



## Improved Photocatalytic and Bacterial Growth Inhibition Properties Realized for PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub>-rGO Nanocomposite

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### Abstract

PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> (PS) and rGO-PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> (rPS) nanocomposites (NCs) were synthesized through one-pot green synthesis and chemical precipitation methods. In this paper, a comparison of the synthesized composites' photodegradation and bacterial growth inhibition properties has been conducted. For both composites, XRD analyses show the presence of tetragonal-structured SnO<sub>2</sub> and cubic-structured PbS peaks. rGO blending increases PS crystallite size from 29 nm to 34 nm. rPS NC shows uniformly packed grains with well-defined boundaries. Absorption peaks of PS red shifts with rGO inclusion. The decreased band gap for rPS might be due to the synergistic effect of sulfur/oxygen vacancies and significant interaction between rGO and PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> NC. The rPS catalyst demonstrated a maximum degradation efficiency of 93% against rhodamine B (*RhB*) dye. Antibacterial activity of PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> improves with rGO inclusion. PS and rPS NCs are more resistant to gram-positive bacteria than gram-negative bacteria.

**Keywords:** Nanocomposite; reduced graphene oxide; heterojunction; bacterial resistance; zone of inhibition

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## 1. Introduction

Semiconducting chalcogenides in nanoregime possess interesting physico-chemical properties. Lead sulfide (PbS), a strong quantization chalcogenide belonging to the IV-VI group, is characterized by a high dielectric constant and low electron and hole masses [1]. In addition to its excellent near infra-red (NIR) emitting properties, PbS exhibits third-order nonlinear optical properties and has a fast response time, so it is suitable for optical computing, display devices, real-time holography, optical correlation, solar control coatings, biological sensors, etc. [2]. PbS in the nano dimension finds applications as a photocatalyst and antimicrobial agent. The electrochemical properties of PbS are noteworthy [3]. However, many factors influence the physical properties of PbS, such as crystallinity, particle size, surface morphology, and so on. The aforementioned factors need to be changed in order to use PbS for a variety of applications. Doping or creating composites with other semiconductors are two ways to accomplish this. By coupling PbS with other semiconductors, charge carriers are transferred between them, potentially improving their physical properties [4].

Tin dioxide ( $\text{SnO}_2$ ) is an excellent chemical and thermally stable semiconductor that is ideal for gas sensing, catalysis, and optoelectronic applications. It is a low-cost wide-band gap semiconductor (3.6 eV) [5]. Its many structural geometries and electronic structure make  $\text{SnO}_2$  exhibit ferromagnetic behavior when doped with magnetic metal ions [6]. With the addition of impurity atoms,  $\text{SnO}_2$  could be improved for dye-sensitized solar cells, gas sensors, and industrial and domestic applications by controlling oxygen vacancies [7]. PbS's band gap can be widened, and its thermal and chemical stability can be enhanced when  $\text{SnO}_2$  is coupled, making it appropriate for optoelectronic, photocatalytic, electrochemical, and antimicrobial applications. Enhanced magnetic, catalytic, and antifungal characteristics of the PbS- $\text{SnO}_2$  nanocomposite were evidenced in our previous study [2]. Catalytic efficiency is frequently low due to the synthesized composite's rapid recombination rate and ineffective use of photogenerated electron-hole pairs [8]. Also, this composite has the tendency to coagulate, has poor dispersibility, and has the ability to form intermediate metal ion complexes, which limits its strong energy

storage ability, photodegradation efficiency, and microbial resistance potency. The limitations of the PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite have been addressed in this work by utilizing reduced graphene oxide (rGO).

Graphene-based carbonaceous material rGO exhibits a single-layer 2D nanostructure formed by sp<sup>2</sup> hybridized carbon atoms, including hydroxyl, carboxyl, epoxy, etc [9]. Furthermore, they demonstrate greater surface area, high electron mobility, mechanical strength, and larger thermal conductivity [10]. In addition, rGO's hybridized network frames make it behave like a semiconductor. These qualities prove that the decoration of rGO with PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite enables the development of a hybrid nanocomposite with outstanding properties, eliminating the demerits associated with PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub>. rGO-PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite has been synthesized by a one-pot synthesis method using aqueous phytoextract as a reductant prepared from *Psidium guajava* leaf, which contains plenty of flavonoids [11]. Flavonoids release hydrogen when their hydroxyl groups are activated, reducing GO to rGO [12]. As well as anchoring PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs to rGO sheets, the leaf extract also serves as a capping agent. Capping agents act as stabilizers that inhibit the over-growth of nanoparticles and prevent their aggregation/coagulation while synthesizing them. PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> and rGO-PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites were compared for their photocatalytic and antibacterial properties in this work. In literature, there exists plenty of rGO-incorporated sulfide/oxide-based nanocomposites synthesized for photocatalytic and antibacterial applications. A few of them are compiled in Table 1. With rGO blending, ZnO/NiO [13], ZnO/CdS [14], ZnO [15], CdS [16], NiO [17] and CuS [18] exhibited enhanced photocatalytic activities. Table 1 demonstrates the dearth of research on rGO-incorporated PbS or PbS-based composites, particularly those with photocatalytic and antibacterial qualities. Hence, this work will provide new insight for researchers working with rGO-blended PbS-based nanocomposites.

