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1	Fluorocarbon Gas Exposure Induces Disaggregation
2	of Nanodiamond Clusters and Enhanced Adsorption,
3	Enabling Medical Microbubble Formation
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13	

1 ABSTRACT

2 Introducing fluorocarbon vapor in the air above an aqueous dispersion of clusters of 3 nanodiamonds induces their disaggregation, a prerequisite for most of their biomedical uses. 4 Furthermore, the fluorocarbon gas promotes the adsorption of nanodiamonds at the gas/water 5 interface. As an example of the benefits that can be gained from our findings relative to the 6 implementation of nanomaterials for practical uses, we investigated the role that a fluorocarbon 7 gas may play in the generation of microbubbles, which are currently actively investigated in 8 ultrasound-mediated diagnosis and therapy. Remarkably, the fluorocarbon gas enables the 9 production of microbubbles shelled only with nanodiamonds, in the absence of any other 10 surfactant, which could not be achieved without the fluorocarbon being present. This demonstrates 11 that a supernatant gas can decisively affect the adsorption of nanoparticles from an aqueous phase 12 to an air/water interface, likely through physical adsorption at the nanodiamond surface. The 13 investigations involved solid-state NMR and FTIR, microbubble generation experiments with 14 acoustic attenuation monitoring, and bubble profile analysis tensiometry on spontaneously 15 adsorbed Gibbs films. Perspectives include control of aggregation of nanodiamonds and their 16 retrieval from aqueous dispersions, and applications in multimodal diagnostic imaging, 17 bioimaging and therapeutic cell tracking. It is proposed that the disaggregating potency of 18 fluorocarbons can be applied to other nanomaterials, providing a simple and effective means of 19 alleviating aggregation.

20 **KEYWORDS**

21 nanoparticle, nanomaterial, adsorption, fluid interface, contrast agent, diagnostic, theranostic.

1 GRAPHICAL TABLE OF CONTENT



6 Exposing aqueous dispersion of nanodiamonds to fluorocarbon vapor disaggregates clusters and 7 allows recruitment of the nanoparticles at the air/gas interface. This effect is stronger with 8 fluorinated nanodiamonds. This new gas-driven phenomenon allowed preparation of 9 nanodiamond-shelled microbubbles for potential use in bioimaging, cell tracking and ultrasound-10 mediated diagnostic and therapy.

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1 INTRODUCTION

2 Nanodiamonds (NDs) capture considerable attention in various fields, from electronics and 3 optics to biomedicine, due to a range of specific properties, such as high refractive index and 4 scattering efficiency, outstanding mechanical performance (e.g. super-hardness), and versatile surface chemistry and biocompatibility.¹⁻⁴ In biology and medicine, they are actively investigated 5 for sensing, bioimaging and drug delivery.⁵⁻⁷ In particular, fluorescent NDs are being investigated 6 as a less-toxic alternative to semiconductor quantum dots (ODs).⁸ NDs can be surface-conjugated 7 8 with many biologically active molecules and targeting ligands using covalent or non-covalent (e.g. 9 electrostatic or hydrophobic) interactions.⁴ However, most biomedical applications of NDs are still 10 impeded due to their strong tendency for aggregation when dispersed in an aqueous phase. Various techniques of ND disaggregation, crushing and fractionation have been reviewed.⁹ including 11 zirconia microbead-assisted wet ball milling,¹⁰ salt (or sugar)-assisted dry attrition and ball 12 milling,¹¹ and bead-assisted sonic disintegration¹²⁻¹⁴ Although these techniques proved efficient, 13 14 and produced colloidal dispersions of nanodiamonds with particles lower than 10 nm,¹¹ the risk of 15 contamination, either by metal ions or ceramic debris, remained, and made mandatory additional 16 purification steps, reducing the overall efficiency and increasing the cost. A salt-assisted ultrasonic 17 disaggregation process that is based on sonication of aqueous NaCl/ND slurries followed by washing/centrifugation steps was also effective.¹⁵ Although the authors claimed the absence of 18 19 contamination, a long sonication time (over 1 h) using a titanium tip is well-known to produce metal contamination by erosion of the probe due to the high intensity cavitation energy.¹⁶ 20 Functionalization of NDs with zwitterionic moieties.¹⁷ or adsorption of polyelectrolytes.¹⁸ or 21 amino acids¹⁹ improved the dispersibility of NDs. Various methods of ND encapsulation, as in 22

phospholipid liposomes,²⁰ or in silica²¹ or dopamine²² shells have also been reported. Control of
 ND aggregation in aqueous solutions through simple approaches is therefore sought for.

