

## Toxicity Induced by Engineered Nanoparticles in Fresh Water Fish- a Review of Recent Developments

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### Abstract

Present review highlights current research available on the toxic behaviour of a few widely used nanoparticles in several fresh water fish inhabiting different niche and aquatic habitats. Information collected from suitable databases on carbon nanotubes, fullerenes, quantum dots and nanoparticles of silver, gold, titanium, zinc, copper, cerium shows their ubiquitous presence in water bodies. Anthropogenic activities discharge them into near- by aquatic systems where they tend to be residual. These particles, in fish are absorbed through gills and mouth. Trophic relationships also facilitate their intake through food chain. Depending upon their physico-chemical properties and water quality, their bioaccumulation occurs in soft tissues viz. gills, liver, kidney, brain and gonads of the fish.

Frequently used fish models for their toxicity assessment include zebra fish (*Danio rerio*); fresh water carp (*Cyprinus carpio*); rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) and tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*). A few workers have used medaka fish and cat fish also. *In vitro* studies mainly deal with embryos of zebra fish, RTG-2 cells of rainbow trout and gonad cell lines. These reports describe their effects on gills, liver, kidney, brain, gonads and immune system. Dose dependent effects of NPs in different species have been assessed employing a variety of parameters viz. lipid peroxidation, oxidative stress, antioxidant enzymes and histopathology. Factors responsible for inflammation and apoptosis have also been studied in a few species.

Nonetheless, several endpoint mechanisms i.e. mitochondrial homeostasis, endoplasmic reticulum stress, reductive stress and metallothionein induction need to be studied further. In nut shell, our understanding on nanoparticle toxicity in fish so far, remains incomplete and warrants further research on molecular mechanisms of their toxicity.

