



Leaf-mediated green synthesis of silver nanoparticles from Azadirachta indica and Ficus religiosa: characterization and bioactive properties

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ABSTRACT

Silver nanoparticles are nano-sized metallic particles widely used in various fields, including medicine, pharmaceutical, food, and agriculture. This study carried out the green synthesis of AgNPs using leaf extracts from Azadirachta indica (Neem) and Ficus religiosa (Peepal) plants. The silver nanoparticles were characterized using sophisticated instruments. UV-visible spectroscopy confirmed the formation of AgNPs, while FTIR identified biomolecules (amino and carboxyl groups) acting as stabilizing agents. SEM determined the size and morphology of AgNPs. Particle size analysis was conducted using DLS, and zeta potential measurements provided information on the size and charge of the silver nanoparticles. The AgNPs were tested for antibacterial efficacy against Grampositive (S. aureus) and Gram-negative (E. coli) bacteria. Similarly, the AgNPs exhibited high fungicidal activity against the fungal strain A. niger. The free radical scavenging activities of nanoparticles were studied using DPPH and Hydrogen Peroxide in vitro assays. The antiviral activity of AgNPs was investigated against the Sesbania mosaic virus (SeMV), which infects Sesbania plants. The AgNPs exhibited excellent antiviral properties, decreasing the viral infection in Sesbania plants, indicating the antiviral efficacy of silver nanoparticles in the agricultural sector.

Keywords: Silver nanoparticles, Characterization, Antimicrobial activity, Antioxidant activity, Antiviral activity, Sesbania mosaic virus (SeMV)

INTRODUCTION

Nanostructured metallic nanoparticles are becoming increasingly popular due to their high surface area-tovolume ratio, especially in material science and nanomedicine (Fernando et al., 2024). This technique involves atomic and molecular research and development that produces particles with diameters ranging from 1 to 100 nm (Asefian and Ghavam, 2024). Applications of nanomaterials are significant in our daily lives, and maximizing or minimizing their benefits and downsides is possible. Nanomaterials' exceptional physical and chemical properties are due to their size, shape, and composition (Elwakil et al., 2024). The creation of silver nanoparticles (NPs) presents several advantages over physicochemical techniques, including cost-effectiveness, environmental friendliness, ease of scaling up, and absence of the requirement for high energy, harmful chemicals, or temperatures (Patel & Patel, 2022). Nanoparticles synthesized using biological systems such as bacteria, fungi, algae, and plants offer an alternative method (Avilala and Golla, 2019)

Various metals such as silver, gold, zinc, copper, etc., are synthesized as metallic nanoparticles in biological systems (Golla, 2018). Around 5000 years ago, silver was used in various forms to store food items by Egyptians, Persians, Greeks, and Romans (Tarannum et al., 2019). Silver nanoparticles are widely used among all metal nanoparticles due to their unique properties such as high electrical conductivity and optical, antimicrobial, and biological characteristics (Ahmed et al., 2021). Due to their unique properties, AgNPs have a wide range of applications in the biomedical field, including the textile industry (Gokarneshan and Velumani, 2017), climate change and contamination control (Pulit-Prociak & Banach, 2016), the cosmetic industry (Naidu et al., 2015), wound dressing (Della Sala et al., 2022), antiseptic fabrics (Swilam and Nematallah, 2020), pharmaceuticals (Kumar et al., 2011), water purification (Lin et al., 2013), sensing of food adulterants (Asthana et al., 2016), and adsorption of metals and pesticides (Das et al., 2012; Ping et al., 2012). Researchers have extensively synthesized AgNPs using various plant leaf extracts, including Ocimum sanctum (Mallikarjuna et al., 2011), Pepper (Mallikarjuna et al., 2012), Plectranthus amboinicus (Purusottam Reddy et al., 2017), Ziziphus nummularia (Golla, 2018), Acalypha hispida (Selvakumar et al., 2018), Rose canina (Gulbagca et al., 2019), aloe vera (Burange et al., 2021), and Cinnamomum camphora (Li et al., 2021).