3 We propose here a simple mean to induce dispersion of NDs in aqueous solutions that does not 4 involve chemical modification of the NDs, which consists in exposing ND dispersions to vapor of 5 a fluorocarbon (FC). We show that the capacity for a FC gas to recruit NDs to a gas/water interface 6 also unlocks the possibility to prepare microbubbles (MBs), which, to our knowledge, is 7 impossible in the absence of the FC. Microbubbles are used in the clinics as ultrasound contrast agents, and their efficacy as mediators in ultrasound therapy is actively investigated.²³⁻²⁸ Medical 8 9 microbubbles, especially those stabilized by a phospholipid shell, are often stabilized by a 10 fluorocarbon gas. It is noteworthy that fluorocarbons are chemically and biologically inert, due to 11 the strength of the C-F bond. A variety of nanoparticles (NPs), including gold, magnetic iron oxide 12 or CdTe QDs, can be attached to MBs, or form the bubble shell, in order to extend the range of 13 their uses, as for combining multimodal imaging procedures, targeted drug delivery or therapeutic energy deposition.²⁹⁻³⁰ Despite increasing interest for NP-coated microbubbles, MBs with a shell 14 15 of nanodiamonds have never been reported. Controlling nanoparticle adsorption and behavior at 16 interfaces is key to achieving versatile ultrasound imaging and theranostic agents.

We have previously shown that perfluorohexane (*F*-hexane) vapor substantially accelerates the adsorption at a gas/water interface of a variety of molecules, including fluorinated biomarkers,³¹ proteins³² and block copolymers³³, helps control their self-assembly at the interface and promote efficient stabilization of MBs. Also relevant to this work, we found in a previous report that exposure to *F*-hexane can disaggregate protein Hydrophobin HFBII.³² We thus questioned whether *F*C-induced adsorption would occur with nanoparticles tens of nanometers in size, and whether such enhanced adsorption could ensure stabilization of MBs that would be shelled solely by these 1 NPs. It should be noted that, although the parameters that condition the adsorption of NPs at fluid 2 interfaces have been investigated,³⁴ the potential effect of the nature of the supernatant gas phase 3 has, to our knowledge, never been considered. Here, we report the capacity for *F*C gases to 4 disaggregate ND clusters, recruit NDs at the air/water interface, and form MB shells. This 5 investigation was achieved with fluorinated and non-fluorinated NDs in the presence, or absence, 6 of *F*C gases (Scheme 1).

Scheme 1. Schematic representation of aqueous dispersions of nanodiamonds (ND25 or *F*-ND25)
exposed to air saturated with vapors of perfluoropentane or perfluorohexane.



We found that 1) exposure to *F*-hexane or perfluoropentane (*F*-pentane) vapor readily induces significant disaggregation of the clusters formed by both types of nanodiamonds in aqueous dispersions; 2) the adsorption kinetics of both types of NDs at a gas/water interface is markedly impacted by exposure to the *F*C, both in terms of rate and interfacial tension lowering, and 3) microbubbles (~2-4 μ m in average diameter) can be produced from both types of NDs as sole shell components when, and only when, *F*-hexane is introduced in the gas phase.

19 EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

20 **Materials and Methods.** Nanodiamonds (ND25, 25 nm in diameter, Tomei Diamond Co, 21 Tokyo, Japan) were prepared by size separation of powdered bulk diamond synthesized using a 22 static high-pressure high-temperature (HPHT) method. They were subsequently treated with heated 23 solutions of acids to remove impurities and characterized following previous reports.³⁵⁻³⁶

1 Fluorinated analogs of ND25 (F-ND25) were obtained from the same commercial batch by direct fluorination of ND25 with difluorine (F₂, 1 atm, 500°C, 12 h).³⁵⁻³⁶ Perfluorohexane (*F*-hexane, 98%) 2 3 and perfluoropentane (F-pentane, 98%) were purchased from Fluorochem (UK). Water was obtained from a Milli-Q (Millipore) system (surface tension: 71.7 ± 0.2 mN m⁻¹ at 20 °C; resistivity: 4 5 18.2 MQ cm). FTIR experiments were performed on a Vertex 70 (Bruker) spectrometer. Solid state 6 NMR experiments were performed on a Tecmag spectrometer (Tecmag Inc., Houston, TX) with operating frequencies of 500.33, 470.74 and 125.81 MHz for ¹H, ¹⁹F and ¹³C, respectively. A simple 7 sequence (τ -acquisition) was used with a single $\pi/2$ pulse length of 3.5 µs for ¹H and ¹³C nuclei and 8 a recycle time of 3 and 5 s. For ¹⁹F MAS spectra, the $\pi/2$ pulse duration was 5.5 µs and the recycle 9 10 time was 5 s. ¹⁹F chemical shifts were referenced to CFCl₃, and tetramethylsilane (TMS) was the 11 reference for both ¹H and ¹³C chemical shifts. The contact angles of water droplets (3-10 μ L) 12 deposited on the surface of pellets of nanodiamonds (obtained under a pressure of 0.2 ton; 5 mm in 13 diameter) were measured using an Attension Theta Lite Optical Tensiometer with an imaging source 14 camera. The measurements were repeated 3 times at different pellet locations in a temperature-15 controlled room (19°C) with constant relative humidity (33%).

