



Iranian Research Organization
for Science and Technology
(IROST)

Advances
Environmental
Technology



Journal home page: <https://aet.irost.ir>

Highly efficient sunlight-powered photocatalytic degradation of rhodamine B using Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂ and Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl semiconductor nanocomposites

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ARTICLE INFO

Document Type:
Research Paper

Article history:
Received 09 September 2025
Received in revised form
23 April 2026
Accepted 02 May 2026

Keywords:
Photocatalysis
Cu₂Cr-LDH
RhB Degradation
Heterojunction formation
Sunlight-driven catalysis

ABSTRACT

This study explores the photocatalytic degradation of Rhodamine B (RhB) under sunlight irradiation using Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl and Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂ nanocomposites. The structural, optical, and morphological properties of the materials were thoroughly examined by X-ray diffraction (XRD), Ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV-vis), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), and scanning electron microscopy (SEM). The primary objective was to assess the photocatalytic efficiency of these nanocomposites in degrading RhB dye under sunlight. The Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl nanocomposite exhibited superior photocatalytic performance, achieving 90.29 % RhB degradation, significantly outperforming Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂ (56.45%) and pure Cu₂Cr-LDH (31.36%). This enhanced efficiency is attributed to the formation of a heterojunction between Cu₂Cr-LDH and BiOCl, which facilitates effective separation and transfer of charge carriers. The improved photocatalytic activity is primarily attributed to the well-dispersed BiOCl phase on the Cu₂Cr-LDH surface, demonstrating that interfacial architecture plays a more critical role than simply increasing the Bi or Ti content. Hydroxyl radicals and holes were determined to be the primary active species responsible for the degradation process. Additionally, both nanocomposites demonstrated remarkable stability and reusability, retaining high catalytic efficiency over four consecutive cycles. A detailed photocatalytic mechanism was proposed to explain the enhanced activity of the nanocomposites, highlighting the synergistic effects of the heterojunction structure and efficient charge carrier dynamics.

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DOI: 10.22104/aet.2026.7739.2177

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1. Introduction

The release of industrial effluents containing non-biodegradable organic dyes from industries such as textiles, paper, leather, plastics, pharmaceuticals, and food production has become a critical environmental concern. These dyes, even in trace amounts, can have detrimental effects on aquatic ecosystems. They hinder photosynthetic activity by blocking sunlight penetration, which is essential for the survival of aquatic plants and algae. Additionally, the increased toxicity levels from these dyes can harm aquatic organisms, disrupt ecosystems, and compromise water quality. To combat these adverse effects, it is imperative to develop and implement effective treatment strategies that can efficiently remove or degrade these pollutants, thereby safeguarding aquatic life and maintaining ecological balance. Advanced treatment methods, including photocatalytic degradation, adsorption, and advanced oxidation processes, are being explored to address this pressing issue and reduce the environmental footprint of industrial activities [1].

Consequently, there is a growing demand for cost-effective and efficient methods to eliminate these harmful pollutants. Among the advanced strategies explored, photocatalytic oxidation stands out as a promising and efficient technology for degrading a wide range of pollutants using light energy [2,3]. Harnessing solar energy, a clean, renewable, and cost-free power source, has been extensively studied to drive this process [4]. However, the effectiveness of photocatalytic materials under solar irradiation is often limited due to issues like electron-hole recombination and insufficient absorption of sunlight [5].

To overcome these challenges, researchers are focusing on developing innovative photocatalysts that exhibit high activity and sensitivity to visible light. Semiconductor photocatalysts, in particular, have shown significant potential for solar energy conversion and pollutant degradation. Among the many studied materials, BiOCl and TiO₂ have attracted considerable attention due to their unique properties and catalytic applications [6, 7]. However, earlier studies revealed that the pure phases of BiOCl and TiO₂ have limited photocatalytic performance under solar light,

which restricts their practical applications [8, 9]. To improve the efficiency of these materials, various strategies have been employed, such as doping with metallic and non-metallic elements, to enhance optical absorption and promote the separation of charge carriers. These approaches aim to improve the overall performance of photocatalysts, making them more effective for environmental remediation and pollution control [10-12].

Another class of materials that has garnered significant attention in catalysis is layered double hydroxides (LDHs). These materials are noted for their high anion exchange capacity, large specific surface area, non-toxicity, low cost, and straightforward synthesis method [13]. Layered double hydroxides, commonly referred to as anionic clays, have a general formula of $[M^{2+}(1-X)M^{3+}(X)(OH)_2]^{X+}(A^{n-})^{X/n} \cdot mH_2O$. In this formula, M^{2+} and M^{3+} represent the bivalent and trivalent cations, respectively, while A^{n-} denotes the interlayer anions and m indicates the number of water molecules in the layered structure. This composition results in positively charged layers that are balanced by the intercalation of hydrated anions [14]. LDHs can be regarded as semiconductors due to their distinct layered structure and versatile chemical composition. While LDHs are extensively used for pollutant adsorption and catalysis, potentially enhancing catalytic reaction efficiency by improving pollutant adsorption and hydroxyl radical (OH·) production, they exhibit limited photocatalytic activity. This is due to issues such as poor charge carrier mobility, rapid recombination of charge carriers, and inefficient electron-hole transfer [15, 16]. For example, the photocatalytic activity of pure NiFe-LDH showed a low degradation efficiency, with only 39% of RhB degraded in 240 minutes under visible light irradiation [17] and, in another study, only 29.8% of RhB dye was degraded by NiFe-LDH in 120 minutes. Additionally, LDHs can be used as a support material due to their well-organized and tunable functional characteristics, allowing for precise structural modifications. Furthermore, the surface of LDHs contains numerous alkaline coordination sites, making them highly suitable for anchoring transition metal atoms and creating highly active catalytic centers, as the study

indicated. After surface modification with BiOCl, the BiOCl-NiFe-LDH composite demonstrated a higher color removal efficiency than NiFe-LDH. Recently, assembling LDHs nanosheets onto a photosensitive substrate to create heterostructure arrays has emerged as an efficient approach to enhance the exposure of active sites and promote the separation and transfer of photogenerated carriers, and in terms of energy structure, the charge transfer processes within the formed heterostructures generally occur across staggered band gaps [12].

Several reports have been published on LDH-based semiconductor materials for photocatalytic degradation of dyes, such as ZnCr-LDH surfaces decorated with TiO₂ and BiOCl used in the photodegradation of RhB [18, 19]. AgCl-BiOCl-NiFe-LDH composite photocatalysts have been synthesized and tested for their efficiency under visible light. The photocatalytic performance of these composites was evaluated through the degradation of RhB dye. Results demonstrated that the composite catalysts achieved 97.8 % degradation of RhB within just one hour of visible light exposure [20]. NiCr-LDH-based photocatalysts show great potential in the field of photocatalysis, particularly for harnessing solar energy to drive chemical processes. These catalysts are highly effective for the oxidation of organic pollutants and the generation of renewable energy. Their layered structure facilitates efficient charge separation and transfer, enhancing their overall photocatalytic performance. Additionally, NiCr-LDH photocatalysts are recognized for their durability and stability, making them a sustainable choice for various environmental remediation and energy production applications [21].

