Self-Propelled Micro/Nanomotors (MNMs) and Their Applications

Heng Ye

This thesis is presented for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
of
Curtin University

October 2018
Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgment has been made. This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

Signature: Heng Ye (Heng Ye)
Date: 04/10/2018
Acknowledgements

Firstly, I would like to express my utmost gratefulness to my principal advisor professor Shaobin Wang for his kind and supportive instruction, guidance, tolerance, assistance, and encouragement. Without his selfless help and arrangement, I cannot complete my academic research and publications.

My sincere gratitude also gives to my co-supervisor professor Hongqi Sun for his understanding of the difficulties of conducting research in a totally new research topic in our group and the kind suggestion when I encounter problems. His selfless input contributes to my publications and the thesis.

I would also like to thank professor Shaomin Liu as the chairperson of the thesis committee for his kind encouragement and suggestions during the project.

I am also grateful to my undergraduate and graduate period mentor professor Changsheng Liu from Northeastern University and professor Haifeng Zhang from the Institute of Metal Research of the Chinese Academy of Sciences, you teach me a lot in every aspect of my life both academically and personally.

I also want to give my gratitude to the technicians at Curtin University, Yu, Jimmy, Andrew, Guanliang, Ann, Jason, Araya, Melina, Dipok, Hao Gao, Elaine Miller, Kelly Merigot, and Anja for helping me prepare the chemicals and training me on the use of equipments. Special thanks also give to the supporting team and friends at the University of Western
Australia (UWA) and Edith Cowan University (ECU), professor Martin Saunders, professor Alexandra Suvorova, professor Xiaozhi Hu, professor Wen Lei, professor Andrew Johnson, professor Peta Clode, professor Paul Rigby, Dr Thomas Becker, Dr Aaron, Dr Yujing Liu, Dr Hua Li, Shunxing, Jincheng, Alysia, Irma, Andrea, and Lyn for their constant help, understanding, and encouragement to facilitate my research.

I also appreciate the support, help, and assistance from all my friends and colleagues at Curtin University, professor Degang Li, professor Linfeng Zhai, professor Peiqiang Li, professor Jianchao Ma, professor Jian Liu, Dr Lihong, Dr Lei Shi, Dr Yu Yin, Dr Lei Li, Dr Zhengyu, Dr Xiaoguang, Dr Wei, Spark, Hao Tian, Meiwen, Stacey, Muhammad, Min Ao, Rui Diao, Chi Zhang, Ping Liang, Yuxian, Wenran, Jinxiu, Chen Wang, Jian Kang, Xiaochen, Huayang, Wenjie, Qi Yang, Stacey, Yee Wen Chua, Sui Boon Liaw, Jun Ke, Jie Liu, Fuping, Lily Zhou, Qiaoran, Leon Liu, Yazi, Fern, Xiaojie, Shiyong, Shuai He, Qi Zhang, Panpan, Ning Han, Ruofei, Panda Yao, Jingqiang, Hong Wu, Shanshan, and Jiaquan.

Last but not the least, I would like to express my deepest love and gratitude to my family and relatives. I truly thank you all for your tremendous support and unreserved love in my entire study period as a student. I love you all dearly.
Micro/nanomotors (MNMs) would enable humankind to perform diverse tasks and operations that would be unimaginable in the past. The development of motion-based micro/nano scale devices, platforms, and MNMs are realizing the dream of manipulating the tiny entities, which means that a whole range of possible opportunities is open for the nanoscience, chemistry, biomedicine, and analysis. Previously, the majority of the catalytic MNMs use the precious noble metal platinum (Pt) as the catalyst to decompose hydrogen peroxide (H$_2$O$_2$) for propulsion. However, the Pt catalyst suffers from high-cost, scarcity, and possibility of deactivation in various media, researchers have been searching for new catalytic materials and propelling mechanisms. In this thesis, we tried to use the low-cost manganese dioxide (MnO$_2$) based materials as the catalytic part to construct MNMs. The MnO$_2$ based MNMs have already demonstrated many applications, but the performance of MnO$_2$ cannot compete with Pt for MNMs purposes, due to the intrinsic low catalytic performance for H$_2$O$_2$ decomposition. we explore the possibility of MnO$_2$ as an alternative for Pt for the fabrication of high-performance and low-cost MNMs. Different fabrication and modification methods have been utilized to construct four types of MnO$_2$ based MNMs. Especially interestingly, the most high-performance iron oxide doped MnO$_2$ based MNMs could lower the minimal fuel concentration to nearly one order of magnitude than the commonly used Pt-based MNMs. We believe that these MnO$_2$ based MNMs will show great potential applications for biomedical and environmental sciences.
Publications by the Author

Published and accepted papers:


Manuscripts submitted or in preparation:

1. **H. Ye**, H.Q. Sun, S.B. Wang. Surfactant independent propulsion of MnO$_2$ based micromotors. ([To be submitted](#))

Content

Declaration.............................................................................................. i

Acknowledgement .................................................................................. ii

Abstract...................................................................................................... iv

Publications by the Author ........................................................................ v

Content....................................................................................................... vi

Chapter 1. Introduction .............................................................................. 1

1.1 Background of micro/nanomotors (MNMs) for environmental applications ................................................................................................................................. 1

1.2 Research objectives ................................................................................ 4

1.3 Thesis organization ................................................................................ 5

References .................................................................................................... 7

Chapter 2. Literature Review ..................................................................... 11

2.1 Introduction ........................................................................................... 11

2.2 The underlying physics for MNMs propulsion ........................................ 17

2.2.1 The Reynolds number ....................................................................... 19

2.2.2 The effect of thermal fluctuation induced Brownian motion .. 19
2.3 The propelling and motion mechanisms of MNMs .................. 20

2.3.1 Self-electrophoresis propelled MNMs.............................. 21

2.3.2 Self-diffusiophoresis propelled MNMs ......................... 23

2.3.3 Bubble propulsion of MNMs ...................................... 24

2.3.4 Propulsion of MNMs by surface tension ....................... 25

2.3.5 Motion control of micro/nanomotors by external stimuli ...... 25

2.4 The fabrication of MNMs ............................................. 26

2.4.1 Materials selection for MNMs .................................... 26

2.4.2 Fabrication techniques for MNMs ............................... 28

2.5 MNMs responding to the environments ........................... 30

2.5.1 The pH-responsive applications of MNMs .................... 31

2.5.2 How surfactants affect the motion behaviors of MNMs ...... 32

2.5.3 How other environmental conditions influence the motion of
MNMs ........................................................................... 33

2.6 MNMs based environmental applications .......................... 33

2.6.1 Self-propelled MNMs for catalytic degradation of pollutants. 36

2.6.2 MNMs for adsorption removal of aquatic contaminants .... 37
Chapter 2. Micro- and Nanomotors

2.6.3 MNMs for separation of oil and water ........................................ 39

2.6.4 MNMs for the killing of bacterial .............................................. 41

2.6.5 MNMs based sensing, detection, monitoring, and analysis .... 43

2.6.5.1 Optical microscope based analytical applications of the MNMs .................................................................................. 44

2.6.5.2 Electrochemical based analytical applications of MNMs . 46

2.7 Conclusions and perspectives ....................................................... 48

References ............................................................................................. 49

Chapter 3. Electrochemical Synthesis of MnO₂ Based Micromotors in an Architecture of Bilayer Microtubes by an Anodic Oxidation Deposition Method .................................................................. 64

Abstract .................................................................................................. 64

3.1 Introduction ..................................................................................... 65

3.2 Experimental section ..................................................................... 67

3.2.1 Materials and reagents ............................................................. 67

3.2.2 Fabrication of graphene/MnO₂ bilayer microtubes ................. 67

3.2.3 Equipment and characterization .............................................. 68

3.2.4 Motion behavior observations ................................................. 70
3.3 Results and discussion ................................................................. 70

3.4 Conclusions ................................................................................. 84

References .......................................................................................... 85

Chapter 4. High-Speed Graphene/Ag-MnO₂ Micromotors at Low Peroxide Levels by Cathodically Electrochemical Deposition ........ 91

Abstract ............................................................................................ 91

4.1 Introduction ................................................................................... 92

4.2 Experimental section ...................................................................... 94

4.2.1 Materials and reagents ............................................................ 94

4.2.2 Fabrication of MnO₂ based micromotors .................................... 95

4.2.3 Characterization of the micromotors ......................................... 96

4.2.4 Motion behavior observation .................................................... 97

4.3 Results and discussion ................................................................... 98

4.4 Conclusions .................................................................................. 116

References ......................................................................................... 117

Chapter 5. High-Performance Pt-Free Microengines at Extremely Low Peroxide Levels................................................................. 124

Abstract ............................................................................................ 124
Chapter 6. Robust MnO$_2$ Based Microengines for Surfactant Independent Propulsion ......................................................... 146

Abstract ............................................................................. 146

6.1 Introduction ..................................................................... 147

6.2 Experimental section ..................................................... 149

6.2.1 Materials and reagents ............................................. 149

6.2.2 Fabrication of MnO$_2$ based micromotors ...................... 150

6.2.3 Motion behaviors observation ..................................... 151

References ........................................................................ 141
6.3 Results and discussions .................................................. 152

6.4 Conclusions ........................................................................ 161

References ........................................................................... 163

Chapter 7. How Surfactants Affect the Mobility of Silver-Containing Microengines ......................................................... 169

Abstract .................................................................................. 169

7.1 Introduction .......................................................................... 170

7.2 Experimental section .......................................................... 173

7.2.1 Materials and reagents ..................................................... 173

7.2.2 Fabrication of graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors .............. 174

7.2.3 Motion behavior observation ............................................. 175

7.3 Results and discussion ......................................................... 176

7.4 Conclusions .......................................................................... 184

References ........................................................................... 185

Chapter 8. Conclusions and Perspectives ............................... 191

8.1 Conclusions .......................................................................... 191

8.1.1 Graphene/MnO$_2$ micromotors by anodic electrosynthesis .... 191
8.1.2 MnO$_2$ based micromotors by cathodic electrofabrication ..... 192

8.1.3 High-performance graphene/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ micromotors ........ 192

8.1.4 The role of surfactants in MnO$_2$ based micromotors system. 193

8.2 Perspectives and suggestions for future work ......................... 193

8.2.1 Environmental applications of the developed micromotors .. 193

8.2.2 Development of new types of metal oxide based MNMs ..... 194

8.2.3 MNMs based analytical applications.......................... 194

Appendix................................................................. 196
Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Background of micro/nanomotors (MNMs) for environmental applications

In 1959, Richard Feynman in his famous speech “There’s plenty of room at the bottom” forecasted the use of micro/nano-scale tools and devices to perform tasks at nanoscale.¹ Several years later, in a science fiction based movie the *fantastic voyage*, a crew of miniaturized scientists and doctors in a mini-submarine solved the medical problem in a human brain. The development of nanosciences and nanotechnology are realizing the dream of manipulating small-scale entities, such as delivery of drugs for cancer treatment and sorting of cells, as various small-scale motion platforms are developed in the last half-century.² In 2016, the Nobel Prize in chemistry was awarded to Jean-Pierre Sauvage, Sir J. Fraser Stoddart and Bernard L. Feringa "for the design and synthesis of molecular machines".³ These molecular scaled tools and devices would open a new gate for the materials scientists, chemists and biologists to manipulate and assemble similar dimensional scale atoms and molecules. Thus, it is possible to construct the molecular factories, which would fundamentally change the nanoscience and nanofabrication.

Slightly larger than the molecular machines, synthetic micro/nanomotors (MNMs) are also motion reactors, whose fabrication is one of the most dynamic research areas in nanoscience since the first demonstration by Whitesides et al.⁴ in 2002. Whitesides et al. designed a sub-centimeter sized floating semi-cylindrical plate with a small porous platinum (Pt) plate as the engine, and ever since a great deal of man-made MNMs have been developed based on different fabrication techniques, construction materials, propelling mechanisms, and geometry shape.⁵ Due to the good
catalytic activity for hydrogen peroxide (H$_2$O$_2$) decomposition, Pt has always been the most widely used materials for the MNMs fabrication. Different geometry materials, such as bilayer microtubes, Janus particles, bi-segment nanorods, and nano bottles, have been tested based on the Pt as a catalyst. It seems that other catalysts are far less inefficient than Pt for the activation of motion at a micro/nano scale. Physical vapor deposition (PVD) and electrochemical deposition method have been widely used to fabricate MNMs with diverse applications. Apart from the deposition methods, Pt nanoparticles were also incorporated as the catalyst for MNMs by chemical reaction methods.

Although the Pt/H$_2$O$_2$ based MNMs are the most widely used propulsion systems, the Pt catalyst suffers from several severe drawbacks, such as high cost, scarcity, and deactivation, impeding its further applications. Hence, the research communities for MNMs are searching for alternative catalysts and propelling mechanisms to replace Pt as the next generation MNMs. Manganese oxide based catalysts are good catalytic materials for H$_2$O$_2$ decomposition and various catalytic MNMs are developed using MnO$_2$ as the catalyst. However, until now, pure MnO$_2$ based catalytic propellers are not able to surpass the speed of Pt-based catalytic MNMs, due to the intrinsic lower catalytic activity for H$_2$O$_2$ decomposition. The use of MnO$_2$ as the catalytic part for the MNMs provides the following advantages. Firstly, the MnO$_2$ based materials are far less expensive than the noble metal-based catalysts, which means that it is possible to reduce the cost of MNMs for various applications. Secondly, these MnO$_2$ based catalysts are more robust than the Pt-based catalyst, which means that the MnO$_2$ based catalytic MNMs could be used in various biological as well as natural waterbody media. Thirdly, various fabrication and modification techniques could be utilized to construct the
MnO$_2$ based MNMs, as already been demonstrated by the energy-related researchers for MnO$_2$ as the electrode materials for batteries and supercapacitors.$^{19}$ Fourthly, the MnO$_2$ based materials are good catalysts for various environmental based applications.$^{20, 21}$

Due to human activities over the last decades, environmental deterioration is developing at an alarming rate.$^{22}$ The problems relating to reservation and utilization of clean water resources affect millions of people as large amount of different types of contaminants, such as heavy metals, persistent organic pollutants, are discharged into the natural water body without proper post-treatment.$^{23}$ These environmental pollutants originated from the improper human activities are widely existed in the industrial, agricultural, and municipal wastewaters.$^{24}$ Various decontamination methods are developed to protect our precious clean and freshwater resources, such as membrane filtration,$^{25}$ coagulation,$^{26}$ adsorptions,$^{27}$ and catalytic degradation$^{21}$. Very recently, the development of MNMs has been tested as micro/nano cleaners to address diverse environmental issues, such as adsorption of heavy metals,$^{28}$ catalytic degradation of organics,$^{11}$ separation of oil and water,$^{29}$ and anti-bacterial applications.$^{30}$ What is more, the development of MNMs would provide an excellent motion based analytic tool and platform for the analysis, monitoring, detection, and sensing of the environmental contaminants.$^{31, 32}$ Hence, the combination of the development of MNMs with the handling of environmental issues will provide many possibilities for the environmental sustainability; this will benefit the human society. The advantages of micro/nano cleaners are the motion enhanced fast treatment and the higher efficiency compared with the static method.$^{33}$ The agitation brought by the motion of the MNMs enable the efficient mixing of the decontaminants and the pollutants without external stirring. The motion
of micro cleaner would then enable better contact and reach for adsorption removal and catalytic degradation of pollutants.\textsuperscript{34}

1.2 Research objectives

The main objective of this research is to develop MNMs based on the feasibilities of addressing environmental issues using cheap and reliable materials and simple methods. Considering the basic research facilities available, we focus on the fabrications of MNMs using electrochemical deposition methods. We choose the graphene oxide for potential applications as adsorbents. We choose MnO\textsubscript{2} based materials as the engine part and potentially use as the catalyst for the catalytic degradation of organic pollutants.

More specific research objectives are listed below:

a. Demonstrating the use of MnO\textsubscript{2} to replace Pt for the construction of a graphene/MnO\textsubscript{2} bilayer tubular micromotor.

b. Improving the motion performance of MnO\textsubscript{2} catalyzed micromotors by changing the synthetic methods.

c. Improving the performance of MnO\textsubscript{2} based micromotors by introducing a metal dopant, silver is chosen to improve the motion performance and potentially with improved catalytic degradation and anti-bacterial properties.

d. Improving the motion performance by doping the MnO\textsubscript{2} with iron oxide.

e. Evaluating the motion performance of these micromotors in different surfactant solutions.
f. Evaluating the catalytic degradation of organic dyes and adsorption of metals using the graphene/MnO\textsubscript{2} based materials.

1.3 Thesis organization

Chapter 1: Introduction.

This chapter introduced the current development of MNMs with an emphasis on the environmental-based applications. Some fundamental questions were also introduced in this chapter and will be answered in the following chapters. The research objectives and thesis organization are also presented.

Chapter 2: Literature review.

This chapter summarized the development of MNMs as environmental cleaners. The underlying physics, propelling mechanisms, construction materials, fabrication techniques and environmental based applications of MNMs are summarized. For the environmental applications of MNMs, we divided it into five parts including catalytic degradation of pollutants, MNMs as adsorbents for contaminants, separation of oil and water using MNMs, anti-bacterial applications of MNMs, and MNMs based detection, sensing, and analysis.

Chapter 3: Electrochemical fabrication of graphene/MnO\textsubscript{2} bilayer tubular micromotors. (Chem. Eng. J. 2017, 324, 251-258)

This chapter described the use of MnO\textsubscript{2} to replace Pt as catalytic MNMs and the motion behaviors are characterized. The MnO\textsubscript{2} was fabricated by anodic oxidation method.
Chapter 4: High-speed graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors at low peroxide levels by cathodic electrochemical deposition. (J. Colloid and Interface Sci. 2018, 528, 271-280)

In this chapter, fabrication of the graphene/MnO$_2$ bilayer tubular micromotors by the cathodic electrochemical method will be introduced. The fabrication of un-doped pure MnO$_2$ based micromotors with improved motion performance than previously developed MnO$_2$ based micromotors by anodic deposition. Synthesis of the graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ bilayer tubular micromotors by cathodic electrochemical co-deposition are discussed. Introducing the silver dopant to further enhance the motion performance of the MnO$_2$ based micromotors by cathodic deposition.

Chapter 5: Fabrication of the graphene/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ bilayer tubular micromotors using the cathodic electrochemical co-deposition and the related environmental applications. (Chem. Commun. 2018, 54, 4653-4656)

The introduction of iron oxide to the MnO$_2$ matrix by cathodic electrochemical co-deposition resulting in the high-performance MnO$_2$ based micromotors with extremely low fuel for propulsion.

Chapter 6: The surfactant independent propulsion of the cathodically fabricated MnO$_2$ based tubular microengines.

Evaluation of these MnO$_2$ based micromotors’ motion behaviors in different surfactant conditions and solving the problems of how surfactants affect the motion behaviors for the further applications of the MnO2 based micromotors.
Chapter 7: How the surfactants affect the mobility of silver containing micromotors.

Evaluation of these silver-containing micromotors’ motion behaviors in different surfactant conditions and solving the problems of how surfactants affect the motion behaviors for the further applications of the silver-containing micromotors.

Chapter 8: Conclusions and perspectives.

Highlights the meaningful findings in this study and proposes suggestions for further research in the field.

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Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The abilities to make and use tools and machines are the most fundamental and important attribute that separates the mankind from the rest of the living things on the Earth. Motors and machines are so much a part of everyday life that it is hard to imagine a world without them. The invention of peculiar motors, such as the steam engines and the internal combustion engines, played a major role in the generation of modern civilization, enabling the productivities and industrial capacities of human society to increase and expand greatly. It is fair to say that modern civilization eras are based on the motors we use. The development of the steam engines to the electric generators marked the human society’s transfer from the steam age to the era of electricity. It is envisioned that the high-performance thrust adjustable aerospace engines, developed by the space exploration company in California, would open a new era for the human society as a multi-planetary species. The age of human as a multi-planetary species is coming, due to the development of a thrust adjustable “Merlin” engine by Elon Musk’ team, which allows the construction of the reusable rockets and boosters for low-cost space travel. While the macro motors and engines have already played a key role in the civilization progress of human history, the micro/nanomotors (MNMs) have just attracted enormous research interests for the micro/nanoscience and technology communities and are showing great potential and profound and long-lasting influences on multidisciplinary basic science at present.

Man had long been dreaming of shrinking the machines down to micro/nano scale and perform tasks that would be unimaginable in the macro world. In 1959, Richard Feynman in his historical speech “There
is plenty of room at the bottom” forecasted the use of micro/nano scale tools and devices to perform tasks and address issues at nanoscale. In recent decades, the development of nanoscience and nanotechnology entered a new era of motion based micro/nano scale tools and devices. In 2016, the Nobel prize of chemistry was awarded to Jean-Pierre Sauvage, Sir J. Fraser Stoddart and Bernard L. Feringa for the design and synthesis of molecular machines. Slightly larger than the molecular machines are the artificial micro/nanomachines, which could show motion behaviors or perform works at the micro/nano scale.

The development of artificial micro/nanomotors was inspired by their natural counterparts, the protein motors in the live cells or organisms. These man-made small-scale tools and machines would fundamentally change the nanoscience and nanofabrication, suggesting that a gate full of opportunities and challenges is open for the chemistry, materials science, biology, medical science, robotics, and the related interdisciplinary basic science. The application of these small-scale tools and devices would generate a plethora of applied science and technology knowledge for the environmental monitoring and remediation, chemical analysis and sensing, nanoscale assembling and manipulating, biomedical imaging and drug delivery, bionic systems and nanosurgery. Hence, since the beginning of the new millennium, there are great interests in the design, fabrication, and application of the MNMs.

In the micro/nanoscale, many macro-scale rules do not apply due to the dimensional scale effect. A macro object can maintain its motion with the inertia, such as the move of the Earth. As the dimension of an object decreases, it is becoming harder to maintain motion. This means that to maintain motion at the micro/nanoscale, it is essential to apply a constant
force on the microparticles to overcome the viscous force for continuous motion. Based on the above-mentioned reasons, the design of MNMs should overcome the low inertial force and high vicious force. Thus, various propulsion strategies have been applied to design the MNMs. The motion of MNMs could be provoked by external stimuli as well as internally generated chemical gradients and fields. These external stimuli include light, acoustic, electric, and magnetic fields. The self-generated fields propelled MNMs usually have an asymmetry structure, for example, the asymmetry in particle composition, geometry shape, or surface chemistry. Generally, the design of self-propelled MNMs has to break the symmetry of the micro/nano-particles. In this design, one part of the micro/nanomotor serves as the engine and another part of the particle works as a functional material. Then, it is possible to fabricate the self-propelled MNMs with various demonstrated functionalities.

As the traditional chemical reaction method, such as hydrothermal reactions, cannot break the symmetry of the resulted particles, the new method should be applied to design the asymmetrical structures. The most widely used methods to break the symmetry are the physical vapor deposition (PVD) and the electrochemical deposition methods. More specifically, PVD methods include the e-beam evaporation, magnetron sputtering, and atom layer deposition methods. These physical vapor deposition methods have already been applied to break the symmetry of the micro/nano particles, while they require the high vacuum pumping systems. The electrochemical deposition method can avoid the use of high vacuum systems, while, it usually requires the use of the templates, such as the polycarbonate membranes and the anodic aluminum oxide (AAO) membranes to direct the growth of MNMs. These methods could fabricate MNMs, but they usually suffer from sophisticated synthetic
procedures and low yields. Besides the synthetic materials, the use of high-cost materials, such as gold and platinum, is another drawback for the further applications. Hence, the search for low-cost materials with good motion performance is highly desirable.\textsuperscript{33, 34} MnO\textsubscript{2} could be a good alternative for the precious Pt as the catalytic part due to its polycrystallinity and feasible fabrication and modification methods.\textsuperscript{35}

The propulsion of MNMs is highly dependent on the surrounding environment they swim; hence, it is essential to study how different environmental conditions affect the motion behaviors of these micro/nano scale swimmers.\textsuperscript{36-38} It has been demonstrated that the Pt catalyst suffers from deactivation in various biological media and natural water body.\textsuperscript{39, 40} The deactivation agents are widely existing in the environment, and will eventually affect the motion behaviors and functionalities of these micro/nano scale motors. Besides the deactivation of the catalyst, the aquatic environment these MNMs swim has a lot of other variable conditions, such as pH value, the dissolved salts, and temperature also have significant effects on the motion behaviors. For catalytic bubble propelled MNMs, the choice of surfactants also affects the motion of these micro/nano swimmers, as the surfactants are quite indispensable for the motion behaviors.\textsuperscript{37, 41} How different surfactants condition affect the motion behaviors of the MNMs needs to be addressed before the applications of the MNMs. The knowledge generated here could facilitate the further MNMs based analysis, sensing, and detection applications. The direct observation of changing motion behaviors would provide a new venue for the analytical chemists and will have many applications in the developments of sensors, detectors for food science and biochemistry related realms.\textsuperscript{42}
Figure 2.1. (A) Schematic illustration of a self-propelled sub-centimeter sized cylindrical plate. Reproduced with permission.© Copyright 2002, Wiley-VCH. (B) Schematic of a bi-segment nanorods nanomotor. Reproduced with permission.© Copyrights 2004, American Chemical Society. (C) Schematic illustration of the Janus particle micromotors. Reprinted with the permission of AIP Publishing.© (D) Schematic of a rolled-up microtube consisting of Pt/Au/Fe/Ti multilayers on a photoresist sacrificial layer: top) optical and SEM images of the rolled-up microtube; bottom) bubble radius as a function of the bubble frequency with increasing H_2O_2 concentration (from 3% to 15%). The inset shows an optical image of a rolled-up microtube integrated on the Si wafer. Reproduced with permission.© Copyright 2009, Wiley-VCH. (E) Illustration of an artificial bacterial flagella micromotors. Reproduced with permission.© Copyright 2009, American Chemical Society. (F) Schematic of the template-assisted fabrication of the PANI/Pt bilayer microtubes and SEM images of the released microtubes. Reproduced with permission.© Copyright 2011, American Chemical Society.

Figure 2.1 shows the typical examples of synthetic artificial motors systems. These pioneering works demonstrated the prototype of the micro/nano machines and pave the way for the further application of MNMs. MNMs have demonstrated tremendous proof-of-concept applications in the biomedical and environmental science fields. The
motion of MNMs would have a great impact on the wide technological applications relating to biomedicine, nanofabrication, catalyst, environment, and bioassay. Currently, the most widely studied application areas for MNMs are the biomedical and the environmental fields. In this thesis, we mainly focus on the use of MNMs for environmental based applications. So, we will summarize the results of the environmental-based applications using MNMs. Generally, the environmental-based applications could be divided into five categories, adsorption, catalytic degradation, oil-water separation, the killing of the pathogenic bacteria, and the motion based analysis, monitoring, sensing, and detections. Using the MNMs as an innovative tool to handle environmental issues offers the following advantages: The motion-based catalytic degradation and adsorption are much faster and more efficient than the static methods. This is especially favorable for field applications, where the external agitation is not possible or unwanted. The functional MNMs based water treatment processes offer a direct and explicit optical observation for the potential environmental applications in detection, analysis, sensing and monitoring of pollutants. These tiny environmental cleaners are also potent analyzing tools for the handling of environmental issues.

Although researchers have already demonstrated a lot of environmental based applications and many proof-of-concept biomedical applications, the development of MNMs is still at its infancy. The limit for the applications of MNMs is only the human imaginations as various progress related to speed and motion could be regulated by MNMs. While showing such fascinating advantages as the micro/nano scale tools, there are still a lot of challenges facing the MNMs research community. The use of high-cost materials, the sophisticated synthetic equipment and procedures, and the low output of the MNMs are the most challenging hurdles for their
widespread applications. The use of untreated raw materials also demonstrates motion behaviors and has already been used in many environmental applications, but the motion performance is quite low due to the lower degree of asymmetry. For specific applications, special MNMs could be developed. While there are still very limited in vivo applications demonstrated, the use of MNMs in biological tissues is still quite impossible, as the most of these self-propelled MNMs require the highly toxic fuels and the surfactants. Therefore, it is very favorable to design MNMs based on the biocompatible fuels and biological enzyme-catalyzed reactions. These MNMs would be more favorable for the biological based applications, while the chemically powered catalytic MNMs are more favorable for the environmental-based applications.