16 Preparation of Aqueous Dispersions of Nanodiamonds (NDs) Exposed to Air or to a 17 Fluorocarbon gas. ND25 and F-ND 25 were dispersed in MilliQ water (2 mL) at room temperature 18 and sonicated in an ultrasound bath (UCS 300T, 45 kHz, 80 W, 2.8 L, VWR) for 10 min at 25°C. Concentrations were 0.05 g L⁻¹ for the DLS measurements (2 mL) and 0.1 g L⁻¹ for the tensiometry 19 20 (6 mL), cryogenic transmission electron microscopy (cryo-TEM) and microbubble experiments (1 21 mL). The pH of the ND aqueous dispersions was adjusted to 12 using a NaOH solution (1 M) in 22 order to allow ionization of the acid functions present on the ND surface, after which the dispersions 23 were sonicated in the sonication bath for another 20 min. Aliquots for analysis by DLS and tensiometry, and for the preparation and characterization of microbubbles, were placed into the appropriate measuring cells. For the experiments conducted under fluorocarbon exposure (*F*-hexane or *F*-pentane), N₂ was allowed to bubble through three successive vials containing the fluorocarbon (more details are provided in ³⁷) prior to being flushed for 10 min into the measuring cells used in DLS, tensiometry and microbubble preparation. For comparison, sonication was also achieved using a tip sonicator (Vibracell, Bioblock Scientific, Illkirch, France) equipped with a 3 mm titanium probe (setting 5, duty cycle 40%) and operated at 20 kHz.

8 **Dynamic Light Scattering and Zeta Potential.** The ND aqueous dispersions (0.05 g L⁻¹) were 9 prepared as described above and filtered on 0.22 µm filters (Millex-GP PES 33 mm Millipore). 10 They were either exposed to air or to F-hexane- (or F-pentane)-saturated air in capped cylindrical 11 glass cuvettes (outer diam.: 10 mm, l: 75 mm, Hellma Analytics). The size distributions of the 12 nanodiamond clusters in aqueous dispersions were measured using an experimental set-up (ALV 13 GmbH, Langen, Germany) equipped with a He-Ne laser (22 mW, $\lambda_0 = 632.8$ nm), a compact ALV 14 CGS-8 goniometer and an ALV-7002 autocorrelator. The samples were analyzed at 90°, after 15 preparation, after treatment in the sonication bath and after 2 days at room temperature. The 16 autocorrelation functions were based on 60 runs with 60 s counting time. The data were analyzed using the CONTIN algorithm,³⁸ which allows determination of the mean hydrodynamic radius $r_{\rm h}$ 17 18 and polydispersity index (PDI). PDI values varied from 13 to 22%. Zeta potential was measured 19 after preparation with a Zetasizer Nano ZS (Malvern Panalytical, Grovewood Road, Malvern, 20 UK). It was deduced from the electrophoresis mobility using the Henry equation: $U_{\rm E}$ = $2\varepsilon \zeta f(K_a)/3\eta$, U_E being the electrophoretic mobility, ε the dielectric constant, ζ the zeta potential, 21 22 $f(K_a)$ the Henry function and η the viscosity of the medium. The results are the average of 3 runs 23 with 100 s counting time and they were repeated 3 times (error was $\pm 1 \text{ mV}$).

1 **Cryogenic Transmission Electron Microscopy of Aqueous Dispersions of Nanodiamonds.** 2 Cryo-TEM experiments were performed with a FEI Tecnai G2 electron microscope (operating at 3 200 kV) under low dose conditions with an Eagle slow scan CCD camera. A laboratory-built 4 humidity and temperature-controlled vitrification system was used to prepare the samples. 5 Humidity was kept close to 80% for all experiments and the temperature was set at 22°C. 5 µL aliquots of the ND dispersions (0.1 g L⁻¹) were placed onto a grid covered by a lacey carbon film 6 7 (Ted Pella, Redding, United States) that serves as an electron transparent support. This grid was 8 rendered hydrophilic using a Glow 2 discharge system (Elmo, Cordouan Technologies, Bordeaux, 9 France). Excess solution was removed by blotting with filter paper, and the sample grid was 10 vitrified by rapid plunging into liquid ethane. The grids were kept in liquid nitrogen before being 11 transferred into a Gatan 626 cryo-holder.