In addition to their high adsorption capacity across the spectral range, the metal-to-metal charge transfer (MMCT) in LDHs can be finely adjusted through isomorphous substitutions. This allows for precise tuning of the electronic properties, making LDH more versatile for various applications, as different metal ions can be substituted within the layered structure to enhance charge transfer dynamics and optimize their photocatalytic or adsorption performance [22]. The enhancement of the intrinsic properties of LDH is strongly influenced by the choice of cations that constitute

the layers. By carefully selecting and varying the type and ratio of divalent and trivalent cations in the layered double hydroxide structure, it is possible to fine-tune their chemical, thermal, and catalytic properties. This cationic substitution allows for modifications in the material's electronic structure, surface area, charge density, and anion exchange capacity, making Layered double hydroxide highly adaptable for specific applications in environmental remediation, a study was conducted to investigate the effects of divalent metal ions on the photocatalytic properties of layered double hydroxides by varying the M^{II} metal ions while keeping the M^{II}/Cr^{III} atomic ratio constant at 2:1. The LDH containing cobalt showed the highest photocatalytic activity, achieving 90% removal of MO within 3 hours under solar light irradiation. The study further revealed, through optical difference spectra, that absorption in the visible region was due to metal-to-metal charge transfer (MMCT) excitation of oxo-bridged bimetallic linkages between M^{II}-O-Cr^{III} in neighboring MO₆ octahedra. This MMCT excitation in the visible range was identified as a key factor contributing to the enhanced degradation of MO [23]. Particularly, LDHs containing Cu are widely used in a variety of catalytic domains owing to their unique structural characteristics and the promising catalytic activity of the Cu atom. Moreover, Cu²⁺ served as the divalent cation to enhance the formation of defects while Cr³⁺ demonstrated high visible light absorption [24]. Among the prospective transition metals, the Cr³⁺ cation has a special electronic configuration, which enhances charge transfer and electron capture [25]. Based on the literature review, Cu₂Cr-LDH owns a low bandgap that enables simple electron-hole separation under visible light [23]. However, poor mobility of the charge carriers and fast recombination of the generated electron-hole occur, which is the major bottleneck that restricts the application of LDHs as photocatalysts [26]. On the other hand, the significant feature of LDHs is the plethora of combinations of various compounds that can be implemented in the LDH structure. Enhancing the separation rate of electron-hole pairs forms a heterostructure between the Layered double hydroxide's surface and semiconductors. TiO₂ and BiOCl nanoparticles

offer a cost-effective alternative for developing active catalysts, characterized by their high stability and recyclability through simple filtration processes.

This study focuses on the synthesis and characterization of two nanocomposite materials, Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl and Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂, to evaluate their photocatalytic performance in degrading Rhodamine B (RhB) under direct sunlight. The morphological, structural, and optical properties of these materials were thoroughly analyzed to understand their functional capabilities. The photocatalytic efficiency was assessed by examining key parameters, such as adsorbent dose, acidity of the dye solution, and reaction time. Furthermore, a detailed mechanism for the degradation of RhB using these composites was proposed, shedding light on the underlying processes that enhance their photocatalytic activity.

2. Materials and methods

The reagents used in this study included Copper (II) nitrate hexahydrate Cu(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (99%), Chromium (III) nitrate nonahydrate Cr(NO₃)₃·9H₂O (99%), sodium hydroxide NaOH (99%), sodium chloride NaCl (99%), hydrochloric acid HCl (36%), sodium carbonate Na₂CO₃ (99%), ethanol (99.97%), diethylene glycol (99.95%), and Rhodamine B. All of these were procured from Biochem-Chemo Pharma. Additionally, tetrabutyl titanate (C₁₆H₃₆O₄Ti) (97%), Bismuth (III) nitrate pentahydrate Bi(NO₃)₃·5H₂O (99%), Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid disodium salt dihydrate C₁₀H₁₄N₂Na₂O₈ · 2H₂O (Na₂EDTA, 99.995% purity) were procured from Sigma-Aldrich. Ascorbic acid C₆H₈O₆ (99.7 %) was obtained from Merck/SRL.

The characterization techniques used in this research work included the following: D/MAX-RB X-ray powder diffraction (XRD, Rigaku) with CuK α radiation ($\lambda = 0.15405$ nm) at 40 KV and 30 mA, UV-Vis spectrometer (JASCO V750) Shimadzu, field emission scanning electron microscope (BRUKER; JEOL, Qunta 250) at 20-12.5 keV, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (Kratos Nova) with an Al K α line (1486.6 eV) radiation. Cu₂Cr-LDH (molar ratio 2:1) was synthesized via co-precipitation at pH 10, followed by hydrothermal treatment at 80

°C for 24 h. The Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂ nanocomposites were obtained by dispersing Cu₂Cr-LDH in ethanol with tetrabutyl titanate, then hydrothermally treating at 180 °C for 24 h. The Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl nanocomposites were prepared through a two-step process using Bi(NO₃)₃·5H₂O and NaCl solutions, followed by hydrothermal treatment at 180 °C for 12 h. TiO₂ was synthesized from tetrabutyl titanate in ethanol, hydrothermally treated at 180 °C for 24 h, and dried; BiOCl was synthesized using the same procedure as Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl but without LDH [23].

The photocatalytic activity was tested under sunlight using 0.1 g of the catalyst in 50 mL of RhB solution (5 mg/L, pH 7, 25 °C). After 30 min dark equilibration, the suspension was irradiated, and aliquots were collected at intervals, centrifuged, and analyzed with a HACH DR 5000 spectrophotometer. Dye degradation efficiency was then calculated [27]:

$$R\% = \frac{(C_0 - C_t)}{C_0} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

where c_0 (mg/L) is the initial concentration, and c_t (mg/L) is the concentration at time t (min).

Scavenger experiments were performed to investigate the active species generated in the photocatalytic system, consisting of a photocatalyst, RhB, Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl, and Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂ under sunlight. Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA-2Na, 10 mM), Ascorbic acid (1 mM), and Ethanol (10 mM) were used as scavengers, introduced into the photocatalytic system in the amount of 1 ml to capture holes (h^*), superoxide radicals ($^{\bullet}O_2^-$), electrons (e^-), and hydroxyl radicals (OH^*), respectively.

3. Results and discussion

Figure 1 displays the XRD patterns of the synthesized materials. The XRD pattern of Cu₂Cr-LDH shows distinct peaks at (003), (006), (012), (015), (018), (110), and (113), confirming its layered LDH structure. These reflections match the 3R rhombohedral symmetry (Figure S1) [28]. XRD analysis confirmed the phase purity of BiOCl and TiO₂, with diffraction peaks matching standard reference patterns (Figure S2) [19].

