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Meta Analysis on Nanoparticles: Structure, Properties, Prepration, Enviornmental Significance and Application

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ABSTRACT

Nanoparticles have thousands of uses thanks to research activities over the last 20 years. Products with different features. They show different properties depending on their size. These properties make them reliable for many domestic and industrial based tasks, including chemical, pharma and biopharmaceutical applications , electrical researches and environmental based applications. Different types of heavy metal np such as lead, mercury, and tin have been found to be flexible usability and stable, do not degrade easily, and can cause many toxicities.

Keywords: *Application of nanoparticles, nanoparticles, properties of nanoparticles, preparation of nanoparticles structure of nanoparticles, use and misuse of nanoparticles.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Nanotechnology is a field of science that has been known since the last century. Nanotechnology produces many nanometer-scale objects, known as nanoparticles(1)(4)

1.1 Nanoparticles (NPs) are a class of materials containing particles with at least one particle size smaller than 100 nm. This data may be referred to as 0D, 1D, 2D, or 3D, depending on the overall issue. When researchers found that size can impact the physical and chemical characteristics of the nanoparticles, the significance of this information became clear (7)(14).

Since nanoparticles are not simple molecules, they have three layers: (a) SURFACE, which can interact with metal ions, surfactants, polymers, and other small molecules; (b) SHELL, which is completely different chemically from the core; and (c) CORE, which is basically the core of the NP and typically refers to the NP itself.(2)(3)

Nanomaterials can be used in many different fields such as electronics, magnetism and optoelectronics, biomedicine, medicine, cosmetics, energy, environment, catalysis and materials. Investments in nanotechnology research and development continue to increase worldwide due to the potential of this technology(5)(9).

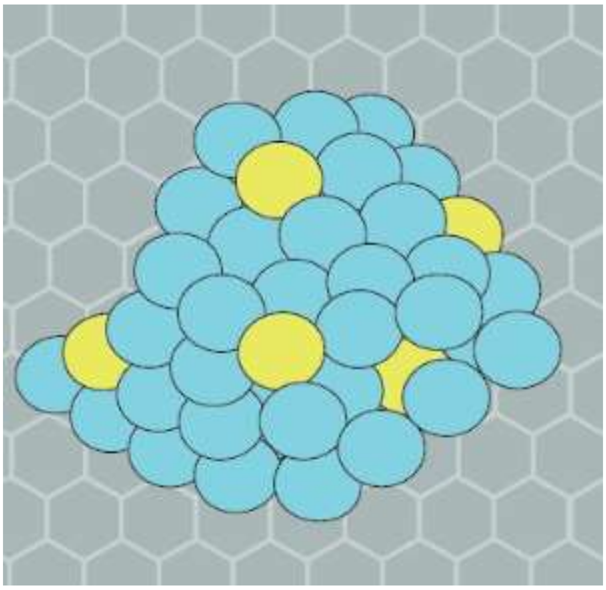

Figure 1: Typical Image of Nanoparticle under Microscope

The environment's soil, water, and air quality might all be greatly enhanced by nanotechnology. It can aid in the development of novel therapeutic technologies and enhance disease identification and comprehension. Gaining insight into the dynamics of nanoparticle growth and formation enables the creation of practical strategies to lower pollution generation and emissions in the first place (6)(11).

Although nanotechnology has the potential to improve the environment, there are concerns that it may also lead to new environmental hazards. The safety of nanotechnology can be ensured through careful monitoring, careful research, and integration of early research(17)(14).

1.2 Nanoparticles in modern medicine-

The benefits of nanoparticles for modern medicine are diverse. Sometimes nanoparticles can make diagnosis and treatment easy and effective in many impossible cases. However, nanoparticles also cause environmental and social challenges, especially in terms of toxicity. This review aims to highlight the importance of nanoparticles for modern medicine and discuss the environmental and social effects of their use(8)(9).

This topic is designed to provide an overview of the role of nanoparticles in medicine. Additionally, this article will focus on technologies that have entered clinical use or in vivo testing. This review will discuss examples of medical uses of nanoparticles in various categories of diagnostics and drug/gene delivery(10)(12).

- **1.2A. Medical Imaging-**

Nanoparticles can improve the biological properties of cells and tissues using fluorescence microscopy as well as modern magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of various parts of the body. Chemical composition of nanoparticles used in two different technologies(13)(15).

