Superior Photocatalytic Efficiency with Titania (TiO₂)-Polyaniline (PANI) Nanocomposite for Rapid Carbol Fuchsin (CF) Dye Degradation

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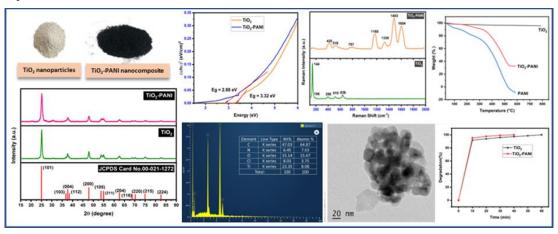
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Abstract: Hybrid photocatalysts, comprising both inorganic and organic polymeric components are the most promising photocatalysts for the degradation of organic contaminants. The nanocomposite, Titania-Polyaniline (TiO₂-PANI) was synthesized using the chemical oxidative polymerization method. Various characterization techniques were employed to assess the properties of the catalysts. The ultraviolet diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV-DRS) analysis revealed that the TiO2 absorbs only UV light while the TiO2-PANI nanocomposite absorbs light from both UV and visible regions. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) results confirmed the presence of TiO2 (anatase) in both TiO₂ nanoparticles and TiO₂-PANI (Titania-Polyaniline) nanocomposite. The phases of the catalysts were verified through Raman, TEM, and SAED techniques where all results are in good agreement with each other. The average crystallite size of TiO2 nanoparticle and TiO2-PANI nanocomposite were 13.87 and 10.76 nm. The thermal stability of the catalysts was assessed by the Thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) technique. The order of the thermal stability is TiO₂ > TiO₂-PANI > PANI. The crystal lattice characteristics were confirmed using Transmission electron microscopy (TEM). The surface area measurements were confirmed from the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) study and were employed for the evaluation of the photocatalytic efficiency of both, TiO2 nanoparticles and TiO2-PANI nanocomposite catalysts. The energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) study was employed for elemental detection of the fabricated materials. Raman spectroscopy was employed for the chemical structure and the phase characteristics of the materials. The standard conditions for the degradation of the CF dye were 8 g/L of catalyst dosage, 20 mg/L of dye concentration, and a pH of 7. The TiO2-PANI nanocomposite exhibited superior efficiency as compared to pure TiO₂ nanoparticles, achieving almost 100% degradation in just 40 minutes.

Keywords: TiO2-PANI nanocomposite, Carbol fuchsin dye, TEM, Water purification, Scavenging study.

Graphical Abstract:





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1. INTRODUCTION

One of the greatest challenges facing humans and other life forms on earth is pollution, which refers the contamination of physical and biological constituents of the earth or atmosphere [1, 2]. Environmental pollution comprises any human activity that deteriorates the quality of the natural environment and is characterized as air, water, and soil pollution [3-5]. Water pollution is particularly alarming due to its essential role in sustaining life [6]. The primary contributor to water pollution includes discharge from dyes, cosmetics, fertilizer, pharmaceutical, pesticide industries [3, 7, 8]. Among these, the dye industry stands out as a significant source of environmental degradation as various dyes are extensively used in sectors like food, cosmetics, textiles, and pharmaceutical sectors, resulting in global production of 1000000 tonnes worldwide [9]. According to the World Bank Report, approximately 17 to 20% of water pollution can be attributed to the dyeing and processing of textiles [10]. Many studies revealed that a substantial portion (20%) of pollution occurs during the synthesis and processing operations of the textile industry, leading to wastewater discharge [11, 12]. These discharged dyes contain numerous chemicals, each with toxic levels, posing threats to aquatic life and humans. Most are water-soluble, non-biodegradable compounds with carcinogenic properties, adversely impacting water quality and increasing the BOD (biochemical oxygen demand) and COD (chemical oxygen demand) [13, 14]. In recent times, the challenge of eliminating dyes and other pollutants from the environment has become a focal point for researchers. Consequently, various methods including biological treatment [15], catalytic reduction [16], adsorption [17], and degradation [18, 19] have photocatalytic been employed to address this environmental concern. Among these approaches, photocatalytic degradation has gained significant popularity for effectively removing pollutants, surpassing traditional methods [10, 20].

The photocatalytic properties of the inorganic semiconductor have garnered significant attention due to its band gap energy of 3 to 3.2 eV, non-toxicity, high chemical and photostability, cost-effectiveness and versatile applications [21–23]. At standard pressure, TiO₂ exists in various

crystalline forms, including anatase, rutile, and brookite [24, 25], each exhibiting distinct physical properties such as refractive index and chemical and photochemical activity [26]. Among these phases, anatase shows greater photocatalytic activity than rutile TiO₂ for pure phases [27]. Photocatalysis using TiO₂ is an advanced oxidation process that uses reactive oxygen species to oxidize almost all organic contaminants without creating any toxic byproducts [22, 28, 29]. The photocatalytic efficiency of the TiO₂ is greatly influenced by crystallographic structure, morphology, and particle size [30].

