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Short communication

# Monoclinic $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods by microwave-assisted synthesis: Photocatalytic and antioxidant properties

Marwa Yousry A. Mohamed<sup>a</sup>, Hela Ferjani<sup>b,\*</sup>, Opeyemi A. Oyewo<sup>c</sup>, Oluwasayo E. Ogunjinmi<sup>d</sup>, Seham M. Hamed<sup>a</sup>, Chahra Amairia<sup>e</sup>, Seshibe Makgato<sup>c</sup>, Damian C. Onwudiwe<sup>f,g,</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Biology Department, College of Science, Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU), Riyadh 11623, Saudi Arabia

<sup>b</sup> Chemistry Department, College of Science, Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU), Riyadh 11623, Saudi Arabia

<sup>c</sup> Department of Chemical Engineering, College of Science, Engineering and Technology, University of South Africa (UNISA), Florida Campus 1710, Johannesburg, South Africa

<sup>d</sup> Department of Industrial Chemistry, First Technical University Ibadan, Nigeria

<sup>e</sup> Chemistry Department, College of Science, Al-Baha University, Al Bahah 65779, Saudi Arabia

<sup>f</sup> Materials Science Innovation and Modelling (MaSIM) Research Focus Area, Faculty of Natural and Agricultural Science, North-West University, Private Bag X2046, Mmabatho, South Africa

<sup>8</sup> Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Natural and Agricultural, Science, North-West University (Mafikeng Campus), Private Bag X2046, Mmabatho 2735, South Africa

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# ABSTRACT

Nanotechnology has emerged as a new route for addressing most environmental and medical challenges, hence this field of research continues to generate research interest. Herein, Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was synthesized by a microwaveassisted thermal process. X-ray diffraction (XRD) result confirmed that a nanocrystalline monoclinic crystal structure of the  $\alpha$ -phase was formed, and both the Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) and Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) analysis confirmed that the synthesized  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> were rod-like in shape. The length of the nanorods was in the range of 60-160 nm, with an average dimension of 101.5 nm, while the width has an average value of 23 nm. A band gap energy value of 2.75 eV was obtained from the absorption spectroscopy, and they absorbed light in the UV to visible range, with an absorption maximum of around 345 nm. Photocatalytic activity of the nanorods under UV irradiation was investigated by assessing the degradation of Bromocresol green (BG) as a model pollutant. The degradation process of the dye molecules was studied at different concentrations (20-80 mg/L), varied photocatalyst dosage (0.025, 0.05, 0.075, and 1.0 g), and a range of solution pH (3, 6, 9, and 12). About 75 % optimum photocatalytic efficiency was achieved at pH 6 after 3 h. In addition, the results showed that an increase in catalyst dosage and concentration of dye molecules contributed to promoting the degradation effect. Moreover, the photocatalyst was found to be stable after 4 consecutive cycles, with negligible loss of efficiency. The antioxidant potency of the nanorods was assessed by evaluating their free radical scavenging capabilities across 4 different assays: 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyle (DPPH), Nitric oxide (NO), Hydrogen peroxide (HP) radical inhibition, and Reducing power (RP). The results from the IC<sub>50</sub> values indicated the sample exhibited better inhibition of HP (25.22 µg/mL), followed by RP (28.22 µg/mL), NO (29.37 µg/mL), and DPPH (32.72 µg/mL) respectively. However, the standard Ascorbic acid exhibited IC<sub>50</sub> values of 16.25, 24.50, 25.07, and 28.40 µg/mL for DPPH, RP, HP, and NO, respectively. These unique properties of the nanorods showed that they have good antioxidant potential that is comparable with that of Ascorbic acid used as the standard.

#### 1. Introduction

The utilization of nanocrystalline materials in photocatalytic water

treatment is a widely recognized advanced oxidation method (AOP) employed in environmental remediation [1,2]. Through the creation of electron-hole pairs under light exposure, nanomaterials can break down

\* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: hhferjani@imamu.edu.sa (H. Ferjani), Damian.Onwudiwe@nwu.ac.za (D.C. Onwudiwe).

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<sup>\*\*</sup> Corresponding author at: Materials Science Innovation and Modelling (MaSIM) Research Focus Area, Faculty of Natural and Agricultural Science, North-West University, Private Bag X2046, Mmabatho, South Africa.

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various organic compounds, transforming them into non-hazardous byproducts such as carbon dioxide, water, and some inorganic ions [3]. This photo-enhanced catalytic destruction of contaminants by nanomaterials in aqueous solutions is mainly promoted by a sequence of hydroxylation reactions which are initiated by hydroxyl radicals ('OH) [4–7].

When semiconductor nanomaterials are exposed to light of sufficient energy (equals or exceeds the material's band gap), they generate electron-hole pairs. Electrons (e<sup>-</sup>) get excited from the semiconductor's valence band (VB) to the conduction band (CB), resulting in the creation of a positive hole (h<sup>+</sup>) in the valence band. This stimulation of charge carriers  $(e^{-}/h^{+})$  marks the onset of the photocatalytic degradation process. The positive hole in the valence band facilitates the oxidation of surface-absorbed water molecules or OH<sup>-</sup>, thereby generating hydroxyl radicals ('OH). Simultaneously, the photoexcited electrons reduce oxygen molecules, yielding hydroperoxyl radicals (HO<sub>2</sub>) or superoxide radicals  $(O_2)[8]$ . Consequently, all these species collaborate in the generation of 'OH, which subsequently targets and attacks the pollutants within the water solution [3]. Among the semiconductor photocatalysts, metal oxides have been widely used because of their good stability, environmental friendliness, and availability [9]. Bismuth oxide (Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) has been widely studied due to its several positive features including significant band gap energy, high photoconductivity, and enhanced refractive index [10,11].

