



## Research article

# Construction of Ba-doped $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$ type-II nanocomposites as a promising photocatalyst for boosting photocatalytic degradation of BY28 dye and redox conversion of Cr(VI)/Cr(III)

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## ABSTRACT

In the present study, Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  type-II heterojunction nanocomposites were fabricated and systematically investigated for the degradation of basic yellow 28 (BY28) dye and Cr(VI) reduction in the photocatalytic process under visible-light irradiation. XRD, XPS, FESEM, DRS, and PL analyses were performed to determine the characterization of synthesized photocatalysts. The optimal 1.5 wt% Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  nanocomposite exhibited an efficient photocatalytic activity with rate constant of  $0.0491 \text{ min}^{-1}$  for BY28 degradation and  $0.0261 \text{ min}^{-1}$  for Cr(VI) reduction, which is 13.3 and 7.5 times higher than that of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods. Such enhanced performance can arise from the one-dimensional structure, extended light absorption toward the visible region, formation of the type II heterojunction, the new defect-related energy states, and efficient charge separation. Furthermore, the photostability of the photocatalysts was studied and a plausible photocatalytic mechanism was proposed.

## 1. Introduction

Nowadays, rapid global industrialization, consumption of fossil fuels, and increasing energy demand have led to many challenges faced by both human and environmental beings [1]. In particular, environmental pollution originates from the discharge of effluents containing dyes and heavy metals (e.g., Cr(VI), As(V)), which are often difficult to degrade due to their chemically stable and highly toxic nature [2]. It forces humans to move towards environmentally friendly and renewable sources to significantly reduce their harmful environmental impacts. Various approaches are currently applied solely or in combination to eliminate organic dye contaminants and reduction of Cr(VI) to Cr(III) in wastewater including membrane filtration [3], adsorption [4], biodegradation [5], coagulation [6], and photocatalysis processes [7,8].

Heterogeneous photocatalysis as a green and cost-effective technique is a promising process for the removal of pollutants, which can be utilized in the presence of sunlight [9–11]. Semiconductor-based materials due to their unique electronic structure are valuable catalysts for photocatalytic processes. However, the major challenge in this field is to find suitable semiconductors with appropriate band gap, CB and VB energies, which have the best visible-light-driven photocatalytic performance [12]. Among various metal oxide materials,  $\text{SnO}_2$  as an n-type semiconductor with the band gap of around 3.6 eV has been widely investigated owing to its nontoxicity, cost-effectiveness, abundance, high electron mobility of  $\sim 100\text{--}200 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ , high photostability, and photoactivity [13]. However, due to its wide band gap, it can only be activated by UV light, which covers 3–5% of the solar spectrum [14]. Besides, fast

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recombination rate of the photogenerated electron/hole pair is other criterion that greatly reduces the catalytic activity of SnO<sub>2</sub> [15]. To alleviate these deficiencies, several strategies have been proposed to increase charge separation and extending the wavelength of photoactivation toward the visible region, such as coupling with other semiconducting materials [16], ion doping [17], sensitization [18], and decorating with noble metal nanoparticles [19].

In recent years, design and construction of hybrid photocatalysts based on the presence of two semiconductors has been developed since effectively promote charge carrier separation, resulting in a high-performance photocatalytic system. In this case, Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> as a visible light-active material (absorbs at 420–520 nm) with a narrow band gap (2.45 eV) can be a suitable candidate because its quantum efficiency of as high as 90 % is better than that of conventional photocatalysts [20]. For instance, Li et al. [21] designed a heterojunction between SnO<sub>2</sub> and Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> to enhance the photocatalytic activity of the pristine materials. Although Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> has excellent photocatalytic properties, it also presents low photostability and high recombination of electron/hole pairs [22]. Nevertheless, the photocatalytic efficiency of Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> can be appropriately enhanced with electronic structure engineering based on the doping of the Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> lattice with metal or nonmetal elements. Many studies have been reported to use the dopants into the Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> lattice such as La [23], Zr [24], Ba [25], Bi [26], w [27], Mn [28]. For example, Yu et al. [25] reported that the doping of Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> with barium remarkably enhanced the photocatalytic performance where Ba-doped Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> nanosheets demonstrated a higher photocatalytic performance for degradation of MO and RhB dyes under visible light illumination than the Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> spherical and cubes particles, respectively. Song et al. [29] introduced the incorporation of nickel into Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> and exhibited a MO photodegradation of 89 % after 10 min irradiation, which is 4 times larger than pure Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>. Moreover, Amirulsyafiee et al. [24] reported a superior visible light photocatalytic degradation of MO and MB dyes and Cr(VI) photoreduction when compared to Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>. However, the doping ions introduce new energy levels and also brings new recombination centers that act as charge trapping sites and consequently helps in lowering the rate of electron/hole recombination phenomena [22,23].

Motivated by these considerations, herein, we combined the beneficial effects of doping and heterojunction with the aim of constructing ideal catalytic system of Ba-doped Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite. Thus, the photocatalysts were analyzed in the visible-light-driven degradation of basic yellow 28 (BY28) dye and Cr(VI) photoreduction. The results exhibited that the heterojunction system of Ba-doped Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> successfully overcomes the limitations of single-component SnO<sub>2</sub> and Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> due to the synergic effects of accelerated charge separation and enhanced visible-light harvesting.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Materials and synthesis procedures

All chemicals used in experiments were analytical grade and employed as received without further purification. SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods were prepared by liquid phase deposition (LPD) [30] using ammonium hexafluorostannate ((NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SnF<sub>6</sub>, Titrachem, 99.99 %) and alumina membrane (AAM, Whatman Co., Anodisc 25, pore size: 100 nm) as the starting materials. In a typical preparation process, the alumina membrane was immersed in the 100 mM aqueous solution of (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SnF<sub>6</sub> at room temperature. After 4 h, the membrane was taken out from the treatment solution, rinsed with water and ethanol several times, and then dried for 24 h at room temperature. To achieve the crystalline SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods, the synthesized samples were calcined at 550 °C for 2 h at a heating rate of 20 °C/min. To remove the alumina membrane, the samples were placed in H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> solution for 10 min, and then thoroughly washed with water and ethanol.

In this work, the sol-gel process was used for the synthesis of Ba-doped Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles [31]. First, an 0.1 mol/L aqueous solution of disodium phosphate (Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, Sigma-Aldrich, 99 %) was added to the solution of barium nitrate (Ba(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, Merck, 99 %) to form Ba<sub>3</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>. In a cation exchange reaction, the 0.1 mol/L solution of silver nitrate (Ag(NO<sub>3</sub>), Merck ≥ 99.8 %) was added dropwise to the Ba<sub>3</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub> solution and stirred magnetically for 2 h to form a yellow suspension. The obtained Ba-doped Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> was collected, washed with distilled water, and then dried in air for 24 h. Finally, to obtain the crystalline structure, the products were calcined at 450 °C for 1 h at a heating rate of 20 °C/min. For preparing the Ba-doped Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites with various amounts of Ba dopant, an adequate amount of each semiconductor (with a ratio of 30:70 of Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>:SnO<sub>2</sub>) was weighed and then entirely hand-mixed to achieve a homogeneous powder. The samples obtained with various dopants of Ba were labeled as BAS0 (0 wt %), BAS1 (0.5 wt%), BAS2 (1.0 wt%), BAS3 (1.5 wt%), and BAS4 (2.0 wt%), respectively.

### 2.2. Characterization

The crystal structure of Ba-doped Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> with different barium amounts (0–2.0 wt%) was analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD, Philips X'Pert PRO) with a monochromatic K $\alpha$  radiation source ( $\lambda = 1.542 \text{ \AA}$ ), under 40 kV and 30 mA. The average crystallite size (D) of Ba-doped Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> was determined using the Debye-Scherrer's equation [32]:  $D = 0.94\lambda/\beta\cos\theta$ , where,  $\beta$  is the peak full-width at half-maximum (FWHM), and  $\theta$  is the Bragg peak position. The (210) plane was selected to estimate the crystallite size. The average lattice parameter (a) of the prepared samples was calculated according to:  $a = d \cdot (h^2 + k^2 + l^2)^{1/2}$ , where  $d = \lambda/2\sin\theta$  is the (hkl) inter-planar spacing. Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy have served to identify the surface functional groups in the synthesized samples using a Nicolet Magna 550 IR spectrometer. The measurements were performed in the transmission mode using KBr pellets at room temperature in the frequency range of 400–4000 cm<sup>-1</sup>. For the Raman scattering spectra, a Horiba Jobin Yvon spectrometer coupled to with a He-Ne laser source operating at 632.8 nm was used. All spectra were conducted in the region 100–1100 cm<sup>-1</sup>. To analyze the elemental composition of the synthesized photocatalysts, x-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were obtained (Thermo Scientific system) using a monochromatic Al K $\alpha$  (1486.7 eV) as excitation source. The binding energy of the

elements was referenced to the C1s peak at 284.6 eV from the surface adventitious carbon contamination. The morphology of samples was analyzed by FEG-SEM on a TESCAN instrument (Model MIRA3) operating at 15 kV. To study the optical absorption properties of samples, UV–vis spectra were performed using a V900 spectrophotometer in the wavelength of 200–700 nm. Photoluminescence spectroscopy (PL) was performed using an Agilent G9800 A fluorescence spectrophotometer which was equipped with a xenon lamp. The specific surface area was obtained according to the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method via the N<sub>2</sub> adsorption/desorption isotherm by a BELSORP mini II.

