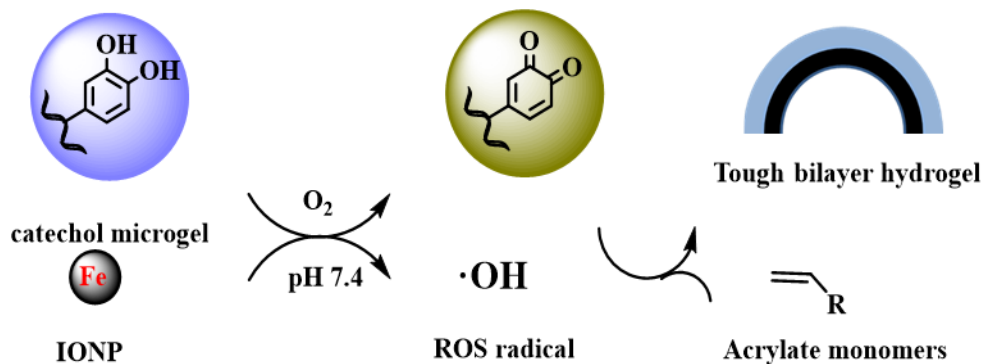


A novel catalytic system composed of mussel inspired adhesive moiety, catechol in combination of iron oxide nanoparticles, which could generate $\bullet\text{OH}$ in the presence of oxygen at pH 7.4. $\bullet\text{OH}$ could efficiently trigger various acrylate monomer polymerization and bilayer hydrogels were obtained in-situ. Notably, the incorporation of IONPs significantly enhanced mechanical properties of hydrogels.



Highlights

1. A novel catalytic polymerization system composed of iron oxide magnetic nanoparticles and catechol containing microgels was reported.
2. The system initiated the polymerization of a wide ranges of monomers in an oxygenated aqueous solution.
3. Bilayer hydrogels were formed in-situ and the mechanical properties of these hydrogels were also improved.

Acrylate monomer polymerization triggered by iron oxide magnetic nanoparticles and catechol containing microgels

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ABSTRACT: Phenol and its derivatives are the most used polymerization inhibitors for vinyl-based monomers. Here, we reported a novel catalytic system composed of mussel inspired adhesive moiety, catechol, in combination with iron oxide nanoparticles (IONPs) to generate hydroxyl radical ($\bullet\text{OH}$) at pH 7.4. The generated $\bullet\text{OH}$ efficiently triggered free radical polymerization of various water-soluble monomers. Compared with the typical free radical initiating systems, the reported system does not require the addition of extra initiators for polymerization. During the process of polymerization, a bilayer hydrogel was formed *in situ* and exhibited the ability to bend during the process of swelling. The incorporation of IONPs significantly enhanced magnetic property of the hydrogel and the combination of DHM and IONPs also improved the mechanical properties of these hydrogels.

Keywords: catechol, iron oxide, free radical polymerization, bilayer hydrogels, in-situ.

20

21 1. Introduction

22 Phenolic compounds are the most used inhibitors for free radical polymerization of vinyl- and
23 acrylate-based monomers.[1-3] These phenolic compounds usually work together with molecular
24 oxygen to react with polymer alkyl radicals produced by the initiator and forms peroxy radicals.
25 The phenolic hydroxyl groups are susceptible to integrate with peroxy radicals to form the more
26 stable radicals that terminate peroxy radicals.[4] This inhibition property is affected by the number
27 of phenolic hydroxyl groups and electronic effect of aromatic substituents.[5] Catechol, an
28 adhesive moiety found in mussel adhesive proteins, is a phenolic compound consisting of two
29 hydroxyl groups in the ortho position.[6-9] Catechol is a well-known inhibitor and can react with
30 the initiating radical through the formation of aryloxy free radicals.[10-12] Hence, the protecting
31 groups like methoxy, borax, triethylsilyl, acetal *etc.* are often employed to chemically modify
32 catechol to during the process of free-radical initiated polymerization.[13, 14]
33 Catechol can generate various types of reactive oxygen species (ROS) during different oxidation
34 conditions such as autoxidation, chemical-mediated oxidation, and metal ion-mediated
35 oxidation.^[15-17] ROS are highly reactive radicals and non-radical derivatives formed from
36 molecular oxygen. Common ROS are superoxide ($\bullet\text{O}_2^-$), singlet oxygen ($^1\text{O}_2$), hydrogen peroxide
37 (H_2O_2), and hydroxyl radical ($\bullet\text{OH}$).[18] Catechol generates $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ during autoxidation, which can
38 be further converted into H_2O_2 under basic condition.[19, 20] During iron oxide nanoparticles
39 (IONPs) mediated catechol oxidation, $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ can be converted into $^1\text{O}_2$ at both acidic and basic pH
40 ranges.[17] $\bullet\text{OH}$ is a highly reactive and potent oxidant. $\bullet\text{OH}$ can be produced by converting
41 catechol-generated H_2O_2 in the presence of iron containing compound such as hematin via a

Fenton-like reaction.[21] These ROS can be used for organic compound degradation, cancer therapy, and antimicrobial applications.[22]

Here, we seek to exploit a metal-catechol two-component catalytic polymerization system that can produce the highly active ROS for free radical polymerization (Figure 1). In this design, catechol-containing microgel is used as the source of ROS generation. Catechol converts molecular O₂ in an aqueous solution into •O₂⁻ and H₂O₂, successively, through autoxidation when the microgels were hydrated. The generated ROS can be further converted to •OH by IONPs through reacting with •O₂⁻ via the Haber–Weiss reaction or H₂O₂ via the Fenton reaction. As such, catechol and IONPs can form the redox polymerization initiators, which can catalyze the polymerization of various acrylate monomers into mechanically strong and highly stretchable hydrogels. More interestingly, the formed hydrogels were divided into two layers due to the settling of the microgel and IONPs. The layer thicknesses, actuation, and mechanical property of these hydrogels could be tuned with the content of IONPs. Finally, magnetic properties of the bilayer hydrogels were also investigated.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

