

Pradhan A, Seena S, Pascoal C, Cássio F (2012) Copper oxide nanoparticles can induce toxicity to the freshwater shredder *Allogamus ligonifer*. *Chemosphere* 89: 1142-1150

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1 **Copper oxide nanoparticles can induce toxicity to the freshwater**
2 **shredder *Allogamus ligonifer* via aqueous or dietary exposure**

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26 **Abstract**

27 The increased commercialisation of nano metal-based products augments the possibility of
28 their terminal deposition into aquatic ecosystems, which, in turn, may pose risks to aquatic
29 biota and associated ecological functions. Freshwater invertebrate shredders mostly use
30 microbially-colonized plant litter as food resource and play an important role in aquatic
31 detritus food webs by transferring nutrients and energy to higher trophic levels. We assessed
32 effects of nano CuO on the shredder *Allogamus ligonifer* (Trichoptera, Limnephilidae) by
33 determining the concentration that induced 50% of death (LC₅₀) and the effects of sublethal
34 concentrations on the feeding behaviour and growth of the shredder. In sublethal toxicity
35 tests, we examined the effects of nanoparticles i) via contaminated water, by exposing the
36 shredder to stream water supplemented with nano CuO (0, 25 and 75 mg L⁻¹) and
37 microbially-colonized leaves, and ii) via contaminated food, by exposing the shredders to
38 stream water (without nano CuO) and microbially-colonized leaves pre-exposed to nano CuO
39 (0, 25 and 75 mg L⁻¹). Results from acute lethal tests showed that the 96 h LC₅₀ of nano CuO
40 was very high (569 mg L⁻¹). A significant inhibition in leaf consumption rate (up to 47%) and
41 invertebrate growth rate (up to 46%) was observed when shredders were exposed to the
42 highest sublethal concentration of nano CuO through either stream water or diet. The
43 exposure to increased nano CuO concentration via water or diet led to higher accumulation of
44 copper in the larval body. Leached ionic copper from the nano CuO adsorbed to or
45 accumulated in the shredder seemed to influence the feeding behaviour and growth of the
46 shredder.

47 **Keywords:** Nano CuO, freshwater shredder, lethal effect, sublethal effects, aqueous and
48 dietary exposure, feeding behaviour

49

49 1. Introduction

50 Nanoecotoxicology research is currently in the limelight due to high propagation of
51 nanotechnology-based industries and nanomaterial-based products (Aitken et al., 2006;
52 Colvin, 2003; Navarro et al., 2008). The extensive use of the engineered nanomaterials may
53 increase the possibilities of their leaching and deposition into aquatic reservoirs (e.g. Kaegi et
54 al., 2008). Therefore, it is essential to understand the risks associated with tailored
55 nanoparticles in aquatic ecosystems (MacCormack and Goss, 2008; Moore, 2006). Metal
56 oxide nanoparticles are among the most frequently used nanomaterials having a broad range
57 of applications, like in sunscreens and cosmetics (Nel et al., 2006), antimicrobial paints
58 (Hochmannova and Vytrasova, 2010), textiles (Becheri et al., 2008; Kathirvelu et al., 2009),
59 electro spray disinfectants (Wang et al., 2010), drug delivery and gene therapy (Jin and Ye,
60 2007). Over the last decade, several studies have reported that metal oxide nanoparticles are
61 potentially toxic (see Reijnders, 2006 and Gajjar et al., 2009), but few attempts have been
62 made to assess the ecotoxicity of nano metal oxides in aquatic systems (Blaise et al., 2008;
63 Lee et al., 2009; Miller et al., 2010; Pradhan et al., 2011). Most studies were performed with
64 the nano metal oxides enlisted in the OECD guidance manual (OECD, 2010), like nano
65 titanium dioxide, nano zinc oxide, nano aluminium oxide and nano cerium dioxide (Lovern et
66 al., 2007; Van Hoecke et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2008). However, the OECD guidance manual
67 stresses that the enlisted nanoparticles have to be considered as a “snapshot in time” and
68 those not included in the list can be of importance in the future (OECD, 2010).

69 Although nano copper oxide (CuO) is not in the OECD list, it is one of the
70 commercially manufactured metal oxide nanoparticles with wide range of applications
71 (Carnes and Klabunde, 2003; Dutta et al., 2003; Ren et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2008) and,
72 therefore, its potential toxicity should not be ignored (Blinova et al., 2010; Buffet et al., 2011;
73 Saison et al., 2010). The toxicity of the nano-sized metals in aquatic systems can be

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74 questionable (Sharma, 2009) as they have different properties than their bulk or ionic forms
75 (Christian et al., 2008). Karlsson et al. (2009) showed in human cell lines that nanoparticles
76 of CuO could be more toxic than the bulk micrometer particles. However, the toxicity of
77 nano CuO and other metal oxide nanoparticles to yeasts (Kasemets et al., 2009) and other
78 organisms that are crucial in aquatic food webs, like microalgae (Aruoja et al., 2009),
79 protozoa (Mortimer et al., 2010), bacteria and crustaceans (Heinlaan et al., 2008), was
80 attributed to the leached ionic form of the metal.

81 In freshwaters, invertebrate shredders decompose plant litter from the riparian
82 vegetation and play a key role in detritus food web by transferring energy from plant litter to
83 higher trophic levels (Graça and Canhoto, 2006). They prefer to feed on litter colonized by
84 aquatic microbes, predominantly fungi, which activity increases the food quality and
85 palatability to shredders (Suberkropp et al., 1983). Invertebrates are important test organisms
86 in ecotoxicological studies as they are abundant, distributed worldwide, have short life span
87 with high reproduction rates, and are sensitive to contaminants and toxicants including ionic
88 metals (e.g., De Schamphelaere et al., 2004; Gerhardt et al., 2004) and nano metal oxides
89 (Cattaneo et al., 2009; Buffet et al., 2011; Galloway et al., 2010). Moreover, ecotoxicological
90 tests using freshwater invertebrate shredders are fast, cost-effective and easy to perform as
91 invertebrates adapt quickly to the laboratory conditions.

