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Eco-friendly auto-combustion synthesis and characterization of SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites in the presence of saccharides and their application as photocatalyst for degradation of water-soluble organic pollutants

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ABSTRACT

Organic dyes as major effluents from a variety of industries have been introduced as unwanted pollutions of the environment. In this study, UV-light-driven SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites were fabricated through eco-friendly carbohydrate sugars-based auto-combustion route. A number of different saccharides were selected as both fuel and capping agent to detect the uniformity, structure, morphology, and dimension of the products. Successful realization of field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analyses over the samples showed that the presence of maltose can provide a morphologically desirable sample. To have the best photocatalytic ability of the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites, the degradation rate of simulation wastewaters containing Rhodamine B (RhB), Erythrosine (EY), Methyl violet (MV) and Methyl orange (MO) in 10 ppm was investigated under UV light. Considering MO as suitable pollutant model, the highest efficiency was obtained to be 72.24% for samples synthesized in the presence of maltose. The dye-degradation mechanism confirmed the h⁺, and $^{\bullet}O_{\overline{2}}$ as key species involved in photo-reaction. These compounds were also detected to be reusable.

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1. Introduction

In general, population growth with the advancement of different industries has led to the release of wastewater including harmful and damaging pollutants such as chemical dyes and phenolic compounds into the environment (Sajadi et al., 2020; Verma et al., 2022; Yadav et al., 2022). Since these organic components have little biodegradability, the discharge of wastewater containing toxic organic pollutants such as Erythrosine (Honarmand et al., 2020), Methylene blue, Eriochrome lack T, Acid red 14 (Sadegh et al., 2020), Methyl Orange, Malachite Green and Rho-

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damine B (Ji et al., 2021) leads to harmful effects on the environment and person life (Verma et al., 2023). Therefore, it is generally accepted that a dye is the primary factor of pollutants that are challenging to analyze (Yadav et al., 2022). Among a number of techniques, photocatalysis has gained enormous popularity in terms of the elimination of harmful pollutants like dyes (Piao et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2019a; Zinatloo-Ajabshir and Mousavi-Kamazani, 2021). In this manner, with the rising interest into the removal of hazardous pollutants, the development of semiconductor-based heterogeneous catalysts have gained considerable attention to initiate photocatalytic performance (Wu et al., 2019). Perovskites type oxides, AMnO₃, has been recently used owing to their unique properties, including ferroelectricity, magneto-resistance, and, multiferroicity (Romaguera-Barcelay et al., 2021). Perovskites, especially $REMnO_3$ (RE = rare-earth ions) has been accepted in a variety of applications such as gas sensors (Zhang et al., 2019b), solid oxide fuel cells (Paul et al., 2023), lithium-ion batteries (Yue et al., 2019), photocatalysts (Xing et al., 2021), and magnetic memory devices (Gadani et al., 2017).

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Scheme 1. Schematic process of combustion synthesized Sm-Mn-O-based nanostructures in the presence of different carbohydrate sugars.

(**nm**)

Sample No.	Types of sugar	Average Crystallite size/XRD
Preparation conditi	ons for Sm-Mn-O nand	structures.
Table 1		

bumple no.	Types of sugar	Average erystame size/Map (init)
1	Glucose	21.08
2	Fructose	22.08
3	Maltose	10.79
4	Starch	14.34

The characteristics of this family are due to a stable combination of tunable crystal structures, oxygen mobility, redox behavior, and many more (Luo et al., 2019; Wahba et al., 2022). Among them, samarium manganite-based compounds (SmMnO₃) hold the advantages of its unique structure and good catalytic performance

in recent years. Unfortunately, it should be noted that the deep study on the photocatalysis performance of the SmMnO₃ structures has not been widely reported yet. Although, the needs for the examination of the photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutions over these compounds is necessary, designing SmMnO₃-based heterojunctions can exposes more active sites and develop the chemical reaction activity *via* the charge transfer characteristics. To the best of our knowledge, ternary SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites will be prepared by auto-combustion route using different carbohydrate sugars as fuel and capping agent for the first time. The spectroscopic and technological characterizations of composite samples have been evaluated by employing a series of analyses, such as XRD, SEM, EDS, FT-IR, TEM, BET, and DRS. Further, the synergistic effect between three distinct components and the possible mechanisms of the SmMnO₃/

Table 2

A comparison study on the photodegradation efficiency of different perovskite structures under UV light.

