

SYNTHESIS OF TiO₂ NANOPARTICLES USING DURIAN PEEL EXTRACT FOR INDIGO CARMINE DYES PHOTOCATALYTIC DEGRADATION

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ABSTRACT

TiO₂ nanoparticles were successfully synthesized via a sol - gel using Durian (*Durio zibethinus*) peel extract as a green and sustainable approach for photocatalytic applications. The peel extract acted as a natural stabilizing and capping agent, with its bioactive compounds promoting the formation of nanocrystalline anatase (5 - 10 nm) exhibiting good colloidal stability and a bandgap of 3.2 eV. Photocatalytic evaluation showed that the bio-based TiO₂ nearly achieved ± 99 % degradation of indigo carmine within 60 min, comparable to commercial TiO₂. According to the result, utilization of durian peel extract for TiO₂ synthesis offers a sustainable strategy with potential application in textile wastewater treatment and contributing to circular economy practices.

Keywords: durian peel, green synthesis, indigo carmine, TiO₂ photocatalyst.

INTRODUCTION

Synthetic dyes are among the most persistent sources of aquatic pollution worldwide because of their extensive use in the textile, paper, and plastic industries. An estimated 15 % of global dye production is discharged into the environment, significantly increasing the chemical oxygen demand (COD) and threatening aquatic ecosystems [1]. Among these dyes, indigo carmine (C₁₆H₈N₂Na₂O₈S₂) is widely used because of its intense blue colour, high solubility, and strong stability provided by azo bonds (-C=C-). However, these properties also render indigo carmine highly resistant to natural degradation and toxic to aquatic organisms [2, 3].

Conventional wastewater treatment methods,

including coagulation, electro - decolorization, and biological processes, have been used to remove dyes. However, these approaches suffer from significant drawbacks, such as high operational costs, complex procedures, and the risk of secondary.

Pollutants are more hazardous than their parent compounds [4 - 6]. Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) have emerged as promising alternatives to overcome these limitations.

Among AOPs, photocatalysis using titanium dioxide (TiO₂), has attracted particular attention. Under ultraviolet irradiation, TiO₂ generates reactive oxygen species (•OH, •O₂⁻) that can mineralize organic pollutants into harmless end products, such as CO₂ and H₂O [7]. TiO₂ is favoured for its high stability, nontoxicity,

and cost-effectiveness. However, conventional TiO₂ synthesis routes often rely on hazardous chemicals, raising environmental and safety concerns [8].

Green synthesis methods employing plant extracts have been recently explored as sustainable alternatives to conventional methods. Biomolecules, such as flavonoids, tannins, phenolics, and terpenoid, can act as natural reducing and stabilizing agents during nanoparticle formation [9]. Durian peel (*Durio zibethinus*), an abundant agricultural by-product in Indonesia, contains high levels of cellulose 50 - 60 %, is also rich in secondary metabolites including flavonoid, tannins, saponins, alkaloids, phenolics, and terpenoids [10]. Previous studies have demonstrated the successful use of durian peel extract in the synthesis of zinc oxide (ZnO) and silver (Ag) nanoparticles, both of which exhibited significant photocatalytic and antibacterial activities [11, 12]. However, despite TiO₂ being one of the most extensively studied photocatalysts, its green synthesis using durian peel extract has not yet been reported. This research gap highlights an opportunity for developing sustainable photocatalysts from agricultural waste.

This study focuses on synthesizing TiO₂ nanoparticles (TiO₂ NPs) via a sol - gel method assisted by durian peel extract as a green synthesis approach and evaluating their photocatalytic performance in dye degradation. The synthesis was conducted with variations in extract volume and synthesis pH. The crystal phase, band gap energy, particle size distribution, and surface charge properties of the resulting materials were determined. Indigo carmine was employed as a model organic dye pollutant to assess the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ NPs under UV irradiation, with systematic variations in catalyst mass, dye concentration, and solution pH.

EXPERIMENTAL

Materials

Titanium IV isopropoxide (TTIP) from Sigma Aldrich 97 % was employed as the main precursor for TiO₂ and subsequently diluted in ethanol from Smart Lab and distilled water as solvents. Commercial TiO₂ (Merck) was also used for comparison. Durian peel (*Durio zibethinus*) was used as the source of the green synthesis bio - mediated extract. Indigo carmine dye (Sigma - Aldrich) was selected as the model organic pollutant without further purification. Hydrochloric acid

(HCl, Merck) and sodium hydroxide (NaOH, Merck) were used for pH adjustment. Gallic acid (Merck) and quercetin (Merck) were used as standard references for determining TPC and TFC.

Preparation of the Durian peel extract

Durian peels were collected from a local market in Serpong, South Tangerang, and the white portion of the inner peel was carefully separated. The material was cut into small pieces, thoroughly washed, and dried at 60°C for 24 h. The dried peels were ground using a mechanical grinder and sieved through a 60 - mesh screen to obtain a fine powder. The powdered sample was then transferred into a glass flask with a foil - covered beaker and subjected to maceration using distilled water at a powder - to - solvent ratio of 1 : 10 (w/v). The extraction process was carried out under continuous stirring with a magnetic stirrer at 500 rpm and 80°C for

1 h. The resulting mixture was centrifuged at 7000 rpm for 5 min to separate the filtrate from the solid residue. The obtained filtrate was preserved under refrigeration and subsequently used as a stabilizing agent in the synthesis of TiO₂ nanoparticles [13]. The total phenolic content (TPC) was determined using the Folin - Ciocalteu method with gallic acid as a standard, whereas the total flavonoid content (TFC) was analysed using the AlCl₃ colorimetric method with quercetin as a standard [14].

Synthesis of TiO₂ NPs

TiO₂ NPs were synthesized via a green sol - gel method using durian peel extract as a natural stabilizing agent and titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP) as the precursor. A TTIP solution in ethanol (p.a) was hydrolysed by the gradual addition of distilled water and durian peel extract at a mixing ratio of TTIP: ethanol: water: extract (2 : 5 : 1 : 1 v/v) under magnetic stirring at 500 rpm for 24 h at room temperature, as shown in (Fig. 1). The resulting gel was centrifuged at 9500 rpm for 8 min, washed dried 80°C for 24 h, calcined 500°C for 2 h, and ground to obtain white TiO₂. The volume of extract added to the TTIP solution with an initial pH of 5 was 2.5, 5, and 7.5 mL, denoted by the codes TiO₂ - A, TiO₂ - B, and TiO₂ - C. During synthesis with the optimal extracts, the initial pH was adjusted to 3, 5, 7, and 9, corresponding to TiO₂ -D, TiO₂ -A, TiO₂ - E, and TiO₂ -F, respectively. The pH was adjusted using HCl or

