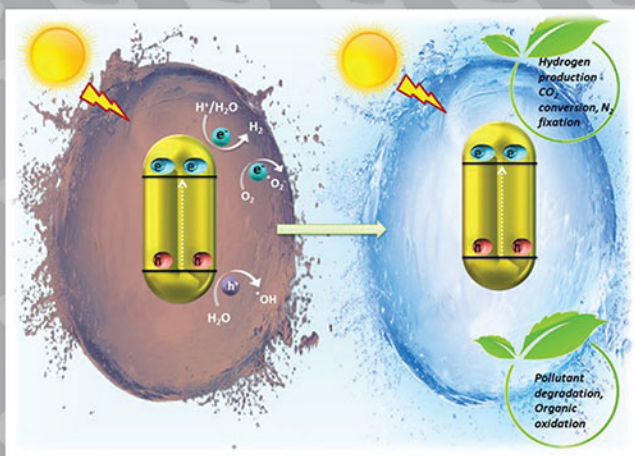


Photocatalysis

Advanced Materials and Reaction Engineering



Edited by
Gaurav Sharma and Amit Kumar

MIRIF

Photocatalysis

Advanced Materials and Reaction Engineering

Edited by

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Table of Contents

Preface

Photocatalytic Membranes in Degradation of Organic Molecules

G. Abdi, M.I. Shekh, J. Amirian, A. Alizadeh, S. Zeinodini, A. Szczurek,
W. Grochala 1

Photocatalytic Heavy Metal Detoxification from Water Systems

P. Senthil Kumar, G. Janet Joshiba 57

Carbon Nanotubes based Nanocomposites as Photocatalysts in Water Treatment

Tong Ling Tan and Chin Wei Lai 77

Photocatalytic and Adsorptional Removal of Heavy Metals from Contaminated Water using Nanohybrids

Pooja Shandilya, Ankita Guleria 113

Graphitic Carbon Nitride based Photocatalytic Systems for High Performance Hydrogen Production: A Review

Shweta Sharma, Amit Kumar, Gaurav Sharma, Anu Kumari, Mu. Naushad 161

Recent advances in Photocatalytic Nitrogen Fixation

A. Saravanan, P. Senthil Kumar 193

Perovskites based Nano Heterojunctions for Photocatalytic Pollutant Removal

Sunil Kumar, Amit Kumar, Gaurav Sharma, Pooja Dhiman, Genene T. Mola 208

Photocatalytic Membranes

P. Senthil Kumar, P.R. Yaashikaa 253

Composite Ion Exchangers as New Age Photocatalyst

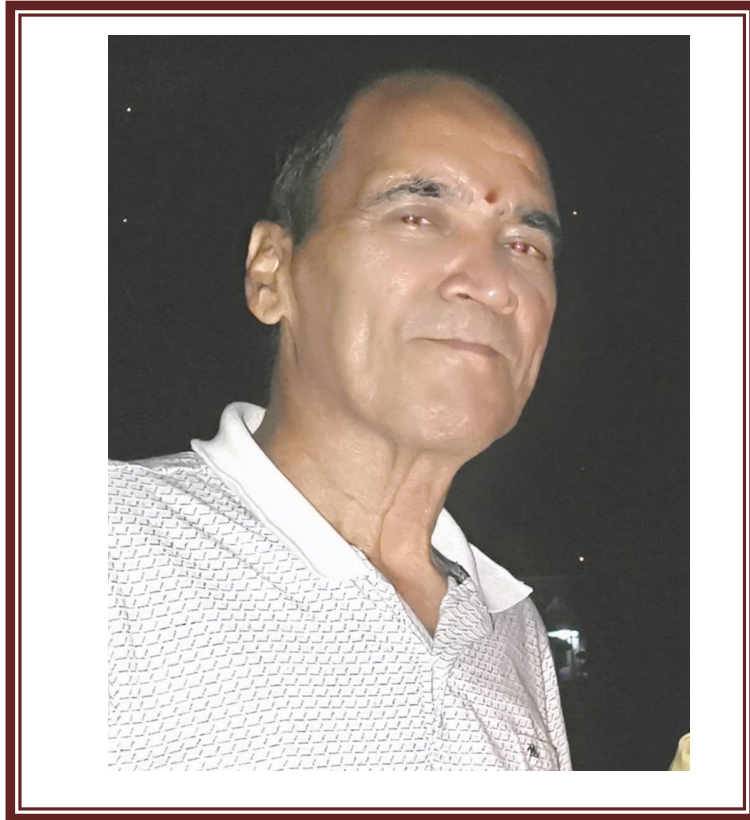
Manita Thakur, Ajay Sharma, Manisha Chandel, Suresh Kumar, Ajay Kumar 273

Structural Modifications of Carbon Nitride for Photocatalytic Applications

Ajay Kumar, Manisha Chandel, Manita Thakur 299

Keyword Index

About the Editors



This Book is dedicated to my beloved father Late Sh. Inder Dev. Thanks for all the Love & Sacrifices. Your memories will be a blessing and motivation for life.....Amit Kumar

This book is tribute to my late uncle Sh. Inder Dev. His love, care and never ending support will guide me forever.....miss you.....Gaurav Sharma

Preface

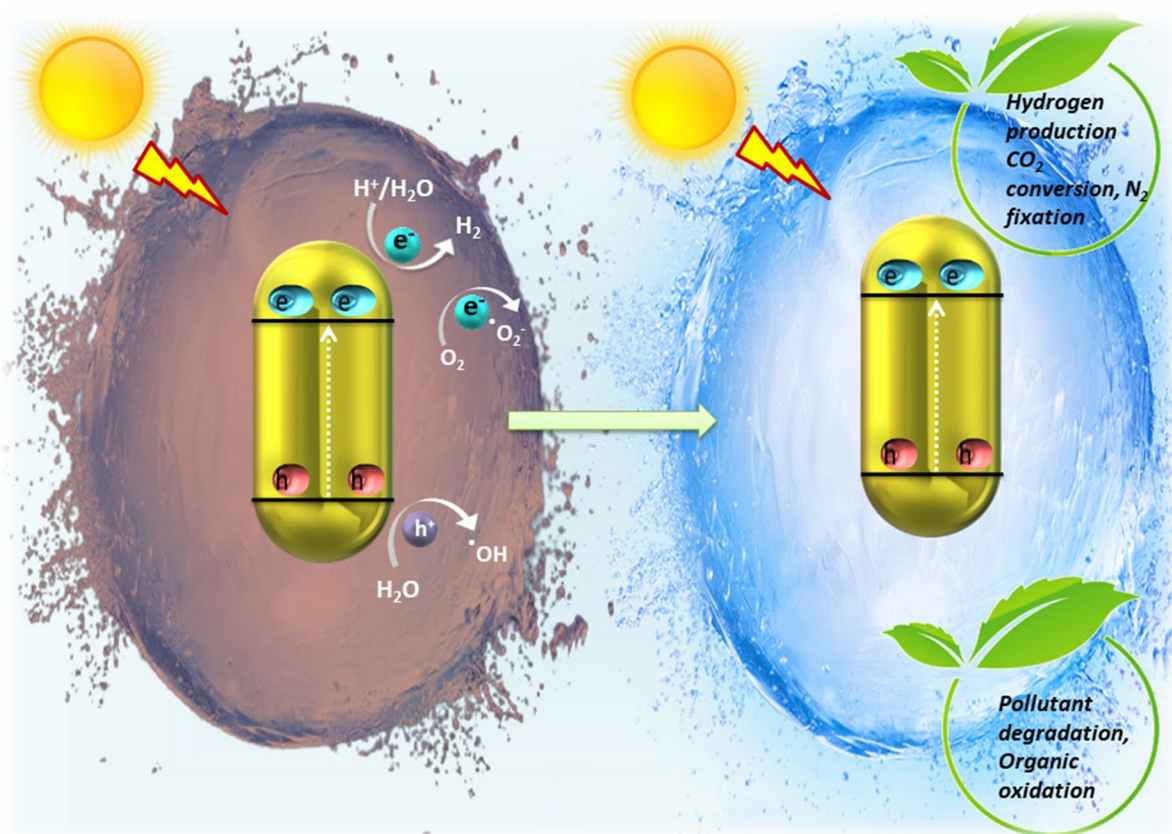
Guaranteeing safe potable water and meeting the ever-increasing energy demands with the least impact on the environment has become a great challenge for statesmen, environmentalists and the research community worldwide. The sustainable chain of diversity has been disturbed and the energy crisis and environmental pollution issues have emerged as big issues to combat. Keeping in mind the limited resources, substantial efforts are focusing on the use of solar energy for high performance removal of pollutants and clean energy production. The scientific community and environmentalists are always amazed by nature inspired processes such as photocatalysis for sustainable solutions.

The phenomenon which is observed as “Honda-Fujishima” effect, “Photocatalysis” has been one of the pioneer techniques to achieve degradation and substantial mineralization of complex organic pollutants including pharmaceutical effluents, dyes, pesticides, endocrine disruptors and other emerging pollutants. The technique is most trusted after the secondary treatment because of high mineralization capability via hydroxyl and superoxide anion radicals, thus eliminating any secondary pollution. With rise in quantum and variety of emerging pollutants and contaminants various multi-functional materials are required with better photo-oxidative and photo-reduction potentials. This requires material engineering, reaction and optical engineering to harness visible & solar light and reduce the charge recombination issues. In addition, the challenge also lies in achieving cost effectiveness along with high quantum yield and reduced or eliminate the use of precious metals. Further, the catalysts with a multi-pronged approach for water detoxification, H₂ evolution, CO₂ conversion into fuels, N₂ fixation etc. are the demand of the current time.

With designing and development of hybrid advanced materials via selection of new photocatalysts, techniques for synthesis as chemical vapor deposition, electrospinning, membrane formation, immobilization, green synthesis, functionalization and sensitization are highly effective in a good photocatalytic response. In addition to popular photocatalysts i.e metal and metal oxides, various new age photocatalysts have appeared including nitrides, phosphides, perovskites, chalcogenides, organic semiconductors, conducting polymers with better and tuneable properties. Also, combining the materials with different and complimentary properties to form nano-composites, hetero-structures and heterojunctions is a popular strategy. This helps in the proper alignments of conduction and valence bonds for high production of reactive oxygen species. In addition, the use of adsorptional photocatalysis helps in mineralization and removal of micro-pollutants fast and effectively. Among organic

materials, graphene oxide, carbon nanotubes, graphitic carbon nitride etc. have received huge attention.

The book focuses on some of the latest developments in the field of photocatalysis with special emphasis on new advanced materials and reaction engineering. The bottlenecks have been addressed in various research works focusing on heterojunction formations, composites, ion exchangers, photocatalytic membranes, etc. This book can provide useful insight for designing and fabrication of hybrid photocatalytic systems for photocatalytic water treatment and energy production.



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Chapter 1

Photocatalytic Membranes in Degradation of Organic Molecules

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Abstract

Heterogeneous photocatalysis is a technology widely applied to water purification and wastewater treatment under ultraviolet (UV) or even sunlight irradiation for the removal of a variety of environmental pollutants into harmless species. Application of membrane for immobilization of semiconductors and their suitability in photocatalytic degradation of dyes have recently been developed. Integration of photocatalysis with membrane processes significantly improve the membrane separation performance with reducing membrane fouling and improving permeate quality. This paper reviews recent progress in the photocatalytic membranes for wastewater treatment and water purification with an emphasis on the type of membranes, membrane fabrication, and applications in pollutant removal.

Keywords

Semiconductors, Organic Pollutants, Heterogeneous Photocatalysis, Ceramic Photocatalytic Membranes, Polymeric Photocatalytic Membranes

Contents

Photocatalytic Membranes in Degradation of Organic Molecules	1
1. Introduction.....	2
2. Heterogeneous photocatalytic reaction.....	4
3. Photocatalytic membranes.....	6
3.1 Polymeric photocatalytic membranes.....	7
3.1.1 Development of polyethersulfone and polysulfone membranes	8
3.1.2 Fluoropolymeric membranes: PVDF and PTFE	11
3.1.3 Development of photocatalytic polyaniline (PANI) membranes	19
3.1.4 Development of photocatalytic polyamide membranes	21
3.1.5 Development of cellulose-based photocatalytic membranes	22
4. Inorganic membranes.....	27
4.1 TiO ₂ -based membranes.....	27
Abbreviations	31
Acknowledgment.....	32
References	32

1. Introduction

The introduction of industrial, pharmaceutical, and agricultural chemicals into the ecosystems, as a result of human activities, are now a considerable subject of environmental remediation. The complex mixture of these compounds and their non-biodegradable character make conventional wastewater treatment methods (physical, chemical, and biological methods) unable to completely remove them. Thus, the interest in these environmental effects leads to an increase of research activities for elimination of such pollutants.

Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) have been proposed as alternative methods for the elimination of persistent organic compounds in wastewaters, air, and soil. The principle of AOPs is to generate hydroxyl radical and other radical species in the water, the very powerful oxidants are capable of oxidizing a wide range of organic compounds with one

or many double bonds. Nowadays, a photocatalytic process using a semiconductor as photocatalyst under light irradiation has been extensively applied for the oxidation of various organic pollutants.

Photocatalyst comes from the word “photo”, which means light, and “catalyst”, which refers to a substrate that accelerates chemical reactions by absorbing photons or light. It is noted that UV light works within the wavelength range of 280-400 nm (UVA, 315-400 nm, UVB, 280-315 nm, and UVC, 180-280 nm), while visible light works in the range between 400-700 nm. Since UV light activates most photocatalysts, a constant source is needed to ensure the continuity of the reaction. For doped photocatalyst that can function under visible light, direct exposure to sunlight is sufficient to initiate photocatalytic activity. The photocatalysis can be classified into homogeneous and heterogeneous categories [1]. In this review, we focus on heterogeneous photocatalysis using polymeric and ceramic membranes. A photocatalyst is a material that can induce reaction upon direct light absorption. Under an irradiation of light ($h\nu$) with equal or larger energy than the band-gap energy (the difference in energy between the valence band (VB) and the conduction band (CB)) of the semiconductor, electrons (e^-) migrate to the CB leaving holes (h^+) in the VB, thus the material is photoactivated due to the formation of e^-/h^+ pairs. The photogenerated e^- and h^+ are the basis of the heterogeneous photocatalysis using semiconductors (Figure 1).

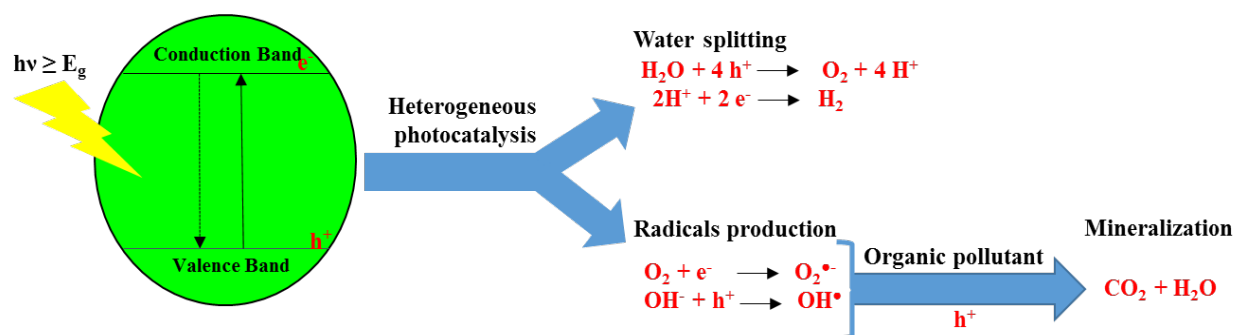
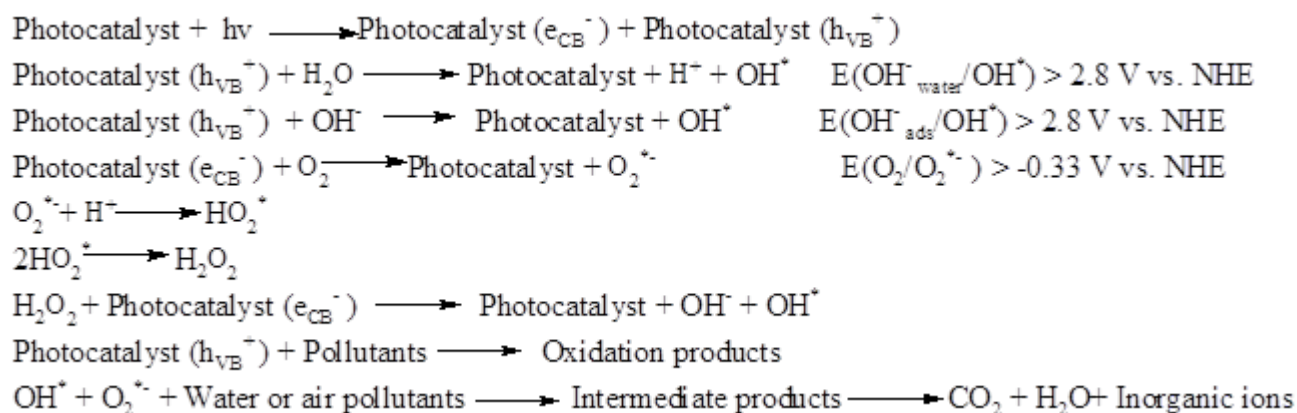


Figure 1: General mechanism of photocatalysis.

2. Heterogeneous photocatalytic reaction

In the photocatalysis process, the photocatalyst produces electron-hole pairs (e^-/h^+) by absorbing radiation energy (\geq band-gap energy), excites the electrons from valence band (VB) to conduction band (CB) and leaves holes in the VB. Afterwards the photogenerated electrons reduce the surface adsorbed oxygen or oxygen dissolved in water to superoxide anions ($O_2^{\bullet-}$). Similarly, holes oxidize the surface adsorbed H_2O or hydroxyl ($-OH$) groups to hydroxyl radicals (OH^\bullet). Subsequently, these reactive radicals react with the pollutant molecules, and degrade them into inorganic ions. Moreover, the holes in the VB possess strong oxidizing power, thus these could directly oxidize the pollutants adsorbed on the photocatalyst surface. In addition, electrons in the CB possess strong reducing power, which indirectly degrade the pollutants using OH^\bullet radicals formed by photo-cleavage of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), which is produced by reaction of $O_2^{\bullet-}$ with the proton (H^+). Moreover, in the case of dye degradation, the surface adsorbed dye also excites under light irradiation, migrates an electron into the CB of the photocatalyst and reduces the surface adsorbed O_2 to $O_2^{\bullet-}$, which reacts with H^+ to form a H_2O_2 and further photo-cleaved into OH^\bullet radicals under light irradiation. The reaction can be expressed as follows:



The oxidizing agents can be semiconductor materials such as TiO_2 , SnO_2 , Sb_2O_3 , Cu_2O , CeO_2 , V_2O_5 , ZrO_2 , CdS , ZnO , MoS_2 , In_2S_3 , Bi_2WO_6 , $BiVO_4$, WO_3 , Semiconductors/Carbon Quantum Dots, and Semiconductors/g- C_3N_4 [2-5] (Table 1).

In the past years, a variety of semiconductors-based photocatalysts have been successfully prepared, such as TiO_2 and ZnO .

Table 1. Common semiconductors used in photocatalysis processes.

Name	Band gap	Valence band (V vs NHE)	Conduct band (V vs NHE)	Ref.
g-C ₃ N ₄	2.68	1.56	-1.12	[6]
Bi ₂₀ TiO ₃₂	2.36	2.59	0.23	[7]
CdS	2.45	1.5	-0.95	[8]
TiO ₂ (rutile)	3.0	2.5	-0.5	[9]
TiO ₂ (anatase)	3.2	2.5	-0.7	[9]
CdSe	1.749	1.520	-0.229	[10]
ZnS	3.6	1.8	-1.8	[9]
V ₂ O ₅	2.6	2.9	0.3	[11]
ZrO ₂	5	4.0	-1.0	[12]
ZnO	3.2	2.89	-0.31	[13]
CeO ₂	2.86	2.626	-0.234	[14]
In ₂ S ₃	1.96	1.18	-0.78	[15]
Bi ₂ WO ₆	3.10	3.38	0.28	[16]
WO ₃	2.8	3.2	0.4	[17]
BiVO ₄	2.59	2.83	0.24	[18]
SnO ₂	3.8	4.2	0.4	[19]
Sb ₂ O ₃	3.0	3.32	0.32	[20]
Cu ₂ O	2	0.4	-1.6	[21]

TiO₂ seemed to be a desired photocatalyst owing to its stability and low cost. However, its practical application is limited due to quick recombination of the photogenerated electron-hole pairs (e⁻/h⁺) and absorption of UV light (solar spectrum contains only 4-5% of UV light). Several tactics have been used to solve these problems, such as manipulate its structure and morphology, doping with metal elements to form TiO₂/narrow-band-gap-conductor in order to enhance the charge separation, and sensitization using organic dyes [22]. Band gap and efficient surface area increase with reducing the size of nanostructures. Therefore, it is possible to create TiO₂ with specific properties by tuning its size and shape. TiO₂ has three main crystal phases, Rutile, Anatase and Brookite which their band gap increases, respectively. Decorating TiO₂ with metal oxide (e.g. ZnO, Cu₂O and WO₃) and noble metals (e.g. Ag, Au and Pt) shift the fermi level to the more negative potentials, therefore the electron-hole pair recombination time decreases. Developing a green and low-cost photocatalyst with visible-light response still remains a significant challenge. Recently, various structures of TiO₂ such as nanotube [23], nanorod [24], nanoparticle [25] and flower shape [26] nanostructures were investigated as a photocatalyst.

Due to the promising applications in photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants from waters and disinfection, heterogeneous photocatalysis has attracted a lot of attention

recently. An integrated water treatment process, known as a photocatalytic membrane reactors has been developed by combining photocatalytic oxidation and membrane filtration. Photocatalytic membrane reactors are prepared by the embedding of semiconductor particles such as titanium oxide into the membrane structure. Energy from light (i.e., visible or UV) is provided by photons and absorbed by catalytic particles to start the pollutant degradation reaction on the membrane surface. The high pollutant-degradation performance makes this technology a promising solution for the use in water- and wastewater-treatment processes. A variety of materials including organic, inorganic and metallic materials have been used as supports for the fabrication of photocatalytic membranes. Apart from immobilized semiconductor membranes, some pure photocatalytic membranes have been fabricated using TiO₂ nanofibers, nanowires or nanotubes. The next sections focus on elaborating and expanding these topics.

3. Photocatalytic membranes

Over the past few decades, membrane process has become one of the most effective technologies for water treatment due to its small footprint, superior separation efficiency and easy maintenance. However, in the conventional membrane processes, membrane fouling caused by the formation of a cake layer on the membrane surface usually results in pore blocking. This in turn results in a significant decrease in water flux and increased energy consumption and treatment costs. Moreover, membrane filtration can only concentrate pollutants into a high-concentration retentate, which needs further post-treatment before discharge. A hybrid photocatalysis-membrane system has been established to address these issues and shown to be a potentially effective treatment.

Currently, photocatalytic membrane reactors can be classified into four different configurations: (a) a slurry photocatalytic reactor followed by a membrane filtration unit, (b) inorganic or polymeric membrane submerged in a slurry photocatalytic reactor, (c) membrane placed inside a photoreactor whose internal walls are coated by a photocatalyst, and (d) photocatalytic membrane such as pure semiconductor or composite membrane (Figure 2). Among these four configurations, the photocatalytic membrane (d) has potential advantages over the other three configurations as it has the benefit having physical separation during membrane filtration as well as the organic degradation and anti-bacterial properties of the semiconductor achieved by photocatalysis in a single unit.

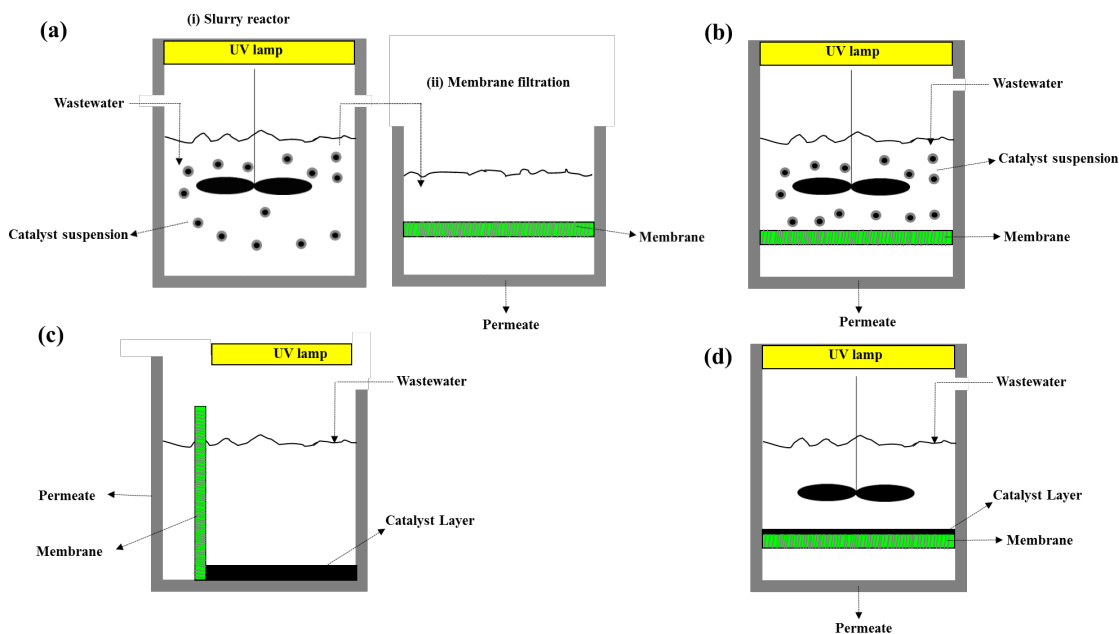


Figure 2. Different configurations of photocatalytic membrane reactors.

3.1 Polymeric photocatalytic membranes

Polymeric membranes are popular materials used as a support for photocatalysts in wastewater treatment. Various kinds of polymers such as polyamide (PA), polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF), polyethersulfone (PES), polyurethane (PU), polyacrylonitrile (PAN), polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE), cellulose acetate (CA), and sulfonated pentablock copolymer (s-PBC) have been modified by photocatalysts and applied in degradation of organic dyes. In preparation of photocatalytic membrane, photocatalyst particles can be either deposited onto the membrane surface or dispersed in the polymer solution for membrane casting.

A membrane process can be defined as splitting a feed stream by a membrane into a retentate (or concentrate) and a permeate fraction. Pressure-driven membrane processes use the pressure difference between the feed and permeate side as the driving force to transport the solvent (usually water) through the membrane. Particles and dissolved components are (partially) retained based on properties such as size, shape, and charge. Depending on their pore sizes, membranes can be classified as microfiltration (MF), ultrafiltration (UF), nanofiltration (NF) and reverse osmosis (RO) membranes Table 2.

Membranes applied in these processes can be divided, based on the material they are made of, into two types: polymeric and ceramic. Due to the lower price and simpler manufacturing, the polymeric membranes are more commonly used than the ceramic ones. However, polymeric membranes have some serious disadvantages when their application

in photocatalytic membrane reactors (PMRs) is considered, namely low resistance to the action of UV light or oxidizing conditions [27].

Table 2. Different types of membranes.

Membrane process	Material type^a	Pore size	Pressure range (bar)	Contaminant
Microfiltration (MF)	PTFE, PVDF, PP, PE, CE, PC, PS, PES), PI, PEI, PA, PEEK	0.1 μm to 10 μm	0.1-2	Bacteria
Ultrafiltration (UF)	PS, PES, S-PS, PVDF, PAN, CA, PI, PEI, PA, PEEK	2-100 nm	0.1-5	Macromolecules, bacteria, viruses
Nanofiltration (NF)	PA, PS, PES, S-PS, CA, P-PIP-A	~ 1 nm	5-20	Viruses, natural organic matter, multivalent ions
Reverse osmosis (RO)	CTA, Aramids ,PA, PEU	Non-porous	5-120	Viruses, natural organic matter, multivalent ions, monovalent ions (desalination, Ultra pure water)

^aRefer to abbreviations.

A wide variety of methods such as phase inversion, atomic layer deposition (ALD), chemical vapor deposition (CVD), sol-gel, electrospinning, hydrothermal, electrophoretic deposition technique, dip-coating, vacuum filtration, solvent-casting method have been applied to modification and enhance separation and anti-fouling performance of polymers [28-33]. Following we briefly described some of these photocatalytic membranes and their preparation methods.

3.1.1 Development of polyethersulfone and polysulfone membranes

Polymeric membranes are widely applied in water purification and wastewater treatment. Polyethersulfone (PES) and polysulfone (PS) are popular polymeric membranes due to their low cost, excellent chemical resistance, mechanical strength, high rigidity, thermal and biological stability[34]. Nevertheless, the conspicuous drawbacks of PS are its hydrophobicity and bad ultraviolet (UV) resistance. To overcome aforementioned problems in the line of membrane fouling alleviation, various approaches such as grafting with hydrophilic nanoparticles especially inorganic nanoparticles (e.g., ZrO_2 , Al_2O_3 , SiO_2 ,

TiO₂, Fe₃O₄, carbon nanotubes (CNTs) and etc.), blending with hydrophilic polymers, surface-coating and embedding hydrophilic nanoparticles have been done [35-39].

TiO₂ nanoparticles could remarkably affect the hydrophilicity of PS membrane, enhance mineralization of pollutants under ultraviolet (UV) light, and improve self-cleaning/antifouling property of the modified membranes. Ma et al. reported that the removal rate of model pollutant, dye Reactive Red ED-2B (RR ED-2B), was improved obviously using the inorganic membrane under UV irradiation in comparison with photocatalysis or membrane separation alone [40]. Yang et al. showed the water flux was nearly 30% improved and contact angle decreased from 84.7° to 41.4° with 2.0 wt.% TiO₂ blended [41]. Mozia et al. investigate the type of a TiO₂ photocatalyst (P25, ST-01, A700, and A800) on the stability of commercial polyethersulfone ultrafiltration membranes with different cut-off in a PMR. It was revealed that the shape and size of TiO₂ particles had a significant influence on the stability of the membranes during their operation in the PMR. It was concluded that the small and sharp-edged photocatalyst particles are especially detrimental to membrane stability [27].

The photocatalytic activity of fixed TiO₂ on the polymer structure decrease due to the loss of overall surface area associated with immobilizing the TiO₂. The design of smart TiO₂ morphologies (*e.g.* nanotubes, nanospheres, fibers) increases the photocatalytic activity. Schulze et al. showed that anodization of TiO₂ nanotubes on PES membrane has high photocatalytic activity in degrading methylene blue and diclofenac [42, 43].

Currently the stability of polymeric membranes under high energy UV irradiation is not fully documented, especially for extended exposure periods. Polymer degradation due to UV exposure or generation of free radicals during photocatalysis is in general an undesired process, often leading to a reduction in polymer molar mass and deterioration of the polymer properties.

One strategy of dealing with this disadvantage is using radical scavenger in the structure of polymeric membranes. It has been reported that PDA can act as free-radical scavenger as its chemical structure is similar to that of eumelanins, which are well known natural pigments for the protection of human body against UV by quenching reactive radicals generated by exposure to UV [44]. Wu. et al. and Feng et al. prepared doped polysulfone ultrafiltration membrane with TiO₂-polydopamine (PDA) nanohybrid for simultaneous self-cleaning and self-protection [45, 46]. In the TiO₂-PDA nanohybrid, PDA spheres acts as an adhesive substrate to hold densely covered photocatalytic TiO₂ nanoparticles, and also serves as a free-radical scavenger to protect PS membrane against the damage by free radicals produced by TiO₂ during UV exposure treatment. The spherical-shaped TiO₂-PDA can be easily doped into PS membrane via phase inversion method, which allows the

hydrophilic TiO₂-PDA spheres migrating to the hydrophobic PS surface and benefiting the antifouling ability.

In addition, impurity doping is other typical approach to extend the spectral response of the titanium dioxide to visible light region and decrease the negative effect by UV irradiation. Some metal elements (such as Fe, Cr, Co, Mo, Pd, Ag and V), non-metals (such as B, C, N, S, and F) and attachment to graphite and carbon nanotubes have been employed to tune the electronic structure and enhanced the photocatalytic activity of the titanium dioxide [47-52]. Incorporating the co-doped TiO₂ into PS membranes will likely modify the optical properties of the membrane, potentially enabling the photocatalytic activation of the embedded co-doped TiO₂ under less energetic visible light irradiation [49, 53]. Different proportions of N,Pd co-doped TiO₂ were embedded in a PS polymeric membrane through the phase inversion method and the membrane evaluated for the degradation of a dye (Eosin yellow) under visible light irradiation by Kuvarega et al [54]. Up to 92% dye degradation was realized with the 7% N, Pd TiO₂/PS nanocomposite membrane after 180 min of visible light irradiation.

Recently, Hir et al. synthesized reduced TiO₂ (r-TiO₂) by a simple reduction method using NaBH₄ and immobilized into PES matrix via phase inversion [55]. The occurrence of surface defects induced by Ti³⁺ species or oxygen vacancies led to the extension of the light absorption in the visible region. Results indicate that a complete MO removal was obtained when one piece of PES-13 wt% of reduced TiO₂ (PrT-13) film was used in a very acidic medium.

Mahlambi et al. prepared PS membrane containing nanosized carbon-covered alumina supported TiO₂ (CCA/TiO₂) as an inorganic-organic nanomembranes to photodegrade Rhodamine B dye under visible light illumination [56]. Table 2 summarized recent progress in modification and application of PES and PE in removal of organic compounds (Table 3).

Table 3. Application of photocatalytic polyethersulfone and polysulfone membranes in degradation of various types of organic pollutants.

Photocatalyst	Preparation method	Dye/Condition/Light region (source)	Ref.
PES–reduced TiO ₂	casting solution	-500 mL of MO (10 mg L ⁻¹), pH = 5.8 -300-Watt halogen lamp (PHILIPS 13096 ELH) irradiation for 540 min	[55]
PES/TiO ₂ film	Phase inversion	-1000 mL of MO (10 mg L ⁻¹), pH = 5.8 -UV (6 W UV-A lamp (HITACHI F6T5/BL))	[57]
PS/CCA/TiO ₂	Phase inversion	-100 mL of RhB (10 mg L ⁻¹) -Visible light (Newport 9600 Full Spectrum Solar Simulator equipped with a 150 W ozone free xenon lamp)	[56]
Fe-doped TiO ₂ /PS	Hydrothermal, phase inversion	-250 mL BPA (10 mg·L ⁻¹) -visible-light (500-W Xenon lamp)	[58]
PS/N,Pd co-doped TiO ₂ composite	Phase inversion	-100 mL of EY(100 mg L ⁻¹) -visible-light (solar simulator (Oriel, Newport), equipped with an Oriel 500W Xenon lamp)	[54]
TiO ₂ nanotube-PES	Anodization	-4 mL of MB (20 μmol L ⁻¹), Diclofenac (25 mg L ⁻¹) -UV-A sunlamp (Heraus Original Hanau Suncare tanning tube 21/25 Slim, radiant flux density 7.6 mW cm ⁻²)	[42, 43]
PES/LSMM-OGCN	Phase inversion	-1 L of Phenol (10 ppm) -Ultraviolet lamp (Vilber Laurmat, λ = 312 nm, 30 W, light intensity 3.0 mW/cm ²) and a visible lamp (light-emitting diode (LED) lamp, λ = 420 nm, 30 W)	[59]

3.1.2 Fluoropolymeric membranes: PVDF and PTFE

Fluoropolymers like polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) has the advantages of high temperature resistance, chemical corrosion resistance, aging resistance and high strength due to stable –C–F bond in the main chain [60]. But the PVDF membrane application in

the field of water treatment and separation is limited because of the strong hydrophobicity and easy pollution. An easy way to address this issue is applying casting solution method. This method entraps the hydrophilic nanoparticles within the membrane matrix with good stability. However, the aggregation of nanoparticles could affect membrane morphology and alter membrane porosity, roughness, and mechanical strength. Meanwhile, the photodegradation rate of pollutants is suppressed because the entrapped photocatalysts are not easily accessible. Therefore, some researchers employed the self-assembly method, wherein semiconductor is bound on the surface of the membrane through non-covalent interactions [61]. The procedure is also straightforward, the fully formed membrane is dipped in a photocatalyst suspension for a certain period to allow coating [62-65]. In order to provide the necessary binding sites in the surface of PVDF, blending or grafting of hydrophilic materials like poly(styrene-alt-maleic anhydride) (SMA) [66] and PES [62, 67], poly(acrylic acid) (PAA) has been applied [68]. Plasma-induced graft polymerization is a simple technique that eliminates the need for chemical initiators or other components. The activated species of low energy plasma can trigger polymerization reaction on or near the surface of a wide variety of materials even with short bursts of plasma exposure [69]. You et al. grafted PAA on PVDF by plasma method to assembly of TiO₂ nanoparticles [68]. The membrane with 0.5% TiO₂ loading maintained the highest pure water flux and the best protein antifouling property. The TiO₂-modified membranes removed 30–42% of 50 mg L⁻¹ aqueous Reactive Black 5 (RB5) dye.

Damodar et al. prepared composite PVDF/TiO₂ membranes using general phase inversion method [70]. The modified PVDF membranes were prepared by adding different amounts of TiO₂ particles (0–4 wt.%) into the casting solution. The TiO₂ entrapped PVDF membranes were tested for its antibacterial property using *Escherichia Coliform* (*E. Coli*), photoactive property using Reactive Black 5 (RB5) dye and self-cleaning (antifouling) properties by fouling using 1% Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) solution. Results showed that TiO₂ addition significantly affects the pore size and hydrophilicity of the PVDF/TiO₂ membrane. This also improves the flux and permeability of prepared membrane. Antibacterial study showed that the composite PVDF/TiO₂ membrane removes *E. Coli* at a very faster rate than neat PVDF membrane and membrane with 4% TiO₂ possess highest antibacterial property. The RB5 dye removal using PVDF/TiO₂ occurs under UV by photolysis.

Alaoui et al. prepared porous PVDF-based membranes filled with anatase (TiO₂) nanocrystalline particles using phase inversion technique for entrapment of TiO₂ [71]. The best photocatalytic membrane had a pore size of 0.96 μm, with a maximum porosity of 86% at 0.5 TiO₂/PVDF weight ratio. The results indicate that after 7.5 h of irradiation for Brilliant Green (BG), the dye degradation ratio was about 81% for TiO₂/PVDF and 97%

for TiO₂, and after 5h of irradiation for Indigo Carmin (IC), the dye degradation ratio was about 89% for TiO₂/PVDF and 97% for TiO₂ (Degussa P25).

Li et al. investigated Ag/TiO₂ embedment on the surface property of PVDF membrane [72]. Ag/TiO₂ improved the surface hydrophilicity of PVDF membrane in contrast with virgin PVDF membrane. Besides, Ag/TiO₂ nanoparticle provided PVDF membrane with an enhanced visible-light response activity. The absorption in the visible light range was derived from the localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) of Ag nanoparticles. Ag/TiO₂/PVDF exhibits excellent activity on degradation of methylene blue (MB) and inactivation of bacteria [72, 73].

Nanocomposites of poly(vinylidene difluoride)-co-trifluoroethylene (PVDF-TrFE) with different concentrations of TiO₂ P25 nanoparticles (5, 10, and 15 wt.%) and ZnO nanoparticles (15 wt.%) were produced by Teixeira et al. and tested on the degradation of methylene blue (MB) [74]. It was found that increasing the photocatalyst concentration results in higher photocatalytic efficiencies; the degradation rates of 15% of TiO₂ and ZnO were similar; and the photocatalytic activity of composites in dye degradation with TiO₂ 5%, TiO₂ 10%, TiO₂ 15%, and ZnO 15% decreased as 6%, 16%, 13%, and 11% after three utilizations [74].

Recently, many studies have shown that graphene-based membranes have great potential in filtration, separation and water desalination. Addition of GO (~ 1% rather than mass of polymer) can significantly improve the hydrophilicity, permeability and antifouling performance of the membranes [75-77].

One of the practical solutions for overcoming the photodegradation of the polymeric membrane is to protect the membrane surface with polydopamine (PDA) as a free-radical scavengers that is capable of absorbing and quenching the radicals produced by UV light [78]. Visible light photocatalysts have been highly developed owing to their efficient utilization of approximately 50% solar energy. In 2010, Ye team reported Ag₃PO₄, with the band gap of 2.36 eV, and a valence band potential of 2.43 eV, it can absorb the UV-vis wavelength in the solar light less than 530 nm [79]. Zhang et al. prepared PDA/RGO/Ag₃PO₄/PVDF membrane, which can efficiently degrade and separate dye molecules (99% removal of MB) under visible-light irradiation. Polydopamine has good absorption ability to ultraviolet and visible light, and its good photoconductivity can enhance the generation of photogenerated e⁻/h⁺ under the visible light irradiation [60].

Bi₂WO₆ with perovskite structure has attracted tremendous attention due to its superior intrinsic properties such as narrow band gap, high physicochemical stability, low cost and non-toxicity. However, bare Bi₂WO₆ exhibits a short visible-light absorption limiting its photocatalytic efficiency. To address this problem, various efforts have been made, such

as ions doping, noble-metal deposition, nanostructured control, crystal facet engineering and heterostructure construction [80-86].

Heterostructure construction is one of the most effective means to strengthen the visible-light photocatalytic activity of Bi_2WO_6 . Recently, a few novel composites based on Bi_2WO_6 such as $\text{Bi}_2\text{WO}_6/\text{TiO}_2$ [87], $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Bi}_2\text{WO}_6$ [84], $\text{WO}_3/\text{Bi}_2\text{WO}_6$ [88], $\text{BiOI}/\text{Bi}_2\text{WO}_6$ [89], $\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_2\text{CO}_3/\text{Bi}_2\text{WO}_6$ [90], $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3/\text{Bi}_2\text{WO}_6$ [91], $\text{Ag}_2\text{O}/\text{Bi}_2\text{WO}_6$, $\text{Bi}_2\text{WO}_6/\text{GO}$ [92], $\text{Bi}_2\text{WO}_6/\text{SiO}_2$ [93], $\text{Bi}_2\text{WO}_6/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ [94] and $\text{Bi}_2\text{WO}_6/\text{BiPO}_4$ [95] has been developed. Li et al. obtained PVDF membranes modified with RGO/ Bi_2WO_6 with a double-layer coating method through non-solvent-induced phase separation [96]. The water contact angle was improved by about 30° by RGO/ Bi_2WO_6 ; this indicated the enhanced membrane hydrophobicity. The high desalination rate proved that all of the prepared membranes were appropriate for the membrane distillation (MD) process. The RGO/ Bi_2WO_6 /PVDF achieve 26.26%–59.95% removal rates in 10 mg/L aqueous ciprofloxacin (CIP) under visible light for 7.5 h. The best photocatalytic performance (59.95% removal rate) was obtained in 300 mL of 10 mg/L CIP under the irradiation of visible light for 7.5 h; the amount of RGO/ Bi_2WO_6 was influential in final result.

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs), owing to their outstanding properties including large surface areas, well-ordered porosity and tunable molecular structure have been extensively researched in photocatalysis filed [97-99]. Guo et al. reported that by the hydrothermally prepared $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{NH}_2\text{-MIL-88B(Fe)}$ heterojunction (MIL-88B(Fe) = Iron-based MOFs); 100% of MB photodegradation was achieved in 120 min under visible light, much greater than the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $\text{NH}_2\text{-MIL-88B(Fe)}$ individually [100]. Hu et al. fabricated composite film, $\text{Bi}_2\text{WO}_6/\text{MIL-53(Al)}/\text{PVDF}$, through a hydrothermal process combined with immersion phase inversion method [101]. The formation of heterojunction structure between Bi_2WO_6 and MIL-53(Al) , increased photocatalytic activity (95.3% degradation of RhB). The photocatalytic degradation mechanism by quenching tests revealed that the predominant reactive species were h^+ , $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$.

PVDF membrane was modified using atomic layer deposition (ALD) technique by coating three-dimensional (3D) TiO_2/ZnO photocatalyst on membrane surface and pore walls [102]. The hydrophilicity, permeability, photocatalysis and anti-fouling performances of modified membranes were investigated in detail. The composite modified membrane ($\text{TiO}_2:\text{ZnO}=1:3$) was more sensitive to visible light. The maximum flux of 0.017 cm/s was obtained for the composite modified membrane ($\text{TiO}_2:\text{ZnO}/1:3$ with ZnO content of 0.923 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{cm}^2$), due to enhanced hydrophilicity. Moreover, the 3D modified layer on membrane surface displayed excellent photocatalytic activity and stable reusability during methylene blue (MB) degradation.

Compared with TiO_2 , ZnO has rich micro-morphology, good biocompatibility and environmental safety, which make it quite popular in the field of photocatalysis. The electrons and holes generated on the surface of ZnO are easily recombined in the photocatalytic process, which reduces the photocatalytic efficiency. Therefore, considerable efforts including noble metal loading, semiconductor coupling, ion doping and special preparation process have been devoted to enhance the photocatalytic activity of ZnO [103].

Zhang et al. showed coupling ZnO with GO can effectively enhance the dispersibility and the photocatalytic efficiency [104]. They synthesized PVDF/GO/ ZnO photocatalytic membranes for degradation of organic dyes. The photocatalytic degradation rate of methylene blue (MB) could reach 86.84% , under Xenon irradiation (300 W). The radical trapping experiments with different active radical scavengers showed that the oxidizing species ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$) plays an important role in the decolorization process of MB. The photocatalytic efficiency of the composite membrane for MB increase by addition of H_2O_2 , which may be attributed to the fact that the H_2O_2 , which is a strong oxidant, could suppress the e^-/h^+ pair recombination on the surface of ZnO by trapping electrons generated on the surface of ZnO [105].

Zinc sulfide (ZnS) with strong oxidization and fast generation of charges widely used as photocatalyst for toxic organic pollutant degradation [102]. To alleviate the quick recombination rate of the photoinduced e^-/h^+ pairs, GO exhibits excellent electron transfer performance and can reduce the recombination rate, which is helpful to enhance the photocatalytic activity. Du et al. prepared zinc sulfide/graphene oxide/polyvinylidene fluoride ($\text{ZnS}/\text{GO}/\text{PVDF}$) composite membrane by immersed phase inversion method. Uniform surface, high hydrophilicity (water contact angle = 62.2°), and enhanced permeability to $326.1 \text{ L}/(\text{m}^2 \text{ h})$ were characteristics of hybrid membrane [106].

$\text{BiVO}_4/\text{GO}/\text{PVDF}$ system showed enhanced photocatalytic activity degradation of methylene blue (MB), Rhodamine B (RhB) and Safranin-O (SO) in water under visible light irradiation as compared to the pure BiVO_4 catalyst, BiVO_4 and PTFE (polytetrafluoroethylene) decorated on the graphene sheet [107]. Graphene sheets in this composite enhances photocatalytic performance under visible light. Photoluminescence spectra proved the effective quenching of the photogenerated e^-/h^+ pairs is the main reason of enhanced photocatalytic activity.

The electrospun nanofiber mats of fluoropolymers with micro-sized porous structure can offer high specific area and good enrichment ability for organic compounds, leading to the improvement of the photocatalytic efficiency, stability and recycle ability [108-116].

Following we have summarized recent development of PVDF photocatalytic membranes in degradation of organic pollutants (Table 4).

Table 4. Application of photocatalytic fluoropolymeric membranes in degradation of various types of organic pollutants.

Photocatalyst name	Preparation method	Condition/ Light source	Ref.
Anatase/PVDF	Phase inversion	-400 mL of BG, IC (20 mg L ⁻¹) -UV Swig black lamp (Bioblock) at 365 nm	[71]
PDA/RGO/Ag ₃ PO ₄ /PVDF	Phase inversion	-100 mL of MB (20 mg L ⁻¹) -Visible light (common incandescent lamp, 200 W)	[60]
PVDF/GO/ZnO	Phase inversion	-60 mL of MB (10mg L ⁻¹) -Xenon illumination (300 W)	[104]
Au-TiO ₂ /PDA/PVDF	Vacuum filtration	-20 mL Tetracycline (10 mg L ⁻¹) -Visible light	[117]
TiO ₂ entrapped PVDF membranes	Phase inversion	-25 mL of RB5 (100 mg L ⁻¹) -UV light (UV-C, 15W)	[70]
Ag-TiO ₂ /PVDF film	Blending/photo reduction combined method	- 30 mL of MB (10 mg L ⁻¹) -Visible light (18W fluorescent Lamp)	[72]
ZnS/GO/PVDF	Phase inversion	-100 mL of MB (10 mg L ⁻¹) -photochemical reactor ³² (Beijing NBET Technology Co., Ltd) in sunlight range (250-800 nm)	[106]
PVDF-TrFE/TiO ₂	Solvent casting	-MB -17.6 μM /50 mL -UVA (365 nm ;6 Philips 8W mercurial fluorescent lamps–UMEX)	[74]
BiVO ₄ -GO-PVDF	Ultrasonication	-100 mL of MB, RhB, SO (20 mg L ⁻¹) -visible light (500 W xenon lamp through UV cut-off filters)	[107]

3D-TiO ₂ /ZnO/ PVDF	ALD	-100 mL of MB (10 ⁻⁵ mol L ⁻¹) -visible light (xenon light source, 200 W)	[102]
Bi ₂ WO ₆ /MIL-53(Al)/PVDF	Hydrothermal, immersion phase inversion	-250 mL of RhB (20 mg L ⁻¹) -visible light 500 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 420$ nm)	[101]
PVDF/ Bi ₂ WO ₆ /rGO	Double-layer coating method through non-solvent-induced phase separation	-300 mL CIP (10 mg L ⁻¹) -visible light 500 W U-shaped xenon lamp	[96]
paper-like PVDF/TiO ₂	Electrospinning and electrospaying	-45 mL of BPA, 4-CP, and CMT (10 μ M) -UV (six 4-W blacklight blue lamps ($\lambda = 350$ – 400 nm, F10T8, Sankyo Denki, Japan)	[113]
ZnS/PVDF/MAA/TFA	Electrospinning	-15 mL of MB (5.3 mg L ⁻¹) -UV (two 15 W shortwave UV lamps (254 nm) (Kexing Company, Changsha China), distance between two lamps =15.0 cm)	[114]
TiO ₂ /PVDF–TrFE membrane	Solvent casting	-Tartrazine -10 mg L ⁻¹ -sunlight irradiation	[118]
TiO ₂ -PVDF-steel mesh	Coating, electrospaying, and thermal fixation	-45 mL of MO, RB4, SMX (10 μ M) - UV irradiation (six blacklight blue lamps (4 W, $\lambda = 350$ – 400 nm, Sankyo Denki F10T8))	[115]
PVDF/Ag ₂ NCN	Phase inversion	-100 mL Acid Blue 1(10 ⁻⁵ M) -visible light (light irradiation density was 94.30 mW cm ⁻²)	[119]
TiO ₂ -PVDF ultrafiltration membranes	Phase inversion	-80 mL of RhB (2 \times 10 ⁻⁵ M), pH = 6 -UV (250 W, high-pressure Hg lamp at 365 nm)	[120]

TiO ₂ /GO/P(VDF-TrFE)	Electrospinning	-13 mL MB (10 ⁻⁵ mol L ⁻¹) -UVA (high-power LED source (Thorlabs, 700 mA) with an excitation peak at 365 nm)	[121]
PVDF/ meso-TiO ₂	Dual-templated synthesis with solvent extraction	-20 mL of MO (10 mg L ⁻¹) -UV (ZF-1 three UV analyzer, Shanghai Jihui scientific analysis instrument Co., Ltd., China) (25 W, 365 nm))	[122]
PVDF/TiO ₂ nanofibers	Electrospinning	-200 mL of BPA (10 ppm) -UV radiation (UV lamp, Vilber Laurmat, France, λ = 312 nm, 30 W).	[123]
Er-Doped and Er/Pr-Codoped TiO ₂ / PVDF-TrFE	Solvent casting	-MB (1 × 10 ⁻⁵ M) pH 6.8 -UV (high-power light-emitting diode (LED) source (Thorlabs, 700 mA), at 365 nm (UV-A)	[124]
PVDF/anatase/silica nanocomposites	Thermal treatment	-MB (10 mg L ⁻¹) -UV (UV lamp, λ _{max} = 365 nm)	[125]
PVDF/plasma-grafted poly(acrylic acid) membrane with self-assembled TiO ₂	Plasma-induced graft polymerization	-RB5 (40 mg L ⁻¹) -UV (UV lamp (254 nm, 15W)	[68]
Naked-TiO ₂ capsulated in nanovoid microcapsule of PVDF	phase inversion	-100 mL of MO (15 mg L ⁻¹) -UV (200 W UV-lamp at 365 nm)	[126]
PTFE/Co ₃ O ₄	Dip coating	-Orange II (0.05 mM), pH = 7 -Suntest solar light simulator (90 mW/cm ²)	[127]
TiO ₂ /PTFE Membrane	electrospinning, immersion, and calcination	-100 mL MB solution (2.5 mg L ⁻¹) -UV (lamp power 300 W)	[128]

Recently, there have been many reports of using modified poly(tetrafluoroethylene) (PTFE) fiber and membranes for the degradation of dyes [129, 130]. Modified PTFE fibers by acrylic acid and loaded Fe³⁺ were prepared and used as Fenton catalysts for the degradation of reactive Blue 222 in the pH range 3-9 under visible irradiation [131]. The study found that the loaded catalytic material had good performance in degradation of the azo dye, and the fibrous support could maintain good mechanical properties in the reaction

process, which avoided the strength decreasing of PTFE fiber carrier during catalytic degradation. However, modification and loading operations are difficult, low efficiency and high cost. Besides, fibers with large diameters are difficult to achieve with better catalytic properties. Kang et al., prepared a TiO₂/PTFE membrane catalyst by electrospinning, immersion, and calcination, and the catalyst was applied to MB degradation [128].

3.1.3 Development of photocatalytic polyaniline (PANI) membranes

A number of processing technologies such as template synthesis, self-assembly and electrospinning have been proposed for the preparation of polymer nanofibres. Among these, the electrospinning process seems to be a promising method which can be further developed for mass production of one-by-one continuous nanofibres from various polymers [132]. Electrospun fibers of ceramic or polymeric materials possess many extraordinary properties, such as small diameters and large specific surface areas. Additionally, the non-woven fibrous mats made of electrospun polymer fibers offer a unique capability of readily controlling the pore sizes. Till now, many synthetic and natural polymers have been electrospun into fibrous mats for various applications.

Various strategies have been employed to make TiO₂ photocatalysts highly efficient under visible light, including dye sensitization, polymer modification, non-metals doping, semiconductor coupling, and transition metal doping [133]. Conjugated polymers, such as polyaniline (PANI), poly(fluorine-co-thiophene) (PFT), polythiophene, polypyrrole and their derivatives can function as sensitizers to extend photoresponse of TiO₂ into the visible region effectively [133, 134]. PANI is one of the most fascinating conductive polymers and has received much attention for easy polymerization, high yield, relative high conductivities, low cost, and high stability [135]. Under visible-light irradiation, PANI generates π - π^* transition, injecting the excited electrons into the conduction band of TiO₂, and then the electrons transfer to an adsorbed electron acceptor to yield oxygenous radicals [136]. Meanwhile, synergetic effect of coupling photocatalysts with PANI proves to be effective to promote photoinduced charge separation and inhibit charge recombination [137, 138]. There are variously modified photocatalysts based on PANI such as PANI/TiO₂, PANI/BiVO₄, PANI/SnO₂, and PANI/MoO₃, PANI/PbS, and PANI/CoFe₂O₄/TiO₂ [139-142]. Lin et al. prepared a catalytic system of PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposites, which exhibited higher photocatalytic activity and stability for degradation of methyl orange than the bare TiO₂ under both UV and visible light irradiation [143]. Li et al. prepared PANI-doped TiO₂ and PLLA (poly(L-lactide)) fibers by a combination of coaxial-electrospinning and in-situ polymerization [144]. The aniline monomers were located in the core phase and in-situ polymerized by ammonium persulfate

(APS) after electrospinning. Photocatalytic degradation tests show that the membrane exhibit enhanced photocatalytic activity for degradation of methyl orange under visible light, likely due to the synergistic effect of PANI and TiO₂.

Li et al. applied electrospinning method in preparation of bilayered composite fibrous membrane [145]. Polyaniline (PANI), Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles (NPs), and Bi₂WO₆:Yb³⁺,Er³⁺ were incorporated into polyacrylonitrile (PAN) and electrospun into the obtained fibrous membrane with [Bi₂WO₆:Yb³⁺, Er³⁺/PAN] nanofibers as one layer and [PANI/Fe₃O₄/PAN] nanofibers as the other layer. The degradation of Rhodamine B (RhB) was used to characterize the photocatalytic activity of the photocatalyst.

Table 5. Application of photocatalytic polyaniline membranes in degradation of various types of organic pollutants.

Photocatalytic name	Preparation method	Condition & light source	Ref.
TiO ₂ /PANI/PEO	Electrospinning & electrospaying	-10 mL CEPS solution in heptane at concentration of 0.05(v/v) -UV irradiation	[146]
PANI-doped TiO ₂ /PLLA	Coaxial-electrospinning and in-situ polymerization	-25 mL of MO solution (0.5 mg L ⁻¹) -Visible light (250 W xenon lamp with a 420 nm cut-off glass filter was used as a visible-light source)	[144]
PANI/Fe ₃ O ₄ /PAN/[Bi ₂ WO ₆ :Yb ³⁺ ,Er ³⁺ /PAN] bilayered composite fibrous membrane	Electrospinning	-100 mL of RhB aqueous solution (0.05 mg L ⁻¹) -UV-vis light irradiatio (A 500 W mercury lamp)	[145]
PANI/TiO ₂ /SiO ₂ nanofiber membrane	Electrospinning	- 3 mL of MO solution (1.5 mg L ⁻¹) -Visible light (500 W xenon lamp with a 420 nm cut-off glass filter)	[133]

Neubert et al. prepared conductive electrospun fibrous membrane. by integration of electrospinning and electro spraying. The non-conductive polyethylene oxide (PEO) was blended with (\pm)-camphor-10-sulfonic acid (CSA) doped conductive polyaniline (PANI) for electrospinning. The conductive CSA/PANI/PEO composite fibers were produced upon electrospinning, then TiO₂ nanoparticles were sprayed and allowed to adsorb on the fibers. The photocatalytic activity of the prepared TiO₂/PANI/PEO was tested against the toxicant simulant 2-chloroethyl phenyl sulfide (CEPS) under UV irradiation. It was observed that the TiO₂ nanoparticles catalysts embedded PANI/PEO fibrous membrane decontaminated the toxicant CEPS significantly. Table 5 summarized reported photocatalytic polyamide membranes in degradation of organic pollutants.

3.1.4 Development of photocatalytic polyamide membranes

Kwak et al. prepared hybrid organic/inorganic reverse osmosis (RO) membranes composed of aromatic polyamide thin films underneath TiO₂ nano-particles by a self-assembly process, with photocatalytic destructive capability on microorganisms[64, 147]. Lombardi et al. prepared electrospun polyamide-6 membranes containing TiO₂ photocatalyst with self-cleaning, antibacterial and photochromic textiles, and high surface area [132]. By tailoring the electrospinning parameters, two different membranes (thicknesses 5 and 20 μ m, with inorganic/organic ratios of 10 and 20 wt%.) were successfully produced, The photocatalytic activity of both hybrid systems was evaluated by degradation of methylene blue under UV irradiation.

Zhang et al. applied immobilized TiO₂ nanoparticle on polyamide fabric in degradation of methylene blue [148]. It was found that when polyamide-6 (PA-6) fabric was treated in titanium sulfate and urea aqueous solution, anatase nanocrystalline titanium dioxide was synthesized and simultaneously adhered onto the fiber surface. The average crystal size of titanium dioxide nanoparticles was about 13.2 nm.

Daels et al. prepared TiO₂ functionalized nanofiber membranes via electrospinning on a single nozzle electrospin set-up by adding two types of TiO₂ nanoparticles (commercial Degussa P25 ~21 nm and synthetic colloids ~ 6 nm) at different concentrations to the PA-6 prior to the spinning solution or by post-functionalizing the electrospun membranes [149]. Both methods improved the degradation of methylene blue under UV irradiation although the post-functionalization with colloidal TiO₂ nanoparticles showed the best photocatalytic activity. Table 6 represents the recent progress in degradation of organic pollutants by photocatalytic polyamide membranes.

Table 6. Application of photocatalytic polyamide membranes in degradation of various types of organic pollutants.

Photocatalyst name	Preparation method	Condition & light source	Ref.
PA6 fabric/TiO ₂ nanoparticle	Hydrothermal method	-50 mL of MB solution (20 mg L ⁻¹) at natural pH -UV(20 W, $\lambda = 254$ nm, quartz ultraviolet lamp)	[148]
Electrospun PA 6/TiO ₂ nanoparticles	Electrospinning	-MB solution (10 mg L ⁻¹) -UV (300 W Osram Ultra-Vitalux lamp)	[149]
Electrospun PA6/TiO ₂	Electrospinning	-MB (5 ppm in ethanol) -UV (medium-pressure mercury arc lamp (Hamamatsu), average light intensity was ca 50 mW cm ⁻²)	[132]
TiO ₂ /PA 6 nanofibrous membranes	Dip coating	-MB (4.2 mg L ⁻¹) and isoprotruron (5 and 10 mg L ⁻¹) solutions -UV-A, similar to sunlight (300 W Osram Ultra-Vitalux lamp, intensity 5 m W/cm ²)	[150]
TiO ₂ /PA 12 electrospun fiber mats	Electrospinning	-13 mL of MB solution (10 ⁻² mM) , pH = 6.8 -UV-A (high power LED source (Thorlabs, 700 mA, at 365 nm))	[151]

3.1.5 Development of cellulose-based photocatalytic membranes

Cellulose acetate (CA) is the most widely used cellulose ester, but its usefulness is limited by its low dimensional stability at high temperatures. Several strategies have been employed in an attempt to broaden the applications of this indirectly renewable polymer, since it is derived from cellulose, such as the formation of polymer blends, chemical modification through the introduction of functional groups, or grafting to the polymer chain. Preparation of organic/inorganic hybrid composites such as cellulose acetate with niobium, zirconium, titanium, aluminum, bismuth, and silicon oxides is a suitable route for its chemical modification [152].

Campos et al. prepared a cellulose acetate/TiO₂ composite by dissolving cellulose acetate in acetone:acetic acid (70:30 in volume) and adding quantities of titanium (IV) tert-

butoxide to obtain varying oxide content after phase inversion [152]. TiO₂ in the composite was a crystalline anatase phase. The composite showed effective photocatalytic activity in the degradation of MB under solar radiation. Yang et al. [153] fabricated the CA/SiO₂-TiO₂ hybrid via water vapor-induced phase inversion of CA solution and simultaneous hydrolysis/condensation of 3-aminopropyltrimethoxysilane (APTMS) and tetrabutyl titanate (TBT) at room temperature. Micro-nano hierarchical structure was constructed on the surface of the film. The flux of the film for the emulsion separation was up to 667 L m⁻² h⁻¹, while the separation efficiency was up to 99.99 wt%. Meanwhile, the film exhibited excellent stability during multiple cycles, performed excellent photo-degradation under UV light.

Bi₂O₃ is an attractive candidate semiconductor material because of its low cost, favorable direct bandgap of 2.5-2.8 eV, and good photostability in acidic conditions. Zhang et al. [154] prepared nanosized Bi₂O₃ to enhance the photocatalytic activity by a simple sonochemical route. In addition, Liu et al. [155] showed the crystalline phase evolution of Bi₂O₃ had an effect on photocatalytic performance. The effective utilization of visible light for photocatalytic membranes is main challenge. To extend the lifespan of photogenerated electrons and holes for higher photocatalytic activity, various strategies have been reported, such as doping with metal elements (Au-doped Bi₂O₃ [156]), nonmetal elements (S-doped Bi₂O₃ [157]) and coupling with other semiconductors to form heterojunction structures (Bi₂O₃/Bi₂MoO₆ [158], Bi₂O₃/g-C₃N₄ [158]). The heterojunction structure can not only combine at least two disparate functional materials in one system but also reduce the recombination rate of the electron-hole pairs. For instance, Juntrapirom et al. [159] found that the novel SnS/BiOI heterostructures presented higher photocatalytic performance and better stability than a single semiconductor. Liu et al. [160] synthesized another BiVO₄/WO₃ heterojunction with an excellent visible-light response, a good photostability and high photoelectrochemical activity. However, it is difficult to separate it from treated water, which limits its practical application. The challenge is to develop an effective method to improve the recovery and reuse of the catalyst. CA-based membranes have been widely utilized as support membranes due to the advantages of biodegradability nontoxicity and low cost. Li et al. synthesized the Bi₂O₃/ZnS heterojunction, by a one-step hydrothermal method and applied phase inversion method to immobilize Bi₂O₃/ZnS nanocomposite in CA membrane. The prepared photocatalytic membrane was applied to degradation of RhB [1].

Bi₁₂O₁₇Cl₂, a new type of promising layered materials, has been demonstrated with excellent visible light photocatalytic activity for pollutant degradation [161]. However, the practical application of pure Bi₁₂O₁₇Cl₂ is still limited by the fast recombination electron-hole pairs and many methods have been used to modify and adjust the catalyst to visible

light region [162-164]. The visible light photoactivity of the obtained catalyst generally have a good effect on dye degradation. However, the visible light activity for the colorless organic contaminant still needs to be improved. Yu et al. [165] combined the $\text{Bi}_{12}\text{O}_{17}\text{Cl}_2$ with graphene oxide (GO) and dopamine together on surface of CA membrane. The $\text{Bi}_{12}\text{O}_{17}\text{Cl}_2$ can tune the interlayer spacing of GO to increase the flux [166]. During the reduction process, the hydrophilic interfaces of GO may change into hydrophobic because of the loss of oxygen functionalities [167]. Therefore, a proper reducing agent both achieving the reduction of graphene oxide and keeping the hydrophilicity of the GO interface is very important. Many researches indicated that dopamine with physicochemical properties of adhesion and self-polymerization is a milder and nontoxic reducing agent at weak alkaline pH. Therefore, dopamine has been introduced to reduce GO and obtain uniformed dispersion membrane solution. Results indicated that the as-prepared membrane can simultaneously degrade dye/colorless organic contaminant and separate oil/water emulsions. In addition, the use of dopamine has improved the adherence between $\text{Bi}_{12}\text{O}_{17}\text{Cl}_2$ with graphene matrix and made the RGO/PDA/ $\text{Bi}_{12}\text{O}_{17}\text{Cl}_2$ firmly together with the CA membrane. The photodegradation of MB solution and 4-CP solution under visible light was used to estimate the photocatalytic performance of the prepared membrane [165].

It was reported that electrospun CA nanofibrous membranes with large specific surface area, high porosity, and high permeability could be an effective support for photocatalysts such as ZnO, ZnS, TiO_2 [168-170]. This could create a synergistic effect that enhanced the catalytic performance of the individual materials.

Bacterial cellulose (BC)-hydrated membranes with nanosize superfine structure are good templates in the preparation of new organic-inorganic hybrids with specific morphology and size [171-173]. Among many possible nanoparticles to be incorporated in BC matrixes, TiO_2 nanoparticles have attracted considerable attention because of the relative ease of synthesis and their strong photodegradation activity. Table 7 summarizes the application of cellulose-based photocatalyst nanostructured materials for photocatalytic degradation of various organic pollutants.

Table 7: Application of cellulose-based hybrid photocatalysts in photocatalytic degradation of various types of organic pollutants.

