

## REVIEW

**Insights into nanoparticle-induced changes in plant photosynthesis**

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**Abstract**

Photosynthesis can be affected by nanoparticles (NPs) both negatively (e.g., through decreasing the chlorophyll content and electron transport rate, damages to chloroplast components, *etc.*) or positively (e.g., *via* enhancing chlorophyll content, the activity of Rubisco enzyme, the performance of PSII, and CO<sub>2</sub> harvesting, as well as broadening the chloroplast photoabsorption spectrum). Enhanced photosynthetic efficiency could be a possible impact of NPs on photosynthetic organisms of major economic and ecological significance (e.g., crops and algae), which warrants an in-depth understanding of NPs interactions with chloroplast and its structural components (e.g., thylakoid membranes), signaling molecules, and pathways involved in photosynthesis. In this review, we comprehensively explore the potential effects of NPs on photosynthesis in different photosynthetic organisms (terrestrial plants, aquatic plants, and algae), and highlight research limitations and possible practical implications.

**Keywords:** chlorophyll; chloroplast; nanoparticles; photosynthesis.

**Introduction**

Nanus is a Greek word that means 'dwarf' and it is the base of the term 'nano' (Johal and Johnson 2018, Baker *et al.* 2019). When we divide a meter into 100 billion parts (10<sup>-9</sup>), we encounter a new scale, which is referred to as nanoscale (El Naschie 2006). Nanotechnology is a technology that uses nanoscale in at least one dimension (Gogotsi 2006), and it has applications in various industries, such as medicine, agriculture, environment, pharmaceutical, and food industries (Gade *et al.* 2010, Hatami and Ghorbanpour 2014, Singh *et al.* 2017, Tian

*et al.* 2018, Fahimirad *et al.* 2019, Hatami *et al.* 2019a, Rahayu *et al.* 2020, Sharifi-Rad *et al.* 2021). Nanoparticles (NPs) are important because of their physical, chemical, and magnetic properties as well as being cheap, safe, and clean (El Naschie 2006, Gade *et al.* 2010, Johal and Johnson 2018). 'Dimension' is one of the main properties of the NPs, however, some NPs have no dimensions such as quantum dots and carbon dots. The dimensional NPs could possess one dimension (nanowires), two dimensions (nanofilms), or three dimensions (metal NPs) (Baker *et al.* 2019). There are three types of NPs depending on their origin: (*1*) natural NPs, originated from volcano eruptions,

**Highlights**

- Photosynthesis can be affected by nanoparticles (NPs) both positively and negatively
- NPs augment plant light-harvesting ability in a dose-dependent manner
- NPs-promoted photosynthetic efficiency may arise from the upregulation of key enzymes

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**Abbreviations:** CdS – carbon quantum dots; CeO<sub>2</sub> – cerium oxide; Chl – chlorophyll; MWCNT – multi-walled carbon nanotube; NPs – nanoparticles; SWCNT – single-walled carbon nanotube; TiO<sub>2</sub> – titanium dioxide.

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(2) incidental NPs, produced by human activities unintentionally, and (3) engineered NPs, produced to be used in different industries, agriculture, *etc.* (Večeřová *et al.* 2016). All these NPs can affect plants, mainly through their interactions with key cell organelles such as chloroplasts and mitochondria (Pagano *et al.* 2018). Quantum dots and NPs are widely used in agriculture.

According to Das *et al.* (2017), plants harvest almost 100 TW (terawatts) of solar energy annually, which is ten times higher than human consumption. Since NPs have the potential to increase the solar energy harvest by plants, nanotechnology may revolutionize agriculture in the future. Nanotechnology has been used to produce genetically manipulated (GM) products (El Naschie 2006, Večeřová *et al.* 2016). Nanotechnology has also been used as a tool for sustainable productivity and protection of food/feed crops (Baker *et al.* 2019). Nanotechnology can make agricultural production better or worse by affecting the photosynthetic activities of plants (Djanaguiraman *et al.* 2018, Tombuloglu *et al.* 2019). The nature and magnitude of the impacts of NPs on photosynthesis depend on concentration, size, surface charge as well as the physicochemical properties of NPs, size of cell wall pores, plant species, and also the culture bed (Pagano *et al.* 2018, Tighe-Neira *et al.* 2018, Tan *et al.* 2019, Verma *et al.* 2019, Falco *et al.* 2020). Furthermore, the duration of the exposure between NPs and plant tissues may also be important. For example, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (a single-cell green alga) cultures that were treated with TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs for 8 h did not differ significantly in comparison with the untreated controls, whereas 12-h exposure stimulated their growth (Chen *et al.* 2012).

The size of NPs is another factor associated with their effects on plants. Small TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs (50 nm) had a significant positive effect on the chlorophyll (Chl) content of okra (*Abelmoschus esculentus*) plants, while the larger TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs (68 nm) inhibited photosynthesis (Ogunkunle *et al.* 2020). When NPs are absorbed through the plasma membrane, they attach to proteins forming a complex called protein corona, which enters the neighboring cells *via* plasmodesmata channels (Hatami *et al.* 2016). Although NPs are in nanoscale, they must be small enough to pass through different barriers, such as cell walls, cell membrane, Caspary strip, cuticle, *etc.* (Večeřová *et al.* 2016, Tombuloglu *et al.* 2019). For example, NPs should be between 5–20 nm to be able to penetrate the cell wall pores (Hatami *et al.* 2016, Večeřová *et al.* 2016).

Nanoparticles can affect different processes of photosynthesis, or even in different parts of chloroplasts. In other words, NPs may affect the morphology of photosynthetic structures, contents of photosynthetic pigments, *etc.* (Tan *et al.* 2019). For example, NPs can increase the photosynthetic rate by enhancing the activity of Rubisco (Hussain *et al.* 2019, Kataria *et al.* 2019). Nanoparticles can also alter the performance of PSII and CO<sub>2</sub> harvesting (Falco *et al.* 2020). Some NPs may decrease the absorption of sunlight by decreasing the Chl contents of plants (Tao *et al.* 2015). As photosynthetic rate depends on the Chl contents of plants, decreased Chl contents can negatively affect the photosynthetic rate (Wang *et al.* 2018).

Some NPs can change the wavelength domains of photosynthesis. For example, carbon dots (CDs) nanocapsules absorb wavelengths between 200–700 nm, which can increase the light harvest and also electron transport chain performance in PSII, and ultimately promote photosynthesis (Chandra *et al.* 2014, Verma *et al.* 2019, Xu *et al.* 2020). Interestingly, NPs may also act as a shadow, preventing light harvesting in plants, which is referred to as the ‘shading effect’. As a result, plants start producing more Chl to harvest more light, however, they usually cannot afford it, leading to a decrease in photosynthesis (Middepogu *et al.* 2018). Hence, plants can be affected by NPs in different ways. Due to the significance of photosynthesis for plants and human life, it is vital to investigate NPs–plant interactions and their impact on photosynthesis. In this review, we mechanistically explore the effects of different NPs on photosynthesis and photosynthetic pigments in a broad range of photosynthetic organisms.

### Engineered nanoparticles

Engineered NPs can change diverse metabolic pathways in plants including transpiration, gas exchange, biosynthesis and composition of pigments (*e.g.*, Chl), and expression of photosynthesis-related genes (Tan *et al.* 2019). Here, we categorize engineered NPs into three main groups including (1) nanocarbons, which are made of carbon, (2) metal NPs, which include different kinds of metals and metal oxide compounds, and (3) magnetic NPs, which are metal NPs with magnetic properties.

