

1 **Fluorescence of nanodiamond cocktails: pH-induced effects through** 2 **interactions with comestible liquids**

3

4 *Maciej J. Głowacki^a, Mateusz Ficek^a, Mirosław Sawczak^b, Anna Wcisło^c, and Robert Bogdanowicz^{a*}*

5

6 ^a Gdansk University of Technology, 11/12 G. Narutowicza St., 80-233 Gdansk, Poland

7 ^b Polish Academy of Sciences, Szewalski Institute of Fluid-Flow Machinery, 14 Fiszerza St., 80-
8 231 Gdansk, Poland

9 ^c Department of Analytical Chemistry, Faculty of Chemistry, University of Gdansk, 63 Wita
10 Stwosza St., 80-952 Gdansk, Poland

11

12 ***Corresponding author:** E-mail: rbogdan@eti.pg.edu.pl. Tel: +48-58-347-15-03. Fax: +48-58-347-18-48
13 (Robert Bogdanowicz)

14

15 **Abstract**

16 Fluorescent nanodiamonds with nitrogen-vacancy centers have become important nanoscale probes for sensing and
17 imaging. The surface chemistry of the nanodiamonds influences their emission, interactions, and quantum
18 properties. In this work, we propose to utilize fluorescent nanodiamonds as photostable markers for investigation
19 of comestible liquids. We prepared nanodiamond/comestibles suspensions/cocktails with a wide range of pH levels
20 and studied the samples via fluorescence, wettability, and zeta potential. The composition of the created cocktails
21 revealed a strong impact on the properties of the nanodiamond and its surface chemistry, mainly induced by pH
22 but also tuned by specific quenching compounds. Moreover, the stability of the nanodiamonds in the cocktail media
23 was studied, along with various nature-originated compounds influencing their surface termination, polarity, and
24 charge states. Thanks to the stability and biocompatibility of the nanodiamond, it can be applied in monitoring the
25 condition of foodstuffs, and in the detection of toxins and pathogens in them.

26

27 **Keywords:** nanodiamonds; nitrogen-vacancy centers; liquid comestibles; fluorescence, markers

28

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Nanodiamonds (NDs) are a class of diamond structures with sizes not exceeding 1 μm . More than 10 methods for
31 the production of the nanodiamonds exist with 3 of the techniques performed commercially: a detonation method,
32 high-temperature, high-pressure (HPHT) synthesis followed by milling, and laser ablation. The HPHT procedure
33 is generally preferred for the production of diamonds meant to be used as hosts for the color centers. The centers
34 of a special interest to scientists are nitrogen-vacancy (NV) centers, exhibiting intensive, red fluorescence emission,
35 which is very stable at room temperature and undergoes neither bleaching nor blinking. The zero-phonon lines

36 (ZPLs) of the neutral (NV^0) and negatively charged nitrogen-vacancy (NV^-) centers appear at 575 nm and 637 nm,
37 respectively (Crane et al., 2019; Panwar et al., 2019).

38 Interactions of NDs with products suitable for consumption are a research topic that is being turned to increasingly
39 commonly. The nanodiamonds have found application in several techniques used to detect substances from inside
40 comestible products. One such technique is the electrochemical detection, where NDs, along with other forms of
41 carbon, are used to enhance the sensing substrates. Babadi *et al.* (Babadi et al., 2019) developed a composite
42 electrode made of copper, carbon nanotubes and nanodiamonds. The electrode was modified with L-amino acid
43 oxidase and used for detection of amino acids in the *Parkia speciosa* juice. Carvalho *et al.* (Carvalho et al., 2021)
44 coated screen-printed carbon electrode with NDs, and used it in electrochemical immunosensor to track peanut
45 allergen Ara h 1 in samples extracted from an energy bar, cookies and granola. Jiang *et al.* (Jiang et al., 2018) used
46 several different forms of carbon (graphene or amorphous carbon or boron-doped nanodiamond) drop-cast on
47 glassy carbon electrodes for electrochemical sensing of phenolics. The electrodes utilizing the amorphous carbon
48 were used to detect hydroquinone and catechol in green tea samples. Shabnam *et al.* (Shabnam et al., 2017)
49 deposited a composite of copper nanoparticles and nitrogen-doped graphene on a glassy carbon electrode for
50 electrochemical detection of glucose. The detection has been performed in various food products, including tea,
51 concentrated orange juice, sweetened beverages, and energy drinks. Recently, Kumar *et al.* (V. Kumar et al., 2020)
52 manifested direct-current voltage (IV)-based sensor for facile detection of urea in milk samples, utilizing an urease-
53 immobilized graphitized NDs.

54 Another method for analysis of food products where the nanodiamonds have found wide application is
55 chromatography. NDs are often used as sorbents to enhance the solid-phase extraction of substances from
56 comestible samples. Ozdemir et al. (Ozdemir et al., 2017) reported that *Bacillus altitudinis*-immobilized
57 nanodiamonds could be applied as biofunctional sorbent for preconcentrating of cobalt, chromium or lead cations
58 in food samples toward optimum analytics of their concentrations by ICP-OES. The food products under
59 examination were black tea, onion, cheese, and rice samples. Ulusoy *et al.* (Ulusoy et al., 2019) modified a
60 nanocomposite of multi-walled carbon nanotubes and NDs with Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles. The resulting nanoparticles
61 were used in magnetic solid-phase extraction to detect vitamin B12 in food samples (milk powder, orange and
62 peach juice, salami, and certified reference materials) via high-performance liquid chromatography–photodiode
63 array method. Cui *et al.* (Cui et al., 2019) applied functionalized nanodiamonds as one of the co-monomers in the
4 preparation of a solid-phase extraction column used to enrich and purify β -sitosterol in four kinds of comestible
5 oils. A small addition of the nanodiamonds ensured uniform porosity and improved the thermal stability of the
5 column. The impact of pH on the efficiency of the biosorption was investigated, and it was reported that the highest
7 recovery rates may be obtained at mildly acidic pH values (5–6).

68 NDs have also been applied directly inside the food products. Grichko *et al.* (Grichko et al., 2006) demonstrated
69 the potential use of detonation nanodiamonds as carriers of substances promoting or inhibiting the growth of
70 bananas. Delayed ripening was successfully achieved by introducing detonation nanodiamonds coated with
71 diphenylcyclopropanone into the bananas. Some experiments have used food products as precursors in the
72 preparation of carbon nanoparticles. Cong *et al.* (Cong et al., 2019) successfully separated fluorescent, mostly
73 carbon-based nanoparticles from a popular type of pizza. The authors attributed the origin of the nanoparticles to
74 physicochemical reactions occurring during the thermal processing of the food. On illumination with UV light, a
75 suspension of the nanoparticles emitted pH-dependent, blue fluorescence, which shifted toward longer
76 wavelengths as the excitation wavelength was increasing.

77 Carbonaceous materials are being increasingly added to food packaging as bacteriobic materials. Mitura *et al.*
78 (Mitura et al., 2017) presented that food packaging films modified with carbon nanomaterials can affect the
79 viability of bacteria. Mikamoto *et al.* (Mikamoto et al., 2020) showed improvement in durability and sliding
80 properties of food packaging equipment by combined treatment of diamond-like carbon coating and fine particle
81 bombarding. Arcot *et al.* (Arcot et al., 2021) manifested that nanodiamond-coated high-density polyethylene
82 (HDPE) surfaces show superhydrophobic behavior and reduce the cross-contamination of spinach leaves by
83 *Salmonella typhimurium* and *Listeria innocua* attributed to the water-repellent nature of NDs. The study of the
84 influence of the nanodiamonds on food products is very important due to the possibility of the release of the
85 nanodiamonds from the packaging to the product.

86 Moreover, food safety monitoring issues have recently attracted big interest, especially the possibility of replacing
87 the conventional high-performance laboratory techniques with point-of-care technology (Choi et al., 2019). The
88 most commonly used detection methods are based on colorimetric and fluorescence measurements. Compared to
89 colorimetric-based test methods, fluorescence measurements enable a significant increase in sensitivity. Different
90 fluorescence techniques based on functionalized polymeric nanoparticles, quantum dots and graphene-oxide-based
91 structures have been reported in application for food contaminants detection (B. Li et al., 2017). The advantages of
92 the nanodiamonds in food testing are their biocompatibility and durability, which allow for long-term use.
93 Moreover, since the color centers can be created inside the nanodiamonds, these particles do not need any additional
94 fluorophores for optical detection.

95 An issue of the influence of pH on the physical properties of the nanodiamonds, and the nitrogen-vacancy centers
5 in particular, was brought to researchers' attention recently, and it has already given rise to many novel experiments
7 expanding the potential of these structures. Reineck *et al.* (Reineck et al., 2018) analyzed the fluorescence of
3 aqueous suspensions of disaggregated, oxidized detonation nanodiamonds in a range of pH between 3.7 and 12.7.
9 The authors found the intensity of the photoluminescence reaching maximum values in highly alkaline conditions,
9 and decreasing significantly toward lower pH levels, which is similar to the pH dependence of the fluorescence



101 emitted by aromatic hydrocarbons. The spectra presented by Reineck *et al.* (Reineck *et al.*, 2018) do not contain
102 zero-phonon lines of the nitrogen-vacancy centers. Fujisaku *et al.* (Fujisaku *et al.*, 2019) focused on the impact of
103 pH on the value and decay of a longitudinal relaxation time (T_1) of NV^- electron spin. The authors analyzed
104 carboxylated nanodiamonds under a pH of range of 3–11, and found the dependence of T_1 on the surrounding pH
105 between values of pH=3 and pH=7, but not between pH=7 and pH=11. Satisfactory reversibility of T_1 was also
106 established when the ambient pH was alternated between pH=3 and pH=9 (Fujisaku *et al.*, 2019).

