

A Comprehensive Review on the Boosted Effects of Anion Vacancy in the Heterogeneous Photocatalytic Degradation, Part II: Focus on Oxygen Vacancy

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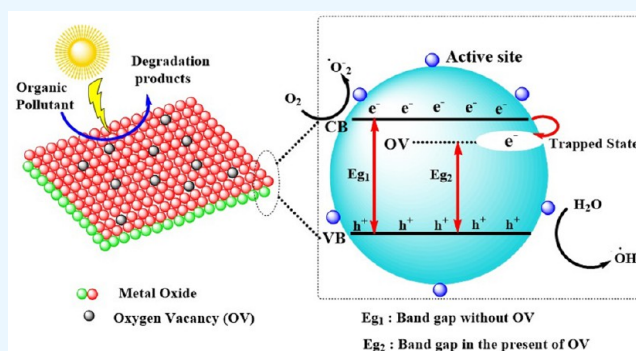
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ABSTRACT: Environmental problems, including the increasingly polluted water and the energy crisis, have led to a need to propose novel strategies/methodologies to contribute to sustainable progress and enhance human well-being. For these goals, heterogeneous semiconducting-based photocatalysis is introduced as a green, eco-friendly, cost-effective, and effective strategy. The introduction of anion vacancies in semiconductors has been well-known as an effective strategy for considerably enhancing the photocatalytic activity of such photocatalytic systems, giving them the advantages of promoting light harvesting, facilitating photo-generated electron–hole pair separation, optimizing the electronic structure, and enhancing the yield of reactive radicals. This Review will introduce the effects of anion vacancy-dominated photodegradation systems. Then, their mechanism will illustrate how an anion vacancy changes the photodegradation pathway to enhance the degradation efficiency toward pollutants and the overall photocatalytic performance. Specifically, the vacancy defect types and the methods of tailoring vacancies will be briefly illustrated, and this part of the Review will focus on the oxygen vacancy (OV) and its recent advances. The challenges and development issues for engineered vacancy defects in photocatalysts will also be discussed for practical applications and to provide a promising research direction. Finally, some prospects for this emerging field will be proposed and suggested. All permission numbers for adopted figures from the literature are summarized in a separate file for the Editor.



1. INTRODUCTION

The critical global population and environmental pollution have severely affected human health in recent decades. More profound attention has been paid to environmental pollution by several developing industries because of discharging their effluents, especially untreated industrial wastewater, into the environment. Discharging untreated effluents releases numerous organic molecules as pollutants into the river, severely threatening the ecological environment.^{1–3}

The remaining excellent challenge for worldwide researchers is the construction, introduction, and development of a novel/appropriate technology, catalyst, or adsorbent to remove these pollutants.⁴ Accordingly, semiconducting-based photocatalysis technology has been considered as a green and benign method for eliminating most environmental pollutants due to its environmentally friendly nature, high efficiency for mineralizing organic pollutants to less hazardous materials, and natural ability to utilize sunlight depending on the semiconductor's band gap energy.^{5–7} A promising photocatalyst should have other characteristics, such as high stability, low cost, earth abundance, and attractive catalytic activity. Commonly used semiconductors have these advantages.

Unfortunately, some bare photocatalysts suffer from an ineffective absorption of visible light and, thus, low numbers of photoexcited electrons and holes (e/h pairs).⁸ This limited photocatalytic activity for these bare systems is due to the rapid recombination of the photoproduced e/h pairs. This recombination process, as a significant drawback of heterogeneous semiconductor photodegradation, drastically reduces the overall efficiency of the photocatalytic process.⁹ To improve the overall photocatalytic efficiency, the essential factors are the effective harvesting of solar light and the effective separation of e/h pairs. Thus, a crucial photocatalytic issue is the optimal design of photocatalysts with high photocatalytic activity.¹⁰ A challenge in enhancing photocatalytic activity is regulating the semiconductor's band structure to harvest sunlight photons. To achieve this, different strategies, including doping with metals/

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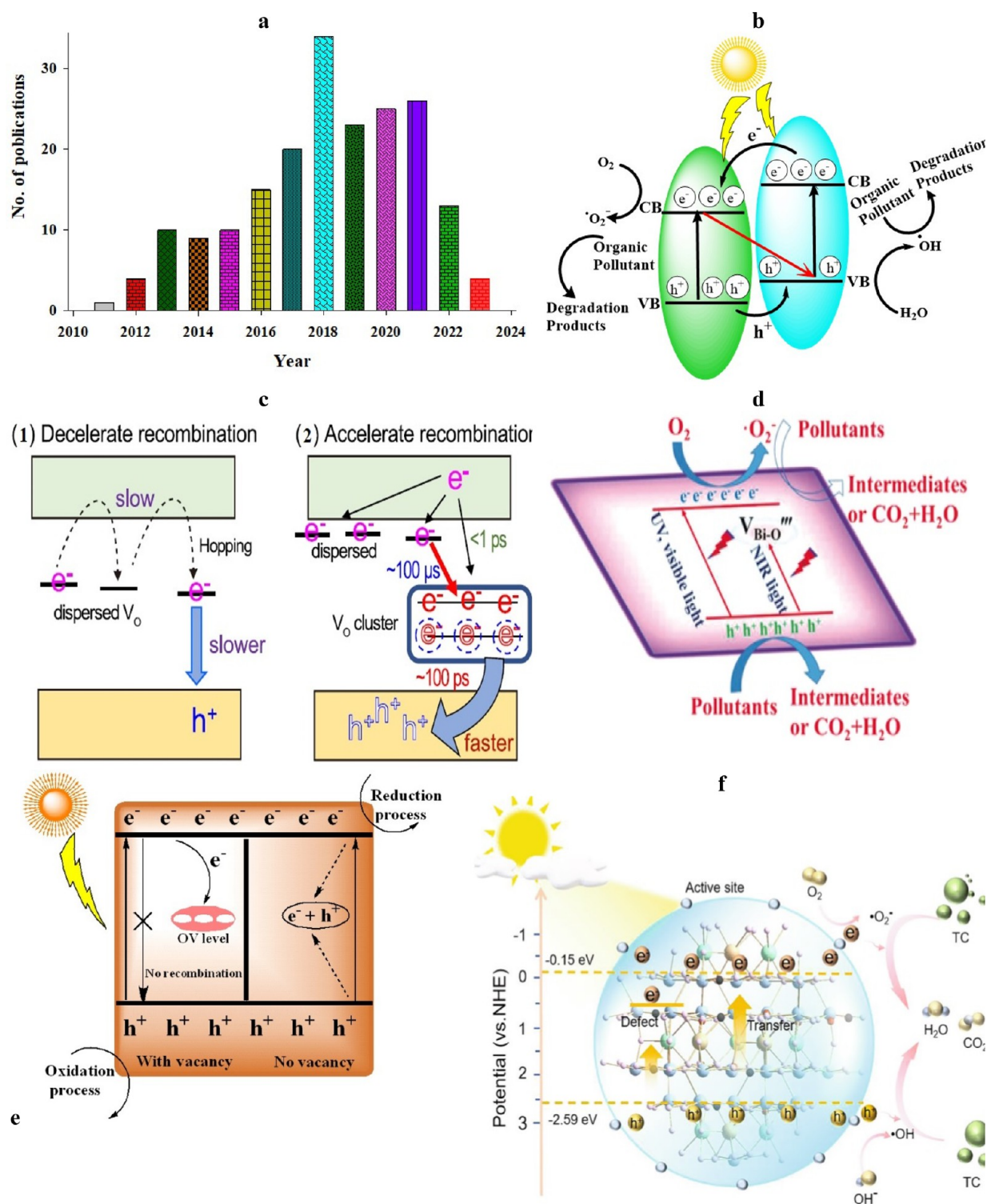


Figure 1. (a) Number of publications per year in vacancy-engineered photocatalysts used in this Review. (b) Schematic representation of the mechanism of photocatalysis by a heterojunction structure. (c) (1) Decelerated recombination by dispersed OVs and (2) accelerated recombination by an aggregated OV.¹¹⁵ Reprinted with permission from ref 115. Copyright 2022 ACS. (d) The photocatalytic activity of BiO_{2-x} monolayer under UV/vis and NIR illumination.¹³³ Reprinted with permission from ref 133. Copyright 2018 Wiley. (e) The e/h separation by OVs. (f) TC photocatalytic degradation.¹⁰² Reprinted with permission from ref 102. Copyright 2022 Elsevier.

nonmetals,¹¹ controlling phase and morphology,¹² engineering crystal facets and defects, modulating the microelectronic structure, constructing homojunctions and heterojunctions, and loading of noble metals, have been applied.¹³

An effective strategy is defect engineering, which regulates the atom coordination number and electronic structure. This improves the carriers' mobility and conductivity and tunes the surface features, such as the interaction between vacancy sites, reactants, or intermediates. Finally, enhanced photocatalytic

activity would be obtained. Vacancy engineering manipulates the catalyst composition without any introduction of impurities. Its ease of use, precise control capability, and high efficiency are other characteristics of this strategy that have attracted significant attention.^{9,14–18} The advantages of vacancy defects in semiconductors can be summarized as light absorption, facile separation of e/h pairs, optimization of the electronic structure, activation of reactant molecules, acceleration of product desorption on the photocatalyst, and promotion of the production of reactive radicals.¹⁹ Recently, the relationship between photocatalytic activity and vacancy defects in various materials has been evaluated.^{20,21} The conclusion of such studies proves that tuning a semiconductor's electronic structure using vacancy defects improves visible light harvesting. This strategy broadens the absorbance spectrum of the investigated semiconductor. Vacancy defects prohibit e/h recombination via the semiconductor's newly formed energy level.^{22–24}

The performance of photocatalyst nanomaterials depends on light harvesting to produce photogenerated electron–hole pairs (charge carriers), their separation efficiency and transfer to the surface, and interfacial redox reactions on the active site of photocatalysts' surfaces.²⁵ To boost the activity of semiconductor photocatalysts, these drawbacks should be overcome by applying suitable strategies, like modification of their structure, control of their morphology, the plasmonic effect, engineering of their surface and interface, and engineering of their facets and defects.^{26–29}

Due to the critical roles of semiconductors' microstructural properties, including dimensions, morphologies, effective surface area, and pore dispersion, on the overall photocatalytic efficiency, a significant issue is rational semiconductor design and synthesis with well-designed structures.³⁰ In this regard, dramatically altering of the rate of the surface reactions and electron transport pathways improves the charge transfer kinetics and light harvesting. For example, the close CB bottom of BiVO₄ to the H₂ formation potential causes a deficient driving force for H⁺ reduction. However, this negative shift of the CB edge can be overcome by the quantum-sized BiVO₄ (quantum confinement effect).³¹

Among the various strategies, heterojunction-engineered photocatalysts (including common type II, p-n, surface, direct Z-scheme, and semiconductor-graphene heterojunctions) are some of the most common systems to enhance spatial e/h separation and thus the overall photocatalytic efficiency.³² The facet, as a typical microstructure aspect of crystal, separates more e/h pairs to different crystal facets because of the subtle distinction of coupled facets,³³ for example, the high activity of the rutile with (111)–(110) facet couples in TiO₂ polymorphs under visible light.³⁴

In the doping process, such as the common method of element doping, doped species change the lattice structure of substrates, increase the density of the main carriers, and decrease the semiconductor electrical resistivity, consequently enhancing the overall photocatalytic performance. For example, I[−] self-doping in BiOI,³⁵ and CO₃^{2−} self-doping in Bi₂O₂CO₃³⁶ broadened absorption harvesting to the visible light region.

In general, "defect engineering" is one of the most economically effective E_g -narrowing methods to boost visible light absorption, separate charge separation, and transfer energy.³⁷ In particular, intrinsic defect engineering regulation is more effective than the extrinsic approach for fine-tuning electronic and structural features. Depending on their atomic structure (size) and location, various defects have been defined

as point defects (vacancies and doping), line defects (helical and edge dislocations), planar defects (grain and twinning boundaries), and bulk defects (lattice disorder and voids).³⁸ A point defect is considered the core of defect photodegradation research; thus, it gets special attention in this Review. In general, missing a cation or anion from a definite location in the perfect crystal lattice forms a vacancy commonly used for structural modulation because of its high feasibility and controllability.³⁹ The created surface vacancy creates lattice disorder that induces increased surface energy, acting as additional reactive sites for catalyzing surface photoreactions.⁴⁰ To date, despite the publication of many reviews to illustrate the role of point defects, especially vacancies, for in-depth understanding of the photocatalytic mechanism, the intrinsic defect's role in photodegradation remains a problem that should be overcome.⁴¹

Thus, several reviews on oxygen-vacancy-defect photocatalysts have been published, including OV-based metal oxides in photoelectrochemical water splitting;⁴² OV-Ce₂O in photocatalytic water oxidation;⁴³ OV-ZnO;⁴⁴ engineered OV photocatalysts for water splitting, CO₂ reduction, nitrogen fixation, and generating reactive oxygen species;⁴⁵ engineered OV photocatalysts in hydrogen evolution and N₂ fixation applications;⁴⁶ the structure–function relationship of OVs in OV photocatalytic applications in air purification, H₂ production, and CO₂ reduction;⁴⁷ OVs systems in the degradation of gaseous pollutants;⁴⁸ and OV-BiOCl in water splitting, H₂O₂ dissociation, and solar ammonia synthesis.⁴⁹ Based on our studies, no review has been published on the role of oxygen vacancies in the photodegradation of organic pollutants. Figure 1a shows the roles of the defects in the material and their effects on various physicochemical features. The preferential roles of defects in materials chemistry, which give them some exceptional features compared to pristine materials, emphasize the importance of their further investigation.

This Review introduces and summarizes the recent advances in oxygen vacancies. This part is a continuation of the first part that focused on other anion vacancies such as sulfur, nitrogen, and halogen vacancies. It focuses on the formation chemistry of this anion vacancy and its principal benefits in the photocatalytic degradation process. Understanding these features of the anion vacancy helps researchers advance the main theories of the photocatalytic process and offer novel guidelines for designing advanced and more efficient photocatalysts. The synergistic effect of these anion vacancies in photocatalysis can be confirmed by presenting some multicomponent catalytic platforms. Finally, some engineering defect opportunities will summarize the future directions of this research field. The importance of this revision can be emphasized by considering the high number of published works in defect engineering in recent years, as shown in Figures 1a and S1.

2. PHOTODEGRADATION OF ORGANIC POLLUTANTS

A critical health issue in modern times is the lack of clean drinking water because the final goal of the above-mentioned industrial waste effluent is the aquatic environment. Thus, drinking water resources may be polluted and contained by various hazardous chemicals, including pharmaceuticals,^{50–54} organic synthetic dyes,^{55–59} insecticides, detergents, herbicides, and pesticides.^{55,60–63} For example, introducing antibiotics, as a class of pharmaceutical pollutants, into aquatic resources has some adverse effects on human health and marine life due to their potentially toxic and hazardous products and persistence.⁶⁴

Their long-term presence in the environment can cause the occurrence of resistant genes.⁶⁵ Unfortunately, traditional wastewater treatment plants are unable to eliminate antibiotics effectively. Azo dyes, and in general organic synthetic dyes, are other environmental pollutants with carcinogenicity depending on their structural characteristics and degradation mechanism.^{64,66,67} For example, common degradation intermediates of azo dyes are aromatic amines with a common carcinogenic future. Further, azo dyes can alter biochemical markers, provoking allergic reactions.^{56,66,68–71}

With the increased environmental awareness, some effective methods must be introduced to remove organic pollutants from wastewater before they are discharged into the environment. The most effective methods for this goal are advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) based on the production of hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$) that act as nonselective high-oxidation-potential species toward the degradation of organic pollutants at high reaction rates (between 10^8 – 10^{11} $\text{M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$).^{9,72} For example, peroxydisulfate (PDS) and peroxymonosulfate (PMS) can generate different reactive oxygen species (ROS), including sulfate radicals ($\text{SO}_4^{\cdot-}$), hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$), singlet oxygen ($^1\text{O}_2$), and superoxide radicals ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$) in the general PMS-based AOPs. These ROSs can critically degrade various organic pollutants.^{73,74} Some common AOPs have many drawbacks, as illustrated in the literature.⁷⁵ For example, Fenton and photo-Fenton processes are economically dependent on the solution pH and remain secondary sludge. Some AOPs create secondary pollution, and some transfer the pollutant to a secondary phase that needs secondary treatment.⁷⁵

Thus, especial attention has been paid to heterogeneous photocatalysis based on the illumination of a semiconducting compound under UV or visible light irradiation.^{76–78} This AOP strategy is an environmentally friendly, low-cost technology with high efficiency for degrading/mineralizing various organic pollutants without secondary pollution. Its overall efficiency (including the adsorption and photodegradation of the pollutant molecules) depends on the operational parameters.^{79–81}

The photocatalytic degradation process is the chemical breakdown of organic pollutants induced by light. Under the system's illumination, several reactant species, including singlet oxygen, superoxide, hydroxyl radicals, and hydrogen peroxide, may produce powerful centers toward the degradation of organic pollutants.^{82–85} The following steps can be considered to happen in a typical heterogeneous process^{86,87} (Figure 1b):

- Under the irradiation of the semiconductor by UV or visible photons with energy $\geq E_g$, VB electrons get excited into the CB of the semiconductor (production of e/h pairs).
- The induced VB holes can oxidize donor molecules directly. Further, the reaction of VB holes with water produces hydroxyl radicals as robust oxidizing species toward the degradation of pollutants.
- The photoexcited electrons in the semiconductor CB reduce the dissolved oxygen species, and the produced superoxide anion radicals act as another center for oxidizing the pollutants. The redox reactions can also be facilitated by the CB electrons.^{86,88–93}

As mentioned in section 1, e/h recombination critically decreases the overall efficiency of a typical heterogeneous photocatalysis reaction.^{93–96} As also mentioned, one way to reduce this drawback is to blend various semiconductor materials to fabricate heterojunction systems^{86,97,98} that involve

two stacked semiconductors with different E_g values (with the E_g in the visible region). The heterostructure term is used for the blend of multiple heterojunctions. Moreover, the preferred E_g in heterostructures is the direct band gap compared to the indirect ones. In the direct band gap, the highest VB energy level aligns with the lowest CB energy level concerning momentum.⁹⁹ As mentioned in section 1, another effective strategy for reducing e/h recombination is defects, of which anion vacancies will be reviewed below as this Review's goal.

Photocatalyst separation from the reaction solution is also essential, which can be easily done by an external magnetic field when a magnetic compound is used. In other cases, centrifugation on an experimental scale¹⁰⁰ or special filters on an industrial scale must be used to separate the photocatalyst. In the loaded catalyst on the bed like FTO, removing the bed from the reaction mixture easily separates the photocatalyst.