### The entry and interaction pathways of NPs in plants through roots and leaves

To deeply understand the nature of NPs–plant interactions, it is necessary to characterize the entry, uptake, translocation, accumulation, biotransformation, and fate of NPs within plant cells, tissues, and organelles. Entry and translocation of NPs can occur through root to shoot (down–top) or shoot to root (top–down) routes, an important feature that makes both foliar and soil applications feasible in agroecosystems. The entry (Fig. 1A) and interaction pathways of NPs in plants through leaves (Fig. 1B) and roots (Fig. 1C), and their long-distance transport *via* xylem and phloem (Fig. 1D), as well as their possible routes of cellular uptake (Fig. 1E) were schematically illustrated in Fig. 1. When applied to the foliage, NPs penetrate leaves through cuticles, stomatal openings, hydathodes, lenticels, trichomes, and wounds. NPs may undergo long-distance transport *via* the vascular systems, such as xylem and phloem conductive tissues, after entering the leaf apoplast through the aforementioned routes. When exposed to plant roots, NPs can penetrate *via* root tip, root hairs, lateral roots, rhizodermis, and rupture. As shown, when NPs are available either in culture medium or soil matrix, they can be transferred *via* both symplastic and apoplastic pathways to penetrate the root epidermis, pass through the cortex, and finally translocate and distribute to the aerial parts of plants including stems and leaves *via* the xylem and

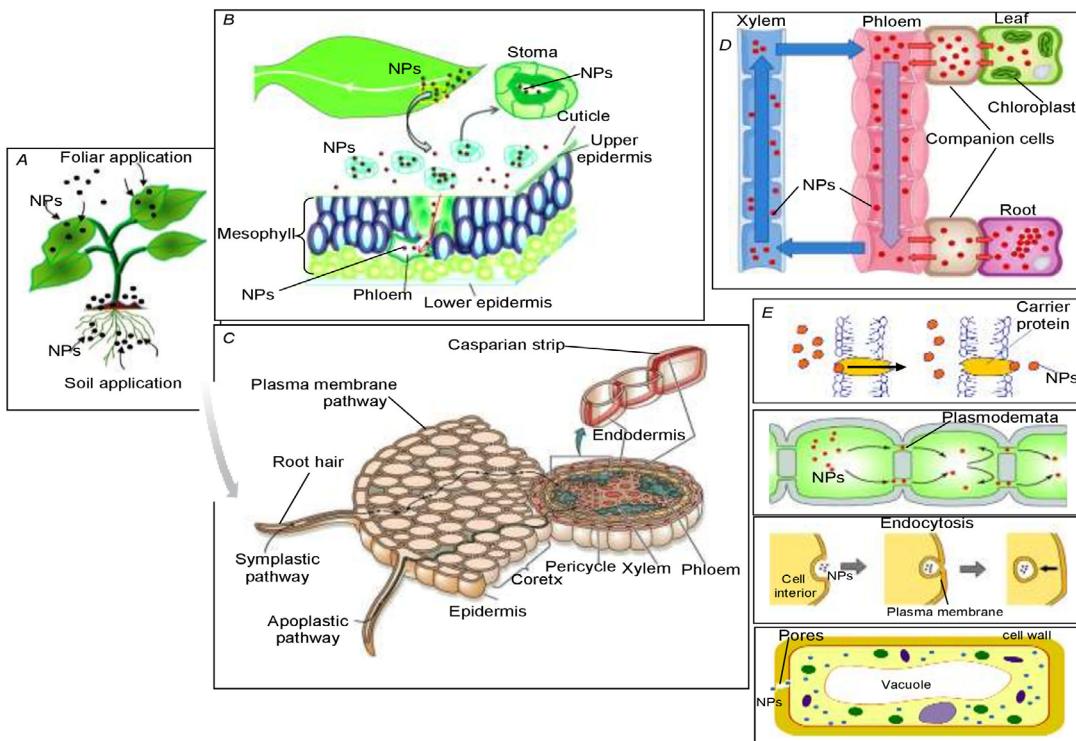


Fig. 1. The entry (A) and interaction pathways of nanoparticles (NPs) in plants through roots and leaves (B and C). Long-distance NPs transport *via* xylem and phloem (D). Probable routes of cellular uptake of the NPs in the plant cell (E).

phloem vessels. The absorbed NPs *via* the foliage could be redistributed to other plant organs such as roots through the phloem. There are several routes for NPs to enter the symplastic pathway such as endocytosis (Etxeberria *et al.* 2006), pore formation (Serag *et al.* 2011, Wong *et al.* 2016), carrier proteins (Rico *et al.* 2011, Schwab *et al.* 2015), plasmodesmata (Zhai *et al.* 2014) and ion channels (Perez-de-Luque 2017). Several factors affect the plant uptake of NPs such as physicochemical characteristics of NPs, plant species type, plant growth/physiological stage, root exudates, soil properties (pH, organic matter, salt ions, and microflora), *etc.*

### Nanocarbons

Carbon dots (CDs) are one type of nanocarbons, which function as electron donors and acceptors, so they can influence electron transportation positively (Wang *et al.* 2018, Xu *et al.* 2020). In PSI, Fe-S proteins act as the carriers of electrons. Wang *et al.* (2018) declared that CDs can attach to these proteins and accelerate electron transport (Wang *et al.* 2018). Exposure to  $> 0.02 \text{ mg CDs mL}^{-1}$  led to a positive impact on the growth of mung bean sprouts, which could be attributed to enhanced electron transport (Wang *et al.* 2018). Carbon dots can also affect Chl contents, photosynthesis, and the Rubisco activities of plants (Wang *et al.* 2018). Spraying  $3,900 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  of CDs nanocapsules significantly increased the photosynthetic rate of *Lactuca sativa* (Xu *et al.* 2020). The Chl pigments

in *Lablab purpureus* plants were shown to absorb more light *via* increasing the concentration of carbon NPs, and application of  $1.2\text{--}2.5 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$  of carbon NPs led to the maximum light absorption (Swapna *et al.* 2019). Carbon dots may also influence plants negatively. For example, the application of CDs decreased the activities of photosynthetic enzymes in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Chen *et al.* 2018). Carbon nanotubes (CNTs) increased the number of stomata, electron transport rate, and ultimately the photosynthetic rate in rice (Joshi *et al.* 2020). These CNTs caused an increase in Chl content and leaf surface area of tobacco (Mahto *et al.* 2019).

Single-walled carbon nanotubes (SWCNTs) and multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) are two kinds of CNTs that can positively affect plant metabolism and photosynthesis (Ghorbanpour and Hadian 2015, Hatami *et al.* 2017, Samadi *et al.* 2020, 2021). The SWCNTs absorb a wide range of light, including ultraviolet, visible light, and infrared, which can promote photosynthesis (Giraldo *et al.* 2014, Wang *et al.* 2020). The electron transport from PSII to PSI can also be improved by SWCNTs (Gong and Zhao 2018). The photosynthetic activities were tripled in *Arabidopsis thaliana* plants subjected to SWCNTs (Giraldo *et al.* 2014). Similar effects have been documented for MWCNTs. Rice plants exposed to MWCNTs ( $70, 80, \text{ and } 90 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ ) had increased total Chl contents (Joshi *et al.* 2020). Likewise, MWCNTs application at concentrations of  $0.1, 0.25, \text{ and } 0.5 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ , caused an increase in the Chl concentration of

amaranth plants (Jia *et al.* 2019). MWCNTs application ( $> 50 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) was shown to increase light absorption, along with photosynthetic rate and function in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Fan *et al.* 2018). Adverse effects have also been established in plants subjected to MWCNTs. Application of MWCNTs at  $100 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  had no significant effect on carrot seedlings, whereas a higher concentration ( $200 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) led to a 10% reduction in the growth of the seedlings (Park and Ahn 2016).

