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Synthesis and characterization of TiO₂ nanoparticle and study of its impact on aquatic organism Murali M^a, Suganthi P^a, Athif P^a, Sadiq Bukhari A^{a*}, Syed Mohamed H E^a, Basu H^b, Singhal R K^b

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Abstract

The rapid development of nanotechnology or nanotoxicology is stimulating research on the potential health hazards and environmental impacts of manufactured nanomaterials (MNMs) and nanoparticles (NPs). This paper focused on the identification of *Daphnia pulex* from the environment and TiO₂ nanoparticles synthesis, characterization and the 24 h acute toxicity of water suspensions of TiO₂ NPs to *Daphnia pulex*, using mortality as toxicological endpoints. The results show that the acute toxicities of 0, 5, 50, 100, 150, 200, 210, 220, 225 and 230 ppm are dose dependent or concentration level. The Lethal Concentration (LC50) values for mortality 24h is observed at 218.79ppm. *D. pulex* were found to ingest nanoparticles from the test solutions through feeding and their behavioral and morphological effects indicates that the potential ecotoxicological and environmental health of these NPs cannot be ignored.

Keywords: Daphnia pulex, Nanoparticles, TiO₂, Toxicity, LC50.

1. Introduction

Nanoparticles as particles with at least one dimension smaller than 1 micron, 1×10^{-9} m (1-100 nm). Nanotoxicology was proposed as a new branch of toxicology to address the adverse health effects caused by nanoparticles. The increased usage of nanoparticles in commercial products such as sunscreens and cosmetics, coating and paints may reach the environment intentionally or accidentally [1]. It is estimated that the worldwide production of TiO₂ nanoparticle will reach 2.5 million tons by 2025 [2]. In fact it has become a top anteriority in governments, the private sector and the public all over the world [3 - 5]. As well as most industrial products, NPs are expected come into the aquatic environment, and many of these particles are bioavailable and can demonstrate toxicity [6]. Most attention has thus far been committed to the toxicology and health implications of NP [7-10], while the behavior of NP in the environment [11-12] and their ecotoxicology [6, 13, 7]. Research on the potential environment and health impacts of NPs is essential to protect the environment and to assure a sustainable nanotechnology industry [13 – 15].

The freshwater planktonic microcrustacean Daphnia is a universal freshwater dweller in ponds and lakes [16]. Daphnia are keystone species in freshwater food chains and food webs, and an excellent bio indicator species for use in environmental monitoring of pollutants [17 _ 18]. Accordingly, it has been routinely employed as a model organism for toxicology, ecology, ecotoxicology, and evolutionary biology [19 -20]. Daphnids naturally ingest particulates from the water column or from the sediment [21] and have been shown to readily take up and accumulate NPs in the gut within 6-12 h after exposure [22-25].

This has been demonstrated in a number of studies with *Daphnia sp.* and different types of nanoparticle or agglomerates e.g. Lovern et al. [24], Baun et al. [25,26], Petersen et al. [27], Zhu et al. [28], Croteau et al. [29], Hartmann et al. [30] and Hu et al. [31]. As a part of the digestion process *Daphnia sp.* are known to take in water [32] thus small particles can directly be taken up from the water column [33].

A significant noesis gap still exists considering all expressions of environment toxicology related to NPs [34]. While more information about the ecotoxicity of NPs continues to become available, because studies have been conducted on a limited number of MNMs, and in a small number of aquatic species [1], compared to many metal oxide nanoparticles such as TiO₂, ZnO, SiO₂ [35]. Research on the toxic effects of these NPs organisms aquatic reported in the on literature has largely focused on metals and metal oxides such as titanium dioxide [36-38].

In recent years, titanium dioxide nanoparticles (TiO₂ NPs) have been widely used in industrial and consumer products due to their stronger catalytic activity. These nanomaterials made its path in the public domain through the waste of these product. Concerns have been raised that these same properties of TiO₂ NPs may present unique bioactivity and challenges to human health [39].

There are few published studies of the toxicity of TiO_2 using freshwater invertebrates as test organisms. While some studies reported acute effects of TiO_2 nanoparticles [40 – 43] on daphnids, whereas Griffitt et al. [44] found no measurable toxic effects on *Daphnia pulex*.

