

Regulation of engineered nanomaterials: current challenges, insights and future directions

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Abstract Substantial production and wide applications of engineered nanomaterials (ENMs) have raised concerns over their potential influences on the environment and humans. However, regulations of products containing ENMs are scarce, even in countries with the greatest volume of ENMs produced, such as the United States and China. After a comprehensive review of life cycles of ENMs, five major challenges to regulators posed by ENMs are proposed in this review: (a) ENMs exhibit variable physicochemical characteristics, which makes them difficult for regulators to establish regulatory definition; (b) Due to diverse sources and transport pathways for ENMs, it is difficult to monitor or predict their fates in the environment; (c) There is a lack of reliable techniques for quantifying exposures to ENMs; (d) Because of diverse intrinsic properties of ENMs and dynamic

environmental conditions, it is difficult to predict bioavailability of ENMs on wildlife and the environment; and (e) There are knowledge gaps in toxicity and toxic mechanisms of ENMs from which to predict their hazards. These challenges are all related to issues in conventional assessments of risks that regulators rely on. To address the fast-growing nanotechnology market with limited resources, four ENMs (nanoparticles of Ag, TiO₂, ZnO and Fe₂O₃) have been prioritized for research. Compulsory reporting schemes (registration and labelling) for commercial products containing ENMs should be adopted. Moreover, to accommodate their potential risks in time, an integrative use of quantitative structure–activity relationship and adverse outcome pathway (QSAR-AOP), together with qualitative alternatives to conventional risk assessment are proposed as tools for decision making of regulators.

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Introduction

Nanomaterials are materials with one or more dimensions in the nano-scale (1–100 nm; one billionth of a meter; 1×10^{-9} m), characterized by their enhanced reactivity and emerging physicochemical properties compared with their corresponding bulk forms (Nel et al. 2006). Nanomaterials can come from various sources. Natural sources include bacterial metabolism, hydrothermal vents and volcano dust (Fig. 1, Farré et al. (2011)). Engineered nanomaterials (ENMs) from anthropogenic sources are designed with unique properties. Therefore, compared to the natural forms, ENMs have distinctive interactions with biotic and abiotic

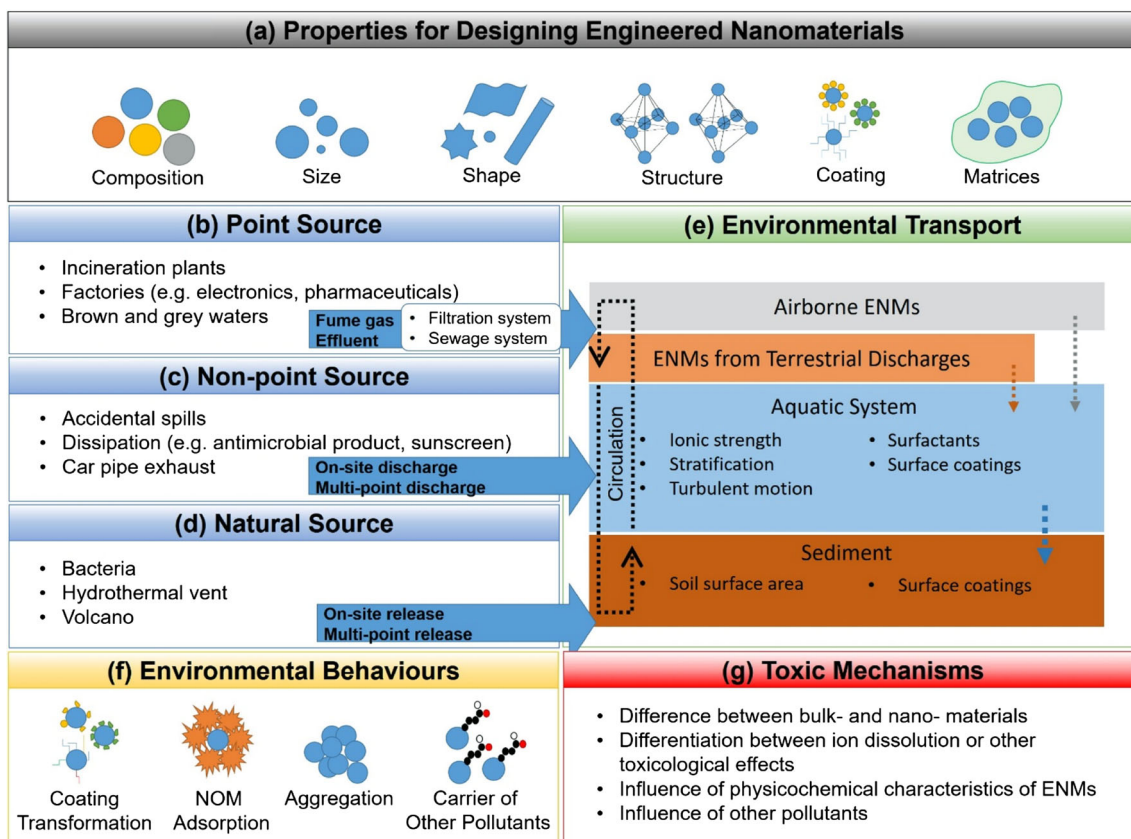


Fig. 1 A schematic diagram summarizing possible environmental behaviours and fates of engineered nanomaterials

constituents of the environment (Handy et al. 2008). Enhanced characteristics of ENMs include optical, thermal and electrical properties, material strength, conductivity, solubility and reactivity (CFS 2010; Klain et al. 2008; Kumar 2006). These unique properties of ENMs result in widespread applications in commercial products, and make benefits for various industrial sectors, such as food, cosmetics, pesticides and pharmaceuticals. It is predicted that global market value of ENMs will reach US\$ 11.8 billion by 2025 (Mordor Intelligence 2016).

Inevitably, burgeoning development and broad applications of ENMs will result in releases to the environment with concomitant exposures to wildlife and possibly humans (Beaudrie and Kandlikar 2011). Concerns have been raised over their potential influences in the environment but uncertainties and ambiguities remain, that have resulted in controversies over the sustainable use and safety of ENMs. Besides the dilemma between proclaimed benefits and risks posed by use of nanotechnology (Hansen et al. 2008a), technical problems occur with respect to assessing their toxic effects and mechanisms, which might or might not be different from their bulk counterparts (Hansen and Baun 2012). Nevertheless, lessons have been learnt from examples such as asbestos, dichloro-diphenyl-trichloroethane (DDT), chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs),

polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), brominated flame retardants (BFRs) and tributyltin (TBT) that how costly it will be if potential unintended and unforeseen consequences of new technologies occur (EEA 2001; Hansen et al. 2008a). Therefore, it is important to review deficiencies of current regulations since it is possible that current guidelines and regulations developed for bulk materials might not be suitable for their corresponding ENMs and hence might overlook their influences, which could result in widespread adverse outcomes that are difficult to reverse. It is also critical to have more research effort for scrutinizing potential risks of ENMs to provide information for regulators, so as to protect humans and the environment.

To narrow the scope of this review, it focuses on ENMs that come from anthropogenic sources and have relatively larger contribution to environmental contamination than natural nanomaterials (Farré et al. 2011). Influences of ENMs in the aquatic environment and associated sediment, which are final sinks for most of the terrestrial pollutants, are reviewed. The review is divided into four sections: (1) Currently available regulations on ENMs in various regions and countries are summarized; (2) Five key challenges in risk assessment of ENMs are proposed as hindrances to development of regulations; (3) Based on their respective annual production, market share in terms

of commercial products and toxicity, ENMs that require prompt investigation and regulation are prioritized; and (4) Prompt qualitative administrative means are proposed to gather more information for traditional risk assessment framework, and the concept from the alternatives assessment framework that tolerates, but identifies, uncertainties is proposed to implement future regulations on ENMs. Through these, the review can provide an understanding in current deficiencies and key limitations to the development of regulations for ENMs. The final goal is to concentrate limited resources on risk assessments of ENMs and provide information for establishment of adequate regulations in time.

Regulations on commercial products containing ENMs

Current regulations in different countries

Despite rapid growth and application of nanotechnology, relevant regulations on ENMs are limited. Herein, regulations in six countries of four commercial product sectors are reviewed (Table 1, **Online Resource section 1**). The four sectors are food, pharmaceuticals, cosmetics and pesticides, which apply ENMs in large quantity and a total of 27 relevant regulations have been reviewed. Regulations are summarized into several categories including regulatory definition of ENMs, reporting mechanism (labelling) on products containing ENMs, guidance for evaluation of risk, and requirement of pre-market registration or evaluation of products. These are all important components in a regulatory guideline for management of chemical substances (Beaudrie et al. 2013; Hansen and Baun 2012; Linkov et al. 2009).

Definitions of ENMs are mostly provided in regulatory guidelines except in China, Japan, and sectors of pharmaceuticals and food in Australia, as well as sectors of pharmaceuticals and pesticides in the United States (Table 1). Similarly, the aforementioned sectors, except for the food sector in Australia and cosmetics sector in Japan, do not have compulsory labelling systems for these products. However, for compulsory labelling schemes in other sectors, neither of them requires specification of ENMs in commercial products, except the sector of cosmetics in the European Union. Furthermore, only a few sectors in the European Union and the United States provide standardized guidance for characterization, toxicity test, risk assessment and proper application of commercial products containing ENMs. Pre-market registration or evaluation of products is required in many countries, but about half of them adopted existing approaches without addressing ENMs.

Potential problems of current regulations

Currently no comprehensive framework for regulation of ENMs is available. Countries such as the United States and China, which are major producers and consumers of ENMs (Brazell 2012), are paying relatively little attention to regulations for use of ENMs (Table 1). Since most of the compulsory labelling schemes do not recognize ENMs, customers and other interested parties will have little acknowledgement on commercial products containing ENMs and hence soft laws through public monitoring might not be practical (Linkov et al. 2009; Malloy 2011). Although many of the reviewed sectors require compulsory pre-market evaluation, those without specification of ENMs might not be effective to accurately assess the risk of ENMs. For instance, if guidance for assessment does not distinguish between nano- and bulk materials, some hazardous ENMs might pass pre-market evaluations when their bulk counterparts are classified as non-toxic (Bondarenko et al. 2013). This is possible since it has been suggested that chemicals can become more toxic when they are in nano-scale (Nel et al. 2006). Even during pre-market evaluations that recognize ENMs, the definition of ENMs is not provided (e.g. Japan), such that it might hinder manufacturers and regulators from evaluation. Case by case evaluations (e.g. Japan) might not be realistic when nanotechnology is being promoted in a growing and extensive trend (Beaudrie et al. 2013). Furthermore, results from pre-market evaluations of commercial products by various jurisdictions might not be reliable or comparable because there is little standardized guidance for specialized assessments of ENMs, while some current guidance for bulk materials might not be suitable for evaluation of ENMs (Hansen et al. 2009; OECD 2009; SCENIHR 2007).

Another possible problem for regulations without specification of ENMs is their potential exemptions from regulation and evaluation because they cannot meet the threshold value tailored for bulk chemicals. For instance, under Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals (REACH), which regulates all chemical substances in the Europe Union, registration and assessments of chemicals are not required if they are produced or imported for less than 1 ton/year (ECHA 2016). ENMs might not be evaluated under this threshold because their volume produced and imported is generally smaller (Hansen and Baun 2012). Similarly, if concentrations of ENMs present in commercial products are less than 0.1% w/w, no safety information is required while such small concentrations are common for products containing ENMs (ECHA 2016; Linkov et al. 2009). Similarly, in the United States, the Toxic Substances Control Act gives Low Volume Exemption for substances

Table 1 Regulations in different countries and regions have been grouped into several collective terms. “Definition” refers to any general or working definition used by the authority during the regulation. “Guidance on Characterization, Toxicity Test, Risk Assessment and Application” covers any developed guidelines that the authorities propose during the evaluation of the products. “Pre-market Evaluation” refers to pre-registration of commercial products when the active ingredients should be stated and evaluated before they are on sale to public. “Product Labelling” refers to notification of customers that the ingredients in the product through its package labels. Ticks in red colour and with ‘*’ refer to application of existing approaches, i.e. manufacturers can follow current regulatory guidance, which are mostly for bulk materials, for their products containing corresponding nanomaterials. Sources of information include: (1) Industrial Chemicals (Notification and Assessment) Act 1989; (2) Therapeutic Goods Act 1989; (3) Australia New Zealand Food Standards Code; (4) Australian Pesticide and Veterinary Medicines Agency; (5) Nanotechnologies for pesticides and veterinary medicines: Regulatory considerations; (6) Food and Drugs

Act; (7) Cosmetics Regulations C.R.C., c. 869; (8) Policy Statement on Health Canada’s Working Definition for Nanomaterials; (9) Food and Drug Regulations C.R.C., c.870; (10) Pest Control Products Act; (11) Pest Control Products Regulations (SOR/2006–124); (12) Directive 76/768/EEC; (13) Regulation (EC) No 1223/2009; (14) Reflection paper on nanotechnology-based medicinal products for Human Use; (15) Directive 2001/83/EC; (16) Regulation (EC) No 178/2002; (17) Guidance on the risk assessment of the application of nanoscience and nanotechnologies in the food and feed chain; (18) Regulation (EC) 1107/2009; (19) Directive 98/8/EC; (20) The Law on Securing Quality, Efficacy and Safety of Products including Pharmaceuticals and Medical Devices; (21) Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (22) Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act; (23) Guidance for Industry – Safety of Nanomaterials in Cosmetic Products; (24) Public Health Service Act; (25) Nanotechnology Task Force; (26) Guidance for Industry on the Use of Nanomaterials in Food for Animals; and (27) Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act

