

A REVIEW ON METAL ION DOPED SnO₂ NANOCOMPOSITES: SYNTHESIS AND APPLICATION IN PHOTOCATALYTIC DEGRADATION AND ANTIMICROBIAL ACTIVITIES

Abstract

Photocatalysis is the speeding up of the photoreaction in the prevalence of light. The most common heterogeneous photocatalysts are transition metal oxides and certain semiconductors. Among the transition metal oxides TiO₂, ZnO and SnO₂ are low-cost materials with good chemical and thermal stability, large surface area, high adsorption properties, less resistance to diffusion, and show faster rates of equilibrium. The study of SnO₂ in the field of photocatalysis is due to its different morphologies, high photochemical stability, strong oxidizing power, low cost, and non-toxic nature. This paper outlines the synthesis of SnO₂ by various techniques with different surface structures and reviews the synthesis of SnO₂ nanoparticles in connection with enhanced photodegradation and antibacterial efficacy.

Keywords: SnO₂ nanoparticles, photocatalysis, antimicrobial activities

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I. INTRODUCTION

Metal and non-metallic characteristics are present in semiconductor Nps. They have wide band gaps and displayed significant alteration in their properties. Therefore, they are very significant materials in photocatalysis, photo optics, and electronic devices. Metal oxides are a widely explored and studied class of inorganic solids due to a wide variety of structures, properties, and exceptional phenomena exhibited by their Nps. Metal ions bind with oxides to generate metal oxides (MO), which result in a densely packed structure. MO is a significant player in the field of material research because of its exceptional physical and chemical characteristics. Numerous industrial applications have made use of transition metal oxides. Metal oxides are frequently found and exist in a variety of forms with unique compositions, structures, and chemical and physical characteristics [1]. Some examples are TiO₂, ZnO, SnO₂, VO_x, MoO_x, and other well-known MO.

Tin oxide (SnO₂) is one of the most attractive and promising materials among metal oxides. This makes SnO₂ a promising candidate for potential use in lithium-ion batteries, sensors, catalysis, field emission displays[2], light-emitting diodes[3], dye-based solar cells[4], energy storage, glass coatings, medicine, environmental remediation[5-8], transistors, optoelectronics devices, solar cells, supercapacitors[9-13], support for catalysts, transparent conducting electrodes[14], antireflective coatings[15], and material for metal oxide sensors in prototype form [16]. SnO₂ is used as a sensor because it has a high specific area, great chemical stability, low electrical resistance, low density, accelerating response time and, increasing sensitivity [17].

The most prevalent heterogeneous photocatalysts are semiconductors and d-block metal oxides. TiO₂, ZnO, and SnO₂ are three transition metal oxides that are inexpensive, have good chemical and thermal stability, a wide surface area, strong adsorption capabilities, little resistance to diffusion, and exhibit quicker rates of equilibrium [18]. SnO₂ has a wide range of morphologies, a high degree of photochemical stability, a potent oxidizing capability, is inexpensive, and is non-toxic, all of which make it a valuable photocatalyst [19].

In this review, pure SnO₂ hierarchical structure synthesis methodologies and performance improvement techniques were discussed. The use of SnO₂-based nanostructures' in photodegradation and antibacterial processes is also discussed. The addition of metal ions, or noble metals to SnO₂ can moderately increase the separation efficiency of photoexcited (e/h⁺), enhancing the photocatalytic assets for future research.

SnO₂ NPs were prepared using a variety of physical, chemical, and environmentally friendly techniques (Fig. 1). The chemical techniques comprise sol-gel, hydrothermal, precipitation, mechanochemical process, microemulsion, and others [20]. The most common chemical procedure is called sol-gel synthesis, which uses chemical reagents and a salt of a tin precursor to regulate the growth of the gel that contains tin.

The gel is then subjected to heat treatment at a temperature of 800°C to produce SnO₂ NPs. In order to regulate the size and prevent agglomeration of the nanoparticles, chemical stabilizers, and capping agents were used during the synthesis of SnO₂ NPs. The magnitude and morphology of nanoparticles are influenced by the pH, chemical concentration, reaction

duration, and calcination temperature [21]. The procedures for making SnO₂ NPs mentioned above include the use of hazardous chemical reagents, solvents, and surfactants that pose a major risk to the atmosphere and public well-being.