One of the characteristic features of bismuth oxide is its polymorphism, exhibiting five different modifications:  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -,  $\gamma$ -,  $\delta$ -, and  $\omega$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [12,13]. Two of these polymorphs: the  $\alpha$  and  $\delta$  phases are stable at low and high temperatures respectively, while the rest are metastable at high temperatures [13]. Each of these polymorphs possesses unique crystalline structures and distinct physical properties including good optical, high electrical, and photoelectrical properties. The monoclinic  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> exhibits a band gap of 2.85 eV at 300 K, while the tetragonal  $\beta$  phase has a band gap of 2.58 eV [10]. Bismuth oxide have mostly been reported as ID nanostructures [14–18].

in the proximity of the grain boundaries actively alters the electrical transport properties within polycrystalline materials [19]. Moreover, as the width of the nanorod decreases, the finite size of the rod imposes constraints on electron wave functions. This confinement results in the establishment of quantized energy levels, leading to significant modifications in both the electrical transport as well as the optical characteristics of the material [10].

Apart from radical generation in photocatalysis and its application in water treatment, semiconductor nanomaterials have recently emerged as crucial and cutting-edge materials for the development of advanced alternatives both for drug delivery, diagnostic and therapeutic applications for diseases such as cancer and infectious disorders [20–22]. Oxidative stress induced by free radicals stands as the primary cause of various diseases and conditions, including neurological disorders, aging, and cancer [23]. These free radicals instigate cellular damage and disrupt homeostasis by engaging with proteins, nucleic acids, and lipids. Antioxidants play a pivotal role in shielding the cells and large biological molecules by scavenging the free radicals and diminishing the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) [24–26]. Nanoparticles have cytotoxic effects against cancerous cells and can neutralize free radicals thereby acting as antioxidants [25].

Herein, a microwave-enhanced hydrothermal method is devised for the preparation of  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods. Microwave-assisted methods offer several advantages, including rapid reaction kinetics, high purity, uniform size distribution, enhanced crystallinity, and tuneable morphologies. These advantages of microwave synthesis make it desirable when compared to other conventional methods. For example,  $Bi_2O_3$  nanoparticles prepared using an aqueous extract of plant were only successful after 24 h at 90 °C [27].  $Bi_2O_3$  nanowires were prepared using a combination of sol–gel process and electrospinning methods, and the process was followed by calcination process in the air at 400 °C and 600 °C for 3 h [28]. The microwave-synthesized nanorods were characterized by different analytical techniques including XRD, UV–vis spectroscopy, TEM and SEM measurements. The results showed nanorods with a unique monoclinic crystal structure, which has the potential of imparting exceptional photocatalytic and antioxidant properties, making them promising candidates for various environmental and biomedical applications.

Hence, the photocatalytic property of the fabricated nanorod was evaluated by studying the photodegradation of Bromocresol green (BG) as model pollutant in aqueous solution under ultraviolet light illumination. Additionally, the antioxidant activity was assessed and the nanorods showed very good free radical scavenging efficacy in all the assays used to assess its antioxidant activity including nitric oxide scavenging, Hydrogen peroxide (HP), Reducing power (Ferric reducing power) and DPPH free radicals scavenging assays. This is the first report on the photocatalytic and antioxidant studies of Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods obtained from microwave route, and it offers the potential of extension to other similar metal oxides.

# 2. Experimentals

# 2.1. Materials and methods

All the chemical reagents used in this study were commercially obtained and were used as received without any purification treatment. Bismuth nitrate pentahydrate, Bi(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub>·5H<sub>2</sub>O, ethylenediamine (En, 99 %), sodium hydroxide were purchased from ACE Chemicals, while DPPH (2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl), Bromocresol green (BG), hydrogen peroxide (HP), sodium nitroprusside, ascorbic acid, and potassium ferricyanide, and phosphate buffer were obtained from Merck chemicals.

# 2.2. Synthesis of Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods

In a typical synthesis procedure, 20 mL ethanol solution of Bi  $(NO_3)_3$ ·5H<sub>2</sub>O (1.5 mmol) was added to 5 mL of ethylenediamine (En, 99 %) and stirred for about 30 min. Sodium hydroxide solution was added dropwise to adjust the pH of the solution to 8. Thereafter, the solution was transferred into a 50 mL microwave reactor vessel and heated at 160 °C for 5 min under microwave radiation. The product obtained was cooled to room temperature, rinsed several times with distilled water and followed with ethanol, before drying at 80 °C for 10 h. The dried product was further calcined for 2 h at 400 °C.

# 2.3. Characterization methods

A Bruker D8 Advanced XRD diffractometer was used to measure the sample's crystallinity and composition. UV–visible diffuse reflectance (DRS) spectrum was recorded using Thermo scientific evolution 300 UV–visible spectrophotometer. FEI QUANTA FEG-200 scanning electron microscope was used to visualize the particle surface morphology, while the internal morphology was analyzed on a JEM-3010 transmission electron microscope. The materials' surface charge was assessed by measuring their zeta potential with a Malvern Nano ZS instrument.

