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Single-shot Real-time Femtosecond Imaging of Temporal FocusingJinyang Liang^{1,2,†}, Liren Zhu^{1,†} and Lihong V. Wang^{1,*}

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Abstract

While the concept of focusing usually applies to the spatial domain, it is equally applicable to the time domain. Real-time imaging of temporal focusing of single ultrashort laser pulses is of great significance in exploring the physics of the space-time duality and finding diverse applications. The drastic changes in the width and intensity of an ultrashort laser pulse during temporal focusing impose a requirement for femtosecond-level exposure to capture the instantaneous light patterns generated in this exquisite phenomenon. Thus far, established ultrafast imaging techniques either struggle to reach the desired exposure time or require repeatable measurements. We have developed single-shot 10-trillion-frame-per-second compressed ultrafast photography (T-CUP), which passively captures dynamic events with 100-fs frame intervals in a single camera exposure. The synergy between compressed sensing and the Radon transformation empowers T-CUP to significantly reduce the number of projections needed for reconstructing a high-quality three-

24 **dimensional spatiotemporal datacube. As the only currently available real-time, passive**
25 **imaging modality with a femtosecond exposure time, T-CUP was used to record the first-**
26 **ever movie of non- repeatable temporal focusing of a single ultrashort laser pulse in a**
27 **dynamic scattering medium. T-CUP's unprecedented ability to clearly reveal the complex**
28 **evolution in the shape, intensity, and width of a temporally focused pulse in a single**
29 **measurement paves the way for single-shot characterization of ultrashort pulses,**
30 **experimental investigation of nonlinear light-matter interactions, and real-time wavefront**
31 **engineering for deep-tissue light focusing.**

32

33 **Introduction**

34 The space-time duality in optics originates from the mathematical equivalence between paraxial
35 diffraction and dispersive propagation¹. Remarkably, this duality enables one to translate spatial-
36 domain optical techniques to the temporal domain, which has fostered the development of
37 powerful temporal imaging approaches, such as temporal microscopy, to characterize optical
38 signals^{2,3}. Among the many temporal imaging phenomena, temporal focusing, as a time-domain
39 counterpart of spatial focusing, describes an exquisite optical phenomenon — temporal
40 compression of the duration of a chirped laser pulse to the shortest time possible at a designated
41 location⁴⁻⁶. Temporal focusing has been leveraged in the temporal $4f$ processor⁷ and the
42 dispersive Fourier transformer⁸ for analyzing optical waveforms with unprecedented bandwidths.
43 Akin to spatial focusing—confining photons laterally—temporal focusing enables photon
44 confinement in the longitudinal direction. This salient feature has powered depth-sectioning
45 wide-field nonlinear microscopy for neuroimaging⁹. Recently, temporal focusing has been
46 achieved through static scattering media¹⁰, which has sparked interest in deep biomedical

47 imaging. In addition, the strong intensity localization has made it an attractive tool for material
48 processing¹¹, which has led to extensive studies of elusive physics mechanisms of the strong-
49 field interaction with matter¹². Considering the stochastic [e.g., time reversal of dynamic speckle
50 patterns to produce temporal focusing in live biological tissue¹³] and non-repeatable [e.g.,
51 micromachining using temporal focusing in glass¹⁴] nature of these transient phenomena,
52 visualizing temporal focusing in real time (i.e., at its actual time of occurrence) becomes a
53 prerequisite for investigating and further utilizing them. In addition, since the width and intensity
54 of the laser pulse experiences drastic changes during temporal focusing, a femtosecond-level
55 exposure time is required to clearly resolve the evolving instantaneous spatiotemporal details of
56 this phenomenon. Moreover, the nanometer-to-micrometer spatial scales of these transient events
57 demand ultrafast imaging for blur-free observation [e.g., for imaging a light-speed event, an
58 imaging speed of 1 trillion frames-per-second (Tfps) is required for a spatial resolution of 300
59 μm]¹⁵. Finally, since these events are often self-luminescent, a passive (i.e., receive-only)
60 detector is highly desired for direct recording.

61 Existing ultrafast imaging techniques, however, are incapable of providing real-time,
62 femtosecond, passive imaging capability. The current mainstream technique used in ultrafast
63 imaging is based on pump-probe measurements^{16,17}. Although having achieved femtosecond
64 temporal resolution and passive detection, these multiple-shot imaging techniques depend on
65 precise repetition of the targeted ultrafast event during temporal or spatial scanning. Hence, in
66 cases where temporal focusing must be recorded in a single measurement, these imaging
67 techniques are inapplicable.

68 Recently, a number of single-shot ultrafast imaging techniques¹⁸⁻²² have been developed.
69 Among them, active-illumination-based approaches have achieved frame rates at the Tfps level

70 ^{20,21}. However, such approaches are incapable of imaging luminescent transient events, so they
71 are precluded from direct imaging of evolving light patterns in temporal focusing. The
72 requirement of active illumination was recently eliminated by a new single-shot ultrafast imaging
73 modality, termed compressed ultrafast photography (CUP) ²³⁻²⁵. Synergizing compressed sensing
74 and streak imaging, CUP works by first compressively recording a three dimensional (3D, i.e.,
75 x, y, t) scene into a two-dimensional (2D) snapshot and then computationally recovering it by
76 solving an optimization problem. The resultant CUP system can passively receive photons
77 scattered or emitted from dynamic scenes at frame rates of up to 100 billion fps. CUP has been
78 applied to a number of applications, including fluorescence lifetime mapping ²³, real-time
79 imaging of a propagating photonic Mach cone ²⁴, and time-of-flight volumetric imaging ²⁵.
80 However, in these previous studies, the frame interval (defined as the reciprocal of the frame rate)
81 was 10 ps, which has hindered the use of CUP for imaging spatiotemporal details of temporal
82 focusing in the femtosecond regime.