	Category	Regulations	Definition	Product Labelling	Guidance on Characterization, Toxicity Test, Risk Assessment and Application	Pre-market Reporting and/or Evaluation
Australia	Cosmetics	1	✓	✓*		
				(Compulsory)		
	Drugs	2				
	Food	3		✓*		✓*
				(Compulsory)		(Compulsory)
	Pesticides	4, 5	✓			✓
						(Compulsory)
Canada	Cosmetics	6, 7, 8	✓	✓*		
				(Compulsory)		
	Drugs	6, 8, 9	✓	✓*		
				(Compulsory)		
	Food	6, 8, 9	✓	✓*		
				(Compulsory)		
	Pesticides	8, 10, 11	✓	✓*		✓*
				(Compulsory)		(Compulsory)
China						
European Union (including UK)	Cosmetics	12, 13	✓	✓	✓	✓
				(Compulsory)		(Compulsory)
	Drugs	14, 15	✓	✓*		✓
				(Compulsory)		(Compulsory)
	Food	16,17	✓	✓*	✓	
				(Compulsory)		
	Pesticides	17,18,19	✓		✓	✓*
						(Compulsory)
Japan	Cosmetics	20		✓*		✓
				(Compulsory)		(Compulsory)
	Drug	20				✓
						(Compulsory, case by case evaluation)
	Food	20				✓
						(Compulsory, case by case evaluation)
United States	Pesticides	21				
	Cosmetics	22, 23	✓	✓*	✓	✓
				(Compulsory)		(Voluntary)
						(Compulsory post-market evaluation but no specification for ENMs)
	Drug	24				✓*
						(Compulsory)
	Food	22, 25, 26	✓	✓*	✓	✓*
				(Compulsory)		(Compulsory)
	Pesticides	27				✓*
						(Compulsory)

being produced or imported at volume smaller than 10 tons/year (EPA 2014). However, influences of ENMs

might be equivalent to or greater than their bulk materials even if they are at smaller production volume due to their

increased reactivity and toxicity with enlarged surface-to-volume ratio (Beaudrie et al. 2013). Consequently, such exemptions might have neglected potential risks of ENMs.

Challenges faced by the regulators

Deficiencies in regulations of ENMs are, in part, due to uncertainties and extensive gaps in knowledge, such that accurate assessments of ENMs have been limited (Bernhardt et al. 2010; Linkov et al. 2009; SCENIHR 2009). Conventional frameworks for assessments of risks contain two major components, i.e. evaluation of hazard and exposure. Evaluation of hazard is hindered by uncertainties resulting from lack of standardized test protocols (Beaudrie et al. 2013; Grieger et al. 2010; Hansen and Baun 2012). Diverse physicochemical characteristics of ENMs that might affect toxic potency, further complicate the issue (Beaudrie et al. 2013; Beaudrie and Kandlikar 2011; Grieger et al. 2010). Consequently, there is a lack of knowledge of toxic mechanisms of ENMs (Beaudrie and Kandlikar 2011). Concurrently, limited disclosure of information about contents of products containing ENMs results in insufficient exposure data for ENMs (Beaudrie et al. 2013; Grieger et al. 2010; Hansen and Baun 2012). Reliable methods for characterization and quantification of ENMs in complicated environmental matrices are also limited (Hansen et al. 2008b; Linkov and Satterstrom 2008; Linkov et al. 2009). Furthermore, with wide applications, ENMs are released through various sources and therefore, assessment of their environmental fates, such as their transformation and bioaccumulation, is difficult (Beaudrie and Kandlikar 2011; Hansen et al. 2008a; Linkov and Satterstrom 2008).

Different reviews in the past have only focused on part of the problems related to the development of regulations on nanomaterials. Therefore, based on the literature, we have identified five challenges faced by regulators in formulating regulations: (1) Nanomaterials exhibit variable physicochemical characteristics, which make it difficult for regulators to establish widely accepted criteria for regulatory definition; (2) There is insufficient knowledge to monitor diverse sources and pathways and to predict fates of ENMs; (3) No method is currently available to reliably quantify exposure of ENMs at small concentrations in complicated environmental matrices; (4) It is challenging to evaluate bioavailability of ENMs, especially after their transformation in the environment; and (5) There is a lack of understanding of their toxic mechanisms. In following sub-sections, further explanations on these five limitations are made with support from various examples.

Difficulties in defining ENMs

To establish guidelines and regulations for testing of materials, definitions and their corresponding scope are important. Although several regulation unions have tried to establish standards, there is still no globally accepted definition for ‘nanomaterial’. Current definitions can be classified into three major categories.

First, ENMs are generally defined according to a threshold of size. The International Organization for Standardization (ISO) defines ENMs as materials with at least one dimension smaller than 100 nm, while engineered nanoparticles are materials with all dimensions smaller than 100 nm (ISO 2015). The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the European Commission and Canada, etc. adopt similar definitions. Second, some jurisdictions differentiate ENMs by emphasizing their nano-specific properties: The United States Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA) defines ENMs as materials that have unique properties, relative to the same chemical substance in larger sizes. A third classification is a combination of both size and property, such as the one adopted by Australia.

Differentiation of ENMs and their bulk counterparts by particle size is a relatively simpler and clearer way that regulators and manufacturers might more easily follow. Size is also the major intrinsic characteristic for ENMs to stand out from their bulk counterparts (Nel et al. 2006). As a classic example, gold (Au) bulk particle is a noble metal while nanoclusters formed by Au atoms can have catalytic properties (Grune et al. 2008). Nevertheless, small and bulk are relative terms to describe size of particles. For monitoring exposure and determining potential to cause adverse effects, it is important to determine the critical size of ENMs that leads to change of physicochemical characteristics and hence alters their biological effects (Maynard 2011). However, particle-size dependent toxicity has been suggested to vary between different materials (Karlsson et al. 2009). A comparison of toxicity of silver (Ag) particles ranged from 20 to 113 nm showed that Ag particles at 113 nm can have smaller, similar and larger toxicological effects compared with smaller particles, depending on different endpoints (Park et al. 2011). Such variation made the threshold of 100 nm to be questionable. Concurrently, use of a specific class of physicochemical characteristics to define ENMs is also limited and has been criticized. It has been argued that there is no single most appropriate property for differentiation between ENMs and their bulk counterparts (Handy et al. 2008; Darlington et al. 2009; Bernhardt et al. 2010; Maynard 2011). The large variety of physicochemical characteristics has also triggered concerns of reliable method to measure and categorize ENMs (Fig. 1a, Gottschalk et al. 2013).

These uncertainties have made development of a regulatory definition very difficult. A definition in broad scope includes

non-target materials and might increase the cost of regulation while a conservative definition might not accurately assess target materials into proper categories, such that humans and environments are exposed to hazardous materials. This is referred to the regulator's dilemma (Weinberg 1985). Without support from concrete and scientific evidence, different regulating authorities currently adopt different regulatory definitions, which are confusing and makes it difficult for manufacturers and customers to follow.

Difficulties in tracing possible sources and transport pathways of ENMs

ENMs are used in a broad spectrum of industrial and commercial processes and products and thus can have diverse releasing pathways throughout their product life cycles. These sources can be classified as point and non-point sources, which pose different challenges for regulators. Point sources include effluents and fume gas from factories during manufacture of ENMs and incineration plants during treatment of waste. Various commercial products containing ENMs such as pharmaceuticals, textile coatings and paints can be released to domestic sewage in brown and grey waters (Fig. 1b). ENMs from these point sources could be collected through air filtration systems and sewage systems, allowing possibility of removal, monitoring and regulations. For example, ENMs collected by waste water treatment plant (WWTP) could settle or be sequestered into sewage sludge and eventually discarded in landfills (OECD 2015; Tourinho et al. 2012). Consequently, efficiency of removal of ENMs by WWTPs may be determined and regulations may be set for disposal of potentially harmful sewage sludge containing ENMs. Conversely, surface coatings that minimize agglomeration has been proposed to prevent ENMs (cerium oxide (CeO_2) NPs) to settle down and remove from effluents of biological-based WWTPs (Limbach et al. 2008). Furthermore, non-point sources such as accidental spills during transportation, car pipe exhaust, dissipation from antimicrobial spray and sunscreen products can result in direct and multi-point discharges into the environment (Fig. 1c). For example, ENMs in sunscreens and skin whitening products (e.g. NPs of titanium dioxide (TiO_2) and ZnO) can be readily released into aquatic environments from skin of sunbathers who apply these products. These non-point sources, together with ENMs that escape from the collection and removal systems, make regulation of ENMs through sources of release more difficult. This is because once these ENMs are released into the environment, they will be transported to various environmental compartments, making them hard to trace. Aquatic environments and sediments are regarded as sinks where airborne ENMs are deposited, ENMs from terrestrial discharges concentrate and aggregated ENMs settle (Fig. 1e). For example, industrial and domestic discharges are attributed as major sources of metal-based

ENMs to the environment (Gottschalk and Nowack 2011). The most vulnerable areas should, therefore, be coastal areas and estuaries that receive most of the terrestrial discharges.

Situations can become more complicated when both physicochemical characteristics of ENMs and environmental conditions can govern agglomeration and aggregation of ENMs and therefore their transport in these environmental compartments (Fig. 1e). For instance, surface coatings of ENMs and stabilizing surfactants which are common agents for manufacturers to restrict agglomeration of ENMs, can prevent settling of ENMs in the aqueous environment (Hotze et al. 2010; Limbach et al. 2008). With smaller sizes of agglomeration, ENMs (aluminium (Al) NPs with negative coatings of phosphates) can also be transported through the soil column more easily (Darlington et al. 2009). Similarly, various characteristics of seawater and soil can affect transport of ENMs. Natural organic matter, compared to industrial surfactants, has greater abilities to stabilize multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNT) (Kennedy et al. 2008). Greater ionic strength of seawater favours agglomeration and aggregation of ENMs, while stratification and turbulent motion in ocean can retain them in upper layers (Harrison et al. 2003; Keller et al. 2010). Clay loam soils that have larger surface areas can chelate with Fe^0 NPs and hence reduce their mobility (El-Temsah and Joner 2012).

Concomitantly, some studies have proposed that certain ENMs could be transferred through food chains. This raises concern that discharged ENMs might be accumulated into bodies of humans via food chain transfer (Beaudrie and Kandlikar 2011). For example, laboratory studies have shown that silver-containing ENMs (polyvinylpyrrolidone-coated Ag nanowires and Ag NPs respectively) could be transferred via both freshwater and terrestrial food chains (Chae and An 2016; Kwak and An 2016). Dietary intake of TiO_2 NPs of the zebrafish (*D. rerio*) from their prey at lower trophic level could contribute more to the body burden than from aqueous exposure alone (Zhu et al. 2010). However, all previous studies were conducted under laboratory conditions and along simplified food chains without providing evidence-based evaluation of the situation in the natural environment or determining the bio-magnification factor of the ENMs of concern.

With such diverse sources, transport pathways and potential influential factors, it is difficult to predict depositions of ENMs once they enter the environment. Influences of ENMs might even increase with their potential transport through food chain. Insufficient knowledge in transport and fate of ENMs limits the ability of regulators to evaluate exposure of ENMs during assessment of risk of ENMs. Thus, regulators might not be able to identify potential vulnerable areas and organisms for focus of regulation and protection.

Difficulties in quantifying ENMs in environmental matrices

Assessment of exposure for regulations of ENMs becomes more difficult due to a general lack of reliable techniques to quantify ENMs after they are released into the environment where they can interact with organic and inorganic constituents of the environment. Besides the traditional labour-intensive methods such as filtration and microscopy (Johnson et al. 2011; Neal et al. 2011; Westerhoff et al. 2011), newer techniques are being developed but all of them need to be improved and validated before broadly applied for environmental analyses. Cloud point extraction (CPE) by surfactants Triton X-114 has been used to extract ENMs from surface water and sewage (Hartmann and Schuster 2013; Liu et al. 2009; Majedi et al. 2012). CPE has high selectivity between ionic and colloidal ENMs, and a small detection limit at level of 0.01–0.001 µg/L could be achieved under optimized extraction conditions in these studies. Nevertheless, no ENMs could be found in collected environmental samples and a large variation in recovery (~50–130%) has been observed in spiked environmental sample, indicating potential low concentration of ENMs that out of detection limit and interference of environmental matrices. Also, classification of sizes of ENMs still depends on intensive microscopic examination. Single particle-ICP-MS (SP-ICP-MS) is useful for determining particle sizes of ENMs and has a detection limit up to nanogram level in unspiked environmental samples (Mitrano et al. 2012b; Tuoriniemi et al. 2012). However, SP-ICP-MS has poorer selectivity towards ENMs with great dissolution and is limited for simultaneous detection of multiple elements (von der Kammer et al. 2012). Pre-treatment of samples such as ion exchange resin to remove dissolved ions might be required to improve its applicability (Hadioui et al. 2015). Asymmetric flow field flow fractionation (AF4) is another method to distinguish particles of different sizes. It has a better resolution to discriminate sizes than does SP-ICP-MS, but it heavily relies on preparation of samples to minimize influences from other matrix constituents (Mitrano et al. 2012a; von der Kammer et al. 2011). Consequently, neither of these methods have been adopted in real applications and it remains a great difficulty to distinguish ENMs from their bulk counterparts, when ENMs present at relatively small concentrations and in the presence of complicated environmental matrices (Gottschalk et al. 2013).