107 Extensive research on application of the nanodiamonds as bioimaging agents and markers of local temperature or
108 magnetic field monitoring requires an understanding of their functioning in various environments with different
109 pH values. Due to their biocompatibility, NDs can be used to monitor the condition of food, the content of toxins,
110 and to detect pathogens in them (Białobrzaska *et al.*, 2021). Next, fluorescent NDs could be considered as a
111 functional optical marker or sensing agent in food products and packaging (see Table S1 in the Supplementary
112 Information). The readout of NDs' fluorescence allows for targeted determination of food quality or detection of
113 contamination or hazardous compounds, enabling qualitative and quantitative production of healthier, safer, and
114 high-quality functional food (Medeiros *et al.*, 2010). NDs could also be used as a synergistic agent in smart food
115 packaging, enabling fluorescent monitoring of the quality of the stored food and increasing shelf-life of food
116 products once modified by active groups working as preserving agents (Arcot *et al.*, 2021). Therefore, we examined
117 the fluorescent parameters and NV charge manipulation of NDs in selected comestible liquids across a wide pH
118 range for the first time. The stability of nanodiamond particles in real comestible liquids was also particularly
119 studied. There are studies available in the literature proving the usefulness of wettability parameters in the
120 assessment of food products - i.e. the characteristics of multi-component solid foods, providing information on the
121 migration of fats in chocolate, and also allowing for the evaluation of capillary flow as a migration mechanism
122 (Reinke *et al.*, 2015) (see details in S1.2. section in the Supplementary Information).

123 In the present study, commercially available NDs containing NV color centers were dispersed in a series of
124 comestible liquids varying in pH and composition. Comestible liquids are complex media consisting of various
125 nature-originated compounds influencing NDs' surface termination, as well as their polarity and charge states. In
126 order to verify whether NDs may be easily, unambiguously detected optically from within the comestible liquids,
127 the measurements of fluorescence were carried out. The obtained spectra were analyzed in search of characteristic
128 local maxima (peaks) exhibited by NV centers, i.e., ZPLs and phonon sidebands. Moreover, to evaluate sensing
129 possibilities of NDs via fluorescence spectroscopy, a ratio of photon count rate at ZPL of NV^- centers to the photon
130 count rate at ZPL of NV^0 centers was calculated where possible, and compared to data obtained for a reference
131 series of suspensions of NDs in deionized water, with pH tuned either with HCl, or NaOH. This has been to verify
132 whether pH is a crucial property of the media to potentially influence the fluorescence of NV centers, or whether
133 the centers are more affected by the composition of their surrounding comestible environment. To assess the
134 stability of the systems, zeta potential of the suspensions of NDs in the comestible liquids has been examined.

135 Furthermore, measurements of contact angle between droplets of the suspensions and a surface made of
136 polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) have been carried out.

137

138 2. Materials and methods

139 2.1. Nanodiamond suspensions

140 The suspensions were prepared by dispersing commercially available, fluorescent carboxylated diamond particles
141 (ND-COOH, Adámas Nanotechnologies, approximately 700 nm average particle size, 3.5 ppm concentration of
142 NV⁻ centers) in a variety of liquids. As a preliminary step, the diamond powder itself was characterized using
143 Raman spectroscopy and scanning electron microscopy (SEM). For this purpose, it was suspended in deionized
144 water, and then drop-cast onto a silicon substrate and dried to form a thin layer.

145 The following 8 comestible liquids were selected to prepare the nanodiamond suspensions: 10% spirit vinegar,
146 100% lemon juice, 100% apple juice, 100% beetroot juice, 100% coconut water, black tea, green tea, and alkaline
147 mineral water. Information regarding the producers of the comestible liquids is presented in Table 1. The liquids
148 were always bought on the day of the experiment and unpacked directly before the synthesis procedure in order to
149 maintain the maximum freshness of the products. Except for during the synthesis and the measurements, the
150 samples were stored in a laboratory refrigerator.

151 The fluorescent powder was separately added to each of the liquids to obtain a 0.1% mass concentration of the
152 diamond. The samples were then treated in an ultrasonic bath for 30 minutes to ensure homogeneous dispersion of
153 the particles. The pH of the samples was measured directly after the synthesis. The names of the suspensions and
154 their corresponding dispersion media are presented in Table 1. The samples were examined in terms of fluorescence
155 and zeta potential. Additionally, the measurements of the contact angle between droplets of the suspensions and a
156 surface made of polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) were carried out.

157

158 Table 1. Details on the origins, and initial pH values of the comestible liquids, as well as pH values of the
159 resulting nanodiamond suspensions

Comestible liquid	Producer	Symbol of the comestible liquid	Initial pH of the comestible liquid	Symbol of the suspension based on the comestible liquid	Resulting pH of the suspension
10% spirit vinegar (V)	OCTIM Sp. z o.o., Poland	V	2.33	V-NV-ND	2.33
100% lemon juice (L)	Polenghi LAS s.r.l., Italy	L	2.52	L-NV-ND	2.48
100% apple juice (A)	Tymbark - MWS Sp. z o.o. Sp.k., Poland	A	3.50	A-NV-ND	3.48

100% beetroot juice (B)	Excellence S.A., Poland	B	4.43	B-NV-ND	4.45
100% coconut water (C)	N.B. Value Link Co. Ltd., Thailand	C	5.25	C-NV-ND	5.23
Green tea (GT)	Unilever Polska Sp. z o.o., Poland	GT	7.18	GT-NV-ND	7.42
Black tea (BT)	Unilever Polska Sp. z o.o., Poland	BT	7.32	BT-NV-ND	7.59
Alkaline water (AW)	Zbyszko Company S.A., Poland	AW	8.42	AW-NV-ND	8.99

160

161 The reference series of the suspensions were based on simple inorganic liquids. By mixing the deionized water
 162 either with 0.1M hydrochloric acid (HCl), or 0.1M sodium hydroxide (NaOH), 11 solvents having consecutive
 163 integer values of pH in the range of 2.00–12.00 were prepared. Separately an aqueous nanodiamond suspension
 164 with a 0.2% concentration of the particles was made using an ultrasonic bath. An equal portion of the suspension
 165 was added to each of the prepared solvents in a 1:1 volume ratio, thus creating a series of samples with identical
 166 content of the diamond and pH in the range of 2.39–11.67. The fluorescence of the suspensions was thoroughly
 167 measured and compared with the photoluminescence emitted by the suspensions based on the comestible liquids.

168 2.2. Control of pH

169 The pH of the suspensions was examined using a Mettler Toledo pH meter equipped with an InLab Expert Pro-
 170 ISM electrode. The electrode was carefully rinsed with deionized water before the measurement of any next sample.

171 2.3. Raman spectroscopy

172 Raman spectra were recorded utilizing a micro-Raman spectrometer (Invia, Renishaw) with 514 nm argon-ion laser
 173 excitation. The samples were analyzed in the form of a suspension drop-cast on a silicon substrate. Additionally,
 174 the drop-cast suspension was dried and the nanomaterial was analyzed in the form of a thin film deposited on a
 175 silicon surface.

176 2.4. Fluorescence setup

177 Laser-induced fluorescence spectra were recorded using a laboratory built system consisting of a 532 nm Nd:YAG
 178 SHG laser (Millenia, Spectra-Physics) excitation source operating at a power level of 0.2 W. The fluorescence
 179 spectra were recorded employing a 0.3 m monochromator (SR303i, Andor) equipped with a 600 groove/mm grating
 180 and ICCD detector (DH740, Andor). Liquid samples (suspensions) were analyzed in quartz cuvettes excited from
 1 the front side with a laser beam at an angle of 45 degrees. The fluorescence signal was collected perpendicular to
 2 the cuvette wall illuminated with the laser using a quartz lens end focused on the entrance of an optical fiber. In
 3 the detection path, a band-pass filter (OG570, Schott) was used to block the laser radiation.

4 2.5. Zeta potential

185 The zeta potential of the samples was measured at 25°C using a Zetasizer Ultra (Malvern Panalytical Ltd.). Due
186 to the limited transmittance of the beam caused by the high opacity and intensive scattering of the suspensions, a
187 cell with palladium electrodes was applied for highly concentrated samples.

188 2.6. SEM imaging

189 Microscopic measurements of the starting diamond powder deposited onto a silicon substrate were carried out
190 using a HITACHI S-3400N scanning electron microscope. The particles were visualized using the detection of
191 secondary electrons. The accelerating voltage of the beam was equal to 25.0 kV.

192 2.7. Contact angle measurements

193 The contact angle measurement technique is based on measuring the contact angles of drops of tested liquids and
194 the surface of known materials. In this case, we used PTFE because this material's surface energy is 18 mN/m and
195 is fully dispersive. A drop of 2 μ L of probe liquid was deposited using a syringe and the image of the drop was
196 captured by a CCD camera connected to a graphics card. Measurements were repeated 30 times. After digital image
197 analysis, the average contact angle was deduced by the Young-Laplace method from the angles measured at both
198 sides of the drop in equilibrium. The total surface tension for these liquids was obtained with the pendant drop
199 method, which is equivalent to the sessile bubble method. A small droplet of a tested liquid is suspended from a
200 steel needle (capillary tube). The surface tension is derived from the fitted contour of the drop shape. The dispersive
201 and polar parts of the surface tension of the liquids were calculated from contact angle measurements on the PTFE
202 and the surface tension measurements with the use of Eq.(1).

$$203 \quad \gamma_L^D = \left(\frac{\gamma_L^2}{72}\right) (\cos\theta_{PTFE} + 1)^2 \quad (1)$$

204 Where $\cos\theta_{PTFE}$ is the contact angle of the tested liquid measured on the PTFE; γ_L^D - is the dispersive part of surface
205 tension, and γ_L^2 is its surface tension. The polar part is calculated by the difference between the surface tension and
206 dispersive part.

