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Facile synthesis of starch and tellurium doped SrO nanocomposite for catalytic and antibacterial potential: in silico molecular docking studies

--Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	<p>A chemical co-precipitation route was used to synthesize novel strontium oxide (SrO), SrO-starch composite and various tellurium (Te) concentrations were incorporated in SrO-starch composite. This study aims to enhance the catalytic activities and bactericidal behavior of SrO, SrO-starch composite with different percentage concentrations of Te doping and a fixed amount of starch nanoparticles. XRD affirmed that the dopant contribution was investigated to improve crystallinity. Surface morphological characteristics and elemental composition evaluation were determined using an FE-SEM and EDS exhibit a doping concentration of an element in the synthesized products. The configuration of Sr–O–Sr bonds and molecular vibrations has been indicated by FTIR spectra. In addition, dye degradation of prepared samples was investigated through catalytic activity (CA) in the existence of NaBH₄ act as a reduction representative. The Te-doped SrO-starch composite indicates superior catalytic activity and shows a degradation of Methylene blue dye (91.4%) in an acidic medium. The synthesis nanocatalyst demonstrated impressive antibacterial activity against Staphylococcus aureus (S. aureus) at high and low concentrations exhibiting zones of inhibition 9.30 mm as compared to ciprofloxacin. Furthermore, molecular docking studies of synthesized nanocomposites were performed against selected enzyme targets, i.e., β-lactamase E.coli and DNA Gyrase E.coli.</p>
Suggested Reviewers:	Dayong Wu dayongwu@mail.ipc.ac.cn Muhammad Maqbool mmaqbool@uab.edu Alberto Naldoni alberto.naldoni@upol.cz

Opposed Reviewers:	
Response to Reviewers:	<p>Reviewer's Responses to Questions</p> <p>Reviewer #1: This study aims to enhance the catalytic activities and bactericidal behavior of SrO, SrO-starch composite with different percentage concentrations of Te doping and a fixed amount of starch nanoparticles. The suggestions: 1. SrO and starch were introduced in the "Introduction" section of the article, but Te is not referred. And the authors can add an introduction to Te in this section to help readers better understand the article. Ans: The introduction regarding Te has been added on pages 4 and 5, lines 85-96.</p> <p>-----</p> <p>2. If applicable, is the method/study reported in sufficient detail to allow for its replicability and/or reproducibility?

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Editor-in-Chief

International Journal of Biological Macromolecules

Dear Editor,

We are submitting our manuscript entitled “Facile synthesis of starch and tellurium doped SrO nanocomposite for catalytic and antibacterial potential: in silico molecular docking studies” by authors for review and, if acceptable, for publication in International Journal of Biological Macromolecules.

This paper contains evidence and discussion of Strontium oxide (SrO), SrO-starch composite, and varied tellurium (Te) concentrations were synthesised through chemical co-precipitation. Surface morphology and elemental composition examination using FE-SEM and EDS show doping in manufactured goods. Doping elements, phase composition, and crystallinity were confirmed by XRD. Dopant addition improves particle crystallinity and crystallite size. SAED profiles showed significant crystallinity and sharp peaks, matching XRD data. FTIR spectra show Sr–O–Sr bonds and molecular vibrations. UV-vis spectroscopy of SrO and Te/SrO-starch samples showed a transfer in absorbance to the infrared (blue shift), owing to an increase in energy bandgap. Photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy examines charge carrier movement, trapping efficiency, and electron-hole recombination behaviour. This paper attempts to improve the catalytic activities of SrO, SrO-starch composite with varying Te doping percentages and a set number of starch nanoparticles (NPs). Dye degradation of prepared samples was also evaluated using catalytic activity (CA) using NaBH₄ as a reduction representative. Te-doped SrO-starch composite shows better catalytic activity than virgin SrO and SrO-starch composite. At high and low concentrations, the synthesised nanocatalyst showed antibacterial efficacy against *S. aureus*. Synthesized nanocomposites were docked against -lactamaseE.coli and DNA GyraseE.coli. As such, we believe this manuscript would be of interest to those working in the field and is suitable for International Journal of Biological Macromolecules.

The manuscript, or its contents in some other form, has not been published previously by any of the authors and/or is not under consideration for publication in another journal at the time of submission. In the hope you will find this article worthy of publication in your prestigious journal and thanking you in anticipation. Thank you.

Two day ago, I submitted this manuscript in Applied Surface Sciences and Editor recommended your prestigious Journal.

Sincerely,

Dr. M. Ikram

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Declaration of interests/Conflict of 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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Dr. Muhammad Ikram
Assistant Professor Physics
GC University Lahore

Author Statement

Muhammad Ikram, Conceptualization, Supervision

Ali Haider, Methodology and Writing

Muhammad Imran, Review and Editing

Junaid Haider, Software and Formal Analysis

Sadia Naz, Data Curation and writing

Anwar Ul-Hamid, Resources and Review and Editing

Walid Nabgan, Review and Editing

Muhammad Mustajab, Writing

Anum Shahzadi, Software and Formal Analysis

Iram Shahzadi, Validation and Investigation

Muhammad Asif Raza, Methodology

Ghazanfar Nazir, Review and Editing

1 **Facile synthesis of starch and tellurium doped SrO nanocomposite for catalytic and**
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3 Muhammad Ikram^a, Ali Haider^b, Muhammad Imran^c, Junaid Haider^d, Sadia Naz^d, Anwar Ul-
4 Hamid^e, Walid Nabgan^{f*}, Muhammad Mustajab^a, Anum Shahzadi^g, Iram Shahzadi^h, **Muhammad**
5 **Asif Razaⁱ, Ghazanfar Nazir^j**

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7 Lahore, 54000, Pakistan

8 ^bDepartment of Clinical Sciences, Faculty of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, Muhammad
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21 **Nawaz Shareef University of Agriculture, Multan, 66000, Pakistan**

22 ^jDepartment of Nanotechnology and Advanced Materials Engineering, Sejong

23 University, Seoul, Republic of Korea

24 *Corresponding author email: ^adr.muhammadikram@gcu.edu.pk, ^fwnabgan@gmail.com

25 **ABSTRACT**

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43 1. INTRODUCTION

44 Freshwater resources all around the globe are becoming susceptible to pollution and depleting as
45 a consequence of anthropogenic activities in various industrial sectors, particularly in textile
46 mills. Pesticides and industrial chemical waste have been dumped into rivers, lakes, and
47 coastlines regularly, owing to contamination of water supplies worldwide [1]. The world is
48 facing massive challenges in achieving the increasing demands for used water as freshwater
49 sources are constantly depleting due to an increase in population growth, prolonged water
50 shortages, public health initiatives, and competing requirements from a diverse range of
51 consumers [2–4]. Bacterial contamination in drinkable water is suspected of promoting a
52 significant portion of general health conditions in developing countries such as Pakistan. Some
53 of the most common methods for purifying contaminated water include the use of physical and
54 chemical intermediaries containing chlorine and its derivatives, low-frequency ultrasound,
55 activated carbon, reverse osmosis, heating, ultra-violet radiation, solid stone, water sediment
56 filters including ceramics and fibers, distillation, catalysis and photocatalysis activity, filtered
57 water, pitcher and roller filter, ozone exchange softener and water ion exchange [5,6]. Human
58 diseases, such as hepatitis, diarrhea, cryptosporidiosis, encephalitis, leptospirosis, and typhoid
59 fever, are spreading because of contaminated water. Globally, 1.4 million cases of hepatitis A are
60 diagnosed yearly, with a mortality rate of 12 800 to 16 100 [7]. Hazardous contaminants in
61 effluent contain both inorganic and organic toxic metals and dangerous solvents and compounds,
62 all of which must be primarily decayed to attain a sustainable green environment [8].

63 Metal oxide nanomaterials have been used in various applications for water and wastewater
64 treatment. The non-magnetic behavior of strontium oxide (SrO) with a large energy band gap of
65 alkali earth metal-based oxide with a cubic structure similar to sodium chloride (NaCl) structure.

66 SrO has been used as a catalyst in the field of microelectronics. Several polymer-based metal
67 oxide composites, including SrO, have recently been modified to improve the catalytic properties
68 of metal oxide nanomaterials [9]. Strontium oxides have been used in various biomedical
69 processes, including therapeutic implant cement, tissue or body elements replacement, and
70 compound filling. Because of their biodegradability, predictability, abundant supply, relatively
71 inexpensive, and recycled content within and between polymers such as cellulose and starch
72 polymers are relatively competitive applicants for synthesizing polymeric composites [10,11].
73 Moreover, the negligible antimicrobial activity of polymers restricts their use in recycling food,
74 water, and wastewater treatment. Polymeric composite materials with appropriate doping can
75 substantially enhance their catalytic potential and antimicrobial properties [12]. Starch is a
76 carbohydrate polymeric abundant in our diet [13]. Starch is a polysaccharide polymer with a high
77 molecular weight that can be extracted from plants composed of amylose and amylopectin and
78 has been found in a wide variety of crop production potato tubers, cassava roots, and corn
79 kernels. Starch is a low-cost, biologically sustainable energy raw material source for the
80 nutrition, paper, chemical, and pharmaceutical industries [14–16]. Starch nanoparticles (NPs)
81 with the size of particle in 20-50 nm range has been generated by the formation of complexes of
82 starch–butanol constructions accompanied by hydrolysis process of enzymes for starch–butanol
83 structures [17]. Starch-based nanocomposite materials have been used in the food service sector
84 to grow alternate methodologies to preserve and help perpetuate smell and taste [18]. Semimetal
85 oxide nanoparticles belong to a class of nanostructured materials with unique features that enable
86 their usage in various processes, such as catalysis. Tellurium (Te)-doped compounds and alloys
87 are of particular interest to researchers among the various types of chalcogenide materials due to
88 the possible technological applications to be developed with these materials [19]. Tellurium

89 oxide (TeO₂) is a p-type chalcogenide material that can exist in both crystalline and amorphous
90 phases. It has a broadband gap. TeO₂ can be found in both the paratellurite (tetragonal) and
91 tellurite (orthorhombic) phases when it is in crystalline form [20]. TeO₂ is versatile due to its
92 amazing qualities, which include its great chemical stability, mechanical durability, high
93 refractive index, good optical non-linearity, and high electrical conductivity. These properties
94 make TeO₂ appropriate for a wide range of applications [21] catalytic and antimicrobial activity.
95 The fabrication of Te/starch-doped SrO NPs and their implementations in organic and
96 inorganic pollutant degradation and antibacterial activity have yet to be reported. A chemical co-
97 precipitation route has been adopted to doping Te and starch into SrO to form Te/SrO-starch
98 composite NPs and illustrate that Te/SrO-starch composite NPs improved the catalytic activity
99 for degradation of dye and antimicrobial activity. Furthermore, Te and starch-doped
100 consequences on SrO characteristics such as optical, surface, structural morphology,
101 crystallinity, and chemical composition have been discussed and investigated. Computational
102 techniques facilitate researchers to explore in-depth mysteries behind various biological
103 activities. Here, we selected two enzymes from cell wall synthesis and nucleic acid synthesis
104 pathways, i.e., β -lactamase_{*E.coli*} and DNA Gyrase_{*E.coli*}, respectively and performed molecular
105 docking predictions for the understanding binding tendency of synthesized nanocomposites
106 against them.