Photocatalyst	Method	Targeted Pollutants	Photodegradation time	Percentage%	Ref.
LaMnO ₃	sol-gel combustion	МО	36 h	76%	(Li et al., 2009)
YMnO ₃	Hydrothermal	MO	6 h	64.3%	(Kumar et al., 2019)
TbMnO ₃	hydrothermal	MO	6 h	69.3%	(Kumar et al., 2017)
DyCoO ₃	solution-polymerization	MG*	2 h	47%	(Michel et al., 2019)
TbFeO ₃	sonication	MO	2 h	40 ± 0.5	(Mehdizadeh et al., 2020)
SmMnO ₃ /Sm ₂ O ₃ /Mn ₂ O ₃	sol-gel combustion	MO	2 h	72.24%	This work

*Malachite Green.



Fig. 1. XRD patterns of auto-combustion synthesized Sm-Mn-O nanostructures in the presence of different sugars (a-d) the samples 1-4.



Fig. 2. FT-IR spectra of auto-combustion synthesized Sm-Mn-O nanostructures in the presence of different sugars (a-d) the samples 1-4.



Fig. 3. EDS spectrum of the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites prepared by employing maltose as fuel and capping agent (sample 3).

Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites were discussed by the photodegradation of organic dye pollutants in water under UV light.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

All the chemicals employed in this study were analytical grade and were applied without further purification. Samarium (III) nitrate hexahydrate (Sm(NO₃)₃·6H₂O(, manganese (II) nitrate tetrahydrate (Mn(NO₃).4H₂O(, glucose (C₆H₁₂O₆), maltose (C₁₂H₂₂O₁₁), fructose (C₆H₁₂O₆) and starch ((C₆H₁₀O₅)_n) were purchased from Merck Company. Also, benzoic acid (BA), ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), and 1,4-benzoquinone (BQ) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and applied without further purification.

2.2. Synthesis of samarium manganite nanostructures

In this study, the nano-sized samarium manganite perovskites were fabricated through an eco-friendly sol-gel auto combustion route (Scheme 1). As a first step, 1 mmol of $Sm(NO_3)_3 \cdot 6H_2O$ and 1 mmol of Mn(NO₃)₂·4H₂O were separately dissolved in 15 ml of distilled water to form a homogeneous solution. After that, 3 mmol of saccharides as fuel was liquefied in 15 ml of distilled water and next the homogenized solution was dropwise added to $Sm(NO_3)_3$ --6H₂O solution under magnetic stirring. Following 15 min of stirring and heating at 50 °C, the solution containing Mn (NO₃)₂·4H₂O was introduced drop-wise to the above solution. In this step, the temperature of the as-prepared mixture was raised to 120 °C for 90 min. Upon reaching the viscous solution, the reaction was completed. Lastly, the precipitate was dried in an oven at 70 °C and subsequently was calcined at 900 °C for 3 h. The presence of different saccharides as both fuel and capping agent was investigated for achieving the best product (Table 1).Table 2.

2.3. Physical instruments

An X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis was carried out on a Philips-X'pertpro, X-ray diffractometer using Cu K α monochromatized radiation (λ = 15.4 nm) to evaluate the crystal structure and phase

purity of the fabricated perovskites. Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM, Mira3 tescan) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEM-2100) were employed for the evaluation of microscopic morphology of the samples. The element composition of auto-combustion synthesized Sm-Mn-O nanostructures was registered via employing a Philips XL30 microscope equipped with energy dispersive spectrometry (EDS) analysis at 20 kV stimulating charge. Diffuse reflectance UV-vis spectroscopy was performed with a Shimadzu UV/3101 PC ranging from 200 and 900 nm. The magnetic nature was collected by a vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM) (Desert Precision Magnetism Company, Kashan Kavir, and Iran). Also, the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area of the optimized nano-photocatalyst was defined through N₂ adsorption (ADS)-desorption (DES) isotherms at -196 °C using an automatic gas adsorption analysis device (Tristar 3000, Micromeritics).