83

84 Results

85 **Principle and system of T-CUP.** To enable real-time, ultrafast, passive imaging of temporal
86 focusing, here, we have developed single-shot trillion-frame-per-second compressed ultrafast
87 photography (T-CUP), which can image non-repeatable transient events at a frame rate of up to
88 10 Tfps in a receive-only fashion. The operation of T-CUP consists of data acquisition and image
89 reconstruction (Fig. 1). For the data acquisition, the intensity distribution of a 3D spatiotemporal
90 scene, $I[m, n, k]$, is first imaged with a beam splitter to form two images. The first image is
91 directly recorded by a 2D imaging sensor via spatiotemporal integration (defined as spatial
92 integration over each pixel and temporal integration over the entire exposure time). This process,

93 which forms a time-unsheared view with an optical energy distribution of $E_u[m, n]$, can be
 94 expressed by

$$E_u[m, n] = \eta \sum_k (h_u * I)[m, n, k], \quad (1)$$

95 where η is a constant, h_u represents spatial low-pass filtering imposed by optics in the time-
 96 unsheared view, and $*$ denotes the discrete 2D spatial convolution operation. Equation 1 can be
 97 regarded as a single-angle Radon transformation operated on $I[m, n, k]$ (detailed in
 98 Supplementary Note 1).

99 The second image is spatially encoded by a pseudo-random binary pattern. Then, the spatially
 100 encoded scene is relayed to a femtosecond shearing unit, where temporal frames are sheared on
 101 one spatial axis. Finally, the spatially encoded, temporally sheared frames are recorded by
 102 another 2D imaging sensor via spatiotemporal integration to form a time-sheared view with an
 103 optical energy distribution of $E_s[m, n]$. This process can be described by

$$E_s[m, n] = \eta \sum_k (h_s * I_C)[f_D, g_D + k, k], \quad (2)$$

104 where h_s represents spatial low-pass filtering in the time-sheared view. $I_C[f_D, g_D + k, k]$ is the
 105 spatially encoded scene. f_D and g_D are the discrete coordinates transformed from m and n ,
 106 according to the distortion in the time-sheared view²⁴. Equation 2 can be regarded as the Radon
 107 transformation of the spatiotemporal datacube from an oblique angle determined by the shearing
 108 speed of the streak camera and pixel size of the sensor (detailed in Supplementary Note 1).

109 Combining the two views, the data acquisition of T-CUP can be expressed by a linear
 110 equation,

$$[E_u, \alpha E_s]^T = [\mathbf{O}_u, \alpha \mathbf{O}_s]^T I, \quad (3)$$

111 where α is a scalar factor introduced to balance the energy ratio between the two views during
 112 measurement, and \mathbf{O}_u and \mathbf{O}_s are the measurement operators for the two views (see Methods and
 113 Supplementary Fig. S1). Thus, T-CUP records a 3D dynamic scene into two 2D projections in a
 114 single exposure.

115 Image reconstruction of the scene can be done by solving the minimization problem of
 116 $\min_I \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|[E_u, \alpha E_s]^T - [\mathbf{O}_u, \alpha \mathbf{O}_s]^T I\|_2^2 + \rho \Phi(I) \right\}$, where $\|\cdot\|_2$ denotes the l^2 norm, $\Phi(I)$ is a
 117 regularization function that promotes sparsity in the dynamic scene, and ρ is the regularization
 118 parameter (detailed in Supplementary Notes 2). The solution to this minimization problem can be
 119 stably and accurately recovered, even with a highly compressed measurement²⁶.

120 The integration of compressed sensing into the Radon transformation drastically reduces the
 121 required number of projections to two. The time-unsheared view, in which the projection is
 122 parallel to the time axis, losslessly retains spatial information while discarding all temporal
 123 information. The time-sheared view, on the other hand, preserves temporal information by
 124 projecting the spatiotemporal datacube from an oblique angle. As a result, these two views, as an
 125 optimal combination, enable one to record an optimum amount of information with the minimum
 126 number of measurements. However, a direct inversion of the Radon transform is not possible in
 127 this case due to the small number of projections and the fact that the linear system (Equation 3)
 128 that needs to be inverted is under-determined. To solve this problem, compressed sensing is used.
 129 Leveraging the sparsity of the scene, as well as the random encoding in the time-sheared view as
 130 prior information, the compressed-sensing-based reconstruction algorithm uses the
 131 regularization-function-guided search to find a unique solution. Our simulation has demonstrated
 132 that this compressed-sensing-augmented two-view projection can retrieve a dynamic scene with
 133 a high reconstruction quality (Supplementary Fig. S2 and detailed in Supplementary Note 3).

134 In practice, T-CUP is embodied in an imaging system (Fig. 2 and detailed in Methods) that
135 uses several key devices to realize specific operations. Specifically, a charge-coupled device
136 (CCD) camera performs spatiotemporal integration, a digital micromirror device (DMD)
137 performs spatial encoding, and the time-varying voltage applied to the sweep electrodes in a
138 femtosecond streak camera accomplishes femtosecond shearing. In addition, a compressed-
139 sensing-based two-view reconstruction algorithm recovers the dynamic scene. The T-CUP
140 system can capture a dynamic scene with spatial dimensions of 450×150 pixels and a sequence
141 depth (i.e., number of frames per movie) of 350 frames in a single camera exposure. The frame
142 rate of the reconstructed video is determined by v/d , where v is the temporal shearing velocity
143 of the streak camera, and d is the pixel size of the internal CCD along the temporal shearing
144 direction. By varying v , the frame rate can be widely adjusted from 0.5 to 10 Tfps. Thus, with
145 single-shot data capture, a tunable ultrahigh frame rate, and an appreciable sequence depth, the
146 T-CUP system is well suited for imaging single-event ultrafast transient phenomena occurring
147 over a wide range of time scales (the characterization of the spatial and temporal resolutions of
148 T-CUP is detailed in Supplementary Fig. S3 and Supplementary Note 4). The T-CUP temporal
149 resolutions for 0.5, 1, 2.5, and 10 Tfps frame rates have been quantified to be 6.34, 4.53, 1.81,
150 and 0.58 ps, respectively.

