



Research article

Self-doping synthesis of nano-TiO₂ with outstanding antibacterial properties under visible light

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Self-doping

Nano-TiO₂

Visible light

Antibacterial

ABSTRACT

Nano-TiO₂ photocatalysis technology has attracted wide attention because of its safety, non-toxicity and long-lasting performance. However, traditional nano-TiO₂ has been greatly limited in its application because its wide band gap can only be activated by ultraviolet light ($\lambda < 387$ nm). In this paper, nano-TiO₂ was prepared by self-doping method. The synthesized nano-TiO₂ was a single anatase crystal type with a particle size of 10 nm and uniform size. In addition, nano-TiO₂ has high stability and good dispersion. More importantly, nano-TiO₂ exhibits excellent visible light (400–780 nm) activity due to the decrease of bandgap from 3.20 eV to 1.80 eV (less than 2.0 eV) and the presence of a large number of hydroxyl groups on the surface of the nanoparticles. In the antibacterial test, the antibacterial rate of both E.coli and S.aureus was close to 100 % under the irradiation of household low-power LED lamps, showing excellent antibacterial performance, indicating that the prepared nano-TiO₂ has broad application prospects in the field of bactericidal and bacteriostatic.

1. Introduction

It is indeed true that since the outbreak of COVID-19, there have been an increased focus on anti-viral and anti-bacterial technologies [1]. The development of various antibacterial materials, including polymer antibacterial agents and inorganic antibacterial agents, can be seen as a response to this need. Researchers are working to find more effective and safer ways to protect people from pathogenic bacteria and viruses [2,3].

Polymer antibacterial agents [4,5], such as quaternary amine salt polymeric materials [6,7], have been widely used due to their fast effect and high sterilization rate. However, bacterial resistance has made it difficult for traditional polymer antibacterial agents to persistently harm bacteria. On the other hand, inorganic antibacterial agents, including metal ion type [8,9] and photocatalytic type [10–13], have also gained popularity due to their fast effect and no drug resistance. Metal ion type, such as Ag⁺ [14–19], is commonly used; however, there is a hidden danger of secondary harm from metal ions, and the antibacterial performance was weakened with the

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2024.e32356>

Received 6 February 2024; Received in revised form 17 April 2024; Accepted 3 June 2024

Available online 13 June 2024

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release of metal ions. Photocatalytic antibacterial agents, such as nano-TiO₂, are known for their stable and long-lasting antibacterial performance.

In recent years, nano-TiO₂ has been broadly applied in the antibacterial field due to its photocatalytic activity [20–23]. Rahmah [24] prepared TiO₂/graphene nanostructures by combining hydrothermal method with Nd-YAG laser, the sample colloids had a negative electrical charge on their surface, with a zeta potential of around (−16.7) mV. The antibacterial tests showed that TiO₂/graphene nanostructure had a good inhibitory effect on Staphylococcus aureus and Escherichia coli bacteria with inhibition zones of 36 and 29 mm, respectively. Awan et al. [25] synthesized pure TiO₂ and MnTiO₂ nanoparticles using the defect-oriented hydrothermal method, MnTiO₂-NPs showed significantly higher photocatalytic activity than pure TiO₂. The antibacterial activity was also tested against E. coli and S. aureus, MnTiO₂-NPs shows superior antibacterial efficacy than pure TiO₂. Rilda et al. [26] prepared ZnO–TiO₂ nanorods with route precipitation and sintering at 600 °C, then ZnO–TiO₂ was coated on cotton cloth using a dip-spin method. The improvement of Pseudomonas aeruginosa antibacterial properties in the textiles with coating had an inhibition zone of 20.5–25.0 mm and 16.2 mm without the coating, which could be successfully applied to improve the antibacterial properties of textiles.

