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# Enhancement of the photocatalytic properties of nanosized $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$ synthesized by Glycine-assisted sol-gel route

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## Abstract

Nanosized lanthanum titanate ( $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$ ) have been synthesized by a new glycine-assisted sol gel route in order to improve the photocatalytic properties. The effect of calcination temperature on crystallites size and their photocatalytic efficiency has been investigated, showing a best efficiency for a calcination temperature of 1000°C. Thus, the apparent rate constant of degradation of rhodamine B is greatly improved by a factor of 1.86 compared to commercial P25  $\text{TiO}_2$  Degussa® and by a factor of 6.42 compared to a sol-gel synthesis without glycine.

In order to study the efficiency of the photocatalyst on industrial water discharges, the photodegradation of phenol has also been investigated, showing the effectiveness of the photocatalyst with an apparent rate constant of  $5.49 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$ . The photocatalyst mass loading, the luminous flux received and the pH have been also investigated. The effect of different type of scavengers shows the importance of superoxide and hole in the photodegradation mechanisms. Finally, the coupling of ultrasound and light excitation was carried out in order to achieve a sonophotocatalysis effect. The apparent rate constant corresponding to the photodegradation of phenol increases slightly. Nevertheless, we have been able to observe that this is more important as the volume of the photoreactor is low.

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## 1. Introduction

For a few decades, the development of new photocatalysts has been significant interest in the scientific community for their many potential applications, including: i) the photodegradation of organic pollutants such as dyes[1–4], pharmaceutical wastes[5,6], industrial wastewater treatment[7], mineralization of hazardous organic product[8], agricultural wastewater treatment (pesticides) [9,10], polymer fibers degradation[11], ii) the hydrogen production by water-splitting[12,13], iii) the photocatalytic redox reactions, for example the reduction of Cr(VI) to Cr(III)[14] or for the direct formation of metallic nanoparticles by photoreduction[15] and iv) the development of anti-bacterial coating based on the production of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) at the photocatalyst surface[16]. Among the photocatalyst oxides, TiO<sub>2</sub> is widely used and studied [17–19] due to its good chemical stability, nontoxicity, abundance of raw materials and strong oxidizing ability[20]. However, the growing interest has led researchers to explore new photocatalytic materials such as semiconductors ZnO[2], SnO<sub>2</sub>[21], WO<sub>3</sub>[22], ZnS[23], BiVO<sub>4</sub>[24], BiPO<sub>4</sub>[25], and La<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>[26,27] (LTO) in order to probe their effectiveness under UV light. Currently, these studies are being continued to allow use under visible irradiation, for example by i) band gap engineering via crystallites shape control[28], stress/strain effect[29] or even by the development of a compound with a mixed anion such as oxynitrides[30], oxyfluorides[31], oxyhydride,... ; ii) the effect of Localized Surface Plasmon Resonance (LSPR) via metallic nanoparticles as Au or Ag[32]; iii) The combination of light-absorbing materials such as CdS/La<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> nanocomposites[33] or g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/La<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>[34] and iv) the creation of all oxide n/p heterojunction such as BiOI/La<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>[35] or SnS<sub>2</sub>/La<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>[36]. The ability of La<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> to act as a photocatalyst has been highlighted since the early 2000s but this oxide has been known since the 1970s for these piezo-electric properties[37]. Lanthanum dititanate oxide belongs to the layered perovskite structure with a general formula A<sub>n</sub>B<sub>n</sub>O<sub>3n+2</sub> with (A=La et B=Ti). The La<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, so-called LTO

is characterised by a stack of 4 layers of  $[\text{TiO}_6]$  octahedron along the c axis and infinite layers of octahedra belong a and b axis. In 1975, Gasperin *et al.*[38] resolve the structure of  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$ , highlighting a monoclinic structure with a  $P2_1$  space group whose lattice parameters are:  $a = 7.800(3) \text{ \AA}$  ;  $b = 5.546(2) \text{ \AA}$  ;  $c = 13.011(4) \text{ \AA}$  et  $\beta = 98.60(2)^\circ$ . At  $780^\circ\text{C}$ , this monoclinic phase evolves to an orthorhombic structure ( $CmC2_1$  space group with following lattice parameters :  $a = 3.954(2) \text{ \AA}$  ;  $b = 5.607(2) \text{ \AA}$  et  $c = 25.952(8) \text{ \AA}$ [39]) while retaining ferroelectric properties. These are then lost when the temperature becomes higher than  $T_c = 1482^\circ\text{C}$ [40] and the structure evolves again towards an orthorhombic structure with  $Cmcm$  space group (paraelectric phase). LTO is a ferro-/piezo-electric material with a high Curie temperature[41], allowing use in extreme environments as piezoelectric actuators for aeronautic or spatial applications[42]. Beyond their electronic applications, LTO can also be used as a host matrix for the development of luminescent materials. Indeed, a substitution of the site La, by another element whose near ionic radius is possible without structure modification. So, LTO acts as an excellent host matrix, especially for the substitution of lanthanides ions such as  $\text{Pr}^{3+}$  [43,44],  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  [45,46],  $\text{Sm}^{3+}$  [47,48],... . In addition, a substitution of  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$  with  $\text{Er}^{3+}$  has made it possible to obtain an up conversion luminescence properties which may be of interest for improving the efficiency of solar cells[49,50] for phototherapy applications[51]. More recently, co-substitution also makes it possible to couple the two properties of classical luminescence and up-conversion to produce sensors sensitive to a double excitation[52].

In addition,  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$  oxide has been studied for its activity in water-splitting either alone [53] or co-catalyzed with metals [54], [55], for photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants  $\text{CH}_3\text{Cl}$  [56],  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$  [57] and dyestuff [27], [58], [59], [60], for photodegradation of antibiotics molecules such as ofloxacin [61] and the oxidation of isopropanol [62].

In a previous work[27], we used  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$  synthesized by Sol-Gel method and investigated its photocatalytic properties on the Rhodamine B photodegradation followed by the study of the influence of various parameters such as temperature, catalyst loading, pH. We have demonstrated an efficient use of this oxide for photocatalysis processes under UV irradiation.

However, the photocatalytic efficiency is strongly affected by the degree of crystallinity and the exchange surface of the material. In recent years, the optimization of synthetic parameters in order to control the size of crystallites and their crystallinity have been the subject of much researches by the scientific community, in particular via: i) the nature of precursors employed [63], ii) the use of polymer precursors for porosity control[61] ; ii) the diversification of synthesis processes such as the hydrothermal route [64], the polymeric sol-gel route [65],[66], microwave assisted synthesis[67], Molten Salt Synthesis (MSS)[68], spray pyrolysis and others ; iii) the use of template[69] or iv) the design of microreactors at the nanometric scale[70].

In this present work, we have sought to improve the photocatalytic activity by developing a new synthetic route limiting the coalescence of grains in the calcination step. For that,  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$  were synthesized by a new route named Sol-Gel method assisted by glycine combustion. Firstly, we will demonstrate the improvement of the photocatalytic properties with respect to the sol-gel synthesis already described. Secondly, for further understanding of photodegradation mechanism performed on Rhodamine B and phenol pollutants, we used scavenger species and studied photodegradation kinetics by total organic carbon measurements. The photocatalytic properties were studied as a function of catalyst loading, pH and luminous flux. Finally, a study in sonophotocatalysis was made by highlighting the influence of volume and the increase of catalytic efficiency.