**Keywords:** Fish; Nanoparticles; Oxidative Stress; Apoptosis and Organ Toxicity

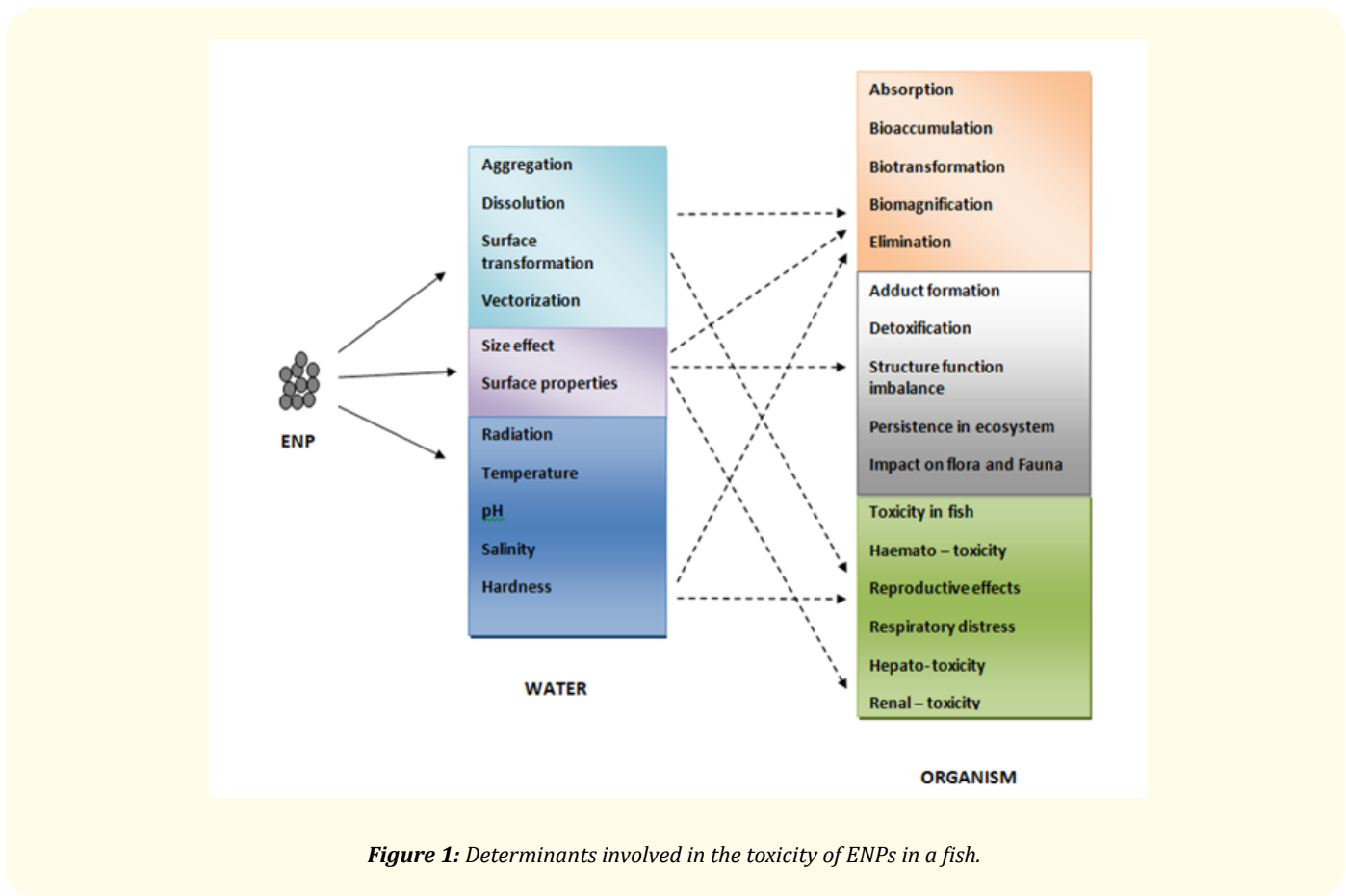
### Abbreviations

ENP: Engineered Nanoparticle; CNT: Carbon Nanotube; QDs: Quantum Dots; AgNPs: Silver Nanoparticles; AuNPs: Gold Nanoparticles; TiO<sub>2</sub>NPs: Titanium Dioxide Nanoparticles; ZnONPs: Zinc Oxide Nanoparticles; CuNPs: Copper Nanoparticles; CeO<sub>2</sub>NPs: Cerium Oxide Nanoparticles; SWCNT: Single Walled Carbon Nanotubes; DWCNT: Double Walled Carbon Nanotubes; MWCNT: Multiwalled Carbon Nanotubes; GSH: Reduced Glutathione; TBARS: Thiobarbituric Acid Reactive Substances; SOD: Super Oxide Dismutase; GPx: Glutathione Peroxidase; GR: Glutathione Reductase; CAT: Catalase; LPO: Lipid Peroxidation; ROS: Reactive Oxygen Species

**Introduction**

The word nano has been derived from a Greek term “nanos” meaning-dwarf. Nanotechnology has been briefly defined as designing, characterization, production and application of structures/devices whose shape and size are restricted to nanometer (nm) level [1]. Nanoparticles (NPs) possess multiple applications in several commercial products viz. electronics, cosmetics, drug delivery, medicine, agriculture, industry and environmental remediation. According to an estimate there exist about 1015 consumer products made from nanomaterials [2].

Engineered nanoparticles (ENPs) have emerged as a new class of environmental pollutants that may contaminate atmosphere, hydrosphere and terrestrial ecosystems [3]. ENPs can alter soil chemistry, migrate to surface or ground water and affect the aquatic life. Waste water effluents, rain water wash offs and accidental spillage further increase their load in the ecosystem. Physical processes like aggregation, dissolution, absorption and surface transformation determine their behaviour in aquatic ecology. Prevalent environmental conditions i.e. temperature, pH, salinity, and hardness influence their entry into biogeochemical cycles. Additionally, presence of natural organic matter (NOM) can also influence the interaction between ENPs and aquatic biota altering their bioavailability, electrostatic interactions and steric repulsion (Figure 1).



**Figure 1:** Determinants involved in the toxicity of ENPs in a fish.

Theoretically, NPs can be produced from any chemical, however, most of them are made from transition metals i.e. silicon, carbon (carbon nano tubes and fullerenes) and metal oxides [4]. In a water body, they can bind with other pollutants through vectorization [5]. Very high surface to volume ratio facilitates their binding with inorganic and organic substances [6]. Furthermore, ENPs can be bio-transformed by aquatic microorganisms and biomagnified through food chain. Therefore, understanding the toxic manifestations of ENPs in aquatic organisms appears to be much more difficult than other experimental animals.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of present review is to highlight the current trends in toxicology of ENPs particularly in fresh water fish. The available information collected from suitable databases on the toxicity of carbon nanotubes, fullerenes, quantum dots, silver nano-particles, titanium dioxide nanoparticles along with NPs of cerium, copper and gold in fresh water fish is described in this overview.

**Methods**

Available information on the toxicity of ENPs in fresh water fish was assessed exploring various bibliometric databases viz. www.google scholar.com., www.pubmed.gov and www.researchgate.com. Research on marine fish was excluded from this review. The basic results of this survey are exhibited by table 1 and 2.

Species	Number of publications (2011 - 2020)
Marine fish	200
Zebra fish	708
Fresh water carp	80
Rainbow trout	98
Cat fish	73
Cold water fish	07
Murrels	01

**Table 1:** Summary of reports available on NP toxicity in different species of fish. Source: www.pubmed.gov (assessed in Oct. 2020).

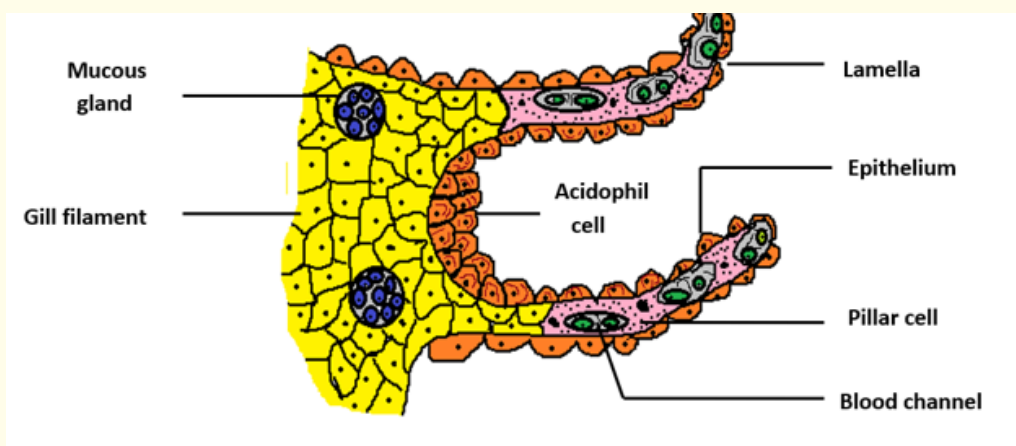
Species	Number of publications (2011 - 2020)
<i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i>	272
Crustaceans	548
Aquatic insects	03
Earthworms	176
Molluscs	244
Echinoderms	40
Frog	109
<i>Xenopus laevis</i>	55
Salamander	07

**Table 2:** Summary of publications available on NP toxicity in other aquatic organisms. Source: www.pubmed.gov (assessed in Oct. 2020).