The nanocomposites (Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂ and Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl) (Figure. 1) retained the hydroxalcite structure, though some structural modifications were observed. For Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂, reduced crystallinity, lattice expansion, and larger particle size (11.85 nm) indicated structural distortions from TiO₂ incorporation. In Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl, distinct BiOCl peaks confirmed successful integration, though the reduced intensity of LDH peaks suggested partial disruption of the layered structure. Overall, XRD results demonstrate effective composite formation with TiO₂ and BiOCl phases [29, 30]. The UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectra (Figure 2) of Cu₂Cr-LDH show three absorption regions: 200-300 nm - ligand-to-metal charge transfer (O 2p → Cu/Cr 3d t_{2g}), 300-500 nm - d-d transitions of Cu²⁺ and Cr³⁺ in octahedral fields (t_{2g} → e_g), These transitions highlight the role of the oxo-bridged Cu-Cr LDH system as a photoactive center, where Cu²⁺ ions (partially filled 3d orbitals) enhance photocatalytic activity. The Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂ nanocomposite retained similar bands but displayed an additional strong absorption at 315 nm (O2p → Ti3d t_{2g}), confirming TiO₂ incorporation. In contrast, Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl exhibited a weaker band at 307 nm, linked to Cl3p → Bi6p transitions, evidencing BiOCl integration into the LDH structure [33].

A semiconductor can be distinguished from other materials by its band gap energy, which is calculated using the following equation [31]:

$$(\alpha h\nu)^{\frac{1}{n}} = A (h\nu - E_g) \quad (2)$$

In this equation, α represents the absorption coefficient, h is Planck's constant, ν denotes the frequency of the incident light, A is a proportionality constant, and E_g corresponds to the band gap energy of the semiconductor. According to Tauc's relation, the parameter n indicates the nature of the optical transition in the material ($n=1/2$ for direct transitions and $n=2$ for indirect transitions).

The band gap energy (E_g) can be determined by extending the linear section of the curve to the energy axis. Based on Figure 2 (b), the estimated band gap energies for Cu₂Cr-LDH, Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂, Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl, TiO₂, and BiOCl were found to be 2.5 eV, 1.54 eV, 2.3 eV, 3.1 eV, and 3.32 eV, respectively. The valence band (E_{VB}) and

conduction band (E_{CB}) energies of a semiconductor are calculated using the following equations [32]:

$$E_{(VB)} = \chi - E^e + \frac{1}{2} E_g \quad (3)$$

$$E_{(CB)} = E_{(VB)} - E_g \quad (4)$$

In these equations, χ represents the absolute electronegativity of the semiconductor, and E^e denotes the potential energy of free electrons on the standard hydrogen scale (approximately 4.5 eV). The calculated parameters are summarized in Table 1.

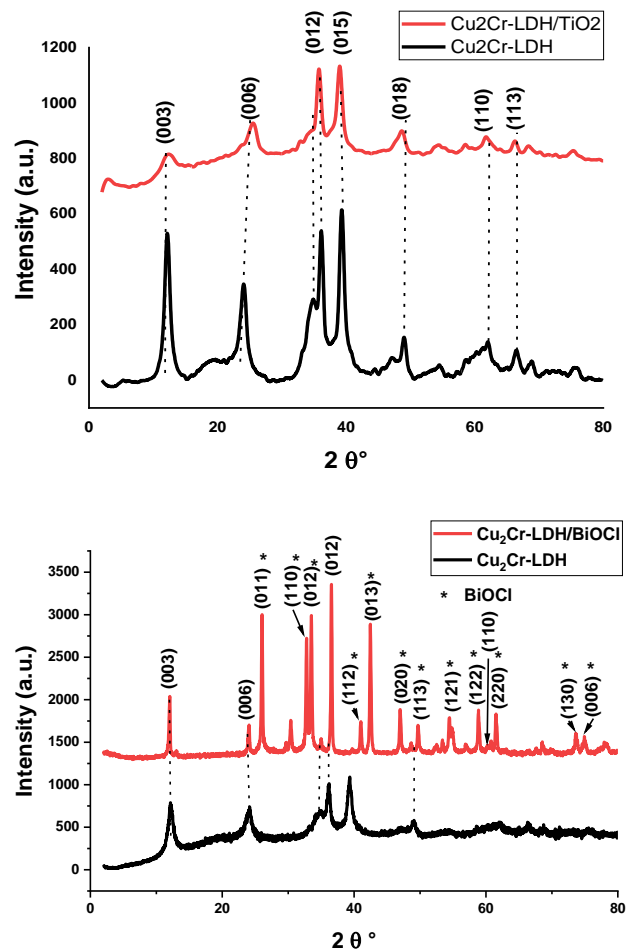


Fig. 1. X-ray diffractograms of Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂ and Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl.

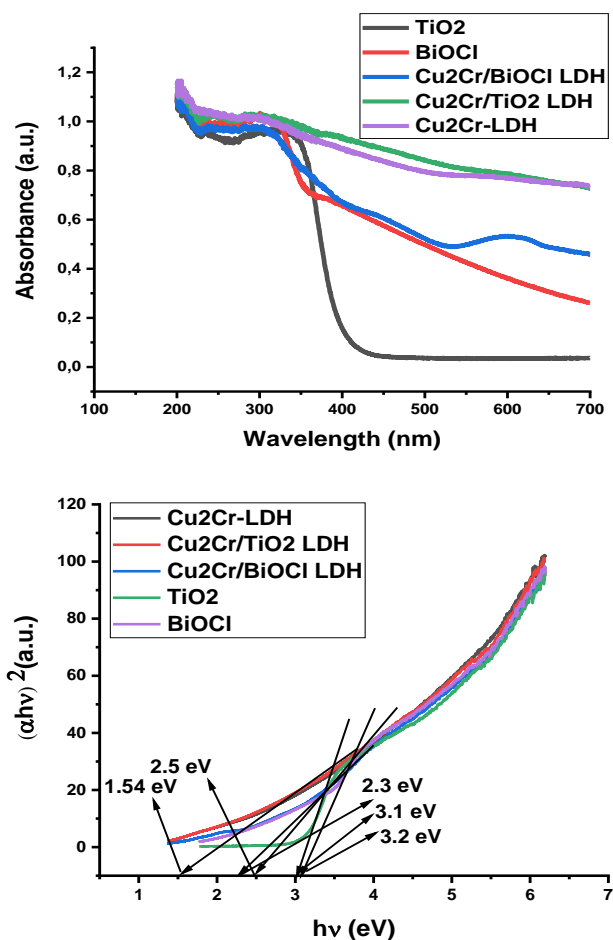


Fig. 2. (a) UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectra of the synthesized photocatalysts; (b) Bandgap energy estimations for the materials.