## **2. Experimental section**

Nanosized  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$  oxide was synthesized by Sol-Gel method assisted by glycine combustion. Lanthanum (II) nitrate hexahydrate (Strem Chemicals, 99,99%), glycine (Acros Organics 99%) and Titanium (IV) n-butoxide (Alfa Aesar 98 + %) were used as starting precursors. First, a solution (A) was prepared according to the following protocol: 0.15 mol of lanthanum nitrate initially ground manually in an agate mortar is introduced into a mixture containing 10 mL of water and 10 mL of acetic acid. After 15 min of stirring, 0.30 mol of glycine is introduced into the reaction vessel of A solution and then homogenized for 15 min by stirring. At the same time, a second solution (B) was prepared by dissolving 0.15 mol of titanium precursor in 10 mL of absolute ethanol. The whole is homogenized by stirring for 15 min. Finally, A and B solutions were mixed and stirred for 30 min until a translucent gel was obtained. The solution was then placed in oven at  $80^\circ\text{C}$  until a viscous white gel was formed. This gel is then calcined in air at different temperatures for 10h to obtain  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$  nanopowders.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were collected using a Rigaku ULTIMA IV diffractometer equipped with Cu anticathode, Soller slits to limit the divergence of X-ray beam and a nickel foil filter attenuates the Cu  $\text{K}_\beta$  line. The registered angular range is  $20^\circ$ - $80^\circ$  (scanning rate of  $0.1^\circ \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ ) using the Bragg-Brentano configuration. In order to estimate the average crystallite size, we used Scherrer's relation[71,72]:

$$D = \frac{K\lambda}{\text{FWHM}_s \cos\theta} \quad (1)$$

Where  $\lambda$  is the X-ray wavelength ( $\lambda_{\text{Cu}} = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$ ),  $\text{FWHM}_s$  corresponds to the broadening only induced by the size effect, which is deconvolved from the instrumental part, K is a dimensionless shape factor (with a typical value of 0.89) and  $\theta$  is Bragg's angle corresponding to  $(hkl)$  reflection.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) examinations were performed using Tecnai G2-20 TWIN FEI microscope, equipped with a LaB<sub>6</sub> cathode and operating at the accelerating voltage of 200 kV.

The surface morphology and the chemical composition of the powder was analysed using Scanning Electron Microscope (FEI Nova NanoSEM 450) equipped with Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy detector Octane Elect Plus (EDAX) working with GENESIS software. Optical band gaps were calculated from the absorbance spectra recorded on UV-2600 spectrophotometer with integrating sphere (Shimadzu). For that, the Tauc plot based on following equation has been used[73,74]:

$$\alpha hv = A (hv - E_g)^n \quad (2)$$

Where  $\alpha$  is the absorption coefficient,  $hv$  corresponds to photon energy,  $A$  is a proportionality constant,  $E_g$  is the optical band gap, and the exponent  $n$  is a factor linked to the nature of the transition ( $n = 1/2$  for direct transition).

Porosity measurements were determined by nitrogen adsorption at -196 °C on a Tristar II apparatus from Micromeritics, after having degassed the sample under vacuum at 120°C. The specific surface areas ( $S_{BET}$ ) were calculated from the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) equation using  $P/P_0$  values in the  $1.0 \times 10^{-2}$  and  $2.5 \times 10^{-1}$  range and the pore size distributions were obtained from the desorption branch using the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) method. Each specific surface area measurement was performed on three consecutive batches of the same sample. The  $S_{BET}$  values uncertainty is estimated to be less than 5%. Total Organic Carbon (TOC) analyses were carried out on a TOC-L total organic carbon analyzer (Shimadzu). The values presented are the averages obtained on 3 consecutive measurements.

The photocatalytic activity was determined by monitoring the degradation of Rhodamine B and phenol on UV-visible spectra using a usual Beer-Lambert law. The used photo-reactor consist of a 200 mL flask irradiated from above by a 40 W UV lamp (254 nm)

and an aluminium foil covers the system to prevent UV radiations. Before any measurements, the solution was stirred for 30 min in the dark in presence of catalyst to ensure an appropriate adsorption/desorption equilibrium. To describe the photocatalytic kinetic at solid-liquid interface the Langmuir-Hinshelwood (LH) model was used [27],[75]. In such model, it is commonly admitted that the reaction products and intermediates are negligible and that the rate of reaction depends directly to the coverage surface of the catalytic site ( $\theta$ ). This model also allows to consider the relative adsorption on the surface oxide and the photodegradation rate  $v$  can be expressed as follow:

$$v = k_{ph}\theta \text{ with } \theta = \frac{K_{LH}C}{1+K_{LH}C} \quad (3)$$

Where  $k_{ph}$  is the kinetic constant of photodegradation,  $K_{LH}$  the adsorption constant which depends on the affinity between dye and catalyst and  $C$  the initial concentration of dye. For low adsorption and/or low concentration (i.e.  $K_{LH}C \ll 1$ ) the photodegradation rate become directly proportional to the dye concentration and can be expressed as follow:

$$v = k_{ph}K_{LH}C = k_{app}C \quad (4)$$

Where  $k_{app}$  is the apparent rate constant of the first order reaction and can be determine by the slope of the straight line when plotting  $\ln(C_0/C)$  vs  $t$ .

### 3. Results and discussions

#### 3.1. Structural characterizations

XRD patterns of obtained  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$  are shown in Figure 1.a. where we can observe that a 900 °C temperature is required to obtained a pure LTO phase. Under this temperature, we observe reflections peaks of the  $\text{LaTiO}_3$  phase. The presence of this phase can be explained by the combustion of glycine, which induces a significant production of reducing gas, promoting the formation of  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$ . All observed X-ray reflections were indexed with  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$



layered-perovskite structure with  $P2_1$  space group[38]. There is an evolution of the Full Width at Half Maximum (FWHM) that become narrow as the temperature increase, which is due to the coalescence of grains and the average crystallite size is calculated using Scherrer's relation[71,72] (Table 1).

We also know that  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$  is a n type semiconductor with a direct allowed transition, so we characterise the band gap of synthesized materials with UV-vis diffuse reflectance and using Tauc equation described in experimental part (Table 1). The optical band gap for LTO-AG synthesized between 800 and 1100°C are very close around 4 eV (Figure 1.b). The shallower slope observed for LTO-AG-800 probably indicates the level of defect states (Urbach tail induced by a disorder)[76] greater in the case of a lower annealing temperature.

