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Bio-synthesis and Photocatalytic Activity of Zinc Oxide Nanoparticles for Sulfosulfuron Herbicide Degradation from Aqueous Solutions

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ABSTRACT

In this study, zinc oxide (ZnO) nanoparticle was fabricated using the extract of Olive leaves (referred as ZnO NPs), using the green synthesis process, and then explores its ability for photodegradation of different concentrations of sulfosulfuron herbicide (10, 20, 40, and 80) mg/L under visible light in batch mode system at pH of 6.8 and one g/L of ZnO NPs. Morphological and structural properties of the synthesized ZnO NPs have been characterized using X-ray diffraction (XRD), fourier transform infrared (FTIR), brunauer Emmett Teller (BET), vibrating sample-magnetometer (VSM), transmission electron microscope (TEM), scanning electron microscopy (SEM). The finding confirms that the maximum removal efficacy reached 82.08% under optimum conditions of 10 mg/L of sulfosulfuron Herbicide concentration, and 90 min. In addition, the reaction followed a first-order kinetics model with $R^2 > 96$. The study also showed that ZnO NPs could be used as a catalyst for four cycles of photocatalytic oxidation of organic contaminants before losing its effectiveness. According to the finding of this study, ZnO NPs has an acceptable efficiency in the elimination of herbicide, as their relatively simple synthesis, could be a suitable catalyst for the degradation and elimination of pharmaceutical residues.

Keywords: olive leaf extract, green synthesis, ZnO, photocatalytic, herbicide, kinetic study.

INTRODUCTION

Nanotechnology is one of the most quickly evolving fields, potentially forming and underpinning a wide range of technological and biotechnological advancements; as a result, it is seen as the century's oncoming industrial revolution (Bhardwaj et al., 2020). Nanotechnology has been used in different industrial and academic areas, including chemistry, agriculture, biology, medicine, electronics, information technology and physics (Patil and Kim, 2017; Dash et al., 2020). Nanomaterials possess great potential in various fields of science due to their excellent physico-chemical and biological characteristics over bulk materials (Al-Rbaiha et al., 2023). Nanoparticles (NPs) have the unique property of having a high surface-to-volume ratio (Sulaiman et al., 2022), which means that they are more appropriate candidates for application-oriented

performance (e.g., photocatalysis, cosmetics, gas sensing, energy reservoirs, electronics, packaging and environmental remediation) and encourages their incorporation into a wide range of commercial products, biotechnology and biomedical applications (Zheng et al., 2020). Among the large variety of NPs available, metal oxide (MO) NPs are thought to be the most promising because they have distinctive physical, chemical, and biological properties like solubility, chemical stability, and adhesiveness (Abdelbaky et al., 2022).

ZnO nanomaterials have been the most widely utilized n-type semiconductor ingredient having a wide band gap (3.37 eV) and large excitation energy. ZnO is a low-cost, non-toxic, chemically resistant material having wide variety of applications in sensors, solar devices, drug delivery, catalysis, etc (Patwa et al., 2021). There are several physical and chemical techniques for creating ZnO nanoparticles, yet none of them are practicable from an environmental or commercial standpoint for use in industry. As a result, the utilization of organic, natural materials for functionalization, stabilizers, and templates is becoming more common. Industrial wastewaters, such as dyes and organic compounds, can be treated by photocatalysis, an effective and non-toxic method that produces highly reactive hydroxyl radicals (Patwa et al., 2021).

A massive list of properties used in the biological synthesis of metal nanoparticles exists. Plant parts, algae, fungus, bacteria, and viruses are used in the biological synthesis of nanoparticles (Hamouda et al., 2021). Herbal cuttings arranged from leaf, stalks, origins, florae, and pips of plants, because of differences in composites, have unlikely possessions on the quantity and physiognomies of created nanoparticles (Raafat et al., 2021). Shrubberies have a great deal of ordinary reformative and steadying materials. Plants are broadly dispersed and simply available, and they are sources of various metabolites (Asemani et al., 2019). Actual phytochemicals in the manufacture of nanoparticles contain terpenes, flavonoids, ketones, aldehydes, and carboxylic acid (Ahmad et al., 2019). Additionally, reducing agents like protein, enzymes, and others have a vital role in metallic nanoparticle creation by green plants (Abbasian et al., 2020). The biosynthesis techniques grow nanoparticles of good surface morphology and clear size as related to some of other physicochemical synthesization techniques (Sarli et al., 2020). The biological growth of nanoparticles depends on the existence of enzymes as well as proteins included in their depositions. Nanoscience has numerous advantages in smart medicinal providing systems (Abel et al., 2021).

