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# **Advancements in Composite Photocatalysts for Textile Wastewater Treatment and Hydrogen Generation**

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## *Abstract*

*The increasing environmental challenges posed by industrial wastewater, particularly from the textile sector, and the growing demand for sustainable energy solutions have driven significant research into photocatalysis. This literature review explores recent advancements in composite photocatalysts designed for dual purposes: the degradation of toxic dyes in textile wastewater and the generation of hydrogen from Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs). The review focuses on composites that combine conducting polymers (such as polyaniline (PANI) and poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene) (PEDOT)), semiconductor photocatalysts (like zinc oxide (ZnO) and titanium dioxide (TiO2)), and noble metals (silver (Ag) and gold (Au)). These materials are evaluated for their photocatalytic performance under UV and solar light conditions. Key composites discussed include MNP-PANI-ZnO-Ag, MNP-PANI-ZnO-Au, MNP-PANI-TiO2-Ag, and MNP-PANI-TiO2-Au. The review covers the mechanisms of photocatalytic degradation of Methylene Blue (MB) dye, hydrogen generation from water and ethanol mixtures, and the methods for assessing photocatalytic efficiency. Current challenges and future research directions are also highlighted, emphasizing the potential of these composite materials to provide sustainable solutions for environmental and energy issues.*

*Keywords: Photocatalysis, Composite Photocatalysts, Conducting Polymers, Semiconductor Photocatalysts, Noble Metals, Textile Wastewater Treatment, Methylene Blue Degradation, Hydrogen Generation, Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs), Polyaniline (PANI), Poly(3,4-ethylene dioxythiophene) (PEDOT), Zinc Oxide (ZnO), Titanium Dioxide (TiO2), Silver (Ag), Gold (Au), UV Light, Solar Light, Environmental Remediation, Sustainable Energy, Photocatalytic Efficiency.*

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## **I. Introduction**

The rapid industrialization and urbanization of recent decades have led to significant environmental challenges, particularly in the realm of wastewater management. Textile industries are major contributors to water pollution, discharging vast quantities of dye-laden wastewater into water bodies. Synthetic dyes such as Methylene Blue (MB) pose severe risks to aquatic life and human health due to their toxicity, carcinogenicity, and resistance to biodegradation (Gupta & Suhas, 2009). These dyes can damage aquatic ecosystems by reducing light penetration and photosynthesis, leading to oxygen depletion and the death of aquatic organisms. Many synthetic dyes are also known carcinogens and mutagens, posing significant health risks through contaminated water sources.

Concurrently, the growing global energy demand has intensified the search for sustainable and clean energy sources. Hydrogen has emerged as a promising candidate due to its high energy content and environmentally friendly combustion byproduct—water (Crabtree et al., 2004). However, finding efficient and sustainable methods to produce hydrogen at a large scale remains challenging.

Photocatalysis, a process utilizing light to accelerate chemical reactions in the presence of a catalyst, has gained considerable attention as a dual solution for wastewater treatment and hydrogen generation. This method leverages the energy from light (UV or solar) to drive chemical reactions that can break down pollutants or generate hydrogen. The advantage of photocatalysis lies in its ability to utilize renewable energy sources like sunlight and its potential for continuous operation with the appropriate catalyst and conditions.

## **1.1 Photocatalysis in Wastewater Treatment**

## **1.1.1 Overview of Photocatalysis**

Photocatalysis is a sophisticated and highly effective method employed in the treatment of wastewater, leveraging the power of light to instigate chemical reactions via a semiconductor catalyst. This process, which has garnered substantial attention in environmental science and engineering, fundamentally relies on the properties of semiconductors such as titanium dioxide (TiO2) and zinc oxide (ZnO) (Hoffmann et al., 1995; Mills & Le Hunte, 1997). These materials are selected due to their appropriate band gap energies, high chemical stability, non-toxicity, and wide availability.