Surface modification methods extensively utilize conducting polymers due to their ease of synthesis, high conductivity and stability, and environmental capability. excellent polymers such as polythiophene, polypyrrole, and polyaniline (PANI), enhance photocatalytic performance by extending photo response to visible light [31, 32]. Polyaniline (PANI) in particular, stands out as a common conducting polymer with unique electrical, optical, and photoelectric characteristics, making it costeffective compared to other conducting polymers [33–35]. Notably, PANI is typically considered as a p-type semiconductor, while TiO₂ is an n-type semiconductor, forming p-n junction heterostructures when combined [36]. This combination results in hybrid nanocomposite with enhanced flexibility, improved processability, exceptional transparency, good conductivity, and stability [33, 36]. By mitigating the rate of the electron-hole pair recombination, the hybrid nanocomposite not only augments the stability of the catalyst but also enhances its photocatalytic activity [10]. Numerous studies in the literature underscore the superior effectiveness of hybrid nanocomposites compared to their bare counterparts [37–43].

This study's noteworthy findings and contributions to existing work emphasize that polymer-based nanocomposites, such as TiO₂-PANi, present a more favorable option than simple transition metal-doped or multidoped metal oxide nanocomposite materials. Notably, the TiO₂/PANI matrix exhibits high efficiency in reducing organic contaminants like CF dye. This approach holds promise for future research in fabricating novel polymer-based catalysts for organic decontamination as part of effluent



treatment.

2. EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

2.1. Materials

The chemicals employed in this research were all of the AR grade and were utilized without additional purification. In the synthesis of TiO₂, Titanium (IV) isopropoxide (TIP) and anhydrous ethanol were employed while in the synthesis of TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite Aniline, Ammonium persulphate (APS), and hydrochloric acid (HCl, 1 M) were utilized.

The TiO₂ nanomaterial was synthesized using the sol-gel method [44, 45]. Initially, a solution containing titanium (IV) isopropoxide (TIP) (10 ml) and anhydrous ethanol underwent 30 minutes of sonication. Subsequently, deionized water (20 mL) was added dropwise to the sonicated mixture. Following complete water addition, the mixture was stirred continuously for 24 hours, resulting in the formation of a white-coloured precipitate. This precipitate was then separated, subjected to washing with deionized water, dried, and ultimately subjected to calcination in a muffle furnace at 500°C for 3 hours.

The TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite was synthesized at room temperature through the chemical oxidative method [46]. Initially, a mixture comprising TiO₂ (1 g), aniline (1 mL), and 1 M HCl was taken in a beaker labelled as 'A'. Subsequently, this solution underwent 30 minutes of sonication in an ultrasonic bath. After sonication, another solution of Ammonium persulphate (APS) (2.5 g) in 1 M HCl was prepared in a separate beaker labelled as 'B'. The solution from beaker 'B' was added gradually to the beaker 'A' and the resulting mixture was agitated overnight. Following 24 hours, a precipitate formed, which was then filtered, washed with deionized water and acetone, and finally dried at 80°C for 1 hour.

2.2. Characterizations

The synthesized materials namely, TiO₂ TiO₂/PANI nanocomposite and underwent comprehensive characterization employing advanced techniques including UV analysis performed using Shimadzu were 2450 spectrophotometer. X-Ray Diffraction Spectrosocpy (XRD) pattern of the material was measured by a Bruker D8 Advance diffractometer. Raman spectra were measured on Renishaw InVia Raman microscope equipped with a 532 nm laser. The SEM and EDS analysis was performed using Jeol 6390LA/OXFORD XMX N. The TEM and SAED pattern was achieved using Jeol/JEM 2100 Model.

2.2.1. Ultraviolet Diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV-DRS)

This technique is commonly employed for determining the optical properties and band gap energy of materials. It is a simple, rapid, and cost-effective method [47]. The UV analysis of the samples was conducted using a UV double-beam spectrophotometer.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In Figure 1 the absorbance spectra of both TiO_2 nanoparticle and TiO_2 -PANI nanocomposite are illustrated. The results indicate that TiO_2 nanoparticles absorb light from the UV region. The total solar energy accounts for 3% of the UV light. This limited light absorption directly influences the generation of the electron-hole pair, consequently, diminishing the photocatalytic efficiency of the TiO_2 .

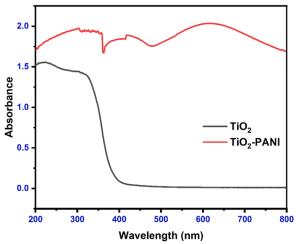


Fig. 1. Absorbance Spectra of the bare TiO₂ and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite

In contrast, TiO_2 -PANI nanocomposite exhibits light absorption across both UV and visible regions, encompassing a significant portion of the solar spectrum. This higher light absorption results in an augmented generation of electronhole pairs, thereby enhancing the photocatalytic performance of TiO_2 -PANI nanocomposite. Moreover, PANI possesses an extended π



electron system, contributing to increased charge separation and additional catalyst features [48– 52]. The calculation of band gap energy(Eg) was performed by the method proposed by Tauc in 1966 [53]. According to this method, absorption coefficient (α) is defined Equation 1.

$$(\alpha h \nu)^{1/\gamma} = B (h \nu - E_g) \tag{1}$$

Where h= Planck constant, v= photon frequency, E_g= the band gap energy and B= the constant. The γ depends on the type of electronic transition. For the direct band gap and indirect transition band gap, this factor is equivalent to ½ or 2 respectively [54]. The band gap energy of both materials was calculated using Equation 1. The Tauc plot used for the calculation of Eg is shown in Figure 2 whereas Table 1 shows the calculated band gap energy of both TiO₂ nanoparticles and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposites.