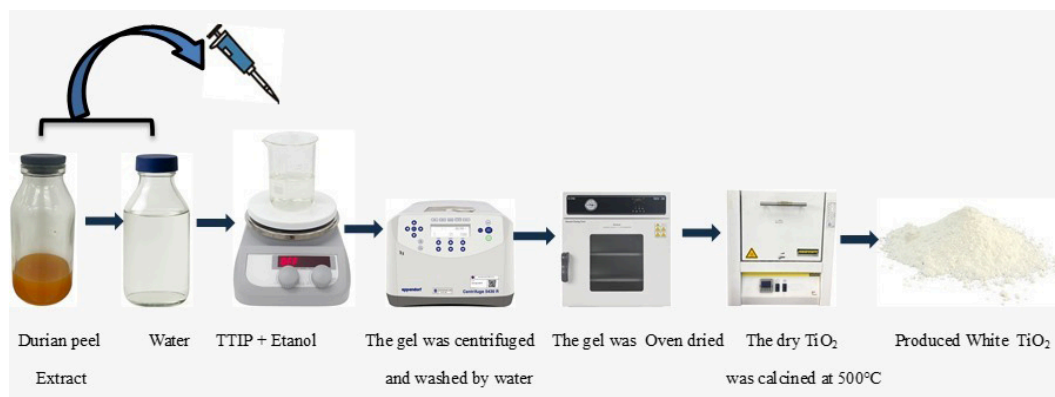


Fig. 1. Synthesis of TiO₂-NPs using durian peel extract.

NaOH. For comparison, commercial TiO₂ (Com - TiO₂) was used as a reference material [15].

Characterization of TiO₂ NPs

Functional groups were identified using Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT - IR, Bruker Tensor II) in the range of 400 - 4000 cm⁻¹. The crystalline structure and phase of TiO₂ was analyzed using X - ray diffraction (XRD, Rigaku SmartLab, Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.54 \text{ \AA}$), and the average crystallite size was calculated using the Scherrer equation [16]. The particle size distribution was determined using a particle size analyser (Malvern Panalytical). Surface charge properties were evaluated by zeta potential analysis (Zetasizer Ultra, Malvern Panalytical). The optical bandgap was measured by UV - Vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV - Vis DRS) in the range of 200 - 400 nm.

Photodegradation experiment

The photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ was evaluated through indigo carmine degradation under UV irradiation. A 10 ppm dye solution was mixed with 0.1 g TiO₂ and pre - stirred in the dark for 15 min to establish adsorption - desorption equilibrium. The suspension was then irradiated with a UV lamp ($\lambda = 254 \text{ nm}$, power = 20 watt) for 60 min. Then, 5 mL aliquots were withdrawn every 15 min, centrifuged at 10.000 rpm for 10 min, and analysed by UV - Vis spectrophotometry (Genesys 150 Thermo Scientific) at 500 - 700 nm. The degradation efficiency was calculated using Eq. (1).

$$\text{Degradation (\%)} = \frac{A_0 - A_t}{A_0} \times 100 \% \quad (1)$$

where A_0 is the initial indigo carmine absorbance and

A_t is the absorbance at time [13]. The effects of catalyst dosage (0.1 - 0.4 g), initial dye concentration (5 - 40 ppm), and pH (3 - 9) were systematically investigated.

Reusability test

The reusability of TiO₂ was assessed under optimized experimental conditions, including the optimum catalyst dosage, initial indigo carmine concentration, and solution pH. The photocatalytic reactions were performed following the same procedure as the activity test. After each runs, the catalyst was recovered by vacuum membrane filtration, thoroughly washed by deionized waters, and dried at 80°C for 4 h before reuse. The photocatalytic performance stability was evaluated over four consecutive cycles [17].

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Total phenolic content (TPC) and total flavonoid (TFC) content of Durian peel

Table 1 presents the quantitative analysis of durian peel extract, showing a TPC of 43.68 mg GAE g⁻¹ and a TFC of 27.95 QE g⁻¹. These values indicate a

Table 1. Total phenolic content (TPC) and total flavonoid (TFC) of durian peel extract.

Parameter	Value (mean \pm SD)	unit
TPC (Total phenolic content)	43.68 \pm 0.06	GAE g ⁻¹
TFC (total flavonoid content)	27.95 \pm 0.4	QE g ⁻¹

high abundance of bioactive compounds with dual functionality as stabilizing agents in the green synthesis of TiO₂ nanoparticles. Phenolic compounds, through hydroxyl group, facilitate the stabilizing of titanium precursors and the formation Ti-O-Ti bond, whereas flavonoids interact with Ti⁴⁺ ions via hydroxyl and carbonyl groups, thereby preventing agglomeration and ensuring homogeneous nanoparticle dispersion [18].

Compared with other plant based extracts, such as green tea (*Camellia sinensis*, TPC 30 - 40 mg GAE g⁻¹) and mangosteen peel (*Garcinia mangostana*, TFC 50 - 60 mg QE g⁻¹), durian peel extract exhibits comparable phenolic and flavonoid contents [18 - 20]. This result suggests that the extract provides sufficient phytochemical strength to effectively mediate the sol-gel synthesis of TiO₂ nanoparticles. Moreover, the performance of nanocrystalline anatase with controlled particle growth is promoted.

Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy of the Durian peel extract and the prepared TiO₂

FT - IR spectroscopy was used to identify the functional groups present in the aqueous extract of durian peel and the synthesized TiO₂ nanoparticles. Fig. 2a, the extract exhibited characteristic absorption bands at 3303 cm⁻¹ (O-H stretching of phenolics/flavonoids, typically observed in the 3200 - 3400 cm⁻¹) and 1632 cm⁻¹ (C=O stretching and H-O-H bending of bound water, usually reported at 1600 - 1650 cm⁻¹), confirming

the presence of secondary metabolites acting as capping agents. This result agrees with those of previous reports on polyphenol - mediated green synthesis [21].

After calcination at 500°C, significant spectral changes were observed in TiO₂ samples. At TiO₂ - B exhibited O-H (3612 cm⁻¹), C = O (1530 cm⁻¹) and Ti-O-Ti (502 cm⁻¹) bands were observed, indicating residual organic moieties coating the nanoparticle surface, consistent with the stabilizing role of phytochemicals [22]. In contrast TiO₂ - A showed a sharper spectrum dominated by the Ti-O-Ti vibration 516 cm⁻¹, suggesting that it is a purer TiO₂ with organic residues [23]. At higher extract volume TiO₂ - C the Ti-O-Ti vibration shifted to 503 cm⁻¹, which may be attributed to the effect of oxygen vacancies or bound water on lattice vibration [24].

