

## **Review Article**

# **Natural Biomolecules in Leaves and Fruit Extracts Mediate the Biosynthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> Nanoparticles: A Mini Review**

Irmaizatussyehdany Buniyamin<sup>1,3\*</sup>, Muhamad Faizal Abd Halim<sup>1</sup>, Kevin Alvin Eswar<sup>3,4</sup>, Kathleen J. Jalani<sup>5</sup>, Syed Abdul Illah Alyahya Syed Abd Kadir<sup>6</sup>, Maryam Mohammad<sup>1,3,7</sup>, Mohd Yusri Idorus<sup>8</sup>, Noor Asnida Asli<sup>1,3</sup>, Mohamad Rusop Mahmood<sup>1,2</sup>, Zuraida Khusaimi<sup>1,3\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>NANO-SciTech Laboratory, Centre for Functional Materials and Nanotechnology (FMN), Institute of Science, Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), 40450 Shah Alam Selangor, Malaysia

<sup>2</sup>NANO-ElecTronic Centre, Engineering College, Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), 40450 Shah Alam, Selangor, Malaysia

<sup>3</sup>Faculty of Applied Sciences, Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), 40450 Shah Alam Selangor, Malaysia

<sup>4</sup>Faculty of Applied Sciences, Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM) Sabah Branch Tawau Campus, 91032 Tawau Sabah Malaysia

<sup>5</sup>Faculty of Pharmacy, Universiti Teknologi Mara (UiTM), 42300 Bandar Puncak Alam, Selangor, Malaysia

<sup>6</sup>Pusat Asasi Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM) Cawangan Selangor, Kampus Dengkil, 43800 Dengkil Selangor, Malaysia

<sup>7</sup>Faculty of Applied Sciences, Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM) Perak Branch Tapah Campus, 35000 Tapah Road Perak, Malaysia

<sup>8</sup>Institute Medical Molecular Biotechnology (IMMB), Faculty of Medicine, Universiti Teknologi MARA, Jalan Hospital, 47000 Sungai Buloh Selangor, Malaysia

## **ABSTRACT**

The green approach of nanoparticle preparation via biosynthesis method is known to be more economical, less toxic, and environmental-friendly as compared to the conventional chemical and physical methods which are hazardous and expensive. The advantages that are offered by this nanoscale material are their high surface area to volume ratio and the great stability which drive the performance to be effective. Among several nanoparticles, metal oxide namely tin (iv) oxide nanoparticles (SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs) have attracted significant attention in recent years specifically in the nanotechnology discipline due to its wide applications in medical, catalysis, energy storage, coatings, sensors, dye-sensitized solar cells, and optoelectronics. The biosynthesis method was reported to be conducted using an aqueous extract of the green part of the plant, mostly the leaves and fruit segment. Within these plant parts, rich amounts of natural biomolecules are available that are capable of mediating the synthesis mechanism through capping and reducing action, which involves the chelating activity. Several characterization techniques were carried out to determine their unique characteristics in terms of crystallinity and morphological aspects such as XRD, TEM, SEM, EDX, FTIR, and UV-Vis. This paper summarizes the biosynthesis works of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs using leaves and fruit extract, and their properties were tested based on the photocatalytic performance as well as biomedical activities such as antimicrobial, antibacterial, antioxidant, and cytotoxicity.

**Keywords:** Biomolecules, Green synthesis, Nanotechnology, Tin (iv) oxide nanoparticles, Applications

### **\*Corresponding authors**

*Irmaizatussyehdany Buniyamin*

*NANO-SciTech Laboratory,*

*Centre for Functional Materials and Nanotechnology (FMN),*

*Institute of Science, Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM),*

*40450 Shah Alam Selangor, Malaysia*

[syehdany@uitm.edu.my](mailto:syehdany@uitm.edu.my)



*Zuraida Khusaimi*  
*NANO-SciTech Laboratory,*  
*Centre for Functional Materials and Nanotechnology (FMN),*  
*Institute of Science, Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM),*  
*40450 Shah Alam Selangor, Malaysia*  
[zurai142@uitm.edu.my](mailto:zurai142@uitm.edu.my)

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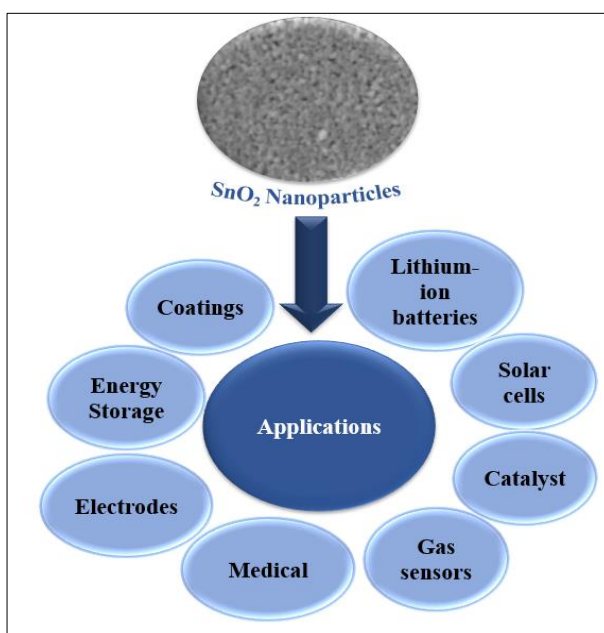
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## 1.0 Introduction