Due to their long-term persistence in soil, high water solubility, and photochemical stability, contamination of water resources with pesticides used in agriculture is a cause for environmental concern (Pergal et al., 2018).

Organic contaminants like pesticides are commonly found in industrial wastewater sources, urban areas, and agricultural regions. Pesticides present in water and wastewater pose a hazard to the environment and are very toxic, which has led to an increase in public health issues (Mohammed et al., 2024)

Sulfonylureas are a large family of herbicides widely used for control of broad leaf weeds in various crops and vegetables as well as industrial weeds. They have gained attention more so than other pesticides due to their good crop selectivity, low application rates, and favorable environmental properties. However, due to their high solubility in water, moderate to high mobility, and slow degradation, they are now being detected in surface and ground waters. Moreover, they express low to acute mammalian toxicity. Therefore, effective, low cost, and robust methods to decontaminate waters are needed, as long as they do not further stress the environment or endanger human health (Paporisch et al., 2020).

Some of these herbicides are known to be highly persistent in the soil, with a long-term residual activity that results in damage to sensitive plants for up to several years after application to the soil for selective weed management (Prasad et al., 2018). Conventional water treatments cannot completely remove pesticides, for example, adsorption and bioremediation. Their removal from the environment, especially from surface waters, is now an imperative and is the subject of studies which have involved numerous researchers for several years now.

As an alternative approach to conventional wastewater treatment, advanced oxidation processes, such as heterogeneous photocatalysis, have been extensively studied because of their high potential in the degradation of pesticides (Navarraa et al., 2023). Generally, photocatalysis involves using a semiconductor material as well as a source of radiation (UV, sunlight, and visible light) to produce free radicals. When photons collide with the catalyst surface, electrons are excited and move from the phases of the gap to band conductors while also creating cavities (holes) at the catalyst surface. At last, the reactive radical hydroxyl (OH) will be produced when these holes interact with water molecules or OH ions (Alwared et al., 2023).

In this study, the green synthesis of ZnO nanoparticles using the extract of olive was performed by employing the citrate combustion method. Then after it was used for the first time in the photodegradation of sulfosulfuron herbicide found in water-based solutions. Using the (XRD, FTIR, BET, VSM, TEM, SEM, PL, DRS, EDS, and elemental mapping) analyses, structural properties in the photocatalyst were ascertained.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

All used chemicals were purchased from Thomas Baker, India, and utilized without further purification. zinc nitrate $Zn(NO_3)_2$ with 98% purity, deionized water. $NH_4 \cdot H_2O$ aqueous and grade sulfosulfuron herbicide (98.8 % purity) was selected as a contaminated sample. In addition, 0.1 M of sodium hydroxide and/or hydrochloric acid (HCl) were employed to neutralize and regulate the pH.

Preparation of olive leaves extracts

The fresh olive leaves (*Olea europaea*) were collected, cleaned thoroughly in tap water, and then rinsed with distilled water. They were then boiled for two hours at 70 degrees Celsius in 125 mL of distilled water. After that, the extracted solution was filtered and put away for later use (Abdulrazaq and Alwared, 2023).

2016) with some modifications, the method was as follows: 20 mL of olive leaves extract were mixed with 80 mL of deionized water then heated at 60 °C using a stirrer heater. Then, 5 grams of zinc nitrate mixed with NH_4 , H_2O extracts and stirred at pH 10 at 80° for 1 hour with speed of 400 rpm for stirrer. The dough was obtained at 80 °C after 1 h heating the mixture. The dough was annealed and dried in furnace at 400 °C for 2 h. After heating, the material was powdered by mortar and pestle. Then powder was centrifuged three times at 10000 rpm for 30 min and supernatant was discarded. Then after keeping the powder for later use (Figure 1A). The flowchart for research methodology was shown in (Figure 1B)

Biosynthesis of zinc oxide nanoparticles

Bio synthesis of ZnO NPs was conducted according to the methods cited in (Hashemi et al., erated of

Photocatalytic activity

The photodegradation performance of the generated catalysts against sulfosulfuron herbicide