- **1.2B. Optical imaging-**

Optical imaging offers great opportunities to spatiotemporally analyze morphology and function in living organisms and has been recognized as most useful for preclinical studies. Clearly, seeing the body up close with these measurement methods increases the ability to diagnose powerful images to provide a unique look at tissue function affected by various diseases(14)(16). Near-infrared bionanoprobes have been rapidly developed for in vivo fluorescence-based optical imaging due to their excellent light sensitivity and low autofluorescence of biological samples. Conventional organic dyes used as probes have been shown to have long-term photobleaching effects(18)(19). Lanthanide-doped nanocrystals are thought to be promising near-infrared nanoprobes. Upconversion nanoparticles can be used for in vivo optical imaging and have better deep tissue penetration than quantum dots.

- **1.2.C. Magnetic resonance imaging(24)(26)-**

Because of their distinct magnetic characteristics at the cellular and molecular level, magnetic nanoparticles are commonly employed as contrast agents in magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). In a magnetic field, nanoparticles are superparamagnetic; yet, when the field is removed, they do not become magnetised. We can now significantly regulate the size, shape, and structure of magnetic nanoparticles thanks to recent technological advancements. Since bacteria, proteins, and genes vary in size at different nanometre scales, its size ranges from 5 to 500 nanometres(20)(21).

Making magnetic nanoparticles is not difficult. Nanoparticles are coated with polymers or liposomes and serve as carriers for drug delivery and various biological interactions with cells. On the other hand, magnetic nanoparticles (such as iron oxide) can be used as radioactivity because the addition of nanoparticles changes the atomic number of the tumor. The addition of magnetic nanoparticles changes the radiation dose and contrast ratio of the tumor(22)(23).

- **1.2D. DRUG AND GENE THERAPY-**

Nanoparticles could be game changers in gene therapy because they can effectively target specific drugs/genes by improving circulation time, improving bioavailability, reducing the likelihood of disease resistance as recognized, and providing the right gene modulators(26)(25).

- **1.2E. HIV/AIDS AND OCCULAR DISESES**

This technology has shown great potential in the diagnosis and treatment of many diseases, especially cancer. Properties of nanocarriers that may be useful for HIV treatment strategies include: (1) improved bioavailability and pharmacokinetic properties of antiviral drugs; (2) reduce drug toxicity and prevent surface efflux pumpmediated resistance, (3) improve efficacy or synergize by combining multiple drugs into one, (4) target HIV reservoirs (e.g., lymphoid tissue) or specific target cells (e.g., CD4+ T cells) and Rate-controlled drug delivery is long(27)(29).

Ocular transport barriers cause problems in drug delivery and include the facial epithelium, tear film, and internal barriers of bloodaqueous humor and bloodretinal barrier(28)(33). Ophthalmic treatment is based on blockage and removal of the choroid, blood vessels and lymphatics. Conventional delivery methods reduce the therapeutic effect, especially for waterinsoluble molecules and sections of the eye. Nanoparticles (NPs) are designed to overcome barriers, increase drug penetration into the target, and deliver drugs at lower doses, prolonging drug concentration without toxicity compared to drugs in the eye. With such specificity and versatility, DNA NPs could lead to a more flexible approach to gene therapy. Nanoparticles can target the cornea, retina, and choroid with both topical and intravitreal injections.This review focuses on the discovery and application of nanoparticle drug delivery in the treatment of different diseases(36)(30).

2. MORPHOLOGY AND STRUCTURE OF NANOPARTICLES-

Transport problems in the eye that cause drug delivery problems include damage to the surface epithelium, tear film, blood-aqueous humor, and blood-retina light problem. Ophthalmic treatment is based on closure and removal of the choroid, blood vessels, and lymphatic vessels. The traditional delivery method may reduce the therapeutic effect, especially in water-insoluble molecules and the eye(31)(32). Nanoparticles (NPs) are designed to overcome barriers, increase drug penetration into the target, and deliver drugs at lower doses, prolonging drug concentration without toxicity compared to intraocular drugs. With this feature and more, DNA NPs can make gene therapy more flexible. Nanoparticles can target the cornea, retina, and choroid via local and intravitreal injection. This review focuses on the exploration and application of nanoparticle drug delivery in different clinical settings(34)(35).

2.1. Structure of nanoparticles

As it is predicted that nanoparticles are an easier category of science to understand, actually they stand in the most complex part of science.

Despite being the simplest, it is necessary to consider the interaction between at least two distinct components. Their real behaviour is frequently extremely different and is commonly caused by distinct features of the material, even though they can absorb light like dyes and seem to disintegrate like other tiny molecules(44)(45). One of the causes of a nanoparticle's peculiar characteristics is its extremely high surface to volume ratio. However, this large surface area also indicates that a certain nanoparticle's surface plays a significant role in the final result. As a result, even the most basic nanoparticles may differ chemically from their parent material(40)(41).

