



# The Photocatalytic Characteristics of Tin Oxide Nanoparticles Synthesized through *Aquilaria Malaccensis*

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## Abstract

Nowadays, a significant volume of water is polluted by textile discharges which are known as synthetic dyes. Since synthetic dye molecules do not strongly adhere to fabric, consequently, they are discharged as effluent into the aquatic system. This action degraded the water quality leading to a harmful effect on human health and the environment. Hence, to effectively treat dye-polluted water and prevent all these detrimental effects, a nano-technological approach is required where one of the effective methods for this treatment is the utilization of nanoparticle photocatalysts. In this research work, tin oxide nanoparticles (SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs) were synthesized by applying the green protocol using different concentrations of *Aquilaria malaccensis* leaves. The pure SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs were furnished in an economical, convenient, and non-toxic process contrary to the conventional techniques. Characterizations of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs using XRD, FTIR, and FESEM indicated the formation of a pure crystalline and tetragonal structure with the bonding of Sn-O-Sn representing anti-symmetric vibration at region 605 to 610 cm<sup>-1</sup> in a spherical shape. While analysis of HRTEM-SAED revealed a measurement of d-spacing as 0.124 nm, with diffraction rings of (110), (101), and (211) planes corroborating with its tetragonal structure. A reflectance value of 64 % was obtained from UV-DRS analysis, denoting the value of the band gap as 3.12 eV after translation using the Kubelka-Munk formula. In addition, the photocatalytic efficiency was verified under UV irradiation to degrade methylene blue, which resulted in a degradation rate of about 94 % within 70 minutes. These findings have further proven that SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs synthesized using *Aquilaria malaccensis* leaves extract can be of great use in the application of dye-polluted water treatment.

**Keywords:** Tin oxide nanoparticles, *Aquilaria malaccensis*, Green synthesis, Photocatalytic, Methylene blue.

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## 1. Introduction

Nowadays, a severe problem regarding water mainstream has arisen that relates to toxic wastewater discharge whereby it contains a high amount of synthetic dyes, originally coming from several industries such as fabrics, paper, cosmetics, food and beverages, as well as pharmaceutical [1]. The toxicity effect of synthetic dyes leads to substantial threats not only for humans or living organisms but also for the hydrosphere, in which the undesirable

eutrophication process might end up with a damaging result [2]. Synthetic dyes are known to possess low biodegradability. This phenomenon is attributed to their complicated and robust formation, making it difficult to eliminate or separate from the dye-polluted water before discharging [3]. Several techniques, such as physical, and biological methods, have been carried out to resolve this issue precisely to remove the dyes from the effluent.

Unfortunately, the results generated subsequent problems in which the elimination process took a long time to settle and required expensive equipment. Moreover, it was found that the dyes were only partially eliminated, and the worst part was the generation of secondary pollution [4]. The photocatalytic method has been highlighted as the preference for this problem based on the concept of photodegradation of dyes. This method offers excellent efficiency, is easy to handle, safe for users and is environmental-friendly [5]. Regarding this point, an excellent performance of photocatalytic activity using metal oxide nanoparticles for degrading dyes in polluted water has drawn much attention lately [6]. Tin oxide nanoparticles ( $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs), a metal oxide semiconductor categorized as an n-type semiconductor with a wide band gap of 3.6 eV, have been highlighted as a potential photocatalyst candidate [7-8]. Its exclusive characteristic, such as high surface-to-volume ratio, chemically stable and low resistivity, has increased sensitivity and adsorption, thus making it appropriate for the photocatalytic process. Other than being a photocatalyst, the excellent characteristics of  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs also led to other beneficial applications such as electrodes, capacitors, lithium-ion batteries, solar cells, gas sensors, and medical [9-14]. The conventional processes to prepare  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs involve chemical and physical methods that require high energy and temperature, expensive operating cost, and employment of hazardous chemicals [15].

These disadvantages contradict the practicality of green-technological. Hence, the replacement must be made with an economical, non-toxic procedure and simple operation. Lately, the green synthesis method has appeared as a new fashion in the research area due to its environmentally friendly approach in which it successfully employed plant extract and only used a non-toxic solvent [16]. The extract produced from several plant segments, such as the leaves, flowers, fruits, seeds and barks, contains several phytochemicals capable of acting as the reducing and capping agent. In this study, the  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs were synthesized from the leaves extract of *Aquilaria malaccensis* (*A. malaccensis*), since the leaves is known to contain a polyphenolic phytochemical that could function to reduce  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  of tin precursor during the biosynthesis mechanism [17-19]. The previous report described the green-synthesis of  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs was carried out using *Pruni spinosae flos*, *Psidium guajava*, *Calotropis gigantea*, *Carica papaya*, *Daphne mucronate*, *Aspalathus linearis*, *Pandanus amaryllifolius*, *Citrus aurantifolia*, *Ziziphus jujube*, *Cyphomandra betacea*, *Chromalaena odorata*, *Camellia sinensis*, *Litsea cubeba*, *Brassica oleracea L. var.*, *Phaseolus lunatus L.*, *Tradescantia spathacea*, *Aquilaria malaccensis* and many more [20-36]. In this work, we describe the effect of the leaves extract concentration of *A. malaccensis* towards  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs production under the green synthesis method, as illustrated in **Figure 1**. The morphologies and nanostructures were discussed based on the characterization result from Fourier transform infrared (FTIR), X-ray diffraction (XRD), Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM), High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM), Selected area diffraction (SAED), Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX), UV-Vis and particle sizer analysis. The photocatalytic activity of the most favorable  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs was

evaluated in the degradation of organic dyes, namely methylene blue (MB).