151 **Imaging temporal focusing of a single femtosecond laser pulse using the T-CUP system.** A
152 typical temporal focusing setup consists of a diffraction grating and a $4f$ imaging system (Fig. 3a).
153 The incident laser pulse is first spatially dispersed by the grating and then collected by a
154 collimation lens. Finally, a focusing lens recombines all the frequencies at the focal plane of the
155 lens (Supplementary Fig. S4 and detailed in Supplementary Note 5). Temporal focusing has two
156 major features: first, the shortest pulse width is at the focal plane of the focusing lens⁴; second,

157 the angular dispersion of the grating creates a pulse front tilt so that the recombined pulse scans
158 across the focal plane⁵. The pulse front tilt angle can be expressed by $\gamma = \tan^{-1}(\lambda_c/Md_g)$ (Refs.
159 27,28), where M is the overall magnification ratio, λ_c is the central wavelength of the ultrashort
160 pulse, and d_g is the grating period. The femtosecond pulse that undergoes temporal focusing
161 presents a complex spatiotemporal profile (Supplementary Fig. S4) that can be revealed only in
162 the captured instantaneous light patterns. Even a picosecond-level exposure time would erase
163 these spatiotemporal details via significant temporal blurring. This speed requirement excludes
164 previous CUP systems²³⁻²⁵ from visualizing this ultrafast optical phenomenon. In contrast, T-
165 CUP can achieve unprecedented real-time visualization with a single camera exposure.

166 We imaged the temporal focusing from both the front and the side (Fig. 3a) at 2.5 Tfps. A
167 collimated femtosecond laser pulse (800 nm central wavelength, 50 fs pulse duration, 1 mm × 3
168 mm spatial beam size) was used to illuminate a 1200 line mm⁻¹ grating. The 4*f* imaging system
169 had a magnification ratio of $M = 1/4$. In theory, the tilt angle for the pulse front at the temporal
170 focusing plane was 75.4°.

171 For front-view detection, T-CUP captured the impingement of the tilted laser pulse front
172 sweeping along the *y*-axis of the temporal focusing plane (Fig. 3b and Supplementary Movie S1).
173 The pulse swept a distance of ~0.75 mm over 10 ps, corresponding to a pulse front tilt of ~76°,
174 which closely matches the theoretical prediction.

175 For side-view detection, weak water vapor was spread as a dynamic scattering medium. T-
176 CUP revealed the full evolution of the pulse propagation across the temporal focusing plane (Fig.
177 3c–d, Supplementary Fig. S5, and Supplementary Movies S1 and S2): a tilted pulse propagates
178 towards the right. As it approaches the temporal focusing plane, the pulse width continuously
179 reduces, manifesting as an increasing intensity. At the temporal focusing plane, the focus of the

180 pulse sweeps along the y -axis at its peak intensity. The evolution after the temporal focusing
181 plane mirrors the preceding process: the pulse width is elongated, and the intensity is
182 continuously weakened. We then quantitatively analyzed the pulse compression effect of
183 temporal focusing. Figure 3e shows the temporal profiles of the laser pulse on the z -axis near the
184 temporal focusing plane, demonstrating the sharp temporal focusing of the laser pulse. Figure 3f
185 shows the pulse duration along the z -axis near the temporal focusing plane. The full width at half
186 maximum of the temporal profile is reduced from 10.4 ps to 1.9 ps—compressed by a factor of
187 5.5. It is notable that the measured pulse width is wider than the incident pulse, which is likely
188 due to dispersion by optical elements and scattering, as well as to the temporal broadening
189 caused by the finite temporal resolution of the T-CUP system.

190 T-CUP is currently the only technology capable of observing temporal focusing in real time.
191 First, the entire process of the imaged temporal focusing event occurred in ~ 10 ps, which equals
192 the previous state-of-the-art exposure time for a single frame²³; hence, it could not be resolved
193 previously. In contrast, T-CUP, using a frame interval of 0.4 ps, clearly resolved the intensity
194 fluctuation, width compression, and structural change of the temporal focusing process. Second,
195 the dynamic scattering induced by the water vapor makes the scattered temporal focusing pulse
196 non-repeatable. In different measurements, the reconstructed results show a difference in spatial
197 shape, compression ratio, and intensity fluctuation. To demonstrate the non-repeatability, another
198 dataset for the sideways detection of temporal focusing is shown in Supplementary Fig. S6.

199 Although the ultrashort laser pulse was dispersed and converged in space by the $4f$ imaging
200 system, it is worth noting that the effect of spatial focusing is limited. As the pulse approached
201 the temporal focusing plane, the beam size fluctuated with a normalized standard deviation of 5.6%
202 over a duration of 4.8 ps (Fig. 3d), while the peak on-axis intensity of the pulse increased

203 approximately five-fold (Fig. 3e). Thus, the intensity increase is caused dominantly by the
204 temporal focusing.

205 **Imaging light-speed phenomena in real time in both the visible and near-infrared spectral**
206 **ranges.** Four fundamental optical phenomena, namely, a beam sweeping across a surface, spatial
207 focusing, splitting, and reflection, were imaged by the T-CUP system in real time (Fig. 4). In the
208 beam sweeping experiment, a collimated near-infrared ultrashort laser pulse (800 nm wavelength,
209 50 fs pulse duration) obliquely impinged on a scattering bar pattern. The T-CUP system was
210 placed perpendicular to the target to collect the scattered photons. (Fig. 4a). Imaging at 10 Tfps,
211 the T-CUP system clearly reveals how the pulse front of the ultrashort laser pulse swept across
212 the bar pattern (Fig. 4b and Supplementary Movie S3).

213 In addition, T-CUP enables real-time video recording of spatial focusing of a single
214 picosecond pulse. This phenomenon has been previously documented by phase contrast
215 microscopy²⁹ and interferometry³⁰ using conventional pump-probe schemes. In contrast, here,
216 T-CUP was used to capture the scattered light intensity in a single measurement. In the setup, a
217 single laser pulse (532 nm wavelength, 7 ps pulse width) was focused by a 10× objective lens
218 into a weakly scattering aqueous suspension. T-CUP imaged this phenomenon at 2.5 Tfps (Fig.
219 4c and Supplementary Movie S4). We analyzed the time course of the light intensity at the
220 spatial focus. After normalization, the intensity profile (Fig. 4d) was fitted by a Gaussian
221 function, $\hat{I}(t) = \exp[-2(t - t_0)^2/\tau_g^2]$, where $t_0 = 24.76$ ps, and $\tau_g = 4.94$ ps. The fitted result
222 yields a 1/e width of 6.99 ps, closely matching the experimental specifications.