92 Most studies reporting lethal toxicity of ionic copper, nano sized copper and its oxides
93 on aquatic invertebrates are based on the assumption that metal toxicity to aquatic biota
94 occurs through waterborne exposure (Griffitt et al., 2008; Heinlaan et al., 2008, 2011).
95 Indeed, very few studies have shown that ionic copper can have sublethal toxic impacts to
96 aquatic invertebrates through dietary exposure (De Schamphelaere et al., 2007; Hatakeyama,
97 1989), but according to our knowledge none of the studies reported the dietary effects of nano
98 copper oxide on stream invertebrates.

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99 The aim of this study was to investigate the potential impacts of nano CuO on
100 *Allogamus ligonifer*, a common invertebrate shredder in Southwest European streams that
101 prefers high quality stream water (Bonada et al., 2008). We hypothesised that nano CuO can
102 pose toxicity to the invertebrate shredder through both aqueous and dietary exposure, and
103 impacts would be partially attributed to the bioavailable ionic copper leached from nano
104 CuO. We assessed the acute lethal effect of nano CuO through aqueous exposure by
105 monitoring the mortality of *A. ligonifer* up to 96 h. The sublethal toxicity through aqueous
106 (stream water) or dietary (microbially-colonized leaves) exposure was examined by assessing
107 the feeding behaviour and growth rate of the invertebrate shredder. Total copper and ionic
108 copper in the stream water, leaves, body and case of the shredder was determined in an
109 attempt to discriminate the contribution of nano and leached ionic copper to toxicity.

110

111 **2. Material and Methods**

112 *2.1 Microbial colonization of leaves in the stream*

113 Leaves of *Alnus glutinosa* (L.) Gaertn. (alder) were collected from a single tree in
114 autumn and air dried at room temperature. The leaves were soaked in deionised water, cut
115 into 12 mm-diameter disks, and placed into fine-mesh bags (15 × 15 cm, 0.5-mm mesh size
116 to prevent invertebrate colonization). In Spring 2010, leaf bags were immersed in the Maceira
117 Stream (N 41°45'58.79", W 8°08'49.39", altitude 867 m, Cávado River basin, Northwest
118 Portugal) to allow microbial colonization. After 10 days, leaf bags were retrieved and leaf
119 disks from each replicate bag were rinsed with deionised water and used for the feeding
120 experiment. Further information on the Maceira Stream can be found elsewhere (Duarte et
121 al., 2009; Pradhan et al., 2011).

122

123 *2.2 Collection of invertebrates and acclimation to the laboratory*

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124 Early-stage larvae of the caddisfly *Allogamus ligonifer* (McLachlan, 1876) with
125 similar size were collected in the upper reach of the Cávado River in Spring 2010 and
126 transported to the laboratory in plastic containers with stream water and sand. This stream
127 detritivore that belongs to Limnephilidae occurs in Southwest Europe (Bonada et al., 2008)
128 and is common in low-order streams of North Portugal (Varandas and Cortes, 2010). Further
129 information on the Cávado River can be found elsewhere (Pascoal et al., 2001). In the
130 laboratory, animals were placed in an aquarium with filtered (MN GF-3 filter paper,
131 Macherey-Nagel, Germany) and sterile stream water and sand (121°C, 20 min) under
132 aeration, at 14°C with a 12 h light : 12 h dark photoperiod, and were allowed to feed on alder
133 leaves for 2 weeks before the experiment.

134

135 *2.3 Preparation and characterization of nano copper oxide suspension*

136 The stock suspension of nano copper oxide (CuO nanopowder <50 nm, 99.5%,
137 Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) was prepared in sterile stream water by sonication at 42 kHz
138 in a sonication bath (Branson 2510, Danbury, CT, USA) for 30 min in dark before use
139 (Heinlaan et al., 2008). The stream water had silica $9.6 \pm 2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, Na^+ $4.1 \pm 0.4 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, Ca^{2+}
140 $1.3 \pm 0.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, K^+ $0.6 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, HCO_3^- $8.0 \pm 0.8 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, Cl^- $4.2 \pm 0.4 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, and SO_4^-
141 $1.0 \pm 0.2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$. The pH of stock suspension was adjusted to 5.8 ± 0.2 . The stock suspension
142 was examined with UV-visible spectrophotometry (UV – 1700 PharmaSpec, Shimadzu,
143 Kyoto, Japan) followed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Leica Cambridge S 360,
144 Cambridge, UK) coupled to an energy dispersive X-ray microanalysis setup (EDX, 15 KeV)
145 as described by Pradhan et al. (2011). The particle size of nano CuO, measured by SEM,
146 ranged between 30 and 50 nm that complies with the manufacturer specification (not shown).

147 The size distribution was also monitored by dynamic light scattering (DLS) using a
148 zetasizer (Malvern, Zetasizer Nano ZS) to check agglomeration of nano CuO in the stock

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149 suspension. DLS data showed that the size distribution of nano CuO ranged from 120 to 340
150 nm with an average size of 202 nm and poly-dispersive index (PdI) of 0.186 (Fig 1). The
151 stability was confirmed up to 3 weeks. The increased average particle size observed by DLS
152 compared to the measured particle size by SEM indicated agglomeration of nano CuO in the
153 stream water which agrees with previous observations in deionized water (Buffet et al., 2011)
154 and liquid culture medium (Karlsson et al., 2009).