The effect of pH was also evident (Fig. 2b). At TiO₂ - D a dual band at 521 cm⁻¹ and 502 cm⁻¹ indicated heterogeneous Ti-O bonding due to limited phenolic deprotonation under acidic conditions [25]. At TiO₂ - E, the Ti-O-Ti band shifted to 529 cm⁻¹ with the strongest intensity and minimal organic interference, reflecting a more stable and coordinated Ti-O-Ti network. Conversely, TiO₂ - F shifted to a lower wave number 506 cm⁻¹, suggesting weaker Ti-O bonds and higher defect densities caused by accelerated condensation [26]. Overall, the FT - IR spectra confirmed the role of durian peel extract as a dual capping agent. Furthermore, both extract volume and pH critically modulate Ti-

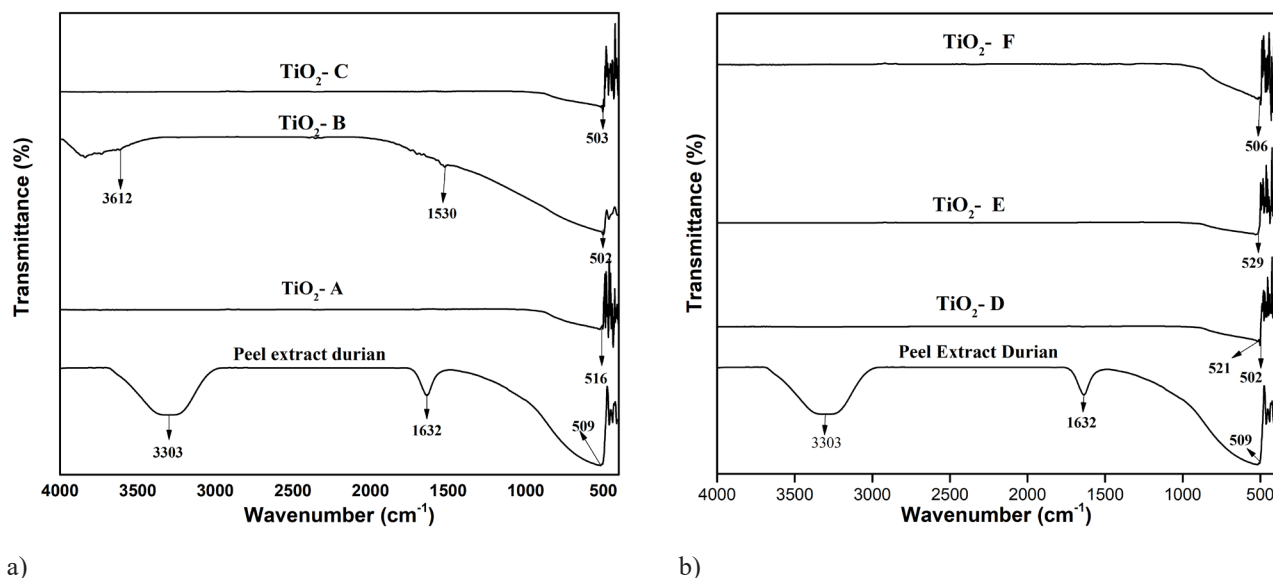


Fig. 2. FT-IR spectrum of of Prepared TiO₂ (a) effect of extract volume and (b) effect of pH variation.

O-Ti network integrity, defect density, and surface chemistry. These structural modifications are expected to influence the photocatalytic activity, where stronger Ti-O-Ti coordination at TiO₂ - E correlates with higher crystallinity and potentially enhanced dye degradation.

X-Ray diffraction (XRD) analysis of prepared TiO₂ NPs

As shown in Fig. 3, XRD analysis confirmed that all TiO₂ samples synthesized via the sol-gel method with durian peel extract exhibited a pure anatase phase, consistent with JCPDS 96-900-9088, with the main diffraction peak at (101) around 25° [27, 28]. Calcination at 500°C successfully produced stable anatase crystals without rutile or brookite impurities.

Peak broadening indicated a progressive reduction in the crystallite size with increasing extract volume and under more alkaline conditions. Scherrer calculations (Table 2) revealed that the crystallite sizes ranged from 9.15 nm (TiO₂ - A) to 5.79 nm (TiO₂ - F), which was significantly smaller than commercial TiO₂ 48.41 nm.

This demonstrates the role of organic metabolites as capping agents that inhibit crystal growth and promote nucleation, thereby yielding nanoscale particles [29].

The XRD findings correlate well with the FT-IR results. At TiO₂ - B, residual O-H (3612 cm⁻¹) and C=O (1530 cm⁻¹) bands supported the presence of organic compound, consistent with smaller crystallite sizes. In contrast, TiO₂ - A exhibited a dominant Ti-O-Ti band (516 cm⁻¹), reflecting purer TiO₂ with slightly larger crystals due to minimal capping influence. At TiO₂ -

Table 2. Crystallite Sizes of prepared TiO₂.

Sample	Crystallite size, nm
TiO ₂ - A	9.15
TiO ₂ - B	7.80
TiO ₂ - C	6.80
TiO ₂ - D	9.06
TiO ₂ - E	7.41
TiO ₂ - F	5.79
Com - TiO ₂	48.41