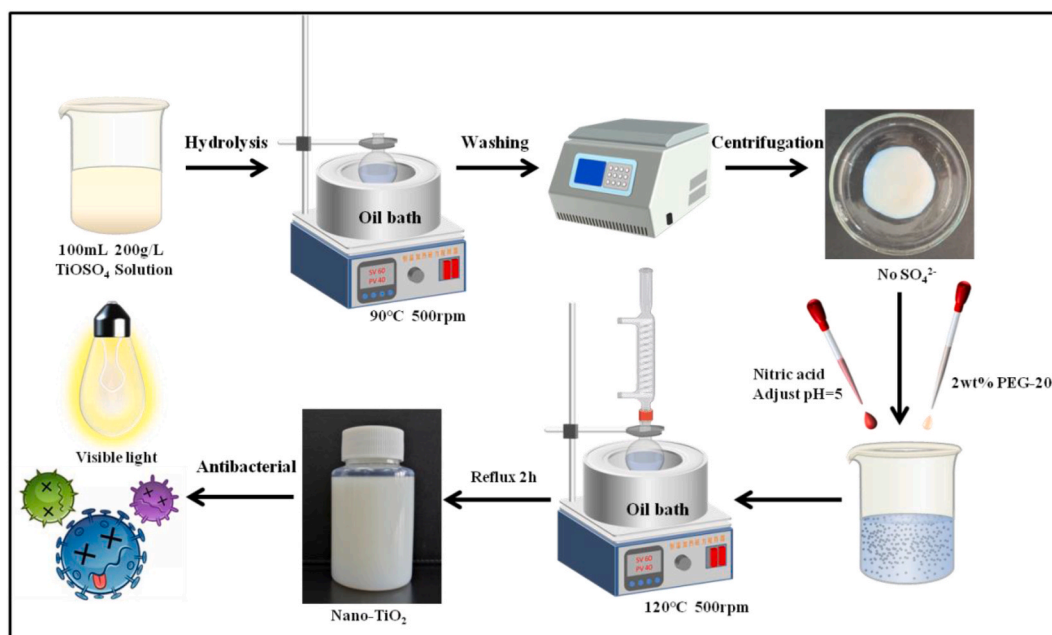
Nevertheless, there are two main problems limiting the further development of this technology. First, most nano-TiO₂ preparation technologies result in nano-TiO₂ powders, such as sol-gel method [27,28], precipitation method [29], hydrothermal method [30,31], etc. However, nano-TiO₂ powders are difficult to be dispersed and used in late applications, especially in large-scale industrial production applications. In addition, nano-TiO₂ powder is easy to agglomerate during storage and lose the characteristics of nano-materials. Second, in the existing nano-TiO₂ doping modification [32,33] and self-doping methods [34,35], due to the difficulty in reducing the band gap below 2.0 eV, its visible light activity is not high, so that some papers, when describing its application in visible light, can only use hundreds of watts of high-power lamp irradiation to achieve certain effect [36–39]. So the practical value is too low.

Herein, we prepared nano-TiO₂ by self-doping method, as shown in Scheme 1. This method not only solved problems related to practical application and poor long-term storage stability, but also provided a good visible light activity and excellent antibacterial properties under the irradiation of household low-power LED lamps.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Materials

Titanium (IV) oxysulfate-sulfuric acid hydrate (purity 93 %) and polyethylene glycol 200 (PEG-200, AR) were purchased from Macklin (Shanghai, China). Barium hydroxide (Ba(OH)₂, AR), Benzoquinone were purchased from Aladdin (Shanghai, China). Nitric acid (HNO₃, AR) was purchased from Tianjin Damao Chemical Reagent Factory. Commercially nano-TiO₂ (VK-TA15) was purchased from Xuancheng Jingrui New Material Co., LTD. Methylene blue (MB, AR) was supplied by Tianjin Tianxin Fine Chemical Development Center. Red ink (M&G brand) was purchased from Shanghai M&G Stationery Co., LTD. Isopropyl alcohol (AR) was purchased from Ruishengxiang. EDTA disodium salt was purchased from Guangzhou chemical reagent factory. Silver nitrate was purchased from sinopharm group chemical reagent Co., LTD. All of materials without further processing.



Scheme 1. The nano-TiO₂ with antibacterial activity under visible light was prepared by self-doping method.

2.2. Preparation of nano-TiO₂ and characterization

Nano-TiO₂ was prepared in two steps by self-doping method. In the first step, a titanium oxide sulfate solution (20 mL, 200 g/L) was added into 20 mL deionized water at 90 °C and stirred at 500 rpm until a light blue material appeared. Then, another titanium oxide sulfate solution (80 mL, 200 g/L) was quickly poured in and stirred for 30 min. Finally, the resulting solution was washed with water to remove sulfate ions [40], and tested for residual sulfate ions with barium hydroxide. Then pure titanium hydroxide was separated by centrifugation at 3000 rpm. For the second step, the above centrifuged titanium hydroxide was dispersed into 100 mL deionized water and adjusted to pH = 5 with nitric acid, and 2 wt% of PEG-200 was added as dispersant. Then, the solution was placed in an oil bath at 120 °C for condensation reflux 2 h for crystallization. Finally, nano-TiO₂ solution was obtained (Fig. 1a).

The morphology of nano-TiO₂ was obtained by field emission scanning electron microscope (SEM, Zeiss Gemini 300), and transmission electron microscope (TEM, Talos L120C). X-ray diffraction (XRD, D8 Advance) measurements were performed to verify the crystal structure of nano-TiO₂ at a scanning rate of 1° min⁻¹ in the 2θ range from 20° to 80°, with graphite monochromatized Cu Kα radiation. Moreover, Raman spectrometer (RS, Renishaw invia) was used to study the crystal type.

