

Review Paper:

Green Horizons: Unveiling the Green Alchemy of Biogenic Synthesis, Structural Insights and Applications of Copper Oxide Nanoparticles

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Abstract

Nanotechnology has attracted considerable attention from researchers over the years, driven by the distinctive physicochemical properties and versatile applications it offers. Green synthesis, an evolving multidisciplinary field, has gained prominence due to its unique attributes including non-toxicity, cleanliness and environmental friendliness qualities that differentiate it from conventional physical and chemical nanoparticle synthesis methods. Among metal nanoparticles, copper oxide has become a focal point, presenting intriguing opportunities in various applications.

This review examines the biogenic synthesis of copper oxide nanoparticles using plants and microorganisms, delving into the associated procedures for synthesizing the nanoparticles and the various characterization techniques employed. The review also discusses key applications. It outlines potential avenues for future research to advance the synthesis process.

Keywords: Copper oxide nanoparticles, Biological synthesis, Biomedical application, Toxicity.

Introduction

Nanotechnology has been extensively researched in recent years and has emerged as an important field in physics, chemistry, engineering, biotechnology, food technology and medical sciences. Its innumerable applications have had a significant impact on all forms of life^{1,6}. The size of these nanomaterials ranges from 1–100nm. Due to its specific properties, such as reactivity, surface area, conductivity and hardness, it is different from bulk materials¹². As the nanomaterials have a high surface area (surface-to-volume ratio), it has properties like surface plasmon resonance and quantum effects⁵⁴. The synthesis method will play a significant role in the size and characteristics of the nanoparticles.

The top-down and bottom-up approaches are the two major synthesis methods⁶⁶. Laser ablation, sonication, physical vapor deposition and mechanical milling are some of the physical techniques used for the top-down approach. The bulk materials are converted into nanoparticles by using the above physical methods⁶⁵. However, these methods took a

lot of time to synthesize the nanoparticles and there is no even distribution²³. Another method of producing nanoparticles is bottom-up synthesis, which involves using chemical processes like the sol-gel technique, chemical co-precipitation and chemical vapor deposition to build them at the molecular level.

In this process, hydrazine, sodium dodecyl sulfate and sodium borohydride are used as reducing agents. But the reducing agent usage will lead to harmful byproduct production. This restricts them from the usage^{40,113}. The difficulties in the synthesis process create a demand for the synthesis of an environmentally friendly bottom-up approach. The green synthesis method is the one that fulfills the demand of a bottom-up approach⁹⁶. This green synthesis uses the plant extract, a culture of microorganisms such as algae, bacteria and fungi. This method has advantages like being safe, eco-friendly and less expensive, as it does not lead to the formation of undesirable side products⁴⁵. The metabolites derived from microorganisms and plants were used as capping and reducing agents in the green synthesis method¹²⁵.

Recently, researchers have evaluated various techniques to synthesize both organic and inorganic nanoparticles (NPs). Nanoparticles of Copper, silver, gold and zinc, due to their combination of unique characteristics and low toxic effects, present excellent potential for a wide range of applications. Copper oxide nanoparticles (CuO NPs) find widespread use in biotechnology, textiles and cosmetics, owing to their distinctive structure, large surface area, robust mechanical and thermal strength, as well as their optimal optical, magnetic and catalytic capabilities¹². As indicated by literature findings, copper oxide nanoparticles have the potential to serve as alternatives to metals in various processes, encompassing inkjet printing, thermal transfer, gas-phase catalysis, electrocatalysis and photo-catalysis¹⁰¹.

Studies have shown that the synergistic action of bioactive compounds derived from medicinal plants with copper oxide nanoparticles (CuO NPs) is advantageous in combating infections and exhibits cytotoxicity against cancer cells^{73,101}. A comprehensive outline on the environmentally friendly production of CuO NPs from different sources such as phytosynthesis and microbial synthesis, provided elaborated view on parameters that affect the physicochemical characteristics of synthesized CuO NPs, with its potential applications in the biomedical field. Though the CuO NPs

show advantages in different ways, it is necessary to point out their toxicity. This study also shows the toxicity of CuO NPs towards the environment and living organisms.