2.2 The underlying physics for MNMs propulsion

We live in the macroscopic world, so the motion behaviors of the micro/nano objects are quite different from the experience we get in the real macroscopic world. It is very essential to study the underlying physical rules of how these MNMs swim in the fluid. At small scale, the inertial force no longer plays a crucial part in motion, as the inertial declines much faster with the decrease in body length. When the dimension of MNMs decreases to smaller than 1 µm, another factor takes into effect, i.e. Brownian motion. The collision with fluid molecules becomes increasingly significant as the sizes of particles decreases, which makes the active directional movement quite difficult. Based on the fundamental physical rules for motion at small scale, various motion mechanisms were proposed to guide the design and fabrication of MNMs. The self-propelled MNMs could be activated by bubble propulsion and the self-generated fields or chemical gradients.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developer</th>
<th>Shape &amp; Size</th>
<th>Catalyst or reactive material</th>
<th>Fuel</th>
<th>Propelling mechanisms</th>
<th>Comment</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Whitesides et al.(^9)</td>
<td>half cylindrical plate</td>
<td>Pt</td>
<td>H(_2)O(_2)</td>
<td>Bubble Propulsion</td>
<td>Generally recognized as the first synthetic motors</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Less than 1 cm.</td>
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<td>Mallouk et al.(^43, 47)</td>
<td>Pt-Au nanorod</td>
<td>Pt</td>
<td>H(_2)O(_2)</td>
<td>Self-electrophoresis</td>
<td>Demonstration of nanomotors</td>
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<td>Gibbs et al.(^44)</td>
<td>SiO(_2)-Pt Janus particle nanomotors</td>
<td>Pt</td>
<td>H(_2)O(_2)</td>
<td>Bubble Propulsion</td>
<td>Janus nanomotors</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mei et al.(^45)</td>
<td>Rolled-up microtubes 100 µm</td>
<td>Pt</td>
<td>H(_2)O(_2)</td>
<td>Bubble Propulsion</td>
<td>First tubular micromotors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wang et al.(^52)</td>
<td>PANI/Pt bilayer microtubes</td>
<td>Pt</td>
<td>H(_2)O(_2)</td>
<td>Bubble Propulsion</td>
<td>Electrochemically synthesized microtubes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pumera et al.(^48)</td>
<td>mm scale polymer capsule</td>
<td>solvent</td>
<td>H(_2)O</td>
<td>Surface tension</td>
<td>Fuel loaded motors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pumera et al.(^49)</td>
<td>Iridium (Ir) doped graphene micromotors</td>
<td>Ir</td>
<td>H(_2)O(_2)</td>
<td>Bubble Propulsion</td>
<td>Irregular shape bubble propulsion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wang et al.(^50)</td>
<td>Ir-SiO(_2) Janus particle micromotors</td>
<td>Ir</td>
<td>N(_2)H(_4)</td>
<td>Self-diffusiophoresis or osmotic effect</td>
<td>Extremely low N(_2)H(_4) fuel levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilson et al.(^51)</td>
<td>Pt-loaded stomatocytes nanomotors</td>
<td>Pt</td>
<td>H(_2)O(_2)</td>
<td>Bubble Propulsion</td>
<td>Bowl-shaped polymer by chemical reaction synthesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gao et al.(^52)</td>
<td>Ti/Al-Ga</td>
<td>Al</td>
<td>H(_2)O</td>
<td>Bubble propulsion</td>
<td>Water powered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pumera et al.(^53)</td>
<td>Micromotors by raw materials</td>
<td>Ag or MnO(_2)</td>
<td>H(_2)O(_2)</td>
<td>Bubble Propulsion</td>
<td>Demonstration of raw materials for MNMs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ye et al.(^33)</td>
<td>Graphene/FeO(_x)-MnO(_2) microtubes</td>
<td>Iron oxide modified MnO(_2)</td>
<td>H(_2)O(_2)</td>
<td>Bubble Propulsion</td>
<td>Outperform the best Pt-based microengiens by MnO(_2) based materials</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.2.1 The Reynolds number

At the macroscale, objects can maintain their motions with inertial, such as the movement of the celestial body. However, as the particle size decreases, inertial, which scales with volume, becomes negligible compared to vicious forces that scale with $L$, where $L$ is the characteristic length of the object. The Reynolds number ($Re$) is a dimensionless number that represents the ratio of these two forces:

$$Re = \frac{\text{Inertial}}{\text{Viscous force}} = \frac{\rho v^2}{\mu v/L} = \frac{\rho v L}{\mu} \quad \text{Eq. (2.1)}$$

where $\rho$ is the density, $v$ is the particle velocity and $\mu$ is the dynamic viscosity of the medium. A person in the swimming pool has a Reynolds number of roughly $10^4$, whereas the bacterial in the swimming pool has a Reynolds number of $10^{-4}$. Most of the MNMs will have a Reynolds number close to the value of the bacteria. At low Reynolds number, the inertial force does not contribute a lot to the motion, which means that the motion could only be maintained by a constant force.

2.2.2 The effect of thermal fluctuation induced Brownian motion

The moving of nanoscale particles is strongly influenced by the thermal fluctuation, leading to the well-known Brownian motion. As their sizes decrease, the collisions of fluid molecules with the MNMs become increasingly significant. Brownian motion induced by these small molecules strongly affect the directionality of these MNMs. Resulting in the random motion patterns for the MNMs. Thus, long distance, translational migration is quite difficult because the average distance with this random motion is proportional to the square root of time. The same regime applies as the passive diffusion process. A stationary asymmetry
induced by chemically anisotropic motors generates a constant driving force, while a transient force only generates random fluctuation. The fabrication of directional moving MNMs is desired for many applications, such as the active cargo transportation and drug delivery, where the MNMs could show fast directional motion and the distances are proportional to the time. Hence, it is preferable for the design of MNMs to break the symmetry to overcome the random Brownian fluctuation for enhanced directional active motion.

2.3 The propelling and motion mechanisms of MNMs

While external fields and the chemical or thermal gradients could be applied to manipulate and regulate the motion behaviors of MNMs, the propulsion of self-propelled MNMs is mainly dependent on the self-generated fields, chemical or thermal gradient, and the expelled microbubbles. The external electric, magnetic, or acoustic field could be applied to generate an asymmetrical charge distribution, torque, or imbalance of forces upon the MNMs’ conducting surface, magnetic metal part, or the long axis, which is an effective method to regulate the speed and the directionality of MNMs. The fuel-free external field driven MNMs usually require the complex, high-cost, external energy source facilities, such as the light source for light propulsion, and the magnetic coils for the generating of magnetic fields for speed and direction control. The fuel driven, self-propelled MNMs offer the advantage of ease of applications and lots of choices and reactions available for propulsion. These reactions include the bio-enzyme based catalytic reactions, the reactions of water or acid with reactive metals, and the catalytic decomposition of H_2O_2, but not limited to these reactions.
2.3.1 Self-electrophoresis propelled MNMs

Electrophoresis is the motion of a dispersed particle in a fluid under the influence of an applied spatially uniform electric field. At low Reynold numbers, the resistance for a moving particle is only the fluid viscous force. Hence, in the case of low Reynold number and moderate electric field $E$, the drifting velocity of a charged particle $v$ is simply proportional to the applied field, which leaves the electrophoretic mobility $\mu_e$ defined as:

$$\mu_e = \frac{v}{E} \quad \text{Eq. (2.2)}$$

The above equation is the basic physics rule guiding the design and application of the electric field driven MNMs. The more well-known theory about electrophoresis is developed by Smoluchowski in 1903:

$$\mu_e = \frac{\varepsilon_r\varepsilon_0\xi}{\eta} \quad \text{Eq. (2.3)}$$

where the $\varepsilon_r$ is the dielectric constant of the dispersion media, $\varepsilon_0$ is the permittivity of free space, $\eta$ is the dynamic viscosity of the dispersion fluid and $\xi$ is the zeta potential of the particle surface, which relate to the surface charge. Based on the above theory, it is possible to design a micro/nano system exploiting the asymmetry electrochemical reactions to generate an asymmetrically distributed electric field around the particles and to drive the motion of the particles. This is the theory for self-electrophoresis, where charged particles move in a self-generated electric field due to the asymmetry electrochemical reactions around the particles. The first self-electrophoresis nanomotors were developed by Thomas E. Mallouk’s group at Pennsylvania State University, where gold-platinum bi-segment nanorods were observed to demonstrate directional motion behaviors towards the Pt end with a speed of around 10 µm/s. These bi-segment
nanorods were fabricated by the template-assisted multi-step electrochemical deposition method using the anodized alumina (AAO) membrane as the template. Upon the first demonstration, various multi-segment nanorods nanomotors with different composition and electrochemical reactions were developed such as the Au/Ni, Cu/Pt, Pt/Ag-Au alloy nanomotors, and Au/Pt-CNT nanorods. The slightly larger speed of the nanomotors could be obtained by designing a larger mixed potential difference between the two electrodes. These self-electrophoreses show various applications, such as pumping, rotation, sense, and cargo transportation, but they suffer from the following drawbacks. These self-propelled nano swimmers usually rely on toxic fuels, such as H$_2$O$_2$ and hydrazine for propulsion. Br$_2$ and I$_2$ were also demonstrated as the fuels for nanomotors, but they are also not biocompatible. Another drawback for these nanomotors is the limitation from the high ionic strength, which means that its motion in biological media is nearly impossible. Moreover, these nano swimmers have an extremely low power output, indicating that their further applications as nanocarriers are quite impossible.

Figure 2.2 demonstrated the four types of propelling mechanisms of the self-propelled MNMs. Bubble propulsion, self-diffusiophoresis, self-electrophoresis, and propulsion by surface tension are the most commonly used methods to design the self-propelled MNMs. MNMs could also be propelled by external stimuli such as electric, magnetic, and acoustical field and light. These methods are more capable as a method for the motion control of MNMs.

2.3.2 Self-diffusiophoresis propelled MNMs

Diffusiophoresis is a physical chemistry phenomenon in which the motion of particles is driven by a concentration gradient of solutes. According to the charging properties of the solute molecules, the diffusiophoresis can be classified into two categories, the electrolyte and nonelectrolyte diffusiophoresis. The self-diffusiophoresis can be termed and classified as the non-ionic self-diffusiophoresis and the ionic self-diffusiophoresis. Self-diffusiophoresis means that the propulsion mechanism is due to the solute concentration gradient generated by the motor’s surface chemical reactions. Usually, the asymmetrically distributed catalytic or reactive materials on the motors will trigger the formation of the asymmetrically
distributed solutes, and thus the formation of the small molecule chemical gradient for the propulsion. It is generally acknowledged that the asymmetry in particle shape and geometry will also result in the formation of the unbalanced local chemical gradient, which will apply a constant force on the particles. The self-diffusiophoresis propulsion can lead to the motion of a particle moving at 1-10 µm/s. Under certain external stimuli, the self-diffusiophoresis shows reversible collective behaviors, which may provoke other novel applications such as the mimic of biological systems. Usually, the ionic self-diffusiophoresis can lead to slightly higher speed than the non-ionic self-diffusiophoresis, while the non-ionic self-diffusiophoresis is more tolerant to the higher ionic strength.

2.3.3 Bubble propulsion of MNMs

By far, bubble propulsion is the most powerful and effective motion strategy for the self-propelled catalytic MNMs. Both Janus particles and the tubular microengines demonstrate fast and efficient propulsion with the catalytic generated bubbles. Both catalytic and the reactive chemical reactions have been employed to design the bubble propelled MNMs. The most commonly used propulsion catalytic reactions are the decomposition of H₂O₂ with the Pt as the catalyst. The propulsion of MNMs using the reactive metals with water and acid to generate the hydrogen bubbles is also a very promising strategy, while it usually demonstrates a very short lifetime. The gaseous products undergo nucleation, bubble formation, and growth, and subsequently detachment expelling the fluid away from the MNMs will generate the transient force needed to overcome the vicious for propulsion. The continuous generation and flow of microbubbles will apply a constant force for the self-propulsion. The bubble propulsion strategy has been the most widely used propulsion mechanism for the MNMs with various demonstrated
applications, such as water purification, killing of bacterial and drug delivery.\textsuperscript{69}

2.3.4 Propulsion of MNMs by surface tension

The generation of an unbalanced surface tension at the different sides of MNMs will result in a constant net force for the self-propulsion of MNMs. This is the mechanism of the surface tension propulsion. The Sen's group first demonstrated the propulsion of surface tension gradient by the depolymerization of a polymer.\textsuperscript{70} This motion strategy demonstrates very robust motion behaviors in various media and the high ionic strength solutions. Pumera’s group demonstrated the use of self-exfoliation of the naphthalene distributed MoS\textsubscript{2} particles as motors.\textsuperscript{71} The propulsion is based on the generation of the imbalanced surface tension with the self-exfoliation process. Wang et al designed a self-propelled motor by the simultaneous release of sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) surfactant for propulsion.\textsuperscript{72} The propulsion is based on the surfactant-induced imbalance of the surface tension distribution.

2.3.5 Motion control of micro/nanomotors by external stimuli

The use of external stimuli to control the motion of MNMs has been demonstrated with various fascinating motion maneuvers. The external stimuli such as light, electric, acoustic, magnetic field have been widely applied to control the speed and directionality of motion. As this thesis focuses on the fabrication of self-propelled MNMs, the in-depth review of the motion control by external stimuli is not provided. Briefly speaking, ferromagnetic materials such as iron, cobalt, and nickel could be incorporated into the MNMs as the magnetic layer, thus allows for the magnetic control. These microengines will align according to the direction of the magnetic field. Both UV light and visible light have been applied to
activate the motion of MNMs. Upon the light irradiation, the asymmetry photo induced electrochemical reactions occur at the different sides of the micro/nanomotors, which will result in the asymmetry distribution of the photo-induced reaction products, thus the diffusiophoresis will occur and a propelling force is generated for motion. Near-infrared light (NIR) could also be a promising strategy for biomedical relation MNMs applications due to the generation of a thermal gradient upon irradiation. MNMs could also be propelled by the acoustic field, especially the ultrasound, which is a high-frequency sound wave above the threshold value of normal human hearing. Nanorods with concave or convex ends could be used to concentrate or dissipate the acoustic wave energy, therefore the formed asymmetric structure of the nanorods led to uneven distribution of acoustic pressure, which serves as the propelling force of the nanorods.

2.4 The fabrication of MNMs

Due to the high viscous resistance compared with the inertial force at the micro/nano scale movement and the thermal fluctuation induced by Brownian motion for the impedance of the directionality of these micro/nano scale swimmers, it is necessary to break the symmetry for the construction of the self-propelled MNMs. The breaking of symmetry is the need for the generation of the net propelling force for continuous motion. From materials selection to the fabrication techniques, we can use various methods to generate the asymmetrical chemical reactions at different sides of the MNMs for the directional motion.

2.4.1 Materials selection for MNMs

Different types of materials have been used to fabricate the self-propelled MNMs based on different geometry design and propelling mechanisms.
There is always new kind of materials as promising MNMs with good functionalities. Generally, commonly used materials for the engine parts of the self-propelled MNMs could be divided into the following categories: the pure metals, the metal oxides, and the enzymes.

By now, the most widely used catalyst for self-propelled catalytic MNMs is Pt, because of the high catalytic activities for the H₂O₂ deposition. Pt-based MNMs could be fabricated with different geometries, such as Janus particles, and tubular microengines, have been demonstrated with various applications. Other metals could be also used for the MNMs purposes, such as the iridium (Ir) and gold have been as the engine parts. Ir could be used as the catalyst for the decomposition of hydrazine (N₂H₄) for the design of the bubble propelled or the diffusiophoresis based MNMs. Gold is also a widely used material for the self-electrophoresis propelled and the thermophoresis propelled MNMs. These precious rare metals based MNMs suffer from the high-cost, scarcity, and possibility of deactivation in various media impeded their further applications. Silver is also a good catalyst for H₂O₂ decomposition and various silver-based MNMs have been designed and tested for the anti-bacterial based applications. Silver-containing compounds, such as the silver chloride, have been demonstrated with self-diffusiophoresis motion under light irradiation. Nano zero valence iron particles have been demonstrated to show motion behaviors in acid conditions with good environmental based applications. Zinc and magnesium have been used to design water powered MNMs. Aluminum has been used to design the MNMs in alkaline environmental conditions.

Metal oxides, such as the manganese dioxide, are also good catalytic materials for H₂O₂ decomposition, emerging as the low-cost alternative
for the precious metal based MNMs. While various applications have been demonstrated, the MnO2 based MNMs cannot compete with the precious metal Pt-based MNMs, due to the intrinsic low catalytic activities. Various other metal oxide materials, such as the titanium dioxide have been used to design the light steered MNMs. A mixed metal oxide such as the MnFe2O4 has been employed to design the magnetic steered MNMs with good environmental applications.

The enzyme catalyzed MNMs have been designed and tested with moderate motion performances. Various bio-catalytic reactions could be utilized to design the enzyme-based MNMs. Enzyme-based MNMs are very favorable for the biomedical reactions because of the mild environmental conditions and the avoidance of the highly toxic fuels. While enzyme based MNMs are very favorable for the biomedical related applications, they are not as suitable as the manganese oxide-based MNMs for the environmental-based applications, as the enzymes will suffer from the deactivation in harsh environmental conditions, such as high salt and high temperatures.

### 2.4.2 Fabrication techniques for MNMs

The fabrication techniques are chosen to serve the purpose of generating the net propulsion force needed. Generally, due to the need of breaking the symmetry in the structural design, multi-step fabrication processes are needed. Traditional chemical reactions, such as hydrothermal reactions, cannot break the symmetry of the resulted particles, hence, novel fabrication strategies should be adopted for the efficient propulsion. For self-propelled MNMs, the incorporation of the catalytic or reactive materials should be asymmetrically distributed. In this regard, physical vapor deposition, and electrochemical deposition methods are widely used
in the fabrications of MNMs with different geometry, such as the Janus particles, multi-segment micro/nano rods, and multi-layer tubular microengines.

PVD method vaporizes the condensed materials and then deposition as a form of thin films. The most widely used thin film deposition methods are sputtering and evaporations. Sputtering relies on the bombardment of a target source material with an ionized inert gas such as argon (Ar). The kinetic energy is transferred from the ionized gas atoms to the target materials which then undergo vaporization and deposition as a thin layer of film. Evaporation is also a widely used deposition, which can use the energy of electricity or an electron beam to vaporize target materials. Various catalytic materials, such as Pt and Ir could be deposited as a thin layer of catalyst to generate the propulsion force needed. Non-reactive materials such as titanium (Ti) could also be deposited to block the reaction on one side of the Janus particles for the breaking of the symmetry.\textsuperscript{52} The deposition of a layer of magnetic materials such as iron could provide the MNMs with magnetic properties for magnetic guidance and recovery, which is very crucial for the design of the intelligent micro/nano scale robotic systems.

Electrochemical deposition method is also widely used to deposit various MNMs, such as the tubular microengines and the bi-segment nanorods. Pt could also be electrochemically deposited as the engine part for MNMs using the commercially available Pt plating solutions. Template-assisted electrochemical deposition method could be adopted to control the outside dimension of the MNMs. The commonly used template could be the track etched polycarbonate (PC) membrane and the AAO membrane. The PC membranes with pore diameters of several micrometers are very suitable
for the fabrication of multi-layer tubular microengines. By now, the most highly efficient and powerful micro/nano scale motion strategy is based on this design. The use of porous AAO membrane with a diameter ranging from 20 to 400 nm is very suitable for the fabrication of rod shape nanomotors.

MNMs could also be fabricated by the traditional chemical reaction methods. Such as the layer by layer assembly of functional materials, chemical synthesis of the manganese oxide microparticles and the encapsulation of micro/nano particles. The assembly of micro/nano particles is very useful for nanofabrication, thus it is very likely to be used for MNMs fabrication.

2.5 MNMs responding to the environments

MNMs could also be used as the motion-based analysis platform for the sensing, detection, and monitoring of environmental situations. Self-propelled MNMs rely on the environmental factors to propel, and the locally available fuels are indispensable for the self-propelling motion behaviors. Higher speed could be obtained by the bubble propulsion strategy with the assistance of a tiny amount of surfactants. Environmental conditions, such as light, temperature, pH values, and other solutes will affect the motion behaviors of MNMs. Hence, the direct observation of the motion behaviors of MNMs could provide a route to sense the environmental solutes. The study on the MNMs responding to the environment could generate a plethora of applied knowledge for the water quality testing, food analysis, chemical sensing, and electrochemical analysis. It is very important to study how these micro/nano scale swimmers respond to the environments, as the environmental conditions are very complicated. There are heavy metals, and various persistent
organic pollutants, such as dyes, phenolic compounds, pesticides, pathogenic organisms in the industrial and agricultural wastewater, due to the improper human activities. Thus, it is essential to study how these environmental conditions influence the motion behaviors of MNMs. Biological media also contains very complicated biological entities, such as electrolytes, blood cells, and various proteins and carbohydrates. Further biomedical applications of MNMs demand the understanding of how these biological objects affect the micro/nano scale propulsion.

2.5.1 The pH-responsive applications of MNMs

In industrial wastewater and biological media, the pH values are varying to a very large range. Studying how these environmental conditions influence the motion behaviors of MNMs will pave the way for the future applications in biomedicine and environmental cleaning. Some of the MNMs show motion behaviors in the strong acid environment, while others could be activated in the strong basic environment. So, it is very essential to investigate the motion behaviors of MNMs in acid or base conditions. Based on the reactive metals, such as Mg, Zn, and iron with water or acid for generating of hydrogen bubbles for propulsion, a lot of MNMs have been designed and tested. These MNMs based on the reactive reactions other than catalytic reactions usually have a very short lifetime. Chattopadhyay et al. demonstrated a pH taxis behavior of an intelligent microbot. The smart micro swimmer could move at a speed of 20 body length per second towards a targeted location based on the pH taxis mechanism. Pumera’s group studied the influence of pH on the motion behaviors of catalytic Janus particles and tubular microjets. They found that higher pH values above neutral condition lead to faster decomposition of H$_2$O$_2$, resulting in a greater activity and higher velocity. Structural changes would inevitably occur as the acidity environment and would then
result in the corrosion of the metal-based MNMs. Hence, the motion behaviors would change and reflect the environmental acidity. Dong et al.\textsuperscript{87} designed a cartridge-case-like micromotor using Pt nanoparticles as the inside catalyst and the gelatin materials as the shell. Due to the pH-dependent “open” and “close” feature of the pH-responsive gelatin material. The micromotor can be utilized as a motion based pH sensor over the whole pH range. Li and Wang et al. designed an acid-driven micromotor for pH-responsive payload release in a mouse’s stomach.\textsuperscript{88}

2.5.2 How surfactants affect the motion behaviors of MNMs

Surfactants are quite indispensable for bubble propelled MNMs system. Surfactants would lower the surface tension of the fluid and facilitate the bubble propulsion process.\textsuperscript{41} The formation of bubbles is quite dependent on the surfactant conditions. Without a surfactant, it is very difficult to form stable microbubbles. So, there are always a minimal surfactant range requirement for the catalytic bubble propelled MNMs. Under very high surfactant levels, the bubble propelled MNMs system would decrease the speed due to the high vicious force. What’s more, under certain surfactant conditions, Pt-based MNMs would lose the mobility.\textsuperscript{37} Pumera’s group studied the effect of different types of surfactants on the motion behaviors of a Pt-based tubular micromotor.\textsuperscript{37} They found that Pt-based micromotors are more active and faster in anodic surfactant SDS than non-ionic surfactant tween 20. What’s more, these microjets lost the mobility totally in a cationic surfactant cetrimonium bromide. Surfactants can also be used as the fuel for propulsion based on the imbalanced distribution of surface tension at different sides of the motors.\textsuperscript{89}
2.5.3 How other environmental conditions influence the motion of MNMs

The self-propelled MNMs rely on the catalytic or reactive chemical reactions for propulsion. If the catalysts are deactivated by certain chemicals, the MNMs would lose their mobility. Under some special conditions, the environmental solutes would promote the underlying reaction mechanisms for propulsion, and the MNMs show drastically a speed increase. The environmental conditions matter for the self-propelled MNMs. Pumera’s group found that the Pt-based tubular micromotors were poisoned by the sulfur-containing molecules and some blood proteins. They also demonstrated that blood electrolytes strongly influence the mobility of microjets. Usually, these electrolytes will have an adverse effect on the propulsion of the Pt-based microengines, especially at slightly higher concentrations. Wang et al. studied the effect of the real-life environments on the motion of the polymer/Pt tubular microengines. It was found that the polymer/Pt tubular micromotors are very robust in various real waters, such as sea water, river water, lake water, tap water, apple juice, and human serum, etc. Although the speed decreased as the volume of the real-life environment increased to 90%, in such a high content of real-life fluid condition, the propulsion is still very prominent. This finding is very important for the real practical application of the Pt-based MNMs for biomedicine and environmental remediation, as a lot of other studies showed that the speed dramatically decreases in certain environmental conditions.

2.6 MNMs based environmental applications

Self-propelled MNMs show diverse environmental applications, such as catalytic degradation of organic pollutant, adsorption of metals, the killing
of bacteria, oil-water separation. By converting the locally available chemical energy into mechanical movement, self-propelled MNMs would provide the environmental experts with more degrees of freedom in pollutant disposal onsite and offsite. The mechanical agitation brought by the self-propelled synthetic motor systems enables efficient mixing of the solution. The ejection and rising of microbubbles can serve as an additional mixing agent. As most of the catalytic degradation and adsorption removal processes are diffusion limited, the additional mechanical agitation would accelerate the catalytic and adsorption reaction for a better degradation and removal progress. MNMs are an excellent platform for chemical processes. But, the development of MNMs cannot be limited to these areas, as other types of applications could also be demonstrated. For example, the micromotors developed at Wang’s group have been applied for the biomimetic carbon dioxide sequestration.\textsuperscript{92} The developed mobile CO\textsubscript{2} scrubbing platform leads to the dramatic increase in the CO\textsubscript{2} sequestration efficiency while greatly decreasing the reaction time because of the self-mixing and convection brought by the self-motile behaviors. The same group also demonstrated the use of self-propelled nanomotors to seek and repair cracks autonomously.\textsuperscript{93} Besides these novel applications, MNMs can be integrated with the lab-on-chip devices for various purposes.\textsuperscript{94}
Figure 2.3. (A) Micromotors for transportation of oil drops. Adapted with permission. Copyright 2012, American Chemical Society. (B) Micromotors based detoxification of chemical threats. Adapted with permission. Copyright 2013, Wiley-VCH. (C) Catalytic degradation of organic pollutants by micromotors. Adapted under the terms of the ACS AuthorChoice License. Copyright 2013, American Chemical Society. (D) Micromotors for degradation and detection of organics. Reproduced with permission. Copyright 2016, American Chemical Society. (E) Nanomotor for selective detection of silver ions. Reproduced with permission. Copyright 2009, American Chemical Society. (F) Graphene-based micromotors for lead decontamination and collection. Adapted under the term of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC-BY) License. Copyright 2016, the authors, published by American Chemical Society. (G) Photo-degradation of chemical and biological warfare agent. Reproduced with permission. Copyright 2014, American Chemical Society.
2.6.1 Self-propelled MNMs for catalytic degradation of pollutants

MNMs self-propelled by the locally available fuel are a very promising strategy for catalytic degradation of organic pollutant. Here, the most widely used H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} fuel for propulsion could also serve as the oxidizing agent for generating reactive hydroxyl species to degrade the pollutants. Wang et al. demonstrated the use of polymer/Pt tubular micromotor for fast and efficient degradation of organophosphate (OP) nerve agent at low peroxide levels without external stirring.\textsuperscript{96} Based on the Fenton reaction using the iron as the catalyst and the Pt metal for catalytic generating of oxygen bubbles for propulsion, reusable rolled-up Fe/Pt microtubes were developed by Schmidt’s group for catalytic degradation organic contaminants.\textsuperscript{97, 101} The same group also demonstrated the use of a self-propelled Ti/Fe/Cr/Pd rolled-up microjet for the catalytic conversion of a 4-nitrophenol pollutant under the presence of sodium borohydride (NaBH\textsubscript{4}) as a reductant. The improved intermixing of the micromotors made the degradation rate 10 times higher to its nonmotile counterpart.\textsuperscript{102} The use of water-powered photocatalytic degradation is very promising for a wide range of environmental and defense applications. Wang et al.\textsuperscript{100} designed the water driven propulsion of TiO\textsubscript{2}/Au/Mg micromotors for the photocatalytic degradation of the chemical and biological warfare agents. Mushtaq et al. designed the highly efficient reusable coaxial TiO\textsubscript{2}-PtPd tubular nanomachines for photocatalytic decontamination of organic dyes with a diverse propulsion strategy.\textsuperscript{103} Inorganic microparticles such as the MnO\textsubscript{2} have been applied for the MNM propulsion as well as the catalyst for catalytic degradation of aquatic contaminants.\textsuperscript{104, 105} Iron containing oxides such as the MnFe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{4} and the zero valence iron-based materials have been incorporated as the MNMs for the catalytic degradation of organic pollutants, with an added advantage of the magnetic recovery.\textsuperscript{80}
Parmar et al. designed the cobalt ferrite based micromotors for catalytic oxidation degradation of the tetracycline antibiotic. Wang et al. designed the multifunctional silver-exchanged zeolite micromotors for catalytic detoxification of chemical and biological environmental threats. Mushtaq et al. designed a magnetically driven hybrid for wide spectrum photocatalytic degradation of dyes. The as-prepared structure contains a ferromagnetic CoNi segment and a bismuth-based photocatalytic segment and is of good catalytic performance and reusability. Zhang et al. designed the light-driven Au-WO$_3$@C Janus particle micromotors for rapid photodegradation of dye pollutants. Li et al. designed a bubble propelled Janus particles micromotor, using Fe$_3$O$_4$ nanoparticles loaded onto mesoporous SiO$_2$ as the matrix and the silver nanoparticles as the catalyst for propulsion. The micromotors demonstrated a good motion performance and water remediation capability. Tang et al. designed a 3D Prussian blue-reduced graphene oxide hydrogel as the self-propelling motors for the catalytic degradation of aquatic dyes.