Figure 1. Schematic illustration for (A) ZnO fabrication, (B) Research methodology flowchart

has been studied using a batch reactor. To put it briefly, 100 mL of sulfosulfuron solution had been combined with 100 mg of photocatalyst at a concentration of 10 mg/L. Agitating the mixture for thirty minutes in the dark control reactor, allowed investigator to examine the synthesized photocatalyst's adsorption performance. Following the state of equilibrium between adsorption and desorption, the reactor was exposed to two LED lamps, each with a power of 50 W and a light intensity of 39.8 mW·cm⁻², while being stirred for a duration of 90 minutes. Ten centimeters was applied as to separate between the illumination source and reactor. A 3 mL sample of sulfosulfuron was taken out of the reactor every 15 minutes, and the ultimate concentration of sulfosulfuron was measured at 212 nm using a UV-vis spectrophotometer (UV1200-Spectrophotometer, China). Equation 1

was utilized to determine the photodegradation efficiency of the produced photocatalyst against sulfosulfuron (Mohammed et al., 2020).

$$DP(\%) = \frac{C_o - C_t}{C_o} \times 100$$
 (1)

where: *DP* represents photodegradation performance (%), C_o represents the initial sulfosulfuron concentration (mg/L), C_t represents the treated sulfosulfuron concentration at time (t)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The chemical structure

As seen in (Figure 2A), the goal of the XRD analysis was to look at the crystalline phase of the



Figure 2. The structure characterization of ZnO, (A) XRD patterns, (B) FTIR spectra

produced samples (ZnO). The narrow and acute diffraction peaks appear at 30.22°, 32.04°, 36.37°, 47.82°, and 56.63° appear at about 20. Corresponding results have also been documented (Schreyer et al., 2014). It has also been shown that these diffraction peaks expand, which can be attributed to moderately crystallinity and small nanoscale particle sizes. For the XRD investigation, the dry powders of the zinc nanoparticles were utilized. From 10° to 80°, the diffracted intensity was measured at 20 angles and measured. Similar X-ray diffraction patterns were also obtained by previous research for the green synthesis of zinc oxide nanoparticles; metallic zinc oxide is verified in ZnO NPs that are biosynthesized (Alrubaie et al., 2019).

To find out more about the chemical structure of the produced photocatalyst, FTIR spectroscopy was used, and their results are introduced in (Figure 2B). As can be seen in this figure that the FTIR spectra of zinc nanoparticles is clearly visible with absorption peaks ranges between 400 and 4000 cm⁻¹. Bands found at (3500–3200) cm⁻¹ are attributed to the O-H phenol group vibrations stretching. It is possible to attribute the bands observed at 2918.656 cm⁻¹ to the stretching C-H alkaline vibrations. The bands (1485.07, 1369.4) cm⁻¹ may correspond to an aromatic ring's C-C stretching. The bands observed at 1080 cm⁻¹ may correspond to amine stretching. This outcome is comparable to the previously published findings of the production of ZnO nanoparticles utilizing Acalypha indica leaf extract (Gnanasangeetha et al., 2013). Protein vibrations that stretch Si-O-Si could be attributed to the bands seen at 1016.49 cm⁻¹. The C-N stretching amine may be assigned to the band at (695.5cm⁻¹), and the bands may be allotted to the secondary amine waging at 960 cm⁻¹. The bands' change to a much lower frequency provides evidence of these chemicals' deposition during the creation of ZnO NPs. This result is consistent with previously published findings on the production of ZnO nanoparticles utilizing extract from olive leaves (Awwad et al., 2014). The existence of phenolic compounds and proteins was assured by the functional vibrations bands group as demonstrated in the FTIR spectrum.

Surface morphologies

The SEM image of a ZnO NPs the size and the morphology of the biosynthesized ZnO nanoparticles were imaged SEM (Figure 3A), the SEM image demonstrated that the ZnO NPs were spherical and hexagonal in the morphology shape with good distribution, with an average size of ZnO NPs of 29.03 nm. The high-resolution TEM analysis (Figure 3B) was carried out to confirm the formation of the biosynthesized ZnO NPs. Based on the results obtained, it can be concluded that the pure green ZnO NPs display hexagonal and also clearly reveal lattice fringes without any distortion, indicating that ZnO NPs have high crystallinity, indicating that ZnO nanoparticles are crystalline in nature (Andrade et al., 2024). The chemical composition of the biosynthesized ZnO nanoparticles was determined using EDS (Figure 4). The elemental mapping of the EDS verified that the examined sample displayed the elemental peaks of zinc and oxygen, which confirms the existence of ZnO NPs (Abdelbaky et al., 2022).