Nanotechnology is the characterization, design, and application of a combination of systems, structures, and devices by size control as well as the shape of particles at the scale of  $10^{-9}$  m. Their brilliant characteristics are unquestionable when the particles are scaled down to the nanoscale compared to the bulk size (1-2). Through controlling and manipulating the nanoparticles (NPs), an enhancement in terms of unique physical, chemical, and magnetic properties can be obtained. These unique properties stimulated researchers' interest in synthesizing nanoscale materials with different shapes, sizes, and compositions. There has been extensive research on synthesizing and optimizing nanoparticles (3-7).

Previously, many physical and chemical synthetic routes have been developed (8-11). To overcome the drawbacks of chemical synthesis, a new bio-mediated green synthesis technique, namely the biosynthesis method has been introduced and it is more

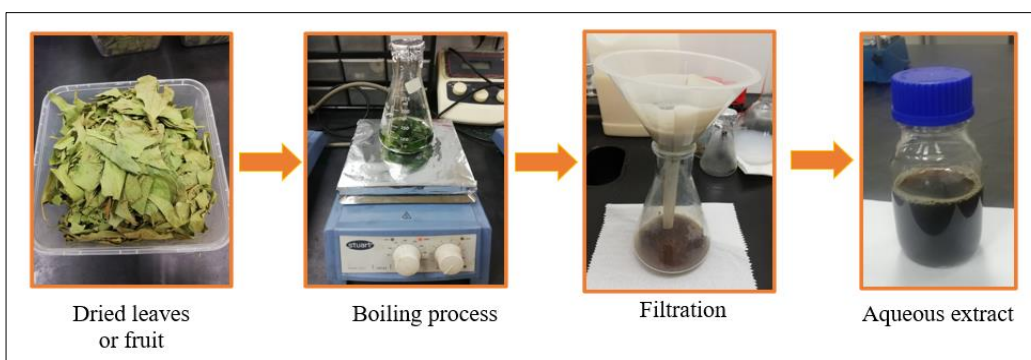
helpful than chemical synthesis. It is free from toxic solvents and chemicals; does not involve high-cost equipment, reproducible, easy to handle, and cost-effective (12-13). Among the nanoparticles, tin (iv) oxide nanoparticles ( $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs) have been studied intensively because of their potential applicability to lithium-ion batteries, transparent conducting electrodes in ionic devices, anti-reflective coatings, solid-state gas sensors, solar cells, catalytic support materials, energy storage, medicals, etc. (Figure 1) (14-16). The preparation of  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs using conventional methods reported to suffer from several drawbacks such as hydrothermal, solvothermal, microwave synthesis, co-precipitation, sol-gel, spray pyrolysis, chemical vapor deposition, thermal evaporation of oxide powders, rapid oxidation of elemental tin and microemulsion (17-18).



**Figure 1:** The extensive potential of  $\text{SnO}_2$  NPs underlies their broad spectrum of applications.

Herein, this study discusses the biosynthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs using green plant parts, which are leaves and fruit, with their respective applications based on the properties possessed by the purely biosynthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs. It is hypothesized that biomolecules (bioactive compounds or phytochemicals) present in this plant extracts are polyphenolic flavonoids, alkaloids, phenolic acids, polyphenols, proteins, sugars, and terpenoids to role as the capping and reducing agent towards tin cation (20-21). In general, the extraction process involves the boiling process under temperatures between 40 to 70°C in water or organic solvent to soften and break down the plant cell thus

releasing the soluble functionalized biomolecule (Figure 2) (22). By having a polar solvent, the extraction of the polar phenolic biomolecules can be optimized thus maximizing the availability reducing agent (23). Later, the reduced metal ions may be engaged with atmospheric oxygen or oxygen from the degrading phytochemicals forming metal oxide nanoparticles. Furthermore, the biomolecules exist in the synthesis stage able to avoid the agglomerate between the particles thus the formation of the nanoparticles is dispersedly-formed hence increasing the high surface area to volume ratio (9, 24-25). The general procedure to prepare SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs is shown in Figure 2.

