

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Environment International

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/envint



Review article

Toxicity assessment using different bioassays and microbial biosensors



Sedky H.A. Hassan ^a, Steven W. Van Ginkel ^b, Mohamed A.M. Hussein ^c, Romany Abskharon ^d, Sang-Eun Oh ^{e,*}

- ^a Botany Department, Faculty of Science, Assiut University, New Valley Branch, 72511 Al-Kharja, Egypt
- ^b School of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA 30332, USA
- ^c Assiut University Mycological Centre (AUMC), Assiut, Egypt
- ^d National Institute of Oceanography and Fisheries (NIFO), 11516 Cairo, Egypt
- ^e Department of Biological Environment, Kangwon National University, 200-701 Chuncheon, Kangwon-do, South Korea

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 25 June 2015 Received in revised form 5 March 2016 Accepted 5 March 2016 Available online xxxx

Keywords: Bioassay Toxicity assessment Microbial biosensors Environmental pollution

ABSTRACT

Toxicity assessment of water streams, wastewater, and contaminated sediments, is a very important part of environmental pollution monitoring. Evaluation of biological effects using a rapid, sensitive and cost effective method can indicate specific information on ecotoxicity assessment. Recently, different biological assays for toxicity assessment based on higher and lower organisms such as fish, invertebrates, plants and algal cells, and microbial bioassays have been used. This review focuses on microbial biosensors as an analytical device for environmental, food, and biomedical applications. Different techniques which are commonly used in microbial biosensing include amperometry, potentiometry, conductometry, voltammetry, microbial fuel cells, fluorescence, bioluminescence, and colorimetry. Examples of the use of different microbial biosensors in assessing a variety of environments are summarized.

© 2016 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Contents

| 1. | Introduction | 107 | | | |
|-------|--|-----|--|--|--|
| 2. | Toxicity tests based on bioassays | 107 | | | |
| | 2.1. Fish bioassays | 107 | | | |
| | 2.2. Invertebrate bioassays | 107 | | | |
| | 2.3. Algal bioassays | 108 | | | |
| | 2.4. Plant bioassays | 108 | | | |
| | 2.5. Microbial bioassays | 108 | | | |
| 3. | Biosensors | 109 | | | |
| 4. | Biosensors classification | 110 | | | |
| | 4.1. Electrochemical microbial biosensors | 110 | | | |
| | 4.1.1. Amperometric microbial biosensors | 110 | | | |
| | 4.1.2. The conductometric microbial biosensors | 111 | | | |
| | 4.1.3. Potentiometric microbial biosensors | 113 | | | |
| | 4.2. Optical microbial biosensors | 113 | | | |
| | 4.2.1. The fluorescent biosensor | 114 | | | |
| | 4.2.2. The bioluminescent biosensors | 115 | | | |
| | 4.3. Colorimetric microbial biosensors | 115 | | | |
| 5. | Conclusions | 115 | | | |
| Ackno | Acknowledgements | | | | |
| Refer | References | | | | |

Abbreviation: GC, gas chromatography; HPLC, high performance liquid chromatography,; AAS, atomic absorption spectroscopy.; LC, lethal concentration; ATP, adenosine triphosphate; EC₅₀, the effective concentration; NOEC, no observed effect concentration; MFC, microbial fuel cell; BOD, biological oxygen demand; BTE, benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene; IDE, interdigitated electrode.; SOB, sulfur-oxidizing bacteria.; Ppb, part per pillion; HRT, hydraulic retention time; EC, electrical conductivity; EDC, endocrine disrupting compounds; *Gfp*, green fluorescent protein; *PSI*I, photosystem II; FMNH2, flavin mononucleotide; RCHO, long-chain fatty aldehyde; BTEX, benzene, toluene, ethyl benzene, and xylene.

^{*} Corresponding author: Department of Biological Environment, Kangwon National University, 200-701 Chuncheon, Kangwon-do, South Korea. E-mail address: ohsangeun@kangwon.ac.kr (S.-E. Oh).

1. Introduction

Intensive industrialization and the use of chemicals in agriculture have contributed to the release of many toxic compounds into water, air, and soil, which causes many environmental problems (Jaffrezic-Renault and Dzyadevych, 2008). The exposure of living organisms to toxic levels of pollutants can cause disease to human and animals. Toxic chemicals can modify the rates of natural biological processes which include the long-term inhibition of growth, reproduction, and migration of species. Thus, the monitoring and detection of toxic chemicals is very important for the overall safety and security of humans and all biota on earth.

The seriousness of environmental pollution has brought forth a growing number of initiatives and scientific activity to assess water, air, and soil pollution. The analysis of toxic chemicals in environmental samples can be divided into two groups. In the first group, the pollutants are identified and quantified based on chemical or physical analyses such as gas chromatography (GC), high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), or atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS). In spite of their high sensitivity and accuracy in the determination of the concentration of pollutants in environmental samples, they have many disadvantages. For example, these techniques are time consuming because of the need for sample preparation and pre-concentration. They are also expensive and cannot be performed easily outside the laboratory. These methods enable the detection of a single compound or a limited group of chemicals at any given time. However, they do not give an indication of the cumulative toxicity of multiple contaminants in a sample which is of primary importance. In addition, all of these techniques require skilled personnel, expensive equipment, and it may take up to a few weeks to obtain results from these tests. The second group includes bioassays and biosensors. Here, the toxic chemicals are not clearly identified, but the measurements allow for the assessment of toxicity of environmental samples toward target organisms. These techniques are very helpful for assessing the risk associated with contaminated water samples. They rely on changes in the physiological response of living organisms which can be inferred on higher organisms and have many advantages such as rapid response, simplicity, specificity, sensitivity, and cost effectiveness.

