PBS

supplemented with 0.3% Triton X-100) for 1 hour. Slices were then incubated with the primary

antibody (monoclonal antibody against HSP70/HSP72, Enzo Life Sciences #ADI-SPA-810,

diluted at 1:400) at 4 °C overnight, followed by labeling with the secondary antibody (Alexa

Fluor® 594 AffiniPure® Donkey Anti-Mouse IgG (H+L), Jackson #715-585-151) for 2 hours at

room temperature. Slices were mounted with Antifade Mounting Medium containing DAPI

(Beyotime Biotechnology #P0131). Olympus SLIDEVIEW VS200 was used to image the slices

with Olympus OlyVIA software. Photodamage was assessed by comparing antibody labeling

intensity in the laser-exposed region and its corresponding area in the contralateral hemisphere.

Fluorescence intensity was measured in three cortical regions per slice: the laser exposure site, a

contralateral control area at least 1 mm away from the laser exposure site (to account for potential

effects of chronic window implantation or virus injection unrelated to laser exposure), and the

surgically injured region for chronic window implantation. For each region, relative fluorescence

was calculated by taking the ratio of its average fluorescent intensity to that of the control area.

Data analysis was performed using Welch's t test ($n = 3$ mice).

Neural decoding and clustering

To assess how population activity encodes air puff stimuli, we trained linear SVM decoders[44] on

two representations: population spike-rate vectors and subthreshold $\Delta F/F$ traces. Data were

collected from 3 mice (9 FOVs, 5 trials per FOV). For each trial, we extracted neural activity from

1 s before to 1 s after stimulus onset and assigned binary labels (1 = puff, 0 = no puff). Within each

trial we slid a 20-ms window in 10-ms steps. In every time window, we evaluated the average

activity of each neuron at each trial. We used the standard LIBSVM toolkit[45] and fed the SVM

module with neural activity and binary label. Training and testing were performed using a 10-fold

cross-validation procedure. Data were divided into 10 equally sized and disjoint sets; in each fold,

one of the sets (10% of the data) was used for testing, and the remaining 9 sets (90% of the data)

were used for training the classifier. In each fold, the SVM regularization parameter was

determined using a grid-search optimization using another (internal) 10-fold partition of the

training data. Overall, the 10-fold cross-validation testing process resulted in 10 accuracy rates per

time bin.

For k-means clustering in Figs. 3q and 3r, we divided the temporal traces into two stages

(during air puff stimulus and without stimulus), and used the standard deviations of spike rate and

subthreshold electrical activity during corresponding stages as features for each neuron. PCA

method is first used to reduce the feature dimensionality from 4 to 3. We then used k-means method

to separate neurons into four different clusters based on the features, after which the clustered

groups of neurons can be precisely distinguished.

***In vivo* vascular imaging and blood flow velocity measurement**

Two wild-type mice were used for vascular imaging. Both were briefly anesthetized with

isoflurane before retro-orbital injection with fluorescent solutions (200 μL each, 5% w/v): one

mouse received 70-kDa dextran-conjugated Texas Red, and the other was injected with 70-kDa

dextran-conjugated Rhodamine B. The mice were then head-fixed under the objective lens, and

kilohertz intensity images were recorded for blood flow velocity measurement, while half-FOV

images were recorded for calculating and comparing different fluorescence lifetimes.

Structural images were acquired for 5 s using the TPVI system at a frame rate of 916 Hz and

a post-objective power of 200 mW via a 25× Olympus objective. First, to better analyze the

temporal changes in blood flow and fluorescence lifetime, the raw vascular imaging data were

denoised using the SUPPORT algorithm[46] to eliminate random shot noise. The denoising model

was trained using the raw data acquired by HS2PM, while its hyperparameters adopt the default

parameters of the SUPPORT algorithm. Vessel segments were then manually traced over the

average intensity of the recorded structural images (150 μm below pial surface), and the

kymographs of the vessels were plotted for blood flow velocity calculation. Kymographs were

generated by plotting pixels along the traced blood vessels (horizontal axis) over time (vertical

axis), with dark diagonal streaks resulting from red blood cells (RBCs) moving along the vessel

segment. An automated method developed by Chhatbar and Kara was used to measure the slope

of RBC streaks using Sobel filtering and iterative Radon transforms[47], and then the blood flow

velocity of each segment was calculated every 92 frames (~0.1 s). The diameter of the vessel

segment was measured by extracting the vessel boundary: pixel brightness along a line orthogonal

to the vessel's length was extracted, and the diameter was determined as the distance between the

two edges detected by a Radon transform.

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Resource Availability

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Bo Li (bo-li@sjtu.edu.cn).

Materials availability

This study did not generate new unique reagents.