# 2.4. Photocatalysis studies

The degradation of an aqueous solution of BG under visible light irradiation was used to assess the photocatalytic activity of the  $Bi_2O_3$ nanorods. A 250-W Xe discharge lamp with a recirculating water source in the reactor vessel and a dye concentration of 20 mg/L was created for the investigation. To create an adsorption equilibrium between the catalysts' and the dye's surfaces, 0.075 g of the nanorods were added to the dye solution for each measurement, and the mixture was magnetically agitated for an hour while the light was off. After that, the suspension was continuously stirred for 3 h under the lamp. Aliquots of the solution were taken during this procedure at 15-min intervals. UV-visible spectroscopy was used to investigate the dye's degradation efficiency.

# 2.5. Antioxidant assay

The antioxidant activity of the nanorod was assessed by four (4) different assays as follows:

# 2.5.1. 1,1-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl) (DPPH)

The antioxidant activity of nanoparticles has been extensively measured using the DPPH scavenging assay [29,30]. In the current study, the scavenging of the free radicals generated by 1,1-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) was utilized to assess the free radical scavenging activity of the nanorods and Ascorbic acid (AA) used as the positive control. Six different concentrations  $(1.56 - 50 \ \mu g/mL)$  of the two samples (Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and AA) were prepared and 1 mL of 0.1 mM DPPH in 100 percent ethanol was added to each concentration. The solutions were analysed after a 30 min incubation period at room temperature in the dark. The measurement was conducted by sampling 250  $\mu$ L of each solution into a 96-well microplate in triplicates and measuring the absorbance at 517 nm in comparison with the measurement of a blank solution. The percentage of free radical scavenging activity was estimated using equation (1):

% scavenged DPPH (%) = 
$$\frac{A_o A_t}{A_o}$$
 (1)

Where  $A_o$  represents the absorbance of the control at 30 min and  $A_t$  is the absorbance of  $Bi_2O_3$ .

# 2.5.2. Nitric oxide (NO) assay

The approach for investigating the nitric oxide scavenging assay followed a previously reported procedure [31]. Specifically, sodium nitroprusside (2 mL, 10 mM) was combined with the respective solutions of the nanorods in phosphate-buffered saline (0.5 mM; pH 7.4) and maintained at 25 °C for 4 h. Subsequently, the solution containing the nanorods or the standard ascorbic acid (AA) of approximately 0.5 mL was mixed with Griess reagent and left at 25 °C for 30 min. These mixed solutions were then pipetted into a 96-well microplate, and their absorbance was measured at an absorption wavelength of 540 nm. This entire experiment was repeated three times for each solution of the nanorod and AA. The percentage of scavenging properties was calculated using equation (2).

% scavenged [NO] = 
$$\frac{[Ab - As]}{Ab} X 100$$
 (2)

Ab = absorbance of the blank; As = absorbance of the nanorods or AA. The IC<sub>50</sub>, representing the concentration at which 50 % inhibition occurred, was determined by analyzing the plot correlating the percentage of inhibition with concentration.

# 2.5.3. Hydrogen peroxide (HP) assay

Approximately 5 mL of the Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods or AA was dissolved in a 1 % solution and subjected to serial dilution ranging from 50 to 1.56  $\mu$ M. These resulting solutions were combined with 0.5 mL of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> prepared within a phosphate buffer (0.1 M: pH 7.4) and allowed to incubate at 25 °C for 10 min. Subsequently, utilizing an automatic pipette, these prepared samples (250  $\mu$ L each) were transferred into a 96-well microplate, and their absorbance at 405 nm was gauged [32]. Following this, the percentage of scavenging properties of the samples was computed using equation (3).

% scavenged 
$$[H_2O_2] = \frac{[Ab - As]}{Ab} X 100$$
 (3)

Ab = absorbance of the blank; As = absorbance of the nanorods or AA.

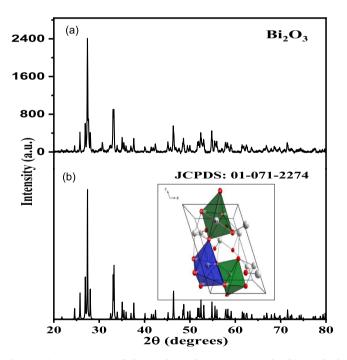
# 2.5.4. Reducing power assay (Ferric reducing power)

Approximately 0.3 mL of the different samples ( $Bi_2O_3$  and AA) concentrations were mixed with an equal concentration of potassium ferricyanide and phosphate buffer. The solutions were sonicated, followed by incubation at 50 °C. Upon reaching 25 °C, 0.2 mL of 10 % trichloroacetic acid was introduced, and the mixture was centrifuged at 4500 rpm for 15 min. Subsequently, 100 µL was extracted from this mixture and combined with ferric chloride (20 µL) and distilled water (100 µL). The absorbance at 700 nm was measured after transferring the solution into a 96-well microplate [33]. This entire process was repeated three times.