Compo- site	Synthesis method	Photocatalytic activity				Anti- bacterial activity against	Reference
		Dye	Light source	Irradia- tion time	Efficiency, $\eta$ (%)		
ZnO/NiO -rGO	Wet chemical	MB	Solar light	120	89.72	---	[13]
ZnO/CdS -rGO	Hydro thermal	Cr(VI)	Visible	30	93.2	---	[14]
ZnO/rGO	One step	RhB	Visible	90	87	<i>E.coli</i>	[15]
CdS/rGO	Ultrasonic	MB	Visible	180	90.1	---	[16]
NiO-rGO	Thermal de- composition	MO	Sunlight	90	87	---	[17]
CuS-rGO	Co precipitation	MG	Sunlight	90	97.6	---	[18]

Table 1: Photocatalytic and antibacterial properties of rGO based nanocomposites in literature

## 2. Experimental studies

### 2.1 Material used

Graphene powder with 99 % purity was purchased from Adnano Technologies, India. Lead nitrate, thiourea, tin (II) chloride, and liquid  $\text{NH}_3$  purchased from Sigma Aldrich, India, are used. RhB dye with 98% purity was supplied by Alpha Chemika, India. Mueller-Hinton (MH) agar was purchased from Himedia, India. Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) was supplied from Meru Chem, India.

### 2.2 Extraction of *Psidium guajava* (*P. Guajava*) leaf extract

A mixture of water and ethanol (3:1) was used to wash and dry the leaves of *P. guajava*. The leaves, after being baked at  $80^\circ\text{C}$ , were then crushed and ground into fine powder, of which 20 g was added to 30 min distilled water and maintained at  $60^\circ\text{C}$  for 30 min. After cooling and sedimenting at room temperature, the leaf extract was filtered.

### 2.3 Synthesis of PS NC

PbS and  $\text{SnO}_2$  precipitates were obtained separately by dissolving 0.05 M lead nitrate and thiourea in one beaker and 0.1 M tin (II) chloride in another beaker in 140 mL water + 10 mL liquid  $\text{NH}_3$ . After stirring, the solutions were left undisturbed for 2 hours to produce PbS and  $\text{SnO}_2$  precipitates. After collecting these precipitates, they

were mixed thoroughly, calcined for two hours at 250°C, and then crushed to obtain PS NC.

#### **2.4 Synthesis of rPS NC**

In 30 mL of water, 2 g of graphene oxide powder was dissolved and ultrasonically processed for 30 minutes. In 100 mL of water containing 0.1 M SnCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.05 M lead nitrate, and thiourea, the GO dispersion was added and stirred for one hour. In this mixture, 20 mL of leaf extract, along with a few drops of NH<sub>3</sub> solution, was added to keep the pH at 9. The resultant solution was heated at 95° C for 4 hours and calcinated at 400°C for 2 h to obtain rPS NC.

#### **2.5 Characterization**

PS and rPS NCs were analyzed using a diffractometer (X-PERT PRO) with CuK $\alpha$  radiation (1.5406 Å). HITACHI S-3000H was used to characterize the morphology. UV-visible studies were done using a Perkin Elmer Lambda-25 Spectrophotometer. Using Perkin Elmer Rx-1, Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) studies were conducted. Photoluminescence (PL) studies are done using a spectrophotometer (Varian Cary Eclipse).

#### **2.6 Photocatalytic experiment against RhB**

6 mg of PS and rPS catalysts were dispersed in 20 mL RhB solution. To obtain equilibrium adsorption and desorption of RhB, solutions were stirred in the dark for 20 minutes before exposure to visible light. Afterwards, the solutions were exposed to visible light (100 W incandescent lamp) with continuous stirring. A Perkin Elmer Lambda-25 spectrophotometer was used to analyze 4 mL of the reaction mixture every 20 minutes.