223 Imaging at 2.5 Tfps, T-CUP also revealed the spatiotemporal details of the beam splitting
224 process of a single laser pulse (Fig. 4e and Supplementary Movie S5). Impinging on a beam
225 splitter, part of the laser pulse was reflected immediately, while the transmitted portion

226 propagated into the beam splitter and appeared on the other side of the beam splitter after a finite
227 time. To quantitatively analyze the time course of the incident and transmitted pulses, we
228 calculated the average light intensities in the two dashed boxes on both sides of the beam splitter
229 (Fig. 4f). The measured temporal separation between the incident and transmitted pulses was 9.6
230 ps. Given the 2-mm thickness of this float glass beam splitter (refractive index $n = 1.52$ at 532
231 nm) and the incident angle of $\sim 25^\circ$, in theory, the light pulse needs approximately 10 ps to pass
232 through the beam splitter. Thus, our measured result agrees well with the theoretical value. It is
233 also noteworthy that the time latency for the reflected and transmitted pulse (9.6 ps) is beyond
234 the imaging capability of previous techniques²³. T-CUP's unprecedented frame rate reveals for
235 the first time the spatiotemporal details of this transient event.

236 Finally, imaging at 1 Tfps, T-CUP was used to capture the reflection of a laser pulse by two
237 mirrors over a sufficiently long time window (Supplementary Movie S6). In Fig. 4g, the first
238 frame shows that the laser pulse has just entered the field of view (FOV). Subsequent frames
239 show the propagating pulse being reflected by the two mirrors before finally traveling out of the
240 FOV. It is noted that an inhomogeneous distribution of scatterers in the aqueous suspension led
241 to increased scattered light intensity in the frames after 74 ps. For this reason, the pulse visually
242 appears to be larger. However, the pulse width, when quantitatively measured via the cross-
243 sectional full width at half maximum, was comparable to that in the rest of the frames.

244

245 **Discussion**

246 **Current limitations.** The performance of the streak camera, and not the principle of the
247 technique, hinders further increases in frame rate, as well as other important characteristics, such
248 as the spatial resolution and spectral range. The limited performance of the streak camera also

249 impacts the choice of a single-sheared view in the system design (detailed in Supplementary
250 Note 6). Finally, the imaging duty cycle for the T-CUP is currently limited to $5 \times 10^{-9} - 10^{-7}$ due
251 to the modest sweep frequency (100 fps) and the size of the internal sensor of the streak camera.
252 A precise synchronization is therefore necessary to capture transient events within the time
253 window. A new streak tube design and customized optical components would enable future
254 implementations of a lossless-encoding scheme²⁴, which is anticipated to improve the spatial
255 and temporal resolutions in reconstructed images. In addition, the implementations of dual
256 sweep-electrode pairs³¹ and an ultra-large-format camera³² are expected to largely increase the
257 duty cycle with the possibility of even realizing continuous streaming.

258 **Application potential.** Single-shot real-time imaging of temporal focusing is expected to
259 immediately benefit the study of nonlinear light-matter interactions. For example, in
260 femtosecond laser 3D micromachining using transparent media (e.g., glass), it was found that
261 temporal focusing can induce an anisotropic fabrication quality³³ depending on the translation
262 direction of the sample. Thus far, the underlying mechanism for this nonreciprocal writing effect
263 remains elusive. Recent theoretical investigations have indicated a close relation to the plasma
264 dynamics controlled by the tilted pulse front of the temporal focusing pulses³⁴. The T-CUP
265 system can substitute for the low-speed cameras that are currently employed in imaging the
266 laser-glass interaction³⁵. Specifically, by changing the current zoom imaging system to a 20×,
267 high numerical-aperture (NA) objective lens, the microscopic T-CUP system will provide a 10-
268 Tfps frame rate, a 1- μm spatial resolution, and 150- μm FOV at the sample, which is sufficient to
269 simultaneously capture the evolution of a temporally focused pulse and the induced plasma
270 [using a 10×, 0.2-NA objective lens as the focusing lens in Fig. 3(a)]¹⁰. The measured
271 spatiotemporal profiles will be analyzed using the established models³⁶ to investigate how the

272 pulse front tilt and laser pulse energy affect the transient structure, dispersion properties, and
273 spatial density of the induced plasma. The advantages of single-shot and ultrafast imaging will
274 also pave the way for studying the plasma dynamics generated at microscopically heterogeneous
275 locations (e.g., impurities and defects) in these materials.

276 Single-shot real-time imaging of temporal focusing by T-CUP also opens up new routes for
277 spatiotemporal characterization of optical waveforms. Currently, temporal microscopes are often
278 deployed as ultrafast all-optical oscilloscopes² to passively analyze optical waveforms with few-
279 picosecond temporal resolution³⁷ at a specific spatial point. The resolution quantification and
280 imaging experiments in our work have demonstrated that T-CUP, while achieving a comparable
281 temporal resolution, outperforms these oscilloscopes by adding a passive two-spatial-
282 dimensional imaging ability. Thus, the large parallel characterization of T-CUP could enable
283 simultaneous ultrafast optical signal processing at multiple wavelengths for telecommunication³⁸.

284 In metrology, a spatiotemporal microscope developed from T-CUP could be well suited for
285 characterizing spatiotemporally complex ultrashort pulses³⁹. In many time-resolved high-field
286 laser experiments, the laser systems employed usually have low repetition rates. Therefore,
287 single-shot characterization powered by T-CUP is attractive especially for fast and precise
288 alignment of the setup⁴⁰ and for imaging samples that are difficult to be repeatedly delivered⁴¹.

