

Photocatalytic Degradation of Environmental Pollutants by Solar Light Using Fabricated BaPbCe₂O₇ Nanomaterial

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Abstract—A novel nano-photocatalyst BaPbCe₂O₇, was successfully synthesized via a controlled co-precipitation method, followed by calcination, yielding 73% of the final product. The structural and morphological characteristics of the synthesized material were thoroughly examined using a range of analytical techniques. UV-Vis spectroscopy confirmed an optical band gap of 2.32 eV. The obtained nanoparticles (NPs) were subsequently employed as an efficient photocatalyst for the degradation of malachite green (MG), brilliant green (BG) and crystal violet (CV) dyes. A detailed kinetic analysis was carried out to determine the optimal degradation conditions. Notably, BaPbCe₂O₇ demonstrated excellent photocatalytic performance, achieving degradation efficiencies of approximately 87% (MG), 94% (BG) and 81% (CV) within 25 minutes. Scavenger studies confirmed the involvement of reactive radical species in the degradation process. Furthermore, recyclability tests indicated that the photocatalyst retained nearly consistent activity even after five consecutive cycles. A plausible photocatalytic degradation mechanism has also been proposed.

Index Terms—Photocatalysis, Photodegradation, Coprecipitation, Dye degradation, Water treatment.

I. INTRODUCTION

Malachite green is a triphenylmethane basic dye, readily soluble in water that possesses antimicrobial properties [1], used to dye silk, cotton, leather, wool and paper and it is also employed as a fungicide and disinfectant in the fish farming industry [2]. Brilliant green is the triarylmethane dyes [3], used to dye materials, particularly silk and wood, and is also present in plastic and rubber industries' effluents. Skin contact, eye contact, and the ingestion of this dye are

all dangerous [4]. Crystal violet is a triarylmethane dye [5] used as a histological stain and in Gram's method of classifying bacteria. Crystal violet has antibacterial, antifungal, and anthelmintic (vermicide) properties and was formerly important as a topical antiseptic. The medical use of the dye has been largely superseded by more modern drugs [6].

Photodegradation has emerged as a promising contemporary approach to addressing the water pollution. Extensive research has focused on this technique, which not only facilitates the removal of toxic pollutants but also their transformation into non-toxic by-products mediated by light and a photocatalyst [7, 8]. In recent nanotechnology breakthroughs, metal oxide nanoparticles (NPs) have become crucial for various technological applications, including sensors, photocatalysis, antibacterial treatments, anticancer therapies, energy storage and environmental remediation [9]. Among different metal oxide NPs, TiO₂, SnO₂, ZnO, CuO and BaO have been extensively studied for their potential in environmental and biomedical applications [10,11]. BaO NPs, with distinct characteristics such as a highly reactive surface, a broad bandgap, narrow emission and strong electrical conductivity, find applications in crown glass production, humidity sensors and photocatalysis, in medical and pharmaceutical fields, diagnostic imaging, orthopedic medicines, in-vitro apoptosis and DNA damage studies [12,13,14]. Furthermore, BaO NPs are attractive candidates for efficient photocatalytic applications due to their high surface-to-volume ratio, superior oxygen adsorption capability, wide availability and cost-effectiveness [15]. Lead oxide (PbO) is recognized as an important

industrial material that can be used in batteries, composite electrode, optical sensor, reusable catalyst and glass industry [16, 17]. Lead oxide, particularly in nanoparticle form (PbO NPs), has shown promising photocatalytic activity due to its unique properties, including its bandgap and ability to absorb light. Taking advantage of their inherent photocatalytic capabilities, such nanoparticles can initiate and enhance degradation reactions when exposed to light, thus providing a sustainable and energy-efficient strategy for treating wastewater. CeO₂ is another semiconductor photocatalyst with various applications. However, its band gap is in the wide range of 2.6 to 3.4 eV, depending on the preparation method [18,19]. The main properties that make CeO₂ significant as a photocatalyst and photoelectrode material applied in the degradation of various pollutants result from its high band gap energy, high refractive index, high optical transparency in the visible region, high oxygen storage capacity, and chemical reactivity [20, 21]. Considering the promising features of quaternary photocatalysts and their vital role in advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), here we report the synthesis, detailed characterization and application of a novel quaternary photocatalyst, BaPbCe₂O₇ aimed at efficient dye removal from wastewater systems. The synthesized nanoparticles are characterized in the accepted manuscript aspects of crystalline, morphology, purity, compositional analysis and optical properties via various spectroscopic and analytical techniques. The outcomes of fabrication, characterization and its photocatalytic performance evaluation are elaborately addressed and discussed in further sections.