### 2.3. Photocatalytic activity tests

The photocatalytic performance of synthesized photocatalysts was studied by the degradation of BY28 dye and Cr(VI) photoreduction as the representative pollutants at room temperature. The BY28 dye (C<sub>21</sub>H<sub>27</sub>N<sub>3</sub>O<sub>5</sub>S, Molecular weight: 433.5 g/mol) was supplied by a textile company without further purification. The reactions were performed in a Pyrex glass photocatalytic reactor containing a suspension of 50 mg sample in 100 mL BY28 solution in an initial concentration of 10 mg/L. Before light irradiation, the solutions were first kept in the dark with magnetic stirring for 40 min to achieve the surface adsorption-desorption equilibrium. The reaction system was then illuminated with a 400 W tungsten lamp equipped with an ultraviolet-cutoff filter, providing visible light  $\geq 420$  nm. Approximately 5 mL aliquots were collected with a disposable syringe at every 20 min interval and then centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 2 min to completely remove the photocatalysts from the photocatalytic reaction system. The concentration of BY28 remaining in the solution at different times was determined using a UV–vis V900 spectrophotometer at the maximum absorbance wavelength of 436 nm. For photocatalytic Cr(VI) reduction, 25 mg of the photocatalyst was added to 50 mL solution containing 50 mg/L potassium dichromate (K<sub>2</sub>CrO<sub>4</sub>, Sigma-Aldrich) in the initial concentration of 30 mg/L. Similar to photocatalytic dye degradation, the prepared solutions were placed in the dark under constant stirring for 40 min to obtain the surface adsorption-desorption equilibrium. Suspensions were then exposed to visible light for 120 min and 3 mL aliquots were consecutively taken at 20 min intervals and then centrifuged to remove the catalysts. The concentration of Cr(VI) was monitored by the UV–visible spectrometer using diphenylcarbazide colorimetric method at the wavelength of 540 nm, which is free from the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> interference [33].

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Morphological studies

Fig. 1 reveals typical FESEM images of the surface morphology of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod arrays and Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite. As shown in Fig. 1(a), SnO<sub>2</sub> arrays have uniformly oriented rod-like structure with an average diameter of about 100 nm similar to that of alumina membrane. Since the dimensions of the nanorods are controlled by the diameter and length of the nanopores, regular nanorods can be fabricated through the LPD process by selecting a proper membrane. When alumina membrane was dipped in the (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SnF<sub>6</sub> aqueous solution, a chemical reaction took place between the membrane and tin-based solution, resulting in the formation of metal oxide or hydroxide (SnF<sub>6-n</sub>(OH)<sub>n</sub>)<sup>2-</sup> in the inner part of membranes pores using the equilibrium reactions of hydrolysis of a metal-fluoro complex ion and consuming of F<sup>-</sup> [34]. Fig. 1(b) presents the FESEM image of the synthesized Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite under the same magnification. It can be seen that the top surface of the SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod arrays has been deposited a certain amount of Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles.

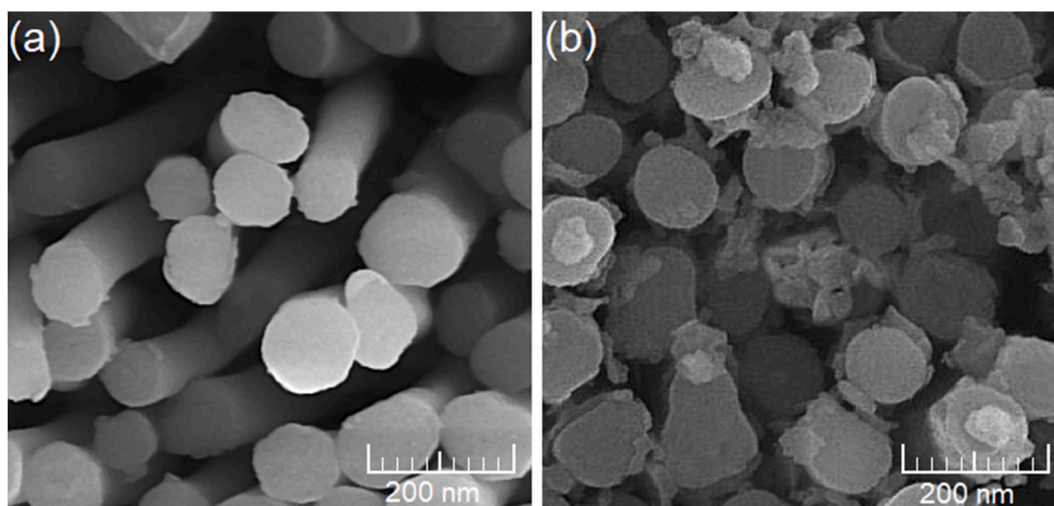


Fig. 1. Surface FESEM images of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod arrays and Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite.

### 3.2. Structural analysis

The XRD patterns of as-synthesized  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  and Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  photocatalysts with different amounts of Ba dopant are shown in Fig. 2. It can be seen that all nanocomposites are composed of cubic  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  and tetragonal  $\text{SnO}_2$  structures. The sharp diffraction peaks at  $26.6^\circ$ ,  $33.9^\circ$ ,  $38^\circ$ ,  $51.8^\circ$ ,  $54.8^\circ$ ,  $61.9^\circ$ ,  $64.7^\circ$ ,  $65.9^\circ$  and  $78.7^\circ$  could be indexed as (110), (101), (200), (211), (220), (310), (112), (301), and (321) crystal planes of rutile  $\text{SnO}_2$  (JCPDS no.041-1445), demonstrating  $\text{SnO}_2$  actually consisted in the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  nanocomposites. Several weaker peaks located at  $20.9^\circ$ ,  $29.7^\circ$ ,  $33.4^\circ$ ,  $36.6^\circ$ , and  $47.8^\circ$  are indexed as (110), (200), (210), (211), and (310) planes of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ , respectively (JCPDS no. 01-084-0511). No other impurities were detected, indicating the products were well-crystallized. As shown in Fig. 3, a shift of the (210) peak towards lower diffraction angles was found with the increase in barium concentration which suggests the fact that  $\text{Ag}^{1+}$  ions can be uniformly substituted by  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  ions in the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  lattice. To elucidate the observed peak-shift in the prepared photocatalysts, the mean crystallite size and lattice parameter of Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  nanoparticles were determined and summarized in Table 1. This shows that the crystallites size of the nanoparticles is in the range of 17.3–43.2 nm and decreases with the increase of Ba content. It was also found that the lattice parameter increases gradually as the Ba doping content in the starting solution increases, mainly due to the ionic radius of  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  ( $1.35 \text{ \AA}$ ) [35] being higher than of  $\text{Ag}^+$  ( $1.26 \text{ \AA}$ ) [36]. These results reveal that the substitution of Ba into the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  lattice slightly increased the unit cell dimension and a lattice distortion occurs.