XPS analysis was conducted to evaluate the elemental composition and oxidation states of the synthesized materials.

The full XPS survey spectrum of the $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr}/\text{BiOCl}$ nanocomposite, shown in Figure 3 (a), confirmed the presence of Cu, Cr, C, Bi, Cl, and O elements. Figure. 3 (b), XPS analysis, confirmed Cu^{2+} in $[\text{CuO}_6]$ octahedral coordination (Cu 2p peaks at 932.7, 952.3 eV), The absorption band in the 500-700 nm - metal-to-metal range is attributed to metal-to-metal charge transfer ($\text{Cu}^{2+}-\text{O}-\text{Cr}^{3+} \rightarrow \text{Cu}^+-\text{O}-\text{Cr}^{4+}$) [34].

Table 1. Photophysical properties of prepared materials.

Materials	E_g (eV)	χ	$E_{(VB)}$ (V/SNH)	$E_{(CB)}$ (V/SNH)
$\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}$	2.5	7.194	3.944	1.444
$\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}/\text{TiO}_2$	1.54	-	-	-
$\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}/\text{BiOCl}$	2.3	-	-	-
TiO_2	3.1	5.639	2.689	-0.411
BiOCl	3.32	6.12	3.28	0.023

Cr^{3+} states (577, 986.2 eV). The O 1s peak (531.53 eV) indicated hydroxyl groups, while C 1s peaks (284.5, 288.3 eV) corresponded to surface carbon and interlayer carbonate [35].

XPS confirmed Ti^{4+} in $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}/\text{TiO}_2$, with Ti 2p peaks at 458.3 and 464.6 eV and satellite features at 461.8 and 466.7 eV. O 1s peaks at 529.4 and 532.4 eV indicated lattice oxygen and surface -OH groups, confirming anatase TiO_2 incorporation (Figure S3) [36].

XPS spectra of $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}/\text{BiOCl}$ revealed Bi 4f peaks (158.9, 164 eV), Cl 2p peaks (197.9, 199.4 eV), and O 1s peaks (529.8, 531.6, 532.6 eV). These are attributed to Bi-O bonds, Cl-O bonds, and OH groups, confirming the successful integration of BiOCl in the composite [37].

SEM images (Figure 4) highlight the morphology of TiO_2 , BiOCl, and their $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}$ -based nanocomposites. TiO_2 shows uniform pseudo-spherical nanoparticles (50-100 nm), typical of well-crystallized structures with high surface area. $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}/\text{TiO}_2$ exhibits plate-like LDH layers decorated with dispersed TiO_2 nanoparticles, confirming successful composite formation. BiOCl displays stacked nanosheets with smooth surfaces and ~39 nm thickness, consistent with its layered crystalline nature. In $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}/\text{BiOCl}$, irregular nanosheet aggregation and BiOCl nanoflowers integrated within the LDH structure form a hierarchical morphology. This combination enhances surface area, stability, and the density of active sites, improving photocatalytic and adsorption performance.

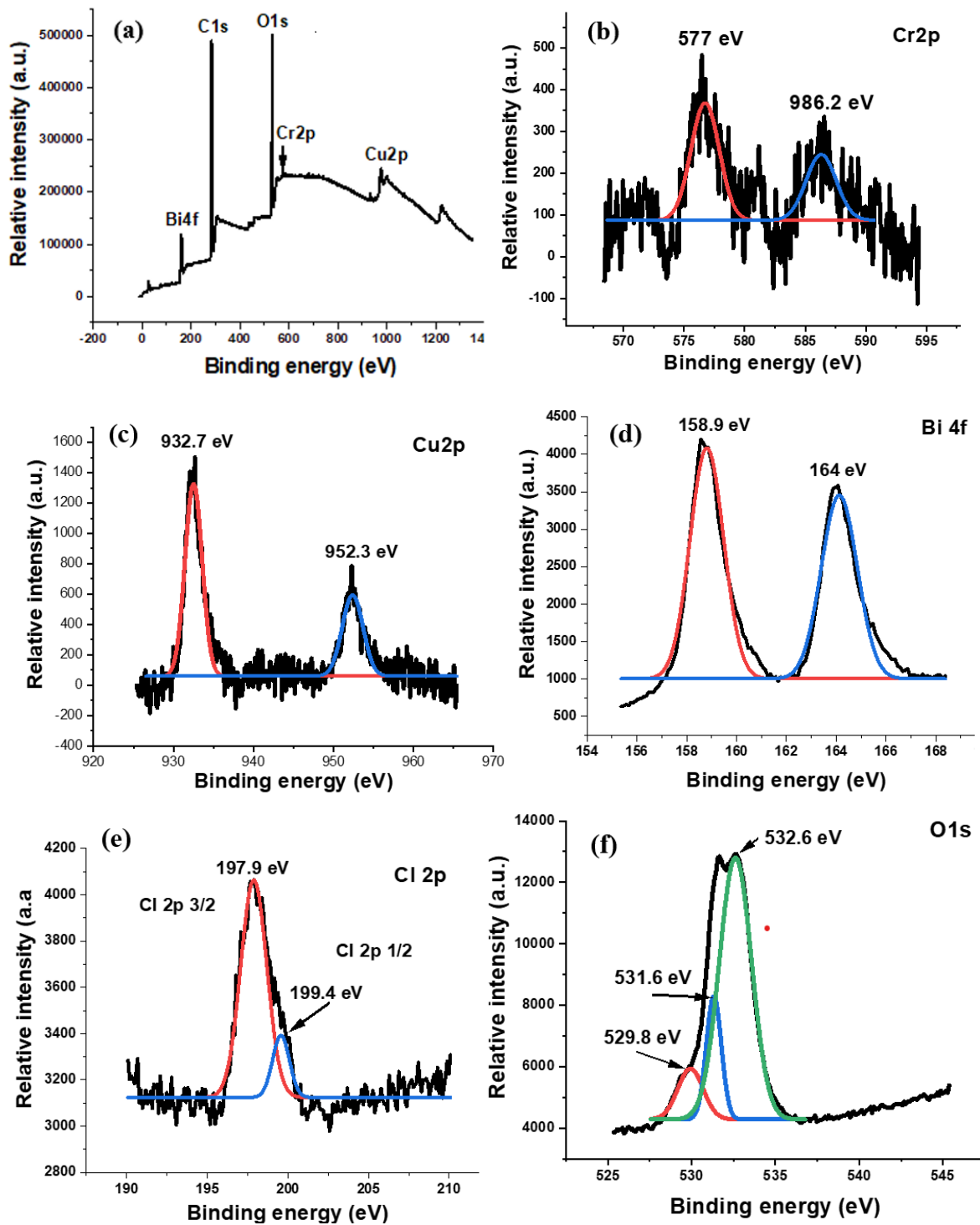


Fig. 3. (a) XPS Spectra for $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-HDL/BiOCl}$, with high resolution XPS spectra for (b) Cr 2p, (c) Cu 2p, (d) Bi 4f, (e) Cl 2p, and (f) O 1s.