# 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Structural and morphological properties

The particles' crystalline structure was studied by using powder Xray diffraction measurement and the pattern is presented in Fig. 1. The diffraction patterns indicate that the major characteristic peaks identified around  $21.72^{\circ}$ ,  $24.56^{\circ}$ ,  $25.80^{\circ}$ ,  $26.92^{\circ}$ ,  $27.38^{\circ}$ ,  $28.02^{\circ}$ ,  $33.23^{\circ}$ ,  $35.01^{\circ}$ ,  $37.65^{\circ}$ ,  $46.35^{\circ}$ ,  $48.62^{\circ}$ ,  $54.80^{\circ}$ ,  $55.45^{\circ}$ ,  $63.56^{\circ}$  and  $71.39^{\circ}$  could be ascribed to the (-111), (020), (-102), (002), (-112), (-121), (-202), (-212), (-113), (041), (-104), (-241), (-224), (-115) and (-161) lattice planes of monoclinic crystal structure of  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and correspond to the standard card JCPDS NO. 71-2274 [34]. This phase of Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> belong to the space group *P*21/*c*, and has lattice constants of *a* = 5.850 Å, *b* = 8.170 Å, *c* = 7.512 Å [34]. The two predominant peaks were observed at 2 $\theta$  values of  $27.3^{\circ}$  and  $33.2^{\circ}$  with d-spacings of 3.25 Å and 2.71 Å, respectively, indicating the presence of the (-112) and (-202) reflection planes of Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [35]. The average crystallite sizes of Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods were calculated from these two most prominent peaks



**Fig. 1.** (a) XRD pattern of the synthesized  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods, (b) standard pattern for the standard card JCPDS NO. 71-2274 (inset is the arrangement of monoclinic crystalline structure of  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> under standard pressure, viewed from the perspective of the (0  $\overline{1}$  0) plane. Bi atoms are depicted as gray balls, while O atoms are represented by red balls. This structure displays one Bi atom surrounded by five coordinating entities (Bi–I—illustrated by green polyhedra) and another Bi atom surrounded by six coordinating entities (Bi–II—depicted by blue polyhedra) [37]. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

by the Scherrer equation (4) and determined to be 34 nm.

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{K}\lambda/\beta\mathbf{Cos}\,\theta\tag{4}$$

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where D is the crystallite size, K is the Scherrer constant,  $\lambda$  is obtained from the wave length of the X-ray beam used (1.54,184 Å). The value of  $\beta$  gives the Full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the peak and  $\theta$  is the Bragg angle [36]. Scherrer constant, denoted by K, represents the shape of the particle and its value is often taken as 0.9.

To examine the morphology, the synthesized  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods were studied by SEM and TEM analyses, and the obtained micrographs are

presented in Fig. 2. The SEM images in Fig. 2(a) and (b) are the product before and after calcination respectively, and they revealed the transformation of the polymeric and irregular shape of the precursor material after microwave irradiation (Fig. 2a) to the monoclinic  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanomaterials possessing rod-shaped morphologies (Fig. 2b) after calcination. It is interesting to observe how the nanorods are grown in very high density. Fig. 2c presents the TEM images of the monoclinic  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, confirming the rod-shaped morphology. The HRTEM image of Fig. 2d exhibits distinct fringes with a lattice spacing of 3.03 Å and 2.74 Å. These could be indexed to the (211) and (012) crystal planes of

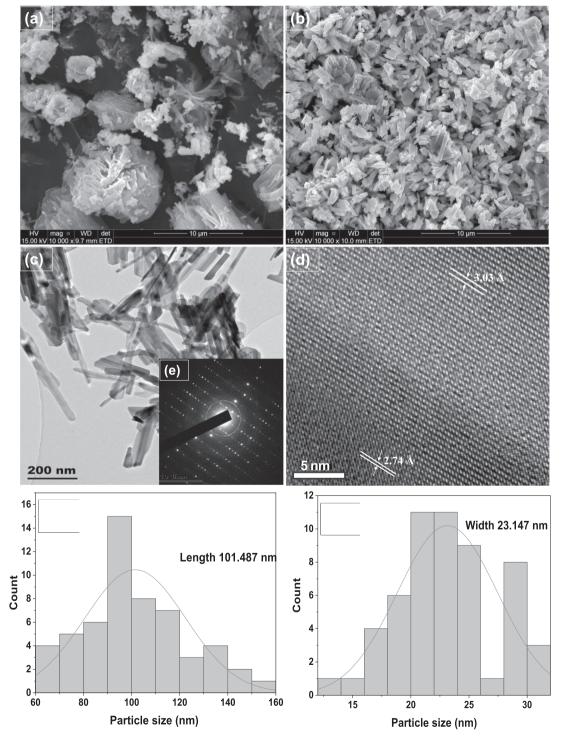


Fig. 2. SEM images of (a) precursor to the monoclinic  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and (b) monoclinic  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>; (c) TEM, (d) HRTEM, (e) The SAED, and particle size distribution histogram showing (e) length and (f) width of image of monoclinic  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.

monoclinic  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> respectively [38], and indicate that the results from HRTEM are in consonant with the XRD results. Also, the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern is presented in Fig. 3, which also confirms a single-crystal structure for the  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [39]. The length of the nanorods is in the range of 60–160 nm, with an average dimension of 101. 5 nm (Fig. 2e), while the width has an average value of 23 nm (Fig. 2f). This indicates that the nanorods possess a high-aspect ratio. Apart from their high-aspect ratio, it could also be observed from the TEM micrographs that the nanorods possess smooth surfaces throughout their lengths, which reveals a full consistency between the SEM and TEM results in terms of morphologies and dimensionality.