**Exposure and toxicity of carbon nanotubes (CNTs) in fish**

CNTs were first described by Iijima [7]. Cylindrical in structure, they are composed solely of carbon atoms. They exhibit unique properties like strength, hardness, thermal conductivity, microwave absorption, electrical and catalytic properties [8]. They can easily be tailored for specific applications viz. electronic devices, waste water treatment and drug delivery systems [9,10]. An estimated 33 tons of CNTs were expected to enter water bodies annually [11]. Possible release pathways include industrial discharge, land fill leachates, accidental spill or marine dumping of contaminated mud/soil.

CNTs can further be classified into single walled (SWCNT), double walled (DWCNT) and multi walled (MWCNTs) CNTs. Increased production and subsequent release into the environment raises the possibilities of their entry into the aquatic food chain. In fish, like other xenobiotics main portals of entry of NPs are mouth and gills. Gill filaments are their functional units responsible for transfer of ions and water as well as the exchange of oxygen, carbon dioxide, acids and ammonia. Each lamellum consists of a central sheet of pillar cells with concave sides that form blood spaces. These cells are covered by a thin epithelium (Figure 2). Fish gills were found to be sensitive to NPs [12]. Can NPs like oxygen diffuse from water across epithelial cells? This issue was addressed by Bjorkland and colleagues [13] who showed that little or no absorption of NPs occurs through gut but gill epithelium is the main route of their absorption. It does not occur by diffusion but through endocytosis [14]. Only five reports on the toxicity of CNTs in fish were published between 2011 - 2020 (www.pubmed.gov.). These studies revealed species differences in the effects of different types of CNTs. While no acute toxicity of SWCNTs was recorded in medaka fish (*Oryzias latipes*) [15], DWCNTs inhibited the growth of another medaka fish, *Oryzias melastigma* [16]. Another study made in two different species of fish i.e. *Danio rerio* and *Astyanax altiparanae* demonstrated no genotoxic effects of CNTs [17]. Nonetheless, oxidative injury in respiratory organs of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) exposed to SWCNTs indicated their toxic properties [18]. Environmental implications of CNTs with a classical water pollutant, lead were studied by Martinez and colleagues [19]. Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis tilapia*) was exposed to different concentrations of lead mixed with toxic concentration of HNO<sub>3</sub>-MWCNT (1.0 mg/L) for 24, 48, 72, 96 hr). They observed five times increase in lead toxicity. Histopathological studies made by the same group also indicated their toxicity in Nile tilapia [20]. NP - carbofuran interaction was also studied in Nile tilapia in the same laboratory [21]. This report suggested that CNTs not only potentiated carbofuran toxicity but served as pesticide carriers. Intriguingly, lead toxicity was decreased in *Daphnia magna* after exposure to positively charged MWCNTs. Negatively charged MWCNTs expressed a slight effect [22]. Thus, toxicity of CNTs in fish still remains inconclusive.



**Figure 2:** Schematic presentation of the structure of a gill filament.

### Mechanisms of toxicity

Mechanisms of CNT toxicity in fish need to be studied further.

### Fullerene toxicity in fish

Amongst nanomaterials, fullerenes are the molecules with 60 or 70 atoms of carbon denoted as C<sub>60</sub> or C<sub>70</sub>. It was first discovered by Kroto and colleagues [23]. They are composed of closed spherical shells resembling a soccer ball. They possess a three dimensional structure with unique physical and chemical properties [24]. They are lipophilic in nature and can cross membrane and blood brain barrier [25].

Due to their specific properties they have been used in a variety of biological and medical applications [26,27]. Given that, usage of C<sub>60</sub> fullerenes in various industries is projected to increase dramatically in future, concerns for environmental safety have been raised by a few workers [28,29].

Only eight articles dealing with their toxicity in fish are available in the literature (www.pubmed.gov, assessed in Oct 2020). An ambitious project entitled, "ecotoxicology of underivatized fullerenes (C<sub>60</sub>) in fish", was undertaken by Henry and colleagues at University of Tennessee at Knoxville (USA) under the support of EPA. This group demonstrated that aquatic toxicity of C<sub>60</sub> in fish was a consequence of its solvent (tetrahydrofuran) rather than the fullerene in zebra fish [30]. The same group suggested that absorption of NPs onto the gill surface involves mucous membrane and its microenvironment. Uptake of NPs occurs through endocytosis rather than diffusion [31]. In another report, juvenile rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*), fed on a diet supplemented with 500 mg/SWCNT/Kg or 500 mg C<sub>60</sub>/kg for six weeks did not result in overt toxicity [32].