289 In biomedicine, T-CUP holds promise for *in vivo* deep tissue imaging. Living biological tissue
290 is an example of dynamic scattering media with a millisecond-level speckle decorrelation time⁴².
291 Thus far, due to the limited speed of wavefront characterization in existing methods,
292 spatiotemporal focusing beyond the optical diffusion limit has only been realized with static
293 scattering media^{43,44}. In contrast, T-CUP demonstrates single-shot femtosecond imaging of
294 transient light patterns in a dynamic scattering medium (Fig. 3c). By integrating T-CUP with

295 interferometry, it is possible to examine the scattered electric field of a broadband beam, which
296 would assist in the design of phase conjugation of spatiotemporal focusing in living biological
297 tissue. Therefore, our work, as an important step in imaging instrumentation, will open up new
298 routes towards deep tissue wide-field two-photon microscopy, photodynamic therapy, and
299 optogenetics.

300 **Summary.** By improving the frame rate by two orders of magnitude compared with the previous
301 state-of-the-art²³, T-CUP demonstrated that the ever-lasting pursuit of a higher frame rate is far
302 from ending. As the only detection solution thus far available for passively probing dynamic
303 self-luminescent events at femtosecond timescales in real time, T-CUP was used to reveal
304 spatiotemporal details of transient scattering events that were inaccessible using previous
305 systems. The compressed-sensing-augmented projection extended the application of the Radon
306 transformation to probing spatiotemporal datacubes. This general scheme can be potentially
307 implemented in other imaging modalities, such as tomographic phase microscopy⁴⁵ and time-of-
308 flight volumography⁴⁶. T-CUP's unprecedented ability for real-time, wide-field, femtosecond-
309 level imaging from the visible to the near-infrared will pave the way for future microscopic
310 investigations of time-dependent optical and electronic properties of novel materials under
311 transient out-of-equilibrium conditions⁴⁷. With continuous improvement in streak camera
312 technologies⁴⁸, future development may enable a 1 quadrillion fps (10^{15} fps) frame rate with a
313 wider imaging spectral range, allowing direct visualization and exploration of irreversible
314 chemical reactions⁴⁹ and nanostructure dynamics⁵⁰.

315

316 **Materials and methods**

317 **Summary of the principle of operation of T-CUP.** We first derive the expression for the data
 318 acquisition of T-CUP in a continuous model. For data acquisition, T-CUP records the intensity
 319 distribution of the dynamic scene, $I(x, y, t)$, in two projected views (Supplementary Fig. S1 and
 320 detailed in Supplementary Note 1). The first view, termed the time-unsheared view, directly
 321 records the dynamic scene with an external CCD camera (Fig. 2). This recording process is
 322 expressed as

$$E_u = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{F}_u I(x, y, t), \quad (4)$$

323 where E_u denotes the measured optical energy distribution on the external CCD camera, the
 324 linear operator \mathbf{F}_u represents the spatial low-pass filtering in the time-unsheared view, and \mathbf{T}
 325 represents the spatiotemporal integration.

326 The second view, termed the time-sheared view, records the projected view of the
 327 spatiotemporal scene from an oblique angle (Supplementary Fig. S1). Specifically, the dynamic
 328 scene is first spatially encoded by a pseudo-random binary mask, followed by femtosecond
 329 shearing along one spatial axis by a time-varying voltage applied to a pair of sweep electrodes
 330 before the scene is finally spatiotemporally integrated on an internal CCD camera in the streak
 331 camera. Mathematically, the optical energy measured by the internal CCD camera, E_s , is related
 332 to $I(x, y, t)$ by

$$E_s = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{S}_f \mathbf{D}\mathbf{F}_s \mathbf{C} I(x, y, t), \quad (5)$$

333 where the linear operator \mathbf{C} represents spatial encoding, \mathbf{F}_s represents spatial low-pass filtering in
 334 the time-sheared view, \mathbf{D} represents image distortion in the time-sheared view with respect to the
 335 time-unsheared view, and \mathbf{S}_f represents femtosecond shearing.

336 With the two-view projection, the data acquisition of T-CUP can be described as

$$E = \mathbf{O}I, \quad (6)$$

337 where $E = [E_u, \alpha E_s]^T$ and $O = [TF_u, \alpha TS_f DF_s C]^T$ are the measurement and the linear operators
338 in their concatenated forms, respectively. The scalar factor α is the energy calibration ratio
339 between the external CCD camera and the streak camera.

340 For image reconstruction, we discretized Eqs. 4–6 to obtain Eqs. 1–3 (detailed in
341 Supplementary Note 1). Given the known measurement matrix and leveraging the intrinsic
342 sparsity in the dynamic scene, we estimate that the datacube for the transient scene by solving
343 the inverse problem of Eq. 3. In practice, a two-view reconstruction method, aided by the two-
344 step iterative shrinkage/thresholding algorithm, is implemented to recover the image (detailed in
345 Supplementary Note 2). The T-CUP system greatly improved the reconstruction quality
346 compared with a previously reported CUP system²³ (illustrated in Supplementary Fig. S2 and
347 detailed in Supplementary Note 3).

348 **System configuration.** The T-CUP system configuration is shown in Fig. 2. The dynamic scene
349 is first imaged by a zoom imaging system built in-house, which supports tunable demagnification
350 ratios of 2–5 \times . Following the intermediate image, a 50:50 beam splitter sends the incident light
351 in two directions. The reflected beam is recorded by an external CCD camera (Point Grey, GS3-
352 U3-28S4M-C). The transmitted beam is passed onto a digital micromirror device (DMD, Texas
353 Instruments, LightCrafter 3000) by a $4f$ imaging system with a unit magnification ratio. A
354 pseudo-random binary pattern is displayed on the DMD to encode the input image. As a binary-
355 amplitude spatial light modulator, the DMD consists of hundreds of thousands of micromirrors;
356 each mirror can be tilted to either $+12^\circ$ (as “on” pixels) or -12° (as “off” pixels). The light
357 reflected by the “on” pixels is re-collected by the same $4f$ imaging system. After being reflected
358 by the beam splitter, the spatially encoded dynamic scene is projected onto the entrance port of a
359 femtosecond streak camera (Hamamatsu, C6138). To enable time-resolved measurement in two

