

Synthesis and Characterization of LaFeO₃@ZnS Core-Shell Nanocomposites as Photocatalyst for the Degradation of Methylene Blue Dye

REEJA GOPALAKRISHNAN NAIR¹

Department of Physics, Government College Malappuram, Munduparamba P.O., Malappuram-676509, India

Corresponding author: E-mail: reejagnair10@gmail.com

Received: 3 October 2024;

Accepted: 25 November 2024;

Published online: 31 December 2024;

AJC-21852

A two-step process involving hydrothermal and co-precipitation methods was used to synthesize core-shell nanoparticles of lanthanum ferrite @zinc sulphide (LaFeO₃@ZnS), which were then characterized. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns exhibiting distinct diffraction peaks corresponding to both LaFeO₃ and ZnS components confirmed the synthesis of the nanocomposite. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images confirmed that the nanocomposite exhibited a core-shell structure. The photoluminescence quenching in LaFeO₃@ZnS nanoparticles indicates a decrease in the recombination of photogenerated charge carriers. The photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue was assessed using LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nanoparticles, which showed a considerable improvement in efficiency compared to the pure LaFeO₃ and ZnS nanoparticles. This superior photocatalytic performance can be attributed to the synergistic interaction between the LaFeO₃ core and ZnS shell, which led to increased absorption of visible light by the photocatalyst and longer lifetimes of the photogenerated charge carriers without undergoing recombination.

Keywords: Photocatalysis, Core-shell nanostructures, Lanthanum ferrite, Zinc sulphide, Methylene blue dye, Degradation.

INTRODUCTION

Industrial dyes are the major effluents that significantly contribute to water pollution, posing severe health and environmental risks [1,2]. Most of the dyes are complex organic compounds, aromatic in nature, engineered to maintain their colour despite exposure to water, sweat, light, various oxidizing and reducing chemicals and microbial activity [3]. As a result, they are extensively used in various industries such as textiles, food, rubber, printing, cosmetics, medicine, plastics and paper, all of which benefit from their durability and vivid colours [4]. However, the substantial volumes of dyed wastewater generated, present considerable hazard to the entire ecosystem. The challenges of efficiently cleaning and controlling such wastewater is further complicated by the toxicity and permanence of certain dyes. Various physical, biological and chemical methods are used for dye degradation [5-8]. However, physical methods such as ion-exchange, membrane separation and adsorption are often less favoured due to limitations like pore blockage and membrane fouling, which restrict their applicability and effectiveness [4,9-11]. On the other hand, biological methods

using microbial and enzymatic techniques, though more environment friendly, tend to be less efficient due to their susceptibility to deactivation by various physical or chemical factors and the need for extended periods to achieve effective dye degradation [12-14]. Chemical wastewater treatment methods, including oxidation, electrolysis and coagulation-flocculation, are generally more efficient; however, these methods can produce toxic by-products and generate sludge with disposal issues [15-17]. Moreover, they face commercialization challenges such as high energy consumption, large chemical requirements and the need for specialized equipments. In this light, advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) such as ozonation, Fenton reaction, ultrasound and photocatalytic processes have evolved as efficient strategies for dye removal [18-20].

Among these AOPs, photocatalytic dye degradation has been developed as a sustainable and effective technology where a catalyst upon photon irradiation promotes the complete mineralization of the hazardous dye into non-toxic compounds [21]. The major requirement of this technique is to identify and develop an optimal photocatalyst which is non-reactive with biological and chemical substances, resistant to degradation

under light exposure, capable of utilizing visible or near-UV light, having increased catalytic active sites for the surface interface reactions, cost-effective, safe for human health and exhibiting high photocatalytic activity [22]. Till date, titanium dioxide (TiO_2) remains as the most extensively studied photocatalyst [23]. However, other metal oxides such as zinc oxide (ZnO), tungsten trioxide (WO_3), iron(III) oxide (Fe_2O_3), vanadium pentoxide (V_2O_5), silver oxide (Ag_2O), binary metal sulfide semiconductors like cadmium sulfide (CdS) and zinc sulfide (ZnS), perovskites like strontium titanate (SrTiO_3), bismuth ferrite (BiFeO_3) are also being investigated for their photocatalytic potential [24-26]. The effectiveness of these photocatalysts in processes like dye degradation is influenced by various physical properties, including particle size, shape, surface morphology, porosity, crystalline quality, specific surface area and the size of band gap [27,28]. However, weak absorption of visible light, rapid recombination of photogenerated charge carriers, poor surface/interface reactions and limited surface area continue to pose significant challenge that minimizes the quantum yield and restrict their viability for photocatalytic applications.

Nevertheless, in the recent years, there has been a notable rise in the development of specialized nanomaterials tailored for specific applications, with multifunctional capabilities, aimed to address the existing limitations and thereby improve the photocatalytic performance. Various approaches have been implemented for example, elemental doping that mainly alters the band-gap; cocatalyst loading that boosts the separation of photogenerated excitons and the morphological variation in enhancing the characteristics like specific surface area and light absorption [29-34]. Another suitable alternative is to couple different nanomaterials to form heterojunction nanocomposites [35,36]. Within the realm of nanocomposites, the core-shell nanostructure stands out as a distinct category, characterized by an arrangement in which the shell nanoparticle envelops the core nanoparticle. The main advantage of such nanostructures lies in their ability to merge the characteristics of both core and shell. This interaction facilitates the accurate adjustment of several features, such as porosity, crystallinity, specific surface area, charge carrier recombination time and band gap size [37].

Lanthanum ferrite is a visible light active, perovskite type material possessing a narrow bandgap of nearly 2 eV, making it a highly suitable photocatalyst for reactions initiated by visible light. Moreover, LaFeO_3 exhibits exceptional chemical and thermal stability, along with remarkable biocompatibility. However, fast recombination of excitons impedes its photocatalytic efficiency [38,39]. The shell nanoparticle, ZnS is a highly promising, non-toxic, earth abundant and cost effective photocatalyst with potential for considerable photocatalytic activity, particularly, in the degradation of organic pollutants and water purification. However, its broad band gap that reduces its responsiveness to visible light challenges its catalytic performance [40]. In the current study, a novel lanthanum ferrite @zinc sulphide ($\text{LaFeO}_3@ZnS$) core-shell nanostructure was synthesized *via* a two-step process (hydrothermal method for core and co-precipitation technique for shell fabrication) and also investigated the structural, morphological, microstructural, optical and photoluminescence properties of $\text{LaFeO}_3@ZnS$ core

shell nanoparticles. The photocatalytic degradation efficiency of the synthesized nanocomposite for methylene blue (MB) dye was also investigated.