208 3. Results and discussion

209 3.1. Morphology and structure of NV-rich nanodiamonds

210 Fluorescent carboxylated nanodiamonds (ND-COOH) were utilized to study their behavior in selected comestible
211 liquids shown in Figure 1 and listed in Table 1. ND-COOH particles showed standard structure as revealed by
2 Raman spectra in aqueous suspension or dried on a Si wafer (see Fig. S1 in the Supplementary Information). Both
3 specimens exhibited sp^3 diamond peak accompanied with a G band, although the dried samples manifested much
4 lower sp^3 peak intensity thanks to the decrease of their effective volume.

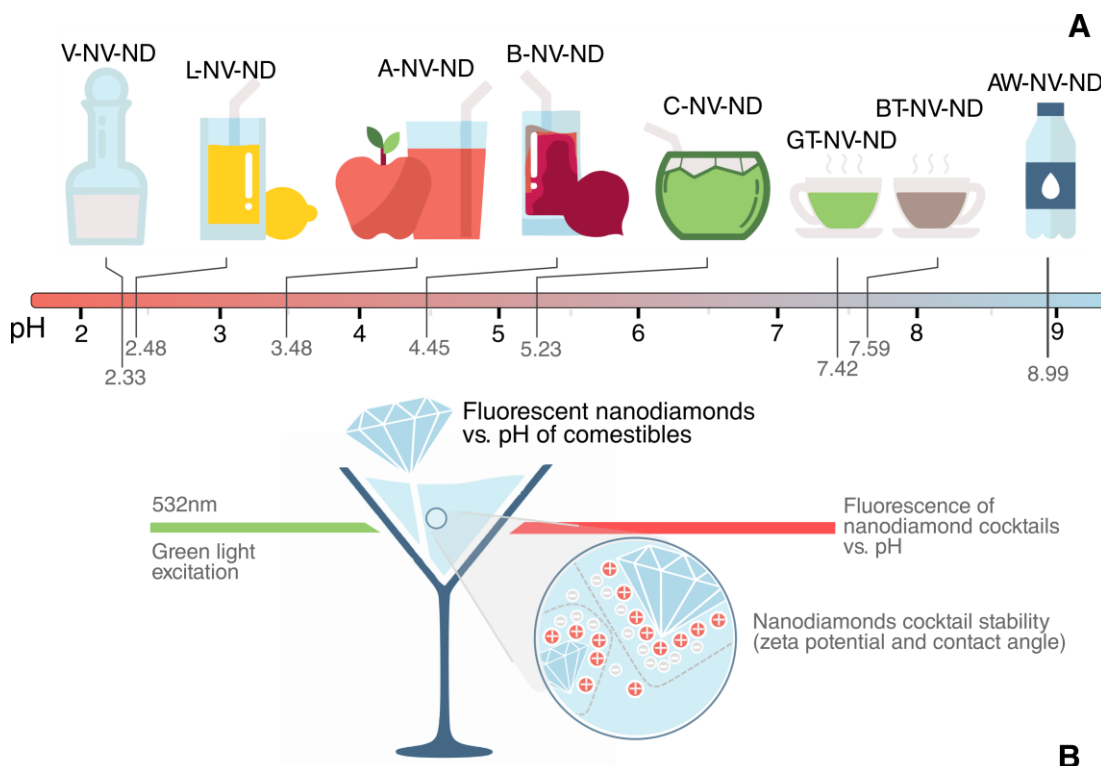


Figure 1. Overview of studied NV-ND suspensions/cocktails: A) Overview of studied comestible liquids along with pictograms of the NV-ND suspensions with referring pH values: 10% spirit vinegar; 100% lemon juice; 100% apple juice; 100% beetroot juice; 100% coconut water; black tea; green tea; alkaline mineral water; B) Principles of conducted investigations of the nanodiamond cocktails, where the fluorescence and stability of the suspensions were tailored by pH of specific surrounding comestible.

The SEM micro-images present the morphologies of the dried NV-ND suspensions based on ND-COOH and the various comestible liquids, mimicking a wide range of pH. The bare NV-ND particles were shown for reference (Fig. 2A). The representative dried suspensions of NV-ND, widely spread from highly acidic spirit vinegar (Fig. 2B) through green tea (Fig. 2C) up to alkaline water (Fig. 2D), revealed an increased effect of agglutination. Since the diamond grains originated from the HPHT method, crushed to form a fine powder of NDs, their shapes are far from spherical. The longitudinal dimensions of the nanodiamonds noticeably agglutinated in Figs 2C and 2D are similarly in the range of 3–5 μm , with the majority of the particles having the size of 700–800 nm. The ND agglutinates exhibit a kind of core-shell softened morphology probably induced by spirit vinegar and green tea residuals. The dynamic light scattering (DLS) measurement indicates that a higher pH of the comestible liquid induces an increase of the ND-COOH sizes, as reported in the artificial buffers with increasing of pH (Lei et al., 2016).

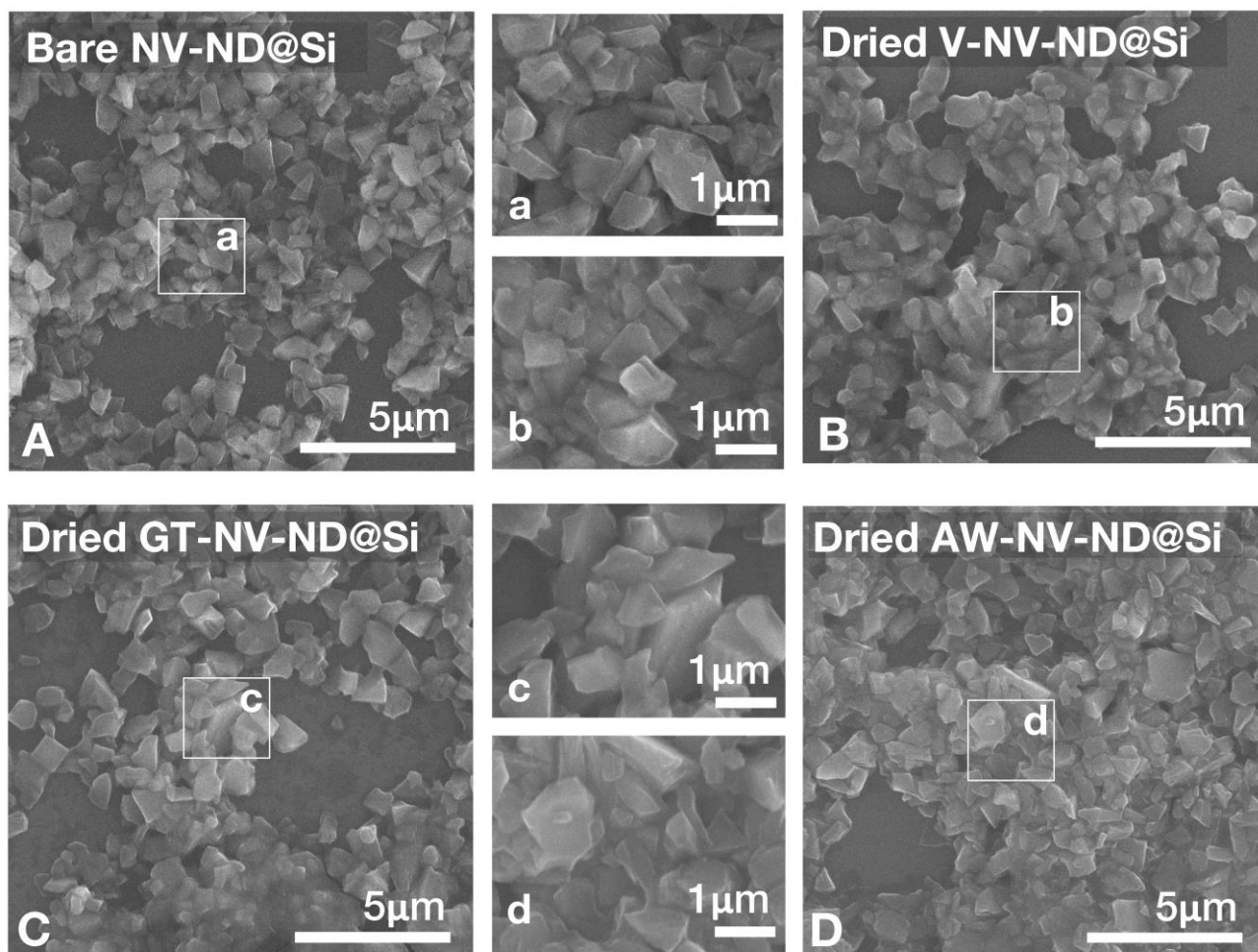


Figure 2. SEM morphologies of dried NV-ND suspensions based on: A) deionized water (reference); B) 10% spirit vinegar; C) green tea; D) alkaline mineral water.

Conversely, the reference, bare NV-ND forms groups with exposed sharp crystal edges while dried on Si. Figure 2D reveals that alkaline water (pH ~9) induces the most intensive ND aggregation effect, where almost all ND particles are agglutinated. This effect was attributed to the variations of electrostatic forces between the NDs as manifested priorly in various electrolytes (Fujisaku et al., 2019). It was previously reported by Fujisaku *et al.* (Fujisaku et al., 2019) that the size of aggregates of fluorescent nanodiamonds increases for pH ~9, exhibiting larger hydrophobicity caused by surficial groups protonation and consequently influencing NV center emission.

The -COOH surface groups on the ND particles are strongly pH-dependent, tending to undergo ionization in specific media, while shape differences or differences in sizes of ND agglutinates (see Fig. 2) could be indirectly ascribed to the pKa of the selected comestible liquids (D. G. Lim et al., 2016, 2020). The ionization process of -COOH groups achieves negative charges in alkaline pH, inducing repulsion of the nanodiamond particles, and accordingly a reduction of the sizes of the ND agglutinates. Reineck *et al.* (Reineck et al., 2018) found that a higher pH promotes a ND minor aggregation effect at pH = (8–10) and a rapid effect above pH ~11. Such a process was

250 ascribed to adsorption of shielding Na^+ ions reducing electrostatic repulsion among the NDs observed indirectly
251 by a zeta potential decrease (Reineck et al., 2018).

