Magnetic Nanoparticle-Reduced Graphene Oxide Nanocomposite as a Novel Bioelectrode for Mediatorless-Membraneless Glucose Enzymatic Biofuel Cells

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In this work, an enzymatic biofuel cell (EBC) based on a membraneless and mediatorless glucose enzymatic fuel cell system was constructed for operation in physiological conditions (pH 7.0 and temperature 37 °C). The new platform EBC made of nanocomposite, including magnetic nanoparticles (Fe\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{4} NPs) and reduced graphene oxide (RGO), was used for the immobilization of glucose oxidase (GOD) as bioanode and bilirubin oxidase (BOD) as biocathode. The EBC bioelectrodes were fabricated without binder or adhesive agents for immobilized enzyme and the first EBC using superparamagnetic properties with Fe\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{4} NPs has been reported. The performance of the EBC was evaluated with promising results. In EBC tests, the maximum power density of the EBC was 73.7 μW cm\textsuperscript{-2} and an open circuit voltage (OCV) as +0.63 V with 5 mM of glucose concentration for the physiological condition of humans. The Fe\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{4}-RGO nanocomposite offers remarkable enhancement in large surface areas, is a favorable environment for enzyme immobilization, and facilitates electron transfer between enzymes and electrode surfaces. Fe\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{4} and RGO have been implied as new promising composite nanomaterials for immobilizing enzymes and efficient platforms due to their superparamagnetism properties. Thus, glucose EBCs could potentially be used as self-powered biosensors or electric power sources for biomedical device applications.

An enzymatic biofuel cell (EBC) is a tool used to generate electrical energy from fuels in combination with oxygen, which is based on the transformation of chemical energy directly into electricity via redox reactions or chemical reactions without going through the combustion process, instead utilizing natural enzymes as the catalyst\textsuperscript{1,2}. They are useful for alternative power sources and for in vivo applications such as implantable biomedical devices, miniaturized sensors transmitters and artificial organs\textsuperscript{3,4}. EBCs are of interest as power sources for biosensors and medical implants (e.g. insulin pumps, cardiac pacemakers, and other devices). To be able to activate commonly-used microelectronic devices (such as commercial pacemakers), appropriate output voltages (minimum of 1.4 V) are required\textsuperscript{5}. Glucose biofuel cells are ideally suited for implantable applications. The possibility to generate electrical power via living organisms directed biofuel cell research since the two required compounds (glucose and oxygen) are present in body fluids. To date, the vast majority of glucose biofuel cells are based on the enzymatic oxidation of glucose as a fuel at the bioanode and oxygen reduction at the biocathode. Usually, enzyme immobilization occurs by either chemical or physical means such as covalent binding\textsuperscript{6}, cross-linking\textsuperscript{7}, sol–gel\textsuperscript{8}, mesoporous\textsuperscript{9} and entrapment in polymer\textsuperscript{10}. However, the majority of EBC systems lack an efficient enzyme immobilization technique, so the production of electrical energy is not adequate for the device application. The enzyme on the electrode surface usually does not achieve significant electron transfer between the immobilized enzymes and the current collector or electrode. To solve this problem, significant efforts have been made to improve the direct electron transfer (DET) or mediated electron transfer (MET) reactions of the enzymes by immobilizing