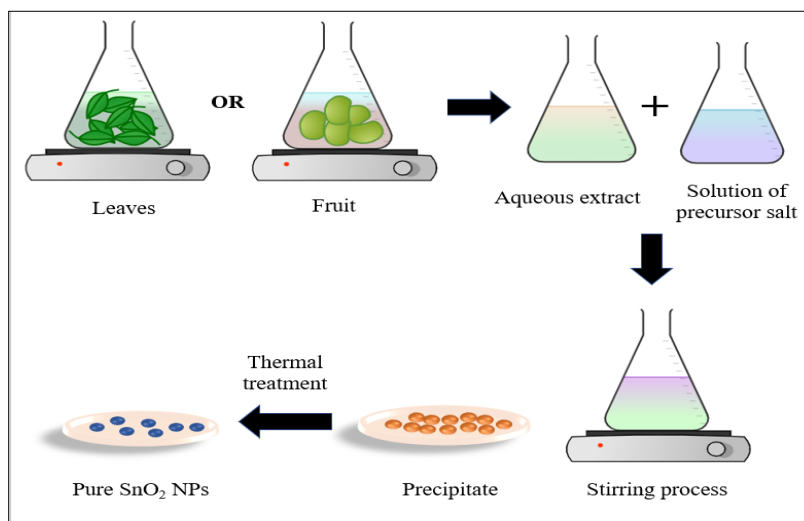


**Figure 2:** The standard method for obtaining an aqueous extract involves taking dried leaves or fruits, boiling them in water at a temperature range of 60-80°C for approximately 20-30 minutes, and then filtering the mixture through Whatman paper to obtain the final extract.

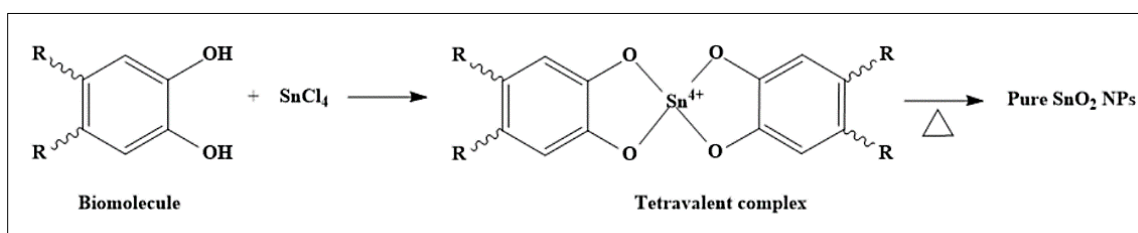
## 2.0 Plausible reaction mechanism of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs

The biocompatible mechanism of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs formation is presumably initiated when the solution of the salt precursor was mixed with aqueous extract of leaves or fruits as shown in Figure 3. The cation of tin (Sn<sup>4+</sup>) dispenses in the solution and forms the complex with hydroxyl groups of biomolecules, that is believed to be actively functionalized through chelation activity. The possible biomolecules that are likely to be taken into account in the mechanism are

the polyphenolic biomolecules, which contain adjacent hydroxyl groups in the aromatic ring to assist the capping action. In general, a tetravalent network of Sn<sup>4+</sup> with two units of hydroxyl groups originating from two different biomolecules was built up when Sn<sup>4+</sup> was used as the precursor salt. At this stage, the biomolecules keep their group from being agglomerate among themselves, and finally, SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs were furnished after the complex of the biomolecule-tin cation was calcined under thermal treatment (9, 26-32). The proposed mechanism for the formation of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs is shown in Figure 4.



**Figure 3:** The biosynthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs using an aqueous extract of leaves and fruits typically follows a general procedure, which involves the mixing of the extract solution with a precursor salt solution until a precipitate form. This precipitate contains biomolecules that act as capping agents for the intermediate SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs. Subsequently, the resulting mixture undergoes thermal treatment through a calcination process.



**Figure 4:** Proposed mechanism for SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs formation; The formation of a tetravalent complex occurs due to the biomolecules' capping action, which also contributes to stabilization of the intermediate SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs.

### 3.0 Biosynthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> Nanoparticles

#### 3.1 The utilization of leaf extract in the mediating synthesis

During the process of collecting samples for extraction, leaf samples appeared as a popular choice of plant fragments. This is mainly due to their abundantly available, ease of collection, non-toxic nature, and handy storage. Many researchers have utilized leaf extracts to successfully produce pure SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs. To synthesize nonporous nanocrystalline SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs with a large surface area, Haq et al. used a leaf extract

from *Daphne mucronata* (32). The hydroxyl groups contained in coumarins, coumarino lignans, flavonoids, carboxylic acids, lignin, and triterpenoids were believed to act as both capping and reducing agents. The analysis using X-ray diffraction (XRD) resulted in a crystallite size of 15 nm; while scanning electron microscopy (SEM) provided evidence of an average SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs size of 64 nm. Photocatalytic testing demonstrated that in the presence of SnO<sub>2</sub> photocatalyst, about 99 % of Rhodamine-6G was degraded within 390 minutes, with a degradation rate of  $1.48 \times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$ . The photocatalytic activity of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs was found to be improved with

increasing irradiation time under simulated sunlight. The antimicrobial efficiency of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs was tested on several types of microbes using the agar well diffusion method. The activity was assessed by measuring the zones of inhibition in millimetres at each concentration and volume. The result demonstrated high efficacy in inhibiting Gram-negative bacteria (GNB) compared to Gram-positive bacteria (GPB) and fungi. Additionally, the activity was observed to enhance when higher concentrations of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs and volumes were applied. In conclusion, the antimicrobial action of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs was caused by the formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, which entered the cell and destroyed the cytoplasm of the organism.