2.3. The photocatalytic activity of nano-TiO₂ and its mechanism

The photocatalytic activity test of nano-TiO₂ involved three parameters: visible light catalytic activity, the durability of its performance and the stability of nano-TiO₂ solution. Firstly, for testing visible light catalytic activity, methylene blue (MB) was used as a simulated pollutant. A 0.1 wt% solution of nano-TiO₂ with MB added (final concentration of 10 ppm) was kept under visible light irradiation (15W, LED lamp, the wavelength is 450–460 nm) for around 25 h. The control group was a 2 mL deionized water solution with MB added (final concentration of 10 ppm) that underwent the same conditions. Both reactions were recorded by taking pictures, and the absorbance change of MB was monitored using UV–vis spectrophotometer (TU-1901) at a wavelength of 650 nm.

Secondly, red ink was used to evaluate the durable stability of photocatalytic activity. To be specific, one drop of red ink was mixed with 100 mL of 1 wt% nano-TiO₂ solution and stirred evenly. This mixed solution was then placed under household light (light intensity of 1.10 W/m²) for 20 h and then the color of solution was observed. This process was repeated 18 times in sequence while maintaining a volume of 100 mL of solution. These tests can accurately evaluate the visible light activity and stability of the prepared nano-TiO₂ under household low-power LED lamps.

The X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS, Escalab Xi+), Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FT-IR, iS50), UV–vis spectrophotometer (UV–vis, TU-1901) and fluorescence spectroscopy (PL, F-7000) allowed the study of the mechanism of visible light activity.

The degradation mechanism of dyes through photocatalysis is further examined using scavenger tests. Traditionally, electrons (e⁻), holes (h⁺), super hydroxyl radicals (·OH), and superoxide radicals (·O₂⁻) are considered as the active species responsible for the

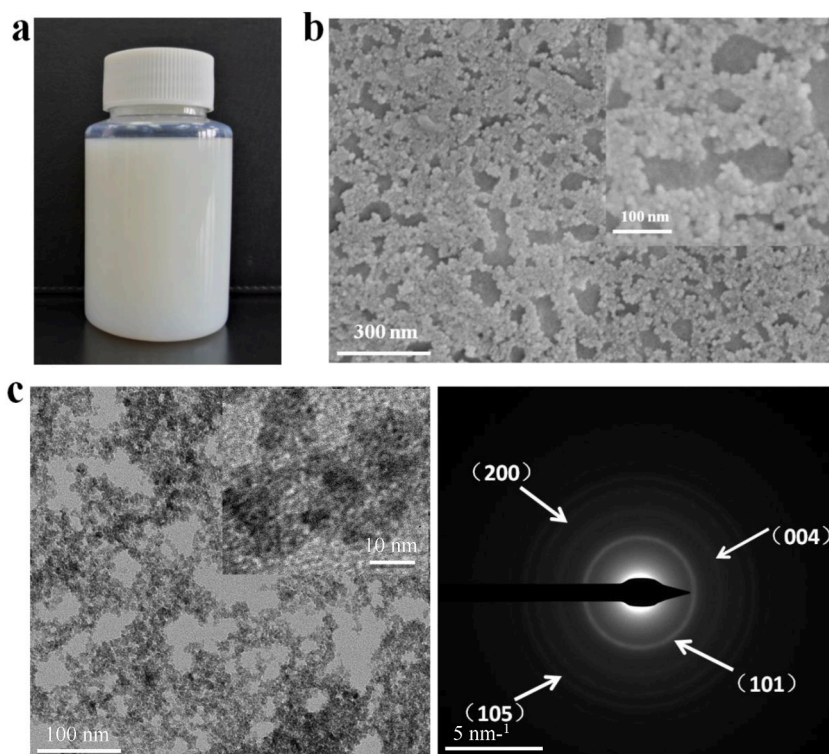


Fig. 1. Characterization of nano-TiO₂: (a) Digital photograph (b) SEM image; (c) TEM and SAED patterns.

photodegradation of organic dyes. In order to distinguish the role of each radical in the degradation of MB and nano-TiO₂, scavengers such as silver nitrate (AgNO₃), EDTA disodium salt (EDTA-2Na), isopropanol (IPA), and benzoquinone (BQ) are individually added to solutions as sacrificial agents, respectively [41]. Subsequently, photocatalytic experiments are repeated under visible light. Scavenger experiment and cyclic experiment parameters: The light source was a LED lamp (15 W), the concentration of MB was 1 ppm, the solvent dosage was 15 mM, the concentration of nano-TiO₂ was 0.5 wt%, and the absorbance was tested at a wavelength of 650 nm.

2.4. Antibacterial evaluation

The antibacterial activity of nano-TiO₂ was analyzed using two methods in this study: the inhibition zone method and the colony counting method. The antibacterial activity was qualitatively analyzed by the size of the inhibition circle, and the antibacterial rate was quantitatively analyzed by the number of bacterial residues after the antibacterial experiment.