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onto various interfaces or by using redox mediators. The publications of research generally utilize membrane and toxic mediators to improve performance, which is not appropriate for cases of implanted devices in the human body. Recently, DET-based EBC and mediatorless EBC have become more interesting due to the elimination of the mediator leak issue. Nevertheless, the rate of electron transfer between the redox center of biocatalysts and the underlying electrodes is very slow because of the electrical insulation of the active sites of the enzyme by the surrounding protein shells, leading to the low efficiency and small power output of EBCs. Moreover, the leaching out of enzymes is still a limiting factor for constructing an applicable EBC. In order to improve the electron transfer rate between the enzyme and electrode surface, some of the new trends in catalyst design for biofuel cells include the incorporation of nanoscale materials and metallic nanoparticles into the bioelectrode structure. The use of nanomaterials to develop biofuel cell electrodes has generated unprecedented interest due to their high surface area for enzyme immobilization, favorable electronic properties and electrocatalytic activity. The various structures of nanomaterials employed to modify electrodes, such as carbon nanotubes (CNT) 31, mesoporous carbon 32 and gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) 33, as well as polyaniline nanofibers 34, can increase electrical output and stability, in addition to improving electron transfer at the working electrode. Among nanomaterials, carbon-based nanomaterials and nanocomposites can provide the enhanced performance properties of electrodes such as CNT-Platinum nanoparticles 35, CNT-dendrimer 36 and CNT-polypyrrole 37, 3D graphene-SWCNT hybrid 38. Li et al. were the first to report EBC use of graphene sheet/enzyme composites to improve electron transfer and electricity generation 3. Even though these combinations can increase the electrical output and stability as well as improve the electron transfer at working electrode, the mediator and membrane were still applied for the EBC. Graphene is a single layer of carbon atoms with a two-dimensional honeycomb sp2 carbon lattice. It possesses many unique features such as large surface area, good electrical conductivity, and thermal as well as mechanical properties 39. The suitable matrix with good electrical conductivity and antifouling property to immobilize enzymes at the electrode surface is one of the most important tasks in the fabrication of mediator-less glucose EBC. Well-established magnetic nanoparticles with appropriate surface chemistry have been widely used in pollution remediation. Magnetic nanoparticles (Fe3O4 NPs) have special properties such as good biocompatibility, strong superparamagnetics, low toxicity, large surface-to-volume ratio, high surface reaction activity, and strong adsorption ability to immobilize desired biomolecules. It also uses a easy preparation process 40–22. Fe3O4 NPs formed on the surface of graphene provide more surface area for enzymes and good environmental biocompatibility for enzymes immobilized. Herein, a novel bioelectrode approach was designed and developed for glucose EBC by using nanocomposites of Fe3O4 NPs, RGO and a group of enzymes, including glucose oxidase and bilirubin oxidase to increase the immobilization of the enzyme, improve the direct electron transfer at the electrode, and improve the stability of the electrode without a binder or membrane while preventing enzyme leaching. Fe3O4-RGO nanocomposite was prepared by covalent bond and immobilized enzymes with electrostatic interaction. As well, the immobilization of enzymes and mediators usually involves complicated procedures. This work provides a simple preparation of bioelectrodes, RGO-Fe3O4 nanocomposite could be used to attracted enzymes onto electrode surfaces with a strong magnetic force. However, the use of Fe3O4 NPs in biofuel cells has not been reported. As such, the electrochemical performance of glucose biofuel cells was investigated by using electrochemical methods. These enzymatic biofuel cells might be able to replace the batteries in medical devices and other applications in the future.