Moreover, an extract of *Pruni spinosae flos* utilized to synthesize SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs by Dobrucka *et al.* (33). The authors identified two biomolecules, namely flavonoids and phenolic acid to be responsible for the chelation activity in the synthesis mechanism. These biomolecules were found in high concentrations and contained biologically-active hydroxyl groups. Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) analysis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs results indicated the presence of the Sn-O-Sn group at region 400 cm<sup>-1</sup>. UV-Visible (UV-Vis) analysis showed maximum absorption at 408 nm as a sign of the clustered nature of the pure SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs. The result from transmission electron microscopy (TEM) observed the nanoparticles to agglomerate into larger particles, with a size of approximately 9 nm. Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) showed Sn peaks between 0 to 5 keV, proving the high purity of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs. The synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs were then tested for their ability and activity through antibacterial activity analysis and cytotoxic activity analysis. The antibacterial test was determined by the minimal bactericidal concentration (MBC) and the minimal fungicidal concentration (MFC), which showed that the synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs

nanoparticles had a good biocidal effect on all tested microorganisms. The studies on cytotoxic activity also demonstrated that the SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs nanoparticles led to cell death; however, this impact was highly dependent on the concentration and was time-dependent.

*Calotropis gigantea* aqueous leaf extract was used by Bhosale *et al.* to create SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs (34). The study confirmed that biomolecules were present in the extract by doing an analysis of FTIR, such as amines, aldehydes, hydroxyl, and aromatic ring groups, in which authors suggested acting as a capping agent. Qualitative phytochemical screening was also conducted to confirm the presence of flavonoids, tannins, saponins, terpenoids, alkaloids, and phenols in the leaf extract. XRD analysis discovered that the biosynthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs exhibited a tetragonal structure with a size of 35 nm. Additionally, SEM analysis indicated a mixed morphology with insignificant agglomeration. The photocatalytic activity of the synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs was calculated based on the degradation of Methyl orange under UV-visible light, whereby the results recorded 80% degradation within 3 hours.

A water-based extract from cauliflower leaf (*Brassica oleracea L. var. botrytis*) was used in a green technique by Osuntokun *et al.* (35). The authors stated that the tin cation interacted with biomolecules, that is antioxidants belonging to the polyphenol and flavonoid groups through the chelation process. This chelation process formed a bivalent complex between the biomolecules and the tin cation. The obtained precipitate was later annealed at temperatures of 300 and 450°C for two hours. XRD analysis indicated that both samples exhibited a tetragonal rutile phase, with sizes approximately to be 3.1 and 6.1 nm, and these findings were supported by TEM results. UV-Vis spectroscopy discovered that the synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs exhibited quantum confinement, with

absorption peaks showing a blue shift compared to bulk SnO<sub>2</sub>. Besides, photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy demonstrated emission maxima corresponding to lower band gap energy light irradiation. For photocatalytic testing, both samples degraded about 91 % and 88 % of methylene blue within 180 minutes. This higher degradation was recorded when using smaller particle sizes of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs that were prepared at an annealing temperature of 300°C rather than 450°C.

Green tea extract, namely *Camellia sinensis*, was used by Selvakumari *et al.* in a work to create SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs (36). The researchers theorized that the four types of polyphenolic flavanol derivatives contain in green tea, namely epicatechin (EC), epigallocatechin (EGC), picatechin gallate (ECG), and epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG), would be an active reducing and stabilizing agents. These biomolecules are highly water soluble and polar, with a good ability to donate both protons and electrons in the reaction mechanism. The results indicated that as the annealing temperature increased, the crystallite size of the nanoparticles also increased. XRD analysis revealed that the crystallite size was less than 20 nm. Furthermore, a morphological investigation using SEM showed that the particles displayed a spherical shape, with sizes ranging from 5 to 30 nm.

Another research utilizing extracts derived from *Camellia sinensis* leaves was conducted by Luque *et al.*, in which the experiment involved varying concentrations of the extract (37). The researchers proposed that biomolecules present in the leaf extract, such as flavonoids, amino acids, proteins, and enzymes, effectively functioned as chelating and capping agents. In particular, the hydroxyl groups of polyphenols and flavonoids are biomolecules having the ability to coordinate with the tin cation. The analysis using SEM revealed that the

synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs showed a quasi-spherical shape, with average sizes of 6.91, 5.2, and 4.7 nm. XRD results indicated a hexagonal structure in the rutile phase, with an interplanar distance (d) of 0.33 nm. The photocatalytic testing recorded a complete degradation when methylene blue and rhodamine-B were employed, while for methyl orange about 81% of degradation was recorded.