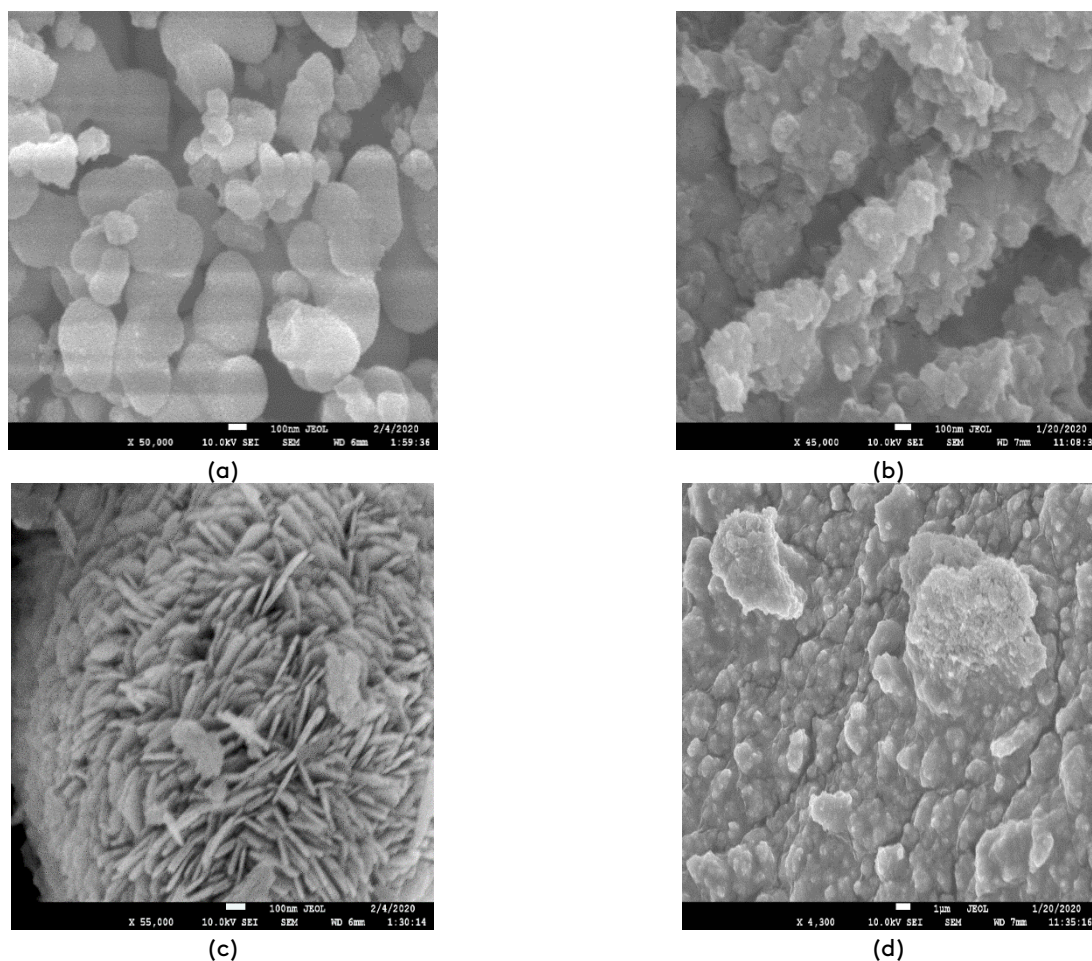


Fig. 4. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of (a) TiO_2 , (b) $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/TiO}_2$, (c) BiOCl , and (d) $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$.

3.1. Photocatalytic performance

The photocatalytic activity of the catalysts was assessed by rhodamine B degradation under sunlight. Blank tests showed 15.7% self-degradation, while adsorption in dark conditions was limited, with BiOCl (28.67%) showing the highest uptake and TiO_2 almost negligible. After 60 minutes of irradiation, BiOCl and TiO_2 exhibited the highest efficiencies at 96.45% and 70.22%, respectively, followed by $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ (90.29%), $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/TiO}_2$ (45.69%), and bare $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}$ (36.81%). The superior performance of the composites is attributed to heterojunction formation, improved morphology, and interfacial charge transfer, which effectively suppressed electron-hole recombination. Furthermore, the photocatalytic activities of BiOCl , TiO_2 , and the composites $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ and $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/TiO}_2$ are not solely dependent on their Bi or Ti content. The higher activity of BiOCl or TiO_2 in the composite

form (despite the lower amount compared to the pure phases) is attributed to the increased specific surface area of these nanophases dispersed on the $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}$ layers, which enhances light absorption and promotes more efficient separation of photo-induced electron-hole pairs.

The photocatalytic degradation kinetics of RhB can be analyzed using the pseudo-first-order kinetic model, expressed as [18]:

$$\ln(C_0/C_t) = kt \quad (6)$$

Here, C_0 denotes the initial concentration of RhB, C_t represents the concentration of RhB at time t , and k is the apparent rate constant (min^{-1}). This model is commonly employed to describe the degradation behavior of organic pollutants under photocatalytic conditions. As illustrated in Figure 5 (b), the photocatalytic activity of $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/TiO}_2$ and $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ nanocomposites for RhB degradation significantly surpassed that of the pure $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}$ phase. This model is commonly

employed to describe the degradation behavior of organic pollutants under photocatalytic conditions. The findings are presented in Figure 6 and Table 2. As illustrated in Figure 6 (b) and summarized in

Table 2, the photocatalytic activity of $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/TiO}_2$ and $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ nanocomposites for RhB degradation significantly surpassed that of the pure $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}$ phase.