2.4. Photocatalytic tests

The Photocatalytic performance of as-prepared Sm-Mn-O nanostructures was evaluated by degradation of diverse contaminant models such as Rhodamine B (RhB), Erythrosine (EY), Methyl violet (MV) and Methyl orange (MO) at ambient conditions under UV light. The photocatalytic efficiencies of as-obtained nanopowders were explored in a closed cylindrical Pyrex reactor including the aqueous dye solution (30 ml, 10 ppm) and the catalyst (0.03 g). The suspension was aerated in the dark with constant magnetic stirring for 30 min to get adsorption – desorption equilibrium between catalyst and aqueous solution. During photoreaction, analytical suspension were sampled from each quartz tube and centrifuged to remove the nano-photocatalyst. UV light photocatalytic activity of as-obtained Sm-Mn-O nanocomposites was quantified via the concentration analysis of the remaining dye solution with a UV - vis spectrophotometer. The removal percentages (D%) of pollutant in aqueous solution can be calculated by the following steps:

$$D\% = (A_0 - A_t) / A_0 \times 100$$
 (1)

where A_0 and A_t are the absorption of aqueous solution at 0 and t minute, respectively.



Fig. 4. FE-SEM micrographs of nano-sized samarium manganese perovskites (a-d) the samples 1-4.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Crystallographic structure

To verify the effect of the different chemical saccharides including glucose, fructose, maltose and starch on the crystallographic structure of as-synthesized samples, XRD patterns were recorded in Fig. 1. As can be seen, diffraction lines are in acceptable conformity with perovskite-type SmMnO₃ structures with reference code 00-025-0747 as major phase (Liu et al., 2018). However, it is revealed that there are additional peaks with 20 values of 27.7°, 46.6°, 57.0°, and 74.1° corresponding to the cubic phase of Sm₂O₃ with reference code 00-043-1029. Besides, all samples uncovers the reflections at 31.4°, 52.5°, and 63.9° as the well-documented rhombohedral phase of Mn_2O_3 with reference code 00-033-0900. Analysis of the XRD studies of samarium manganese perovskites synthesized in the presence of four different fuels confirms that the peak positions at the 2 θ range of 10-80° are consistent with a mixture of three compounds, namely, SmMnO₃, Sm₂O₃, and Mn₂O₃. The mean crystallite sizes of the products were measured through the Scherrer's formula as follow (Teymourinia et al., 2017):Fig. 2.

$$D_{c} = K\lambda/\beta Cos\theta$$
(2)



Fig. 5. Particle size distribution histograms of the samples (a) 1, (b) 2, (c) 3, and (d) 4.

where β is the width of the observed diffraction peak at its half maximum intensity (FWHM), K is the shape factor, which takes a value of about 0.9, and λ is the X-ray wavelength (CuK α radiation, equals to 0.154 nm). Table 1 list the crystallite sizes of the samples 1–4 ranging from 10.79 to 22.08 nm.

3.2. Bond structure

Fig. 2(a-d) illustrate the FT-IR spectra of the SmMnO₃-based ternary nanocomposites (samples 1-4) in the range of 400-4000 $\,cm^{-1}\!.$ The absorption peaks at around $\sim\,$ 3425 and 1634 cm⁻¹ are associated with the O-H bond stretching and bending vibrations of adsorbed H₂O on the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ surface, respectively (Amiri et al., 2017; Panahi-Kalamuei et al., 2014). Furthermore, the peaks belonging to the asymmetric and symmetric C – H stretching modes of carbohydrate sugars are located at 2922 and 2855 cm⁻¹, respectively. The band observed at 1387 cm⁻¹ can be assigned to the N–O bending vibration of nitrate ions (Li et al., 2009). FT-IR band at frequency of 1258 cm⁻¹ is derived from the C-O-C stretching, which indicates the existence of sugar chains on the composite. There was a weak absorption peak at 1116 cm⁻¹, being characteristic for C–O–H stretching vibration of residual fuels (Sangsefidi et al., 2017). Also, the main characteristic bands in the window of 400–600 cm^{-1} are also related to the metal-oxygen (namely, Mn-O stretching, Sm-O stretching and O-Mn-O bending) modes (Hannora and Hanna, 2019; Lin et al., 2012).

Additionally, the chemical purity of rationally designed SmMnO₃-based ternary oxides was examined by EDS analysis. The supplied results in Fig. 3 reveals the coexistence of Sm, Mn and O elements in the as-obtained composite (sample 3).

