

Nanodiamonds for spatial resolution benchmarking in two-photon microscopy

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Summary. Reliable and reproducible measurement of spatial resolution is essential for validating and comparing the performance of two-photon microscopy systems. We present fluorescent nanodiamonds as robust, photostable, reusable, and biocompatible probes for benchmarking spatial resolution. Owing to their nanoscale dimensions and stable fluorescence, nanodiamonds act as near-ideal point-like emitters, enabling accurate characterisation of the point spread function across varying imaging conditions. We demonstrate that nanodiamond-based phantoms serve as a reliable alternative to conventional fluorescent beads embedded in agarose, while at the same time offering advantages in stability and optical properties. Our results position nanodiamond phantoms as a next-generation calibration material that bridges ease of use and reproducibility, advancing quantitative imaging and cross-platform comparability in modern fluorescence microscopy.

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Author contributions:

	FJ	MF	JC	MSz	TB
Concept	■				
Design				■	
Sample preparation				■	
Data collection	■	■	■		
Data Processing	■	■	■		
Funding	■				■
Writing	■				■

41 Introduction

42

43 Two-photon scanning microscopy (2PM) is a powerful imaging technique that utilizes
44 simultaneous absorption of two infrared photons to excite fluorophores. This technique
45 reduces out-of-focus excitation and photodamage, making it ideal for imaging thick
46 biological tissues¹. In neuroscience, 2PM is extensively employed for *in vivo* imaging of
47 neuronal activity, dendritic spines, and synaptic structures, enabling high-resolution
48 visualization within living tissue. The technique has been extensively applied across
49 brain regions and species²⁻⁶.

50

51 Accurate spatial resolution measurements ensure that fine structures are correctly and
52 reproducibly visualized. Accordingly, robust methods for spatial-resolution assessment
53 are essential for meaningful within- and cross-platform comparisons⁷.

54

55 The point spread function (PSF) is a fundamental descriptor of a microscope's spatial
56 resolution^{8,9}. It represents the three-dimensional response of the imaging system to a
57 point source, effectively characterizing how light from a single point object spreads in the
58 lateral (x, y) and axial (z) dimensions. This makes the PSF a central metric for validating
59 system performance, optimizing imaging parameters, ensuring reproducibility across
60 experiments, and comparing different two-photon systems.

61

62 To accurately measure the PSFs of a multiphoton microscope, researchers typically
63 image sub-resolution fluorescent beads (ideally 100–200 nm in diameter) embedded in
64 low-melting-point agarose gel⁷. A three-dimensional image stack of an isolated bead is
65 acquired with adequate voxel sampling to resolve the PSF. Full width at half maximum
66 (FWHM) measurements are taken along the lateral and axial dimensions to estimate
67 spatial resolution¹⁰. To identify field-dependent variation or optical distortion,
68 measurements are repeated across multiple regions of the sample. This approach
69 provides a practical baseline for assessing system performance¹¹. However, it remains
70 sensitive to preparation inconsistencies and local aberrations, which can introduce
71 variability in the measured PSF^{12,13}. Further variability can stem from bead
72 immobilization, sample preparation, and storage conditions⁷. For instance, fluorescent
73 beads are typically embedded in low-melting-point agarose to prevent photobleaching,
74 but improper mixing or cooling before bead incorporation can result in uneven bead
75 distribution, affecting measurements. Additionally, storing the samples at room
76 temperature for extended periods of time can lead to photobleaching or degradation of
77 the beads¹⁴. In addition, to prevent sample degradation due to evaporation, a glass cover
78 is commonly used, however this glass adds further aberrations.

79

80 Here, we use nanodiamond-based samples analogously to conventional fluorescent
81 bead phantoms, i.e. artificial reference samples with controlled optical properties,
82 embedded in agarose for PSF measurements. Beyond their bright and stable two-photon
83 fluorescence¹⁵, nanodiamonds provide key practical advantages for PSF
84 characterization. Their intrinsic nitrogen-vacancy (NV) centre emission does not bleach
85 or chemically degrade, unlike dye-doped beads, and their exceptional chemical stability
86 enables long-term preservation¹⁶. Consequently, nanodiamond gels maintain their
87 optical and mechanical properties over years; for example, the samples used in this

88 study were prepared in 2018 and showed no observable degradation after long-term
89 storage at room temperature. This long-term robustness allows repeated use of the
90 same phantom across imaging sessions and calibration routines, improving consistency
91 and reducing sample-to-sample variability. Moreover, depending on gel formulation, the
92 refractive index of nanodiamond phantoms can be tuned to approximate that of
93 biological tissues, creating a more physiologically relevant optical environment for
94 benchmarking imaging performance. Together with their excellent biocompatibility¹⁷,
95 these features position nanodiamond-based phantoms as a reliable, reusable, and
96 biologically meaningful standard for high-precision PSF measurements in two-photon
97 microscopy.

98

99 **Results**

100

101 Nanodiamonds are crystalline carbon nanoparticles obtained from controlled high-
102 pressure or detonation synthesis, producing exceptionally stable and biologically
103 compatible materials^{17,18}. Many nanodiamonds host (NV) centres that provide bright,
104 highly photostable fluorescence resistant to bleaching¹⁹. These properties make
105 nanodiamonds attractive as robust, long-term optical probes in demanding biological
106 and materials-science imaging contexts.