Photocatalyst name	Preparation Method	Condition & light source	Ref.
RGO/PDA/Bi ₁₂ O ₁₇ Cl ₂ -CA	Vacuum filtration	-100 mL MB solution (15 mg L ⁻¹) and 4-CP solution (15 mg L ⁻¹) -visible light (long-arc Xe lamp, 500 W)	[165]
Cellulose (core)-TiO ₂ (sheath) fibers	Coaxial-lectrospinning	-Keyacid Blue dye (0.1 wt %) -A halogen light source (power density of ~27 mW/cm ²)	[174]
BC/titanium dioxide	Sol-Gel method	- MO solution (20 mg L ⁻¹) -ultraviolet lamp.	[175]
CA/TiO ₂ composite	Phase inversion	-25 mL of MB solution (12 × 10 ⁻⁶ mol L ⁻¹) -Uv radiation. (150W Hg lamp)	[176]
ZnS/BC nanocomposites	In Situ Precipitation using BC as template	-100 mL of MO solution(10 mg L ⁻¹) -UV light at a wavelength of 254 nm.	[177]
CA-TiO ₂ P90 (ratio: 10:1)	Casting solution	-30 mL of MB or RhB solution (2 × 10 ⁻⁵ M) -UV radiation (two 15 W lamps, 365 nm)	[178]
CA/TiO ₂ composite ultrafine fiber	Electrospinning	-10 mL of MB solution (10 mg L ⁻¹) - UV source. (300 W mercury lamp)	[179]
SrTiO ₃ /TiO ₂ heterojunctioned nanofibers assembled on commercial CA	Electrospinning and hydrothermal treatment	-60 mL of AO 7 solution (50 mg L ⁻¹) -Upland UVP lamp (254 nm, 40 mW/cm ²)	[180]
TiO ₂ nanoparticles/cellulose fibers	Hydrothermal method	-4 mL of MO solution (0.25 mM) -UV-A lamp (50 cm long, 72 W, emission range 320–400 nm)	[181]
N-doped TiO ₂ nanorods in regenerated cellulose thin films	Phase inversion	- 150 mL of MB solution (40 mg L ⁻¹) - UV lamp (Vilber Laurmat, λ = 312 nm, 30 W) and white light-emitting diode (LED) flood light (CS-FL-30W, λ > 420 nm, 30 W).	[182]
C/SiO ₂ /TiO ₂	Dip-Coating or spin-coating	-MV dye (0.1%) - UV light (Xe 150-W lamp, the range of emission wavelength between 290-400 nm (UVA and UVB))	[183]
Dispersed-TiO ₂ on CA	Phase inversion	-25 mL of MB solution (12 × 10 ⁻⁶ M) -UV radiation (150W Hg lamp)	[152]

CA-polystyrene-ZnO	Solution dispersion blending method	-CR or RY-105 solution (100 mg L ⁻¹ , Neutral pH) -Sunlight irradiation	[184]
Bi ₂ O ₃ /ZnS Heterojunction Functionalized Porous CA Membranes	Phase-inversion	-50 mL of RhB solution (5.0 mg L ⁻¹) -Visible-Light (xenon light source with the power of 200 W)	[185]
RGO/PDA/Bi ₁₂ O ₁₇ C ₁₂ /CA membrane.	Vacuum filtration method	-100 mL MB solution (15 mg L ⁻¹) and 4-CP solution (15 mg L ⁻¹) -visible light (long-arc Xe lamp, 500 W).	[165]
RGO-Ag-TiO ₂ -CA membrane	Hydrothermal and vacuum filtration method	-MB (20 mg L ⁻¹) and RhB (30 mg L ⁻¹) -visible light (500 W Xe lamp coupled with a UV-cutoff filter ($\lambda \geq 400$ nm))	[186]
CA-PEG-PU/ZnO	Casting material and solution dispersion blending method	-50 mL of RR 11 (or RO 84) solution (100 mg L ⁻¹) -Sunlight	[187]
Electrospun H ₄ SiW ₁₂ O ₄₀ /CA	Electrospinning	-100 mL of MO (or TC) solution (10 mg L ⁻¹), pH = 2 -UV irradiation (300 W high pressure mercury lamp)	[188]
RGO/PDA/g-C ₃ N ₄ /CA composite	Vacuum Filtration	-100 mL of MB solution (5 mg·L ⁻¹), 1 mL H ₂ O ₂ (wt% 30) -visible light irradiation (long-arc Xe lamp, 500 W)	[189]
CA-PU/ZnO	Casting material and solution dispersion blending method	-50 mL of RR 11 (or RO 84) (100 mg·L ⁻¹) -UV-light	[190]
CA supported Ag@AgCl	Double diffusion technique	-10 mL of MO solution (10 mg·L ⁻¹) -visible-light irradiation (500 W Xe arc lamp equipped with an ultraviolet cutoff filter ($\lambda > 420$ nm)).	[168]

4. Inorganic membranes

Some studies found polymeric membranes damaged by UV irradiation, hydroxyl radicals and the penetration of the hard inorganic semiconductors particles. Further, organic solvents, high temperatures acidic or caustic solutions affect applications these polymeric membranes and restrict their utilization [191].

Since the pioneering work of Anderson et al. [192], synergistic coupling of ceramic membrane filtration and UV-assisted photocatalytic degradation has been receiving much attention [193]. Recently, ceramic membranes preferred over the conventional polymeric membranes due to their excellent thermal, chemical and mechanical stability and biological inertia for wide pH range adaptability, long service life and good recoverability [194, 195]. The cost of ceramic membranes has been continuously reduced during the last years.

Ceramic membranes, which can be used in microfiltration and ultrafiltration, have superior chemical, thermal, and mechanical stability compared to polymeric membranes, and the pore size can be more easily controlled [196]. Sintering and the sol-gel process are the most common techniques to prepare ceramic microfiltration membranes. Sintering is limited to pore sizes around 0.1 μm , practically all UF membranes are prepared with the sol-gel technique. The base materials for the preparation of ceramic membranes are alumina (Al_2O_3), titania (TiO_2), silica (SiO_2), and zirconia (ZrO_2). Ceramic nanofiltration membranes can also be produced, but, to date, the pore size of most of these membranes is still relatively high.

4.1 TiO_2 -based membranes

Since the pioneering work on the fabrication of TiO_2 ceramic membrane by Anderson and co-workers [192] many research studies have been carried out to fabricate TiO_2 membranes by coating TiO_2 films on various supports [197]. Titania membranes have received significant attention in recent years due to their unique characteristics such as high water flux, semiconducting properties, photocatalysis, and chemical resistances over other membrane materials such as alumina, silica, and zirconia [198]. Currently, TiO_2 membranes have been mainly prepared via conventional tape casting processes. Chemical vapor deposition (CVD), sputtering, and sol-gel methods are also applicable for the fabrication of homogeneous TiO_2 membranes. Ma and Quan modified the sol-gel dip-coating method to enhance the performance of TiO_2 membrane via doping with Ag and Si and HAP coupling [199]. Furthermore, a visible light responsive TiO_2 membrane was fabricated via co-doping C, N and Ce through a weak alkaline sol-gel process by Cao and co-workers [200]. Most recently, Liu deposited Ag nanoparticles on TiO_2 nanofiber and subsequently formed a Ag/ TiO_2 flat membrane on glass fiber substrate for disinfection under solar light irradiation [201].

In these methods, however, strict processing conditions are commonly required for high crystallinity of the ceramic membranes, which is very cumbersome and time consuming, and are often not economically viable. In addition, the TiO₂-based membranes studied so far are in the form of finite sized tubes with diameters of at least several millimeters or flat discs and consequently have low surface area to volume ratios. These low area to volume ratios compares unfavorably with polymeric hollow fiber modules with high values; this limits the application of current inorganic tubular and disc membranes. This limitation is most evident in catalytic membrane reactors, where it is desirable to maximize the area of the membrane to increase the permeation rate to remove the product species from the reaction zone. Recently various morphologies of one-dimensional (1D) nanostructured TiO₂, including nanowires, nanofibers, nanorods and nanotubes, have been synthesized by chemical or physical methods (Figure 3) [173, 202, 203].

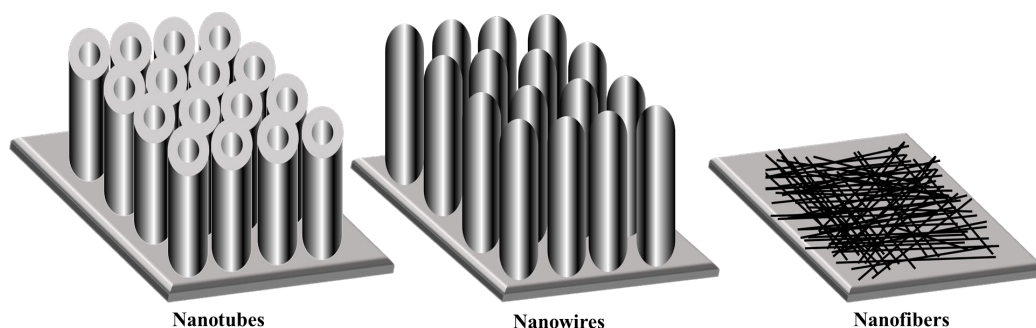


Figure 3. Various morphologies of one-dimensional (1D) nanostructured TiO₂.

Regarding the geometry of the membrane, hollow fibers have the highest surface area per volume ratio, which makes them very appealing because of the possibility of obtaining small membrane modules with large surface areas [203]. There are a few methods available for preparing inorganic hollow fibers, including dry spinning a system of inorganic material and binder, wet spinning a suitable inorganic material-containing solution, depositing fibers from the gas phase on to a substrate, or pyrolyzing the polymers [204, 205]. Recently, the well-known phase inversion method, commonly employed for spinning polymeric hollow fiber membranes, have been successfully adopted in preparing the inorganic aluminum oxide (Al₂O₃) hollow fibers [198, 206, 207]. Because of the phase inversion characteristics, the prepared inorganic hollow fibers possess an asymmetric structure, which provides a better permeability for a given thickness. Thus, they can be used not only in many separation processes, but also to be served as a porous support for composite membrane formation.

Typically, TiO₂ nanowires are obtainable by hydrothermal method, through treating TiO₂ powders within steel pressure vessels autoclave under controlled temperature and/or pressure in strong basic NaOH solution. It found during hydrothermal reaction, some of the Ti–O–Ti bonds were broken and Ti–O–Na and Ti–OH bonds were formed, which result in the formation of TiO₂ nanowires [208]. These nanowires exhibit superior photocatalytic efficiency relative to conventional bulk materials as a result of its larger surface area and presence of quantum size effect.

Imai, et al. [197] synthesized TiO₂ nanotube membrane, by deposition of anatase films on the inner walls of alumina porous membranes. After dissolving the alumina membrane using an aqueous solution of ammonia, the deposited titania films were obtained as nanotubes. The channel diameter of the tubes was controllable over the range 50–150 nm by changing the deposition time. In this method the morphology of the anatase nanotubes was highly controllable because no annealing for crystallization was required.

Albu et al. [209] reported formation of a nanotubular layer of TiO₂, a thickness of >100 μm, electrochemically by controlled anodization of a Ti foil in a fluoride-containing ethylene glycol. This leads to a dense array of aligned TiO₂ nanotubes, attached to the Ti substrate with a diameter of 160 ± 30 nm and a wall thickness of 20 ± 5 nm. The titanium foil was removed by selective dissolution in water-free CH₃OH/Br₂ solution, followed by exposure to hydrofluoric acid (HF) vapor for 30 min to open the bottom of the tube.

More recently, immense efforts are devoted to the study of organizing of nanowire/fiber/tube into 2D nanomaterials, including membrane and sheet. These 2D nanomaterials exhibit new properties while retaining the properties of 1D nanomaterials.

Many researchers have endeavored to introduce TiO₂ on/into high-surface-area substrate. Among them, TiO₂–SiO₂ composites have been widely used in industrial applications and most extensively studied [133]. SiO₂ is an excellent catalyst support because of its chemical inertia, thermal stability and adsorption of reactants. Particularly, the nanofibrous SiO₂ supports have both high surface-area-to-volume ratio and favorable recycling properties. Electrospinning in combination with sol–gel processes has been proved a simple and effective method to produce polymer/metal oxide composite nanofibers. In many cases, the metal oxide nanofibers can be obtained by subsequent pyrolysis. Ding et al. fabricated the flexible and amphiphobic SiO₂ nanofibrous mats via electrospinning the blend solutions of poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA) and SiO₂ gel, followed by calcination to remove the organic component [210]. Wang et al. prepared anatase mesoporous titanium nanofibers from calcination of the electrospun tetrabutyl titanate/poly(vinylpyrrolidone) (PVP)/pluronic123 (P123) composite nanofibers [211].

Table 8. Ceramic photocatalytic membranes for degradation of organic pollutants.

Photocatalyst name	Preparation method	Condition & light source	Ref.
TiO ₂ nanostructured hollow fiber membrane	Spinning-sintering technique	-20 mL of AO7 at a concentration of 20 mg L ⁻¹ -UV light (Four UV-A lamps (SYLVANIA Blacklite F8 W/BL350, emit at 330–370 nm))	[203]
TiO ₂ /Al ₂ O ₃ composite membranes	Dip coating	-8 mL of 30 μM MB solution, pH = 3 - UV radiation Two 15 W low pressure mercury UV tubes (Spectronics), at 365 nm ,light intensity of 3.48 mW/cm ²	[212]
ZnO quantum dots on hollow SiO ₂ nanofibers	Electrospinning and calcination	-UV (50 W high-pressure mercury lamp with main emission at 313 nm)) -100 mL of the RB solution 10 mg L ⁻¹	[213]
Mesoporous titania networks consisting of interconnected anatase nanowires	Templating by BC, Dip coating and calcination	-10 ⁻⁵ M RhB solution - 250 W high-pressure mercury lamp	[173]
TiO ₂ nanoparticles/Ag fibers	Electrophoretic deposition Method	- 5 mL of a 5 μM MB solution -UV (8 W low pressure mercury lamp, intensity 11 mW/cm ²)	[214]

Various strategies have been explored to improve the photocatalytic efficiency of TiO₂ NWs or nanotubes, such as tuning its crystallite size and structure [215, 216], doping with metal or nonmetal elements [217], sensitizing with other small bandgap semiconductor materials [218, 219], synthesizing branched structures [220], and postgrowth hydrogen annealing [221]. Doping materials with Sn or Sn⁴⁺ is an attractive approach [222], especially for TiO₂, as the small lattice mismatch between SnO₂ and TiO₂ leads to good structural compatibility and stability. Xu et al. [223], reported the one-pot hydrothermal with different ratios of SnCl₄ and tetrabutyl titanate, and a high acidity of the reactant solution synthesis and controlled Sn-doped TiO₂ nanowire arrays. The obtained Sn/TiO₂ NWs are single crystalline with a rutile structure. The application of ceramic photocatalytic membranes for degradation of various organic pollutants has been summarized in Table 8.

Abbreviations

Acid Orange (AO 7)	Polyacrylonitrile (PAN)
Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs)	Polyamide 6 (PA6)
Aliphatic polyamide (PA)	Polycarbonate (PC)
3-Aminopropyltrimethoxysilane (APTMS)	Polydopamine (PDA)
Ammonium persulfate (APS)	Polyetheretherketone (PEEK)
Aromatic polyamide (Aramids)	Polyether imide (PEI)
Atomic layer deposition (ALD)	Polyether sulfone (PES)
Bisphenol A (BPA)	Poly(ether urethane) (PEU)
Brilliant Green (BG)	Polyethylene (PE),
Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA)	polyethylene glycol(PEG)
Camphor-10-sulfonic acid (CSA)	Polyethylene oxide (PEO)
Carbon covered alumina (CCA)	Polyimide (PI)
Cellulose acetate (CA)	Poly(L-lactide) (PLLA)
Cellulose esters (CE)	Poly(piperazine amide) (P-PIP-A)
Cellulose triacetate (CTA)	Polypropylene (PP)
Chemical vapour deposition (CVD)	Polysulfone (PS)
4-Chlorophenol (4-CP)	Polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE)
2-Chloroethyl phenyl sulfide (CEPS)	Polyurethane (PU)
Cimetidine (CMT)	Poly(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF),
Ciprofloxacin (CIP)	Praseodymium (Pr)
Congo red (CR)	Reactive Black 5 (RB5)
Eosin Yellow (EY)	Reactive Orange 84 (RO 84)
Erbium (Er)	Reactive Red ED-2B (RR ED-2B)
Hydrophilic surface modifying macromolecules (LSMM)	Reactive Red 11 (RR 11)
Indigo Carmin (IC)	Reactive yellow 105 (RY-105)
Graphene oxide (GO)	Reverse osmosis (RO)
Malachite Green (MG)	Rhodamine B (RhB)
	Safranin-O (SO)

Materials from the Lavoisier Institute (MIL)	Silver cyanamide (Ag ₂ NCN)
Membrane distillation (MD)	Sulfamethoxazole (SMX)
Metal organic frameworks (MOFs)	Sulfonated polysulfone (S-PS)
Methacrylic acid (MAA)	Tetrabutyl titanate (TBT)
Methylene blue (MB)	Tetracycline (TC)
Methyl orange (MO)	tetraethoxysilane (TEOS)
Methyl violet 2B (MV)	Trifluoroethyl acrylate (TFA)
Microfiltration (MF)	Trifluoroethylene (TrFE)
Nanofiltration (NF)	Ultrafiltration (UF)
Oxygenated graphitic carbon nitride (OGCN)	Ultraviolet (UV)
Photocatalytic membrane reactor (PMR)	

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Chapter 2

Photocatalytic Heavy Metal Detoxification from Water Systems

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Abstract

Heavy metals are one of the greatest elevating threat to mankind and other living organisms and it is released into the environment due to increasing dumpsites, transports, and industrial sectors. The industrial wastewater containing heavy metal ions easily enters into the food chain through the air, water, and soil; it results in bioaccumulation and biomagnifications of metal ions in human beings. It causes severe chronic health disorders affecting the nervous system, circulatory system, digestive system and other sensitive organs of the human body. Many conventional techniques such as adsorption, coagulation, flocculation, electrochemical treatment, and biological treatment are used for the reduction of heavy metal ions in the aqueous system. The photocatalysis method is one of the emerging effective ways for eliminating the toxic metal ions from the aqueous solution. This chapter elaborates the principle, mechanism and various methods utilized in the photocatalytic reduction of heavy metal ions from the wastewater.

Keywords

Photocatalytic, Heavy Metal, Environment, Mechanism, Wastewater

Contents

Photocatalytic Heavy Metal Detoxification from Water Systems.....	57
1. Introduction.....	58
1.1 Sources of heavy metal pollution	60
1.2 Bio-importance of heavy metals.....	61

1.3	Deleterious Environmental and health effects.....	62
2.	Various heavy metal removal technologies	63
2.1	Advanced oxidation process	63
2.2	Photocatalysis	64
2.3	Principle & mechanism behind photocatalysis.....	66
3.	Photocatalysis for the heavy metal recovery	66
3.1	Chromium (Cr)	68
3.2	Arsenic (As).....	69
3.3	Cadmium (Cd).....	70
3.4	Copper (Cu ²⁺).....	71
3.5	Lead (Pb ²⁺).....	71
3.6	Mercury.....	72
	Conclusion & Future perspectives	72
	References	73

1. Introduction

Our universe is basically composed of three fundamental factors such as air, water, and soil in which the entire ecosystem depend upon for survival and growth. The term environment is characterized as the collection of various substantial conditions encompassing the biotic and abiotic factors present in the ecosystem [1]. Water is one of the fundamental requirement for the growth and development of all living beings. Life in the earth cannot be imagined without the presence of water and it always plays a crucial role in the sustenance of the living organisms. The ingress of various hazardous contaminants from the environment into the water bodies damages the quality of the drinking water by making it unfit for drinking and causes water deficiency. The water related problems have become a major concern in many developing countries and it causes various irreversible negative impacts on the environment. Some of the major contaminants released from the industries which affect the wellness of the environment are heavy metals, dyes, pesticides, oils and hydrocarbons, and these contaminants as a great threat to aquatic and terrestrial ecosystem [2]. Heavy metals are an indigenous component of the surface of the earth; furthermore, it is also released during the natural activities such as volcanic eruption and disintegration of rocks. They are a group of metals and metalloids that possess higher solidity multiple times than that of water [3]. The accelerated stride in the

proliferation of industrialization, urbanization, and land utilization sectors are the major reason contributing to the evolution of toxic metal pollution. The heavy metal pollution has become one of the greatest threats globally because of their hazardous consequences on the living beings and ecosystem [4]. Heavy metals generally refer to a group of metals and metalloids which possess atomic weight higher than 4 g/cm^3 which is probably five times or denser than the water. The heavy metals are lethal metallic components of higher atomic weight and density; it is also highly pernicious even in trace concentrations [1]. The heavy metals possess specific gravity more than 5.0 g/cm^3 and their atomic weight lies between the ranges of 63.5 – 200.6. The heavy metals are branched into three major types such as essential, valuable and pernicious metal ions. The noxious and pernicious metal ions are highly capable of causing serious damages to the wellness of the aquatic and terrestrial living organisms. Due to the increased utilization of heavy metal in various industrial and automobile sectors, their discharge into the environment got elevated. In addition, the complex non-degradable nature of the heavy metal retains it in the ecosystem leading to bioaccumulation of toxic metals in the food items [5]. Various anthropogenic activities such as industrial, domestic and commercial sources emit an enormous amount of toxic metal ions into the environment, furthermore, these contaminants endure strongly in the surrounding air, water and soil gradually invades the human body through the food cycle and gets bio-magnified. Some of the heavy metals which are predominantly used in various industrial applications are Copper, Arsenic, Silver, Mercury, Lead, Iron, Cadmium, Platinum, Zinc, Boron, Chromium, Antimony, Selenium and Cobalt [1,6]. In light of their prompt danger to human wellbeing and nature, WHO has declared four toxic metals such as Lead, Arsenic, Cadmium, and mercury in their list of top 10 hazardous chemical substances which are the greatest threat to mankind [3]. The heavy metals can be segregated into two types such as essential and toxic heavy metals. Some of the trace elements such as Zn, Fe, and Cu are required for the enhanced metabolism and growth of the human body; in addition, these essential heavy metals play a vital role in the enzymatic activities taking part in the human body. Certain other heavy metals such Arsenic, Lead, Cadmium, etc., fall under the category of hazardous metal ions which are not required for the function of the human body, in addition, these toxic metals are extremely destructive posing serious threats to the ecosystem [4]. The density and toxicity of a compound are directly proportional to each other, the compounds with higher density possess acute toxicity even at trace concentrations. In the current era, the health complications caused because of these heavy metals are elevated, on the other hand, the utilization of the heavy metals have also been increased in various applications such as agriculture, industries, municipal and household sectors [7]. In order to reduce the catastrophic aftereffect of the heavy metals, Government has enunciated several rules and regulations for the industries and domestic sectors for the proper disposal of heavy metals. Government authorities have made

stringent laws for the treatment of industrial effluent before discharging it into the environment, furthermore has also derived strict permissible limits for the heavy metals to be present in drinking water, industrial effluents and all other drainage systems [2]. The application of phosphate fertilizers in agricultural land emits an enormous concentration of cadmium heavy metal which is one of the most hazardous compounds in damaging the lives [6]. The conventional treatment techniques such as Adsorption, Coagulation, Flocculation, Chemical precipitation, Biological treatment, Ion exchange, Flotation, Advanced oxidation process and Photo catalysis have been used for the treatment of heavy metal [2, 8]. Among, all the techniques the Photocatalysis is seemed to be an efficient technique in the elimination of heavy metal ions, in addition, this technique seemed to possess the capability to overcome all the limitations occurring in conventional methods such as higher cost, lesser performance and secondary waste production. The Photo catalysis technique basically utilizes the solar energy as a main source and it is used in various appliances such as dye degradation, production of hydrogen, reduction of carbon dioxide and generation of heavy metal ions of high valence [9]. This chapter explains the impact of heavy metal ions on the environment and it also demonstrates the effective detoxification of heavy metals present in the aqueous system using the photocatalysis technique.

1.1 Sources of heavy metal pollution

Heavy metal is an integral component of earth's crust and it is naturally present in rocks, sediments, water, soil, microorganism, etc. The heavy metal ores remain in the sediments and rocks in various chemical forms such as sulfides, oxides, or both sulfide and oxide ores [1]. According to the reports stated by UNEP 2004, the persistent nature of the heavy metals leads to the bioaccumulation and biomagnifications of toxic metal ions inside the human body. The natural and anthropogenic sources are the two main reasons contributing to the discharge of toxic metals into the environment and the various sources of heavy metal pollution is depicted in the fig 1. More commonly, heavy metals are present in natural sources such as rocks, soils, and sediments. Furthermore, the human activities such as mining, smelting, and weathering release an enormous amount of toxic heavy metal ion into the atmosphere and the drain released from these processes consist of toxic chemicals, heavy metals and acids [6].

The effluent released from some industries such as textile, leather, electroplating, distilleries, and chemical is composed of elevated levels of toxic metals like Mn, Cu, Pb, Fe, Cr and Ni which can cause dreadful health disorders to mankind. The sources of heavy metals are classified into two types such as point sources and non-point sources. The combustion, agricultural dissipation, soil abrasion, fertilizers usage, and merchandise

repository are some of the non-point sources of the heavy metals. On the other hand, the industries indulging in transport, leather, mining, textiles, chemicals, electroplating, thermal power, smelting, and e-waste are some of the major sources of a point source of heavy metal pollution. The heavy metal particles gushed from its sources gets compiled in the soil surfaces, further, the deposited heavy metals get acquired in the root through soil and consumption of this heavy metal accumulated plant by plants and humans result in bioaccumulation and biomagnifications [4]. The feasibility of the heavy metal is based on the certain physical, chemical and biological parameters such as adsorption, detachment, temperature, solubility, interaction and type of phase in which it is clubbed to [7].

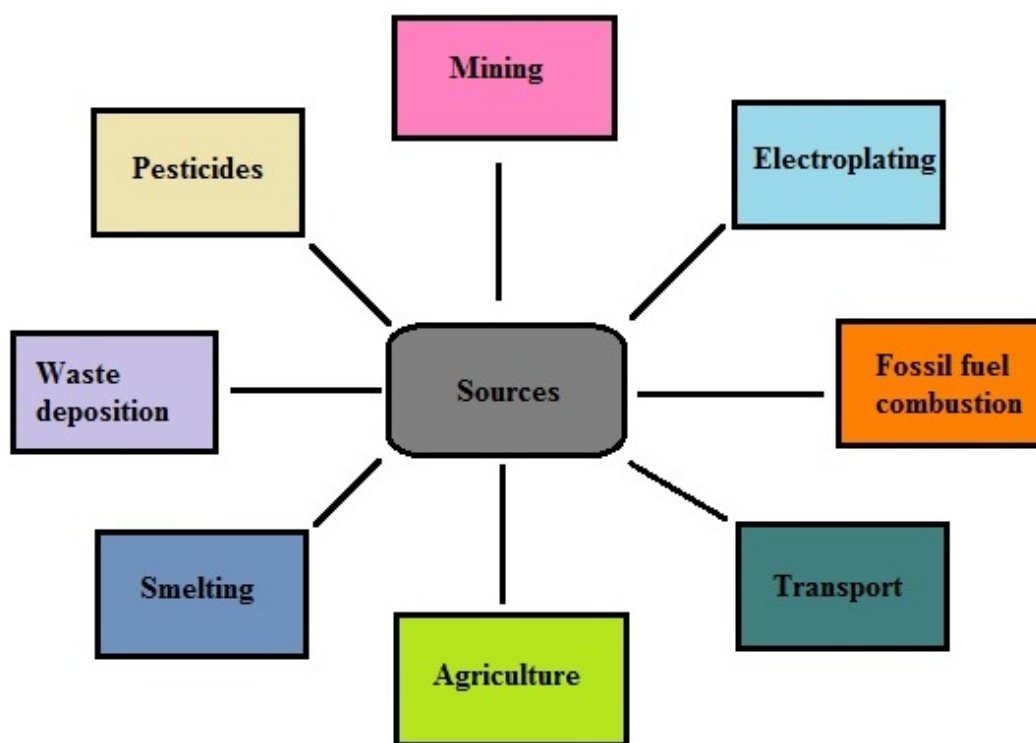


Figure 1: Various sources of heavy metal pollution.

1.2 Bio-importance of heavy metals

Heavy metals occupy an important position in industries for the production of various goods used by humans in their everyday life [1]. The heavy metals act as micronutrients and it also plays a vital role in stabilizing the redox process, regulating the osmotic pressure and enhancement of enzymatic reactions [6]. They occupy an important place in enhancing various physiological and biochemical reactions [7]. The heavy metals such as Lead,

Mercury, and Aluminium are used in the manufacturing process of products such as lamps, utensils and medical equipment [1]. Arsenic at a limited concentration serves as one of the good trace elements with good nutrition. Magnesium plays an important role in the circulatory system as an electrolytic substance and it is highly required by pregnant ladies and feeding mothers. Zinc supports in maintaining the copper concentration in the human body, in addition, it is highly required in increasing the reproductive activity in the males and enhancing the enzymatic activity [1].

1.3 Deleterious Environmental and health effects

European Commission has declared that the chemical substances which are highly noxious, obdurate and acquired in the living cells. Generally, several organic contaminants breakdown into the two major end products such as water and Carbon dioxide but the heavy metals are non-degradable and possess highly enduring properties [6]. Basically, the heavy metals are highly toxic and life-damaging components present in the environment [1]. The heavy metals such as zinc, copper, and iron remain as an indispensable ingredient in enhancing the metabolic activity of the human body [4]. The pernicious nature of heavy metals affects the living beings vigorously when utilized above the required levels, further; it causes dreadful diseases which can affect the intestines, circulatory system, respiratory system and other sensitive organs [1]. The emission of heavy metal into nearby aquatic sources through the industrial effluent results in damaging the maritime creatures by inducing oxygen deficiency and eutrophication in the water resources. In addition, the dissipated heavy metals are reformed into hydrated ions which are exceedingly deadly to the organisms surviving in the water [2]. The uptake of metal ions into the cells spoils the DNA by denaturing the DNA and nuclear proteins, further it induces structural changes and collapse the DNA leading to apoptosis, uncontrolled cell growth and cell cycle modification [7]. The region near the coal mining sites is the predominant sites which are highly affected by the heavy metals. The heavy metals emitted from the mines seeps into the underground and reach the water table resulting in the water pollution [1]. The ionic mode of toxic metals such as Silver, Cadmium, Arsenic and Lead easily interacts with the human body easily and also it is very difficult to separate it from the biomolecules. Further, this heavy metals enter the food chain of a living organism and gets bio magnified [2]. The consumption of heavy metal accumulated green leafy vegetables results in health disorders such as mental retardation, stomach cancer, nutritional deficiency, immunological disorder and depletion of bones [4]. The consumption of lethal heavy metals through food, air and water damages the cell development by production of free radicals which induce oxidative stress to the cells [2]. The heavy metals on adsorption into the cell structure of the living beings affect the internal components such as mitochondria, endoplasmic reticulum,

nucleus, cell membrane, etc. It also damages the enzymatic activity which is indulged in dealing with cell repair, metabolism, and detox activity [7].

2. Various heavy metal removal technologies

In order to eliminate these toxic metals from our ecosystem, several treatment methodologies have been adopted by industries and domestic sectors. Basically, the effluent treatment process is divided into three categories such as physical, chemical and biological treatment. Several conventional technologies such as Adsorption, Precipitation, Electrodialysis, Filtration, Extraction, Ion exchange, Membrane reactors, Electrowinning, Floatation and Advanced oxidation process have been followed in treating the heavy metal contaminated industrial effluents. Several legislations and laws have been enunciated to restrict the emission of heavy metals into the society, but the effluent treatment is not effectively implemented in several industries due to some limitations such as higher utilization of water, huge energy expenditure and persistence of the pollutants [2, 4]. In recent times, the photocatalysis is known to be a developing technique for the sequestration of heavy metal ions. It utilizes a very abundant renewable energy source (i.e.) solar energy and it is used to activate the catalyst for the production of electron-hole pairs which helps in the sequestration of toxic metal ions [10]. The secondary waste emission is a major drawback found in many conventional technologies used in the wastewater treatment sector. Further, to combat this drawback and also to provide an environmentally hygienic technology for the elimination of toxic pollutants the photocatalysis technique is highly preferred among the researchers. Highly non-degradable contaminants such as petroleum and chlorinated hydrocarbons are tedious to degrade in conventional treatment technologies, whereas in the photocatalysis it is efficiently degraded into simpler compounds such as CO₂ and H₂O using the TiO₂/UV catalyst.

2.1 Advanced oxidation process

Advanced oxidation process (AOP) is an emerging eco-friendly technique used in various industrial and research sectors widely. This AOP can be effectively used for the treatment of all kinds of contaminants such as pesticides, insecticides, dyes, heavy metals, aromatic hydrocarbons, chlorinated hydrocarbons, air contaminants and other complicated organic compounds [12]. In order to reduce the hazardous effects of toxic metals, the Advanced Oxidation Process (AOP) was introduced into the effluent treatment to eliminate the heavy metal ions from the environment. In this process, the hydroxyl radicals are originated through which the harmful pollutants are sequestered or reduce into lower reactive compounds [10]. The hydroxyl ions produced formed from the excitation of the electron is the most essential compound required the photocatalysis operation. The hydroxyl ions

(OH⁻) possess a shortened life span, further; they actively participate in effective degradation of organic and chemical compounds into simpler compounds such as CO₂ and H₂O. The photocatalysis is one such advanced oxidation process used widely by majorly utilizing sunlight as the main source for pollutant degradation [12].

2.2 Photocatalysis

The term photocatalysis is derived from the amalgamation of two words such as “Photo” and “catalysis” where photo means light and catalysis meaning chemical reaction. Catalysis is the phenomenon where a compound helps in speeding up the rate of a chemical reaction without getting modified or expended in the reaction. Photocatalysis is a process which utilizes light to actuate a substance which modifies the reaction rate of a chemical reaction without being included itself. Also, the photocatalyst is the substance which can adjust the rate of synthetic response utilizing light illumination. In general, the Chlorophyll pigment present in plants is an ordinary photocatalyst. The distinction between chlorophyll photocatalyst to man-made nano TiO₂ photocatalyst, typically chlorophyll catches daylight to transform water and carbon dioxide into oxygen and glucose, on the other hand, photocatalyst utilizes strong oxidizing chemicals and electron-hole pairs to breakdown the organic compounds into carbon dioxide and water within the sight of photocatalyst, light, and water [11]. Photocatalysis is one of the outstanding technology which works by utilizing solar energy. It is seemed to be an assuring technique in the reduction of heavy metal ions, dye degradation, CO₂ debasement, and energy exchange operations [9].

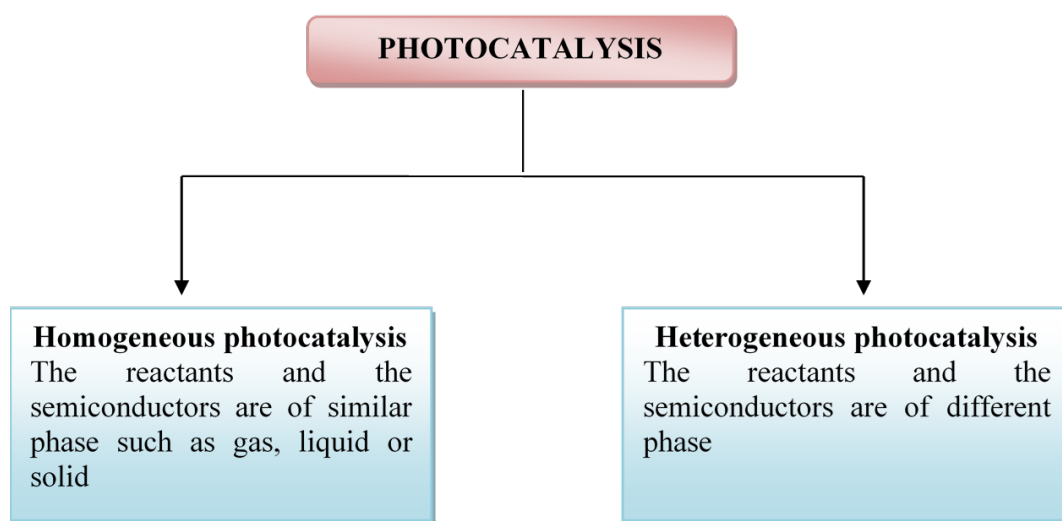


Figure 2: Types of photocatalysis.

Several semiconductor compounds such as carbon nitride, metal sulfides, metal oxides are used conventionally as active photocatalytic materials [9]. There are various photocatalysts such as GaP, ZnO, ZnS, TiO₂, WO₃, CdS, etc. which are used as photodegraders and reduction of harmful pollutants in the wastewater treatment system. [10]. Over a period of time, many new catalysts such as ligands, organic metal, and inorganic metal frameworks have been formulated for the efficient photocatalysis operation under the UV light radiation [9]. Generally, the photocatalyst is semiconducting materials which generate the electron-hole pairs for breaking down the complicated organic compound into CO₂ and H₂O in the presence of UV or Visible irradiation. Based on the physical state of the compounds, the photocatalysis process is majorly divided into two main types as explained in the figure 2.

By virtue of its semiconductor structure, the TiO₂ is preferred as one of the predominantly used photocatalysts in the wastewater treatment sector. In addition, this TiO₂ catalyst comprises an empty conduction band and electron-filled valence band with a band gap energy of about 2-3.5 eV. The hydroxyl radical synthesized during the photocatalytic reaction is a strong oxidizing agent which is effectively utilized in the remediation of harmful environmental pollutants such as phenols, pesticides, heavy metals, dyes, etc., [13]. The photocatalysis is mainly used for purposes such as air purification, industrial effluent treatment, self-purification, energy conservation and antifouling applications [12]. The application of photocatalysis method is explained in the fig 3.

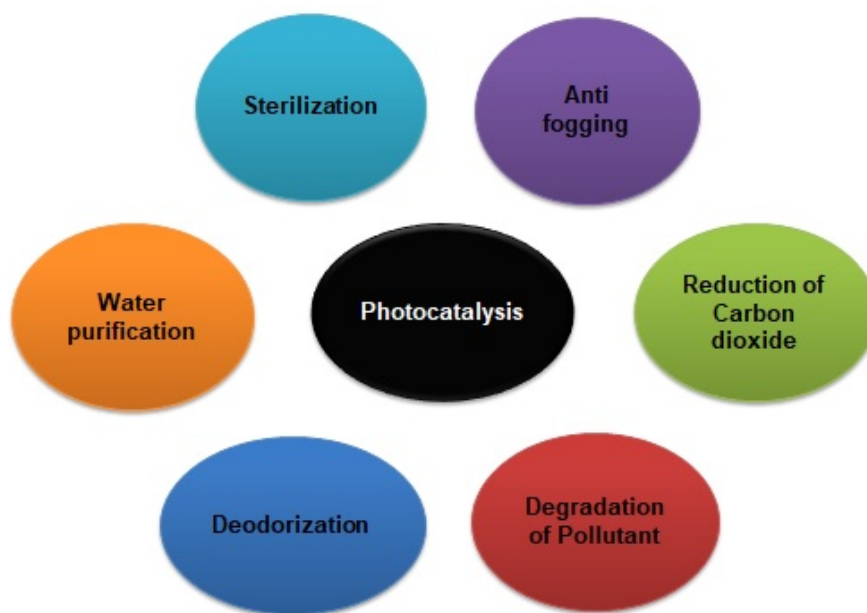


Figure 3: Various applications of photocatalysis.

2.3 Principle & mechanism behind photocatalysis

The fundamentals of photocatalysis are based on the combination of two major subjects such as photochemistry and catalysis. It requires both the light source and a semiconductor source to originate the chemical operation. Generally, the photons are derived from two light sources such as UV light and visible light sources based upon the type of catalyst utilized in the photocatalysis operation. The semiconductor materials are represented by two bands such as valence band and conduction band. The photon from the light source stimulates the Valence band electron resulting in the transfer of the excited electron from the valence band to the conduction band creating a positive charge in the valence band called hole [10]. The photocatalysis reaction follows a mechanism which involves four steps such as:

- The photons from the light energy are used to provoke the electron-hole pairs
- Segregation of the stimulated charges
- The transition of electrons and holes to the photocatalyst surface to generate heat energy
- The uptake of charges on the photocatalyst surface for redox reactions

Under the influence of the photons emitted from the visible light, the electron present in the valence bands gets stimulated to the conduction band. The stimulation of electron results in the formation of electron-hole pairs which is formed on the surface of the photocatalyst. The formed electron-hole pairs can further work in two capabilities. That is: The formed carrier charges may rejoin and produce energy in the form of heat or they may encounter other electron donor or acceptor and form hydroxyl free radicals for photooxidation reaction [12]. The photocatalysis reaction can end in two ways such as photo-oxidation or photoreduction reaction based on the presence of the electron and hole. The photo oxidation reaction takes place in the presence of electron scavengers, whereas the photo reduction reaction takes place in the presence of the hole scavengers [13].

3. Photocatalysis for the heavy metal recovery

Heavy metal sequestration using photocatalysis process is generally associated with the reduction of heavy metal into simpler form at a lower oxidation state. The main special case is arsenic, which exists in the anionic structure and needs oxidation to be changed over to a high oxidation state. From the beginning, Several AOPs such as TiO₂/UV, O₃/UV, H₂O₂/UV, O₃/H₂O₂/UV are used in the heavy metal sequestration. In recent times, among the various AOPs used generally the Heterogeneous photocatalytic oxidation and reduction technique is preferred at a higher rate [10]. When the photons from the light source are

incident on the semiconductor material present in the photocatalytic reactor, the electron-hole pairs are produced on the conduction band and valence band of the semiconductor. The transfer between the electron-hole pairs from the conduction band to valence band produced oxidizing species which aids in the reduction of heavy metals. Several semiconductors such as ZnO, CdS, ZnS, CeO₂, TiO₂, etc. have been used conventionally for the effective reduction of heavy metals. Out of the various semiconductors used in photocatalyst used in recent times for pollutant removal, the TiO₂ was found to be the most extensively used semiconductor because of some of its properties such as feasibility, durability, non-poisonous nature, and water immiscibility. The photocatalyst is also seemed to be efficient in degrading the endocrine disruptors in the wastewater [14, 15]. The mechanism behind the photocatalysis process is depicted in the figure 4. Some of the characteristics which make the photocatalysis efficient than other techniques are as follows:

- The photocatalysis process does not involve extravagant chemicals for the operation
- This set up works under atmospheric temperature and pressure conditions
- Photocatalysis undergo reduction reaction same as that of the AOPs
- It is an economical method
- It is an enduring, nontoxic and eco-friendly technique

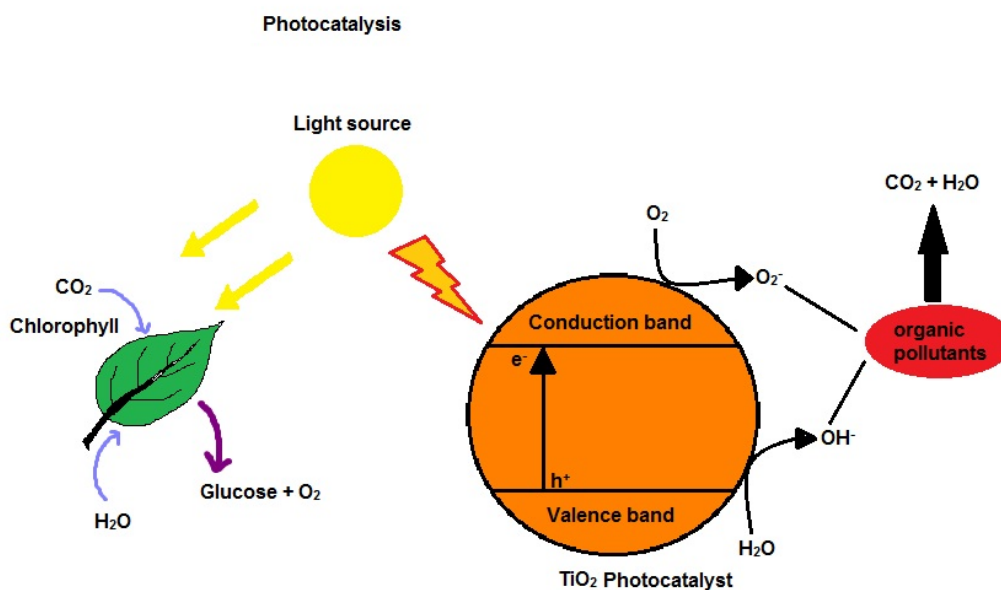


Figure 4: Mechanism behind the photocatalysis process.

Heterogeneous photocatalysts are claimed to be the easy, efficient and economically feasible method for reduction of chromium [16]. Habila et al. have investigated the degradation studies of heavy metal ions composed organic mixture using the core double shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ magnetic nanoparticle coated semiconductor photocatalyst. In this work, the TiO_2 catalyst is coated with the magnetic iron oxide nanoparticle which is eco-friendly and easy to synthesize. As the combination of Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles and TiO_2 catalyst lessens the efficacy of the photocatalysis reaction, the SiO_2 is sandwiched between the catalyst and the nanoparticles. The SiO_2 layer enhanced the efficiency of the photocatalyst effectively; also it helped in increasing the mechanical and thermal stability of the semiconductor, thus the core double shell material utilizing photocatalysts degraded the heavy metal ions with high efficiency [17]. Many conventional methods used in the effluent treatment primitively do not completely degrade the harmful contaminants, whereas the photocatalysis effectively removed several organic and inorganic contaminants found in the environment. The ZnO semiconductor material is considered to be other effective photocatalytic material for the elimination of heavy metal ions. In addition, the ZnO is a low cost and higher surface area possessing material for the enhanced degradation of heavy metal ions [18]. The heterogeneous photocatalysis process is applied for various purposes such as dehydrogenation, oxidation, transfer of hydrogen ion, air pollutants elimination, heavy metal deposition, water purification, and sterilization. Furthermore, this method can also be performed for both the liquid phase and gaseous phase [19]. Various heavy metal ions eliminated using the photocatalysis methods are explained below in a detailed manner.

3.1 Chromium (Cr)

Chromium is normally present in various food items such as organic products, vegetables, grains, and meats. Furthermore, It goes into the human body mostly through the nourishment chain. Chromium is one of the vital heavy metal used in various industrial and research sectors as a textile, tannery, electroplating, metallurgy and wood preservatives. Basically, the chromium occurs in two various forms such as Cr(III) and Cr(VI) , whereas the Cr(VI) is found to be the more noxious form of chromium damaging the living organisms and ecosystem. In drinking water, the dimension of chromium is commonly low, however, industrial wastewater can contain the unsafe chromium (IV) ions. Due to its solubility, motility, and toxicity, the chromium heavy metal ions were considered to be one of the biggest danger to the ecosystem globally. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), the permissible limit of Cr(VI) was determined to be 0.05 mg L^{-1} . When comparing with the Cr(VI) ions the Cr(III) was found to be the less toxic and less motile form of chromium. Several photocatalyst semiconductor materials such as TiO_2 , ZnO , WO_3 , ZnS , CdS and SnIn_4S_8 are used in the effective reduction of chromium ions

present in the industrial effluents [10, 20]. Primitively, the Cr(VI) ions are reduced to Cr(III) ions using some of the chemical compounds such as ferrous sulphate, sodium metabisulfite, sodium thiosulfate, sulphur dioxide [18]. The Neodymium doped TiO₂ semiconductor which is fabricated using the sol-gel method is utilized in the reduction reaction of Cr (VI) ions under the incidence of UV light in the work done by Rengaraj et al. The results concluded that the doping of Neodymium on the TiO₂ surface progressively augment the reduction of Cr(VI) ions into the Cr(III) ions [21]. The bismuth carbonate doped with iron oxide (II) is fabricated and utilized effectively for the reduction of most toxic Cr (VI) metal ions to less toxic Cr(II) ions [22]. Hou et al have investigated the elimination of chromium ions from the aqueous solution using photocatalysis and capacitive deionization. In this study the MIL-53 (Fe) semiconductor under the illumination of visible light is used for the reduction of Cr(VI) to Cr(III) ions. The results concluded that the higher concentration of Cr(VI) ions of about 72.2% is eliminated effectively using the photocatalysis technique and it revealed that it is the best effective method for the treatment of chromium contaminated wastewater [9].

3.2 Arsenic (As)

Arsenic is one of the harmful rare earth elements released from manmade sources such as mining, wood preservatives, and biocides, however, it also chiefly originates from some natural sources such as volcano and disintegration of minerals in land and water sources. Arsenic is one of the heavy metal which is highly abundant in the earth's crust, further; it exists in two forms such as trivalent arsenite and pentavalent arsenate. The consumption of Arsenic elements in human beings leads to severe disorders such as arsenicosis, palmoplantar keratosis, cancer, and pigmentation variation. The WHO has established the permissible limits of Arsenic as 10 µg L⁻¹ b. The As(III) is highly toxic form because it easily attaches to the proteins causing cell disruptions[10, 20]. The highly toxic Arsenite As(III) is oxidized to less toxic As(V) form of ion utilizing the photocatalytic oxidation method in the work performed by Dutta et al. In this work, the OH radical which is produced by the benzoic acid is used as the main oxidant for the conversion of As(III) and As(V) ions, the photocatalysis of Arsenic using OH radical is compared with and without TiO₂ semiconductor under the UV light. The results concluded that the Arsenic is effectively reduced into less toxic forms using the OH radicals, further, using this method the permissible limits of Arsenic which is formulated by WHO can be maintained effectively in the industries [23]. Majumder and Chaudhari have examined the potential of solar photocatalytic oxidation of Arsenic from ground water using the Tartarate and Citrate photocatalysts. The results revealed that Arsenic oxidation using this catalyst has effectively reduced the Arsenic concentration from 250-260 µg/L to below 50 µg/L and the As removal efficiency of about 80% is observed in this study [24]. In the work carried

out by Reyna et al the elimination of Arsenic species using the ZnO catalysts under the UV irradiation is investigated. The ZnO catalyst prepared by the sol-gel method is compared with the conventional TiO₂ Degussa P25 suspension. The results revealed that higher removal efficiency is determined in the ZnO catalyst when compared with TiO₂ catalysts [25].

3.3 Cadmium (Cd)

Cadmium is one of the remarkable toxic heavy metal ion released from the domestic and industrial sectors and it is also considered as a growing threat to human beings and other living organisms. Around, 0.1 mg/kg of cadmium ions are present in the layer of the earth's crust, and nearly 15 mg of Cd/kg is deposited in the earth's environment as rocks and sediments. These metal ions are mostly emitted into the environment through industrial sectors such as textile industries, battery industries, and metallurgical industry. In the United States, for instance, the day-by-day cadmium admission is about 0.4 mg/kg/day, not exactly 50% of the US EPA's oral reference portion. These lower permissible limits are set to decrease the toxic level of cadmium waste generated from plating industry, all the more as of late, to the presentation of general confinements on cadmium utilization in specific nations [7]. Visa and Duta have investigated about the elimination of heavy metals such as Cd²⁺ and Cu²⁺ using the TiO₂ catalyst which is obtained by the hydrothermal processing of TiO₂ Degussa powder and Fly ash powder. The results concluded that this novel substrate effectively degrades the heavy metal ions present in the solution mixture [26]. Le et al have investigated the elimination of cadmium ions using ZnO particles which was fabricated using the solid precipitation technique. The results revealed that only less than 15% of cadmium ions are removed (19). The TiO₂ catalyst is seemed to be an effective photocatalyst for the elimination of cadmium ions and the removal efficiency was about 99.8 was observed in the study conducted by Fatehizadeh et al. The reactor utilized in this study is made of three parts such as ultraviolet source, reaction cell and mixing unit, Further, the removal efficiency of cadmium is affected by parameters such as pH, dose and dispersion of air [27]. The Activated sewage sludge-derived activated carbon coupled with TiO₂ nanomaterial is also used as photocatalytic material for cadmium removal in the research work performed by Rashed et al. The results declared that the cadmium metal ions are removed with an efficiency of about 90% and the activated sludge activated carbon TiO₂ enhanced the cadmium removal in the bi-pollutant solution [28]. Davis and Green have examined the photocatalytic oxidation potential of the Cadmium-EDTA complex using the TiO₂ semiconductor. The results of this study declared that the effective removal of Cadmium using TiO₂ was observed on the optimum concentration of about 2×10^{-5} to 10^{-3} M at a pH range of about 3 to 8, Further, the cadmium ions are released as Cd²⁺ after the mineralization process [29].

3.4 Copper (Cu²⁺)

Copper is obtained from the mineral ores of Chalcopyrite, CuFeS₂. Further, it is also obtained as a major contaminant from the mining, hydrometallurgical, pyrometallurgical industry as effluents and fumes. The copper poisoning causes health disorders such as paralysis, nausea, depression, pneumonia, diarrhea, etc. [1]. Copper is utilized as an important cofactor of various enzymes such as peroxidase, catalase, monoamine oxidase, ferroxidases, etc. which deals with the oxidative stress reactions. In addition, it plays a vital role in the metabolism of carbohydrate, haemoglobin production and collagen crosslinking reactions [7]. Chaudary et al. investigated the elimination of copper metal ions using the TiO₂ or H₂O₂ catalyst. The results declared that the copper ions are recovered efficiently at a pH range of about 1.5 – 4.5, in addition, the removal efficiency can be enhanced by coupling the TiO₂ nanomaterial with the activated carbon concentrated cell system [30]. The higher removal efficiency of about 85% of copper metal ions is observed in the photocatalytic degradation of copper ions using the ZnO nanoparticles semiconductors [19]. In the work carried out by Habila et al., the copper metal ions are effectively recovered using Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@TiO₂ with a higher adsorption capacity of about 125 mg g⁻¹. Further, the higher removal efficiency was observed at pH 5 [17]. In the research work carried out by Kanakaraju et al., the copper metal ion is recovered using the aggregation of the TiO₂/ZnO semiconductor with the calcium alginate beads. The results showed that the copper metal recovery with 50:50 ratio of calcium alginate beads and TiO₂/ZnO photocatalysis showed higher removal efficiency even in three consecutive cycles and it also served as an environmentally friendly method for metal recovery [31]. The chelated copper ion complexes such as copper EDTA and copper cyanide complexes are reduced using the photo anodes which are made up of TiO₂ nanotubes [32].

3.5 Lead (Pb²⁺)

Lead is a bluish grey metal which is found naturally in the layer of the earth's crust. The industrial activities and anthropogenic sources are the main sources of lead pollution. Some of the anthropogenic activities such as combustion of fossil fuels, agriculture, and domestic sources contribute to the emission of lead into the environment. The mining and transportation play a vital role in increasing the level of the lead metal ion. Some of the industries such as battery industry, metal plating industry, paint industry, textile industries, glass industries, chemical industries, and instrument manufacturing industries utilize lead as an important raw material [7]. Sreekanthan et al. investigated the photocatalysis reduction of lead ions using Cu-TiO₂ nanotubes. In this work, the TiO₂ nanotubes are coated with the Cu²⁺ ions through the wet impregnation method. The results concluded that the combination of Cu²⁺ ions with the TiO₂ catalyst effectively increased the photocatalytic

reduction of Pb(II) ions, the higher removal efficiency was observed in an optimum ion concentration of about 20 and 60 ppm at alkaline condition under the incidence of UV light [33]. The Titania based binary oxide materials are utilized in the photocatalytic reduction of the lead ions in the research work performed by Mishra et al. The Titania sample is combined with the zirconia and silica at equal Ration to enhance the mechanical strength and removal efficiency of the heavy metal ions effectively. Sodium formate is used as the hole scavenger in this method, furthermore, it resulted in heavy metal removal of about 89% in a time period of 60 min [34]. The photocatalytic reduction of Pb(II) using TiO₂ and Pt-TiO₂ powders is investigated by Marunni et al. The investigation results inferred that the metal removal efficacy was observed higher using Pt-TiO₂ when compared using the TiO₂ material [35].

3.6 Mercury

Mercury is one of the notable toxic elements which is rated as the top third element in the ASTRD's Priority list of Hazardous Substances. It causes serious health disorders to humans and living beings. The mercury heavy metal ions is a substantial metal which comes under the transition element series of the periodic table and it occurs in three different forms such as organic, inorganic and elemental form. The toxicity of the mercury ions depends on the chemical form in which it exists. In the optimum room temperature, the natural mercury exists as a fluid which has a high vapor pressure. In addition, Mercury exists as a cation with oxidation conditions of +1 (mercurous) or +2 (mercuric). Mercury is a far-reaching ecological toxicant and contamination which instigates extreme adjustments in the body tissues and causes a wide scope of antagonistic wellbeing impacts. Various chemical forms of mercury which is vigorously affecting the humans and other living beings are mercury vapor (Hg⁰), inorganic mercurous (Hg⁺), mercuric (Hg²⁺), and the natural mercury mixes. The industrial activities such as hardware, battery manufacturing, dentistry, beverage industry, nuclear reactors, and the pharmaceutical industry contribute greatly to the mercury contamination [7].

Conclusion & Future perspectives

The reduction of heavy metals present in wastewater using the photocatalysis technique is broadly explained in this chapter. This technique seems to be outstanding method in reducing the negative impacts exerted by the toxic metal ions on the environment. The photocatalysis method has overcome several limitation and drawbacks that are found in the advanced oxidation process of heavy metal reduction. The AOPs are capable only of converting the toxic heavy metal ions into oxidative species, whereas the photocatalysis can perform oxidation and also reduction reaction to convert the toxic metal ions. In the

photocatalysis process the complexed heavy metal ions into less toxic heavy metal species which do not affect the wellness of the environment. Some of the factors such as pH, initial metal ion concentration, type of the semiconductor, the intensity of light, the mass of photocatalyst have a strong impact on the photocatalysis reduction of toxic metal ions. Photocatalyst advancement would assist us in utilizing the bottomless sun based radiation. Due to its effectiveness in wastewater treatment, much advancement has been made in the photocatalysis such as submersion type and distribution type for heavy metal treatment in industries. This chapter declares that the photocatalysis process is an effective method for treating heavy metal ions in the aqueous solution.

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Chapter 3

Carbon Nanotubes based Nanocomposites as Photocatalysts in Water Treatment

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Abstract

The shortage of worldwide clean water and the increasing water demand are now ubiquitous problems around the world. Thus, efficient water treatment is an important research topic, of which photocatalysis is known as simplest and efficient technique utilized in the photocatalytic degradation of all major water pollutants, including heavy metal ion, organic and inorganic pollutants. In this context, the use of one-dimensional carbon nanotubes-based nanocomposites in water treatment have been widely demonstrated to be capable of removing persistent organic compounds due to their unique physical and electronic properties, large surface area, tunable morphology, biocompatible and chemical-environmental-thermal stability. This chapter begins with the discussion of the importance and properties of carbon nanotubes, and then briefs about the types and methods of preparation of carbon nanotubes-based nanocomposites in detail. The next section emphasizes the fundamentals of photocatalysis phenomenon and its proposed mechanism for the photocatalytic degradation of pollutants. The last section highlights the recent development in the carbon-based nanocomposites as photocatalyst in water treatment systems, supported by comprehensive literature account. Finally, the remaining challenges and perspectives for using carbon nanotubes-based nanocomposites are discussed.

Keywords

Carbon Nanotubes, Nanocomposites, Photocatalyst, Water Treatment

Contents

Carbon Nanotubes based Nanocomposites as Photocatalysts in Water Treatment.....	77
1. Introduction.....	78
2. Properties of carbon nanotubes.....	80
3. Synthesis Methods of CNTs-based Nanocomposites.....	84
3.1 Simple mixing.....	85
3.2 Chemical vapor deposition (CVD).....	86
3.3 Electrodeposition	87
3.4 Hydrothermal.....	87
3.5 Sol-gel.....	88
4. Fundamental principles of photocatalysis.....	95
5. Applications of CNTs-based nanocomposites in water treatment....	100
Conclusion and future directions	102
References	103

1. Introduction

Water covers more than 70% of the Earth's surface and is the major constituent for all living organisms' well-being and sustenance. Today, an inadequate access to clean water and increasing levels of water pollution are among the most concerning global issues around the world [1]. The water pollution in our environment was aggravated by the rapid population growth and intense urbanization which degrading the water quality of lakes, rivers and coastal shorelines [2-4]. The unsafe water is jeopardizing our health and causes about 2 million deaths a year, either through dehydration or acute toxicity [5, 6]. As reported by United Nations, it is estimated that by 2025, two-thirds of the world population would be under water stress conditions and more than 2.8 billion people in 48 countries will be facing absolute water scarcity, and by 2050, 4 billion people in 54 countries will be suffering from water-insufficient conditions [7] as shown in Figure 1.

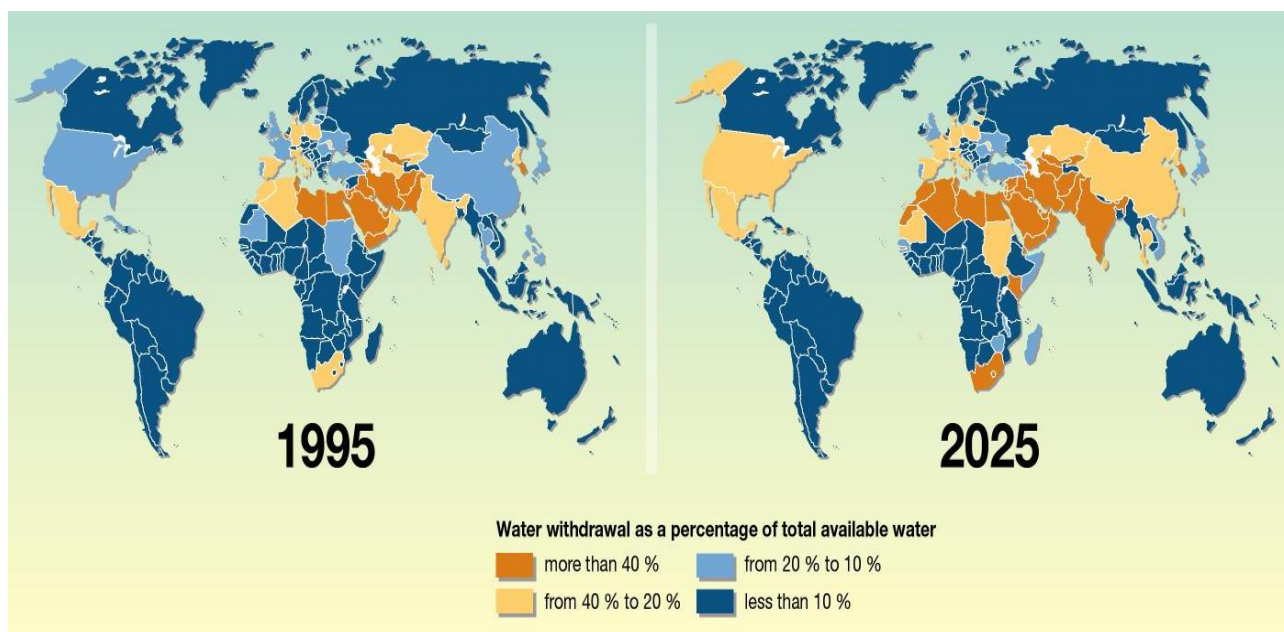


Figure 1: Freshwater stress map displayed percentage ranges of water withdrawal with respect to the total available water. Reprinted (adapted) from <http://www.grida.no/resources/5625> with permission of the GRID-Arendal.

Meanwhile, the water shortage is exacerbated by water pollution. There are various water pollutants, namely heavy metals, organic and inorganic contaminants to emerging endocrine disrupting pollutants that can provoke carcinogenic and even mutagenic effects in aquatic organisms and humans [8-11]. Based on the United Nation- Water statistic report, 70% of the industrial wastes are dumped untreated into water in the developing countries while 2 million tons of human waste are disposed of in water courses every day resulting in a limited clean water supply [12]. Therefore, intensive efforts are needed in engineered water treatments systems to overcome the clean water pollution problems.

There are various physico-chemical methods including membrane filtration, coagulation, flocculation, ozonation, adsorption and photocatalytic degradation for removing water pollutants from wastewater [13-16]. Among these processes, the photocatalytic degradation method is recognized as a high potential alternative technology for alleviating the refractory organic pollutants and hazardous waste in water. This is due to advantages such as simple, environmental-friendly, inexpensive technology and ease of application at ambient temperature and pressure [17-19]. Generally, the principle of photocatalysis is to convert the photon energy by using light absorption into the chemical energy in the forms of products. It involves the acceleration of photoreaction with the presence of semiconducting oxide photocatalysts (e.g: TiO_2 , ZnO , WO_3 , Fe_2O_3 , CdS , ZnS , SrTiO_3 , etc.)

[11, 20, 21]. However, the photocatalytic efficiency of the semiconductor photocatalyst has been limited by the two common factors which are the fastest recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs and large energy band gap. Therefore, in order to significantly overcome the limited visible-light absorption and rapid charge recombination of semiconductor photocatalysts, an effective method is by combining the semiconductor with the carbonaceous materials into a nanocomposite. Carbonaceous-metal oxide nanocomposites have been proposed over the past few years for application in the water treatment. Among different carbonaceous materials, carbon nanotubes have shown significant key role in the nanocomposite for the photocatalysis process, because of their several merits: high surface area, high mechanical strength, chemical inertness and good adsorbent properties, which are beneficial to improve water treatment [1, 2, 14].

This chapter provides insight into the properties of carbon nanotubes as well as the fundamental principle of the photocatalysis mechanism, followed by the summary of the various synthesis techniques for carbon-nanotube-based nanocomposites. The characteristics and advantages of existing synthesis methods are discussed. Detailed discussions are provided on the summary of recent advances of water treatment using carbon nanotubes-based nanocomposites as photocatalyst. The remaining challenges are also mentioned.

2. Properties of carbon nanotubes

Carbon nanotubes (CNT) is a carbon family member with one dimensional (1D) structure that rolled up into tubular with diameter of a few nanometers and up to few millimeters in length. It has highly organized helical arrangement of hexagonal arrays with open or closed ends capped with a hemisphere of the fullerene structure. Since the first discovery by Iijima in 1991, CNT have gained much attention due to their high surface to volume ratio, high aspect ratio, tunable physical, chemical, electrical, and structural properties [22, 23]. CNTs possess good structural integrity and chemical inertness support with relatively high oxidation stability which could endow CNTs more excellent performances as support for photocatalytic active materials [24, 25]. Eventually, the remarkable properties of CNT make them potentially valuable to be applied in a wide range of applications (sensors, electronics, water treatment etc.).

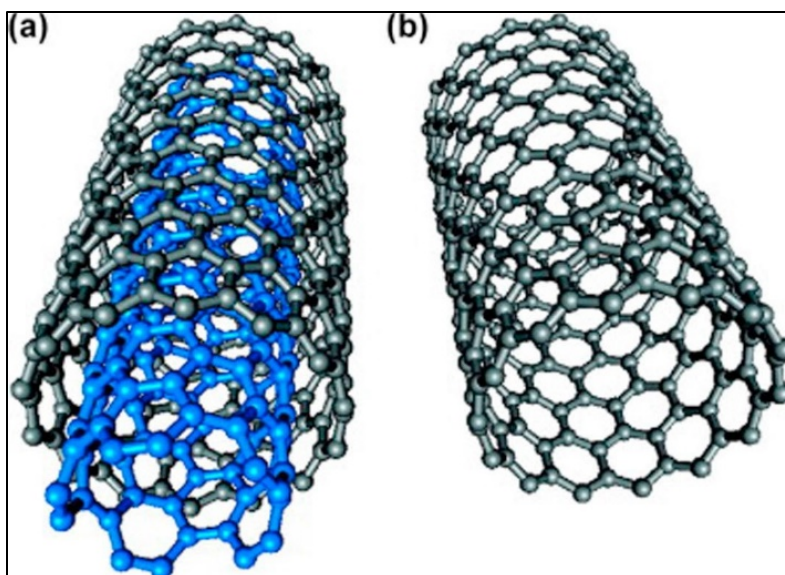


Figure 2: Structure representations of (a) MWCNTs and (b) SWCNTs. Reprinted (adapted) with permission from [26]. Copyright (2009) American Chemical Society.

The oxygen functional groups such as hydroxyl and carboxyl are introduced onto the CNTs surface during the synthesis and purification process. These functional groups can influence the maximum adsorption capacity of CNTs and make them more hydrophilic and suitable for the adsorption. Up to now, CNTs can be easily scaled-up to batch-scale production by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) method due to simplicity and economy.

Moreover, CNTs may act as effective electron sinks with a high electrical conductivity and high electron storage capacity which can store up to 1 electron per 32 carbon atoms during photoexcitation [27-30].

Basically, there are two main types of CNTs: Single walled carbon nanotubes (SWCNTs) and Multi walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) that differ in the arrangement of their graphene cylinders (Figure 2). SWCNTs consist of a single layer of graphene cylinders; while MWCNTs consist of multiple layers of graphite rolled into form a tube shape. There are three different crystallographic configurations of SWCNTs such as zigzag, armchair, and chiral structure, depending on how the graphene sheet is rolled up to a cylinder way as shown in Figure 3. A pair of indices (n, m) is used to describe the chiral vector in the honeycomb crystal lattice for the SWCNTs structure along the two directions. The SWCNTs are named as zigzag nanotubes when $m=0$ which means the C-C bonds are parallel to the tube axis; while the SWCNTs are named as armchair nanotubes when $n=m$ (C-C bonds of each hexagonal are perpendicular to the tube axis). For the chiral nanotubes, C-C bonds are adjoining at an angle to the tube axis.

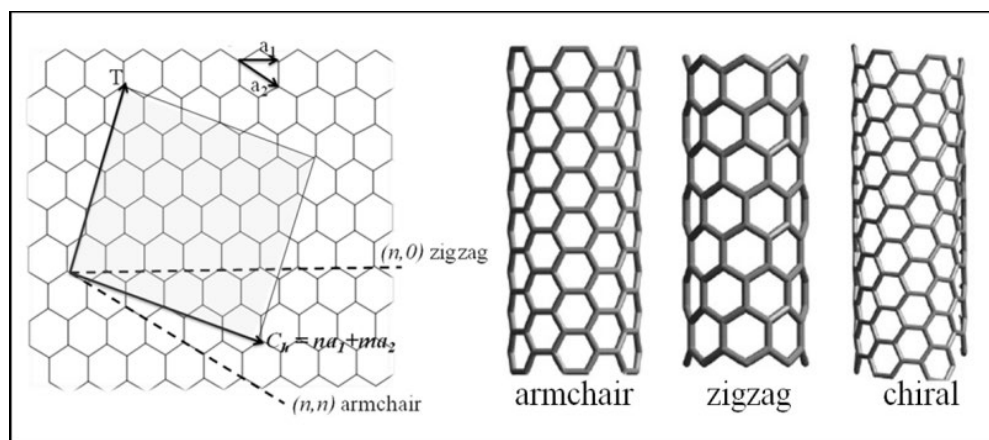


Figure 3: Three different types of single walled carbon nanotubes. Reprinted (adapted) with permission from [32]. Copyright (2011) IntechOpen.

MWCNTs structures can be categorized into two structural models based on their arrangements of graphite layers: Russian doll model and Parchment model. For Russian doll model, the layers of graphene sheets are arranged within a concentric structure and the inner nanotube has a smaller diameter than the outer nanotube. On the other hand, for Parchment model, a graphene sheet is rolled up around itself manifold times exactly like rolled up scroll of paper. Typically, SWCNTs can have diameters of 0.8 to 2 nm while MWCNTs having diameters of 5 to 20 nm. As reported, the total specific surface area of SWCNTs are in the range of 400-900 m²/g while for MWCNTs are between 200-400 m²/g, which provides CNTs with high surface active site to volume ratio as compared to conventional granular carbon [29, 31]. Nonetheless, MWCNTs exhibit advantages over SWCNTs, such as low cost per unit since the synthesis process of SWCNTs is extremely complicated and the yields are small as compared to MWCNTs. The properties of SWCNTs and MWCNTs are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Characteristics and textural properties of SWCNTs and MWCNTs [33].

