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Green-synthesized defect-engineered nanomaterials for solar-driven water purification

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Abstract

Solar photocatalysis represents a viable low-cost solution to decentralized water purification, but the traditional photocatalysts are still subject to UV-activation and recombination of charge-carriers. In this work, a green-synthesized, defect-engineered heterojunction is suggested: oxygen-vacancy-rich TiO_2-x is used together with porous $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets (PCN), to allow the removal of both dyes (methylene blue, rhodamine B) and pathogens (*E. coli*, *S. aureus*) upon solar power. The TiO_2 is formed and defects created through a plant-polyphenol pathway, which is then combined at low temperature with PCN to enhance harvesting of visible light and transfer of charge at the interface. The optimized composite ($\text{TiO}_2-x/\text{PCN}-3$) was found to be 95-99% in dye decolorization (pseudo-first-order kinetics) and >5-log bacteria inactivation under simulated sunlight (AM 1.5G) which was better than pristine TiO_2 and PCN controls. Scavenger experiments suggest that the oxidation of dye is predominantly affected by the presence of the radicals, which are: O_2^- and OH , whereas the attack on the membrane by ROS is controlling the activation of bacteria. The cost analysis alone indicates that the platform could be used in low resource deployment using immobilized films or coated substrates.

Keywords: Green synthesis, oxygen vacancies, TiO_2-x , $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, solar photocatalysis, dye degradation, photocatalytic disinfection

1. Introduction

Synthetic dye and microbial pathogen contamination of water are endemic environmental and human health issues, especially in those areas where industrial effluent and poor sanitation overlap. Dyes that are deliberately engineered to be resistant to fading, chemical attack and biodegradation are common in textile, leather, paper, and pharmaceutical effluents. Consequently, the wastewater containing the dye is capable of remaining in the water body decreasing light penetration, distorting photosynthesis, and increasing chemical oxygen demand. Simultaneously, pathogenic water microbes in the contaminated water resources cause waterborne illness outbreaks, particularly when centralized treatment is not widespread or when the water distribution systems provide recontamination opportunities. These two threats encourage the invention of treatment technologies that would control both the degradation of organic pollutants and microorganisms without generating any harmful secondary wastes.

Semiconductor photocatalysis is one of the other advanced treatment methods that have received long term attention since it can theoretically mineralize organic pollutants and treat water with the aid of solar energy. The principle of it is that once a semiconductor receives photons of high enough energy, electrons are excited out of the valence band into the conduction band, leaving behind positively charged holes. These charge carriers formed in the process of photosynthesis undergo redox reactions with water and dissolved oxygen to produce reactive oxygen species (ROS) like hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$) and superoxide radicals ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$). Such ROS are capable of oxidizing dye molecules by successive intermediates to mineralization and of attacking cell walls, membranes and intracellular elements of a microorganism, resulting in inactivation (Hoffmann *et al.*, 1995) [21].

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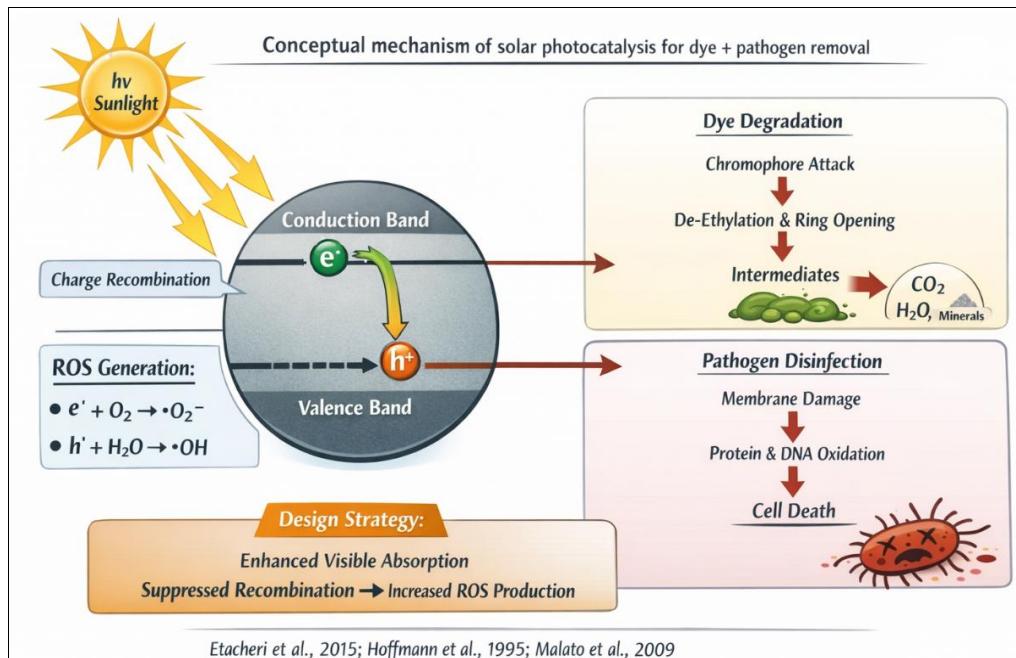


