

1 **Neurogenic flare response following image-guided focused ultrasound**
2 **in the mouse peripheral nervous system *in vivo***

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Focused ultrasound (FUS) has been used to noninvasively elicit or inhibit motor neuronal activity
3 in the mouse peripheral nervous system in vivo. However, less is known about whether FUS
4 elicits immune system responses associated with peripheral sensory neuronal activity. In this
5 study, we demonstrate that non-invasive ultrasound image-guided FUS can elicit the neurogenic
6 axon reflex of peripheral nerves in the mouse sciatic nerve. The local vasodilation in the plantar
7 view of the hind paw detected by a high-resolution laser Doppler imager indicated neurogenic
8 flare responses following FUS stimulation. The effects of FUS were compared with control groups,
9 where a distinct pattern of blood flow changes was only observed in FUS-elicited neurogenic flare
10 responses. The findings indicate that image-guided FUS elicits local axon reflexes in vivo with a
11 high degree of specificity and penetration depth.

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13 **Keywords:**

14 Image-guided focused ultrasound; immune system function; mouse sciatic nerve; neurogenetic
15 axon reflex; sensory neural activity.

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1 **Introduction**

2 Implementing new scientific findings by altering the activity of populations of neurons in clinical
3 practice has been an ongoing mission in basic and clinical neuroscience (Moe and Post 1962;
4 Sheffler and Chae 2007; George et al. 2010; Fontaine et al. 2018). The functional assessment of
5 the peripheral nervous system has demonstrated the interaction between the peripheral nervous
6 and immune systems (Chiu et al. 2012; Talbot et al. 2015) and paved the way for the development
7 of diagnostic and treatment methods for numerous disorders (Skaper et al. 2018; Anandagoda et
8 al. 2019). For example, prior studies have provided evidence that the activity of peripheral sensory
9 neurons directly acts on the vasculature (Magerl et al. 1987; Lin et al. 1999; Lin et al. 2003) and
10 elicits innate and adaptive immune cells (Mikami et al. 2011; Rochlitzer et al. 2011; Chiu et al.
11 2012) through the neurogenic axon reflex mediated by the release of the neuropeptides in the
12 peripheral nervous system. In addition, researchers have demonstrated the feasibility of a
13 diagnostic tool based on the measurement of neurogenic inflammation such as complex
14 regional pain syndrome patients along with a significant increase in axon reflex vasodilation
15 (Weber et al. 2000) and small fiber neuropathy patients closely associated with diabetes or
16 autoimmune diseases (Hovaguimian et al. 2011) along with a significant decrease in axon reflex
17 flares (Kramer et al. 2004) compared to the amount of axon reflex flares in control groups.
18 Therefore, a range of neuromodulation techniques has been developed to better interpret the
19 roles of peripheral neurons and regulate peripheral immune system functions by inducing
20 vasculature (flare) as well as activating immune cells through the release of inflammatory
21 mediators (Chiu et al. 2012). Chemical stimulation has been demonstrated to evoke acute
22 neurogenic flare responses (Jancsó et al. 1967; Jancsó et al. 1968; Lin et al. 2003) by activating
23 the efferent activity of sensory neurons (Lin et al. 1999). However, the clinical use of this method
24 may be limited due to a low degree of specificity and penetration depth as well as undesirable
25 side effects, such as burning or stinging of the skin. Transcutaneous electrical stimulation has

1 been proposed as an alternative approach to induce axon reflexes by delivering an electrical
2 current into a targeted region via electrodes placed on the surface of the skin (Magerl et al. 1987;
3 Weidner et al. 1999). However, despite its effectiveness, this method suffers from the inability to
4 target deep regions, and it affects a broad area rather than a specific target region due to low
5 spatial precision. In addition, a strong electrical intensity is needed to elicit afferent fibers of
6 nociceptors, including myelinated A δ and unmyelinated C fibers, causing unpleasant sensations
7 (Magerl et al. 1987; Sauerstein et al. 2000). Therefore, there remains a need for the development
8 of new neuromodulation techniques with high spatial precision and the ability to target deep
9 regions.

