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Recent Progress in Enzyme-Driven Micro/Nanoswimmers: from Fundamentals to Potential Applications

Gerardo Salinas¹, Seyyed Mohsen Beladi-Mousavi¹, Alexander Kuhn¹*
 ¹Univ. Bordeaux, CNRS, Bordeaux INP, ISM, UMR 5255, F-33607 Pessac, France
 *Corresponding author contact: kuhn@enscbp.fr

Abstract

Recent progress in the field of enzyme-powered micro/nanoswimmers is summarized and 8 discussed, covering different theoretical and mechanistic aspects, as well as potential 9 10 applications. This is motivated by the increasing number of reports focusing on the design of biocompatible systems, able to move in complex environments and their potential use for 11 12 biomedical applications. Motion is achieved by enzymatic reactions, enabling bubblepropulsion and self-diffusiophoretic or self-electrophoretic displacement. Single- and 13 14 multiple-enzyme-powered micro/nanoswimmers are presented as interesting and original 15 systems for cargo delivery, the detection of various analytes and the biodegradation of 16 complex organic molecules.

17 Keywords: microswimmers, enzymes, biocompatibility, biomimetic systems

18 1. Introduction

19 Smart biological systems in living organisms can transform chemical energy into mechanical action, and hence carry out precise tasks in confined spaces [1,2]. Inspired by 20 21 such natural motors, artificial biomimetic systems that can transform different types of 22 into mechanical motion, have been developed. These energy so-called micro/nanoswimmers have gained considerable attention due to their numerous potential 23 applications, e.g., for sensing, cargo delivery, and environmental remediation. However, 24 these artificial devices often suffer from the toxicity of their components (e.g. Al, Ga, Cu) 25 or the employed fuels (e.g. acidic or alkaline solutions, H_2O_2), thus partially preventing 26

their use for biomedical applications, such as biorecognition, biosensing, imaging and 27 28 nano-surgery. In order to circumvent these limitations, more recent studies suggested miniaturized engines based on enzymatic catalysts, providing unique characteristics such as 29 biocompatibility of the swimmers and fuels, as well as adaptability to different 30 31 environments. Such self-propelled enzymatic micro/nanoswimmers, powered by different 32 enzymes, have been proposed for exciting potential applications e.g. active targeted drug delivery [3] or blood-brain barrier crossing [4], which might be important for transporting 33 pharmaceutical compounds toward localized areas inside organs. The rational design of 34 these swimmers, incorporating various enzymes, is a critical factor concerning their 35 36 performance, in particular the efficiency of their motion in complex environments. Hence, swimmers with different shapes (spherical or tubular) and sizes (from 200 nm to 5 mm), 37 decorated with single or multiple enzymes, have been developed [5•]. Among the different 38 enzymes used to power motion of micro- and nano swimmers, two different enzymatic 39 processes are mostly used. The first category is based on redox reactions like it is the case 40 for glucose oxidase, catalase, bilirubin oxidase or peroxidase, whereas a second category 41 employs hydrolysis reactions e.g. urease and lipase (Table 1). The present review aims to 42 discuss the recent advances concerning the mechanisms of propulsion and the potential 43 44 applications of single- and multiple-enzyme powered micro/nanoswimmers. In addition, this report especially focuses on devices where motion is achieved by enzymatic process 45 based on redox reactions or fully triggered by electrochemical processes. 46

47 Table 1. Representative enzymatic reactions used for the propulsion of micro and nanoswimmers.

Enzymatic processes using redox reactions	
Enzyme	Reaction
Glucose oxidase (GOx)	β -D-Glucose +0 ₂ + H ₂ 0 \rightarrow H ₂ 0 ₂ + D-glucono-1,5-lactone
Catalase	$H_2O_2 \rightarrow 2H_2O + O_2$

