

ISBN: 978-93-47587-64-1

TRANSFORMATIVE SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY SHAPING THE NEXT DECADE

Volume II

Editors:

Dr. Rajesh Deshmukh

Dr. Chetan Jawale

Dr. Sachin R. Rahangdale

Dr. Atma Nand



BHUMI PUBLISHING, INDIA
FIRST EDITION: JULY 2026

Transformative Science and Technology: Shaping the Next Decade Volume II

(ISBN: 978-93-47587-64-1)

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.21719333>

Editors

Dr. Rajesh Deshmukh

Department of Botany,
B. Raghunath Arts, Commerce & Science
College, Parbhani, Maharashtra

Dr. Chetan Jawale

Department of Zoology,
G.E.S's Arts, Commerce & Science College,
Jawhar, Palghar, Maharashtra

Dr. Sachin R. Rahangdale

Department of Physics,
Late N. P. W. Arts, Commerce and
Science College,
Andhalgaon, Maharashtra

Dr. Atma Nand

Department of Mathematics,
School of Applied and Life Sciences,
Uttaranchal University,
Dehradun, Uttarakhand



July 2026

Copyright © Editors

Title: Transformative Science and Technology: Shaping the Next Decade Volume II

Editors: Dr. Rajesh Deshmukh, Dr. Chetan Jawale, Dr. Sachin R. Rahangdale, Dr. Atma Nand

First Edition: July 2026

ISBN: 978-93-47587-64-1



DOI: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.21719333>

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted, in any form or by any means, without permission. Any person who does any unauthorized act in relation to this publication may be liable to criminal prosecution and civil claims for damages.

Published by Bhumi Publishing,

a publishing unit of Bhumi Gramin Vikas Sanstha



Nigave Khalasa, Tal – Karveer, Dist – Kolhapur, Maharashtra, INDIA 416 207

E-mail: bhumipublishing@gmail.com



Disclaimer: The views expressed in the book are of the authors and not necessarily of the publisher and editors. Authors themselves are responsible for any kind of plagiarism found in their chapters and any related issues found with the book.

PREFACE

Science and technology have always been the driving forces behind human progress, continuously transforming the way we live, work, communicate, and understand the world. As we enter a new era of unprecedented innovation, the coming decade promises remarkable advancements that will redefine industries, improve quality of life, and address some of humanity's most pressing challenges. *Transformative Science and Technology: Shaping the Next Decade* brings together diverse perspectives that explore these emerging frontiers and their potential to create a sustainable, inclusive, and technologically advanced future.

This volume presents scholarly contributions from researchers, academicians, professionals, and innovators across multiple disciplines. The chapters highlight recent developments in artificial intelligence, biotechnology, healthcare, environmental sustainability, renewable energy, smart systems, data science, advanced materials, agriculture, and digital transformation. While each chapter focuses on a specific area of expertise, together they demonstrate the interconnected nature of scientific discovery and technological innovation in solving complex global problems.

The primary objective of this book is to provide readers with a comprehensive understanding of transformative technologies while encouraging critical thinking about their ethical, social, environmental, and economic implications. We hope that the knowledge presented here will inspire interdisciplinary collaboration, stimulate innovative research, and support evidence-based decision-making among students, educators, scientists, policymakers, and industry professionals.

We express our sincere gratitude to all contributing authors for sharing their valuable research and insights with dedication and enthusiasm. We also acknowledge the reviewers for their constructive suggestions, which have significantly enhanced the quality of this volume. Our appreciation extends to the editorial team and the publisher for their unwavering commitment and meticulous efforts in bringing this book to completion.

We trust that *Transformative Science and Technology: Shaping the Next Decade* will serve as a valuable academic resource, inspire future innovations, and contribute meaningfully to the ongoing pursuit of scientific excellence and sustainable technological development.

- Editors

TABLE OF CONTENT

Sr. No.	Book Chapter and Author(s)	Page No.
1.	EMERGING TECHNOLOGIES AND SCIENTIFIC INNOVATIONS FOR THE NEXT DECADE Barjinder Kaur and Shahnaz Kossar	1 – 11
2.	APPLICATION OF THE AKBARI-GANJI METHOD TO NONLINEAR SHIP ROLL MOTION WITH HIGHER-ORDER NONLINEARITIES A. Ananthi Christy	12 – 16
3.	ANALYTICAL SOLUTION OF A NONLINEAR REACTION- DIFFUSION EQUATION FOR OXYGEN TRANSPORT IN IMMOBILIZED GLUCONOBACTER OXYDANS USING THE AKBARI-GANJI METHOD N. Mehala	17 – 21
4.	ADVANCED FUNCTIONAL OXIDES FOR NEXT-GENERATION ELECTRONIC DEVICES Shahnaz Kossar, Barjinder Kaur and Sahil Sharma	22 – 31
5.	NANOTECHNOLOGY FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: EMERGING MATERIALS AND APPLICATIONS Shahnaz Kossar, Barjinder Kaur, Sahil Sharma, Shawn Jagnandan, Antalov Jagnandan and Mohammad Ayaz Ahmad	32 – 42
6.	DEGREE-BASED TOPOLOGICAL INDICES: MATHEMATICAL FOUNDATIONS, STRUCTURAL PROPERTIES, AND APPLICATIONS IN QUANTITATIVE STRUCTURE-PROPERTY RELATIONSHIPS T. Maruthi and I. Paulraj Jayasimman	43 – 50
7.	GREEN CHEMISTRY: PRINCIPAL AND APPLICATION Archana Sharma	51 – 60
8.	INTEGRATED FOOD SAFETY AND QUALITY ASSURANCE FRAMEWORKS Seerat Gupta and Neeraj Gupta	61 – 72
9.	SECURESPHERE: A WEB-BASED CYBERSECURITY TOOL PLATFORM Azad Gupta and Neha Bagga	73 – 84

10.	THERMOLUMINESCENCE MATERIALS AND ITS APPLICATIONS Vijay R. Chinchamatpure	85 – 91
11.	BLOCKCHAIN ECOSYSTEMS: AN OVERVIEW OF TYPES AND EMERGING APPLICATIONS Snehanshu Ayer and Puneet Kalsi	92 – 97
12.	DECENTRALIZATION AND CONSENSUS MECHANISM IN BLOCKCHAIN MANAGEMENT Gagandeep Sharma, Archana Devi and Meenu	98 – 105
13.	PLASMA-BASED ENVIRONMENTAL TECHNOLOGIES Barjinder Kaur and Shahnaz Kossar	106 – 116
14.	A MULTI-AGENT PRODUCT REVIEW INTELLIGENCE SYSTEM: AUTOMATED SENTIMENT ANALYSIS, ASPECT EXTRACTION, AND FAKE REVIEW DETECTION USING NLP AND LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS Richa Avasthy and Chetna	117 – 128

EMERGING TECHNOLOGIES AND SCIENTIFIC INNOVATIONS FOR THE NEXT DECADE

Barjinder Kaur* and Shahnaz Kossar

School of Natural Sciences, GNA University, Phagwara, Punjab 144401

*Corresponding author E-mail: kaurbarjinder1@gmail.com

Abstract

Many industries, economies, and societies are changing at a rapid rate due to the revolution of science and technology. The subject of science and technology is changing rapidly with the transformation of industries, economies and societies at an unprecedented rate. New technologies like Artificial Intelligence (AI), quantum computing, biotechnology, the Internet of Things (IoT), robotics, renewable energy systems, space technologies, nanotechnology, and new cybersecurity solutions are bringing innovative solutions to today's worldwide problems in healthcare, education, manufacturing, agriculture, environmental sustainability and digital governance. This chapter gives an in-depth overview of these transformative technologies, focusing on their principle, recent developments, applications, and prospects. It also explores how digital, biological and physical technologies are increasingly coming together and affecting research, industrial processes, and everyday life. Along with this, the chapter addresses some of the essential ethical and societal concerns, such as data privacy, cybersecurity, algorithmic bias, workforce transformation, environmental impact and the digital divide, underlining the need for responsible innovations and adequate regulatory measures. Future trends, focused on technology convergence, human-centred innovation, sustainable development and global collaboration, are discussed in the epilogue of the chapter. It stresses that an interdisciplinary research approach, cooperation between nations and investment in education and digital infrastructure will inevitably be central to achieving these benefits at least cost and effectively managing risks. Overall, the chapter postulates a balanced forecast on the impact emerging technologies and scientific innovations are likely to have on the next decade's smarter, more sustainable, secure and inclusive future.

Keywords: Artificial Intelligence (AI), Quantum Computing, Internet of Things (IoT), Biotechnology, Cybersecurity, Sustainable Development.

1. Introduction

Science and technology have always been the fundamental pillars of human/economic progress, continuously transforming societies and improving the living standards of people, increasing economic productivity and solving complex global problems. Through the Industrial Revolution and the Digital Age, scientific developments and technological advances have transformed the

world in numerous fields, such as medicine, the education system, agriculture, transportation, communication, and industry. The current dynamic and rapid development of AI (Artificial Intelligence), Biotechnology, Quantum Computing, robotics, renewable energy, nanoscience and IoT (Internet of Things) is enabling opportunities for sustainable development and global cooperation as never before. These innovations enhance efficiency and productivity and also transform the ways of how people interact, learn, work and respond to the essential services provided. The Fourth Industrial Revolution, or Industry 4.0, is a milestone in the evolution of technology. However, the Fourth Industrial Revolution is unique because it is powered by the merging of physical, digital and biological systems, not mechanisation, electric power or digital computing.

Advancements in technologies like AI, machine learning, cloud and big data, blockchain, autonomous systems and beyond are influencing how industries are being transformed by intelligent automation and data-driven decision-making. These developments open up great opportunities for economic development and the improvement of the welfare of society, but also involve important issues regarding cybersecurity, ethical rule of law, changes in the workforce, data protection, and sustainability.

The demand for interdisciplinary collaboration, responsible innovation and effective policy frameworks is "a given" when dealing with those challenges. This chapter looks at some of the innovative scientific discoveries and breakthroughs in technology that will likely define the coming decade. It discusses how these are used in different sectors—such as healthcare, education, agriculture, manufacturing, energy, and environmental management—and their role in relation to the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). In addition, the chapter presents discussions on potential barriers, opportunities and ethical implications for these technologies and a glimpse into future directions in research. In this chapter, the authors update readers on the trends and future directions of science and technology and how they will continue contributing to societal transformation, innovation and resilience in the near future.

2. Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning

Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Machine Learning (ML) have emerged as key catalysts for innovation, reshaping industries and enhancing scientific research and decision-making efficiency. While AI involves the implementation of computer systems with human-like intelligence – specifically that of learning, reasoning, problem solving, and decision making – ML develops an ability in computers that can recognise patterns in data for improvement without the need for explicit programming. With the recent progress of AI technologies like big data, cloud computing, and deep learning algorithms, the technology has become increasingly popular with increased applications in many domains, thus becoming one of the main technologies of the Fourth Industrial Revolution.

With large language models and diffusion models, generative AI, the most recent class of AI models, has greatly enhanced AI's capabilities by producing content such as human-like text, images, videos, and software code. These technologies can aid research, content generation, software development, and enterprise automation, boosting productivity and creativity. In the medical field, AI aids in the diagnosis of diseases at an early stage by analysing medical images, helps in the development of new drugs, assists in surgical procedures with robots and supports individual care in individualised medicine by analysing patient-specific clinical data. These applications facilitate better access to healthcare, more precise diagnostics and better care outcomes.

The field of education is also being reshaped by AI, with adaptive learning systems, intelligent tutoring, automated evaluations, and virtual laboratories that offer customised learning experiences. Additionally, AI is the backbone of Industry 5.0, with humans working along with intelligent machines and collaborative robots to enable the realization of sustainable, resilient, highly customised manufacturing. AI-Predictive Maintenance, Digital Twins, and AI-Smart Supply Chain enhance industrial productivity. AI-Predictive Maintenance, Digital Twins, and AI-Smart Supply Chain increase industrial productivity and reduce operational costs and environmental impact.

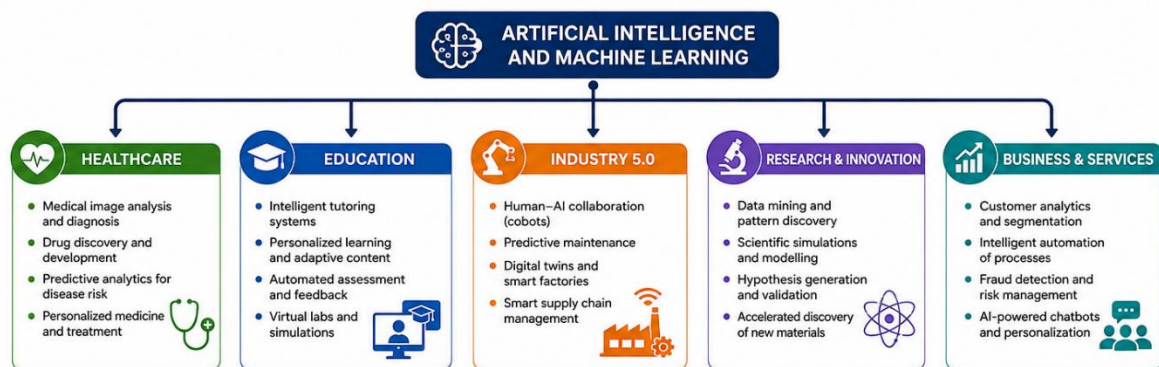


Figure 2.2. AI-Driven Sustainable Development

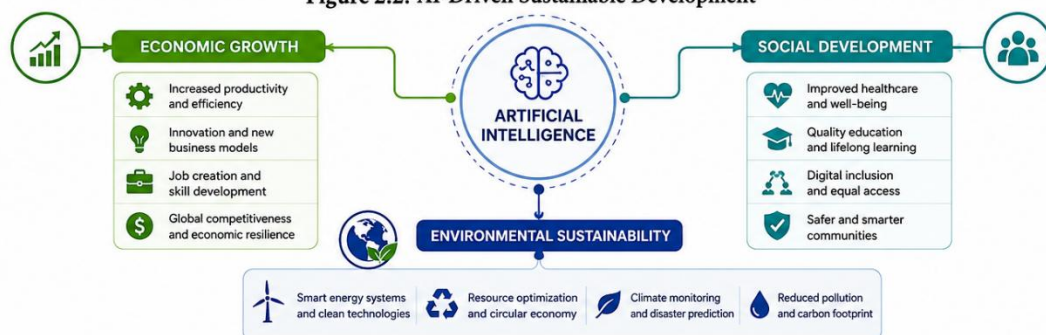


Figure 1: Applications of Artificial Intelligence and machine Learning

However, AI also presents significant ethical and regulatory challenges, such as algorithmic bias, privacy concerns, cybersecurity risks, and the potential for misuse of intellectual property rights. Despite these benefits, there are still ethical and regulatory issues that need to be addressed,

including the potential for algorithmic bias, privacy concerns, cybersecurity risks, misuse of intellectual property rights, misinformation, and workforce displacement. The solution lies with transparent administration, responsible innovation, and cooperation amongst nations to meet these challenges. Over the next 10 years, AI and ML can be a catalyst for sustainable economic growth, quality of life and solving global problems, provided they are defined by associated ethical principles and appropriately controlled by human oversight.

3. Quantum Computing

Quantum Computing is an emerging technology based on the principles of quantum mechanics that can process information beyond the capacity of a classical computer. Whereas the classical bit has two states (0 or 1), the quantum bit (qubit) may be in multiple states at once through superposition. Of course, there is another most basic principle called entanglement, under which qubits can be connected, and this will accelerate and simplify complex calculations beyond imagination. This is known as quantum interference, and helps to produce an ever more accurate computational outcome. Recent years have shown tremendous advances made by major tech companies and science centres in developing quantum processors. The development of more stable qubits, methods for quantum error correction, and scalable architectures has advanced the progress from experimental prototypes to real-world quantum computing devices. Cloud-based quantum platforms have also facilitated the investigation of quantum algorithms and applications by researchers and industries around the world. There is transformative potential of quantum computing across several sectors. In medicine, it can speed up drug discovery, protein structure prediction, and customising medicine.

In finance, quantum algorithms can help with optimizing investment portfolios, analyzing risks, preventing fraud, and forecasting in the financial sector. The potential of quantum computing is both to provide quantum-safe cryptography and to threaten to compromise current encryption techniques, requiring the creation of post quantum cryptographic standards in cybersecurity.

Future development of quantum hardware, software and algorithms will likely impact climate modeling, materials sciences, AI, and scientific research, and will catapult Quantum Computing into one of the most exciting technologies of the coming decade.

4. Biotechnology and Precision Medicine

Modern healthcare is changing faces as Biotechnology and Precision Medicine come together to integrate known advances in genetics, molecular biology and bioinformatics for targeted therapies and better patient outcomes. A game-changer is CRISPR-Cas9, the groundbreaking gene editing technology that allows scientists to target and change specific genetic sequences. In addition to correcting defective genes, CRISPR has demonstrated incredible potential for treating rare genetic diseases, inherited disorders, certain cancer types and has progressed the field of biotechnology in food and biomedical. Precision medicine transcends the traditional one-size-

fits-all approach to care by tailoring medical treatment to fit one person's unique genome, lifestyle and surroundings. With help from genomic sequencing and artificial intelligence, medical workers can determine which diseases are likely to occur, which medicines are likely to be best, and which are likely to have negative side effects. Such a patient-oriented strategy is especially beneficial for oncology, cardiovascular diseases, and rare genetic conditions. Synthetic biology, another emerging discipline, is defined by the use of engineering principles and the design and creation of new biological systems.

These can be ending products used, for example, for biofuel production, the degradation of waste material, engineered microorganisms for the degradation of substances, and also high-value pharmaceuticals. With new vaccine technologies growing—especially mRNA, viral vector, and protein subunit vaccines—infectious disease prevention has been transformed. These platforms make vaccine design and large-scale production quick and allow for timely response to new pathogens. The success of the mRNA vaccines during the COVID-19 pandemic holds the promise of future potential use of new-generation vaccine technologies to address global health threats. Biotechnology and precision medicine are on a journey toward achieving more effective, personalised, sustainable healthcare solutions.

5. Internet of Things (IoT) and Smart Systems

The Internet of Things (IoT) is an emerging network of devices—including objects such as refrigerators, ATVs, trains, and cars—that are powered by sensors, software, and communications technology and are connected to the Internet. Smart systems combine the power of IoT, artificial intelligence, cloud computing, and big data analytics for autonomous decision-making to optimize the use of resources and the operation of processes in different areas. IoT enables intelligent people traffic control, smart street lighting, waste management, smart buildings and environmental monitoring in smart cities.

These applications bring benefits to the urban infrastructure, the savings of energy consumption and the citizens' quality of life. IoT sensors can be used in agriculture to measure soil moisture, temperature, and humidity, and to track crop health, allowing for more precise farming practices. Smart irrigation systems ensure optimal use of water, boost yields and minimize environmental harm. In healthcare, IoT can be used for remote patient monitoring using wearable devices, smart medical devices, and telemedicine systems. Monitoring vital signs continually can help identify disease early, provide prompt medical intervention and provide better patient care, especially for elderly and chronically ill individuals.

In the manufacturing sector, IoT is integral to smart factories, with applications such as predictive maintenance, real-time equipment monitoring, automated production lines, and supply chain optimization. These technologies come with benefits such as minimal downtime, enhanced product quality, and increased productivity. Data privacy, cybersecurity, IoT interoperability and

network reliability are among the roadblocks that need to be dealt with. If used with proper security systems and standardised procedures, IoT and smart systems can be seen as the key to the development of sustainable, efficient, interconnected societies in the coming decade.

6. Robotics and Automation

Robotics and automation are driving the change in industries with an aim towards productivity, increased accuracy and operational efficiency. Such modern robotic systems are composed of many technologies, including artificial intelligence (AI), machine learning (ML), computer vision and advanced sensors, that achieve sophisticated tasks with little human involvement. The use of these technologies can reduce repetitive manual tasks, enhance workplace safety, and contribute to faster, more accurate operations for various sectors, including manufacturing, healthcare, logistics, and service businesses.

Collaborative Robots (Cobots): These are intended to work in proximity to human operators, aiding in such areas as assembly, packaging, inspection, and material handling. Cobots are different from traditional industrial robots that operate in isolation, as they have the capability of interacting directly with humans thanks to their sensors and safety characteristics; this allows them to be more flexible and productive. Aru's rely on algorithms and sophisticated sensors with cameras and real-time data analysis to work independently and autonomously with little human input. They range from self-driving cars, unmanned vehicles, and warehouse automation systems to agricultural machines, such as robots. These systems are designed to increase the efficiency of operations while saving manpower and reducing human errors. Robotic technologies are used in healthcare to assist with minimally invasive surgery, rehabilitation, patient monitoring, and healthcare facility management.

Surgical bots make surgery more accurate, reduce recovery time, improve patient outcomes, and robotic exoskeletons help patients regain mobility after injury or neurological disorder. In industrial automation, robotics can facilitate smart manufacturing, such as automated assembly lines, predictive maintenance, quality inspection, and inventory management. Combined with Industry 5.0 technologies, robotic automation promotes sustainable production, efficient resource utilization, and customised manufacturing. Emerging trends in human–robot interaction, intelligent decision-making, and ethical governance will foster additional innovation and economic growth in the rapidly changing field of robotics.

7. Renewable Energy and Green Technologies

Sustainable development and the effects of climate change can only be achieved with the use of renewable energy and green technologies. With global energy demand increasing, the shift of the Energy Mix towards clean and renewable energy sources has become an important issue. The development of solar, wind, hydrogen, battery and carbon capture technologies is enhancing energy efficiency and minimizing environmental degradation and greenhouse gas emissions. The

efficiency of solar panels and wind turbines has increased dramatically over the last few years, with high-efficiency PV cells, offshore wind farms being built more frequently, and even floating solar panels being thought of for the future.

Smart grid installations now work in conjunction with solar and wind installations to work out the optimum systems to manage the excess power produced by wind and solar. Thanks to these innovations, electricity production costs have been reduced, and renewable power systems are more reliable. The “hydrogen economy” is becoming one of the clean energy carriers of transportation, electricity production, and industry and offers one of the most important pathways towards carbon neutrality, in particular in the generation of “green hydrogen”, made by water electrolysis with renewable electricity. The advancement of battery technology such as lithium-ion batteries, solid-state batteries, and sodium-ion batteries has improved battery efficiency, charging time, and battery life.

These advancements play a pivotal role in promoting widespread EV adoption and ensuring seamless integration with power grids powered by renewable sources. Furthermore, under the ‘Carbon Capture, Utilization and Storage (CCUS)’ technologies, carbon dioxide (CO₂) emitted at industrial facilities or power plants is captured and stored underground to be prevented from being released into the atmosphere and reflecting on climate change.

8. Space Science and Exploration

Current developments in space science and space exploration represent a new era in which technology development, as well as international and escalating private-sector participation, has had a significant impact. New technologies in rocketry, satellite design, and space robotics have dramatically lowered the cost of space launches, unlocking greater space science investigations and commercial possibilities. These developments will not only advance the knowledge of the universe but will also help with life-serving applications.

Commercial Space Flights have revolutionised the aerospace industry with areas of reusable launch vehicles, satellite launch services for private business enterprises and commercial Space Travel. Instruments for enhancing the potential of commercial access to space and the rate of innovation are provided by collaboration between private enterprises and national space agencies. Satellites are widely useful for applications like navigation, weather forecasting, disaster management, communication, environmental monitoring and precision agriculture, all over the world. EO satellites offer excellent data for climate studies and resource management.

Current moon and Mars explorations continue to be a top priority in NASA space programs. Lunar missions seek to build a sustainable human presence, extract resources from the moon and serve as a stepping stone for planets beyond. Mars exploration is looking for signs of life, or life on the planet, current and/or historical, to analyze the planet's geology and climate, and to prepare for human missions to the planet. Satellite internet and upcoming communication

networks are making communication much easier and reaching more people in remote areas around the world. Education, telemedicine, emergency response, and digital inclusion are all applications that the technologies will serve. With the ongoing advances in space exploration, new developments in propulsion technology, artificial intelligence, and international collaboration will further extend humankind's ability to explore beyond Earth.

9. Cybersecurity and Digital Trust

With the increasing prevalence of the cloud, Artificial Intelligence (AI) and the Internet of Things (IoT), Cybersecurity and digital trust are also gaining in importance and visibility to safeguard digital infrastructure, sensitive information and online services. As cyber threats become more sophisticated and powerful, especially ransomware, phishing, and data breaches, effective and robust security policy architectures can never be discounted or overlooked by government agencies, businesses, and even individuals.

Zero Trust Architecture (ZTA) is one of the best practices of the modern era, and that's the motto: 'never trust, always verify.' The authentication and authorization of all users, devices and applications must be ongoing to reduce the likelihood of unauthorised entry to network resources. The use of AI for security also provides another layer of defense in cyberspace by leveraging machine learning algorithms to recognize anomalies, find malicious activity, foresee cyber threats, and automatically respond to incidents in real-time.

The decentralised, transparent, and tamper-resistant nature of blockchain can foster greater trust in digital transactions. It can be used for securing digital identities, healthcare records, supply chain management, and financial services, in addition to cryptocurrencies. In a digital world, blockchain helps combat fraud, enhances transparency and promotes accountability. Notwithstanding these developments, privacy issues are still extremely relevant because of massive handling and manipulation of personal information.

Ethical governance, robust data protection rules, encryption and anti-surveillance measures are necessary for managing issues like data misuse, surveillance, identity theft, and algorithmic bias. To create digital trust, it is necessary to build collaboration between governments, industries and researchers to build the technologies that are secure, transparent, privacy-preserving, and that will protect the 'trustworthy' user, while fostering innovation and economic expansion.

10. Challenges and Ethical Considerations

New and developing technologies have revolutionised the opportunities for innovation and improved products, but they have also raised many ethical, social, and environmental issues. It is very important to respond to these concerns to ensure technology allows us to benefit society without undue exposure to risks. The establishment of technology governance frameworks by governments, industry and the research sector is essential, and needs to be established on responsible principles, with transparency, accountability and equitable access to technology.

Data privacy is one of the key concerns as digital technologies gather and process a huge amount of personal information. To protect user privacy and prevent unauthorised access, strong measures are needed in cyber security, along with encryption and adequate data protection regulations. Bias within Artificial Intelligence (AI) is another significant problem, as algorithms built on biased or inadequate information can generate unfair or prejudicial results, including in health care, finance, hiring and law enforcement.

Creating AI systems that are transparent, explainable, and unbiased is crucial, therefore. There are also emerging technologies with environmental consequences, such as high levels of energy demand within data centres, electronic waste, and the amount of critical materials used. Reducing these environmental impacts can be achieved through sustainable manufacturing, renewable energy adoption and initiatives in the circular economy. In addition, labour transformation due to automation and artificial intelligence is changing work and is driving a demand for fresh digital skills and upsetting customary working positions. Creating the possibility for workers to be reskilled and have access to lifelong learning is important for job preparation. Lastly but not least, the digital divide is a global problem which restricts access to technology, education, and in under-served areas. Filling the gap of having technological development without equality in terms of infrastructure, digital literacy and inclusive policies is critical if one is to speak about the development of technology with equity and sustainability.

Future Outlook

Technological and scientific progress is set for an even more impressive future as artificial intelligence (AI), biotechnology, quantum computing, robotics, the Internet of Things (IoT) and advanced communications come together. Intelligent, interconnected systems capable of tackling complex challenges in today's global society will be possible thanks to this technology convergence.

The combination of many technologies will fuel innovation and productivity and open up fresh opportunities for economic growth. Human-centric innovation, such as designing technology for improving human well-being, safety, inclusivity, and quality of life, will be a central issue for the next ten years. Technological advancement will value society's norms and necessities through ethical Artificial Intelligence, customised health services, clever training systems, and assistant technologies. Sustainable development will also be a key priority for the future, as more investment is made in renewable energy, green technologies, circular economy, and infrastructure that is capable of withstanding climate change.

New technologies will help to fulfil the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in terms of carbon emissions, efficient use of resources and protecting the environment. Last but not least, cooperation on addressing joint challenges, such as climate change, cybersecurity, pandemics, and digital inequality, at the level of the global community of governments, industry,

research institutions and international organisations will be crucial. When incentivising responsible innovation, research collaboration, knowledge sharing and harmonised regulation can help to speed innovation, generate spill-over effects and ensure fair uptake of new technology. As these developments are consolidated, they will create a more intelligent, sustainable and inclusive future for humankind.

Conclusion

New technologies are transforming the world as they enable innovation, enrichment of life and solving some of the complex problems faced by society. In healthcare, education, manufacturing, agriculture, transportation, communications and others, the new technologies of Artificial Intelligence, Quantum Computing, Biotechnology, Robotics, IoT, Renewable Energy, Space Exploration, Cybersecurity, etc. are transforming the face of business.

Despite their enormous potential, the successful adoption of these technologies requires careful consideration of ethical, legal, and social challenges. Issues such as data privacy, cybersecurity, algorithmic bias, workforce displacement, digital inequality, and environmental sustainability must be addressed through transparent governance, responsible innovation, and effective regulatory frameworks. Collaboration among governments, industries, academic institutions, and international organizations is essential to ensure that technological progress remains inclusive, equitable, and beneficial to society.

Looking ahead, the convergence of multiple technologies will create intelligent, interconnected systems capable of solving global challenges and accelerating scientific discovery. Investments in research, digital infrastructure, education, and workforce development will be critical for preparing future generations to thrive in an increasingly technology-driven world. Ultimately, the responsible integration of science and emerging technologies will play a pivotal role in building resilient economies, sustainable societies, and a better future for humanity. By fostering innovation while upholding ethical principles and environmental responsibility, society can fully realize the transformative potential of science and technology in the coming decade.

References

1. Brynjolfsson, E., & McAfee, A. (2017). *Machine, platform, crowd: Harnessing our digital future*. W. W. Norton & Company.
2. Goodfellow, I., Bengio, Y., & Courville, A. (2016). *Deep learning*. MIT Press.
3. International Energy Agency. (2024). *World Energy Outlook 2024*. IEA Publications.
4. National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. (2020). *Safeguarding the bioeconomy*. The National Academies Press.
5. Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2021). *Artificial intelligence: A modern approach* (4th ed.). Pearson.
6. Schwab, K. (2017). *The Fourth Industrial Revolution*. Crown Business.

7. United Nations. (2015). *Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. United Nations.
8. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2023). *Guidance for generative AI in education and research*. UNESCO.
9. World Economic Forum. (2024). *The Future of Jobs Report 2024*. World Economic Forum.
10. World Health Organization. (2021). *Global strategy on digital health 2020–2025*. World Health Organization.
11. OpenAI. (2023). *GPT-4 technical report*. arXiv. <https://arxiv.org/abs/2303.08774>
12. National Institute of Standards and Technology. (2024). *Cybersecurity Framework (CSF 2.0)*. U.S. Department of Commerce.
13. International Telecommunication Union. (2023). *Measuring digital development: Facts and figures 2023*. ITU Publications.
14. NASA. (2023). *NASA Technology Transfer Program: Annual Report 2023*. National Aeronautics and Space Administration.
15. European Commission. (2024). *Industry 5.0: Towards a sustainable, human-centric and resilient European industry*. Publications Office of the European Union.

APPLICATION OF THE AKBARI–GANJI METHOD TO NONLINEAR SHIP ROLL MOTION WITH HIGHER-ORDER NONLINEARITIES

A. Ananthi Christy

Department of Marine Engineering,
AMET Deemed to be University, Chennai, India.

Corresponding author E-mail: chrisarun13@gmail.com

Abstract

This study presents a semi-analytical solution of a nonlinear free roll motion equation containing linear damping and higher-order odd nonlinear restoring terms using the Akbari–Ganji Method (AGM). The governing equation consists of linear damping, linear stiffness, and cubic, quintic, and septic nonlinear restoring components, which accurately represent the complex roll dynamics of a damaged ship. A third-order polynomial trial function is employed in the AGM to obtain an approximate analytical solution, and the unknown coefficients are determined by satisfying the governing differential equation together with the prescribed initial conditions. The analytical expressions for the roll displacement, angular velocity, and angular acceleration are derived explicitly. The obtained solution demonstrates that the third-order AGM provides an accurate approximation of the nonlinear roll response with minimal computational effort while effectively capturing the influence of higher-order restoring moments on the system dynamics. The results indicate that the proposed approach is efficient, reliable, and suitable for analyzing strongly nonlinear ship roll motion problems, offering a practical alternative to purely numerical solution techniques.

Keywords: Damaged Ship, Nonlinear Roll Motion, Akbari–Ganji Method (AGM), Ship Dynamics, Restoring Moment.

1. Introduction

Ship roll motion is one of the most critical dynamic responses affecting the stability and safety of marine vessels operating under environmental disturbances. Excessive roll motion can significantly reduce operational performance and, in severe cases, may lead to cargo damage or capsizing. The roll behavior of ships is inherently nonlinear because the restoring moment depends on the vessel geometry and hydrostatic characteristics, particularly at large roll angles. Consequently, nonlinear mathematical models containing higher-order restoring terms are widely employed to describe the roll dynamics of intact and damaged ships more accurately than linear models (Nayfeh and Mook, 1979; Faltinsen, 1990).

Analytical solutions of nonlinear differential equations are generally difficult to obtain because of the presence of strong nonlinearities. Therefore, various approximate analytical and numerical

methods have been developed, including the Adomian Decomposition Method (ADM), Homotopy Perturbation Method (HPM), Variational Iteration Method (VIM), Differential Transform Method (DTM), and the Akbari–Ganji Method (AGM) (He, 1999; Adomian, 1988; Ganji, 2006). Among these techniques, the Akbari–Ganji Method has attracted considerable attention because it provides accurate closed-form approximations without requiring linearization, perturbation parameters, or discretization, while maintaining relatively low computational effort.

In this study, the nonlinear free roll motion equation with linear damping and cubic, quintic, and septic restoring terms is investigated using the Akbari–Ganji Method. A third-order polynomial trial function is employed to construct an approximate analytical solution satisfying the governing equation and the prescribed initial conditions. The analytical expressions obtained for the roll displacement, angular velocity, and angular acceleration provide valuable insight into the nonlinear oscillatory characteristics of the system. The proposed AGM solution offers a simple, efficient, and accurate alternative for analyzing nonlinear ship roll dynamics and can be extended to other nonlinear engineering vibration problems.

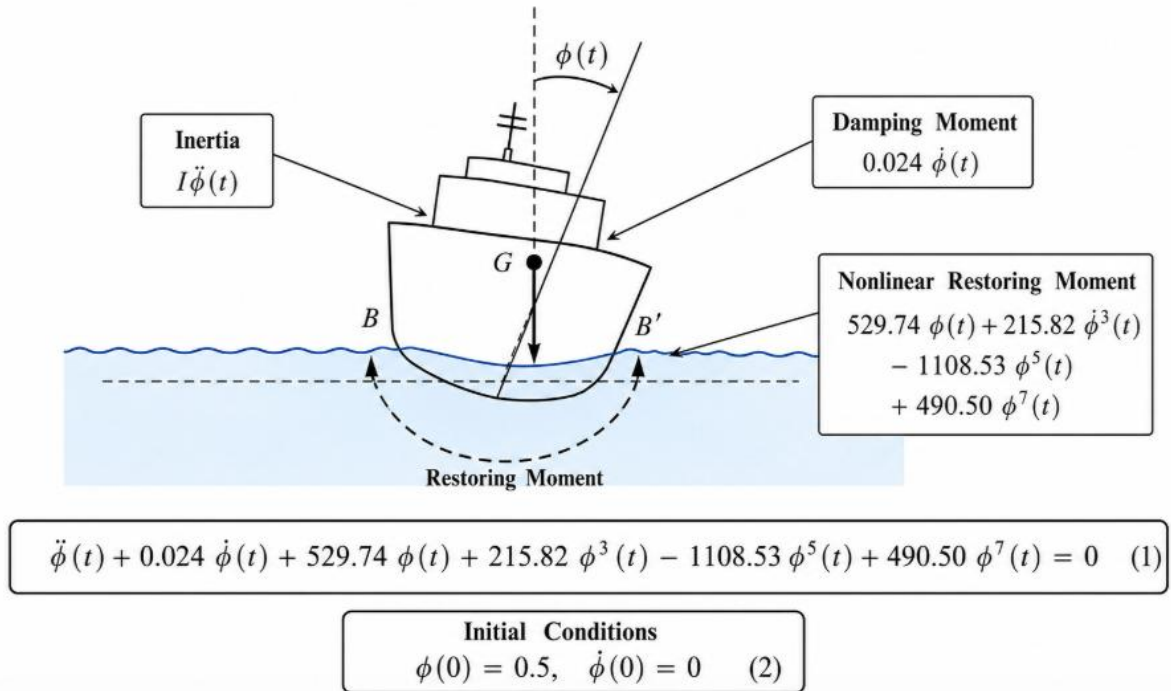


Figure 1: schematic diagram for nonlinear roll motion of ship

2. Theory

The governing equation becomes

$$\ddot{\phi}(t) + 0.024 \dot{\phi}(t) + 529.74 \phi(t) + 215.82 \phi^3(t) - 1108.53 \phi^5(t) + 490.50 \phi^7(t) = 0 \quad (1)$$

with the initial conditions

$$\phi(0) = 0.5, \quad \dot{\phi}(0) = 0 \quad (2)$$

3. Result and Discussion

The Akbari–Ganji Method (AGM) is a semi-analytical technique used to obtain approximate solutions of nonlinear differential equations. In this method, a third-order polynomial trial function is assumed for the unknown solution as

$$\phi(t) = a_0 + a_1 t + a_2 t^2 + a_3 t^3 \quad (3)$$

where a_0, a_1, a_2 , and a_3 are unknown coefficients to be determined. The trial function is substituted into the governing nonlinear differential equation, and the prescribed initial conditions together with the residual equations obtained from the differential equation are applied to determine these coefficients. Solving the resulting system of algebraic equations yields the unknown constants, providing an accurate analytical approximation to the nonlinear response with relatively low computational effort.