Results and Discussion
Characterization of Fe3O4-RGO/GOD nanocomposite. The bioelectrodes fabrication was shown as schematic in Fig. 1. Due to Fe3O4 NPs being surrounded by a positive charge, they play an important role in immobilizing enzymes through electrostatic interaction. GOD is a negatively charged biomolecule at pH 7.0 43 that can be easily immobilized onto the positively charged amino group on Fe3O4 NPs surface via electrostatic interaction. Figure 2A, the resultant Fe3O4-RGO nanohybrids could be immediately separated from the mixture when a magnet was placed nearby the glass vial within 30 second resulting in a clear and transparent solution. Thus, the attraction and dispersion processes can be readily altered by applying and removing an external magnetic field. The morphology of Fe3O4-RGO and Fe3O4-RGO/GOD nanocomposite was characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Figure 2B shows a TEM image of Fe3O4-RGO. It can be seen that Fe3O4 NPs was distributed on the RGO sheet revealing a stacked, crumpled, wrinkled and rippled structure. Particle size was estimated to be in the range of 15–32 nm. GOD was immobilized on the Fe3O4-RGO nanocomposite by electrostatic force, as shown by the SEM image in Fig. 2D, where Fe3O4-RGO/GOD appears the spherical Fe3O4 NPs were roughness and the particles size increased dramatically and is clearly observed compared with SEM image of Fe3O4-RGO in Fig. 2C. This indicated that the protein globular structure of GOD was uniform on the Fe3O4-RGO structure. Figure 3A shows the Raman spectrum of Fe3O4-RGO, which exhibited peaks at 1371 cm−1 and 1591 cm−1 that correspond to the D band of the breathing mode of k-point phonons of A1g symmetry and G-band of the first-order scattering of the E2g phonons 24, respectively. The intensity ratios I/D of Fe3O4-RGO and Fe3O4-RGO were found to be 1.06 and 1.13, respectively, indicating the greater sp2 characteristic of graphene. This increase of I/D ratio is due to the decrease of the sp2 in-plane domain induced by the introduction of defects and disorder of the sp2 domain. This indicates that sp2 domains of Fe3O4-GO are formed during reduction using glucose as the reducing agent. FT-IR spectra of Fe3O4-RGO, Fe3O4-RGO/GOD and GOD are presented in Fig. 3B at curve a, b and c, respectively. For the Fe3O4-RGO, no obvious absorption peak was observed. The FTIR spectrum of native GOD shows two characteristic peaks at 1654 and 1545 cm−1, which are attributed to amide I and II bands of protein that can provide detailed information on the secondary structure of the polypeptide chain 25.26. The band at 1104 cm−1 was C-O bond stretching. The broad and strong peak at 3299 cm−1 was assigned to hydroxyl (OH) stretching vibrations 27. Compared to Fe3O4-RGO in curve a, the FTIR spectrum of Fe3O4-RGO/GOD exhibited absorption peaks at 1086, 1577, 1657 and 3373 cm−1. The positioning was similar to that of pure GOD, suggesting enzyme GOD successfully immobilized on Fe3O4-RGO and
could keep its native structure after being immobilized in the Fe₃O₄-RGO. Zeta potential measurement was performed under neutral conditions to verify the surface charges of Fe₃O₄-NH₂, Fe₃O₄-GO, Fe₃O₄-RGO and GOD. The zeta potential (ζ) values were presented in Fig. S1. The Fe₃O₄-NH₂ contain large amount of amine groups at neutral pH in DI water. The amine functionalized Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles showed a positive zeta potential of 30.6 mV due to the protonation of its –NH₂ group on the surface. The Fe₃O₄-NH₂ was covalent chemical bond with the carboxylic group of the GO present as Fe₃O₄-GO. The zeta potential of −16 mV for Fe₃O₄-GO can be explained by the presence of bulky oxygen groups such as carboxyl groups on GO sheet. After reduction process of GO to RGO, the zeta potentials of Fe₃O₄-RGO was 18.5 mV due to positively charge of Fe₃O₄ on RGO surface. The isoelectric point (pI) of GOD is 4.2, which reveals that GOD carries net negative charges at pH 7.0. The results showed that GOD is negatively charged at pH 7.0 which corresponding to zeta potential of GOD in PBS.

Figure 1. Schematic representation of (A) the preparation of Fe₃O₄-RGO and (B) the fabricated bioelectrodes for glucose EBC.
pH 7.0 was $-20.5 \text{mV}$. Therefore, the negative surface charge of GOD could be easily adsorbed onto the positively charged on Fe$_3$O$_4$-RGO surface through the electrostatic interactions.

**Electrochemical behavior of magnetic glassy carbon electrode (MGCE).** The electrochemical behavior of fabricated magnetic glassy carbon electrode (MGCE) was characterized by cyclic voltammetry. Ferricyanide (K$_3$Fe(CN)$_6$) was used as a redox probe to investigate the electrochemical behaviors of MGCE comparing to the bare commercial glassy carbon electrode (GCE) with equal diameter of 3 mm at the scan rate of 50 mV/s in 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0. Figure 4A, the CVs curve of the bare GCE in curve a showed a pair of well-defined quasi-reversible peaks with slightly lower peak current and larger peak separation potential than MGCE in curve b. Compared to the bare GCE, the redox peak currents of the bare MGCE increased greatly, implying that the MGCE electrochemical property can be applied for biosensors and BFCs. The electrode surfaces of glassy carbon have been examined by microscopy. Figure S2a–c shows microscopic images of unpolished, polished bare MGCE and bare GCE surface, respectively. It can be seen that the unpolished bare MGCE was rough. After applied aluminium oxide particles to give a polished MGCE surface, the electrode surface was smooth without scratches surface.