2. Toxicity tests based on bioassays

Bioassays can be used for monitoring pollutants that cannot be easily detected by the restricted range of traditional methods. Bioassays have been used to establish toxicity toward both eukaryotes and prokaryotes exposed to different contaminants relative to a control where no toxic chemicals are present. Since toxic chemicals exert a cumulative and synergistic effect on the growth of organisms, bioassays can provide a clear and appropriate measure of toxicity of mixtures of toxins compared to traditional methods. In addition, the response of any analysis method that is specific to a single toxic chemical is insufficient to measure an adverse biological impact of a mixture of toxic chemicals to a generally diverse receiving ecosystem. Thus, bioassays that measure toxicity, in general, to a mixture of chemicals are needed.

Table 1 summarizes the most commonly used organisms to assess toxicity in water and wastewater. Test organisms include fish, invertebrates, plants, algae, and microorganisms. Some of these systems, e.g. animals and fish larvae, are difficult to handle and they do not provide a rapid response. Also, the use of some of these organisms may be ethically objectionable. Other systems, such as mammalian cells are expensive and results are not always consistent (Su et al., 2011; Tothill and Turner, 1996b).

2.1. Fish bioassays

Fish bioassays have been employed in toxicity assessment for many decades. The use of fish species as bioindicators in water is based on the

Table 1Bioassay tests.

| | Organisms | Signal |
|--------------|-----------------------------|--|
| Fish | Zebra fish embryos | Larval growth and survival |
| | Fathead minnow | Mortality, motility |
| | Bluegill | Cell division and differentiation |
| | Rainbow trout | ATP levels |
| | Salmonids | |
| Invertebrate | Daphnia magna | Mortality, motility |
| | Brachionus calyciflorus sp. | Viability and growth |
| | B. plicatilis | Enzymatic activity |
| | Artemia salina sp. | Number of daphnids |
| | Shrimps | Speed variation |
| | Bivalves, mussels | Open/closing of shell |
| Plants | Chinese cabbage | Micronucleus production, |
| | Oats | genotoxicity |
| | Vicia faba | Germination rate, biomass |
| | Allium cepa | weight, enzymatic activity |
| Algae | Chlamydomonas sp. | Mortality |
| | Chlorella sp. | Photosynthesis activity |
| | Chlorella vulgaris | Algal growth |
| | Monoraphidium sp. | Enzymatic activity |
| | Scenedesmus subspicatus | Cell counts |
| Bacterial | Nitrifying bacteria | Capacity of microorganisms to |
| | Nitrobacter | transform C, N, S, enzymatic activity, |
| | Nitrosomonas | microbial growth |
| | Bioluminescent bacteria | Mortality, photosynthesis activity |
| | Microbial fuel cells | Glucose uptake activity |
| | Activated sludge | Luminescence output |
| | Oligotrophic bacteria | Respiration, electrical output |
| | Aerobic bacteria | |

assumption that fish species are sensitive indicators, which can detect the changes in the environment (Ziglio et al., 2008).

Fish show distinct physiological and behavioral responses toward pollutants. The fish bioassay is usually based on larval growth and survival where newly hatched fish are exposed to a range of effluents for 1-2 days or up to 7 days. The acute lethality test measures the lethal concentration (LC) of a chemical that is lethal to 50% of the exposed population after 96 h. Fish assays based on the measurement of adenosine triphosphate (ATP), the biochemical indicator of energy, in white muscle tissue are also carried out (Couture et al., 1989; Tothill and Turner, 1996b). Species such as zebra fish (Brachydanio rerio), fathead minnow (Pimephales promelas), bluegill (Lepomis macrochirus), guppy (Poecilia reticulata), rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss, Salmo gairdneri), red killifish (Oryzias latipes), common carp (Cyprinus carpio), and golden orfe (Leuciscus idus) are commonly used for acute lethality tests (Munkittrick et al., 1991). In addition, salmonids (e.g., S. gairdneri) are used for various assays to assess the toxicity of wastewater (Couture et al., 1989). Many types of fish are compatible and are the ultimate online toxicity assessment for stream water (Polak et al., 1996). They evaluate the total toxic effect of chemicals such as herbicides, heavy metals, and organic pollutants.

The advantages of using fish as a bioassay are that fish are present in all aquatic ecosystems and are at the top of the food chain which depends on many biotic factors. Most fish species are easily identified and are well suited for ecotoxicological assessment. In addition, fish are useful indicators of chronic toxicity as they have long life cycles. The main disadvantages of using fish as bioindicators are low sensitivity to low concentrations of toxic chemicals, long test periods, and specialized equipment and operators with adequate skills are needed (Farré and Barceló, 2003).

2.2. Invertebrate bioassays

Invertebrates are widely used in toxicity assessment of water ecosystems. The most common invertebrate used to characterize toxicity of water and wastewater treatment effluents is the water flea, *Daphnia magna*. Acute lethality tests with *D. magna* are well established and standardized (ISO, 2007; USEPA, 2002). The use of daphnids has many advantages for routine toxicity testing, such as high sensitivity to

Download English Version:

https://daneshyari.com/en/article/6312958

Download Persian Version:

https://daneshyari.com/article/6312958

<u>Daneshyari.com</u>