When several nanoparticles combine and precipitate out of suspension, they lose their unique characteristics. As a result, creating nanoparticles suspended in the chosen media takes a lot of work. This often entails creating nanoparticles using a method that encourages particle dispersion. These processes can occasionally take the shape of surfactants, which alter van der Waals interactions with the surface while maintaining equilibrium with the molecules of the free surfactant. In other situations, the suspended particles are stabilised by molecules or ions that are affixed to the particle surface(42)(43).

Thus, nanoparticles can be divided into two or three layers; Generally, nanoparticles are referred to only by their main properties because this is the part of the nanoparticles that brings important properties to most applications(47)(48).

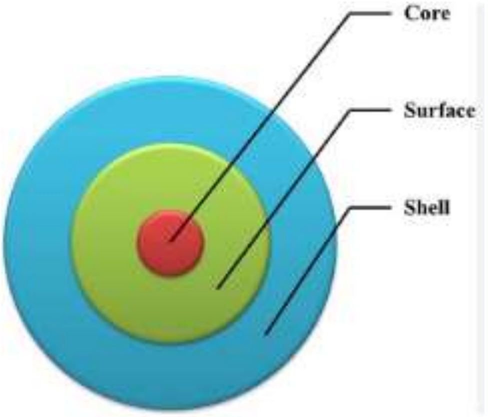

Figure 2: Structure of nanoparticle

2.1.a. Surface-

The surface of nanoparticles can be functionalized with various metal ions, small molecules, surfactants or polymers. It is known that basecatalyzed hydrolysis of tetraethyl orthosilicate transforms the surface charge into particles of 10 to 350 nm(46).

It has been demonstrated that the deprotonation of the SiOH group on the particle surface produces SiOM+, where M+ is an appropriate monovalent cation like sodium. A straightforward technique for creating nanoparticles distributed in aqueous fluids is surface preparation. Nevertheless, a lot of databases lack a proper location for managing local values. Small molecules with groups that can transport a charge and are joined to the particle surface by semi-covalent bonds are commonly used in several of these materials. Silver lefts are included in this group.

Thiopropionic acid has also been used in nanoparticle stabilization. In this approach, nanoparticles form at the base of the micelle, where hydrophobic interactions between the surfactant tails and the particle surface allow the surfactant to bind to the nanoparticle. It's important to note that these systems differ from those where molecules are covalently attached to the nanoparticle surface, as here, the surfactant is in equilibrium with free surfactant molecules in the solution. When the system is diluted, the equilibrium shifts, and the concentration of free surfactants remains at the critical micelle concentration (CMC). As colloidal stability decreases, overmixing can disrupt this balance, leading to instability and precipitation.

The next category of functional molecules includes long-chain monofunctional molecules such as amines, phosphines, carboxylates, and thiols. These long chains extend into the dispersion medium, providing additional stability. These molecules can be modified later and are often applied to the nanoparticle surface during preparation. While stability is typically limited to organic solvents, our research group is developing new materials based on polyethylene glycol (PEG). These compounds can be made to dissolve in hydrophobic solvents and then modified with PEG to make them water-soluble.

2.1.b. Shell-

This group of medications is distinct from the primary products. It is possible to think of the outer layer of an inorganic nanomaterial as a shell as it differs from the outer layer of the core. However, rather than referring to a change in the chemistry of the product's top layer, the term "shell" is most frequently used to describe two layers that have entirely different structures from the core material(52)(54). Core/shell quantum dots, which have a core made of a substance like cadmium selenide and a shell made of another substance like zinc sulphide, are excellent examples of these materials. Additional instances are seen in polymer nanoparticles like polystyrene-polyaniline.

Even if these data were purposefully created, this does not imply that they may have come from other sources as well (51, 52). For instance, it is well known that following preparation, metal nanoparticles rapidly develop a coating of metal oxide on their surfaces. The nanoparticles themselves may be layer shells rather than pure metal nanoparticles because layers do not always penetrate all particles. This material is frequently arranged in advance and is not released sometimes.

2.1.c. Core-

This is the primary component of the nanoparticle and is frequently used to describe it. This tendency may be seen in the physical sciences, where the specific characteristics of the nanoparticles under study are frequently linked to the pupils' content or, in certain situations, to the makeup of the pupils and their shells (52, 53). Nonetheless, there are instances in which a nanoparticle's overall characteristics are determined without knowing its precise composition. It should be highlighted, therefore, that the characteristics of the nucleus frequently dictate the items of interest to the physics and chemistry community as a whole. However, ecotoxicology may not always follow the same premise.

Although the source of the nanomaterial will have a significant impact on the nanoparticle's toxicity, the parent elements will not necessarily dictate the nanoparticle's fate or environmental behaviour. The size variation that may exist is the second crucial factor to take into account when discussing the genesis of a nanoparticle (53, 54).