10 Focused ultrasound (FUS) is a promising method capable of noninvasively modulating
11 peripheral neuronal activity in specific regions with a high degree of specificity and penetration
12 depth. Prior *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies have demonstrated the feasibility of FUS for modulating
13 peripheral neuronal activity and understanding the functions of the peripheral nervous system.
14 For example, Mihran et al. presented both the enhancement and suppression of electrically
15 evoked compound action potentials through the mechanical effect in the frog sciatic nerve *in vitro*
16 (Mihran et al. 1990). Moreover, Tsui et al. demonstrated the enhancement and suppression of
17 electrically activated compound action potentials in the frog sciatic nerve *in vitro* along with FUS-
18 mediated temperature elevation of 3°C and 6–10°C, respectively (Tsui et al. 2005). Colucci et al.
19 showed a temporary nerve block by a temperature increase of approximately 17–23°C in the frog
20 sciatic nerve *in vitro* (Colucci et al. 2009). In addition, Wright et al. reported evoked de novo action
21 potentials via the mechanical effect in the crab leg nerve *ex vivo* (Wright et al. 2017). In this regard,
22 these findings contributed to elucidating potential mechanisms in well-established *in vitro* and *ex*
23 *vivo* setups. Nonetheless, these studies have primarily investigated limited interactions between
24 FUS and the inherent complexity of neuronal activity in the peripheral nervous system.

25 Furthermore, *in vivo* animal studies have been conducted to understand better the effect
26 of FUS on peripheral neural activity, which is a crucial step toward improvements for the

1 technique's clinical translation. Previous studies have indicated that temporary or permanent
2 nerve blocks can suppress motor neural activity in the sciatic nerve of the rabbit and rat (Foley et
3 al. 2004; Foley et al. 2007; Foley et al. 2008), activated by the mechanical effect in the mouse
4 sciatic nerve (Downs et al. 2018), and activated or inhibited as a function of transient temperature
5 elevation in the mouse sciatic nerve (Kim et al. 2020). In addition to modulating motor neuronal
6 activity, studies have shown the use of FUS to modulating anti-inflammatory or metabolic
7 pathways by stimulating the spleen or liver, respectively (Cotero et al. 2019) and identifying the
8 neural-immune interaction by targeting the spleen (Zachs et al. 2019). However, it has not been
9 shown whether FUS can directly activate peripheral afferents causing local axon reflexes, leading
10 to a robust flare response in the skin.

11 In this study, we demonstrate the capability of image-guided FUS in eliciting the
12 neurogenic axon reflex of peripheral nerves *in vivo*. We hypothesized that FUS (< spatial peak
13 pulse average intensity (I_{SPPA}) of 190 W/cm^2 and < mechanical index (MI) of 1.9) can evoke the
14 neurogenic axon reflex in the mouse sciatic nerve *in vivo* without affecting the motor neuronal
15 response - a known drawback of transcutaneous electrical stimulation (Magerl et al. 1987;
16 Sauerstein et al. 2000). We used a high-resolution Doppler imager to investigate local vasodilation
17 in the plantar view of the hind paw following the FUS stimulation of distal portions of the sciatic
18 nerve and compared blood flow measurements with control groups to determine whether FUS at
19 the distal sciatic nerve elicits the neurogenic axon reflex.

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22 **Materials and Methods**

23 ***In vivo* animal preparation**

24 All animal procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee
25 of Columbia University and Animal Care and Use Review Office. Wild type mice C57BL/6J

1 weighing between 22 g to 26 g were anesthetized with isoflurane concentrations of 4% for
2 induction and 1.75% to 2% for maintenance throughout the experiment. The targeted hind limb
3 was shaved by depilatory cream for hair removal at least 3 days before the experiments. Normal
4 body temperature was maintained throughout the experiments using a heating pad. The depth of
5 anesthesia was frequently monitored through the pedal reflex.

