



Wolkite University

College Of Natural and Computational Science

Post Graduate Program

Department Of Chemistry

**Green Synthesis, Characterization and Antibacterial Activity of Copper Nanoparticle from
Xanthium Strumarium L. (Deha-Nikel) Plant Leaf Extract**

By:

Temesgen Alem Tsegaw

April 2024

Wolkite, Ethiopia

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

Green Synthesis, Characterization and Antibacterial Activity of Copper Nanoparticle from *Xanthium Strumarium L.* (Deha-Nikel) Plant Leaf Extract

A Thesis Submitted to School of Graduate Studies in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master in Chemistry

By:

Temesgen Alem Tsegaw

Major Advisor: Israel Ieka Lera (PhD)

Co-Advisor: Nigussie Alebachew (PhD)

April 2024

Wolkite, Ethiopia

WOLKITE UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

We hereby certify that we have read and evaluated this thesis entitled “**Green Synthesis, Characterization and Antibacterial Activity of Copper Nanoparticle from *Xanthium Strumarium L. (Deha-Nikel) Plant Leaf Extract*** “prepared under our guidance by Mr. **Temesgen Alem Tsegaw** we recommend that the Thesis shall be submitted as fulfilling the requirements for the award of a MSc. Degree in Chemistry

Main Advisor name	Signature	Date

Co-Advisor name	Signature	Date

As members of the board of examiners of the Master of Science Thesis open defense examination, we have read and evaluated this Thesis prepared by **Temesgen Alem Tsegaw** and examined the candidate . We hereby certify that, the thesis is accepted for fulfilling the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Science (M.Sc) in Chemistry

1. _____		
Name External examiner	Signature	Date

2. _____		
Name Internal examiner	Signature	Date

3. _____		
Name Chairpersons	Signature	Date

4. _____		
Name Chairpersons	Signature	Date

Final approval and acceptance of the Thesis is contingent upon the submission of its final copy to the council of postgraduate program (CPGS) through the candidate’s department or School graduate committee (DGC or SGC).

5. _____		
Name of school of graduate studies	Signature	Date

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that the work reported herein represents my own ideas in my own words and wherever others' ideas or words have been included, I have adequately cited and referenced the original sources. I understand that non-adherence to the principles of academic honesty and integrity, misrepresentation/fabrication/falsification of any idea/data/fact/source will constitute sufficient ground for disciplinary action by the University and can evoke penal action from the sources, which have not been properly cited or acknowledged.

Signature

Name of Student

Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to thank the almighty God for being source of endurance and strength to accomplish and recapitulate this thesis work throughout each activity.

I would like to thank my esteemed advisor Dr. Israel Leka Lera for his invaluable supervision, support, and constructive comments during this experimental work and writing procedures of this thesis.

My gratitude extends to Wolkite University for giving scholarship opportunity to undertake my studies at the Department of Chemistry.

I would like to pay my thanks to the Wolkite University Department of Chemistry for allowing me to use the UV-Vis's spectroscopy instrument and Experimental activities. I am also thankful to Mr. Alemayehu Worku (Lab. Instructor in the Department of chemistry, Wolkite University), for his technical support during the Experimental activities and UV-Vis's spectral data measurements and also to Mr. Bogale Damtew (Lab. Instructor in the Institute of Biotechnology, University of Gondar) for their technical assistance on doing the antibacterial activity of the study.

I am thankful to my friends Yeshiwas Dagnaw Yewala, and Wondimlebesku DeleLgn Halie for their cooperation and support.

Last but not least I would like to acknowledge the support and great love of my family. Their encouragement and support throughout always inspired me and work hard and this work would not have been possible without their input.

LIST OF ABBREVIATION

Abs	Absorbance
CuNPs	Copper nanoparticles
PLE	Plant leaf extract
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
Rpm	Revolutions per minute
EDX	Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy
FTIR	Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy
NPs	Nanoparticles
XRD	X-ray diffraction
SEM	Scanning electron microscopy
SPR	Surface Plasmon resonance
TEM	Transmission electron microscopy
UV-Vis	Ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy
ZOI	Zone of inhibition
MHA	Muller-Hinton agar
FWHM	Full width at half maximum

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents	pages
APPROVAL SHEET	ii
DECLARATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
LIST OF ABBREVIATION	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
ABSTRACT	xi
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background of the study	1
1.2. Statement of the problem	3
1.3. Objectives of the study	4
1.3.1. General Objective	4
1.3.2. Specific Objectives	4
1.4. Significance of the study	4
1.5. Delimitation (Scope) of the Study	5
CHAPTER TWO	6
LITERATURE REVIEW	6
2.1. Approaches for nanoparticles synthesis	7
2.1.1. Bottom-up approach	8
2.1.2. Top-down Approach	8
2.2. Methods of copper nanoparticles synthesis	9
2.2.1. Physical methods	9
2.2.2. Chemical methods	10
2.2.3. Biological methods	10
2.3. Mechanism of synthesis of copper nanoparticles	14
2.4. Plant-mediated Green Synthesis of CuNPs	17

2.4.1.	Xanthium strumarium L. (Common Cocklebur).....	18
2.4.2.	Physical characteristics of Xanthium strumarium L. (Common Cocklebur)	18
2.5.	Characterization of CuNPs synthesized from plants	19
2.5.1.	UV–visible spectroscopy analysis	19
2.5.2.	Fourier-Transform Infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy analysis	20
2.5.3.	X-ray Diffraction (XRD) analysis	21
2.6.	Biological applications	23
2.7.	Antibacterial Applications of copper nanoparticles	23
2.7.1.	Mechanism of the bactericidal effect of copper nanoparticles.....	24
CHAPTER THREE		25
MATERIALS AND METHODS		25
3.1.	Materials	25
3.1.1.	Chemicals and reagents	25
3.1.2.	Apparatus and Instruments	25
3.2.	Methods.....	25
3.2.1.	Description of the Study Area	25
3.2.2.	Collection of <i>Xanthium strumarium L.</i> plant leaves	26
3.2.3.	Preparation of <i>Xanthium strumarium L.</i> leaf extract	26
3.2.4.	Qualitative Photochemical analysis of <i>Xanthium strumarium L.</i> Leaves extract	27
CHAPTER FOUR		30
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....		30
4.1.	Phytochemical Analysis of the Plant Leaf Extracts	30
4.2.	Color Change Observation on the Synthesis of CuNPs.....	30
4.3.	Characterization of Synthesized copper nanoparticles	31
4.3.1.	UV-Visible Spectroscopy Analysis.....	31
4.3.2.	Fourier-Transform Infrared (FTIR) Analysis	32
4.3.3.	X-ray Diffraction (XRD) Pattern Analysis	35
4.4.	Anti-bacterial Studies of Green Synthesized CuNPs	36
CHAPTER FIVE		41
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION		41
5.1.	Conclusion	41
5.2.	Recommendation.....	42

6. REFERENCES.....	43
7. APPENDICS	54

LIST OF TABLES

Tables	pages
Table 1: Different precursors, plants leave extract for synthesis and characterization techniques for CuNPs.....	12
Table 2: Results on Phytochemical screening of Xanthium strumarium L. Plant leaf extract[108].	30
Table 3: Band shift in FTIR spectrum of Xanthium strumarium L. plant leaf extract and Green synthesized CuNPs.....	34
Table 4: Anti-bacterial activity of Xanthium strumarium L. plant leaf extract and synthesized CuNPs against clinically isolated human pathogenic bacteria.	37
Table 5 Comparison of CuNPs from anti-bacterial activities in different plant leaf extract	39

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	pages
Figure 1: Nanoparticles synthesis via biological and physicochemical approaches.....	7
Figure 2: Approaches for the synthesis of nanoparticles	8
Figure 3: Schematic representation of various methods adopted for NP synthesis and its applications.	9
Figure 4: Biological synthesis of nanoparticles using green technology[45]	11
Figure 5: The scheme of synthesis of g-Cu NPs from Hagenia Abyssinia leaves extract.....	11
Figure 6: Probable mechanism for the synthesis of CuNPs.....	14
Figure 7: Plant mediated synthesis of copper nanoparticles [39]	18
Figure 8: Xanthium strumarium L.	19
Figure 9: UV-Vis's spectra of CuNPs synthesized from the extract of (a) Fortunella margarita leaves and (b) Capparis zeylanica leaves.....	20
Figure 10: FTIR spectra of biosynthesized copper nanoparticles by (a) Ocimum sanctum and (b) Capparis zeylanica leaves extract.	21
Figure 11: XRD diffraction pattern of CuNPs from (a) Heliconia psittacorum and (b) lemon extract leaves extract.....	22
Figure 12: Applications of green synthesized nanoparticles in environmental and biomedical fields.....	23
Figure 13: Possible Cu NPs action mechanism in a bacterium membrane[10].....	24
Figure 14: Map of study area.	26
Figure 15: Green synthesis of CuNPs from Xanthium strumarium L. plant leave extract after incubation at room temperature for 24 hrs. And colour change observation.....	31
Figure 16: UV-visible spectra of biosynthesized CuNPs using Xanthium strumarium L. plant leave extract with $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and Xanthium strumarium L. plant leave extracts.....	32
Figure 17: Comparative FT-IR Spectrum of Xanthium strumarium L. plant leave extract and CuNPs.	35
Figure 18: XRD pattern of green synthesized CuNPs from Xanthium strumarium L. plant leaf extract.....	36

Figure 19: (I) Antibacterial activity of green synthesized CuNPs and (II) *Xanthium strumarium* L. leaf extract alone; (a = 50 μ l, b = 100 μ l, c = 150 μ l, d = 200 μ l, e = ciprofloxacin (+ve control), and f = DMSO (-ve control)). 37

Figure 20: The image was captured from the study area during sample collection. 54

Figure 21: Plant leaf powder mass measurement using analytical balance during experimental work and washing by using distil water..... 55

Figure 22: Filtration (Filtering the macerated aqueous PLE to get pure and clear PLE) 56

ABSTRACT

*The green nanotechnology is generating interest in researchers for the synthesis of nanoparticles in a simple, cost-effective and eco-friendly manner. This research is focused on the bio-synthesis of copper nanoparticles (CuNPs) using Xanthium strumarium L. plant extract. The biomolecules present in Xanthium strumarium L. plant extract act as self-reducing and stabilizing agents. The copper nanoparticles were synthesized by the addition of 100 mL of the aqueous plant leaf extract with 400 mL of copper nitrate solution (0.02M). The biosynthesized CuNPs were characterized by using UV-Vis analysis, Fourier Transform Infrared analysis (FTIR) and X-ray diffraction analysis (XRD) analysis. The maximum absorbance, λ_{max} was found to be **672 nm** for CuNPs due to surface Plasmon resonance. The presence of important functional groups associated with biomolecules is well characterized by Fourier Transform Infrared spectroscopy (FTIR). The X-ray diffraction pattern showed the formation of purely crystalline nature of CuNPs with face-centered cubic geometry and the average crystalline size is found to be **26.88 nm**. The antibacterial activity of the synthesized CuNPs and Xanthium strumarium L. plant leaf extract was established using both Gram-positive bacteria (*Staphylococcus aureus*) and Gram-negative bacteria (*Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*) by using agar well diffusion method. The synthesized CuNPs have strong anti-bacterial activity against gram-negative bacteria as compared to gram-positive bacteria.*

Keywords: *Green synthesis, Copper nanoparticles, Anti-bacterial activity, Xanthium strumarium L.*

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the study

Copper is known as one of the elements used from ancient times by humans for treatment purposes, and recently is being used in many aspects of human life from health and hospitals to industry. In previous centuries, human beings have used fine and grinded copper for the treatment of diseases, and nowadays potential applications of metal nanoparticles in the era of Nano science and technology have generated an explosion in scientific interest in this class of materials over the last decade.

In recent years, nanotechnology combined with other branches of science is the main growing area of research.[1-3]. Nanotechnology refers to any technology that is implemented at the nanoscale and has actual applications. It is defined as the control or restructuring of matter at the atomic and molecular levels in the size range of about 1-100nm[4]. These molecules exhibit unique properties in contrast to particles of bulk materials; such as large surface -to- volume ratio, shape, small size etc. which eventually provide the NPs with strong surface activity, better catalytic function and easy interaction with other particles. All these are accountable for the multifunctional properties of NPs and their wide scale applications in various fields like drug delivery, dye degradation, wastewater management, molecular diagnosis, treating cancer cells and in therapeutic applications [5-7].

More specifically, the development of biosynthesized nanoparticles and their utility, applications are one of the important research projects in the concern of environmental chemistry. Green Synthesis, which provides benefit over conventional methods as it is cost-effective, eco-friendly, and easily scaled up for large-scale synthesis and the present method does not need high pressure, energy, temperature and toxic chemicals [8]. Green chemistry has been developed as an alternative to use of environmentally harmful processes and products due to the serious consequences that the world is facing [9].

The properties of these nanomaterials are critical for the technological revolution, which mainly depends on the methods of synthesis for potential applications such as bactericidal and antifungal

effects [10]. Nanoparticles are of great scientific interest as they bridge the gap between bulk materials and atomic or molecular structures[11].

Metallic nanoparticles are of great interest due to their excellent chemical, physical, medicinal and catalytic properties. Copper nanoparticles are one of the commonly used materials for their electrical, optical, catalytic, biomedical and antibacterial applications among various metal particles such as gold, silver, iron, palladium, zinc and quantum dots[12, 13]. It can give more yields in mild reaction conditions when compared to other traditional catalysts. Synthesis of CuNPs is cost-effective when compared to silver (Ag), gold (Au) and platinum (Pt) [14].

Green synthesis of CuNPs using nontoxic and inexpensive materials like curd, milk, and herbal extracts such as tamarind and lemon juice as capping agents was reported by Sastry et al.,[15]. CuNPs have attracted much attention from researchers due to their application in wound dressings and biocidal properties[16]. Due to these properties, CuNPs are used in processes such as gas sensors, catalytic processes, high-temperature superconductors, and solar cells[17].

Nowadays, bacterial infectious diseases caused by pathogenic microbes (bacteria, viruses, fungi, protozoa, parasites) are a serious burden in the world economy which kills millions of people around the world annually. Therefore, various research groups developed an antibiotic to treat bacterial infectious diseases due to their low cost and influential results. However, several studies have provided direct evidence that the widespread use of antibiotics has led to the emergence of multidrug-resistant bacterial strains. Abuse of antibiotics led to the development of super bacteria which resists nearly all antibiotics because of super bacteria-resistant genes (Tong et al. 2005; Hu and Xia 2006). Furthermore, most bacteria exist in the form of biofilms which in turn form barriers to resist antibiotics. Therefore, despite huge number of antimicrobial drugs and other modern antibacterial agents, infectious diseases due to bacteria is still a challenging issues .To overcome the resistance developed by microbes, nanoparticles-based treatment presents a very promising approach.

The use of plant extracts is increasing in usefulness and is conceived as an environmentally and economically friendly alternative for the synthesis of CuNPs. Extracts can be obtained from multiple parts of the plant; such as leaves, bark, seeds, peels, roots, coir, gum and fruits have been also reported[18].

Xanthium strumarium L. is a species of annual plants belong to the Asteraceae family and commonly known as “Cocklebur” or Deha-Nikel in Amharic. It may originate in Ethiopia and has been extensively spread out elsewhere. However, small quantities of this plant may be consumed, but seeds of this plant should not be eaten in large quantities because of their toxic chemical carboxyatratyloside. The plant’s root and fruit, is used as traditional medicine. It is used for the diseases leucoderma, biliousness, and poisonous bites of insects, epilepsy, salivation and fever. This plant’s leaf material has been found to have strong antimicrobial activity and there is no toxic. This plant has various useful biological activities and is found in literature[19, 20].

This work aims; for the green synthesis of *Xanthium strumarium L.* (Deha-Nikel in Amharic) leaf extract mediated copper nanoparticles, their characterization and antibacterial activity. The protocol used in this study is very simple, greener, and eco-friendly, and no other capping agent is required. The synthesis was carried out in an aqueous medium using Copper (II) nitrate trihydrate ($\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$) as a copper ion source by a green method. The green synthesized CuNPs were characterized by UV-Vis, FTIR, and XRD instruments and their anti-bacterial activity was evaluated.

1.2. Statement of the problem

Different methods have been used for the synthesis of copper nanoparticles (CuNPs) which can be either physical, chemical or biological methods. Earlier methods used for the synthesis of CuNPs were toxic and hazardous chemicals were used for their synthesis. The risk of contamination is also higher. This enhances the growing need to develop environmentally-friendly processes through green synthesis and other biological methods. Thus, the use of environmentally-friendly processes, for the synthesis of CuNPs is known as green synthesis. Green synthesis is preferred over conventional synthesis because it is ecofriendly, cost-effective, single-step method of synthesis and it does not require for high pressure, energy, temperature, or toxic chemicals. The synthesis of copper nanoparticles using various plants materials and their extracts can be beneficial over other biological synthesis processes which involve the very

complex procedures of maintaining microbial cultures. The Synthesis of Some metallic nanoparticles (like Ag and Au) are expensive compared to copper. The skin infection has increase for the people. CuNPs is not studied before from *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leave extract.

Green synthesis of nanoparticles using plant extracts are among the main area of research and are used different applications. In this study, CuNPs have been prepared using leaves extract of *Xanthium Strumarium L.* (commonly known as Cocklebur or Deha-Nikel in Amharic) which is less toxic, eco-friendly, locally Easley available, safe to handle and cost effective as compared to other conventional synthesis methods and did not study before the antibacterial activity. The antibacterial activities of the synthesized CuNPs were tested. As far as we know, there has been no study on the anti-bacterial activities of copper nanoparticles synthesized using *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaf extracts

1.3.Objectives of the study

1.3.1. General Objective

The general objective of this study was to synthesize copper nanoparticles (CuNPs) from the leaves extract of *Xanthium Strumarium L.*, and characterize by different analytical instruments and evaluate its antibacterial activity.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

- To synthesize CuNPs from leaf extracts of *Xanthium Strumarium L.*
- To characterized copper nanoparticles (CuNPs) by UV-Vis, FTIR, and XRD instruments.
- To evaluate the antibacterial activity of the synthesized CuNPs.

