

中国激光

基于掺铥光纤激光器的体外碎石实验探究

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摘要 采用线型腔结构, 实现了中心波长为 1939.31 nm、脉宽在 0~2000 μs 可调、重复频率在 0~2 kHz 可调、最大平均输出功率为 34.2 W 的准连续掺铥光纤激光器, 并利用此激光器在体外环境下开展结石消融量随激光脉宽与重复频率的变化规律的研究。结果显示: 在相同时间内, 当单脉冲能量相近时, 增大脉冲重复频率(平均输出功率)有利于提高碎石速率; 当平均输出功率接近时, 单脉冲能量越大, 石块消融量越大。在 90 s 的碎石时间内, 石块经过 31.8 W/0.053 J(250 μs)、33.1 W/0.11 J(500 μs)、33.5 W/0.22 J(1000 μs)、34.2 W/0.45 J(2000 μs)4 组参数激光照射后的消融量分别为 0.333, 0.480, 0.697, 0.723 g, 结石表面的最高水温分别为 30.8, 35.5, 38.9, 41.2 °C。

关键词 激光光学; 激光碎石; 掺铥光纤激光器; 准连续激光器; 结石消融

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1 引言

泌尿系统结石是泌尿系统最常见的疾病之一, 若不及时治疗, 将会引起尿路梗阻等疾病, 严重者可发展为肾功能衰竭, 危及患者生命。我国人口众多且为结石高发区域, 结石患者数量庞大, 结石防治任重道远。目前, 国内主流的有效碎石手段为体外冲击波碎石、气压弹道碎石和固体钬激光碎石。Ho: YAG 固体激光器的发射波长约为 2100 nm, 水对其的吸收系数约为 25 cm⁻¹[1], 是目前激光碎石术的标准光源。钬激光对结石周围的正常组织损伤小、止血效果佳, 可以采用光纤传输, 与管镜技术相结合可实现微创手术。钬激光碎石术也存在一定的缺陷: 热效应明显, 术后有可能发生输尿管狭窄等并发症^[2]; 光束质量差, 需要使用大芯径光纤(目前已知的最小纤芯直径为 200 μm)进行耦合, 导致其占据了输尿管导引鞘的大部分通道, 降低了碎石过程中生理盐水流量, 进而降低手术效率; 电光转换效率低, 且需要多个激光谐振腔合束才能提高总输出功

率, 增加了激光系统的复杂程度。

受钬激光缺陷的影响, 研究者们探索了采用其他光源进行结石治疗的途径。水的吸收决定了手术的安全系数, 且在碎石过程中对碎石效率也具有一定的影响。在水的中红外波段吸收曲线中, 2940 nm 处有一个很强的吸收峰, 吸收系数约为 10000 cm⁻¹, 1940 nm 处也有一个吸收峰, 吸收系数约为 120 cm⁻¹[1]。2006 年, Lee 等^[3]在研究中发现掺铒固体激光器(Er: YAG)输出的 2940 nm 激光的碎石效率优于钬激光; 2010 年 Qiu 等^[4]也证实了掺铒固体激光器输出的 2940 nm 激光破坏尿酸结石的效率是钬激光的 5 倍。但由于波长较大, 掺铒固体激光器的输出激光在石英光纤中的传输损耗极大, 虽然氟化物光纤或蓝宝石光纤可以降低此波段的传输损耗, 但此类光纤处理较为复杂, 在医学环境中的应用尚不成熟, 难以与常规石英光纤相比。

铥离子(Tm³⁺)的发射波长为 1.8~2.1 μm, 覆盖了水在 1940 nm 的吸收峰。医用铥激光的发展分为两种: 掺铥固体激光器(Tm: YAG)和掺铥光纤

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激光器(TFL)。掺铥固体激光器发展较早,已经应用于泌尿外科的组织切割手术中,平均波长为2000 nm,但在碎石方面的报道较少^[5-6]。TFL发射的波长可完美匹配水在1940 nm处的吸收峰,并且TFL具有较高的转换效率、良好的光束质量、多样化的输出模式以及免维护的优点,近年来在泌尿外科碎石研究领域备受关注。