In the analysis of bacteriostatic zone, two methods were used, which were compared with commercially nano-TiO₂ powder and different conditions of oneself. In comparison with the commercially nano-TiO₂ powder, 200 μ L (10⁷ CFU mL⁻¹) *S. aureus* was uniformly coated on the nutrient agar plate, and then the nano-TiO₂ liquid with same solid content of 50 μ L was dropped onto the same agar plate. One group was irradiated under 365 nm ultraviolet lamp for 2 h and put into 37 °C constant temperature and humidity incubator; the other group was put into 37 °C constant temperature and humidity incubator and continuously exposed to visible light (LED lamp of 2.5 W, light intensity of 3.42 W/m²), and the antibacterial zone effect was checked after 24 h. In the comparison of different conditions, 200 μ L bacterial solution (*S. aureus* or *E. coli*, 10⁹ CFU mL⁻¹) was evenly coated on the nutrient agar plate, and then 50 μ L nano-TiO₂ was dropped on the agar plate, and one group was put into a 37 °C constant temperature and humidity incubator and continuously exposed to visible light (LED lamp of 2.5 W, light intensity of 3.42 W/m²), and the other group was also put into a constant temperature and humidity incubator at 37 °C but was dark treated with tin foil wrap, and the effect of antibacterial circle was checked after 24 h.

The antibacterial effect was quantified by the colony counting method, which allowed the antibacterial efficacy assessment using the colony-forming units method (CFU). The nano-TiO₂ liquid (10 mg/mL) was dropped into the bacterial solution (*E. coli* or *S. aureus*, at a concentration of 10⁴ CFU mL⁻¹), then placed on a shaker at 100 rpm for co-culture under household light (light intensity of 1.10 W/m²) or not for 3 h. Then the 200 μ L co-cultured bacterial solution was evenly coated on the nutrient agar plate and cultured at 37 °C for 24 h, the antibacterial rate was calculated by the number of colonies.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. The characterization of nano-TiO₂

We prepared nano-TiO₂ which could remain stable under static conditions and no precipitation was produced (Fig. 1a). In order to study the size and distribution of nano-TiO₂ particles, SEM and TEM were performed on them. The nano-TiO₂ uniformly dispersed with a mean size of 10 nm without large reunion (Fig. 1b and c), which provided basic condition for the long-term stable existence of nano-TiO₂ solution. Furthermore, nano-TiO₂ colloid solution exhibited the Tyndall effect (Fig. S1), this also explained.

from another perspective why nano-TiO₂ particles could stably exist in water. A slight aggregation detected by DLS and the average particle size was 68 nm (Fig. S2). The strong electrostatic forces between the nanoparticles enable them to remain suspended in the solution. The average potential of nano-TiO₂ particles was +35.8 mV (Fig. S2), indicated that the nano-TiO₂ particles prepared in this study had a positively charged surface with a large charge magnitude, which was the main reason for the long-term stability of nano-TiO₂ particles.

The crystal form of nano-TiO₂ was determined by SAED, XRD and Raman spectra. The SAED pattern (Fig. 1c) clearly revealed the presence of (101), (004), (200), and (105) anatase TiO₂ concentric diffraction rings, which confirmed that nano-TiO₂ was anatase crystal form and polycrystalline form [42]. XRD peaks (Fig. 2a) were observed at 2 θ values approximately 25.3, 37.9, 48.0, 54.0, 55.1, 62.7, 68.9, 70.3, and 75.2° corresponding to the anatase phase (101), (004), (200), (105), (211), (204), (116), (220) and (215) of their crystalline structure of anatase form (JCPDS, No:21–1272). The Raman spectra showed in Fig. 2b, the E_g peak was mainly caused by

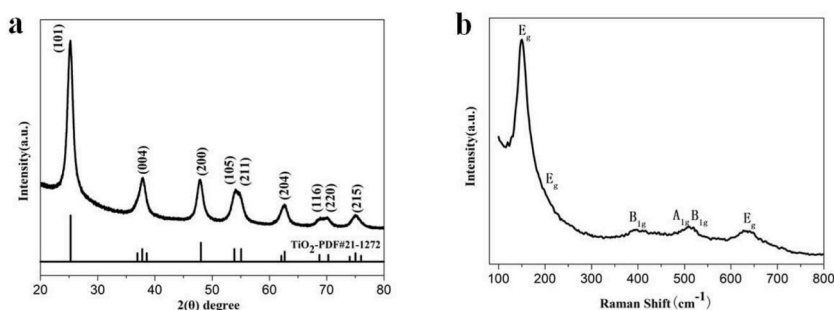


Fig. 2. XRD patterns (a) and Raman spectra (b) of nano-TiO₂.

symmetric stretching vibration of O–Ti–O in TiO₂, the B_{1g} peak was caused by symmetric bending vibration of O–Ti–O, and the A_{1g} peak was caused by antisymmetric bending vibration of O–Ti–O [43]. Importantly, the peaks appeared at 144, 394, 515, and 640 cm⁻¹ were the typical peaks of anatase TiO₂ phase [44].

Therefore, these results proved that the nano-TiO₂ particles prepared in this study were single anatase crystal type. However, the crystallinity of nano-TiO₂ was not high, accompanied by a small amount of amorphous, these defects provided material basis for self-doping.