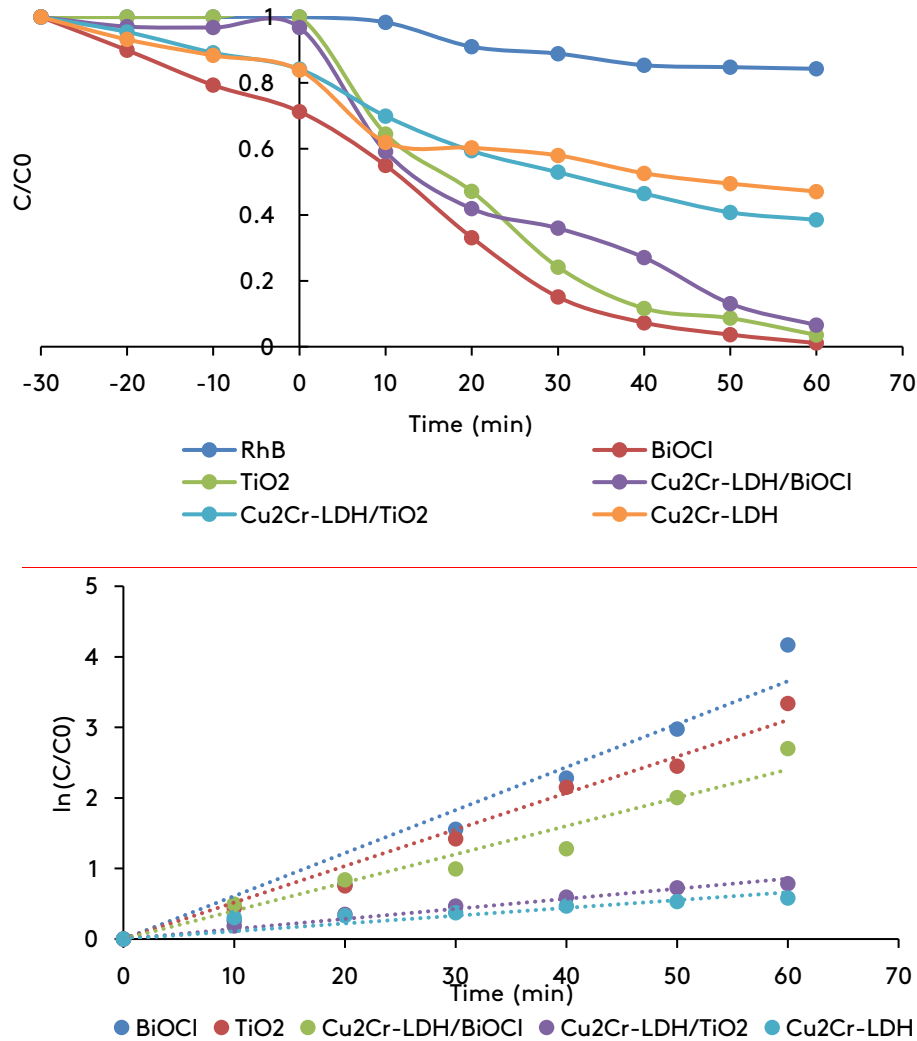


Fig. 5. (a) Temporal variation in the relative concentration of RhB dye; (b) Plots of $\ln(C/C_0)$ as a function of degradation time.

Table 2. Photocatalytic degradation kinetic of RhB by various materials.

Material	R_{Ad} , (%)	R_{ph} , (%)	K_{app} , (min^{-1})	$t_{1/2}$, (min)	$V_0 \times 10^{-3}$, (mg/L min^{-1})	R^2
Rhodamine B	-	15.7	-	-	-	-
TiO_2	0	96.45	0.0517	11.379	1.84	0.98
BiOCl	28.67	70.22	0.0609	13.404	6.74	0.99
$\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-HDL}$	16.11	36.81	0.011	17.325	5.1	0.95
$\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-HDL/TiO}_2$	16.11	45.69	0.0143	48.416	5.5	0.99
$\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-HDL/BiOCl}$	3.18	90.29	0.04	63	2.6	0.98

Figure 6 (b) clearly indicates a reduction in the rate constant k from $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ to $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/TiO}_2$, suggesting that the modification of $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}$ with BiOCl enhances its photocatalytic performance under sunlight. This improvement can be attributed to the unique morphology of BiOCl when deposited on the LDH surface, as well as the efficient generation and separation of electron-hole pairs on the photocatalyst's surface. These factors collectively contribute to the enhanced degradation efficiency of Rhodamine B.

pH is a critical factor affecting the efficiency of heterogeneous photocatalytic degradation of pollutants, as illustrated in Figure 6.

The effect of pH on RhB degradation was studied at pH 4, 7, and 10 using 5 ppm dye and 0.1 g catalyst. Carbonate-based LDH showed poor activity (45.69% at pH 7, 39.1% at pH 10), while $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ achieved 90.29% at pH 7 and 94.4% at pH 10, indicating optimal performance in alkaline conditions. The results highlighted the strong influence of surface charge on photocatalysis [38-40].

At low pH, electrostatic repulsion between cationic RhB, protons, and the positively charged catalyst surface inhibited adsorption and photocatalytic activity. As pH increased, reduced repulsion enhanced adsorption and degradation efficiency [41-44].

3.2. Regeneration

Regeneration tests were performed to evaluate the reusability of $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/TiO}_2$ and $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ nanocomposites. After each cycle, the catalysts were recovered, cleaned, and reused under identical conditions. As shown in Figure 7, both materials retained high photocatalytic activity over four cycles: $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/TiO}_2$ maintained ~54% efficiency, while $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ achieved ~90% RhB degradation after 60 minutes. The stable performance confirms strong structural integrity and interfacial stability of the composites. Their reusability demonstrates excellent durability, making them cost-effective and promising candidates for large-scale environmental remediation. Although BiOCl

exhibits the highest intrinsic photocatalytic performance, the use of composites such as $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ or TiO_2 -based systems is not solely aimed at enhancing photocatalytic activity, but also at increasing the practical applicability of the material in real water treatment processes. Indeed, BiOCl (39 nm) and TiO_2 (100 nm) nanoparticles tend to strongly agglomerate and are difficult to separate from treated water due to their very small size, which significantly limits their reusability and leads to a gradual loss of the photocatalyst over multiple cycles.

By supporting BiOCl (or TiO_2) in a nanostructured form on the $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH}$ layers, larger and more stable hierarchical particles are obtained, facilitating easy recovery through sedimentation or centrifugation without the need for complex filtration steps.

3.3. Effect of different scavengers

Scavenger experiments were conducted to identify the active species in RhB photodegradation by $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ and $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/TiO}_2$ under sunlight. Results showed that holes (h^+) and hydroxyl radicals ($\bullet\text{OH}$) were the dominant species, as their scavenging significantly reduced degradation efficiency. In contrast, superoxide radicals ($\text{O}_2\bullet^-$) played a minor role, with only slight decreases observed upon scavenging.

The $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ nanocomposite demonstrated higher efficiency than $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/TiO}_2$ due to its larger surface area and superior charge separation. Overall, these findings highlight the crucial role of h^+ and $\bullet\text{OH}$ in pollutant degradation and underline the potential of these nanocomposites for environmental remediation, Figure 8 (a) and 8 (b). Na_2EDTA , a scavenger for holes (h^+), was introduced, and the degradation efficiency of RhB decreased significantly. For the $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ nanocomposite, the decolorization rate dropped to 58.23% after 60 minutes of irradiation, while for $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/TiO}_2$, it fell to 33.19%. This substantial reduction indicates that holes (h^+) play a crucial role in the photocatalytic process, likely by directly oxidizing RhB molecules or generating other reactive species.