II. EXPERIMENTAL

2.1 Materials and Method

Barium nitrate, lead nitrate and cerous nitrate (sourced from Merck) were used as precursor materials in the synthesis of the photocatalyst, while sodium hydroxide from CDH was employed as the precipitating agent. To adjust the pH of the solutions, hydrochloric acid (CDH) and sodium hydroxide (CDH) were utilized. UV-Vis spectrophotometry (CHINO) was employed for kinetic study to record the optical density of solutions at various time intervals. For irradiation, a 200Watt tungsten lamp (Philips) was used. Scavengers, namely Isopropanol, EDTA, KI and

ammonium oxalate were incorporated to trap active species. All chemicals were utilized in their LR grade, with a purity range of approximately 95-99%.

2.2 Instrumentation

The many techniques used to characterize the produced BaPbCe₂O₇ photocatalyst are covered in detail here. pH measurements were conducted using a pH meter (Hena imported pen type). UV-Vis spectrophotometry (CHINO) was used to monitor the optical density changes whereas light intensity was measured using a solarimeter (New CHEM Dt 1307). A Panalytical X Pert Pro X-ray diffractometer was used to record the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern using Ni-filtered Cu K α radiation at 10 kV and 80 mA for monochromatized Cu K α ($\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$) radiation, with a scan range of 10\2h/80. A Nova Nano FE-SEM 450 (FEI) scanning electron microscope was used to perform scanning electron microscopy (SEM) measurements to examine the surface roughness and morphology of the samples. Using energy dispersive X-ray, SEM imaging conditions were analyzed for composition. Physical Electronics is performed by the XPS spectra (Model: PHI 5000 Versa Probe III analysis). Using a Perkin Elmer FT-IR Spectrum 2 spectrophotometer, Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra of KBr pellets in the 400–4000 cm⁻¹ range were captured. Using a UV-VIS NIR spectrophotometer (Perkin Elmer, U.S.A.), UV-VIS diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) were measured. A high-resolution transmission electron microscope was employed to monitor the observations using the HRTEM Hitachi H-7500. Using the following formula, the degradation percentage of the dye was calculated:

$$\% \text{ degradation} = (C_0 - C/C_0) \times 100$$

Where C₀ and C represent the initial concentration and final concentration of the dye at different time intervals, respectively.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Synthesis and Characterization of BaPbCe₂O₇ nanoparticles:

A solid co-precipitation method was employed for synthesis of BaPbCe₂O₇ using its precursors barium nitrate, lead nitrate, cerous nitrate and controlled conditions were maintained during the process resulting in a yellow-colored material with yield 45.56

g and the yield percentage was 91.8 %. This was then subjected to calcination at 500°C for 2 hours. The color of the prepared solid changed to black with yield of 33.23 g and the yield percentage was 73 %.

The EDS spectrum of BaPbCe₂O₇ NPs confirms the synthesis of BaPbCe₂O₇ NPs as Ba, Pb, Ce and O were observed with elemental weight percentages of 13.73, 20.72, 26.62 and 11.2 respectively. X ray diffraction analysis (XRD) proved it to be nano crystalline material with average crystal size to of 58.12 nm. X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) spectrum of the synthesized nanomaterial revealed distinct peaks at 880.6 and 897.3 eV corresponding to Ce (II) 3d 5/2 and Ce (II) 3d 3/2, suggesting cerium ions in oxidation states of +2 and +4. UV–Vis spectroscopy revealed the optical band gap to be 2.32 eV [22].