252 **3.2. Studies on the pH-dependency of the fluorescence and zeta potential of NV-rich nanodiamonds** 253 **suspended in comestible liquids**

254 Fig. 3A displays the fluorescence spectra of the nanodiamonds suspended in the comestible liquids with a pH in
255 the range of 2.33–8.99. The signals emitted by the NV-ND suspensions have been corrected with spectra recorded
256 for the pure comestibles (Fig. 3B), therefore Fig. 3A depicts the photoluminescence spectra of the nanodiamonds
257 themselves. The signal emitted by the particles dispersed in 10% vinegar completely overlaps with the fluorescence
258 spectrum of the nanodiamonds suspended in alkaline water. In 7 out of 8 cases, the spectra contained visible local
259 maxima at 637 nm, which are ZPLs of NV^- centers, as well as significantly weaker maxima at 575 nm (ZPLs of
260 NV^0 centers). The beetroot juice appears to be completely suppressing the photoluminescence exhibited by the
261 color centers. There seems to be no monotonic trend in the intensity changes of the fluorescence spectra recorded
262 for ND suspensions prepared at various pH induced by specific comestibles. Interestingly, the strongest signal was
263 collected from the particles suspended in the lemon juice and the apple juice – two highly acidic liquids.

264 This stands in noteworthy contradiction to the reference series and the previously reported research focused on the
265 optical performance of nanodiamonds in diverse pH (Reineck et al., 2018). However, it is important to notice that
266 in the present experiment, the dispersion media are very complex, mostly organic liquids that may interfere with
267 the color centers, either tuning or quenching their photoluminescence. It should be noted that negatively charged
268 NDs (Fig. 3D) were found to be more resistant to pH-induced aggregation in comparison to positive nanodiamond
269 particles with a zeta potential higher than 30 mV (Bradac et al., 2018).

270 There is also a clear influence of the comestible composition on the fluorescence pattern and intensity. For future
271 analysis, the spectra presented in Fig. 3A were corrected with the corresponding spectra recorded for the reference
272 comestibles, and the ratio of photon counts at the ZPL of NV^- to the ZPL of NV^0 was analyzed (Fig. 3C). The
273 results were compared to data obtained for the set of reference samples prepared with nanodiamond suspension
274 and deionized water solution with the pH tuned either with HCl, or NaOH. In the case of the reference samples,
275 the monotonic increase of the level of the NV^-/NV^0 with an increase of pH is observed and is consistent with the
276 results obtained for the detonation nanodiamond fluorescence vs pH reported by other authors (Reineck et al.,
277 2018). Next, the NV color centers could be influenced by a pH range of 3–7 but minor changes in emission were
278 recorded in the range pH 7–11 as reported by Fujisaku *et al.* (Fujisaku et al., 2019).

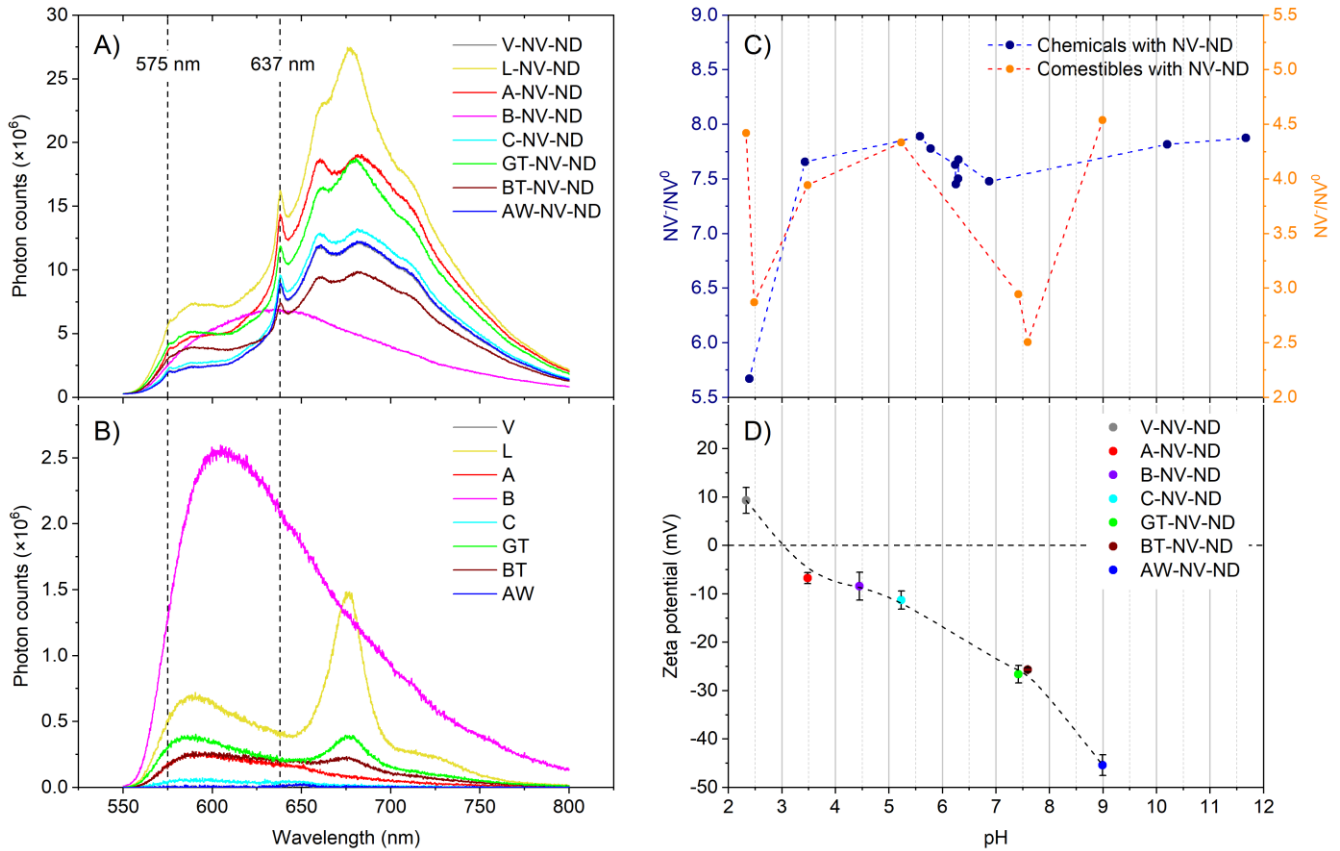


Figure 3. A) Fluorescence spectra of the nanodiamond suspensions based on the comestible liquids; B) Fluorescence spectra of the comestibles before the addition of the diamond powder; C) ratio of the photon count rate at 637 nm (ZPL of NV^- centers) to the photon count rate at 575 nm (ZPL of NV^0 centers) versus pH for the suspensions based on the comestible liquids and inorganic chemicals; D) zeta potential of the suspensions based on the comestibles versus their pH.

The drop of fluorescence observed for pH near 6.3 is induced by the rapid deprotonation process of the nanodiamond surface (Fujisaku et al., 2019). While the NV^0 fluorescence is independent of external factors, the NV^- centers are sensitive to a magnetic field, pH, and their potential application as sensors is being intensively studied (Bhaumik et al., 2019; Rondin et al., 2010). For the sensing application, the NV^- centers located near the diamond surface are being considered and in the case of pH variation, the changes in the fluorescence intensity can be explained with protonation and deprotonation processes of surface groups. The decrease of pH causes protonation processes that also lead to an increase in the zeta potential (Reineck et al., 2018). In the case of samples containing a nanodiamond suspension combined with complex organic comestibles, the interference of pH and the influence of different comestible compounds caused processes that influence the fluorescence signal, however the dependence of the intensity of the fluorescence vs pH for selected samples is comparable with that observed for the set of calibration samples – Figure 3C. For selected comestibles (vinegar, black tea, green tea), the compounds present in its composition interfere with the fluorescence of the NV centers, resulting in fluorescence quenching

298 (black and green tea) or overlapping the signal from the nanodiamonds. Moreover, the pH influence on the
299 fluorescence could also be reorganized by excited-state proton transfer processes (Reineck et al., 2018; Zelent et
300 al., 2006). The strong enhancement of the emission of carbon dots, being a kind of ND analog, was observed when
301 lemon juice was tested (Dutta Choudhury et al., 2017). Furthermore, the analytical analyses of lemon juice
302 exhibited a variety of compounds such as acetic, lactic, malic, ascorbic, and citric acids that drive a boost of
303 luminescence (Gargouri et al., 2017). The increase of suspension electrical conductivity and wettability could be
304 ascribed to the observed intensity enhancement, where more electrons are highly excited forming radiative electron-
305 hole pairs and facilitating improved fluorescence. Sacksteder *et al.* (Sacksteder et al., 1990) reported that citric acid
306 could even double the emission of quinine solution observed as a flattened Stern-Volmer plot and driven by the
307 kinetics of excited states.

308 The decrease of the fluorescence of the black tea solution could also be attributed to the presence of catechin (Du,
309 Ma, Gu, Li, Zhu, et al., 2020) or theaflavin (Wu et al., 2020) in the supernatant, which are also known as static
310 quenchers. Moreover, the caffeine in the black tea could also interact with the fluorescent nanodiamonds, capturing
311 free protons and creating π -stacking (Du, Ma, Gu, Li, & Chen, 2020), which would also reduce fluorescence. Next,
312 Miao *et al.* (Miao et al., 2015) revealed that the green tea extract could also form complexes inducing the static
313 quenching mechanism due to epicatechin gallate (found in the extract) involving probable binding with the
314 nanodiamonds and Van der Waals forces. Additionally, the complex composition of coconut water, containing
315 among others, vitamins, sugars, amino acids, proteins, and lipids, could suppress effective non-covalent energy
316 transfer and, thus reduce ND fluorescence.