Graphene NPs are another important type of carbon-based NPs that have agricultural applications (Ghorbanpour *et al.* 2018, Hatami *et al.* 2019b). *Capsicum annuum* plants exposed to graphene nanosheets showed an elevated photosynthetic rate (Younes *et al.* 2019). Also,  $0.4 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  of graphene oxide (GO) NPs decreased the Chl content of pea plants (Chen *et al.* 2019). GO NPs can also decrease light absorption in plants (Nogueira *et al.* 2015). Fullerenols (C60) NPs are another type of nanocarbon material, which were demonstrated to increase the Chl content in wheat (Wang *et al.* 2016). Approximately, half of the global photosynthesis occurs in aquatic ecosystems, hence, it is crucial to investigate the effects of different NPs on photosynthetic organisms inhabiting these ecosystems (Zhang *et al.* 2017). Carbon dots (CDs) were demonstrated to promote the productivity of microalgal species including *Haematococcus pluvialis* ( $5, 10 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ ) and *Chlorella* sp. KR-1 ( $5 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ ), whereas a higher CDs concentration ( $50 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ ) decreased the growth rate of *Chlorella vulgaris* (Choi *et al.* 2020). Graphene oxide NPs, at  $1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , were shown to adversely affect the growth of the freshwater plant *Lemna minor* (Hu *et al.* 2018). The Chl content decreased in the microalga *Raphidocelis subcapitata* exposed to GO NPs (Nogueira *et al.* 2015). Upon exposure to C60 NPs, Chl *a* and Chl *b* contents decreased in *Lemna gibba* ( $2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) and *Scenedesmus obliquus* ( $> 0.18 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) (Santos *et al.* 2013, Tao *et al.* 2015).

### Metal/metal oxide nanoparticles

Although most metal NPs may harm plants, some metal oxide NPs can improve the production of chemical energy in photosynthetic systems. Some metal-based NPs, such as CuO, ZnO, and Ag NPs, may disrupt Chl biosynthesis, however, some other NPs, *e.g.*, TiO<sub>2</sub> and Au NPs, were shown to increase the Chl content in several plant species (Večeřová *et al.* 2016). Metal NPs can also increase the Chl content of plants, helping them absorb more energy and consequently enhance their photosynthesis (Wang *et al.* 2018, Kataria *et al.* 2019).

### Titanium dioxide nanoparticles (TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs)

TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs possess a high capability in increasing light absorption (especially UV light), photosynthesis, electron transport, and also protecting Chl molecules (Park and Ahn 2016, Morelli *et al.* 2018, Mahto *et al.* 2019, Faraji and Sepehri 2020). However, TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs may affect various plants differently (Hatami *et al.* 2014). For example, TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs can disrupt electron transport to PSII and their effect

depends on the application/uptake type and also the plant species (Conway *et al.* 2015). Yang *et al.* (2007) evaluated the effects of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs (0.25%) on the oxygen evolution of spinach leaves and found that exposure to TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs and their bulk significantly enhanced the oxygen-evolving rate. However, the oxygen evolution was restrained in plants grown under N-deficient conditions. Moreover, the oxygen-evolving rate in plants exposed to TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs was much higher than bulk TiO<sub>2</sub>-treated and untreated controls under such conditions, representing that application of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs may intensely ameliorate the adverse impacts of N-deficiency on the oxygen evolution of plants. Increased oxygen-evolution rate in leaves following exposure to TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs was attributed to the improved light absorption and photochemical reaction activity (Yang *et al.* 2007), which is consistent with enhancement of chlorophyll synthesis and sensitization of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs in chloroplasts (Gao *et al.* 2006). Both TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs and bulk TiO<sub>2</sub> may enhance plastid pigments of chloroplasts to absorb and transfer light energy and excite electrons, causing water photolysis (Hong *et al.* 2005).

Generally, the application of Ti not only improved soybean photosynthesis by increasing leaf area and leaf chlorophyll contents, but also increased shade tolerance and yield of soybean under maize–soybean relay strip intercropping conditions (Hussain *et al.* 2021). However, TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs might have positive structural and biochemical effects on some crops, whereas they could harm other plant/algae species (Tighe-Neira *et al.* 2018). Furthermore, the positive effects of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs on plants are more pronounced as compared to the bulk TiO<sub>2</sub>, which is attributed to their size differences (Cox *et al.* 2016). Table 1 presents the effects of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs on photosynthesis machinery in different plant/algae species.

### Silver nanoparticles (Ag NPs)

Ag NPs are one of the most important NPs because of their antimicrobial properties and also their extensive use in care products, food industry, agriculture, building materials, *etc.* (Hatami and Ghorbanpour 2013, Qian *et al.* 2013, Hajian *et al.* 2022). Exposure to Ag NPs can lead to maximum absorption of visible light in certain plants (Wang *et al.* 2020). Ag NPs and AgNO<sub>3</sub> NPs are two main types of Ag NPs, both of which were shown to significantly reduce the photosynthetic performance, total chlorophyll, carotenoids, and total protein content and also increased the oxidative stress in cucumber (*Cucumis sativus*); the adverse effects were greater in plants treated with AgNO<sub>3</sub> NPs (Tripathi *et al.* 2017a). Likewise, exposure to  $400 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  of Ag NPs or AgNO<sub>3</sub> NPs led to significant reductions in the Chl contents and growth parameters in *Brassica nigra*, however, Ag NPs were demonstrated to be more toxic than AgNO<sub>3</sub> NPs as revealed by monitoring the Ag accumulation as well as the lipid peroxidation and the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> content of root and shoot tissues (Amooaghiae *et al.* 2018).

Ag NPs, in low concentrations, are useful for improving the biosynthesis of Chl and Chl fluorescence parameters in plants (Ghorbanpour and Hatami 2014,

Table 1. The effects of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles (NPs) on photosynthesis in different plant/algae species.

Plant/algae species	NPs concentration	NPs size	Growth medium	Effects	Reference
<i>Zea mays</i>	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Increased in photosynthetic pigments and light absorption	Park and Ahn (2016)
<i>Zea mays</i>	100 mg $\text{kg}^{-1}$	592 $\pm$ 7 nm	Soil	No effect on Chl <i>a</i> , Chl <i>b</i> , and carotenoids	Zhao <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Zea mays</i>	Not mentioned	30.1–60 nm	Not mentioned	Decreased in leaves growth and transpiration rate	Mishra <i>et al.</i> (2014)
<i>Dracocephalum moldavica</i>	100 mg $\text{L}^{-1}$	Not mentioned	Hydroponic growth medium containing cocopit and perlite	Increased in Chl <i>a</i> , Chl <i>b</i> , and carotenoids	Gohari <i>et al.</i> (2020)
<i>Mentha piperita</i>	100 mg $\text{L}^{-1}$	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Increased in essential oil contents	Samadi <i>et al.</i> (2014)
<i>Abelmoschus esculentus</i> (L.) Moench	800 mg $\text{kg}^{-1}$	50 nm	Loamy soil	Decreased in Chl <i>a</i> , Chl <i>b</i> , and total Chl content	Ogunkunle <i>et al.</i> (2020)
<i>Mentha piperita</i> L.	150 mg $\text{L}^{-1}$	< 21 nm	Pot, filled with homogenous mixture of soil and organic manure	Increased in Chl contents, photosynthetic rate, and Rubisco activity	Ahmad <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>Petroselinum crispum</i>	10,000; 20,000; 30,000; and 40,000 mg $\text{L}^{-1}$	83.7 nm	Murashige and Skoog medium	Increased in Chl content	Hu <i>et al.</i> (2020)
<i>Spinacia oleracea</i>	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Chl formation, increasing in Rubisco activity and photosynthesis	Kataria <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Spinacia oleracea</i>	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Increasing Chl content and photosynthetic activities	Baker <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Spinacia oleracea</i>	Not mentioned	5 nm	Experimental flower pot	Increasing net photosynthetic rate and accumulation of organic substances and Rubisco activity	Gao <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Spinacia oleracea</i>	0.25%	5 nm	Not mentioned	Damaging chloroplast and decreasing photosynthesis	Missaoui <i>et al.</i> (2017)
<i>Linum usitatissimum</i>	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Increasing in Chl and carotenoid content	Kataria <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Increasing photosynthesis	Kataria <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	0.05, 0.1 g $\text{L}^{-1}$	16.04 nm	Nutrition pot inside heated solar greenhouse	Enhanced net photosynthetic rate	Qi <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	0.2 g $\text{L}^{-1}$	16.04 nm	Nutrition pot inside heated solar greenhouse	Decreased in net photosynthetic rate	Qi <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>Ulmus elongata</i>	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Decreased in quantum function of PSII and electron transportation rate	Kataria <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Spirodella polyrrhiza</i>	1, 5, 10 mg $\text{L}^{-1}$	8 nm	Glass aquaria, a specific culture medium	Decreased in total Chl content	Movafeghi <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>Lactuca sativa</i>	1, 10, and 100 mg $\text{L}^{-1}$	Not mentioned	Hydroponic	No significant effect on plastid pigments	Tan <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Clarkia unguiculata</i>	100 mg $\text{L}^{-1}$	27 $\pm$ 4 nm	Soil	Disturbance in $\text{CO}_2$ absorption	Cox <i>et al.</i> (2016)
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	Not mentioned	25 nm	Slightly modified OECD algal medium	Decreased in total Chl content	Dauda <i>et al.</i> (2017)
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	50, 100, 150, and 200 ppm	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Hinder the photosynthetic activities	Ghazaei and Shariati (2020)