Alternatively, some studies have relied on modelling to predict exposures (Gottschalk et al. 2013). These models use various parameters such as production volume, concentrations of ENMs in commercial products and potentials for release of ENMs to the environment, to estimate environmental concentrations of ENMs (Gottschalk et al. 2011; Gottschalk et al. 2009; Mueller and Nowack 2008; Sun et al. 2014). However, modelling methods have inherent uncertainties,

which are evidenced by large variations in their predictions (**Online Resource Fig. S1**, Gottschalk et al. (2013)). The difference between realistic and high exposure scenarios can be as much as 10-fold when these two scenarios have been used to address uncertainties of data collected (Mueller and Nowack 2008). This is not only because the data used by these models are not reliable, but also because the models themselves contain insufficient detail to allow for better resolution. For instance, estimation of production volume depends on data from companies while accurate data are not readily available due to business privacy against disclosure of relevant information (Beaudrie and Kandlikar 2011; Hansen and Baun 2012). During the survey of companies producing and using ENMs, rates of response by the companies were small (Piccinno et al. 2012; Schmid and Riediker 2008). A similar method even failed in obtaining any information (Hendren et al. 2011).

An alternative method that requires more effort has, therefore, been used to collect information from various sources including government and company websites, patents and then estimated production volumes indirectly based on production capacity and product types (Hendren et al. 2011). However, this alternative also has uncertainties. According to one of the most established inventories, 71% of recorded commercial products do not provide sufficient information to corroborate their application of ENMs in the products and most data come from sources that might have not been properly verified with reliable techniques (Beaudrie and Kandlikar 2011; Hansen et al. 2008b; Vance et al. 2015). Furthermore, ENMs in some products of the inventory have only been listed with general names such as ‘organics’ and ‘ceramics’, which provide little information to estimate either exposure or hazard potencies of corresponding ENMs (**Online Resource Fig. S2**). These uncertainties could be attributed to lack of regulations such as labelling and registration mechanisms to provide relevant information. Enforcement of laws is also important: the U.S. EPA has issued a voluntary reporting mechanism (Nanomaterial Stewardship Program) calling for reports from companies involved in production and use of ENMs, but only 16 companies responded to this call, of which only 2 included their production capacity (Hendren et al. 2011). Similarly, the Voluntary Reporting Scheme for Manufactured Nanomaterials issued in the United Kingdom received only 11 responses from industry (Defra 2009).

More fundamentally and might be more lethally, quantification of ENMs simply by mass concentrations might not be suitable for ENMs (Hristozov et al. 2012; von der Kammer et al. 2012). This is because influences of ENMs might be greater than their bulk materials even if they are at similar level of exposure due to their increased reactivity and toxicity with enlarged surface-to-volume ratio (Beaudrie et al. 2013). Physicochemical characteristics of ENMs, such as specific surface area, particle number

and distribution of size of pristine or aggregated particles, have been proposed as more relevant parameters for assessment of exposure in estimating risks of ENMs (Hoecke et al. 2009; Oberdörster et al. 2007).

Reliable techniques to quantify ENMs are prerequisite to answer fundamental questions related to environmental concentration, temporal and spatial transport that are necessary for evaluation of exposures in the assessment of their environmental risks. Evaluation of toxicities at environmentally relevant concentrations is also critical for accurate estimation of hazard. Without such information, it is difficult for regulators to determine potential risk of ENMs. Further, validated and accurate methods to quantify ENMs in the environment are also necessary for evaluation and enforcement of proposed environmental quality objectives in regulations.

Difficulties in evaluating bioavailability of ENMs

In traditional chemical-based frameworks for assessment of hazards, bioavailability of chemicals must be evaluated and dissolved portions of chemicals have been regarded as bioavailable fractions of contaminants (Di Toro et al., 1991). However, this conventional concept might not address the full problem of ENMs (Hristozov et al. 2012; Metcalfee et al. 2009).

Dissolved portions of ENMs has been proposed to follow the definition of colloidal particles, i.e. the fraction that can pass through a 0.45 μm filter and includes both dissolved and colloid species (Klain et al. 2008). However, in the environment, ENMs that aggregate to larger size ($> 0.45 \mu\text{m}$) might also be bioavailable to biota. For instance, aggregation of particles might increase their potential of exposure to filter feeders, which filter a large volume of water with their filtering cilia to catch particles for food (Baun et al. 2008). Cladoceran species, a common group of filter feeders, feed on particles with a size range of 0.4–5 μm (Geller and Müller 1981; Gophen and Geller 1984), which is generally larger than above threshold value (0.45 μm). Similarly, both suspension- and deposition- feeding mussels can capture particles at sizes between 0.7–150 μm (Sprung and Rose 1988; Taghon 1982). Moreover, intake of ENMs in large size does not mean that organisms are safe from ENMs since agglomerations of ENMs joined by weak forces might disassociate to smaller particles subjected to changes in environmental conditions.

Transport of ENMs can be governed by their physicochemical characteristics and environmental conditions, while the final location for deposition of ENMs determines their availability to different groups of organisms (Fig. 1f). Acting against the tendency of ENMs to agglomerate and aggregate, surface coatings and stabilizing surfactants of ENMs, as well as stratification and turbulent motion in oceans can retain ENMs in upper layers (Darlington et al. 2009; Hotze et al.

2010; Kennedy et al. 2008) and consequently reduce exposure of sediment-dwelling organisms to ENMs while increase exposures of pelagic species (Harrison et al. 2003; Keller et al. 2010). Similarly, chelation to organic matter and inorganic ligands can reduce availability of ENMs to organisms (Tong et al. 2007; Tong et al. 2012). Furthermore, although some ENMs are functionalized with different coatings during manufacture, coatings might be partially or fully degraded by light, oxidants and microorganisms in the environment, resulting in exposure of altered ENMs rather than the ENMs with original coatings (Auffan et al. 2010; Nowack and Bucheli 2007).

Some ENMs, such as those used in environmental remediation of contaminated sites, are designed with large surface areas and high reactivity to promote interactions with other compounds (Chen et al. 2009; Jarošová et al. 2015; Zhao et al. 2015). When these ENMs are released into the environment, their interaction with other environmental pollutants can result in alterations of bioavailability and toxicity of both the ENMs and adsorbed pollutants (Fig. 1f). Carbon nanotube (CNT), SWCNT and MWCNT have strong affinities for aromatic compounds with nitro-functional groups, non-polar aromatic and non-polar aliphatic compounds which are used for insecticide and dye synthesis (Chen et al. 2007). Strong affinity of these compounds with CNT might reduce their bioavailability (Nowack and Bucheli 2007). Alternatively, attachment of pyrene, phenanthrene and naphthalene with CNT can be reversible (Yang and Xing 2007), which might result in desorption of these toxic compounds after ingestion by animals. Similarly, As^{5+} ions that adhere to TiO_2 NP could be ingested by the common carp, *Cyprinus carpio* and such adsorption has facilitated the accumulation rate of As^{5+} ions and nearly doubled its accumulation amount (Sun et al. 2006).

Determination of bioavailability of ENMs is the initial step for evaluation of hazards of ENMs because bioavailable forms of ENMs can cause direct biological influences towards organisms and even accumulate along the food chain. However, more studies are required, given the complicated interactions between ENMs and their physicochemical characteristics, environmental factors, as well as interaction with other pollutants before their potential hazards can be properly assessed for regulators.

Difficulties in interpreting toxicity of ENMs

Relatively more information is available for assessments of hazards of ENMs compared with assessments of exposure. However, more issues need to be addressed to have a comprehensive assessment of hazards of ENMs (Fig. 1g).

A continuous argument in this area is whether there is a difference of toxicity between ENMs and their bulk counterparts because ENMs usually aggregate in the environment. Current studies suggest that the size-dependent toxicity can be varied with different ENMs and test species (Wong et al.

2013; Yung et al. 2015b). For instance, ZnO NPs could become more toxic even though they have similar or larger aggregate size as their bulk particles in suspension towards the algae *Chlorella* sp. (Ji et al. 2011), *S. costatum* and *T. pseudonana* (Wong et al. 2010), as well as the crustacean *D. magna* (Heinlaan et al. 2008). Contrarily, studies suggest that ZnO NPs have similar or less toxicity than bulk ZnO towards the alga *P. subcapitata* (Aruoja et al. 2009; Franklin et al. 2007), the crustaceans *T. japonicus* and *E. rapax* (Wong et al. 2010) and the zebrafish *D. rerio* (Xiong et al. 2011). Similar controversies are also found for CNTs. Some studies suggested CNTs with shorter length and/or smaller diameter can adhere to model organisms more easily and hence have larger toxicity (Cheng et al. 2007; Kennedy et al. 2008), while other studies found that there is no size-dependent toxicity (Li and Huang 2011), or the size-dependent toxicity can vary among species (Mwangi et al. 2012).

Within same categories of ENMs, such as metal-based ENMs, uncertainties remain in interpreting their primary mode of toxic action. Study of Ag NPs on the common grass *Lolium multiflorum* demonstrate that toxicity could not be attributed solely to ions in solution because its toxicity could not be reproduced by the same amount of Ag⁺ ions generated from AgNO₃ (Yin et al. 2011). The bacteria, *Cupriavidus necator* and *Escherichia coli* have exhibited different molecular responses when they are exposed to ZnO NPs or Zn²⁺ ions, with ZnO NPs interfering with cell membrane proteins and synthesis processing of functional gene products (Neal et al. 2012; Su et al. 2015). Other studies on NPs of CeO₂, ZnO and TiO₂ also suggest that production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) from nanoparticles besides dissolution of ions could contribute to toxicities of ENMs (Li et al. 2012; Xia et al. 2008). Conversely, it has been argued the difference might be due to the chelation with medium matrices that rates of ion dissolution from ENMs (Ag NPs) are under-estimated (Xiu et al. 2012). Some studies also suggest that dissolved ions were the cause of most of the observed toxicities of NPs of Ag, CuO and ZnO (Blinova et al. 2010; Franklin et al. 2007; Wong et al. 2010; Xiu et al. 2012).

The issue has become more complicated when ENMs can be easily modified during manufacturing processes. For instance, ENMs of similar core compositions, can have different shapes, crystalline structures, functionalities and product matrices or surfactants into which they are incorporated (Fig. 1a). These properties have been shown to be correlated with influences of ENMs on biota. Shape of ENMs could affect their internalization by different bacterial and mammalian cell lines and hence their corresponding toxicity (Cardillo et al. 2016; Forest et al. 2017; Simon-Deckers et al. 2009). Variation in crystalline structure and crystal facets of ENMs could have different surface energies to produce ROS and release ions (De Matteis et al. 2016; Fan et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2016). ZnO NPs coated with different silane chains could have

different toxic potencies towards bacteria, varied as a function of modified capability to release Zn⁺² ions and produce ROS (Hsu et al. 2014; Leung et al. 2012). Surfactants such as sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS) and polyoxyethylenesorbitane monooleate (Tween 80) have been suggested to reduce aggregation and enhance bactericidal activities of Ag NPs (Kvitek et al. 2008). Meanwhile, same surface coating could cause different changes in toxicity to bacteria for ZnO NPs from different supplying brands (Hsu et al. 2014).

Besides physicochemical characteristics of ENMs, transformation of ENMs due to various environmental factors and other pollutants also complicates the issue since these transformed ENMs could have very different biological influences compared to their pristine forms (Wong et al. 2013; Yung et al. 2015b). For example, in aquatic systems, both temperature and salinity could alter sizes of particulates and dissolution of ions and thus toxicity of ZnO NPs to marine organisms (Wong and Leung 2014; Yung et al. 2015a, 2017). Natural organic matters could also decrease toxicity of MWCNT towards the freshwater water flea, *Ceriodaphnia dubia*, due to its reduced physical damage with smaller size of aggregates and lesser affinity to the lipid membrane of intestinal cells (Kennedy et al. 2008; Tang et al. 2016). In soils, chelation to organic matter and inorganic ligands could reduce toxicity of fullerene and single-walled CNT due to reduction of their bioavailability (El-Temsah and Joner 2012; Tong et al. 2007; Tong et al. 2012). However, effects of surface-bound humic acid on toxicity of TiO₂ NPs could be dependent on their crystal structure, resulting in increased toxicity for anatase and decreased toxicity for rutile (He et al. 2016). Furthermore, mixtures of TiO₂ with different crystalline structures could have either additive or antagonistic effects compared to the toxicity of individual crystalline structure, depending on concentrations of rutile and anatase in the mixture (Iswarya et al. 2015; Iswarya et al. 2016). Similarly, a mixture of Ag, copper (Cu) and silica (SiO₂) NPs could be more toxic than the summation of toxicities of individual constituent ENMs to the Arctic microbial community even when they are at threefold lesser concentration (Kumar et al. 2012).