国外对TFL在碎石方面的应用研究较早。2005年,美国霍普金斯医学院报道了TFL在碎石方面的应用研究,Fried^[7]发现TFL具有工作效率高、光束质量好、参数灵活等优点,其输出激光具备替代钬激光的潜力。2009年Scott等^[8]在霍普金斯医学院测量了激光的光斑大小,发现铥激光的光斑大小约为70 μm,能够使用芯径更小的光纤进行耦合,解决粗光纤弯曲断裂的问题,且不会对软镜造成破坏。2015年Wilson等^[9]采用单脉冲能量为30 mJ、脉宽为500 μs、重复频率为500 Hz的TFL输出激光照射尿酸结石,结果表明在高重复频率下结石的位移量减少,且光纤端面的消融速率也减小。2019年Hardy等^[10]对高功率钬激光和铥激光的碎石效果进行比较,发现TFL输出激光作用于结石后产生粉尘(粒径<0.5 mm)的比例更大,粉尘可随灌注液及时排出。2020年Andreeva等^[11]研究了超脉冲铥激光与商用高功率钬激光的临床表现,发现:当钬激光的单脉冲能量为0.2 J时,结石产生位移,而铥激光在1 J的单脉冲能量作用下才会产生位移,表明铥激光在抑制结石位移方面具有一定的优势。激光碎石手术的安全性主要取决于激光的热效应,2020年Ellison等^[12]模拟了钬激光碎石过程中组织的受热情况,仿真结果显示输出功率为40 W时激光会对组织造成伤害,年龄较小的人,其组织的温度还会更高。2021年Molina等^[13]对比了脉冲TFL与高功率钬激光的热效应,得出的结论是TFL

激光在除尘模式下温升速率大于钬激光,但不会达到组织的损伤阈值。在铥激光碎石机理方面,2021年Keller等^[14]观察TFL激光与结石的相互作用,发现TFL激光可以对所有的结石造成破坏,并且在观察石块的结构变化时发现,铥激光碎石过程存在光热效应。目前国内仅有铥激光碎石的临床试验报道^[15-17],并没有基于TFL激光碎石方面的应用研究报道。

国外的研究报道虽然较多,包含了碎石效率、碎石机制、结石位移、光纤芯径大小、热效应等,但采用的激光器多为商业化光源,参数可调节范围有限,使用的脉宽多为500 μs和1000 μs,重复频率为10~150 Hz,参数选取有限。当脉宽大于1000 μs时碎石的效果如何,或重复频率更高时,是否可进一步提高碎石效果,目前尚不明确。本文自制了中心波长为1939.31 nm、脉宽在0~2000 μs可调、重复频率在0~2 kHz可调、最大平均输出功率为34.2 W的准连续TFL,之后基于此TFL进行初步的体外激光碎石试验研究。以自制硫酸钙小球为结石样品,采用单脉冲能量、平均功率、重复频率分别为0.053 J、31.8 W、600 Hz,0.11 J、33.1 W、300 Hz,0.22 J、33.5 W、150 Hz,0.45 J、34.2 W、75 Hz的TFL参数,在90 s的照射时间内分别获得了0.333 g、0.480 g、0.697 g、0.703 g的结石消融量;对碎石过程中结石周围的温度进行监测,最高温度并未超过人体组织的安全上限45 °C。

2 碎石用TFL

2.1 实验装置

TFL采用线型腔结构,实验装置的结构如图1所示,采用6台输出功率为140 W的793 nm光纤耦合半导体激光器(LD)作为泵浦源,输出光纤的纤芯、包层直径分别为200 μm和220 μm。使用