<i>Chlorella ellipsoidea</i>	0.1 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$	< 21 nm	Algal medium	Increased in Chl <i>a</i> , Chl <i>b</i> , and total Chl contents	Matouke <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>Chlorella pyrenoidosa</i>	20 mg $\text{L}^{-1}$	12.0 $\pm$ 3.5 nm	Erlenmeyer flasks	Increased in Chl <i>a</i> content	Middepogu <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>Dunaliella salina</i>	50, 100, 150, and 200 ppm	Not mentioned	Johnson modified medium	Decreased in Chl content and photosynthesis efficiency	Ghazaei and Shariati (2020)
<i>Dunaliella tertiolecta</i>	50, 100, 150, and 200 ppm	Not mentioned	Johnson modified medium	Decreased in Chl content and photosynthesis efficiency	Ghazaei and Shariati (2020)
<i>Dunaliella tertiolecta</i>	0.1–10 mg $\text{L}^{-1}$	25 nm	Algal medium	No effect on photosynthetic pigments	Morelli <i>et al.</i> (2018)

Sami *et al.* 2020). Exposure to Ag NPs at 20, 40, and 60 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$  led to increased Chl contents in *Zea mays* and *Phaseolus vulgaris*, while higher concentrations (80 and 100 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) led to adverse effects on the Chl content (Salama 2012). Rubisco activities increased in tobacco plants treated with Ag NPs and AgNO<sub>3</sub> NPs (25, 50, and 76  $\mu\text{M}$ ) (Tkalec *et al.* 2017). Similarly, Ag NPs increased the Chl contents in carrots (Park and Ahn 2016). Likewise, a dose-dependent effect was observed in *Brassica juncea* plants exposed to Ag NPs, *i.e.*, 25, 50, and 100 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$  of Ag NPs, increased the Chl contents and PSII efficiency, whereas these parameters decreased by higher Ag NPs concentrations of 200 and 400 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$  (Sharma *et al.* 2012). Ag NPs also increased the Chl and carotenoid contents in *Pelargonium zonale* (Kataria *et al.* 2019). Moreover, exposure to Ag NPs increased the Chl content and quantum efficiency in *Brassica juncea* (Torrent *et al.* 2020). Treatment with 25–50 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$  of Ag NPs enhanced the number of shoots per explant, shoot height, and Chl content in micropropagation of vanilla plants in temporary submerged systems (Spinoso-Castillo *et al.* 2017).

Ag NPs can also affect photosynthesis negatively. Here, we briefly mention several examples of negative Ag NPs-plant interactions. A high concentration of Ag and Ag<sup>+</sup> NPs (0.5 and 3 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) decreased the Chl contents in *A. thaliana* (Qian *et al.* 2013). The negative effects of Ag<sup>+</sup> are generally more than Ag NPs (Qian *et al.* 2013). Exposure to 1,000 and 3,000  $\mu\text{M}$  of Ag NPs decreased growth parameters, photosynthetic pigments, and Chl fluorescence in *Pisum sativum* (Tripathi *et al.* 2017b). Ag NPs caused an overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the leaves of cucumber plants, leading to decreased photosynthetic activities (Wang *et al.* 2020). ROS directly damage chloroplasts in stressed plants (Tripathi *et al.* 2017c). The acceptor site of PSI in the chloroplast has been found as a major source of free radicals (ROS), which are responsible for the oxidative damage-induced reduction in photosynthetic activity and destruction of photosystems as well as improper regulation of PSI electron transport in wheat seedlings exposed to AgNPs (at 5 mM) (Rastogi *et al.* 2019b). Ag NPs reduced the rate of electron transport chain, CO<sub>2</sub> absorption, and the photochemical efficiency of PSII, while causing an increase in the nonphotochemical quenching in *Vicia faba* plants (Falco *et al.* 2020). Application of Ag NPs led to decreased transpiration in *Cucurbita pepo* (Mishra *et al.* 2014). The concentrations of Chl *a* and Chl *b* decreased

in Brazilian waterweed (*Egeria densa*) upon exposure to Ag NPs (Winkelmann *et al.* 2017). Treatments with Ag NPs (20–50 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) harmed mung plants and decreased their total Chl contents (Mahto *et al.* 2019). Application of Ag NPs (10–15 nm) at high concentrations ( $> 500$  mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) significantly decreased the Chl contents in tomato plants (Pagano *et al.* 2018). In rice, Ag NPs (0.2, 0.5, and 1 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) decreased the total Chl and carotenoid contents (Nair and Chung 2014). A decrease in maximum electron transport rate was observed in *Vicia faba* plants subjected to Ag NPs (Falco *et al.* 2020). Inhibition of photosynthetic pathways was observed in *A. thaliana* plants treated with 0.5 and 1 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$  of Ag NPs (Cox *et al.* 2016). Both Ag and AgNO<sub>3</sub> NPs were demonstrated to have a negative impact on Chl *a*, Chl *b*, and carotenoid contents in tobacco seedlings, however, the magnitude of the negative effects was greater in plants subjected to AgNO<sub>3</sub> NPs (Peharec Štefaníć *et al.* 2018). Likewise, both Ag and AgNO<sub>3</sub> NPs significantly decreased the Chl content and photosynthesis in *Cucumis sativus* (Tripathi *et al.* 2017a).