This is particularly valid for inorganic nanoparticles. He is aware that most inorganic compounds have multiple phases and that his body will be greatly affected by the phase of the material. Even though they can be made in a single step, nanoparticles can occasionally be made in two steps. The destiny and behaviour of nanoparticles are assumed to be phase independent. This is not likely to occur, though. Furthermore, misleading impressions might result from even meticulous nanoparticle identification. Take, for instance, a layer of the parent material that is 30 nm (± 10 nm) in size, composed of 75% anatase and 25% rutile , and is made of TiO2.

One could argue that this text offers a comprehensive description of the equipment. A mixture of small and large rutile (or other) particles, a mixture of small anatase particles combined with nanoparticle anatase particles, or a mixture of rutile and anatase particles of the same size are some possible interpretations for this description. This would be a lease, though, given the distinction in the chemical makeup of rutile and anatase, which is the starting state. Critical points can result from a variety of crystal defects as well as other twinning and packing events in nanoparticles.

It is crucial to monitor these changes so that they can be taken into consideration in the event of a subsequent negative result, even though it is not required to review all data for ecotoxicity testing for these levels(55)(56).

2.2. Intrinsic properties of Nanoparticles-

The fate, behavior and ecotoxicology of nanoparticles may be closely related to their environment. There are many types of nanoparticles that are easily overlooked because they behave more like molecules than colloidal suspensions(56)(57).

2.2.a. Partcile mobility-

The diffusion process is controlled by several factors: gravity, buoyancy and Brownian motion. These conditions can be calculated by Einstein's law of diffusion: Df × kT × I × where D = diffusion coefficient, f = friction coefficient of the particle, k = Boltzmann constant, T = temperature. The friction coefficient of nanoparticles can be derived from Stokes' law: f × 6pg a × II × where g = viscosity of the medium and a = particle radius. Accordingly, the average change of a particle at time t will be proportional to the inverse square root of the particle's radius(57)(58), and the diffusion coefficient is inversely proportional to the particle's radius.

2.2.b. Surface energy and colloid stabilization-

The small size of the nanoparticles means that they should produce stable separation with simple calculations, as they are affected by Brownian motion. However, this will ignore the surface energy of the nanoparticles. Any collision between the two causes the nanoparticles to collect and precipitate out of solution. Therefore, it is necessary to stabilize the distribution of nanoparticles by providing a barrier that prevents two absences. The issue is based on the charge or steric stability of the colloids. In the first case, there is a charged surface with counterions and some solvent molecules tightly bound to the particle surface; According to Coulomb's law, charges interacting on the surface cause similar charges and thus pose an obstacle to collectivity(57)(58).

Before the product can be assembled, the solvent between the two links and around the chain must be removed; The balancing effects of these two species can be very different. For example, changes in ion concentration have a significant impact on the stability of charge-stabilized colloids, at much lower concentrations than sterically stabilized colloids. This is because the influence of Coulomb repulsion is lessened and the charge of the two bonds is controlled by the increase in ionic strength. On a charge-stabilized colloidal surface, monovalent ions can also displace multivalent ions. Although this frequently results in quick precipitation and product aggregation, sterically stable systems are less prone to experience this (58)(59).

2.2.c. Optical properties-

Quantum dots are a particular kind of nanoparticle. Although they can occasionally reach a size of 50 nm, these particles typically have a diameter of less than 10 nm. Of all the nanoparticles, they may have the most unusual characteristics. Quantum dots are tiny semiconductor nanoparticles, and the size of the particles influences the semiconductor's differences. An easy approach to grasp this is to imagine an electronic device made up of electrical and electronic components that are connected by the resistance and the crystal lattice.

A bond and a bond are present in a basic diatomic system. The strength and resistance of the new bonds will vary slightly as more atoms are added to the lattice. The orbitals will start to form a continuum for large lattices, which will ultimately appear as an electron chain. Consequently, it is evident that in certain instances, the band structure will start to alter and the number of links in a semiconductor device will not approach an infinite band (59)(60)

The semiconductor band gap widens as a result. The majority of quantum dots are photoluminescent. Electrons in the semiconductor's valence band may shift to the conduction band in response to incident light photons. These photons have a variety of outcomes, including recombining when light is released, being stuck in crystal defects, reacting with capping agents to create free radicals, and reacting with solvents to produce radicals.

A large number of these reactions also take place in materials without quantum confinement. But in quantum confinement systems, the minimum energy needed for the excited state will likewise rise with system size. The difference between the particles is this lowest energy. If readers require further information, the authors recommend some good reviews of the synthesis and properties of quantum dots (61, 62). This is a small but significant area of nanotechnology.