Bilirubin oxidase (BOD)	$\frac{1}{2}O_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow 2H_2O$
Peroxidase	$H_2O_2 + AH_2 \rightarrow 2H_2O + A$
Enzymatic processes using hydrolysis reactions	
Urease	$(NH_2)_2CO + H_2O \rightarrow CO_2 + 2NH_3$
Lipase	triglyceride $+3H_2O \rightarrow glycerol + fatty acids$

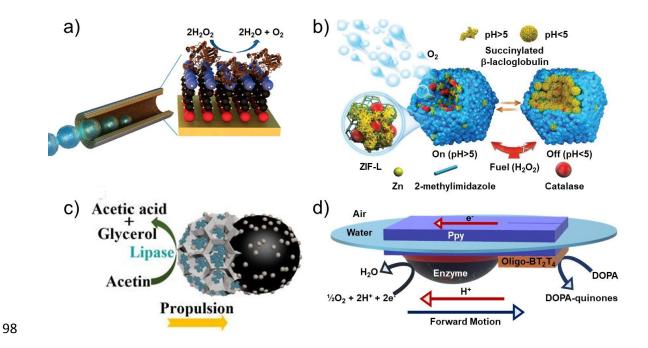
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49 2. Single-enzyme-powered micro/nanoswimmers

In the majority of the literature examples, the motion of single-enzyme-powered swimmers 50 is achieved via bubble-propulsion or self-diffusiophoretic mechanisms. Self-propulsion 51 allows decreasing mass transport limitations and enabling selective directional motion 52 53 towards specific locations. These swimmers are mostly built by immobilizing various 54 enzymes, such as urease [3,6-8], acetylcholinesterase, glucose oxidase, aldolase [9], catalase [10-12], and lipase [13,14] on a large variety of miniaturized objects with different 55 architectures, by covalent binding, encapsulation, adsorption or drop-casting. For example, 56 Schmidt, et al. designed hybrid Ti/Au-catalase micro-tubes, where motion is based on the 57 58 enzymatic decomposition of H_2O_2 into water and oxygen (Figure 1a) [15•]. These devices move faster, and with higher efficiency at low H₂O₂ concentrations compared to those 59 comprising a Pt catalyst. Recently, pH-responsive biocatalytic microswimmers were 60 61 designed by assembling catalase and succinvlated β -lactoglobulin in a zeolitic imidazolate 62 framework-L (ZIF-L) (Figure 1b) [16•]. Motion control is achieved due to the pH-induced reversible gelation process of β -lactoglobulin. At neutral pH, β -lactoglobulin is permeable, 63 64 enabling H_2O_2 to reach the enzymatic sites, causing motion due to a bubble propulsion 65 mechanism. However, at slightly acidic pH, gelation occurs, blocking the access of fuel and 66 stopping the motion. A similar principle was used to produce submarine-like 67 microswimmers that use buoyancy forces to control vertical motion. In this case poly-(2-

diisopropylamino)-ethyl methacrylate (PDPA) and catalase were incorporated into the ZIF-68 69 L structure [17]. At neutral pH, the oxygen generated by the enzymatic reaction binds to the hydrophobic PDPA, leading to an ascending motion. In contrast, at slightly acidic pH, 70 71 PDPA becomes hydrophilic, causing the release of oxygen, and consequently a sinking of 72 the device. In a recent work, protein micro-tubes, functionalized with urease, exhibit self-73 propulsion in the presence of urea, due to a concentration gradient established by the enzymatic reaction in the inner part of the tube [18] Motion of dissymmetric magnetic 74 75 microparticles, asymmetrically modified with multilayers of biotinylated urease, has also been reported [19]. Most importantly, these devices move at physiological urea 76 77 concentrations (10 mM) and in liquids with viscosities four times higher than the viscosity 78 of water, which is important for future *in vivo* applications. Ma et al. synthesized hollow mesoporous SiO_2 microspheres functionalized with urease at the sphere surface [20]. The 79 80 resulting propulsion is due to the intrinsic asymmetry of the SiO₂ spheres, generating ionic self-diffusiophoresis caused by the enzymatic decomposition of urea. An interesting 81 82 alternative is the design of systems that can be triggered by different stimuli, thus facilitating motion in complex fluids. For example, lipase-modified dendritic 83 silica/carbon/Pt dissymmetric nanoparticles can move either via self-diffusiophoresis or 84 bubble propulsion, as well as self-thermophoresis (Figure 1c) [21]. In these devices, the Pt 85 nanoparticles catalyze the disproportionation reaction of H_2O_2 , the asymmetric 86 photothermal effect of the carbon part causes a thermal gradient when irradiated with near-87 88 infrared light, and lipase, loaded in the pores of the dendritic structure, decomposes a triglyceride, causing concentration gradients. Finally, Arnaboldi et al. developed hybrid 89 bioelectrochemical swimmers, for which motion is achieved when coupling the 90 91 spontaneous reduction of oxygen by bilirubin oxidase (BOD) with the enantioselective