3.2 Photocatalytic activity of BaPbCe₂O₇ nanoparticles:

To carry out the kinetic study, solution of dyes (MG, BG, CV) is taken in a borosilicate beaker, pH is measured and photocatalyst is added. It is then exposed to light and after certain time intervals, optical density (O.D.) is recorded. A straight line is observed in the plot of 1+ log of O.D. versus time, as shown in figure 1 (a), (b) and (c). Various models, including pseudo-first order and pseudo-second order (Type-1, Type-2, Type-3, Type-4, and Type-5), are studied to understand the degradation process. After analyzing the data, it is observed that the pseudo-first-order model best explains the degradation process. The optimized conditions for the breakdown of various dyes are identified and are as follows:

pH 10.0, 0.18 g of photocatalyst, dye concentration 1.2×10^{-4} M and light intensity 1960 mWcm⁻² for malachite green (MG) dye, for brilliant green (BG) dye are pH 10, 0.16 g of photocatalyst, dye concentration of 1.8×10^{-4} M and light intensity of 1960 mWcm⁻² and the optimized conditions for the breakdown of crystal violet (CV) dye are pH 11.0, 0.20 g of photocatalyst, dye concentration of 0.6×10^{-5} M, and light intensity of 1960 mWcm⁻². Careful control of these factors is crucial for the effective removal of dyes. A typical run for these dyes is given in figure 1(a) (b) (c).

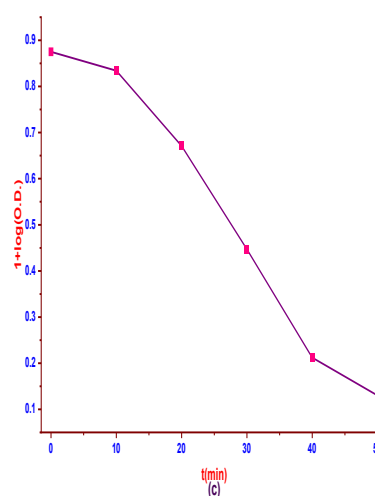
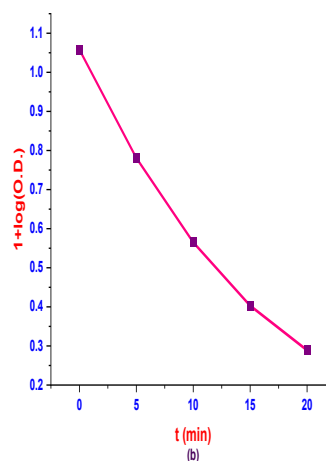
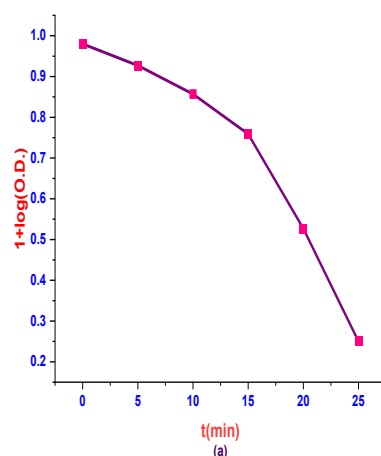


Figure 1: A typical run (a) for MG (b) for BG (c) for CV

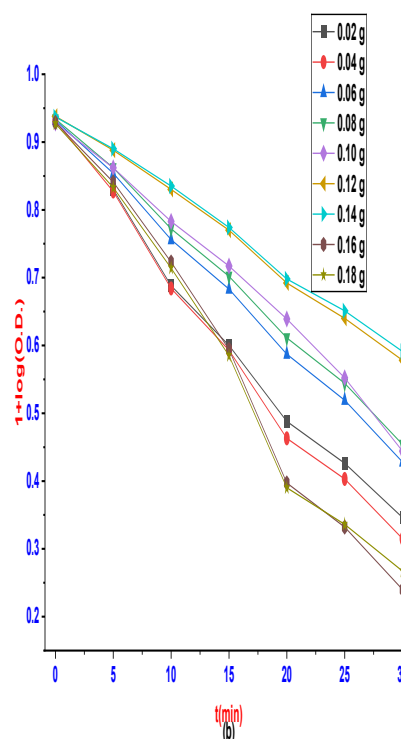
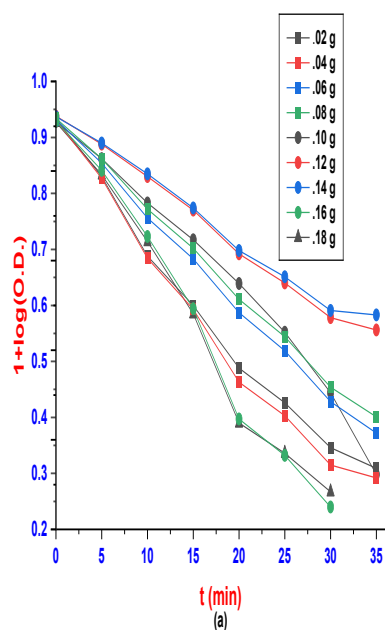
3.3 Effect of photocatalyst doses:

The impact of the photocatalyst dosage on the degradation process is meticulously investigated by varying its weight, while ensuring all other variables remain constant. Figure 2 (a), (b) and (c) vividly portray the outcomes of this exploration. Interestingly, the highest degradation rates are observed for MG, BG and CV at photocatalyst dose of 0.18 g, 0.16 g, 0.20 g respectively. The rate constants are presented in table 1. This enhancement can be attributed to the increased

surface area available for light absorption, which promotes the generation of a greater number of electron hole pairs thereby enhancing photocatalytic activity. However, upon further increasing the photocatalyst quantity, an interesting trend is observed: the reaction rate begins to decline. This reduction in efficiency is attributed to the enhanced recombination of electron hole pairs at higher catalyst concentrations which suppresses the overall photocatalytic performance.

Table 1: Rate constants at different doses of photocatalyst

Doses of photocatalyst (g/50mL)	MG Rate constant $\times 10^{-4}$ (Sec ⁻¹)	BG Rate constant $\times 10^{-4}$ (Sec ⁻¹)	CV Rate constant $\times 10^{-5}$ (Sec ⁻¹)
0.02	6.417	9.791	-----
0.04	5.190	9.294	-----
0.06	6.582	6.996	3.771
0.08	6.710	6.667	3.383
0.10	6.430	6.615	5.450
0.12	7.158	5.281	4.980
0.14	7.337	5.074	5.090
0.16	7.771	10.107	7.140
0.18	8.444	9.677	7.580
0.20	-----	-----	7.950



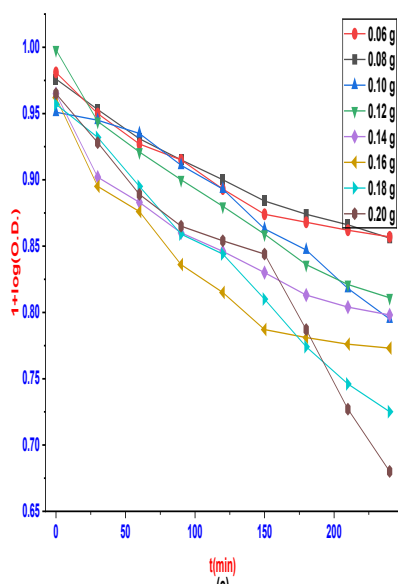
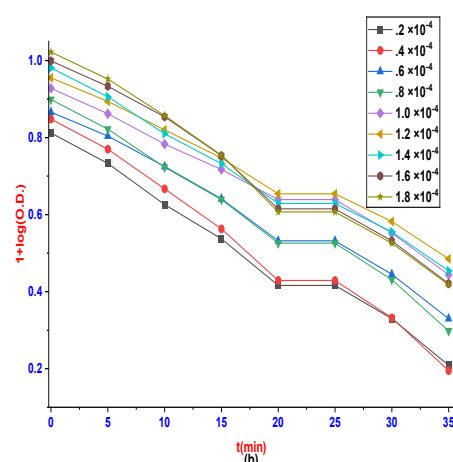
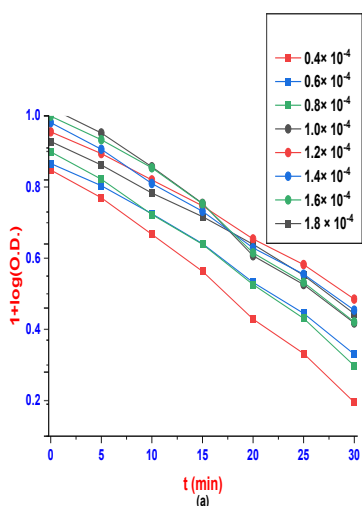