EXPERIMENTAL

The analytical grade reagents used in this work were ferric nitrate nonahydrate ($\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 98%; Fisher Scientific), lanthanum nitrate hexahydrate ($\text{La}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 99.9%; Alfa Aesar), citric acid ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_8\text{O}_7$, 99.5%; Spectrochem), ethanol (99%; Hyman), zinc nitrate hexahydrate ($\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 98%; Qualigens) and sodium sulphide (Na_2S , 98%; Fischer Scientific). Deionized water was used for the synthesis and photocatalytic experiments.

Synthesis of pristine LaFeO_3 nanoparticles: The LaFeO_3 nanoparticles (core) were synthesized by following a hydrothermal method [41]. Briefly, a 1:1 molar ratio of $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{La}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ were dissolved in ethanol-water mixture (1:1) volume ratio, to which citric acid (5 mL) was added slowly and stirred continuously for 30 min. An 80 mL Teflon lined autoclave was filled with the resultant mixture and kept at 180 °C for 24 h. Once the reaction was completed, the autoclave was allowed to cool to room temperature. The resulting solid product was then collected, washed twice with absolute ethanol followed by distilled water and then, dried in a vacuum oven at 60 °C for 12 h.

Synthesis of $\text{LaFeO}_3@ZnS$ and pristine ZnS nanoparticles: The ZnS shell nanostructure was synthesized following co-precipitation technique [42]. A specified amount of as-synthesized LaFeO_3 was sonicated in 100 mL of deionized water for 1 h. Following this, 10 mL of one molar each Na_2S and $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ were introduced dropwise to the dispersion, sequentially, and the mixture was stirred for 3 h. The resulting precipitate was washed several times with deionized water followed by ethanol and dried at 120 °C. Pristine ZnS was also synthesized following the same route without adding LaFeO_3 powder.

Photocatalytic experiment: The photocatalyst nanocomposite (50 mg) were added to 100 mL of methylene blue (MB) solution at a concentration of 3 ppm. A 300 W xenon arc lamp was served as the light source. To establish the adsorption-desorption equilibrium, the dye solution containing the photocatalyst was stirred in the dark for 30 min. Subsequently, the sample was irradiated with UV-visible light from the Xe-Arc lamp while being magnetically stirred. At the intervals of 15 min, 4 mL samples were collected, centrifuged and the supernatant was analyzed. The change in MB concentration resulting from the photocatalytic activity of the nanocomposite was assessed by measuring the absorbance at 640 nm using a UV-Vis spectrometer.

Characterization: The structural and crystallographic characterization of LaFeO_3 , ZnS and $\text{LaFeO}_3@ZnS$ core-shell samples were carried out with an X-ray diffractometer (Rigaku 600) using a $\text{CuK}\alpha$ source ($\lambda = 1.542 \text{ \AA}$). The morphology of $\text{LaFeO}_3@ZnS$ core-shell nanostructures were examined using a scanning electron microscope (ZEISS GEMINI SEM 300) operating at 20 kV. The microstructure of the core-shell samples was analyzed employing transmission electron microscope

(TEM) (JEOL Japan, JEM-2100 Plus) operating at 200 kV. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images and selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns were also collected to investigate the *d*-spacing and crystallinity of the sample. The optical absorption spectrum of the powder samples was collected using an integrating-sphere equipped Diffuse reflectance spectrophotometer (JASCO V-750 spectrometer) where BaSO₄ served as the reference material. To assess the photocatalytic dye degradation, ultraviolet-visible (UV-Vis) spectroscopy of the samples was also conducted with a Jasco V-750 spectrometer. Photoluminescence (PL) analysis was performed using Perkin-Elmer LS-55 spectrofluorimeter.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Structural studies: Fig. 1. displays the X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns for pristine LaFeO₃ and ZnS, along with the LaFeO₃@ZnS nanocomposite. The XRD patterns of the synthesized LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nanoparticles exhibit two sets of peaks, corresponding to LaFeO₃ core and ZnS shell. The strong and well-defined diffraction peaks observed at 2θ values of 26.5°, 30.7°, 43.9°, 52.0°, 70.4° and 72.6° are associated with the (101), (121), (220), (202), (230) and (141) planes of LaFeO₃ core in the orthorhombic phase. The peaks at 2θ values of 28.9°, 48.1° and 57.1° correspond to the (111), (220) and (311) planes of ZnS in its cubic phase. These reflections align with the standard powder diffraction patterns of LaFeO₃ and ZnS, as indicated by the ICDD data (ICDD- 00-037-1493 for LaFeO₃ and ICDD-00-005-0566 for ZnS). The prominent peaks observed in the XRD pattern of LaFeO₃@ZnS nanocomposite correspond to those of both LaFeO₃ and ZnS, further confirming the presence of both phases. The broadening of the diffraction peaks in the XRD patterns suggests that the size of nanoparticles are in the nanoscale range. The average crystalline sizes of LaFeO₃ and ZnS nanoparticles were determined from Scherrer's

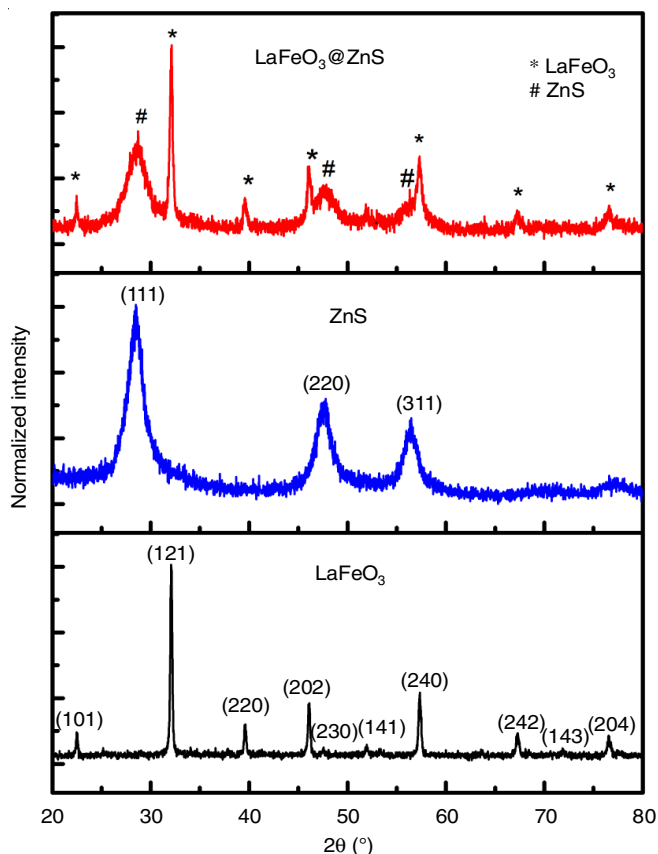


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of the LaFeO₃@ZnS, ZnS and LaFeO₃ samples

formula and found to be 27.17 nm and 4.91 nm, respectively [43]. However, due to the mixed phases of LaFeO₃ and ZnS, it is not feasible to determine the average crystalline size of the LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nanoparticles.