92 oxidation of 3,4-dihydroxyphenylalanine (L- or D-DOPA) by inherently chiral oligomers 93 ((R)- or (S)-2,2'-bis[2-(5,2'-bithienyl)]-3,3'-bithianaphthene (oligo- BT_2T_4)) (Figure 1d) 94 [22••]. Both, BOD and the enantiopure oligomers are immobilized on opposite extremities 95 of a freestanding miniaturized polypyrrole film, thus allowing electron transfer between the 96 cathodic and anodic sites. This electron transfer across the microswimmer is accompanied 97 by a proton flux, resulting in self-electrophoretic propulsion.



1. 99 Figure Schematic illustrations of different single-enzyme-powered micro/nanoswimmers. a) Open view of a hybrid biocatalytic micro-tube (left), and surface 100 modification of the inner Au layer allowing the enzymatic decomposition of H₂O₂. Adapted 101 from reference [15•]. b) Structure and propulsion mechanism of a biocatalytic 102 microswimmer with pH-responsive on/off motion. Adapted from reference [16•]. c) Motion 103 104 of a lipase-modified dendritic silica/carbon/Pt nanoparticles Janus-type swimmer, based on 105 self-diffusiophoresis. Adapted from reference [21] d) Design hybrid of а

106 bioelectrochemical swimmer in an upside-down configuration at the air/water interface

107 together with a representation of the mechanism of selective motion induced by proton flux.

108 Adapted from reference [22••].

109 3. Multiple-enzyme-powered micro/nanoswimmers

Multiple-enzyme-powered micro/nanoswimmers have been introduced (i) to achieve higher 110 111 velocities via combining multiple propulsion mechanisms; (ii) to avoid toxic fuels, particularly H_2O_2 ; (iii) to facilitate the adaption to different environments; and (iv) to 112 113 generate more functionalities. Hence, swimmers modified with different enzymes, 114 promoting enzymatic domino reactions have been developed. [23-28]. From a more historical point of view, Mano et al. decorated a carbon fiber with GOx/redox polymer I 115 (RPI) as a glucose oxidizing microanode at one extremity, and BOD/RPII as an O₂ 116 reducing microcathode at the other end (Figure 2a). In the presence of glucose, the electron 117 flow Glucose \rightarrow GOx \rightarrow RPI \rightarrow fiber \rightarrow RPII \rightarrow BOD \rightarrow O₂ is accompanied by an ion 118 119 flow along the carbon fiber, resulting in its propulsion at the water/oxygen interface $[29^{\bullet\bullet}]$. Feringa, et al. designed swimmers based on multi-wall carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs), 120 decorated with GOx and catalase to transform glucose into H₂O₂ and then to water and 121 oxygen, respectively. Such domino reactions avoid the addition of H₂O₂ and hence lower 122 the biotoxicity [30]. Following a similar elegant principle, Wilson et al. proposed bowl-123 124 shaped polymeric systems with a narrow opening containing GOx and catalase enzymes (Figure 2b) [31•]. These systems not only prevent the hydrolysis of the protected enzymes, 125 but also allows generating motion of the biocompatible swimmers in the presence of 126 physiological amounts of glucose (Figures 2b-c) [32]. In another example, Ma et al. 127 assembled a core-shell nanoswimmer utilizing metal-organic frameworks to promote 128