## 2. Methodology

### 2.1. Materials

In this research study, tin chloride pentahydrate ( $\text{SnCl}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) and methylene blue dye were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Chemical Company without further purification. The milli-Q water was used throughout the experiments. The leaves of *A. malaccensis* were obtained from the district of Kuala Selangor, Malaysia.

### 2.2. Preparation of leaves extract

About 80 g of *A. malaccensis* leaves was added to 400 mL of milli-Q water and left to boil at  $60^\circ\text{C}$  to  $80^\circ\text{C}$  for 20 minutes, followed by filtration. The filtered extract was cooled at room temperature and stored in a refrigerator at  $4^\circ\text{C}$  until further use in the synthesis stage.

### 2.3. Synthesis of $\text{SnO}_2$ NPs

The synthesis procedure for a 1:1 ratio of the leaves extract to salt precursor involved diluting 14.5 ml of *A. malaccensis* leaves extract with 145 ml of milli-Q water. It was added dropwise to 160 ml of  $\text{SnCl}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (0.05 M) solution. The mixture was left to stir at ambient temperature for 3 hours. Later, centrifugation was carried out to provide a light brown precipitate which was dried at  $50^\circ\text{C}$  overnight. The obtained dried black solid was calcined at  $800^\circ\text{C}$  for 2 hours to furnish pure  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs denoted as OG1 as the outcome. Previous steps were repeated using 29 mL, 44 mL, 59 mL, 73 mL and 87 mL of extracts being diluted in milli-Q water to varying quantities of the extract on the precursor solution for the preparation of OG2 (1:2), OG3 (3:1), OG4 (4:1), OG5 (5:1) and OG6 (6:1), respectively [37].

### 2.4. Characterization

X-Ray diffraction was operated on PANalytical X'pert PRO using Cu K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 1.17545\text{\AA}$ ) at ca.  $2\theta = 5^\circ$  to  $90^\circ$  with 45 kV and a scan speed of 0.417782\*/sec with 40 mA. The morphology was studied using FESEM brand JEOL model JSM-7600F and HRTEM model JEOL JEM-2100 with a LaB6 filament and operated at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. UV-visible spectra were analyzed at a wavelength of 200-800 nm using the Varian model of Carry 5000. FTIR spectra were recorded using Perkin Elmer Spectrum 400 in the range 400 to 4000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  by ATR technique. Particle size analysis was conducted using the particle size analyzer brand Malvern model of Zetasizer Nano Series operates at 68mV  $\pm 6.8\text{mV}$ .

## 3. Results and Discussions

### 3.1. XRD analysis

The diffraction pattern for all synthesized  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs denoting OG1 to OG6 are displayed in **Figure 2**. The diffraction peaks can be indexed to the tetragonal rutile crystalline phase of tin dioxide (JCPDS No: 01-077-0452), which is in accordance with the previous reports [38-39]. The peaks with  $2\theta$  values at  $26.9^\circ$ ,  $34.3^\circ$ ,  $38.3^\circ$ ,  $52.1^\circ$ ,  $55.2^\circ$ ,  $58.4^\circ$ ,  $62.5^\circ$ ,  $65.1^\circ$ ,  $66.4^\circ$ ,  $71.9^\circ$ ,  $79.2^\circ$ , and  $84.2^\circ$  are associated with the (110), (101), (200), (211), (220), (002), (310), (112), (301), (202), (321) and (222) planes, respectively.

No alien phase was detected. For SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs with an increased quantity of *A. malaccensis* leaves extract, the XRD patterns presented peaks with a broadening style, suggesting a tendency to become amorphous. The most intense and sharp peaks belong to OG1 attributed to their high order crystallinity and average crystallite size, as the influence of an equal amount of extract and precursor salt used in the green synthesis. Moreover, this might result from the ideal quantity of polyphenol group in *A. malaccensis* leaves extract while reducing and capping Sn<sup>4+</sup> to Sn<sup>0</sup>, suggesting an unnecessarily increased quantity of the extract. Determination of the best possible samples, the examination was arranged on the (110) plane since it is the most-preferred orientation for SnO<sub>2</sub> owing to its richness of atomic density, which can be further analyzed using FESEM and HR-TEM. Additionally, the crystallite sizes of the samples synthesized are calculated using Scherrer's equation based on the (110) plane to give 13.2 nm, 10.5 nm, 8.3 nm, 7.7 nm, 7.70 nm and 6.7 nm for OG1 to OG6, respectively [40-41]. The direction for smaller crystallite size from the additional quantity of extract on precursor solution has also been observed from previous studies, which were during the preparation of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs using extract of *Camelia sinensis* and *Trigonella foenum-graecum* [42-43].

### 3.2. FTIR analysis

FTIR analysis was carried out to confirm the presence of the pertinent functional group for SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs construction. The FTIR spectra of the six samples (OG1 to OG6) are displayed in **Figure 3**, showing similar absorption bands. The absorption bands around 605 to 610 cm<sup>-1</sup> are ascribed to the Sn-O-Sn anti-symmetric vibration. Meanwhile, absorption bands within regions 1000 to 1025 cm<sup>-1</sup> relate to stretching vibrations of the Sn-OH group due to water molecules absorbed from the environment by SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs [44]. For the above reason, these absorption bands confirmed the formation of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs and verified the presence of SnO<sub>2</sub> in the crystalline phase.