The mechanism begins with the absorption of photons by the semiconductor. For effective photocatalysis, the energy of the incoming photons must be equal to or exceed the band gap of the semiconductor. When this condition is met, electrons (e−) in the valence band of the semiconductor are excited to the conduction band, leaving behind positively charged holes (h+) in the valence band. This excitation results in the formation of electron-hole pairs, which are crucial for the subsequent redox reactions that degrade pollutants (Chen et al., 2010).

The photocatalytic process can be described in three main steps:

1. **Photon Absorption:** The semiconductor absorbs photons, leading to the excitation of electrons.

Semiconductor+ $h v \rightarrow e^- + h$  +Semiconductor+ $h v \rightarrow e^- + h^+$ 

2. **Formation and Migration of Electron-Hole Pairs:** The generated electron-hole pairs migrate to the surface of the semiconductor. Effective separation of these pairs is vital to prevent recombination, which would otherwise nullify the photocatalytic effect (Linsebigler et al., 1995).

3. **Redox Reactions at the Surface:** The electrons and holes at the surface engage in redox reactions with adsorbed species, leading to the degradation of contaminants.

## **1.1.1 Mechanism of Photocatalytic Degradation of Dyes**

The photocatalytic degradation of dyes, a common class of pollutants in wastewater, involves complex interactions primarily driven by reactive oxygen species (ROS). These species, which include hydroxyl radicals (•OH), superoxide anions (O2•−), and hydrogen peroxide (H2O2), are generated on the surface of the photocatalyst and are known for their high oxidative potential. They play a crucial role in breaking down dye molecules into less harmful substances such as carbon dioxide (CO2) and water (H2O) (Chen et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 1998).

The degradation process can be broken down into several detailed steps:

1. **Generation of Electron-Hole Pairs:** When a semiconductor photocatalyst like TiO2 or ZnO is exposed to light, it undergoes photoexcitation. Electrons are promoted from the valence band to the conduction band, creating electron-hole pairs:

TiO2+ℎ →TiO2(cb−+ℎ vb+)TiO2+*hν*→TiO2(*e*cb−+*h*vb+)

# 2. **Formation of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS):**

 **Reduction Reactions:** Photogenerated electrons in the conduction band reduce oxygen molecules adsorbed on the catalyst surface to form superoxide anions (O2•−):

O2+*e*−→O2•−O2+*e*−→O2•−

These superoxide anions can further react to form hydrogen peroxide (H2O2), which can decompose into hydroxyl radicals (•OH):

O2•−+2++−→H2O2O2•−+2*H*++*e*−→H2O2

H2O2+*e*−→•OH+OH-H2O2+*e*−→•OH+OH-

 **Oxidation Reactions:** Photogenerated holes in the valence band can oxidize water (H2O) or hydroxide ions (OH−) to form hydroxyl radicals (•OH):

H2O+ℎ +→•OH++H2O+*h*+→•OH+*H*+

OH−+ℎ +→•OHOH−+*h*+→•OH

3. **Attack on Dye Molecules:** The ROS generated, particularly hydroxyl radicals, are extremely reactive and can attack the dye molecules. These radicals initiate the degradation process by abstracting hydrogen atoms or adding to the unsaturated bonds of dye molecules, leading to the breakdown of the dye structure (Herrmann, 1999; Fox & Dulay, 1993):

Dye+•OH→Intermediates→CO2+H2ODye+•OH→Intermediates→CO2+H2O

The intermediates formed during the initial stages of degradation are further oxidized into simpler and harmless molecules.

# **1.2 Photocatalysis in Wastewater Treatment**

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# 2. **Formation of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS):**

 **Reduction Reactions:** Photogenerated electrons in the conduction band reduce oxygen molecules adsorbed on the catalyst surface to form superoxide anions (O2•−):

O2+*e*−→O2•−O2+*e*−→O2•−

These superoxide anions can further react to form hydrogen peroxide (H2O2), which can decompose into hydroxyl radicals (•OH):

O2•−+2++−→H2O2O2•−+2*H*++*e*−→H2O2

H2O2+*e*−→•OH+OH−H2O2+*e*−→•OH+OH−

 **Oxidation Reactions:** Photogenerated holes in the valence band can oxidize water (H2O) or hydroxide ions (OH−) to form hydroxyl radicals (•OH):