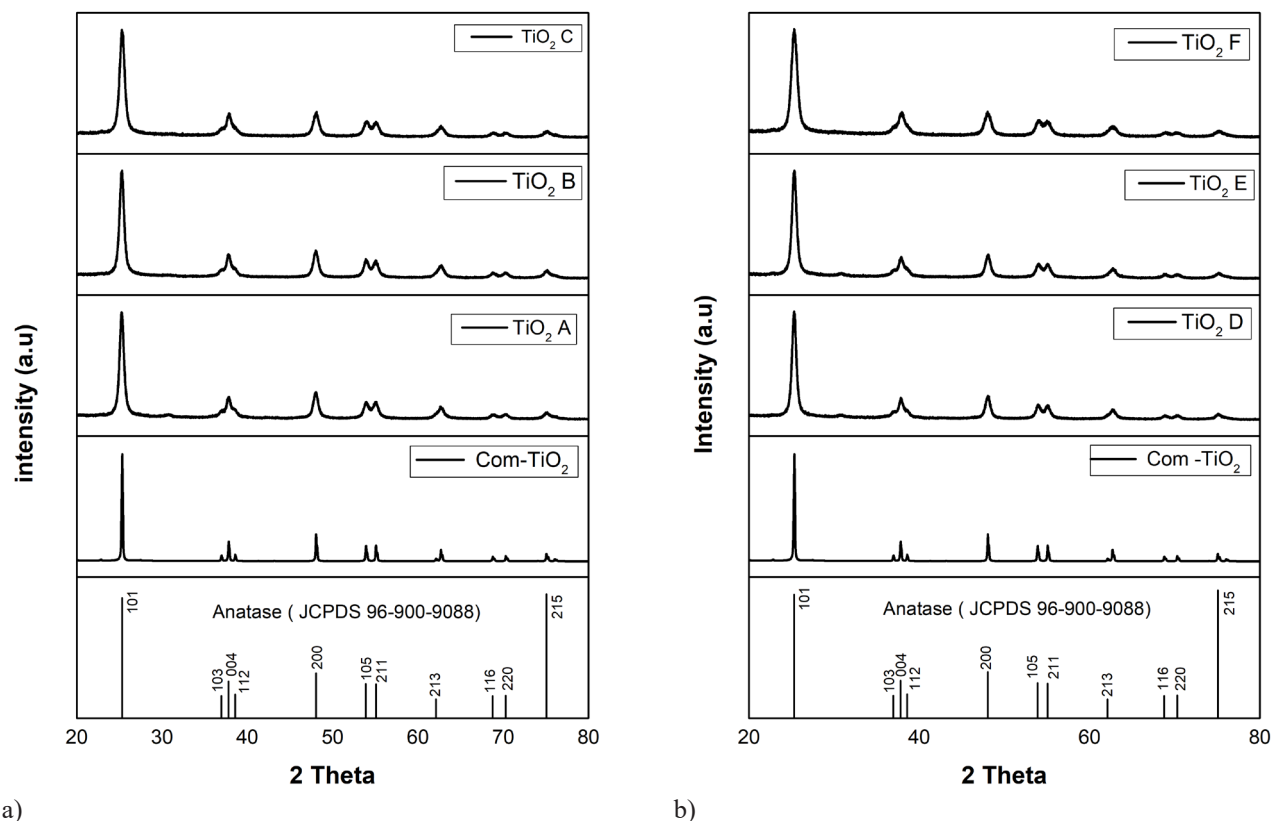


Fig. 3. XRD pattern of prepared TiO₂ (a) effect of extract volume and (b) effect of pH variation.

C the Ti-O-Ti shift to 503 cm^{-1} may indicate oxygen vacancies, aligning with the smallest crystallite size. pH effects further validated this relationship. TiO_2 - D, heterogeneous Ti-O bonding (521 or 502 cm^{-1}), showed relatively larger crystallites, while TiO_2 - E correlated exhibited strong Ti-O-Ti bonding at 529 cm^{-1} with intermediate crystallite size, suggesting optimal structural order. Conversely, TiO_2 - F exhibited lower wavenumber shifts, signifying weakened Ti-O bonds and higher defect density, consistent with the smallest crystallites resulting from accelerated condensation [26]. Compared with other plant - mediated syntheses, the crystallite size obtained in this work is notably smaller. For example, TiO_2 NPs synthesized using mangosteen extract typically range from 12 to 15 nm [30], and green tea peel extract approximately 21.04 nm [18]. The smaller crystallite sizes achieved with durian peel extract highlight its superior capping efficiency, which is attributed to its high polyphenol and flavonoid content.

Smaller crystallite sizes are generally advantageous from an application perspective because they provide a larger specific surface area, offering more active sites for dye degradation. Oxygen vacancies and defect states, while potentially enhancing dye adsorption, may also increase electron - hole recombination rates. Therefore, balancing the crystallite size and structural defects is critical for optimizing the photocatalytic activity of the resulting TiO_2 nanoparticles [31].

Particle size analyzer and zeta potential of prepared TiO_2 NPs

PSA measurement demonstrated that both extract volume and synthesis pH strongly influenced particle size. As shown in Fig. 4. increasing the extract volume caused a non - linear trend, with the hydrodynamic diameter increasing from 86.2 nm (TiO_2 - A) to 101.9 nm (TiO_2 - B) and 27.9 nm (TiO_2 - C). This data suggests that incomplete surface capping allowed agglomeration at moderate extract volume, whereas excess extract provided stronger phenolic/flavonoid capping, effectively minimizing aggregation and leading to ultra-small hydrodynamic sizes. For comparison, commercial TiO_2 exhibited a hydrodynamic particle size of 233.6 nm , which is significantly larger than that of the biosynthesized TiO_2 samples. This indicates that the green synthesis approach using plant extract effectively produces nanoparticles with smaller size and better

dispersion stability than commercial TiO_2 .

Variation in pH also showed a significant effect on particle size, with values of 120 nm for TiO_2 - D at pH 3, 81.4 nm for TiO_2 - E at pH 7, and 103.2 nm for TiO_2 - F at pH 9. For comparison, TiO_2 - A at pH 5 exhibited a particle size of 86.2 nm . These results clearly indicate that under neutral (pH 7) and slightly acidic (pH 5) conditions, the particle size tends to be smaller than that in strongly acidic (pH 3) or alkaline (pH 9) environments. These values are substantially larger than the XRD crystallite size, reflecting the hydrodynamic diameter of agglomerated particles surrounded by solvated organic shells [32]. Increased extract volumes enhanced phenolic/flavonoid capping, thereby restricting crystal growth, whereas alkaline conditions promoted agglomeration and neutral pH favored controlled nucleation [33, 34]. A similar observation was reported for TiO_2 synthesized using *Sizygium cumini* seed extract, which showed a hydrodynamic size of 120 nm despite much smaller XRD crystallites, confirming that particle agglomeration and solvated organics typically enlarge the measured diameter [35].

Zeta potential analysis (Fig. 5) showed values ranged from -32.0 mV (TiO_2 - A) to -23.1 mV (TiO_2 - B) and -20.13 mV (TiO_2 -C). After pH adjustment, the values shifted -32.7 mV (TiO_2 - D) to -29.0 (TiO_2 - E) and finally -25.1 mV (TiO_2 - F). The commercial TiO_2 exhibited a zeta potential of -25.32 mV , indicating moderate electrostatic stability. Zeta potentials above $\pm 30\text{ mV}$ indicated strong electrostatic stability, whereas lower magnitudes suggest moderate stability [36]. The shift toward negative charge is consistent with the point of zero charge pH pzc, as the TiO_2 surface tends to be negatively charged at $\text{pH} > \text{pHpzc}$. This observation agrees with a previous report on the synthesis of TiO_2 using *Ocimum sanctum* leaf extract, where negative zeta potentials demonstrated good nanoparticle surface stability [37]. For neem extract -mediated TiO_2 , smaller particles improved the surface area but reduced the zeta potential, which lies between size minimization (enhancing surface active sites) and colloidal stability (ensuring effective dye dispersion) [38].

