

AN OVERVIEW OF NANOMATERIALS FROM MARINE ENVIRONMENTS

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ABSTRACT

Sea water is a harsh environment with high ionic concentration, which allows nanomaterial's (NMs) to change their behaviour dramatically. Rapid agglomeration, destabilization, and deposition may cause the NMs to disappear from surrounding water. Organic substances contacts with metal-bearing NMs may alter their dispersion, physical and chemical properties, and durability in the water columns. To assess human and ecological hazards and develop regulatory standards for modified NMs release, accurate and sophisticated detection of engineered nanostructures in marine environments is essential. Still, due to the inadequacy of NMs characterization techniques, comprehending their destiny and behaviour in marine habitats are still limited. Sulfur species, organic compounds, trace element cycling, distribution, and interaction between colloidal and dissolved phases have all been found to be crucial candidates for analysing the different ecological processes courses in marine habitats using electrochemistry strategies coupled with advanced spectroscopy and microscopy techniques.

Introduction

Nanotechnology (NT) has provided unique solutions in a variety of industries, including consumer goods, high-tech industries, and infrastructure. While nano-enabled products are becoming more prevalent in daily life, there are presently over 3,000 nano-enabled consumer items on the industry [1] as well as countless industrial manufacturing devices and parts in use [2]. The use and disposal of nano-enabled products, as well as the

unintentional synthesis of NMs, will almost certainly result in their discharge into the environment, posing a hazard to public health and the ecosystem [3]. The degree of exposure of an organism to a substance and its hazard evaluation determine risk. The former is a tangible property, whereas the latter is heavily influenced by its surroundings. When photo catalytic titanium dioxide nanoparticles (TiO₂) are exposed to sunlight, they create reactive oxygen species (ROS), which can be harmful.

However, the amount of ROS produced depends on the parameters controlling photo excitation efficiency [4]. Adsorption of organics and aggregation in natural aquatic systems, such as ocean waters, can significantly reduce ROS generation [5]. Furthermore, aggregation containing suspended particle matter will generate bigger size aggregations that descend to the seafloor, minimizing solar exposure [6]. The fate of NMs in the marine environment must thus be determined in order to estimate their danger. When NMs interact with marine environment, the following factors are present:

Increased Mortality of Marine Crustaceans (MC)

Anastasia Georgantzopoulou *et al.* from SINTEF and NIVA investigated how TiO₂ and silver nanoparticles function in wastewater treatment facilities and how they affect freshwater and marine organisms in a study conducted at the Norwegian Institute for Water Research. The scientists built a laboratory-scale waste water treatment plant using sludge from a waste water treatment facility in Norway, then added ecologically adequate amount of TiO₂ and silver nanoparticles over a five-week period. They tested the effects of the converted nanoparticles on marine and freshwater organisms, as well

as rainbow trout gill cells, using the treated waste water. Both crustacean species had different effects as a result of the experiment. While mortality in the marine copepod rose by 20% to 45 percent, exposure to the treated waste water had no effect on the freshwater crustacean [7].

Effects on Algal Species

Furthermore, whereas the treated waste water containing nanoparticles had an effect on algal growth, the two algal species did not respond in the same way: while the marine algae (*Skeletonema pseudocostatum*) responded with a growth inhibition of 20%-40%, the growth of the freshwater algae (*Raphidocelis subcapitata*) was triggered by a 40% increase, followed by an increase in cell aggregation. Perhaps the latter is a defensive mechanism designed to decrease the amount of surface area exposed to hazardous particles [7].

Effects on marine organisms

NPs can attach to a cell's surface and obstruct vital pore and membrane processes. Endocytosis, diffusion through pores, or ion transport systems is other ways it might enter the cell. The nanoparticles can possibly interfere with electron transport pathways or enhance ROS formation by interfering with organelle functions once it has entered the

cell. ROS generation can cause nucleic acid damage, protein oxidation, and cell membrane rupture [8, 9].

Fish

Ingestion from water or sediment for demersal species (Bluespotted ribbontail ray, *Rhinogobius flumineus* and Pacific hagfish), gill or gut epithelial cells, or diffusion through the chorion pore channel for embryos are all potential absorption routes for ZnONPs in fish [10]. There are few studies on the effects of ZnONPs on marine fish. After 96 hours of exposure to ZnONPs of 4 and 40 mg l⁻¹ ZnO-NPs, the marine medaka fish *Oryzias melastigma* larvae showed only an elevation of HSP70. The protein expression of both HSP70 and SOD was significantly increased in *Oryzias melastigma* larvae treated to ZnSO₄ at the same zinc ion concentrations. The findings suggested that the test medaka larvae exposed to ZnONPs were not under oxidative stress, and that the harmful impact of ZnONPs was attributable primarily to ionic zinc released from the NPs [11].