Biological synthesis of CuO NPs

Synthesis of nanoparticles consists of two different methods such as conventional method (physical and chemical methods of preparation of nanoparticles) which is a top down approach where the large particles are converted into fine particles using physical method and biological synthesis methods (plants and microbes are used for the production of nanoparticles) which is mostly bottom up approach, here the atoms or molecules self-assembled together to produce nanoparticles⁵². In conventional chemical methods, the ratio between precursor, solvent and reducing agent is maintained to get optimized morphology for the synthesized nanomaterials. This technique is very sensitive to water and air media because of the highly oxidizing nature of the nanoparticle.

Employing either an acidic substance or energy sources, the physical method involves reducing large particles into smaller pieces in extremely fine particles through milling. The most illustrative example of a physical approach is the grinding process, which uses extremely effective mills to separate particles with nanometric sizes¹⁷. In the biological synthesis method as in fig. 1, the green sources of nanoparticle synthesis used in the biological synthesis of nanoparticles are plant extracts, bacteria, algae and fungi. Comparing these conventional and biological methods, the biological method is biocompatible, less toxic and environmentally friendly method for the production of nanoparticles⁵².

Phytosynthesis of CuO NPs: The process of synthesizing nanoparticles using the extracts of plants, plant parts, or algae is known as "green synthesis." Because it is non-toxic to humans, animals and the environment, it is a highly significant process⁹². The majority of a plant's parts, including the foliage, seeds, berries and peel, consist of chemicals that scavenge free radicals, nitrogen compounds, terpenoids and molecules filled with antioxidants that function as reducing agents¹²⁴. In this process, plant matter is utilized either in its air-dried or freeze-dried form, before undergoing processing to produce extract^{69,127}. In a few instances, extracts are also made of fresh leaves and used for biosynthesis. Visual confirmation of the production of this metal oxide was obtained by watching a shift in solution color¹⁰⁴.

The copper oxide nanoparticles were prepared from various plant parts. The leaf extract was prepared from oven-dried leaves⁵⁶. The fruit extract was obtained just by squeezing the pulp and filtered with muslin cloths, followed by Whatmann no. 1 filter paper⁸⁹. The fresh leaves extract was obtained by boiling it in deionized water at the appropriate temperature, which is further used for nanoparticle preparation¹⁸. For the synthesis of rind, seed and peel extract, these portions were

dried in sunlight or in an oven, then crushed and added to boiling distilled water.

The prepared extracts were then added to the precursor solution at high temperatures^{15,39}. In the case of fruits, the extract can also be prepared by both soaking the fresh fruit pulp in deionized water and homogenizing using an electric blender, as well as adding the dried and crushed fruit pulp to the boiling water⁷². The roots were collected, cleaned and shredded. These were shade-dried for one week to remove the moisture content present in them. This dried powder is added to fresh water and can also be added to boiling water to get the extract²⁷.

Microbial synthesis: Microbes like bacteria, fungi and yeast are frequently used in the extracellular or intracellular procedures for the manufacture of nanoparticles. In case of microbial synthesis, secondary metabolites, reductase enzymes, peptides, amino acids and biomolecules produced by the microorganisms serve as reducing agents for the production of CuO NPs¹¹². The cells are cultivated in the right medium under suitable conditions and then extracted by centrifugation or filtering to eliminate the microorganisms¹¹⁰. The enzymes produced by the microorganisms also help in synthesizing the nanoparticles with enhanced stability and minimized aggregation by functioning as a capping agent. The enzymes in the medium take up the metal ions and use them as reducing agents during intracellular microbial production.

The necessary concentration of copper precursor was next added to the supernatant of the cell-free solution, which was subsequently incubated under ideal circumstances in the dark. The visible color change confirms the development of copper oxide nanoparticles^{108,115}. Microorganisms accumulate reduced metal precursors as nanoparticles in their cytoplasmic membrane, cell wall and cytoplasm²⁶. According to recent studies, the cofactor known as Nicotinamide Adenine Dinucleotide Hydrogen (NADH) and its associated enzymes may have a role in the creation of nanoparticles. When copper precursors are reduced to generate copper oxide nanoparticles, the NADH reductase enzyme helps with the electron transfer from NADH¹⁴.