In summary, particle size minimization was achieved at TiO_2 - C, whereas the highest electrostatic occurred at TiO_2 - D. This underscores the trade-off between the reduction of crystallite size and colloidal stability. Comparable findings were noted in [39].

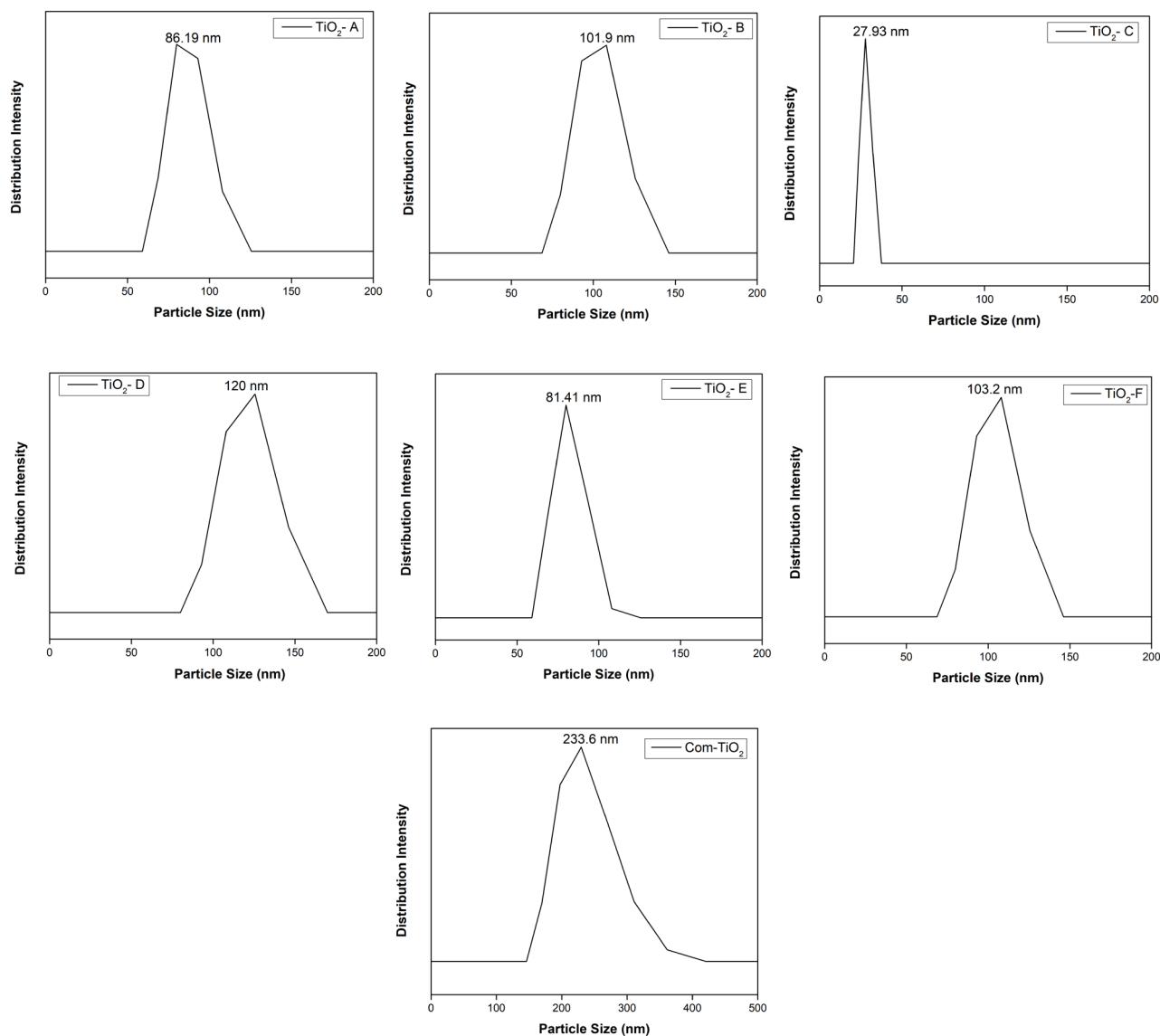


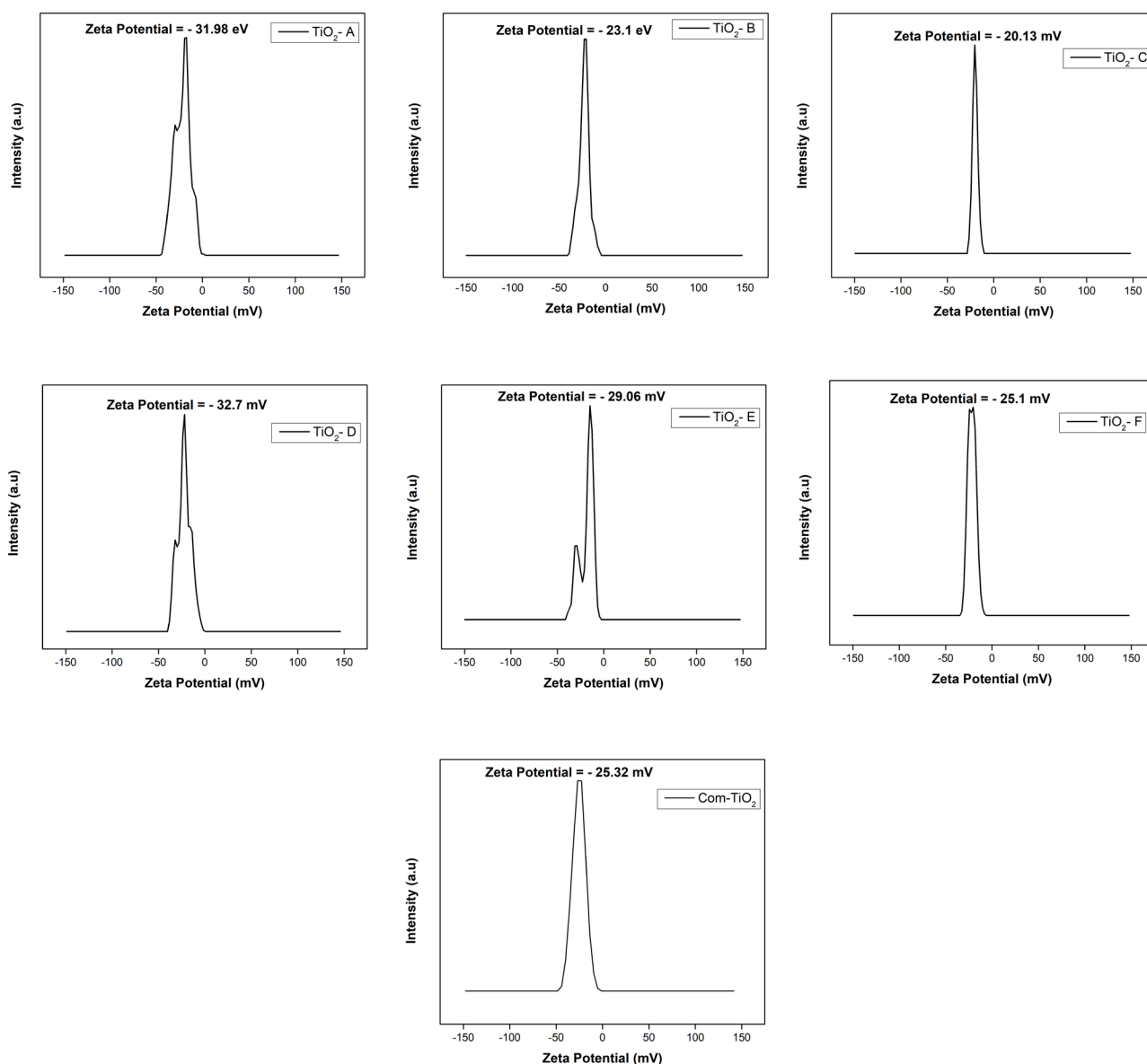
Fig. 4. Particle size of the prepared TiO₂.