Plants are the main resource used in traditional medicine to make medications (Sarath Kumar et al., 2024). Since ancient times, medicinal plants have been of great importance for their ability to treat various diseases and are aptly mentioned in Ayurveda (Azaizeh et al., 2003). Medicinal plants are becoming more widely acknowledged for their potential as useful sources for novel therapeutic compounds, particularly in light of the failure of most conventional synthetic medications (Goni et al., 2021). A common and significant medicinal plant in these areas is Azadirachta indica, also known as neem. It is a member of the Meliaceae family and is widely distributed in tropical and subtropical regions, including Bangladesh, India, Nepal, and Pakistan. Neem leaves contain compounds such as nimbin, nimbanene, ascorbic acid, n-hexacosanol, nimbolide, nimbandiol, and the amino acid nimbiol; 7-desacetyl-7-benzoylgedunin;17-hydroxyazadiradione; and7-desacetyl-7benzoylazadiradione (Kokate et al., 2007; Hossain et al., 2011). After being isolated from fresh neem leaves, the polyphenolic flavonoids quercetin and ß-sitosterol were found to possess antibacterial and antifungal qualities (Govindachari et al., 1998). Previous studies have validated the anti-inflammatory, anti-arthritic, antipyretic, hypoglycemic, anti-gastric ulcer, antifungal, antibacterial, and antitumor properties of neem (Bandyopadhyay et al., 2004; Sultana et al., 2007; Ebong et al., 2008; Paul et al., 2011), Biswas et al., 2002) reported the multiple medicinal uses of Neem plant. The two crucial phytochemicals, terpenoids, and flavanones present in neem, act as reducing agents and stabilize the nanoparticles (Banerjee et al., 2014).

Ficus religiosa, commonly known as peepal and belonging to the *Moraceae* family, is an important medicinal plant. It is known by various local names in India, including Asvatthah in Sanskrit, Sacred fig in Bengal, Peepal in Hindi, Arayal in Malayalam, Ravi in Telugu, and Arasu in Tamil. Often found near Indian temples alongside neem trees, a ceremonial marriage symbolizing a union between the male-representing peepal tree, and the female-representing neem tree is observed. This form of worship is linked to fertility and serves as a prayer and ritual to the almighty. Peepal trees are highly valued in Indian societies as they are believed to continuously generate oxygen. On their lower leaf epidermis, they have a unique type of stomata known as sunken, which are larger than normal stomata. These stomata retain water and gas molecules for extended periods. The peepal tree is a valuable source of traditional medicine for treating asthma, diabetes, gastric problems, and inflammatory and infectious diseases (Singh *et al.*, 2011). It has been studied for its potential to treat neurological diseases like Parkinson's and Huntington's in animal models, such as rats (Bhangale & Acharya, 2016), and to prevent ulcers in albino mice (Gregory *et al.*, 2013). The medicinal properties of the peepal tree are attributed to the presence of phenols, tannins, steroids, alkaloids, flavonoids, and lanosterol. These phytochemicals are water-soluble and act as reducing and capping agents (Choudhari *et al.*, 2011).

Earlier, there were reports on the synthesis of AgNPs (Chinnasamy *et al.*, 2021; Murugesu *et al.*, 2021; Alharbi and Alsubhi, 2022; Hasan *et al.*, 2022; Riyas *et al.*, 2022; Pawar *et al.*, 2022). However, no reports existed on the synthesis of AgNPs from the leaf extracts of *Azadirachta indica* and *Ficus religiosa*. The present work focuses on investigating the eco-friendly green synthesis of AgNPs, their characterization by various instruments such as UV, FTIR, Zeta Potential, and SEM, and their antimicrobial (both gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria) and antiviral efficacy against the *Sesbania mosaic virus* (SeMV), a causative agent of SeMV disease in sesbania plants.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Collection of plant leaves:

Fresh leaves of *Azadiractha indica* (Neem) and *Ficus religiosa* (Peepal) were collected from the Sri Venkateswara University Campus, Tirupati, Andhra Pradesh, India. The collected leaves were used in the preparation of extracts for the green synthesis of AgNPs, and the evaluation of their biological activities.

