1. Introduction

Microorganisms are serious pests that cause losses of a wide range of different crops. Control of harmful effects of microorganisms growth is a necessity. Pests in Africa continue to limit food crop harvests. Predominantly, studies indicate that losses due to pests are estimated at 30%[1,2], but localized losses due to outbreaks of major migratory pests such as locusts and armyworms can be even greater, sometimes resulting in complete crop failure[3]. Additionally, plant-parasitic nematodes cause significant economic losses in a wide variety of crops[4]. Parasitic nematodes may reduce crop yield through their feeding and movement throughout roots[5]. Overall losses caused by plant-parasitic nematodes were estimated to exceed 100 billion US dollar per year worldwide including 10%-20% yield reduction in several cash crops[4]. Yield reductions caused by plant-parasitic nematode might become much higher due to restrictions imposed by the use of chemical nematicides and the voluntary removal of some nematicides from the market[5]. For example, the most widely used chemical nematicides, Nemasan (fenamiphos), was cancelled in 2008 because of environmental concerns. Since then, effective alternatives have been limited. Also, biological control agents have disadvantage as they possess a narrow range of treatment effect and a lack of reliability under varying environmental conditions[7]. On the other hand, natural compounds produce several materials including essential oils that are biologically active in suppressing nematodes[8]. Finally, using nanoparticles is a prominent example of nano-sized materials being applied as a means of controlling pathogen microbes. For example, silver nanoparticles have shown evidence of being potentially effective nematicide[9], and its toxicity is associated with induction of oxidative stress in cells of nematode[10].

2. Silver nanoparticles (AgNPs)

Among various antimicrobial agents, silver has been most extensively studied and used to fight against infections and prevent spoilage since ancient times[11]. Consequently, AgNPs are produced at the highest production volume. According to the Woodrow Wilson Database[12], there were more than 1 300 nanotechnological consumer products on the market in March 2011. This popularity is explained by the fact that silver is the best conductor among the materials[13]. Moreover, AgNPs have favorable chemical and physical properties such as biocompatibility. Taking advantage of this, AgNP-based electrochemical biosensing systems were
mechanisms of cell death by Ag via rupturing cell membrane[21,22].

particles to the bacteria because of electrostatic interaction with Yonezawa and Kunitake, have produced AuNPs stabilized with membrane and bind to the−SH group of cellular enzymes follows. Generally, metal ions destroy or pass through the cell Pseudomonas aeruginosa Gram negative and Gram positive bacteria, composites have an intense antibacterial efficiency against various antibacterial, antiviral, antifungal and antinematicidal properties of AuNPs are recognized[9,10,18].

AuNPs anti-microbial mechanism can be briefly explained as follows. Generally, metal ions destroy or pass through the cell membrane and bind to the−SH group of cellular enzymes[19]. The consequent critical decrease of enzymatic activity causes microorganism metabolisms change and inhibits their growth, resulting in the cell’s death. The metal ions also catalyze the production of oxygen radicals that oxidize molecular structure of bacteria. The formation of active oxygen occurs according to this chemical reaction:

\[ \text{H}_2\text{O} + \frac{1}{2} \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O} \]

Such a mechanism does not need any direct contact between the anti-microbial agent and bacteria because the produced active oxygen diffuses from fiber to the surrounding environment. Therefore, metal ions inhibit the multiplication of micro-organisms. Bacteria are not permanently exposed to oxygen radicals and, thus, the ionic additive does not seem to facilitate the selection of resistant strains[20]. For example, attachment of Ag ions or nanoparticles to the bacteria because of electrostatic interaction with negative charge of bacterial cell wall are known as one of the mechanisms of cell death by Ag via rupturing cell membrane[21,22]. Moreover, nanomolar concentration of AgNPs can be efficient while Ag ions are needed at the micromolecular level[22]. Also, Kim et al. reported that, the antimicrobial mechanism of AgNPs is related to the formation of free radicals and subsequent free radical-induced membrane damage. They confirmed that the antimicrobial activity of AgNPs was influenced by N-acetylcysteine. They have also suggested that free radicals that might have been derived from the surface of AgNPs were responsible for the antimicrobial activity through electron spin resonance[23].