Moreover, different test methods such as dispersion methods for ENMs to suspend in aqueous medium during the toxicity test can result in different particle size distributions and influence the toxicity (Hartmann et al. 2015). For instance, sonication has resulted in smaller median aggregation size of double-walled CNTs and hence larger toxicity when compared with simple mechanical mixing by stirring (Kwok et al. 2010). Therefore, there would be a chance of over-estimation of the toxicity and environmental risk of ENMs if sonication or solvent, which are less environmentally relevant, were used as the dispersion methods.

There are still many controversies for toxicity and mode of action of ENMs, especially under influences of various physicochemical characteristics of ENMs, different environmental

factors and with a lack of standardized protocols for test of toxicity. Without understanding of potential toxic mechanisms and toxicity of ENMs after various industrial modifications and environmental conditions, regulators could not establish comprehensive assessment of hazard of ENMs. Failure in identification of possible toxic mechanisms and endpoints can also prevent vulnerable groups from special protection.

Suggestions for future regulations

Large uncertainties and extensive knowledge gaps make assessment of risk for ENMs very challenging. Compounded by rapid development of nanotechnology, it is almost impossible to adopt “one-for-ever or one-for-all” regulations for ENMs. One approach is to initiate easy-to-achieve, progressive guidelines to regulate ENMs based on current knowledge, and then continually update and adapt the regulations based on knowledge as it is gained (Beaudrie et al. 2013; Grieger et al. 2010; Hansen et al. 2008a; Linkov et al. 2009). Therefore, in following sections, methods to concentrate research effort and prompt regulations that facilitate assessment of risks of ENMs are proposed. Besides these qualitative methods, emerging tools that assist in quantitative regulations based on assessment framework of risk and decision making of regulators are also suggested.

Prioritizing ENMs for regulations

It is challenging to address potential risks of ENMs with such dramatic growth and extensive application of ENMs. Therefore, a prioritized ranking which lists ENMs with greater risk should be proposed to call for immediate attention and research to support early development of their regulations (Grieger et al. 2010; OECD 2010). The ranking proposed is developed with consideration of the two components, evaluations of exposure and hazard, in a general framework for assessment of risk. Here, relative exposures are estimated, based on volumes of production and usage in commercial products (Online Resource Figs. S1 and S2), while hazard is determined from laboratory tests of toxicity to individual species (Online Resource Fig. S3). Based on the information (Online Resource Section 2), it is proposed that ENMs requiring immediate research to support regulations are: NPs of Ag, ZnO, Fe₂O₃ and TiO₂. Importantly, a large portion of the identified commercial products that contain Ag, ZnO and TiO₂ NPs are sprays, cleaning detergents and personal care products (e.g. sunscreens and cosmetics), which might easily release their constitutional ENMs during usage (Online Resource Fig. S2). This further highlights that these ENMs are of potentially high risks (Hansen et al. 2009; Hansen et al. 2008a). A similar but more extensive list of ENMs has been proposed by OECD to act as representatives for understanding

of measurement, toxicology and risk assessment of other ENMs (OECD 2010).

Relative amounts of research on ENMs have been compared based on numbers of research articles available on the search engine Web of Science (Online Resource Fig. S4). Fewer studies have been conducted on the other two ENMs (Fe₂O₃ and ZnO NPs) that are also focuses of the present review. Therefore, future research might require more effort on the remaining two ENMs. Major areas of research should be development of techniques for quantification, evaluation of their bioavailability under different environmental conditions, and study of their toxic mechanisms towards different species. Moreover, these lists should only represent temporary prioritization because all data come from available peer-reviewed articles, which are subjected to limitations mentioned above. Therefore, upon improvement of knowledge, these lists should be updated.

Methods to promote conventional assessment of risk of ENMs

To achieve comprehensive assessments of risk of ENMs, many knowledge gaps have to be filled but some of them might be addressed promptly by administrative means of authorities. In current practices, a pre-market evaluation is usually initiated with the pre-manufacture notice (PMN) or significant new use notice (SNUN) from manufactures when they have new commercial products. Output from the evaluation will determine whether a permit can be issued for the product to be on sale in the market (Fig. 2, arrows in black). According to the conventional framework of risk assessment, pre-market evaluation should involve evaluations of exposure and hazard of the ENM used in the proposed product.

Given limited reliable techniques for direct quantification of ENMs, predictive models that estimate production volume and environmental concentrations of ENMs might be a better method currently available for evaluation of exposure of ENMs. Current predictive models are suffering from limited and unreliable information due to business privacy and lack of guidelines for disclosing relevant information, but these uncertainties of predictive model might be relieved when regulative authorities step in to facilitate disclosure of information (Brown 2009; Hansen et al. 2008b). For example, a compulsory reporting scheme on ingredients of commercial products by manufacturers could be mandated to gather information for predictive models to estimate exposures of ENMs (Fig. 2, arrows in red). Information to be reported could include type, physicochemical characteristics, concentrations of ENMs used in the products and their possible life cycle. Information provided might further populate a database for scientists and relevant authorities to estimate potential exposure to ENMs, which is an important component in the conventional assessment framework of risk (Fig. 2, arrows in

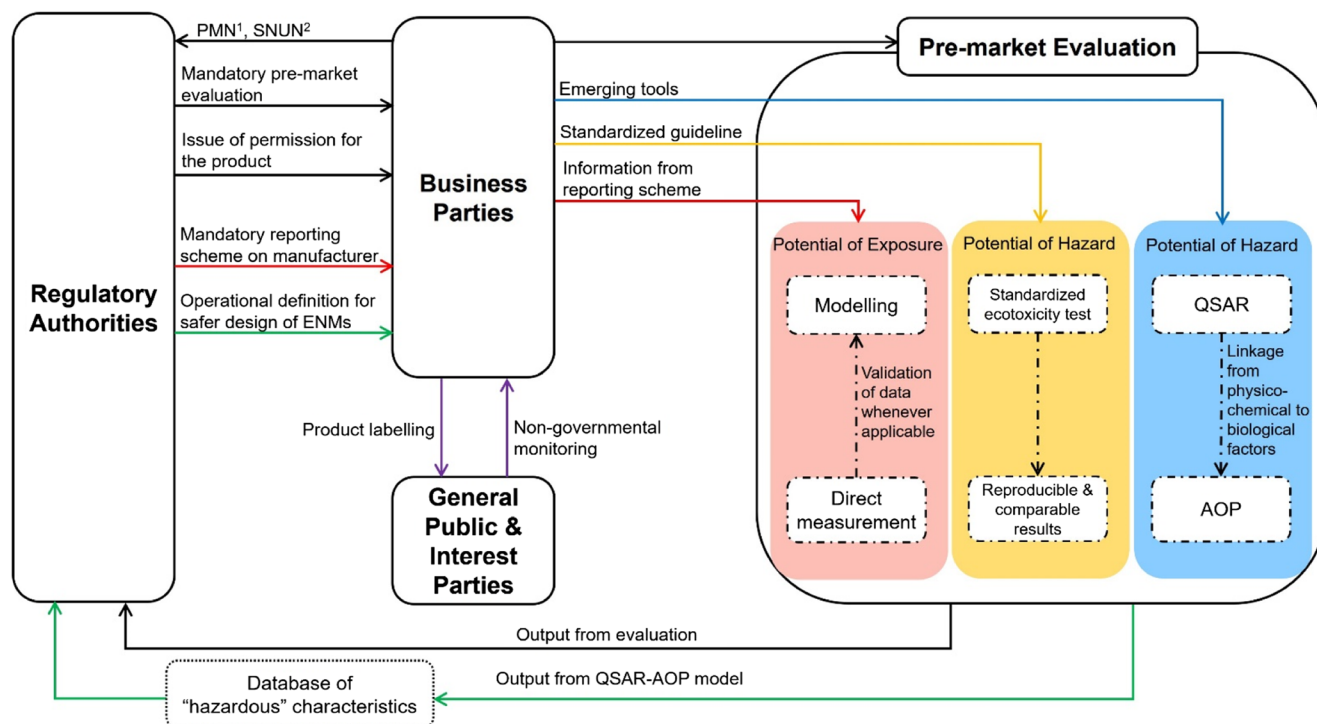


Fig. 2 Conventional and modified risk assessment framework engineered nanomaterials. (1) PMN: Pre-manufacture notice, and (2) SNUN: Significant new use notice

red). Moreover, validation of environmental concentrations of ENMs should be performed by cross-checking between results from predictive models and emerging quantifying techniques whenever they are developed (Fig. 2, **box in red**). More precise and accurate data from assessment of exposure allow authorities to review the necessity to regulate ENMs and thus could serve as an early-warning system for environmental managers to proactively mitigate risks of ENMs. Moreover, compulsory labelling schemes that specify ENMs should also be mandated so that customers and other interested parties can serve as public monitoring ambassadors on manufacturers (Fig. 2, **arrows in purple**; Linkov et al. 2009; Malloy 2011).

Once continuous information on production volume becomes available for ENMs, the next stage is to foster a mandatory pre-market evaluation before commercial products containing ENMs enter the market. This comes to another component of assessment of risk, the evaluation of hazard of ENMs. To generate reproducible and comparable results, it is important for regulators to develop standardized protocols to determine effects and potencies of ENMs (Fig. 2, **arrows and box in yellow**; Hartmann et al. 2015; Linkov et al. 2009). Efforts have already been addressed by some parties and now toxicity test guidelines have been developed and reviewed for their adequacy; Existing Test Guideline 102, 109, 113, 116 were proposed as valid for ENMs (OECD 2009). As a mean to improve toxicity testing of ENMs, a series of guidelines on preparation of samples, dosimetry and ecotoxicity have also been reviewed by OECD (OECD 2012; OECD 2014). OECD concluded that

current guidance for testing bulk chemicals could be applied to ENMs, though some adaptations would be necessary. Some modifications of protocols, for example, methods to maintain constant exposures of ENMs to model organisms in aqueous media and potential endpoints for measurement, have been suggested (Hartmann et al. 2015; Hund-Rinke et al. 2016). Moreover, ENMs are prone to different physicochemical characteristics and environmental factors. Therefore, during assessment of hazards of ENMs, it is important for the guidance to consider the influences of these parameters, as well as testing at environmentally relevant concentrations, which could be estimated based on information from above compulsory reporting scheme.

In summary, with more comprehensive information from the compulsory reporting scheme, evaluation of exposure of ENMs could be improved. The standardized guidance addressing different influential factors could also produce comparable and realistic results for manufacturers and regulatory agencies during their assessment of hazard for products containing ENMs. Furthermore, standardized methodologies allow joint efforts from various research parties and thus reduce time and resources to deal with risk assessment of ENMs. During pre-market evaluation and development of regulations by authorities, results from these two assessments could then be compared to estimate risk of ENMs. However, in such traditional regulatory framework, three out of the five proposed limitations, i.e. difficulties in defining ENMs, tracing their transport pathways and understanding of their toxic

mechanisms could not be addressed. To better address the assessment of risk would also necessitate development of probabilities of exceeding thresholds for effects to a defined proportion of individuals or a specified proportion of species. Furthermore, rapid development of nanotechnology makes it very challenging to investigate each product containing ENM as soon as it is newly produced.

Emerging tools to facilitate conventional assessment of risk of ENMs

The conventional assessment framework of risk that requires solid support of information might not be suitable due to broadening gaps in information under rapid development of ENMs and their expanding uses in products (Beaudrie et al. 2013; Beaudrie and Kandlikar 2011; Hristozov et al. 2012; Linkov et al. 2009). It is, therefore, important to adopt tools that provide simple and high-throughput screening of ENMs before they become available in market.

Adverse outcome pathway (AOP) aims to identify an explanatory pathway linking a molecular initiating event (MIE, chemical-biomolecule interaction) with apical measurement endpoints and estimate possible adverse outcomes at organism or population levels. The AOP construct has large tolerance for plausible and hypothetical linkages, and allows assessments even in the absence of some information. Accordingly, although knowledge on the toxic mechanisms of ENMs is complicated and missing, assessment of hazards of ENMs can still be fitted into AOP because it allows information to be obtained from different sources including *in vitro*, *in vivo* and *in silico* systems (Cote et al. 2016; Juberg et al. 2017; Knudsen et al. 2015; Rowlands et al. 2014). Furthermore, the AOP construct helps to narrow knowledge gaps by identifying missing linkages in the pathway and then future research efforts can be concentrated to fill these knowledge gaps (Ankley et al. 2010).