Characterization methods of synthesized nanoparticles

Perceptible observation: After production, there are numerous approaches to examine whether nanoparticles are present. Before endeavoring to characterize something with a different analytical approach, this provides a simpler road⁵⁹. The precursor solution's obvious color change is the earliest sign that copper oxide nanoparticles have been created⁵⁹. The salt and concentration have an impact on the basic precursor hue. The precursor solution's color changes, followed by precipitation, signify the creation of particles⁷. The particle's color changes visibly as it accumulates, mostly it could be a brownish color³⁷.

Table 1
Phytosynthesis of copper oxide nanoparticles

Name of the Plant	Precursor Salt used	Size and Shape of the Nanoparticle	Reaction Time
Parts of the plant: Leaves			
<i>Hagenia abyssinica (Brace) JF. Gmel.</i> ⁷³	Copper (II) nitrate trihydrate	Hexagonal, cylindrical, triangular and prismatic shapes	24 h
<i>Catha edulis</i> ⁸	Copper (II) nitrate trihydrate	Spherical	Not mentioned
<i>Enicostemma axillare (Lam.)</i> ¹⁸	Copper sulfate	Average size of 6.44nm	24 h
<i>Ziziphus Mauritiana</i> ⁸⁵	Copper acetate monohydrate	Spherical shape and 20-45nm	30 min
<i>Punica granatum</i> ⁸⁶	Copper sulfate	Mostly Spherical and some Porous (40 and 78 nm)	12, 24 and 36 h
<i>Cissus quadrangularis</i> ³⁰	Copper acetate	Spherically sphere	2 h
<i>Convolvulus percicus L</i> ⁴³	Copper (II) sulphate pentahydrate	Crystal structure with spherical shape	10 min
<i>Tinospora cordifolia</i> ¹¹⁹	Copper nitrate trihydrate	Crystalline, 6–8 nm.	5min.
<i>Eichhornia crassipes</i> ¹²¹	Copper sulphate	Spherical	7-8 h
<i>Tinospora cordifolia</i> ⁹⁰	Copper (II) sulphate pentahydrate	Spherical, with an average particle size of 15 to 70 nm	2 h
<i>Simarouba glauca</i> ⁵¹	Copper (II) nitrate trihydrate	Spherical and rod-like nanostructures	1h
<i>Cedrus deodara</i> ⁹⁵	Copper (II) sulphate pentahydrate	Agglomerated and formed larger grains / Spherical	5 days in the dark
<i>Cissus quadrangularis</i> and <i>Piper betle</i> ⁵³	Copper (II) sulphate pentahydrate	Spherical and size increases as the concentration of the plant extract increases	1 Day
<i>Morinda citrifolia</i> ²⁸	Copper (II) sulphate pentahydrate	Crystalline	Not specified
<i>Ginkgo biloba L</i> ⁴⁴	Copper sulfate	Short rod	Not specified
<i>Mussaenda frondosa L.</i> ⁷⁰	Copper (II) nitrate trihydrate	Spherical crystalline/rod-shaped	Not specified
<i>Catharanthus Roseus</i> ²⁷	Copper (II) sulphate pentahydrate	Orthorhombic in structure, with crystalline sizes of 43.7 nm	Not specified
<i>Cinnamomum malabatum</i> ⁶²	Copper(II) nitrate trihydrate	The average grain size was estimated to be about 17nm.	1 h at 85°C using a magnetic stirrer
<i>Azadirachta indica</i> ⁷⁶	Copper chloride solution	Cubical in shape, with an average size of 48 nm	15min
Parts of the plant: Peel			
<i>Punica granatum</i> fruit ³⁹	Copper(II) Acetate Monohydrate	Crystalline & 40nm average size	5 min
<i>Musa paradisiaca</i> ⁶	Copper nitrate trihydrate	Spherical 50-85nm	2h
<i>Citrus limetta</i> ⁸³	CuSO ₄ solution	Particle sizes measured from SEM ranged from 90-175 nm	20 min
<i>Punica granatum</i> ³⁵	Copper chloride	Cube-like, rod-like and spherical-like structures	30 min
<i>Citrus sinensis</i> , <i>Citrus limon</i> and <i>Citrus tangerina</i> ¹¹⁸	Copper nitrate trihydrate	Rod and spherical	30 min
Parts of the plant: Fruits			
<i>Citrus limon</i> ⁸⁹	CuSO ₄	Spherical and rod-shaped	1 h
Freshly excised seedless <i>Phoenix dactylifera</i> ⁷²	Copper sulfate pentahydrate	Spherical shape	5 min