Applying the initial conditions,

$$a_0 = 0.5, a_1 = 0 \quad (4)$$

Hence, the third-order AGM trial solution becomes

$$\theta(t) = 0.5 + a_2 t^2 + a_3 t^3 \quad (5)$$

$$\text{where } a_2 = -130.519, a_3 = 1.0442. \quad (6)$$

Applying the third-order Akbari–Ganji Method (AGM) to the nonlinear roll motion equation and satisfying the prescribed initial conditions yields the approximate displacement solution

$$\theta(t) = 0.5 - 130.519 t^2 + 1.0442 t^3 \quad (7)$$

The corresponding velocity and acceleration are obtained by differentiating the displacement with respect to time as

$$\dot{\theta}(t) = \frac{d\theta}{dt} = -261.038 t + 3.1326 t^2 \quad (8)$$

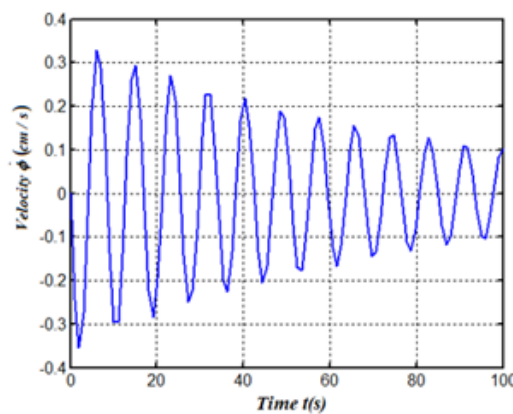


Figure 2: Time History of Roll Velocity of the Nonlinear Ship Roll Motion Using the eq. (9)

Figure illustrates the angular velocity response of the nonlinear roll motion over a simulation period of 100 s. The response exhibits a damped oscillatory behavior with nearly periodic fluctuations throughout the time interval. Initially, the angular velocity reaches a peak magnitude of approximately ± 0.33 rad/s, after which the amplitude gradually decreases due to the effect of

the linear damping term in the governing equation. Although the oscillations decay continuously, the nonlinear restoring terms preserve the periodic nature of the motion and prevent abrupt attenuation. By the end of the simulation, the peak angular velocity reduces to about ± 0.10 rad/s, indicating effective energy dissipation and a stable dynamic response. The smooth decay of successive oscillations confirms the accuracy of the analytical solution in capturing the nonlinear roll dynamics. The acceleration is obtained by

$$\ddot{\theta}(t) = \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} = -261.038 + 6.2652 t. \quad (10)$$

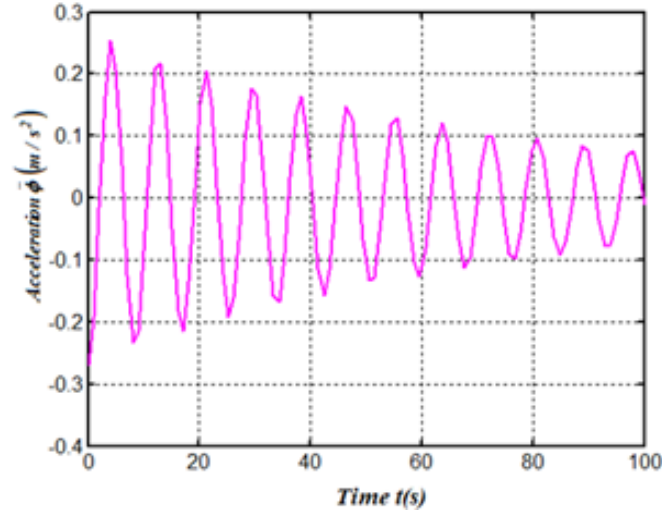


Figure 3: Time History of Roll Acceleration of the Nonlinear Ship Roll Motion using the eq. (10)

Figure shows the angular acceleration response of the nonlinear roll motion over a simulation period of 100 s. The acceleration exhibits a damped oscillatory behavior with nearly periodic fluctuations throughout the time interval. Initially, the peak angular acceleration is approximately ± 0.25 rad/s², and its amplitude gradually decreases due to the influence of the linear damping term and the nonlinear restoring moments. The progressive reduction in successive peaks indicates continuous energy dissipation while preserving the oscillatory characteristics of the system. At the end of the simulation, the peak acceleration decreases to about ± 0.08 rad/s², demonstrating that the motion approaches a stable equilibrium. The smooth decay and sustained periodicity confirm the effectiveness of the analytical solution in accurately describing the nonlinear dynamic response of the roll motion system.

Conclusion

This study presented a semi-analytical solution of the nonlinear free roll motion equation using the Akbari–Ganji Method (AGM). A third-order polynomial trial function was employed to derive approximate analytical expressions for the roll displacement, angular velocity, and angular acceleration. The obtained results demonstrate that the AGM effectively captures the nonlinear dynamic behavior of the system, including the influence of linear damping and higher-

order cubic, quintic, and septic restoring moments. The response curves exhibit damped oscillatory characteristics with gradually decreasing amplitudes, indicating continuous energy dissipation and stable system behavior. The analytical solutions are smooth, computationally efficient, and accurately describe the nonlinear roll response without the need for discretization or iterative numerical procedures. Therefore, the Akbari–Ganji Method provides a reliable and efficient approach for solving strongly nonlinear ship roll motion equations and can be extended to a wide range of nonlinear vibration and engineering dynamics problems.

References

1. Adomian, G. (1988). A review of the decomposition method in applied mathematics. *Journal of Mathematical Analysis and Applications*, 135(2), 501–544.
2. Faltinsen, O. M. (1990). *Sea loads on ships and offshore structures*. Cambridge University Press.
3. Ganji, D. D. (2006). The application of He's methods in nonlinear equations and analytical solutions. *Physics Letters A*, 355(4–5), 337–341.
4. He, J. H. (1999). Homotopy perturbation technique. *Computer Methods in Applied Mechanics and Engineering*, 178, 257–262.
5. Nayfeh, A. H., & Mook, D. T. (1979). *Nonlinear oscillations*. John Wiley & Sons.
6. Paulling, J. R., & Rosenberg, R. M. (1959). On unstable ship motions resulting from nonlinear coupling. *Journal of Ship Research*, 3(1), 36–46.
7. Roberts, J. B., & Spanos, P. D. (2003). *Random vibration and statistical linearization*. Dover Publications.

ANALYTICAL SOLUTION OF A NONLINEAR REACTION–DIFFUSION EQUATION FOR OXYGEN TRANSPORT IN IMMOBILIZED GLUCONOBACTER OXYDANS USING THE AKBARI–GANJI METHOD

N. Mehala

Department of Mathematics,

Kamaraj College of Engineering and Technology, Virudhunagar, India

Corresponding author E-mail: mehalapaviammu@gmail.com

Abstract

This study presents a semi-analytical investigation of a nonlinear reaction–diffusion model describing oxygen transport and consumption in a biocatalyst containing immobilized *Gluconobacter oxydans*. The governing steady-state nonlinear differential equation, subject to appropriate boundary conditions, is solved using the Akbari–Ganji Method (AGM) with a three-term polynomial trial function. The unknown coefficients are determined by satisfying the governing equation and the prescribed boundary conditions, yielding an explicit analytical approximation for the dimensionless oxygen concentration. The dimensionless oxygen flux at the catalyst surface is also evaluated from the derived solution. Numerical simulations are performed to validate the analytical results for different values of the Thiele modulus and the dimensionless kinetic parameter. The concentration profiles demonstrate that increasing the Thiele modulus intensifies oxygen consumption within the biocatalyst, resulting in steeper concentration gradients, while lower values produce nearly uniform concentration distributions. Excellent agreement between the AGM solution and numerical simulations confirms the accuracy and efficiency of the proposed method. The results demonstrate that the Akbari–Ganji Method is a reliable and computationally efficient approach for solving nonlinear reaction–diffusion equations arising in immobilized enzyme and bioreactor systems.

Keywords: Numerical Simulation, Bioreactors, Immobilization of *Gluconobacter Oxydans*, Reaction Diffusion Equation, Akbari–Ganji Method.

1. Introduction

Reaction–diffusion processes play a fundamental role in the analysis and design of heterogeneous bioreactors, particularly those employing immobilized microbial cells or enzymes. In immobilized-cell systems, the transport of substrates from the bulk liquid into the porous biocatalyst and their subsequent consumption by biochemical reactions determine the overall reactor performance. The interaction between diffusion and reaction often leads to nonlinear concentration profiles that significantly influence substrate utilization, product formation, and catalyst effectiveness (Aris, 1975; Levenspiel, 1999).

Immobilized *Gluconobacter oxydans* has attracted considerable attention in biochemical engineering because of its ability to catalyze selective oxidation reactions with high efficiency. Owing to its membrane-bound dehydrogenase enzymes, this microorganism is widely used in the industrial production of organic acids, ketones, and other value-added chemicals. The performance of immobilized *G. oxydans* strongly depends on oxygen availability within the porous support, making the prediction of oxygen concentration profiles an important aspect of bioreactor design and optimization (Crueger and Crueger, 2000; Stanbury *et al.*, 2017).

The steady-state oxygen transport in immobilized biocatalysts is commonly described by nonlinear reaction–diffusion equations. Because of the nonlinear reaction kinetics, exact analytical solutions are generally unavailable, and numerical methods such as finite difference, finite element, and shooting techniques are often employed. Although these methods provide accurate results, they usually require iterative computations and considerable computational effort, particularly when parameter studies are involved (Bird *et al.*, 2002; Finlayson, 1980).

To overcome these limitations, several semi-analytical techniques have been proposed, including the Adomian Decomposition Method (ADM), Homotopy Perturbation Method (HPM), Variational Iteration Method (VIM), Differential Transform Method (DTM), and the Akbari–Ganji Method (AGM). Among these approaches, the AGM has emerged as an efficient technique for solving nonlinear differential equations because it provides accurate analytical approximations without requiring linearization, perturbation parameters, or discretization (Ganji, 2006; Akbari *et al.*, 2014).

In the present study, the nonlinear steady-state reaction–diffusion equation governing oxygen transport in a bioreactor containing immobilized *Gluconobacter oxydans* is solved using the Akbari–Ganji Method. A three-term polynomial trial function is employed to obtain an explicit analytical approximation for the dimensionless oxygen concentration and the corresponding dimensionless oxygen flux. The analytical results are compared with numerical simulations over a range of Thiele modulus values, demonstrating the accuracy and computational efficiency of the proposed method. The developed analytical solution provides valuable insight into oxygen transport phenomena and offers a practical tool for the analysis and design of immobilized-cell bioreactor systems.

2. Mathematical Formulation of the Problem

The governing equation, boundary conditions, and dimensionless flux can be written as

$$\frac{d^2 u(\chi)}{d\chi^2} = \Phi_{cc}^2 \frac{u(\chi)}{1 + \beta u(\chi)} \quad (1)$$

The boundary condition becomes

$$\frac{du}{d\chi}(0) = 0, u(1) = 1, \quad (2)$$

where $u(\chi)$ is the dimensionless concentration of oxygen, Φ_{cc} is the Thiele modulus and β is the dimensionless constant.

The dimensionless flux $\psi = \frac{du}{d\chi} \big|_{\chi=1}$, (3)

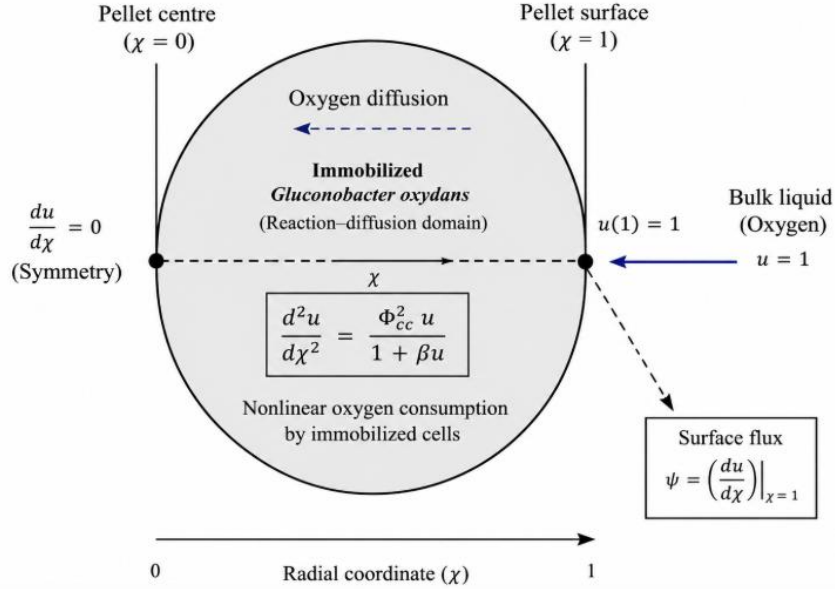


Figure 1: Schematic representation of oxygen diffusion and nonlinear reaction in an immobilized *Gluconobacter oxydans* biocatalyst pellet.

3. Approximate Analytical Expression of the Temperature using AGM

The Akbari–Ganji Method (AGM) is a semi-analytical technique for obtaining approximate solutions of nonlinear differential equations. In this method, an appropriate trial function with unknown coefficients is assumed according to the nature of the problem. For the present study, a three-term polynomial trial function is selected as

$$u(\chi) = a + b\chi + c\chi^2 \quad (4)$$

where a , b , and c are unknown constants. The trial function is substituted into the governing nonlinear reaction–diffusion equation, and the resulting residual equation is formed. The unknown coefficients are then determined by satisfying the prescribed boundary conditions together with the residual equations evaluated at suitable points. Solving the resulting system of algebraic equations yields the coefficients, from which an explicit analytical approximation for the dimensionless oxygen concentration is obtained. The dimensionless oxygen flux is subsequently calculated from the derivative of the analytical solution at the pellet surface. The AGM provides accurate results with low computational effort and shows excellent agreement with numerical solutions for a wide range of parameter values.

The approximate analytical expressions of dissolved oxygen concentration is

A three-term polynomial is assumed in the form $u(\chi) = a + b\chi + c\chi^2$

where a , b , and c are unknown constants.

$$2c = \Phi_{cc}^2 \frac{a+b\chi+c\chi^2}{1+\beta(a+b\chi+c\chi^2)}. \quad (5)$$

Rearranging,

$$2c[1 + \beta(a + b\chi + c\chi^2)] - \Phi_{cc}^2(a + b\chi + c\chi^2) = 0 \quad (6)$$

Hence, the three algebraic equations are

$$\begin{aligned} b &= 0, \\ a + c &= 1, \\ 2c(1 + \beta a) - \Phi_{cc}^2 a &= 0. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

$$\text{The dimensionless flux } \psi = \left(\frac{du}{d\chi} \right)_{\chi=1} = 2c \quad (8)$$

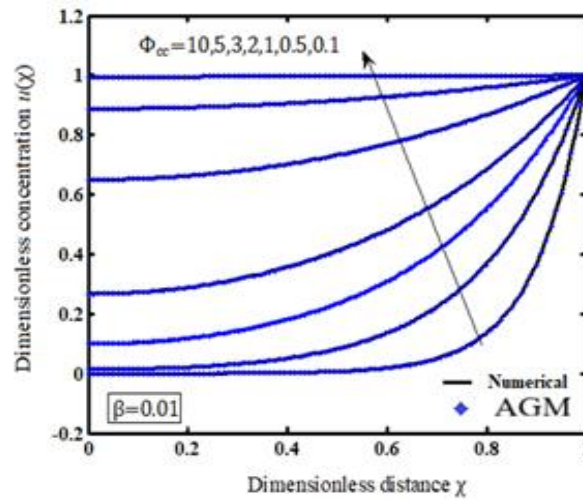


Figure 2: Effect of the parameter Φ_{cc} and β on concentration of the substrate $u(\chi)$ for using Eq. (6)

Figure 2 shows the variation of the dimensionless oxygen concentration $u(\chi)$ with the dimensionless distance χ for different values of the Thiele modulus Φ_{cc} at a fixed value of $\beta = 0.01$. The concentration profile decreases as the Thiele modulus increases, indicating that oxygen is consumed more rapidly within the catalyst pellet due to an increase in the reaction rate relative to the diffusion rate. For small values of Φ_{cc} (0.1 and 0.5), the concentration remains nearly uniform throughout the pellet, demonstrating that diffusion is sufficiently fast to replenish the consumed oxygen. As Φ_{cc} increases to 1, 2, 3, 5, and 10, a steeper concentration gradient develops near the pellet surface, while the concentration in the pellet interior decreases significantly. This behavior reflects the transition from diffusion-dominated to reaction-dominated transport. The excellent agreement between the AGM solution and the numerical results confirms that the proposed semi-analytical method accurately predicts the nonlinear concentration distribution over a wide range of Thiele modulus values.

Conclusion

In this study, the nonlinear steady-state reaction–diffusion equation describing oxygen transport in a bioreactor containing immobilized *Gluconobacter oxydans* was successfully analyzed using the Akbari–Ganji Method (AGM). A three-term polynomial trial function was employed to

derive an approximate analytical solution for the dimensionless oxygen concentration, while the corresponding dimensionless oxygen flux was obtained directly from the analytical expression. The AGM solution satisfied the governing nonlinear equation and the prescribed boundary conditions without requiring linearization or iterative numerical procedures.

The concentration profiles revealed that the oxygen distribution is strongly influenced by the Thiele modulus. As the Thiele modulus increases, oxygen consumption within the immobilized biocatalyst becomes more pronounced, leading to steeper concentration gradients and greater diffusion limitations. Conversely, smaller Thiele modulus values produce nearly uniform oxygen concentration profiles, indicating that diffusion is sufficient to meet the oxygen demand throughout the catalyst pellet. The calculated dimensionless flux also reflects the increasing oxygen transport requirement associated with higher reaction rates.

Comparison with numerical simulation demonstrated excellent agreement, confirming the accuracy and reliability of the proposed semi-analytical approach. The results indicate that the Akbari–Ganji Method provides an efficient, accurate, and computationally inexpensive alternative for solving nonlinear reaction–diffusion equations encountered in bioreactor analysis. Consequently, the proposed methodology can serve as a valuable tool for investigating mass transfer phenomena, optimizing immobilized-cell reactor performance, and solving a broad class of nonlinear transport problems in biochemical and chemical engineering.

References

1. Akbari, M., Ganji, D. D., Ahmadi, A. R., & Rahimi, J. (2014). Application of the Akbari–Ganji Method for solving nonlinear differential equations. *Engineering Computations*, 31(3), 435–447.
2. Aris, R. (1975). *The Mathematical Theory of Diffusion and Reaction in Permeable Catalysts*. Oxford University Press.
3. Bird, R. B., Stewart, W. E., & Lightfoot, E. N. (2002). *Transport Phenomena* (2nd ed.). John Wiley & Sons.
4. Crueger, W., & Crueger, A. (2000). *Biotechnology: A Textbook of Industrial Microbiology* (2nd ed.). Sinauer Associates.
5. Finlayson, B. A. (1980). *Nonlinear Analysis in Chemical Engineering*. McGraw-Hill.
6. Ganji, D. D. (2006). The application of He's methods in nonlinear equations and analytical solutions. *Physics Letters A*, 355(4–5), 337–341.
7. Levenspiel, O. (1999). *Chemical Reaction Engineering* (3rd ed.). John Wiley & Sons.
8. Stanbury, P. F., Whitaker, A., & Hall, S. J. (2017). *Principles of Fermentation Technology* (3rd ed.). Butterworth-Heinemann.
9. Fogler, H. S. (2016). *Elements of Chemical Reaction Engineering* (5th ed.). Pearson.
10. Bailey, J. E., & Ollis, D. F. (1986). *Biochemical Engineering Fundamentals* (2nd ed.). McGraw-Hill.

ADVANCED FUNCTIONAL OXIDES FOR NEXT-GENERATION ELECTRONIC DEVICES

Shahnaz Kossar*¹, Barjinder Kaur¹ and Sahil Sharma²

¹School of Natural Sciences,

²School of Applied and Health Sciences,

GNA University, Phaghwara, Punjab 144401

*Corresponding author E-mail: shazia.rajput0505@gmail.com

Abstract

Advanced functional oxides have attracted significant attention as key materials for next-generation electronic and energy technologies due to their exceptional and tunable electrical, optical, magnetic, dielectric, ferroelectric, and catalytic properties. Their unique structural flexibility, defect tolerance, and compatibility with advanced thin-film fabrication techniques have enabled remarkable progress in emerging applications, including memory devices, sensors, optoelectronics, energy storage systems, and intelligent computing platforms. This chapter presents a comprehensive overview of advanced oxide materials, focusing on major classes such as perovskite oxides, spinel ferrites, binary oxides, transparent conducting oxides, high-k dielectric materials, and multiferroic systems.

The discussion highlights their synthesis strategies, thin-film deposition approaches, structure–property relationships, and the role of defect engineering, interface modulation, and nanostructuring in improving device performance and reliability. Recent developments in oxide-based electronic devices, including resistive random-access memory (ReRAM), memristors, thin-film transistors, spintronic devices, flexible electronics, photodetectors, and photocatalytic systems, are explored. The chapter also addresses critical challenges related to scalability, fabrication cost, defect-induced variability, interface stability, and environmental sustainability. Future perspectives emphasize artificial intelligence-assisted materials discovery, sustainable manufacturing, and integration of functional oxides into quantum and intelligent electronic platforms. Overall, advanced functional oxides represent a promising foundation for developing high-performance, energy-efficient, and sustainable technologies for future generations.

Keywords: Advanced Functional Oxides, Binary Metal Oxides, High-K Dielectric Materials, Resistive Random-Access Memory (ReRAM), Optoelectronic Devices, Energy Storage Devices.

1. Introduction

Advanced functional oxides have emerged as one of the most important classes of materials for next-generation electronic devices due to their remarkable structural diversity and multifunctional physical properties. These materials exhibit a wide range of electrical, optical,

magnetic, dielectric, ferroelectric, piezoelectric, and semiconducting characteristics, making them highly attractive for applications in modern electronics, optoelectronics, energy storage, sensing, and information technology [1-2]. Representative oxide materials, including perovskites (ABO_3), spinel ferrites (AB_2O_4), binary oxides such as ZnO , TiO_2 , and HfO_2 , as well as multiferroic compounds like BiFeO_3 , have demonstrated exceptional performance in advanced electronic devices owing to their tunable composition, defect chemistry, and crystal structures [3-4].

The multifunctional behavior of these oxides originates from the strong coupling between charge, spin, orbital, and lattice interactions, allowing simultaneous control of multiple physical properties. Recent advances in nanotechnology and thin-film engineering have further enhanced their performance by enabling precise control over microstructure, grain size, interfaces, and oxygen vacancy concentrations. Modern deposition techniques, including sputtering, pulsed laser deposition, atomic layer deposition, chemical vapor deposition, and sol–gel processing, have facilitated the fabrication of high-quality thin films with excellent crystallinity and superior device reliability. Functional oxides have become key materials for emerging technologies such as resistive random-access memory (ReRAM), memristors, thin-film transistors, spintronic devices, transparent electronics, flexible sensors, photodetectors, photocatalysts, and electrochemical energy storage systems. Their compatibility with complementary metal–oxide–semiconductor (CMOS) technology, coupled with excellent thermal and chemical stability, makes them ideal candidates for future miniaturized and energy-efficient electronic systems [5-6].

This chapter provides a comprehensive overview of advanced functional oxides, highlighting their classification, synthesis methods, structural and physicochemical properties, and diverse electronic applications [7]. It also discusses recent research developments, defect engineering strategies, characterization techniques, scalability, commercialization opportunities, and future perspectives, emphasizing the pivotal role of functional oxide materials in shaping intelligent, sustainable, and high-performance electronic technologies [8].

2. Classification of Advanced Oxide Materials for Emerging Electronic Applications

Advanced oxide materials represent a versatile class of functional materials with diverse structural, electrical, optical, magnetic, and dielectric properties, making them highly suitable for next-generation electronic, energy, and intelligent device technologies. Based on crystal structure, chemical composition, and functional behavior, oxide materials can be broadly classified into perovskite oxides, spinel oxides, binary oxides, transparent conducting oxides (TCOs), multiferroic oxides, and high-k dielectric oxides. Each category exhibits unique properties arising from atomic-scale structure, defect chemistry, electronic configuration, and interface phenomena [9].

(a) Perovskite Oxides

Perovskite oxides possess the general chemical formula ABO_3 , where the A-site is usually occupied by a larger rare-earth or alkaline-earth cation, while the B-site contains a transition metal ion surrounded by oxygen octahedra. Their flexible crystal structure enables extensive compositional modification through elemental substitution, strain engineering, and defect manipulation. Representative examples include barium titanate ($BaTiO_3$), strontium titanate ($SrTiO_3$), lanthanum ferrite ($LaFeO_3$), and bismuth ferrite ($BiFeO_3$). These materials exhibit remarkable properties such as ferroelectricity, piezoelectricity, photocatalytic activity, magnetic ordering, and resistive switching behavior. Due to their tunable electronic structure and strong correlation effects, perovskite oxides are widely explored for applications in non-volatile memories, sensors, photovoltaics, catalysts, and neuromorphic computing devices [10-13].

(b) Spinel Oxides

Spinel oxides generally follow the formula AB_2O_4 , where A and B represent divalent and trivalent metal cations distributed among tetrahedral and octahedral lattice sites. Their unique cation distribution and magnetic interactions provide excellent electrical, magnetic, and catalytic properties. Common examples include cobalt ferrite ($CoFe_2O_4$), nickel ferrite ($NiFe_2O_4$), zinc ferrite ($ZnFe_2O_4$), and copper ferrite ($CuFe_2O_4$). Spinel oxides are known for high chemical stability, tunable band gaps, magnetic behavior, and oxygen vacancy-mediated conductivity. These characteristics make them promising candidates for photocatalysis, magnetic storage, gas sensors, supercapacitors, and resistive switching applications [14].

(c) Binary Oxides

Binary oxides consist of oxygen combined with a single metallic element and are among the most extensively studied oxide semiconductors. Examples include zinc oxide (ZnO), titanium dioxide (TiO_2), nickel oxide (NiO), iron oxide (Fe_2O_3), and copper oxide (CuO). These materials exhibit excellent optical transparency, semiconducting behavior, high chemical stability, and controllable defect chemistry. Oxygen vacancies and metal-ion defects significantly influence their electrical and optical properties, enabling applications in photocatalysis, transparent electronics, gas sensing, energy storage, and memory devices [15].

(d) Transparent Conducting Oxides (TCOs)

Transparent conducting oxides combine two normally conflicting properties: high optical transparency and good electrical conductivity. These materials are essential components of modern optoelectronic devices. Representative TCO materials include indium tin oxide (ITO), fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO), aluminum-doped zinc oxide (AZO), and gallium-doped zinc oxide (GZO). Their wide band gap, low visible-light absorption, and high carrier mobility make them suitable for applications in solar cells, touch screens, light-emitting diodes, flat-panel displays, and transparent electronic circuits. Current research focuses on developing indium-free and low-cost alternatives through advanced doping strategies and nanostructuring [16-18].

(e) Multiferroic Oxides

Multiferroic oxides exhibit the coexistence of two or more ferroic properties, such as ferroelectricity, ferromagnetism, and ferroelasticity, within a single material system. The coupling between electric and magnetic ordering provides opportunities for multifunctional device development. Important examples include bismuth ferrite (BiFeO_3), yttrium manganite (YMnO_3), and rare-earth manganites. Among these, BiFeO_3 is extensively investigated due to its high Curie temperature, antiferromagnetic ordering, strong polarization, and visible-light photocatalytic response. Multiferroic materials are promising for applications in spintronics, magnetoelectric memory, sensors, photocatalysis, and low-power electronic devices [19].

(f) High-k Dielectric Oxides

High-k dielectric materials possess a high dielectric constant compared with conventional silicon dioxide, enabling improved charge storage and reduced leakage currents in advanced electronic devices. Typical examples include hafnium oxide (HfO_2), zirconium oxide (ZrO_2), aluminum oxide (Al_2O_3), and lanthanum oxide (La_2O_3). These materials provide excellent thermal stability, high breakdown strength, and compatibility with semiconductor fabrication processes. High-k oxides are widely used as gate dielectric layers in advanced CMOS technology, metal–insulator–metal capacitors, ferroelectric memory devices, and resistive switching systems [20].

2. Recent Research Trends and Technological Perspectives

Recent developments in oxide materials emphasize defect engineering, interface optimization, strain modulation, and scalable fabrication techniques to enhance device performance and reliability. Controlled manipulation of oxygen vacancies, dopant incorporation, and heterostructure formation have become essential for tuning electrical transport, optical response, and switching characteristics. Advanced deposition methods such as RF sputtering, atomic layer deposition, chemical vapor deposition, sol–gel processing, hydrothermal synthesis, and spray pyrolysis enable precise control over thin-film morphology and composition [21].

The integration of oxide materials into intelligent electronic systems requires improved understanding of device physics, charge transport mechanisms, reliability issues, and long-term operational stability. Advanced characterization techniques including X-ray diffraction (XRD), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), Raman spectroscopy, photoluminescence (PL), electrical impedance spectroscopy, and I–V analysis provide critical insights into structure–property relationships.

With advancements in material design and manufacturing strategies, oxide-based technologies offer significant opportunities for commercialization in non-volatile memory, artificial intelligence hardware, energy-efficient electronics, renewable energy systems, sensors, and sustainable technologies. Future progress will depend on achieving scalable production,

environmentally friendly synthesis routes, improved device reliability, and seamless integration of oxide materials into next-generation intelligent electronic platforms [22-23]

2.1 Synthesis of Advanced Oxide Materials for Emerging Electronic Applications

The synthesis of advanced oxide materials plays a crucial role in tailoring their structural, electrical, optical, magnetic, and dielectric properties for emerging electronic applications. The performance of oxide-based devices strongly depends on the control of composition, crystallinity, morphology, defect concentration, and interface quality during the synthesis process. Various physical and chemical synthesis techniques have been developed to fabricate oxide materials in the form of nanoparticles, thin films, ceramics, and heterostructures with precise functional characteristics.

Conventional synthesis approaches such as solid-state reaction, sol–gel processing, hydrothermal synthesis, co-precipitation, and combustion methods are widely used for preparing bulk oxide materials. The sol–gel technique provides excellent compositional uniformity, low processing temperature, and better control over particle size, making it suitable for producing perovskite oxides, spinel ferrites, and dielectric materials. Hydrothermal and solvothermal methods enable the formation of highly crystalline nanostructures with controlled morphology, while combustion synthesis offers rapid preparation of nanoscale oxides with enhanced surface activity [24-26].

For electronic device applications, thin-film fabrication techniques are particularly important. Methods including RF magnetron sputtering, pulsed laser deposition (PLD), chemical vapor deposition (CVD), atomic layer deposition (ALD), spray pyrolysis, and spin coating allow precise control over film thickness, crystallographic orientation, and interface properties. These techniques are extensively employed for the fabrication of transparent conducting oxides, high-k dielectric layers, ferroelectric films, and resistive switching devices. Among them, ALD provides atomic-scale thickness control, whereas sputtering and spray pyrolysis offer scalability and industrial compatibility.

Recent advances in oxide synthesis focus on defect engineering, doping strategies, heterostructure formation, and interface optimization to enhance device performance. Controlled introduction of oxygen vacancies, metal-ion substitution, and strain engineering can significantly modify charge transport mechanisms, band structures, and switching behavior. Additionally, environmentally friendly synthesis routes using low-cost precursors and energy-efficient processing are gaining importance for sustainable manufacturing. Advanced characterization techniques such as X-ray diffraction (XRD), electron microscopy, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), Raman spectroscopy, and electrical measurements are essential for correlating synthesis conditions with material properties. The development of scalable, reliable, and tunable synthesis approaches will accelerate the integration of advanced oxide materials into next-generation electronics, including memory devices, sensors, optoelectronics, energy storage systems, and artificial intelligence-based computing platforms [27-29].

2.2 Properties and Applications of Advanced Oxide Materials for Emerging Electronic Applications

Advanced oxide materials exhibit a wide range of functional properties arising from their unique crystal structures, electronic configurations, defect chemistry, and interface phenomena. These properties make them highly attractive for applications in next-generation electronic, energy, and intelligent device technologies. The ability to tune their electrical, optical, magnetic, and dielectric characteristics through doping, strain engineering, and defect manipulation has significantly expanded their technological potential.

One of the most important properties of oxide materials is their electrical tunability, which enables applications in resistive switching memory, sensors, and semiconductor devices. Materials such as NiO, ZnO, TiO₂, and perovskite oxides exhibit defect-mediated conductivity due to oxygen vacancies and charge carrier modulation. These features are essential for non-volatile memory devices, including resistive random-access memory (ReRAM), where controlled switching between high and low resistance states is achieved through ion migration and filament formation [30].

The optical properties of oxide materials, including high transparency, wide band gaps, and tunable light absorption, make them suitable for optoelectronic applications. Transparent conducting oxides such as indium tin oxide (ITO), fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO), and aluminum-doped zinc oxide (AZO) are widely used as transparent electrodes in solar cells, displays, and light-emitting devices. Semiconductor oxides like ZnO and TiO₂ are also important photocatalysts for environmental remediation and hydrogen generation. Advanced oxides possess remarkable magnetic and multiferroic properties, enabling their use in spintronic devices, magnetic sensors, and magnetoelectric memory systems [11-13]. Materials such as bismuth ferrite (BiFeO₃) combine ferroelectric and magnetic ordering, providing opportunities for multifunctional electronic components. Similarly, spinel ferrites exhibit high magnetic permeability and chemical stability, making them useful in magnetic storage and microwave applications [15-19].

High dielectric constant (high-k) oxide materials, including HfO₂, ZrO₂, and Al₂O₃, provide excellent capacitance, thermal stability, and low leakage current, supporting advanced CMOS technology and emerging memory architectures. In addition, oxide materials are increasingly explored for energy-related applications such as supercapacitors, batteries, fuel cells, and photocatalytic systems due to their catalytic activity and electrochemical stability. Overall, advanced oxide materials serve as key components in flexible electronics, artificial intelligence hardware, renewable energy technologies, environmental sensors, and sustainable electronic systems. Continued research in material design, scalable synthesis, and interface engineering will further enhance their reliability and commercialization prospects in future intelligent technologies. ReRAM, memristors, FETs, sensors, photovoltaics, photocatalysis, LEDs,

spintronics, supercapacitors, batteries, and flexible electronics. This section further discusses recent research trends, material engineering, device physics, reliability, characterization techniques, and opportunities for commercialization. Emphasis is placed on scalable fabrication, defect control, interface optimization, and emerging applications in intelligent electronic systems.

3. Challenges of Advanced Oxide Materials for Emerging Electronic Applications

Despite significant advancements, the practical implementation of advanced oxide materials in emerging electronic applications faces several scientific and technological challenges. One of the major challenges is the precise control of defects, particularly oxygen vacancies and impurity states, which strongly influence electrical conductivity, optical response, and device reliability. Although defects can enhance functionalities such as resistive switching and photocatalytic activity, uncontrolled defect formation may lead to performance degradation and instability [11]. Another critical challenge is the scalable and reproducible synthesis of high-quality oxide materials. Techniques that provide excellent control at the laboratory scale often face limitations in large-area fabrication, cost efficiency, and industrial compatibility. Achieving uniform composition, controlled crystallinity, and defect distribution during large-scale production remains a major concern. Interface engineering is also a key issue, particularly in thin-film devices and heterostructure-based systems. Poor interface quality can result in charge trapping, increased leakage currents, reduced switching endurance, and device failure. Furthermore, improving the long-term reliability, thermal stability, and environmental durability of oxide-based devices is essential for commercialization. The integration of oxide materials with existing semiconductor technologies requires overcoming challenges related to process compatibility, low-power operation, and device miniaturization. Additionally, the development of sustainable synthesis methods, reduced dependence on rare elements, and environmentally friendly manufacturing approaches are necessary for future applications [12].

Addressing these challenges through advanced characterization, computational modeling, artificial intelligence-assisted material design, and innovative fabrication strategies will accelerate the transition of oxide materials from research laboratories to practical intelligent electronic systems [10].

Future Perspectives of Advanced Oxide Materials for Emerging Electronic Applications

The future development of advanced oxide materials is expected to play a transformative role in next-generation electronic, energy, and intelligent technologies. Continuous advancements in material design, synthesis strategies, and device engineering are enabling the development of oxide-based systems with improved functionality, efficiency, and reliability. Future research will focus on the precise control of crystal structures, defect states, interfaces, and electronic properties to achieve superior device performance.

A major research direction will be the development of multifunctional oxide materials that integrate multiple properties, such as ferroelectricity, magnetism, semiconducting behavior, and catalytic activity, within a single platform. Perovskite oxides, multiferroics, and oxide heterostructures are expected to contribute significantly to emerging technologies such as neuromorphic computing, spintronics, quantum electronics, and advanced memory architectures. The ability to manipulate oxygen vacancies and ionic migration pathways will further enhance the performance of resistive switching and memristive devices [11].

Future progress will also emphasize scalable, low-cost, and sustainable fabrication techniques for industrial applications. Advanced deposition methods, including atomic layer deposition, solution-based processing, and environmentally friendly synthesis approaches, will enable large-area manufacturing of oxide thin films with improved uniformity and reproducibility. Integration of oxide materials with flexible substrates and wearable platforms will open new opportunities in flexible and portable electronics.

The application of artificial intelligence (AI), machine learning, and computational materials science will accelerate the discovery and optimization of novel oxide compositions by predicting structure–property relationships and reducing experimental time. Advanced characterization techniques combined with real-time monitoring will provide deeper understanding of dynamic processes such as charge transport, defect evolution, and interface reactions [7].

Furthermore, oxide materials are expected to contribute significantly to sustainable technologies, including renewable energy conversion, hydrogen production, energy storage, environmental sensing, and green electronics. Addressing challenges related to reliability, cost, scalability, and environmental impact will be essential for successful commercialization. Overall, the integration of advanced oxide materials with emerging digital technologies will enable the development of energy-efficient, intelligent, and sustainable electronic systems for the future [9].

Conclusion

Advanced oxide materials have emerged as a cornerstone of modern materials science due to their exceptional structural flexibility, tunable electronic properties, and multifunctional characteristics. This chapter has highlighted the classification, synthesis approaches, properties, applications, challenges, and future perspectives of important oxide families, including perovskite oxides, spinel oxides, binary oxides, transparent conducting oxides, multiferroic materials, and high-k dielectric oxides. The unique combination of electrical, optical, magnetic, catalytic, and dielectric properties enables these materials to address the growing demands of next-generation electronic technologies.

