Self-Assembly of Nanorod Motors into Geometrically Regular Multimers and Their Propulsion by Ultrasound

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ABSTRACT
Segmented gold–ruthenium nanorods (300 ± 30 nm in diameter and 2.0 ± 0.2 μm in length) with thin Ni segments at one end assemble into few-particle, geometrically regular dimers, trimers, and higher multimers while levitated in water by ∼4 MHz ultrasound at the midpoint of a cylindrical acoustic cell. The assembly of the nanorods into multimers is controlled by interactions between the ferromagnetic Ni segments. These assemblies are propelled autonomously in fluids by excitation with ∼4 MHz ultrasound and exhibit several distinct modes of motion. Multimer assembly and disassembly are dynamic in the ultrasonic field. The relative numbers of monomers, dimers, trimers, and higher multimers are dependent upon the number density of particles in the fluid and their speed, which is in turn determined by the ultrasonic power applied. The magnetic binding energy of the multimers estimated from their speed-dependent equilibria is in agreement with the calculated strength of the magnetic dipole interactions. These autonomously propelled multimers can also be steered with an external magnetic field and remain intact after removal from the acoustic chamber for SEM imaging.

KEYWORDS: nanomotor · self-assembly · colloidal molecule · acoustic motor

The ability to controllably assemble materials with complex structures and properties from nanoscale building blocks is the focus of much current research.1–6 Controlled assembly of particles can yield colloid “molecules” with emergent properties that derive from their individual building blocks. Particles in such assemblies are also analogous to atoms in crystals, and imaging their interactions provides insight into microscopic phenomena such as crystal nucleation.7,8 Many kinds of interparticle interactions have been studied to control nanoparticle assembly. These include DNA base pairing,5,9,10 electrostatic,11–13 hydrophilic–hydrophobic,14,15 and magnetic interactions,16–28 as well as shape asymmetry.29–31

In parallel, research into the collective interactions of powered microscale objects has been growing steadily and is of interest for understanding the emergent behavior of active matter.32 Most experimental studies of this kind have focused on living microorganisms or structurally simple objects such as polar nanorods, microspheres, or irregularly shaped colloidal particles.33–42 Only a few studies have explored more complex designed shapes such as hinged nanorods43 and self-assembled dimers and trimers.44–46 Deliberately assembled particles have the potential to exhibit different kinds of collective behavior and controllable movement and to incorporate several different kinds of materials and functions. Here we report the spontaneous assembly of acoustically levitated, dynamically propelled magnetic nanorods into geometrically regular “molecular” dimers, trimers, and higher multimers. The assembly and disassembly of these colloidal molecules occurs in water and in the absence of an applied magnetic field. In these experiments, ultrasonic acoustic power drives the rapid autonomous movement of individual nanorods and multimers. The kinetic energy imparted by ultrasonic excitation is important in the assembly/disassembly process because it can overcome the attractive energy of magnetic and surface interactions. Such interactions can otherwise dominate the assembly of nanoparticles,

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especially of highly polarizable metals, leading to irreversible aggregation and precipitation.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Segmented Au–Ru–Ni rods were grown by sequential electrodeposition of metals in porous anodic alumina templates from commercial plating solutions as previously described. The rods were 300 ± 30 nm in diameter and 2.0 ± 0.3 μm in length. The Ni, Au, and Ru segments were respectively 80 ± 20 nm, 1.4 ± 0.2 μm, and 0.55 ± 0.09 μm in length.

The nanorods were placed in a cylindrical acoustic chamber, 180 ± 10 μm height, 5.0 ± 0.1 mm diameter, as previously described. A schematic of the experimental setup is shown in Figure S1. Upon excitation at the resonant frequency of the cell (~4 MHz), the rods levitated to the midplane underwent the behaviors previously observed with nonmagnetic metallic rods: autonomous axial propulsion and formation of spinning chains and concentric circles of rods at the lateral acoustic nodes. The autonomous axial motion within the levitation plane derives from acoustically driven fluid streaming around the dense metal rods, which are axially asymmetric because of their concave and convex ends. Unlike nanorod motors that contained magnetic stripes in the center of the rods, those with Ni stripes at the ends spontaneously assembled into dimers, trimers, and higher multimers depending on the density of the rod suspensions and the speed of their axial movement within the levitation plane.