155

156 *2.4. Acute lethality tests*

157 Acute lethality tests were performed to evaluate the sensitivity of the invertebrate to
158 nano CuO and to establish a range of sublethal concentrations to be used in the feeding
159 experiments (see section 2.5). Invertebrate shredders were starved for 24 h and placed in 150
160 mL flasks containing 100 mL of nano CuO suspensions (5 animals per flask, 3 replicates per
161 treatment). The animals were exposed to 0, 50, 100, 250, 500 and 1000 mg L⁻¹ nominal
162 concentrations of nano CuO prepared in sterilized stream water. The flasks were aerated with
163 constant air flow and incubated for 96 h at 14°C, under a 12 h light : 12 h dark photoperiod.
164 The invertebrates were not fed during the exposure period. In each 24 h, the animals that did
165 not show any movement after mechanical stimulation were considered dead.

166

167 *2.5 Invertebrate feeding experiments*

168 To determine effects of nano CuO on the feeding behaviour of the invertebrate
169 shredder, one premeasured early-stage larvae of the invertebrate species *A. ligonifer* was
170 allocated to each of 150 mL flask containing 10 leaf disks and 100 mL sterile stream water.
171 To assess the effects of the nanoparticles via water, stream water was supplemented with
172 nano CuO at 25 mg L⁻¹ or 75 mg L⁻¹ and microbially-colonized leaf disks unexposed to nano
173 CuO. To test the effects of the nanoparticles via diet, flasks were supplemented with stream

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174 water (without nano CuO) and microbially-colonized leaf disks pre-exposed (5 days) to 25
175 mg L⁻¹ or 75 mg L⁻¹ of nano CuO. Additional flasks served as control and were provided
176 with sterile stream water and microbially-colonized unexposed leaf disks. A total of 75 flasks
177 were used (15 replicates).

178 For determining the contribution of microorganisms to leaf litter decomposition, an
179 equal number of unexposed or pre-exposed leaf disks to nano CuO was enclosed in 0.5 mm
180 fine mesh bag (to prevent the access of invertebrates) and placed in each replicate flask of the
181 respective treatment. All flasks were aerated with constant air flow and incubated at 14°C,
182 under a 12 h light : 12 h dark photoperiod. The experiment was continued for 10 days until
183 >50% of leaf disks were decomposed in the control flasks. The stream water with or without
184 nano CuO was renewed every 5 days to minimise the interference of released fine particles or
185 excreted compounds with nanoparticles or invertebrates.

186

187 *2.6 Leaf mass loss*

188 To determine leaf mass loss, leaf disks from each replicate were freeze-dried (Christ
189 alpha 2–4, B. Braun, Germany) and weighed to the nearest 0.001 mg, before and after
190 microbial colonization in the stream, and before and after the feeding experiment.

191

192 *2.7 Leaf consumption by the invertebrate and microbes*

193 Dry mass (DM, mg) of leaves consumed by the invertebrate (L_e) was determined as
194 $(L_i - L_f) - (L_i \times (C_i - C_f)/C_i)$, where L_i and L_f are the initial and final dry mass (mg) of leaves
195 exposed to the invertebrates, respectively, and C_i and C_f are the initial and final dry mass
196 (mg) of control leaves (inaccessible to invertebrate), respectively. Microbial leaf
197 decomposition rate was determined by $(C_i - C_f)/t$ where t is time ($t=10$ days). Leaf
198 consumption rate by the invertebrate was calculated as $L_e/(I_f \times t)$, where I_f is the invertebrate

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199 dry mass (mg) at time t (day 10), and results were expressed as mg leaf DM mg⁻¹ animal DM
200 day⁻¹ (Ferreira et al., 2010). Total consumption rate was determined as $((C_i - C_f) + L_e)/t$ and
201 expressed as mg leaf DM mg⁻¹ microcosm⁻¹ day⁻¹.

202

203 *2.8 Invertebrate growth rate*

204 Growth rate of invertebrates ($\mu\text{g animal DM mg}^{-1} \text{ animal DM day}^{-1}$) was determined
205 as $I_e/(I_f \times t)$, where I_e is the dry mass (DM, μg) gained by the invertebrate during the elapsed
206 time ($t=10$ days). The I_e was calculated by the difference between final (day 10) and initial
207 dry mass (μg), and I_f is the final dry mass (mg) of the animal at time t (Ferreira et al., 2010).
208 For determining initial dry mass of invertebrates, the diameter of the case opening of each
209 individual was measured under a stereoscopic microscope at 16 \times before the feeding
210 experiment, and the individual dry mass was estimated according to the regression model DM
211 $= 0.0069 \times \text{CO} - 0.0194$ ($r^2 = 0.72$, $P < 0.001$, $n = 37$), where DM is dry mass (g) and CO is
212 case opening (mm).

213

214 *2.9 Sample preparation and metal analysis*

215 To determine total copper (suspended nano and ionic forms) and ionic copper (Cu^{2+})
216 in water, equal volume of water samples of all replicate flasks were mixed, and a fraction of
217 25 mL was ultra-centrifuged at 75,600 g for 60 min (Beckman Avanti J-25I, USA). The
218 supernatant was consecutively filtered through two different size polycarbonate membranes
219 (0.2 and 0.05 μm pore size, Millipore, Billerica, MA), and a mixed cellulose ester membrane
220 (0.025 μm pore size, Millipore). The filtrate was employed to determine Cu^{2+} content. A
221 separate fraction of 25 mL of water sample was treated with analytical grade concentrated
222 HCl (5 mL) for quantification of total copper.