12 Preparation and Observation of Nanodiamond-Shelled Microbubbles by Optical **Microscopy.** A 1 mL aliquot of the ND dispersions (0.1 g L^{-1}) was transferred to a cylindrical 13 14 glass tube (outer diameter: 10 mm, length: 25 mm) and subjected to agitation/amalgamation using 15 a Vialmix® (2 cycles of 45 s, Lantheus Medical Imaging N. Billerica, MA) at room temperature. 16 The samples were observed using a Nikon Eclipse 90i microscope (Nikon Instruments Europe, 17 Amsterdam, The Netherlands). One 8 µl droplet was placed into a concave slide and covered with 18 a glass slide. Bubble mean diameter and distribution width were determined on 5–10 slides using *Fiji* (an open-source image processing package³⁹) and the standard deviations using Origin9 19 20 (OriginLab Corp. Northampton, MA, USA).

Echogenicity and Acoustical Determination of the Nanodiamond-Shelled Microbubble Size Distribution and Half-Life. Our method is based on the attenuation, that is, the reduction in amplitude, of an acoustical wave that propagates through an aqueous dispersion of bubbles. A

1 method was developed that fits standard simple-harmonic resonator curves to measured 2 attenuations to infer the size of the bubbles.⁴⁰ A low-power emitter was used to avoid altering 3 bubble characteristics and stability (acoustical power: 0.1 W cm⁻²; peak-to-peak acoustical 4 pressure $<3 \times 10^4$ Pa). More experimental details can be found in³⁷. An aliquot of the ND-shelled 5 microbubbles (1 mL, ND concentration: 0.1 g L⁻¹) was injected in the ultrasonic measuring cell 6 (cell volume 140 mL) and thermoregulated at 25° C. The mean diameter of the microbubbles was 7 measured immediately after preparation and over time.

8 Adsorption kinetics of nanodiamonds at the air/water interface (Bubble profile analysis 9 tensiometry). Axisymmetric bubble shape analysis was applied to a rising gas bubble (7 μ L) 10 formed in aqueous dispersions of nanodiamonds. Time dependence of σ during adsorption at the 11 gas/liquid interface was measured using a Tracker® tensiometer (Teclis Scientific, Lyon, France). 12 For the experiments achieved in the presence of F-hexane or F-pentane, a 100 µL syringe was 13 purged 10 times with the fluorocarbon-saturated air that surmounts liquid fluorocarbon according 14 to the protocol provided in ³⁹. At 25°C, *F*-hexane saturated vapor pressure and concentration at 25°C are 2.9 10⁴ Pa and 11.66 mol m⁻³, respectively; water solubility is 2.7 10⁻⁴ mol m⁻³; *F*-pentane 15 saturated vapor pressure and concentration are 8.5 10⁴ Pa and 34.14 mol m⁻³, respectively; water 16 solubility is 4 10⁻³ mol m⁻³).⁴¹ The bubbles were formed in rectangular cuvettes (40 mm x 23.6 17 mm x 15 mm, Hellma Analytics) containing the ND aqueous dispersions (0.1 g L⁻¹). All 18 19 measurements were achieved at 24 ± 1 °C and repeated three to five times. The characteristic time 20 of adsorption τ was determined by fitting the adsorption profiles with an exponential decay 21 function.

22 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

1 Characterization of Nanodiamonds. Commercial nanodiamonds (ND25, 25 nm in diameter), 2 prepared by size separation of powdered bulk diamond synthesized using a static high-pressure 3 high-temperature (HPHT) method were treated with heated solutions of acids to remove impurities and were characterized according to³⁵⁻³⁶. Advantages of HPHT NDs over detonation NDs include 4 5 a substantially lower nitrogen content, which makes them better suited for fluorescent imaging applications.³ ND25 have a crystalline sp³ carbon core and their surface is covered with an 6 amorphous sp² carbon shell displaying functional surface groups, mainly CH, COH, CO and 7 COOH.³⁵⁻³⁶ Fluorinated analogs of ND25 (F-ND25) were obtained from the same commercial 8 batch by direct fluorination of ND25 with difluorine (F₂, 1 atm, 500°C, 12 h).³⁶ Fluorination 9 10 drastically changes the surface chemistry of ND25, as indicated by FTIR spectra (Figure 1) that show the appearance of C-F stretching vibrations (1100-1400 cm⁻¹); disappearance of the broad 11 band of OH stretching (3280-3675 cm⁻¹) and bending (1640 cm⁻¹) vibrations; replacement of the 12 bands at 1700-1870 cm⁻¹, attributed to C=O, by C-F bands; the C-H bands (2900 cm⁻¹) are partly 13 14 maintained and more resolved for the fluorinated NDs. These observations are confirmed by multi-



Figure 1. FTIR spectra of ND25 and *F*-ND25 nanodiamonds. Inset: ¹⁹F MAS NMR spectrum of
 F-ND25 showing C-F bonds at -170 ppm.

nuclear solid-state NMR. The ¹H→¹³C CP-MAS spectrum confirms the presence of COOH (160
ppm), COH (75 ppm), CH (45 ppm) groups, of sp³ C (35 ppm) and of a low content of sp² C
(amorphous C shell on ND surface, 120 ppm) (SI, Figure S1a). In the ¹H MAS spectrum recorded
after fluorination, only C-H band (at 1.5 ppm) is observed and no more C-OH (SI, Figure S1b).
The ¹⁹F MAS spectrum reveals the presence of covalent C-F bonds with a chemical shift of -170
ppm (inset in Figure 1).