317 The strong influence of beetroot juice could be mainly attributed to the betanin pigment and its derivatives present
318 in the natural extract (Das et al., 2020) exhibiting fluorescence quenching for even micro-molar concentrations of
319 betalains. Gliszczyńska-Świągło *et al.* (Gliszczyńska-Świągło et al., 2006) found pH-dependent intensive free radical
320 scavenging activity of betanin, which could be an additional factor causing deprotonation of -COOH groups at the
321 surfaces of the fluorescent NDs.

322 Metal ions such as Sn(II) and Zn(II) (Y. Li et al., 2020) that exist in juices and alkaline water could also reveal
323 fluorescence-quenching behavior when weakly bonded or adsorbed to the NDs' surface thanks to the spin-orbit
324 coupling energy or electron transfer. Lastly, ascorbic acid (Vitamin C) is widely present in fresh fruit juices and is
325 responsible for a photo-induced electron transfer mechanism that also causes fluorescence quenching.

5 The reduction of the average size of the NDs would also cause photoluminescence of NVs thanks to the annihilation
7 of vacancies. Tsapyuk *et al.* (Tsapyuk et al., 2020) reported that sonication treatment triggers C-O bonds, thus
3 defects or color centers linked to oxygen-containing surface groups such as -COOH would be significantly altered.
3 Obviously, the deprotonation considerably enhances the charge of the oxygen atoms in the -COOH groups,
3 increasing the negative surface charge of the NDs and thus decreasing the trend of particle aggregation.
1 Deprotonated ND-COOH surfaces exhibit a large negative charge creating a dense hydration shell around particles



332 by surrounding H₂O, which quench fluorescence. Nevertheless, Fujiwara *et al.* (Fujiwara et al., 2019) revealed a
333 minor influence of pH on the final response of NV-based quantum sensors, where just a slight weakening or
334 response could be attributed to water adsorption initiating the photoionization of charge states in nitrogen
335 vacancies.

336 Fig. 3D depicts the zeta potential of the NDs suspended in the comestible liquids versus the pH in the range of
337 2.33–8.99. The signal transmitted through the sample based on the lemon juice was below the noise level, even
338 though a special cell for highly concentrated liquids was used. Therefore, this one suspension is not included in the
339 graph. The value of the zeta potential of the nanodiamonds is positive for highly acid media (pH < 3.00) and
340 negative for higher pH, which is typical behavior. The isoelectric point occurs at pH = 3.00. In the case of the
341 samples based on vinegar, apple juice, beetroot juice, and coconut water, the absolute value of their zeta potentials
342 is below 25 mV, and therefore these suspensions cannot be considered stable, as the diamond particles will
343 eventually undergo sedimentation. The sample based on alkaline water is characterized by the highest absolute
344 value of the zeta potential, equal to 45.4 mV, and regarded as an indicator of good stability (A. Kumar & Dixit,
345 2017). Evidently, the changes in pH values induce variation in the hydrodynamic diameter of ND-COOH
346 agglutinates, which could be observed by DLS or in a decrease of the zeta potential (D. G. Lim et al., 2016, 2017).
347 Lim *et al.* (D. G. Lim et al., 2020) reported a negative zeta potential of -27.0 ± 0.4 mV for a pH of 8 for ND-
348 COOH being comparable with the data presented here in Fig. 3D. Thereafter, the variation of the zeta potential
349 versus pH reported here, measured for samples containing diamond suspension and comestibles increases with the
350 reduction of the pH, which is in agreement with previous results presented by Reineck *et al.* (Reineck et al., 2018).

351 **3.3. Studies on the dependency of the contact angle of NV-rich nanodiamond suspended in comestible** 352 **liquids**

353 Various studies were conducted to determine the impact of the presence of the nanodiamonds on the parameters of
354 wettability and surface tension of liquids, taking into account the pH of the tested systems. Such an approach
355 allowed us to gain an understanding of the solvent/nanodiamond interactions driving variations in fluorescence.
356 Figure 4 displays the contact angle and surface tension values of the tested liquids together with the symbols used.
357 The surface tension of the comestible liquids was mostly lower (~54–58 mN/m) than clean water (75 mN/m). Only
358 in the case of apple juice and alkaline water was it slightly higher (~79 mN/m). The admixture of nanodiamond
359 suspensions into these samples generally reduces surface tension. Nevertheless, these changes are not significant
360 enough to indicate the function of nanoparticles as a surfactant. This behavior is closely related to the Brownian
1 motion of nanoparticles within a comestible liquid. This phenomenon causes the diffusion of the nanodiamond
2 particles within the droplet, thereby changing the structure of the liquid-gas interface, which results in a decrease
3 in surface tension.

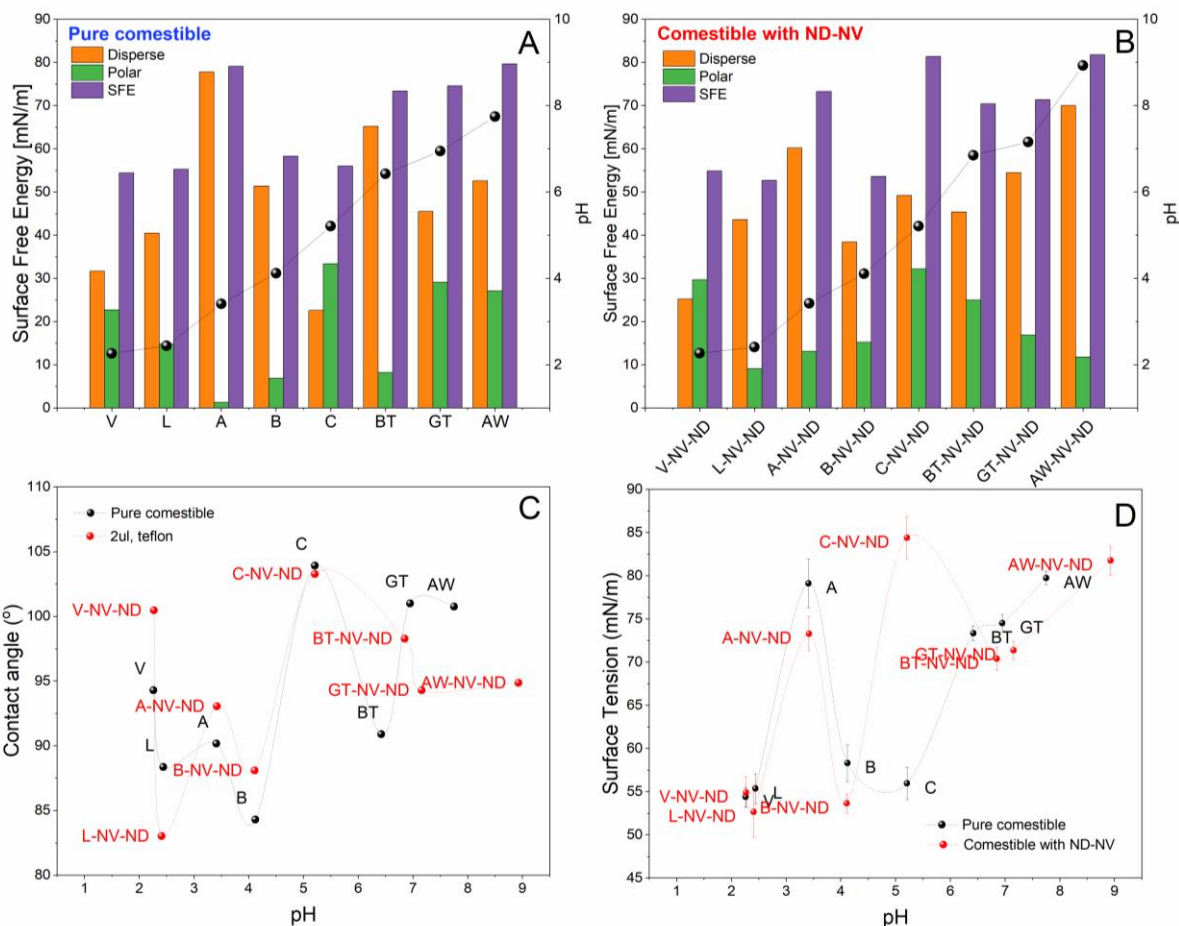
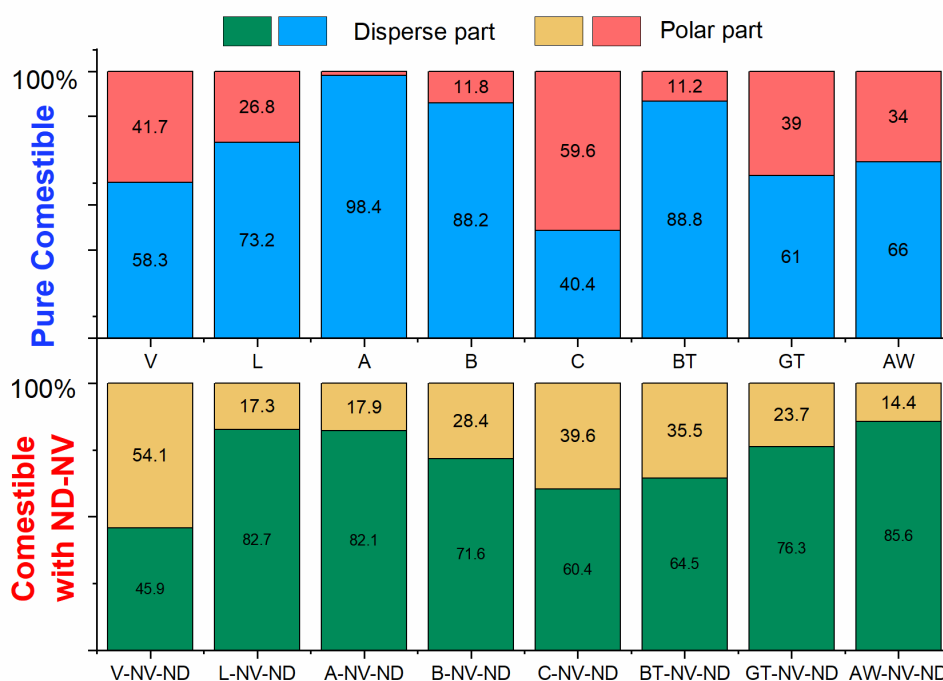


Figure 4. Diagrams of surface energies with uncertainties for: A) the investigated pure comestibles; B) comestibles containing nanodiamonds; C) dependence of contact angle and D) surface tension of investigated liquids on pH.