Salinity

Salinity variations are prevalent in estuaries, and marine pollution is mainly found in coastal locations, where organisms would be exposed to both salinity fluctuations and chemical

contaminants. Because salinity impacts both the physiological processes of animals and the physicochemical features of nanoparticles, this connection is difficult. Due to the presence of chloride, sulphate, and organic matter in natural saltwater, a rise in salinity typically increases the degree of metal complexation. Increased SAL can limit ion dissolution from metal-oxide-based NPs, lowering the NPs' toxicity due to the release of free metal ions [12].

Sea animals

Researchers from China and California have published a new study that raises the possibility that NPs in sunscreens are harmful to aquatic organisms. Their research focuses on embryos of sea urchins and indicates that NMs in sunscreens and boat-bottom paints render these sea animals more sensitive to poisons. This is the latest in a series of studies conducted by academics from across the world that demonstrate nano-sunscreens may be damaging to sea animals [13]. Nano zinc oxide is a common constituent in sunscreens, toothpastes, and other beauty products. Nano copper oxide is utilized in a variety of applications, including electronics and technology, as well as antifouling coatings that keep barnacles and mussels from clinging to vessels [13].

Sea turtle

CuNPs and copper ions reduce sperm motility, viability, and enzymatic activity in the Chinese soft-shelled turtle's cauda epididymis. Furthermore, sperm motility is strongly linked to mitochondrial function, as mitochondria are the cell's energy producer and, at the same time, the primary source of intracellular ROS, causing electron transport disruption [14-16].

Coral Reefs

Due to consumer desire for creams and sprays that penetrate into the skin without leaving a white residue, sunscreen with nanoparticles has gained popularity. However, research reveals that the chemical compounds are more unstable than traditional sunblock, a characteristic of the technology that might cause difficulties for individuals and the environment. Nanoparticles from sunscreen have been observed to accumulate in coral reefs environments, according to a previous study published in April. The study indicated that chemical accumulation might damage the coral reefs [17].

Engineered nanoparticles from nano-enabled consumer and industrial devices may infiltrate coastal waters and oceans *via* direct and indirect pathways following use and disposal, as indicated in Figure 1 and 2. Engineered nanoparticles are expected to be extensively modified before entering the aquatic environment in this situation [18]. Direct routes, such as shipping emissions, water-based recreational activities, the release of untreated waste water, and other human activities, are more likely to release engineered nanoparticles in their designed form [18]. When engineered nanoparticles reach the environment, their destiny determines their potential toxicity, a factor that many toxicological investigations have overlooked [19]. As a result, a thorough knowledge of the processes that control engineered nanoparticles destiny in the environment is required [20]. Several investigations on the destiny and impact of engineered nanoparticles in natural waterways have been done, including rivers [21], lakes [22], and estuaries [23]. Because engineered nanoparticles are projected to swiftly agglomerate and settle on the sediments, less research has focused on marine waters.