1.4.Significance of the study

The advantages of green synthesis of CuNPs by using plant parts are that the plants are easily available, inexpensive, environmentally friendly, stable, safe to handle and non-toxic and possess a large variety of active agents that can promote the reduction of copper ions. Green synthesis of nanoparticles using plants are significantly contributes to environmental sustainability throughout the production without causing harm to human health or the environment. It also reduces the risk of contamination. The most important point is the active agent contained in the plant parts which makes the reduction and stabilization possible. Supporting the use of indigenous medicine with scientific knowledge. Generally, the green synthesis of CuNPs from

the leaves extract of *Xanthium Strumarium L.* is beneficial for biomedicine and more particularly as antibacterial agent. The findings of this study will help to develop awareness of the social community about the dosage levels of this medicinal plant regarding to health effects. So green synthesized copper nanoparticles have highly preferable for biomedical industry, human health care, textiles, and bioremediation over chemically synthesized copper nanoparticles.

1.5.Delimitation (Scope) of the Study

The scope of this study covers:

Green synthesis of CuNPs from the aqueous leaves extract of *Xanthium Strumarium L.* was copper nitrate solution,

The leaves of *Xanthium Strumarium L.* were collected from the Wolkite University Gurage zone,

The synthesized CuNPs where characterized by UV-vis, FTIR, and XRD analysis,

The antibacterial activity of the synthesized nanoparticles was tested on the clinically isolated bacteria.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Nanotechnology is the upcoming and attractive area of research in the field of life science, chemical science, medical science and many more. It deals with the preparation of nanoparticles (NPs) in the range of 10^{-9} m and having dimensions of 1–100nm[21]. Nano particles acquire exclusive properties and find applications in various fields for which they are of great importance in the technological world [22-24]. The chemical surroundings, size and shape greatly influence the electronic, optical and catalytic properties of the nanoparticles [7, 25, and 26].

Nanotechnology proved that by producing smaller, faster, lighter and cheaper devices with greater functionality while using less raw materials and consuming less energy. Research on the materials that was synthesized by this technology is the initiation towards miniaturization that will play a vital role towards a sustainable usage of raw materials and energy[27]. Nanoparticles are of great importance due to their nanometer size and their high proportion of surface atoms, presenting high surface areas. At this size scale, the particles exhibit significantly different properties from their bulk counterparts. Their distinct physicochemical, electrical, catalytic, magnetic, optical, mechanical and biological properties have become the subject of intensive studies in recent years. Owing to their interesting properties, which are affected by their structural morphology, nanoparticles have been studied extensively[28].

Nanoparticles are prepared in many ways such as physical, chemical and green method. Green synthesis method has so many advantages compared to other methods and one of the best methods because of its cost-effective, simple, use of low energy, use of less toxic materials and eco-friendly [29, 30]. The copper nanoparticles are mostly found their applications in the field of medical, electronic devices, biosensors, and reagents in various reactions, lubricants, antibiotic, antimicrobial agents and many more.

Copper nanoparticles (Cu-NP) synthesis specifically has attracted more interest compared to other NPs' synthesis because of their useful properties achievable at much less cost than silver and gold [31]. Copper, like other noble metals, exhibits thermal and electrical conductivity, which makes it a candidate in electronic systems [32] and conductive inks [33]. Similarly, it has antimicrobial properties [34] and is readily available.

Since 1963, the fruits of *Xanthium strumarium* L. plant has been listed in the Pharmacopoeia of the People’s Republic of China (CH. P), and currently over 60 formulas containing the fruits of *X. strumarium* have been applied for treating various diseases, including rhinitis, nasal sinusitis, headache, gastric ulcer, urticarial, rheumatism, bacterial and fungal infections, and arthritis[20, 35, 36]. So far, many studies have been devoted to the pharmacological and phytochemical studies of *X. strumarium*, and more than 170 chemical compounds have been isolated and identified from this plant, including sesquiterpene lactones, phenols, glycoside, alkaloids, fatty acid and others[37]. In addition, increasing evidence has indicated that *X. strumarium* possesses a wide spectrum of pharmacological activities including analgesic and anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, hypoglycemic, anti-cancer, antibacterial and antifungal, anti-trypanosomal, anti-tussive activities, and effects on nervous and digestive systems, as well as other effects[20].

2.1. Approaches for nanoparticles synthesis

Synthesis of nanomaterials can be achieved by using either the “top-down” or “bottom-up” approach. All the physical, chemical, and biological methods of synthesis of CuNPs follow one of these two approaches Fig. 1[38].

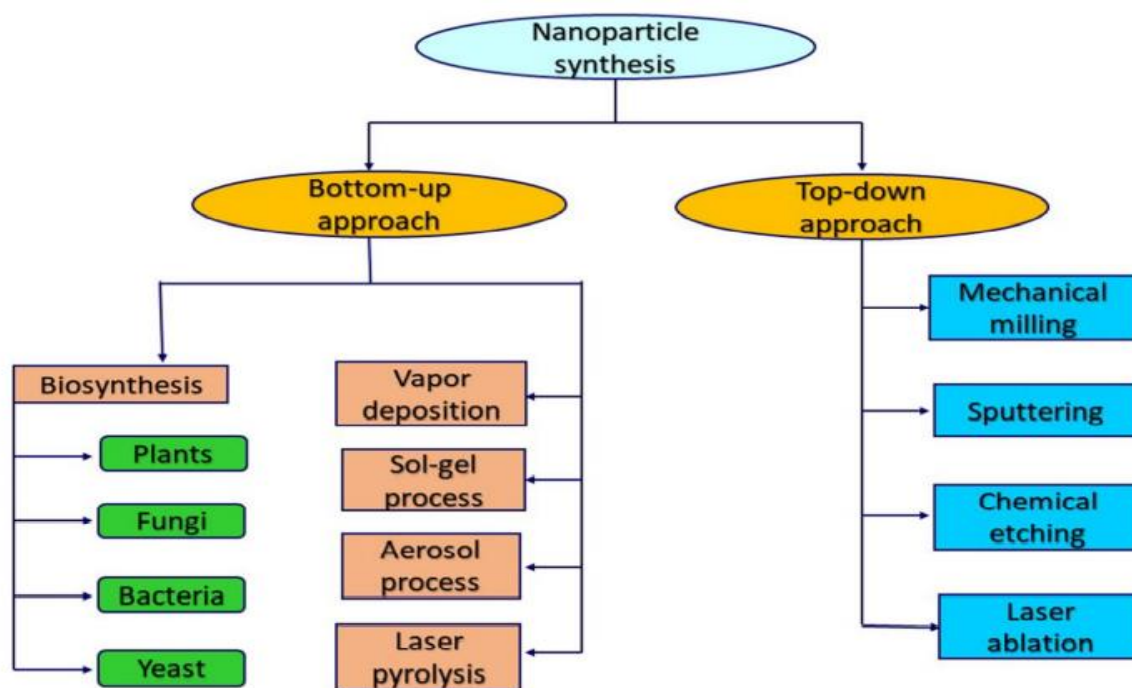


Figure 1: Nanoparticles synthesis via biological and physicochemical approaches.

2.1.1. Bottom-up approach

The bottom-up approach involves the generation of nanoparticles from small units like molecules and atoms or through the self-assembly of atoms into new nuclei, which further grow into a particle possessing nanoscopic dimensions and employing various chemical and biological methods Fig. 2.

2.1.2. Top-down Approach

In this approach, nanoparticles are formed by size reduction method that means suitable bulk material reduces to small units with the use of appropriate lithographic methods, for example crushing, spitting, and milling, Fig. 2[39].

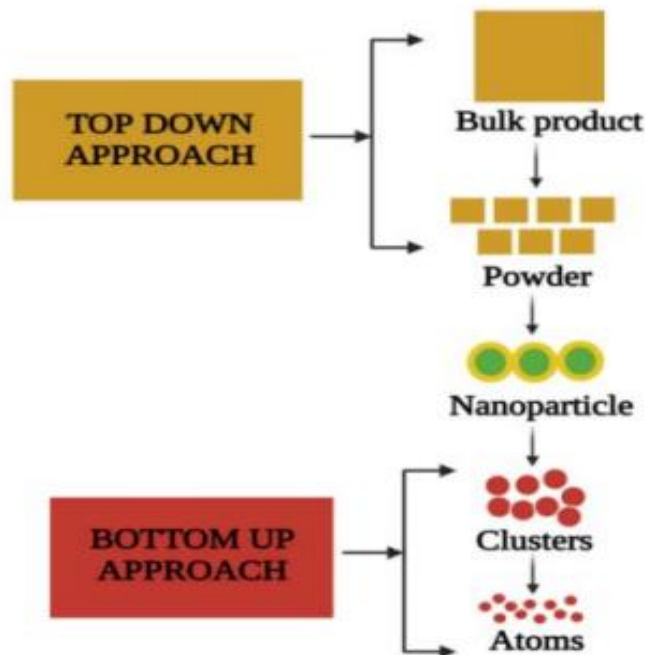


Figure 2: Approaches for the synthesis of nanoparticles

2.2. Methods of copper nanoparticles synthesis

A synthesis of copper nanoparticles by various methods. Copper nanoparticles were examined by various methods like chemical, physical and biological methods[40].

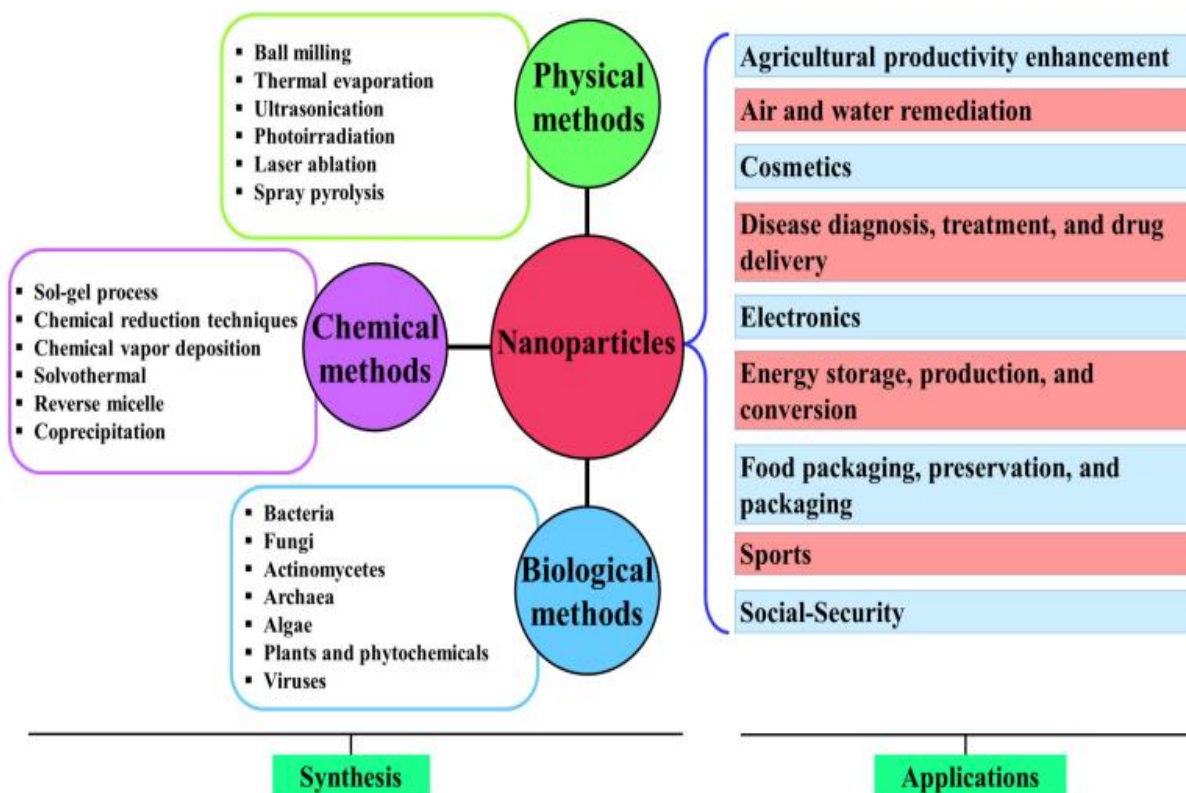


Figure 3: Schematic representation of various methods adopted for NP synthesis and its applications.

2.2.1. Physical methods

The most important physical synthesis methods are evaporation–condensation and laser ablation. Nanoparticles obtained through physical synthesis present no solvent contamination and have uniform distribution which is an improvement over chemical synthesis. Very small nanoparticles can be obtained using evaporation–condensation (6.2–21.5 nm and 1.23–1.88 nm) but the process requires a lot of energy to increase the operating temperature and it is time-consuming. The nanoparticles obtained with laser ablation have characteristics depended on the wavelength of the laser, the duration of its pulses, the laser fluence, the ablation time and the liquid medium. One study obtained nanospheres (20–50 nm) in water with femtosecond laser pulses at 800 nm[40]. Some disadvantages of physical obtaining methods are the requirement of expensive

equipment and high use of energy, thus making them less popular than chemical or green methods.

2.2.2. Chemical methods

Chemical methods are the most widely used to obtain copper nanoparticles. One major drawback is the use of toxic materials during the synthesis phase. Considering that nanoparticles are being used more frequently and have increasing human contact, it is essential to develop environmentally friendly processes. Various chemical methods are used to obtain nanoparticles, such as sonochemical reduction, hydrothermal synthesis, electrochemical and chemical reduction. The latter is the most commonly used one. It involves using hydrazine, ascorbic acid or sodium borohydride as a reducing agent. The chemical reduction method is often used to obtain CuNPs because it is simple, has high yield efficiency and requires limited equipment[41]. The major disadvantages this method is that reagents are toxic and the byproducts generated are not eco-friendly.

2.2.3. Biological methods

Green synthesis of metallic nanoparticles is widely used because of its harmless obtaining method. It uses molecules in plants and microorganisms (bacteria, fungi) as a reducing agent. It has the advantage of using more eco-friendly materials, being cheaper than chemical synthesis, simpler, more rapid and sustainable. It is preferable to use plant extracts to obtain nanoparticles rather than using microorganisms because of increased difficulty in preserving cell cultures[42]. Moreover, it reduces the complex process of maintaining cell cultures and it is also suitable for creating large scale synthesis of nanoparticles[43].

Considering the use of nanoparticles in medicine, there is an increased need to use an eco-friendly method of obtaining as they are regarded as the next step in battling diseases. Plant extracts act as a reducing and capping agent, give stability to the NPs, and help to increase the rate of reduction. Different plants contain different bioactive compounds which act as reducing and capping agents to reduce metal ions[44].

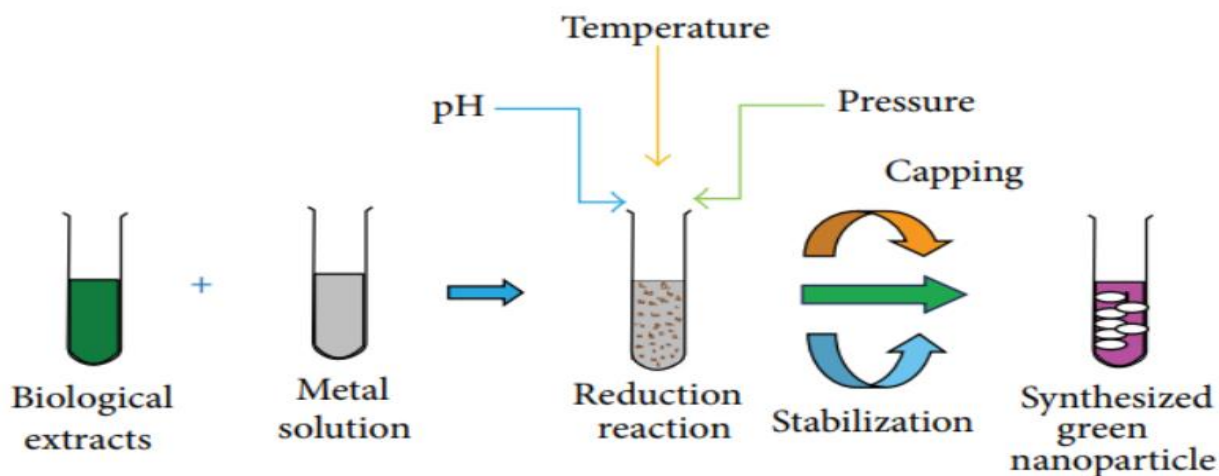


Figure 4: Biological synthesis of nanoparticles using green technology[45]

According to the experimental studies of **Murthy et al.**, CuNPs were successfully synthesized from the aqueous copper nitrate solution ($\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$) using *Hagenia Abyssinia* (kosso) leaves extract in a continuously heated and stirred mixture. The change in color from blue to light brownish visually after several minutes of reaction time as indicates the formation of CuNPs. The UV-visible absorbance spectrum recorded for g-Cu NPs exhibited λ_{max} of 403. This absorption band is basically due to surface Plasmon resonance of g-Cu NPs fig. 5[46].

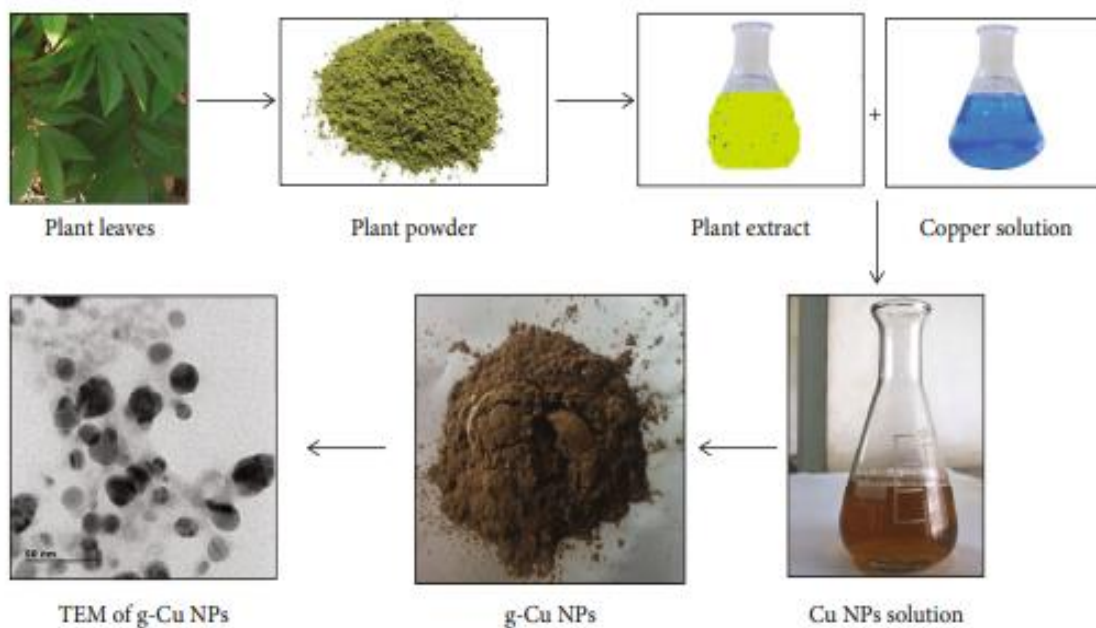


Figure 5: The scheme of synthesis of g-Cu NPs from *Hagenia Abyssinia* leaves extract.