In addition, the contact angle measurements of pristine and NV-enriched comestible liquids were examined at a standard reference PTFE surface. The achieved results were again compared to ultrapure water. Pristine beetroot juice exhibits the lowest contact angle (84.29°) among the tested comestibles while coconut water (103.91°) possesses the highest. In general, it was noticed that comestibles with an acid nature have lower contact angles at PTFE than those of an alkaline nature. In addition, nearly all of them have improved wettability than ultrapure water. The admixture of nanodiamond suspension increases the contact angle for all of the samples. However, in the case of samples with alkaline pH, we observed the reverse trend of changes. ND suspensions show a lower contact angle than the corresponding sample without nanodiamonds. Such changes in wetting in the presence of NDs seem to be reasonable when looking into the mechanism of the wetting process.

Drop formation on the surface of a solid material depends on many factors. It is at the interface of individual phases – liquid, solid, and gas – that interactions shape the droplet shape. Hence, both the surface tension of the liquid that changes after the addition of NDs, as well as their settling on the surface of the material, ultimately affect the value

381 of the contact angle. Previous studies of nanoparticle suspensions have shown that as a result of their adsorption
 382 on the surface of the tested material, and thus its modification, the contact line of these phases changes, which
 383 results in a change in the contact angle (S. Lim et al., 2015; Radiom et al., 2009; Sefiane et al., 2008; Vafaei et al.,
 384 2006; Zhong et al., 2015). Moreover, the observed higher hydrophilicity of ND is driven by changes in the total
 385 surface energy, which was ascribed previously to the rise of the Lewis acid-base surface tension component
 386 (Zhuang et al., 2010).



387
 388 **Figure 5.** Diagrams of the percentage of the dispersive and polar parts of surface tension (SFT) with
 389 uncertainties for investigated comestibles with and without the nanodiamonds.

391 Moreover, the contact angle measurements on PTFE were performed and the parameters of the free surface energy
 392 of the investigated liquids were determined (see Fig. 4). Surface energy is the effect of intermolecular interactions
 393 at interfaces, which allows their characterization. It can be divided into two components: disperse (γ^d), attributed
 394 to van der Waals and other non-specific interactions, and polar (γ^p), resulting from dipole-dipole, dipole-induced
 395 dipole interactions, hydrogen bonds, and other specific interactions at the interface. The total surface energy is
 396 expressed by Eq.(2).

$$\gamma^s = \gamma^d + \gamma^p \quad (2)$$

7 The tested comestible liquids are characterized by energy values in the range of 54–79 mN/m (Fig. 4A). Basically,
 3 it can be assumed that this value increases with increasing pH, however, the exception is apple juice, which has the
 3 highest value of this energy (79.1 mN/m). Moreover, these liquids have a predominant proportion of the dispersive
 0 fraction (40–98%), however, the polar fraction is usually lower by a maximum of half. The apple juice is again
 1

402 interesting, where practically the entire value of the surface free energy is dispersive (98.4%). Also in the case of
403 beetroot juice and black tea, the dispersion part is significantly dominant (88% both) (Fig. 5). The only exception
404 is coconut water, where the polar part is predominant (59.6%). Introduction of the nanodiamonds mostly increases
405 the proportion of the polar part (Fig. 5). The value of the total energy does not change significantly and is still in
406 the range of 54–81 mN/m. In the case of coconut water, the proportions were completely reversed. The presence
407 of nanoparticles caused the share of the dispersive part to become dominant.

408 Ostrovskaya et al. (Ostrovskaya, 2002) showed a surface energy of 50 mN/m for similar thin diamond films. Larger
409 values were achieved for microcrystalline diamond films, where higher surface roughness is responsible for an
410 increase of surface energy (~ 66 mN/m at H-terminated and ~ 75 mN/m at O-terminated) (Ma et al., 2020). The
411 results obtained here are just slightly larger or analogous to those reported in the literature. Other works reported
412 values for hydrogenated/oxidized thin continuous films. The studied NV-ND aggregates definitely reveal a larger
413 surficial concentration of oxygen-rich groups, which increases the surface energy.

414 It is worth noting that higher pH along with increased ionic strength induces higher forces leading to adsorption of
415 nanoparticles at solvent interfaces (Ferdous et al., 2012). The simulations of the ND/water interface revealed the
416 formation of a strong hydrogen bond network responsible for fluorescence tuning and colloidal stability (Saberi-
417 Movahed & Brenner, 2021). It was shown that negatively charged DND-COOH reveals dipole slowing and
418 reorientational dynamics of hydroxyl groups at the aqueous interface independently of the concentrations of the
419 dissolved ions. Thus, the charged surficial groups (ND-COOH) strongly reduce the reorientational dynamics of
420 H₂O in various directions, influencing both the wettability and surface energies. This effect could be attributed to
421 the strong C-H bonds formed at the surface of carboxylated nanodiamond. Next, Saberi-Movahed et al. (Saberi-
422 Movahed & Brenner, 2021) showed increasing interactions of ND-COOH with cations in order as following: K⁺,
423 Na⁺, Ca₂⁺, Mg₂⁺. Moreover, they reduced the mobility of water around ND-COOH particles solvating in the
424 chloride solvent. The reduction effect was attributed mainly to divalent cations thanks to their high charge
425 concentrations. The hydration shell was formed around ND-COOH particles supported by highly mobile divalent
426 cations. Thus, the engineering of the ND surface chemistry and the surrounding environment plays a significant
427 role in the electron transport, tuning interactions with the solvent and modifying the emission that is crucial for
428 sensing and imaging applications.

4. Conclusions

1 In summary, the fluorescence behavior of NV-rich, carboxylated nanodiamonds in various suspensions/cocktails
2 (aqueous dispersion system, comestible liquids media) was systemically investigated. NDs are recognized as
3 biocompatible and safe materials with chemically flexible surfaces for a large variety of food products or their
4 packaging. The fluorescence of NV-NDs would enable a targeted detection of food quality or monitoring of

435 preservation. The fluorescence of NDs depends strongly on the interactions with surrounding media, their pH and
436 chemical activity. Thus, we have analyzed a wide pH range of comestible liquids to investigate their influence on
437 the NDs' fluorescence and stability (surface free energy, zeta potential) towards future food-oriented applications.
438 Durable nanodiamond particles could be also used in smart food packaging, enabling fluorescent monitoring of
439 the quality of the stored food and preserving the shelf-life of food products delivering superhydrophobicity. The
440 study of the influence of NDs on food products is additionally important due to the risk of release of the
441 nanodiamonds from the packaging to the product. Optical addressing of the color centers and observation of their
442 fluorescence may be used to verify the presence of NDs in the comestible products in a safe and non-contact way.
443 However, the properties of the dispersion medium (e.g. its pH) may affect the performance of the particles
444 suspended in it. Therefore, it is important to evaluate whether a composition of a certain comestible product does
445 not hinder the fluorescence of the nanodiamonds, impeding the unambiguous identification of the characteristic
446 peaks of the spectra (i.e. zero-phonon lines of NV centers). All the above-mentioned properties of fluorescent
447 nanodiamonds, also taking into account their biocompatibility and durability, make them a good candidate for
448 applications as biomarkers in food safety issues and life science.

449 The dried solutions of NV-ND suspensions revealed an increased effect of agglutination in higher pH delivered by
450 green tea or alkaline water. The ND agglutinates exhibited a kind of core-shell softened morphology probably
451 induced by spirit vinegar and green tea residuals. The aggregation effect was attributed to the variations of
452 electrostatic forces between the NDs in various comestibles induced not only by their pHs, but also by various
453 nature-originated compounds present in them. For optimum performance, NDs must retain their colloidal stability
454 in designated dispersion media. The optical technique commonly used to evaluate colloidal stability of particles
455 suspended in liquids is electrophoretic light scattering, used in this study to evaluate the stability of the suspensions
456 by measuring the zeta potential. Furthermore, we have observed significant pH dependence of the ND-NV
457 fluorescence tuned mainly by deprotonation of -COOH surficial groups. Deprotonated ND-COOH surfaces exhibit
458 a large negative charge creating a dense hydration shell around particles by surrounding water molecules, which
459 significantly quench the nanodiamond fluorescence.

460 The nanodiamond cocktails combined with complex organic comestibles influence the fluorescence signals mainly
461 due to the pH of the samples. The selected comestibles such as vinegar, black tea, green tea interfere with the NV
462 centers causing fluorescence quenching or overlapping the nanodiamond emission. It is noteworthy that a
3 significant boosting effect was observed for lemon juice, which is responsible for increased electrical conductivity
4 and wettability, facilitating enhanced fluorescence. On the other hand, beetroot juice caused strong nanodiamond
5 fluorescence extinction attributed to the betanin pigment and betalains derivatives present in the natural extract.
5 Other nature-originated compounds such as the catechin, caffeine, and theaflavin present in green and black teas
7 also decreased nanodiamond fluorescence as they are static quenchers. Overall, micro-molar concentrations of

468 metal ions such as Sn(II) and Zn(II) could induce quenching behavior when weakly bonded or adsorbed at the
469 nanodiamond surface. This phenomenon could be also applied for further studies of heavy metal cations detection
470 in food products.