2.2.d. Catalysis-

The surface to volume ratio of every nanoparticle will be extremely high. The inverse of the radius determines the surface area to volume ratio. This implies that the inverse of the particle radius will likewise determine the atomic percentage of surface that is available for the catalytic process. For instance, 31% of the atoms in a gold nanoparticle with a diameter of 5 nm are on its surface; at 50 nm, this ratio drops to 3.4%, and at 1 micron, it drops to 0.2%. Because of variations in the particle surface's lattice structure, the chemistry of these sites might differ from material to bulk in addition to the quantity of surface atoms available for reaction.

As a result, it has been shown that materials prepared in nanoparticle form are more common in catalytic processes than bulk materials (Yoo 1998), and sometimes materials that can be considered weak materials, such as gold, have excellent catalytic properties. when the product is prepared into nanoparticles(63)(64).

3. ENVIRONMENTAL SIGNIFICANCE OF NANOPARTICLES-

There are three ways that nanoparticles might impact the environment: (1) directly impacting biota, which is toxicity; (2) altering the bioavailability of nutrients or poisons; and (3) directly affecting ecosystems, which is the destruction of elusive natural resources. Download. To forecast the effects of nanoparticles and guarantee their environmental stability and usability, it is critical to comprehend how they interact with natural colloids. This study demonstrates that the precise behaviour is dependent on the organic type and concentration, the complexity of the NP material, and solution parameters including ionic strength and pH. The destiny, behaviour, and bioavailability of nanoparticles will be significantly influenced by surface coating, aggregation, and depolymerisation.

(1) Controlling the movement of surface water and groundwater, and (2) Waterlogging or sedimentation and infiltration of soil and groundwater. Stabilizing nanoparticles through surface coatings can retain them in the water column and increase their transportability and proportion. Aggregation may result in the formation of nanoparticles in sediments, thereby reducing transport in the water column, which would make benthic organisms important receptors for nanoparticles. Disintegration will create small particles that can be recycled and transported through the water column, carrying and causing bacteria and nutrients to be transported. he removal of colloids from the water column into the sediment may be caused by the aggregation and sedimentation of nanoparticles. This will result in the formation of porous microstructures by natural colloids and nanoparticles, which can alter their structure (fractal dimension) in response to the physical environment (pH, pH, ionic strength, nanoparticle concentration, and DOM concentration). The rate of drug adsorption and precipitation, as well as the movement of water, nutrients, and soluble chemicals inside the aggregate, are all regulated by the porosity of microstructures and aggregates (64, 65).

4. PREPRATION OF NANOPARTICLES-

The study of nanoparticle growth mechanisms has aroused great scientific and practical interest. Because nanotechnology requires nanoparticles with certain sizes and properties. The growth process of nanoparticles determines the functional distribution of nanoparticles depending on the size and physical and chemical properties of the nanoparticle environment. , coefficient) nanoparticles. The development of nanoparticles is a sufficient process and depends on many conditions (temperature, viscosity, medium concentration, etc.). Determination of nanoparticle growth depends on the arrangement of nanoparticles. Researchers and materials manufacturers have made significant progress in developing the synthesis of nanomaterial solids(66)(67)(68).

It is classified as bottomup manufacturing, which involves the production of atomic or molecular components, while top-down manufacturing involves the production of small models by collapsing materials, as demonstrated in the semiconductor industry(69)(70)(71).

4.1 Gas condensation-

The earliest method for creating nanocrystalline metals and alloys was gas condensation. This device uses thermal evaporation sources (such electron beam evaporation devices or Joule heated refractory crucibles) to evaporate inorganic or metallic materials between 1 and 50 m bar. High residual gas pressure during gas evaporation causes gas phase collisions to produce ultrafine particles (100 nm). Evaporated atoms collide with remaining gas molecules to generate ultrafine particles.

More than 3 mPa (10 torr) is required for gas pressure (72, 73, 74). Heat resistance, high-power electric current, low-power electric current, and electric induction are all possible sources of evaporation. As gas-phase atoms integrate, gas-phase mutual nucleation develops, forming clusters close to the surface.

It features a compression device, a collecting device with a cold finger scraper that gathers liquid nitrogen, and an ultra-high vacuum (UHV) with an evaporation source. Atoms concentrate in the supersaturated region around the Joule heating device during the heating process. A scraper made of a metal plate is used to remove nanoparticles. Refractory metal crucibles made of W, Ta, or Mo are used for evaporation. Electron beam evaporation technology must be employed if the metal reacts with the crucible (75)(76).

This method is limited by surface
precursor incompatibility, temperature range, and different evaporation rates in alloys. Other sites were built over the years . For example, Fe is evaporated into an inert gas atmosphere (He). The evaporated metal atoms lose their kinetic energy by colliding with the atoms and condense into small crystallites, accumulating as loose dust(77)(78).