The contact angles of a droplet of water deposited on the surface of pellets formed by the NDs under pressure were measured. These contact angles are only "apparent", because of the roughness of the pellets. Nevertheless, the method provided evidence of significant differences in surface chemistries between non-fluorinated and fluorinated nanodiamonds. The contact angle was 130° in the case of *F*-ND25, reflecting the hydrophobic character of the *F*-ND25 pellet surface. By contrast, the water droplets were readily absorbed into the pellets of ND25, preventing any measurement but confirming the hydrophilic character of the ND25 surface.

14 Effect of Fluorocarbon Gases on Nanodiamond Disaggregation in Aqueous Solutions. We 15 studied the effect of exposing aqueous dispersions of ND25 and F-ND25 to F-hexane and F-16 pentane vapors. An essential requirement for the development of any biological application is 17 indeed to be able to obtain stable, minimally aggregated, reproducible aqueous ND dispersions, 18 which depends on various parameters, including the surface potential of the particles, pH, temperature and concentration.⁴² Aqueous dispersions of ND25 and F-ND25 (0.05 g L⁻¹) were 19 20 prepared in Milli-Q water at room temperature and pH was adjusted to 12.0 in order to allow 21 ionization of the carboxylic acid functions in the case of ND25, and provide similar ionic 22 environment in the case of F-ND25. The mean hydrodynamic radius $r_{\rm h}$ of the ND clusters was 23 determined by dynamic light scattering (DLS) after filtration of the dispersions on 0.22 µm filters.

1 The zeta potential ζ of the dispersions was measured under air and under F-hexane- (or F-pentane) 2 saturated air after preparation. We achieved a study to compare the effects of bath sonication versus 3 tip sonication, as an attempt to disaggregate the ND clusters in aqueous dispersions. We 4 systematically found larger clusters in the case of tip sonication. For example, under air, ND25 5 clusters with r_h of 69 ± 2 nm were obtained after 2 min of tip sonication. Increasing sonication 6 time only resulted in an increase of $r_{\rm h}$ to 112 ± 24 nm and 157 ± 31 nm after 5 and 10 min of 7 sonication, respectively. After 5 days of storage at 25°C, the cluster sizes reached 220 nm. By 8 contrast, bath sonication led to smaller ND25 clusters (58 ± 4 nm) after preparation that grew up 9 to 151 ± 4 nm after 2-week storage at room temperature. Bath sonication was thus used in all the 10 experiments. The data are collected in Table 1 and Figure 2. For ND25, r_h was 58 ± 4 nm when 11 measured under air immediately after preparation (*i.e.* the clusters contain \sim 9 primary particles). 12 This value did not change significantly when subjecting the dispersions to ultrasound bath 13 treatment (25°C, 20 min). After 2 weeks of storage at room temperature, significant aggregation 14 occurred in the aqueous dispersions, leading to larger clusters with a mean radius of 151 ± 4 nm 15 (~163 primary particles). By contrast, exposing the ND25 dispersions to F-hexane, or F-pentane, 16 vapors drastically changed their aggregation behavior. After ultrasound bath treatment, $r_{\rm h}$ 17 *decreased* significantly from 62 ± 3 nm (~11 primary particles) to 35 ± 1 nm (~2 primary particles), 18 when exposed to F-hexane, and from 65 ± 2 nm (~13 primary particles) to 29 ± 1 nm (~1 primary 19 particles) when exposed to F-pentane (SI Figure S2). ζ decreased significantly from -58.2 mV (air) 20 to -61.1 mV, and to -62.3 mV for F-hexane and F-pentane, respectively. After two-week storage, 21 the NDs exposed to the FC gases had maintained their size (37 and 32 nm, respectively). Zeta 22 potentials were found unchanged after one week at 25°C. These results indicate that exposure to

*F*Cs promotes disaggregation of the ND25 clusters and prevents their re-aggregation of the NDs
 over time.

Table 1. Mean hydrodynamic radius r_h and zeta potential ζ of dispersions of nanodiamonds exposed to air, *F*-hexane or *F*-pentane. In parentheses, the number of primary particles contained in the nanodiamond clusters.