IONPs, acrylamide (AM), methyl acrylamide (MAM), [2-(methacryloyloxy)ethyl]trimethylammonium chloride (METAC), [2-(methacryloyloxy)ethyl]dimethyl-(3-sulfopropyl)ammonium hydroxide (SBMA), 1-vinyl-2-pyrrolidone (N-VP), N-Hydroxyethyl acrylamide (HEAA), 2-hydroxyethyl methacrylate (HEMA), 2-acrylamido-2-methyl-1-propanesulfonic acid (AMPS), 2-acrylamido-2-methyl-1-propanesulfonic acid sodium salt solution (AMPS-Na), acrylic acid (AA), N-isopropylacrylamide (NIPPAM), 4-acryloylmorpholin (AMP) 4-vinylbenzenesulfonic acid (VBS) and 2-acrylamido-

2-methyl-1-propanesulfonic acid (AMPS) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. 2,2'-Azobis(2-methyl-N-(2-hydroxyethyl)propionamide) were purchased from FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical Corporation. Polyethylene glycol dimethacrylate-8K (PEGDMA) was purchased from polymer science. Phosphate buffer saline (PBS), ferrous oxidation–xylenol orange (FOX) Assay Kit, hydroxyphenyl fluorescein (HPF) and dihydroethidium (DHE) were purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific.

2.2. Hydrogel preparation by DHM and IONPs

Described below is the procedure for the synthesis of AP-1 hydrogel with AM and PEGDMA. Other monomer-based hydrogels were prepared using a similar procedure. AM (0.355 g, 5 mmol), PEGDMA (20.0 mg, 2.5×10^{-3} mmol) were first dissolved by 1 mL PBS (pH = 7.4) in a 5 mL vial. After that, DHM (20.0 mg) and IONPs (20.0 mg) were added into the solution and use the vortex for disperse the solution for 1 min. The mixture was put into the oven, which was set as 70 °C. The solution fully changed to gel after 120 min. The hydrogel was flushed with deionized water 3-5 times. The mass of IONPs were 5 and 10 mg for AP-0.25 and AP-0.5, respectively.

2.3. AP-0 Hydrogel preparation by 2,2'-azobis(2-methyl-N-(2-hydroxyethyl)propionamide)

AM (0.355 g, 5 mmol), PEGDMA (20.0 mg, 2.5×10^{-3} mmol) were first dissolved by 1 mL PBS (pH = 7.4) in a 5 mL vial. After that, 2,2'-azobis[2-methyl-N-(2-hydroxyethyl)propionamide] (20 mg, 0.069 mmol) were added into the solution and use the vortex for disperse the solution for 1 min. The mixture was put into the oven, which was set as 70 °C. The solution fully changed to gel after 120 min. The hydrogel was flushed with deionized water 3-5 times.

2.4. Methods

H₂O₂ characterization: Twenty-five milligrams of DHMs (containing 10 mol % DMA) were added to 1 mL pH 7.4 PBS with and without 25 mg IONPs to determine the generation of H₂O₂. H₂O₂ generation was determined using FOX Assay Kit by following a published protocol using a Synergy Mx microplate reader (BioTek, VT) ^[1].

•OH characterization: Twenty-five milligrams of DHMs were hydrated in 1 mL pH 7.4 PBS with and without 25 mg IONPs. Three microliters of HPF (10 μM) were added to the microgel suspension while protected from ambient light. The microgel suspension was incubated for up to 24 h at 37 °C (in the dark) with gentle agitation on a shaking plate. Microgels were separated by centrifugation at 8000 rpm for 15 min and the fluorescence intensity was measured in the supernatant solution using the same microplate reader above with an excitation/emission wavelength of 490/528 nm.

•O₂⁻ characterization: All the procedures were kept the same as those used in hydroxyl radical characterization besides two modifications. One modification was that HPF was replaced by DHE without changing the concentration. The other modification was using an excitation/emission wavelength of 518/606 nm for DHE detection.

FTIR: The transparent layers were cut off after the hydrogels were fully swollen. FTIR of the lyophilized the transparent layers were tested on Shimadzu IRTracer-100 spectrometer.

FE-SEM and EDX: To image the network morphology, hydrogels were freeze-dried, coated with platinum, and imaged using a FE-SEM in conjunction with EDX spectroscopy. (FE-SEM, HITACHI S-4700).

106 **Swelling ratio:** Lyophilized hydrogels (diameter $\times$ height = 10 mm $\times$ 2.5 mm) were incubated in
107 pH 3, pH 7.4 and pH 9 at 25 °C for up to 24 h. The mass of hydrogels in the swollen (W_s) and
108 dried (W_d) states were used to determine the swelling ratio (SR) as calculated by: $SR = (W_s -$
109 $W_d)/W_d \times 100\%$.

110 **Finite Element Simulations:** Finite element simulations were conducted to predict and verify the
111 shape evolution of the double-layered structures by using the commercially available finite
112 element software ABAQUS (Dassault Systems). The geometrical configurations of simulation
113 models were identical as that of the samples in the experiment. For both the black layer and the
114 transparent layer, elastic modulus is kept constant, and the swelling ratio is the only variable and
115 change over time. The shape morphing is predicted by the principle of thermal expansion, and the
116 predefined thermal field could be utilized to tune the deforming curvature.