2.6.2 MNMs for adsorption removal of aquatic contaminants

The wastewater usually contains cationic and anionic ions, organics and oil, which have a poisonous and toxic effect on the ecosystem. Adsorption is a widely-used, effective, low-cost, and simple method for the decontamination of aquatic pollutants. Traditional adsorption purification relies on the diffusion process and physiochemical property of the adsorbent, which is usually a time-consuming process. Recently, the development of nanoscience and nanotechnology-enabled researchers to design the motion-based micro/nano cleaners for accelerated adsorption decontamination of wastewater. The newly developed motion based purification techniques utilize the self-propelling
behaviors of the adsorbents and would break the limitation of the natural diffusion process for an accelerated adsorption decontamination. Solution mixing is critical for improving the efficiency and speed of many physical-chemical processes, including the adsorption. By self-mixing, the MNMs can remove the pollutants more efficiently with less operation time. Due to the above-mentioned advantages of MNMs for adsorption water purification, different types of pollutants, such as heavy metals, nerve agent, biochemistry toxin, and dyes have been decontaminated with good adsorption performances.

Heavy metals, such as lead, mercury, cadmium, are a potential hazard to the wildlife and human. Vilela et al. designed the graphene oxide based microbots as the active self-propelled micromotors for the capture, transfer, and removal of a heavy metal of lead, and the subsequent recovery for reuse. The effective adsorption of lead on the graphene surface of the graphene oxide that covered micromotors is based on the strong interactions produced between the oxygen functional groups on graphene oxide and the Pb$^{2+}$ ions. Uygun et al. designed the water-powered ligand-modified micromotors that offer efficient “on-the-fly” chelation of metal ions contaminants. The micromotors are prepared by functionalizing the Janus Mg/Au microsphere with a self-assembled monolayer of meso-2,3-dimercaptosuccinic acid (DMSA). The resulted micromotors demonstrated autonomous motion in complex environmental and biological matrices. Such self-propelling micromotors offer significantly shorter operation time and more efficient water remediation process, compared to the commonly used static remediation agents. Pumera et al. designed a tubular micromotor with DNA immobilized on the gold outer surface for dynamic adsorption of mercury ions from the waterbody.
MNMs could also be used as the motion-based platform for the adsorption of organic pollutants. Singh et al designed the zirconia/GO hybrid tubular micromotors for selective capture of nerve agents.\textsuperscript{122} The coupling of surface nanomaterials with fast moving ability holds considerable promise for defense and sustainability prospects. The same group also demonstrated the fabrication of activated carbon-based Janus particle micromotors for efficient and rapid adsorption of various kinds of contaminants, such as heavy metals, nitroaromatic explosives, organophosphorus nerve agent the and the azo-dyes compounds.\textsuperscript{123} Li et al. designed the self-propelled multilayered micromotors for adsorption removal of the methyl-paraoxon and rhodamine 6G.\textsuperscript{120} He et al. designed the catalytic polymer multilayer shell motors for separation of organic dyes by layer-by-layer assembly of polyelectrolyte using the template. This micromotor could adsorb nearly 90\% of the dye molecules and subsequently release them at neutral pH in a microfluidic device. The adsorption and separation behaviors of the micromotors hold considerable promise for water analysis. Wu et al. designed the cell membrane coated nanomotors driven by the acoustic field for effective and accelerated neutralization of the membrane-damaging toxins.\textsuperscript{118}

2.6.3 MNMs for separation of oil and water

Oil is a major source of ocean and groundwater pollutants. Oils are hard to decompose by the natural process and will block the sunshine from the sun, thus would have a very detrimental effect on the microorganisms and the wildlife. The removal of spilled oils and organic solvents from contaminated water is of great importance and scientific interest in minimizing its environmental hazards.\textsuperscript{124} The development of the MNMs could provide an efficient and accelerated cleanup strategy for the oils and solvents contaminates in the aquatic environment.
Guix and co-workers demonstrated the use of a super-hydrophobic alkanethiol coated self-propelled micro submarines for the efficient removal of oil for the first time.\textsuperscript{95} The oil collection micromotors are based on modifying microtubular engines with a superhydrophobic layer which enable the engines to adsorb oil by means of the strong adhesion to a long chain of self-assembled monolayers of alkanethiols created on the rough outer surface of the gold layers of the devices. The resulted alkanethiol coated Au/Ni/PEDOT/Pt multilayer microtubes display a continuous interaction with large oil droplets and are capable of loading and transporting multiple small oil droplets. This result demonstrates that the multilayer tubular microengines can be useful for a facile, rapid, and efficient collection of oil in water sample and other hydrophobic targets, such as the anti-cancer drugs. Gao and his co-workers demonstrated the use of water-powered Mg-based micromotors for capture and transport of oil in water.\textsuperscript{69} By similar surface modification as Guix’s method, the biocompatible fuel and composition of the water-powered Mg-based micromotor showed a great potential for diverse applications in biomedicine and environmental remediation. However, the above-mentioned micromotors developed at Joseph Wang’s group suffer from the disadvantages of complex structures, sophisticated fabrication process, and the high cost of materials, which greatly hinder their widespread applications. Mou et al. designed the pot like micromotors using the “growing-bubble”-templated self-assembly of hydrophobic nanoparticles (NPs) by a volatile droplet method. In this approach, the hydrophobic MnFe$_2$O$_4$@oleic acid NP in an oil droplet of chloroform and hexane was assembled into a dense NP shell layer due to the hydrophobic interactions between the NP surfaces. With the encapsulated oil continuously vaporizing into high-pressured gas bubbles, the dense MnFe$_2$O$_4$ NP shell layer then bursts, forming an asymmetric pot-like micromotor by creating
a single hole in it. For this structure of pot like micromotor, the catalytically generated O\textsubscript{2} molecules nucleate and grow into bubbles preferentially on the inner concave surface other than the outer convex surface, resulting in the continuous propelling force by the ejection of the oxygen bubbles from the opening. This work demonstrates a simple-structured, low-cost magnetically modulated micromotor with pot-like hollow microparticles structure as well as facile, versatile, and large-scale assembly fabrication. The magnetically steerable pot-like micromotor can autonomously move in water with H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} as fuel and can be directly used for oil removal without any further surface modification.

2.6.4 MNMs for the killing of bacterial

The contamination of drinking water with bacterial represents a major public health problem in view of the continuous rise of antimicrobial resistance. Biological warfare agent and other life-threatening outbreak of infectious diseases caused by different pathogenic bacteria require efficient protocols for the rapid and effective killing of bacteria. What is more, the increasing threat of multi-drug resistant bacteria strains against conventional antibiotic therapies represents a significant worldwide health risk and intensify the need for novel antibacterial treatment. The development of MNMs could provide a good tool for mankind to handle the problem of the bacterial outbreak and water disinfection. Many different types of materials have been incorporated in the fabrication of MNMs and used as the bactericide for water treatment.

Kiristi and co-workers in Joseph Wang’s group designed an ultrasound propelled porous gold nanowire nanomotor for rapid bacterial killing using the lysozyme as the active agent, which could cleave the glycosidic bonds of peptidoglycans present in the bacterial cell wall.\textsuperscript{125} Coupling the
antibacterial activity of the enzyme with the rapid movement of the high specific surface area porous gold nanorod nanomotor, contribute to the greatly enhanced bacterial-killing capability. The same group demonstrated that silver-exchanged zeolite micromotors could be used for the detoxification of chemical warfare agents and killing of bacteria. The use of silver-based materials for water disinfection has attracted great interest for scientific communities due to the strong antibacterial activity against a broad spectrum of bacteria, viruses, and fungi. The antibacterial properties of silver species depend largely upon the contact of bacteria with silver species. The self-propulsion of the micromotors would greatly enhance the contact kill effect. Hence, the micromotor based contact killing of pathogenic bacteria is very promising water treatment technology with higher efficiency and better outcome. Dong et al. from Soochow University developed a due fuel driven bactericidal micromotor, which showed motion behavior and bacterial killing effect in water or hydrogen peroxide containing solutions. The motion-based strategy can kill bacterial about nine times faster than that of the static one, thus demonstrate a great potential for the environmental hygiene applications. Nelson et al. from ETH Zurich designed the magnetically driven silver-coated nano coils for efficient bacterial contact killing, the low cytotoxicity along with the capability of precise magnetic locomotion makes the proposed nano coils an ideal candidate to combat multidrug-resistant bacteria in the field of environmental and biomedical applications. Vilela et al. designed the Ag NP coated Mg-based Janus particle micromotor with an intermediate iron layer for magnetic recovery. This micromotor can capture the bacteria and kill them. After recovery from the water, leaving the water without biological contaminations, demonstrating great potentials for public health applications. Simmchen and co-workers demonstrated the fabrication of photoactive AgCl micro
stars for the decontamination of polluted water with dyes and the bacteria. The micromotors can inhibit the bacterial growth. Delezuk et al. designed a chitosan-based water powered micromotor for bacterial killing applications. The use of natural non-toxic biopolymer chitosan-based antimicrobial agents presented with a low toxicity and biocompatibility are very attractive for designing bactericide MNMs.

2.6.5 MNMs based sensing, detection, monitoring, and analysis

MNMs provide an excellent motion based analytical tool for various environmental, defense, security, chemical process, and food safety fields. There are two major analytical methods employed in the MNMs based detection, sensing, analysis, and testing applications. One is the direct optical observation strategy which monitors the motion behavior variation and the fluorescence-based “on-off” detection using the functionalized MNMs to interfere with the analytes’ response. Since the MNMs will react with the analytes and the motion behaviors of MNMs will change to a marked degree due to the related enhanced chemical reaction offered by the increased fluid convection, various analytes could be detected based on the explicit, simple, direct and highly reproducible motion behavior changing recognition. The new sensing platforms offer great possibilities for the design of the field-portable analytical system. Another category of MNMs related analytical application is based on the electrochemical signal variation offered by the changes in chemical process and analytes response due to the MNMs’ reaction with the analytes. The MNMs based sensing, detection, monitoring, and analysis applications are very appealing due to the following advantages compared with static or traditional methods. Both the optical observation and the electrochemical detection demand extremely low quantity of the reagents and samples, thus significantly lower the generation of chemical waste.
More importantly, at micro/nano scale levels, greater control of molecular interaction is achieved, thus a higher sensibility could be obtained compared with other traditional methods.\textsuperscript{5, 134-136}

### 2.6.5.1 Optical microscope based analytical applications of the MNMs

Kogan and co-workers reported the first example of using catalytic nanomotors for motion-based chemical sensing, and particularly for specific detection of trace silver ions.\textsuperscript{61} Orozco and his co-workers designed the artificial enzyme catalyzed micro fish for water-quality testing purposes.\textsuperscript{133} The micromotors based strategy for water quality testing is done by direct observation of the changes in the propulsion behavior of artificial bio-catalytically driven microswimmers in the presence of an aquatic pollutant. The micromotor based toxicity testing concept mimics the live-fish water testing and relies on the toxin-induced inhibition of the enzyme catalase, responsible for the bio-catalytic bubble propulsion behavior. The enzyme-powered biocompatible polymeric (PEDOT)/Au-catalase tubular microengines offer highly sensitive direct optical visualization of changes in the swimming behavior in the presence of a broad range of common contaminants and hence can do a direct real-time assessment of the water quality. The use of enzyme-powered micro fish addresses major standardization and reproducibility problems as well as the ethical concerns associated with the live fish toxicity assays and hence offers an attractive alternative to the common use of aquatic organisms for water quality testing. Pumera’s group designed a biomimetic artificial inorganic micromotor for selective detection of Pb\textsuperscript{2+} in water based on the highly efficient Pt catalyst for enzyme-free self-propulsion.\textsuperscript{137} The self-propelled Pt-based micro fish showed a specific response to Pb\textsuperscript{2+} compared to other heavy metals, such as Cd\textsuperscript{2+}, and can be used for selective determination of Pb\textsuperscript{2+} in water.
Besides the detection of metal ions in the aquatic environment, MNMs based analytic tools are showing great potentials for detection of toxin and nerve agent, biochemistry related analysis, and food safety control. Singh et al. demonstrated the use of enzyme-powered nanomotors responsive to the presence of nerve agents in the surrounding atmosphere for remote detection and monitoring.\textsuperscript{134} This finding demonstrated the first example of MNMs to detect the atmospheric chemical warfare agents. The same group also demonstrated the use of Janus Si/Pt micromotors coated with fluoresceinamine for real-time “on-the-fly” field detection of sarin and soman simulants.\textsuperscript{135} The dye-coated micromotors demonstrated an extremely fast fluorescent “on-off” detection of these chemical warfare agents. The same group also demonstrated the use of aptamer-modified graphene-based catalytic micromotors for “Off-On” fluorescent detection of the extremely poisonous natural toxin ricin.\textsuperscript{136} Escarpa and his co-workers demonstrated the use of graphene/Pt micromotors for simultaneous, fast, and reliable assessment of two highly concerning mycotoxins.\textsuperscript{138} The detection is based on the selective recognition from aptamers to the target mycotoxins and further “on-the-move” fluorescence quenching of the free aptamer in the outer layer of unmodified electrochemical reduced graphene oxide micromotors. Later, the same group demonstrated the use of magnetocatalytic phenylboronic acid (PABA) modified graphene quantum dots (GQDs) decorated Janus micromotors for ultrafast detection of deadly bacteria endotoxins lipopolysaccharides (LPSs).\textsuperscript{139} The Janus micromotors were synthesized by the bottom-up method to generate the iron oxide and Pt NP on one side of the micromotors for catalytic propulsion and magnetic steering. Fluorescence quenching was observed upon the interaction of GQDs with the LPS endotoxin. Here, the PABA tags serve as highly specific recognition receptors of the LPS core polysaccharide region.\textsuperscript{139} Current
enzyme-based assays are highly susceptible to the pH and temperature changes and require tedious sample-preparation procedures. The highly adaptive operation with highly specific detection holds considerable promise for diverse clinical, diagnostic, and food safety applications. Pacheco and co-workers at Escarpa’s group studied the use of Janus micromotors as mobile sensors for the detection of toxins released by enterobacteria as indicators of food contamination. The micromotor based assays can detect ultra-low levels of endotoxin and be applied in food samples. Such reliable and ultrafast approach holds considerable promise for food contamination screening related safety and defense applications.

**2.6.5.2 Electrochemical based analytical applications of MNMs**

Self-propelled MNMs are very attractive and promising for next-generation electroanalytical detection applications. Amperometric, impedance or photo-electrochemical based sensors are particularly attractive for detecting chemical and biological targets in terms of electrochemical environmental changes at electrode interfaces. Such signal variations can be easily converted into a digital readout, holding a great promise for the development of next-generation low-cost, portable, sensitive and easy to operate miniaturized analytical devices. Bubble-propelled autonomous MNMs have been shown to induce efficient fluid transport-mixing, enhancing the yield of classical chemical processes. Such unique behaviors can be very beneficial for the electrochemical-based analytical applications. In 2015, Cinti et al. demonstrated the first example of using micromotors assisted electrochemical measurements at printable sensor strips. They observed the dramatically enhanced amperometric signal of organophosphorus (OP) nerve agent in the presence of the bubble generating magnesium Janus particle micromotors.
The generated microbubbles greatly enhanced the mass transportation and localized convection, thus leading to a higher sensitivity. The use of Mg-based Janus particle micromotor would generate the hydroxyl ions, which would react with the paraoxon and produce the electrochemically active and detectable p-nitrophenol by-product. The simple design and operation with an extremely low sample volume would greatly enhance the disposable test strip based analytical methods for a variety of target analytes with extremely high sensitivity and reproducibility. Such MNMs assisted printable electrode based electrochemical analytical method can be readily extended to different electrochemical sensing platforms with different analytes while eliminating the need for additional stimuli, instrument or external stirring to homogenize ultra-small samples at faster speeds. Rojas et al. demonstrated the Janus micromotors-based strategy for simultaneous degradation and detection POPs, for the first time in food and biological samples. The Mg/Au Janus micromotors are used as novel analytical platforms for the degradation of non-electroactive DPP into phenol, which is directly measured by difference pulse voltammetry on disposable screen-printed electrodes. The increased fluid convection improves dramatically the analytical signal, increasing the sensitivity while lowering the detection potential. The first demonstrated determination in food and biological samples by the MNMs assisted technology holds considerable promises for its application in food and biological control in analytical applications with a high significance. Escarpa and co-workers demonstrated the fabrication of CdS and ZnS nanocrystals decorated polymer/Pt bilayer tubular micromotors for photocatalytic degradation of bisphenol A. They demonstrated the use of screen-printed electrodes for electrochemical analysis of the photocatalytic degradation processes. Pumera’s group demonstrated the use of electrochemical analysis methods to evaluate the numbers of the
micromotors and the velocities of these self-propelled objects. The perturbances of the diffusion layer at the electrode interface from the locomotion of the micromotors in solution resulted in spikes that were recorded by the electrochemical signals.

2.7 Conclusions and perspectives

Due to the advances in materials science and chemistry fields, self-propelled MNMs are developed as an innovative tool for diverse applications. Currently, there are two major application areas for MNMs, the biomedical science, and the environmental-based applications. A plethora of proof-of-concept applications has been achieved, such as drilling of biological tissue, transportation of cargos, delivery of genes, minimally invasive surgery, catalytic degradation of organic pollutant, the killing of bacteria, oil and water separation, and adsorption removal of heavy metals. The progress suggests that these MNMs based small-scale tools are very capable of addressing challenging issues facing mankind. Although there is numerous progress that has been made regarding the synthesis and application of self-propelled MNMs, the development of this area are still at its early stage. There are still many obstacles for the real and practical usage as nanocarriers for nanomedicines or environmental catalysts.

The MNMs always relying on the expensive materials such as Pt or sophisticated synthesis equipment and multi-step procedures. These drawbacks of MNMs need to be addressed before its large-scale applications. Up to now, there is no research on the fabrication of MNMs at industrial scale. The use of cheap and reliable materials with large-scale production ability will greatly facilitate the practical application of MNMs as micro cleaners. Novel fabrication methods could be developed to
fabricate the asymmetry structure for solving the problem of large-scale industrial fabrication with cheap and reliable basic materials.

The use of ferromagnetic materials is very attractive for the fabrication of magnetically recoverable MNMs. The coupling of photocatalytic materials with MNMs are very promising for the design of light controlled nanomotors for diverse environmental and biomedical applications. The MNMs could also show communication and collective behaviors, which means that these micro/nano scale tools could work together cooperatively to perform tasks in the future. Since this area of research will have wide follow-on applications for the analytical, environmental, biomedical and related cross-disciplinary basic science, we anticipate that a myriad of new MNMs will be developed with various functionalities that would greatly reshape the nanoscience and nanotechnology today.

References


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Chapter 3. Electrochemical Synthesis of MnO$_2$ Based Micromotors in an Architecture of Bilayer Microtubes by an Anodic Oxidation Deposition Method

Abstract

Micro/nanomotors (MNMs) that could perform diverse tasks are the most dynamic research areas in nanoscience and nanotechnology. Up to now, the majority of micromotors contain the precious metal platinum (Pt) as the catalyst for propulsion. High cost and scarcity of Pt seriously impede its practical application. The exploration of manganese oxide based MNMs provides a route to circumstance the drawback of Pt. In this chapter, graphene/MnO$_2$ microtubes as a highly efficient micromotor were fabricated by a template-assisted electrochemical process. The resulting micromotors show a good motion behavior in a wide range of hydrogen peroxide (H$_2$O$_2$) concentrations. Owing to its robust motion, easy functionalization, a large quantity of surface functional groups for modification, along with simple synthesis, these fine micromotors hold a great promise for biomedicine and environmental applications.
3.1 Introduction

Self-propelled micro/nanomotors (MNMs) are at the frontier of the micro- and nanotechnology.\textsuperscript{1-7} MNMs show great potentials in diverse applications, such as the selective capture of nerve agents,\textsuperscript{8} oil and water separation,\textsuperscript{9} cargo delivery and release,\textsuperscript{10, 11} efficient water cleaning,\textsuperscript{12} rapid dye degradation,\textsuperscript{13} pH meters\textsuperscript{14}, and lab-on-chip devices.\textsuperscript{15} The synthesis of chemically powered, bubble-propelled MNMs is of the great interest and challenge in this field.\textsuperscript{1, 16-18} The bubble formation and motion behaviors of micromotors have been modeled and it is generally accepted that the continuous generation and detachment of microbubbles from the catalytic surface result in the propelling force.\textsuperscript{19-21}

Platinum (Pt) has always been the most widely used catalyst in designing MNMs because of its high efficiency in catalytic decomposition of hydrogen peroxide (H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}).\textsuperscript{3, 22} Although the Pt-based MNMs show the best motion behavior, they also suffer from several drawbacks. Firstly, platinum is an expensive noble metal, which is the major obstacle in its large-scale application in environmental clean-up. Secondly, the platinum-based micromotors can be deactivated by certain proteins and sulfate-containing molecules that exist widely in biological media as well as natural water matrices.\textsuperscript{23} Thus, the search for alternative catalytic materials is highly in demand. Iron, iridium, and silver have been tested for their performances in MNMs constructions. Although iron could be used as the reaction part with acids to generate hydrogen bubbles for propulsion, it shows no catalytic activity for catalytic H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} decomposition.\textsuperscript{24} Iridium is also a noble metal which has the same limitations as platinum.\textsuperscript{15} Silver is a good alternative for designing micromotors.\textsuperscript{25} The enzyme could be another good candidate, but it suffers
from the strict requirement to operating temperature and will deactivate in a short period of time.\textsuperscript{26}

The use of manganese dioxide (MnO\textsubscript{2}) for MNMs fabrication becomes highly desirable due to its low cost, wide fuel concentration range, easiness of fabrication, tunable crystal structure, and surface morphology, controllable size and geometry, high efficiency and long lifespan. However, very few reports on MNMs studies were based on the robust MnO\textsubscript{2} as the catalyst.\textsuperscript{27} MnO\textsubscript{2} can be fabricated by a hydrothermal or electrochemical method. Both the methods offer great opportunities for tuning MnO\textsubscript{2} shape, size, surface geometry, and chemistry.\textsuperscript{28, 29} Efforts were mainly made to the electrochemical fabrication because asymmetry is difficult to be achieved in hydrothermal synthesis. Wang and his co-workers\textsuperscript{30} demonstrated the use of commercial MnO\textsubscript{2} particles as micromotors, which required a very high concentration of fuel, showing a motion performance of about 120 μm s\textsuperscript{-1} in 21% H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}. Feng et al.\textsuperscript{31} designed a “sandwich”-like MnO\textsubscript{2}/Graphene/Au micromotor, which could be propelled in a very low concentration of H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}, down to 0.15% at a speed of 15.8 μm s\textsuperscript{-1} (2.18 body-lengths s\textsuperscript{-1}). Salfar et al.\textsuperscript{32} designed a conducting polymer PEDOT/MnO\textsubscript{2} bilayer microtube micromotors. The MnO\textsubscript{2}-based micromotor showed good motion behaviors from 5% to 15% of H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} concentration range. Very recently, they also studied the crystalline forms and geometry on the motion of the MnO\textsubscript{2} based micromotors. The individual hollow spherical MnO\textsubscript{2} microparticles reached a maximum speed of ~ 1600 μm s\textsuperscript{-1} and the average speed is about 1000 μm s\textsuperscript{-1} in 10% H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}.\textsuperscript{33} Wang et al. tested the PEDOT/MnO\textsubscript{2} tubular micromotors for drug delivery.\textsuperscript{34} Singh et al.\textsuperscript{35} designed a self-propelling paperbots that could be magnetically guided, but it requires at least 9%
H₂O₂ solution to become motile. The maximum speed of these paperbots is about 1600 µm s⁻¹ (about 2 body lengths s⁻¹) and the lifetime is 6 min.

Herein, we demonstrated the synthesis of electrochemically reduced graphene oxide (erGO)/MnO₂ bilayer microtubes as micromotors, which can be propelled efficiently in varying H₂O₂ concentrations at above 3%. The rough, porous inner surface of the MnO₂ microtubes with the nanoscale sheet-like microstructure is responsible for its good activity in catalytic decomposition of H₂O₂ for fast and efficient propelling. This platinum-free MnO₂ based micromotors with superior motion behaviors hold a great promise for biomedical as well as environmental applications.

3.2 Experimental section

3.2.1 Materials and reagents

Manganese (II) acetate tetrahydrate, sodium sulfate, ethanol, dichloromethane, sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), H₂O₂ (30%), and sulfate acid (98%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Aluminum oxide paste (catalog no. F1200, code: 361544) were purchased from Kemet, NSW, Australia. Porous polycarbonate (PC) membranes (Catalogue no. 7060-2513) with an average pore diameter of 5 µm were purchased from Whatman Inc., NY, USA. Ultrapure water (Milli-Q) was used in all experiments. Nano-sized graphene oxide (GO) was purchased from graphene supermarket, New York, USA.

3.2.2 Fabrication of graphene/MnO₂ bilayer microtubes

The graphene/MnO₂ bilayer microtubes were fabricated using a common template-directed electrochemical deposition protocol. A cyclopore polycarbonate membrane containing 5 µm maximum diameter conical-shaped micropores was employed as the template. An 80 nm of gold film
was first deposited on one side of the porous membranes to serve as the working electrode using the Emitech K950X gold evaporator and the evaporation deposition was performed at room temperature under high vacuum of below $1 \times 10^{-3}$ mBar at a direct current of 5 to 6 A. The deposition rate was about 1 nm s$^{-1}$. A Pt wire and Ag/AgCl with 3 M KCl were used as counter and reference electrodes, respectively. The membrane was then assembled in a self-designed plating cell with an aluminum foil serving as a contact for the working electrode. The detailed information about the plating cell is described below. A solution containing 0.1 mg mL$^{-1}$ GO in 0.5 M of Na$_2$SO$_4$ and 0.1 M H$_2$SO$_4$ was prepared as the electrolyte for the electrochemical growth of the graphene outer layer. The GO in the solution was reduced using a cyclic voltammetry from 0.3 to -1.5 V for five cycles. After three washing with 10 mL of ultrapure water, MnO$_2$ inner layer was deposited using a Potentiostat (PS) method at a voltage of + 0.75 V for approximately 0.3 C of charge transfer. The plating solution contains 0.1 M manganese acetate tetrahydrate as the MnO$_2$ source and 0.1 M sodium sulfate as the electrolyte to increase the conductivity. Following the deposition, the gold layer was removed by hand polishing gently with alumina slurry, which contains 3 µm diameter alumina particles. Then the templates were dissolved in dichloromethane for 15 min to release the micromotors. Finally, the micromotors were collected by centrifuge at 7000 rpm for 3 min while being repeatedly washing with dichloromethane, ethanol, and ultrapure water, three times each. All the micromotors were stored in ultrapure water at room temperature for further use.