Therefore, toxicity of fullerenes in fish remained a debatable issue for many years. Oberdorster [33] demonstrated that 0.5 mg/L of C<sub>60</sub> could induce oxidative stress in the brain of *Micropterus salmoides* after 48hr of exposure. However, pro-oxidant nature of fullerenes still remains to be established. Decrease in GSH values but increase in catalase activity in liver was observed in fish exposed to fullerene [34]. Antioxidative role of fullerene as suggested by Gharbi and colleagues [35] also need support from other workers. Nevertheless, protective role of C<sub>60</sub> against arsenic toxicity was studied in zebra fish [36]. Co-exposure of arsenic and C<sub>60</sub> reduced cell injury in fish hepatocytes. This conclusion was drawn through observations on GSH, TBARS and total antioxidant activity. Contrarily, recent observations suggest that exposure of fish *Anabas testudineus* to C<sub>60</sub> (5 mg/L and 10 mg/L for 24, 48, 72, 96 hr induced oxidative stress in its gonads [37]. Exposure of zebra fish to C<sub>70</sub> at 1.5ppm also increased ROS level in gills, muscle and brain [38]. Fullerenes can be photoactivated and induce oxidative stress in cell culture systems [39,40].

### Mechanisms of toxicity

On the basis of these studies, it was concluded that C<sub>60</sub> and C<sub>70</sub> could induce toxicity through oxidative stress in fish.

### Toxicity of quantum dots (QDs) in fish

Spherical nanocrystals having a diameter of 1 to 10 nm are known as quantum dots. They were first discovered by Ekimov and Onushchenko [41]. Reed and colleagues [42] used this term while referring to heterogenous structures with quantum confinement to zero dimensions. Their application in biological imaging started in 1998 [43]. QDs possess unique optical, electronic, magnetic and catalytic properties [44]. These ENPs are applied in molecular biology, medicine as well as information technology [45,46]. No data is available on their concentration in aquatic systems, however, global production was estimated to vary 0.6 to 55 t/year [43]. Behaviour and ecotoxicity of QDs in aquatic systems have been recently reviewed [47].

Eco-toxicological information on quantum dots in micro-organisms, algae, protozoa, fungi, crustaceans, annelids, molluscs and fish has been described in several reports [48-52]. However, three species of fish viz. the zebra fish (*Danio rerio*), rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) and fresh water carp (*Carassius auratus gibelio*) have been mainly used as models to assess their toxicity using suitable parameters of cytotoxicity, embryotoxicity, immunotoxicity and genotoxicity. QDs and their degradation products can enter the fish through mouth or gills. They can be distributed and accumulated in different organs such as liver, intestine and muscles. Cellular uptake is facilitated by endocytosis [13]. Zebra fish was found to absorb little amount of Cd/Se and ZnS QDs through trophic structure due to the absence of stomach in this fish [53]. However, Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> QDs accumulated in muscles and liver of fresh water carp after intraperitoneal injection (5 nm; 2 mg/kg; 7d) [54].

### Mechanism of toxicity

Limited studies have been carried out to delineate MoA of QDs in fish. Available data show that QDs promote lipid peroxidation, protein oxidation and oxidative stress in target organs of fish. They affect the activities of detoxication enzymes i.e. superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione peroxidase (GPx), glutathione reductase (GR) and catalase (Cat) and induce gene expression changes [55,56]. Experiments made in rainbow trout confirmed their immunotoxic effects [57]. Immuno-competence was noticed after exposure of rainbow trout to Cds/CdTe QDs. Significant reductions in leukocyte count, viability and phagocytic activity were observed. They were poor inducers of metallothionein and CYP2K1 gene expression. 25 genes specific to QDs and related to toxic end points viz. inflammation, biotransformation and endocrine system were affected [58]. Gao and coworkers [59] identified 545 differentially expressed genes in the liver cells of zebra fish exposed to nanomaterial loaded cadmium and nano manganese dioxide or n-hydroxyapatite adsorbed CdCl<sub>2</sub> composites. 33 of these genes were common in these two groups that could be classified as hydrolases, metabolic enzymes, intermediate filaments and biological binding. These biomarkers might be helpful in understanding the molecular toxicity of quantum dots.

### Effects of silver nanoparticles AgNPs) on fish

To date, silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) are widely used in cosmetics, textiles, surgical prostheses and bactericidal activities. It has been estimated that 435 consumer products contain AgNPs. United States alone produces 2.8 - 20 tons of AgNPs per annum. It is speculated that with increasing usage, large quantities of AgNPs may end up in aquatic systems posing a threat to ecosystem health.

Information on their release into the environment, bioavailability, presence in trophic structure and toxicity in aquatic organisms is poorly known [60]. Approximate concentration of silver in riparian waters is expected to vary between 0.01 to 100 ng/L. Much of this element is complexed with negatively charged ligands present in surface waters [61]. Factors like their size, coating and synthetic methods directly affect agglomeration, uptake, bioaccumulation and toxicodynamics [62].