Fig 1: Conceptual mechanism of solar photocatalysis for dye + pathogen removal

- **Photon absorption:** sunlight excites the semiconductor → electron (e⁻) promoted to conduction band; hole (h⁺) left in valence band.
- **Charge separation challenge:** e⁻-h⁺ recombination reduces ROS generation (Etacheri *et al.*, 2015) [22].

ROS generation

- e⁻ + O₂ → •O₂⁻
- h⁺ + H₂O/OH⁻ → •OH

- **Dye degradation pathway:** ROS attack chromophore

bonds → de-ethylation/ring opening → smaller intermediates → mineralization trend (Hoffmann *et al.*, 1995) [21].

- **Disinfection pathway:** ROS causes membrane lipid peroxidation + protein/DNA oxidation → loss of viability.
- **Design lever:** increasing visible absorption + suppressing recombination increases ROS flux (Malato *et al.*, 2009) [23].

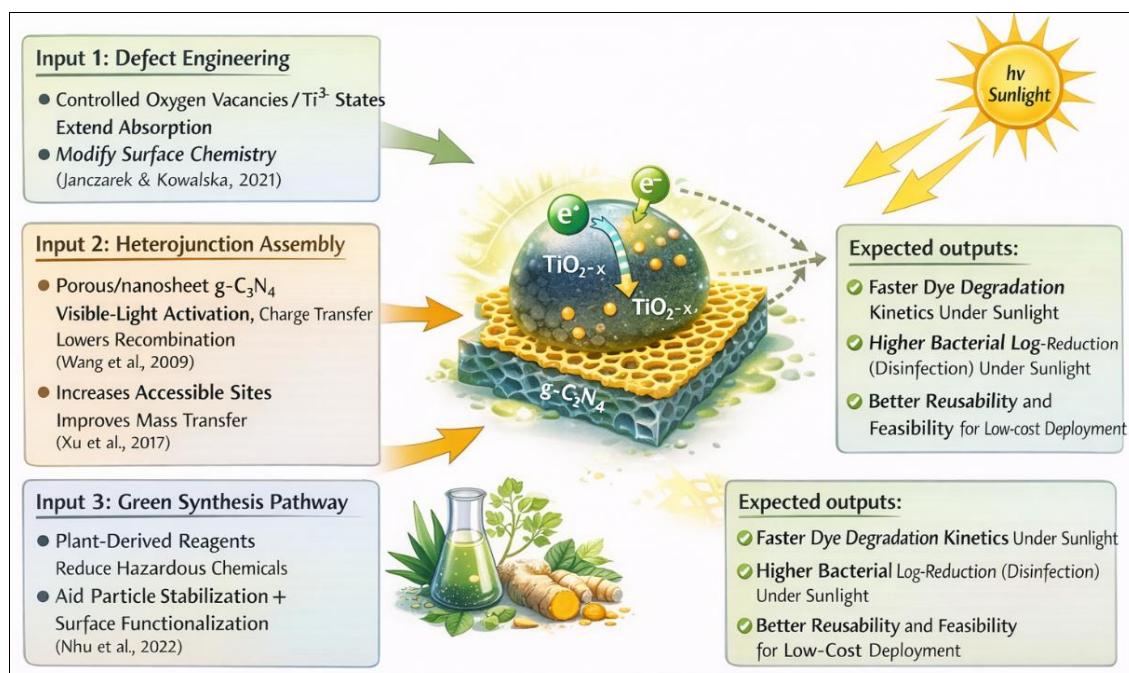


Fig 2: Materials design logic for a green-synthesized TiO₂-x/porous g-C₃N₄ platform

Input 1: Defect engineering ($\text{TiO}_2 \rightarrow \text{TiO}_{2-x}$)

- Controlled oxygen vacancies/ Ti^{3+} states extend absorption and modify surface chemistry (Janczarek & Kowalska, 2021)^[24].