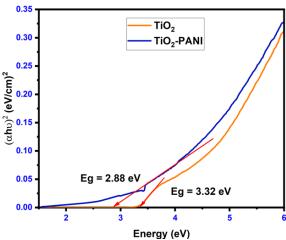


Fig. 2. Tauc plot for the TiO₂ nanoparticles and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite

3.1.1. X-ray diffraction (XRD) study

The XRD technique provides information on the crystal structure, crystallite size, and strain [58]. The resulting pattern, depicted in Figure 3. The pattern was obtained using $CuK\alpha_1$ radiations and a monochromator with a wavelength (λ = 1.54060 Å) at 25°C. The catalysts were analyzed from Bragg's angle ranging from 10-90°. The TiO₂ exhibited 2θ values at 25.15, 36.78, 37.64, 38.40, 47.82, 53.72, 54.94, 62.61, 68.71, 70.18,

74.94, and 82.58° corresponding to (101), (103), (004), (112), (200), (105), (211), (204), (116), (220), (215) and (224) crystal planes of the anatase TiO2, characterized by a tetragonal phase and space group I41/amd. The XRD spectra were consistent with the JCPDS card no. 00-021-1272 [59]. The anatase phase of the TiO_2 , especially with its (101) plane, as illustrated 60, as depicted in Figure 4. The XRD results of both nanoparticles TiO₂ and the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite confirm the formation of the crystalline tetragonal anatase phase of TiO₂. The peak XRD peak of PANI was observed at 15.40, 20.56, 25.38 and 32.77° and these peaks are in good agreement with the peaks reported in the literature [61, 62].

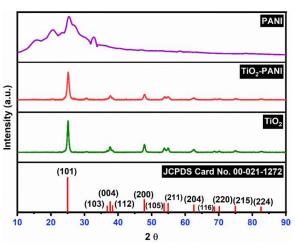


Fig. 3. XRD spectrum of the bare TiO₂ and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite

In the XRD of TiO2-PANI nanocomposite, a broad suppressed diffraction peak of PANI was observed at 20.50°, indicative of its amorphous nature [49, 63, 64]. The peak position in the modified TiO2-PANI nanocomposite exhibited a slight shift and broadening compared to the TiO₂ peak position. This observation implies that the presence of PANI has a limited impact on the crystal structure. The average crystallite size for both TiO₂ nanoparticles and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite was determined using Equation 2. i.e. the Scherrer equation [65].

$$D = \frac{K \lambda}{\beta_{1/2} \cos \theta}$$
 (2)

Table 1. Band gap energies of the TiO₂ nanoparticles and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposites

Name of the Catalyst	Calculated(eV)	Reported(eV)	Reference
TiO ₂	3.32	3.2	[55, 56]
TiO ₂ -PANI	2.88	2.97	[57]







where D= average crystallite size of the material, K= Scherrer constant (0.89), λ = wavelength of the X-ray used, $\beta_{1/2}$ = full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the diffracted peak, θ = diffraction angle.

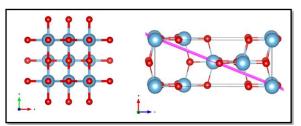


Fig. 4. Crystal structure of Anatase TiO₂ and its (101) plane

Table 2 presents average crystallite size for both TiO_2 nanoparticles and TiO_2 -PANI nanocomposite. The TiO_2 -PANI nanocomposite exhibited a decreased average crystallite size, attributed to interfacial interactions and the attachment of PANI on the surface of the TiO_2 [63].

Table 2. The average crystallite size of the prepared material

Material	Average Crystallite Size (nm)	
TiO ₂	13.87	
TiO ₂ -PANI	10.76	

3.1.2. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) study

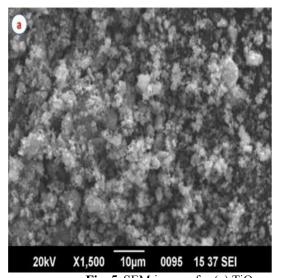
The SEM technique plays a crucial role in assessing the surface topography of various materials [66, 67]. In this study, SEM analysis of

the sample was conducted using the Jeol 6390LA/ OXFORD XMX Nanocomposite instrument. Figure 5(a) displays the SEM images of TiO₂, revealing a porous structure. Notably, the TiO₂ nanoparticles exhibit agglomeration due to the high surface energy, leading to a reduction in the effective surface area and a subsequent decrease in photocatalytic activity. Conversely, Figure 5(b). Illustrates the modified TiO₂ in a more separated state. This observed separation is attributed to the presence of PANI on the surface, which hinders the agglomeration process by creating repulsive forces between particles, thereby preventing their agglomeration [33]. Numerous studies have highlighted that the addition of PANI enhances the photocatalytic efficiency of TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite [33, 68– 71].

3.1.3. Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDS or EDAX)

This technique offers insights into the elemental composition of the material, providing both qualitative and quantitative information [65, 72]. The EDAX was conducted using Jeol 6390LA/OXFORD XMX Nanocomposite instrument. Figure 6 displays the EDAX of TiO₂ nanoparticles, revealing the presence of Ti (32.99%) and (O) (67.01%).