<i>Crataegus monogyna</i> Jacq. ³¹	Copper sulfate or Copper(II) Acetate Monohydrate	Spherical morphology	3 h	
<i>Quercus pinus</i> ¹⁰⁹	Copper (II) acetate monohydrate	Quasi-spherical 40nm	4 h	
<i>Citrus limon</i> ⁵	Copper sulfate pentahydrate	Spherical shape with an average diameter of 28 nm.	4 h	
<i>Tamarindus indica</i> L ¹²⁹	Copper chloride solution	Smaller in size (5–10 nm)	12 h	
<i>Capparis spinosa</i> ⁶⁸	Copper sulfate solution	Spherical morphology and the size of the particles were measured between 17 and 41 nm	24 h	
<i>Piper retrofractum</i> ³	Copper sulfate	Spherical with a particle size of 2–10 nm,	60 min	
<i>Carica papaya</i> ⁸⁷	Copper (II) nitrate trihydrate	Spherical in shape	2 h	
<i>Opuntia ficus</i> ⁷⁴	Copper sulfate	Spherical	24 h	
Parts of the plant: Flowers				
<i>Euphorbia pulcherrima</i> ⁹⁹	Cupric acetate	Average particle size of 19.2 nm	2 h	
<i>Bougainvillea glabra</i> ¹⁰⁶	Copper acetate monohydrate	Crystalline size 18 nm	2 min	
<i>Stachys lavandulifolia</i> ⁵⁸	Copper chloride solution	Spherical 80nm	Not specified	
<i>Magnolia Champaca</i> ¹⁰²	Copper acetate aqueous	Spherical shape and agglomerated	24 h	
<i>Lantana camara</i> ²¹	Copper (II) acetate	Spherical shape	2 h	
<i>Caesalpinia pulcherrima</i> ⁶⁴	Copper (II) nitrate hydrate	Spherical 18-20nm	20 min	
Parts of the plant: Seeds and Root				
<i>Triticum aestivum</i> ¹⁵	Root	Copper (II) sulfate pentahydrate	Spherical shape	30 min
<i>Rheum palmatum</i> L. ¹³	Seed	Copper chloride solution	Spherical	2 h
<i>Krameria sp. (Rhatay)</i> ²	Seed	Copper (II) sulfate pentahydrate	Spherical to oval with 5.2 to 7.7 nm in size	3hrs
<i>Caesalpinia bonducella</i> ¹¹⁴	Root	Cupric nitrate trihydrate	Rice-grain-shaped	7 h
Parts of the plant: Others				
<i>Channa striatus</i> ²⁰	Mucus	Copper acetate	Spherical	3 h
<i>Parthenium hysterophorus</i> ⁸⁴	Whole plant aqueous extract	Copper (II) sulphate	59.99 nm with spherical	15 min
<i>Bergenia ciliata</i> ³²	Rhizomes	Copper (II) sulfate pentahydrate	The average size of cuo nps was measured to be about 20 nm.	Not specified
<i>Euphorbia maculata</i> ¹	Fresh aerial parts	Copper (II) sulfate pentahydrate	Not conducted	2 h
<i>Syzygium alternifolium</i> ¹²⁸	Stem bark	Copper (II) sulfate pentahydrate	Spherical in shape & 5 to 13 nm	2 h
<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. ⁹⁸	Broccoli	Copper(II) Acetate Monohydrate	26 nm more or less uniform shape, but varying in size and also no aggregation is seen.	1h
<i>Corallocarbus epigaeus</i> ¹⁰⁵	Rhizome	Copper sulfate	Spherical	12 h
<i>Moringa oleifera</i> ⁹⁴	Raw gum	Copper chloride solution	Small needle-like structures	1h
<i>Allium sativum</i> ¹²³	Garlic	Copper nitrate	Spherical, circular, rectangular and oval-shaped surface morphologies are defined	2–3 h.