The specific surface area ( $S_{\text{BET}}$ ) was calculated from adsorption isotherm by BET method and significantly decrease when the calcination temperature is lowered which confirm the coalescence of LTO grains and will have an antagonist effect impact on the photocatalytic efficiency. The average pore size was determined by BJH method and show an increase when temperature decrease due to coalescence of grain. Finally, we observe that the total pore volume (determined from the amount of nitrogen adsorbed at a relative pressure ( $P/P_0$ ) of 0.95 in order not to consider the inter-particles porosity) decrease with temperature highlighting a decrease in the number of pores. All those results are summarised in Table 1. In this one, an increase of crystallites size can be observed with temperature, when this size increases the specific surface area ( $S_{\text{BET}}$ ), the average pore size and the total porous volume decrease significantly. Note that the uncertainties compiled in table 1 were obtained from a standard deviation performed on a series of 3 independent measurements.

**Table 1.** Average crystallite size determined by XRD profile refinement, BET surface area, average pore size, total pore volume and optical band gap of the LTO-AG-X samples

Sample	Average crystallites size (nm)	S <sub>BET</sub> (m <sup>2</sup> .g <sup>-1</sup> )	Average pore size (nm)	Total porous Volume (cm <sup>3</sup> .g <sup>-1</sup> )	E <sub>g</sub> (eV)
LTO-AG-800	47 ± 4	10.6 ± 0.6	17 ± 0.85	4.8x10 <sup>-2</sup> ± 2.4x10 <sup>-3</sup>	3.95 ± 0.02
LTO-AG-900	53 ± 4	6.7 ± 0.4	11 ± 0.55	1.9x10 <sup>-2</sup> ± 1.0x10 <sup>-3</sup>	4.09 ± 0.02
LTO-AG-1000	70 ± 5	1.9 ± 0.2	7 ± 0.35	4.8x10 <sup>-3</sup> ± 2.4x10 <sup>-4</sup>	4.04 ± 0.02
LTO-AG-1100	85 ± 6	0.6 ± 0.1	4 ± 0.20	1.3x10 <sup>-3</sup> ± 6.5x10 <sup>-4</sup>	4.09 ± 0.02

The powder La<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> was studied by both TEM and SEM coupled with EDS analyses. SEM observations have shown a powder form the irregular agglomerates (Figure 2). Moreover, the observed lack of segregation clearly suggests the presence of chemically homogenous solution (Figure 2.b to 2.d) consistent with the identified La<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> phase what was confirmed by qualitative analysis EDS.

The morphology of La<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> (calcined at the temperature of 1000°C) grains with a corresponding electron diffraction pattern is presented in Figure 3. The grains have a diameter in the range 70-150 nm (Figure 3.a). The grain size observed in TEM is consistent with the crystallite size determined by XRD. The particle presented in Figure 3.b was identified as La<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> (monoclinic with *P2<sub>1</sub>* space group). Experimental selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern taken from this particle showed a solution for [211] zone axis (Figure 3.c).

### 3.2. Photocatalytic Activity

#### 3.2.1. Study on Rhodamine B

In order to quantify the efficiency of the photocatalyst, we carried out a study of the photodegradation of rhodamine B (C<sub>0</sub> = 4 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>) by following the kinetics by UV-Visible

spectrometer based on the maximum adsorption of the dye ( $\lambda = 654 \text{ nm}$ ) and by Total Organic Carbon (TOC) Analysis. For this, a dispersion of 100 mg of photocatalyst was made in 200 mL aqueous solution of rhodamine B. All LTO-AG-X samples were studied, and the one synthesized at  $1000^\circ\text{C}$  exhibited the best photocatalytic properties with  $k_{\text{app}} = 11.49 \times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$  (Figure 4.a) i.e. a photodegradation rate of  $50.1 \text{ } \mu\text{mol.g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}.\text{h}^{-1}$ . This sample will be considered for all others analysis. In the TOC analysis, we can observe that even if the discoloration of the solution is complete the mineralization step is not reach yet, because of the presence of degradation product of Rhodamine B. Thus, 90% of complete mineralization is obtained after 75 min (Figure 4.b).

In order to compare the photocatalytic efficiency between the synthetic routes (usual Sol-Gel (SG) method and Sol-Gel Assisted by Glycine (SG-AG)) with respect to the  $\text{TiO}_2$  P25 Degussa®, the apparent rate constants were determined. For the SG method, an apparent rate constant of  $1.79 \times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$  was obtained (figure 4.c), this rate increases strongly in the case of the SG-AG method at  $11.49 \times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$  (more than six times greater). For comparison, this  $k_{\text{app}}$  is almost twice as high as the  $\text{TiO}_2$  reference, whose value is  $6.16 \times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$ . This can be explained by the fact that the glycine has a surfactant role which allow a better dispersion of precursors in the gel and can react with the oxygen in air to create hot spots that leads to a massive gas release that limits the rise of temperature, avoid partial sintering of particles and generally allows to have a better specific surface area[77,78]. For the same calcination temperature of  $1000^\circ\text{C}$  we observed for the Sol-Gel synthesis a specific surface area of  $1 \text{ m}^2.\text{g}^{-1}$  [27] and for the assisted by glycine method a specific surface area which is nearly as double as the previous one (i.e.  $1.9 \text{ m}^2.\text{g}^{-1}$ ). In addition, we can note the total pore volume increases slightly from  $3.7 \times 10^{-3}$  to  $4.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^3.\text{g}^{-1}$  for the SG[27] and AG pathways (present work), respectively. The important difference is the drastic decrease in the average pore size from 36 nm to 7 nm for the SG and AG pathways, respectively. This increase in the number of pores

and the presence of straight channels may explain the increase in photocatalytic properties. B. Guo *et al.*[79] describes this behavior in mesoporous TiO<sub>2</sub> synthesized by sol-gel route using various surfactants.

Reaction intermediates have a negative role on the adsorption of the dye on the catalyst surface[80]. To study the influence of those intermediates two types of recyclability tests have been performed. In the first one, the solution was kept intact after a defined irradiation time (90 min) and Rhodamine B was then added to reach the same initial concentration before running another degradation test. In this one (Figure 4.d), we can observe a decrease of the percentage of discoloration at 90 min over 4 successive runs. In the second method particles were collected by centrifugation after 90 min and washed with water and ultrasounds without any thermic treatment. Then those particles were poured in a new batch with the same initial concentration of Rhodamine B and irradiate for another 90 min. For this second method, we can observe (Figure 4.d) that there is no decrease on the efficiency over 4 consecutive runs. We can conclude that the intermediate which are present in the solution before the mineralisation step can be adsorbed at the catalyst surface during photodegradation and reduce the efficiency of the catalyst on the dye degradation. It is also important to note that LTO-AG-X sample can be easily collected and removed from cleaned water by only centrifugation step, which means that this material can be recycled without complex treatment or procedure.

Initially, Rhodamine B was chosen as a model molecule in order to demonstrate the catalytic efficiency of the catalysts. Subsequently, phenol was chosen to continue our investigations given the fact that it is a toxic molecule present in many industrial wastewaters, the discharges of which are regulated. Indeed, this molecule is a very widespread pollutant in many industrial effluents from the petroleum[81], resin and paint fabrication[82,83], tannery[84] or even pharmaceutical industries[85]. For the drinking water, the World Health Organization advises a guideline concentration of phenol to 1 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> [86]. As the discharges are

regulated according to the standards of the countries, it is necessary to ensure the effluent before discharge into natural environments (general effluent discharge standard of phenol is 0.05 ppm[87]). The following paragraph aims to study the potential of the  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$  photocatalyst synthesized by glycine on the UV photodegradation of Phenol.