#### **2.7 Bacterial growth resistance**

*Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*) and *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) bacteria were cultured freshly in MH media. Assays were performed in 96-well plates with inoculums and 4 mg (optimized value, even though minimum inhibitory concentration being 1.5 mg) PS and rPS NCs dissolved in 50  $\mu$ L DMSO. Following a 24-hour incubation period at 37°C, the inhibitory zones were tested for antibacterial activity.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1 XRD

In PS and rPS, cubic structured PbS peaks were observed (Fig. 1) at  $2\theta$  equal to  $26^\circ$ ,  $30.05^\circ$ ,  $43^\circ$ ,  $50.9^\circ$ ,  $53.4^\circ$  and  $71^\circ$  which matched JCPDS No. 77-0244 [19].

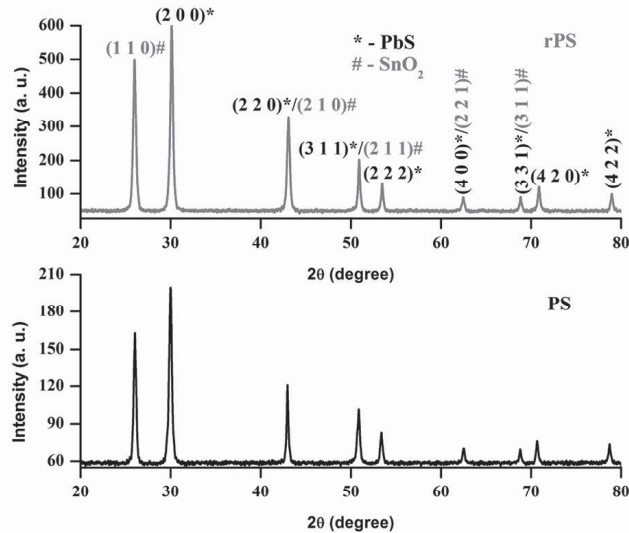


Fig.1 PS and rPS's XRD patterns

Tetragonal structured  $\text{SnO}_2$  peaks were observed at  $27.1^\circ$ ,  $34.1^\circ$ ,  $43^\circ$ ,  $57.7^\circ$ , indexed to (1 1 0), (1 0 1), (2 1 0) and (0 0 2) planes (JCPDS No. 88-0287) [20]. The dominant peaks were (2 0 0) for PbS and (1 1 0) for  $\text{SnO}_2$ . As evidenced by the shift in PbS and  $\text{SnO}_2$ -related peaks towards higher  $2\theta$  values (Fig. 1) and an increase in the sharpness of the diffraction peaks, rGO's addition increases the degree of crystallinity of the PbS/ $\text{SnO}_2$  NC [21]. The formation of a heterojunction between PbS and  $\text{SnO}_2$  was confirmed by their related peaks. XRD patterns of rPS did not identify any peaks related to rGO, as lower amounts of graphene or fewer layers of rGO are present in the composite. The results show that GO has been successfully reduced to produce a rPS nanocomposite that contains only a few layers of rGO sheets [22]. The composites' crystallite size (D) was found using Scherrer's formula:

$$D = \frac{0.9 \lambda}{\Delta 2\theta} \quad (1)$$



where  $\beta$  - full-width and half maximum of the peak and  $\lambda = 1.5406 \times 10^{-10}$ m. The calculated sizes were 29 and 34 nm for PS and rPS composites.

### 3.2 SEM

PS and rPS NCs' SEM images are displayed in Fig. 2. For PS NC, tiny grains of various sizes are discernible.

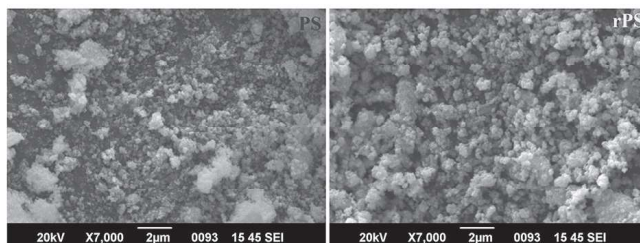


Fig.2 SEM images of PS and rPS

Grains appear clustered along with few empty sites. With rGO blending, rPS NC exhibited uniform distribution of tightly packed with well-defined boundaries. Grains size of PS got increased with rGO inclusion.

Pb, S, Sn, and O were confirmed to be present in both composites by EDS spectra (Fig. 3).

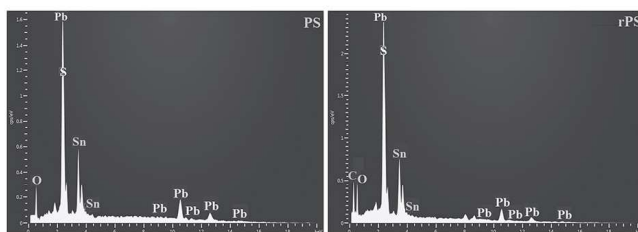


Fig.3 PS and rPS's EDS spectra

In the presence of these peaks, the heterojunction between PbS and SnO<sub>2</sub> was confirmed. rGO inclusion in rPS NC was ascertained from the presence of peak related to C. In PS and rPS NCs, Table 2 shows the atomic weight percentages of Pb, S, Sn, O, and C.