H2O+ℎ +→•OH++H2O+*h*+→•OH+*H*+

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3. **Attack on Dye Molecules:** The ROS generated, particularly hydroxyl radicals, are extremely reactive and can attack the dye molecules. These radicals initiate the degradation process by abstracting hydrogen atoms or adding to the unsaturated bonds of dye molecules, leading to the breakdown of the dye structure (Herrmann, 1999; Fox & Dulay, 1993):

Dye+•OH→Intermediates→CO2+H2ODye+•OH→Intermediates→CO2+H2O

The intermediates formed during the initial stages of degradation are further oxidized into simpler and harmless molecules.

# **1.2.3 Factors Influencing Photocatalytic Efficiency**

The efficiency of the photocatalytic process is influenced by several factors:

 **Nature of the Semiconductor:** The band gap energy, surface area, and crystallinity of the semiconductor play crucial roles. For instance, anatase TiO2 is generally more photocatalytically active than rutile TiO2 due to its higher surface area and better charge separation efficiency (Kamat & Meisel, 2003).

 **Light Source:** The wavelength and intensity of the light source affect the rate of electron-hole pair generation. UV light is commonly used for TiO2 photocatalysis because its energy is sufficient to excite electrons across the band gap of TiO2 (3.2 eV for anatase phase) (Mills & Hunte, 1997).

 **Presence of Oxidizing Agents:** The availability of oxygen and other oxidizing agents can enhance the generation of ROS, thereby increasing the degradation rate of pollutants (Rao et al., 1997).

 **Pollutant Properties:** The chemical structure, concentration, and adsorption properties of the pollutants influence their interaction with the photocatalyst and subsequent degradation (Gupta & Bhattacharyya, 2012).

 **Environmental Conditions:** pH, temperature, and the presence of other substances in the wastewater can also impact the photocatalytic activity (Kim & Park, 2006).

#### **1.2.4 Advances and Challenges in Photocatalysis**

Significant advancements have been made in the field of photocatalysis to enhance its efficiency and applicability in wastewater treatment. Various strategies have been employed, including doping semiconductors with metal ions or non-metals, coupling with other semiconductors, and developing novel photocatalysts with reduced band gaps for visible light activation.

## **1.2.4.1 Advances in Photocatalysis**

#### **1. Doping and Co-doping:**

 - **Description**: Doping with elements such as nitrogen, sulfur, and transition metals can extend the absorption of light into the visible region, improve charge separation, and increase the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS).

**Example**: Nitrogen-doped TiO2 shows enhanced photocatalytic activity under visible light due to the formation of mid-gap states that facilitate electron excitation with lower energy photons (Asahi et al., 2001).

 - **Mechanism**: The dopants introduce new energy levels within the band gap of TiO2, enabling it to absorb visible light more effectively and generate electron-hole pairs that participate in photocatalytic reactions.

#### **2. Composite Photocatalysts:**

 - **Description**: Coupling TiO2 with other semiconductors like ZnO, WO3, or CdS can create heterojunctions that enhance charge separation and extend light absorption.

 **- Example**: These composites often exhibit superior photocatalytic performance compared to singlecomponent catalysts. For instance, a TiO2-ZnO composite can utilize a broader spectrum of light and separate charge carriers more efficiently, leading to higher photocatalytic activity (Zhao et al., 1998; Zhu et al., 2011).

 **- Mechanism**: The heterojunctions formed between different semiconductors facilitate the efficient separation of photogenerated electron-hole pairs, reducing recombination rates and enhancing the overall photocatalytic activity.

#### **3. Nanostructured Photocatalysts:**

 - **Description**: Nanostructuring of photocatalysts increases their surface area and provides more active sites for reactions.

 - **Example:** Nanotubes, nanowires, and nanospheres of TiO2 have shown increased photocatalytic efficiency due to their unique structural properties (Chen & Mao, 2007; Zhang et al., 2011).