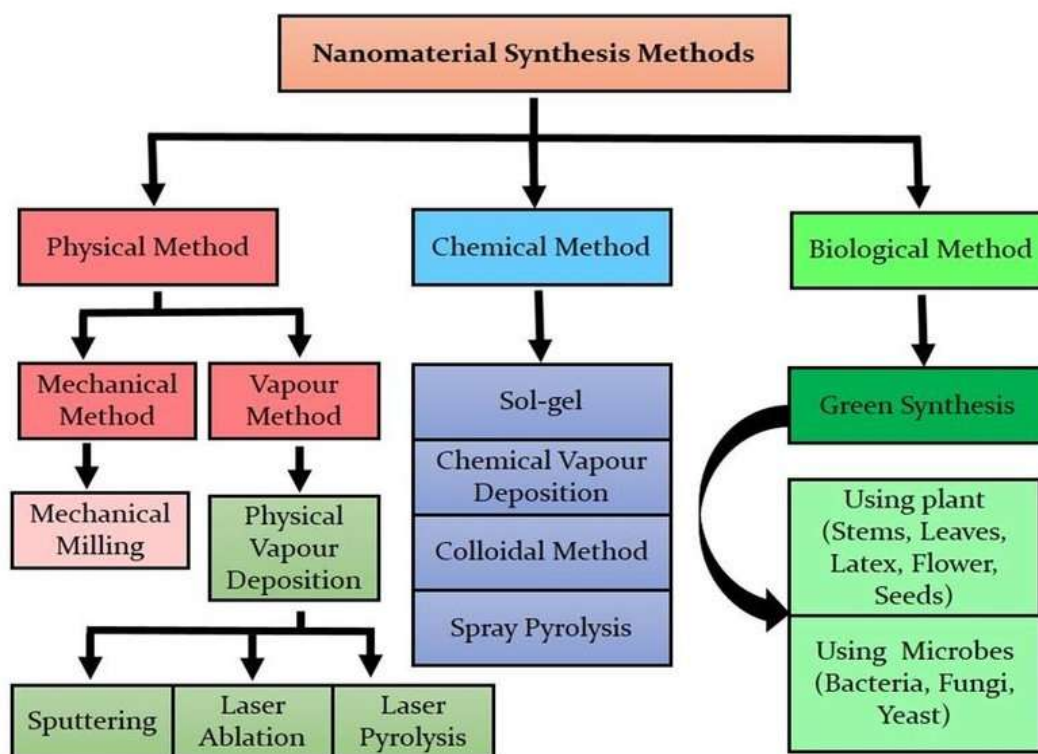


Figure 1: Synthesis Methods for Nanoparticles [22]

In the green synthetic approach, biotic components such as plant extract, microorganisms, or other environmentally friendly sources might be used instead of traditional physical and chemical processes. Biological synthesis (Fig. 2) has certain specific advantages over physical and chemical approaches, including (a) using nontoxic chemicals, which is a clean and environmentally benign process; (b) using renewable resources. (c) The biologically active elements, such as the enzyme itself and phytochemicals, serve as reducing and plugging agents, lowering the overall cost of the manufacturing process [22].

Efforts have been made to create SnO₂ nanocomposites with a variety of surface characteristics, including nanorods, nanowires, nanotubes, nanosheets, and 3D nanospheres that self-assembled from these low-dimensional nanostructures with interactions like van der Waals forces, hydrogen, and covalent bonding. (Fig 3).

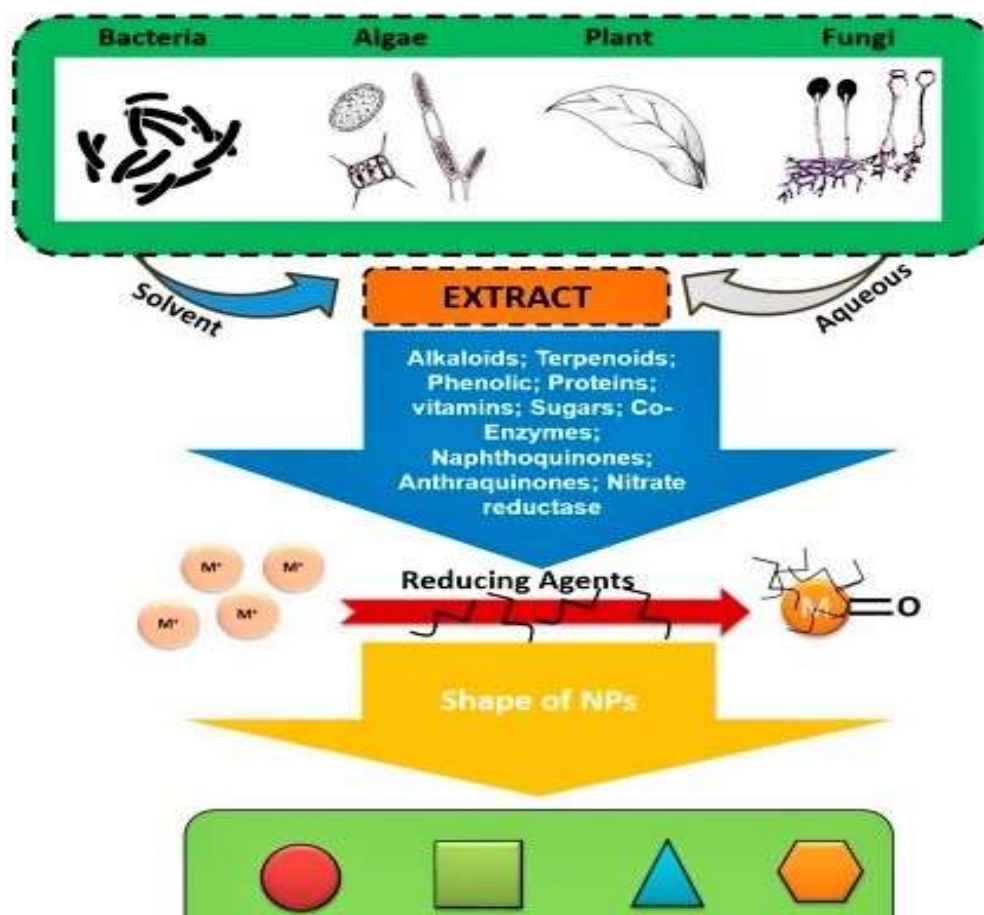


Figure 2: Synthesis of Nanoparticles Using Different Biological Sources [29]

By doping SnO₂ NPs with d-block elements [26-32], numerous attempts have been made to increase the photosensitivity of SnO₂ throughout the electromagnetic spectrum. The photocatalytic activity is additionally increased by the addition of different concentrations of these dopant species. Broad energy band gap prevents this photo activation and sites for electron-hole recombination can be provided by increasing doping content [33].

Different characterization techniques have been practiced for the investigation of various physicochemical properties of NPs. These techniques include X-Ray Diffraction (XRD), X-Ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS), Infrared Spectroscopy (IR), Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM), Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM), absorption Spectroscopy, PL studies, Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) and Particle size analysis (Fig.4) [34]. Finally, the photodecomposition was studied by using pure and metal incorporated SnO₂ nanoparticles as a catalytic agent under UV/visible light irradiation, and antimicrobial assay was evaluated and their performances were reviewed.