The ability to engineer oxide materials through doping, defect modulation, strain control, and interface optimization has significantly enhanced their performance in applications such as resistive switching memory, sensors, optoelectronics, energy storage devices, photocatalysis, and advanced computing systems. Advanced synthesis techniques, including sol–gel processing,

sputtering, atomic layer deposition, hydrothermal methods, and spray pyrolysis, have provided effective pathways for developing high-quality thin films and nanostructures with controlled properties. Despite remarkable progress, challenges related to defect control, large-scale fabrication, device reliability, interface stability, and environmental sustainability remain critical barriers for widespread commercialization. Addressing these issues requires a multidisciplinary approach combining experimental investigations, theoretical modeling, artificial intelligence-assisted materials discovery, and advanced characterization techniques.

Future advancements in oxide-based technologies are expected to focus on multifunctional materials, flexible electronics, neuromorphic computing, quantum devices, and sustainable energy systems. The integration of oxide materials with emerging semiconductor technologies will enable the development of highly efficient, low-power, and intelligent electronic platforms. With continued innovation in material engineering and scalable manufacturing strategies, advanced oxide materials are poised to play a vital role in shaping the future of smart electronics, renewable energy technologies, and sustainable technological development.

References

1. Scott, J. F. (2000). *Ferroelectric memories*. Springer.
2. Wilk, G. D., Wallace, R. M., & Anthony, J. M. (2001). High-k gate dielectrics: Current status and materials properties considerations. *Journal of Applied Physics*, 89, 5243–5275.
3. Dawber, M., Rabe, K. M., & Scott, J. F. (2005). Physics of thin-film ferroelectric oxides. *Reviews of Modern Physics*, 77, 1083–1130.
4. Robertson, J. (2006). High dielectric constant gate oxides for metal oxide Si transistors. *Reports on Progress in Physics*, 69, 327–396.
5. Hosono, H. (2006). Ionic amorphous oxide semiconductors: Material design, carrier transport, and device application. *Journal of Non-Crystalline Solids*, 352, 851–858.
6. Waser, R., & Aono, M. (2007). Nanoionics-based resistive switching memories. *Nature Materials*, 6, 833–840.
7. Ramesh, R., & Spaldin, N. A. (2007). Multiferroics: Progress and prospects in thin films. *Nature Materials*, 6, 21–29.
8. Ogale, S. B. (2005). *Thin films and heterostructures for oxide electronics*. Springer.
9. Bibes, M., & Barthélémy, A. (2008). Towards a magnetoelectric memory. *Nature Materials*, 7, 425–426.
10. Zhang, H., Wei, X., & Zhang, Y. (2020). Perovskite oxide materials for electronic and energy applications. *Advanced Functional Materials*, 30, 190–210.
11. Moulson, A. J., & Herbert, J. M. (2003). *Electroceramics: Materials, properties, applications* (2nd ed.). Wiley.
12. Chambers, S. A. (2006). Epitaxial growth and properties of doped transition metal oxide surfaces. *Surface Science Reports*, 61, 345–381.

13. Minami, T. (2005). Transparent conducting oxide semiconductors for transparent electrodes. *Semiconductor Science and Technology*, 20, S35–S44.
14. Ellmer, K. (2012). Past achievements and future challenges in the development of optically transparent electrodes. *Nature Photonics*, 6, 809–817.
15. Granqvist, C. G. (2007). Transparent conductors as solar energy materials: A panoramic review. *Solar Energy Materials and Solar Cells*, 91, 1529–1598.
16. Wang, Z. L. (2004). Nanostructures of zinc oxide. *Materials Today*, 7, 26–33.
17. Fujishima, A., & Honda, K. (1972). Electrochemical photolysis of water at a semiconductor electrode. *Nature*, 238, 37–38.
18. Grätzel, M. (2001). Photoelectrochemical cells. *Nature*, 414, 338–344.
19. Locquet, J. P., Perret, J., Fompeyrine, J., Mächler, E., Seo, J. W., & Van Tendeloo, G. (1998). Doubling the critical temperature of $\text{LaAlO}_3/\text{SrTiO}_3$ interfaces. *Nature*, 394, 453–456.
20. Tsymbal, E. Y., & Kohlstedt, H. (2006). Tunneling across a ferroelectric. *Science*, 313, 181–183.
21. Jeong, D. S., *et al.* (2012). Emerging memories: Resistive switching mechanisms and current status. *Reports on Progress in Physics*, 75, 076502.
22. Sawa, A. (2008). Resistive switching in transition metal oxides. *Materials Today*, 11, 28–36.
23. Das, S., & Appenzeller, J. (2016). Multifunctional oxide electronics: Materials and device perspectives. *Advanced Materials*, 28, 100–125.
24. Maier, J. (2007). *Nanoionics: Ion transport and electrochemical storage in nanostructured materials*. Wiley-VCH.
25. Tokura, Y., & Nagaosa, N. (2000). Orbital physics in transition-metal oxides. *Science*, 288, 462–468.
26. Zubko, P., Gariglio, S., Gabay, M., Ghosez, P., & Triscone, J. M. (2011). Interface physics in complex oxide heterostructures. *Annual Review of Condensed Matter Physics*, 2, 141–165.
27. Fisher, C. A. J., Khalil, A. S. G., & Rosseinsky, M. J. (2020). Defect chemistry and oxygen vacancy engineering in oxide materials. *Chemical Reviews*, 120, 12170–12215.
28. Chrisey, D. B., & Hubler, G. K. (1994). *Pulsed laser deposition of thin films*. Wiley.
29. Shamala, K. S., Murthy, L. C. S., & Narasimha Rao, K. (2004). Studies on tin oxide-based transparent conducting oxide materials. *Bulletin of Materials Science*, 27, 295–301.
30. Green, M. A., *et al.* (2014). The emergence of perovskite solar cells. *Nature Photonics*, 8, 506–514.

NANOTECHNOLOGY FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: EMERGING MATERIALS AND APPLICATIONS

Shahnaz Kossar¹, Barjinder Kaur¹, Sahil Sharma²,

Shawn Jagnandan³, Antalov Jagnandan³ and Mohammad Ayaz Ahmad³

¹School of Natural Sciences, GNA University, Phagwara Punjab, India

²Department of Medical Laboratory Sciences, School of Allied and Healthcare Sciences,
GNA University, Phagwara-144401, Punjab, India

³Department of Mathematics, Physics & Statistics, Faculty of Natural Sciences,
University of Guyana, Greater Georgetown, Guyana, South America

*Corresponding author E-mail: shazia.rajput0505@gmail.com

Abstract

Nanotechnology has become a multi-disciplinary field of science that provides novel capabilities to sustainable development solutions by designing and using advanced nanomaterials. The distinctive physicochemical properties of nanostructures, such as high surface area, increased catalytic activity, tuneable optical and electronic properties, improved mechanical properties and high in situ activity, have led to more challenging applications of these materials in areas such as renewable energy, environmental remediation, healthcare, agriculture and advanced manufacturing. This chapter covers an overview of the new nanomaterials and their contribution towards the global sustainability issues. It explains the development of functional materials such as metal and metal oxide nanoparticles, two-dimensional materials, quantum dots, carbon-based nanostructures, perovskites, and hybrid nanocomposites and their application for energy conversion and storage, photocatalysis and water purification, sensors, and biomedical applications. Specific focus is given to sustainable synthesis methods, green nanotechnology and environmentally friendly fabrications to reduce the environmental footprint. The chapter further emphasizes recent progress on solutions provided by nanotechnology, like the design of materials with the help of artificial intelligence, intelligent nanodevices and scalable fabrication methods. Although substantial advances have been made, toxicity, long-term environmental effects, scalable manufacture, standardisation and commercialisation are all key challenges that need to be surmounted. For laboratory innovations to be taken out of the lab and into real-world use, effective technology transfer, industry-academy partnerships and supportive policy environments are critical. The potential of nanotechnology is immense to participate in achieving Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by combining with the principles of sustainability.

Keywords: Nanotechnology, Nanomaterials, Sustainable Development, Green Synthesis, Energy Storage, Environmental Remediation, Technology Transfer.

1. Introduction

Environmental pollution and the global energy demand have risen sharply due to high rate of industrialization, urbanization and high population growth rates, which are big challenges for achieving sustainable development. Industrial emissions of toxic and toxicogenic organic dyes, residues of pharmaceuticals, pesticides, heavy metals and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) have caused human health problems and disturbance of water and air ecosystems. At the same time, too much reliance on fossil fuels has put people at risk of greenhouse gas emissions, climate change and the loss of non-renewable energy resources. A series of interdependent issues has made the need for environmentally-friendly and energy-efficient technologies generating pollutants at the same time as clean energy greater than ever before. One of the new green technologies has been the semiconductor based photocatalysis has been given a lot of interest because it can utilize the huge reserves of the solar energy towards environmental remediation and renewable energy production.

The use of photocatalytic nanomaterials in different types of photochemical reactions has gained great interest owing to their interesting and unique physicochemical properties, such as high specific surface area, tunable band gap and increased light absorption as well as better charge transport properties. When exposed to light, these materials create electron-hole pairs and engage in oxidation and reduction reactions, all of these result in the formation of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) which in turn can degrade persistent organic pollutants (POPs), disinfect pathogenic microorganisms and reduce toxic compounds to less harmful products.

In addition to environmental remediation, the use of photocatalytic nanomaterials in applications related to sustainable clean energy generation, such as production of hydrogen by photocatalytic water splitting, carbon dioxide photoreduction to valuable fuels and artificial photosynthesis, is of great interest. To date the photocatalytic efficiency has been further improved by strategies like metal and non-metal doping, heterojunction engineering, defect engineering, engineering of oxygen vacancies, plasmonic modifications and the use of 2D nanostructures/ nanocomposites. Titanium dioxide (TiO_2), zinc oxide (ZnO), BiFeO_3 , lanthanum ferrite (LaFeO_3), graphitic carbon nitride ($\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$), and spinel ferrites have now exhibited tremendous photocatalytic activity under visible-light excitation. The chapter summarizes recent advances in fundamental concepts, preparation methods, characterization methods, environmental applications, and clean energy technologies of photocatalytic nanomaterials and elucidates their great potential to realize environmental sustainability, renewable energy production and the global shift toward a low carbon economy.

2. Fundamentals of Photocatalysis

Photocatalysis: A catalytic process that is driven by light, a process whereby the presence of a semiconductor material uses solar or artificial light to start environmental remediation and clean energy production. The process starts with absorption of photons by the semiconductor

photocatalysts like TiO_2 , ZnO , BiFeO_3 , LaFeO_3 or CuFe_2O_4 whose energy equals or exceeds their band gap. The band gap is the energy level gap between the valence band (VB) and the conduction band (CB), and dictates the wavelength of light that is absorbed. When a photon is absorbed by the semiconductor material, the electrons in the valence band are promoted to the conduction band, creating an electron–hole pair in the semiconductor. These photogenerated charge carriers are responsible for initiating photocatalytic reactions, but fast recombination of electrons and holes means that the absorbed energy is converted into heat or light, so photocatalytic efficiency is greatly diminished. Thus, charge separation and transport to the catalyst surface to boost photocatalytic efficiency is pivotal. Conduction band electrons at the semiconductor surface interact with dissolved oxygen to form superoxide radicals ($\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$), and valence band holes oxidize water molecules or hydroxide ions to produce very active hydroxyl ($\bullet\text{OH}$) radicals.

In addition to other reactive oxygen species (ROS), such as hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and singlet oxygen, these radicals have high oxidizing power, which allows them to effectively oxidize organic pollutants, reduce toxic substances to CO_2 and H_2O , eliminate microorganisms and participate in reduction reactions like hydrogen formation and CO_2 transformation. Some intrinsic and extrinsic parameters are shown as being of strong influence on the photocatalytic activity of semiconductor nanomaterials. Crystal structure affects the electronic structure and charge transport properties, while high surface area and nanoscale particle size give more abundant active sites for photocatalytic reactions. Light harvesting and charge mobility are further enhanced by the introduction of different morphological features, such as nanosheets, nanorods, nanotubes and hollow nanostructures. Advanced techniques like band gap engineering by metal or non-metal doping, heterojunctions, defect engineering, and oxygen vacancy extenders extend the visible-light absorption range, reduce electron–hole recombination, increase electron and hole mobility, and form additional reaction sites. These changes result in a considerable increase in photocatalytic efficiency, and the nanostructured photocatalysts compose an attractive class of materials for sustainable environmental remediation and clean energy conversion.

3. Types of Photocatalytic Nanomaterials

Photocatalytic nanomaterials are generally divided into three categories with different chemical compositions, crystal structures and photocatalytic activity, each having a quantum defect that is significant in the field of environmental site remediation, clean energy, and the like. The most widely studied photocatalysts, such as metal oxide semiconductors including TiO_2 , ZnO , WO_3 , SnO_2 and $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$, have shown superior chemical stability, non-toxicity and high photocatalytic activity. Narrow band gaps and high visible-light absorption are the very desirable properties of the perovskite oxide nanomaterials such as bismuth ferrite (BiFeO_3), lanthanum ferrite (LaFeO_3),

and strontium titanate (SrTiO_3), which make them good candidates for solar-driven photocatalysis.

The magnetic properties of spinel ferrite nanomaterials like cobalt and zinc ferrite (CoFe_2O_4 and ZnFe_2O_4), copper and nickel ferrite (CuFe_2O_4 and NiFe_2O_4), enable easy separation and reusability after photocatalytic reactions, making them more applicable for practical use. Metal sulfide photocatalysts like cadmium sulfide (CdS), zinc sulfide (ZnS), and molybdenum disulfide (MoS_2) have excellent absorption of visible light, but their surface generally must be modified to increase stability and decrease the photocorrosion tendency. Carbon-based nanomaterials such as graphene and graphene oxide, reduced graphene oxide, carbon nanotubes and graphitic carbon nitride ($\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$) have found great use to facilitate the separation of charges and electron transfer, as conductive supports. Moreover, new photocatalysts such as metal–organic frameworks (MOFs), covalent organic frameworks (COFs), quantum dots, MXenes and heterojunction nanocomposites have been developed and have shown tunable electronic structures, high porosity, and high photocatalytic activity.

These designer nanomaterials, when used in combination with other techniques like doping, heterostructure engineering, defect generation, among others, have facilitated applications to photovoltaic devices for solar hydrogen production, water purification, pollutant degradation and sustainable environmental protection, paving the way for new applications in renewable energy generation and environmental care. Areas of application: Environmental Remediation. In addition to their excellent light-induced reduction capability, photocatalytic nanomaterials are also highly promising for environmental remediation and are considered the most sustainable solutions for decomposition and removal of pollutants by using either natural or artificial light.

In the field of wastewater treatment, wastewater treatment semiconductor photocatalysts, such as TiO_2 , ZnO , BiFeO_3 , LaFeO_3 , $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and spinel ferrites, effectively break down harmful coloring agents such as methylene blue, rhodamine B, methyl orange and crystal violet into harmless products such as carbon dioxide and water. These materials can also break down long-lasting pharmaceutical pollutants such as pain relievers, anti-inflammatory drugs, hormones, and EDCs (endocrine disrupting compounds) that are not easily filtered out of water using traditional treatment systems. Moreover, photocatalysis is an excellent method to degrade antibiotics like tetracycline, ciprofloxacin and amoxicillin, to mitigate the dissemination of AMR. Pesticide removal, such as atrazine, chlorpyrifos and glyphosate, has also been greatly enhanced with photocatalytic oxidation.

Photocatalytic coatings can be used in air purification efficiently to remove harmful Nitrogen Oxides (NO_x), sulphur-containing gases and Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs) released from industrial processes and vehicles into the atmosphere, and at the same time reduce the level of harmful indoor air such as formaldehyde, benzene, toluene, and microorganisms present in the room. Photocatalytic nanomaterials can further help remove and detoxify heavy metals such as

hexavalent chromium (Cr(VI)), lead (Pb²⁺), mercury (Hg²⁺), and arsenic (As³⁺/As⁵⁺) by photocatalytic reduction, adsorption and oxidation processes, which transform the toxic heavy metal species into less hazardous forms.

In addition to pollutant degradation, these materials also have excellent antibacterial and antiviral properties, effectively releasing ROS that destroy the cell membrane, protein and nucleic acids of microorganisms, which helps to develop applications for the healthcare sector and water disinfection. Buildings, glass, ceramics, and textiles coated with self-cleaning photocatalytic coatings use sunlight to break down organic contaminants while keeping the materials hydrophilic, which aids in dissolving dirt. Moreover, photocatalytic nanomaterials have demonstrated significant usefulness for oil spill remediation applications as they can degrade petroleum hydrocarbons and promote degradation of complex organics in water bodies. The combination of multiple functions in these applications clearly illustrates how photocatalytic nanomaterials can help increase the sustainability of bio-environmental protection, pollution control and rehabilitation.

4. Recent Advances in Photocatalytic Nanotechnology

The application of photocatalytic nanotechnology in recent times has brought in a lot of improvements in the efficiency, stability, and scalability of photocatalysts, which can be used to cure environmental problems and to generate clean energy. Of these innovations, the single-atom photocatalysts (SACS) are a breakthrough technology with three highlighting features: 1) the high utilization of atomic metal; 2) an extremely high number of active metal atoms/particles in the catalysts; 3) the short distance where the electrons are transferred from the support to the metal atoms. However, isolated metal atoms dispersed on appropriate supports, which are a core component of the single-atom photocatalysts (SACs), show three advantages: (1) high utilization of atomic metal, (2) extremely high number of active metal atoms/particles per unit weight of the catalysts, (3) short distance where electron transfer between the support and the isolated atoms occurs, leading to high catalytic activity and selectivity.

Advantages of quantum dots (QDs) are the tunable band gaps, high light absorption and high surface reactivity properties, which have been attributed to the quantum confinement effect, leading to better photocatalytic degradation of light-absorbing organic pollutants and photocatalytic production of hydrogen under visible-light irradiation. Other newly emerging materials are two-dimensional MXenes, transition metal carbides, nitrides and carbonitrides with unsurpassed surface hydrophilicity, specific surface areas and electrical conductivities. MXenes increase the capability of electron transportation, reduce electron-hole recombination and enhance the photocatalytic efficacy when combined with semiconductors. High entropy oxides (HEOs) containing multiple cations in a single crystal lattice have gained significant interest due to their intriguing electronic properties, the added stability of their structure and their synergistic

catalytic properties, which make them useful to carry out compounds that are efficiently transformed under visible light.

Moreover, two-dimensional (2D) nanomaterials such as graphene, graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄), transition metal dichalcogenides (MoS₂ and WS₂) and layered double hydroxides are other materials that offer ultrathin structures rich in active sites, short charge migration paths and good mutual contact with the components, appropriate for the construction of advanced heterojunction photocatalysts. In addition to material innovations, the introduction of artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) has revolutionised the discovery of photocatalysts, which runs through chemical composition prediction, synthesis parameter optimization, understanding structure–property relationships, and the fast screening of high-performance photocatalysts, even lowering experimental costs and development time. Digital twin technology, which integrates computational simulation with experimental real-time data, also helped optimize the catalyst design, reaction chemical kinetics and performance of the process, allowing the photocatalytic systems to be commercialised in a quicker time.

Other significant green synthesis methods, such as plant extract-mediated synthesis, microbial synthesis, biotemplating, hydrothermal mineralization using renewable resources and solvent-free fabrication methods, are able to reduce or eliminate the use of hazardous substances and minimize environmental impact. In addition to an increase in efficiency, fabrication of sustainable photocatalysts also focuses on recyclable materials, synthesis routes with low energy requirements, earth-abundant materials and scalable fabrication processes that can work in the framework of the circular economy. The recent developments collectively pave the way for the next generation of photocatalytic nanomaterials that promise to enhance solar energy utilization, optimize the catalytic efficiency, make materials more environmentally friendly, and improve commercial viability, significantly advancing global sustainability efforts and the transition towards a cleaner energy future, applicable in areas such as wastewater treatment, air purification, carbon dioxide reduction and production of renewable hydrogen.

5. Challenges and Future Perspectives

Although tremendous advances were achieved in the field of photocatalytic nanotechnology, there are still a number of scientific and technological challenges that hinder the mass-scale application of photocatalytic technology in environmental cleanup and sustainable energy. One of the main drawbacks is that many photocatalysts can only be activated by ultraviolet light. The conventional semiconductor photocatalysts (e.g. TiO₂ and ZnO) have large band gaps and can only make use of the ultraviolet radiation, which accounts for less than 5% of the solar spectrum. Therefore, the development of narrow band-gap semiconductors, heterostructures, plasmonic materials, and defect-engineered photocatalysts that can utilize visible/near-infrared light can be important research priorities. The fast recombination of the electron–hole pairs generated upon exposure to visible light is another serious problem that severely affects the photocatalytic

efficiency, because it reduces the generation of the reactive oxygen species which are useful for degradation of pollutants and splitting of water.

Different advanced methods such as heterojunction, deposition of cocatalysts, surface defect modulation and Z-scheme photocatalytic systems have been applied for enhancing charge separation; however, stability and high quantum efficiency under practical operation conditions are difficult to achieve. Moreover, the stability of a photocatalyst under catalytic conditions and photocorrosion are major issues, especially for sulfide-based and metal-based photocatalysts which will structurally degrade when the system is exposed to high-intensity, prolonged exposure of radiation, leading to reduced catalytic performance and operational lifetimes. Surface passivation, protective coating and designing of the composites will therefore be important to make the structures structurally stronger for practical applications.

Moreover, a large-scale production process that is economically viable from laboratory-scale synthesis processes is very challenging. The production of many of the more complicated nanomaterials is challenging due to the use of costly precursors, energy-intensive processing techniques, and complex fabrication methods. To overcome these challenges, new and innovative green synthesis routes involving renewable raw materials, biogenic reducing agents and low-energy manufacturing technologies are being explored, as low-cost and scalable routes are increasingly desired. However, this commercialisation is hampered by so far insufficient industrial validation, variable photocatalytic properties in the real environment, absence of standardised testing procedures and reactor design and process integration problems. Costs are also important, with the photocatalytic system showing long-term superior performance and production and operating costs competitive with the conventional treatment technologies. Environmental safety is nonetheless crucial as products could consume engineered nanoparticles into the ecosystems, which could be harmful to the environment or to human health.

Thus, future photocatalyst development needs to be accompanied by comprehensive life cycle assessment, toxicity evaluation, recovery of nanoparticles, and safe disposal strategies. Circular economy concepts, such as recycling of catalysts, recovery of materials, valorisation of waste and sustainable use of resources, will improve the environmentally friendly aspects of photocatalytic technologies. From a future perspective, the interdisciplinary design strategies of highly efficient, durable and environmentally benign photocatalysts should be explored by utilizing nanotechnology, artificial intelligence, computational materials science, machine learning, and digital twins for catalyst design and optimization. Recently, new materials like single-atom catalysts (SACs), multifunctional heterostructures, two-dimensional semiconductors and high-entropy materials have been found, which may help address some of these current limitations.

Moreover, the commercialization of continuous flow solar photocatalytic reactors, smart monitoring technologies and combined photocatalytic, biological, electrochemical, and

membrane processes will help progress. In summary, the progress of photocatalytic nanotechnology demands the cooperation of researchers, industry, and governments to create a method of comparing the performance of photocatalysts, to develop environmentally friendly manufacturing processes, and to design inexpensive, efficient, and renewable nanotechnologies capable of solving problems of clean water, renewable energy, and environmental protection on a global scale.

6. Policy Recommendations

- (a) For the adoption of photocatalytic technologies to go from research lab to application in the environment and in energy production, ample policy support, targeted investments and concerted action between governments, academic institutions, industries and international organisations are necessary. Wastewater pollution, renewable energy production, carbon dioxide reduction, and hydrogen production are important fields of potential applications of photocatalysis for global challenges. The development of a sustainable and innovative approach to overcome current technological and economic hurdles, however, does need a comprehensive policy approach that promotes innovation, sustainability and commercialization.
- (b) Financing research into the photocatalytic process is vital for ensuring the development of the next generation of photocatalytic materials that are both more active in visible light, more stable, and scalable. The governments and funding bodies should offer targeted grants for fundamental and applied research on nanomaterials, semiconductor engineering, design of catalysts with the help of artificial intelligence and advanced characterisation methods. Long-term research programs can boost the development of effective catalysts, such as metal-free catalysts, single-atom catalysts, catalysts based on heterostructures, environmentally friendly catalysts, etc. By creating national research centres and shared characterization facilities, there will be further support for interdisciplinary innovation, and research costs will be reduced. Industry–academia cooperation is an important factor for the transference of scientific discoveries into commercially available technologies. The university offers the basic knowledge and innovations, and industry offers the expertise to be able to build, scale up, and commercialize into the market. Institute collaborative research projects, encourages technology incubators and public–private partnerships for pilot-scale wastewater treatment, hydrogen production and environmental remediation. Cooperation in research planning is vital for the development of technologies that will satisfy industry-stated concerns relative to durability, operational effectiveness, and cost.
- (c) It is essential to carry out green manufacturing policies in the case of photocatalyst production to ensure sustainable production. Regulations should encourage the adoption of non-toxic synthesis processes, the minimization of toxic chemicals, less energy-intensive processes and the recycling and reuse of catalyst materials. The life cycle of photocatalytic

materials should be considered, introducing LCA approaches for their assessment during production to their disposal. Adopting circular economy principles and implementing them through policies can promote photocatalyst recovery, regeneration and reuse, reducing waste generation and resource use. Advanced photocatalytic remediation technology can be a demand from stringent wastewater treatment regulations.

- (d) The governments of the world should place high requirements for the discharge of industrial pollutants like dyes, drugs, pesticides and heavy metals. Providing the industry with incentives for choosing PNG technology for purification will hasten the shift from energy-intensive purification methods to more sustainable ones. The combination of the photocatalytic process with other biological and membrane processes can be a possibility for an efficient and cost-effective solution. Hydrogen production via photocatalytic water splitting is considered a clean production method and should be favoured in renewable hydrogen initiatives. Support for the development of semiconductor photocatalysts, hydrogen production using solar energy and demonstration-scale projects must be part of national hydrogen missions and renewable energy policies to realise their objectives. R&D costs on solar photocatalytic reactors and hydrogen storage infrastructure can contribute to the transition towards a low-carbon energy economy on a global level. International cooperation is essential for sharing knowledge and information, for sharing resources and for solving international environmental issues. Common research projects, joint funding schemes and scientific networks can accelerate the development and standardisation of photocatalytic technologies. Country cooperation can also help to pave the way for the dissemination of sophisticated technologies to the less developed areas.
- (e) Photocatalytic technologies strongly align with the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), particularly SDG 6 (Clean Water and Sanitation), SDG 7 (Affordable and Clean Energy), SDG 9 (Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure), SDG 12 (Responsible Consumption and Production), and SDG 13 (Climate Action). Policy frameworks should explicitly connect photocatalytic development with these sustainability objectives.
- (f) Further, successful technology transfer and commercialization plans are needed to bridge the gap between the "research product" and industrial implementation. Governments can encourage financial support for clean tech adoption, encourage startups, do pilot demonstration projects, and provide support for IP protection. With scientific innovations and policy support, photocatalysis has the potential to become a cornerstone technology for sustainable solutions in the fields of environmental protection, renewable energy production, and worldwide climate solutions.

Conclusion

Nanotechnology has become a paradigm- shifting science with promising developments in the transposition of interests to foster global sustainability in advanced material development and

novel applications in energy, environment, healthcare, agriculture, and industry. But bringing lab-scale innovations into marketable products and solutions demands an effective technology transfer process, robust industry-academy collaborations and an enabling policy environment. For nanomaterials to be successful in the commercial market, challenges remain in scaling up production, reducing costs, maintaining quality, ensuring safety and obtaining regulatory approval. Innovations in nanotechnology should be brought to the market faster if academia, industry and government research institutions work together. The full inclusion of nanotechnology in the market can be further enhanced by the creation of technology incubation centers, intellectual property protection, and investment in "startups. Green synthesis and circular economy principles are indispensable for sustainable methods to guarantee the beneficial impact of nanotechnology on environmental protection and resource efficiency.

Commercialization strategies for future applications of nanomaterials are to be directed towards developing safe, affordable and scalable nanomaterials in renewable energy, water purification, pollution control, and advanced healthcare applications. There will be great value in international collaborations and knowledge exchange, too, to help close the range of technologies between developed and developing areas. Nanotechnology can play an important role in achieving Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and create a sustainable future through responsible innovation and effective technology transfer.

References

1. Poole, C. P., & Owens, F. J. (2003). *Introduction to Nanotechnology*. Wiley-Interscience.
2. Cao, G., & Wang, Y. (2011). *Nanostructures and Nanomaterials: Synthesis, Properties and Applications* (2nd ed.). World Scientific Publishing.
3. Roco, M. C., Mirkin, C. A., & Hersam, M. C. (2011). Nanotechnology Research Directions for Societal Needs in 2020: Retrospective and Outlook. *Springer*.
4. Bhushan, B. (2017). *Springer Handbook of Nanotechnology* (4th ed.). Springer.
5. Karn, B., Kuiken, T., & Otto, M. (2009). Nanotechnology and in situ remediation: A review of the benefits and potential risks. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 117(12), 1823–1831.
6. Zhang, H., & Banfield, J. F. (2014). Structural characteristics and photocatalytic properties of nanomaterials. *Chemical Reviews*, 114, 507–527.
7. Colvin, V. L. (2003). The potential environmental impact of engineered nanomaterials. *Nature Biotechnology*, 21, 1166–1170.
8. Service, R. F. (2005). Nanotechnology grows up. *Science*, 309, 95.
9. Whitesides, G. M. (2005). Nanoscience, nanotechnology, and chemistry. *Small*, 1(2), 172–179.
10. Wang, Z. L. (2008). Towards self-powered nanosystems: From nanogenerators to nanopiezotronics. *Advanced Functional Materials*, 18, 3553–3567.

11. Lu, A. H., Salabas, E. L., & Schüth, F. (2007). Magnetic nanoparticles: Synthesis, protection, functionalization, and application. *Angewandte Chemie International Edition*, 46, 1222–1244.
12. Zhang, Q., Uchaker, E., Candelaria, S. L., & Cao, G. (2013). Nanomaterials for energy conversion and storage. *Chemical Society Reviews*, 42, 3127–3171.
13. Arico, A. S., Bruce, P., Scrosati, B., Tarascon, J. M., & Van Schalkwijk, W. (2005). Nanostructured materials for advanced energy conversion and storage devices. *Nature Materials*, 4, 366–377.
14. Dresselhaus, M. S., Dresselhaus, G., & Avouris, P. (2001). Carbon nanotubes: Synthesis, structure, properties, and applications. *Topics in Applied Physics*, 80, 1–9.
15. Iijima, S. (1991). Helical microtubules of graphitic carbon. *Nature*, 354, 56–58.
16. Rao, C. N. R., Müller, A., & Cheetham, A. K. (2004). *The Chemistry of Nanomaterials: Synthesis, Properties and Applications*. Wiley-VCH.
17. Tarascon, J. M., & Armand, M. (2001). Issues and challenges facing rechargeable lithium batteries. *Nature*, 414, 359–367.
18. Li, Y., & Somorjai, G. A. (2010). Nanoscale advances in catalysis and energy applications. *Nano Letters*, 10, 2289–2295.
19. Zhang, W. X. (2003). Nanoscale iron particles for environmental remediation: An overview. *Journal of Nanoparticle Research*, 5, 323–332.
20. Qu, X., Alvarez, P. J. J., & Li, Q. (2013). Applications of nanotechnology in water and wastewater treatment. *Water Research*, 47, 3931–3946.
21. Savage, N., & Diallo, M. S. (2005). Nanomaterials and water purification: Applications and limitations. *Journal of Nanoparticle Research*, 7, 331–342.
22. Auffan, M., Rose, J., Bottero, J. Y., Lowry, G. V., Jolivet, J. P., & Wiesner, M. R. (2009). Towards a definition of inorganic nanoparticles from an environmental, health and safety perspective. *Nature Nanotechnology*, 4, 634–641.
23. Gleiter, H. (2000). Nanostructured materials: Basic concepts and microstructure. *Acta Materialia*, 48, 1–29.
24. Kamat, P. V. (2010). Graphene-based nanoarchitectures: The next frontier in solar photocatalytic applications. *Journal of Physical Chemistry Letters*, 1, 520–527.
25. Anastas, P. T., & Warner, J. C. (1998). *Green Chemistry: Theory and Practice*. Oxford University Press.
26. United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). (2020). *Nanotechnology and Sustainable Development: Opportunities and Challenges*. UNEP Publications.

DEGREE-BASED TOPOLOGICAL INDICES: MATHEMATICAL FOUNDATIONS, STRUCTURAL PROPERTIES, AND APPLICATIONS IN QUANTITATIVE STRUCTURE–PROPERTY RELATIONSHIPS

T. Maruthi and I. Paulraj Jayasimman*

Department of Mathematics, AMET Deemed to be University, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India

*Corresponding author E-mail: ipjayasimman@ametuniv.ac.in

Abstract

Topological indices are numerical graph invariants that encode structural information of molecular graphs and serve as mathematical descriptors in chemical graph theory. This chapter presents a systematic study of degree-based topological indices, covering their mathematical foundations, combinatorial derivations, and applications in Quantitative Structure–Property Relationship (QSPR) analysis. We define seven classical indices — the Randic index, the First and Second Zagreb indices (M_1 , M_2), the Augmented Zagreb Index (AZI), the Harmonic Index (H), the Atom–Bond Connectivity (ABC) index, the Geometric–Arithmetic (GA) index, and the Forgotten Topological Index (F) — along with key properties such as bounds, monotonicity, and extremal graphs. Closed-form values are derived for standard chemical graph families (paths, cycles, complete graphs, and stars). A worked QSPR case study on C_4 – C_8 alkanes examine the predictive power of these indices for boiling-point estimation via linear regression. The chapter closes with open research directions relevant to drug discovery and materials science.

Keywords: Topological Indices, Degree-Based Descriptors, Chemical Graph Theory, QSPR, Zagreb Index, Randic Index, Molecular Graphs.

1. Introduction

Degree-based topological indices occupy a central position in chemical graph theory because vertex degrees are the simplest and most accessible structural features of a molecular graph. The degree $d(v)$ of a vertex v in a graph G is the number of edges incident to v , corresponding chemically to the valence (number of bonds) of the atom it represents. From this elementary quantity, a family of molecular descriptors can be constructed, each capturing a different aspect of molecular topology.

The field traces back to Wiener’s index for predicting paraffin boiling points [1], and has since grown into the broad discipline of chemical graph theory [12]. The importance of degree-based indices is evidenced by their widespread use in Quantitative Structure–Property Relationship (QSPR) and Quantitative Structure–Activity Relationship (QSAR) studies, where they serve as independent variables in regression models predicting boiling points, solubility, melting points, partition coefficients, and biological activity of drug molecules [11, 13]. Their computational

simplicity, combined with useful predictive power, makes them valuable in early-stage drug discovery and materials design [14, 10].

This chapter is organized as follows. Section 2 provides graph-theoretic preliminaries. Section 3 defines and derives the principal degree-based indices. Section 4 establishes bounds and extremal results. Section 5 computes these indices for standard chemical graph families. Section 6 presents a QSPR case study for alkane boiling points, and Section 7 concludes.

2. Mathematical Preliminaries

2.1 Graphs, Vertices, and Edges

Throughout, $G = (V(G), E(G))$ denotes a simple, connected graph with vertex set $V(G)$ and edge set $E(G)$, $|V(G)| = n$, $|E(G)| = m$.

Definition 2.1 (Vertex Degree) *The degree of a vertex $v \in V(G)$, denoted $d_G(v)$ or $d(v)$, is the cardinality of its neighborhood $N(v)$:*

$$d(v) = |N(v)| = |\{u \in V(G) : uv \in E(G)\}|.$$

The minimum and maximum degrees of G are denoted $\delta(G)$ and $\Delta(G)$, respectively.

The Handshaking Lemma relates the sum of degrees to the edge count:

$$\sum_{v \in V(G)} d(v) = 2m. \quad (2.1)$$

This holds because each edge $uv \in E(G)$ contributes exactly 1 to $d(u)$ and 1 to $d(v)$, a total contribution of 2 per edge.

2.2 Degree Sequences and Special Graph Families

The degree sequence of G is the non-increasing list of vertex degrees.

Definition 2.2 (Standard Graph Families) *Path P_n : n vertices in a linear chain; $d(v_1) = d(v_n) = 1$, $d(v_i) = 2$ for $2 \leq i \leq n - 1$. Cycle C_n : n vertices in a closed chain; $d(v) = 2 \forall v \in V$. Complete graph K_n : every pair of vertices adjacent; $d(v) = n - 1 \forall v \in V$, $m = n(n - 1)/2$. Star $S_n = K_{1,n-1}$: one central vertex of degree $n - 1$ and $n - 1$ pendant vertices of degree 1. Tree T_n : connected acyclic graph on n vertices; $m = n - 1$.*

2.3 Molecular Graphs

A molecular graph is a connected graph in which each vertex represents a non-hydrogen atom and each edge represents a bond. In hydrogen-suppressed molecular graphs (the standard in chemical graph theory), hydrogen atoms are removed and their bonds are absorbed into the valence count of the heavy atoms. For organic molecules, carbon atoms typically satisfy $d(v) \leq 4$, nitrogen $d(v) \leq 3$, oxygen $d(v) \leq 2$.

Many indices are computed via the *edge-partition*, which groups edges by the degree pair of their endpoints:

$$E(G) = \bigcup_{a,b} E_{a,b}, \quad E_{a,b} = \{uv \in E(G) : \{d(u), d(v)\} = \{a, b\}\}. \quad (2.2)$$

$a \leq b$

3. Degree-Based Topological Indices: Definitions and Derivations

3.1 The Randic Index

Proposed by Milan Randic in 1975 under the name “molecular connectivity index” [2].

Definition 3.1 (Randic Index)

$$R(G) = \sum_{uv \in E(G)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{d(u) \cdot d(v)}} = \sum_{uv \in E(G)} (d(u) \cdot d(v))^{-1/2}. \quad (3.1)$$

The Randic index captures molecular branching: highly branched molecules (many high-degree vertices) tend to have smaller $R(G)$, while linear chains have larger values, since each term $1/\sqrt{d(u)d(v)}$ decreases as the endpoint degrees increase. For the path,

$$R(P_n) = 2 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 \cdot 2}} + (n-3) \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \cdot 2}} = \sqrt{2} + \frac{n-3}{2}. \quad (3.2)$$

3.2 The Zagreb Indices

Introduced by Gutman and Trinajstić (1972) in the context of total π -electron energy [3].