360 spatial dimensions, the entrance port is opened to its full width (3 mm). Inside the streak camera,
361 the spatially encoded dynamic scene is first relayed to a photocathode that generates a number of
362 photoelectrons proportional to the light intensity distribution. To temporally shear the spatially
363 encoded dynamic scene, a sweep voltage deflects the photoelectrons to different vertical
364 positions according to their time of flight. The deflected photoelectrons are multiplied by a
365 micro-channel plate and then converted back into light by a phosphor screen. Relayed by output
366 optics, the temporally sheared, spatially encoded dynamic scene is captured by an internal CCD
367 camera (Hamamatsu, ORCA-R2) with 2×2 binning (672×512 binned pixels, 12.9×12.9 μm^2
368 binned pixel size). With two-view recording, the light throughput for the T-CUP system is 62.5%.

369

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377

378 **Conflict of interests**

379 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interests.

380

381 **Contributions**

382 J.L. designed and built the system and conducted all the experiments. L.Z. developed the
383 reconstruction algorithm. J.L. and L.Z. analyzed the data and drafted the manuscript. L.V.W.
384 supervised the project. All authors were involved in revising the manuscript.

385

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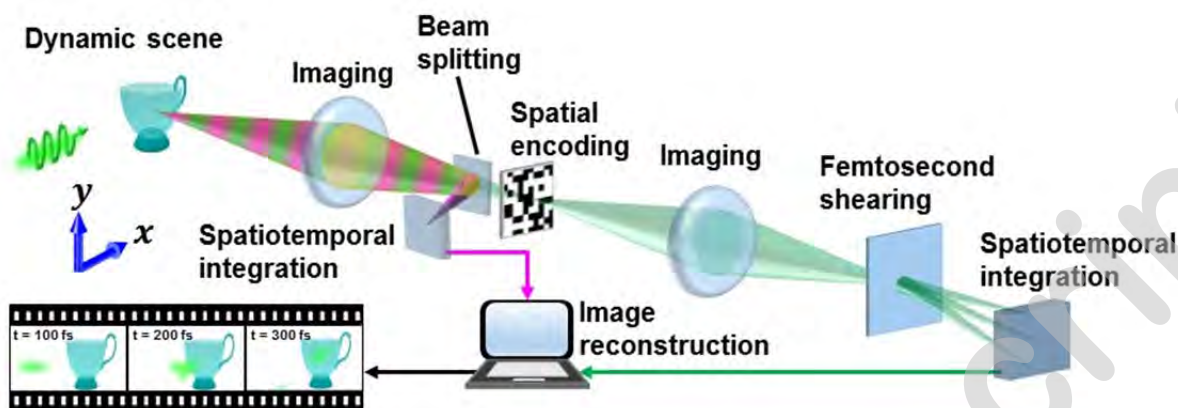
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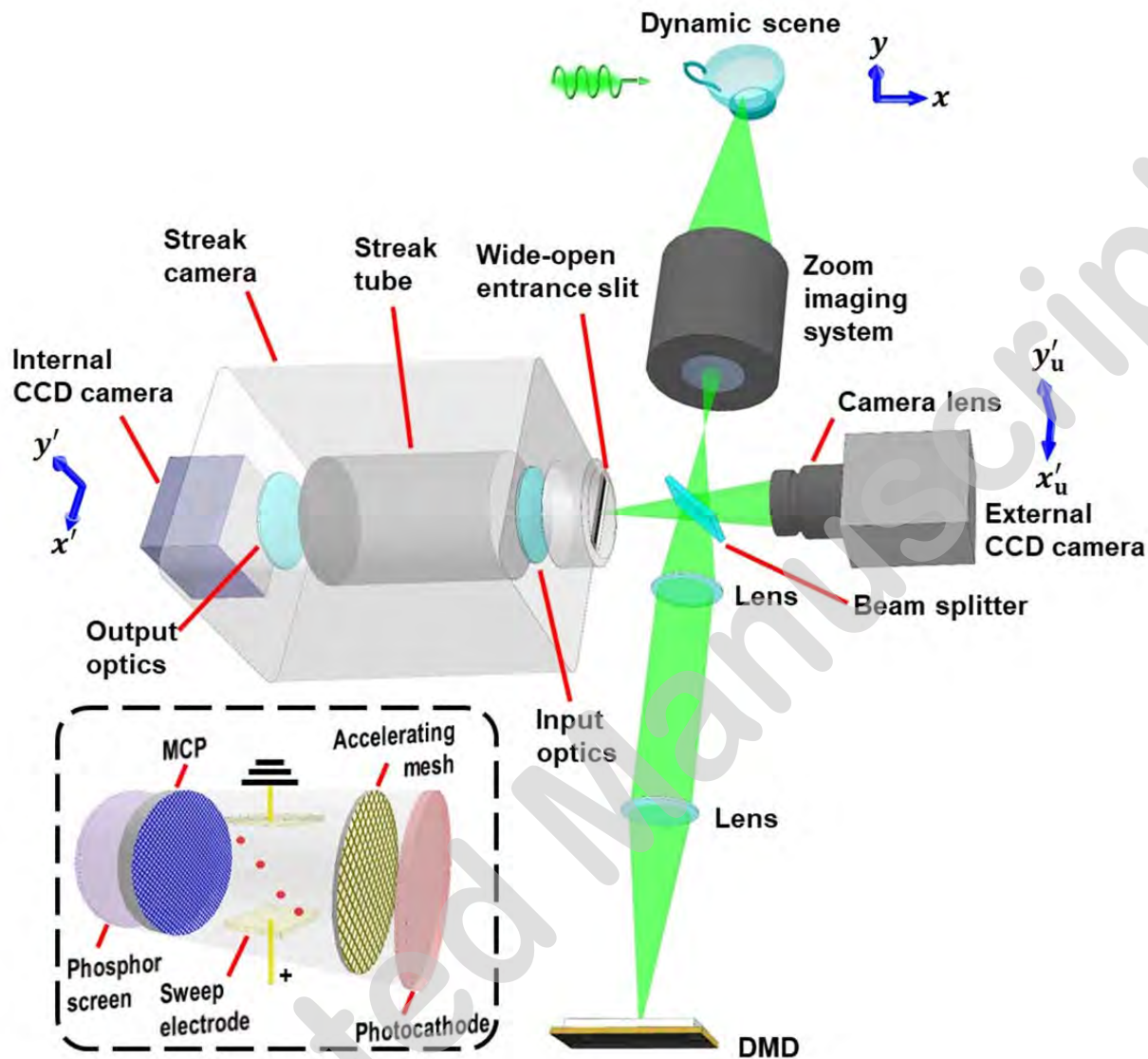
500 **Figures**