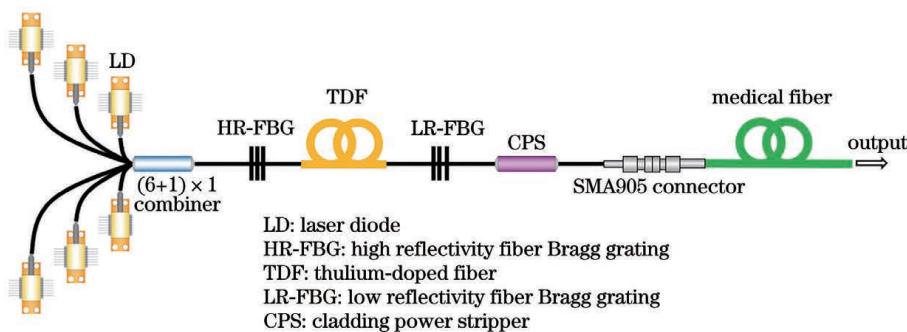


图1 TFL实验装置示意图

Fig. 1 Experimental setup of TFL

$(6+1) \times 1$ 光纤合束器(combiner)将6台半导体激光器输出的光耦合到大模场面积掺铥光纤(TDF)中。大模场面积掺铥光纤的纤芯、包层直径分别为 $25\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ 和 $400\text{ }\mu\text{m}$,长度为4 m,在 793 nm 处的吸收率为 4.2 dB/m 。将一对光纤光栅置于掺铥光纤两侧构成谐振腔,光纤类型为无源双包层光纤,光纤的纤芯、包层尺寸及数值孔径与掺铥光纤匹配。高反射率光纤光栅(HR-FBG)的反射率为99.8%,反射带宽为 1.932 nm ,中心波长为 1938.997 nm ;低反射率光纤光栅的(LR-FBG)反射率为9.38%,反射带宽为 1.006 nm ,中心波长为 1939.042 nm 。腔内剩余泵浦光经包层功率剥离器(CPS)去除。为实现与医用光纤之间的耦合,在CPS之后熔接带尾纤的SMA905接头,并使用接头连接器实现激光器输出端与医用光纤的对接。实验中所采用的医用光纤纤芯直径为 $550\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ 。

2.2 输出特性

TFL的输出光谱如图2(a)所示,其中心波长为 1939.31 nm 、 3 dB 带宽为 0.15 nm ,能较好地匹配水在 1940 nm 的吸收峰。半导体激光泵浦源的调制频率可调节范围为 $0\sim 2\text{ kHz}$,脉宽可调节范围为 $0\sim 2000\text{ }\mu\text{s}$,TFL输出脉宽和重复频率由半导体激光器泵浦源的调制参数决定。根据碎石实验的需求,在不同的脉宽和重复频率下对激光器的输出功

率进行测量,结果如表1所示。图2(b)给出了不同的参数设置下,准连续TFL的输出功率随泵浦功率的变化,直线为线性拟合结果,可以看到功率曲线呈现出良好的线性关系。如果脉冲占空比(脉宽与频率间隔的比值)相同,激光器的平均输出功率比较接近,本次实验设定的最大占空比为30%,输出功率为 $31.8\sim 34.2\text{ W}$ 。

表1 12组激光参数

Table 1 Twelve groups of laser parameters

Pulse repetition rate f/Hz	Pulse width $\tau/\mu\text{s}$	Output power P/W
200	250	9.53
400	250	20.29
600	250	31.80
100	500	10.20
200	500	21.52
300	500	33.10
50	1000	10.50
100	1000	21.80
150	1000	33.50
25	2000	10.76
50	2000	22.08
75	2000	34.20

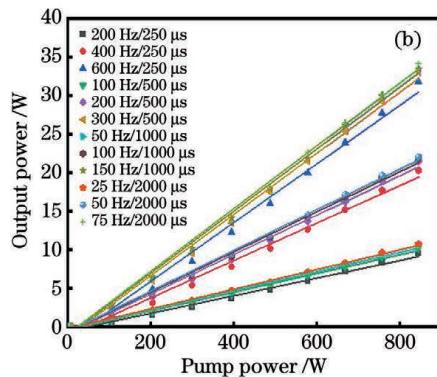
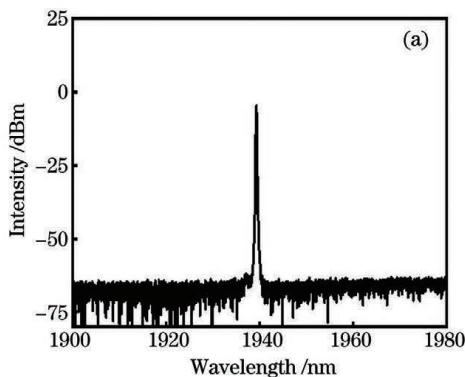


图2 TFL的输出光谱和功率特性。(a)TFL的输出光谱;(b)不同重复频率和脉宽下的功率特性

Fig. 2 Output spectrum and power characteristics of TFL. (a) Spectrum of TFL; (b) output power characteristics under different pulse widths and pulse repetition rates

图3所示为脉宽和重复频率的组合分别为 $250\text{ }\mu\text{s}/200\text{ Hz}$ 、 $500\text{ }\mu\text{s}/100\text{ Hz}$ 、 $1000\text{ }\mu\text{s}/50\text{ Hz}$ 、 $2000\text{ }\mu\text{s}/25\text{ Hz}$ 时的单脉冲波形,插图为相应的脉冲序列。对于单脉冲波形,从图3可以看到:脉宽与设定的参数数值一致;激光脉冲的重复频率与设置的半导体激光器驱动电流的调制参数一致,时域上脉冲信号的幅值大致相同,单脉冲幅值之间差