Properties	SWCNTs	MWCNTs
Layer of graphite	Single layer	Multiple layers
Diameters	0.8-2 nm	5-20 nm
Specific gravity, g/cm ³	0.8	1.8
Elastic Modulus, TPa	~1	~0.3-1
Strength, GPa	50-500	10-60
Thermal conductivity, W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹	3000	3000
Total specific surface area, m ² /g	400-900	200-400
Cost	High	Low

Environmental applications based on CNTs offer more realistic possibilities and have many advantages over other carbon materials in terms of costs, structural and electrical properties. Indeed, the adsorption capability and high adsorption efficiency of CNTs makes them excellent prospects for widespread use in a variety of industries all around the world. Based on the intrinsic properties (high thermal conductivity, good chemical and environmental stability) of CNTs shown in Figure 4, CNTs can act as promising blocks for carbon-based composite, giving great potential in water treatment applications. Nano-scaled composite materials of MWCNTs are in great interest due to its high chemical inert nature, non-swelling effect and rigidity [28, 29, 34].

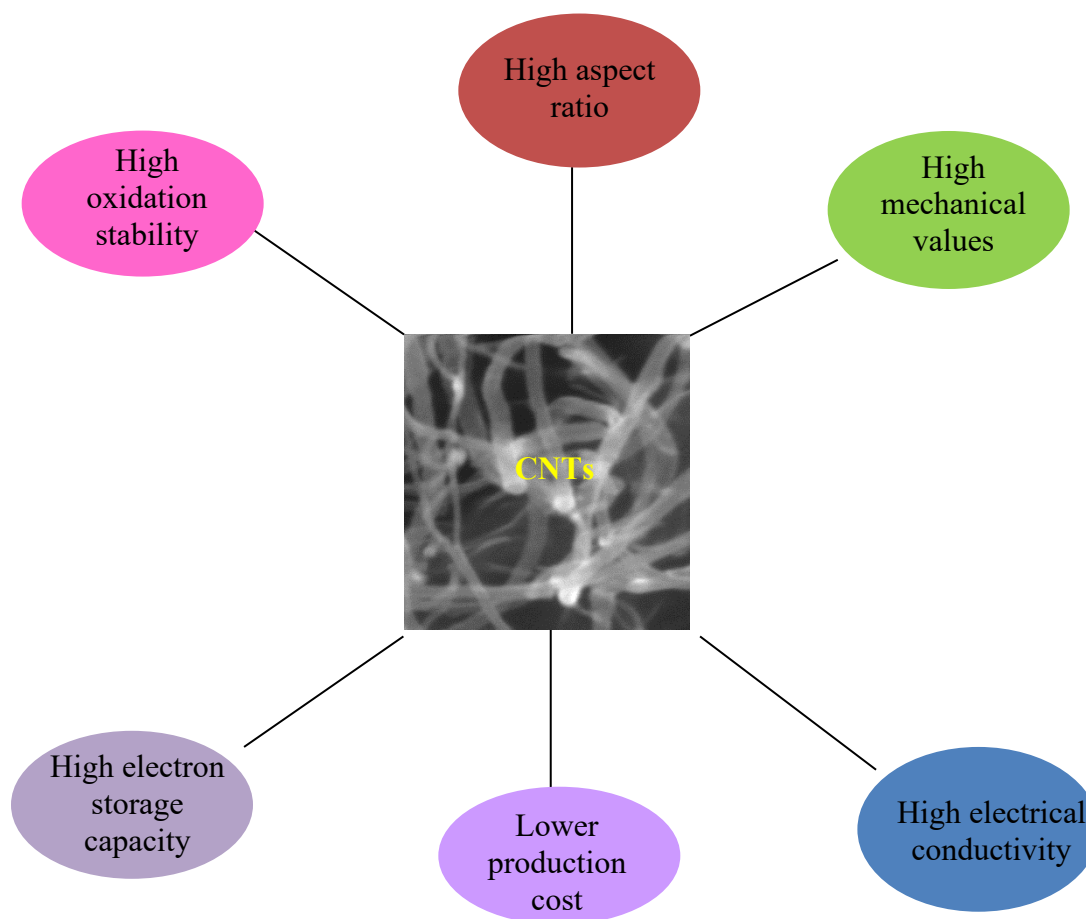


Figure 4: Properties of CNTs.

3. Synthesis Methods of CNTs-based Nanocomposites

Over the past few years, various synthesis methods to form CNTs-based nanocomposites have been explored. The incorporation of the CNTs can control the physiochemical properties of metal oxide nanoparticle photocatalyst to meet the specific requirement for a given application purpose. Additionally, it may also exhibit some new properties caused by the interaction between the two types of components. To date, there are several synthesis methods that can be utilized to produce CNTs-based nanocomposites photocatalyst. These techniques include liquid phase deposition method, simple mixing, ultrasonic irradiation, chemical vapor deposition, electrodeposition, hydrothermal, solvothermal and sol-gel method. However, in these methods, functionalization of CNTs is a crucial step that should be carried out before the synthesis and preparation of CNT-based nanocomposites material. This step is essential to remove the impurities, like metal catalyst and amorphous carbon as the adsorption ability of CNTs can be influenced by coating with CNTs. Usually, the functionalization of CNTs are executed by oxidation treatment with the oxidizing agents, namely nitric acid, sulfuric acid, a mixture of sulfuric acid and nitric acid, potassium permanganate, hydrogen peroxide and so forth. Different oxidizing agents used would result in creating different functional groups on the CNT surface such as carboxylic (-COOH), alcoholic (-OH), aldehydic (-COH), ketonic (-C=O), and esteric (-C=O-O) oxygenated functional groups as shown in Figure 5 [35].

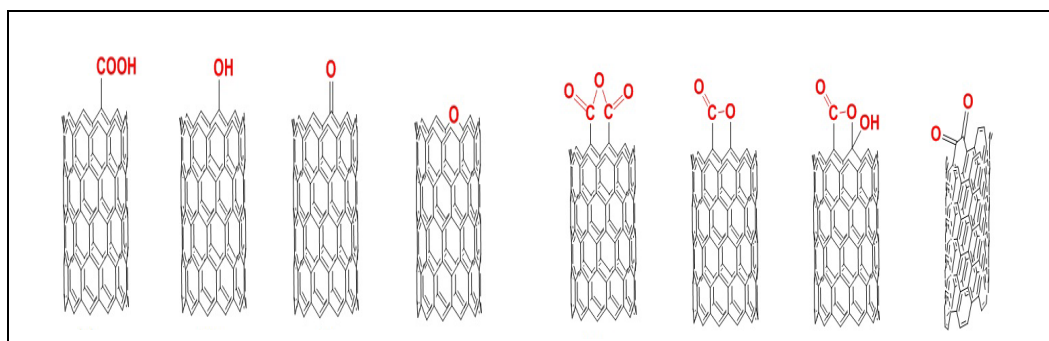


Figure 5: Three different types of single walled carbon nanotubes. Reprinted (adapted) with permission from [35] Copyright (2011) IntechOpen.

The chemical affinity of CNTs to metal oxide can be enhanced after the chemical functionalization of the CNTs sidewalls and tips. An example is the fabrication of CNTs/metal oxide nanocomposites with good interface adhesion after oxidizing treatment of

CNTs as illustrated in Figure 6. Metal oxides particles are well-attached on the surface of oxidized CNTs.

To date, researchers are looking for the facile and greener methods especially with shorten reaction time, minimal steps involved, less energy and less toxic by-products for the synthesis of nanocomposites materials. Therefore, different synthesis techniques applied will result in different structure and morphology of the CNTs-based nanocomposites. In the following section, the most commonly techniques such as simple mixing, chemical vapor deposition, electrodeposition, hydrothermal and sol-gel methods to yield the desired CNTs-based nanocomposites are briefly described.

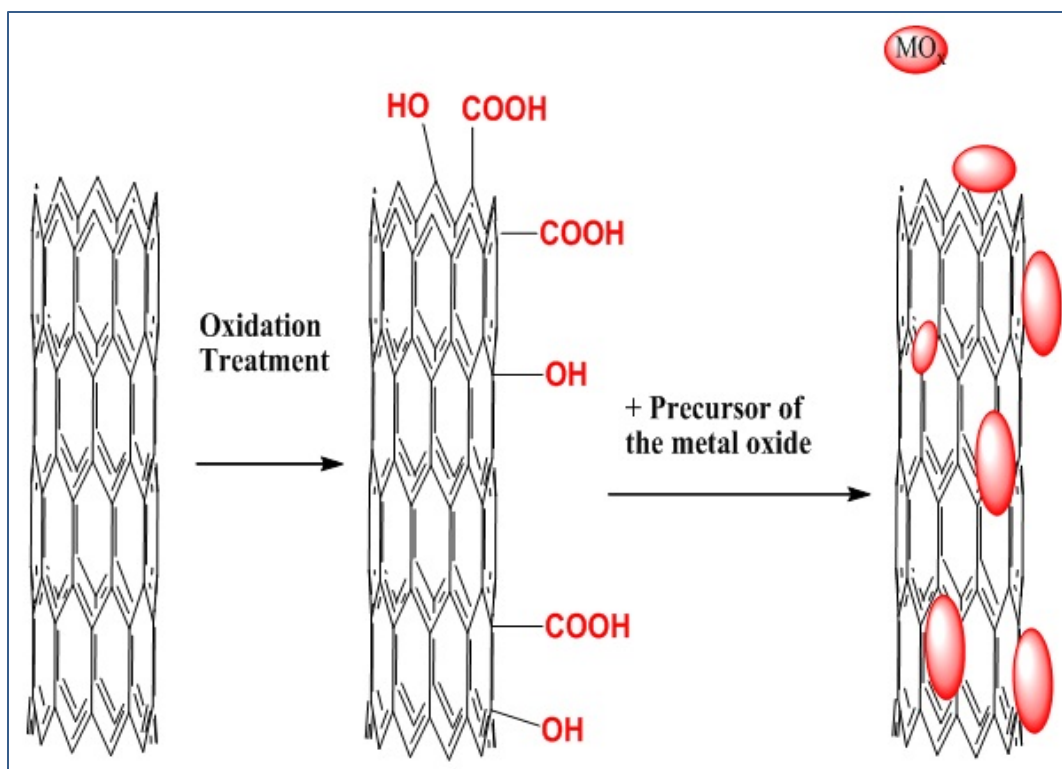


Figure 6: Schematic representation of the preparation of treated CNTs/metal oxide nanocomposites. Reprinted (adapted) with permission from [35] Copyright (2011) IntechOpen.

3.1 Simple mixing

Simple mixing has been reported as one of the most fundamental routes for the synthesis of CNTs based Metal oxide (MO) nanocomposites. Under simple mixing method, a certain amount of MO powder and CNTs were dispersed and mixed in water under slow stirring rate at room temperature. This method usually performed in solution and water is used to be solvent. According to Ashkarran et al., they have prepared CNT-TiO₂ using three

different simple mixing methods: (i) simple mixing of CNTs with TiO₂ nanoparticles, (ii) simple mixing of CNTs with TiO₂ nanoparticles followed by heat treatment and (iii) simple mixing of CNTs with TiO₂ nanoparticles followed by UV illumination. From the TEM image, they have found that TiO₂ nanoparticles are well decorated on the CNTs surface in all three simple mixing methods [36].

Thus, this implies that it is possible to decorate CNTs with TiO₂ nanoparticles by simple mixing. The attachment of MO onto the surface of CNTs is through van der Waals interactions. Xu et al. synthesized CNTs/MO nanocomposites using simple mechanical mixing method for gas phase degradation of benzene. In respect to this method, it is simple and less time-consuming; however, it has been criticized for the low level of interaction where there is no intimate contact or chemical bonding between CNTs and MO. The type of bonding exists between CNTs and MO in this method is physisorption and MO may detach from CNTs surface through mechanical process such as sonication as reported by Yu et al. Significantly, the interaction between CNTs and MO is one of the key factors for controlling electron transfer and photocatalytic activity in CNTs/metal oxide nanocomposite structure [37-39].

3.2 Chemical vapor deposition (CVD)

Chemical vapor deposition (CVD) techniques are among the most common methods to synthesis CNTs based MO nanocomposites that utilize the growth of a solid material from gaseous phase through chemical reaction at the surface of a substrate at controlled flow rates. The chemical reactions that occurred on the heated surface of the substrate resulting in the deposition of coated thin on the surface. Due to the high purity of reagent used in this method, it can provide MO with a good control of the size, shape, purity, composition and easy scalability. In contrast to high pressure or high temperature synthesis, medium temperature at around 600-800 °C and a slightly reduced atmospheric pressure is required by this technique.

According to Tavakkoli et al., maghemite (γ -Fe₂O₃) nanoparticles are decorated on carbon nanotubes (CNTs) in a one-step synthesis using a low cost floating catalyst vapor deposition method for hydrogen evolution reaction. This study shows the growth of carbon encapsulated iron nanoparticles are highly dependent on the amount of iron source, ferrocene and an average size of 5.4 nm for the carbon encapsulated metallic iron nanoparticles are obtained from the HRTEM image [40]. Uniform coating of MO on CNTs can be achieved by this technique but when it scaled down to few nanometers, uniformity and defect-free coatings are difficult to be achieved due to the fast deposition. Moreover, this technique is not simple and specialized equipment is needed [41, 42].

3.3 Electrodeposition

Electrodeposition is one of the most powerful techniques for the deposition of MO nanoparticles via reduction of metal complexes by electrons. The nanocomposites can be produced through the migration of charged particles dispersed in a liquid medium under an electric field, followed by the particles are coagulated at an electrode. In the early stages of electrodeposition, the limiting step corresponds to electron transfer from work electrode for metallic ions in solution. The size and the coverage of MO nanoparticles on the sidewalls of CNTs can be controlled by electrodeposition parameters, including concentration of the metal salt, nucleation potential and deposition time. The main advantage of this technique is that the electrodeposited nanoparticles show higher purity as well as a good adhesion to the surface of CNTs. In detail, a strong adhesion could be provided via a simple van der Waals interaction between the CNTs and the MO nanoparticles.

The work done by Zhao et al., showed that, the deposition of TiO₂ is carried out by using TiCl₃ as a precursor and electrolyte through galvanostatic oxidation with 1 mA/cm² at pH 2.5 with HCl/Na₂CO₃. As a result, it has been reported that this technique occurs to the same extent on both the sidewalls of the tubes and the tips [43]. Another work done by Nguyen and Bui, high density gold nanoparticles are electrodeposited into a three dimensional framework attached CNTs in 0.2 M hydrogen tetrachlororoaurate (HAuCl₄.3H₂O) solution at an applied potential of -1.2 V for 200 s. The SEM image indicated that the gold nanoparticles are densely distributed on the whole surface of the CNTs [44]. However, electrodeposition technique is difficult to produce bulk quantities of samples and this becoming the major drawback of this method.

3.4 Hydrothermal

Hydrothermal techniques have been employed in the synthesis of CNTs based MO nanocomposites in recent years. This method is highly dependent on the chemical reactions and solubility changes of precursors in a Teflon-sealed autoclave under controlled temperature and/or pressure for growing the nanocrystals [45].

Kalubarme et al., synthesized CNT/cerium oxide (CeO₂) composite with one-pot hydrothermal method in the presence of potassium hydroxide (KOH) and capping agent polyvinylpyrrolidone. The precursor solutions (functionalized CNTs, Cerium nitrate, KOH and polyvinylpyrrolidone) were mixed and put in a Teflon stainless steel autoclave at 170 °C for 24 h reaction. They indicated that two steps of reaction are involved for the growth of CeO₂; (1) Ce³⁺ is oxidized into Ce⁴⁺ when reacting with hydroxyl ion followed by (2) spherical particles of CeO₂ will grow as hexagonal nanocrystals by the effect of capping agent under the hydrothermal condition. The capping agent will give control upon the

crystal size of the nanoparticles by hindering the crystal growth. The HRTEM image revealed that the CeO₂ nanoparticles exhibit hexagonal structure on the CNT support [46]. Another work done by Dai et al., stated that in a typical hydrothermal synthesis of MWCNTs/TiO₂ nanocomposites, the pristine or acid-treated CNTs were added to the aqueous solution of the titanium precursor and treated in an autoclave at temperature between 100-200 °C to produce crystalline films of TiO₂. As a result, a dense coating of spherical or slightly elongated nanoparticles are obtained. It is worth mentioning that the titanium precursors used for hydrothermal processes are mainly titanium tetrachloride (TiCl₄) and titanium oxysulfate (TiOSO₄). Typically, the final materials obtained are mostly amorphous TiO₂ with seeds of anatase regardless the chosen conditions and chemistry. Thus, a further heat treatment that occurs at 300-500 °C in air is required to fully crystallize the TiO₂ coating on CNTs and avoid the burnout of the CNTs [47]. In contrast with other methods, the advantages of the composites prepared by hydrothermal methods are found to give better results, including less agglomeration among particles, narrow particle size distribution, and controllable phase homogeneity and particle morphology. However, this method requires longer preparation times (several hours or a day) and acquires hydrothermal temperature and pressure [48, 49].

3.5 Sol-gel

Sol-gel is a versatile technique that involves the transition of a liquid colloidal sol, followed by hydrolysis and polymerization of the precursors which are usually metal alkoxides into a solid gel phase. The sol particles may interact by Van der Waals forces or hydrogen bonds while the interactions in gel system are of covalent nature and the gel process is irreversible.

The rate of hydrolysis and poly-condensation will significantly affect the structures and properties of MO. Generally, sol-gel method is the most common technique to synthesize MO on the CNTs surface because this method is cheap, easy to control the chemical composition, does not require complicated equipment and occur at ambient temperature that can produce materials with high purity and homogeneity. However, the major drawback of this synthesis is that the final product normally consists of an amorphous phase rather than the defined crystals and hence, crystallization and post annealing steps are required. Moreover, this method usually leads to heterogeneous, non-uniform coating and random aggregation of MO onto the CNTs surface. Significantly, the selection of precursor is crucial for sol-gel method due to the reason that homogeneous nucleation or heterogeneous on CNTs are influenced by the reactivity of the precursor with the solvent. The growth rate of nanoparticles is also affected where the fast condensation rates resulting in a large particle-size distribution. Kose et al., synthesized zinc oxide (ZnO)/ MWCNTs nanocomposites for lithium ion battery anodes by sol-gel technique using zinc acetate

dehydrate and functionalized MWCNTs as the starting materials. The authors studied the effect of two chelating agents, triethanolamine and glycerin used in the sol-gel synthesis on the structure of ZnO/ MWCNTs nanocomposites. Field emission gun-scanning electron microscopy (FEG-SEM) shows that a very fine layer of ZnO was homogeneously coated on the individual MWCNTs the ZnO/ MWCNTs nanocomposites prepared with chelating agents [50].

Another example by Ellis et al., indium oxide (In_2O_3) is grown on the surface of oxidized SWCNTs using a sol-gel synthesis for ethanol sensing at room temperature. The authors reported that the degree of calcination will provide a close contact between the In_2O_3 and the nanotube surface where the In_2O_3 can be crystallized and condensed on SWCNTs after calcination. HRTEM image indicated that the crystalline In_2O_3 are attached above a bundle of SWCNTs [51]. The most common titanium precursor used for preparing TiO_2 / CNTs is titanium isopropoxide since it readily dissolves in alcohol and is not overly sensitive as revealed from the work done by Rodriguez et al. Acids or bases are added for altering the reaction rate. TiO_2 are formed by hydrolysis and poly-condensation process of titanium alkoxides.

Soroodan and Fatemi synthesized TiO_2 / CNTs composites using sol-gel method for the degradation of acetaldehyde. Benzyl alcohol as the linking agent was added to the TiO_2 / CNTs composites resulting in homogeneously coating of TiO_2 sols over the CNTs [52-54]. The comparison between the unique features of simple mixing, chemical vapor deposition, electrodeposition, hydrothermal and sol-gel methods is summarized in Table 2. Synthesis routes covers the range of techniques are tabulated in Table 3.

Table 2: Comparison of the most widely used synthesis methods for preparing CNTs/MO composite.

Synthesis method	Advantage	Disadvantage
Simple mixing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Simple •Less time-consuming 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •No intimate contact or chemical bonding between CNTs and MO nanoparticles
CVD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Short processing time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires higher deposition temperature • Complicated steps
Electrodeposition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Provide MO with a good control of size, the shape and purity •Uniform coating of MO on CNTs •Electrodeposited MO nanoparticles show higher purity as well as good adhesion to the surface of CNTs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Needs specialized equipment •Difficult to produce bulk quantities of CNTs/MO sample
Hydrothermal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Reduce agglomeration among MO nanoparticles •Control phase homogeneity and particle morphology 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Longer preparation time • Acquires hydrothermal temperature and pressure
Sol-gel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Simple •Cheap •Occur at ambient temperature •Fine and well-dispersion of MO nanoparticles on CNTs surface 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Difficult controlling of hydrolysis rate

Table 3: Representative summary of CNT/MO composite synthesis routes

Synthesis routes	CNTs	MO	Synthesis conditions	Remarks	Applications	Ref.
Simple mixing	CNTs	TiO ₂	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •CNTs are purified with HCl •CNT/TiO₂ composite were prepared with the simple mixing, UV illumination and heat treatment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •No observable formation of chemical bonds and the CNTs are wrapped around TiO₂ anatase grains 	Degradation of Rhodamine B	[36]
Simple mixing	MWCNTs	Commercial P25	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Purification of MWCNTs using HNO₃ •Dispersed in anhydrous ethanol solution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Less individual interfacial between MWCNTs and TiO₂ •Simple mixing cannot combine P25 and MWCNTs effectively 	Degradation of benzene	[38]
Simple mixing	MWCNTs	Titanium sulfate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •MWCNTs was treated using HNO₃/H₂SO₄ mixture •Acid-treated MWCNTs were dispersed in water and introduced into titanium sulfate solution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Unable to create effective interfacial contact between TiO₂ and CNTs 	Degradation of acetone	[39]

CVD	CNTs	Maghemite (γ - Fe_2O_3)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Synthesis temperature of 1100 °C, atmospheric pressure and in laminar flow conditions •Toluene and ethylene as the carbon sources for the CNT •Ferrocene was decomposed to Fe nanoparticles at high temperature 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •A mixture of carbon encapsulated iron nanoparticles are decorated on the CNTs. 	Electrocatalysts for the oxygen evolution reaction	[40]
CVD	CNTs	Titanium tetrachloride	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •CVD growth of CNTs was carried out using the supported Ni as the catalyst •CVD deposition of a TiO_2 layer on the CNTs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •The conformal coverage of TiO_2 nanoparticles on the CNTs walls 	Photocatalytic antifungal activity	[41]
CVD	CNTs	Commercial anatase TiO_2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •CVD growth of CNTs was carried out using the supported Fe as the catalyst and a mixture of C_2H_4 and H_2 •CNTs directly grown on TiO_2 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •CNTs were found to be uniformly grown in TiO_2 particles without altering the crystalline structure 	Photocatalytic Hydrogen Production	[42]

Electrodeposition	CNTs	TiO ₂	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •The electrodeposition of TiO₂ was performed in a three-electrode cell with resin as a working electrode, Pt wire and Ag/AgCl were used as counter and reference electrodes •KCl solution as the electrolyte 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •CNTs were coated with a uniform layer of highly crystalline anatase TiO₂ nanoparticles 	Photo degradation of organic pollutant	[43]
Electrodeposition	CNTs	Gold nanoparticles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Applied potential of -1.2 V for 200 s in 0.2 M hydrogen tetrachloroaurate solution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The TEM image showed that the gold nanoparticles are homogeneously dispersed onto CNTs surface after the electrodeposition process 	Hydrazine detection	[44]
Hydrothermal	CNTs	Cerium oxide	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •CNTs were treated with 30% HNO₃ with stirring for 6h at 120 °C • Hydrothermal treatment at 170 °C for 24 h in an 80 ml Teflon stainless steel. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •The growth of CeO₂ taken place when come in contact with hydroxyl ion. •The hexagonal CeO₂ nanocrystals were observed to grow on the CNTs surface. 	Supercapacitor	[46]

Hydrothermal	SWCNTs	Titanium sulfate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •SWCNTs were treated in the boiled nitrate solution •Hydrothermal treatment at 140 °C for 24 h 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Well-dispersed SWCNTs and TiO₂ nanoparticles having intimate contact, which inhibited the growth of TiO₂ grain 	Photocatalytic hydrogen evolution [47]
Hydrothermal	MWCNTs	Titanium isopropoxide	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Purification and functionalization of MWCNTs using HCl and HNO₃ •Hydrothermal treatment at 140 °C for 24 h 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Favors a decrease in agglomeration among particles and controlled particle morphology 	Degradation of methylene blue solution [48]
Sol-gel	MWCNTs	ZnO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •MWCNTs were functionalized using an acid mixture of HNO₃:H₂SO₄ (1:3 v/v) •Triethanolamine and glycerin acts as chelating agents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •The addition of chelating agents may result in enhancing thin film porosity and increasing solution viscosity. •The FEG-SEM image indicated that a mesoporous structure with a homogenous distribution of pores are formed 	Lithium ion battery anodes [50]

Sol-gel	SWCN Ts	In ₂ O ₃	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SWCNTs are oxidized using HNO₃ • Oxidized SWCNTs, indium hydroxide (indium (III) chloride and ammonia) were sonicated, stirred and dialyzed in water for overnight. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A core-shell morphology of In₂O₃/SWCN Ts composite was observed where the CNTs are completely encapsulated by the indium oxide layer. 	Ethanol Sensing	[51]
Sol-gel	MWCN Ts	Titanium isopropoxide Titanium butoxide	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MWCNTs was treated using HNO₃/H₂SO₄ mixture • Titanium precursor, ethanol, H₂O, and HCl was mixed and stirred at ambient temperature 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dispersion of TiO₂ nanoparticles on the surface of CNTs 	Degradation of methylene blue solution	[52]
Sol-gel	MWCN Ts	Titanium isopropoxide	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CNT/TiO₂ composite were prepared with the aiding of benzyl alcohol as a linking agent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Homogeneous coating of TiO₂ sols over the CNTs 	Degradation of acetaldehyde	[54]

4. Fundamental principles of photocatalysis

Generally, photocatalysis has been considered as one of the most sustainable methodologies which has been the subject of a huge amount of studies for water purification treatment. According to International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) compendium of chemical terminology, a catalytic reaction involving light absorption by a catalyst can be defined as photocatalysis [55]. It can be carried out in various media, including gas phase, pure organic liquid phases or aqueous solutions. Among these AOPs, heterogeneous photocatalysis employing semiconductor catalysts has

demonstrated its efficiency in degrading a wide range of ambiguous refractory organics into readily biodegradable compounds and substantially, mineralization to innocuous carbon dioxide and water [56-58]. Taking into account the advance photocatalysis processes involved photodegradation under UV irradiation, the materials used as photocatalysts must satisfy several functional requirements with respect to band gap energy, morphology, surface area, stability and reusability [59]. Besides, light harvesting ability of a photocatalyst is an important criterion to produce maximum photo-induced charge carriers. The basic parameter that governs the light-harvesting ability of the photocatalyst is its electronic structure, which determines its band-gap energy [60, 61]. Figure 7 illustrates the E_g values and the positions of band edges of various semiconductors.

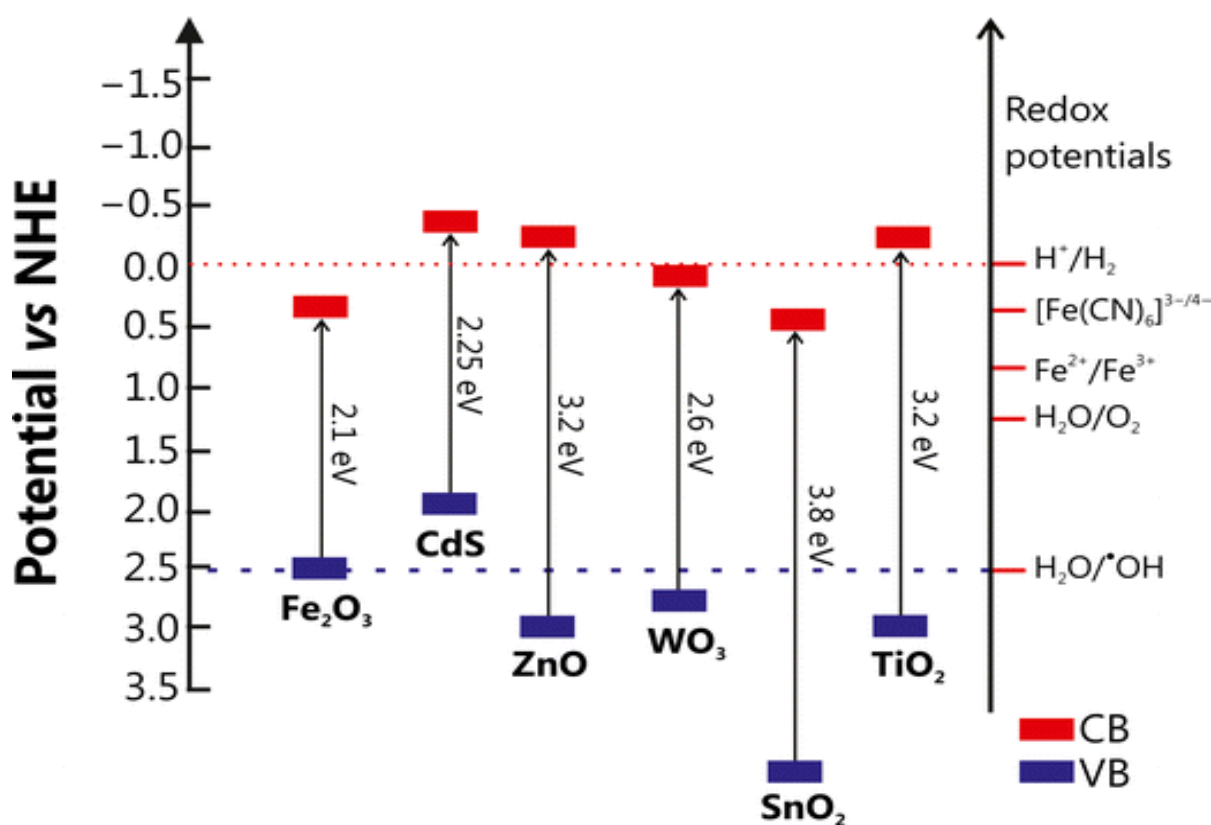


Figure 7: Schematic representation of E_g values (in eV) and position of band edges of various semiconductors Reprinted (adapted) with permission from [63] Copyright (2015) Springer Nature.

Among the advanced semiconducting materials (i.e. WO_3 , Fe_2O_3 , CeO_2 , ZnO , and ZnS) being reported for electronics, magnetic, optical and photocatalytic applications; TiO_2 is the most widely used photocatalyst for the removal of organic pollutants from drinking

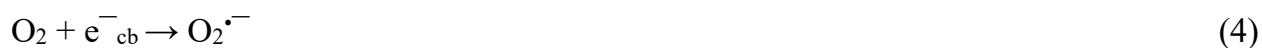
water treatment, industrial and aqueous systems in environment clean-up. The extensive use of TiO₂ in photocatalytic building materials is attributed to the following characteristics: (a) relatively inexpensive, non-toxic and chemically stable; (b) high photocatalytic activity compared with other metal oxide photocatalysts and (c) the photogenerated holes are highly oxidizing [62].

From the literature, binary metal sulfides semiconductors such as CdS, CdSe or ZnS are regarded as toxic and insufficiently stable for catalysis in aqueous media due to photoanodic corrosion. Photo-corrosion occurs when the anion from the catalyst itself is oxidized by photogenerated holes instead of water. Besides, the band gap (3.2 eV) and band-edge positions of ZnO are similar to those of TiO₂ and it was reported that ZnO has a higher electron mobility than TiO₂. However, ZnO is unstable in water due to incongruous dissolution and will form Zn(OH)₂ on the ZnO particle surfaces and thus lead to catalyst inactivation. Moreover, ZnO suffer from photo corrosion induced by self-oxidation and they can react with the photogenerated holes giving the following reactions as shown in Equation 1:



The Zn²⁺ released by photo-corrosion may produce a new poisoning effect on the environment, bringing about further pollution. As a result, the utilization of ZnO in environmental purification is greatly limited by these disadvantages. Thus, TiO₂ proves to be more a suitable benchmark photocatalyst for photodegradation of organic pollutants due to its high photoactivity, resistance to photo corrosion and possess a good mechanical resistance in acidic and oxidative environments. The photocatalytic properties of TiO₂ nanoparticles are derived from the illumination with photons having energy greater than the band gap energy, the photons will excite the electrons from the valence band (VB) into the conduction band (CB), resulting in the formation of photogenerated charge carriers (hole and electron). The photogenerated holes in the valence band will react with adsorbed water molecules, forming hydroxyl radicals (•OH). •OH produced has the second highest oxidation potential which can non-selectively oxidize almost all electron rich organic molecules and eventually converting them into CO₂ and water. Therefore, the organic pollutants which are adsorbed on the surface of the catalyst will be oxidized by •OH. In the meantime, electrons in the conduction band will typically participate in reduction processes, which typically react with molecular oxygen to produce superoxide radical anion (O₂^{•-}). The presence of molecular oxygen plays a substantial role in the photoinduced processes on the irradiated TiO₂ surface, as effective charge carriers,

separation is enabled. In addition, $O_2^{\bullet-}$ may not only take place in the further oxidation process but also prevents the electron-hole recombination, hence electron neutrality within the TiO_2 is maintained. Therefore, both $\bullet OH$ and $O_2^{\bullet-}$ play such an important roles in the photocatalytic reaction mechanism. The Equation (2-5) represents the mechanism of the photocatalytic degradation by TiO_2 [62, 64, 65].



It is essential for effective photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants that the oxidation of pollutant and the reduction process of oxygen occur simultaneously in order to prevent the accumulation of electron in the conduction band and hence, the rate of recombination of e_{CB}^- and h_{VB}^+ is reduced. A schematic diagram illustrating the mechanism of photocatalysis on TiO_2 nanoparticles is shown in Figure 8.

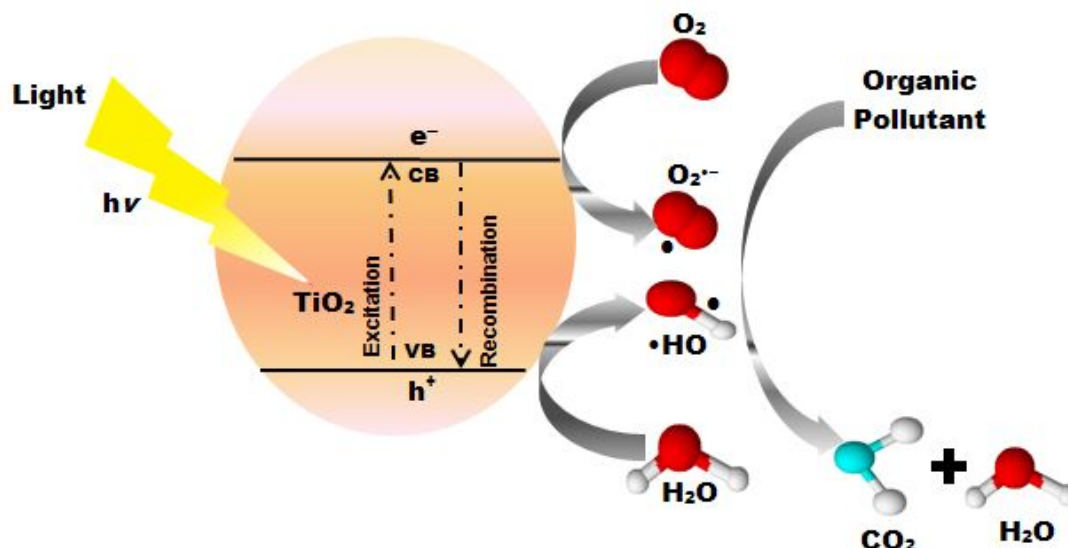
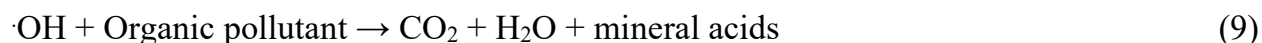


Figure 8: A schematic diagram illustrating the mechanism of photocatalysis on TiO_2 nanoparticles.

However, an obvious hindrance to the widespread use of TiO₂ nanoparticles as a photocatalyst is its poor visible light response, the rapid recombination rate of charge carriers, low adsorption capacity to hydrophobic contaminants, high aggregation tendency and difficulty of separation and recovery, which decreases the quantum efficiency of the overall reaction. CNTs is used as a one-dimensional photocatalyst for contributing to the routes of enhancing TiO₂ photocatalytic activities, e.g., TiO₂ is an n-type semiconductor, but with the presence of CNTs, photoinduced electrons may migrate freely in the direction to the CNTs surfaces where CNTs can act as extremely effective electron sinks, which might have a lower Fermi level like a metal for suppressing the electron-hole pairs recombination. [28, 29, 66, 67].

The general principles photocatalytic mechanism of CNT/MO nanocomposites are briefly introduced in the following section. Accordingly, the photocatalytic degradation process initiated via the absorption of photon by the MO semiconductor. Under such conditions, the electrons from valence band would be excited to the conduction band of MO creating the electron-hole pairs on the catalyst surface. The photogenerated electrons were then transferred to CNTs, (act as the electron acceptor). The trapped electrons would then react with the dissolved oxygen to form the reactive oxygen species, followed by suppressing the rate of electron-hole recombination. In the meantime, the photogenerated electrons on the MO surface tended to reduce the dissolved oxygen to form superoxide anion, which may subsequently react with the adsorbed water to form the hydroxyl radicals. The hydroxyl radicals (acted as a primary oxidant in the photocatalytic system) then reacted with organic pollutant molecules and mineralized it into CO₂, H₂O and mineral acids [68, 69]

The mechanism reactions are shown as below:



5. Applications of CNTs-based nanocomposites in water treatment

CNTs-based nanocomposites have been being one popular type of photocatalyst for water treatment, since it combines the excellent performances of MO semiconductor with CNTs. To date, removal of heavy metal ion, organic, inorganic and emerging pollutants in water have been increasingly studied using CNTs-based nanocomposites. Therefore, the water treatment applications using several MO photocatalysts supported on CNTs used in degradation of organic pollutants are extensively discussed in the following sections. Table 4 summarizes the targeted organic pollutants, light sources, catalysts and the influences of various operational parameters on the photodegradation of organic pollutants based on the recently published work. It can be seen that most organic pollutants can be photocatalytically degraded by MO within minutes to several hours under UV or near UV-visible irradiation, while longer time was needed for visible irradiation. The combination of CNTs with MO will extend the wavelength from UV to visible light range. Wongaree et al., demonstrated that a highly removal efficiency of methylene blue solution with CNT/TiO₂ nanocomposites (70 %) within 90 min under visible light irradiation as compared with pristine TiO₂ (22 %). Based on this, the lower band gap energy of CNTs/TiO₂ as compared with pristine TiO₂ resulting in a better light absorption of the composites in visible region [52]. In the similar work presented by Zhang et al., showed that the as prepared (CNTs)/Bismuth (Bi₄VO₈Cl) composite photocatalysts exhibited 30 % higher photocatalytic degradation of methyl orange (MO), hexavalent chromium Cr(IV), and bisphenol A (BPA) in water under visible light irradiation than that of pure Bi₄VO₈Cl. The enhanced photocatalytic activity by the composites are due to the synergetic effects by increased adsorption efficiency of pollutant, increased light absorption and reduced recombination rate of photogenerated charge carriers [70]. Zouzelka et al., prepared MWCNTs/TiO₂ composites for the degradation of 4-chlorophenol as compared to a P25 reference layer. The authors found that the first order rate reaction constant increased by about 100 % for the MWCNTs/TiO₂ composites, which suggested, MWCNTs acts as an electron sink and favors for photogenerated charge separation [71]. Photocatalysis using MWCNTs/TiO₂ composites are completely removed tetracycline under UVC irradiation as reported by Ahmadi et al., The authors also carried out the removal of real pharmaceutical wastewater using MWCNTs/TiO₂ composites which obtained total organic carbon (TOC) removal of 82.3 % after 4 h. The finding also demonstrated that the MWCNTs/TiO₂ composites exhibited superior catalytic capabilities over TiO₂ nanoparticles for degradation of tetracycline [72]. Another work reported by Zhu et al., ZnO/CNTs hierarchical microsphere composites was prepared by chemical deposition route for the photocatalytic removal of methylene blue under UV and visible light irradiation. The maximum photocatalytic activity of the composites (92.3 %) is higher than

that of pure ZnO (70.4 %) which suggested that CNTs play an important role for the photocatalytic removal of methylene blue [73]. An interesting work done by Zaman et al., revealed that the sonocatalytic degradation efficiency of methylene blue by SnO₂/MWCNT nanocomposite. During the sonocatalytic process, MWCNTs acts as an electron sink for accepting sonogenerated electron from the SnO₂ to promote interfacial electron transfer process. A complete removal of methylene blue was achieved in 30 min in the presence of SnO₂/MWCNT nanocomposite as compared with the bare SnO₂. A simple hydrothermal synthesis of WO₃-CNTs composite for sulfamethoxazole degradation was constructed by Zhu et al. [74]. The as-synthesized WO₃-CNT (73.3%) possessed enhanced photocatalytic performance for the sulfamethoxazole degradation than bare WO₃ (25.4 %) under visible light irradiation. Payan et al. described the fabrication of titanate nanotube (TNT)/MWCNT nanocomposites via hydrothermal method for the photodegradation of 4-chlorophenol under solar and UV illumination. For both UV and solar irradiations, TNT/MWCNT nanocomposites exhibited higher photocatalytic efficiency compared to the bare TNTs, which provided that SWCNTs has high surface areas that can create more active sites on the surface of CNTs, leading to more effectual degradation of 4-chlorophenol [75]. In other recent work, Oveisi et al., explored the Materials Institute Lavoisier-125 (Ti) (MIL-125 (Ti))/carbon nanotube (CNT) nanocomposites synthesized by hydrothermal method and tested for photocatalytic reactive black 5 degradation. The photocatalytic result showed that MIL/CNT composite (60 %) had higher photocatalytic dye degradation as compared to only MIL 125 (Ti) alone (<. 40 %) due to the generation of powerful oxidants which included free radicals in water [76]. Kamil et al., reported MWCNTs/TiO₂ nanocomposite was prepared using sol-gel method for the Bismarck brown R dye degradation. The maximum photocatalytic efficiency was achieved by MWCNTs/TiO₂ nanocomposite (82.7 %) compared to TiO₂ (47.3 %) respectively.

Table 4: Summary of organic pollutants removal by photocatalytic reaction under various operational parameters

Photocatalyst	Type of organic pollutants	Initial Conc. of Pollutant	Catalyst dosage	Light source	Irradiation time	Removal efficiency (%)	Ref.
CNT/TiO ₂	Methylene blue	1 x 10 ⁻⁵ M	1.0 g/L	Fluorescence lamp (15W)	1.5 h	70	[52]
CNTs)/Bi ₄ VO ₈ Cl	Methyl orange (MO) Hexavalent chromium Cr(VI) + Bisphenol A (BPA)	10 mg/L 8.6 mg/L	1.0 g/L 1.5 g/L	300 W Xenon lamp	10 h 4 h	74.8 100	[70]
MWCNT/TiO ₂	4-chlorophenol	0.1 mmol.L ⁻¹	N/A	UV light (365 nm)	5 h	70	[71]
MWCNT/TiO ₂	Tetracycline	10 mg/L	0.2 g/L	6W UVC lamps	100 min	100	[72]
CNT/ZnO	Methylene blue	30 mg/L	0.17 g/L	500W Hg lamp 500 W Xenon lamp	1 h	92.3 76	[73]
SnO ₂ /MWCNT	Methylene blue	0.02 mM	30 mg	n.d.	30 min	100	[77]
WO ₃ -CNT	Sulfamethoxazole	10 mg/L	0.50 g/L	300 W Xenon lamp	3	73.3	[74]
TNT/SWCNT	4-chlorophenol	50 mg/L	2 g/L	UVC lamp	8 h	92	[75]
MIL-125 (Ti)/CNTs	Reactive black 5	20 mg/L	0.1 g/L	UV lamp	3 h	60	[76]
MWCNT/TiO ₂	Bismarck brown R dye	5 × 10 ⁻⁵ M	0.5 g/L	UV lamp	1.5 h	82.7	[78]
CuO/CNT	p-chloroaniline	10 mg/L	0.375 g/L	Metal halide lamp	3 h	97	[79]
C ₃ N ₄ /CNTs	Rhodamine B	10 mg/L	0.6 g/L	500 W Xenon lamp	2 h	98.6	[80]
TiO ₂ /CNT	Methylene blue	10 mg/L	0.4 g/L	UV lamp	1 h	> 90%	[81]

Conclusion and future directions

In conclusion, it is notable that the CNT-based MO nanocomposites act as a potential photocatalyst for the degradation of various organic pollutants. The photocatalytic effect of CNT/MO nanocomposites occurs not only because of the adsorption of CNTs, but also because of the electron transfer between CNTs and MO, removing the organic pollutant from the solution. Despite the advances, great opportunities still exist in the exploitation of carbon-based hybrid assemblies. In this chapter, we have summarized the recent advances in the synthesis and application of the CNT-based MO nanocomposites. Despite various exploitations and extensive studies of this MWCNTs/MO nanocomposites have been

undertaken, a number of great challenges still remain and require attention in the future works. In order to bring this technology to practical applications, further studies and developments are required. Many studies applying photocatalysis for water treatment have been conducted by taken into account the concentration of the targeted organic pollutant without taking their attention to the possible intermediate products produced after the degradation. In fact, some intermediate products formed during the photodegradation experiment might be more dangerous and toxic compared to the original pollutant. The underlying mechanism of the photocatalytic enhancement by CNTs/MO nanocomposites is not fully understood and need to be examined in details to gain the clear understanding and to prove guidelines for future water treatment design based on photocatalysis. Generally, this enhancement is ascribed to the extended absorption and improved charge transfer in the hybrids. Although some studies have suggested a different mechanism in the literature, the possible mechanism of photocatalytic reaction may depend on the interfacial status of CNTs/MO nanocomposites, type of bonding, type of CNTs, functionalization, surface area and so forth. Thus, all these aspects in the fundamental processing-structural-developments will need to be better understood and controlled. Broader environmental applications on this CNTs/MO nanocomposite shall be explored. For instance, the photocatalytic degradation of persistent organic pollutants that hardly found in the literature shall be investigated, which important to the environmental protection and human health. Although it is still in the infancy, a widespread and great progress in this area can be expected in the future. The previous work mainly focused on a batch scale of photocatalytic degradation for pollutant removal, but the lack of application in a larger scale. Thus, there is a need for the design of a prototype for the convenience of photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants so that it can be applied in real practice.

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Chapter 4

Photocatalytic and Adsorptional Removal of Heavy Metals from Contaminated Water using Nanohybrids

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Abstract

Water contaminated with heavy metals is a major menace for aquatic life and human health consequently its efficient removal remains a crucial challenge for researcher. The utilization of various photocatalytic nanohybrids to synergistically photo-reduce and adsorb heavy metals is a potent strategy to combat water pollution. This book chapter give an overview of the fundamental principle of photocatalysis and various single, binary, ternary and quaternary nanohybrids employed for simultaneous photoreduction and adsorption of heavy metals with its mechanistic insight. Further, conclusion and future prospective as well as limitation of available nanohybrids were addressed. We hope that this book chapter dispenses some noticeable information to heavy metal ions removal from polluted water.

Keywords

Photocatalysis, Nanohybrids, Water Purification, Organic Pollutants, Heavy Metals

Contents

Photocatalytic and Adsorptional Removal of Heavy Metals from Contaminated Water using Nanohybrids.....	113
1. Introduction.....	114
2. Fundamental principle of photocatalysis	117
3. Nanohybrids for photocatalytic removal of heavy metals.....	120
3.1 Single system.....	120

3.2	Dual system	123
3.3	Ternary system.....	129
4.	Nanohybrids for adsorptional removal of organic pollutants and heavy metals.....	138
	Conclusions and future prospects	145
	References	146

1. Introduction

Among the wide range of water pollutant, presence of heavy metals (HMs) poses a significant threat to the human society and has become a very prominent environmental issue across the world. HMs pollution can be geo-genic arises due to the natural processes such as weathering of rocks, leaching, wind erosion, glacial erosion and volcanism or it can be anthropogenic. The anthropogenic source is burning of fossil fuels, mining, smelting, automobile exhaust, nuclear power waste, electroplating processes, excessive use of fertilizers, pesticide and herbicide [1,2]. Commonly found heavy metals lead, zinc, cadmium, arsenic, copper, mercury, chromium, tin, and thorium entered directly or indirectly into the water bodies causing several health problems [3]. HMs is responsible for long-term toxic effect due to its non-biodegradable nature and high bio-accumulation rate in food chains [4-6].

The serious toxicological effects caused by HMIs are nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea, asthma, kidney and liver malfunctioning, weight loss, congenital abnormalities and cancer. Copper, above the permissible level damages gastrointestinal tract as well as anorexia and lethargy [7], cobalt induces kidney congestion and decline thyroid movement [8], zinc produces disruption of iron homeostasis along with neurological disorders [9], nickel is responsible for immunotoxicity, damage epithelial cells of respiratory system and also cause lungs or skin cancer [10] similarly, behavioural disorders, acute malfunction of kidneys, anemia were recognized by cause of lead poisoning [11], cadmium damages testicular tissues and bones, along with carcinogenic nature [12], mercury induces neurological disorders, retard intellectual ability, damage of pulmonary and also cause hyperactivity disorder [13]. The excessive concentration of HMs beyond its permissible limits in drinking water recommended by WHO[14] and USEPA[15], may leads to serious health issues efficient as shown in Table 1 [16-21].

Table 1. Permissible limits of HMs in drinking water as recommended by WHO and USEPA.

Heavy metal	Concentration (ppm)		Ill effect	Ref
	WHO	USEPA		
Hg	0.001	0.002	Impairment of pulmonary and kidney function, chest pain and dyspnea, nervous system damage	[16]
Pb	0.05	0.015	Dysfunction in the kidney, reduced neural development, impair liver and reproductive system, hypertension and brain damage	[17]
Cu	1.5	1.3	Vomiting, diarrhea, stomach cramps, and nausea, or even death.	[18]
Cd	0.005	0.05	High blood pressure, kidney damage, and destruction of testicular tissue, carcinogenic	[12]
Cr	0.05	0.1	Lung cancer, chromate ulcer, nasal septum perforation	[19]
As	0.05	0.01	Lung and skin damage, toxicological and carcinogenic effect, bladder cancer	[20]
Mn	0.5	0.05	Inhalation or contact damages to central system	[21]

Earlier, various physical, chemical and biological methods like chemical precipitation [22], ion-exchange [23], membrane separation [24], coagulation [25], adsorption [26], solvent extraction [27] and electrochemical treatment [28] etc. were already explored to detoxify water. These methods bear certain disadvantages such as consumption of costly chemical reagents, ion exchanger, semi-permeable membrane, large amount sludge formation, secondary pollutant generation and less efficient Table 2 [29-38].

Table 2. Advantages and disadvantages of conventional methods for HMs removal.

Conventional method	Advantages	Disadvantages	Ref.
Precipitation	Practicable to most metals, Low cost, Easy operation	Lower removal efficiency, Sludge generation, Secondary pollution, Concentration of heavy metals	[29]
Ions exchanges	Fast kinetics, High treatment capacity, Excellent selectivity of metal ions, Regenerable materials	High cost due to synthetic resins, Small range of action on metal ions.	[30]
Membrane separation	Resource recovery, High separation selectivity, Small space requirement	Requiring amount pretreatment, Low permeate flux, Pore blocking, Poor antibacterial property, Limited pH range,	[31]
Coagulation	Remove the turbidity in addition to heavy metal removal	Extra operational cost for sludge disposal	[32]
Adsorption	Low cost, Having wide pH range High efficiency, Possibility of regenerating adsorbents, Easy operation Effective and economical method	Limited pH range, Difficult to regenerate materials, Low selectivity, Long equilibrium time	[33]
Photocatalysis	Clean and efficient, Simultaneous removing metals and organic pollutant, Low-toxicity by-products.	High raw materials cost, Small range of action on metal ions, Long duration time	[34], [35]
Fenton like oxidation	Fast and efficient, Significant removal of residual organic chelates, Recovery metals	Low water volume treatment capacity, Vast Fe sludge, High cost, Secondary pollution from addition chemicals	[36]
Electrochemical	Metal selective, No consumption of chemicals	High capital and running cost, Initial solution pH, Current density	[37]
Replacements-co-precipitation	Easy operation, Relativity high efficiency, Make full use of iron-based materials	High chemical consumption, Large quantity of sludge and secondary pollution from release of organic chelates	[38]

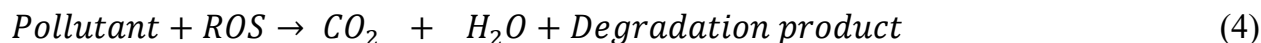
Thusly, removal of HMs through simultaneous photocatalytic reduction and adsorption is more desirable due to cost effectiveness, easy operation, strong redox ability, green technologies and wide applicability which especially reduce the cost of water treatment. Firstly, TiO₂ photocatalyst a semiconducting material reported by Fujishima and Honda in 1972s utilized for water splitting [39]. Consequently, different semiconductors were originated and exploits for various photocatalytic activity because of eco-friendly nature. Photocatalysis is a promising advanced oxidation process displaying tremendous potential in reducing toxic heavy metal ions into less toxic metal ion and smashing various other pollutants that showed versatile nature of semiconducting material [40]. Generation of strong oxidative species can synergistically degrade organic pollutant and reduce noxious metal ions through photocatalytic reaction. Besides, water purification photocatalysis has been actively employed in water splitting, CO₂ reduction, disinfection process and organic synthesis.

Here, in this book chapter we have summarized the basic principle of photocatalysis with recent emerging direct Z-scheme migration pathway of charge carrier. Different type of single, dual, trinary and quaternary photocatalytic nanohybrids obeying conventional type-II, Z-scheme or dual Z-scheme migratory pathway of electron-hole pair were discussed. Subsequently, various nanocomposites exploited for adsorptional removal with its mechanism were also investigated. We believe that this extensive study on photocatalytic and adsorptional removal of HMs will be beneficial for the researchers and beginners to carry out their research a one step ahead from what reported previously in the literature. Lastly, conclusion and future perspectives were discussed in detail.

2. Fundamental principle of photocatalysis

The basic photocatalytic mechanism occurs in three steps where oxidation and reduction were induced on photocatalyst surface sensitized by solar light. Firstly, generation of charger carrier occurs on exposure to light possessing energy higher or equal to band gap of semiconductor. Secondly, migration of generated electron-hole pair arises on the surface of semiconductor where, electron jumps from valence band to the conduction band of photocatalyst. Thirdly, photogenerated holes oxidizes H₂O molecule to produce hydroxyl radicals ([•]OH) in the valence band and electrons reduces the O₂ molecule to form superoxide radical anion (O₂^{•-}) in the conduction band, respectively as shown below in equation (1-4) [41].





Among the various strategies applied to intensify photocatalytic efficiency, fabrication of heterojunction is a promising alternative magnetizing the interest of researchers across the world. Basically, heterojunction describe as the two semiconductors having different band alignment at the interface. Depending upon the band edge potential of semiconductor, conventional heterojunction was classified into three categories namely: straddling (type-I), staggered (type-II) and broken gap (type-III) as shown in (Fig. 1). In straddling type the CB and VB edges of SCI aligned higher and lower than the corresponding bands of SCII. Consequently, both charge carriers migrate towards SCII surface results in excessive accumulation of electron-hole pair which increases the probability of recombination. Also, both the oxidation and reduction reaction take place on SCII surface bearing lower redox potential will abate the potency of photocatalyst. For staggered heterojunction, CB and VB edges of SCI are higher than the SCII respectively. Thus, electrons will drift from SCI to SCII surface and holes form SCII to SCI due to suitable band alignment resulting in excellent charge separation. The reduction reaction occurs on the SCII with lower CB edge potential and oxidation reaction occur on SCI with lower VB edge potential which is analogous to straddling heterojunction. Therefore, type-II heterojunction also possess lower redox ability. However, in type-III heterojunction band edge potential become so extreme and impaired that the charge migration and separation altogether not possible. In these heterojunction staggered gap is more efficient though certain limitation such as occurrence of redox reaction on semiconductor with lower redox potential and electrostatic repulsion between electron-electron and holes-holes prevent its further migration which bounds its broader utilization.

To maximize the use of higher redox potential and to minimize the electrostatic repulsion in conventional type-II heterojunction, Bard et al. in 1979 come up with the concept of Z-scheme heterojunction where, path of charge migration is similar to letter “Z” [42]. The Z-scheme heterojunction evolves from 1st generation proposed in 1979 to 3rd generation in 2013. The 1st generation Z-scheme also called as conventional Z-scheme or liquid-phase Z-scheme in which two semiconductors are not in direct contact with each other.

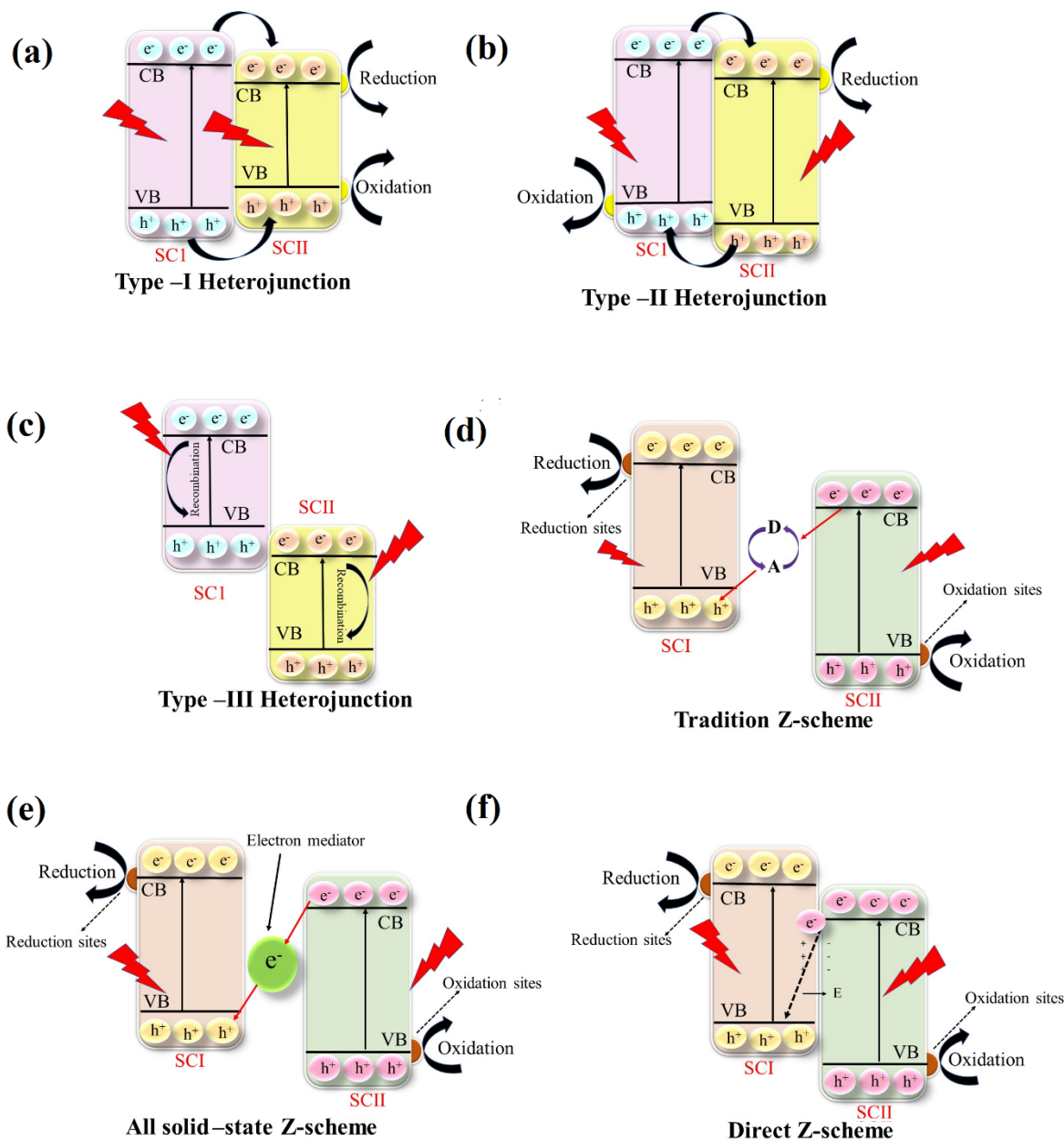


Figure 1: Schematic illustration of the (a) typical type-I heterojunction and (b) type-II (conventional heterojunction (c) type-III heterojunction (d) traditional Z-scheme (e) all solid-state Z-scheme (f) direct Z-Scheme.

The electron migrates from CB of SCII to VB of SCI via acceptor-donor (A/D) pairs where, acceptor is reduced to donor by electron of SCII and donor is oxidized back to acceptor by photogenerated holes of SCI, respectively. Thus, redox reaction is carried out by SCI and SCII with higher reduction and oxidation potential. Such migration limits the rate of

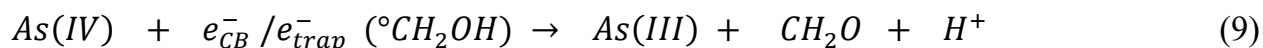
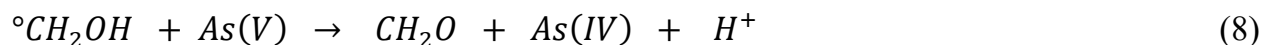
recombination of charge carrier and maintain the redox ability of semiconductor with high potential. However, their fabrication is limited to liquid phase which creates barrier on its wider application. The 2nd generation or all-solid-state Z-scheme was proposed in 2006 by Tada et al., where, the two photosystems are assembled with solid electron mediator such as Pt, Au and Ag [43]. All-solid-state Z-scheme can be applied to solid, liquid and gaseous phase however, high cost of electron mediator limits its usage. The 3rd generation or direct Z-scheme involves the combination of two photocatalyst without mediator was put forward in 2013 by Yu et al. which reduces the fabrication cost [44]. The band alignment in direct Z-scheme is similar to that of type-II heterojunction but differ in charge migration that is physically more favourable due to electrostatic attraction between electrons of SCII and holes of SCI whereas, in conventional heterojunction excessive accumulation of electron in the CB of SCII further cease the electron migration from CB of SCI due to electrostatic repulsion. Moreover, direct Z-scheme also maintain the redox ability of semiconductor with higher reduction and oxidation potential also the band potential can be reform easily according to different photocatalytic reactions. Further, ternary system displaying dual Z-scheme is another route offering immense charge separation with enhanced photo-efficiency and substantial amount of ROS generated on the surface. Since, great achievement in HMs removal have been attained by the various researchers therefore it is more significant to sum up recent achievement and challenges experienced in this filed.

3. Nanohybrids for photocatalytic removal of heavy metals

3.1 Single system

The various conventional metal oxide based photocatalytic material such as TiO₂, ZnO, CuO, CdS, and V₂O₅ etc. were applied to remove inorganic and organic pollutant present in water. Among these TiO₂ and ZnO are largely explored for its photocatalytic activity due to low-cost, non-toxicity and abundance [45, 46]. Arsenate photo-catalytically reduced to arsenite with TiO₂ in the presence of hole scavenger so as to avoid recombination of photogenerated charge carrier [47]. Though, the direct reduction of arsenate with TiO₂ is thermodynamically not favourable because of the reduction potential value of As(V)/As(IV) is -1.2 V more negative than the CB potential -0.3 V of TiO₂. Therefore, indirect reduction using sacrificial electron donor methanol forming hydroxymethyl radical (°CH₂OH) a strong reducing agent possessing 1.4 V reduction potential is now capable of reducing arsenate. Consequently, the reduction process can be elaborated by following equations.





Nearly, complete elimination of Cu (II) were reported under UV light which is just comprise of 5% of solar spectrum. The Cr (II), Ni (II), Ag (I), Cd (II), Mn (II), Cu (II) and Pb (II) ions were eliminated in the presence UV or visible light using ZnO nanoparticle synthesized by solid precipitation method [46]. The removal efficiency in the presence of UV light is more than 85% for Cu (II), Pb (II) and Ag(I) metal ions. The wide band gap of conventional semiconductor restricts their practical implication.

Recently, innovative idea of converting toxic heavy metals into a photocatalyst employed for the photodegradation of methylene blue [48]. The steel slag derived calcium silicate hydrate with hierarchical structure and amorphous nature prepared by alkali activation method display outstanding adsorption capacity towards metals. On the surface of calcium silicate hydrate HMs transform into its hydroxide that is responsible for red shift in the absorption edge thus photocatalyst become visible light active. On performing scavenger experiment holes and hydroxyl radical appears to be main active species and the small degradation of organic pollutant were observed when EDTA or IPA is added (Fig 2a). The feasible photocatalytic mechanism of bare and metal coated calcium silicate hydrate is shown in Fig. 2b) indicating holes is responsible for the degradation.

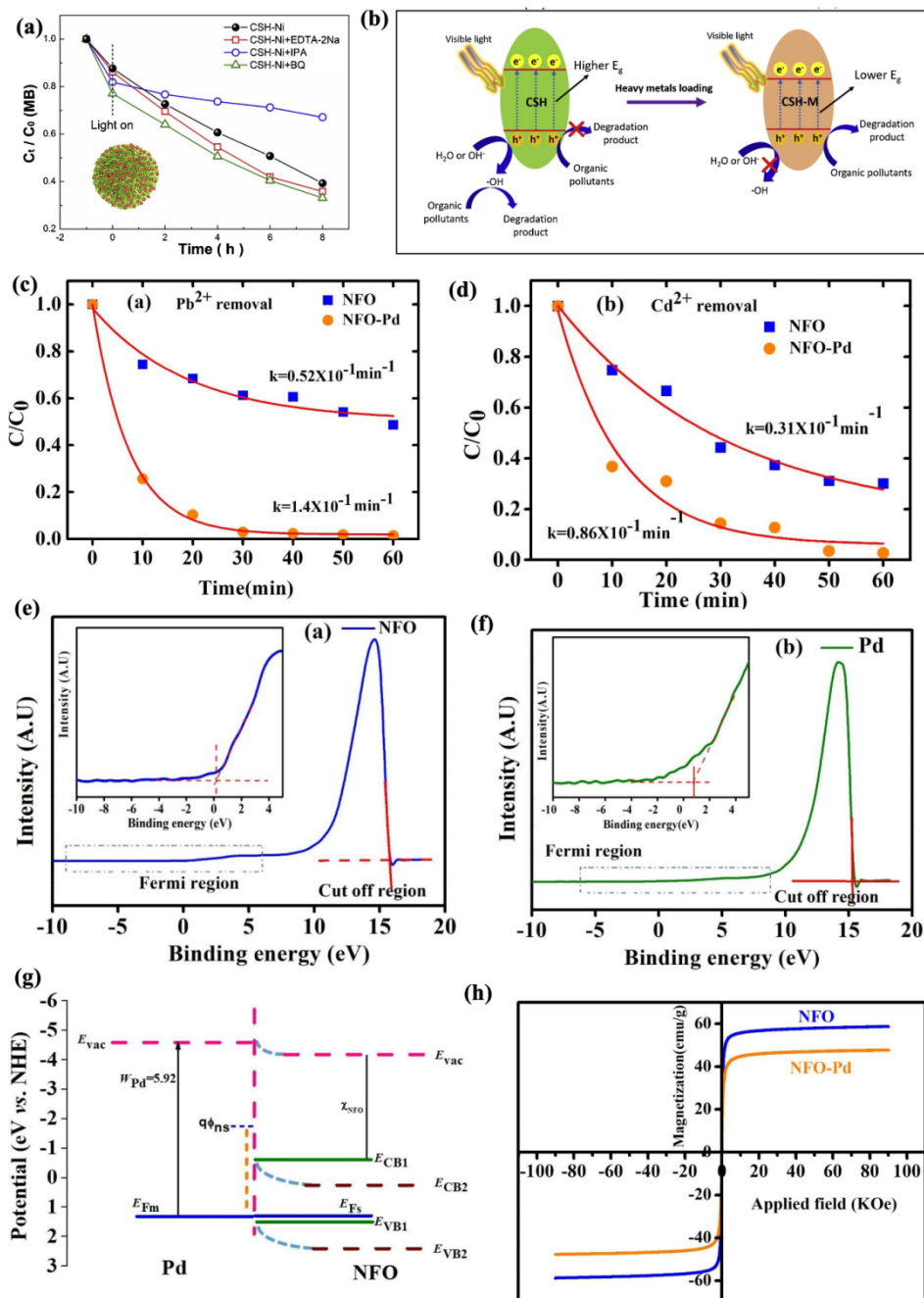


Figure 2. (a) Photocatalytic degradation of MB in the presence of various radical scavengers by CSH-Ni. (b) Possible photocatalytic mechanism of CSH and CSH-M ($M = \text{Cu, Ni, and Zn}$) under visible light. (c,d) Analysis of photocatalytic reduction of (c) Pb^{2+} (d) Cd^{2+} heavy metal impurity using NFO and NFO-Pd nanoparticles. (e, f) Ultraviolet photoemission spectroscopy (UPS) spectra of (e) NFO and (f) Pd nanoparticles. (g) The formation of Schottky barrier in the nanohybrid after contact between NFO semiconductor and Pd metal derived based on the UPS analysis. (h) Magnetic hysteresis plots suggesting superparamagnetic [48,49].