### 3.2.3 Equipment and characterization

An Emitech K950X gold evaporator was used to deposit a layer of gold onto the PC template membranes. Electrochemical deposition was carried
out using an electrochemical workstation (Zennium Zahner, Germany) connected to a computer and controlled by the Thalse software. The deposition procedure was conducted at room temperature (25 °C) using a three-electrode arrangement. A platinum wire electrode was utilized as a counter electrode and Ag/AgCl with 3 M KCl was used as a reference electrode. A customized plating cell was used in all plating process. The ultrasonication process was carried out using an ultrasonication cleaner (Model FXP12D, Unisonics), and centrifuge was carried out using an Eppendorf centrifuge (Model 5430). Scanning electronic microscopy (SEM/EDX) analysis was conducted using a Zeiss Neon 40 EsV FIBSEM with a field emission electron gun and the Oxford EDS detector operated by the Aztec software and the Zeiss 1555 VP-FESEM with a field emission electron gun and the Oxford EDS detector operated by the Aztec software. SEM images were taken at an accelerating voltage of 2, 3 and 5 kV. EDX analysis was taken using the coupled Oxford detector and operated by the Aztec software at an acceleration voltage of 15 kV. Optical microscopy videos and images were obtained using the Olympus IX81 inverted microscope with a Nikon digital sight DS-2Mv camera connected to a computer and operated by the Nikon NIS Elements software and a Nikon Eclipse ME600 microscope with a Toupcam UCMOS14000KPA camera operated by a ToupView 3.7 software. A digital hand-held "Pocket" H₂O₂ refractometer (Model: Atago, PAL-39S) was used to calibrate the concentrations of the H₂O₂ solutions used. The videos were edited by the Virtual Dub 1.10.4 software and free Fiji software was used to track the speed of the micromotors and to extract images.³⁶-³⁸ XPS was carried out on a thermos ESCALAB 250 XPS microscope with monochromatic Al-Kα X-rays at a photo energy of 1486.7 eV. The measurement was carried out using a Kratos AXIS Ultra DLD system under UHV conditions with a base pressure of less than 1×10⁻
Spectra were acquired with the pass energy of 20 eV and fitted using CasaXPS software. All the spectra are calibrated to yield a primary C 1s component at 284.6 eV with the Shirley background, and the component fitting applied Voigt functions with a 30% Lorentzian component.

3.2.4 Motion behavior observations

A transparent plastic glass bottom microwell dish (Part No. P35G-1.5-10-C, Mat Tek Corporation, MA, USA) with the holed bottom covered by thin glass slides was used as the container to prepare different fuel concentrations for all motion behavior observation. The 10 mm diameter bottom hole of a 35mm diameter plastic petri dish is covered by a thin glass slide, which forms a shallow well-like hollow structure with a volume of approximately 75-80 µL. After 80 µL of the reaction solution was filled into the well, a nearly flat liquid surface is expected to form. The formation of a flat liquid surface is beneficial for motion behavior characterization for the following reasons. In a typical observation process, for examples, to form 1% SDS as the surfactant and 5% H_2O_2 as fuel for propulsion. 16 µL of 5% SDS solution, 10 µL of micromotors containing solutions and 38 µL of ultrapure water, and 16 µL of 25% H_2O_2 solutions were mixed together to form the final 80 µL of the micromotors motion behaviors observation liquid. The concentration of the fuel and surfactants could be easily adjusted by using different volumes of the 5% of SDS solutions and 25% of H_2O_2 solutions.

3.3 Results and discussion

Figure 3.1 illustrates the fabrication process of erGO/MnO_2 bilayer microtube micromotors with a customized plating cell (Figure 3.S1) to break the symmetry, the erGO/MnO_2 microtubes were fabricated by
sequential electrodeposition of GO and MnO$_2$ onto the inner walls of the pores of a gold coated polycarbonate membrane (Figure 3.S2) template. The microtubes were obtained after the membrane template was dissolved and removed. This micromotor structure consists of a graphene outer layer and a MnO$_2$ inner layer. The MnO$_2$ inner layer decomposes H$_2$O$_2$ into water and oxygen microbubbles. The ejection of microbubbles from one end of the microtubes will thrust the fluid inside the microtubes and behind the micromotors away, thus generating enough counterforce acting on the micromotors for its efficient self-propulsion. The propelling mechanism is similar to the propelling jet engines and rockets in the macroscopic world.

**Figure 3.1.** Schematic illustration of the fabrication procedure of the erGO/MnO$_2$ bilayer microtube micromotors.

Figure 3.S1 is the real product picture of the assembled electrochemical plating cell with electrode stand and the electrodes. The aluminum foil is serving as the conductor to connect with the working electrode and platinum wire as the counter electrode and the Ag/AgCl electrode as the reference electrode.

By the observation of the pores density on the membrane, we could calculate the maximum output of micromotors one membrane could
fabricate. And the result is about $1 \times 10^6$ micromotors per membrane by one synthesis.

**Figure 3.S1.** Photograph of the assembled electrochemical plating cell.

**Figure 3.S2.** Reflected light optical microscopy images of the polycarbonate membranes. (a) Gold coated side, (b) The uncoated side. Scale bar: 20 µm.

The first GO layer was electrochemically deposited onto the inner walls of the cyclopores of the polycarbonate membrane by the cyclic voltammetry method. Figure 3.2 shows the cyclic voltammograms acquired during the reduction process, $n = 2, 3$, and 5 corresponding to the relative scan, respectively. GO was electrochemically reduced with a potential cycling at a rate of 50 mV s$^{-1}$ from +0.3 to -1.5 V for five cycles in a solution containing 0.1 mg mL$^{-1}$ nano-sized GO for the construction
of the graphene outer layer. During the process, large quantities of oxygen functional groups on the surface of GO were removed and the sp²-carbon lattices were partially reconstructed. The reduction of GO by cyclic voltammetry electrochemical reactions forms the outer erGO layer. This process increases the conductivity and hydrophobicity of the outer graphene layer. The increased conductivity favors the electrochemical reduction and deposition of graphene layer as well as the deposition of the MnO₂ layer. As a semiconductor material, the electrochemical plating fabrication of MnO₂ is not easy if the plating substrate is not a good conductor. The increased conductivity of the erGO outer layer is crucial for the deposition of the MnO₂. As can be seen from Figure 3.2, the reduction peaks at about -1.0 V corresponding to the reduction of GO to the formation of a thin film of the outer graphene layer on the inner walls of the polycarbonate membrane pores. Most of the oxygen moieties on the surface of GO were removed during the cycling process, resulting in the lowering of the reduction current peaks as the scan number increases. The increased hydrophobic interaction of the graphene layers facilitates the aggregation of the graphene on the inner walls of the polycarbonate membrane pores. Due to the increased sp²-carbons and the removal of the surface hydrophilic oxygen functional groups, the separated graphene layers tend to aggregate, thus forming the outer layer of the micromotors. Then, the formation of the MnO₂ tubular inner layer occurred. Compared with PEDOT, erGO can help the inner MnO₂ layer form a much rougher microporous microstructure due to the large remaining functional groups on the outer erGO layer serving as the nucleation sites, thus enhance the fuel decomposition by the inner MnO₂ layer. Chen’s group showed the successful formation of the weakly crystalized γ-MnO₂ with different morphologies using an electrolyte containing 0.1 M manganese acetate and 0.1 M sodium sulfate. Due to the hydrolysis process occurred
immediately after the electrochemical deposition process, the produced manganese oxide usually exists as amorphous or weakly crystallized atom lattice. The hydrolysis of manganese hydroxide to form the manganese oxide usually results in the mixed-valence manganese oxides, such as $\text{MnO}_2$, $\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$, and $\text{MnO}_4$.\textsuperscript{42} Due to the lack of calcination of the electrochemical process to lower the energy state of the $\text{MnO}_2$, the plated manganese oxide usually presents as amorphous or weakly crystallized structure. This amorphous or weakly crystallized structure is at its high-energy state compared to their crystalized counterpart. The high-energy state of the weakly crystallized or amorphous manganese oxide is sometimes beneficial for the catalysis process. This is also a contributing factor for the good motion behavior of the micromotors. As reported, this similar electrochemical plated $\text{MnO}_2$ for the energy-related applications could be presumed to weakly crystallized or amorphous $\Upsilon$-$\text{MnO}_2$.\textsuperscript{43}

**Figure 3.2.** Cyclic voltammograms corresponding to the electrochemical reduction of GO, scans $n = 2$ (green line), $n = 3$ (red line) and $n = 5$ (blue line) and SEM image of the side view of an erGO/$\text{MnO}_2$ bilayer microtube micromotor. Scale bar: 2 µm.
Figure 3.3 shows the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the erGO/MnO$_2$ bilayer microtube micromotors. Figure 3.3a is a well-formed individual micromotor. This micromotor has an inner diameter of about 2 µm, an outer diameter of about 5 µm and a length of approximately 10 µm. The dimension of the microtube is restricted by the size of the pores on the template. Figure 3.3b demonstrates that the successful formation of large quantities of the microtube micromotors. (Figure. 3.S3) These microtubes have a length in the range from 4 to 12 µm and the average length of the microtubes is about 8 µm. Some of the microtubes are wrecked because the inner MnO$_2$ tubes are a brittle material and some of the microtubes are prone to be damaged during the washing, centrifugation and separation processes. As shown in Figure 3.3c, the morphology of the inner surface of a wrecked microtube shows a very rough, porous microstructure. This surface morphology is very similar to Chen’s results, using the PS electrochemical deposition method. The electrochemical deposited MnO$_2$ forms a crossed needle-like nanostructure with 5-10 nm in diameter and 50-100 nm in length. Compared with the smooth inner surface, these microtubes with nanoscaled porous inner surface might have a larger surface area. The formation mechanism of MnO$_2$ could be explained by the following equation: Mn$^{2+}$ + 4H$_2$O $\rightarrow$ MnO$_2$ + 4H$^+$ + 2e$^-$. Here, the erGO layer is serving as the anode to oxidize Mn$^{2+}$ ions to its higher valence product MnO$_2$ at a potential of + 0.75V. The inner surface microstructure is responsible for the efficient motion behaviors of the micromotors due to its large surface area for catalytic H$_2$O$_2$ decomposition. The rough surface also favors the generation of the microbubbles. With a nanoscaled porous structure, it is much easier for the decomposition of H$_2$O$_2$ to generate oxygen molecules to aggregate and form the microbubbles. These oxygen bubbles formed inside the tubes and ejected from the opening thrust the
liquid behind the micromotors away continuously, thus generating the driving force for propelling. Figure 3.3d is the energy dispersive X-ray spectrum (EDX) mapping of a micromotor. The carbon element is from the erGO outer layer. The uniform distribution of carbon element on the surface of the micromotors demonstrated the good coverage of the MnO$_2$ inner tubes by the erGO layer. The formation of erGO/MnO$_2$ bilayer microtubes can then be evidenced. The oxygen is from the erGO outer layer and the MnO$_2$ inner layer. The manganese is from the electrochemical plated MnO$_2$ inner layer only. The EDX results indicate that this micromotor only contains the oxygen, carbon, and manganese elements.

**Figure 3.3.** SEM images of the erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors (a) image of a micromotor, (b) image of large quantities of micromotors, (c) image of a wrecked micromotor. (d) EDX spectrum elemental mapping of a micromotor, illustrating the distribution of carbon (yellow), oxygen (red) and manganese (blue). Scale bars: (a), (c) 2 µm, (b) 20 µm, and (d) 5 µm.

The preparation of this sample is to drop a volume of 2 µL of the micromotors dispersion on the aluminum stub. The micromotors dispersion contains about $10^6$/mL.
As shown in Figure 3.4, XPS spectra survey further reveals the presence of carbon (C 1s peak), oxygen (O 1s peak) and manganese (Mn 2p peak) in the erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors. The peaks of high-resolution C 1s spectra (Figure 3.4b) and O 1s spectra (Figure 3.4c) correspond to the binding energy of various functional groups such as C-C/C-H/C=C, C-OH, C=O, and O-C=O, revealing the nature of the covalent bonds of oxygen atoms and carbon atoms (See Table 3.S1). The ratio of all carbon-oxygen
functional groups to all carbon species is about 50%, which denotes the
degree of oxidation of the outer layer of erGO/MnO₂ micromotors. The
degree of oxidation of erGO/MnO₂ micromotors is slightly larger than the
graphene-based microbots fabricated by Vilela et al.⁴⁴. This may be
because that the second anodic deposition of the MnO₂ layer at + 0.75 V
could partially oxidize the formerly formed erGO layer. Abundant
carbonyl and carboxyl groups are present on the surface of erGO/MnO₂
micromotors which is considered very important for the adsorption of
pollutants as well as further surface modification of the micromotors for
detection and sensing applications. Figure 3.4c shows the peak at 530 eV
as the characteristic of the oxygen in metal oxides. The oxidation state of
Mn can be examined by the Mn 2p high-resolution XPS spectra (Figure
3.4d). The peaks observed at a binding energy of 642.5 and 652.9 eV were
attributed to the Mn 2p XPS lines with the spin-orbit splitting of 11.4 eV
between Mn 2p₃/₂ and Mn 2p₁/₂. The results are in agreement with
previously reported values.⁴⁵ The Mn 2p₃/₂ peak was located at 642.5 eV,
which indicated that the main oxidation state of Mn in all the manganese
oxide is Mn⁴⁺. The XPS spectra of the erGO/MnO₂ micromotors further
confirms the oxygen functional groups on the surface of the micromotors
and the main component for the catalyst part is MnO₂.
Figure 3.4. XPS spectra survey of erGO/MnO₂ micromotors, (a) wide scan. (b) High-resolution C 1s spectra. (c) High-resolution O 1s spectra. (d) High-resolution Mn 2p spectra.

The surfactants are known to increase the wetting, facilitate the bubble formation, and stabilize the microbubbles, thus enhance the motion behaviors of the bubble propelled MNMs.⁴⁶, ⁴⁷ Besides the increased bubble formation, increased oxygen production also plays a key role in the propulsion of bubble-propelled MNMs.⁰ The SDS has been commonly used as a surfactant for the propulsion of micromotors. All the motion behaviors were observed using 1% SDS as a surfactant to lower the surface tension and enhance the wetting of the micromotors for efficient bubble generation. Upon the addition of fuel to the petri dish, the micromotors start to move continuously (see Figure. 3.S4). Figure 3.5 displays time-lapse images, taken from the motion behavior Video S1, for
the motion of the erGO/MnO₂ bilayer microtubes micromotors over a 5s period at 1s intervals in 4% H₂O₂ solution. These images show a tail of oxygen bubbles generated and released behind the motion micromotor. The bubbles show clearly the trajectory of the micromotors. These micromotors show irregular trajectory because the force generated on the MnO₂ inner surface of the micromotors is asymmetrically distributed. Video S2 shows the motion behaviors of micromotors in 15% of H₂O₂ fuel. It shows a much higher speed. The generation of microbubbles can be explained by the following equation: H₂O₂ → H₂O + O₂. Here, MnO₂ is the catalyst for H₂O₂ decomposition. The porous inner surface with a sheet-like microstructure offers plenty of active sites for the catalytic decomposition of H₂O₂. It also provides the perfect place for the generated oxygen molecules to aggregate and form the microbubbles. The outer graphene layer blocks the contact of H₂O₂ with the outer surface of the plated MnO₂ tubes, making the oxygen bubbles generated at the inner surface of the microtubes only. This architecture is the reason for its robust motion behaviors. The SDS in the liquid serves as the surfactant for the easiness of the wetting of the micromotor surface by the solution and facilitates the generation of the microbubbles. The oxygen bubbles generated bounce off the liquid behind the micromotors continuously, resulting in the generation of the net force for propulsion. The micromotor is self-propelled at a speed of nearly 200 μm s⁻¹, which corresponds to a relative speed of 25 body-lengths s⁻¹, considering the average length of the micromotors of approximately 8 μm.
### Table 3.S1. Various functional groups identified on the surface of erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spectra</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>at. %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C 1s</td>
<td>C-C/C-H/C=O</td>
<td>284.51</td>
<td>49.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 1s</td>
<td>C-O</td>
<td>286.14</td>
<td>30.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 1s</td>
<td>C=O</td>
<td>287.97</td>
<td>13.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 1s</td>
<td>O-C=O</td>
<td>290.79</td>
<td>5.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>Metal Oxide</td>
<td>529.94</td>
<td>18.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>O-H</td>
<td>532.02</td>
<td>13.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>C=O</td>
<td>533.78</td>
<td>36.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>O-C=O</td>
<td>534.92</td>
<td>31.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Figure 3.5** Time-lapse images depicting efficient propulsion of an erGO/MnO$_2$ bilayer microtubes micromotor over 5s at time intervals of 1s in 4% H$_2$O$_2$ and 1% SDS. Scale bar, 100 µm.

Figure 3.6 shows that the concentration of H$_2$O$_2$ fuel strongly influences the velocity of the erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors. Below 2% of H$_2$O$_2$ fuel solutions, few micromotors show motion behavior, due to the low frequency of microbubbles generation and the weak propelling force generated. At 3% of H$_2$O$_2$ concentration, these micromotors start to show efficient motion behavior at an average speed of 77.2 µm s$^{-1}$, corresponding to a relative speed over 9.6 body-lengths s$^{-1}$. The speed of the micromotors increases to 210.4 (± 80.4) µm s$^{-1}$ at 5% H$_2$O$_2$, equals to a speed of 29.3 (± 10.0) body-lengths s$^{-1}$. Fuel depletion would result in the speed decrease when the concentration is below 5% H$_2$O$_2$ as time goes by. After the micromotors stopped moving, the motion behaviors could be reinitiated after extra fuel is added, which demonstrates the good lifetime of these micromotors. The speed of the micromotors continues to increase as the concentration of H$_2$O$_2$ fuel solution increases. At 15% of the H$_2$O$_2$ solution, the average speed of the micromotors reaches its maximum of 466.4 (± 155.3) µm s$^{-1}$, about 58.3 (± 19.4) body-lengths s$^{-1}$. The maximum speed of an individual micromotor could exceed 700 µm s$^{-1}$. 

82
The speed of the graphene/MnO$_2$ bilayer microtube micromotors greatly increases over the entire range of the H$_2$O$_2$ fuel (3% - 15%) resulting from the higher pressure generated by the propelling oxygen microbubbles. Since the fluid cannot flow freely through the bilayer microtubes, the drag force of the micromotors could be estimated roughly using the Stokes’ drag force theory.$^{3, 48}$

\[ F_d = \frac{2\pi \mu LU}{\ln(L/a) - 1/2} \]

Where $F_d$ is the fluid resistance, $U$ is the speed of the micromotor (700 µm s$^{-1}$), $\mu$ is the fluid dynamic viscosity (1.01 mPa s, equal to $1.01 \times 10^{-3}$ N m$^{-2}$ s), $L$ is the length (8 µm) and $a$ is the radius (2.5 µm) of the micromotor. The calculated maximum drag force of this micromotor, 54 pN, is enough to transport large cargos such as proteins and cells. The performance of this newly synthesized erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors is comparable to the conducting polymer/MnO$_2$ bilayer microtubes micromotor developed by Safdar et al.$^{32, 33}$ in terms of fuel concentration range and speed. While they state that the electrochemical fabricated MnO$_2$ based micromotors show motion behaviors from above 5% H$_2$O$_2$ fuel solutions, we find that the erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors show efficient motion from above 3% of H$_2$O$_2$. The erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors will have more practical applications where a high H$_2$O$_2$ fuel concentration is not desired. The comparable performance of these two kinds of micromotors is because both have the same geometry size and electrochemical deposited MnO$_2$ as the catalyst for H$_2$O$_2$ decomposition. From the motion videos, we can see that their motion behaviors are also quite similar, but the graphene-based micromotors could utilize H$_2$O$_2$ fuel solution down to 3%. The graphene-based MnO$_2$ propelled micromotors could be used as a motion platform to perform diverse tasks. For example, the outer graphene surface with
partial oxygen functional groups could be used to functionalize this motion based platform to perform biomedical related applications, such as sensing of chemicals, cargo transportation in the cellular environment, and guided anti-cancer drug delivery. Beyond biological applications, MnO$_2$ is also a useful material in environmental remediation. The motion enhanced stirring effect of the catalytic degradation reactions will not only show great promise to accelerate the catalytic degradation of organic pollutants but also the enhanced adsorption capability of aquatic pollutants. The later-on modification of the MnO$_2$ micromotors and the related environmental based applications are also being conducted in our group.

![Graph](image.png)

**Figure 3.6** The average speed of erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors at different fuel concentrations (n = 50). Experiments were conducted in the presence of 1% SDS as the surfactant.

### 3.4 Conclusions

In the present study, we demonstrated that a highly efficient erGO/MnO$_2$ bilayer microtubes micromotor could be prepared by a simple, template-assisted electrochemical process. The resulting erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotor has a micro-sized tubular bilayer structure with erGO as the outer layer
and electrochemically deposited MnO$_2$ as the inner layer. The inner surface of the micromotor has a rough, nanoscale porous microstructure which accounts for the highly efficient catalysis performance over the decomposition of H$_2$O$_2$. The erGO/MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors can move at a high average speed from 77.2 to 466.4 µm s$^{-1}$ at H$_2$O$_2$ fuel concentrations from 3% to 15%. Some of the individual micromotors could show a motion behavior with a velocity larger than 700 µm s$^{-1}$ in 15% H$_2$O$_2$ solutions. The micromotors only contain the low-cost MnO$_2$ and metal-free graphene materials, holding promises for further environmental based and biomedical applications. The attractive properties of the micromotors, along with their easy synthesis, good motion behaviors, low cost, and robust motion in wide fuel concentration range promise the considerable potentials for biomedical applications as well as environmental remediation.

References


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Chapter 4. High-Speed Graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ Micromotors at Low Peroxide Levels by Cathodically Electrochemical Deposition

Abstract

Platinum (Pt) free micro/nanomotors (MNMs) using a low content of fuels are highly desired for many applications. Herein, we demonstrate that cathodic electro-fabrication can produce doped MnO$_2$ based microtubes and microrods as highly efficient MNMs in hydrogen peroxide (H$_2$O$_2$) as low as 0.2%. The speed of graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors could be smartly regulated using a surfactant and the maximum speed of an individual micromotor exceeds 1.3 mm s$^{-1}$ in 0.5% H$_2$O$_2$. The propelling force and output power of the micromotors are 3.4 and 10 times as high as those of the best Pt-based micromotors reported. These Ag-MnO$_2$ based micromotors are envisioned to be a great promise for practical applications from biomedical to environmental decontamination.
4.1 Introduction

Self-propelled micro/nanomotors (MNMs) have attracted increasing attention because of their wide potential applications from biomedical drug delivery to environmental cleaning. MNMs show diverse applications in sensing trace metals, selective capture of nerve agents, cargo delivery and release, minimally invasive surgery, diagnostics, environmental monitoring and remediation, and bioimaging/biosensing. MNMs based on self-electrophoresis or self-diffusiophoresis mechanism usually exhibit a low speed and weak propelling force. To surpass the limitations, bubble-propelled catalytic MNMs were developed because of their good motion behaviors at a much wider fuel content. Up to now, the majority of the MNMs are relying on noble metal platinum (Pt) as the catalyst to decompose H₂O₂ for propelling. The fastest catalytic micromotors are Pt-based tubular microengines, and a Pt-catalyzed rolled-up microjet achieved a high speed of 10 mm s⁻¹ in 5% H₂O₂ at 37 °C. Although the Pt-catalyzed MNMs demonstrated the best motion behaviors, the drawbacks of scarcity, high-cost, and susceptibility of deactivation hindered their applications. A number of other catalysts, such as iridium, silver, palladium, and enzymes have been tested for the construction of MNMs, but each of them possesses its own limitations and drawbacks and none of them is as good as Pt.

Recently, MnO₂ based micromotors were developed, but they suffered from a high fuel concentration or low speed due to the inferior catalytic activity. Researchers have demonstrated the motion behaviors of MnO₂ based micromotors in biological media and salt-rich environment. The robust nature of MnO₂ is the key to solve the deactivation of Pt-based MNMs. Pumera’s group demonstrated that commercial MnO₂ particles
showed motion behaviors of 120 µm s$^{-1}$ in 21% H$_2$O$_2$.\textsuperscript{38} Safdar et al.\textsuperscript{44} developed a MnO$_2$ hollow particle micromotor with the maximum speed of 1625 µm s$^{-1}$ in 10% H$_2$O$_2$. These MnO$_2$ based MNMs require a much high concentration of fuels. Hence, exploration of new synthesis and modification methods to make MnO$_2$ suitable for low fuel levels with fast speeds becomes highly desirable.

Electrochemical production of MnO$_2$ can be realized by anodic oxidation\textsuperscript{45} and cathodic reduction electrodeposition.\textsuperscript{46} For the anodic electrodeposition, electro-oxidation of Mn$^{2+}$ occurs on the anode surface, shown as follows.

\begin{equation}
\text{Mn}^{2+} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{MnO}_2 + 4\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^-
\end{equation}

For the cathodic electrodeposition process, the electroreduction of high valence Mn (VII) species takes place on the cathode surface.

\begin{equation}
\text{MnO}_4^- + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 3\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{MnO}_2 + 4\text{OH}^- 
\end{equation}

The anodic electrodeposition and chemical reaction routes have been used exclusively to construct MnO$_2$ based MNMs. However, for fabrication of a heterogeneous structured metal/MnO$_2$ MNMs, the anodic electrodeposition cannot avoid further oxidation and dissolution of the metal. Cathodic electrodeposition of MnO$_2$ is a reduction process, which can circumvent the drawback successfully. Thus, it is possible to obtain various metal/MnO$_2$ hybrid MNMs. Despite the great advantages, to the best of our knowledge, no one has ever reported the synthesis of MnO$_2$ based MNMs by cathodic electrosynthesis. What is more, no one has ever explored the synthesis of modified MnO$_2$ based MNMs.
Herein, we attempted the cathodic electroreduction for the synthesis of MnO₂ based MNMs. We demonstrate that silver modified MnO₂ micromotors could also be fabricated by cathodic co-deposition and silver modification is able to significantly enhance the performance of MnO₂ based micromotors. Ag-MnO₂ micromotors will produce benefits for environmental applications as the silver is usually used as a disinfection agent in water treatment. The manganese dioxide is widely applied as the catalyst in advanced oxidation processes for degradation of organic pollutants. In this work, graphene/Ag-MnO₂ micromotors demonstrate much better motion behaviors at 0.2% H₂O₂ with a remarkable high speed of 88 ± 46 µm s⁻¹ and a speed up to 1237 ± 205 µm s⁻¹ in 10% H₂O₂. By adjusting a surfactant content from 0.1% to 5% in 0.5% H₂O₂, the average speed of graphene/Ag-MnO₂ tubular micromotors could be regulated from 0 to 572 ± 315 µm s⁻¹. The surfactant regulation of speed in a wide span as well as the high speeds of the graphene/Ag-MnO₂ at a very low content of fuel suggest that the Ag-MnO₂ based MNMs, along with the simple cathodic electrodeposition, pave a new strategy for fabrication of low-cost and high-performance MNMs and their use at a very low fuel concentration.

4.2. Experimental section

4.2.1 Materials and reagents

Potassium permanganate, silver nitrate, sodium sulfate, ethanol, dichloromethane, sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), and sulfuric acid (98%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. H₂O₂ (30%) was purchased from ROWE Scientific Australia. Aluminum oxide paste was purchased from Kemet, NSW, Australia. Porous polycarbonate (PC) membranes with an average pore diameter of 5 µm were purchased from Whatman Inc., NY,
USA. Ultrapure water (Milli-Q) was used in all experiments. Nano-sized graphene oxide (GO) was purchased from graphene supermarket, New York, USA.