photodynamic therapy (PDT) and starvation therapy (ST) (Figure 2d). In the involved 129 130 domino reaction, GOx initially catalyzes the decomposition of intracellular glucose to promote cell starvation and H₂O₂ generation, whereas catalase decomposes the generated 131 H_2O_2 , thus triggering motion and oxygen production, which promotes PDT [33]. An analog 132 133 enzymatic system was employed by Städler et al., based on Janus microswimmers decorated by enzymes only on one hemisphere (Figure 2e). The diffusion of these 134 biocompatible swimmers is enhanced in the presence of glucose [34]. In a more recent 135 136 study. He et al. elaborated a nanoswimmer powered by GOx and catalase, trapped in a carbonaceous nanoflask (CNF), moving in a glucose solution via a domino reaction 137 mechanism[35], similar to previous studies (Figure 2f)[30-34]. In this work, it was 138 demonstrated that changes in surface wettability (hydrophobicity or hydrophilicity) of the 139 nanoswimmer can dictate the direction of motion [35]. In another study, a dissymmetric 140 141 microparticle was proposed where one side included two enzymes, GOx and trypsin, which were working as independent engines using different fuels, namely glucose and 142 143 bis(benzyloxycarbonyl-L-arginine amide) (Figure 2g). Both enzymes contribute to the 144 enhanced diffusion of swimmers using biocompatible fuels [36]. Finally, Van Hest et al. reported swimmers with a shape similar to the one of Figure 2b, containing multiple 145 enzymes, promoting several feedforward loops using various substrates to produce kinetic 146 energy as the output of the enzymatic network (Figure 2h) [37••]. 147

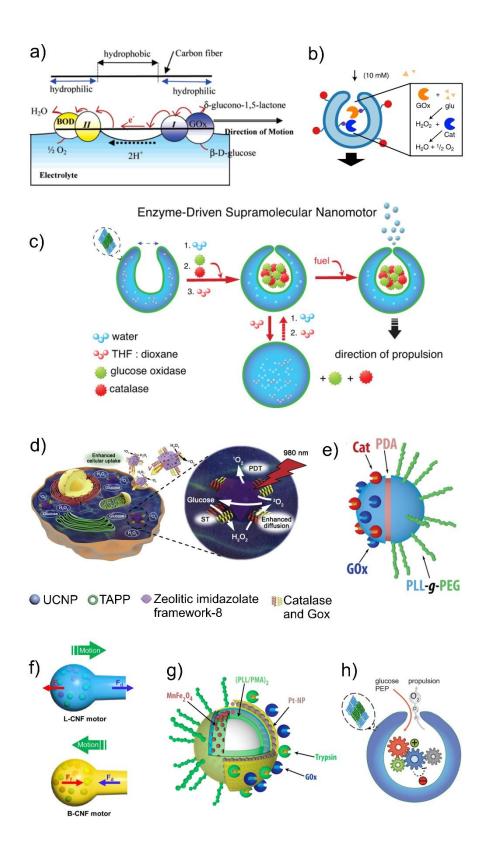


Figure 2. Schematic illustrations of dual/multiple-enzyme-powered micro/nanoswimmers.a) The structure and propulsion of a carbon fiber decorated with GOx and BOD. Adapted