The photocatalytic activity of bare photocatalysts can be enhanced by Fermi level modification. For instance, NiFe₂O₄ narrow band gap semiconductor with superior magnetic property synthesized by solvothermal method employed for Pb²⁺ and Cd²⁺ removal [49]. The rate constant of Pd-NiFe₂O₄ for Pb²⁺ and Cd²⁺ is 1.4 X 10⁻¹ min⁻¹ and 0.86 X 10⁻¹ min⁻¹, respectively (Fig 2c and d). NiFe₂O₄ chemically bonded to Pd by surface modifier 3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane undergo autocatalysis process due to the presence of amino groups. The band structure and alignment of Pd-NiFe₂O₄ were studied by ultraviolet photoemission spectroscopy Fig 2e and f. The work function calculated for NiFe₂O₄ and Pd using following equation is 5.28 eV and 5.92 eV, respectively.

$$W = h\nu - (E_{cut-off} - E_F) \quad (10)$$

From the Fermi edge region in UPS spectrum, the calculated ($E_{cut-off} - E_F$) value for NiFe₂O₄ and Pd is 0.18 and 0.742 eV. The electron affinity of NiFe₂O₄ and Pd is 3.22 and 6.66 eV as calculated using below equation where, 0.187 and 0.742 eV were estimated value of ($E_F - E_{VB}$).

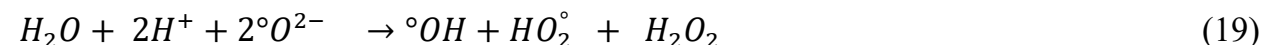
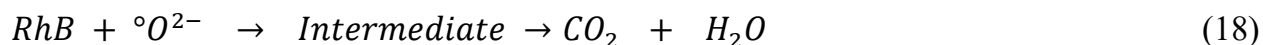
$$X = W + (E_F - E_{VB}) - E_g \quad (11)$$

Accordingly, schottky barrier establish between NiFe₂O₄ and Pd after contact is shown in Fig 2g. Further, magnetic hysteresis loop of Pd-NiFe₂O₄ suggest superparamagnetic nature of photocatalysts responsible for facile magnetic separation from aqueous suspension (Fig 2h). The bare semiconductor has wide band gap, undergo photo corrosion and agglomerate easily. Thus, the immobilization of nanoparticles onto certain stable, low-cost supportive material with large surface area and superior recycling efficiency is highly desirable to construct systematic nanohybrids. Though, photocatalysts can be immobilized over planar surface of glass and ceramics yet poor charge transfer restricts its wider application. Moreover, to enhance the photo-response various strategies of doping with metal, non-metal, noble metal and constructing heterojunction were put together. Among which heterojunction formation is highly in trend to increasing charge carrier separation.

3.2 Dual system

Keeping in view the various limitation of single photocatalytic system, various research groups have constructed dual system to promote photo-efficiency. Li and co-workers investigated TiO₂-graphene hydrogel with three-dimensional (3D) network structure which exhibited outstanding adsorption-photocatalysis activity and removed 100% Cr (VI) from

wastewater within 30 min in the presence of UV light [50]. Nearly, 66.32 and 88.96% of Cd^{2+} and Pb^{2+} ions are removed using TiO_2/GO prepared by hummers, hydrothermal and freeze-drying method (Fig. 3a) [51]. From BET analysis $128.41 \text{ m}^2\text{g}^{-1}$ surface area was calculated for TiO_2/GO as compared to bare TiO_2 which is just $59.51 \text{ m}^2\text{g}^{-1}$. The photocatalytic mechanism of e^-/h^+ pair's generation also reduction and oxidation process of heavy metals on CB and VB of TiO_2/GO surface are shown in (Fig. 3b). In the CB of nanohybrid O_2 is reduced to ${}^\circ\text{O}_2^-$ anion and Cd^{2+} and Pb^{2+} reduced to Cd and Pb, respectively. On the same time holes in the VB produces ${}^\circ\text{OH}$ radical which oxidizes Pb^{2+} to Pb^{4+} and precipitate out it in the form of PbO_2 . Wang et al. prepared magnetically recyclable $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4@\text{Fe}^0\text{-rGO}$ composite using vitamin C and KBH_4 as reducing agent (Fig. 3c) [52]. The mechanism of elimination of rhodamine-B dye and hexavalent chromium ion under visible light is shown in (Fig. 3d) and also explained by the equation 12 to 25. The higher surface area of composite provides large adsorption sites to capture e^- for elimination of heavy metal and dye. The quenching experiment reveals the major role of nano Fe^0 and ${}^\circ\text{OH}$ for the removal of rhodamine-B and Cr (VI).



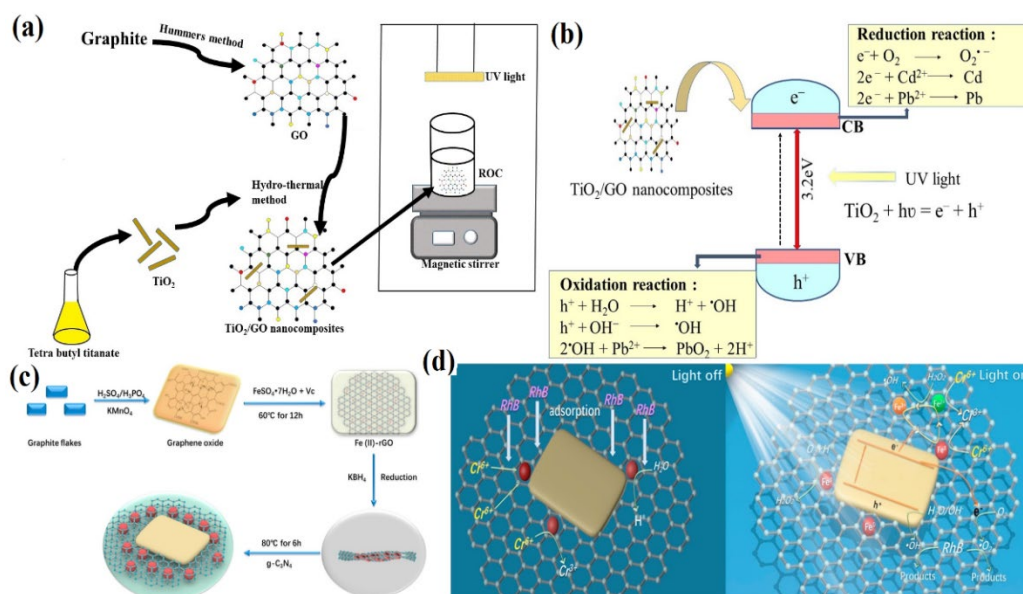
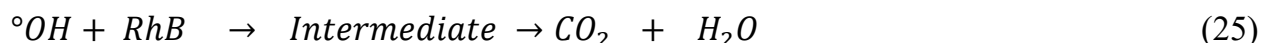
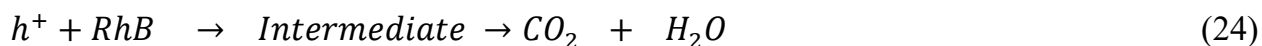


Figure 3. (a) The synthesis route of TiO_2/GO nanocomposites and photocatalytic experiments. (b) Schematic diagram of the charge transfer and separation in the TiO_2/GO nanocomposites under UV light irradiation and the main steps to reduce heavy metal ions. (c) Schematic illustration of synthesis of $g-C_3N_4@Fe^0-rGO$. (d) Proposed mechanism for the synergistic removal of RhB and $Cr(VI)$ on $g-C_3N_4@Fe^0-rGO$ photocatalyst [51,52].

The most acid stable CdS/TiO₂ heterojunction was reported capable of removing Cr (VI) in strong acidic conditions at pH=2.0–7.0 [53]. The detailed synthesis of CdS/TiO₂ is elaborated in (Fig 4a) where, HPC stands for hydroxypropyl cellulose, CAR-d represents CdS, anatase, rutile complex and d indicate ratio of Cd/Ti.

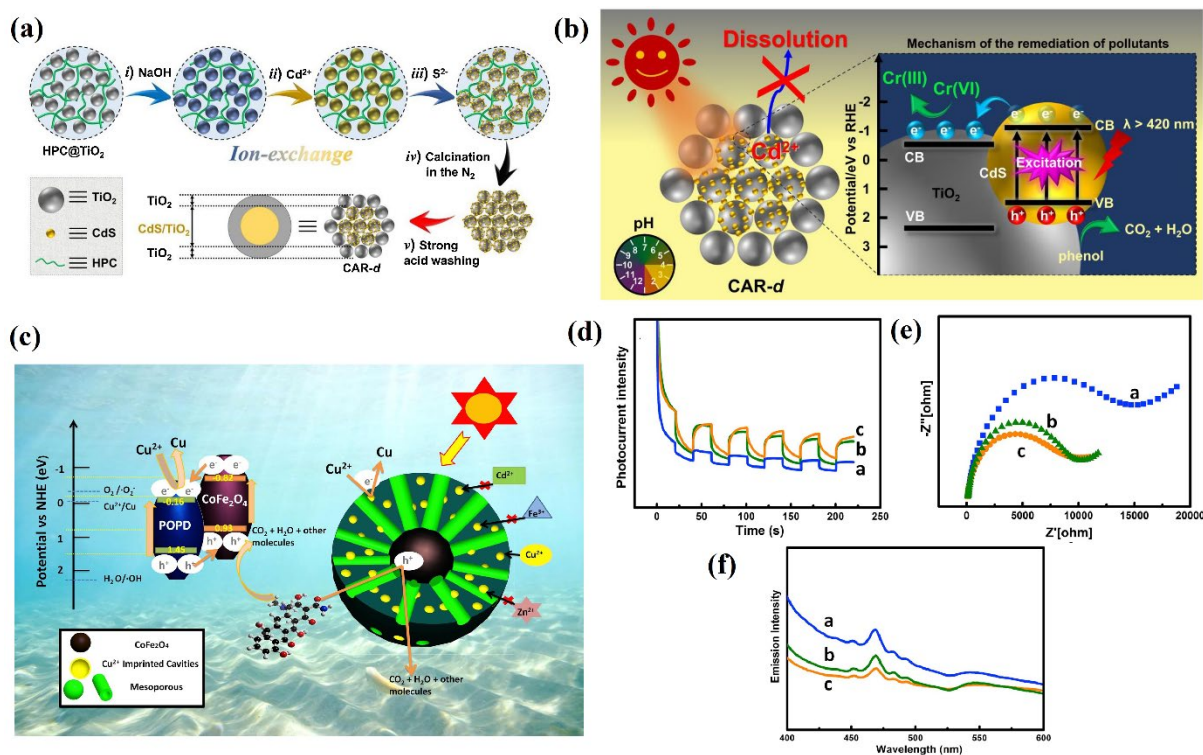


Figure 4. (a) Scheme of the synthetic process of the raspberry-like CAR-d using the ion-exchange strategy. (b) Mechanism of photocatalytic reduction of metal ions and oxidation of phenol under a strong acid condition. (c) Proposed selective reduction and photocatalytic degradation mechanism of the magnetic ion imprinted heterojunction photocatalyst. Transient photocurrent response (d), Nyquist plots of EIS (e) and PL (f) of CoFe₂O₄ [53,54].

Besides of expedite of charge separation, loading CdS to the bulk TiO₂ also prevents photochemical corrosion or dissolution of CdS nanoparticles (Fig 4b). The magnetically separable polyo-phenylenediamine/CoFe₂O₄ nano hybrids with good stability, active charge separation and recyclability were successfully prepared by microwave-assisted ion imprinted method [54]. The imprinted cavity of Cu²⁺ ion enhance the selective reduction of Cu²⁺ ion over Cd²⁺, Fe²⁺ and Zn²⁺ on magnetic ion imprinted photocatalytic surface as displayed in (Fig 4c). According to the estimated position of band potential, migration pathway of electrons is from CB of CoFe₂O₄ to the CB of polyo-phenylenediamine and

holes transfer from VB of polyo-phenylenediamine to VB of CoFe_2O_4 . The separation of charge carrier further affirmed by better photocurrent response, minimum impedance in electrochemical impedance spectra, and lowest photoluminescence peak intensity for magnetic ion imprinted nanohybrids (Fig 4d, e and f). Gd_2O_3 modified CeO_2 nanoparticle creating p-n type heterojunction synthesized by solid state reaction eliminate Pb^{2+} ions by photoelectron-deposition method [55]. Similarly, 0.7 gL^{-1} CuO/ZnO eliminate 30 gL^{-1} of As (III) in 10 h irradiation of UV light at neutral pH [56].

In another work $\text{ZnO/Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ a type-II heterojunction reported in which photocatalytic mechanism involves the reduction of heavy metals at the CB of Fe_2O_3 (Fig 5a) [57]. The composites photo-reduces 88% of Cr (VI) in 90 min whereas, 100 % reduction were observed in 45 min when tartaric acid is used a sacrificial agent (Fig 5b). Further, after reduction experiment the recovered sample were analyzed using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy the spectra clearly indicate two peak of Cr (III) at binding energy 576.9 and 586.5 eV assigned to $2p_{3/2}$ and $2p_{1/2}$, respectively (Fig 5c). The various conventional nanohybrids functioning via type-II mechanism of charge migration bears limitation. Newly emerging Z-scheme heterojunction is highly in trend nowadays among scientist and continuously employed in various applications. Recently, $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ heterojunction prepared by growing nano-cubes of Co_3O_4 on 2D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheet via hydrothermal method almost reduces 81% of Cr^{+6} into Cr^{+3} [58]. The valence band XPS spectra indicate the position of Fermi level of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and Co_3O_4 at 1.2 eV and 0.6 eV, respectively (Fig 5d and e). Additionally, Fermi level of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and Co_3O_4 is 5.0 and -.4 eV/AVS as explicit by CASTEP code (Fig 5f and g). Based on both the results VB edges of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and Co_3O_4 is -6.2 and -7.0 eV whereas, the calculated band gap is 2.8 and 2.1 eV, respectively. Apparently, the suggest photocatalytic mechanism for $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ heterojunction operating via Z-scheme is given in Fig 5h.

Constructing Z-scheme nanohybrids is an ideal way to develop highly efficient photocatalyst to treat water pollution. $\text{Ag}_x\text{H}_{3-x}\text{PMo}_{12}\text{O}_{40}/\text{Ag/g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ a 1D//2D Z-scheme nanomaterial prepared by self-assembly method is highly efficient for the reduction of Cr (VI) and photodegradation of methylene orange and tetracycline under visible light [59]. The distinctive band structure, appropriate band gap of 2.7 eV, superior chemical and thermal stability and eco-friendly nature of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ make it suitable candidate for constructing Z-scheme heterojunction. Further, Ag loading between the two assemblies direct the electron to recombine from CB of $\text{Ag}_x\text{H}_{3-x}\text{PMo}_{12}\text{O}_{40}$ to VB of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ thereby maintains the charge separation process more accurately. Similarly, BiOCl-Ag-AgBr running through Z-scheme mechanism where Ag displayed surface plasmon resonance effect producing negatively charged electrons and positively charged holes on its surface. On photo-excitation electron in the CB of BiOCl migrates to Ag and recombine with

surface plasmon resonance induced holes. On the same time holes from VB of AgBr recombine with surface plasmon resonance induced electron on Ag. Apart from this oxygen vacancy, local surface plasmon resonance and presence of iodine ions are also some off the effective strategy to enhance photo-efficiency [60]. The oxygen vacancy generated by loss of oxygen atom assist in generating more ROS by activating molecular oxygen and also acts as an electron capturing sites. Not only this, but it also creates local surface plasmon resonance that can inject electrons to promote charge transfer.

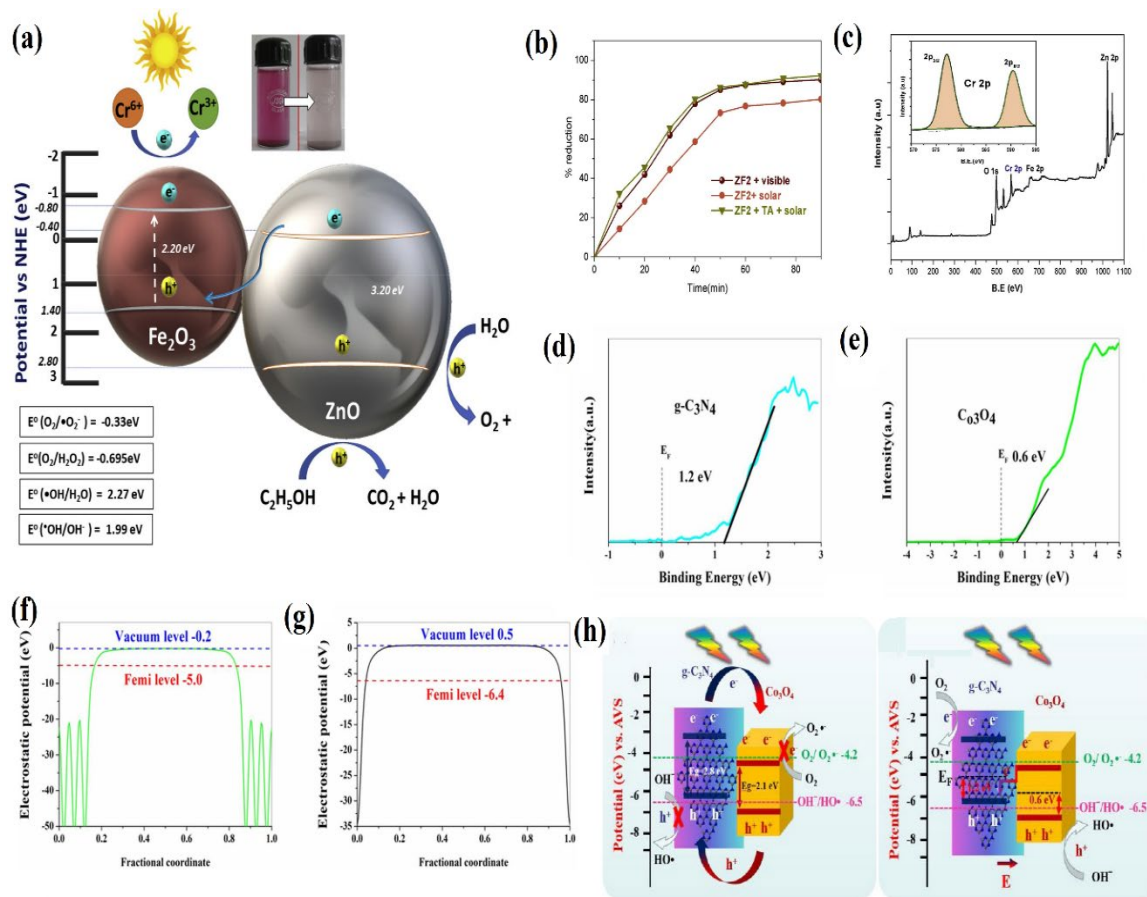


Figure 5. (a) ZF2 heterojunction showing movement of charge carriers and mechanism for Cr(VI) reduction. (b) The extent of photo-reduction of Cr(VI) under solar light with ZF2 (c) XPS survey scan and Cr 2p spectrum (Inset) of unused ZF2 before final recovery (ZF2 + visible + TA system). VB-XPS spectra of the (d) g-C₃N₄ and (e) Co₃O₄. The Fermi level E_F is located at $E = 0$ eV, as marked by the vertical dotted line. The work function of (f) gC₃N₄, and (g) Co₃O₄. (h) Proposed type-II staggered band alignment of Co₃O₄/g-C₃N₄ and photocatalysis enhancement mechanism of the Z-scheme Co₃O₄/g-C₃N₄ [57,58].

3.3 Ternary system

By combining different photocatalysts with individual inherent advantages and to achieve much higher photo efficient, stability, and larger surface area ternary system were constructed. Hou and co-workers reported photocatalytic reduction of Cr (VI) in the presence of Ag/TiO₂/rGO [61]. Ag loading on TiO₂ reduces the rate of recombination and also assist in the reduction of Cr (VI) to Cr (III) ion. On the same time superoxide radical anion and hydroxyl radical generated at the CB and VB of TiO₂ oxidizes tetracycline into CO₂ and H₂O. The pH of reaction solutions plays a vital role in adsorption and degradation as it not only affects the surface charge on photocatalysts but also affect the ionic state of organic pollutant. The zero-point charge of Ag/TiO₂/rGO is in the range of $pH_{pzc} = 5-6$ therefore when $pH < 5$ photocatalysts surface is positively charged whereas $pH > 6$ surface becomes negatively charges. Moreover, adsorption of Cr (VI) increases with the decrease in pH as positively charged surface of photocatalyst can easily attract negatively charged Cr₂O₇²⁻ ions via electrostatic interaction. Li and co-worker reported Ag@TiON/CoAl-LDH prepared by dark-deposition method exhibit catalytic memory effect with increased performance [62]. The phenomena of retaining catalytic activity for a short period of time even when the light is turned off are called catalytic memory effect. Even certain noble metals such as Ag and Au also demonstrate electron storage properties. Also, broad range absorption, presence of surface hydroxyl group, tunable chemical compositions etc. are some of the advantages associated with 2D layered materials. Further, nitrogen doping in TiO₂ is done to generate oxygen vacancies and to extend visible light absorption. Keeping in view the above advantages Ag@TiON/CoAl-LDH is constructed that reduces 61% of Cr (VI) and degraded 94% methyl orange. To check the catalytic memory effect, photodegradation experiment performed in dark where, excess of electrons entrapped by Ag under light illumination was discharged in dark to various electron acceptors to subsequently generate active free radicals thus maintaining round-the-clock photodegradation. Further, new strategy by combining homogeneous and heterogeneous a multiphase catalytic system was devised to simultaneously remove organic pollutant and heavy metals. In hierarchical 3D Ag/ZnO@carbon foam porous photocatalysts where, Ag used as co-catalysts to smoothen charge separation process indicative of heterogeneous catalysis [63].

Besides, the formation of phenol-chromate (VI) ester intermediates via ligand to metal i.e. benzene ring to Cr (VI) charge transfer process represent homogeneous catalysis as shown in (Fig 6a). DFT calculation were performed to understand the intermolecular interaction between highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) and lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) of ester intermediate formed. As shown in (Fig 6b and c) benzene ring and chromium ion contributes for HOMO and LUMO of phenol-chromate (VI) ester,

respectively where the central Cr (VI) reduced to Cr (III) and phenol oxidizes to innocuous substances. Apart from electrons, superoxide radical also reduces Cr (VI) ion and the generation of OH^\bullet and $^\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ were further confirmed by ESR technique (Fig 6d and e).

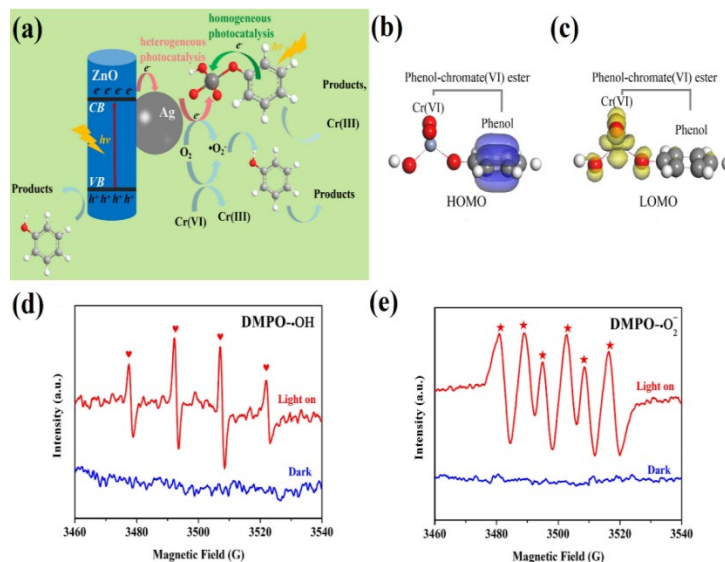


Figure 6. (a) Schematic diagrams for the possible mechanism of simultaneous heterogeneous and homogeneous catalysis for efficient removal of phenol and Cr (VI) over 2.0Ag/ZnO@CF under full arc light irradiation. The charge densities of the (b) HOMO, (c) LUMO of the phenol-chromate (VI) ester. ESR spectra of (d) DMPO-OH and (e) DMPO- $^\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ adducts in aqueous and methanol solution [63].

TiO₂/g-C₃N₄/rGO ternary nanohybrids assembled by hydrothermal methods own large surface area, huge photoactive sites, low fluorescence intensity; enhance visible light absorption and photocurrent intensity [64]. The superior photo-catalytic activity of nanocomposites was witnessed reducing 90% of Cr (VI) to Cr (III) in 4h. TiO₂ nanoparticles evenly dispersed over g-C₃N₄ and rGO surface preventing its leaching and agglomeration (Fig 7a). MoS₂/ZnS/ZnO fabricated by hydrothermal method possesses 27 m²g⁻¹ of surface area and ample of active sites exhibit remarkable reduction and adsorption ability for Cr(VI) and rhodamine B [65]. The dual-II heterojunction degraded 98.7% of Cr(VI) in 90 min and scavenging experiment reveals h^+ and $^\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ are the major active species for rhodamine B degradation. The photocatalytic mechanism involves the shifting of electron from CB of MoS₂ and ZnS to the CB of ZnO after irradiation this electron reduces Cr (VI) as well as assist for the generation of $^\bullet\text{O}_2^-$ (Fig 7b). Another ternary BiVO₄/FeVO₄@rGO heterojunction creating nano-channels at interfacial junction was constructed with suitable band alignment for directional charge transfer (Fig 7c) [66]. The

2D rGO provides ample of active sites, large surface area and superb electrical conductivity whereas, BiVO₄ and FeVO₄ visible light driven narrow band gap semiconductor with excellent stability. Ternary heterojunction is employed for the oxidation of tetracycline and reduction of Cr (VI) and ESR measurement clearly depicts h⁺ and °O₂⁻ are the main active species for the photodegradation of tetracycline and electron for the reduction of Cr (VI). Movement of electron-hole pair completely depend upon band alignment, the flat potential of BiVO₄ and FeVO₄ calculated by Mott-Schottky diagram (Fig 7d and e). The CB potential of BiVO₄ and FeVO₄ are -0.57 and -0.64 eV relative to Ag/AgCl which is equivalent to -0.37 and -0.44 eV of NHE at pH 7. Using equation E_{VB} = E_{CB} + E_g, the VB potential comes out to be 2.09 and 1.53 eV for BiVO₄ and FeVO₄, respectively.

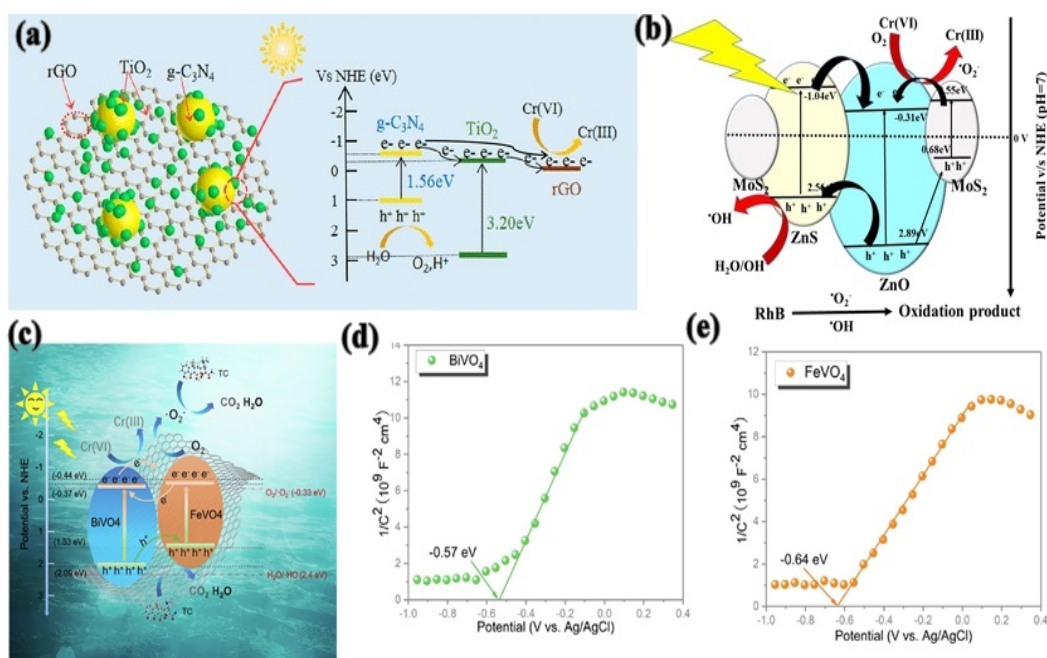


Figure 7. (a) Mechanism diagram of photocatalytic removal of Cr(VI) in T-CNS-G system. (b) Schematic illustration of photodegradation RhB and Cr (VI) over the MZ2 photocatalyst under Xe lamp irradiation. (c) Possible photocatalytic mechanism scheme of BVO/FVO@rGO under visible-light irradiation. Mott-Schottky plots of (d) BiVO₄ and (e) FeVO₄ [64,65,66].

HPW₁₂/CN@Bi₂WO₆ organic-inorganic nanocomposite synthesized via one-step hydrothermal method exhibit high photocatalytic reduction and oxidation capability towards Cr⁶⁺ and tetracycline under visible-light irradiation as compared to bare component [67]. The large surface area and pore size of HPW₁₂/CN@Bi₂WO₆ responsible for higher adsorption of Cr⁶⁺ and tetracycline. Nearly, 98.7% and 97.5% of metal ion and

antibiotic were removed under 90 and 100 min of irradiation (Fig 8a and b). The degradation kinetic for of Cr^{6+} and tetracycline reveals pseudo first-order reactions (Fig. 8c and d). The possible photocatalytic mechanism where the electron-hole pair's generated on Bi_2WO_6 and HPW_{12} surface under visible light shown in (Fig. 8e). Since the CB edges of both Bi_2WO_6 and HPW_{12} is more positive than O_2/O_2^- (-0.33 V) it will not generate O_2^- anion. The conjugated organic CN is an excellent electron capturing materials and immediately transfer electrons from CB of Bi_2WO_6 to VB of HPW_{12} enhancing the charge separation process. On the same time electrons in the CB of HPW_{12} also migrates to CN which is thus participating in reduction process while holes in the VB of Bi_2WO_6 contributes for oxidation.

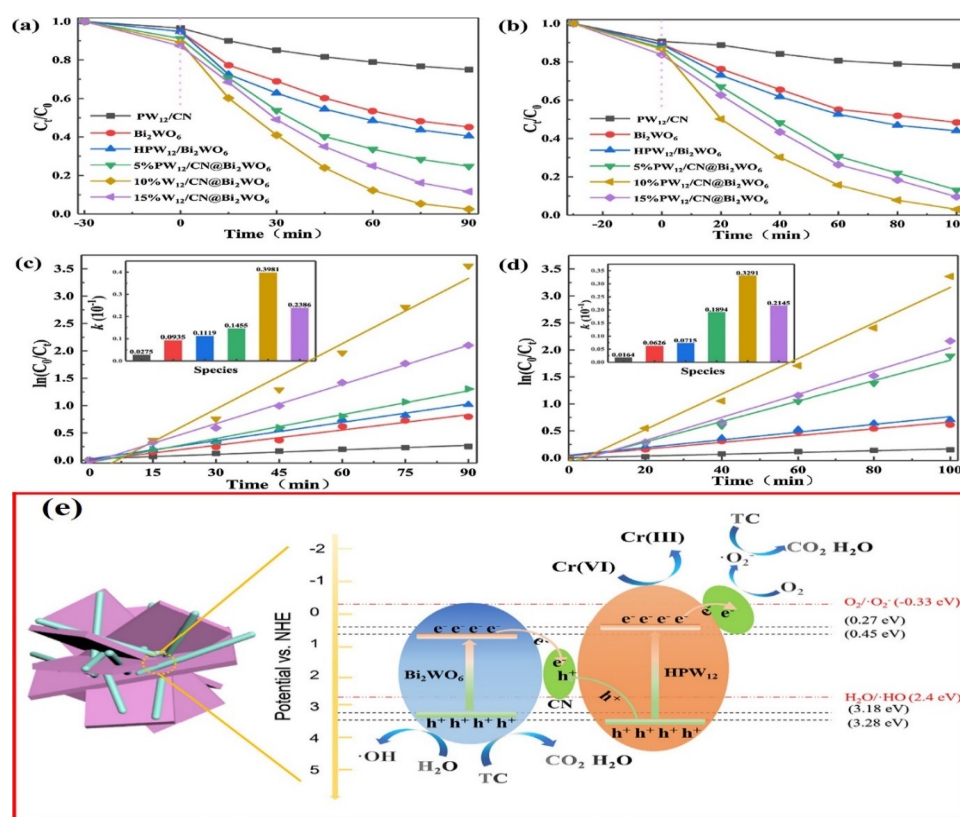


Figure 8. (a) Photodegradation performance of Cr (VI) (b) Tetracycline under visible light irradiation; (c) Kinetic linear fitting curves of Cr (VI) (d) TC and corresponding apparent rate constants (k) as insets; (e) Possible photocatalytic mechanism scheme of $\text{PW}_{12}/\text{CN}@/\text{Bi}_2\text{WO}_6$ under visible-light irradiation (Reproduced from Ref. 204, with permission from Separation and Purification Technology) [67].

BiOIO₃/C500/MoS₂ all solid-state Z-scheme heterostructure synthesized by sol-gel and hydrothermal method where C500 provide channels for the electron in the CB of BiOIO₃ to recombine with the holes in the VB of MoS₂ [68]. The mechanism of charge migration on the surface of heterojunction is shown in (Fig 9a). The band bending of BiOIO₃ and MoS₂ at the interface is displayed in (Fig 9b). Firstly, electron diffuses from BiOIO₃ surface with larger work function of 5.8 eV towards MoS₂ having smaller work function of 5.2 eV, respectively. The electron diffusion creates surface charge layer generating internal electric field at the interface. The diffusion of electrons continues till the Fermi level equilibrates by shifting upward in BiOIO₃ and downward MoS₂ forming Z-scheme heterojunction after contact. This causes downward bending of CB and VB edges in BiOIO₃ and upward bending of CB and VB edges in MoS₂. (In Fig 9c), the CB of MoS₂ -0.29 eV is more negative as compared to °O₂⁻ potential -0.28 eV whereas, VB potential of BiOIO₃ is 3.51 eV more positive than °OH potential of 2.2 eV, respectively. Both °OH and °O₂⁻ generated in the VB of BiOIO₃ and CB MoS₂ oxidizes 78.32% of Hg⁰ to HgO. The mechanism was further assisted by performing scavenger experiments and ESR techniques. In comparison to conventional type-II heterojunction, Z-scheme based heterojunction is more efficient in terms of accelerating the charge carrier separation and also maintaining the strong redox ability of individual photocatalysts [69].

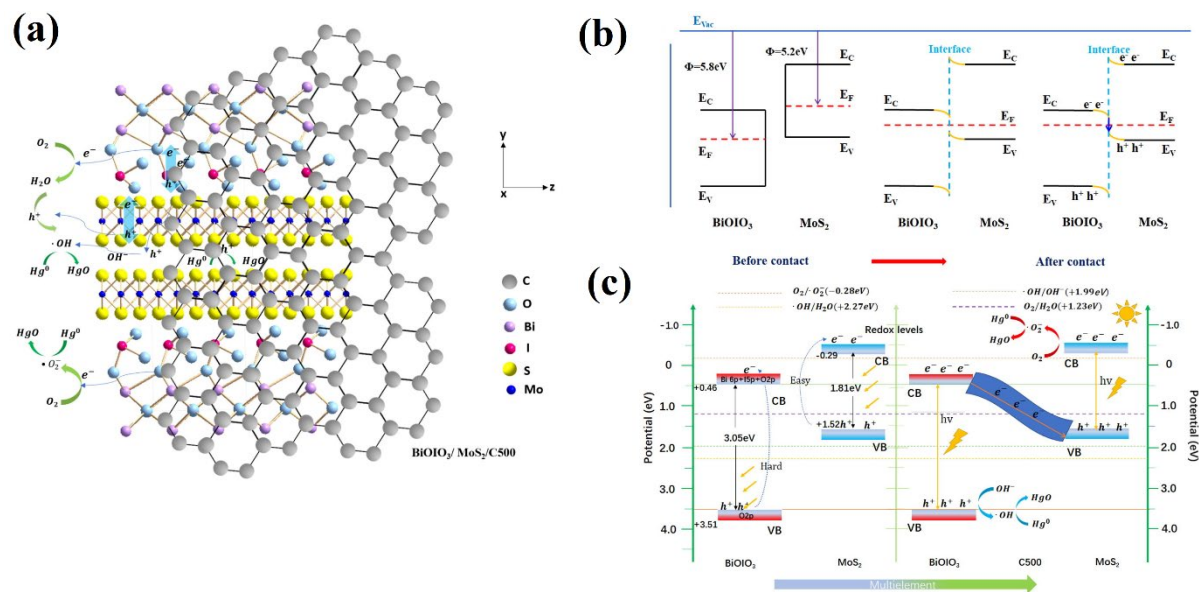


Figure 9. (a) A schematic diagram of BiOIO₃/MoS₂/C500; (b) The band bending diagram and electron transfer at interface of BiOIO₃ and MoS₂ (c) Photocatalytic mechanism diagram [68].

A multi-component layered double hydroxide based heterostructure $\text{Ag}@Ag_3PO_4/g-C_3N_4/NiFe$ were formed by in-situ photoreduction and self-assembly by electrostatic attraction [70]. The quasi-type-II heterojunction photo-catalytically reduced 97% hexavalent chromium in 2 h. The surface plasmon resonance effect of Ag nanoparticles and surface defects on layered material created by oxygen vacancy hastens the charge transfer. Further, the formation of Schottky barrier at the interface of quasi-type-II heterojunction was evident by much spectroscopic technique. Another multicomponent system synthesized by hydrothermal method in which carbon quantum dot is decorated over $CeO_2/g-C_3N_4/V_2O_5$ operating through dual Z-scheme mechanism (Fig 10a) [71]. The multicomponent system avails up-conversion phenomena of carbon quantum dots, broad absorption range, large charge separation, operates via two-channel charge transfer. Nearly 99% of Cr (VI) is reduced in 100 min without using sacrificial agent whereas complete reduction is accomplished in 30 min when 10^{-4} mol of tartaric acid as hole scavenger is used as shown in (Fig 10b and c). Tartaric acid retains all the electron free and oxidized itself by scavenging holes. The complete reduction of Cr (VI) into Cr (III) is confirmed by XPS showing the presence of trivalent chromium in the survey scan performed after reduction test (Fig 10 d and e).

On further simplification two peak of Cr (III) at 576.9 and 586.5 eV were obtained assigned to $2p_{3/2}$ and $2p_{1/2}$, respectively. The broad spectrum response of carbon quantum dot decorated $CeO_2/g-C_3N_4/V_2O_5$ is due to the red shift accounts for lowering of band gap. Further, two-channel charge transfer mechanism, oxygen vacancies on carbon quantum dots and induced defects of photocatalyst surface by carbon quantum dots arise and their up-conversion phenomena accounts for high photo efficiency. The surface defects entrap the charge carrier and minimizes the process of recombination. Through the bridging material migration of photogenerated electrons from the CB of $g-C_3N_4$ to the VB of CeO_2 and V_2O_5 becomes more facile. Such type of electron migration renders the electron with high reduction ability in CB of CeO_2 and V_2O_5 for reduction process (Fig 10f). Different bare, binary, trinary and multicomponent nano hybrids employed for photocatalytic reduction of HMs are summarized in Table 3 (72-85).

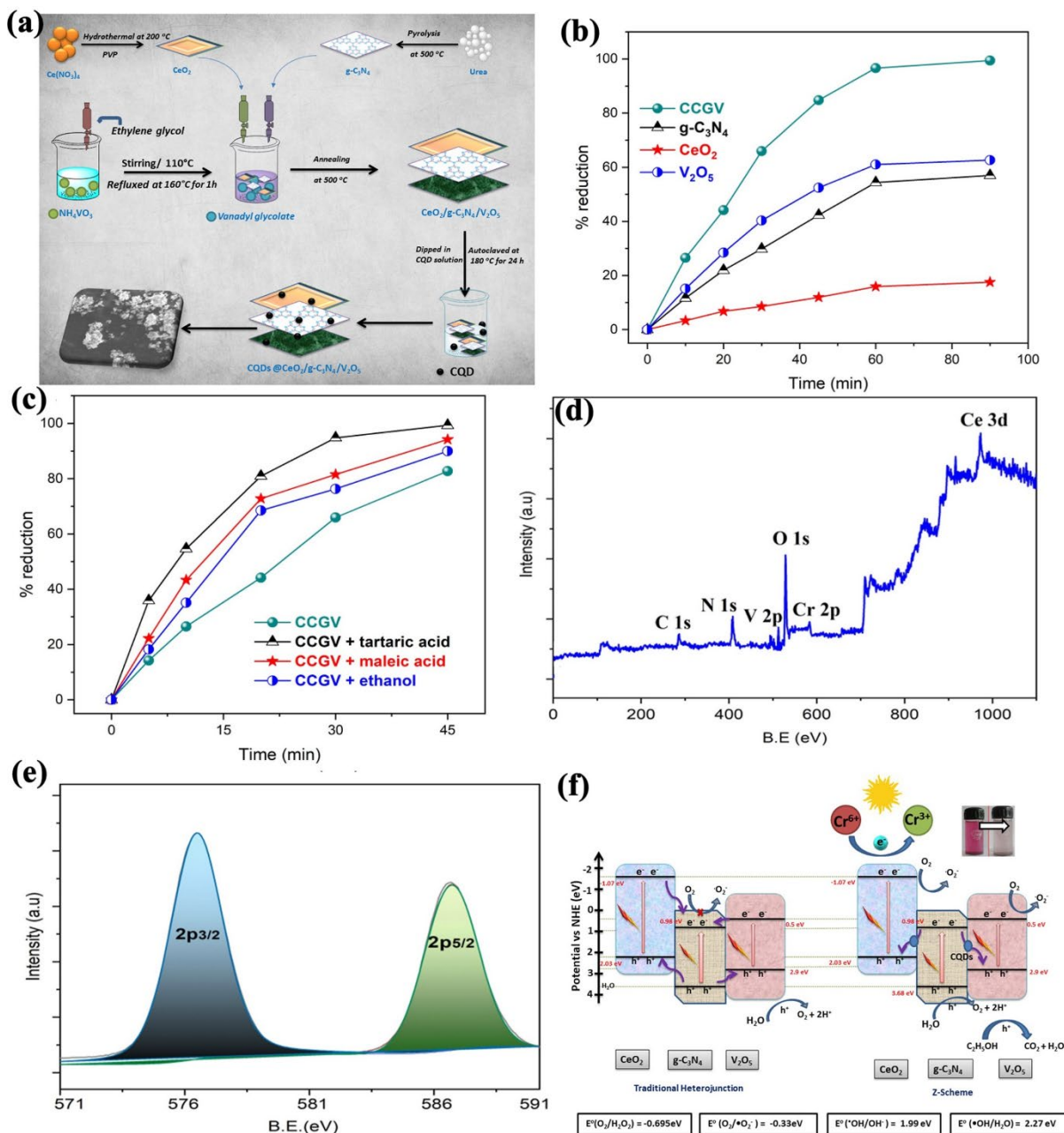


Figure 10. (a) Synthesis Scheme. (b) The extent of photo-reduction of Cr(VI) under visible light (c) Effect of reaction parameters onto Cr(VI) photo-reduction with CCGV (f) Initial co-catalysts or sacrificial agents; [catalyst] = 0.3 mg/mL [Cr⁶⁺] = 20 mg L⁻¹, pH=2, temperature = 30 ± 0.5 °C, Visible light intensity 480 mW cm⁻². XPS survey scan (d) Cr²⁺ spectrum (Inset) of unused CCGV before final recovery (CCGV + visible + TA system) (e) Reusability studies for Cr(VI) reduction with CCGV under visible light; (f) Traditional and Z-scheme heterojunction CCGV with possible charge flow [71].

Table 3. Summary of various photocatalytic nanohybrids for the removal of HMs

Nanohybrids	S _{BET} (m ² g ⁻¹)	Pore volume (cm ³ g ⁻¹)	Pore Diameter (nm)	Active species	Targeted pollutant	Photodegradation efficiency	Reusability	Ref
Cr-SrTiO ₃	CrSTO=118.8 m ² g ⁻¹ STO=5.0 m ² g ⁻¹	CrSTO = 0.24 m ² g ⁻¹ STO= 0.23 m ² g ⁻¹	CrSTO = 3.0 nm STO= 2.5 nm	-	Cr (VI)	Photoreduction of Cr (VI) (up to ~92%) under visible light	Up to ~6 photocatalytic cycle	[72]
B-Sn ₃ O ₄	Sn ₃ O ₄ =31.35 m ² g ⁻¹ B _{0.3} -Sn ₃ O ₄ =69.14m ² g ⁻¹ ,	Sn ₃ O ₄ =0.126 cm ³ g ⁻¹ B _{0.3} -Sn ₃ O ₄ =0.078cm ³ g ⁻¹	Sn ₃ O ₄ =16.13nm B _{0.3} -Sn ₃ O ₄ =5.77nm	h ⁺ , ·O ₂ ⁻	Cr (VI) Phenol	Photoreduction of Cr (VI) (up to ~80%) under visible light	Up to ~5 photocatalytic cycle	[73]
CdS/TiO ₂	TiO ₂ = 241.32 m ² g ⁻¹ CAR _{0.35} =15.88 m ² g ⁻¹	TiO ₂ = 0.18cm ³ g ⁻¹ CAR _{0.35} = 0.12cm ³ g ⁻¹	TiO ₂ = 2.99nm CAR _{0.35} = 41.07nm	-	Cr (VI) Phenol	73.1 % reduction of Cr(VI) and oxidation of phenol under visible light.	Up to ~5 photocatalytic cycle	[53]
Ag/Ag ₃ PO ₄ /MIL-125-NH ₂	Ag/Ag ₃ PO ₄ = 12.1 m ² /g. AAMN-120= 478.95 m ² /g, MIL-125-NH=1000 m ² /g	-	-	·O ₂ ⁻	Cr (VI)	-	Up to ~5 photocatalytic cycle	[74]
Fe-TNTs	TNTs=272.3 m ² g ⁻¹ Fe-TNT=162.8 m ² g ⁻¹	TNTs =1.26cm ³ g ⁻¹ Fe-TNT = 0.38 cm ³ g ⁻¹	TNTs= 18.5nm Fe-TNT = 9.3nm	-	As(III)	Photoreduction of As(III) (up to ~99.6%) under visible light	Up to~ 5 photocatalytic cycle	[75]
Bi ₂ MoO ₆ /Ti ₃ C ₂	Bi ₂ MoO ₆ /Ti ₃ C ₂ =33.24 m ² g ⁻¹	2 to 45 nm	-	·O ₂ ⁻ h ⁺	Cr(VI) Tetracycline hydrochloride	Photoreduction of Cr(VI) (up to ~100 %) under visible light	Up to ~ 4 photocatalytic cycle	[76]
BiOBr/BiOIO ₃	BiOBr=31.83 m ² g ⁻¹ , BiOIO ₃ =22.26 m ² g ⁻¹ , BI-10=21.22m ² g ⁻¹	BiOBr = 0.0675cm ³ g ⁻¹ BiOIO ₃ = 0.1498cm ³ g ⁻¹ BI-10= 0.1679cm ³ g ⁻¹	BiOBr = 8.49nm BiOIO ₃ = 26.93nm BI-10=31.66 nm	·O ₂ ⁻ h ⁺	Hg ⁰	Photoreduction of Hg ⁰ (up to ~ 90.25%) under visible light	Up to ~ 5 photocatalytic cycle	[77]

Cd/Co-based MOFs	-	-	-	$\cdot\text{O}_2^-$	Cr(VI)	Photoreduction of (up to Cr(VI) ~100%) under visible light under UV light	Up to ~5 photocatalytic cycle	[78]
Ag@TiON/CoAl	TiO ₂ = 0.228 (m ² /g), TiON= 0.178(m ² /g), TiON/LDH= 0.182 (m ² /g), Ag@TiON/CoAl-LDH= 0.132 (m ² /g), ,	TiO ₂ =106.486nm TiON=79.248nm TiON/LDH= 160.554nm Ag@TiON/CoAl-LDH=168.832nm	TiO ₂ = 3.471 (m ³) TiON= 9.293m ³ TiON/LDH= 6.253m ³ Ag@TiON/CoAl-LDH= 5.860m ³	-	Cr(VI) Methyl orange, Methylene blue	Photoreduction of (up to Cr(VI) ~94%) under visible light under UV light	Up to ~5 photocatalytic cycle	[79]
SnIn ₄ S ₈ -CdS	CdS=14.8060 m ² /g SnIn ₄ S ₈ =9.5226 m ² /g SnIn ₄ S ₈ -CdS=34.6320 m ² /g	0-10 nm	-	$\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ h^+	Cr(VI), Methyl orange (MO)	Photoreduction of (up to Cr(VI) ~82% and 100% of MO under visible light	Up to ~5 photocatalytic cycle	[80]
TiO ₂ -2-naphthol	P25 =46.1 m ² g ⁻¹ TiO ₂ = 133 m ² g ⁻¹ TiO ₂ -2-NAP = 130 m ² g ⁻¹	-	TiO ₂ =8.79nm TiO ₂ -2-NAP = 8.77 nm	-	Cr(VI)	Photoreduction of (up to Cr(VI) ~82%)	-	[81]
Bi ₂ S ₃ /β-Bi ₂ O ₃ /ZnIn ₂ S ₄	-	-	15 and 25 nm	$\cdot\text{O}_2^-$	Cr (VI)	96.3% Tetracycline (TCN) degradation and Cr(VI) reduction	-	[82]
Functional amorphous phosphate titanium oxide	-	446 m ² /g	3-7nm	-	Pb (II) Cd (II) Cr (III) Fe (III)	90% degradation of Pb (II), Cd (II), Cr (III) and Fe (III)	Up to 5 photocatalytic cycle	[83]
CoFe-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄	g-C ₃ N ₄ = 15.16 CoFe-LDH = 67.08 50%-CoFeLDH/g -C ₃ N ₄ = 101.61	g-C ₃ N ₄ = 2.58 nm CoFe-LDH =0.61 50%-CoFeLDH/g-C ₃ N ₄ = 0.36	g-C ₃ N ₄ = 4.12 CoFe-LDH =3.01 50%-CoFeLDH/g-C ₃ N ₄ = 2.58	$\cdot\text{O}_2^-$	Cr (VI)	90% reduction of Cr(VI) under	Up to 5 photocatalytic cycle	[84]

P/SnS ₂	SnS ₂ = 35.38 m ² g ⁻¹ RP= 36.79 m ² g ⁻¹ 50%- RP/SnS ₂ = 40.96 m ² g ⁻¹	SnS ₂ = 3.05 cm ³ g ⁻¹ RP=3.74 cm ³ g ⁻¹ 50%- RP/SnS ₂ =3.76 cm ³ g ⁻¹	SnS ₂ =0.20 nm RP=0.21n m 50%- RP/SnS ₂ = 0.23nm	'O ₂ ⁻	Cr(VI)	removal Cr(VI) RhB by 50%	of and	Up to 5 photocat alytic cycle	[85]
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4. Nanohybrids for adsorptional removal of organic pollutants and heavy metals

Adsorption technique is widely used in industrial applications to decontaminate waste water due to its simple operation, high efficiency and low-cost. Physisorption or chemisorption are the two important phenomena through which adsorbent holds a molecule of adsorbate onto it. Adsorption process depends on different parameters such as adsorbent dosage, pH, temperature, contact time, concentration and electrostatic force between the adsorbate and adsorbent. This method is more flexible as adsorption site on the surface of adsorbent can be easily regenerated by reversible adsorption mechanism [86]. Metal, zeolite and carbon based nanosorbent are commonly applied adsorbent for water purification. For the adsorptional removal of HMIs different types of adsorbent like humic acid [87], activated carbons [88], bio-chars, sawdust [89], coal ash [90], resin [91], carbon nanotubes [92], graphene oxide [93], zeolites [94], bio-chars [95], sepiolites [96], palygorskite [97], mesoporous materials [98], and layered double hydroxides (LDHs) [99] were reported for heavy metal ion removal. A broad range of nano-adsorbents based on polyaniline (PANI) and its derivatives also appeared as promising candidate for the removal of heavy metals form polluted water [100].

Apart from bare photocatalytic system, adsorption capacity of simple metal oxide, inorganic bimetallic Mo-Fe-S clusters, graphene and graphene oxide were also reported for heavy metals. The highest adsorption capacity up to 81.2 mg/g at pH 5 for Pb⁺² and lowest about 24.6 mg/g at pH 5 for Cr⁺³ ion was estimated by the iron oxide as adsorbent [101]. Whereas, in another report maximum adsorption of 319.35 mg g⁻¹ for Pb²⁺ were reported by inorganic bimetallic Mo-Fe-S clusters prepared by chemical fixation of tetra thio-molybdate on Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles at room temperature [102]. Further, hierarchical nanoporous material synthesized using trimercaptos--triazine-trisodium salt and trimercaptos-triazine-monosodium salt display efficient adsorption capacity of 735.3 and 3775.9 mgg⁻¹for Hg²⁺ and Pb²⁺ ions, respectively [103]. The outstanding adsorption capacity and mechanical properties of graphene and graphene oxide imparts broader application in water purification [104,105]. About 98.46% and 99.99% is elimination efficiency acquired by graphene and graphene oxide towards Pb²⁺ ion. The various

inorganic NPs were immobilized on certain organic support to avoid agglomeration, enhance surface area, improve recyclability and inhibit leaching of baser nanoparticles [106,107]. Numerous fibrous polymeric materials are also utilized as supportive systems for nanoparticles. The fabrication of polymeric semiconducting materials via polymeric matrices can be achieved by chemical, thermal and photo-induced reaction. The polystyrene based core/shell gel adsorbent display 526.3, 434.8, 555.6 and 476.2 m^2g^{-1} , adsorption capacity for Pb^{2+} , Cu^{2+} , Cd^{2+} and Cr^{2+} , respectively [108].

Chitosan is a most abundant alkaline polymer of polysaccharides exhibits excellent hydrophilicity, biocompatibility, biodegradability and renewable capacity. Besides, presence of hydroxyl and amine group serves as adsorption site and make it more beneficial for adsorption of anionic pollutants and heavy metal ions. Guo et al. reported poly-dopamine modified chitosan aerogel and determine their adsorption capacity of 374.4 and 441.2 mg g^{-1} were observed towards Cr (VI) and Pb (II) ions [109]. The optimal pH for Cr (VI) and Pb (II) ions removal is 2.0 and 5.5, respectively and pH_{ZPC} of nanocomposites is 7.5. At lower pH hydroxyl and amine group on nanocomposites get protonated thus possess positively charged surface.

PANI/rGO nanohybrid having surface area of $36.70 \text{ m}^2\text{g}^{-1}$ adsorb nearly 1000 mg/g of Hg^{2+} ions at pH 4.0 obeying second order kinetic model [110]. The surface charge on PANI, rGO, and PANI/rGO is studied by zeta potential analysis (Fig 11a) indicating pH_{ZPC} 5.8, 2.5, and 3.0, respectively. If the pH of reaction solution is below pH_{ZPC} surface become positively charged whereas higher pH makes the surface negatively charged. Therefore, pH of the reaction is extremely important in deciding the optimum pH range for adsorption of pollutant. At low pH adsorption process is greatly reduced due to the electrostatic repulsion between Hg^{2+} ions and positively charged PANI/rGO although higher pH increases adsorption process hence 3-4.0 is the optimal pH range displaying maximum adsorption. Gusain and co-workers reported effective adsorption mechanism for eliminating Pb (II) and Cd (II) by $\text{MoS}_2/\text{SH-MWCNT}$ nanocomposite synthesized by hydrothermal method [111]. Presence of sulphur cite on MoS_2 form metal-sulphur complex on the inner layer of MoS_2 evident by increased interlayer spacing. Nearly, 90.0 and .66.6 m^2g^{-1} of Pb (II) and Cd (II) were adsorbed obeying pseudo second order kinetics. The electrostatic interaction, complex formation and ion-exchange process blend together for effective adsorptional removal of metals (Fig 11b).

New emerging class of porous organic materials, metal organic framework such as porphyrins were also exploited for heavy metal ion removal [112,113]. The mesoporous zirconium-based metal-organic framework displayed 277 m^2g^{-1} adsorption capacity for Hg^{2+} ions at 7.1 pH where, pyrrolic functional group is an activity for the adsorption of metal ions [114]. In another work sulphonic acid modified metal organic framework

demonstrated 88.7 mgg⁻¹ adsorption capacity of cadmium ions [115] (Fig 11c). Heavy metal removal via adsorption mechanism commonly takes place through electrostatic adsorption, surface bonding, hydrogen bonding, ion exchange etc. The adsorption behaviour can be analyzing using advanced spectroscopic techniques, theoretical calculations and surface complexation models. Another metal organic framework-based nanocomposite possessing high surface area of 268.7 m²g⁻¹ adsorb 200.6 and 152.1 mgg⁻¹ of Cu²⁺ and Cr⁶⁺, respectively [116]. The XPS spectra displaying binding energy peak at 934 eV and 955 eV of 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2} orbital in Cu²⁺ ion whereas, 579.2 and 588.1 eV binding energy represent Cr⁺⁶ (Fig 11d and e).

Thiosalicylhydrazide-modified magnetic nano-adsorbent employed for Pb²⁺, Cd²⁺, Cu²⁺, Zn²⁺, and Co²⁺, ions removal from industrial wastes with adsorption capacity 188.7, 107.5, 7.9, 51.3, and 27.7 mgg⁻¹, respectively [117]. Fe₂O₃ nanoparticle surface is modified with thiosalicylhydrazide ligating agent so as to minimize the involvement of alkaline earth metal on adsorption process. Moreover, immobilization of Fe₂O₃ nanoparticle onto poly-acrylic acid polymer shell reduces its aggregation and maintains dispersion. The schematic preparation of magnetic nano-adsorbent with possible adsorption mechanism of metal ion shown in (Fig 11f).

Cellulose-based amphoteric adsorbent owning amino and carboxyl functional group on the surface beneficial for the removal of Cr²⁺, Cd²⁺, Cu²⁺, Zn²⁺ and Pb²⁺ ions [118]. The percentage removal and adsorption ability are decided by density of functional group which should be at least 10.0 mmolg⁻¹ that prove absolute removal of metal ions and can be calculated using below mention equations.

$$\text{Amino group contents} = \frac{m \times W_t}{m \times M} \times 1000 \quad (26)$$

$$\text{Carboxyl group contents} = \frac{m \times W_t}{m \times M} \times 1000 \times W'_t \quad (27)$$

Where, m, M, W_t and W'_t represents sample weight used in EA (g), relative atomic mass (molg⁻¹), element proportion (wt%), and percentage of carboxyl group measured by XPS, respectively. Owing to the high density of amino group having great affinity for anionic Cr (VI) responsible for its complete removal as compared to cationic Cd²⁺, Cu²⁺, Zn²⁺ and Pb²⁺ ions. The electrostatic interactions, chelating reactions, and oxidation–reduction reactions explained the adsorption mechanism elaborated in (Fig 11g). Further, 3D hydrogel having great potential to undergo structure deformation arises due to swelling property by simply absorbing water that facilitate penetration of ions. EDTA cross-linked

chitosan and polyacrylamide based hydrogel employed for Cd^{2+} , Cu^{2+} and Pb^{2+} ions with sorption capacity of 86.0, 99.4 and 138.4 mg g^{-1} , respectively [119].

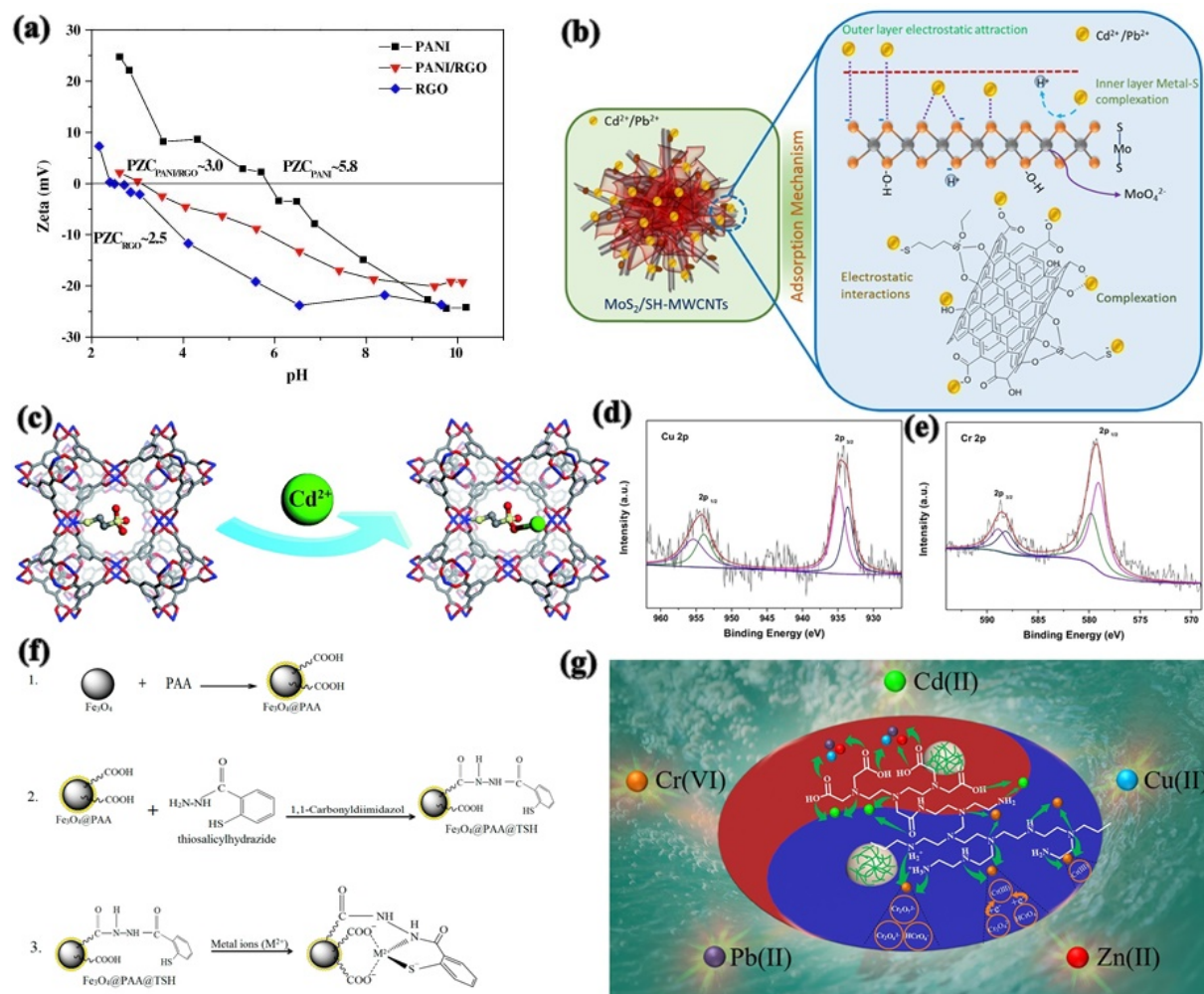
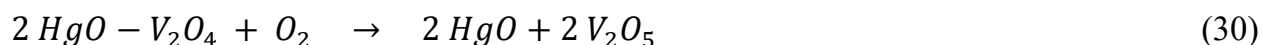


Figure 11(a) Zeta potential of PANI, RGO and PANI/RGO composites in a 0.02M NaNO_3 solution [110]; (b) Diagrammatic illustration of $\text{Pb}(\text{II})$ and $\text{Cd}(\text{II})$ adsorption mechanism on $\text{MoS}_2/\text{SH-MWCNTs}$ [112]; (c) Proposed mechanism for $\text{Cd}(\text{II})$ adsorption in $\text{Cu}_3(\text{BTC})_2\text{-SO}_3\text{H}$ [115]; XPS spectra of (d) Cu^{2+} signal region (e) Cr^{2+} signal region [116]; (f) Scheme for the preparation of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{PAA}@\text{TSH}$ MNPs and a possible mechanism for adsorption of metal ions on them [117] (g) Specialization and cooperation mechanism of MCC/DTPA-PEIA for heavy metal ions [119].

$\text{V}_2\text{O}_5\text{-WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$ oxidizes 65% of Hg^0 to Hg^{+2} at 250-350 °C in CO_2 enriched atmosphere [120]. Several parallel mechanisms occur for the oxidation of Hg^0 elaborated in successive

equations. Different multicomponent nanohybrids employed for adsorptional removal of HMs are summarized in Table 4 (121-140).

(1) Oxidation by V_2O_5



(2) Oxidation by chemisorbed oxygen



(3) Oxidation by CO_2

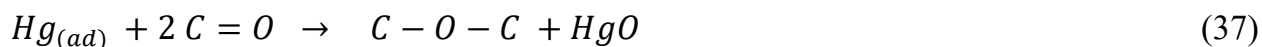
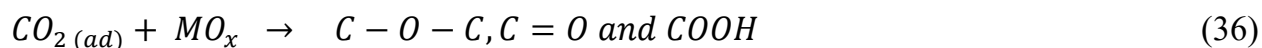


Table 4. Summary of different nanohybrids with distinct adsorption capacity

Adsorbent	Targeted pollutant	Concentration	Dosages	pH	Surface area (m ² /g ⁻¹)	Pore size (nm)	Adsorption capacity (mg/g)	Ref.
EDTA/Nanoporous starch-based nanomaterial (EDTA/3D-PSN)	Cd (II)	2.00 mg/L	0.25g	2.4	83.75 m ² /g ⁻¹ .	-	Cd (II)=	[121]
	Hg (II)						532.28	
	Pb (II)						mg/g	
	Cu (II)						Hg (II)= 381.47 mg/g Cu (II)=354.1 5 mg/g Pb (II)=238.3 9 mg/g	
Sodium alginate grafted polyacrylamide / graphene oxide hydrogel (SA-PAM/GO)	Cu (II)	25 mg/L	-	5	SA-PAM/G	SA-PAM/G	68.76 mg/g	[122]
	Pb (II)	50 mg/L			O=190.89 dm ² /g	O=6.794 9 nm to 19.8052 nm 9.451 dm ³ /g	240.69 mg/g,	
N-[4-morpholinecarboximidamido]carboximidamidomethylated polyphenylenesulfide (MCMPPS)	Pb (II)	-	-	4.5	4.49m ² g ⁻¹ .	-	Pb (II)=	[123]
	Cr (III)			4.5			186.92	
	Cu (II)			4.5			Cd (II)=	
	Cd (II)			4.0			189.75	
	Ni (II)			4.5			Cr (III) = 120.04 Cu (II)= 119.33 Ni (II)= 134.05	
Fe ₂ O ₃ @CaCO ₃	As (V)	1.0-30 ppm	0.5 mg/mL	2-	53.4 m ² .g ⁻¹	13.2 nm	As	[124]
	Cr (VI)			(V)=184.1				
	Pb (II)			Cr (VI)= 251.6, Pb (II) = 1041.9				
Inorganic polymer microspheres	Pb (II)	200 mg/L		5	87.74m ² /g	8.9 nm	Pb	[125]
	Cu (II)						=310.84	
	Cd (II)						mg/g	
							Cu =47.71 mg/g Cd = 36.26 mg/g	

Gum ghatti – <i>graft</i> – poly(4-acryloylmorpholine) hydrogel (Ggh-g-PAcM hydrogel polymer)	Cu (II) Hg (II)	20-1000 mgL ⁻¹	1.2	0.11 to 0.21 m ² g ⁻¹	90.6, 103.6, 224.8, 213.8 mgg-1	Cu(II) =249.9 mg/g, Hg(II) =235.1 mg/g,	[126]	
PANI/JF (jute fiber) composite	Cd (II) Cr (VI)	50 mg·L ⁻¹	0.05 to 1.0 g	7	1.0 m ² g ⁻¹	140 and 50mg.g ⁻¹	8.43 mg·g ⁻¹	[127]
Ganguemicrosphere/geopolymer (GM/KGP)	Cu (II) Cd (II) Zn (II) Pb (VI)	100 mg/L	6 g/L	5	KGP=1 7.59m ² / g GM=6.0 3m ² /g	KGP =45.18n m GM= 28.39nm	~30 mg/g.	[128]
Polysulfide/MgAl LDH	Hg (II) Pb (II) Ag (II) Zn (II)	10 mM	0.02 g	3-5	-	-	Hg (II) =686 Pb (II) =483, Ag (II) =383, Zn (II)=145m g/g	[129]
Amino functionalized silica (Ni (II), Cd (II) and Pb (II))	Ni (II), Cd (II) Pb (II)	50 mg/L	5 g/L	5	966 m ² /g	4.85 nm	Ni (II)= 12.36 Cd (II)=18.25 Pb (II)= 57.74 mg/g	[130]
Nano-hydroxyapatite/chitosan composite	Cd (II)	100-500 mg/L	5 g/L	5.6	-	-	122 mg/g	[131]
Fe ₃ O ₄ /PANI/MnO ₂ Core-Shell Hybrids	Cd (II) Zn (II) Pb (II) Cu (II)	20 mg/L	1 g/L	6.2 - 6.4	63.96 m ² /g	4.12 nm	158 (428) mg/g	[132]
Fe ₃ O ₄ / MnO ₂	Cd (II)	10 mg/L	1 g/L (0.02 g)	6.2 - 6.4	118 m ² /g	3.3 nm	53.2 mg/g	[133]
Fe ₃ O ₄ @Mesoporous Silica-Graphene Oxide	Pb (II) Cu (II)	20 mg/L	100 mg/L	7.1	-	-	Pb (II)= 333 mg/g Cu (II)= 167 mg/g	[134]
Fe ₃ O ₄ magnetic polypyrrole-graphene oxide Hg (II)	Hg (II)	20-100 mg/L	0.01- 0.09 g/L	7	1737.6 m ² /g	4.2 nm	400 mg/g	[135]

Polyaniline/maghemite (PANI/ γ -Fe ₂ O ₃)	Cr (VI) Cu (II)	100 mg/L	2 mg	Cr (VI)) =2. 0 Cu (II) =5. 5	60 m ² /g	5.1 nm	Cr (VI)=195. 7 mg/g Cu (II)= 106.8 mg/g	[136]
Fe ₃ O ₄ /xanthate GO	Hg (II)	20 mg/L	2-14 mg	7	30.13 m ² /g	-	118.55 mg/g	[137]
MnO ₂ /carbon nanotubes	Hg (II)	1-50 mg/L	0.02 g	6	110.38 m ² /g	2.70 nm	58.8 mg/g	[138]
Multiwalled carbon nanotubes	Hg (II)	0.1-10 mg/L	0.5 g	7	270 m ² /g	-	25.64 mg/g	[139]
Magnetic graphene oxide	Hg (II)	100 mg/L	0.5g/L	6	58.6 m ² /g	-	71.3 mg/g	[140]

Conclusions and future prospects

Water pollution is the major challenge faced by the humans of 21st century and the speedy growth in industrialization and population poses considerable threat on water resources. Due to the toxicity, recalcitrance persistence and large scale discharge of heavy metals into the environment, photocatalysis is a coherent approach. Though various adsorbent were also reported for their removal yet construction of multitasking nanohybrids that only reduces HMs but also work upon other toxic pollutant present in aqueous solution. The incomplete removal of HMs by implementing bare adsorption process is their major limitation due to which the treated water could left out with certain amount of toxic metal ion. Optimizing reaction condition to design adsorbing material retaining high density of functional group that accomplishes complete removal.