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223 At the end of the feeding experiment, the Cu^{2+} leached from adsorbed or accumulated
224 nano CuO to leaves and to case and body of *A. ligonifer* was determined. For that, the freeze-
225 dried (Christ alpha 2–4, B. Braun, Germany) samples were revived in 25 mL ultrapure (Milli
226 Q) water for 60 min to allow the leaching of Cu^{2+} . Samples were ultra-centrifuged and
227 filtered as described above before Cu^{2+} quantification. To determine the adsorbed nano
228 copper, all the pellets from ultra-centrifugation and residues from filtration of each sample
229 were pooled and soaked in 25 mL of 5% HCl at 60°C; the solution was filtered through a
230 polycarbonate membrane filter of 0.2 μm pore size and collected for analysis. The remaining
231 residue was mineralized in the furnace at 550°C (16 h for leaves, 20 h for larval case and 10 h
232 for larval body) followed by digestion with HCl (1 mL) to determine the total accumulated
233 copper. The digested solutions were washed with 25 mL of 5% HCl, filtered through a
234 polycarbonate membrane filter of 0.2 μm pore size and used for determining bio-accumulated
235 copper.

236 Copper concentration in all biological and water samples was determined by flame
237 atomic absorption spectrometry (flame-AAS; Varian SpectrAA-250 Plus apparatus) at the
238 Scientific and Technological Research Assistance Centre (C.A.C.T.I., University of Vigo,
239 Spain) with detection limit of 0.005 mg L^{-1} .

240

241 *2.10 Data analysis*

242 Mortality of shredders was recorded, and the concentration inducing 50% of death
243 (LC_{50}) at 96 h of exposure with the respective 95% C.I. was calculated using PriProbit 1.63
244 (Sakuma, 1998; <http://bru.gmpcr.ksu.edu/proj/priprobit/download.asp>). Repeated-measures
245 analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the effects of concentrations of nano CuO on
246 the percentage of animal survival in the acute lethality test with matched observations of
247 exposure time (Zar, 2009). Two-way ANOVAs were used to determine the effects of

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248 sublethal concentrations of nano CuO and the type of exposure (dietary or aqueous) on leaf
249 decomposition by microbes, leaf consumption rate by invertebrates and invertebrate growth
250 rate (Zar, 2009). Significant differences between control and treatments were analysed by
251 Bonferroni post-tests (Zar, 2009). To achieve normal distribution and homoscedasticity,
252 percentage data of invertebrate survival during acute tests were arcsine square root
253 transformed and the remaining data were ln-transformed (Zar, 2009). Analyses were
254 performed with Statistica 6.0 (Statsoft, Inc., Tulsa, OK, USA).

255

256 **3. Results**

257 *3.1 Acute lethal effect of nano CuO on the invertebrate*

258 In the acute lethality test, survival of the early-stage larvae of the invertebrate
259 *Allogamus ligonifer* was recorded in every 24 h during 96 h of exposure to nano CuO (Fig 2).
260 Exposure to nano CuO had a significant effect on the survival of the invertebrate larvae
261 (repeated-measures ANOVA, $P < 0.05$; Table 1). The mortality increased with increasing
262 concentration of nano CuO and exposure time (Fig 2). The 96 h LC_{50} (95% C.I.) of nano CuO
263 was 569 (328–1780) mg L⁻¹ and the lowest observed effect concentration (LOEC)
264 corresponded to 250 mg L⁻¹ (Bonferroni test $P < 0.05$).

265

266 *3.2 Effects of nano CuO on leaf consumption by invertebrates and microbes*

267 Leaf consumption rate by the early-stage larvae of *A. ligonifer* during 10 days was
268 0.27 mg leaf DM mg⁻¹ animal DM day⁻¹ in control (Fig 3) and was affected by both
269 nanoparticle concentration and type of exposure (two-way ANOVA, $P < 0.05$; Table 1). The
270 highest inhibition was observed when animals were exposed to 75 mg L⁻¹ nano CuO via
271 stream water (0.14 mg leaf DM mg⁻¹ animal DM day⁻¹, Fig 3A, Bonferroni $P < 0.05$) followed
272 by the treatment where the animals were fed on leaves pre-exposed to 75 mg L⁻¹ nano CuO

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273 (0.20 mg leaf DM mg⁻¹ animal DM day⁻¹, Fig 3B, Bonferroni $P < 0.05$). Leaf consumption
274 rate was not affected by exposure to the lowest tested nano CuO concentration (25 mg L⁻¹)
275 via water or food (Fig 3A and B, Bonferroni $P > 0.05$).

276 Leaf decomposition rate by microbes during 10 days was 1.3 mg leaf DM microcosm⁻¹
277 day⁻¹ in control, corresponding to almost 34% of the total leaf consumption rate in the
278 presence of the invertebrate (3.84 mg leaf DM microcosm⁻¹ day⁻¹ in control, Fig 4A, 4B).
279 Both concentration of nano CuO and type of exposure had significant effects on microbial
280 decomposition of leaf litter (two-way ANOVA, $P < 0.05$; Table 1). Microbial decomposition
281 rate decreased significantly after exposure to 25 and 75 mg L⁻¹ nano CuO via water (Fig 4A,
282 Bonferroni $P < 0.05$) and via leaves pre-exposed to the highest nano CuO concentration (Fig
283 4B, Bonferroni $P < 0.05$).

284

285 *3.3 Effects of nano CuO on invertebrate growth*

286 The growth rate of the invertebrate shredder was affected by the concentration of
287 nano CuO, regardless the type of exposure, i.e. via water or food (two-way ANOVA, $P < 0.05$
288 and $P > 0.05$, respectively; Table 1). In the control, mean growth rate of the invertebrate was
289 56 µg animal DM mg⁻¹ animal DM day⁻¹. The growth rate decreased significantly in
290 treatments where animals were exposed for 10 days to 75 mg L⁻¹ nano CuO via water (30 µg
291 animal DM mg⁻¹ animal DM day⁻¹, Fig 5A, Bonferroni $P < 0.05$), followed by treatments with
292 animals that were fed on leaves pre-exposed to 75 mg L⁻¹ nano CuO (41 µg animal DM mg⁻¹
293 animal DM day⁻¹, Fig 5B, Bonferroni $P < 0.05$). Similarly to that found for invertebrate
294 feeding rates, the exposure to the lowest tested concentration of nano CuO through water or
295 pre-exposed leaves had no effect on animal growth rates (Fig 5A, 5B, Bonferroni $P > 0.05$).

