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Sustainable purification of phosphoric acid contaminated with Cr(VI) by Ag/Ag₃PO₄ coated activated carbon/montmorillonite under UV and solar light: materials design and photocatalytic mechanistic

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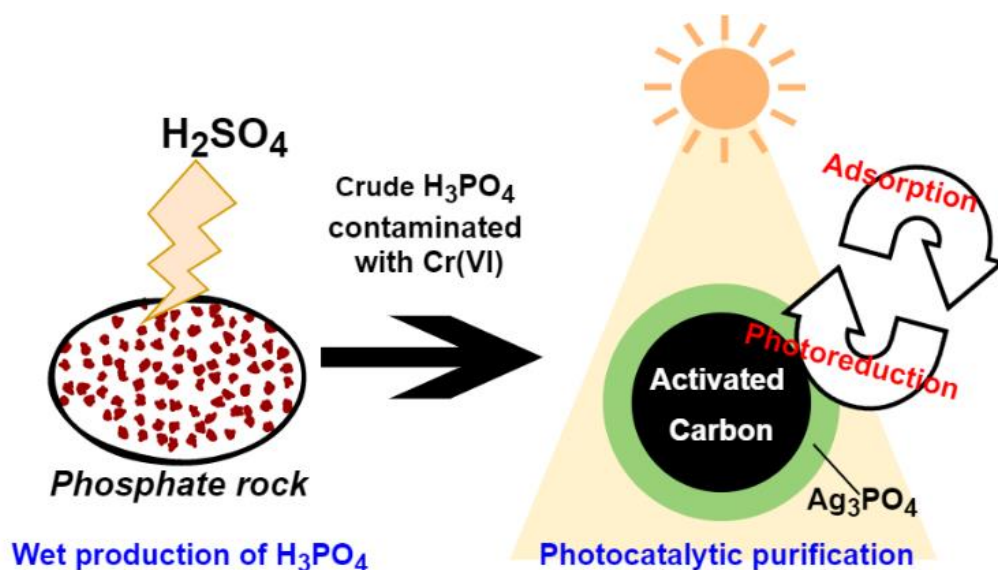
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Graphical abstract



Highlights

- Investigate the purification of phosphoric acid via photocatalytic technology
- Design of highly synergistic visible light photoactive Ag_3PO_4 -adsorbent composites
- Comparative efficiency of type of adsorbent supports for Ag_3PO_4 particles
- Comparative photoreduction of Cr(VI) in aqueous and phosphoric acid solutions
- Role of hole scavenger molecule in in aqueous and phosphoric acid solutions

Abstract,

Wet production of phosphoric acid, the most used low-cost industrial approach, first leads to an impure phosphoric acid contaminated by organic and heavy metals species. Such a crude phosphoric acid requires costly purification before its usage. The present work has investigated for the first time the recovery of Cr(VI), as one of the most co-existed heavy metals, from the phosphoric acid medium. For this purpose, three composites based on Ag_3PO_4 coated on Montmorillonite (MAG_3PO_4), commercial activated carbon (ACAg_3PO_4), and synthetic activated carbon obtained from agricultural biomass ($\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$). The photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) was studied comparatively in the absence and presence of citric acid as a hole scavenger under UV and solar light irradiations. Under UV light, MAG_3PO_4 was the most efficient, while activated carbon-based photocatalysts showed higher reduction rates under solar light which might be due to the photosensitizing effect. Compared with aqueous medium, the photocatalytic reduction was very effective without citric acid in phosphoric acid medium because of the low photogeneration of reactive oxygen species (ROSs). The chemical bonds formed between Ag_3PO_4 and support materials, as proved by XPS, may enhance the photocatalytic activity as a result of enhanced charges photogeneration and separation. $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$ showed higher reduction ability even at higher Cr(VI) concentrations (100-300 ppm). A comparison study showed that $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$ is more effective than as-prepared ACTiO_2 . This investigation shows promising findings to widen the application of photocatalytic technology in different industrial fields.

Keywords: Phosphoric acid purification, Photocatalytic technology, Cr(VI) recovery, Ag_3PO_4 coating; Biomass valorisation.

1. Introduction

The purification of crude phosphoric acid by removing metallic and organic contaminants has a great importance due to its huge applications in different fields such as petrochemistry, alimentary industry, agriculture, detergents production and pharmaceutical industry (Bahrpaima 2017; Ma et al. 2013; BAI and ZENG 2006). Highly purified H_3PO_4 is often manufactured through two basic common technologies such as thermal (Ma et al. 2013) and wet approaches. In the thermal process, H_3PO_4 is produced via the use of water or/and diluted phosphoric acid to absorb P_4O_{10} from phosphate rocks via burning in an oxygenated environment. The thermal process is very effective in producing high-quality H_3PO_4 ; however, due to the huge energy requirement, it has been abandoned in most European countries (Association 2000). While some Asian countries, e.g., China or Kazakhstan, are still using this process to produce H_3PO_4 . Around 95% of produced H_3PO_4 in European countries and the rest of the world is carried out via the economic wet process, which focuses mainly on the attack of phosphate rock with H_2SO_4 , even it is accompanied by the co-production of many toxic impurities, e.g., heavy metals, fluoride, and phosphogypsum (one of the common toxic contaminates in phosphoric acid produced by wet process (Association 2000)). Therefore, further purification of produced phosphoric acid is required to decrease the concentration of different impurities to acceptable regulatory levels (Belboom, Szöcs, and Léonard 2015; Kouzbour et al. 2019). One of the common approaches to remove metallic or/and organic impurities from at large scale is liquid-liquid extraction (Kijkowska et al. 2002; Chuanpin and Gusheng 2003; Boulkroune and Meniai 2012; Wu et al. 2018), crystallization (Chen et al. 2013), membrane (Zhong et al. 2021; Khaless et al. 2021; ZHANG et al. 2016), adsorption (El-Asmy et al. 2008; El-Zahhar, El-Deen, and Sheha 2013), nanofiltration (Diallo et al. 2013), electrooxidation (Nasr et al. 2005), ion-exchange (Tang et al. 2018; Amin 2020).