Gill lamellum, the functional unit of the gill is the main route of their absorption [63]. The release of Ag<sup>+</sup> from AgNPs into water depletes oxygen creating anoxic conditions that may cause respiratory failure in fish [64]. Bioaccumulation of AgNPs in epithelial cells of lamellum manifests into electrolyte imbalance, inhibition of Na<sup>2+</sup> and K<sup>2+</sup> dependent ATPase activity and oxidative stress [65,66]. Different species of fish viz. zebra fish (*Danio rerio*), rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*), tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) have been used in the past as suitable models to test their toxicity. Zebra fish alone was used as model to test the toxicity of AgNPs by 126 authors between 2011 - 2020 (www.pubmed.gov, assessed in Oct 2020). Briefly, AgNPs induced developmental toxicity [66]; hepatotoxicity [67]; renal and cardiotoxicity [68] and neurotoxicity [69]. Toxic manifestations were largely attributed to oxidative and endoplasmic reticulum stress and associated mechanisms [70]. Moreover, a few reports acclaim other mechanisms of their toxicity. In rainbow trout, exposure to AgNPs disturbed hormone regulated cell signalling pathway in hepatocytes [71]. Exposure of Mosambique tilapia (*Oreochromis mossambicus*) to AgNPs generated free radicals in gills and liver [72]. Variables like concentration and exposure period influenced the bioaccumulation of AgNPs in the liver of *Prochilodus lineatus*. Exposure of this fish for 15 days to 25 µg/L increased glycogen and antioxidant enzymes in liver. Major

changes occurred after subchronic exposure [73]. Experiments made to determine their neurotoxicity also showed time and dose dependent effects. Two different species i.e. *Oreochromis niloticus* and *Tilapia zillii* showed no significant changes in oxidative stress parameters after exposure to 2 mg/L AgNPs. However, fish exposed to 4 mg/L AgNPs exhibited a decline in GSH, SOD, GPx, CAT and GR values.

Finally histopathological and histochemical observations confirmed that the worst affected organs by AgNPs are gills. Gills of the African cat fish, *Clarius gariepinus* showed several pathological lesions viz. hyperplasia, hypertrophy and epithelial necrosis after exposure to 10 µg/L and 100 µg/L AgNPs [75].

### Mechanism of toxicity

Toxicity of AgNPs has been extensively studied in fish. Most of these reports confirm that oxidative stress and related mechanisms contribute in their toxicity.

### Toxicity of gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) in fish

Potential health hazards posed by AuNPs in man and animals are poorly known. However, they are now being increasingly used in drug delivery, cellular labelling, imaging and diagnosis of diseases like cancer, diabetes and Alzheimer. Therefore, it becomes necessary to determine health risk(s) posed by environmental or occupational exposure to AuNPs. Toxicity of AuNPs alike other ENPs can be influenced by its physiochemical properties (shape, size and surface charge), methods used in their synthesis, dose, route of administration and the selected model [75,76].

Several workers in recent past, have employed zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) as suitable experimental model to test the toxicity of AuNPs. Fifty four reports were published between 2011 - 2020 on its toxicity in zebrafish alone (www.pubmed.gov, assessed in Oct 2020). Exposure of this fish to AuNPs caused embryonic lethality, immunotoxicity [77] and neurotoxicity [78]. AuNPs induced less severe toxicity in zebra fish embryos than the AgNPs [79]. Further, different shapes (sphere, rod and star) of NPs determined their biodistribution in different organs of zebra fish [80]. Molecular responses like inflammation and immune response were influenced by surface charge [81]. Factors like size, concentration and exposure time also contributed to mitochondrial malfunction in the brain and muscles of zebra fish [82].

Species other than zebra fish were also employed by a few workers to assess the toxicity of AuNPs. Toxicogenomic studies in a marine fish, sea bream (*Sparus aurata*) at two concentrations (0.5 and 50 µg/L) were performed [83]. Low concentration and short term exposure to AuNPs could modulate gene expression in liver and affect several biochemical and genetic functions in fish. Gold nanoparticles and ionic gold expressed differential effects in a number of species viz. zebra fish (*Danio rerio*); guppy (*Poecilia reticulata*); small mouth yellow fish (*Labeobarbus aeneus*); southern mouth brooder (*Pseudocrenilabrus philander*); banned tilapia (*Tilapia sparrmanii*) and Mozambique tilapia (*Oreochromis mossambicus*). These studies were made using species sensitivity distribution approach [84].

### Mechanism of toxicity

Molecular and biochemical mechanisms responsible for AuNPs toxicity are not known at present. Role of mitochondria has been suggested by a few workers.

### Toxicity of titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) nanoparticles in fish

TiO<sub>2</sub> stands at 5<sup>th</sup> amongst NPs in terms of their use in consumer products over the globe [85]. It is known to exist in three crystalline forms e.g. anatase, rutile and brookite. First two of these are widely used in personal, household, food, industrial and commercial products while brookite is rarely used [86]. Environment Protection Agency allowed its addition in water treatment plants to remove arsenic [87]. According to an estimate, 165,050,000 metric tonnes of TiO<sub>2</sub> were produced worldwide between 1916-2011 [88]. Therefore, its release



into aquatic systems appears to be no surprise. Several workers have detected it in surface waters [89], waste water [90], urban runoff and raw sewage [91].