3. Gold nanoparticles (AuNPs)

AuNPs are gaining recognition as a novel biomedical application. Yonezawa and Kunitake, have produced AuNPs stabilized with sodium (3-mercaptopropionate) via reduction of HAuCl₄[24]. AuNPs are used as carrier core coated antibiotics like streptomycin, gentamycin and neomycin. This result proved that gold nano-composites have an intense antibacterial efficiency against various Gram negative and Gram positive bacteria, viz. Escherichia coli, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Staphylococcus aureus and Micrococcus luteus[25]. Also, Grace and Pandian concluded that metal nanoparticles may change the metabolite pathway and the release mechanism of bacterial cells. Thus, a better antibacterial efficiency can be obtained as a result of the strong efficiency of the Au/drug nano-composites[25].

AuNPs are formed by a variety of microorganisms. Though the common underlying mechanism involved in synthesis is reduction of Au³⁺ ions to form AuNPs, it has been postulated that the enzyme secreted by microorganisms play an important role in the reduction of metal ions, leading to nanoparticle nucleation and growth[26,27].

In spite of a large number of reports in microbial mediated AuNP synthesis, the mechanistic aspects have not been established and need to be investigated[28]. Such studies have been performed previously to explain the mechanism underlying AgNP synthesis, where the hydrogenase, proteins mediate and nitrate reductase mediated synthesis has been explained for this mechanism[29].

For example, in actinomycete Thermomonospora, enzymes were shown to play an important role in the reduction of metal ions as well as stability of nanoparticles, resulting in the efficient production of monodispersed AuNPs[30]. It has been hypothesized that proteins, polysaccharides and organic acids released by the fungi are able to differentiate crystal shapes and direct their growth into extended spherical crystals[31].

4. Copper nanoparticles (CuNPs)

CuNPs, due to their impressive properties, low cost preparation and many potential applications in catalysis, cooling fluid or conductive inks, have attracted a lot of interest in recent years[32]. Therefore, CuNPs were embedded into submicron particles of sepiolite [Mg₈Si₁₂O₃₀(OH)₄(H₂O)₄] and their anti-bacterial properties were compared with triclosan[33]. Also, Culpilo et al. reported strong bactericidal properties for both composite and triclosan[33]. However, the observation of Pape et al. confirmed that anti-bacterial activity of CuNPs is clearly less than that of AgNPs[34].

The most important and unique application area of CuNPs is electronics and technology (semiconductors, electronic chips, heat transfer nanofluids), as Cu ion has excellent thermophysical characteristics[35]. In addition, Sau et al. have been suggested other uses of CuNPs such as gas sensors[36], solar cells and lithium batteries[37]. CuNPs have been shown to inhibit the germination of microorganisms and to exhibit antiviral properties[38]. Also, CuNPs have been used in face masks, wound dressings and socks to capitalize on these biocidal qualities[39].

Cu ions were more toxic than CuNPs to all organisms except for yeast and mammalian cells in vitro as found by Kasesmet et al.[40]. Consequently, this is an important finding showing that in mammalian cells in vitro, CuNPs may have an additional particle-specific intrinsic toxicity that is hard to predict using non-mammalian cell models. One may hypothesize that the particles are endocytosed and when already inside the cell their solubilization cannot be controlled by the mechanisms used to regulate the concentration of Cu ions in the cell. On the other hand, the toxicity assays with mammalian cells in vitro use serum that may disperse and coat nanoparticles[41], increasing their bioavailability to the cells. For yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae, it was revealed that while the toxicity tests were conducted in protein-rich medium, CuNPs enhanced the Cu ion-associated stress. This is, assumingly, attributed to the stronger sorption of protein-coated nanoparticles onto the cell surface that was suggested to facilitate the dissolution of Cu in the close vicinity of the yeast cell wall. Noteworthy, this effect was outstanding in complex organic medium, but not in distilled water[40].