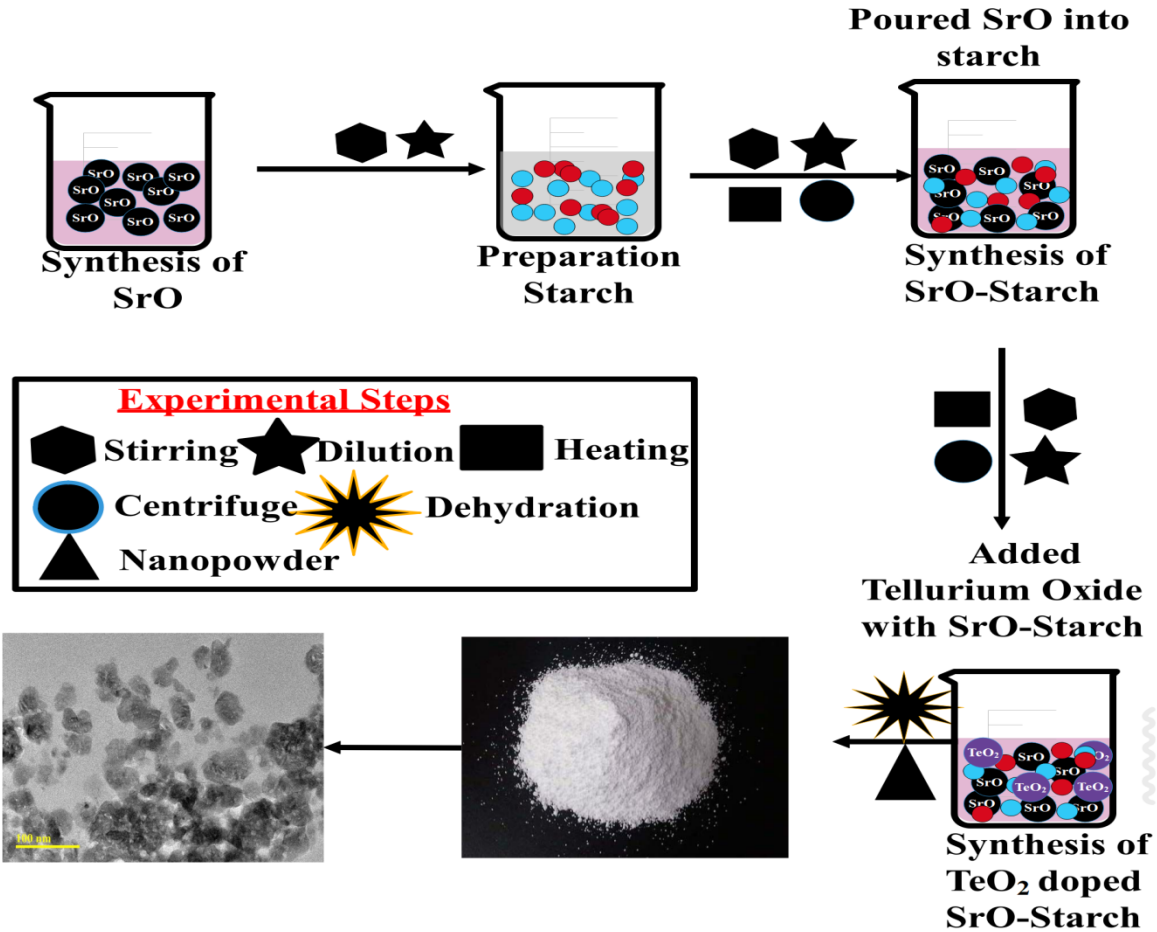
107 **2. Experimental sections**

108 **2.1 Materials**

109 Strontium chloride hexahydrate ($\text{SrCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 99%), tellurium dioxide (TeO_2 , 99%), and sodium
110 hydroxide (NaOH , 98%) has been purchased from sigma Aldrich Germany. Starch (99.6%) was
111 procured from Sigma Aldrich Japan. All materials were used without further purification.

112 **2.2 Synthesis of starch and Te/SrO-starch composite**

113 The chemical co-precipitation method was used to prepare the control sample of 0.5 M solution
114 of SrO by using $\text{SrCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ under constant heating and stirring at 90 °C for one hour to get a
115 homogeneous mixture. 0.5 M solution of NaOH has been utilized to maintain pH~ 12 of the
116 synthesized solution. The prepared precipitates were filtered and washed with de-ionized water
117 (DI water) to remove the residual reaction mixture. After centrifugation at 7500 rpm, the
118 prepared specimens were heated for 24 hours at 120 °C and grinded to get fine powder, as
119 revealed in Fig. 1.



120

121

Fig.1 Schematic synthesis illustration to fabricate Te/SrO-starch nanoparticles.

122

3g of starch and a fixed amount of distilled water (85 mL) were poured into a beaker, stirred and

123

heated for 1 hour at 70 °C, and grind the material. To avoid infestation, the powdered product

124

was stored in an airtight desiccator. To synthesize the required composite nanomaterials, an

125

appropriate starch concentration was solubilized into a SrCl₂.6H₂O solution at pH~12.

126

The various concentration of TeO₂ (2 and 4 %) under constant heating and stirring has been

127

incorporated. The prepared specimens have been heated and stirred at 90 °C for 30 minutes. The

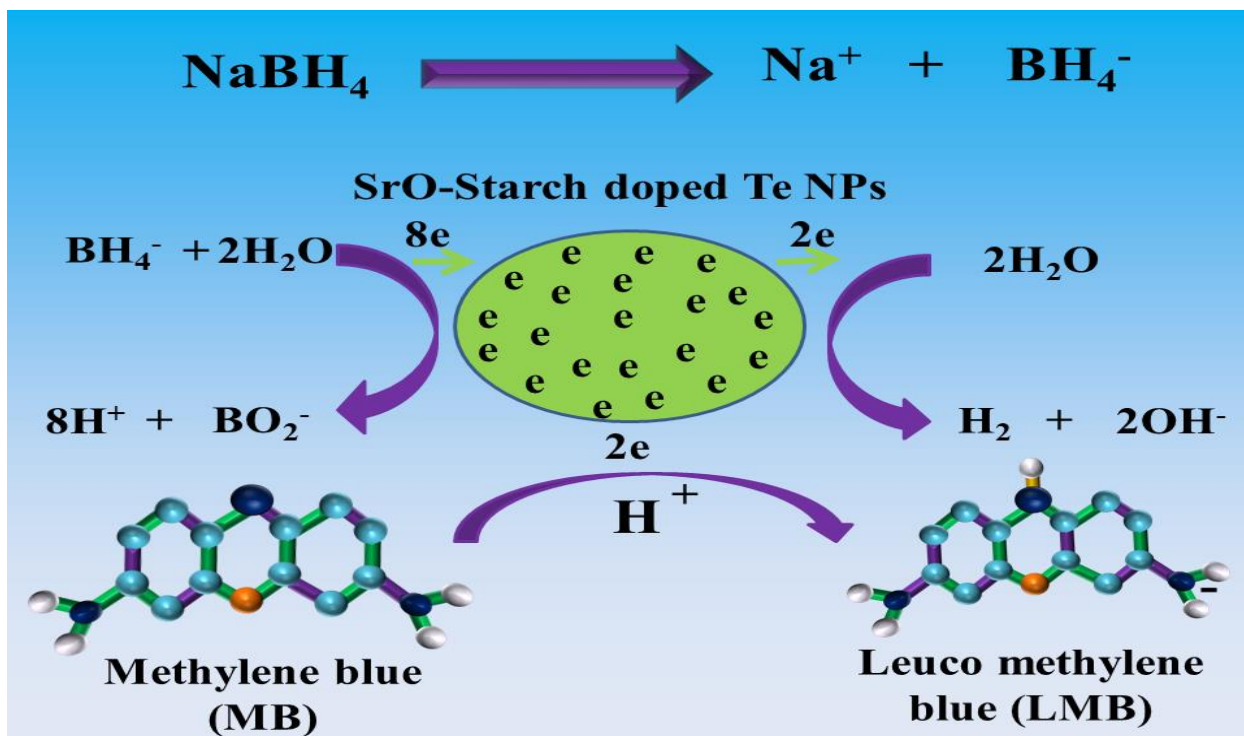
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precipitates accumulated by centrifugation at 7500 rpm and repetitively cleaned with DI water.

129 The precipitates have been heated overnight at 120 °C to yield fine dust of Te/SrO-starch
130 composite nanomaterials indicated in Fig. 1.

131 **2.3 Catalytic activity**

132 To test the catalytic properties of the synthesized catalysts, methylene blue (MB) dye solution
133 has been prepared in 1000 mL of DI water by dissolving 0.005 g of MB. To acquire a
134 homogeneous mixture, the solution was placed in the dark, continuous stirring for 20 min. In the
135 dark, a 0.1 M NaBH₄ solution act as a reducing agent was prepared in DI water. A 200 μL
136 NaBH₄ solution has been transferred into a dye (3 mL) concentration. Then the solution was
137 dubbed the "blank sample (without nanocatalyst)," dye degradation assessed. The mechanism of
138 dye degradation is represented in Fig.2. The catalytic activity (CA) has been measured by
139 incorporating 400 μL of prepared catalyst into the same mixture (dye and NaBH₄ solution). The
140 transformation of color of dye from blue to colorless dye solution demonstrated that the
141 degradation of dye had been successfully adopted. The prepared samples have been examined
142 using UV–Vis spectrophotometry to measure the degree of dye degradation in a specific time
143 interval. Furthermore, the CA has been calculated in three different media, namely acidic by
144 using H₂SO₄ with pH ~3, neutral with pH ~7, and basic solution has been made with the help of
145 NaOH to adjust the pH~12, respectively. The percentage of dye degradation for each sample has
146 been computed from the equation % Degradation = $(C_0 - C_t) / C_0 \times 100$, where C₀ is the initial
147 concentration of dye at t₀ and C_t is the final concentration of dye at t after incorporation of
148 composite materials.



149

150

Fig. 2 Schematic description of catalytic performance

151 **2.4 Isolation and identification of *S. aureus* and *E. coli***

152 Samples of caprine mastitic (bovine milk) have all been obtained from various farmlands in
 153 Punjab, Pakistan. These samples have been cultivated on 5% blood sheep agar. The cultivated
 154 specimens were preserved at 37 °C for 24 hours, swabbed on manitol salt agar (MSA) and
 155 MacConkey agar (MA) to separate purification of *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) and *Staphylococcus*
 156 *aureus* (*S. aureus*) correspondingly. Morphological analysis, Gram staining, and biochemical
 157 tests have been used to classify extracted colonies through catalase and coagulase tests.