Ecotoxicological issues related to TiO<sub>2</sub> have been addressed by a few authors [92-94]. Mechanisms of its absorption, bioaccumulation, bioconcentration and biomagnification in a few species of fish have also been elucidated in a few laboratories. Seventy four authors employed zebra fish to test the toxicity of TiO<sub>2</sub>NPs between 2011-2020 (www.pubmed.gov). Nano TiO<sub>2</sub> was detected in juvenile and adult zebra fish with a bioconcentration factor (BCF,181) [95]. Another study calculated its BCF in the range of 600 - 700 and biomagnification factor < 1 [96]. It is internalized in the fish following absorption through gills, skin and intestine [13,95]. Lethality of TiO<sub>2</sub>NPs in zebra fish has been attributed to its shape, size, dose and exposure period [81]. Chronic exposure for six months caused low toxicity but led to its accumulation in gills, liver, heart and brain. TiO<sub>2</sub>NP can cross the blood brain barrier and enter the brain of zebra fish [97].

### Mechanisms of toxicity

It is known to inhibit Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup> ATPase activity in the brain [98,99]. Inhibition of neurotransmitters, neurone apoptosis and alterations in gene expression profiles were also observed [100]. Genes like *pink 1*, *parkin*, *alpha syn* and *uchl 1* related to Lewy bodies were also activated. It has been suggested that exposure to TiO<sub>2</sub>NP may be a risk factor for the development of Parkinson's disease [101]. Respiratory distress induced by TiO<sub>2</sub> was also recorded in rainbow trout [11].

Molecular and biochemical mechanisms of TiO<sub>2</sub> toxicity in the liver of a fresh water carp, *Cyprinus carpio* [94] and blood, liver, muscles and brain of two neotropical fish, *Prochilodus lineatus* and *Hopliius intermedius* have also been determined [102]. These workers showed elevation in LPO and inhibition of antioxidant enzymes suggesting oxidative stress to be responsible for their toxicity. Gene expression studies in the liver of tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) on catalase, glutathione transferase and superoxide dismutase supported these results [103].

Several reports show that ENPs intermingle with other water pollutants in sediments and water phases and form agglomerates. These agglomerates might be more toxic than individual xenobiotics. TiO<sub>2</sub>NPs and inorganic lead together expressed different genotoxic effects in gills, kidney and brain of a neotropical fish, *Hopliius intermedius* [104]. Variations in antioxidative status of these tissues were also observed. *In vitro* studies on catfish hepatocytes and human HepG2 cells showed that these cells were more sensitive to TiO<sub>2</sub>NPs than catfish primary hepatocytes. The toxicity was attributed to ROS and mitochondrial membrane damage [105].

### Toxicity of zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnONPs) in fish

Amongst ENPs, ZnONPs are considered to be highly toxic. They are used in a wide range of commercial and industrial products e.g. cosmetics, ceramics, glass, rubber, paints, plastics, cement, pigments, batteries, fire retardants and food items. These applications have increased the probability of their release into different eco-compartments and consequent eco-toxicological threats to respective flora and fauna [106]. ZnONPs exhibit several peculiar characters viz. high isoelectric point, transparency, solubility, photocatalytic efficiency and biocompatibility [107]. They can permeate, agglomerate, accumulate and persist within organisms [108]. ZnONPs could easily accumulate in aquatic food chain [109] and caused harmful effects in amphibians and fish [110].

Forty one reports are available in literature on its toxicity in zebra fish only (www.pubmed.gov. assessed in Oct 2020). Reproductive and developmental toxicity of ZnONPs in zebra fish in terms of fertility, fecundity, pre and post larval development have been described by a good number of authors. These reports confirmed inhibitory effect of ZnONPs on hatching of embryos [111-112]. Further, toxicity was found to be shape dependent as nanosticks of ZnONPs were more toxic than nano -spheres [113]. NPs coated with chitosan (ZnO-CTS) or polyethylene glycol (ZnO-PEG) caused greater embryonic mortality than uncoated particles [114]. Whether Zn<sup>2+</sup> ions released



from ZnONPs contribute to their toxicity remains a debatable issue. A group of workers suggest major role of  $Zn^{2+}$  in their toxicity [115]. Contrarily, other researchers suggest their partial role only [116].

The main target organs of ZnONPs in fish are gills, liver, kidney and brain. The nanoparticles accumulate in these tissues and manifest toxicity. Histopathological changes in gills of common carp, *Cyprinus carpio* and tilapia, *Oreochromis mossambicus* have been reported on exposure to ZnONPs [117,118].

### Mechanisms of toxicity

Attempts have been made to delineate the biochemical and molecular mechanisms of their toxicity in different fish models. These results show that ZnONPs affect serum enzymes in common carp [119], induce oxidative stress in zebra fish [120] and stimulate enzymatic antioxidant system in the liver of tilapia [118]. Their potential to impair immune system in fish was demonstrated through observations on leucocyte viability, phagocytic activity, LPO and DNA strand breaks in the gills of fat head minnows [58].

Toxicogenomic profile obtained from the embryos of zebra fish after exposure to 0.01; 0.1; 1.0 and 10 mg/L ZnONPs and  $ZnSO_4$  for 96 hrs post fertilization yielded interesting results [121]. Amongst 689 affected genes, 498 were up-regulated while 191 were down-regulated. The effect was found to be similar between NP and bulk zinc treated fish except six genes i.e. *aicda*, *cyb5d1*, *edar*, *intl2*, *ogfrl2* and *tnfsf13b* that were associated with inflammation and immune system. These observations explain the mechanism of ZnONPs induced embryotoxicity in zebra fish.