6

ND	Gas phase	<i>r</i> h Prep. (nm)	<i>r</i> h Sonic bath (nm)	rh Storage* (nm)	ζ Prep. (± 1 mV)	
ND25	Air	58 ± 4 (9)	57 ± 2 (8)	151 ± 4 (163)	-58.2	
	F-hexane	62 ± 3 (11)	35 ± 1 (2)	37 ± 1 (2)	-61.1	
	F-pentane	65 ± 2 (13)	29 ± 1 (1)	32 ± 2 (1)	-62.3	
<i>F</i> -ND25	Air	81 ± 3 (25)	83 ± 3 (26)	$146 \pm 4 (147)$	-48.1	
	F-hexane	87 ± 2 (31)	89 ± 2 (32)	75 ± 1 (19)	-50.4	
	F-pentane	88 ± 4 (32)	88 ± 3 (32)	74 ± 3 (19)	-51.2	
*Two weeks at room temperature.						

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8 Where F-ND25 NDs are concerned, r_h was 81 ± 3 nm (~25 primary particles) under air after 9 preparation. This larger size relative to that of ND25 reflects the higher hydrophobicity of the 10 fluorinated NDs at the surface of which the polar functions have been replaced by C-F bonds, and 11 their higher tendency for aggregation in aqueous media. The less negative zeta potential of the F-12 ND25 dispersions exposed to air (-48.8 mV vs. -58.2 mV for ND25) also reflects the substitution 13 of polar functions by fluorine atoms. When exposed to air for 2 weeks at room temperature, 14 pronounced aggregation was observed, leading to F-ND25 clusters reaching 146 ± 4 nm in size 15 (~147 primary particles). By contrast, exposure to F-hexane or F-pentane led to significant 16 disaggregation of the F-ND25 clusters (~75 nm, ~19 primary particles). Disaggregation was 17 noticeable after 2 days at 25°C, which means that the process is slow for F-ND25. Importantly, 18 ND aggregation did not recommence over time when the FC gas was present. Exposure to 19 fluorocarbon gases slightly decreases the zeta potential of F-NDs (from -48.1 to -50.4 and -51.2 20 for *F*-hexane and *F*-pentane, respectively). These values did not change after one week at 25°C.



Figure 2. DLS profiles of ND25 (left panel) and *F*-ND25 (right panel) in aqueous dispersions (0.05 g L⁻¹) under air (a, b) and *F*-hexane-saturated air (c, d) showing the variation of intensity as a function of the hydrodynamic radius after preparation (black), after ultrasound bath treatment (red), and after two-week storage at room temperature (blue). In d), the difference between the values measured after preparation (87 ± 2 nm) and after storage (75 ± 1 nm) is significant. Arrows indicate the direction of peak radii variation.

16 The disaggregation effect of *F*-hexane on aqueous dispersions of NDs was also investigated by 17 cryogenic transmission electron microscopy (cryo-TEM). Figure 3 shows that significant 18 aggregation occurs in the aqueous dispersions of ND25 under air (3.a), while the aggregation is 19 limited under *F*-hexane (3.b). More isolated primary particles that look transparent, as well as 20 small aggregates can be observed (3.c-d), while only large aggregates are seen when the NDs are 21 exposed to air.

22



Figure 3. Cryo-TEM images of aqueous dispersions of ND25 (0.1 g L⁻¹) exposed a) under air and
b) under *F*-hexane-saturated air (b-d). b-d) reveal the presence of relatively small isolated clusters
that cannot be seen under air. Scale bar:100 nm.

16 One hypothesis for the mechanism of disaggregation and for the FC-induced improved ND dispersion stability is that, although the solubility of the FCs in water is extremely low (2.7×10^{-4}) 17 mol m⁻³ and 4.0 x 10⁻³ mol m⁻³ for *F*-hexane and *F*-pentane, respectively, at 25° C)⁴¹, it is not null. 18 19 It can therefore be envisioned that FC molecules present in the aqueous phase interact with the 20 clusters of NDs through hydrophobic interactions, which may break some of the interactions that 21 ensure ND cluster cohesion, and induce their progressive disaggregation (Scheme 2). The more 22 negative ζ values measured when both ND25 and F-ND25 are exposed to the FC gases support 23 this view. Addition of surfactants was indeed shown to increase the colloidal stability of ND aqueous dispersions, 43 and the surface activity of *F*-hexane at interfaces has been established. 39 24



8 Scheme 2. Schematic representation of the aggregation of ND clusters that occurs under air over 9 time (a), whilst disaggregation occurs under *F*-hexane (b) (green entities: *F*-hexane; not on scale). 10 The fact that the more water-soluble *F*-pentane is more efficient than *F*-hexane for ND25 cluster disaggregation also supports this view. The stronger disaggregating effect of the FC gas on non-11 12 fluorinated ND25 was unexpected. It may be possible that disaggregating *F*-ND25 clusters, which 13 are larger than ND25 ones (they contain ~25 primary particles versus ~9), may require more 14 fluorocarbon molecules, which is limited by the low water solubility of *F*-hexane and *F*-pentane. 15 It may also be possible that *F*-NDs25 are more tightly packed.