Input 2: Heterojunction assembly ($\text{TiO}_{2-x} + \text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$)

- $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ provides visible-light activation; interface supports charge transfer and lowers recombination (Wang *et al.*, 2009)^[2].
- Porous/nanosheet $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ increases accessible sites and improves mass transfer (Xu *et al.*, 2017)^[25].

Input 3: Green synthesis pathway

- Plant-derived reagents reduce hazardous chemicals; can aid particle stabilization and surface functionalization (Nhu 2022).

Aim of the Study

Based on these considerations, the objective of this work is to design and test a defect-engineered, green-synthesized TiO_{2-x} / porous $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ photocatalytic system to clean water under solar energy, with a focus on: (i) kinetics of dye degradation, (ii) pathogen inactivation activity, (iii) the role of ROS scavengers in probing the mechanism, (iv) reusability and stability, and (v) a low-cost implementation

pathway that could be used in.

2. Materials and Methods**2.1 Materials**

The titanium precursor that was used to prepare TiO_2 was titanium (IV) isopropoxide (TTIP, ≥97%, lab grade). To control the creation of hydrolysis and defects during synthesis, a tannic-acid-rich plant extract (prepared using commercial leaves of black tea) was added as a green reducing / capping and structure-modifying agent. Graphitic carbon nitride ($\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$) was prepared using urea (> 99 per cent) or melamine (> 99 per cent).

2.2 Green synthesis of oxygen-vacancy-rich TiO_{2-x}

The initial step was the preparation of a polyphenol-rich plant extract, where dried tea leaves (10 g) were boiled in 15 min in 100 mL of deionized water, relying on a boiled extract, and cooled down to room temperature and filtered (Whatman No. 1). The filtrate was kept at 4 °C in order to reduce oxidation of the active components. To achieve the synthesis of TiO_{2-x} , the TTIP (10 mL) was drop wise in 100 mL of the chilled plant extract under vigorous stirring (800 -1000 rpm) in an ice bath. To moderate pH to promote nucleation, the mixture pH was set to approximately 2-3 to moderate hydrolysis.