3.2. The photocatalytic activity of nano-TiO₂ and its mechanism

We compared the spectral absorption and the band gap between the nano-TiO₂ liquid prepared in this work (experimental group) and the commercially purchased nano-TiO₂ powder (control group). The nano-TiO₂ liquid prepared in this work had great absorption in the visible light region (400–780 nm) rather than commercially available nano-TiO₂ according to the UV-vis spectroscopy (Fig. 3a). Moreover, the E_g = 1.80 eV of the nano-TiO₂ prepared in this work was much lower than that of the commercially available product (E_g = 3.20 eV) by calculating the band gap of two products (Fig. 3b). Both the spectral absorption range and the band gap confirmed that the nano-TiO₂ prepared in this work had good absorption in the visible light region, and the band gap was greatly narrowed, which strongly proved the internal basis for its excellent visible light activity [45].

The photocatalytic activity of the nano-TiO₂ prepared in this work and the commercially purchased nano-TiO₂ powder was reflected by the PL analysis and MB degradation experiment. The higher the fluorescence spectral peak, the larger the electron-hole pair recombination, resulting in lower photocatalytic activity. As shown in Fig. 3c, the peak of nano-TiO₂ prepared in this work was lower than that of the commercially available, indicating that its photogenerated electron-hole pair was less recombination, the more hydroxyl radical produce by nano-TiO₂, the higher photocatalytic activity is. So the photocatalytic activity was better. As shown in Fig. 3d, the experimental group (red line) was significantly lower than the control group (black line), represented that MB was degraded more by nano-TiO₂ prepared in this study (percentage of decomposition was 81.4 %), indicated that the photocatalytic activity was better.

Furthermore, in order to fully confirm the visible light activity of nano-TiO₂ and subsequent long-term antibacterial applications,

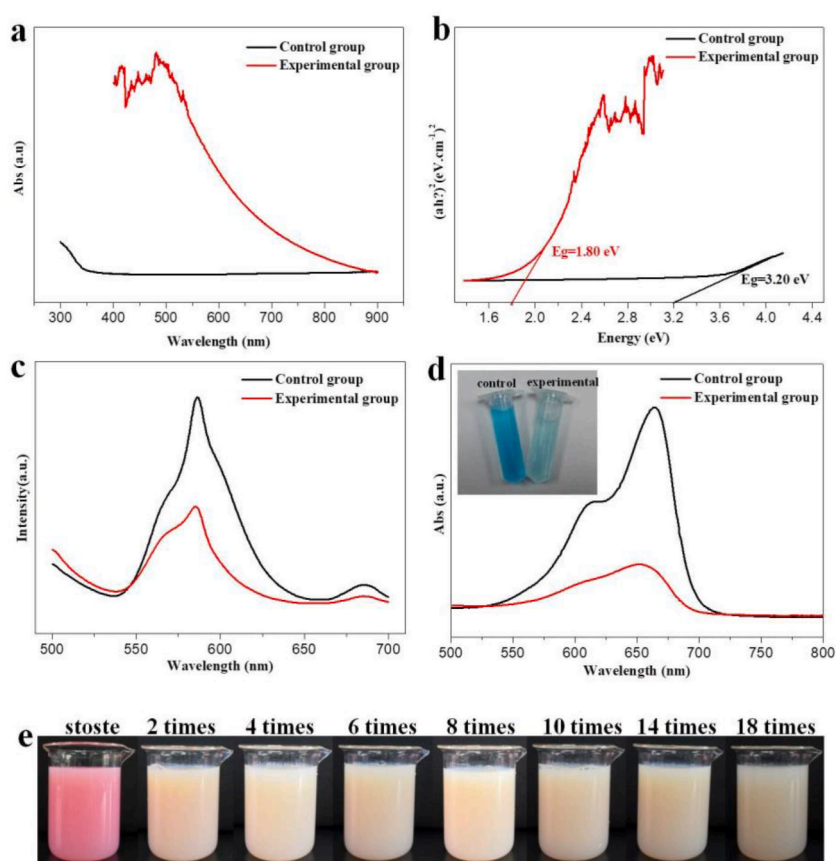


Fig. 3. UV-vis spectra(a-b) and PL spectra(c) of nano-TiO₂, Absorbance spectra of photodegradation of MB(d) with nano-TiO₂ under the irradiation of visible light, Digital photograph of degradation continuously red ink(e) with nano-TiO₂ under the irradiation of visible light. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

the red ink was used as a simulated pollutant to test its durability and stability of visible light activity. As shown in Fig. 3e, the prepared nano-TiO₂ could continuously degrade red ink under visible light conditions for many times and remained stable without polymerization, indicating that nano-TiO₂ had good durability and stability of visible light activity, which provided the possibility for the application of long-term antibacterial [46].