As a critical practical application issue, the catalyst's stability can be investigated by testing the reusability of recovered catalyst from the reaction mixture and reusing it in the next degradation run with the same conditions as the previous run. An increased cycle test shows the photocatalyst's high stability.¹⁰¹ The mean contact angles of fresh and reacted Ba^{2+} -doped $\text{SrBi}_2\text{B}_2\text{O}_7$ in three different sites are 11.76° and 40.20° , respectively, proving the sample's tendency to become a hydrophobic powder after the reaction. Moreover, the lack of an apparent change in the XRD of the doped sample after four recycling runs proves the high stability of the sample.¹⁰² Generally, a common way to test the photocatalyst stability is to perform characterization techniques, such as XRD, DRS, FTIR, SEM, TEM, and photoluminescence, on the catalyst before and after use in the photodegradation process. Smaller changes in the results before and after using the catalyst show more stable photocatalysts.¹⁰

3. VACANCY ENGINEERING

Depending on the defect type, its exerted effects on the photocatalytic activity and their intrinsic relationship can vary.^{103–105} Depending on the dimensions and vacancy, material defects can be classified as point, line, planar, volume, and manifold.^{106–109} To manage the optical and electronic features of semiconductors to achieve improved photocatalytic activity, a common frequently used strategy is point defects, including vacancies and doping. Vacancy defects are commonly used to achieve the desired photocatalytic action and selectivity due to their easier creation and precise semiconductor tuning concentrations.¹¹⁰

In general, the transfer and recombination of charge carriers in photocatalysts are closely related to their defects because the induced new defect level (or "trap state") can change the migration pathway for the photoinduced carriers, influencing their dynamics. To date, the various contradictory effects of defects on carrier trapping, separation, transfer remain an open question.¹¹¹ Generally, some researchers believe that the roles of defects as both recombination and trapping centers toward charge carriers may decrease the photocatalytic efficiency.¹¹² In contrast, some believe their positive role in the enhanced catalytic activity is because they can preferentially improve the e/h separation.^{113,114} For example, the effects of OV on WO_3 powder photocatalyst dynamics were studied via broadband transient absorption spectroscopy. In contrast to TiO_2 and SrTiO_3 , where increasing OV increases the carrier lifetime, here the increase in OV (as recombination centers) via H_2 reduction in WO_3 accelerated the decay of deeply trapped electrons. This

difference is related to the difference in the distance between OV. In dispersed defects, trapped electrons should migrate over long distances by sequence hopping and tunneling between defects to combine with holes, decelerating the recombination. In contrast, in the case of connected defects or defects located close together, the ready migration of trapped electrons among defects enhances recombination. Thus, an important factor for enhanced photocatalytic activity is control of the distance between defects (figure 1c).¹¹⁵

Desaturated periodic atomic arrangements widespread through the semiconductor act as deep trapping and e/h recombination centers, impairing the native photocatalytic performance.¹¹⁶ Nevertheless, it has experimentally and theoretically confirmed that the defect in the engineered materials can maximize photocatalytic activity by breaking the thermodynamic and photogenerated carrier dynamics limitations in the redox process.¹¹⁷ Despite the increased photocatalytic activity in the presence of an optimal OV dose, reduced activity can be achieved in the presence of excessive OVs that trap electrons and restrain electronic mobility, decrease the photocatalyst crystallinity, and serve to recombine e/h pairs.^{118,119} Generally, the type of defect (bulk and surface defects) plays a crucial role in the positive or negative effect in boosting photocatalysis efficiency. The surface defects improve e/h separation and dissociate adsorbed molecules, thus increasing the overall photodegradation activity, while the bulk defects recombine e/h pairs, resulting a negative effect in the overall process efficiency.^{120–123} Thus, the absolute role of defects in photocatalytic processes is still unclear, requiring a bridge to be established between the engineering of defects and the controllable features of nanomaterials.

3.1. Cationic Vacancies. Nowadays, various cation vacancies, such as Ti, Zn, Bi, In, etc., have been created in semiconductors to optimize the band gap configurations and surface features of photocatalysts to achieve improved photocatalytic activity. For example, in the facile one-pot hydrothermal synthesis of $\text{SnO}_2\text{-Zn}_2\text{SnO}_4/\text{graphene}$, as a visible-light-responsive photocatalyst, graphene causes the production of SnO_2 and the formation of Sn vacancies, resulting in a visible-light-responsive system.¹²⁴ Some metal vacancies, such as Ti vacancies (VTi), have been readily demonstrated in undoped oxides. The presence of VTi in TiO_2 induced some novel physiochemical properties because it changed the TiO_2 charge density and valence band edge. Compared to common n-type TiO_2 with nonferromagnetic properties, Ti-defected TiO_2 (VTi- TiO_2) is a native p-type system with high charge mobility. Further, it has room-temperature ferromagnetism that is stronger than Co-doped TiO_2 nanocrystalline. Moreover, the photocatalytic performance of VTi- TiO_2 is much better than normal TiO_2 toward degradation of organic pollutants (7.0-fold for phenol). This enhanced activity has been related to the more efficient e/h charge carrier separation via faster transfer in the bulk and reaching the semiconductor–electrolyte interface;¹⁴ compared with anion vacancies, the relatively higher energy required for fabricating cation vacancies resulted in some obstacles in their production and control.^{14,125,126}

Cationic vacancies (the controlled removal of metal cations from transition metal compounds) are shallow migration acceptors and usually induce p-type conductivity. As a more attractive method, metal cation vacancies result in multifarious electron configurations and orbits concerning nonmetal cation vacancies with considerable essential achievements. Cationic defects give the catalyst novel properties, like the modulated

energy band structure, via upward shifting of the VB maximum and downward shifting of the CB minimum with no new intermediate states. Further, cationic defects easily segregate and quickly migrate the photogenerated carriers, optimizing E_g configurations and surface features.¹²⁷ However, the higher fabrication energy of cationic vacancies compared to the anionic ones limited the roles of metal vacancies in photocatalysis.¹²⁸ Cation defect engineering alters the semiconductor's electronic structure and boosts photocatalytic features by adjusting surface properties, improving electrical conductivity, and optimizing the adsorption energy of intermediates.¹²⁹ For example, inducing Ti vacancies in TiO_2 ¹⁴ appeared to have some benefits, such as (1) enhancing the electrical conductivity of ionic components; (2) increasing e-mobility and interfacial charge carrier transfer, suppressing their recombination; (3) generating room-temperature ferromagnetism; and (4) enhancing water splitting by providing water adsorption surface active sites and the formation of active complexes.^{14,130} VTi in TiO_2 nanosheets shifted the VB maximum slightly downward with a considerable downward shift of the CB minimum, resulting in a net narrowing of E_g .¹³¹

Figure 1d illustrates the possible photocatalytic mechanism in vanadium vacancy BiVO_4 , which creates new defect levels in the forbidden band of single-unit-cell layers of BiVO_4 to increase the number of holes near the Fermi level.¹³² By decreasing the thickness of the BiO_{2-x} nanoplates to monolayer, the induced new VB-iO'' defect states dominant the transfer of VB electrons to the CB under UV–vis illumination, whereas quick capture of the photoexcited electrons under NIR illumination by VB-iO'' defect states separates the carriers. The more negative E_{CB} in monolayer BiO_{2-x} compared to the $\text{O}_2/\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ redox potential facilitates this reduction and the production of superoxide radicals.¹³³

3.2. Anionic Vacancies. Anionic vacancies (AVs) are commonly limited to oxygen, nitrogen, sulfur, carbon, and halogen atoms. Due to the low formation energy, they have been widely applied in transition metal oxides to enhance their photocatalytic activity.^{134,135} Anion vacancies in semiconductors promote light absorption and facile photoinduced e/h carrier separation, optimize the electronic structure, and produce reactive radicals, promoting photocatalytic activity.⁴⁹

The enhanced photocatalytic efficiency of AV-rich catalysts is because of the following features: (i) induced broadened light absorption to the visible–NIR region, (ii) improved adsorption of organics and gas (O_2 , CO_2 and N_2) by AV sites, and (iii) enhanced carrier separation by the middle-gap AVs (Figure 1e). The vacancy-induced midgap state and broadening E_g can narrow E_g (bring a new defect level within the E_g), enhancing the light harvesting. The shallow trapping effect of AV sites to facilitate the separation and transfer of carriers improves these processes' kinetics. Moreover, the defect regulation induces both acceptor and donor sites, giving semiconductors unique electron/hole separation pathways.

The mismatched energy levels and incompact interface contact problems in the heterogeneous junction can be overcome by inducing suitable defect levels. The defect sites with plentiful localized carriers and unsaturated coordination sites can appear as cocatalytic features intrinsic to the fast reaction process. These defect sizes tune the reaction path with high selectivity and efficient photocatalytic activity by promoting the adsorption/activation of small molecules (O_2 , CO_2 , H_2O , and N_2). Here, the surface activation by AVs is a challenge.¹¹¹ As shown in Figure 1f, doped Ba^{2+} is conducive to OV production, in which surface OVs act as reacting sites for

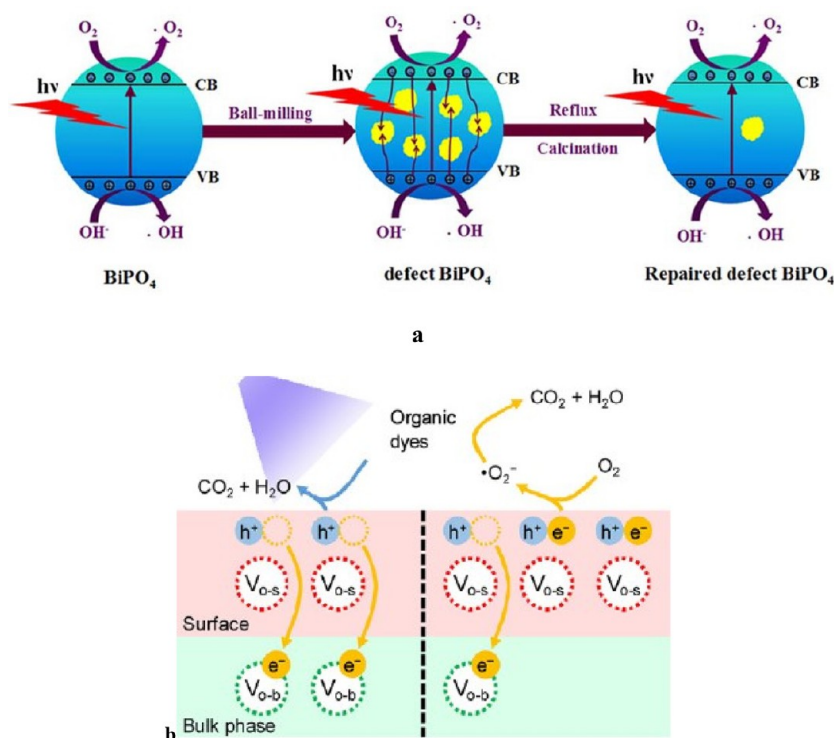


Figure 2. (a) The e/h separation and photocatalytic mechanisms in BiPO₄ under UV activation.¹⁴⁶ Reprinted with permission from ref 146. Copyright 2016 Elsevier. (b) The effects of various surface/bulk OV ratios.¹⁵⁴ Reprinted with permission from ref 154. Copyright 2021 Elsevier.

adsorbed molecules, while bulk OVs act as capture centers to separate e/h pairs.¹⁰²

Anion vacancies act as shallow donors, while cation vacancies act as shallow acceptors and commonly induce p-type conductivity.¹³⁶ Due to the various electron configurations and orbital distributions, both anion and cation vacancies greatly moderate electronic structure and physicochemical characteristics of metal compounds.¹³⁷ Because of the considerable formation energy, engineering and manipulating metal cation vacancies is more complex than engineering and manipulating anion vacancies. Thus, a more significant challenge is determining the function of cation vacancies.¹³⁴

4. INFLUENCE OF SURFACE/BULK DEFECTS ON PHOTOCATALYTIC ACTIVITY

A promising strategy for enhancing light absorption for e/h production and e/h charge carrier separation in photocatalysts is defect engineering, including the surface and bulk defects. Despite the extensive research on these phenomena, their exact roles are still unclear.^{110,122,138,139} The synergistic role of these defects in promoting the absorption of light and donor density in photocatalytic processes has been studied in detail.¹⁴⁰ The surface defects affect the physicochemical properties and photocatalytic performance because they can effectively tune the local atomic structure, optical property, electronic structure, or electrical conductivity of materials. Thus, defect engineering can enhance the surface catalytic reactions on photocatalysts. Surface defects are associated with dangling bonds and coordinately unsaturated atoms at terraces, steps, kinks, adatoms, and vacancies. These are thermodynamically unstable and thus favor the adsorption and activation of reactant molecules.¹⁴¹ Some surface defects may induce positive or negative charges in the surface, which electrostatically promote

the adsorption of negatively charged or positively charged reactants.^{142,143}

Some point defects (such as vacancies and dopants) may directly participate in the response in surface activation reactions. Further, the activation of the adsorbed molecules may also be facile due to the abundant charge carriers localized at the surface defects.¹⁴⁴ Different surface defects may result in different reaction pathways depending on the further adsorption and dissociation modes. This enhances the selectivity toward specific products.¹⁴⁵

The bulk defects can trap the photogenerated charge carriers, and the trapped holes may act as new recombination centers, as the latter are no longer available for the photocatalytic reaction. Alternatively, the captured photogenerated holes by the surface defects can favor the electron/hole separation efficiency. Further, due to the ready availability of these captured photogenerated holes for redox reactions, they enhance the photocatalytic activity.^{43,122} The trapping role of bulk defects for photogenerated charge carriers causes electronic delocalization, decreased reactivity, and lower photocatalytic efficiency. For example, the VBi and OVs (as the bulk defects) were formed during the ball-milling preparation of BiPO₄. These defects can be repaired by reflux and calcination. These induced bulk defects in BiPO₄ resulted in a critical decrease in the e/h separation and thus reduced photocatalytic activity. The overall mechanistic pathways for charge separation and the photocatalytic process (under UV light irradiation) in this BiPO₄ system are shown in Figure 2a.¹⁴⁶

One effective strategy for accelerating charge carrier transfer and improving the photoelectrochemical performance in semiconductor photoanodes is the introduction of oxygen vacancies based on the creation of excess surface oxygen vacancies. Here, surface recombination will also be aggravated. It has been reported that ozone treatment of two-dimensional

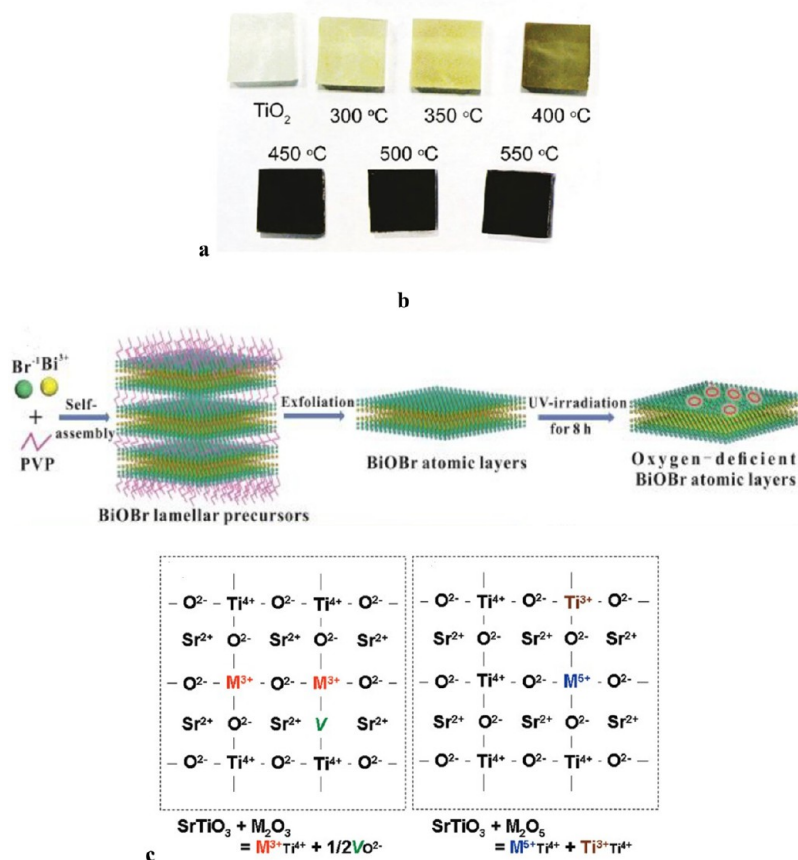


Figure 3. (a) Pictures of H₂-annealed pristine TiO₂ and H:TiO₂ nanowires at various temperatures.¹⁸⁴ Reprinted with permission from ref 184. Copyright 2011 American Chemical Society. (b) Illustration OV_s formed in BiOBr atomic layers.¹⁹⁰ Reprinted with permission from ref 190. Copyright 2018 Wiley. (c) Schematic illustration of doping of the trivalent cation and the pentavalent cation in aliovalent-doped SrTiO₃.¹⁹⁹ Reprinted with permission from ref 199. Copyright 2009 American Chemical Society.