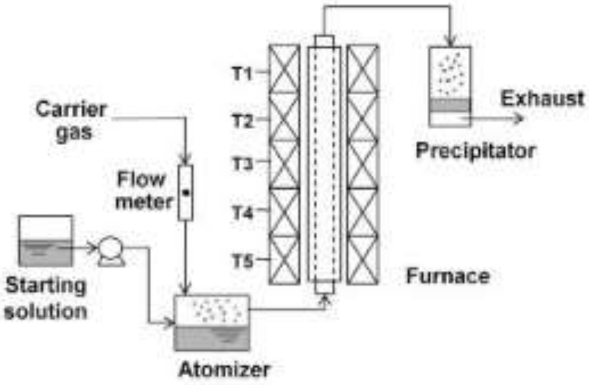

Figure 3: Preparation of nanoparticles by gas condensation

4.2. Vacuum deposition and Vaporization-

Particles, alloys, or chemicals are vaporised and deposited in a vacuum during the vacuum deposition process. Heat treatment causes the substance to evaporate at the evaporation location. The process occurs in vacuum between 10 and 0.1 MPa and above 0.1 Pa (1 m Torr). The substrate's temperature ranges from room temperature to 500 °C. A substance's saturation or equilibrium vapour pressure is the vapour pressure of the material that is in equilibrium with the liquid's or substance's surface. If the evaporation rate is sufficiently high, a satisfactory deposition rate can be attained for vacuum deposition.

The vapour pressure at which the results were achieved was 1.3 Pa (0.01 Torr). By using many-body collisions with atoms moving through the gas to create the required collision and cooling conditions for nucleation, gas phase nucleation can take place in dense air (79)(80). These particles are referred to as ultrafine particles or clusters and have a size range of 1 to 100 nm. The rapid deposition speed and economy of the vacuum deposition technique are its advantages. Many molecules, however, are challenging to release (81, 82).

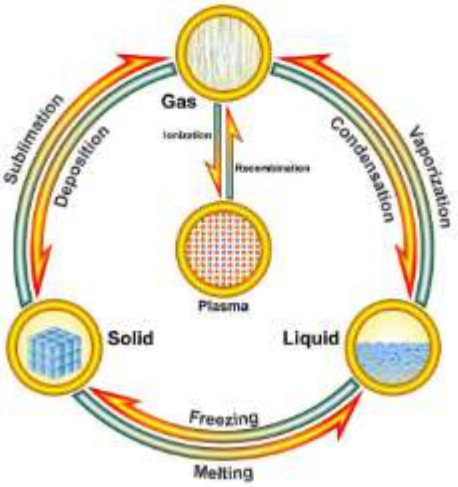

Figure 4: Preparation of nanoparticles by vaporization

4.3- Chemical vapor deposition/condensation-

CVD is a well-known process in which solids are deposited on a hot surface by chemical reactions in the vapor or gas phase. CVC reaction is required for power to work. This power can be provided in many ways. In thermal CVD, the reaction is activated by a temperature above 900oC. Common components include air intakes, exhausts and exhausts. In plasma CVD, the reaction is activated by plasma at temperatures between 300 and 700 °C. In laser CVD, pyrolysis occurs when laser thermal energy heats the absorbing substrate. In optical laser CVD, the chemical reaction is initiated by ultraviolet radiation with photon energy sufficient to destroy chemical bonds in the reactant molecules. In this process, the reaction is photon-activated and deposition occurs at room temperature. Nanocomposite powder was prepared by CVD method. Silicon carbide/silicon(82)(83).

4.4. Mechanical attrition-

Unlike many methods mentioned above, the materials used to create nanostructures are not brought together, but are formed by the process of separating coarse-grained structures as a result of plastic deformation. Al and β-SiC element powders were prepared in concrete. Recently, ceramic/ceramic nanocomposite WC-14% MgO materials have been developed. Stone milling and bar milling machines are mechanical grinding processes that are notable as powerful tools in the production of many advanced products. Mechanical alloying is a special process that can be done at room temperature. The process can be carried out in high-power, centrifugal and vibrating mills, as well as in low-power machines.

High energy mills include: grinding stone, planetary stone, vibration stone, low energy roller mill, high energy stone(84)(85)

4.5. Chemical precipitation-

In this concept the size is controlled by delayed precipitation technology. The simple trick is to assemble and study nanomaterials in situ, that is, do not change the body and aggregation of small crystallites in the same liquid medium. Thermal solidification and Oswald ripening are controlled by bilayer repulsion from crystallites using non-aqueous solvents at low synthesis temperatures(86)(87). Synthesis involves the reaction of materials in a suitable solvent. The dopant is added to the mother liquor before the reaction precipitates. Surfactants are used to control the separation of products. The nanocrystals thus formed were separated by centrifugation, washed and dried in vacuum. The dry material is further subjected to UV treatment to increase its ability to form a film covering the surfactant on the nanocluster surface, thus ensuring true quantum confinement(88).