Ultraviolet - visible diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV- Vis DRS)

UV- Vis DRS analysis the Kubelka Munk (Tauch Plot) method revealed bandgap values of 3.23 - 3.29 eV for TiO₂ nanoparticles synthesized using the durian peel extract. Variation in extract volume yielded (Fig. 6a) 3.23 eV (TiO₂ - A), 3.26 eV (TiO₂ - B), and 3.27 eV (TiO₂ - C), while pH variation produced 3.29 eV (TiO₂ - D), 3.25 eV (TiO₂ - E), and 3.29 eV (TiO₂ - F). These values are consistent with anatase TiO₂ bandgap (3.27 eV) reported in the literature [40, 41].

Correlation with PSA and zeta potential indicates that higher extract volumes reduce particle size, thereby

enhancing surface passivation and slightly shifting the band gap upward, likely due to increased surface electron density influenced by organic ligands [42]. At extreme pH (TiO₂ -C and TiO₂ - D), the excess protonation of phenolics provides stronger coordination with Ti centers. Both effects help preserve higher bandgaps (3.29 eV). Conversely, near - neutral TiO₂ - E exhibited the lowest bandgap (3.25 eV), while TiO₂ - A showed an even smaller band gap of 3.23 eV [43]. This can be associated with residual organic molecules introducing mid - gap or sub - band states that facilitate additional light absorption [44, 45]. Overall, bandgap TiO₂ synthesized with durian peel extract shows good agreement with commercial

Fig. 5. Zeta potential of the prepared TiO_2 .

anatase, confirming the optical suitability of this green synthesized material for photocatalytic applications.

Photocatalytic activity of the prepared TiO_2 NPs

The direct photolysis of indigo carmine was inefficient, achieving only 17 % degradation after 60 min, highlighting the need for a photocatalyst [46, 47]. In contrast, TiO_2 synthesized with durian peel extract (Fig. 7a) (TiO_2 A - C) exhibited markedly higher activity, degrading > 60 % of dye within 15 min

and reaching nearly 100 % within 60 min, whereas commercial TiO_2 remained slower (30 % at 15 min). The superior performance of extract - mediated TiO_2 can be attributed to the smaller crystallite size (6 - 9 nm), which increases the density of surface-active sites and induces a slight bandgap widening (3.23 eV). This structural optical synergy promotes more efficient electron-hole separation, enhancing photon absorption and the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ radicals responsible for dye