The use of photocatalytic system is cost effective technique providing large specific surface area, enhance photostability, less toxicity, less energy consumption and broad solar absorption range. Many heterojunction formations of semiconductors have been explored operating through conventional type-II charge migration however, recently Z-scheme type of migration of charge carrier is broadly explored by scientist. Z-scheme based photocatalyst is a potential candidate for different photocatalytic reactions as it retains the strong redox ability of individual semiconductor and reforming their band potential is also more facile. Fast rate of recombination of charge carrier, narrow absorption range and small surface area are some of the major limitation of photocatalysts that should be addressed while constructing a next generation photocatalysts. Thus, band gap engineering of

semiconductors will remain open and challenging field for researchers to work upon in the future.

Rather than using individual photocatalytic reduction and adsorption method for HMs removal, constructing and implementing such nanohybrids that can simultaneously photocatalytically reduce metal ion into less toxic ions followed by their complete adsorptional removal is most recommendable. Therefore, nanohybrid should be such that assure complete removal of HMs so that its concentration should met the standard of safe drinking level as per US-EPA protocols. And if somehow there is the chance of incomplete removal from the water system then at least the metal ion is photo-catalytically reduced to innocuous metal ion. Thusly, considering the economic benefit such photocatalytic system needs to come-up with simultaneous and efficient elimination of coexisting hazardous organic contaminants and heavy metals from the polluted water. The aim of integrating different photocatalysts is to synergistically avail the independent property of semiconductors and to construct ideal systems with enhanced photo-efficiency by regenerating the active sites.

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Chapter 5

Graphitic Carbon Nitride based Photocatalytic Systems for High Performance Hydrogen Production: A Review

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Abstract

The hydrogen (H₂) production using solar-power is a novel way of harvesting and meeting the ever-increasing energy demands. It also helps in alleviating the global warming issues by decreasing the carbon footprints. The photocatalyst required for H₂ production should possess some specific properties such as high charge separation, appreciable H₂ production activity, chemical and thermal stability, abundant availability, and cost effectiveness, etc. The metal free graphitic- carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄)-based photocatalysts have grabbed considerably large interest in the area of visible-light photocatalytic H₂ production. It has extraordinary chemical stability, earth-abundant, attractive band structure, and easy fabrication. Herein, various approaches such as band gap engineering, nanostructure design, and heterojunction construction using various examples presented in literature are described. We have also discussed various nano heterojunctions of g-C₃N₄ which have been used effectively for the hydrogen production.

Keywords

g-C₃N₄, Visible Light, Hydrogen Generation, Heterojunction, Photocatalytic

Contents

Graphitic Carbon Nitride based Photocatalytic Systems for High Performance Hydrogen Production: A Review	161
1. Introduction.....	162
2. Metal free photocatalyst: Graphitic carbon nitride.....	163
2.1 Chemical structure of g-C ₃ N ₄	163
2.2 Electronic properties of g-C ₃ N ₄	165
2.3 Strategies for improving the properties of g-C ₃ N ₄	166
2.3.1 Structural modification	166
2.3.2 Doping 167	
2.3.3 Heterojunction formation	167
3. C₃N₄ based heterojunctions for H₂ production.....	169
Conclusions	179
References	180

1. Introduction

The rapid enhancement in the consumption of fossil fuels as an energy source has led to their fast depletion since they are limited and have high exhaustibility. Presently, 85% of the H₂ production is achieved by the combustion of fossil fuels, that leads to the annual production of ~500 metric tonnes of carbon dioxide (CO₂) as a by-product [1]. Solar energy on the other hand is an inexhaustible, pure and sustainable source. So, we require highly efficient materials that can convert the solar energy into some other form that could be utilized by the human race [2, 3]. In recent years, conversion of solar energy to chemical energy via water splitting has fascinated many researchers because about 72% of the earth's surface is covered with water [4, 5]. Until now, multiple techniques have been formulated for the production of H₂ and that includes coal gasification, renewable liquid, pyrolysis of biomass, and bio-oil processing, water splitting using energy resources, water splitting by electrochemical and biological materials [6].

The water splitting using TiO₂ catalyst under the influence of UV radiations was performed firstly by Fujishima and Honda in 1972 [7]. Following that, various studies were performed using variety of semiconductors. Process of water splitting for H₂ generation occurs in three steps; (i) production of electrons and holes upon light illumination; (ii) separation of

generated charges and their proper movement over the catalyst surface and (iii) reduction of H^+ to H_2 by the electrons and oxidation of H_2O to O_2 by the holes [8]. During water splitting, there occurs two processes, namely, oxygen evolution reaction (OER) by holes and hydrogen evolution reactions (HER) by electrons. The material or catalyst performance during water splitting is determined by solar to hydrogen conversion efficiency (STH) and apparent quantum efficiency (AQE). Their characteristic equations are [9]:

$$STH = \frac{\text{Output energy as } H_2}{\text{Energy of incident solar light}} \quad (i)$$

$$AQE = \frac{n * H_2 \text{ generation}}{\text{Incident photon}} \quad (ii)$$

Where n represents the number of electrons required for the process (2 in case of H_2 production)

2. Metal free photocatalyst: Graphitic carbon nitride

As mentioned in the above section, the semiconductor materials can be used for water splitting. It should meet some of the characteristic features such as (a) the valence and conduction band or both should match with the reduction and oxidation potential of water; (b) the photocatalyst should be active in the visible range and (c) it should have high separation and easy transportation of charges [10, 11]. Metal-free photocatalysts have high utilization in the past few decades as a substitute to metal-based photocatalysts [12]. Some of the metal free photocatalysts illustrates even similar and enhanced activity as compared to the metal-based photocatalysts. In the recent decades, the utilization of carbon-based metal-free photocatalysts for water splitting have experienced much significance due to their low cost, easy availability and ecofriendly nature. Among these, g- C_3N_4 is the most popular photocatalyst [13, 14].

2.1 Chemical structure of g- C_3N_4

The molecular formula of this family is near to C_3N_4 , however, it does contain some amount of hydrogen too. These structures are based on s- heptazine and s-triazine units which exhibits different properties under different reaction conditions [15]. The final structure formed using these two different units are shown in Figure 1. The s-triazine based C_3N_4 units exhibits some special electronic properties due to the presence of delocalized electrons and lone pair of electrons on nitrogen. In addition, its thermal and chemical permanence marks it a favourable candidate for several applications. Because of its

distinctive semiconductor properties, it can display high catalytic activity for multiple reactions [16].

Various methodologies have been reported in literature for the synthesis of g-C₃N₄ such as solvothermal, chemical vapour deposition (CVD), thermal nitration, and solid state reaction [10, 17, 18]. However, recently employed method, thermal condensation is quite a facile technique as compared to the above mentioned. In this method, the nitrogen-rich species such as melamine, urea, cyanamide, and dicyandiamide are used that experience self-condensation with deammoniation process via thermal reaction. Figure 2 shows the different fabrication methods with the probable precursors for the synthesis of g-C₃N₄.

In spite of the above advancements, the complete crystal structure of g-C₃N₄ has not been fully determined. To the best of our knowledge the most recent work on the 3D structure of g-C₃N₄ is carried out by Tyborski [19]. They used XRD to solve the structure of g-C₃N₄. However, due to the lack of long range order in the material which prevents the proper structure refinement, conventional XRD alone is not sufficient. On the other hand, total scattering data, which associates information from the diffuse scattering regarding short range order, can provide additional information useful for its structure determination [19].

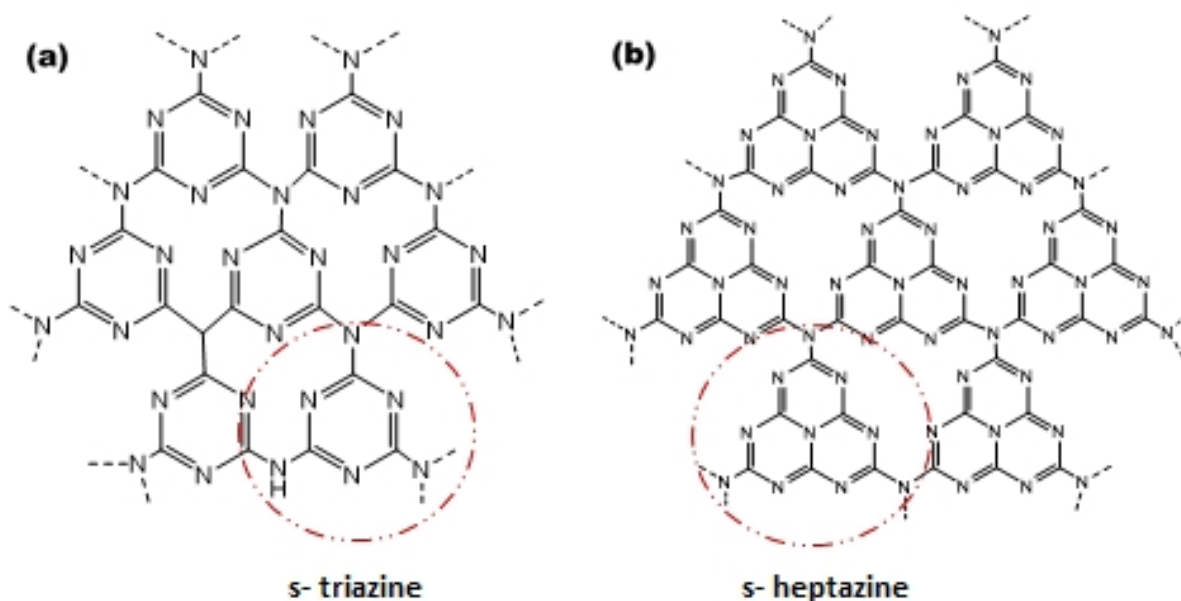


Figure 1: Chemical structure of triazine.

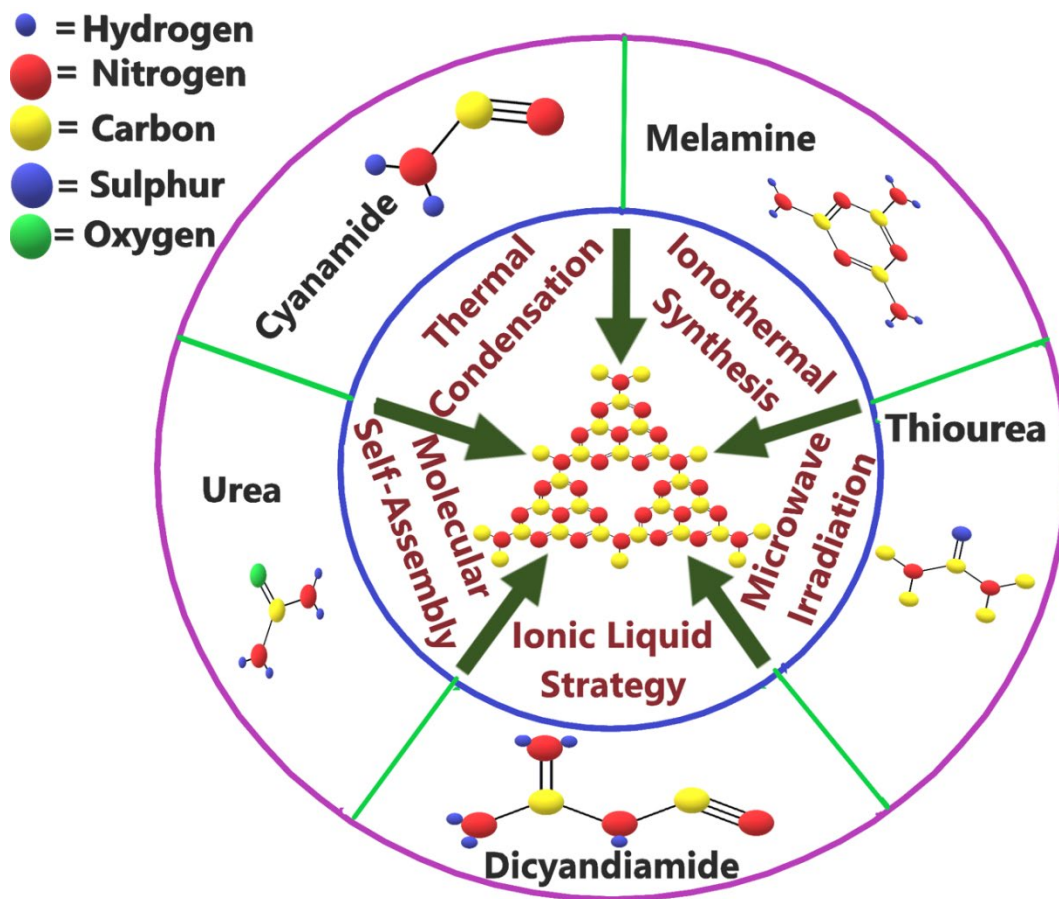


Figure 2. Different fabrication methods with the probable precursors for the synthesis of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

2.2 Electronic properties of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$

At ambient environment, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is considered to be the most stable allotrope [20, 21]. They are polymeric organic materials that have five different allotropes such as α , β , cubic, pseudocubic, and graphitic [22]. The $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is a unique semiconductor photocatalyst that has visible-light response up to 455 nm, equivalent to the narrow band gap of 2.7 eV [23, 24]. Its valence band is formed by the $\text{N}2p$ orbitals and the conduction band displays the hybridized $\text{C}2p$ and $\text{N}2p$ orbitals [25, 26].

The $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is a poly conjugated semiconductors made of carbon and nitrogen atoms and it is characterized by a layered graphitic-like structure [27]. The fully polymerized form of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, characterized by a C: N of 0.75, cannot be practically attained. It can be easily prepared via solid state synthesis from cheap materials such as melamine. It is insoluble in most solvents and shows great stability in superlative conditions (pH=0 and pH=14). Due

to these properties, it has currently attracted great attention for various catalytic applications, in specific photo catalysis for hydrogen evolution from water [27].

2.3 Strategies for improving the properties of g-C₃N₄

The g-C₃N₄ with a layered structure has shown brilliant applications, like as in the field of hydrogen evolution reaction and oxygen reduction [28]. However, there is still limited electron transfer ability of perfect g-C₃N₄ due to its chemical stability. Proof of concept studies has been focused on promoting electron transfer and enhancing the concentration of active site [15, 29], among which several strategies has been reported such as (a) hetero atoms doping is a successful strategy to modify the materials with various morphologies and electronic structures [30, 31]. Zhu *et al.*, 2015 synthesized the doped g-C₃N₄ by a condensation method, as a result, doping not only significantly changed its morphology and its surface property of g-C₃N₄ but also changed its electronic structure and increased its ionic conductivity [32]. (b) The structural modification has also been reported for increasing the activity of pristine g-C₃N₄. By modifying the structure to 0-D, 1-D, 2-D and 3-D structures, the optical, physiochemical, diffusion distance of charge carriers and number of redox active sites can be properly optimized [33]. (c) In addition, copolymerization of pristine g-C₃N₄ helps in narrowing the band gap that aids in utilizing the entire visible range. (d) Formation of heterojunction with other semiconductors enhances the separation of charge carriers and transfer to different sites [34, 35].

2.3.1 Structural modification

By monitoring the nanostructure, the physical, chemical, and optical properties of g-C₃N₄ based photocatalysts can be easily controlled or modified. Various factors can be easily tuned by just controlling the nanostructure such as number of redox sites, and diffusion distance of e⁻ and h⁺ to reach these sites. Different dimensional structures of g-C₃N₄ have been reported in literature such as 1-D (nanorods), 2-D (sheets) and 3-D (various porous structures). The transformation of structures into 1-D nanorods or tubes, decreases the charge diffusion length and helps in improving the light harvesting by increasing the light interactions. In case of 2-D nanosheets, the charge transport along the sheet got enhanced and the recombination rate decreases drastically. It also increases the availability of abundant reactive sites for various activities. Single layered g-C₃N₄ nanosheets can be easily prepared by exfoliation process using H₂SO₄ which led to its intercalation between the g-C₃N₄ nanosheets [36]. However, the 3-D nanostructures acquired by accumulating 1-D nanostructural units possess high specific surface area, less mass transport resistance, high light absorption ability, and large number of active sites. However, the construction of 3-D nanostructures by using the 2-D nanosheets is tough because of the randomness in their sizes and orientations [37].

2.3.2 Doping

Doping is quite an effective way for enhancing the properties of g-C₃N₄ based photocatalysts by narrowing the band gap. Addition of dopant increases the localized states and also lifts the valence band maximum that helps in the narrowing of band gap. Doping of non-metals increase the delocalization of conjugated electrons, which helps in enhancing the conductance, mobility and separation of photo-generated charges [38]. Instead of a single atom doping, co-doping and more than one heteroatom doping is also preferable since it tune the band gap to a much greater extent. Among the halogens, bromine (Br), fluorine (F) and iodine (I) have been used as dopants for g-C₃N₄. Instead of non- metals, if the doping of g-C₃N₄ is done with organic molecules, then it may result in delocalization of π -conjugated electrons and red shift. However, the doping of aromatic molecules enhances the charge separation on the g-C₃N₄ surface [39].

2.3.3 Heterojunction formation

Designing of a heterojunction of g- C₃N₄ with other semiconductors helps in enhancing the optical properties, thus improving the charge separation [40, 41]. The coupling of g-C₃N₄ with other semiconductors with diverse properties prompts the band bending of the heterojunction at interface with the aid of inner electric field. This helps in improving the transfer and separation of photo-generated charges. In general, heterojunction systems can be categorized into; Type II, Z- scheme and S- scheme [42, 43].

The type II heterojunction is typically composed of two semiconductors, SI and SII in which one semiconductor possesses higher valence and conduction band potential. When the heterojunction is irradiated with sufficient energy, this generates electron-hole pairs. The electrons then move from the higher conduction band position of one semiconductor to the lower conduction band position of the other. The holes in the other hand follow the reverse path. The photoinduced electrons and holes get accumulated on the different semiconductors and thus helps in promoting the separation of charges and suppressing their recombination. This significantly enhances the energy conversion ability of synthesized heterojunction.

On the other hand, the Z- scheme mimics the natural photosynthesis process. This system is similar to type II heterojunction but the difference occurs in its charge-carrier migration mechanism. The charge-carrier migration pathway of this system looks like the letter “Z” [44]. This system comprises of a unique charge transfer mechanism in which the oxidation photocatalyst with strong oxidation ability exhibits low VB position and the reduction photocatalyst with robust reduction capability own high CB value [45]. The presence of charge carrier mediator and the type which is used, distinguishes the Z-scheme photocatalysts into three types: (i) traditional Z-scheme photocatalyst, (ii) all-solid state Z-

scheme photocatalyst, and (iii) direct Z-scheme photocatalyst [46]. The traditional Z-scheme photocatalyst consists of two different photocatalysts, in which an appropriate shuttle redox ion mediator is used to couple these two photocatalysts. $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ and IO_3^-/I^- are the most common used shuttle redox ion pairs. When these photocatalysts are irradiated with light, the electron acceptor species consumes the photogenerated electrons of CB of photocatalyst having lower potential value while the electron donor species consumes the photogenerated holes of VB of other photocatalyst. The other remained photogenerated holes and electrons take part in separate oxidation and reduction reactions that have the required potential for carrying out effective reactions [47]. The all-solid state Z-scheme photocatalysts contains an electronic solid conductor which is used as charge carrier transfer-bridge. In the first reported all-solid state Z-scheme photocatalysts, Au as electronic conductor was used to create a bridge between CdS and TiO_2 photocatalysts [48]. In this system, the selection of suitable electron conductor is most important because it is not only limited to efficient transfer of photogenerated charge carriers but also helps in improving the stability of the photocatalyst. Various nanoparticles such as Au, Ag, and Cu have been reported as excellent electron mediators to construct all-solid state Z-scheme photocatalysts [49]. Apart from these two, the direct Z-scheme photocatalyst consists of two semiconductors which are in close contact with one another without any charge carrier mediator. These photocatalyst systems are resistant to corrosion. In contrast to traditional heterojunction, the back reactions in direct Z-scheme are considerably suppressed due to the absence of redox mediators [50].

S-scheme or “Step-scheme” is a recently formulated explanation for the mechanism of charge transfer in heterojunction. In this scheme, the two photocatalysts are arranged in similar way as in case of type-II heterojunction but follow a different charge transfer route with staggered band structures. Here, an electric field is generated between the two photocatalysts that results in band bending. As a result of band bending, the electrons from the low potential conduction band moves to the higher potential valence band. Thus, the higher oxidation and reduction potential bands remain conserved for the generation of reactive radicals [43].

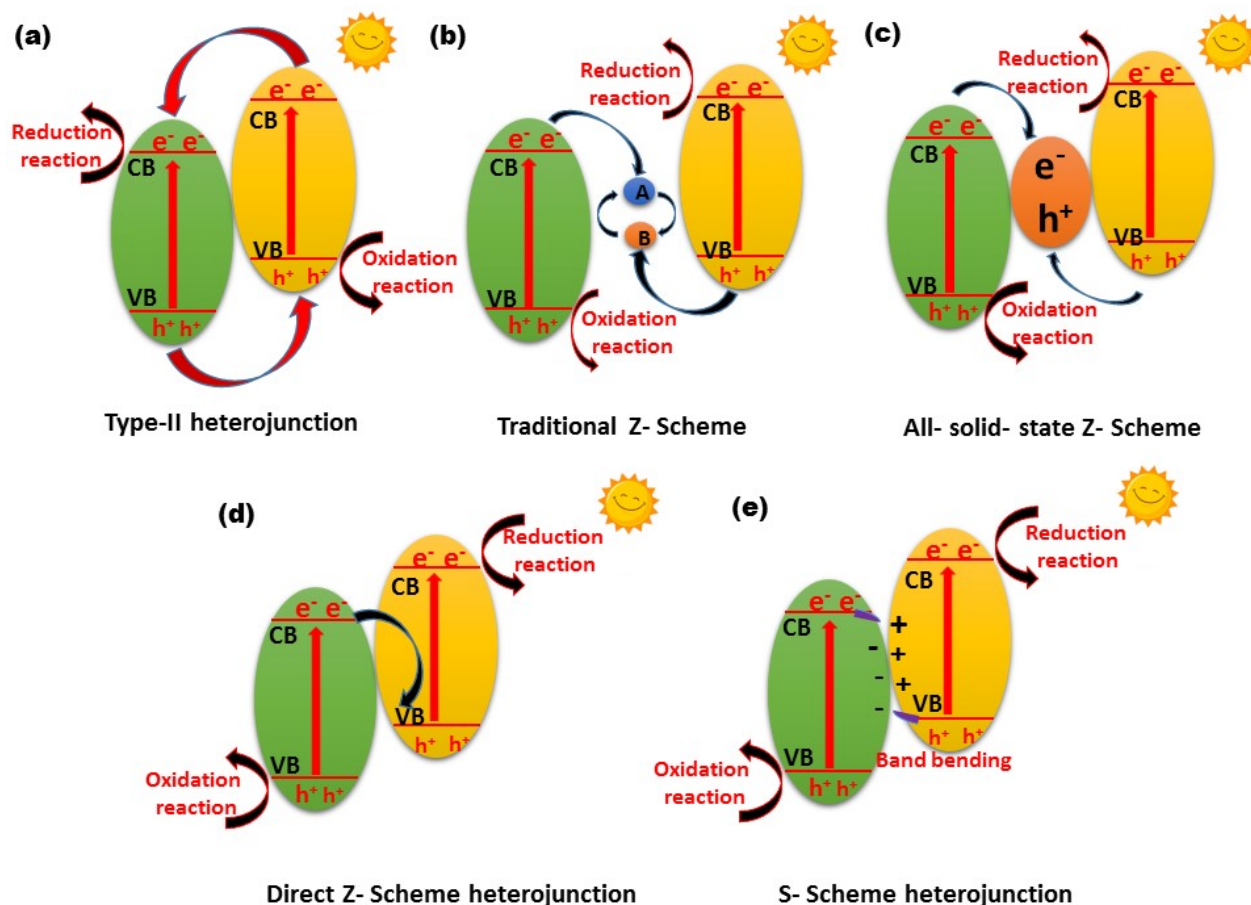


Figure 2. Different types of heterojunctions possible with their possible charge transfer mechanism.

3. C₃N₄ based heterojunctions for H₂ production

H₂ is the most abundant element in the universe available in water and organic compounds. It is the lightest element which contains only one electron and one proton. It is a colorless, odorless, and a flammable gas. It is non-toxic and spread rapidly when released. It is transportable, storable, and utilizable and has the ability to act as alternate energy storage system. By using solar energy, water splitting for the production of H₂ is considered as one of the most proficient approaches to deal with the current global energy issues [44, 51-53].

Considering the above discussion, numerous work has been done on the utilization of g-C₃N₄ based photocatalyst for solving the issue of energy crisis. In the same context, Bi₂MoO₆/g-C₃N₄ based heterojunction was designed by in-situ solvothermal method using 2-D g-C₃N₄ nanosheets. The H₂ production ability of Bi₂MoO₆/g-C₃N₄ from water splitting was performed. They also studied the bacterial disinfection under visible light. The

complete mechanism of H₂ production and bacterial disinfection is presented in Figure 3. They exfoliated the bulk g-C₃N₄ to g-C₃N₄ nanosheets that considerably increased the surface area and reduced the diffusion distance for photogenerated charges. This helped in promoting not only the photocatalytic activity [54]. The photocatalytic H₂ production by Bi₂MoO₆/g-C₃N₄ was approximately 3.84 time higher than bulk g-C₃N₄ and 32.19 times higher than Bi₂MoO₆.

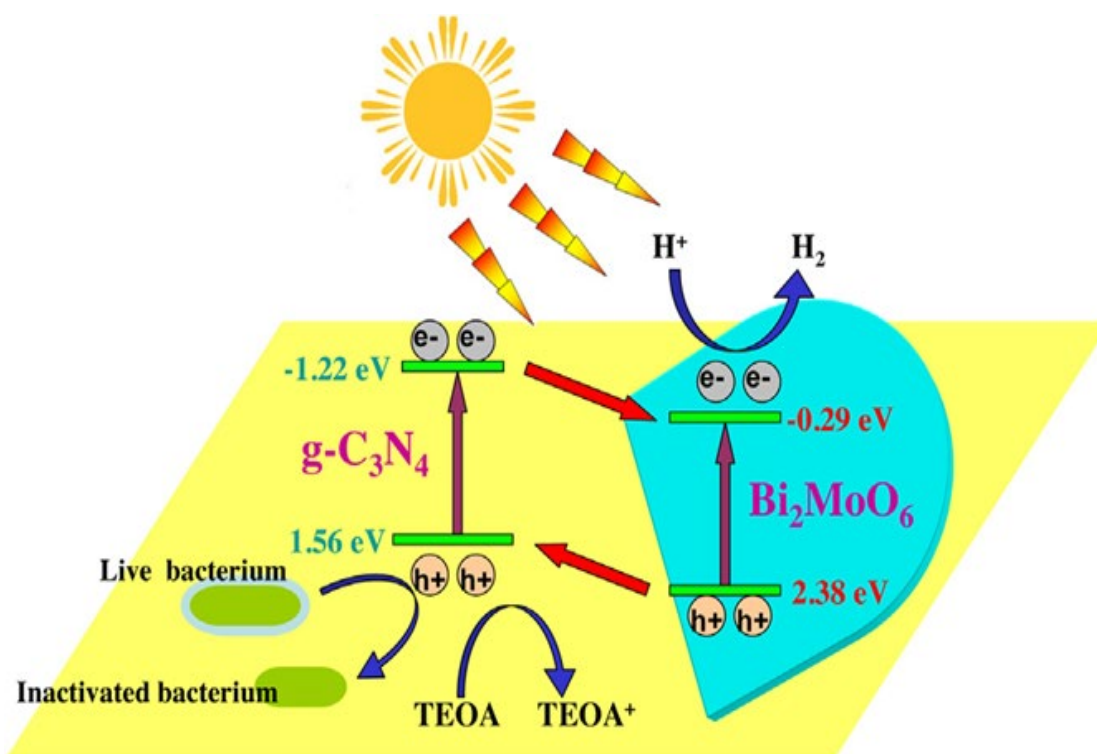


Figure 3: (a) Photocatalytic mechanism for H₂ production by Bi₂MoO₆/g-C₃N₄ heterojunction [54].

In another study, novel C₆₀/graphene/g-C₃N₄ composite was utilized as a photocatalytic material for H₂ production by water splitting. The superior electron conduction ability of graphene and strong electron-attracting tendency of C₆₀ made the composite quite effective for the H₂ production. The synergistic effect between graphene and C₆₀ helped in expanding the movement and utilization proficiency of photo-generated electrons and enhanced the separation of photo-generated charges. The H₂ production amount and rate of C₆₀/graphene/g-C₃N₄ (10 mg/L C₆₀ and graphene) was found to be about 539.6 times greater than that of pure g-C₃N₄ under the same experimental conditions. Also, the rate obtained was 50.8 and 4.24 times higher than that of graphene/g-C₃N₄ and C₆₀/g-C₃N₄, respectively. The quantum yield of the synthesized composite in 97 h was about 7.2% [55].

Due to higher redox capability, ample oxygen defects and cost effectiveness, the CeO_2 and its various derivatives have high potential as photocatalysts. Based on this, $\text{CeO}_2/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was designed with tuneable CeO_2 crystal planes [56, 57]. Characterization techniques such as photoelectrochemical, Raman, XPS, and ESR results proposed that the charge separation efficacy, oxygen defects and $\text{Ce}^{3+}/\text{Ce}^{4+}$ reversibility pairs were dependent on the CeO_2 and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ contact. The photocatalytic activity of H_2 production under visible light was of the order: $\text{CeO}_2(110)/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4 > \text{CeO}_2(100)/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4 > \text{CeO}_2(111)/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4 > \text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ [58].

Aiming for the synthesis of highly efficient photocatalyst, Chen and his co-workers, synthesized 2D/2D $\text{MnIn}_2\text{S}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ photocatalyst by hydrothermal method. They carried out the in-situ loading of MnIn_2S_4 nanoflakes on the nanosheets of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$. The synthesized photocatalyst formed a direct Z-scheme heterojunction that showed higher activity than that of the individual components under the visible light irradiation. Complete transfer mechanism of the photogenerated charges for the H_2 production and degradation of pharmaceutical wastewater is shown in Figure 4. The formation of direct Z-scheme between the two components significantly increased the photocatalytic activity due to the efficient charge separation and high charge transfer. They even reported the excellent stability of the synthesized photocatalyst [59].

In one another very interesting study, $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{KNbO}_3$ heterojunction and Pt-loaded $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{KNbO}_3$ heterojunctions were synthesized for studying its H_2 production ability under simulated sunlight using water splitting. In the Pt-loaded $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{KNbO}_3$ heterojunction, the Pt acted as the co-catalyst that helped in enhancing the light absorption ability and in reducing the charge recombination. The H_2 production efficiency of the heterojunction was even compared with the individual components and the results proved its high ability. The schematic presentation of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{KNbO}_3$ and Pt- $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{KNbO}_3$ for H_2 production is shown in Figure 5 [60].

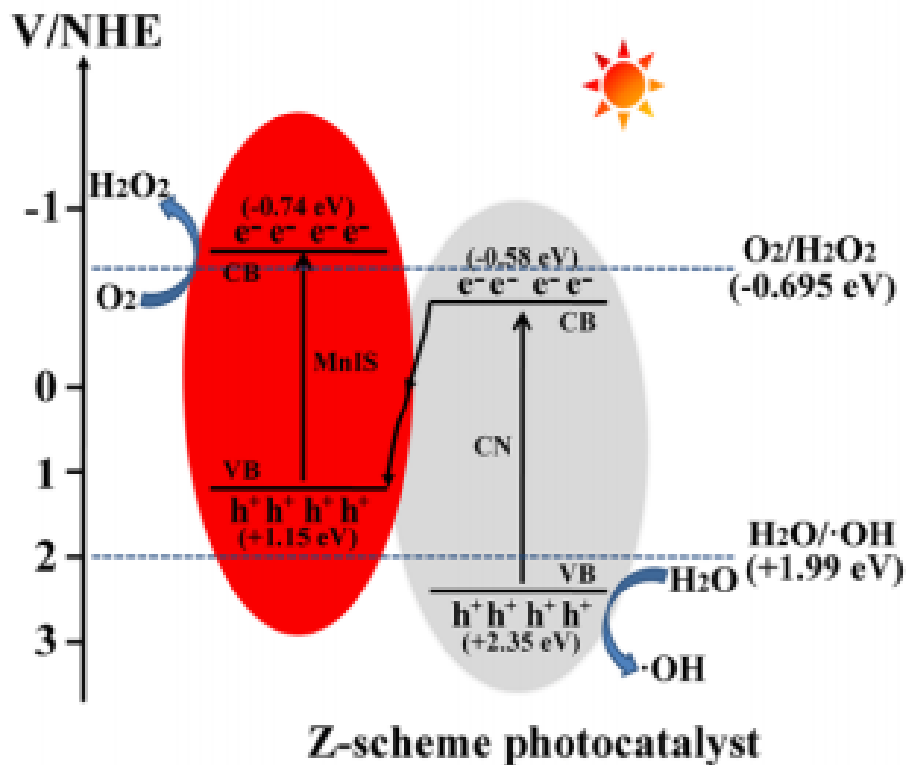


Figure 4: Charge transfer mechanism in direct Z-scheme heterojunction formed between $MnIn_2S_4$ and $g-C_3N_4$ [59].

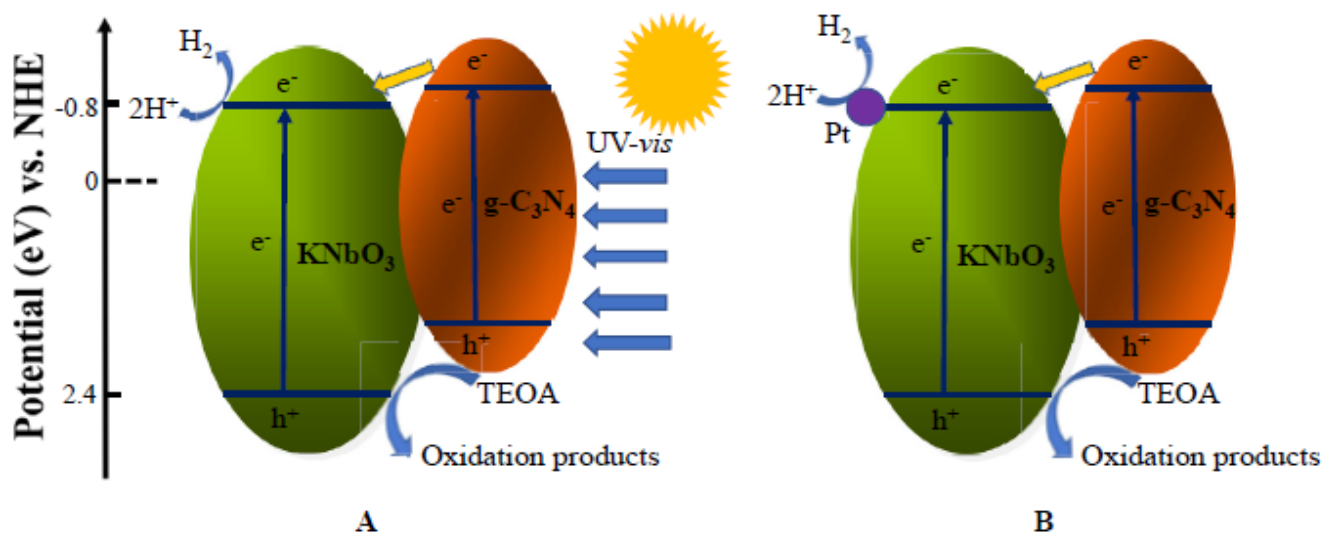


Figure 5: Schematic presentation of $g-C_3N_4/KNbO_3$ and $Pt-g-C_3N_4/KNbO_3$ for H_2 production [60].

Pure g-C₃N₄ shows negligible activity for H₂ production due to its high recombination rate. So, as a modification, a heterojunction of g-C₃N₄ and NiS₂ was synthesized and studied for H₂ generation. The production was found to be dependent upon the amount of NiS₂. The H₂ production rate varied significantly with variation in the content of NiS₂. For 3%, 5%, 7%, and 10% NiS₂ content, the corresponding H₂ production rates were 365.72, 550.81, 715.83, and 540.1 μmol/h/g respectively. They studied the effect of co-catalyst loading with 2% Pt. They found that the H₂ production rate was 2.75 times as much as that of 2% Pt as a co-catalyst. They suggested that the enhanced activity was due to a wide range of photoresponse and efficient separation of photogenerated charges [61].

The g-C₃N₄, rGO and TiO₂ are some of the most capable substance for photocatalytic hydrogen production activity. However, the H₂ evolution rate reported for bare g-C₃N₄, P25 (degussa), TiO₂, g-C₃N₄/TiO₂, and TiO₂/rGO [62, 63] nanocomposites in the literature are comparatively low. In 2017, Hafeez with his co-workers fabricated rGO supported g-C₃N₄-TiO₂ using simple ultrasound assisted wet impregnation. Various concentrations of photocatalyst were synthesized by varying the concentration of TiO₂ and g-C₃N₄ and they found that 70:30 (g-C₃N₄: TiO₂) exhibited the highest activity of 23,143 μmol/g/h for H₂ production. High light absorption and efficient charge transfer resulted in the excellent activity of the synthesized photocatalyst [64]. A probable mechanism for H₂ production using g-C₃N₄-TiO₂/rGO was also proposed and is presented in Figure 6.

In 2016, Liu and his co-workers reported the designing of complete metal- free photocatalyst in which they synthesized isotype triazine/heptazine- g-C₃N₄ based heterojunction by microwave-assisted molten-salt process. They used eutectic mixture of KCl/LiCl as the molten salt and melamine as the nitrogen- rich precursor and treated them in the microwave. A complete synthesis procedure is presented in Figure 7 (a). A huge improvement in HER proficiency was attained that was linked to the isotype triazine/heptazine based g-C₃N₄ heterojunctions. It had an appropriate arrangement of the electronic band structures that provided the proficient transport path and high separation of photo-generated charges. Furthermore, the synergistic effect of microwave reaction and molten-salt liquid polycondensation condition afford an improved way for the fabrication of g-C₃N₄ based photocatalysts [65]. A probable charge transfer mechanism involved in the synthesized photocatalyst for HER is shown in Figure 7 (c).

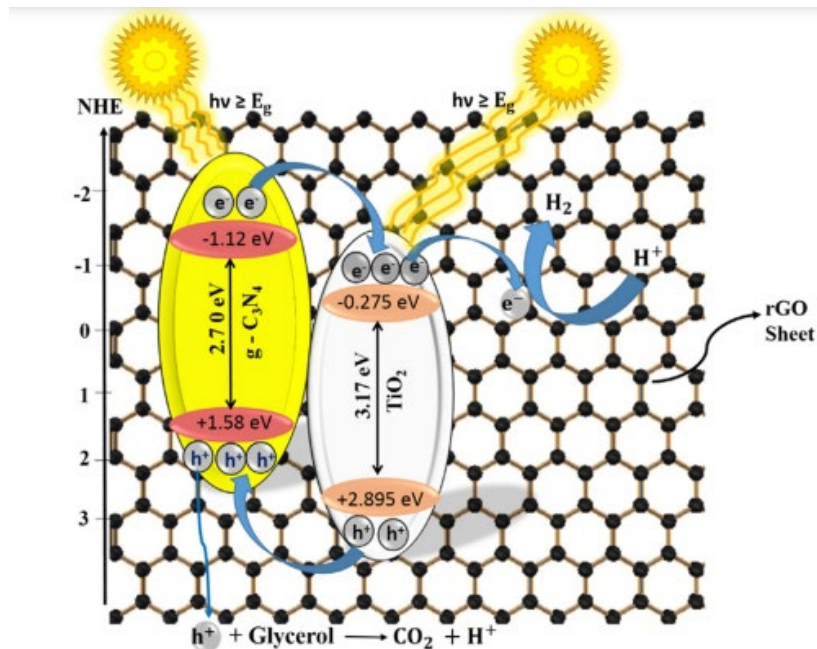


Figure 6: A possible mechanism of H₂ production using g-C₃N₄-TiO₂/rGO under UV-light [64].

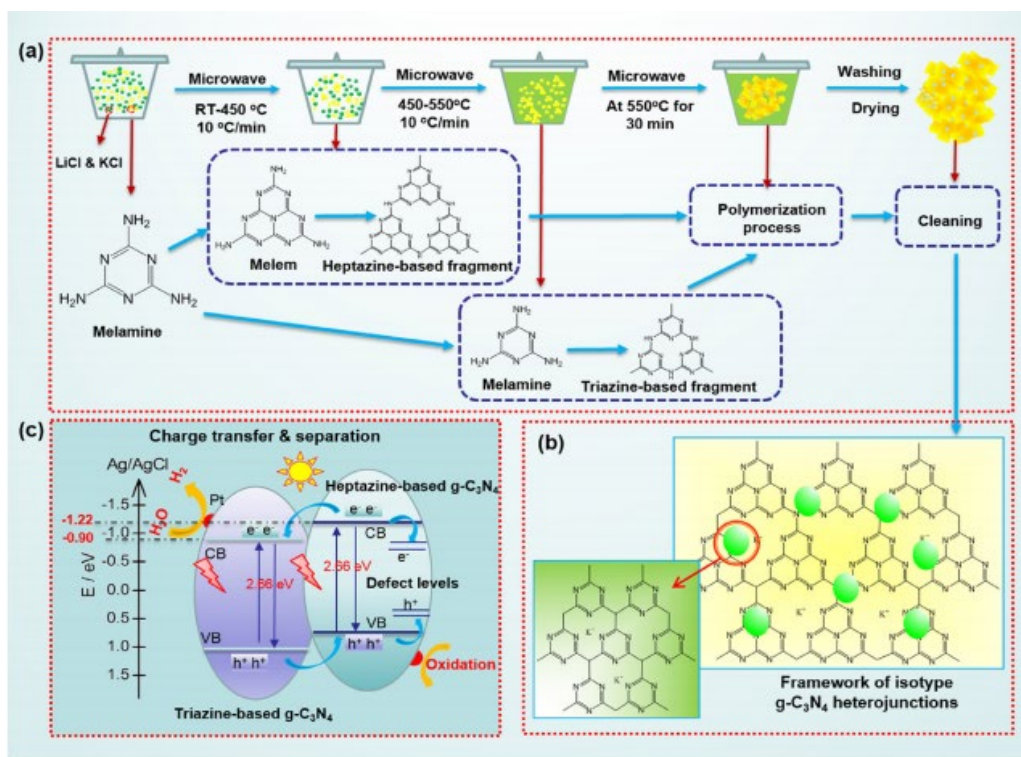


Figure 7: (a) Microwave-assisted molten-salt route for designing of isotype triazine/heptazine based g-C₃N₄ heterojunctions; (b) Structure of the isotype g-C₃N₄ heterojunction; and (c) Probable charge transfer paths in the isotype g-C₃N₄ heterojunction [65].

H₂ evolution by water splitting using a semiconductor photocatalyst is deliberated as quite an interesting and a supreme procedure for obtaining a clean and sustainable energy [66-68]. The photocatalytic performance and stability of any photocatalyst can be proficiently amended by coupling with other semiconductors and doping as explained in Section 2.3 [69]. Liu and his co-workers [70] revealed that the coupling of g-C₃N₄ with ZnIn₂S₄ formed a highly proficient photocatalyst that showed advanced H₂ production and degradation ability than that of the individual components [71].

The sunlight-driven water splitting at semiconductor's boundaries has fascinated extensive attention due to its cost and energy saving nature [72, 73]. In the same context, Cheng and Jiang fabricated the g-C₃N₄/nanocarbon/ZnIn₂S₄ nanocomposite. The resulting nanocomposite showed artificial Z-scheme that was active under visible light for the photocatalytic H₂ evolution and maximum rate obtained was 50.32 μmol·h⁻¹ [74].

Using in-situ photo-deposition method, a novel Co-Pi/g-C₃N₄ was synthesized. The photocatalytic activity of Co-Pi/g-C₃N₄ for oxygen and hydrogen production via water splitting was analyzed under visible light irradiation. The Co-Pi modified g-C₃N₄ exhibited considerably improved photocatalytic activity, and the g-C₃N₄ with deposition time of 20 min (CP-20) displayed the maximum activity. The H₂ production performance reported was about 9.6 times than that of bulk g-C₃N₄. The photo-deposition of Co-Pi onto g-C₃N₄ significantly improved the separation of photogenerated carriers and improved the H₂ and O₂ production rate [75]. A possible mechanism of charge transfer in the Co-Pi/g-C₃N₄ is shown in Figure 8.

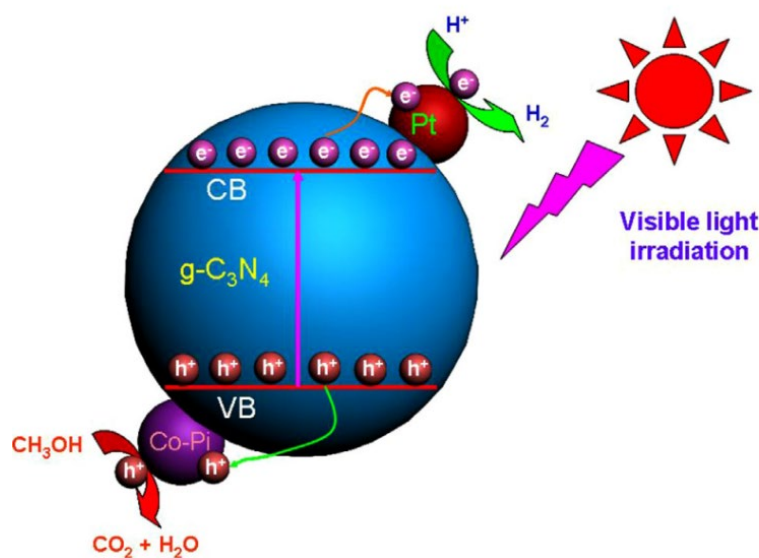


Figure 8: The hydrogen generation by Co-Pi/g-C₃N₄ composite photocatalysts [75].

A novel CuS-ZnS_{1-x}O_x/g-C₃N₄ heterostructure based photocatalyst was synthesized by combination of thermal decomposition and hydrothermal method. The introduction of CuS into the nanocomposite significantly improved the absorption of the resulting photocatalyst. The decoration of CuS highly improved the H₂ production rate from 9200 to 10,900 μmol/h/g and g-C₃N₄ provided the efficient separation of photogenerated charges. The CuS-ZnS_{1-x}O_x/g-C₃N₄ nanocomposite displayed superior photocatalytic activity for H₂ production. The composite photocatalyst CuS-ZnS_{1-x}O_x with 5 wt% g-C₃N₄ showed the maximal H₂ production rate of 12,200 μmol/g/h [76].

Semiconductor hybridization is a proficient substitute practice for enhancing the utilisation of g-C₃N₄ for H₂ production under visible light. This approach is established on the alignment of bands between g-C₃N₄ and other semiconductors, forcing the photogenerated charges to migrate in the opposite directions. It ultimately results in the spatial separation of the charges on the heterojunction and to decrease the charge recombination to advance the photocatalytic proficiency. In the same context, CdS/g-C₃N₄ heterojunction was synthesized. In this, the CdS quantum dots were grown on the surface of g-C₃N₄ [77]. In another study, the CdS/g-C₃N₄ core/shell nanowires were prepared [69]. The formation of a heterojunction between CdS and g-C₃N₄ resulted in efficient charge separation and the transfer of corrosive holes from CdS to g-C₃N₄ (as shown in Figure 9). As a result, highlighting the permanence of CdS and attained a much higher H₂ production rate under visible light irradiation as compared to that for pure CdS and pure g-C₃N₄ [77].

Similarly, in another study, the in-situ growth of In₂O₃ nanocrystals on the g-C₃N₄ nanosheets was carried out. The synthesized In₂O₃-g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst showed substantial advancement in the photocatalytic activity for H₂ production. The improved rate was due to the efficient transfer of photogenerated charges between the two constituting components [78].

At the same time, g-C₃N₄ can also be excited by absorbing photons with energy exceeding its band gap and subsequently transfer the photo induced electrons directly to the Pt co-catalyst to generate H₂. As a result, the sensitized photocatalyst shows a high H₂ evolution rate. Activity under irradiation of visible light longer than the absorption edge of g-C₃N₄ and achieves an apparent quantum efficiency of 19.4% even at 550 nm. Wang and his co-workers also attained a high deceptive quantum efficiency of 33.4% at 460 nm by alerting the g-C₃N₄ layer with low-cost Erythrosin B dye, which is greater than that of CdS-cluster-decorated graphene nanosheets [79] and comparable to that of CdS quantum dots/graphene/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructures [80].

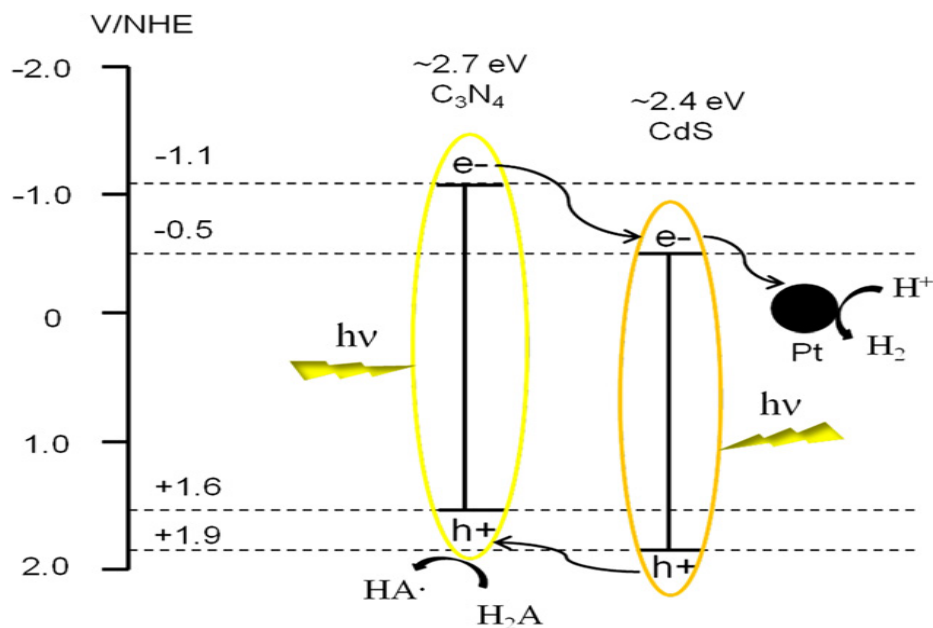


Figure 9: The hydrogen generation by CdS/g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts [69].

Delamination of layered materials into 2-D single sheets prompt some extraordinary properties in it, such as, high surface area, extreme charge carrier mobility, and distinct variations in the band energy system. With the exclusive structural benefits of aligned energy levels, charge transfer, increased light absorption range, and reaction site availability, the as-prepared mesoporous g-C₃N₄ displayed an AQE of 5.1% at 420 nm and photocatalytic H₂ evolution rate of 8510 μmol/h/g, maximum among all the metal-free photocatalyst [81].

InVO₄ was a capable photocatalyst for H₂ production under visible light irradiation. The conduction band of InVO₄ was appropriate for H₂ production [82]. Additionally, many data reported that the preferred morphology and size of photocatalysts could regular the position of energy band for achieving higher redox ability [67, 83]. Yan et al reported that the nano-sized InVO₄ nanoparticles with the size of 20 nm showed higher photocatalytic activity of H₂ production than InVO₄ microspheres [84, 85]. In another study, the g-C₃N₄/nano-InVO₄ nanocomposites were designed by hydrothermal technique. The g-C₃N₄ sheets performed a very important role in the establishment of g-C₃N₄/InVO₄ nanocomposites, which revealed that g-C₃N₄ was an auspicious support for in-situ growth of other nano-sized components. The construction of interfaces enhanced the charge transfer and introverted the recombination of charges, which considerably enriched the photocatalytic H₂ evolution [86].

Table 1: g-C₃N₄ based photocatalysts for H₂ production with their synthesis method.

Sr. No.	g-C ₃ N ₄ based photocatalyst	Synthesis method	Amount of H ₂ produced in $\mu\text{mol/g/h}$	References
1.	g-C ₃ N ₄ /MoS ₂	Photodeposition	660	[87]
2	g-C ₃ N ₄ nanodots	Templateless infrared heating	57.8	[88]
3	g-C ₃ N ₄ /TiO ₂	Vapour deposition method	513	[89]
4	3-D g-C ₃ N ₄ nanobelts	Hydrothermal	27.2	[37]
5.	ZnO/ZnS/g-C ₃ N ₄	Chemical conversion	1205	[90]
6	Br-doped g-C ₃ N ₄	Heating urea with NH ₄ Br	48.00	[91]
7	O self- doped g-C ₃ N ₄	Hydrothermal treatment	158.7	[92]
8	N self- doped g-C ₃ N ₄	Thermal treatment	44.28	[93]
9	Graphene/g-C ₃ N ₄	Impregnation-chemical method	36.08	[94]
10	N-GQDs/g-C ₃ N ₄	Chemical	43.6	[95]
11	C-ZIF/g-C ₃ N ₄	Calcination	32.6	[96]
12	Tapered C-PAN/g-C ₃ N ₄ nanotubes	Thermal treatment	177.5	[97]
13	g-C ₃ N ₄ /SrTiO ₃	Calcination	440	[98]
14	Pt-Pd/g-C ₃ N ₄	Chemical deposition precipitation	1600.8	[99]
15	Oxygen-doped g-C ₃ N ₄	Heating treatment	189.3	[100]
16	g-C ₃ N ₄ /SiC	In- situ precipitation	182	[101]
17	CoP/g-C ₃ N ₄	Thermal decomposition + Electroless plating	936	[102]
18	Zn _x Cd _{1-x} In ₂ S ₄ /g-C ₃ N ₄	Hydrothermal	170.3	[103]
19	Carbon fibre/g-C ₃ N ₄	Electrospinning + Calcination	1080	[104]
20	Cu ₂ O/g-C ₃ N ₄	In-situ technique	33.2	[105]

21	CdSe Quantum Dots/g-C ₃ N ₄		Thermal polymerization + chemical method	615	[106]
22	Organic-Organic Hybrid C ₃ N ₄ /ethanediamine	g-	Solvothermal reaction	3055	[107]
23	g-C ₃ N ₄ /CoO		Calcination + Chemical reaction	651.3	[108]
24	g-C ₃ N ₄ /WS ₂		Gas- solid reaction	101	[109]
25	0D-ZnO/g-C ₃ N ₄		Solution conversion and calcination	322	[110]
26	SnS ₂ /g-C ₃ N ₄		In-situ growth method	928	[111]
27	N-ZnO/g-C ₃ N ₄		Hydrothermal and calcination	152.7	[112]
28	SnFe ₂ O ₄ /g-C ₃ N ₄		In-situ precipitation	132.5	[113]
29	2D WO ₃ /g-C ₃ N ₄		Hydrothermal	1853	[114]
30	Ta ₂ O ₅ /g-C ₃ N ₄		One- step heating	36.4	[115]
31	Sulfur-doped C ₃ N ₄ nanosheets	holey g-	Self- templating approach	6225.4	[116]
32	Benzene ring modified g-C ₃ N ₄		Thermal approach	8.9	[117]
33	Black phosphorus/MXene/Ultrathin-g-C ₃ N ₄ composite		Chemical method	18.42	[118]
34	Nb ₂ O ₅ /2D g-C ₃ N ₄		Subtractive manufacturing method	22,600	[119]
35	S,N-co-doped carbon dots (S,N-CDs)/g-C ₃ N ₄ nanosheet		Hydrothermal	832	[120]
36	Hollow tubular g-C ₃ N ₄		Hydrothermal calcination	235.68	[121]

Conclusions

In conclusion, the advancements in the utilization of g-C₃N₄ based photocatalysts have perceived an epitome of novel research work in the utilization of abundantly available solar light for H₂ production. From this perspective, the H₂ generation via water splitting have well- exploited the exclusive features of g-C₃N₄, which comprises the abundant availability

of its constituting elements; carbon and nitrogen, visible-light absorbance, required band-energy gap, metal-free 2-D structure, and high chemical stability. A tremendous work has been done in this field since its first utilization in 2009. Various methodologies have been discussed for enhancing the H₂ production ability of g-C₃N₄ based photocatalysts such as band gap engineering, introduction of various dopants, and nanostructure designing, etc. Finally, it is supposed that this chapter will be helpful in understanding the utilization of g-C₃N₄ based photocatalysts for H₂ production and their modification with nanoscale features for substantial advances in accomplishing an effective, eco-friendly and economical energy production system.

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Chapter 6

Recent advances in Photocatalytic Nitrogen Fixation

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Abstract

Nitrogen fixation is a standout amongst the most significant concoction responses in the biological system of our planet. Under the regularly pressure of the petroleum product exhaustion emergency and anthropogenic worldwide environmental change with ceaseless CO₂ emanation in the 21st century, examine focusing on the union of NH₃ under gentle conditions in an economical and condition agreeable way is lively and flourishing. Thusly, the focal point of this survey is the cutting edge designing of effective photocatalysts for dinitrogen (N₂) obsession toward NH₃ amalgamation. Creating green and feasible techniques for NH₃ combination under surrounding conditions, utilizing sustainable power source, is firmly wanted, by both modern and logical scientists. Photosynthesis for ammonia synthesis, which has as of late pulled in noteworthy consideration, straightforwardly creates NH₃ from daylight, and N₂ and H₂O by means of photocatalysis. Photocatalysts containing copious surface oxygen-opportunities and coordinative unsaturated metal locales have been demonstrated to be equipped for actuating N₂ reduction under fitting photoexcitation. A few impetus materials are examined which incorporate metal oxides, metals sulfides, carbon-based impetuses, and metal nitrides which are for the most part right now being sought after for their better use of their synergist property towards nitrogen fixation. This chapter portrays the photocatalytic reduction systems of nitrate towards unwanted items (nitrite, ammonium) and the more alluring item (dinitrogen).

Keywords

Photocatalysis, Nitrogen Fixation, Ammonia Synthesis, Co-Catalyst, Nitrite

Contents

Recent advances in Photocatalytic Nitrogen Fixation.....	193
1. Introduction.....	194
2. Advances in photocatalytic nitrogen fixation	196
2.1 TiO ₂ and different oxides based photocatalysts	196
2.2 Oxyhalides based photocatalysts	197
2.3 Graphitic nitride carbon based photocatalysts.....	197
Conclusion and future perspective.....	203
References	204

1. Introduction

Nitrogen is an essential component to different bio-macromolecules essential to the course of life. The living beings ordinarily get nitrogen component in the types of smelling salts or nitrate rather than straightforwardly utilizing the N₂ atoms, even in spite of the fact that the substance of N₂ is exceptionally high in the environment. The principle wellspring of nitrogen, dinitrogen (N₂), is the biggest single part of the Earth's climate [1-3]. It is of extraordinary essentialness to create green and feasible systems for NH₃ synthesis, particularly utilizing sustainable power source under encompassing conditions. Up to this point, different methodologies that can be worked under trifling conditions, including electrocatalysis and photocatalysis, have been investigated with respect to reduction of N₂ for NH₃ synthesis, and a few promising advancements has been accomplished [4,5].

Catalysis is a vital procedure for quickening compound responses through giving diverse progress states and bringing down their actuation energies, which has been viewed as compelling for the structure of dominant part of synthetic mixes. With the developing difficulties in vitality and condition, the usage of sun-based vitality through photocatalytic forms has displayed colossal down to earth application esteems. Importantly, planning progressed photocatalysts has pulled in incredible consideration in vitality related fields, for example, water part, CO₂ reduction, nitrogen fixation. In any case, incredible difficulties still stay in catalysis territories, where a noteworthy impediment is the low clear quantum productivity of impetuses, getting from low efficiencies in light reaping and spatial charge partition [6-9].

Counterfeit photosynthesis of NH₃ straightforwardly from daylight, N₂ and H₂O by means of photocatalysis, is viewed as a perfect, energy-saving and environmentally- amiable

procedure for NH_3 creation since it very well may be performed at ordinary temperature and barometrical weight utilizing sustainable sun based vitality [10]. The system of N_2 fixation is as per the following: N_2 assimilates onto the outside of the semiconductor. In the nearness of light sparkling on the semiconductor, the photogenerated electron is exchanged to the N_2 atoms. The solid triple bonds are debilitated so that N_2 can be decreased, with the cooperation of water atoms. Sadly, both the level of N_2 fixation and the change proficiency are very low because of the wasteful electron exchange from the photocatalyst to N_2 particle [11,12].

N_2 photoreduction was considered to occur in nature over plenteous minerals on the outside of the earth; in this manner, prior examinations on the photocatalytic fixation of N_2 fundamentally centred around soil minerals and sand in nature. Figure 1 shows that photochemical nitrogen fixation.

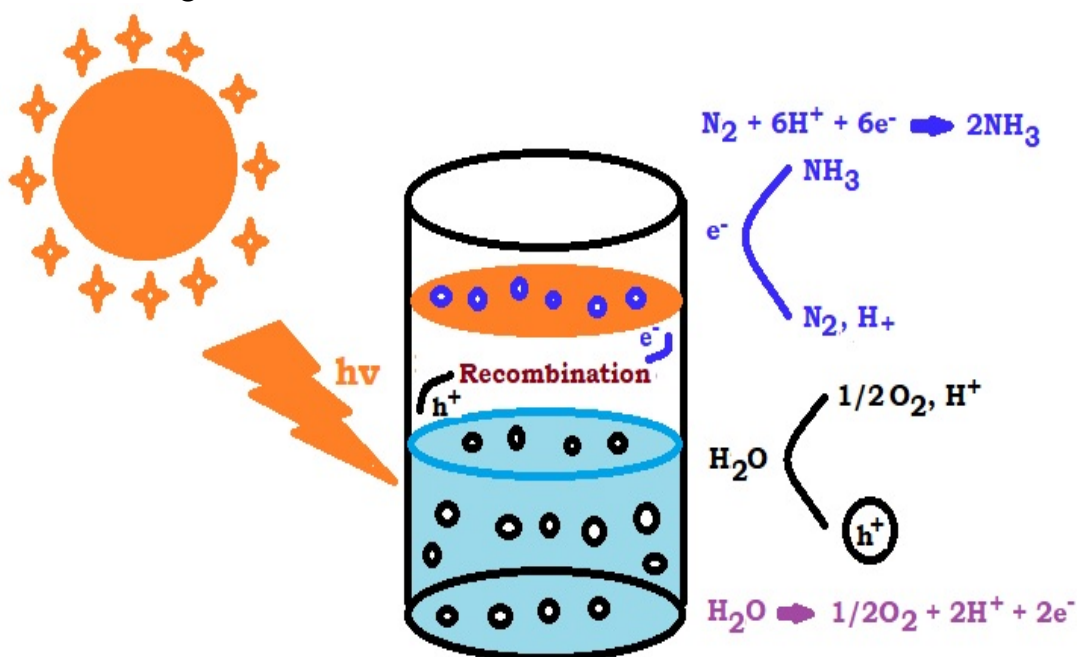


Figure 1. Photochemical nitrogen fixation.

The primary exploratory investigation on as-incorporated TiO_2 -based photocatalysts for N_2 fixation under UV light in 1977. A whirlwind of research exercises have been given to the improvement of photocatalytic N_2 fixation, particularly in the 21st century, because of the way that the light and water and air of this procedure are moderately perfect and cheap [13,14]. The model photocatalyst TiO_2 as a proof-of-concept to change over N_2 into NH_3 and to oxidize H_2O to oxygen all the while under UV light illumination. From that point

forward, the examination in this field had pulled in numerous considerations in the last century, however further investigation has turned out to need substantially more testing.

2. Advances in photocatalytic nitrogen fixation

The photocatalytic nitrogen reduction process under surrounding conditions has been widely considered in trials amid the previous couple of decades. For the most part, there are two kinds of photocatalytic transformation frameworks for Nitrogen Reduction Reaction:

- (i) Photochemical cell framework and
- (ii) Photo electrochemical cell framework.

The photochemical cell framework uses semiconductor nanoparticle suspensions scattered in N_2 -soaked fluid arrangements as photocatalysts. In this framework, both photocatalysts decrease also, photocatalytic oxidation half-responses happen on the various locales of a similar semiconductor nanoparticles, which may result in the invert response or re-oxidization of the alluring items. The photo electrochemical cell framework comprises of photo electrodes with various designs. The photo electrodes reap light to create photocatalytic instigated electrons and openings and advance the charge partition. The initial step of N_2 photo-reduction is photoexcitation, in which the photocatalytic prompted gaps and electrons are created in the valence band and conduction band of semiconductor nanoparticles, separately. The second step incorporates the charge detachment and relocation of photocatalytic actuated bearers. At long last, the electrons diffuse over the mass and the outside of semiconductor photocatalysts furthermore, achieve the dynamic destinations, where the N_2 atoms adsorbed on the locales are diminished to smelling salts by the electrons; in the meantime, H_2O or other conciliatory reagents are oxidized by openings. Various methodologies including heteroatom doping, abandons building, aspect fitting, and surface plasmon adjustment were utilized to improve the photocatalytic efficiencies of the impetuses [15,16].

2.1 TiO_2 and different oxides based photocatalysts

As one of the most punctual considered semiconductor photocatalysts, TiO_2 -based photocatalysts has been explored in nitrogen fixation very early, inferable from its ease, high steadiness and non-danger. N_2 on the powder blends of rutile and anatase TiO_2 with soaked H_2O vapour could be diminished to NH_3 under UV illumination alongside follow measures of N_2H_4 . TiO_2 assumed a key job in nitrogen photocatalytic fixation. Moreover, iron doping could support the yield of NH_3 and N_2H_4 . Aside from filling in as the dopants in TiO_2 network, the progress metal ions stacked on TiO_2 can go about as co-impetuses. The wasteful charge partition and exchange to the dissolvable, the poor chemisorption of

N₂ on impetus surface and the back reactions are the principle obstructions to the photochemical nitrogen reduction reaction process. To beat these issues, some attainable procedures have been created to build the particular nitrogen reduction reaction process of photocatalysts, for example, by presenting deformities or opportunities, expanding the particular surface territory of impetuses, or building cross breed material interfaces of composite impetuses or heterojunctions [17,18].

2.2 Oxyhalides based photocatalysts

Bismuth oxyhalides have drawn wide consideration as 2D layered semiconductor photocatalysts with tetragonal matlockite structure. The layered structures made up of [Bi₂O₂]²⁺ chunks are isolated by two sections of halogen iotas by the van der Waals collaboration, which is anything but difficult to produce opening helpful to photocatalytic exercises. BiOX with a backhanded bandgap can successfully restrain the recombination of photograph produced electrons and openings. Though, the presented surficial oxygen opportunities on BiOX could be effectively oxidized amid the response, bringing about the quick reduction of photocatalytic nitrogen reduction reaction [19].

2.3 Graphitic nitride carbon based photocatalysts

Graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄), a novel without metal semiconductor material, has been broadly connected in numerous fields, including photocatalysis. The flexible use of g-C₃N₄ is generally because of its one of a kind physicochemical properties, for example, moderate band gap vitality, vitality stockpiling limit, gas-adsorption limit and uncommon optical properties [20-22]. As a two-dimensional conjugated polymer, graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) has gotten extensive consideration as a minimal effort and stable photocatalyst with unmistakable light reaction for sunlight based vitality transformation applications, including photocatalytic water part, CO₂ reduction, natural blend, ecological decontamination.