### 3.3. FESEM and EDX analysis

Taking the crystallinity and structural characteristics into account, the morphology pattern and the elemental composition of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs prepared using a ratio of leaves extract: precursor salt solution (1:1, OG1) was investigated. FESEM image of the SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs is presented in **Figure 4**, signifying the morphology of the synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs that were produced from the equal ratio of *A. malaccensis* leaves extract and precursor salt. This morphological evidence agrees with previous work showing the spherical shape and uniform distribution [45]. The SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs were found to be approximately 27nm. The presence of elemental compositions of O and Sn at 0.5 and 3.5 eV was confirmed by the EDX analysis, in which the elemental percentages of Sn and O were 77.77 % and 22.23 %. Therefore, using the extract of *A. malaccensis* in the green synthesis is a workable technique for producing SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs.

### 3.4. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM), particle size and selective area electron diffraction (SAED) analyses

The morphology and the shape of OG1 were examined using HRTEM images. The images of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs exhibit a cluster of nanoparticles with comparatively crystalline, as *Buniyamin et al., 2023*

shown in **Figure 5 (a-b)**. The morphology of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs is spherical, relatively consistent with the FESEM images. In addition, the interplanar distance, which is d-spacing, is measured as 0.124nm corresponding to the (110) plane (**Figure 5c**), befitting to be employed in photocatalysis [46]. The agglomeration behavior was recorded by particle size analyzer and is shown in **Figure 6**, demonstrating a confined distribution pattern. The SAED patterns are shown in **Figure 7**, which revealed the diffraction rings that belong to the reflections of (110), (101) and (211) planes, which can be related to the tetragonal structure of the SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs from the XRD analysis.

### 3.5. UV-Vis diffuse reflectance (UV-DRS) and band gap analysis

The optical characteristic of OG1 was investigated under UV-Vis diffuse reflectance analysis, a non-destructive technique. Figure 8 shows the spectrum of sample OG1, whereby the reflectance value for this pure SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs material was 64% higher than the former reports using *A. malaccensis*, which was 55% [36]. The reflectance result was ascribed to the production of the higher surface-to-volume ratio of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs, harbouring light scattering and thus encouraging light harvesting [47]. Furthermore, the reflectance value surpassed the recorded value of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs synthesized using *Plectranthus amboinicus* and *Chromolaena odorata*, recorded at 50 % and 53 %, respectively [48-49]. With this reflectance value, the energy band gaps for SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs produced were calculated using the Kubelka-Munk equation, in which a value of 3.12 eV was found from the expansion of the curve linearity. The values obtained are considered to be comparable to the band gap of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs synthesized from other plants such as *Calotropis gigantea* (3.1 eV), *Citrus aurantifolia* (3.02 to 3.44 eV), *Averrhoa bilimbi* (3.36 eV) and *Lycopersicon esculentum* (3.4 to 4.1 eV) [50-51].

### 3.6. Photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue

Photocatalytic activity of the synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs was analyzed for the degradation of the pollutant dye of Methylene Blue (MB) using a 9-watt UV lamp. The photocatalyst was stirred in 100 ml of methylene blue (15 ppm) for 30 min in the dark to allow adsorption-desorption equilibrium before introducing it to UV irradiation. Within 0 to 10 min intervals, 5 mL of the reaction mixture was taken and centrifuged. The clear supernatant solution was collected and measured using a UV-visible spectrophotometer. The degradation percentage of MB on SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs has been evaluated using the formula 1 [51]. The C<sub>0</sub> and C<sub>t</sub> are the concentrations of MB at an initial time and after irradiation.

$$\frac{C_0 - C_t}{C_0} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

In regard to dye-polluted water behavior, it was characteristically to has a broad pH scale. Thus, this parameter would characterize the effluent discharge and the generation of OH<sup>-</sup> [52]. The pH variation between 3 and 11 was made by adding 0.1 M of HCl and NaOH. From the result, the degradation efficiency of MB using 100 mg of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs improves by increasing the UV irradiation time (**Figure 9 a**). The degradation of MB was found to be highest

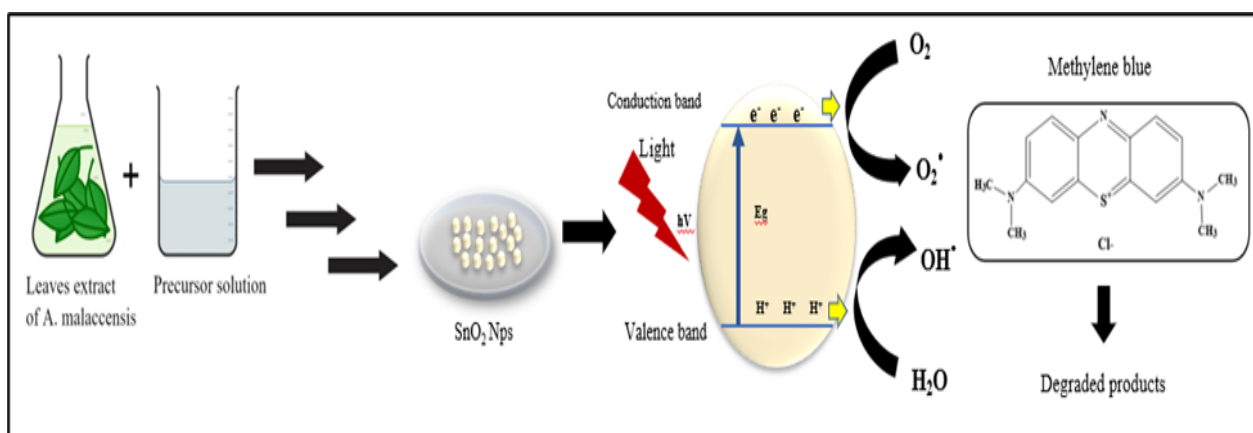
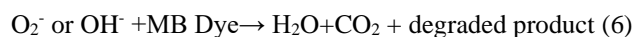
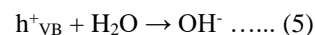
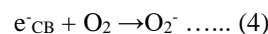
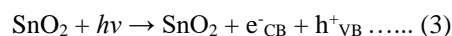
at pH 7, which is at neutral pH, while the degradation rate was recorded low in both acidic and alkaline mediums.