Interestingly, the rods tended to assemble into regular "molecular" geometries, as shown in Figure 1. Earlier experiments have shown that thin Ni segments in Au–Pt nanorods of similar dimensions to those studied here tend to be single-domain ferromagnets, in which the magnetic dipole is oriented in the plane of the Ni disk. The formation of a linear head-to-head dimer from two Ni-tipped rods can be understood as the minimization of magnetic energy through the interaction of these dipoles. We show below that this energy is on the order of 10−17 J for the assembly of dimers. The formation of regular multimers also clearly results from magnetic interactions, which are the strongest forces in the system, but the details of the orientation and arrangement of magnetic dipoles are not yet understood.

These assemblies are propelled in the acoustic field and exhibit different modes of motion. As they are propelled in the fluid, drag forces tend to break the

![Figure 1. Nanorod monomers and multimers imaged in the levitation plane of an acoustic chamber. (a) Optical image of a monomer. (b) Linear dimer with magnetic segments touching face-to-face. (c) Bent dimer. (d) Trigonal planar trimer. (e) Trigonal pyramidal trimer. (f) Tetrahedral tetramer. (g) Trigonal bipyramidal pentamer. (h) Octahedral hexamer. (i) Lower magnification optical image of multimers in the levitation plane of the acoustic cell. Some multimers are pointed out with white arrows (density: 0.014 nanorods/μm², speed: 30 μm/s). Scale bars for (a)–(h) are 5 μm. Scale bar for (j) is 20 μm. Figure S-2 and Video S-1 show additional low-magnification images and movies of multimers at low and high density of nanorods.](image)
symmetry of the multimers with the magnetic segments serving as flexible hinges, as shown in Figure 2.

**Modes of Motion.** Various modes of motion were observed for the monomers and multimers. Monomers exhibit axial autonomous motion with the nickel end leading. Dimers move in a linear conformation with the gold segment of one of the component rods leading or in a bent conformation with the nickel segments leading. The direction of movement in the bent conformation is consistent with the nickel end leading in the axial propulsion of rod monomers. Trimers have several modes of movement: translation as a trigonal planar structure with one gold end leading, translation with the nickel segments leading in a trigonal pyramidal or T-shaped conformation, in-plane rotation of the complete trigonal planar or trigonal pyramidal structure, and out-of-plane rotation of the base of the trigonal plane. The latter mode is typically observed within nodal lines. Tetramers tend to translate axially with the gold end of one of its component nanorods leading, as a square pyramid with the nickel segments leading, or via rotation of the square pyramidal structure. Within the acoustic nodal lines of the cell, tetramers form an X-shaped conformation with its two-wire base rotating with respect to its two-wire top. Pentamers and larger assemblies tend to translate axially as a whole or rotate as a whole. The most prevalent modes of motion are sketched in Figure 2 and can be seen in Video S-2.

**Dynamic Equilibrium: Assembly and Disassembly of Multimers.** The assembly of multimers tends to occur through bimolecular collisions. This can occur as a result of the collision of two monomers, a dimer and a monomer, a monomer and a trimer, or two multimers, to form a larger assembly. Disassembly occurs spontaneously (presumably when the instantaneous shear force exceeds the magnetic attraction between the component nanorods) or as a result of a collision with another motor that causes fragmentation. Frame sequences of some examples of assembly and disassembly can be seen in Figure 3 and Video S-3. The relative numbers of monomers, dimers, trimers, and higher multimers are dependent upon the number density of particles in the fluid and the speed of the motors, which is determined by the ultrasonic power applied. Hence a dynamic equilibrium is established between multimers, and the system can be modeled as a set of stepwise association reactions with equilibrium constants for each. The propulsion force is analogous to thermal excitation, and thus the equilibrium constants depend on motor speed.

Expressions for the system of equilibria (1–5) were derived (see Supporting Information), and the number density of multimers at varying total concentrations of rods was measured at three different speeds (as determined from the average speeds of the monomers).
The equilibrium distribution of multimers is dependent on the speed of particles, which provides a kind of thermal excitation that balances the attractive magnetic interaction between the ferromagnetic nickel segments. As the speed increases, the distribution shifts toward monomers, consistent with the idea that the association into multimers is exothermic. Pentamers and hexamers appear at lower speeds, and multimers higher than trimers are not present at all at the highest speed sampled in these experiments (55 μm s⁻¹). Equilibrium constants for the dimer and trimer assembly reactions at the three speeds tested are given in Table 1.