To provide the further information on the chemical bonding and crystalline structure of the fabricated samples, FTIR spectroscopy and Raman analysis was performed. FTIR spectra of  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ , BAS0, BAS1, BAS2, BAS3, and BAS4 photocatalysts are depicted in Fig. 4(a). All samples presented a broad peak in the region of  $3000\text{--}3500 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and a peak at  $1637 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , which are correspond to OH stretching and deformation vibrations of adsorbed water molecules or surface hydroxyl groups, respectively [37,38]. In the  $\text{SnO}_2$  sample, the appearance of broad and strong absorption bands at  $535 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $680 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  are due to stretching vibrations of the Sn-O and symmetric vibrations of the O-Sn-O bonds, respectively [39]. In the case of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ , the characteristic absorption bands of  $\text{PO}_4$  groups appeared at  $551 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (bending vibration of O-P-O) and  $993 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (stretching vibration of P-O bonding) [40]. For the Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  nanocomposites, the similar peaks both  $\text{SnO}_2$  and  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  components were appeared and only a small shift of the vibrational frequency occurred in the characteristic peaks of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  with increasing Ba amount. Moreover, the Ba-O vibration band was detected at  $682 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  with a low intensity, which proves that Ba was incorporated into the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  lattice [41]. The metal-oxygen (M – O) oscillation modes for  $\text{SnO}_2$  and  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  in  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  and Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  composites overlap in the range of  $500\text{--}700 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , although their components can be distinguished. These results suggest that the incorporation of Ba into the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$

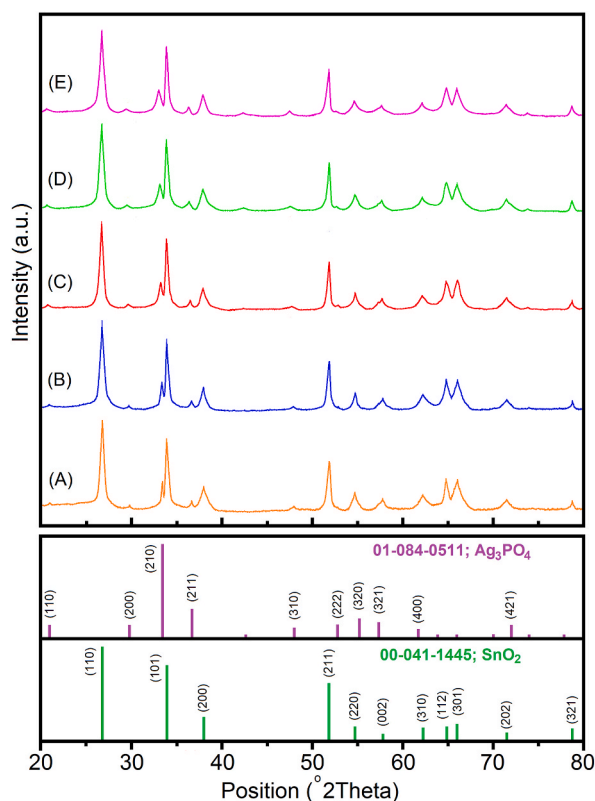


Fig. 2. X-ray diffraction patterns of the Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  photocatalysts obtained with different contents of Ba dopant: (A) BAS0, (B) BAS1, (C) BAS2, (D) BAS3 and (E) BAS4.

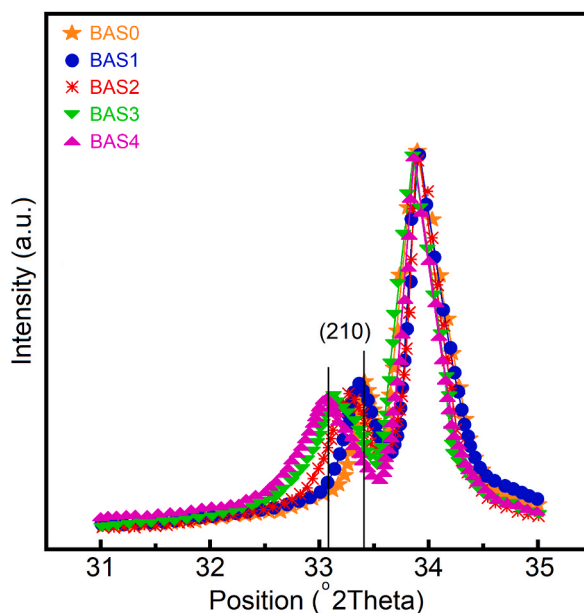


Fig. 3. Angle shift of the (210) plane observed in the XRD patterns of the prepared photocatalysts.

Table 1

Mean crystallite size and lattice parameter for Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  as a function of barium content.

Ba content (%wt)	0	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0
Mean crystallite size, D (nm)	43.2	34.7	28.9	21.7	17.3
Lattice parameter, a ( $^{\circ}\text{A}$ )	5.998	6.003	6.020	6.045	6.054

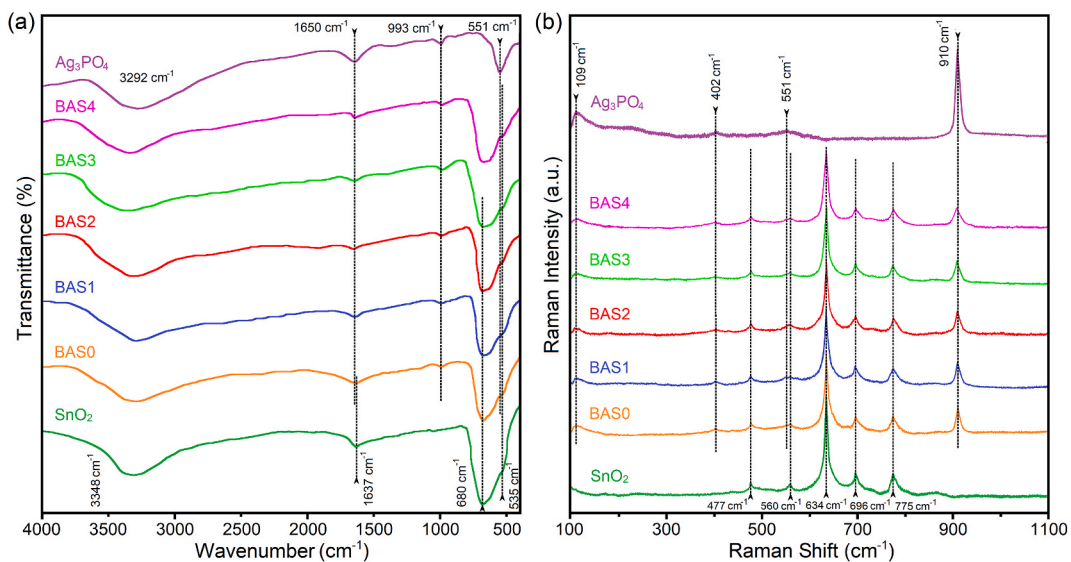


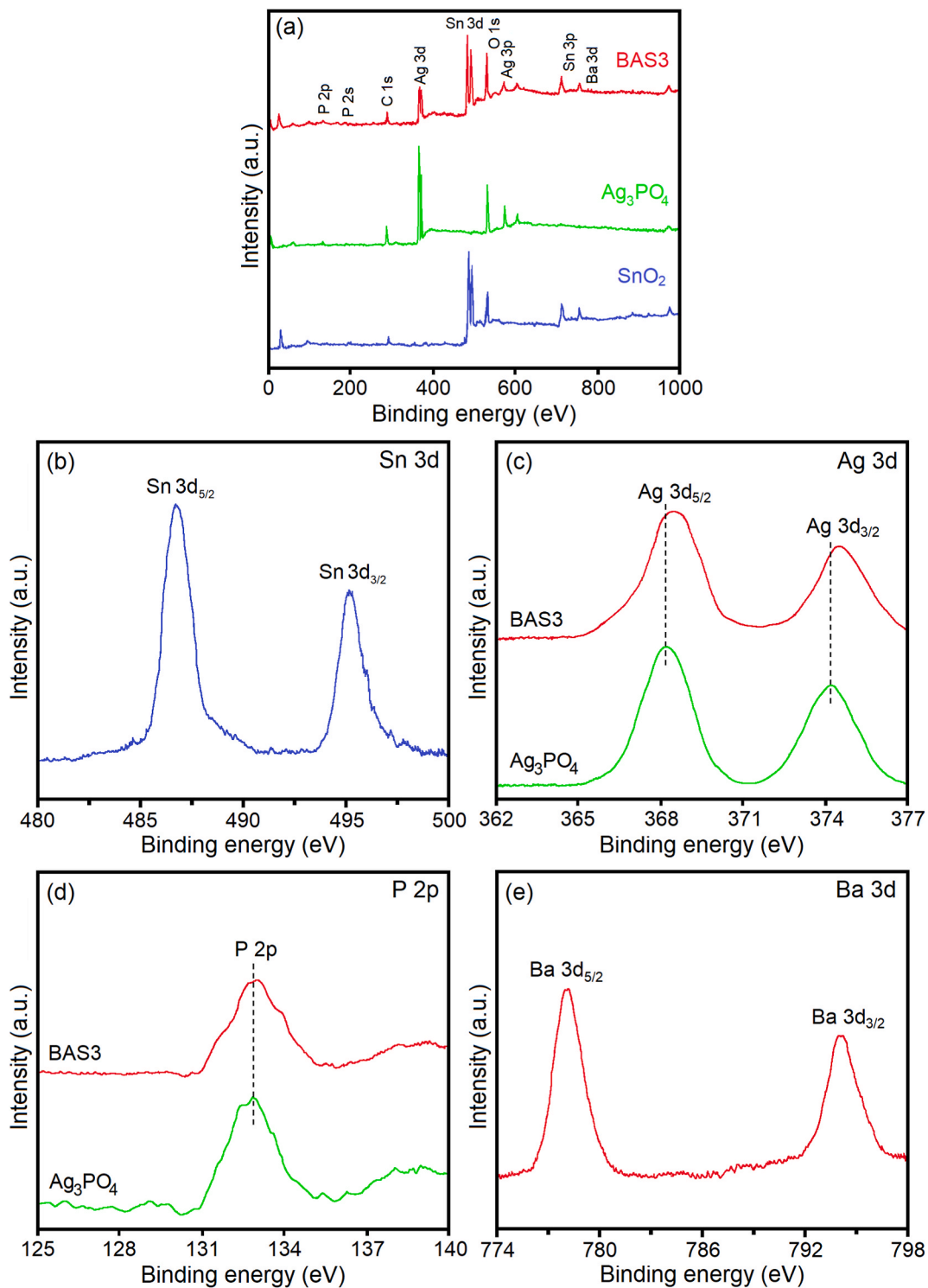
Fig. 4. (a) FTIR and (b) normalized Raman spectra of synthesized  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ , BAS0, BAS1, BAS2, BAS3, and BAS4 photocatalysts.