4.2.2 Fabrication of MnO₂ based micromotors

Graphene wrapped MnO₂ based micromotors were fabricated using a template-assisted electrochemical deposition protocol. A cyclopore polycarbonate membrane containing 5 µm conical-shaped micropores (Whatman, NY, USA) was employed as the template. An 80 nm of gold film was first deposited on one side of the porous membranes to serve as the working electrode using an Emitech K950X gold evaporator and performed at room temperature under a high vacuum of below 1×10⁻³ mBar at a direct current of 6 A. The deposition rate was about 1 nm s⁻¹. A customized plating cell was used in all electrochemical deposition processes. The membrane was assembled in a self-designed plating cell with an aluminum foil serving as the contact for the working electrode. Electrochemical deposition was carried out using an electrochemical workstation (Zennium Zahner, Germany). A Pt wire and Ag/AgCl with 3M KCl were used as the counter and reference electrodes, respectively. A mixed solution of 0.1 mg mL⁻¹ nano-sized graphene oxide in 0.5 M of Na₂SO₄ and 0.1 M H₂SO₄ was prepared as the electrolyte for the electrochemical growth of graphene outer layer. The graphene oxide in the solution was reduced by a cyclic voltammetry (CV) method from 0.3 to -1.5 V for five cycles. After washing with 10 mL of ultrapure water for three times, the inner MnO₂ layer was deposited using a galvanostatic (GS) method at a current of -1 or -1.5 mA for 20 min, respectively, which equals to 1.2 and 1.8 C of charge transferred. For the cathodic reduction deposited MnO₂ inner layer, 1.2 C of charge transfer is the optimal value for the synthesis of graphene wrapped MnO₂ based microtubes. Galvanostatic
deposition at -1.5 mA for 20 min results in the total closure of the microtubes, forming the graphene wrapped microrods architecture. For MnO₂ deposition, the electrolyte solution was 20 mM KMnO₄. For silver modified MnO₂ based micromotors, the solution contains 2 mM of AgNO₃ and 20 mM KMnO₄. Following the electroreduction deposition, the gold layers were removed by hand polishing with alumina slurry. Then the templates were dissolved in dichloromethane for 15 min to release micromotors. Finally, the micromotors were collected by centrifugation at 7000 rpm for 3 min while being repeatedly washed with dichloromethane, ethanol and ultrapure water for three times each. The ultrasonication process was carried out using a Unisonics ultrasonication cleaner (Model FXP12D), and the centrifugation was carried out using an Eppendorf centrifuge 5430. All the micromotors were stored in ultrapure water at room temperature for further use.

4.2.3 Characterization of the micromotors

Scanning electronic microscopy (SEM/EDS) analysis was conducted using a Zeiss 1555 VP-FESEM with a field emission electron gun and the Oxford EDS detector operated by the Aztec software. SEM images were taken at the acceleration voltages from 2 to 5 kV. EDS analysis was taken using the coupled Oxford detector of the microscope and operated by the Aztec software at an acceleration voltage of 15 kV. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was carried out on a thermos ESCALAB 250 XPS microscope with monochromatic Al-Kα X-rays at a photon energy of 1486.7 eV. The measurement was carried out using a Kratos AXIS Ultra DLD system under UHV conditions with a base pressure of less than 1×10⁻⁹ mBar. The spectra were acquired with the pass energy of 20 eV and fitted using CasaXPS software. All the spectra were calibrated to yield a primary C 1s component at 284.6 eV with the Shirley background, and the
component fitting was applied by Voigt functions with 30% Lorentzian component.

4.2.4 Motion behavior observation

A transparent plastic petri dish (Part No. P35G-1.5-10-C, Mat Tek Corporation, MA, USA) with the holed bottom covered by a thin glass slide was used as the container to prepare different fuel concentrations for observation of motion behavior. A 10 mm diameter bottom hole of the 35 mm diameter plastic petri dish was covered by a thin glass slide, which formed a shallow well-like hollow structure with a volume of approximately 75-80 µL. SDS was used as the surfactant for motion behavior observation in all experiments. Optical microscopy videos and images were obtained using an Olympus IX81 inverted microscope with a Nikon digital sight DS-2Mv camera connected to a computer and operated by the Nikon NIS-Elements software. Motion videos were recorded at 12.5 frames per second using a 4X objective. The time interval between two frames is 0.08 s. For each of the data points in the speed profile figures, at least 50 measurements were taken into account. The error bars stand for the standard deviation. To minimize the effect of fuel depletion, only the videos recorded at the first 5 minutes after fuel added were taken into account for speed calculation. Free Fiji software was used to calculate the speed of micromotors, edit videos and extract pictures. A digital hand-held "Pocket" H₂O₂ refractometer (Model: Atago, PAL-39S) was used to calibrate the concentrations of H₂O₂ solutions.
4.3 Results and discussion

Figure 4.1. Schematic illustration of the fabrication process of the erGO/MnO\textsubscript{2} based micromotors.

The micromotors were constructed by a two-step electroreduction deposition processes as shown in Figure 4.1. Firstly, an outer layer of electrochemically reduced graphene oxide (erGO) was formed by depositing nanosized graphene oxide (GO) onto the pores of the membrane by a cyclic voltammetry method\textsuperscript{47}. The graphene oxide is the substrate for the growth of the second catalytic layers. The graphene layer also serves as the inert layer to shield the outside reactions of catalytic layers, making the catalytically generated oxygen bubbles confined in the microtubes. Due to the large quantities of functional groups remained on the graphene oxide layer, the inner catalyst layer tends to grow on a rough surface with potentially enhanced catalytic performance. The reduced graphene oxide layer could be used as an adsorbent for adsorption of metal ions in the aquatic environment. Secondly, an inner layer of MnO\textsubscript{2} or
silver-modified MnO₂ was produced by the galvanostatic cathodic electroreduction. For the silver-modified MnO₂ micromotors, the electroreduction of MnO₄⁻ ions and Ag⁺ ions occur simultaneously. The inner layer deposition parameters were optimized for the synthesis of rod-shaped and tubular micromotors.

Figure 4.S1. Scanning electron microscope (SEM) and energy dispersive X-ray spectrum (EDX) mapping analysis of the erGO/MnO₂ micromotors: (a) image of a well-formed microtube, (b) image showing a number of microtubes, (c) a microrod, (d) an upright microtube, (e) EDX analysis of a microtube, illustrating the distributions of carbon (red), oxygen (light blue) and manganese (blue).

Figure 4.S1 demonstrates that erGO/MnO₂ micromotors in microrods and microtubes are fabricated successfully. The graphene/MnO₂ microtubes
were electrodeposited at a cathode current of -1 mA for 20 min, meanwhile, the graphene wrapped microrods were synthesized at -1.5 mA for 20 min. The increased cathode current resulted in the transformation of microtubes to microrods. Figure 4.S1a shows a well-formed micromotor with about 5 µm in diameter and about 12 µm in length. Figure 4.S1b shows that large quantities of the erGO/MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors were obtained. Figure 4.S1c presents the image of a graphene wrapped microrod micromotor. The outer diameter and geometry of the microrods are the same as the microtubes. Figure 4.S1d gives the image of an upright graphene/MnO$_2$ microtube micromotor. Wang et al.$^{47}$ reported the similar microstructures of graphene/Pt and graphene/Au tubular microengines. Here we demonstrate that the rough porous inner surface could also be constructed by electrochemically plated metal oxide. This microstructure can be attributed to the presence of high density of in-plane and grain-boundary defects of the outer erGO layer, providing a perfect substrate for the nucleation and growth of MnO$_2$ layer by the cathodic electroreduction. The inner surface of the microstructure offers more reaction sites for the decomposition of fuel. The H$_2$O$_2$ solution is decomposed preferably on the inner surface of the microtubes to restrict the formed bubbles inside the microtubes. The continuous recoil of the bubbles from the opening of the microtubes provides the required propelling force for these micromotors to navigate in the fluid environment. Figure 4.S1e shows the elemental mapping of an individual graphene/MnO$_2$ microtube micromotor. The uniform carbon distribution on the surface further confirms the good coverage of the graphene layer. The oxygen element is from the erGO outer layer and MnO$_2$ inner layer. The manganese is from the cathodic reduction deposited MnO$_2$ layer only.
Table 4.S1. Various functional groups identified on the surface of erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spectra</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Position (eV)</th>
<th>at. %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C 1s</td>
<td>C-C/C-H/C=C</td>
<td>284.6</td>
<td>65.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 1s</td>
<td>C-O</td>
<td>286.18</td>
<td>22.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 1s</td>
<td>C=O</td>
<td>287.94</td>
<td>6.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 1s</td>
<td>O-C=O</td>
<td>290.30</td>
<td>5.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>Metal Oxide</td>
<td>529.98</td>
<td>20.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>O-H</td>
<td>531.78</td>
<td>30.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>C=O</td>
<td>532.82</td>
<td>34.56</td>
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<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>O-C=O</td>
<td>533.98</td>
<td>13.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.S2. Comparison of the speeds of three erGO/MnO$_2$ based tubular micromotors in 3% H$_2$O$_2$ and 1% SDS as the surfactant.
**Figure 4.2.** SEM and EDX mapping analysis of the erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors: (a) image of a well-formed upright microtube micromotor, (b) image of a lying microtube micromotor, (c) image showing a number of microtubes micromotors, (d) an individual microrod micromotor, (e) an upright and two lying microrod micromotor, (f) a number of microrods micromotors, (g) EDX analysis of an individual microtube micromotor, illustrating the distribution of carbon (red), oxygen (light blue), manganese (blue) and silver (magenta).

Figure 4.2 indicates that erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors in microtube and microrod are fabricated successfully. Figure 4.51 shows the results of erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors. Compared with the smooth tubular microengines, erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ microengines exhibit a large surface area of electrochemically active sites for potentially enhanced catalytic activity. The co-deposition of silver and MnO$_2$ generates a slightly thicker and more porous microstructure and the length of the erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors are slightly shorter than erGO/MnO$_2$. The uniform distribution of carbon, oxygen, manganese, and silver demonstrates that the silver-modified MnO$_2$ micromotors are fabricated successfully with a good coverage by graphene layers.
Figure 4.3. XPS surveys of micromotors. (a) Wide scan showing Mn 2p, O 1s and C 1s peaks of the erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors. (b) High-resolution C 1s XPS spectra of erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors. (c) High-resolution O 1s spectra of erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors. (d) High-resolution Mn 2p XPS spectra of erGO/MnO$_2$ micromotors. (e) Wide scan showing Mn 2p, Ag 3d, O 1s and C 1s peaks of the erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors. (f) High-resolution C 1s XPS spectra of erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors. (g) High-resolution O 1s spectra of erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors. (h) High-resolution Mn 2p XPS spectra of erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors. (i) High-resolution Ag 3d XPS spectra of erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors.
As shown in Figure 4.3 and Table 4.S1-S2, XPS surveys further reveal the presence of carbon (C 1s peak), oxygen (O 1s peak), manganese (Mn 2p peak) and silver (Ag 3d peak) in the MnO$_2$ based micromotors, which are in good agreement with the EDX results. Compared with the unmodified MnO$_2$ based micromotors, the silver-modified ones show a distinct Ag 3d peak. Both wide scan surveys show that the O 1s peak is higher than the C 1s peak, which is typical characteristics for GO$^{21}$. The peaks of high-resolution C 1s spectra (Figure 4.3b and Figure 4.3f) and O 1s spectra (Figure 4.3c and Figure 4.3g) correspond to the binding energy of various

### Table 4.S2. Various functional groups identified on the surface of erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spectra</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Position (eV)</th>
<th>at. %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C 1s</td>
<td>C-C/C-H/C=C</td>
<td>284.62</td>
<td>65.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 1s</td>
<td>C-O</td>
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<td>22.93</td>
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<td>C 1s</td>
<td>C=O</td>
<td>287.96</td>
<td>6.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 1s</td>
<td>O-C=O</td>
<td>290.32</td>
<td>5.25</td>
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<td>O 1s</td>
<td>Metal Oxide</td>
<td>529.49</td>
<td>34.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>O-H</td>
<td>531.29</td>
<td>13.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>C=O</td>
<td>532.34</td>
<td>30.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>O-C=O</td>
<td>533.50</td>
<td>20.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
functional groups such as C-C/C-H/C=C, C-OH, C=O, and O-C=O, revealing the nature of the covalent bonds of oxygen and carbon atoms. The ratios of oxygen functional groups to all the carbon species are 34.29% and 34.25% for erGO/MnO₂ and erGO/Ag-MnO₂ micromotors, respectively, which denote the degree of oxidation of the outer layer of the micromotors. Although various oxygen functional groups are identified on these cathodically electrodeposited MnO₂ based micromotors, the degree of oxidation is much lower than the value of our previous fabricated micromotors by anodic oxidation electrodeposition. Due to the second electroreduction deposition of MnO₂ based inner materials, the erGO outer layer is partially reduced, resulting in the decrease of the oxidation degree. The oxidation state of Mn can be examined by the Mn 2p high-resolution XPS spectra (Figure 4.3d and Figure 4.3h). In both the spectra, the Mn 2p₃/2 peaks were located at 642.5 and 642.6 eV, which indicates that the main oxidation state of Mn in all the manganese oxides are Mn⁴⁺. In both the cases, the difference of binding energy between Mn 2p₃/2 and Mn 2p₁/2 is 11.48 eV. The results are in a good agreement with previously reported values, which further confirms the electrodeposited materials are MnO₂. Figure 4.3i shows the high-resolution XPS spectra of Ag 3d peaks of the erGO/Ag-MnO₂ micromotors. The binding energies of Ag 3d₅/2 and Ag 3d₃/2 are 367.96 and 373.98 eV, indicating that the silver is in metallic form (Ag⁰), which is also in a good agreement with previously reported values.⁴⁹ The zero valence of the silver is also due to the electroreduction deposition process. Therefore, the XPS spectra further confirmed the elemental constitution and the valence state of the erGO/MnO₂ and erGO/Ag-MnO₂ micromotors.
Figure 4.4. Time-lapse images depicting efficient propulsion of the MnO$_2$ based micromotors in 1% SDS. Blue arrowed lines indicate the directions and trajectories of the motion. (a) The small circular motion of an erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotor in 0.2% H$_2$O$_2$. (b) Linear motion of an erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotor in 0.3% H$_2$O$_2$. (c) The large circular motion of an erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotor in 0.5% H$_2$O$_2$. (d) Helical motion behaviors of an erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotor in 1% H$_2$O$_2$. (e) Ultra-fast elliptic orbit motion behaviors of an erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotor in 4% H$_2$O$_2$. (f) Irregular motion behaviors of an erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotor in 10% H$_2$O$_2$. (g) The circular motion of an erGO/MnO$_2$ tubular micromotor in 3% H$_2$O$_2$. (h) The irregular motion of an erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ microrod micromotor in 3% H$_2$O$_2$. (i) The irregular motion of an erGO/MnO$_2$ microrod micromotor in 4% H$_2$O$_2$. Scale bars: 100 µm.
**Figure 4.S3.** The lifetime of the erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors in 0.3% SDS and 0.5% H$_2$O$_2$. The insets show the motion trajectories of the micromotor at different stages in 2 seconds. Scale bars: 100 µm.

Typical time-lapse images captured from the videos of the moving microtubes and microrods are presented in Figure 4.4. Besides irregular motion trajectory, various motion patterns were recognized. The erGO/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors show fast speeds and complex motion trajectories in H$_2$O$_2$ as low as 0.2%. The extraordinary high-performance in a low content of the fuel is attributed to the synergistic effect between Ag and MnO$_2$ and a large catalytic area offered by the hierarchically porous and rough inner surface of the micromotors for the decomposition of H$_2$O$_2$. The tubular microengines show diverse motion patterns at a relatively low fuel concentration range, while the rod-shaped micromotors only exhibit irregular motion trajectories at a higher fuel content. At a very high concentration of fuels, the tubular micromotors show irregular motion trajectories because the violent catalytic reactions and the discontinuous bubble ejection processes will result in the turbulence of the propelling force vectors, thus affecting the motion directions. The microrod micromotors were propelled by the generated microbubbles at the different sides of these microrods. Due to the imbalanced bubble
generation and the unequal propelling force generated at the different sides of the microrods, these rod-shaped micromotors usually show irregular motion behavior.

**Figure 4.5.** Dependence of average speed of graphene wrapped cathodically deposited MnO₂ and co-deposited Ag-MnO₂ micromotors in the presence of 1% SDS surfactant (n = 50). The average speed of erGO/Ag-MnO₂ microtube micromotors (a), erGO/MnO₂ microtube micromotors (b), and comparison of the speed profile of erGO/Ag-MnO₂ (black bars) and erGO/MnO₂ (lined bar) microrod micromotors (c).
As demonstrated in Figure 4.5, the speed of the micromotors increases with increased H₂O₂ fuels. The performances of the catalytic MNMs were compared and summarized in Table 4.S3 and Figure 4.S3. The speed of erGO/Ag-MnO₂ tubular microengines is better than Pt-based micromotors in a low level of peroxide. The erGO/Ag-MnO₂ microrockets can propel at speeds of 88 ± 46, 151 ± 68, 317 ± 206, and 365 ± 124 µm s⁻¹ in 0.2%, 0.3%, 0.5%, and 1% H₂O₂ fuels, respectively. The ultra-high speed of erGO/Ag-MnO₂ micromotors demonstrate that the hierarchically porous inner layers of erGO/Ag-MnO₂ are more efficient than the rough Pt surface of erGO/Pt microengines (88 vs 81 µm s⁻¹) and far more efficient than the smooth Pt layer of PANI/Pt microengines (88 vs 25 µm s⁻¹) at 0.2% H₂O₂. More favorably, the erGO/Ag-MnO₂ tubular microengines reach a high speed of 317 ± 206 µm s⁻¹ in 0.5% H₂O₂, while the speeds of erGO/Pt and PANI/Pt microengines were only 170 ± 40 and 123 ± 21.4 µm s⁻¹, respectively. The average speed of erGO/Ag-MnO₂ tubular micromotors continues to increase from 381 ± 126 to 904 ± 296 µm s⁻¹ upon raising H₂O₂ levels from 2 to 5% and further reaches 1237 ± 205 µm s⁻¹ at 10% H₂O₂. The average speed of graphene/Pt tubular micromotors rises from 390 ± 80 to 1700 ± 200 µm s⁻¹ as the fuel content increases from 1% to 3%, which means that at higher contents of fuel, the Pt-based micromotors are moving much faster than the MnO₂ based micromotors. The reasons for this phenomenon are attributed to the degradation of the MnO₂ based catalysts by the highly oxidizing H₂O₂ fuel at high concentrations, whereas the noble metal Pt catalysts are very inert and stable even at high contents of the oxidizing fuels. Previously, Mei et al. theoretically developed an equation of average speed for the cylindrical-shaped tubular micromotors. Later, Li et al. developed a hydrodynamic model for the speed prediction of conically shaped micromotors, which considered the bubble geometric asymmetry and buoyancy force.
Herein, as the high-performance micromotors developed in this work are cylindrical microtubes, we can adopt the body deformation model to analyze the motion of the MnO$_2$ based microengines. This method has been applied by to analyze graphene/Pt and polymer/Pt based tubular microengines $^{47}$. The analysis provides a good reference for us to elucidate the motion mechanism at different fuel concentrations. According to this model, the speed should be linearly proportional to the concentration of hydrogen peroxide concentrations, while the bubble size and frequency also affect the movement speeds of the tubular microengines. Due to the similar size (Length $L \approx 10$ µm and inner opening radius $R_i \approx 2.2$ µm) of our developed MnO$_2$ based tubular micromotors with the Pt-based tubular micromotors from Wang’s group, it is possible to refer to their calculations to analyze the results of our micromotors. Here, $R_b$ is the radius of the bubbles. It seems that at a low peroxide concentration below 1%, the graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ micromotors fit well with the curve of $R_b = R_i/5$ and $R_b = R_i/4$. At increases fuel levels, the speed of graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ microtubes fits well with the curves between $R_b = R_i/3$ and $R_b = R_i/2$ as the fuel levels rise from 2% to 5%. At further higher fuel levels, the radius of bubbles falls to fit the curve of larger bubbles of $R_b = R_i/2$ and even more. It seems that, as the fuel content rises, the bubble sizes show an increasing tendency, and the bubble frequency shows a decreasing tendency. The merits of the Ag-MnO$_2$ catalyzed micromotors are the relatively high bubble frequency and small bubble size at low peroxide levels. As illustrated in Figure 4.5b, the speed of erGO/MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors increases from 134 ± 55 µm s$^{-1}$ in 1% H$_2$O$_2$ to 809 ± 242 µm s$^{-1}$ in 15% H$_2$O$_2$. The erGO/MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors are also faster and more efficient than some of the Pt-based $^{53}$ and MnO$_2$ based micromotors reported before $^{44}$, implying that the cathodically electrodeposited MnO$_2$ MNMs are far more efficient than those from
anodic electrodeposition. Similar results were also demonstrated by the graphene/MnO₂ tubular micromotors as the fuel levels rise from 1% to 15% H₂O₂. At 1% fuel level, the speed of pure MnO₂ catalyzed microtubes fits well with the curve between Rᵣ = Rᵣ/3 and Rᵣ = Rᵣ/2. Later, the bubble size shows an increasing tendency as the fuel level rises, while the expelling frequency shows a decreasing trend. The following reasons account for the good motion performance of the Ag-MnO₂ catalyzed micromotors by theoretical calculations and fitting of the speeds of micromotors with the theoretical curves. The small bubble size and high bubble expelling frequency explained the high mobility at low fuel contents. The synergetic effect of the Ag-MnO₂ catalyst and the high catalytic areas offered by the rough inner surface accounts for the good catalytic performance for generating small microbubbles at low fuel levels. What is more, the cathodic electroreduction fabrication provides additional benefits by avoiding the oxidation and dissolution of the substrate in commonly used anodic electrodeposition, thus paves the way for designing various modified MnO₂ based hybrid MNMs. A comparison of the speeds of the erGO/Ag-MnO₂ and erGO/MnO₂ microrods is presented in Figure 4.5c. It is shown that, at a low fuel concentration range below 5% H₂O₂, the speed of rod-shape erGO/Ag-MnO₂ micromotors are faster than the erGO/MnO₂ micromotors, while at a high fuel concentration range above 10% H₂O₂, the speed of erGO/Ag-MnO₂ microrod micromotors are slower than the unmodified erGO/MnO₂ microrod micromotors, attributing to the poisoning of Ag by concentrated H₂O₂. At a high concentration of H₂O₂ fuel, the silver metal suffers from oxidation. Hence, the speeds of the rod-shaped Ag-MnO₂ catalyzed micromotors are lower than MnO₂ based micromotors. While this is not the case for the tubular micromotors. Although the silver component experiences the oxidation and deactivation by the high concentration of
H$_2$O$_2$ fuel, the high-speed flows of the inner tube fluid and bubbles would exfoliate the silver oxides and leave the inner catalytic materials to be the fresh and newly generated Ag-MnO$_2$ catalysts, thus leading to higher speeds than MnO$_2$ based microtubes. As we observed that at a high content of H$_2$O$_2$, Ag-MnO$_2$ catalyzed tubular micromotors are moving much faster than MnO$_2$ catalyzed microtube micromotors.

**Figure 4.6.** Dependence of average speed of graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors with varying SDS content in 0.5% H$_2$O$_2$ (n=50) (a); time-lapse images showing an ultrafast graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors in 5% SDS and 0.5% H$_2$O$_2$. (b) Scale bar: 100 μm.
Table 4.S3. Comparison of the catalytic MNMs.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Type of the micro-/nanomotor</th>
<th>Ref.</th>
<th>Size [µm]</th>
<th>Fuel concentration range (H₂O₂)</th>
<th>Average speed/µm s⁻¹</th>
<th>Max. speed reported/µm s⁻¹</th>
<th>Max. relative speed (bl s⁻¹)</th>
<th>Efficiency or propelling force (pN)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rolled up Ti/Cr/Pt microtubes</td>
<td>Sanchez and Schmidt et al.⁵⁴</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0.25-5% (v/v)</td>
<td>140-10000 at 37°C</td>
<td>10000</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multilayered microrockets</td>
<td>Li and Zhang et al.⁵⁴</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1-5%</td>
<td>285-1410</td>
<td>1410</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pt/Pt-CNT nanowires</td>
<td>Wang et al.⁵⁵</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Au/Pt nanorods</td>
<td>Wang et al.⁵⁶</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cu/Pt conc. bimetallic microtubes</td>
<td>Zhao and Pumera et al.³⁷</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.2-3%</td>
<td>70-700</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>70</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cu/Ag segmented bimetallic tubular micromotors</td>
<td>Pumera et al.³⁸</td>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>0.5-3%</td>
<td>13.1-252.4</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>2.52×10⁹</td>
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<td>Ag and MnO₂ microparticles</td>
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<td>Ag≈30 MnO₂≈5</td>
<td>0.1-12%</td>
<td>25-100</td>
<td>50-120</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Au/Graphene/MnO₂</td>
<td>Feng and Ma et al.⁵³</td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>0.15-2.5%</td>
<td>15.79-44.79</td>
<td>111.03</td>
<td>27.69</td>
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<td>PEDOT/MnO₂ microtubes &amp; microrods</td>
<td>Saldar and Janis et al.⁵⁹</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>5-15</td>
<td>Tubes 200-510</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
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<tr>
<td>And MnO₂@MnCO₃</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>5-15</td>
<td>Rods 200-410</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>180</td>
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<td>Graphene/Pt</td>
<td>Wang et al.⁵⁷</td>
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<td>0.1-3</td>
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<td>MnO₂ hallow</td>
<td>Saldar and Janis et al.⁴⁴</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>321-996</td>
<td>1625</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
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<td>PANI/Pt microtubes</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>0.2-5</td>
<td>25-1410</td>
<td>3000</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>45 pN</td>
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<tr>
<td>PEDOT/Pt bilayer microtubes</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10000 at 37°C</td>
<td>10000 at 3375 at 20°C</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/Pt bilayer</td>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>67</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>PPY/Pt-Ni alloy</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>470</td>
<td>1500</td>
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<td>Au/Pt bimetallic microbots</td>
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<td>10</td>
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<td>Paper tubular microjet engines</td>
<td>Singh and Mandal et al.⁵¹</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>9-16</td>
<td>270-1600</td>
<td>1600</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>PEDOT/MnO₂</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>0.4-10</td>
<td>31.57-318.80</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/PtNP@CNT-Py</td>
<td>Li and Wu et al.⁵³</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1-15</td>
<td>62-450</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>10 pN</td>
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<td>Porous Ti/Cr/Pt micromotors</td>
<td>Mei et al.³³</td>
<td>10-40</td>
<td>0.2-7</td>
<td>120-1077</td>
<td>&gt;1500</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>erGO/MnO₂ microtubes</td>
<td>Our previous work⁴⁵</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3-15</td>
<td>77-466</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>36 pN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erGO/MnO₂ microrods</td>
<td>This work</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3-15</td>
<td>224-609</td>
<td>1149</td>
<td>95.8</td>
<td>43.5 pN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erGO/MnO₂ microtubes</td>
<td>This work</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1-15</td>
<td>134-809</td>
<td>1427</td>
<td>118.9</td>
<td>58 pN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>This work</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3-15</td>
<td>261-539</td>
<td>987</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>38.5 pN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erGO/Ag-MnO₂ microtubes</td>
<td>This work</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.2-10</td>
<td>88-1237</td>
<td>1888</td>
<td>209.8</td>
<td>90 pN</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Taking the microengines as a cylinder microrod, we can adopt the Stokes’ drag theory to estimate the drag force or propelling force roughly by the following equation:\(^50,53\).

\[
F_d = \frac{2\pi \mu U L}{\ln(L/a) - 1/2}
\] (1)

Where \(F_d\) is the fluid resistance, \(U\) is the speed of the microengines, \(\mu\) is the fluid dynamic viscosity, and \(L\) and \(a\) are the length and radius of the micromotors, respectively. The estimated drag forces for the four types of micromotors are presented in Table 4.S3, which also summarizes the speed profile of different MNMs reported so far. The estimated drag force for the erGO/Ag-MnO\(_2\) micromotors is 90 pN, which is two-fold as high as that of the PANI/Pt tubular microengines and 8 times larger than the polymer micromotors doped with Pt nanoparticle@carbon nanotubes\(^50,53\).

The strong drag force exerted by these micromotors is sufficient enough for towing large cargos such as cells. The strong propelling force could be utilized as a powerful tool to penetrate biological tissues such as tumor outer shell for the delivery of anti-cancer drugs. The advantages of the erGO/Ag-MnO\(_2\) tubular micromotors are the higher speed over any Pt catalyzed MNMs at a low \(\text{H}_2\text{O}_2\) fuel concentration range such as 0.5% \(\text{H}_2\text{O}_2\) and better environmental tolerance nature, as it already has been proved by other researchers that the efficient motion behaviors of the MnO\(_2\) based micromotors in biological as well as salt-rich aquatic environment\(^43,44\).

The effect of SDS surfactant concentrations on the motion of erGO/Ag-MnO\(_2\) micromotors at 0.5% \(\text{H}_2\text{O}_2\) is illustrated in Figure 4.6. It is very interesting that at this low content of the fuel, the speed of erGO/Ag-MnO\(_2\) could be regulated from 0 to 572 \(\mu\text{m s}^{-1}\) by adjusting the content of the
The micromotors are not moving in 0.1% SDS and start to move at a low speed of 78 ± 22 µm s^{-1} in 0.2% SDS. The critical micelle concentration (CMC) of SDS is ~0.24% \textsuperscript{63}. Below the CMC, the surface tension of the fluid is too high to wet the micromotors for efficient propulsion. Upon reaching the CMC, the speed of micromotors increases to 254 ± 170 µm s^{-1} at 0.3%, and gradually to 317 ± 206 µm s^{-1} as the SDS concentration increases to 1%. Further increasing the surfactant concentration to 5%, the average speed of micromotors reaches its acme of 572 ± 315 µm s^{-1}. Under this optimized conditions, the maximum speed of an individual micromotor exceeds 1.3 mm s^{-1}. (Figure 4.6b, time-lapse images) At high concentrations of the surfactant, the fluid viscosity would increase significantly. Due to the effect of fluid viscous resistance, further enhancing the surfactant content decreases the speed of micromotors.