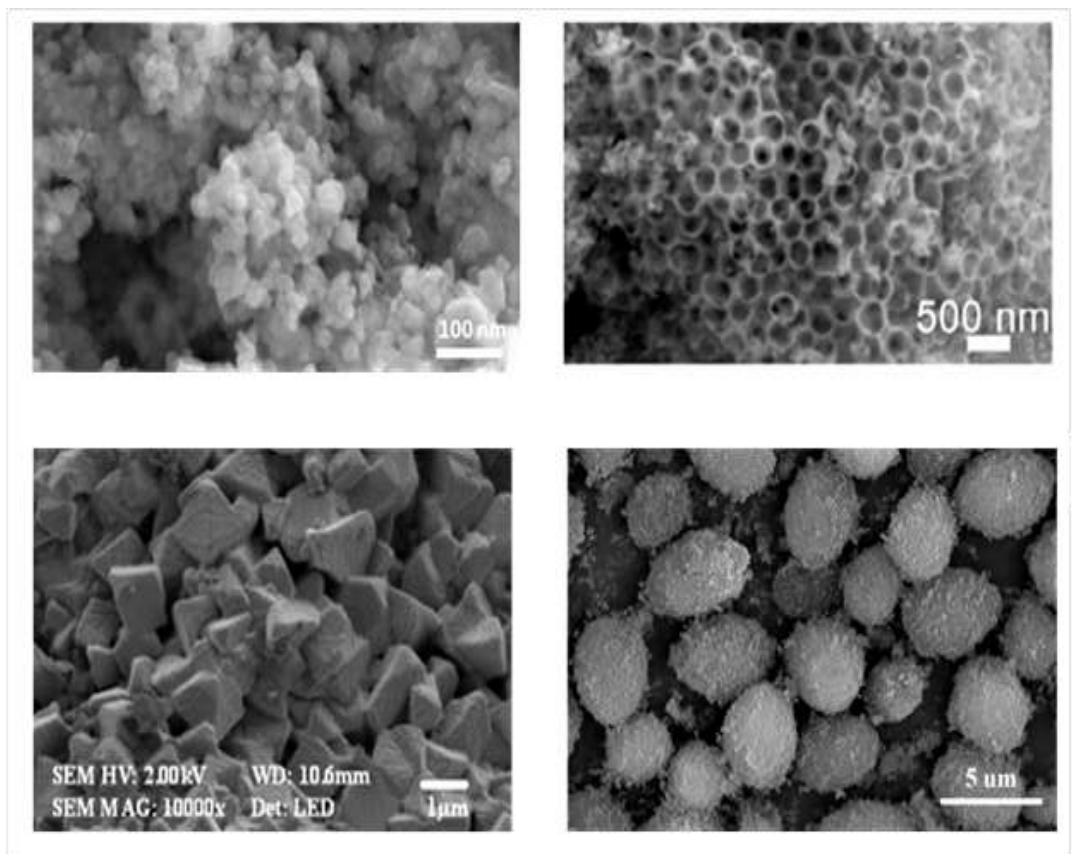


Figure 3: SEM Images Showing Different Morphologies Of Nps[36,37]

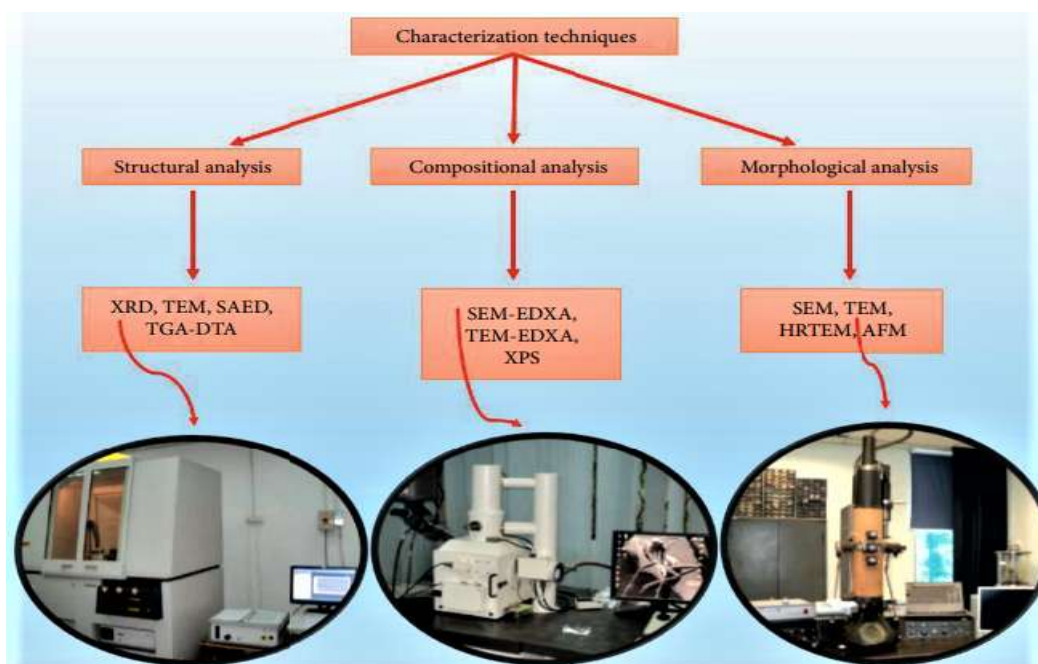


Figure 4: Techniques for Identifying Nanoparticles [34]

Sn-containing fluoride compound, KSnF₃ was used as the single-source precursor in the effective preparation of F-doped SnO₂ nanocrystals by Kumar, V. et al. [38]. Powder X-

ray diffracted peaks revealed the low crystallite size, which was allocated to a tetragonal unit cell. EDAX analysis revealed the presence of fluoride ions. The BET surface area of Fluorine-doped SnO₂ nanocrystals was considerably lower (45.16 m²/g) than that of undoped SnO₂ (207.81 m²/g). F-doped SnO₂ nanocrystals were shown to have extremely high photocatalytic effectiveness when compared to pure SnO₂.