# 3.2. Optical properties

The optical property of a semiconductor indicates the position of absorption in the solar spectrum and it is recognized as a critical factor that determines its photocatalytic ability [40]. The optical absorption is related to the energy band structure of the material, and this has been measured using the diffuse reflection adsorption spectra (DRS) as shown in Fig. 3. The  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> present significant absorption properties spanning from the UV- to visible range of light with absorption edge located at 475 nm, similar to previous report [38]. The band gap energy value was analysed using the classical relation that describes a near edge optical absorption in semiconductors, which is given as equation (5):

$$\alpha = A(h\nu - E_g)^{n/2}/h\nu \tag{5}$$

where *A* is a constant,  $E_g$  is the band gap energy value of the semiconductor and *n* is a number which is dependent on the type of semiconductor (it is equal to 1 for direct gap and 4 for indirect gap semiconductors). The plots of  $(\alpha h\nu)^2$  vs  $h\nu$  of the  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> is shown in the inset of Fig. 3, and the extrapolation of the tangent curve to zero absorption coefficient gives the optical band gap energy 2.75 eV, which is very close to band gap value of monoclinic Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (2.85 eV) [41].

#### 3.3. Photodegradation of bromocresol green using Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods

The photocatalytic activity of the produced  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods was determined under visible light irradiation using 20 mg/L solution of bromocresol green (BG) dye and 0.075 g of catalyst at pH 6. A UV–vis spectrophotometer was used to determine the residual BG concentration. After exposure to visible light for 180 min, the dye solution began to progressively lose its color. An aliquot was sampled every 15 min. The

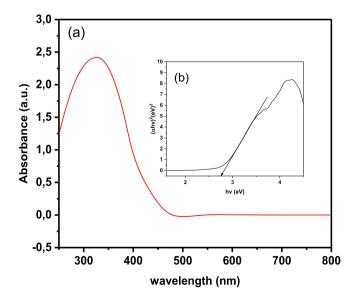


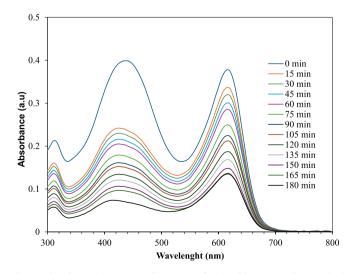
Fig. 3. (a) Absorption spectrum of the synthesized  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods (inset is the Tauc plot indicting the value of the band gap energy).

dye was found to undergoe sequential degradation as exhibited in the steady decrease in the peak position at about 415 and 620 nm [42], which are the maximum absorption wavelength typical of BG. The position of the greatest absorption peak was found to remain constant throughout the analysis procedure, indicating that the examined solution was free of any contaminants. Additionally, during the photocatalytic process, the dye solution's color varied from green to colourless suggesting a decrease in the concentration of BG. The acquired spectra line, which is shown in Fig. 4, revealed that the BG was gradually degrading over time, eventually reaching practically full degradation of 75 %. Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods are anticipated to increase this activity, as they act as a co-catalyst thereby prolonging the recombination of the charge carriers within the system [43].

# 3.3.1. Photocatalytic activity of Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> NPs as a function of surface charges

The zeta potential is a measure of a nanoparticle's electrical charge within its environment. In aqueous solutions, nanoparticles typically bear a positive, negative, or neutral charge. Surface-modified nanoparticles acquire their charge through the dissociation of acidic or basic groups on their surfaces, resulting in negative or positive charges, respectively. In contrast, unmodified nanoparticles derive their charge from the constituent atoms on their surfaces [44]. Modifying the pH of a medium containing nanoparticles can lead to variations in its dissolution into ions or modify the surface chemistry [45]. This alteration in surface chemistry can influence the nanoparticle's interactions with both organic and inorganic pollutants, potentially impacting photocatalytic mechanisms. Moreover, alongside pH adjustments, the zeta potential of a nanoparticle shifts over time while suspended in aqueous solution. Examining the surface charge of nanoparticles is crucial because various water sources in the environment are known to exhibit differing pH levels. Given that photocatalysis takes place on the surface of these nanoparticles, the efficiency of the photocatalyst is significantly impacted by the pH of the solution [46,47], the type of pollutants present, and the surface's capacity to adsorb pollutants [48]. Therefore, identifying the point of zero charge (pHPZC) plays a crucial role in anticipating the surface charge of nanoparticles during the photodegradation process [49].