As known, electrons (e⁻), holes (h⁺), hydroxyl radicals (•OH), and superoxide radicals (•O₂⁻) are considered as potential active species involved in the photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants [41]. In order to identify the active species during the photocatalytic reaction, scavengers such as AgNO₃, EDTA-2Na, IPA, and BQ were introduced into the MB solution. As shown in Fig. 4a, the addition of AgNO₃ and EDTA-2Na had a minimal impact on the photocatalytic activity, indicating that e⁻ and h⁺ may not be the primary active species in the photocatalytic process. The degradation efficiency decreased upon the addition of IPA, confirming the role of •OH as an active species. Moreover, the photocatalytic performance was significantly hindered following the introduction of BQ, underscoring the crucial involvement of •O₂⁻ in the photocatalytic degradation process. Moreover, in order to further investigate its stability, cycling experiments were conducted. As shown in Fig. 4b, after four cycles of operation, the degradation rate of MB showed little decline. The results indicate that nano-TiO₂ exhibits good cycling stability.

To study the intrinsic cause of its photocatalytic activity, the element composition and the valence states of the nano-TiO₂ were evaluated via XPS. The nano-TiO₂ contained Ti, O, C and S elements, and the contents of which were 10.41 %, 74.14 %, 14.65 % and 0.78 % respectively (Fig. 5a). Among them, the element S and C came from the residue of SO₄²⁻ in titanium oxysulfate and PEG-200 in the raw material for the preparation of nano-TiO₂, respectively. Fig. 5b showed that the peaks in the TiO₂ were at the binding energies 458.5 eV (Ti2p3/2) and 464.2 eV (Ti2p1/2) respectively. Compared with the Ti2p3/2 peak of traditional nano-TiO₂, the Ti2p3/2 peak of nano-TiO₂ prepared in this paper had a significant shift, decreasing from 458.7 eV to 485.5 eV, which may be the reason for the existence of Ti³⁺. Since Ti³⁺ species had a lower 2p3/2 binding energy than Ti⁴⁺, so the presence of Ti³⁺ caused the Ti2p3/2 peak to move towards a lower binding energy [34]. It could be seen from Fig. 5c that three characteristic peaks could be fitted at 529.8 eV, 531.9 eV and 533.3 eV, they correspond to Ti–O–Ti, Ti–OH and C–O [47], respectively. Where the characteristic peak at 530 eV was the characteristic peak of lattice oxygen, and the characteristic peak at 532 eV could be attributed to the oxygen in hydroxy-OH and O₂ adsorbed on the surface. The characteristic peak at 533 eV was the oxygen in the surface adsorbed species [48]. From the above analysis, it could be seen that Ti³⁺ self-doped nano-TiO₂ (w(Ti³⁺) = 40.1 %) and the abundant hydroxyl groups on the surface of nano-particles provided the high visible light activity of nano-TiO₂ [49].

In order to explore the relation between photocatalytic activity of nano-TiO₂ and its functional groups, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) was performed. From the spectrum (Fig. 5d), it could be seen that there were four obvious peaks of nano-TiO₂, which were 1096 cm⁻¹, 1688 cm⁻¹, 2871 cm⁻¹ and 3154 cm⁻¹. The peak at 1096 cm⁻¹ was related to the stretching vibrations of Ti–OH molecule [27]. C–H stretching vibration peak corresponding to 2871 cm⁻¹ [50]. Finally, the peak at 1688 cm⁻¹ and 3154 cm⁻¹ was related to the stretching vibrations of the corresponding OH hydroxyl [38,51]. In a word, a large number of –OH hydroxyl groups on the surface of nano-TiO₂ prepared in this study provided favorable conditions for the photocatalytic reaction, which also verified the internal mechanism of high activity of nano-TiO₂ from another dimension [52].

The photocatalytic mechanism can be explained as follows. When nano-TiO₂ is exposed to visible light, electrons in the valence band are excited to the conduction band, generating electron-hole pairs. These electrons react with the surface-adsorbed oxygen to form superoxide radicals •O₂⁻. Simultaneously, the holes combine with water molecules to produce hydroxyl radicals (•OH). These by-products combine with organic compounds to generate non-toxic carbon dioxide and water as the final products. Photocatalytic mechanism has been depicted in Fig. 6 (see Fig. 7).

3.3. Antibacterial analysis of nano-TiO₂

In this study, the antibacterial activity of nano-TiO₂ was comprehensively evaluated by qualitative analysis of the bacteriostatic circle method and quantitative analysis of the colony counting method.