117 **Stimuli-responsive shape transformations of bilayer hydrogels:** The bilayer hydrogel was cut
118 into strips (length $\times$ height $\times$ width = 30 mm $\times$ 2.5 mm $\times$ 2.5 mm) and equilibrated in DI water at
119 25 °C for 24 h. The shape transformation of the hydrogel in these environments was recorded
120 using iPhone 8. The bending angle of the bilayer hydrogel in the digital photo was measured, and
121 the curve of bending angle versus time was plotted.

122 **Magnetic property of hydrogels:** The magnetic properties of the hydrogels were observed
123 visually with a magnet, and their magnetization was measured accurately using a vibrating sample
124 magnetometer (VSM) (PPMS-9, Quantum Design, USA) at 300 K. The range of the applied
125 magnetic field strengths was from -60 kOe to 60 kOe. The saturation magnetization and the
126 coercivity were determined.

Rheometry: The rheological properties of the hydrogels were examined using a TA Discovery Hybrid Rheometer-2. A cone-and-plate geometry with a 20 mm diameter plate, and 3 mm gap was used for all experiments on hydrogels. Hydrogels (diameter = 20 mm, thickness = 2.5 mm) were equilibrated in DI water with nutation for 48 h. The modulus was determined at an oscillatory strain range of 0.1% to 500% at a constant frequency (f) of 0.1 Hz.

Tensile: The tensile test was performed on MTS-1025638 (MTS Systems Corporation). The long strip samples (length $\times$ height $\times$ width = 30 mm $\times$ 2~2.5 mm $\times$ 6 mm) with a gap length of 5 mm were stretched at a crosshead speed of 0.41667 mm/s. Tensile strain = $(l - l_0/l_0) \times 100\%$, where l is the stretch length and l_0 is the gap length. Tensile stress = F/S (Pa), where F is the tensile force and S is the square of original cross-sectional area.

Compression: Compressive stress-strain of hydrogels (diameter = 4 mm, thickness = 5 mm) were obtained by a mini compression test machine (Bose ELF3200, USA). The compression test was operated with a load cell of 10 N, the compression velocity was 0.1 mm/s. The stress and strain values presented were taken from 0% to 80% compressive strain.

3. Results and discussions

Catechol-containing microgels were prepared by copolymerizing dopamine methacrylamide (DMA) with HEAA microgels (DHM) following published protocol.[20] To initiate free-radical polymerization, DHM and IONPs were added to a precursor solution containing a monomer, AM, and a crosslinker, PEGDMA, in PBS (pH 7.4) (Figure 1(a)). The precursor solution solidified to form black and compact hydrogel after 120 min (Figures 1(b) and 1(c)). Interestingly, the whole polymerization process did not require removal of molecular oxygen from the reaction mixture. Due to the magnetic nature of IONPs, the obtained hydrogel could be easily abstracted by a magnet

(Figure 1(d)). FTIR spectra of hydrogels exhibited the characteristic peaks at 3320 and 1620 cm^{-1} for AM that are associated with $-\text{NH}_2$ and phenol $-\text{C}=\text{O}$ stretching groups, respectively (Figure S1).