### *3.2.2. Study on Phenol*

#### *3.2.2.1. Influence of photocatalyst loading*

The photodegradation of phenol have been monitored by UV-visible spectroscopic method based on the maximum adsorption of the compound ( $\lambda = 270 \text{ nm}$ )[88]. In Figure 5.a, we can observe the evolution of the apparent rate constant for several photocatalyst loading (the initial concentration of phenol is fixed to  $50 \text{ mg.L}^{-1}$ ). First, we can note a linear increase in the efficiency with the catalyst loading which has already been observed on other catalyst such as ZnO and  $\text{TiO}_2$ [89] and is due to the increase of available photocatalytic sites. An optimal loading of  $0,5 \text{ g.L}^{-1}$  is obtained for the LTO-AG in the case of phenol degradation and the apparent rate constant corresponds to  $5.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  i.e. a photodegradation rate of  $47.0 \mu\text{mol.g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}.\text{h}^{-1}$ . For higher loading we can observe an exponential decrease in the photocatalytic efficiency which can be due to several phenomena such as an increase in the agglomeration of particles or a screening effect that does not allow the light flux to deeply penetrate the solution and reach all photocatalyst particles.

#### *3.2.2.2. Influence of irradiated surface*

It is commonly admitted that photocatalytic degradation is proportional to the luminous flux receive[90,91]. Thus, the kinetic of the reaction is modified according to the following equation[92] :

$$v = v' \phi^n \quad (5)$$

Where  $v'$  is the reaction rate independent of photon flux,  $\Phi$  is the light density and the exponent  $n$  has a value between 0 and 1. Indeed, this  $n$  value can change from 1 for low flux to reach a value of  $\frac{1}{2}$  when the flux increases and 0 when the saturation is reached. For low intensities, the reaction rate is directly proportional to the light intensity. The electron-hole pairs are consumed and participate mainly in the chemical surface reaction. Beyond a certain limit value of luminous intensity, the dependence is carried out in square root. This evolution of  $n$  exponent probably results in a limitation of the charge transfer and a higher rate of recombination of the electron-hole pairs. Additionally, at even higher light intensity, a stationary state is reached, and the reaction rate saturates.

Several tests have then been made by using photoreactor with different diameter and the same loading of catalyst and light flux penetration. A linear evolution of the apparent rate constant as a function of irradiated surface can be observed in Figure 5.b. This evolution gives us some information on the fact that the saturation phenomenon has not been reached yet. Furthermore, the linear evolution also indicates that the photoreaction takes place close to the surface of the photoreactor because it is directly proportional to this one, which can be explained by an absorption of UV radiations by the aqueous solvent.

### 3.2.2.3 Influence of pH

In photocatalytic processes, the pH could have an influence on the properties of semiconductor catalyst such as its charge surface or dissociation in the solution[93], but also on the species to be degraded and its adsorption[94]. The study on the zeta potential in LTO oxides have already been described in our previous work[27]. The Point of Zero Charge (PZC) is reached for a pH value of 8, under this pH lanthanum dititanate oxide particles are positively charged and above this they are negatively charged which would have an importance because

phenol can be observed under positively and negatively charged species depending on the pH of solution. Figure 5.c shows the influence of pH with and without catalyst on phenol.

This behavior is explained by the fact that phenol has two  $pK_a$  values which are:  $pK_{a1}(\text{PhOH}_2^+/\text{PhOH})=-6.4$  and  $pK_{a2}(\text{PhOH}/\text{PhO}^-)=9.95$  at  $25^\circ\text{C}$  [95]. Thus, for a pH greater than 9.95, the phenolate form is negatively charged. At  $\text{pH} = 12$ , as the surface of the photocatalyst is also negatively charged, the photocatalysis is disadvantaged. While at a pH below the PZC (i.e.  $\text{pH} = 8$ ), photocatalysis is more favored (hence the best efficiency is observed at  $\text{pH} = 5.2$  with  $k_{\text{app}} = 5.49 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$ ). For more acidic pH, the efficiency decreases because the phenol is naturally degraded; thus at  $\text{pH} = 2$  the degradation rates with and without photocatalyst are practically identical. This requirement of neutral condition has been already observed in literature for  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$  compounds[93,96,97].

#### 3.2.2.4 Comparison between $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$ and $\text{TiO}_2$

Figure 5.d shows the comparison of the degradation of phenol without catalyst and with catalyst  $\text{TiO}_2$  P25 Degussa® and synthesized  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$ . The influence of UV light alone on phenol can be observe with an apparent rate constant of  $1.78 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$ , for  $\text{TiO}_2$  this constant is about  $2.84 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  and for the AG method we obtained an apparent rate constant of  $5.49 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$ . This increase is similar as the one obtained on Rhodamine B and can be explained the same way. This similarity in the improvement of the photocatalytic properties seems to be independent of the nature of the species to be photodegraded showing that the material performance depends mainly upon microstructure, size, morphology of this oxide.

Some intermediates are still present in solution and can have a negative role on photodegradation In Figure 6, the variation of the total organic carbon can be observed. The half-time of the reaction is determined at 10 hours.

### 3.2.2.5 Influence of scavengers and photodegradation mechanism

During photocatalytic process various species are created such as holes and radicals[98–100]. In order to have a better understanding of which one have an influence on the photodegradation mechanism some tests have been made with scavenger species. Three species were used, the ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), the ascorbic acid and isopropanol to collect holes ( $h^+$ ), superoxide radicals ( $O_2^{\cdot-}$ ) and hydroxyl radicals ( $HO^{\cdot}$ ), respectively. In Figure 6 no change has been observed in the apparent rate constant with the use of isopropanol which means the hydroxyl radicals don't have a role in photocatalytic process, the use of EDTA and ascorbic acid imply a variation of the apparent constant that decrease drastically which indicate that holes and superoxide radicals have an important role on the mechanism of degradation for  $La_2Ti_2O_7$ . The important role of superoxide radicals has already been observed for LTO[99,100].

### 3.2.3 Sonophotocatalysis

In sonophotocatalytic processes both UV irradiation and ultrasounds are used to improve the efficiency of photodegradation. UV light coupled with the catalyst will create hole/electron pair that will be used to decompose pollutants. Ultrasonic waves will create cavitation bubbles, when those previous one collapse they produce important energy and heat that leads in the formation of free radicals issued from the water[101,102]. The used of ultrasonic wave also allow a better dispersion of catalyst that increase the active surface reachable by the species to be degraded[103]. In order to study the influence of sonophotocatalysis the photoreactor containing 200 mL of aqueous solution of phenol with  $0.5 \text{ g.L}^{-1}$  of catalyst has been placed in an ultrasonic bath (37 kHz) and result are shown in Figure 8.a. The apparent rate constant of photocatalysis (PC), sonocatalysis (SC) and



sonophotocatalysis (SPC) have been compared and are  $3.21 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$ ,  $5.74 \times 10^{-4} \text{ min}^{-1}$  and  $3.58 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  respectively. A small increase can be observed with the use of both ultrasound and UV irradiation, it's also important to note that the volume of solution can have a role on ultrasonic waves effect. Indeed, if the volume in reactor decrease, the intensity of ultrasound increase that could lead to an even better dispersion and desorption of product on catalyst. In order to study the influence of volume three test have been made with the exact same condition (catalyst loading, concentration of phenol, light flux, ...) and three different volume of 200, 100 and 50 mL. Figure 8.b shows this influence, and a better efficiency was obtained in sonophotocatalysis for a small volume with an apparent rate constant that goes from  $3.58 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  for 200 mL to  $6.43 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  for 50 mL.