3.3. Morphology studies

The influence of different saccharide sugars on the morphology and surface features of the resultant samples was explored *via* employing FE-SEM studies. Fig. 4(a-d) compares the shape and particle size of the samples prepared in the presence of monosaccharides (glucose and fructose), disaccharide (maltose) and polysaccharide (starch) in the 500 nm scale image. As described in the previous reports, development of low-cost autocombustion process using carbohydrate sugars as a capping agent, fuel, and reductants is considered to be as an eco-friendly method, which possesses suitable physical and chemical modification (Köferstein et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2012). Following the introduction of glucose precursor (Fig. 4a), the composite structures suffer from overgrowth and particle agglomeration. With the addition of fructose, shown in Fig. 4b, the trend of growth of particles is quite clear and agglomeration is increased. These phenomena are caused by the inability of enough coverings of monosaccharaides having less carbonyl and hydroxyl groups on the growing crystal. However, the morphology of the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites fabricated in the presence of maltose unveils a reduction in particle diameter and a uniform growth (Fig. 4c). In conclusion, it is noticed that the inclusion of higher steric hindrance effect on crystal surfaces can limit the growth rate and results in an increase in uniformity. In Fig. 4d, the products exhibit the mass structures and interconnected particles when starch sugar with a long chain of hydroxyl groups was employed as fuel and capping agent. It is possible that an extreme situation between hydroxyl groups of starch supports the particles to grow larger. Histograms of particle size distributions have also been plotted for designed products and are shown in Fig. 5. Based on these results, we conclude that the ternary SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites prepared with

maltose exhibit the best uniformity and the smallest average particle size. Furthermore, to verify the shape and morphology of selected nanoparticles, the composite geometries of the sample 3

> a 40nm b

Fig. 6. TEM images of the $SmMnO_3/Sm_2O_3/Mn_2O_3$ nanocomposites prepared with maltose (sample 3) at different magnifications.

was determined by TEM analysis. The TEM micrographs portrayed in Fig. 6 confirms that the particles were uniformly arranged in a cubical manner within a homogenous structure. The particles exhibit a size distribution ranging from 25 to 35 nm.

3.4. VSM analysis

The magnetic property of optimized $SmMnO_3/Sm_2O_3/Mn_2O_3$ nanocomposites (sample 3) was studied using a vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM) at room temperature. As illustrated in Fig. 7, ternary oxide compound follow a typical paramagnetic behavior with a maximum saturation magnetization (Ms) of 0.359 emu/g.

3.5. BET analysis

Based on the BET technique, a survey for detecting the N₂ ADS-DES isotherms at 77 k, the textural and surface characteristics of the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites was measured. Fig. 8 (a, b) plots the ADS-DES isotherm and BJH curve of the sample 3. By involving the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) category, this composite was introduced as a type III isotherm. In Fig. 8b, the pore size distribution of ternary oxides has been supplied. The pore volume and pore diameter of the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites were calculated as 0.0088713 cm³/g and 1.66 nm, respectively.

3.6. Optical properties

Fig. 9 records the intensive absorption and the light harvesting ability of as-prepared nanocomposites (samples 1–4) through DRS measurement. In DRS profiles, the optical bandgap (B.G.) is concluded *via* the plot of $(\alpha h \upsilon)^2$ *vs.* h υ by employing the Tauc relation (Tauc, 1968), which is expressed as:

$$(\alpha h \upsilon)^n = A(h \upsilon - B.G.) \tag{3}$$

where υ is the light frequency. h shows Planck constant (6.626 \times 10^{-34} J s). α , A and B.G. represents the absorbance, material constant, and optical bandgap, respectively. From linear extrapolation of $(\alpha h \upsilon)^2$ versus h υ to zero (inset of Fig. 9(a-d)), the SmMnO_3/Sm_2O_3/Mn_2O_3 nanocomposites illustrate two distinct absorption edge in the UV region for samples 1–4. The estimated band gap values of these samples are centered at about 3.2–3.4 eV for SmMnO_3 and Mn_2O_3 components as well as 3.6–3.9 eV for Sm_2O_3 (Duc Dung et al., 2013; Putri et al., 2020).