Nanocomposite	at. wt. %				
	Pb	S	Sn	O	C
PS	28.73	22.25	27.48	21.54	---
rPS	26.84	23.61	25.82	19.5	4.23

Table 2: Elemental composition of Pb, S, Sn, O and C in PS and rPS NCs

### 3.3 Optical studies

PS exhibits two absorption peaks at 645 and 348 nm corresponding to PbS and SnO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 4(a)).

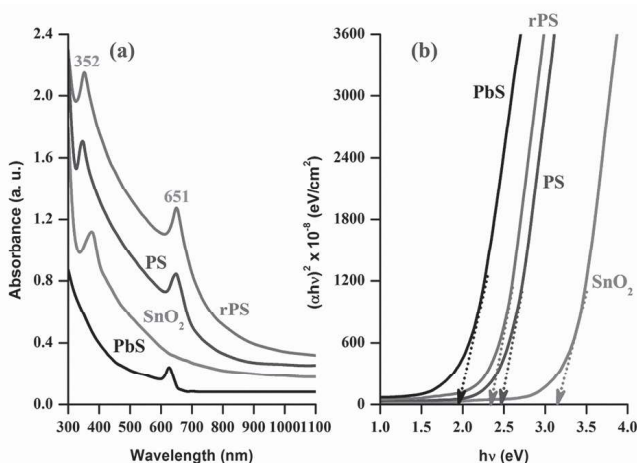


Fig.4 PbS, SnO<sub>2</sub>, PS, and rPS's a) Absorbance spectra and b) Tauc plots

Due to bonding, as well as charge delocalization from electronic interaction between PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> and rGO, the position of these peaks got red shifted [23, 24]. Moreover, because rGO can raise the surface electric charge of PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub>, rPS shows continuous absorbance in the visible range [25]. The rPS composite is, therefore, more efficient at utilizing visible light and appears to perform better in terms of degradation. The red shifting of the absorption peaks of the rPS composite indicates a decrease in its band gap value and an increase in the size of PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> NC with rGO inclusion. Thus, rGO acts as the supporter, helping the PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> NPs to disperse and prevent them from aggregating [21]. The enhanced surface morphology observed for the rPS NC (Fig. 2) clearly supports this. The energy gaps between the values of PbS (1.96 eV) and SnO<sub>2</sub> (3.18 eV) were 2.48 and 2.36 eV for PS and rPS NCs (Fig. 4(b)). Sulfur/oxygen vacancies and significant interfacial interactions between rGO and PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> NC could account for the decreased band gap for rPS [26].

### 3.4 FTIR Studies

FTIR spectra of PS and rPS nanocomposites (Fig. 5) show OH stretching vibrations ( $\sim$  at 3418 cm<sup>-1</sup>) due to interlayer water molecules [27].



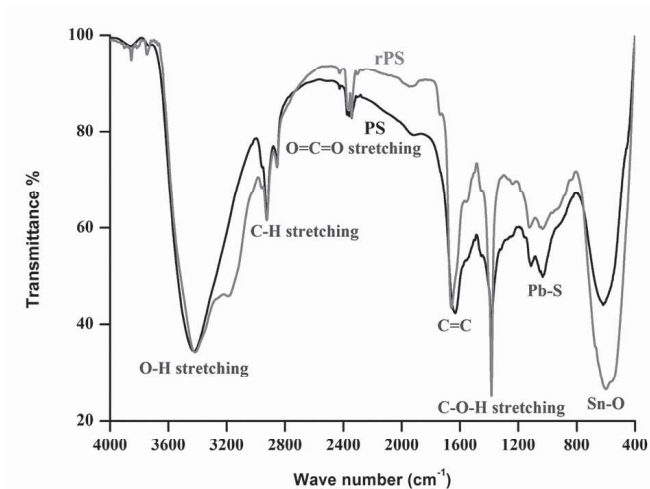


Fig.5 PS and rPS's FTIR spectra

The presence of amino group resulted in C=C stretching at  $1385\text{ cm}^{-1}$  [28]. Pb-S related bands ( $1384 - 600\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) are caused by heteropolar lead sulfide molecules [1]. C-H stretchings observed around at  $2925\text{ cm}^{-1}$  arise from alkyl groups. O=C=O symmetric stretching of carboxyl group occurs at  $2366$  [27].  $\text{SnO}_2$  band is seen at  $599\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for both PS and rPS [29]. As PbS and  $\text{SnO}_2$  form a composite, both PS and rPS show Pb-S and Sn-O bands. rPS peak intensity is significantly reduced when PbS/ $\text{SnO}_2$  is attached to rGO sheets [30].