Classification of photocatalysts for N₂ fixation

Most conventional unmodified semiconductors cannot meet the vitality benchmarks for the decrease possibilities of the halfway responses. Up to this point, many deliberate endeavours have been made concerning decision and alteration of semiconductors, such as doping, presenting opportunities, plasmon acceptance, feature fitting and heterostructure get together, to improve the photocatalytic execution. In the resulting areas, the photocatalysts are grouped dependent on their essential syntheses. Figure 2 shows the classification of photocatalysts for N₂ fixation.

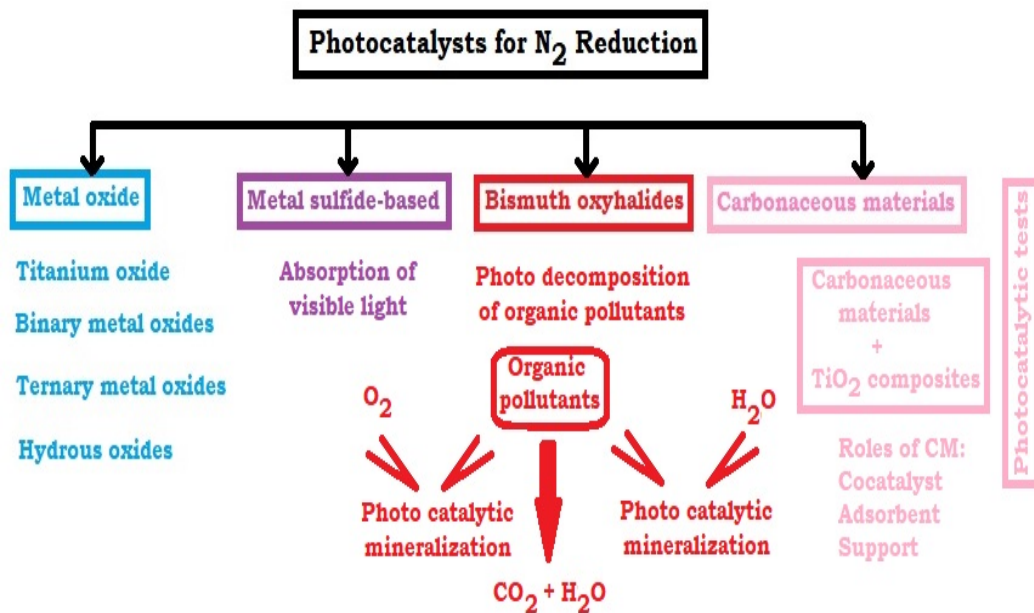


Figure 2. Classification of photocatalysts for N₂ reduction.

Metal oxide

Metal oxides as nano- and micro particles for use as photocatalysts might be gotten by a wide assortment of techniques. The fundamental test in the readiness of nano/micro particles is their security, since these particles tend to total to limit surface strain.

(a) Titanium dioxide

A standout amongst the most significant parts of TiO₂ photocatalysis is that, similar to the photoelectric impact, it relies on the vitality of the occurrence photons, in any case, to a first estimation, not on their power. Hence, regardless of whether these are only a couple of photons of the required vitality, they can actuate photocatalysis. This implies even common room light might be adequate to sanitize the air or to keep the dividers clean in the indoor condition, in light of the fact that the measures of poisons are regularly little. Unmodified TiO₂ displayed N₂ photocatalytic movement after toughening in air in light of the fact that the warm pretreatment created surface imperfections, which presented deformity or debasement states in the band hole of the semiconductor. The shallow Ti³⁺ gave plenteous dynamic locales to N₂ fixation by going about as an electron giver, prompting relative simplicity of separation of the N≡N bond. With a few changes of surficial Ti from Ti³⁺ to Ti⁴⁺, the electrons were normally infused into N₂. Meanwhile, Ti³⁺ could be recovered under UV illumination.

Titanium dioxide shows three crystalline structures:

- ✓ Rutile,
- ✓ Anatase and
- ✓ Brookite.

Rutile is the most thermodynamically stable precious stone structure of titanium dioxide, however, anatase is the favoured structure for photograph catalysis since it presents higher photocatalytic movement and it is simpler to get ready. Brookite is the least steady stage and regularly not utilized in photograph catalysis. There are contemplates that show the benefits of mixings distinctive crystalline periods of TiO_2 for acquiring a higher photoactivity. At the point when diverse crystalline stages are coupled, it is for the most part trusted that the development of electrons from the rutile stage to the anatase stage happens, which causes a progressively proficient e-/h + partition and subsequently an expanded photocatalytic movement [23,24].

(b) Metal oxides

Ongoing investigations on photocatalysis centre around colloidal semiconductors, on very little measured particles in which quantization impacts are normal, just as on semiconductors upheld on latent help. Different parallel oxide impetuses likewise appear to be conceivably promising, since it is notable that twofold impetuses regularly display higher synergist action and selectivity than what one can foresee from the properties of their parts.

Metal oxide-based heterogeneous photocatalysts could be connected to a wide scope of applications in natural advancements. Titanium dioxide (TiO_2) is a semiconductor, which has a place with the group of progress metal oxides. It has pulled in much enthusiasm, with a wide scope of uses, for example, photovoltaic cells, gas sensors, colors, and photocatalysis. Other than the four polymorphs of TiO_2 found in nature, two extra high-weight structures have been integrated beginning from rutile: $\text{TiO}_2(\text{II})$ which has the PbO_2 structure, and TiO_2 with the hollandite structure. For some utilizations of TiO_2 , the molecule estimate, precious stone structure and stage, porosity, and surface region affect the photoactivity. The great properties of nano TiO_2 are because of its low dimensionality and quantum size impact. TiO_2 nanocrystals have a few favourable circumstances over their mass partner as a result of their high surface-to-volume proportion, expanded number of delocalized bearers superficially, improved charge transport furthermore, lifetime managed by their dimensional anisotropy, and the productive detachment of photogenerated openings and electrons. Nitrogen can be effectively brought into the TiO_2 structure, because of its equivalent nuclear estimate with oxygen, little ionization vitality,

and high steadiness. In N-doped TiO₂, basic nitrogen saturates to the cross section of TiO₂ and substitutes for a grid oxygen molecule to shape nitride or oxynitride courses of action [25].

(c) Hydrous oxides

Hydrous ferric oxide Fe₂O₃(H₂O)_n is unrivalled to TiO₂ based impetuses in photoreduction of N₂. This material is delicate to unmistakable light and the quantum yields of NH₃ acquired are higher than that of TiO₂ based impetuses. The structure of hydrous ferric oxide is not quite the same as that of the recognizable types of ferric oxide, FeO. Goodness or Fe(OH)₃. The synergist action starts from exceedingly negative fiat band potential and solid chemisorption of N₂. In analyses on photocleavage of water, it is notable that composite semiconductor particles, i.e., impetuses stacked with metals and additionally metallic oxides (e.g., RuO₂, NiO) give higher quantum yields, as the electron-opening detachment is increasingly compelling in a composite molecule.

Metal sulfides and different photocatalysts

Like the metal oxide-based photocatalysts, metal sulfides have as of late turned into a hot research subject in the field of photocatalytic NH₃ synthesis because of their solid retention of unmistakable light. Photocatalysts were progressively connected to lessen N₂ to NH₃ under noticeable light. The gaps in the valence band caught the electrons that discharged from RuO₂. To keep the high photocatalytic action of CdS for a more drawn out time, perhaps a few estimates must be taken to stop the corruption of CdS to S and Cd²⁺. Multicomponent metal sulfides with sulfur opening, for example, Zn_{0.1}Sn_{0.1}Cd_{0.8}S and Mo_{0.1}Ni_{0.1}Cd_{0.8}S, could lessen N₂ as photocatalysts under noticeable light, and the centralization of sulfur opportunities catching electrons were straight identified with the NH₃ yields. In addition, G-C₃N₄/ZnSnCdS and g-C₃N₄/ZnMoCdS were, separately, utilized for the obsession of N₂. A tight intersection coupling between g-C₃N₄ and ZnMoCdS was the key for effective charge exchange [26].

The presentation of oxygen opening to copy the reactant focuses of Fe-based impetus for N₂ adsorption could actuate N₂ and advance interfacial electron exchange, hence altogether improving the nitrogen photofixation capacity. Sulfur opening in metal sulfide semiconductors may have a comparative impact on nitrogen photofixation since oxygen and sulfur have the comparative synthetic properties. Compact discs have for quite some time been one of the most alluring unmistakable light dynamic photocatalysts because of its effective light assimilation and appropriate band edge position [27,28]. The Mo and Ni codoped CdS was readied. The doping of Mo and Ni causes the precious stone grid twists, in this manner prompting the development of sulfur opening in as-arranged ternary metal sulfide.

Bismuth oxyhalides photocatalysts

Bismuth-based photocatalysts that display great photocatalytic action and strength amid the response have pulled in more and more consideration because of their exceptional electronic and auxiliary properties. Right now numerous bismuth-based photocatalysts, for example, BiVO_4 , $\text{Bi}_2\text{W}_2\text{O}_6$, Bi_2MoO_6 , BiPO_4 , Bi_xTiO_y , Bi_2O_3 and bismuth oxychloride BiOX ($X = \text{Cl, Br, I}$). To date, many fascinating and significant outcomes on BiOX photocatalysts have been gotten. Nonetheless, a few downsides, for example, poor light assimilation, use and adjustment have been found by analysts amid BiOX photocatalysis. The band structure of the material is significant for its vitality usage effectiveness and photocatalytic properties. The positive conduction band (CB) position of BiOX confines its capacity for sub-atomic oxygen actuation, water part to deliver hydrogen, CO_2 decrease, N_2 fixation, natural blend and different applications [29].

Carbonaceous material

The high recombination rate of photoexcited electron-gap sets, low electrical conductivity, restricted light absorbance and little explicit surface zone of this material are primary bottlenecks in the improvement of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ as a productive photocatalyst. Augmentation of its particular surface region and component doping has been demonstrated to be compelling strategies for improving its photocatalytic movement. Composite or heterojunction photocatalysts, which are gainful for isolating redox locales to improve the photocatalytic action, speak to another technique to illuminating the issue of a high recombination rate. Different $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ /semiconductor composite photocatalysts, for example, $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$, $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$, $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{CuFe}_2\text{O}_4$ and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{WO}_3$ have been manufactured with higher photocatalytic movement, in which extraordinary components, including the heterojunction type (band-band exchange), p-n intersection charge partition and direct Z-plot component, are included. Notwithstanding the $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ /semiconductor composite, the $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ /carbonaceous material composite is additionally viewed as an option. These carbonaceous materials give uncommon conductivity, a huge explicit surface region, an expansive absorbance and a quick versatility of charge transporters to advance the photocatalytic action of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

Prospects – photoreduction of N_2 to NH_3

The photoreduction of N_2 to NH_3 is viewed as an experimentally testing yet ecologically neighbourly innovation for the supportable development of the human populace.

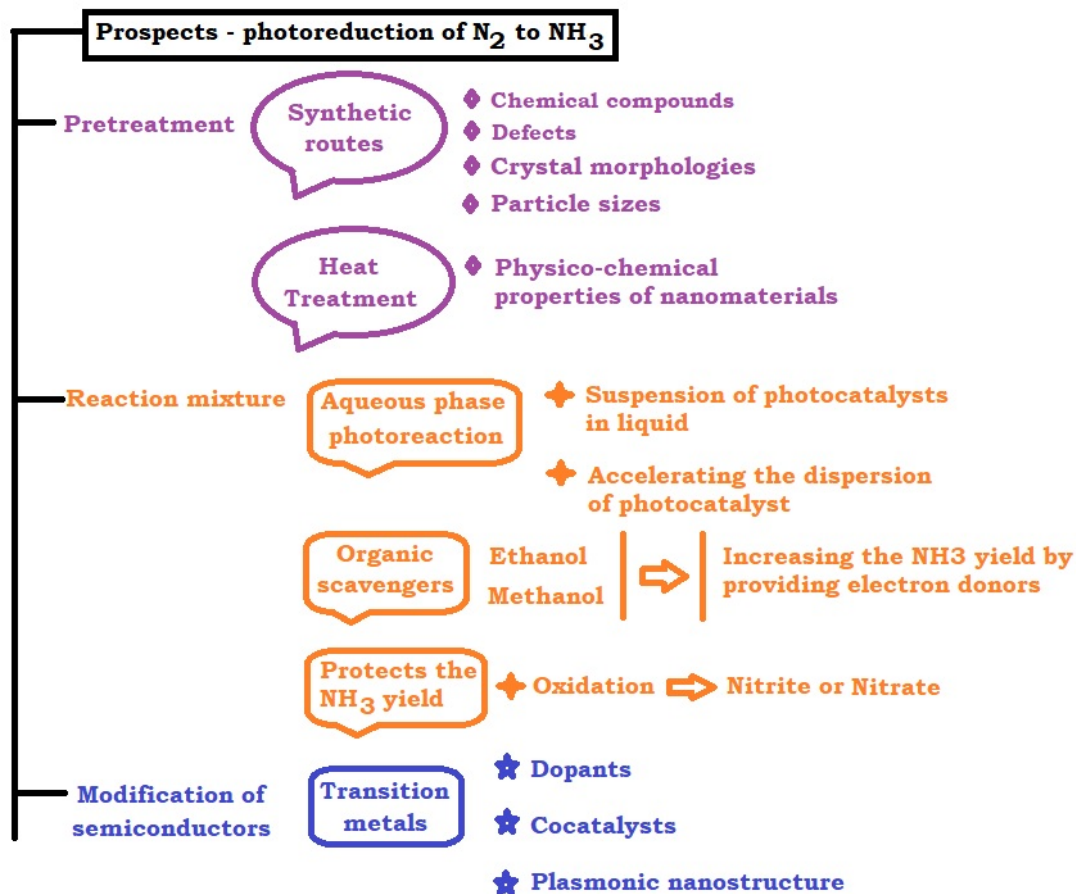


Figure 3. Prospects – photoreduction of N_2 to NH_3 .

NH_3 has evoked much research interest and expansive interdisciplinary consideration as a hydrogen bearer notwithstanding its wide use as a modern crude material and compost. Figure 3 shows the prospects of photoreduction of N_2 to NH_3 .

Pre-treatment

It is evident that the N_2 reduction photocatalytic movement is very subject to the pre-treatment strategy for the as-created impetuses. On the one hand, the engineered courses uniquely affect the photocatalytic action dependent on a plenty of angles, including concoction mixes, absconds, precious stone morphologies and molecule sizes. Also, heat treatment assumes a focal job in the physicochemical properties of the nanomaterials. Remarkably, strengthening at a high temperature presents imperfection states, which upgrade the photoreduction capacity. In another angle, delayed warmth treatment unfavourably influences the stage change and the measure of surface OH gatherings, which is unfavourable to the action of photocatalysts.

Reaction mixture

The gas-stage response, fluid stage photoreaction has additionally been generally utilized by means of the suspension of photocatalysts in fluid. Watery slurry with a suitable convergence of photocatalyst upgrades the photoreaction by quickening the scattering of the photocatalyst for improved mass exchange. Nevertheless, high fixations lead to poor infiltration of photons. The nearness of natural scroungers, for example, ethanol and methanol can clearly expand the NH_3 yield by giving conciliatory electron benefactors to the openings in the semiconductor. Alongside the utilization of photograph created openings in an oxidation procedure, the N_2 decrease rates can be extraordinarily expanded due to the accessibility of inexhaustible photograph created electrons for the decrease responses. In spite of the fact that ethanol is commonly used as a run of the mill natural scrounger, it is vital to extensively think about various alcohols to decide appropriate conciliatory specialists for explicit light-determined synergist frameworks.

Modification of semiconductors

Transition metals are generally utilized as dopants, co-impetuses and plasmonic nanostructures with the point of improving photocatalytic effectiveness. Among these, earth-bounteous iron is the most overwhelming as a proficient metal dopant. Conversely, it has been accounted for those respectable metals as dopants in TiO_2 illustrate hindering impacts for N_2 photoreduction. The prospering examination of oxygen opening actuated in BiOX has propelled numerous specialists because of their remarkable attributes for the proficient partition of charge bearers. Critically, the heterostructure will spatially collect the detachment and exchange of photogenerated charge bearers upon their associations at the reached interface.

Conclusion and future perspective

Photocatalytic nitrogen fixation has drawn rising exploration interests inferable from the accompanying benefits:

- ✓ NH_3 synthesis can be acknowledged by utilizing bottomless N_2 and H_2O as crude materials under gentle conditions, prompting the lower cost as well as the alleviation of vitality emergency;
- ✓ Nitrogen reduction reaction procedure with zero-carbon outflow can proficiently ease ecological issues for example, an Earth-wide temperature boost coming about because of CO_2 ;
- ✓ It can give a potential course to store spotless and sustainable sun oriented vitality and power as a hydrogen transporter and sans carbon fuel (NH_3).

In any case, the advancement of heterogeneous synergist nitrogen fixation faces extraordinary deterrents, for example, the inherent inactivity of N_2 particles, the frail restricting quality of N_2 to the heterogeneous impetuses, the qualities of multi-electron and multi-proton taken interest pathways. Moreover, the smelling salts creation is ordinarily joined by the synchronous age of hydrogen and hydrazine, bringing about a low selectivity towards NH_3 . Even more critically, current comprehension on the essential systems of N_2 photograph decrease and electro-decrease is still very constrained because of the extensively muddled response process. To advance the improvement of heterogeneous nitrogen fixation under encompassing conditions, certain viewpoints on the most proficient method to further improve the exhibition of photocatalytic nitrogen reduction reaction frameworks: The plan of progressively productive, cost effective, environment friendly and vigorous impetuses is truly attractive. It is basic to create novel advances for nanomaterial union, in light of the fact that the variation syntheses and morphologies of nanostructured materials play a significant job in improving the reactant nitrogen obsession execution. The interface control, surface building, substance adjustment, etc are promising techniques for the improvement of impetus execution. Particularly, deficient impetus surface has a colossal effect on the reactant execution. Contrasted with the level mass surfaces, the roughened surfaces with rich imperfections and doped heteroatoms have bigger reactant dynamic surface region and significantly progressively low-coordination destinations, which have enormously improved inborn synergist movement. Moreover, the electronic and geometric impacts prompted by compound alteration can offer ascent to the fitting variety and modification of authoritative qualities of response intermediates on impetus surface, giving better synergist properties. The development of heterogeneous single-particle impetuses is another intriguing methodology for advancing the nitrogen reduction reaction execution because of the high exercises of single metal molecules. For precedent, Ru-single iotas were utilized for nitrogen reduction reaction and displayed improved ammonia yield and selectivity. The uplifting news is single-molecule impetuses could be advantageously incorporated from metal-natural structures or metal-natural edifices.

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Chapter 7

Perovskites based Nano Heterojunctions for Photocatalytic Pollutant Removal

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Abstract

The development of new generation photocatalytic materials used for the betterment of human as well as environment. Perovskites and perovskites related nano-hetero-junction shows great interest for photocatalytic organic and inorganic pollutant removal. This chapter discusses its crystalline structures varying from cubic (high symmetry) to triclinic (very low symmetry). Various methods have been utilized for synthesis of perovskites such as sol-gel, hydrothermal, vapor deposition methods, solid-state reaction routes from oxide and high pressure technique. The first technique is used for the synthesis of perovskite is ceramic route in which the mixture of oxide was treated at high temperature and processed later by ceramic powder method. Various photocatalyst such as nitrides, sulphides, phosphides, oxide and mixed oxide are employed for photocatalytic water splitting or hydrogen generation. Future perspectives of perovskite-related photocatalyst are included in this chapter.

Keywords

Perovskites, Nano-Hetero-Junction, Sol-Gel, Hydrothermal, Ceramic Route, Hydrogen Generation

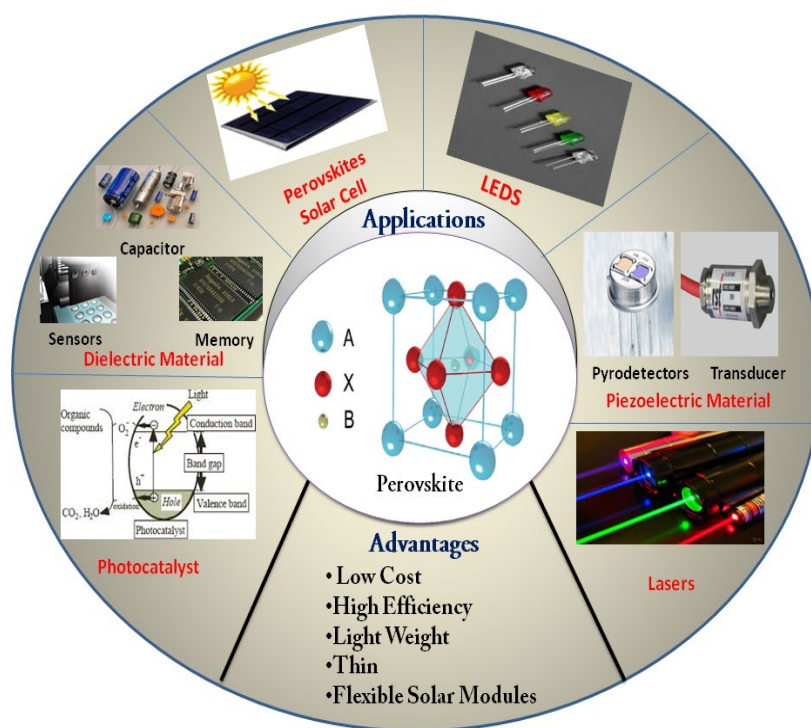
Contents

Perovskites based Nano Heterojunctions for Photocatalytic Pollutant Removal.....	208
1. Introduction.....	210
2. Perovskites.....	212
2.1 Structure.....	212
2.2 Types of perovskites	214
2.3 Distinctive properties of perovskites	215
2.3.1 Optical properties.....	215
2.3.2 Piezoelectricity	217
2.3.3 Superconductivity	217
2.3.4 Multiferroicity.....	218
2.4 Synthesis	218
2.4.1 Sol-gel method.....	218
2.4.2 Solid state reactions	218
2.4.3 Hydrothermal method.....	219
2.4.4 Co-precipitation method	219
3. Perovskites as a photocatalyst	220
3.1 Titanate based perovskite	221
3.2 Ferrite perovskites	222
3.3 Vanadium and Niobium based perovskites	223
3.4 Oxynitride based perovskites.....	224
3.5 Other perovskite systems.....	226
4. Perovskite based nano-heterojunctions.....	226
4.1 Synthesis of perovskites based heterojunctions	227
4.1.1 Synthesis of Ag ₂ S/BiFeO ₃	227
4.1.2 Synthesis of LaFeO ₃ / g-C ₃ N ₄	228

4.1.3	Synthesis of Ag/Fe ₃ O ₄ bridged SrTiO ₃ /g-C ₃ N ₄	228
4.1.4	Synthesis of PbTiO ₃ /CQDs	228
4.1.5	Synthesis of CoFe ₂ O ₄ /BaTiO ₃	229
4.1.6	Synthesis of Ag@BiPO ₄ /BiOBr/BiFeO ₃	229
4.1.6	Synthesis of AgBr/AgTaO ₃	229
4.2	Photocatalytic organic pollutant removal	230

Conclusion.....234

References234



1. Introduction

Various environmental problems such as water and air contamination and energy shortage are being faced by human being as well as aquatic life. Water pollution has grabbed much attention of environmentalists and researchers worldwide. Large quantities of organic pollutants were discharged into the surrounding soil and water by numerous industries [1]. Perovskite based photocatalysts have found great interest in energy and environmental applications. Perovskites was firstly discovered by German and Russian mineralogist Gustav Rose and Lev Perovski in 1839. Perovskite refers to the crystal structure of calcium

titanate and all compounds with the same crystal structure are perovskites. It has a general formula ABX_3 , where A is an organic cation, B is a metal cation and X stands for the halide anions [2]. For last few years, various experiments and investigation were done to study the perovskites ABX_3 . This type of structure enhance its importance in the field of electrical ceramics, refractories, material science [3], astrophysics [4], particles accelerated [5], heterogeneous catalysis [6] and environment [7] etc. Significant substitution of one or both A and B cation sites accept by the perovskite structured sites, which retained their original crystal structure. This type of process shows partial replacement of the cation sites with foreign metal ions, which modifying their electrical, structural, microstructural, and magnetic properties [8]. Perovskite-type oxides and perovskite-like oxides grasp attention in chemistry as well as in physics.

Perovskites have wide range of crystalline structures varying from cubic to triclinic. Various solid state methods are used for synthesis of perovskites such as sol-gel, hydrothermal, high-pressure technique and vapors deposition methods. Perovskite materials show various fascinating properties for both theoretical and application point of view. These compounds are used in fuel cells as sensors and catalyst electrodes and are candidates for memory devices and spintronics applications. Tanaka and Misono discussed in detail numerous advantages of perovskite photocatalysts [9] as listed follows:

- a) They are formed from a large variety of compositional and constituents elements, but their basic essential, basic structure are similar.
- b) Their well-defined bulky structures are characterized well and their surface properties are easily explored.
- c) Their valency, stoichiometry and vacancy can be varied widely.
- d) Physical and solid-state chemical properties have been accumulated [9].

Photocatalytic performance of the catalyst is affected by various factors such as electron and hole effective mass, diffusion length, exciton lifetime, exciton binding energy, electron-hole separation and transport within the lattice. Due to its distinctive crystal structure and electronic properties perovskite oxides show excellent results as a photocatalyst under visible light irradiation. The crystal structure of perovskite shows excellent band gap values and band edge potential which is useful in specific photocatalytic reaction. Separation of photogenerated charge carrier can be influenced by lattice distortions in perovskite. Numerous groups of perovskites such as vanadium-and niobium, titanate, tantalite and ferrites possess high visible-light activity.

The first technique used for perovskite synthesis was ceramic route in which mixture of oxides was treated at high temperature. The first perovskite $CaTiO_3$ was fabricated by sol-

gel route. Exceptional chemical tolerance properties were exposed by ion doped calcium titanate, which can be used for LEDs [10]. Also LaFeO_3 grabs more attention because of its narrow band gap due to this it is easily excited by visible light and decomposing organic molecule and water [11]. On the other hand LaFeO_3 shows good chemisorptions of nitrogen oxide (NO_x) [12].

BiFeO_3 shows excellent photocatalytic activity for dye degradation as well as water splitting under visible light irradiation [13]. In addition, it also shows visible-light-driven photo-Fenton degradation activity. Strontium titanate (SrTiO_3) is widely used for photocatalysis because of its tremendous structural stability, high photo activity and strong photo-corrosion resistibility [14]. It has wide band gap and low quantum yield which is overcome by formation of heterojunctions via coupling with two or more photocatalyst [15] or by adjusting band gap via doping or co-doping with cations [16, 17]. Rare earth based perovskites with composition LnFeO_3 (Ln = rare earth) shows various applications such as gases separators [18], sensors [19], catalyst [20] etc. Various groups investigated their photocatalytic activity because of their excellent photo degradation rate [21] and photo-Fenton like reactions [22].

Hybrid organic and inorganic perovskite (HOIPs) form a subclass of ABX_3 in which the replacement of A-site and X-site are done by the organic amine cations or organic linkers respectively. In HOIPs the organic component in this structure shows additional functionalities and structural flexibility that cannot be achieved by pure inorganic perovskites. Hybrid perovskite have a reported cubic phases of MAPbX_3 (MA = methylammonium and X = Cl, Br or I) [23].

The current chapter is focused on the structure, types, properties and synthesis of the perovskites. It also discusses the photocatalytic activity of the perovskites. Different methods are used for the synthesis of perovskites based nano-hetero assemblies. These are useful for organic and inorganic pollutant removal.

2. Perovskites

2.1 Structure

Generally, the structural formula of perovskite materials is ABX_3 and A_2BX_4 , where A and B are cations and X is the anion, by the formation of anionic bond A and B are binds together. A possesses larger ionic radius than the B. The structure of the perovskite is analyzed as follow: A is placed on edge, and at the center of octahedron B is located. The cationic radii are $r_A > 0.09$ nm and $r_B > 0.051$ nm [6]. Anionic X is represented as oxygen or non oxygen material such as fluorine (-F) and methyl ($-\text{CH}_3$).

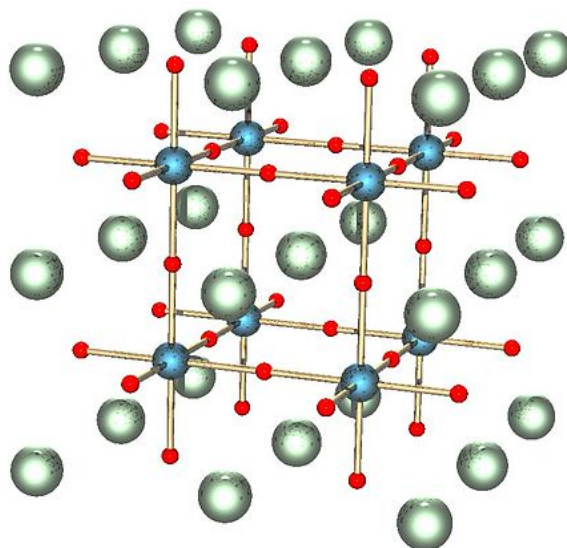


Figure 1: Typical structure of Perovskite.

The structural distortion in perovskite is determined via electronic configuration of metal ions and the ratio of A and B ion size. In perovskites, there are two types of structural distortions, one is off-centering of B ion in BO_6 octahedral and another one is the tilting of BO_6 octahedral. The first type corresponds to displaced phase transition and the second corresponds to order-disorder phase transition [24, 25]. To identify the formability of perovskite structure the tolerance factor (t') was calculated as suggested by Goldschmidt [26].

$$t' = \frac{(r_A + r_O)}{\sqrt{2} \cdot (r_B + r_O)} \quad (1)$$

Where r_A and r_B ionic radii of A and B cation and r_O ionic radius of oxygen anion. When $t' < 1$ gives the tilting mode and $t' > 1$ show centering of smaller B cation which causes tilting of BO_6 octahedron. Due to contraction of BO_6 octahedron there off-centering occur due to large A and smaller B ion. At room temperature the best ideal perovskite-type structure is cubic [27].

The majority of the perovskite material shows the band gap greater than 3 eV which are further modified its band gaps by the doping of elements, which can be used as high photocatalytic efficiency. Depending on the details of the octahedral rotations there is a transformation of crystal phase in ABX_3 perovskite materials which displayed lattice distortion in following succession such as orthogonal, tetragonal, rhombohedral,

monoclinic and triclinic phase, [26]. Some of the perovskite materials examples are given below:

Niobium based perovskites such as KNbO_3 having cubic, orthorhombic and tetragonal with band gap of 3.12-3.24 [28]. CuNbO_3 is a monoclinic crystalline structure with band gap 2.0 eV [29]. SrNbO_3 having cubic structure with band gap of 2.79 eV [30]. Iron based perovskites such as LaFeO_3 is a cubic and orthorhombic structure with a band gap of 2.1 eV [31]. Orthorhombic structure was shown by the bismuth based perovskites such as AgBiO_3 with 2.5 eV band gap [32]. Table 1 shows various perovskites with their band gaps and crystalline structure.

Table 1. Perovskites with their band gaps and crystalline structure.

Perovskites	E_g (eV)	Crystalline Structure	Reference
SrTiO_3	3.1-3.7 eV	Cubic	[33]
CaTiO_3	3.6 eV	Orthorhombic	[34]
PbTiO_3	2.75 eV	Tetragonal	[35]
MnTiO_3	3.1 eV	Rhombohedral	[36]
KTaO_3	3.6 eV	Cubic and orthorhombic	[37]
AgTaO_3	3.4 eV	Rhombohedral	[38, 39]
LaTiO_3	4.7 eV	Cubic and Rhombohedral	[28]
KNbO_3	3.12-3.24 eV	Cubic, tetragonal and orthorhombic	[29]
CuNbO_3	2.0 eV	Monoclinic	[30]
SrNbO_3	2.79 eV	Cubic	[31]
LaFeO_3	2.1 eV	Orthorhombic	[32]
AgBiO_3	2.5 eV	Orthorhombic	[40]

2.2 Types of perovskites

ABX_3 perovskite crystalline structure shows flexibility and its ability to accommodate a broad range of cation or anion vacancies. And show the origin of large variety of

perovskite-based compounds with a wide range of physical properties. The oxide phases have been divided into two types: one is ternary ABO_3 and its solid solutions and the another one is newer complex type compounds $(AB'_x B''_y)O_3$ where B' and B'' are two different element in different oxidation states and $x + y = 1$. On basis of oxidation states the oxides are classified into $A^{1+}B^{5+}O_3$, $A^{2+}B^{4+}O_3$, $A^{3+}B^{3+}O_3$ and oxygen and cation deficient species [41, 42]. The details are sorting in flowchart given below Figure 2.

The complex perovskite type compounds $A(B'_x B''_y)O_3$ divided into different compounds which enclose twice the lower valence state element then the higher valence state element $A(B'_{0.65} B''_{0.33})O_3$, those which have twice the higher state element then the lower state element $A(B'_{0.33} B''_{0.65})O_3$, and at the last on is when both B element in equal amount $(B'_{0.5} B''_{0.5})O_3$ and oxygen deficient phase $A(B'_x B''_y)O_{3-z}$. The valences of the A and B cations are 2^+ and 4^+ respectively. But in some cases if the B^{3+} has six coordinates their valences can be 3^+ . The bulking of the $(AO_3)^{4-}$ layers because of variation at the A cation position which causes distortion and displacement of the oxygen anion. Because of bulking, there is a distortion of octahedral when B cation took as a center.

The B cation has an ability of stiffness to endure this effect, and the transition metal oxide, because of its multi valency or the special 3d and 4d electronic configuration, fills the B cation position. Due to this reason, the transition metal oxides show extraordinary properties and perovskite type structure.

2.3 Distinctive properties of perovskites

Perovskite based materials are used for various applications such as sensors, piezoelectric, ultrasonic and under water devices, wastewater treatment, high temperature heating applications, frequency filters for wireless application etc. Depending on the application, perovskites can be synthesized in diverse forms such as bulk, nanocrystalline and thin films. There is a possibility to synthesize to multi component perovskite via partial substitution of cation in position A and B. They acquire several peculiar properties such as pyroelectric, polar properties, ferroelectric, optical properties and many more. Some of the detailed properties are explained below.

2.3.1 Optical properties

Perovskite is a class of materials having excellent optical and photoluminescence properties. Single domain crystal of $BaTiO_3$ shows optical properties studied by Merz at different temperature [43]. At temperature from 20°C to 90°C the crystal has a reflective index at constant value ~ 2.4 and reached at maximum value 2.46 at 120°C . Thickness of single crystal $BaTiO_3$ is 0.25-1 mm which transmits from 0.5μ to 6μ . Higher adsorption was found for wavelength greater than 11μ and weak adsorption at 8μ . Noland studied

that the single crystal strontium titanate show optical properties produced by a flame fusion [44]. Between $0.20\ \mu$ to $17\ \mu$ in wavelength the optical coefficient was measured. 70% of better transmission was measured between $0.55\ \mu$ to $5\ \mu$. This crystal shows 2.407 of reflective index at $5893\ \text{\AA}$.

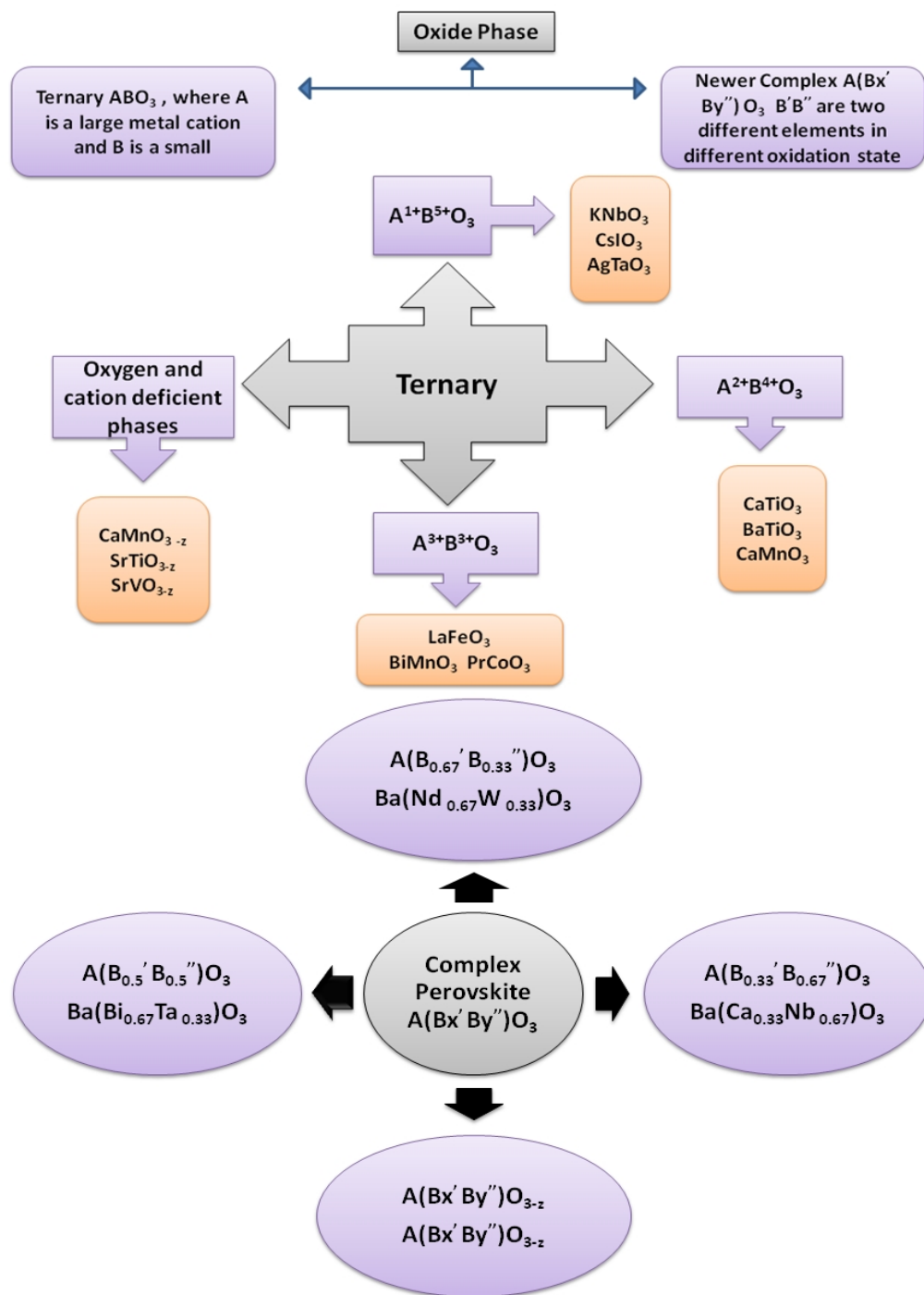


Figure 2: Types of Perovskites.

In the paraelectric phase the electro-optic properties of KTaO_3 , BaTiO_3 and SrTiO_3 were measured [45]. The electro-optic coefficients of these perovskite are constant with temperature. The term of induced polarization was expressed when the distortion of the optical indicatrix varies from material to material. Last few years researchers show a great interest in materials for laser applications. One of the best deals is using perovskite laser host materials.

Perovskite type oxides phosphors are broadly used in field emission display (FED) and plasma display panel (PDP) devices because on the surface of the phosphors particles a adequately conductive to discharge electric charges [46].

Recently BaZrO_3 is well known environment friendly photoluminescence (PL) materials which is used to emit light easily in visible region and prepared easily at low cost [47].

2.3.2 Piezoelectricity

Piezoelectricity is the ability of some materials to generate an electric charge in response to applied mechanical stress. Piezoelectric ceramics is an important group of piezoelectric materials, of which PZT is an example [48]. They show perovskite crystal structure such as tetragonal/rhomohedral close to cubic. The general formula is $\text{A}^{2+}\text{B}^{4+}\text{O}_3^{2-}$ where A is large divalent metal ion i.e. barium along with lead and B denotes a tetravalent metal ion such as titanium or else zirconium. Various examples of piezoelectric materials are topaz, wood, quartz analogic crystal, Gallium orthophosphate (GaPO_4), Barium titanate, Lead zirconate titanate etc.

2.3.3 Superconductivity

Superconductivity is a phenomenon of zero electrical resistance and expulsion of magnetic flux fields taking place in certain material cooled below critical temperature [49]. Many important physical properties are demonstrated by the oxide perovskite. Perovskite type structure provides a tremendous support for superconductivity. One of the best examples of superconductivity perovskite is High T_c copper oxide [50]. Because of perovskite, various intermetallic compounds used as a superconducting material have been eclipsed.

Some of the best example of superconductor is Sodium, potassium, rubidium and cesium tungsten bronze. Superconducting transition in three samples of reduced strontium titanate was measured by Schooley and co-workers [51].

2.3.4 Multiferroicity

It is class of materials which exhibiting simultaneous ferromagnetic, ferroelectric and ferroelectric ordering. Among other multiferroic, bismuth ferrite (BiFeO_3), a rhombohedrally distorted perovskite, is acquiring great attention because of its ferroelectric order and anti-ferromagnetic order above room temperature [52]. In transition metals doped BaTiO_3 achieved multiferroic in new era, from experimental as well as theoretical studies [53]. These materials shows both physical and chemical properties which can be enhanced by extrinsic and intrinsic dopants such as transition metal cations doping, excess oxygen vacancies [54].

2.4 Synthesis

2.4.1 Sol-gel method

Various techniques of sol-gel are used for preparing perovskites such as alkoxide, alkoxide-salt and the pechini methods. Due to adaptability in preparing perovskites, pechini method is widely used. One of the greatest advantages of this method is high purity and homogeneity of perovskites structure coupled with an accurate control of the composition of final materials [88].

The flexibility of sol-gel route, principally the pechini method that delivers homogeneous solutions, helps the formation of perovskite structure and makes it very attractive. This method leads formation of pure crystal perovskite structure at 1000°C . For preparing perovskite materials this technique, is one of the most widely used and studied as the chemical routes.

2.4.2 Solid state reactions

Solid state reaction is one of the most conventional methods of synthesis of ceramic compounds. In this method the oxide powder, carbonate or salt are mechanically mixed, heated at high temperature around 1200°C (Figure 3). During crystalline grains this process is carried out for 8 to 24 hours so that the mobility of cation helps to form the perovskite structure [55]. The reaction occurs at the interface of the mixed solids from the bulk to the interface between the particles.

For the preparation of perovskite, the solid-state reaction is one of the oldest methods that we used. In literature, the availability of the experimental data is one of the advantages of this method. The properties of the perovskite are correlated with preparation or sintering conditions. Sintering effect helps perovskites to form crystal structure. For example $\text{BaCo}_{0.7}\text{Fe}_{0.2}\text{Ta}_{0.1}\text{O}_{3-\delta}$ sintered above 900°C resulted in pure perovskite structure, where unreacted materials remain at lower temperature [56].

Solid-state reaction has some limitations such as it related with the particle size and broad particle distribution of final material. This method shows the precursor powder particles undertake widespread milling as well as mixing. After sintering $\text{BaCo}_{0.7}\text{Fe}_{0.2}\text{Ta}_{0.1}\text{O}_{3-\delta}$ the grain sizes is approximately 1-2 μm were obtained [57]. To overcome this problem, the fine powder is synthesized by incessant milling at high rotation, which helps to avoid the external heating known as mechanochemical route [58]. Even with these disadvantages, solid state reaction is simple and fast method to synthesized perovskites.

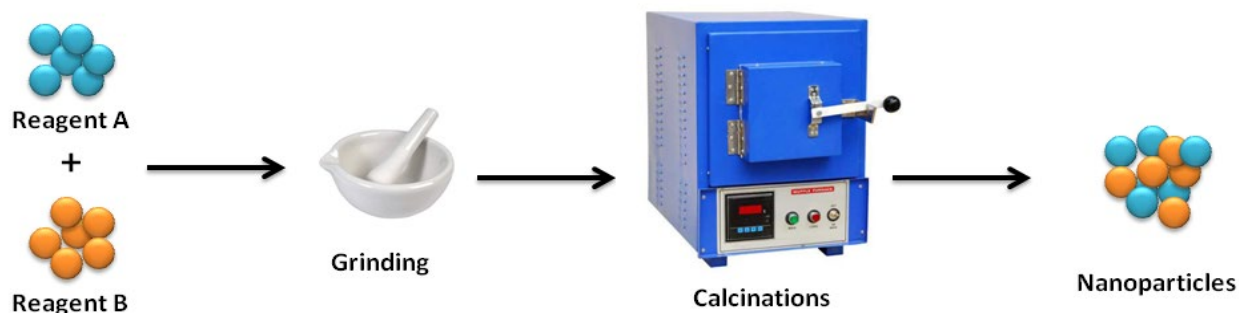


Figure 3: Solid State Reaction.

2.4.3 Hydrothermal method

The hydrothermal method is carried out in autoclave at high-pressure i.e. 15 MPa. At high pressure, it is a combination of both temperature between the boiling point of the water and the material critical temperature. Basically, it is a sol-gel type route which gives a good control of particle size. The basic example of this method is CaTiO_3 synthesized at 15 atm and 150°C and further calcined at 1300°C [59].

Through the analysis of XRD pattern it was found that there is no impurities in the sample and the phases has a similar cell parameters. In case of specific material hydrothermal method is not necessary [59].

2.4.4 Co-precipitation method

Supersaturation condition was required by the co-precipitation methods in which solution with soluble cations are mixed with another solution called precipitation agent as shown in Figure 4. In co-precipitation method there is need to control some important parameter such as pH, mixing rate, temperature and concentration to reach desire physical properties such as morphology and particle size.

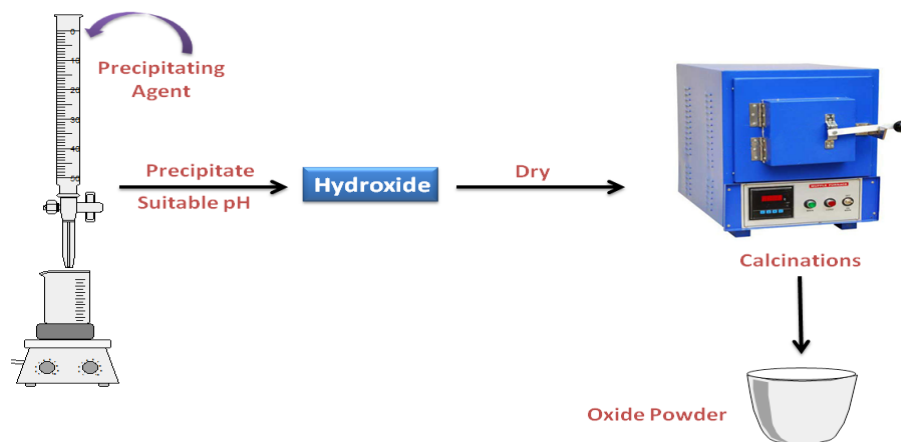


Figure 4: Co-precipitation method.

This method is used in preparing perovskites with good homogeneity and purity. This is used to control on the chemical reaction which is necessary to obtain compounds without deficiency of metal cation.

This method is used while preparing $\text{La}_{0.8}\text{Sr}_{0.2}\text{Co}_{0.6}\text{Fe}_{0.4}\text{O}_3$ (LSCF) by using metal hydrate precursors dissolved in water, where potassium hydroxide used as a precipitation agent [60]. This method is used for synthesis of nanostructure materials such as LSCF [61]. And sphere-like NdFeO_3 nanocrystals [61] with modified particle size and morphology.

There are various other methods which are used to prepare advanced ceramics that can also be used for perovskites materials such as spray and freeze drying, spray pyrolysis, microwave assisted synthesis and sintering, combustion synthesis and physical vapor deposition (PVD). These methods are not widely used, and they are under development for the preparation of perovskites materials.

3. Perovskites as a photocatalyst

Photocatalysis is a phenomenon that utilized the energy input from incident radiation and the catalytic properties to be carried or accelerate certain chemical reaction on the surface of the materials [62, 63] (Figure 5). From last many years various chemical reaction have been studied, which are useful for generation of energy and environment cleaning applications. To design and develop the new photocatalytic material we should understand the mechanism of photocatalytic reaction.

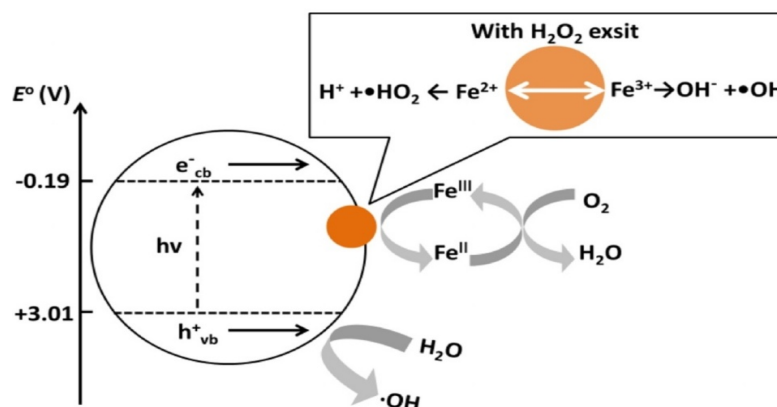


Figure 5: Basic principle of overall photocatalysis [64].

The perovskite crystals structure offers an excellent framework to acquire the band gap values to enable visible light adsorption and band edge potentials helps for precise photocatalytic reactions. The separation of photogenerated charge carrier is influenced by the lattice distortion in perovskite compound. Some groups of materials, which show visible light activity, are shown below.

3.1 Titanate based perovskite

To date, titanate perovskites have been mostly studied for photocatalytic applications. Most of the titanate perovskites show band gap (E_g) more than 3.0 eV and have excellent photocatalytic activity under UV radiation [65]. Titanate $MTiO_3$ ($M = Sr, Ba, Ca, Mn, Co, Fe, Pb, Cd, Ni$) show excellent photostability and corrosion. Calcium Titanate is one of the most widespread perovskites with band gap of 3.6 eV. Cu doped $CaTiO_3$ was widely used as a visible light-driven photocatalytic water deposition [66].

Under visible region, $CoTiO_3$ shows band gap 2.28 eV which has been studied for photocatalytic $64 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ of O_2 evolution reaction was obtained without any co-catalyst [67]. The band gap of $NiTiO_3$ is around 2.16 eV and the light adsorption spectra show peak in visible region which correspond to crystal field splitting [68]. Under visible light irradiation degradation of nitrobenzene is done by the $CaTiO_3$ nanorods [68].

Under visible region $FeTiO_3$ having band gap 2.8 eV. $FeTiO_3/TiO_2$ are used for the photocatalytic degradation of 2-phenol under visible light irradiation. The separation of

electron hole recombination and hole capturing phase are done by TiO_2 [69]. The junction is shown in Figure 6.

The synthesized CdTiO_3 nanofibers having band gap 2.8eV are studied for the degradation for rhodamine [70]. PbTiO_3 is visible active photocatalyst having band gap 2.75 eV. Composite of nano- TiO_3 and micro PbTiO_3 are studied for photocatalytic performance and effective charge separation [71]. The ferroelectric behaviour of PbTiO_3 shows electron-hole separation at interface. Under visible light irradiation MnTiO_3 shows improved charge separation and degradation of rhodamine B [36].

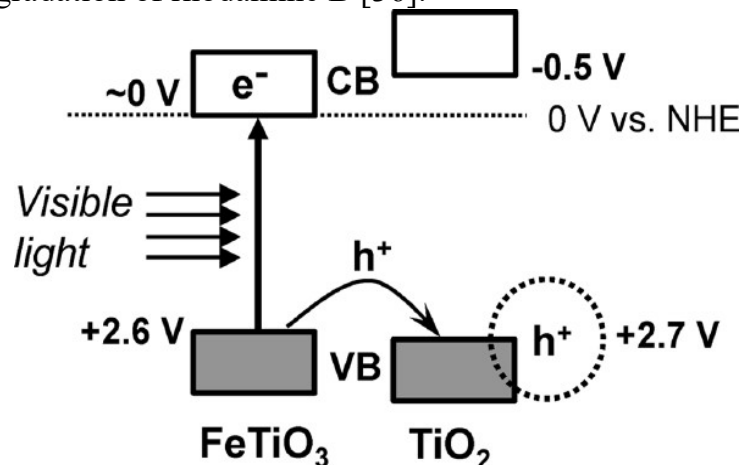


Figure 6: Energy band diagram of Type-B Heterojunction $\text{TiO}_2/\text{FeTiO}_3$ [69].

3.2 Ferrite perovskites

Most of the ferrite perovskite have native band gap under visible region. Under visible light irradiation LaFeO_3 attain 2.1 eV band gap and it is used for the degradation of pollutants as well as hydrogen evolution. Pt co-catalyst loaded LaFeO_3 fabricated by sol-gel method which show exceptional yield of hydrogen evolution under 400W tungsten light source [72] (Figure 7). LaFeO_3 shows better photocatalytic activity than Fe_2O_3 because of its comparative electron properties such as electron hole separation, mobility, photoexcited lifetime etc. Under visible light irradiation GaFeO_3 has been reported to show overall water splitting having yield 0.10 and 0.04 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ [73]. YFeO_3 having band gap 2.43 eV and showed four times better photocatalytic activity than $\text{TiO}_2\text{-P25}$ under visible light irradiation >400 nm for the degradation of RhB [74]. Ferrite based perovskite used for magnetic recovery of particles, which is useful in particle application.

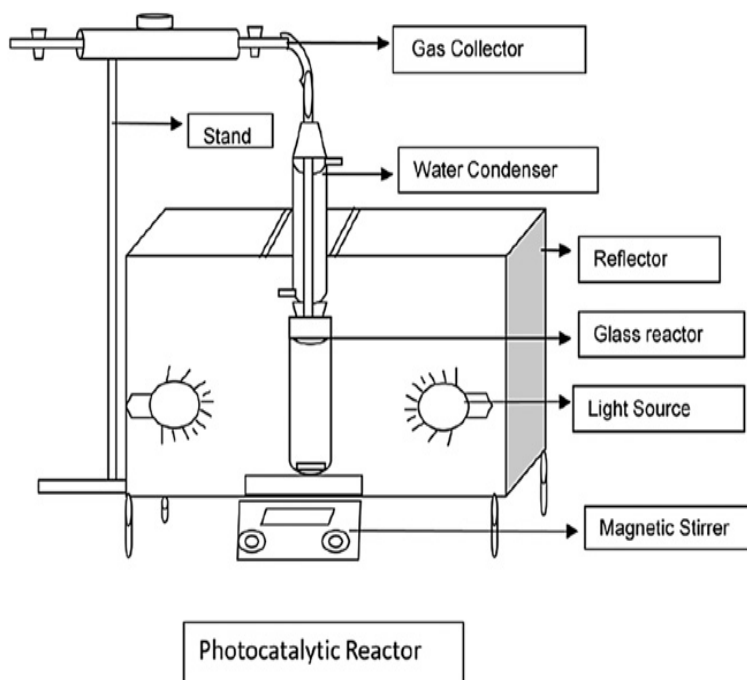


Figure 7: Photocatalytic reactor for hydrogen generation studies [72].

3.3 Vanadium and Niobium based perovskites

Under UV irradiation Vanadium and Niobium based perovskites show excellent photocatalytic activity. Both KbNO_3 and NaNbO_3 have 3.14 eV and 3.08 eV band gap values respectively. Also the suitable modification of band structure as shown in Figure 8 results in effective visible light photocatalysis [75]. N-doped NaNbO_3 used for the degradation of 2-propanol under visible light irradiation [76]. Also, nitrogen doped KbNO_3 helps for water splitting and organic pollutant degradation [77].

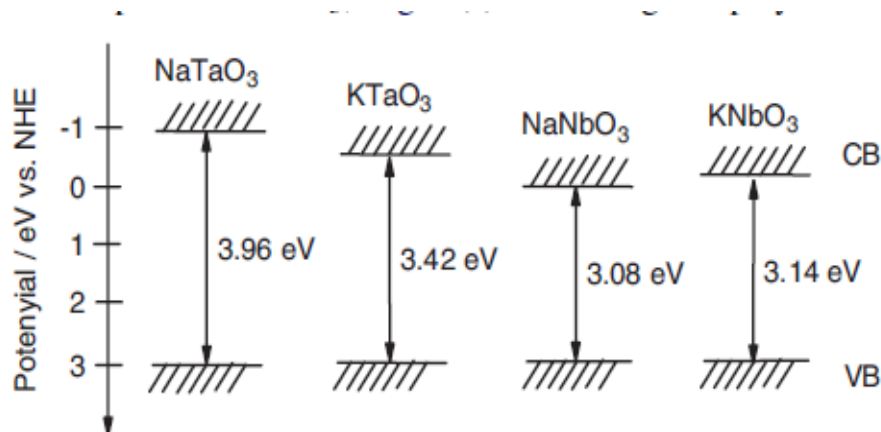


Figure 8: Band structure of NaTaO_3 , KTaO_3 , NaNbO_3 , KNbO_3 [75].

AgVO_3 show both type of crystalline structure such as $\alpha\text{-AgVO}_3$ and $\beta\text{-AgVO}_3$ and having band gaps 2.5 and 2.3 eV respectively [78]. $\beta\text{-AgVO}_3$ shows superior photocatalytic activity than α -phase. Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) were degraded and O_2 evolution was done by AgVO_3 . $\beta\text{-AgVO}_3$ nanowires show tremendous photocatalytic performance in degradation of RhB [79]. Composite of $\text{AgBr}/\text{AgVO}_3$ show degradation of RhB [80]. The mechanism is shown in Figure 9.

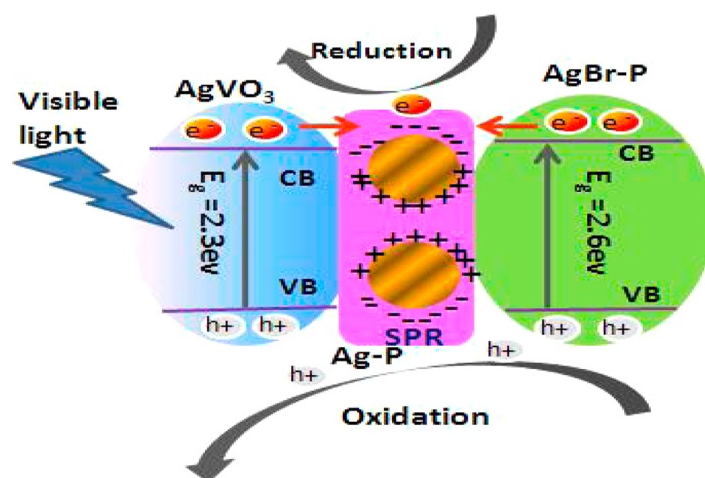


Figure 9: Proposed mechanism of photocatalysis of the $\text{AgVO}_3@/\text{AgBr}@/\text{Ag}$ nanobelt heterostructure [80].

3.4 Oxynitride based perovskites

Perovskite type SrNbO_2N nanoparticles were constructed by solvothermal route by post-nitridation treatment. SrNbO_2N having narrow band gap of 1.94 eV exhibit high photocatalytic activity for H_2 evolution (H_2 release rate is $148.3 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1}$) and high degradation efficiency of methylene blue under visible light irradiation i.e. 100 % in 70 min [81]. Tantalum, niobium and titanium oxynitride perovskites have been reported as visible active photocatalysts for water splitting. Photocatalytic activity of LaTiO_2N was first reported by Domen *et al.* [82] for water splitting in the presence of methanol (e^- donor) and Ag^+ (e^- acceptor) and has been further investigated for acetone decomposition [83]. BaTaO_2N and CaTaO_2N are active in water splitting in the presence of methanol or I^- as electron donor [84]. CaNbO_2N was found active for H_2 and O_2 evolution from methanol and aqueous AgNO_3 respectively [85]. Table 2 shows various bare perovskites for utilization as photocatalysts.

Table 2: Bare perovskites photocatalysts and their utilization

Sr.No.	Photocatalyst/Dosage	Pollutants/ concentration	% removal	Source of irradiation	Ref.
1.	SrTiO ₃ , sulfur doped SrTiO ₃ , and Ag doped SrTiO ₃ (0.5 g)	Degradation of 4-chlorophenol (10 ppm)	99 % within 90 min for Ag doped SrTiO ₃	Under visible light	[86]
2.	PbTiO ₃ (50 mg)	Acid red, acid black (5ppm)	69.7 and 96.05 % in 90 min	Ultrasonic probe power of 100-600 W	[87]
3.	Ag-LaTiO ₃ (1.2 gL ⁻¹)	Atrazine (50 ppm)	100 % in 40 min	Visible light	[88]
4.	PbTiO ₃ (500 mg)	Methyl orange (500 mL, 10 mg/L)	91 % in 180 min	Xe lamp 500 W	[89]
5.	KNbO ₃ (0.5 g)	Rhodamine B (10 mg/L)	89 % in 120 min	Xe lamp 500 W	[90]
6.	KNbO ₃ (1 g/L)	Acid Red dye (5 mg/L)	69.2 % in 5 h	Ultrasonic irradiation (300 W)	[91]
7.	LaFeO ₃ 500 mg	Rhodamine B (10 mg/L)	100 % in 180 min	Visible light	[92]
8.	LaFeO ₃ (10 mg)	Diclofenac (20 mg/L)	98.2 % in 90 min	Visible light	[93]
9.	Erbium doped CaTiO ₃ (0.1 g)	Methylene Blue (10 mg/L)	Rate: 4.54 × 10 ⁻⁵ s ⁻¹ in 2.5 h	Hg-Xe lamp 300W	[94]
10.	AgBiO ₃ (0.1-0.5 g/L)	4-nitrophenol and E.coli (4-ml)	90 % in 5 h and 1 h	Metal halide lamp	[95]
11.	La(1-x) AxTiO ₃ . 5-δ (A= Ba, Sr, Ca) (0.1 g)	Congo red dye (100 ppm)	70.92 % in 60 min	Xe lamp 300 W	[96]
12.	Pt-CaTiO ₃ (0.5 g)	Photo-conversion of nitrobenzene to aniline (8.13×10 ⁻⁴ mol/L)	100 % in 60 min	Xe lamp 300 W	[97]
13.	MnTiO ₃ (0.005 g)	Methylene blue (1×10 ⁻⁵ M)	70 % in 240 min	Sunlight irradiation	[98]
14.	F-MnTiO ₃ (6 mg)	RhB (5×10 ⁻⁶ mol/L)	90 % in 240 min	Xe lamp 500 W	[36]
15.	SrTiO ₃ (20 mg)	CO ₂ reduction (10 mL)	26.4 μmol/g	Xe lamp 300 W	[99]
16.	Cr-SrTiO ₃ (0.1 g)	Cr(VI) reduction	100 % 3in .5 h	Hg lamp 500 W	[100]
17.	Ag-SrTiO ₃ (30 mg)	CO ₂ reduction (10 mL)	80.24 μmol/g	Xe lamp 300 W	[101]
18.	BaTiO ₃ (10 mg)	Tetracycline (20 mg/L)	96 % in 180 min	UV light	[102]

3.5 Other perovskite systems

There are many more perovskites photocatalyst such as compound of bismuth, cobalt, antimony and nickel having band gaps in visible region. Under visible light irradiation pentavalent bismuth perovskites are known to be active photocatalyst. Perovskite such as LiBiO_3 , NaBiO_3 , KBiO_3 and AgBiO_3 having band gaps of 1.63, 2.53, 2.04, 2.5 eV respectively for the degradation of organic pollutant [32]. NaBiO_3 shows better photocatalytic performance for phenol and methylene blue [32]. The growth of *Microcystis aeruginosa* was effectively restricting under solar light source with the help of AgBiO_3 photocatalyst [103]. LaNiO_3 has been used for degradation of MO (>400) [104]. AgSbO_3 has been used for degradation of MB, RhB and 4-chlorophenol [105]. $\text{Gd}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7/\text{GdCrO}_3$ nanoassembly act as a p-n junction photocatalyst [106]. GdCrO_3 are responsible for the visible light adsorption with band gap 2.5 eV [107]. Some of the bare perovskite systems are listed in Table 2.

4. Perovskite based nano-heterojunctions

Heterojunction are analysed as the n-n, p-p and p-n combination [108]. For improving optoelectronic conversion efficiencies, many efforts have been made towards the fabrication of many heterojunctions [109-112]. The heterojunctions are classified into four categories (shown in Figure 10):

- I. Semiconductor-semiconductor (S-S) heterojunction: SrTiO_3 based heterojunction such as $\text{SrTiO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$ [113], $\text{SrTiO}_3/\text{SrCO}_3$ [114], $\text{SrTiO}_3/\text{BiOBr}$ [115] and $\text{SrTiO}_3/\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_3$ [116] were synthesized for various photocatalytic applications.
- II. Semiconductor-carbon(S-C) heterojunction, in which carbon can be derivative of graphene oxide (GO) [117], reduced graphene oxides (rGO) [118], Single-walled or multi-walled carbon nanotubes [119] and carbon aerogels [120]. For example, due to its super flexibility, extremely high specific surface and excellent electrical conductivity the Graphene (GR) in heterojunction enhances the charge separation efficiency, reduce the e^- and h^+ recombination and grant a large interface heterogeneous reaction.

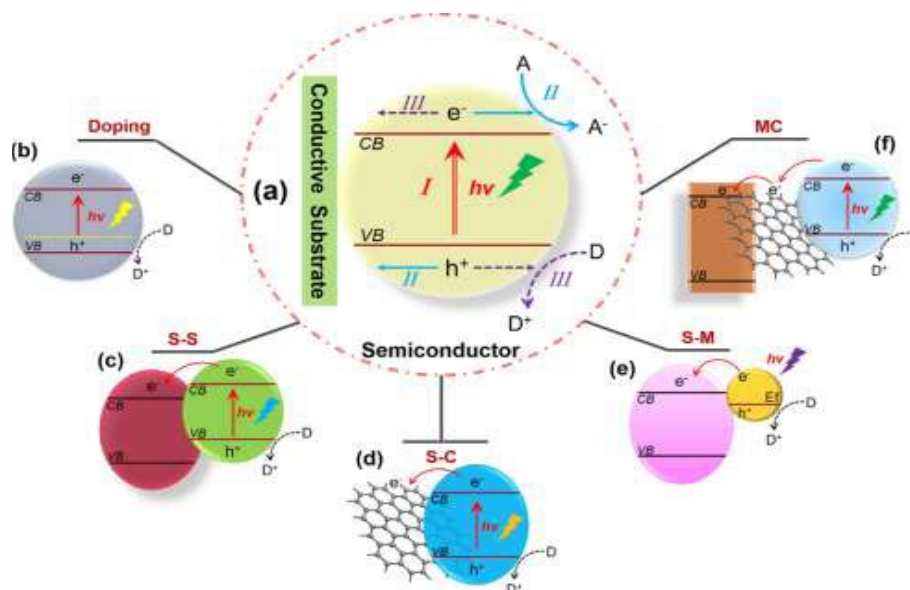


Figure 10: (a) Schematic diagram of semiconductor-based photocurrent generation, (b) Doped semiconductor, (c) S-S heterojunction, (d) S-C heterojunction, (e) S-M heterojunction, (f) M-C heterojunction [121].

- III. Semiconductor-metal (S-M) heterojunctions: Ag-LaFeO₃ nanoparticles (ALFO NPs) which match with p-type characteristics exhibited remarkably high selectivity to formaldehyde, by the modification with Ag the LFO enhanced the sensing performance. Ag NPs with localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) or SPR properties are well known to increase the visible-light absorption [122, 123]. The surface of the photocatalyst is modified with Ag, Au etc. not only enhances solar absorption but also facilitates surface electron excitation.
- IV. Multicomponent (MC) heterojunctions: Various MC Heterojunctions consisting of visible-light active components and an electron transfer system enhance visible light response and transfer of charge carriers. Metallic Ag deposited BiPO₄/BiOBr/BiFeO₃ (APBF) MC heterojunction was synthesized. An excellent wide spectrum photo-response gain by the plasmonic junctions is obtained which makes the best use of BiPO₄ which is otherwise a poor photocatalyst [124].

4.1 Synthesis of perovskites based heterojunctions

4.1.1 Synthesis of Ag₂S/BiFeO₃

Z-scheme Ag₂S/BiFeO₃ heterojunction was successfully synthesized by simple precipitation method. Ag₂S nanoparticle deposited over the BiFeO₃ particles invertebrate by

the morphology and microstructure characterization to form $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}/\text{BiFeO}_3$ heterojunctions [125].

4.1.2 Synthesis of $\text{LaFeO}_3/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$

The p-type LaFeO_3 and n-type $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was synthesized by facile method to form p-n heterojunctions. The $\text{LaFeO}_3/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ heterojunction acquired higher photocurrent density than pristine $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and LaFeO_3 [126].

4.1.3 Synthesis of $\text{Ag}/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ bridged $\text{SrTiO}_3/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$

Z-scheme transfer and surface plasmon resonance effect of Ag augmented by iron oxide was analysed by well-constructed $\text{SrTiO}_3/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ junction bridged with $\text{Ag}/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ nanoparticles [127]. The synthesis route as shown in Figure 11 follows ultrasonication-photodeposition-volatilization-drying route.