The AOP concept could also be combined with models that enable linkages between physicochemical characteristics of ENMs and toxicological observations, such as quantitative structure-activity relationship (QSAR) models (Cote et al. 2016; Knudsen et al. 2015; Mu et al. 2016). An integrative QSAR-AOP model enables linkage of biological influences to a general physicochemical characteristic shared by various ENMs. For example, metal oxide nanoparticles that have band energies comparable to the redox potentials of antioxidants and formation of radicals have been found to produce oxidative stress and inflammation *in vitro* (Burello and Worth 2011a; Burello and Worth 2011b; Zhang et al. 2012). This result has been further linked to the photoactivated toxicity (PAT) AOP to establish a transition from physicochemical characteristics to biological endpoints (Ankley et al. 2010). These concepts make it possible to evaluate the AOP (PAT of metal oxide nanoparticles), based on rapid screening of the

physicochemical characteristics of ENMs (band gap) (Knudsen et al. 2015). Furthermore, instead of interpreting toxicities of ENMs through one general ecotoxicity test, QSAR-AOP model narrows the target question to one MIE and correlates the event with specific physicochemical characteristics that can predict such influence. This might minimize the variation caused by the diverse and variable properties of ENMs (Holden et al. 2016). Meanwhile, different AOPs can also link with each other to develop a network and therefore can explain complicated pathways leading to a final response, which is very common in ENMs (Knudsen et al. 2015).

Consequently, the QSAR-AOP construct might manage to explain toxic mechanisms of ENMs. More importantly, it minimizes the effort to measure a larger set of physicochemical characteristics of ENMs and allows high-throughput and standardized measurements to be fed into conventional assessment framework of hazards of ENMs (Fig. 2, **arrows and box in green**, Zhang et al. (2012)). Currently, several AOPs have already been proposed and shared in an open source (<https://aopwiki.org/>). With the database growing, it would benefit modelling of hazard of ENMs, which is currently hindered by many knowledge gaps. However, problems in tracing transport of ENMs remain and more fundamentally, the pre-market evaluation will not work efficiently if there is no universal definition among different regulatory bodies.

Modifications of conventional assessment framework to address risks of ENMs

Instead of investigating potential criteria that describe ENMs correctly and scientifically, we proposed it might be better to apply risk ranking tools which describe risks of ENMs based on available knowledge to aid in decision making of regulators, given the presence of large uncertainties currently (Beaudrie and Kandlikar 2011; Grieger et al. 2010).

Contrary to the conventional assessment framework of risk that aims to predict toxicity or develop criteria that are protective, the alternatives assessment framework develops relative hazard indices that can be used to identify alternatives to replace potential hazardous chemicals. Decision making processes under this framework integrate both quantitative data and qualitative judgement based on social interest and experience from experts. Consequently, the alternatives assessment framework does not require full understanding of risk of ENMs, which is currently lagging behind the rapid development and commercialization of ENMs (Hjorth et al. 2017a; Linkov et al. 2009). For example, four ENMs (NPs of Ag, ZnO, Fe₂O₃ and TiO₂) are prioritized in this review because of their larger potentials for exposure and greater hazard. Instead of identifying their risks to set up criteria for protection, the alternatives assessment framework will simply identify possible safer replacements for these four ENMs that does not

require full understanding of the four ENMs. However, one disadvantage of the alternatives assessment framework is that it cannot discriminate between the same ENM but varies with different physicochemical properties, which is a common situation for ENMs because they are highly flexible in their design. It is even complicated when ENMs are incorporated into commercial products at different purities (Hjorth et al. 2017a; Leung et al., 2015). This problem might be solved by use of information generated from the QSAR-AOP model. For instance, the above example of band gap-PAT relationship demonstrates how band gap can affect PAT of ENMs. Accordingly, the alternatives assessment framework can then select a safer replacement by discriminating between different band gaps of the same ENM.

The concept of alternatives assessment framework and application of the QSAR-AOP model provides a feedback channel for conventional frameworks for assessments of risks (Fig. 2, **arrows in green**), which might better address assessment of relative risks of ENMs. For instance, according to the results from the QSAR-AOP construct, physicochemical characteristics of ENMs that might lead to harmful biological influences could be identified. With standardized protocols, joint efforts from various research parties could formulate a database that lists out these physicochemical properties. Then based on the list and other qualitative parameters such as social interest and judgement from experts, regulators may rank the relative hazards of ENMs according to their physicochemical properties, i.e. the concept of the alternatives assessment framework to identify safer ENMs (Fig. 2, **arrows in green**). With such a list of characteristics, process of decision making might be facilitated (Hansen et al. 2008a; Hjorth et al. 2017b).

A possible construct in which to apply such a database might be the Scoring and Ranking Assessment Model (SCRAM) developed to rank persistent, bio-accumulative and toxic substances. The SCRAM model assigns ranking scores based on known characteristics of chemicals (e.g. bio-accumulation factor, half-life, acute toxicity, chronic toxicity and toxic mechanisms) and uncertainty scores if data is not readily available (Snyder et al. 2000). Similarly, based on outputs of the QSAR-AOP model, regulators and manufacturers can rank ENMs based on their physicochemical characteristics such as band energy and toxic mechanisms, e.g. how comparable the band energy of an ENM is to the energy to form radicals and how much PAT contributes to the overall toxicity. The final absolute and uncertainty scores can be used as reference during pre-market evaluations to see if the ENM would pass or fail pre-set thresholds of potential hazard and/or uncertainties.

A further step could be development of an operational definition for ENMs. With information from the feedback channel (Fig. 2, **arrows in green**), an operational definition could be formulated and act as a universal guidance for both regulators and manufacturers to avoid ENMs with these hazardous

physicochemical characteristics to be produced, i.e. safer by design (Morose 2010; Nel et al. 2013). For instance, ENMs with hazardous band energy can be easily altered with common industrial practices including by modification of size or functionalization of the surface of ENMs (Burello and Worth 2015).

Pitfalls, yet, exists for such a paradigm. QSAR model for ENMs (nano-QSAR) generally requires larger datasets than do traditional QSAR models to account for uncertainties due to the complexity of ENMs and hence efforts and time are needed to select creditable information to minimize variations (Knudsen et al. 2015; Nel et al. 2013). One of the criteria should be comprehensive characterization of ENMs (Warheit 2008). For example, possible links between band energy and ROS production do not consider the fact that capability of ENMs to produce ROS might be dependent not only on its band energy but also on its morphology and the presence of surface defects (Cardillo et al. 2016). Explaining such complex dependences might require sufficiently thorough characterization of physicochemical characteristics of ENMs to understand their relative contribution or inter-correlation. Furthermore, transport and fate of ENMs, which are important components for assessment of risk, are not considered during the risk-ranking approach using the QSAR-AOP approach (Nel et al. 2013). However, it is also recognized that an advantage of QSAR and AOP models is their adaptability to sources of information. Currently, *in vitro*, *in vivo* and *in silico* information are being produced through different high-throughput techniques (Nel et al. 2013). Modifications to QSARs are also being developed to address their deficiencies (Knudsen et al. 2015). Furthermore, the proposed concept of alternatives assessment addresses risk of ENMs during manufacturing process and no later than the stage of pre-market evaluation. It might ease the great challenges to trace the transport pathways of ENMs after their discharge. Consequently, we proposed our suggestions might be the most available substitution at current stage.

Conclusions

Regulation of ENMs is currently incomplete in all countries. It is proposed that challenges in regulating ENMs is primarily due to a lack of knowledge in traditional assessments of risk. Current definitions for ENMs might fail or be difficult to address all potentially hazardous ENMs. Various physicochemical characteristics of ENMs and their interactions with environmental factors affect both evaluations of exposure and hazard for ENMs. The lack of methods for quantification of ENMs in environmental samples also limits evaluation of exposure and subsequent assessment of whether environmental quality guidelines are being met. However, it is vital to

establish regulations for ENMs given their wide application, increasing production volume and potential hazards.

In order to concentrate research efforts, based on production volume, prevalence in the market and potent toxicity, four ENMs (NPs of Ag, ZnO, Fe₂O₃ and TiO₂) are suggested for immediate investigation and regulation. Comprehensive and advanced investigations should be put on these four ENMs of relatively greater risks to foster earlier regulation. Recommendations of regulations includes an immediate establishment of a compulsory reporting scheme for registration and labelling of products which requires the manufacturers to provide more information on their ENM-incorporated products such as composition, physiochemical characteristics and production volume for evaluation of exposure of ENMs through predictive models. To provide more information in evaluation of hazard of ENMs, standardized guidance should be developed and progressive acquisition of data with the use of advanced tools, the QSAR-AOP model, are proposed. This model might allow rapid screening, generalization of common physicochemical characteristics shared by different ENMs and tolerate uncertainties and knowledge gaps. A further step is to regulate ENMs through their manufacturing processes and pre-market evaluation of commercial products by developing an operational definition based on outputs from the QSAR-AOP model. This addresses influences of ENMs before their manufacture and application and hence might minimize their release into the environment, which is too challenging for current techniques to trace them. Furthermore, this kind of proactive regulation might be better adapted for rapid development of nanotechnology.

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Supplementary Information

Regulation of Engineered Nanomaterials: Current Challenges, Insights and Future Directions

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1. Current regulations on ENMs

1.1 Australia

Cosmetics

Almost all cosmetic ingredients, including natural ingredients such as oils, are regulated as industrial chemicals under the Industrial Chemicals (Notification and Assessment) Act 1989 (NICNAS 2016). Nanomaterials are defined as materials that are intentionally produced, manufactured or engineered materials with unique properties and size range between 1 nm and 100 nm (NICNAS 2016). Labelling of cosmetics ingredients need to follow strict standards. However, it does not mention the case of nanomaterials.

Drugs

Although drugs are regulated under the Therapeutic Goods Act 1989 which states that drugs should be sold safely with quality, there are still no specific regulations or standards on nanomaterials used in drugs. (Federal Register of Legislation 2005).

Food

Australia New Zealand Food Standards Code (ANZF Code), which is operated and regulated under Food Standards Australia New Zealand (FSANZ), sets out requirements for food labelling and selling of food, food packaging and labelling in Australia. However, nanotechnology and nanomaterials used in food or food packaging are not mentioned in FSANZ. Only new substances added in food

require pre-market approval which means if nanomaterials are added in food, it must undergo safety assessment before appearing in the market (Ludlow 2009).

Pesticides

Australian Pesticide and Veterinary Medicines Agency (APVMA) is responsible to regulate pesticide and veterinary medicine chemicals in Australia. APVMA published a report “Nanotechnologies for pesticides and veterinary medicines: Regulatory considerations” in 2015 that includes definitions of nanomaterials used in pesticides and veterinary medicines (APVMA 2015b). However, it does not include detailed guidelines on registration and regulation of products that include nanomaterials because APVMA does not dare to announce and provide guideline before having more information on the risk and toxicity of nanomaterials in pesticides (APVMA 2015b). In case there are products containing nanomaterials, applicants should contact APVMA for guidance first before registration (APVMA 2015a). Risk assessment framework is being considered to be modified in order to address the pesticides which may contain engineered nanomaterials.

1.2 Canada

According to Policy Statement on Health Canada’s Working Definition for Nanomaterial, nanomaterials refer to any manufactured products or materials at or within 1 – 100 nm, inclusive, in at least one external dimension, or has internal or surface structure at this size range (Health Canada 2011).

Cosmetics

Cosmetics sold in Canada must meet the requirements of Food and Drugs Act and Cosmetics Regulations C.R.C., c. 869 under Health Canada. All ingredients presence in cosmetics must be labelled clearly, but the Cosmetics Regulations does not mention anything related to nanomaterials used in cosmetics such as toxicity, labelling and risk assessment (Health Canada 2007).

Drugs and Food

Health Canada regulated food and drugs under Food and Drugs Act and Food and Drug Regulations (C. R. C., c. 870), indicating that no one in the Canadian market can sell food that contains harmful substances and unfit to human health, and sell drugs that are manufactured under unsanitary conditions (Health Canada 2016b). All ingredients presence in drugs and food must be labelled clearly, however, nanomaterials used in food and drugs are not included in the Act and there is no regulation and statement concerning the labelling of nanomaterials on drugs and food or even food packaging.

Pesticides

The Pest Management Regulatory Agency (PMRA) of Health Canada is responsible to protect human health and safety to the environment while using pesticides. Pesticides used in Canada are controlled by Pest Control Products Regulations (SOR /2006-124) under Pest Control Products Act (Health Canada 2016a). The application of pesticides in Canada is strictly controlled. Toxicological data and exposure assessment have to be reported and submitted during registration (Health Canada 2016a). Guidance on toxicology evaluation and occupational exposure is provided with clear indication of ingredients used

in pesticides, but it is still lack of information about nanomaterials used in pesticides.

1.3 Europe (including UK)

Europe (including UK) is the leading place to monitor and regulate the use of chemicals among the communities. Due to increasing use of nanotechnology in recent decades, the Commission of the European Communities adopted an incremental approach to regulate the use of nanotechnology on consumer products, including cosmetics, drugs, food and pesticides (Hansen & Baun 2012). Chemicals in Europe (including UK) are simply regulated under Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals (REACH) which was effective from June 1, 2007 (Brazell 2012). However, the application and registration of nanomaterials on products are not specifically mentioned under REACH (Hansen & Baun 2012). There are other regulations and guidance for monitoring nanomaterials.