16 Adsorption of Nanodiamonds at the Air/Water Interface. In order to shed light on the effect 17 of the FC on MB formation, we determined the kinetics of the F-hexane-driven adsorption of 18 ND25 and *F*-ND25 at the gas/water interface at 25° C using bubble profile analysis tensiometry. A syringe filled with F-hexane-saturated air was fitted on the measuring cell of the tensiometer.³⁹ 19 20 The adsorption profiles of dispersions of ND25 and F-ND25 (0.1 g L^{-1}) exposed – or not – to F-21 hexane gas are provided in Figure 5. The characteristic time of adsorption τ was determined by 22 fitting the adsorption profiles with an exponential decay function. Under air, ND25 adsorb only 23 slightly and slowly ($\tau \sim 10.3$ min) at the interface. The equilibrium value of the interfacial tension

was reached after ~30 min (σ_{eq} ~66.4 mN m⁻¹). The weak adsorption of ND25 particles is explained 1 2 by their significant hydrophilic character, as measured by contact angle, due to the polar functions 3 present on the ND25 surface, and low affinity for the interface. Exposure of ND25 to F-hexane 4 results in a much faster ($\tau \sim 0.86$ min) and more pronounced adsorption ($\sigma_{eq} \sim 59.5$ mN m⁻¹, *i.e.* a 5 σ lowering $\Delta \sigma = 6.9$ mN m⁻¹). It should be reminded that *F*-hexane alone induces a lowering of the tension of water of only 4.5 mN m⁻¹ (Figure 5). This indicates a synergistic effect between F-6 7 hexane and the NDs at the interface. By contrast with ND25, F-ND25 do not adsorb at all at the 8 interface under air, as assessed by a constant σ value of ~71.5 mN m⁻¹, which is probably due by 9 the large size of the clusters. By contrast, exposure to F-hexane leads to a pronounced adsorption, causing a tension lowering $\Delta\sigma$ by ~15.8 mN m⁻¹ with respect to the value measured in air. These 10 11 results suggest that fluorous interactions develop bet-



Figure 5. a) Schematic representation of the adsorption of nanodiamonds at the air/water interface using bubble profile analysis tensiometry. b) Variation of the gas/water interfacial tension σ over time for aqueous dispersions of ND25 (black) and *F*-ND25 (blue) under air and under *F*-hexaneexposure (0.1 g L⁻¹, pH 12). Adsorption profile of *F*-hexane in the absence of nanodiamonds (green). Concentration: 0.1 g L⁻¹; pH 12.0; temperature: 25°C.

-ween *F*-hexane and the fluorinated NDs, enabling the recruitment of the latter to the interface,
and their stabilization at this interface. Although the interfacial behavior of spread films of
nanodiamonds functionalized by alkyl (and fluoroalkyl) chains has been described,⁴⁴ our data are
the first report of spontaneously adsorbed films of nanodiamonds at the gas/water interface.

To sum-up, the disaggregating effect exerted by the fluorocarbon both facilitates the diffusion of the nanodiamond particles to, and their organization at the interface, likely by filling the interparticle gaps. For *F*-NDs, these effects are enhanced, likely by fluorine-fluorine hydrophobic interactions that develop between the C-F groups and *F*-hexane, as was recently reported for magnetic nanoparticles fitted with dendrons terminated with fluorinated groups.⁴⁵

10 Microbubbles with Nanodiamond Shells. In order to exploit the observed dispersive effect of 11 FC gases on ND in aqueous dispersions, and influence of their adsorption at an air/water interface, 12 we investigated the possibility of preparing microbubbles that would be shelled by NDs only, that 13 is, without recourse to any conventional surfactant or foaming agent. Essentially all the 14 commercially available medical microbubbles use FC gases for stabilization.²⁵⁻²⁶ The latter acts as 15 an osmotic agent and as a co-surfactant to the bubble shell-forming material (usually phospholipids).^{23, 46} Preparation of MBs was attempted by bubbling either N₂ or F-hexane-16 saturated N₂ into aqueous dispersions of ND25 or F-ND25 (0.1 g L⁻¹). The MBs were prepared 17 18 using a Vialmix® shaker in the presence, or absence, of F-hexane. Their size and stability 19 characteristics were measured by optical microscopy and by an acoustical attenuation method.⁴⁰ 20 We found that, for both ND25 and F-ND25, only the dispersions that were exposed to F-hexane 21 did produce MBs stable enough for characterization. All our attempts to produce MBs in the 22 absence of FC failed. The impossibility to generate MBs in the absence of F-hexane is strongly 23 related to the interfacial behavior of nanodiamonds, as observed in tensiometry. For generating

1 MBs, it is crucial that the shell components access and stabilize the interface rapidly.⁴⁷ The 2 tensiometry experiments demonstrate that, under air, neither of the NDs are adsorbing at the 3 air/water interface in a significant manner. Under *F*-hexane exposure both types of nanodiamonds 4 are readily adsorbing at the interface, likely due to the fact that *F*-hexane fills in gaps left between 5 the nanodiamond particles, thus facilitating their organization in a compact film.