异较小。

3 基于TFL的体外碎石实验研究

3.1 激光碎石机制

激光碎石的作用机制一般分为两种:光声机制和光热机制。光声机制是指激光经光纤输出后迅速被水吸收,该区域的水迅速升温、蒸发,形成气泡空

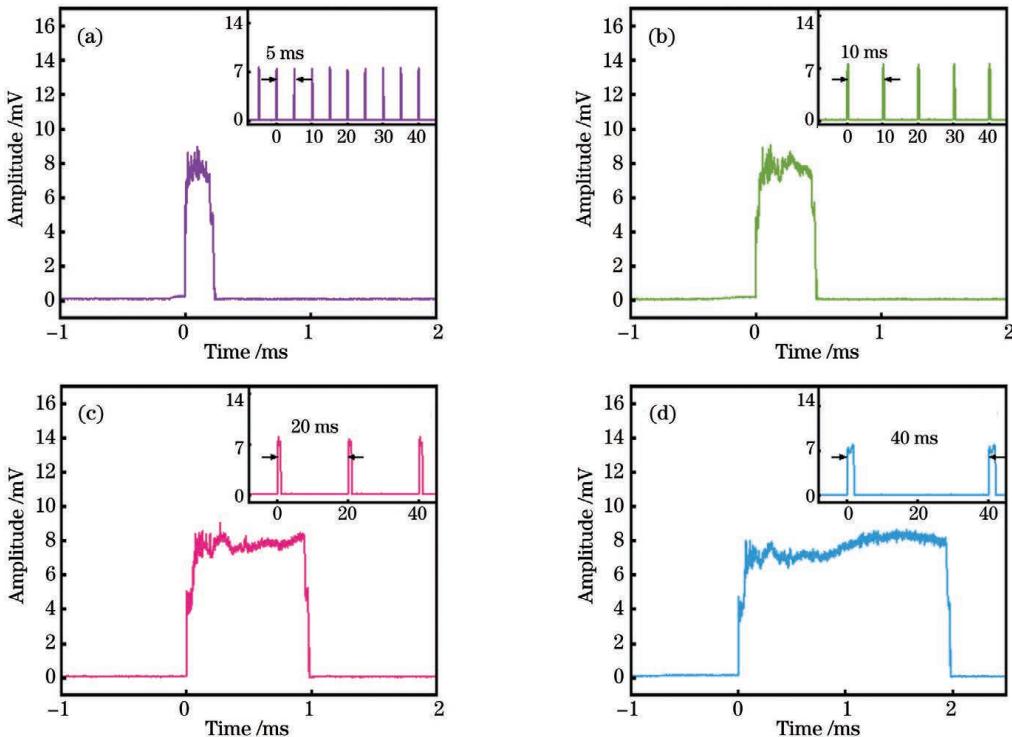


图3 不同脉宽和重复频率组合的调制脉冲时域特性,插图为相应的脉冲序列。(a)250 μ s/200 Hz;(b)500 μ s/100 Hz;
(c)1000 μ s/50 Hz;(d)2000 μ s/25 Hz

Fig. 3 Temporal characteristics of modulated pulses under different combinations of pulse width and repetition rate, inserts are the corresponding pulse trains. (a) 250 μ s/200 Hz; (b) 500 μ s/100 Hz; (c) 1000 μ s/50 Hz; (d) 2000 μ s/25 Hz
腔(这种现象被称为“摩西效应”)^[18],随后气泡坍缩,同时产生一个冲击波作用于结石。在短脉冲激光的作用下,由于脉冲持续时间太短,激光能量还未到达结石表面就全部被环境水吸收,产生大量的气泡,此后有气泡坍缩引发的无数冲击波集中作用在结石表面,使得石块表面物质逐渐脱离,达到去除物质的效果,此过程为光机械消融,能量由光能转化为水中冲击波的声能。在早期的碎石机制研究中,Sperrin 等^[19]通过水下测声仪器测量了气泡的冲击波强度,并估算了气泡直径和气泡的压力,认为钬激光碎石中存在冲击应力;Lekarev 等^[20]于 2020 年对 TFL 碎石过程进行水下冲击波(或声信号)检测,证实了光声机制的存在,同时指出在冲击波的作用下,结石表面的微小物质会脱离并扩散到水中。在激光碎石过程中,光声机制和光热机制一般会同时存在,但激光的脉宽和能量密度在一定程度上决定了碎石过程中起主要作用的是光声机制还是光热机制。