Additionally, the hexagonal wurtzite crystalline structure of ZnO NPs is also proven by the diffraction rings on the peaks in the XRD pattern. Finally, the surface properties of Zinc oxide nano particle were performed using the N₂



Figure 3. SEM images of (A) ZnO nanoparticle (B) TEM image of ZnO





Figure 4. EDS analysis (A and B) elemental mapping of Zn, and O elements, (C and D) EDS spectrum



Figure 5. N₂ adsorption-desorption curves of ZnO NPs

adsorption-desorption isotherm (Figure 5). the specific surface area (S_{BET}), total pore volume (V_p), and average pores diameter were revealed to be 1.8477 m²/g, 0.019799 cm³/g, and 42.862 nm.

Optical and photoelectrochemical properties

The DRS technique was performed to analyze the optical property of ZnO nanoparticle, and their results were shown in (Figure 6A). The UV-vis spectrometer was used to study the absorbance spectra of ZnO NPs in the wavelength range between 200–800 nm. The optical band gap energy (Eg) of the samples is determined by fitting the absorption data using Tauc Equation 2.

$$(\alpha h\nu)^{1/n} = A (h\nu - E_g)$$
(2)

where: hv is the photon energy, Eg is the direct band gap, and E is a constant. α is the optical absorption coefficient and found from the absorption data.

The optical band gap of the prepared ZnO NPs was obtained by plotting $(\alpha hv)^2$ as a function of photon energy (hv), (Figure 6B), and then extrapolating the linear portion of the curve to zero absorption. The resultant indicated that the band gap was found to be 3.09 eV. Compared to the bulk ZnO, the optical band gap of the prepared NPs is smaller, which we believe to be due to the structural defects that arising during the sample synthesis. As it is well known, the point effects in ZnO introduce levels within the bandgap lead to the appearance of the wide deep level emission band covering the whole visible range. ZnO NPs exhibit a broad dominate luminescence band in the visible region due to the existence of several

different native point defects which including oxygen vacancy V_0 , zinc vacancy V_{zn} , oxygen interstitial Oi, zinc interstitial Zn_i , oxygen anti site, zinc anti sites, and clusters of native defects (V_0 and Zn_i) (Choi et al., 2015). Defects are playing an important role on photodegradation because they will increase the materials photocatalytic activities within the visible light spectrum (Jucá et al., 2021).

The separation and migration rates of photogenerated electrons and holes were further investigated using a photoluminescence (PL) test. As shown in (Figure 6C), The PL spectra of pristine ZnO nanoparticle exhibited broad absorption bands at less than 250 nm, respectively, indicating that the electrons and holes can be easily recombined (Okab et al., 2023). terestingly, a significant decrease in the PL intensity was detected related to the ZnO nanoparticle sample, corresponding to the synergistic. Furthermore, lower PL intensity was recorded by the ZnO nanoparticle sample. This observation confirms the ability of ZnO nanoparticle to facile the transfer efficiency of photoinduced electrons and holes and the recombination rate, which can develop the photodegradation activity (Lu et al., 2019). These findings agree with observations reported by (Yu et al., 2020; Fagier et al., 2021)



Figure 6. (A) The DRS spectra of ZnO (B) Band gap energy of ZnO, (C) PL spectra of ZnO.

Adsorption and photocatalytic activities

The adsorption and photodegradation activities of fabricated catalyst ZnO NPs towards sulfosulfuron herbicide are studied at different concentration of herbicides (10, 20, 40, and 80) mg/ Land constant pH (6.8), and dosage of g/L, and their results are illustrated in (Figure 7). Firstly, the solution was left for 30 min adsorption time followed by 150 min UV photocatalyst. According to the results, a slight degradation (less than 9%) was noticed in the darkness after 30 min. When the irradiation time began, though, the deterioration efficiency rose. Additionally, the findings demonstrate that the maximum degradation percentage results for 90 min irradiation was (82.08). The rate of photocatalytic degradation performance of a certain pollutant depends on significant factors that are governing the photocatalysis

processes factors can affect individually or/and together with the process (He et al., 2021).

Reusability of the catalyst

In practice, the photostability of the prepared catalyst is conducive to reducing water treatment costs and avoiding secondary pollution. To test the stability of the ZnO nanoparticle, the photocatalytic performance for sulfosulfuron degradation of ZnO samples while keeping other parameters constant from previous experiments. Each experiment lasted 90 min and the catalyst was collected and washed thoroughly with distilled water and then dried to be used in subsequent experiments, and their results were plotted in (Figure 8), it shows that there is reduction for sulfosulfuron efficiency from (82.08, and 58.97)% for ZnO, after four recycles.