Preparation of leaf extract:

The collected leaves were thoroughly washed with normal tap water followed by double distilled water to remove dirt from the surface of the leaves. The leaves were air-dried to avoid excessive weight during weighing. 5grams of Neem leaves and 5 grams of Peepal leaves were weighed separately on balance. Both types of leaves were chopped into small pieces and macerated with distilled water using a motor and pestle. The leaf extracts were filtered through muslin cloth, and the filtrate was made up to 100 mL by adding distilled water. The prepared leaf extracts were stored at room temperature for further experiments.

Synthesis of Silver nanoparticles:

For the synthesis of AgNPs, 0.1 mM of $AgNO_3$ is added to the prepared leaf extract and incubated at room temperature. After some time, the color of the leaf extract changes from green to dark brown, indicating the formation of silver nanoparticles. The formed silver nanoparticles are then characterized.

Characterization of silver nanoparticles:

UV-Visible spectrophotometer:

The Ag+ ions were reduced by plant leaf extracts and observed with a UV-visible spectrophotometer (UV-1800). The absorption spectrum was recorded at wavelengths ranging from 250 to 500 nm.

Fourier transmission infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy:

The functional groups, such as amino and carboxyl groups in the nanosuspension, were determined by FTIR spectral analysis of the synthesized AgNPs using a Perkin Elmer spectrophotometer. The analysis employed the NaCl method, and the spectrum for the analysis was recorded in the range of 3800-650 cm^-1.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM):

The size and shape of AgNPs were confirmed using Scanning Electron Microscopy.

DLS particle size analysis and zeta potential:

DLS intensity and laser diffraction methods were employed to determine the particle size of the synthesized AgNPs. This analysis was used to determine the hydrodynamic diameter and polydispersity index (PDI). Zeta potential analysis was also performed to study the negative potential values of the AgNPs that contribute to their reduction and stability. These analyses were carried out using laser diffractometry with an SZ-100 instrument at Sri Venkateswara University, Tirupati.

Antibacterial activity:

The antibacterial effectiveness of AgNPs was studied against the bacterial strains *E. coli* (Gram-negative) and *S. aureus* (Gram-positive) using the agar well diffusion method (Singh *et al.*, 2010). To conduct the study, 0.5mL of bacterial culture suspension was spread onto solidified nutrient agar plates using a sterile spreader, followed by the punching of 4 wells with a borer. AgNPs of different concentrations (10, 15, 20, 25 μ L) were placed in the wells. Streptomycin antibiotic was used as a control. The Petri plates were then placed in an incubator at 37^oC, and the antibacterial activity of AgNPs was evaluated by measuring the diameter of the zone of inhibition (in cm) surrounding the wells, indicating the antimicrobial effectiveness of the silver nanoparticles.

Antifungal activity:

The antifungal activity of AgNPs has been tested against the fungus *Aspergillus niger* using the agar well diffusion method (Khadri *et al.*, 2013). For this assay, 20 mL of sterilized potato dextrose agar (PDA) medium was transferred to sterilized plates and allowed to solidify. Then, 0.1 mL of *A.niger* spore suspension was seeded onto the plates using a sterile spreader. Four wells were bored into the plate, and different concentrations of the colloidal nanosuspension (15, 25, and 50 μ L) were added to three wells while the fourth well received 50 μ L of leaf extract without AgNPs. The plates were incubated at 25°C for 4 to 5 days. The zone of inhibition was measured in centimeters to determine the activity of AgNPs.

Antioxidant activity of synthesized AgNPs:

Hydrogen Peroxide Scavenging Assay:

The radical scavenging activity of the AgNPs was determined by following the method described by Ruch et al., 1989. Different concentrations of AgNPs (100, 150, 200, and 250 μ L) were mixed (0.6 mL) of hydrogen peroxide (43 mM) and 3.4 mL of phosphate buffer (pH 7.4; 0.1 M). The mixture was incubated for 10 minutes, and the absorbance was measured at 230 nm using a UV-visible spectrophotometer. Ascorbic acid was used as a standard. The percentage of radical scavenging activity was calculated using the following formula:

Percentage of RSA = [(Ac-As/Ac)] x 100

where Ac is the absorbance of the control (phosphate buffer), and as is the absorbance of the sample (AgNPs). The tests were carried out in triplicate.