Morphological studies: Fig. 2 presents the images of the LaFeO₃ nanoparticles and LaFeO₃@ZnS photocatalyst, reve-

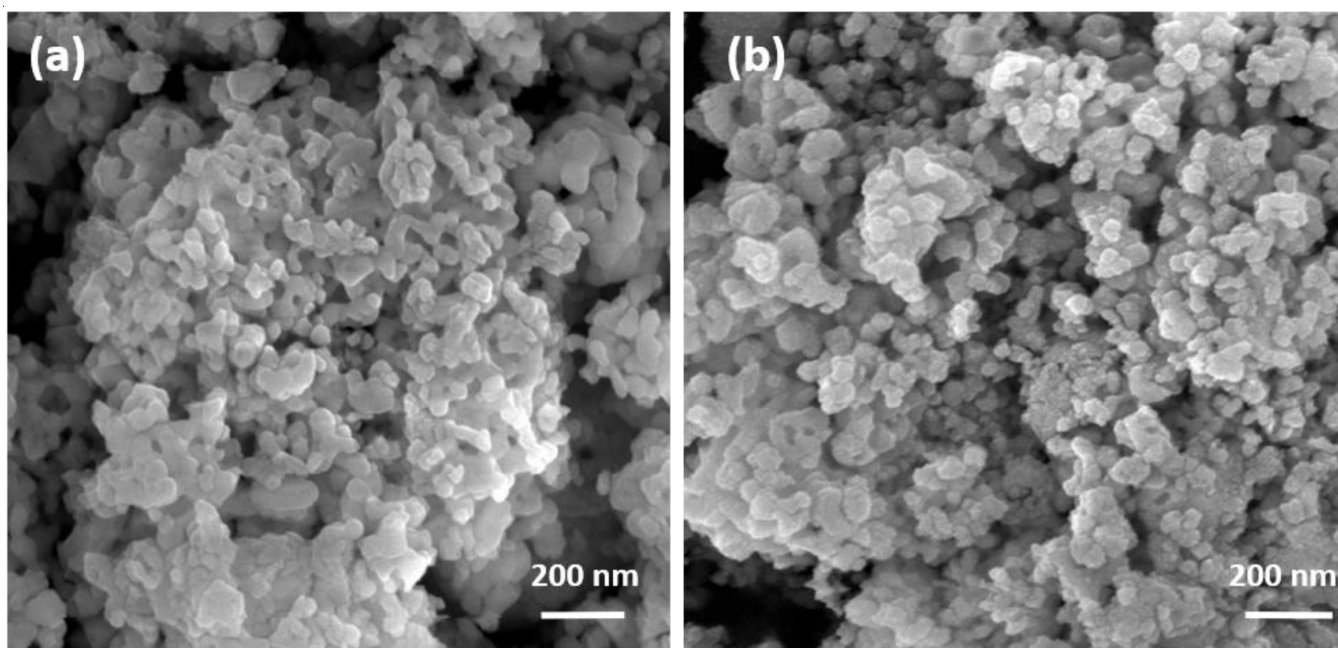


Fig. 2. SEM images of (a) LaFeO₃ core (b) LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nanoparticles

along the surface morphology through scanning electron microscopy. In Fig. 2a, pristine LaFeO_3 nanoparticles display irregular structures with particle sizes in the range of a few hundred nanometers. In contrast in Fig. 2b, the nanocomposite shows slightly larger particles and a rough surface texture. The increased roughness of the nanocomposite is likely attributable to the encapsulation of ZnS nanoparticles onto the LaFeO_3 surface.

Microstructural studies: The microstructural analysis of the as-prepared samples were performed by TEM and HRTEM techniques. The TEM and HRTEM images of $\text{LaFeO}_3@ZnS$ nanoparticles are shown in Fig. 3. The interface between LaFeO_3 core and ZnS shell is well distinguishable. The TEM images of $\text{LaFeO}_3@ZnS$ nanoparticles (Fig. 3a-b) exhibit irregular shaped particles in which LaFeO_3 particles with sizes in the range of a 100 nm are surrounded by ZnS nanoparticles with particles size less than 10 nm, suggesting the formation of $\text{LaFeO}_3@ZnS$

core-shell nanoparticles. Fig. 3c shows the HRTEM image of $\text{LaFeO}_3@ZnS$ core-shell nanoparticles, which displays the lattice fringes of both LaFeO_3 and ZnS nanoparticles, with d -spacings of 0.258 nm and 0.311 nm, corresponding to the (121) and (111) lattice planes, respectively. The SAED spectra as shown in Fig. 3d, exhibits random spots which clearly reveals the polycrystalline nature of the particles. From the SAED pattern of $\text{LaFeO}_3@ZnS$ core-shell NPs, the presence of (101), (121), (220), (202) and (240) planes of LaFeO_3 and (111) and (220) planes of ZnS are confirmed [44]. This indicates that the LaFeO_3 nanoparticles are closely interconnected with the ZnS nanoparticles. This intimate contact due to the establishment of a heterojunction, presumably, facilitate the transfer of photo-generated electrons and holes between LaFeO_3 and ZnS. As a result of this interaction, recombination is reduced, thereby improving the photocatalytic activity [45,46].