In contrast, the EDAX of TiO₂-PANI, depicted in Figure 7, indicates the presence of Ti (8%), (O) (15.67%), C (64.87%), N (7.63%) and Cl (8.08%) elements. The detection of traces of Cl can be attributed to the hydrochloric acid during the synthesis of the nanocomposite [49].



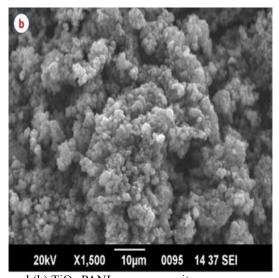


Fig. 5. SEM images for (a) TiO₂ nanoparticles and (b) TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite



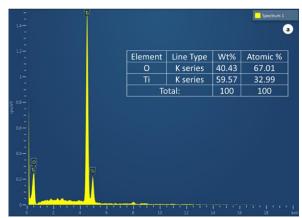


Fig. 6. EDAX spectrum of TiO₂

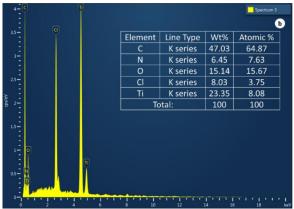


Fig. 7. EDAX spectrum of the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite

3.1.4. Raman spectroscopy

The Raman technique serves as a valuable tool for obtaining insights into the chemical structure and the phase characteristics of the materials [73, 74]. Figure 8 illustrates the Raman spectrum of nanoparticles and TiO₂-PANI both TiO_2 nanocomposite.

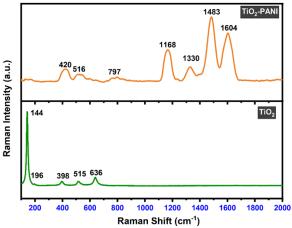


Fig. 8. Raman spectrum of the prepared material

The Raman spectrum of TiO₂ shows five prominent peaks at 144 (Eg), 196 (Eg), 398 (B1g), 515 (A1g) and 636 cm⁻¹ (Eg). The results of both XRD and Raman spectra are in good agreement, suggesting the existence of the anatase phase of TiO₂ [75]. On the other hand, Raman spectrum of the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite indicates shifts in the bands at 398 and 515 cm⁻¹ of TiO₂, to 420 and 516 cm⁻¹ respectively. Additionally, the band at 144 cm⁻¹ is suppressed due to the presence of PANI [76]. The PANI-specific bands were observed at 797 cm⁻¹ (C-H distortion), 1168 cm⁻¹ (C-H bending vibration of the quinoid and benzenoid rings), 1330 cm⁻¹ (stretching vibrations of C-C of the quinoid ring), 1483 cm⁻¹ (the N-H stretching) and 1604 cm⁻¹ (stretching vibrations of C-C of the benzenoid) [76-78].

3.1.5. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)

This method proves valuable in assessing the thermal stability of a substance of the substance [79]. Figure 9 presents the TGA of PANI, TiO₂ nanomaterial, and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite. The TGA of TiO₂ exhibits a minor weight loss attributed to the release of adsorbed water during its synthesis [80]. Notably, the TGA results indicate that TiO₂ demonstrates higher thermal stability compared to the other substances. On the other hand, the TGA curve of PANI reveals three distinct weight losses. The initial loss, occurring at 20 to 140°C. is attributed to water loss. The second weight loss, observed from 150 to 320°C, results from the loss of dopant acid and water of crystallization. The third weight loss, occurring at 350 to 520°C, is associated with the degradation of PANI [68].

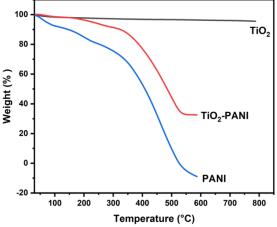


Fig. 9. TGA of PANI, TiO₂, and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite







The TGA curve of TiO₂/PANI shows two distinct weight losses. The initial weight loss, occurring from 50 to 200°C, is due to water loss. The subsequent weight loss, at 300 to 540°C, is associated with the degradation of the low molecular weight oligomer of PANI. Remarkably, no weight loss of the nanocomposite is observed beyond 550°C, emphasizing the stability of the TiO₂, nanoparticles. These findings confirm the formation of the TiO₂/PANI nanocomposite [68]. The thermal hierarchy of the fabricated material, as depicted in Figure 9, is established as TiO₂ >TiO₂-PANI >PANI.

3.1.6. High resolution-Transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) study

The TEM technique reveals the surface morphology of the material, offering high-resolution images [81]. The TEM analysis of the sample was conducted using the Jeol JEM 2100 instruments, with Figure 10 displaying the TEM images of the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite. The images depict the TiO₂ nanoparticles embedded within the polymer chain, resulting in noticeable agglomeration [31, 46, 82].

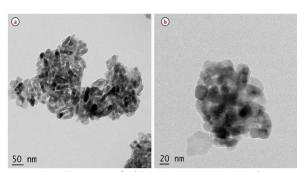


Fig. 10. TEM of TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite

Figure 11 exhibits various lattice planes with a lattice spacing of 0.33 nm, distributed in diverse directions. This lattice spacing functions as confirmation of the presence anatase phase of the TiO_2 nanoparticles [81].