Generally, Ag NPs that are coated with PVP, PEG or citrate, display reduced phytotoxicity (Torrent *et al.* 2020). Exposure of Ag NPs-citrate (Ag NPs coated with citrate) had no significant effect on Chl contents of *Physcomitrella patens*, whereas Ag NPs-PVP [coated with poly(N-vinyl-2-pyrrolidone)] increased the Chl *a* content in these plants (Liang *et al.* 2018). However, Chl *a* and Chl *b* contents of these plants significantly reduced upon exposure to Ag NPs without surface coating (Liang *et al.* 2018). Although both Ag NPs and Ag NPs-PVP decreased the transpiration rate and stomatal conductance in *Lactuca sativa*, the negative effects of Ag NPs-PVP were lesser than that of the uncoated Ag NPs. Similar to terrestrial plants, Ag NPs may cause negative or positive effects on aquatic plants and algae. Application of Ag NPs decreased the Chl content and PSII function of the marine diatom *Skeletonema costatum* (Tighe-Neira *et al.* 2018). A low concentration of Ag NPs (0.05 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) increased the Chl *a* content, whereas a higher Ag NPs concentration (5 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) decreased the Chl contents in *S. costatum* (Huang *et al.* 2016). Treatment with Ag NPs, at 40–50 mg  $\text{L}^{-1}$ , reduced the electron transportation from Q<sub>A</sub> to Q<sub>B</sub> in PSII in the green alga *Chlamydomonas* (Nam *et al.* 2018). Application of both Ag and AgNO<sub>3</sub> NPs led to a negative effect on the photosynthesis efficiency of *Euglena gracilis* (freshwater single-celled alga) (Li *et al.* 2015). Ag NPs (10  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) also decreased the total Chl content in the green eukaryotic

microalga *Chlorella vulgaris* (Tayemeh *et al.* 2020). Ag NPs (1–10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) increased the Chl content in the aquatic flowering plant *Eichhornia crassipes* (Rani *et al.* 2016).

### Zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs)

Zinc oxide (ZnO) NPs are one of the most important NPs, because of their large surface area, low toxicity, and especially their unique physicochemical properties (Baker *et al.* 2019). A broad range of studies has shown that ZnO NPs may promote or disrupt photosynthesis (Table 2). For example, when *Anabaena* sp. plants were exposed to ZnO NPs, their photosynthesis and other metabolic activities were adversely affected (Tang *et al.* 2015). Other Zn NPs such as ZnS NPs also affect photosynthesis. For example, 125, 250, and 500 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of ZnS NPs decreased the Chl content in pea plants, whereas these NPs increased the Chl content in mung beans compared to controls (Thapa *et al.* 2019). Enhanced Chl and/or carotenoid contents have been observed in different plant species subjected to ZnO NPs including *Solanum lycopersicum* (Singh *et al.* 2016), *Coriandrum sativum* (Pullagurala *et al.* 2018), and *Cucumis sativus* (Kataria *et al.* 2019).

### Cerium oxide nanoparticles (CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs)

Cerium oxide is one of the most important nanoceria. CeO<sub>2</sub> can penetrate the leaf cells and also penetrate chloroplasts as well as thylakoids, which can suppress electron transportation to PSII (Conway *et al.* 2015). The application of CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs decreased the photosynthetic rate by reducing the Chl content in wheat (Wang *et al.* 2016). Exposure to 200 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs significantly decreased the photosynthetic rate and transpiration in *Cucumis sativus* (Tan *et al.* 2019). Treatment with 1,000–2,000 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs also decreased the Chl content in *Lactuca sativa* (Lizzi *et al.* 2019). Likewise, CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs caused a decrease in photosynthesis in *Clarkia unguiculata* (Conway *et al.* 2015) and *Cucumis sativus* (Tighe-Neira *et al.* 2018). However, as we mentioned previously, NPs concentration and plant species are key players of the net outcome arising from NPs–plant interactions (Tighe-Neira *et al.* 2018, Abbas *et al.* 2020). For example exposure to 2,000 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs decreased the Chl content, plant growth, and photosynthesis in wheat, however, treatment with 1,000 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs was accompanied by the maximum photosynthetic rate, along with enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation quantum yield ( $\phi_{CO_2}$ ) and stomatal conductance (Abbas *et al.* 2020). CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs may also cause a deformation in photosynthetic tissues. For example, wheat plants exposed to CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs (100 and 400 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) had swollen chloroplasts (Tan *et al.* 2019). Lower concentrations of CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs can have a positive effect on photosynthesis (Abbas *et al.* 2020). Treatment with 300 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs increased the Chl content, net photosynthetic rate, and Rubisco activity in *Fragaria ananassa* (Dai *et al.* 2020). The application of CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs can increase the uptake of Mg<sup>2+</sup> ions, which are a key structural component of the Chl molecule. For instance, the application of 400 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs increased

photosynthesis in cucumber plants *via* increasing their Mg<sup>2+</sup> uptake (Rossi *et al.* 2016). An increase in the Chl content and photosynthesis efficiency occurred when *Brassica napus* L. plants were subjected to 200 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs (Zhao *et al.* 2020). Treatment with 500 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs had a positive effect on wheat growth by increasing photosynthesis, transpiration, and stomatal conductance (Abbas *et al.* 2020). The effect of CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs may also depend on the plant species. For example, CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs did not affect the photosynthetic activity of *Raphanus sativa* (Corral-Diaz *et al.* 2014), whereas decreased the Chl and carotenoid contents in *Phaseolus vulgaris* (Majumdar *et al.* 2016). Cao *et al.* (2017) investigated the impact of uncoated and PVP-coated CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs on soybean. Their results revealed that uncoated CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs had no significant impact on Chl *a* or Chl *b*, whereas PVP-coated CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs increased the Chl *a* contents of plants (Cao *et al.* 2017). CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs coated with citric acid also increased Chl *a* and Chl *b* contents in *Solanum lycopersicum* (Barrios *et al.* 2016). CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs application had no impact on the algae *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* and *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Sendra *et al.* 2018).

### Silicon nanoparticles (Si NPs)

Silicon (Si) NPs have the potential to increase plant performance (Rastogi *et al.* 2019a, Rahimi *et al.* 2021). A positive impact on photosynthesis and gas exchange has been documented in Si NPs–plant interactions (Mahto *et al.* 2019). For example, Si NPs increased the total Chl contents and therefore photosynthesis in *Zea mays* L. (Suriyapraba *et al.* 2012). Also, SiO<sub>2</sub> NPs showed the same impact on plants as Si NPs (Siddiqui *et al.* 2014). It has been acknowledged that SiO<sub>2</sub> NPs display a positive impact on transpiration, stomatal conductance, PSII, and electron transport chain activity as well as the photosynthetic rate (Siddiqui *et al.* 2014, Mahto *et al.* 2019). Elevated contents of Chl *a* and Chl *b* were detected in sugarcane plants treated with SiO<sub>2</sub> NPs (Tayemeh *et al.* 2020). However, SiO<sub>2</sub> NPs caused no significant change in photosynthetic pigments of maize (Zhao *et al.* 2019). Treatment with 30 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of Si quantum dots increased the Chl *a* and Chl *b* contents in *Lactuca sativa* plants (Li *et al.* 2020). SiC NPs, at concentrations below 150 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, increased the light absorption, growth, and lipid accumulation in the microalga *Scenedesmus* sp., however, 250 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of SiC NPs decreased the growth and lipid accumulation in this algal species (Ren *et al.* 2020).

### Gold nanoparticles (Au NPs)

Au NPs are important because of their outstanding properties such as easy synthesis, low toxicity, and visibility by naked eyes due to their optical properties (Torres *et al.* 2018). Au NPs can have both negative and positive effects on the photosynthetic activities of plants (Mezacasa *et al.* 2020). Generally, wavelengths beyond 700 nm are not useful for photosynthesis, however, Au NPs can increase the light absorption not only along with the visible lights (400–700 nm) but in wavelengths above 700 nm (Eroglu

Table 2. The effects of ZnO nanoparticles (NPs) on photosynthesis machinery in different plant/algae species.