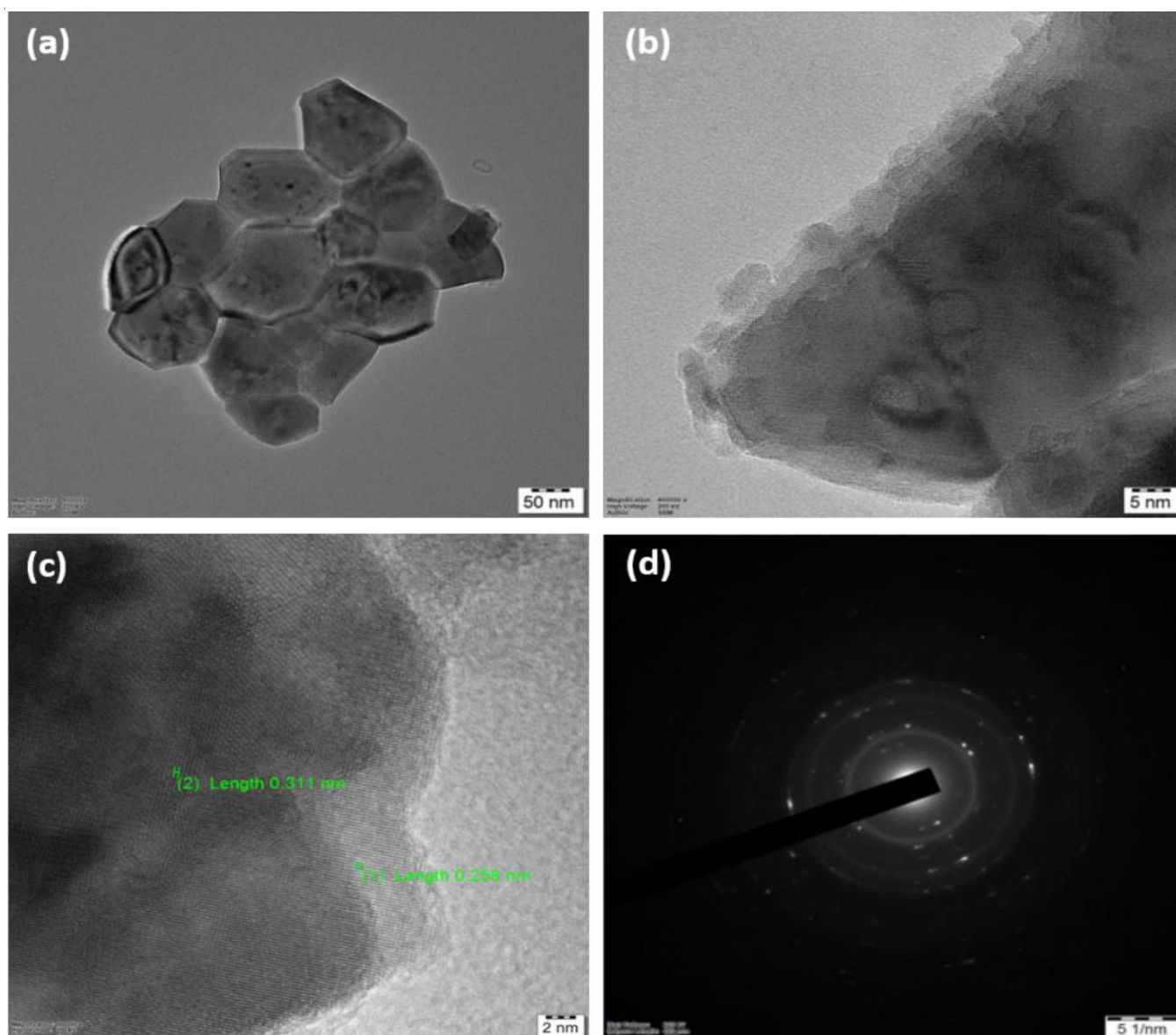


Fig. 3. TEM images of (a) and (b) $\text{LaFeO}_3@ZnS$ core-shell nanoparticles revealing the encapsulation of the ZnS nanoparticles around the LaFeO_3 core (c) HRTEM image showing the d -spacings in the $\text{LaFeO}_3@ZnS$ core-shell nanocomposite (d) SAED pattern of the $\text{LaFeO}_3@ZnS$ core-shell nanocomposite

Elemental composition studies: The EDX analysis of synthesized LaFeO₃@ZnS nanocomposite revealed that all the elements, La, Fe and O belonging to the LaFeO₃ core and Zn and S present in the ZnS shell exist in LaFeO₃@ZnS nanoparticles (Fig. 4).

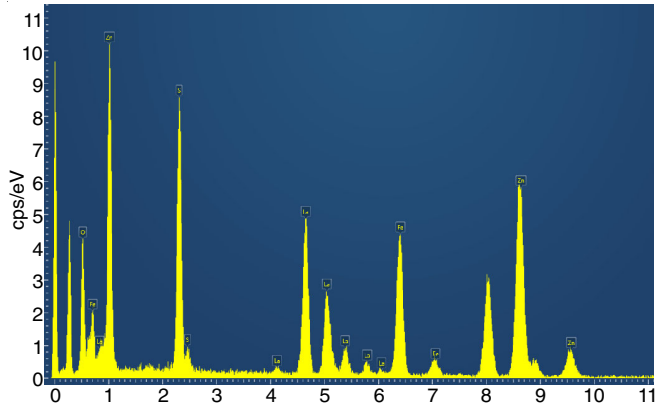


Fig. 4. TEM-EDX image of LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nanoparticles

Optical studies: The UV-visible absorption spectrum of the synthesized samples is presented in Fig. 5. Bare ZnS nanoparticles demonstrate absorption mainly in the UV spectrum with a threshold near 350 nm. In contrast, LaFeO₃ nanoparticles display a broader absorption range, extending into both the UV and visible regions. The encapsulation of LaFeO₃ nanoparticles by ZnS nanoparticles significantly enhances the absorption across the UV and visible spectrum, as evidenced by the UV-visible absorption data. Furthermore, FESEM analysis revealed a marked increase in surface roughness in the core-shell nanoparticles, which also likely contributed to the modified light absorption properties observed in the nanocomposite [47].