lattice can increase the affinity of the photocatalyst surface to adsorb water or pollution molecules.

Fig. 4(b) presents the Raman spectra of synthesized  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ , BAS0, BAS1, BAS2, BAS3, and BAS4 photocatalysts. Raman analysis is a highly sensitive tool to detect the local structure and surface defects in solid materials. Raman spectrum of the  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods indicates five characteristic peaks at 477, 562, 634, 696, and 775  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  assigned to the  $E_{1g}$ ,  $S_1$  band,  $A_{1g}$ ,  $A_{2u}$  (LO), and  $B_{2g}$  vibrational modes in  $\text{SnO}_2$  rutile structure, which is in a good agreement with previous reports [33,42]. On the basis of group

theoryraman, SnO<sub>2</sub> with the rutile lattice generates 18 vibrational modes in the first Brillouin zone center. These modes is defined as follow [43]:

$$\Gamma = 1A_{1g} + 1A_{2g} + 1A_{2u} + 1B_{1g} + 1B_{2g} + 2B_{1u} + 1E_{1g} + 3E_u \quad (1)$$



**Fig. 5.** Spectra of the samples: (a) XPS survey spectra of the Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles, SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods and BAS3 nanocomposite, and high-resolution spectra indicating the core level of (b) Sn 3d, (c) Ag 3d, (d) P 2p, and (e) Ba 3d in the BAS3 nanocomposite.

where, the single  $A_{2u}$  mode and the triply degenerated  $E_u$  modes are IR active, and  $A_{2g}$  and  $2B_{1u}$  are silent modes. There are four Raman active modes, including three non-degenerated modes of  $A_{1g}$ ,  $B_{1g}$ ,  $B_{2g}$ , and one doubly-degenerated mode of  $E_g$ . The fundamental  $A_{1g}$  ( $634\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and  $B_{2g}$  ( $775\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) modes are associated with symmetric and asymmetric Sn-O-Sn stretching bonds in the plane perpendicular to the c-axis, while the  $E_g$  ( $477\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) mode vibrates with displacements in the direction of the c-axis [30]. It can be also observed that  $E_g$  peak is weak for all the samples, demonstrating the presence of defects/oxygen vacancies in the  $\text{SnO}_2$  lattice [43]. For the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  nanoparticles, 18 Raman-active modes were expected that only four Raman-active peaks at  $109$ ,  $402$ ,  $551$ , and  $910\text{ cm}^{-1}$  were found due to overlapping and/or weak relative intensity [27]. The intense peak of  $910\text{ cm}^{-1}$  can be attributed to the symmetric stretching vibrations of the  $\text{PO}_4$  group, while the weak peaks of  $551\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $402\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are associated to the asymmetric and O vibrational bending modes of  $\text{PO}_4$ , respectively. The band near  $109\text{ cm}^{-1}$  may be ascribed to the symmetry vibrational bending mode of Ag-O bonds [44]. In the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  nanocomposite, the main characteristic bands of both  $\text{SnO}_2$  and  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  were observed. However, no significant displacement in the position of the peaks was observed. For the Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  samples, it is found that with increasing the Ba doping content, not only a shift about  $0.05\text{--}1.5\text{ cm}^{-1}$  in the peak position of the  $910\text{ cm}^{-1}$  towards the lower wavenumber is observed, but also the peaks become broaden and weaken. These changes can be attributed to the presence of surface defects and deformation of crystal lattice caused by the introduction of Ba in the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  lattice [27]. These results are in a good agreement with the XRD and FTIR results, which both confirm the structural distortion in the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  lattice.

XPS experiments was carried out to identify the surface composition and elemental valence states of the synthesized photocatalysts. Fig. 5(a) exhibits the wide-scan XPS spectra of the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  nanoparticles,  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods, and BAS3 nanocomposite, which mainly confirms the presence of Sn, Ag, P, O, C, and a small amount of Ba elements in BAS3 nanocomposite. In addition, no other impurity is detected in the samples. High-resolution XPS spectra for Sn 3d, Ag 3d, P 2p, and Ba 3d are shown in Fig. 5(b–e). The typical XPS spectrum of Sn 3d shown in Fig. 5(b) displays two sharp peaks located at  $486.8$  and  $495.2\text{ eV}$  that can be indexed to Sn  $3d_{5/2}$  and Sn  $3d_{3/2}$  core level states in  $\text{SnO}_2$ , respectively [36]. The Ag 3d spectrum of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  (Fig. 5(c)) consists of two components at  $368.3$  and  $374.2\text{ eV}$ , which is indexed to the binding energies of Ag  $3d_{5/2}$  and  $3d_{3/2}$  of  $\text{Ag}^+$  ions, respectively [26]. A slight shift toward lower binding energy was found in the Ag 3d spectrum of the Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  nanocomposite compared with the undoped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  nanoparticles, which has been attributed to the relatively smaller electronegativity of  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  compared to  $\text{Ag}^+$  [25]. With Ba doping, the Ag/P atomic ratio gradually increases, which can be the result of the substitution process of  $\text{Ag}^+$  by  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$ . Meanwhile, the spectrum of the P 2p core level region in Fig. 5(d) indicates a characteristic peak at  $132.8\text{ eV}$ , corresponding to the oxidation state of  $\text{P}^{5+}$  [45]. As seen in Fig. 5(e), the two distinct peaks located at  $778.1$  and  $794.0\text{ eV}$  could be related to Ba  $3d_{5/2}$  and Ba  $3d_{3/2}$  doublet, indicating the presence of the  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  state.

### 3.3. Optical studies

Fig. 6 shows the UV–vis absorptions of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{SnO}_2$ , and Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  with different concentrations of Ba dopant (0, 0.5, 1, 1.5 and 2 wt%). It found that the pristine  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  revealed an absorption edge at a wavelength of about  $515\text{ nm}$  in the visible range, while for the pristine  $\text{SnO}_2$  was about  $330\text{ nm}$  in the UV range. The absorption edge of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  displayed a red shift in optical response upon loading of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  onto  $\text{SnO}_2$ . Compared with those of undoped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$ , the absorption edges of Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  series photocatalysts slightly shift to a long wavelength with increasing Ba content.