Figure 5 illustrates the Zeta potential of  $Bi_2O_3$  nanoparticles in relation to the pH of the solution. The graph highlights the point of zero charge (pHPZC) for  $Bi_2O_3$  nanoparticles synthesized at pH levels of 3.0, 6.0, 9.0, and 12.0, which were determined to be 6.80, 5.85, 4.73, and 4.25, respectively. Below the pHPZC, the nanoparticles exhibited a



**Fig. 4.** The absorption spectra of aqueous solution of bromocresol green (BG) and photocatalyst measured at 15 min intervals. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

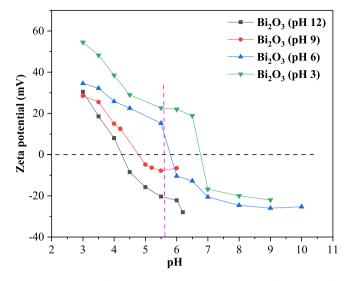


Fig. 5. Zeta potential measurements of  $\rm Bi_2O_3$  nanoparticles prepared at different solution pH of 3,6,9, and 12,

positive charge, whereas higher pH levels led to the development of negative charges on the nanoparticles [49].

#### 3.3.2. Effect of solution pH

The solution pH has been reported an impact on the degree of ionization and the surface chemistry of the catalysts; therefore, it is crucial for the photocatalysis process [50]. Photocatalytic degradation studies of the BG dye (pH = 5.65) in an aqueous suspension of the  $Bi_2O_3$ nanoparticles, which were prepared at varying pH values were conducted to evaluate their photocatalytic activity. Hence, about 20 mg/L of BG was examined at various solution pH values (3-12), as shown in Fig. 6. The solution pH 6 exhibited the highest degradation percentage of 74.5 %, which was followed by pH 3. The notable efficiencies observed in Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles produced at pH levels of 6.0 and 3 are likely due to the presence of positive charges on their surfaces. Consequently, the negatively charged anionic dye BG can be effectively absorbed onto the highly positively charged surface of Bi2O3 nanoparticles, facilitated by a robust electrostatic attraction. This electrostatic interaction plays a pivotal role in improving the adsorptive capabilities, thereby augmenting degradation efficiencies, as demonstrated in the instances of Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles prepared at pH 6.0 and

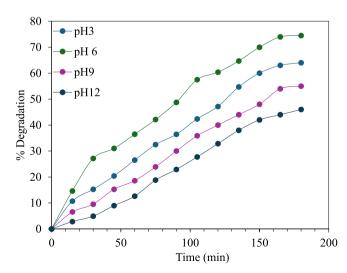


Fig. 6. The effect of pH on the photo degradation of BG using  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods (Initial concentration 20 mg/L; catalyst loading 0.75 g/L; radiation time 180 min).

3.0. The graph shows that a pH increases from 9 to 12 displayed a noticeable decrease in the degradation of BG. This may be ascribed to the effect of reduction in some positively charged sites under alkaline conditions, which in turn caused a reduction in the degradation of the anionic dye [51]. Similar observations have been reported in previous studies related to  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods [43,52].

## 3.3.3. Effect of catalyst dosage

Different catalyst loadings of 0.025, 0.05, 0.075, and 1.0 g, were utilized to ascertain the correlation between the catalyst dosage and the percentage of BG degradation. As shown in Fig. 7, the degradation efficiency increased with an increase in catalyst dosage. This is because the number of active sites on the nanocatalyst increased, leading to the production of more active radicals (superoxide and hydroxyl), that initiated the degradation process. Furthermore, an increase in the catalyst loading is equivalent to a high concentration of photons absorbed and improved adsorption of high concentration of dye molecules [53]. The increased rate is a result of the increased particle density in the illuminated area. Another possibility is the paucity in the substrate molecules accessible for photocatalysis due to an increase of particles at a particular level [54,55]. Consequently, the extra 1.0 g of catalyst powder did not impact on the catalyst's activity, and the rate did not rise as the catalyst's concentration increased above 0.75 g. However, as the catalyst dosage increased further, a decreasing trend was observed in the degradation performance. Therefore, further studies on the degradation process involving the Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods utilized 0.075 g as the optimum dosage for all the experiments.

#### 3.3.4. Effect of initial concentration of the BG dye

The influence of the initial concentration of BG was carried out at pH 4 using 0.075 g of the photocatalyst and various BG concentrations ranging from 20 to 80 mg/L in order to achieve the optimal starting concentration of BG dye. The effect of the initial concentration of dye molecules on the photocatalytic breakdown is shown in Fig. 8. Degradation was attained using an initial BG dye concentration of 20 mg/L. When the initial BG concentration is greater than 20 mg/L, the degradation percentage tends to decrease. This could be as a result of the increased concentration dye molecules impeding the incident radiation of the light from surface of the photocatalyst, hence serving as the inner filter [56]. The increased dye concentration prevents the photogenerated holes, superoxide, and hydroxyl radicals from directly contacting the substrate. In addition, more dye molecules are deposited on the surface of the photocatalyst, obstructing its active sites[53]. Other

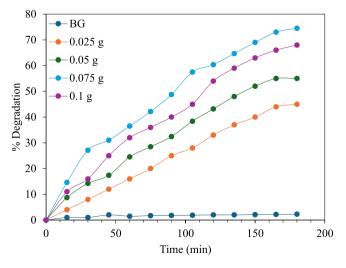


Fig. 7. The effect of catalyst loading on the photo degradation of BG using  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods (Initial concentration 20 mg/L; solution pH 6; radiation time 180-min).