Definition 3.2 (Zagreb Indices)

$$M_1(G) = \sum_{v \in V(G)} d(v)^2 = \sum_{uv \in E(G)} [d(u) + d(v)], \quad v \in V(G) \quad uv \in E(G) \quad (3.3)$$

$$M_1(C_n) = 4n, \quad M_2(C_n) = 4n, \quad (3.4)$$

$$M_1(K_n) = n(n-1)^2, \quad M_2(K_n) = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}(n-1)^2 = \frac{n(n-1)^3}{2}$$

$$M_2(G) = \sum_{uv \in E(G)} d(u) \cdot d(v).$$

$$uv \in E(G)$$

For the cycle and complete graph,

(3.5)

3.3 The Augmented Zagreb Index

Definition 3.3 (Augmented Zagreb Index — AZI) Introduced by Furtula et al. (2010) [6]:

$$AZI(G) = \sum_{uv \in E(G)} \left[\frac{d(u) \cdot d(v)}{d(u) + d(v) - 2} \right]^3. \quad (3.7)$$

$$uv \in E(G)$$

Equation (3.7) is undefined when $d(u) + d(v) = 2$, i.e., for edges between two pendant (degree-1) vertices. Molecular graphs do not contain such edges in practice, since every non-hydrogen atom must bond to at least one heavy neighbor. AZI has shown strong correlation with heat of formation.

3.4 Harmonic Index

Definition 3.4 (Harmonic Index) *Introduced by Fajtlowicz (1987) [9] and later studied by Zhong (2012) [8]:*

$$H(G) = \sum_{uv \in E(G)} \frac{2}{d(u) + d(v)} \quad (3.8)$$

For a k -regular graph, $H(G) = m/k$, since each edge contributes $2/(2k) = 1/k$.

3.5 Atom–Bond Connectivity (ABC) Index

Definition 3.5 (ABC Index)

Proposed by Estrada et al. (1998) [4]:

$$ABC(G) = \sum_{uv \in E(G)} \sqrt{\frac{d(u) + d(v) - 2}{d(u) \cdot d(v)}} \quad (3.9)$$

$uv \in E(G)$

The ABC index was designed to predict the stability of alkanes and the strain energy of cycloalkanes, and has since been applied to boiling points, enthalpy of formation, and biological activity.

3.6 Geometric–Arithmetic (GA) Index

Definition 3.6 (GA Index) *Introduced by Vukicević and Furtula (2009) [5]:*

$$GA(G) = \sum_{uv \in E(G)} \frac{2\sqrt{d(u) \cdot d(v)}}{d(u) + d(v)}$$

By the AM–GM inequality, $\sqrt{d(u)d(v)} \leq (d(u) + d(v))/2$, so each summand satisfies $0 < 2\sqrt{d(u)d(v)}/(d(u) + d(v)) \leq 1$,

with equality iff $d(u) = d(v)$. Hence for a k -regular graph, $GA(G) = m$.

3.7 The Forgotten Topological Index (F-Index)

Definition 3.7 (Forgotten Index) *Rediscovered by Furtula and Gutman (2015) [7]:*

$$F(G) = \sum_{v \in V(G)} d(v)^3 = \sum_{uv \in E(G)} [d(u)^2 + d(v)^2] \quad (3.11)$$

The F -index complements the first Zagreb index M_1 (which uses $d(v)^2$) and has been shown to correlate with the acentric factor and entropy of organic molecules.

4. Mathematical Properties: Bounds and Extremal Results

4.1 Sharp Bounds for the Randic Index

Theorem 4.1 (Bounds for $R(G)$ on Trees) *For any tree T on $n \geq 2$ vertices,*

$$\sqrt{n-1} \leq R(T) \leq \frac{n-1}{2},$$

with the left equality attained by the star S_n and the right equality attained by the path P_n . Proof (sketch). The star S_n has all $n - 1$ edges of type $(1, n - 1)$, giving

$$R(S_n) = \frac{n-1}{\sqrt{n-1}} = \sqrt{n-1},$$

which is the minimum among trees on n vertices, since concentrating degree at a single vertex minimizes each summand $1/d(u)d(v)$ least favorably subject to the tree's edge count. For the upper bound, each summand satisfies $1/d(u)d(v) \leq 1/1 \cdot 2$ whenever one endpoint has degree 1, and among trees the path maximizes the number of low-degree endpoints per edge; direct summation over P_n 's edge partition gives

$R(P_n) = 2 + (n-3)/2$, which is the maximum value attained. $\square$

4.2 Relationship Between M_1 and M_2

Proposition 4.1 *For any connected graph G with minimum degree $\delta \geq 1$ and maximum degree Δ : $\delta \cdot M_1(G) \leq 2 \cdot M_2(G) \leq \Delta \cdot M_1(G)$,*

with equality throughout iff G is regular.

Proof. For each edge uv , $\delta [d(u)+d(v)] \leq 2d(u)d(v) \leq \Delta[d(u)+d(v)]$. Summing over all edges and using $\sum [d(u) + d(v)] = M_1(G)$ and $\sum_{uv \in E} d(u)d(v) = M_2(G)$ gives the result. Equality in both bounds $\sum_{uv \in E}$ holds simultaneously iff $d(u) = d(v)$ for every edge, i.e., G is regular. $\square$

4.3 ABC Index Bound

For the ABC index, a standard sharp bound in terms of n and m is

$$\text{ABC}(G) \leq \sqrt{\frac{m(n-2)}{n}} \quad (4.1)$$

with equality for the complete graph K_n ; this follows from the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality applied to the edge sum in (3.9).

5. Computation for Standard Chemical Graph Families

5.1 Closed-Form Expressions

Table 1 lists closed-form expressions for all seven indices on the four standard families ($n \geq 4$), obtained directly from the edge-partition method.

Table 1: Closed-form degree-based topological indices of standard graph families ($n \geq 4$).

Index	P_n	C_n	$S_n = K_{1,n-1}$	K_n
$R(G)$	$\frac{n-3}{2} + \sqrt{2}$	$\frac{n}{2}$	$\sqrt{n-1}$	$\frac{n}{2}$
$M_1(G)$	$4n-6$	$4n$	$n(n-1)$	$n(n-1)^2$
$M_2(G)$	$4n-8$	$4n$	$(n-1)^2$	$\frac{n(n-1)^3}{2}$
$H(G)$	$\frac{n-3}{2} + \frac{4}{3}$	$\frac{n}{2}$	$\frac{2(n-1)}{n}$	$\frac{n}{2}$
ABC(	—	—	—	—
GA(	—	—	—	—
$F(G)$	$8(n-2)+2$	$8n$	$(n-1)(n^2-2n+2)$	$n(n-1)^3$

5.2 Worked Example: Butane (C_4H_{10})

Butane's hydrogen-suppressed molecular graph is isomorphic to P_4 . Vertex degrees: $d(v_1) = d(v_4) = 1$, $d(v_2) = d(v_3) = 2$; edge set $\{v_1v_2, v_2v_3, v_3v_4\}$ with types $(1,2), (2,2), (2,1)$. Setting $n = 4$:

$$R(P_4) = 2 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{4}\text{-type term} = \sqrt{2} + \frac{1}{2} \approx 1.914, \quad (5.1)$$

$$M_1(P_4) = 1^2 + 2^2 + 2^2 + 1^2 = 10, \quad (5.2)$$

$$G) \quad \sqrt{2} + \frac{n-3}{\sqrt{2}} \quad \frac{n}{\sqrt{2}} \quad (n-1)\sqrt{\frac{n-2}{n-1}} \quad \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \sqrt{\frac{2(n-2)}{(n-1)^2}} \quad (5.3)$$

$$G) \quad (n-3) + \frac{4\sqrt{2}}{3} \quad n \quad \frac{2(n-1)\sqrt{n-1}}{n} \quad \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \quad (5.4)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \\ ABC(P_4) &= \frac{n}{2} + \frac{n}{4} + \frac{n}{2} = \frac{3n}{2} \approx 2.121 \\ P_4) &= \frac{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2}{3} \cdot 2 + 1 = \frac{4 \cdot 2}{3} + 1 \approx 2.886 \end{aligned} \quad (5.5)$$

$$H(P_4) = 2 \cdot \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{4} = \frac{4}{3} + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{11}{6} \approx 1.833, \quad (5.6)$$

$$F(P_4) = 1^3 + 2^3 + 2^3 + 1^3 = 18. \quad (5.7)$$

6 QSPR Case Study: Predicting Boiling Points of Alkanes

6.1 Dataset and Computational Setup

To illustrate the practical use of degree-based indices, we conduct a QSPR study on the boiling points (BP, in $^{\circ}\text{C}$) of C_4 – C_8 alkanes. Experimental boiling points are taken from the NIST WebBook [15]. Indices are computed from hydrogen-suppressed molecular graphs using the edge-partition method of Section 3, and a simple linear regression $\text{BP} = a \cdot \text{TI} + b$ is fitted for each index TI.

Table 2: Degree-based topological indices and experimental boiling points for C_4 – C_8 alkane isomers (BP data: NIST WebBook, 2023)

Molecule	n	m	$R(G)$	$M_1(G)$	$M_2(G)$	$H(G)$	BP ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)
n-butane	4	3	1.914	10	8	1.833	−0.5
2-methylpropane	4	3	1.732	12	9	1.500	−11.7
n-pentane	5	4	2.414	14	12	2.333	36.1
isopentane	5	4	2.270	16	14	2.067	27.7
neopentane	5	4	2.000	20	16	1.600	9.5
n-hexane	6	5	2.914	18	16	2.833	68.7
2-methylpentane	6	5	2.770	20	18	2.567	60.3
n-heptane	7	6	3.414	22	20	3.333	98.4
2-methylhexane	7	6	3.270	24	22	3.067	90.1
n-octane	8	7	3.914	26	24	3.833	125.7

6.2 Regression Analysis

Linear regression was performed between each index and boiling point. Table 3 reports the fitted equation, coefficient of determination R^2 , and root-mean-square error (RMSE), computed directly from the dataset in Table 3.

Table 3: Linear regression statistics: topological index vs. boiling point (BP, °C)

Index	Regression Equation	R^2	RMSE (°C)
Randic' $R(G)$	$BP = 63.48R - 118.50$	0.9967	2.50
1st Zagreb $M_1(G)$	$BP = 7.61M_1 - 88.01$	0.7488	21.75
2nd Zagreb $M_2(G)$	$BP = 7.90M_2 - 75.12$	0.8377	17.48
Harmonic $H(G)$	$BP = 58.51H - 95.65$	0.9783	6.39

Among the indices tested, the Randic index shows the strongest linear correlation with boiling point ($R^2 = 0.9967$, RMSE = 2.50 °C), followed by the Harmonic index ($R^2 = 0.9783$). The Zagreb indices M_1 and M_2 correlate weaklier ($R^2 \approx 0.75$ – 0.84), consistent with the fact that they weight high-degree (branch) vertices heavily and so are less sensitive to chain length, which is the dominant factor governing boiling point in this alkane series.

Conclusion

This chapter presented a mathematical treatment of degree-based topological indices in chemical graph theory. Beginning from vertex degree and the Handshaking Lemma, we defined and derived seven principal indices — Randic, First and Second Zagreb, Augmented Zagreb, Harmonic, ABC, GA, and Forgotten — together with their key properties, sharp bounds, and closed-form expressions for standard graph families.

The edge-partition method was used as a unifying computational tool, giving closed-form derivations for paths, cycles, complete graphs, and stars, and a worked example on butane illustrated the computation procedure step by step. The QSPR case study on C_4 – C_8 alkanes showed that the Randic and Harmonic' indices correlate strongly with experimental boiling points ($R^2 = 0.997$ and 0.978 , respectively), while the Zagreb indices correlate weaklier in this dataset, indicating that different degree-based descriptors capture different aspects of molecular structure relevant to physicochemical properties.

Degree-based topological indices compress complex molecular geometry into a single numerical invariant computed purely from a graph's combinatorial structure. As computational chemistry moves toward high-throughput virtual screening and AI-driven drug discovery, these mathematically grounded descriptors remain useful tools bridging graph theory and applied chemical sciences.

References

1. Wiener, H. (1947). Structural determination of paraffin boiling points. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 69(1), 17–20.

2. Randić, M. (1975). Characterization of molecular branching. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 97(23), 6609–6615.
3. Gutman, I., & Trinajstić, N. (1972). Graph theory and molecular orbitals. Total π -electron energy of alternant hydrocarbons. *Chemical Physics Letters*, 17(4), 535–538.
4. Estrada, E., Torres, L., Rodríguez, L., & Gutman, I. (1998). An atom-bond connectivity index: Modelling the enthalpy of formation of alkanes. *Indian Journal of Chemistry*, 37A, 849–855.
5. Vukičević, D., & Furtula, B. (2009). Topological index based on the ratios of geometrical and arithmetical means of end-vertex degrees of edges. *Journal of Mathematical Chemistry*, 46(4), 1369–1376.
6. Furtula, B., Graovac, A., & Vukičević, D. (2010). Augmented Zagreb index. *Journal of Mathematical Chemistry*, 48(2), 370–380.
7. Furtula, B., & Gutman, I. (2015). A forgotten topological index. *Journal of Mathematical Chemistry*, 53(4), 1184–1190.
8. Zhong, L. (2012). The harmonic index for graphs. *Applied Mathematics Letters*, 25(3), 561–566.
9. Fajtlowicz, S. (1987). On conjectures of Graffiti-II. *Congressus Numerantium*, 60, 187–197.
10. Gutman, I. (2013). Degree-based topological indices. *Croatica Chemica Acta*, 86(4), 351–361.
11. Todeschini, R., & Consonni, V. (2009). *Molecular descriptors for chemoinformatics*. Wiley-VCH.
12. Trinajstić, N. (1992). *Chemical graph theory* (2nd ed.). CRC Press.
13. Devillers, J., & Balaban, A. T. (Eds.). (1999). *Topological indices and related descriptors in QSAR and QSPR*. Gordon and Breach Science Publishers.
14. Li, X., & Gutman, I. (2006). *Mathematical aspects of Randić-type molecular structure descriptors*. University of Kragujevac.
15. NIST WebBook. (2023). *Standard Reference Database Number 69*. National Institute of Standards and Technology.

GREEN CHEMISTRY: PRINCIPAL AND APPLICATION

Archana Sharma

Shri Umiya Kanya Mahavidyalaya Rangwasa Rau Indore, 453331

Corresponding author E-mail: archsharma57@gmail.com

Abstract

The chemistry society has activated to expand new chemistry that is less destructive to the environment and human health. This approach has extensive interest and designated as green chemistry, environmentally friendly chemistry, clean chemistry, and atom economy. There is advancement toward involved chemistry with the facts and do not prevent the properties of the target compound or the efficacy of particular solvents or reagents. The use of chemistry in a way that maximizes benefits while reducing adverse effects has come to be green chemistry. Presently maximum pollution to the environment is caused by some chemical industries. So, need to design and develop synthetic methods in such a way that the waste products are lowest and have no effect on the environment and their handy disposal. Green chemistry plays a vital role in pharmaceuticals for developing new drugs which are less toxic, more effective with low side effects. This review is looking ahead at longer-term challenges and prospects in research, industrial applications, and education.

Keywords: Green Chemistry (GC), Quality by Design (QbD), Tetrahydro Furan (THF).

Introduction

Green Chemistry (GC) or Sustainable Chemistry (SC) involves chemical processes and products designed by chemists, which are environmentally friendly safe and sustainable. The aim of Green Chemistry (GC) is to reduce or eliminate the use or generation of hazardous and climate changing substances. Thus, green chemistry provides more safety to environment and human health. The chemistry that exploits its profit while reducing its undesirable impacts has come to be called GC or SC. The "green," reaction should have three green sections: solvent, reagent/catalyst, and energy expenditure. As a new branch of chemistry with ecological advances and involves reducing or eliminating the use of harmful chemicals in synthesis and reduced harmful intermediates and products. The GC is an approach to dealing with risk reduction and prevention of pollution by tackling the basic hazards of compounds. For example, benzene as a solvent must be evaded because it is carcinogenic. If possible, it is outstanding to performed reactions in the aqueous phase. Synthesis methods should be designed as the maximum extent of reactants is consumed into final products and should not produce any toxic by-products or wastes [1,2,3] Principles of green chemistry include prevention of waste, renewable resources, design of safe chemicals and use of catalyst etc

The GC is based on twelve principles that can be used to form products, reactions, and methods that are safer for the environment as well as humans. The GC developed in all areas of chemistry, such as organic, biochemical, inorganic, physical, toxicological, polymeric, environmental, etc. GC is an oath for chemists, to preserve natural resources and the environment which reasonably analyses the techniques and materials used in development. If no hazardous materials are used or produced, then the risk is zero and there is no need to concern about eliminating harmful compounds from the environment. GC is also about reducing raw materials, waste, risks, energy, environmental impact, and expenditure [4,3,5,6]. Sustainability and environmental issues are rapidly emerging as the most essential topics for manufacture and product development [7]. The executions of GC are some of the efforts that can be prepared to recover the quality of the environment. Future resource, economic, environmental, and sustainability concerns need for more sophisticated, well-organized chemical and manufacturing technologies. In order to overcome these obstacles, GC has opened up a number of opportunities to increase preferred substances and reduce byproducts, as well as equipment utilized in the production of greener chemicals that are naturally, ecologically, and environmentally [8]. The GC also aims to replace non-renewable raw materials with renewable materials to reduce the dangers that impact negatively on health and the environment [9].

Basic Principles of Green Chemistry

The principles of Green Chemistry (GC) address the reduction or removal of harmful substances from the synthesis. Thus, the use of toxic substances to human health and the environment is reduced or eliminated. When designing a GC process, it is impractical to convene the necessities of all principles of the method at the same time, but its efforts to apply various principles as hopeful during definite stages of synthesis [5,10,11,12,13]

- Prevention
- Atomic Economy
- Less Hazardous chemical synthesis
- Designing Safer Chemicals
- Safer solvent and Auxiliaries
- Design for Energy Efficiency
- Use of Renewable Feedstock
- Reduce derivatives
- Catalysis
- Design for degradation
- Real- time analysis for Pollution Prevention
- Inherently safer Chemical for Accident Prevention

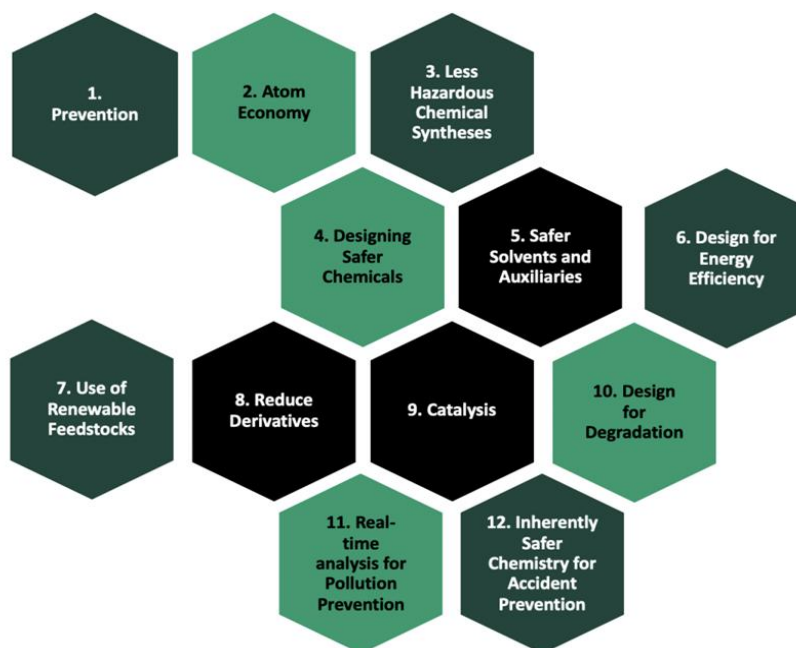


Figure 1: Principle of Green Chemistry

Explanation of Principles of Green Chemistry

1. Prevention

This Principle is based on the fact “It is better to prevent waste than to treat or clean up waste after it has been created. Generally, it describes the ability to update chemical transformation in order to limit the generation of hazardous waste as a significant advancement towards contamination or pollution avoidance. In Paper industry usage of chlorine compound in process produce toxic chlorinated organic waste. Green chemistry develops a method to convert wood pulp in paper using oxygen, water and polyoxometalate salt while producing only water and carbon dioxide as a byproduct. Simply” Less waste is directly proportional to Less Pollution”.

2. Atom Economy

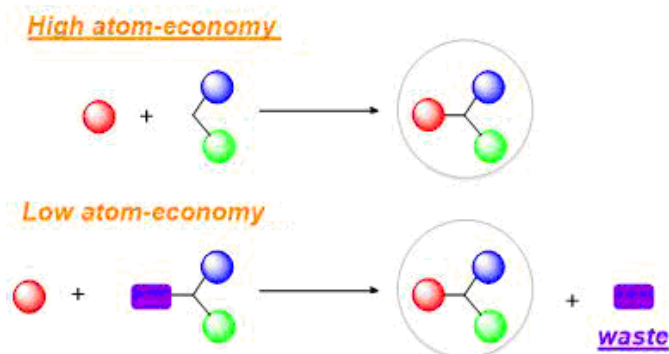
Second principle of green chemistry can be simply stated as the “Atom Economy” of the reaction. “Atom economy” “What atoms of the reactant are incorporated into the final desired product and what atom are wasted. The simplest definition was introduced by Barry Trost [14] and is equal to the ratio between the molar mass of desired product to the total molar mass of reactants, expressed as a percentage. Good atom economy means most of the atoms of the reactants are incorporated in the desired products and only small amounts of unwanted byproducts are formed, reducing the economic and environmental impact of waste disposal.

Atom economy can be written as:

$$\text{atom economy} = \frac{\text{molecular weight (MW) of desired product}}{\text{Sum of MW's of all materials produced}} \times 100$$

Atom economy is a metric in green chemistry used to calculate the efficiency of a chemical reaction. For instance, in the catalytic hydration of ethene all reactant atoms are incorporated into

the single desired ethanol product, resulting in an optimal (100%) atom economy. A high atom economy means less raw material is wasted, reducing environmental impact and disposal costs. Industrial chemists rely on atom economy to design sustainable processes by prioritizing reactions with maximum atom incorporation.



3. Less Hazardous Chemical Synthesis

Whenever possible, less hazardous chemical synthesis should utilize methods that produce substances with minimal or no toxicity to human health and the environment. It prioritizes limiting hazards at the source over relying on protective equipment to manage exposure. In the past, the mercury cell process was widely used to make chlorine. We know that resulting contamination from mercury waste has tragic health and environmental effects. The mercury cell-based chloralkali process caused the Minamata disease [15] severely affect the two native communities. Now, the membrane cell is the preferred choice for the chloralkali process. The increased use of this cellulose-based technology has resulted in decreased use of the mercury cell, which in turn has reduced mercury emissions into the environment.

4. Designing Safer Chemicals

In recent years, the efforts towards sustainable development have highlighted the importance of design safer chemicals. This initiative seeks to decrease the chemical toxicity and its environmental effects, reflecting a growing awareness of chemical safety and environmental protection. Paul Anastasi and John Warner [16] advocate for the reduction or elimination of hazardous substances in chemical products and processes. Key principles include. It is more effective to stop waste production rather than to manage it later. Design synthetic methods to maximize the incorporation of all materials used in the process into the final product. Design methods that generate substances with little or no toxicity to human health and the environment. Chemical products should be designed to achieve their desired function while being as non-toxic as possible. Designing safer chemicals involves several strategies, including molecular redesign, use of safer solvents, and adoption of alternative synthesis methods This involves modifying the chemical structure to eliminate hazardous functional groups or incorporating features that enhance biodegradability. For instance, researchers can design molecules that break down more easily in the environment, reducing their persistence and accumulation in ecosystems. Humans

have created and refined chemicals for thousands of years. Before the industrial revolution, most substances came from natural, organic sources and were only slightly modified. Take wine and vinegar as simple examples. Wine can be consumed, while vinegar serves countless practical purposes. Both are biodegradable and have minimal environmental impact.

5. Safer Solvent and Auxillaries

Solvents play a crucial role as auxiliary substances in chemical reactions. While they generally do not participate in the reactions themselves, they are essential for dissolving reagents, mixing all components, and regulating the reaction temperature. Once the reaction is complete, solvents are frequently employed again to separate and purify the desired product from any leftover materials or by-products. This heavy reliance on solvents results in significant solvent waste during typical chemical processes. Consequently, minimizing solvent usage has become a top priority for chemists focused on developing greener methodologies, particularly in industrial settings. A notable example is Pfizer's achievement in slashing solvent waste in its Viagra synthesis from 1300 kilograms down to just 22 kilograms for each kilogram of the drug produced. While it's vital to lower solvent usage, it's equally important to consider the unique properties of each solvent. For instance, solvents like dichloromethane, which are toxic and persist in the environment, should be avoided wherever possible.

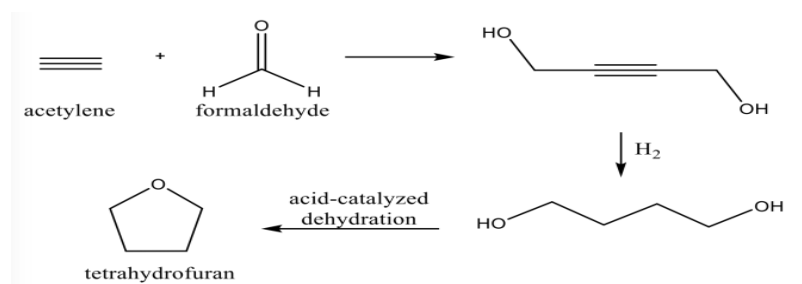
6. Design for Energy Efficiency

"Energy requirement should be recognized for their environmental and economic impact should be minimized. Synthetic method should be conducted at ambient temperature and pressure." Recognition of energy requirements, their impact on the environment and economy and its minimization to the extent possible will pay way for the greener process. Process should be carried out at ambidient conditions. At Iceland which is one of the pioneered countries that have power station based on geothermal power. In this station superheated steam is produced underground when there is a contact between water and heated magma from the earth's mantle. This steam is then extracted via a series of boreholes and pass through the turbine to produce electricity. CO₂ and other exhaust gases including H₂S are released from these geothermal power station areas. Carbon recycling International Iceland makes use of this waste CO₂ to produce 'Renewable Methanol'. This green methanol can be further blended in gasoline and petrol fractions owing to its desirable product.

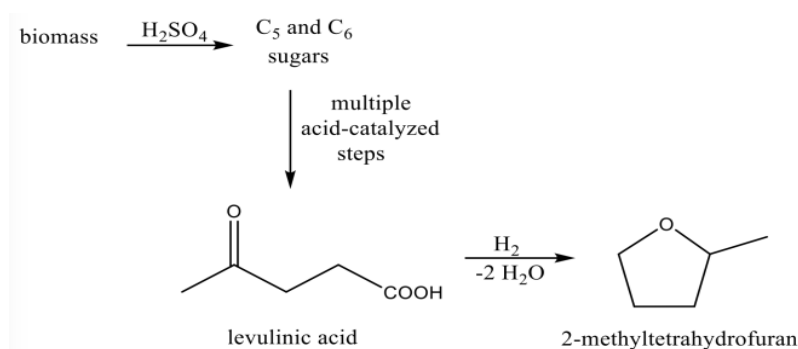
7. Use of Renewable Feedstocks

A raw material or feedstock should be renewable rather than non-renewable whenever it is technically and economically feasible. As society becomes more aware of sustainability there has been a shift towards using biomass as a feedstock and an energy source. Crops such as corn sugarcane and switchgrass, along with wood residues, are converted into platform chemicals, bioplastics like PLA, and biofuels without competing with food supplies. Canola and soyabean

oils are widely used in the production of renewable fuels and biodiesel. Byproduct such as straw, bagasse, and food waste are transformed into ecofriendly bio based solvent and sustainable products. Tetrahydrofuran (THF) is a useful solvent, but it is currently produced from petrochemicals, making it non-renewable. A close relative of THF is 2-methyl THF. Its structure and properties are very similar to those of THF, but the difference is that 2-methyl THF can be synthesized from bio-based chemical derived from renewable feed stock [17,18]. Therefore, substituting 2-methyl THF makes it more sustainable. The synthesis of THF involve an initial step where formaldehyde reacts with acetylene to produce 2-butyne-1,4-diol. This intermediate is then hydrogenated and cyclized in two further steps to yield THF. The acetylene used in this process comes from fossil fuels which are non-renewable.



The synthesis of THF

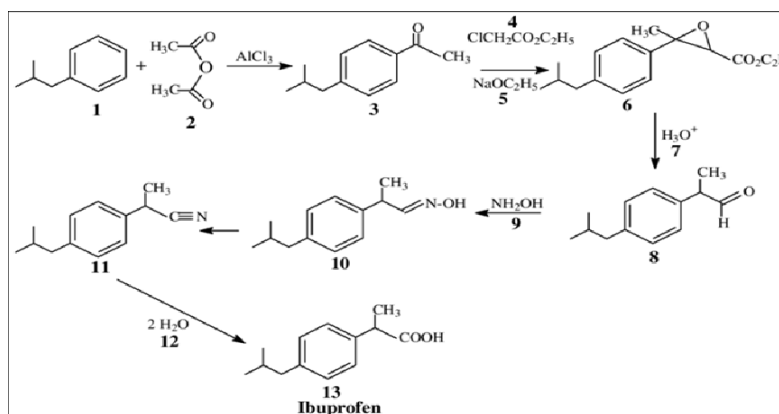


The synthesis of 2-methyl THF

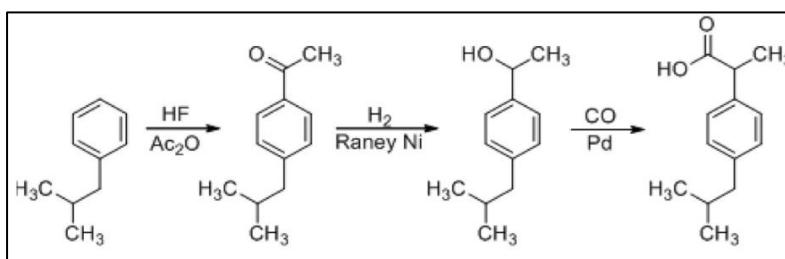
An alternative to THF is 2-methyltetrahydrofuran, which has a very similar structure to THF. It can be synthesized starting from biomass; after conversion to C₅ and C₆ sugars and subsequent acid-catalysed steps, the intermediate levulinic acid can be hydrogenated to yield 2-methyl THF.

8. Reduce Derivative

Unnecessary derivatives (use of blocking group, protection/deprotection, temporary modification of physical chemical process) should be minimized or avoided because such steps require additional reagents and can generate waste. In this principle, the reaction take place at a particular functional group blocking unnecessary waste generation by reducing the process steps with the use of enzyme, catalysts or solvent. For example, the manufacturing of ibuprofen in a 6 steps process by the conventional method. By using anhydrous HF, the process minimizes to 3 steps which are recyclable.



Conventional Synthesis of Ibuprofen



Green Synthesis of Ibuprofen

9. Catalysis

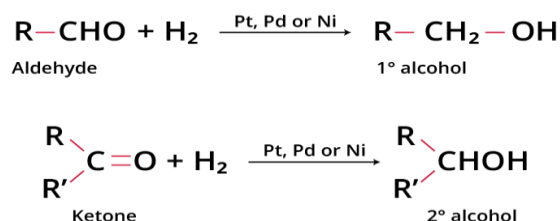
To keep the reaction as close to room temperature as possible the chemical industry has traditionally employed catalysts to both conserve energy and reduce expenses. Nowadays, the main focus of industries is to design and develop ideal catalysts to make all chemical processes cleaner and greener. Therefore, researchers try to find catalysts that will enable industrial processes to be less polluting, reduce toxicity, produce purer products, and last longer. Green catalysts are sustainable, non-toxic, and often recyclable agents that accelerate chemical reactions under mild conditions. There are three types of green catalyst.

Biocatalysts (Enzymes): Highly specific biological molecules that operate efficiently at ambient temperatures and aqueous conditions. They are heavily used in the pharmaceutical industry to synthesize enantiopure drugs without harsh chemicals. The synthesis of the active ingredient in Januvia (Sitagliptin) utilizes an engineered enzymatic catalyst, drastically reducing waste and completely eliminating the need for heavy metal catalysts.

Heterogeneous Catalysts: Solid materials, such as zeolites (microporous aluminosilicates) and metal-organic frameworks (MOFs), that are favoured because they can be easily separated and reused. They are widely used in petrochemical refining to replace highly corrosive and hazardous liquid acids. Zeolites and microencapsulated Lewis's acids are used as solid acid catalysts to replace toxic liquid acids, lowering both operating costs and hazardous waste.

Supported Reagents: Toxic or expensive catalysts anchored to inert polymers or solid supports to prevent leaching, increase selectivity, and simplify purification. The redesign of the Ibuprofen

synthesis process reduced a six-step stoichiometric reaction into a three-step catalytic process, vastly improving yield and significantly reducing toxic byproducts. The reduction of ketone to corresponding secondary alcohol using sodium borohydride a molecular or molecular hydrogen as the reductant. Reduction with the former has an economy of 81% while reduction with the later is 100% atom economic, that is everything ends up in the product and in principle there is no waste.



10. Design for Degradation

Chemical product should be design so that at the end of their function they break down into innocuous degradation product and do not persist in the environment. One example is branched and linear sodium dodecylbenzene sulfonate (SDBS) which is used as a detergent. The branched SDBS is less toxic but it will not readily break down into small molecule and harmful to the environment on the other side the linear SDBS is degraded and friendly to the environment.

11. Real-Time Analysis for Pollution Prevention

Developing efficient, sustainable, and often novel products and processes requires in-depth knowledge and precise control. In many ways, achieving green chemistry's dual goal of efficiency and reduced waste means performing smarter chemistry. Access to detailed time-course data and fine parameter control requires the right tools. One of the most active trends in green chemical production is Quality by Design (QbD), and one of the main tenets of QbD is the requirement to build expansive reaction and process understanding through online, real-time process analytical technology (PAT). Thus, QbD is a driver for real-time reaction analysis technology development. Another trend in green chemistry is the rapidly evolving development of new syntheses (and converting older chemistry) using continuous flow methods, which offer several advantages in terms of productivity and sustainability. Flow chemistry is best served by reaction analysis technology that provides uninterrupted, continuous measurements. Real-time analysis technology including online FTIR, Raman, Ultraviolet-visible (UV/Vis), NIR, NMR, HPLC, and MS are all routinely used to analyse flow chemistry and to ensure the stability and performance of flow systems. Furthermore, real-time analysis facilitates the creation of self-optimizing systems for reactions and processes. In food & beverage, Solvent-free Preparation of Spherical Ethyl Vanillin Particles is used.[20], Pharmaceutical industry using Oxygen, Green Oxidant Reagent [21] pharmaceutical industries also use electrochemical Synthesis of an Opioid Antagonist [22].

12. Inherently Safer Chemistry for Accident Prevention

The selection of substances and their form utilized in chemical processes should aim to reduce the likelihood of chemical accidents such as releases, explosion and fires. “Substance and the form of a substance used in chemical process should be chosen to minimize the potential for chemical accidents, including release, explosion and fire. It involves choosing a safe or safer chemical to instigate the chances of occurrence of an accident. Water or ethanol like safe solvent may be used in place of toxic solvent. Manual error and accidents may be eliminated by using automatic procedures with no human intervention.