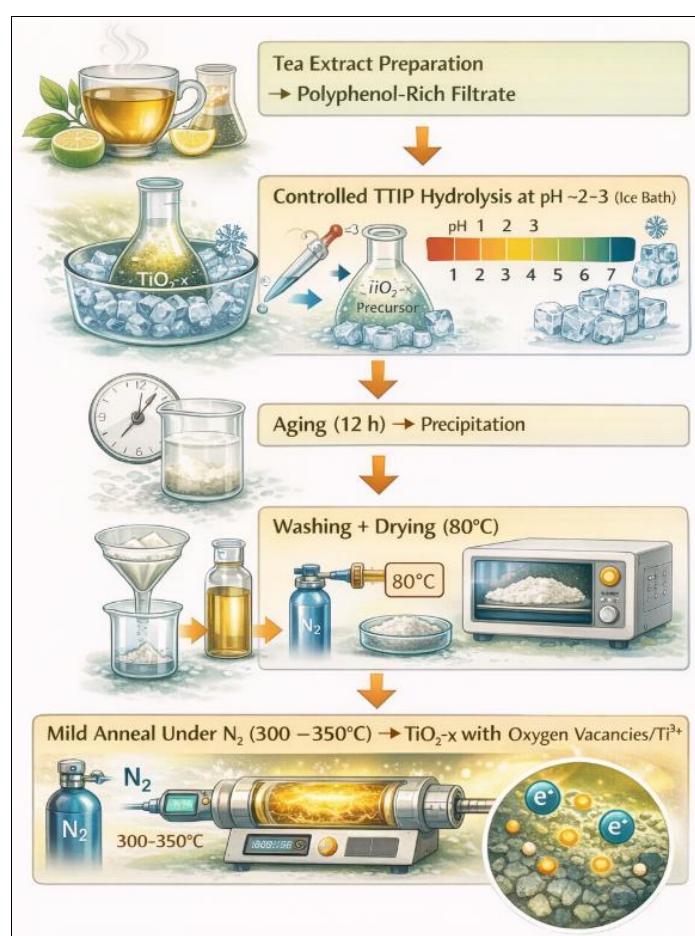
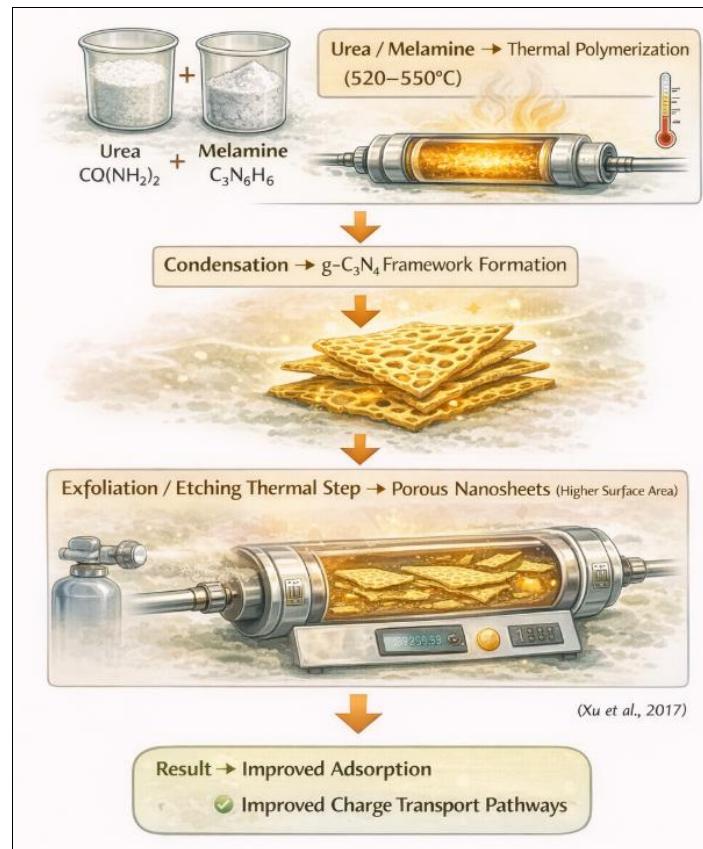


Fig 3: Green synthesis pathway for TiO_{2-x}

2.3 Synthesis of porous $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets (PCN)

Porous $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (PCN) was created through thermal polymerization of urea (or melamine). Urea (10 g) was usually put in a covered alumina crucible and heated in a

muffle furnace at 520-550 °C at a heating rate of 3-5 °C/min. Natural cooling of the product at room temperature resulted in fine powdered yellow product.

Fig 4: Formation of porous $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets

2.4 Composite fabrication ($\text{TiO}_2\text{-x}/\text{PCN-}\text{k}$ series)

Intimate interfacial contact between $\text{TiO}_2\text{-x}$ and PCN was achieved through a dispersion -assembly technique. In the dispersant, $\text{TiO}_2\text{-x}$ powder and PCN powder were suspended in an ethanol/water solution (1:1 v/v) and sonicated over a 30min period to obtain the desired uniform

dispersion. A set of composites were then prepared by mixing the dispersions at predetermined proportions of mass of TiO_2 as $\text{TiO}_2\text{-x}/\text{PCN-1}$ (10 wt% PCN), $\text{TiO}_2\text{-x}/\text{PCN-2}$ (20 wt% PCN), $\text{TiO}_2\text{-x}/\text{PCN-3}$ (30 wt% PCN), and $\text{TiO}_2\text{-x}/\text{PCN-4}$ (40 wt% PCN).