WO₃ nanoflakes results in the effective formation of surface oxygen vacancies and suppresses the e/h recombination on the surface. Ozone oxidation of the W⁵⁺ on the photoanode surface decreases the number of surface oxygen vacancies. This critically shifts the cathodic onset potential of about 150 mV relative to the pristine WO₃ photoanode. The hydrogen- and ozone-treated WO₃ sample shows a photocurrent of 2.25 mA cm⁻² at 1.23 V (vs reversible hydrogen electrode). This treated sample is critically stable over 10 h with an overall water-splitting Faradaic efficiency of about 90%.¹⁴⁷ A new insight into the surface localization of defects and the liquid–solid interface has been presented by Zhang et al. Based on this insight, photocatalytic performance critically depends on controlling the bulk (charge transport) and surface (chemical reaction) recombination processes.¹⁴⁸ In another work, evacuating WO₃ at different temperatures has been used to synthesize WO_{3-x} with varying concentrations of surface oxygen vacancy defects. The sample treated at 150–350 °C showed more surface oxygen vacancies, high photocurrent density, and high photocatalytic activity relative to the pristine WO₃. In contrast, more bulk defects were observed for WO_{3-x} treated at 450 and 550 °C, which may decrease the e/h separation, leading to lower photocurrent density and photocatalytic activity relative to the pristine WO₃.¹⁴⁹

The effects of defect distribution on TiO₂'s energy band structure and photocatalytic activity have been studied by Zhang et al. The surface defects induced a tail of TiO₂'s CB above the H⁺/H₂ redox potential, resulting in photocatalytic activity. In

contrast, a band tail below the H⁺/H₂ potential was generated by TiO₂ bulk defects, inhibiting H₂ production. Thus, a major factor determining TiO₂'s photocatalytic activity is the change in the band gap structure by defects.¹⁴⁰ In another work, hydrogenation of an anatase TiO₂ nanosheet under an H₂ gas flow in the temperature range of 500–700 °C changed its size, shape, bulk phase, band gap, and concentration and distribution of defects. Among these, a nonuniform distribution of defects between the surface and the bulk played a vital role in controlling the photoactivity. Many Ti³⁺ defects were formed at the beginning of hydrogenation at 600 °C. Eventually, O⁻ is a significant species on the surface with hydrogenation elongation. This varied distribution of surface/bulk defects produces dramatically enhanced photoactivity.¹⁵⁰ Also, the surface defects of TiO₂ enhanced e/h separation, and the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ in photocatalytic methanol reforming and the photocatalytic oxidation of α -phenethyl alcohol was the sole effect of surface/bulk defects.¹²² In another study, Wu and co-workers investigated the acute effects of bulk and surface defects on the photoactivities of four kinds of uniform TiO₂ NPs. Moreover, the synergistic effect of bulk defects on the photoactivity was observed for particles larger than 10 nm, while the that of surface defects was observed for particles less than 10 nm.¹⁵¹

In another research, the solid solution Zn–Cd–S with surface defects was prepared in a hydrazine hydrate with a narrower band gap, more comprehensive light absorption range, and better photocatalytic activity. Based on the theoretical

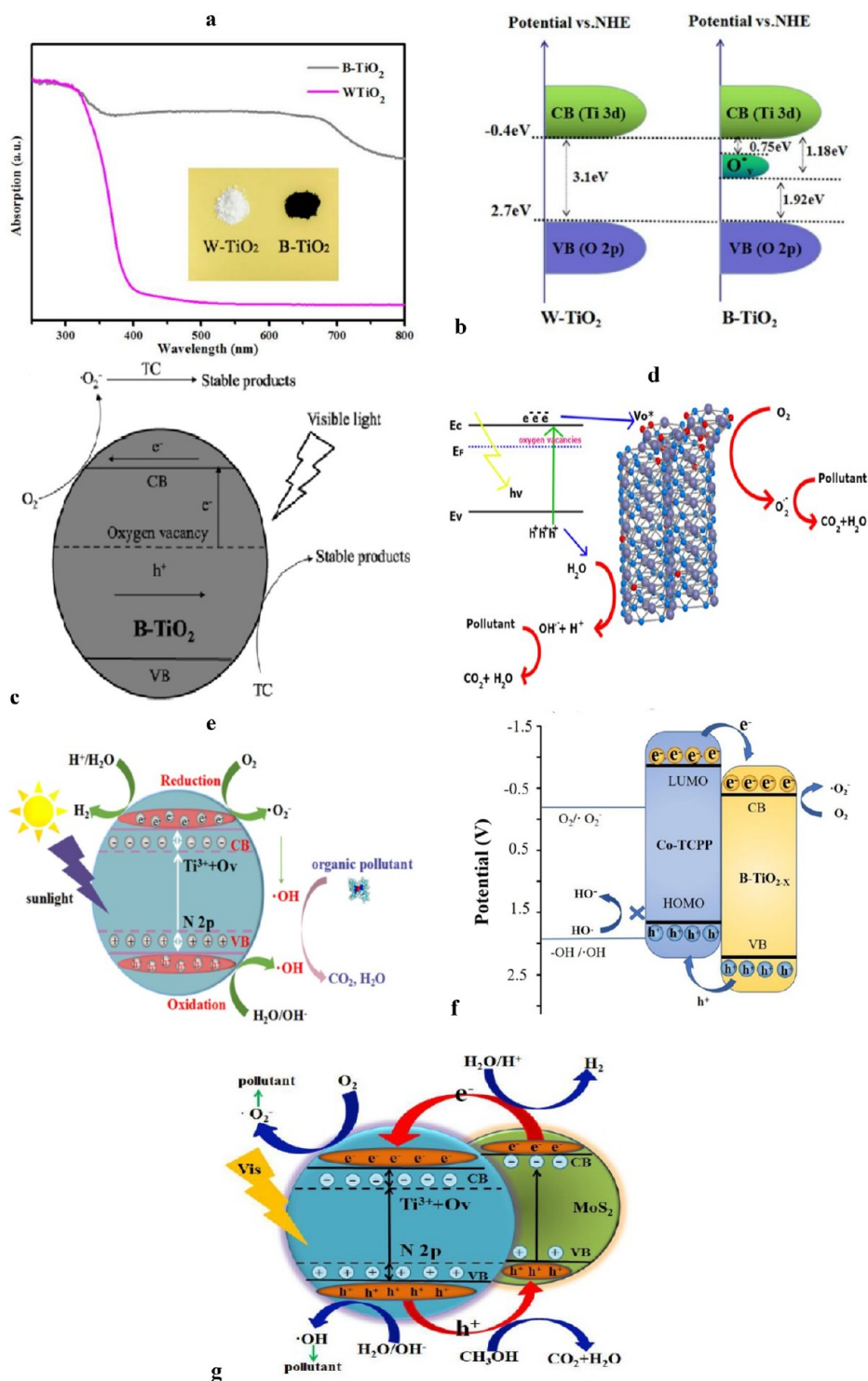


Figure 4. (a) UV-vis absorption spectra of black B-TiO₂ and W-TiO₂ NPs.²¹¹ (b) Energy band diagram of B-TiO₂ and W-TiO₂ NPs.²¹¹ Reprinted with permission from ref 211. Copyright 2018 The Authors. (c) Visible light TC degradation by black TiO₂.²¹³ Reprinted with permission from ref 213. Copyright 2021 Elsevier. (d) The e/h formation and transfer mechanism in g-C₃N₄@C-TiO₂.²¹⁶ (e) The b-N-TiO₂ solar-driven photocatalytic mechanism.²²³ Reprinted from ref 223. Copyright 2017 Elsevier. (f) The visible light photocatalytic activity of BTC-10% toward BPA.¹⁰ Reprinted with permission from ref 10. Copyright 2021 Elsevier. (g) Schematic of the energy band structure for the N-TiO_{2-x}@MoS₂ heterostructure and the e/h transfer mechanism.²²⁹ Reprinted with permission ref 229. Copyright 2017 Elsevier.

calculation, the surface defects cause the CB minimum and VB maximum to shift downward and upward, respectively. Thus, a type I junction was formed between the bulk and surface of the solid solution, promoting the e/h migration toward the

nanostructure surface and leading to enhanced photocatalytic activity.¹⁵²

Jiang and co-workers have studied the effects of well-defined crystal facets of CeO₂ nanocrystals (NCs) in the photocatalytic oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs). The surface

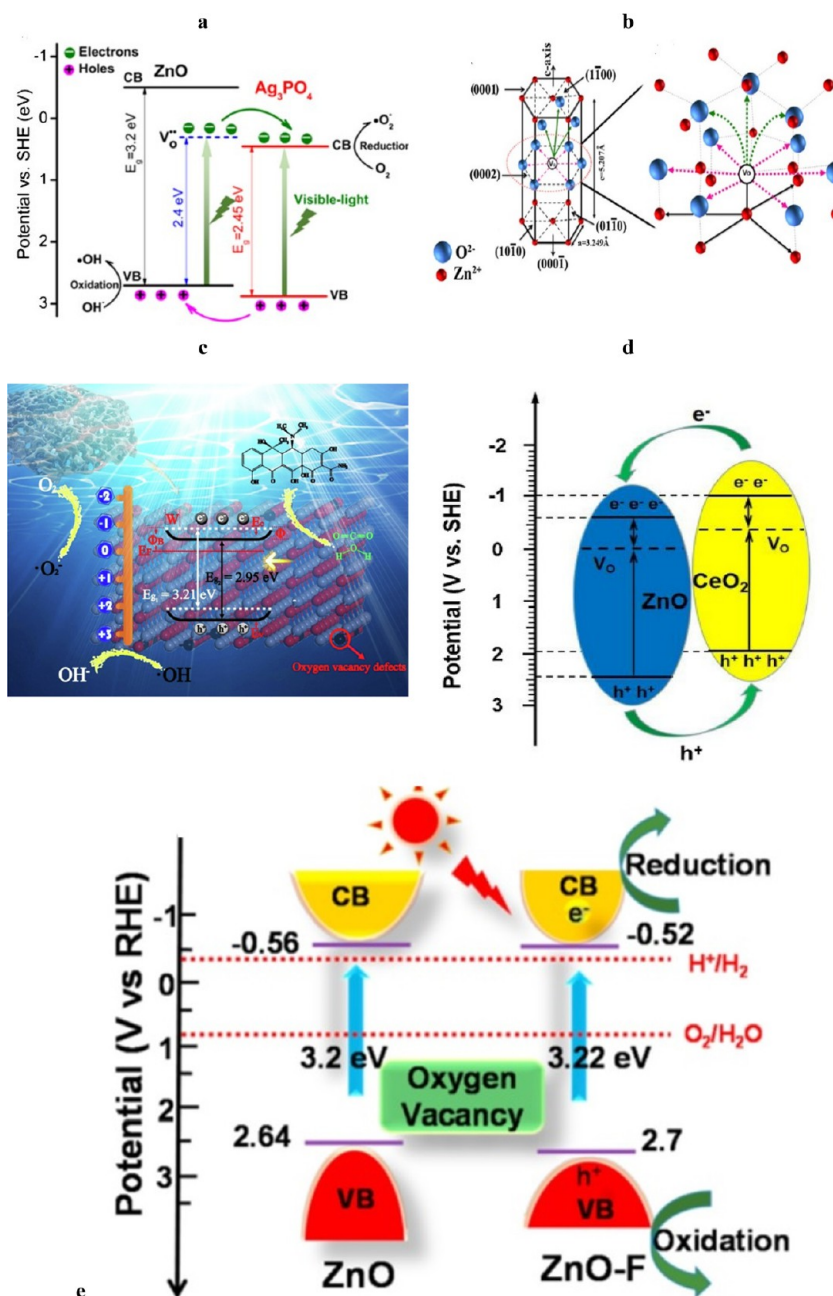


Figure 5. (a) The band structure and e/h transfer of OV-enriched ZnO/Ag₃PO₄ under visible light illumination.³⁷ Reprinted with permission from ref 37. Copyright 2016 Elsevier. (b) In-plane and out-of-plane diffusions of OVs in the ZnO wurtzite crystal and its unit cell structure expanded view and defect migration (pink arrows, in-plane diffusion; green arrows, out-of-plane diffusion).²⁰⁹ Reprinted with permission from ref 209. Copyright 2017 Elsevier. (c) Proposed defective ZnO photocatalytic mechanism, CB minimum (E_C), VB maximum (E_V), Fermi level energy (E_F), surface band bending (Φ), surface barrier height (Φ_B), and width of the surface band bending region (W).²⁴⁵ Reprinted with permission from ref 245. Copyright 2020 Elsevier. (d) The e/h separation and production of oxidation groups over a CeO₂/ZnO photocatalyst.²⁴⁷ Reprinted with permission from ref 247. Copyright 2020 Elsevier. (e) The pristine ZnO and ZnO-F energy band structures.²⁵² Reprinted with permission from ref 252. Copyright 2021 Elsevier.

defect structure (e.g., Ce³⁺ ions and O vacancies) critically influenced the surface properties, including the activation of reactants and the mobility of surface lattice oxygen.¹⁵³ In an easy hydrothermal synthesis of 1D CeO₂ nanorods, the extent of surface oxygen vacancies (OV-s) can be tuned relative to bulk oxygen vacancies (OV-b). The highest OV-s/OV-b ratio led to more efficient utilization of photogenerated electrons in the CeO₂ nanorod due to their faster transfer to the surface for the photodegradation process. This also reduced the probability of

photogenerated recombination of electrons and OV-b in the bulk, as shown in Figure 2b.¹⁵⁴

5. PHOTODEGRADATION ON ANION VACANCIES

Experimental and theoretical calculation results have evidenced the low formation energy of anion vacancies. Thus, it has been widely investigated among photocatalysts, including the O, N, C, S, and halogen vacancies as the most frequent anion vacancies.^{43,155} The reduced band gap in metal oxides is formed

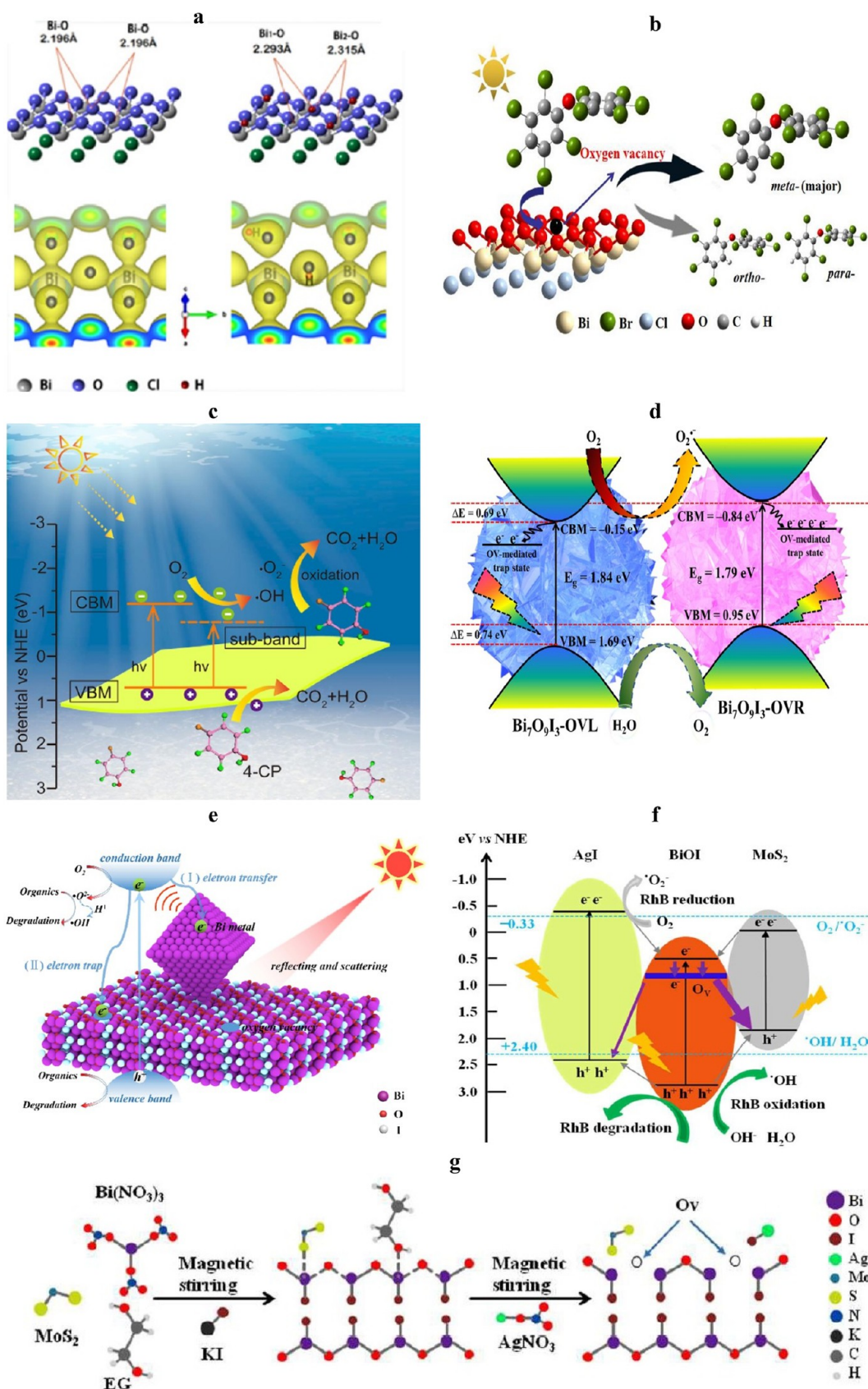


Figure 6. (a) The Bi–O bond length and charge density distribution along the O-terminated (001) surface of BiOCl: clean surface (left) and hydroxyl-rich surface (right).²⁶⁰ Reprinted with permission from ref 260. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society. (b) Schematic diagram for a position-selective multi-electron reduction of BDE209 over BOC001 with OVs.²⁶² Reprinted with permission from ref 262. Copyright 2021 Elsevier. (c) Visible light 4-CP photocatalytic degradation by OV-rich ultrathin BB-SS nanosheets.²⁷² Reprinted with permission from ref 272. Copyright 2019 Elsevier. (d) Schematic illustration of the photocatalytic process of as-prepared Bi₇O₉I₃–OVR and Bi₇O₉I₃–OVL microspheres.²⁸⁰ Reprinted with permission

Figure 6. continued

from ref 280. Copyright 2019 Elsevier. (e) The proposed mechanism for the degradation of organics over the Bi/BOI-2 catalyst under visible light irradiation.²⁸¹ Reprinted with permission from ref 281. Copyright 2017 Royal Society of Chemistry. (f) Schematic mechanism of a Z-scheme photocatalyst with OV states.²⁸² (g) Schematic for the proposed OV formation.²⁸² Reprinted with permission from ref 282. Copyright 2016 RSC.

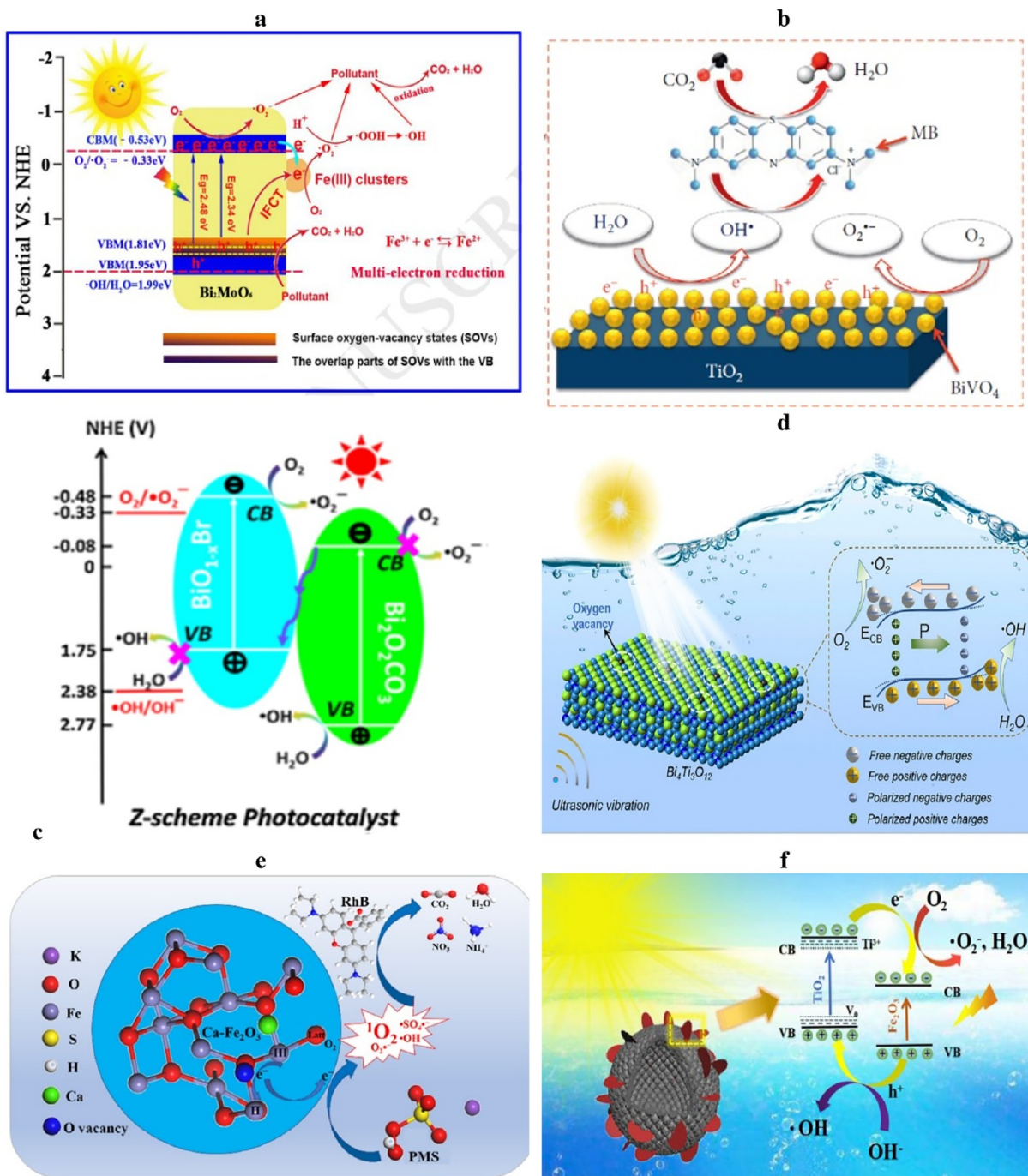


Figure 7. (a) The degradation mechanism of organics over 15% Fe(III) cluster-grafted Bi₂MoO₆ photocatalysts under visible light irradiation.²⁸⁴ Reprinted with permission from ref 284. Copyright 2019 Elsevier. (b) Schematic for MB degradation.²⁸⁶ Reprinted with permission from ref 286. Copyright 2020 Sahar Mansour et al. (c) The Z-scheme photocatalytic mechanisms.²⁹⁰ Reprinted with permission from ref 290. Copyright 2017 Elsevier. (d) Schematic for the piezo-photocatalytic mechanism of Bi₄Ti₃O₁₂ OV.²⁹⁹ Reprinted with permission from ref 299. Copyright 2023 Elsevier. (e) Proposed PMS activation in RhB degradation by 5%Ca-Fe₂O₃.³⁰⁰ Reprinted with permission from ref 300. Copyright 2020 Elsevier. (f) Illustration of the energy band structure for γ -Fe₂O₃/b-TiO₂ heterojunctions and the proposed e/h transfer mechanism³⁰¹ Reprinted with permission from ref 301. Copyright 2019Elsevier.