Super symmetric nanocomposites with a high superficial area of hollow Au-SnO₂ were formed by a solvothermal reaction using DMF solvent in the presence of capping agents by You, H et al. [40]. This work showed that the preliminary formation of ultrafine SnO₂ nanoclusters accumulated to form hollow hexapods.

By using a seed-mediated hydrothermal technique, Wu, W. et al. [41] created hollow SnO₂-Au hybrid nanostructures, and the development of their form was studied (Fig. 5). With lattice constants of $a = 4.738$ and $c = 3.187$, XRD patterns displayed rutile tin oxide phase strong peaks and weak gold peaks. EDAX studies confirmed the presence of Au, Sn, and O.

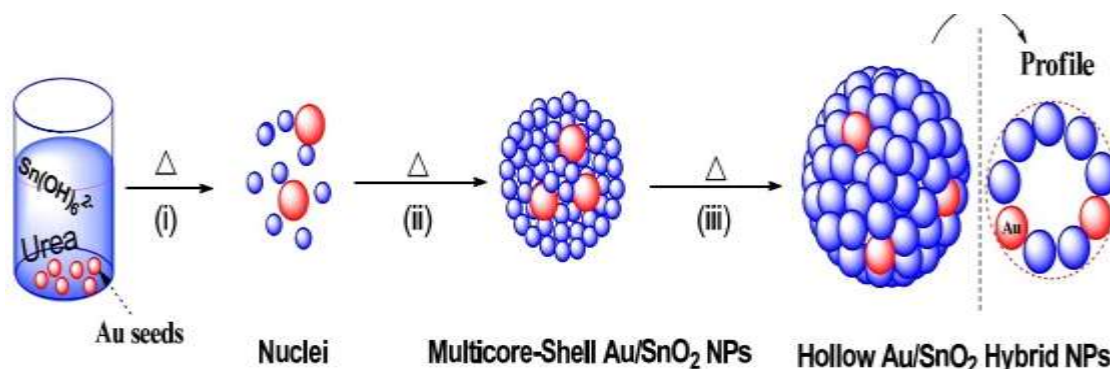


Figure 5: Schematic Representation of the Formation of Hollow SnO₂-Au Hybrid Nanostructures [41]

A modest sol-gel approach was used to produce fine iron-doped SnO₂ nano architectures with effective photocatalytic removal of water-soluble dyes under electromagnetic irradiation by Davis, M. et al. [42]. All the materials were annealed at 350⁰C. The presence of iron was confirmed by EDAX.

Using an EAB free of hazardous substances, surfactants, and organic solvents, Ansari, S. et al. [43] created Ag-SnO₂ nanocomposites with various concentrations of silver precursor (1 mM and 3 mM) at ambient temperature. Ag-SnO₂ nanocomposites displayed a large absorption peak between 400 and 550 nm, which was attributed to AgNPs' surface plasmon resonance absorption. Ag-SnO₂ nanocomposites demonstrated improved photocatalytic activity in comparison to pure SnO₂ under visible light for the degradation of cationic and anionic dyes and nitrophenols.

Tin chloride dihydrate, cobalt chloride hexahydrate, sodium hydroxide, and ethanol were used in the chemical precipitation process by Toloman, D. et al. [44] to create a variety of Cobalt-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles. An increase in the level of doping increase in the

samples' crystallinity was observed. Under the influence of visible light, the sample's photocatalytic activity was assessed.

Using SiO₂ microspheres as hard templates, Ran L. et al. [45] used a simple infiltration technique for manufacturing hollow-structured SnO₂ with a variable Titanium doping concentration. Titanium doping had no effect on the samples' crystal structure or morphology, and they maintained their highly crystalline condition and hollow spherical nanostructure with a particle diameter of roughly 300 nm.

Zn-doped SnO₂ hierarchical structures (ZSHAs) of controlled size were created by Zhao, Q. et al. [46] using a simple hydrothermal technique, and they were made of two-dimensional (2D) nanosheets with a thickness of about 40 nm. The crystal was identified by the XRD pattern. TEM examination revealed nanosheet structures. The nanosheet structures' composition of Zinc, tin, and Oxygen components was revealed by EDAX analysis. Both cationic and anionic dyes were used for degradation to assess the photocatalytic activity of ZSHAs.

Using an electrochemically active biofilm, Khan, M. M. et al. [47] produced Au-SnO₂ nanocomposite. XRD results were further supported by a Reitfield refinement. The visible part of the spectrum of the Au-SnO₂ nanocomposite displayed a wide absorption peak between 500 and 600 nm, which was attributed to the surface plasmon resonance absorption of the Au NPs. XPS was used to analyze the surface chemistry and chemical conditions of Au-SnO₂ nanocomposite and P-SnO₂ nanoparticles. In comparison to P-SnO₂ nanoparticles, the Au-doped SnO₂ nanocomposites showed remarkably enhanced photocatalytic activity.

By using the sol-gel process, Chandran, D. et al. [48] successfully synthesized pure and cobalt-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles with varying cobalt concentrations (0.75, 3, and 4 at%). When the cobalt concentration was increased, it was found that the diffraction peaks widened and the crystallinity decreased in comparison to pure SnO₂. The samples that have been doped showed an additional peak between 375 and 505 nm when compared to pure SnO₂. The degradation of methylene blue solution in the presence of natural light was used to assess the photocatalytic effectiveness of pure and doped samples.