长脉宽及低能量密度激光作用时,碎石过程主要表现为光热机制^[21-23],在气泡产生的同时,结石直接暴露在光纤下,此时下一个(或多个)激光脉冲透过空腔直接作用在结石表面,激光在结石表面产生

很大的能量密度,激光能量转化为热量被结石吸收。随后将发生以下几种反应:结石升温过程引发化学分解;结石受热区域迅速升温、熔化、汽化^[24];受热区域膨胀,产生热应力;结石裂缝处的水受热蒸发,产生压应力。这些反应过程都能去除结石表面的物质,称为光热消融。

3.2 体外碎石环境模拟

体外碎石环境如图 4 所示,泌尿系统中的液态环境主要由水构成,故本实验将结石样品浸泡在清

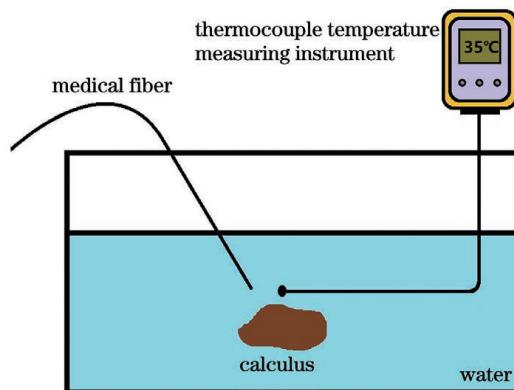


图4 体外碎石模拟实验环境

Fig. 4 Simulated experiment environment of lithotripsy *in vitro*

水中。实验中使用的结石样品有两种:一种为膀胱结石,由深圳市人民医院提供;另一种为人造硫酸钙结石,硫酸钙是结石成分之一,在实验中容易制成石块样品。医用光纤的输出尾纤经过切割处理后,可直接插入水中,用于模拟手术中将光纤置于输尿管中与结石作用的场景。此外,采用热电偶测温仪测量激光照射区域的水温。

3.3 碎石效果分析与讨论

为了观察TFL输出激光对结石的粉碎效果,在水环境中使用脉宽、重复频率、平均输出功率分别为 $1000\ \mu\text{s}$ 、 $100\ \text{Hz}$ 、 $22\ \text{W}$ 的激光照射膀胱结石表面,此

时会有大量粉末产生,并扩散至结石周围的水中,同时许多气泡浮出水面,随后结石体积逐渐变小,最后碎裂成更小的碎块。若将激光与结石完全接触,结石表面会出现火光,留下少许黑色痕迹,如图5(b)的圆圈所示。为了确定黑色痕迹是否由激光烧蚀造成,在空气环境中将激光直接照射膀胱结石,观察到结石表面首先溅射出火星,随后形成大量的白灰,白灰之下出现明显的烧黑痕迹,如图5(c)、(d)所示,与图5(b)所示的情况一致。因此推断,在水环境下采用TFL输出激光进行碎石的过程中,也存在比较明显的光热消融现象。

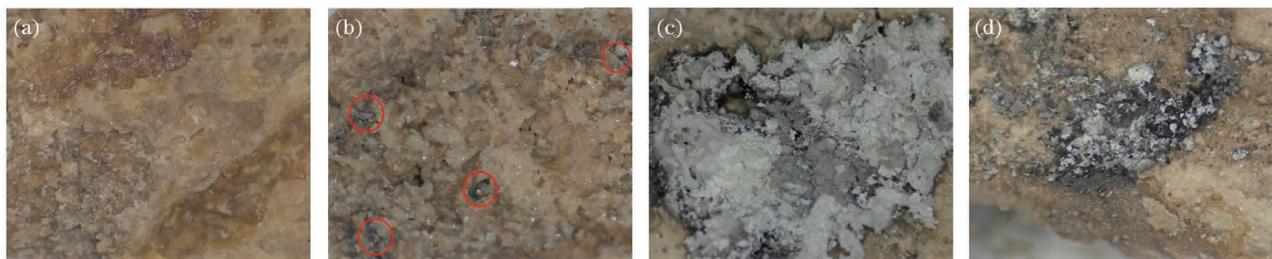


图5 结石在水中的烧蚀变化。(a)结石原样貌;(b)结石在水中消融后的样貌;(c)(d)结石在空气中烧蚀后的样貌

Fig. 5 Ablation changes of calculus under water. (a) Original appearance of calculus; (b) calculus appearance after ablation under water; (c)(d) calculus appearance after ablation in the air