by vacancy energy states, broadening the light absorption edge. Further, the electron sink effect of anion vacancies prevents the

e/h recombination. Both light harvesting and the photoinduced charge carrier separation can be enhanced due to coordinated

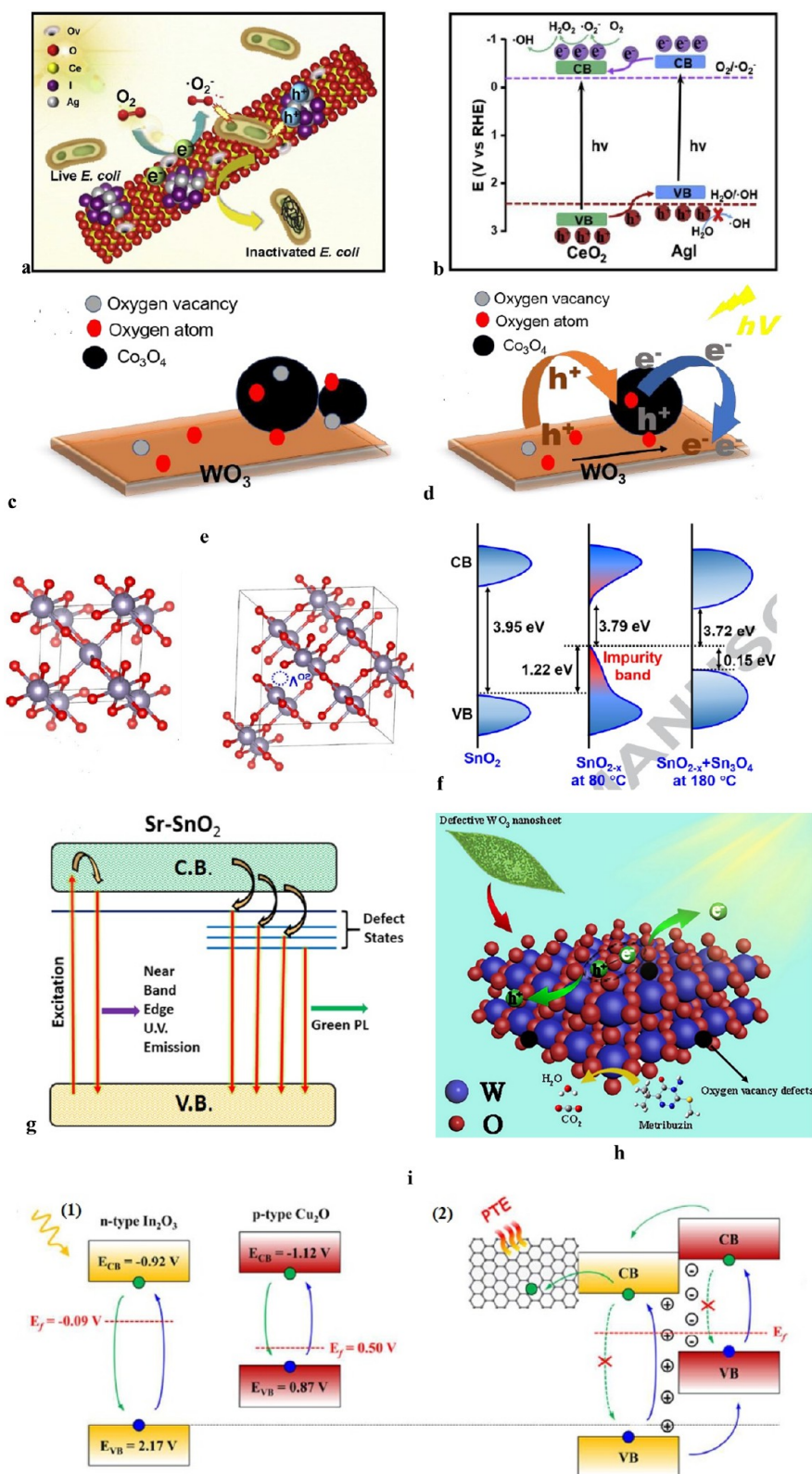


Figure 8. (a and b) The photocatalytic O₂ activation mechanism in a AgI/CeO₂ heterojunction.³⁰⁸ Reprinted with permission from ref 308. Copyright 2021 Elsevier. (c) Interaction and (d) charge transfer mechanism in a CW₂ composite.³¹¹ Reprinted with permission from ref 311. Copyright 2020 Elsevier. (e) Crystal structures and (f) schematic diagrams for SnO_{2-x} at various reaction temperatures.³¹⁵ Reprinted with permission from ref 315. Copyright 2018 Elsevier. (g) The possible transitions in Sr-SnO₂ NPs.³¹⁴ Reprinted with permission from ref 314. Copyright 2019 Elsevier. (h) The photocatalytic mechanism of solar-driven defective WO₃ ultrathin nanosheets.³¹⁵ Reprinted with permission from ref 315. Copyright 2019 Elsevier. (i) (1) The formation and transfer of e⁻/h⁺ pairs over pure In₂O₃ and Cu₂O samples and (2) the proposed enhanced e⁻/h⁺ separation mechanism on a Cu₂O/RGO/In₂O₃ hybrid.³¹⁸ Reprinted with permission from ref 318. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society.

Table 1. Summary of the Roles of Defects in Different Photocatalysts

photocatalysts	OV introduction method	role of OV in photodegradation	application	ref
black anatase TiO ₂	hydrogen-treated white anatase-TiO ₂	OV narrows E _g enhancing light absorption/active sites	tetracycline photodegradation	213
TiO ₂ -OV	one-step molten salt method	OV shifts light absorption toward the visible light region	RhB photodegradation	217
black TiO ₂	high-temperature surface hydrogenation	OV extended response to the visible light region and solar-driven photocatalytic activity, increasing long-term stability of e/h pairs	RhB, thiobencarb, atrazine, phenol, and hexadecane photodegradation	218
iodine-doped TiO ₂ -OV	two-step hydrothermal/modified by HIO ₃	OV increases the optical response in the visible light region	MB photodegradation	219
black Ti ³⁺ /N-TiO ₂	in situ hydrogenation	OV improves charge separation, light absorption, and active sites	MO photodegradation	223
TiO ₂ -OV/graphene	solvothetmal/thermal treatment	OV inhibits e/h recombination	photodegradation of MO and RhB	224
N-TiO _{2-x} @MoS ₂	hydrothermal/chemical reduction	OV narrows E _g restraining the e/h recombination	MO photodegradation	229
black TiO ₂	hydrogen treatment	OV extends light absorption	Photocatalytic activity	232
ZnO nanorods	high-temperature quenching method	OV suppresses e/h recombination	RhB photodegradation	242
black ZnO	hydrogen treatment	OV enhances visible light absorption	MB photodegradation	243
ZnO hexagonal plates	hydrothermal method/high-temperature NaBH ₄ reduction	OV improves the e/h separation	TC photodegradation	245
CeO ₂ /ZnO	thermal method by controlling the air/N ₂ ratio	Synergistic effect of OVs and CeO ₂ /ZnO heterojunction, enhanced light absorption	RhB photodegradation	247
CdS QDs/ZnO _{1-x} -x' TiO _{2-x} -x	chemical reduction	OV narrowed E _g	bisphenol A photodegradation	248
NiO-ZnO	homogeneous precipitation	OV promotes adsorption and activation of PMS and formation of SO ₄ ^{•-}	bisphenol A photodegradation	249
OV-BiOCl	solvothetmal method	OV favored the activation of adsorbed O ₂ for pollutant oxidation	RhB photodegradation	253
BiOCl	UV light irradiation	OV activates molecular oxygen to produce [•] O ₂ ⁻ and [•] OH radicals under visible light	pentachlorophenol sodium photodegradation	261
BiOCl	sulfuric acid corrosion of Bi ₂ O ₃ -B ₂ O ₃ -ZnO-SrO-Na ₂ O (BBZSN) glass containing OVs	OV inhibited the e/h recombination and adjusted the band structure	RhB photodegradation	267
S-doped BiOBr	one-step solvothetmal method	OV enhanced the visible light absorption and suppressed the e/h recombination	4-chlorophenol photodegradation	272
Bi/BiOBr	combustion method	OVs and surface plasma resonance, narrowing the E _g and increasing visible light absorption promoting the photoelectric and ultrahigh photocatalytic activities	RhB photodegradation	273
BiOBr/Bi ₂ O ₃ Br ₂	calcination treatment	higher visible light photodegradation, narrowing E _g , excellent chemical stability of BiOBr-OV	tetracycline and ciprofloxacin photodegradation	185
BiOBr	solvothetmal method	OV boosted the holes mobility and electrons reduction of Bi ₂ O ₃ , increased charge carrier separation and ROS concentration	real oil field-produced wastewater photodegradation of phenols	277
Bi ₇ O ₉ I ₃	postcalcination treatment	OV improves light harvesting and increases the number of reactive sites and e/h separation	phenol, MO, MB, and <i>p</i> -nitrophenol photodegradation	280
Bi ₂ MoO ₆	wet chemical synthesis	OV promotes e/h separation and transport and visible light absorption	tetracycline photodegradation	191
Ba ²⁺ doped SrBi ₂ B ₂ O ₇	high-temperature solid-phase method	OV extends the photoreponse range	photodegradation of phenols	102
Bi ₂ WO _{6-x}	controllable hydrogen reduction	OV improves the ability of Bi/Bi ₂ WO _{6-x} to generate ¹ O ₂	bisphenol A photodegradation	288
Bi/Bi ₂ WO _{6-x}	one-step hydrothermal	OV decreases the E _g promoting e/h separation	RhB photodegradation	289
BiO _{2-x}	liquid exfoliation	OV electron mediator promoted e/h separation; due to the increase of the redox ability, it produced high amounts of superoxide radical ([•] O ₂ ⁻) and hydroxyl radical ([•] OH)	photodegradation of antibiotics (CIP, 4-MAA etc.)	133
BiO _{1-x} Br/Bi ₂ O ₃ CO ₃	solvothetmal method	OV increases the adsorption energy, facilitating the activation of ROS, such as [•] O ₂ ⁻ , [•] OH, and H ₂ O ₂ , and enhances the charge transfer between O ₂ /H ₂ O and BIT	RhB photodegradation	299
Bi ₄ Ti ₃ O ₁₂	modified molten salt method	OV increases ¹ O ₂ and [•] O ₂ ⁻ generation, specific surface area, and electrical conductivity.	RhB photodegradation	300
Ca-doped α-Fe ₂ O ₃	a scalable precipitation-calcination method	OV favors the e/h diffusion and transportation	retetracycline photodegradation	301
γ-Fe ₂ O ₃	metal ion mediated hydrothermal method/high-temperature hydrogenation	OV increases the active sites	bisphenol A photodegradation	302
CoFe ₂ O ₄	a simple thermal aging strategy	promote e-transfer and participate in the redox cycle, along with ¹ O ₂ and [•] O ₂ ⁻ production	bisphenol A photodegradation	303
CoFe ₂ O _{4-x}	hydrogen calcination			

Table 1. continued

photocatalysts	OV introduction method	role of OV in photodegradation	application	ref
α -Fe ₂ O ₃	thermal treatment	OV on the α -Fe ₂ O ₃ surface active site responsible for ¹ O ₂ generation	sulfamethoxazole photodegradation	306
CeO ₂	one-step hydrothermal method	OV dominates O ₂ adsorption sites to accelerate its chemisorption, inhibiting the e/h recombination	practical wastewater photocatalysis	308
Co ₂ O ₃ /WO ₃ p-n	coprecipitation method	high e/h separation, strong visible light absorption	diclofenac sodium degradation	311
Cu ₂ O/RGO/In ₂ O ₃	surfactant-free hydrothermal method	OV reduces E _g by forming new energy levels and serves as an e/h trapper to inhibit their recombination	photodegradation of methylene blue and Cr ⁶⁺ solutions	318

unsaturated metal centers and excess electrons in these anion vacancies.¹³⁵ In the following sections, we will focus on oxygen vacancies among the above-mentioned anion vacancies.

5.1. Oxygen Vacancy (OV). OVs, the most frequent anion vacancy approach in photocatalytic applications, were first proposed in the 1960s by Tompkins,¹⁵⁶ in which OVs were supposed to be a species in solid superficial chemistry. Researchers found that OVs act as active sites in catalytic reactions to adsorb substrates; thus, extensive studies on them started in 2000.^{157,158} OVs in metal oxides can change their local atomic and electronic structures and native chemical/physical properties.⁴⁵ Accordingly, the change in the location and concentration of OVs can modulate the electronic structure, charge generation, and surface sorption of photocatalysts.^{49,159}

Based on the experimental and theoretical reports, OVs will form abundant localized electrons and affect the physicochemical futures of metal oxides (e.g., optical characteristics, electron transport, surface structure, etc.), providing active centers for catalysis. In addition, the surface OVs critically attract reactive molecules, changing their state. All improve the catalytic performance of metal oxides containing OVs.³⁸

Modulating the composition and stoichiometry of classic wide-bandgap photocatalysts like TiO₂ is essential for narrowing their bandgap for a strong visible light absorption band. So far, the bands obtained commonly suffer from low absorbance and a narrow range.⁴⁸ For example, an influential absorption band, unlike the ordinary tail-like absorption band, has been observed in hydrogen-free oxygen-deficient TiO₂. This impressive band spans the visible light spectrum achieved in anatase TiO₂ by intentionally introducing atomic hydrogen-occupied OVs. The atomic hydrogen-occupied OVs form a new subvalence band in the original band gap, acting as vital absorption sites. Combined experimental data and theoretical calculations confirmed the excitation of a new subvalence band associated with atomic hydrogen-filled OVs as the origin of such a band. Subsequently, this leads to visible light photoelectrochemical activity.¹⁶⁰ An OV may act as a shallow donor for inducing defect states in the forbidden band of photocatalysts that enhance the conductivity and potentially create active centers.^{118,161} Both bulk (e.g., conductivity and energy level) and surface (e.g., molecular absorption and surface component) properties can be significantly changed by OVs. Thus, the engineering of OVs plays critical roles in various fields such as supercapacitors,¹⁶³ electrocatalysis,¹⁶⁴ and photo(electro)catalysis,¹⁶⁵ including photoelectrochemical (PEC) water splitting¹⁶⁶ and photodegradation.¹⁶⁷

5.1.1. Strategies for Creating Vacancies. Among the various ways to create vacancies, vacancies may built-in during the crystal growth or activated via post-treatment processes such as annealing and redox reaction reactions. The most straightforward vacancy creation method is controlling the ratio of starting materials. The formation of cationic defects is more challenging because of the higher energy requirements,¹⁶⁸ and thus does not have the same level of importance as the formation of anionic defect in photocatalysts. In the deposition process of oxide thin films, oxygen pressure can tailor the cationic vacancies, which is an obvious drawback because of the difficulty in predicting/controlling the precise vacancy distribution.

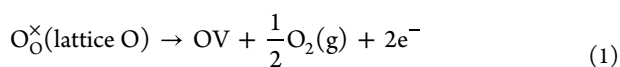
Another cationic vacancy generation method is elemental doping by elements like Al, Bi, Cd, Co, Cu, Fe, In, Li, Mn, Mo, Nb, Ni, Sb, Sn, Ti, W, V, and Zn. An effective method of inducing cationic defects at the atomic scale in metals is acid or alkali etching, which selectively removes acid-soluble or alkali-

soluble metal atoms from definite sites, respectively. An effective way to induce metal cation defects in some layered materials is to tempt small organic molecules following thermal calcination or sonication. The plasma technology for constructing defect-rich catalysts can be well controlled by manipulating the discharge medium, power intensity, and etching time,¹⁶⁹ this method has advantages including rapidity, nondestructive processing, time-saving operation (compared to chemical or high-temperature heat treatments), flexibility, cleanliness (eco-friendly), and scalability, with various applications in areas such as environmental science.¹⁷⁰ In the plasma etching strategy, etching of the material's surface produces a high number of surface defects. Hydrothermal methods, electrochemical exfoliation, chemical reduction, and heat treatment are other strategies for inducing cationic vacancies.

In general, the most popular strategies can be classified as low-frequency ultrasound,¹⁷¹ ion doping (e.g., N-doping),¹⁷² construction of two-dimensional ultrathin materials,¹⁷³ reduction of the solid-state chemical by NaBH₄,^{174–176} plasma treatment,¹⁷⁷ the addition of chelation precursors with carboxylic acids,¹⁷⁸ hydrothermal reduction with graphene oxide,¹⁷⁹ and annealing in inert¹⁸⁰ or vacuum conditions,¹⁴⁹ all of which facilitate the escape of O atoms. Here, some of these strategies will be briefly discussed.

5.1.1.1. Thermal Treatment in the Gas Phase. Annealing a pure metal oxide in an oxygen-free environment enriched by pure N₂, Ar, and He in a vacuum condition¹⁴⁹ can create OV in it at high temperatures (>400 °C).^{181–183} For example, black TiO₂ NPs consisting of OVs have been synthesized by Chen et al. through TiO₂ thermal treatment in a H₂ atmosphere.¹⁷ The thermal treatment of some metal oxides in the H₂ atmosphere has been suggested by Wang et al. as a general way to control the formation of OVs in their nanomaterials. Air-annealing titanium dioxide at 550 °C for 3 h, followed by additional H₂ annealing, resulted in the construction of oxygen-deficient TiO_{2-x} nanowires. This process has studied the effects of various temperatures of 300, 350, 400, 450, 500, and 550 °C. For example, the sample's morphology change as a function of the annealing temperature (SEM pictures) is depicted in Figure 3a.¹⁸⁴

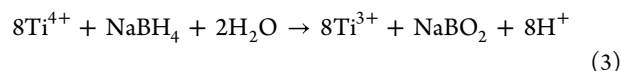
The vacancy can also be induced under an inert atmosphere or vacuum during annealing. Generally, a widely used OV-creating approach uses an oxygen-free environment during photocatalyst synthesis, in which control of the annealing temperature tunes the vacancy concentration.¹⁴⁹ For example, heat treatment cracks a fraction of W–O bonds in the fabrication of oxygen-defected WO_{3-x} samples under vacuum deoxidation at various temperatures.¹⁶⁴ Thus, OVs from at the surface the escape of surface lattice oxygen atoms, while W⁶⁺ reduces to W⁵⁺ via the following reactions (the Kroger–Vink notation). Accordingly, each induced OV reduced two W⁶⁺ ions.