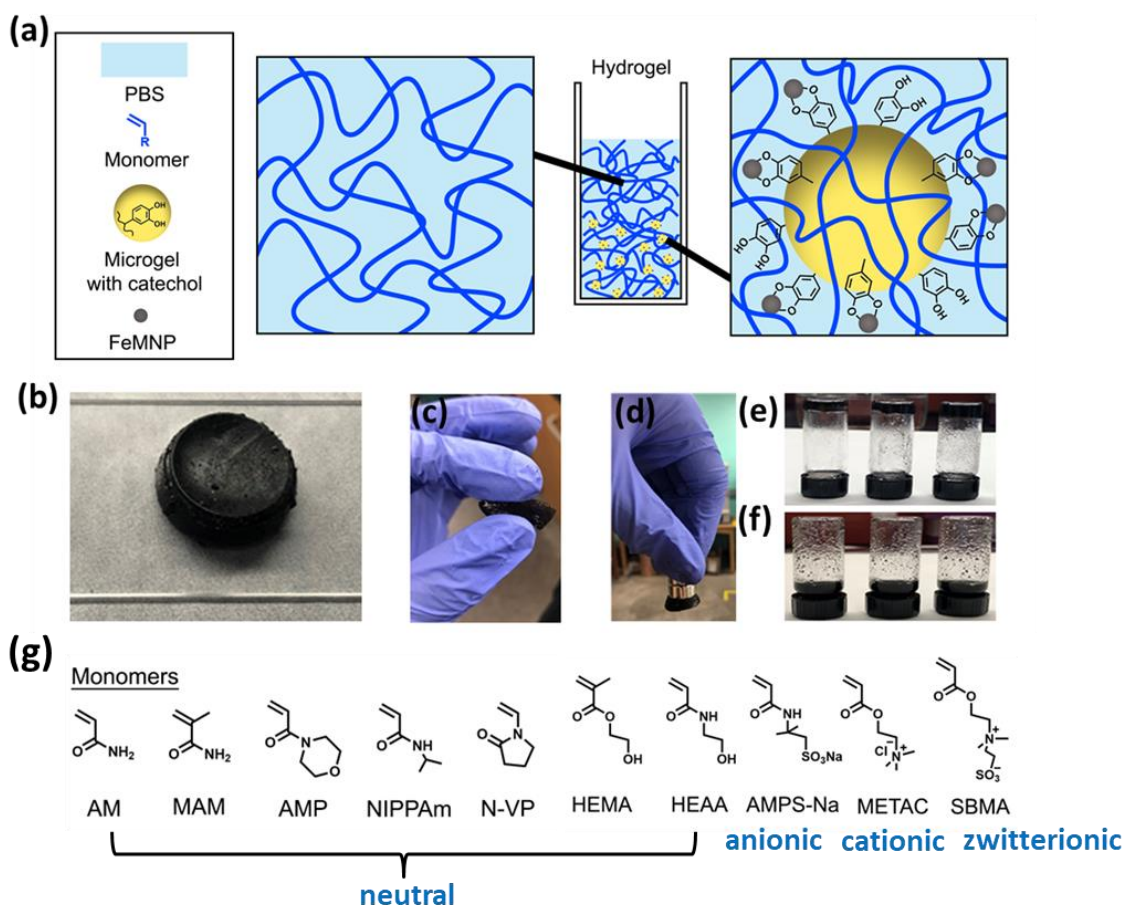


Figure 1. (a) Schematic of hydrogels formation by IONPs and DMA/HEAA microgels, (b) overhead, (c) cross-section and (d) magnetic attraction of the resulting hydrogel, vial inverting testing for (e) AM, HEMA, NIPPAM and (f) AA, VBS and AMPS, (g) Applicable monomers for this catalytic system.

158 Various water-soluble acrylate monomers including neutral monomers (AM, MAM, AMP,
159 NIPPAm, N-VP, HEMA, HEAA), anionic monomer (AMPS-Na), cationic monomer (METAC),
160 and zwitterionic monomer (SBMA) were polymerized in the presence of DHM and IONPs, which
161 confirmed the applicability of this catalytic system. However, anionic monomers without counter
162 ions such as AA with a carboxylic acid group and 4-vinylbenzenesulfonic acid (VBS) or 2-
163 acrylamido-2-methyl-1-propanesulfonic acid (AMPS) with a sulfonic acid group did not
164 polymerize using the same reaction condition (Figure 1(f)). This is mainly due to the pH change
165 of the precursor solution to an acidic condition. Similarly, when the precursor solution pH was
166 adjusted to pH 3, all the monomers (Figure 1(g)) did not polymerize. This indicated that the
167 polymerization only occurred in the basic solution, which is necessary to promote catechol
168 autoxidation and ROS generation.[23] Using a catechol-free HEAA microgel in combination with
169 IONPs or DHM without INOP did not initiate polymerization. Therefore, the combination of
170 catechol, iron, and pH were directly responsible for hydrogel formation.

171 The amount of $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$, H_2O_2 and $\bullet\text{OH}$ generated by DHM with and without IONPs were determined
172 by using DHE, FOX assay, and HPF assay, respectively (Figure 2). Upon hydration, DHM started
173 to generate $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ and the DHE fluorescence intensity was around 150 after 15 min and remained
174 unchanged over 180 min. O_2 oxidizes catechol to semiquinone and quinone, while generating $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$
175 by one-electron oxidation of catechol during the hydration.[24] Meanwhile, H_2O_2 was also
176 detected from DHM. Concentration of H_2O_2 increased over time and reached a maximum
177 concentration of around 2100 μM after 180 min. The H_2O_2 release profile was consistent with
178 previously published report.[23] $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ is generated during catechol oxidation, which further reacted
179 with protons in the solution to form H_2O_2 . However, $\bullet\text{OH}$ was not detected from DHM.