图6所示为结石碎裂情况,可以看到:经过消融后结石碎裂成更小的石块;在 $100\ \text{Hz}/1000\ \mu\text{s}/22\ \text{W}$ 这一参数激光的作用下,碎裂后的小石块尺寸不超过 $1.5\ \text{mm}$,在 $100\ \text{Hz}/500\ \mu\text{s}/10\ \text{W}$ 的激光

作用下,碎裂后的小石块尺寸为 $1\sim2\ \text{mm}$ 。综合图5和图6的结果得到,波长为 $1940\ \text{nm}$ 的TFL输出激光确实能够对结石造成破坏,并且当激光功率从 $10\ \text{W}$ 增加到 $22\ \text{W}$ 时,结石的消融速度会加快。

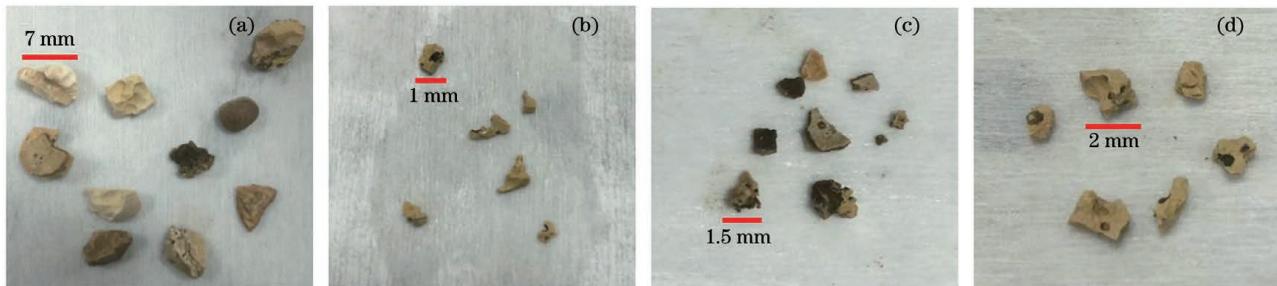


图6 不同参数下结石碎裂情况。(a)结石原样;(b)(c) $100\ \text{Hz}/1000\ \mu\text{s}/22\ \text{W}$ 激光作用下的结石碎块;(d) $100\ \text{Hz}/500\ \mu\text{s}/10\ \text{W}$ 激光作用下的结石碎块

Fig. 6 Results of TFL ablation in small calculus under different conditions. (a) Original calculus; (b)(c) calculus fragments with parameters of $100\ \text{Hz}/1000\ \mu\text{s}/22\ \text{W}$; (d) calculus fragments with parameters of $100\ \text{Hz}/500\ \mu\text{s}/10\ \text{W}$

为研究TFL输出激光的碎石规律,采用前后对照的方法测量石块的质量消融量。结石样品为自制块状硫酸钙,在每组激光参数下对硫酸钙固体前后的质量差进行3次测量,然后取平均值,记为M。每组实验的激光照射时间为90 s,测量结果如表2所示。

根据表2的数据,当脉宽为 $250\ \mu\text{s}$,重复频率为 $200\ \text{Hz}$ 、 $400\ \text{Hz}$ 、 $600\ \text{Hz}$ 时,相应的单脉冲能量和平

均输出功率依次为 $0.047\ \text{J}/9.53\ \text{W}$ 、 $0.05\ \text{J}/20.29\ \text{W}$ 、 $0.053\ \text{J}/31.8\ \text{W}$,结石的消融量从 $0.09\ \text{g}$ 增加到 $0.290\ \text{g}$ 、 $0.333\ \text{g}$ 。由此可见,在同一脉宽下,单脉冲能量变化相对较小,随着脉冲重复频率增大,平均输出功率增大,进而导致碎石速率增大,表明在相同的单脉冲能量下,激光的平均输出功率是石块消融量的主要影响因素,其与脉冲重复频率呈正相关变化,故不论是长脉冲激光还是短脉冲激光,增大平

表2 不同激光参数下测得的块状硫酸钙的质量消融量

Table 2 Measured mass loss of massive calcium sulfate with different laser parameters