Figure 2. Effect of photocatalyst Dosage (g/50mL)
(a) MG (b) BG (c) CV

Table 2: Rate constants at different concentrations of dyes

Conc. of Dye $\times 10^{-4}$ (moles L^{-1})	MG Rate constant $\times 10^{-4}$ (Sec $^{-1}$)	Conc. of Dye $\times 10^{-4}$ (moles L^{-1})	BG Rate constant $\times 10^{-4}$ (Sec $^{-1}$)	Conc. of Dye $\times 10^{-5}$ (moles L^{-1})	CV Rate constant $\times 10^{-4}$ (Sec $^{-1}$)
0.2	-----	0.2	7.715	0.55	4.587
0.4	5.761	0.4	7.922	0.60	7.958
0.6	6.052	0.6	6.463	0.65	7.715
0.8	4.968	0.8	7.185	0.70	4.646
1.0	7.418	1.0	5.770	0.75	4.445
1.2	6.384	1.2	5.824	0.80	5.017
1.4	8.444	1.4	6.382	0.85	5.781
1.6	6.578	1.6	6.726	0.90	5.152
1.8	5.026	1.8	8.198		



3.4 Effect of dye concentration:

The study is conducted within the range of 0.55×10^{-5} to 1.8×10^{-4} M of dye concentration, with all other variables held constant. The resulting data are illustrated in figure 3 (a), (b) and (c) and table 2. Observations indicate that the reaction rate increases with an increase in the concentration of dye. This is because more dye molecules are available to absorb photons from light, becoming excited in the process. However, after reaching a maximum value (at 1.4×10^{-4} M for MG, 1.8×10^{-4} M for BG, 0.6×10^{-5} M for CV), further increase in dye concentration led to a decrease in the rate of degradation. This decline occurs because, beyond a certain concentration, the excess dye intensifies the coloration of the reaction mixture and effectively acts as a filter, reducing the amount of incident light reaching the photocatalyst.

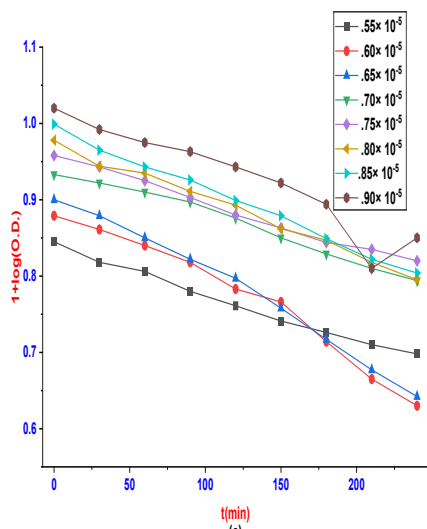


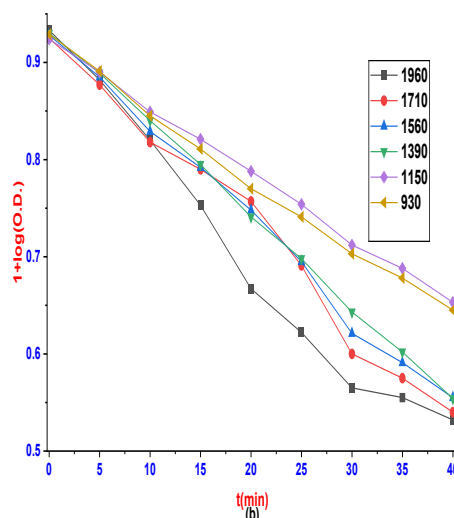
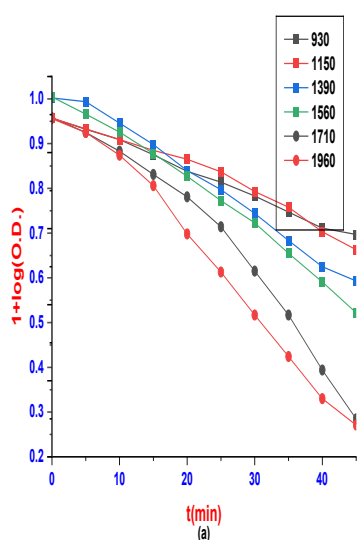
Figure 3. Effect of concentration of dyes (moles L⁻¹)
(a) MG (b) BG (c) CV