From the UV–visible absorption spectra,  $(\alpha h\nu)^{0.5}$  versus photon energy ( $h\nu$ ) was plotted by extrapolating the linear portion of curves to  $(\alpha h\nu)^{0.5} = 0$ , as observed in Fig. 7. The band gap energy ( $E_g$ ) of the samples was obtained according to tauc equation [46]:

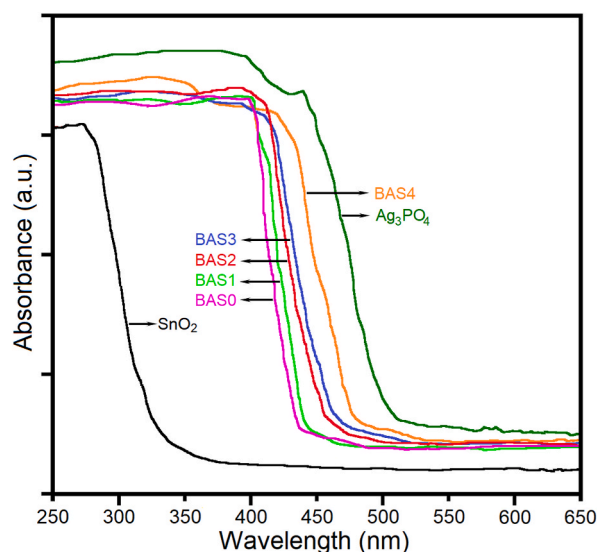


Fig. 6. UV–vis absorption spectra of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{SnO}_2$  and Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  photocatalysts obtained with different contents of Ba dopant.

$$\alpha h\nu = A(h\nu - E_g)^2 \quad (2)$$

where  $\alpha$ ,  $\nu$ ,  $h$ , and  $A$  are the absorption coefficient, the frequency, Planck's constant, and a proportionality constant, respectively. The  $E_g$  of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{BAS0}$ ,  $\text{BAS1}$ ,  $\text{BAS2}$ ,  $\text{BAS3}$ , and  $\text{BAS4}$  samples were estimated as about 2.25, 3.45, 2.68, 2.60, 2.50, 2.48, and 2.40 eV, respectively. The incorporation of Ba into the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  lattice gradually reduces the band gap of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  composites. Several reports also presented a similar trend that the incorporation of dopant declines the  $E_g$  of the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  [20,40]. The observed red-shift of the  $E_g$  value is due to the introduction of new energy levels below the conduction band due to the presence of defects, oxygen vacancies, or orbital exchange interactions when  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  ions are substituted into the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  host lattice.

The room temperature PL was also used to study the transfer and recombination rate of photogenerated electron-hole pair of the synthesized samples. PL spectra of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{BAS0}$ ,  $\text{BAS1}$ ,  $\text{BAS2}$ ,  $\text{BAS3}$ , and  $\text{BAS4}$  were collected at an excitation wavelength of 325 nm as shown in Fig. 8. The emission spectrum of  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods exhibited an emission peak at 570 nm, which can be assigned to the surface defects in  $\text{SnO}_2$  lattice due to Sn interstitials/O vacancies [46]. The PL spectrum of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  nanoparticles showed a broad band centered at 466 nm and a shoulder peak at around 570 nm within the visible light region in accordance with previous work [31]. In comparison with the pristine  $\text{SnO}_2$  and  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{BAS0}$  displayed lower emission intensity. Generally, a lower PL intensity exhibits a reduction in the recombination rate of electrons and holes, which favors photocatalytic activity [47]. It was also found that the PL intensity of the Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  photocatalysts decrease as Ba content increased upon 1.5 wt%. Among all synthesized photocatalysts,  $\text{BAS3}$  showed the lowest PL intensity. It suggests that the presence of Ba dopant in the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  lattice induces surface defects, which helps in trapping the photogenerated electrons and separating the photogenerated charge carriers. These results indicated that the incorporation of Ba atoms into the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  nanoparticles and coupling with  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods can effectively prevent the recombination of electrons/holes, thus leading to an enhanced photocatalytic activity.

### 3.4. Photocatalytic activity

Photocatalytic degradation of BY28 dye as well as the Cr(VI) reduction were monitored to evaluate the photocatalytic efficiency of the synthesized photocatalysts under visible light illumination. Fig. 9(a) shows the plot of  $C/C_0$  of BY28 dye solution as a function of the irradiation time ( $t$ ) by the no catalyst,  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{BAS0}$ ,  $\text{BAS1}$ ,  $\text{BAS2}$ ,  $\text{BAS3}$ , and  $\text{BAS4}$  photocatalysts. It can be clearly seen that as irradiation time continuously increased to 120 min, the concentration of BY28 solution could reach 93.5 %, 40.5 %, 62 %, 16 %, 6.5 %, 4 %, 0.2 %, and 2.5 % for no catalyst,  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{BAS0}$ ,  $\text{BAS1}$ ,  $\text{BAS2}$ ,  $\text{BAS3}$ , and  $\text{BAS4}$  photocatalysts, respectively. Photocatalytic degradation of BY28 dye under 120 min of irradiation is evident, where the absorbance intensity at 436 nm declined with the progress of the photocatalytic reaction, as displayed in Fig. 9(b). Based on the obtained results, all of the Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  samples showed enhanced photocatalytic activity than  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  nanoparticles and  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods, and among them,  $\text{BAS3}$  photocatalyst exhibited outstanding photocatalytic performance. Absorption spectra of the BY28 dye solution for  $\text{BAS3}$  as the best photocatalyst at different irradiation times were illustrated in Fig. 9(c). It also can be observed that the color disappearance of the BY28 solution was noticeable when the irradiation time is up to 40 min (inset in Fig. 9(c)). To statistically compare photocatalytic efficiency, the pseudo-first-order model ( $\ln(C/C_0) = -k_{\text{app}} \cdot t$ ) was applied to quantitatively evaluate, as shown in Fig. 9(d). The order of  $k_{\text{app}}$  values was found  $\text{BAS3} > \text{BAS4} > \text{BAS2} > \text{BAS1} > \text{BAS0} > \text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4 > \text{SnO}_2 > \text{no catalyst}$  in turn, which is in accordance with the photocatalytic performance of synthesized photocatalysts. Moreover,  $\text{BAS3}$  indicated the highest rate constant of  $0.0491 \text{ min}^{-1}$  which is almost 7.4 and 13.3 times faster than pristine  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  nanoparticles ( $0.0066 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) and  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods ( $0.0037 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ), respectively. These

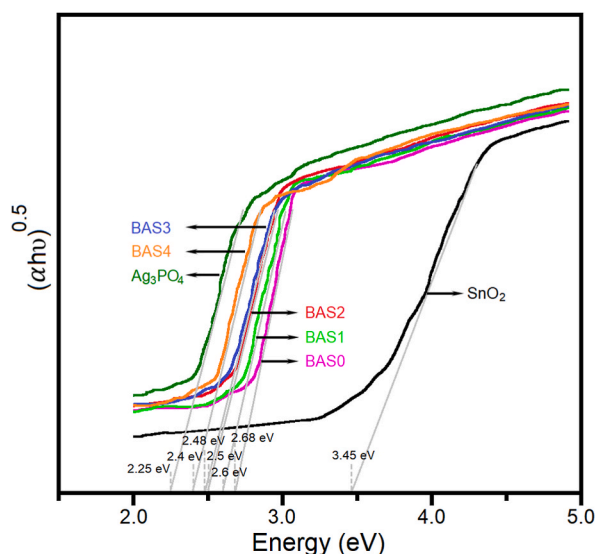


Fig. 7. Estimated band gap of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{BAS0}$ ,  $\text{BAS1}$ ,  $\text{BAS2}$ ,  $\text{BAS3}$ , and  $\text{BAS4}$  photocatalysts.



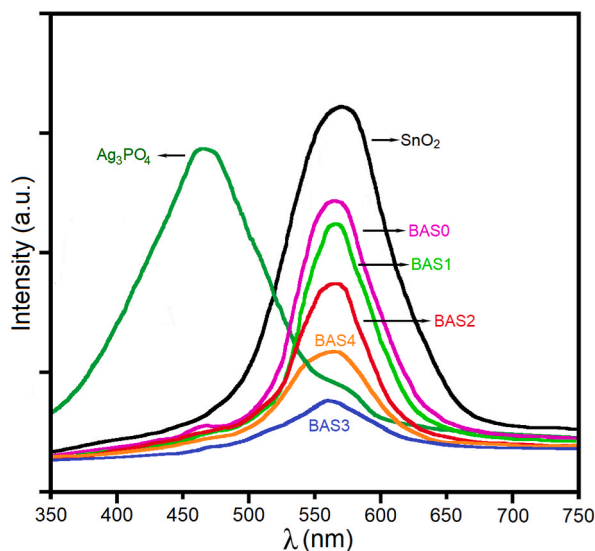


Fig. 8. PL spectra of the synthesized  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ , BAS0, BAS1, BAS2, BAS3, and BAS4 photocatalysts.