DPPH radical scavenging activity:

The antioxidant activity of the AgNPs was determined by the 2,2'-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) assay (Gupta, 2014). One milliliter of DPPH solution was added to 1 mL of methanol solution, and different concentrations of

AgNPs (1, 2, 3, and 4 mL) were added. The reaction mixture was kept in a dark place for 30 min. Later, the absorbance was measured at 517 nm in a UV-visible spectrophotometer. Ascorbic acid was used as a standard. The percentage of radical scavenging activity was calculated by using the following formula:

Percentage of RSA = [(Ac-As/Ac)] x 100

Where Ac represents the absorbance of the control reaction, and as represents the absorbance of a sample (AgNPs). The tests were carried out in triplicate.

Antiviral activity:

Sample collection:

The Sesbania grandiflora plants, infected with the Sesbania mosaic virus and exhibiting mosaic symptoms on the leaves, were collected from the Department of Virology Garden at Sri Venkateswara University in Tirupati, Andhra Pradesh, India.

Preparation of virus inoculum:

The virus inoculum was prepared by crushing infected *Sesbania grandiflora* leaves with a known amount of phosphate buffer (pH 7.0; 0.1 M) in a mortar and pestle. Thus, the sap extract was strained through a muslin cloth, and the resulting filtrate was used for future studies.

Viral activity:

The Sesbania grandiflora plant was used to assess antiviral activity. Seeds of Sesbania were sown in ten plastic cups filled with soil. Among these, one was healthy (negative control), one was infected (positive control) and eight were test plants. Two concentrations of AgNPs (25 and 200 μ L) were tested for their antiviral activity. The AgNPs at different concentrations were incubated with virus sap at room temperature for various time intervals: 30, 60, 90, and 120 minutes. Subsequently, the virus sap suspension was mechanically inoculated onto the test plants. Following inoculation, the plants were grown for approximately four weeks and monitored daily for the development of symptoms.

Chlorophyll estimation:

The chlorophyll estimation of healthy and infected leaves was carried out according to (Kamble *et al.*, 2015) with some modifications. Four or five leaf samples from healthy, infected, and nanoparticle-treated plants were gently ground with a mortar and pestle. To the homogenized material, 1 mL of 80% acetone mixed with 0.5 g of $CaCO_3$ was added. The materials were further macerated gently. These samples were then filtered through muslin cloth, and the filtrate was collected. The absorbance of the solution was measured by a spectrophotometer at wavelengths of 645 nm and 663 nm against a blank using 80% acetone. To calculate the amount of chlorophyll content, the following formula was utilized:

 $ChI a = 11.75 \times A_{662.6} - 2.35 \times A_{645.6}$

Chl b = $18.61 \times A_{645.6} - 3.96 \times A_{662.6}$

Where, Chl a and Chl b are chlorophyll a and chlorophyll b, A is absorbance.

RESULTS

Collection of plant leaf material and preparation of silver nanoparticles:

The leaf materials of *Azadirachta indica* (Neem) and *Ficus religiosa* (Peepal) were collected from the Sri Venkateswara University campus in Tirupati, Andhra Pradesh, India [**Fig. 1 (A**)]. The collected leaves were rinsed with double-distilled water to remove any surface dirt and then chopped into small pieces. They were then allowed to dry in the shade. A crude leaf extract was prepared at a concentration of 10 mg/ml using distilled water. To this extract, 10 ml of 1 mM Silver Nitrate (AgNO₃) solution was added. The color change of the leaf extract solution from green to dark brown indicates the formation of silver nanoparticles [**Fig. 1 (B**)].