Utilizing guava (*Psidium guajava*) leaf extract, Kumar *et al.* showed the production of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs using a basic, affordable, and ecologically friendly technique (38). The extract was believed to contain diverse categories of biomolecules that aided this bio-based synthesis, which are phenolic compounds, flavonoids, sesquiterpene alcohols, and triterpenoid acids. The size of the synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs was discovered using TEM, in which the nanoscale ranges from 8 to 10 nm. The photocatalytic testing recorded the efficient degradation ability of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs on RY186 dye, whereby within a time length of 180 minutes, 90% of the dye was degraded and gave a rate constant of 0.00476 min<sup>-1</sup>.

Furthermore, an extract obtained from *Aspalathus linearis* was used by Diallo *et al.* in synthesizing SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs (39). The suggested biomolecules responsible for the chelating action were identified as aspalathin (a dihydrochalcone glycoside), as well as related chalcone compounds including nothofagin and aspalalinin. The authors also mentioned that the leaf powder was mixed with water for two days to ensure the maximum extraction of the required biochemicals. The thermal treatment was carried out at temperatures of 400 °C, 700 °C, and 900°C, to give quasi-spherical and fully spherical morphologies. From HRTEM results, the average diameter of the synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs was found to be in the range of 2.1 to 19.3 nm. Remarkably, the smallest SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs exhibited excellent

photocatalytic activity by effectively degrading three dyes namely methylene blue, congo red, and eosin Y.

An easy one-pot hydrothermal method was described in a work by Fu et al. on the biosynthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs utilising *Plectranthus amboinicus* (40). It was believed that in the formation of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs, the biomolecules present in the extract served as the reducing agent. Authors claimed a similar function of the extract in the formation of Ag NPs based on the former report, however the specific name for the biomolecules was not exposed. The average size of the synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs was recorded to be 63 nm, which resulted from SEM analysis. From the characterizations using XRD and EDX, it was indicated that the proposed procedure led to high-purity SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs, whereas XRD analysis resulted in the existence of a tetragonal structure of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs. Besides, the biosynthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs demonstrated an efficient performance in degrading about 95% of rhodamine-B within 120 minutes. Additionally, SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs sustained their functionality at 91% even after enduring five consecutive cycles.

Additionally, Wicaksono and his team used leaves extract from *Amaranthus tricolour L* to perform a biofabrication technique to create SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs (41). The researchers proposed that several biomolecules, which are gallic acid (3,4,5-OH), myrcetin, quercetin-3-O-rutinoside (rutin), and apigenin-7-O-glucoside (apigenin) to be responsible for reducing the tin cation during the synthesis. XRD analysis revealed the polycrystalline nature of the powder with a rutile structure, and the crystallite size was recorded to be 18 nm. SEM analysis showed that the nanoparticles displayed a spherical shape. Moreover, EDS measurements proved the occurrence of Sn as the major element. TEM analysis demonstrated an irregular particle distribution with diameters within the range

of 20 to 40 nm. Regarding the photodegradation ability of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles on Bromophenol blue, it was observed that complete degradation was achieved when H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was added, while in its absence only half degradation was recorded.

The creation of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs using *Cleistanthus collinus* methanolic leaf extract was also reported by Kamaraj et al. (42). They believe the natural biomolecules that exist in the leaves would aid the reducing action such as cleistanthin A and cleistanthin B, which lay under the category of lignan lactone glucosides. From XRD analysis, SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs were recorded as a tetragonal lattice structure with a grain size of 49 nm while SEM gave nanoscale measurements of 20 to 40 nm. The furnished SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs were studied on antibacterial activities by using *Escherichia coli* and *S. aureus*, while antifungal activities were studied by using *Asperjillus nigar* and *T. viridea* which resulted in potential antioxidant activities.

Aloe vera extract was used in a research investigation of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs that was described by Subramaniam et al. (43). The authors suggest two aromatic biomolecules that are possibly involved in the reduction process which, are anthraquinone and glycoside. XRD analysis indicates the crystallite size of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs as 49 nm while FTIR results proved the presence of Sn-O bond by the appearance of absorption band region 500 cm<sup>-1</sup>. SEM analysis revealed that the aloe vera solution influences the formation of SnO<sub>2</sub> in which they tend to aggregate, and the particle size becomes larger. No subsequent testing was declared by the author in the articles.