Pulse duration τ / μs	Pulse repetition rate f / Hz	Mass loss in average M / g	Laser power P / W
250	200	0.090	9.53
250	400	0.290	20.29
250	600	0.333	31.80
500	100	0.127	10.20
500	200	0.343	21.52
500	300	0.480	33.10
1000	50	0.273	10.50
1000	100	0.590	21.80
1000	150	0.697	33.50
2000	25	0.280	10.76
2000	50	0.550	22.08
2000	75	0.723	34.20

均输出功率均有利于增加石块的质量消融量。通过横向对比发现:在输出功率最大的情况下,不同脉宽激光的单脉冲能量不一样,石块的质量消融量也有较大差异。表2中各脉宽条件下的最大输出功率和单脉冲能量分别为31.8 W/0.053 J(250 μs)、33.1 W/0.11 J(500 μs)、33.5 W/0.22 J(1000 μs)和34.2 W/0.45 J(2000 μs),造成的消融量依次为0.333,0.480,0.697,0.723 g。此4组数据中激光的平均输出功率相差不大,但随着单脉冲能量的升高,石块消融量不断增大。由此可以看出,TFL在长脉宽、低脉冲重复频率模式下的单脉冲能量较高,具有较高的碎石效率。若继续增大平均功率,碎

石效率将进一步提升,但随着平均功率的增大,周围水环境的温度也会进一步提升。在人体内,温度达到45 °C时会引起组织损伤,温度大于60 °C时组织会受到不可逆的损伤。因此,在实际临床碎石手术的要求中,激光碎石效率和安全性能至关重要。

为了验证TFL激光碎石对人体的安全性能,对结石环境的水温进行了相关测量。采用热电偶测温仪对结石被照射点附近3 mm的范围(人体输尿管管径约为7 mm)进行温度采集,记录了不同单脉冲能量下水温的最高温度,结果如表3所示,初始水温为 T_1 ,激光照射后的最高水温为 T_2 。

表3 最高功率时水温的峰值

Table 3 Peak water temperature at the maximum output power

Laser parameter	Output power P / W	Pulse energy E / J	Temperature	
			T_1 / °C	T_2 / °C
600 Hz/250 μs	31.8	0.053	28.1	30.8
300 Hz/500 μs	33.1	0.110	28.2	35.5
150 Hz/1000 μs	33.5	0.220	28.2	38.9
75 Hz/2000 μs	34.2	0.450	27.7	41.2

从表3可以看到,2000 μs /75 Hz/0.45 J参数下水温的峰值最高,为41.2 °C,相应的单脉冲能量也最大,说明在平均输出功率相似的情况下,单脉冲能量的增加虽然能够提高碎石效率,但也会导致更大的温升。在实际手术中,会加入灌注液(生理盐

水)进行冲洗,冲洗能够带走结石周围的热流,起到降温的作用。后续实验将在灌注条件下,测量水温的变化曲线,结合温度的变化详细分析TFL的参数对碎石效果的影响规律,在确保人体组织安全的情况下,给出更佳的TFL激光碎石参数。

4 结 论

针对激光碎石对新型激光光源的要求,搭建了中心波长为1939.31 nm,脉宽为0~2000 μs、重复频率在0~2 kHz可调的准连续TFL,激光的平均输出功率最高为34.2 W,并将此激光器应用到体外碎石实验中。采用前后对照的方法测量了TFL输出激光对块状硫酸钙的消融规律,结果显示,在单脉冲能量相差不大的情况下,激光的平均输出功率是碎石消融量的主要影响因素;在平均输出功率接近的情况下,单脉冲能量是碎石消融量的主要影响因素,TFL输出激光在长脉宽模式下具有较高的单脉冲能量,在该模式下具有较好的碎石效果。此外,实验中还发现:TFL输出激光在长脉宽模式下可产生更多的热量,导致结石表面产生更大的水温变化。

综上所述,波长为1940 nm的TFL输出激光对结石具有较为显著的粉碎特性,结合光纤激光器的优良特性,TFL极有可能成为下一代激光碎石术的激光光源。本课题组后续将继续优化TFL的参数并完善模拟的碎石环境,提升碎石效率和安全性能,为TFL在碎石方面的临床应用提供支撑。

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Exploration of Thulium-Doped Fiber Lasers in Lithotripsy *in vitro*

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Abstract

Objective Water has a strong absorption coefficient in the mid-infrared band, which explains why mid-infrared lasers are widely used in medicine. The thulium-doped fiber laser (TFL) emission wavelength range includes the water absorption peak at 1940 nm, which has been used in prostatic hyperplasia tissue resection surgery. There have been numerous reports on TFL being used in lithotripsy, including the mechanism of action and clinical tests. There was, however, no mention of a long pulse mode or a high pulse repetition rate mode. We developed a quasi-continuous wave (QCW) TFL for laser lithotripsy to address these issues. In conjunction with previous reports, this study focuses on the use of various laser parameters to ablate calculus *in vitro* in order to verify the feasibility of TFL laser lithotripsy and evaluate calculus ablation efficiency. Additionally, a thermometer is used to monitor the peak temperature of the water to ensure that the system is operating safely.