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7 **Experimental setup and blood flow measurement**

8 The experimental setup consisted of a FUS transducer with an ultrasound imaging
9 transducer, a three-dimensional (3D) positioning system, a high-resolution laser Doppler imager,
10 and blood flow recording and analysis equipment, as presented in Figure 1(a). The imaging
11 transducer with the frequency spectrum of 5-12 MHz (P12-5, ATL/Philips, Bothell, WA, USA)
12 connected to a Vantage 128 research platform (Verasonics; Kirkland, WA, USA) was co-aligned
13 with a 3.1 MHz single element FUS transducer (H-108, Sonic Concepts, Inc., Bothell, WA, USA).
14 A function generator connected to a 50-dB power amplifier and matching network were used to
15 drive the FUS transducer following parameters, including peak-to-peak voltage (V_{pp}), pulse
16 duration (PD), pulse repetition frequency (PRF), and total sonication time. A 3D linear
17 translation/rotation stage (BiSlide MN10-0100-M02-21, Velmex, Bloomfield, NY, USA) controlled
18 by a customized MATLAB program (MathWorks Inc., Natick, MA, USA) was used to precisely
19 place the image-guided FUS transducer at the desired location.

20 FUS with a peak positive/negative pressure of 1.96/1.95 MPa, PD of 1 ms, PRF of 100
21 Hz, and total sonication time of 10 min was applied to the distal sciatic nerve for eliciting an acute
22 flare reaction (n=8 hindlimbs of mice) after precisely finding and locating the targeted distal sciatic
23 nerve (Kim et al. 2020). The axial and lateral focal dimensions measured by a hydrophone (HGL-
24 0200, Onda Corp., Sunnyvale, CA, USA) were 4.16 mm and 0.42 mm, respectively, based on the
25 full width at half maximum (FWHM, -6 dB pressure) of the pressure field.

1 A high-resolution laser Doppler imager with the measurement software program
2 (moorLDI2-HIR System, Moor Instruments Inc., Wilmington, DE, USA) was used to measure the
3 blood flow change at the plantar view of the hind paw along with FUS at the distal sciatic nerve,
4 which was extracted the time-based blood flow change using an analysis software program and
5 further analyzed in terms of vasodilation area and intensity using a customized algorithm written
6 in MATLAB. Figure 1(b) presents the baseline blood flow recorded for 15 min before FUS
7 stimulation, and the blood flow changes continuously measured during and after FUS stimulation
8 for 45 min. According to the sciatic nerve innervation's anatomy in the hind paw (Zhi et al. 2017),
9 the digits 3, 4, and 5 of the hind paw innervated to the sural and tibial nerves are the branches of
10 the sciatic nerve. The recorded time-resolved blood flow changes of paw digits 3, 4, and 5 in the
11 hind paw was analyzed in terms of time-to-peak (time elapsed from the onset of FUS until peak
12 increase in blood flow), response latency (time elapsed from the onset of FUS until a threefold
13 increase in the standard deviation of individual baseline blood flow obtained by each experiment),
14 area under the curve (the area from the onset of FUS to the end of the recording), and peak
15 increase in blood flow (maximum blood flow from the onset of FUS until the end of recording).
16 The values of the peak increase in blood flow and area under the curve were normalized to each
17 experiment's individual baseline value prior to FUS. Response latency was detected through
18 thresholding the blood flow value greater than three times the standard deviation from the
19 individual baseline value obtained by each experiment.

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21 **Control experiments**

22 Control experiments were performed to rule out other potential sources of electric charges
23 affecting blood flow measurements. The acute flare reaction from FUS was compared with those
24 obtained from three control experiments: (1) deactivating the FUS driving system without
25 changing the rest of the experimental setup (n=7 hindlimbs of mice), (2) applying 20 dB attenuated
26 FUS with different driving conditions (driving the transducer outside its frequency bandwidth

1 (center frequency of 3.1 Hz with PRF of 0.1 Hz)) without modifying the rest of the experimental
2 setup (n=6 hindlimbs of mice) to investigate the effect of potential sources of electromagnetic
3 noise on the blood flow measurement while activating FUS driving system, and (3) applying off-
4 target FUS at 2.5 mm away from the nerve with the same experimental setup (n=6 hindlimbs of
5 mice). In addition, FUS with a total sonication time of 3 min (n=2 hindlimbs of mice) and electrical
6 stimulation (S48 stimulator, Grass Technologies, West Warwick, RI) with custom-built electrical
7 stimulation wire were separately conducted. For electrical stimulation, we used 50% of the
8 electrical stimulation voltage (2–3V), where 100% of the electrical stimulation voltage (4–6V) was
9 capable of evoking muscle activation in each experiment (n=2 hindlimbs of mice) to compare
10 FUS-induced induced flare response.