References

1. Adam, D. H., Supriadi, Y. N., Ende, & Siregar, Z. M. E. (2020). Green manufacturing, green chemistry and environmental sustainability: A review. *Int. J. Sci. & Tech. Res.*, 9(04), 2209–2211.
2. de Marco, B. A., Rechelo, B. S., Tótolí, E. G., Kogawa, A. C., & Salgado, H. R. N. (2019). Evolution of green chemistry and its multi dimensional impacts: A review. *Saudi Pharm. J.*, 27(1), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsps.2018.07.011>, PMid:30627046 PMCid
3. O’Brien, K. P., Myers, J. P., & Warner, J. (2009). Green chemistry: Terminology and principles. *Environ Health Perspect.*, 117(10), A434.
4. Cerminara, I., Chiumminto, L., Funicello, M., Lupattelli, P., Scafato, P., Scorza, F., & Superchi, S. (2020). Green chemistry, circular economy and sustainable development: An operational perspective to scale research results in SMEs practices. *Computational Science and Its Applications*, 12255, 206–213. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-58820-5_16,
5. Singh, G., & Wakode, S. (2018). Green chemistry drift: A review. *Sch. Acad. J. Pharm.*, 7(6), 274–279. <https://doi.org/10.21276/sajp.2018.7.6.10>
6. Kim, S., Hong, S., Ahn, K., & Gong, S. (2015). Priority survey between indicators and analytic hierarchy process analysis for green chemistry technology assessment. *Environ. Health Toxicol.*, 30 Suppl, 2015003. <https://doi.org/10.5620/ehs.2015003>,
7. Sezen, B., & Çankaya, S. Y. (2013). Effects of green manufacturing and eco-innovation on sustainability performance. *Procedia - Soc. Behav. Sci.*, 99, 154–163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.10.481>
8. Sharma, S. K., Mudhoo, A., & Zhang, W. (2011). Chemistry and engineering. In *Green Chemistry for Environmental Sustainability*. CRC Press. <https://doi.org/10.1201/EBK1439824733>
9. Saini, R. R. S., & Singh, U. U. R. (2002). Green chemistry: Environment, economics, and competitiveness. *Corp. Environ. Strateg.*, 9(3), 259–266. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1066-7938\(02\)00068-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1066-7938(02)00068-4)

10. Ivankovic, A., & Talic, S. (2017). Review of 12 principles of green chemistry in practice. *Int. J. Suit. & Greener*, 6(3), 39–48. <https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ijrse.20170603.12>
11. Escobedo, R., Miranda, R., & Martínez, J. (2016). Infrared irradiation: Toward green chemistry, a review. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.*, 17(4), 453. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms17040453>,
12. Manmohan, S., Arjun, S., Khan, S. P., Eram, S., & Sachan, N. K. (2012). Green chemistry potential for past, present and future perspectives. *Int. J. Res. Pharm.*, 3(4), 31–36.
13. Valavanidis, A., Vlachogianni, T., & Fiotakis, K. (2009). Laboratory experiments of organic synthesis and decomposition of hazardous environmental chemicals following green chemistry principles. *International Conference “Green Chemistry and Sustainable Development”*, Thessaloniki.
14. Trost, B. M. (1995). Atom economy. A challenge for organic synthesis. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl.*, 90(3), 259–281. <https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.0900835>
15. Ontario. (1970). *Handbook of Chlor-Alkali Technology – History of the Chlor-Alkali Industry*. (<http://link.springer.com/book/10.1007%2Fb113786>)
16. Anastas, P. T., & Warner, J. C. (1998). *Green chemistry: Theory and practice*. Oxford University Press.
17. Dunn, J. P. (2012). The importance of green chemistry in process research and development. *Chem. Soc. Rev.*, 41(4), 1452–1461. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c1cs15041c>
18. Khoo, H. H., Wong, L. L., Tan, J., Isoni, V., & Sharratt, P. (2015). Synthesis of 2-Methyl tetrahydrofuran from various lignocellulosic feedstocks: Sustainability assessment via LCA. *Resour. Conserv. Recy.*, 95, 174.
19. Müller, H. (2002). Tetrahydrofuran. In *Ullmann’s Encyclopaedia of Industrial Chemistry* (Vol. 36, pp. 47–54). Wiley-VCH, Weinheim. doi:10.1002/14356007.a26_221
20. Liu, Y., Wang, S., Li, J., Guo, S., Yan, H., Li, K., Tong, L., Gao, Y., Li, T., Chen, M., Gao, Z., & Gong, J. (2023). Preparation of ethyl vanillin spherical particles with functions of sustained release and anti-caking by an organic solvent-free process. *Food Chemistry*, 402, 134518. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2022.134518>
21. Fava, E., Karlsson, S., & Jones, M. D. (2022). Using oxygen as the primary oxidant in a continuous process: Application to the development of an efficient route to AZD4635. *Organic Process Research & Development*, 26(4), 1048–1053. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.oprd.1c00279>
22. Glotz, G., Kappe, C. O., & Cantillo, D. (2020). Electrochemical N-demethylation of 14-hydroxy morphinans: Sustainable access to opioid antagonists. *Organic Letters*, 22(17), 6891–6896. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.orglett.0c02424>

INTEGRATED FOOD SAFETY AND QUALITY ASSURANCE FRAMEWORKS

Seerat Gupta* and Neeraj Gupta

Division of Dairy Technology, Sher-e-Kashmir University of Agricultural Sciences and
Technology, Jammu-181102, J&K, India

Division of Post Harvest Management, Sher-e-Kashmir University of Agricultural Sciences
and Technology, Chatha, Jammu-180009, J&K, India

*Corresponding author E-mail: seeratgupta03@gmail.com

Abstract

Every life form has a basic requirement for food. Food safety can never be guaranteed. Numerous bacteria that cause a wide range of foodborne disorders put food safety at danger. Consumer health is negatively impacted by physical (nails, glass, wood), chemical (pesticides, toxic metals, fertilizers), and biological risks (microorganisms like *Salmonella*). The assurance that food is suitable for human consumption in accordance with its intended usage is known as food safety. The primary risk to food safety emerges from the usage of nanoparticles, which are currently present in packaging materials. GMP, GHP, and HACCP can be used to ensure food quality and safety. For commodities to be distributed or sold in an appropriate manner, food standards must be met. Several governmental organizations keep tabs on the food supply and identify ingredients that are hazardous to people's health. FSSAI, BIS, AGMARK, etc. are examples of food standards and regulations in India. Food standards are maintained by international organizations including CAC, ISO, and WTO. Implementation of new techniques to recognize, track, and evaluate foodborne dangers will be necessary to meet the enormous issue of food safety in the current century. The use of both established and emerging technologies for ensuring food safety must be enhanced. This is probably done via legal measures, but with a lot more emphasis on consumer and professional food handler's education and voluntary compliance.

Introduction

Food is a material that primarily consists of protein, carbohydrate, fat, and other nutrients that are used by an organism's body to support growth and vital functions as well as to provide energy (FAO/WHO, 2007). Food is necessary for survival, but if it is contaminated, it can make you sick and potentially kill you. Some foods are hazardous or poisoned by nature while other foods might go through a protracted and more global process from the farm or producer to the point of consumption (Brownsell *et al.*, 1989). Each phase carries the danger of chemical, physical, or microbiological risks. Food safety, often known as food hygiene, refers to anything done to process, prepare, or handle food in a way that makes it safe to consume. Like any chain, the food chain is only as strong as its weakest link, therefore in addition to producers and processors of

food, governments and individual consumers are also responsible for ensuring food safety (Griffith, 2000).

It's critical to comprehend the meanings of the term adulteration and contamination in the context of food safety. While adulteration refers to the practise of degrading the quality of food, contamination is the presence of dangerous or undesirable foreign elements in food, such as chemicals, microorganisms, dilutants, or pollutants before, during, or after preparation or storage. Intentional substitution or addition of substances is only one kind of adulteration; other forms include biological and chemical contamination of food products during production, storage, processing, transit, and distribution. Adulterants are those compounds used to make food products unfit for eating by living beings (Choudhary *et al.*, 2020).

Food Safety

According to the definition given in the Food Safety & Standards Act of 2006, food safety is the assurance that food is suitable for human consumption in accordance with its intended use. Food safety is interdisciplinary and cross-sectoral (FSSAI, 2021). It entails handling, preparing, and storing food in ways that avoid food borne illness. It guarantees that food is safe for human consumption. Food origins, procedures relating to food labeling, hygiene, additives, and pollutants, as well as biotechnology policies, rules for the administration of import and export, inspection, and certification systems for foods, are all factors that affect food safety. Understanding the definitions of the terms "hazard" and "toxicity" will assist to understand food safety better.

The ability of a material to cause harm or injury of any sort under any circumstances is known as **toxicity**. Food toxicity can have a variety of biological and environmental causes. Vital biological sources of food toxicity include viral, bacterial, and fungal contamination that results in a variety of gastrointestinal disorders, primarily diarrhea, cholera, typhoid fever, and hepatic viral diseases (McCabe-Sellers and Beattie, 2004). Environmental sources include fertilizer and pesticide use as well as various chemical wastes released from industries that find their way into food through variety of channels, from pre-harvest irrigated agriculture with contaminated water to direct pathogenic infestations (Kaushik *et al.*, 2009).

A source, situation, or event is considered a hazard if it has the potential to harm people, property, the ecosystem, or any combination of these. When food is exposed to unsafe substances, the food gets tainted. Physical, chemical, and biological hazards all have negative impact on consumers' health.

Physical hazards include things like wood, stones, nails, jewels, glass, pieces of vermin, hair, etc. that aren't typically present in food yet can cause illness or harm (Kushwah and Kumar, 2017). They typically originate from careless food handling procedures or unintentional contamination.

Chemical substances that could accidentally or purposely incorporated into the food are known as chemical hazards. It can happen at any time during the processes of harvesting, storing, preparing, and serving. Deliberately added chemicals sustain a food's freshness, improve flavours, and prolong the food's life span. A substance is deemed hazardous, due to its inherent characteristics, it endangers people, property, or the environment (Jones, 1992). Pesticides, chemical residues, hazardous metals, polychlorinated biphenyls, preservatives, food colours, and other additives fall under this spectrum of hazards.

Biological hazards emerge when microbes from the air, food, water, soil, animals, and human bodies infect food. Numerous microbes are beneficial and necessary for survival. Food-borne pathogens are microorganisms that are linked to food and disperse illness. It is possible to reduce the risks posed by these microbes by properly managing, preserving, and cooking food (Ropeik, 2002). Microbial pathogens can cause two different types of food-borne illnesses: infections and intoxication.

Ingestion of live pathogenic organisms results in food contamination because they grow in the body and spread disease, it is known as food infection. One well-known instance is *Salmonella*. Animals digestive tracts include this bacterium. Eggs and raw milk are its additional sources. *Salmonella* is destroyed by heat; nevertheless, certain organisms can survive when food is not cooked thoroughly. Cross-contamination is a common method of Salmonella transmission.

Even if the pathogens have been eliminated from food, some bacteria still create toxic byproducts in the food this is referred as food intoxication. When the meal has not been heated or chilled to the proper temperature, organisms produce toxins. Food toxins cannot be identified by taste, sight, or smell. Foods that smell good and look good may not always be healthy. The sections cover pathogens that are caused by bacteria, viruses, parasites, mycobacteria, prions, and other substances that lead to food intoxications (Redel, 2013). *Staphylococcus aureus* is one illustration of such a bacterium. Such organisms are present in water, dust, and the air.

Biological hazards are a significant contributor to food-borne illnesses among the other hazards. Microbial food-borne pathogens continue to be a severe problem despite all the efforts made in the field of food safety, and new pathogens are constantly emerging.

To ensure food safety, all food service providers—those involved in pre-preparation, processing, packaging, and serving—should follow good manufacturing practices. Important aspects to keep in mind are:

1. Raw material and water quality
2. The premises, equipments, food preparation, storage, and serving areas' cleanliness
3. Food storage at the proper temperature
4. Maintenance of hygiene
5. Reliable business practices.

Food Safety Management Systems

Over time, concerns about food safety and quality have expanded beyond simple precautions against chemical toxins, food-borne diseases, and other dangers. A food hazard can penetrate or come into contact with food at any point along the food chain, hence effective chain-wide control is crucial. Food quality and safety can be guaranteed via:

- Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP)
- Good Handling Practices (GHP)
- Hazard Analysis Critical Control Points (HACCP)

Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP) are a part of quality assurance whose goal is to ensure that producers and processors take proactive measures to assure the safety of their products (WHO, 2015). It makes it possible to reduce or completely avoid contamination and incorrect labelling, safeguarding consumers from being duped and assisting them in choosing safe products to purchase. GMP is a useful tool for business that aids in improving compliance and output by manufacturers and producers. The FDA's Current Good Manufacturing Practices requirements are referred to as CGMP. Systems that ensure proper manufacturing process and facility design, monitoring, and control are provided by CGMPs. The following 5 P's of GMP assist in adhering to rigid standards (Murray, 2022) throughout the entire production process:

- People
- Product
- Processes
- Procedures
- Premises

GMP guidelines (WHO, 2007) are as follows:

- Standard operating procedures (SOPs) should be developed
- SOPs and work instructions should be implemented and enforced
- Document procedures and processes
- Confirm the efficiency of SOPs
- Maintain the facilities, tools, and systems
- Help employees become more job-competent
- Keep your environment clean to avoid contamination
- Place quality first and incorporate into workflow
- Conduct routine GMP audits

Good Handling Practices: In order to identify potential sources of risk and to describe the processes and procedures that are followed to reduce the risk of contamination, good handling practices indicate a holistic approach from the farm to the store or customer. Good handling

practices (GHP), which are intended to ensure safety during handling and processing, are a part of the GAP programme (Urbanowitz and Bishop, 2015). It guarantees that everyone who manages food performs it with good hygiene.

Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point (HACCP) HACCP is a technique for ensuring the food's safety. HACCP is an approach to food production and storage in which raw materials and every step in a particular process are carefully scrutinized and assessed for their potential to contribute to the emergence of pathogenic microorganisms or other food risks. It entails risk identification, evaluate the likelihood that risks may materialize at each stage of the food chain — the acquisition of raw materials, production, distribution, and consumption of food products — and establishing controls for risk(s).

The important benefits for implementing the HACCP system (Kushwah and Kumar, 2017) are:

- To take steps to successfully guard against food contamination and other risks.
- To achieve a more economical production mode by recognizing an effective use of manpower and resources.
- To improve the food's safety and quality and the practitioners' degree of hygiene management.

According to NACMCF (Brosseau, 2000), a HACCP plan consists of the following seven elements:

- Principle 1: Conduct a hazard analysis
- Principle 2: Determine the critical control points (CCPs)
- Principle 3: Establish critical limits
- Principle 4: Monitoring procedures
- Principle 5: Corrective actions
- Principle 6: Verification procedures
- Principle 7: Record keeping and documentation procedures

In order to ensure food safety, it enables producers, processors, distributors, and exporters to use resources effectively and affordably. Through HACCP, GMP, and GHP, the FSSA of 2006 assigns manufacturers and suppliers main responsibility for ensuring the safety of food. Both the worldwide food commerce and consumer protection depend on this. It provides sustained high-quality goods.

Food Safety Modernization Act (FSMA)

The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) now has expanded authority under FSMA to control how food is grown, harvested, and processed. It aimed to stop deliberate adulteration from actions meant to harm the public health on a large scale, such as acts of terrorism that affect the food supply. Similar to HACCP, FSMA has made it possible to use more techniques for

preventing food contamination by putting less emphasis on treating food contamination and more emphasis on preventing them (FDA, 2022). In order to implement FSMA, the FDA has established seven key regulations, acknowledging that the global food supply chain must share responsibility for ensuring the safety of both human and animal food (Thatte, 2019).

- Produce Safety
- Preventive Controls for Human Food
- Preventive Controls for Animal Food
- Food Defense
- Third-Party Certification
- Foreign Supplier Verification Program
- Sanitary Transportation

There are three ways to avoid contracting a foodborne illness according to the Sanitary Transportation of Human and Animal Food:

- Vehicles and transportation operations must verify temperatures while in motion.
- Staff members must receive the necessary training to stop behaviours that put food safety at risk.
- New record-keeping standards have generated effective procedures to establish appropriate temperature monitoring.

Distributors are better able to avoid foodborne illness by managing food safety proactively. Specific actions that must be performed at each of these points to prevent contamination are made apparent by the FSMA regulations. According to the FSMA, the FDA is required to adopt regulations to prevent the intentional adulteration of food and animal feed, including the development of science-based mitigation techniques to strengthen and safeguard the food supply chain at particular susceptible spots (Huff, 2018). Food defence aims to stop foodborne contamination, raise corporate responsibility, find weak points in the food system, assess the risks in the systems and processes of food production, and establish effective mitigation initiatives in place.

Food Standards

Food Standards are a set of regulations or laws that specify the requirements that food must meet in order to be distributed or sold, including those related to content, appearance, freshness, source, sanitation, maximum bacterial count, purity, maximum concentration of additives, and others. To assure the supply of hygienic, wholesome food and to facilitate trade both within and between nations, effective food standards and control systems are essential (FSSAI, 2011). Four tiers of standards exist, and they are well regulated.

- **Company Standards:** These are made for a Company's usage only. They are typically replicas of National Standards.
- **National Standards:** The national standard body, Food Safety and Standards Authority of India (FSSAI) issued these standards.
- **Regional Standards:** Regional groups with identical geographies, climatic conditions, etc. have institutions that regulate laws.
- **International Standards:** The International standards are established by both, International Organization for Standardizations (ISO) and Codex Alimentarius Commission (CAC).

Food Standards and Regulations in India

Voluntary product certification: ISI mark of BIS and Agmark are grading and marking systems that are voluntary. The Bureau of Indian Standards (BIS) supervises the standardization of a broad range of consumer goods, particularly food items, and manages a voluntary certification programme for processed foods known as the "ISI" brand. The bureau certifies and approves products that are environmentally friendly, and these products are labelled with the "ECO Mark." ISI Mark design is possible for many commodity products (Bhairavi *et al.*, 2020). Agmark, often known as Agriculture Mark, is a voluntary programme for certifying agricultural goods. The supply of high-quality and unadulterated commodities of consumers is its primary goal (Vishnava, 2022). Due to the government's numerous rules and restrictions, the food business found it difficult to follow them. Therefore, it was felt that all of these regulations governing food quality needed to be combined. With this in mind, the Indian government created the Food Safety and Standards Act, 2006, to unify the many components of food safety legislation.

Food Safety and Standards Act, 2006: The Food Safety and Standards Act of 2006, which codifies a number of acts and orders that had previously been used by several Ministries and Departments to address food-related issues, and lead to the establishment of the FSSAI. The FSS Act of 2006 aims to establish an adequate level of protection for consumer interests, including fair practices in all types of food trade with reference to food safety standards and procedures, as well as for human life and health (FSSAI, 2006). The PFA did not include measures for the preservation of sanitary conditions in and around manufacturing premises or for the scientific evaluation and control of risk factors to human health. The international transition from vertical standards to horizontal standards in food regulations is reflected in the Food Safety and Standard Act.

Food Safety and Standards Authority of India (FSSAI): The Food Safety Standards Act of 2006 constituted the Food Safety and Standards Authority of India (FSSAI). New Delhi serves as the FSSAI's headquarter. Additionally, there are 6 regional offices of the authority, which are situated in Delhi, Guwahati, Mumbai, Kolkata, Cochin, and Chennai. To ensure the availability

of healthy, safe food for human consumption, the Food Safety and Standards Authority of India was founded. Its mission is to set scientific standards for food and to control its production, storage, distribution, sale, and import (FSSAI, 2006). It accomplishes a variety of tasks:

- Creating regulations that specify requirements for food products as well as a way to enforce various standards.
- Establishing procedures and rules for laboratories recognition and notification of their accreditation, as well as for accreditation of certification bodies for certification of food safety management systems for food businesses.
- Compile information on food consumption, biological risk occurrence and prevalence, food contaminants, traces of different contaminants in food items, emerging danger, and the implementation of a quick alert system.
- Raise people's awareness of food regulations and safety.
- Offer training programmes to those who work in or want to work in the food industry.
- To offer technical assistance and scientific guidance to the federal government and state governments as they formulate their policies and regulations regarding food safety and nutrition.
- Assist in the creation of global technical standards for sanitary and phyto-sanitary conditions.
- Establishing an information network across the nation so that the general public, consumers, panchayats, etc., may quickly learn about food safety and other serious concerns.

The FSSAI has also undertaken a number of significant initiatives with a focus on food safety and standards. Several of these significant endeavours are listed below:

- Eat Right India
- FSSAI-CHIFSS
- Clean Street Food
- Heart Attack Rewind
- Diet4Life
- Save Food, Share Food, Share Joy

International Organizations and Agreements in the Area of Food Standards, Quality, Research and Trade

Governments have been working to create and enforce food standards since the beginning in an attempt to protect consumer health and stop unethical food sales activities. Numerous international organizations and agreements have contributed in improving food security, safety,

and quality while promoting commerce and research. The major organizations that are essential players are:

- Codex Alimentarius Commission (CAC)
- International Organization for Standardisation (ISO)
- World Trade Organization (WTO)

Codex Alimentarius Commission - The CAC is an intergovernmental organization created with the purpose of developing global standards to safeguard consumer health and promote food and agricultural trade (Magnuson *et al.*, 2013). The Codex Alimentarius Commission created a set of standards, directives, and codes of conduct known as the "Food Code," also recognized as the Codex Alimentarius. Its goals are to safeguard consumer health and ensure ethical business practices in the food industry. The FAO and WHO formed the Commission, often known as CAC, as the focal point of the Joint FAO/WHO Food Standards Programme, in order to safeguard consumer health and advance ethical trading practices for foods. 188 member nations and one member organization (the European Community) made up Codex's membership as of 2022, respectively (FAO, 2022). India is also a member of this commission. The single most significant international indicator for modifications in food standards is now CAC. To create national standards, various nations employ Codex Standards.

International Organization for Standardisation - National standards organizations throughout the world are united by the International Organization for Standardization (ISO). The ISO/IEC Directives, a set of accepted guidelines that also include specifications for how standards should be presented, govern how ISO operates (Songara *et al.*, 2011). ISO's objective is to improve global standardization and similar events, in order to enable the trade of goods and services internationally and to foster collaboration in the fields of thought, science, technology, and business. An international standards for quality management are in ISO 9000 series, while for environmental management are in ISO 14000 series (Heires, 2008). Implementation of these standards is optional.

World Trade Organization -The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), which had been formed in 1948, was replaced by the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1995. The primary goal of the WTO is to facilitate trade by managing trade agreements, resolving trade disputes, and supporting nations with trade policy challenges (WTO, 2012). Intellectual property, products, and services are all covered by the WTO Agreement. A robust food control system is required to enforce standard acceptance and execution. The authority of the food control system is derived from a complete set of applicable food laws (Bruno, 1996). Thus, two general categories of food control systems can be distinguished as:

- Import food control systems
- Export food control systems

Food control systems for export are set up to develop a reputation as a trustworthy provider whereas import food control systems are designed to avoid dumping (Neeliah and Goburdhun, 2007). A central administrative function is required for both import and export food control systems in order to supervise a food regulatory programme from a national perspective.

Conclusion

The food supply chain is getting longer due to globalization of the food industry, which also makes it more difficult to investigate outbreaks of food related illness and to recall products in an emergency. Food safety and the prevention of foodborne illnesses are now global issues that can only be resolved via increased international cooperation. To foster collaboration between governmental agencies, nongovernmental organizations, and local authorities, a powerful food safety agency is required. Governments, business, farmers, academic institutions, and consumers all share responsibility for ensuring the safety of food. As a result of increased, both real and perceived, food safety issues, food safety assurance systems are generally becoming stiffer in both developed and developing nations. Despite a continuous rise in the occurrence of foodborne illnesses, many public health agencies don't really recognize the significance of food safety worldwide. Protocols have indeed been established by FAO, a sister organization of WHO, to help nations in handling large food safety. These procedures include the global normative efforts of the Codex Alimentarius Commission, JECFA, JMPR, and the most recent microbiological risk assessment projects.

References

1. Bhairavi, B., Fatima, A., Parelli, K., Manda, P. and Rao, B. (2020). The Bureau of Indian Standards Act, 2016-An Overview. *International Journal of Drug Regulatory Affairs*, 8(1), 1-4.
2. Brosseau, G. (2000). Awareness of hazard analysis critical control points. M.Sc. Thesis. Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, New York.
3. Brownsell, V.L., Griffith, C.J. and Jones, E. (1989). *Applied Science for Food Studies*, Longman, London.
4. Bruno, A. (1996). *In Review of National Import Food Control Systems*, Proceedings of the joint FAO/ILSI-EUROPE Workshop Food Safety and Quality Control Systems—Scientific Background and Their Application for Public Health, Warsaw, Poland, November 18-22, 1996; FAO, Rome.
5. Choudhary, A., Gupta, N., Hameed, F. and Choton, S. 2020. An overview of food adulteration: Concept, sources, impact, challenges and detection. *International Journal of Chemical Studies*, 8, 2564-2573.
6. FAO. (2022). About Codex Alimentarius. Food and Agriculture Organization, United Nation. Assessed on 17 November, 2022.

7. FAO/WHO. (2007). Joint FAO/WHO food standards programme. FAO/WHO coordinating committee for Africa, seventeenth session, Rabat, morocco, pp 23-26.
8. FDA. (2022). Food Safety Modernization Act (FSMA). U.S. Food and Drug Administration. Accessed on 17 November, 2022. Available at: <https://www.fda.gov/food/guidance-regulation-food-and-dietary-supplements/food-safety-modernization-act-fsma>
9. FSSAI. (2006). *Food Safety and Standards Act, 2006*. Food Safety and Standards Authority of India, New Delhi.
10. FSSAI. (2011). *Food Safety and Standards (Food Products Standards and Food Additives) Regulation, 2011*. Food Safety and Standards Authority of India, New Delhi.
11. FSSAI. (2021). *Manual for food safety officer*. Food Safety and Standards Authority of India, New Delhi. pp 6-13.
12. Griffith, C.J. (2000). Food safety in catering establishments. In: Farber, J.M. and Todd, E.C.D. (Ed), *Safe Handling of Foods*, Marcel Dekker, New York.
13. Heires, M. (2008). The International Organization for Standardization (ISO). *New Political Economy*, 13(3), 357-367.
14. Huff, A.G. (2018). *Food Defense*. Encyclopedia of Food Chemistry, pp 652-656. Vol. 1. Varelis, P., Melton, L. and Shahidi, F. (ed.) Elsevier, London, UK.
15. Jones, D.A. (1992). *Nomenclature for hazard and risk assessment in the process industries*. Rugby, Warwickshire, UK: Institution of Chemical Engineers.
16. Kaushik, G., Satya, S. and Naik, S.N. (2009). Food processing a tool to pesticide residue dissipation—A review. *Food Research International*, 42(1), 26-40.
17. Kushwah, A. and Kumar, R. (2017). *A Review of Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Point*. The Proceedings of the International Conference on Recent Developments in Science, Technology, Humanities and Management, 28-29 April 2017, Kuala Lumpur. pp 24-27.
18. Magnuson, B., Munro, I., Abbot, P., Baldwin, N., Lopez-Garcia, R., Ly, K., McGirr, L., Roberts, A. and Socolovsky, S. (2013). Review of the regulation and safety assessment of food substances in various countries and jurisdictions. *Food Additives & Contaminants: Part A*, 30(7), 1214-1248.
19. McCabe-Sellers, B.J. and Beattie, S.E. (2004). Food safety: Emerging trends in foodborne illness surveillance and prevention. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 104(11), 1708-1717.
20. Murray, E. (2022). *The 5 Ps of GMP*. Vitafoods insights. Accessed on 17 November, 2022. Available at: <https://www.vitafoodsinsights.com/lab-and-quality-control/5-ps-gmp>

21. Neeliah, S.A. and Goburdhun, D. (2007). National Food Control Systems: A Review. *Food Reviews International*, 23(1), 35-51.
22. Redel, H. (2013). Foodborne Infections and Intoxications. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, 19(12), 2067-2067.
23. Ropeik, D. (2002). *Risk*. New York, New York, USA: Houghton Mifflin Company. ISBN 0-618-14372-6.
24. Songara, R.K., Chouhan, P., Singla, R.K., Tiwari, A. and Sharma, A. (2011). Regulatory Aspect of International Organization for Standardization (ISO). *Indo Global Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 1(3), 258-280.
25. Thatte, D. (2019). *The Food Safety Modernization Act in a Nutshell*. Accessed on 18 November, 2022. Available at: <https://www.nist.gov/blogs/manufacturing-innovation-blog/food-safety-modernization-act-nutshell>
26. Urbanowitz, S. and Bishop, C. (2015). *Good Agricultural Practices (GAP) and Good Handling Practices (GHP): Risk Mitigation in Edible Horticultural Production Systems*. University of Nevada Cooperative Extension.
27. Vishnava. (2022). *Agmark*. Accessed on 17 November 2022. Available at: <https://cleartax.in/g/terms/agmark>
28. WHO. (2007). Chapter 1: WHO good manufacturing practices: Main principles for pharmaceutical products. *Quality Assurance of Pharmaceuticals: A compendium of guidelines and related materials - Good manufacturing practices and inspection*. Vol. 2 (2nd updated ed.). WHO Press. pp. 17-18.
29. WHO. (2015). *Medicines: Good manufacturing practices*. World Health Organization. Accessed on 16 November, 2022 <https://www.who.int/news-room/questions-and-answers/item/medicines-good-manufacturing-processes>
30. WTO. (2012). *Understanding the WTO*. World Trade Organization, Geneva, Switzerland.

SECURESPHERE: A WEB-BASED CYBERSECURITY TOOL PLATFORM

Azad Gupta and Neha Bagga

School of Engineering, Design and Automation,

GNA University, Phagwara, India

Corresponding author E-mail: guptaazad912@gmail.com,

neha.bagga@gnauniversity.edu.in

Abstract

Market Overview The newest decade, the present-day digital era with its cyber-surrounded environment, is plagued by an increasing number of cybersecurity risks such as virus attacks, illegal access to common networks and data, targeted discovered attacks on systems with end-users and undermining of existing business operations. Present cybersecurity systems turned out to be an intricate, costly, and testing for amateurs and understudies to utilize. SECURESPHERE is a web platform for cybersecurity tools that integrate specialty network scans, secure hashes, and malware detection into one easy-to-use standalone environment to solve this issue. In turn, the network scanning module detects active services as well to find open ports and the malware detection module seeks for malicious content and anomalous patterns in files uploaded. The module that creates a hash, in order to ensure data integrity, creates Secure Hash Values using MD5, SHA 1 & SHA 256 the system is implemented using JavaScript, HTML, CSS and the Python Flask framework. The optimised platform serves both as an instructional cybersecurity learning tool while providing much greater accessibility, efficiency and usefulness to students, novices and small businesses.

Keywords: Cybersecurity, Flask, Hash Generator, Malware Detection, Network Scanning, Web Security.

1. Introduction

Technologies related to IT (Information Technology) are today fundamental components of how we live our lives on a daily basis, as we enter into this new Digital Age. The use of computers, smart phones, cloud services, apps and other types of web-based technologies is used by businesses, organizations, schools, and individual people alike for communication purposes, storing large amounts of data, financial transactions, and for the purpose of sharing information. While technological advancements offer numerous benefits such as increased efficiency and availability, it has produced enormous risks to cyber security which put digital systems at risk globally.

The increased use of internet connectivity and growth of networked devices have resulted in an exponential rise in Cybersecurity Threats over the last decade. In addition to this, the volume and complexity of these types of attacks (malware, ransomware, phishing, unauthorized access,

identity theft, and data breach and/or network intrusion) continue to grow. This creates a threat to individuals, organizations and government agencies; which results in financial loss, disruption of services and or compromise of private information. As scammers develop increasingly complex methodologies for attacking digital assets, protecting our digital infrastructure is now more important than ever before.

Cybersecurity is the method by which hostile action and unauthorized access to systems, networks, applications, and digital information is prevented. Cybersecurity uses a variety of methods including malware detection, network monitoring, vulnerability assessments, encryption, authentication, firewalls, and intrusion detection systems. In addition to these tools, effective cybersecurity provides digital data availability, confidentiality and integrity. One of the primary concerns in the field of cybersecurity today is the use of malware to attack computer systems. Malware is defined as malicious software that will damage, interfere with or provide unauthorized access to systems and/or data. Examples include viruses, worms, trojan horses, spyware, ransomware and rootkits. Malware may be spread through infected files, rogue websites, email attachments and flaws in software. The ability to detect malware is necessary to protect systems and prevent unauthorized actions.

Network security is a very important element of cybersecurity. We see continuous attack from denials of service, port exploitation, unauthorized access, and network-based intrusions which are a threat to present day computer networks. Also, we use network scanning to identify open ports, running services and possible security issues in a network. Security experts use network scan tools to strengthen defences and find out vulnerabilities which attackers may use. Also, in the field of cybersecurity, we see heavy use of data integrity verification and cryptography. We use algorithms like MD5, SHA-1, and SHA-256 to generate unique hash values for files and data. These hash values are used to determine if data has been changed or tampered with. Also, we have digital signatures, secure communication protocols, authentication systems and password storage all normally use hashing procedures.

Today we see that although there is a great deal of cyber security software out there the great majority of current systems still have it in them that they do not work as they should. Many of the cyber security applications are stand-alone which are designed for very specific tasks like network scan, virus analysis, or crypto functions. What we see is that users have to go out and install and support many of these tools on their own which in turn is a very complex and unproductive process. Also, many of the large-scale security solutions are very expensive and require a high degree of technical skill to use which in turn puts them out of the reach of the average person, student, and small business.

In another issue we see the lack of lightweight and centralized cybersecurity platforms that put key security features in one environment. We have complex sets up, command line tools, and in-

depth interfaces which is a challenge for new and educational users. Also, this is a issue in terms of understanding security concepts and performing useful security assessments. To that end the SECURESPHERE project which is a web-based cybersecurity tool platform was put forth and developed. SECURESPHERE' goal is to present a combined, lightweight and user-friendly environment that puts many security features into one system. In a single online interface, the platform includes modules for secure hash generation, network scanning, and malware detection. In addition to being a useful cybersecurity platform, SECURESPHERE is intended to serve as a teaching tool for novices and students who wish to learn cybersecurity principles in an easy-to-understand setting. The project shows how networking concepts, software development approaches, cybersecurity principles, and cryptography techniques may be applied practically in a real-world setting.

As an outcome, SECURESPHERE is an actual, scalable, and useful cybersecurity solution that meets the growing demand for available and integrated digital security platforms in both real-world and educational settings.

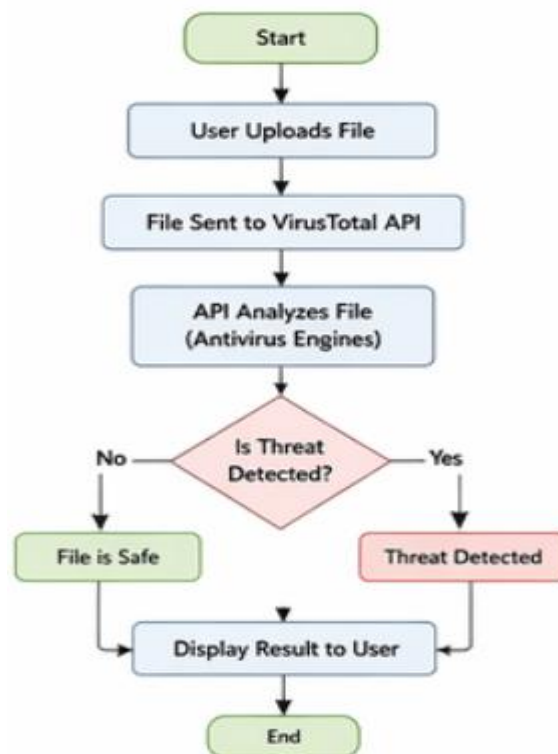


Figure 1: Flowchart of Malware Detection tool

The world is seeing an increase in cyber-attacks which has made cybersecurity a very important field of study. To protect systems, networks and data from malware, unauthorized access, phishing and data breaches researchers and companies have put forth a great many tools and strategies. Malware detection is a key element of cybersecurity research. Traditional anti-virus programs which we see today mostly use signature-based detection which is a mainstay of the field. At the same time the SANS Institute reports that malware analysis which looks at atypical

patterns and file action does a better job at identifying bad software. Also, it has been seen that for the recent malware strains which are coming out traditional methods do not do as well. Also, a very important element of cyber security is network security.

Cybersecurity also is a very large field which uses hashing and cryptography. To ensure data integrity and secure storage of passwords algorithms such as MD5, SHA-1, and SHA-256 are used. Out of these Secure Hash functions that NIST has put forth are very much in use today. Also we see that network scanning and vulnerability assessment is a great practice in which we use tools like Nmap. These tools help to identify open ports, which services are running and also to find out security vulnerabilities in computer networks.

To increase usability and accessibility, a number of web-based cybersecurity solutions have been created. Nevertheless, a lot of current systems solely concentrate on particular security features and need technical know-how to function.

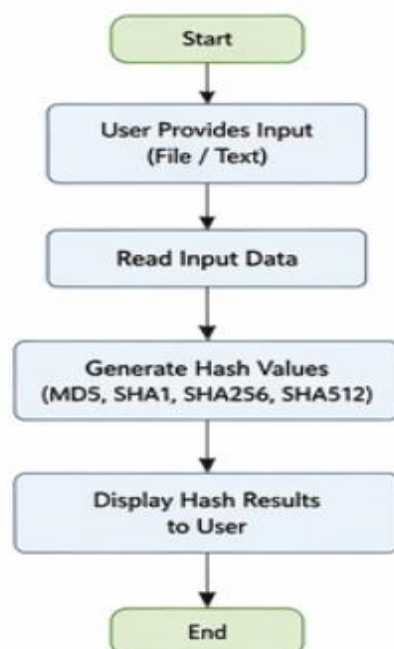


Figure 2: Flowchart of Hash Compare Tool



Figure 3: Flowchart of Network Scanning Tool

2. Litratue Review

The scale and intensity of cyber threats have dramatically grown due to the increasing use of digital systems and internet-connected systems. This has led to the development of many methods and models for detecting malware, security monitoring in networks, intrusion detection and integrity check of data. The section discusses the current literature on the main functions of the proposed SecureSphere platform.

A. Malware Detection Techniques

The task of detecting and stopping malicious software from damaging computer systems is one of the most essential components of cyber security, known as Malware Detection. Traditional methods of malware detection generally involve signature-based methods, which involve comparing files to a database of known signatures of malware. These techniques are effective against known threats, but not new and emerging variants.

Bayer *et al.* [1] proposed a behavior-based malware clustering approach based on analysis of the runtime behavior of malicious programs, which is used to look for similarities between the different families of malware. Their findings showed that behavioural analysis is a valid method for identifying new threats that have not yet been seen before. Likewise, Jacob *et al.* [4] presented a classification of the methods used to detect malware and highlighted that behavioral analysis is critical in detecting advanced attacks.

Machine learning is a potential answer to detecting malware. Shabtai *et al.* [2] gave a comprehensive overview of the machine learning based malware detection methods and emphasized the role played by classifiers for the identification of malicious programs and distinguishing them from nonmalicious ones. Firdausi *et al.* [3] also studied some machine learning algorithms employed in malware detection based on behaviors and found that intelligent classification algorithms can be very effective in increasing the accuracy of the detection.

Although these developments have given rise to significant advances in malware detection technology, many current methods are still very resource-intensive and require a lot of technical knowledge. Thus there is still a need for lightweight and easy to use solutions which can offer good malware detection capability in a simple and easy to use manner.

B. Network Scanning and Intrusion Detection

Another key aspect of cybersecurity research is network security. There are several networking scanning methods that can be used to discover active devices, open ports, active services, and possible vulnerabilities in a network. The best known is the work of Lyon [5] who created Nmap, a powerful network discovery and security auditing tool. Nmap is known for its efficiency and versatility, making it a popular tool among network administrators and security professionals.

One of the first who introduced the notion of intrusion detection was Denning [7] who devised one of the earliest models for detecting unauthorized use of computer systems. Her work is the building block of the modern Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS). These principles were expanded upon by Scarfone and Mell [8] who gave detailed instruction for intrusion detection and prevention systems, emphasizing the need to keep track of network traffic for possible attacks.

The use of machine learning techniques in network intrusion detection was discussed by Sommer and Paxson [6]. Their research proved the capabilities and difficulties of applying intelligent

systems to threat detection in dynamic networks. While those advanced intrusion detection systems can provide a high degree of protection, they can also be high-maintenance and complicated, making them less reliable to use by non-expert users.

C. Cryptographic Hash Functions and Data Integrity

Data integrity is one of the essential requirements of today's information systems. A common application of cryptographic hash functions is to ensure that data has not been tampered with when stored or transmitted. In 1992, Rivest [9] proposed a new message-digest algorithm, MD5, one of the most popular hashing methods for producing digital "fingerprints" of files and messages.

In an attempt to overcome these security shortcomings of previous hash functions, NIST has created a Secure Hash Standard (SHS) that contains the SHA family of hash functions [10]. The hash function used is particularly resistant to collision and preimage attacks, such as SHA-256. These hashing techniques are extensively used in digital signatures, password protection, file verification, and blockchain applications.