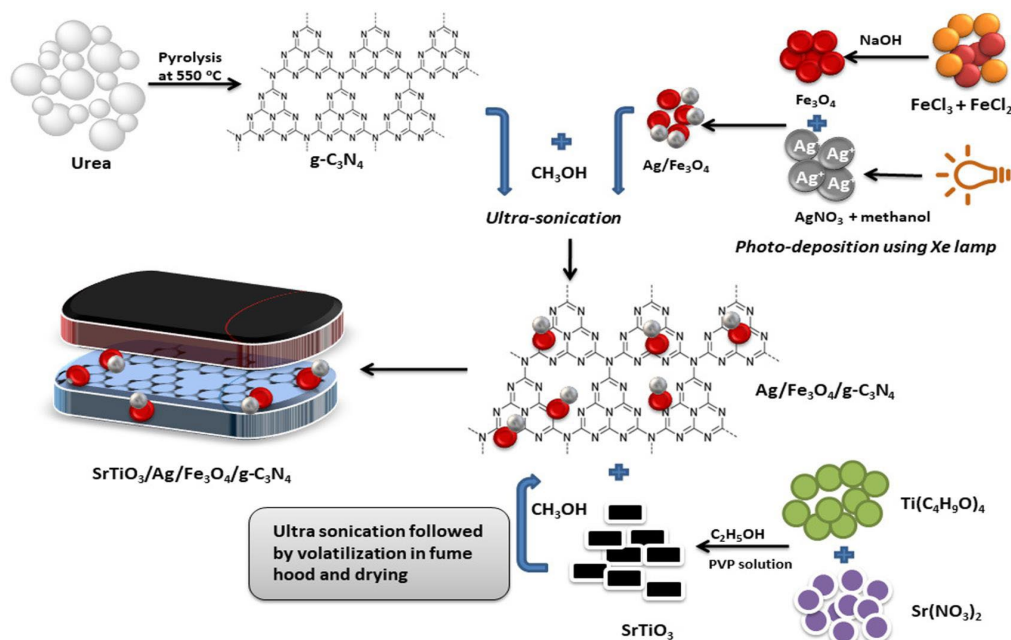


Figure 11: Synthesis Scheme of $\text{Ag}/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ bridged $\text{SrTiO}_3/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ [127].

4.1.4 Synthesis of $\text{PbTiO}_3/\text{CQDs}$

$\text{PbTiO}_3/\text{CQDs}$ were fabricated by hydrothermal route. The Designing of highly-effective $\text{PbTiO}_3/\text{CQDs}$ binary junction possess various properties such as visible light driven photocatalyst, biocompatibility, eco-friendly response and good durability [128].

4.1.5 Synthesis of $\text{CoFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{BaTiO}_3$

Novel multiferroic nanostructure of $\text{CoFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{BaTiO}_3$ was fabricated via co-precipitation and sol-gel technique. The synthesis of multiferroic nanocomposites, designed to enhance the mechanical coupling between the phases magnetostrictive-piezoelectric core-shell type nanostructure [129].

4.1.6 Synthesis of $\text{Ag}@\text{BiPO}_4/\text{BiOBr}/\text{BiFeO}_3$

Metallic Ag deposited $\text{BiPO}_4/\text{BiOBr}/\text{BiFeO}_3$ ternary hetero-assembly were constructed by simple precipitation-wet impregnation-photo deposition method. Surface plasmon resonance effect of Ag helps in protection of high conduction band and Valence band in the three semiconductors [124]. The synthesis route is shown in Figure 12.

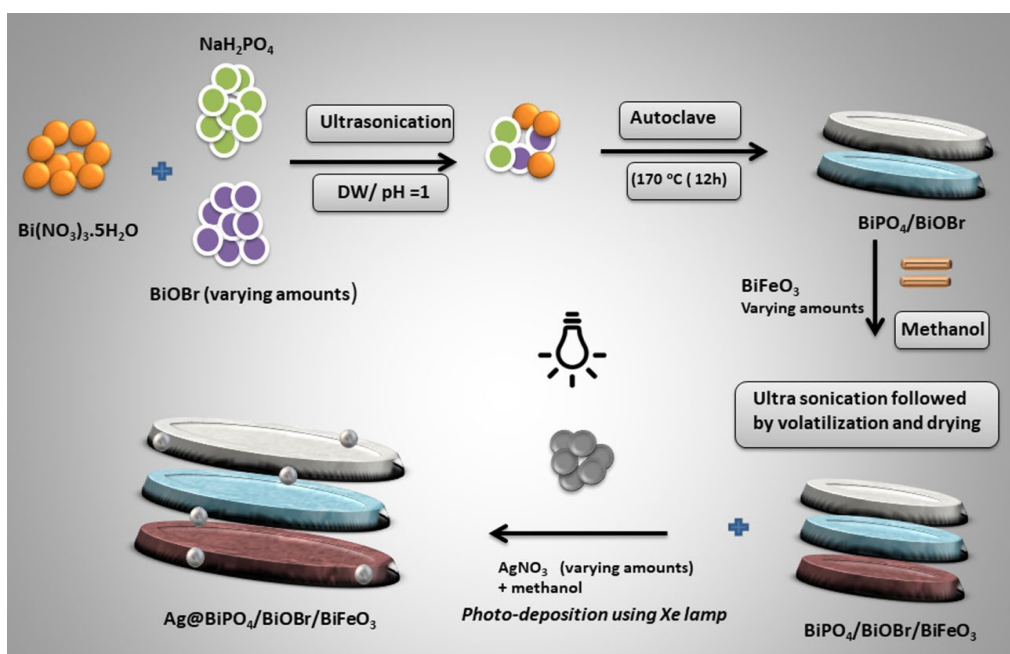


Figure 12: Synthesis scheme of $\text{Ag}@\text{BiPO}_4/\text{BiOBr}/\text{BiFeO}_3$ Kumar et al., 2019 [124].

4.1.6 Synthesis of $\text{AgBr}/\text{AgTaO}_3$

$\text{AgBr}/\text{AgTaO}_3$ nanocomposites were synthesized by hydrothermal route. It shows strong visible light adsorption, which enhanced photocatalytic performance then their bare counterpart [130]. Table 3 depicts various synthesis methods for perovskites based photocatalysts.

Table 3: Synthesis methods for various perovskites based photocatalysts.

Photocatalyst	Synthesis Method	Reference
Ag ₂ S/BiFeO ₃	Simple precipitation	[125]
Ag/Fe ₃ O ₄ bridged SrTiO ₃ /g-C ₃ N ₄	Hydrothermal	[127]
LaFeO ₃ /g-C ₃ N ₄	Facile Method	[126]
ZnTiO ₃ @TiO ₂	Hydrothermal	[131]
PbTiO ₃ /CQDs	Hydrothermal	[128]
CoFe ₂ O ₄ /BaTiO ₃	Co-precipitation and sol-gel technique	[129]
BiVO ₄ @β-AgVO ₃	Hydrothermal	[132]
AgBr/AgTaO ₃	Hydrothermal	[130]
Ag@BiPO ₄ /BiOBr/BiFeO ₃	precipitation-wet impregnation-photo deposition method	[124]

4.2 Photocatalytic organic pollutant removal

Now days various environmental problems are facing by human being correlated to hazardous wastes, polluted ground water, and toxic air contaminants [133, 134]. Many industries such as textiles, dyeing, printing, food and cosmetics use dyes, which discharges a large amount of organic pollutant into land, water which show adversely effect on environment as well as human health [135-137]. By considering the toxicity and wide range of organic contaminants various methods have been developed such as physical separation/transfer [138] and chemical degradation [139]. Under visible light irradiation Cr-doped SrTiO₃ and Ag₃PO₄ heterostructured photocatalyst effectively work. The junction was used for the degradation of Isopropanol under visible light irradiation for evaluating their photocatalytic properties. 97% of degradation of isopropanol was observed within 3.8 h of irradiation [140].

The high photocatalytic active BiFeO₃ synthesized by the solid-state reaction for the degradation of methylene blue (MB) under visible light irradiation. The catalyst has narrow band gap energy of 2.1 eV, high surface area with hollow structure, high crystallization of

perovskite-type BiFeO₃. The promotion of separation of photo-induced electron and holes led to near about 86% degradation in 180 min of irradiation [141].

CaTiO₃ NPs are used as a highly efficient photocatalyst for the removal of arsenite from aqueous solution. CaTiO₃ NPs enhance the photocatalytic activity towards the oxidation of As(III) up to 98.4% within 40 min of irradiation [142].

Under ultraviolet irradiation, photocatalytic decomposition of methylene blue over CoFe₂O₄/BaTiO₃ (CFO/BTO) based nano-composite was reported. The synthesized CFO/BTO showed excellent photocatalytic activity for the degradation of methylene blue (MB) which is 99.3% within 90 min in aqueous solution under UV light [143]. The specific surface area of synthesized ZTOCN junction was 1.69 times that of pure g-C₃N₄ with 76% degradation efficiency for methyl orange (MO) under visible light irradiation within 180 min, about 13 times the pure ZnTiO₃ and three times pure g-C₃N₄. The complete degradation of MB and RhB under visible light irradiation within 90 min [144].

The photocatalytic activity of KBiO₃ showed 100% discoloration of MB within 120 min KBiO₃ obtained by the sonochemical method and 67% degradation of CPF_X was obtained by KBiO₃ synthesized by hydrothermal method [145]. The influence of the enhanced charge separation was displaced in the photocatalytic reaction. Under visible light illumination AgNbO₃/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst showed high photocatalytic H₂-generation [146].

The highly photocatalytic activity for the degradation of Norfloxacin (NFN) was shown by the well-designed Ag@BiPO₄/BiOBr/BiFeO₃ under different light sources within 45 min. Under visible light, the photocatalyst show highest 99.1% of degradation of NFN. Under near infrared 30.2% degradation is achieved in 120 min, this is due to presence of Ag which improves the light adsorption [124] (Figure 13).

The highly photoactive SrTiO₃/(Ag/Fe₃O₄)/g-C₃N₄ (SFC) nano-hetero-assembly was used for photocatalytic hydrogen production and photodegradation of levofloxacin (LFC) under different light sources (Figure 14). SFC-3 (30wt% g-C₃N₄ and 3% Ag/Fe₃O₄) shows H₂ evolution of 2008 μmolg⁻¹h⁻¹ which is 14 times than the single g-C₃N₄. Under visible light irradiation there is 99.3% of LFC degradation in 90 min [127].

The synthesized photocatalyst show high photocatalytic activity for the degradation of malachite green solution. 4.75% of NaBiO₃/Bi₂O₃ shows best photocatalytic activity which is approximately 95.70% of malachite green degradation after 300 min [147].

Water pollution is also caused by the discharge of inorganic cations in the water bodies. Cr⁺⁶ causes many disease such as epithelial irritant and human cancer inducer [148, 149]. Therefore various approaches were developed for efficient removal of pollutants from

water such as adsorption [150] and photocatalysis [151, 152]. The example of binary and ternary perovskite-based photocatalyst listed in Table 4.

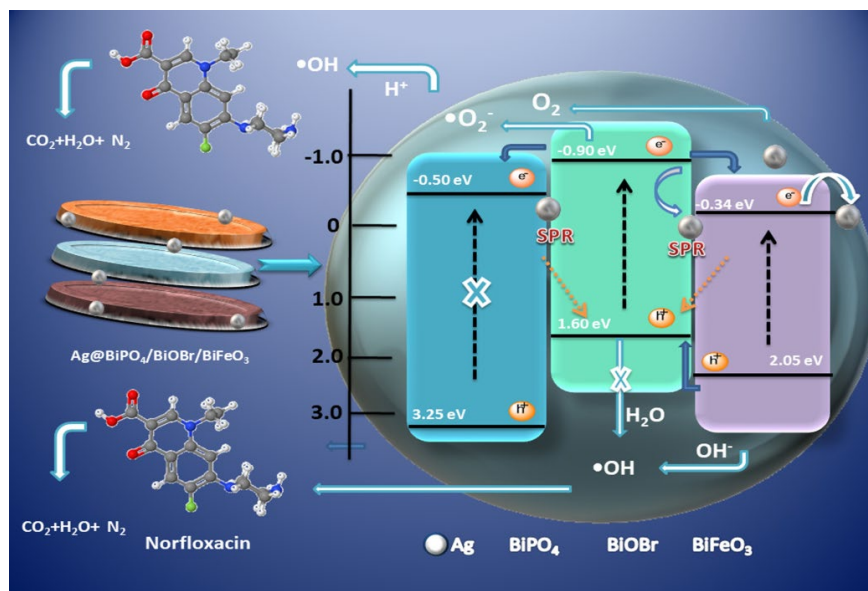


Figure 13: Degradation of Norfloxacin by using Ag@BiPO₄/BiOBr/BiFeO₃ photocatalyst [124].

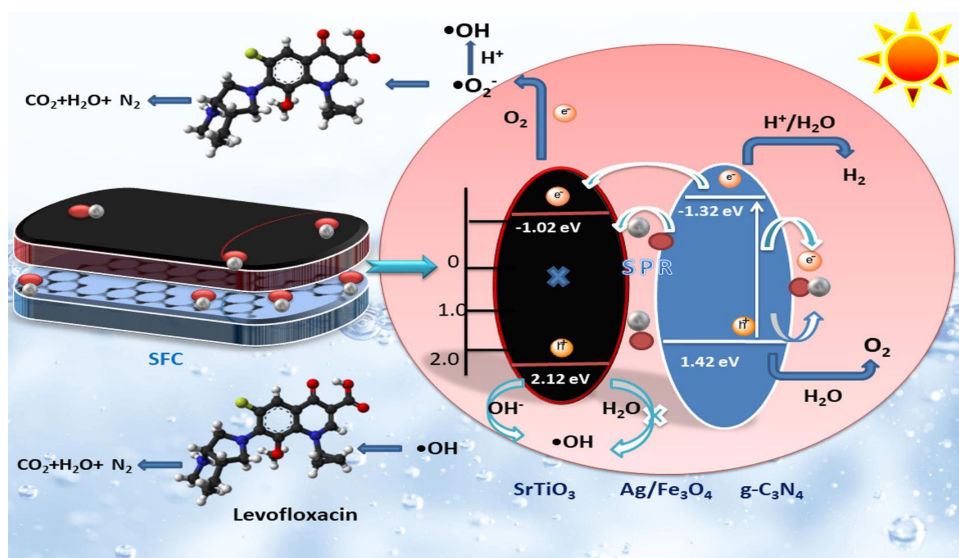


Figure 14: Degradation of levofloxacin by using Ag/Fe₃O₄ bridged SrTiO₃/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst [127].

Table 4: Binary and ternary perovskites based photocatalyst and their utilization.

Sr.No	Photocatalyst/ Dosage	Pollutants/Concentration	% Removal	Source of irradiation	Reference
1.	BiVO ₄ /SrTiO ₃ (0.05 g)	Sulfamethoxazole (10 mg/L)	91 % in 60 min	Xe lamp 500 W	[153]
2.	Ag ₃ PO ₄ /PANI/Cr: SrTiO ₃ (50 mg)	Rhodamine B (RhB) (20 mg/L) and Phenol (25 mg/L)	100 % in 10 min and 100 % in 18 min	Xe lamp 300 W	[154]
3.	SrTiO ₃ /BiOI (50 mg)	Methyl orange (MO), (10 mg/L) Oxytetracycline hydrochloride (20 mg/L)	94.6 % in 40 min 85 % in 90 min	Xe lamp 300 W	[155]
4.	SrTiO ₃ /mpg-C ₃ N ₄ (0.3 g/L)	Basic violet 10 (10 mg/L)	80 % in 120 min	Xe lamp 300 W	[156]
5.	CoFe ₂ O ₄ /SrTiO ₃ (0.1 g)	Azo dye (500 ppm)	98.13 in 120 min	Xe lamp 300 W	[157]
6.	Ag/Fe ₃ O ₄ bridge SrTiO ₃ /g-C ₃ N ₄ (0.2 g/L)	Levofloxacin (10 mg/L)	99.3 % in 90 min	Visible light (500 W Xe) UV (500 W Hg lamp) and NIR	[127]
8.	BiFeO ₃ /CuWO ₄ (0.01 g)	Methyl Orange and RhB (50 mg/L)	87 and 85 % in 120 min	LED lamp 5 W	[158]
9.	BiFeO ₃ /CuBi ₂ O ₄ /BaTiO ₃ (20 mg)	Norfloxacin (10 mg/L)	93.2 % in 60 min	Visible light	[159]
10.	g-C ₃ N ₄ /rGO/ BiFeO ₃ (0.5 g)	Chromium (5 mg/L)	100 % in 90 min	Xe lamp 300 W	[160]
11.	SrTiO ₃ /(BiFeO ₃ @ZnS) (1 g/L)	2,4-dichlorophenol (10 mg/L) and Cr(VI) (10 mg/L)	94.32 and 97.8 % in 180 min	Visible light and Xe lamp 300 W	[161]
12.	Ag-AgVO ₃ /g-C ₃ N ₄ (0.04 g)	Tetracycline (0.015 g)	83.6 % in 120 min	Xe lamp 300 W	[162]
13.	Graphene quantum dots/ AgVO ₃ (0.01 g)	Ibuprofen (10 mg/L)	90 % in 120 min	Xe lamp 350 W	[163]
14.	Ag/AgVO ₃ / BiOCl (50 mg)	Methylene blue (7 mg/L)	93.1 % in 60 min	Xe lamp 300 W	[164]
15.	β-AgVO ₃ /ZnFe ₂ O ₄ (24 mg)	Methylene blue (60 mg/L)	87 % in 60 min	Xe lamp 300 W	[165]
16.	Pt/AgVO ₃ nanowires(0.05 g)	Atrazine (100 ppm)	99 % in 60 min	UV-Visible light	[166]
17.	ZnO/AgVO ₃ (20 and 50 mg)	Ciprofloxacin and chromium (10 and 20 mg/L)	90 % in 90 and 45 min	Visible light	[167]

18.	Ag/AgVO ₃ /g-C ₃ N ₄ (0.1 g)	Ciprofloxacin (10 ppm) and hydrogen production	82.6 % and 3.75 mmol/h H ₂ production	Xe lamp 300 W and 500 W Hg lamp	[168]
19.	MoS ₂ /AgVO ₃ (50 mg/L)	Rhodamine B (10 mg/L)	83.3 % in 120 min	Xe lamp 300 W	[169]
20.	GO-Ag ₂ O/Ag ₃ VO ₄ /AgVO ₃ (0.15 g)	Rhodamine B (15 mg/L) and MO (15 mg/L)	99.2 and 92 % in 45 min	Visible light	[170]
21.	CaTiO ₃ /rGO/NiFe ₂ O ₄ (0.1 g)	Methylene orange (5 mg/L)	98.3 % in 90 min	Xe lamp 200 W	[171]
22.	CaTiO ₃ /g-C ₃ N ₄ (25 mg)	Rhodamine B (1×10 ⁻⁵ M)	97 % in 60 min	Xe lamp 300 W	[172]
23.	PbTiO ₃ /CQDs (0.05 g)	Rhodamine B (5×10 ⁻⁵ M)	100 % in 120 min	Xe lamp 300 W	[128]
24.	KTaO ₃ /FeVO ₄ /Bi ₂ O ₃ (1 g/L)	Ceftriaxone sodium (10 mg/L)	81.30 % in 90 min	Visible light	[173]

Conclusion

Perovskites and perovskites related structures propose a wide range of materials to design novel photocatalyst for energy and environmental applications. The doping and substitution of A- and B- sites as well as the O sites are utilized for reducing band gaps to prepare visible and solar active photocatalysts. The formation of multicomponent heterojunctions is an approach to improve photocatalytic activity for harvesting solar energy and charge carrier separation. The performance of the perovskite and perovskite related photocatalysts gets improved by tailoring of their particle size, crystallinity and morphology. All the physicochemical properties provide perovskites and perovskites-related materials for various applications such as potentials for organic/inorganic contaminants removal, drug delivery, catalyst in modern chemical industry, sensor etc. These represent an alternative class of materials with hybrid character for visible and solar light assisted photodegradation of pollutants and clean energy production.

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Chapter 8

Photocatalytic Membranes

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Abstract

A photocatalytic membrane can be characterized as a blend between a photocatalyst and membrane; it is promising for taking care of the issues experienced in detachment and photocatalysis. The photocatalyst can deliver, by retention of bright, infrared, or obvious light, compound changes of response accomplices, continually accompanying them into different compound communications without the event of a perpetual change of its synthetic synthesis. There has been significant advancement in the improvement of photocatalytic membrane through joining of metal-oxide photocatalysts to upgrade the presentation of the membranes. An ideal measure of the photocatalyst ought to be consolidated into the membrane to acknowledge sensible photocatalytic action with insignificant outcomes. New improvements in structure and assembling of photocatalytic membranes have made an incredible commitment to the photocatalytic application. Hybridizing photocatalysis with membrane offers photocatalytic response and products partition in a solitary advance and well control of the product maintenance. This section features a portion of the ongoing advances in photocatalytic membrane - kinds of photocatalysts hybridized with the membrane frameworks, reactor design, and average strategies for the creation of photocatalytic membranes, manufacture and membrane application in cleansing and pollutant expulsion from wastewater.

Keywords

Photocatalysis, Membrane, Metal-Oxide Photocatalysts, Wastewater, Purification

Contents

Photocatalytic Membranes.....	253
2. Photocatalytic membrane reactor.....	257
2.1 Conversion of organic compounds.....	257
2.2 Corruption of organic compounds.....	257
2.3 Obstinate pollutants degradation.....	258
2.4 Photocatalytic nanomaterials: Preparation and properties.....	259
2.5 Photocatalytic process.....	260
2.6 Photocatalytic processes by membrane operations.....	260
3. Working parameters and limits of photocatalytic membranes.....	261
3.1 Working mode.....	261
3.2 Light source.....	262
3.3 Feed characteristics.....	263
3.4 Stream rate over and across the membrane.....	264
3.5 Photocatalyst type.....	264
3.5.1 TiO ₂ photocatalyst.....	264
3.5.2 ZnO photocatalyst.....	265
3.5.3 WO ₃ photocatalyst.....	266
3.6 Typology of photocatalyst immobilization.....	266
4. Future tendencies.....	268
References.....	269

1. Introduction

A photocatalytic membrane can be characterized as a blend between a photocatalyst and a membrane. The photocatalyst can deliver, by retention of bright, infrared, or unmistakable light, synthetic changes of response accomplices, over and again accompanying them into different concoction associations without the event of a lasting adjustment of its synthetic arrangement [1,2]. The membrane has the assignment to immobilize the photocatalyst and to go about as an atomic partition obstruction for the reagents or potentially response items. This synergic mix can have a few points of interest in examination with conventional reactors relying upon the particular capacities performed by the membrane. Membrane

partitions are in certainty regularly portrayed by lower working temperature, in correlation with warm partition forms, for example, refining, and they might offer an answer because of impetuses or items with a constrained warm strength [3,4].

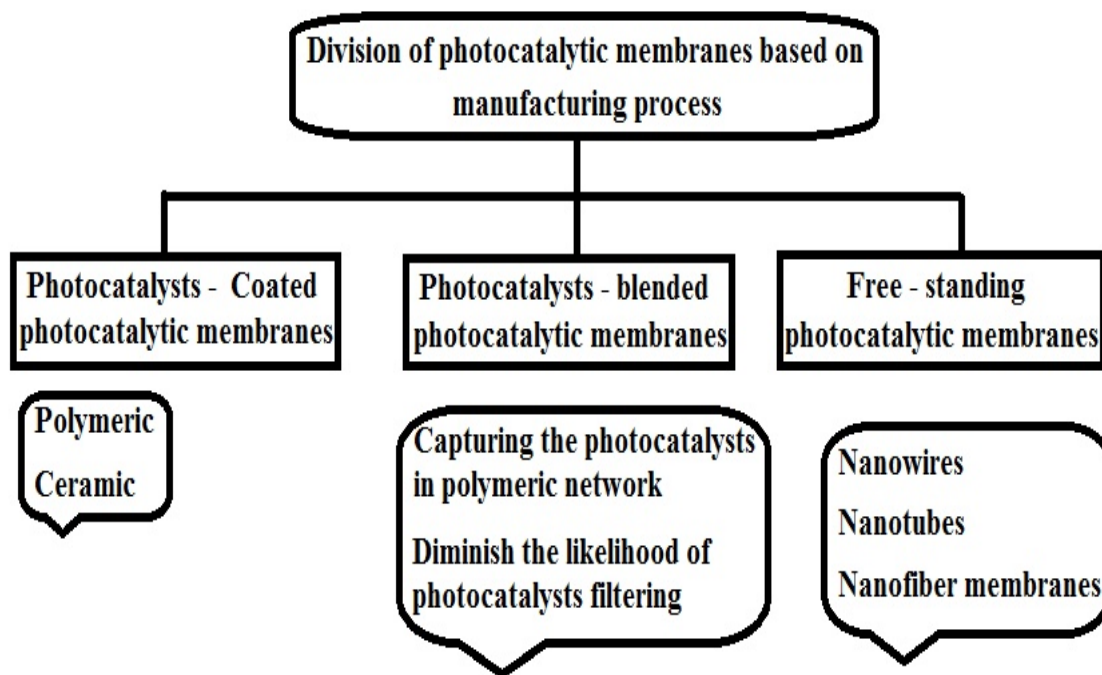


Figure 1. Division of photocatalytic membrane.

Furthermore, membrane division forms can isolate non-volatile parts by a distinction in measurements, charge, or instability. Figure 1 shows that division of photocatalytic membranes based on manufacturing process. The membrane can likewise characterize the response volume giving a reaching zone to two immiscible stages (e.g., in stage exchange catalysis) keeping away from the utilization of contaminating helpers, similar to solvents, in concurrence with the green science standards. The plan of the membrane reactor requires a multidisciplinary approach in which extraordinary disciplines, similar to: science, compound building, membrane designing, and procedure building, give their commitment to accomplish a synergic blend of the partition and response forms that permits ideal exhibitions regarding profitability and maintainability [5].

Consolidating membrane and photocatalytic innovation has been proposed as of late, in particular photocatalytic membrane. New advancements in structure and assembling of photocatalytic membranes have made an extraordinary commitment to the photocatalytic application [6]. Hybridizing photocatalysis with membrane offers photocatalytic response and products division in a solitary advance and well control of the products and results

maintenance [7,8]. Photocatalytic membranes utilized in response frameworks spare extensive vitality and time, making critical commitments to upgrade photocatalytic forms. Photocatalytic membranes have extraordinary potential for water refinement, wastewater treatment, and self-cleaning applications in light of their antifouling, antimicrobial, and super hydrophilic properties, just as simultaneous photocatalytic oxidation and division [9,10].

The present key issues for the utilization of photocatalytic half and half membrane are the means by which to create frameworks that manage reasonable streams while guaranteeing the majority of the photocatalyst particles are dynamic and how to ensure the membrane protection from fouling [11]. Fouling is a procedure of adsorption or affidavit of particles, colloids, salt, and macromolecules on the surface or inside pores of membranes, causing an abatement of saturation transition, selectivity, and detachability of the membrane and notwithstanding shortening the membrane life. It has been exhibited that the characteristic hydrophobicity of membrane materials is one of the fundamental purposes behind fouling because natural foulants can be effectively adsorbed on the hydrophobic membrane. The basic cleaning or discharging cannot expel these natural foulants. To take care of this issue, numerous endeavours have been given to improve the surface properties of the membrane in the creation procedure [12,13]. Photocatalytic membrane reactor with solubilized/suspended photocatalyst can be additionally characterized in:

- ✓ Integrative-type photocatalytic membrane and
- ✓ Split sort photocatalytic membrane

In the first, the photocatalytic response and membrane division forms occur in one mechanical assembly, i.e., an inorganic or polymeric membrane is submerged in the slurry photocatalytic reactor. In split-type photocatalytic, membrane the photocatalytic response and membrane partition occur into two separate mechanical assemblies, i.e., the photocatalysis module and the membrane module, which are suitably coupled.

The designs examined were

(i) Light of the cell containing the membrane, with three sub-cases:

- ✓ impetus kept on the membrane;
- ✓ impetus in suspension, restricted by methods for the membrane;
- ✓ entanglement of the photocatalyst in a polysulfone membrane; and

(ii) Illumination of the distribution tank and impetus in suspension bound by methods for the membrane. Besides, the setup where the distribution tank was lighted and the impetus was utilized in suspension seemed, by all accounts, to be the most fascinating for modern

applications. For instance, in reactor improvement, high light productivity, high membrane saturate stream rate, and selectivity can be gotten by measuring independently the "photocatalytic framework" and the "Membrane framework" and exploiting all the best research results for every framework.

2. Photocatalytic membrane reactor

2.1 Conversion of organic compounds

Photocatalytic blend in membrane reactors is still at a starter look into stage, regardless of the extraordinary probability of photocatalytic forms, particularly when they are combined with a membrane partition framework. The likelihood of utilizing a membrane photoreactor for natural union, building up a crossover framework in which the photocatalytic response and the division of the ideal item happens in one stage is of high intrigue. TiO_2 has been utilized as impetus, benzene as both reactant and extraction dissolvable, and a polypropylene membrane to isolate the natural stage from the watery receptive condition. To maintain a strategic distance from auxiliary items and to acquire a proficient phenol generation, the utilization of a membrane framework, with high phenol penetrability and complete dismissal of the impetus, combined with the photocatalytic procedure, appears a helpful arrangement. The membrane photoreactor worked in this investigation comprises of an outside light set on a group reactor containing the watery arrangement with the impetus in suspension; by methods for a peristaltic siphon, the arrangement is pulled back from the photocatalytic reactor to a membrane contactor module in which a benzene arrangement is available as strip stage.

2.2 Corruption of organic compounds

Debasement of natural mixes in photocatalytic membrane reactors has been one of the principal applications in the blend of photocatalysis and membranes. The likelihood of utilizing a membrane photoreactor for debasement of organics, building up a mixture framework in which the photocatalytic response and the division of the ideal item happen in just a single gadget, is of high intrigue.

The impact of characteristic natural issue (i.e., humic acids) and cross-stream speeds on UF transitions and natural expulsion was investigated with and without UV light in the photocatalytic reactor. The communication between the two solutes in the framework, humic acids and TiO_2 photocatalysts, assumed a noteworthy job in the development of thick cake membranes at the membrane surface, prompting a more prominent motion decrease amid ultrafiltration of TiO_2 particles. As indicated by visual perceptions of the utilized membranes and the estimation of back-transport speeds of the solutes, a

considerable measure of TiO_2 saved on the membrane initiated a higher measure of humic acids to aggregate at the membrane through the adsorption onto TiO_2 particles. The humic-corrosive loaded TiO_2 particles offered multiple occasion's higher explicit cake obstruction with a considerably expanded compressibility coefficient than TiO_2 particles alone. The higher the cross-stream speeds, the more prominent the UV_{254} evacuation accomplished. This was because the ascent of cross-stream speeds added to the decrease of focus polarization at the membrane surface, accordingly bringing about a diminishing of the main thrust for humic acids to go through the membrane. At the point when photocatalytic responses occurred with UV light, UV_{254} expulsion efficiencies of the pervade were improved extraordinarily, and furthermore the saturate transition was kept at a steady dimension with no indication of fouling. Albeit humic acids were not totally mineralized by photocatalysis, the corruption of the humic acids upgraded the UF motion, as they were changed to less absorbable mixes.

2.3 Obstinate pollutants degradation

The expanding emanation of unmanageable natural contaminations has tested the regular water treatment. As one of the propelled treatment frameworks, photocatalytic oxidation has attracted critical consideration water treatment inquire about in view of its natural similarity and amazing oxidation capacity. Photocatalysis is an increasing speed of photo-induced response by the nearness of a photocatalyst. Among the photocatalysts, titanium dioxide (TiO_2) has been demonstrated to be an alluring and promising semiconductor impetus in heterogeneous photocatalysis and in innovative oxidation forms claim to its extraordinary photocatalytic effectiveness. Notwithstanding, a primary confinement remains: the partition of the impetus from treated. Photocatalytic membrane reactor with incorporated impetus is along these lines an extremely encouraging technique to defeat photocatalysis disadvantages. In such design, the membrane assumes the job of a hindrance for the photocatalyst and a particular boundary for the particle to be corrupted. The fundamental preferred position is to keep the photocatalyst in the response condition by methods for the transmembrane motion, the control of the living arrangement time of the atom in the reactor, and the accomplishment of a ceaseless procedure with synchronous impetus and item division from the response condition [12]. It likewise permits some extra tasks for impetus reusing to be dodged, for example, coagulation, flocculation, sedimentation, or filtration, and in this way prompts vitality sparing and empowers the span of the establishment to be limited. Finally, this design empowers the principle downside of membrane procedures to be survived: the way that it just exchanges toxin from a stage to another without treating it.

PMR can be separated into two primary gatherings: photocatalyst in suspension or immobilized in/on the membrane. The real downside of the main setup is the membrane fouling (prompting a reduction of the penetrate motion) and the crumbling of the membrane surface when natural membranes are utilized. The second arrangement empowers this downside to be stayed away from as oxidation by hydroxyl radicals happens on the outside surface and inside the pores of the membrane while reactants are saturating in a one-pass stream.

2.4 Photocatalytic nanomaterials: Preparation and properties

Photocatalysis, in which sun oriented photons are utilized to drive redox responses to create synthetic substances on the outside of an illuminated semiconductor, is one of the principle elective answers for sustainable power source age and natural remediation.

In the class of photocatalytic materials, semiconductor materials have pulled in extensive consideration in the fields of sun oriented vitality change and ecological insurance since it speaks to a simple method to use the vitality of either normal daylight or counterfeit indoor enlightenment. It has been the most broadly examined and utilized in numerous applications due to its solid oxidizing capacities for the decay of natural contaminations, concoction dependability, long solidness, nontoxicity, minimal effort, and straightforwardness to obvious light. Doping of TiO_2 is one of the answers for improve/broaden its photocatalytic properties. Using Ag related to TiO_2 could conceivably enable a few distinctive inactivation components to work in show. Along these lines, a synergism happens between Ag and TiO_2 when Ag/ TiO_2 is utilized for inactivating microorganisms under UV radiation. Nanostructuring makes conceivable to plan nanomaterials with improved properties or even age of new functionalities, which have not been acquired in traditional materials. This is the second answer for propose superior photocatalytic nanomaterials. Little material size is commonly advantageous for surface-subordinate catalysis since it improves explicit surface region and furthermore expanded receptive locales. Nonetheless, littler material size is not constantly higher synergist proficient in light of the fact that it can cause solid quantum constraintment impact that builds the recombination likelihood of photogenerated electron–opening sets.

Along these lines, photogenerated electron–gap pair relocation requires a decreased recombination of appropriate focus inclination or potential slope from the centre to surface of materials that is corresponded with morphology, structure, and surface properties of nanostructured materials. These days, on account of their improved or even novel properties, photocatalytic nanomaterials have made more open doors in expanding the uses of photocatalytic materials in different fields, for example, water and air sanitizations, hydrogen age, CO_2 decrease, colour sharpened sun based cells, antifogging surfaces, heat

exchange and warmth scattering, anticorrosion, lithography, photochromism, sun based synthetic concoctions generation, and numerous others. They can be readied utilizing synthetic courses, for example, sol–gel procedure and alkali treatment of sub-atomic antecedents to exist in numerous pieces, specifically in oxide, oxynitride, and nitride frameworks.

2.5 Photocatalytic process

A photocatalytic procedure is many decrease and oxidation photocatalytic responses happening within the sight of a photocatalyst that offers ascend to at least one items beginning from natural or inorganic substrate(s). The heterogeneous photocatalytic technique has all the earmarks of being productive just in those situations where low convergences of poisons are available in light of the fact that the nearness of high fixations hinders the response rates. Besides, it ought to be checked, with incredible consideration, both the nonappearance of mass exchange wonders controlling the response energy and the conceivable photocatalyst deactivation, because of conceivable amassing of side-effects and additionally intermediates onto the photocatalyst surface which could obstruct the (photo)active locales (especially for durable keeps running in gas-strong frameworks).

These issues are not emotional in the watery frameworks. A moderate blending of the responding suspension is adequate to ensure the nonattendance of a mass control on the response energy. The photocatalyst surface is cleaned by generation of a high number of oxidant radicals that prompt back-to-back assaults to the intermediates offering ascend to their total mineralization by methods for a few adsorption-desorption steps. Moreover, the mineralization can continue through intermediates that do not desorb into the main part of the arrangement, yet are exposed to oxidant assaults onto the surface until the development of CO₂. Backhanded proof of this conduct as a rule is the recognition of CO₂ not long after the beginning of light.

2.6 Photocatalytic processes by membrane operations

A photocatalytic procedure joined with membrane activities is many decrease and oxidation photocatalytic responses happening within the sight of a photocatalyst. Photocatalysis and, specifically, heterogeneous photocatalysis is a procedure of incredible probability for toxins reduction. To improve the general execution of the photo process, heterogeneous photocatalysis has been frequently joined with physical or substance tasks, which influence the concoction energy as well as the general proficiency. Different conceivable outcomes to couple heterogeneous photocatalysis with different advances to photodegrade natural and inorganic poisons broke up in genuine or engineered fluid effluents. These mixes increment the photo process proficiency by diminishing the

response time as for the isolated tasks or they decline the expense as for heterogeneous photocatalysis alone, for the most part as far as light vitality. Contingent upon the activity combined with heterogeneous photocatalysis, two classifications of mixes exist. At the point when the coupling is with ultrasonic light, photocatalytic Fenton response, ozonation, or electrochemical treatment, the blend influences the photocatalytic instruments in this way improving the productivity of the photocatalytic procedure. At the point when the coupling is with natural treatment, membrane reactor, membrane photoreactor, or physical adsorption, the blend does not influence the photocatalytic systems, yet it improves the effectiveness of the general procedure.

3. Working parameters and limits of photocatalytic membranes

Working under appropriate working conditions is critical to acquire great Photocatalytic Membrane Reactor (PMR) execution with both solubilized/suspended and immobilized photocatalyst [14,15]. Figure 2 shows the schematic representation of parameters and limits of photocatalytic membranes.

The most significant components influencing the photocatalytic membrane execution, influencing the photocatalytic procedure as well as the membrane procedure can be depicted as follows

3.1 Working mode

Photocatalytic membrane with immobilized photocatalyst can be worked in both impasse and cross flow modes. At the point when the photocatalytic membrane is worked in impasse mode, the substrates are held by the membrane and collect on its surface along these lines shaping a cake membrane. Accordingly, the membrane penetrability and the photocatalytic execution are diminished [16]. Moderately low photocatalytic efficiency is generally seen by working under impasse mode. This disadvantage can be clarified, as follows since the feed contaminated water was kept into the reactor, a not satisfactory contact between the poisons to be corrupted, the photocatalyst and the light source was accomplished. By working along these lines, the feed stage flows digressively to the membrane.

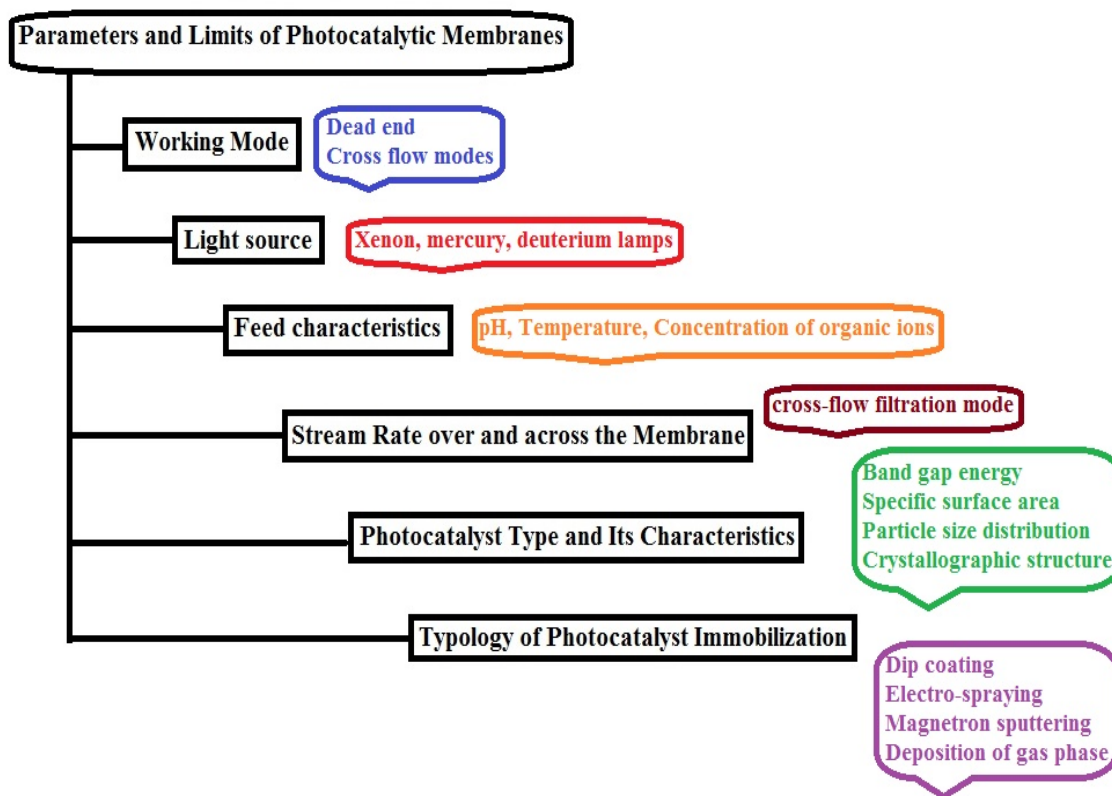


Fig. 2. Parameters and limits of photocatalytic membranes.

3.2 Light source

Because of advancements in solid-state semiconductor innovation, there is currently an incredible potential for the utilization of bright and noticeable LEDs as a light hotspot for photocatalytic applications to natural remediation methods. The beginning advance in a photocatalytic procedure is the illumination of the photocatalyst surface with photons having vitality equivalent to or higher than the band hole. The photocatalytic execution depends emphatically on the estimation of the light power [17,18]. Largely, the response rate increments with the light force at the point when the photocatalytic procedure is worked at low light power. This pattern can be clarified while thinking about that, by working with this light power, the response giving the arrangement of electron-opening couples is overwhelming with regard to the electron-gap recombination. By working with a light source producing at medium light power, the response rate is capacity of the square foundation of light power. This pattern can be attributed to the challenge impact between the electron-gap development and recombination responses. The response rate is not influenced by this parameter when the photocatalytic process is performed with a high light force. Figure 3 shows that control strategies of fouling.

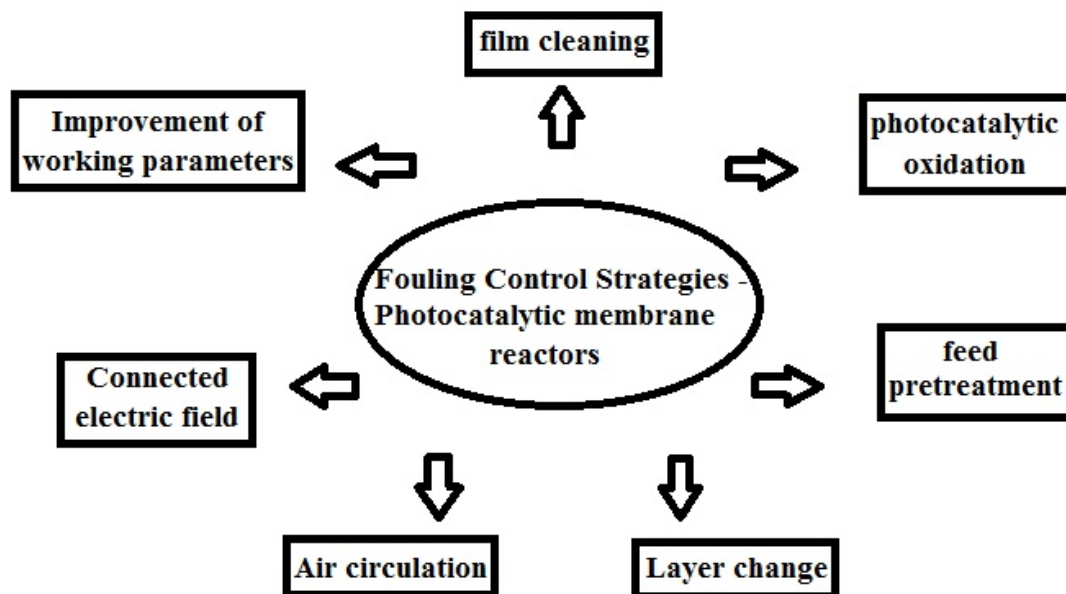


Figure 3. Control Strategies of fouling.

The impact of light force on poisons evacuation and fouling control can be recorded as pursues:

- ✓ At low light forces, electron– gap development responses are prevailing and electron– gap recombination is unimportant; therefore contaminations debasement rate increments directly with light power, and foulants can be totally disposed of;
- ✓ During moderate light forces, the toxins debasement rate is identified with the light power and the foulants corruption rate progresses toward becoming lower, since electron– gap pair partition rivals recombination;
- ✓ At high light forces, contaminations and debasement rate are free of light force.

3.3 Feed characteristics

The materials for the creation of photocatalytic membranes essentially rely upon their warm and synthetic solidness and on the comparing application field. The majority of the semiconductor photocatalysts are inorganic materials such as Bi_2O_3 , ZnO_2 , TiO_2 , etc. It is known that the most ordinarily considered membranes could be delivered from various materials counting polymer, metal, clay, or even zeolite. Polymeric membranes have great warm dependability, high vitality proficiency and low value, which are appealing for mechanical applications [19,20]. In any case, some polymeric membranes could not avoid against the UV light and oxidation of dynamic radicals in the photocatalytic procedure.

Looking at polymeric membranes, fired membranes show higher sturdiness in reasonable activity because of their great compound and warm security and mechanical quality. In any case, the earthenware membranes are substantially more costly than the regular polymer membranes in light of the overwhelming expenses of crude materials and membrane creation.

3.4 Stream rate over and across the membrane

On account of PMRs that worked under cross-stream filtration mode, where the feed arrangement is consistently recycled extraneously to the membrane, the distribution stream rate is a significant working parameter influencing the photocatalytic execution of the framework. More often than not, the photocatalytic productivity increments by expanding the distribution stream rate. This pattern can be clarified by considering the bigger chopiness in the arrangement, which advances the mass exchange from the greater part of the feed answer for the outside of the photocatalytic membrane, while decreasing the membrane fouling. Stream rate over the membrane rely upon the connected main thrust (e.g., transmembrane weight in a weight driven membrane partition), membrane structure, and creation. It is a key parameter for the PMR because it decides the contact times between the photocatalyst and the reagents/items. Mass exchange of the reagents to the reactant destinations, and of the item away from them, ought to be quick enough to keep away from response constraint in the meantime the contact time impetus/reagent ought to be additionally suitable to control response selectivity.

3.5 Photocatalyst type

Photocatalyst is the key part of a photocatalytic procedure. The properties of photocatalyst and its fixation in the responding condition speak to key parameters, assuming a significant job on photocatalytic execution. A photocatalyst is a semiconductor material ready to change over the vitality of illuminated photons in the substance important to energize electrons from its valence band to its conduction band. Key properties of photocatalyst, effects affecting photocatalytic proficiency, are the band hole vitality, the particular surface territory and molecule measure conveyance, the crystallographic structure and arrangement, and so forth.

3.5.1 TiO₂ photocatalyst

TiO₂ remains the most prominent material and can be considered as a benchmark in the field of photocatalysis. Both spatial organizing of TiO₂ to build the viable way length of episode light and band structure designing to upgrade the optical reaction in the UV to obvious light range can incite TiO₂ to ingest more photons. After excitation by light, the

photograph produced electrons and openings move to the surface. For TiO_2 terminals, the current electric field in the exhaustion district encourages charge partition; subsequently this consumption locale contributes the majority of the electrons and gaps that are accessible for the photocatalytic response [21,22]. In any case, doping can legitimately expand the transporter thickness and result in a smaller consumption locale, which enormously upsets the electron– opening division process. The steady lower-vitality mid-hole expresses that outcome from the surface issue can confine both photograph energized electrons and openings and along these lines maintain a strategic distance from quick recombination. Hence, suitable adjustment is important to additionally calibrate the neighbourhood electronic structure of doped TiO_2 and accomplish better charge division [23].

Until this point, astounding advancement has been made to improve the assimilation of light in TiO_2 materials, not just in the characteristic assimilation area of TiO_2 , yet in addition to broaden the ghastly range into the obvious/close infrared area. Light ingestion can be improved by applying physical ideas to spatially nanostructured TiO_2 to expand the successful optical way length through the material. After photoexcitation, the created electrons and gaps relocate to the TiO_2 surface; superior charge partition productivity is thus ideal for photocatalytic responses. Doping can slender the bandgap of TiO_2 to permit obvious light gathering. In any case, the unwanted charge recombination that happens as often as possible at the dopant destinations seriously debases the photocatalytic execution [24]. For TiO_2 photoelectrodes, doping can increment the electronic conductivity and anticipate it to improve the photo electrochemical properties. On the other hand, a huge number of studies have uncovered that the monochromatic episode photon-to-electron change productivity (IPCE) diminishes in the natural light ingestion area of TiO_2 after doping, in light of the fact that noteworthy charge recombination happens in the exhaustion district of doped TiO_2 [25,26].

3.5.2 ZnO photocatalyst

Zinc oxide, with a high surface reactivity inferable from an enormous number of local imperfection destinations emerging from oxygen nonstoichiometry, has developed to be an effective photocatalyst material contrasted with other metal oxides. ZnO displays nearly higher response and mineralization rates and can create hydroxyl particles more proficiently than titanium oxide (TiO_2). ZnO has been frequently viewed as a substantial option to TiO_2 because of its great optoelectronic, reactant and photochemical properties alongside its minimal effort [27]. Zinc oxide has gotten much consideration in light of the fact that of its extraordinary properties and potential application in different zones. The blast hole vitality of ZnO is near that of TiO_2 , the most utilized and traditional

photocatalytic material, so it hypothetically has the equivalent photocatalytic capacity as TiO_2 . Strong based strategies are promising options for delivering nanostructured materials because of their effortlessness and high yield [28]. Contrasted and arrangement stage forms, strong based procedures have no constraint of reagent focus, in this manner permitting the arrangement of materials in high return. Nevertheless, the domain of ZnO photocatalysts has been encountering an unparalleled quick advancement of arrangement stage procedures and less improvement of strong stage strategies.

3.5.3 WO_3 photocatalyst

WO_3 has pulled in huge logical intrigue because of its novel synthetic, useful, physical properties, ease, little band hole vitality, stable physicochemical properties, more profound valence band and solid photo corrosion solidness in watery arrangement just as steady recyclability execution [29,30]. Nevertheless, WO_3 is still a long way from turning into a handy semiconductor for photocatalysis applications because of its quick recombination of photograph prompted electron– opening sets. Since the procedure of electrons exchange to the conduction band of the oxide is a surface marvel, it is foreseen that the bigger the particular surface territory of the semiconductor is, the more the photograph incited electron– opening sets can be exchanged to the oxide's surface for actuating the photocatalysis responses. Hence, change of WO_3 membrane to improve the recombination misfortunes of charge transporters is important and essential. Various examinations have explored furthermore, announced that planning and altering WO_3 structure into nanodimension or nanostructure may defeat the recombination misfortunes of charge bearers and improve the photocatalysis oxidation execution essentially [31]. Hypothetically, work of an oxide semiconductor material at nuclear, atomic and macromolecular scales will change its physical, substance and useful properties radically, which is diverse to those at bigger scale. As a result, it could be unsurprising that band hole narrowing impacts could develop the scope of excitation light to the unmistakable district and give destinations that back off the recombination of transporters that can be foreseen. Consequently, it is restrictive that high explicit surface territory of WO_3 nanostructure could upgrade the photocatalytic action.

3.6 Typology of photocatalyst immobilization

Photocatalyst immobilization, to get a photocatalytic membrane, swapping from the ordinary slurry-type frameworks, could improve the presentation of decontamination innovation based on coupling photocatalysis and membrane filtration in perspective on genuine applications. In such a system, the membrane has the concurrent assignment of supporting the photocatalyst just as going about as a particular obstruction for the species to be debased [32,33].

Based on the distinctive strategy of photocatalyst immobilization, photocatalytic membrane with immobilized photocatalyst can be further classified in three sub-classifications.

- ✓The first sub-classification includes the photocatalytic membrane wherein the photocatalyst is covered on the photocatalytic membrane. The technique of covering can be performed by utilizing various strategies, for example, plunge covering, electro-showering of photocatalyst particles, magnetron sputtering of the photocatalyst, and testimony of gas stage photocatalyst nanoparticles. The fundamental downsides of utilizing this methodology are related to the reduction of membrane penetrability after the covering techniques and to photocatalyst filtering amid the photocatalytic runs.
- ✓The second sub-classification incorporates the photocatalytic membrane wherein the photocatalyst is mixed into the membrane framework. For all intents and purposes in this sort of photocatalytic membrane, amid the membrane planning the photocatalyst is captured in the polymeric framework. By working with this kind of photocatalytic membrane, the likelihood of photocatalyst filtering was diminished as for the photocatalytic membrane that was set up by photocatalyst covering.
- ✓The third sub-class of photocatalytic membrane with immobilized photocatalyst depends on the utilization of free-standing photocatalytic membrane. For this situation, the photocatalytic membrane is fabricated with an unadulterated photocatalyst, so the immobilization of the photocatalyst in/on the membrane support is superfluous. Accordingly, a further decrease of the probability of photocatalyst draining was acquired.

In any case, a few disadvantages of photocatalytic membrane are:

- ✓Moderate loss of photoactivity likewise identified with the low photocatalyst accessibility to light;
- ✓Need to illuminate the outside of the membrane, bringing about specialized troubles and in conceivable membrane photodegradation;
- ✓Limited preparing limits inferable from mass exchange restrictions and
- ✓Unacceptable framework lifetime owing to the conceivable impetus deactivation and wash out.

At that point, it is principal to produce frameworks with advantageous porosity and successful scattering of the impetus particles. The likelihood to capture the photocatalyst in a polymeric membrane, finding a lower productivity with respect to the suspended setup,

because the nearness of the polymer around the particles of impetus diminishes the successful surface territory. Another disservice of the framework with photocatalyst captured in polymeric membranes is the danger of a conceivable membrane oxidation by OH radicals assault. Inorganic membranes are best over the customary polymeric materials, attributable to their brilliant warm, concoction, furthermore, mechanical security. The need to create unmistakable light-dynamic photocatalytic frameworks speaks to another key point in perspective on extensive scale application of photocatalytic membrane frameworks, allowing the utilization of a greener light source. Since genuine modern effluents ordinarily contain salts and broke up natural issue together dyes, the impacts of these substances on photocatalytic membrane exhibitions have additionally to be considered. Potential influences of salts and broke down natural issue nearness on framework execution can be:

- Abatement of photocatalytic execution;
- Increment of membrane fouling.

4. Future tendencies

TiO₂ photocatalytic membranes show much improved filtration execution compared with the conventional membranes. TiO₂ can be covered on the permeable backings or manufactured into unsupported membranes. Both polymer and artistic membranes have been generally contemplated as backings of photo catalysts; however, the strength of polymer membrane under the UV brightening is a worry and requires further examination. Attributable to the constraint of the wide bandgap, TiO₂ can be doped with non-metal components or altered with different metals also, semiconductors to improve its photocatalytic execution and the filtration proficiency of photocatalytic membranes. The photocatalytic membranes likewise have exceptional properties including super hydrophilicity, antifouling execution, photocatalytic oxidation and decrease, partition, and antimicrobial capacity. The photocatalytic membranes can be created by means of different strategies: plunge covering, turn covering, electro spraying and electrospinning, submersion precipitation, vacuum filtration. The creation technique is the way to photocatalytic membrane properties and exhibitions. Despite the fact that photocatalytic membranes have appeared potential in water treatment, antifouling, cleansing, and vitality transformation, numerous specialized issues still should be tended to before this strategy can be connected in the business. More endeavours are required to improve the photocatalytic productivity of photocatalytic membranes, for example, immobilized photo catalysts. Photocatalytic membranes are confronting the test of the lower contact zone among photo catalyst, target poison, and light than in the traditional slurry photo catalysis frameworks. A large portion of the photocatalytic membranes in little scale applications

still work under UV light, despite the fact that countless light absorption photo catalysts have been accounted for. Accordingly, sun oriented light induced photocatalytic membranes are yet to be researched later on. The union of novel photo catalysts will be constantly helpful for creating photocatalytic membrane with high photocatalytic movement, high saturate transition, and attractive antifouling properties.

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Chapter 9

Composite Ion Exchangers as New Age Photocatalyst

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Abstract

The innovation of different technologies and emphasis on development of new techniques is indispensable to improve the quality of water globally. Photocatalysis is one of the major techniques explored now a days for the exclusion of water impurities using solar light. Different types of photocatalysts have been employed for the removal of dyes, heavy metals, pesticides from aqueous system. During the last few years, nanocomposite ion exchangers were used as a photocatalyst for the removal of organic pollutants. This chapter includes detailed information about introduction of pollutants into the water system, nanocomposite ion exchangers and photocatalysis removal. Nanocomposite ion exchangers effectively degrade various pollutants present in the marine system. These nanocomposites have also been used in different areas such as fuel cell, sensor, nuclear separation and heavy metal removal etc. Therefore, nanocomposite ion exchangers are a new age photocatalyst with unique and effective properties.

Keywords

Nanocomposite, Photocatalysis, Ion Exchanger, Dyes, Heavy Metals, Photocatalyst

Contents

Composite Ion Exchangers as New Age Photocatalyst	273
1. Introduction.....	274
1.1 Heavy metals	276
1.2 Dyes	276

1.3	Phenols.....	277
1.4	Pesticides	277
2.	Ion exchanger	278
2.1	Classification of ion exchangers.....	279
2.2	Composite ion exchangers.....	279
2.3	Preparative methods for nanocomposites	280
2.3.1	Solution and melt processing.....	280
2.3.2	In-situ polymerization.....	281
2.3.3	Sol-gel method.....	281
3.	Methods for the removal of pollutants	282
3.1	Photocatalysis	282
3.2	Oxidation and reduction mechanism	283
4.	Other applications of nanocomposite ion exchangers.....	286
	Conclusion.....	286
	References	287

1. Introduction

The incessant human activities consistently degrade the water resources all over the world. The contamination of water sources due to various industrial activities is a global issue, especially in the developing countries. The scarcity of clean water in terms of quantity and quality becomes a substantial threat to the living organisms. Some sources of industrial pollutants include mining, metal plating, fertilizer industries, tanneries, batteries, pesticides, power regeneration and electronic industries etc. A variety of toxic organic and inorganic pollutants such as heavy metals, azo dyes, anthraquinone, formazan, fertilizers and pesticides, organic pollutants and other biological impurities have been discharged into water system [1-5]. The consumption of these toxins through drinking water, food and air causes serious effects in living beings. These pollutants are highly toxic, non-biodegradable, carcinogenic and persist in the environment. Therefore, the removal of these hazardous materials from industrial waste is necessary to protect the plants, animals and human beings from their adverse effects [6-8]. Different industrial processes discharge waste products in water sources and reach humans through food, water and air as shown in Figure 1.

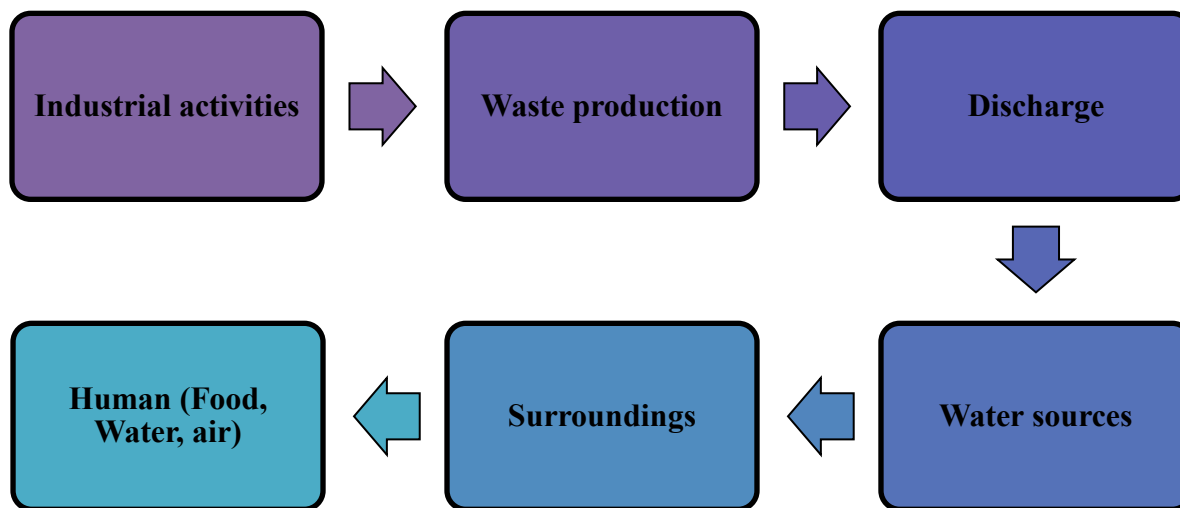


Figure 1: Industrial activities and their exposure to surroundings.

Among various contaminants, inorganic and organic toxins are major class of pollutants. Inorganic chemicals are one of the most important categories of water pollutants. These inorganic pollutants include heavy metals, salt and minerals etc. Among these, heavy metals are of major concern because of high toxicity even at low concentrations. These heavy metals enter in the food chain through a number of ways and cause severe problems in human beings. On the other hand, persistent organic compounds are used in agriculture, disease control, manufacturing and industrial processes [9-12]. These are bio-accumulative and resistant to degradation via chemical, biological and photolytic processes. These organic pollutants are very toxic and cause adverse health effects in humans and animals. Some common organic pollutants include dyes, phenols, pesticides, antibiotics and polychlorinated biphenyls etc. Figure 2 shows different pollutants which continuously degrade the quality of drinking water [14-20].

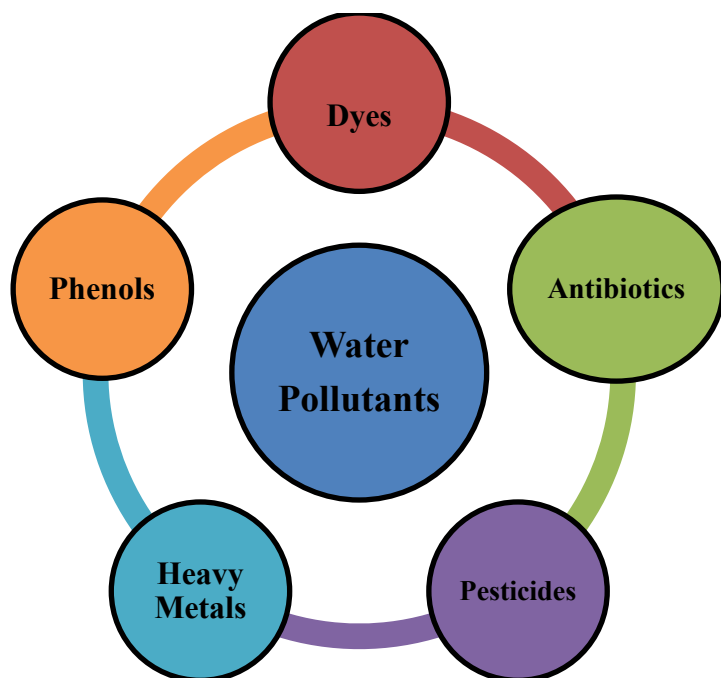


Figure 2: Various types of water pollutants.

1.1 Heavy metals

Industrial processes generate wastewater which contains a large amount of toxic heavy metal ions which must be removed before getting discharged [21-25]. Numerous industries including battery, paints, tanning, ceramics, electroplating, mining, glassware and photographic industries generated polluted products in wastewater. The presence of heavy metal ions such as Pb, Ni, Cd, Cr, Mo, Cu, Fe, Mn, Hg, Co and Bi in wastewater are directly associated with industrial processes. For example, metal ions Cu, Zn, Cr and Cd are generated from metal plating and presence of Cr metal ions in wastewater from tanneries waste. Also, Hg is generated by fossil fuel combustion and smelting processes. Industrial and mining sources are responsible for the production of Pb metal. The concentration of toxic heavy metal ions in wastewater is up to maximum level which is much higher than the safe limits. Therefore, these must be removed before getting mixed into the environment [26-28].

1.2 Dyes

Currently, dyes are quite important materials in either industrial or domestic purposes. In 1856, synthetic dyes were invented. But now days several forms more than 8000 have been manufactured for specific purposes [29]. Dyeing, textile, paper and pulp, tannery and paint

industries are big consumers of dyes. Therefore, waste products of industries have been considered as unpleasant pollutant because they impart color in water and due to the toxic nature which affects life unfavorably [30-35].

1.3 Phenols

Like other pollutants such as dyes and metals, phenols are also measured as major pollutants due to their bad taste and odour in water [36-38]. These are very toxic in nature. Therefore, determination and deduction of these pollutants from water is very important. Phenols are produced from chemical, paint, pesticides, resin, paper and pulp, gas and coke manufacture and dyeing industries.

1.4 Pesticides

Rural activities are mainly responsible for the generation of pesticides. According to their functional properties these are classified into some categories such as molluscides, nematicides, rodenticides, pesticides, insecticides, fungicides, bactericides and herbicides [39]. Among all categories of pesticides, fungicides and insecticides are very important to human exposure in food because their time period is very short during harvesting. Significant increase in the production of herbicide is due to the gradually use of chemicals to control weeds in cultivation process. Although DDT is banned, some substitutes like malathion, heptachlor, endrin, lindane and parathion causing environmental pollution [40-42]. Different techniques have been used for the remediation of organic and inorganic pollutants including adsorption, ion exchange, membrane filtration, photocatalysis etc. Ion exchange method has been gained considerable attention due to its low cost, simplicity, and versatility. It is widely used for the removal of organic and inorganic pollutants from aqueous solutions.

The ion exchange process is a reversible process that takes place between charges. The exchanger must have an open network structure which carries the ions for the exchange. The ion exchange process takes place in both aqueous and non-aqueous solution, molten salts and with vapours. The exchange of ions between the solution and ion exchangers is a physicochemical process occurring on the basis of equivalency and principle of electro neutrality. Figure 3 shows the process of ion exchange [43-48].

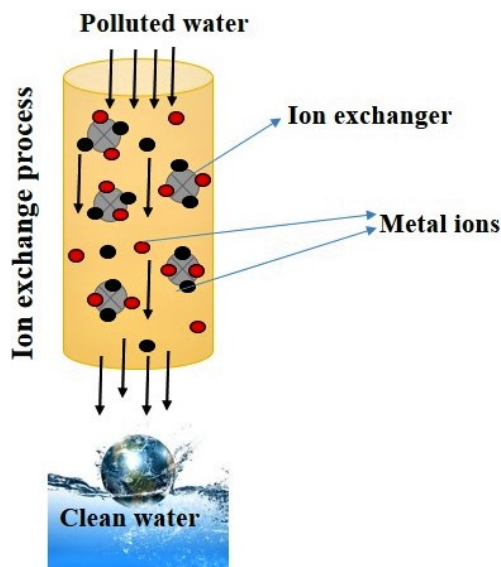


Figure 3: Mechanism of ion exchange process.

2. Ion exchanger

Ion exchangers are insoluble and charged species containing loosely held ions. These ions are exchanged with other ions in the solution when come in contact with them. The ion exchangers contain either positively or negatively charged ions so called cation and anion exchangers. Ion exchange resins are water insoluble solid substances which absorb both cations and anions from an electrolyte solution and release ions of same charges into the solution. The positively charged ions such as hydrogen and sodium ions are exchanged with positively charged ions such as nickel, copper and zinc ions present in the solution. Similarly, the negative ions such as hydroxyl and chloride ions are exchanged with the negatively charged ions such as sulphate, chromate, nitrate, cyanide etc. of the solution [49-51].

Ion exchangers have been widely used due to their exclusive properties such as higher resistance and selectivity at higher temperatures. Ion exchangers have been used for selective membrane, adsorption, catalysis, drug delivery, antimicrobial action and chemical sensors. The most important application of ion exchangers was purification and demineralization of water. The characteristics of newly synthesised material are ion exchange capacity, effect of eluent concentration, elution behaviour, effect of temperature, pH titration, chemical stability, composition, structural properties and distribution studies [52-55].

2.1 Classification of ion exchangers

The ion exchanges have drawn considerable attention due to their wide range of applications. Ion exchangers are classified into three categories on the basis of chemical nature as shown in Figure 4.

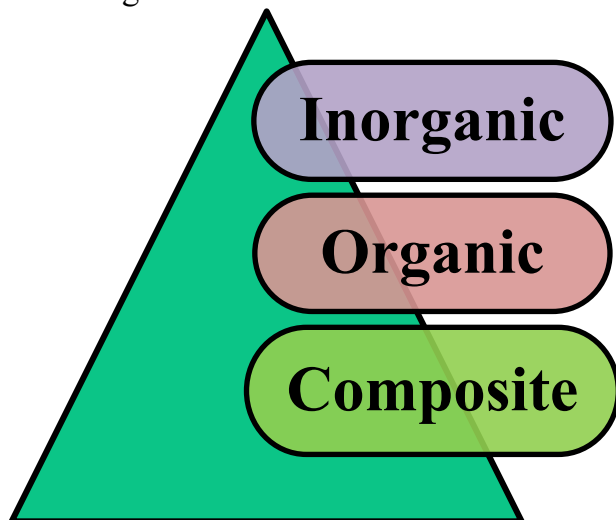


Figure 4: Classification of ion exchanger on the basis of chemical nature.

2.2 Composite ion exchangers

Recently, hybrid or composite ion exchangers have been prepared due to certain limitations existed in inorganic and organic ion exchangers. The inorganic ion exchangers are non-reproducible and not suitable for column chromatography. However, the organic ion exchangers are highly responsive to immense radiation doses which lead to major changes in their chain scission, crosslinking, capacity and selectivity. The combinations of polymers and inorganic materials form hybrid ion exchange materials. The organic polymeric part of the composite material provides mechanical and chemical stability. While the inorganic part increases the ion exchange behaviour, thermal stability and electrical conductivity [56, 57].