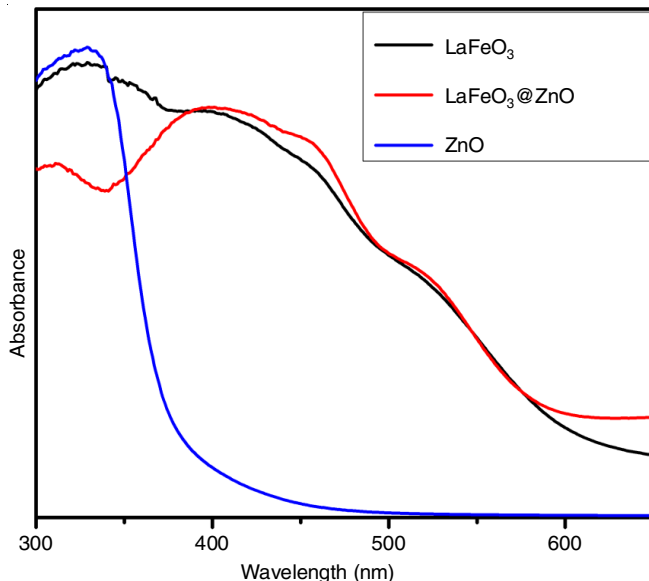


Fig. 5. UV-visible absorption spectrum of LaFeO₃, ZnS and LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nanocomposite

The band gap energy of the as-synthesized photocatalysts was determined using the Kubelka-Munk equation:

$$(F(R)hv)^n = k(hv - E_g)$$

where $F(R)$ represents the Kubelka-Munk function as an approximation of the absorption coefficient and this is obtained from diffuse reflectance data, hv is the photon energy, E_g is the band gap energy of the sample and k is a proportionality constant [48]. In this equation, n is a constant that depends on the type of electronic transition thus for this study, $n = 2$ is adopted, indicating direct transitions. The band gap energy of the synthesized nanocomposite was estimated by extrapolating the linear portion of the $[F(R)hv]^2$ versus hv graph plot (Fig. 6). The estimated band gaps of ZnS and LaFeO₃ were 3.37 eV and 2.08 eV, respectively, with ZnS absorbing UV light and LaFeO₃ absorbing visible light, as observed in the UV-visible absorption spectrum. Thus, the optical band gap of LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nanostructure was found to be 2.25 eV, indicating successful formation of the core-shell structure, which effectively modifies the electronic structure and alters the optical properties of the material.

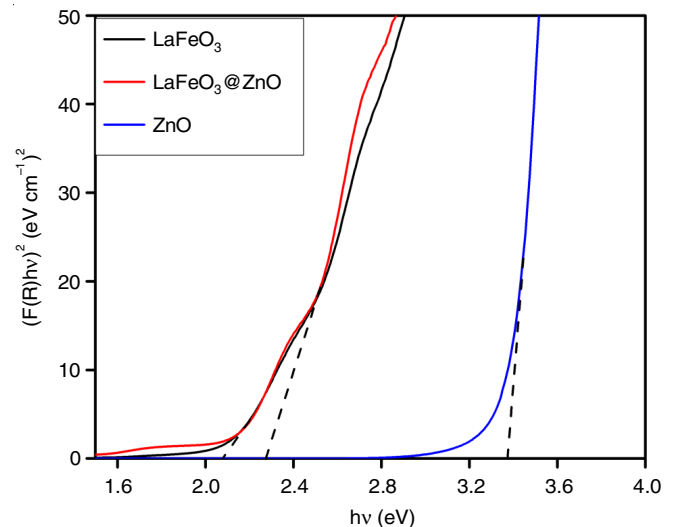


Fig. 6. The plot of $(F(R)hv)^2$ versus hv of LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nanostructure, LaFeO₃ and ZnS nanoparticles

Photoluminescence (PL) studies: To examine the migration of photogenerated electron-hole pairs between the two semiconductors, the photoluminescence (PL) spectra of bare ZnS, LaFeO₃ and LaFeO₃@ZnS using a 200 nm excitation wavelength at room temperature was analyzed (Fig. 7). The PL emission in ZnS nanomaterials originates from intrinsic defects such as sulfur vacancies, zinc vacancies and interstitials. The characteristic broadband emission between 410-470 nm (blue emission) is linked to the surface states of zinc sulfide, while electron transfer involving sulfur vacancies contributes to green emissions in the 500-550 nm range [49]. LaFeO₃ exhibits PL emission bands across the visible, with peaks at 412, 459, 488 and 529 nm, corresponding to transitions between defect states like oxygen vacancies and Fe³⁺ ions, as well as between the conduction and valence bands [39,50]. Remarkably, the PL intensity of LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nanostructure is significantly lower than that of both the LaFeO₃ core and ZnS shell materials. This reduced intensity is primarily due to suppressed

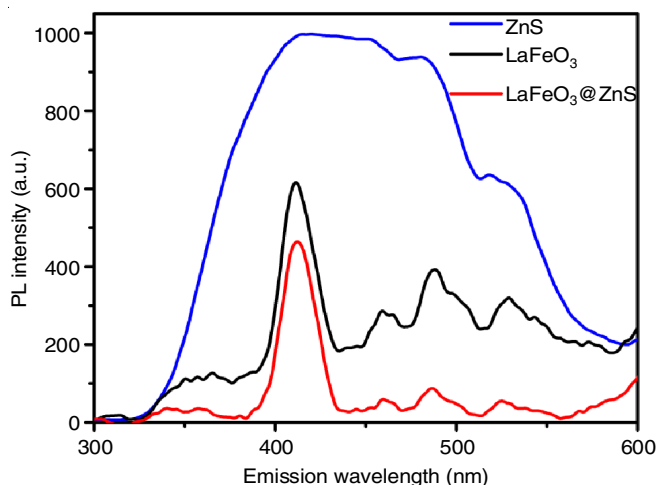


Fig. 7. PL spectra of synthesized LaFeO₃, ZnS and LaFeO₃@ZnS samples

recombination processes, as the core-shell heterojunction facilitates the lengthening of the lifetimes of photogenerated electron-hole pairs between LaFeO₃ and ZnS, enhancing their availability for photocatalytic activity [51]. Consequently, under visible light irradiation, the retention of photogenerated electron-hole pairs in LaFeO₃@ZnS nanoparticles is improved, leading to greater availability for photocatalytic degradation. This lower PL intensity explains the superior photocatalytic performance of the LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nanomaterial compared to other nanomaterials.

Photocatalytic activity: The photocatalytic performance of the synthesized nanostructures was evaluated by degrading methylene blue (MB) dye under UV-visible light irradiation. In this study, the simulated sunlight from a 300W Xe-Arc lamp was used and the initial concentration of MB dye was 3 ppm. The photocatalytic experiments were conducted at the natural pH of MB dye solution, under ambient temperature and pressure conditions. The degradation of MB solution was monitored using its UV-visible absorption spectrum. The UV-visible spectra of MB solution was obtained at different time intervals during the photocatalytic degradation process (Fig. 8).