Furthermore, an unstable Bi–O bond with low bond energy is a notable case for creating OV for Bi-based compounds.⁴⁹ In synthesizing the OV-induced 3D flower-sphere BiOBr/Bi₄O₃Br₂ heterojunction in the presence of CTAB as a Br source, the effects of calcination temperature, stirring time, and –OH concentration were studied in the synthesis mechanism. Based on the results, temperature and stirring time optimized

the sample's composition and structure. NaOH, as a structure-driving agent, also acted as an OV midwifery agent.¹⁸⁵

5.1.1.2. OVs Induced by NaBH₄ Reduction. A common and robust reducing reagent for creating OVs in metal oxides is NaBH₄. A mass of OVs has been induced in TiO₂ nanotube arrays by low-cost NaBH₄ reductant in a liquid phase by Zhang et al. Adjusting the reduction time (0–24 h, can control the saturation of the doping concentration of the oxygen vacancy).^{186,187} Xing et al. fabricated reduced TiO₂ NPs using NaBH₄ at a lower temperature in a liquid phase. The following reaction shows the quick hydrolysis of NaBH₄ to release the reductive H₂ and atomic hydrogen under hydrothermal conditions:



Under the applied conditions, atomic hydrogen favors the reduction of Ti⁴⁺ to Ti³⁺, which can improve the conductivity. Consequently, the NaBH₄ liquid-phase treatment may reduce the preparation cost and enhance photocatalytic performances.¹⁸⁸

The NaBH₄, CaH₂, and N₂H₄ reducing agents help reduce material via active hydrogen production during the reaction. In this method, annealing of the semiconductor and a particular reducing agent mixture at various temperatures engineers the induced vacancies. In general, this low-cost and straightforward method needs no equipment, critical thermal annealing treatment, or environment (occurs at room temperature or moderate heating conditions), making it a cheaper and easier mass production method for vacancy defects compared thermal reduction. Unfortunately, the requirement of a hazardous (carcinogenic) reducing agent (like hydrazine, NaBH₄) is the main drawback of the reduction reaction.¹⁸⁹

5.1.1.3. Construction of Ultrathin Metal Oxides. A well-known strategy for forming defects is the fast escape of atoms from the interior atoms exposed in ultrathin materials. Construction of OVs in ultrathin structures needs many surfactants in the synthesis procedure and relatively challenging conditions.⁴² As revealed in Figure 3b, a high number of OVs have been induced on the surface of BiOBr via the construction of an atomic layer. This has been confirmed by TEM and AFM results.¹⁹⁰ Atomically thin Bi₂MoO₆ nanosheets have been constructed by Wang et al. using a facile and scalable synthesis procedure. These atomically thin Bi₂MoO₆ nanosheets exhibited critical photocatalytic activity toward phenol degradation, with excellent cycling stability.¹⁹¹

A critical shortened charge diffusion path from the bulk to the surface can result from the intrinsic ultrathin architecture, which can critically reduce the recombination of e/h pairs. Moreover, interfacial redox reactions could be facilitated by the exposed plentiful coordination-unsaturated surface atoms as the surface active sites.¹⁹²

5.1.1.4. Doping. Another efficient strategy for inducing OVs is metal or nonmetal doping. For example, codoping of F[–] and Ag⁺ ions into a Bi₂MoO₆/rGO nanocomposite caused OVs in its structure to be created due to the substitution of F[–] with surface oxygen atoms. The OVs trapped the photogenerated electrons, resulting in a decreased e/h recombination rate and a synergistic effect of the photocatalyst toward rhodamine B (RhB). The insertion of Ag⁺ and F[–] into Bi₂MoO₆ led to surface plasmon resonance and surface OVs, respectively, and finally a red-shift in the absorption edge of nanocomposite was observed.¹⁹³ The effect of Ba²⁺ doping on Sr_{1-x}Ba_xBi₂B₂O₇ (0 ≤ x ≤ 0.6) in the

enhanced photocatalytic degradation of tetracycline (TC) induced OV_s that caused enhanced ferroelectricity. The boosted activity of the doped catalyst was about 6.8× and 2.6× greater than those of the undoped one and BaTiO₃, respectively, due to the formation of a strong built-in electric field and OV_s.¹⁰² It further introduced foreign atoms into the lattice of samples with induced OV_s via the substitution of larger atoms, causing lattice expansion. Also, the defect level reduces E_g , a practical reason for enhanced light absorption with a broader wavelength.¹⁹⁴

The oxygen vacancies and IO₃⁻ doping have been induced in BiOI nanosheets by adding NaH₂PO₂. This improved the BiOI charge carrier dynamics, such as excitation, e/h separation, trapping, and transfer, resulting in an improved activity toward methyl orange degradation under visible light irradiation.¹⁹⁵ Additionally, incorporating Mg into magnesium-doped hematite (Mg/Fe₂O₃) as a cost-effective and environmentally friendly catalyst via a facile precipitation method followed by calcination induced OV_s in its structure. Maximum OV_s and specific surface area were achieved for 5%Mg/Fe₂O₃, leading to higher RhB degradation through peroxymonosulfate (PMS) activation.¹⁹⁶

Bulk iodine doping in BiOCl has been reported through a convenient molten salt method that introduced iodine atoms and induced rich OV_s in the system. The doped BiOCl catalyst showed a higher visible light harvesting range and photocatalytic activity than the pure BiOCl.¹⁹⁷ Crystal facet engineering and nonmetal doping strategies have effectively improved semiconductors' e/h separation and photocatalytic activity. Thus, the oxygen-deficient Br-doped BiOCl nanosheets have been hydrothermally manufactured with dominating (001) facets to explore the impact of the Br doping and specific facets on carrier separation and photocatalytic activity. Br doping induced a large number of OV_s, as well as the formation of impurity energy levels. These energy levels enhance light absorption. Both effects are beneficial for enhancing photocatalytic activity.¹⁹⁸

In an N-doped TiO₂ anatase matrix, the formation of localized states in the band gap has been confirmed by DFT calculations. Substitutional N states lie just above the VB, while interstitial N states lie higher in the gap. Excitations from these localized states to the CB in N-doped TiO₂ are a probable reason for the shift of the absorption edge wavelength toward the visible region compared to pure TiO₂ (UV region). This N-doping leads to the formation of OV_s in bulk TiO₂, a reduced-cost energy procedure. This proves that N-doping probably assists OV formation.¹⁷²

Based on the works of Takata et al., the low valence cation dopant will occupy the Ti⁴⁺ sites and form OV_s, as displayed in Figure 3c.¹⁹⁹ This cation doping process introduces OV_s and decreases Ti³⁺, effectively enhancing photocatalytic activity.¹⁹⁹ However, it is worth mentioning that not all dopants can form OV_s; for creating OV_s, the doped ions should be matched with the metal oxides' ions.⁴²

Cl-doped Bi₂O₂CO₃ was fabricated via a new ionic-liquid-assisted solvothermal method and used in RhB degradation because the ionic liquid can do no Cl doping. The induced OV_s, via Cl-doping, can result in a narrower band gap and improve the e/h separation.²⁰⁰

In the doped semiconductors, replacing the existing lattice ions/atoms or occupying the interstitial positions of the lattice with foreign elements creates point defects. To prevent any structural alteration and secondary phase formation, the ionic radius of substitutional dopants must be comparable to that replacing atoms/ions.²⁰¹ In some cases, such as doping Eu,²⁰² Bi,²⁰³ and Mn²⁰⁴ into Cu₂O, the larger ionic radii of the

incorporating ions compared the host Cu⁺ ions led to the formation of secondary phases and noticeable structural changes. For example, the critically larger radius of Eu³⁺ (0.109 nm, as the largest ionic radius among all the lanthanides) compared to that of Cu⁺ (0.077 nm) relatively increased the crystallites size, which exposed more photoelectrode surface area and decreased the grain-boundary recombination degree.

In general, doping can negatively and positively affect the e/h transfer and separation. The temporary trapping of photo-generated e/h by doped species is conducive to effective e/h separation.²⁰⁵ In contrast, the dopant has an e/h recombination role this is detrimental to the e/h transfer and separation if the impurities are located at a deep level near the E_g center or acts as an electron trap center if it located near the Fermi level based on the classical theory of semiconductor physics.²⁰⁶ Thus, a substantial electron trap effect can only be expected if the impurity level is relatively higher than or equal to the Fermi level.

5.1.1.5. Comparison among Methods. Due to the advantages and disadvantages of each OV creation strategy in semiconductors, it is very difficult to conclude which is better. For example, the most common thermal treatment usually has long processing times, high energy consumption, and complicated processes. In some cases, chemical reduction is another common strategy that needs some toxic reducing reagents. The new and clean plasma defect-inducing method needs expensive equipment, and it is not as readily available.

Some approaches, including post-treatment methods, only facilitate the removal of surface atoms from photocatalysts. However, simultaneous induction of bulk and surface vacancies can be done via in situ reduction methods.⁴³ Nevertheless, the facile repair of surface OV_s can be related to their poor stability, requiring them to increase their stability and prevent self-repairing.⁴¹ For example, different strains have been achieved under external heat and light energy actions between strong in-plane bonding and weak out-of-plane interactions, resulting in easier removal of the lattice outer atoms than the inner atoms.^{207,208} Due to the limited penetration depth of reductants in the subjected materials, chemical reduction prefers to induce surface vacancies.³⁸ In general, the stability of the substance is a critical key to choosing the methods used to generate defects. For example, for a substance unstable at high temperatures, hydrothermal reduction is a preferential approach for defect creation over heating at a reducing gas atmosphere. Different ways to induce the generation of simultaneous defects cannot precisely control the defect type yet.¹¹¹

5.1.2. Oxygen Vacancy-Mediated Photocatalysis of TiO₂. Despite the urgent need for novel visible-light-active photocatalysts,²⁰⁹ the application of titanium dioxide (TiO₂) as the most popular, abundant, and highly chemically stable photocatalyst under visible light illumination has been limited mainly due to its absorption edge wavelength in the UV spectrum, which accounts for only 5% of solar radiation. Further, its high electronic energy band gap and e/h recombination are other limitations of it as a photocatalyst. One strategy to overcome these problems is producing an oxygen-deficient surface,¹⁶⁷ which critically changes the band gap position and the color of catalysts, resulting in an extended absorption wavelength range.^{160,210} For example, inducing OV_s in black TiO₂ (B-TiO₂) via a facile approach introduced by Chen and co-workers significantly improved its visible–IR light absorption efficiency. The decrease in e/h recombination is due to the localized states in the bandgap induced by OV_s, which act as trap centers (Figure 4a). The valence band maximum (VBM) and CB

minimum (CBM) of TiO₂ are the O 2p and the Ti 3d orbitals, respectively. Based on Figure 4b, better photocatalytic activity can be observed for B-TiO₂ NPs compared to the white TiO₂ (W-TiO₂) NPs.²¹¹ Oxygen-deficient brookite TiO₂ (BT) nanorods exhibit better photocatalytic activity than the anatase TiO₂ NPs or other visible light-active metal oxides.²¹² This synergistic photocatalytic activity of BT is related to the OV concentration.²¹² In a similar work, Wu and co-workers treated white anatase TiO₂ (W-TiO₂) with hydrogen to synthesize OV-induced anatase-TiO₂ (B-TiO₂) with a boosted TC photodegradation activity against visible light. As shown in Figure 4c, this boosted effect is related to the unique narrow energy gap between the OV state and the CB, resulting in excellent visible light harvesting to produce e/h pairs in TiO₂. Both h⁺ and •O₂⁻ played critical relative roles in TC photodegradation.²¹³ Hydrothermally synthesized TiO₂ NPs²¹⁴ were further sintered at 200, 300, 500, and 800 °C, and the catalyst sintered at 300 °C showed higher photocatalytic activity toward rhodamine-B under UV illumination. The quenched photoluminescence intensity of this sample at a wavelength of 475 nm confirms the induced OVs result in a higher charge separation rate. Thus, the trapped e/h pairs in the vacancy sites form various oxidizing agents for decomposing RhB molecules. Both OVs and generated Ti³⁺ ions are responsible for producing these oxidizing agents mentioned above, like hydroxyl ions, oxygen species, hydrogen peroxides, etc.²¹⁴ Similarly, improvements in the nanostructures, OVs, and photocatalytic activity of electrospun TiO₂ fibers have been reported by Li et al. via a combined heat treatment (500 to 800 °C) and plasma surface modification methods. A boosted degradation rate was observed at higher calcination temperatures up to 700 °C (about 2.5–4.5× that of the other heat-treated fibers).²¹⁵

A two-step anodization process has been used by Hernandez et al., to synthesize TiO₂ nanosheets on TiO₂ nanocavities, TiO₂ nanobowls on TiO₂ nanocavities, and TiO₂ nanocavities containing single-ionized OVs, while a three-step process was used in the synthesis of TiO₂ nanotubes. The single-ionized OVs are the main source of defect states of these TiO₂ films. The number of singly ionized OVs was increased by the decrease in the length of the tubular nanostructure and the thickness of the self-assembled nanostructures. With the increased number of OVs, a narrower band gap was obtained for self-assembled nanostructures and nanocavities due to overlapped localized states at the CB level. The highest number of single-ionized OVs in the TiO₂-ns/TiO₂-nc hybrid structures increased the chemisorption of the molecular oxygen and photoinduced charge carriers. Thus, increased superoxide radical anion production increased methylene blue photodegradation (Figure 4d).²¹⁶

In an induced stable OV-TiO₂ (P25) sample produced via a one-step molten salt procedure (by Zou et al.), a red shift in optical adsorption edge toward the visible light region has been observed, accompanied by a color change from white to dark blue. Accordingly, the highest photocatalytic activity toward RhB and the highest selectivity toward the benzyl alcohol oxidation under visible light irradiation were obtained by the blue TiO₂ with rich OVs.²¹⁷

Self-floating amphiphilic black TiO₂ foams with 3D macro-mesoporous architectures have been prepared by Zhang et al. via a freeze-drying method followed by cast molding technology and subsequent high-temperature surface hydrogenation. These black TiO₂ foams with a water-floating capability, an excellent solar-driven photocatalytic response, and long-term stability

have been used to completely mineralize floating insoluble hexadecane and many pesticides.²¹⁸

Another strategy for creating OVs on TiO₂ is doping. Accordingly, Li et al. used a two-step hydrothermal procedure to synthesize TiO₂ nanomaterials in the presence of iodic acid (HIO₃) as a dopant. The reduction of iodic acid caused the formation of multivalent iodine that induced OVs and 3d state Ti³⁺ species in the TiO₂ lattice, resulting in the visible light TiO₂ nanomaterials with an enhanced photocatalytic activity due to existing OVs, multivalent iodine in I–O–Ti bonds, and 3d state Ti³⁺ sites in the TiO₂ lattice. The sample exhibited more methylene blue (MB) photodegradation (10 ppm MB) (K_{app} of $7.92 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$) than commercial P25 ($3.87 \times 10^{-4} \text{ min}^{-1}$) and pristine TiO₂ nanowires ($4.18 \times 10^{-4} \text{ min}^{-1}$).²¹⁹

The hydride reducing reagents like NaBH₄, NaH, and Ca(H)₂ create oxygen vacancies. For example, Wang et al. synthesized brown-color TiO₂ with the absorption edge in red light in a facile one-step treatment in a NaH solution. The Ti(III) species and OVs induced by NaH shifted the TiO₂ absorption edge from the UV region to the red end of the visible spectrum, resulting in critically enhanced photocatalytic activity in phenol degradation.²²⁰ The OVs induced in TiO₂ NPs by sodium borohydride treatment caused a lower energy band gap, smaller pore sizes, and improved photocatalytic activity in orange II sodium salt degradation.²²¹ In another work, OVs were induced in TiO₂ films by CaH₂ as a reducing agent, resulting in a 340% photodegradation enhancement toward benzene under UV light. A band-bending model as a p–n junction between the bulk and the surface layer with OVs was confirmed by the density functional theory (DFT) calculations. This inhibited e/h recombination and oxygen transport at different depths, improving the photocatalytic prospects.²²²

Mesoporous black Ti³⁺/N-TiO₂ spheres were fabricated by Cao et al. via an EISA approach by using urea as the nitrogen source and an in situ reduction by NaBH₄. The prepared samples with high effective surface areas showed a critical e/h separation, a remarkable harvesting of visible light and near-infrared photons, excellent MO photodegradation efficiency, and a small band gap of about 2.11 eV due to the Ti³⁺ self-doping and N species. In a proposed mechanism illustrated in Figure 4e, N-doped species create a new impurity level above the TiO₂ VB. In other words, the induced Ti³⁺ and OV generate intermediate energy levels below the TiO₂ CB, critically narrowing the integrated E_g with N species to harvest visible light energy.²²³

Various oxygen vacancies have been induced in the ultrathin TiO₂ nanolayer-grafted graphene nanosheets (TiO₂/graphene oxide) in an H₂ atmosphere (Ti/RGO(H₂)) by Xie et al. This H₂ treatment induced OVs and a large surface area in the sample. At the same time, the TiO₂/graphene oxide reduced by solid NaBH₄ (Ti/RGO(NaBH₄)) showed the generation of bulk vacancies, a larger crystal size, and significantly decreased surface area and pore volume. Thus, the activity of treated Ti/RGO(H₂) is higher than that of Ti/RGO(NaBH₄) due to the facilitated interfacial electron transfer and enhanced electronic conductivity. This is because of the favorable surface vacancy that suppressed the e/h recombination, elongating the electron lifetime and transport compared with the bulk vacancy.²²⁴

The induced OVs in the hydrothermally synthesized two-dimensional (2D) porphyrin Co-TCPP MOF-decorated 2D B-TiO_{2-x} nanosheet (by Li et al.) showed critically enhanced the harvesting of visible light photons and bisphenol A (BPA) photocatalytic degradation (7.3× and 19.3× higher than the individual Co-TCPP MOF and B-TiO_{2-x}, respectively). This is

due to the reduced interface resistance for charge migration, elongation of the photoelectron lifetime, and facilitated e/h separation induced by the intimate contacting of B-TiO_{2-x} and the Co-TCPP MOF (Figure 4f).¹⁰ Similarly, the TiO_{2-x}/g-C₃N₄ nanorod array photoelectrode was fabricated by Qi et al. via urea drop calcination and NaBH₄ reduction. The induced OVs promoted the photodegradation efficiency of the Z-scheme mechanism (between TiO₂ nanorods/g-C₃N₄ nanosheets) toward phenol under visible light illumination.²²⁵