3.5 Effect of intensity of light:

The experiment entailed adjusting the light intensity within the range of 930 to 1960 mWcm⁻², with corresponding data presented graphically in figures 4 (a), (b) and (c) and tabulated in table 3. All other experimental variables are kept constant throughout. It is observed that the rate of photocatalytic degradation increased in tandem with the rise in light intensity. This phenomenon can be attributed to the greater number of photons striking per unit area over time as light intensity escalates. Consequently, there is an increase in the presence of excited dye molecules and electron-hole pairs at the photocatalyst's surface. The peak degradation rates are observed at a light intensity of 1960 mWcm⁻², for all three dyes. Further increase in intensity causes side heat reactions and so are not considered.

Table 3: Rate constants at different intensities of light

Intensity of light (mWcm ⁻²)	MG Rate constant × 10 ⁻⁴ (Sec ⁻¹)	BG Rate constant × 10 ⁻⁴ (Sec ⁻¹)	CV Rate constant × 10 ⁻⁴ (Sec ⁻¹)
930	2.861	5.489	4.948
1150	3.024	5.581	5.180
1390	2.938	7.745	5.800
1560	4.663	7.683	6.030
1710	4.543	7.930	7.090
1960	8.444	10.107	7.958



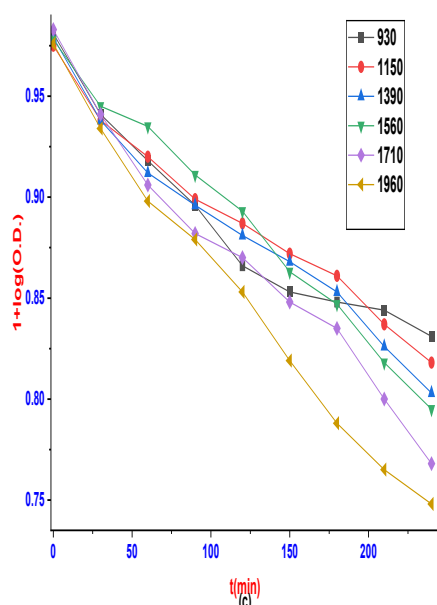


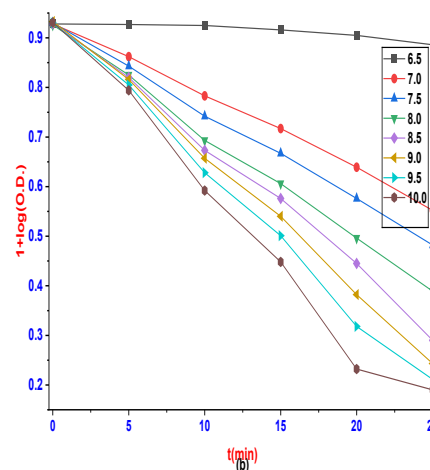
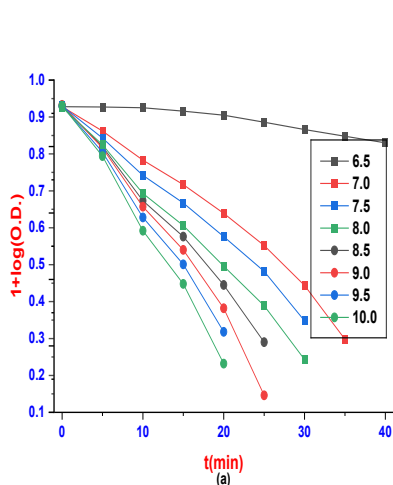
Fig.4. Effect of intensities of light (mWcm^{-2}) (a) MG
(b) BG (c) CV