5. Probable mechanisms of the effect of nanoparticles to inhibit microorganisms

Mechanism of action of nanoparticles toxicity is unclear. However, relatively well defined concepts are reported in the literature for some of them. For example, studies on the quantitative
uptake and accumulation of nanomaterials by whole organisms showed that nanoparticles mainly arrive into multicellular animals by ingestion and absorption through intestinal walls[42,43]. Some nanomaterials are capable of penetrating tissue barriers into cells and then interact with intracellular components[44,45]. Some types of nanomaterials (dendrimers of different degrees of generation) can disturb membrane structures and make them permeable[46]. It has been shown that nanoparticles can penetrate into cells in different ways. Some researchers observed simple diffusion through the cell membrane[47]. In addition, Shrivastava et al. found that the nanoparticles can modulate the signal transduction in bacteria[48]. It is a well-established fact that phosphorylation of protein substrates in bacteria influences bacterial signal transduction. Dephosphorylation is noted only in the tyrosine residues of Gram-negative bacteria. The phosphotyrosine profile of bacterial peptides is altered by the nanoparticles. It was found that the nanoparticles dephosphorylate the peptide substrates on tyrosine residues, leading to signal transduction inhibition and thus the halt of growth. It is nevertheless, necessary to understand that further research is required on the topic to thoroughly establish the claims[48].

As for higher plants, it is believed that the sensitivity of plants to nanomaterials is based on the capacity to filter and accumulate nanoparticles[49]. Some researchers relate the toxicity of these particles to changes in the penetrability of cell covers, whereas the adhesion of nanoparticles to the surface of cells affects the properties of membranes. It is not excluded that AgNPs penetrate the cell and damage their DNA and can release toxic Ag⁺ ions during the interaction with the cell[50].

6. Effect of nanoparticles on the environments

There are conflicting opinions about the safety of nanoparticles for living objects. Some authors declare the complete harmlessness of nanomaterials, while others, on the contrary, express extreme concern over the distribution of products of new technologies and caution against this. This again emphasizes the poor knowledge and complexity of the identification of nanomaterials and their effects, not only in soil but also in aerial and aqueous environments and organisms[51]. At the present time products of nanoparticles derived from emerging technologies are viewed by the public in a more demanding perspective from the standpoint of safety and environment impact. In case of nanotechnology, the potential for exposure to nanoparticles will increase as the quantity and types of nanoparticles used in society grow[52]. The hazard of concentrated precipitates of nanoparticles for soil inhabiting and benthic organisms cannot be excluded. At this level, there are clear ideal of the hazard of nanoparticles and any general concepts of the possible mechanisms or theory explaining the effect of nanoparticles on living cells. Nevertheless, although researchers hold significant different views on the hazard of nanoparticles, most of them recognize the existence of this hazard[51].

7. Toxic effects of some currently used nanoparticles

Nanoparticles are already having an impact on environmental care, and it can be used in diverse domains. They play a major role in the field of nanotechnology. Their unique size-dependent characteristics make these materials superior and indispensable as they show unusual physical, chemical and biological properties. Particularly, AgNPs possess potential antimicrobial activity against many pathogen microbes[53].

However, some studies claim that, nanosilver can cause adverse effects on the environment. There have been reports on how nanosilver cannot discriminate different strains of bacteria; hence, they can destroy microbes beneficial to the ecology[54]. There is evidence showing that silver ions cause changes in the permeability of the cell membrane to potassium and sodium ions at concentrations that do not even limit sodium, potassium, adenosine triphosphate, or mitochondrial activity[55]. The literature also proves that nanosilver can induce toxic effects on the proliferation and cytokine expression by peripheral blood mononuclear cells[56].

There are several accounts on the toxic effects of nanoparticles. Living cells in in vitro studies, were influenced by AgNPs by cytotoxicity and chromosome instability, oxidative stress, apoptosis, intracellular calcium transients, cell cycle arrest, and interference with DNA replication fidelity[57,58]. Additionally, free radical-induced oxidative stress and alteration of gene expression were reported in in vivo studies[59-61].

Among other adverse results, cytotoxicity and genotoxicity were observed in fish cells as caused by nanoparticles. Nanoparticles accumulate in gill tissue and bring about unfavorable effects including embryonic development of oyster, lysosomal destabilization of adult oysters, oxidative stress, double-strand break marker gamma-H2AX and the expression of p53 protein, embryonic morphological malformations in zebrafish[62,63].