Several biomolecules that serve as the reducing agent in the creation of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs were discussed by Kandan et al. (44). They reported using four types of leaf extract: *Carica papaya*, *Murraya koenigii*, *Moringa oleifera*, and *Acalypha indica*. The biomolecules that were predicted to hold the



function of transformation of tin cation to nanoparticles were flavones, alkaloids, phenols, carbohydrates, and amino acids. From the analysis of XRD, the measurement for the average crystallite size for the four SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs was found to be 5 nm, 19 nm, 38 nm, and 11 nm, whereby they reflected a tetragonal single phase. The authors assumed that the smaller size of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs produced from the employment of *Carica papaya* extract might be attributed to the better action in controlling the size during the nanoparticle

growth. SEM characterization indicates a formation of agglomerated tiny particles with rods. While UV-Vis analysis led to a measurement of the energy band gap with the value of 2.8 to 3.14 eV, which was appropriately carried out for photocatalytic testing. The degradation for all tested photocatalysts on rhodamine-B was found to be almost equal. The summary of the previous works of biosynthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs using leaves extract are tabulated in Table 1.

**Table 1:** The biosynthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs from leaves extract and their testing applications

No	Leaves	Biomolecules responsible	Testing application	Ref.
1	<i>Daphne mucronata</i>	Coumarins, coumarino lignans, flavonoids, carboxylic acids, lignin, and triterpenoids	Photocatalytic: 99 % of rhodamine-6G; Antimicrobial: Larger inhibition zones are measured with increased concentration and volume of SnO <sub>2</sub> NPs against GPB, GNB and fungi	32
2	<i>Pruni spinosae flos</i>	Flavonoids and phenolic acid	Antimicrobial: Good biocidal effect against GPB, GNB, and fungi.  Cytotoxic activity: SnO <sub>2</sub> NPs presence during cell proliferative activity invariably leads to cell death	33
3	<i>Calotropis gigantea</i>	Flavonoids, tannins, saponins, terpenoids, alkaloids, and phenols	Photocatalytic: 80% degradation of methyl orange	34
4	<i>Brassica oleracea L. var. botrytis</i>	Polyphenol and flavonoid	Photocatalytic: 91 % and 88 % degradation of methylene blue	35
5	<i>Camellia sinensis</i>	Epicatechin (EC), epigallocatechin (EGC), picatechin gallate (ECG), and epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG)	N/A	36
6	<i>Camellia sinensis</i>	Flavonoids, amino acids, proteins and enzymes	Photocatalytic: 100% degradation of methylene blue and rhodamine-B, 81% degradation of methyl orange	37
7	<i>Psidium guajava</i>	Flavonoids, sesquiterpene alcohols, and triterpenoid acids	Photocatalytic: 90% degradation of RY186 dye	38
8	<i>Aspalathus linearis</i>	Aspalathin	Photocatalytic: 100% degradation of methylene blue and eosin Y, ~50% of congo red.	39

9	<i>Plectranthus amboinicus</i>	Biomolecules not specifically mentioned	Photocatalytic: 95% degradation of rhodamine-B	40
10	<i>Amaranthus tricolour L</i>	Gallic acid (3,4,5-OH), myrcetin, quercetin-3-O-rutinoside (rutin), and apigenin-7-O-glucoside (apigenin)	Photocatalytic: 100% degradation of bromophenol blue	41
11	<i>Cleistanthus Collinus</i>	Cleistanthin A and cleistanthin B (lignan lactone glucosides)	Antimicrobial: Larger inhibition zones are measured with increased concentration and volume of SnO <sub>2</sub> NPs against GPB, GNB and fungi	42
12	Aloe vera	Anthraquinone and glycoside	N/A	43
13	<i>Carica papaya, Murraya koenigii, Moringa oleifera, and Acalypha indica</i>	Flavones, alkaloids, phenols, carbohydrates, and amino acids	Photocatalytic: 86% degradation of rhodamine-B	44

### 3.2 The utilization of fruit extract in mediating synthesis

Honarmand *et al.* used *Ziziphus jujube* fruit extract to conduct a biosynthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs (45). They reported the possible fruit's flavonoids, particularly quercetin, acted as tin cation reducing agent. They also claim this biomolecule prevents the agglomeration of nanoparticles. Analysis from XRD gave a tetragonal rutile structure of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs with an average crystallite size of about 18 nm. FTIR analysis indicates the presence of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs by showing an absorption peak corresponding to Sn-OH within the region 1000 to 1100 cm<sup>-1</sup>. SEM analysis evidenced the formation of nanoparticles with minimal agglomeration. The photocatalytic activity of the SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs was investigated for degradation of two organic dyes which were methylene blue and eriochrome black-T, under direct sunlight. Methylene blue showed better degradation performance by having a 90% result, rather than Eriochrome black-T with 83%. The reusability test recorded four-time cycles of

SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs performance that might be attributed to its high stability.