Figure 7. Photodegradation performance of 1g/L of ZnO with 10 mg/L of sulfosulfuron (pH of 6.8)



Figure 8. Sulfosulfuron herbicide degradation cycles at running time of 90 min

It indicated that photocatalyst possessed is stable enough for realistic environment remediation

Photodegradation kinetics

To quantitatively evaluate the photocatalytic activity of ZnO NPs, the first-order kinetics (Langmuir-Hinshelwood (L-H) kinetics model) (Ahmadpour et al., 2020) were implemented, and the results are illustrated in Table 1. The experimental data matched perfectly with pseudo-first-order kinetics (Equation 3) and yielded a high regression coefficient (\mathbb{R}^2). Where C, Co, and *k* are the Sulfosulfuron concentrations at the attained time t, the initial Sulfosulfuron concentration, and the photodegradation rate constant, respectively. The evaluated *k* values were illustrated in (Figure 9) and (Table 1).

$$\ln\frac{c}{c} = -kt \tag{3}$$

where: the photodegradation rate constant (k), by plotting the $-\ln(C/C_a)$ vs. time (t).

Radical experiments and proposed mechanisms

Photocatalytic process is a reaction that depends on the catalyst and wavelength of light energy (photon), whether the light from sunlight or artificial light energy. Many researchers have described the mechanism of ZnO NPs photocatalytic



Figure 9. The first-order kinetic model

 Table 1. The first-order kinetics results towards

 sulfosulfuron degradation

Photocatalyst	k/min	R ²	
ZnO	0.00894	0.9889	

reaction. Herrmann et al. (Herrmann et al., 1999) reported that ZnO NPs degrade organic pollutants, organic contaminants diffuse from the liquid phase to the surface of ZnO NPs, adsorption of the organic contaminants on the surface of ZnO NPs and then oxidation and reduction reactions take place in the adsorbed phase, desorption of the products and consequent removal of the products from the interface region (Ibhadon et al., 2013; Ong et al., 2018) explored the mechanism photocatalytic reaction of ZnO NPs, photocatalytic reactions are initiated when ZnO surface is exposed by a radiation of photonic energy (hv) equal to or greater than the ZnO band gap, photonic energy responds to excitation of the electrons and then produces electron-hole (e-/h+) pairs, one is a positively charged hole in the valence band (VB) and the other is a negatively charged electron in the conduction band (CB) (Equation 4), electronhole pairs can transfer to the ZnO surface and be involved in redox reactions, positive holes (H+) created in the valence band reacts with absorbed water and hydroxide ions to produce powerful hydroxyl radicals, hydroxyl radicals degrade the organic pollutants adsorbed on the surface of ZnO (Equations 5 and 6), conduction band electrons react with dissolved oxygen species to produce superoxide radical anions and then hydrogen peroxide (Equations 7–9). Hydrogen peroxide will then react with superoxide radicals to form hydroxy radicals which react with pollutants adsorbed on the surface of ZnO and then produce intermediate compounds that converted to green compounds such as CO₂, H₂O, and mineral acids (Equations 10–13) depending on Equations 14–16.

Photocatalytic oxidation reaction depends on the generation and recombination of electrons and holes in the ZnO photocatalyst (Figure 10). Therefore, to ensure the photocatalytic process is accomplished, ZnO's quantum size, specific surface area of ZnO, and organic pollution concentration should be highly considered (Colmenares et al., 2009).

Numerous active groups, such as h⁺, $\cdot O_2^{-}$, and •OH, are produced by the photocatalytic reaction and are essential to the photodegradation process. In this instance the ZnO nanoparticle, sulfosulfuron degradation process' primary active species were investigated by radical capture studies. Therefore, ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (ED-TA-2Na, 1·mmol·L⁻¹) was utilized as a h⁺ trapping agent, isopropanol (IPA, 1·mmol·L⁻¹) as a •OH scavenging agent, and benzoquinone (BQ, 1 mmol·L⁻¹) as an O_2^{-} scavenging agent (54). The



Figure 10. The schematic illustration of proposed mechanism for ZnO

photodegradation activity of sulfosulfuron was dramatically reduced (19.9%) upon the addition of the IPA scavenger, indicating that the primary reactive species is likely •OH (Figure 11). Moreover, adding BQ to the photoreaction resulted in a noticeably reduced sulfosulfuron removal efficiency (49.36%), suggesting that another significant oxidant is the •O₂⁻ radical. However, after being absorbed by the EDTA-2Na scavenger, the h+ oxidant showed the lowest contribution, decreasing the elimination efficiency to 63.52%. As a result, the order of the oxidant's influence is as follows: OH > O₂⁻ > h⁺.