We dropped the solution of the commercially purchased nano-TiO₂ (control) and the nano-TiO₂ prepared in this work (experimental) with the same concentration and pH on the nutrient agar plate coated by the *S. aureus* and then irradiated under 365 nm

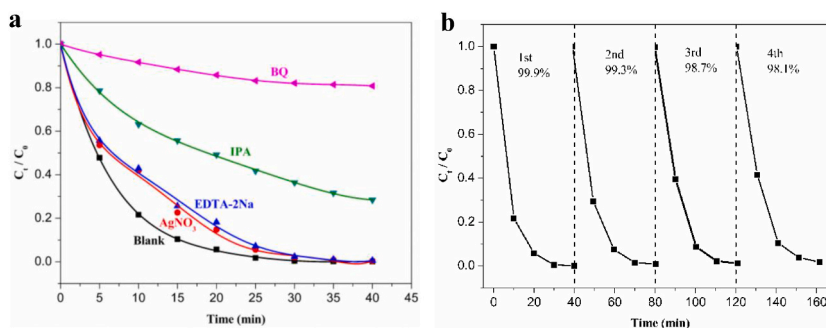


Fig. 4. (a) The photocatalytic degradations of 0.5 wt% nano-TiO₂ with different scavengers; (b) Recycled runs of the degradation under visible light irradiation.

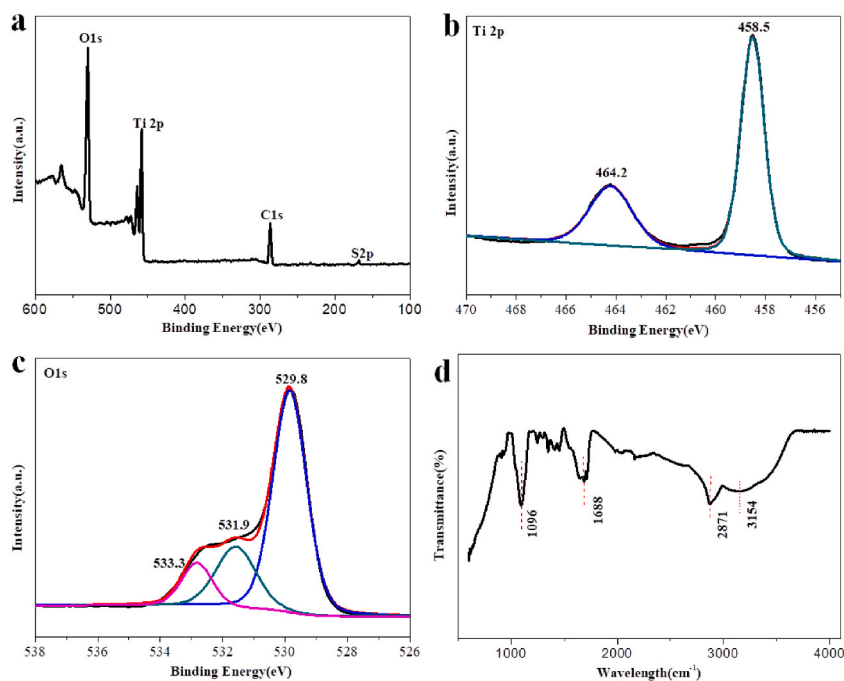


Fig. 5. XPS spectra (a–c) and FT-IR spectra (d) of nano-TiO₂.

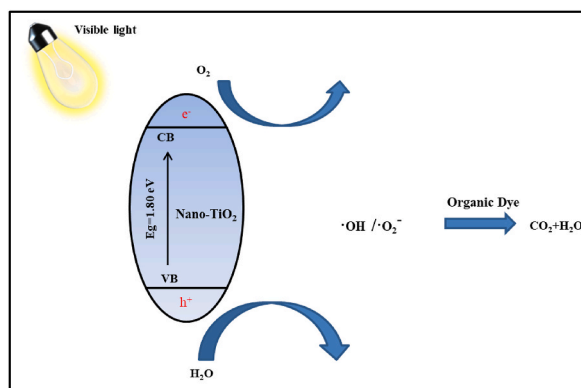


Fig. 6. Photocatalytic mechanism of nano-TiO₂.

ultraviolet or visible light. Both kinds of nano-TiO₂ show antibacterial zone under ultraviolet lamp (Fig.7a), while only the region of nano-TiO₂ prepared in this work showed bacteriostatic zone under LED illumination (Fig.7b), verified that nano-TiO₂ had better antibacterial activity compared with commercial nano-TiO₂ under visible light.

Furthermore, the inhibitory effect of nano-TiO₂ prepared in this work on *S. aureus* and *E. coli* under the presence or absence of visible light was also explored (Fig. 8). There was no bacteriostatic circle whatever *S. aureus* or *E. coli* group under.

darkness, nevertheless, the pronounced bacteriostatic circle appeared in both groups under irradiation of visible light (Fig. 8a₁-a₂/b₁-b₂). Moreover, the colony-forming unit method was used to quantitatively evaluate the antibacterial effect. Both the groups cocultured with nano-TiO₂ under darkness group (Fig. 8a₃/b₃) and without nano-TiO₂ under irradiation of visible light (Fig. 8a₄/b₄) grew a large number of colonies. However, the group cocultured with nano-TiO₂ under irradiation of visible light (Fig. 8 a₅/b₅) had no bacterial colonies and exhibited an excellent antibacterial effect (the antibacterial rate was almost 100 %). It proved that the nano-TiO₂ prepared in this study had excellent visible light activity and broad-spectrum antimicrobial property [46].