107

108 **Nanodiamonds as a next-generation calibration material**

109

110 We used nanodiamond phantoms mimicking physical properties of human tissue in the
111 context of medical imaging (calibrating MRI scans)²⁰. The samples were prepared by
112 forming a gel matrix of agar and carrageenan in distilled water. Nanodiamonds were first
113 dispersed in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), a polar aprotic solvent that efficiently wets their
114 surfaces, reduces aggregation, and enables stable mixing with the aqueous gel. Two
115 nanodiamond series were prepared: the *nano* series containing 8–12% (v/v) of a
116 nanodiamonds (ND) standard suspension in DMSO (Adámas Nanotechnologies, 5 nm
117 particles), and the '*dnp*' series containing 8–12% (v/v) of the hydrophilic RT-DND-L
118 suspension (Ray Techniques Ltd., 4–5 nm particles). The nanodiamond suspensions
119 were incorporated into the warm gel base, gently heated to ensure homogeneity, and
120 then poured into moulds to solidify into stable phantoms (see Methods for details).

121

122 Figure 1a presents scanning electron micrographs (SEM) of an 8% dnp phantom sample.
123 These images reveal a heterogeneous distribution of nanodiamond structures, with a
124 notable fraction measuring under 200 nm, comparable in size to standard fluorescent
125 nanobeads commonly used for PSF calibration. This sub-200 nm population is
126 particularly relevant for imaging-based resolution assessment. The observed size
127 diversity results from the fabrication process, in which individual nanodiamonds,
128 typically 4–5 nm in diameter, form colloiddally stable aggregates. Dynamic light scattering
129 confirmed that these aggregates have an average size of approximately 70–80 nm,
130 making them suitable analogues for sub-resolution bead-based calibration^{18,20–22}.

131

132 To support that the fluorescence signal originates from the nanodiamond material rather
133 than added dyes, we acquired confocal z-stacks under 561-nm excitation (Figure 2b). We
134 observed bright, punctate emitters distributed throughout the gel in both formulations,

135 consistent with fluorescent nanodiamond aggregates containing NV centres as reported
136 in the literature^{15,23}. This control confirms that the phantoms provide robust intrinsic
137 fluorescence suitable for PSF measurements. Together, these observations support that
138 the fluorescence signal used for PSF measurements originates from the nanodiamond
139 material itself rather than from added dyes, confirming that the phantoms act as a
140 robust, dye-free reference for two-photon imaging and resolution benchmarking.

141

142 **Nanodiamond phantoms enable robust and reproducible two-photon PSF** 143 **measurements**

144

145 We demonstrate that nanodiamonds give usable PSFs under 2-photon excitation. We
146 compared two-photon PSF measurements (920 nm excitation, 3 mW at the sample,
147 Coherent Vision S femtosecond laser) from one of the nanodiamond samples (8% DNP)
148 with those from a standard fluorescent bead sample (Invitrogen 505/515, P7220) using
149 our two-photon microscopy (2PM) setup. Representative *xz* and *yz* cross-sectional
150 profiles were extracted from *xy* planes of *z*-stacks acquired sequentially on the same
151 imaging system configured in two modes: diffraction-limited (DL) and an experimentally
152 expanded PSF generated with non-telecentric (nTC) optics²⁴ (Figure 1c). In both
153 configurations, PSF dimensions were statistically indistinguishable between
154 nanodiamonds and beads (Figure 1d), confirming that nanodiamonds provide reliable,
155 well-defined PSFs suitable for quantitative imaging.

156

157 Finally, Figure 1e compares PSF measurements obtained from all six phantom types
158 under identical two-photon microscopy conditions (DL configuration). The analysis
159 confirms consistent optical performance across samples, indicating that the
160 nanodiamond and dynamic nanodiamond polymer phantoms provide reproducible
161 fluorescence characteristics suitable for benchmarking imaging resolution.

162

163 **Engineering nanodiamond phantoms to replicate tissue-like imaging conditions**

164

165 To accurately record the PSF, it is advantageous to match key optical and physical
166 properties that influence image formation. A notable benefit of nanodiamond-based
167 phantoms is that their material properties can be systematically tuned: adjusting
168 nanodiamond concentration, particle size, or surface functionalisation enables
169 controlled modulation of refractive index, scattering coefficient, and fluorescence
170 brightness. Consequently, phantom mixtures can be fabricated to emulate a range of
171 tissue-like conditions, including those found across different brain regions and depths.
172 This tunability ensures that PSF calibration more faithfully reproduces the optical
173 environment of the actual experiment, improving the accuracy and interpretability of
174 downstream imaging measurements.

175

176 Figure 2a shows representative photographs of the various samples used in this study:
177 an agarose-bead phantom, the nanodiamond-based phantoms (nano 8% and dnp 8%)
178 and a live adult mouse brain section imaged through a cranial window. The
179 nanodiamond-based phantoms exhibit optical scattering and structural heterogeneity
180 resembling brain tissue more closely than the uniform agarose-bead sample. This visual
181 and optical similarity supports their use as biologically relevant calibration standards.