Figure 12, the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern of TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite is presented. The diffraction ring pattern in SAED of TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite validates the presence of the polycrystalline anatase TiO₂ [83, 84]. The lattice planes identified in SAED are in good agreement with those predicted by the XRD technique.

The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) study was investigated for fabricated materials, namely TiO₂

and $TiO_2/PANI$ nanocomposite. The N_2 adsorption and desorption experiment was employed to generate the BET adsorption isotherm.

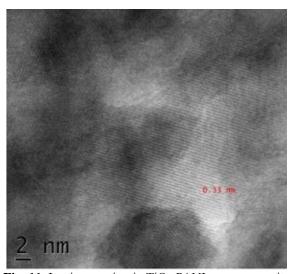


Fig. 11. Lattice spacing in TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite

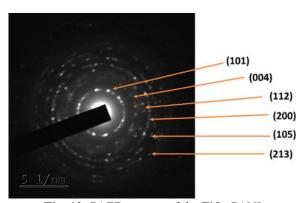


Fig. 12. SAED pattern of the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite

3.1.7. Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) study

The BET graph was constructed using the parameters of relative pressure (P/P₀) against total gas adsorbed under standard temperature and pressure conditions on the catalyst's surface. The investigation of surface area is a crucial parameter for any catalyst, facilitating effective surface interaction between chemical entities. Figure 13 illustrates the BET figures for both materials. From BET investigation provided essential surface parameters, including total surface area, pore size/volume, and correlation coefficient for both the fabricated materials, as detailed in Table 3.

The bare TiO2 exhibited a total BET surface area



and pore radius of 53.7433 m²/g and 80.12 A $^{\circ}$, respectively. In comparison, the TiO₂/PANI nanocomposite displayed a BET surface area and pore radius of 51.4774 m²/g and 78.56, respectively. The slight reduction in surface area for the modified TiO₂ is due to the embedding of TiO₂ nanoparticles in the polymer chain, leading to agglomeration. The BET investigation revealed that the BET curves for both materials, TiO₂ and TiO₂/PANI nanocomposite, correspond to type V adsorption isotherm, one of the six types in the BDDT system of adsorption isotherms. The type V is indicative of porous materials.

3.2. Photocatalytic Study

The assessment of photocatalytic efficiency for both TiO₂ nanoparticles and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite was conducted using the Carbol fuchsin dye. All experiments were carried out in a reactor with a Hg vapor lamp as the light source. Batch experiments were performed, varying catalyst doses of 2, 4, 6, and 8 g/L, and dye concentrations of 20, 40, 60, and 80 mg/L. Each batch solution was exposed to the light and at 10minute intervals, samples were withdrawn, followed by centrifugation. Subsequently, the absorbance of the solution was measured and recorded after each run. This process was iterated till a constant or zero absorbance was achieved. The degradation efficiency of the catalyst was calculated using Equation 3:

Degradation (%)=
$$\left(\frac{C_o - C_t}{C_o}\right) \times 100$$
 (3)

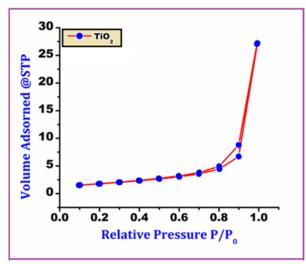
Where C_0 = concentration of Carbol fuchsin before irradiation (t=0) and C_t = concentration at time t after given irradiation.

3.2.1. Parameters Optimization

The photocatalytic investigation was conducted at λ_{max} = 550 nm. The optimal conditions for the degradation of Carbol Fuchsin were 8 g/L catalyst dosage, a 20 mg/L dye concentration, and a pH= 7. Further details and discussions on the results are presented in section 3.2.2 onwards.

3.2.2. Effect of catalyst dose

This parameter was explored by variation in the catalyst dosage within the range from 2 g/L to 8 g/L. In the same experiment, a constant dye concentration of 40 mg/L was employed across all series of batch experiments. The degradation efficiency of both TiO2 nanoparticles and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite was calculated using Equation 3 and the results are shown in Figure 14. Remarkably, the percent degradation exhibited an increase, due to an increase in catalyst dosage.



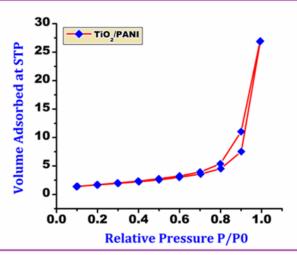


Fig. 13. Brunauer-Emmett-Teller nitrogen adsorption-desorption spectrum for bare TiO2 and TiO2/PANI nanocomposite material

Table 3. The BET characteristics of pore volume, surface area, and pore diameter for TiO₂ and TiO₂/PANI nanocomposite

Fabricated Material	Surface Area (m²/g)	Pore volume (cc/g)	Pore radius (Å)	Correlation Coefficient (R ²)
TiO ₂	53.7433	0.159	80.12	0.9999
TiO ₂ /PANI	51.4774	0.160	78.56	0.9999





This escalation in degradation is the consequence of the increase in the number of active sites of the catalyst, crucial for efficient photocatalysis [85]. Consequently, the optimal degradation was attained at a catalyst dose of 8 g/L for both TiO₂ nanoparticles and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite.