#### **4. Conclusion**

$\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}$  nanoparticles were successfully synthesized by a new Sol-Gel coupled to glycine combustion route. These nanoparticles were characterized by XRD, BET, SEM, EDS and TEM and we found that a minimal calcination temperature of  $900^\circ\text{C}$  is required to obtain the pure  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$  phase. The size of these particles was determined by using Scherrer's formula. The increase of crystallite size and the decrease of surface area with temperature was pointed out. Photodegradation tests have been made on Rhodamine B and phenol and shows a better photocatalytic efficiency for LTO-AG nanopowders synthesized at  $1\ 000^\circ\text{C}$ . The experimental conditions such as catalyst loading and pH to obtain the better efficiency were determined. Total organic carbon measurements were carried out showing that there are intermediates present in solution before mineralisation step. We pointed out with recyclability tests that those intermediates have a counterproductive role on photodegradation. We investigate the role of radicals and holes produced on the mechanism of photodegradation with various scavenger's species and conclude that superoxide radicals and holes have the most

important role on the photodegradation. We also made sonophotocatalysis study and pointed out the influence of volume in the efficiency of ultrasound and the increase in sonophotocatalytic activity with the use of both ultrasound and UV irradiation.

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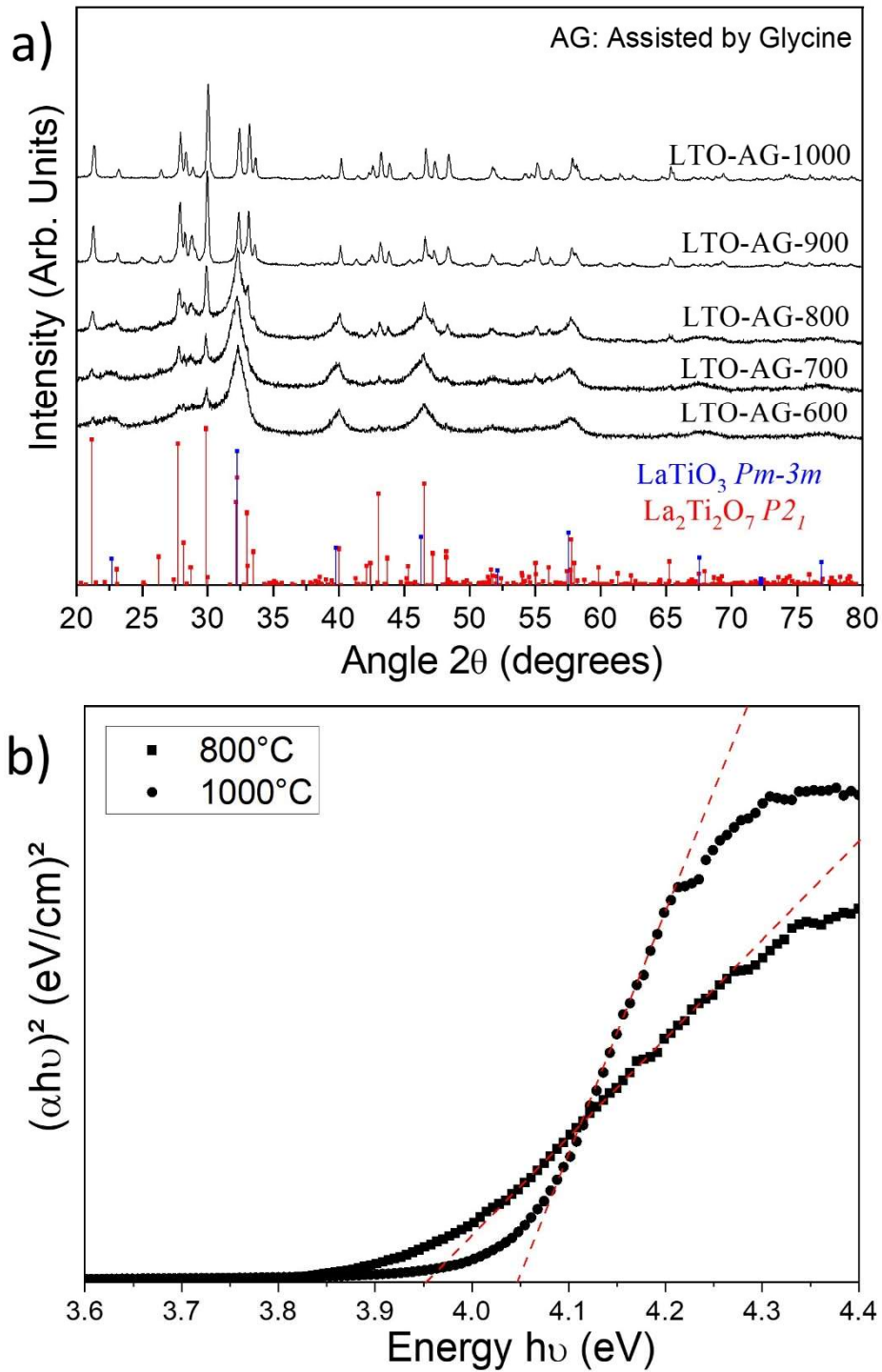
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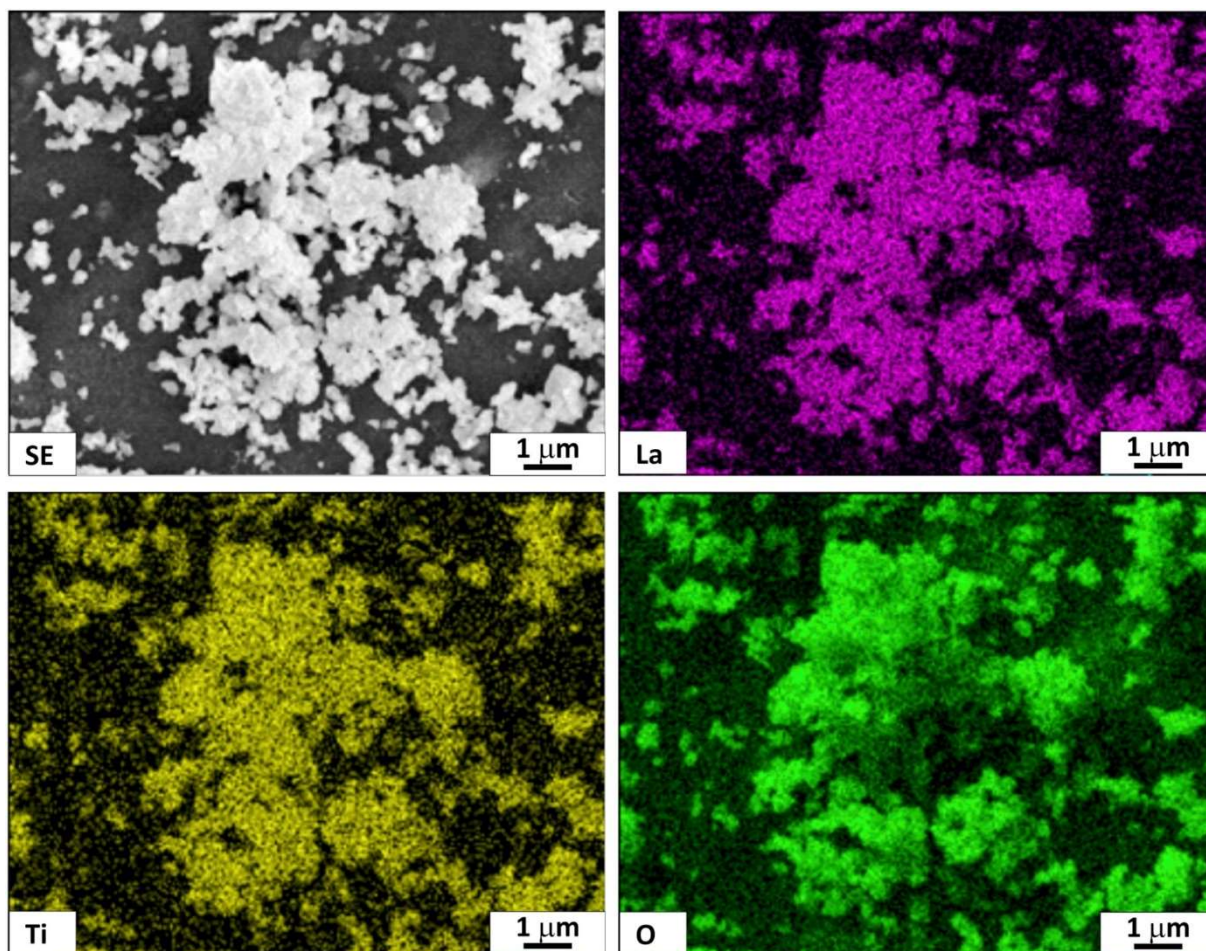
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## Figure captions:

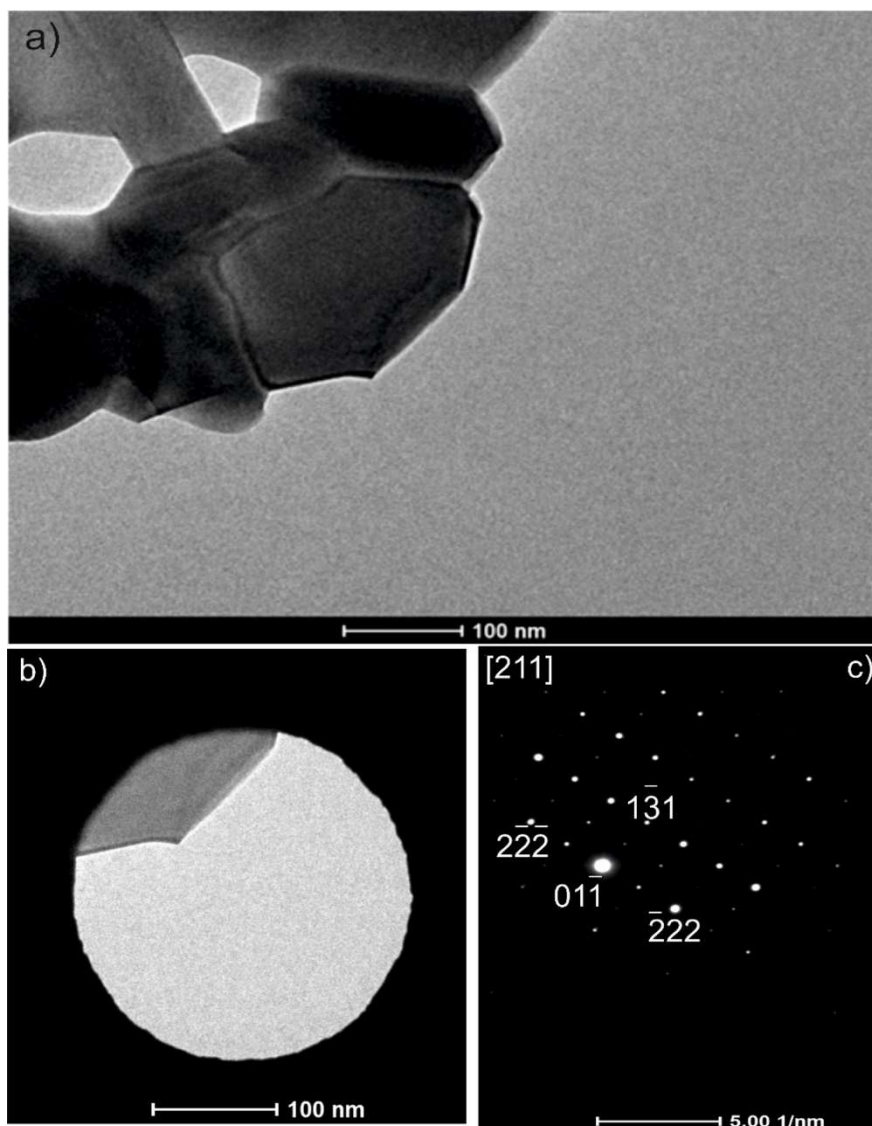


**Figure 1.**a) XRD patterns of LTO-AG obtained using different calcination temperature during synthesis and b) Tauc Plots of LTO-AG-800 and LTO-AG-1000.