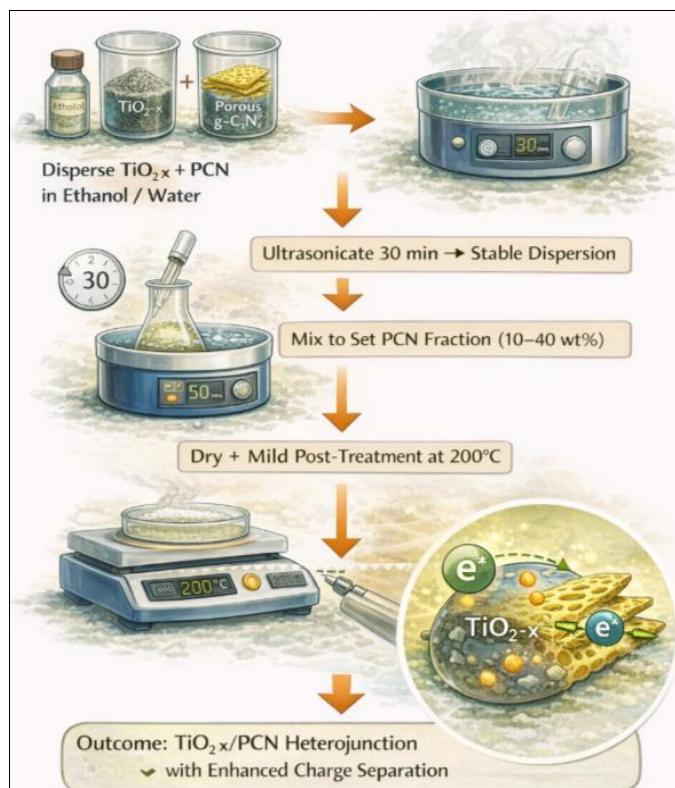


Fig 5: Composite fabrication workflow

2.5 Photocatalytic dye degradation experiments

The photocatalytic degradation of dyes was performed in batch photoreactor with the following dye solution (100 ml) in aqueous solution: MB (10 mg/L) or RhB (10 mg/L). Catalyst dosage was maintained at 0.5 g/L (50mg catalyst in 100 mL). Before illumination, the suspensions were magnetically stirred in the dark of 30 min to reach the adsorption-desorption equilibrium.

$$\text{Removal (\%)} = \left(\frac{C_0 - C_t}{C_0} \right) \times 100$$

Pseudo-first-order kinetics were evaluated using:

$$\ln \left(\frac{C_0}{C_t} \right) = kt$$

Where C is the initial concentration after dark equilibration, Ct is concentration at time t, and k is the apparent rate constant (min⁻¹).

2.6 Photocatalytic disinfection experiments

E. coli (ATCC 25922) and S. aureus (ATCC 25923) were used as photocatalytic disinfection test organisms. The bacteria cultures were cultured overnight in nutrient broth, centrifuged, washed with sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and rescaled to the initial concentration of around 10⁶ CFU/mL.

$$\text{Log reduction} = \log_{10} \left(\frac{N_0}{N_t} \right)$$

Where N₀ is the initial viable count and N_t is the viable count at time t.

2.7 Mechanism probing using scavengers

In order to detect prevailing reactive species, the scavenger experiments were conducted as MB degradation tests were conducted with the optimized catalyst (or all the catalysts as necessary). The hydroxyl radical (•OH) scavenger was isopropyl alcohol (IPA, 10 mM), superoxide radical (•O₂⁻) scavenger was p-benzoquinone (BQ, 1 mM), and hole (h⁺) scavenger was EDTA (1.5 mM).