The hybrid ion exchangers with controlled functionality and hydrophobicity have opened new possibilities in different areas like catalysis, organometallic chemistry, organic host guest chemistry, hydrometallurgy, water treatment, pollution control, antibiotic purification, separation of radioactive isotopes and analytical chemistry [58-60]. The hybrid ion exchangers have been utilised in the field of chemistry, biochemistry, engineering and material science.

The composite ion exchange materials possess superior properties such as mechanical, chemical and radiation stability. The multifunctional nature of composite materials makes them potentially useful in different fields such as fabrication of selective membranes, chemical sensors, potentiometric sensors, electro-deionization, storage batteries, chromatography, electrodialysis, fuel cells and ion exchange [61-63]. The composite or hybrid materials have been prepared by sol-gel method universally. These materials are generally granular in nature and suitable for column operations. The composite materials with nano-scale dimensions have been widely used due to their multifunctionality, specificity and selectivity.

Nanocomposite materials are more effective due to greater surface area and volume ratio of nanoparticles. The nano-ranged materials find vast applicability in different fields such as drug delivery, chromatography, photocatalysis, ion selective electrode and environmental remediation. In recent years, bio-polymer based composite materials have been studied due to their low cost and renewable nature. The organic polymers such as polyaniline, polypropylene, starch, polystyrene, chitosan, cellulose, alginate, gelatin, and polyacrylonitrile have been used for the fabrication of composite materials.

2.3 Preparative methods for nanocomposites

Polymeric nanocomposites have been usually synthesized through solution route and because of this a large amount of organic solvents has been required and this may pollute the environment. Hence green synthetic methods have attracted much attention. Polymer or inorganic filler nanocomposites have been synthesized in three different ways such as

1. Direct mixing or blending of the polymer
2. In-situ polymerization of monomers in the presence of fillers
3. Sol-gel process

2.3.1 Solution and melt processing

In this method, the layered silicates have been dispersed in a solvent in which the polymer is soluble. On evaporation of the solvent, the silicate sheets have been introduced into the polymer to make a multi-layered and ordered structure as shown in Figure 5. This process is also known as exfoliation or adsorption process. While in melt processing, layered silicate has been mixed to the polymer in the molten state. If the layer's surfaces are compatible with the polymer it results in the formation of nanocomposites by the insertion of selected polymer into interlayer space. There is no requirement of solvent in this method [64].

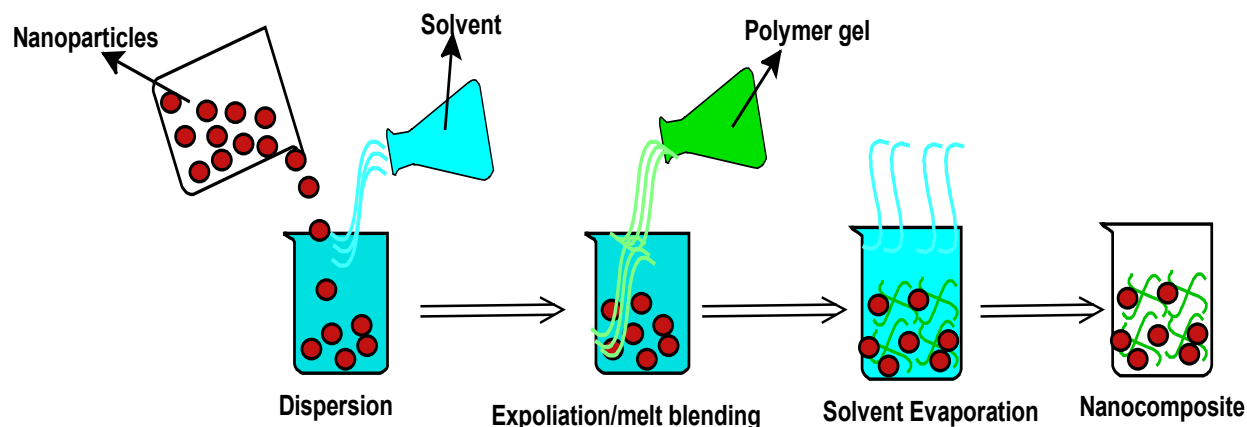


Figure 5: Preparation of nanocomposite by solution/melt processing.

2.3.2 In-situ polymerization

In this case monomer units with initiators have been taken and allowed to polymerize in presence of clays. The growth of polymer units separate clays and enter into the interlayer space [65]. The formation of polymer clay nanocomposite has been shown in Figure 6.

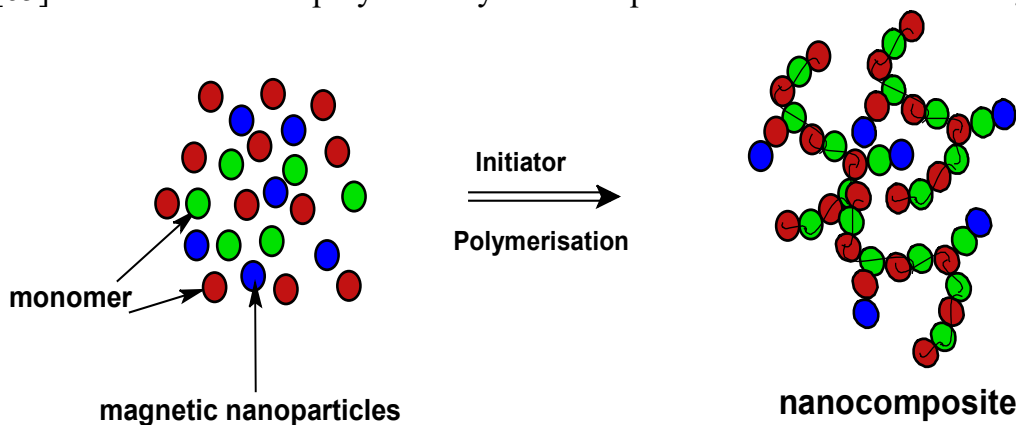


Figure 6: In-situ polymerization for the synthesis of nanocomposite.

2.3.3 Sol-gel method

Sol-gel method has been tremendously explored for the fabrication of nanostructure materials like nano-powders, nanocomposites etc. Composites have been synthesized by combining different types of materials (organic and inorganic) using the sol-gel method as shown in Figure 7. In this method, two methodologies can be used such as metal alkoxides hydrolysis and polycondensation of hydrolyzed intermediates. Transparent films of organic-inorganic composite materials have been made by co-hydrolysis and polycondensation of alkyltrimethoxy silane - tetramethoxysilane mixtures [66].

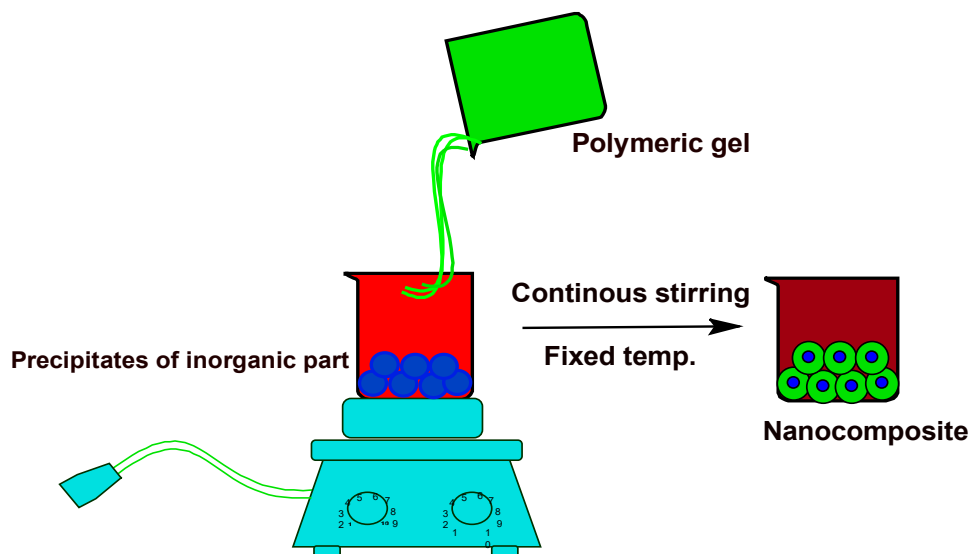


Figure 7: Synthesis of nanocomposites using sol-gel method.

3. Methods for the removal of pollutants

Different methods including ion exchange, adsorption, membrane filtration and photocatalysis have been developed for the removal of organic and inorganic impurities from wastewater. Photocatalysis is a relatively simple and very effective technique for the exclusion of toxic contaminants using solar radiations. Photocatalytic process is attracting more attention in the field of wastewater treatment to obtain complete mineralization of the pollutant achieved under mild conditions of temperature and pressure [67-70].

3.1 Photocatalysis

Heterogeneous photocatalysis has been used for the removal and recovery of heavy metals and organic impurities. The semiconductor particles are illuminated by ultraviolet light with energy greater than the band gap energy of the photocatalyst, electron-hole pairs are generated. In this method, light energy is used to stimulate the semiconductor material to produce electron-hole pairs which results in detoxification of pollutants. The degradation of pollutants is due to reactive oxidising species (O_2^* , OH^*) generated by two simultaneous reactions.

When sunlight in the visible region falls on a semiconductor, electrons get promoted from valence band to conduction band with the formation of $e^- - h^+$ pairs. These photogenerated holes oxidize the dissociated adsorbed water. The excited electrons move towards the surface of semiconductor and transferred to surface of adsorbed oxygen where it forms O_2^*

radicals. These free radicals react with water and produce OH^* [71-75]. The proposed mechanism of photocatalysis is shown in Figure 8.

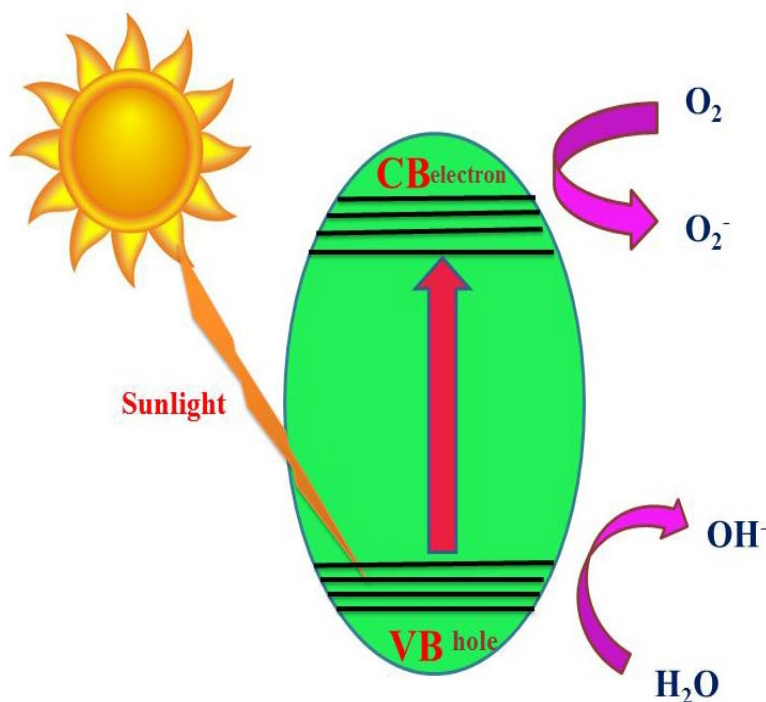


Figure 8: Mechanism of photocatalysis.

3.2 Oxidation and reduction mechanism

The absorbed water is oxidized by positive holes produced in the valence band due to the electrons shifting to the conduction band. Due to irradiation of light, there was formation of hydroxyl (OH^*) and these hydroxyl radicals react with organic matter present in the dyes. If oxygen is present, the intermediate radicals in the organic compounds along with the oxygen molecules and experience radical chain reactions [76-78]. The organic matter decomposes at the end of the day becoming carbon dioxide and water. Organic compounds can react directly with positive holes resulting in oxidative decomposition as shown in Figure 9.

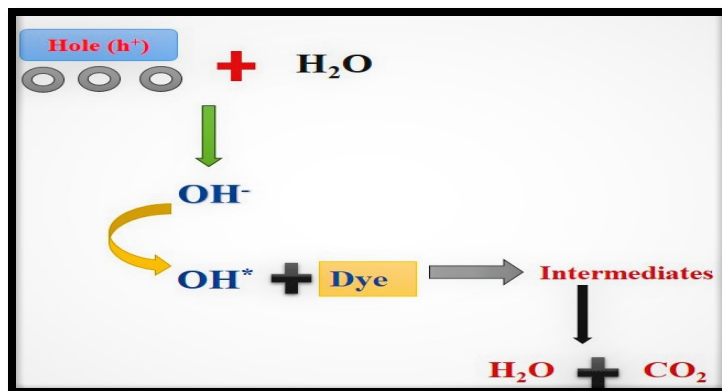


Figure 9: Mechanism for oxidation process.

On the other hand, reduction of oxygen takes place as an alternative to hydrogen generation because oxygen is an easily reducible substance. The conduction band electrons react with dissolved oxygen species to form superoxide anions. These superoxide anions attach to the intermediate products in the oxidative reaction and form peroxide or changing to H₂O₂ and then into water as shown in Figure 10. The reduction occurs more easily in organic matter as compared to water. Therefore, the higher concentration of organic matter tends to increase the number of positive holes and reduces the carrier recombination and improves photocatalytic activity [79, 80].

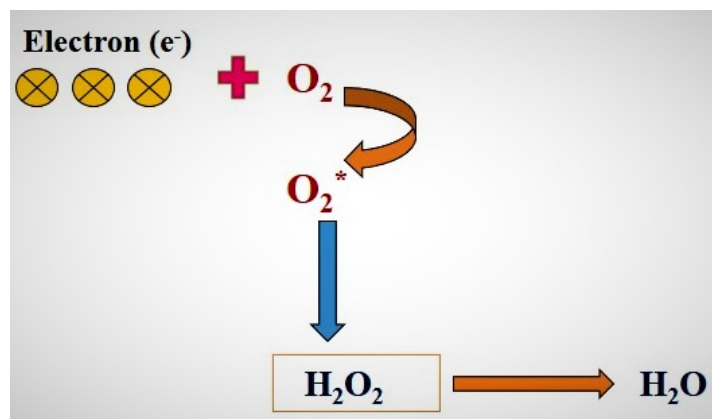


Figure 10: Mechanism for reduction process.

Different types of nanocomposites have been synthesised for the removal of dyes, pesticides, heavy metals, phenols and other pollutants using photocatalysis. In the last few decades, nanocomposites were also explored for the photocatalytic degradation of different dyes in water systems. It has been found that these nanocomposite ion exchangers

effectively degraded dyes in lesser time. Different nanocomposites have been employed for the degradation of different dyes including methylene blue, malachite green, methyl orange, fast green, methyl violet etc. as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Different nanocomposite ion exchangers explored for photocatalytic activity

S.No.	Nanocomposite	Target Pollutant	References
1.	Polyaniline Zr(IV) selenotungstophosphate	Methylene blue and malachite green	[81]
2.	Polyacrylamide@Zr(IV) vanadophosphate nanocomposite	Congo red	[82]
3.	Pectin @ zirconium (IV) silicophosphate nanocomposite	Methylene blue	[83]
4.	Polyaniline zirconium (IV) silicophosphate nanocomposite	Methylene blue	[84]
5.	Pectin–thorium (IV) tungstomolybdate nanocomposite	Methylene blue	[85]
6.	Polyaniline zirconium(IV) silicophosphate	Methylene blue	[86]
7.	Pectin Zr(IV) selenotungstophosphate	Methylene blue and malachite green	[87]
8.	Polyacrylamide Ce(IV) silicophosphate	Methylene blue	[88]
9.	Cellulose acetate–zirconium (IV) phosphate nano-composite	Congo red	[89]
10.	Gelatin-Zr(IV) phosphate nanocomposite	Fast green and methylene blue	[90]
11.	Cellulose acetate–tin (IV) phosphate nanocomposite	Methylene blue	[91]
12.	Pectin thorium(IV) tungstomolybdate	Malachite green	[92]
13.	Styrene–tin (IV) phosphate nanocomposite	Methylene blue	[93]
14.	Alginate-Zr (IV) phosphate nanocomposite	Fast green and methylene blue	[94]
15.	lactic acid–Zr(IV) phosphate nanocomposite	Methylene blue	[95]

16.	Tin (IV) phosphate/poly(gelatin-cl-alginate) nanocomposite	Methyl orange	[96]
17.	Gelatin-tin (IV) phosphate nanocomposite	Methylene blue	[97]
18.	Gelatin-zirconium(IV) tungstophosphate nanocomposite	Methyl violet	[98]
19.	Zirconium (IV) phosphate/poly(gelatin-cl-alginate) nanocomposite	Methylene blue and methylene green	[99]
20.	Gelatin-zirconium Dioxide Nanocomposite	Methylene blue	[100]
21.	Zirconium phosphoborate nanocomposite	Methylene blue	[101]

4. Other applications of nanocomposite ion exchangers

The ion exchangers possess wide range of applications in various areas such as pollution control, separation of radioisotopes, antibiotic purification, fuel cell etc. Therefore, composite ion exchangers received special attention due to stability in column operations especially for separation, pre-concentration and filtration of ionic species. The composite ion exchangers have good ion exchange capacity, reproducibility, high thermal stability and selectivity for the removal of heavy metal ions. The applications of composite ion exchangers in different fields are shown in Figure 11.

Conclusion

In recent years, various processes including population growth, unrestrained water usage, climate change and infrequent rainfall, etc. continuously affect our surroundings. Due to these activities, demand for water has been increased but there is only small percentage of water which we can use. Water pollution is one of the major causes for water dearth. Therefore, we need to develop different techniques for the removal of toxic impurities present in water. In this, we have discussed photocatalytic processes for their exclusion using nanocomposite ion exchangers. It has been observed that nanocomposite ion exchangers act as photocatalyst and effectively degraded different dyes present in the

marine system. These nanocomposites open new prospects for researchers to improve the quality of water.

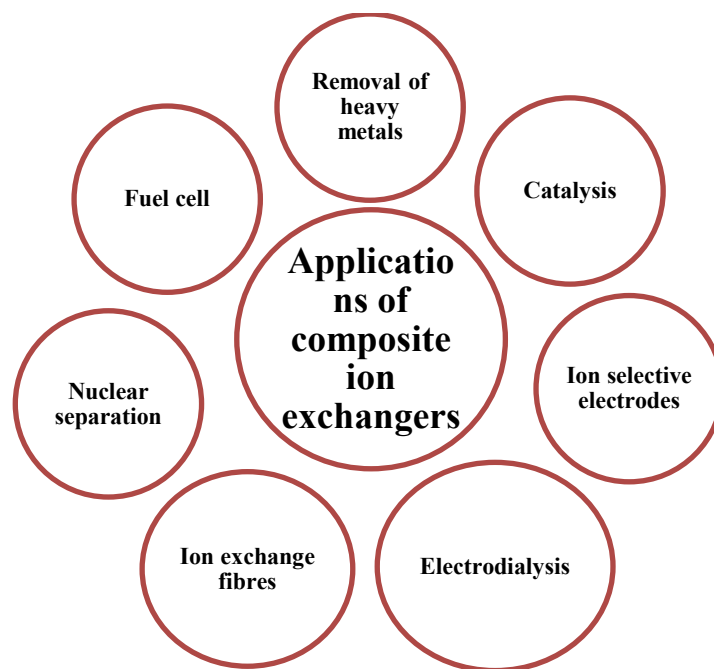


Figure 11: Applications of composite or hybrid ion exchangers in different fields.

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Chapter 10

Structural Modifications of Carbon Nitride for Photocatalytic Applications

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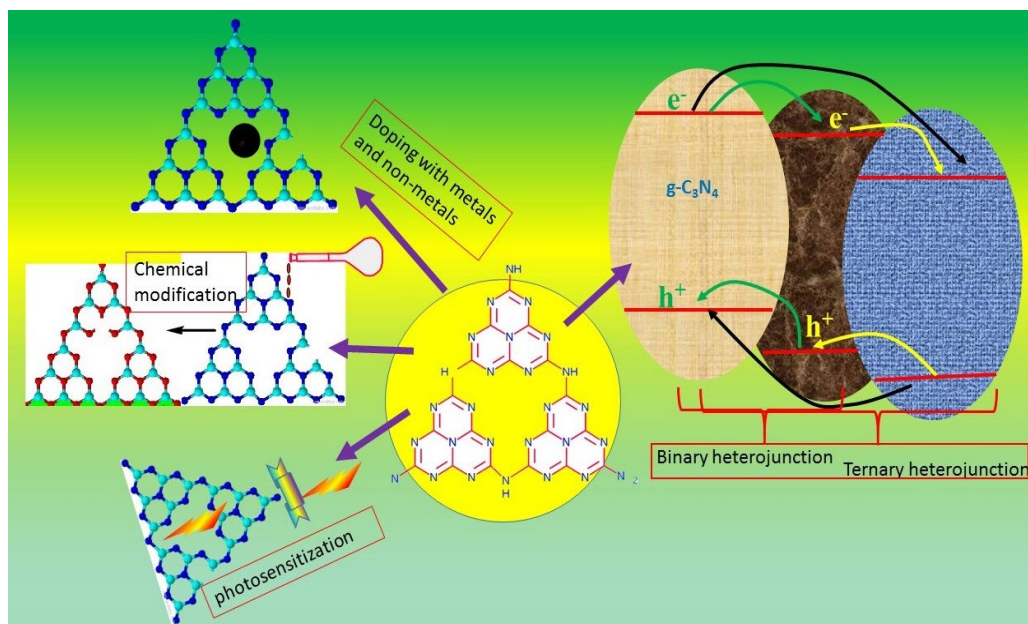
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Abstract

The current research on photocatalysis is totally focused on the designing and innovation of various low cost materials. For an efficient photocatalyst, there are some aspects which are to be assessed before practical use, such as optical activity, thermal and chemical stability, easy and availability of raw material, biocompatibility, etc. Fortunately, g-C₃N₄ offers most of these qualities to behave as a star photocatalyst. g-C₃N₄ could be easily prepared from low cost precursor materials such as urea, melamine, cyanimide and dicyandiamide by simple thermal treatment. Furthermore, larger surface area and two-dimensional planar conjugation structure of g-C₃N₄ can provide a large platform for anchoring various substrates. Various researchers have utilized g-C₃N₄ for varieties of applications such as green energy production, energy storage devices, biomedical application, wastewater treatment via photocatalysis and adsorption, photo sensors, etc. Although there are some disadvantages associated with use of g-C₃N₄ when utilized for various applications. To overcome such hitches various structural modifications have been applied to g-C₃N₄. The current chapter summarizes a wide mode of applications of g-C₃N₄ along with various structural modifications which were recently applied to improve the photocatalytic efficacy.

Keywords

g-C₃N₄, Modification, Energy, Wastewater, Photocatalysts



Contents

Structural Modifications of Carbon Nitride for Photocatalytic Applications	299
1. Introduction.....	301
1.1 g-C ₃ N ₄ as tremendous metal-free photocatalysts	301
1.2 Chemical structure of g-C ₃ N ₄	302
1.3 Band structure of g-C ₃ N ₄	302
2. Synthesis approaches via thermal annealing/Pyrolysis	303
3. Strategies followed for the modification of g-C₃N₄.....	304
3.1 Doping	304
3.2 Metal/non-metal based doping	304
3.3 Fabrication of g-C ₃ N ₄ based binary/ternary heterojunctions.....	306
3.4 Coupling with metal-free substrates	310
3.5 Chemical modification.....	311
3.6 Dye Sensitization of g-C ₃ N ₄	313
3.7 Shape specific modification.....	315
3.8 Polymerization of g-C ₃ N ₄	316
3.9 Persulphate activation of g-C ₃ N ₄	316

4. Further possible modification perspectives.....	317
Conclusion.....	317
References	318

1. Introduction

The current era is demanding clean energy production and environmental remediation. Various aspects of environment and health related concern have triggered the research towards exploring novel hybrid materials which can be utilized and address these issues without altering the environment quality. Photocatalysis is a greener approach that has proven to be cost effective and highly efficient in the field of clean energy production, wastewater treatment, air pollution remediation, catalytic process, etc.[1–4]. But efficacy and cost effectiveness of photocatalysis process is extensively dependent on the material that is being utilized as “photocatalyst”. Now these photocatalysts are the key material as well as center of curiosity and research which attract attention of the worldwide scientist’s community. Various metal based and metal free photocatalysts have been explored for the varieties of photocatalytic processes [5]. However, metal based and metal free photocatalysts have their own limits of advantages and disadvantages e.g. Ag, Au, Pt, Ru, etc. based photocatalysts are highly active but their expensive nature limits their exploration for large scale applications [6]. At the same time, metal free photocatalysts such as g-C₃N₄, reduced graphene oxide (RGO), graphene oxide (GO), carbon-quantum dots (CQDTs) and other organic photocatalysts offer an alternate material for being utilized for various photocatalytic applications [7–10]. However chemical, thermal stability and synthesis strategies are various parameters on which the efficacy of a metal free photocatalysts depends.

1.1 g-C₃N₄ as tremendous metal-free photocatalysts

g-C₃N₄ is a Nobel metal-free, stable, nontoxic and inexpensive polymeric photocatalyst [11]. g-C₃N₄ holds many advantages, such as good thermal and chemical stability, metal-free and tunable structure which are the essential requirements. The abundance and low cost of its precursor material such as urea, melamine, cyanimide and dicyandiamide make it approachable for the entire researchers to explore it for high quality research. Furthermore, larger surface area and 2-D planar structure of g-C₃N₄ can provide a large sites for anchoring various substrates [12]. g-C₃N₄ is quite stable up to 600 °C and starts decomposing when temperature is above 700 °C [13]. Due to strong interlayer stacking interaction g-C₃N₄ is almost insoluble in solvents like water, ethanol, methanol, THF, diethyl ether and toluene [14].

1.2 Chemical structure of g-C₃N₄

The structure of g-C₃N₄ consists of tri-s-triazine of units which are interconnected with each other with tertiary amine [15] units as referred with figure 1. It possesses the π -conjugated graphitic planes which are formed due the sp² hybridization between the carbon and nitrogen atom. The band gap energy for g-C₃N₄ is calculated to be ≈ 2.7 eV which corresponds to the absorption of wavelength ≈ 460 nm.

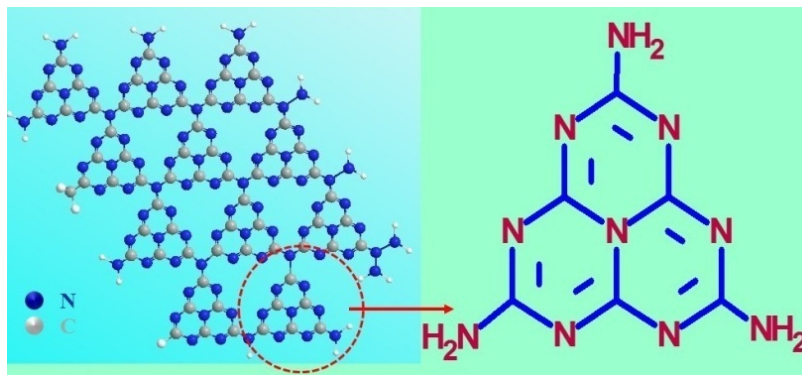


Figure 1: Chemical structure of g-C₃N_{4q}.

1.3 Band structure of g-C₃N₄

The lone pair of electrons on nitrogen is supposed to be contributing for band structure of g-C₃N₄. The overlap of 2p orbitals of N together with the overlap carbon 2p orbitals are mainly depot to VB and CB of the g-C₃N₄ [16].

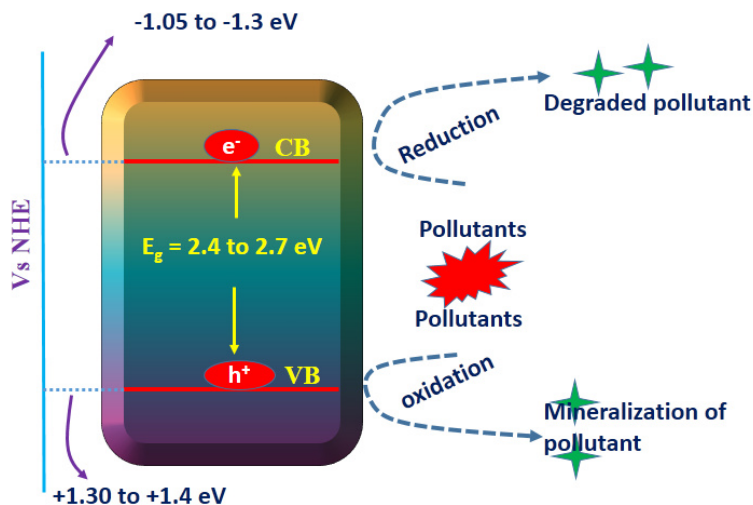


Figure 2: Band structure of g-C₃N₄.

The extra stability for lone pairs of nitrogen has been provided by π -bonding states which are present in conjugation. Therefore, the lone pair electron of nitrogen plays a key role in structure of g-C₃N₄ [17]. Zhang et al. reported that the CB edge and VB edge lies at -1.3 and 1.4 eV (vs NHE) respectively [18] which fulfills the requirements of reduction and oxidation reaction directed by sun light. The band structure of g-C₃N₄ is shown in Fig. 2. The CB & VB edge potential of g-C₃N₄ located at sufficient potentials which enable it for various photo reduction and oxidation reactions.

2. Synthesis approaches via thermal annealing/Pyrolysis

Thermal annealing is the most common and popular technique used for any modification for the fabrication of template-based and template-free g-C₃N₄. Various precursor materials such as urea, melamine, cyanamide and dicyandiamide etc. are thermally treated at high temperature (400-700 °C) with a heating rate of 2 to 5 °C min⁻¹ [19]. Thermal treatment allows the precursor materials to condense into the polymeric form of tri-s-triazine units as shown in fig. 3.

It has been reported that when g-C₃N₄ is prepared in bulk it possesses comparatively low surface area (< 20 m²g⁻¹) [4]. Thus various effective strategies have been employed to exfoliate thin layer of g-C₃N₄ such as oxidation exfoliation [20], ultrasonic liquid exfoliation [21] chemical exfoliation [22] etc. The exfoliated thin sheets of g-C₃N₄ have high surface area as compared to bulk g-C₃N₄. The condensation of precursor materials such as urea, thiourea and melamine have been represented in fig. 4.

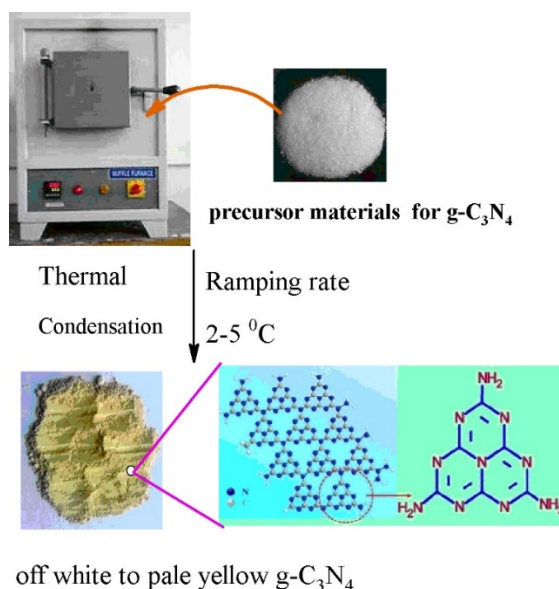


Figure 3: Method of thermal condensation.

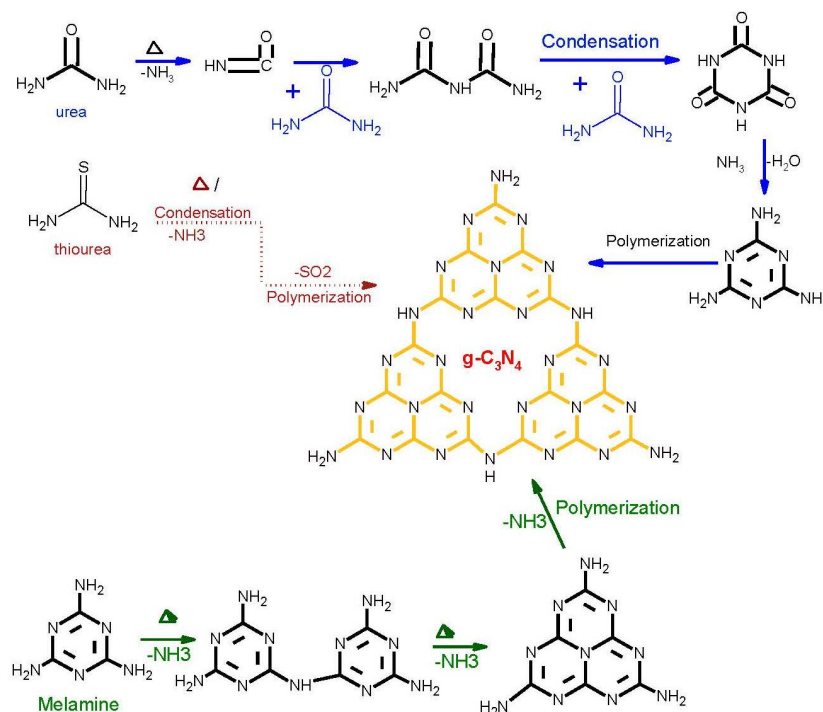


Figure 4. Proposed thermal condensation of various precursor materials to g-C₃N₄.

3. Strategies followed for the modification of g-C₃N₄

However, g-C₃N₄ has been continuously explored for various photocatalytic applications but there are still some shortcomings and bottlenecks which have to be dealt with, such as rapid charge recombination rate, slightly low absorption in visible spectrum, etc. [23]. To overcome such limitations various modifications have been carried out in g-C₃N₄ to effectively increase the efficiency.

3.1 Doping

Doping is a techniques which focusses on deliberately introducing impurities to the core structure of a photocatalyst is known to be an adequate approach to tune the band gap of g-C₃N₄, which appreciably broadens the light absorption range and reduces the photogenerated charge recombination rate too [24]. Doping has been carried out either by interstitial or substitutional to modify texture and electronic structure of g-C₃N₄ for enhancing the photocatalytic activity [25].

3.2 Metal/non-metal based doping

Doping with metals and non-metals has proven to be an effective approach to increase photo-activity in visible spectrum. Doping not only narrows the band gap but efficiently

increases the active sites on the surface of host material. Various metal based doping experiments have been carried out to increase photocatalytic performance of g-C₃N₄. Table 1 & 2 refer to the scientific work carried out in recent years concerning the doping of g-C₃N₄ for enhanced activity.

Table 1: Metal based doping in g-C₃N₄ along with efficiency.

Sr.no	Dopant	Performance	Ref
1.	Fe	Apparent quantum efficiency of 78.5% for Photocatalytic water splitting	[26]
2	Co	Exhibits 11 times in rhodamine B degradation than that of pure g-C ₃ N ₄	[27]
3	Ti ³⁺	Exhibits 7.6 times higher degradation efficiency for methylene blue h	[28]
4	Fe	1.7 & 6 times higher efficiency for MB degradation and H ₂ production respectively.	[29]
5	Mn	Photocatalytic activity for Cr(VI) reduction and RhB degradation increased to 76.5% & 8.9% respectively	[30]
6	K	Efficiency increased to 5.6 times for photocatalytic hydrogen evolution	[31]
7	Cu	High efficiency for H ₂ -Evolving Electro catalysis	[32]
8	Ag	Two times higher efficiency for photocatalytic oxidation of methylene blue	[33]
9	Zr	High efficiency for the RhB degradation	[34]
10	Y	Higher degradation efficiency for RhB degradation	[35]
11	Eu(III)	Degradation efficiency of RhB increased to 1.71 fold	[36]
12	Pd	15.3 times higher efficiency toward Hydrogen Evolution Reaction	[37]

Table 2: Non-metal based doping in g-C₃N₄ for better photocatalytic efficiency.

Sr.no	Dopant	Performance	Ref
1.	N	4.3 times higher efficiency for enhanced photocatalytic H ₂ evolution	[38]
2	N	Enhanced efficiency for tetracycline degradation	[39]
3	S	2.5 fold higher efficiency for photocatalytic CO ₂ -reduction performance	[40]
4	S	Photoreduction of CO ₂ to acetaldehyde and methane increases to 8.3 & 9 times	[41]
5	P	High photocatalytic efficiency for H ₂ production	[42]
6	P	High efficiency for photocatalytic oxidation of aromatic alcohols	[43]
7	P	2.9 times higher efficient for photocatalytic activity for H ₂ evolution and Rhodamine B degradation	[44]
8	O	5 times higher Photocatalytic CO ₂ Reduction activity	[45]
9	O	2.5 times higher H ₂ evolution photocatalytic activity	[46]
10	B	2.4 times higher efficiency for photocatalytic H ₂ evolution	[47]
11	B	17 times higher photo degradation efficiency for MB dye	[48]
12	C-I	9.8 times higher efficiency for photocatalytic hydrogen evolution	[49]

3.3 Fabrication of g-C₃N₄ based binary/ternary heterojunctions

g-C₃N₄ based binary/ternary heterojunctions offer propitious and worthwhile strategies to harness solar radiation which sufficiently overcomes the disadvantages associated with other modification strategies. Over the last decades, various g-C₃N₄ based binary/ternary heterojunctions have been successfully fabricated by keeping primary concern such as light response, appropriate lowering in band gap energies, reduced e⁻/h⁺ pair charge recombination, etc. [50].

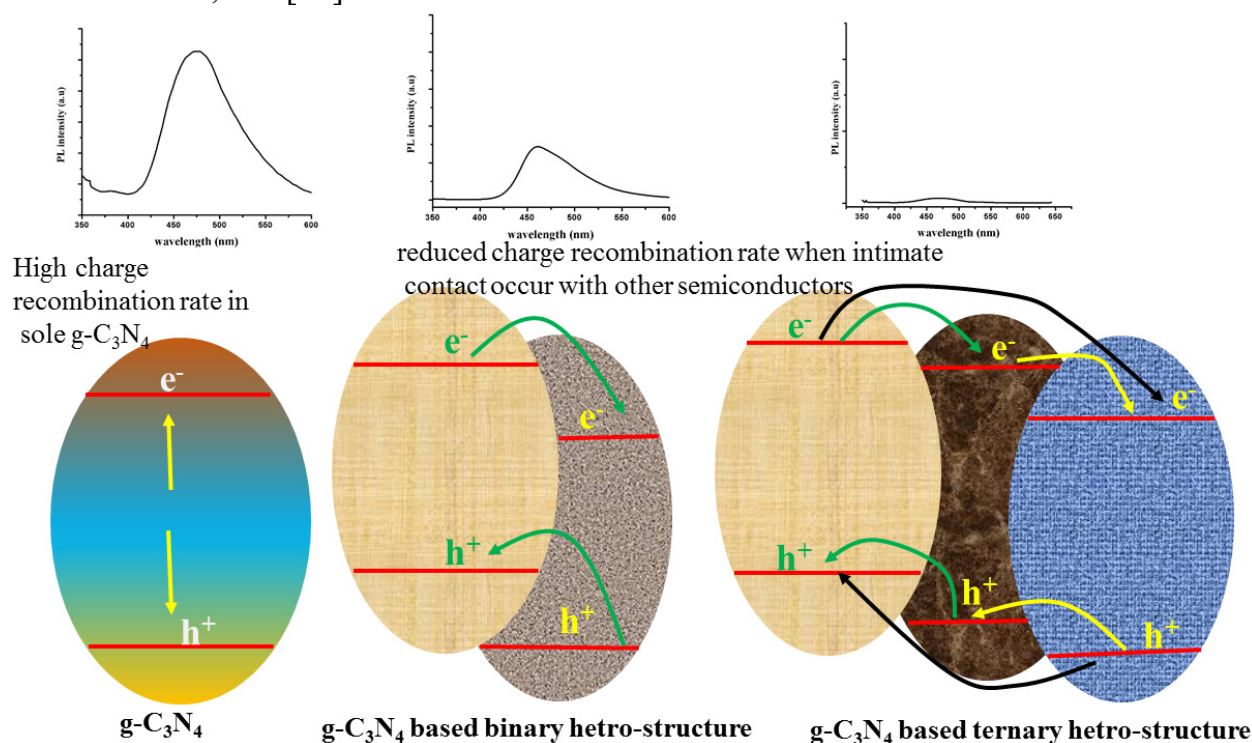


Figure 5: Band structure for the g-C₃N₄ based binary and ternary hetero-structures.

Fig.5 refers to the band structure and effect on photoluminescence when junction formation takes place between g-C₃N₄ and other semiconductors in various based binary and ternary hetero-structures. However, narrowing of band gap for g-C₃N₄ is not the sole concern to boost its photo activity, no doubt that narrow band gap semiconductors can absorb visible light more efficiently but additionally they suffer from the complications such as high rate of charge recombination, photo corrosion, low quantum yield etc. All these disadvantages are mainly associated with single-component photocatalysts which can be tackled by fabricating the heterojunction of different semiconductors which not only improves the photo-activity but also increase the surface area and life time of photo induced charge carriers [51,52].

Table 3: Binary coupled modification of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ along with utilization and efficiency.

Sr no	Binary coupled composite	Enhanced photocatalytic activity evaluated by	Efficiency	Ref
1	$\text{WO}_3/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	RhB degradation	91.3% degradation after 150 min	[59]
2	$\text{LaNiO}_3/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	Tetracycline (TC) degradation.	3.9 and 3.8 times larger than those of sole components respectively	[60]
3	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{BiVO}_4$	RhB degradation	2.3 times higher than that of the pure $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	[50]
4	$(\text{SiC})/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	Degradation of dyes rhodamine B (RhB) and methyl orange (MO)	1.2 time higher than sole $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	[61]
5	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/g\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$	Removal of NO at ppb levels	47.6% high as compared to host substrates	[62]
6	$\text{CoTiO}_3/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	Photocatalytic H_2 -evolution	~ 2 times higher than that of the pure $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ under artificial sunlight illumination	[63]
7	$\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_2\text{CO}_3/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	Photocatalytic oxidation removal of NO at ppb levels	15.4 times higher rate for NO removal	[64]
8	$\text{TiO}_2/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	Potocatalytic reduction of CO_2 and photocatalytic decomposition of N_2O	57% N_2O conversion in 16 h	[65]
9	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_2\text{CO}_3$	rhodamine B degradation	3.1 times higher than that of individual C_3N_4	[66]
10	$\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	degradation of methyl orange	7.5-folds higher than that of pure $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	[67]
11	$\text{BiOCl-C}_3\text{N}_4$	degradation of methyl orange (MO)	36.2 times higher than sole $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	[68]
12	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Bi}_2\text{MoO}_6$	Degradation of Rhodamine B	3 times higher those of pure $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	[69]
13	$\text{ZnS}/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	photocatalytic H_2 evolution	30 times higher photocatalytic H_2 evolution rate than that of pure $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	[70]
14	$\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	Photocatalytic CO_2 conversion	2.2 times higher	[56]
15	$\text{Ag}_2\text{O}/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	Degradation of Rhodamine B (RhB), phenol, imidacloprid, methylene blue (MB) and methyl orange (MO) under visible and NIR light irradiation	RhB degradation is about 26 and 343 times higher than that of pure $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ in visible and NIR respectively	[71]

Table 4: Ternary coupled modification of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ along with utilization and efficiency.

Sr no	Ternary coupled composite	Enhanced photocatalytic activity evaluated by	Efficiency	Ref
1	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{ZnO}@a\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$	Photodegradation of tartrazine	6.8 folds	[72]
2	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4@Bi/BiOBr$	Photo degradation of tetracycline and rhodamine B	Highest efficiency 98%.	[73]
3	$\text{C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{ZnS}/\text{SnS}_2$	Photodegradation of methylene blue (MB)	8.74 times higher	[74]
4	$BiOCl/CdS/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	Degradation of rhodamine B (RhB)	12 times higher compared to bared $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	[75]
5	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{MnWO}_4$	Rhodamine B, methylene blue, methyl orange, and fuchsine removal	7, 10, 25, and 31 time as compared to $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ respectively	[76]
6	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}_3\text{VO}_4/\text{AgBr}$	RhB degradation	116 times higher	[77]
7	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{Ag}_2\text{MoO}_4$	Solar oxygen evolution from water splitting	2.2 times higher	[78]
8	$CdS/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/CuS$	photocatalytic H_2 -production activity	5 times higher	[79]
9	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}/\text{MoS}_2$	Organic pollutant degradation and production of H_2	9.43 & 8.78 time higher for RhB degradation and H_2 production respectively	[80]
10	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{CeO}_2/\text{ZnO}$	Methylene blue (MB) degradation.	11.46 times higher	[81]
11	$\text{ZnO-Ag}_2\text{O}/pg\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	Degradation of ciprofloxacin	3.83 times higher	[82]
12	$\text{C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{BiOI}$	Degradation of RhB	21-fold higher	[83]
13	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{Ag}_2\text{CrO}_4$	Degradation of rhodamine B	6.3 folds higher	[84]
14	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{AgI}$	Degradation of RhB	8.7 times higher	[85]
15	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{Ag}_3\text{VO}_4$	Degradation of RhB	14 fold higher	[86]

Various strategies has been approached for fabrication of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ based binary/ternary heterojunctions such as hydrothermal/solvothermal, electrodeposition process, chemical bath deposition, sol-gel process, chemical precipitation, self-assembly method etc. [53]. Over the last decades, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ based binary/ternary heterojunction are being extensively used in the various fields such as photodegradation and mineralization of noxious pollutants [54], water splitting into H_2 [55] CO_2 conversion into fuels [56], photo-treatment of some harmful metals Cr(VI), As(III), U(VI) [57,58] etc. Table 3 and 4 referred

previously fabricated binary and ternary coupled heterojunction utilized in the various filed to evaluate their photoactive potential.

Very recently Kumar et al., 2018, fabricated various g-C₃N₄ based nano composite such as biochar supported g-C₃N₄/FeVO₄ [54], coal char/g-C₃N₄/RGO [87] for various environmental applications etc. fig. 6 a & b. referred the XRD and photoluminescence spectra for the g-C₃N₄/FeVO₄. The intimate contact between both of semiconductors and formation of hetro-junction has been shown by XRD result. Furthermore, the PL spectra (referred in fig. 6 b) indicated the reduced charge recombination rate confirmed by the absence of any sharp peak in the composite part.

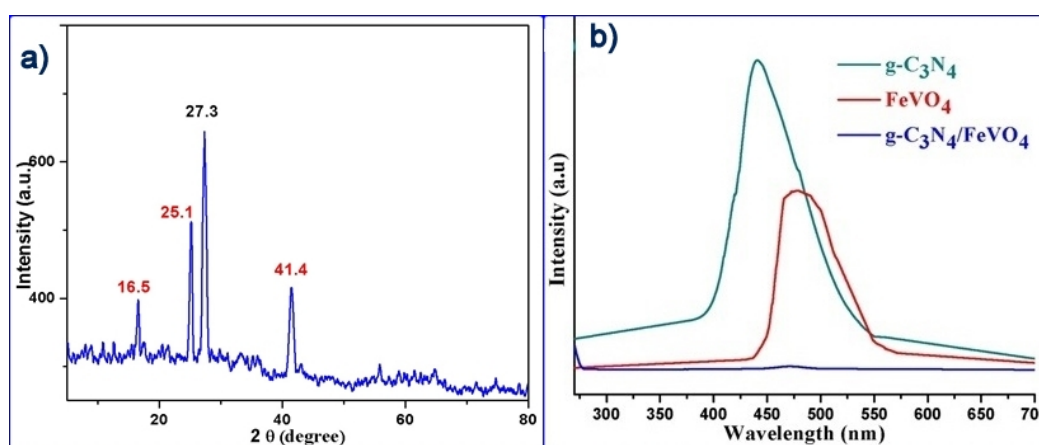


Figure 6: (a) XRD, and (b) Photoluminescence of g-C₃N₄/FeVO₄ (Reproduced with permission from [54] copyright Elsevier).

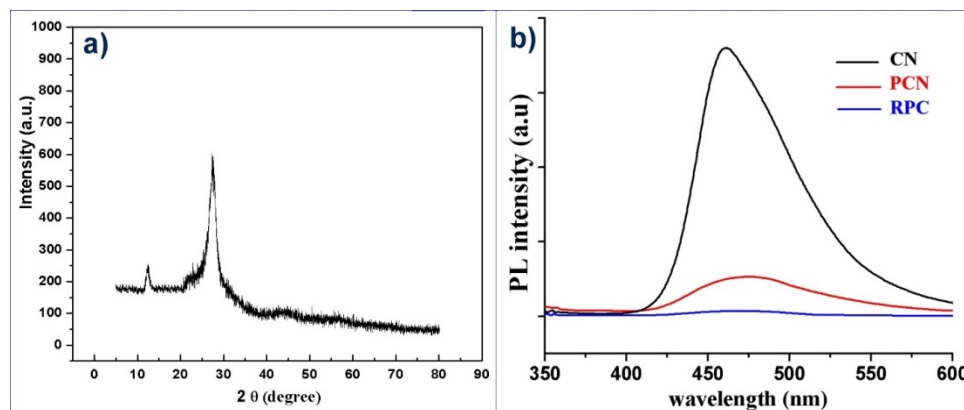


Figure 7: (a) XRD, and (b) Photoluminescence of RPC (Reproduced with permission from [87] copyright RSC).

Fig. 7 a & b refers to the XRD spectra of RPC (coal char/g-C₃N₄/RGO) as fabricated by Kumar et al. The XRD confirms the junction formation between the reduced graphene oxide and g-C₃N₄ on the coal char surface. The increased intensity at 27.2° for (002) graphitic plane observed due to increased staking of conjugation present in aromatic system of RGO and g-C₃N₄ [88]. The PL spectrum of RPC shows absence of sharp peak owing to successful formation of heterojunction between RPC & g-C₃N₄.

3.4 Coupling with metal-free substrates

Introduction of metal free substrate is a novel strategy employed by various researchers owing to their cost effective, ecofriendly nature and abundance of precursor materials. Modification of g-C₃N₄ with carbonaceous materials based motif has proven to be an efficient approach to alter its optical properties [89]. However g-C₃N₄ possesses relatively negative conduction band potential that can able to reduce many pollutants, such as Cr (VI), CO₂, and organic dyes but shows lower oxidation and mineralization activities [90,91].

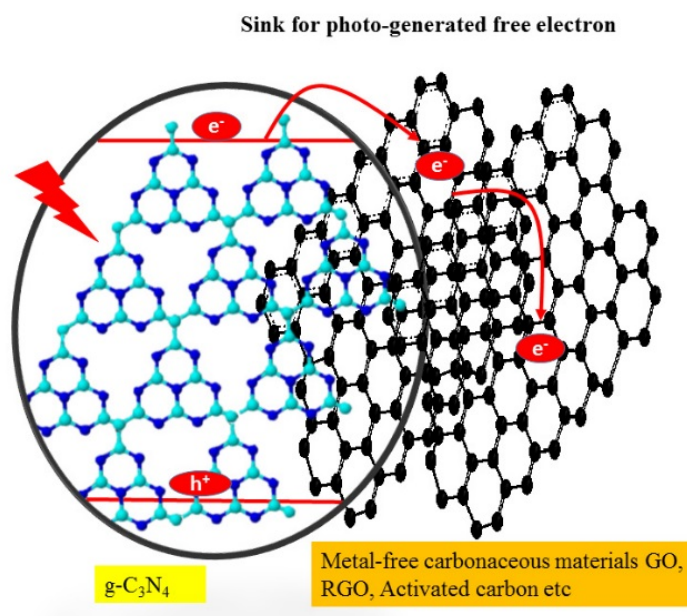


Figure 8: Carbonaceous material as electron sink.

Incorporation of metal free components such as GO, RGO, polyaniline and activated carbon may enhance the conductivity, strength and surface area of as fabricated g-C₃N₄ based photo catalysts [92].

Recently Chen et al., 2016 [93], has synthesized g-C₃N₄/activated carbon composite (g-C₃N₄/AC) by in-situ thermal condensation method. The activity of fabricated composite

was evaluated by photodegrading phenol under the visible light radiation. A complete removal of phenol was achieved after 160 min of photodegrading experiment. Fig. 8 shows the route for charge transfer from g-C₃N₄ surface to the carbonaceous material such as RGO, GO etc. under photoexcitation. Some recent metal-free modification that was done on g-C₃N₄ by various researchers has been referred in table 5.

Table 5: *Coupling with Metal-free component modified g-C₃N₄ along with utilization and efficiency.*

Sr. no	Metal-free photocatalysts	Enhanced photocatalytic activity evaluated by	Efficiency	ref
1	g-C ₃ N ₄ /rGO	Degradation of rhodamine B (RhB) and 4-nitrophenol under visible light irradiation	3.0 and 2.7 times higher respectively	[88]
2	g-C ₃ N ₄ /rGO	Photocatalytic degradation of rhodamine B	2.6 times that of pristine g-C ₃ N ₄	[94]
3	2D RGO/pCN	Photocatalytic reduction of carbon dioxide to methane	5.4 folds higher	[95]
4	rGO/ g-C ₃ N ₄	Photocatalytic H ₂ -evolution performance	-----	[96]
5	PANI/g- g-C ₃ N ₄	Degradation of methylene blue	5.1-fold higher than that of pure g-C ₃ N ₄	[97]
6	g-PAN/g-C ₃ N ₄	Photocatalytic H ₂ -evolution	3.8 times over pristine g-C ₃ N ₄	[98]
7	g-C ₃ N ₄ /Biochar	Removal of cationic dye methylene blue (MB)	-----	[99]
8	g-C ₃ N ₄ /GO	Degradation of MO and MB and photo reduction of bromate	-----	[100]
9	SiO ₂ /g-C ₃ N ₄	Degradation of rhodamine B	3.5 times higher	[101]
10	Red phosphor/ g-C ₃ N ₄	Photocatalytic activity for H ₂ production and CO ₂ conversion	10 timers higher	[102]
11	C-Dots/ g-C ₃ N ₄	Photocatalytic hydrogen H ₂ production and RhB degradation	3 times higher	[103]
12	CNNS/CQDs	Photocatalytic generation of hydrogen	3 times higher	[104]

3.5 Chemical modification

Chemical modification of g-C₃N₄ surface is another technique to improve its photocatalytic activity. Introduction of some groups on the surface of g-C₃N₄ increase the active sites which further improves the interaction with the employed substrate. Dong G et al. 2016 [105] use perylene imides modified g-C₃N₄ for the removal of noxious NO and they found

this composite 5 times efficient for the photo generation of H_2O_2 as compared to sole $g-C_3N_4$.

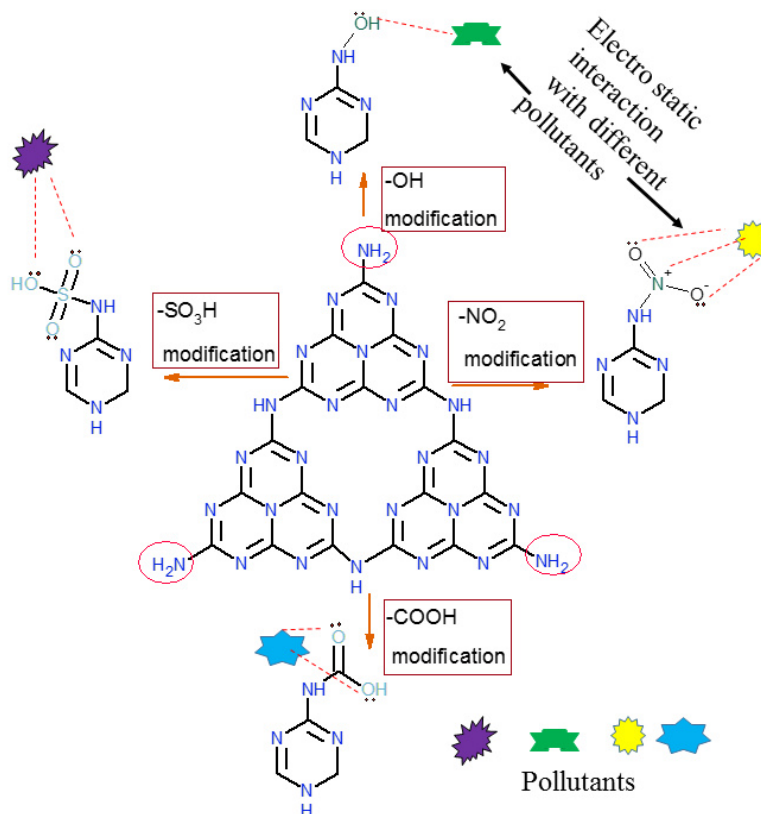


Figure 9: Possible Chemical modification for $g-C_3N_4$.

Further, Wu X et al. [106] fabricated oxygen-containing groups-modified $g-C_3N_4$ and the efficiency is evaluated by photocatalytic H_2 -evolution performance. Dramatically, they found the efficiency was increased to a factor of 7 as compared to sole $g-C_3N_4$. Furthermore, the surface decoration with some functional groups such as $-OH$, $-COOH$, $-SO_3H$, $-NO_3$ etc. may become effective strategies to improve adsorption and photocatalytic activity of pristine $g-C_3N_4$. Because such groups not only alter the overall charge but also increase the static interaction between the surface and pollutants. Li et al. 2014 has fabricated hydroxyl modified $Al_2O_3/g-C_3N_4$.

The surface of $g-C_3N_4$ was modified by dipping in ammonia solution for 5h. The findings has revealed that the $-OH$ modified $g-C_3N_4$ based composite is 2.4 times more efficient than unmodified, for the photo-degradation of RhB. Fig. 9 refers to the different possible chemical modification on the surface of $g-C_3N_4$. However, a very limited research has been

carried out for the chemical modification of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ but results depicts that such modification may route for new findings.

3.6 Dye Sensitization of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$

Sensitization is another popular technique to improve the photo-activity of wide band gap semiconductors. Sensitization may be carried by natural or artificial dyes. A sensitizer has ability to convert long wavelength of light to energy for the photocatalytic operation. Various dyes have been used as sensitizer to improve charge transfer mechanism and harvest more amount of solar spectrum. The charge transfer mechanism in dye sensitization is based on position of highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) and lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) of the dye. When dye sensitized C_3N_4 is subjected to irradiation, the dye gets excited and transfers its charge to CB and VB of C_3N_4 . As a consequence, absorption intensity of solar spectrum gets boosted. The sensitized $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ has attracted much attention for DSSC application. Wang et al. 2013 [107] has fabricated $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nano sheets sensitized with dye Erythrosin B and achieved enhanced activity for the H_2 evolution due to sufficient charge transfer from Erythrosin B to $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ surface.

The exploration of natural sensitizer to sensitize $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is a greener approach because it implies the use of pigments such as anthocyanin, chlorophyll various flavonoids etc. as referred in fig. 10. These pigments are abundantly found in various plant leaves, fruits and flower and can be extracted by means of simple laboratory scale extraction procedure without involving any harsh chemical use. The modification of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with natural sensitizers may be an alternate method that can replace the use of other conventional synthetic sensitizers. Natural sensitizers are basically pigments which consist of auxochrome and chromophores. When such modification is applied to $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, they provided large conjugation and various functionalities which not only inhibit charge recombination but also boost solar light harvesting properties. The main advantages of such photosensitizer are that they enable the large band gap semiconductors to absorb light in the visible region. Buddee et al., 2014, have studied curcumin sensitized TiO_2 nanoparticles and found it highly effective for the cationic azo dye MB and CV photocatalytic removal [108]. Similarly Zyoud et al., 2011, fabricated Anthocyanin sensitize TiO_2 for the photodegradation of methyl orange [109].

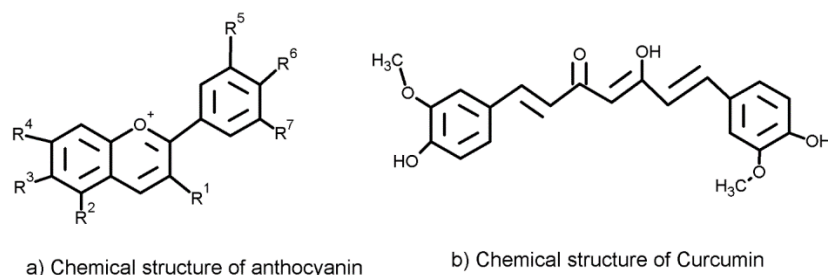


Figure 10: Chemical structure of natural pigments anthocyanin and curcumin.

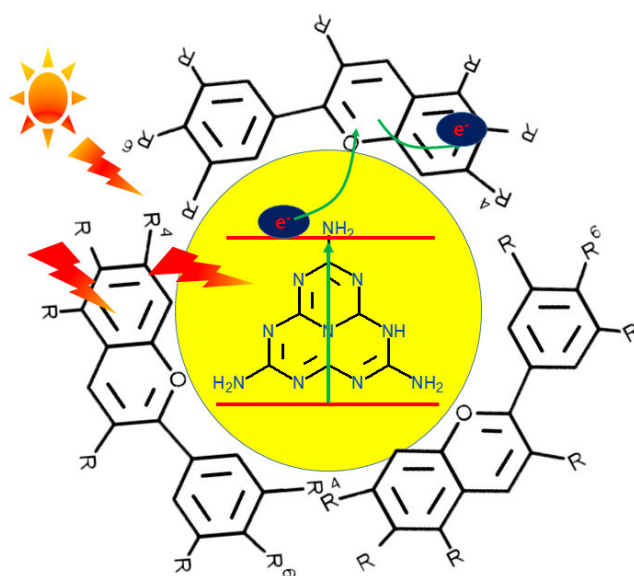


Figure 11: Hypothetical charge transfer between g-C₃N₄ and natural dye molecule.

Fig. 11 refers to the pictorial charge transfer between dye molecule and g-C₃N₄. However very limited work has been done for the sensitization of g-C₃N₄ with natural dye/pigment molecules but this area required more research to explore the use of natural sensitizer in the photocatalytic processes. Table 6 refers to some of previously reported sensitization on g-C₃N₄.

Table 6: *Dye-sensitized modified g-C₃N₄ along with utilization and efficiency.*

Sr no	Composite	Dye used as sensitizer	Enhanced photocatalytic activity evaluated by	Ref
1	MgPc/Pt/mpg- g-C ₃ N ₄	Magnesium phthalocyanine	Photocatalytic hydrogen evolution	[110]
2	Cu-Cu ₂ O/g- g-C ₃ N ₄	Erythrosin B	Hydrogen evolution	[106]
3	Xanthene Dye-Sensitized Carbon Nitride	Fluorescein, dibromofluorescein, eosin Y, and erythrosine B	-----	[111]
4	g-C ₃ N ₄	Eosin Y	Hydrogen evolution from aqueous triethanolamine	[112]
5	mpg- g-C ₃ N ₄	Eosin Y	Photocatalytic activity for H ₂ evolution	[113]

3.7 Shape specific modification

It has been well understood that the shape of a photocatalysts demonstrate a key parameter towards the photocatalytic performance. 2-D nano-sheets are the common morphological shapes of g-C₃N₄ which were fabricated by many researchers [114,115]. Moreover, nanorods [116], nano spheres [117] and flower [118] like shape controlled morphologies also has been achieved for the g-C₃N₄.

Bai et al. 2013 [119] prepared nanorods and compared the photocatalytic properties with nanoplates of C₃N₄ as synthesized by reflux method. They found that photocurrent for nanorods is approximately 2 times higher and more efficient toward the degradation of methylene blue as compared to nanoplates.

Meng et al., 2019 [120], has demonstrated the fabrication of double shell hollow g-C₃N₄.nanosphere. They had found that as fabricated nanospheres possesses outstanding optical and photoelectrical properties. The nanospheres have been prepared by thermal annealing using hallow SiO₂ as template. The activity of nanospheres has been utilized for the CO₂ conversion to formic acid.

Zheng et al., 2014 [121], have demonstrated the fabrication of helical g-C₃N₄ by nanocasting method by using chiral mesoporous silica (CMS) template. They reported that the light absorption and band gap energies are sufficiently altered for the helical structure of g-C₃N₄ as compared to bulk g-C₃N₄. They had evaluated the photocatalytic activities of helical g-C₃N₄.by hydrogen evolution, water oxidation, and CO₂-to-CO conversion. They

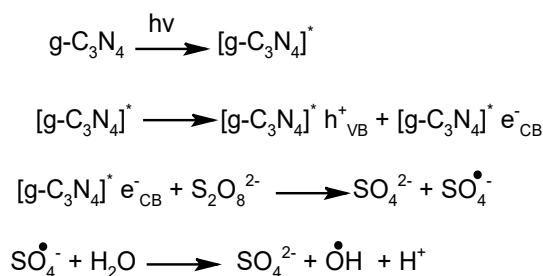
found that hydrogen evolution rate is 7 folds high for helical g-C₃N₄ as compared to bulk g-C₃N₄.

3.8 Polymerization of g-C₃N₄

Polymerization of g-C₃N₄ is an important modification approach that has been adopted for the g-C₃N₄ which not only increases the specific surface area but also narrows the band gap energies [122]. Ding et al., 2018 [123], have demonstrated the fabrication of polymeric g-C₃N₄ by the thermal condensation of nitric acid pretreated melamine as the precursor material. The polymeric C₃N₄ was utilized for the photocatalytic oxidation of benzyl alcohol and they reported 68.3% conversion with 100% selectivity as compared to pure g-C₃N₄.

3.9 Persulphate activation of g-C₃N₄

The addition of some precursor materials such as H₂O₂, S₂O₈²⁻, O₃, etc. when added with photocatalysts can sufficiently trigger the generation of highly reactive radicals such as OH* and O₂*-. Activation of g-C₃N₄ by such agents offers a cost effective and highly efficient method for the degradation and mineralization of pollutants. Liu et al., 2017 [124], have studied the degradation of Bisphenol-A by Persulphate/g-C₃N₄ and reported approximately 100% removal at a concentration of 5 mM of Persulphate. Hu et al. 2016 [125] have studied g-C₃N₄/Fe(III)/persulfate system for the photodegradation of phenol and found 240-folds high efficiency. The mechanism supposed to occur during the persulphate activation in the presence of g-C₃N₄ is shown in scheme 1. The photo excited electrons react with persulphate to produce sulfate ion and sulfate radicals which further react with water molecules present in the reaction system to generate OH* radical. The OH* radical once formed, undergoes series of photochemical reactions and destroys the targeted pollutant molecules.



Scheme 1: Interaction of g-C₃N₄ with persulphate.

4. Further possible modification perspectives

Various modification strategies have demonstrated that photo-activity of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ has been greatly improved. $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ has shown enhanced efficacy for various applications such as photocatalytic hydrogen evolution, pollutant degradation and mineralization etc.

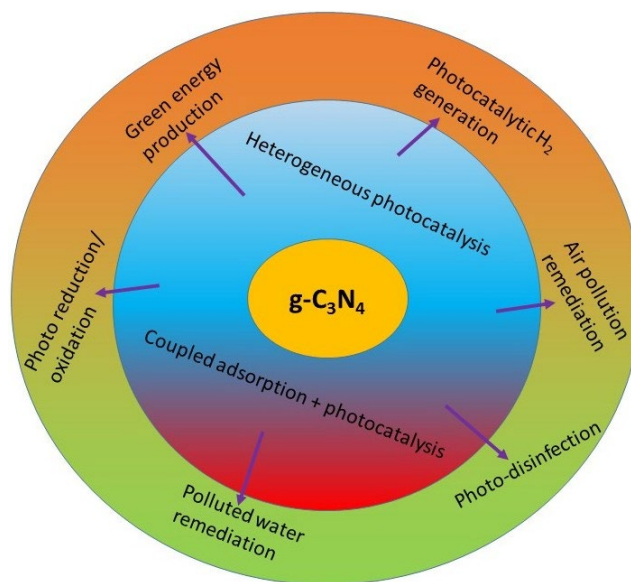


Figure 12: Various photocatalytic operations carried by $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

But still there are some unexplored research fields for which $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ has seldom been explored such as biomedical application, catalytic cracking application for petroleum industries, etc. Cost effectiveness and abundance of its cheaper precursor material can make it as demanding material if we explore it for further modification by keeping the field specific objective in the mind. The wide mode of photocatalytic operations which has been performed by $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ has been shown in Fig. 12.

Conclusion

The chapter summarizes the various strategies adopted in the present decade for the modification of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ to boost its photocatalytic activity. Doping, coupling with binary/ternary semiconductor system, shape specific modification, polymerization, etc. are some approaches that have been explored to augment the photocatalytic potential of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. Moreover, all the approaches which are discussed for modification have proven to significantly enhance the activity of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ for various photocatalytic targets such as pollutant mineralization, water splitting, CO_2 conversion, fuel energy application, etc. $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ possesses high potential for its exploration in various research fields by undergoing many modifications to its 2-D motif.

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Keyword Index

Ammonia Synthesis 193

Carbon Nanotubes 77

Ceramic Photocatalytic Membranes 1

Ceramic Route 208

Co-Catalyst 193

Dyes 273

Energy 299

Environment 57

g-C₃N₄ 161, 299

Heavy Metal 57, 113, 273

Heterogeneous Photocatalysis 1

Heterojunction 161

Hydrogen Generation 161, 208

Hydrothermal 208

Ion Exchanger 273

Mechanism 57

Membrane 253

Metal-Oxide Photocatalysts 253

Modification 299

Nanocomposite 77, 273

Nano-Hetero-Junction 208

Nanohybrids 113

Nitrite 193

Nitrogen Fixation 193

Organic Pollutants 1, 113

Perovskites 208

Polymeric Photocatalytic Membranes ... 1

Purification 253

Semiconductors 1

Sol-Gel 208

Visible Light 161

Wastewater 57, 253, 299

Water Purification 113

Water Treatment 77

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