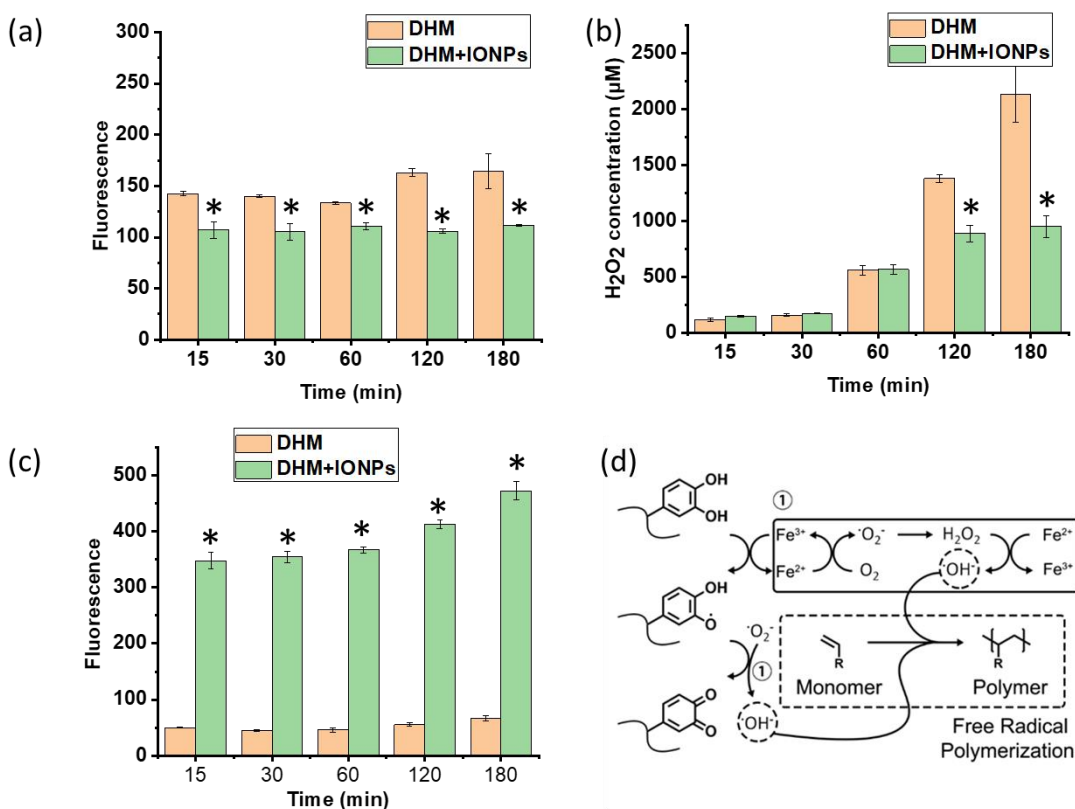


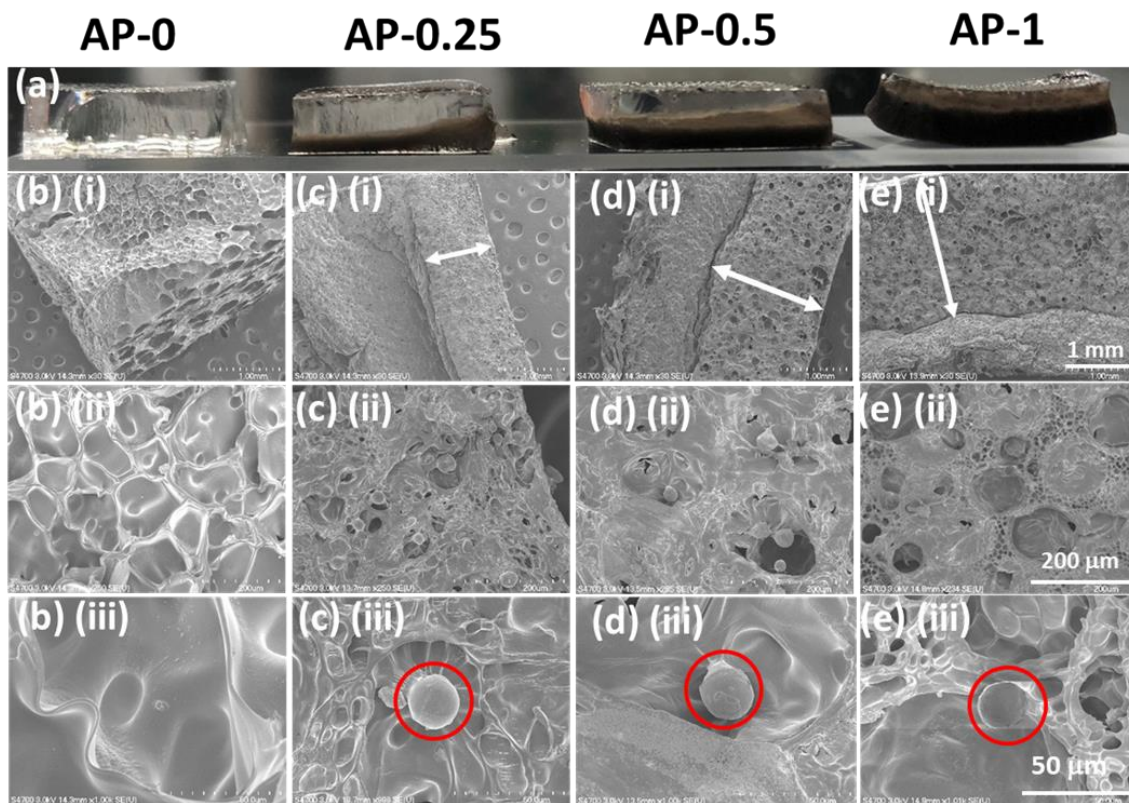
Figure 2. (a) H₂O₂ generation, (b) •O₂⁻ detection using DHE probe, (c) •OH detection using HPF probe from microgels or microgels with IONPs hydrated in PBS with different time, (d) proposed mechanism of polymerization. * p < 0.05 when compared to DHM with different time.

When both DHM and IONPs were incubated together, there was a marked reduction in the amount of •O₂⁻ and H₂O₂ that were detected when compared to DHM alone. However, the HPF fluorescence intensity increased over 7 folds with the addition of IONPs. This clearly indicated that the generated •O₂⁻ and H₂O₂ were converted to •OH in the presence of the iron metal. Catechol was first oxidized by Fe³⁺ to form a semiquinone radical intermediate. •O₂⁻ was obtained by the O₂ reduction of semiquinone and Fe²⁺. Subsequently, •O₂⁻ was further reduced to H₂O₂, which is further reduced by Fe²⁺ to produce •OH (Figure 2(d)). •OH was the main initiator that induced the polymerization of the various monomers.

The effect of the mass ratio between IONPs and DHM (0.25:1, 0.5:1, and 1:1 denoted as AP-0.25, AP-0.5, and AP-1, respectively) on the formation of the cured hydrogel was further investigated using AM as the monomer and PEGDMA as the crosslinker (Table S1). All the three hydrogels were formed after 120 min of polymerization. For comparison purposes, the control hydrogel (AP-0) was formed through polymerization using 2,2'-azobis(2-methyl-N-(2-hydroxyethyl)propionamide) at 70 °C without IONP and DHM. Interestingly, AP-0.25, AP-0.5, and AP-1 formed bilayer structures consisting of a transparent upper layer and a black bottom layer, while the control hydrogel AP-0 was the homogenous transparent layer (Figure 3(a)). The bilayer hydrogels formed due to settling of IONPs and DHM due to the hydrophobic nature of IONPs and non-water solubility of microgels when the polymerization began. The monomers were polymerized immediately adjacent to the settled DHM and IONPs given the proximity to the catalyzing moieties. The transparent top layer also formed a crosslinked hydrogel, indicating that the chain propagation did not need to occur near the catalytic DHM and IONPs.