At pH 7, the photocatalytic activity was recorded to be 60 % after 70 minutes of UV irradiation. At the same duration, the degradation was found to be less high in the alkaline solution, while in the acidic condition, it was correspondingly lower. The photocatalytic activity at pH 11 and 3 were recorded as 38% and 8%, which suggested a sequence of pH 7 > pH 11 > pH 3. Hypothetically, the charges of the particle surface can be altered by the pH of the solution, which results in the dispersed condition in the solution [53]. At pH 7, there was no surface charge of SnO<sub>2</sub>, and by having Van Der Waals force, the agglomeration between particles was avoided, thus facilitating the dispersal, which led to efficient degradation. For acidic and alkaline solutions, the recombination of generated electron-hole pair was presumably intensified. Both pHs promoted the MB reaction in the solution with the dissolved oxygen into the ground state of the charge transfer compound [54]. The degradation of MB was further characterized by chemical reaction kinetic equations pseudo-first-order kinetic model as shown by **Figure 9 b** [55]. A simplified Langmuir-Hinshelwood (L-H) kinetic model (Equation 2) was applied to define the photocatalytic degradation rate of MB by plotting the graph of  $-\ln(C/C_0)$  versus time at different pH values [56-57].

$$-\ln \frac{C}{C_0} = kt \quad (2)$$

A linear relationship from the plotting furnished the values for the reaction rate constant (k) is higher at neutral conditions, in which the value was found to be  $10.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  at pH 7, while  $2.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  at pH 11 and  $0.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  at pH 3, respectively. Furthermore, the effect of catalyst amount on the MB degradation was investigated by varying the catalyst loading to 100 mg, 200 mg and 300 mg. The loading shows that the highest at 94% resulted from the usage of 300 mg of catalyst greater than using 200 and 100 mg, which represents 71% and 69%, respectively (**Figure 9c**).

The highest degradation was presumably attributed to the availability of the total active surface area, while lower degradation might result from the less catalytic active sites, thus having lower number of reactive species produced under the circumstance of below the optimal catalytic loading [50,58]. The value of k for these catalyst loading was found to be  $28.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$ ,  $15.7 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  and  $11.4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  for 300 mg, 200 mg and 100 mg, accordingly, as shown in **Figure 9d**. Apart from this, the recyclability of the photocatalyst has been tested for five consecutive cycles, as shown in **Figure 10**. By having this evidence, its capability has been pin-pointed to which extend it has more than 35% degradation for MB and proved to be a robust photocatalyst. The probable photocatalytic degradation mechanism of the MB dye using SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs is clarified by applying the standard protocol as shown in equation 3 to 6 [59-60]. When the SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs surface is irradiated with photon energy either equal to or more significant than its bandgap energy, the formation of holes (h<sup>+</sup>) in the valence band and an electron (e<sup>-</sup>) in the conduction band are generated. This phenomenon which generates electron-hole pairs, is known as the photo-excitation process. The hole (h<sup>+</sup>) acts as an oxidizing agent and oxidizes the pollutant directly or water to form hydroxyl radicals of degraded products. The interaction between e<sup>-</sup> and the dissolved oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) resulted in the photo-oxidizing process to give superoxide radicals (O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>). Meanwhile, h<sup>+</sup> leads to photo-reducing H<sub>2</sub>O, creating hydroxyl radicals (OH<sup>-</sup>). Superoxide and hydroxyl radicals are highly oxidizing species that escalate the MB degradation giving H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> as the by-products.



**Fig. 1.** The illustration of green synthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs and its application in the photocatalytic process