SnO₂ and Co-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles were successfully produced by Sivakarthik, P. et al. [49] using the organic solvent-assisted simple solution approach and calcined at 300–500⁰C. In the presence of Co-doped SnO₂ at various concentrations, photocatalytic degradation of synthetic organic dye Crystal violet has been studied.

Mani, R et al. [50] also synthesized pure and Co-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles by simple chemical precipitation method. Powder XRD results revealed that both pure and Co-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles were indexed to a tetragonal rutile-type structure. Under UV illumination, a Co-SnO₂ catalyst was used to study the photocatalytic oxidation of carbolic acid and phenyl formic acid. In comparison to pure SnO₂, the results indicated that Co-doped SnO₂ had the strongest photo-catalytic abilities.

Iron-doped tin dioxide nanoparticles (Sn_{1-x}Fe_xO₂ NPs), with x ranging from 0 to 0.2, were effectively created by Ben Haj Othman et al. [51] using a conventional hydrothermal process. UV-Vis measurements suggest that adding iron could change the band gap of SnO₂

NPs. Degradation studies show addition of iron to SnO₂ nanoparticles enhances catalytic activity.

By using the polyol method at atmospheric pressure, Soltan, W. B. et al. [52] effectively produced nanocrystalline mesoporous pure and vanadium-doped (0-10 at%) SnO₂ nanopowders using ammonium metavanadate and tin (IV) tetrachloride. As the concentration of vanadium increased, a decrease in mean crystallite size, average pore size, and an increase in surface area were observed.

By using the precipitation process, Sinha, T. et al. [53] successfully manufactured Ag-SnO₂ nanocomposites. TEM studies indicate that Ag-SnO₂ nanocomposites are sphere-shaped particles with an average particle diameter of 8–10 nm. The resulting Ag-SnO₂ nanocomposite was used as an antibacterial and antioxidant agent as well as for the removal of industrially emerging pollutants from the aqueous phase.

Co-doped SnO₂ NPs with an average size of 30–40 nm were successfully created by Nasir, Z. et al. [54] using the co-precipitation approach utilizing SnCl₂.2H₂O and CoCl₂.2H₂O as Sn and Co precursors. The production of the nanoparticles was confirmed by XRD and SEM.

By utilizing an easy and affordable co-precipitation technique, Qamar, M. A. et al. [55] were able to successfully synthesize Cobalt-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles. The energy gap was further reduced when these SnO₂ were Co-doped. Undoped SnO₂ nanoparticles had a band gap of 3.36 eV, and doped SnO₂ nanoparticles had a band gap of 1.48 eV. Inhibition zone (mm) experiments show that Co-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles have antibacterial activity against the selected microorganisms.

By using a chemical precipitation approach and 500°C annealing, Karpuraranjith, M., et al. [56] were able to successfully synthesize a biotemplate-zinc-tin oxide hybrid structure. The unique rutile structure of SnO₂ with average crystalline sizes of 1.54–9.01 nm was revealed by the X-ray diffraction peaks. The hybrid structure's optical band gap energy was determined to be 3.19 eV. Zinc-tin oxide hybrid structure based on a bio template emerged as a suitable component for photocatalytic degradation.

Pristine and (Mg+Co) doped tin oxide nanoparticles were effectively made by Mala, N. et al. [57] using a wet chemical process. XRD pattern of the (Mg+Co) doped SnO₂ nanoparticles matched with the undoped SnO₂ nanoparticles suggests that the doped nanoparticles also exhibited a rutile hexagonal structure. The antibacterial and photocatalytic properties of the material were caused by the presence of hydroxyl groups.

Using SnCl₂, MnCl₂, and triethanolamine, Sakwises, L. et al. [58] successfully synthesized SnO₂ and Mn-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles. 40% wt of Mn was entirely substituted, according to FT-IR and XRD. The photocatalytic activity on the breakdown of methylene blue was studied to determine the effectiveness of SnO₂ and Mn-doped SnO₂.

By using a microwave irradiation technique and attaching it to the surface of Silk fibroin (SF), Bhuvanewari, K. et al. [59] successfully synthesized pure SnO₂, and Cd / Zn-doped SnO₂ nanopowders. The lowering crystallite size increased active surface area, and

reduced particle distribution after connecting SF. all contributed to the increase in photocatalytic activity. Zn-doped SnO₂ photocatalyst with SF links exhibited more dye degradation.

Efficient quantum dots of Tin oxide with different concentrations of Manganese were effectively produced through green synthesis by Babu, B. et al. [60]. X-ray diffraction patterns were used to analyze the structural characteristics of the undoped and Mn-doped SnO₂ QDs. Under visible light, Mn-doped SnO₂ QDs were used as a catalytic agent to test the photodegradation of cationic dye.

Using the co-precipitation approach, Asaithambi, S. et al. [61] produced pure and cobalt (Co)-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles successfully. EDAX results showed the presence of tin, oxygen, and cobalt species. Catalytic activities of pure and Cobalt-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles were investigated by photodegradation of green dye, an organic contaminant.

The co-precipitation approach was used by Sujatha, K. et al. [62] to manufacture and analyze pure, zinc-doped, and surfactant-assisted Zn-doped SnO₂ NPs. The band gap values calculated from Tauc's plot for the Zn-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles showed a significant change from 3.292 eV to 3.695 eV. The highest photocatalytic activity (80%) and best optical characteristics were obtained in Zn-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles produced with triton assistance. In contrast to TRITON-assisted Zn-doped SnO₂ NPs, pure, CTAB- and SDS-assisted Zn-doped SnO₂ NPs exhibit a very high rate of photogenerated electron-hole pair (e, h⁺) recombination, which inhibits the generation of the hydroxyl radical.