471 Next, the impact of the presence of nanodiamonds on the parameters of wettability and surface tension of the
472 liquids, related to the pH of the tested systems, was also presented. Such an approach allowed us to gain an
473 understanding of solvent/nanodiamond interactions driving fluorescence variations. The admixture of
474 nanodiamond suspensions into these samples reduces surface tension, mostly due to the Brownian motion of
475 nanoparticles within the comestible liquid. Generally, comestibles with an acid nature exhibit better wettability of
476 a dispersive material such as PTFE than those of an alkaline nature. The presence of nanodiamond particles lowers
477 this property, which can be caused by the adsorption of the nanoparticles on the PTFE surface, thus changing the
478 solid-liquid interface. Furthermore, measurements of wettability and contact angle of ND-based comestible
479 suspensions could be utilized to monitor food composition or its degradation improving food processing and
480 storage technologies.

481 Finally, the achieved results manifested that fluorescent, NV-rich nanodiamond particles are stable in liquid
482 comestibles that could be utilized for optical food quality and safety monitoring. Next, the studies focused on spin
483 properties or charge-state dynamics of nitrogen vacancies in nanodiamonds would also enable magnetic sensing
484 or imaging applications. The flexible biochemical nature and biocompatibility of nanodiamond surfaces enable
485 further research on the intelligent delivery-mediated nutraceuticals, smart food protection by nanosensing and
486 tailored preserving using their customized and fluorescent functionalities.

487

488 **Acknowledgments**

489 This research work has been supported by the Foundation for Polish Science under grant no. POIR.04.04.00-00-
490 1644/18. The authors would like to thank Mr. Piotr Krystosiak from A.P. Instruments Sp. z o.o. Sp. k. for measuring
491 the zeta potential of the diamond suspensions based on the comestible liquids.

492

493 **Notes**

494 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

5

5 **References**

7 Arcot, Y., Liu, S., Ulugun, B., DeFlorio, W., Bae, M., Salazar, K. S., Taylor, T. M., Castillo, A., Cisneros-
3 Zevallos, L., & Scholar, E. M. A. (2021). Fabrication of Robust Superhydrophobic Coatings onto

- 499 High-Density Polyethylene Food Contact Surfaces for Enhanced Microbiological Food Safety.
500 *ACS Food Science & Technology*, 1(7), 1180–1189.
501 <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsfoodscitech.1c00082>
- 502 Babadi, F. E., Hosseini, S., Shavandi, A., Moghaddas, H., Shotipruk, A., & Kheawhom, S. (2019).
503 Electrochemical investigation of amino acids Parkia seeds using the composite electrode based on
504 copper/carbon nanotube/nanodiamond. *Journal of Environmental Chemical Engineering*, 7(2),
505 102979. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jece.2019.102979>
- 506 Bhaumik, A., Sachan, R., & Narayan, J. (2019). Tunable charge states of nitrogen-vacancy centers in
507 diamond for ultrafast quantum devices. *Carbon*, 142, 662–672.
508 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbon.2018.10.084>
- 509 Białobrzaska, W., Głowacki, M. J., Janik, M., Ficek, M., Pырchła, K., Sawczak, M., Bogdanowicz, R.,
510 Malinowska, N., Żołądowska, S., & Nidzworski, D. (2021). Quantitative fluorescent
511 determination of DNA – Ochratoxin a interactions supported by nitrogen-vacancy rich
512 nanodiamonds. *Journal of Molecular Liquids*, 342, 117338.
513 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molliq.2021.117338>
- 514 Bradac, C., Rastogi, I. D., Cordina, N. M., Garcia-Bennett, A., & Brown, L. J. (2018). Influence of surface
515 composition on the colloidal stability of ultra-small detonation nanodiamonds in biological media.
516 *Diamond and Related Materials*, 83, 38–45. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diamond.2018.01.022>
- 517 Carvalho, A., Freitas, M., Nouws, H. P. A., & Delerue-Matos, C. (2021). A Voltammetric Nanodiamond-
518 Coated Screen-Printed Immunosensor for The Determination of a Peanut Allergen in Commercial
519 Food Products. *Chemistry Proceedings*, 5(1), 10. <https://doi.org/10.3390/CSAC2021-10458>
- 520 Choi, J., Yong, K., Choi, J., & Cowie, A. (2019). Emerging Point-of-care Technologies for Food Safety
521 Analysis. *Sensors*, 19(4), 817. <https://doi.org/10.3390/s19040817>

- 522 Cong, S., Wang, N., Wang, K., Wu, Y., Li, D., Song, Y., Prakash, S., & Tan, M. (2019). Fluorescent
523 nanoparticles in the popular pizza: Properties, biodistribution and cytotoxicity. *Food & Function*,
524 *10*(5), 2408–2416. <https://doi.org/10.1039/C8FO01944D>
- 525 Crane, M. J., Petrone, A., Beck, R. A., Lim, M. B., Zhou, X., Li, X., Stroud, R. M., & Pauzauskie, P. J.
526 (2019). High-pressure, high-temperature molecular doping of nanodiamond. *Science Advances*,
527 *5*(5), eaau6073. <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.aau6073>
- 528 Cui, B., Liu, H., Yu, H., Pang, X., Yan, H., & Bai, L. (2019). Monolithic Material Prepared with
529 Nanodiamond as Monomer for the Enrichment of β -Sitosterol in Edible Oil. *Food Analytical*
530 *Methods*, *12*(3), 697–704. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12161-018-1405-9>
- 531 Das, A., De, D., Ghosh, A., & Goswami, M. M. (2020). An innovative cell imaging by beet root extracted
532 pigment. *Spectrochimica Acta Part A: Molecular and Biomolecular Spectroscopy*, *230*, 118037.
533 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.saa.2020.118037>
- 534 Du, C., Ma, C., Gu, J., Li, L., & Chen, G. (2020). Fluorescence Sensing of Caffeine in Tea Beverages
535 with 3,5-diaminobenzoic Acid. *Sensors*, *20*(3), 819. <https://doi.org/10.3390/s20030819>
- 536 Du, C., Ma, C., Gu, J., Li, L., Zhu, C., Chen, L., Wang, T., & Chen, G. (2020). Rapid Determination of
537 Catechin Content in Black Tea by Fluorescence Spectroscopy. *Journal of Spectroscopy*, *2020*, 1–
538 8. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/2479612>
- 539 Dutta Choudhury, S., Chethodil, J. M., Gharat, P. M., P. K., P., & Pal, H. (2017). pH-Elicited
540 Luminescence Functionalities of Carbon Dots: Mechanistic Insights. *The Journal of Physical*
541 *Chemistry Letters*, *8*(7), 1389–1395. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jpcllett.7b00153>
- 2 Ferdous, S., Ioannidis, M. A., & Henneke, D. E. (2012). Effects of temperature, pH, and ionic strength
3 on the adsorption of nanoparticles at liquid–liquid interfaces. *Journal of Nanoparticle Research*,
4 *14*(5), 850. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11051-012-0850-4>

- 545 Fujisaku, T., Tanabe, R., Onoda, S., Kubota, R., Segawa, T. F., So, F. T.-K., Ohshima, T., Hamachi, I.,
546 Shirakawa, M., & Igarashi, R. (2019). PH Nanosensor Using Electronic Spins in Diamond. *ACS*
547 *Nano*, *13*(10), 11726–11732. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsnano.9b05342>
- 548 Fujiwara, M., Tsukahara, R., Sera, Y., Yukawa, H., Baba, Y., Shikata, S., & Hashimoto, H. (2019).
549 Monitoring spin coherence of single nitrogen-vacancy centers in nanodiamonds during pH
550 changes in aqueous buffer solutions. *RSC Advances*, *9*(22), 12606–12614.
551 <https://doi.org/10.1039/C9RA02282A>
- 552 Gargouri, B., Ammar, S., Verardo, V., Besbes, S., Segura-Carretero, A., & Bouaziz, M. (2017). RP-
553 HPLC–DAD–ESI–TOF–MS based strategy for new insights into the qualitative and quantitative
554 phenolic profile in Tunisian industrial Citrus Limon by-product and their antioxidant activity.
555 *European Food Research and Technology*, *243*(11), 2011–2024. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-017-2904-4)
556 [017-2904-4](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-017-2904-4)
- 557 Gliszczyńska-Świgło, A., Szymusiak, H., & Malinowska, P. (2006). Betanin, the main pigment of red
558 beet: Molecular origin of its exceptionally high free radical-scavenging activity. *Food Additives*
559 *and Contaminants*, *23*(11), 1079–1087. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02652030600986032>
- 560 Grichko, V., Grishko, V., & Shenderova, O. (2006). Nanodiamond bullets and their biological targets.
561 *NanoBiotechnology*, *2*(1–2), 37–42. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12030-006-0005-8>
- 562 Jiang, L., Santiago, I., & Foord, J. (2018). Nanocarbon and nanodiamond for high performance phenolics
563 sensing. *Communications Chemistry*, *1*(1), 43. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s42004-018-0045-8>
- 564 Kumar, A., & Dixit, C. K. (2017). Methods for characterization of nanoparticles. In *Advances in*
5 *Nanomedicine for the Delivery of Therapeutic Nucleic Acids* (pp. 43–58). Elsevier.
5 <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-100557-6.00003-1>