The microstructures of these hydrogels were also confirmed by FE-SEM) (Figure 3. The control AP-0 exhibited a homogenous network structure typical of a crosslinked hydrogel. Hydrogels initiated by DHM and IONPs exhibited a bottom black layer and the thickness of this black layer increased with increasing INOP content. The black layer thickness in AP-1 was about 2.2 times and 1.3 times thicker when compared to those of AP-0.25 and AP-0.5 due to the higher IONPs content in AP-1 (Figure 3(c) (i), Figure 3(d) (i) and, Figure 3(e) (i)). Moreover, the spherical microgels were embedded into the black layers (Figure 3(c) (ii), Figure 3(d) (ii) and, Figure 3(e) (ii)). The transparent upper layers did not contain any microgels or IONPs and resembled porous network structure of a hydrogel. Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) analysis of AP-1 demonstrated that Fe elements from IONPs were distributed around the microgels in the black

215 layer (Figure S2). No Fe element was detected in the transparent layer. This indicated that IONPs
 216 were attached to the surface of the microgels because of catechol's affinity for Fe.



217 **Figure 3.** (a) Optical images of hydrogels and FE-SEM images of (b) AP-0, (c) AP-0.25, (d) AP-
 218 0.5, and (e) AP-1 at (i) 30×, (ii) 250×, and (iii) 1000× magnification. (ii) and (iii) images for column
 219 (c), (d), and (e) are images of the black layer for DHM and IONPs initiated hydrogels. The double-
 220 sided arrows indicate the bottom, black layer of the hydrogel and the red circles indicate DHM.
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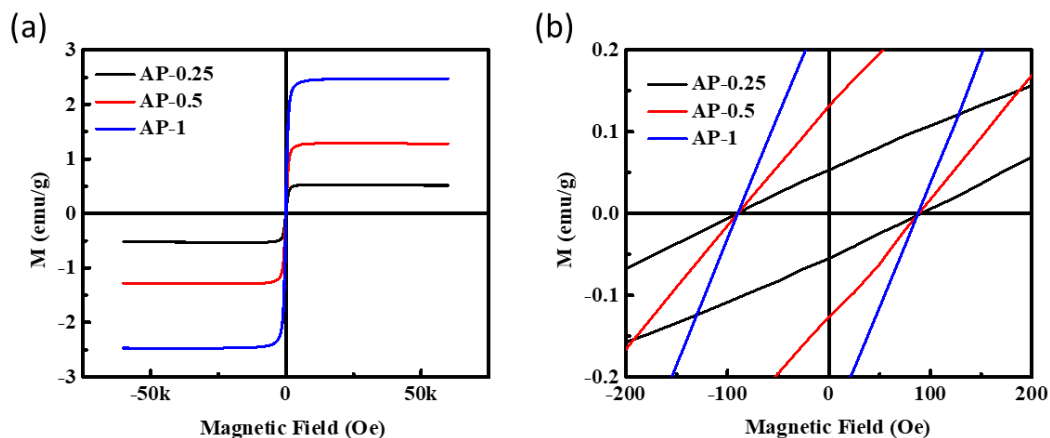


Figure 4. (a) Saturation magnetization values and (b) magnetic hysteresis loops of AP-0.25, AP-0.5 and AP-1 at 300 K.

The magnetic properties of hydrogels were measured by VSM with a magnetic field range of -60 kOe to 60 kOe at 300 K (Figure 4). The saturation magnetization values for AP-0.25, AP-0.5, and AP-1 were 2.47 , 1.28 and 0.52 emu/g, respectively (Figure 4). As expected, the magnetic intensity of the hydrogels increased with increasing content of IONPs. The hysteresis loop was from -0.1 kOe to 0.1 kOe, indicating that very low energy is required to reverse the magnetization.