296

297

298 3.4 Copper in water, adsorbed and accumulated in leaves and invertebrate

299 In control, total copper and dissolved ionic copper (Cu^{2+}) in the stream water were
300 below the detection limit ($<0.005 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) either at the initial time (t_0) or at the end of the
301 feeding experiment (t_{10}) (Table 2). In the stream water supplemented with 25 mg L^{-1} nano
302 CuO , total Cu content varied little during the experiment (t_0 , 20.98 ; t_{10} , 19.10 mg L^{-1}), and
303 Cu^{2+} (t_0 , $<0.005 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) increased till 0.6 mg L^{-1} (t_{10}). In the water supplemented with 75 mg
304 L^{-1} nano CuO , total Cu decreased 7%, whereas Cu^{2+} increased 12 times. In microcosms with
305 leaves pre-exposed to nano CuO , the initial total Cu or Cu^{2+} content in water was below the
306 detection limit, and total Cu increased up to 0.476 and 1.017 mg L^{-1} for 25 and 75 mg L^{-1}
307 treatments, respectively. Cu^{2+} increased till 0.064 mg L^{-1} in water containing leaves pre-
308 exposed to 75 mg L^{-1} nano CuO , and no detectable increase was observed at the lowest tested
309 concentration.

310 After 10 days of aqueous exposure to nano CuO , the adsorbed copper was higher on
311 leaves, intermediate on the larval case and lower on the larval body (Table 2); however, in the
312 exposure via diet, the adsorbed Cu was lower on the larval case than on the larval body. The
313 accumulated copper was also higher in leaves, intermediate in larval body, and lower in the
314 larval case, regardless the route of exposure (Table 2). In all treatments, the accumulation of
315 Cu was lower than the adsorption. The content of water-soluble Cu^{2+} and water-insoluble Cu
316 adsorbed or accumulated in leaves, larval case or body increased with increasing nano CuO
317 concentration via both exposure routes, but it was higher when exposure occurred via water
318 (Table 2).

319

320 4. Discussion

321 Acute lethality tests are of primary importance in ecotoxicology to assess sensitivity,
322 viability and acute stress response of biota for predicting the impacts of toxicants or

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323 contaminants to ecosystem functioning (Valenti et al., 2005). Although very few studies on
324 toxicity of metal oxide nanoparticles to aquatic biota are available (see Petersen and Nelson,
325 2010), acute toxicity of nano CuO to freshwater crustaceans, *Daphnia magna* and
326 *Thamnocephalus platyurus*, and to the ciliate protozoan *Tetrahymena thermophila* was shown
327 based on mobility, mortality or growth inhibition (Blinova et al., 2010). In the current study,
328 the 96 h acute lethality test on the shredder *Allogamus ligonifer* showed that this freshwater
329 invertebrate was able to survive up to 100 mg L⁻¹ of nano CuO in the stream water. However,
330 survival of this species was severely affected when exposed to higher concentrations of nano
331 CuO during the acute toxicity test. Although there is no estimated or predicted data for nano
332 CuO concentration in aquatic environments, copper concentration in the chemical mechanical
333 planarization waste water of Taiwan often exceeds 100 ppm, 49% of which can be nano CuO
334 (Hsiao et al., 2001; Huang et al., 2006). Therefore, the obtained high lethal concentrations of
335 nano CuO cannot be ignored.

336 Feeding behaviour of invertebrates is one of the most accepted and sensitive
337 monitoring tools in ecotoxicology for assessing sublethal effects of metals (Pestana et al.,
338 2007) and nano metals (Buffet et al., 2011; Galloway et al., 2010). In control, the feeding rate
339 of *A. ligonifer* (0.27 mg leaf DM mg⁻¹ animal DM day⁻¹) was within the typical range
340 reported for stream invertebrate shredders (0.04 to 0.5 mg leaf DM mg⁻¹ animal DM day⁻¹;
341 Arsuffi and Suberkropp, 1989). Using two sublethal concentrations of nano CuO (25 and 75
342 mg L⁻¹), we found that leaf consumption and growth rates of the shredder were affected by
343 the highest concentration of nano CuO through both aqueous and dietary exposure routes.
344 The outcome of our study clearly shows that the nano metal toxicity to aquatic organisms can
345 also occur via diet and not only via waterborne exposure, as often assumed for ionic metals
346 (see Brinkman and Johnston, 2008). Results also indicate that examining sublethal effects of
347 nano metals can be more rational and useful to assess toxicity than merely rely on lethal

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348 effects. Maximum decrease in leaf consumption rate (47%) and growth rate (46%) was
349 obtained when the animals were exposed to nano CuO via water. This agrees with the recent
350 report on decreased feeding rates of the marine invertebrate *Scrobicularia plana* exposed to
351 nano CuO via water (Buffet et al., 2011). In our study, the decrease in leaf consumption and
352 invertebrate growth appeared to be lower after exposure via food than via water. However,
353 we should point out that the pre-exposure period of food to nano CuO was not as long as the
354 exposure of invertebrates to contaminated water. Our results encourage the use of feeding
355 behaviour of invertebrate shredders as an endpoint for assessing toxicity of metal
356 nanoparticles in aquatic environments.

357 In this study, the decrease in invertebrate feeding and growth by nano CuO exposure
358 may be related to the food avoidance behaviour of shredders (Wilding and Maltby, 2006).
359 Alder leaves have a high nutrient content, and leaves that are well colonized by microbes are
360 more palatable for invertebrate shredders, including Trichoptera (Arsuffi and Suberkropp,
361 1989; Chung and Suberkropp, 2009; Graça, 2001). We previously reported that ionic copper
362 (Duarte et al., 2008) and nano CuO (Pradhan et al., 2011) have negative effects on microbes
363 colonizing leaf litter. In our study, alder leaves were pre-colonized by microbes, so leaf
364 quality and palatability for shredders might also be affected by the impacts of nano CuO on
365 microbial communities. Indeed, we found a severe reduction in microbial decomposition
366 during invertebrate feeding under nano CuO exposure, particularly when exposure occurred
367 via water. Thus, the stress induced by nanoparticles may have affected the invertebrate
368 shredder directly or indirectly due to the effects on microbes.