$$ZnO + hv \longrightarrow ZnO (e_{(CB)}) + (h_{(VB)})$$
 (4)

$$\operatorname{ZnO} h^{+}_{(VB)} + H_2O \longrightarrow ZnO + H^+ + OH^-$$
 (5)

$$ZnO h^{+}(_{(VB)}) + OH \longrightarrow ZnO + OH$$
 (6)

$$ZnO (e_{(CB)}) + O_2 \longrightarrow ZnO + O_2^{-}$$
(7)

$$O_2^{\bullet} + H^+ \longrightarrow HO_2^{\bullet} \tag{8}$$

$$\mathrm{HO}_{2}\bullet + \mathrm{HO}_{2}\bullet \longrightarrow \mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O}_{2} + \mathrm{O}_{2} \tag{9}$$

$$ZnO (e_{(CB)}) + H_2O_2 \longrightarrow OH \bullet + OH^-$$
(10)

$$\mathrm{H_2O_2} + \mathrm{O_2} \bullet - \longrightarrow \mathrm{OH} \bullet + \mathrm{OH} - + \mathrm{O_2} \qquad (11)$$

$$H_2O_2 + hv \longrightarrow 2OH^{\bullet}$$
(12)

Organic pollutants + OH• \rightarrow intermediates \rightarrow \rightarrow CO.+ H.O (13)

$$CO_2 + H_2O$$
 (13)

$$\chi(A_m B_n C_l) = \sqrt[m+n+l]{\chi_A^m \chi_B^n \chi_C^l}$$
(14)

$$VB = \chi - E_e + 0.5E_g \tag{15}$$



Figure 11. Reactive species scavenger reactions (sulfosulfuron concentration of 10 ppm, ZnO dosage of 1g/L, and illumination time = 90 min)

Green synthesis of zinc oxide	Catalyst dosage	Pollutant concentration	Light source	Time	Photo. efficiency (%)	References
Fresh lemon juice	100 mg/L	44.87mg/L	UV lamp	30 min	25%	(Patwa et al., 2021)
Root extract of <i>Scutellaria baicalensis</i>	0.016 mg	0.05 mg/ml	UV lamp	210 min	82%	(Chen et al., 2019)
Red dragon fruit	250 mg	10 mg/L	Visible light	120 min	98.82%	(Sorbiun et al., 2018)
Hagenia abyssinica leaf	40 mg	15 ppm	Sunlight irradiation	120 min	83.17%	(Zewde et al., 2022)
Olive leaves extract	1 g/L	10mg/L	Visible light	90 min	82.08%	This study

Table 2. Sulfosulfuron herbicide degradation performance of this work compared with previous studies

$$CB = VB - E_g \tag{16}$$

where: the VB of ZnO is 2.93 eV, while their CB is – 0.155 eV; χ is semiconductor electronegativity (ZnO = 5.89 eV) (Pearson et al., 1988) and E_g is the free electrons energy (4.5 eV) towards hydrogen scale.

Comparison with previous studies

To assess the photodegradation activity of ZnO NPs, the photodegradation performance of this work was compared with other previous studies, and the results are summarized in Table 2. This compaction was assessed depending on some factors like the type of catalyst system, pollutant concentration, catalyst dosage, irradiation time, and removal efficiency. As a result, the ZnO NPs showed enhanced separation efficiency, developing a remarkable system for herbicides degradation with cost-effective technology.

CONCLUSIONS

Green synthesis ZnO nanoparticles were prepared using the extract of olive leaves and identified using FTIR, XRD- EDX, UV-Vis, PL, TEM and BET techniques, which confirmed the formation of NPs with an average size of 29.03 nm analysis. The results confirm the effectiveness of ZnO NPs to remove sulfosulfuron herbicide residues in batch mode reactor using visible light at intensity of 39.8 mW cm⁻², with a maximum removal percentage of 82.08% under optimum conditions of 10 mg/L of sulfosulfuron Herbicide concentration, and 90 min. In addition, the reaction followed a first-order kinetics model with R² more than 96%. The findings of this study show that ZnO NPs photocatalyst exhibits potential performance as an inexpensive and ecologically acceptable method for photocatalytic degradation of herbicide, which provides a new insight into the elimination of herbicide removal from wastewater.

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