The present work aimed to investigate the toxic effects of TiO_2 NPs on the crustaceans *Daphnia pulex* collected from Guntur pond, Tiruchirappalli in order to assess the responses of NP exposure in vivo. We have compared our toxicity data on TiO_2 with the literature reports and discussed the suitability of aquatic crustaceans for hazard identification of engineered nanoparticles.

2. Materials and methods 2.1. Identification of *D. pulex*

Guntur pond (Fig.1) is a seasonal pond situated in the Tiruchirappalli - Pudukkottai high way, Tiruchirappalli, Tamilnadu, India. The area of the pond is about 1.3 hectares. The pond is fed by a canal branching out from new Kattalai high level channel of river Kaveri and cultured for over a year in the laboratory prior to the experiments. *D. pulex* filtered through 0.45μ m membrane filter [45], identified using standard protocol [46].

2.2. Synthesis and Characterization of TiO₂ nanoparticles:

Amorphous titania was prepared by hydrolysis of titanium (IV) isopropoxide. In a typical preparation, a solution of 2propanol was added dropwise to a solution of titanium (IV) isopropoxide (Aldrich, 97%) 2-propanol under stirring in at room temperature. The solution was stirred overnight (~12 h) and the white product so precipitated was recovered by centrifugation. The white product so obtained was calcined at 350°C and 500°C for 2 h to get TiO₂ nanoparticles. TiO₂ nanoparticles characterization through powder X-rav and Micro-XRF were diffraction (XRD), performed in the Analytical Chemistry Division, Mod-Labs, Bhabha Atomic Research Centre (Mumbai). Fourier Transformed Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) and Ultra Violet-Spectroscopy visible studies were also performed.

2.3 Culture media

Daphnids were acclimatized in the Environmental Research laboratory, Jamal Mohamed College, Tiruchirappalli and the water parameters were maintained [47]. *D. pulex* was cultured at 22 ± 2^{0} C [48] in 2 litre plastic jar containing a feed of bakery yeast 0.2g/L. The light cycle was 12 h light: 12 h dark [49]. The *D. pulex* (filter feeders) are fed three times a week with a suspension of dry yeast 0.2g/L [50]. The water was changed in three times a week [51-52].

2.4 Acute toxicity studies

24h acute toxicity tests were performed in the D. pulex [53-54]. Test solutions were prepared immediately prior to use for diluting the stocks cited above with filtered water (The membrane filters (Somar) AXIVA white cellulose Nitrate 47 MM). In this procedure, the solution (30min) mixture stock was continuously Ultra sonication cleaner (50/60Hz) [42, 52] to maintain the suspension at as stable a concentration as possible. The present test engaged a completely random design consisting of 0, 5, 50, 100, 200, 220 and 230 ppm and a control group per test. Twelve arbitrarily (randomly) selected neonates (<24h old) [55] were placed in a 100mL glass exposure beaker containing 75 mL of test solution [54] modified test solution level. Three replicate were applied per treatment. Food was not provided during the exposure [56] and all tests were conducted inside lab at a constant pH (7-8) and temperature $(22\pm2^{0}C)$ [48] with a natural light-dark cycle the observation after an every six hours, for 24h. The mortality of the individuals in each container were evaluated using a Leica microscope equipped with a digital camera (Leica, Germany). The uptake and absorption of nanoparticles in D. pulex were observed and authenticated using a microscope with digital camera.

2.5 Statistical analysis

The Lethal concentration- LC50 (24h) - were expressed by Probit analysis using the SPSS software package for windows (version 17.0) and sensible interpretations were made following.

3. Results

3.1 *D. pulex*

As an identification morphology and reproduction aspects (Fig.2). Cyclical parthenogenesis is the ancestral breeding system of the genus Daphnia as shown by its dominance as compared to other crustaceans. favorable conditions, Under cladocerans reproduce parthenogenesis. typically by Parthenogenetic females produce eggs that are carried in brood chamber, which is located between the body and carapace. The eggs mature in the brood pouch, where they are particularly nutrified by maternal secretions of nutritive fluid. The eggs develop into neonates and ultimately to new parthenogenetic females and so on. The different sized neonates can be used as live feed to the different economically important animals such as shrimps and fishes.