158 **2.5 Antimicrobial activity**

159 The agar well diffusion approach was used to investigate the antibacterial activities of as-
 160 synthesized samples against Gram +ve and Gram –ve pathogens [22]. Bacterial strains have been

161 preserved in nutrient agar plates. The activated growth of bacterial strains on MA and MSA has
162 been swabbed over Nutrient broth with 0.5 McFarland standard (1.5×10^8 CFU/mL) against *E.*
163 *coli* (G -ve) and *S. aureus* (G +ve). The wells with a 6 mm diameter of approximately have been
164 developed by applying a sterile cork bore, and SrO, SrO-starch composite, and Te doped SrO-
165 starch composite at low and high concentrations (0.5 mg/50 μ L) and (1.0 mg/50 μ L),
166 respectively, have been encumbered through each well, with ciprofloxacin and DI water (0.005
167 mg/50 μ L) and (50 μ L) going to serve as +ve and -ve controls, correspondingly. After
168 incubating the synthesized samples at 37 °C for 24 hours, the antimicrobial potential was used
169 to calculate the inhibition zone (mm) measurement with the help of a Vernier caliper.
170 Antimicrobial efficiency was calculated statically by measuring the zone (mm) of inhibition by
171 applying an ANOVA (one-way analysis of variance) [23].

172 **2.6. Molecular Docking Studies**

173 Nanoparticles have been extensively studied for various biological applications, particularly drug
174 delivery, bio-sensing, bio-imaging and **antibacterial agents**. The biological potential of metal
175 nanoparticles depends on their well-characterized composition, size, crystallinity and
176 morphology [24]. The use of computational techniques to clearly understand the mechanism
177 behind given bioactivity has recently gained much attention. Here, we performed molecular
178 docking studies of SrO-starch and Te/ SrO-starch nanocomposites against selected enzyme
179 targets, i.e., β -lactamase and DNA gyrase from *E.coli*. Because β -lactamase and DNA gyrase are
180 essential for bacterial survival as they facilitate cell wall synthesis and nucleic acid synthesis, we
181 selected them as possible targets [25,26].

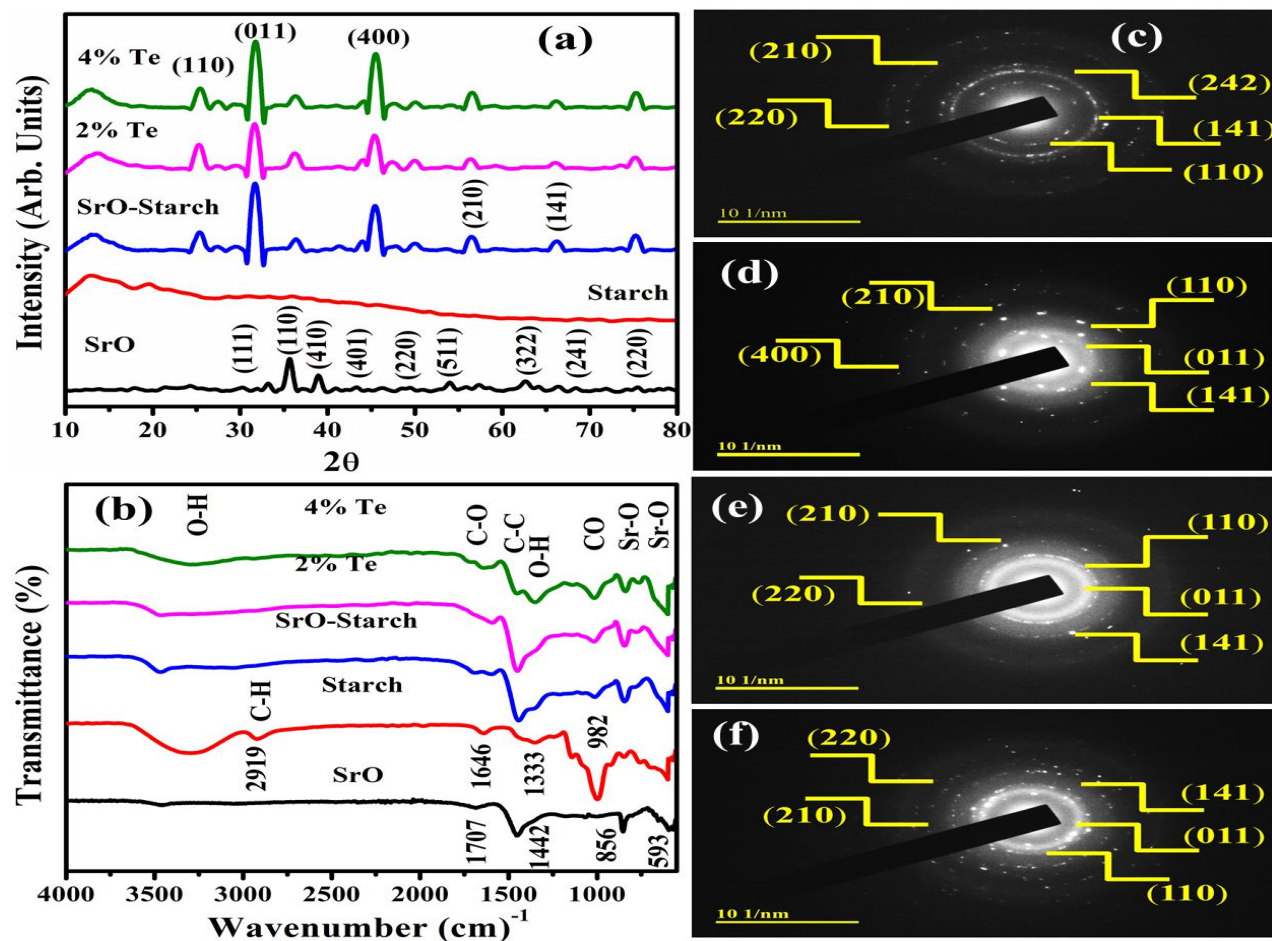
182 Crystal structures of β -lactamase $E.coli$ and DNA gyrase $E.coli$ were retrieved from protein data bank
183 having accession codes 4KZ9 (Res: 1.72 Å) [27] and 5MMN (Res: 1.90 Å) [28], respectively.
184 Molecular docking predictions were performed using ICM version 3.8-7d (Molsoft L.L.C., La
185 Jolla, CA) [29]. Protein structure preparation was done using the receptor preparation tool of
186 ICM software, where key steps involved were energy minimization (using default force field),
187 addition of H-atoms and gastegier charges, removal of native ligand and H₂O molecules. The
188 binding pocket was specified around co-crystallized ligand, i.e., within 5 Å vicinity using a grid
189 box. Finally, best-docked conformations generated in each case were selected and analyzed
190 further.

191 The unit cell (monomer structure) of nanocomposites were prepared using ligEdit tool of ICM
192 and lowest energy/stable conformation was generated in each case and later optimized. The
193 docked complexes were analyzed using Discovery studio visualizer and Pymol software to
194 generate a 3D-view of binding interactions within the active pocket.

195 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

196 The crystal patterns, phase composition and crystalline size of pristine, SrO-starch composite and
197 Te-doped SrO-starch composite NPs were investigated and identified using XRD (Fig.
198 3a). Characteristics peaks of diffraction at angles of 25.5°, 29.9°, 32.9°, and 49.9° have been
199 appointed to the planes (110), (111), (011), and (220) cubic SrO space group Fm-3 m and space
200 group number 225 (JCPDS 00-006-0520) and matched with DB card number 1011328.
201 Additional, the diffraction peaks at 35.59° and 75.3° were assigned to the (110) and (220) planes
202 of tetragonal SrO₂ with space group numbers 139 and with space group 14/mmm well-
203 matched with JCPDS 00-001-1113. In addition, the peaks of diffraction have been observed at 2θ

204 values 39.2° , 43.2° , 46.3° , 54° , 57.3° , 62.9° , 66.2° and 68.5° correspond to the planes (410),
205 (401) (400), (511), (210), (322), (141) and (241) of strontium hydroxide $\text{Sr}(\text{OH})_2$ with the
206 JCPDS card No. 71-2365 and matched with DB card number 9008161 indicating the existence of
207 $\text{Sr}(\text{OH})_2$ in the synthesized samples respectively. The sharp peaks indicated the formation of high
208 crystalline powders for SrO and $\text{Sr}(\text{OH})_2$. Amylose and amylopectin have been recognized as the
209 significant elements of starch, representing the crystalline and amorphous phases as a result,
210 starch is a semicrystalline material. The amylose yields the starch's crystalline region with a
211 linear structure, while the amylopectin generates the starch's amorphous phase with a branched
212 structure [30–32]. The starch spectrum has a broadband region of 10° and 27° with distinct
213 peaks. The starch XRD spectrum indicates two strong diffraction peaks at 12.9° and 19.7° [33].
214 Due to the low relative amount of starch-doping concentration, no predominant peaks of starch
215 emerged in doped samples. The SrO-starch composite causes the sharp peaks in the graph to
216 shift. With 2% Te doping in SrO-starch composite, the peak intensity of the sample increased; as
217 the concentration of doping increased, the intensity increased, and the bandwidth decreased.
218 The purity and crystallinity have been indicated by the strong and sharp peaks of the samples.
219 The main reason for the crystals disposition of nanocomposites materials for the structure
220 of metal–oxygen, strongly influenced by a wide range of restrictions such as time, reaction
221 temperature and fabrication process [34]. The crystalline size of prepared nanoparticle can be
222 calculated from the most intense peak of all prepared samples using the Debye–Scherrer formula
223 was 26.18 nm, 10.5 nm, 8.22 nm, and 5.98 nm with corresponding plane (110) and (011) for SrO
224 and, SrO-starch composite and Te (2, 4%) doped SrO-starch composite, respectively.