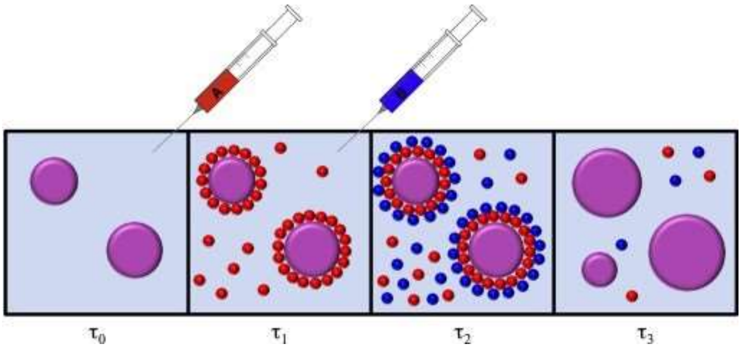

Figure 5: Prepration of nanoparticles by chemical precipitation

4.6. Sol-gel techniques-

In addition to the above-mentioned technology, sol-gel processing technology is also widely used. Colloidal particles are larger than normal molecules or nanoparticles. But when mixed with liquid colloids, they appear large, and nanoscale molecules are always transparent. It involves transforming the network by creating a network of colloidal suspensions (sols) and gelatin to form continuous liquids (gels). Precursors for the synthesis of colloids have metal alkoxides and lkoxysilane ions. The most commonly used silicone formers are tetramethoxysilane (TMOS) and tetraethoxysilane (TEOS). Alkoxides are immiscible with water(87)(88). Silica, aluminum, titanium, zirconium, etc. They are organometallic precursors of many metals such as Use the solvent alcohol mixture. The sol-gel process begins with the combination of one or more selected alkoxides. These are organic precursors of silica, alumina, titanium dioxide, zirconia, etc. Mortia et al.[11-14] Catalysts are used to initiate reactions and control pH. Sol-gel design consists of four stages. Hydrolysis, condensation, particle growth, particle agglomeration(88)(89).

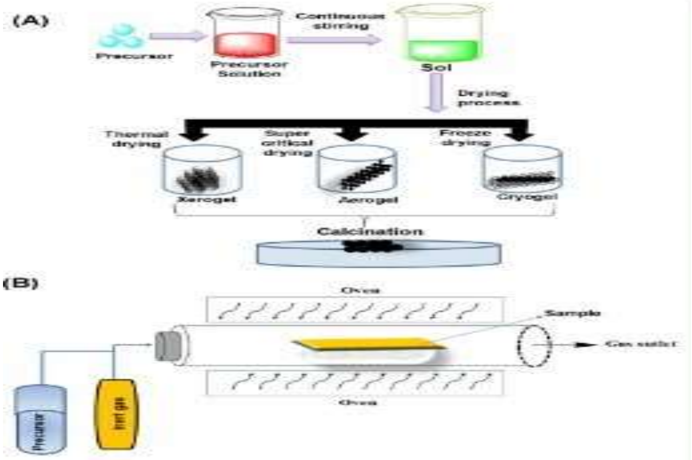

Figure 6: Prepration of nanoparticles by sol-gel method

5. APPLICATIONS OF NANOPARTICLES-

Nanoparticles provide an attractive platform for many biological applications. The surface and core properties of these systems can be customized for various applications such as biomolecule recognition, medicine, biosensing, and bioimaging. Nanoparticles are widely used in vitro and in vivo. However, realizing their full potential requires addressing many unanswered questions, including the acute and long-term health effects of nanomaterials, as well as the process of manufacturing products to recognize them and producing safe products(90).

5.1. Nanoparticle in biosensing-

5.1.1. Nanoparticles as Delivery Vehicles for Biomolecules-

Nanoparticles can provide a carrier for biomolecules such as DNA, RNA or proteins, protecting information from damage and transporting them across the cell membrane. The safety of these biomolecules enables gene therapy as well as protein therapy. For effective delivery, the carrier must: (i) form a complex with the biomolecule, (ii) facilitate its penetration into the cell membrane after complexation, and (iii) unload its payload into the cell(91)(92).