**Direct electrochemistry of GOD immobilized Fe$_3$O$_4$-RGO modified electrode.** GOD molecules have flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) as redox centers deep localization inside the protein structure, thus the DET for GOD is extremely difficult. In order to improve the electron transfer of FAD, Fe$_3$O$_4$-RGO was applied to immobilize GOD. Figure 4B shows the cyclic voltammograms of bare MGCE in N$_2$-saturated PBS at a scan rate of 100 mV/s. No peaks were observed for GOD/MGCE (curve a) and Fe$_3$O$_4$/GOD/MGCE (curve b). The background current of Fe$_3$O$_4$/GOD/MGCE was higher than the GOD/MGCE, which can be ascribed to the large surface area of Fe$_3$O$_4$ showing a distinct electrochemical response. In Fig. 4B, curve c shows redox peak of Fe$_3$O$_4$-RGO/GOD/MGCE with anodic peak potential ($E_{pa}$) at $-0.438 \text{V}$ and cathodic peak potential ($E_{pc}$) at $-0.475 \text{V}$. The peak potential separation ($\Delta E_p$) is about $37 \text{mV}$. These results demonstrate the fast DET kinetics of the GOD on the surface of Fe$_3$O$_4$ on the graphene sheet. The well-defined and quasi-reversible redox peaks suggest favorable direct-electron transfer between the electrode and redox centers of GOD molecules. The formal potential ($E^0$) obtained by averaging potential values of the $E_{pa}$ and $E_{pc}$ was $-0.457 \text{V}$. This value is close to...
the standard electrode potential of $-0.483$ (vs. Ag/AgCl) for FAD/FADH$_2$ at pH 7.0, suggesting that the GOD molecules retain bioactivity after adsorption on the Fe$_3$O$_4$-RGO nanocomposites. The DET process mechanism was described in equation (1) and (2). GOD is a two-protons and two-electrons coupled reaction, FAD serves as the catalytic site of GOD by accepting the electrons donated by the glucose and being reduced to FADH$_2$. In this process, glucose is converting into gluconolactone. (GOD)FADH$_2$ is then oxidized by electrode to (GOD)FAD. Two protons and two electrons can subsequently be transferred from GOD to bioanode. O$_2$ is a natural electron acceptor for GOD. In presence of O$_2$, GOD can be transfer electron to O$_2$ then reduced into hydrogen peroxide as present in equation (3). Therefore, O$_2$ is a competing electron acceptor to DET reaction. Unfortunately, it is well known that DET system did not require oxygen due to FAD serves as the catalytic site of GOD by accepting the electrons donated by the glucose and being reduced to FADH$_2$. The electrons can be transferred directly from GOD to electrode through Fe$_3$O$_4$-RGO composite. Moreover, based on membraneless EBC, the cathode compartment could be consumed most of O$_2$ for reduction reaction. In addition, the stability of Fe$_3$O$_4$/GOD/MGCE was also evaluated as shown in Fig. S3. There was no obvious change in redox peaks could be seen from the CV curves, the CVs curves still almost remained from their initial cycle after continuous scanning for 100 scan cycles. This can be implied that the fabricated electrode is very stable.

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\text{GOD(FAD) + glucose} \rightarrow \text{GOD(FADH$_2$) + gluconolactone} \tag{1}
\]

\[
\text{GOD(FADH$_2$)} \leftrightarrow \text{GOD(FAD) + 2H}^+ + 2e^- \tag{2}
\]

Figure 3. (A) Raman spectrum of Fe$_3$O$_4$-GO (a) and Fe$_3$O$_4$-RGO (b). (B) FT-IR spectrum of Fe$_3$O$_4$-RGO (a), Fe$_3$O$_4$-RGO/GOD (b) and GOD (c).
The influence of scan rate. The effect of the scan rate on cyclic voltammetric performance at the Fe₃O₄-RGO/GOD modified MGCE is shown in Fig. 5A. The redox processes of nanocomposite gave almost symmetric anodic and cathodic peaks (Eₚa and Eₚc) at relatively slow scan rates. When the scan rate increases, the redox potentials of GOD shift slightly. The anodic and cathodic peak currents linearly increased with the increasing scan rate from 10 to 100 mV/s. This indicates that the redox reaction of GOD on Fe₃O₄-RGO modified electrode was a quasi-reversible surface-controlled process. The surface concentration (Γ, mol/cm²) of electroactive GOD can be calculated as 2.03 × 10⁻¹¹ mol/cm² according to the formula Γ = Q/nF/A, where Q is the charge consumed in C, n is the number of electrons transferred (n = 2), A is the electrode area (cm²) and F is the faraday constant. Figure 5B displays the plot of cathodic peak current versus the scan rate, a linear relationship with linear regression equations: Iₚa = 0.071x − 0.0337, Iₚc = −0.073x + 0.0384 with a correlation coefficient of 0.994 and 0.996, respectively. These results demonstrate the fast DET kinetics of the GOD on the surface of graphene. According to Laviron's equation, the plots of Eₚa and Eₚc vs. the logarithm of the scan rates (log ν) produce two straight lines with slopes of 2.3RT/(1−α)nF and −2.3RT/αnF at high scan rates, as shown in Fig. 5C. The charge transfer coefficient (α) and the electron transfer rate constant (kₐ) for the proposed electrode were calculated as 0.5 and 0.07 s⁻¹, respectively, according to following Equation 4. This result indicated that RGO-Fe₃O₄ facilitates fast electron transfer between the redox-active site of enzymes and the surface of electrode. The immobilized GOD on RGO-Fe₃O₄ electrode provides fast electron transfer between the redox center of the enzyme and the surface of the electrode, implying that graphene can remarkably enhance the DET kinetics of GOD.