Cosmetics

Directive 76/768/EEC is the old Cosmetics Directive implemented in 1976 with a list of cosmetic products in Annex I that are approved to be used in the market while there is a list of prohibited substances used in cosmetics in Annex II, although it does not include the size of particles used and restrict the use of nanomaterials in cosmetics (Commission of European Communities 2008). With the various definitions of nanomaterials between the European Parliament and the Council of the European Union, the new Regulation (EC) No 1223/2009 completely replaces Directive 76/768/EEC from July 11, 2013 with the internationally agreed definition of nanomaterials in cosmetics regulation that

nanomaterials refer to insoluble or bio-persistent, and intentionally manufactured materials with one or more external dimensions with 1 to 100 nm (EP and CEU 2009b, art. 2). This new regulation requires manufacturers to inform the European Commission about the presence of nanomaterials in the form of physical property, chemical property, quantity, toxicological profile and reasonably foreseeable exposure conditions in electronic means six months prior their sale in the market (EP and CEU 2009b, art. 16). For cosmetics that are already in the market, the presence of nanomaterials in the products has to be labelled separately in the list of ingredients on the packaging with “nano” in brackets (e.g. ZnO [nano], silver [nano]) (EP and CEU 2009b, art. 19, 40; Hansen & Baun 2012). Since there is still a lack of information on the toxicity of nanomaterials, Scientific Committee on Consumer Safety (SCCS) has to provide guidance in testing methodologies to characterize the nanomaterials and provide opinion on the safety issue of nanomaterials used in cosmetics when appropriate (EP and CEU 2009b, part 30).

Drugs

Reflection paper on nanotechnology-based medicinal products for Human Use published by European Medicines Agency defines nanotechnology as “the production and application of structures devices and systems by controlling the shape and size of materials at nano-meter scale at atomic level of around 0.2 nm (2 Å) to around 100 nm” while nano-medicine refers to the application of nanotechnology in making medicines (European Medicines Agency 2006). Although a marketing authorization application is required for nano-medicines before circulating in the market, the use of nanomaterials in medicine is not regulated in the Directive 2001/83/EC due to the lack of data on effects of

chronic exposure on health of humans and environmental fate of nano-medicines (European Medicines Agency 2006; EP and CEU 2012). Directive 2001/83/EC stated that the characteristics and ingredients of medicines have to be clearly stated on the package of medicines (EP and CEU 2012).

Food

Regulation (EC) No 178/2002 is one of the food and food packaging regulations in Europe; however, none of them regulate the application of nanomaterials in food products (EP and CEU 2002). Although materials used in food have to be stated on packaging, there is still no law requiring the label of “nano” on the ingredient list to indicate the presence of nanomaterials in food (EP and CEU 2002; FOE 2008). Moreover, it is difficult to do hazard assessment on food with nanomaterials because there are still no validated methods and no standard definition of nanomaterials for the detection of nanomaterials in food (EFSA 2011; FOE 2008). FOE (2008) suggested that the size of nanomaterials should be extended to 300 nm from 100 nm to have a better health and environment assessment. With publication of “Guidance on the risk assessment of the application of nanoscience and nanotechnologies in the food and feed chain” by EFSA, definition of nanomaterials, requirements of nanomaterials used, test methods on the toxicity of products as well as the approval list of nanomaterials to be used in the market have been clearly stated (EFSA 2011). In this guidance, nanomaterial refers to a material with at least one size measurement between approximately 1 and 100 nm (EFSA 2011). This guidance only serves as a guideline for consumers or manufacturers on the use of nanomaterials in food but it is not a law such that the government does not have enforcement power to monitor the use of nanomaterials in food industry.

Pesticides

Regulation EC 1107/2009 is based on the precautionary principle, in order to make sure that active products in pesticides will not adversely affect human and animal health as well as the environment (EP and CEU 2009a, art. 1). It requires active ingredients that in pesticides to be assessed at community level, to be undergone registration and follow legal procedure. Although this regulation does not include any reference and guidance on nanotechnology applied in pesticides, "Guidance on the risk assessment of the application of nanoscience and nanotechnologies in the food and feed chain" developed a practical approach which was used in assessing the potential risks of nanoscience and nanotechnologies (EFSA 2011). According to the guidance, nanomaterials refer to a material with at least one size measurement between approximately 1 nm and 100 nm (EFSA 2011). It provides guideline on physicochemical characteristics of engineered nanomaterials used in food, feed additives, and pesticides; it also provides guidance on testing methods to identify, characterize and quantify nanomaterials (EFSA 2011). Risk assessment should be performed if there are uncertainties. Directive 98/8/EC is another regulation regulating the use of biocides, and non-agricultural pesticides, in community because they are active substances which contain one or more active substances that prevent the action on any harmful organism by chemical or biological means and have potential to harm human, animal health and the environment (EP and CEU 1998, art. 2). This regulation does not include any nano-related risk and hazards assessment as well as the necessarily of labelling.

1.4 Japan

Cosmetics

Cosmetics are regulated under Pharmaceutical Affairs Law (The Law on Securing Quality, Efficacy and Safety of Products including Pharmaceuticals and Medical Devices as the amended title) by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW) (MHLW 2013). Marketing license for cosmetics is needed for all cosmetics to be sold in the market. All ingredients used in cosmetics have to be labelled on the packaging. There are lists of positive and negative ingredients with the usable one stated in the former list while prohibiting ingredients included in the latter list (MHLW 2013). However, nanomaterials used in cosmetics are not stated in the law but they must be approved by MHLW for the use in cosmetics.

Drugs and Food

Drugs and food are originally regulated under the Pharmaceutical Affairs Law, but it changed to The Law on Securing Quality, Efficacy and Safety of Products including Pharmaceuticals and Medical Devices starting from November 2014 (MHLW 2013). Marketing license for drugs is needed in order to be sold in the market, but not for food. However, no matter in either old or new law, there are still no particular regulations on the use of nanomaterials in food and drugs. If there are cases using nanomaterials, MHLW will handle it on case-by-case basis instead of regulating it by law (MHLW 2013).

Pesticides

Pesticides are mainly applied in agriculture in Japan. Therefore, the application of pesticides is monitored under Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW

2013). It mainly focuses on the maximum residue limits for agricultural chemicals in food and it does not include any information about the use of nanomaterials in pesticides (USDA Foreign Agricultural Service 2009).

1.5 The United States

There are several federal agencies in the United States to monitor and manage toxic and harmful materials, and products circulating in the market, including Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), the Food and Drug Administration (FDA), the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) and the Consumer Product Safety Commission (CPSC) (Beaudrie et al. 2013). Generally, chemical substances are regulated under Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA) while pesticides are regulated under the Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act (FIFRA). Food, drugs and cosmetics are regulated under the Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act (FFDCA). These three Acts will go through pre-market assessment and management such that chemical substances, pesticides, food and drugs are evaluated before entering the market (Beaudrie et al. 2013). Existing chemical substances in the market have to be maintained safe while new chemical substances have to undergo risk assessment before circulating in the market. Cosmetics will go through post-market assessment such that manufacturers have the responsibility to review and ensure the safety of products circulating in the market (Beaudrie et al. 2013).

Cosmetics

In the United States, cosmetics are regulated under Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act. In 2014, Food and Drug Administration (FDA) issued a “Guidance for Industry – Safety of Nanomaterials in Cosmetic Products” which provides

guidelines when nanomaterials have to be used in cosmetics (FDA 2014). The guidance generally classifies nanomaterial as a material that is engineered to have at least one external dimension, or an internal or surface structure, in the nanoscale range with approximately 1 nm to 100 nm (FDA 2014). Manufacturers are highly suggested to contact FDA to undergo safety assessment before production. Also, the guideline does not require the use of nanomaterials in cosmetics to undergo pre-market review (FDA 2014). Manufacturers must follow strict regulations for cosmetics labelling, but it does not mention anything about the labelling of nanomaterials if they are present in the product.

Drugs

Drugs and public health in the United States are regulated under Public Health Service Act (FDA 2009). However, it does not include any definitions, risk health assessment or monitoring on the use of nanomaterials in pharmaceutical industry.

Food

Although food is regulated under Federal Food, Drug and Cosmetics Act in the United States by FDA, it does not include any definitions, risk health assessment or monitoring on the use of nanomaterials in food products. Instead, FDA formed Nanotechnology Task Force in August 2006 in order to encourage the continuous development and application of this innovative nanotechnology in products by regulation and monitoring (FDA 2015a). It also reviews and evaluates the possible adverse effect of nanomaterials to human health. A “Guidance for Industry on the Use of Nanomaterials in Food for Animals” was

issued in August 2015 (FDA 2015b). It stated that nanomaterial is a material that is engineered to have at least one external dimension, or an internal or surface structure, in the nanoscale range with approximately 1 nm to 100 nm (FDA 2015b). This Guidance does not include any regulatory status but instead it serves as a guideline and recommendation for the industry on the use of nanomaterials in animal food (FDA 2015b). All food additives require pre-market approval based on data demonstrating safety. However, if food additives are determined to be “generally recognized as safe” by the manufacturers, they can be exempted from the pre-market approval (Brazell 2012). Ingredients presence in food additives have to be labelled clearly to ensure the safety.

Pesticides

In the United States, the registration, distribution and use of pesticides are governed by the Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act (FIFRA). All pesticides used or sold in the United States have to be registered with EPA. However, it does not mention any regulation on nanomaterials in pesticides.

2. Prioritizing ENMs for regulations

Figure S1 summarized the worldwide production of nanomaterials and the ranking was based on median of the summarized production volumes ($\text{SiO}_2 > \text{TiO}_2 > \text{FeO}_x > \text{ZnO} > \text{carbon nanotube} > \text{Ag} > \text{CeO}_2 > \text{fullerene} > \text{quantum dots}$) (**Table S1a-i**). Due to the paucity of studies found, literatures from a large time span of a decade between 2007 and 2016 were adopted and multiple locations instead of purely global statistics. To minimize data variability due to such

wide selection, production volumes representing only a specific country or economic region were extrapolated to worldwide production in proportion to respective Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Sun et al. 2014). Same approach was used to further extrapolate the worldwide production from the year of the paper published to 2015, the latest year with available GDP statistics. However, huge variability in terms of several magnitudes was still obtained. This variability may be due to the different methodology adopted by different researchers as has been discussed in the paper.

The ranking of application of ENMs in different commercial products (Ag > TiO₂ > SiO₂ > Si > C > carbon nanotube > ZnO > Organics > Au > ceramics) is shown in **Figure S2** and **Table S2**. It represents the prevalence of ENMs and hence an implication for the likelihood and ubiquitousness of ENMs in daily life and environment. It serves as an implementation to above ranking of production volume in evaluation of ENM exposure. It was obtained from the largest online databank (<http://www.nanotechproject.org/>) currently available, enlisting 1,814 commercial products from 32 countries that claimed to be ENM-incorporated. However, the inventory only summarized a small portion of the products while the majority of the nanomaterial-incorporated products do not state the ENMs they are applying.

Further, toxicities of ENMs that occurred in above two rankings were summarized from different studies (**Figure S3, Table S3a-d**). The median lethal concentration (LC₅₀) and median effective concentration (EC₅₀) of ENMs were recorded. The review focused on four models commonly used in different toxicity evaluation are selected: *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata*, *Daphnia magna*,

Danio rerio and mammalian cells (different cell lines are pooled together as a reflection of nano-toxicity towards mammals). To formulate valid comparison, only toxicity values from same test conditions are adopted: 72h acute toxicity test for *P. subcapitata*, 48h acute toxicity test for *D. magna*, 96h acute toxicity test for *D. rerio* and 24h acute toxicity for mammalian cells. But not all the ENMs from above rankings have been studied for their toxicity. Some ENMs that were not specified clearly were not surveyed, including carbons, organics and ceramics. They were classified into different hazard categories based on the median of their LC₅₀ and EC₅₀ values (Bondarenko et al. 2013). *Daphnia magna* was found to be most sensitive to the ENMs surveyed: Ag > Fe₂O₃ > ZnO > TiO₂ > CeO₂ while mammalian cells were generally more tolerant to the ENMs and it followed the sequence as Ag > CeO₂ > ZnO > TiO₂. The sensitivity of *P. subcapitata* followed as Ag > ZnO > CeO₂, > SiO₂ > TiO₂ while the one of *D. rerio* followed the sequence of Ag > ZnO > TiO₂. Ag was found to be the most toxic ENM towards all four model organisms among the ENMs in the ranking.

ENMs were selected into the prioritized list if it occurs in the ranking of either the production volume or the prevalence in the market and is ranked as 'toxic', 'very toxic' or 'extremely toxic' in the toxicity ranking. The criteria are to meet the exposure and toxicity components in the conventional risk assessment framework. From this point of view, ENMs that require immediate and further investigation for future regulations are: nanoparticles of Ag, ZnO, Fe₂O₃ and TiO₂.

Relative research effort has been compared with reference to the number of research articles available on the search engine Web of Science (**Figure S4, Table S4**). The search was conducted by a key word search using the name of

each of the common ENMs. Apparently, more research efforts were made for carbon nanotubes and Ag nanoparticles, and followed by TiO₂ (**Figure S4**).