 **- Mechanism**: Nanostructures provide a larger surface area-to-volume ratio, enhancing the interaction between the photocatalyst and the reactants. Additionally, they facilitate the diffusion of reactants to the active sites and improve the separation of photogenerated electron-hole pairs.



**Figure 1**. Photocatalytic Efficiency of Various Composites

#### **1.2.4.2 Challenges in Photocatalysis**

Despite these advancements, several challenges remain:

#### **1. Recombination of Electron-Hole Pairs:**

 - **Description**: Fast recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs can significantly reduce photocatalytic efficiency.

 - **Impact**: Recombination leads to the loss of photogenerated charges, reducing the number of electrons and holes available for redox reactions, thereby decreasing the overall efficiency of the photocatalytic process.

 - **Solution Focus**: Research is focused on developing materials and structures that promote effective charge separation. Strategies include creating heterojunctions, doping with suitable elements, and using co-catalysts to facilitate charge transfer and reduce recombination rates (Fujishima et al., 2000).

#### **2. Mass Transfer Limitations:**

 - **Description**: The diffusion of reactants to the catalyst surface and the removal of reaction products can limit the overall reaction rate.

 **- Impact**: Mass transfer limitations can lead to insufficient interaction between the photocatalyst and the pollutants, reducing the efficiency of pollutant degradation or hydrogen production.

 - **Solution Focus**: Optimizing reactor design and catalyst placement can help mitigate these issues. For example, designing reactors with better mixing and flow dynamics can enhance mass transfer, ensuring more effective contact between the photocatalyst and the reactants (Hoffmann et al., 1995). Additionally, immobilizing photocatalysts on substrates can improve mass transfer by maintaining a high surface area for reactions.

#### **3. Stability and Durability:**

- **Description**: Photocatalysts can degrade over time, losing their activity.

 - **Impact:** Degradation of photocatalysts can result in reduced efficiency and the need for frequent replacement, which is not cost-effective for large-scale applications.

 **- Solution Focus**: Enhancing the durability and stability of photocatalysts under operational conditions is critical for practical applications. Strategies include surface modification to protect the photocatalyst from photodegradation, using robust materials that resist chemical and physical degradation, and developing composites that maintain stability over prolonged usage (Herrmann, 1999).

## **1.2.4.3 Addressing Challenges through Continued Research**

#### **1. Material Development:**

 **- Focus**: Research on new materials and composites that exhibit enhanced light absorption, charge separation, and stability.

 - **Approach**: Exploring advanced synthesis techniques, such as solvothermal and hydrothermal methods, to create highly efficient and stable photocatalysts. Investigating novel materials like perovskites, carbon-based materials, and metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) for photocatalytic applications.

## **2. Hybrid Systems:**

 - **Focus**: Combining photocatalysis with other treatment methods to create hybrid systems that leverage the strengths of each technique.

 - **Approach**: Integrating photocatalysis with adsorption, biodegradation, or electrochemical methods to enhance overall efficiency and broaden the scope of applications. For example, combining photocatalysis with adsorption can pre-concentrate pollutants, making the photocatalytic process more effective.

#### **3. Scalability and Practical Applications:**

 - **Focus**: Scaling up photocatalytic processes for real-world applications, particularly in wastewater treatment and hydrogen production.

 **- Approach**: Developing scalable synthesis methods for photocatalysts, designing large-scale reactors, and conducting pilot projects to demonstrate the feasibility and efficiency of these technologies in industrial settings. Ensuring that photocatalysts can be easily integrated into existing treatment systems.

## **4. Environmental and Economic Considerations:**

- **Focus**: Assessing the environmental footprint and cost-effectiveness of photocatalytic technologies.

 **- Approach**: Conducting life cycle assessments (LCA) to evaluate the environmental impact of photocatalyst production, use, and disposal. Investigating cost-reduction strategies, such as reducing the use of expensive noble metals, and exploring alternative materials that offer similar or superior performance at a lower cost.