Photocatalytic technology is able to oxidize most of the organic pollutants via the photogeneration of reactive oxygen species (ROSs) under light irradiation. In addition, such a process can perfectly

reduce heavy metals by the photogenerated electrons on the conduction band, followed by their deposition on the surface. Photocatalysis towards water purification has passed through a long path, however, due to several technology issues, its transfer to real-world application is still very rare (Alalm et al. 2021; Loeb et al. 2018). The transfer of photocatalytic technology to real use could be achieved through different ways such as finding solutions to unsolved environmental problems, developing highly competitive or/and economic photocatalytic technologies, or unique application as discussed recently by Djellabi et al. (Djellabi, Giannantonio, et al. 2021). In this work, for the first time, photocatalytic technology was employed for the purification of crude phosphoric acid. In this context, three types of adsorbent/semiconductor composites were fabricated, including Ag_3PO_4 -Montmorillonite, Ag_3PO_4 -commercial activated carbon, and Ag_3PO_4 -synthetic activated carbon. Ag_3PO_4 has shown excellent photocatalytic activity and enhanced visible-light response (bandgap of 2.43 eV) (Naciri et al. 2021; Trench et al. 2018). In photocatalytic materials, it was proved through long fundamental scientific research that the naked (or single) photocatalysts show several drawbacks such as low surface area, high generation of by-products, less mass transfer, and so on. Several surface/structure modifications and combinations have been suggested to counterbalance these issues. One of the most successful approaches to enhance the photocatalytic ability and to solve some technological issues is the combination of inorganic semiconductors with highly supportive porous materials. In such a process, adsorption and photocatalysis work cooperatively in a continuous way to oxidize/reduce water pollutants synergistically through the so-called Adsorb & Shuttle process (Djellabi et al. 2020; Saber et al. 2021). Since crude phosphoric acid exhibits a huge amount of hexavalent chromium, which needs further purification, herein, the photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) was investigated comparatively under UV and solar light in both water and phosphoric acid mediums. The mechanistic pathways during the photocatalytic reduction in different mediums were discussed. The photocatalytic efficiency at very high Cr(VI) concentrations (200-300 ppm) in a phosphoric acid medium (that is similar to real cases) was performed.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Synthesis and characterization of Ag₃PO₄ coated materials

Three materials were used as support for Ag₃PO₄, including montmorillonite (M), commercial activated carbon (AC), and synthetic activated carbon (SAC). The coating of these materials was carried out by direct precipitation of Ag₃PO₄ on the surface. For this purpose, 1 g of the support (M, AC, or SAC) and 25 mL of deionized water are sonicated for 20 min. Then under stirring, 5 mL of AgNO₃ (0.6 M) is added dropwise and left for 1 h. 5 mL of NaH₂PO₄ (0.2 M) is added dropwise under vigorous stirring, and the mixture was left under stirring for 2 h at 60°C. The resultant solid was washed by ultrapure water and dried for a night at 120°C. Figure 1 shows the images of as-prepared photocatalysts before and after Ag₃PO₄ coating.

The materials were characterized by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy analyses (FT-IR) analysis using a Bruker Vertex 70 spectrophotometer (Bruker, Billerica, MA, US). XRD spectra of samples were recorded on a PANalytical X'PERT-PRO diffractometer with monochromatic CuK α radiation ($\lambda = 1.54056 \text{ \AA}$). X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) were recorded on a XPS PHI Quantum instrument.

Diffused reflectance spectra were measured with a Cary 5000 UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Agilent Technology). The Tauc plot was obtained and employed to evaluate the bandgap value of synthesized materials. Therefore, the evaluation of the bandgap value was obtained by plotting $[F(R)hv]^{1/m}$ versus hv as according to the equation $[F(R)hv]^{1/m} = K(hv - E_g)$. In which $F(R)$ is the Kubelka-Munk function, K is a constant characteristic of the material, hv is the energy of incident photons and E_g is the bandgap. The value of m depends on the type of transition and represents $m=1/2$ for direct and $m=2$ for indirect allowed transitions.



Figure 1. Images of materials before and after coating with Ag_3PO_4 .

2.2. Photocatalytic tests

The as-prepared photocatalysts were tested for the removal of Cr(VI) from aqueous and phosphoric acid solutions under UV and solar light. UVA lamp (500W, Jelosil, Vomodrone, Italy) at 0.1 mW/m^2 and solar lamp ($35 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$, ULTRA VITALUX 300 W-OSRAM, OSRAM, Múnich, Germany) were used. A desired amount of photocatalyst is added to a volume of Cr(VI) solution in water or phosphoric acid medium to carry out the photocatalytic experiments. The phosphoric acid solution was prepared by synthetic phosphoric acid and water (52 % P_2O_5). The Cr(VI) solution is exposed to light irradiation, and samples were taken at different intervals for Cr(VI) analysis using 1,5-Diphenylcarbazide at 540 nm via UV/Vis spectrophotometry (Djellabi, Zhang, et al. 2019).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization

Figure 2 shows the XRD spectra of bare Ag_3PO_4 , MAg_3PO_4 , ACAg_3PO_4 , and $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$ samples. Ag_3PO_4 pattern shows diffraction peaks which perfectly indicate the body-centered cubic structure of Ag_3PO_4 (Inorganic Crystal Structure Database (ICSD) No. 14000) (Botelho et al. 2015). Similarly, body-centered cubic structure diffraction peaks of Ag_3PO_4 appeared in MAg_3PO_4 , ACAg_3PO_4 , and $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$ samples as well. It can be noticed that the main diffraction peak (211) at 2θ : 33.3° is

more intense in terms of $\text{ACA}_{\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4}$ compared to $\text{MA}_{\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4}$ and $\text{SACA}_{\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4}$ samples. The nature of commercial activated carbon surface might boost the high crystallization of Ag_3PO_4 . Apart from diffraction peaks of Ag_3PO_4 , as indicated in **Figure 2** with green spheres, planes of the face-centered cubic structure of metallic Ag were appeared at 2θ : 38.3, 44.5, 64.6, and 77.9° (JCPDS no-65–2871) in both $\text{ACA}_{\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4}$ and $\text{SACA}_{\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4}$ (Wan et al. 2015). The co-presence of metallic Ag and Ag_3PO_4 may influence the light absorption, redox charges generation and separation.

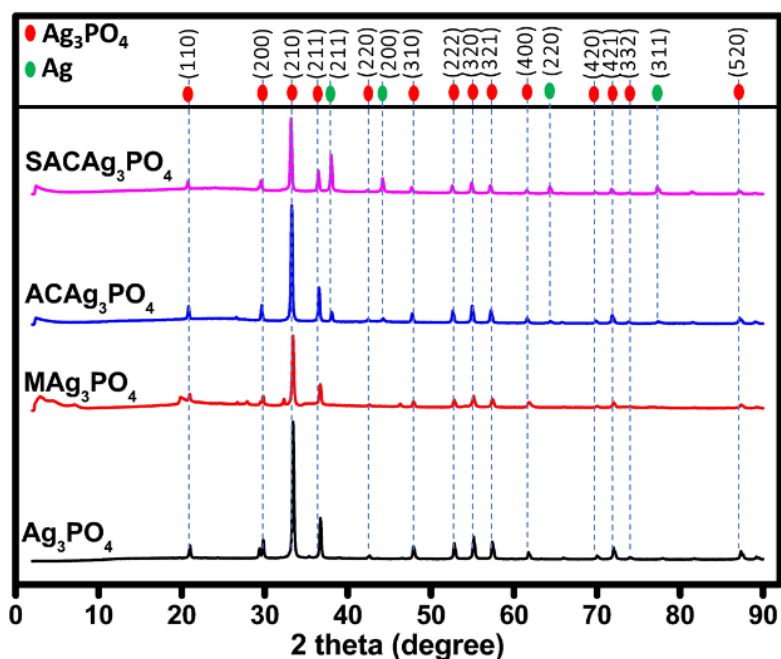


Figure 2. XRD spectra of Ag_3PO_4 , $\text{MA}_{\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4}$, $\text{ACA}_{\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4}$ and $\text{SACA}_{\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4}$.

Figure 3 shows FTIR curves of bare Ag_3PO_4 and Ag_3PO_4 coated materials. Bare Ag_3PO_4 shows a main characteristic peak centered at around 1010 cm^{-1} due to the asymmetric vibration of P-O-P bands in PO_4^{3-} (Abroushan, Farhadi, and Zabardasti 2017). The small peak at around 884 cm^{-1} is assigned to symmetric vibration of P-O-P bands. The peak appeared at 560 cm^{-1} is due to the OP–O bending vibration (Ma et al. 2016). It was produced a sharp band at 1420 cm^{-1} , which might be attributed to phosphoryl P=O bonds in PO_4^{3-} (Zhou et al. 2016). Pure Montmorillonite shows a large band lies at $950\text{--}1100\text{ cm}^{-1}$ that is assigned to the characteristic Si-O stretching (Saber et al. 2021). Several peaks at 800, 785, and 700 cm^{-1} are associated with Si-O stretching mode. While peaks at around 915, 880, and near 840 cm^{-1} are due to AlAlOH , AlFeOH , and AlMgOH deformations,

respectively (Ahmed et al. 2018; Kloprogge 2017). The peak at 600 cm^{-1} might be due to a combination of Al-O-Si deformation and Si-O-Si deformation, while the peak at 540 cm^{-1} refers to Si-O bending. In terms of MAg_3PO_4 , the band at around 1000 cm^{-1} turns stronger as a result of the combination of P-O-P asymmetric vibration of P-O-P of Ag_3PO_4 and Si-O stretching of the montmorillonite. Similarly, the intensity of peak at around 540 cm^{-1} was enhanced due to combination of OP-O bending vibration and Si-O bending. 1420 cm^{-1} , which could be attributed to the peak phosphoryl P=O bonds. Regarding activated carbon samples (**Figure 3.b**), after the coating of Ag_3PO_4 on both AC and SAC, the intense peak of asymmetric vibration of P-O-P bands was produced. The large band centered at around 3400 cm^{-1} is attributed to OH^- vibration.