3.2. Nanoparticles characterization

3.2.1. XRD Studies

XRD analysis confirms the formation of TiO₂. Broadening of the peaks in XRD suggests the formation (Fig.3) of nanoparticles, however the size was calculated using Sherrer formula considering the FWHM of the most intense peak. The size calculated was 29 nm. This was verified by measuring size by zeta sizer nano ZS which gave a mean diameter of 28.2 nm.

3.2.2. Micro-XRF Analysis (Soil Mode)

The spatial distribution and speciation of TiO₂ in the soil mode was studied using micro-XRF. Figure 4 show the soil mode with TiO₂ NPs and blue colour for K. Moreover, the Ti/TiO₂ NPs found their way soil mode. The tricolor micro-XRF map showed Ti at high concentration in the soil mode. Accumulation of toxic elements in soil mode has been reported for heavy metals such as Table. 1. Ti, Ba and Zr.

3.2.3. Fourier Transformed Infrared **Spectroscopy studies**

Fig.5. shows the FTIR spectra of titanium dioxide nanoparticles in which the peaks appear at 3403 and 2921 cm⁻¹, are due to stretching and bending vibration of the -OH group. The absorption band at 1630 cm^{-1} was caused by bending vibration of coordinated H₂O as well as from the Ti–OH and were indicated to stretching of titanium carboxilate, which formed from TTIP and ethanol as precursors[58]. The bending vibrational mode of water may appear as shoulders on the spectrum such as 3403.23 cm⁻¹. The peaks at 497.42cm⁻¹, 688.32cm⁻¹ to 775.84cm⁻¹shows bending and stretching mode of Ti-O vibrations [59].

3.2.4. Ultra Violet-visible Spectroscopy studies

Fig.6. shows the UV spectra of TiO₂ Nanoparticles. In this spectroscopy graph is plotted between Absorbance and wave number. A strong absorption peak in the UV region is observed at the wavelenght of 322 nm.

3.3. Acute toxicity of NPs to D. pulex

The results showed that the acute toxicities of TiO₂ NPs to D. pulex enhanced with increasing particle concentration demonstrating dose dependency. A concentration of 218.79 ppm caused 50% mortality. The nanoscale TiO₂ also exhibited a gradual increase in toxicity toward D. pulex, with 50% mortality occurring in the 218.79ppm exposure group (Fig.7) based on the probit analysis.

3.3. Uptake and assimilation of NPs by D. pulex:

Prominent amounts of dark material were found in the gut tract of D. pulex after NPs exposure and the control. All NPs tested in this study distinctly can be ingested in D. pulex a accumulating could occur in the gut (Fig.8a, b). This occurred within 24 h of the commencing of the exposure. In some events, the consumption and assimilation of NPs were significant plenty to prevent ambulation of the daphnids through the water coloumn. These results hint that aquatic exposures to such NPs by aquatic organisms could lay a risk of bioaccumulation, particularly for filter feeding copepods such as D. pulex, D. magna etc....., 4. Discussion

Identification of D. pulex is very difficult because more 200 species around the world have similar structure, behaviour, feeding habitat an ecosystem. Ecotoxicity studies with nTiO₂ on *D. magna* often focused concentration, on exposure the physicochemical properties of nanoparticles, and NPs pre-treatment. Hund-Rinke and Simon [41] reported that nTiO₂ (25 nm or 100 nm) concentrations of less than 3 mg L⁻¹ exhibited little effect on the immobilization of daphnids, and the toxicity of $nTiO_2$ under preillumination by simulated sunlight seemed to be higher than that of non-illuminated nTiO₂.

Titanium dioxide NPs were toxic to *D.* magna having LC50 value of 0.016 mg/ml and nanoparticle size is 10nm [60] and Nanoparticle size is 21nm, LC 50 value-1.19mg/l [61]. Present study results as (24 h) LC50 of nTiO₂ were calculated to be as high as 218.79ppm result finding and nanoparticles size is 29nm.