The green synthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs using *Lycopersicon esculentum* (tomato) peel extract was demonstrated by Garrafa-Galvev *et al.* with different concentrations (46). The authors claim the high percentage of flavonoid content carried a great potential to be acted as the reducing agent in green synthesis. XRD analysis proves SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs in crystalline and tetragonal structures with different sizes and shapes homogeneity attributed to their extract amount. A vibrational peak at 666 cm<sup>-1</sup> from FTIR analysis proved the presence of the Sn-O-Sn group. TEM images showed the quasi-spherical formation for all nanoparticles NPs, with only slight agglomeration and the sizes were 5.56 nm, 4.67 nm, and 4.01 corresponding to 1%, 2% and 4% samples. UV-Vis analysis translated the result for band gap value and obtained 3.3 eV. Photocatalytic testing recorded 99% degradation performed by SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs with 4% peel extract on methylene blue within 120 min, rather than 67% and 85% degradation

when using SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs with 1% and 2% peel extract.

An extract of the fruit from the *Litsea cubeba* was used by Hong and Jiang to create SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs in their study (47). They believed biomolecules in the fruits especially polyphenols, flavonoids, and other secondary metabolites are the key factors to reduce tin chloride to tin oxide. FTIR analysis confirmed the presence of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs by showing absorption peaks within 400 to 600 cm<sup>-1</sup> that belonged to Sn-O and Sn-O-Sn groups. While for morphological proof, SEM demonstrated an irregular shape of nanoparticles, with 40 to 60 nm nanoscale size. The photocatalytic was tested on congo red and recorded a better degradation percentage for SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs annealed at 600°C rather than 400°C. The antioxidant study was conducted using SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs based on the DPPH scavenging activity, which indicated a prominent antioxidant capability against DPPH free radicals particularly when using SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs without any thermal treatment with IC<sub>50</sub> value recorded to be 2257.4 lg/ml.

Senthilkumar and Rajendran described a straightforward, quick, environmentally friendly method for producing SnO<sub>2</sub> thin films utilising *Citrus aurantifolia* (lemon) peel extract (48). This study is based on the justification of the presence of the alkaloid group in lemon to reduce tin oxide. The preparation involved the annealing process at 100 °C and 220 °C. XRD measurement confirmed the tetragonal crystalline structure and high-purity SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs. For SnO<sub>2</sub> thin film annealed up to 100°C, the crystalline size was obtained at 26 nm while for 200 °C the size was 32 nm. FTIR analysis proved the formation of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs by demonstrating peaks corresponding to O-Sn-O between regions 400 to 600 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The authors claimed the distribution of the nanostructures was uniform but did not perform any application afterward.

*Citrus aurantifolia* was reportedly used by Luque *et al.* with various extract strengths (49). Several biomolecules were believed to be present in the fruit extract such as flavonoid-type compounds: rutin, apigenin, hesperetin, nobiletin, kaempferol, and quercetin. In addition, other biomolecules such as flavones, flavanones, naringenin, triterpenoids, and limonoids were also present to aid the biosynthesis mechanism. From the characterization result, FTIR analysis proved the presence of Sn-O-Sn at region 570 to 670 cm<sup>-1</sup>. While XRD diffraction pattern analysis evidenced the construction of pure SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs with tetragonal structure in the rutile phase. TEM showed the morphology of quasi-spherical formation, and slight agglomeration only happens when using a high concentration of extract. UV-Vis analysis gave band gap measurement within the range of 3.0 to 3.4 eV for the nanoparticles, which later used as the photocatalyst showed a degradation efficiency of 94.4 % on methylene blue within 2 hours.

Subsequently, based on the justification former research papers used biomolecules contained in the plant extract, Luque *et al.* also conducted a synthesis using *Citrus sinensis* to drive the SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs formation (50). The authors did not suggest the name of the biomolecules that are involved in the mechanism but presumed they acted as the reducing agent. FTIR analysis demonstrated absorption peaks at region 1632 cm<sup>-1</sup> and Sn-O-Sn at 642 cm<sup>-1</sup> correspond to Sn-O and Sn-O-Sn groups. While XRD evidenced the formation of SnO<sub>2</sub> to be in a tetragonal rutile structure. TEM analysis gave morphology of quasi-spherical with certain agglomeration, and the size was measured as 4.5 nm. UV-Vis analysis facilitated the calculation of the band gap to give a value of 3.49 eV, and this enabled SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs to function as the photocatalyst. The degradation of methylene blue was achieved at 94% within 2 hours.

In addition, Elango and Roopan conducted a study using *Cyphomandra betacea* fruit (51). In this study, the polar biomolecules were pin-pointed to have important action in the mechanism whereby the extraction for the polar biomolecules was carried out using methanol. The volatile compounds like terpenoids, aromatics, esters, and aldehydes were removed primarily. FTIR gave evidence of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs formation by showing the absorption band of Sn-OH at region 609 cm<sup>-1</sup> and XRD gave the measurements of the crystallite size as 21 nm. While EDX analysis proved the elemental composition to be 73.57% and 15.75 % for Sn and O. SEM analysis discovered a cluster nanoparticles formation with noticeable sharp edges. The photocatalytic measurements recorded a complete degradation of methylene blue within 70 minutes.