Oxygen vacancy-mediated sandwich-structured TiO_{2-x}/ultra-thin g-C₃N₄/TiO_{2-x} showed a direct Z-scheme photocatalytic mechanism with an excellent TC photodegradation efficiency (87.7% for 90 min) employing •O₂⁻, h⁺ and •OH reactive species (by Ni et al.). This excellent activity is related to the special 3D structure, the Z-scheme heterojunction expediting charge transfer, and enhanced active species formation. Meanwhile, the OVs enhanced the spatial e/h separation.²²⁶ The induced OVs critically enhanced the activity of (010)-faceted TiO₂ toward sulfamethoxazole (SMX). Qi et al. confirmed that vacuum-treated samples generated bulk defects and surface hydroxyl groups, improving the extract of the photoinduced holes for photooxidation reactions. In contrast, air-calcined samples resulted in the formation of surface OVs.²²⁷

A novel oxygen vacancy-modified TiO₂ (TiO_{2-x})/Ti₃C₂ (A-TOTC) photocatalyst has been fabricated by Miao et al. The enhanced e/h separation observed is due to the in situ growth of Ti₃C₂ to construct a Schottky barrier. Meanwhile, the induced OVs enhanced the BPA adsorption. They strengthened the photocatalytic interfacial reaction, so the photocatalytic activity of A-TOTC was nearly 5.1× and 4.0× greater than those of TiO₂/Ti₃C₂ and TiO_{2-x}, respectively.²²⁸ Some TiO₂-containing mixed metal oxides have been fabricated as photocatalysts. For example, in the 3D black N-TiO_{2-x}@MoS₂ core-shell nanostructures synthesized by Liu et al. via the hydrothermal method, followed by an in situ solid-state chemical reduction and 350 °C calcination process under an Ar atmosphere, N and Ti³⁺ doping and simultaneous formation of the core-shell heterojunction nanostructure have occurred. N and Ti³⁺ codoping and hybrid heterostructures improved visible light harvesting toward MO photodegradation by about 92% (Figure 4g).²²⁹ B-doped anatase-TiO₂/rutile-TiO₂ (A-TiO₂/R-TiO₂) with an adjustable band structure via B-doping was constructed by forming a Z-scheme transfer path between the B-doped A-TiO₂/R-TiO₂. It showed an optimized band structure with critical positively shifted band potentials and a high content of OVs. The amount of B-dopant tailored the band structure and content of surface OVs. Furthermore, e/h separation was enhanced via the Z-scheme transfer path, which improve the sample's redox ability by retaining the higher redox potential.²³⁰

A novel one-step hydrothermal Zn-assisted synthesis procedure has been used by Fang et al. to prepare a reduced TiO₂ (TiO_{2-x}) photocatalyst using HF to prevent air oxidation of TiO_{2-x} (for stabilizing the Ti³⁺ and OVs). The obtained TiO_{2-x} with the ability to harvest visible and NIR photons, due to the boosted effect between doped Ti³⁺ and dual-facet exposure, showed excellent activity in RhB and formic acid photodegradation.²³¹ In the chemical hydrogen-reduced TiO₂, the surface and subsurface OVs created shallow and deep sub-band gap Ti (III) states below the CB. Both the defect-to-CB transitions and the VB-to-defect transitions caused and enhanced visible light photocatalytic activity up to 440 nm. The photoinduced charge carriers from the defect states to the CB have enough short lifetimes to drive photocatalysis. The

Ti(III) deep and shallow trap states below the CB also shortened the lifetime of the photogenerated charge carriers under UV light irradiation.²³²

In mixed-phase titania, the phase-ratio-dependent OV was vital in determining the materials' band gap and photocatalytic activity. Another critical factor is the interface of the two materials with different band gap/OV levels. Some gradient intrinsic to the material, as in mixed-phase titania, played the most crucial role in e/h separation. The correlation of interfacial behavior and OVs in mixed-phase titania NPs leads to enhanced photoactivity under UV-vis illumination compared to their pristine counterparts.²³³ OVs enhanced the absorption ability of catalysts toward the aqueous dissolved oxygen, increasing the formation of more strong oxidizing species (SOSs).^{234,235}

5.1.3. Oxygen Vacancy-Mediated ZnO in Photodegradation. The photocatalytic application of the widely used ZnO photocatalyst has been limited due to its poor tendency to absorb visible light photons, poor charge transport, and low conductivity. One recent effective strategy for inhibiting these drawbacks is inducing oxygen or zinc vacancies in ZnO. Recent progress in oxygen vacancy ZnO compounds in the photodegradation of organic compounds degradation will be reviewed here.

Hybridization of ZnO nanosheets with Ag₃PO₄ NPs enhanced its photocatalytic activity toward RhB under visible light illumination due to the matched energy levels for efficient charge transfer between ZnO and Ag₃PO₄. This suggests a boosted effect of rich surface OVs and Ag₃PO₄ coupling (Figure 5a).³⁷ In ZnO nanocrystals containing OVs, the deep donor OVs have defect energy levels at E_V = +0.76 eV and shallow acceptor zinc vacancies have defect energy levels at 0.12 eV above the maximum VB, resulting in effective MO photodegradation under visible light illumination. The induced oxygen vacancies in the lattice of ZnO allow ZnO to harvest more visible light photons.²³⁶ Deoxidizing ZnO powder under a vacuum drying process reduced the size of ZnO NPs while increasing the concentration of surface OVs. OVs reduced e/h recombination via the electron capture process, which boosted MB photodegradation activity under UV illumination.²³⁷

A porous ZnO nanosheet with a near-rectangular morphology was synthesized via the solvothermal-annealing method (annealed at 500 °C, ZnO-500 °C). The photocatalytic activity toward phenol under UV light irradiation can be critically affected by the relative concentration ratio of surface defects to bulk defects, crystallization performance, and effective surface area.²³⁸

The modulated surface defects in zinc oxide nanorods (ZnO NRs) resulted in the visible light absorption enhancement.²⁰⁹ The annealing of the NRs up to 250 °C increased the surface defect states, primarily the surface OVs, while higher annealing temperatures could passivate the surface defects. The enhanced visible light of these ZnO NRs is due to the surface defects, which enhances e/h pair production through sub-bandgap absorption of visible light (Figure 5b).²⁰⁹

In the dark and light treatment of well-designed micro-, nano-, and capped nano-ZnO in an antibacterial study,²³⁹ surface defects played a vital role in the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) like •OH, •O₂⁻, and H₂O₂ in a ZnO aqueous suspension even in the dark (17% dark activity). The high activity for ZnO NPs, the low activity for micro-ZnO, and the moderate value for capped ZnO emphasize the critical role of surface defects in ROS generation.²³⁹ One-step thermal heating of metallic zinc powder at 1000 °C in a small oxygen

concentration prepared oxygen-defected ZnO.²⁴⁰ A red shift in the band gap energy of the sample toward a visible light region relative to that of the commercial sample (with an E_g value of 3.07 eV) and the boosted photocatalytic activity toward methyl green decolorization are related to the oxygen defects in ZnO material.²⁴⁰

In the oxygen-deficient ZnO_{1-x} nanosheets prepared by Guo et al., hydroxyl radicals played a vital role in the photodegradation of methyl orange under visible light illumination. The induced OV_s induced an increase in the activity of ZnO_{1-x} nanosheets compared to that of defect-free ZnO.²⁴¹

Various defects like zinc interstitial (Zn_i), OV, and zinc vacancy (V_{Zn}) defects have been induced in ZnO nanorods with a controllable surface defects by Fang et al. The defect concentration and the e/h recombination can be controlled by the quenching temperature and cooling rate, so the quenched ZnO nanorods showed improved light harvesting and an efficient retarded e/h recombination toward the degradation of organic dyes.²⁴² Hydrogenated black ZnO nanoparticles have been synthesized by Xia et al. and exhibit long-wavelength harvesting and excellent photocatalytic activity. This improved activity has been related to a higher optical absorption effect, better e/h separation from the disordered structure, and high Zn-vacancy defects created by hydrogenation.²⁴³

The controllable surface OV_s in ZnO induced by the controllable H₂ reduction process resulted in a narrowed band gap of the visible-light-active ZnO_{1-x}. The overlap of the VB of the surface OV_s with O 2p increased the e/h separation efficiency and the photoactivity. Under visible light illumination, the photoinduced hole was vital to MO degradation. Further, the bulk oxygen vacancy formed via depth reduction at 700 °C for 5 h resulted in a photoactivity loss.²⁴⁴ High-temperature NaBH₄ reduction and hydrothermal methods induced OV_s in ZnO-prepared porous defective ZnO cellular hexagonal plates with surface OV_s (OVZCHPs). The sample showed an enhanced solar-driven photocatalytic TC degradation rate (up to ~99.9%) three times greater than that of the ZCHPs. As shown in Figure 5c, OV_s critically prevent e/h recombination, narrowing E_g to locate in the visible light region; when these effects are accompanied by the unique porous cellular structure that shortens the transmission distance, a high TC photodegradation efficiency can be achieved under AM 1.5 illumination.²⁴⁵ An increase in oxygen vacancies has also been induced by doping or using a composite. For example, in a dual-reaction-center (RDC) Fenton-like catalyst with the enriched surface electron-rich and electron-poor areas containing OV-rich Co-ZnO microparticles (OV-CoZnO MPs), electron-rich OV_s (containing unpaired electrons) and electron-deficient Co³⁺ sites have formed via the lattice-doping of Co into ZnO wurtzite. Based on both experimental and theoretical calculations, the electron-rich OV_s capture and reduce hydrogen peroxide to generate powerful hydroxyl radicals. At the same time, the electron-deficient Co³⁺ sites adsorb high amounts of pollutants and act as electron donors for the system, accompanied by their oxidative degradation.²⁴⁶ In a similar work, a facial calcination process with a controlled OV concentration has been used by Zhang et al. in the synthesis of CeO₂/ZnO nanocomposites by the changing air/N₂ ratio. CeO₂/ZnO nanostructures showed richer OV_s than the unmixed ZnO, which reached maximum value when the calcination atmosphere air/N₂ ratio was 2:8 or 4:6. Due to the CeO₂/ZnO nanoparticles prepared at air/N₂ = 2:8 having the highest number of OV_s, the highest RhB photodegradation

efficiency was obtained under visible light illumination (Figure 5d).²⁴⁷

In another work, hydrothermal/calcination combination methods have been applied to synthesize the ZnO-TiO₂ solid solution as a Z-scheme heterojunction of surface OV_s and CdS QDs. Among the different samples, the highest phenol degradation was achieved by CdS QDs/ZnO_{1-x}-TiO_{2-x} due to the formation of OV_s and Z-scheme heterojunctions.²⁴⁸ A homogeneous precipitation method has also been used to synthesize a composite NiO/ZnO catalyst, which activated peroxymonosulfate (PMS) in the removal of BPA (95.26% BPA removal and 67.11% total organic carbon (TOC) removal). Based on the characterization and theoretical calculations (DFT), an electron rearrangement process occurred in OV_s that modified heterojunction catalysts. This induced surface NiO acidic sites and alkaline OV sites, thus enhancing both PMS adsorption and activation.²⁴⁹

As another example of the preparation of mixed oxide composites, a simple universal route, simply heating an MO NC mixture with potassium (K), has been applied to induce continuous internal energy levels in MO semiconductors like TiO₂, ZnO, and In₂O₃ NCs. The prepared black NCs are capable of absorbing nearly full solar spectrum. A MB photodegradation efficiency about 300× greater than those of their conventional counterparts was demonstrated by as-prepared black TiO₂ NCs under visible light irradiation. The surface-disorder-induced OV_s and metallic phases likely formed during the reaction process with K have been determined as the main reason for this boosted catalytic activity.²⁵⁰ Modified OV-rich zinc oxide (VO-ZnO) with graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄), prepared by Liu et al., showed enhanced visible light photoactivity compared to pure OV-ZnO and g-C₃N₄. A high OV concentration was induced by introducing g-C₃N₄ into OV-ZnO, a promoting factor for visible light absorption. Additionally, an improved e/h separation was induced by the formed strong coupling interface between g-C₃N₄ and OV-ZnO, a factor for high visible light photocatalytic activity.²⁵¹

The oxygen-deficient ZnO single-crystal nanosheets were prepared by adding trace fructose (ZnO-F) with high large-scale phenol photodegradation efficiency. Interestingly, ZnO-F showed a more favorable surface valence band maximum than pristine ZnO, resulting in the easier formation of •OH by ZnO-F and higher photocatalytic activity. The CBM positions of ZnO-F and pristine ZnO are located at -0.52 and -0.56 eV, respectively, while the VBM position of ZnO-F is relatively increased from 2.64 eV for pure ZnO to 2.7 eV (Figure 5e). The more positive VBM position of ZnO-F produces substantial oxidative holes during photocatalysis.²⁵²

5.1.4. Oxygen Vacancy-Mediated Photocatalysis of Bismuth-Based Oxides. In recent years, some bismuth-contained oxides like BiOX,²⁵³ Bi₂O₃,²⁵⁴ BiVO₄,²⁵⁵ BiPO₄,²⁵⁶ Bi₂WO₆,²⁵⁷ and Bi₂MoO₆¹⁹³ have been widely used as excellent heterogeneous catalysts. This application has related to their unique advantages, including the simple composition, a relatively narrow bandgap (2.2–2.8 eV), and a high oxidation ability with deep valence band levels. Recently, inducing OV_s in bismuth-based composite oxides have been well-known as an emerging promising strategy to improve their photocatalytic performance.²⁵⁸ This will be summarized in the below sections.

5.1.4.1. BiOX (Cl, Br, and I). Among the bismuth oxides, bismuth oxyhalides are the most famous applied photocatalysts in the degradation of various organic pollutants. In the following

sections, a brief of recent progress in their application will be reported.

5.1.4.2. BiOCl. As visible light photocatalysts, a synergistic efficiency was obtained in RhB and BPA photodegradation by h-BN/OV-BiOCl composites (h-BN = hexagonal boron nitride). An improved e/h separation efficiency has been related to negatively charged h-BN, a promoting factor for the expected migration of positively charged holes to the photocatalyst surface. Moreover, the presence of h-BN increased the number of OVs in OV-BiOCl, a favored factor for activating more adsorbed O₂ toward the oxidation of pollutants.²⁵³ A novel OV-rich 2D/2D BiOCl-g-C₃N₄ ultrathin heterostructure nanosheet (CN-BC) was synthesized by Wang et al. Density functional calculations proved the induced OVs bring a new defect level for the increased photoabsorption under visible light irradiation. The photocatalytic activity of the OV-rich optimum ratio of CN-BC (50CN-50BC) toward 4-chlorophenol (4-CP) was about 12.5×, 5.3×, and 3.4× greater than those of pure BiOCl, g-C₃N₄, and an OV-poor heterostructure, respectively.²⁵⁹

Based on Wu et al.'s work, the hydroxyl group is the critical center for photoinducing OVs in BiOCl. The hydroxyl-rich BiOCl containing OVs appear black under UV light irradiation. The photoinduced surface OVs dissociate adsorbed water molecules via coordination with hydroxyl groups, leading to the regeneration of BiOCl under a water-rich atmosphere. The DFT calculations of the structure, energy, and charge density distribution of BiOCl and BiOCl-OH have been used to understand better the hydroxyl-dependent evolution of OVs in BiOCl (Figure 6a).²⁶⁰ Ge et al. show that by tuning the exposed ratio of (001) and (010) facets of BiOCl plates and their surface OV content, the amounts of •OH and •O₂⁻ can be relatively adjusted under visible light illumination. The activation of molecular oxygen on OVs of BiOCl under visible light is a feasible and controllable approach to produce •OH and •O₂⁻ reactive species for effective degradation of pentachlorophenol sodium (PCPNa). Also, under a certain amount of •O₂⁻, it plays a significant role in PCPN degradation depending on whether the content of •OH is higher or lower.²⁶¹

Xu et al. reported the facet dependence of BiOCl with OVs for the photocatalytic decabromodiphenyl ether (BDE209) removal under irradiation (>360 nm) based on the 4.4× faster debromination of BDE209 on the (001) BiOCl reaction compared to that on (010) BiOCl under an oxygen-free environment. This is due to the abundant OVs on the (001) facet of BiOCl, which act as adsorption sites for BDE209 to achieve C-Br bond activation efficiently. The debromination of BDE209 on BOC with OVs is a position-selective reduction process because BDE207 showed the highest proportion in the first debromination products (Figure 6b).²⁶² The OV-tunable BiOCl nanosheets were synthesized by Song et al. via a facile hydrolysis approach. Under UV illumination, a linear relationship was achieved between the increased number of OVs in BiOCl and the photocatalytic degradation and defluorination of PFOA (TOC removal was 53% after 8 h). The OVs trapped photogenerated e/h carriers and provided sites benefiting direct h⁺ oxidation.²⁶³

Bulk iodine-doped BiOCl was prepared via a convenient molten salt method by Xu et al. by introducing iodine atoms and rich OVs in the bulk iodine-doped crystal structure BiOCl. It showed excellent visible light activity toward ciprofloxacin hydrochloride photodegradation (12× greater than pristine BiOCl). The photoelectrochemistry results have also confirmed higher e/h separation in BiOCl_{1-3x}I_{3x}.¹⁹⁷

Li et al. have fabricated OV-tunable and flower-like CNFs/BiOCl (BOC) composites with excellent visible light-driven photoactivity. The OVs produce defect energy levels, which optimize the energy band structure and accelerate the e/h separation. Superoxide radicals are the main radicals in the photocatalytic degradation based on radical quenching experiments under visible light illumination. Rate constants of BOC-0.5 toward RhB, TC, and phenol were 2.5×, 4.3×, and 5.6× greater than those of BOC, respectively, while they were 60.6×, 4.5×, and 5.8× those of the commercial TiO₂ (P25).²⁶⁴ The high oxygen density of BiOCl (001) facets resulted in fast OV generation in ethylene glycol under MW irradiation. The resulting BiOCl single-crystalline nanosheets with selectively deposited Ag showed much reactivity and stability on visible light Cr(VI) reduction and sodium pentachlorophenate oxidation compared to their randomly deposited counterparts. These are due to the tight contact between Ag and the BiOCl-(001) facets arising from OV-induced selective silver deposition.²⁶⁵ The OVs on the BiOCl-(001) facets nanosheets can activate more molecular oxygen for removing organic pollutants under solar light compared to their the TiO₂ counterparts. These OVs can be effectively refreshed by UV light and serve as the efficient absorption of visible light for activating molecular oxygen, accounting for their long-term stability and high efficiency.²⁶⁶ In another work, the Bi₂O₃-B₂O₃-ZnO-SrO-Na₂O (BBZSN) glass route was used to synthesize OV-enriched 3D BiOCl hierarchical structures with low e/h recombination and an adjustable band structure. They satisfactory degraded RhB under both ultraviolet light and visible light conditions.²⁶⁷

5.1.4.3. BiOBr. Solvothermally synthesized BiOBr microspheres containing OVs showed an excellent adsorption and photocatalytic prospects for TC removal in aqueous solutions using superoxide radicals as major reactive species produced in the BiOBr-OV suspension.²⁶⁸ In the presence of urea, hierarchical BiOBr microflowers containing OVs were solvothermally prepared by Song et al. The amount of urea was used as a tuning factor to control surface OVs. The hierarchical BiOBr microflower-OV system showed a higher RhB photodegradation extent than the BiOBr without oxygen vacancies.²⁶⁹