from reference [29••]. b) Biodegradable polymeric nanoswimmer encapsulating GOx and 151 152 catalase. Adapted from reference [32]. c) Dual-enzyme (GOx-catalase) loaded supramolecular bowl-shaped nanoswimmer. Adapted from reference [31•]. d) Core-shell 153 enzymatic nanoswimmer for synergetic photodynamic (PDT) and starvation therapy (ST). 154 155 Adapted from reference [33]. e) Janus microswimmer with one hemisphere decorated with GOx and catalase. Adapted from reference [34]. f) Nanoswimmer powered by GOx and 156 catalase trapped in a carbonaceous nanoflask (CNF). Adapted from reference [35]. g) Janus 157 microswimmer decorated with GOx-Pt and trypsin. Adapted from reference [36]. h) 158 Nanoswimmer containing four enzymatic cycles 159 to convert glucose and phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) into mechanical energy for the propulsion of the nanoparticle. 160 161 Adapted from reference [37••].

162 4. Applications

Enzyme-powered micro/nanoswimmers have gained considerable attention in sensing, 163 cargo delivery [38], and bioremediation [39•]. The enzymatic degradation of azo-dye 164 pollutants by using laccase-based poly-(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene)-polypyrrole/Pt 165 (PEDOT-PPy-COOH/Pt) tubular microswimmers has been reported [40•]. In this case, 166 167 disproportionation of H₂O₂ on Pt, present in the inner part of the tubes, is used to produce motion, whereas, laccase is immobilized at the outer part of the swimmer in order to 168 catalyze the oxidation of the azo-dye compounds. An interesting alternative is a design of 169 170 "2 in 1" systems, where the enzymatic reaction enables the propulsion mechanism and catalyzes the decomposition of organic pollutants. For example, lipase-modified 171 mesoporous silica nanoparticles present random-walk in triglyceride/PBS solutions [41]. 172 As motion is triggered by the catalytic decomposition of triglycerides, causing a 173

concentration gradient, these devices can act as active cleaners of fully and partially soluble 174 175 oils. In a recent study, PEDOT-Au/peroxidase microswimmers were used as dynamic catalytic systems for the removal of phenolic compounds, such as phenol, bisphenol A, 176 guaiacol, pyrogallol and catechol [39•]. In these devices the immobilized peroxidase not 177 only catalyzes the decomposition of H₂O₂ to form oxygen (bubble propulsion), but also 178 degrades the phenolic compounds (Figure 3a). Different urease-powered pH-responsive 179 swimmers have been designed for the delivery of chemotherapeutic agents and bioimaging 180 probes [3,42,43]. Drug-loaded catalase-powered nanoswimmers have been used for local 181 drug delivery against inflammations [44]. These devices present positive chemotaxis 182 183 towards H_2O_2 concentration gradients, produced by phorbol ester-stimulated macrophages. 184 Recently, catalase-powered Au-mesoporous silica nanoparticles, functionalized with disulfide-linked oligo-(ethylene glycol) chains, acting as Janus gatekeepers have been 185 186 reported [45]. These devices exhibit motion via the catalytic decomposition of H₂O₂ and deliver their cargo upon recognition of a reducing agent (glutathione). Finally, enzyme-187 powered swimmers, equipped with different transducers for pH, DNA, and biomarkers, 188 have been used for sensing [46-48]. An interesting alternative is to take advantage of the 189 on-off mode of light emission in the presence of a fluorescent molecule. For example, 190 catalase-powered dissymmetric rods, functionalized with tetraphenylethene (TPE) 191 192 derivatives and fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) as fluorophores, exhibit self-propulsion due to the enzymatic decomposition of H_2O_2 , and fluorescence changes from blue to green 193 194 after the capture of tumor cells [49]. Another approach is the use of the changes in the 195 swimming behavior, *i.e.* trajectory or speed, to detect species of interest. For example, PEDOT/Au-catalase micro-tubes exhibit biocatalytic inhibition of the enzyme in the 196 presence of chemical stress (e.g., heavy metals, pesticides and herbicides), which results in 197

a decrease of bubble production, directly detectable via their swimming behavior (Figure 3b) [50•]. Recently, the directional control of self-electrophoretic BOD/Ppy/oligo- BT_2T_4 swimmers has been demonstrated [22••]. Enantioselective clockwise or anti-clockwise motion is caused in this case by a site-specific proton flux associated with the oxidation of an enantiomer present in the solution (Figure 3c). In addition, the curvature of the track can be used for the direct visualization of the degree of enantiomeric excess in the solution.