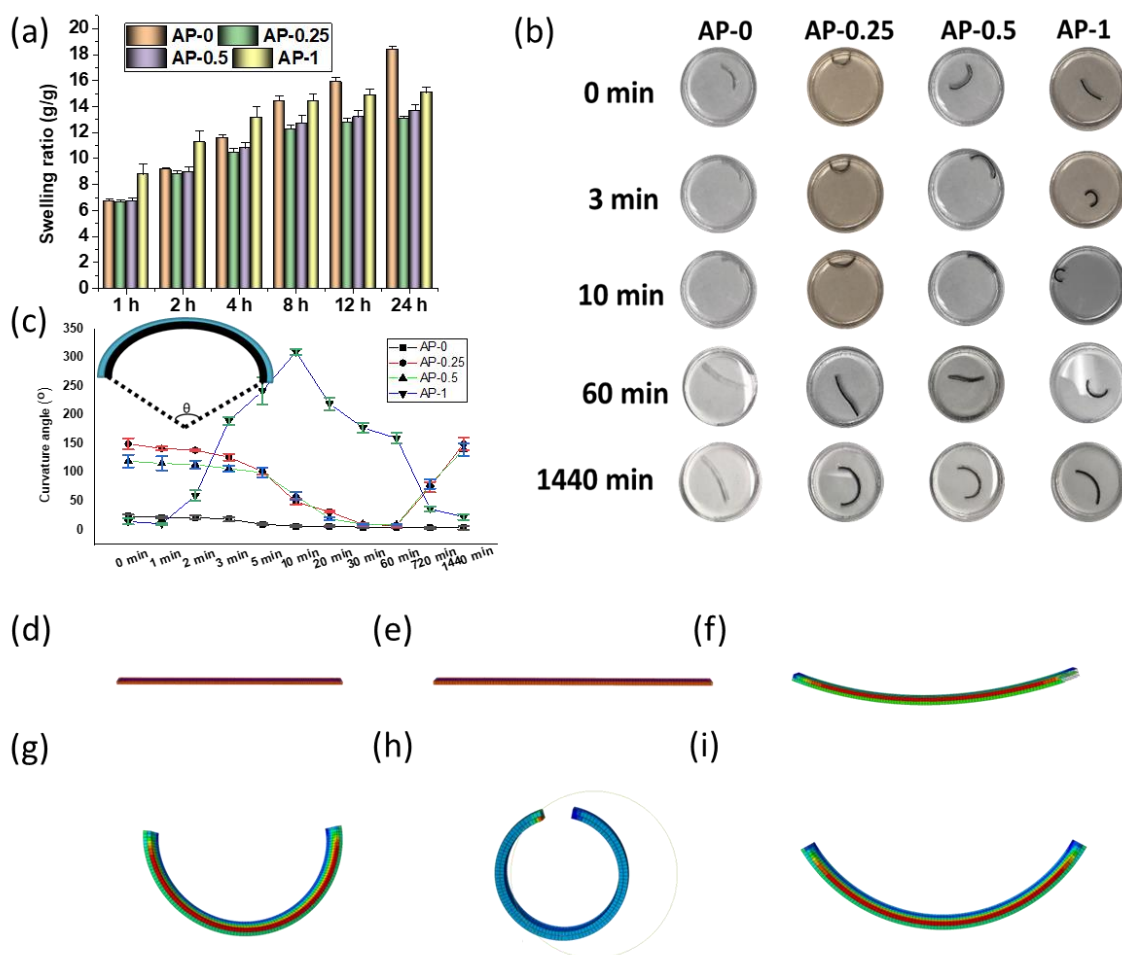


Figure 5. (a) The swelling ratios; (b) images; and (c) the curvature angels of hydrogels equilibrated in deionized water for different time. Deformation simulation of (d-e) AP-0 and (f-i) AP-1 using Abaqus.

The swelling ratios of hydrogels were around 13 to 18 after incubating the deionized water for 24 h. AP-0 exhibited the largest swelling ratio (18.2) since the hydrogel was consisted of hydrophilic AM and PEGDMA. Swelling ratios for AP-0.25, AP-0.5, and AP-1 were 12.5, 13.2 and 14.1, respectively; because the more hydrophobic DHM and IONPs were embedded within the black layers (Figure 5(a)). Due to the swelling ratio differences within the bilayers, the dry AP hydrogels

had an outward bend, arching the black layers of the materials after equilibrated in the deionized water (Figure 5(b)). Especially for AP-1, the curvature angel can reach up to 300° after 10 min of incubation. Water entered the porous structures in the black layers more easily, which was also consistent with 1 h swelling ratio results. As the swelling continued, the transparent layer absorbed more water than the black layer. As such, the curvature angel gradually decreased, and was only 45° after 24 h incubation (Figure 5(c)). Abaqus was used to simulate the deformation of AP-0 and AP-1. The results indicated that AP-0 remained mostly undeformed, while AP-1 deformed in the similar manner with the experiment results (Figure 5(d)-5(i)).