<i>Agaricus bisporus</i> ¹¹¹	Mushroom	Copper nitrate	Spherical-shaped particles with a minor agglomeration size of 10 nm	24 h
<i>Curcuma longa</i> ⁵⁰	Tubers	Copper acetate dihydrate	Spherical in shape and crystalline in nature, with average sizes between 5 - 25 nm	4 h
<i>Camellia sinensis assamica</i> ³⁴	Powder	Copper nitrate trihydrate	Spherical (35-65nm)	12 h
<i>Saccharum officinarum</i> ⁹	Stem (juice)	Copper nitrate	Spherical, square, cube, plate, rectangular - 84.40 nm	8 h
<i>Pterocarpus marsupium</i> ³⁸	Wood	Copper (II) sulfate pentahydrate	Spherical 20nm-50nm	10min

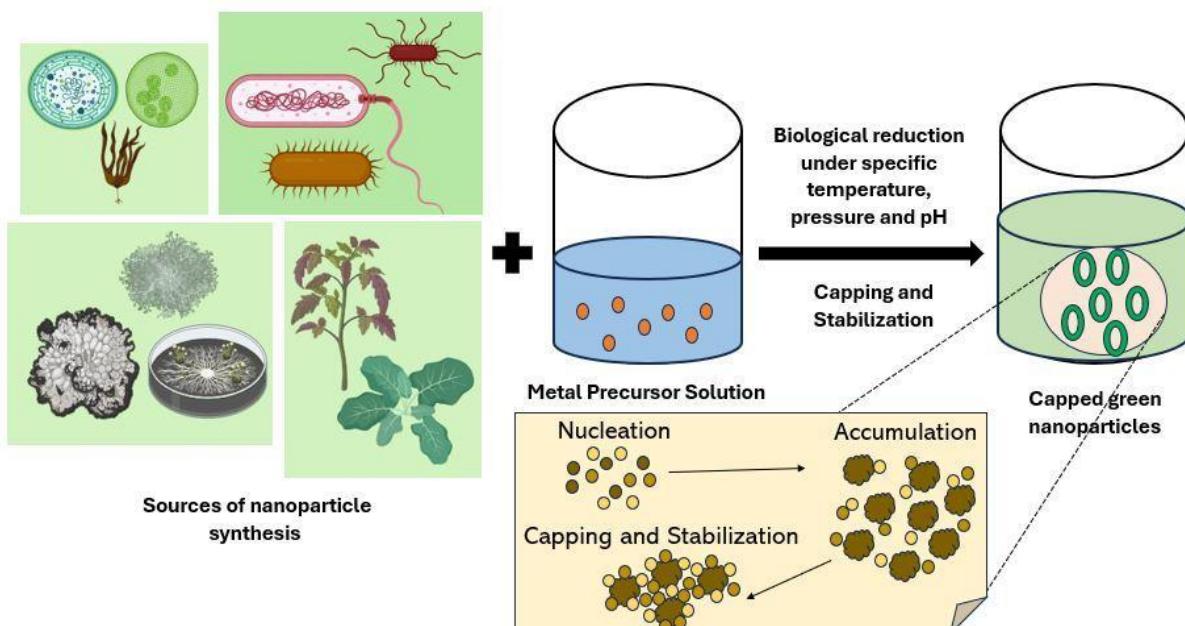


Figure 1: Biological synthesis of nanoparticles using plant extract, algae, fungi and bacteria.