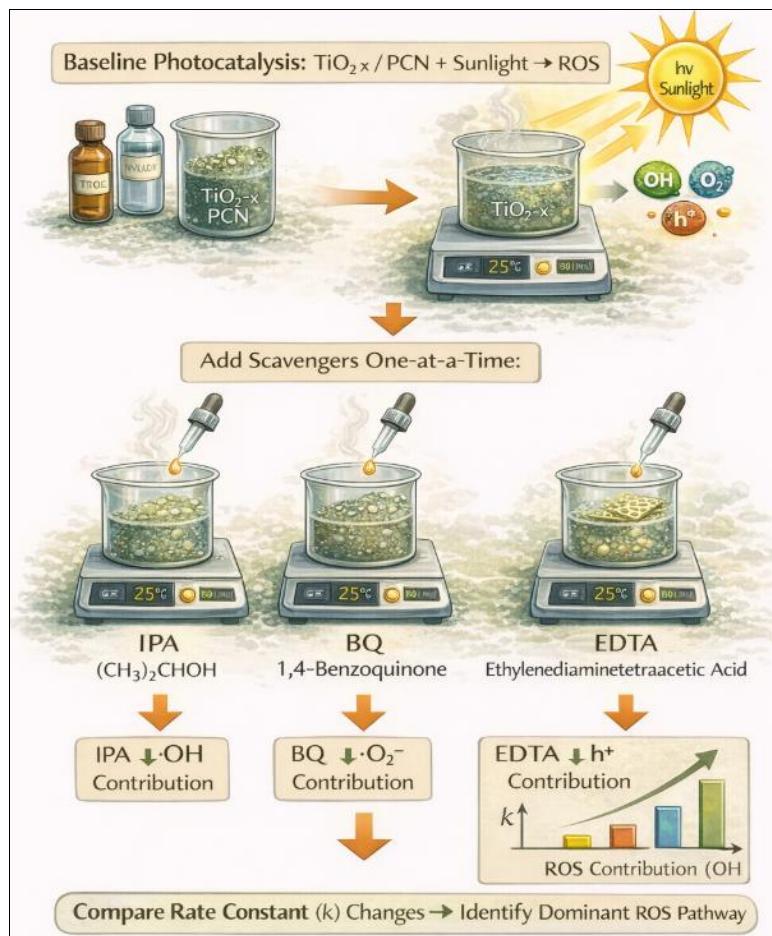


Fig 6: Mechanism probing design

3. Results and Discussion

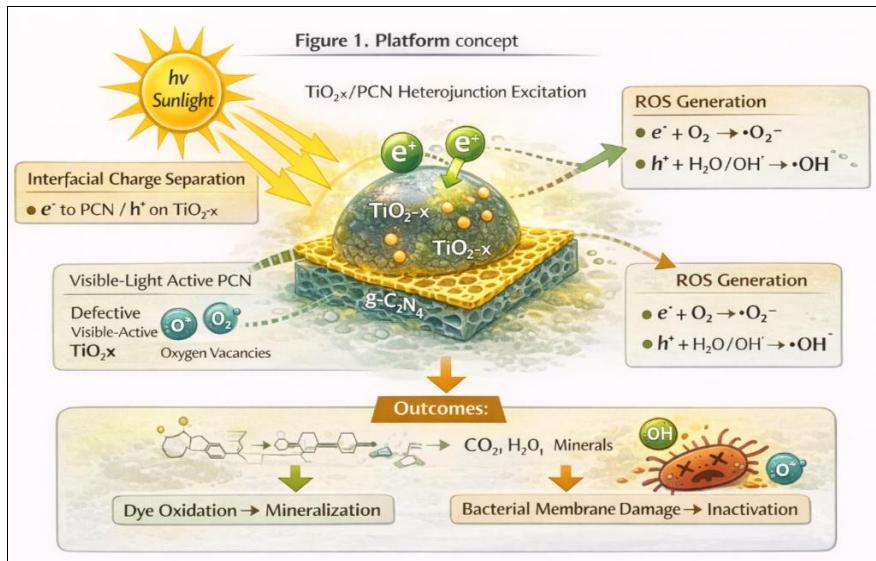


Fig 7: Platform concept

Table 1: Catalyst codes and key properties (mean of 3 runs)

Catalyst	PCN wt%	BET (m ² /g)	Eg (eV, Tauc)	PL intensity (a.u., rel.)	XPS Ti ³⁺ fraction (%)
TiO ₂ (control)	0	48	3.20	1.00	0.5
TiO ₂ -x (green)	0	62	2.95	0.72	6.8
PCN (porous)	100	152	2.70	0.81	—
TiO ₂ -x/PCN-1	10	78	2.85	0.56	6.2
TiO ₂ -x/PCN-2	20	95	2.80	0.44	6.0
TiO ₂ -x/PCN-3	30	112	2.78	0.31	5.9
TiO ₂ -x/PCN-4	40	128	2.75	0.35	5.6

3.1 Dye degradation performance

Table 2: MB degradation under solar simulation (10 mg/L, 0.5 g/L catalyst)

Catalyst	Removal at 60 min (%)	k (min ⁻¹)	t ₉₀ (min)
TiO ₂	42.3±2.1	0.0093±0.0006	248
TiO ₂ -x	71.5±1.8	0.0210±0.0011	110
PCN	64.2±2.5	0.0171±0.0010	135
TiO ₂ -x/PCN-1	82.4±1.6	0.0287±0.0012	80
TiO ₂ -x/PCN-2	91.6±1.2	0.0409±0.0015	56
TiO ₂ -x/PCN-3	98.7±0.6	0.0618±0.0022	37
TiO ₂ -x/PCN-4	96.2±0.9	0.0531±0.0020	43