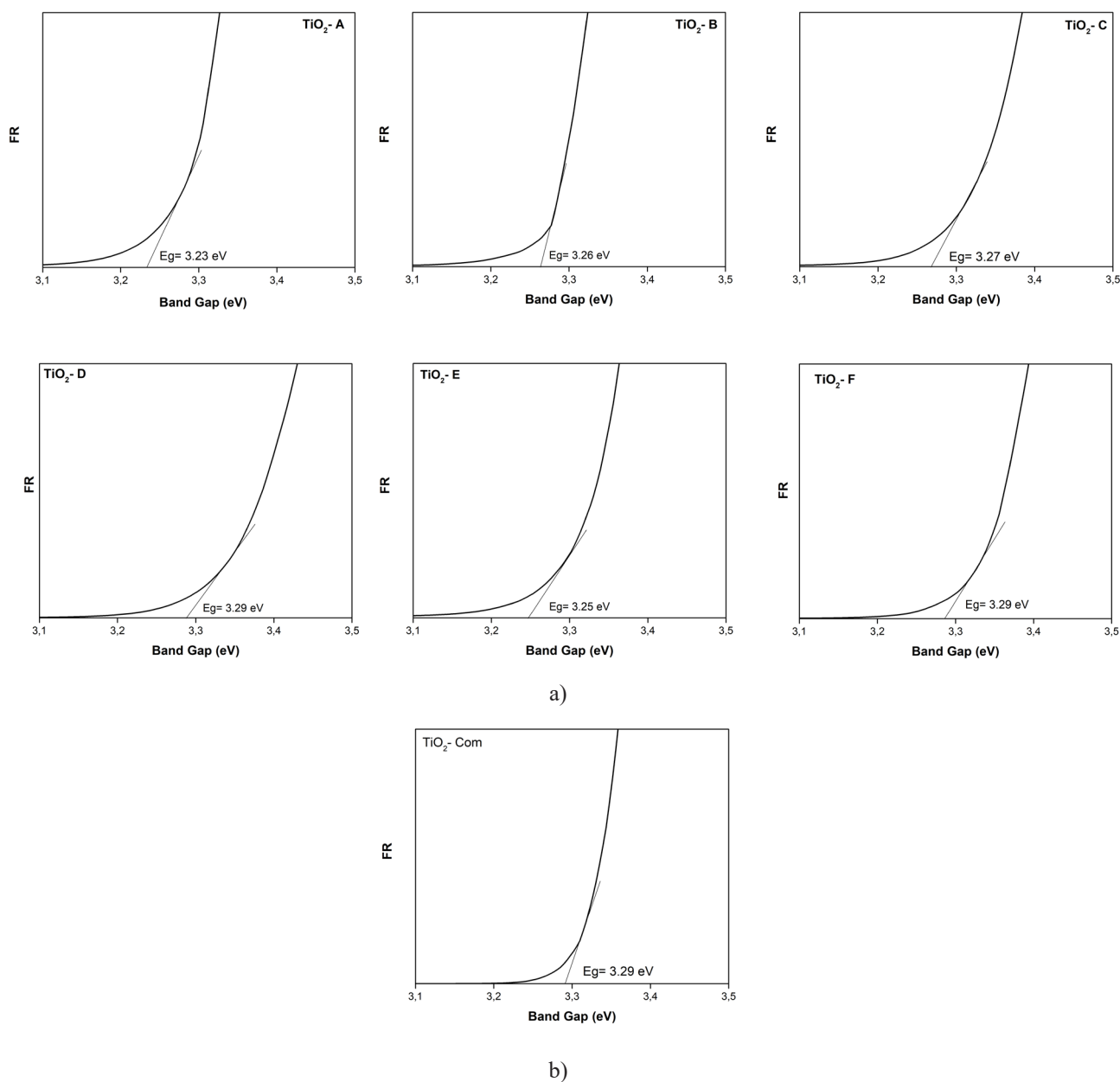


Fig. 6. (a) Bandgap value of the synthesized TiO_2 nanoparticles based on the Kubelka-Munk factor plot. (b) Bandgap value of commercial TiO_2 .

mineralization [48]. This is consistent with recent studies reporting that the reduction of TiO_2 crystallite size facilitates charge separation and increases ROS productivity, which directly enhances photocatalytic performance [31].

The effect of synthesis pH is also critical. Catalysts prepared at pH 3 - 7 (Fig. 7b) achieved nearly 100 % degradation within 60 min, whereas those prepared at pH 9 decreased to 90 % degradation. Although alkaline synthesis promoted smaller crystallites, the

strongly negative surface charge at $\text{pH} > \text{pH}_{\text{pzc}} = 4.32$ induced electrostatic repulsion with anionic dye molecules, thereby suppressing adsorption and limiting photocatalytic activity [49]. Therefore, TiO_2 - D was selected as photocatalyst for further experiment.

The initial dye concentration significantly influenced the degradation percentage. At 5 - 10 ppm (Fig.8b), nearly complete degradation was achieved within 60 min, whereas higher concentrations 30 - 40 ppm reduced efficiency to 60 - 70 %. This decline is consistent with

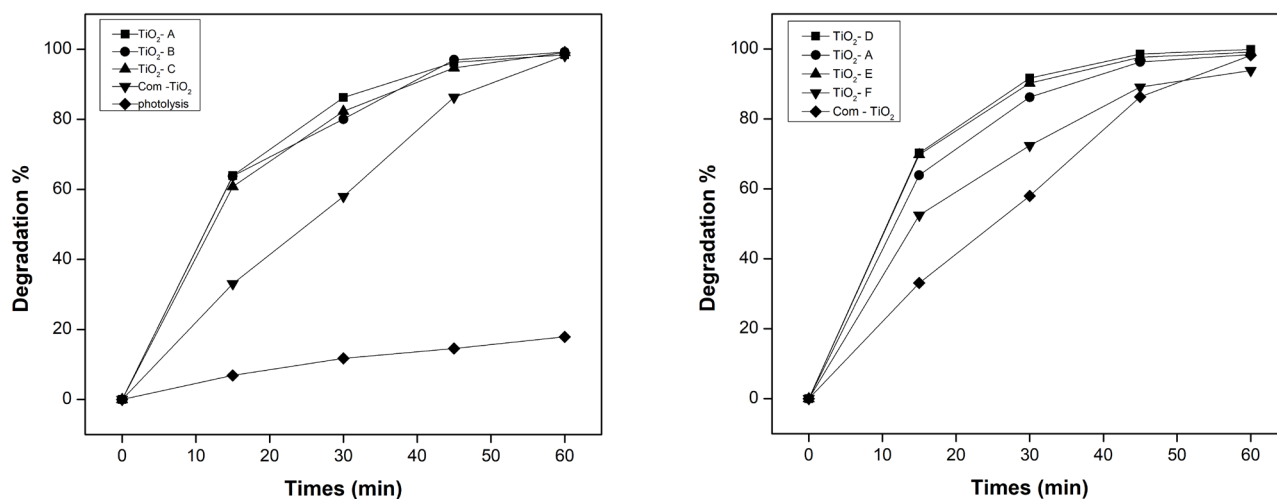


Fig. 7. Degradation efficiency of indigo carmine using prepared TiO₂: (a) effect of extract volume and (b) effect of synthesis pH.

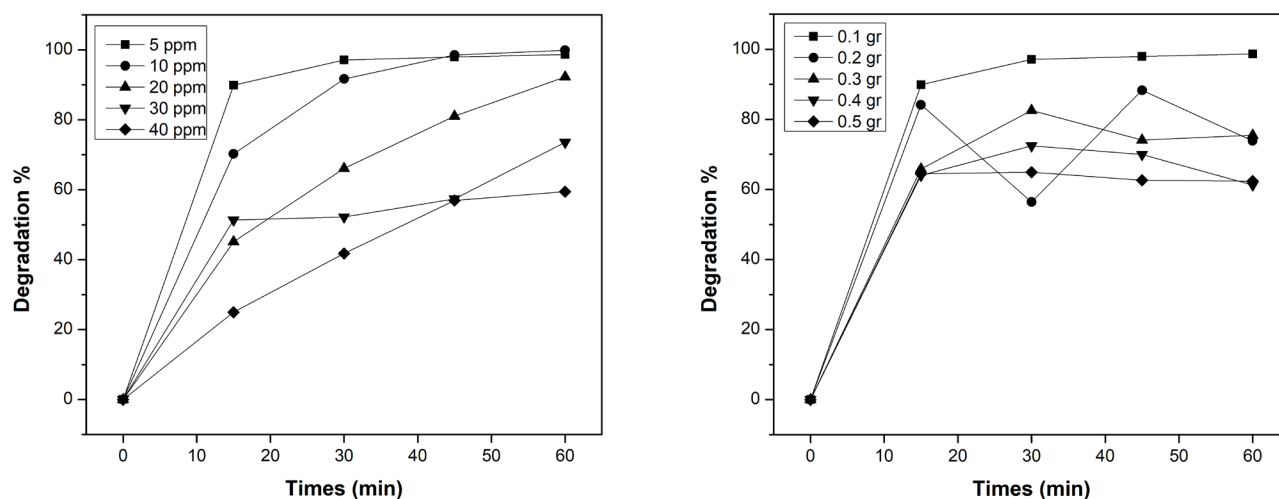


Fig. 8. Degradation percentage of indigo carmine using prepared TiO₂-D: (a) effect of mass catalyst and (b) effect of initial dye concentration.

the Langmuir Hinshelwood kinetic model, where increasing the dye concentration saturates the catalyst surface and decreases the apparent rate constant k due to reduced $\bullet\text{OH}$ radical availability [50, 51]. The catalyst loading also demonstrated an optimum. Maximum efficiency was achieved at 0.1 g (Fig. 8a), but higher dosages reduced performance due to excessive light scattering and opacity, which limit photon penetration and consequently suppress ROS [52, 53].