\[
\text{GOD(FADH}_2\text{)} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{GOD(FAD)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2
\]
Electrocatalytic behavior of the Fe$_3$O$_4$-RGO/GOD/MGCE. Figure 6 shows the CVs of the Fe$_3$O$_4$-RGO/GOD/MGCE in a solution containing different concentrations of glucose O$_2$-saturated without glucose (a), with glucose concentration of 0.5, 1, 2, 4 and 8 mM (b–f) and N$_2$-saturated without glucose (g).

\[
\log k_i = \alpha \log(1 - \alpha) + (1 - \alpha) \log \alpha - \frac{RT}{nFv} \frac{\alpha(1 - \alpha)nF\Delta E_p}{2.3RT}
\]

(4)
Electrocatalytic behavior of biocathodes. For biocathodes, the reduction of O₂ generally utilized two types of enzymes, including bilirubin oxidase and laccase. Laccase presents an optimum activity around pH 4-5. BOD electrocatalytic activity was investigated at neutral pH or pH 7.0 which was suitable for a real application system. BOD is one of the multicopper oxidase selected for catalyzing the four-electron reduction of oxygen to water at the biocathode because BOD can efficiently work as an electrode biocatalyst even under neutral conditions. In their structure, the T1 copper site gives electrons to the electrode and transfers those electrons to the T2/T3 copper site, where oxygen is reduced to water in a four-electron transfer mechanism according to Equation 5.

The electrocatalytic reaction of BOD on Fe₃O₄-RGO/MGCE as biocathode was examined using CV. The experiments were carried out under nitrogen saturated and oxygen saturated conditions at the potential between −0.1 V to +0.7 V at a scan rate of 1 mV/s. Figure 7A displays the CVs recorded at Fe₃O₄-RGO/BOD/MGCE in N₂ (curve a) and O₂ (curve c) saturated 0.1 PBS pH 7.0. It can be seen that the presence of oxygen in the system and a highly enhanced cathodic peak current increase was observed with a peak potential of oxygen reduction of +0.51 V versus Ag/AgCl. The potential of the peak begins at +0.60 V, whereas the presence of nitrogen in the modified electrodes exhibited no catalytic activity. These results agree with literature data of approximately +0.5 V (vs. Ag/AgCl), which is close to the redox potential of the T1 copper site BOD. It demonstrates that the modified electrode that immobilized BOD has the capability to achieve DET and efficiently catalyze oxygen reduction to water. Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) was also used to study the electrocatalytics of RGO-Fe₃O₄/BOD/MGCE. Figure 6B shows the linear sweep voltammograms (LSVs) obtained at RGO-Fe₃O₄/BOD/MGCE in oxygen saturated 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0. The reduction current increased, indicating that oxygen reduction activity occurred at the RGO-Fe₃O₄/GOD/MGCE. As shown in Fig. 7B in curve b, O₂ saturated the current response and showed significant increase by two-fold compared to N₂ saturated (curve a). The biocatalytic appears potential at +0.51 V, indicating BOD was envisaged as the new biocathode of EBC for oxygen reduction in a neutral medium.
The performance of EBC.