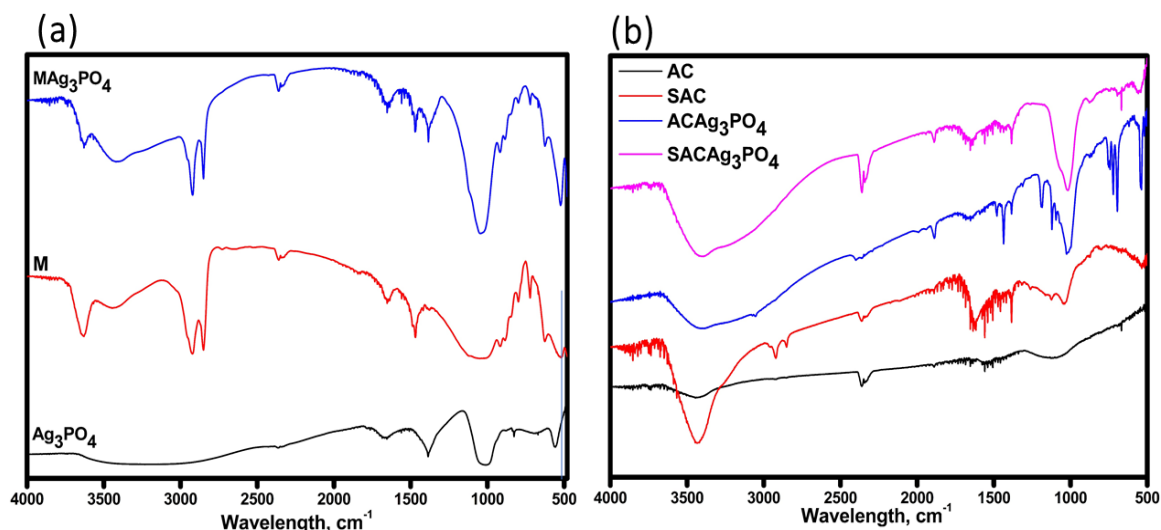


Figure 3. FTIR curves of (a) Ag_3PO_4 , M, and MAg_3PO_4 , and (b): AC, SAC, ACAg_3PO_4 and $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$.

Figure 4 shows XPS survey spectra of Ag_3PO_4 , MAg_3PO_4 , ACAg_3PO_4 , and $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$ samples, and high-resolution XPS spectra of Ag 3d, P 2P, O 1s, and C 1s. Compared to bare Ag_3PO_4 , Ag 3d high-resolution XPS profiles of samples show a clear shift towards higher binding energies. The peak shifting was calculated to be 1.2, 1.3, and 0.4 eV for MAg_3PO_4 , ACAg_3PO_4 , and $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$ samples, respectively. It is important to point out that the shifting in XPS peaks is due to the change in oxidation states of elements as well as it depends on the interface interactions and local chemical environment, in other words, the chemical nature of neighboring atoms (Chastain and King Jr 1992). In general, if

the electronegativity of the neighboring atom is higher than that of the analyzed element, a positive shift is obtained while the reverse is true. The deconvoluted Ag 3d peaks (Ag 3d_{5/2} and Ag 3d_{3/2}) were divided into two peaks for all samples, which are assigned to Ag⁺ and Ag⁽⁰⁾ (Bianchi et al. 2020). As above-discussed, Ag 3d peaks shifting is due to the in situ formation of Ag(0) and the surface interaction of Ag⁽⁺⁾ with neighboring atoms (i.e., C, O...etc) on the surface of material supports. The formation of metallic silver nanoparticles was already confirmed by XRD analysis in the cases of ACAg₃PO₄ and SACAg₃PO₄. The XPS profiles of P 2P exhibit one peak at around 133.4 eV which is due to the phosphorus in Ag₃PO₄. This peak was shifted to higher binding energy in MAg₃PO₄, ACAg₃PO₄, and SACAg₃PO₄ samples due to the surface interactions. The high-resolution of C 1s exhibits three main deconvoluted peaks associated with C-C sp², C-C sp³, C-O (Djellabi, Yang, Xiao, et al. 2019). However, C 1s spectrum of SACAg₃PO₄ exhibits an additional fourth strong peak due to C=O or oxygen bridging atoms (Djellabi, Yang, Wang, et al. 2019). The high-resolution O 1s profile of Ag₃PO₄ was split into three peaks at around 529.8, 531.4, and 533 eV, which are associated with lattice oxygen, O²⁻ in Ag₃PO₄ and OH⁻ groups from adsorbed water, respectively. In terms of MAg₃PO₄, ACAg₃PO₄ samples, the three peaks were also produced along with a change in their intensities and a strong shift towards higher binding energies. In the case of SACAg₃PO₄, a fourth strong peak was produced, which could be allotted to the bridging oxygen (Ag-O-C). C 1s spectrum of SACAg₃PO₄ shows as well an additional peak, suggesting the formation of Ag-O-C bonds. The significant shifting in peaks indeed reveals a strong interaction between material supports (M, AC, and SAC) and Ag₃PO₄ in the heterojunction system.