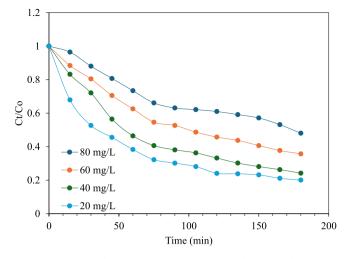


Fig. 8. Effect of initial concentration on the photocatalytic degradation of BG using  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods (catalyst dosage. 0.075 g/L, pH. 6).

factors that may contribute to the reduction in the efficiency of degradation (with increase in the starting concentration) include the absorption of a sizable portion of light radiation by more of the dye molecules rather than the catalyst, a reduction in photon path length, and a decline in the ratio of OH radicals to the dye molecules [57]. Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods are potential photocatalyst suitable for the degradation of pollutants in very low concentrations in an aqueous solution. The photocatalytic efficiency of the investigated  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods has been compared with other relevant binary nanoparticles that have been evaluated on BG dye in literature and presented in Table 1. The high efficiency of the  $Bi_2O_3$  reported in the current study establishes the potential application of the  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods as photocatalysts.

In order to determine the resilience of this photocatalyst, reusability and photo stability experiments were conducted on the spent  $Bi_2O_3$ nanorods. The outcome of the repeated 20 mg/L BG reduction using the as-prepared 0.075 g/L photocatalyst is shown in Fig. 9.  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods showed minimal reduction in activity even after four consecutive cycles of recyclability evaluation, indicating that it can be reused at least four times[64]. The activity appears to diminish as the number of reusability cycles increases, and this could be attributed to the loss of photocatalyst during the separation process as similarly reported in previous studies [65,66].

# 3.4. Scavenging activity percentage of $Bi_2O_3$ nanorods by DPPH, Nitric oxide (NO), Hydrogen peroxide (HP), and Reducing power (RP) assays

Antioxidant activities of sample usually vary with the analytical methods used [67] and the evaluation is commonly done using several methods [68]. To generate reliable data and draw reasonable conclusion, more than a single method was adopted for the evaluation of antioxidant potency of the  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods [69] including 1,1-diphenyl-

#### Table 1

The comparison of the currently investigated photocatalyst with other photocatalysts on the photodegradation of BG dye.

Photocatalysts	Dye treated	<i>Тетр. (</i> °С)	% degradation Refs.	
α-Bi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	BGBG	25	75* This study	
ZnO nanodisk		25	44.39 [58]	
CaO	BG	25	60.1 [59]	
CuS	BG	25	39 [60]	
Co <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	BG	25	78 [61]	
CuS-Cp	BG	25	63 [60]	
CuO	BG	25	50 [62]	
ZnO nanorods	BGBG	25	64.3 [63]	
WO <sub>3</sub> /ZnO		25	60.03 [63]	

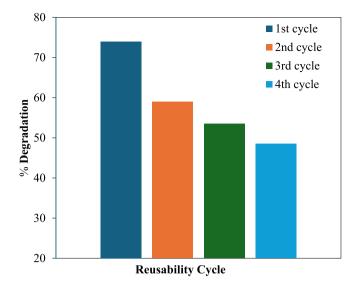


Fig. 9. Reusability cycles of BG using  $\mathrm{Bi}_2\mathrm{O}_3$  nanorods and BG solution of 20 mg/L.

2-picrylhydrazyle (DPPH), Nitric oxide (NO), Hydrogen peroxide (HP) radical inhibition, and Reducing power (RP) assays. The results of the percentage inhibitions are presented in Table 2 and Fig. 10. The radical inhibition activity of the  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods was compared with Ascorbic acid (used as standard). In all the assays,  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods demonstrated a concentration dependent inhibition of radicals with percentage

#### Table 2

Scavenging activity (%) of  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods by DPPH, Nitric Oxide (NO), Hydrogen Peroxide (HP), and Reducing power (RP) assays.

Samples	Concentration (μg/mL) DPPH						IC50 (µg /mL)
	1.56	3.13	6.25	12.5	25	50	/ IIIL)
Ascorbic	4.43	12.22	34.55	38.04	50.28	68.30	16.25
acid	±	±	±	$\pm$	±	±	
	0.075	0.036	0.041	0.052	0.060	0.024	
Bi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	14.85	35.79	35.88	46.20	50.59	55.80	32.72
	±	±	±	$\pm$	±	±	
	0.105	0.023	0.045	0.075	0.023	0.009	
Nitric Oxi	de (NO)						
Ascorbic	5.4 ±	14.54	33.54	33.81	51.75	72.11	28.40
acid	0.051	±	±	±	±	±	
		0.211	0.054	0.023	0.026	0.056	
Bi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	13.16	33.21	38.94	48.50	52.86	58.73	29.37
21203	±	±	±	±	±	±	
	0.037	0.125	0.050	0.015	0.046	0.035	
Hydrogen	Peroxide	(HP)					
Ascorbic	6.6 ±	18.58	36.59	36.61	58.74	76.17	25.07
acid	0.033	±	±	±	±	±	
		0.431	0.034	0.054	0.014	0.045	
Bi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	12.12	28.21	40.24	44.56	60.23	65.73	25.22
2 0	±	±	±	±	±	±	
	0.049	0.022	0.021	0.044	0.012	0.048	
Reducing	nower (RF	2)					
Ascorbic	4.80	22.24	42.51	46.24	60.18	70.32	24.50
acid	±	±	±	±	±	±	21.00
uciu	0.035	0.032	0.034	0.065	0.026	0.028	
Bi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	14.51	35.26	38.18	50.51	51.87	60.20	28.22
203	±	±	±	±	±	±	20.22
	0.053	0.036	0.071	0.038	0.076	0.025	

Values are expressed as mean inhibition (%)  $\pm$  Standard deviation (n = 3). Ascorbic acid is a standard.