The green process was also reported by Roopan *et al.* using *Annona squamosa* fruit extract (52). The extract was confirmed to possess biomolecules bearing hydroxyl group that accounted to be the capping agent, which later formed a coordination bond with tin cation. XRD analysis indicated the nanoparticles to be a tetragonal crystalline structure with a size of 20 nm and spherical formation of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs around 27 nm was proved by TEM analysis. The synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs were tested under a cytotoxicity study using a hepatocellular carcinoma cell line (HepG2), in which the cell morphology correlates with the increment of the nanoparticle's concentrations. The result also indicated cell proliferation with an IC<sub>50</sub> value of 148 µg/mL, which showed the efficiency of the cytotoxicity using SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs was in moderate average level towards HepG2.

The fabrication of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs using *Actinidia deliciosa* fruit based on the presence of biomolecules to act as capping

and reducing agents such as alkaloids, amino acids, flavonoids, glycosides, and terpenoids has been reported by Gomathi *et al.* (53). From the XRD result, the crystalline structure was discovered to be rutile phase and the average crystallite size was calculated to be 20 nm. FTIR analysis confirmed the presence of Sn-O-Sn and Sn-OH by the appearance of absorption peaks at 500 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 600 cm<sup>-1</sup>, and around 1100 cm<sup>-1</sup>. SEM and TEM analysis evidenced the morphology to be a 5 to 10 nm spherical formation. The photocatalytic testing of the synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs was carried out to degrade several dyes which were methylene blue, and Methyl orange rhodamine-B which resulted in 89%, 87%, and 97% respectively.

The explanation of the green synthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs using peel extract from cotton balls was reported by Narasaiah *et al.* (54). The authors did not mention specifically the biomolecules involved in the reaction, but FTIR analysis proved the presence of their functional groups that are responsible for the capping and reducing action, which are hydroxyl groups derived from polyphenols, aromatic amines, and carbonyl. From XRD analysis, it was proven that the crystal structure of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs is tetragonal with average crystallite size ranging from 4 to 9 nm. TEM demonstrated a spherical formation of samples with an average size of 3.97 nm. EDX gave a measurement of 86.59% tin and 13.41% oxygen to confirm the construction of pure SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs. The photocatalytic testing indicated that the smallest size of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs effectively degraded methylene blue and methyl orange, and after five consecutive reusability tests it exhibited more than 90% performance. The summary of the previous works of biosynthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs using leaves extract are tabulated in Table 2.

**Table 2:** The biosynthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs from fruits extract and their testing applications

No	Fruits	Biomolecules responsible	Testing application	Ref.
1	<i>Ziziphus jujube</i>	Flavonoids (quercetin)	Photocatalytic; 90% degradation of Methylene blue and 83% of Eriochrome black-T	45
2	<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	Flavonoids	Photocatalytic; 67% to 99% degradation of methylene blue	46
3	<i>Litsea cubeba</i>	Polyphenols and flavonoids	Antioxidant: Strong antioxidant capacity against the DPPH free radical (IC <sub>50</sub> : 2257.4 µg/mL)	47
4	<i>Citrus aurantifolia</i>	Alkaloid	N/A	48
5	<i>Citrus aurantifolia</i>	Flavonoids	Photocatalytic; 94.4% degradation of methylene blue	49
6	<i>Citrus sinensis</i>	N/A	Photocatalytic; 94% degradation of Methylene blue	50
7	<i>Cyphomandra betacea</i>	Terpenoids, aromatics, esters, and aldehydes	Photocatalytic; 100% degradation of methylene blue	51
8	<i>Annona squamosa</i>	N/A	Cytotoxic activity: SnO <sub>2</sub> NPs presence during cell proliferative activity invariably leads to cell death	52
9	<i>Actinidia deliciosa</i>	Alkaloids, amino acids, flavonoids, glycosides, and terpenoids	Photocatalytic; 89% degradation of methylene blue, 87% of rhodamine-B and 97% of methyl orange	53
10	Cotton balls	N/A	Photocatalytic; 90% degradation of methylene blue and 94% of methyl orange	54

#### 4.0 Conclusion

The present review overviews the utilization of different extracts of leaves and fruits in performing biosynthesis of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs. This bio-template method is certainly safe, sustainable, economical, and repeatable on a large scale. The function of the biomolecules to act as the capping and reducing agent is very significant to facilitate the formation and control of the size of SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs. Significantly, the hydroxyl group attached to the biomolecules plays an important role in forming the coordination bond through chelating activity. In general, the purely synthesized SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs proved to

be worth synthesizing, which demonstrated a unique potential in biological as well as photocatalytic activity. In the future, intensive studies should be conducted to investigate the influence of the different biomolecules on the morphology and size of the produced SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs.

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#### Conflict of interest

Hereby, the authors declare that there is no conflict of interest in the current work.

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