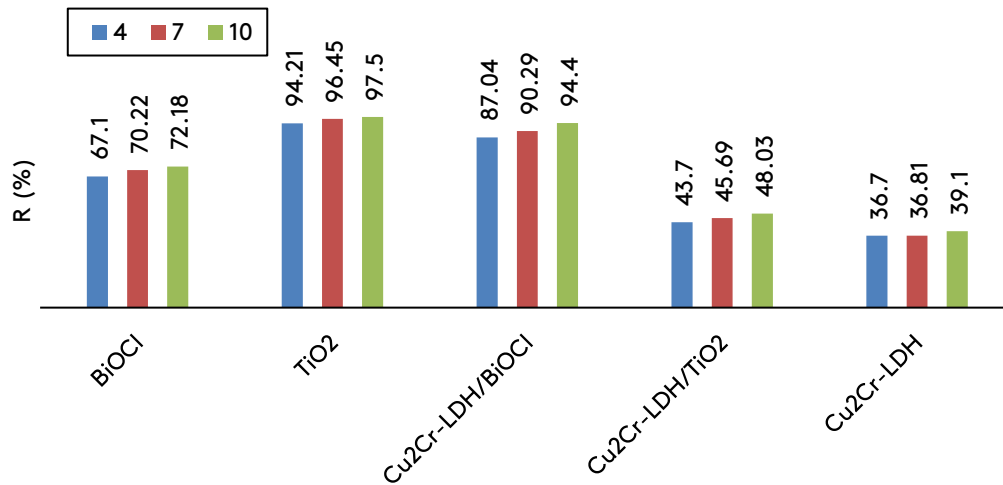


Fig. 6. Effect of solution pH on the degradation efficiencies.

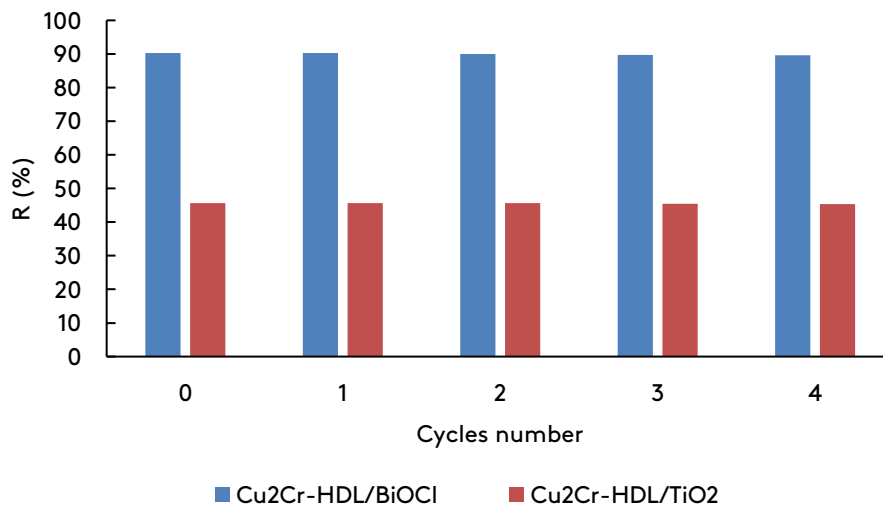


Fig. 7. Reusability tests for the photocatalytic degradation of Rhodamine B under sunlight irradiation.

Similarly, the addition of ethanol, which scavenges hydroxyl radicals (HO^\bullet), resulted in a reduction of the degradation efficiency to 46.34% for $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ and 24.09% for $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/TiO}_2$.

This suggests that HO^\bullet radicals are also significant contributors to the degradation process, as they are highly reactive and can effectively break down organic pollutants. In contrast, when ascorbic acid, a scavenger for superoxide radicals ($\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$), was used, the degradation efficiency remained relatively high, with $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/BiOCl}$ achieving 87.45% and $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cr-LDH/TiO}_2$ reaching 43.87% under the same irradiation conditions.

This indicates that superoxide radicals ($\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$) have a lesser role in the photodegradation process compared to holes (h^+) and hydroxyl radicals (HO^\bullet). These results demonstrate that the presence of Na_2EDTA , ethanol, and ascorbic acid significantly delayed the photocatalytic degradation of RhB, indicating that holes (h^+) and hydroxyl radicals (HO^\bullet) are the dominant active species driving the process. Superoxide radicals ($\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$) played a comparatively minor role in the degradation mechanism.

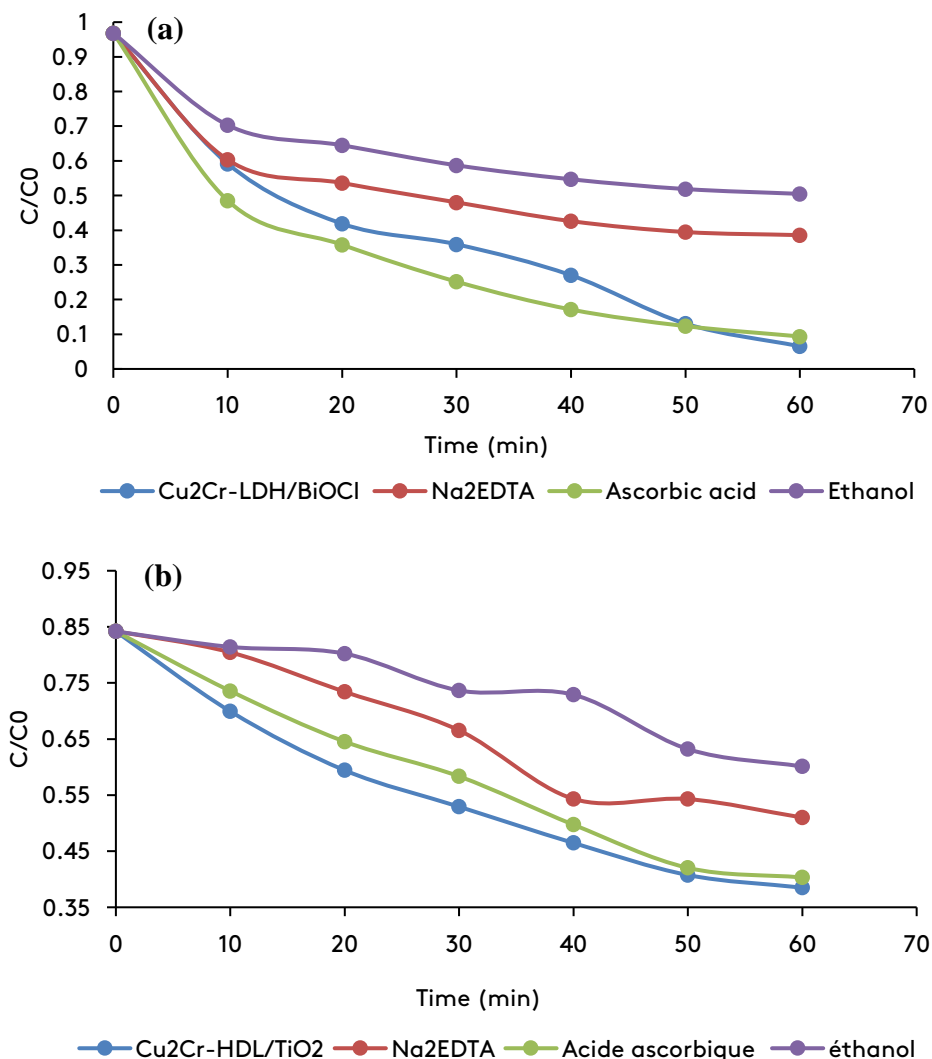


Fig. 8. The photocatalytic degradation of Rhodamine B by (a) Cu₂Cr-LDH/ BiOCl and (b) Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂ with and without scavengers.