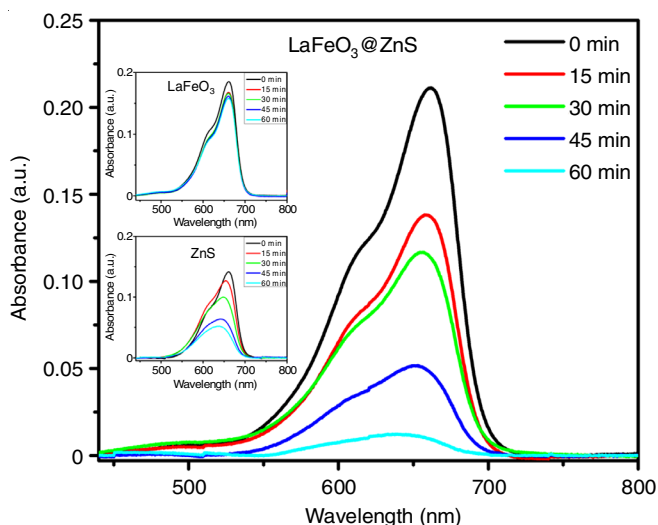


Fig. 8. UV-visible spectrum of MB dye during photocatalytic degradation in the presence of LaFeO₃@ZnS, LaFeO₃ and ZnS nanoparticles

The time-dependent degradation of MB dye in the presence of ZnS, LaFeO₃ and LaFeO₃@ZnS photocatalysts is shown in Fig. 9. Only 15% degradation was observed with the LaFeO₃ photocatalyst, while 63% degradation occurred with ZnS after 60 min of light irradiation. However, the LaFeO₃@ZnS photocatalyst achieved 100% degradation within the same time, demonstrating its superior photocatalytic activity compared to the bare ZnS and LaFeO₃ nanomaterials. This enhanced performance of the core-shell nanostructure can be attributed to its surface heterogeneity, optimal bandgap and efficient charge carrier transport within the core-shell structure.

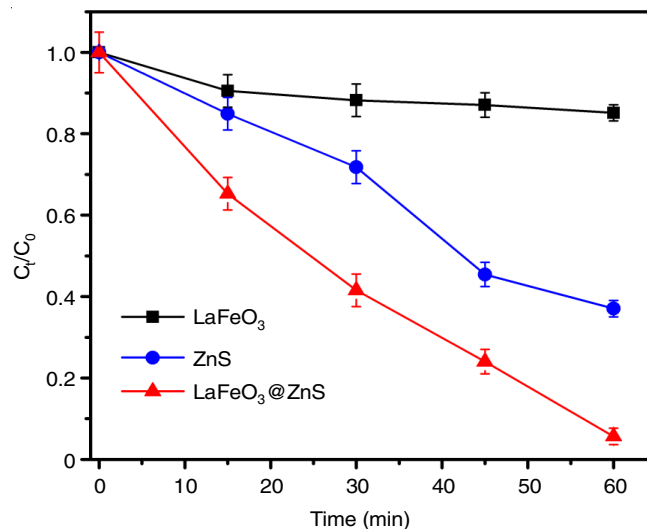


Fig. 9. The time dependent photocatalytic degradation of MB in presence of LaFeO₃, ZnS and LaFeO₃@ZnS photocatalysts

To understand the photocatalytic processes, the kinetic catalytic degradation of MB solution was analyzed using the Langmuir-Hinshelwood model [52,53], which is represented as follows:

$$-\frac{dC}{dt} = \frac{kKC}{1 + KC_0} \quad (2)$$

where k and K are the constants of reaction rate ($\text{mg L}^{-1} \text{min}^{-1}$) and adsorption equilibrium (L mg^{-1}), respectively. In highly diluted solution of dye, the term ' KC_0 ' becomes less than 1, $KC_0 \ll 1 \rightarrow 1 + KC_0 \approx 1$. Then, eqn. 2 can be rewritten as follows:

$$-\frac{dC}{dt} = kKC \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{dC}{dt} = k_{\text{app}}C$$

Considering $k_{\text{app}} \approx kK$ as the apparent rate constant of the reaction, the above equation representing the pseudo-first order reaction kinetics as $C_t = C_0 e^{-k_{\text{app}}t}$ [54]. Thus, the apparent rate constant of the reaction k_{app} can be obtained by estimating the slope of linear fit of $\ln(C_0/C_t)$ versus time (t) (Fig. 10). The half-life of the photocatalytic reaction can be calculated using the equation $T_{1/2} = \ln 2/k$, where k is the reaction rate constant [55]. The estimated values of the rate constant and the corresponding half-life for the photocatalytic reactions are presented in Table-1.

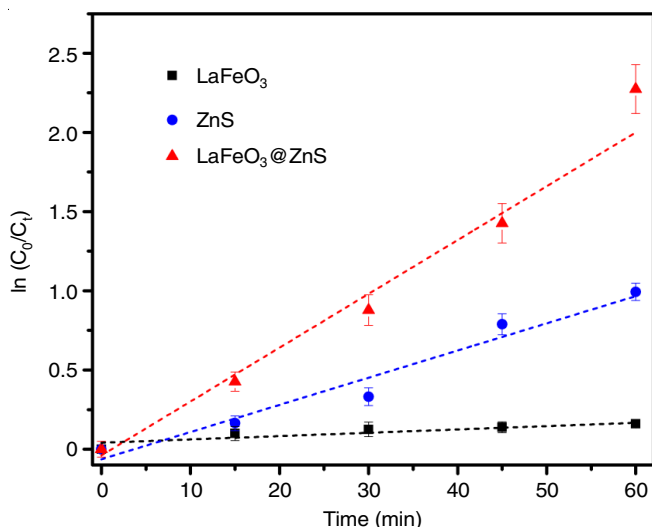


Fig. 10. The linear fit of the pseudo-first-order kinetic reaction. All the photocatalytic reactions show a good fit to this model

TABLE-1
THE RATE CONSTANT AND HALF-LIFE
VALUES OF THE PHOTOCATALYTIC REACTIONS

Photocatalyst	Rate constant ($\times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$)	Half-life of the reaction ($\times 10^2 \text{ min}$)
ZnS	1.71 ± 0.18	0.40 ± 0.10
LaFeO ₃	0.21 ± 0.01	3.30 ± 0.04
LaFeO ₃ @ZnS	3.39 ± 0.27	0.20 ± 0.07

The reaction rate constants reveal that the photocatalytic reaction using LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nano-structure is approximately 16 times faster than with bare LaFeO₃ and about twice as fast as with bare ZnS. Similarly, half of MB dye molecules degrade after 20 min of light irradiation with LaFeO₃@ZnS, compared to 40 min with ZnS and 330 min with LaFeO₃. Thus, it can be concluded that the core-shell nanostructure offers an efficient and superior photocatalytic activity towards the degradation of MB dye. Thus, the enhanced photocatalytic activity of LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nanocomposite when compared to bare LaFeO₃ and ZnS nanoparticles can be due to its surface inhomogeneity, good visible light sensitivity and *in situ* heterojunction formation resulting in an internal electric field, preventing the charge carrier recombination.