Having several levels of hashing in a security system helps to carry out integrity checks on data efficiently and helps them appreciate the differences in security between various hashing techniques.

D. Integrated Cybersecurity Platforms

Many threat detection, network monitoring, and cryptographic verification tools have been created, but they are all standalone applications. Stallings [11] and Pfleeger and Pfleeger [12] noted that multiple layers of defenses must be implemented to get the most out of modern cybersecurity.

Security platforms for enterprise use will typically have a number of security functions embedded; however, they are expensive, resource intensive, and complicated to use for the novice. Moreover, a lot of educational users and small organizations do not have access to such complete solutions. This restriction leaves a divide between sophisticated cyber security technologies and readily usable, practical applications for learning and for basic cyber security operations.

E. Research Gap

The literature reviewed has shown great advancements in malware detection, network security, intrusion detection and cryptographic integrity verification. But most of the previous research studies are directed toward these areas separately and not towards an integrated solution. In addition, there are numerous tools available, but they need specialized knowledge and a significant amount of computational resources, and are not more accessible for students and beginner members of the public.

To fill this void, the proposed SecureSphere platform combines the features of malware detection, network scanning, and cryptographic hash generation all in one web-based application. SECURESPHERE unifies these core cybersecurity capabilities in a lightweight and easy-to-use framework, streamlining the cybersecurity experience without compromising on effectiveness and approachability. This is not a stand-alone cybersecurity solution, but rather a way to contribute to cybersecurity education and to cybersecurity practical management.

3. Objectives and Hypothesis of the Study

Objectives of the Study:

The SECURESPHERE project's main goal is to provide a consolidated, safe, and user-friendly web-based cybersecurity platform that combines all necessary security technologies into one setting.

The following are the study's particular goals:

- To create a simply accessible and user-friendly web-based cybersecurity platform.
- To put in place a malware detection module to find dubious and possibly dangerous files.
- To offer network scanning capabilities for identifying open ports, running services, and potential security holes.
- To create secure hash values for data integrity verification using cryptographic methods like MD5, SHA-1, and SHA-256.
- To provide an engaging, lightweight user interface that is appropriate for novices, students, and small businesses.
- To create a scalable, modular system design that can accommodate upcoming improvements and new cybersecurity features.
- To use an integrated security system to encourage hands-on learning and cybersecurity awareness.

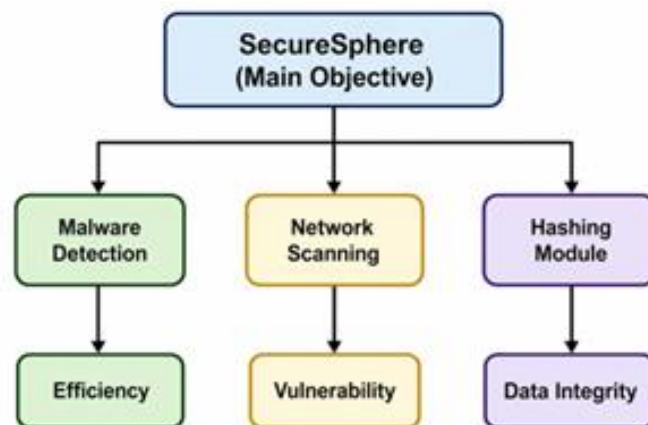


Fig. 4: Main Objective

Hypothesis of the Study

The study is based on the following hypotheses:

- **H1:** Compared to employing several independent security products, an integrated cybersecurity platform increases effectiveness and usability.
- **H2:** For novices and students, a web-based cybersecurity system offers more accessibility and an improved user experience.
- **H3:** System scalability, adaptability, and maintainability are improved via a modular cybersecurity design.
- **H4:** Centralized cybersecurity tools enhance digital protection and streamline security operations.

4. Research Methodology

SECURESPHERE is following the Waterfall Software Development Life Cycle (SDLC) model, a regular and organized method to software development. The Waterfall model was selected because it breaks the growth course down into distinct phases, each of which must be finished before the next can begin. This will help confirm suitable certification, lessen growth complexity and enable efficient project management. This research uses the methodology of requirement analysis, system design, implementation, testing and deployment. The initial step, requirement analysis, was to identify the cybersecurity issues that users encounter and what the main functions are needed for the platform. Comprehensive research was carried out in order to gain insights into prevalent security challenges like malware attacks, network weaknesses, and data integrity problems. The final result of these tools, “SecureSphere” were recognized: Malware Detection, Network Scanning, and Cryptographic Hash Generation. To make the system efficient, reliable, secure and easy to use, functional and non-functional requirements were documented. The overall architecture of SECURESPHERE was designed during this stage. Moreover, for the user design a platform has been made which not only include the client-server architecture but also the backend with the web-sockets technology. Furthermore the flow diagrams and interactions between each component of data cleaning procedures were analyzed thoroughly to have the communication procedures effectively.

The frontend was designed to be spontaneous and user-friendly, with use of HTML, CSS, and JavaScript. The backend architecture was designed using the Flask framework in Python, which is used for handing out and security operations. The application phase was the actual development of the platform. Malware detection module was developed to detect suspicious files and content from uploaded files by comparing with signatures and heuristic detection. The network scanning module was created with the use of Python networking libraries and socket programming to detect the active devices, open ports and possible vulnerabilities on a local network. The cryptographic module was designed to use hashing functions like MD5, SHA-1,

and SHA-256, which are used to verify data integrity and secure verification of files and user inputs. Moreover, the UI was designed to enable users to access all cybersecurity tools in a unified dashboard in a hassle-free and efficient way. The system was then tested and validated after implementation to ensure its functionality, performance, and reliability. A number of test cases were tested to ensure that each module functioned as expected. Functional testing was performed to test every feature for correctness and integration testing was performed to make sure that there is a seamless communication among different modules. Testing of performance was also conducted to test the response time and resource utilization. In all, the systematic design and implementation of the project with the proper research of the methodology the SECURESPHERE has been executed.

5. Results and Discussion

Web-based cybersecurity tool integrating network scanning, hash-generation, and malware detection capabilities to consolidate into one environment successfully developed and operational. Various files, IPs and text inputs were used to test the working performance of the system. The malware detection module applied its predetermined logic and effectively checked the submitted data, identifying suspicious patterns. The network scanning module allowed the tool to scan and identify open ports and running services, therefore enabling end-users to evaluate the security of their networks. Our hash generator module utilizes MD5, SHA-1 and SHA-256 algorithms to ensure that the secure hash values are correctly provided for data integrity verification. It acted consistently and quickly with no hesitation in any part of frontend and backend communication. This is less common in win-forms-based software, so it became more accessible and easier to use for students, newcomers, and smaller organizations. The results show that the one-solution approach of a web-based solution is more efficient and more convenient to use with better usability than standalone solutions with separate functionalities for cybersecurity. To sum up, SecureSphere succeeded in achieving its two aims: to create a scalable, affordable and viable cybersecurity tool for education and to be deployed in the field.

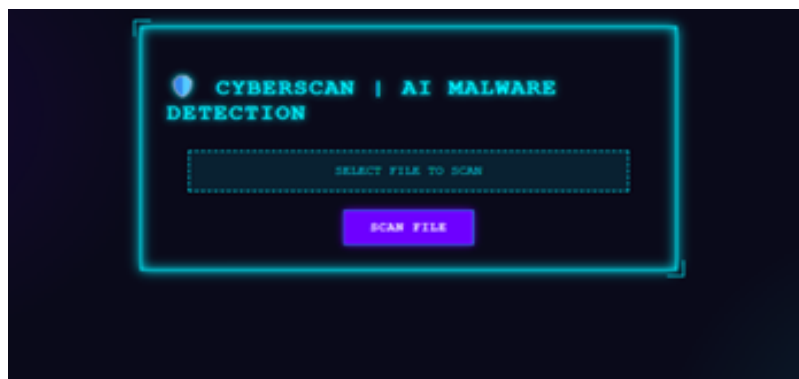


Figure 5: Malware Detection tool

6. Project Screenshots

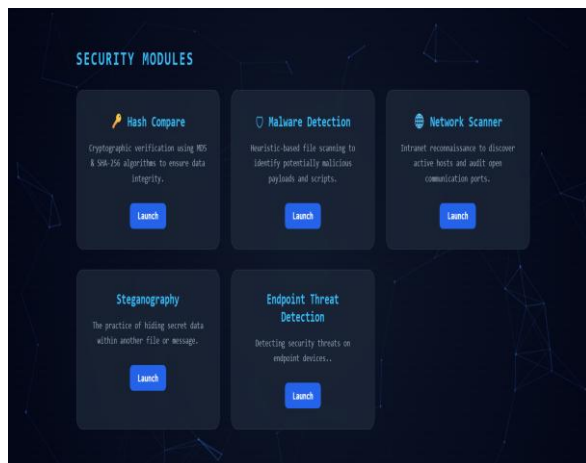


Figure 6: Security Modules



Figure 7: System Logs

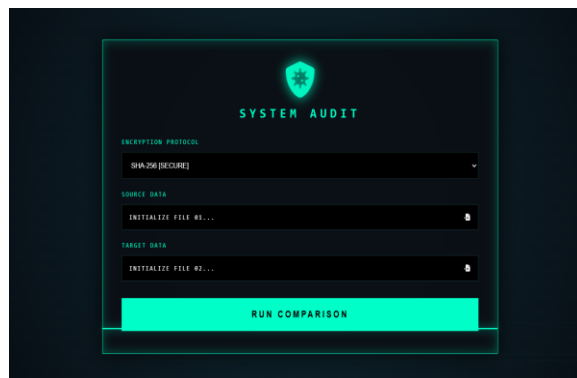


Figure 8: Hash Compare Tool

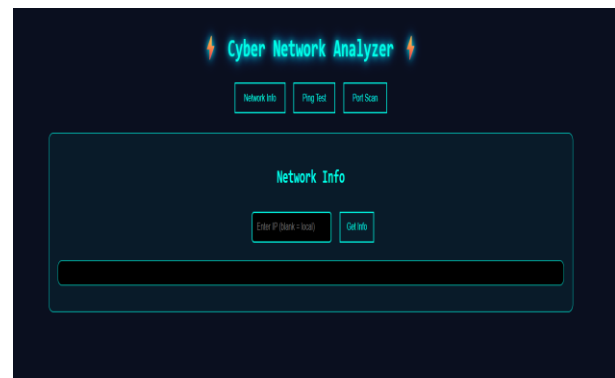


Figure 9: Network Scanning Tool

7. Findings

- Integrated cybersecurity platforms make handling various security solutions easier and more user-friendly.
- It is possible to successfully integrate network scanning and malware detection into a single web-based system.
- Data integrity and security verification are ensured by hashing algorithms like MD5, SHA-1, and SHA-256.
- Availability for students and small business is improved with this project.

8. Recommendation and Suggestions

This project includes advanced cybersecurity skills such as AI-base malware detection, vulnerability scanning, encryption tool, Steganography and real-time threat monitoring which can also be joined in SECURESPHERE platform. Future releases of the system can include log monitoring, password strength testing and deployment to cloud services to enhance extensibility and scalability. Use algorithmic techniques to trigger the malware detection module and get more precise threat assessment. The Network scanning module can even be expanded to discover more sophisticated vulnerabilities and security errors. Complete and easy-to-use cybersecurity solutions for beginners, students and small enterprises are the focus of this project. It also

demonstrates how a web-based cybersecurity system might be used to enhance security awareness and streamline security operations in either a real or classroom setting. As outlined in our SecureSphere performance results, Reviewer Test Data is designed to be a realistic test of performance and capabilities. found that the product can detect and scan the network for malware effectively. It also ensures that the hash values are secure. SecureSphere testing revealed that: it is a good product and doesn't respond then take a time. SecureSphere has a small, Appetite for resources, too.

Table 1: Performance evaluation table

Module	Test Performed	Accuracy/ Efficiency	Result
Malware Scanner	Malicious File Detection	95%	Successfully detected infected files
Network Scanner	Open Port Detection	94%	Detected active ports accurately
Hash Generator	MD5/SHA Hash Generation	99%	Generated correct hashes
System Response	Average Scan Speed	2-5 seconds	Fast processing time

Conclusions

The SECURESPHERE project was successfully able to create an integrated cyber security platform, with its features comprising a network scanner, secure hashing and malware detection. It provides a simple user-friendly and capable atmosphere for execution of cybersecurity functions. The system provided repeatable performance, correct results and all-in-one integration of many security modules. That compares to providing easier availability for cybersecurity facilities to customers—students and small businesses. In addition, the program highlights the need for full cybersecurity solutions in today's digital landscape.

Limitations

SECURESPHERE execution was successful, but there are difficulties in terms of technology. Due to the fact that it mostly relies on previously defined scanning algorithms, the malware detection module may not be able to detect advanced or new features of a malware. At this You can only find basic cybersecurity features and not advanced features such as automated threat detection, artificial intelligence for threat assessment or intrusion detection in, cybersecurity analytics, and security analytics. Additionally for large scale enterprise environments its efficiency can be limited as it is designed for educational and smaller operations. The new version also has to help manage complex security processes and high levels of network traffic. On the other hand, these restrictions provide opportunities for future development and further research to build an advanced AI cybersecurity platform.

Scope For Further Research

SECURESPHERE definitely puts a solid base for future cybersecurity research and development. Advanced persistent threat evaluation and malware discovery techniques using

machine learning and artificial intelligence may be coming soon. There might be an inbuilt feature to detect intrusions and vulnerabilities in real-time which improves the monitoring of systems and security management. The invention can be augmented by adding features like encryption and decryption tools, password strength evaluation, endpoint threat monitoring and auto generating security reports on the platform. A cloud deployment can enhance the scalability, accessibility and provide remote security management.

References

1. Bayer, U., Comparetti, P. M., Hlauschek, C., Kruegel, C., & Kirda, E. (2009). Scalable, behavior-based malware clustering. In *Proceedings of the Network and Distributed System Security Symposium (NDSS)*.
2. Shabtai, A., Moskovitch, R., Elovici, Y., & Glezer, C. (2009). Detection of malicious code by applying machine learning classifiers on static features: A state-of-the-art survey. *Information Security Technical Report*, 14(1), 16–29.
3. Firdausi, I., Lim, C., Erwin, A., & Nugroho, A. S. (2010). Analysis of machine learning techniques used in behavior-based malware detection. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Advances in Computing, Control and Telecommunication Technologies* (pp. 201–203).
4. Jacob, G., Debar, H., & Filiol, E. (2008). Behavioral detection of malware: From a survey towards an established taxonomy. *Journal in Computer Virology*, 4(3), 251–266.
5. Lyon, G. (2009). *Nmap network scanning: The official Nmap Project guide to network discovery and security scanning*. Insecure.Com LLC.
6. Sommer, R., & Paxson, V. (2010). Outside the closed world: On using machine learning for network intrusion detection. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy* (pp. 305–316).
7. Denning, D. E. (1987). An intrusion-detection model. *IEEE Transactions on Software Engineering*, SE-13(2), 222–232.
8. Scarfone, K., & Mell, P. (2007). *Guide to intrusion detection and prevention systems (IDPS)*. NIST Special Publication 800-94.
9. Rivest, R. (1992). *The MD5 message-digest algorithm*. RFC 1321, Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF).
10. National Institute of Standards and Technology. (2015). *Secure hash standard (SHS)*. FIPS PUB 180-4.
11. Bishop, M. (2018). *Computer security: Art and science*. Addison-Wesley.
12. Stallings, W. (2017). *Network security essentials: Applications and standards*. Pearson Education.

THERMOLUMINESCENCE MATERIALS AND ITS APPLICATIONS

Vijay R. Chinchamalature

Department of Physics,

Hutatma Rashtriya Arts and Science College Ashti,

Distt: Wardha, Maharashtra, 442202, India

Corresponding author E-mail: vijay05051970@gmail.com

Abstract

Thermally stimulated luminescence is known as a technique used in radiation dosimetry and dating. However, since the luminescence is very sensitive to the defects in a solid, it can also be used in material research. In this review, it is shown how Thermally stimulated luminescence can be used as a research tool to investigate luminescent characteristics and underlying luminescent mechanisms. First, some basic characteristics and a theoretical background of the phenomenon are given. Next, methods and difficulties in extracting trapping parameters are addressed. Then, the instrumentation needed to measure the luminescence, both as a function of temperature and wavelength, is described. Finally, a series of very diverse examples is given to illustrate how TSL has been used in the determination of energy levels of defects, in the research of persistent luminescence phosphors, and in phenomena like band gap engineering, tunnelling, photosynthesis, and thermal quenching. It is concluded that in the field of luminescence spectroscopy, thermally stimulated luminescence has proven to be an experimental technique with unique properties to study defects in solids.

1. Introduction

Thermoluminescence is a phenomenon in which a material emits light when heated, after having absorbed energy from ionizing radiation such as X-rays, gamma rays, or UV radiation. The term “thermoluminescence” is derived from two words: “thermo” meaning heat and “luminescence” meaning light emission. Thus, TL literally refers to light emission stimulated by heat.

In recent decades, the search for new luminescent materials has been intensified due to applications in many different fields, like light emitting diode (LED) based lighting systems, persistent luminescence phosphors, storage phosphors, scintillators, and up and down conversion materials for solar cells. Progress in the identification of new luminescent materials requires insight into the underlying mechanisms and the role of the defects in those materials. Achieving this insight requires instrumentation and dedicated experimental methods.

Thermally stimulated luminescence (TSL) is light produced by heating a solid to a temperature below that of incandescence. The light is only observed after exposure of the solid to radiation, i.e., absorption of energy from an external source. The heat only works as a trigger. The main application of TSL is in radiation dosimetry since it has been shown that for some materials, the

emitted light is proportional to the absorbed dose to which the material has been exposed. This is the case not only in personal dosimetry, but also for environmental, clinical, and high dose dosimetry. Another important application is using TSL as a dating method complementary to radiocarbon. Thermally stimulated luminescence is able to date inorganic materials, mainly ceramics, while radiocarbon is limited to organic materials. TSL dating has also turned out to be useful in fields different from archaeology and historical architecture, in particular, the dating of sediments.

In order to understand how thermoluminescence (TL) can be used to study luminescent materials, a theoretical background of the phenomenon is indispensable. The basic effect leading to the production of TL is the trapping of charge carriers, i.e., electrons and holes, produced during exposure to an external source at defect sites in the material. Defect sites can be divided into two categories: (1) those inherently present in the material; and (2) those produced by external means, such as deliberately doping the sample with impurities. A well-known example of the first category is a negative ion vacancy. Such a vacancy can trap an electron and is then called an *F* center. An example of the second category is a lattice vacancy caused by a higher valence impurity ion at the position of a lattice ion. A trivalent cation impurity in a divalent lattice, for example, would induce the formation of a cation vacancy in the lattice to maintain charge neutrality. Cationic vacancies are potential sites for trapping holes. There are many other types of defects that can act as electron or hole trapping centers. Revealing the nature of those defects is part of the research of luminescent materials.

2. Historical Background

The study of thermoluminescence dates back to the early 20th century. Initial observations were made when certain minerals emitted light upon heating after exposure to sunlight or radiation. Systematic studies were carried out in the 1940s and 1950s, leading to the development of TL dosimeters.

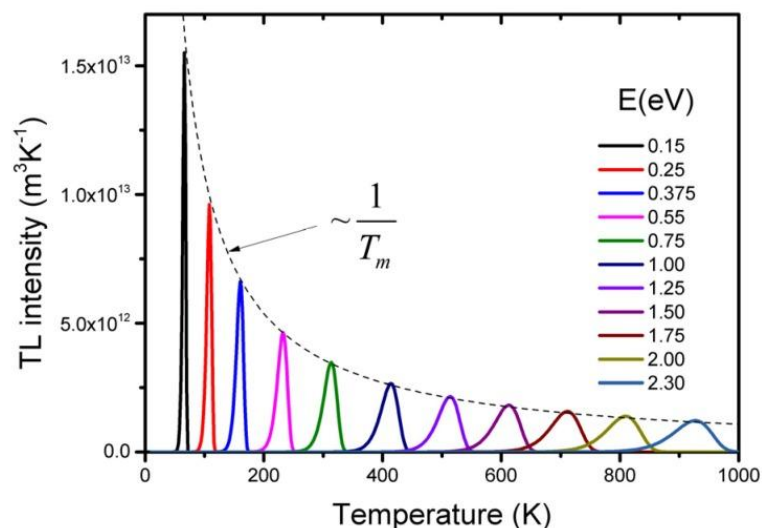
Researchers such as Randall and Wilkins developed the theoretical framework of thermoluminescence, explaining the role of traps and recombination centers in crystals.

3. Basic Concepts of Luminescence

Luminescence is the emission of light by a substance not resulting from heat. It includes:

1. Fluorescence
2. Phosphorescence
3. Chemiluminescence
4. Thermoluminescence

In thermoluminescence, the emission is delayed and occurs only when the material is heated. The mechanism of thermoluminescence can be explained using the energy band model of solids.



4. Thermoluminescence as a Research Tools

The thermoluminescence process involves three main steps:

1. Excitation:

Incident radiation excites electrons from the valence band to the conduction band.

2. Trapping:

- Some electrons fall into metastable trap levels (defects/impurities).
- These traps store energy for long durations.

3. Recombination

- Upon heating, electrons escape traps and recombine with holes.
- This recombination releases energy in the form of light (photons).
- It is a type of luminescence distinct from fluorescence and phosphorescence.
- The light emission occurs due to release of trapped charge carriers (electrons/holes).
- These trapped charges are stored in defect sites within a crystal lattice.

Characteristics of a luminescent material strongly depend on the position of the energy levels of the defect levels with respect to the bottom of the conduction band and the top of the valence band. The position of the defect levels also controls whether those defects can act as an electron donor or electron acceptor, or as a hole trap or electron trap. Accurate information on the location of defect levels within the band gap is not easy to obtain. In the following, we will give a series of examples where TSL measurements can help to locate these levels, first from the defect levels of the widely used lanthanides and next from transition metals.

4. Persistent Luminescence

Persistent luminescence, also called afterglow, is the phenomenon whereby luminescence can last for a certain period of time, from seconds to many hours, after stopping the excitation. The luminescence mechanism is similar to that for thermoluminescence. In fact, persistent luminescence can be considered as thermoluminescence at room temperature.

5. Band Gap Engineering

Afterglow is the property of interest in persistent luminescent phosphors. In the development of new phosphors, one will try to improve the luminescent intensity and extend the duration. However, in a scintillator material, this property is responsible for degradation of the scintillation performance.

6. Tunneling

In the simple model of thermoluminescence, it is assumed that the recombination pathway of the electron goes via the conduction band. However, an alternative pathway is a localized transition where the electron recombines with a nearby hole center via quantum tunnelling.

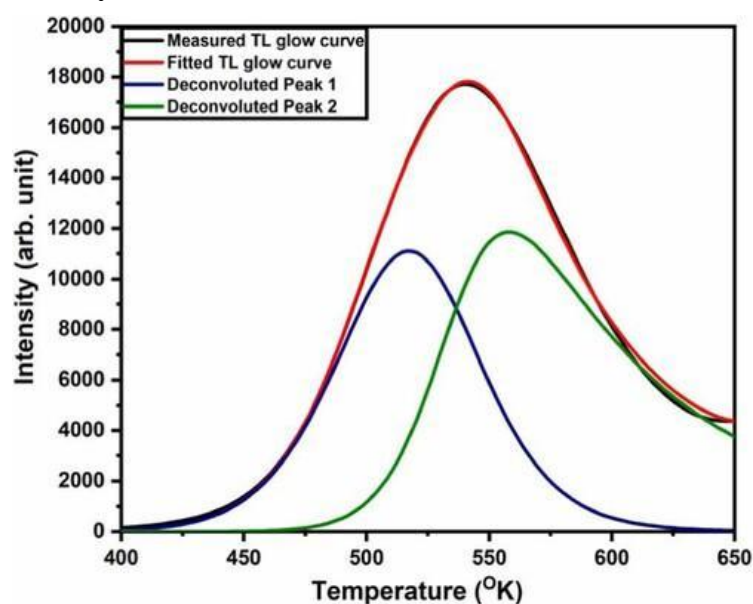
7. Thermal Quenching

In many phosphors, the luminescent properties depend on the temperature. At a higher temperature, the luminescence can be quenched. For LED phosphors, for example, the thermal quenching temperature of the luminescence is a crucial parameter. Study of the thermal quenching will usually be performed by measuring the photoluminescence as a function of the temperature.

8. Photosynthesis

Thermally stimulated luminescence can also be observed from biological material. Arnhold and Sherwood were the first who described TL in chloroplasts. The original discovery of TL in chloroplasts later proved to be a phenomenon common to all photosynthetic organisms. Following the initial observations, considerable effort has been devoted to the identification and characterization of photosynthetic TL components. Nowadays, TL is applied as a research tool to study photosynthetic electron transport under various physiological conditions.

Glow Curve and its Analysis



Energy Band Theory

In solids, electrons occupy energy bands:

- Valence Band
- Conduction Band
- Forbidden Energy Gap

Defects or impurities introduce localized energy levels called traps.

Important Characteristics

- Peaks correspond to different trap depths
- Peak position - related to activation energy
- Peak height - proportional to radiation dose

Thermoluminescent Materials



Common Thermoluminescence materials includes:

1. Inorganic Phosphors

- Lithium Fluoride (LiF)
- Calcium Sulphate (CaSO_2)
- Aluminum Oxide (Al_2O_3)

2. Doped Materials

- Dopants create trapping centers
- Example: Mg, Dy, Mn

3. Properties of Good Thermoluminescence Materials:

- High sensitivity
- Stable traps
- Reproducibility
- Linear dose response

A Thermoluminescence Reader measures emitted light

Components:

- Heating system (furnace)
- Photomultiplier tube (PMT)

- Optical filters
- Data acquisition system

Working

- Sample is heated at controlled rate
- Light emitted is detected and amplified
- Signal converted into electrical output

Factors Affecting Thermoluminescence

- Heating rate
- Radiation dose
- Trap depth
- Material purity
- Environmental conditions

Applications of Thermoluminescence

A. Radiation Dosimetry

- Used in hospitals and nuclear industries.
- Measures exposure to ionizing radiation.

B. Geological Applications

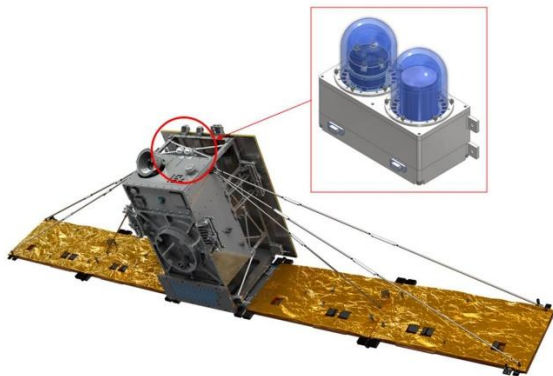
- Dating of sediments and minerals
- Study of earth's history

C. Medical Applications

- Radiation therapy dose measurement
- Cancer treatment monitoring

D. Space and Environmental Monitoring

- Measurement of cosmic radiation
- Environmental radiation monitoring



Advantages and Limitations

Advantages:

- High sensitivity
- Wide dose range
- Reusable materials

Limitations:

- Fading of signal
- Complex analysis
- Temperature dependence

Conclusion

Thermoluminescence is a powerful and versatile phenomenon widely used in physics, medicine, archaeology, and environmental science. Its ability to measure radiation exposure and date ancient materials makes it an essential tool in both scientific research and practical applications. Thermally stimulated luminescence is a well-known phenomenon that has been studied for a long time. The measurement of the luminescence is purely optical, showing a high sensitivity, and is applicable to both crystalline and non-crystalline material. The first commercially available thermoluminescence readers were developed for dosimetry and dating purposes. Nowadays, available readers are also suited for research on luminescent materials and are equipped with different detectors, optical filters, and excitation sources.

However, In the field of luminescence spectroscopy, a wealth of data has been published during the last seventy years. Extensive investigation of all those data has revealed all sorts of trends in energy levels which can be described in semi-empirical models. TL has proven to be the experimental technique for testing those models. Applied in combination with other spectroscopic methods like optical absorption emission and excitation spectroscopy, it is highly effective in sensing changes in energy level positions which are crucial for so many luminescent properties.

References

1. Bos, A. J. J. (2017). Thermoluminescence as a research tool to investigate luminescence mechanisms. *Materials*, 10(12), Article 1357.
2. Chen, R., & McKeever, S. W. S. (1997). *Theory of thermoluminescence and related phenomena*. World Scientific.
3. Horowitz, Y. S. (Ed.). (1984). *Thermoluminescence and thermoluminescent dosimetry* (Vols. 1–3). CRC Press.
4. McKeever, S. W. S. (1985). *Thermoluminescence of solids*. Cambridge University Press.
5. McKeever, S. W. S., Moscovitch, M., & Townsend, P. D. (1995). *Thermoluminescence dosimetry materials: Properties and uses*. Nuclear Technology Publishing.

BLOCKCHAIN ECOSYSTEMS: AN OVERVIEW OF TYPES AND EMERGING APPLICATIONS

Snehanshu Ayer¹ and Puneet Kalsi²

¹Karnavati University, Uvarsad, Gujarat

²GNA University, Phagwara, Punjab

Abstract

The blockchain ecosystem comprises interconnected participants, technologies, and governance mechanisms that collaboratively enable secure, transparent, and decentralized digital transactions. It provides a structured environment where stakeholders interact based on predefined governance frameworks, including participant roles, funding mechanisms, data ownership, and entry and exit criteria. Such governance ensures trust, accountability, and efficient information sharing among participants while supporting diverse business use cases. Blockchain ecosystems facilitate innovation by enhancing security, transparency, scalability, and operational efficiency across industries. With increasing adoption in finance, healthcare, supply chains, and public services, blockchain ecosystems have emerged as a transformative foundation for digital collaboration, enterprise integration, and sustainable technological advancement.

Keywords: Blockchain Ecosystem, Governance, Decentralization, Data Ownership, Digital Transactions, Enterprise Applications.

Introduction

From time immemorial, every human being, whether at an individual level or at a commercial enterprise level, has been fighting a never-ending battle to secure its financial assets. The degree of success of the protection of financial assets has varied but in general with the advent of blockchain technology the degree of financial security has significantly increased. Blockchain is a digital ledger in the form of a database that is distributed across several computers that are connected to each other in the form of a network. Blockchain allows for the creation of a public ledger of all transactions or activities that take place on the network in the form of a spreadsheet. The information in the spreadsheet is combined in a bundle known as a block, which is what makes up the name blockchain. The blockchain ledger is said to be a decentralized system, which means it is not controlled by a single body. It is made up of a network of computers that make copies of the ledger and make it accessible to the public using the internet. The information in the blockchain ledger cannot be changed or edited, which makes the system very secure and can be used to facilitate secure financial transactions.

The blockchain ecosystem is the network of all the participants in the blockchain network that shares the business process and business objectives. The blockchain ecosystem contains various types of governing structures such as individual participation, Data ownership, exit and entrance criteria. Information and data shared with the system's participants.

Blockchain can bring immutability, decentralization, operational flexibility, and scalability to enterprise operations. The blockchain ecosystem provides a powerful platform for startups and emerging technologies to interact and create linkages among themselves [1].

1. Types of Blockchain Ecosystem

There are three different types of blockchain ecosystems namely Single party led blockchain ecosystem, Joint venture blockchain ecosystem and Regulatory blockchain ecosystem and are discussed in detail in this section.

1.1 Single Party Led Blockchain Ecosystem

The single party led blockchain ecosystem functions as a blockchain system which one organization controls while multiple users access the system as shown in Fig. 1. The system operates through centralized control because it uses private and permissioned blockchain networks, which differ from public blockchains that allow complete user access. The leading organization establishes system rules while deciding who can access the system and who can validate transactions and who can maintain all system functions.



Figure 1: The single party led blockchain ecosystem

The single party led blockchain ecosystem functions as a blockchain system which one organization controls while multiple users access the system. The system operates through centralized control because it uses private and permissioned blockchain networks, which differ from public blockchains that allow complete user access. The leading organization establishes system rules while deciding who can access the system and who can validate transactions and who can maintain all system functions [2].

The ecosystem allows different participants, who include suppliers and distributors and customers, to use blockchain technology according to rules set by the central authority. The system maintains centralized control through blockchain technology, which provides transparent operations and enables users to track information while protecting data. The shared ledger system records all transactions, which authorized users can access to establish trust with each other. Bumble Bee Foods serves as a notable case study because it adopted a blockchain system to control its yellowfin tuna supply chain. The company functions as the central authority in this system, while the network includes participation from fishermen and suppliers and distributors

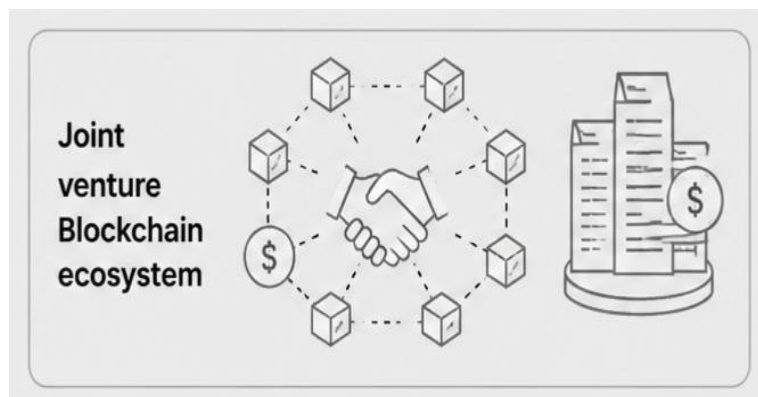
and retailers. The blockchain system tracks every stage of the tuna supply chain, starting from fish catching to final delivery to customers.

The system provides better traceability, which enables buyers to check essential information about the fish, including its capture location, processing details, and compliance with quality requirements. The consumers now possess greater confidence regarding the product's freshness and authenticity. The businesses experience advantages through enhanced supply chain control and diminished fraud cases and better operational performance.

The system functions as a centralized system because one organization retains total operational control over the entire system. The system requires users to rely on the central authority while they need to maintain trust in that organization. Industries that prioritize control and privacy and efficiency continue to use single party led blockchain ecosystems despite their limitation [3].

1.2 Joint Venture Blockchain Ecosystem

The term joint venture blockchain ecosystem describes a blockchain system in which two or more organizations build and operate together to achieve a specific goal. The participating organizations in this ecosystem combine their resources and technology and expertise to achieve their mutual objectives while they distribute the project tasks and advantages. The joint venture blockchain ecosystem is shown in Fig. 2



Figuree 2: Joint venture blockchain ecosystem

The joint venture blockchain ecosystem differs from a single party led blockchain system because it enables multiple partners to share control of the network instead of giving one organization all control rights. The organizations take part in decision-making activities while they handle transaction verification and system upkeep. Participants trust each other more because shared governance prevents any individual from having total control of the system.

The joint venture blockchain ecosystem aims to resolve industry problems which include transparency issues and operational inefficiencies and fraudulent activities, and data discrepancies [4]. The organizations achieve better outcomes for everyone involved by creating a system which works better and establishes confidence between different stakeholders. Blockchain technology creates an unchangeable system which maintains transaction records in a safe way while providing transparent access to all users who want to verify the system.

Controlled access functions as the main access component for this ecosystem. The network provides enhanced security and privacy protection because only authorized participants have permission to access network functions. All members can access shared data which helps improve coordination between members while notification to all parties prevents conflicts from arising. The Bunker Trace joint venture blockchain ecosystem demonstrates how Forecast Technology Ltd and Blockchain Labs for Open Collaboration (BLOC) work together to create their blockchain system. The system tracks marine fuel throughout the supply chain to ensure transparent operations while maintaining compliance with regulations and validating product quality.

Joint venture blockchain ecosystems operate in multiple sectors because they enable organizations to work together between supply chain management and banking and logistics and healthcare [5].

1.3 Regulatory Blockchain Ecosystem

A regulatory blockchain ecosystem functions as a blockchain system which unites governmental bodies and regulatory bodies together with businesses to achieve compliance with applicable laws and established standards. The ecosystem utilizes blockchain technology for monitoring and documenting as well as validating operations through a system of transparent and secure processes. Every participating entity must submit its information through blockchain technology to enable regulators to perform their verification duties. The regulatory blockchain ecosystem is shown in Fig. 3.



Figure 3: Regulatory blockchain ecosystem

The ecosystem serves to strengthen compliance systems and establish organizational trust while building relationships with regulatory authorities. The conventional methods of regulatory compliance require operational staff to complete manual documentation and physical document processing, which results in increased possibilities for regulatory compliance violations. The system achieves record security through its utilization of blockchain, which creates a distributed ledger system that stores all information as permanent records. The system ensures that participants will maintain their required compliance with regulations through all circumstances [6].

Multiple stakeholders, including companies and auditors and government agencies, collaborate within a regulatory blockchain ecosystem to achieve their shared objectives. Organizations present their data to regulators, which includes their production data and environmental reports and transaction records, while regulators conduct real-time data monitoring and verification. The system enhances transparency while simultaneously decreasing the risk of compliance violations. The collaboration between Marine Transport International and The Recycling Association serves as a practical demonstration of this ecosystem. The project uses blockchain technology to monitor and authenticate the recycling process of various materials. All supply chain members must report their status through the blockchain network, which enables regulators to verify compliance with recycling regulations and environmental standards.

The ecosystem functions optimally in sectors such as environmental management and finance and healthcare and supply chains which require organizations to adhere to legal requirements and industry standards. The system decreases fraudulent activities through its ability to enhance reporting accuracy while making regulatory processes more efficient [7].