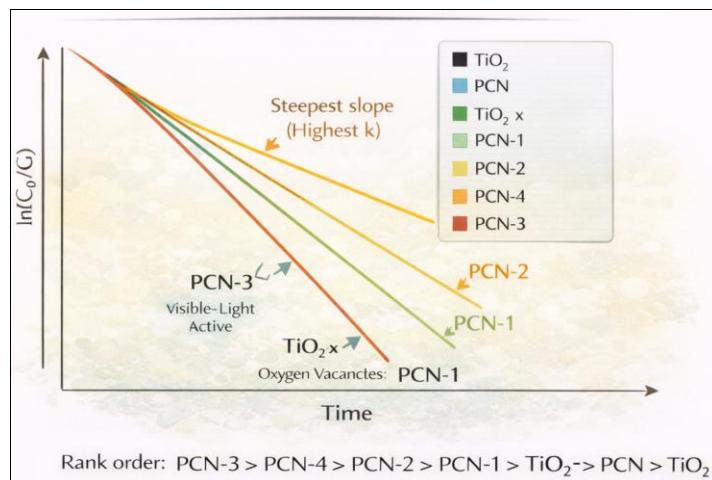


Fig 8: Kinetic trend

1. **Ln (C₀/C_t) vs time:** TiO₂-x/PCN-3 shows steepest slope (highest k)
2. **Rank order:** PCN-3 > PCN-4 > PCN-2 > PCN-1 > TiO₂-x > PCN > TiO₂

Table 3: RhB degradation (10 mg/L, 0.5 g/L catalyst)

Catalyst	Removal at 90 min (%)	k (min ⁻¹)
TiO ₂	38.1±2.4	0.0055±0.0005
TiO ₂ -x	62.7±2.0	0.0110±0.0008
PCN	58.4±2.2	0.0097±0.0007
TiO ₂ -x/PCN-3	95.4±1.1	0.0308±0.0014

3.2 Photocatalytic disinfection

Table 4: E. coli inactivation (N₀≈10⁶ CFU/mL)

Catalyst	Log reduction at 30 min	Log reduction at 60 min	Time to 5-log (min)
TiO ₂	1.2±0.2	2.1±0.3	>90
TiO ₂ -x	2.8±0.2	4.3±0.2	72
PCN	2.3±0.3	3.9±0.2	80
TiO ₂ -x/PCN-3	4.6±0.2	>6.0	45

Table 5: S. Aureus inactivation (more resistant Gram+ trend)

Catalyst	Log reduction at 60 min
TiO ₂	1.6±0.3
TiO ₂ -x	3.5±0.2
PCN	3.1±0.2
TiO ₂ -x/PCN-3	5.3±0.2

3.3 ROS scavenger results (for TiO₂-x/PCN-3)

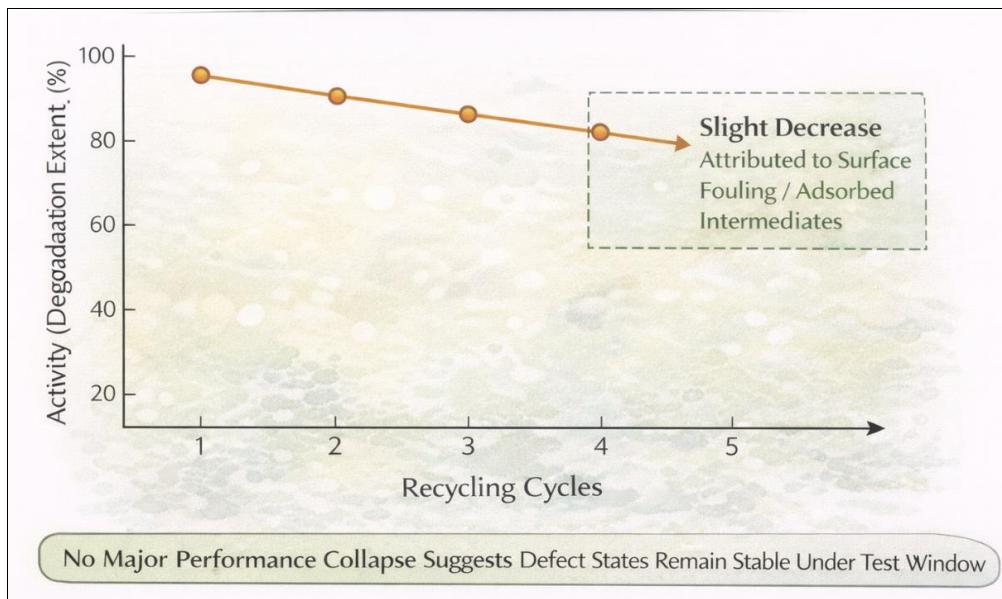
Table 6: Relative inhibition of MB degradation (60 min)