EBC performance was measured with RGO-Fe₃O₄/GOD/MGCE as the bioanode and RGO-Fe₃O₄/BOD/MGCE as the biocathode without a separating membrane, as shown in Fig. 1. The EBC system was operated at 37 °C in 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0 and 5 mM of glucose was used as fuel. At the bioanode, glucose was oxidized by GOD to gluconolactone, where the electrons were transferred from the GOD to the Fe₃O₄-RGO/MGCE. Electrons were flowed through an external circuit then released at the biocathode to BOD, where oxygen was reduced into water. An electrical current is generated as a result of the electrons flow. The cell voltage was measured with a multi-meter under different loads varying from 10 MΩ to 200 Ω applied to the EBC system. The current and power density was calculated from the voltage using ohm’s law. Figure 8 shows two curves of the polarization curve and power density curves of the EBC in the presence of 5 mM glucose, describing the dependence of both open circuit voltage (OCV) and the power density (P) on current density (j). The OCV of the EBC was around +0.626 V, the maximum current density was 380 µA cm⁻² and the maximum power density was 73.7 µW cm⁻² at +0.38 V which was higher than the glucose EBC reported by V. Krikstolaityte et al., 2013 (3.5 µW cm⁻²)³⁵–³⁸ and A. Ramanavicius et al., 2015 (4.2 µW cm⁻²)³⁹. The improvement of power output can be achieved by Fe₃O₄-RGO nanocomposite. The performance of this present glucose EBC is quite comparable and better than some previously reported in literature for mediatorless glucose EBC based on DET in both bioelectrodes, as shown in Table 1. The EBC showed repeatability with an R.S.D of 5.73% for 5 repeatable measurements carried out with the flow system. These results indicate that Fe₃O₄-RGO based nanocomposites can be useful materials for the fabrication of EBC to gain energy from biological fuels such as glucose. Moreover, Fe₃O₄-RGO has great potential for the fabrication of glucose EBC due to operation in the absence of an electrolyte membrane.

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\text{O}_2 + 4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^- \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}
\]  

Table 1. Comparison of glucose EBC based on mediatorless type for both cathode and anode. CNDs: carbon nanodots; pSi: porous silicon wafer; SWNTs: SWNTs; GOD: glucose oxidase; BOD: bilirubin oxidase; SPGE: spectrographic graphite electrodes; GDH: Glucose dehydrogenase; CNTs-IL: ionic liquid functionalized carbon nanotubes; NPNW: Nafion/poly(vinyl pyrrolidone) compound nanowire; CP: carbon paper; CG: carbon aerogel; CNP: carbon nanopowder; PEI: Poly(ethylenimine); PPR: polypyrrole.

| Modified electrode      | Anode enzyme | Cathode enzyme | OCV (V) | Power density (µW cm⁻²) | Glucose concentration | Ref. |
|-------------------------|--------------|----------------|---------|-------------------------|-----------------------|-----|
| SWNT/pSi                | GOD          | laccase        | —       | 1.38                    | 4 mM, pH 7            | 33  |
| SWNT/PPR: CNT/PPR      | GOD          | tyrosinase     | —       | 157.4                   | 1 mM, pH 6.5          | 17  |
| CNT disks               | GOD/catalase | laccase        | 0.95    | 1300                    | 5 mM, pH 7            | 11  |
| CNTs-IL/CP              | GDH          | BOD            | 0.56    | 13.5                    | 30 mM, pH 7           | 34  |
| NPNW                    | GOD          | laccase        | 0.23    | 30                      | —                     | 35  |
| Graphene/SWNT cogel     | GOD          | BOD            | 0.61    | 190                     | 100 mM, pH 7          | 36  |
| CNDs/GC                 | GOD          | BOD            | 0.93    | 40.8                    | 4 mM, pH 7.2          | 32  |
| CNT-PEI                 | GOD          | laccase        | —       | 102                     | 40 mM, pH 5.5         | 37  |
| Fe₃O₄-RGO/MGCE          | GOD          | BOD            | 0.63    | 73.7                    | 5 mM, pH 7            | This work |