### 3.5 PL studies

PS and rPS NCs exhibit PL emission bands at 361, 375, 392, 410, 436, 459, 495, and 505 nm (Fig. 6). Recombination of free exciton is ascribed to the UV emission peaks at 361 and 375 nm [31]. Transitions of electrons from the localized level to the valence band produced a near band-edge emission (NBE) peak at 392 nm [32]. In PbS, at 410 nm, conduction band electrons give way to trapped holes at interstitial  $\text{Pb}^{2+}$  sites [33].

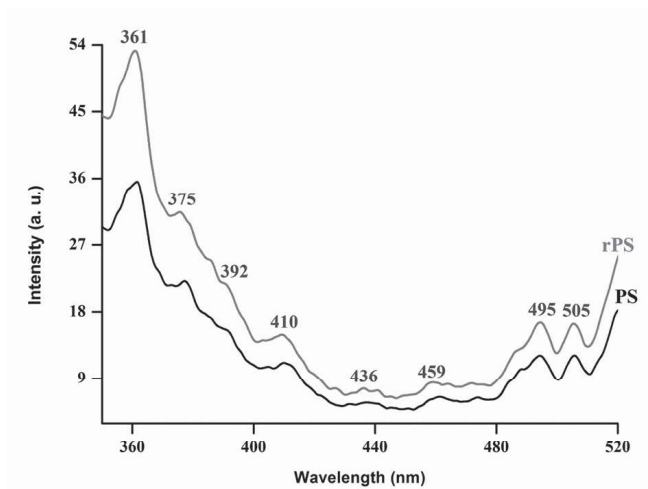


Fig.6 PS and rPS's PL spectra

An exciton attached to a donor peaks at 436 nm. Structure defects/ luminescent centers in  $\text{SnO}_2$  emit the 459 nm peak [34]. The peak at 495 nm is associated with S vacancies present in both PS and rPS [35]. The donor-acceptor pair emits the 505 nm peak [36].

### 3.6 Photocatalytic activity

We tested PS and rPS NCs' photocatalytic activity against rhodamine B. Absorbance spectra taken at regular intervals of 20 min (Fig. 7) showed that the intensity decreases as irradiation time increases with the presence of PS and rPS catalysts, confirming the fact that the pollutant was degraded and the dye concentration got decreased. RhB decomposition happens for both PS and rPS with light irradiation (Fig. 8). The degradation efficiencies calculated using the relation,

$$\eta = \left(1 - \frac{C}{C_0}\right) \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

(where  $C$  and  $C_0$  are concentrations of dye under light and dark conditions) are displayed in Fig. 9. After 100 min, the calculated  $\eta$  values were 82.5 and 93 % for PS and rPS catalysts, respectively.

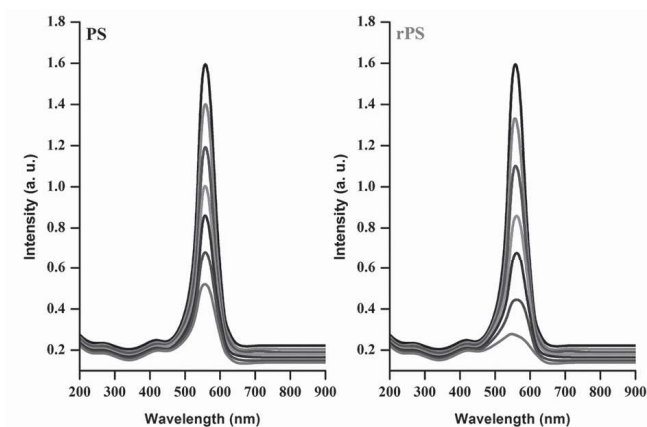


Fig.7 Absorbance spectra of PS and rPS catalysts

The anchoring of PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> NC on rGO sheets resulted in improved degradation efficiency due to a high surface-to-volume ratio, increased active sites for dye adsorption, and a lower recombination rate of photogenerated species [37].