Table 1: Different precursors, plants leave extract for synthesis and characterization techniques for CuNPs.

Sr. No.	Precursor	Plants/plant extract	Size (nm)	Shape	characterization techniques used	Ref
1	Copper Sulfate (CuSO ₄)	<i>Capparis zeylanica</i>	50 –100	Cubical	UV-Vis, FTIR, XRD, SEM, EDX & TEM	[47]
2	Copper (II) sulfate pentahydrate CuSO ₄ .5H ₂ O	<i>Datura meta L.</i>	15 –20	Spherical	UV-visible, Particle size analyzer (PSA), TEM, EDX and FTIR	[48]
3	Copper Sulfate (CuSO ₄)	<i>Albizialebeck</i>	100	Spherical	UV-Vis, SEM, TEM, EDS & XRD	[49]
4	Copper Sulfate (CuSO ₄)	<i>Euphorbia esula.L</i>	20 –110	Spherical	UV-vis, XRD, FTIR& TEM	[50]
5	Cupric chloride dehydrate (CuCl ₂ .2H ₂ O)	<i>Pistachio</i>	9	Spherical	XRD, FTIR and SEM	[51]
6	Cupric chloride dehydrate (CuCl ₂ .2H ₂ O)	<i>Malvasylvestris</i>	14	Spherical	XRD, FTIR and SEM	[52]
7	Copper (II) sulfate pentahydrate (CuSO ₄ .5H ₂ O)	<i>Magnolia Kobus L.</i>	37 –110	Spherical	UV-visible, ICP, EDS, XPS, and HRTEM	[53]
8	Cupric chloride dehydrate (CuCl ₂ .2H ₂ O)	<i>Ginkgo biloba Linn</i>	15 –20	Spherical	UV-visible spectroscopy, TEM, EDS and FTIR	[54]
9	Copper Sulfate (CuSO ₄)	<i>Gymnemasylvestre</i>	65 –302	Spherical	UV-visible, FTIR and SEM	[55]
10	Cupric chloride dihydrate (CuCl ₂ .2H ₂ O)	<i>Otostegia persica</i>	40	Spherical	UV-visible spectroscopy, XRD, FTIR and TEM	[56]
11	Cupric chloride	<i>Thymus vulgaris L</i>	30	FCC	UV-visible, XRD,	[57]

	dihydrate (CuCl ₂ ·2H ₂ O)				FTIR, TEM, EDS, TGA and DTA	
12	Copper (II) sulfate pentahydrate (CuSO ₄ ·5H ₂ O)	<i>Ocimum bacilicum</i>	40-60	Spherical	UV-visible spectroscopy, FTIR and HRTEM	[58]
13	Copper (II) sulfate pentahydrate (CuSO ₄ ·5H ₂ O)	<i>Asparagus adscendens</i>	10-15	Spherical	UV-visible spectroscopy, FTIR and HRTEM	[58]
14	Copper Sulfate (CuSO ₄)	<i>Eucalyptus sp. L.</i>	38.62	----	UV-Vis, FTIR, XRD&SEM	[59]
15	Copper Nitrate(CuNO ₃)	<i>H.rosasinensis</i>		Spherical	UV-visible spectroscopy, FT-IR, and TEM	[60]
16	Copper Chloride(CuCl ₂)	<i>Papaya</i>	20	Spherical	UV-visible, Absorption Spectrometer, XRD, FTIR, SEM and TEM	[61]
17	Copper (II)sulfate pentahydrate (CuSO ₄ ·5H ₂ O)	<i>O.sanctum</i>	77	Spherical	XRD and FTIR	[62]
18	Cupric chloridedihydrate (CuCl ₂ ·2H ₂ O)	<i>PsidiumguajavaL.</i>	13.13±0.19	-----	UV-visible spectroscopy	[60]
19	Copper (II) Sulfate pentahydrate (CuSO ₄ ·5H ₂ O)	<i>Artabotrys odoratissimus</i>	135	---	Particle size analysis(PSA)	[63]
20	Copper Sulfate(CuSO ₄)	<i>NeriumOleander</i>	---	---	UV-visible spectroscopy and FTIR	[64]

2.3. Mechanism of synthesis of copper nanoparticles

In the biosynthesis of CuNPs, extracts from biological sources may act as both reducing and capping agents. Combinations of biomolecules included in these extracts, such as proteins, amino acids, vitamins, carbohydrates, glycosides, alkaloids, polyphenols, terpenoids, ascorbic acid, oxalic acid and polysaccharides, reduce Cu^+ ions in an environmentally favorable but chemically complex. Copper ions were bound on the surface of proteins in extract via electrostatic interactions, which served as a reduction process [65, 66] (fig. 6) [39].

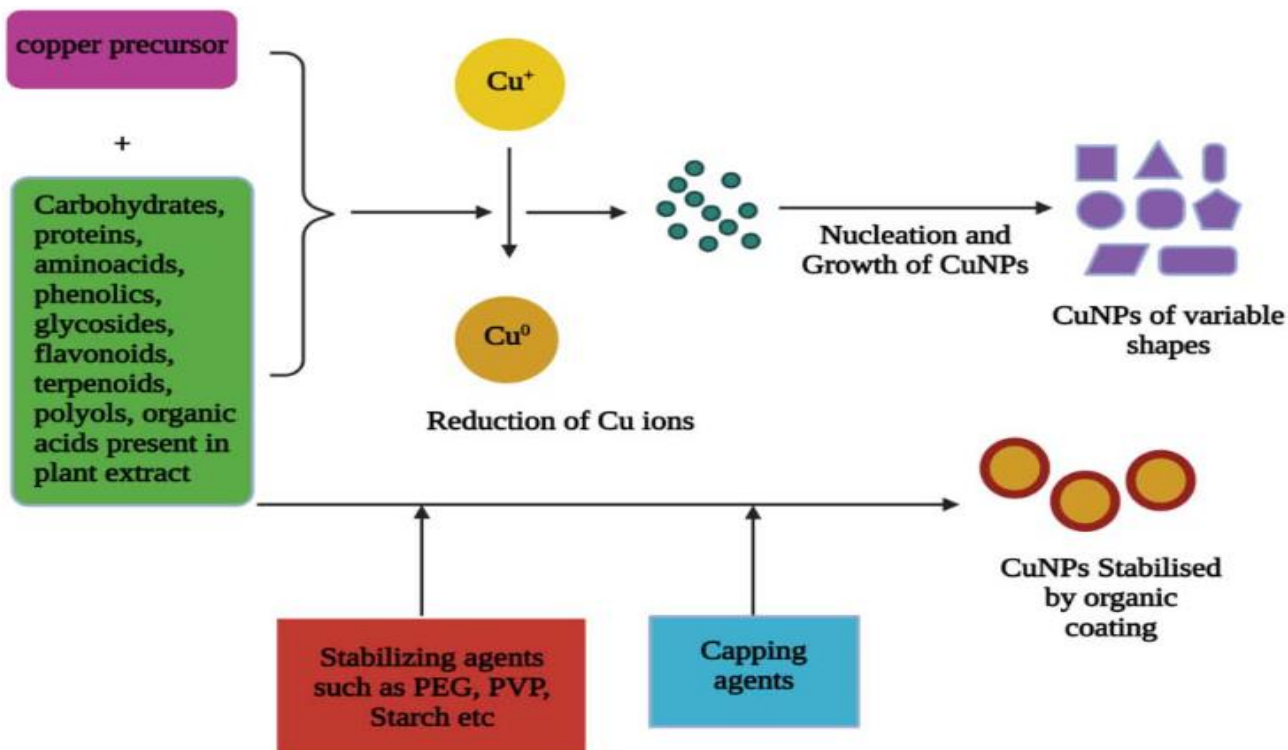
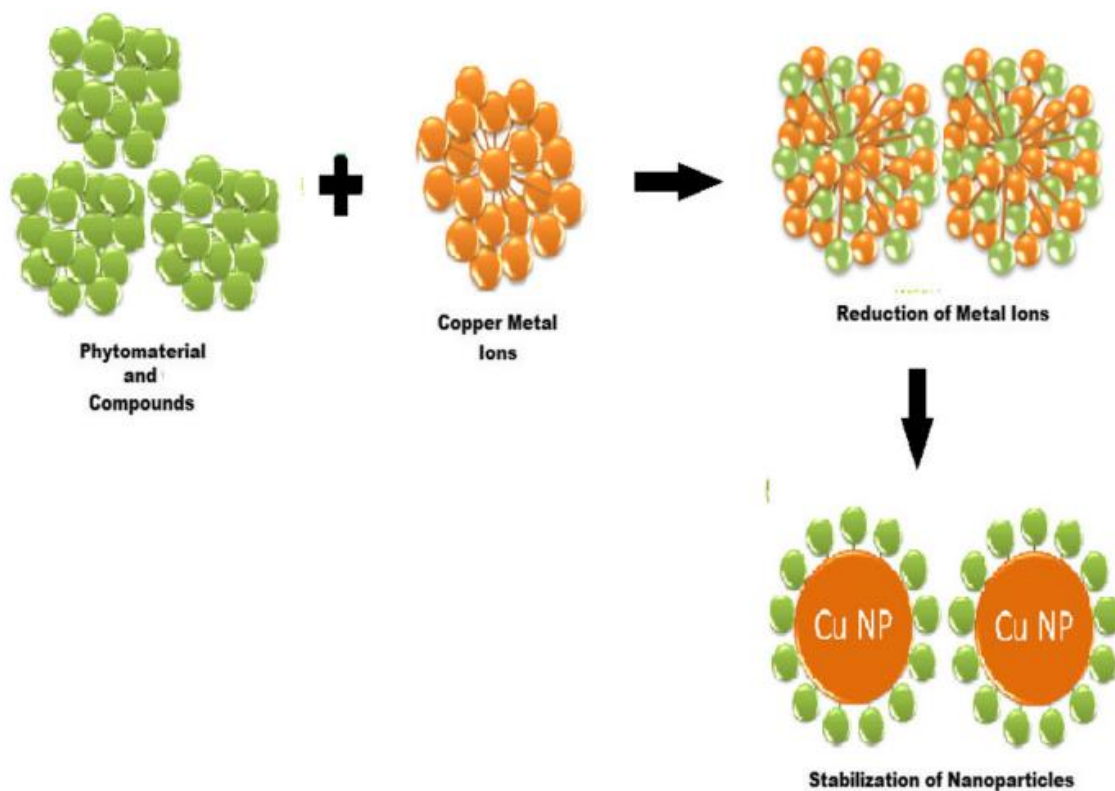


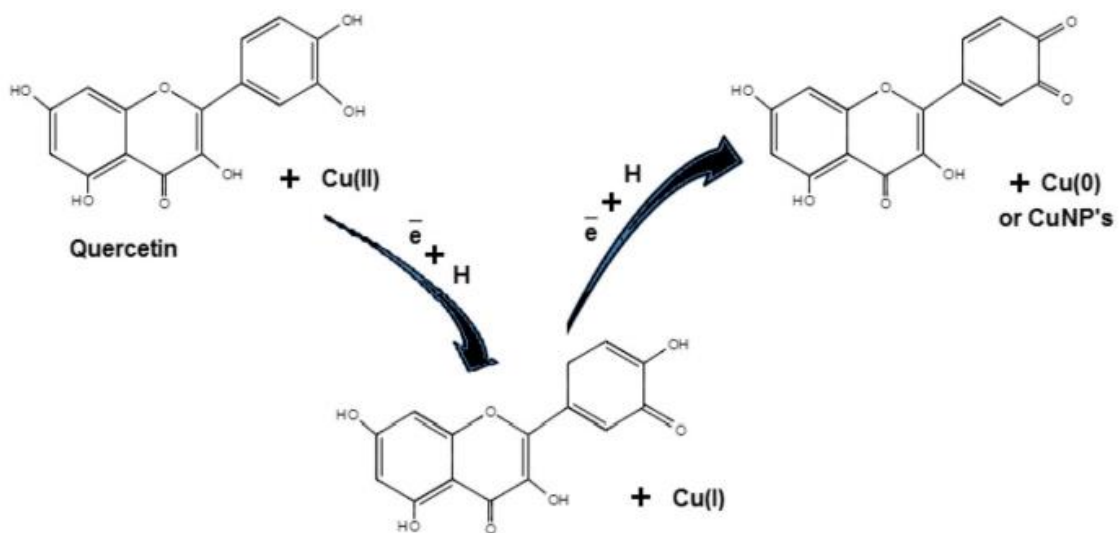
Figure 6: Probable mechanism for the synthesis of CuNPs

Phytochemicals have a main role in first reducing the metal ions and then stabilizing the metal's nuclei in the form of nanoparticles as shown in Scheme. 1. The interaction of phytochemicals with metal ions and the concentration of these phytochemicals control the shape and size of CuNPs. Flavonoids contain polyphenolic compounds, e.g., quercetin, catechins, flavanones, isoflavones, santin, penduletin, alizarin, pinocembrin, anthocyanins, flavones, tannins, and saponins, which are present in different plants such as Ginkgo biloba [54]. Various functional groups present in the flavonoids are responsible for the reduction of the copper ion. It has been assumed that a reactive hydrogen atom in the flavonoids may be released during the tautomeric alterations of the enol form to the keto form which can reduce copper ions to form copper nuclei

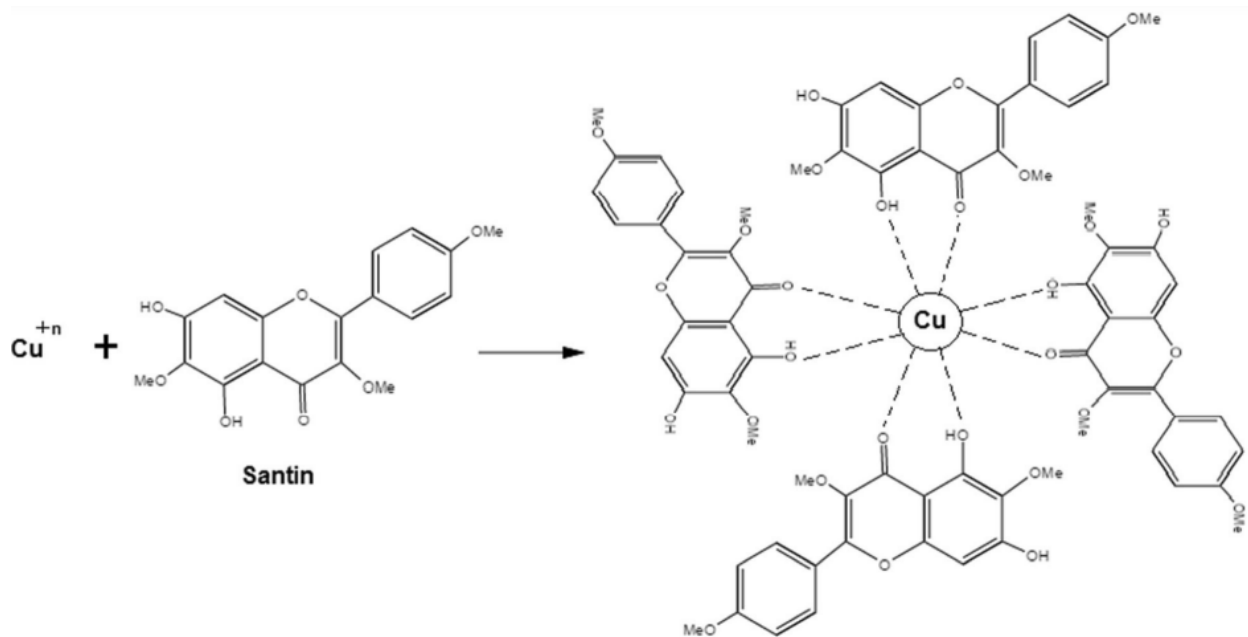
or CuNPs. For example, it is assumed that in the case of Ginkgo biloba plant extracts, it is the transformation of quercetin (flavonoid) which plays a main role in the reduction of copper metal ions into copper nuclei or CuNPs due to the change of enol form to keto form as shown in Scheme. 2. Some flavonoids have an ability to chelate the CuNPs with their π electrons and carbonyl groups. Quercetin and santin are flavonoids with strong chelating activity due to the presence of two functional groups involving the hydroxyls and carbonyls. These groups chelate with copper nanoparticles by following the previous mechanism and also explain the ability of adsorption of santin (flavonoid) on the surface of CuNPs as shown in Scheme. 3.