By co-precipitation process, varying the concentration of vanadium from 0% to 4%, Letifi, H. et al. [63] synthesized vanadium-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles. It is observed that the absorption edge shifted toward the red with an increase in vanadium concentration. The optical band gap decreased as a result of this redshift from 3.25 eV to 2.55 eV. Compared to SnO₂ NPs, SnO₂:V NPs showed an enhanced photocatalytic reaction.

The increased antibacterial and photocatalytic activity of pure and copper-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles was successfully investigated by Sathish Kumar, M et al. [64] using the microwave-assisted technique. The synthesis of NPs used tin chloride dihydrate (SnCl₂.2H₂O) and copper chloride hexahydrate (CuCl₂.6H₂O) as tin and copper sources respectively. Optical properties were explored by UV visible and Photoluminescence spectroscopy. Copper-doped SnO₂ nanoparticles showed an excellent zone of inhibition against both pathogens. Under UV light, photocatalytic degradation abilities for the cationic dyes were also assessed.

Sujatha, K. et al. [65] used tin chloride dihydrate and ferric chloride as precursors with ethanol and ammonia to successfully synthesize Iron-doped and surfactant-assisted (CTAB, SDS, and Triton) Iron-doped SnO₂ NPs. The addition of iron and surfactants was found to increase the band gap. The photocatalytic analysis confirmed that undoped SnO₂ NPs showed considerable photocatalytic activity under visible light.

Tin chloride (SnCl₂.5H₂O; 98%), ethanol (C₂H₅OH), iron chloride (FeCl₂.5H₂O; 98%), and sodium hydroxide (NaOH; 99%) were used in the preparation of undoped and iron-doped tin SnO₂ nanoparticles by Ali Baig et al. [66]. Due to the Fe dopant's nominal

defect, the intensity will be reduced. Degradation studies show Fe-doped SnO₂ NPs had more photocatalytic activity than pure SnO₂. The synthesized nanoparticles exhibit exceptional antibacterial activity.

Using SnCl₂.2H₂O, FeCl₃.6H₂O, aqua ammonia, and urea as raw materials, Wang, Q et al. [67] synthesized novel material Fe (1, 2, and 3 wt%) doped SnO₂ adorned layered g-C₃N₄ using a chemical precipitation technique. The as-prepared hybrid material 1wt% Fe-SnO₂/g-C₃N₄ (1 wt% Fe-SCN) showed improved activity of photodegradation under simulated solar light irradiation.

By chemically precipitating stannous chloride, Ethane dioic acid, and Manganese diacetate tetrahydrate, Ramamoorthy M. et al. [68] created Manganese-doped SnO₂. Manganese doped tin oxide shows less band gap than undoped one and an improved size, and superficial area.

Suthakaran, S et al. [69] successfully prepared Zr-doped SnO₂ NPs by surfactant-assisted hydrothermal method using Tin (IV) chloride pentahydrate (SnCl₄.5H₂O), Zirconyl chloride octahydrate (ZrOCl₂.8H₂O), caustic acid (NaOH), and sodium polymetaphosphate. The results of XRD confirmed the simple, polycrystalline nanoparticles with a tetragonal structure and remained stable even after higher concentrations of Zirconium dopant. Photocatalytic measurements showed that doped NPs improved the photodegradation percentage of the MV dye.

According to Baig, A. et al. [70], nanocrystalline pristine and zirconium-incorporated tin oxide NPs were prepared by simple hydrothermal co-precipitation mode. A detailed investigation of the photodegradation capabilities of 4% doped tin oxide nanoparticles (NPs) was studied under visible light. In comparison to undoped SnO₂, doped NPs photocatalytically are more capable and show good antibacterial activity against *E. coli* and *S. aureus* bacteria.

Using a hydrothermal chemical process with varying Y doping concentrations (0, 2, and 4 at%), Baig, A. et al. [71] successfully produced SnO₂ NPs. Both pure and yttrium-doped NPs show tetragonal crystalline texture. XRD studies show the size decreased after Y³⁺doping. HRSEM showed equivalent crystallite spreading and agglomeration morphologies. Even after five cycles, the yttrium-doped nanoparticles showed efficient photodegradation.

In-SnO₂ nanomaterial was produced by Carolin, L. et al. [72] by precipitation and sonication. UV absorption studies were carried out to determine the band gap of both pure and indium-doped nanoparticles. SnO₂ photo catalyst confirmed the catalyst's excellent reusability characteristics. Hydroxyl Radical production is directly associated with the photocatalytic activity of In-SnO₂ nanocomposite. In-doped SnO₂ has greater antibacterial activity than undoped SnO₂.

Bi-doped SnO₂ quantum dots were made using hydrothermal synthesis in a single step by Chu, L. et al. [73]. Under visible light, the efficiency of the photocatalyst was assessed. The resulting composites displayed outstanding photodegradation efficiency because of

enhanced light absorption and the effective parting and movement of photo-generated electrons.

Using a high-temperature oxy-acetylene flame, Prabhu et al. [74] created pure SnO₂ and Zn: SnO₂ nanoparticles. Nano cubical and nanoflake Zn: SnO₂ nanoparticles with an improved crystalline structure replace irregular, agglomerated, nanoflowers, and nano clustered SnO₂ nanoparticles. Due to the production of highly reactive (OH⁻) hydroxyl and superoxide (O²⁻) radicals, both doped and undoped SnO₂ nanoparticles show excellent photocatalytic activity under UV light.