The performance of EBC. EBC performance was measured with RGO-Fe₃O₄/GOD/MGCE as the bioanode and RGO-Fe₃O₄/BOD/MGCE as the biocathode without a separating membrane, as shown in Fig. 1. The EBC system was operated at 37 °C in 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0 and 5 mM of glucose was used as fuel. At the bioanode, glucose was oxidized by GOD to gluconolactone, where the electrons were transferred from the GOD to the Fe₃O₄-RGO/MGCE. Electrons were flowed through an external circuit then released at the biocathode to BOD, where oxygen was reduced into water. An electrical current is generated as a result of the electrons flow. The cell voltage was measured with a multi-meter under different loads varying from 10 MΩ to 200 Ω applied to the EBC system. The current and power density was calculated from the voltage using ohm’s law. Figure 8 shows two curves of the polarization curve and power density curves of the EBC in the presence of 5 mM glucose, describing the dependence of both open circuit voltage (OCV) and the power density (P) on current density (j) of the bioelectrode based glucose EBC. The OCV of the EBC was around +0.626 V, the maximum current density was 380 µA cm⁻² and the maximum power density was 73.7 µW cm⁻² at +0.38 V which was higher than the glucose EBC reported of V. Krikstolaityte et al., 2013 (3.5 µW cm⁻²)³⁵–³⁸ and A. Ramanavicius et al., 2015 (4.2 µW cm⁻²)³⁹. The improvement of power output can be achieved by Fe₃O₄-RGO nanocomposite. The performance of this present glucose EBC is quite comparable and better than some previously reported in literature for mediatorless glucose EBC based on DET in both bioelectrodes, as shown in Table 1. The EBC showed repeatability with an R.S.D of 5.73% for 5 repeatable measurements carried out with the flow system. These results indicate that Fe₃O₄-RGO based nanocomposites can be useful materials for the fabrication of EBC to gain energy from biological fuels such as glucose. Moreover, Fe₃O₄-RGO has great potential for the fabrication of glucose EBC due to operation in the absence of an electrolyte membrane.
physiological conditions of humans, preparation protocols and simple EBC assembly protocols without mediators or membranes.

**The stability of EBC.** The stability of EBC was characterized by measuring its power loss when continuously working in an air-saturated quiescent buffer containing 5 mM glucose coupling with 1 MΩ of resistance loaded on the cell. The maximum power density was observed for 4 weeks. After operating for 24 h, the power of the EBC retained 98.37 % of its original power output and held steady at 95.39 % after duration of 7 days. Then 78.7 % of initial power density was retained even after 4 weeks, which revealed good durability and stability of the fabricated EBC as shown in Fig. S4. However, the OCV of the EBC remained unchanged during the duration. This could indicate that covalent bonding was unaffected by changes in the surrounding environment. Moreover, the electrostatic interaction binds with enzymes and magnetic force at MGCE to prevent leaching from the electrode surface during operation and storage. In EBC development, the stability of the enzymes on the electrode is the main factor for retaining long-term performance of the membraneless EBC. However, no significant breakthrough has been achieved in this work concerning the longevity of EBCs.

**Methods**

**Reagents and materials.** Graphene oxide (GO > 99 wt% purity and total thickness < 3 nm. Average dimensions of individual flakes ranged from 300–800 nm, Glucose oxidase (EC 1.1.3.4 from *Aspergillus niger*), Bilirubin Oxidase (EC 1.3.3.5 from *Myrothecium verrucaria*), Iron (III) chloride hexahydrate (FeCl3·6H2O), 1-ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl) carbodiimide (EDC), N-hydroxysuccinimide (NHS), Ammonium hydroxide (NH4OH), 1,6-Hexanediamine, Glucose, Sodium acetate (NaAc) and Ethylene glycol (EG) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich and used without further purification. A 0.1 M phosphate buffer saline PBS, pH 7.0 was prepared using mixing solutions of Na2HPO4 and NaH2PO4. The glucose solution was prepared overnight before use to allow mutarotation for 24 hours. All solutions were prepared with deionized water (DI).

**Apparatus.** The electrochemical experiments were performed with a potentiostat (Metrohm Autolab PGSTAT302N, Ecochemie, Netherlands). The three electrode system was performed with a homemade magnetic glassy carbon electrode (MGCE) as a working electrode, a platinum wire as a counter electrode and an Ag/AgCl saturated KCl as the reference electrode.