501

502 **Fig. 1. Principle of operation for T-CUP.** The beam paths for time-unsheared and time-sheared

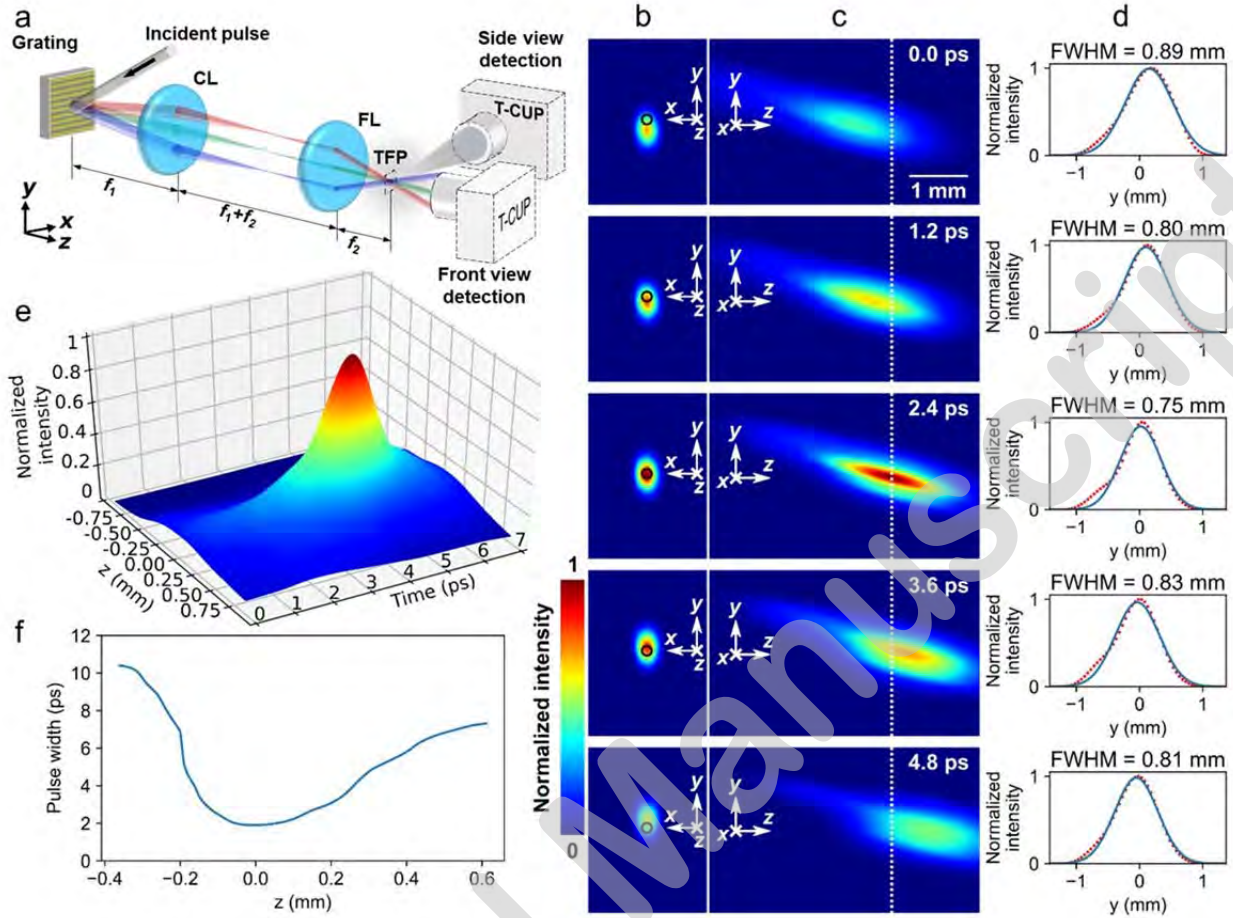
503 views are illustrated using magenta and green colors, respectively.



504

505 **Fig. 2. Schematic of the T-CUP system.** Inset (black dashed box): detailed illustration of the
 506 streak tube. CCD, charge-coupled device; DMD, digital micromirror device; MCP, micro-
 507 channel plate.