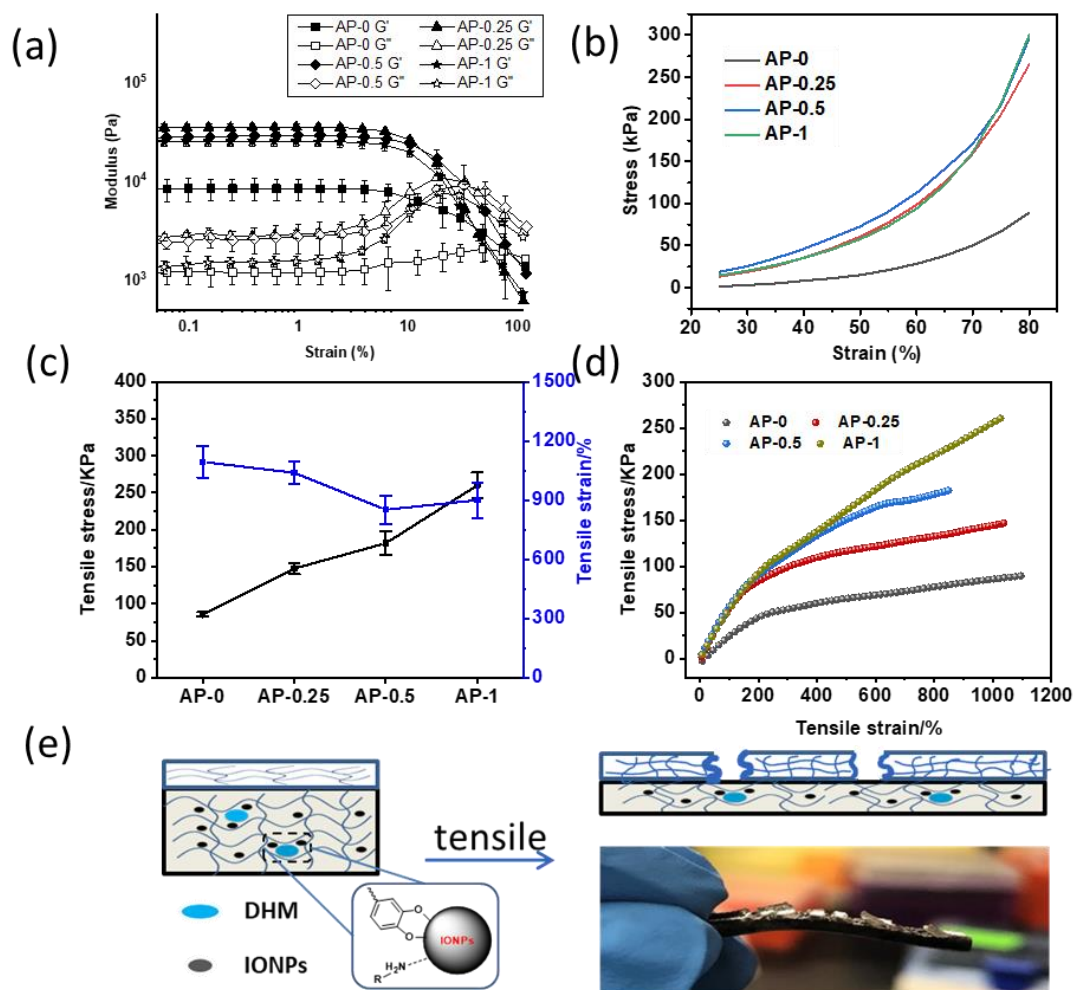


Figure 6. Mechanical properties of AP-X hydrogels. (a) Storage (G' , filled symbol) and loss (G'' , open symbol) moduli, (b) compressive stress–strain curves, (c), (d) tensile stress and tensile strain curves of AP-X hydrogels, (e) fracture mode of AP-0 AP-0.25, AP-0.5 and AP-1.

The mechanical property of AP hydrogels was also investigated. The storage modulus (G') value was 1 order of magnitude higher than the loss modulus (G'') in all cases, indicating that all the hydrogels were fully crosslinked. IONPs-containing hydrogels (AP-0.25, AP-0.5, and AP-1) exhibited higher G' values in the linear viscoelasticity regions when compared to that of the IONPs-free hydrogel AP-0 (Figure 6(a)). Similarly, the compression modulus of AP-0.25, AP-0.5, and AP-1 were 300.0, 295.7, and 265.4 kPa, all of which were much higher than 88.9 kPa of AP-0 at the compression strain of 80% (Figure 6(b)). Interestingly, AP-1 recovered automatically and rapidly to its original cylindrical shape over the multiple compressive cycles (Movie S1 and Figure S3).

Figures 6(c) and 6(d) shows the typical tensile stress–strain curves of the hydrogels in uniaxial tensile tests at a speed of 120 mm min^{-1} . IONPs free AP-0 exhibited a maximum tensile strain of 1094%, which was about 150% higher than IONPs containing hydrogels (Figure S4). The maximum tensile stress increased significantly with increasing IONPs content. Maximum tensile stress of AP-1 was 260 kPa, which was more than three times higher than that of AP-0 (85 kPa). It indicated the incorporation of DHM and IONPs improved the mechanical strength of these hydrogels only with a little sacrifice of elasticity because of the chelation effect between iron ions, catechol and amide moieties. The decreasing of elasticity was also agreed with the rheometry results. Notably, the bilayer hydrogel, AP-1 was fractured at the upper, transparent layer rather than the black layer potentially due to the higher strength of this layer (Figure 6(e)). Overall, the incorporation DHM and IONPs into hydrogels can lead to an increase in shear storage modulus,

compression modulus and tensile strength when compared to the control hydrogel. Both DHM and IONPs functioned as fillers and chemical crosslinkers to improve the mechanical property of hydrogels.

Taken together, we combined the polymerization inhibitors catechol and O_2 with IONPs, to create a new redox initiator that can generate a highly reactive ROS, $\bullet OH$. $\bullet OH$ was generated by IONPs-catalyzed oxidation of catechol and effectively initiate various acrylate monomers polymerization via a Fenton-like reaction. Compared with the typical free radical initiating systems, no extra initiators such as photo- or thermal initiators were required for polymerization. Unlike the other existing metal-catechol polymerization system[25-28], this presented polymerization occurred in a mild aqueous condition and without requiring additional source to generate free radicals. This differs from recent reports that combined metal ions (Fe^{3+} and Ag^+) and catechol while using ammonium persulfate (APS) as added source of free radicals to initiate polymerization.[25] During the process of polymerization, DHM and IONPs settled to the bottom of the reaction mixture to generate bilayer hydrogel actuator. Comparing with the existing bilayer hydrogels which were usually fabricated in a two-step method[29, 30] or with some other supplementary device[31, 32], the recipe presented in this work was much simpler and tunable. The thickness of the two layers can be easily adjusted by altering the content of IONPs. In addition, the incorporation of DHM and IONPs into AM-based hydrogels exhibited an increase of mechanical properties. The novel catalytic polymerization system by using the catechol and IONPs provides a basis for designing a novel functional bilayer hydrogel that can feature as the actuators with programmable and versatile properties for many smart soft material applications.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, a novel catalytic polymerization system composed of IONPs and catechol containing microgels was reported. This combination initiated the polymerization of a wide ranges of monomers to form a hydrogel network in an oxygenated aqueous solution. Oxidation of catechol generated $\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ and H_2O_2 , which was subsequently converted into $\bullet\text{OH}$ by IONPs in the presence of O_2 . Bilayer hydrogels were formed *in situ* and exhibited the ability to bend during the process of swelling. The incorporation of IONPs significantly enhanced magnetic property of the hydrogel and the combination of DHM and IONPs also improved the mechanical properties of these hydrogels.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at

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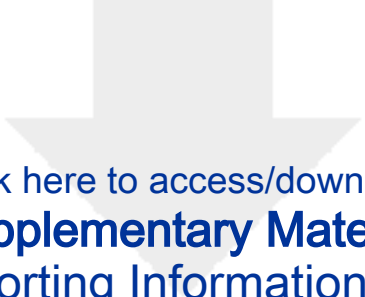
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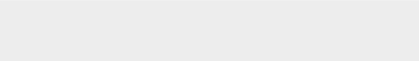
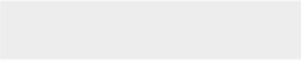
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