UV-Visible spectroscopy: Copper oxide nanoparticles may be quickly and easily characterized using UV-visible spectroscopy¹²⁶. Through the action of surface plasmon resonance, the nanoparticles exhibit a high absorption peak in the UV-visible spectral range³³. The free electrons found on the outermost layer of metal resonate with the surface plasmon oscillation at a particular wavelength, giving rise to the distinct peak for each distinct metal nanoparticle¹¹⁷. In green synthesis, the reduction of copper precursors by plant extract with phytochemical substances boosts the development of nanoparticles as well as the absorption value⁴⁷. The maximum peak of copper oxide nanoparticles exhibits UV-visible spectroscopy between 200 to 290 nm^{41,61}.

X-ray diffraction: The diffraction of X-rays can be used to identify the phase, chemical composition and crystalline form of the nanoparticles. Every particle has a unique diffraction pattern, which is the fundamental tenet of XRD⁸². The broadening of diffraction lines is influenced by the size of particles and it was shown as peaks in XRD⁸⁸. Copper oxide nanoparticles that have formed common peaks with 2θ values in their XRD pattern at 32.1°, 35.2°, 39.5°, 49.5°, 53.2°, 62.3°, 67.2°, 68.5° and 75.2° correspond to the (110),

(002), (111), (202), (020), (113), (311), (220) and (222) planes respectively¹³⁰. The diffraction pattern indicates that all CuO NPs peaks possess a monoclinic crystal arrangement²⁵.

Infrared spectroscopy: In the technique of Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), substances are scanned at ambient temperature in the 4000–400 cm⁻¹ range to determine their composition. The numerous functional groups arising from the plant or microbial metabolites linked to the nanoparticles as capping agents are shown by the change in the FT-IR spectra. FTIR analysis was used to look at the surface-attached functional components of biomolecules acting as capping/stabilizing reagents on CuO NPs. Peaks were discernible at 3573 cm⁻¹, 3300 cm⁻¹, 2093 cm⁻¹, 1612 cm⁻¹, 1379 cm⁻¹, 887 cm⁻¹, 693 cm⁻¹ in the CuO NPs FTIR spectrum.

Based on the recognized peaks, it can be deduced that the broad CuO NP absorption peaks at 3573 cm⁻¹ and 3300 cm⁻¹ are signs of O-H stretching and vibration. The peak at 1612 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the vibrations caused by the stretching of C=C. The peaks at 1379 cm⁻¹ are present in the substances having C=H bending vibration.

Table 2
Microbial synthesis of copper oxide nanoparticles

Name of the Microbe	Bacteria/Fungi /Yeast/Algae	Location (Intracellular/ Extracellular)	Size and Shape of the Nanoparticle	Reaction Time	Precursor Salt used
<i>Streptomyces</i> MHM38 ¹⁶	Bacteria	Extracellular	Spherical	90 min	CuSO ₄
<i>Penicillium aurantiogriseum</i> , <i>Penicillium citrinum</i> ⁴²	Fungus	Extracellular	Spherical	24 h	CuSO ₄
<i>Macrocytis pyrifera</i> ¹⁰	Algae	Extracellular	Spherical nanostructures	24 h	CuSO ₄ (100 mM)
<i>Lactobacillus casei</i> subsp. <i>Casei</i> ⁶⁰	Bacteria	Extracellular	Spherical	48h	CuSO ₄ (1mM)
<i>Aspergillus flavus</i> ¹¹	Fungus	Extracellular	Spherical, 20nm	24h	CuSO _{4.5H2O}
<i>Trichoderma asperellum</i> ¹⁰³	Fungus	Not mentioned	Spherical 110nm	120 min	(Cu(NO ₃) ₂ .3H ₂ O
<i>Stereum hirsutum</i> ²⁴	Native white-rot fungus	Extracellular	Spherical and 4-5 nm	7 days	CuSO ₄ , Cu(NO ₃) ₂ and CuCl ₂
<i>Escherichia coli</i> ¹⁰⁸	Bacteria	Extracellular	Spherical, 10 – 40nm	42 h	CuSO ₄ (0.001M)
<i>Lactobacillus casei</i> subsp. ⁶⁰	Bacteria	Not mentioned	Spherical, 30 - 75 nm	48 h	CuSO ₄ (1mM)
Actinomycetota ⁷⁵	Actinomycetes	Not mentioned	61.7 nm, agglomerated clusters	15 min	10 mM (CuSO _{4.5H2O})