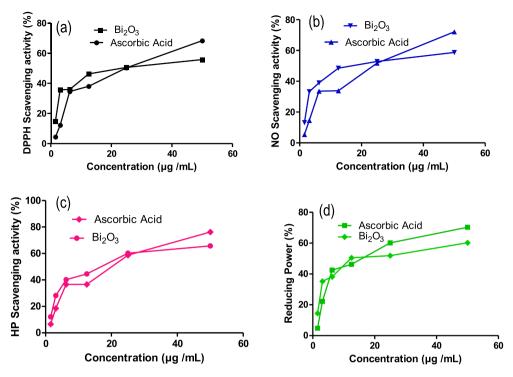


Fig. 10. Scavenging activity (%) of Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods by DPPH (a), Nitric Oxide (NO) (b), Hydrogen Peroxide (HP) (c), and Reducing power (RP) (d) assays.

efficiency in the range  $14.85\pm0.105$  to  $55.80\pm0.009,\,13.16\pm0.037$  to  $58.73\pm0.035,\,12.12\pm0.049$  to  $65.73\pm0.048$  and  $14.51\pm0.053$  to  $60.20\pm0.025$  for the DPPH, NO, HP radicals, and reducing power assays respectively. Based on the concentrations of  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods and ascorbic acid that inhibited 50 % of the radicals (IC\_{50}), the sample exhibited better inhibition of HP (25.22  $\mu g/mL$ ), followed by RP (28.22  $\mu g/mL$ ), NO (29.37  $\mu g/mL$ ), and DPPH (32.72  $\mu g/mL$ ) respectively , while, the standard Ascorbic acid exhibited IC\_{50} values of 16.25, 24.50, 25.07, and 28.40  $\mu g/mL$  for DPPH, RP, HP, and NO, respectively.

Both Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods and Ascorbic acid demonstrated similar percentage hydrogen peroxide inhibition as inferred from the IC<sub>50</sub> values and the results are shown in Fig. 11. There is a paucity of information on the antioxidant activity of Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. However, studies have shown the efficacy as antimicrobial, antihaemolytic, antiplatelet, and anticancer [70–73]. These studies highlighted the effectiveness of Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> in scavenging DPPH radicals with a concentration-dependent decoloration of the purple DPPH to yellow. Ag-Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and Ag-Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-rGO nanocomposite

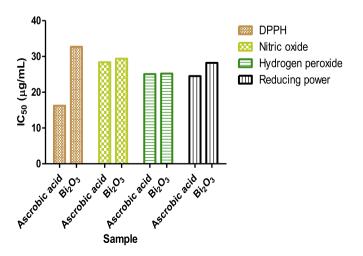


Fig. 11.  $IC_{50}$  value for DPPH, Nitric Oxide, Hydrogen Peroxide, and Reducing power inhibition by  $Bi_2O_3$  nanorods and ascorbic acid.

were also demonstrated to effectively inhibit DPPH radicals compared to the pristine  $Bi_2O_3$ . Grigalius and Petrikaite [74] have related anticancer properties of compounds with their antioxidant potency. Antioxidants reduce DNA damage by decreasing free radicals and oxidative stress to prevent cancer developments. In this study, the efficacy of  $Bi_2O_3$ nanorods as antioxidant was validated using the DPPH, NO, HP and RP assays.

# 4. Conclusions

Monoclinic Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> were successfully synthesized using a microwaveassisted thermal decomposition route, in which bismuth nitrate was used as a precursor salt and ethylenglycol as solvent. The synthesized bismuth oxides were characterized using different techniques. XRD studies shows that the Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> has a monoclinic structure and crystallized in its a-crystalline phase. Electron microscope studies indicate rodshaped morphology of the nanoparticles, and the high crystallinity was confirmed by the SAED pattern. UV-visible studies show that the nanorods have strong absorbance in the UV region which also encroaches into the visible region with an absorption peak around 350 nm and band edge around 452 nm, which corresponds to a band gap energy of 2.75 eV. The Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanorods have good activity towards the photodegradation of bromocresol green, with an efficiency of about 75 % after 3 h UV light irradiation and an optimum pH of 6. The nanorods were also found to exhibit antioxidant property whose ability to scavenge free radicals across 4 different assays is comparable to Ascorbic acid used as standard. The study successfully demonstrates a short approach towards the synthesis of monoclinic  $\alpha$ -Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> of multifunctional application in the environment and biology.

# CRediT authorship contribution statement

Marwa Yousry A. Mohamed: Writing – original draft, Methodology, Formal analysis. Hela Ferjani: Writing – original draft, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. Opeyemi A. Oyewo: Investigation, Formal analysis. Oluwasayo E. Ogunjinmi: Validation, Methodology, Formal analysis. Seham M. Hamed: Resources. Chahra Amairia: Writing – original draft, Investigation. **Seshibe Makgato:** Resources. **Damian C. Onwudiwe:** Writing – review & editing, Conceptualization.

# Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

# Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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