3.4. Photocatalytic degradation mechanism of RhB over the nanocomposites

The enhanced photocatalytic activity of Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl under sunlight arises from the synergistic effects of its heterojunction structure and the Metal-to-Metal Charge Transfer (MMCT) process. Upon irradiation, both semiconductors are photoexcited, generating electron-hole pairs. Charge transfer occurs bidirectionally: electrons migrate from the CB of BiOCl to Cu₂Cr-LDH, while holes move from Cu₂Cr-LDH to BiOCl. This reduces recombination and enhances charge separation. In BiOCl, holes possess sufficient potential to oxidize H₂O/OH⁻ into highly reactive •OH radicals, which play a dominant role in RhB degradation. Although electrons in Cu₂Cr-LDH's CB cannot reduce O₂ to

O₂•⁻, RhB self-photosensitization provides an additional pathway [44]: excited RhB electrons transfer sequentially to BiOCl and Cu₂Cr-LDH, and directly reduce O₂ to O₂•⁻. These ROS, together with •OH, ensure efficient RhB mineralization (Scheme 1).

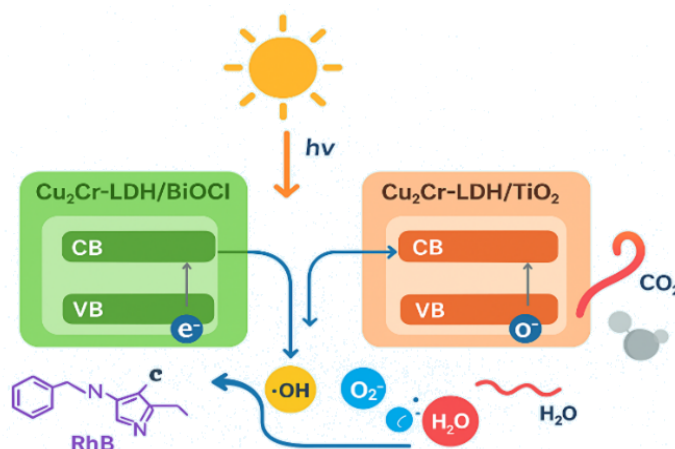
For Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂, the mechanism is similar but less efficient: TiO₂'s VB cannot oxidize H₂O to •OH (only OH⁻), while its CB electrons can reduce O₂ to O₂•⁻. Consequently, fewer •OH radicals are generated compared to BiOCl-based systems. Scavenger studies confirm that holes (h⁺) and •OH are the primary active species, while O₂•⁻ plays a secondary role.

Overall, the Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl heterostructure demonstrates superior performance due to more

favorable band alignment, efficient charge transfer, and RhB-assisted self-photosensitization.

3.5. Comparison of proposed nanostructures with other photocatalysts

In Table 3, the proposed photocatalyst is compared with other photocatalysts for RhB degradation [8, 10, 12, 28]. The CuCr-LDH/BiOCl nanostructure can remove more RhB with less photocatalyst consumption in a shorter time under visible light and is comparable with other photocatalysts.



Scheme 1. Mechanism of Rhodamine B dye degradation using Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl nanocomposites.

Table 3. Comparison of proposed photocatalyst with other photocatalysts.

Photocatalyst	Concentration (ppm)	Photocatalyst Amount (g)	Time (min)	Photocatalytic efficiency (%)	Ref
BiOCl/TiO ₂	20	0.8	80	99	[8]
Sn-doped BiOCl	10	20	60	91.2	[10]
NiFe-LDH/BiOCl	20	0.5	60	93.3	[12]
ZnCrLDH/graphene	10	0.1	140	93	[28]
Cu ₂ Cr-LDH/BiOCl	5	0.1	60	90.29	Present work
Cu ₂ Cr-LDH/TiO ₂	5	0.1	60	56.45	Present work
Cu ₂ Cr-LDH	5	0.1	60	31.36	Present work

4. Conclusion

Nano-heterostructured Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl and Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂ composites were successfully synthesized via co-precipitation and hydrothermal methods, with controlled molar ratios of Cu²⁺/Cr³⁺ (2:1) and Cr³⁺/Bi³⁺ or Cr³⁺/Ti⁴⁺ (2:2).

Structural and optical characterizations (XRD, SEM, UV-vis, XPS) confirmed the formation of well-defined heterojunctions, and the photocatalytic activity was assessed through Rhodamine B (RhB) degradation under sunlight. The photocatalytic efficiency followed the trend Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl > Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂ > Cu₂Cr-LDH, mainly due to the effective heterojunction-induced charge separation and reduced electron-hole

recombination, further enhanced by RhB self-photosensitization.

Scavenger experiments demonstrated that holes (h⁺) and hydroxyl radicals (•OH) are the primary reactive species governing the degradation mechanism. In addition, the composites exhibited high stability and reusability over four recycling cycles. Overall, these findings highlight the great potential of Cu₂Cr-LDH-based heterostructures, particularly Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl, as highly efficient and sustainable photocatalysts for real wastewater treatment applications.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to the Laboratory of Chemistry of Inorganic Materials and Applications (LCMIA) and the University of Science and Technology of Oran Mohamed Boudiaf (USTO-MB) for providing laboratory and instrumentation facilities, as well as UV-Visible spectroscopic, XRD, and SEM analyses.

Author's contribution

Ali Bouteiba: Drafting original article, carrying literature study and reporting, assisting in technical content writing, formatting, generating artistic diagrams. Ali Bouteiba, Naceur Benhadria: Conceptualization, planning, reviewing. Nourredine Bettahar: drafting, formatting.

Conflict of interest

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

Data availability

Not Applicable.

Funding

Self-funded.

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How to cite this paper:



Bouteiba, A., Benhadria, N. & Bettahar, N. (2026). Highly efficient sunlight-powered photocatalytic degradation of rhodamine B Using Cu₂Cr-LDH/TiO₂ and Cu₂Cr-LDH/BiOCl semiconductor nanocomposites. *Advances in Environmental Technology*, 12(3), 291-307. DOI: 10.22104/aet.2026.7739.2177