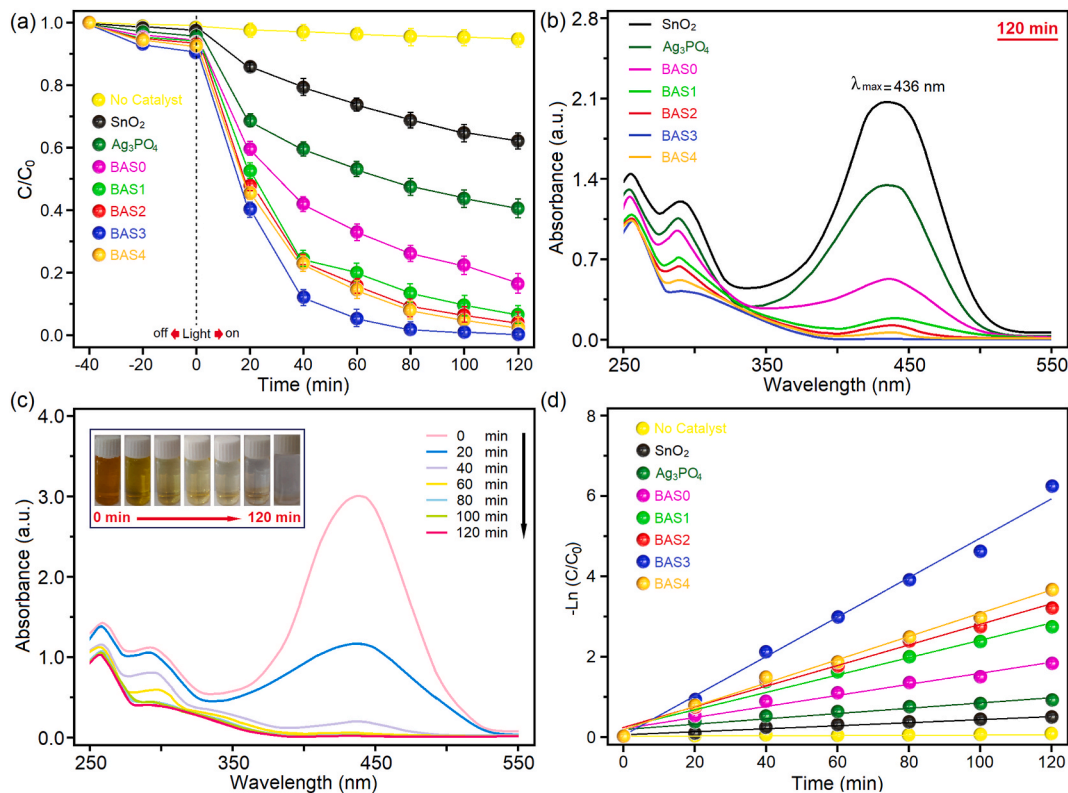


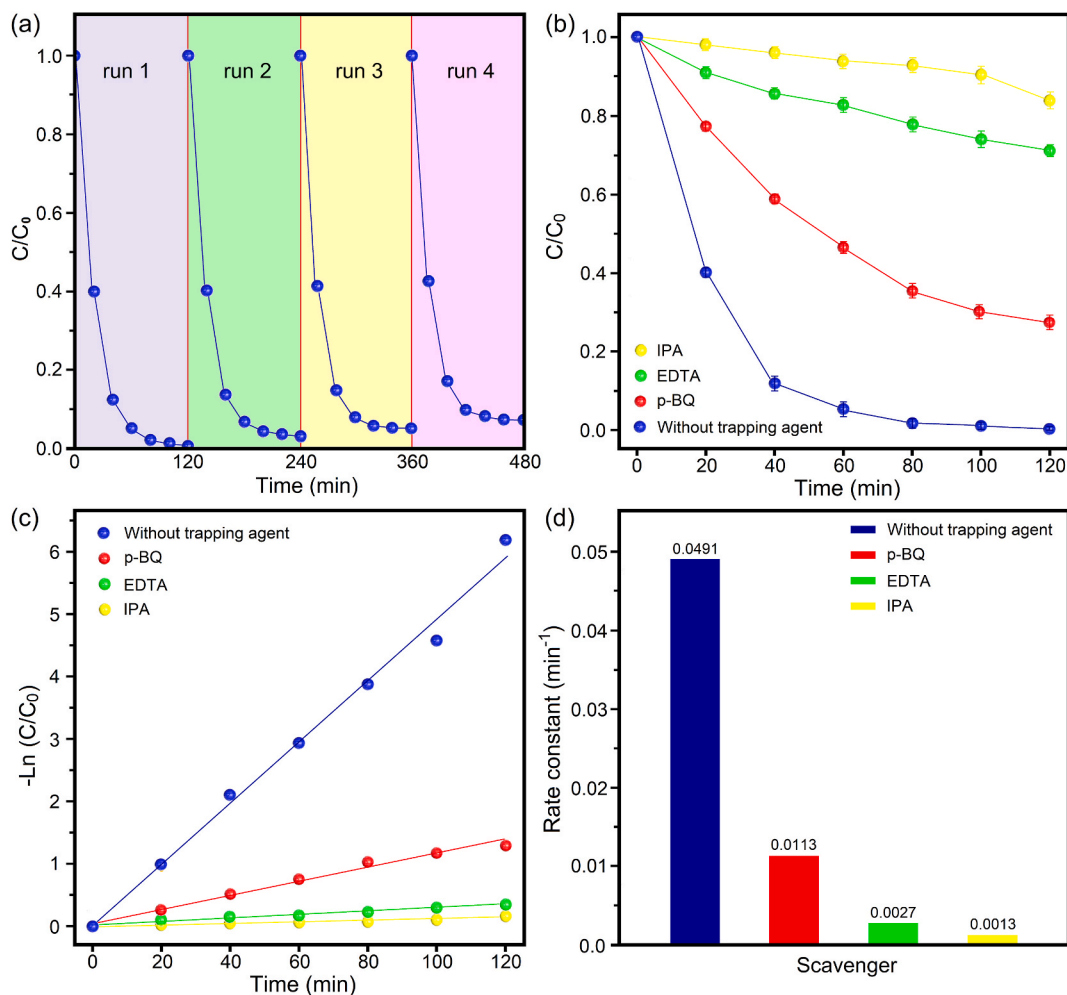
Fig. 9. Photocatalytic activity  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ , and Ba-doped  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{SnO}_2$  nanocomposites: (a) plot of  $(C/C_0)$  versus  $t$ ; (b) UV-vis spectra of  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ , BAS0, BAS1, BAS2, BAS3, and BAS4 photocatalysts for the degradation of BY28 dye under 120 min visible-light irradiation (Inset is photographs of these dye solutions), (c) UV-vis spectra of BY28 dye solution after addition of BAS3 photocatalyst (Inset is photographs of these dye solutions), and (d) plot of  $-\ln(C/C_0)$  versus  $t$ .

results demonstrated that the introduction of Ba into the  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  lattice and coupling with  $\text{SnO}_2$  nanorods, could significantly enhance the photocatalytic activity.

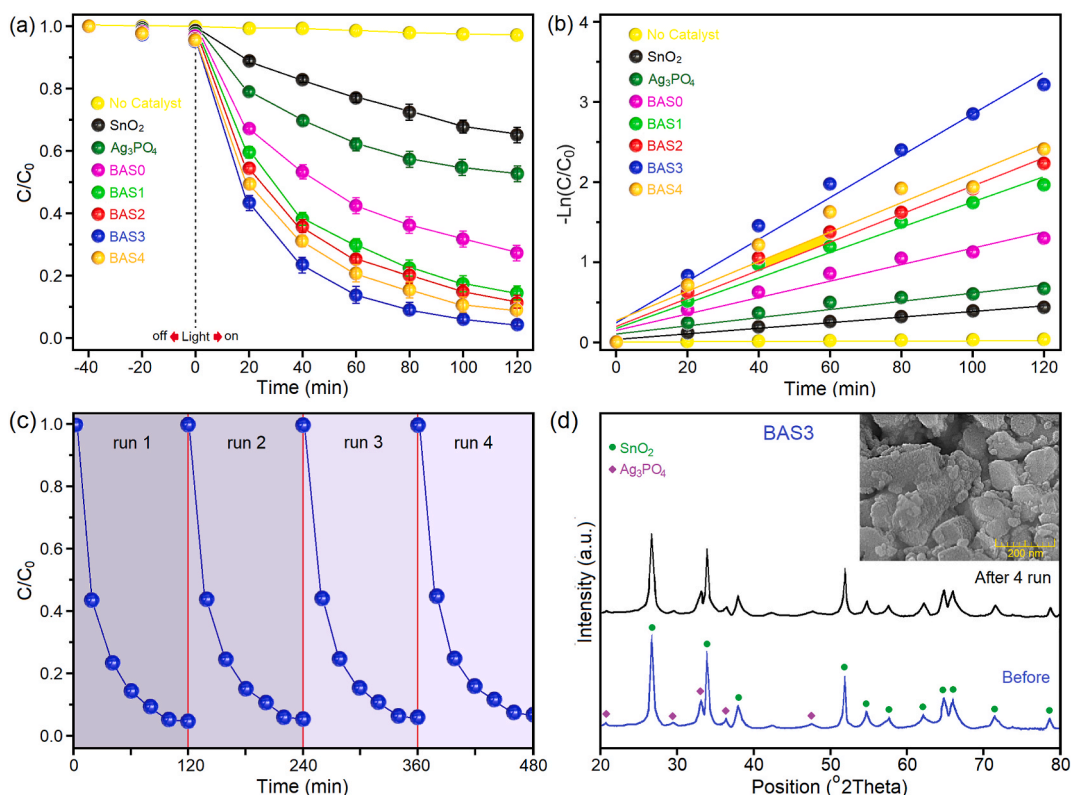
The stability and recycling of the BAS3 photocatalyst were further analyzed for long-term use in practical applications as shown in