Toxicity can be affected also by particle number, charge, size and size distribution, surface area, structure and shape [62, 63]. When the size of nanoparticles increases, the toxicity level decreases.

Titanium dioxides were within the same order of magnitude than those found and the previous study reported values of 50% mortality for 0.0055 mg/ml for filtered oxide titanium NPs. Differences in LC50 values between our and [42] study may be assigned to the different way of preparing NPs solutions. Lovern and Klaper [42] reported a very high acute (48 h) toxicity of filtered nTiO₂ (30 nm) to D. magna (LC50 = 5.5 mg L^{-1}), whereas nTiO₂ (100-500 nm) prepared by sonication at the highest concentration of 500 mg L^{-1} led to only 9% mortality and reported that a sonicated TiO₂ suspension at a concentration of 50-500mg L^{-1} did not show any toxicity to D. magna after 48h exposure, LC50 are more than 100 mg L⁻¹. Acute toxicity tests using *Daphnia* species have been performed so far under questionable conditions when the objective was to explore the photo activity of the TiO₂.

Titanium dioxide and hydrogenated fullerenes did not cause significant toxicity at levels lower than 500 ppm [64]. Nanoscale TiO₂ also exhibited a gradual increase in toxicity toward *D. magna*, with 100% immobilization and 90% mortality occurring in the 500mg/l exposure group [54]. TiO₂ nanoparticle prepared by vigorous shaking at the concentration of $20mg^{-1}(40\% \text{ mortality})$ particle size was not found affect toxicity, TiO₂ particle size is (66nm,950nm,44nm) Adams et al .,2006.The nTiO₂ even at a low concentration of the 0.1 mg L⁻¹ can cause reproduction inhibition on *D. magna*, and consequently, affect the population of *D. magna*. Moreover, growth inhibition and mortality of *D. magna* were also observed in low concentration ranges of $0.5-5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$.

Similar results observed by Wiench et al. [38] i.e., enhanced toxicity by prolonged NP exposure, there are some discrepancies between our findings and theirs. The nTiO₂ may exert toxic effects directly on the organism since it has been reported recently that nTiO₂ can induce cytotoxicity and oxidative effects such as DNA damage in cells [65]. The Overview of *Daphnia* species studies on worldwide for acute toxicity and accumulation of engineered nanoparticles has been given in Table.2.

Daphnia feed by creating a water column with their appendages that funnels the water towards their mouth, as well as circulating oxygen-rich water into the carapace to facilitate respiration [69]. Due to the differences in product particle sizes and characteristics and pre-treatments of the test dispersions a direct comparison of the studies mentioned above with our test results is difficult and thus supports the controversies of Crane et al. [70] and Warheit [67], concerning the development of standard protocols and characterization for toxicological test using nano-scale. This lack of relationship observed between the acute toxicity of nanomaterials and their size is in agreement with a previous study in which all. The arises a urging need to revisit the prior eco-toxicity database for titanium oxide, and other metal oxide nanoparticles, where ionic toxicity has so far been neglected owing to their presumably "insoluble" nature.

Conclusion

In the present study Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) nanoparticles have been successfully synthesized using a wet chemical technique and characterized by Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD), Micro-XRF, Fourier Transformed Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) and Ultra Violetvisible Spectroscopy studies. The NPs used in this research have acute, dose- dependent ecotoxicological effects on freshwater zooplankton *D. pulex*. The results presented in this research suggest that the potential ecotoxicological and environmental health effects of NPs should not be neglected. This finding may have implications for long term studies of ENPs in *D. pulex*.

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Fig.1. Daphnia pulex study area



(a) Neonate, (b) Parthenogenesis (new neonates formation), (c) Inside daphnia neonate,(d) Haploid egg formation, (e) Female *Daphnia pulex*

Fig.2. The figures sources observation in Leica microscope, Germany.