The comparison between all the three blockchain ecosystem types is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Comparison of Single Party, Joint Venture and Regulatory Blockchain ecosystem

Feature	Single Party Blockchain Ecosystem	Joint Venture Blockchain Ecosystem	Regulatory Blockchain Ecosystem
Defination	Managed and controlled by one organization	Managed jointly by multiple organizations working together	Involves government/regulatory bodies to ensure compliance
Control	Centralized (single authority)	Shared control among partners	Controlled/monitored by regulators and authorities
Participants	One main organization + other users	Multiple organizations (partners, businesses)	Companies, regulators, auditors, government bodies
Purpose	Improve internal efficiency and operations	Solve common problems through collaboration	Ensure compliance with laws and regulations
Transparency	Limited (controlled by one entity)	Moderate to high (shared among partners)	High (for monitoring and verification)
Trust Level	Depends on central organization	Shared trust among participants	High trust due to regulatory oversight
Access Type	Private / Permissioned	Permissioned (restricted access)	Permissioned with regulatory access

Decision Making	Done by single organization	Shared among all partners	Influenced by regulatory authorities
Example	Bumble Bee Foods tuna supply chain system	Bunker Trace project	Marine Transport International & The Recycling Association collaboration
Main Advantage	Easy to manage and fast decision-making	Collaboration and shared benefits	Strong compliance and transparency
Limitation	Less decentralization, more dependency	Requires coordination among organizations	May be complex due to regulations

References

1. Alsagheer, D., Xu, L., & Shi, W. (2023). Decentralized machine learning governance: Overview, opportunities, and challenges. *IEEE Access*, 11, 96718–96732.
2. Zhang, W., Yuan, Y., Hu, Y., Huang, S., Cao, S., Chopra, A., & Huang, S. (2018, July). A privacy-preserving voting protocol on blockchain. In *2018 IEEE 11th International Conference on Cloud Computing (CLOUD)* (pp. 401–408). IEEE.
3. Al-Breiki, H., Rehman, M. H. U., Salah, K., & Svetinovic, D. (2020). Trustworthy blockchain oracles: Review, comparison, and open research challenges. *IEEE Access*, 8, 85675–85685.
4. Vaiyapuri, T., Shankar, K., Rajendran, S., Kumar, S., Acharya, S., & Kim, H. (2023). Blockchain assisted data edge verification with consensus algorithm for machine learning assisted IoT. *IEEE Access*, 11, 55370–55379.
5. Liu, Z., Qian, P., Wang, X., Zhu, L., He, Q., & Ji, S. (2021). Smart contract vulnerability detection: From pure neural network to interpretable graph feature and expert pattern fusion. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2106.09282*.
6. Majeed, U., Khan, L. U., Yousafzai, A., Han, Z., Park, B. J., & Hong, C. S. (2021). ST-BFL: A structured transparency empowered cross-silo federated learning on the blockchain framework. *IEEE Access*, 9, 155634–155650.
7. Yang, X., Zhang, Y., Wang, S., Yu, B., Li, F., Li, Y., & Yan, W. (2020). LedgerDB: A centralized ledger database for universal audit and verification. *Proceedings of the VLDB Endowment*, 13(12), 3138–3151.

DECENTRALIZATION AND CONSENSUS MECHANISM IN BLOCKCHAIN MANAGEMENT

Gagandeep Sharma¹, Archana Devi¹ and Meenu²

¹GNA University, Phagwara, Punjab

²CTIMT, Maqsudan Campus, Jalandhar, Punjab

1. Introduction

This chapter is an in-depth analysis of the fundamental principles of decentralization and the use of consensus in blockchain technology. It discusses decentralization in such a way that the reader can understand how the use of decentralization in blockchain technology reduces the need for intermediaries and removes the possibility of single points of failure. It also discusses the different dimensions of decentralization in blockchain technology, such as architectural decentralization, political decentralization, and logical decentralization. These dimensions are used in the chapter to ensure that the reader can understand blockchain technology in a structured way. The chapter also discusses the use of consensus in blockchain technology. It is used in such a way that the reader can understand how different blockchain technologies, such as Bitcoin and Ethereum, are able to ensure the integrity of the data on the blockchain without the need for a central controlling body [1].

Let us assume a school in which all major decisions are taken only and only by the principal. The teachers and students must abide by the decisions taken by the principal. If the principal is good and efficient in his work, then this model works perfectly. But if the principal fails in his duty, then the entire school system suffers. This is an example of a centralized model in which all the authority rests in the hands of a single person. The blockchain network operates in a way similar to the group assignment. In the Bitcoin network, no single authority approves the transactions. A number of computers agree upon a transaction before approving it. This agreement among different computers is known as Consensus.

2. What is Decentralization?

In conventional digital and financial infrastructures, it is common that control is vested with a single entity that oversees operations, data management, and major decision-making processes. Banks are responsible for managing financial transactions, governments control public data, and companies maintain centralized data infrastructures. Although conventional digital and financial infrastructures may be efficient, it is crucial to note that they demand that users or entities operate with absolute trust with respect to a single entity or controller. If the entity fails or becomes compromised, it may interfere with operations.

Such an observation underscores the limitations of conventional digital and financial infrastructures and necessitates the development of an alternative control paradigm, which is known as Decentralization.

In simple words, Decentralization is a system design paradigm that is characterized by control, authority, and data being spread or shared among multiple entities or participants, as opposed to conventional infrastructures that are controlled by a single entity or controller as shown in Fig. 1. In a decentralized system, control is shared among entities or participants, with decision-making processes being collective and guided by established rules or protocols. In contrast, the centralized model, a single entity is responsible for the collection, storage, management, and provision of the data. All the other entities will rely on the single entity for access, permission, and governance of the data, leading to the associated risks such as the misuse of the data, lack of transparency, data breaches, and imbalance of power [2].

For example, an individual may be considered the personal data source, while an organization may be considered the data collector.

However, the organization would not be considered the owner of personal data. Similarly, the role of the data broker would be to provide secure sharing, while corporations, SMEs, and NGOs would be considered providing access for research, innovation, or service development.

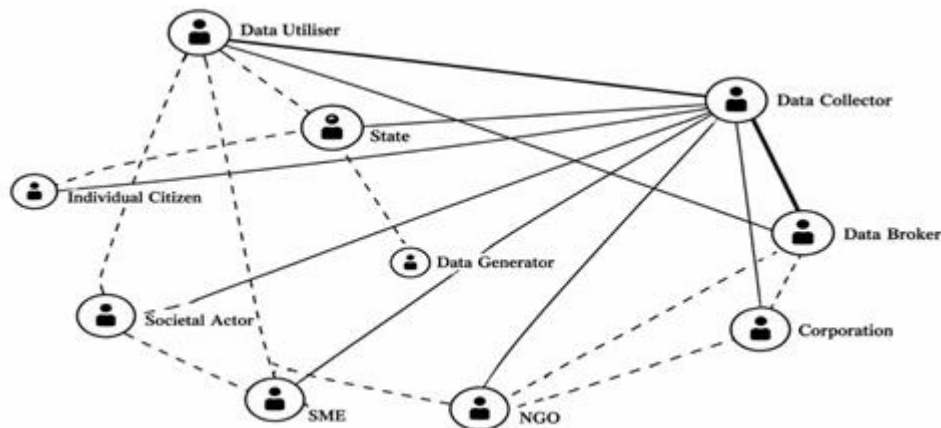


Figure 1: Decentralization

The above model ensures that personal data ownership is held by the individual and allows multiple stakeholders to validate personal data collectively. The model does not allow any single party to be in control of the entire network and creates a trust through transparency.

Decentralization increases the level of accountability, minimizes the possibilities of monopolization, and ensures the use of data in a fair manner. This is because, through decentralization, power and control are distributed among the actors, making the system more robust, transparent, and democratic. Therefore, the above network diagram illustrates a decentralized data system in which power, access, and control are shared among the connected actors, unlike in the centralized system where power is held by one entity.

3. Characteristics of Decentralized System

There are several characteristics of a decentralized system as described below.

Firstly, there is no single controlling entity in a decentralized system. This means that there is no single person or entity that has the power to accept or reject any transactions that take place in the system.

Secondly, there is a distribution of data in a decentralized system. This means that there are multiple nodes in the system, and each node has a copy of the ledger. Since there are multiple nodes that store data, the data becomes more secure [3].

Thirdly, there is equality in a decentralized system. This means that any node in the decentralized system has the right to verify any transactions that take place in the system.

Finally, there is no single point of failure in a decentralized system. This means that when one node in the system goes down, the system will not shut down completely.

To understand what decentralization means, it can be compared with a banking system. In a centralized banking system, there is a central body that manages all transactions. The central body could be the Reserve Bank or any other bank. In such a system, one must trust the bank with their money. All the transactions are carried out by the bank itself. In such a system, there is only one central body that validates all transactions. In the case of the Bitcoin network, it can be noted that it is a decentralized system. In such a system, there is no central body that validates any transaction. Instead, all the nodes that relate to each other validate any transaction.[3]

4. Types of Decentralization

Decentralization is not a one-dimensional concept. In the context of blockchain networks, decentralization may be viewed from different angles depending on the distribution of power, structure, and processes as shown in Fig. 2. To understand the working of blockchain networks in a comprehensive way, the three types of decentralization are briefly discussed: Architectural decentralization, Political decentralization, and Logical decentralization.

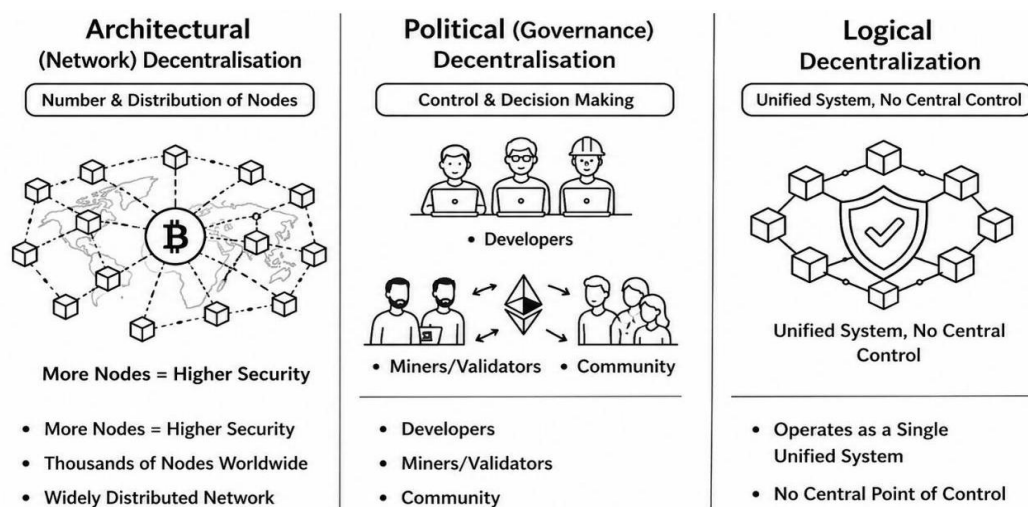


Figure 2: Types of Decentralization

4.1 Architectural Decentralization

Architectural decentralization, as the name suggests, is related to the physical structure of the system. It describes how many computers are involved in running the network. Architectural decentralization is said to exist in a system if it runs multiple independent computers instead of a single server. In traditional systems, all operations are handled by a single main server. Suppose, for example, that the server crashes, is hacked, or fails for any other reason. As a result, the entire system comes to a standstill. This phenomenon is called a single point of failure, where failure of one component of the system affects the entire system.

However, in the blockchain network, the data is replicated over thousands of computers worldwide. Each computer, called a node, contains the entire copy of the ledger. Each node validates the transactions. Even if the nodes fail or are down, the entire system will continue to run. This is because the data is replicated over many machines. This makes the system more robust, reliable, and faulty tolerant. For instance, the Bitcoin network is made up of a globally distributed network of nodes. There is no single server that maintains a copy of the transaction data. Rather, all the nodes maintain a copy of the blockchain. Even if multiple nodes are compromised, it is still possible for the network to operate because of other nodes that maintain the integrity of the system. Architectural decentralization makes it more secure by reducing the chances of attacks and system failure. It is impossible for any single physical location or server to control or stop the network. This is part of the fundamental base of blockchain technology [4].

4.2 Political Decentralization

Political decentralization refers to the distribution of decision-making power within a blockchain network. It answers the question: Who controls the blockchain? In centralized institutions such as banks and companies, there is only one person who makes decisions, but for a blockchain network under political decentralization, there is more than one controller.

Political decentralization in blockchains is defined as the distribution of decision-making powers among different actors in a blockchain network as opposed to concentrating such powers in one person or entity. This form of decentralization is concerned with governance issues such as determining who has the right to suggest changes, approve changes, and dictate the direction of a blockchain protocol in the future. In a traditional centralized entity like a corporation or a bank, decisions are made by a single entity or a small group of people known as the board of directors or governors. However, in a politically decentralized blockchain, different stakeholders such as developers and validators/miners are involved in making decisions regarding the protocol.

In a politically decentralized blockchain network, it is not possible for a single entity or person to introduce changes to the protocol without considering all stakeholders. This is because such changes are discussed and debated openly before a majority consensus is reached on whether or not to introduce them into the protocol. For instance, in Ethereum, changes are introduced

through Ethereum Improvement Proposals, which are discussed openly before they are implemented. Another example is Bitcoin. Although developers may suggest changes to the Bitcoin protocol, those changes are only adopted if miners and node operators agree to run the updated software. If there is disagreement, the network may split into two separate chains (a situation known as a fork), which shows that no single group has absolute authority.

Political decentralization promotes trust in the system because no party can take advantage of the system for self-gain. It promotes fairness in the system, minimizes censorship, and prevents monopoly. Despite its benefits, there is the disadvantage of slowing down the process of decision-making because it takes a long time to reach a consensus with many stakeholders. In conclusion, political decentralization improves the democracy of the blockchain system of governance [5].

4.3 Logical Decentralization

Logical decentralization refers to how the blockchain system behaves as a whole, regardless of how many participants maintain it. It answers the question: Does the system function as one unified system or multiple separate systems?

Political decentralization promotes trust in the system because no party can take advantage of the system for self-gain. It promotes fairness in the system, minimizes censorship, and prevents monopoly. Despite its benefits, there is the disadvantage of slowing down the process of decision-making because it takes a long time to reach a consensus with many stakeholders. In conclusion, political decentralization improves the democracy of the blockchain system of governance.

In a logically decentralized blockchain network, all nodes use the same protocol and consensus algorithm. This way, all participants are able to agree on a single transaction history. There is no single server controlling the network. Instead, there is one single version of truth maintained across the network. For example, the Bitcoin network is one single ledger. Although it is maintained across many different servers, it is one single chain of transactions representing the overall transaction history of the network [6,7].

Logical decentralization is important for ensuring consistency, integrity, and reliability of data. It is what prevents the blockchain network from becoming decentralized into different versions of the same network. Without logical decentralization, the blockchain network would not remain reliable and trustworthy. Thus, political decentralization is one concept, and logical decentralization is equally important for blockchain network functioning. A comparison of Architectural, Political and Logical Decentralization is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Comparative difference between architectural, political and logical decentralization

Basis of comparison	Architectural Decentralization	Political Decentralization	Logical Decentralization
Meaning	Distribution of network nodes(computers) across the system	Distribution of decision-making power among participants	How the blockchain behaves as a unified system
Focus	Network structure	Governance and control	System functioning
Concerned with	Physical infrastructure	Authority and rule making	Operational structure
Example	Bitcoin has thousands of nodes worldwide	Ethereum upgrades require community agreement	Bitcoin works as one global shared ledger

5. Types of Consensus Mechanisms

There are various types of consensus mechanisms that are used in a blockchain network to ensure that all nodes in a network agree. Each consensus mechanism works in a different way and Proof of Work (PoW) and Power of Stake (PoS) are discussed in this section.

5.1 PoW (Proof of Work)

How do decentralized systems ensure trust without a central authority? This is where Proof of Work (PoW) comes into play as shown in Fig.3. Proof of Work is one of the most fundamental consensus protocols utilized in blockchain technology. Proof of Work ensures that there is considerable computation involved when verifying transactions to guarantee that the blockchain system is safe from any attacks or corruption without the need for a centralized authority [8].



Figure 3: Proof of Work mechanism

Proof-of-Work (PoW) is one of the oldest and most common consensus models in the blockchain environment, particularly for cryptocurrencies such as Bitcoin. PoW makes sure that the blockchain network operates efficiently and effectively without any threats to its security and integrity.

5.2 POS (Power of Stake)

Proof of Stake (PoS) is a consensus model employed in blockchain technology whereby validators get picked according to the quantity of cryptocurrency they have and stake.

Under this kind of consensus model, validators get selected depending on how much cryptocurrency they have in the blockchain. Unlike the PoW, this consensus model does not involve complicated computational riddles. Rather, it involves a process whereby validators get chosen depending on the number of cryptocurrencies they have; hence, the higher the quantity, the better chances of becoming validators in order to validate a new transaction block into the blockchain. It is cheap and consumes less energy [9,10].

Table 2: Comparison between PoW and PoS

Aspects	PoW	PoS
Validation Method	Miners solve complex puzzles to add new blocks to the blockchain.	Validators create blocks and validate transactions based on the cryptocurrency stakes.
Energy Consumption	Requires significant computational power, leading to higher power consumption.	Much more energy efficient since it doesn't require solving complex puzzles.
Scalability	Faces scalability issues due to time consuming puzzle solving process.	Offers higher scalability as transactions can be processed more quickly.
Security	Known for high security due to the difficulty of manipulating the blockchain.	Provides moderate security, with a potential risk of concentration.
Decentralization	Highly decentralized, as anyone with the required hardware can participate.	Moderately decentralized, with a risk of centralized by large validators.

Conclusion

The key feature of the blockchain technology is decentralization, which implies that there is no central body in charge of the blockchain technology and the transactions made via it. In other words, there is no centralized control; the information is secure and tamper-proof, and everyone can see and use it. Besides, decentralization gives equal power and rights to all parties involved in the process and makes them trust each other and the system itself because any failure is unlikely due to this feature.

To make sure that all the users of the blockchain network agree with one another, the consensus mechanism should be applied. For example, it can be Proof of Work, Proof of Stake, Delegated Proof of Stake, or something similar. There are lots of different options available for use depending on what is valued more in this situation. In some cases, safety and trust matter most. In others, efficiency and sustainability matter more.

Thus, it can be stated that decentralization and consensus are two key features that form the basis for blockchain technologies. Moreover, choosing one method of achieving consensus is critical for a particular blockchain technology.

References

1. Bouraga, S. (2021). A taxonomy of blockchain consensus protocols: A survey and classification framework. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 168, 114384.
2. Ma, G., Zeng, Z., Bhuyan, M., Qi, S., & Liu, Y. (2026). DCMF-BFL: A decentralized consensus multi-factor approach for blockchain-based federated learning. *Journal of Parallel and Distributed Computing*, 105305.
3. Mahjoub, S., & Abbad, H. (2025). An intelligent fair and decentralized consensus mechanism for blockchain-based supply chain. *IFAC-PapersOnLine*, 59(10), 244–249.
4. Li, T., Sahu, A. K., Zaheer, M., Sanjabi, M., Talwalkar, A., & Smith, V. (2020). Federated optimization in heterogeneous networks. *Proceedings of Machine Learning and Systems*, 2, 429–450.
5. Ali, A., Ilahi, I., Qayyum, A., Mohammed, I., Al-Fuqaha, A., & Qadir, J. (2023). A systematic review of federated learning incentive mechanisms and associated security challenges. *Computer Science Review*, 50, 100593.
6. Wu, X., He, Y., Wang, T., & Cao, B. (2026). Securing decentralized federated learning: An integrated approach with blockchain, TEE, and internal attack detection. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 322, 132322.
7. Wang, W., Hoang, D. T., Hu, P., Xiong, Z., Niyato, D., Wang, P., ... & Kim, D. I. (2019). A survey on consensus mechanisms and mining strategy management in blockchain networks. *IEEE Access*, 7, 22328–22370.
8. Md Shafin, K., & Reno, S. (2024). Breaking the blockchain trilemma: A comprehensive consensus mechanism for ensuring security, scalability, and decentralization. *IET Software*, 2024(1), 6874055.
9. Lashkari, B., & Musilek, P. (2021). A comprehensive review of blockchain consensus mechanisms. *IEEE Access*, 9, 43620–43652.
10. Panda, S. S., Mohanta, B. K., Satapathy, U., Jena, D., Gountia, D., & Patra, T. K. (2019, October). Study of blockchain based decentralized consensus algorithms. In *TENCON 2019–2019 IEEE Region 10 Conference (TENCON)* (pp. 908–913). IEEE.

PLASMA-BASED ENVIRONMENTAL TECHNOLOGIES

Barjinder Kaur* and Shahnaz Kossar

School of Natural Sciences, GNA University, Phagwara

*Corresponding author E-mail: kaurbarjinder1@gmail.com

Abstract

Plasma-based environmental technologies have emerged as promising solutions for addressing global environmental challenges through efficient, sustainable, and eco-friendly processes. This chapter presents a comprehensive overview of plasma fundamentals and their applications in air pollution control, water and wastewater treatment, soil remediation, waste management, carbon capture, and environmental sterilization. It highlights the role of plasma in municipal solid waste treatment, plasma gasification, hydrogen production, green chemical synthesis, and industrial pollution control. The chapter also discusses emerging innovations, including plasma–catalyst hybrid systems, plasma-assisted photocatalysis, nanotechnology, artificial intelligence, digital twin technologies, and smart environmental monitoring for enhanced process efficiency. The advantages of plasma technology, such as chemical-free treatment, rapid pollutant degradation, and low secondary pollution, are examined alongside challenges related to energy consumption, reactor design, scale-up, and commercialization. Finally, the chapter emphasizes the contribution of plasma technologies to environmental sustainability, resource recovery, and the circular economy, while outlining future research directions and their potential for large-scale global adoption in achieving cleaner and more sustainable industrial and environmental practices.

1. Introduction

The twenty-first century has witnessed unprecedented industrialization, urbanization, and population growth, resulting in significant environmental challenges across the globe. Air pollution, water contamination, soil degradation, hazardous waste generation, and greenhouse gas emissions have adversely affected ecosystems, biodiversity, and human health. Conventional pollution control technologies, although effective in many applications, often require high energy consumption, large quantities of chemicals, and complex waste disposal processes. Moreover, the emergence of persistent organic pollutants, pharmaceutical residues, microplastics, and antibiotic-resistant microorganisms has created new environmental concerns that demand innovative and sustainable treatment approaches.

Plasma-based environmental technologies have emerged as a promising solution for addressing these challenges. Plasma, commonly referred to as the fourth state of matter, contains energetic electrons, ions, radicals, excited atoms, and ultraviolet radiation capable of initiating powerful physical and chemical reactions. These reactive species efficiently degrade pollutants, destroy harmful microorganisms, and convert toxic compounds into less hazardous substances with

minimal chemical additives. Non-thermal (cold) plasma, in particular, has attracted considerable attention because it operates near room temperature, making it suitable for treating heat-sensitive materials while maintaining high treatment efficiency.

Compared with conventional methods, plasma technologies offer rapid processing, high pollutant removal efficiency, reduced secondary pollution, lower chemical consumption, and compatibility with renewable energy sources. Consequently, plasma-based systems are increasingly being explored for applications in air purification, wastewater treatment, waste management, greenhouse gas conversion, and environmental remediation, contributing significantly to sustainable development and cleaner technologies for the future.

2. Fundamentals of Plasma for Environmental Applications

Plasma is known as the fourth state of matter, formed when sufficient energy is supplied to a gas, causing it to become ionized. It consists of a complex mixture of free electrons, positive and negative ions, neutral atoms and molecules, excited species, radicals, and ultraviolet (UV) photons. Due to its unique physical and chemical properties, plasma can initiate highly efficient oxidation, reduction, and sterilization processes, making it an attractive technology for environmental applications.

Environmental plasma technologies are generally classified into thermal plasma and non-thermal (cold) plasma. In thermal plasma, electrons and heavy particles are in thermal equilibrium and possess nearly the same high temperature, typically ranging from several thousand to over 10,000 K. Thermal plasma is widely used in waste gasification, hazardous waste destruction, and material processing because of its ability to decompose complex compounds. In contrast, non-thermal (cold) plasma operates under non-equilibrium conditions, where electrons are highly energetic while the bulk gas remains near room temperature. This characteristic enables efficient pollutant degradation and microbial inactivation without damaging heat-sensitive materials, making it ideal for air purification, wastewater treatment, and surface sterilization.

Several plasma generation techniques are employed in environmental engineering. Dielectric Barrier Discharge (DBD) produces uniform plasma at atmospheric pressure and is extensively used for ozone generation and air treatment. Corona discharge generates plasma around high-voltage electrodes and is effective for removing gaseous pollutants. Gliding arc discharge combines the advantages of thermal and non-thermal plasmas, providing high chemical reactivity with relatively low energy consumption. Atmospheric-pressure plasma jets produce localized plasma streams suitable for water treatment, sterilization, and environmental remediation.

The effectiveness of plasma arises from the formation of highly reactive species, including Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) such as hydroxyl radicals ($\bullet\text{OH}$), atomic oxygen (O), ozone (O_3), and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), as well as Reactive Nitrogen Species (RNS) such as nitric oxide (NO) and nitrogen dioxide (NO_2). In addition, energetic electrons, ions, metastable species,

and ultraviolet radiation contribute to pollutant decomposition, oxidation, and microbial inactivation. These reactive components enable plasma-based systems to efficiently degrade contaminants while minimizing the use of hazardous chemicals, making plasma a sustainable technology for environmental protection.

3. Plasma-Based Air Pollution Control

Air pollution is one of the most critical environmental challenges of the twenty-first century. Rapid industrialization, urbanization, increasing energy demand, and the widespread use of fossil fuels have significantly increased the concentration of harmful pollutants in the atmosphere. Major air pollutants include volatile organic compounds (VOCs), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), sulfur dioxide (SO_2), carbon monoxide (CO), particulate matter (PM), and greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide (CO_2) and methane (CH_4). These pollutants contribute to climate change, acid rain, ozone depletion, poor air quality, and severe health problems including respiratory and cardiovascular diseases. Conventional air pollution control methods, although effective, often require high operating temperatures, chemical reagents, and expensive maintenance. Plasma-based technologies have emerged as an efficient, eco-friendly, and energy-efficient alternative for controlling gaseous pollutants.

Plasma-based air pollution control relies on the generation of highly reactive species such as hydroxyl radicals ($\bullet\text{OH}$), atomic oxygen (O), ozone (O_3), and reactive nitrogen species. These species oxidize and decompose harmful pollutants into simpler and less toxic compounds. One of the major applications of plasma technology is the removal of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) emitted from chemical industries, paints, petroleum refineries, printing facilities, and solvent-based manufacturing. Plasma oxidation effectively converts VOCs such as benzene, toluene, xylene, and formaldehyde into carbon dioxide and water, reducing their harmful effects on human health and the environment.

Another important application is the treatment of nitrogen oxides (NO_x), which are major contributors to photochemical smog and acid rain. Plasma reactors oxidize nitric oxide (NO) into nitrogen dioxide (NO_2), which can subsequently be removed using catalytic reduction or absorption techniques. Similarly, plasma technology effectively removes sulfur dioxide (SO_2) generated from coal-fired power plants and industrial combustion processes. The reactive oxygen species produced in plasma convert SO_2 into sulfate compounds that can be easily collected, thereby reducing acid rain and improving atmospheric quality.

Plasma technology is also highly effective in the oxidation of carbon monoxide (CO), a toxic gas produced during incomplete combustion. Reactive oxygen species generated in plasma rapidly oxidize carbon monoxide into the less harmful carbon dioxide. Furthermore, plasma systems have gained considerable attention for the conversion of greenhouse gases, particularly carbon dioxide and methane, into value-added chemicals such as synthesis gas, hydrogen, methanol, and

other useful fuels. This approach not only reduces greenhouse gas emissions but also contributes to carbon recycling and sustainable energy production.

In addition to pollutant removal, plasma technology is widely used for odor control in wastewater treatment plants, food processing industries, chemical manufacturing units, and waste management facilities. Offensive gases such as hydrogen sulfide, ammonia, and mercaptans are effectively decomposed into harmless products through plasma-induced oxidation reactions. Plasma air purification systems are also increasingly employed in hospitals, offices, educational institutions, residential buildings, and public transportation to improve indoor air quality. These systems efficiently eliminate airborne microorganisms, allergens, volatile organic compounds, smoke, and unpleasant odors without producing significant secondary pollution.

Overall, plasma-based air pollution control represents a sustainable and advanced technology capable of treating a wide range of atmospheric pollutants. Its ability to operate under atmospheric conditions, rapid reaction rates, minimal chemical consumption, and compatibility with renewable electricity make it a promising solution for future environmental protection. As research continues to improve reactor design, catalyst integration, and energy efficiency, plasma technology is expected to play a vital role in achieving cleaner air, reducing industrial emissions, and supporting global efforts toward environmental sustainability.

4. Plasma Technologies for Water and Wastewater Treatment

Water pollution has become a major global concern due to rapid industrialization, urbanization, agricultural activities, and the discharge of untreated domestic and industrial wastewater. Contaminants such as organic compounds, pharmaceutical residues, pesticides, dyes, heavy metals, and pathogenic microorganisms pose serious risks to human health and aquatic ecosystems. Conventional water treatment methods often fail to completely remove these emerging pollutants, highlighting the need for advanced and sustainable purification technologies.

Plasma-assisted water treatment has emerged as an effective and environmentally friendly solution for water purification. Non-thermal plasma generates highly reactive oxygen species (ROS), reactive nitrogen species (RNS), ultraviolet (UV) radiation, and energetic electrons that oxidize and decompose contaminants without requiring large amounts of chemicals. These reactive species efficiently degrade organic pollutants into harmless products such as carbon dioxide and water. Plasma technology is also highly effective in degrading pharmaceutical contaminants, including antibiotics and endocrine-disrupting compounds, which are difficult to remove by conventional treatment processes.

In addition, plasma systems successfully eliminate pesticides, textile dyes, and other persistent organic pollutants from wastewater. Plasma treatment can also reduce the toxicity and mobility

of certain heavy metals through oxidation, reduction, or precipitation processes. Another important application is microbial disinfection, where bacteria, viruses, fungi, and protozoa are rapidly inactivated by reactive species and UV radiation. Furthermore, Plasma-Activated Water (PAW), enriched with reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, has gained significant attention for applications in agriculture, food safety, and medical disinfection. Overall, plasma technology offers a sustainable, chemical-free, and highly efficient approach for ensuring safe water and wastewater treatment.

5. Plasma for Soil Remediation

Soil contamination is a growing environmental problem caused by rapid industrialization, mining activities, excessive use of pesticides and fertilizers, accidental oil spills, improper disposal of hazardous waste, and urban development. Contaminated soils often contain persistent organic pollutants (POPs), petroleum hydrocarbons, pesticides, herbicides, heavy metals, and other toxic substances that threaten agricultural productivity, groundwater quality, ecosystem health, and human well-being. Conventional soil remediation techniques are often expensive, time-consuming, and may generate secondary pollutants.

Plasma technology has emerged as an innovative and environmentally friendly approach for soil remediation. Non-thermal plasma generates highly reactive oxygen and nitrogen species that oxidize and decompose persistent organic pollutants into simpler and less toxic compounds. It is particularly effective in treating petroleum-contaminated soils by breaking down hydrocarbons present in crude oil, diesel, and other petroleum products. Plasma treatment also degrades residual pesticides and herbicides, reducing their persistence and toxicity in agricultural soils.

In addition to organic contaminants, plasma technology can assist in the stabilization and immobilization of heavy metals such as lead, cadmium, chromium, and arsenic. By altering the chemical form of these metals, plasma reduces their mobility and bioavailability, thereby minimizing environmental risks. The major benefits of plasma-based soil remediation include rapid treatment, minimal chemical usage, reduced secondary pollution, and high degradation efficiency. However, challenges such as high energy consumption, limited treatment depth, reactor design complexity, and the need for large-scale field applications remain. Continued research is expected to improve the efficiency, cost-effectiveness, and commercial adoption of plasma technology for sustainable soil restoration.

6. Plasma-Assisted Waste Management

The rapid growth of population, industrialization, and urbanization has led to a significant increase in the generation of municipal, industrial, biomedical, and electronic waste. Improper disposal of these wastes causes serious environmental pollution, groundwater contamination, greenhouse gas emissions, and public health hazards. Conventional waste treatment methods, such as landfilling and incineration, often produce toxic by-products and require large areas for

disposal. Plasma-assisted waste management has emerged as an advanced and sustainable technology for the safe treatment and recovery of valuable resources from various waste streams. Plasma technology is widely used for the treatment of municipal solid waste (MSW) by converting organic waste into synthesis gas (syngas) and inert vitrified slag through high-temperature plasma gasification. It is also highly effective in biomedical waste sterilization, where plasma destroys bacteria, viruses, fungi, and other pathogens without generating harmful emissions. For hazardous waste destruction, plasma reactors decompose toxic chemicals, persistent organic pollutants, and industrial wastes into simpler, environmentally safe compounds.

In addition, plasma technology plays an important role in electronic waste (e-waste) recycling by recovering valuable metals such as copper, gold, and silver while minimizing environmental contamination. It also enables the conversion of plastic waste into useful fuels, hydrogen, and valuable chemicals, reducing dependence on landfills and promoting resource recovery. Furthermore, waste-to-energy technologies based on plasma gasification produce clean syngas that can be used for electricity generation, heating, and hydrogen production. Overall, plasma-assisted waste management offers an efficient, environmentally friendly, and sustainable approach for waste treatment, resource recovery, and circular economy development.

7. Plasma Gasification and Circular Economy

Plasma gasification is an advanced thermochemical process that uses extremely high-temperature plasma, typically above 3,000°C, to convert waste materials into valuable products with minimal environmental impact. Unlike conventional incineration, plasma gasification occurs in an oxygen-limited environment, where organic waste is broken down into its basic molecular components rather than being completely burned. This process significantly reduces harmful emissions while producing useful energy resources, making it an important technology for sustainable waste management and the circular economy.

The primary product of plasma gasification is synthesis gas (syngas), which mainly consists of hydrogen (H₂) and carbon monoxide (CO). Syngas can be used as a clean fuel for electricity generation, heating, and the production of chemicals such as methanol and ammonia. Plasma gasification also supports hydrogen generation, offering a promising pathway for the development of a low-carbon hydrogen economy. Hydrogen produced through plasma-assisted processes can serve as a clean energy carrier for transportation, power generation, and industrial applications.

Another important advantage of plasma gasification is the recovery of valuable materials. Metals present in municipal solid waste, electronic waste, and industrial residues can be separated and recycled, while the remaining inorganic materials are converted into an inert vitrified slag suitable for construction applications. By reducing landfill disposal, recovering valuable

resources, and generating clean energy, plasma gasification plays a vital role in sustainable waste management. It supports the principles of the circular economy by transforming waste into valuable products, conserving natural resources, reducing greenhouse gas emissions, and promoting environmentally sustainable industrial development.

8. Plasma-Assisted Carbon Capture and Green Chemistry

The increasing concentration of greenhouse gases, particularly carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄), has intensified global warming and climate change. Conventional carbon capture technologies often require high energy consumption and expensive chemical absorbents, limiting their widespread application. Plasma-assisted carbon capture has emerged as an innovative and sustainable alternative that utilizes highly energetic electrons and reactive species to convert greenhouse gases into valuable chemicals and fuels under relatively mild operating conditions.

One of the most important applications of plasma technology is carbon dioxide conversion. Non-thermal plasma activates stable CO₂ molecules, converting them into carbon monoxide (CO), oxygen, and other reactive intermediates. These products can be further utilized in the synthesis of fuels and industrial chemicals. Similarly, methane reforming using plasma converts methane into hydrogen-rich synthesis gas (syngas), which serves as an important feedstock for chemical manufacturing and clean energy production.

Plasma technology also promotes green chemical synthesis by enabling chemical reactions without excessive heat or harmful reagents. It supports the production of valuable chemicals such as methanol, ammonia, and other organic compounds while reducing energy consumption and environmental impact. Furthermore, plasma-assisted processes facilitate renewable fuel production, including hydrogen, synthetic fuels, and biofuel precursors, supporting the transition toward a low-carbon energy system.

In addition, plasma technology contributes to sustainable industrial processes by minimizing greenhouse gas emissions, reducing chemical waste, and improving resource efficiency. Its compatibility with renewable electricity sources further enhances its environmental benefits. Overall, plasma-assisted carbon capture and green chemistry represent promising approaches for achieving carbon neutrality, advancing sustainable manufacturing, and supporting the global transition to a circular and environmentally responsible economy.

9. Plasma Sterilization and Environmental Health

Plasma sterilization has emerged as an advanced, chemical-free, and environmentally friendly technology for controlling harmful microorganisms and improving public health. Unlike conventional sterilization methods that rely on high temperatures or toxic chemicals, non-thermal plasma generates reactive oxygen species (ROS), reactive nitrogen species (RNS), charged particles, and ultraviolet (UV) radiation that effectively destroy bacteria, viruses, fungi, and

spores without damaging heat-sensitive materials. This makes plasma technology suitable for a wide range of environmental and healthcare applications.

One of the major applications of plasma technology is air sterilization, where airborne pathogens, allergens, and harmful microorganisms are rapidly inactivated, improving indoor air quality in hospitals, laboratories, offices, and public buildings. Plasma is also widely used for surface decontamination, effectively disinfecting medical instruments, surgical equipment, packaging materials, and frequently touched surfaces without leaving harmful chemical residues. In healthcare, plasma plays an important role in hospital waste treatment by sterilizing infectious biomedical waste before disposal, thereby reducing the risk of disease transmission and environmental contamination. Plasma technology also contributes significantly to food safety applications, where it eliminates foodborne pathogens from fruits, vegetables, meat, dairy products, and food packaging while preserving nutritional quality and extending shelf life.

The COVID-19 pandemic highlighted the importance of rapid and efficient disinfection technologies, making plasma an attractive solution for pandemic preparedness. Plasma-based systems can disinfect air, surfaces, personal protective equipment, and medical devices quickly and effectively. Overall, plasma sterilization offers a sustainable, energy-efficient, and eco-friendly approach to environmental health by reducing microbial contamination, improving hygiene, and supporting public health protection.

10. Industrial Applications of Environmental Plasma Technologies

Environmental plasma technologies have gained significant importance across various industries due to their ability to control pollution, improve process efficiency, and support sustainable manufacturing. Plasma-based systems generate highly reactive species that effectively remove contaminants, sterilize surfaces, and convert waste into valuable products with minimal environmental impact. Their versatility has led to widespread adoption in several industrial sectors.

In power plants, plasma technology is used to reduce emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO_x), sulfur dioxide (SO₂), particulate matter, and volatile organic compounds from flue gases. It also supports carbon capture and improves overall emission control efficiency. In the chemical industry, plasma reactors are employed for the synthesis of environmentally friendly chemicals, degradation of hazardous compounds, and treatment of industrial exhaust gases and wastewater.