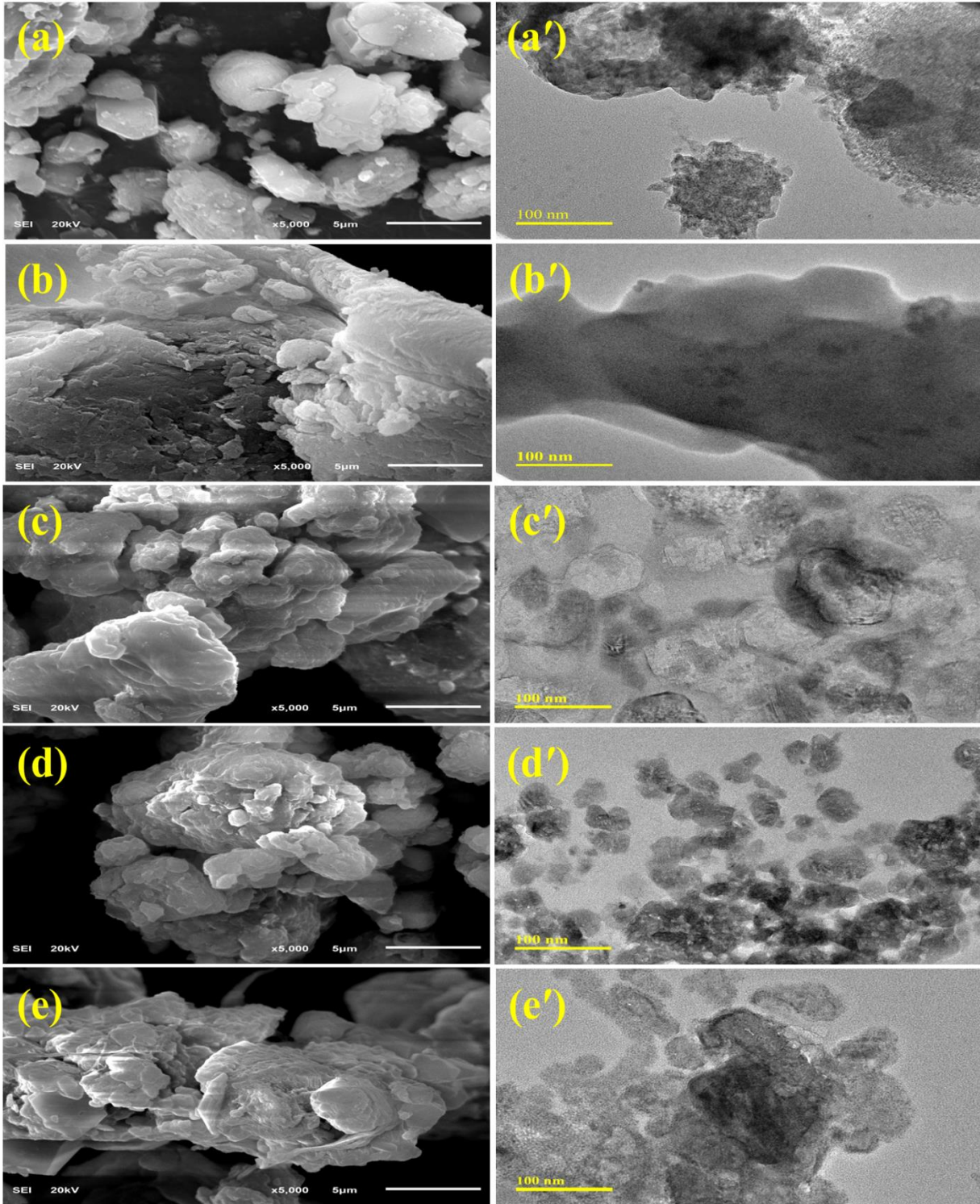
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226 **Fig. 3** (a) XRD pattern prepared NPs (b) FTIR spectra (c) SAED pattern of SrO NPs, (d) SAED
 227 pattern of SrO-starch composite (d) SAED pattern of 2% Te doped composite NPs, (e) SAED
 228 pattern of 4% Te doped composite NPs.

229 FTIR spectra of prepared NPs have been analyzed in the range of $4000\text{-}400\text{ cm}^{-1}$ to clarify the
 230 chemical functional groups in specimens indicated in (Fig. 3b). The FTIR spectra of SrO NPs
 231 have bands between $500\text{ and }1000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ at 592 cm^{-1} ascribed to Sr–O stretching, and bond at
 232 856.39 cm^{-1} assigned to Sr-O bending vibrations confirming the SrO formation. The
 233 effectiveness of these bands is strongly dependent on the reaction conditions, and at high
 234 temperatures, a strong Sr–O–Sr molecular structure has been established [34]. The C–C bonding

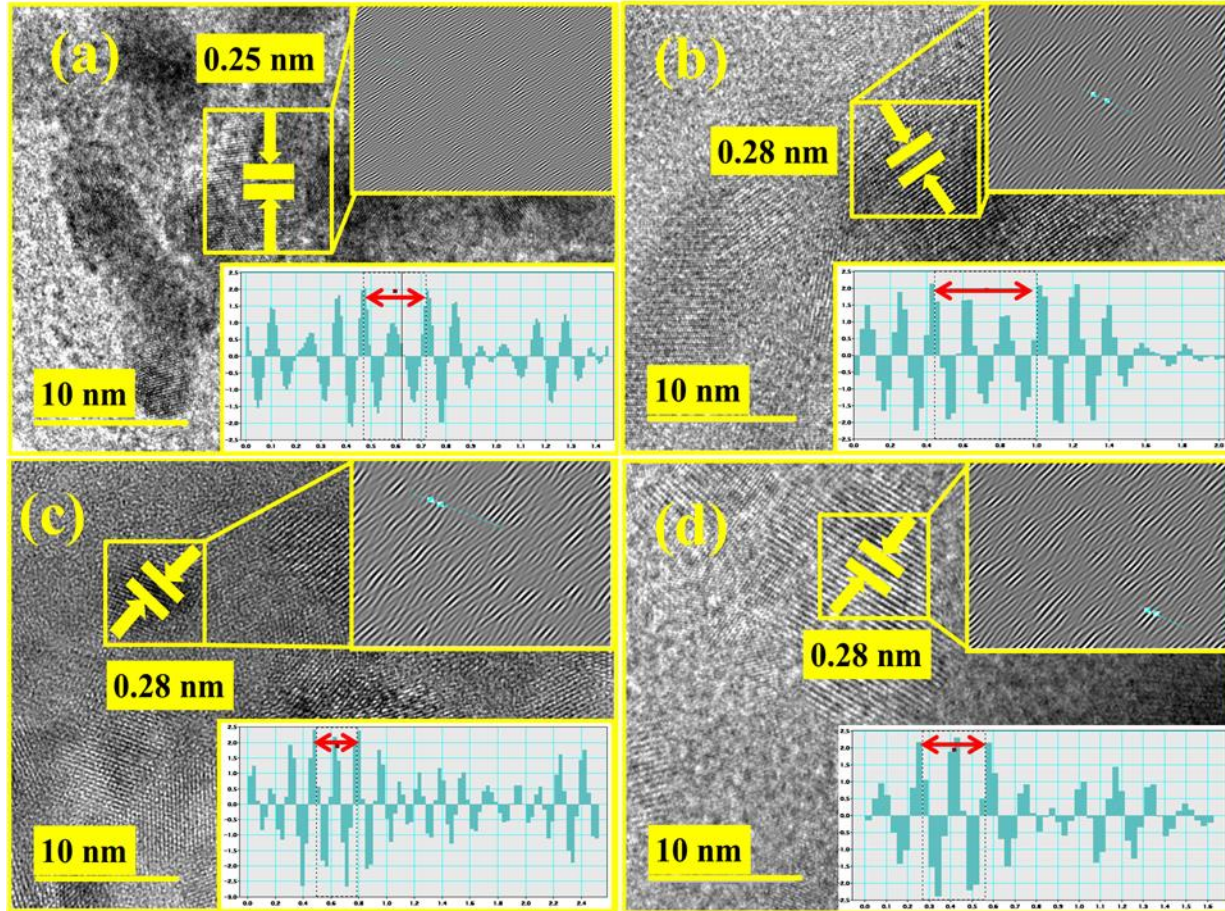
235 and C–O stretching vibration of bonds are responsible for the bands observed near 1707 and
236 1442 cm^{-1} , correspondingly [10]. The FTIR spectrum of starch revealed broadband near at 3298,
237 2923, 1646, 1333, 1240, 1157, and 982 cm^{-1} . The strong band at 3298 cm^{-1} was associated with
238 starch O–H stretching bond, and its width has been credited to intermolecular and intramolecular
239 hydrogen bond formation. The observed band at 2919 cm^{-1} has asymmetric C–H stretching
240 characteristics. The observed band at 1157 and 982 cm^{-1} assigned to CO and CC stretching with
241 contributions of COH [35]. The bands appeared at 1240 cm^{-1} and 1333 cm^{-1} have been used to
242 ascribe the O-H bending of alcohols (primary or secondary). Because of the hydrophilic nature
243 of starch, a single peak has been detected at approximately 1646 cm^{-1} , which is associated with a
244 water (H_2O) molecule tightly bound with starch [36,37]. Starch has two populations of water:
245 one of them is hydrogen bonding in the crystalline structure of starch and the other is hydration
246 of water considered water freer [38]. Starch strongly interacts with water molecules in both
247 amorphous and crystalline structures, affirming by the FTIR spectrum [39]. In **SrO-starch**
248 **composites**, the broadband was obtained at 842, 1014, 1350, 1440, 1592, 1688, and 3468 cm^{-1} ,
249 which shows increasing **bandwidth** and indicates the band transformation caused by a reduction
250 in atomic order arrangement within the unit cell structure. Te atoms **are** distributed uniformly on
251 the surface of SrO **which** adsorbs oxygen and prevents SrO aggregation, decreasing bond
252 intensity. As indicated by increased intensity transmission, the coupling effect is more
253 pronounced in Te–SrO than in starch–SrO. This could have been assigned to a non-significant
254 increment in the length of bond separation as the consequence of composite doping [40].
255 SAED has been utilized to identify polycrystalline and single-crystalline structures in nature and
256 show that the structure is amorphous. Electron diffraction profiles obtained from SAED rings
257 were indicated in Fig.3 (c-f). SAED has been implemented to recognize crystal structures

258 apparent from the diffraction rings that are in a circular shape and indicate the polycrystalline
259 nature of the synthesized materials. With increasing the concentration of Te in SrO-strach
260 composite, crystallinity increases. The Obtained rings are highly crystalline and well-matched
261 with the results of XRD.



263 **Fig. 4** a–e SEM micrographs and a'–e' TEM micrograph of a) SrO, b) starch, c) **SrO-starch**
264 **composite** d) **2% Te doped SrO-starch composite**, and e) 4% Te doped SrO-starch composite
265 nanoparticles.

266 The structural and surface morphology of synthesized NPs has been examined through FE-SEM,
267 **TEM** and HR-TEM, as revealed in Fig.4. The SEM morphology confirms the particles are
268 agglomerated as represented in Fig 4 (a'–e') in **a** composite. The agglomeration increased and
269 **chunks like morphology were obtained by incorporating Te into the composite**. In TEM images,
270 the pristine sample was aggregated with SrO NPs, indicating agglomeration of particles. The
271 nanoparticle of starch shows a smooth surface and layer-like properties as the polymer mostly
272 make the layer-like structure represented in Fig. 4b and 4b'. Upon doping starch in SrO, the
273 nanoparticle can be seen clearly with small size, as indicated in Fig. 4c. Further, Te (2
274 %) doping into the composite resulted in the aggregation of nanocomposites that were distributed
275 randomly over the starch surface. Figures 4d, **e indicate** the existence of NPs with aggregated
276 dopants. The configuration of a triplex composite (Te/SrO–starch) network in the shape of NPs
277 has been confirmed by increasing the doping concentration of Te into SrO-starch composite, as
278 shown in Fig. 4e, a higher concentration of Te (4%) has been noticed. The triplex structure may
279 improve charge carrier separation and transportation (electron and holes) as a consequence of
280 improving the catalytic degradation of dye.



281

282 **Fig. 5** Calculated interlayer d-spacing using the HR-TEM micrograph of a) SrO, b) SrO-starch,

283 c) Te (2 %), and d) Te (4 %) samples.