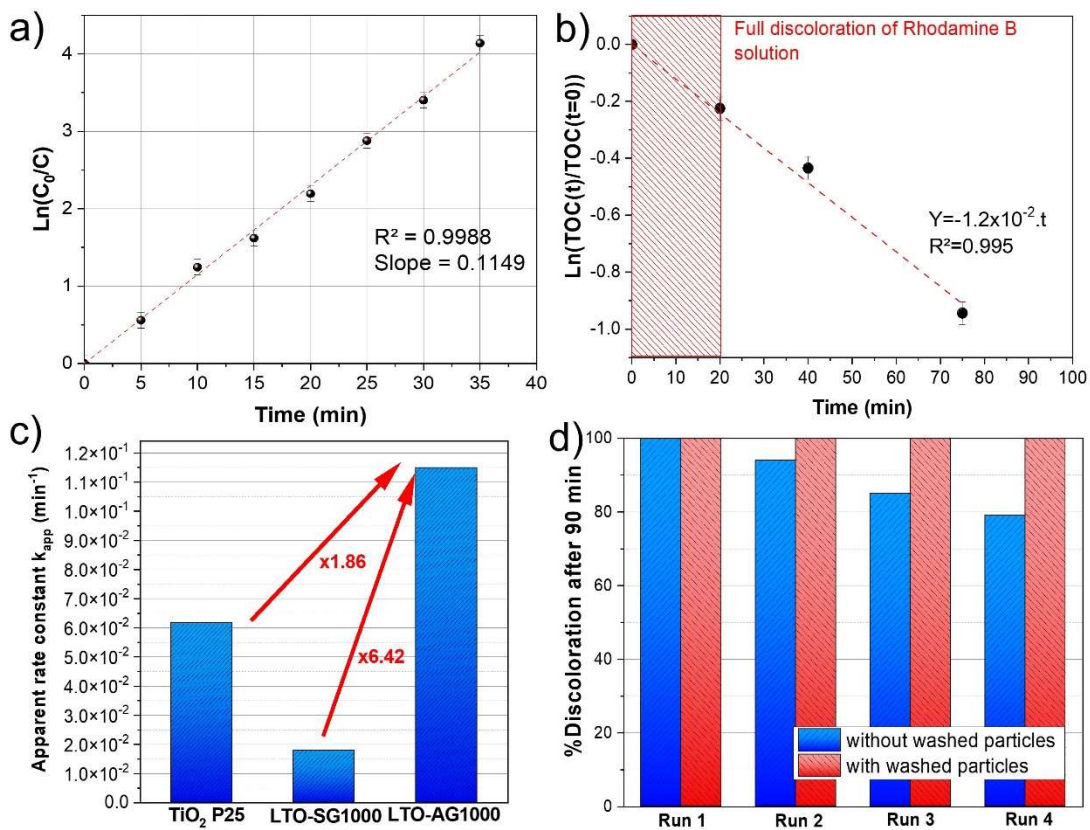




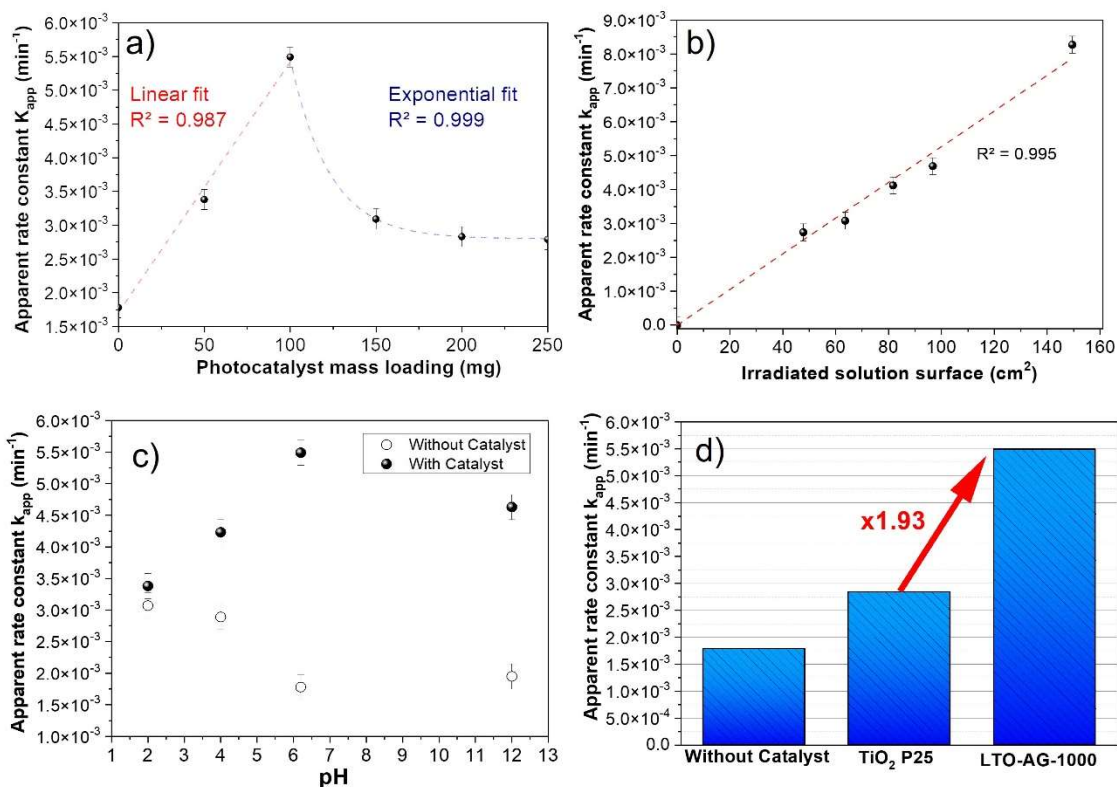
**Figure 2.** SEM image of  $\text{La}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$  powder with EDS elements distribution for La, Ti and O.



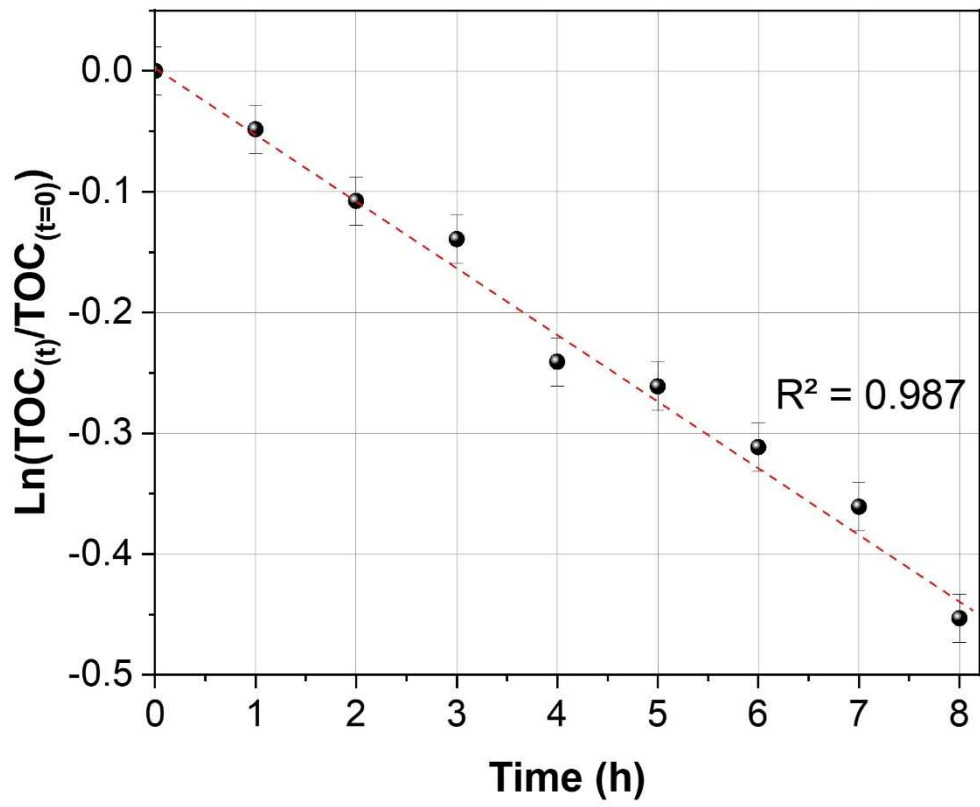
**Figure 3.** Microphotograph transmission electron microscopy a) particles of LTO-AG-1000 b) part of grain c) diffraction pattern with solution for [211] zone axis.