By using *Populus ciliate* leaf extract, Slah Ud Din et al. [75] created SnO₂ nanoparticles. XRD and EDAX studies confirmed the formation of composites. The diffusion technique based on agar wells was used to examine the antibacterial properties.

Table 1: Synthesis of Metal Ion Doped SnO₂-Based Nanostructures: A Summary of Several Techniques

Authors and Year	Sample	Synthesis Route	Structural Characterization	Results	Ref.
Kumar, V et al. (2011)	F- SnO ₂	sol-gel method	PXRD (a = 4.7106 Å & c = 3.1970 Å), TEM, BET, Raman spectrum, EDX, Pore size analysis.	Increased photocatalytic efficiency in the degradation of aqueous Rhodamine-B (RhB) dye solution under UV irradiation.	39
You, H et al. (2013)	Au-SnO ₂	solution reaction	XRD(rutile-type), SEM, TEM, SAED, BET.	Improves photodegradation	40
Wu, W et al. (2013)	Au-SnO ₂	hydrothermal method	XRD (crystallite sizes 10.8 nm), HRTEM, BET, EDX, BET pore size(16.8 nm), UV-DRS	improved photocatalytic degradation of RhB under UV and visible light irradiation.	41
Davis, M et al. (2013)	Fe-SnO ₂	sol-gel method	XRD(3nm), Gas sorption analyses, Electron microscopy studies, Pore size analysis, EDX	Enhanced photocatalytic performance under UV light.	42

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Ansari, S et al. (2014)	Ag-SnO ₂	EAB (electrochemically active biofilm).	XRD, surface plasmon resonance absorption(400–550nm)	Increased photocatalytic activity for the breakdown of methyl orange and methylene blue when exposed to visible light.	43
Toloman, D et al. (2014)	Co - SnO ₂	chemical precipitation method	XRD (tetragonal rutile), EPR.	Under visible light irradiation, the sample's photocatalytic activity was assessed against a synthetic RhB solution.	44
Ran, L et al. (2015)	Ti-SnO ₂	facile infiltration route	XRD, BET	Shows highest photocatalytic activity for photodegradation of methylene blue under UV light.	45
Zhao, Q et al. (2015)	Zn-SnO ₂	hydrothermal method	XRD (tetragonal rutile structure), SEM(2D nanosheets), EDX.	Photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue (MB-91%), methylene orange (MO-40%), and rhodamine B (RhB-60%) in 60min.	46
Khan, M. M et al. (2015)	Au-SnO ₂	electrochemically active biofilm.	XRD (crystallite size is 25–30 nm). UV-Vis(500-600nm), XPS.	Efficient photodegradation of cationic and anionic dyes.	47
Chandra, D et al. (2015)	Co-SnO ₂	sol-gel method	XRD (tetragonal rutile-type), HRTEM, UV spectra(375-505nm)	The decomposition of the MB solution under natural light was used to calculate the photocatalytic efficiency.	48

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Sivakarthik, P et al. (2016)	Co - SnO ₂	simple solution method	XRD (tetragonal structure & particle size of 18 nm to 22 nm), SEM (spherical morphology)	exhibited high photocatalytic activity for the breakdown of Crystal violet dye.	49
Mani, R et al. (2017)	Co - SnO ₂	chemical precipitation method	XRD (tetragonal rutile, average crystalline size 48, 41, and 32 nm), TEM, FTIR, UV-Vis	Under UV irradiation, the degradation of phenol and benzoic acid was studied.	50
Ben Haj Othmen et al. (2016)	Fe- SnO ₂	hydrothermal method.	XRD (tetragonal rutile structure), HRTEM, BET, UV-Vis.	Enhanced degradation of RhB under visible light.	51
Soltan, W. B et al. (2016)	V- SnO ₂	polyol route	XRD (rutile-type tetragonal structure with average crystallite sizes 8.8 to 5.4 nm), UV-DRS.	Catalytic studies were carried out by varying the concentration of Vanadium.	52
Sinha, T et al. (2016)	Ag-SnO ₂	Simple precipitation method	XRD, TEM, EDAX, SAED	Utilized for the reduction of industrially developing pollutants and as an antibacterial agent.	53
Nasir, Z et al. (2017)	Co - SnO ₂	co-precipitation method	XRD (tetragonal-rutile type structures), SEM, TEM, SAED	Enhanced catalytic property under UV light and has increased antimicrobial effect.	16
Qamar, M. A et al. (2017)	Co-SnO ₂	co-precipitation method.	XRD (tetragonal structure having average crystallite size 24.86 nm), SEM (spherical shape), EDX, UV-Vis.	Improved Antibacterial activities	17

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Karpuraranjith, M et al. (2017)	Zn-SnO ₂	Chemical precipitation method	XRD(distinctive rutile structure with average crystalline sizes of 1.54–9.01 nm), SEM(cluster), EDAX, TEM(agglomerated), UV-Vis(3.19eV)	Bio-based templates Zn-SnO ₂ and is an effective substance for enhancing photocatalytic activity.	18
Mala, N et al. (2017)	(Mg+Co) doped SnO ₂	wet chemical method	XRD (rutile hexagonal structure), FT-IR.	For Malachite Green (MG) and MB, the degradation efficiency of pure SnO ₂ was 82% and 86%, respectively.	19
Sakwises, L et al. (2017)	Mn-SnO ₂	wet chemical synthetic route	FT-IR, XRD, and EDAX.	The degradation of water-soluble dyes under UV irradiation.	20
Bhuvaneshwari, K et al. (2018)	Cd / Zn-doped SnO ₂	Microwave irradiation method	XRD (rutile-tetragonal system with an average crystallite size 43.4, 22.8, and 24.3 nm), FT-IR, UV-Vis spectra.	Zn-doped SnO ₂ nanoparticles' photocatalytic activity showed a remarkable MB degradation efficiency of 99.6%.	21
Babu, B et al. (2018)	Mn-SnO ₂	solution combustion	XRD (tetragonal rutile structure with a particle size ranging from 5 to 4.4 nanometer), SAED, FT-IR, UV-Vis.	Removal of water-soluble dye under sunlight	22
Asaithambi, S et al. (2019)	Co-SnO ₂	co-precipitation method	XRD (cassiterite tetragonal SnO ₂ structure with average crystalline between 26.4 nm and 23.1 nm), FT-IR, UV-Vis, HRTEM, SAED.	Co-doped SnO ₂ shows enhanced photocatalytic activity.	23