### Effects of copper nanoparticles (CuNPs) on fish

Copper nanoparticles (CuNPs) are known to act as antibiotic, antimicrobial and antifungal agents when added to plastics, coatings and textiles. Due to great catalytic property, it is used in biosensors and electrochemical sensors. Further research is in progress to discover their dielectric, magnetic, electrical, optical, imaging and biomedical applications. It is widely used in boat antifouling paints that can pollute aquatic systems.

Lethality of CuNPs in different partners of aquatic food chain has been discussed in the past [122-124]. Thirty nine studies account for its toxicity in zebra fish alone (www.pubmed.gov, assessed in Oct 2020). Cumulative mortalities at  $LC_{50}$  values of 1.5 mg/L and 3 mg/L in zebra fish have been reported by a few workers [125,126]. Embryos of zebra fish developed anomalies on exposure to CuNPs [111]. These changes were attributed to oxidative stress and apoptosis [127]. Reports on its neurotoxicity and behavioural changes in fish are also available. Exposure to CuNPs reduced the number of lateral line neuromast cells [128].

Gills are considered the target organs of NP toxicity. Intriguingly, the effects of CuNPs in the gills varied in different species. A detailed study in rainbow trout (*Oreochromis mykiss*); fat head minnow (*Pimephales promelas*) and zebra fish (*Danio rerio*) demonstrated species specific variations on the effects of CuNPs in the gills. It was concluded that physiological differences amongst fish contribute to these variations [129]. Similar studies made in two Amazon ornamental fish i.e. dwarf cichlid (*Apistogramma agassizii*) and cardinal tetra (*Paracheirodon axelvodi*) exposed to 50% of  $LC_{50}$  of CuNP for 24, 48, 72 and 96 hr, on gill morphology, osmo-regulatory physiology, mitochondrial function and oxidative stress showed significant variations in its toxicity [130].

In addition, hepatic and renal effects of CuNPs in fish have also been observed. Structural changes were recorded in the liver, kidney and gills of juvenile common carp after exposure to two different doses (20 and 100  $\mu\text{g/L}$ ) [131]. They attributed these effects to enhanced oxidative stress. Further, proteomic analysis indicated down regulation of ferritin heavy chain, rhoguanine nucleotide exchange factor 17 and up-regulation of diphosphomevalonate decarboxylase, selenide and water dikinase-1.

CuNPs affected the reproductive organs also. An *in vitro* and *in vivo* study made in cat fish (*Clarius batrachus*) demonstrated histological and ultrastructural changes in the testis. It was concluded that exposure to Cu/CuNP could be detrimental to cat fish testicular recrudescence vis-à-vis reproduction [132]. Exposure of tilapia (*Tilapia mossambicus*) to CuNPs for 14 days could bring several haematological and biochemical changes in gills, liver and muscles [133].

Tributyltin and dibutyltin are frequently used as antifouling and molluscicides to protect ships, boats and fish nets and gears. These organotin compounds also pose a potential threat to aquatic species. A combined study on the effects of dibutyltin and CuNPs was made in tilapia by Ghais and colleagues [134]. The study on fish gills, liver and brain found CuNPs to be more deleterious than dibutyltin.

### Mechanism of toxicity

These reports show that CuNPs are a serious threat to fish and other aquatic organisms. Given that, whether toxicity is manifested by released  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions or by CuNPs themselves still remains a debatable issue [135,136].

### Effect of cerium oxide nanoparticles ( $\text{CeO}_2$ NPs) in fish

Cerium is one of the most abundant rare earth elements. Cerium oxide nanoparticles ( $\text{CeO}_2$ NPs) are widely used as additives of diesel fuel. It causes water pollution through landfills from leachates of electronic waste, sludge and waste water discharge from ceramic plants. It is one of the prioritized nanomaterials listed by Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD).

Environmental exposure(s) of aquatic organisms to  $\text{CeO}_2$ NPs makes them susceptible to their toxicity. Trophic structure allows their translocation from lower organisms to invertebrates and vertebrates. *Chironomus riparius* and larvae of *Xenopus laevis* were found to be affected by  $\text{CeO}_2$ NPs [137]. A few workers have tried to establish their toxicity in fish through *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments. Rosenkranz, *et al.* [138] demonstrated its cytotoxicity in RTG-2 rainbow trout gonadal cell line using MTT assay. Size, concentration and time dependent effects were observed after 24 and 72 hr exposure. Genotoxicity was reported in *Oncorhynchus mykiss* after an acute exposure (96hr) to three different concentrations viz. 0.25, 5 and 25 mg/L [139].

### Mechanisms of toxicity

Combined exposure to  $\text{CeO}_2$ NPs and UV radiation induced LPO in the gills of Amazon cardinal tetra [140]. Biomarkers of immunotoxicity i.e. viability of immune cells and phagocytic activity were also observed in rainbow trout [141]. Further studies are needed to determine  $\text{CeO}_2$ NP toxicity in fish.