The excitonic effects mediated by Coulombic interactions in the photoinduced e/h pairs cause critical roles in photoinduced processes in heterogeneous semiconducting-based systems. Based on the results from Wang et al., dissociating excitons into charge carriers in BiOBr with the incorporation of OVs led to excellent futures in charge-carrier-involved photocatalytic reactions, like the production of superoxide radicals for selective organic synthesis under visible light irradiation.²⁷⁰

There are some reports of OV-containing BiOBr composites in photocatalytic reactions. For example, CC/BiOBr composite (CC = conductive carbon-modified) photocatalysts with a high surface area and high levels of induced OVs promoted e/h charge separation and superoxide production. Under simulated sunlight, these CC/BiOBr composites showed excellent RhB photodegradation compared to the BiOBr blank sample.²⁷¹ Also, a facile one-step solvothermal synthesis procedure has been used by Wang et al. to fabricate a novel OV-rich ultrathin sulfur-doped BiOBr nanosheet (BB-xS) as an active visible light system with an excellent degradation efficiency toward 4-chlorophenol (4-CP), as that of the optimal BB-5S sample was 4.9× and 18.0× greater than those of bare BiOBr and OV-poor sulfur-doped BiOBr, respectively. In its photocatalytic mechanism in Figure 6c, after the photoexcitation of electrons into the CB and the sub-band induced by the synergistic effect of S

doping and rich OV_s (narrowed the intrinsic E_g for visible light absorption), the electrons on the CB would also transfer into the sub-band and then to the surface to reduce the surface O₂ adsorbed (e^- is more negative than $E(O_2/O_2^-)$ (-0.33 eV vs NHE, pH = 7)). Meanwhile, the photoexcited holes (h^+) remain on the VB. In such a way, a spatially separated e/h can be obtained, leading to an enhanced separation efficiency for e/h. After that, the $\bullet OH$ is generated from $\bullet O_2^-$ with the assistance of e^- because the h^+ cannot directly oxidize hydroxyl anions from H₂O molecules to hydroxyl radicals due to the lower potential of h^+ compared to $E(\bullet OH/OH^-)$ ($+1.99$ eV vs NHE, pH = 7). Meanwhile, 4-CP can be directly oxidized by the holes to carbon dioxide and water.²⁷² Compared with pure BiOBr, Bi/BiOBr composites with OV_s synthesized via a simple combustion method showed a critically improved RhB photodegradation extent under visible light irradiation due to the surface plasma resonance effect, the electron sink effect of metallic Bi nanoparticles, and the narrowed band gap caused by the induced OV_s.²⁷³ Among a novel series of oxygen vacancy-rich ultrathin two-dimensional BiOBr_{*x*}I_{*1-x*} solid solution nanosheets (BBI-*x*) constructed in a one-step solvothermal process by Wang et al., the optimal BiOBr_{0.85}I_{0.15} sample (BBI-0.85) showed excellent visible light activity toward (4-chlorophenol, 4-CP_i) which was 4.4×, 10.9×, and 5.9× greater than those of pure BiOI nanosheets, pure BiOBr nanosheets, and oxygen vacancy-poor BiOBr_{0.85}I_{0.15} nanoplates, respectively. This improved efficiency is due to the synergistic effect of solid solution and OV_s.²⁷⁴

The critical enhancement in the visible light-driven photocatalytic future of a novel layered black phosphorus (BP)/BiOBr nanoheterojunction photocatalyst, which has unique band structures and chemically bonding interface, is related to the S-scheme formed between two-dimensional nanoheterojunctions with matched band structures, strong interfacial interactions, high redox, increased spatial e/h charge separation capability.²⁷⁵ A novel 3D flower-sphere BiOBr/Bi₄O₃Br₂ with proper-OV has been synthesized from 3D BiOBr as a self-sacrificing template, NaOH as a structure-driving reagent, and the midwifery agent of OV. The concentration of OV_s can be controlled via atmospheric conditions (N₂ or air). The synergistic enhancement of the BiOBr/Bi₄O₃Br₂-OV photoelectric activity due to the 3D hierarchical architectures, the optimal heterojunction composition, and proper OV concentrations, three positive factors, caused its ultrahigh photocatalytic activity toward antibiotic photodegradation (tetracycline (TC) and ciprofloxacin (CIP)).¹⁸⁵

In the solvothermally synthesized Bi-modified BiOB, surface OV_s were produced after annealing under an H₂ atmosphere. Both deposited Bi and OV_s enhanced the photocatalytic activity of H-1.0 Bi@BiOBr samples toward the degradation of RhB. The introduced impurity level by OV_s between the CB and VB narrows E_g , and the OV_s's role as the electron trapper improves the charge transport. Under the H200-1.0 Bi@BiOBr illumination, the photoexcited e^- from the VB to CB or OV states of BiOBr can be preferably transferred to the metallic Bi and OV_s rather than participating in recombination with holes.²⁷⁶

Few-layered structural BiOBr-OV showed improved photocatalytic activity for decomposition and oilfield-produced wastewater under visible light due to the ultrathin BiOBr-OV structure and expanded interlayers that generate rapid ROS.²⁷⁷

The hydrothermally prepared Bi-metal-modified defective Bi₅O₇Br nanotubes (Bi/Bi₅O₇Br-OV) showed boosted phenol

degradation, 3× higher than that of pristine Bi₅O₇Br. Based on DFT results, OV_s in Bi₅O₇Br could form an intermediate level, allowing the electron transfer to a new intermediate level and finally to the CB. Good solar light harvesting is related to the defects and Bi, while the enhanced electronic conductivity and the e/h separation are related to the increased and more dispersed charge density allowed. Furthermore, generating more $\bullet OH$ radicals improved the photocatalytic performance.²⁷⁸

5.1.4.4. BiOI. Another example of bismuth oxyhalide photocatalysts is bismuth oxyiodine. Huang et al. have reported an electroreduction strategy for improving the solar absorption and donor density of BiOI nanosheets by inducing OV_s. These OV_s caused an unexpected redshift of about 100 nm in the electronic band gap and a boosted photocatalytic activity 10× greater than that of the untreated BiOI nanosheets toward MO under visible light irradiation.²⁷⁹ In another work, the charge carrier dynamics of BiOI, like excitation, separation, trap, and transfer, have been improved by inducing OV_s and IO₃⁻ doping in BiOI nanosheets via adding NaH₂PO₂. This oxygen-deficient catalyst showed excellent boosted visible light photoactivity attractive toward gaseous formaldehyde degradation and MO (5× and 3.5× greater than the activity of the BiOI sample, respectively).¹⁹⁵ An ionic liquid [Emim]I-assisted solvothermal method has been used by Ji et al. to synthesize OV_s-rich Bi₇O₉I₃ microspheres; compared with the fewer oxygen vacancies in Bi₇O₉I₃-OVL, the up-shifted VBM position and more negative CBM potential of Bi₇O₉I₃-OVR caused better photo-oxidation power of photoinduced holes, stronger reduction power of transferred electrons, and higher e/h separation efficiency. The mechanism of boosted photocatalyst action is shown in Figure 6d.²⁸⁰

A facile one-pot solvothermal method was used by Liu et al. to fabricate metallic Bi-modified Bi₄O₃I₂ nanocomposites with OV_s with a dramatically increased photocatalytic activity for degrading BPA and MO under visible light irradiation. The synergistic effect of Bi metal and OV_s caused their efficient light harvesting and excellent e/h separation abilities (Figure 6e).²⁸¹

An OV-enriched BiOI-based Z-scheme 3D hierarchical MoS₂/BiOI/AgI ternary nanocomposite was synthesized via a simple precipitation process in ethylene glycol and water by Islam et al. The composite's OV_s in BiOI and the MoS₂ 2D-dimensional nature elongate the e/h lifetime via a Z-scheme pathway, enhancing the RhB photodegradation efficiency. The formation of OV_s has been confirmed by electron spin resonance (ESR) analysis (Figure 6f and g).²⁸²

5.1.4.5. Bi₂MoO₆. The boosted RhB photocatalytic degradation performance of a solvothermally synthesized Z-scheme-based heterojunction Ag and F codoped Bi₂MoO₆/reduced graphene oxide (Ag,F@BMO/rGO) photocatalysts have been related to codoping of F⁻ and Ag⁺ ions, which also caused a redshift in the absorption edge of nanocomposite and decreased the E_g from 2.78 to 2.6 eV due to the synergetic effects of surface plasmon resonance and surface OV_s induced by Ag⁺ and F⁻.¹⁹³ In the facile and scalable wet chemical synthesis of atomically thin Bi₂MoO₆ nanosheets (by Huang et al.), OV_s were inevitably introduced into the nanosheets as the thickness of the nanosheets exposed interior atoms (large surface area), enhancing charge transport and the photocatalytic activity toward phenol under visible light.¹⁹¹ In a similar work, plasmonic silver nanoparticles were deposited onto the Bi₂MoO₆ surface with surface OV_s to fabricate a heterostructure Ag/Bi₂MoO_{6-x} (Ag/BMO_{6-x}) photocatalyst for RhB photodegradation. Compared to BMO, Ag/BMO, and BMO_{6-x} its

boosted catalytic activity illustrates the increased effect of the SOVs, the SPR of Ag NPs, and the unique metal–semiconductor junction.²⁸³

A novel heterostructured composite of Fe(III) cluster-grafted Bi₂MoO₆ nanosheets with surface OVs (F/BMO-SOVs) was synthesized by calcination and impregnation approaches as a visible-light-active system for phenol degradation. The dramatically enhanced activity (80× greater than that of pure Bi₂MoO₆) is due to the synergistic effect between the SOVs, Fe(III) clusters, and Bi₂MoO₆. These factors, in addition to the created narrow band gap, facilitate the direct interfacial charge transfer (IFCT) from the SOVs to the surface Fe(III) clusters, promoting the efficient e/h separation (Figure 7a).²⁸⁴

5.1.4.6. BiVO₄. A reduced dimension BiVO₄ nanosheet with sufficient OV concentration and exposed (001) crystal facets has been fabricated Xu et al. for oxytetracycline removal. The highest OVs density with the best photocurrent (1.083 mA/cm² in the LSV) belongs to the BiVO₄ lamella within a thickness of 10 nm (tBV200), which showed better OTC degradation (95.8%) and TOC removal (89.55%) compared with hBV200.²⁸⁵ In MB photodegradation by the visible-light-active BiVO₄/TiO₂ heterojunction composites, the catalyst with 2 wt % BiVO₄ loading showed higher photocatalytic activity than both pure BiVO₄ and TiO₂. The surface OV concentration created by the constructed junction creates an acceptor energy level into the TiO₂ VB (Figure 7b).²⁸⁶

5.1.4.7. Bi₂WO₆. Some Bi₂WO₆ visible-light-active photocatalysts with gradient OV concentrations have been constructed by Yang et al. for degrading decabromodiphenyl ether BDE209. Among the BWO-*x* (*x* = 0, 250, 400, and 550) materials, the highest BDE209 degradation rate was exhibited by BWO-250 with good light stability even after four reusing runs.²⁸⁷ OV-controllable hydrogen reduction-prepared Bi₂WO_{6-x} nanoplates have been introduced by Lv et al., with a wide range of visible photoresponses from 450 nm to more than 600 nm. Bi₂WO_{6-x} showed increased photocatalytic activity, 2.1× greater than that of pristine Bi₂WO₆, because generated surface OV states above and partly overlapping with the VB will result in the increase of the VB maximum, thus broadening the VB width and enhancing the photoactivity.²⁸⁸ In another work, hydrothermally prepared Bi-doped Bi₂WO_{6-x} with sufficient OVs were synthesized by Huang et al. OVs and metallic Bi were selectively induced in Bi₂WO₆ nanostructures by adjusting the reaction time and Bi/W molar ratio of the precursors. The boosted activity of Bi/Bi₂WO_{6-x} in the photodegradation of BPA and its analogs has been related to its capability to generate a high amount of singlet oxygen (¹O₂) as the main reactive oxygen species. The ¹O₂ concentration depended on the content of OVs and metallic bismuth.²⁸⁹

5.1.4.8. BiO_{2-x}. Compared to bulk BiO_{2-x}, The vacancy-rich monolayer BiO_{2-x} (monolayer BiO_{2-x}) showed an enhanced PhB and phenol photocatalytic degradation extent in UV–vis and NIR regions of light due to the associated VBi-O^{'''} vacancy, as proved by the positron annihilation spectra.¹³³ In other work, a Z-scheme OV-right BiO_{1-x}Br/Bi₂O₂CO₃ photocatalyst has been prepared via a facile time-dependent procedure and used for visible light photodegradation of some antibiotics like CIP, 4-MAA, etc. The electron mediator OVs significantly promoted the e/h separation, and the increased redox ability produced a superoxide radical ([•]O₂⁻) on the CB of BiO_{1-x}Br and a hydroxyl radical ([•]OH) on the VB of Bi₂O₂CO₃. In a direct Z-scheme mechanism shown in Figure 7c, both BiO_{1-x}Br and Bi₂O₂CO₃ phases could be photoexcited to form e/h pairs. Via the OVs

intermediate (electron mediator), excited electrons in the CB of Bi₂O₂CO₃ transfer to holes in BiO_{1-x}Br, preserving the strong electron reducibility in the CB of BiO_{1-x}Br and the substantial oxidant holes in the VB of Bi₂O₂CO₃.²⁹⁰

5.1.4.9. BiPO₄. The N-doped carbon quantum dots (N-CQDs)/BiPO₄ materials were synthesized by Di et al. by an ionic liquid-assisted solvothermal procedure, which showed increased activity for degrading four kinds of antibiotics, including ciprofloxacin, enrofloxacin, tetracycline, and phenol 4-chlorophenol. This is due to the molecular oxygen activation ability of N-CQDs induced by the surface OVs of N-CQDs.²⁹¹ In a similar work, highly dispersed BiPO₄ with surface OVs synthesized by Wei et al. via a solvothermal–calcination method showed enhanced activity more than twice that of Degussa P25 due to the OVs. It is uniformly distributed in water for over 3 days due to the formation of an organic layer on the BiPO₄ surface via the solvothermal approach. This results in maintaining good contact between BiPO₄ and the pollutants. The induced OVs, at 450 °C, separated e/h pairs in the photoexcited BiPO₄ and improved the photocatalytic activity.²⁹²

5.1.4.10. Bi₂O₃. Recently, the enhanced photoelectrochemical properties of an infrared rapid thermal annealing-synthesized MOF-derived Bi₂O₃@C with rich OVs prepared by Zou et al. have been related to the increased number of effective reactive sites and rich OVs, high harvesting of light energy, and excellent electron transfer. It showed 88% TC photodegradation efficiency after irradiation of 5 W LED for 120 min.²⁹³ A large-scale porous Bi₂O₃ has been prepared by Wang et al. via etching commercial BiSn powders, followed by an air thermal treatment, and the sample has excellent stability in MB photocatalytic degradation process. The suitable band structure of porous Bi₂O₃ generated [•]O₂⁻ and [•]OH reactive species toward MB photodegradation.²⁹⁴ The surface-rich OV Bi/α-Bi₂O₃ NPs loaded on g-C₃N₄ nanosheets via a calcination–photoreduction technique (Bi/α-Bi₂O₃/g-C₃N₄, labeled as BBC) also showed a boosted visible light photocatalytic activity (TC, 90.2%; RhB, 95.6%) because of the synergistic effect of surface OVs and Bi NPs.²⁹⁵

An oxygen-vacancy-rich MoS₂/Bi₂O₃ Z-scheme heterojunction catalyst (2-BO-MS) has been used for crystal violet photocatalytic degradation. The XPS, XRD, and HRTEM results confirmed the vital roles of OVs, enhanced strong MoS₂–Bi₂O₃ interfacial interaction, and specific surface area in the enhanced activity of the system compared to the individual systems.²⁹⁶ In another study, novel mesoporous ternary hybrids comprised of Bi₂O₃/V₂O₅ photocatalysts anchored on g-C₃N₄ nanosheets (denoted as BiV) have been synthesized by Vattikuti et al. via an in situ copyrolysis approach and used in the visible light photodegradation of phenol red (PR). The improved efficiency was 1.2× and 1.8× greater than those of binary BiV and pristine Bi₂O₃, respectively, due to the highly dispersed V₂O₅ and Bi₂O₃ NPs, mesoporous structure, and high specific surface area.²⁹⁷

A core–shell heterostructured CdWO₄/Bi₂O₂CO₃ photocatalyst fabricated in a two-step hydrothermal procedure by Yang et al. in a facile process showed much superior RhB, MB, methyl orange (MO), and phenol photodegradation efficiencies compared with individual CdWO₄ and Bi₂O₂CO₃. The defect levels in the band gap induced by OVs, which increase the visible light harvesting intimate interfacial core–shell heterostructure interactions, and the formation of n–n junction between the CdWO₄ and Bi₂O₂CO₃ are the main factors for this boosted catalytic effect.²⁹⁸

$\text{Bi}_4\text{Ti}_3\text{O}_{12}$ nanosheets with tunable OV concentrations were fabricated via a modified molten salt procedure and used to investigate the effect of OVs on piezo-photocatalytic RhB dye degradation. OVs induced increased adsorption energy, and Bader charges caused an enhanced charge transfer between $\text{O}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{Bi}_4\text{Ti}_3\text{O}_{12}$. The facilitated catalytic process by the piezo-photocatalytic degradation mechanism is presented in Figure 7d.²⁹⁹

5.1.5. Oxygen Vacancy-Mediated Photocatalysis of Iron-Based Oxides. Some iron-based composites with various Fe loadings have been widely used as catalysts in the degradation of various organic pollutants. For example, OV-rich calcium-doped $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ($\text{Ca}\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$) was synthesized by the Wang research group via a scalable precipitation–calcination procedure as a cost-effective and eco-friendly photocatalyst to activate peroxymonosulfate (PMS) for wastewater purification. 5% $\text{Ca}\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ showed sound RhB degradation compared to the pure $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ due to its increased effective surface area, OV content, and better electrical conductivity (Figure 7e).³⁰⁰ Similarly, metal-ion-involved hydrothermal and high-temperature hydrogenation techniques were used by Ren et al. to fabricate the defect-engineered magnetic $\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ultrathin nanosheet/mesoporous black TiO_2 hollow sphere heterojunctions ($\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3/\beta\text{-TiO}_2$), which showed a faster TC degradation rate with an apparent rate constant (k) $\sim 3\times$ higher than that of $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3/\beta\text{-TiO}_2$. The narrow bandgap and unit cell thickness of the $\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ nanosheets, the hollow structure, and defect engineering are the main factors for the sample's solar-light-harvesting property, rapid electron transport, and spatial e/h separation (Figure 7f).³⁰¹

Recently, the thermal-aging-synthesized MOF-derived CoFe_2O_4 nanomaterial series with tuned OVs were used for peroxymonosulfate (PMS) activation with a boosted activity regarding the large surface OV and CoFe_2O_4 functional groups.³⁰² In a similar work, the role of OVs in $\text{CoFe}_2\text{O}_{4-x}$ in activating persulfate (PS) toward BPA degradation was investigated. OVs enhanced electronic transfer and the redox cycle from $\text{Co}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{3+}$ to $\text{Co}^{2+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ to generate $^1\text{O}_2$ and $^{\bullet}\text{O}_2^-$.³⁰³