The textile industry benefits from plasma-assisted wastewater treatment, where persistent dyes, organic pollutants, and toxic chemicals are efficiently degraded before discharge. In the food processing industry, plasma is widely used for microbial decontamination of food products, packaging materials, and processing equipment, enhancing food safety while preserving nutritional quality. In pharmaceutical manufacturing, plasma technology assists in wastewater

treatment, sterilization of production facilities, and degradation of pharmaceutical residues that may contaminate the environment.

Furthermore, plasma plays an important role in mining and metallurgy by treating mining wastewater, recovering valuable metals from industrial waste, and reducing emissions generated during metal extraction and processing. Overall, environmental plasma technologies offer industries a sustainable solution for pollution control, resource recovery, and cleaner production. Their high efficiency, low chemical requirement, and compatibility with renewable energy sources make them an essential component of modern green industrial practices and the transition toward sustainable industrial development.

11. Emerging Technologies

Recent advances in plasma science have led to the development of innovative technologies that enhance the efficiency, sustainability, and automation of environmental applications. By integrating plasma with other advanced technologies, researchers are overcoming the limitations of conventional treatment methods and creating more effective solutions for pollution control, resource recovery, and environmental monitoring.

One of the most promising developments is the combination of plasma with photocatalysis, where plasma-generated reactive species work together with photocatalysts such as titanium dioxide (TiO₂) to achieve faster degradation of organic pollutants and improved water and air purification. Similarly, plasma–catalyst hybrid reactors combine plasma with catalytic materials to increase reaction efficiency, improve product selectivity, and reduce energy consumption in applications such as carbon dioxide conversion, hydrogen production, and volatile organic compound removal.

The application of artificial intelligence (AI) is transforming plasma technology by enabling real-time process monitoring, predictive maintenance, and automatic optimization of operating parameters. AI algorithms analyze large datasets to maximize treatment efficiency while minimizing energy consumption. Plasma technology is also being integrated with nanotechnology, where nanomaterials enhance plasma reactions through increased surface area and catalytic activity, leading to improved pollutant degradation and resource recovery.

In addition, smart environmental monitoring systems equipped with plasma-based sensors provide continuous detection of pollutants, pathogens, and toxic gases. The adoption of digital twin technologies further improves industrial performance by creating virtual models of plasma reactors that simulate operating conditions, predict system behavior, and optimize maintenance schedules. Together, these emerging technologies are making plasma-based environmental systems more intelligent, efficient, and sustainable, paving the way for next-generation environmental protection and green industrial processes.

12. Advantages, Challenges, and Limitations

Plasma-based environmental technologies offer several advantages over conventional pollution control and waste treatment methods, making them attractive for sustainable industrial and environmental applications. One of the major benefits is their chemical-free treatment capability, as plasma generates highly reactive species that degrade pollutants without requiring large amounts of additional chemicals. Plasma processes also exhibit high efficiency in removing organic contaminants, pathogens, toxic gases, and persistent pollutants within a short treatment time. Another significant advantage is low secondary pollution, since plasma minimizes the formation of hazardous by-products and reduces the need for chemical disposal. In addition, plasma systems provide rapid processing, allowing fast sterilization, waste treatment, and pollutant degradation. Many modern plasma reactors are also designed as energy-efficient systems, particularly non-thermal plasma reactors that operate at near-room temperature and can be integrated with renewable energy sources.

Despite these benefits, several challenges limit the widespread commercialization of plasma technologies. The high capital cost of plasma reactors and supporting equipment makes initial investment expensive for many industries. Scale-up issues remain a major concern, as technologies that perform efficiently in laboratories often face operational difficulties at industrial scales. Although non-thermal plasma reduces energy demand, energy consumption can still be significant for certain high-temperature applications. Furthermore, reactor design optimization is essential to improve treatment efficiency, reduce operational costs, and ensure uniform plasma generation. Finally, commercialization barriers, including limited industrial awareness, regulatory challenges, and maintenance requirements, continue to slow large-scale adoption. Continued research, technological innovation, and cost reduction are essential for making plasma-based environmental technologies commercially viable and widely accessible.

Conclusion

Plasma-based environmental technologies have emerged as innovative and sustainable solutions for addressing some of the world's most pressing environmental challenges. Throughout this chapter, the applications of plasma in air pollution control, water and wastewater treatment, soil remediation, waste management, carbon capture, sterilization, and industrial pollution control have demonstrated its versatility and effectiveness. By generating highly reactive species capable of degrading pollutants, sterilizing pathogens, and converting waste into valuable products, plasma technology provides an environmentally friendly alternative to many conventional treatment methods.

The widespread adoption of plasma technology can make significant contributions to environmental sustainability by reducing greenhouse gas emissions, minimizing hazardous waste, conserving natural resources, improving air and water quality, and supporting circular

economy principles. Its ability to integrate with renewable energy systems, artificial intelligence, nanotechnology, and advanced catalysts further enhances its potential for developing cleaner and more efficient industrial processes.

Despite challenges such as high initial costs, energy requirements, and large-scale commercialization, continuous research and technological advancements are steadily improving the performance and economic feasibility of plasma-based systems. Future research should focus on developing energy-efficient reactors, optimizing plasma–catalyst hybrid technologies, expanding digital monitoring and control systems, and demonstrating successful large-scale industrial applications. With growing environmental concerns and stricter pollution regulations worldwide, plasma-based environmental technologies are expected to play an increasingly important role in sustainable development. Their adaptability, high treatment efficiency, and eco-friendly nature position them as a promising technology with strong potential for global adoption in the transition toward a cleaner, greener, and more sustainable future.

References

1. Fridman, A. (2008). *Plasma Chemistry*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
2. Tendero, C., Tixier, C., Tristant, P., Desmaison, J., & Leprince, P. (2006). Atmospheric pressure plasmas: A review. *Spectrochimica Acta Part B: Atomic Spectroscopy*, 61(1), 2–30.
3. Bruggeman, P. J., & Leys, C. (2009). Non-thermal plasmas in and in contact with liquids. *Journal of Physics D: Applied Physics*, 42(5), 053001.
4. Locke, B. R., Sato, M., Sunka, P., Hoffmann, M. R., & Chang, J. S. (2006). Electrohydraulic discharge and non-thermal plasma for water treatment. *Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research*, 45(3), 882–905.
5. Bogaerts, A., Neyts, E. C., Gijbels, R., & van der Mullen, J. (2002). Gas discharge plasmas and their applications. *Spectrochimica Acta Part B: Atomic Spectroscopy*, 57(4), 609–658.
6. Misra, N. N., Schlüter, O., & Cullen, P. J. (Eds.). (2016). *Cold Plasma in Food and Agriculture: Fundamentals and Applications*. Academic Press, London.

A MULTI-AGENT PRODUCT REVIEW INTELLIGENCE SYSTEM: AUTOMATED SENTIMENT ANALYSIS, ASPECT EXTRACTION, AND FAKE REVIEW DETECTION USING NLP AND LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS

Richa Avasthy and Chetna

School of Engineering Design & Automation,
GNA University, Phagwara, Punjab, India

Corresponding author E-mail: richa.avasthy@gnauniversity.edu.in,
chetnadadwal123@gmail.com

Abstract

The exponential growth of e-commerce and digital review platforms has produced an overwhelming volume of unstructured customer feedback that is impractical to evaluate manually. This chapter presents a Multi-Agent Product Review Intelligence System that automates the collection, analysis, and interpretation of online product reviews. The framework is composed of five cooperating agents — Review Collection, Sentiment Analysis, Aspect Extraction, Fake Review Detection, and Recommendation Generation — each responsible for a discrete stage of the analytical pipeline. Given only a product name as input, the system retrieves review-related content from Google News RSS feeds and allied web sources, applies lexicon-based and transformer-based Natural Language Processing (NLP) techniques to determine sentiment polarity, isolates feature-level opinions relating to price, quality, and delivery, screens reviews for signs of inauthenticity, and finally uses a Large Language Model (LLM) accessed through the Groq API to generate business-oriented recommendations and natural-language answers to user queries. The system is implemented as a Flask-based web application with a Bootstrap front end and Plotly-driven visual analytics, and is deployed on a cloud hosting platform for public accessibility. Evaluation indicates that the lexicon-based sentiment module attains approximately 90% accuracy on unambiguous positive-sentiment text and 76% overall accuracy across mixed inputs, with known degradation on sarcastic or mixed-tone reviews. The chapter situates this system within the broader literature on sentiment analysis, aspect-based opinion mining, fake review detection, and multi-agent LLM orchestration, and outlines the limitations and future directions — including multilingual support, dependency-parsing-based aspect detection, and conversational memory — that would extend the system toward a production-grade decision-support tool for businesses, researchers, and consumers alike.

Keywords: Multi-Agent Systems, Natural Language Processing, Sentiment Analysis, Aspect-Based Sentiment Analysis, Fake Review Detection, Large Language Models, Recommendation Systems, E-Commerce Analytics.

1. Introduction

Digital commerce has fundamentally altered the way consumers evaluate products and the way businesses gather feedback about them. Every day, e-commerce marketplaces, news aggregators, and social platforms generate an enormous volume of user-generated review content. Prospective buyers routinely consult these reviews before purchase decisions, and manufacturers depend on the same feedback to refine product design, pricing, and service delivery. However, the sheer scale and unstructured nature of this text make manual analysis slow, inconsistent, and cost-prohibitive at any meaningful scale (Liu, 2012; Pang & Lee, 2008).

A second complication compounds the first: not all reviews are genuine. Paid promoters, competitor sabotage, and automated bots inject fake or manipulated reviews into the review ecosystem, distorting the signal that both consumers and businesses rely upon (Ott, Choi, Cardie, & Hancock, 2011). Reliable review intelligence therefore requires not only sentiment classification but also a mechanism for flagging content whose authenticity is doubtful.

This chapter proposes a Multi-Agent Product Review Intelligence System that addresses both problems within a single, modular pipeline. Rather than building one monolithic model that attempts sentiment scoring, feature extraction, authenticity screening, and recommendation generation simultaneously, the system distributes these responsibilities across five cooperating software agents, each specialized for a narrow task and coordinated through a shared Flask-based application layer. This design follows the broader trend in applied NLP systems toward modular, agent-based orchestration of Large Language Models (LLMs) and classical NLP pipelines (Tran *et al.*, 2025; Wang, Wang, Athiwaratkun, Zhang, & Zou, 2024), which improves maintainability, allows independent upgrading of individual components, and produces more interpretable intermediate outputs than an end-to-end black-box model.

The remainder of this chapter is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews related work in sentiment analysis, aspect-based opinion mining, fake review detection, and multi-agent LLM systems. Section 3 states the problem being addressed, and Section 4 lists the system's objectives. Section 5 describes the system architecture, and Section 6 details the methodology. Section 7 discusses implementation, Section 8 presents results, and Sections 9–11 discuss advantages, limitations, and future scope respectively, before Section 12 concludes the chapter.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Sentiment Analysis: Lexicon-Based and Transformer-Based Approaches

Sentiment analysis, broadly defined as the computational study of opinions, sentiments, and emotions expressed in text, has developed along two complementary methodological lines (Liu, 2012; Pang & Lee, 2008). The first is lexicon- and rule-based scoring, exemplified by VADER (Valence Aware Dictionary and sEntiment Reasoner), which pairs a manually validated sentiment lexicon with grammatical heuristics to score informal, social-media-style text without

requiring any training data (Hutto & Gilbert, 2014). VADER remains attractive for lightweight, real-time applications because of its speed and interpretability, though its accuracy declines on sarcastic, mixed-tone, or heavily context-dependent statements. The second line comprises transformer-based deep learning models such as BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers), which learn contextual language representations from large corpora through masked-language-model pre-training and can be fine-tuned for sentiment classification with substantially higher contextual sensitivity (Devlin, Chang, Lee, & Toutanova, 2019). The Hugging Face Transformers library has made such pre-trained models broadly accessible for applied NLP pipelines, standardizing their use across research and industry (Wolf *et al.*, 2020). The system discussed in this chapter draws on both traditions, using VADER for rapid baseline scoring and transformer-based models where contextual accuracy is prioritized.

2.2 Aspect-Based Sentiment Analysis

Document-level sentiment scores, while useful, obscure the fact that a single review often expresses different opinions toward different product attributes — for example, praising build quality while criticizing delivery time. Aspect-based sentiment analysis (ABSA) addresses this by first identifying the specific product features or aspects mentioned in a review and then computing sentiment localized to each aspect. The foundational work of Hu and Liu (2004) established the task of mining and summarizing customer opinions at the feature level, and this line of research has since been extended with domain ontologies and hybrid feature-sentiment models to improve both interpretability and detection accuracy (Hajek, Hikkerova, & Sahut, 2023). The present system implements a lightweight keyword-driven variant of ABSA, targeting the recurrently important aspects of price, quality, and delivery, while acknowledging — as discussed in Section 10 — that this approach is less comprehensive than dependency-parsing-based aspect discovery.

2.3 Fake and Deceptive Review Detection

The credibility of online reviews is undermined by deceptive opinion spam — reviews fabricated to unfairly promote or damage a product. Ott, Choi, Cardie, and Hancock (2011) were among the first to construct a labeled corpus of deceptive hotel reviews and demonstrate that linguistic features could distinguish fabricated from genuine text with performance exceeding untrained human judges. Subsequent work has incorporated sentiment intensity and ontology-based feature-sentiment analysis into fake review classification, on the premise that fabricated reviews tend to exhibit atypical polarity extremity or feature-coverage patterns relative to genuine ones (see the ontology-based review-authenticity framework surveyed in recent literature). Aspect-informed fake-review detection models that additionally account for product category and verified-purchase status have shown further gains in distinguishing credible from incredible

feedback (Hajek, Hikkerova, & Sahut, 2023). The fake-review-screening agent in the present system is inspired by this literature, using sentiment-extremity and pattern-based heuristics as an interpretable first-pass filter.

2.4 Multi-Agent Architectures and LLM Orchestration

Recent advances in large language models have prompted a shift from single-model pipelines toward multi-agent architectures in which specialized agents — each with a narrower scope, prompt, or tool — collaborate to solve a broader task. Surveys of LLM-based multi-agent collaboration mechanisms categorize such systems by their communication topology, coordination strategy, and division of labor, and report consistent gains in robustness and task decomposition over monolithic single-agent designs (Tran *et al.*, 2025). Related work on mixture-of-agents demonstrates that layering multiple LLM-driven agents, each refining the output of the previous stage, can improve overall response quality beyond what any single model achieves alone (Wang *et al.*, 2024). The system in this chapter adopts this philosophy at a smaller scale, using distinct agents for collection, sentiment scoring, aspect isolation, authenticity screening, and finally LLM-based recommendation synthesis via the Groq API.

2.5 Research Gap

Taken together, the reviewed literature offers mature individual techniques for sentiment scoring, aspect extraction, and fake-review detection, and an emerging architectural pattern for multi-agent LLM orchestration. However, few openly documented systems integrate all four capabilities — automated review collection, sentiment analysis, aspect-level opinion mining, and authenticity screening — into a single accessible, end-to-end web application aimed at non-technical users, with an LLM-based conversational layer for natural-language querying. This chapter's system is positioned to close that integration gap, prioritizing accessibility and interpretability over state-of-the-art accuracy on any single sub-task.

3. Problem Statement

Despite the widespread availability of digital review platforms, organizations continue to face substantial difficulty in converting raw customer feedback into actionable insight. Review volumes routinely exceed what human analysts can process, meaningful patterns are difficult to detect manually, and a large share of organizational effort is consumed by repetitive, low-value data preparation rather than decision-making. The specific challenges motivating this work include:

- The manual assessment of large volumes of online reviews is time-consuming and does not scale with review growth.
- Recurring patterns in customer sentiment and product-feature complaints are difficult to detect without systematic aggregation.

- Manual analysis requires technical skill (statistics, spreadsheet tooling, or programming) that many stakeholders lack.
- Feedback data is rarely organized in a form suitable for direct managerial decision-making.

A system capable of automatically collecting review data, analyzing it for sentiment and product-feature relevance, screening it for authenticity, and communicating the results in natural language is therefore a practical necessity. The Product Review Analytics System described in this chapter addresses these challenges by giving users a single interface through which they can supply a product name, receive automated sentiment and aspect analysis, and interact with an AI assistant in natural language to interpret the results.

4. Objectives

The Product Review Analytics System is designed to accomplish the following objectives:

- Develop a web-based review analysis tool using the Flask framework and Python, incorporating transformer-based sentiment analysis of customer reviews.
- Extract product-relevant attributes — notably cost, quality, and delivery time — from unstructured review text.
- Provide visual analytics that communicate the distribution of customer sentiment in an accessible form.
- Enable natural-language interaction, allowing users to query review data and receive AI-generated responses via the Groq API.
- Keep the interface simple enough for non-technical end-users to operate without training.
- Deploy the system on a publicly accessible cloud hosting platform.

5. System Architecture

The proposed system follows a multi-agent architecture in which each agent performs one clearly bounded task, and the agents' outputs are composed sequentially into a final result. Table 1 summarizes the responsibility of each agent.

Data flows through the pipeline in the following order: the Review Collection Agent retrieves raw review content for a user-supplied product name; the Sentiment Analysis Agent labels each review by polarity; the Aspect Extraction Agent isolates feature-level mentions; the Fake Review Detection Agent screens the pooled reviews for authenticity concerns; and the Recommendation Generation Agent — backed by an LLM accessed through the Groq API — synthesizes the combined output into a natural-language summary and answers user questions. The dashboard layer then renders this output as interactive charts and tables.

Table 1: Agent responsibilities within the Multi-Agent Product Review Intelligence System.

Agent	Primary Responsibility
Review Collection Agent	Queries Google News RSS feeds and web sources for a user-supplied product name and aggregates raw, unstructured review-related text.
Sentiment Analysis Agent	Classifies each review as positive, negative, or neutral using a lexicon-based model (VADER) and/or a transformer-based model, and quantifies overall sentiment polarity.
Aspect Extraction Agent	Detects mentions of predefined product aspects such as price, quality, and delivery to localize sentiment at the feature level rather than the document level.
Fake Review Detection Agent	Screens incoming reviews for indicators of inauthenticity (e.g., duplicated phrasing, extreme polarity, anomalous posting patterns) and flags suspicious entries.
Recommendation Generation Agent	Synthesizes the outputs of the preceding agents, using the Groq LLM API, into natural-language business recommendations and answers to user queries.

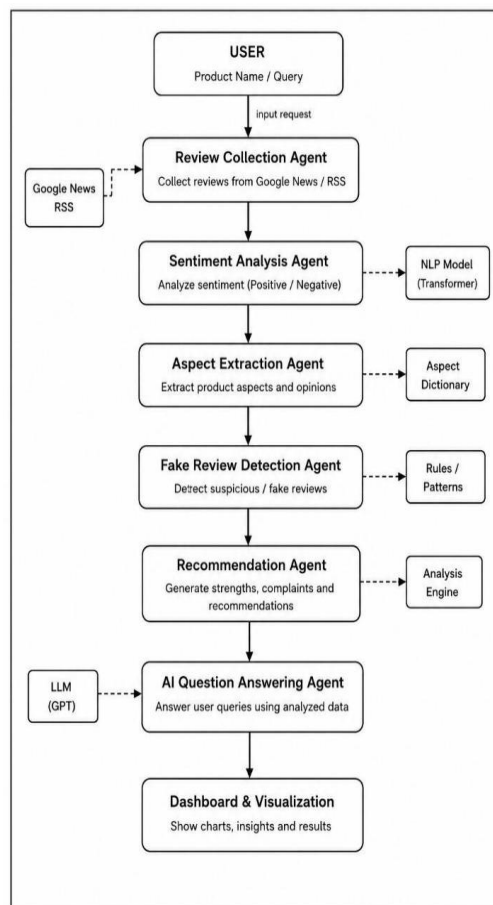


Figure 1: High-level multi-agent system architecture

6. Methodology

The system was engineered following a modular, layered methodology in which each layer encapsulates a distinct concern, simplifying testing, maintenance, and future extension.

6.1 Web Application Layer (Flask Framework)

Flask serves as the backend framework, with Python implementing the core application logic. This layer coordinates both backend operations (routing, session handling, file upload) and the rendering of the frontend dashboard, presenting results in an accessible, result-oriented interface.

6.2 Data Processing Layer (Pandas and NLP Models)

Incoming review data is normalized and cleaned using Pandas, including handling of missing values and formatting inconsistencies, before being passed to the NLP models for sentiment scoring and aspect extraction.

6.3 AI and Analytics Layer (Groq API and LLM)

This layer constitutes the system's reasoning capability. It retrieves responses from a large language model hosted via the Groq API, using the aggregated review data as grounding context so that generated business recommendations and answers to user queries remain relevant to the specific product under analysis.

6.4 Visualization Layer (Dashboard UI)

Aggregated sentiment and aspect statistics are rendered as charts (via Plotly) on a dashboard, giving users an at-a-glance summary of customer opinion without requiring them to read every individual review.

6.5 Deployment Layer

The completed application is hosted on a cloud platform (Render), which manages dependency installation, scaling, and secure storage of API credentials, ensuring the system is reachable from any standard web browser.

End to end, the workflow proceeds as follows. A responsive front end — built with HTML, CSS, and Bootstrap — allows users to submit a product name, view visualizations, and interact with the AI assistant. On the backend, Flask and Python handle review pre-processing with Pandas, including data normalization and missing-value handling. Sentiment classification separates reviews into positive and negative categories using transformer-based models, while aspect extraction isolates mention of price, quality, and delivery. Selected review excerpts and the user's question are compiled into a structured prompt that is submitted to the Groq API; the returned response is then displayed to the user. Because each stage completes within seconds, the system delivers what is, from the user's perspective, real-time feedback analysis.

7. Implementation

The system was implemented in Python using the Flask micro-framework, with a responsive frontend built in HTML, CSS, and Bootstrap. Sentiment analysis is performed using models

from the Hugging Face Transformers library, while review content is collected using Feedparser against Google News RSS feeds, supplemented by BeautifulSoup for lightweight web scraping. Visual analytics are generated using Plotly. Table 2 summarizes the technology stack.

Table 2: Technology stack by system component.

Component	Technology Used
Frontend Interface	HTML5, CSS3, Bootstrap
Backend / Application Server	Python 3, Flask Framework
Natural Language Processing	Hugging Face Transformers, VADER (NLTK)
Data Handling & Pre-processing	Pandas, NumPy
Review Collection	Feedparser (Google News RSS), BeautifulSoup
Conversational / Generative AI Layer	Groq API (LLaMA family LLM)
Visualization	Plotly
Deployment	Render Cloud Platform

8. Results and Discussion

Experimental use of the system confirms that it successfully collects review-related data for a supplied product name and converts it into structured customer insight. The sentiment-distribution visualization allows users to see, at a glance, the overall balance of customer satisfaction, while the aspect-analysis module surfaces a product's principal strengths and weaknesses as reported across the collected reviews. The recommendation module, powered by the Groq-hosted LLM, converts these findings into actionable business suggestions, and the dashboard as a whole enables user to interpret aggregated customer opinion without manually reading each review.

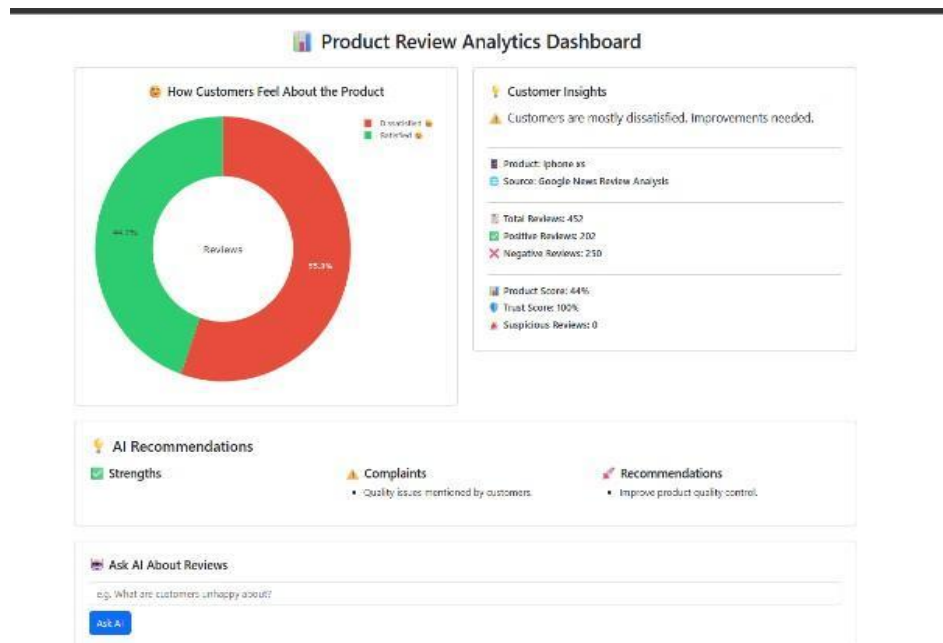


Figure 2: Application home page interface

Review	Sentiment	Aspects	Status
Compare Apple iPhone XS Max vs. OnePlus Nord 5 - GSMArena.com	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Compare Apple iPhone XS Max vs. OnePlus Nord 5 GSMArena.com	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS Review - iHunt1.com	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS Review Thrott.com	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS review: too steps forward, one step back - The Guardian	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS review: too steps forward, one step back The Guardian	Positive	No aspects	Complete
iPhone XS and iPhone XS Max Review - Gadgets 360	Positive	No aspects	Complete
iPhone XS and iPhone XS Max Review Gadgets 360	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Review: The new Apple iPhones are out, so which one should you buy? - Scroll.in	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Review: The new Apple iPhones are out, so which one should you buy? Scroll.in	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS Max Review: Go Big or Go Home! - The Quint	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS Max Review: Go Big or Go Home! The Quint	Positive	No aspects	Complete
iPhone XS Review: Everyone Recommends Waiting For iPhone XR - Forbes	Positive	No aspects	Complete
iPhone XS Review: Everyone Recommends Waiting For iPhone XR Forbes	Positive	No aspects	Complete
iPhone XS review: A layer of polish - The Hindu	Positive	No aspects	Complete
iPhone XS review: A layer of polish The Hindu	Positive	No aspects	Complete
iPhone XS review - TechRadar	Positive	No aspects	Complete
iPhone XS review TechRadar	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS Review - PCMag	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS Review PCMag	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS Review iHunt1.com	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS Max review: Yes, this comes at a hefty price, but you won't regret it - The Indian Express	Positive	price: POSITIVE	Complete
Apple iPhone XS Max review: Yes, this comes at a hefty price, but you won't regret it The Indian Express	Positive	price: POSITIVE	Complete
iPhone XS review: The future, as promised, is now - Six Colors	Positive	No aspects	Complete
iPhone XS review: The future, as promised, is now Six Colors	Positive	No aspects	Complete
iPhone XS and iPhone XS Max review: Easy good phones at easy high prices - India Today	Positive	price: MIXED	Complete
iPhone XS and iPhone XS Max review: Crazy good phones at crazy high prices India Today	Positive	price: POSITIVE	Complete
Apple iPhone XS review - GSMArena.com	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS review GSMArena.com	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS - GSMArena.com	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS GSMArena.com	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS and iPhone XS Max review roundup - GSMArena.com	Positive	No aspects	Complete
Apple iPhone XS and iPhone XS Max review roundup GSMArena.com	Positive	No aspects	Complete

Figure 3: Analytics dashboard displaying sentiment and aspect visualizations

Quantitatively, testing indicates that the lexicon-based (VADER) sentiment component achieves approximately 90% accuracy on text expressing overtly positive sentiment, with an overall accuracy of about 76% across mixed or ambiguous inputs. This gap is consistent with the literature: rule-based lexicon models such as VADER are known to be highly effective on direct, unambiguous language but comparatively weak on sarcasm, negation scoping, and mixed-tone text (Hutto & Gilbert, 2014), a limitation that generally requires context-aware transformer models such as BERT to substantially resolve (Devlin *et al.*, 2019). This observation directly informs the future-scope recommendations in Section 11.

9. Advantages

- Automated, hands-free collection of review content for any supplied product name.
- Near real-time turnaround from product-name entry to sentiment and aspect analysis.
- Built-in screening for potentially fake or inauthentic reviews.
- Automatic generation of business-oriented recommendations rather than raw statistics alone.
- An interactive, visually accessible dashboard suitable for non-technical stakeholders.

10. Limitations

10.1 Key Technical Limitations

- Limited context window: the LLM accessed via the Groq API can process only a bounded amount of text per call, so only a subset of collected reviews is passed to the model; if relevant details fall outside this subset, generated responses may not fully reflect the dataset.
- Dependency on data quality: consistent with the well-known "garbage in, garbage out" principle, incomplete, biased, or inaccurate source reviews propagate directly into flawed downstream insights.

- Restricted aspect coverage: aspect detection currently relies on a fixed keyword set (price, quality, delivery), so other relevant aspects such as packaging, customer service, or usability may go undetected.
- Scalability of in-memory processing: because review data is processed in memory via Pandas, very large datasets can degrade performance or cause the application to become unresponsive.

10.2 Feature Limitations

- No persistent chat history: each AI query is handled independently, without reference to earlier questions in the same session.
- Limited visualization options: the dashboard currently offers only basic charts, without comparative or trend-based visualizations.
- Read-only operation: users can view but not edit or annotate the underlying dataset within the system.
- Single-dataset handling: the system processes one product's review set at a time and does not support side-by-side comparison across multiple products.

10.3 Integration and Interface Constraints

- API dependency: the system's generative capability relies entirely on the availability and responsiveness of the Groq API; degraded or unavailable service directly affects system functionality.
- Usage quotas: rate limits on the Groq API may affect performance during periods of heavy use.
- Prompt sensitivity: response quality is sensitive to how the underlying prompt is constructed, and poorly structured prompts can yield incomplete or irrelevant answers.
- Interface simplicity: the current dashboard favors a minimal design and does not yet include advanced, interactive filtering controls.
- Deployment constraints: cloud hosting (e.g., via Render) makes the system broadly accessible but is still subject to the resource and cold-start limitations typical of managed hosting tiers.

11. Future Scope

Several extensions would meaningfully strengthen the system's analytical depth and usability. Planned or recommended future improvements include:

- Multilingual sentiment analysis to support reviews written in languages other than English.
- A product-comparison view enabling side-by-side analysis of multiple products.
- Export of analysis results to CSV and graphical report formats (PDF, DOCX, TXT).
- Adoption of NLP dependency parsing for aspect detection, to capture implicit feature mentions beyond fixed keyword matching.

- A refined or fine-tuned transformer model better suited to mixed-tone and sarcastic reviews.
- Support for image- and audio-based reviews, broadening the range of consumer feedback the system can ingest.
- Deep-learning-based fake-review verification, replacing or augmenting the current heuristic screening.
- Conversational memory for the question-answering module, together with a persistent database layer, to support trend analysis across multiple sessions rather than single, stateless queries.

Among these, three improvements would likely add the greatest value in a subsequent version: conversational memory for the question-answering module, incorporation of a persistent database, and the replacement of keyword-based aspect identification with dependency-parsing techniques capable of surfacing implicit feature mentions and multi-session trend analysis.

Conclusion

This chapter has presented a Multi-Agent Product Review Intelligence System that automates the end-to-end pipeline of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting online product reviews. What began as a response to the practical difficulty of manually screening large volumes of customer feedback has been developed into a functioning web application capable of gathering reviews, classifying sentiment, isolating product-feature-level opinions, screening for potentially inauthentic content, and answering natural-language queries about the analyzed data. The system integrates established open-source components — Flask, Pandas, VADER, Hugging Face Transformers, and Feedparser — with a Groq-hosted large language model, and is deployed on a cloud platform for public accessibility without requiring installation or account registration.

Evaluation shows the lexicon-based sentiment module performs strongly (approximately 90% accuracy) on overtly positive language, with a lower overall accuracy of roughly 76% across mixed or ambiguous inputs, reflecting a well-documented limitation of lexicon-based sentiment scoring on sarcastic or mixed-tone text. This finding, together with the identified limitations in aspect coverage, dataset scalability, and conversational continuity, defines a clear roadmap for future development. In particular, replacing keyword-based aspect detection with dependency-parsing methods, introducing persistent conversational memory, and adding a database layer for cross-session trend analysis are identified as the highest-value next steps. As digital review ecosystems continue to expand, systems of this kind — combining multi-agent decomposition, classical and transformer-based NLP, and LLM-based natural-language interaction — offer a practical and extensible template for transforming unstructured customer feedback into actionable intelligence for businesses, researchers, and consumers.

References

1. Devlin, J., Chang, M. W., Lee, K., & Toutanova, K. (2019). BERT: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (NAACL-HLT 2019)* (pp. 4171–4186). <https://arxiv.org/abs/1810.04805>
2. Hajek, P., Hikkerova, L., & Sahut, J.-M. (2023). Fake review detection in e-commerce platforms using aspect-based sentiment analysis. *Journal of Business Research*, 167, Article 114143. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2023.114143>
3. Hu, M., & Liu, B. (2004). Mining and summarizing customer reviews. In *Proceedings of the Tenth ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining (KDD '04)* (pp. 168–177). <https://doi.org/10.1145/1014052.1014073>
4. Hutto, C. J., & Gilbert, E. (2014). VADER: A parsimonious rule-based model for sentiment analysis of social media text. *Proceedings of the Eighth International AAAI Conference on Weblogs and Social Media (ICWSM-14)*, 8(1), 216–225.
5. Liu, B. (2012). *Sentiment analysis and opinion mining*. *Synthesis Lectures on Human Language Technologies*, 5(1), 1–167. Morgan & Claypool Publishers.
6. Ott, M., Choi, Y., Cardie, C., & Hancock, J. T. (2011). Finding deceptive opinion spam by any stretch of the imagination. In *Proceedings of the 49th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2011)* (pp. 309–319).
7. Pang, B., & Lee, L. (2008). Opinion mining and sentiment analysis. *Foundations and Trends in Information Retrieval*, 2(1–2), 1–135. <https://doi.org/10.1561/15000000011>
8. Richardson, L. (2024). *Beautiful Soup documentation*. <https://www.crummy.com/software/BeautifulSoup/>
9. Tran, K.-T., Dao, D., Nguyen, M.-D., Pham, Q.-V., O'Sullivan, B., & Nguyen, H. D. (2025). *Multi-agent collaboration mechanisms: A survey of LLMs* (arXiv:2501.06322). arXiv. <https://arxiv.org/abs/2501.06322>
10. Wang, J., Wang, J., Athiwaratkun, B., Zhang, C., & Zou, J. (2024). *Mixture-of-agents enhances large language model capabilities* (arXiv:2406.04692). arXiv. <https://arxiv.org/abs/2406.04692>
11. Wolf, T., Debut, L., Sanh, V., Chaumond, J., Delangue, C., Moi, A., Cistac, P., Rault, T., Louf, R., Funtowicz, M., Davison, J., Shleifer, S., von Platen, P., Ma, C., Jernite, Y., Plu, J., Xu, C., Le Scao, T., Gugger, S., ... Rush, A. M. (2020). Transformers: State-of-the-art natural language processing. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: System Demonstrations (EMNLP 2020)* (pp. 38–45). <https://huggingface.co/docs/transformers>

Transformative Science and Technology: Shaping the Next Decade Volume II

(ISBN: 978-93-47587-64-1)

About Editors



Dr. Rajesh Deshmukh is an Associate Professor of Botany at B. Raghunath Arts, Commerce & Science College, Parbhani, Maharashtra. He holds M.Sc., B.Ed., M.Phil., and Ph.D. degrees with specialization in Plant Pathology. He serves as a Research Supervisor and Postgraduate Teacher in Botany at SRTM University, Nanded. He received an Indian patent for designing an Automated Agricultural Spraying Robot and successfully completed a university-funded minor research project on the evaluation of plant extracts against *Sclerotium rolfsii*. He has published 34 research papers in national and international journals, five conference papers, and seven book chapters. He has presented research at numerous national and international conferences and is a Fellow Member of the International Journal of Life Sciences. He received the Best Teacher Award for his outstanding contributions to teaching, research, academic excellence, innovation, and scientific development.



Dr. Chetan S. Jawale is Professor and Head of the Department of Zoology at G.E.S's Arts, Commerce and Science College, Jawhar, Palghar, Maharashtra. An accomplished zoologist, entomologist, educator, and science communicator, he has over 22 years of teaching, research, and academic leadership experience. His research interests include entomology, apiculture, biodiversity conservation, natural product toxicology, environmental biology, and applied zoology. He has authored and edited 35 university textbooks, 15 reference books, and published 46 research papers in reputed journals. A Research Supervisor and former Principal In-Charge, he is dedicated to promoting scientific excellence and higher education. Dr. Jawale is also a noted Marathi science-fiction writer, having authored seven short story collections and five novels that inspire scientific temper, critical thinking, and public engagement with science through creative literature.



Dr. Sachin R. Rahangdale (M.Sc., Ph.D., SET, B.Ed.) is an Assistant Professor of Physics at Late N.P.W. Arts, Commerce and Science College, Andhalgaon, Maharashtra. He specializes in luminescence, radiation dosimetry, photoluminescence, and solid-state lighting. He holds two Indian patents on phosphors for radiation dosimetry and has published research papers in reputed international journals and AIP conference proceedings. His research experience includes projects at CSIR-NEERI, RTM Nagpur University, and KDK College of Engineering in collaboration with BARC, Mumbai. With extensive expertise in advanced analytical instruments and materials synthesis, Dr. Rahangdale is dedicated to innovative research and quality teaching. His academic interests focus on developing luminescent materials for radiation dosimetry, optical applications, and advanced functional materials for scientific and technological advancements worldwide.



Dr. Atma Nand is an Associate Professor of Mathematics at Uttaranchal University. He holds a Ph.D., M.Sc., and B.Sc. in Mathematics. His research interests include Operations Research, Inventory Control Models, Mathematical Modelling, Optimization Techniques, and Artificial Intelligence integration. He has published numerous research papers on inventory optimization and supply chain networks in reputed academic journals. Dr. Nand has played a key role in institutional NAAC accreditation and the implementation of the National Education Policy (NEP) 2020 within his department. He serves as Member-Secretary of the Board of Studies for B.Sc. Mathematics programmes and holds multiple patents for innovative IoT and smart devices. He actively contributes to the academic community as an editor, peer reviewer, conference organizer, researcher, mentor, and advocate of interdisciplinary mathematical research and innovation.