The band between 600 cm⁻¹ to 400 cm⁻¹ exhibits the metal-oxide (CuO) vibration, which is consistent with the existence of CuO NP. The functional groups seem to be crucial in the formation of the copper oxide nanoparticles because they provide reducing compounds that facilitate the development of nanoparticles^{11,48,63}.

Electron microscopy: The morphological characteristics (dimensions and form) and size dispersion of the copper oxide nanoparticles are defined using the Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) and Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) techniques⁹⁷. Even though one can determine the size range by electron microscopy, one should still correlate the results to the average size estimated through XRD analysis. The nanoparticle size ranges between 6 nm to 32 nm. To ascertain the elemental compositions and quantify the produced nanoparticles, Energy dispersive X-ray analysis (EDX) or spectroscopy (EDS) can be used in conjunction with electron microscopy examination.

Atoms that reside on the surface of the nanomaterial are attacked by the SEM's electron beam¹²⁰. The excited atom releases X-rays and these rays' wavelengths are unique to particular elements. These distinctive X-rays are examined by a particular detector that is able to interpret them. Thus, the purity and quantity of copper, as well as various particle compositions, such as impurities or plant substances, can be examined using EDX in conjunction with SEM¹⁰⁷.

Process parameters effects

The extensive study of the physicochemical characteristics of nanoparticles is crucial for the characterization evaluation of copper oxide nanoparticles. The key parameters that

affect the properties of the nanoparticles are the synthesis circumstances including the amount of the copper precursor, response time, temperature and extract concentration. Gaining awareness of these physicochemical characteristics is vital. The range of temperatures between 20 °C and 100 °C is crucial for the formation of nanoparticles^{31,99}. In some instances, the nanoparticles are created at room temperature while being stirred continuously⁷³.

The development was aided by the foliage, peel and rind extracts being heated to a temperature of 100 °C^{86,106}. This difference in both time and temperature has a significant impact on the nanoparticle's size and morphology as well as the antioxidant properties of plant extracts, which subsequently impact the speed of synthesis². The precursors widely used for the production of copper oxide nanoparticles are copper nitrate, copper sulphate, copper acetate, copper chloride^{29,30,49,58}. Mostly 0.1 M of precursor concentration is used for the synthesis of spherical-shaped nanoparticles^{20,36}. The size of the nanoparticles can be tuned by optimizing the concentration and reaction hours. The improper optimization of precursor concentration will lead to the aggregation of particles, which will increase the size of the nanoparticles. The copper oxide nanoparticles prepared using 1 M of copper sulphate precursor also show spherical-shaped particles with particular sizes of 15 to 40 nm⁹⁰.

Applications

Copper oxide nanoparticles are versatile by the environment and play a significant role in a variety of processes such as catalytic breakdown, photocatalytic degradation, cancer-fighting properties⁶⁷, antiviral activity, creation of biofilm, nitrate elimination, success against human pathogens,

photoluminescent activities and catalytic activity for the decomposition of organic dyes and antibiotics among others⁸⁴. CuO NPs prepared from *Syzygium aromaticum* showed a strong fungicidal impact on *Penicillium spp.* Microorganisms and a strong antibacterial effect on *Bacillus sp*⁹³. Even though CuO NPs act against some strains such as *Salmonella typhi*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Propionibacterium acnes*. Among those, *Escherichia coli* was more inhibited by CuO NPs¹¹⁶. Additionally, the cytotoxic and antioxidant functions of CuO NPs were utilized²². For the Huisgen [3 + 2] reaction, CuO NPs green generated from *Ginkgo biloba L.* leaf extract were used as a catalyst⁷⁸. CuO NPs created using the fruit extract from *Z. spina-christi* turned out to be an efficient nano-adsorbent for removing crystal violet from a water-based solution⁵⁷.