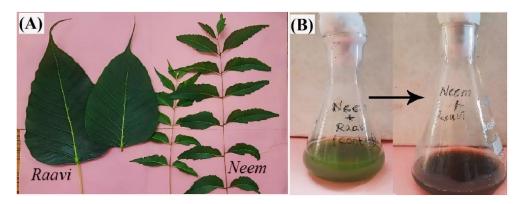


Fig. 1. (A) Ficus religiosa and Azadirachta indica leaves (B) Bio reduction of silver nitrate

Characterization of synthesized nanoparticles:

UV-Visible Spectroscopy and FTIR analysis:

The AgNPs were primarily characterized by UV-visible spectroscopy exhibiting a strong absorption band in the visible range from 250 to 500 nm. The UV-visible spectrum [**Fig. 2 (A**)] displays the Surface Plasmon Resonance (SPR) peak of the AgNPs at 422 nm. The FTIR of the formed silver nanoparticles is shown in [**Fig. 2 (B**)]. The peak at 3435 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the O-H stretch of alcohols. The peaks at 2953 cm⁻¹ and 2853 cm⁻¹ correspond to C-H stretching vibrations of alkane. The peak at 2725 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the C-H stretch of aldehyde. The peak at 1644 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the C=C stretching vibration of alkenes. The peak at 1459 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the C-H bending of methyl groups. The peak at 1376 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the C-N stretching vibration of amines (Mallikarjuna et al., 2011). The peak at 1219 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the C=C bending of aromatic groups, indicating the presence of secondary metabolites.

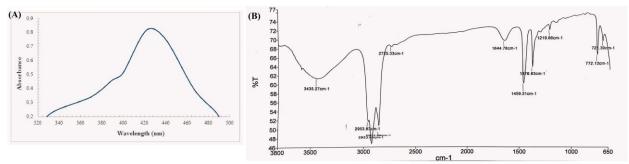


Fig. 2. (A) UV-Visible spectra of AgNPs (B) FTIR spectrum of AgNPs

Scanning Electron Microscope:

The morphology and shape of the synthesized nanoparticles capped with biomolecules were confirmed by the SEM micrograph (**Fig. 3**). The SEM micrographs revealed that the AgNPs are spherical, with sizes ranging from 50 to 100 nm. They are also polydispersed and do not conglomerate in the solution.

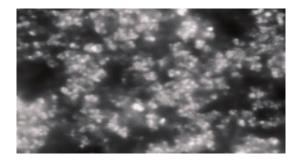


Fig. 3. SEM image of AgNPs

DLS particle size analysis and zeta potential:

The size distribution of the AgNPs is measured due to their Brownian motion in a liquid solution. The Z-average and polydispersed index values of the AgNPs were 83.8 nm and 3.633, respectively [**Fig. 4 (A)**]. Another important parameter in characterization is Zeta potential analysis, which indicates the presence of charge on the silver nanoparticles. The Zeta potential value of the AgNPs was -19.9 mV [**Fig. 4 (B**]].

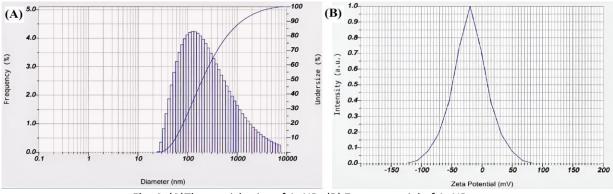
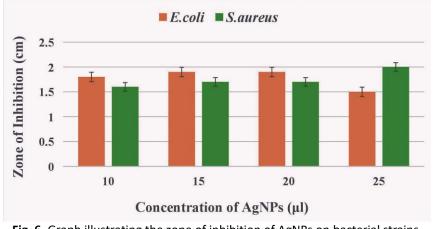


Fig. 4. (A)The particle size of AgNPs (B) Zeta potential of AgNPs

Antibacterial activity:

The antibacterial efficacy of the silver nanoparticles was confirmed by the formation of a zone of inhibition around the well (**Fig. 5**). The nanosuspension demonstrated significant antibacterial activity against *E. coli* (Gramnegative) and *S. aureus* (Gram-positive) bacteria, with the zones of inhibition measuring 1.9 cm and 2 cm, respectively (**Fig. 6**).





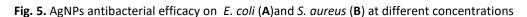


Fig. 6. Graph illustrating the zone of inhibition of AgNPs on bacterial strains

Antifungal activity:

The AgNPs exhibit strong antifungal activity on *Aspergillus niger* growth (**Fig. 7**). The result shows that *A.niger* was sensitive to the AgNPs nanoparticles with a zone of inhibition up to 2.6 cm, compared to 1.5 cm for the leaf extract (**Fig. 8**). This suggests that an increase in the concentration of AgNPs leads to a larger zone of inhibition and it is an indication of fungicidal efficacy of silver nanoparticles.