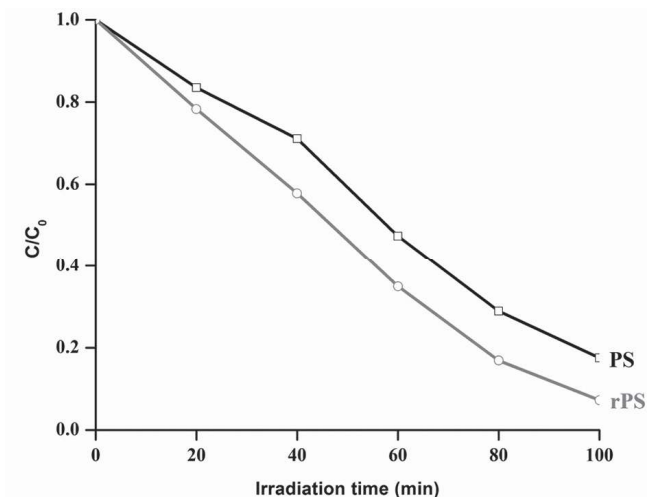


Fig.8  $C/C_0$  versus reaction time graphs of PS and rPS

The enhanced degradation efficiency of rPS is initiated by rGO blending, which has a tremendous amount of electrons causing more ROS ( $\text{OH}^*$ ,  $\text{O}_2^{*-}$ ) generation, thereby increasing the separation of electron-hole pairs [38]. Additionally, the rate of the degradation reaction is accelerated by the RhB dye molecules adsorbed on the surface of rPS through the primary atomic force field and  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions of rGO.

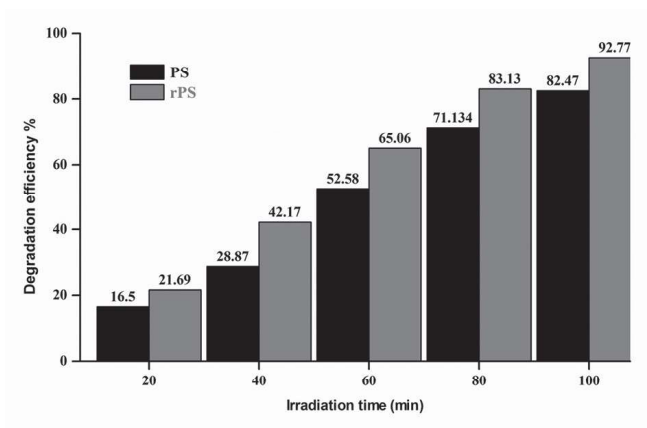


Fig.9 PS and rPS's degradation efficiencies

The first order kinetics (Langmuir-Hinshelwood model) involved obeys the relation:

$$\ln \left( \frac{C_0}{C} \right) = kt \quad (3)$$

where  $k$ ,  $C_0$ , and  $C$  are rate constant concentrations of RhB under dark and after time 't'. From Fig. 10, the  $k$  values of PS ( $0.0189 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) and rPS ( $0.0265 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) are determined from their slopes. The high value of  $k$  demonstrated the tremendous photocatalytic activity of rPS NC due to the formation of heterojunction between rGO and PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> NC.

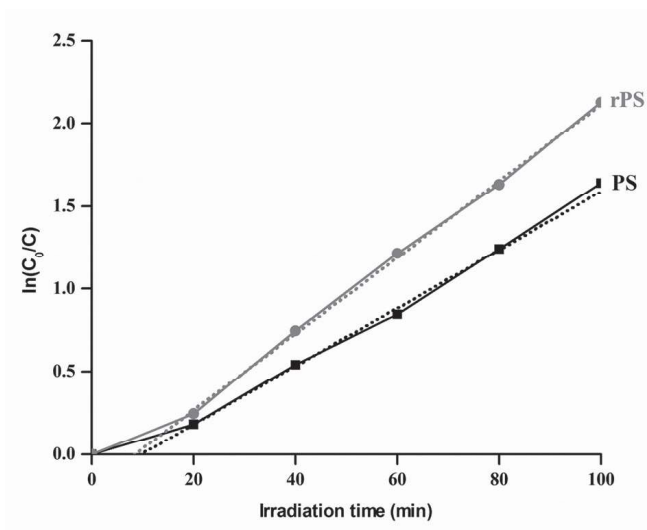


Fig.10 Kinetic plots of PS and rPS

Photocatalysts' photostability is important for practical application [39]. To assess the photostability of the rPS catalyst, recycle tests were performed for five cycles (Fig. 11 (a)). In the recovery process, a minimal reduction in degradation efficiency occurs after the fourth cycle due to the leaching of the catalyst surface, surface area loss, and aggregation [40]. Following the recycling test, XRD was obtained to confirm the rPS catalyst's reusable nature (Fig. 11(b)). No significant variation in the XRD pattern was observed, confirming its reusable nature. Photostabilization and anti-photocorrosion of the rPS catalyst are confirmed by this finding. Due to the rapid electron transfer and effective separation of charge carriers across the heterojunction, the rGO-PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> exhibits high photoactivity and inhibits photocorrosion [41]. So, the rPS catalyst can be used to degrade *RhB* dye without producing secondary pollutants.