**Figure 4.** a) Example of  $\ln(C_0/C)$  vs Time plot to determine apparent rate constant for a sample of LTO-AG-1000 ; b) Total Organic Carbon analysis on the degradation of Rhodamine B with LTO-AG-1000 ; c) Photocatalytic efficiency of  $\text{TiO}_2$  P25, Sol-Gel and Assisted by glycine synthesis and d) Recyclability test of Rhodamine B with LTO-AG-1000 with the influence of intermediates of photodegradation.



**Figure 5.** a) Evolution of apparent rate constant as function of catalyst loading with LTO-AG-1000 ; b) Evolution of apparent rate constant as function of irradiated surface with LTO-AG-1000 ; c) Evolution of apparent rate constant as function of pH with LTO-AG-1000 and d) Comparison of apparent rate constant without and with catalyst TiO<sub>2</sub> P25 and LTO-AG-1000.



**Figure 6.** Total organic carbon analysis on the degradation of phenol with LTO-AG-1000.

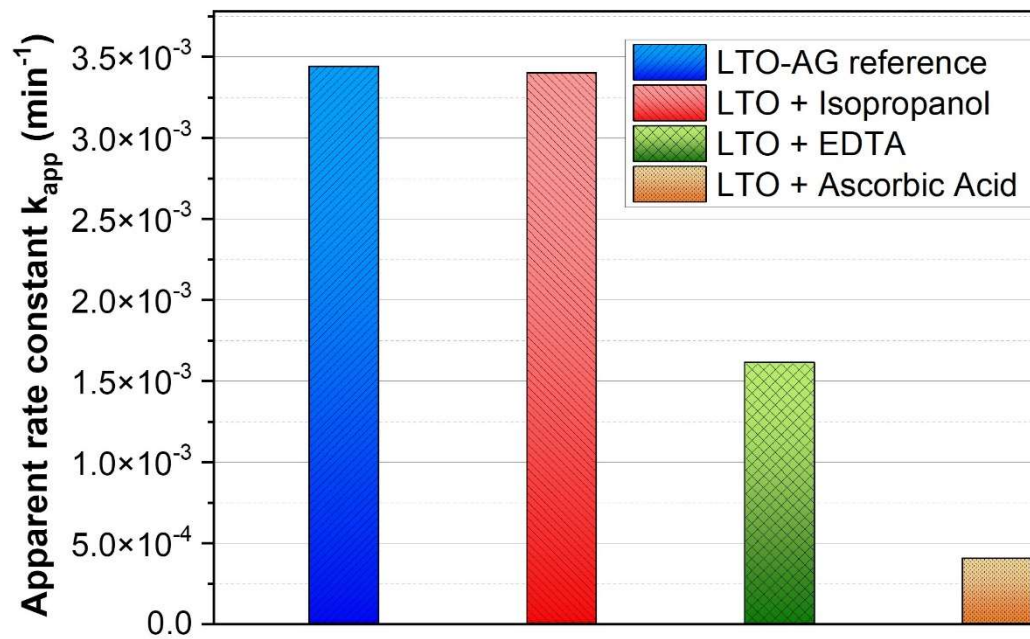
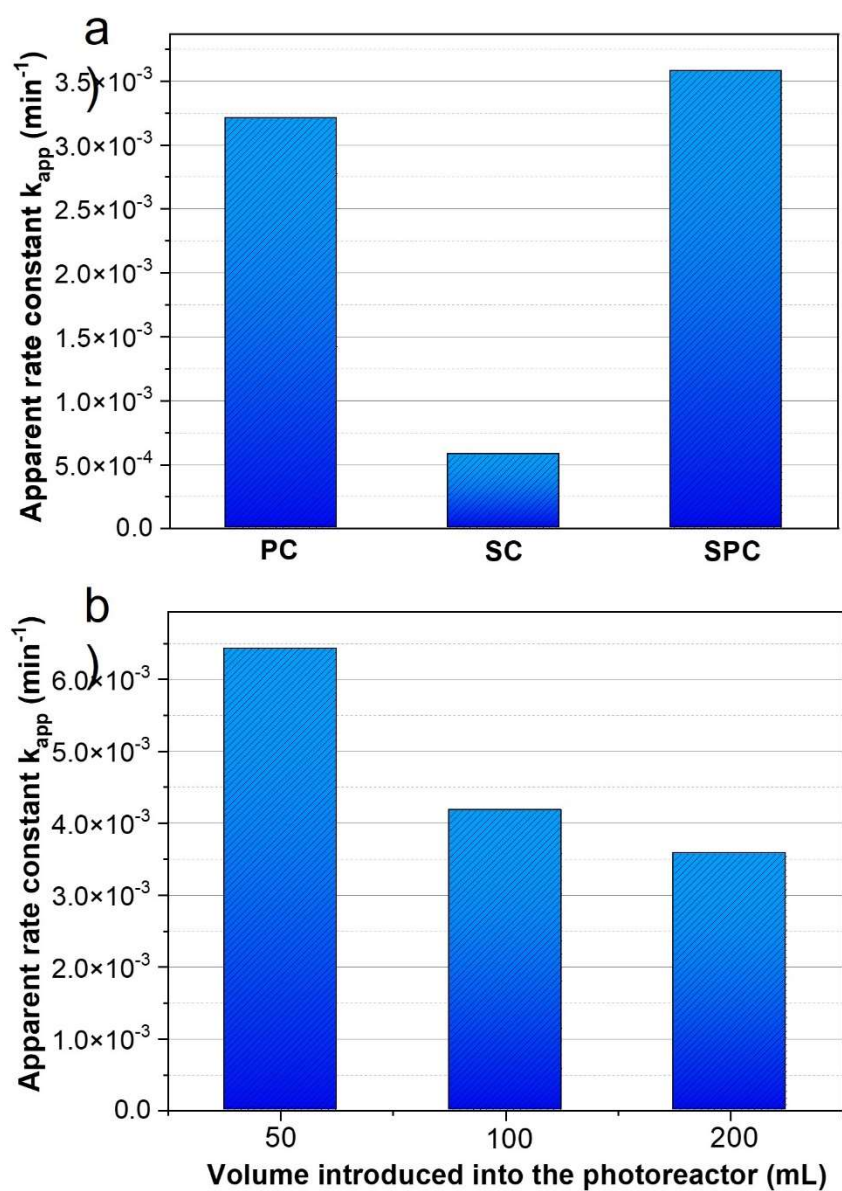


Figure 7. Influence of scavenger on the photocatalytic process with LTO-AG-1000.



**Figure 8.**a) Histograms obtained for three effects, PhotoCatalysis (PC), SonoCatalysis (SC) and SonoPhotoCatalysis (SPC) for LTO-AG-1000 ; b) Influence of the volume to be sonicated on the photocatalytic efficiency for LTO-AG-1000.