Fig. 7. Antifungal activity of AgNPs on A. niger

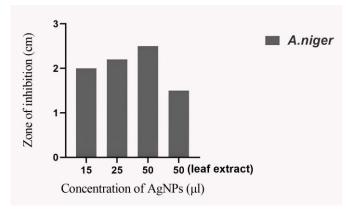


Fig. 8. Zone of inhibition of AgNPs on A. niger

Antioxidant activity:

Hydrogen peroxide scavenging activity:

The scavenging ability of AgNPs on hydrogen peroxide is demonstrated (**Fig. 9**). The result shows that the hydrogen peroxide quenching activity of AgNPs with 83.7%, whereas ascorbic acid has 92.7%.

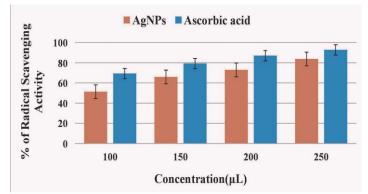


Fig. 9. Graph depicting the Hydrogen peroxide scavenging activity of AgNPs

DPPH activity:

Consequently, the antioxidant activity of AgNPs was demonstrated using DPPH as a free radical. The in vitro antioxidant studies (**Fig. 10**) showed that the free radical scavenging activity increased with a higher concentration of AgNPs. This demonstrates that at higher concentrations (2 mL), DPPH activity was 90.7 % whereas ascorbic acid (standard) was found to be 100 %.

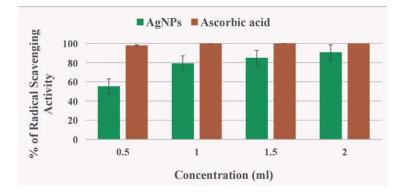


Fig. 10. Graph illustrating the DPPH activity of AgNPs

Antiviral activity in vivo:

Silver nanoparticles have been found to exhibit antiviral activity against the plant pathogenic virus *Sesbania mosaic virus* (SeMV). The plant shows symptoms such as stunted growth, drying of leaves and mosaic pattern on small leaves observed five days after mechanical inoculation. However, in plants treated with AgNPs, these symptoms are observed only after two weeks of inoculation. Test plants treated with AgNPs along with virus sap demonstrate that as incubation times increase, the rate of infection or symptom severity decreases. At low concentrations (25 μ L), AgNPs with virus tither incubated for 30 minutes resulted in the plants displaying yellowing of basal leaves, leaf desiccation, and mosaic symptoms on young leaves. However, at 120-minute incubation, the plant leaves appear greenish and erect, with only slight yellowing of basal leaves [**Fig. 11(A)**]. At a higher concentration of AgNPs (200 μ L), along with virus sap at 30-minute incubation time, the plants exhibit a slight yellowish base leaf with mosaic symptoms in young leaves. In contrast, at a 120-minute incubation time, the plants are healthy and erect [**Fig. 11(B)**].

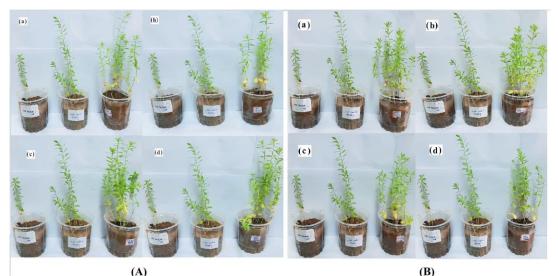


Fig. 11. (**A**) Test plants treated with AgNPs were incubated for various durations: (a) 30 minutes, (b) 60 minutes, (c) 90 minutes, (d) 120 minutes, each in 25 μ L (**B**) Test plants treated with AgNPs were incubated for various durations: (a) 30 minutes, (b) 60 minutes, (c) 90 minutes, (d) 120 minutes, each in 200 μ L volumes compared with healthy and infected plants.