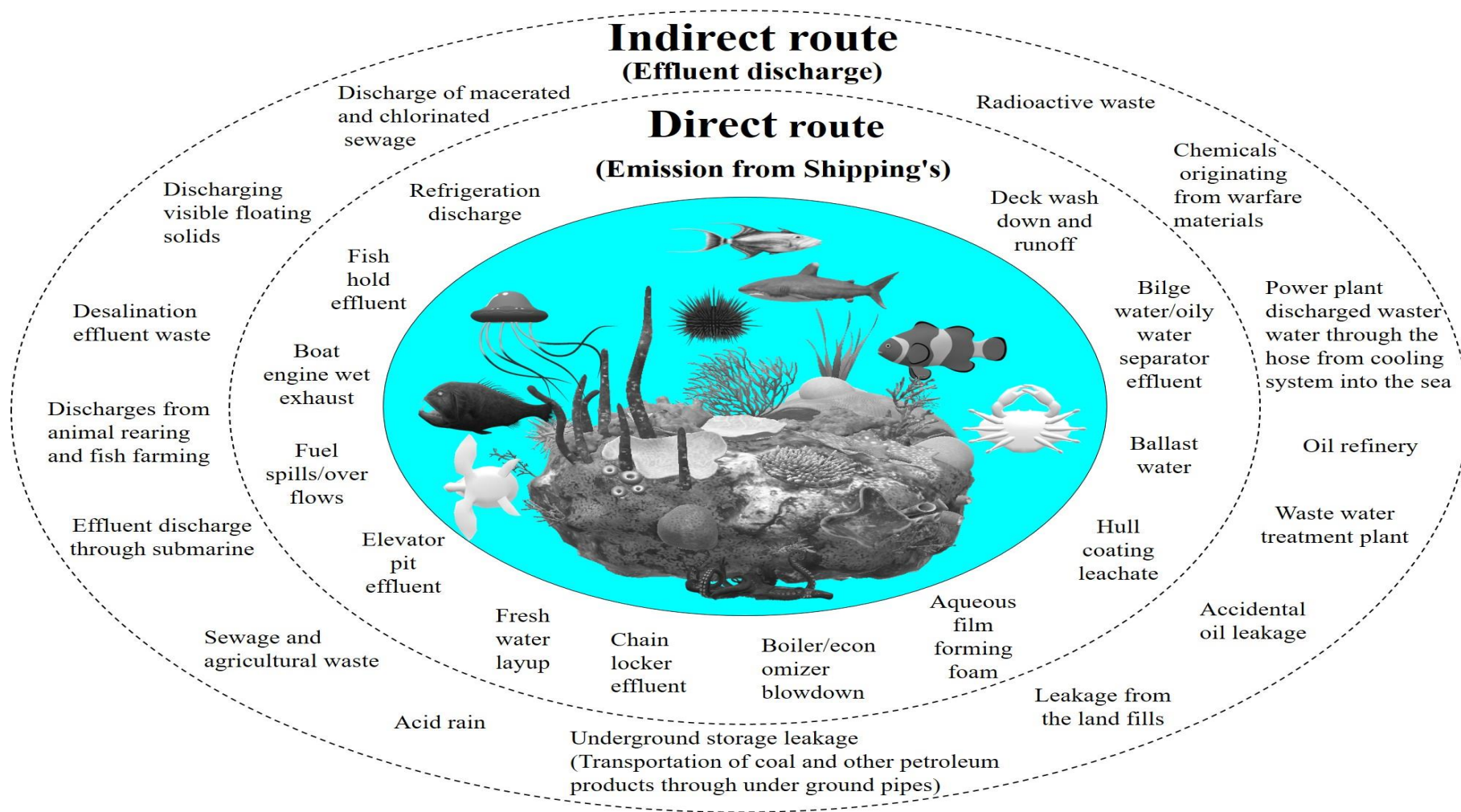


Fig. 1: Engineered nanoparticles impact on the maritime environment [25-30].