Plant/algae species	NPs concentration	NPs size	Growth medium	Effects	Reference
<i>Arachis hypogaea</i>	1,000 mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	Not mentioned	Soil	Increasing Chl content	Kataria <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Cucumis sativus</i>	400 and 800 mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	Not mentioned	Soil	Increasing Chl content	Kataria <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Improved carotenoids content, decreased in Chl and photosynthesis	Kataria <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Coriandrum sativum</i>	100 mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	24 ± 3 nm	Soil	Increasing Chl and carotenoids content and photosynthesis	Pullagurala <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>Glycine max</i>	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Decreasing Chl content	Pullagurala <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>	100 mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Enhanced carotenoids content	Pullagurala <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>Zea mays</i>	800 mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	Not mentioned	Soil	Decreasing net photosynthetic rate	Zhao <i>et al.</i> (2015)
<i>Abelmoschus esculentus</i>	100 ppm	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Increasing Chl <i>a</i> , Chl <i>b</i> , and total Chl in leaves	Salama <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	> 200 mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	20–30 nm	Soil	Decreasing Chl content	Iftikhar <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	1.2 mM	1–100 nm	Sand culture	Significant increase in Chl <i>a</i> and Chl <i>b</i> contents	Singh <i>et al.</i> (2016)
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	50 mg L <sup>-1</sup>	20 and 100 nm	Soil	Increasing stomatal conductance and intracellular CO <sub>2</sub> levels	Faizan <i>et al.</i> (2021)
<i>Saccharum officinarum</i> L.	Not mentioned	< 100 nm	Not mentioned	Improving Chl index and PSII function	Elsheery <i>et al.</i> (2020)
<i>Sesamum indicum</i>	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Zink deficient soil	Increasing photosynthesis pigments	Salama <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Anabaena flos-aquae</i>	10 <sup>-3</sup> M	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Increased in photosynthetic activity	da Rocha <i>et al.</i> (2020)
<i>Anabaena</i> sp.	0.74 ± 0.01 mg L <sup>-1</sup>	40–50 nm	BG11 culture medium	Making disorder in photosynthesis and other metabolic activities	Tang <i>et al.</i> (2015)
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	200 mg L <sup>-1</sup>	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Decreasing in respiration efficiency and photosynthesis, causing shading effect	Ren <i>et al.</i> (2020)

*et al.* 2013, Torres *et al.* 2018). For instance, the application of Au NPs resulted in an increased Chl content and photosynthesis in *Brassica juncea* L. (Mahto *et al.* 2019). By increasing the concentration of Au NPs, Chl production increased in *Vicia faba* (Mezacasa *et al.* 2020). In *Vigna radiata* plants exposed to 1 µg mg<sup>-1</sup> of gold nanoparticles (GNPs), aspartate-capped GNPs (GNPA), BSA-capped GNPs (GNPB), and citrate-capped GNPs (GNPC), the Chl content increased in GNPB and GNPC treatments compared to the GNPA and controls (Das *et al.* 2017).

### Copper nanoparticles (Cu NPs)

Both negative and positive impacts on plants have been established for Cu NPs. Cu accumulation (especially Cu NPs accumulation) in leaves may change the shape of plant stoma and chloroplasts, and also decrease the thylakoids in plants, such as *Oryza sativa* L., *Elodea densa*, and *Landoltia punctata* (Tighe-Neira *et al.* 2018). CuO NPs inhibited photosynthesis by affecting PSII, causing a decrease in electron transport rate, number of thylakoids, and transpiration in spring barley (Rajput *et al.* 2018).

Application of 2,000 µg L<sup>-1</sup> of CuO NPs caused cellular toxicity in tomato plants and significantly decreased their growth (Ahmed *et al.* 2018). CuO NPs (10,000 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) decreased the number and size of stoma in spring barley (Tan *et al.* 2019). Likewise, CuO NPs treatment had a significant negative impact on photosynthetic activities of *Quercus robur* (Rajput *et al.* 2018). Treatment with 500 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of CuO NPs decreased the total Chl contents in wheat (Tan *et al.* 2019). However, CuO NPs may have a positive effect on photosynthesis. For example, Cu NPs were demonstrated to increase the transpiration, stomatal conductance, and rate of electron transport chain in *Capsicum annuum* (Rawat *et al.* 2019). In addition, CuO NPs increased the Chl contents and photosynthetic activities in mung beans (Kataria *et al.* 2019). Treatment with CuO NPs inhibited photosynthesis and decreased the PSII operational quantum yield in the aquatic flowering plant *Lemna gibba* (gibbous duckweed) (Sharma and Uttam 2017). Total carotenoid content decreased significantly in duckweed upon exposure to a low concentration of CuO NPs (Tan *et al.* 2019). In the single-celled green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, the Chl *a* and Chl *b* contents

decreased by exposure to CuO NPs (Middepogu *et al.* 2018). Cu NPs did not significantly affect the maximal quantum yield of PSII ( $F_v/F_m$ ) in barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L. landrace Arabi Aswad), however, enhanced flavonol content with concomitant improvement in ascorbate peroxidase activity was found to be insufficient to enforce a light control over the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> content under Cu NPs stress conditions (Shaw *et al.* 2014).

### Other metal nanoparticles

Other metal NPs have not been widely investigated in terms of their interactions with plants. Mn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs can increase the photosynthetic potential of mesophyll protoplasts (Wang *et al.* 2020). Mn NPs were shown to positively affect photosynthesis in *Vigna radiata* by improving the photophosphorylation activity in the electron transport chain (Kataria *et al.* 2019). Similarly, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> NPs (20 nm) increased the electron chain efficiency, PSII performance, and photosynthesis in the aquatic plant *Lemna minor* (Ahmed *et al.* 2018). Chitosan NPs improved the net photosynthetic rate and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of coffee (Kataria *et al.* 2019).

Ni(OH)<sub>2</sub> had no significant impact on soybeans and *Prosopis* sp., whereas NiO NPs decreased photosynthesis (Mishra *et al.* 2014). Ni ions displace Mg ions and alter the structure of Chl molecules, which was suggested to be the mechanism underlying the decreased photosynthetic efficiency in *Lycium barbarum* (Pinto *et al.* 2019). Application of 120 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of NiO NPs decreased the Chl contents in barley (Pinto *et al.* 2019). In the microalga *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata*, NiO NPs decreased the electron transport rate and photosynthetic efficiency (Sousa *et al.* 2018).

Platinum (Pt) NPs decreased the Chl content and growth of the single-celled green algal species *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Röhder *et al.* 2014) and *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata* (Książyk *et al.* 2015). Nonetheless, our knowledge of the effects of Pt NPs on photosynthesis is quite limited (Tighe-Neira *et al.* 2018).

Selenium (Se) NPs increased the total Chl contents in *Punica grantum* cv. Malase Saveh (Zahedi *et al.* 2019). Moreover, Se NPs were proven to increase the leaf area in both cluster bean (300–400 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) and orange trees (50 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) (Zahedi *et al.* 2019). However, it has been acknowledged that Se (IV) reveals dual effects on pigments content, gas-exchange parameters, net photosynthetic rate ( $P_N$ ), and PSII photochemical efficiency ( $F_v/F_m$ ) of *Brassica napus* cultivars in a dose-dependent manner (Ul Hassan *et al.* 2018, 2019a,b).

The protein-loaded mPEG-PLGA NPs increased the photosynthetic parameters such as Chl content in wheat (Gao *et al.* 2018). CdO NPs decreased CO<sub>2</sub> absorption and also inhibited energy transportation from PSII to Calvin cycle in barley (Večerová *et al.* 2016). CdS NPs reduced the photosynthetic activities in *Euglena gracilis* by causing cell death (da Rocha *et al.* 2020). Photosynthesis, transpiration rate, and also stomatal conductance decreased in soybean and maize plants subjected to La<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>

NPs, however, these adverse effects were more severe in maize (C<sub>4</sub> plant), compared to soybean (C<sub>3</sub> plant) (Liu *et al.* 2020).

### Magnetic nanoparticles

Nanoparticles with magnetic properties can be used to stimulate the photosynthetic activities of plants (Baker *et al.* 2019, Tombuloglu *et al.* 2019). Fe, Ni, Co, and their chemical combinations are some examples of magnetic NPs (Tombuloglu *et al.* 2019).