### Conclusion and Perspectives

In an aquatic ecosystem, fish constitute a group of ecological dominant species. They play a significant role in maintaining ecological homeostasis. Nonetheless, they are the prime targets of water pollution. ENPs reach the fish through food chain and bioaccumulate in soft organs like gills, liver, kidney, gonads, brain and muscles. The information reviewed in this article shows that physical and chemical characters of NPs, water quality and biology of the fish determine their bioaccumulation and toxicokinetics. These mechanisms can be influenced by the presence of other pollutants viz. metals or pesticides. Further, toxic endpoints for different ENPs in different species have been determined through selected parameters mainly in gills, liver, gonads and brain. These results suggest their reproductive, respiratory and neurotoxicity in fish. Majority of studies confirm the pro-oxidant nature of ENPs. They induce LPO, oxidative stress and inhibit the activity of detoxification enzymes i.e. SOD, GPx, CAT and GR in gills and liver of fish. In certain cases, toxicogenomic and proteomic studies have also been made to support their pro-oxidative effects (Figure 3).

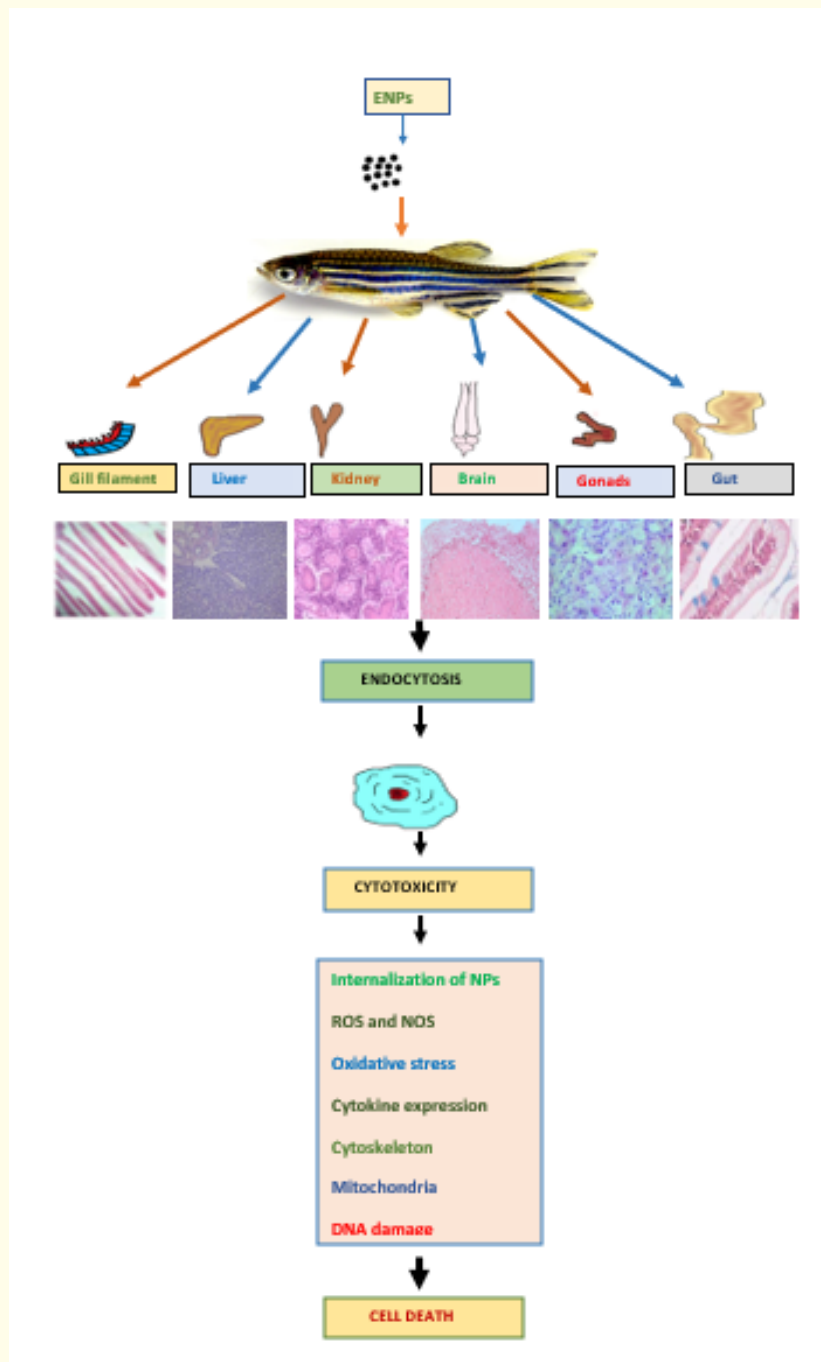


Figure 3: Schematic presentation of possible effects of ENPs in a Fish.

However, much research is still needed to delineate ENPs toxicity especially in fish. The effects of NPs on marine fish have been least studied. Metallothionein induction and its role in ENP toxicity in fish and other aquatic species warrant further studies. Antagonistic or synergistic behaviour of ENPs with co-pollutants has been least studied. Their effects on cytoskeleton, mitochondrial homeostasis, endoplasmic reticulum stress and reductive stress in target cells e.g. gill epithelium or hepatocytes also need to be investigated. System biology awaits more studies on the effects of ENPs. Development of specific biomarkers of their toxicity seems to be important for environment health/ ecosystem health/ and risk assessment strategies.

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### Conflict of Interest

Author declares no conflict of interest in the preparation of this article.

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