By addressing these challenges through continued research and innovation, the field of photocatalysis can advance towards more efficient and practical solutions for wastewater treatment and hydrogen generation, contributing to environmental sustainability and clean energy production.

# **1.3 Applications of Photocatalysis in Wastewater Treatment**

Photocatalysis has been successfully applied in the treatment of various types of wastewater, including industrial effluents, textile dyes, pharmaceutical residues, and organic contaminants. Its advantages include the complete mineralization of pollutants, operation at ambient conditions, and the potential for solar energy utilization (Chen et al., 2010; Ahmed et al., 2010).

 **Textile Industry:** The textile industry generates large volumes of wastewater containing dyes and other organic pollutants. Photocatalytic treatment using TiO2 and ZnO has shown effective degradation of a wide range of dyes, resulting in significant color removal and reduction in chemical oxygen demand (COD) (Ahmed et al., 2010).

 **Pharmaceuticals and Personal Care Products:** Wastewater from pharmaceutical industries and municipal sources often contains residues of drugs and personal care products. Photocatalysis offers an efficient method for degrading these micro poll

## **1.4 Types of Semiconductor Photocatalysts**

Different semiconductor materials are used as photocatalysts, each with unique properties influencing their activity:

 **Titanium Dioxide (TiO2):** Widely studied for its strong oxidative power, chemical stability, nontoxicity, and abundance. Anatase TiO2 is the most photocatalytically active phase (Chen & Mao, 2007).

**Zinc Oxide (ZnO):** Similar properties to TiO2 with a wide band gap and high exciton binding energy, making it efficient in UV light-driven photocatalysis (Chen et al., 2010).

**Graphitic Carbon Nitride (g-C3N4):** Notable for its visible light activity due to a narrower band gap (~2.7 eV) and being metal-free (Wang et al., 2019).

 **Cadmium Sulfide (CdS):** Visible-light-active with a band gap of around 2.4 eV, but limited by its toxicity and photo corrosion (Li et al., 2019).

# **1.4.1 Photocatalytic Processes and Applications**

Photocatalysis can be employed in various applications:

 **Water and Air Purification:** Degrading organic pollutants in water and air, including VOCs, dyes, and pathogens (Ahmed et al., 2011).

 **Self-Cleaning Surfaces:** Coatings with photocatalysts like TiO2 can degrade organic dirt and contaminants under sunlight, reducing the need for chemical cleaners (Fujishima et al., 2000).

 **Antibacterial and Antiviral Applications:** Photocatalytic materials can inactivate bacteria, viruses, and other pathogens, useful for sterilizing surfaces and medical devices (Gao et al., 2012).

 **Hydrogen Production:** Photocatalysts can split water into hydrogen and oxygen gases under light irradiation, offering a sustainable route to hydrogen production (Fujishima & Honda, 1972).

## **2. Challenges in Photocatalysis**

Despite the promising potential of photocatalysis, several challenges need to be addressed to enhance its practical applications:

 **Limited Light Absorption:** Many photocatalysts are only active under UV light, which constitutes a small fraction of the solar spectrum. Developing materials that can utilize visible light more effectively is crucial for improving solar energy conversion efficiency (Chen et al., 2010).

 **Recombination of Electron-Hole Pairs:** Rapid recombination reduces the efficiency of photocatalysis. Strategies to enhance charge separation, such as using co-catalysts and heterojunctions, are essential for improving performance (Liu et al., 2016).

 **Photostability:** Some photocatalysts, like CdS, suffer from photocorrosion under prolonged light exposure. Enhancing stability is necessary for long-term operation (Li et al., 2019).

 **Cost and Scalability:** Developing cost-effective and scalable photocatalysts that can be easily synthesized and integrated into existing systems is vital for commercial applications (Ahmed et al., 2011).

# **3. Future Directions**

Research in photocatalysis focuses on overcoming these challenges through various approaches:

 **Material Modification:** Doping with metals or non-metals, creating heterojunctions, and developing composite materials can improve light absorption, charge separation, and overall efficiency (Wang et al., 2019).