3.6 Effect of pH:

The degradation rate of the dye varies markedly with changes in the solution's pH, as many dyes are highly sensitive to pH fluctuations and may even exhibit color shifts under different pH conditions. Thus, pH is considered as the most important factor affecting the degradation of pollutants, especially dyes. To investigate this effect, the pH of the solution was systematically adjusted while maintaining all other parameters constant. Notably, variations in pH resulted in observable changes in the initial optical density of the dye solution, as illustrated in the corresponding graphs. The study focused on the pH range of 6.0 to 10.0 with the results depicted in figures 5 (a), (b) and (c) and rate constants are given in table 4. This thorough analysis reveals how crucial pH is in influencing the dye degradation process. Further increase in pH makes the solution opaque and so is not studied.

Table 4: Rate constants at different pH

pH	MG Rate constant $\times 10^{-4} (\text{Sec}^{-1})$	BG Rate constant $\times 10^{-4} (\text{Sec}^{-1})$	CV Rate constant $\times 10^{-4} (\text{Sec}^{-1})$
6.0	0.291	----	----
6.5	2.168	0.769	0.238
7.0	2.549	4.722	0.601
7.5	4.180	5.628	0.350
8.0	3.596	6.746	0.423
8.5	4.192	7.601	0.496
9.0	5.471	8.650	1.394
9.5	7.176	8.977	6.335
10.0	8.444	10.107	7.958



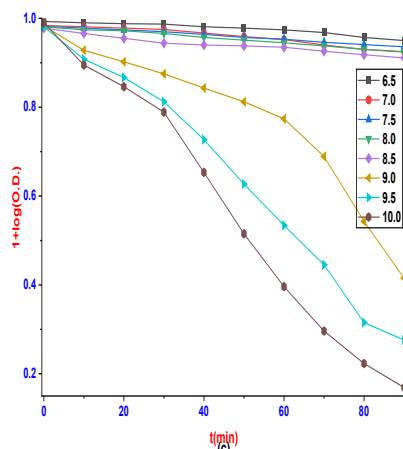


Figure 5. Effect of pH (a) MG (b) BG (c) CV

Various scavengers were employed to determine the specific reactive species involved in the degradation process. The degradation of MG, BG, and CV dyes using the BaPbCe₂O₇ nanomaterial was evaluated in the presence of 5 mL of each scavenger EDTA, KI, isopropyl alcohol and anthraquinone. EDTA acted as an effective scavenger for all three dyes (figure 6(a), (b), and (c)) indicating that the $\cdot\text{OH}$ radical is the primary reactive species responsible for their degradation. The rate of photocatalytic degradation increases as the pH rises for all three dyes. It is attributed to the fact that increase in pH increases the concentration of OH⁻ ions and subsequently OH \cdot free radicals, which are the responsible species for degradation of dyes. Thus, rate of degradation increases. The peak degradation points are observed at pH 10.0. In the presence of the scavenger, the degradation efficiency significantly decreased, stabilizing at only about 5–7% for the dyes, proving the active degradation species to be hydroxyl free radical. [23]

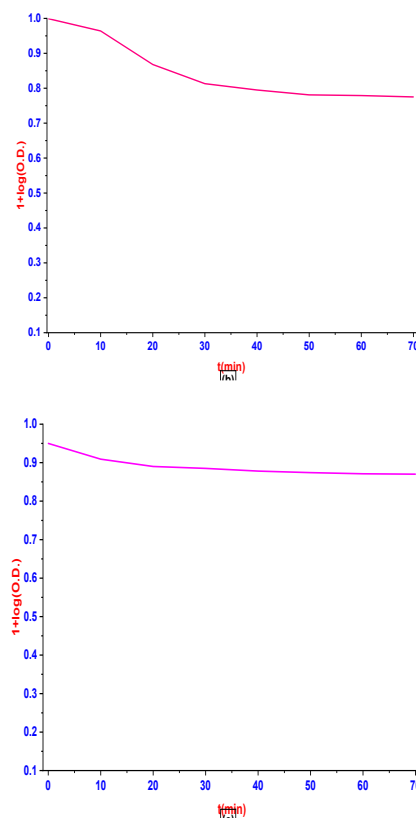
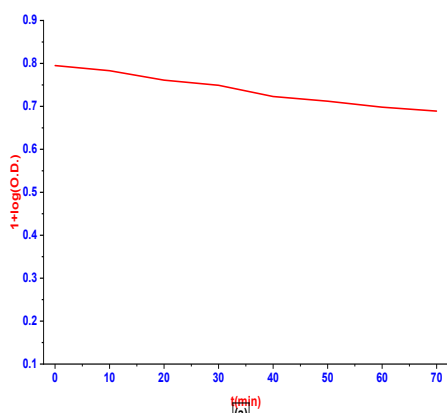