284 HR-TEM micrograph has been used to measure the interlayer d-spacing measurements of

285 pristine, SrO-starch composite and composites doped samples calculated throughout Gatan

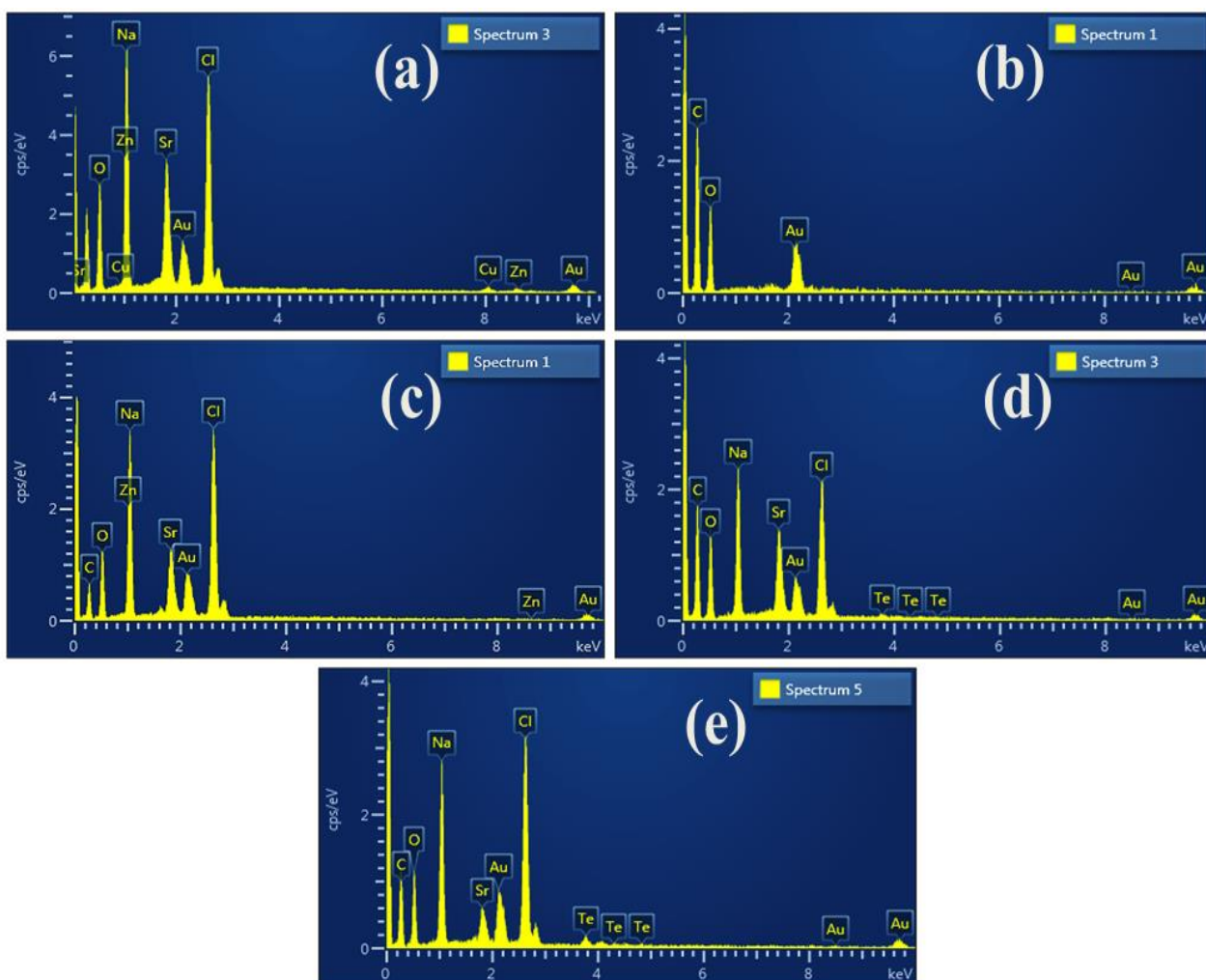
286 digital-micrograph software using IFFT and FFT. HR-TEM pictures are used to make a

287 distinction lattice fringes. The measured interlayer spacing of samples is represented in Fig.5 (a-

288 d). The measured d-spacing value of pristine SrO NPs is 0.25 nm, corresponding to (110) plane.

289 The SrO-starch composite and Te (2 and 4%) doped composite have a d spacing value of 0.28

290 nm corresponding to the plane (011).



292

293 **Fig. 6** EDS analysis of SrO, SrO-starch composites (a–e) with Te doped content (2 and 4 %).

294 Electron diffraction spectroscopy (EDS) has been used to investigate the stoichiometric analysis

295 and composition of pure SrO, starch, starch-SrO composite, and co-doped samples indicated in

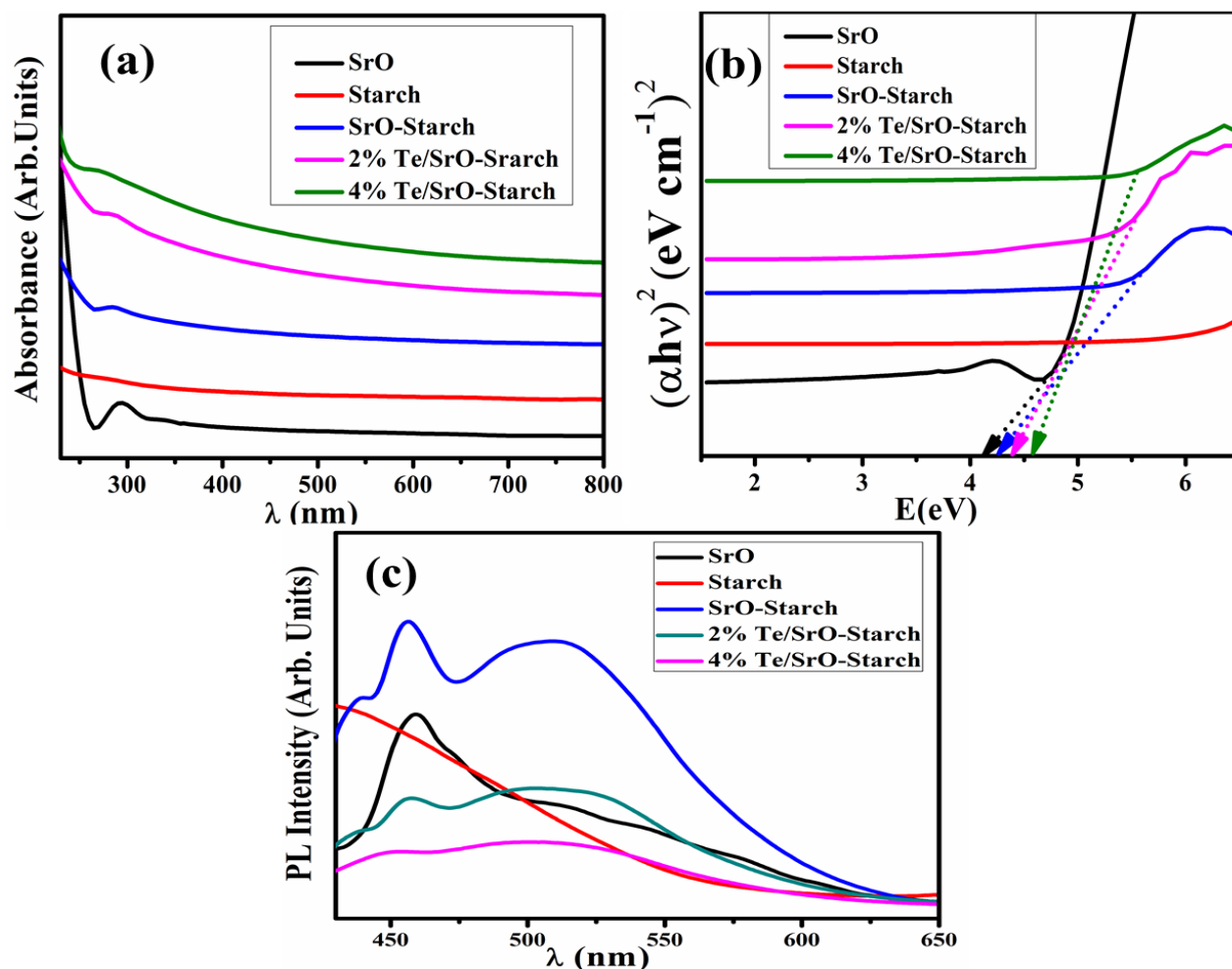
296 Fig. 6. The obtained EDS profile pictures exhibit different peaks for SrO, as shown in Fig 6a. Cl

297 signals in EDS spectra may be interpreted as an impurity picked up during sample preparation.

298 Copper (Cu) is extensively used in detectors an artificial Cu peak was observed in spectra. The

299 Cu signal could also arrive from the stubs that have been components of the specimen holder

300 used throughout the EDS analysis [41]. Small peaks of sodium (Na) have been appeared because
 301 NaOH used to regulate the pH of the prepared solution. In Fig. 6b, the peaks of carbon and
 302 oxygen show successful starch synthesis. Fig .6c revealed the preparation of starch-SrO
 303 composite, and Fig. 6d and e show successful doping of Te into the composite.



304
 305 **Fig. 7** a) Absorption UV–Vis spectra, b) Tauc plot energy band gap, and c) PL emission spectra
 306 of synthesized nanoparticles

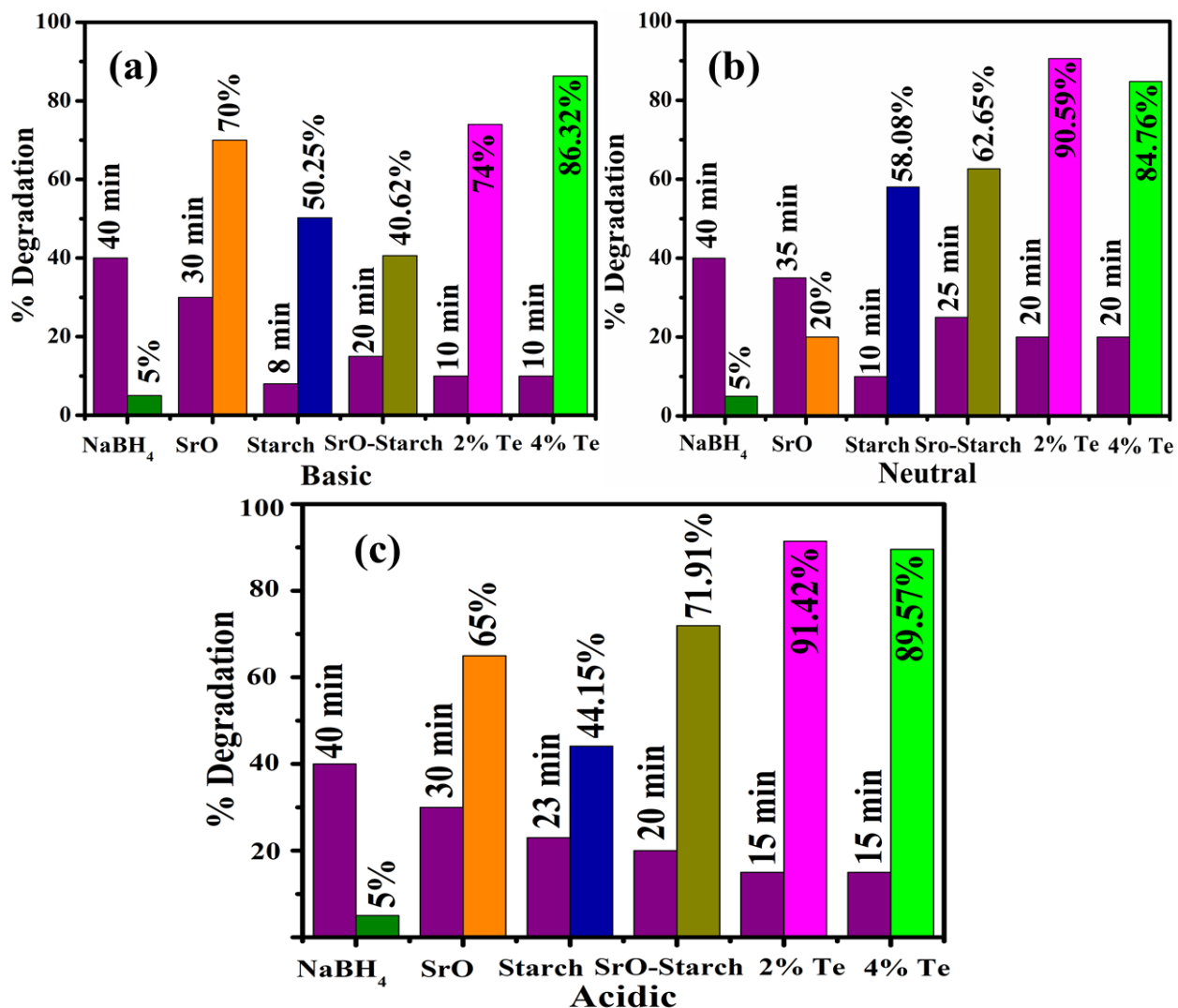
307 UV–Vis spectra have been used to examine the range of 200–800 nm for optical evaluation of
 308 prepared Te/SrO–starch NPs (Fig.7 a). The absorption band in the spectra has been