Data and code availability

All data generated in this study are included in the published article. Datasets and codes are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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Author Contributions

777   Conceptualization: B.L.; methodology: B.L., M.Z., S.P.L., C.H.K, H.Y.; biological experiments:

778   Y.G.Z., Y.F.Z., X.Y.G., H.Y.; Zemax optical simulation: M.Z., J.H.H., F.X.; investigation: B.L.,

779   M.Z., S.P.L., H.Y.; visualization: M.Z., S.P.L.; funding acquisition: B.L., Y.M., L.C., M.Z.;

780   project administration: B.L.; writing: B.L, M.Z., S.P.L., H.Y., Y.G.Z., Y.M., L.C., J.C.W.

Declaration of interests

782   The authors declare no competing interests.

Extended Data Fig. 1 Opto-mechanical design of HS2PM. a-c, SolidWorks renderings of the complete HS2PM system, illustrating integration of optical and mechanical components. Excitation and fluorescence collection beam paths are shown. Insets highlight critical subsystems. **d**, Multiplexing module. The femtosecond laser is split into four beams using three HWPs and PBSs, with each beam routed through a distinct relay lens pair (ML$_1$-ML$_4$) and launched at a unique angle. **e**, Custom strip achromatic lens for

channel 1, machined on both sides to prevent obstruction of adjacent beams. **f**, Start-of-line (SOL) signal

detection: a 780 nm continuous-wave laser is focused onto the polygon scanner via a plano-convex lens

(PL), and reflected signals are captured by a photodiode to generate TTL sync pulses per facet transition.

g, Galvanometer scanner assembly for bidirectional y-axis scanning. **h**, Dual-channel fluorescence

detection system. EOD, electro-optic deflector; SL, scan lens; TL, tube lens; DM, dichroic mirror; MM,

movable mirror; MS, mouse stage; LED, light emitting diode; FL, fluorescence-collection lens; CFCL,

custom frustum-of-cone light guide; PMT, photomultiplier tube.

Extended Data Fig. 2 Schematic of pixel-wise order map of each frame.

Extended Data Fig. 3 Comparison of fluorescence collection systems between conventional and the

optimized design via Zemax optical simulations. a, Schematic 3D layout of a conventional fluorescence

collection system simulated in Zemax. **b**, Simulated collection efficiency of the conventional fluorescence

collection system across different angles. Each angle's efficiency is defined as the ratio of power received

by the detector to the initial 1 W input. **c**, 3D Zemax layout of the optimized fluorescence collection system.

d, Simulated collection efficiency of the optimized system across different angles.

Extended Data Fig. 4 Data acquisition settings and the collected signals of different imaging modes.

a, HS2PM, **b**, HS-FLIM, and **c**, HS2PM recorded free of cross-talk signals of *in vivo* autofluorescence.

Extended Data Fig. 5 Computational pipeline for HS2PM voltage data extraction. a, Overview of the data-processing workflow for extracting neuronal voltage signals from raw imaging data. **b**, Representative raw frame (2,284 × 36 pixels). Only 34 rows are effective per frame, as 2 polygon facets are reserved for glavo turnaround during bidirectional scanning. **c**, Reconstructed raster-scanned image (571 × 544 pixels) after pixel rearrangement and odd-even frame correction. **d**, STDM demixing applied to **c** removes crosstalk across temporally multiplexed channels. **e**, Example -$\Delta F/F$ voltage trace (dark gray) extracted from a neuron identified in **d**. Red trace: subthreshold -$\Delta F/F$; black ticks: detected spikes.

Extended Data Fig. 6 *In vivo* **characterization of neuronal ensemble oscillations at 150 μm depth (related to Fig. 2f). a-b**, Voltage traces and low-pass filtered subthreshold traces from 50 neurons over 10 s. From top to bottom: Heatmap of traces, averaged traces before and after filtered in the δ band (0.5-4 Hz). **c-d**, Cross-correlation matrices of voltage signals and subthreshold activities across all neurons. **e**, Distribution of Pearson's correlation coefficients for spike and subthreshold signals. **f**, Phase-locking value (PLV) matrix among neurons. **g**, Polar plots of spike phase distribution relative to the 0.5-4 Hz membrane potential oscillations across neurons. **f**, Population power spectral density (PSD) of neuronal voltages activities in **a**.

Extended Data Fig. 7 *In vivo* **characterization of multiplexing channel crosstalk across cortical depths.**
a, Depth-resolved images (150-700 μm, in 50 μm steps) of four multiplexed channels. At each depth, four panels show signals detected by all four channels when only a single corresponding channel was unblocked for excitation. **b**, Crosstalk ratios among the four time-division channels as a function of depth, computed from the images shown in **a**. Scale bar: 100 μm.

Extended Data Fig. 8 Synchronization diagram of the scanning and data acquisitions system. DAQ, data acquisition; AWG, arbitrary waveform generator.