369 Under aqueous exposure, great amounts of copper was adsorbed and accumulated in
370 the leaves (at 75 mg L⁻¹: 15.832 and 12.889 mg g⁻¹, respectively). This was accompanied by
371 high levels of Cu adsorption and accumulation in the larval case and body. The accumulation
372 of Cu in the shredder body increased with the increase in CuO nanoparticle concentration in

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373 water or food, suggesting the intake of CuO nanoparticles. The ionic counterpart of copper,
374 leached from the CuO nanoparticles, may play an important role in enhancing the toxicity or
375 ecotoxicity (Aruoja et al., 2009; Kahru et al., 2008; Kasemets et al., 2009). Blinova et al.
376 (2010) using a Cu-sensor bacteria reported about 12% dissolution of Cu²⁺ from nano CuO in
377 freshwaters. Before the feeding experiment, Cu²⁺ in water attained 0.156 mg L⁻¹ in
378 microcosms supplemented with the highest concentration of nano CuO via water. During the
379 feeding experiment, the Cu²⁺ content increased, particularly when exposure occurred via
380 water. Consistently, in our study, the highest levels of Cu²⁺ associated with the larval body
381 were found after exposure to the highest sublethal concentration of nanoparticles via water
382 followed by via food. Taking into account that toxicity of nano metals can depend on the
383 leached ionic metal (Heinlaan et al., 2008; Mortimer et al., 2010), Cu²⁺ might have
384 contributed to the inhibition of invertebrate feeding and growth after aqueous or dietary
385 exposure to 75 mg L⁻¹ of nano CuO. This may be a consequence of Cu²⁺ leached from nano
386 CuO, as nanoparticles were the only source of Cu²⁺ in both exposure routes.

387 In our study, the leached ionic copper may have greatly contributed to the toxicity of
388 nano CuO at lethal or sublethal concentrations. This is supported by previous studies on nano
389 CuO toxicity to aquatic organisms including crustaceans (Blinova et al., 2010; Heinlaan et
390 al., 2008). But further investigation is needed pertaining to the mechanisms of toxicity and
391 other possible factors that might have involved with toxicity. Some studies reported that
392 leached metal ions are insufficient in explaining the toxicity of nanoparticles. Griffitt et al.
393 (2008) showed very low dissolution of nano copper that could account only for 10-15% of
394 the toxicity to *Daphnia pulex* and zebrafish. Lower dissolution of nano CuO was reported by
395 Buffet et al. (2011). However, the toxicity can be further argued by intracellular dissolution
396 of nanoparticles. The oral toxicity of copper nanoparticles was attributed to the high
397 reactivity of nano Cu that could lead to metabolic alkalosis or intracellular dissolution leading

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398 to excessive accumulation of copper ions (Meng et al. 2007). Perhaps this is the explanatory
399 bridge between the observed negative effects on larval feeding and growth and the high
400 amounts of accumulated copper inside the larval body after exposure to the highest
401 concentration of nano CuO via water or diet.

402 Overall, we found that copper oxide nanoparticles can have toxic effects on the
403 invertebrate shredder *A. ligonifer*. Nanoparticle exposure led to lethal effects to this shredder
404 only at very high concentrations. However, at sublethal levels, nano CuO was potent to
405 decrease the feeding and growth rates of the shredder through both aqueous and dietary
406 exposure. Results also suggested that leached ionic copper play a role in the toxicity of nano
407 CuO, but further investigation is needed to comprehend the actual mode of action of nano-
408 metal oxides.

409

410

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417

418

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 604 Table 1 ANOVAs on effects of nano CuO concentration on invertebrate survival, and effects of exposure type (dietary or aqueous)
 605 and nano CuO concentration on leaf decomposition by microbes, leaf consumption by the invertebrate shredder and growth rates
 606 of the shredder *Allogamus ligonifer*.

Parameter	ANOVA	Effect	d.f.	F	P-value
Invertebrate survival	Repeated-measures	Nano CuO concentration	5	11.45	<0.0001
Leaf decomposition by microbes	Two-way	Exposure type	1	7.828	<0.01
		Nano CuO concentration	2	16.43	<0.0001
		Exposure type * Nano CuO concentration	2	2.219	>0.05
Leaf consumption by invertebrate	Two-way	Exposure type	1	4.425	<0.05
		Nano CuO concentration	2	13.46	<0.0001
		Exposure type * Nano CuO concentration	2	2.973	>0.05
Invertebrate growth	Two-way	Exposure type	1	1.569	>0.05
		Nano CuO concentration	2	12.96	<0.0001
		Exposure type * Nano CuO concentration	2	1.314	>0.05

607 d.f., degree of freedom.

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611 Table 2 Total and ionic copper concentrations in water, and adsorbed and accumulated in leaves and invertebrates after
 612 10 days (t_{10}) exposure to nano CuO via food or water. Exposure conditions: via food - leaves were pre-exposed for 5 days to
 613 nano CuO and then released from nano CuO for further 10 days; via water - leaves were in stream water for 5 days and then were
 614 exposed to nano CuO for further 10 days.