Methods Six 140 W, 793 nm fiber-coupled laser diodes (LDs) pumped the QCW TFL, with the six LDs modulated synchronously by the drive current signal. The pulse width and repetition rate (PRR) of the LD drive current can be continuously tuned in the range of 0–2 ms and 0–2 kHz. Two fiber Bragg gratings (FBG) were used to construct the reflectance of laser oscillator. The reflectance of high-reflective FBG is 99.8%, while the reflectance of low-reflective FBG is 9.38%. The gain fiber was a 4-m-long thulium-doped fiber with a core diameter of 25 μm and an inner cladding diameter of 400 μm. At 793 nm, the cladding absorption is 4.2 dB/m. The laser output port was a SMA905 connector that could be butt joined to a medical fiber via a converter. To simulate the clinical environment for laser lithotripsy, the calculus was placed in water, as shown in Fig. 4. Calcium sulfate was used as calculus in the

experiment to investigate the effect of TFL parameters on calculus ablation efficiency and ambient temperatures. Three times before and after laser exposure, the mass loss of the calculus was determined. Finally, a thermometer was used to monitor the temperature of the water at a depth of 3 mm below the surface of the calculus.

Results and Discussions The TFL laser had a wavelength of 1939.31 nm and a maximum average output power of 34.2 W. After modulation, the single pulse profiles and pulse trains were stable (Fig. 3). The experimental phenomena of laser lithotripsy revealed that when the medical fiber tip struck the surface of a calculus, it immediately produced a large amount of powder that diffused into the water, and the calculus's surface had some burnt marks. Consequently, we conclude that there is an obvious photo thermal ablation mechanism in the process of TFL laser lithotripsy in a water environment. Table 2 displayed the measured mass loss of the calculus with various laser parameters. Mass loss increased by 0.09 g (200 Hz/9.53 W/0.047 J) up to 0.29 g (400 Hz/20.29 W/0.05 J) and 0.333 g (600 Hz/31.8 W/0.053 J) at a pulse width of 250 μ s. At first, the mass loss increased with increasing output power at pulse widths of 500, 1000, and 2000 μ s. Consequently, whether the laser pulse is long or short, the ablating rate increases with increasing laser power. Furthermore, the mass loss of ablation increased with larger single pulse energy while output power remained approximate, such as 0.333 g at 31.8 W/0.053 J (250 μ s), 0.480 g at 33.1 W/0.11 J (500 μ s), 0.697 g caused by 33.5 W/0.22 J (1000 μ s), and 0.723 g at 34.2 W/0.45 J (2000 μ s). In this case, the single pulse energy was the primary influencing factor in calculus ablation. Moreover, the single pulse energy had an effect on not only ablation efficiency but also water temperature. When single pulse energy reached 0.45 J (2000 μ s/34.2 W) during laser irradiation, the peak temperature of water was 41.2 °C. As a result, for the same output power, the single pulse energy produced more heat in the same amount of time.

Conclusions QCW TFL was constructed with a center wavelength of PRR of 1939.31 nm, a pulse width of 0–2000 μ s, and a PRR of 0–2 kHz, respectively. 34.2 W was the maximum average output power. Following that, *in vitro* lithotripsy experiments were performed using the laser. The results indicate that when the single pulse energy is constant, the average output power of the laser is the primary factor affecting the ablation efficiency of lithotripsy. And when the average output power is comparable, the energy of the single pulse becomes the determining factor. Additionally, the TFL can generate more heat when operating in the long pulse width mode, resulting in a greater rise in water temperature. In conclusion, TFL with a wavelength of 1940 nm has a significant lithotripsy effect. When combined with fiber lasers' superior characteristics, it is very likely to become the laser source for the next generation of laser lithotripsy.

Key words laser optics; laser lithotripsy; thulium-doped fiber lasers; QCW lasers; calculus ablation