182

183 Figure 2b summarises the refractive indices (RI) of distilled water, 2% agarose gel
184 prepared with water, and six different nanodiamond-based phantom formulations. For
185 comparison, these values are plotted alongside RI estimates of brain tissues from animal
186 models commonly used in 2PM neuroscience experiments: mouse^{25–28}, rat^{27,29},
187 zebrafish^{30–34}, and fruit flies^{35–37}. The RIs of nanodiamonds are approximately in line with
188 estimates from animal brains, most notably from mouse and fruit flies. By contrast, RIs
189 of water and agarose are generally below those of most animal brains.

190

191 In addition to the variation in RI across different tissue types, it is important to note that
192 the refractive index measurements were collected at two wavelengths, 589 nm and 1050
193 nm, which provides insight into the spectral dispersion of the nanodiamond
194 formulations. Comparing RI at these two wavelengths reveals how strongly each
195 formulation's refractive index changes with wavelength: minimal differences indicate
196 low dispersion, whereas larger shifts signal wavelength-dependent optical behaviour
197 that can influence focusing accuracy and aberration levels in two-photon microscopy
198 operating in the near-infrared.

199

200 Moreover, the RI-differences observed across nanodiamond samples indicate how
201 responsive the optical properties are to formulation choices. Although effects such as
202 nanodiamond agglomeration³⁸ likely contribute to the variability seen in the older sample
203 set, these results point to yet unexplored headroom for optimisation. With improved
204 control over dispersion, aggregation, and composition, future nanodiamond-based
205 phantoms can be designed to span a broader and more precisely targeted range of
206 refractive indices that more faithfully reflects the diversity of biological tissues,
207 ultimately enabling even more accurate and customisable PSF calibration.

208

209 Overall, our nanodiamond phantoms are designed to mimic the optical behaviour of real
210 tissue rather than the more homogeneous environment of agarose gels.
211 Correspondingly, the PSF should broaden with imaging depth, reflecting the increased
212 scattering and aberrations that also occur in vivo. To assess this depth dependence
213 directly, we measured PSFs in the same nanodiamond sample (nano 10%) at two depths
214 under identical optical conditions. Representative xz and yz sections acquired near the
215 surface (0–50 μm from the top) were compared to data collected approximately 700 μm
216 deeper in the gel (Fig. 2c). Gaussian fitting of lateral and axial intensity profiles yielded
217 full width at half maximum (FWHM) values summarised in Fig. 2d. This directly confirmed
218 that deeper imaging produces broader PSFs, in line with established depth-dependent
219 aberration and scattering effects in biological tissue. These results contrast with
220 agarose-based phantoms, where minimal scattering and refractive-index homogeneity
221 often lead to artificially stable PSFs with depth^{7,9,13}.

222

223 **Nanodiamonds exhibit resistance to PSF saturation and photobleaching**

224

225 Accurate and reproducible PSF measurements benefit greatly from fluorescent probes
226 that remain stable under a wide range of imaging conditions. Nanodiamonds offer a clear
227 advantage in this context, as their intrinsic NV-centre fluorescence is exceptionally
228 resistant to photobleaching, saturation, and power-dependent nonlinearities^{15,23,39,40}.

229 This stability allows PSFs to be recorded reliably even when excitation power, depth, or
230 microscope configuration vary, making nanodiamond-based phantoms particularly well
231 suited for routine calibration and cross-platform benchmarking. By contrast, traditional
232 agarose-embedded fluorescent beads require stringent control of imaging parameters,
233 as their emission can saturate or photobleach under higher excitation powers^{7,14}, leading
234 to distortions in PSF measurements⁴¹ and reduced reproducibility across microscopes
235 and laboratories⁴². Thus, nanodiamonds provide a more robust and dependable
236 foundation for quantitative optical characterisation.

237
238 Figure 3a shows xz images of fluorescent beads and Figure 3b presents corresponding
239 nanodiamond images (bottom, nano 8% sample) acquired under two-photon excitation
240 at increasing power levels. While the bead images clearly saturate at higher excitation
241 powers, the nanodiamonds retain a consistent, well-defined shape across the entire
242 power range. Quantitative analysis based on Gaussian fitting, summarised in Figure 3c,
243 confirms this stability.

244
245 These results underscore the exceptional photostability of nanodiamonds: their NV-
246 centre fluorescence exhibits negligible photobleaching and resists saturation even
247 under elevated excitation intensities. Such robustness makes nanodiamonds
248 particularly advantageous for PSF characterisation in realistic imaging conditions, where
249 higher laser powers, deeper imaging, and longer acquisition times are often necessary.
250 Their stable emission and resistance to photodamage provide a reliable and
251 reproducible standard for system calibration in advanced two-photon microscopy
252 setups⁴⁰.

253
254 **Nanodiamonds support robust imaging across a wide excitation spectrum**
255

256 Figure 3d shows the XY fluorescence intensity profiles of both beads and nanodiamonds
257 under two-photon excitation across wavelengths from 800 nm to 1040 nm, all acquired
258 at a constant excitation power of 5 mW. The beads, composed of yellow-green
259 fluorescent material (excitation/emission 505/515 nm), remain clearly visible
260 throughout the full excitation range, reflecting their broad two-photon absorption
261 spectrum. The nanodiamonds likewise display consistent fluorescence across all tested
262 wavelengths, demonstrating their robust and efficient two-photon excitation behaviour.
263 This broad excitation responsiveness confirms that both beads and nanodiamonds are
264 compatible with multi-wavelength imaging modalities, while further emphasising the
265 versatility of nanodiamonds as stable and reliable contrast agents in a wide range of two-
266 photon microscopy conditions.