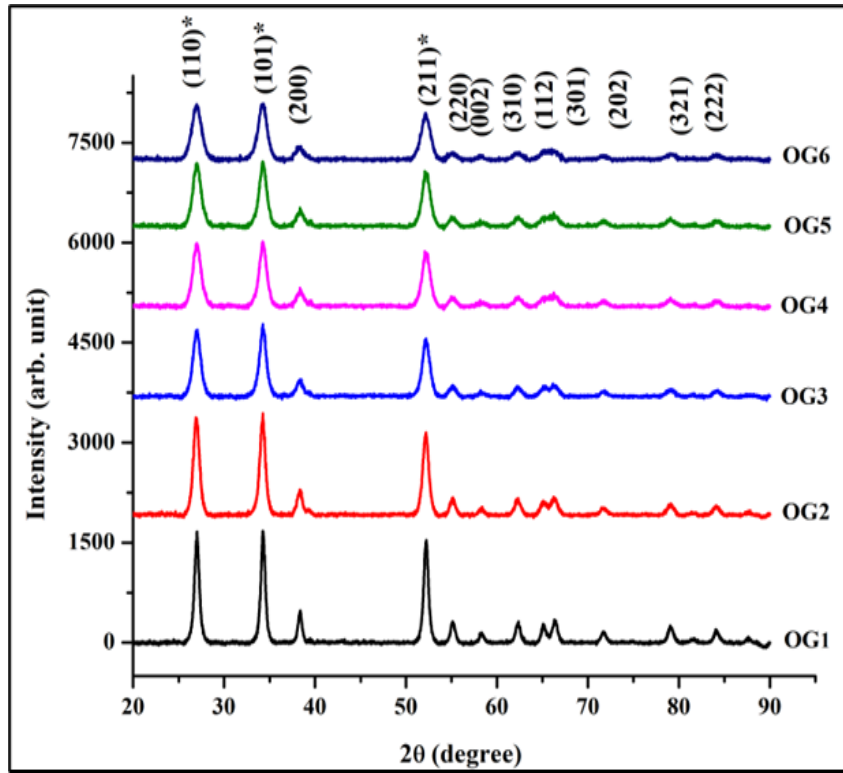


Fig. 2. XRD diffraction patterns for SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs using different extract concentration of *A. malaccensis*.

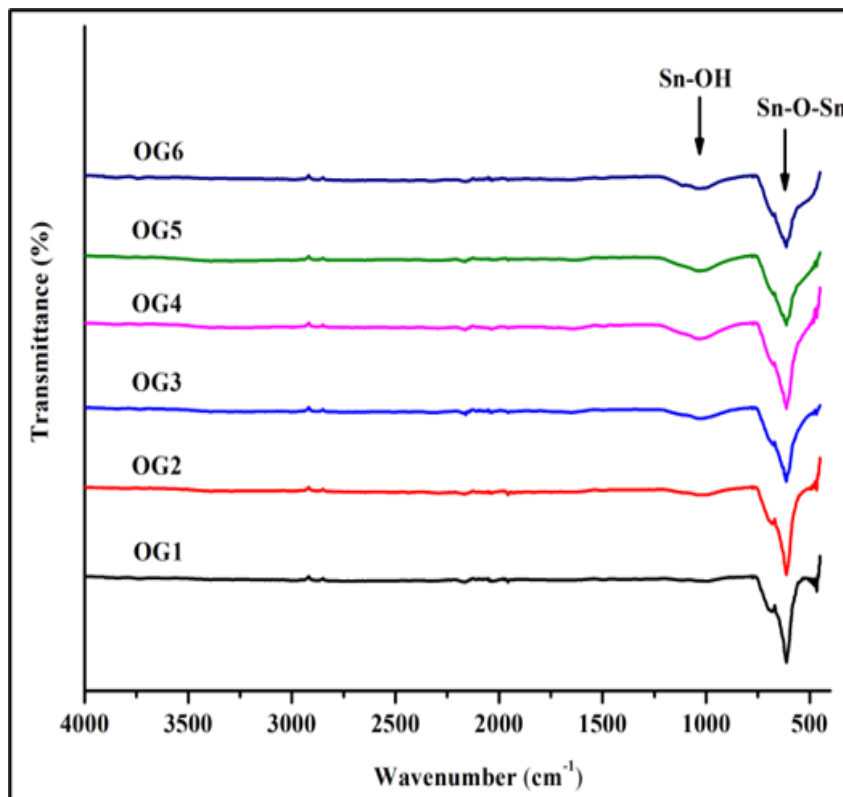


Fig. 3. FTIR spectra of showing the functional groups of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs.