At a given speed, equilibrium constants $K_1$ and $K_2$ and their standard deviations (Table 1) could be obtained from global fits of the measured densities of monomers, dimers, and trimers (Figure 4).

Because the ultrasonic standing wave confines the nanorods within a largely 2D levitation plane, the number density of monomers and multimers was measured per unit area (as opposed to per unit volume). At low concentration, as the number density of rods in the levitation plane increases, so does the number of monomers. The monomer concentration initially increases linearly with total rod density and then grows more slowly as dimers and higher multimers begin to form (Figure 4).

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The experimental dissociation rate constants were determined for dimers and trimers moving at speeds of 17, 30, and 55 μm s⁻¹ to be 0.08, 0.2, and 0.5 s⁻¹, respectively.
with corresponding persistence times of 13, 6, and 2 s. We can estimate the attempt frequency $A$ using $A = f / 2m$, where $f = F_{\text{drag}} / \nu$, where $F_{\text{drag}}$ is the drag force, $\nu$ is the velocity, and $m$ is the mass of the rod.\textsuperscript{51} The drag force $F_{\text{drag}}$ on a cylinder moving at axial velocity is given by\textsuperscript{52}

$$F_{\text{drag}} = \frac{2 \pi \eta L}{\ln \frac{L}{R}} - 0.72 \nu \tag{8}$$

where $L$ is the length of the rod (2.0 μm), $R$ is its radius (0.30 μm), and $\eta$ is the kinematic viscosity of the water ($1.0 \times 10^{-3}$ Pa s). From this calculation we obtain $A = 1.4 \times 10^6$ s$^{-1}$ for wires traveling at 17, 30, and 55 μm s$^{-1}$, respectively. Note that this simple calculation ignores the electrostatic and van der Waals components of the interaction energy between rods, which are expected to be small compared to $E_m$.

Using the values of $E_p$ derived from the Arrhenius equation, we can extract monomer–monomer and dimer–monomer binding energies from the velocity dependence of the equilibrium constant. The van't Hoff equation relates the temperature dependence of the equilibrium constant to the reaction enthalpy:

$$\ln K_{eq} = -\frac{\Delta H}{E_p} + \frac{\Delta S}{k_B} \tag{9}$$

where $k_B$ is Boltzmann’s constant and $T$ is the system temperature. Because propulsion provides an average kinetic energy that causes dissociation, we can substitute $E_p$ for $k_B T$, yielding

$$\ln K_{eq} = -\frac{\Delta H}{E_p} + \frac{\Delta S}{k_B} \tag{10}$$

Thus, a van’t Hoff plot (Figure 4d) should have a slope of $-\Delta H$, from which we can calculate a dimer dissociation energy of $1.1 \times 10^{-17}$ J. This value is in reasonable agreement with the calculated magnetic binding energy ($E_m = 2.0 \times 10^{-17}$ J) and adds further support to the equilibrium model. From the equilibrium data (Figure 4) and the van’t Hoff equation, we can also estimate an energy for the formation of a trimer. An additional stability of $0.6 \times 10^{-17}$ J is gained by forming a trimer from a monomer and a dimer.

We can gain further insight into the balance of forces operating in the system by noting that the propulsion force equals the drag force at low Reynolds number and is directly proportional to the velocity of the rods (eq 8). $F_{\text{drag}}$ for monomers moving axially at 17, 30, and 55 μm s$^{-1}$ is 1.1, 2.0, and $3.7 \times 10^{-13}$ N, respectively. When aggregates of rods dissociate spontaneously, this force must be comparable to the attractive force between their components. The magnetic component of the attractive force between rods can be obtained by differentiating eq 6 to yield eq 11:

$$F_m = -\frac{3\mu m_1 m_2}{4\pi r^4} \tag{11}$$

This force is equal to $F_{\text{drag}}$ at $r$ values of 1.8, 1.6, and 1.3 μm for speeds of 17, 30, and 55 μm s$^{-1}$, respectively. This is...
consistent with our observations that rods passing within 1–2 μm of each other can be “captured” to form aggregates. Rods passing within this distance of aggregates can also impart sufficient force to dissociate the aggregates. An example of such a “fly-by”-induced dissociation can be seen in Figure S-3 and corresponding Video S-4.