Conclusion

In this study, LaFeO₃ nanoparticles were synthesized using a hydrothermal method and subsequently combined with ZnS nanoparticles to develop a novel LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nanocomposite through a co-precipitation technique. The formation of the nanocomposite was confirmed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) and energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX). The TEM images demonstrated the core-shell structure of the synthesized composite, while SEM images indicated that the LaFeO₃@ZnS core-shell nanocomposite exhibits surface roughness. The core shell photocatalyst was found to be active under visible light, with a bandgap of 2.25 eV, as determined from the Tauc plot. The observed photoluminescence quenching in LaFeO₃@ZnS nanoparticles suggests a reduction in the recombination of photogenerated charge carriers. Compared to the individual

LaFeO₃ and ZnS nanoparticles, LaFeO₃@ZnS nanocomposite as photocatalyst displayed enhanced photodegradation of methylene blue (MB), achieving 100% removal of 3 ppm MB after 60 min of photoreaction. Factors contributing to this improved photocatalytic performance include surface heterogeneity, a broad absorption range extending into the visible and UV regions and the formation of an internal electric field which promotes the electron-hole separation. Moreover, the non-toxic and abundantly available nature of the LaFeO₃ core and ZnS shell materials suggests potential for the scalability of this photocatalyst for water remediation.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this article.

REFERENCES

- A.M.S. Jorge, K.K. Athira, M.B. Alves, R.L. Gardas and J.F.B. Pereira, *J. Water Process Eng.*, **55**, 104125 (2023); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwpe.2023.104125>
- D.A. Yaseen and M. Scholz, *Int. J. Environ. Sci. Technol.*, **16**, 1193 (2019); <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13762-018-2130-z>
- S. Suresh, *Curr. Environ. Eng.*, **1**, 162 (2015); <https://doi.org/10.2174/22127178016666141021235246>
- A.M. Subhi, J.A. Al-Najar and W.A.H. Noori, *Glob. NEST J.*, **24**, 451 (2022); <https://doi.org/10.30955/gnj.004325>
- M. Tripathi, S. Singh, S. Pathak, J. Kasaudhan, A. Mishra, S. Bala, D. Garg, R. Singh, P. Singh, P.K. Singh, A.K. Shukla and N. Pathak, *Toxics*, **11**, 940 (2023); <https://doi.org/10.3390/toxics11110940>
- C. Kathing and G. Saini, *Recent Progr. Mater.*, **4**(4), 1 (2022); <https://doi.org/10.21926/rpm.2204028>
- P. Ahuja, S.K. Ujjain, R. Kanojia and P. Attri, *J. Compos. Sci.*, **5**, 82 (2021); <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcs5030082>
- D. Bhatia, N.R. Sharma, J. Singh and R.S. Kanwar, *Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol.*, **47**, 1836 (2017); <https://doi.org/10.1080/10643389.2017.1393263>
- G.E. Üstün, S.K.A. Solmaz and A. Birgül, *Resour. Conserv. Recycling*, **52**, 425 (2007); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2007.05.006>
- C.H. Liu, J.S. Wu, H.C. Chiu, S.Y. Suen and K.H. Chu, *Water Res.*, **41**, 1491 (2007); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2007.01.023>
- M.T. Yagub, T.K. Sen, S. Afroze and H.M. Ang, *Adv. Colloid Interface Sci.*, **209**, 172 (2014); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cis.2014.04.002>
- E. Khelifi, H. Bouallagui, Y. Touhami, J.J. Godon and M. Hamdi, *Desalination Water Treat.*, **2**, 310 (2009); <https://doi.org/10.5004/dwt.2009.294>
- J. Kanagaraj, T. Senthilvelan and R.C. Panda, *Clean Technol. Environ. Policy*, **17**, 1443 (2015); <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10098-014-0869-6>
- A. Pandey, P. Singh and L. Iyengar, *Int. Biodeterior. Biodegradation*, **59**, 73 (2007); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibiod.2006.08.006>
- Y. Su, D. Jassby, S. Song, X. Zhou, H. Zhao, J. Filip, E. Petala and Y. Zhang, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, **52**, 6466 (2018); <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.8b00231>
- L.N. Ukiwe, S.I. Ibeneme, C.E. Duru, B.N. Okolue, G.O. Onyedika and C.A. Nweze, *J. Adv. Chem.*, **9**, 2321 (2014); <https://doi.org/10.24297/jac.v9i3.1006>
- M. Riera-Torres, C. Gutiérrez-Bouzán and M. Crespi, *Desalination*, **252**, 53 (2010); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.desal.2009.11.002>