3.7. Photocatalytic activity

The photodegradation behavior of the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites over the decoloration of two various groups of organic pollutant such as cationic (MV, RhB) and anionic (EY, MO) dyes were comprehensively investigated under UV light irradiation. In Fig. 10, a comparative analysis of the impression of diverse dyes species over three distinct catalysts (samples 1, 3 and 4) was accomplished to achieve better performance. As noticed in Fig. 10a, the removal efficiency yield of MV in the presence of the samples 1, 3 and 4 was about 27.48%, 46.68%, and 43.59%, respectively. Under similar conditions, RhB degradation on these catalysts in Fig. 10b exhibited approximately 36.56%, 26.11, and 28.63% of the efficiency after 120 min, respectively. By analyzing EY as organic pollutant (Fig. 10c), the degradation percentages were 35.39%, 30.98%, and 26.97% for sample 1, 3, and 4, respectively. However, when MO molecules were employed as model, the photocatalytic yield in Fig. 10d could removal 56.81%, 72.24%, and 64.13% after 120 min for sample 1, 3, and 4, respectively. As



Fig. 7. VSM plot of the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites prepared with maltose (sample 3).



Fig. 8. (a) N2 adsorption/desorption isotherm and (b) BJH pore size distribution of the SmMnO3/Sm2O3/Mn2O3 nanocomposites (sample 3).



Fig. 9. UV-vis spectra and plots of $(\alpha h v)^2$ versus (h v) of the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanostructures (a-d) the samples 1-4.

a result of these tests, it can be seen that the $SmMnO_3/Sm_2O_3/$ Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites synthesized in the presence of maltose as both fuel and capping agent provide best response for the destruction of MO molecules. Therefore, for verifying how MO concentration affects the catalyst's efficiency, an example of the photocatalytic experiments on the concentration of the contaminant was further studied. Fig. 10e depicts the influences of a variety of MO concentrations (5, 10, and 15 ppm) in the photocatalytic process of the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites (sample 3) under UV light illumination for 120 min. The photoreaction efficiency of the resulting nanocomposites was confirmed to increase up to the MO concentration of 10 ppm and exhibited to decrease on further increase in dve concentration (15 ppm). In this context, 48.08% and 65.65% dve removal percentages were obtained with the pollutant concentrations of 5 and 15 ppm, respectively. A decrease in efficiency of 15 ppm concentration of MO can probably related to the competition for the available binding sites on the photocatalyst surface. Since the reaction mechanism in typical heterogeneous photocatalytic processes can pose an additional degree of enhanced light harvesting ability account, we followed the Langmuir-Hinshelwood (L-H) model to understand the possible reaction kinetics of the photocatalytic reactions at different conditions as (Zinatloo-Ajabshir et al., 2021):

$$\ln\left(C_0/C\right) = kt \tag{4}$$

where C_0 , C and k are the primary dye concentration, concentration at t time, and the degradation rate constant of the pseudo-firstorder reaction (min⁻¹), respectively. According to the linear logarithmic plots in Fig. 11(a-e), it can be concluded that the best degradation constant value of 0.0101 min⁻¹ is present for the sample 3 at 10 ppm of MO molecules, validating maximum photocatalytic efficiency.

Subsequent, to gain underlying mechanism of the active species involved in the photoreaction of MO over the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites, the trapping nature of BA, EDTA, and BQ were directly discriminated as scavengers for \bullet OH, h⁺, and \bullet O₂, respectively (Panahi et al., 2023). Analysis of Fig. 12(a-c) illustrates that introduction of BA has a minor effect on charge of the degradation of MO for three distinct samples (1, 3 and 4). However, with addition of EDTA, and BQ into the reaction solution, degradation efficiency was significantly decreased, indicating that h⁺, and \bullet O₂ possess a major impact on the photodegradation of MO. The pro-



Fig. 10. The photocatalytic efficiencies for the degradation of four different dyes with 10 ppm concentration; (a) MV, (b) RhB, (c) EY, (d) MO over the Sm-Mn-O nanostructures (samples 1, 3, and 4) and (e) effect of different concentrations of MO over the sample 3 under UV light irradiation.



Fig. 11. Plots of $\ln(C_0/C)$ vs time for four different dyes with 10 ppm concentration; (a) MV, (b) RhB, (c) EY, (d) MO in the presence of the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites synthesized by diverse sugars (samples 1, 3, and 4) and (e) effect of different concentrations of MO over the sample 3 under UV light irradiation.