Chlorophyll estimation:

The total chlorophyll content in healthy and infected sesbania plants was estimated and depicted in [Fig. 12]. In healthy leaves, the total chlorophyll is 33.7 mg/ml, whereas in virus-infected leaves is 11.8 mg/ml. The results show that as the incubation time increases, the chlorophyll content also increases in the test plants. At 120 minutes of incubation time, both concentrations (25 and 200 μ L) of test plants have chlorophyll contents of 30.8 mg/ml and 24.1 mg/ml, respectively. This result is nearly equal to the chlorophyll content of healthy leaves.

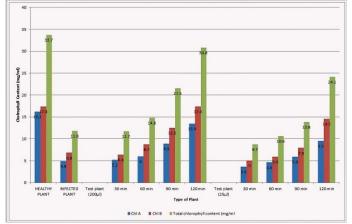


Fig. 12. Chlorophyll content in healthy, infected, and nano-treated plants

DISCUSSION

The bioreduction of silver ions into AgNPs was confirmed by a color change. This change is due to the excitation of surface plasmon resonances (SPR), a characteristic property of silver nanoparticles. Similar reports were described by (Vaishnavi *et al.,* 2020; Palithya *et al.,* 2022), where plant extracts of *Pterocarpus santalinus* and *Areva lantana* reduced the filtrate from green to dark brown. The exact mechanism of the synthesis of silver nanoparticles is yet to be fully understood. However, it is hypothesized that the NADH-dependent nitrate reductase enzyme present in plant cells reduces Ag⁺ ions to Ag atoms (Labrenz *et al.,* 2000; Roh *et al.,* 2001). The UV-visible spectrum displays the Surface Plasmon Resonance (SPR) peak of the AgNPs at 422 nm a finding consistent with that of Hamouda et al. (Hamouda *et al.,* 2019). The size and shape of AgNPs influence the absorption peak, with the size of nanoparticles having a linear correlation with peak intensity (Kerker 1985; Sosa *et al.,* 2003). FTIR analysis was conducted to detect various functional groups, such as amino and carboxyl groups, which aid in the reduction of Ag⁺ ions to form silver nanoparticles. These biomolecules act as capping and stabilizing agents for the synthesized nanoparticles. The peak at 3435 cm^-1 corresponds to the O-H stretch of

alcohols. The peaks at 2953 cm^-1 and 2853 cm^-1 correspond to C-H stretching vibrations of alkane. The peak at 2923 cm⁻¹ corresponds to C-H vibrations of biomolecules (Mallikarjuna et al., 2018). The shape of nanoparticles greatly affects their conjugation with specific drug molecules and targeting of cells (Dauthal and Mukhopadhyay, 2016). Particle size is crucial for cellular transport; smaller particles can easily pass through the plasma membrane of cells. Nanoparticles smaller than 100 nm are particularly useful for various applications in drug delivery and biosensor development (Mukherjee et al., 2014). These nanoparticles generally exhibit very good antibacterial activity, as they interact with bacterial cell walls (Prasad and Swamy, 2013; Shaikh et al., 2019; Anand et al., 2021). The charge on the surface of the nanoparticles creates a repulsive force that prevents agglomeration and contributes to the long-term stability of the nanoparticles. The obtained result is consistent with the zeta potential value of -19.7 mV for silver nanoparticles produced by the fungus Trichoderma longibrachiatum (Elamawi et al., 2018), indicating that the AgNPs are highly stable and resist agglomeration in the medium. Many reports have documented the antibacterial activity of silver nanoparticles against bacteria (Narasimha, 2013), fungi (Narasimha et al., 2011), and plants (Seku et al., 2018). Several studies have described the mechanisms of action of AgNPs (Lok et al., 2006; Durán et al., 2010, 2016). One probable mechanism is that AgNPs attach to the cell membrane, destabilizing respiratory function and permeability in bacterial cells (Kvítek et al., 2008). Regular interaction of AgNPs with sulfur and phosphorus groups disrupts DNA replication and subsequently disintegrates microbial systems (Ramesh et al., 2015; Singh et al., 2014).