It is essential to note that TiO₂ predominantly absorbs UV light, constituting only 3% of total solar energy. This limitation hampers the generation of electron-hole pairs. Thereby reducing the degradation rate. Additionally, TiO₂ possesses a small band gap of about 2.88 eV, leading to rapid recombination of electron-hole pair, further limiting its photocatalytic efficiency. The incorporation of PANI overcomes these drawbacks and enhances the photocatalytic properties of the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite.

PANI exhibits a high absorption coefficient for visible light, a significant portion of solar energy, and effectively delays the electron-hole recombination process. Consequently, photocatalytic efficiency gets enhanced and the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite emerges as an exceptional catalyst for the CF dye degradation, surpassing the performance of TiO₂ nanoparticles.

3.2.3. Effect of initial dye concentration

This is a significant step in exploring the photocatalytic performance of the material. In this experiment, we investigated the impact of varying dye concentrations, especially at 20, 40, 60, and 80 mg/L. The catalyst dose was kept fixed at 8 g/L for each set of experiments. The degradation efficiency of TiO₂ nanoparticles and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite was determined using Equation 3 and the results are shown graphically in

Figure 15.

Analysis of the results, revealed a decline in the percentage degradation as the dye concentration increased. The reduction in degradation can be attributed to the accumulation of the dye molecules on the catalyst surface, leading to an increase in path length for light penetrating the solution. Furthermore, this accumulation obstructs the catalyst's surface, diminishing light absorption and impeding the generation of the electron-hole pairs. Consequently, an increase in dye concentration correlates with a decrease in the photocatalytic efficiency of the catalyst. This study concluded that optimal degradation was attained at lower dye concentrations⁸⁵. The observed trend was consistent for both for both TiO₂ and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposites. Remarkably, TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite exhibited superior efficiency compared to TiO₂... achieving 96.05 % degradation.

3.2.4. pH optimization

The catalytic processes of a catalyst are significantly influenced by the pH since the catalyst's surface is pH-dependent. Understanding the point of zero charge (PZC) is crucial in gaining insights into the catalyst surface. Consequently, experiments were conducted to ascertain the PZC of TiO₂ nanoparticles. The recorded pH change is graphically depicted in Figure 16, revealing the PZC value 7 for the TiO₂ catalyst [86]. A comparative study of photocatalytic efficiency of both, TiO₂ and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite was carried out at pH 7, as the PZC value for pure TiO₂ is obtained as 7. (as mentioned in the PZC experiment).

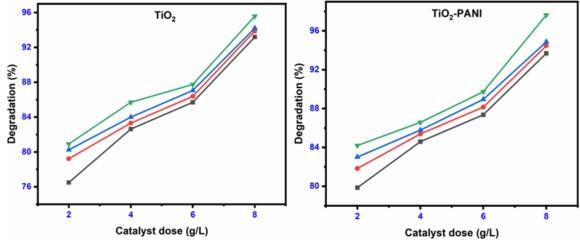


Fig. 14. Effect of catalyst dose of TiO₂ nanoparticle and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite on the rate of degradation of



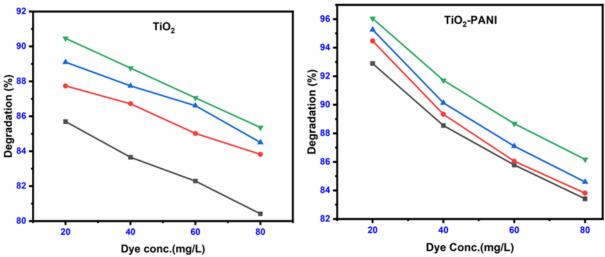


Fig. 15. Effect of Initial dye concentration on the rate of degradation using TiO₂ nanoparticle and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite

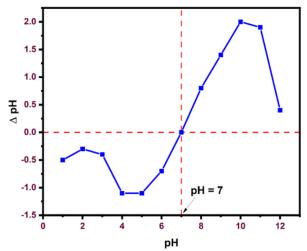


Fig. 16. Point of Zero Charge (PZC) of TiO₂

The pH range selected for further 5 to 8. Batch experiments were executed with a consistent catalyst dose of 8 g/L and dye concentrations set at 20 mg/L. The pH was varied for each batch. The results show an increase in the degradation rate up to pH 7, followed by a subsequent decrease as depicted in Figure 17). The maximum degradation, reaching about 100%, was observed at pH 7 for TiO₂ nanoparticles. Hence, pH 7 was chosen for a comparative assessment of the photocatalytic performance of the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite.

3.2.5. Effect of contact time

Initially, a catalyst dose of 8 g/L and a CF dye concentration of 20 mg/L were taken into a beaker. The solution's pH was maintained at a constant value of 7. Subsequently, the solution

was placed in a photo reactor and the absorbance measurements were conducted at 10 minute intervals. The same experimental procedure was executed for both, TiO₂ nanoparticles and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposites.

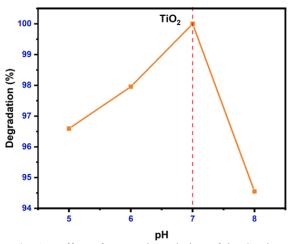


Fig. 17. Effect of pH on degradation of the CF dye using TiO₂ nanoparticles.

The degradation efficiency of both TiO₂ nanoparticles and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite was determined using Equation 3 and the outcomes are presented in Figure 18.