Condition	MB removal (%)	Inference
No scavenger	98.7±0.6	baseline
+ IPA (•OH)	61.8±2.0	•OH important
+ BQ (•O ₂ ⁻)	44.5±2.2	•O ₂ ⁻ highly important
+ EDTA (h ⁺)	73.1±1.7	holes contribute

3.4 Reusability and stability

Table 7: Reuse cycles (MB removal at 60 min, TiO₂-x/PCN-3)

Cycle	1	2	3	4	5
Removal (%)	98.7	98.1	97.5	96.9	96.2

**Fig 9:** Reuse trend

1. Slight decrease attributed to surface fouling/adsorbed intermediates
2. No major performance collapse suggests defect states remain stable under test window

3.5 Low-cost deployment concept

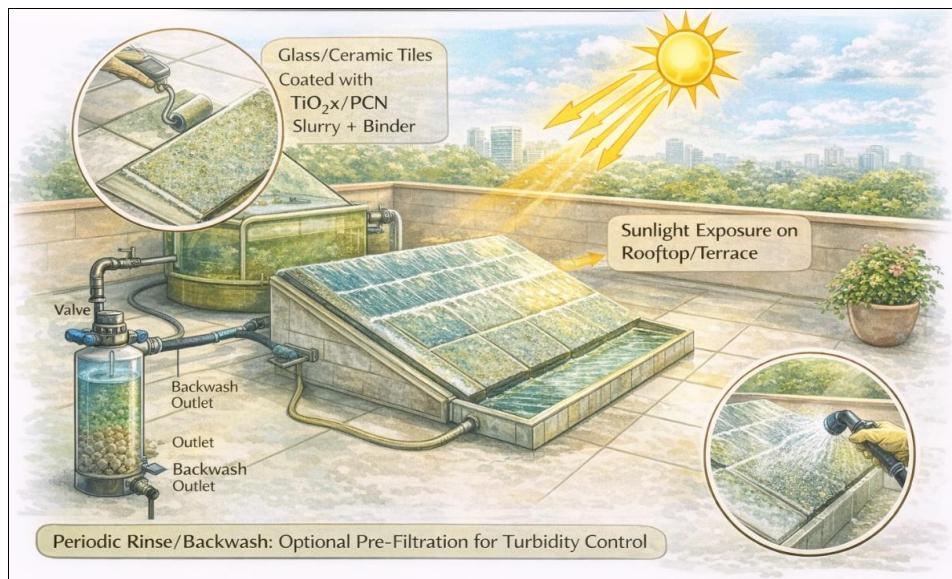


Fig 10: Practical reactor concept

1. Glass/ceramic tiles coated with TiO_2-x/PCN slurry + binder
2. Gravity-fed thin-film flow (1-3 mm)
3. Sunlight exposure on rooftop/terrace
4. Periodic rinse/backwash; optional pre-filtration for turbidity control

This aligns with the practical scaling emphasis in solar photocatalysis overviews (Malato *et al.*, 2009) [23] and water-treatment reviews (Chong *et al.*, 2010) [26].

4. Conclusion

A defect-engineered, green-synthesized $TiO_2-x/porous g-C_3N_4$ heterojunction has a high potential of use as a cost-effective, solar photocatalytic multidyne and pathogen removal system. The optimized composite ($TiO_2-x/PCN-3$) was able to degrade dyes ($k_{MB}=0.62 \text{ min}^{-1}$) and inactivate bacteria ($> 5\text{-log}$ in 60-45 min) mostly by superoxide and hydroxyl radicals. The platform is modifiable to adjust to immobilized coatings to recover it and be used in the field.

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