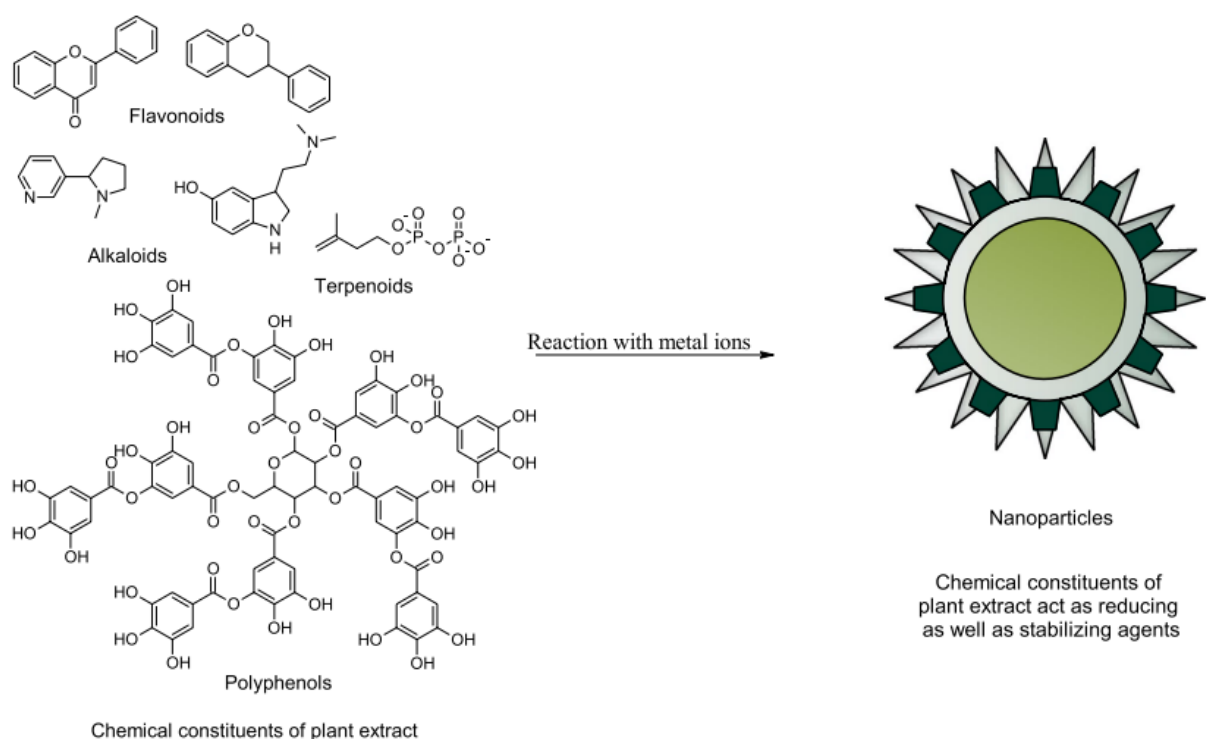
Scheme 1: A protocol for reducing the metal ions and then stabilizing the metal's nuclei[18]



Scheme 2: Reduction of copper ions by quercetin[18].



Scheme 3: Stabilization of copper nanoparticles by santin[18]



Scheme 4: Possible chemical phytochemicals of plant extract associated with metal nanoparticles synthesis[67]

2.4.Plant-mediated Green Synthesis of CuNPs

The main advantage of the green synthesis of CuNPs is that they are easily available, safe to handle and possess a broad variability of metabolites. In the light of IR spectroscopic research, the primary phytochemicals responsible have been identified as terpenoids, flavones, ketones, aldehydes, amides, and carboxylic acids. The main water-soluble phytochemicals like quinines, flavones and organic acids were responsible for immediate reduction. Redial tautomerization occurs in anthraquinone compounds, resulting in the formation of nanoparticles. The stability of the green synthesized CuNPs is enhanced and thereby it increases the rate of reaction of CuNPs by preventing the formation of agglomerates[68, 69]. The part of the plants such as leaf, fruit, flower, bark, root and stem along with the precursor copper salts such as copper acetate, copper nitrate, copper sulphate and copper chloride were processed as per the time and temperature is given in fig. 7. The extracts of plants have been efficiently applied for this purpose. Synthesis of CuNPs has been successful with extracts of various parts of plant species that include *Eucalyptus* leaf[70], *Camellia sinensis* leaf[71], *Ocimum sanctum* leaf[72], *Punica granatum* peel [73], *Citrus medica* Linn. (Idilimbu) juice [74], *Ziziphus spina-christi* (L.) Willd fruit[75],

Eclipta prostrata leaf [76], *Ginkgo biloba* Linn leaf[54], *Plantago asiatica* leaf[77], black tea leaf[78], *Terminalia catappa* leaf [79], *Azadirachta indica* leaf [80] and *Piper retrofractum* fruit[81].

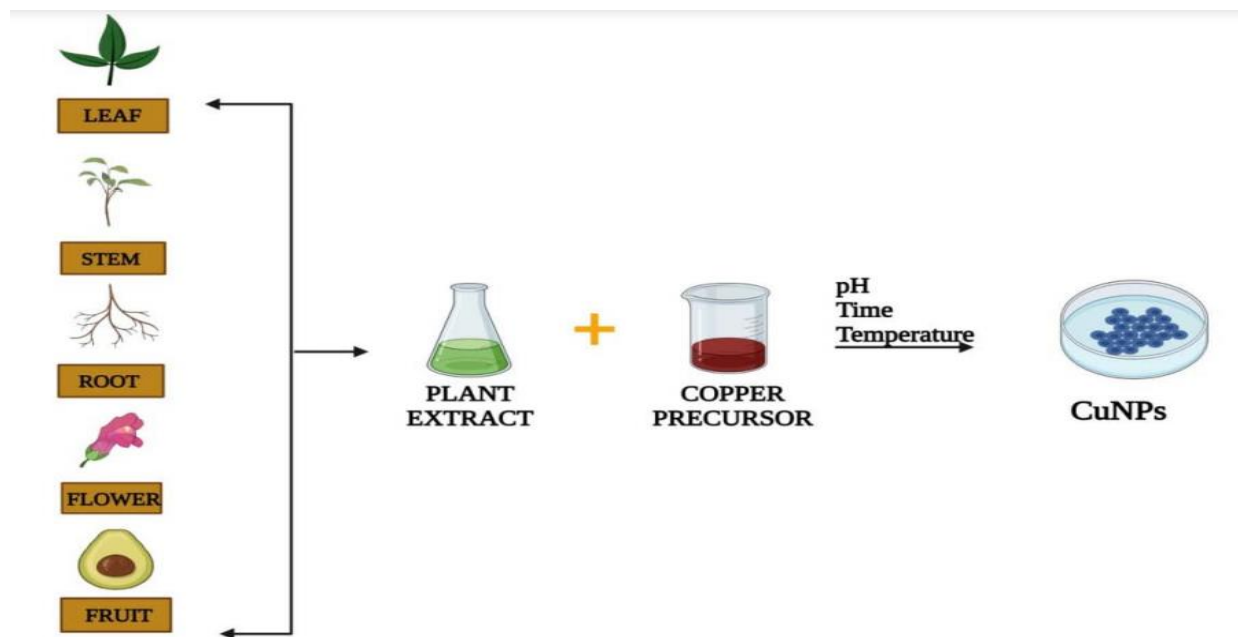


Figure 7: Plant mediated synthesis of copper nanoparticles [39]

2.4.1. *Xanthium strumarium* L. (Common Cocklebur)

In Ethiopia, the plant is used traditionally for the treatment of human skin infections[82]. A number of studies have been conducted to explain the putative traditional medicinal uses of *X. strumarium*. A methanol extract was shown to have in vitro antibacterial and antifungal activities [83]. *Xanthium strumarium* can be used as a medicinal plant. A yellow dye can be made from its leaves. However, these uses cannot compensate for its overall negative impacts[84].

2.4.2. Physical characteristics of *Xanthium strumarium* L. (Common Cocklebur)

Xanthium strumarium L. (Cocklebur) (Asteraceae), is an herbaceous annual or a short-lived perennial plant of worldwide distribution in North America, Brazil, China, Malaysia, and hotter parts of India. The plant is erect, up to 2.5 m tall, and presents blotched purple stems. Its leaves are dark green on the upper surface, similar in shape to grape leaves, 3-18 cm long by 3-18 cm wide on long and roughly textured with minute bristles. The flowers are yellowish green, inconspicuous, both male and female, occurring in leaf axils towards the end of the branches. In addition, the flowers develop into hard woody burrs (fruits). The fruit is called a bur,

its ovoid (oval shaped) and it measures about 1.2-2 cm long, green, turning yellow and then brown in stalked auxiliary clusters. Each bur has two stouts, curved or straight horns and is covered with hooked spines. *X. strumarium* is extremely competitive with other crops. It has long been considered one of the worst weeds in soybean plantations [84-86].



Figure 8: *Xanthium strumarium* L..

2.5.Characterization of CuNPs synthesized from plants

It is necessary to characterize the nanoparticles in order to understand the control of synthesis and their uses in wide applications. Various techniques are available for synthesis of copper nanoparticles. Microscopic techniques such as UV-Vis's spectroscopy, X-ray Diffractometer (XRD), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) are commonly used to characterize the nanoparticles. Some of the important physical properties like size and shape of particle, size distribution, crystallinity and morphology of nanoparticles were investigated using these characterization techniques [81]

2.5.1. UV-visible spectroscopy analysis

The synthesis of the copper nanoparticles was immediately followed by UV -Vis's spectroscopy analysis. The spectrum was recorded over a range of 200-900nm. UV-Vis spectral analysis of CuNPs from *Fortunella margarita* (*kumquat*) plant leave extract shows in Figure 9. The peak

observed at 679 nm, which exhibits a SPR property within 9 min. The red-colored bands indicate the presence of metallic copper, hence providing evidence for the formation of CuNPs. The peak is also intense which shows that the particles are small in size and are easily dispersed in the solvent[94].Based on other experimental work, CuNPs was synthesized from *Capparis zeylanica* leaves using 1mM copper sulphate solution. The result obtained from UV-Visible spectroscopy analysis of the sample is presented in Fig 9b. It is the most important method of analysis to detect the Surface Plasmon Resonance property of CuNPs. The CuNPs formation was confirmed from the peak at 531 nm[47].

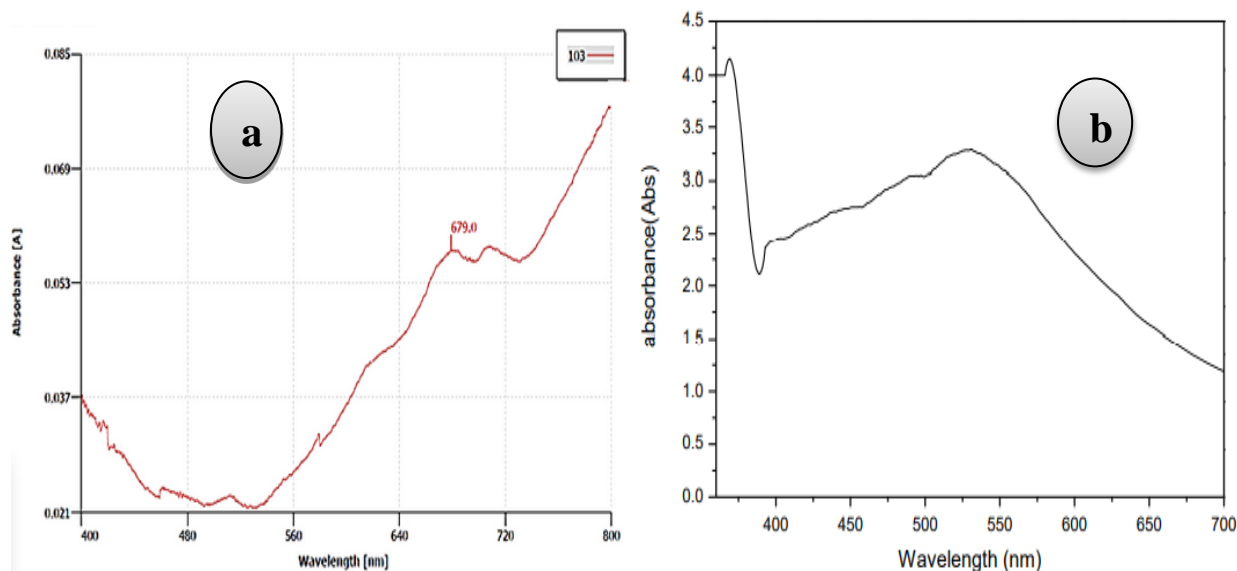


Figure 9: UV-Vis's spectra of CuNPs synthesized from the extract of (a) *Fortunella margarita* leaves and (b) *Capparis zeylanica* leaves.

2.5.2. Fourier-Transform Infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy analysis

Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy gives data on functional groups present in compounds in the extract that interact with metal ions. The FTIR spectra of copper nanoparticles from *Ocimum sanctum* extract are shown in figure 14: The following peaks were observed in spectrum and the band at 3407.06 cm^{-1} is assigned to the O-H stretching of H-bonded alcohol and phenols. The band at 2926.89 cm^{-1} attributed to O-H stretching of carboxylic acids. The band at 1628.67 cm^{-1} corresponds to the NO_2 stretching of Nitro compound and presence of amide I and II, which arises due to the carbonyl stretch and -N-H- stretch vibration in the amide linkages of the proteins. The band at 1423.14 cm^{-1} is related to the C-C stretching of aromatic ring structure, scissoring and bending of alkanes. The band at 1081.91 cm^{-1} is related to the C-O stretching of alcohol, ether, esters, carboxylic acid. The peak at $601.86, 437.73, 437.91\text{ cm}^{-1}$ indicated

fingerprint region is complicated by the large number of different vibrations that occur here. FTIR spectrum of copper nanoparticles suggested that copper nanoparticles were surrounded by different organic molecules such as terpenoids, alcohols, ketones, aldehydes and carboxylic acid (fig. 10a)[72]. The FTIR spectra of CuNPs from *Capparis zeylanica* leaves extract also indicated in Figure 14b, absorption peaks are observed at 3427, 2918, 2091, 1602, 1394, 1258, 1059, 795 and 599 cm^{-1} . The peaks at 2918, 1602, and 1059 cm^{-1} indicate the C-H asymmetric stretching, C=O aromatic vibrations, and C=C stretching, respectively. The peak at 2091 cm^{-1} confirms the carboxylate ions. The peak positions at 1394 and 1258 cm^{-1} correspond to the organic and aromatic molecule derivatives like phenolic, alkaloids, flavonoids, tannins, aldehydes, and ketones present in the plant extract the peaks at 795 and 599 cm^{-1} identified as the aromatic ring of amino acids. The peak observed at 3427 cm^{-1} may be assigned to OH or NH stretching of phenolic compound. The involvement of phytochemicals in the formation of Cu NPs is confirmed with the FTIR analysis. Hence we can conclude these phytochemicals play a significant role in synthesizing Cu NPs[95].

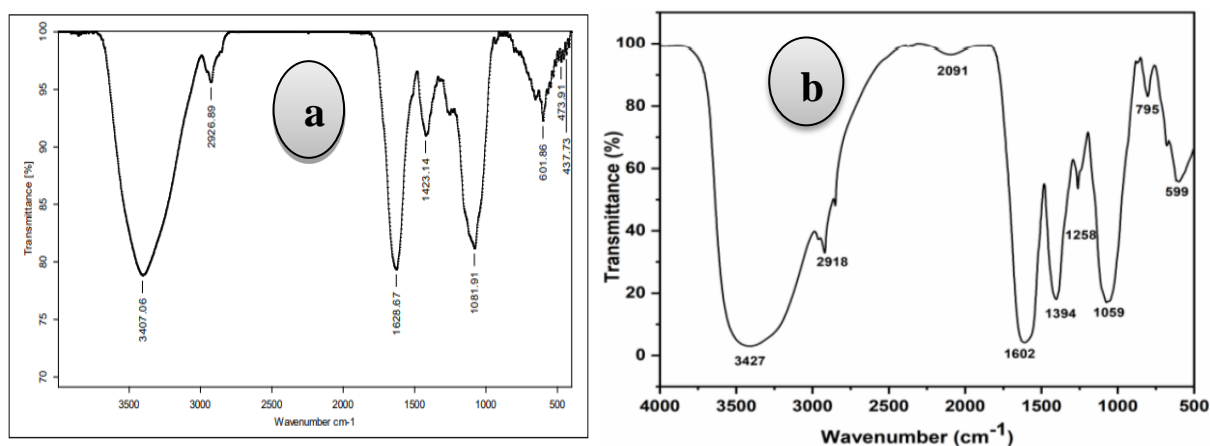


Figure 10: FTIR spectra of biosynthesized copper nanoparticles by (a) *Ocimum sanctum* and (b) *Capparis zeylanica* leaves extract.

2.5.3. X-ray Diffraction (XRD) analysis

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) system is used to analyse the structure of crystalline materials. The energetic X-rays can penetrate deep into the materials and provide information. If the NPs are not crystalline (without clearly defined shape), this technique can't be used to identify sample structure. It's based on Scherer's equation that determines the size of crystallites in the form of powder. The equation is as follows:

$$D = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \dots\dots\dots (\text{Eq.1})$$

where D is the mean nanoparticle diameter, λ is 1.5418 Å (wavelength of the radiation source), K is the Scherrer's constant or shape factor with a value of 0.9, θ is the Bragg angle, and $\beta_{1/2}$ is the width of peak at half height[96, 97].

According to **Roy et al., 2016**, the XRD diffraction pattern of CuNPs from *Heliconia psittacorum* leaves extract is presented in Figure 15. The peaks observed in the pattern at 2θ values = 43.34°, 50.48°, and 74.26° corresponds to (111), (200), and (220) lattice planes of face centered cubic structure of Cu NPs, and the diffraction data were in good agreement with JCPDS cardfile no. 04-0836 see fig. 11a[98]. On the hand, X-ray diffraction pattern of CuNPs the lemon extract and CuSO4 solution is shown in Figure 7. The figure shows sharp peaks at diffraction angles 43.5°, 50.6°, and 74.0° which are equivalent to the reflections revealed by different literatures. It depicts the presence of (111), (200) and (220) planes indicating formation of face centered cubic (fcc) crystals of CuNPs which follows Joint Committee of Powder Diffraction Standards (File No.089- 2838). Various other small peaks observed at 26°, 31° and 36° may be due to formation of oxidized copper because sample was oven dried at less than 80°C. The average crystallite size was estimated to be 17.7 nm see fig.11b[99].