309 demonstrated at 293 nm, 250, and 270–287 nm for SrO, starch, and composites, as well as co-
310 doped SrO-starch composites with Te (2 and 4%), indicating the purity and controlled size of the
311 particles. The excitonic absorption of SrO at 293 nm reflects quantum size effects caused by the
312 formation of monodispersed nanoparticles [34]. After Te (2 and 4%) doping in a composite
313 (SrO-starch), a blue shift was observed. This represents that the crystalline size decreased,
314 as indicated in XRD analysis. The energy bandgap (E_g) of synthesized samples was determined
315 by extrapolating the linear portion using the Tauc plot by $(h\nu)^2$ vs $h\nu$ represented in Fig. 7b. The
316 E_g of the control SrO sample was 4.23 eV, whereas co-doping of starch and Te in the lattice
317 resulted in an increase in energy band gap of up to 4.59 eV. SrO NPs have a band gap energy of
318 4.23 eV higher than bulk SrO. The trend of decreasing particle size influences the increase in the
319 energy bandgap of the synthesized sample owing to the effect of quantum confinement. The
320 increased E_g result represents that the prepared SrO NPs in this work are in nanophase.

321 Photoluminescence (PL) has been used to investigate the charge carrier (e^- , h^+) trapping and
322 charge carrier transfer efficiency, as well as to comprehend the rate of recombination of electron
323 hole-pair [42]. PL emission spectra of pristine SrO, composite, and Te doped composites have
324 been retrieved at an excitation wavelength $\lambda_{exc}=350$ nm depicted in Fig. 7c in the range of 400-
325 700 nm to investigate the transfer and recombination rate of charges. Pure SrO exhibited a
326 broadband emission in the 450–460 nm range, which is consistent with the range expected by
327 Nemade and Waghuley, who affirmed the SrO emission spectrum of quantum dots synthesized
328 via chemical precipitation in the range of 320–500 nm [43]. Energy gap values have been
329 transformed by size and surface composition variations, which were suggested to affect the
330 range of emission frequency. Differences in the size of particles, energy band gap values and
331 surface morphology account for the minor difference between the current outcomes and those

332 observed by Nemade and Waghuley. It has been expected that the PL with lower emission
333 intensity correlates with a lower rate of charge carrier of electron and hole recombination [44].
334 Starch demonstrated the PL emission peak at 413 nm and raised PL emission intensity, denoting
335 that transfer rates increased after starch was doped in SrO to generate the synthesized composite.
336 Composite doped with Te (2 %) concentration increased the **transfer rate**; however, increasing
337 the concentration of Te (4 %) doped composite resulted in a decrease in PL intensity. This
338 decrease in PL intensity after Te incorporation in composites demonstrates that recombination of
339 charges has been suppressed in the composite, which is very beneficial for superior catalytic
340 activity and antimicrobial actions.

341 CA of synthesized samples has been examined to determine the % dye degradation efficiency
342 against MB in the existence of NaBH₄ in acidic, neutral, and basic media Fig.8. The catalytic dye
343 degradation has been highly dependent on the solution pH, the adsorption characteristics of the
344 nanocatalyst, the shape and surface area of the catalyst, crystallinity, and morphology of the
345 nanomaterials [45,46]. CA is influenced by the diffusion of dye molecules and reducing
346 agents on the surface catalyst, adsorption on the surface, oxidation and reduction reaction,
347 decomposition of resultant species, and product diffusion apart from the surface of the catalyst,
348 as represented in Fig. 2. The catalyst plays an essential function between the dye and the
349 reducing agent, an electron relay, increasing the rate of oxidation and reduction on the catalyst's
350 surface [47]. **The small size particles provide a large surface area which is beneficial for dye**
351 **degradation. According to the results of an XRD study, as the concentration of Te increases to**
352 **the optimal level, the particle size decreases. This leads to a higher surface area, resulting in a**
353 **high catalytic activity on the MB dye degradation.**



354

355 **Fig. 8** Catalytic dye degradation activity of synthesized samples in a) basic, b) neutral, and c)

356 acidic medium.

357 According to the experimental results, the maximum degradation of dye was noticed in both

358 basic and acidic media, as represented in Fig.8 (a-c). A 3 mL MB solution has been marked as

359 the targeted dye for the investigation. A reducing agent NaBH₄ (200 μL) was then incorporated

360 into the prepared dye solution. The reducing agent decided to act as an electron carrier for the

361 dye molecule, causing them to degrade. After incorporation of reducing agent, only 5 % of dye

362 has been observed to degrade. This is mainly attributable to NaBH₄ acting as an electron relay to

363 transfer electrons and lower catalytic activity without any catalyst to degrade the dye molecule.
364 The synthesized nanocatalyst (400 μL) has been accumulated into the solution, leading to an
365 improvement in the degradation of dye and considerable catalytic performance, approximately
366 91.42 % dye in 20 minutes in an acidic medium. Furthermore, the entire performance was carried
367 out at 25 °C. The samples have been spectrophotometrically examined in the 200–800 nm range.

368 The pH value is critical throughout the catalytic activity. Furthermore, pH plays a significant role
369 in textile effluents, and the molecular mechanism includes dye degradation. It is significant to
370 mention that the % degradation of dye is directly proportional to the pH value. At neutral pH the
371 pure SrO indicated 20% degradation of dye in 35 min and starch revealed 58% degradation of
372 dye in 10 min. The SrO-starch composite demonstrated dye degradation of 62.65% in 25 min.
373 Upon further doping, 2% Te shows 90% and 4% Te indicates 84.76% dye degradation in 20 min.

374 NaOH solution has been utilized to sustain the dye for the basic medium at pH ~ 12, as
375 represented in Fig. 8a. Pristine SrO degrades the dye solution by 70% in 30 minutes, and starch
376 indicates 50.25% degradation in 8 minutes. The composite of SrO-starch presented dye
377 degradation of 40.62% in a time of 20 min. Te (2 %) degradation of dye 74% of MB in basic
378 medium. Te (4 %) sample exhibited dye degradation of MB 86.32% in 18 min. Although there is
379 a scarcity of H^+ atoms in basic medium, the excess of hydroxyl (OH^-) ions comes from
380 NaOH adhere to the catalyst surface and induce a net negative charge on the catalyst surface.

381 The positively charged surface (cationic) of MB dyes in nature attracts the negatively charged
382 surface of catalyst as the consequence of adsorption has been accomplished. As previously
383 stated, CA depends on the adsorption capacities of the catalyst surface, so adsorption increased
384 in basic medium encourages significant interaction against MB and the catalyst surface that are
385 positively and negatively charged surfaces, respectively, resulting in high efficiency of

386 dye degradation [48]. For acidic medium Fig. 8c, H₂SO₄ has been used to maintain the pH ~3 of
 387 dye solution. Pristine SrO revealed a maximum degradation of 65% in 30 min of dye, and starch
 388 indicated a dye degradation of 44.15% in 23 min. The composite of SrO-starch indicates dye
 389 degradation of 71.91% in 20 min, and the co-doped sample revealed 91.42% for 2% Te doping
 390 and 89.57% for 4% Te doping in time for 15 min, respectively. The degradation of MB
 391 dye occurs through the degradation process, in which it receives electrons generated from NaBH₄
 392 (reducing agent) through a catalyst surface. The existence of H₂SO₄, which contributes to the
 393 reduction of MB into leuco-methylene blue (LMB), is the cause of enhanced CA in acidic
 394 conditions. The nanocatalyst can transfer electrons from NaBH₄ to the MB dye and electrons
 395 from NaBH₄ to the MB dye, resulting in the reduction of dye molecules [48]. The 4%-Te/SrO-
 396 starch sample revealed higher dye degradation in acidic, basic, and neutral mediums. The 2% -
 397 Te/SrO-starch catalyst demonstrated excellent catalytic activity in an acidic medium, serving as a
 398 superior catalyst for maximum dye degradation. According to experimental results, the highest
 399 dye degradation value was observed in acidic conditions.