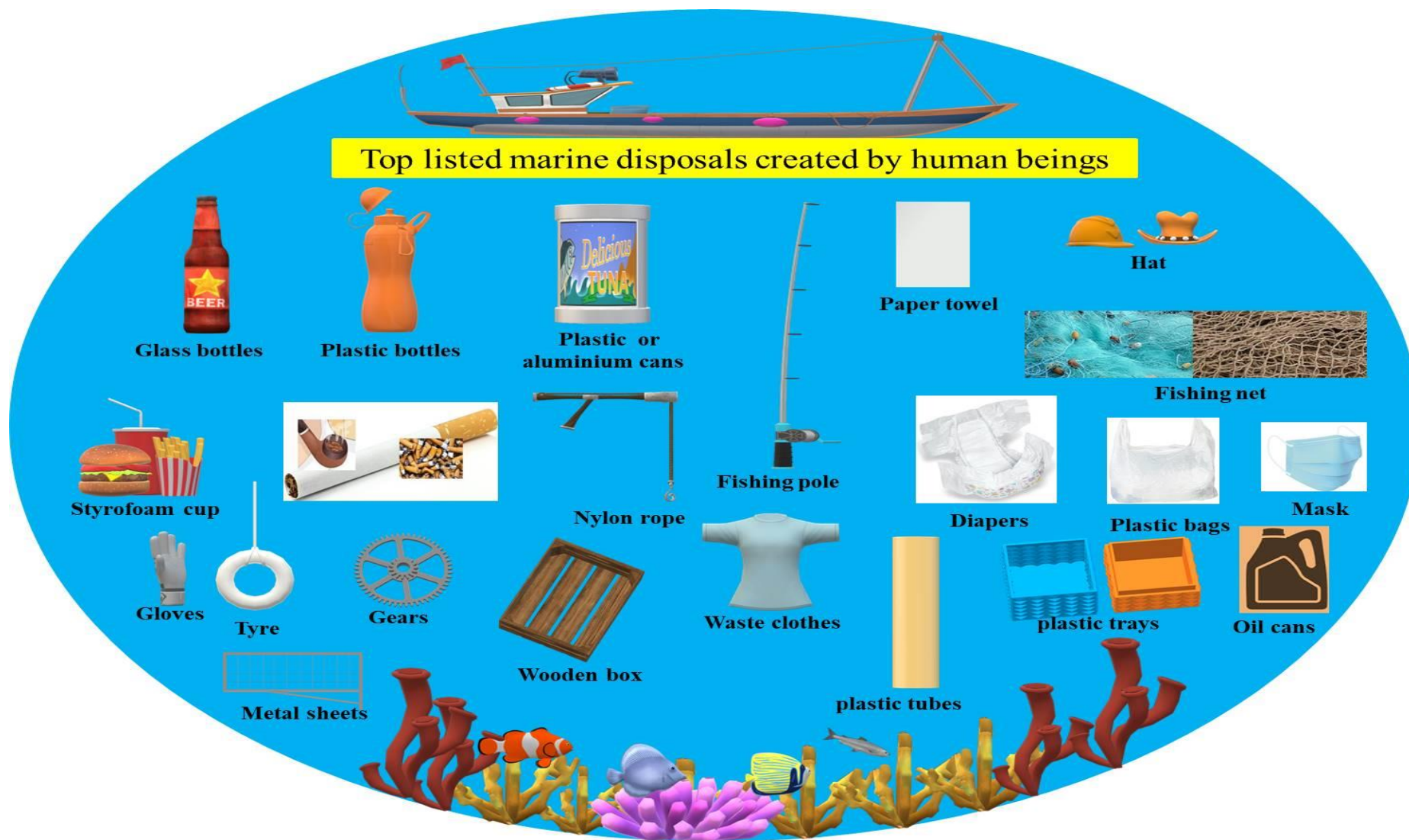


Fig. 2: Top listed marine debris [29,30]

Characterization of NMs present in the marine resources

Physical and chemical procedures for nanoparticles synthesis are extremely expensive. The scientific community targeted living entities in order to lower the unavoidable costs of downstream processing of produced NMs and to expand the use of nanoparticles.

As indicated in table 1, nature has evolved numerous procedures for the synthesis of nano and micro length scaled inorganic materials, which have contributed to the establishment of a relatively new and mostly unexplored area of research based on the synthesis of NMs [31].

Table 1: Synthesis and characterization of NPs using MRs

Name of the organisms	Type of biosynthesis	Particle size and shape	Techniques used	Biological activity	Reference
<i>Padina species</i>	Silver nanoparticles (AgNPs)	~25-60nm Spherical	Uv-vis, FT-IR, FESEM-EDX and SEM	Antibacterial activity using <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>B. subtilis</i> , <i>P. aeruginosa</i> , <i>E. coli</i> and <i>S. typhii</i>	31
<i>Ulva rigida</i> , <i>Gracilaria foliofera</i> and <i>Cystoseira myrica</i>	AgNPs	12, 17 and 24 nm Spherical	Uv-vis, FT-IR and TEM	Anticancer activity using HFb-4 cells Antimicrobial activity using <i>B. cerus</i> , <i>E. coli</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>C. neoformans</i> , <i>C. albicans</i> , <i>T. cataneum</i> and <i>T. mantigrophytes</i>	32
<i>U. fasciata</i> , <i>Grateloupia species</i> , <i>P. capillacea</i> and <i>C. mediterranea</i>	AgNPs	4-80nm Spherical	UV-vis, XRD, HR-TEM and SEM-EDX	Antibacterial activity using <i>E. coli</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>S. faecalis</i> , <i>P. aureogenosa</i> and <i>V. damselsa</i>	33
MA (<i>Ulva lactuca</i>)	AgNPs	20-56nm Spherical	UV-vis, SEM-EDX, TEM, XRD and FT-IR	Anticancer activity using Hep-2, MF7, HT29 and Vero cells	34
<i>Amphora species</i>	AgNPs	42-46 nm Rod	UV-vis, FESEM-EDX, FT-IR and XRD	Antibacterial activity using <i>E. coli</i> , <i>P. vulgaris</i> , <i>E. faecalis</i> and <i>B. subtilis</i>	35

<i>Halymenia porphyroides</i>	AgNPs	34.3 and 80 nm Spherical	UV-vis, FT-IR, XRD, TGA, SEM and TEM	No activity (NA)	36
<i>Padina pavonica</i>	AuNPs	30-100 nm Spherical	UV-vis, FT-IR, XRD, SEM and TEM	Antibacterial activity using <i>E. coli</i> and <i>B. subtilis</i>	37
<i>Laminaria ochroleuca</i>	AgNPs	10-20 nm Spherical	UV-vis, SEM with EDX, HR-TEM with SAED, FT-IR and TGA	Antibacterial activity using <i>E. coli</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>K.pneumonia</i> , <i>P. aeruginosa</i> , <i>B. cereus</i> and <i>M. luteus</i>	38
<i>Isochrysis galbana</i>	AgNPs	10 nm Spherical	UV-vis and TEM with EDX	Antibacterial activity using <i>E. coli</i> and <i>P. vulgaris</i>	39
<i>Chnoospara minima</i>	AgNPs	84 nm Spherical	UV-vis, DLS, Zeta potential and SEM with EDX	Anticancer activity using MCF-7 cells	40
<i>P. pavonica</i> and <i>S. acinarium</i>	Fe ₃ O ₄ NPs	10-19.5nm Spherical	UV-vis, SEM with EDX, HR-TEM with SAED and FT-IR	Bioremediation (Bioremoval of Pb)	41
<i>Phormidium formosum</i>	AgNPs	1.83-26.15 nm Spherical	UV-vis, TEM and FT-IR	Antimicrobial activity using <i>Vibrio species</i> , <i>P. aeruginosa</i> , <i>S. marcescens</i> , <i>Aeromonas hydrophilic</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>Proteus species</i> , <i>E. coli</i> and <i>C. albicans</i>	42
<i>(Rhizophora stylosa)</i>	AgNPs	5-87 nm Spherical	UV-vis, XRD, DLS and TEM	Antimicrobial activity using <i>E. coli</i> and <i>S. aureus</i>	43
<i>Cystoseria myrica</i> , <i>Sargassum latifolium</i> and <i>Padina australis</i>	Cu ₂ ONPs	12-26 nm Spindle	UV-vis, XRD, FT-IR, TEM, FE-SEM	Antimicrobial activity using <i>E. coli</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> and <i>P. aeruginosa</i>	44