267
268
269 **Discussion**

270
271 Quantitative and reproducible assessment of spatial resolution remains a central
272 challenge in two-photon microscopy. Existing calibration samples such as fluorescent
273 beads embedded in agarose are limited by photobleaching, mechanical instability, and
274 optical properties that differ markedly from those of biological tissue. Here we show that
275 fluorescent nanodiamond phantoms overcome these constraints and establish a new

276 class of calibration standard for PSF characterisation. The intrinsic nitrogen vacancy
277 fluorescence of NDs is exceptionally stable, resisting saturation and photobleaching
278 even under elevated excitation powers. As a result, ND phantoms deliver PSF
279 measurements that remain unchanged across repeated imaging sessions, long-term
280 storage, and variations in acquisition conditions.

281
282 A defining strength of the ND formulation is its close optical correspondence to
283 mammalian brain tissue. By matching refractive index and reproducing the subtle
284 scattering and aberrations encountered *in vivo*, ND gels capture the depth-dependent
285 degradation of axial resolution observed during real biological imaging. This behaviour
286 bridges the gap between idealised calibration samples and the complex optical
287 environments encountered in practical microscopy. Importantly, the depth-dependent
288 PSF broadening measured in ND samples mirrors *in vivo* performance and enables
289 predictive calibration. Users can therefore anticipate the performance of their imaging
290 system at depth and optimise optical correction strategies before undertaking live
291 experiments.

292
293 The stability and reproducibility of ND phantoms extend their impact beyond calibration
294 of individual instruments. Because a single batch can be distributed across laboratories
295 without measurable optical drift, ND phantoms provide a realistic foundation for cross-
296 platform and multi-centre benchmarking. This capability addresses a major gap in
297 advanced fluorescence microscopy and supports the development of shared reference
298 datasets, longitudinal performance tracking, and harmonised quality-assurance
299 protocols similar to those used in clinical imaging.

300
301 The tissue-like optical behaviour of ND phantoms arises from nanoscale heterogeneity
302 that is intrinsic to the material. Nanodiamond aggregates in the sub-200 nanometre
303 range create scattering microenvironments that approximate neural tissue far more
304 closely than homogeneous gels. This results in PSFs that are slightly broader than those
305 produced by ideal bead standards but that more accurately represent conditions
306 encountered in biological samples. ND phantoms therefore provide an effective testbed
307 for evaluating new optical designs, adaptive optics methods, and deep-imaging
308 strategies under conditions that reflect realistic imaging challenges.

309
310 Equally important is the practical accessibility of this approach. ND phantoms are
311 inexpensive, relatively straightforward to fabricate, stable at room temperature, and
312 compatible with standard sample holders and immersion media. Their durability
313 removes the need for frequent sample preparation or controlled storage, which reduces
314 operational variability and enables routine calibration in both academic and industrial
315 microscopy facilities.

316
317 Taken together, these properties position nanodiamond phantoms as a useful advance
318 in two-photon microscopy calibration. Their combination of long-term fluorescence
319 stability, tissue-relevant optical characteristics, and resistance to power-related
320 artefacts extends accurate resolution benchmarking into regimes that were previously
321 inaccessible with conventional reference materials. Further refinement of their optical
322 tuning through controlled adjustment of aggregate size, refractive index, or scattering

323 coefficient could yield phantoms tailored to specific tissues and imaging depths. Broad
324 adoption of such physiologically relevant calibration materials has the potential to
325 improve reproducibility, comparability, and methodological transparency across the
326 fluorescence microscopy community and to accelerate progress in both fundamental
327 neuroscience and biomedical imaging technology.

328

329 **Methods**

330

331 ***RI measurements***

332 The refractive index at 589 nm and 1050 nm was measured using an Atago Multi-
333 Wavelength Abbe Refractometer (model DR-M2). To maintain uniformity and reduce
334 thermal variability in the RI values, all measurements were carried out at a regulated
335 temperature of 22 °C.

336

337 ***Mouse brain photo***

338 The photo presents part of the adult mouse brain (C57BL/6J genetic background) taken
339 through a cranial window at the University of Sussex. The photos of the agarose sample
340 and phantoms has been taken by the same camera in the same illumination conditions.
341 A circular craniotomy (3 mm diameter; coordinates from bregma: 1mm caudal, 3mm to
342 the right) was performed to allow for accessing the barrel cortex (whisker-related area of
343 the primary somatosensory cortex (wS1) in mice).

344

345 ***Scanning Electron Microscopy images***

346 SEM imaging was carried out using an SM-7800F Schottky Field Emission Scanning
347 Electron Microscope (JEOL Ltd., Japan). Multiple magnifications were applied to capture
348 both micro- and nanoscale features of the samples. electron beam and image quality. A
349 low-voltage electron source (1.00 kV) was used to prevent surface melting of the agar-
350 carrageenan matrix observed at higher beam energies. Acquired images were post-
351 processed using ImageJ software (version 1.54g) in combination with the
352 DeconvolutionLab2 plugin (version 2.1.2). The Richardson–Lucy deconvolution
353 algorithm was applied with 10 iterations to enhance image clarity and contrast.