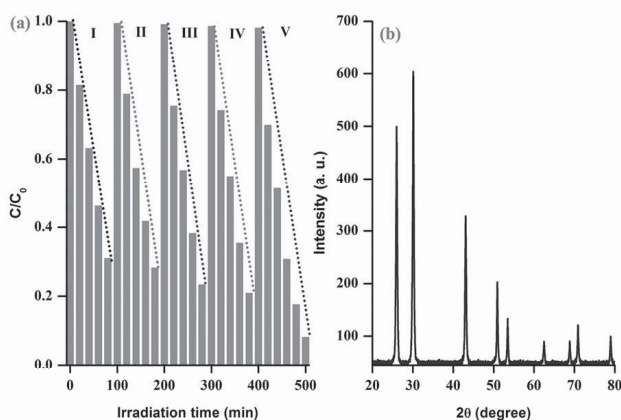


Fig.11 a) Recycle tests of rPS catalyst, b) Recycled rPS's XRD pattern

To study the mechanism of the degradation,  $E_{VB}$  and  $E_{CB}$  values of PbS and SnO<sub>2</sub> were found using the Eqns [42]:

$$\chi_{\text{CB}} = \chi - \chi^{\text{e}} + 0.5 \chi_{\text{g}} \quad (4)$$

$$\chi_{\text{VB}} = \chi_{\text{CB}} - \chi_{\text{g}} \quad (5)$$

where X is the electronegativity,  $E^{\text{c}}$  is the energy of free electrons (4.5 eV). The  $E_{VB}$  and  $E_{CB}$  of PbS ( $E_{\text{g}} = 1.92$  eV) were found to be 1.61 and -0.31 eV, and that of SnO<sub>2</sub> ( $E_{\text{g}} = 3.54$  eV) were found to be 3.71 and 0.17 eV, respectively. When light falls on PS and rPS catalysts, valence electrons of both PbS and SnO<sub>2</sub> are excited and move toward their conduction bands, leaving holes in VB. Furthermore, with high

+ve VB edge potential, SnO<sub>2</sub> is more oxidative than PbS. Due to the negative CB potential of PbS, electrons diffuse from PbS to SnO<sub>2</sub>. Due to SnO<sub>2</sub>'s positive VB potential, holes move from the VB of SnO<sub>2</sub> to PbS. Consequently, electrons and holes are effectively separated, and CB electrons of both PbS and SnO<sub>2</sub> react with oxygen to generate O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> radicals. The VB holes of SnO<sub>2</sub> and PbS create OH<sup>•</sup> radicals by OH<sup>-</sup> (Fig. 12 (a)). In the case of the rPS catalyst, the electrons from the CB of PbS and SnO<sub>2</sub> move to rGO sheets, which can prolong the e<sup>-</sup>/h<sup>+</sup> recombination rate, and the dye solution tested with the rPS catalyst contains a huge number of free carriers which generate more O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> and OH<sup>•</sup> radicals which convert the toxic dye molecules into CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O; thereby demineralizing them (Fig. 12 (b)).

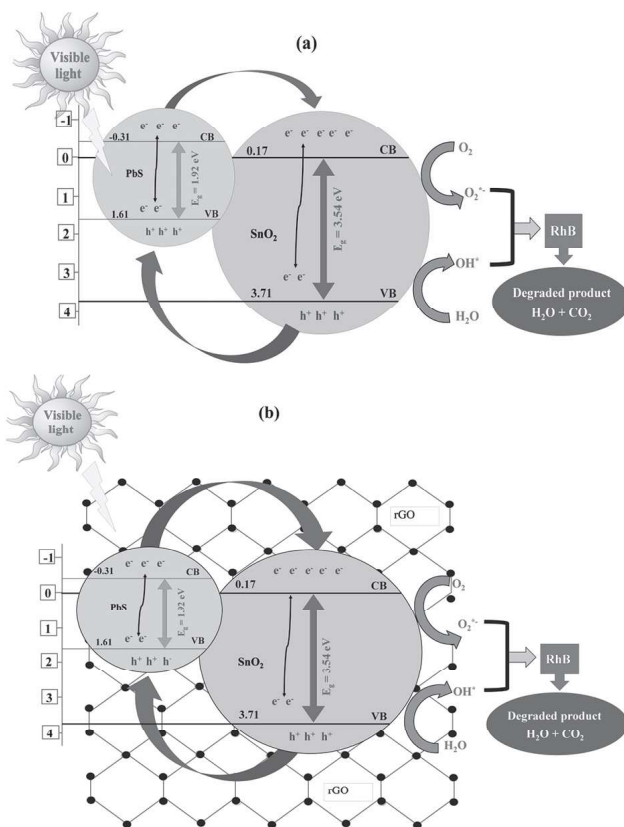


Fig.12 Photocatalytic mechanism involved with (a) PS and (b) rPS

### 3.7 Antibacterial studies

Figure 13 (a, b) depicts the antibacterial activities of PS and rPS, while Table 3 presents the zone of inhibition values.