Polychaete	AgNPs	40-90 nm Spherical	UV-vis, AFM, SEM with EDX, XRD and FT-IR	Antibacterial activity using <i>E. coli</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>P. aeruginosa</i> and <i>S. typhii</i>	45
<i>Nocardiosis dassonvillei</i>	AgNPs	29.28 nm Spherical	UV-vis, FT-IR, TEM and DLS	Antimicrobial activity using <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>P. aureogenosa</i> , <i>K. pneumonia</i> , <i>P. mirabilis</i> , <i>A. niger</i> and <i>C. albicans</i> , Insecticidal activity using <i>Macrosiphum rosae</i> . Antioxidant activity by DPPH assay ANCA using CaCo ₂ cell line	46
Sea urchin	AuNPs	~150 and ~25 nm Spike	UV-vis, FESEM, XRD and TEM	NA	47
Sea urchin	TiO ₂ NPs	10-65 nm Spherical	TEM and DLS	TLR/p38 MAPK mediated signaling pathway	48
Sardine fish scale	AgNPs	25-80 nm S	UV-vis, FT-IR, XRD and SEM with EDX	Larvicidal activity using <i>Anopheles stephensi</i>	49
<i>Carcinus maenas</i> and <i>Ocypode quadrata</i>	AgNPs	40-50 nm Spherical	UV-vis and SEM	Antimicrobial activity using <i>E. coli</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>Pseudomonas species</i> , <i>Klebsiella species</i> , <i>Candida species</i> and <i>A. niger</i>	50
Chitosan	AgNPs	10-60 nm Spherical	UV-vis, FT-IR, XRD, AFM, TEM and DLS	Antimicrobial activity using <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>Bacillus species</i> , <i>E. coli</i> , <i>Pseudomonas species</i> , <i>Proteus species</i> , <i>Serratia species</i> , <i>Klebsiella species</i> , <i>A. niger</i> , <i>A. flavus</i> , <i>A. fumigatus</i> and <i>C. albicans</i>	51
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	AgNPs	50-100 nm Spherical	UV-vis and SEM-EDX,	NA	52
<i>Citricoccus</i>	AuNPs	25-65 nm Spherical	UV-vis, SEM-EDX and TEM	NA	53

<i>Saccharophagus degradans</i> and <i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	MnO ₂ NPs	34.4 nm Hexagonal and Spherical	UV-vis, TEM, SEM, FR-IR and XRD	NA	54
<i>Paracoccus haeundaensis</i>	AuNPs	20.93±3.46 nm Spherical	UV-vis, SEM, FT-IR and DLS	Antioxidant using DPPH assay Anticancer activity using HaCaT and HEK293 cells	55
<i>Oscillatoria willei</i>	AgNPs	100-200 nm Spherical	UV-vis, FT-IR and SEM	NA	56
<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	AgNPs	1-10 nm S	UV-vis, FT-IR, SEM and TEM	Antimicrobial activity using <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>E. coli</i> , <i>C. albicans</i> , <i>A. niger</i> and <i>F. proliferatum</i>	57
<i>Streptomyces albidoflavus</i>	AgNPs	10-30 nm Spherical	Zeta potential, TEM and FT-IR	Antibacterial activity using <i>E. coli</i> , <i>B. subtilis</i> , <i>K. pneumonia</i> and <i>Micrococcus luteus</i>	58
<i>Penicillium fellutanum</i>	AgNPs	5-25 nm Spherical	UV-vis and TEM	NA	59
<i>Aspergillus sydowii</i>	AuNPs	8.7-15.6 nm Spherical	UV-vis, TEM, SADE and EDAX	NA	60
<i>Sargassum wightii</i>	AuNPs	8-12 nm Spherical	UV-vis, TEM and XRD	NA	61
<i>Trichodesmium ertthraeum</i>	AgNPs	26.5 nm Cubical	UV-vis, XRD, FT-IR, FESEM, AFM and DLS	Antibacterial activity using <i>P. mirabilis</i> and <i>S. aureus</i>	62
<i>Cladosporium cladosporioides</i>	AgNPs	100 nm Spherical	UV-vis, XRD, FT-IR, FESEM, AFM and DLS	Antioxidant activity using DPPH assay	63
<i>B.subtilis</i>	AgNPs	60 nm Spherical	UV-vis, XRD, FT-IR and TEM	NA	64
<i>Pseudomonas species</i>	AgNPs	156 and 265 nm Spherical	UV-vis	Antibacterial using <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>B. subtilis</i> , <i>S. typhii</i> and <i>V. cholera</i> ,	65