Sample	Concentration	Nano CuO exposure				
		Control	Via water		Via food	
			25	75	25	75
Water	Added nano CuO (mg L^{-1})	0	25	75	25	75
	Cu (mg L^{-1})	t_0 / t_{10}	t_0 / t_{10}	t_0 / t_{10}	t_0 / t_{10}	t_0 / t_{10}
	Total Cu	nd/nd	20.982/19.1	61.167/56.857	nd/0.476	nd/1.017
	Cu ²⁺	nd/nd	nd/0.6	0.156/1.87	nd/nd	nd/0.064
	^(a) % of Cu ²⁺	-	nd/3.141	0.255/3.289	-	nd/6.293
Leaves	Cu after exposure (mg g^{-1})	0.007	11.676	15.832	2.359	3.316
	Adsorbed Cu	0.003	4.086	12.889	0.485	1.229
	Accumulated Cu	nd	0.076	0.113	0.011	0.013
	Cu ²⁺	^(b) % of Cu ²⁺	-	0.48	0.392	0.385
Larval case	Cu after exposure (mg g^{-1})	0.021	1.394	3.112	0.064	0.162
	Adsorbed Cu	0.013	0.162	0.619	0.016	0.021
	Accumulated Cu	0.003	0.084	0.158	0.005	0.013
	Cu ²⁺	^(b) % of Cu ²⁺	8.108	5.122	4.063	5.882
Larval body	Cu after exposure (mg g^{-1})	0.011	0.893	2.962	0.241	0.529
	Adsorbed Cu	0.052	0.3	0.942	0.14	0.496
	Accumulated Cu	nd	0.065	0.331	0.035	0.116
	Cu ²⁺	^(b) % of Cu ²⁺	-	5.167	7.816	8.413

615 nd: below detection limit.

616 ^(a) With respect to total copper (suspended nano and dissolved ionic forms).

617 ^(b) With respect to total copper (adsorbed, accumulated and ionic).

618

620

621 **Figure legends:**

622 **Figure 1** Size distribution of nano CuO in stock suspension by dynamic light scattering.

623

624 **Figure 2** Acute lethal toxicity of nano CuO to early-stage larvae of the invertebrate

625 *Allogamus ligonifer* with respect to time.

626

627 **Figure 3** Leaf consumption rates by the early-stage larvae of *Allogamus ligonifer* for 10 days at 14

628 °C. The animals were exposed to nano CuO through contaminated stream water (A), or through

629 contaminated leaves (B). Mean ± SEM, n=15. *, treatments that differ significantly from control

630 (Bonferroni tests, $P < 0.05$).

631

632 **Figure 4** Total leaf consumption by the shredder *Allogamus ligonifer* (dark grey bars) and

633 microbial decomposition of leaf litter (light grey bars) during 10 days in microcosms at 14

634 °C. The animals and microbes were exposed to nano CuO through contaminated stream water

635 (A), or through contaminated leaves (B). Mean ± SEM, n=15. *, treatments that differ

636 significantly from control (Bonferroni tests, $P < 0.05$).

637

638 **Figure 5** Growth rates of the early-stage larvae of *Allogamus ligonifer* feeding on microbially-

639 colonized leaves for 10 days at 14 °C. The animals were exposed to nano CuO through

640 contaminated stream water (A), or through contaminated leaves (B). Mean ± SEM, n=15. *,

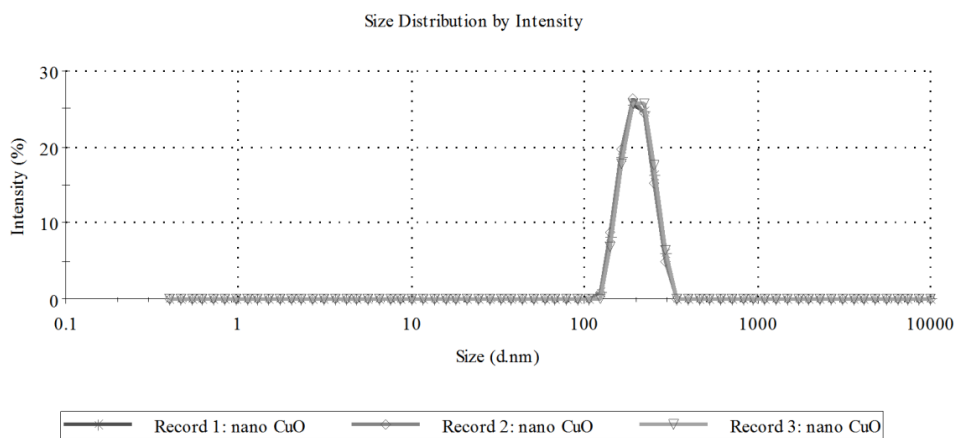
641 treatments that differ significantly from control (Bonferroni tests, $P < 0.05$).

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Fig 1

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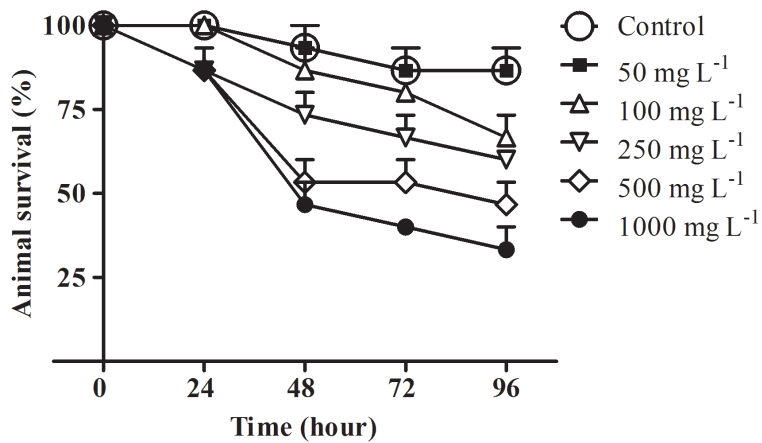