It is noteworthy that the surfactant-assisted wide span speed regulation has never been observed before. This may lead to some fascinating applications, such as active cargo delivery, drilling of biological tissues, motion-based sensing, and detection of an analyte, fast separation of chemicals, and diagnosis of diseases due to its noticeable speed variation and extraordinary high performance at a low content of fuels. Moreover, an erGO/Ag-MnO\textsubscript{2} micromotor shows the continuous motion of nearly 26 min in 0.3% SDS and 0.5% H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} (Figure 4.S3), demonstrating a good lifetime of the micromotors.

As the propelling force and output power of micromotors are proportional to the velocity and the square of velocity, the average speed of erGO/Ag-MnO\textsubscript{2} micromotors is 3.4-fold of the fastest graphene/Pt micromotors (572 vs 170 µm s^{-1} in 0.5% H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}), which means that the propelling force and output power of erGO/Ag-MnO\textsubscript{2} micromotors are 3.4 and 10 times as
high as the values of the Pt-catalyzed micromotor. The speed regulation has long been a pursuit for the MNMs researchers. Geometry design and temperature adjusting have been tested for the tuning of MNMs’ motion.\textsuperscript{33, 34} Here, we introduce a new variable for wide span speed regulation at a low content of fuels, which will lead to various practical applications from biomedical to environmental science. Due to the toxicity of H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} to the biological tissues as well as natural waterbody microorganisms, a high concentration of the fuel is strictly prohibited.

4.4 Conclusions

We demonstrated that Ag-MnO\textsubscript{2} based micromotors with an exceptional high-performance can be produced by a simple and low-cost template assisted cathodic electroreduction deposition. The cathodically electrodeposited MnO\textsubscript{2} based micromotors show better performance than those from anodic deposition. The intrinsic higher catalytic performance and good geometry shape of the tubular MnO\textsubscript{2} based micromotors result in higher speeds at low peroxide contents. The synergistic effect of co-deposited silver and MnO\textsubscript{2} components generated the higher catalytic efficiency than Pt in a low content of H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}. What is more, by regulating the surfactant content to 5\% in 0.5\% H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}, the average speed of erGO/Ag-MnO\textsubscript{2} tubular micromotors reaches its acme of 572 ± 315 \(\mu\text{m s}^{-1}\) and the highest speed of individual micromotor exceeds 1.3 mm s\(^{-1}\). The Ag-MnO\textsubscript{2} based MNMs provide an excellent platform for high-performance motion, which can be used in a wide range of applications in analysis, sensing, diagnostic, monitoring, active cargo delivery, biological entities manipulation, and nano surgeries. The cathodic reduction fabrication also paves the way for designing various hybrid MNMs to meet specific needs and address diverse issues.
References


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Chapter 5. High-Performance Pt-Free Microengines at Extremely Low Peroxide Levels

Abstract

Herein, we demonstrate that iron oxide modified MnO$_2$ (FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$) catalyzed micromotors can be fabricated by electrochemical co-reduction and that they exhibit exceptional high-performance at an extremely low hydrogen peroxide (H$_2$O$_2$) fuel concentration. We observed that the graphene/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ microtubes could show motion behaviors at as low as 0.03% H$_2$O$_2$, which is nearly one order of magnitude lower than Pt-based micromotors (normally at around 0.2% H$_2$O$_2$). Moreover, the micromotors exhibit higher speeds than any other reported catalytic micro/nanomotors (MNMs) at low peroxide levels. The FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ systems present as better catalytic MNMs, due to their excellent catalytic activity, easy fabrication, robust structure, and movement, as well as low-cost, biocompatible and abundance nature, showing a great potential for future applications.
5.1 Introduction

Micro/nanomotors (MNMs) have attracted extensive attention because of their wide potential applications in diverse areas.\textsuperscript{1-9} Due to the good catalytic activity for hydrogen peroxide (H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}) decomposition, precious rare metal platinum (Pt) has always been the most widely used catalytic material to construct the MNMs in different geometry shapes, such as micro/nano tubular engines,\textsuperscript{10-12} Janus particles,\textsuperscript{13, 14} and bi-segment nanorods.\textsuperscript{15} However, the scarcity, high cost, and deactivation of Pt render its further application. Hence, researchers are searching for new catalysts and propelling mechanisms for MNMs.\textsuperscript{16} For examples, based on hydrogen bubbles generated by reactive metals with water or acids for propulsion, the reactive MNMs have been generated but they exhibit very short lifetime and the harsh reaction conditions limit them in real applications.\textsuperscript{17} Enzyme-based MNMs were also developed in a new propulsion strategy, because of the good catalytic performance over a wide range of biocatalytic reactions in mild environmental conditions.\textsuperscript{18} Nevertheless, the enzyme-based MNMs also suffer from quick deactivation in various media and harsh environment. The sophisticated synthetic procedures and low power output also hindered their future use.

MnO\textsubscript{2} based MNMs was developed to be an alternative to Pt, due to their low-cost, good propulsion, and robust nature.\textsuperscript{16, 19} The polycrystallinity and various synthesis and modification methods provide good opportunities for researchers to design MnO\textsubscript{2} catalyzed MNMs.\textsuperscript{20} By geometry design and crystallinity tuning, some MnO\textsubscript{2}-based MNMs have been developed and tested.\textsuperscript{21} Although fruitful achievements have been made, the performance of MnO\textsubscript{2} based MNMs still cannot compete with the Pt-based MNMs due to inferior catalytic activity.\textsuperscript{22}
Herein we introduce a new catalyst for catalytic MNMs by doping MnO$_2$ with mixed valence iron oxide (denoted as FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$) by cathodic electrochemical co-deposition. We fabricated graphene/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ bilayer tubular and rod-shaped micromotors and evaluated their mobility performance. It is astounding to find that, the newly designed micromotors move much faster than any reported MNMs at a low peroxide fuel concentration below 1% H$_2$O$_2$. What is more, these MnO$_2$ based MNMs exceed the fuel concentration range limit of the Pt-based MNMs by nearly an order of magnitude, reaching an extremely low value of 0.03% H$_2$O$_2$ with an acceptable speed of 89 ± 59 µm s$^{-1}$. Due to the easiness of fabrication, high catalytic performance, low-cost, eco-friendly and biocompatible properties of the newly developed FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ catalyst, we anticipate that a range of new MNMs based on this groundbreaking new strategy could be developed, and navigated at the very favorably low content of fuels to address diverse issues not limiting to the biomedical and environmental areas.

5.2 Experimental section

5.2.1 Materials and reagents

Potassium permanganate, iron (III) nitrate, sodium sulfate, ethanol, dichloromethane, sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), and sulfuric acid (98%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Hydrogen peroxide (30%) was purchased from ROWE Scientific Australia. Aluminum oxide paste was purchased from Kemet, NSW, Australia. Porous polycarbonate (PC) membranes with an average pore diameter of 5 µm were purchased from Whatman Inc., NY, USA. Ultrapure water (Milli-Q) was used in all experiments. Nano-sized graphene oxide (GO) was purchased from graphene supermarket, New York, USA.
5.2.2 Fabrication of MnO$_2$ based micromotors

Graphene/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ based micromotors were fabricated using a template-assisted electrochemical deposition protocol. A cyclopore polycarbonate membrane containing 5 µm conical-shaped micropores (Whatman, NY, USA) was employed as the template. An 80 nm of gold film was first deposited on one side of the porous membranes to serve as the working electrode using an Emitech K950X gold evaporator and performed at room temperature under a high vacuum of below 1×10$^{-3}$ mBar at a direct current of 6 A. The deposition rate was about 1 nm s$^{-1}$. A customized plating cell was used in all electrochemical deposition processes.

The membrane was assembled in a self-designed plating cell with an aluminum foil serving as the contact for the working electrode. Electrochemical deposition was carried out using an electrochemical workstation (Zennium Zahner, Germany). A Pt wire and Ag/AgCl with 3M KCl were used as the counter and reference electrodes, respectively. A mixed solution of 0.1 mg mL$^{-1}$ nano-sized graphene oxide in 0.5 M of Na$_2$SO$_4$ and 0.1 M H$_2$SO$_4$ was prepared as the electrolyte for the electrochemical growth of graphene outer layer. The graphene oxide in the solution was reduced by a cyclic voltammetry (CV) method from 0.3 to -1.5 V for five cycles.

After washing with 10 mL of ultrapure water for three times, the inner FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ catalyst was deposited using a galvanostatic (GS) method at a cathodic current of -3 mA for 10 min or 30 min, respectively, which equals to 1.8 C or 5.4 C of charge transferred. Galvanostatic deposition at -3 mA for 10 min results in the formation of tubularly shaped micromotors. Galvanostatic deposition at -3 mA for 30 min results in the total closure of micromotors.
of the microtubes, forming the graphene wrapped microrods architecture. The electrolyte contains 20 mM of Fe(NO$_3$)$_3$ and 20 mM KMnO$_4$.

Following the electroreduction deposition, the gold layer was removed by hand polishing with alumina slurry. Then the templates were dissolved in dichloromethane for 15 min to release the micromotors. Finally, the micromotors were collected by centrifugation at 7000 rpm for 3 min while being repeatedly washed with dichloromethane, ethanol and ultrapure water for three times each. The ultrasonication process was carried out using a Unisonics ultrasonication cleaner (Model FXP12D), and the centrifugation was carried out using an Eppendorf centrifuge 5430. All the micromotors were stored in ultrapure water at room temperature for further use.

5.2.3 Characterization of the micromotors

Scanning electronic microscopy (SEM/EDS) analysis was conducted using a Zeiss 1555 VP-FESEM with a field emission electron gun and the Oxford EDS detector operated by the Aztec software. SEM images were taken at the acceleration voltages from 2 to 5 kV. EDS analysis was taken using the coupled Oxford detector of the microscope and operated by the Aztec software at an acceleration voltage of 15 kV. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was carried out on a thermos ESCALAB 250 XPS microscope with monochromatic Al-K$_\alpha$ X-rays at a photo energy of 1486.7 eV. The measurement was carried out using a Kratos AXIS Ultra DLD system under UHV conditions with a base pressure of less than 1×10$^{-9}$ mBar. The spectra were acquired with the pass energy of 20 eV and fitted using CasaXPS software. All the spectra were calibrated to yield a primary C 1s component at 284.6 eV with the Shirley background, and the
component fitting was applied by Voigt functions with 30% Lorentzian component.

5.2.4 Motion behavior observation

A transparent plastic petri dish (Part No. P35G-1.5-10-C, Mat Tek Corporation, MA, USA) with the holed bottom covered by a thin glass slide was used as the container for the observation of motion behaviors. A 10 mm diameter bottom hole of the 35 mm diameter plastic petri dish was covered by a thin glass slide, which formed a shallow well-like hollow structure with a volume of approximately 75-80 µL. SDS was used as the surfactant for motion behavior observation. Optical microscopy videos were obtained using an Olympus IX81 inverted microscope with a Nikon digital sight DS-2Mv camera connected to a computer and operated by the Nikon NIS-Elements software. Motion behavior videos were recorded at about 12.5 frames per second using a 4X objective. The time interval between two frames is 0.08 s. Free Fiji software was used to calculate the speed of micromotors, edit videos and extract pictures. A digital hand-held "Pocket" H₂O₂ refractometer (Model: Atago, PAL-39S) was used to calibrate the concentrations of H₂O₂ solutions.

5.3 Results and discussion

Scheme 5.1 illustrates the fabrication process of the graphene/FeOₓ-MnO₂ micromotors. These bilayer micromotors were constructed by a two-step electrochemical deposition process. Firstly, an outer layer of electrochemically reduced graphene oxide (erGO) was formed by the deposition of graphene oxide into the pores of the membrane by a cyclic voltammetry (CV) method. Secondly, an inner layer of FeOₓ-MnO₂ catalyst was produced by the cathodically electrochemical co-deposition. The electrochemical reduction of MnO₄⁻ ions and Fe³⁺ ions occur
simultaneously. The synthetic parameters can be tailored to obtain rod-shaped and tubular micromotors.

**Scheme 5.1.** Schematic illustration of the fabrication of erGO/FeO\(_x\)-MnO\(_2\) micromotors.

Figure 5.1 indicates that erGO/FeO\(_x\)-MnO\(_2\) micromotors in microtube and microrod are fabricated successfully. Compared with the smooth tubular microengines, the inner surface of erGO/FeO\(_x\)-MnO\(_2\) microengines exhibits a larger surface area of electrochemically active sites for improving the catalytic activity.\(^{24}\) The co-deposition of iron oxide and MnO\(_2\) generates a much thinner wall. As shown in Figure 5.1A and 5.1B, the wall thickness of the tubular micromotors is far less than 1 \(\mu\)m, which demonstrates its good mechanical properties. Without good mechanical strength and toughness, these tiny micro structures are very easy to be torn apart or crushed into pieces. This implies that the doping of iron oxide improves the mechanical strength of the micromotors, allowing the formation of the thin wall structured tubular micromotors with good structural integrity. The uniform distribution of carbon, oxygen, manganese, and iron demonstrates that the inner layer of iron oxide doped MnO\(_2\) was fabricated successfully with good coverage by the outer graphene layer.
Figure 5.1. SEM and EDX mapping analysis of the erGO/FeO\textsubscript{x}-MnO\textsubscript{2} micromotors: (A) a lying microtube, (B) an upright microtube, (C) many a microtubes, (D) an array of microtubes, (E) a microrods, (F) many a microrods, (G) EDX mapping analysis of a microtube.

As illustrated in Figure 5.2, XPS survey further reveals the presence of carbon (C 1s peak), oxygen (O 1s peak), manganese (Mn 2p peaks) and iron (Fe 2p peaks). The results are in good agreement with the SEM and EDX. The peaks of high-resolution C 1s (Figure 5.2B) and O 1s spectra (Figure 5.S1) correspond to the binding energy of various functional groups, such as C-C/C-H/C=O, C-OH, C=O, and O-C=O, revealing the nature of the covalent bonds of oxygen and carbon atoms.\textsuperscript{25} The quantities of the various functional groups are summarized in Table 5.1. The ratio of sp\textsuperscript{2} carbons is at 68.33\%, which indicates the degree of oxidation of the outer layer of the micromotor.
Figure 5.2. XPS survey of the erGO/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ micromotors. (A) Wide scan showing Mn 2p, O 1s, C 1s, and Fe 2p peaks. (B) High-resolution C 1s XPS spectra. (C) High-resolution Mn 2p XPS spectra. (D) High-resolution Fe 2p XPS spectra.

Figure 5.S1. XPS results of the O1s spectra of the erGO/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ micromotors.
Table 5.1. Various functional groups identified on the surface of erGO/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ micromotors.

<table>
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<th>Spectra</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Position (eV)</th>
<th>at. %</th>
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<tr>
<td>C 1s</td>
<td>C-C/C-H/C=C</td>
<td>284.6</td>
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<tr>
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<td>C-O</td>
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<td>20.41</td>
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<td>C 1s</td>
<td>C=O</td>
<td>288.40</td>
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<td>C 1s</td>
<td>O-C=O</td>
<td>290.28</td>
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<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>Metal Oxide</td>
<td>529.89</td>
<td>36.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>O-H</td>
<td>531.44</td>
<td>26.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>C=O</td>
<td>532.70</td>
<td>24.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>O-C=O</td>
<td>533.88</td>
<td>12.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Due to a higher cathode current for reduction of the iron oxide doped MnO$_2$ catalyst, the oxidation degree is much lower than our previously designed MnO$_2$ based micromotors, which means that more graphene carbon lattice is recovered by the cathode galvanostatic electroreduction.\textsuperscript{26} The high-resolution Mn 2p XPS spectra reveal the oxidation state of Mn (Fig. 5.2C). The peaks observed at the binding energies of 642.49 and 653.93 eV were attributed to the Mn 2p with the spin-orbit splitting of 11.44 eV. The Mn 2p$_{3/2}$ peak located at 642.49 eV indicates the main oxidation state of Mn$^{4+}$.\textsuperscript{26}
Figure 5.2D shows the high-resolution XPS spectra of Fe 2p for the iron oxide doped MnO$_2$ micromotors. The peaks at binding energies of 710.9 and 724.2 eV correspond to Fe 2p$_{3/2}$ and Fe 2p$_{1/2}$, respectively.\textsuperscript{27} It can be noted that the Fe atomic distribution is a mixture of Fe$^{2+}$ (710.9 eV), and Fe$^{3+}$ (713.9 eV) with 77.5\% of the iron species as Fe$^{2+}$.\textsuperscript{28} Due to the electrochemical reduction process, Fe$^{2+}$ ions are generated, but no zero valence iron (Fe$^{0}$ peak usually exists at around 707.1 eV) was generated. Instead, a small proportion of Fe$^{3+}$ was also doped into the MnO$_2$ matrix, as shown by the peak around 713.9 eV. Hence, the inner layer catalyst can be denoted as mixed-valence iron doped MnO$_2$.

As demonstrated in Figure 5.3A, the speed of all the micromotors exhibits an increasing tendency over the entire H$_2$O$_2$ fuel range with 1\% SDS as the surfactant. The tubular micromotors demonstrate exceptionally high performance at extremely low peroxide levels. The speed of erGO/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors is 4 times faster than that of the erGO/Pt micromotors (187 ± 80 vs 37 ± 10 μm s$^{-1}$) in 0.1\% H$_2$O$_2$, which is the minimum fuel requirement for the best reported Pt catalyzed micromotors.\textsuperscript{23} What is more, the erGO/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ micromotors can easily utilize even a lower fuel concentration of 0.03\% H$_2$O$_2$ with a speed of 89 ± 59 μm s$^{-1}$, which is more than two-fold the speed of the erGO/Pt micromotors at a much higher fuel concentration of 0.1\% H$_2$O$_2$. Moreover, the minimal fuel content is two order of magnitude lower than the 3\% value of the graphene/MnO$_2$ micromotors.\textsuperscript{26} At a slightly higher fuel concentration of 3\%, the erGO/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ micromotors can easily exceed 1 mm s$^{-1}$, which is also remarkably high compared with polymer/Pt micromotors, PANI/Pt, PPy/Pt, and PEDOT/Pt, which cannot exceed 1 mm s$^{-1}$ in 3\% H$_2$O$_2$.\textsuperscript{24} The erGO/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ micromotors also exceed the
speed of all the Pt-based rolled-up multi-layer tubular micromotors and Janus motors at a relatively higher fuel content.\textsuperscript{10, 29}

As shown in Figure 5.3B, the tubular micromotors show circular motion behaviors at 0.03% H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}. Ultrafast helical and irregular motion behaviors were also observed (Figure 5.3C and 5.3D). As far as we know, Pt-based micromotors require at least 0.1% H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} for propulsion, and MnO\textsubscript{2} based micromotors demand an even higher fuel concentration, while we demonstrate here that the Pt-free mixed-valence iron oxide doped MnO\textsubscript{2} catalyzed micromotors could extend the fuel concentration to a very low threshold value of 0.03% with an acceptable velocity. The ground-breaking new catalyst along with the simple and low-cost fabrication method provides a new strategy to fabricate MNMs and will greatly boost motion in the tiny world.

As the surfactants are quite indispensable for the motion of bubble propelled tubular MNMs, the effect of the SDS surfactant on motion of FeO\textsubscript{x}-MnO\textsubscript{2} micromotors could provide insight for us to manipulate the motion behaviors.\textsuperscript{30, 31} Hence we investigated the mobility of the micromotors in 1%, 0.5%, and 0.05% H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} with different SDS concentrations, as shown in Figure 5.4A, 5.4B, and 5.4C, respectively. At an extremely low content of surfactant, the micromotors could not move, while at a very high content of the surfactant, the high viscosity of fluid would have an adverse effect on the motion to decrease the speed of micromotors. Hence, the minimal and optimal SDS surfactant contents for the micromotors at certain H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} fuel contents are important.
Figure 5.3. Speed profile of erGO/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ micromotors in 1% SDS (n = 50). Average speed of tubular micromotors (inset: rod-shape micromotor) (A); Time-lapse images of tubular micromotors in 0.03% (B), 0.3% (C), and 3% (D) H$_2$O$_2$. (Scale bars: 100 µm).

As shown in Figure 5.4, the blue bar corresponds to the minimal SDS concentration, while the red bar corresponds to the optimal surfactant content. It is interesting that as the fuel concentration drops from 1% to 0.05%, the minimal SDS concentration increases from 0.05% at 1% H$_2$O$_2$ to 0.3% at 0.5% H$_2$O$_2$ and finally reaches 0.6% at 0.05% H$_2$O$_2$. Meanwhile, the optimal SDS concentrations are 7%, 5%, and 3%, respectively. Under the optimized conditions, the speed of erGO/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors are $1102 \pm 262$ µm s$^{-1}$, $453 \pm 97$ µm s$^{-1}$, and $222 \pm 91$ µm s$^{-1}$ in 1%, 0.5%, and 0.05% H$_2$O$_2$, respectively.
Figure 5.4. Dependence of average speed of erGO/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ micromotors with varying SDS contents in 1% H$_2$O$_2$ (A); 0.5% H$_2$O$_2$ (B); and 0.05% H$_2$O$_2$ (C) (n=50).

The higher performance is usually obtained at moderate surfactant concentrations. This phenomenon can be used in sensing, detection, and motion-based analysis applications. To the best of our knowledge, the
unveiled high-speed mobility property at this low content of fuels far exceeds other reported MNMs under the same fuel conditions (Table 5.2). As the toxicity of high concentration of H$_2$O$_2$ fuels are the major obstacles for biomedical application, the iron-doped manganese oxide MNMs will show a good prospect in biomedical and environmental applications due to lower toxicity of the MNMs. The advantage of the new types of MNMs provides a new route to minimize the use of toxic fuel and surfactants thus paves the way for biomedical applications, such as drug delivery. This new strategy could also minimize the environmental impact as lower contents of fuel and surfactants are needed for efficient motion.

For such fascinating mobility performance of this new-type microengines, several effects take place. First and most importantly, the mixed valence iron doped MnO$_2$ catalyst exhibits a much high catalytic activity for H$_2$O$_2$ decomposition to produce oxygen, which gives faster generation and ejection of microbubbles. The rough inner catalytic layer also contributes to the improved catalytic performance. Secondly, the improved mechanical strength of the FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ catalyst allows for the formation of a thin-wall tubular structure, thus significantly reducing the weight of the micromotors. Thirdly, the big difference of the density between the iron oxide doped MnO$_2$ (usually the density is $\approx 5$ g/cm$^3$) and Pt (the density is $\approx 20$ g/cm$^3$) makes MnO$_2$ based MNMs much lighter than Pt-based tubular microengines. Fourthly, the ultra-thin wall of the graphene/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ tubular microengines would facilitate the fluid flow in the microtubes and minimize the effect of fluid resistance. Therefore, the structure design of the thin wall and the improved catalytic performance of the tubular microengines resulted in the exceptional high mobility at extremely low peroxide levels.
Upon fuel added, microbubbles were generated and the micromotors start to move. The lifetime of these micromotors could exceed 25 min but only the first few minutes were taken into account for the speed calculation as the depletion of fuel will have a significant effect on the speed of micromotors. At a very high content of fuels, such as 10% of H$_2$O$_2$, the fuel solution reacts very fast with the catalytic micromotors, thus the observed lifetime of micromotors is shortened due to the consumption of the catalytic materials. At a very low content of the fuel, such as 0.03% H$_2$O$_2$, although the reaction consumption of catalytic materials is not a problem, the fuel depletion will significantly affect the lifetime of these micromotors, these micromotors will stop moving very soon. Upon refuel the petri dish, these micromotors will initiate motion. What we have observed is that at moderate fuel levels and surfactant content, it is very easy for these micromotors to navigate for more than 25 min.

Taking the microengines as a cylinder microrod, we can adopt the Stokes’ drag theory to estimate the drag force or propelling force roughly by the following equation.$^{11, 32}$

$$F_d = \frac{2\pi \mu LU}{\ln(L/a) - 1/2} \quad \text{(Eq. 5.1)}$$

Where $F_d$ is the fluid resistance, $U$ is the speed of the microengines, $\mu$ is the fluid dynamic viscosity, and $L$ and $a$ are the length and radius of the micromotors, respectively. The estimated drag forces for the four types of micromotors are presented in Table 5.2, which also summarizes the speed profile of different MNMs reported so far. The estimated drag force for the graphene/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ micromotors is 6.3 pN in 0.03% H$_2$O$_2$ and 91.1 pN in 5% H$_2$O$_2$. 

139
Table 5.2. Comparison of the performance of catalytic MNMs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of the micro-/nanomotor</th>
<th>Ref.</th>
<th>Size [µm]</th>
<th>H₂O₂ fuel content [%]</th>
<th>Average speed [µm s⁻¹] at 37°C</th>
<th>Max. speed reported [µm s⁻¹]</th>
<th>Max. relative speed (bl s⁻¹)</th>
<th>Efficiency or propelling force (pN)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rolled up Ti/Cr/Pt microtubes</td>
<td>Sanchez and Schmidt et al.¹²</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0.25-5</td>
<td>140-10000 at 37°C</td>
<td>10000</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multilayered microrockets</td>
<td>Li and Zhang et al.²³</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>285-1410</td>
<td>1410</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pt-Alloy nanowires</td>
<td>Wang et al.¹⁵</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Au/Pt-CNT nanowires</td>
<td>Wang et al.²⁴</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cu/Pt concentric bimetallic microtubes</td>
<td>Zhao and Pumera et al.³⁵</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.2-3</td>
<td>70-700</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cu/Ag segmented bimetallic tubular micromotors</td>
<td>Pumera et al.³⁶</td>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>0.5-3</td>
<td>13.1-252.4</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>2.52×10⁹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ag and MnO₂ microparticles</td>
<td>Pumera et al.¹⁶</td>
<td>Ag=30</td>
<td>12-21</td>
<td>25-100</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>5.81×10⁶</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Au/Graphene/MnO₂</td>
<td>Feng and Ma et al.²⁷</td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>0.15-2.5</td>
<td>15.79-44.79</td>
<td>111.03</td>
<td>27.69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/MnO₂ microtubes &amp; microrods &amp; MnO₂@MnCO₃</td>
<td>Saldar and Janis et al.¹⁹</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>5-15</td>
<td>Tubes 200-510</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/MnO₂ microtubes &amp; microrods &amp; MnO₂@MnCO₃</td>
<td>Saldar and Janis et al.¹⁹</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>5-15</td>
<td>Rods 200-410</td>
<td>142-665</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graphene/Pt</td>
<td>Wang et al.²³</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.1-3</td>
<td>37-1700</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>170</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MnO₂ hollow</td>
<td>Saldar and Janis et al.²¹</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>321-996</td>
<td>1625</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PANI/Pt microtubes</td>
<td>Gao and Wang et al.¹¹</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.2-5</td>
<td>25-1410</td>
<td>3000</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>45 pN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/PT bilayer microtubes</td>
<td>Gao and Wang et al.²⁴</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10000 at 37°C</td>
<td>10000 at 37°C</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/PT bilayer microtubes</td>
<td>Gao and Wang et al.²⁴</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2400-3350</td>
<td>3375 at 20°C</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/PT bilayer microtubes</td>
<td>Gao and Wang et al.²⁴</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>470</td>
<td>67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/PT bilayer microtubes</td>
<td>Gao and Wang et al.²⁴</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>148.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper tubular microjet engines</td>
<td>Singh and Mandal et al.³⁸</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>9-16</td>
<td>270-1600</td>
<td>1600</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/MnO₂</td>
<td>Wang et al.³⁹</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.4-10</td>
<td>31.57-318.80</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/P(100)@CNT-PPy</td>
<td>Li and Wu et al.²⁰</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1-15</td>
<td>62-450</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>10 pN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Porous Ti/Cr/Pt microtubes</td>
<td>Mei et al.⁴⁰</td>
<td>10-40</td>
<td>0.2-7</td>
<td>120-1077</td>
<td>&gt;1500</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erGO/MnO₂ microtubes</td>
<td>Our previous work²⁶</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3-15</td>
<td>77-466</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>36 pN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erGO/FeOₓ-MnO₂ microtubes</td>
<td>This work</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.03-5</td>
<td>89-1279</td>
<td>1779</td>
<td>148.25</td>
<td>6-91 pN</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

140
5.4 Conclusions

In conclusion, we demonstrate the first example of tubular microengines that propel efficiently by the thrust of oxygen bubbles in an extremely low H$_2$O$_2$ level (0.03%), which is nearly an order of magnitude lower than the previously reported values at around 0.2%. At below 1% of H$_2$O$_2$ fuel, the graphene/FeO$_x$-MnO$_2$ micromotors can move at a far exceeded speed of any reported MNMs. Such high-performance, low-cost micromotors could greatly expand the research and applications of micro/nano scale motion tools and devices, and could thus lead to new biomedical and environmental applications for drug delivery or biological entity manipulation and environmental cleaning. In addition, the doping fabrication strategy provides a new approach to the designing of new types of MNMs.