Tracking of nanostructured materials emissions in the maritime environment using ecotoxicological instruments

The development of novel environmental nanostructured materials, such as those able to remove pollutants and lowering their bioavailability in aqueous media, presently lacks a testing framework for their environmental safety in terms of impact on aquatic biota [66]. Effect concentrations can be produced and integrated with the nanostructured materials effectiveness concentrations to reduce/limit any danger connected with its

field deployment by incorporating ecotoxicity in the testing framework. Whether analytical chemistry is required to identify pollutants in seawater and assess the effectiveness of the proposed environmental nanostructured materials in terms of remediation, it is insufficient to define its possible environmental side effects [67]. Instead, as indicated in table 2, ecotoxicological instruments aimed at assessing the danger to marine species might meet these objectives and should be included into the marine ecosystem.

Table 2: Ecotoxicological tools

Name of the tools	Application	Reference
Graphene Oxide USTC-6	Recovery of oil spills from the water	[68]
Hydrophobic SiO ₂ NPs/polydimethylsiloxane (Dip coating method)	Oil spills remediation	[69]
fluorous metal organic framework 1 and 2	Oil spills cleanup and hydrocarbon storage Removes organic pollutants from oil spills	[70]
Magnetic nano carbon tubes Magnetic nanocomposite Super-paramagnetic iron oxide nanoparticles (FeONPs)	Removal of oil spills	[71]
Magnetic nanoparticles	Removal of oil spills caused by crude oil	[72]
Cellulose nanocrystals	Removal of oil spills caused by crude oil	[73]
Joule-heated graphene wrapped sponges		[74]
Carbon nanotube based aerogels and sponges	Removes the oil spills	[75]
Carbon nanotube based aerogels and sponges	Remediation of petroleum impurities from water	[76]
Graphene Oxide Quantum Dot (coupled with <i>Bacillus cereus</i>)	Removes oil spills and also removes organic pollutants	[77]

Magnetite nanomaterials	Removes oil spills	[78]
Magnetic nanoparticles	Removes oil spills	[79]
Plant extract (<i>Anthemis pseudocotula</i>) based synthesized magnetite nanomaterials	Petroleum oil spill collectors	[80]
Graphine	Oil spill clean up	[81]
Polyurethane foam coated with Carbon Nanofibers	Selective absorption in oil/water mixtures	[82]
Graphene Oxide melamine nanocomposite	Removes crude oil spills	[83]
3D magnetic graphene ball	Removes oil spills from water	[84]
Ceramic nanomaterials	Separation of oil/water mixtures	[85]
Polyvinylpyrrolidone coated MNPs	Oil remediation	[86]
3D Graphine	Cleans oil spills and removes dyes and organic pollutants in water	[87]
Yeast magnetic bionanocomposite	Oil spills clean up	[88]
Robotic vehicle with nanoparticles	Oil spills cleaning	[89]
Magnetic nanoparticles	Collection of petroleum crude oil spill pollutants from salt water	[90]
Polydimethylsiloxane	Selectively removes oil/water mixtures	[91]
Carbon sponges	Oil remediation	[92]
Iron nanoparticles	Removes oil spills	[93]
Iron oxide nanosheets	Removes oil spills	[94]
Alumina nanoparticles	Removal of oil spills from oil/water mixtures	[95]
Magnetic nanoparticles	Removes oil spills	[96]
Magnetic nanoparticles	OR from water	[97]
Magnetic nanoparticles	OR from water	[98]
White Graphine	Clean up the oil spills	[99]
Polystyrene fibers	Clean up the oil spills	[100]
Melamine sponge	OS clean-up and recovery	[101]
Peptide-based gel	Clean up the oil spills Removes lead and cadmium metals from oil spills recovery	[102]
Graphine/polyester sponge	Oil spills cleanup	[103]
TiO ₂ NPs	Remediate crude oil exposure	[104]
<i>Eichhorina crassipes</i> magnetic nanoparticles	Remediation of water polluted with petroleum crude oil	[105]
Montmorillonite clay	Partial treatment of SW	[106]
Magnetic detergent	Removal of diesel spills removal from saltwater	[107]
Carbon nanotubes	Absorbent for marine oil spills	[108]
Ionophore-based electrode	absorbent for marine oil spills	[109]
	Electrochemical sensing of lead	[109]
Graphine nanoparticles	Electrochemical detection of heavy metal ions	[110]
Cellulose	Removal zinc ions from salt water	[111]
Iron oxide nanoparticles	Removal of heavy metals	[112]