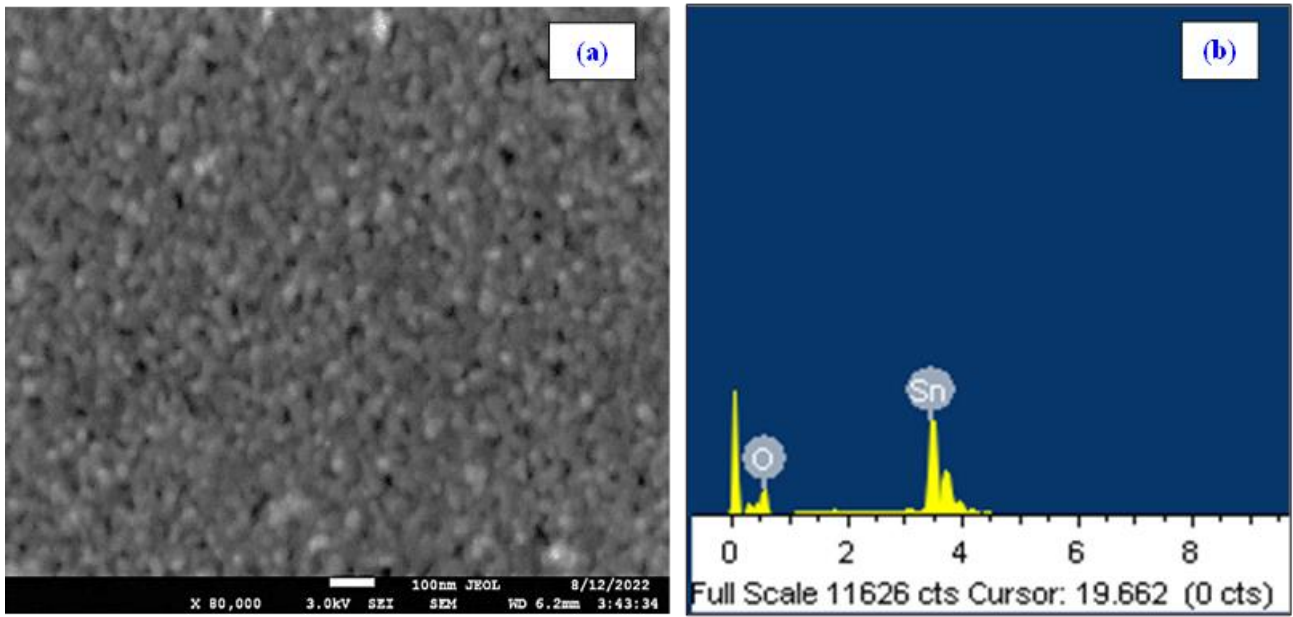


Fig. 4. (a) FESEM image (b) EDX spectrum of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs.

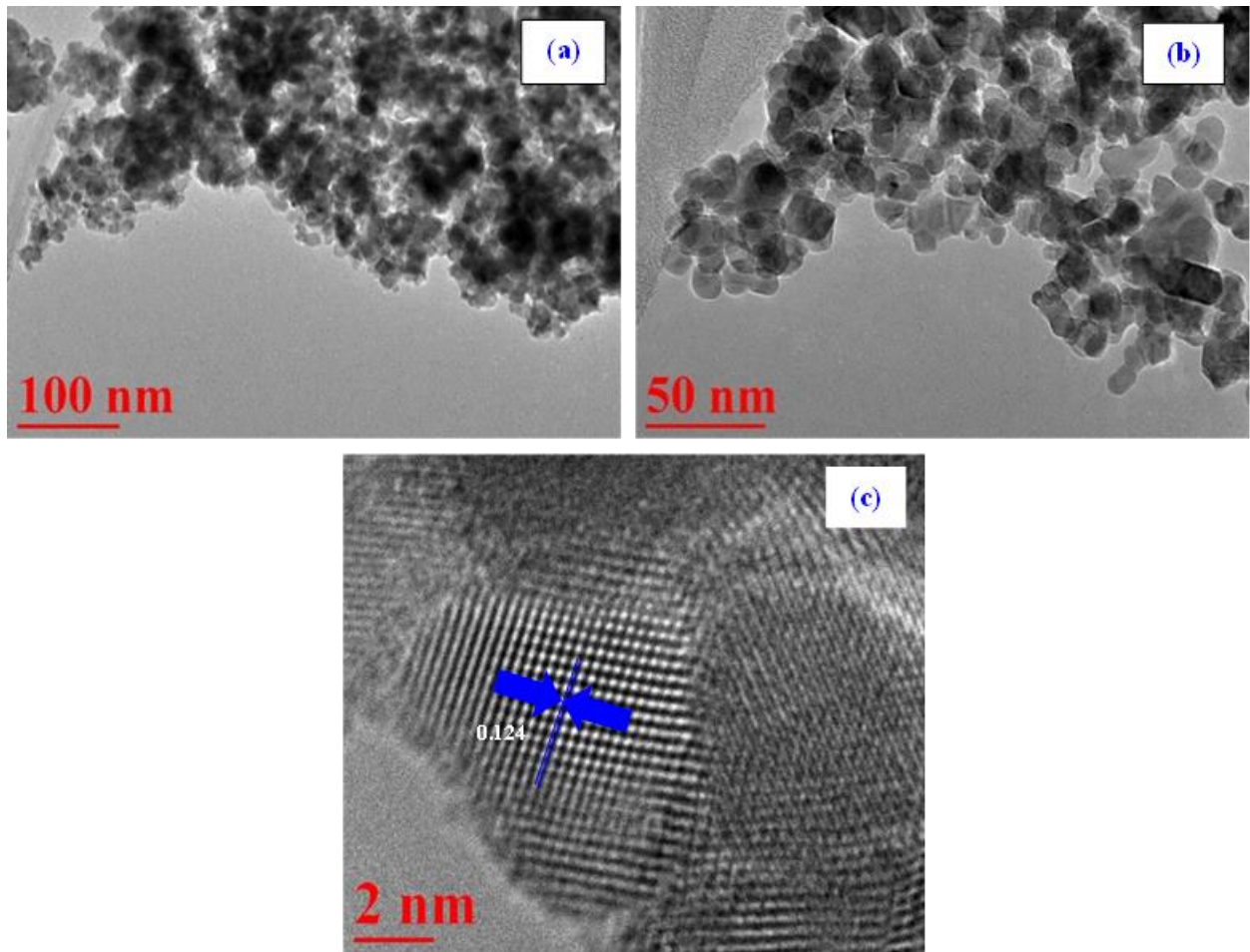


Fig. 5. HRTEM images (a-c) of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs.