Hollow sphere CuFe_2O_4 with OVs, as a novel heterogeneous Fenton-like catalyst, showed excellent H_2O_2 catalytic activation (to produce more $^{\bullet}\text{OH}$) via changing surface electronic structure, inducing the formation of highly active electron-rich Cu(I) species, and providing additional active sites by OVs. The hollow structure grasped and enriched organic molecules, while $^{\bullet}\text{OH}$ made them contact each other fully, ultimately accelerating pollutant degradation.³⁰⁴ The incorporation of nonreducible metal oxides MxOy ($\text{M} = \text{Mg}, \text{Zn}, \text{Ca}, \text{Ba}, \text{Al}$) onto CuO hybrid magnetic nano-ferric oxide ($\text{Cu}@\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$) can change the persulfate activation mechanism pathway to increase the acetaminophen degradation rate. Added M led to surface OV formation and raised the zero-point charge (pHpzc) of $\text{CuM}@ \text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ for enhanced PMS adsorption and activation. Also, it enhanced the surface formation of a new Cu species (Cu^{3+}) on $\text{CuM}@ \text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$, which then participated in the singlet oxygen generation.³⁰⁵

It has been confirmed that OVs in a magnesium-doped hematite ($\text{Mg}/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$) catalyst are activated (PMS) for remediating organic pollutants. Incorporated Mg critically increased the OV content and specific surface area of 5% $\text{Mg}/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$, causing increase activity in the degradation of RhB with vital roles of $^1\text{O}_2$ and $^{\bullet}\text{O}_2^-$ instead of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and $^{\bullet}\text{OH}$.¹⁹⁶ OV-enriched $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ was prepared from thermally treated goethite ($\alpha\text{-FeOOH}$) by Qin et al. and used as a PMS activator for the

oxidation of sulfamethoxazole (SMX). The extraordinary SMX degradation rate depended on the OV concentration.³⁰⁶

5.1.6. Oxygen Vacancy-Mediated Photocatalysis of Other Metal Oxides.
5.1.6.1. CeO_2 . The defective Sm-doped CeO_2 nanorods ($\text{OV}\text{-Sm}\text{-CeO}_2$) were used by Yang et al. in visible light MB photodegradation of methyl blue, with a boosted effect compared to CeO_2 nanorods and $\text{Sm}\text{-CeO}_2$. The essential reactive species were $^{\bullet}\text{OH}$, $^{\bullet}\text{O}_2^-$, and h^+ , confirmed via electron spin resonance spectroscopy.³⁰⁷ Recently, in an enriched OVs AgI/ CeO_2 heterojunction, the promoted e/h separation and transfer led to efficient photocatalytic O_2 activation. The TC photodegradation rate constant of AgI (5%)/ CeO_2 was about $3\times$ and $47\times$ higher than those of CeO_2 and AgI, respectively (the mechanism in Figure 8a and b).³⁰⁸ The enhanced photoactivity of the precipitation–sonication-prepared BiOI/ CeO_2 nanocomposite series has also been related to excess surface OVs of the nanocomposite compared to CeO_2 and better e/h separation through the Z-scheme a mechanism.³⁰⁹

The presence of surface OVs in the defected $\text{CeO}_2\text{-AgI}$ was confirmed by XPS, which extended the e/h lifetime and resulted in a boosted photocatalytic activity for the degradation of organic dyes, such as RhB, based on Z-scheme phenomena.³¹⁰

5.1.6.2. Co_3O_4 . The oxygen-deficient $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{WO}_3$ nanocomposite showed excellent activity toward sodium diclofenac (DFC) degradation by photoinduced hydroxyl radicals. Formation of a monoclinic WO_3 phase and a p-n heterojunction (maximizes the generation of hydroxyl radicals), high e/h separation, strong visible light harvesting, and a strong catalyst–pollutant interaction in basic media are the main factors for this boosted photocatalytic activity. Figure 8c and d show the metal oxide semiconductor interaction (an important factor in decreasing Co_3O_4 NPs leaching in the solution), the improved CW_2 nanocomposite activity, and the charge transfer in the nanocomposite.³¹¹

5.1.6.3. SnO_{2-x} . Efficient OV defect engineering was done into the hydrothermally etched synthesized Zn_2SnO_4 (ZSO) NPs in a dilute acetic acid solution to obtain the ultrafine particle size SnO_{2-x} NPs. The synergistic RhB photodegradation effect is related to the increased active sites, intensified visible light harvesting, and the e/h separation rate induced by the OV defect engineering.³¹² Among some one-step hydrothermally synthesized enriched OV tin dioxide (SnO_{2-x}) nanocrystals, the highest MO photodegradation efficiency was observed for SnO_{2-x} prepared at 80°C under UV–visible light due to its high OV concentration (Figure 8e). The active $^{\bullet}\text{O}_2^-$ radical as the main reactive species that governed the SnO_{2-x} nanocrystals activity was produced by the electron-trapping and O_2 -adsorbing roles of OVs (Figure 8f).³¹³ The sol–gel-synthesized single-phase undoped and Sr-doped SnO_2 NPs ($\text{Sn}_{1-x}\text{Sr}_x\text{O}_2$ NPs) were tested for MB and Dinoseb photodegradation under UV light. Based on the XPS, SXAS, and PL data, the highest activity of $\text{Sn}_{0.95}\text{Sr}_{0.05}\text{O}_2$ was related to the presence of OVs, which led to the reduced band gap (Figure 8g).³¹⁴

5.1.6.4. WO_3 . WO_3 ultrathin surface-engineered nanosheets were fabricated solvothermally via low-temperature surface hydrogenation reduction. Their bandgap decreased to 2.48 eV because the induced surface OVs enhanced the visible light harvesting toward the photocatalytic degradation of the highly toxic metribuzin herbicide (100%). Suitable surface OVs promoted the e/h separation, accompanied by the two-dimensional ultrathin structure, facilitating the engineering of surfaces and furnishing many surface-active sites (Figure 8h).³¹⁵

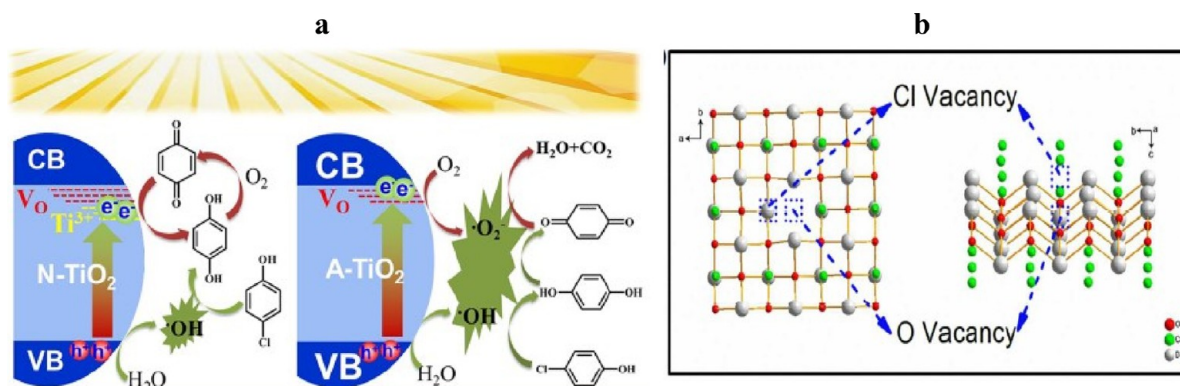


Figure 9. (a) Proposed mechanism of visible-light-irradiated A-TiO₂ and N-TiO₂.³²⁵ Reprinted with permission from ref 325. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society. (b) BiO_{1-x}Cl_{1-y} crystal structures.³²⁶ Reprinted with permission from ref 326. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

5.1.6.5. In₂O₃. In the work reported by Wan et al., the photocatalytic dehalogenation of decabromodiphenyl ether and hexabromobenzene by In₂O₃ strongly depended on the proton trapping enhanced by the induced OV. The enhanced OV concentration critically trapped photoinduced electrons and protons, improved their transfer efficiency, accelerated the e/h separation, and enhanced the In₂O₃ photocatalytic activity in the PCET reactions.³¹⁶ An electrospinning and thermal treatment method under an NH₃ atmosphere was used to fabricate the nitrogen-doped In₂O₃ (N-In₂O₃) nanofibers. Its improved the visible light RhB photodegradation rate compared with that of pure In₂O₃ nanofibers can be attributed to the nitrogen atom introduced at interstitial sites and the generated surface OVs.³¹⁷

A novel shape-controlled Cu₂O/reduced graphene oxide/In₂O₃ (Cu₂O/RGO/In₂O₃) OV-enriched hybrid was synthesized by Liu et al., via a facile, surfactant-free procedure with an excellent activity toward water oxidation and MB degradation compared with pure In₂O₃ and Cu₂O. As shown in Figure 8i, the In₂O₃/Cu₂O heterojunction and induced OVs induce extra diffusive electronic states above the VB edge and reduce the hybrid band gap. Other reasons for this boosted activity are the alignment of band edge due to the different Fermi levels between In₂O₃ and Cu₂O and the charge transfer and distribution onto the graphene sheets, resulting in the downshift of VB of In₂O₃ and its critical enhanced oxidation potential.³¹⁸ A fabricated 2D/2D NiFe-LDH/Ti₃C₂Tx MXene heterojunction synthesized through a one-step hydrothermal method was obtained from the Ni/Fe molar ratio of 4:1 and an MXene loading amount of 40 mg of photodegraded 98% norfloxacin (NOR) in 4 h, with a 3.8× faster rate than bare NiFe-LDH nanosheets. The NiFe-LDH OVs facilitate the e/h separation, where the NiFe-LDH electrons are transferred to Ti₃C₂Tx s-MXene, forming a Schottky barrier at the interface of the two components.³¹⁹ A series of carbon-based defect-rich bimetallic oxides with OVs derived from peroxydisulfate (PMS) were used for PMS activation to degrade 4-aminobenzoic acid ethyl ester (ABEE). FeMn1-Fe NC showed higher catalytic degradation by generating sulfate, hydroxyl radicals, superoxide radicals, and singlet oxygen.³²⁰

Room temperature ferromagnetic (RTFM) ZrO₂ nanostructures with tetragonal (t-ZrO₂) and monoclinic (m-ZrO₂) phases were synthesized via a sol-gel procedure by Kumar et al. The saturation magnetization and calcination temperature variations changed the emission band intensity in the same trend. The presence of RTFM and decrease in emission band intensity is

caused by density change of the OVs with the calcination temperature. OVs are the main factor for the ZrO₂ nanostructures' enhanced photocatalytic activity.³²¹

A SrTiO₃ surface modified by ethanol quenching with enhanced visible light photocatalytic performance toward RhB was prepared by preheating SrTiO₃ nanocrystals to 800 °C and immediately quenching them by submersion in ethanol. Upon this rapid ethanol quenching, a high level of surface OVs were induced due to the interaction between hot SrTiO₃ and ethanol. The induced localized states in the modified SrTiO₃ band gap due to OVs acted as photoinduced charge traps to promote photocatalytic activity.³²² The prepared surface OV-rich ZnFe_{0.8}Co_{0.4}O_{2.4} NPs with high activity for degrading refractory pollutants by PMS activation ([O₃SO₁O_{II}H]⁻) could be adsorbed and trapped by the surface OVs in the form of O_I-OV or O_{II}-OV. Metal Co sites adsorbed pollutant molecules predominantly, in which metal species captured their electrons and then transferred them to the surface OVs, achieving efficient electron recycling in the aqueous suspensions.³²³

A summary of the roles of defects in different photocatalysts is shown in Table 1.

6. SYNERGETIC EFFECT OF DUAL DEFECTS

In some cases, outstanding photocatalytic performances were achieved due to the coexistence of dual-defect heterojunction photocatalysts. For instance, the OV-enriched TiO₂ hierarchical microspheres were modified with ultrathin sulfur vacancy-enriched MoS_{2-x} nanosheets to fabricate MoS_{2-x}@TiO_{2-OV} as a dual-defect heterojunction photocatalyst. It could mineralize some refractory pollutants in a simulated pharmaceutical wastewater sample. This unique interface modulates synergistic structural and distribution of defect sites with energy recovery. Based on the computational studies, this dual defect favors the adsorption of H⁺ and •OH production and boosts the e/h separation and transfer efficiencies.³²⁴

Under various calcination atmospheres, defective anatase TiO₂ nanocrystals were fabricated by Xu et al. via a simple controllable chemical deposition procedure, where the presence of both OVs and Ti³⁺ defects in TiO₂ after N₂ treatment (N-TiO₂) were proven by XPS and ESR analysis, while only the OVs were present in air-calcined TiO₂ (A-TiO₂). ESR spectra confirmed the efficient activation of oxygen molecules to •O₂⁻ species under visible light for A-TiO₂, hindering the accumulation of intermediates in *p*-chlorophenol (4-CP) photodegradation critically. A-TiO₂ obtained a higher e/h

separation than N-TiO₂, proving the vital role of suitable concentration of OV in e/h transfer (Figure 9a).³²⁵

An in situ oxygen and chlorine dual-vacancy in BiOCl (BiO_{1-x}Cl_{1-y}) has been reported by Li et al. as a cost-effective green and scalable nature-derived reduction strategy with the extracted solution of green tea and spinach. These induced defects critically ameliorated the crystal and electronic band structure and surface state, enhanced photoabsorption, and improved surface charge transfer efficiency (11-fold enhancement). Profiting from these merits, it revealed excellent photocatalytic oxidation ability for selective CO₂ reduction into CO. The continuous adjustable photoresponse and defect level of BiO_{1-x}Cl_{1-y} were regulated by extract concentration adjustment, which balances photoabsorption and photoredox driving force (Figure 9b).³²⁶ Both theoretical calculations and experimental observations confirmed the high density of the high energy surface (100) in Bi₂WO₆ nano-bipyramid because of its induced defects, i.e., “Bi–O” vacancy pairs, as a critical factor for its increase in solar-light harvesting. Thus, Bi₂WO₆'s chemical and electronic structures, the e/h separation efficiency, and solar light harvesting via its narrowed band gap energy were improved due to the presence of vacancy pairs. The findings give us insights into achieving more suitable photoactivity mechanisms by elucidating the reactive surface-enhanced photochemical reactivity relationship for designing and fabricating sensitive catalysts.³²⁷

7. CONCLUSION OR SUMMARY AND OUTLOOK

In recent years, a promising method to enhance the photocatalytic activity of semiconducting materials in energy-related applications is inducing and engineering anionic vacancies in the proposed photocatalyst. This Review illustrates the fundamental roles of anionic vacancies in the photocatalytic process. Further, the rational design of anionic vacancies of photocatalysts was also summarized. Then, we focused on the effects of oxygen vacancies, and the effects of various OV factors, such as their distribution, concentrations, and the bulk and surface OVs, were illustrated on the multiple characteristics of photocatalysts, including electronic configuration, e/h transport characteristics, optical absorbance, and the appearance of ferromagnetic response. Progress in this field can enhance the understanding of OV defects, help us better design the related materials, secure clean energy, and lead to critical progress in environmental applications.

In general, the stability of the catalysts is of great importance from a practical application point of view. Thus, some high-cost, large E_g , and low-activity effective area common photocatalysts may not be beneficial practically. Accordingly, constructing vacancy-defected photocatalysts, especially the engineered ones, with excellent stability and cost-effective systems is promising for widespread application in large-scale wastewater treatment processes. Some requirements of the perfect material for vacancy engineering are visible light harvesting with high conversion of solar-conversion energy, suitable E_g structure for redox processes, high photostability for elongated applications, and commercial scalability.

The decisive impact of OVs on molecular activation and subsequent reaction pathways is because of their direct interactions with molecules. Beyond modulating the semiconductor's electronic structure, OVs give an effective strategy for maneuvering molecular adsorption/activation in the photodegradation reaction. The anionic/cationic vacancies can shape the band structure by forming intraband gap states and acting as

e/h trapping sites.³²⁸ Thus, from a theoretical and technological point of view, understanding the vacancy's roles in charge transport is of great importance to designing practical advanced materials.³²⁹

Despite the various reported works on the OVs engineering photocatalysis, it still comes with multiple challenges and is in an infant stage. The first challenge is the poor stability of OVs under the reaction conditions. For example, under prolonged air exposure, an OV is rapidly occupied by oxygen or water molecules, losing its activity. This emphasizes the importance of constructing catalysts with stable or recyclable defects for practical photodegradation applications. Another open question is the pathways in which the defects affect the photophysical features (e.g., carrier lifetime and diffusion length, and photoluminescence intensity) and photocatalytic performance and selectivity. Thus, deep DFT calculations have been aimed at the experimental results to facilitate the design of defective compounds with better activity.

Further, the relaxation dynamics of the polarons bound to OV with a key role in defect engineering have not been fundamentally investigated yet. So far, more works focused on the direct roles of OVs as active sites to improve photocatalytic efficiency with no essential characterizations, and no detailed attention has been paid to the effects of OVs at the atomic or molecular level and constructing the structure–activity relationship. A critical step for photocatalytic application is the large-scale construction of defective metal oxides. In general, a cheaper, simpler, and industrial OV introduction strategy is urgently needed due to most existing defect engineering methods being complex, unsafe, and unsuitable for mass production.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsomega.3c07560>.

A literature survey of oxygen vacancy research between 2015 and 2024 from Scopus (PDF)

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Notes

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ABBREVIATIONS

AOP	Advanced oxidation process
A-TiO ₂	Anatase TiO ₂
ABEE	4-Aminobenzoic acid ethyl ester
BP	Black phosphorus
BB	BiOBr
BBI	BiOBr _x I _{1-x}
BOC	BiOCl
PDS	Peroxydisulfate
BBZSN	Bi ₂ O ₃ -B ₂ O ₃ -ZnO-SrO-Na ₂ O
BPA	Bisphenol A
BT	Brookite TiO ₂
B-TiO ₂	Black TiO ₂
DFT	Density functional theory
4-CP	4-Chlorophenol
CC	Conductive carbon
CBM	Conduction band minimum
RDC	Dual reaction center
BDE	Decabromo diphenyl ether
ERS	Electron spin resonance
ZnO-F	Fructose-regulated ZnO
g-C ₃ N ₄	Graphitic carbon nitride
IFCT	Interfacial charge transfer
MB	Methylene blue
MO	Methyl orange
NCs	Nanocrystals
NPs	Nanoparticles
N-In ₂ O ₃	Nitrogen-doped In ₂ O ₃
NOR	Norfloxacin
OV	Oxygen vacancy
PEC	Photoelectrochemical
PS	Persulfate
PMS	Peroxymonosulfate
PCPNa	Pentachlorophenol sodium
PR	Phenol red
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
RGO	Reduced graphene oxide
RGO	Rhodamine B
RTFM	Room temperature ferromagnetic
R-TiO ₂	Rutile TiO ₂
¹ O ₂	Singlet oxygen
SOSs	Strong oxidizing species
SMX	Sulfamethoxazole
TC	Tetracycline
V _{Ti}	Ti vacancy
TOC	Total organic carbon
V	Vacancy
VBM	Valence band maximum
VOCs	Volatile organic compounds
W-TiO ₂	White TiO ₂
pHpzc	Zero-point charge
Zn _i	Zinc interstitial
ZSO	Zn ₂ SnO ₄

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