354

355 ***Two – photon setup***

356 The excitation beam was generated using a tuneable femtosecond Ti:Sapphire laser
357 (Coherent Vision-S, 75 fs, 80 MHz, >2.5 W). The beam passed through an achromatic
358 half-wave plate (AHWP05M-980, Thorlabs) and was split equally into two independent
359 two-photon (2P) setups using a beam-splitter (10RQ00UB.4, Newport). It then passed
360 through a Pockels cell (350-80, Conoptics), a telescope (AC254-075-B and AC254-150-
361 B, Thorlabs), and was reflected by three silver mirrors (PF10-03-P01) into the head of a
362 Sutter MOM stage. The beam was directed using galvanometric mirrors (6215H,
363 Cambridge Technology). In diffraction diffraction-limited configuration, it was focused
364 into a 50 mm focal length scan lens (VISIR 1534SPR136, Leica) and further collimated by
365 a 200 mm focal length tube lens (MXA22018, Nikon). In the Non-Collimated configuration
366 (nTC₁), the scan lens was modified to shift its focal length to 190 mm, and an additional
367 plano-convex lens (175 mm) was added. The beam was reflected by two silver parabolic
368 mirrors and passed through a dichroic mirror (T470/640rpc, Chroma) before slightly
369 overfilling the back aperture of a Zeiss Objective W “Plan-Apochromat” ×20/1.0 to create

370 a diffraction-limited excitation spot at a working distance of 1.8 mm. Fluorescence light
371 was collected exclusively through the objective. A dichroic mirror (T470/640rpc,
372 Chroma) reflected the fluorescence into a 140 mm focal length collecting lens, followed
373 by a 580-nm dichroic mirror (H 568 LPXR, superflat). The signal was split into green and
374 red channels using bandpass filters (ET525/50 and ET605/50, Chroma) and focused onto
375 PMT detectors (H10770PA-40, Hamamatsu) using an aspheric condenser lens
376 (G317703000, Linos). Image was acquired by custom-written software (ScanM)
377 controlled the setup via IGOR Pro 6.3 (Wavemetrics). Laser blanking occurred during the
378 turnarounds using the Pockels cell,
379

379

380 ***Fabrication of agarose-based sample with beads***

381 We utilized $0.175 \pm 0.005 \mu\text{m}$ yellow-green (505/515) fluorescent beads (P7220,
382 Invitrogen) for the calibration and imaging experiments. These beads were specifically
383 chosen for their consistent size and well-characterized fluorescent properties, which are
384 ideal for evaluating the resolution and point spread function (PSF) of the optical system.
385 To prepare the calibration samples, the beads were carefully embedded within a block
386 of low melting point agarose (Fisher Scientific, BP1360-100) at a depth of 1 mm. The
387 agarose concentration was precisely adjusted to 0.75%, ensuring an optimal balance
388 between sufficient rigidity for immobilizing the beads and minimal optical scattering to
389 maintain clarity during imaging. This arrangement provided a stable and reproducible
390 medium that allowed for accurate imaging and quantification of the optical properties,
391 making it a reliable calibration standard for the two-photon microscopy setup
392

392

393

394 ***Fabrication of nanodiamonds phantoms***

395 Nanodiamond-based phantoms were fabricated to provide long-term stable and
396 biologically relevant calibration materials for quantitative resolution benchmarking in
397 two-photon microscopy, particularly for applications requiring tissue-mimicking optical
398 properties. All phantoms were prepared using a standardized gel base composed of
399 1.413 g agar and 2.0 g carrageenan dissolved in 100 mL of distilled water. This mixture
400 was heated until fully homogenized, ensuring complete dissolution of the
401 polysaccharides and the formation of a consistent, mechanically stable gel network.
402 Two families of nanodiamond formulations were incorporated into this matrix. The nano
403 series consisted of 8–12% (v/v) of an ND-Standard suspension in dimethyl sulfoxide
404 (DMSO) supplied by Adámas Nanotechnologies, containing 5 nm particles with well-
405 characterized NV fluorescence. The dnp series used corresponding concentrations (8–
406 12% v/v) of an RT-DND-L hydrophilic nanodiamond suspension from Ray Techniques
407 Ltd., made by dispersing nanodiamond powder at 0.1% (w/w) into DMSO to create a
408 uniform, optically stable stock solution of 4–5 nm particles. After the gel base cooled to
409 room temperature, the DMSO-based nanodiamond suspensions were added and
410 thoroughly mixed to achieve uniform nanoparticle distribution throughout the gel. The
411 mixtures were poured into custom-designed molds and allowed to solidify, producing
412 phantoms with reproducible geometry and consistent optical behaviour. All samples
413 were processed under identical thermal and sterilization conditions, which ensured
414 stable incorporation of nanodiamonds into the gel matrix and prevented microbial
415 contamination during long-term storage. These phantoms were originally fabricated in
416 2018 as part of a broader effort to develop tissue-mimicking materials for MRI calibration

417 and optical imaging research^{43,44}. Remarkably, the same samples were used for the
418 experiments reported here in 2025, and they retained their structural integrity,
419 fluorescence brightness, and nanoparticle dispersion over seven years. Their long-term
420 stability highlights the robustness of the nanodiamond–DMSO–gel formulation and
421 confirms its suitability for reproducible PSF characterisation, cross-instrument
422 comparison, and routine calibration tasks in advanced microscopy workflows.