Numerous reports have documented the antifungal activity of AgNPs in seeds (Simangunsong et al., 2022), fungi (Jaidev and Narasimha, 2010), and plant extracts (Mallikarjuna et al., 2013). Dorau et al. (2004) reported that the antifungal activity of AgNPs is attributed to the formation of insoluble compounds through the inactivation of sulfhydryl groups in the fungal cell wall and the rupture of membrane-bound enzymes and lipids, leading to cell lysis. Hydrogen peroxide, while not highly reactive, can damage cells by inducing hydroxyl radicals. Thus, it is crucial to eliminate these reactive species from cells or food systems. Previous reports have confirmed that biosynthesized AgNPs are effective scavenging agents (Keser et al., 2012; Mohanta et al., 2017). Free radicals are primary therapeutic targets due to their role in causing inflammatory diseases. Antioxidants, as potential agents, inhibit free radicals and possess anti-cancer, anti-aging, and antifungal properties. They can also prevent rheumatoid arthritis and inflammation (Khan et al., 2019; Shanmugapriya et al., 2016; Sharmila et al., 2019). Many reports have been published on the DPPH activity of AgNPs synthesized from various plant extracts (Khorrami et al., 2018; Ahn et al., 2019; Küp et al., 2020; Khuda et al., 2022). Khandelwal et al. (2014) reported that the antiviral activity of AgNPs and other metal nanoparticles is due to interference with the glycoproteins of the viral envelope, which prevents virus invasion and replication in host cells. The results of the present study agree with previous reports that silver nanoparticles aggregate extensively and interfere with viral envelope proteins, thereby reducing disease severity in infected plants (Elbeshehy et al., 2015; Noha and El-Dougdoug et al., 2018; Abdelkhalek et al., 2022; El Gamal et al., 2022).

AgNPs are potent antiviral agents. The present study suggests that AgNPs potentially inhibit virus growth. There are differing opinions on whether the virus destroys chlorophyll or inhibits its synthesis. According to Sheffield (1993), the Tomato acuba mosaic did not affect the chlorophyll in mature leaves at the time of infection; rather, it prevented the formation of plastids in young leaves. Viruses such as cucumber mosaic and tomato spotted wilt produce chlorosis, indicating the destruction of chlorophyll. Earlier reports documented the reduction of chlorophyll content in various host plants infected with different viruses (Arora et al., 2009; Sinha and Srivastava, 2010; Narasimha and Papaiah, 2014). Nanotechnology is used in agriculture to improve food production by increasing nutritional value, quality, and safety (Devra, 2022). Silver nanoparticles exhibit the slow release of agrochemicals and are very stable and biodegradable. Hence, they can be utilized in the preparation of nanocapsules for the gradual and effective administration of fertilizers, pesticides, and agrochemicals in farming activities (Chowdappa and Gowda, 2013). Nano fertilizers (NFs) are useful in controlling nutrition because of their exceptional ability to increase nutrient utilization efficiency (Reshma Anjum et al., 2024). Extensive chemical fertilizer application destroys soil structure, mineral cycles, plants, microbiological flora in the soil, and other food chains in ecosystems, ultimately leading to heritable mutations in subsequent consumer generations. Focusing on the macro elements (N, P, and K) with nano fertilizers is a better course of action because it might replace most of these nutrients with ones that have significant positive environmental effects (Abd-Elsalam and Alghuthaymi, 2024). Nano pesticides, nano fertilizers, food packaging, pest control, crops, and food protection are various uses for AgNPs (Khan *et al.*, 2023).

CONCLUSION

The present work focuses on the green synthesis of silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) using leaf extracts of *Azadirachta indica* and *Ficus religiosa*. The bio-reduced AgNPs were characterized by UV-visible spectrophotometry and FTIR, indicating that functional groups such as amines, aldehydes, and carboxylic acids are responsible for the reduction and stabilization of the nanoparticles. The size of the AgNPs was measured to be 83.8 nm, with a

spherical shape. The silver nanoparticles exhibited good antibacterial activity against both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. The bio-reduced AgNPs exhibit fungicidal activity against *A. niger*. Their antioxidant properties, including hydrogen peroxide and DPPH scavenging, demonstrate that the silver nanoparticles are effective free radical scavengers. Furthermore, the nanoparticles display significant antiviral activity against Sesbania mosaic virus (SeMV). With increased concentration and incubation time of AgNPs, the viral infection rate in Sesbania plants decreases, indicating the antiviral efficacy of silver nanoparticles.

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