Fig. 12. Effect of various scavengers over the samples (a) 1, (b) 3 and (c) 4 in the photocatalytic degradation of 10 ppm MO under UV light.

posed operative mechanism to the decolorization of MO under UV light is as (Konstantinou and Albanis, 2004):

 $\begin{array}{ll} SmMnO_{3}/Sm_{2}O_{3}/Mn_{2}O_{3} \ + \ h\nu(UV) \\ & \rightarrow \ SmMnO_{3}/Sm_{2}O_{3}/Mn_{2}O_{3} \ (e_{CB}{}^{-} \ + \ h_{VB}{}^{+}) \end{array} \tag{5}$



Fig. 13. Degradation efficiency of the samples (a) 1, (b) 3 and (c) 4 with increasing number of photocatalytic cycles.



Fig. 14. XRD patterns of the samples (a) 1, (b) 3 and (c) 4 after photocatalytic runs.

$SmMnO_3/Sm_2O_3/Mn_2O_3 (h_{VB}^+) + H_2O$	(6)
$\rightarrow~SmMnO_3/Sm_2O_3/Mn_2O_3$ + H^+ + $OH \bullet$	(0)

 $\begin{array}{l} SmMnO_{3}/Sm_{2}O_{3}/Mn_{2}O_{3}\;(e_{CB}^{-})\;+\;O_{2}\\ \rightarrow\;SmMnO_{3}/Sm_{2}O_{3}/Mn_{2}O_{3}\;+\;O_{2}\bullet^{-} \end{array} \tag{7}$

 $2H^{+} + \bullet O_{2}^{-} \rightarrow H_{2}O_{2} \tag{8}$

$$H_2O_2 + e^- \rightarrow OH^- + \bullet OH \tag{9}$$

 $h^{+} + OH^{-} \rightarrow \bullet OH \tag{10}$

 $h^+ + H_2 O \rightarrow H^+ + \bullet OH \tag{11}$

 $e^- + O_2 \rightarrow \bullet O_2^- \tag{12}$

 $O_2 \bullet^- + H^+ \rightarrow HO_2 \bullet \tag{13}$

 $\bullet O_2^- + H^+ + e^- \rightarrow HOO \bullet \tag{14}$

 $HOO \bullet + H_2O \rightarrow \bullet OH + H_2O_2 \tag{15}$

 h_{VB}^{+} + MO \rightarrow oxidation products (16)

•OH + MO \rightarrow degradation products (e.g., CO₂, H₂O, H₂) (17)

 $e_{CB}^{-} + MO \rightarrow reduction \ products$ (18)

Since the catalysts lifetime is of supreme importance parameters for the photocatalyst process in practical applications, the structural photostability and recyclability of the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/ Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites was explored after three consecutive cycles. As indicated in Fig. 13 (a-c), after three cycles, the degradation rate of the products synthesized in the presence of glucose (sample 1), maltose (sample 3) and starch (sample 4) still retains at a relatively high level. However, there is a some reduction in the performance due to the loss of photocatalyst powders during recycling. The photocatalytic activity of samples 1, 3, and 4 dropped form 56.81% to 38.89%, 72.24% to 43.42%, and 64.13% to 55.08%, respectively. To evaluate the crystallographic structure of reused samples, XRD results were analyzed (Fig. 14). The result suggests that the XRD patterns of fabricated nanocomposites keep unchanged following the three successive cycles of photocatalysis, describing high photostability of the SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites.

4. Conclusions

In summary, with the help of environmentally friendly capping agents, novel SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites were fabricated through combustion method for the decolorization of different water-soluble organic contaminants. Based on DRS results, asformed compounds showed a suitable ability under UV light. Among the tested samples, the products prepared by maltose as fuel manifested the highest potential in removing 10 ppm MO after 120 min of UV irradiation. Under this circumstance, the superior rate constant (k = 0.0101 min⁻¹) belongs to the maximum photocatalytic efficiency (72.24%). Further scavenger investigation confirmed that h^+ , and ΦO_2^- could be the most active radicals in the photocatalytic process. Also, the recycle experiments presented high stability of ternary SmMnO₃/Sm₂O₃/Mn₂O₃ nanocomposites with a relative loss in efficiency after three cycles.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Mina Jamdar: Software, Investigation, Methodology, Formal analysis. **Zahra Heydariyan:** Formal analysis, Data curation, Investigation, Software. **Asaad H. Alzaidy:** Writing – review & editing, Resources, Visualization. **Elmuez A. Dawi:** Writing – review & editing, Resources, Visualization. **Masoud Salavati-Niasari:** Software, Formal analysis, Methodology, Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision, Project administration, Investigation, Data curation, Validation, Resources, Visualization, Funding acquisition.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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