The work of Burd et al. demonstrated that commercially available silver-based dressings (ActicoatTM, Aquacel®, PolyMem® and Urgotul®SSD) also show potential cytotoxic effect[64]. They assessed their cytotoxicity in various cultures and models such as monolayer cell culture, tissue explants culture model and mouse expurgated wound model. The results displayed that ActicoatTM and Aquacel® Ag, when pretreated with specific solutes, were likely to produce the most significant cytotoxic effect on both cultured keratinocytes and fibroblasts, while PolyMem® and Urgotul®SSD Ag demonstrated the least cytotoxicity. Cytotoxicity correlated with the silver released from the dressings as measured by the silver concentration in the culture medium[64]. The ecotoxicology literature shows that concentrations of AgNPs as low as just a few nanograms per liter can affect prokaryotes, invertebrates and fish resulting in a significant impact in spite of AgNPs poor characteristics[65].

8. Conclusion

Nanoparticles of Cu, Au and particularly Ag are deliberately used to suppress the growth of microorganisms. A analysis of literature shows that the evaluation of the implications of the nanoparticles distribution in the environment remains an open problem. This can be attributed to the lack of any guidelines and the absence of a consensus among researchers on experimental protocols or study designs in this field. This is aggravated by the unique properties of nanoscale materials, which cause problems during the toxicological assessment of novel nanomaterials. All of these factors give rise to conflicting and irreproducible results and slow down the progress of this field.

For these reasons, all mechanisms of the effect of any nanosized structures are not universally accepted theory with consideration for the structural characteristics of their surface and reactivity. Therefore, there is no reasoning for hampering the development
of nanotechnologies and the propagation of nanomaterials in environment taking into consideration the drawbacks of the methodological approaches used in toxicity analysis.

Conflict of interest statement

We declare that we have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

The author is grateful to Dr. Ragaa A. Hamouda, Microbial Biotechnology Department, (GEBiR), University of Sadat City for his help during this work. The author also thanks Dr. Mohamed F. Afifi, University of Sadat City for critical reading of the manuscript.