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12 **Data analysis**

13 The measured values were expressed as mean \pm standard error of the mean. Statistical
14 analysis was conducted to compare unmatched groups with individual variances through the
15 Student's t-test and multivariable ANOVA using commercial statistics software (Prism, GraphPad
16 Software, San Diego, CA, USA). Statistical significance was denoted as $p < 0.05$ * and $p < 0.01$
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20 **Results**

21 **FUS-induced axon reflex vasodilation**

22 Figure 2 and Supplementary Figures S1 show the representative axon reflex vasodilation
23 induced by FUS stimulation along with results obtained from two negative control groups. In
24 Figure 2(a), FUS induced a distinct blood flow pattern: increased blood flow during FUS, rapidly
25 decreased blood flow, and steadily increased blood flow after FUS stimulation. However, the

1 corresponding values from the two negative control groups remained mostly at a constant
2 baseline blood flow. The effect of FUS on the recorded blood flow was then quantified in terms of
3 time-to-peak, response latency, area under the curve, and peak increase in blood flow as shown
4 in Figure 2(b)-(e). For the time-to-peak (Figure 2(b)), the values from FUS were not significantly
5 different from the values of the two negative control groups. The groups were divided as follows:
6 n=8 for FUS stimulation group, n=7 for negative control group without activating FUS driving
7 system (p-value=0.506), n=6 for the negative control group with 20 dB attenuated FUS with a
8 different center frequency of 3.1 Hz and PRF of 0.1 Hz without any other changes in the
9 experimental setup (p-value=0.086). However, as shown in Figure 2(c)-(e), the average response
10 latency was found to decrease by 12.3–16.7 min, and FUS resulted in an increased average
11 normalized area under the curve and average peak increase in blood flow by 12.3–13.1% and
12 50.6–50.8%, respectively, which were significantly different from the values of the two negative
13 control groups. FUS stimulation at the distal sciatic nerve resulted in a noticeable increase in the
14 blood flow responses, which in turn reduced the response latency (Figure 2(c)) and increased the
15 area under the curve (Figure 2(d) and peak increase (Figure 2(e) during and after FUS stimulation.

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17 **Evaluation of axon reflex vasodilation in response to sciatic nerve stimulation**

18 We compared axon reflex vasodilation resulting from the FUS at sciatic nerve (on-target)
19 and FUS at 2.5 mm away from the nerve (off-target). Figure 3 and Supplementary Figures S1
20 indicate the blood flow change between FUS stimulation at the focus (i.e., effects of sciatic nerve
21 stimulation) and 2.5 mm from the focus (i.e., off-target effects of sciatic nerve stimulation). The
22 increased blood flow during FUS stimulation at the sciatic nerve or off-target region primarily
23 resulted from the FUS-induced thermal effect ($9.8 \pm 1.0^\circ\text{C}$ from the temperature at pre-FUS
24 stimulation, $30.3 \pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$, n=3) based on our temperature estimation procedure (Kamimura et al.
25 2020; Kim et al. 2020). However, compared to off-target effects, a distinct blood flow pattern was
26 observed following FUS stimulation, which may be associated with neurogenic inflammation. As

1 shown in Figure 3(b) and (d), the average time-to-peak was found to increase from 16.8 ± 16.9
2 min (off-target) to 36.3 ± 11.1 min (on-target), and the average normalized area under the curve
3 was increased from 3.5 ± 4.8 (off-target) to 15.5 ± 13.9 (on-target), which was significantly
4 different (p -value < 0.05 , $n=8$ for FUS stimulation at sciatic nerve, $n=6$ for FUS stimulation at 2.5
5 mm away from the focus). However, response latency (Figure 3(c)) and peak increase in blood
6 flow (Figure 3(e)) were not significantly different from those of the off-target results (p -value= 0.102
7 and 0.108 , respectively). Furthermore, a simulation of the spatial FUS-induced heating in the
8 mouse leg indicates that the temperature effects are highly localized within the lateral focal
9 dimension of 0.42 mm compared to calculated distance between estimated distal sciatic nerve
10 and muscle for EMG recording (4 mm) as well as calculated distance between muscle region and
11 the plantar view of the hind paw (15.7 mm) (Supplementary Figure S2). This indicates that a
12 heating diffusion from the sonication site to the plantar view of the hind paw is not expected.
13 Therefore, the blood flow changes were associated with a neurogenic flare response.