400 **Table 1:** Antibacterial activity of SrO, SrO-starch composite, and Te (2 and 4%)/SrO-starch for
 401 Gram-positive and negative bacteria strain

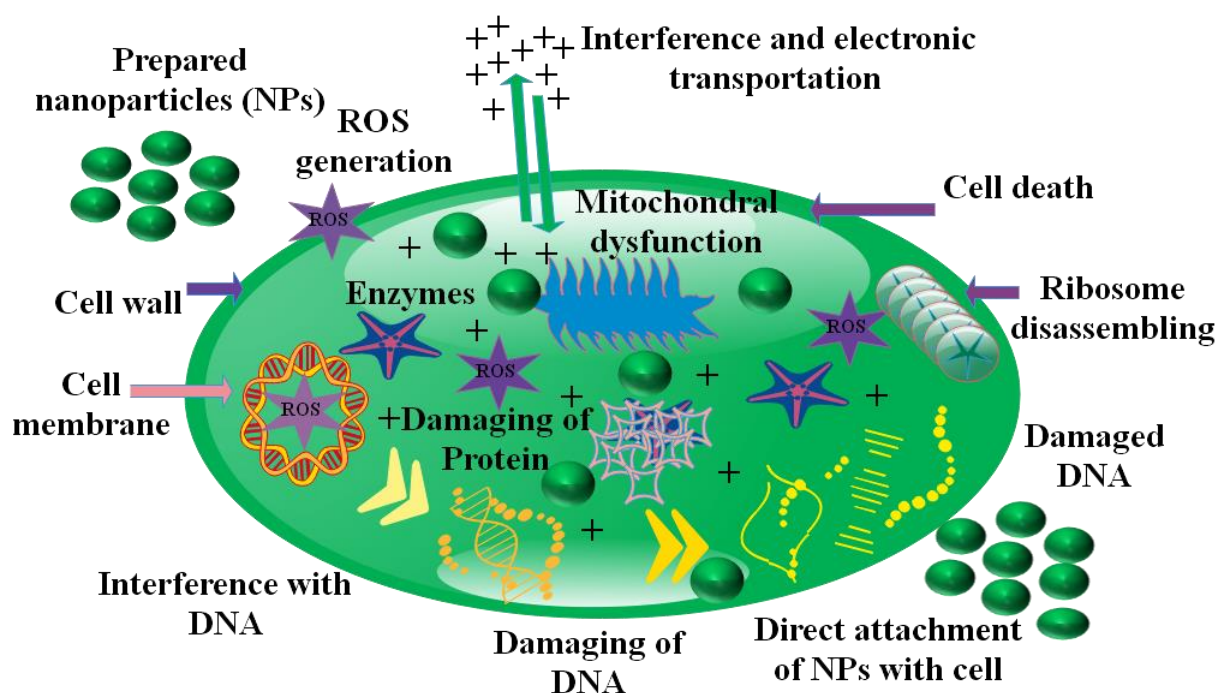
Samples	<i>S. aureus</i>		<i>E. coli</i>	
	Inhibition zone (mm)		Inhibition zone (mm)	
	0.5 mg/50 μ L		0.5 mg/50 μ L	
	1.0 mg/50 μ L		1.0 mg/50 μ L	
SrO	0	0.95	0	0.9
SrO-starch	1.25	3.15	0	1.8

2% Te/SrO-starch	2.20	6.25	1.85	2.55
4% Te/SrO-starch	3.10	9.30	2.30	3.25
Ciprofloxacin	9.20	9.20	4.25	4.25
DI water	0	0	0	0

402

403 In vitro antimicrobial activity of the SrO, SrO–starch and Te doped SrO–starch composite
404 nanoparticles for G –ve and G +ve bacteria has been investigated by calculating the inhibition
405 zone, applying the agar method well diffusion represented in Table 1. The extracted data indicate
406 enhancement in bactericidal potential in comparing both *S. aureus* and *E. coli* bacteria. Pristine
407 SrO, SrO-starch composite, and Te doped SrO-starch composite NPs samples revealed
408 enhancement in antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus* in the comparison of *E. coli* bacteria.
409 Substantial zones (nm) of inhibition for *S. aureus* and *E. coli* for bactericidal potential for
410 pristine simple were calculated as (0–0.95 mm) and (0–0.9 mm), including both for G +ve and G
411 –ve at lower and higher concentration. SrO–starch composite effectively improved the
412 bactericidal potential represented by the inhibition zones measurement at high and low doses has
413 been recorded as (1.25–3.15 mm) and (0–1.8 mm) between *S. aureus* and *E. coli*
414 correspondingly. Te doped SrO–starch composite nanoparticle effectively improved the
415 bactericidal potential on G +ve compared with G –ve bacterial strains. 2% Te doping in the
416 composite represents the inhibition zones (mm) measurements that have been recorded as (2.20–
417 6.35 mm) and (1.85–2.55 mm) at high and low doses toward *S. aureus* and *E. coli*,
418 correspondingly. At 4% doping in the composites, the inhibition zone measurements for *S.*
419 *aureus* and *E. coli* at low and high doses were represented (3.10–9.30 mm) and (2.30–3.25 mm),

420 respectively. Ciprofloxacin has been utilized as the positive control presented (9.20 mm) and
 421 (4.25 mm) inhibition zones against *S. aureus* and *E. coli*, correspondingly in comparison with DI
 422 (0 mm) water used as a negative control. Ultimately, the Te-doped composite NPs indicate
 423 outperformed antimicrobial efficiency between G +ve contrast to the G -ve bacterial strain.
 424 Gram-positive bacteria have a cell wall typically containing a thin layer of peptidoglycan,
 425 teichoic acid, and numerous pores. These pores allow foreign molecules to infiltrate the cell wall,
 426 which causes damage to the cell membrane and ultimately results in cell death. Additionally,
 427 compared to Gram-negative bacteria, Gram-positive bacteria have a strong negative charge on
 428 the cell wall surface, which can attract NPs.

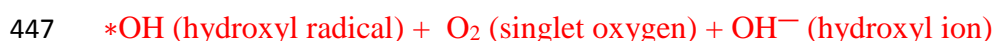


429

430 **Fig. 9** Schematic description of antimicrobial activity.

431 The synthesized SrO and Te doped SrO–starch composites NPs generate reactive oxygen species
 432 (ROS) in the presence of light during incubation, as represented in Fig. 9. The oxidative stress

433 tolerance has been determined by particle size, morphology and surface area of prepared
 434 nanomaterials, small size NPs having large surface area all of which play a role in antimicrobial
 435 action potential [49,50]. The electron-hole pairs serve as the primary unit for generating reactive
 436 oxygen species (ROS). The chemical process includes the production of enhanced levels of
 437 reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as superoxide anion radical ($*O^{-2}$), hydroxyl radical ($*OH$)
 438 and hydrogen peroxide radicals($*H_2O_2$). Many transition metal oxides are sportive against
 439 microorganisms due to the interaction of hydrophobic and electrostatic forces. The production of
 440 reactive oxygen species (ROS) can be explained as follows [51–53].



448 Sro, Sro-starch and Te-incorporated Sro-starch are exposed to light with the energy of photon
 449 equal to the energy bandgap of semiconductor and electrons from the valence band (VB) are
 450 transferred to the conduction band (CB), leaving holes in the valence band. These excited
 451 electrons (e^-) in the CB can be trapped by the oxygen molecules (O_2) present on the surface,
 452 producing superoxide anion radicals. Similarly, the holes in the VB react with the water
 453 molecules (H_2O), emitting hydroxyl and hydrogen ion. The superoxide anion radicals (O_2^-)

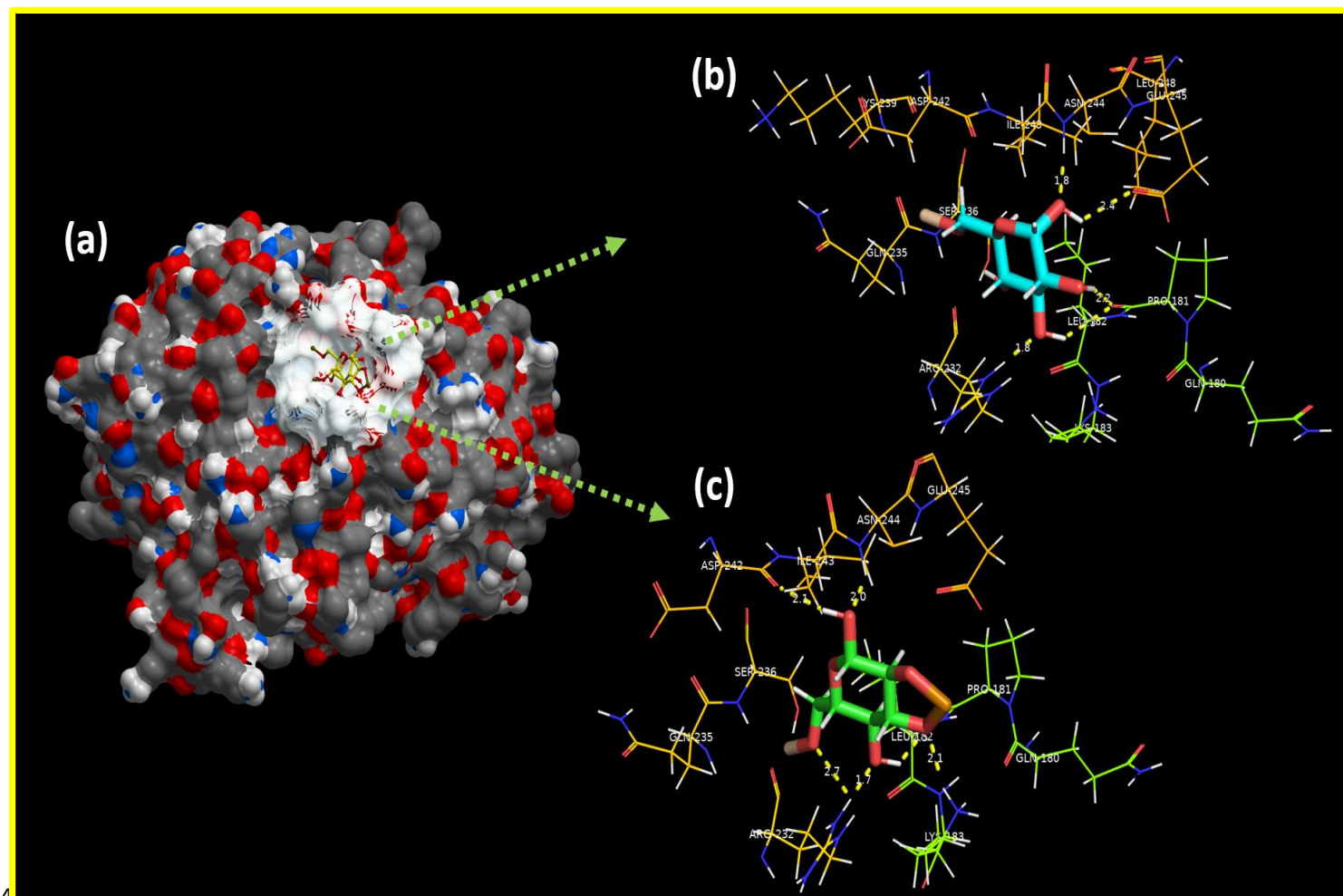
454 interact with H^+ ions to produce hydroperoxyl radical ($*HO_2$). The hydroperoxyl radical ($*HO_2$)
455 combines with e^- and H^+ resulting in hydrogen peroxide radical ($*H_2O_2$). At the same time,
456 hydrogen peroxide radical ($*H_2O_2$) can react with superoxide anion radicals ($*O^{2-}$) to generate
457 hydroxyl radical ($*OH$), hydroxyl ion (OH^-) and singlet oxygen (O_2). Negatively charged
458 radicals (hydroxyl radicals and superoxide anions) cannot penetrate microorganism cell
459 membranes, but they can cause critical damage to the bacteria's outer surface, whereas positively
460 charged hydrogen peroxide radicals ($*H_2O_2$) can easily penetrate negatively charged bacterial
461 cell membranes and kill the bacteria. Therefore, hydrogen peroxide radical ($*H_2O_2$) is highly
462 harmful to damaging the bacterial cell membranes and causes the death of bacteria.