508

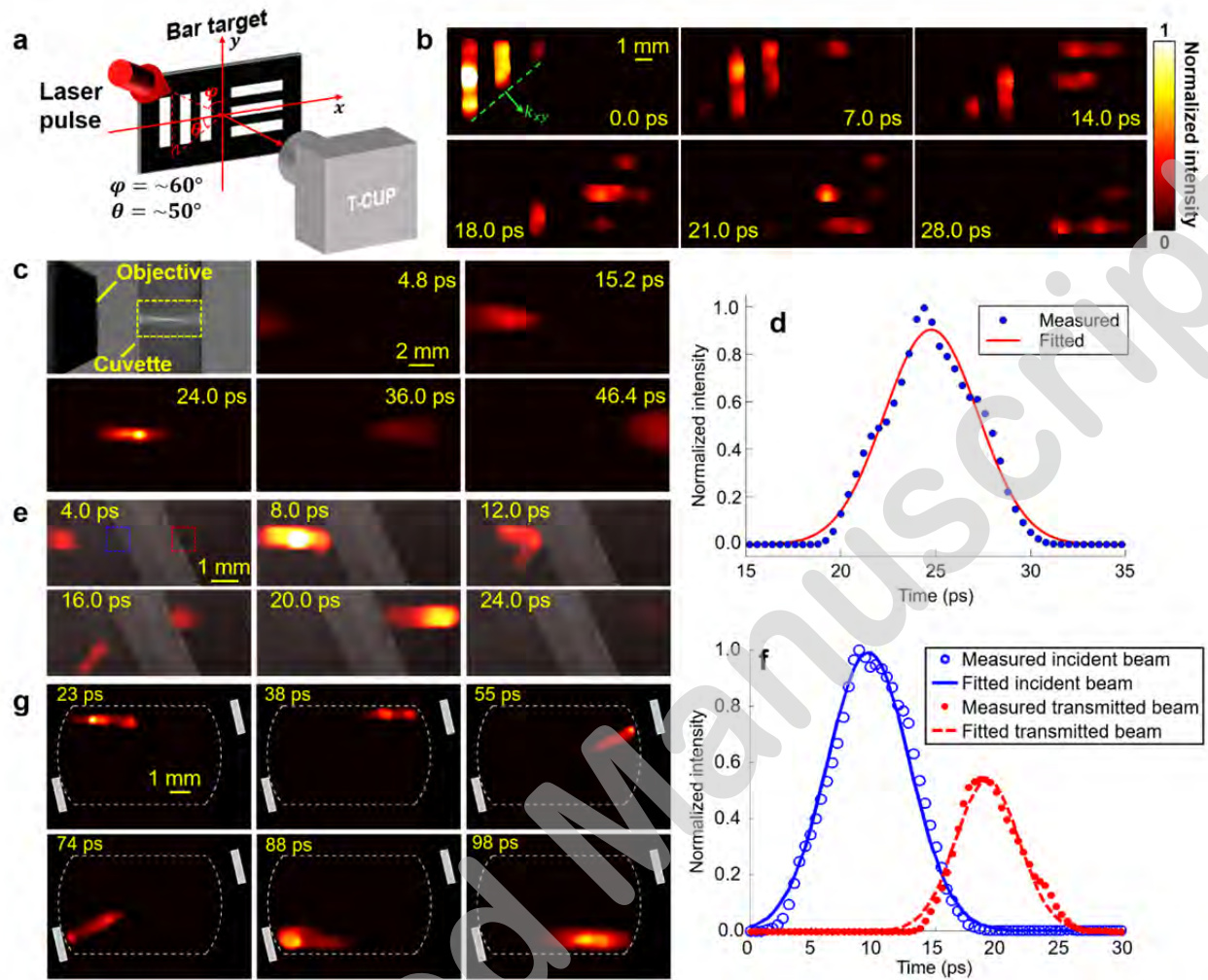


509

510 **Fig. 3. T-CUP for temporal focusing.** (a) Experimental setup. CL, collimating lens; FL,
 511 focusing lens; TFP, temporal focusing plane; f_1 and f_2 , focal lengths. For the side view, a small
 512 amount of water vapor was used to scatter photons into the T-CUP system. (b) Representative
 513 frames from the front view (see Supplementary Movie S1 for the full evolution), showing the
 514 laser pulse sweeping along the y -axis of the temporal focusing plane. The black circles denote
 515 the z -axis. (c) Representative frames from the side view (see Supplementary Movies S1 and S2
 516 for the full evolution), showing a single ultrashort laser beam propagating through the temporal
 517 focusing plane. The temporal focusing plane is marked by the dashed line. (d) Light intensity
 518 projected along the z -axis, averaged and normalized individually, for each frame in (c). The red
 519 dots are the data measured from the images (to avoid cluttering, only one data point is shown for

520 every five data points measured and used for fitting), and the blue curves show the Gaussian
521 fittings to the measured data. Full widths at half maxima (FWHMs) are computed for each fitted
522 curve. (e) Surface plot of the normalized intensity along the primary optical axis as a function of
523 t and z near the temporal focusing plane. (f) Measured pulse widths (full widths at half maxima)
524 as a function of position on the z -axis near the temporal focusing plane. The location of the
525 temporal focusing plane is set to be zero.

526



527

528

529 **Fig. 4. T-CUP for laser pulse sweeping, spatial focusing, reflection, and splitting. (a)**

530 Experimental setup for laser pulse sweeping through a scattering bar-pattern target. (b)

531 Representative frames showing a single laser pulse obliquely impinging upon the bar pattern,

532 imaged by T-CUP at 10 Tfps (see Supplementary Movie S3 for the full evolution). In the top left

533 panel, the dashed line indicates the light pulse front, and the arrow denotes the in-plane light

534 propagation direction (k_{xy}). (c) Top left panel: Experimental setup for the spatial focusing of a

535 single laser pulse (532 nm wavelength, 7 ps pulse width) in a weakly scattering aqueous

536 suspension. The 10 \times objective has a 0.3 NA and a 15 mm focal length. The field of view is

537 indicated by the yellow dashed box. Remaining panels: Representative frames of T-CUP for
538 spatial focusing of a single laser pulse, imaged by T-CUP at 2.5 Tfps (see Supplementary Movie
539 S4 for the full evolution). **(d)** Time-lapse normalized intensity of the focus with a Gaussian fit. **(e)**
540 Representative frames showing a single laser pulse (532 nm wavelength, 7 ps pulse duration)
541 split by a 50:50 beam splitter, imaged by T-CUP at 2.5 Tfps (see Supplementary Movie S5 for
542 the full evolution). A small amount of water vapor was sprayed into the path in the air to scatter
543 the light from the scene into the T-CUP system. **(f)** Time courses of the average normalized
544 intensities on both sides of the beam splitter [the blue and red dashed boxes in the top left panel
545 of **(e)**]. Both time courses were fitted by a Gaussian profile. **(g)** Representative frames showing a
546 single laser pulse being bounced by two mirrors, imaged by T-CUP at 1 Tfps (see Supplementary
547 Movie S6 for the full evolution). The field of view for T-CUP is indicated by the white dashed
548 box.