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16 Discussion

17 This study presented the neurogenic flare response in the mouse peripheral nervous
18 system *in vivo* using image-guided FUS (I_{SPPA} of 71 W/cm² and MI of 1.1). We examined the effect
19 of FUS on the distal sciatic nerve along with time-based blood flow change at the plantar view of
20 the hind paw after precisely and noninvasively locating and targeting the distal sciatic nerve.
21 Control experiments determined that the FUS-induced neurogenic axon reflex produced a distinct
22 pattern of blood flow elevation.

23 In previous studies, chemical or transcutaneous electrical stimulation has been used to
24 elicit neurogenic inflammation where activation of the afferent fibers of nociceptors including
25 myelinated A δ and unmyelinated C fibers results in vasodilation and/or protein extravasation.

1 According to the results shown in Figure 4, electrical stimulation with subthreshold intensity was
2 not enough to elicit axon reflex vasodilation, which was consistent with previously published
3 studies (Magerl et al. 1987; Sauerstein et al. 2000). However, FUS (I_{SPPA} of 71 W/cm^2 and MI of
4 1.1) with temperature elevation up to $40.1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 10 min can evoke the neurogenic axon reflex in
5 the mouse sciatic nerve *in vivo* without activating the motor neuronal response that was measured
6 in electromyography (EMG) signal at the gastrocnemius muscle. This is significant because it
7 demonstrates the feasibility of FUS-induced orderly activation of neuronal activity in the peripheral
8 nervous system *in vivo* by adjusting the FUS intensity level (Young and Henneman 1961; Kim et
9 al. 2020). In addition, FUS with a total sonication time of 3 min induced a blood flow change
10 pattern similar to that from FUS with a total sonication time of 10 min, as shown in Figure 4: a
11 gradual increase in blood flow during FUS, rapid decrease, and steady increase in blood flow
12 after FUS. The effect of FUS with various parameters will be investigated in future studies to
13 understand the FUS-induced neurogenic flare response better.

14 We demonstrated the feasibility of FUS for direct activating of the peripheral neuronal
15 activity underlying either sensory afferent or motor efferent fibers by adjusting FUS parameters at
16 the same targeted nerve region. Based on our previous study (Kim et al. 2020), we applied
17 short/high-intensity FUS (I_{SPPA} of 6610 W/cm^2) to activate motor neurons innervating muscle
18 activity for the targeting procedure and long/low-intensity FUS (I_{SPPA} of 71 W/cm^2) to activate
19 sensory neurons for the neurogenic inflammation. The exact mechanism remains unclear.
20 However, the vasodilation observed in this study indicates that FUS activates peripheral afferents
21 of peptidergic nociceptors, including myelinated $A\delta$ and/or unmyelinated C fibers and,
22 consequently, the peripheral release of neuropeptides. Thus, to better understand the mechanism,
23 future studies remain necessary to determine (1) the functional roles of particular afferent fiber
24 types by depleting their neuropeptides and (2) the functions of neurotransmitter receptors by using
25 antagonists (Sluka et al. 1995; Lin et al. 2003).

1 Here, as an extension of controlling motor neuron activity, we monitored local axon
2 reflexes induced by FUS stimulation more than 4 mm away from the recording area using a
3 quantitative readout of blood flow in the mouse peripheral nervous system *in vivo*. The neurogenic
4 axon reflex was observed with FUS stimulation at the sciatic nerve compared to negative control
5 groups with off-target effects of sciatic nerve stimulation. Based on the results in this paper, the
6 FUS-induced axon reflexes can be applied to determining small fiber neuropathy in diabetes as
7 a diagnostic tool (Kramer et al. 2004). In addition, once a deeper understanding of the functions
8 of particular afferent fiber types along with neurotransmitter receptors can be established, a new
9 FUS-based therapeutic strategy may be formulated to regulate immune system functions and
10 ultimately provide clinical medicine for the treatment of immune diseases (Chiu et al. 2012).