6 The *F*-ND25-shelled MBs were smaller and more narrowly dispersed (mean diameter: $2.14 \pm$ 7 0.60 μ m), than the ND25-shelled MBs (3.76 \pm 0.89 μ m) (Figure 3). The MBs made from ND25 8 and from *F*-ND25 were both highly echogenic. Their stability was determined by measuring the 9 attenuation coefficient α of ultrasound waves that propagate through a bubble dispersion as a function of time for a range of ultrasound frequencies f. ⁴⁰ The variation of α as a function of f at 10 11 the initial time t_0 (Figure 4a,b) shows that, for both types of NDs, the maximal value is comparable 12 to that of phospholipid-shelled MBs, suggesting comparable echogenicity for comparable volumes of MBs injected in the measuring cell.⁴⁰ 13



Figure 3. Optical micrographs of *F*-hexane-stabilized microbubbles shelled with a) ND25 and b)
 F-ND25, with corresponding size distributions. Concentration: 0.1 g L⁻¹; pH 12.0.



Figure 4. Variation of the attenuation coefficient α as a function of ultrasound frequency *f* for microbubbles prepared with dispersions of a) ND25 and b) *F*-ND25 under *F*-hexane. Size distributions of MBs shelled with c) ND25 and d) *F*-ND25 as measured acoustically after 5 (black), 10 (red) and 15 (blue) min.

14 The dependence of the MB volume fraction with size is plotted in Figure 4c,d for different time 15 points. The distribution of ND25-shelled MBs is shifted toward larger radius values over time. By 16 contrast, the mean radius of the fluorinated F-ND25-shelled MBs remains constant over time for 17 at least 15 min. A hypothesis for the difference in the size distribution evolution is that F-ND25 18 are attracted to, and immobilized at the air/water interface through fluorine-fluorine interactions 19 with supernatant F-hexane molecules. This is supported by the increased adsorption of F-ND25 20 upon F-hexane exposure, as monitored by tensiometry. It is also in line with previous data showing 21 that iron oxide nanoparticles fitted with fluorinated group-terminated dendrons provided efficient stabilization of F-hexane-saturated air MBs.⁴⁵ The variation of the acoustically determined MB 22 volume fraction plotted as a function of time allowed determination of the MB half-lives, which 23 24 were ~15 min (SI Figure S3).

Altogether, these data show that ND-shelled MBs with small mean size can be generated owing to the presence of the *F*C gas. These MBs present echogenic properties that qualify them as a contrast agent for ultrasound diagnostics. More generally, the unique potential of NDs for sensing, bioimaging and drug delivery can be combined to the portfolio of applications of MBs in medicine and biology.

6 CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

7 In summary, exposure to a supernatant fluorocarbon gas strongly impacts, and in multiple ways, 8 the behavior of aqueous dispersions of two types of nanodiamonds with different surface 9 chemistry, nanodiamonds with a relatively polar surface, and more hydrophobic ones with a 10 fluorinated surface. First, the FC effectively disaggregates the clusters that form spontaneously for 11 both types of NDs. This helps surmount a critical, recurrent obstacle in nanodiamond 12 implementation. As compared to other techniques of ND disaggregation, our method does not 13 require dry (or wet) milling or prolonged tip sonication, processes that often produce contaminants 14 that need to be removed by additional purification step. Second, the introduction of a supernatant 15 FC gas strongly promotes the adsorption/recruitment of both types of NDs to the gas/water 16 interface. Third, the fluorinated NDs experience increased adsorption relative to the non-17 fluorinated ones, revealing hydrophobic interactions with the FC. Fourth, ND-shelled 18 microbubbles can be generated *only* when the FC is present, and this for both types of NDs, the 19 fluorinated NDs leading to smaller MBs. Generation of microbubbles shelled with nanodiamonds 20 is enabled by the FC gas that allows disaggregation of ND clusters in aqueous solution, and thus 21 facilitates their diffusion to, and organization at the interface. Shorter, more water-soluble FCs22 deserve investigation in order to enhance the disaggregating effect vis-à-vis other types of NDs 23 (e.g. detonation NDs). Our data support a novel means of controlling nanodiamond aggregation,

as well as a novel approach to stabilize nanodiamond-shelled microbubbles, allowing investigation
 of their potential as agents for bimodal contrast for ultrasound/fluorescence imaging, and drug
 delivery. We believe that these findings open new perspectives and trigger new research, both
 fundamental and mechanistic, and promote new applications in bioimaging and cell tracking.

5 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

6 Supporting Information. multinuclear solid-state NMR spectra, disaggregation induced by
7 perfluoropentane as monitored by DLS, and nanodiamond-shelled microbubble half-life (PDF).

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