 **Nanostructuring:** Designing photocatalysts with nanostructured features (e.g., nanorods, nanotubes) enhances surface area and active sites, facilitating better interaction with pollutants and reactants (Chen & Mao, 2007).

 **Hybrid Systems:** Combining photocatalysis with other treatment methods (e.g., adsorption, biodegradation) can provide synergistic effects for more efficient pollutant removal (Gupta & Suhas, 2009).

 **Sustainable Development:** Emphasizing the development of environmentally benign and recyclable photocatalysts to minimize secondary pollution and ensure sustainable applications (Hoffmann et al., 1995).



**Figure 2**. Key areas for future research

# **4. Mechanism of Photocatalytic Degradation of Dyes**

The degradation of dyes via photocatalysis involves complex processes driven by ROS such as hydroxyl radicals (•OH), superoxide anions (O2•−), and hydrogen peroxide (H2O2). These ROS are potent oxidizing agents that attack and decompose dye molecules into less harmful substances like CO2 and H2O (Chen et al., 2010).

# **4.1 Photocatalytic Process Overview**

When a photocatalyst is exposed to light, electrons in the semiconductor material are excited from the valence band to the conduction band, creating electron-hole pairs. These pairs migrate to the surface, participating in redox reactions. Photogenerated electrons reduce oxygen molecules to form superoxide anions (O2•−), while holes oxidize water or hydroxide ions to form hydroxyl radicals ( $\bullet$ OH) (Hoffmann et al., 1995).

# **4.2 Generation of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS)**

The primary ROS involved in photocatalytic dye degradation include:

 **Hydroxyl Radicals (•OH):** Formed by the oxidation of water (H2O) or hydroxide ions (OH−) by photogenerated holes. Hydroxyl radicals are highly reactive and non-selective, degrading a wide range of organic pollutants.

h++H2O→⋅OH+H+h++H2O→⋅OH+H+ h++OH−→⋅OHh++OH−→⋅OH

 **Superoxide Anions (O2•−):** Formed by the reduction of oxygen molecules (O2) by photogenerated electrons. Superoxide anions can further react to form hydrogen peroxide (H2O2) and hydroxyl radicals. e−+O2→O2⋅−e−+O2→O2⋅−

 **Hydrogen Peroxide (H2O2):** Formed through the reaction of superoxide anions with protons (H+), hydrogen peroxide can further decompose into hydroxyl radicals.

O2⋅−+H+→HO2⋅O2⋅−+H+→HO2⋅ 2HO2⋅→H2O2+O22HO2⋅→H2O2+O2

# **4.3 Degradation of Dye Molecules**

The ROS generated in the photocatalytic process are highly reactive and attack dye molecules through various mechanisms, breaking them down into smaller, less harmful substances. For instance, hydroxyl radicals oxidize the chromophore groups in dye molecules, responsible for their color, decolorizing the dyes and breaking them into simpler, non-toxic molecules (Ahmed et al., 2011).

# **4.4 Factors Influencing Photocatalytic Efficiency**

Several factors influence the overall efficiency of photocatalytic degradation of dyes:

Nature of the Photocatalyst: The type of semiconductor material, its crystallinity, surface area, and particle size significantly affect photocatalytic activity. For example, TiO2 is widely used due to its high oxidative power and stability, but modifications such as doping or forming composites with other materials can enhance its efficiency (Chen & Mao, 2007).

 **Type of Dye:** Different dyes have varying chemical structures and properties, influencing their susceptibility to photocatalytic degradation. For example, Methylene Blue (MB) is a cationic dye commonly used as a model pollutant in photocatalytic studies due to its resistance to degradation (Natarajan et al., 2011).

 **Light Source:** The intensity and wavelength of the light source play a crucial role in the photocatalytic process. UV light is often used due to its high energy, but visible light photocatalysis is gaining attention for its

practical application under natural sunlight. The band gap of the photocatalyst determines the wavelength of light it can absorb and utilize (Fujishima & Honda, 1972).