Iron is essential for plants and its deficiency can reduce the Chl content, leading to reduction or inhibition of photosynthesis (Mohammadi *et al.* 2018, 2020; Mahto *et al.* 2019). Fe NPs can also increase the photosynthetic potential of mesophyll (Wang *et al.* 2020). Treatment with Fe NPs increased the essential oil content of *Mentha piperita* (Askary *et al.* 2017). Enhanced Chl concentration was observed in *A. thaliana* plants treated with Fe NPs (Marusenko *et al.* 2013). Application of 30–60 ppm of Fe NPs increased the Chl surface in soybean (Thapa *et al.* 2019). Exposure to Fe NPs increased the photosynthetic rate, PSII activity, and shoot growth in spinach (*Spinacia oleracea*) (Jeyasubramanian *et al.* 2016, Wang *et al.* 2020). Fe NPs significantly increased the Chl *a* and Chl *b* contents in both *Vigna radiata* and *Hordeum vulgare* (Pagano *et al.* 2018, Tombuloglu *et al.* 2019). Fe NPs were also shown to promote the growth of *Capsicum annuum* plants (Tombuloglu *et al.* 2019). Fe NPs application enhanced the Chl contents in tree species, such as *Citrus maxima* (Li *et al.* 2018, Baker *et al.* 2019) and *Quercus macdougalii* (Tombuloglu *et al.* 2019). Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NPs application also increased Chl *b* in *Zea mays* (Zhao *et al.* 2019). Application of 500 and 1,000 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of Fe NPs increased the photosynthetic rate in soybean (Maswada *et al.* 2018). Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> NPs coated with citric acid also increased the photosynthetic rate in soybean (Kataria *et al.* 2019). As an example of negative Fe NPs–plant interactions, treatment with 72 µM of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> NPs decreased the Chl *a* and Chl *b* contents in *A. thaliana* (Pagano *et al.* 2018). Exposure to superparamagnetic FeO NPs (SPION) increased the Chl content in subapical leaves of soybean (Ghafariyan *et al.* 2013, Kataria *et al.* 2019). However, these NPs showed a shading effect in the algal species *C. reinhartii*, leading to a significant reduction in photosynthesis (Hurtado-Gallego *et al.* 2020). Application of SPIONs also inhibited the Chl production and photosynthesis in the gibbous duckweed *Lemna gibba* (Hurtado-Gallego *et al.* 2020).

Cobalt (Co) NPs are another example of magnetic NPs that were demonstrated to have a positive effect on Chl *a*, Chl *b*, and total Chl of mung bean (*Vigna radiata*) (Ha *et al.* 2020).

### Effects of nanoparticles on stressed plants

Environmental stresses can decrease the photosynthesis indices in plants, however, studies have shown that NPs can prevent or ameliorate the adverse effects of stresses

on plants (Baiazidi-Aghdam *et al.* 2016, Sheikhalipour *et al.* 2021). For example, 1–1,000 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of fullerenols NPs decreased the negative effects of water stress in canola (*Brassica napus*) (Verma *et al.* 2019). Exposure to 200–1,000 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs stimulated the photosynthesis machinery and the total Chl contents in salt-stressed (100 mM) canola plants (Rossi *et al.* 2016). In a different study, CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs application improved the salt stress tolerance of canola by promoting the formation of apoplastic barriers in roots (Rossi *et al.* 2017). Also, the application of SiO<sub>2</sub> NPs increased the Chl content and biomass of *Spinacia oleracea*, as well as mesophyll conductance in *Cucurbita pepo* under salt-stress conditions (Kataria *et al.* 2019, Zhao *et al.* 2020). Si NPs also increased the photosynthetic rate in salt-stressed cucumber and rice (Elsheery *et al.* 2020). The application of 100 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> NPs increased the photosynthetic rate in salt-stressed sorghum (Maswada *et al.* 2018).

Contents of photosynthetic pigments increased in lupin plants under salt stress upon exposure to ZnO NPs (Kataria *et al.* 2019). A combined application of micro- and nano-carbon increased the growth of chickpea plants in Cr-stressed soil (Kumar *et al.* 2020). The PSII activity, Chl content, and plant growth decreased in salt-stressed maize, whereas chitosan NPs mitigated these destructive effects (Yasmeen *et al.* 2018). Although salt stress had negative effects on the photosynthesis of *Dracocephalum moldavica*, TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs treatment reduced these negative effects (Gohari *et al.* 2020). Water deficit and salt-stressed cucumber plants treated with 200 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of Si NPs had significantly higher Chl contents compared to untreated plants; in fact, Si application increased the uptake of Mg, *i.e.*, a key element in Chl structure (Alsaeedi *et al.* 2019).

Drought stress decreased the Chl index and stomatal conductance in sorghum, whereas foliar Ce NPs application improved these photosynthetic parameters (Djanaguiraman *et al.* 2018). In addition, abiotic stresses (excess light, heat, and dark chilling) decreased photosynthesis in *A. thaliana*, while treatment with CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs increased photosynthesis (Wu *et al.* 2017). Exposure to 3,200 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of SiO<sub>2</sub> NPs increased the growth of drought-stressed cotton plants (Zhao *et al.* 2020). UV-B-stressed wheat seedlings exhibited disrupted photosynthesis, whereas Si NPs application promoted their photosynthesis *via* altering the ROS equilibrium (Tripathi *et al.* 2017c). In cold-stressed chickpea, TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs treatment stabilized the cell metabolic processes such as photosynthesis (Hasanpour *et al.* 2015). TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs application led to an enhanced adaptation of chickpea plants to cold stress (Amini *et al.* 2017). However, NPs-treated plants can adapt or cope with environmental perturbations and unfavorable conditions, such as drought, salinity, trace elements, chilling, and heat stress (Ali *et al.* 2021) through different enzymatic and nonenzymatic reactions (Ahmadi *et al.* 2020, Ghorbanpour *et al.* 2020). For example, MWCNTs have been documented to be involved in upregulating stress-specific gene expression such as *HSP90* (Khodakovskaya *et al.* 2011). The possible mechanisms of augmented photosynthesis in stressed plants through the application of NPs (in optimum dose) are illustrated in Fig. 2.

## Combined application of nanoparticles and soil amendments

The combined application of biochar and Ag NPs led to reduced negative impacts on rice plants, in comparison to plants only treated with Ag NPs; in fact, biochar amendment ameliorated the toxic effects of Ag NPs on photosynthetic and physiological parameters in these plants (Abbas *et al.* 2019). Treatment with a low concentration of ZnO NPs with amended citric acid increased the growth of cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* L.) (Cyriac *et al.* 2020). The combination of diuron and CNTs also increased the growth of the green microalga *Chlorella vulgaris* (Schwab *et al.* 2013). Nonetheless, these sorts of combined applications may not necessarily lead to desirable outcomes. For example, treatment with CeO<sub>2</sub> NPs and alginate decreased the Chl *a* fluorescence in maize in all applied concentrations (Zhao *et al.* 2014). Moreover, the EC50 of ZnO NPs, against the filamentous cyanobacterium *Anabaena*, increased in the presence of humic acid (Tang *et al.* 2015).