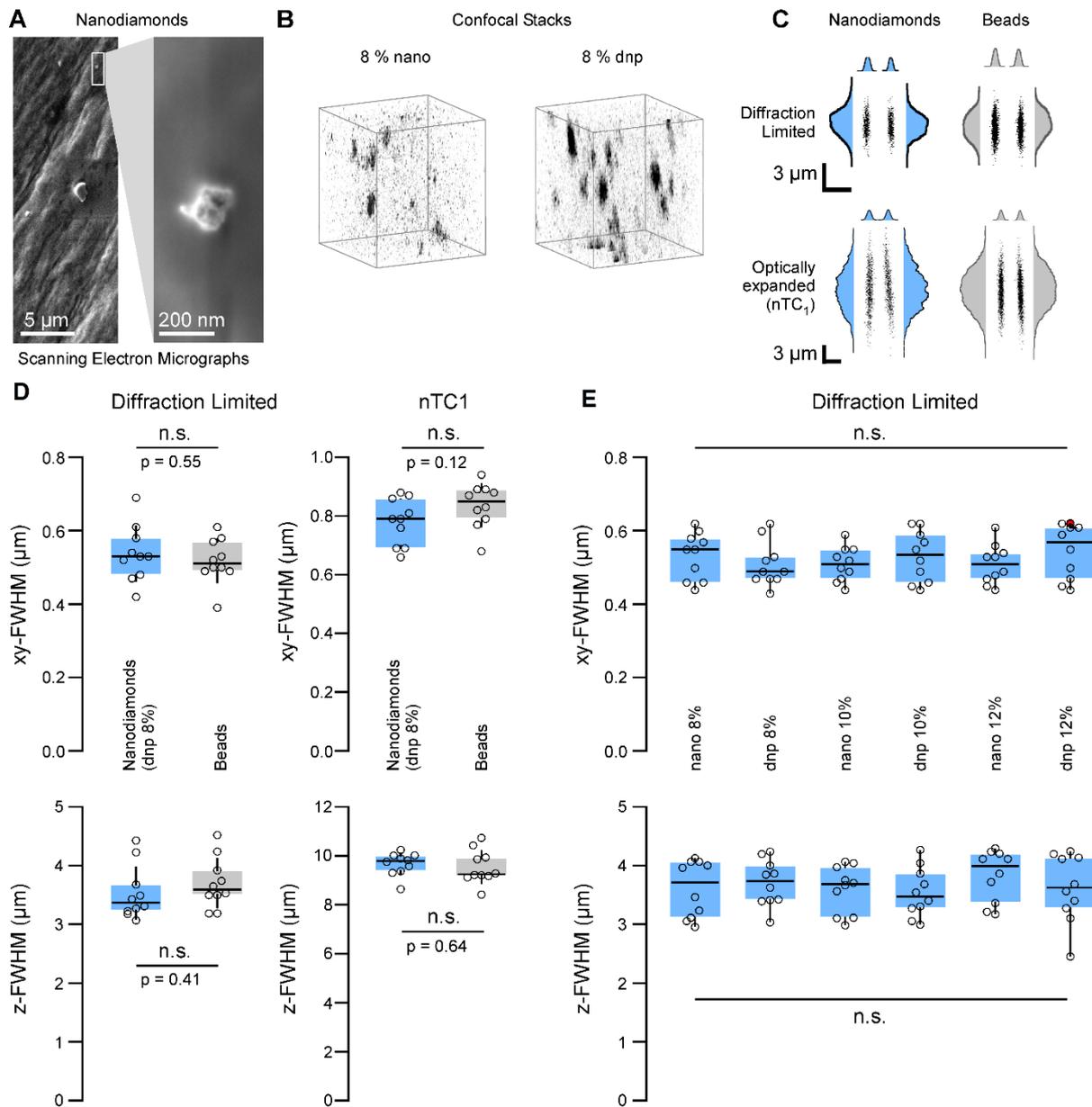
423

424 ***Confocal images***

425 Confocal images of samples were taken on a Leica TCS SP8 inverted microscope, using
426 a HC PL APO 63x/1.20 water objective. ~500 micron thick samples were coverslipped in
427 aqua-poly/mount (Polysciences, 18606) and imaged with the 561 nm (69% laser power)
428 laser line. Image stacks of 50x50x50 μm were acquired at a pixel size of 0.1 x 0.1 x 0.36
429 μm (x, y, z) and visualized as a 3d volume using napari. Fluorescence was collected using
430 a broad detection window to maximize signal-to-noise in thick samples; no spectral
431 unmixing or charge-state discrimination was performed.

432

433



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435

436

437 **Figure 1. Structural characterisation and two-photon PSF measurements of nanodiamond-based phantoms.**
438 (a) Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of an 8% dnp nanodiamond phantom reveal heterogeneous
439 nanodiamond aggregates with a substantial fraction below 200 nm, comparable in size to standard fluorescent beads
440 used for PSF calibration.