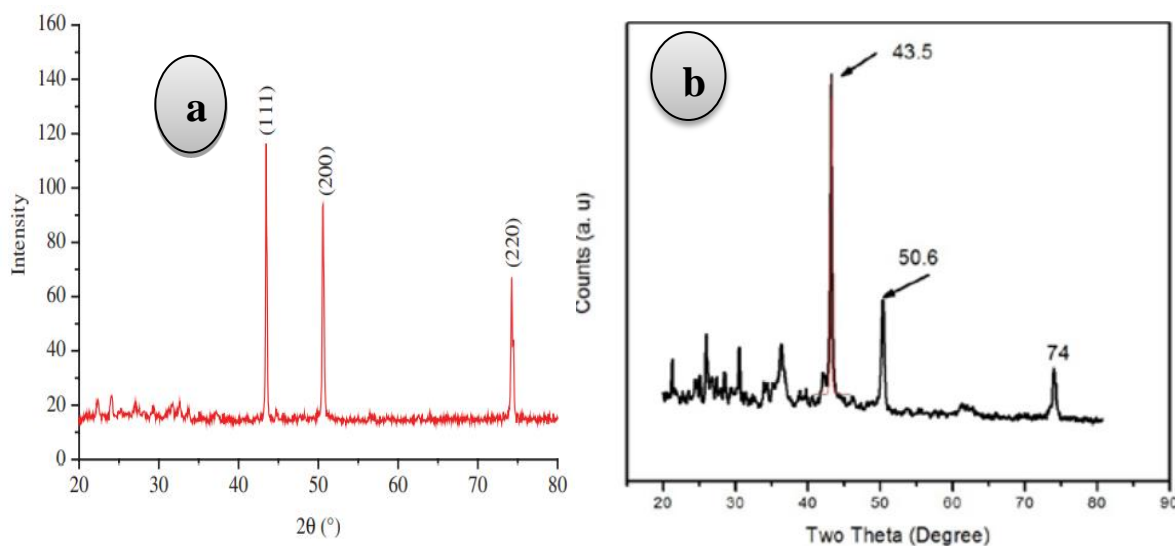


Figure 11: XRD diffraction pattern of CuNPs from (a) *Heliconia psittacorum* and (b) *lemon extract* leaves extract.

2.6. Biological applications

Copper nanoparticles are most commonly used in the emerging interdisciplinary field of Nano biotechnology and in biomedical technology. CuNPs have extensive applications in various fields due to their constant renewable surface, nontoxic and low cost of preparation[18, 60]. This review suggests that CuNPs can act as antioxidant, anticancer, antibacterial, antifungal, anti-diabetic, and anti-nociceptive and wound healing agents (fig. 12).

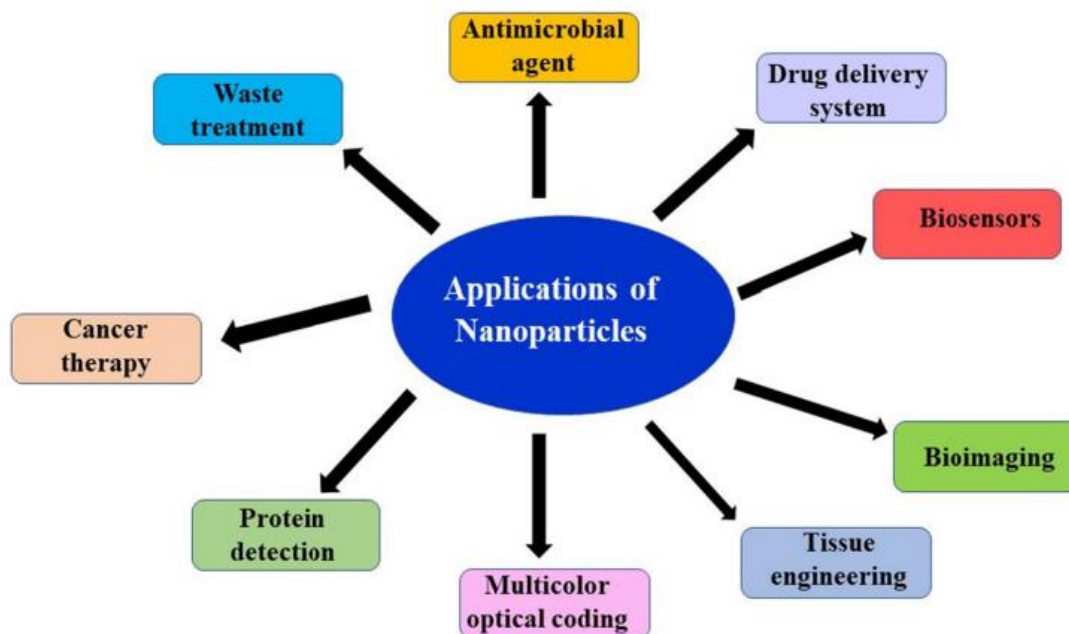


Figure 12: Applications of green synthesized nanoparticles in environmental and biomedical fields.

2.7. Antibacterial Applications of copper nanoparticles

Since ancient times among various antimicrobial agents, copper compounds have been commonly used in agriculture as herbicides, algacides, fungicides, and pesticides as well as in animal husbandry as a disinfectant. CuNPs is known for its antimicrobial properties and has been used for years in the medical field for antimicrobial applications. Copper NPs have been found to have a wide range of antimicrobial activity against pathogens. The mode of action is in different manner such as inactivating the enzymes, generating hydrogen peroxide, membrane damage and binding with DNA molecules of the microbes thus interrupting the double stranded structure are a few to be mentioned. The antimicrobial activity of copper NPs recommended their possible application in food preservation field especially preventing microbial contamination to fresh cut,

ready to eat fruits and vegetables. Copper NPs are also used in food processing as well as packing[101].

2.7.1. Mechanism of the bactericidal effect of copper nanoparticles

The antibacterial mechanism of copper nanoparticles has been attributed to the fact that Cu^{2+} ions eluted from nanoparticles are absorbed by bacteria when the nanoparticles concentration is high enough. Copper ions are absorbed onto the bacterial cell surface, imparting damage to the cell membrane by solidifying protein structure or altering enzyme function[102, 103]. Bacterial cells are immobilized and become inactivated by the presence of copper nanoparticles in the growth medium, which results in hampering of their replication process, with subsequent cell death [104]. Reportedly, recycling redox reactions between Cu^{2+} and Cu^{1+} are possible at the surface of *E. coli* cells, generating hydrogen peroxide, causing damage to the cytoplasmic membrane [105]. Under physiological conditions, the intracellular enzyme activity of bacteria treated with copper nanoparticles is believed to increase, suggesting that permeability of the cell membrane also increased, with bacteria suffering injury as a result. From these results, it is believed that binding of copper ions to the bacterial cell surface plays an important role in bactericidal activity[106]. Copper has the potential to disrupt cell function in multiple ways, since several mechanisms acting simultaneously may reduce the ability of microorganisms to develop resistance against copper [107]. These investigated mechanisms provide insight into the complicated antimicrobial action of copper nanoparticles.

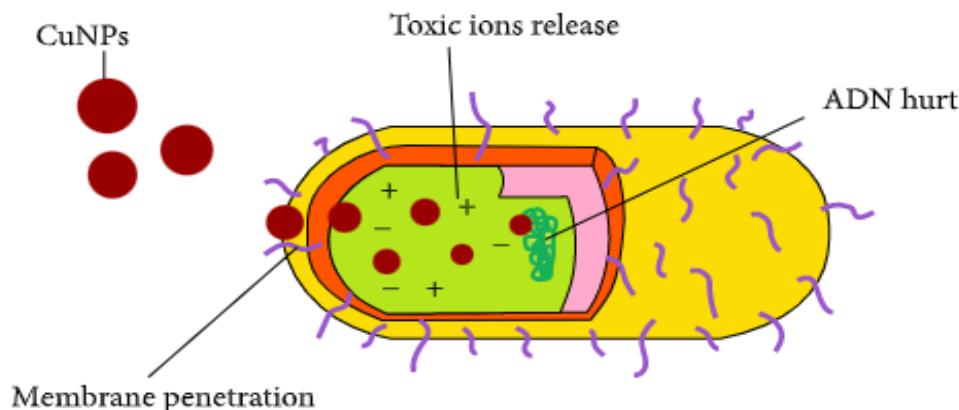


Figure 13: Possible Cu NPs action mechanism in a bacterium membrane[10].

CHAPTER THREE

MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Materials

3.1.1. Chemicals and reagents

The following chemicals, reagents, plant leaf samples were used for this research work:

- ◆ Copper (II) nitrate trihydrate ($\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 99.5%), ethanol, Distilled water, Muller agar solution, dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), Chloroform, Ferric chloride (FeCl_3 , 99%), Sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4 , 98%), Hydrochloric acid (HCl, 37%), Sodium hydroxide (NaOH, 98 %) and *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaves.

3.1.2. Apparatus and Instruments

The following equipment's and analytical instruments were used for this research work:

- ◆ Conical flasks, Volumetric flasks, Beakers, Hot-plate, Analytical balance, Magnetic stirrer, Spatula, Pipette with bulb, Mortar and pestle, Mechanical shaker, Aluminum foil, Test tubes, Oven, Centrifuge, Whatman No.1 filter paper, Filter funnel, Autoclave, Micro Pipette with tips and Refrigerator.

3.2. Methods

3.2.1. Description of the Study Area

The sample was collected from the major planting areas in Ethiopia. Wolkite is the capital town of Gurage zone district, and also 158 km from Addis Ababa on the main road of Jimma and 430 km through former southern nation's nationalities and peoples, regional state (SNNPRS) Hawass. This means that it could be reach from Addis Ababa to or via Hawass. It also Gubre sub-city is located in Eastern Gurage zone district 14km western direction of Wolkite town. This area was selected to represent the area where *Xanthium strumarium L.* Plant is dominantly planted and used as traditional medicine.

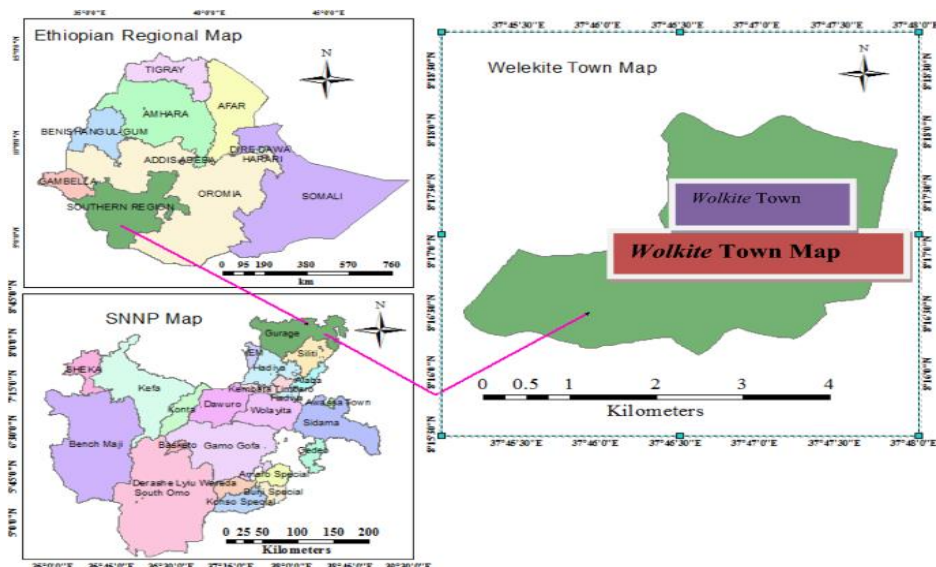


Figure 14: Map of study area.

Source: Geographical information system version 10.1.

3.2.2. Collection of *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaves

Xanthium strumarium L. plant leaves were collected from its natural habitat in November 4, 2024 at Wolkite, located in Eastern Gurage zone district 14km western direction of Wolkite town.

3.2.3. Preparation of *Xanthium strumarium L.* leaf extract

The preparation of leaf extracts was done with slight modification of the previous method[46]. The leaves of *Xanthium strumarium L.* was surface cleaned and washed repeatedly with tap water followed by distilled water to remove dust particles and then allowed to dry under shadow for 10 days to remove moisture contents from the leaves. The dried leaves were ground using a grinding machine to get a fine powder of the sample. The extraction was carried out by taking 20 g of the powdered leaves of *Xanthium strumarium L.* in a 500 ml of conical flask containing 400 ml of distilled water. The flask was later covered with aluminum foil, to prevent the effect of light. After that, the mixture was Shaked using a mechanical shaker for 90 minutes and allowed to warm at 50° C for 1 hour on a hot-plate with magnetic stirrer, then it was allowed to cool down to room temperature overnight. The prepared solution was filtered through Whatman No.1 filter paper to get clear solution. The filtrate was stored at 4° C for future experiments[46].

3.2.4. Qualitative Photochemical analysis of *Xanthium strumarium L.* Leaves extract

The *Xanthium strumarium L.* leaves extract was tested for the presence of bioactive compounds by using following standard methods[108].

3.2.4.1. Test for phenols and tannins

1ml of *Xanthium strumarium L.* leaves extract was mixed with 2ml of 2% solution of FeCl_3 . A blue-green or black coloration indicated the presence of phenols and tannins.

3.2.4.2. Test for glycosides

Liebermann's test

Xanthium strumarium L. leaves extract was mixed with each of 2ml of chloroform and 2ml of acetic acid. The mixture was cooled in ice. Carefully concentrated H_2SO_4 was added. A color change from violet to blue to green indicated the presence of steroidal nucleus, i.e., glycone portion of glycoside.

3.2.4.3. Test for proteins

a) Millon's test

Xanthium strumarium L. leaves extract when mixed with 2ml of Millon's reagent, white precipitate appeared which turned red upon gentle heating that confirmed the presence of protein.

3.2.4.4. Test for flavonoids

i. Alkaline reagent test

3 ml of plant leaves extract was mixed with 2ml of 2% solution of NaOH . An intense yellow color was formed which turned colorless on addition of few drops of diluted acid which indicated the presence of flavonoids.

3.2.4.5. Test for saponins

2ml of plant leaves extract was mixed with 5ml of distilled water in a test tube and it was shaken vigorously. The formation of stable foam was taken as an indication for the presence of saponins.

3.2.4.6. Test for steroid

5ml of plant extract was mixed with 2ml of chloroform and concentrated H_2SO_4 was added sidewise. A red color produced in the lower chloroform layer indicated the presence of steroids. Another test was performed by mixing plant extract with 2ml of chloroform. Then 2ml of each of

concentrated H₂SO₄ and acetic acid was poured into the mixture. The development of a greenish coloration indicated the presence of steroids.

3.2.4.7. Test for alkaloids

1 ml of HCl was added to 3 ml of each extract in a test tube. The mixture was heated for 20 minutes, cooled and filtered. 2 drops of Wagner's reagent were added to 1 ml of the filtrate and observed for reddish brown precipitate.

3.2.4.8. Test for terpenoids

Xanthium strumarium L. leaves extract was dissolved in 2ml of chloroform and evaporated to dryness. To this, 2ml of concentrated H₂SO₄ was added and heated for about 2 minutes. A grayish colour indicated the presence of terpenoids.

3.2.5. Green synthesis of copper nanoparticles

It was performed as per previous method with slight modifications[46]. A 0.02 M aqueous copper nitrate solution (Cu (NO₃)₂.3H₂O) was prepared and stored in brown bottles. A 100 ml of *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaf extract was mixed with 400 ml of 0.02 M copper nitrate solution (1: 4) slowly dropwise with constant stirring in a 500 ml of conical flask. The mixture was incubated at room temperature for 24 hrs. A color change from light blue to dark green was observed after the reaction conditions and suggesting for formation of copper nanoparticles. The reduction of Cu²⁺ was confirmed from the UV–Visible spectrum of the reaction solution. After that, the copper nanoparticles were separated out from the mixture by high-speed centrifugation at 10,000 rpm for 15 min. The obtained CuNPs was washed by distilled water and ethanol to remove any impurities. Finally, the NPs was allowed to dry and stored at room temperature for further characterizations.

3.2.6. Characterization of copper nanoparticles

For characterization of synthesized copper nanoparticles, different techniques were used. The green synthesis of CuNPs and the reduction of copper ions was analyzed for SPR by using double beam UV-vis spectrophotometer (Agilent technologies, Cary 60 UV-Vis; USA) in the wavelength range of 200–800 nm. Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) analysis was measured by using FTIR spectrometer (Jasco FT/IR-6600typeA, Japan). FTIR spectra of the synthesized CuNPs were obtained in the range of 4,000–400 cm⁻¹ by crushing a small amount of finely powdered CuNPs with KBr pellets. The FTIR analysis was utilized for determining the organic

functional groups linked to the surface of copper nanoparticles responsible for the reduction, stabilizing and capping agents. X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis was also carried out to reveal the crystallographic nature of biosynthesized CuNPs by using advanced X-ray Diffractometer (Shimadzu Corporation (Japan); XRD-7000 X-ray Diffractometer) with Cu-K α radiation of wavelength 1.5406 Å and scanning angle 2 θ from 10° to 80°.

3.2.7. Antibacterial studies of copper nanoparticles

The antibacterial activities of biosynthesized CuNPs was performed as per the previous method with slight modification[100]. The antimicrobial activity of pathogens was established using agar well diffusion methods. The bactericidal effect of copper nanoparticles has been attributed to their high surface to volume ratio and small size which allows them to interact very closely with microbial membranes. The antimicrobial study of CuNPs was carried out using one gram-positive bacteria (*Staphylococcus aureus*) and three gram-negative pathogenic bacteria (*Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*) clinically isolated pathogenic bacteria. The media used was Mueller-Hinton Agar (MHA) and it was prepared according to the manufacturer's instruction, where 35g of powder media was mixed with one liter of distilled water and enclosed in a container and autoclaved at 121 °C for 15 minutes. The media were later dispensed into sterile Petri dishes. After the media was solidified, 100 μ l of the working stock culture was spread with sterile cotton swab and wells were made in each petri dish by a stainless-steel cork borer. Then different concentration of CuNPs and the plant leave extract (50, 100, 150 and 200 μ l) was prepared separately from 20 mg/ml stock solution. Wells were filled with the prepared solutions of CuNPs, plant leave extract solutions, DMSO (negative control), ciprofloxacin (positive control) and kept in refrigerator for 15 minutes until it diffuses. The petri dishes were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. Finally, zone of inhibition of green synthesized CuNPs and the plant leaf extract with different concentrations against the pathogenic bacteria was measured in millimeter.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Phytochemical Analysis of the Plant Leaf Extracts

Qualitative phytochemical screening analysis was done on *Xanthium strumarium L.* leaf extract to determine the presence of some phytochemicals in the leaves of this medicinal plant. The presence and/or absence of useful bioactive compounds such as phenols, tannins, glycoside, proteins, flavonoids, saponins, steroid, alkaloids and terpenoids in *Xanthium strumarium L.* leaf extracts were revealed by the confirmatory test, involving color changes, precipitate formation and other confirmations. The phytochemical characteristics of the leaf extract of *Xanthium strumarium L.* investigated are summarized in table-1 below. The results revealed that the presence of bioactive compounds like phenols, tannins, flavonoids, Alkaloids, saponins, proteins and glycoside in the leaves of *Xanthium strumarium L.*, while terpenoids and steroids were absent in this plant leaf[108]

Table 2: Results on Phytochemical screening of *Xanthium strumarium L.* Plant leaf extract[108].