In reality, studies examining the toxicity of each individual NM are limited when compared to the number of various NMs synthesized for salt water decontamination (Table 2). Similarly, there are few multidisciplinary studies on the ability of novel synthesized NMs to remediate and their ecotoxicological impact on marine creatures in the existing literature. This encourages better collaboration across diverse study domains, such as chemistry, physics, engineering, and ecotoxicology,

as well as increased research efforts on engineered nanoparticles ecotoxicological evaluation [113]. Ecotoxicity tests should mimic real-world conditions before and after the nanoremediation process, taking into account the unique characteristics of NMs, such as their various sizes, structures, and shapes, which contribute to their interactions with the remediation media, influencing their behavior and toxicity [113].

Applications of nonrobotics in controlling marine pollution

To reduce undersea pollution, efforts are being done. A robotic fish that monitors the levels of underwater pollution and

aquatic life may soon be a new species of paraphyletic aquatic life in the world's seas (Fig. 3).

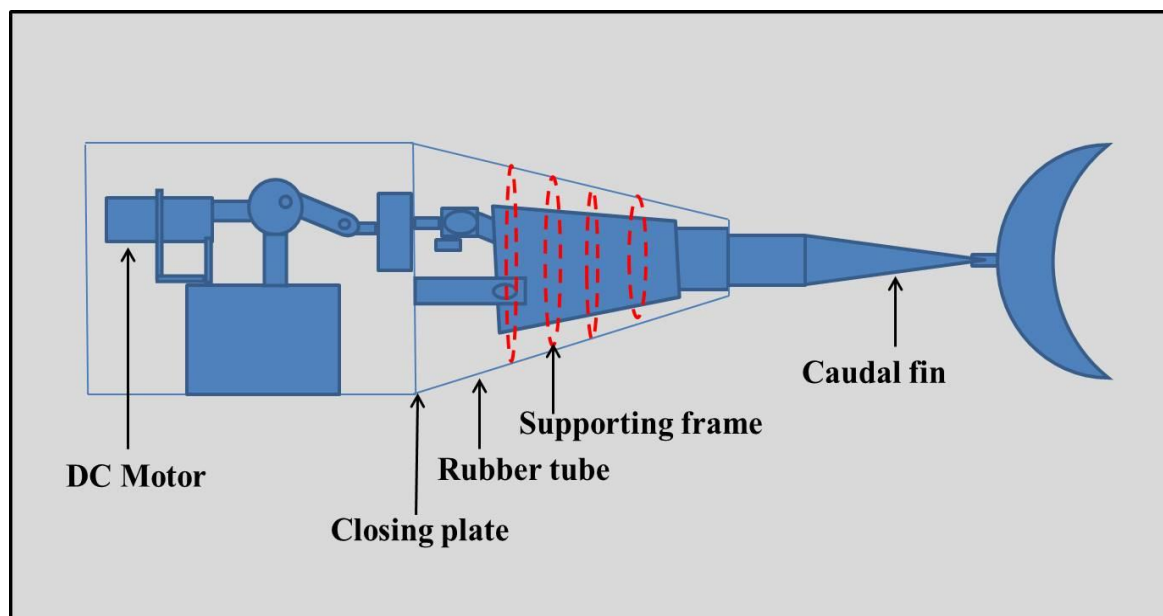


Fig. 3: Structure of robotic fish [114]

There are several underwater vehicles employed today to monitor undersea activity and clean up rivers, but they don't quite resemble aquatic life in terms of size and shape [114]. Additionally, the mobility and quantity of noise produced by these tracking technologies restrict autonomous underwater vehicles. The ability of little fish to move efficiently in watery environments, make greater use of the water, and create less noise can be attributed to their small size [115]. Small fish will also use the absence of noise in a big aquatic habitat as a survival strategy to keep larger predators from locating them. Robotic fish technology is significant for a number of reasons, including pollution monitoring, but also because it enables researchers to examine eating patterns and behavioural patterns that may be used to better understand a particular species and aid in environmental conservation [116].