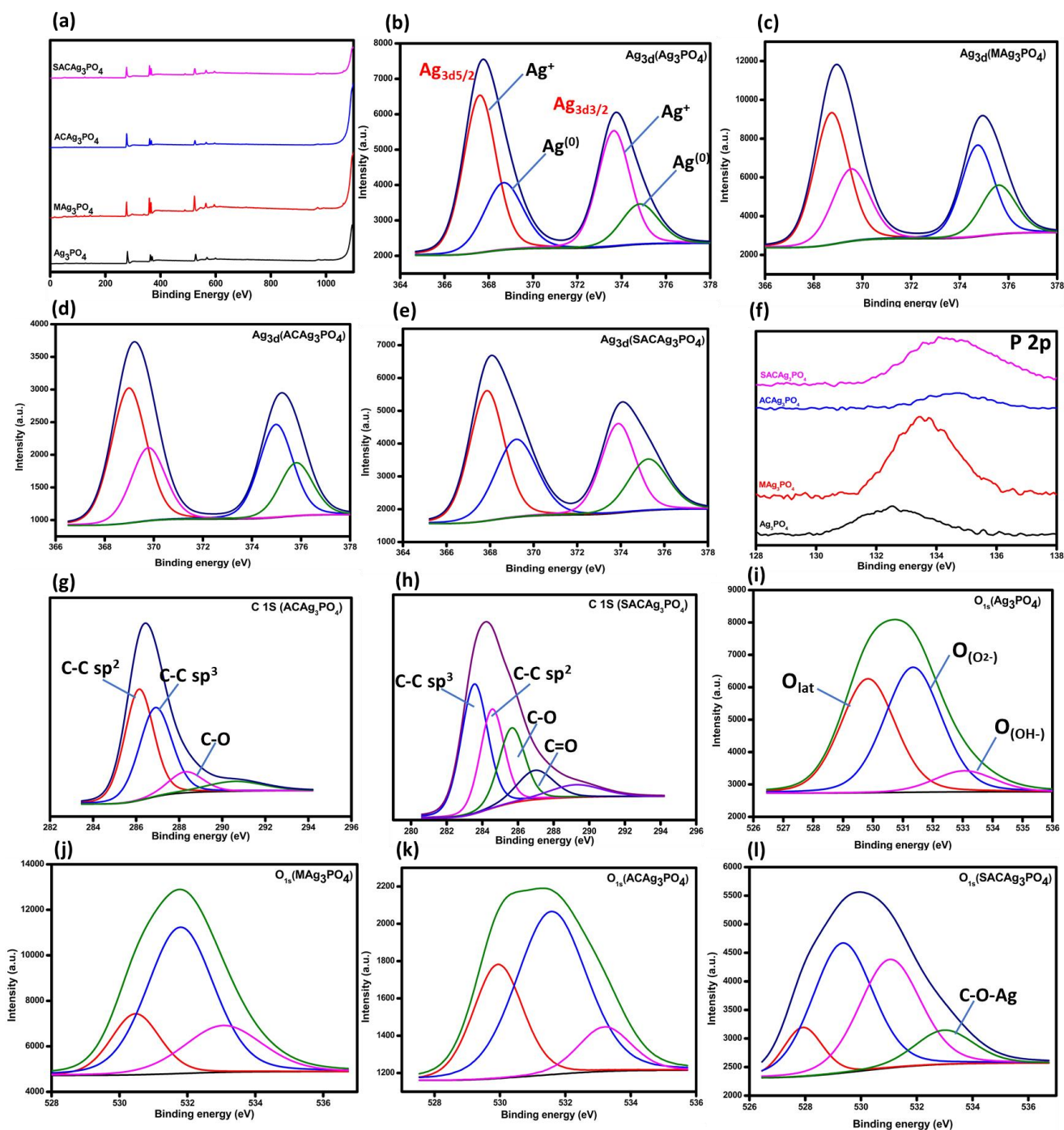


Figure 4. (a): XPS survey of Ag_3PO_4 , MAg_3PO_4 , ACAg_3PO_4 , and $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$. Deconvoluted Ag 3d peaks ($\text{Ag } 3d_{5/2}$ and $\text{Ag } 3d_{3/2}$) for (b): Ag_3PO_4 , (c): MAg_3PO_4 , (d): ACAg_3PO_4 and (e): $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$. (f): P 2p spectra of all samples. (g) Deconvoluted C1s peaks of ACAg_3PO_4 . (h) Deconvoluted C1s peaks of $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$. Deconvoluted $\text{O } 1s$ peaks of (i): Ag_3PO_4 , (j): MAg_3PO_4 , (k): ACAg_3PO_4 , and (l): $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$.

The results of UVDRS analysis are shown in **Figure 5**. It can be seen from the spectra of absorbance of samples (**Figure 5.a**) that a better visible light responsive can be found in MAg_3PO_4 , ACAg_3PO_4 and $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$ absorption edges compared to bare Ag_3PO_4 . As observed by XPS and XRD, a band testifying the presence of AgNPs at 452 nm (Bianchi et al. 2020) was produced in all samples. **Figure 5.b** shows the normalized K-M curves in order to calculate the band gaps, and permits to enhance similarity and difference between samples. In terms of Ag_3PO_4 , the band gap for indirect ($m=2$) and direct transition ($m=1/2$) were found to be 2.45 eV and 2.55 eV, respectively, slightly higher than literature values (2.36-2.46 eV) (Naciri et al. 2021). The calculation of band gap in ACAg_3PO_4 sample is uncertain due to the high noise in the derivatives, that could be related to the high absorbance of these samples. However, the band gap for ACAg_3PO_4 would be estimated to be around 2.35 eV. A red-shift can be observed also in MAg_3PO_4 absorption edge, but was not possible to calculate the band gap, for the lack of linearity.