References


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Chapter 6. Robust MnO$_2$ Based Microengines for Surfactant Independent Propulsion

Abstract

Micro/nanomotors (MNMs) have attracted tremendous research interest due to their wide potential applications in biomedicine and environmental fields. MnO$_2$ based catalysts are alternatives to platinum chemically powered MNMs due to their low cost, low toxicity, good performance, and abundance. Various MnO$_2$ based micromotors have been demonstrated in H$_2$O$_2$-surfactant driven systems, but there is no systematic investigation on the effect of different surfactants, which is a basic requirement for moving of MNMs. Herein, we choose four types of surfactants and two types of commercial detergents to investigate the influence of the surfactants on the motion behaviors of a typical graphene/MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors. The results suggested that the graphene/MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors are active nanomaterials, showing robust performance at different conditions, better than Pt-MNMs. This investigation improves our understanding of the microscaled motion of MNMs and provides a guide for the further application of the emerging MnO$_2$ based MNMs for environmental remediation.
6.1 Introduction

As a versatile tool for motion-based nanoscale operation and practice, self-propelled micro/nanomotors (MNMs) are expected to address diverse issues in biomedicine and environmental fields.¹⁻¹⁰ Tremendous proof-of-concept applications were demonstrated based on the catalytic decomposition of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) for propulsion, such as cleaning wastewater,⁸ targeted cargo delivery,¹⁰ tumor cell manipulation,⁵ and chemical sensing.¹¹ Previously, the majority of the catalytic MNMs are relying on the precious rare metal platinum (Pt) as a catalyst to decompose H₂O₂ for propulsion.¹²⁻¹⁵ Pt-based catalysts with various geometry forms, such as Janus particles,¹⁶ tubular microengines,¹⁷ bi-segment microrods,¹⁸ and Pt nanoparticles¹⁹ were incorporated as the engine part for MNMs. However, Pt-based MNMs suffer from the high-cost, scarcity, and possibility of deactivation in various media, impeding their further applications.²⁰, ²¹ MnO₂ based MNMs could circumvent the drawbacks of Pt due to the good catalytic performance, low-cost, and abundance, as well as various fabrication and modification methods.²²⁻²⁴ MnO₂ based micromotors are emerging as the next generation MNMs for many applications, such as drug delivery²⁵ and environmental cleaning.²⁶, ²⁷ Despite great efforts made to study the alternative fuel for H₂O₂, little attention has been paid to the role of a surfactant in the micro/nano scale motion. Two reports have already studied the effect of surfactants on the motion behaviors of Pt-based micromotors exclusively,²⁸, ²⁹ but no investigation has been reported on MnO₂ based micromotors. Up to now, the choice of surfactants for the MNMs are quite random.¹⁷, ³⁰, ³¹ To fully exploit MnO₂ as catalytic MNMs, it is imperative to study the role of different surfactant solutions in the motion behaviors.
Surfactants are usually amphiphilic bipolar organic compounds, which have a hydrophobic group as the tail and a hydrophilic group as the head. Previously, Pumera’s group studied the effect of surfactants on the motion behaviors of Pt-based tubular microengines. They found that the Pt-based microengines are much more active in the presence of an anionic surfactant sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) than the non-ionic surfactant Tween 20. However, the microengines lost their mobility in the presence of a cationic surfactant cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB). They suggested that the charging property affects the surfactant adsorption process. The anionic surfactant would easily adsorb onto the positively charged Pt surface of microjets due to electrostatic attraction, while the cationic surfactant CTAB has to overcome repulsion to be adsorbed onto the inner catalytic surface.

Schmidt et al. investigated the effect of surfactants on the performance of Pt-based tubular and Janus particle micromotors. The Janus particles propel at a much higher speed at a low content of surfactants, while the tubular micromotors require a much higher surfactant content to acquire the maximum speeds. The reasons for these phenomena are not totally clear, as most of the explanations are based on empirical or description reasoning. In addition, the results obtained at different research groups using different MNMs systems cannot always show consistency. Hence, a systematic investigation is needed to generate a more comprehensive insight on the role of surfactants to promote the motion at a micro scale.

Herein, we choose four types of pure surfactants and two types of commercial dishwashing liquids as the surfactants to study the influence of a surfactant on the motion of MnO₂ based tubular micromotors. The surfactants are SDS as the anionic surfactant, CTAB as the cationic surfactant, N-Dodecyl-N, N-dimethyl-3-ammonio-1-propanesulfonate
(DDPS) as a zwitterionic surfactant, and Triton-X-100 as the non-ionic surfactant. (Table 6.1) Two commercially available detergents were also chosen as the mixture of surfactants. (Table 6.2-6.3). It seems that the propulsion of MnO$_2$ based micromotors is quite independent of the surfactants, which is different from Pt-based MNMs. The speed profiles of the MnO$_2$ based micromotors in each surfactant show a similar style. After passing the minimal surfactant requirement, these micromotors speed up to its maximum value or plateau as the surfactant concentration reaches its optimal region. Then the speed of the micromotors shows a decreasing tendency as the higher surfactant levels would increase the fluid resistance. The first ever demonstrated surfactant independent propulsion phenomena paves a better way for environmental remediation strategy as well as novel biomedical applications.

6.2 Experimental section

6.2.1 Materials and reagents

Potassium permanganate, sodium sulfate, ethanol, dichloromethane, SDS, Triton-X-100, DDPS, CTAB, and sulfuric acid (98%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. H$_2$O$_2$ (30%) was purchased from ROWE Scientific Australia. Aluminum oxide paste was purchased from Kemet, NSW, Australia. Two commercial dishing washing liquids were collected from the lab, Palmolive ultra-original (denoted as Palmolive) dish wash liquid and Earth Choice dish wash Liquid – Lemon Fresh and Aloe Fresh (denoted as Earth Choice). Porous polycarbonate (PC) membranes with an average pore diameter of 5 µm were purchased from Whatman Inc., NY, USA. Ultrapure water (Milli-Q) was used in all experiments. Nano-sized graphene oxide (GO) was purchased from graphene supermarket, New York, USA.
6.2.2 Fabrication of MnO$_2$ based micromotors

Graphene wrapped MnO$_2$ based micromotors were fabricated using a template-assisted electrochemical deposition protocol. A cyclopores polycarbonate membrane containing 5 µm conical-shaped micropores (Whatman, NY, USA) was employed as the template. An 80 nm of gold film was first deposited on one side of the porous membranes to serve as the working electrode using an Emitech K950X gold evaporator and performed at room temperature under a high vacuum of below 1×10$^{-3}$ mBar at a direct current of 6 A. The deposition rate was about 1 nm s$^{-1}$. A customized plating cell was used in all electrochemical deposition processes. The membrane was assembled in a self-designed plating cell with an aluminum foil serving as the contact for the working electrode. Electrochemical deposition was carried out using an electrochemical workstation (Zennium Zahner, Germany). A Pt wire and Ag/AgCl with 3M KCl were used as the counter and reference electrodes, respectively. A mixed solution of 0.1 mg mL$^{-1}$ nano-sized graphene oxide in 0.5 M of Na$_2$SO$_4$ and 0.1 M H$_2$SO$_4$ was prepared as the electrolyte for the electrochemical growth of graphene outer layer. The graphene oxide in the solution was reduced by a cyclic voltammetry (CV) method from 0.3 to -1.5 V for five cycles. After washing with 10 mL of ultrapure water for three times, the inner MnO$_2$ layer was deposited using a galvanotactic (GS) method at a current of -1 mA for 20 min, which equals to 1.2 C of charge transferred. For the cathodic reduction deposited MnO$_2$ inner layer, 1.2 C of charge transfer is the optimal value for the synthesis of graphene wrapped MnO$_2$ based microtubes. For MnO$_2$ deposition, the electrolyte solution was 20 mM KMnO$_4$. Following the electroreduction deposition, the gold layers were removed by hand polishing with alumina slurry. Then the templates were dissolved in dichloromethane for 15 min to release
micromotors. Finally, the micromotors were collected by centrifugation at 7000 rpm for 3 min while being repeatedly washed with dichloromethane, ethanol and ultrapure water for three times each. The ultrasonication process was carried out using a Unisonics ultrasonication cleaner (Model FXP12D), and the centrifugation was carried out using an Eppendorf centrifuge 5430. All the micromotors were stored in ultrapure water at room temperature for further use.

6.2.3 Motion behaviors observation

A transparent plastic petri dish (Part No. P35G-1.5-10-C, Mat Tek Corporation, MA, USA) with a holed bottom covered by a thin glass slide was used as the container to prepare different fuel concentrations for observation of motion behavior. A 10-mm diameter bottom hole of the 35 mm diameter plastic petri dish was covered by a thin glass slide, which formed a shallow well-like hollow structure with a volume of approximately 75-80 µL. Optical microscopy videos and images were obtained using an Olympus IX81 inverted microscope with a Nikon digital sight DS-2Mv camera connected to a computer and operated by the Nikon NIS-Elements software. Motion videos were recorded at 12.5 frames per second using a 4X objective. The time interval between two frames is 0.08 s. For each of the data points in the speed profile figures, at least 50 measurements were taken into count. The error bars stand for the standard deviation. To minimize the effect of fuel depletion, only the videos recorded at the first 5 minutes after fuel added were taken into account for speed calculation. Unless otherwise stated, all the percentage about the fuel and surfactant are weight by volume (w/v %). Free Fiji software was used to calculate the speed of micromotors, edit videos and extract pictures. A digital hand-held "Pocket" H₂O₂ refractometer (Model: Atago, PAL-39S) was used to calibrate the concentrations of H₂O₂ solutions.
6.3 Results and discussions

We investigated the influence of pure surfactants on the motion behaviors of a typical MnO$_2$ based tubular micromotor. The speed variations of graphene/MnO$_2$ bilayer tubular micromotors show similar trends under the surfactant conditions with slight differences in the top speed and initial speed occurring at different minimal and optimal surfactant levels. When dissolved in water, the surfactants would adsorb at the interface between the air and water phases, and thus, significantly lower the surface tension or interfacial free energy of the fluid. The surfactant would also be adsorbed on the catalytic surface of the microengines and decrease the interfacial free energy, thus facilitating the ejection of microbubbles. Below the minimal surfactant concentration, the tubular microengines would not move. It is apparent that the surfactants play a crucial role in the motion of MNMs. Surfactants can be classified according to the charging properties of their hydrophilic heads. That is, the hydrophilic group of cationic surfactants carries a net positive charge, while the anionic surfactant contains a negatively charged hydrophilic head. The zwitterionic surfactants contain a negatively charged and a positively charged end in the hydrophilic head, while the non-ionic surfactants do not have a charged group in their hydrophilic head. The properties of the surfactants are summarized in Table 6.1. The most important parameters of the surfactants are the critical micelle concentration (CMC), where micelles began to form and the surface tension of the fluid tended to be constant as the surfactant concentration reached the CMC. As the most widely used anionic surfactant for MNMs, SDS has a CMC of 0.24%, which is the highest among the four surfactants used.
Figure 6.1. Dependence of the motion speeds of graphene/MnO$_2$ tubular microengines upon the concentration of surfactants in the solutions. (A) SDS; (B) CTAB; (C) DDPS; (D) Triton-X-100. (n=50). Condition in all experiments: at room temperature of 23 °C and 3% H$_2$O$_2$ as a fuel.

As shown in Figure 6.1A, below the concentration of 0.3%, the microengines could not move. The speed of graphene/MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors increases rapidly from 93 ± 29 to 354 ± 57 µm s$^{-1}$ as the SDS content increases from 0.3% to 0.8%. The speed of micromotors reached a plateau of 350 µm s$^{-1}$ as the surfactant content further increased to 4%. Due to the increased fluid resistance, further increasing of the SDS content slows down the microengine moving. Figure 6.1B shows that the speed of micromotors increases from 68 ± 15 µm s$^{-1}$ at 0.3% CTAB to 290 ± 46 µm s$^{-1}$ at the CTAB content of 4%. Further increasing the CTAB content to 10% results in a decreased speed to 102 ± 19 µm s$^{-1}$. Figure 6.1C shows the speed profile of micromotors in an amphoteric surfactant DDPS.
Under the minimal surfactant content of 0.3%, the speed of micromotors slightly exceeded 150 µm s\(^{-1}\) and then it reached a plateau of about 300 µm s\(^{-1}\) at the surfactant concentrations of 0.4% to 1%. A further increase in the surfactant concentration from 2% to 4%, the speed elevated to the second plateau of approximately 400 µm s\(^{-1}\). After that, the speed of micromotors gradually decreased to less than 250 µm s\(^{-1}\) at 10% DDPS. Figure 6.1D demonstrates the speed variations of micromotors in a non-ionic surfactant Triton-X-100. The speed increases from 130 ± 35 to 534 ± 54 µm s\(^{-1}\) as the surfactant content increases from the minimal value of 0.2% to the optimal value of 1%. Upon further increasing the concentration to 10%, the speed of micromotors drops to 175 ± 39 µm s\(^{-1}\).

Generally, at 3% H\(_2\)O\(_2\) as a fuel, a minimal surfactant content of 0.2-0.3% is needed to initiate micromotors moving, although the CMCs of the 4 surfactants have a big difference. The non-ionic surfactant Triton-X-100 has a much lower CMC than the anionic surfactant SDS (0.01% vs 0.23%), the minimal surfactant content for micromotor moving is only slightly lower than the SDS (0.2% vs 0.3%). This means that the surface tension of fluid does not have a very influential effect on the motion of the micromotors. The surface tension affects the wetting of the micromotors with the fluid. At a very high content of surfactant, the bubbles are more stable than those formed at a low content of surfactant. The ejections of stable bubbles from the opening of the microtubes generate the propelling force.

By comparing the speed of MNMs at different surfactant conditions, we can compare the performance of the surfactant to MNMs. It seems that the non-ionic surfactant Triton-X-100 is the best surfactant for the graphene/MnO\(_2\) micromotors and a much lower surfactant content is
needed for efficient propulsion and higher speeds could be generated at around 1% surfactant content. As the molecular weight of Triton-X-100 is apparently larger than the other three surfactants used, the larger molecule may have a good effect on stabilizing the microbubbles. As the interface between the water and air is at least one layer of surfactant, the larger the surfactant molecules, the harder the diffusion of the oxygen molecules to the fluid. The stabilized bubbles are more efficient to expel the water from the opening of the tube, thus enhancing the motion behaviors especially at a low content of the surfactant. The zwitterionic surfactant DDPS is the second efficient surfactant for the MNMs motion. At the same surfactant content, the DDPS could generate a higher speed than SDS. It seems that the most widely used surfactant SDS is not the best efficient surfactant. Other surfactants can make better motion behaviors of MNMs than SDS. The cationic surfactant CTAB is the worst surfactant for MNMs motion. Previous observation shows the Pt-based microjets were not moving in CTAB at all, attributed to the repulsion between CTAB and the microjets. Schmidt et al. also found that the cationic surfactant is inefficient for tubular microengines and Janus particles micromotors and they suggested that the ammonium moiety of CTAB has a high affinity to Pt to deactivate the Pt. Our results are in good agreement with previous reports. Hence, we can conclude that the cationic surfactant is the most inefficient surfactant for the MNMs. The study provides a good reference for the future applications of MnO₂ and Pt-based MNMs.
Figure 6.2. Motion speed profiles of graphene/MnO$_2$ tubular microengines at the concentration of surfactants in the solutions. (A) Palmolive; (B) Earth Choice. (n=50). Condition in all experiments: at room temperature of 23 °C and 3% H$_2$O$_2$ as fuel.
Table 6.1. The properties of four different surfactants used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Surfactant</th>
<th>SDS</th>
<th>CTAB</th>
<th>Triton-X-100</th>
<th>DDPS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>anionic</td>
<td>cationic</td>
<td>non-ionic</td>
<td>zwitterionic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formula Weight</td>
<td>288.38</td>
<td>364.45</td>
<td>647</td>
<td>335.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formula graph</td>
<td>NaC\textsubscript{12}H\textsubscript{25}SO\textsubscript{4}</td>
<td>C\textsubscript{19}H\textsubscript{37}BrN</td>
<td>C\textsubscript{18}H\textsubscript{22}O(C\textsubscript{2}H\textsubscript{4}O\textsubscript{n})\textsubscript{n} \textsubscript{(n = 9-10)}</td>
<td>C\textsubscript{17}H\textsubscript{37}NO\textsubscript{3}S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggregation number</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>100-155</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average micellar mole weight</td>
<td>18000</td>
<td>62000</td>
<td>80000</td>
<td>18500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMC</td>
<td>7-10 mM</td>
<td>~1 mM</td>
<td>0.2-0.9 mM</td>
<td>2-4 mM(20-25°C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solubility</td>
<td>~0.24 wt.%</td>
<td>0.04 wt.%</td>
<td>0.01 wt.%</td>
<td>0.12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solubility (mol)</td>
<td>0.1M</td>
<td>H\textsubscript{2}O: 0.1 M at 40°C, soluble</td>
<td>H\textsubscript{2}O: 1 M at 20 °C,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solubility (Weight)</td>
<td>&gt;15g</td>
<td>0.1g/mL at 25°C</td>
<td>0.1g/mL</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HLB</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>Not clear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.2. Information of the commercial Palmolive® Ultra Original dishwashing liquids.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ingredient (INCI Name)</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Consistency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C12-14 Alcohol EO 2:1 Sodium Sulphate</td>
<td>Cleaning and foaming agent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lauramidopropyldimethylamine Oxide</td>
<td>Cleaning and foaming agent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sodium Chloride</td>
<td>Controls viscosity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sodium Xylene Sulphonate</td>
<td>Solubiliser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myristamidopropylamine Oxide</td>
<td>Cleaning and foaming agent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poloxamer 124</td>
<td>Controls viscosity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citric Acid</td>
<td>pH adjuster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fragrance</td>
<td>Pleasant scent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isothiazolinones</td>
<td>Preservatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyes</td>
<td>Color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tetrasodium EDTA</td>
<td>Chelating agent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Previously, a commercial soap FIT was tested in the Pt-based systems. Since all the single-component surfactants could be used to facilitate the movement of bubble-propelled MnO₂ based tubular micromotors, we then test commercial dishwashing liquid for the motion of MnO₂ based micromotors. We chose two commercial dish soaps as mixed surfactant solutions, and the results are summarized in Figure 6.2. The information about the commercial dish wash liquid is summarized in Tables 6.2 and 6.3. Both the dish soaps are a mixture of anionic and non-ionic surfactants.
The commercial dish soaps also contain a minor amount of stabilizer, salt, fragrance, and dyes as additives.

**Table 6.3.** Information of the commercial Earth Choice® Dishwash Liquid – Lemon Fresh and Aloe Fresh.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chemical Name</th>
<th>CAS Number</th>
<th>Proportion (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>7732-18-5</td>
<td>&gt; 60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sodium Dodecylbenzene Sulfonate</td>
<td>25155-30-0</td>
<td>10 - 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sodium Laureth Sulfate</td>
<td>68603-42-9</td>
<td>&lt; 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cocamide DEA</td>
<td>61790-63-4</td>
<td>&lt; 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sodium Citrate</td>
<td>6132-04-3</td>
<td>&lt; 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aloe Vera Extract</td>
<td>85507-69-3</td>
<td>&lt; 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fragrance</td>
<td></td>
<td>&lt; 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benzisothiazolinone</td>
<td>2634-33-5</td>
<td>&lt; 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI 42090</td>
<td>3844-45-9</td>
<td>&lt; 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.2A shows the motion of graphene/MnO₂ tubular microjets in the commercial Palmolive soap. In the Palmolive soap, at least 0.5% of its content is needed to initiate the propulsion of the micromotors at a speed of around 80 µm s⁻¹. As the detergent content increases to 4%, the speed of micromotors rises to 383 ± 77 µm s⁻¹. A further rise of the detergent levels results in a decreased speed of micromotors due to the increased fluid resistance. The effect of Earth Choice soap on the speed of micromotors shows a similar trend as the Palmolive detergent. Initiation
of motion of the micromotors required 0.4% of Earth Choice to reach a speed of $80 \pm 25 \mu m s^{-1}$, and rising of the detergent content to 3%, the micromotors could generate the highest speed of $238 \pm 65 \mu m s^{-1}$. Then the speed of micromotors drops to $90 \pm 30 \mu m s^{-1}$ as the soap content reaches 10%. The above results demonstrate that the MnO$_2$ based micromotors are very robust to the real environmental water matrix. As the organics, salt, fragrances, and pigment are widely present in a natural water body, the effective motion of the MnO$_2$ based MNMs make them promise as self-propelled cleaners, for environmental remediation.

**Figure 6.3.** Typical time-lapse images extracted from the motion behaviors videos depicting the motion of graphene/MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors in different surfactant conditions in a time interval of 0.4 s with 3% H$_2$O$_2$ as a fuel. (A) 0.8% SDS; (B) 2% CTAB; (C) 1% DDPS; (D) 0.2% Triton-X-100; (E) 1% Palmolive; (F) 8% Earth Choice. Scale bars: 100 µm.
Figure 6.3 demonstrates the typical time-lapse images of the motion behaviors of graphene/MnO$_2$ micromotors in different surfactant solutions. As can be seen from the representative pictures, all the micromotors demonstrate similar circular motion patterns regardless of the surfactant used. The circular motion behaviors are the most typical motion patterns of the tubular micromotors. At a high fuel concentration, some of the micromotors could demonstrate irregular motion patterns. The motion pattern of micromotors is relied on the geometry shape of the micromotors and bubble propelling. However, in this investigation, the micromotors are active in all kinds of surfactants, which means the motion behaviors of MnO$_2$ based micromotors are surfactant independent propulsion. This behavior is very different from a previous report, but the Pt-based micromotors’ motion behaviors are quite dependent on the surfactant used.$^{29}$

6.4 Conclusions

Self-propelling MnO$_2$ based micromotors using catalytic H$_2$O$_2$ decomposition are surfactant independent MNMs, significantly to differentiate from the previously developed Pt-based systems. The CMC of a surfactant does not have a much effect on the motion of MnO$_2$ based microjets, and the MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors can move at high speeds at 0.2-0.3% content of four different surfactants. Moreover, they can also show moving behavior in commercial dish soaps with the similar profile of speed, demonstrating the robustness in various conditions. Hence, MnO$_2$ based micromotors will be a good alternative to Pt MNMs for a wide application in wastewater treatment.
Table 6.4. Types of the surfactants and fuel used for catalytic MNMs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of the MNMs</th>
<th>Ref.</th>
<th>Size (µm)</th>
<th>Surfactant</th>
<th>H₂O₂ fuel (%)</th>
<th>Motion speed (µm/s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ti/Cr/Pt microtubes</td>
<td>Schmidt et al.</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0.5% commercial soap FIT:</td>
<td>0.25-5</td>
<td>140-10000 at 37°C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multilayered microrockets</td>
<td>Zhang et al.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Sodium cholate 0.33%</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>285-1410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cu/Pt bimetallic microtubes</td>
<td>Pumera et al.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1% SDS</td>
<td>0.2-3</td>
<td>70-700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cu/Pt concentric bimetallic microtubes</td>
<td>Pumera et al.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.01-10% SDS</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50-365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ti/Cr/Fe/Pt microjets</td>
<td>Schmidt et al.</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>without surfactant</td>
<td>10-20</td>
<td>Around 250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pt/SiO₂ Janus particles</td>
<td>Schmidt et al.</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>without surfactant</td>
<td>1-20</td>
<td>2-13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cu/Ag microtubes</td>
<td>Pumera et al.</td>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>1% SDS</td>
<td>0.5-3</td>
<td>13.1-252.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ag and MnO₂ microparticles</td>
<td>Pumera et al.</td>
<td>Ag=30</td>
<td>0.5% SDS</td>
<td>0.1-12</td>
<td>25-100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Au/Graphene/MnO₂</td>
<td>Ma et al.</td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>0.33% Triton-X-100</td>
<td>0.15-2.5</td>
<td>15.79-44.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/MnO₂ microtubes &amp; rods &amp; MnO₂@MnCO₃</td>
<td>Janis et al.</td>
<td>12.5, 12</td>
<td>0.5% Triton-X-100 for microrods and microrods</td>
<td>5-15</td>
<td>Tubes 200-510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.5% SDS for micro particles</td>
<td>5-15</td>
<td>Rods 200-410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graphene/Pt microtubes</td>
<td>Wang et al.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.5% sodium cholate</td>
<td>0.1-3</td>
<td>37-1700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MnO₂ hallow</td>
<td>Janis et al.</td>
<td>n.a</td>
<td>0.5% SDS or Triton-X-100</td>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>321-996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PANI/Pt microtubes</td>
<td>Wang et al.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.6% sodium cholate</td>
<td>0.2-5</td>
<td>25-1410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/Pt microtubes</td>
<td>Wang et al.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5% sodium cholate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10000 at 37°C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/Pt microtubes PPY/Ag bilayer</td>
<td>Wang et al.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3% sodium cholate</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3500 at 23 °C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Au/Pt bimetallic microbots</td>
<td>Wang et al.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5% Sodium cholate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2% Sodium cholate</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOx/Ni/Pt G0x/Ni/Pt/MnO₂</td>
<td>Janis et al.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.1% SDS</td>
<td>0.5-4</td>
<td>100-150 to 800-900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Janus Ag/ZIF-Zn-Fe</td>
<td>Guo et al.</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>0.2% SDS</td>
<td>1-20</td>
<td>316-1650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe/Pt Janus</td>
<td>Chang et al.</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>0.01% Triton-X-100</td>
<td>0.5-5</td>
<td>50-207.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/MnO₂</td>
<td>Wang et al.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.33% Triton-X-100</td>
<td>0.4-10</td>
<td>31.57-318.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEDOT/PtNP@CNT-PPy</td>
<td>Wu et al.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.6% sodium Cholate</td>
<td>1-15</td>
<td>62-450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C/Pr</td>
<td>Escarpa et al.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5% Sodium cholate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>176-409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C/Pt-NP</td>
<td>Escarpa et al.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5% Sodium cholate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>261-502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>Our work</td>
<td>SDS %</td>
<td>pH 1-15</td>
<td>pH 16-466</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C/Ag</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C/Pd</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C/MnO&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erGO/MnO&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt; microtubes</td>
<td>Our work&lt;sup&gt;22&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1% SDS</td>
<td>3-15</td>
<td>77-466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erGO/MnO&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt; microrods</td>
<td>Our work&lt;sup&gt;45&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1% SDS</td>
<td>3-15</td>
<td>224-609</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erGO/MnO&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt; microtubes</td>
<td>Our work&lt;sup&gt;45&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1% SDS</td>
<td>1-15</td>
<td>134-809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erGO/Ag-MnO&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt; microrods</td>
<td>Our work&lt;sup&gt;45&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1% SDS</td>
<td>3-15</td>
<td>261-539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erGO/Ag-MnO&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt; microtubes</td>
<td>Our work&lt;sup&gt;45&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1% SDS</td>
<td>0.2-10</td>
<td>88-1237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erGO/FeO&lt;sub&gt;x&lt;/sub&gt;-MnO&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt; microtubes</td>
<td>Our work&lt;sup&gt;24&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1% SDS</td>
<td>0.03-5</td>
<td>89-1279</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**References**


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Chapter 7. How Surfactants Affect the Mobility of Silver-Containing Microengines