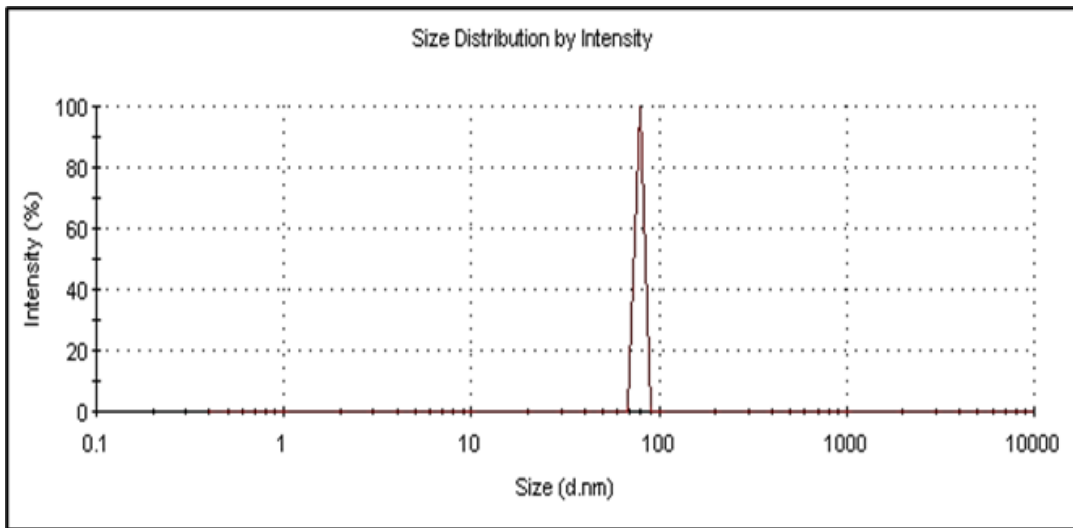


Fig. 6. Particle size distribution of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs.

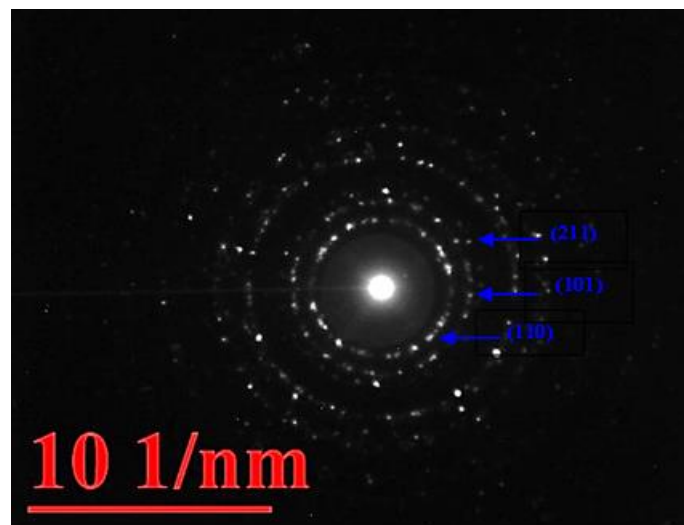


Fig. 7. SAED pattern of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs.

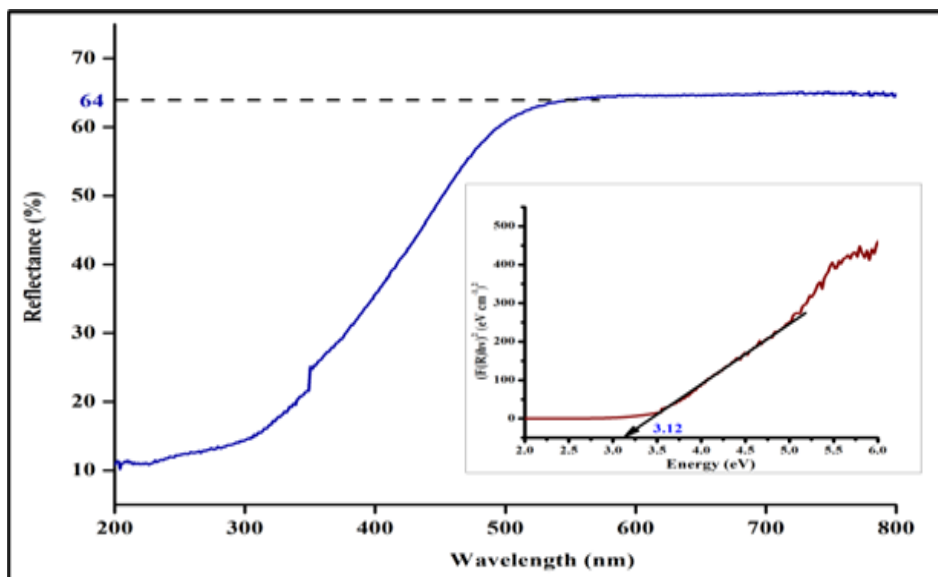


Fig. 8. UV-Vis DRS spectrum and inset is the band gap plot of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs.