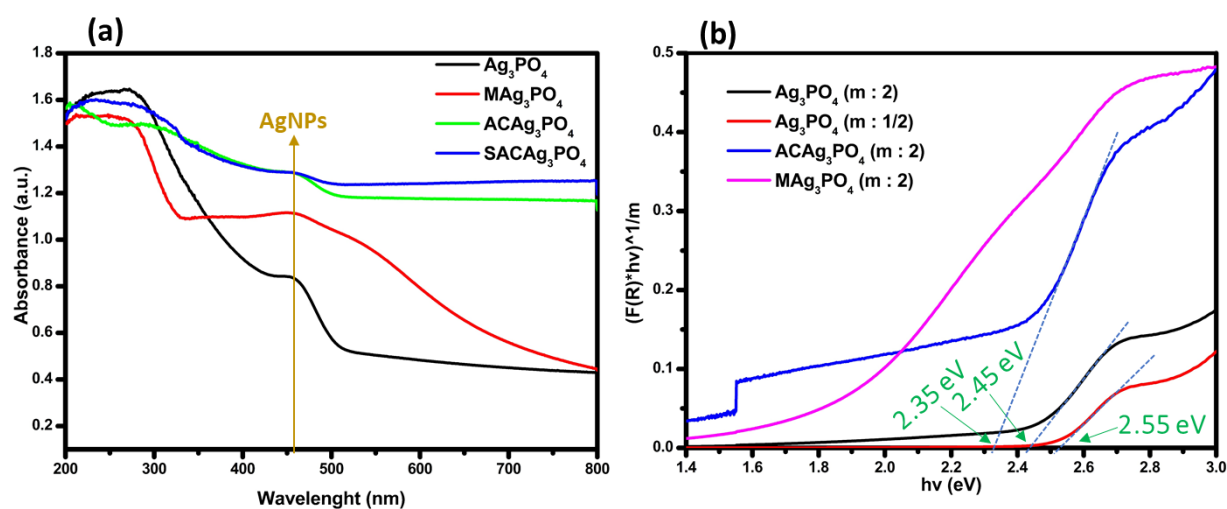


Figure 5. Absorption spectra (a) and normalized K-M curves (b) of Ag_3PO_4 , MAg_3PO_4 , ACAg_3PO_4 , and SAC Ag_3PO_4 samples.

3.2. Photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) in aqueous solution

The adsorption and photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) by different materials under UV and solar light in aqueous solution are shown in **Figure 6**. Citric acid was used as a hole scavenger, and its role is basically to react with positive holes and photogenerated reactive oxygen species (ROSS) to boost the

photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) and avoid the re-oxidation of formed Cr(III) into Cr(VI) . However, in real wastewaters, usually organic and metallic pollutants co-exist. In terms of Mg_3PO_4 (**Figure 6.a**), Mg_3PO_4 showed enhanced dark adsorption up to around 20 % compared to bare M, which could be due to the insertion of Ag_3PO_4 into the montmorillonite interlayers leading to enhance the porosity and creating novel functional groups. Mg_3PO_4 shows around 50% reduction of Cr(VI) under UV light irradiation without the addition of citric acid. Under UV in the presence of citric acid, a total reduction was obtained within 60 min. The photocatalytic reduction under solar light was around 40 and 70% without and with citric acid, respectively. In terms of ACAg_3PO_4 , the dark adsorption using bare AC was around 48 %, while ACAg_3PO_4 exhibits lower adsorption than bare AC of around 25 %. Under light irradiation, an enhanced removal as compared to dark adsorption was observed, wherein the addition of citric acid further improves the reduction under both UV and solar light irradiations. **Figure 6.c** shows that $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$ exhibits better adsorption and photocatalytic activities than ACAg_3PO_4 . The comparison of the photoreduction under solar light by different as-prepared materials is shown in **Figure 6.d**. It can be deduced that activated carbon-based photocatalysts exhibit the highest photoactivity compared to Mg_3PO_4 , even though this latter was the most effective under UV light. Black activated carbon can enhance photoexcitation of Ag_3PO_4 and the yield of the photoproduced electrons through the photosensitizing effect at the interface of the composite. For comparison, tests with bare Ag_3PO_4 and activated carbon coated by TiO_2 were carried out to prove the high efficiency of the $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$ system. In terms of Ag_3PO_4 , the photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) at 50 ppm, without and with citric acid, was found to be 30 and 51 %, respectively within 2 h. While the use of ACTiO_2 showed a reduction rate of 77.3 % in the presence of citric acid within 2 h. The main reasons behind the increase of photoreduction rates by $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$ compared to bare Ag_3PO_4 is the synergism in terms of adsorption and photoactivity to make the Adsorb & Shuttle process into action (Djellabi et al. 2020), wherein the sorbing domain (AC) concentrates Cr(VI) species, followed by their reduction by the photogenerated electrons coming from the photoactive environment. In addition, the charges transfer between the support (AC) and

Ag_3PO_4 through chemical bonds can enhance the separation of redox charges. AC carbon may improve the photoactivity through the photosensitizing effect. It was also noticed, by XRD and XPS, the formation of AgNPs along with Ag_3PO_4 , which in turn may play the role of electron receiver/concentrator. On the other hand, ACTiO_2 showed lower photoreduction ability as compared to ACA_3PO_4 because this latter exhibits a better photoreducing ability as a result of its more negative conduction band, and also the smaller bandgap of Ag_3PO_4 .