- 567 Kumar, V., Kaur, I., Arora, S., Mehla, R., Vellingiri, K., & Kim, K.-H. (2020). Graphene
568 nanoplatelet/graphitized nanodiamond-based nanocomposite for mediator-free electrochemical
569 sensing of urea. *Food Chemistry*, 303, 125375. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2019.125375>
- 570 Lei, Y., Zheng, M.-L., Zhao, Z.-S., & Duan, X.-M. (2016). Carboxylated Nanodiamond: Aggregation
571 Properties in Aqueous Dispersion System and Application in Living Cell Fluorescence Imaging.
572 *Journal of Nanoscience and Nanotechnology*, 16(3), 2319–2324.
573 <https://doi.org/10.1166/jnn.2016.10932>
- 574 Li, B., Zhang, Z., Qi, J., Zhou, N., Qin, S., Choo, J., & Chen, L. (2017). Quantum Dot-Based Molecularly
575 Imprinted Polymers on Three-Dimensional Origami Paper Microfluidic Chip for Fluorescence
576 Detection of Phycocyanin. *ACS Sensors*, 2(2), 243–250.
577 <https://doi.org/10.1021/acssensors.6b00664>
- 578 Li, Y., Feng, Z., Li, Y., Jin, W., Peng, Q., Zhang, P., He, J., & Li, K. (2020). Metal ions-triggered photo-
579 induced fluorescence change in rhodamine B-based photo-responsive complexes. *Spectrochimica*
580 *Acta Part A: Molecular and Biomolecular Spectroscopy*, 230, 118069.
581 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.saa.2020.118069>
- 582 Lim, D. G., Jung, J. H., Ko, H. W., Kang, E., & Jeong, S. H. (2016). Paclitaxel–Nanodiamond
583 Nanocomplexes Enhance Aqueous Dispersibility and Drug Retention in Cells. *ACS Applied*
584 *Materials & Interfaces*, 8(36), 23558–23567. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsmi.6b08079>
- 585 Lim, D. G., Kang, E., & Jeong, S. H. (2020). PH-dependent nanodiamonds enhance the mechanical
586 properties of 3D-printed hyaluronic acid nanocomposite hydrogels. *Journal of*
7 *Nanobiotechnology*, 18(1), 88. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12951-020-00647-w>
- 3 Lim, D. G., Rajasekaran, N., Lee, D., Kim, N. A., Jung, H. S., Hong, S., Shin, Y. K., Kang, E., & Jeong,
3 S. H. (2017). Polyamidoamine-Decorated Nanodiamonds as a Hybrid Gene Delivery Vector and

- 590 siRNA Structural Characterization at the Charged Interfaces. *ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces*,
591 9(37), 31543–31556. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.7b09624>
- 592 Lim, S., Horiuchi, H., Nikolov, A. D., & Wasan, D. (2015). Nanofluids Alter the Surface Wettability of
593 Solids. *Langmuir*, 31(21), 5827–5835. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.langmuir.5b00799>
- 594 Ma, Z.-C., Gao, N., Cheng, S.-H., Liu, J.-S., Yang, M.-C., Wang, P., Feng, Z.-Y., Wang, Q.-L., & Li, H.-
595 D. (2020). Wettability and Surface Energy of Hydrogen- and Oxygen-Terminated Diamond
596 Films. *Chinese Physics Letters*, 37(4), 046801. <https://doi.org/10.1088/0256-307X/37/4/046801>
- 597 Medeiros, R. A., Rocha-Filho, R. C., & Fatibello-Filho, O. (2010). Simultaneous voltammetric
598 determination of phenolic antioxidants in food using a boron-doped diamond electrode. *Food*
599 *Chemistry*, 123(3), 886–891. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2010.05.010>
- 600 Miao, M., Jiang, B., Jiang, H., Zhang, T., & Li, X. (2015). Interaction mechanism between green tea
601 extract and human α -amylase for reducing starch digestion. *Food Chemistry*, 186, 20–25.
602 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2015.02.049>
- 603 Mikamoto, K., Nishitani, T., Tsubaki, Y., Shirakura, A., & Suzuki, T. (2020). Improvement of durability
604 and sliding properties of food packaging equipment by combined treatment of diamond-like
605 carbon coating and fine particle bombarding. *Journal of Applied Packaging Research*, 12(1), 54–
606 62.
- 607 Mitura, K., Wyrebski, K., & Zarzycki, P. K. (2017). Bioactive food packaging with nanodiamond
608 particles manufactured by detonation and plasma-chemical methods. In *Food Packaging* (pp.
609 295–328). Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-804302-8.00009-1>
- 0 Ostrovskaia, L. Y. (2002). Studies of diamond and diamond-like film surfaces using XAES, AFM and
1 wetting. *Vacuum*, 68(3), 219–238. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0042-207X\(02\)00460-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0042-207X(02)00460-8)
- 2 Ozdemir, S., Kilinc, E., Celik, K. S., Okumus, V., & Soylak, M. (2017). Simultaneous preconcentrations
3 of Co^{2+} , Cr^{6+} , Hg^{2+} and Pb^{2+} ions by *Bacillus altitudinis* immobilized nanodiamond prior to

- 614 their determinations in food samples by ICP-OES. *Food Chemistry*, 215, 447–453.
615 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2016.07.055>
- 616 Panwar, N., Soehartono, A. M., Chan, K. K., Zeng, S., Xu, G., Qu, J., Coquet, P., Yong, K.-T., & Chen,
617 X. (2019). Nanocarbons for Biology and Medicine: Sensing, Imaging, and Drug Delivery.
618 *Chemical Reviews*, 119(16), 9559–9656. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.chemrev.9b00099>
- 619 Radiom, M., Yang, C., & Chan, W. K. (2009). *Characterization of surface tension and contact angle of*
620 *nanofluids* (C. Quan, K. Qian, A. K. Asundi, & F. S. Chau, Eds.; p. 75221D).
621 <https://doi.org/10.1117/12.851278>
- 622 Reineck, P., Lau, D. W. M., Wilson, E. R., Nunn, N., Shenderova, O. A., & Gibson, B. C. (2018). Visible
623 to near-IR fluorescence from single-digit detonation nanodiamonds: Excitation wavelength and
624 pH dependence. *Scientific Reports*, 8(1), 2478. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-20905-0>
- 625 Reinke, S. K., Hauf, K., Vieira, J., Heinrich, S., & Palzer, S. (2015). Changes in contact angle providing
626 evidence for surface alteration in multi-component solid foods. *Journal of Physics D: Applied*
627 *Physics*, 48(46), 464001. <https://doi.org/10.1088/0022-3727/48/46/464001>
- 628 Rondin, L., Dantelle, G., Slablab, A., Grosshans, F., Treussart, F., Bergonzo, P., Perruchas, S., Gacoin,
629 T., Chaigneau, M., Chang, H.-C., Jacques, V., & Roch, J.-F. (2010). Surface-induced charge state
630 conversion of nitrogen-vacancy defects in nanodiamonds. *Physical Review B*, 82(11), 115449.
631 <https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.82.115449>
- 632 Saberi-Movahed, F., & Brenner, D. W. (2021). Impacts of surface chemistry and adsorbed ions on
633 dynamics of water around detonation nanodiamond in aqueous salt solutions. *ArXiv:2102.13312*
4 *[Cond-Mat, Physics:Physics]*. <http://arxiv.org/abs/2102.13312>
- 5 Sacksteder, L., Ballew, R. M., Brown, E. A., Demas, J. N., Nesselrodt, D., & DeGraff, B. A. (1990).
5 Photophysics in a disco: Luminescence quenching of quinine. *Journal of Chemical Education*,
7 67(12), 1065. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ed067p1065>

- 638 Sefiane, K., Skilling, J., & MacGillivray, J. (2008). Contact line motion and dynamic wetting of nanofluid
639 solutions. *Advances in Colloid and Interface Science*, 138(2), 101–120.
640 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cis.2007.12.003>
- 641 Shabnam, L., Faisal, S. N., Roy, A. K., Haque, E., Minett, A. I., & Gomes, V. G. (2017). Doped
642 graphene/Cu nanocomposite: A high sensitivity non-enzymatic glucose sensor for food. *Food*
643 *Chemistry*, 221, 751–759. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2016.11.107>
- 644 Tsapyuk, G. G., Diyuk, V. E., Mariychuk, R., Panova, A. N., Loginova, O. B., Grishchenko, L. M.,
645 Dyachenko, A. G., Linnik, R. P., Zaderko, A. N., & Lisnyak, V. V. (2020). Effect of ultrasonic
646 treatment on the thermal oxidation of detonation nanodiamonds. *Applied Nanoscience*, 10(12),
647 4991–5001. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13204-020-01277-2>
- 648 Ulusoy, H. İ., Gülle, S., Yilmaz, E., & Soylak, M. (2019). Trace determination of vitamin B12 in food
649 samples by using Fe₃O₄ magnetic particles including multi-walled carbon nanotubes and
650 nanodiamonds. *Analytical Methods*, 11(40), 5108–5117. <https://doi.org/10.1039/C9AY01504C>
- 651 Vafaei, S., Borca-Tasciuc, T., Podowski, M. Z., Purkayastha, A., Ramanath, G., & Ajayan, P. M. (2006).
652 Effect of nanoparticles on sessile droplet contact angle. *Nanotechnology*, 17(10), 2523–2527.
653 <https://doi.org/10.1088/0957-4484/17/10/014>
- 654 Wu, D., Mei, S., Duan, R., Geng, F., Wu, W., Li, X., Cheng, L., & Wang, C. (2020). How black tea
655 pigment theaflavin dyes chicken eggs: Binding affinity study of theaflavin with ovalbumin. *Food*
656 *Chemistry*, 303, 125407. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2019.125407>
- 657 Zelent, B., Vanderkooi, J. M., Coleman, R. G., Gryczynski, I., & Gryczynski, Z. (2006). Protonation of
3 Excited State Pyrene-1-Carboxylate by Phosphate and Organic Acids in Aqueous Solution
3 Studied by Fluorescence Spectroscopy. *Biophysical Journal*, 91(10), 3864–3871.
3 <https://doi.org/10.1529/biophysj.106.088740>

- 661 Zhong, X., Crivoi, A., & Duan, F. (2015). Sessile nanofluid droplet drying. *Advances in Colloid and*
662 *Interface Science*, 217, 13–30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cis.2014.12.003>
- 663 Zhuang, H., Song, B., Srikanth, V. V. S. S., Jiang, X., & Schönherr, H. (2010). Controlled Wettability of
664 Diamond/ β -SiC Composite Thin Films for Biosensoric Applications. *The Journal of Physical*
665 *Chemistry C*, 114(47), 20207–20212. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp109093h>

666