The findings from this study revealed that the TiO₂ achieved almost 100% of the within 60 minutes. On the other hand, the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite exhibited almost 100% of CF dye degradation in just 40 minutes. This experiment proves that the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite was the most efficient catalyst than TiO₂





nanoparticles. The degradation efficiency of the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite was due to the addition of PANI, which enhances light absorption in both UV and visible regions and inhibits electron-hole recombinations [87].

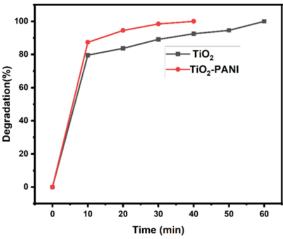


Fig. 18. Effect of Contact Time on Degradation of CF dye

Figure 19 displays the mass spectrums of the both raw dye and the treated dye solution. In Figure 19 (a), the presence of a peak at 330.20 is associated with the actual molecular weight of the dye, contributing to its coloration. When this is compared with the mass spectrum of the treated dye solution in Figure 19 (b), the intensity of the peak at 330.20 is notably reduced. This reduction becomes even more apparent in Figure 19 (c), signifying the cleavage of bonds within the dye. Consequently, the base peak at 223.14 and other fragment peaks emerge. These outcomes confirm the complete degradation of the CF dye.

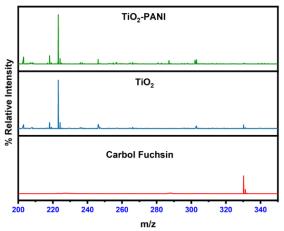


Fig. 19. Mass spectrum of the raw CF dye and treated dye solution

3.2.6. Kinetic study

The kinetic study is useful for in elucidating the order of a reaction and determining the half-life of a reaction. The order of the degradation reaction of CF dye is determined by Equation 4 [88].

$$\ln \frac{C_o}{C_t} = k_{app} t$$
(4)

where C_o represents the concentration of reactants at times 0 and C_t is the concentration of reactants at time t, k_{app} denotes the apparent pseudo-first-order rate constant of the reaction. The relationship between (C_o/C_t) and irradiation time (t) is graphically dependent in Figure 20.

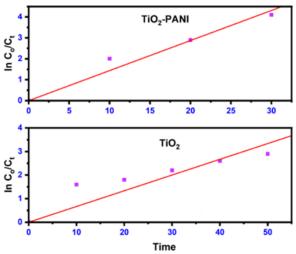


Fig. 20. Pseudo-first-order kinetics for the photocatalytic degradation of Carbol Fuchsin using TiO₂ and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite

It can be seen from Figure 20, that the plot of $\ln (C_o/C_t)$ versus irradiation time (t) exhibits a linear relationship between them. The slope of this linear regression provides the apparent first-order rate constant for the degradation of the Carbol fuchsin dye.

The half-life for the CF dye degradation was determined using the following Equation 5,

$$t_{1/2} = \ln 2 / k = 0.6931 / k_{app}$$
 (5)

The linear regression coefficient (R²), pseudofirst-order rate constant and the half-life for the degradation of the CF dye are summarized in .

3.2.7. Effect of Hydrogen peroxide in sunlight and reactor for degradation of CF dye

The major role in the degradation of organic contaminants or dyes is played by reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as OH⁻, O₂⁻ etc.



Table 4. Linear regression coefficient, apparent rate constant, and half-life of the degradation of CF dye using TiO₂ nanoparticles and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposites.

Name of the Catalyst	Linear regression coefficient (R²)	Apparent rate constants (kapp) (min-1)	The half-life (min)
TiO ₂	0.9834	0.0667	10.39
TiO ₂ -PANI	0.9606	0.1436	4.82

The results as presented in proves that the presence of PANI on the TiO₂ surface enhances the apparent rate constant and reduces the half-life in comparison to pure TiO₂.

These ROS in combination with valence electrons of metal oxide, combine with these species over the surface catalyst combines with dyes and degrade these dyes effectively.

Here we have conducted a small experiment to investigate the degradation pattern of CF dye in the presence and absence of hydrogen peroxide which is a ROS-generating species under mercury vapour reactor and conventional sunlight over the catalyst surface i.e. TiO2 and TiO2-PANI nanocomposite. The optimum conditions of CF dye and catalyst were kept constant such as 20 ppm CF dye, 8 g/L TiO₂ TiO₂-PANI catalyst concentration at neutral pH, and 20 ml of 30% H₂O₂ solution was mixed in this batch experiment process. Since, H₂O₂ is ROS generating species and hence it generates OH-, O₂ in combination with electrons of the valence band and also alters the recombination of the (h⁺/e⁻) pair. Thus, after completion of this setup in the presence of sunlight and Hg- vapor reactor it was observed that the bare TiO₂ in combination with H₂O₂ in Hg vapor and sunlight degrades the CF dve in 50 minutes and 40 minutes respectively. While the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite shows very rapid results for the same experimental conditions and degrades the CF dye in 35 and 30 minutes for TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite in Hg- vapor rector and sunlight respectively in the presence of H₂O₂ ROS generating species. Thus, the presence of ROS-generating species effectively degrades the 100% CF dye through the TiO₂ and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite catalyst surface. The results of this experiment are summarized in Figure 21.