The solution pH further modulated the photocatalytic efficiency. Under acidic conditions (Fig. 9) ($\text{pH} < \text{pH}_{\text{pzc}} = 4.32$), the electrostatic attraction between the positively charged TiO₂ surface and the anionic dye molecules

enhanced the adsorption and accelerated the degradation. This result was supported by zeta potential data (-32.7 mV at TiO₂ - D), which indicated strong colloidal stability and favourable dye catalyst [54].

Overall, the green - synthesized TiO₂ derived from durian peel extract exhibits superior photocatalytic performance compared to commercial TiO₂, with optimal activity under acid to neutral pH, low dye concentrations, and moderate catalyst loading. The system achieved nearly complete indigo carmine degradation within 60 min under UV - irradiation. According to a previous report, the photocatalytic oxidation of indigo carmine predominantly proceeds via cleavage of the central C=C

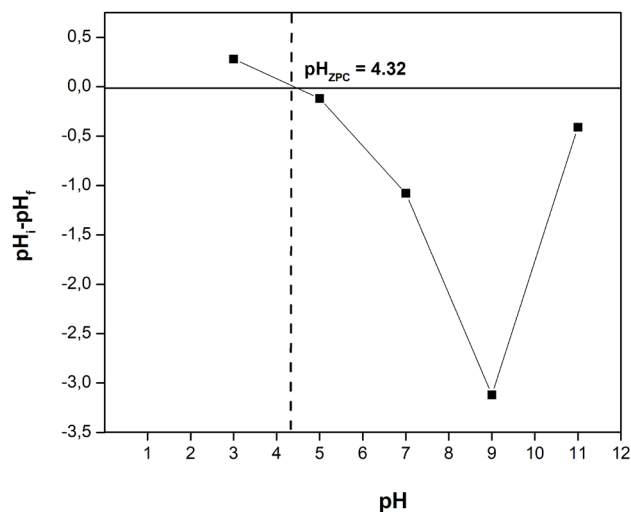
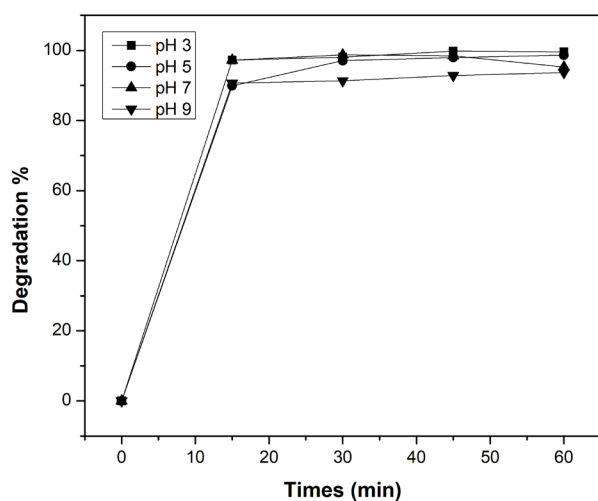


Fig. 9. Degradation percentage of indigo carmine using prepared TiO₂-D (a) Point of zero charge TiO₂-D (b) Effect of dye pH.

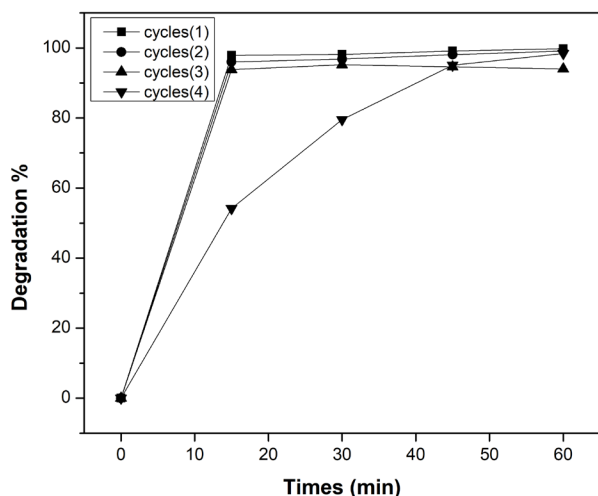


Fig. 10. Reusability of TiO₂-D as a photocatalyst for indigo carmine degradation.

bond followed by desulfonation of the $-SO^-$ group, yielding sulfonated aromatic intermediates such as isatin-5-sulfonic acid and 2-amino-5-sulfobenzoic acid before final mineralization into CO_2 , NO_3^- , and SO_4^{2-} [55].

Reusability of the prepared TiO₂ catalyst

Reusability tests of TiO₂-D in indigo carmine degradation demonstrated stable performance over three cycles, maintaining nearly 100 % efficiency (Fig.10). A slight decline of 98.41 % was observed in the fourth cycle, accompanied by a catalyst mass loss of 0.03 g from the initial 0.10 g, corresponding to a 30 % reduction. The decrease can be attributed to unavoidable catalyst loss

during recovery and washing. These findings confirm the good reusability of TiO₂ based photocatalysts, consistent with reports that activity may gradually decline due to mass loss over repeated use [56, 57].

CONCLUSIONS

TiO₂ nanoparticles were successfully synthesized via a green sol - gel route using durian peel extract as a natural stabilizer agent, yielding pure anatase with a crystallite size 5 - 10 nm, a band gap of 3.23 - 3.29 eV, and good colloidal stability. The photocatalyst exhibited outstanding efficiency, achieving ± 99 % degradation of indigo carmine within 60 min and maintaining nearly 100 activities over three reuse cycles using TiO₂ - D as photocatalyst. These findings highlight the potential of durian peel as a sustainable green stabilizer that supports circular economy practices. However, further studies on real wastewater matrices and long - term recyclability are required for industrial implementation.

Acknowledgments

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Authors contributions

D.N.S.: Experimental work, Writing original draft, Formal analysis, Design of research; K.K.: Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis, Writing - review & Editing, Design of the research, Project management and funding acquisition; R.D.Y.: Writing - review & Editing and Validation; A.H., R.A.P., V.S, and T.O: Formal analysis and Validation.

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