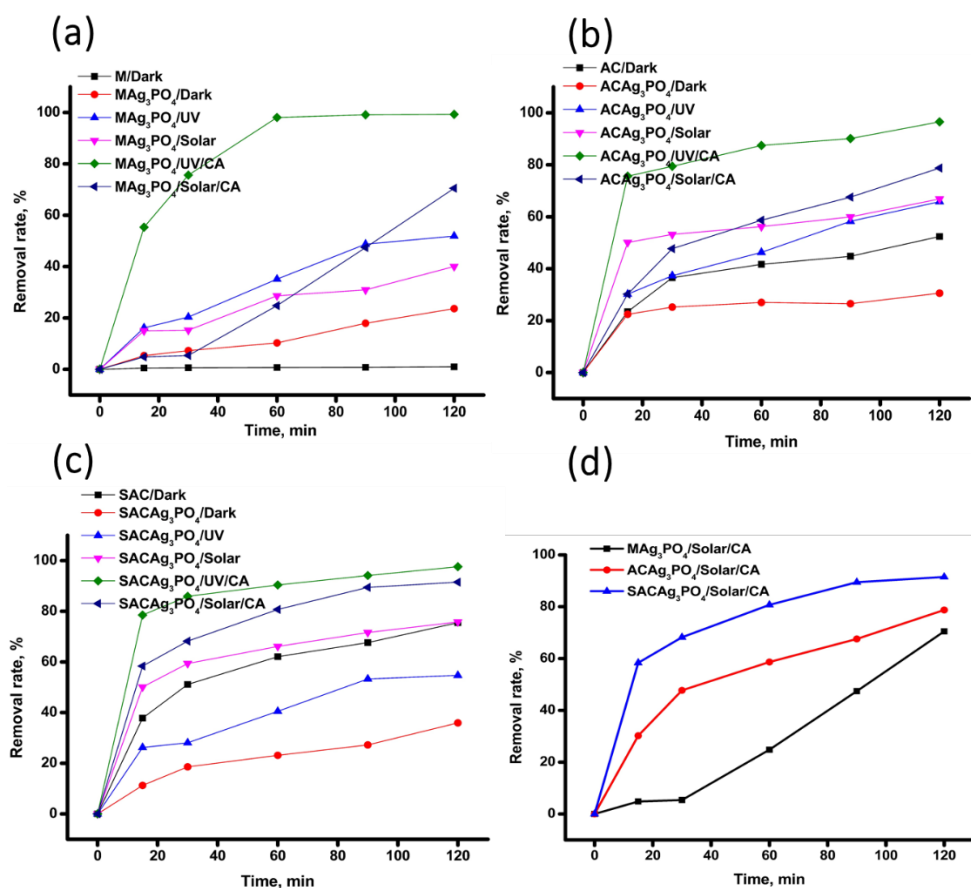


Figure 6. Adsorption and photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) under UV and solar light with and without citric acid by (a): MAG_3PO_4 , (b): ACA_3PO_4 , and (C): SACA_3PO_4 . (d): Comparison of photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) in the presence of citric acid using MAG_3PO_4 , ACA_3PO_4 , and SACA_3PO_4 under solar light. $[\text{Cr}(\text{VI})]$: 50 ppm, $[\text{citric acid}]$: 50 ppm, $[\text{Photocatalyst}]$: 1 g/L.

Figure 7 shows the effect of citric acid on the photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) at different concentrations using SACA_3PO_4 under UV light. The addition of citric acid has a significant role in the photoreduction performance because of its role as a hole and ROSs scavenger. Without citric acid,

the photoreduction of Cr(VI) can take place slightly, as discussed above. Our previous works discussed the mechanistic pathways of hole scavengers in detail (Marinho et al. 2017; Djellabi, Zhao, et al. 2021; Djellabi and Ghorab 2015). Shortly, the presence of hole scavenger molecules during the photocatalytic reduction of heavy metals enhances the performance via different ways: (i): the direct oxidation of hole scavenger molecule in the valance band by positive holes helps to liberate photogenerated electrons on the conduction band for the photoreduction reaction, (ii): the reaction of hole scavenger molecule with photoproducted ROSs limits the unwanted reverse oxidation of produced Cr(III) into Cr(VI). The oxidation of hole scavenger molecules may lead to some reductive species that contribute to the photoreduction of Cr(VI).

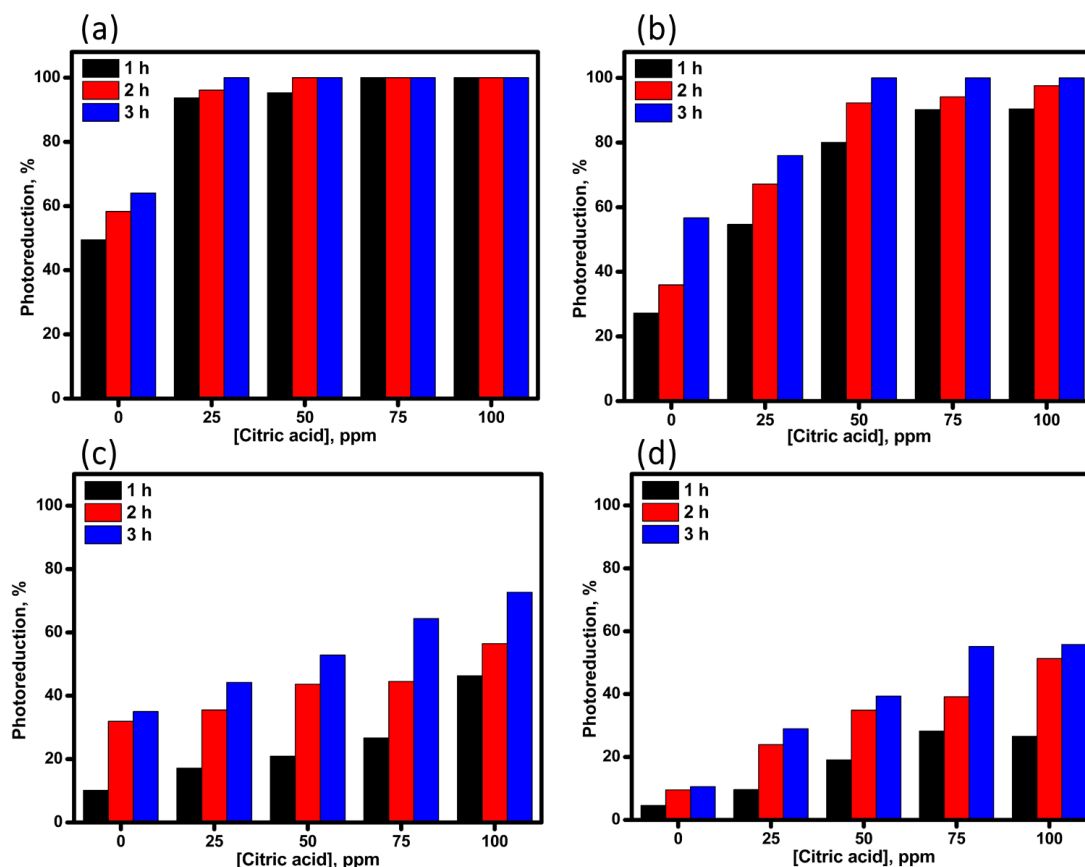


Figure 7. Effect of citric acid concentration on the photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) in water under UV light at different Cr(VI) concentrations (a): [Cr(VI)]: 25 ppm, (b): [Cr(VI)]: 50 ppm, (c): [Cr(VI)]: 75 ppm, (d): [Cr(VI)]: 100 ppm. pH: 2, mass of photocatalyst: 1 g/L.