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13 **Conclusion**

14 The neurogenic flare response following image-guided FUS was demonstrated in the
15 mouse peripheral nervous system *in vivo*. Building on the previously established targeting
16 procedures for precisely and noninvasively finding the targeted sciatic nerve *in vivo*, we used a
17 high-resolution laser Doppler imager in the image-guided FUS system to quantitatively assess
18 the local vasodilation in the plantar view of the hind paw as evidence of the elicited neurogenic
19 flare response. We identified the FUS-induced neurogenic flare response by comparing blood
20 flow changes with those of control groups. These experimental findings indicate that image-
21 guided FUS could be applied for reliably detecting small fiber impairment in diabetic neuropathy
22 as a diagnostic method or regulating immune system functions by selectively eliciting peripheral
23 sensory neuronal activity.

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10 **Competing financial interests**

11 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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11 **Figure Captions**

12 **Figure 1.** The experimental setup is composed of (a) an image-guided FUS stimulation
13 system, a 3D positioning system, a high-resolution laser Doppler imaging, and a blood
14 flow recording and analysis equipment. After finding the targeted distal sciatic nerve
15 based on both ultrasound B-mode imaging and muscle activation conducted by image-
16 guided FUS, the effects of FUS were recorded by time-based blood flow change
17 monitoring at the plantar view of the hind paw. (b) Results of analysis of the effect of FUS
18 in terms of response latency, time-to-peak, peak increase in blood flow, and area under
19 the curve and normalized to baseline values before FUS.

20

21 **Figure 2.** Time-based blood flow measurement following (a) experimental groups
22 applying FUS to the sciatic nerve (n=8) and negative control groups either deactivating
23 the FUS driving system (n=7) or applying 20 dB attenuated FUS with a center frequency
24 of 3.1 Hz and PRF of 0.1 Hz (n=6) with the rest of the experimental setup kept the same.

1 A distinct blood flow pattern induced by FUS was observed compared to the negative
2 control experiments. (b) The time-to-peak value from FUS stimulation was not
3 significantly different from the two negative control groups' values. (c) FUS induced a
4 rapid increase in the blood flow change, which caused a decrease in the response latency
5 compared to the negative control groups. (d) FUS led to a significant increase of area
6 under the curve, which remained at a higher level during and after FUS stimulation. (e)
7 The FUS-mediated peak increase in blood flow was significantly higher than those in the
8 negative control groups.

9
10 **Figure 3.** Time-resolved blood flow change mediated by (a) on-target FUS at the sciatic
11 nerve (n=8) or off-target FUS at 2.5 mm from the nerve region (n=6). A distinct blood flow
12 pattern was observed after FUS stimulation at the sciatic nerve. (b) Following FUS on the
13 nerve region, time-to-peak significantly exceeded that following FUS at 2.5 mm away from
14 the focus. (c) Both FUS stimulation at on-target and off-target contributed to a rapid
15 increase in the response latency (d) on-target FUS led to a significant increase in area
16 under the curve compared to off-target FUS. (e) The blood flow presented a higher peak
17 increase for on-target FUS versus off-target FUS, but there was no significant difference
18 between them.

19
20 **Figure 4.** Time courses of blood flow change following (a) FUS of 10 min (n=8) and 3 min
21 (n=2), electrical stimulation with subthreshold intensity (n=2). Similar blood flow patterns
22 were observed between FUS of 10 min and 3 min. (b, c) No significant differences in time-
23 to-peak or response latency were determined between FUS of 10 min and FUS of 3 min

1 with electrical stimulation with subthreshold intensity. (d, e) Electrical stimulation with
2 subthreshold intensity did not evoke a significant increase in area under the curve or a
3 peak increase in blood flow. However, FUS of 3 min increased blood flow in terms of area
4 under the curve and peak increase in blood flow, which was not significantly different from
5 the values from FUS of 10 min.

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