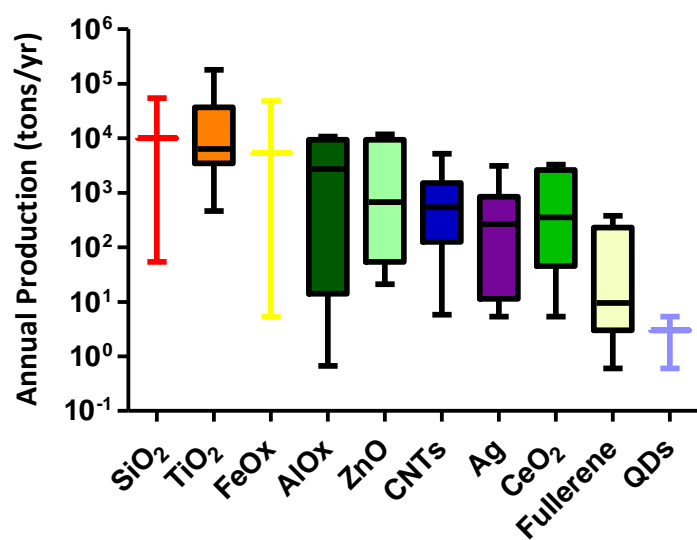


Figure S1 Ranking of annual production of different ENMs.

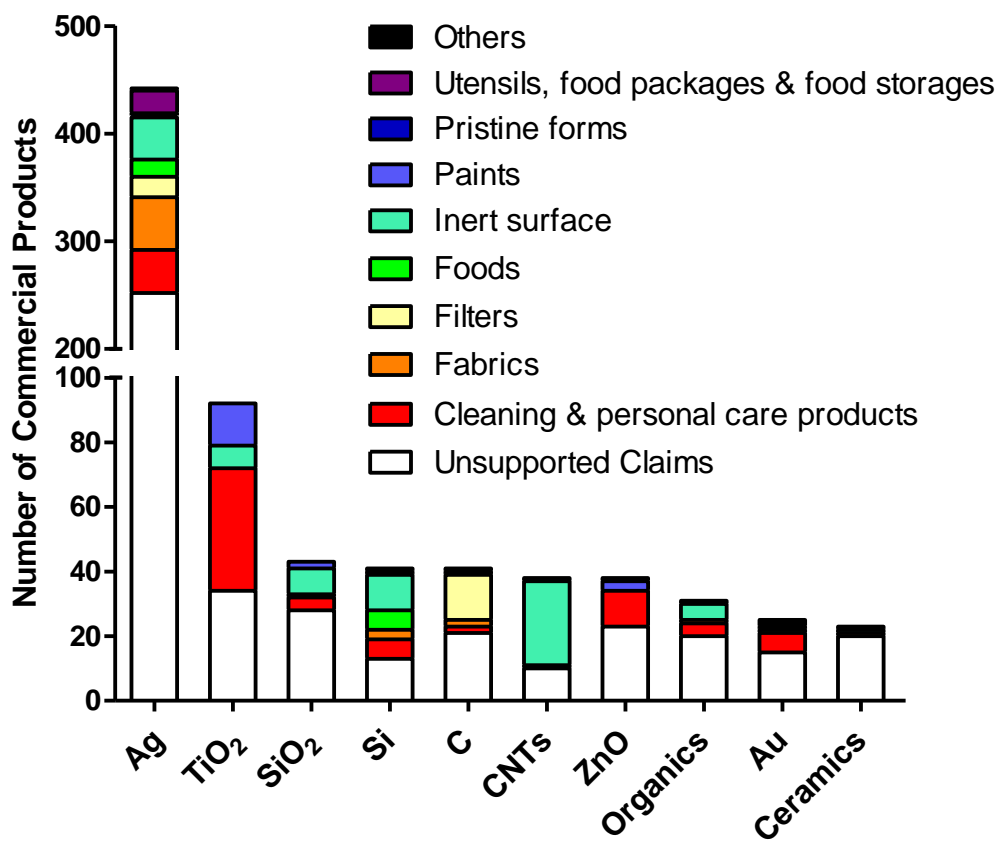


Figure S2 Ranking of usage of ENMs in different commercial products.

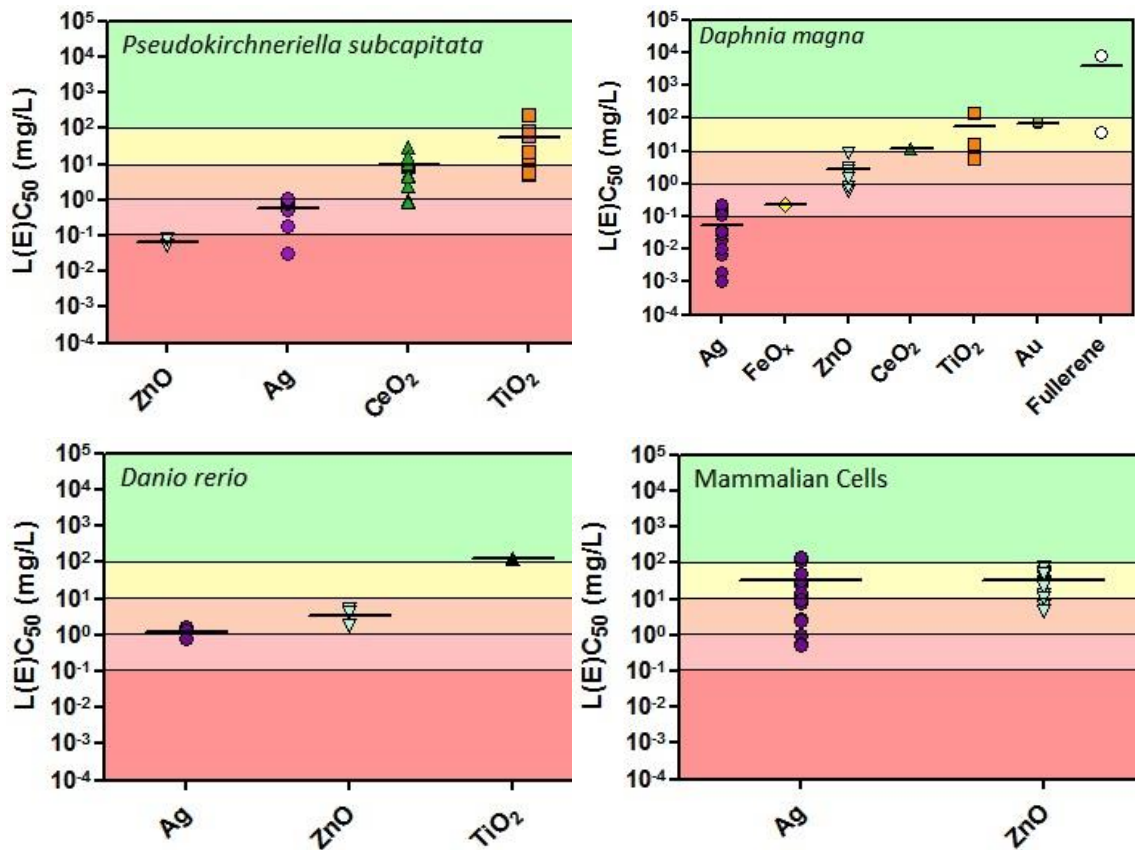


Figure S3 Ranking of potential toxicities of different ENMs. Different colour groups imply the hazard categories for the ENMs based on their median LC₅₀ and EC₅₀ values, ranging from 'extremely toxic' (< 0.1 mg/L), 'very toxic' (0.1-1 mg/L), 'toxic' (1-10 mg/L), 'harmful' (10-100 mg/L) and 'not classified' (> 100mg/L), modified from the study of Bondarenko et al. (2013).

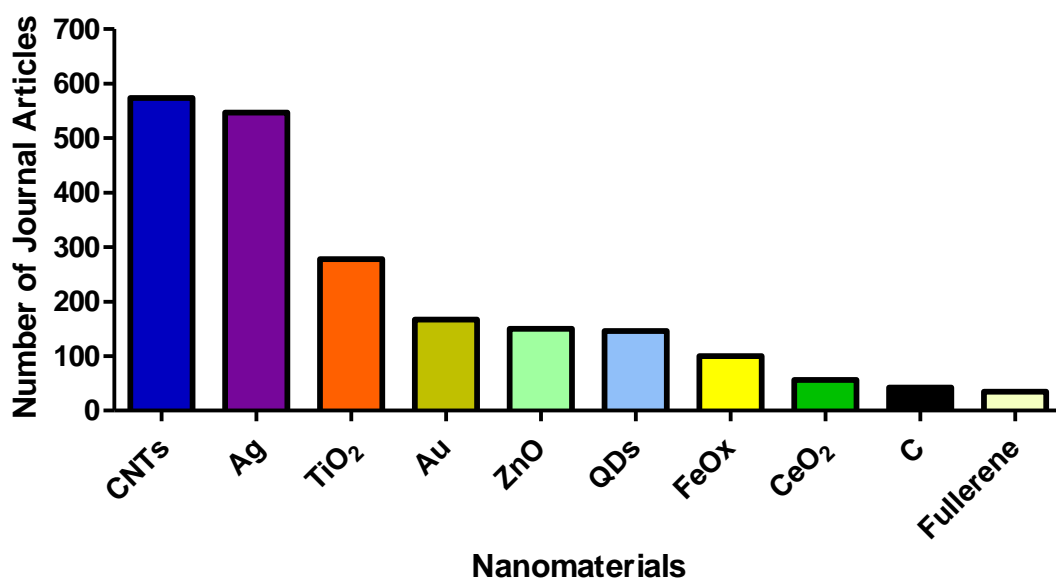


Figure S4 Ranking of research effort input for different ENMs.

Table S1 Production volume of different ENMs

(a) SiO₂				
Year of Publication	Region Covered	Estimated Production (tonnes)	Extrapolated Worldwide Production based on 2015 GDP (tonnes)	Reference
2008	Switzerland	75.4	10,053.3	Schmid and Riediker (2008)
2012	World	55 – 55,000	54.4 – 54,355.9	Piccinno et al. (2012)

(b) TiO₂				
Year of Publication	Region Covered	Estimated Production (tonnes)	Extrapolated Worldwide Production based on 2015 GDP (tonnes)	Reference
2009	United States	44,400	22,633.8	Robichaud et al. (2009)
2011	United States	7,800 – 38,000	36,945.5 – 179,991.1	Hendren et al. (2011)
2008	Switzerland	435.5	58,032.7	Schmid and Riediker (2008)
2014	European Union	10,000	39,695.1	Sun et al. (2014)
2014	China	1,850	13,136.7	Estimation from chart in Gao et al. (2013)
2012	World	550 – 5,500	543.6 – 5,435.6	Piccinno et al. (2012)
2008	World	400 – 5,000	466.0 – 5,825.4	Mueller and Nowack (2008)
2007	World	679	867.3	Sourcing from references in Gottschalk et al. (2009)
2008	World	3,000	3,495.2	
2007	World	5,000	6,386.8	
2008	World	5,000	5,825.4	
2010	World	12,500	14,003.2	USEPA (2010)

(c) FeO_x				
Year of Publication	Region Covered	Estimated Production (tonnes)	Extrapolated Worldwide Production based on 2015 GDP (tonnes)	Reference
2008	Switzerland	365	48,642.0	Schmid and Riediker (2008)
2012	World	5.5 – 5,500	5.4 – 5,435.6	Piccinno et al. (2012)

(d) AlO_x				
Year of Publication	Region Covered	Estimated Production (tonnes)	Extrapolated Worldwide Production based on 2015 GDP (tonnes)	Reference
2008	Switzerland	0.005	0.667	Schmid and Riediker (2008)
2014	China	1,510	10,722.4	Estimation from chart in Gao et al. (2013)
2012	World	55 – 5,500	54.4 – 5,435.6	Piccinno et al. (2012)

(e) ZnO				
Year of Publication	Region Covered	Estimated Production (tonnes)	Extrapolated Worldwide Production based on 2015 GDP (tonnes)	Reference
2008	Switzerland	70	9,377.2	Schmid and Riediker (2008)
2014	European Union	1,600	6,351.2	Sun et al. (2014)
2014	China	1,660	11,787.5	Estimation from chart in Gao et al. (2013)
2012	World	55 – 550	54.4 – 543.6	Piccinno et al. (2012)
2007	World	528	674.4	Sourcing from references in Gottschalk et al. (2009)
2008	World	1,800	2,097.1	
2008	World	18	21.0	

2007	World	20	25.5	
2010	World	528	591.5	Zhang and Saebfar (2010)
2011	World	10,000	10,094.0	Aschberger et al. (2011)

(f) Carbon Nanotubes				
Year of Publication	Region Covered	Estimated Production (tonnes)	Extrapolated Worldwide Production based on 2015 GDP (tonnes)	Reference
2011	United States	55 – 1,101	260.5 – 5,215.0	Hendren et al. (2011)
2008	Switzerland	1	133.3	Schmid and Riediker (2008)
2014	European Union	400	1,587.8	Sun et al. (2014)
2012	World	55 – 550	54.4 – 543.6	Piccinno et al. (2012)
2008	World	350 – 500	407.8 – 582.5	Mueller and Nowack (2008)
2011	World	1,000	1,009.4	Farré et al. (2011)
2008	World	295	343.7	Köhler et al. (2008)
2008	World	426	496.3	Sourcing from references in
2007	World	278	355.1	Gottschalk et al. (2009)