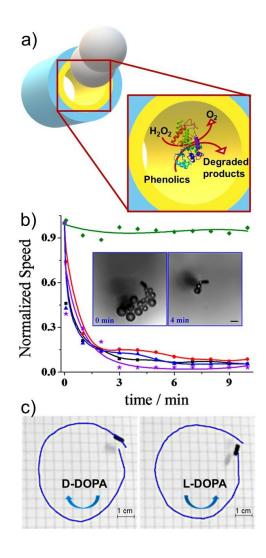


Figure 3. a) Scheme of a "2 in 1" peroxide-driven micromotor for bioremediation of phenolic pollutants. The active inner part of the swimmer catalyzes hydrogen peroxide

decomposition (propulsion) and the degradation of phenolic compounds by the 207 208 immobilized peroxidase Adapted from reference [39•]. b) Normalized speed as a function 209 of time for a PEDOT/Au-catalase micro-tube in the presence of: 100 µM Hg (black square), 210 0.6 mM Cu (purple stars), 25 μ M sodium azide (red circle), 625 mM aminotriazole (blue 211 triangle), and a control experiment without the toxins (green diamond). Inset: time-lapse images of the microswimmer recorded after 0 and 4 min swimming in a 100 µM Hg 212 solution. Scale bar, 6.0 µm. Adapted from reference [50•]. c) Macroscopic enantiospecific 213 214 motion of hybrid bioelectrochemical swimmers at the air/water interface of a solution containing 5 mM of D-DOPA (left) and 5 mM of L-DOPA (right). Adapted from reference 215 216 [22••].

217 5. Conclusions and perspectives

In this review, we have examined recent work in the field of enzyme-driven 218 micro/nanoswimmers based on different propulsion mechanisms. In the case of single-219 enzyme-powered swimmers, the enzymatic reaction triggers either the asymmetric release 220 of bubbles or the self-generation of chemical or electric gradients, causing the propulsion of 221 222 the devices. In contrast to this, in multiple-enzyme swimmers, a cascade of enzymatic 223 reactions can generate motion based on bubble propulsion or self-electrophoresis. In 224 addition, different applications of these devices are presented, where the enzymatic reaction 225 is used either for the degradation of organic molecules or as analytical tools. These devices 226 allow biomimetic self-propulsion, associated with improved biocompatibility, and efficient 227 energy conversion. Their size and controlled trajectories might enable their use in different 228 organs and cells. Nevertheless, there are still many issues to address, e.g. the toxicity of some fuels, the easy and direct visualization, the efficient biodegradability and the limited 229

life-time of the devices (recyclability). However, different approaches have been proposed 230 231 to solve these problems, like modifying the shape, increasing the catalytic performance of 232 the enzymes or using cascade reactions, and employing materials able to be digested 233 completely by enzymes (e.g., proteases) or in biological media. Finally, the enzyme-based 234 nanoswimmers, in particular those using redox reactions, have shown promises for biomedical applications. However, in order to develop drug delivery systems for "real 235 world" in vivo applications, tiny robotic systems inspired by biological reactions in which 236 237 robots and fuels are entirely biocompatible are mandatory and deserve additional research efforts. Furthermore, many other features of the robots, most importantly stability, 238 biocompatibility, selectivity, directionality and the velocity in different biological 239 240 environments need to be significantly improved prior to their commercialization.

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399 Graphical abstract