**Fig. 10(a).** The photocatalytic cycling tests were performed under light irradiation, and each run lasted for 120 min. The results showed that after four cycling runs, the BAS3 still possesses a high photocatalytic efficiency, up to 93.5 %, implying that the BAS3 has robust stability and active photocatalytic efficiency for the degradation of BY28 dye. To determine the main active species responsible for BY28 degradation, the trapping experiments were carried out for BAS3 photocatalyst under the same conditions as photocatalytic degradation experiments. Isopropanol (IPA), ethylene diamine tetra-acetic acid (EDTA), p-benzoquinone (p-BQ), and were utilized as scavengers for hydroxyl radicals, holes, and superoxide ions, respectively. These scavengers and photocatalyst were added into the BY28 dye solution during 120 min irradiation time. After the addition of scavengers, the degradation performance of BY28 dye decreases. As depicted in **Fig. 10(b)**, it can be found that the addition of p-BQ does slightly slow down the photocatalytic degradation of BY28, whereas the photocatalytic reactions declined drastically with the addition of EDTA and IPA. The pseudo-first order kinetic curves and rate constant are illustrated in **Fig. 10(c)** and (d). The rate constant values decrease from  $0.0491 \text{ min}^{-1}$  (without scavenger) to  $0.0113 \text{ min}^{-1}$  (in the presence of p-BQ),  $0.0027 \text{ min}^{-1}$  (in the presence of EDTA), and  $0.0013 \text{ min}^{-1}$  (in the presence of IPA), respectively. These results suggest that  $\cdot\text{OH}$ ,  $\text{h}^+$  and  $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$  were all active species, among which  $\cdot\text{OH}$  and  $\text{h}^+$  are the main active species, which play an important role in the enhanced photocatalytic degradation of BY28.

Apart from photocatalytic degradation of BY28 dye, the photocatalytic performance of the prepared photocatalysts was also studied through the redox conversion of Cr(VI) under 120 min light irradiation. **Fig. 11(a)** displays the photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) without catalyst and over  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{BAS0}$ ,  $\text{BAS1}$ ,  $\text{BAS2}$ ,  $\text{BAS3}$ , and  $\text{BAS4}$  photocatalysts. It can be seen that in the absence of the photocatalyst material, the reduction of Cr(VI) is almost negligible. The photocatalytic reduction efficiency of bare  $\text{SnO}_2$  and  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  in 120 min were only 35 % and 47.2 %, respectively. The photocatalytic efficiency was significantly improved by coupling  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  and  $\text{SnO}_2$ , whereas reach to 72.6 %. The data exhibited increase in photocatalytic activity with the increasing Ba dopant amounts up to 1.5 wt%. The reduction of Cr(VI) was found 85.8 %, 89 %, 96 %, and 91 % for  $\text{BAS1}$ ,  $\text{BAS2}$ ,  $\text{BAS3}$ , and  $\text{BAS4}$ , respectively. On the other hand, the kinetic of the photocatalytic reactions was investigated and the kinetic data of the Cr(VI) reduction was fitted to a pseudo-



**Fig. 10.** (a) Stability study, (b) trapping experiment of active species, (c) pseudo-first order kinetic curves, and (d) the kinetic rate constant using p-BQ, EDTA, and IPA on the photocatalytic degradation of BY28 dye solution in the presence of BAS3 photocatalyst under visible-light irradiation.



**Fig. 11.** (a) The plots of (a)  $C/C_0$  versus time, (b)  $-\ln(C/C_0)$  versus  $t$  for the photocatalytic redox conversion of Cr(VI) in absence of the photocatalyst and over SnO<sub>2</sub>, Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, BAS0, BAS1, BAS2, BAS3, and BAS4 photocatalysts under visible-light irradiation, (c) Reusability of BAS3 catalyst for Cr(VI) reduction in four cycles, and (d) XRD patterns of BAS3 photocatalysts before and after four cycling test (inset is the FESEM image of photocatalyst after 4 runs photocatalysis process).

first-order model, as presented in Fig. 11(b). The pseudo-first-order rate constant ( $k_{app}$ ) was obtained 0.0035, 0.0051, and 0.0102  $\text{min}^{-1}$  for SnO<sub>2</sub>, Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, and BAS0 samples, respectively. Among the synthesized photocatalysts in this work, BAS3 is the most effective photocatalyst to reduce Cr(VI) with rate constant of 0.0261  $\text{min}^{-1}$ , which is about 7.5 times than that of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods, and followed by BAS4 (0.0184  $\text{min}^{-1}$ ), BAS2 (0.0175  $\text{min}^{-1}$ ), and BAS1 (0.0158  $\text{min}^{-1}$ ), respectively. Table 2 summarizes the photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) using various SnO<sub>2</sub>- and Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>-based photocatalysts. The photostability of BAS3 photocatalyst was evaluated through four consecutive experimental runs of the photoredox conversion of Cr(VI). After each use, the photocatalyst was firstly collected from the reaction medium by centrifugation, followed by washing using deionized water. Recycling data was depicted in Fig. 11(c), the photocatalytic reduction efficiency was found to be 93 % after 4 cycles. The slight decrease in the photocatalyst activity of BAS3 may be related to the adsorption of Cr(III) products onto the catalyst surface or the partial loss of active sites. The results of specific surface area ( $S_{BET}$ ) to determine the available active sites of BAS3 photocatalyst showed that  $S_{BET}$  decreases from 138  $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$  to 114  $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$  before and after the four reaction cycles, respectively. However, the high photocatalytic efficiency confirms the stability and reusability of Ba-doped Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites, demonstrating its feasibility for photocatalytic applications. Furthermore, the stability of BAS3 photocatalyst was evaluated after cyclic regeneration testing using XRD and FESEM analysis, as shown in Fig. 11(d). On the basis of the XRD patterns before and after photocatalysis process and FESEM image (inset) after the four-cycling test, no obvious changes in crystal structure and morphology were observed. It can be seen that only some SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods were broken after repeating the cyclic tests.

### 3.5. Mechanism of photocatalytic activity

Aforementioned results can help to deduced the mechanism of the enhanced photocatalytic activity of BR46 dye over Ba-doped Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite. To explain the mechanism, the conduction band (CB) potential and valence band (VB) potential of SnO<sub>2</sub> and Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> should be considered. The CB and VB potentials of a semiconductor material can be empirically calculated using formula [48]:  $E_{CB} = X - E^e + 1/2 (E_g)$ , and  $E_{VB} = X - E^e - 1/2 (E_g)$ ; where  $E_{CB}$  and  $E_{VB}$  are the potentials of the conduction and valence band edge,  $E^e$  is defined the energy of free electrons on the hydrogen scale (4.5 eV),  $E_g$  is band gap of the photocatalyst, and  $X$  is the geometric mean of electronegativity of constituent atoms, which the  $X$  values for SnO<sub>2</sub> and Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> are 6.25 eV [49] and 5.96 eV [50], respectively, according to the normal hydrogen electrode (NHE). Hence, the  $E_{VB}$  and  $E_{CB}$  of SnO<sub>2</sub> were determined to be 3.475 eV and 0.025 eV vs. NHE, while those of Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> were about 2.585 eV and 0.335 eV respectively. It has been known that Ba<sup>2+</sup> doping into