Abstract

Micro/nanomotors (MNMs) that can convert chemical energy into movement and force have attracted great interest due to their wide potential applications for fundamental chemistry and biological science-related fields. Silver-based materials are replacing platinum (Pt) as the next generation self-propelled MNMs due to their low-cost, good motion performance, robust, and more abundance advantages, and potentially wide area applications for disinfection and water treatment. Various proof-of-concept applications have been demonstrated by the silver-containing MNMs, but there is no systematic investigation on how different types of surfactants will affect the mobility. Herein, four types of surfactant and two types of commercial detergent soap were chosen to investigate the influence of the surfactants upon motion behaviors of a typical silver containing micromotor. The results improve our understanding of microscale motion and provide a reference for the future applications of the emerging silver containing MNMs.
7.1 Introduction

The use of micro/nano scale tools and machines to perform tasks and address issues has attracted tremendous attention in the last decade.\textsuperscript{1-9} The development of molecular machines has led to the award of the Nobel prize in chemistry in 2016.\textsuperscript{10} Self-propelled catalytic micro/nanomotors (MNMs) are the most fundamental component to construct micro/nano scale machines and factories, which would fundamentally change the nanoscience and nanotechnology. Tremendous proof of concept applications was demonstrated based on the decomposition of $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ as a fuel and the precious metal platinum (Pt) as a catalyst for bubble recoil propulsion, such as water treatment,\textsuperscript{11} targeted cargo delivery,\textsuperscript{12} cell manipulation,\textsuperscript{13} and chemical sensing.\textsuperscript{14} Up to now, a large portion of the catalytic MNMs are based on the precious noble metal Pt as a catalyst for hydrogen peroxide ($\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$) decomposition.\textsuperscript{15-18} Pt-containing MNMs with various geometry shapes, such as Janus particles,\textsuperscript{11} microtubes engines,\textsuperscript{19} bi-segment microrods,\textsuperscript{20} and Pt nanoparticles\textsuperscript{21} were designed and incorporated as the engine part for MNMs, due to its superb catalytic activities for $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ decomposition. However, Pt-based MNMs suffer from the drawbacks of high-cost, scarcity and possible deactivation in various media impeded their further applications.\textsuperscript{22, 23} Hence, there is great interests in searching for a new catalyst for MNMs.\textsuperscript{24-26}

Silver-based materials are emerging as new catalytic materials as well as the functional parts for MNMs.\textsuperscript{27, 28} Silver containing MNMs have demonstrated various applications, such as killing pathogenic bacterial\textsuperscript{9, 29} and aquatic pollutants degradation.\textsuperscript{30} Silver-containing MNMs can be fabricated via electrochemical plating and physical vapor depositions.\textsuperscript{9, 29, 31-34} The use of raw silver particles without modification has also been demonstrated as MNMs.\textsuperscript{30, 31} The published results have demonstrated the
versatility of silver for MNMs objectives. Besides the metallic zero valence silver metal, the silver-containing compounds and alloys have also been incorporated for the construction of MNMs.\textsuperscript{27, 35, 36} The use of silver containing materials to replace the precious Pt catalyst for MNMs provides the following advantages of good motion performance, low materials cost, versatile fabrication, and modification techniques, and multiple functionalities. Since the first demonstration of silver particles as MNMs by Pumera’s group, various silver containing MNMs have been designed and tested.\textsuperscript{31} Up to now, the most powerful MNMs are the bubble propelled tubular microjet engines, which moves by expelling the gas bubbles and the fluid inside the microtubes away. Recently, we designed the graphene/Ag-MnO\textsubscript{2} tubular micromotors with good motion performance at relative low H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} contents. Due to the synergistic effect of the silver and MnO\textsubscript{2} catalyst, good geometry shape, and rough inner surface microstructure, the motion performance of the Ag-MnO\textsubscript{2} catalyzed micromotors are comparable to the Pt-based microengines at low peroxide fuel levels, demonstrating the great potential as an alternative for Pt in designing MNMs. As the fuel and surfactants are quite indispensable for the mobility of catalytic bubble propelled MNMs, and most of the research focuses on the search of alternative fuels, such as hydrozine\textsuperscript{37} and glucose,\textsuperscript{38} for improving MNMs’ performance, very few studies investigated the role of surfactants in promoting microscale motion. Currently, only two reports have already studied the effect of surfactants on the motion behaviors of Pt-based micromotors exclusively,\textsuperscript{39, 40} but no one has investigated how different surfactants affect the movement of silver containing micromotors systematically. By now, the choice of surfactants to facilitate the movement of MNMs are quite random.\textsuperscript{19, 41, 42} To fully exploit the potential of silver containing catalytic MNMs, it is of
great significance to study how different types of surfactant and its concentrations affect the movement of MNMs.

Surfactants are amphiphilic organic compounds, which has a hydrophobic group and a hydrophilic group. Surfactants can be classified according to the charging properties of their hydrophilic groups. The hydrophilic group of cationic surfactants carries a net positive charge, while the anionic surfactant contains a negatively charged hydrophilic head. Zwitterionic surfactants contain a negatively charged and a positively charged end in the hydrophilic group, while the non-ionic surfactants have no charged groups. Previously, Pumera’s group studied how different surfactants affect the mobility of Pt-catalyzed tubular microengines. They found that different types of surfactant greatly affect the motion behaviors. The sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) is much better than Tween 20, while the cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) would deactivate the microengines. Simmchen et al. studied the effect of surfactants on the motion performance of Pt-catalyzed tubular and Janus particle micromotors. The Janus micromotors move at a much higher speed at a relative lower content of surfactant, while the tubular microengines demand a much higher surfactant concentration to achieve the maximum speed. The reasons for these phenomena are not totally clear, as most of the explanations are based on empirical or descriptive reasoning. What’s more, the results obtained at different research groups using different types of MNMs systems cannot always show consistent results. Hence, a systematic investigation is needed to generate a more comprehensive insight on the role of surfactants to facilitate the mobility at the micro/nano scale.
Herein, we choose two types of commercial detergents and four types of pure surfactant to study the influence of surfactants upon the motion of silver containing MNMs. The choice of each type of surfactants are as follows: SDS as the anionic surfactant, CTAB as the cationic surfactant, N-Dodecyl-N, N-dimethyl-3-ammonio-1-propanesulfonate (DDPS) as the zwitterionic surfactant, and Triton-X-100 as the non-ionic surfactant. (Table 6.1) Two types of commercially available detergents were chosen as a mixture of surfactants. (Table 6.2-6.3). We hope to generate a guide for the further application of silver containing MNMs and improve the understanding of the motion behaviors at a micro/nano scale. The results show that efficient motion can be achieved under every surfactant condition. The data acquired here paves the way for further environmental remediation strategy as well as novel biomedical applications of the emerging silver containing MNMs.

7.2 Experimental section

7.2.1 Materials and reagents

Potassium permanganate, silver nitrate, sodium sulfate, ethanol, dichloromethane, SDS, Triton-X-100, N-Dodecyl-N,N-dimethyl-3-ammonio-1-propanesulfonate (DDPS), CTAB, and sulfate acid (98%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. H₂O₂ (30%) was purchased from ROWE Scientific Australia. Aluminum oxide paste was purchased from Kemet, NSW, Australia. Two types of commercial dishwashing liquid were collected from the chemistry lab, the Palmolive and the Earth Choice brand washing-up liquid. Porous polycarbonate (PC) membranes with an average pore diameter of 5 µm were purchased from Whatman Inc., NY, USA. Ultrapure water (Milli-Q) was used in all experiments. Nano-sized
graphene oxide (GO) was purchased from graphene supermarket, New York, USA.

7.2.2 Fabrication of graphene/Ag-MnO₂ micromotors

Graphene/Ag-MnO₂ tubular micromotors were fabricated by a template-assisted electrochemical deposition protocol, as with our previous publication.²⁵ A cyclopore polycarbonate membrane containing 5 µm diameter conical-shaped micropores (Whatman, NY, USA) was employed as the template. An 80 nm of gold film was first deposited on one side of the porous membranes to serve as the working electrode using an Emitech K950X gold evaporator and performed at room temperature under a high vacuum of below 1×10⁻³ mBar at a direct current of 6 A. The deposition rate was about 1 nm s⁻¹. A customized plating cell was used in all electrochemical deposition processes. The membrane was assembled in a self-designed plating cell with an aluminum foil serving as the contact for the working electrode. Electrochemical deposition was carried out using an electrochemical workstation (Zennium Zahner, Germany). A Pt wire and Ag/AgCl with 3M KCl were used as the counter and reference electrodes, respectively. A mixed solution of 0.1 mg mL⁻¹ nano-sized GO in 0.5 M of Na₂SO₄ and 0.1 M H₂SO₄ was prepared as the electrolyte for the electrochemical growth of graphene outer layer. The GO in the solution was reduced by a cyclic voltammetry (CV) method from 0.3 to -1.5 V for five cycles. After washing with 10 mL of ultrapure water for three times, the inner Ag-MnO₂ layer was deposited using a galvanostatic (GS) method at a current of -1 mA for 20 min, which equals to 1.2 C of charge transferred. For the cathodic reduction deposited of the Ag-MnO₂ inner layer, 1.2 C of charge transfer is the optimal value for the synthesis of graphene/Ag-MnO₂ tubular microtubes. For Ag-MnO₂ deposition, the electrolyte solution was 2 mM of AgNO₃ and 20 mM KMnO₄. Following
the electroreduction deposition, the gold layers were removed by hand polishing with alumina slurry. Then the templates were dissolved in dichloromethane for 15 min to release the micromotors. Finally, the micromotors were collected by centrifugation at 7000 rpm for 3 min while being repeatedly washed with dichloromethane, ethanol and ultrapure water for three times each. The ultrasonication process was carried out using a Unisonics ultrasonication cleaner (Model FXP12D), and the centrifugation was carried out using an Eppendorf centrifuge 5430. All the micromotors were stored in ultrapure water at room temperature for further use.

### 7.2.3 Motion behavior observation

A transparent plastic petri dish (Part No. P35G-1.5-10-C, Mat Tek Corporation, MA, USA) with the holed bottom covered by a thin glass slide was used as the container to prepare different fuel concentrations for observation of motion behavior. A 10 mm diameter bottom hole of the 35 mm diameter plastic petri dish was covered by a thin glass slide, which formed a shallow well-like hollow structure with a volume of approximately 75-80 µL. Optical microscopy videos and images were obtained using an Olympus IX81 inverted microscope with a Nikon digital sight DS-2Mv camera connected to a computer and operated by the Nikon NIS-Elements software. Motion videos were recorded at 12.5 frames per second using a 4X objective. The time interval between two frames is 0.08 s. For each of the data points in the speed profile figures, at least 50 measurements were taken into account. The error bars stand for the standard deviation. To minimize the effect of fuel depletion, only the videos recorded at the first 5 minutes after fuel added were taken into account for speed calculation. Unless otherwise stated, all the percentage about the fuel and surfactant are weight by volume (w/v %). Free Fiji
software was used to calculate the speed of micromotors, edit videos and extract pictures. A digital hand-held "Pocket" H₂O₂ refractometer (Model: Atago, PAL-39S) was used to calibrate the concentrations of H₂O₂ solutions.

7.3 Results and discussion

![Graphs showing dependence of motion speed of graphene/Ag-MnO₂ microjets](image)

**Figure 7.1.** Dependence of the motion speed of graphene/Ag-MnO₂ microjets. (n=50) (A) Influence of SDS concentration upon the speed of micromotors. (B) Influence of CTAB concentration upon the speed of micromotors. Conditions in all experiments: room temperature of 23°C and 3% H₂O₂ as a fuel.

As the surfactants have a hydrophobic group and a hydrophilic group, they are very likely to be adsorbed at the interface between the air, water, and
solid phases. The amphiphilic surfactants would adsorb at the interface between the air and water phases, and thus, significantly lower the surface tension or interfacial free energy of the fluid. The surfactant would also adsorb on the catalytic surface of the microengines and decrease the interfacial free energy to a marked degree, thus facilitating the ejection of the microbubbles. The most important parameter of surfactants is the critical micelle concentration (CMC), where micelles began to form and the surface tension of the fluid tends to be constant. When dissolved in the liquid phase at a very tiny amount below the CMC, the micelle cannot form and the surfactant tends to be in the free-floating state. When the surfactant content rises to CMC, micelles of different geometry tend to form due to the requirement of lowering the free energy.

Previously, Mei and co-workers developed the theoretical model for the dynamics of catalytic cylindrical tubular microengines.\textsuperscript{44} According to this model, the speed of micromotors should be linearly proportional to the concentration of fuels. As the fuel concentrations affect the generation of gas volume and the bubbling frequency, thus, the most influential factor in micro/nano scale motion is the fuel levels. The geometry of the microtubes also affects the movement speed of micromotors. Wang and his co-workers analyzed the motion behaviors of the graphene/Pt and a polymer/Pt tubular microengines using this body deformation model theoretically.\textsuperscript{45} They found that the catalyst property, such as the surface roughness, improves the mobility by generating higher frequency bubbles with smaller diameters to facilitate the motion at a low content of fuels. Similar results were also obtained by the analysis of the graphene/Ag-MnO\textsubscript{2} tubular micromotors at constant surfactant content with varying fuel levels by our previous report.\textsuperscript{25} But how the surfactant conditions affect the motion behaviors remains unknown. Previous reports about the
surfactant used in the MNMs purposes are summarized in Table 6.4. The Ag-MnO$_2$ catalyst is comparable with Pt for promoting motion at a low content of fuels, thus it is of great importance to study how different types of surfactant and its concentration affect the mobility of the emerging silver containing MNMs.

The bubble formation and ejection can be affected to a large extent by the surfactant, as the surfactants are a key component for the generation and stabilization of bubbles. Below the lowest surfactant requirement, the tubular microengines would not move, as the bubbles are hard to form and the frequency of bubbling is too low to propel the microengines. At the minimal surfactant requirement, the force generated by the propelling bubbles could overcome the resistance and the microengines start to move. The results about the influence of anionic surfactants SDS and the cationic surfactants CTAB on the mobility of the graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotor are summarized in Figure 7.1. The speeds of graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ bilayer tubular micromotors show similar increasing and decreasing trends under the anionic and cationic surfactant conditions with variations in speeds at different surfactant levels. As the most widely used anionic surfactant for bubble propelled MNMs, SDS has a CMC of 0.24%, which is the highest among the four types of surfactant used. The CTAB has a much lower CMC of 0.04%, while the minimal surfactant requirement for the two types of surfactant is the same at 0.2% with very close motion performance of slightly less than 100 μm s$^{-1}$. As the surfactant levels continue to increase, the graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors show a faster speed under the anionic surfactant SDS. The results are in good agreement with a previous report regarding the performance of Pt-based micromotors.$^{40}$ While the Pt-based tubular microengines were deactivated by the cationic surfactant CTAB, the
silver-containing micromotors demonstrated efficient motion performance in a wide range of the cationic surfactant CTAB. The graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors speed up to its acme of $526 \pm 190 \mu m \ s^{-1}$ as the SDS content increases to 4%, while under the cationic surfactant CTAB, the maximum speed of $278 \pm 96 \mu m \ s^{-1}$ was achieved at a relative low CTAB content of 0.5%. Upon passing the optimal surfactant levels, the graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ microengines show decreasing speeds due to the increased fluid resistance at higher surfactant levels.

The property of zwitterionic surfactant is very similar to the non-ionic surfactant. As a whole, the hydrophilic group contains no charge. The performances of these two types of surfactant for facilitating motion at a micro/nano scale are also quite similar. The speed profiles of the graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ bilayer microtubes in zwitterionic surfactant DDPS and the non-ionic surfactant Triton-X-100 solutions are presented in Figure 7.2, both are very effective in promoting the movement. Only 0.1% of the surfactants is needed for the MNMs to propel at speeds of around $100 \mu m \ s^{-1}$, which shows a better result than the ionic surfactants SDS and CTAB. It seems that the charging property of the surfactant has an adverse effect on the motion behaviors. Under the surfactant DDPS, the speed of micromotors accelerates very fast to $332 \pm 102 \mu m \ s^{-1}$ as the surfactant levels increase to 1%. Then the speed of micromotors decreases as the surfactant levels increase to 10%. While the speed of micromotors shows a gradual increase to the top speed of $457 \pm 176 \mu m \ s^{-1}$ as the surfactant Triton-X-100 rises to 4%. Further increase Triton-X-100 contents results in the reduced speeds, due to the increased fluid resistance at a higher level of surfactants. At 10% of Triton-X-100, the average speed of micromotors decreases to less than 200 $\mu m \ s^{-1}$. While the non-ionic surfactant requires
a lower content to activate motion, the ionic surfactant SDS demonstrates faster speeds at 4% than Triton-X-100.

Figure 7.2. Dependence of the motion speed of graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ microjets. (n=50) (A) Influence of DDPS concentration upon the speed of micromotors. (B) Influence of Triton-X-100 concentration upon the speed of micromotors. Condition in all experiments: at room temperature of 23°C and 3% H$_2$O$_2$ as fuel.
Figure 7.3. Dependence of the motion speed of graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ microjets upon the content of detergents. (n=50) (A) Palmolive ultra original (denoted as Palmolive) dish wash liquid; (B) Earth Choice dish wash Liquid – Lemon Fresh and Aloe Fresh (denoted as Earth Choice). Condition in all experiments: at room temperature of 23°C and 3% H$_2$O$_2$ as fuel.

Previously, commercial soap liquid has been used as a surfactant in Pt catalyzed tubular micromotors.$^{18,46}$ As the silver-containing micromotors show efficient motion performance in all the pure surfactant solutions, two types of commercially available dish-washing liquid in mixed surfactants and additives solutions are also employed to investigate their influence on motion behaviors and the robustness of the silver-containing micromotors, and the results are summarized in Figure 7.3. The commercial detergents are composed of a mixture of anionic and non-ionic surfactant. The
detergents also contain minor amounts of stabilizers, salts, fragrances, and dyes as additives. The Palmolive is a commonly used detergent made mainly by the industrial feedstock, while the Earth Choice is a more environmentally friendly biodegradable detergent made mainly by the natural organics. Both types of commercial soap show good results as the mixed surfactants to initiate the motion of graphene/Ag-MnO$_2$ tubular micromotors. At least 0.2% of Palmolive soap is needed to initiate the propulsion at a speed less than 50 µm s$^{-1}$, while at the same content of Earth Choice, the speed of micromotors are $116 \pm 60$ µm s$^{-1}$, which means that the Earth Choice detergent is far better than the Palmolive detergent for MNMs motions. The speed of micromotors increased to a plateau of around 180 µm s$^{-1}$ as the Earth Choice content increased from 0.3% to 2%, while under the same content of Palmolive detergent, the speed of micromotors increased to around 150 µm s$^{-1}$ at 0.5% and maintained this speed as the surfactant further rose to 2%. Above 2% of the surfactant, the micromotors in Earth Choice detergent increase the motion dramatically to around 400 µm s$^{-1}$ at 5%, while the micromotors in Palmolive show a slight decrease as the surfactant level continued to rise. Above 5% of the detergent as a surfactant, the micromotors in Earth Choice surfactant dropped dramatically to $139 \pm 81$ µm s$^{-1}$ as the surfactant level increased to 10%, while under the Palmolive detergent as a surfactant, the micromotors’ speed decreased to $116 \pm 15$ µm s$^{-1}$ in 10%. The use of Earth Choice detergent demonstrates higher speeds than Palmolive under the whole range of surfactant concentration, which demonstrated its great potential as the low cost environmentally friendly surfactant for the applications of the emerging silver containing micromotors. The above results also demonstrate that the silver-containing MNMs are very robust to the real environmental water matrix. The organics, salt, fragrances, and pigment widely exist in the natural water body. Previously, we
demonstrated the propulsion of MnO₂ based micromotors is quite independent of the surfactant used. Here, we also demonstrated that the silver-containing micromotors can also be propelled by all the surfactant conditions. These behaviors are very different from a previous report, the Pt-based micromotors’ motion behaviors are quite dependent on the surfactant used.⁴⁰

Figure 7.4. Time-lapse images extracted from the motion behaviors videos depicting the motion behaviors of graphene/Ag-MnO₂ tubular micromotors in different surfactant conditions in 1 s time interval with 3% H₂O₂ as fuel. (A) 4% SDS; (B) 0.8% CTAB; (C) 0.5% DDPS; (D) 2% Triton-X-100; (E) 8% Palmolive; (F) 8% Earth Choice. Scale bars: 100µm.

Typical time-lapse images for the motion behaviors are presented in Figure 7.4. The graphene/Ag-MnO₂ micromotors show efficient motion behaviors and diverse motion patterns in all the surfactant conditions. There are many factors affecting the motion speed and directionality of micromotors. The fuel and surfactants affect the motion speeds by affecting the generation and ejection of the bubbles, while the motion
directions are affected by the fluid resistance and the geometry of the microtubes.\textsuperscript{47} As the microtubes are not perfectly tubular in geometry and contain some asymmetry at the openings. That asymmetry can be accidentally produced by the electrochemical deposition process and the later-on cleaning and separation. If the edge of the tubes is not symmetrically distributed, the ejecting bubbles leave the microtubes in an angle, resulting in a torque force on the microtubes, which leads to various trajectories. Various motion patterns were recognized, such as circular, spiral, curved, flower-like, and snake-like motion. If the microtubes have more degree in symmetry, the expelling of bubbles will result in a direct force vector applied on the axial direction of the microtubes, which leads to linear motion.

7.4 Conclusions

The results demonstrate that the motion of graphene/Ag-MnO\textsubscript{2} micromotors are quite independent on the surfactants used, which is the biggest difference between the emerging silver containing micromotors and the previously developed Pt catalyzed micromotors. The CMC doesn’t have a much effect on the motion of the silver-containing microjets, only 0.1-0.2\% single component surfactants are needed for the initiation of silver containing micromotor in 3\% H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} as a fuel. The commercial dish soap could be a good choice as a surfactant for silver containing micromotors with slightly higher surfactant concentration and lower speeds. The silver-containing micromotors are very robust in nature, resulting in efficient motion patterns. As different MNMs have different catalytic performances under different surfactant and fuel conditions, hence, the data revealed here could provide a good reference for the future application of the silver-containing micromotors.
References


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Chapter 8. Conclusions and Perspectives

8.1 Conclusions

The main objective of this research is to develop low-cost and high-performance MNMs with the capability of addressing environmental issues. MnO₂ based micromotors are developed as a low-cost alternative to the precious metal Pt-based microengines by electrochemical fabrication. Due to the intrinsic lower catalytic activity than the noble metal Pt for the most widely used H₂O₂ fuel, the performance of MnO₂ based catalysts cannot compete with the Pt-MNMs. Hence, various fabrication and modification methods have been used to construct the precious metals free MnO₂ based micromotors. We demonstrate that graphene/MnO₂ bilayer microtubes could be fabricated by a low-cost multi-step electrochemical deposition. By changing the electrodeposition electrolytes and parameters, various MnO₂ based micromotors could be fabricated with regulated mobilities performance.

We also demonstrate that the MnO₂ based micromotors could be activated in different types of surfactant conditions. This phenomenon is quite different from the previously developed Pt-based microengines, whose mobility is quite dependent on the surfactant. Both pure MnO₂ based microengines and silver containing micromotors demonstrate efficient mobility performance at all typical surfactant conditions, demonstrating the robustness of these MnO₂ based micromotors.

8.1.1 Graphene/MnO₂ micromotors by anodic electrosynthesis

The fabrication of graphene/MnO₂ bilayer tubular micromotors was achieved by anodic electrochemical fabrication. The anodic deposited MnO₂ based micromotors require at least 3% of H₂O₂ as the fuel for
propulsion. The average speeds are much slower than Pt catalyzed micromotors under the same fuel conditions. Although the performance of MnO₂ based micromotors is not very good, the template-assisted electrochemical deposition is a good method for the fabrication of tubular micromotors.

8.1.2 MnO₂ based micromotors by cathodic electrofabrication

Since the MnO₂ based micromotors by anodic electrochemical oxidation synthesis require at least 3% H₂O₂ as a fuel for propulsion, we explored the fabrication of MnO₂ based micromotors via cathodic electrochemical reduction deposition. We found that the MnO₂ based micromotors by the cathodic fabrication require only 1% of H₂O₂ as a fuel for propulsion. Another advantage of the cathodic fabrication over anodic fabrication is the reduction process, which makes it possible to fabricate the metal modified MnO₂ based micromotors by electrochemical co-reduction deposition. The graphene/Ag-MnO₂ bilayer tubular micromotors need only 0.2% of H₂O₂ for propulsion, demonstrating the versatility and capability of this method for synthesis of micromotors.

8.1.3 High-performance graphene/FeOₓ-MnO₂ micromotors

Based on the developed cathodic deposition method, we further designed metal oxide modified MnO₂ based microengines. The graphene/FeOₓ-MnO₂ tubular micromotors require an even lower fuel content of 0.03% H₂O₂ to activate the motion, which is nearly one order of magnitude lower than Pt-based micromotors. Due to the good motion performance, low-cost, and easy functionality of the iron oxide modified MnO₂ based microengines, graphene/FeOₓ-MnO₂ demonstrates as a very competitive alternative to Pt MNMs. The metal oxide based micromotors could be a
good choice as the catalyst for advanced oxidation process to degrade organic pollutant in the aquatic environment.

8.1.4 The role of surfactants in \( \text{MnO}_2 \) based micromotors system

Different types of surfactants affect the mobility as well as the function of MNMs for specific applications. We demonstrated that the \( \text{MnO}_2 \) based micromotors have another advantage over Pt-based micromotors in various surfactants. However, Pt-based microengines’ performance is quite dependent on the surfactant used. These surfactant independent propulsion behaviors pave the way for the wide applications of the \( \text{MnO}_2 \) based and the silver-containing MNMs.

8.2 Perspectives and suggestions for future work

The development of micro/nano scale motion-based tools and devices would fundamentally change the nanoscience and nanotechnology today, as these self-propelled mobile devices and tools could be used for the regulation of chemical reactions and biological processes at a very precisely micro/nano scale. The development of MNMs could provide an opportunity for the chemists, materials scientist, and biologists to regulate the related chemical or biological process.

8.2.1 Environmental applications of the developed micromotors

As the outer layer of our developed MNMs is the electrochemically reduced graphene oxide, which contains many oxygen functional groups. Thus, it could be used as a micro scale adsorbent for adsorption of heavy metal ions in the aquatic environment. The inner layer catalytic materials are \( \text{MnO}_2 \) based materials, which are good candidates for various advanced oxidation processes. The iron oxide modified \( \text{MnO}_2 \) based
catalyst could be a good choice for the catalytic degradation of organic pollutants, such as dyes and phenolic compounds.

8.2.2 Development of new types of metal oxide based MNMs

The MnO$_2$ based materials fabricated by the cathodic electrochemical depositions are far more capable than those by the previously developed anodic fabrications. Due to the reduction deposition process, the substrate dissolution and oxidations are avoided. This method is very cheap and could be extended to fabricate various kinds of modified MnO$_2$ based MNMs. We demonstrated that the iron oxide could be a good choice to modify MnO$_2$ based materials with mobility performance even higher than that of Pt-based microengines at a very favorable low content of fuels. As the current fabrication methods are time-consuming, laborious, and always relying on the high vacuum equipment, it is very appealing to design the asymmetrically structured MNMs using cheap and reliable materials at the same time without the use of physical vapor deposition equipment. The electrochemical fabrication is much cheaper and faster than the sequential physical vapor deposition, but the use of porous membranes restricted the quantity of material synthesized. Hence, exploring new synthetic materials and avoiding the use of membrane template by electrochemical methods could be a good choice for future research focus.

8.2.3 MNMs based analytical applications

The use of MNMs for environmental monitoring and remediation has been demonstrated. MNMs could also be applied as novel analytical tools for food safety, security, defense, and biochemistry areas, due to the noticeable speed variation and the electrochemical signals, as the MNMs react with the analytes and regulate the speed of the chemical process.
Thus, these intelligent tools could be used at various applications from assays to food safety insurance.

Currently, the most widely explored areas of MNMs applications are the biomedical science and environmental fields. MNMs cannot be restricted to these areas, new fields are being explored by researchers from different backgrounds. As the development of MNMs is still at its early stage, there are numerous problems to be solved and improvement and progress could be made from every aspect relating to the synthesis and application. The innovation in synthesis and application of MNMs could generate a plethora of knowledge and technology for mankind to address diverse issues not limiting to the environmental and biomedical areas.
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**Author:** Wei Gao, Sirilak Sattayasmusitsathit, Jahir Orozco, et al

**Publication:** Journal of the American Chemical Society

**Publisher:** American Chemical Society

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94

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Magnetic Control of Tubular Catalytic Microbots for the Transport, Assembly, and Delivery of Micro-objects

Alexander A. Solovev, Samuel Sanchez, Martin Pumera, et al

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