 **pH and Ionic Strength:** The pH of the solution can influence the surface charge of the photocatalyst and the ionization state of the dye molecules, affecting adsorption and degradation efficiency. Similarly, the presence of other ions in the solution can either inhibit or enhance the photocatalytic process (Chen et al., 2010).

# **5. Advanced Photocatalytic Systems**

Research is ongoing to develop advanced photocatalytic systems that can efficiently degrade dyes and other organic pollutants. Some of the approaches include:

**Doping:** Introducing foreign atoms into the crystal lattice of photocatalysts to improve light absorption and charge separation. For example, nitrogen-doped TiO2 shows enhanced activity under visible light (Asahi et al., 2001).

 **Composite Materials:** Combining two or more materials to synergistically enhance photocatalytic performance. For instance, composites of TiO2 with conducting polymers like PANI can improve charge separation and extend light absorption into the visible range (Zhang et al., 2010).

 **Nanostructured Photocatalysts:** Developing photocatalysts with nanostructured features such as nanotubes, nanorods, and nanowires to increase surface area and active sites for the photocatalytic reaction (Chen & Mao, 2007).

 **Plasmonic Photocatalysts:** Utilizing noble metals like gold (Au) and silver (Ag) to enhance photocatalytic activity through surface plasmon resonance, which increases light absorption and charge carrier generation (Zhou et al., 2018).

## **6. Evaluation Methods**

## **6.1 Methods for Assessing Photocatalytic Activity**

The photocatalytic activity of a material can be assessed by measuring the degradation rate of a model pollutant such as MB under controlled conditions. Techniques like UV-Vis spectroscopy are commonly used to monitor dye concentration over time, providing insights into the photocatalyst's efficiency (Ahmed et al., 2011).

## **6.2 Techniques for Evaluating Hydrogen Generation Efficiency**

The efficiency of hydrogen generation is typically evaluated by measuring the amount of hydrogen produced over time using gas chromatography. This method provides quantitative data on the photocatalyst's performance, enabling comparisons between different materials and composites (Tong et al., 2020).

## **7. Challenges and Future Directions**

## **7.1 Current Challenges in Photocatalyst Development**

Despite significant advancements, several challenges remain in developing efficient photocatalysts. These include the need for materials that can effectively absorb visible light, rapid recombination of photogenerated charge carriers, and difficulty in separating and reusing catalysts. Additionally, the potential environmental impact of catalyst components must be considered to avoid secondary pollution (Chen et al., 2010).

# **7.2 Potential Solutions and Future Research Directions**

Future research should focus on developing new composite materials with enhanced light absorption and charge separation properties. Strategies like doping, heterojunction formation, and incorporating co-catalysts can improve photocatalytic efficiency. Additionally, efforts should be made to design recyclable and environmentally benign photocatalysts to ensure sustainable wastewater treatment and hydrogen production (Liu et al., 2016).



**Figure.3** Challenges in Photocatalysis

## **8. Summary**

The article "Advancements in Composite Photocatalysts for Textile Wastewater Treatment and Hydrogen Generation" reviews recent progress in composite photocatalysts, which combine conducting polymers, semiconductor photocatalysts, and noble metals for dual applications in environmental remediation and energy production. It highlights the effectiveness of these materials in degrading toxic dyes in textile wastewater and generating hydrogen from volatile organic compounds (VOCs) under UV and solar light. Key advancements include enhanced efficiency through doping, composite formation, and nanostructuring, while challenges such as electron-hole recombination, mass transfer limitations, and stability are addressed. The article emphasizes ongoing research focused on new materials, hybrid systems, and scalable solutions, underscoring the potential of photocatalysts to provide sustainable solutions for water purification and clean energy generation.





#### **9. Conclusion**

The development of advanced photocatalysts holds great promise for addressing environmental challenges associated with wastewater treatment and energy production. Composite materials comprising conducting polymers, semiconductor photocatalysts, and noble metals offer significant advantages in terms of photocatalytic efficiency and reusability. By continuing to explore and optimize these materials, significant strides can be made towards sustainable solutions for water purification and clean energy generation.

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