S/No.	Bioactive phytochemicals	Test/Reagents	Result
1	Phenols/tannins	Ferric chloride test	+
2	Proteins	Millon's reagent test	+
3	Flavonoids	Alkaline reagent test	+
4	Saponins	Frothing test	+
5	steroid	Salkowski test	-
6	alkaloids	Mayer's And Wagner's reagents	+
7	Terpenoids	Salkowski test	-
8	Glycoside	Liebermann's test	+

Note: + = Present and - = Absent

4.2. Color Change Observation on the Synthesis of CuNPs

The copper nanoparticles (CuNPs) were successfully synthesized using 1:4 volume ratio of *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaf extract to copper nitrate solution ($\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$) as a reducing and capping agent, copper nitrate as a precursor. It was observed that solution of copper nitrate (light blue) turned dark-green on addition of leaves extract, this indicating the reduction

of Cu^{2+} to metallic copper of zerovalent (Cu^0). This change in color of the reaction mixture was taken as a primary evidence for the formation of copper nanoparticles[46]. The synthesized CuNPs (Figure 15) were later subjected to various characterization methods.



Figure 15: Green synthesis of CuNPs from *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leave extract after incubation at room temperature for 24 hrs. And colour change observation.

4.3. Characterization of Synthesized copper nanoparticles

4.3.1. UV-Visible Spectroscopy Analysis

The process of the bio reduction of copper ions to CuNPs was applied in this spectroscopy study by UV-vis spectroscopy. UV-vis spectroscopy might be used to detect the size and shape-controlled NPs in aqueous suspensions. The formation of CuNPs was monitored using UV-Vis's by measuring the absorbance in the scanning range of 200– 800 nm. After mixing the solution of copper nitrate ($\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$) with aqueous leaf extract, the reaction mixture changed its color rapidly. The synthesized CuNPs were dark green in aqueous solution due to excitation of electrons and changes in electronic energy levels, reflecting the reduction of Cu^{2+} in to metallic copper of zerovalent (Cu^0)[109].The UV-visible absorbance spectrum recorded for CuNPs exhibited λ_{max} of 672 nm. The UV-visible absorbance spectrum recorded for *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leave extracts exhibited λ_{max} of 685 nm due to the polyphenolic compounds present in the *Xanthium strumarium L.* leaf extract[110, 111] .Therefore, this spectrum strongly

supports the presence of phenolic as indicated in literatures[111]. The studies of this result correlates to previously reported by **Amjad et al., (2021)**[94]. Various reports have established that the SPR band of copper nanoparticles were observed between 620 to 710 nm [112]. The peak value was found to be gradually decreased with increase in particle size.

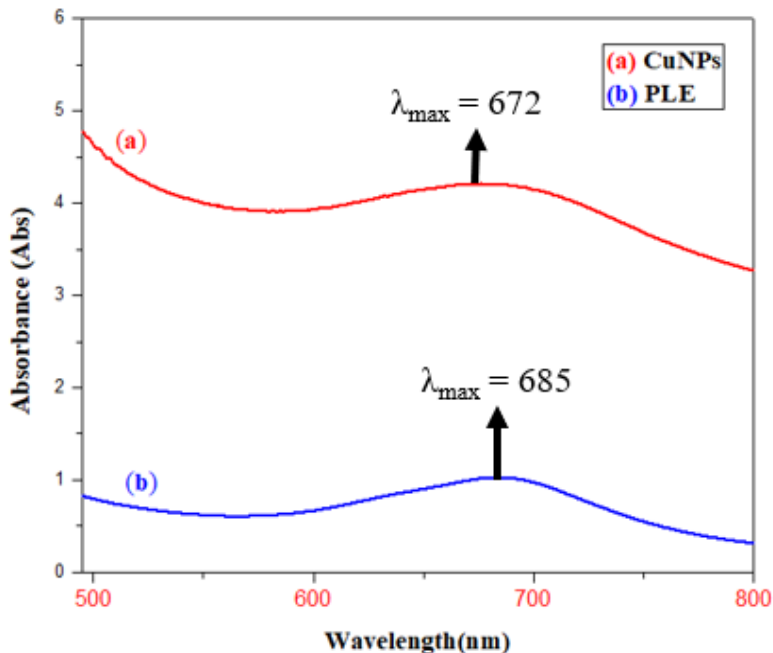


Figure 16: UV-visible spectra of biosynthesized CuNPs using *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leave extract with $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaf extracts.

4.3.2. Fourier-Transform Infrared (FTIR) Analysis

The analysis of FTIR spectra gives an idea about biomolecules bearing different functional groups which are present in underlying system of *Xanthium strumarium L.* leaf extract containing copper nanoparticles. To identify the capped biomolecules with CuNPs, The FTIR analysis was used to identify the capping, reducing and stabilizing capacity of the leaf extract. FTIR absorption spectra of green synthesized CuNPs and *Xanthium strumarium L.* leaf extract was studied in the range of $400\text{-}4000\text{ cm}^{-1}$. The FTIR analysis was done for both *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaf extract and green synthesized CuNPs. The major spectra show bands at $3432, 2929, 2117, 1636, 1412, 1276, 1053$ and 666 cm^{-1} . A broad band at 3432 cm^{-1} is due to the O-H group of the overlapping of the stretching vibration and attributed for water and phenolic group and N-H stretching vibration of amines group present in *Xanthium strumarium L.* leaf extract. The intense peaks shown at 2929 cm^{-1} corresponding to asymmetric C-H stretching

modes[113]. The peak value at 2117 cm^{-1} shows the presence of $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ stretching of alkyne group[58]. The stretching mode of the carbonyl group ($\text{C}=\text{O}$) was observed at 1636 cm^{-1} , suggesting the presence of carboxylic, aldehydes, esters, or ketones-containing compounds arises from flavonoids and tannins. The bands at 1412 cm^{-1} were assigned to show N-H stretch vibration in the amide linkage. The intense band at 1053 cm^{-1} could be assigned to the C-N stretching vibrations of aliphatic amines and also it shows the presence of C-O stretching of alcohols. Bands at 1276 cm^{-1} are attributed to the C-O group of phenolic compounds. The peak value at 666 cm^{-1} shows the presence of an alkyne C-H bend[114]. Whereas the green synthesized CuNPs from *Xanthium strumarium L.* leave showed the major and strongest vibration modes at around $591, 1044, 1263, 1387, 1620, 2116, 2923,$ and 3419 cm^{-1} as located. A band peak around 3419 cm^{-1} corresponds to -OH stretching of the phenolic group and N-H stretching vibrations of amino groups present in the CuNPs. The peak at 2923 cm^{-1} corresponds to C-H stretching modes. The peak at 1620 cm^{-1} is indicating to $\text{C}=\text{O}$ stretching. The peak value at 2116 cm^{-1} shows the presence of $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ stretching of the alkyne group. An intense peak around 1387 cm^{-1} shows N-H stretch vibration in the amide linkage and bands at 1263 cm^{-1} is due to the C-O group of phenolic compounds. The intense band at 1044 cm^{-1} could be assigned to the C-N stretching vibrations of aliphatic amines also it shows the presence of C-O stretching of alcohols. An intense peak around 591 cm^{-1} corresponds to bending modes of vibrations of the C-H bond. The presence of these functional groups indicated the possible involvement of reductive groups on the surfaces of the CuNPs[115]. From the FTIR study, it may be concluded that the amine groups along with the aromatic compounds (like phenol, etc.) probably capped and stabilized the copper nanoparticles during production in the reacting medium[116]. Interestingly, the band showed a shift to a lower frequency, which suggests a contribution to the reduction and capping process of the biosynthesized CuNPs. As evidenced by FTIR spectra, selection of *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant was an excellent option for the reduction of copper ions into CuNPs. The studies of this result correlates to previously reported by **Saddik et al., (2020)**[117].

Table 3: Band shift in FTIR spectrum of *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaf extract and Green synthesized CuNPs.

Bands	PLE (cm ⁻¹)	CuNPs (cm ⁻¹)	Functional groups	
1.	3432	3419	-OH stretching of phenolic group and N-H stretching vibrations of amino groups	The band showed a shift to a lower frequency (PLE to CuNPs), which suggests a contribution to the reduction and capping process of the biosynthesized CuNPs.
2.	2929	2923	C-H stretching modes	
3.	2117	2116	C≡C stretching of alkyne group	
4.	1636	1620	C=O stretching	
5.	1412	1387	N-H stretch vibration in the amide linkage	
6.	1276	1263	C-O group of phenolic compounds	
7.	1053	1044	C-O stretching of alcohols C-N stretching vibrations of aliphatic amines	
8.	666	591	bending modes of vibrations of the C-H bond	

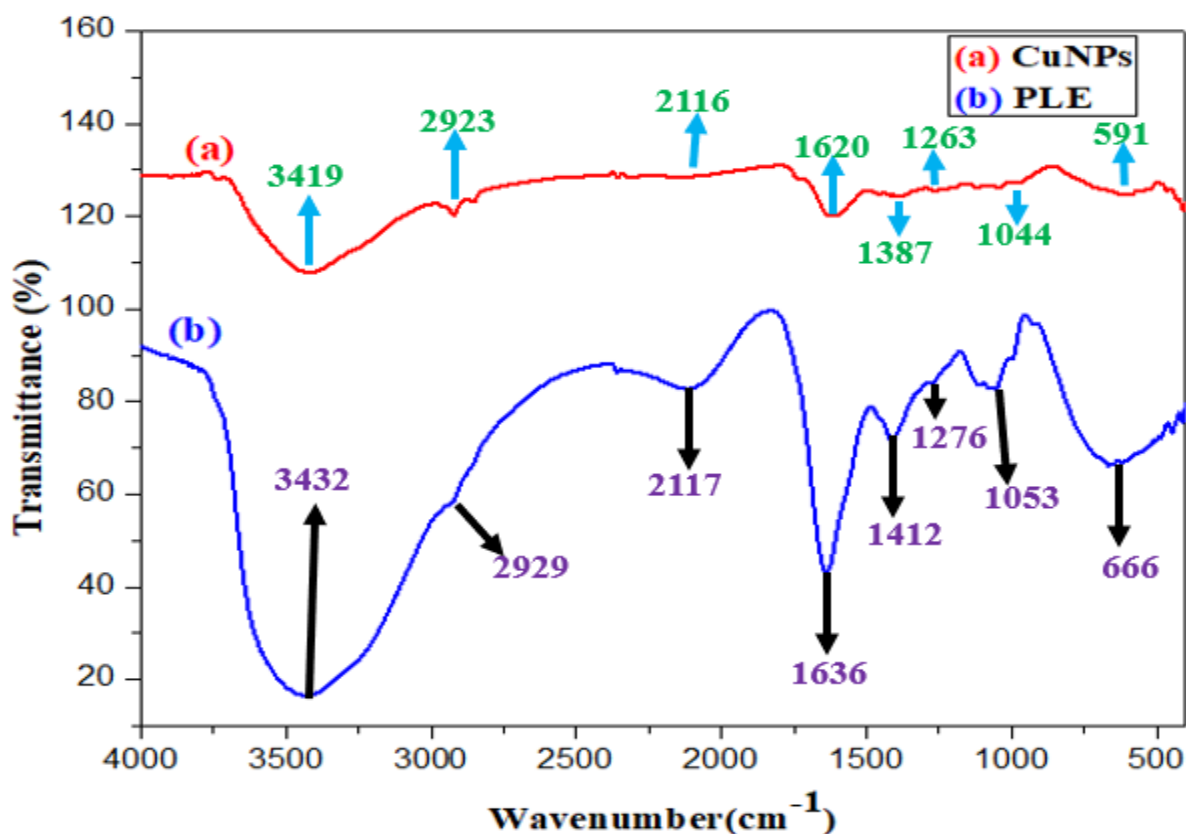


Figure 17: Comparative FT-IR Spectrum of *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaf extract and CuNPs.

4.3.3. X-ray Diffraction (XRD) Pattern Analysis

The crystalline characteristic of synthesized CuNPs powder was analyzed by XRD. The XRD pattern was recorded in the range from 10° to 80° . The XRD pattern of green synthesized copper nanoparticles (CuNPs) from *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaves extract was confirmed by the characteristic peaks observed in the XRD pattern as clearly described in Figure 24. In this study of the XRD pattern, three prominent diffraction peaks were observed at $2\theta = 43.24^\circ$, 50.46° and 74.12° which correspond to (111), (200) and (220), Bragg's reflections of the face-centered cubic (fcc) structure of metallic copper, respectively as correlates to the study reported by **Gondwal & Joshi nee Pant, (2018)**, **Amjad, et al. (2021)**, and **Roy et al., (2016)** [94, 98, 118]. Other small peaks observed at 22.34° , 37.66° and 44.64° may be due to the formation of any impurity. These planes confirmed the crystalline nature of the green synthesized CuNPs. The highest peak intensity of the (111) plane with narrow FWHM illustrates the good crystalline nature of synthesized CuNPs as observed from the XRD images. The resulting peaks and their corresponding Bragg's reflections strongly agree with the Joint Committee on Powder

Diffraction Standards (JCPDS, file no. 96–500-0217). The average crystallite sizes of the particles were calculated by using Debye-Scherrer's equation.

$$D = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta}$$

Where, **D** is the crystalline size of NPs, **K** is the Scherrer constant with a value from 0.9 to 1. λ is the wavelength of the X-ray source (0.15406 nm) used in XRD, β is the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the diffraction peak and θ is the Bragg's angle in degrees. According to Debye Scherrer equation the average crystalline size (D) of the synthesized copper nanoparticles is found to be 26.88 nm.

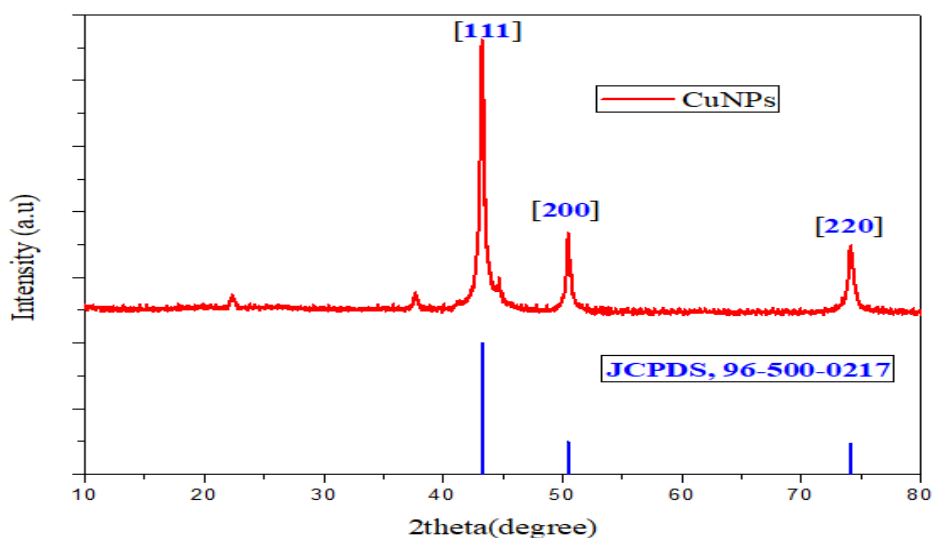


Figure 18: XRD pattern of green synthesized CuNPs from *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaf extract.

4.4. Anti-bacterial Studies of Green Synthesized CuNPs

Green synthesized copper nanoparticles from *Xanthium strumarium L.* leaf extract and the leaf extract alone as a comparison were studied for their antibacterial activity against clinically isolated one Gram-positive bacteria (*Staphylococcus aureus*) and three Gram-negative bacteria (*Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*) and by following standard agar well diffusion method, and ZOI was recorded.

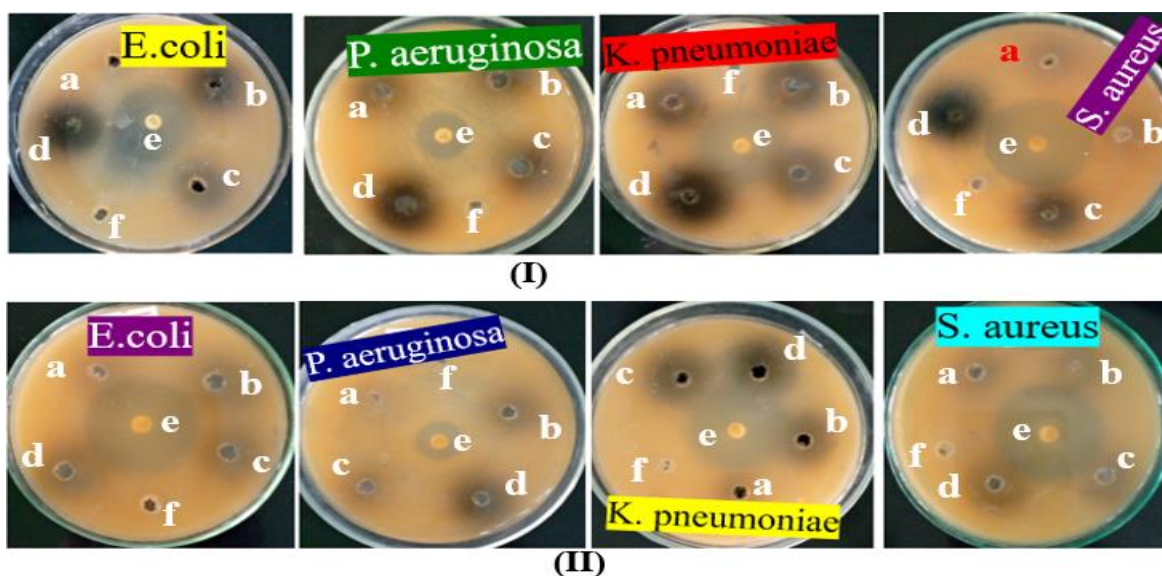


Figure 19: (I) Antibacterial activity of green synthesized CuNPs and (II) Xanthium strumarium L. leaf extract alone; (a = 50 μ l, b = 100 μ l, c = 150 μ l, d = 200 μ l, e = ciprofloxacin (+ve control), and f = DMSO (-ve control)).