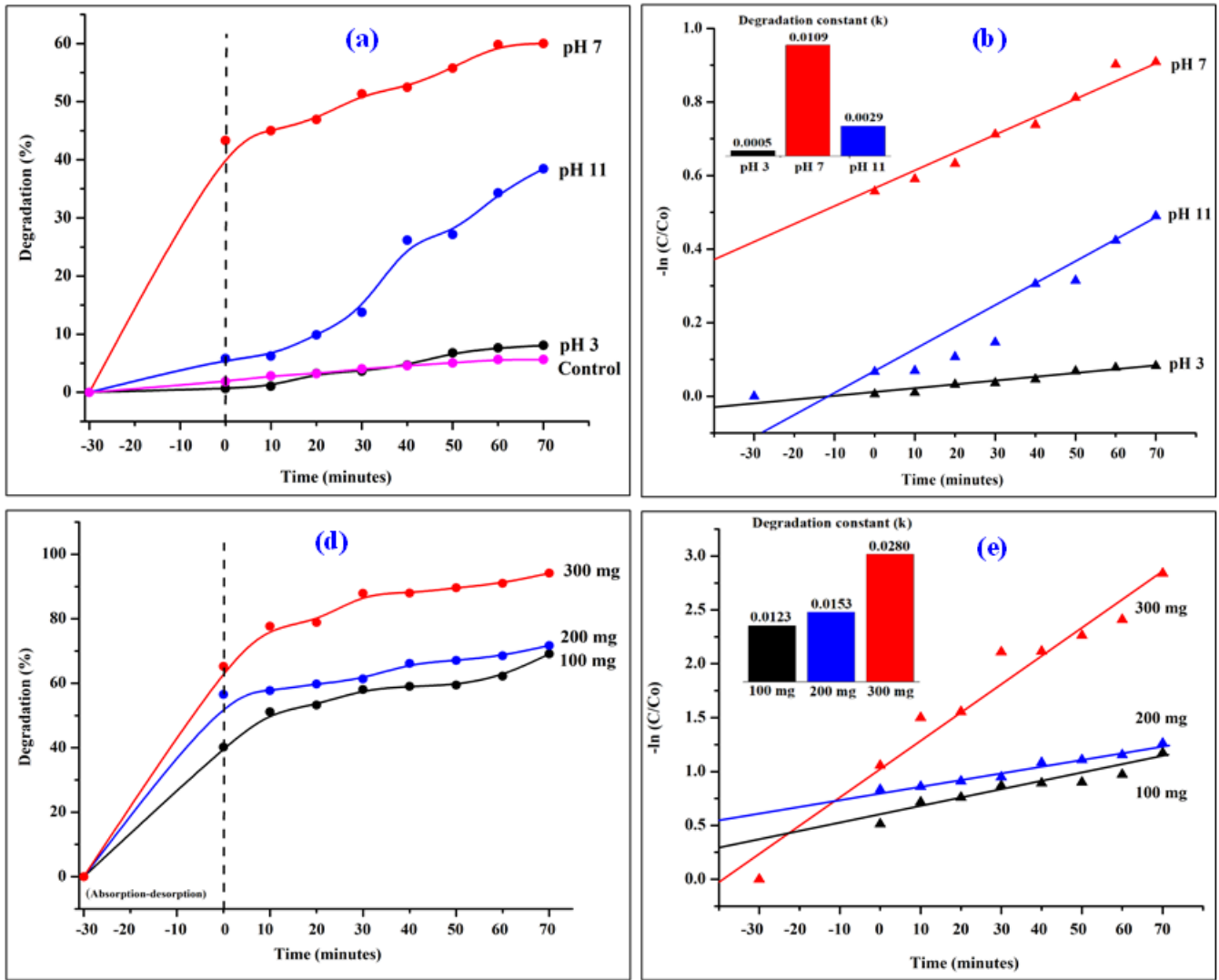


Fig. 9. Photocatalytic evaluation of Methylene Blue solution using SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs.

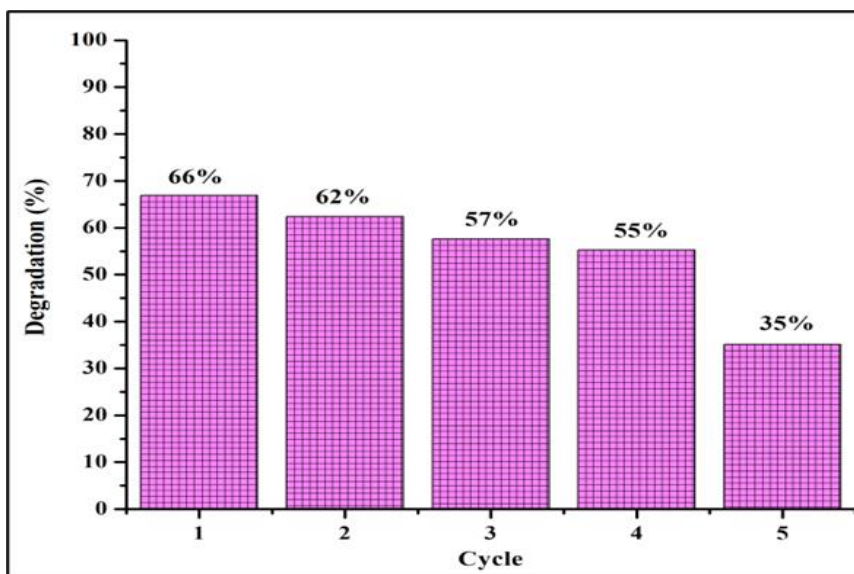


Fig. 10. Photocatalytic cycle of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs.



#### 4. Conclusions

In this study, a straightforward, non-toxic and effective technique for the green synthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs was designed via *Aquilaria malaccensis*, and this is the first report on its photocatalytic activity. The ratio of leaf extract to precursor solution influenced the high purity and crystallinity of the synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs. The photocatalytic activity followed first-order kinetics, presenting 94% degradation of environmental concern methylene blue within 70 minutes, suggesting rich active sites to escalate the photo-excitation. Therefore, the synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs offer an encouraging solution toward dye-polluted water, which can be benefited to human health, aquatic organism and environment.

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