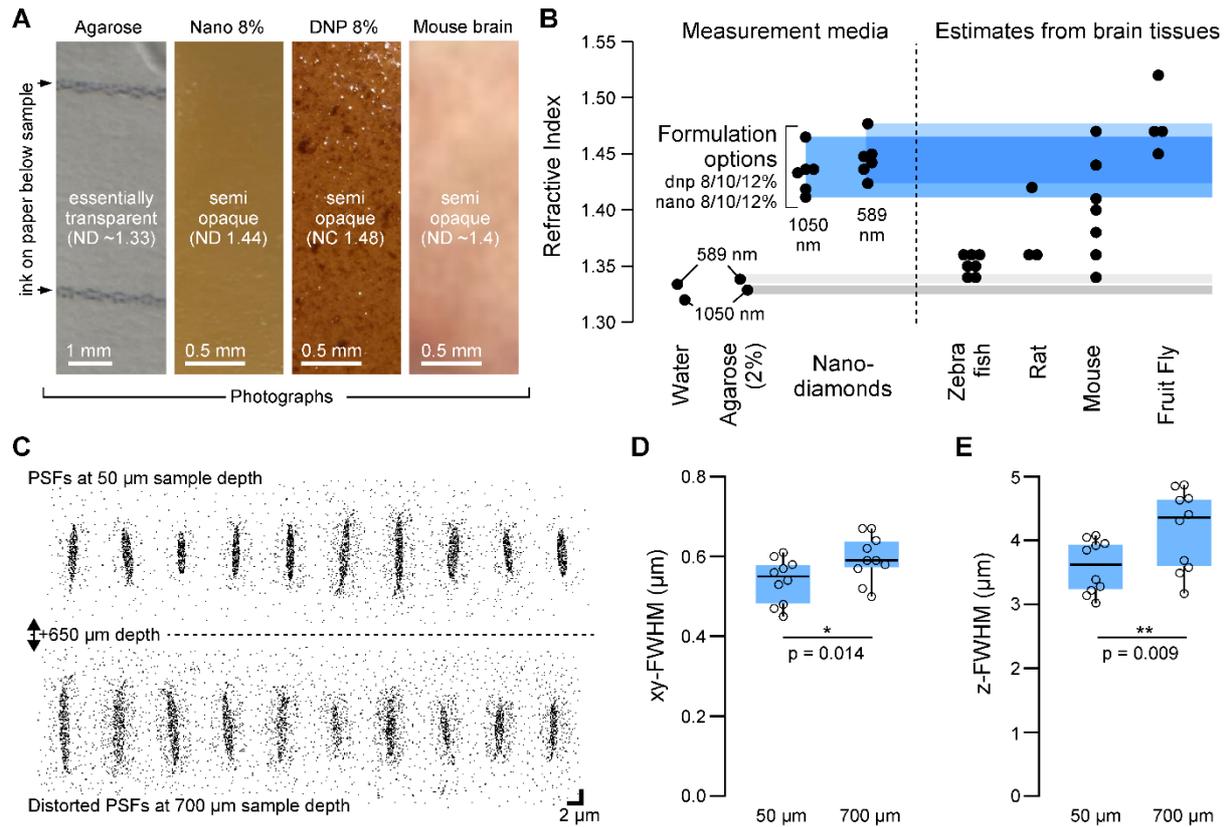
441 (b) Volumetric confocal microscopy of nano 8% and dnp 8% phantoms acquired under 561-nm excitation shows bright
442 punctate emitters distributed throughout the gel, consistent with fluorescent nanodiamond aggregates hosting NV
443 centres (literature). These data support that the fluorescence is intrinsic to the nanodiamond material and suitable for
444 use as a dye-free reference.

445 (c) Representative xz and yz cross-sections of two-photon PSFs recorded from nanodiamonds (8% DNP) and
446 commercial fluorescent beads (Invitrogen 505/515) under diffraction-limited (DL) and non-telecentric (nTC) imaging
447 configurations. All PSFs were acquired using 920 nm excitation at 3 mW on the same two-photon system.

448 (d) Quantitative PSF analysis shows statistically indistinguishable lateral and axial FWHM values between
449 nanodiamonds and beads in both DL and nTC modes, demonstrating that nanodiamonds provide accurate, bead-
450 equivalent PSFs suitable for microscope performance evaluation.

451 (e) PSF measurements obtained from all six nanodiamond and dynamic nanodiamond polymer phantoms (DL
452 configuration) exhibit consistent optical performance across formulations, confirming their reproducibility and
453 suitability as robust fluorescence standards for two-photon imaging.

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Figure 2. Optical properties, tissue relevance, and depth-dependent PSF performance of nanodiamond phantoms.