Table 4: Anti-bacterial activity of Xanthium strumarium L. plant leaf extract and synthesized CuNPs against clinically isolated human pathogenic bacteria.

S.No.	Name of organisms		Zone of inhibition(mm)				Ciprofloxacin (+ve-control)	DMSO (-ve-control)
			50 μ l	100 μ l	150 μ l	200 μ l		
1	Staphylococcus aureus	PLE	5 \pm 1	5 \pm 1	10 \pm 0	13 \pm 1	33	0
		CuNPs	8 \pm 1	11 \pm 0	16 \pm 1	20 \pm 1	33	0
2	Escherichia coli	PLE	3 \pm 1	8 \pm 1	11 \pm 1	15 \pm 1	31	0
		CuNPs	5 \pm 1	14 \pm 1	19 \pm 1	22 \pm 1	28	0
3	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	PLE	4 \pm 1	10 \pm 1	10 \pm 1	14 \pm 1	20	0
		CuNPs	11 \pm 1	15 \pm 1	19 \pm 1	21 \pm 1	23	0
4	Klebsiella pneumoniae	PLE	6 \pm 1	11 \pm 1	13 \pm 1	16 \pm 1	30	0
		CuNPs	16 \pm 1	18 \pm 1	21 \pm 1	24 \pm 1	30	0

PLE; Plant leaf extract

Antibacterial activity was shown by an inhibition zone which was characterized by a black zone between the wells (containing samples) and a certain distance. Formation of inhibition zones around the wells showed bacterial sensitivity to antibacterial and antibiotic drugs (which are used as positive controls). The positive control used in the well was a ciprofloxacin and functioned as

a control of the test solution by comparing the diameter of the inhibition zone formed. On the contrary, DMSO as negative control was used to determine the effect of solvents in the test solution on the growth bacteria. The zone of inhibition on all bacterial strains was measured after 24 h of incubation at 37 °C.

As clearly described by Figure 19 and Table 4, the synthesized copper nanoparticles and *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaf extract showed anti-bacterial activity against all bacterial strains tested. However, it was more effective against gram-negative *Klebsiella pneumoniae* bacteria in both the synthesized nanoparticles and the plant crude extract as the concentration increased the antibacterial activity also increased. The antibacterial activity of green synthesized copper nanoparticles against gram-negative (*Klebsiella pneumoniae*) bacteria was maximum with an inhibition zone of 24±1 mm concerning the highest concentration (200 µl) (Table 4). Whereas the anti-bacterial activity of *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaf extract alone against gram-negative *Klebsiella pneumoniae* bacteria in terms of maximum ZOI was recorded as 16±1 mm with the highest concentration of 200 µl (Table 4). Based on this result, we conclude that the green synthesized CuNPs had the highest antibacterial activity against gram-negative bacteria strains especially *Klebsiella pneumoniae* as compared to *Xanthium strumarium L.* Plant leaf extract. From the antibacterial test, ZOI of CuNPs of different concentrations is found greater for Gram-negative bacteria than Gram-positive bacteria due to differences in the thickness of peptidoglycan layers[100, 119]

The higher inhibition zone (ZOI) of Gram-negative bacteria by synthesis of CuNPs could be partially explained by the facilitated influx of smaller-sized nanoparticles into the cell wall of Gram-negative bacteria that consists of a single outer membrane layer and a single peptidoglycan layer as compared to the cell wall of Gram-positive bacteria with several peptidoglycan layers[120, 121]. In addition, CuNPs have been speculated to attach to Gram-negative bacteria cell walls due to electrostatic interaction, or the copper ions facilitate rapid DNA degradation and reduction of bacterial respiration[122]. In some Gram-negative strains, copper ions alter the conformation of the associated reductases and electron transferase, leading to inhibition of membrane cytochrome [123].

Table 5 Comparison of CuNPs from anti-bacterial activities in different plant leaf extract

No,	Plant extract used	CuNP (Size of particle)	Shape of CuNP	Name of organisms	Zone of inhibition(mm)	+ve-control	-ve-control	Referen ces
1	Capparis zeylanica plant leave	50 –100	Cubical	E-coli	11±1mm	-	-	[47]
				Pseudomonas aeruginosa	10±1mm			
				Staphylococcus aureus	10±1mm			
2	Datura plant Extract	15 –20	Spherical	E-coli	8mm	Chloram phenicol	-	[48]
				B.subtilis	8mm			
				S.aureus	5mm			
				B.megaterium	7mm			
3	<i>Albiziale bbeck</i>	100	Spherical	S. aureus	17mm	Chloram phenicol	-	[49]
				B.subtilis	21mm			
				E. coli	19mm			
				S.bacillus	18mm			
4	Malvas ylvestris leaf extract	14 nm	spherical	Shigella and	15 mm	-	-	[52]
				Listeria bacteria	18 mm			
5	<i>NeriumO leander</i>	-	-	Escherichia coli,	(10mm).	Gentam ycin		[64]
				Staphylococcus aureus	(21mm)			
				Klebsiella pneumoniae	18mm			
				Salmonella typhi	20mm			
				Bacillus subtilis.	15mm			

	Peel extract of Punica granatum	5 to 20 nm.	Spherical	P. aeruginosa	18.67 ± 1.53mm	Streptomycin	-	[73]
				S. enterica	9.67 ± 1.53mm			
				E. aerogenes	9 ± 1mm			
				M. luteus	0.33 ± 1.5mm			
6.	Ocimum sanctum leaf extract.	25 nm	rod	Rhizoctonia solani	10±0.81m m	-	-	[72]
				Xanthomonas axonopodis pv. Citri	13.5±1.29 mm			
				Xanthomonas axonopodis pv. Punicae	17.25±0.9 5mm			
7	X.Strumarium L. plant leaf extract	26.88	-	Staphylococcus aureus	20±1mm	Ciprofloxacin	DMSO	My work
				Escherichia coli	22±1mm			
				Pseudomonas aeruginosa	21±1mm			
				Klebsiella pneumoniae	24±1			

Comparing the anti-bacterial activity of various bacteria with published sister journals is an interesting comparison from the above table. Overall the performance of copper nanoparticle from xanthium strumarium leaf extract in anti-bacterial activity is competitive when compared to the previously reported copper nanoparticle, but without considering concentration, reaction temperature, bacterial type even positive and negative control full and direct comparison of this nanoparticle is quite difficult. This comparison gives us the confidence that my finding have higher anti-bacterial activity both gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1. Conclusion

From the above results we can able to conclude that, *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leaf extract can synthesize copper nanoparticles in an easy, less toxic, eco-friendly and cost-effective manner. In this study very less amount of chemicals were used for the synthesis of copper nanoparticles and hence it is a green technology. The green synthesized CuNPs were characterized by different spectroscopic techniques. The functional group present in the leaf extract was confirmed by FTIR analysis. The bioactive compounds like phenols, tannins, flavonoids, Alkaloids, saponins, proteins and glycoside are presence in the leaves of *Xanthium strumarium L.* These functional groups were mainly responsible for the reduction of copper metal ions (Cu^{2+}) into CuNPs. Surface Plasmon resonance with an intense peak of CuNPs and *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant leave extract was observed at 672 and 685 nm by UV-Vis spectrophotometric measurements respectively. The crystalline structure with FCC geometry and three prominent peaks of the green synthesized CuNPs was determined by XRD analysis and an average crystal size 26.88 nm. The green synthesized CuNPs and plant leave extract exhibited excellent antibacterial activity against both Gram-positive bacteria (*Staphylococcus aureus*) and Gram-negative bacteria (*Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*). But, the synthesized CuNPs showed strong inhibition in gram-negative bacteria compared to the same tested pathogenic bacteria strain of the plant leaf extract. The antibacterial activity was also tested for different concentrations of the Cu NPs and found increased activity with the increase of concentration.

5.2.Recommendation

The synthesis of copper nanoparticles from *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant parts by green route is simple, low cost and has several advantages such as reduce toxicity, good yield, eco-friendly, and the synthesized nanoparticles have many applications in different fields of study. Therefore, I suggest the following recommendations for further investigations. To get the morphological features and exact particle size of the green synthesized CuNPs, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analysis and the shape and size of the synthesized CuNPs, Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) analysis should be performed. The synthesized copper nanoparticles applied on other bacterial strains which cannot be included in this study.

6. REFERENCES

1. Sergeev, G.B., *Cryochemistry of metal nanoparticles*. Journal of Nanoparticle Research, 2003. **5**(5): p. 529-537.
2. Sathishkumar, P., et al., *Flavonoids mediated 'Green'nanomaterials: A novel nanomedicine system to treat various diseases–Current trends and future perspective*. Materials letters, 2018. **210**: p. 26-30.
3. El-Sayed, M., *Accounts of Chem. Res*, 2001. **34**: p. 257.
4. Bhushan, B., *Introduction to nanotechnology*, in *Springer handbook of nanotechnology*. 2017, Springer. p. 1-19.
5. Prathna, T., S.K. Sharma, and M. Kennedy, *Nanoparticles in household level water treatment: an overview*. Separation and Purification Technology, 2018. **199**: p. 260-270.
6. Pavithran, S., et al., *Green Synthesis of Copper Nanoparticles, Characterization and Their Applications*. Journal of Applied Life Sciences International, 2020: p. 10-24.
7. Dhia Massoudi, M., et al., *MHD heat transfer in W-shaped inclined cavity containing a porous medium saturated with Ag/Al₂O₃ hybrid nanofluid in the presence of uniform heat generation/absorption*. Energies, 2020. **13**(13): p. 3457.
8. Pandey, G., *Nanotechnology for achieving green-economy through sustainable energy*. Rasayan J. Chem, 2018. **11**(3): p. 942-950.
9. Castillo-Henríquez, L., et al., *Green Synthesis of Metal Nanoparticles from Plant Extracts, and Their Possible Application as Antimicrobial Agents in the Agricultural Area*. 2020.
10. Camacho-Flores, B., et al., *Copper: Synthesis techniques in nanoscale and powerful application as an antimicrobial agent*. Journal of Nanomaterials, 2015.
11. Madkour, L.H., *Ecofriendly green biosynthesized of metallic nanoparticles: bio-reduction mechanism, characterization and pharmaceutical applications in biotechnology industry*. Global Drugs and Therapeutics, 2018. **3**(1).
12. Dang, T.M.D., et al., *Synthesis and optical properties of copper nanoparticles prepared by a chemical reduction method*. Advances in Natural Sciences: Nanoscience and Nanotechnology, 2011. **2**(1): p. 015009.
13. Tian, K., et al., *In situ synthesis of copper nanoparticles/polystyrene composite*. Colloids and Surfaces A: Physicochemical and Engineering Aspects, 2012. **397**: p. 12-15.

14. Singh, P., et al., *Copper nanoparticles in an ionic liquid: an efficient catalyst for the synthesis of bis-(4-hydroxy-2-oxothiazolyl) methanes*. Tetrahedron Letters, 2008. **49**(4): p. 727-730.
15. Sastry, A., et al., *Large-scale green synthesis of Cu nanoparticles*. Environmental chemistry letters, 2013. **11**(2): p. 183-187.
16. Borkow, G., R.C. Zatcoff, and J. Gabbay, *Reducing the risk of skin pathologies in diabetics by using copper impregnated socks*. Medical hypotheses, 2009. **73**(6): p. 883-886.
17. Carnes, C.L. and K.J. Klabunde, *The catalytic methanol synthesis over nanoparticle metal oxide catalysts*. Journal of Molecular Catalysis A: Chemical, 2003. **194**(1-2): p. 227-236.
18. Din, M.I., et al., *Green adeptness in the synthesis and stabilization of copper nanoparticles: catalytic, antibacterial, cytotoxicity, and antioxidant activities*. Nanoscale research letters, 2017. **12**(1): p. 1-15.
19. Pandey, D. and M. Rather, *Isolation and Identification of Phytochemicals from Xanthium strumarium*. International Journal of Chem Tech Research, 2012. **4**(1): p. 266-271.
20. Kamboj, A. and A.K. Saluja, *Phytopharmacological review of Xanthium strumarium L.(Cocklebur)*. International Journal of Green Pharmacy (IJGP), 2010. **4**(3).
21. LewisOscar, F., et al., *Algal nanoparticles: synthesis and biotechnological potentials*. Algae-organisms for imminent biotechnology, 2016. **7**: p. 157-182.
22. Mallick, P., et al., *Structural and magnetic properties of Fe doped NiO*. Indian Journal of Physics, 2009. **83**(4): p. 517-523.
23. Kayanuma, Y., *Quantum-size effects of interacting electrons and holes in semiconductor microcrystals with spherical shape*. Physical Review B, 1988. **38**(14): p. 9797.
24. Kalita, M., et al., *X-ray diffraction line profile analysis of chemically synthesized lead sulphide nanocrystals*. Materials Letters, 2012. **87**: p. 84-86.
25. Guidelli, E.J., et al., *Green synthesis of colloidal silver nanoparticles using natural rubber latex extracted from Hevea brasiliensis*. Spectrochimica Acta Part A: Molecular and Biomolecular Spectroscopy, 2011. **82**(1): p. 140-145.
26. Hamida, M.B., J. Belghaeib, and N. Hajji, *Numerical study of heat and mass transfer enhancement for bubble absorption process of ammonia water mixture without and with nanofluid*. Therm. Sci., 2018. **22**: p. 3107-3120.

27. Azeeze, M.S.T.A., et al., *Biologically Synthesized Plant-Derived Nanomedicines and Their In vitro--In vivo Toxicity Studies in Various Cancer Therapeutics: Regulatory Perspectives*. Cancer Nanotheranostics, 2021: p. 217-260.
28. Ishak, N.M., S. Kamarudin, and S. Timmiati, *Green synthesis of metal and metal oxide nanoparticles via plant extracts: an overview*. Materials Research Express, 2019. **6**(11): p. 112004.
29. Saranyaadevi, K., et al., *Green synthesis and characterization of silver nanoparticle using leaf extract of Capparis zeylanica*. Asian J. Pharm. Clin. Res, 2014. **7**: p. 44-48.
30. Ezhilarasan, B., S. Arumugam, and G.Y.S. Lakshmi. *Green synthesis of silver nanoparticles from Cleome viscosa: synthesis and antimicrobial activity*. in *International conference on bioscience, biochemistry and bioinformatics IPCBEE*. 2011.
31. Han, W.-K., et al., *Fabrication of Cu nano particles by direct electrochemical reduction from CuO nano particles*. Applied surface science, 2006. **252**(8): p. 2832-2838.
32. Kim, H.-S., et al., *Intense pulsed light sintering of copper nanoink for printed electronics*. Applied Physics A, 2009. **97**(4): p. 791-798.
33. Lee, Y., et al., *Large-scale synthesis of copper nanoparticles by chemically controlled reduction for applications of inkjet-printed electronics*. Nanotechnology, 2008. **19**(41): p. 415604.
34. Cioffi, N., et al., *Copper nanoparticle/polymer composites with antifungal and bacteriostatic properties*. Chemistry of Materials, 2005. **17**(21): p. 5255-5262.
35. Amin, S. and H.K. Barkatullah, *Pharmacology of Xanthium species. A review*. J. Phytopharm, 2016. **5**: p. 126-127.
36. Commission, C.P., *Chinese pharmacopoeia*. China Medical Science Press: Beijing, China, 2015. **1**: p. 191-193.
37. Zhuang, Y., et al., *advanced study on chemical constituents and pharmaceutical activities of Xanthium strumarium*. J. Nanjing Univ. Tradit. Chin. Med, 2017. **33**: p. 428-432.
38. Jadoun, S., et al., *Green synthesis of nanoparticles using plant extracts: A review*. Environmental Chemistry Letters, 2021. **19**(1): p. 355-374.
39. Al-Hakkani, M.F., *Biogenic copper nanoparticles and their applications: A review*. SN Applied Sciences, 2020. **2**(3): p. 1-20.
40. Iravani, S., et al., *Synthesis of silver nanoparticles: chemical, physical and biological methods*. Research in pharmaceutical sciences, 2014. **9**(6): p. 385.

41. Crisan, M.C., M. Teodora, and M. Lucian, *Copper Nanoparticles: Synthesis and Characterization, Physiology, Toxicity and Antimicrobial Applications*. Applied Sciences, 2022. **12**(1): p. 141.
42. Asghar, M.A. and M.A. Asghar, *Green synthesized and characterized copper nanoparticles using various new plants extracts aggravate microbial cell membrane damage after interaction with lipopolysaccharide*. International Journal of Biological Macromolecules, 2020. **160**: p. 1168-1176.
43. Shankar, S.S., et al., *Rapid synthesis of Au, Ag, and bimetallic Au core–Ag shell nanoparticles using Neem (Azadirachta indica) leaf broth*. Journal of colloid and interface science, 2004. **275**(2): p. 496-502.
44. Vani, P., N. Manikandan, and G. Vinitha, *A green strategy to synthesize environment friendly metal oxide nanoparticles for potential applications: A review*. Asian J. Pharm. Clin. Res, 2017. **10**: p. 337.
45. Patra, J.K. and K.-H. Baek, *Green nanobiotechnology: factors affecting synthesis and characterization techniques*. Journal of Nanomaterials, 2014.
46. Murthy, H., et al., *Synthesis of green copper nanoparticles using medicinal plant hagenia abyssinica (Brace) JF. Gmel. leaf extract: Antimicrobial properties*. Journal of Nanomaterials, 2020.
47. Saranyaadevi, K., et al., *Synthesis and characterization of copper nanoparticle using Capparis zeylanica leaf extract*. Int J Chem Tech Res, 2014. **6**(10): p. 4533-4541.
48. Parikh, P., D. Zala, and B. Makwana, *Biosynthesis of copper nanoparticles and their antimicrobial activity*. Inst Post Studies Res KSV Uni. India, 2014: p. 1-15.
49. Jayandran, M., M.M. Haneefa, and V. Balasubramanian, *Green synthesis of copper nanoparticles using natural reducer and stabilizer and an evaluation of antimicrobial activity*. Journal of Chemical and Pharmaceutical Research, 2015. **7**(2): p. 251-259.
50. Nasrollahzadeh, M., S.M. Sajadi, and M. Khalaj, *Green synthesis of copper nanoparticles using aqueous extract of the leaves of Euphorbia esula L and their catalytic activity for ligand-free Ullmann-coupling reaction and reduction of 4-nitrophenol*. RSC Advances, 2014. **4**(88): p. 47313-47318.
51. M Awwad, A. and B. Albiss, *Biosynthesis of colloidal copper hydroxide nanowires using pistachio leaf extract*. Advanced Materials Letters, 2015. **6**(1): p. 51-54.