CuO NPs made from oak fruit hull extract successfully catalyzed the breakdown of basic violet-3 dye in aqueous solution³⁴. Additionally, the CuO nanoparticles produced from the extract of *Drypetes sepiaria* show greater photocatalyst activity towards the degradation of Congo red⁷⁷. The *Aglaia elaeagnoidea* flower extract was utilized to create CuO nanoparticles, which turned out to be an effective catalyst for the oxidation of Congo red, methylene blue and 4-nitrophenol⁷¹. The catalytic application that works CuO's function as a catalyst, can be attributed to its great surface-to-volume ratio and numerous sites of activity. The particles were discovered to be arylation reaction nano-catalysts¹²² and photocatalysts for Congo red and Coomassie brilliant blue R-250 dye breakdown along the same lines¹⁰⁰.

CuO NPs were found to be catalytically effective for the production of propargyl amines through the aldehyde-amine-alkyne (A3) coupling process and the Ullmann-coupling reaction respectively. These NPs were created by combining water-soluble extracts of *Anthemis nobilis* flowers⁷⁹, *Thymus vulgaris L.* leaves⁸¹ and *Euphorbia esula L.*⁸¹. *Saraca indica* leaves produced CuO particles with photoluminescent application⁹¹. Copper oxide nanoparticles and nano-biocomposites made from sources such as animals and plants have been shown to have potential uses in electronic devices¹⁹. CuO NPs made from *Punica granatum* peel extract have shown substantial antibacterial suppression against microorganisms⁵⁵. In general, botanical extracts have been used in the environmentally friendly production of CuO nanoparticles for uses like catalysis, antibacterial action (urinary tract), photocatalysis, antioxidants and the breakdown of chemical dyes.

Potential Toxicities and Future Scope

CuO nanoparticles primarily cause oxidative stress induction and ROS production as their toxicological mechanisms. CuO NPs produce direct toxicity by initiating the generation of ROS and indirect toxicity by inducing a redox system in the cell that triggers the formation of ROS. CuO NPs associate with the acidic lysosome environment or with mitochondria, which are oxidative organelles, upon

penetration through any route of exposure (respiration, consumption, or skin). This leads to ROS generation, which is a compelling reason for the toxicity associated with CuO NPs. Copper oxide nanoparticles, after being discharged into nature, find their way into surface and ground waterways. When soil particles adsorb onto the surface of organic matter and other soil constituents, a fraction of the liberated copper oxide nanoparticles settle in the soil.

CuO NPs undergo ecological change as they move through the environment, which drastically alters their intrinsic physicochemical characteristics. It is probable that the produced toxicities will change if the physicochemical characteristics of copper oxide nanoparticles alter. Developing risk assessment techniques is crucial in order to figure out how to lessen exposure to copper oxide nanoparticles in order to lessen the risks related to the release into the environment. Knowing the precise harmful modes of activity of copper oxide nanoparticles will enhance their utility as drug delivery systems for cancer therapy and as antimicrobial substances in the future.

Conclusion

Biological approaches for the synthesis of copper oxide nanoparticles are meticulously crafted to yield products that are not only non-toxic and environmentally friendly but also economically viable. Consequently, these nanoparticles have gained substantial attention in diverse sectors including biomedical, environmental and agricultural fields. This review provides insights into the biogenic technology-mediated techniques employed in copper oxide nanoparticle production. The manipulation of various factors allows for the adjustment of the size and shape of the nanoparticles, addressing concerns related to stability.

Ongoing research focuses on identifying specific biomolecules within plant extracts that act as both reducing and capping agents, aiming to enhance the efficiency of copper oxide nanoparticle synthesis. Additionally, in-depth investigations into optimal concentrations of plant extracts contribute to refining synthesis methods. A comprehensive understanding of the copper oxide nanoparticle production process is pivotal for optimizing their applications in vital fields such as biomedicine and agriculture.

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