(g) Ag				
Year of Publication	Region Covered	Estimated Production (tonnes)	Extrapolated Worldwide Production based on 2015 GDP (tonnes)	Reference
2011	United States	2.8 – 20	13.3 – 94.7	Hendren et al. (2011)
2012	World	5.5 – 550	5.4 – 543.6	Piccinno et al. (2012)
2008	Switzerland	3.1	413.1	Schmid and Riediker (2008)
2008	World	500 – 1,230	582.5 – 1,433.0	Mueller and Nowack (2008)
2008	World	5	5.8	Sourcing from references in

2008	World	563	655.9	Gottschalk et al. (2009)
2014	European Union	30	119.1	Sun et al. (2014)
2014	China	440	3,124.4	Estimation from chart in Gao et al. (2013)

(h) CeO₂				
Year of Publication	Region Covered	Estimated Production (tonnes)	Extrapolated Worldwide Production based on 2015 GDP (tonnes)	Reference
2011	United States	35 – 700	165.8 – 3,315.6	Hendren et al. (2011)
2012	World	5.5 – 550	5.4 – 543.6	Piccinno et al. (2012)

(i) Fullerene				
Year of Publication	Region Covered	Estimated Production (tonnes)	Extrapolated Worldwide Production based on 2015 GDP (tonnes)	Reference
2011	United States	2 – 80	9.5 – 378.9	Hendren et al. (2011)
2014	European Union	20	79.4	Sun et al. (2014)
2012	World	0.6 – 5.5	0.6 – 5.4	Piccinno et al. (2012)

(j) Quantum Dots				
Year of Publication	Region Covered	Estimated Production (tonnes)	Extrapolated Worldwide Production based on 2015 GDP (tonnes)	Reference
2008	Switzerland	0.6 – 5.5	0.6 – 5.4	Schmid and Riediker (2008)

Table S2 Inventory of commercial products containing nanomaterials. Source: <http://www.nanotechproject.org/cpi/>

Product Category	Number of Products Containing Engineered Nanomaterials									
	Ag	TiO ₂	SiO ₂	Si	C	Carbon nanotubes	ZnO	Organics	Au	Ceramics
Unsupported Claim	252	34	28	13	21	10	23	20	15	20
Fabrics	49		1	3	2	1		1		1
Foods	16			6					1	
Utensils, food packages and food storages	21			1			1			
Inert surface	39	7	8	11		26		5		1
Cleaning and personal care products	40	38	4	6	2		11	4	6	
Filters	19				14					
Others	2							1	2	
Paints	1	13	2		1	1	3			1
Pristine forms	3			1	1				1	
Sum	442	92	43	41	41	38	38	31	25	23

Table S3 Toxicity data of different nanomaterials towards the four models

(a) <i>Daphnia magna</i>						
Nanomaterials	Endpoint	Experimental Time	L(E)C₅₀ (mg/L)	Particle Size	Remarks	References
Ag	EC50	48 h	0.001	60		Kim et al. (2011)
Ag	EC50	48 h	0.03	<100	Coated with lactate	Zhao and Wang (2012)
Ag	EC50	48 h	0.02	8.4±2.8	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Blinova et al. (2013)
Ag	EC50	48 h	0.04	12.5±4	Coated with protein	Blinova et al. (2013)
Ag	LC50	48 h	0.003-0.004			Li et al. (2010)
Ag	LC50	48 h	0.007	10		Li et al. (2010)
Ag	LC50	48 h	0.01	20		Li et al. (2010)
Ag	LC50	48 h	0.02	30		Li et al. (2010)
Ag	LC50	48 h	0.03	50		Li et al. (2010)
Ag	LC50	48 h	0.01	10		Ivask et al. (2014)
Ag	LC50	48 h	0.034	20		Ivask et al. (2014)
Ag	LC50	48 h	0.141	40		Ivask et al. (2014)
Ag	LC50	48 h	0.168	60		Ivask et al. (2014)
Ag	LC50	48 h	0.218	80		Ivask et al. (2014)
Ag	LC50	48 h	0.115	<15	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Tuominen et al. (2013)
Ag	LC50	48 h	0.002	10-20	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Zhao and Wang (2012)
Ag	LC50	48 h	0.001	10-20	Coated with sodium dodecylbenzene sulfonate	Zhao and Wang (2012)
Au	LC50	48 h	65-75			Li et al. (2010)
CeO ₂	LC50	48 h	12			García et al. (2011)
Fe ₃ O ₄	LC50	48 h	0.23			García et al. (2011)
Fullerene (C ₆₀)	LC50	48 h	7900		Dispersed by sonication	Lovern and Klaper (2006)
Fullerene (C ₆₀)	LC50	48 h	> 35			Zhu et al. (2006)
TiO ₂	LC50	48 h	16			García et al. (2011)

TiO ₂	LC50	48 h	5.5			(Lovern and Klaper 2006)
TiO ₂	LC50	48 h	143.387	<20	> 99.5% anatase	Zhu et al. (2009)
ZnO	EC50	48 h	0.6	20		Zhu et al. (2009)
ZnO	EC50	48 h	3.2	50-70		Blinova et al. (2010)
ZnO	EC50	48 h	2.6	<100		Blinova et al. (2010)
ZnO	EC50	48 h	0.8	40		Hai-zhou et al. (2012)
ZnO	EC50	48 h	2.1	50-70		Naddafi et al. (2011)
ZnO	LC50	48 h	8.8	50-70		Heinlaan et al. (2008)
ZnO	LC50	48 h	1.5	20		Zhu et al. (2009)
ZnO	LC50	48 h	1.5	40		Hai-zhou et al. (2012)

(b) <i>Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata</i>						
Nanomaterials	Endpoint	Experimental Time	L(E)C ₅₀ (mg/L)	Particle Size	Remarks	References
Ag	IC50	72 h	0.18	10		Ivask et al. (2014)
Ag	IC50	72 h	0.52	20		Ivask et al. (2014)
Ag	IC50	72 h	0.82	40		Ivask et al. (2014)
Ag	IC50	72 h	0.94	60		Ivask et al. (2014)
Ag	IC50	72 h	1.14	80		Ivask et al. (2014)
Ag	IC50	72 h	0.0324	3-8		Ribeiro et al. (2014)
CeO ₂	EC50	72 h	12.8	12		Rodea-Palomares et al. (2011)
CeO ₂	EC50	72 h	0.95	13		Rodea-Palomares et al. (2011)
CeO ₂	EC50	72 h	0.88	22		Rodea-Palomares et al. (2011)
CeO ₂	EC50	72 h	8.96	28		Rodea-Palomares et al. (2011)

CeO ₂	EC50	72 h	12.3	12		Rodea-Palomares et al. (2011)
CeO ₂	EC50	72 h	5.2	13		Rodea-Palomares et al. (2011)
CeO ₂	EC50	72 h	2.4	22		Rodea-Palomares et al. (2011)
CeO ₂	EC50	72 h	8.5	28		Rodea-Palomares et al. (2011)
CeO ₂	IC50	72 h	29.6	12		Rodea-Palomares et al. (2011)
CeO ₂	IC50	72 h	9.7	13		Rodea-Palomares et al. (2011)
CeO ₂	IC50	72 h	4.4	22		Rodea-Palomares et al. (2011)
CeO ₂	IC50	72 h	10.3			Rodea-Palomares et al. (2011)
CeO ₂	IC50	72 h	16.4	28		Rodea-Palomares et al. (2011)
TiO ₂	EC50	72 h	5			Hall et al. (2009)
TiO ₂	EC50	72 h	9.72			Aruoja et al. (2009)
TiO ₂	IC50	72 h	241	10		Hartmann et al. (2010)
TiO ₂	IC50	72 h	71.1	30		Hartmann et al. (2010)
TiO ₂	IC50	72 h	16		Coated with aluminium	Menard et al. (2011)
TiO ₂	IC50	72 h	61			Menard et al. (2011)
TiO ₂	IC50	72 h	21			Menard et al. (2011)
TiO ₂	IC50	72 h	87			Menard et al. (2011)
TiO ₂	IC50	72 h	5.83	25-70		Menard et al. (2011)
ZnO	EC50	72 h	0.052	50-70		Aruoja et al. (2009)
ZnO	IC50	72 h	0.085	30		Franklin et al. (2007)

(c) *Danio rerio*

Nanomaterials	Endpoint	Experimental Time	L(E)C ₅₀ (mg/L)	Particle Size	Remarks	References
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Ag	EC50	96 h	1.61	35		Wang et al. (2012)
Ag	EC50	96 h	1.36	80	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Wang et al. (2012)
Ag	EC50	96 h	0.78	15		Wang et al. (2012)
TiO ₂	LC50	96 h	124.5	20-70		Xiong et al. (2011)
ZnO	LC50	96 h	4.92	30		Xiong et al. (2011)
ZnO	LC50	96 h	3.97	30		Yu et al. (2011)
ZnO	LC50	96 h	1.79	20		Yu et al. (2011)

(d) Mammalian Cells

Nanomaterials	Cell Type	Endpoint	Experimental Time	L(E)C ₅₀ (mg/L)	Particle Size	Remarks	References
Ag	A549 cells	EC50	24 h	1	5	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Foldbjerg et al. (2011)
Ag	A549 cells	EC50	24 h	10	20	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Foldbjerg et al. (2011)
Ag	A549 cells	EC50	24 h	13.3	50	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Liu et al. (2010)
Ag	A549 cells	IC50	24 h	11.25	30-50	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Liu et al. (2010)
Ag	A549 cells	IC50	24 h	7.5	30-50	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Liu et al. (2010)
Ag	HepG2 cells	EC50	24 h	0.59	5	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Liu et al. (2010)
Ag	HepG2 cells	EC50	24 h	25.5	20	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Liu et al. (2010)
Ag	HepG2 cells	EC50	24 h	33.6	50	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Liu et al. (2010)
Ag	HepG2 cells	IC50	24 h	2.9	5-10		Liu et al. (2010)
Ag	MCF-7 cells	EC50	24 h	0.5	5	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Liu et al. (2010)
Ag	MCF-7 cells	EC50	24 h	14.3	20	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Liu et al. (2010)
Ag	MCF-7 cells	EC50	24 h	47.6	50	Coated with	Liu et al. (2010)

						polyvinylpyrrolidone	
Ag	SGC-7901 cells	EC50	24 h	9.9	5	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Liu et al. (2010)
Ag	SGC-7901 cells	EC50	24 h	50.9	20	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Liu et al. (2010)
Ag	SGC-7901 cells	EC50	24 h	112	50	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Liu et al. (2010)
Ag	THP-1 cells	EC50	24 h	2.44	69±3	Coated with polyvinylpyrrolidone	Foldbjerg et al. (2009)
Ag	THP-1 cells- derived macrophages	IC50	24 h	110	20	Coated with peptide	Haase et al. (2012)
Ag	THP-1 cells- derived macrophages	IC50	24 h	140	40	Coated with peptide	Haase et al. (2012)
ZnO	A549 cells	IC50	24 h	52	<50		Seiffert et al. (2011)
ZnO	A549 cells	IC50	24 h	54	<50		Seiffert et al. (2011)
ZnO	A549 cells	IC50	24 h	45	<50		Seiffert et al. (2011)
ZnO	A549 cells	IC50	24 h	56	<50		Seiffert et al. (2011)
ZnO	Ana-1 cells	IC50	24 h	40.3	70.89		Song et al. (2010)
ZnO	Ana-1 cells	IC50	24 h	30.9	19		Song et al. (2010)
ZnO	BEAS-2B cells	IC50	24 h	6.5	22.6±5.1		Zhang et al. (2012a)
ZnO	BEAS-2B cells	IC50	24 h	4.5	22.6±5.1		Zhang et al. (2012a)
ZnO	CCL-131 cells	IC50	24 h	75	50-70		Jeng and Swanson (2006)
ZnO	CCL-131 cells	IC50	24 h	13.5	50-70		Jeng and Swanson (2006)

ZnO	cultured rat alveolar epithelial cell monolayers	IC50	24 h	13.7	20		Kim et al. (2010)
ZnO	cultured rat alveolar epithelial cell monolayers	IC50	24 h	22.5	20		Kim et al. (2010)
ZnO	MH-S cells	IC50	24 h	45.4	71		Zhang et al. (2012b)
ZnO	MH-S cells	IC50	24 h	26.7	19		Zhang et al. (2012b)
ZnO	MH-S cells	IC50	24 h	13.6	70±13		Zhang et al. (2012b)
ZnO	RAW 264.7 cells	IC50	24 h	21.7	22.6+5.1		Zhang et al. (2012a)
ZnO	RAW 264.7 cells	IC50	24 h	10.1	22.6+5.1		Zhang et al. (2012a)
ZnO	skin fibroblasts	IC50	24 h	49	50-70		Dechsakulthorn et al. (2007)

Table S4 Number of research articles about nanomaterials available in toxicological field. Source: Web of Science

Nanomaterials	Number of Articles in Toxicological Studies
Carbon nanotube	574
Ag	547
TiO ₂	278
Au	167
ZnO	150
Quantum Dots	146
FeO _x	100
CeO ₂	56
C	42
Fullerene	35
SiO ₂	12
AlO _x	8
Si	4

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