Fig 2

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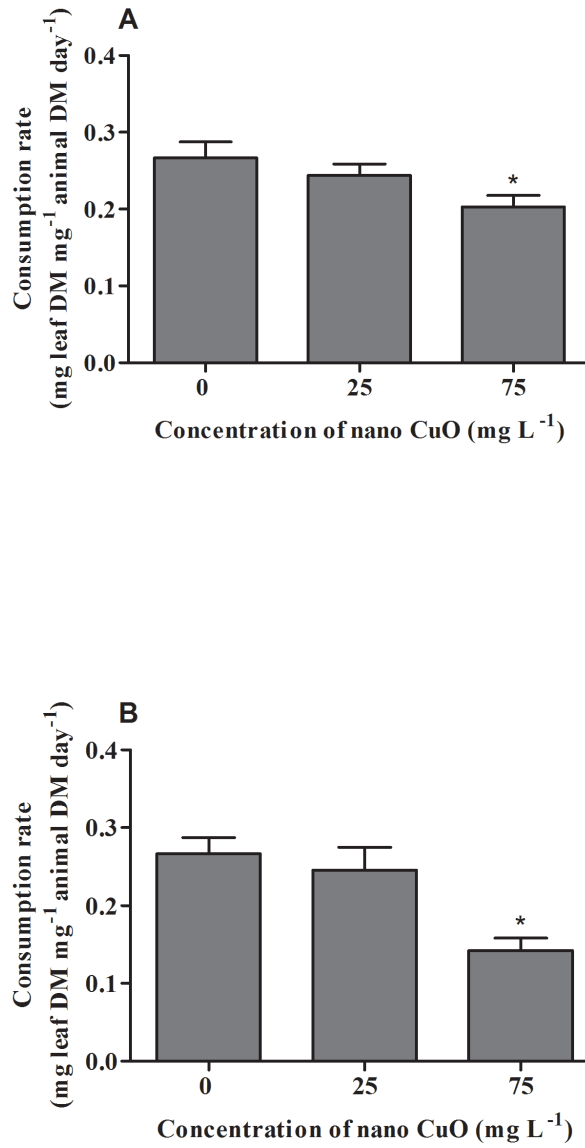


Fig 3

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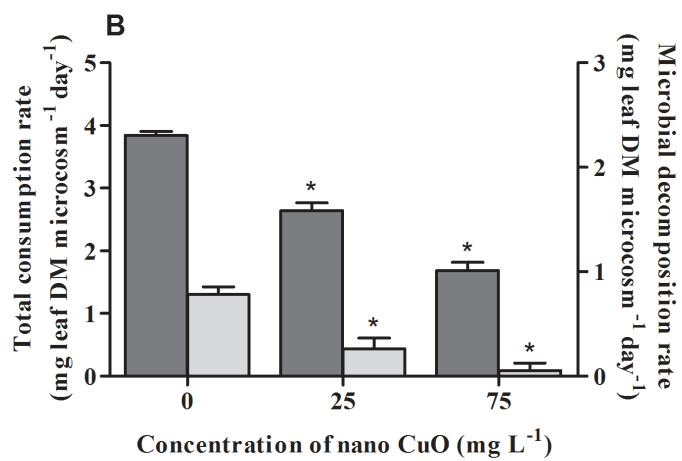
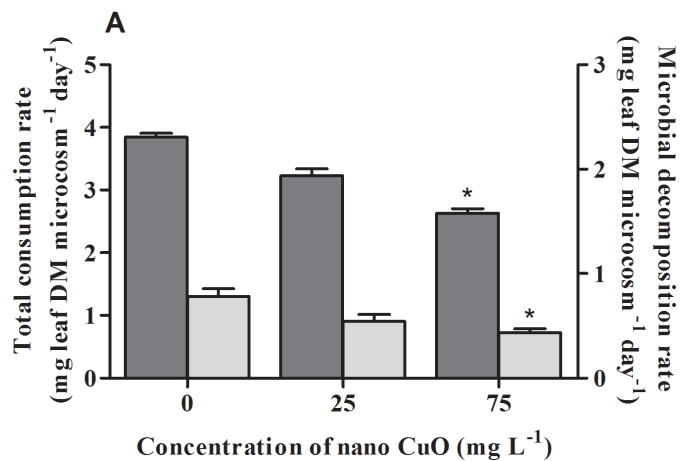


Fig 4

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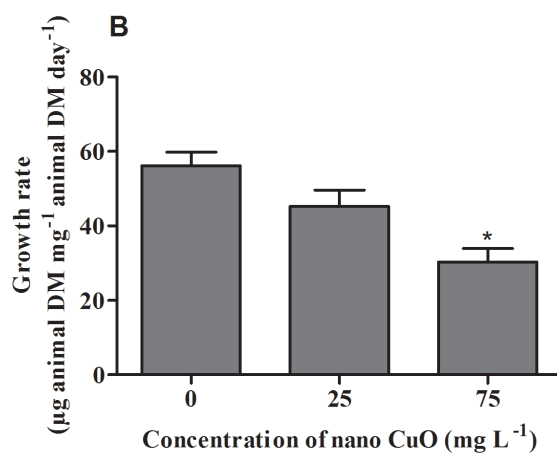
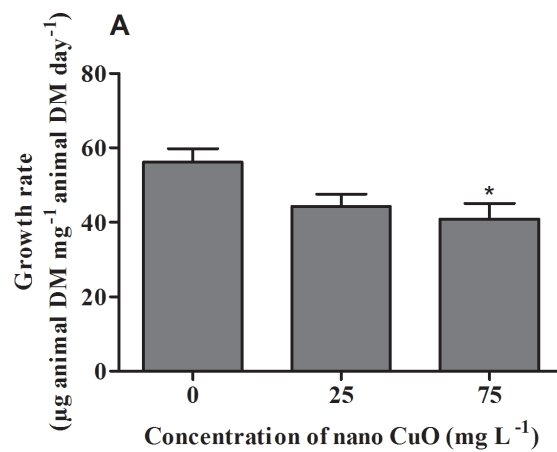


Fig 5

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