52. Awwad, A., B. Albiss, and N. Salem, *Antibacterial activity of synthesized copper oxide nanoparticles using Malva sylvestris leaf extract*. SMU Med J, 2015. **2**(1): p. 91-101.
53. Lee, H.J., J.Y. Song, and B.S. Kim, *Biological synthesis of copper nanoparticles using Magnolia kobus leaf extract and their antibacterial activity*. Journal of Chemical Technology & Biotechnology, 2013. **88**(11): p. 1971-1977.
54. Nasrollahzadeh, M. and S.M. Sajadi, *Green synthesis of copper nanoparticles using Ginkgo biloba L. leaf extract and their catalytic activity for the Huisgen [3+ 2] cycloaddition of azides and alkynes at room temperature*. Journal of colloid and interface science, 2015. **457**: p. 141-147.
55. Heera, P., S. Shanmugam, and J. Ramachandran, *Green synthesis of copper nanoparticle using Gymnema sylvestre by different solvent extract*. Int J Curr Res Acad Rev, 2015. **3**(10): p. 268-275.
56. Nasrollahzadeh, M., S.M. Sajadi, and Y. Mirzaei, *An efficient one-pot synthesis of 1, 4-disubstituted 1, 2, 3-triazoles at room temperature by green synthesized Cu NPs using Otostegia persica leaf extract*. Journal of colloid and interface science, 2016. **468**: p. 156-162.
57. Nasrollahzadeh, M., et al., *Green synthesis of CuO nanoparticles using aqueous extract of Thymus vulgaris L. leaves and their catalytic performance for N-arylation of indoles and amines*. Journal of colloid and interface science, 2016. **466**: p. 113-119.
58. Thakur, S., R. Rai, and S. Sharma, *Study the antibacterial activity of copper nanoparticles synthesized using herbal plants leaf extracts*. Int J Bio-Technol Res, 2014. **4**: p. 21-34.
59. Kolekar, R., et al., *Biosynthesis of copper nanoparticles using aqueous extract of Eucalyptus sp. plant leaves*. Curr. Sci, 2015. **109**(2): p. 255-257.
60. Rafique, M., et al., *A review on synthesis, characterization and applications of copper nanoparticles using green method*. Nano, 2017. **12**(04): p. 1750043.
61. Suresh, Y., et al., *Green synthesis and characterization of tea decoction stabilized copper nanoparticles*. Int. J. Innov. Res. Sci. Eng. Technol, 2014. **3**(4): p. 11265-11270.
62. Kulkarni, V.D. and P.S. Kulkarni, *Green synthesis of copper nanoparticles using Ocimum sanctum leaf extract*. Int J Chem Stud, 2013. **1**(3): p. 1-4.
63. Kathad, U. and H. Gajera, *Synthesis of copper nanoparticles by two different methods and size comparison*. Int J Pharm Bio Sci, 2014. **5**(3): p. 533-540.

64. Gopinath, M., et al., *Synthesis of copper nanoparticles from Nerium oleander leaf aqueous extract and its antibacterial activity*. Int J Curr Microbiol App Sci, 2014. **3**(9): p. 814-818.
65. Letchumanan, D., et al., *Plant-based biosynthesis of copper/copper oxide nanoparticles: An update on their applications in biomedicine, mechanisms, and toxicity*. Biomolecules, 2021. **11**(4): p. 564.
66. Benassai, E., et al., *Green and cost-effective synthesis of copper nanoparticles by extracts of non-edible and waste plant materials from Vaccinium species: Characterization and antimicrobial activity*. Materials Science and Engineering: C, 2021. **119**: p. 111453.
67. Długosz, O., J. Chwastowski, and M. Banach, *Hawthorn berries extract for the green synthesis of copper and silver nanoparticles*. Chemical Papers, 2020. **74**(1): p. 239-252.
68. Das, P.E., et al., *Green synthesis of encapsulated copper nanoparticles using a hydroalcoholic extract of Moringa oleifera leaves and assessment of their antioxidant and antimicrobial activities*. Molecules, 2020. **25**(3): p. 555.
69. Hasheminya, S.-M. and J. Dehghannya, *Green synthesis and characterization of copper nanoparticles using Eryngium caucasicum Trautv aqueous extracts and its antioxidant and antimicrobial properties*. Particulate Science and Technology, 2020. **38**(8): p. 1019-1026.
70. Kolekar, R., et al., *Biosynthesis of copper nanoparticles using aqueous extract of Eucalyptus sp. plant leaves*. Curr Sci, 2015. **109**: p. 255.
71. Keihan, A.H., H. Veisi, and H. Veasi, *Green synthesis and characterization of spherical copper nanoparticles as organometallic antibacterial agent*. Applied Organometallic Chemistry, 2017. **31**(7): p. e3642.
72. Shende, S., N. Gaikwad, and S. Bansod, *Synthesis and evaluation of antimicrobial potential of copper nanoparticle against agriculturally important phytopathogens*. Synthesis, 2016. **1**(4): p. 41-47.
73. Kaur, P., R. Thakur, and A. Chaudhury, *Biogenesis of copper nanoparticles using peel extract of Punica granatum and their antimicrobial activity against opportunistic pathogens*. green chemistry letters and reviews, 2016. **9**(1): p. 33-38.
74. Shende, S., et al., *Green synthesis of copper nanoparticles by Citrus medica Linn.(Idilimbu) juice and its antimicrobial activity*. World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology, 2015. **31**(6): p. 865-873.

75. Khani, R., et al., *Green synthesis of copper nanoparticles by fruit extract of Ziziphus spina-christi (L.) Willd.: Application for adsorption of triphenylmethane dye and antibacterial assay*. Journal of Molecular Liquids, 2018. **255**: p. 541-549.
76. Chung, I.M., et al., *Green synthesis of copper nanoparticles using Eclipta prostrata leaves extract and their antioxidant and cytotoxic activities*. Experimental and therapeutic medicine, 2017. **14**(1): p. 18-24.
77. Nasrollahzadeh, M., S.S. Momeni, and S.M. Sajadi, *Green synthesis of copper nanoparticles using Plantago asiatica leaf extract and their application for the cyanation of aldehydes using K₄Fe (CN) 6*. Journal of colloid and interface science, 2017. **506**: p. 471-477.
78. Asghar, M.A., et al., *Iron, copper and silver nanoparticles: Green synthesis using green and black tea leaves extracts and evaluation of antibacterial, antifungal and aflatoxin B1 adsorption activity*. Lwt, 2018. **90**: p. 98-107.
79. Muthulakshmi, L., et al., *Preparation and properties of cellulose nanocomposite films with in situ generated copper nanoparticles using Terminalia catappa leaf extract*. International journal of biological macromolecules, 2017. **95**: p. 1064-1071.
80. Ahmed, S., et al., *Green synthesis of silver nanoparticles using Azadirachta indica aqueous leaf extract*. Journal of radiation research and applied sciences, 2016. **9**(1): p. 1-7.
81. Amaliyah, S., et al., *Green synthesis and characterization of copper nanoparticles using Piper retrofractum Vahl extract as bioreductor and capping agent*. Heliyon, 2020. **6**(8): p. e04636.
82. Wondimu, T., Z. Asfaw, and E. Kelbessa, *Ethnobotanical study of medicinal plants around 'Dheeraa'town, Arsi Zone, Ethiopia*. Journal of Ethnopharmacology, 2007. **112**(1): p. 152-161.
83. Jawad, A., M. Mahmould, and A. Al-Naib, *Antimicrobial activity of Xanthium strumarium extract*. Fitoterapia, 1988. **59**(3): p. 220-221.
84. Montezano, D.G., et al., *Host plants of Spodoptera frugiperda (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) in the Americas*. African entomology, 2018. **26**(2): p. 286-300.
85. Agnew, A.D. and S. Agnew, *Upland Kenya wild flowers: A flora of the ferns and herbaceous flowering plants of upland Kenya*. 1994: East Africa Natural History Society.

86. Bozsa, R.C. and L.R. Oliver, *Shoot and root interference of common cocklebur (Xanthium strumarium) and soybean (Glycine max)*. Weed Science, 1993. **41**(1): p. 34-37.
87. Tran, T.H. and V.T. Nguyen, *Copper oxide nanomaterials prepared by solution methods, some properties, and potential applications: a brief review*. International scholarly research notices, 2014.
88. Iravani, S., *Green synthesis of metal nanoparticles using plants*. Green Chemistry, 2011. **13**(10): p. 2638-2650.
89. Park, Y., et al., *Polysaccharides and phytochemicals: a natural reservoir for the green synthesis of gold and silver nanoparticles*. IET nanobiotechnology, 2011. **5**(3): p. 69-78.
90. Khodaie, M. and N. Ghasemi, *Green synthesis and characterization of copper nanoparticles using Eryngium campestre leaf extract*. Bulgarian Chemical Communications, 2018. **50**: p. 244-250.
91. Akintelu, S.A., et al., *Green synthesis of copper oxide nanoparticles for biomedical application and environmental remediation*. Heliyon, 2020. **6**(7): p. e04508.
92. Gurunathan, S., et al., *Antiangiogenic properties of silver nanoparticles*. Biomaterials, 2009. **30**(31): p. 6341-6350.
93. Nguyen, P.A., et al., *Green synthesis of copper nanoparticles using Cocoa pod extract and its catalytic activity in deep oxidation of aromatic hydrocarbons*. SN Applied Sciences, 2020. **2**(11): p. 1-13.
94. Amjad, R., et al., *Green Synthesis and Characterization of Copper Nanoparticles Using Fortunella margarita Leaves*. Polymers, 2021. **13**(24): p. 4364.
95. Naradala, J., et al., *Antibacterial Activity of Copper Nanoparticles Synthesized by Bambusa Arundinacea Leaves Extract*. Biointerface Resaerch Appl. Chem, 2021. **12**: p. 1230-1236.
96. Hargreaves, J., *Some considerations related to the use of the Scherrer equation in powder X-ray diffraction as applied to heterogeneous catalysts*. Catalysis, Structure & Reactivity, 2016. **2**(1-4): p. 33-37.
97. Usman, M.S., et al., *Copper nanoparticles mediated by chitosan: synthesis and characterization via chemical methods*. Molecules, 2012. **17**(12): p. 14928-14936.

98. Roy, K., C.K. Sarkar, and C.K. Ghosh, *Antibacterial mechanism of biogenic copper nanoparticles synthesized using Heliconia psittacorum leaf extract*. Nanotechnology Reviews, 2016. **5**(6): p. 529-536.
99. Pradhan, S., R. Shrestha, and K. Bhandari, *Effect of various parameters on bio-synthesis of copper nanoparticles using Citrus medica Linn (lemon) extract and its antibacterial activity*. Amrit Research Journal, 2020. **1**(1): p. 51-58.
100. Saranyaadevi, K., et al., *Synthesis and characterization of copper nanoparticle using Capparis zeylanica leaf extract*. Int J Chem Tech Res, 2014. **6**(10): p. 4533-4541.
101. Pavithran, M.P., et al., *Green Synthesis of Copper Nanoparticles, Characterization and Their Applications*. 2020, JALSI.
102. Ohsumi, Y., K. Kitamoto, and Y. Anraku, *Changes induced in the permeability barrier of the yeast plasma membrane by cupric ion*. Journal of Bacteriology, 1988. **170**(6): p. 2676-2682.
103. Dan, Z., et al., *Microstructure and antibacterial properties of AISI 420 stainless steel implanted by copper ions*. Thin solid films, 2005. **492**(1-2): p. 93-100.
104. Hu, C.-H. and M.-S. Xia, *Adsorption and antibacterial effect of copper-exchanged montmorillonite on Escherichia coli K88*. Applied Clay Science, 2006. **31**(3-4): p. 180-184.
105. Hoshino, N., et al., *Damage to the cytoplasmic membrane of Escherichia coli by catechin-copper (II) complexes*. Free Radical Biology and Medicine, 1999. **27**(11-12): p. 1245-1250.
106. Hoshino, N., et al., *Bactericidal activity of catechin-copper (II) complexes against Staphylococcus aureus compared with Escherichia coli*. Letters in applied microbiology, 2000. **31**(3): p. 213-217.
107. Michels, H., et al., *Copper alloys for human infectious disease control*. Stainless steel, 2005. **77000**(55.0): p. 27.0.
108. Yadav, R. and M. Agarwala, *Phytochemical analysis of some medicinal plants*. Journal of phytology, 2011. **3**(12).
109. Kotval, S.C., T. John, and K.A. Parmar, *Green synthesis of copper nanoparticles using Mitragyna parvifolia plant bark extract and its antimicrobial study*. Journal of Nanoscience and Technology, 2018: p. 456-460.

110. Kumar, B., et al., *Andean Sacha Inchi (Plukenetia Volubilis L.) leaf-mediated synthesis of Cu₂O nanoparticles: a low-cost approach*. *Bioengineering*, 2020. **7**(2): p. 54.
111. Atarod, M., M. Nasrollahzadeh, and S.M. Sajadi, *Green synthesis of a Cu/reduced graphene oxide/Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite using Euphorbia wallichii leaf extract and its application as a recyclable and heterogeneous catalyst for the reduction of 4-nitrophenol and rhodamine B*. *RSC advances*, 2015. **5**(111): p. 91532-91543.
112. Cuevas, R., et al., *Extracellular biosynthesis of copper and copper oxide nanoparticles by Stereum hirsutum, a native white-rot fungus from Chilean forests*. *Journal of Nanomaterials*, 2015.
113. Hassanien, R., D.Z. Husein, and M.F. Al-Hakkani, *Biosynthesis of copper nanoparticles using aqueous Tilia extract: antimicrobial and anticancer activities*. *Heliyon*, 2018. **4**(12): p. e01077.
114. Nandiyanto, A.B.D., R. Oktiani, and R. Ragadhita, *How to read and interpret FTIR spectroscopy of organic material*. *Indonesian Journal of Science and Technology*, 2019. **4**(1): p. 97-118.
115. Karimi, J. and S. Mohsenzadeh, *Rapid, green, and eco-friendly biosynthesis of copper nanoparticles using flower extract of Aloe vera*. *Synthesis and Reactivity in Inorganic, Metal-Organic, and Nano-Metal Chemistry*, 2015. **45**(6): p. 895-898.
116. Cheirmadurai, K., et al., *Green synthesis of copper nanoparticles and conducting nanobiocomposites using plant and animal sources*. *RSC Advances*, 2014. **4**(37): p. 19507-19511.
117. Saddik, M.S., et al., *Biosynthesis, characterization, and wound-healing activity of phenytoin-loaded copper nanoparticles*. *AAPS PharmSciTech*, 2020. **21**(5): p. 1-12.
118. Gondwal, M. and G. Joshi nee Pant, *Synthesis and catalytic and biological activities of silver and copper nanoparticles using Cassia occidentalis*. *International Journal of Biomaterials*, 2018.
119. Theivasanthi, T. and M. Alagar, *Studies of copper nanoparticles effects on microorganisms*. arXiv preprint arXiv:1110.1372, 2011.
120. Silhavy, T.J., D. Kahne, and S. Walker, *The bacterial cell envelope*. *Cold Spring Harbor perspectives in biology*, 2010. **2**(5): p. a000414.
121. Hajipour, M.J., et al., *Antibacterial properties of nanoparticles*. *Trends in biotechnology*, 2012. **30**(10): p. 499-511.

122. Raffi, M., et al., *Investigations into the antibacterial behavior of copper nanoparticles against Escherichia coli*. *Annals of microbiology*, 2010. **60**(1): p. 75-80.
123. Warnes, S. and C. Keevil, *Mechanism of copper surface toxicity in vancomycin-resistant enterococci following wet or dry surface contact*. *Applied and environmental microbiology*, 2011. **77**(17): p. 6049-6059.

7. APPENDICS



Figure 20: The image was captured from the study area during sample collection.

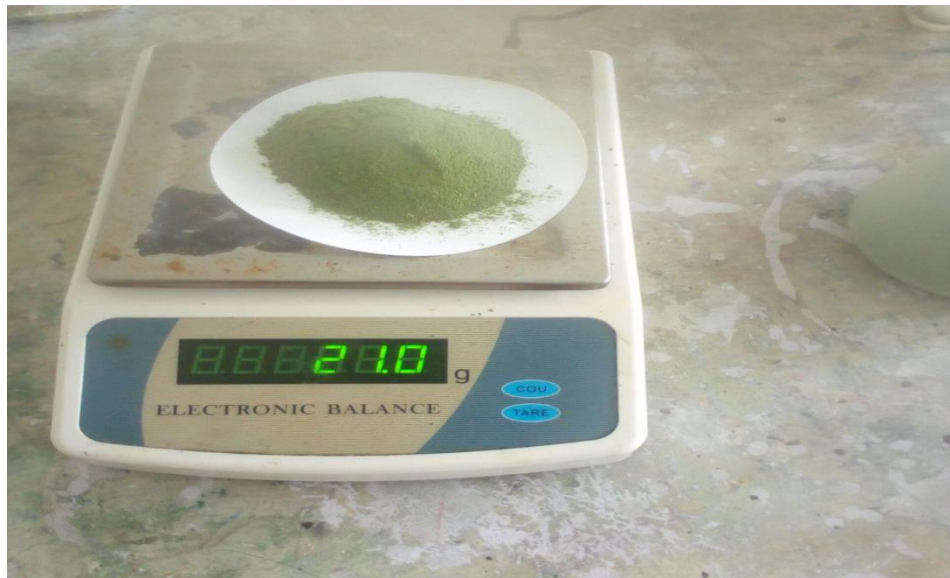


Figure 21: Plant leaf powder mass measurement using analytical balance during experimental work and washing by using distil water.



Figure 22: Filtration (Filtering the macerated aqueous PLE to get pure and clear PLE)



Figure 23: crushing and drying (during synthesis of CuNPs from *Xanthium strumarium L.* plant extract).