Figure 6. Scavenger study with EDTA (a) MG (b) BG (c) CV

Based on the nature of active species, a tentative mechanism is proposed:

${}^1\text{Dye}^0 + h\nu \rightarrow {}^1\text{Dye}^1$ (Excitation of dye molecule from ground state)

${}^1\text{Dye}^1 + h\nu \rightarrow {}^1\text{Dye}^3$ (ISC to triplet state)

$\text{BaPbCe}_2\text{O}_7 + h\nu \rightarrow \text{BaPbCe}_2\text{O}_7 [e^- (\text{CB}) + h^+ (\text{VB})]$
(Generation of electron hole pair)

$h^+ + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{OH}^\bullet + \text{H}^+$ (Hydroxyl radical)

MG, BG & CV + $\text{OH}^\bullet \rightarrow \text{NO}_2, \text{CO}_2, \text{H}_2\text{O}$ etc.
(degradation harmless products)

Here Dye molecules in their ground state absorb incident photons and become excited to the singlet state, subsequently undergoing intersystem crossing to the triplet state. Simultaneously, the photocatalyst absorbs photons with sufficient energy to excite electrons from the valence band to the conduction band, generating holes in the valence band. These photogenerated holes facilitate oxidation, while the electrons drive reduction reactions, primarily through the formation of $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals. The highly reactive $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals attack the weaker bonds within the dye molecules, breaking them down into smaller, harmless

end products such as NO₂, CO₂, and H₂O. These benign byproducts minimize environmental harm, underscoring the effectiveness of the photocatalytic degradation process.

3.7 A comparative analysis

A comparative study is carried out for all three dyes and the observations state that BG degrades with faster speed and to a greater extent as compared to MG and CV dyes. The data with maximum conditions are given in table 5.

Table 5: A comparative data analysis for dyes

S. No.	Resulting factors	MG	BG	CV
1	λ_{\max} (nm)	620	625	590
2	Conc. of Dye (moles L ⁻¹)	1.4×10^{-4}	1.8×10^{-4}	0.6×10^{-5}
3	pH	10.0	10.0	10.0
4	Amount of Nanoparticles (g/50 mL)	0.18	0.16	0.20
5	Intensity of Light (mWcm ⁻²)	1960	1960	1960
6	Degradation Time (min.)	25	20	50
7	% degradation	87%	94%	81%
8	Rate constant $\times 10^{-4}$ (Sec ⁻¹)	8.44	10.10	7.95

3.8 Recycling of the photocatalyst

The recovered photocatalyst was washed, recalcined, and reused for subsequent dye degradation cycles. It was observed that its photocatalytic efficiency remained almost unchanged even after five consecutive cycles. This excellent recyclability enhances its potential as a promising photocatalyst for environmental remediation applications.

IV. CONCLUSION

BaPbCe₂O₇ nanoparticles were successfully synthesized via the co-precipitation method, yielding 73% after calcination. With an average crystallite size of 58.12 nm, the nanoparticles exhibited excellent photocatalytic efficiency in the degradation of Malachite Green (MG), Brilliant Green (BG), and Crystal Violet (CV) dyes in aqueous media. The photodegradation performance increased with catalyst dosage up to an optimal point. Furthermore, the degradation rate was found to be strongly influenced by the dye concentration, pH, and light intensity. Higher photodegradation efficiencies were achieved at lower dye concentrations, elevated pH levels, and greater light intensities, highlighting the effectiveness and adaptability of the synthesized photocatalyst for environmental remediation applications.

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