References

[1] Lenne J. Pests and poverty: the continuing need for crop protection. Outlook Agric 2000; 29: 235-50.
[2] Oerke EC, Dehne HW. Safeguarding production losses in major crops and role of crop protection. Crop Prot 2004; 23: 275-85.
[3] Rose D, Dewhurst CF, Page WW. Plant parasitic nematodes: mechanisms of action and future prospects. 2nd edition. Chatham: Natural Resources Institute; 2000, p. 323.
[4] Koenning SR, Overstreet C, Noling JW, Donald PA, Becker JO, Fortnum BA. Survey of crop losses in response to phytoparasitic nematodes in the United States. J Nematol 1999; 31: 587-618.
[5] Westerdahl BB, Caawiel-Chen EP, Bugg RL. Nematodes. In: Ingels CA, Bugg RL, McGourty GT, Christensen LP, editors. Cover cropping in vineyards: a grower’s handbook. Oakland: Division of Agriculture and Natural Resources, University of California; 1998, p. 113-25.
[6] Noling JW, Becker JO. The challenge of research and extension to define and implement alternatives to methyl bromide. J Nematol 1994; 26: 573-86.
[7] Tian B, Yang J, Zhang KQ. Antifungal properties of the leaf oils of Tagetes minuta L. and Cinnamomum cylicanum bark extract and powder mediated green synthesis of nanocrystalline silver particles and its bactericidal activity. Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces 2009; 73: 332-8.
[8] Ro JY, Sim SJ, Yi J, Park K, Chung KH, Ryu DY, et al. Ecotoxicity of silver nanoparticles on the soil nematode Caenorhabditis elegans using functional ecotoxicogenomics. Environ Sci Technol 2009; 43(10): 3933-40.
[9] Lim D, Roh JY, Eom HJ, Hyun J, Choi J. Oxidative stress-related PMK-1 P38 MAPK activation as a mechanism for toxicity of silver nanoparticles to reproduction in the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans. Environ Toxicol Chem 2012; 31: 585-92.
[10] Rai M, Yadav A, Gade A. Silver nanoparticles as a new generation of antimicrobials. Biotechnol Adv 2009; 27(1): 76-83.
[11] Bondarenko O, Jugganston K, Ivask A, K asemets K, Mortimer M, Kahr u A. Toxicity of Ag, CuO and ZnO nanoparticles to selected environmentally relevant test organisms and mammalian cells in vitro: a critical review. Arch Toxicol 2013; 87(7): 1181-200.
[12] Ren X, Meng X, Chen D, Tang F, Jiao J. Using silver nanoparticle to enhance current response of biosensor. Biosens Bioelectron 2005; 21(3): 433-7.
[13] Lian W, Liu S, Yu J, Li J, Cui M, Xu W, et al. Electrochemical sensor using neomycin-imprinted film as recognition element based on chitosan-silver nanoparticles/graphene-multiwalled carbon nanotubes composites modified electrode. Biosens Bioelectron 2013; 19(44): 70-6.
[14] Bystrzewskia-Piotrowska G, Golimowski J, Urban PL. Nanoparticles: their potential toxicity, waste and environmental management. Waste Manag 2009; 29(9): 2587-95.
[15] Mambro-Jones C, Hoek EMV. A review of the antibacterial effects of silver nanoparticles and potential implications for human health and the environment. J Nanopart Res 2010; 12: 1533-51.
[16] Cerkez I, Kocer HB, Worley SD, Broughton RM, Huang TS. Multifunctional cotton fabric: antimicrobial and durable press. J Appl Polym Sci 2012; 124(5): 4230-8.
[17] Rai M, Yadav A, Gade A. Silver nanoparticles as a new generation of antimicrobial and durable press. J Appl Polym Sci 2012; 124(5): 4230-8.
[18] Ivask A, Bondarenko O, J jugganston K, Kahr u A. Profiling of there active oxygen species-related ecotoxocity of CuO, ZnO, TiO2, silver and fullerene nanoparticles using a set of recombinant luminescent Escherichia coli strains: differentiating the impact of particles and solubilised metals. Anal Bioanal Chem 2010; 398: 701-16.
[19] Wright T. A liphasan: a thermally stable silver-based inorganic antimicrobial technology. Chem Fibre Int 2002; 52: 125.
[20] Dastjerdi R, M o j a t e d h MRM, Shoshitari AM, K hosroshahi A. Investigating the production and properties of AglTGO/PP antibacterial nanocomposite filament yarns. J TextInst 2010; 101: 204-13.
[21] Sathishkumar M, S heha K, Won SW, Cho CW, Kim S, Yun YS. Cinnamon zeylanicum bark extract and powder mediated green synthesis of nanocrystalline silver particles and its bactericidal activity. Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces 2010; 79: 63-70.
[22] He SY, Guo ZR, Zhang Y, Wang J, Gu N. Biosynthesis of gold nanoparticles using bacteria Rhodopseudomonas capsulate. Mater Lett 2007; 61(18): 3984-7.
[23] Kim JS, Kuk E, Yu KN, Kim JH, Park SJ, Lee HJ, et al. Antibacterial effects of silver nanoparticles. Nanomedicine 2007; 3: 95-101.
[24] YonezawaT, Kunitake T. Practical preparation of anionic mercaptoligands stabilized gold nanoparticles and their immobilization. Colloids Surf A Physicochem Eng Asp 1999; 149: 193-9.
[25] Grace AN, Pandian K. Antibacterial efficiency of amino glycosicid antibiotics protected gold nanoparticles: a brief study. Colloids Surf A Physicochem Eng Asp 2007; 297: 63-70.
[26] Dura N, Macato PD, Alves OL, de Souza GIH, Esposito E. Mechanistic aspect of biosynthesis of silver nanoparticles by several Fusarium oxysporum strain. J Nanobiotechnology 2005; 3: 8.
[27] Das SK, Marsili E. A green chemical approaches for the synthesis of gold nanoparticles: characterization and mechanistic aspect. Rev Environ Sci Biotechnol 2010; 9: 199-204.
[28] Gaidhani S, Singh R, Singh D, Patel U, Shevade K, Yeshkev R, et al. Biofilm disruption activity of nanoparticles synthesized by Acinetobacter calcoaceticus PUCM 1005. Mater Lett 2013; 108: 324-7.
[29] Ahmad A, Senapati S, Khan MI, Kumar R, Sastry M. Extracellular biosynthesis of monodisperse gold nanoparticles: a brief study. Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces 2009; 68(1): 88-92.
[30] Dang TMD, Thu Le TT, Fribourg-Blanc E, Dang MC. Synthesis and optical properties of copper nanoparticles prepared by a chemical