**Magnetic Manipulation.** Magnetic manipulation of colloidal asters has previously been studied, although in much larger (millimeter-scale) assemblies. Here we conduct some simple experiments to show that nanorod multimers, like monomers containing magnetic stripes that we reported previously, can be steered in magnetic fields while remaining intact. Using the experimental setup we previously reported, a weak magnetic field (on the order of 45 mT) was applied using hand-held Nd–Fe–B magnets. The magnets were held in the plane of the acoustic cell at a distance of about 2.5 cm from the sample under observation. The assemblies were reoriented by the magnet and steered to make several loops, as shown in Figure 5a. Steering of multimers can be seen in Video S-5.

Interestingly the mode of motion of an n-mer can also be altered by using a magnetic field. This is because the magnetic components behave as flexible hinges, which can allow a variety of motions. A dimer, with application of an external magnetic field, can be driven to make several complete inversions in a “flapping” motion while being acoustically propelled in one direction. This is illustrated in Figure 5b and Video S-6.

**ISOLATION AND IMAGING**

Once assembled in water, the rod multimers can be isolated by drying, as shown in Figure 5. The nanorod suspension in the acoustic chamber was pipetted out, placed on a conductive silicon wafer, and dried for FE-SEM imaging. These images show that the colloidal “molecules” remain largely intact, but are flattened by capillary forces and surface interactions in the drying process. It remains to be seen if suspensions of regular multimers can be reconstituted from dried samples deposited on appropriate substrates.

**CONCLUSION**

Metal nanorods tipped with ferromagnetic segments assemble into n-mer “molecules” with regular geometries while levitated in a fluid acoustic cell. Levitation with ultrasound allows us to eliminate surface effects and sedimentation, enabling assembly in the absence of an applied magnetic field and in an ordinary fluid (water). The relative concentrations of multimers are described by a set of stepwise equilibrium constants, and the kinetics of their dissociation obey the Arrhenius law, both of which are modulated by an effective temperature that is controlled by adjusting the acoustic power. These assemblies are dynamic motors that exhibit various modes of motion. They can be steered with a weak applied magnetic field, their modes of motion can be altered by the magnetic field, and they can be isolated while remaining intact.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Nanowire Synthesis and Characterization.** Nanowires were grown by electrodeposition within the pores of commercial anodic alumina templates (Whatman Inc., nominal pore size 0.2 μm, actual pore diameter ~0.3 μm). Au, Ru, and Ni segments were grown sequentially by changing the deposition solution and electroplating conditions. Commercial electroplating solutions (Technic Inc., Au-Orotemp 24 RTU, Ru–U solution and Ni-Nickel...
Sulfamate RTU) were used. Gold and nickel were deposited at constant cathodic current densities of 1.17 and 0.7 mA/cm², for 15 and 6 min, respectively. A layer of evaporated silver on the porous anodic alumina membrane served as the cathode, and a Pt wire was used as the anode. Ruthenium was deposited for 30 min at a constant potential of −0.65 V vs a Ag/AgCl reference electrode.

The magnetic properties of nanowires were characterized using a SQUID magnetometer from Quantum Design, Inc. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were collected with an FEI Nova NanoSEM 630 FESEM with EDS. A backscatter detector and beam deceleration were used to obtain high elemental contrast images shown in Figure 1.

Acoustic Experiments. Acoustic propulsion experiments were carried out in an acoustic chamber previously described and shown schematically in Figure S-1. The chamber was constructed of a stainless steel plate (4.2 cm × 4.2 cm × 1 mm) with a circular piezoelectric transducer attached to it (1 mm thickness) on one side and several layers of Kapton tape (height 180 ± 10 μm) on the other side. A 5.0 ± 0.1 mm diameter hole was punched into the Kapton tape to define the cell. A glass coverslip was placed on top of the cell and served as a reflector to set up a standing acoustic wave that levitated and propelled the wires. The piezoelectric was actuated at −4 MHz using a 10 V peak-to-peak signal from a waveform generator. Videos and images were collected 2–3 min after the acoustic power was turned on in order to ensure an equilibrium distribution of multimers.

Optical Imaging and Tracking. Videos were recorded using an Olympus BX60 microscope at 500× magnification at a frame rate of 30 s⁻¹ using the software Dazzle Video Creator Plus. Nanowire tracking was carried out using the open access software Video Spot Tracker software (http://cism.ch.unc.edu/downloads/td_cat3). Conflict of Interest: The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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Supporting Information Available: Schematic drawings of the acoustic sample cell, optical microscope images and videos of nanorod monomers and multimers at high and low density, images and videos of assembly and disassembly of multimers, and description of videos. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

REFERENCES AND NOTES