The small robots, which have platinum inside coating and a graphene oxide exterior covering, can perform a lot more than you may expect. The polluting metals are absorbed by graphene oxide, while magnetic control is made possible by the nickel core. The platinum covering serves as the chemical "engine" for the nanobots, which are driven forward by a reaction with hydrogen peroxide. Each robot is roughly the width of a human hair, which

is astounding to consider. The graphene bots are also reusable, and they can even make many passes over the same contaminated region. In the future, employing some sort of internal influence, experts now see the potential for autonomous control. Although the focus of this study was on the removal of lead, future research will modify the nanobots to remove a variety of heavy metals from varied settings [117].

Tiny fish shaped robot

Chinese researchers have created a robotic fish that can filter water of microplastics. The bionic fish is barely 13 millimetres in length and is made of the synthetic material polyurethane. It is capable of swimming as quickly as plankton. Microplastics adhere to the fish because of the substance used to make it. Additionally, even when injured, the robot may rebuild its robustness and usefulness by steadily absorbing pollutants. With this study, quick locomotions and functional execution are no longer mutually exclusive, and we predict that additional integrated robots that need multifunction integration will benefit from our nanostructural design's effective extended route [118, 119].

Role of Nano/Micromachines in marine environment

By using micromotors based on magnesium Janus particles magnesium particles coated in nanometric layers of titanium, nickel, and gold and further functionalized with a hydrophobic coating of octadecanethiol to scavenge oil droplets in water, nanotechnology can enhance oil remediation [120]. These micromotors, in contrast to the preceding illustration, propel themselves using hydrogen bubbles that are produced as a result of a process involving water reduction at the magnesium surface. The magnesium surface rapidly becomes coated, or passivated, by an oxide layer and is unable to generate the reaction with water that creates the bubbles, which is one possible problem with this motor. Because it interacts with the chloride ions in saltwater to aid in the removal of the oxide passivation layer through a mix of macrogalvanic corrosion and pitting corrosion processes, the gold coating on the motor provides assistance with this issue. These tiny motors, like the one in the first illustration, adhere to oil droplets and aid in their capture and transportation in water. These micromotors have the potential to be useful in the removal of oil droplets from saltwater since they can independently propel in seawater [120].

These nano- and micromotors could offer an effective and eco-friendly option for

cleaning up oil spills. The nature of the motor and the usage of saltwater as the only fuel source in the case of the magnesium Janus micromotors make them exceptionally biocompatible and environmentally benign [121]. The nano/micromotors have the capacity to catch, transfer, and remove oil droplets from water, in contrast to dispersants, which break up the oil slick and carry the oil down the water column [122]. These nano/micromachines, in addition to having corrosion problems, also tend to slow down after gathering oil droplets. The issues with durability and speed of these nano/micromotors are still being researched [123]. Unfortunately, no instances of these nano/micromotors being employed for oil spill management have been reported, and it is unclear what happens to the machines once they connect to the oil. The usage of nano/micromotors for oil spill cleanup is in its early stages. However, based on the few instances we have, it is clear that they might have significant uses in water treatment and oil spill mitigation, possibly revolutionising the area of environmental remediation [124].

Conclusion

The majority of nanoparticles environmental impact research is now

focused on nanotoxicity. The indirect impact of manufactured nanoparticles can represent bigger ecological hazards than direct toxicity, according to this paper. Abiotic + biotic and organic material change at the nano and microscale are at the heart of macroscopic experiences in the sea, according to extensive examinations of surface active chemicals in marine ecosystems. The use of spectroscopy and microscopy techniques has allowed researchers to investigate the environmental impact of manufactured nanoparticles that govern the destiny of organic molecules and their interactions with metal-bearing nanoparticles in the marine environment.

Indeed, environmental nanomaterials are very dynamic in seawater, and a thorough physical-chemical characterization of their acquired characteristics is essential for a fair evaluation of exposure scenarios and associated dangers to the environment and people. Nanosized objects interact with living things in a fundamentally different way than conventional contaminants due to their eco-interactions with the environment's nanomaterials and biomolecules, including existing chemical pollutants. These new exposure scenarios must be considered when approaching the ecotoxicity study of nanosized objects. In order to fully understand environmental

nano-bio interactions from an ecotoxicological perspective, the eco-corona concept must be included. In order to simulate actual exposure situations, protracted exposure circumstances and additional sublethal end-points that bridge the impact from a single organism to populations and communities should be considered in terms of biological impacts. In order to quantify actual exposure to commercial items incorporating environmental nanomaterials and to foresee risks for marine biota, a better examination of nano-enabled products is also strategically necessary. In order to improve our understanding of the effects of environmental nanoparticles on benthic populations, our advice for future research is to move beyond the use of conventional model species. Thus, it is suggested to use an ecologically based safer by design strategy (eco-design), in which an ecotoxicological testing strategy will enable the selection of the best eco-friendly and ecologically sustainable environment nanomaterials, significantly reducing any potential future side effects in terms of toxicological risk for natural ecosystems, including the marine environment.

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