3.2.8. Detection of Reactive oxygen species (ROS) by Scavenging study

The advanced oxidation process (AOP) is strongly affected by the presence of reactive oxygen species like OH^- , O_2^- , O^2 - etc. Thus, these ROS which effectively participate in the AOP can be studied with the help of scavenging study. In the present study common scavengers (ROS trappers) such as benzoquinone (BZQ), isopropyl

alcohol (IPA), and ethylenediammine tetra acetic acid (EDTA) were used.

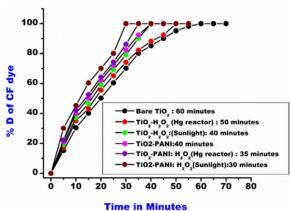


Fig. 21. Photocatalytic Degradation of CF dye using TiO₂ and TiO₂-PANI catalysed by hydrogen peroxide under sunlight and Hg-Vapour reactor

During the batch experiment process study of contact time when 5 mmole solution of IPA was added, it was observed that the photodegradation efficiency of CF dye through both the TiO2-PANI catalyst was declined by the rate of approximately 9.5% in contrast to the solution of TiO₂-PANI catalyst which was not containing IPA scavenger. Whereas with the addition of benzoquinone and EDTA solutions with the same quantity of 5 mmole, the degradation efficiency declined at the rate of 28.52% and 31.45 % respectively. Thus in the overall experiment, EDTA was observed to be a more suitable scavenger for the photocatalytic degradation of CF dye. Moreover, the experiments also confirm the ROS OH-, O₂-, O²- etc. which are most important in the AOP processes. This confirms that the generation of electrons through the valence band of TiO₂-PANI catalyst in combination with aqua molecules generates ROS which are highly effective in the photodegradation of organic molecules such as CF dye. The diagrammatic presentation of the scavenging study experiment for the TiO2-PANI catalyst is as shown in Figure 22.



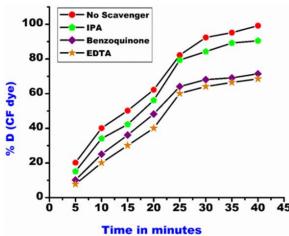


Fig. 22. Radical scavenging experiments for CF dye at TiO₂-PANI catalyst

3.2.9. Comparison of the efficiency of the prepared catalysts

As per existing literature, the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite has been identified as more efficient. The application of these catalysts in pollutant degradation is shown Table 5. In the present study, the catalysts, namely the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite are found to be more effective than pure TiO₂. Remarkably, the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite achieved nearly complete degradation (almost 100%) of Carbol fuchsin (CF) dye within 40 minutes, surpassing the performance of the TiO₂, which required 60 minutes for the degradation of the same dye.

4. CONCLUSIONS

In the present study, the bare TiO₂ and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposites were prepared using sol-gel and chemical oxidative polymerization techniques, respectively. The UV analysis revealed that TiO₂ selectively absorbs UV light, while the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite exhibits light absorption across both UV and visible regions. The band gap energy of

bare TiO₂ and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite were 3.32 eV and 2.88 eV respectively. The incorporation of PANI enhances visible light absorption, reduces the band gap energy, delays the electron-hole recombination, and thereby enhances the photocatalytic efficiency of the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite.

The XRD results indicated the presence of a tetragonal phase of TiO₂ (anatase) in both TiO₂ and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite, a finding validated by the Raman and TEM analysis. The average crystallite size was determined to be 13.87 nm for TiO₂ and 10.76 nm for the TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite. TGA results confirmed that the TiO₂-PANI has higher thermal stability compared to PANI, with TiO2 exhibiting the highest thermal stability. TEM analysis revealed the distribution of lattice planes in different directions, confirming the presence of the polycrystalline anatase TiO₂ in the SAED patterns. These patterns suggest many lattice planes that align well with the XRD observations.

The photocatalytic performance of both catalysts was evaluated against the Carbol Fuchsin dye. The TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite emerged as an exceptional photocatalyst, completely degrading Carbol Fuchsin dye within a remarkably short timeframe of 40 minutes, surpassing the performance of the pure TiO₂. The enhanced degradation efficiency of this catalyst was due to the presence of PANI. It contributes to increased light absorption in both UV and visible regions while simultaneously inhibiting electron-hole recombinations.

DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTEREST

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

Table 5. Comparative study of TiO₂ and TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite against pollutant degradation

Catalyst	Dye	Degradation (%)	References
TiO ₂	Methylene blue	34%	[87]
	Methylene blue	89.57%	[89]
	Reactive Black-5	10%	[90]
TiO ₂ -PANI nanocomposite	Methylene blue	80%	[87]
	Methylene blue	98.77%	[89]
	Reactive Black-5	96%	[90]
	Methyl orange and Orange II	94.2%	[91]

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RESEARCH HIGHLIGHTS

- A hybrid composite TiO₂-Polyaniline (PANI) nanocomposite was synthesized using the chemical oxidative polymerization method.
- The XRD analysis confirmed the presence of Anatase TiO₂. The average crystallite size of TiO₂ was 13.87 in pure form and 10.76 nm in the composite TiO₂-PANI.
- The TiO₂ exhibits absorption in the UV region, while its composite TiO₂-PANI nanocomposite absorbs across both UV and Visible regions.
- Robust degradation of Carbol Fuchsin dye was achieved within 40 minutes, indicating a promising photocatalytic activity.

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