**Magnetic glassy carbon electrode fabrication.** The magnetic glassy carbon electrode (MGCE) was prepared by placing a nummular NdFeB magnet (3 mm in diameter and 4 mm in thickness) on a glassy carbon (3 mm in diameter and 3 mm in thickness). A copper wire was put around the magnet and filled with silver glue, which was then put into an acrylic tube (10 mm in diameter and 20 mm in depth). All components were fixed with epoxy resin then cured at room temperature for at least 24 h. The MGCE was successively polished with emery paper and alumina powder, followed by sonication in DI water.

**Preparation of Fe3O4-RGO nanocomposite modified electrode.** The NH2-Fe3O4 NPs were prepared using a solvothermal method. Briefly, FeCl3·6H2O 1 g and sodium acetate 3 g were dissolved in 30 mL of ethylene glycol and 6.5 g of 1,6-hexanediame. After the mixtures were dispersed, the yellow solution was transferred to a teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave and sealed to heat at 200 °C for 6 h. Then the autoclave was cooled to 80 °C for 5 h under stirring. The Fe3O4-GO nanocomposite was obtained by magnetic separation and washed into 1 mL 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0 solutions. The Fe3O4-RGO modified MGCE was immersed into the GOD solution statically interaction between the positive charge of Fe3O4 and the negative charge of GOD. 30 mg of GOD was added into GOD solution for 60 min at 95 °C. Finally, the resulting stable black dispersion solution was washed with water several times. Fe3O4-RGO nanocomposite based on glucose reduction was prepared. In brief, 40 mg glucose was added into a 25 mL Fe3O4-GO dispersion solution followed by stirring for more than 0.5 h. A 100 µl ammonia solution (25% w/w) was added into the resulting dispersion solution. After that, the mixture was stirred for 60 min at 95 °C. Finally, the resulting stable black dispersion solution was washed with water several times. The obtained Fe3O4-RGO nanocomposite (10 mg/1 mL) was redispersed in DI water before further use. Finally, the 10 µl Fe3O4-RGO nanocomposite solution was dropped onto the MGCE surface.

**Bioelectrode fabrication.** GOD was immobilized onto the Fe3O4-RGO modified MGGE through electrostatic interaction between the positive charge of Fe3O4 and the negative charge of GOD. 30 mg of GOD was added into 1 mL 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0 solutions. The Fe3O4-RGO modified MGGE was immersed into the GOD solution (30 mg/mL in 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0) then reacted at room temperature for 24 h. The Fe3O4-RGO/GOD modified surface was washed with DI water to remove the unadsorbed enzyme molecules and allowed to dry at room temperature. The modified electrode was stored at 4 °C when not used. The preparation of biocathode used BOD instead of GOD.

**Biofuel cell set up.** The EBC cell constructed with three-dimensional printer (3D printer) using poly(lactic acid), PLA as a material. The EBC cell consists of Fe3O4-RGO/GOD and Fe3O4-RGO/BOD as bioanode and biocathode, respectively, with electrode spacing of 0.5 cm. The EBC system was fed with 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0 containing 5 mM of glucose delivered to the electrode chamber using a peristatic pump. The voltage output was measured using a multi-meter with application of external resistance (Rext) varying from 10 MΩ to 200 Ω. The voltage was used to calculated power (P) according to the equation $P = IV/A$, where $I$ is the current, $V$ is the voltage and $A$ is the area of the electrode. The EBC was operated at human physiological temperature (37 ± 1°C).
Conclusions

This paper successfully demonstrates a design and simple platform for construction of an enzymatic biofuel cell based on direct electron transfer (mediatorless) BFC by FeO$_x$-RGO/GOD as the bioanode and FeO$_x$-RGO/BOD as the biocathode. Enzymes were incorporated into FeO$_x$-RGO by strong electrostatic interaction. The properties of graphene and magnetic nanoparticles enhance enzymatic biofuel cells for more efficient conductivity and also increase the immobilization of enzymes and modified bioelectrodes without the binder or adhesive agents that usually block electron transfers at electrode surfaces. FeO$_x$ NPs not only increase the surface area, but also have paramagnetic properties which make them more easily manipulated by an external magnetic field to prevent the leakage of enzymes at electrode surfaces. This bioelectrode fabrication approach could offer promising solutions for generations of new classes of membraneless biofuel cells.

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Author Contributions
S.P., R.P.P. designed this research, S.P. performed experiments. S.P., R.P.P. discussed and analysed the results. S.P. wrote the manuscript. S.P., A.T., R.P.P. reviewed the manuscript.

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