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Sujatha, K et al. (2019)	Zn -SnO ₂	co-precipitation method	XRD (rutile tetragonal with crystallite size 9.34 nm), SEM(Spherical), EDAX, UV-Vis.	Better optical characteristics and a high (80%) photocatalytic activity.	24
Letifi, H et al. (2019)	V-SnO ₂	co-precipitation method	XRD (tetragonal structure & the average crystal size is 10nm), UV-Vis(55eV)	The photocatalytic degradation has been studied using the Rhodamine B dye (RhB; 95 percent in 150 minutes).	25
Sathishkumar, M et al. (2020)	Cu-SnO ₂	microwave assisted method	XRD TEM(Spherical), UV-Vis(3.20eV).	Enhanced antibacterial (P. aeruginosa & S. aureus) and photocatalytic activity (MB, RhB)	26
Sujatha, K et al. (2020)	Fe-SnO ₂	co-precipitation method	XRD (tetragonal rutile structure with a crystallite size 6.347 nm), SEM, TEM, EDAX, UV-Vis.	Enhanced degradation of dye (MB) was found to be 49% respectively.	27
Ali Baig et al. (2020)	Fe- SnO ₂	co-precipitation method	XRD, HRTEM (agglomerated), UV-DRS.	Higher photocatalytic dye degradation efficiency under visible light and antibacterial activity was determined against E.coli and S.aureus bacteria.	28
Wang, Q et al. (2020)	Fe -SnO ₂	simple chemical precipitation method	XRD, HRTEM, EDS, XPS, UV-DRS	Enhanced photocatalytic activity and photodegradation of methylene blue and rhodamine B in the presence of simulated solar light.	29

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Ramamoo rthy, M et al. (2020)	Mn-SnO ₂	chemical precipitation method	XRD (rutile tetragonal structure, crystallite size 13.79nm), UV-Vis	Studies on the degradation of methylene blue dye under visible light were carried out..	30
Suthakara n, S et al. (2020)	Zr -SnO ₂	hydrothermal method	XRD, TEM, PL.	Photocatalytic measurements showed that doped NPs improved the photodegradation percentage of the MV dye.	31
Baig, A et al. (2020)	Zr-SnO ₂	facile hydrothermal co- precipitation	XRD (tetragonal rutile-type), SEM, EDX, UV-DRS	increased photocatalytic degradation and antibacterial activity.	32
Baig, A et al. (2020)	Y-SnO ₂	hydrothermal chemical route	XRD,SEM(agglom eration), UV-DRS	Enhanced photodegradation of cationic dye in apparent light, enhanced antibacterial activity	33
Carolin, L et al. (2020)	In-SnO ₂	precipitation method and sonication technique	XRD (cassiterite structure and average size of 40– 50 nm & 60–80 nm) HRTEM, EDAX, UV-DRS	improved antibacterial activity against B. subtilis and V. cholera and photocatalytic activity under UV light.	34
Chu, L et al. (2020)	Bi-SnO ₂	hydrothermal method	XRD XPS, BET, Pore volume analysis.	photocatalytic degradation and antibacterial studies.	35
Sivarama Prabhu P (2021)	Zn: SnO ₂	Flame oxidation process	XRD, FT-IR	Photocatalytic degradation of cationic dye	74
Salah Ud Din etal [2022]	SnO ₂	biosynthesis	The FT-IR and TGA	Antibacterial studies were carried out	75

II. CONCLUSIONS

This review covered the formation of SnO₂ hierarchical structures, their doping and compositional modifications, as well as the creation of stannate nanomaterials with various morphologies, such as nanoparticles, nanorods, nanosheets, nanospheres, and porous and hollow structures. Tin oxide nanomaterials have been expected to be powerful photocatalysts for the degradation of organic pollutants in aqueous solution due to their excellent properties such as transparency, low cost, environmental friendliness, good chemical and biological inertness, nontoxicity, easy production and high photosensitivity, photostability, and thermodynamic stability. Tin oxide is also known for its antimicrobial activity especially antibacterial properties against many gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria.

The high activation energy of the metal oxide limits the experimental use of SnO₂ semiconductors as a pure material, despite their excellent promise for photo-catalytic applications and their antioxidant activity against free radicals. This activation energy corresponds to UV light exposure and the direct (rapid) recombination rate of the photo-generated conduction electron (e⁻ CB) in the Sn 4d(5S) band and with a hole in the O 2p valence band. The rate of electron-hole pair recombination needs to be suppressed in order to improve the industrial use of SnO₂ and boost the photo-catalytic activity. Doping other semiconductors with metal oxides that have different band gaps for electron energies is one method. The new combination material's photo-catalytic activity might then be enhanced as a result of the reduced activation energy.

SnO₂-based nanomaterial gained widespread usage after the addition of components with various chemical compositions. It is still difficult and challenging to synthesize SnO₂ nanocrystals on a wide scale with more specialized aspects. Future advancements will be made and novel intriguing Nano systems will produce the technologies in the synthesis of nanostructures to precisely control dimension and composition.

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