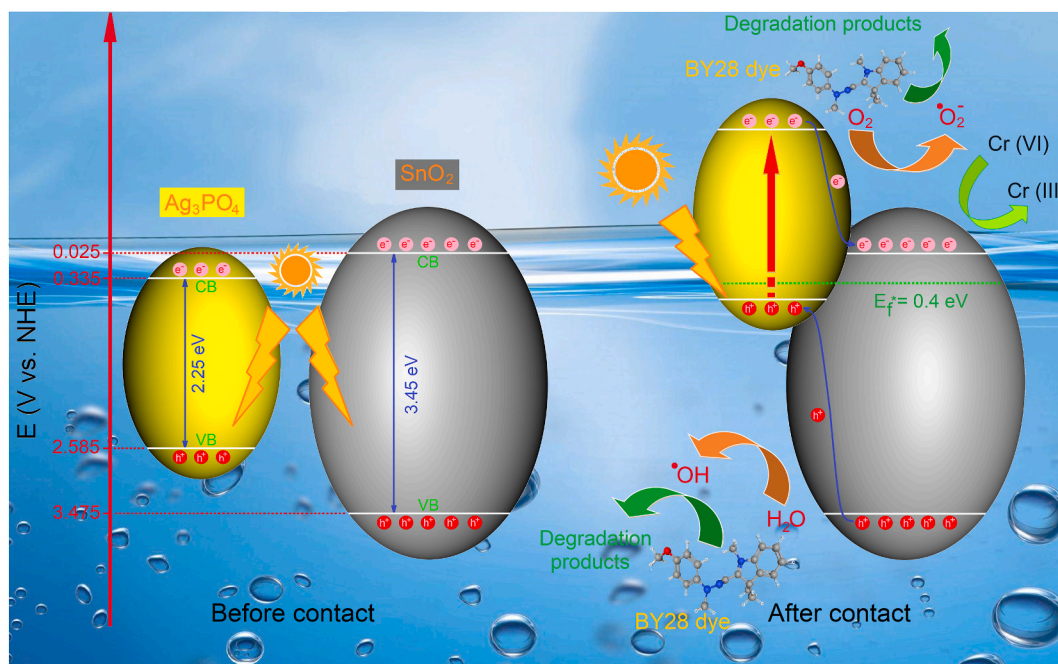
**Table 2**

Comparison of reported reaction conditions, including amount of photocatalyst, initial concentration of Cr(VI) solution, light source, and rate constant using SnO<sub>2</sub>- or Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>-based catalysts.

Photocatalyst	Amount of Catalyst (mg)	Cr (VI) Concentration (mg/L)	Light Source	Rate constant, $k_{app}$ (min <sup>-1</sup> )	Ref.
Zr-doped Ag <sub>3</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>	20	50	300 W Xe Lamp (visible light)	0.0076	[20]
La, Zr co-doped Ag <sub>3</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>	20	50	300 W Xe Lamp (visible light)	0.0074	[24]
Ni-N codoped SnO <sub>2</sub> /Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	50	30	300 W Xe lamp ( $\lambda \geq 420$ nm)	0.050	[33]
g-C <sub>3</sub> N <sub>4</sub> /SnS <sub>2</sub> /SnO <sub>2</sub>	50	50	300 W Xe lamp ( $\lambda > 420$ nm)	0.0064	[48]
Ba-doped Ag <sub>3</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> /SnO <sub>2</sub>	25	30	400 W tungsten lamp ( $\lambda \geq 420$ nm)	0.0261	This study

Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> may induce additional mid-gap electronic energy levels just below the conduction band edge. The transition metals dopants can act not only as the temporary photogenerated electron-trapping sites, but also play as shallow capturing sites of photogenerated electrons, thus effectively preventing the recombination of photo-induced carriers, prolonging their lifetime, and improve photocatalytic activity [29,40,51]. Furthermore, Ba doping creates an imbalance of charge in the Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> lattice, which leads to more OH<sup>-</sup> adsorption on the photocatalyst surface to trap more holes, thereby delaying the charge pair recombination and generating more hydroxyl radicals [25]. Both SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods and Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles showed low photocatalytic activity under visible-light irradiation, but their composites have presented the good photocatalytic efficiency on the degradation of BY28. Poor photocatalytic efficiency of SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods is attributed to the weak light absorption response and of Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles due to high recombination efficiency of the charge carriers and weak light stability [45]. On the other hand, the photo-generated electrons from SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods or Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles cannot reduce O<sub>2</sub> to <sup>•</sup>O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> or <sup>•</sup>HO<sub>2</sub>, because the standard redox potentials of O<sub>2</sub>/<sup>•</sup>O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> = -0.07 eV and O<sub>2</sub>/<sup>•</sup>O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> = -0.35 eV vs. NHE [52] are more negative than the CB edge potential of SnO<sub>2</sub> and Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>.

When SnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods and Ba-doped Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles were coupled together, Fermi levels ( $E_f$ ) of two components tend to reach a thermodynamically equilibrium state. Therefore, both the VB and CB of Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> shift upward beyond the VB and CB of SnO<sub>2</sub> according to type-II band gap configuration. The possible photocatalytic mechanism and charge transfer process of Ba-doped Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite is schematically shown in Fig. 12. When nanocomposite was irradiated with visible light, the photo-generated electrons in the VB of Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> are easily excited to the CB with the concomitant generation of holes in the VB. Since the CB edge potential of Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> is more negative than that of SnO<sub>2</sub>, the electrons can transfer to the surface of the SrTiO<sub>3</sub> under the driving force of the energy difference between the CBs of Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> and SnO<sub>2</sub>. Simultaneously, the holes migrate in the opposite direction from VB of SnO<sub>2</sub> to Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> due to appropriate valence band offsets. These photo-generated electrons and holes react with water and molecular oxygen on the surface of the SnO<sub>2</sub> and Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> to yield superoxide (<sup>•</sup>O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>), hydroxyl (<sup>•</sup>OH) radicals and other active species such as <sup>•</sup>HO<sub>2</sub>,



**Fig. 12.** Schematic diagram of the proposed mechanism, band structure configuration, charge transfer and the charge separation process for the degradation of BY28 dye over Ba-doped Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/SnO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite under visible-light irradiation.

which would degrade the BY28 dye. The electrons can be also consumed through a reaction with the molecular oxygen ( $O_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow H_2O_2$ ;  $H_2O_2 + e^- \rightarrow OH^- + \cdot OH$ ) and produce  $\cdot OH$ , which accelerate the degradation process of the dye. Apart from that, in the presence of  $O_2$ , Cr(VI) can be directly reduced to Cr(III) by the photoelectrons in the conduction band ( $Cr_2O_7^{2-} + 14H^+ + 6e_{CB}^- \rightarrow 2Cr^{3+} + 7H_2O$ ) or indirectly by the photogenerated  $H_2O_2$  ( $Cr_2O_7^{2-} + 8H^+ + 3H_2O_2 \rightarrow 2Cr^{3+} + 3O_2 + 7H_2O$ ),  $\cdot OOH$  and  $O_2^{\cdot -}$ . Therefore, an improved charge transfer, efficient charge separation and relatively slow recombination of charge carriers is achieved, resulting in enhanced photocatalytic activity of the Ba-doped  $Ag_3PO_4/SnO_2$  nanocomposite.

#### 4. Conclusion

In this study, we investigated the photocatalytic performance of Ba-doped  $Ag_3PO_4/SnO_2$  heterojunction nanocomposites with different Ba-doping of 0, 0.5, 1, 1.5, and 2 wt% for the degradation of BY28 dye and redox conversion of Cr(VI)/Cr(III) with respect to pristine  $SnO_2$  nanorods or  $Ag_3PO_4$  nanoparticles. The Ba-doped  $Ag_3PO_4/SnO_2$  nanocomposites exhibits excellent activity and stability enabling visible-light-driven dye degradation as well reduction of Cr(VI), although neither component alone is highly efficient. In this sense, the  $Ag_3PO_4/SnO_2$  nanocomposite with 1.5 wt% Ba dopant demonstrated a remarkable enhancement with 99.8 % degradation, which is 61.8 % and 40.3 % greater than that of pristine  $SnO_2$  nanorods and  $Ag_3PO_4$  nanoparticles, respectively. It was also observed to photocatalytically reduce of Cr(VI) with rate constant of  $0.0261 \text{ min}^{-1}$ , which, which is about 7.5 and 5.1 times than that of  $SnO_2$  and  $Ag_3PO_4$ , respectively. This is basically attributed to the synergistic effects of formed type-II heterojunction between  $SnO_2$  and  $Ag_3PO_4$ , and Ba-doping in the  $Ag_3PO_4$  lattice, which facilitate charge transfer, extend visible light absorption and suppress the recombination of charge carriers, leading to the enhanced photocatalytic activity. However, based on the obtained results, we believe that this work can contribute to the development of the design and construction of various photocatalysts and the expansion of their applications in photocatalysis.

#### CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Zeinab Ghadirian-Arani:** Writing – original draft, Investigation, Formal analysis. **Abbas Sadeghzadeh-Attar:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization. **Mohammad Khorasani:** Investigation, Formal analysis.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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