463 The electrostatic interaction among both bacterial strains and composites nanomaterials
464 generates ROS that attaches to the bacterial cell membrane, resulting in the extrusion of
465 cytoplasmic content and structure and the annihilation of bacteria present to be willing to take
466 responsibility for bacterial cell death [54–58]. The anti-bacterial efficiency of NPs is reversed as
467 their size increases [23,49,55]. Two reactions for nanomaterial response with the strains of
468 bacteria have been discovered, including electrostatic interactions of cations (Sr^{+2} and Te^{+2}) with
469 the bacterial cell that is negatively charged as a result of the collapse of micro pathogenic
470 organisms [56,59,60].

471 The biological activities of nanomaterials are well-documented. They may interact with bacterial
472 cells disrupting cell membrane permeation and destroying key metabolic pathways. Still, the
473 exact mechanism behind nanoparticle toxicity toward bacteria is unknown [61,62].
474 Computational methods have been extensively employed during the last few decades to analyze
475 various forces behind bioactivity of interest. Enzymes belonging to pathways essential for

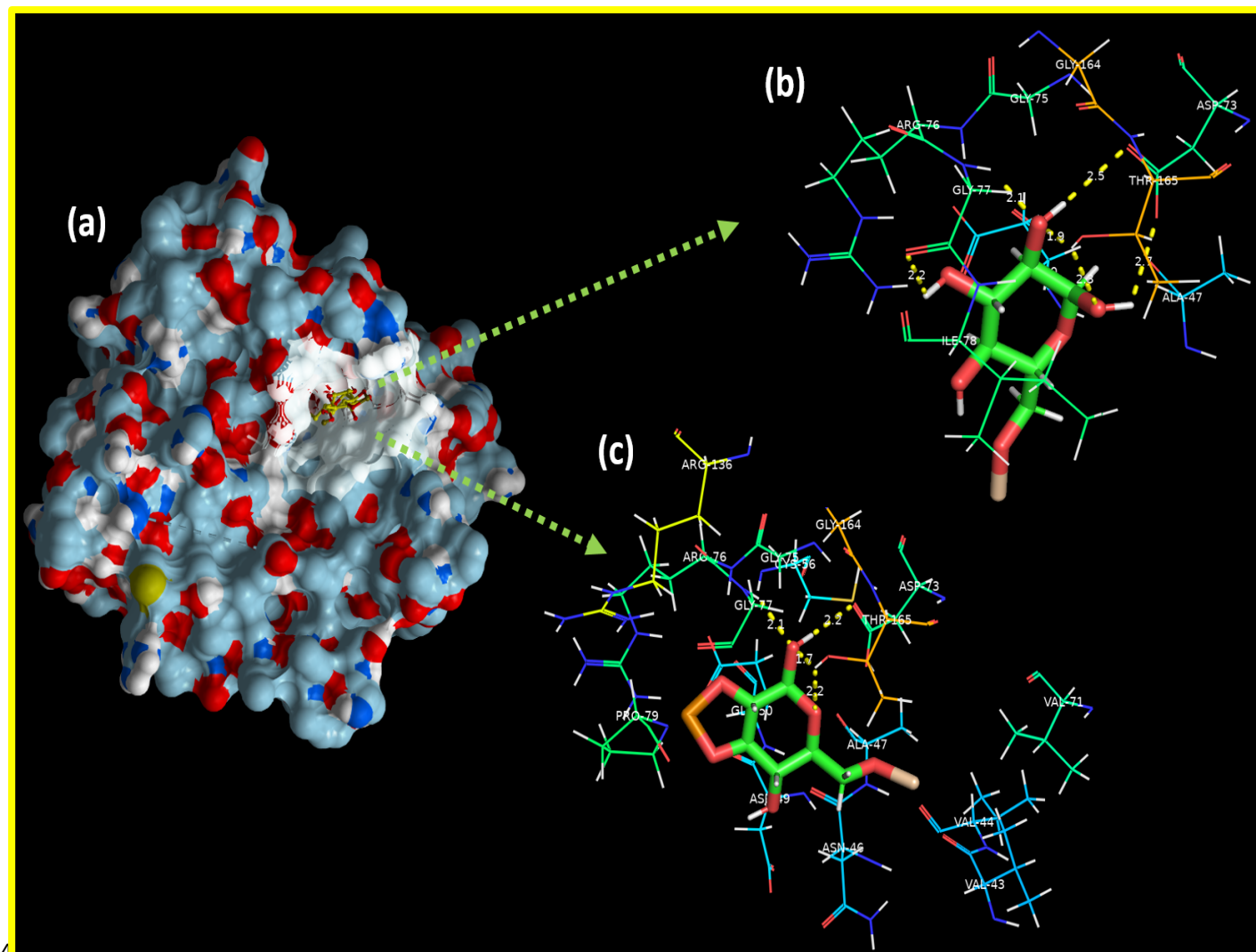
476 bacterial growth and survival have been considered attractive targets for discovering new drug
477 leads [63].

478 β -lactamase_{*E.coli*} has previously been reported as an attractive target for antibiotics discovery
479 [64]. Here, we evaluated the binding tendency of SrO-starch and Te/ SrO-starch nanocomposites
480 inside the active pocket of β -lactamase_{*E.coli*}. The best-docked conformation observed for **SrO-**
481 **starch** revealed H-bond interaction with Glu245 (2.4 Å), Asn244 (1.8 Å), Pro181 (2.2 Å),
482 Arg232 (1.9 Å) with overall binding score -10.792 kcal/mol. Te/ SrO-starch nanocomposite also
483 showed H-bonding interaction with Asp242 (2.1 Å), Asn244 (2.0 Å), Arg232 (2.7 and 1.7 Å),
484 and Pro181 (2.5 Å) alongside C-H interaction with Ile243 and Pro181. The binding score for Te/
485 SrO-starch nanocomposite with β -lactamase_{*E.coli*} was -11.658 kcal/mol. The binding interactions
486 of both synthesized nanocomposites are shown in Fig. 10.



488 **Fig 10:** (a). Nanocomposites- β -lactamase $E.coli$ docked complexes (superimposed), (b). SrO-
 489 starch- β -lactamase $E.coli$ complex, (c). Te/ SrO-starch- β -lactamase $E.coli$ complex

490 For the case of DNA gyrase $E.coli$, the top ranked docked conformation with SrO-starch having the
 491 lowest binding score (i.e., -8.901 kcal/mol) revealed H-bonding interactions with Gly77 (2.2 Å),
 492 Asp73 (2.5 and 2.7 Å), and Thr165 (2.3 and 1.9 Å) while Asn46, Glu50 and Ile78 showed C-H
 493 interactions as shown in Fig. 11. Similarly, the binding tendency and interaction pattern revealed
 494 by Te/SrO-starch nanocomposite are also good with an overall binding score of -9.799 kcal/mol.
 495 Three amino acid residues interact through H-bond, i.e., Asp73 (2.2 Å), Thr165 (2.2 and 1.7 Å)
 496 and Gly77 (2.1 Å), as depicted in Fig. 11.



498 **Fig. 11:** (a). Nanocomposites-DNA Gyrase_{E.coli} docked complexes (superimposed), (b). SrO-
 499 starch-DNA Gyrase_{E.coli} complex, (c). Te/SrO-starch-DNA Gyrase_{E.coli} complex

500 *In silico* molecular docking studies suggested these nanocomposites as possible inhibitors of β -
 501 lactamase_{E.coli} and DNA Gyrase_{E.coli} that need further exploration.

502 4. CONCLUSION

503 This study successfully prepared SrO, starch, SrO-starch composite, and various Te doping
 504 concentrations (2 and 4 %) in SrO-starch composite nanoparticles through the chemical co-

505 precipitation method. Various characterizations have been employed to investigate structural,
506 morphological and optical analysis. Various phases have been confirmed the pristine, SrO-starch
507 composite and Te doped composite samples represent enhanced crystallinity through XRD
508 analysis and crystalline size decrease with increasing concentration from 26.18-5.96 nm. The
509 appearance of Sr-O has been characterized by FTIR evaluation. SAED pattern confirms that the
510 prepared samples are crystalline and well-matched with XRD consequences. EDS interpretation
511 confirms the successful preparation of pure and doped samples with Sr, O, and Te atoms. An
512 increase in energy band gap from 4.23-4.59 eV was observed for pure and doped samples,
513 showing the blue band emission spectra through UV-vis spectrophotometry. PL spectra represent
514 excitons recombination and rate transfer of electron and hole. PL spectra indicate the reduction
515 rate of recombination for increasing the concentration of doped material exhibits enhancement in
516 catalytic activity has been affirmed by measured results. The structure and morphology of
517 synthesized nanoparticles have been clarified through FE-SEM and TEM analysis. Interlayer
518 spacing of pure and doped samples 0.25 nm and 0.28 nm was calculated via HRTEM images.
519 Catalytic activity indicates a rapid enhancement in dye degradation of MB. Dye degradation
520 has been effectively achieved with the optimum concentration of doping of Te in neutral
521 (84.76%), basic (86.32%), and acidic (89.57%) mediums for a 4% Te-doped SrO-starch
522 composite. The highest catalytic degradation has been observed in acidic (91.42%) medium for
523 2% Te-doped SrO-starch composite. The measured experimental results show that optimum
524 concentration (2%) of Te-doped SrO-starch composite has been used for rapid enhancement in
525 catalytic dye degradation and as a superior catalyst replace conventional wastewater
526 management approach. Prepared NPs exhibit excellent antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus*
527 bacteria compared to *E. coli*. 4% Te-doped SrO-starch composite NPs show excellent efficiency

528 against *S. aureus* with an inhibition zone of 9.30 mm as compared to *E. coli* with a measured
529 zone of inhibition of 3.25 mm. *In silico* studies showed good agreement with in vitro bactericidal
530 activities and suggested both SrO-starch and Te-doped SrO-starch composite as a potential
531 inhibitor of β -lactamase_{*E.coli*} and DNA Gyrase_{*E.coli*}.

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535 **AVAILABILITY OF DATA:** Data available on demand

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ABSTRACT

A chemical co-precipitation route was used to synthesize **novel** strontium oxide (SrO), SrO-starch composite and various tellurium (Te) concentrations were incorporated in SrO-starch composite. This study aims to enhance the catalytic activities and bactericidal behavior of SrO, SrO-starch composite with different percentage concentrations of Te doping and a fixed amount of starch nanoparticles. **XRD affirmed that the dopant contribution was investigated to improve crystallinity.** Surface morphological characteristics and elemental composition evaluation were determined using an FE-SEM and EDS exhibit a doping concentration of an element in the synthesized products. The configuration of Sr–O–Sr bonds and **molecular vibrations has been** indicated by FTIR spectra. In addition, dye degradation of prepared samples was investigated through catalytic activity (CA) in the existence of NaBH₄ act as a reduction representative. **The Te-doped SrO-starch composite indicates superior catalytic activity and shows a degradation of Methylene blue dye (91.4%) in an acidic medium. The synthesis nanocatalyst demonstrated impressive antibacterial activity against *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*) at high and low concentrations exhibiting zones of inhibition 9.30 mm as compared to ciprofloxacin.** Furthermore, molecular docking studies of synthesized nanocomposites were performed against selected enzyme targets, i.e., β -lactamase_{*E.coli*} and DNA Gyrase_{*E.coli*}.