## Possible mechanisms underlying improvement of photosynthesis by NPs

Multiple mechanisms are involved in the augmentation of plant photosynthesis upon exposure to NPs, however, the exact mechanisms are not sufficiently clear or deeply understood (Kataria *et al.* 2019). The schematic illustration of NPs-induced changes in plant photosynthesis is presented in Fig. 3. As shown, NPs can expand the absorption wavelength range. The photosynthesis process is mainly dependent on the availability of the visible spectrum. However, specific NPs convert near-infrared (IR) and ultraviolet (UV) wavelengths to visible light, resulting in improved electron transport (Liu *et al.* 2019). Light-harvesting NPs may capture and transfer more electrons for tuning photosynthetic efficiency, specifically under light-insufficient conditions (Wu and Lin 2021). Moreover, NPs may enhance the photosynthetic performance mainly by light-dependent (Hill reaction) and light-independent (Calvin cycle) reactions (PSI and PSII activities), leading to greater oxygen evolution and photophosphorylation (Pradhan *et al.* 2015, Swift *et al.* 2019). The NPs-augmented photosynthetic efficiency may arise from the upregulation of key photosynthetic enzymes, such as Rubisco, Rubisco activase, fructose-1,6-bisphosphate phosphatase (FBPase), ribulose-5-phosphate kinase (RBPase), and NADP-glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GPDHase), and phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (PEPC) (Gao *et al.* 2006, Pradhan *et al.* 2015, Liu *et al.* 2019). It has been acknowledged that certain NPs play a vital role in stress defense mechanisms by scavenging stress-induced ROS in a dose-dependent manner (Corral-Diaz *et al.* 2014, Wu *et al.* 2018). Recently, nanobionics has been introduced as a powerful technique to increase the function of photosynthetic organelles of plants by augmenting the light-harvesting ability and enhancing the ROS-scavenging capacity under stress conditions (Giraldo *et al.* 2014, Ghorbanpour and Fahimirad 2017).

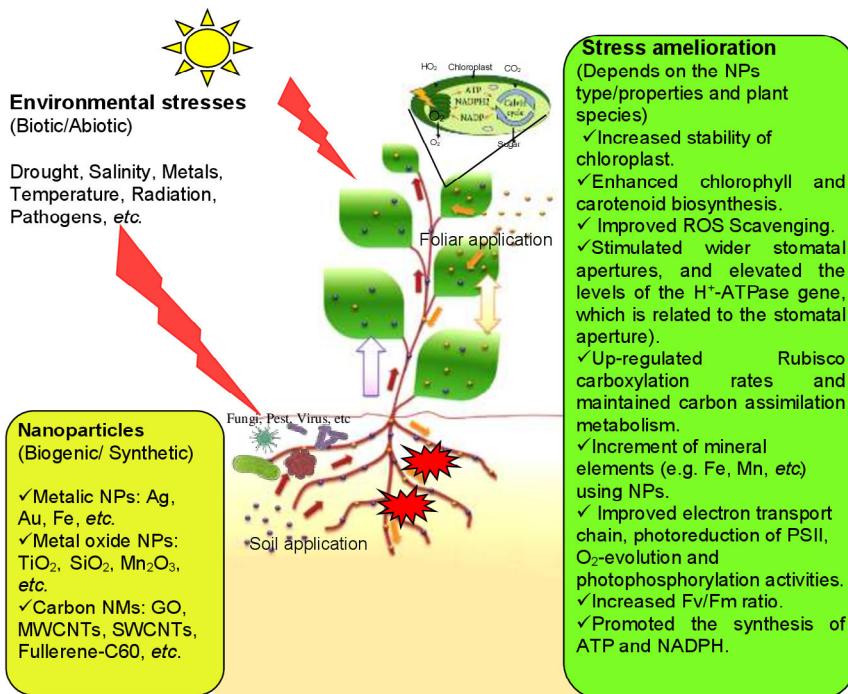


Fig. 2. Possible regulating factors of augmented photosynthesis in stressed plants by application of nanoparticles (NPs) in optimum dose. Exposure to NPs increased the mitigating ability of photosynthetic machinery under different environmental stresses.

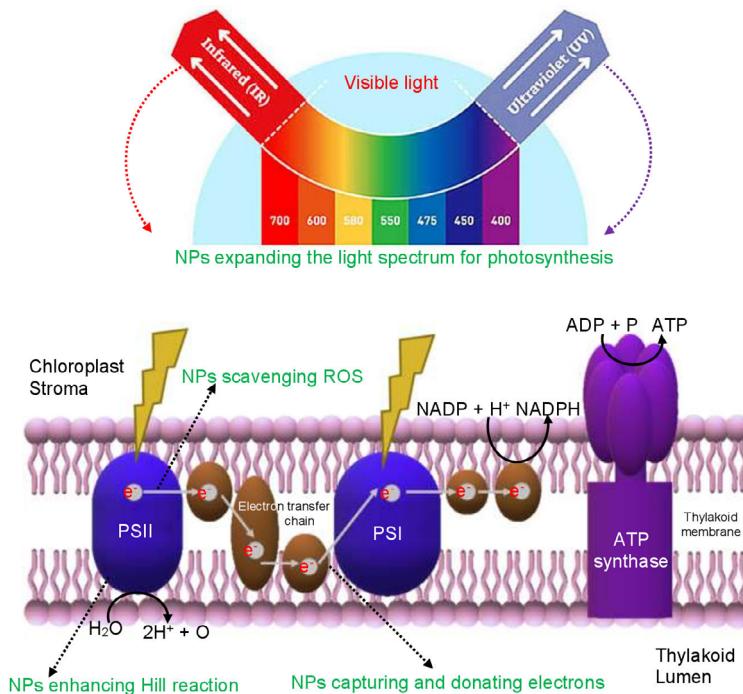


Fig. 3. Role of nanoparticles (NPs) in plant photosynthesis. This model depicts that NPs may augment the photosynthetic efficiency through (1) expanding the absorption wavelength range, (2) enhancing Hill reaction, (3) harvesting more electrons, (4) accelerating electron transfer, (5) scavenging ROS.

## Conclusions and future perspectives

Although nanoparticles (NPs) are widely used in different industries, their potential applications in certain fields such as agriculture and plant science are underestimated. Due to their nanoscale and unique physicochemical properties, NPs can easily and effectively affect diverse biochemical pathways in plant cells. Nanoparticles can

act as stress inhibitors and/or stress inducers. The net outcome of NPs–plant interactions depends on different factors, such as size, concentration, surface charge, and type of NPs, plant species, growth medium, *etc.* Among all other metabolic activities, photosynthesis is one of the significant physiological processes of plants that is vital for the survival of plants, and humans, hence, it is crucial to explore and characterize the impact NPs on photosynthetic

pathways and biosynthesis of photosynthetic pigments. This comprehensive review of the literature showed that NPs might have both positive and negative effects on photosynthesis. Positive effects can be attributed to increases in the biosynthesis of Chl, the activity of Rubisco enzyme, the performance of PSII, enhanced light-harvesting complex (LHC), and CO<sub>2</sub> harvesting, as well as broadening the chloroplast photoabsorption spectrum, whereas the negative effects can occur due to damages to chloroplast structures, decreases in the biosynthesis of Chl and electron transport rate by changing several genes and enzymes such as carbonic anhydrase and PEPC. These possible impacts provide insights into the potential applications of NPs to boost photosynthesis in crops, or strategies/considerations to reduce the negative environmental footprint of NPs. Most studies have focused on the overall outcome of NPs on photosynthesis (e.g., contents of photosynthetic pigments, photosynthetic rate, PSII activity, etc.), while little is known about the details of the NPs–chloroplast interactions (e.g., NPs entry to the chloroplast, main target molecules, and enzymes affected, etc.), which need to be investigated. Furthermore, nearly all studies have been conducted under controlled environmental conditions (glasshouses and laboratories), while it is crucial to explore the impacts of NPs on photosynthetic parameters of plants under field (natural) conditions. Exposure to NPs increases the tolerance level of plants against various biotic and abiotic environmental stresses, but the mechanisms underlying this regulation are not fully understood yet. Further investigations are required to better understand the regulation of gene expression in plants exposed to various metal/metal-oxide and carbon-based NPs under stressful conditions. Mechanisms, by which chloroplasts may be engineered with NPs to extend their functions, called nanobionics, await further investigation.

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