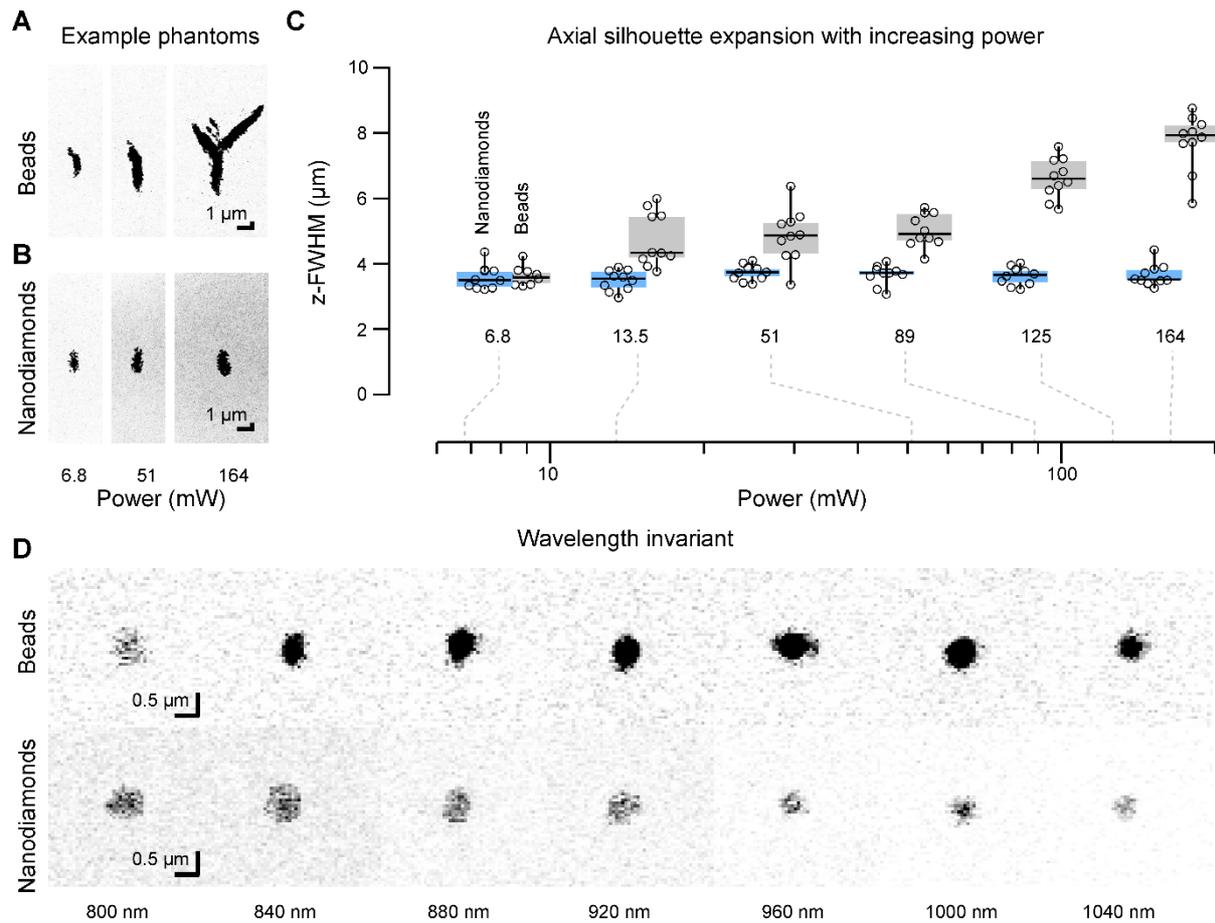
(a) Representative images of the different phantom types: agarose-bead, nanodiamond (nano %, dnp 8%), and a live adult mouse brain section, acquired under two-photon microscopy. Nanodiamond phantoms exhibit optical scattering and structural heterogeneity that more closely resemble brain tissue than homogeneous agarose gels.

(b) Refractive indices (RI) of distilled water, agarose gel, and six nanodiamond-based formulations measured at 589 nm and 1050 nm, compared with RI estimates from commonly used neuroscience model organisms (mouse, rat, zebrafish, drosophila). Nanodiamond phantoms align more closely with the RI range of biological tissues than agarose, supporting their relevance for realistic PSF calibration.

(c) Two-photon PSFs recorded in a nano 10% phantom at shallow (0–50 μm) and deep (~700 μm) imaging depths under identical optical conditions. Representative xz/yz sections illustrate depth-dependent broadening due to increased scattering and aberrations.

(d) Lateral (x–y) and axial (z) FWHM values derived from Gaussian fits show significant PSF degradation with depth (one-way ANOVA, $p < 0.05$), closely matching depth-dependent resolution loss in vivo. This behaviour contrasts with agarose phantoms, which yield artificially stable PSFs due to minimal scattering.

(e) Conceptual summary: nanodiamond phantoms capture physiologically realistic PSF degradation because their scattering, refractive index, and NV-based fluorescence more accurately model brain tissue. Their tunable composition enables controlled modulation of optical properties for targeted calibration across a wide range of imaging conditions.



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Figure 3. **Photostability and excitation-wavelength robustness of nanodiamonds under two-photon imaging.**

(a) XZ images of commercial fluorescent beads acquired at increasing two-photon excitation powers. Beads exhibit clear saturation and shape distortion at higher power.

(b) Corresponding xz images of nanodiamonds (nano 8% sample) showing well-preserved morphology across the same excitation power range, indicating exceptional resistance to saturation and photobleaching.

(c) Gaussian fits of lateral and axial profiles extracted from (a–b). Nanodiamonds maintain consistent FWHM values across all excitation intensities, whereas beads show power-dependent broadening and saturation-related deviations.

(d) XY fluorescence intensity profiles of beads and nanodiamonds under two-photon excitation from 800 nm to 1040 nm at a constant power of 5 mW. Beads (excitation/emission 505/515 nm) remain bright across the range, reflecting their broad two-photon absorption spectrum. Nanodiamonds likewise exhibit stable NV-centre fluorescence at all wavelengths tested, confirming efficient and broadband two-photon excitation.

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