Fig.3. XRD of TiO2 NP

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Fig.4. Micro-XRF Analysis TiO2 Nanoparticle (Soil Mode)



Fig.5. FTIR spectra of Titanium dioxide Nanoparticles



Fig.6. UV spectra of Titanium dioxide Nanoparticles

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Fig.7. Identification of lethal concentration of TiO2 NP on D. pulex by Probit analysis SPSS



Fig.8 a Control, b. 24h after exposure TiO2 Nanoparticle Death of daphnia pulex (ingestion on gut TiO2 nanoparticle level)

Detected	Ppm	+/-	
Ti	>10%	3%	
Ba	10208	1730	
Zr	17	2	

Table 1 Detected metals

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S. No	Material	Particle size (Diameter)	Test species	Effect measured	Suspension preparation	Measurements	Reference
1	TiO ₂ NPs	29nm	D. pulex	Acute toxicity	Sonication	LC50= 218.79ppm /224mg/L (50% mortality)	Present study
2	TiO ₂ NPs	30nm	D. magna	Acute toxicity	Solvent (THF) and Sonication	EC50=not achieved, LC50 (5.5 mg/L)	Lovern et al. [43]
3	TiO ₂ NPs	Degussa P25:25nm Hombikat UV 100: 100nm	D. magna	Acute toxicity	Sonication	Increase of immobilization of <i>D. magna</i> when stimulated with light	Hund-Rinke and Simon et al. [41]
4	TiO ₂ NPs	66, 950,44 nm	D. magna	Acute toxicity	Vigorous shaking	TiO2 produced 40% mortality at 20 mg/L	Adams et al. [40]
5	TiO ₂ NPs	21nm	D. magna	Toxicity and bioaccumulation of TiO ₂ nanoparticle aggregates (Acute toxicity)	Sonication	LC50 Value: 2.02 mg L ⁻¹ and EC50 Value: 1.62 mg L ⁻¹	Zhu et al. [54]
6	TiO ₂ - coated NPs		D. magna	Acute toxicity		EC50>100mg/L	Baun et al. [26]
7	TiO ₂ NPs		D. pulex	Chronic effects		40% mortality	Adams et al. [40]
8	TiO ₂ NPs	21nm	D. magna	Acute and Chronic effects	Sonication	13% mortality (0.1 mg/L) and LC50 = 2.62 mg/L	Zhu et al. [28]
9	TiO ₂ NPs	<100nm	D. magna	Acute and Chronic effects	Stirring	Acute toxicity = EC50 <100mg/L, 21 days (offspring) EC50 = 26.6 (n. d) ^a and mortality= 66.1	Wiench et al. [38]
10	TiO ₂ NPs	10nm	D. magna	Acute toxicity		LC50= 0.016mg/ml	García et al.[60]
11	TiO ₂ NPs	30nm	D. magna	Acute toxicity	Sonication	EC50=2mg/L	Hartmann et al.,[30]
12	Nano-Ti O_2 and Graphene- Ti O_2	21nm	D. magna	Toxicity	Sonication	LC50= Nano-TiO ₂ (118mg/L ⁻¹)and Graphene TiO ₂ (138mg/L ⁻¹)	Li et al. [56]
13	TiO ₂ NPs	7 and 20nm	D. magna and C. riparious	Comet assay and Ecotoxicity assay	Sonication	DNA damage, Growth, Reproduction.	Lee et al., [66]
14	TiO ₂ (Coated)	140nm in Water	D. magna	Acute toxicity	Not specified	EC50: >100mg/L ⁻¹	Warheit [67]
15	TiO ₂ NPs	10-20nm	D. magna	Acute toxicity	Solvent (THF) / Ultrasonic dispersion	EC50: 5.5mg/L ⁻¹	Lovern and Klaper [42]
16	TiO ₂ NPs	Less than 40nm	D. magna	Antioxidant enzyme assay and size fractionation	Sonication	LC50 Not calculated	Kim et al.2010
17	nTiO ₂ and TiO ₂ /bulk	≤20 and 10,000nm	D. magna	Acute toxicities	Magnetic stirrer	LC50 Value:nTiO ₂ (143.387mg/L), TiO ₂ /Bulk (>500mg/L	X. Zhu et al [54]

(*Nm=Nanometer, Different exposure time= 26, 48, 96 (hrs), LC50= Lethal Concentration (50% mortality), EC50= Median effective concentration.)

Table 2 Overview of *Daphnia* species studies on toxicity and accumulation of engineered nanoparticles