4. Conclusion

In this study, the nano-TiO₂ with excellent visible light activity and broad-spectrum antimicrobial property was synthesized by self-doping method using inorganic titanium source titanium oxide sulfate. The particle size of the prepared nano-TiO₂ was found to be

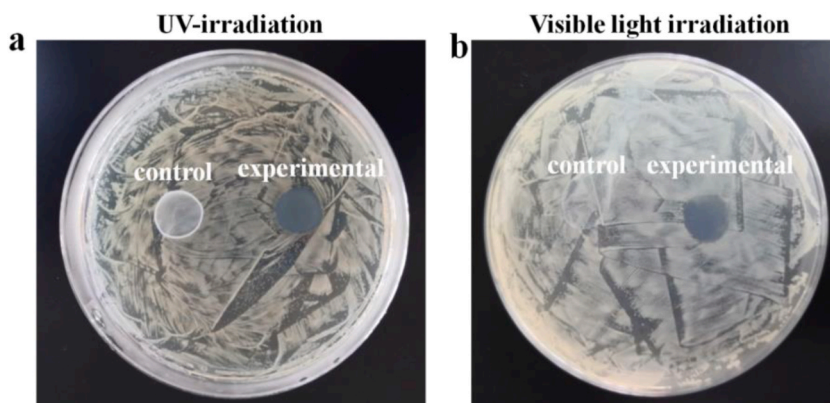


Fig. 7. Antibacterial activity of different nano-TiO₂ (control: commercially nano-TiO₂; experimental: nano-TiO₂ prepared in this study).

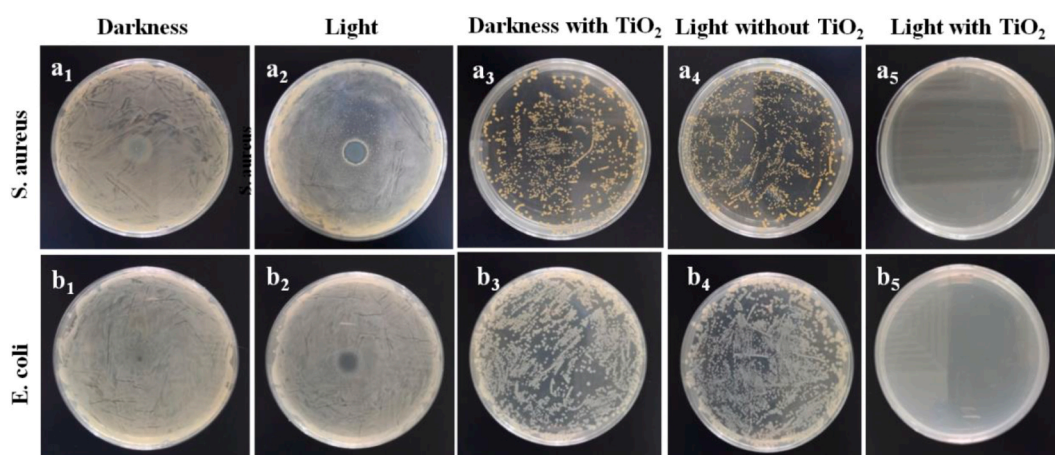


Fig. 8. Antibacterial activity of nano-TiO₂ under different conditions against *E. coli* and *S. aureus* by the inhibition zone method(a₁-a₂/b₁-b₂) and the colony counting method(a₃-a₅/b₃-b₅) (a₁/b₁: darkness; a₂/b₂: light; a₃/b₃: darkness with TiO₂; a₄/b₄: light without TiO₂; a₅/b₅: light with TiO₂).

uniform at about 10 nm, and the particles were spherical and uniformly dispersed without large agglomeration. The crystal form of the nano-TiO₂ was single anatase. Compared with commercially available nano-TiO₂ products, Ti³⁺ self-doped nano-TiO₂ had a wider light absorption range, a narrower band gap ($E_g = 1.80$ eV) and a lower photogenerated electron-hole pair recombination rate. The prepared nano-TiO₂ particles could continuously degrade red ink under visible light condition for many times and remain stable, showing very good performance durability and stability. The antibacterial results showed that the nano-TiO₂ had excellent broad-spectrum antibacterial properties under the irradiation of household low-power LED lamps, and the antibacterial rate was almost 100 %. Therefore, the nano-TiO₂ prepared in this study has a high market application prospect in the field of bactericidal and bacteriostatic.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Shibin Wu: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Jingguang Wang:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Zhenze Xie:** Visualization, Validation, Formal analysis. **Chang Du:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Acknowledgments

Shibin Wu and Jingguang Wang contributed equally to this work. This work was supported by the Foundation of National Key Research and Development Program of China (2023YFB3809900). The authors would like to thank the help of Ken Liu (from South China University of Technology) in preparation and Tianyu Wei (from South China University of Technology) for his efforts in the TEM analysis.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2024.e32356>.

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