18. M. Priyadarshini, I. Das, M.M. Ghangrekar and L. Blaney, *J. Environ. Manage.*, **316**, 115295 (2022); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2022.115295>
19. C.C. Amorim, M.M.D. Leão, R.F.P.M. Moreira, J.D. Fabris and A.B. Henriques, *Chem. Eng. J.*, **224**, 59 (2013); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2013.01.053>
20. S. Jayaraman and A.R. Warriar, *Mater. Chem. Phys.*, **278**, 125610 (2022); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matchemphys.2021.125610>
21. Z.H. Jabbar and B.H. Graimed, *J. Water Process Eng.*, **47**, 102671 (2022); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwpe.2022.102671>
22. A.O. Ibhaddon and P. Fitzpatrick, *Catalysts*, **3**, 189 (2013); <https://doi.org/10.3390/catal3010189>
23. M. Pawar, S. Topcu Sendođdular and P. Gouma, *J. Nanomater.*, **2018**, 5953609 (2018); <https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/5953609>
24. S. Gautam, H. Agrawal, M. Thakur, A. Akbari, H. Sharda, R. Kaur and M. Amini, *J. Environ. Chem. Eng.*, **8**, 103726 (2020); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jece.2020.103726>
25. S. Munyai and N.C. Hintsho-Mbita, *Curr. Res. Green Sustain. Chem.*, **4**, 100163 (2021); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crgsc.2021.100163>
26. L. Huang, X. Huang, J. Yan, Y. Liu, H. Jiang, H. Zhang, J. Tang and Q. Liu, *J. Hazard. Mater.*, **442**, 130024 (2023); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2022.130024>
27. H. Jindal, D. Kumar, M. Sillanpaa and M. Nemiwal, *Inorg. Chem. Commun.*, **131**, 108786 (2021); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.inoche.2021.108786>
28. M.A. Hassaan, M.A. El-Nemr, M.R. Elkatory, S. Ragab, V.-C. Niculescu and A. El Nemr, *Top. Curr. Chem.*, **381**, 31 (2023); <https://doi.org/10.1007/s41061-023-00444-7>
29. A.S.M. Nur, M. Sultana, A. Mondal, S. Islam, F.N. Robel, A. Islam and M.S.A. Sumi, *J. Water Process Eng.*, **47**, 102728 (2022); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwpe.2022.102728>
30. Z. Mirzaeifard, Z. Shariatinia, M. Jourshabani and S.M. Rezaei Darvishi, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.*, **59**, 15894 (2020); <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.iecr.0c03192>
31. M. Abd Elkodous, A.M. El-Khawaga, M.M. Abouelela and M.I.A. Abdel Maksoud, *Sci. Rep.*, **13**, 6331 (2023); <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-33249-1>
32. Y. Wang, M. Sun, Y. Fang, S. Sun and J. He, *J. Mater. Sci.*, **51**, 779 (2016); <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10853-015-9401-6>
33. N.M. Flores, U. Pal, R. Galeazzi and A. Sandoval, *RSC Adv.*, **4**, 41099 (2014); <https://doi.org/10.1039/C4RA04522J>
34. S.B. Khan, M. Hou, S. Shuang and Z. Zhang, *Appl. Surf. Sci.*, **400**, 184 (2017); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsusc.2016.12.172>
35. H. Yang, *Mater. Res. Bull.*, **142**, 111406 (2021); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.materresbull.2021.111406>
36. J. Low, J. Yu, M. Jaroniec, S. Wageh and A.A. AlGhamdi, *Adv. Mater.*, **29**, 1601694 (2017); <https://doi.org/10.1002/adma.201601694>
37. Q. Zhang, I. Lee, J.B. Joo, F. Zaera and Y. Yin, *Acc. Chem. Res.*, **46**, 1816 (2013); <https://doi.org/10.1021/ar300230s>
38. T. Ren, Z. Jin, J. Yang, R. Hu, F. Zhao, X. Gao and C. Zhao, *J. Hazard. Mater.*, **377**, 195 (2019); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2019.05.070>
39. M. Humayun, H. Ullah, M. Usman, A. Habibi-Yangjeh, A.A. Tahir, C. Wang and W. Luo, *J. Energy Chem.*, **66**, 314 (2022); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jechem.2021.08.023>
40. J.E. Samaniego-Benitez, L. Lartundo-Rojas, A. García-García, H.A. Calderón and A. Mantilla, *Catal. Today*, **360**, 99 (2021); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cattod.2019.08.011>
41. T. Zhang, Y. Guo, C. Li, Y. Li, J. Li, F. Zhao and H. Ma, *Adv. Powder Technol.*, **31**, 4510 (2020); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apt.2020.09.027>
42. P.S. Yoo, D. Amaranatha Reddy, Y.F. Jia, S.E. Bae, S. Huh and C. Liu, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, **486**, 136 (2017); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcis.2016.09.066>
43. F.T.L. Muniz, M.A.R. Miranda, C. Morilla dos Santos and J.M. Sasaki, *Acta Crystallogr. A Found. Adv.*, **72**, 385 (2016); <https://doi.org/10.1107/S205327331600365X>
44. J.Y. Cheong, J.H. Chang, C. Kim, J. Lee, Y.S. Shim, S.J. Yoo, J.M. Yuk and I.D. Kim, *ACS Appl. Energy Mater.*, **2**, 2004 (2019); <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.aem.8b02103>
45. J. Yu, J. Zhang and S. Liu, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, **114**, 13642 (2010); <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp101816c>
46. C. Mondal, A. Singh, R. Sahoo, A.K. Sasmal, Y. Negishi and T. Pal, *New J. Chem.*, **39**, 5628 (2015); <https://doi.org/10.1039/C5NJ00128E>
47. L. Scholtz, L. Ladanyi and J. Mullerova, *AEEE*, **12**, 631 (2015); <https://doi.org/10.15598/aeee.v12i6.1078>
48. M.L. Myrick, M.N. Simcock, M. Baranowski, H. Brooke, S.L. Morgan and J.N. McCutcheon, *Appl. Spectrosc. Rev.*, **46**, 140 (2011); <https://doi.org/10.1080/05704928.2010.537004>
49. X. Wang, J. Shi, Z. Feng, M. Li and C. Li, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, **13**, 4715 (2011); <https://doi.org/10.1039/c0cp01620a>
50. H. Shen, T. Xue, Y. Wang, G. Cao, Y. Lu and G. Fang, *Mater. Res. Bull.*, **84**, 15 (2016); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.materresbull.2016.07.024>
51. A.A. Hoseini, S. Farhadi, A. Zabardasti and F. Siadatnasab, *RSC Advances*, **9**, 24489 (2019); <https://doi.org/10.1039/C9RA04265B>
52. M.F. Mubarak, H. Selim and R. Elshypany, *J. Environ. Health Sci. Eng.*, **20**, 265 (2022); <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40201-021-00774-y>
53. M. Ding, N. Yao, C. Wang, J. Huang, M. Shao, S. Zhang, P. Li, X. Deng and X. Xu, *Nanoscale Res. Lett.*, **11**, 205 (2016); <https://doi.org/10.1186/s11671-016-1432-7>
54. D. Tekin, H. Kiziltas and H. Ungan, *J. Mol. Liq.*, **306**, 112905 (2020); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molliq.2020.112905>
55. G. Rytwo and A.L. Zekind, *Catalysts*, **12**, 24 (2021); <https://doi.org/10.3390/catal12010024>