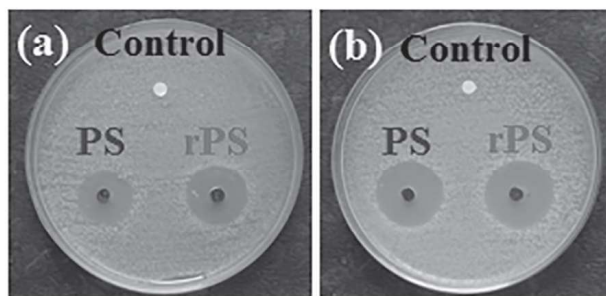


Fig.13 PS and rPS' bacterial suppression activity against  
a) *E. coli* and b) *S. aureus*

ZOI (mm)					
<i>E. coli</i>			<i>S. aureus</i>		
Control	PS	rPS	Control	PS	rPS
2	13	18	3	14	24

Table 3: ZOI values of control (Amkacin), PS and rPS

Both PS and rPS NCs exhibit better antibacterial activity than the control. PS and rPS NCs may exert antibacterial properties due to their internalization into the bacteria's cells via ion channels or proteins in the well of the cell, as well as reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation [31]. By oxidizing membrane lipids, ROS generation dysfunctions the cell wall and bacterial rupture [1]. As a general rule, ROS damages DNA, abasic sites, cell walls, and oxidized base lesions, breaks single and double strands, and oxidizes proteins and lipids, which alter cellular signal transduction pathways and lead to cell death [43]. By denaturing the proteins on the outer surface of the cell membrane, ROS, besides released metal ions, damages it by attracting the thiol groups [44]. The increased antibacterial efficiency realized for the rPS nanocomposite might be due to the following reasons: Upon coming into contact with the bacterial strains, the rGO wraps around the microbial membranes, allowing the hydrophilic moieties to form hydrogen bonds with the bacterial liposaccharides through delocalized conjugated  $\pi$ - $\pi$  domains [45]. rGO-based NC can effectively resist bacterial strains by activating the mitochondrial pathway, which causes the mitochondria to lose their membrane potential and increases ROS generation [44]. ROS generation is also enhanced due to a reduced band gap. rGO's high specific surface

area promotes bacterial lipopolysaccharide adsorption to rPS NC via hydrogen bonding and Vander Waal's force, which releases more  $Pb^{2+}$  and  $Sn^{2+}$  ions, and the antibacterial activity of rPS NC was enhanced [46]. Compared to *E. coli* bacteria, both PS and rPS NCs showed effective resistance against *S. aureus* bacteria as it contain a thick peptidoglycan layer without an outer lipid membrane, which eases the entry of NPs inside the cell [47]. In gram -ve bacteria, the peptidoglycan layer is thin with an outer lipid membrane that restricts the entry of NPs, thereby reducing ROS production, and hence, bacterial growth inhibition nature is limited [48].

#### 4. Conclusion

A single-pot synthesis approach was used to create rGO-PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> (rPS) NC by reducing graphene oxide with *Psidium guajava* leaf extract. This composite was investigated and compared to PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> (PS) NC synthesized via chemical precipitation for dye degradation and bacterial growth inhibition. The PS XRD pattern's cubic-shaped PbS and tetragonal-shaped SnO<sub>2</sub> peaks moved towards higher 2θ values upon the inclusion of rGO. rGO blending increased the crystallite size of PS from 29 to 34 nm. Pb-S and Sn-O related peaks observed in the FTIR spectra of both PS and rPS confirmed composite formation between them. Compared to PS, the rPS NC exhibited continuous absorbance in the visible region making it effective to utilize more visible light. After 100 minutes of light irradiation, the photodegradation effectiveness of PS against *RhB* dye rose from 82.5% to 93% with the addition of rGO. The bacterial growth inhibition zone value of PS improved with rGO blending. By wrapping microbial membranes and generating more ROS by inactivating the membrane potential of mitochondria, rGO makes PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite to inhibit the growth of the tested pathogens. These outcomes clearly indicated that rGO blended PbS/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite could be an effective candidate for catalytic and biomedical applications.

#### Declaration of Conflict of Interest

No conflict of interest exists in the article.

### *Authors' contributions*

**“Conceptualization** - A.R. Balu; **Methodology** - C. Rajashree; **Formal analysis and investigation** - M. Sriramraj; **Writing - original draft preparation** - N. Arunkumar; **Writing - review and editing** - A.R. Balu; **Funding acquisition** - K. Devendran; **Interpretation of data** - V. Rajamani, A. Vinith. All the authors read and approved the final manuscript.”

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