5.1.2. In vivo Targeting of Nanoparticles-

The main purpose of delivery is to place its payment specifically on the tissue. Two ways to achieve this are "passive" and "active" positioning. Passive targeting relies on transporters targeting tissues. In cancer, blood vessels often leak, which is necessary for the accumulation of nanocarriers. Active targeting, on the other hand, is based on the specific recognition of ligands released from the carrier vehicle by cell receptors. Ligands used for active targeting can be small molecules, peptides or proteins(93)(94).

For cancer therapy, folic acid (FA) or methotrexate (MTX) can affect nanoparticles recognized by folate receptors, which are overexpressed in many cancer cells. FA-grafted gold nanoparticles or iron oxide nanoparticles were specifically taken up by folate receptor-positive KB cells(94).

5.2. Nanoparticle in bioimaging-

5.2.1. Optical Imaging-

Most nanoparticle-based optical imaging agents can be divided into two groups: quantum dots (QDs) and dye-doped nanoparticle QDs. Quantum dots are photochemically stable, bright, have narrow emission spectra, tunable, symmetrical and metabolically stable. Acute toxicity and photo-oxidation problems can be overcome by coating them with insulating materials such as ZnS-coated CdSe core/shell quantum dots or protective shells composed of semiconductors. Since water solubility is important for their use in art, there are many ways to make quantum dots water-soluble and biocompatible for bioimaging; for example, fabricating the surface with thiol ligands, fabricating them with silica overcoating, and encapsulating them with amine-modified polymers. Likewise, there are many ideas for their operationalization(95).

5.2.2. Magnetic Resonance Imaging-

MRI is another important noninvasive imaging technology. MRI technology is based on magnetic resonance of several inte racting atomic nuclei, and most imaging applications have focused on proton resonance. Factors affecting MRI signal intensity are T1 (spin cage/longitudinal relaxation time), T2 (transverse relaxation time), and r (spin energy). Exogenous contrast agents are often added to enhance tissue contrast, including GdIII complexes and magnetic nanoparticles. GdIII complexes in liposomes or micelles have been widely used as MRI contrast agents [163] However, these systems have some disadvantages, such as the ion exchange of GdIII with endogenous metals (e.g. Zn, Cu) and forming complexes in blood vessels. Absorption of external space. Monodisperse cross-linked iron oxide (CLIO) nanoparticles reported by Weissleder's team provided poor MRI contrast. CLIO nanoparticles are stable and easily “clickable” nanoparticles used for imaging purposes with high cellular uptake(95)(96).

5.3. Key direction in future academic research-

The rapid availability of nanomaterials has led thousands of research centers to explore applications. The availability of information has increased from the few dozen products available at the turn of the century to the millions of products developed today. As a result, the pace of application development has shifted from limited hardware (a decade ago) to data usage (today). This has led to a shift in research from the pursuit of construction to more knowledge, content architecture, and applications(97).

Instrumental and analytical capabilities enable new areas of research, structural descriptions and analyzes at the atomic level that will transform experimental design. Therefore, the rapid development of nanoscale analytical tools has pushed existing research into new areas(97).

Nanomaterials as building blocks. Currently, materials science, especially the polymer industry, metallurgy and ceramics, use raw materials and composites as important design elements for new products. The use of nanoparticles in a small building, for example, allows structural elements (metals, ceramics, polymers) to be modified to obtain unusual properties (such as softness and strong magnetism). . Many current applications of nanomaterials have not yet been identified. A similar situation can now be seen when the laboratory starts working with kilograms of new materials. The effects of color, tactile sensation (feeling), flow, and more thermal energy require large models. Here, the continued expansion of nanomaterials for academic research requires continued applications(96)(97).

6. CONCLUSION

As the size of the material approaches the atomic scale, the energy of the material changes. This is because the ratio of volume to area increases, causing the atoms of the material to control the material. Due to their small size, nanoparticles have a very large surface area in volume compared to bulk materials such as powders, plates, and sheets. These properties cause nanoparticles to have undesirable optical, physical and chemical properties because they are small enough to trap electrons and create quantum effects. The copper ball will bend when it enters. Therefore, copper nanoparticles smaller than 50 nm are considered a very complex material with very different and similar properties compared to bulk copper. Changes in size also affect melting energy; Additionally, materials made from nanoparticles absorb more solar radiation than thin films of continuous paper. special function. In the medical field, nanomaterials are used in many ways; One of the main applications is drug delivery. One example of this process is the creation of nanoparticles that help deliver drugs directly to the site of cancer cells and deliver drugs to damaged blood vessels preventing heart disease. Carbon nanotubes are also being developed for processes such as adding antibodies to nanotubes to create disease sensors. Nanotubes are used in a composite form that bends in response to an electric field. Nanowires (zinc oxide nanowires) are currently being developed for use in flexible solar cells and have a role in wastewater treatment.

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