3.3. Photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) in phosphoric acid

The photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) using different as-prepared photocatalysts (MgAg_3PO_4 , ACAg_3PO_4 , and $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$) in the phosphoric acid medium was investigated without the addition of citric acid under UV light (**Figure 8.a**). It can be observed that the reduction ability in phosphoric acid medium is very fast even without the presence of citric acid, compared with the results obtained in water medium under the same conditions ($[\text{Cr(VI)}]: 50 \text{ ppm}$). To confirm that the fast reduction is not due to the pH of aqueous solution (pH: 2) and phosphoric acid (1.2), a control experiment in aqueous solution at pH 1.2 (data now shown) was carried out, and it was observed that the photoreduction at pH 2 and 1.2 are similar after 3 h. Therefore, it may be deduced from these results that the photocatalytic reduction in phosphoric acid is much faster than that in water medium. In fact, the generation of reactive oxygen species in phosphoric acid could be lesser as compared with water medium, which limits the unwanted re-oxidation of Cr(III). These results are very interesting in terms of technology towards the application of photocatalysis system for the recovery of heavy metals from crude phosphoric acid, as there is no need to add hole scavenger molecules to the medium. To further evaluate the photocatalytic performance of $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{UV}$, experiments with higher Cr(VI) concentrations of 100, 200, and 300 ppm were carried out, and the results are shown in **Figures 8, c,b,d**, respectively. It can be seen that, at Cr(VI) of 100 ppm, a total reduction can be found with and without the addition of citric acid within 3 h. At 200 ppm, the total reduction within 3 h was slightly lower in the experiment that performed without citric acid. At 300 ppm, the role of citric acid was evident. The high yield of Cr(VI) may block the surface of $\text{SACAg}_3\text{PO}_4$ which requires the catalysis of the reaction using hole scavenger molecules. In general, crude phosphoric acid contains organic pollutants, which might play the role of hole scavenger during the photoreduction of Cr(VI). As shown in **Figure 9**, the combination of Ag/ Ag_3PO_4 on the surface of activated carbon results in excellent photocatalytic ability because of synergism in terms of electrons generation and separation. The photogenerated electrons of the conduction band of Ag_3PO_4 can be separated through their

transfer to AgNPs, allowing a better reduction of Cr(VI). AgNPs can generate as well electrons for a direct reduction of Cr(VI) through Surface plasmon resonance (SPR) effect. Activated carbon can act as a photosensitizer to improve the visible light absorption of Ag_3PO_4 (Djellabi et al. 2022). On the other hand, the activated carbon support is able to concentrate Cr(VI) species for fast photoreduction.

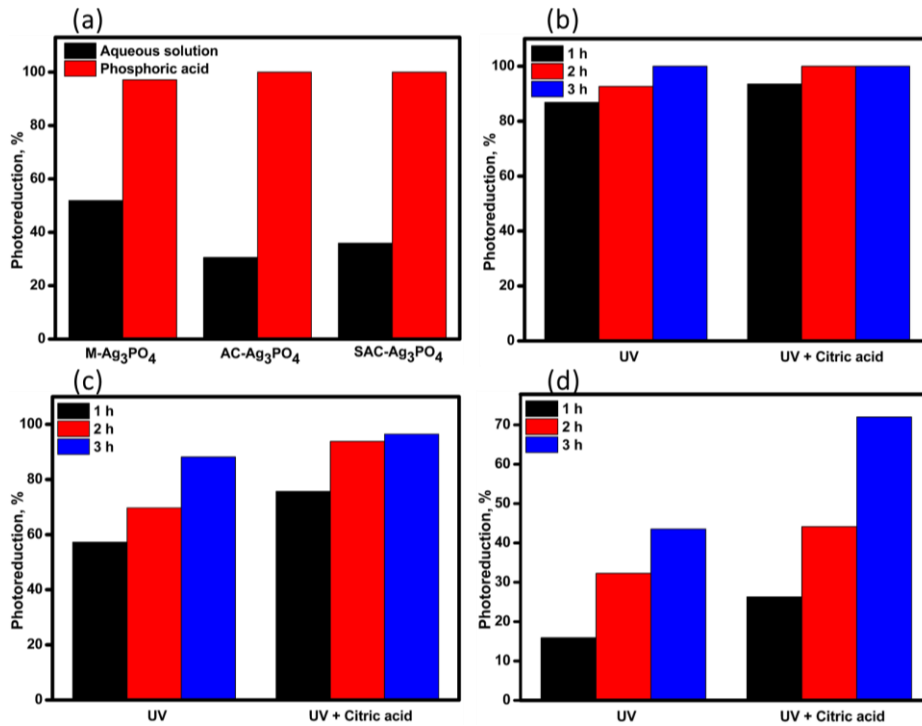


Figure 8. (a): Photoreduction of Cr(VI) by different photocatalysts under UV light without citric acid in phosphoric acid medium. [Cr(VI)]: 50 ppm, [Photocatalyst]: 1 g/L. Photoreduction of Cr(VI) at different concentrations using SAC Ag_3PO_4 under UV light with and without citric acid, (b): [Cr(VI)]: 100 ppm, (c): [Cr(VI)]: 200 ppm, (d): [Cr(VI)]: 300 ppm.

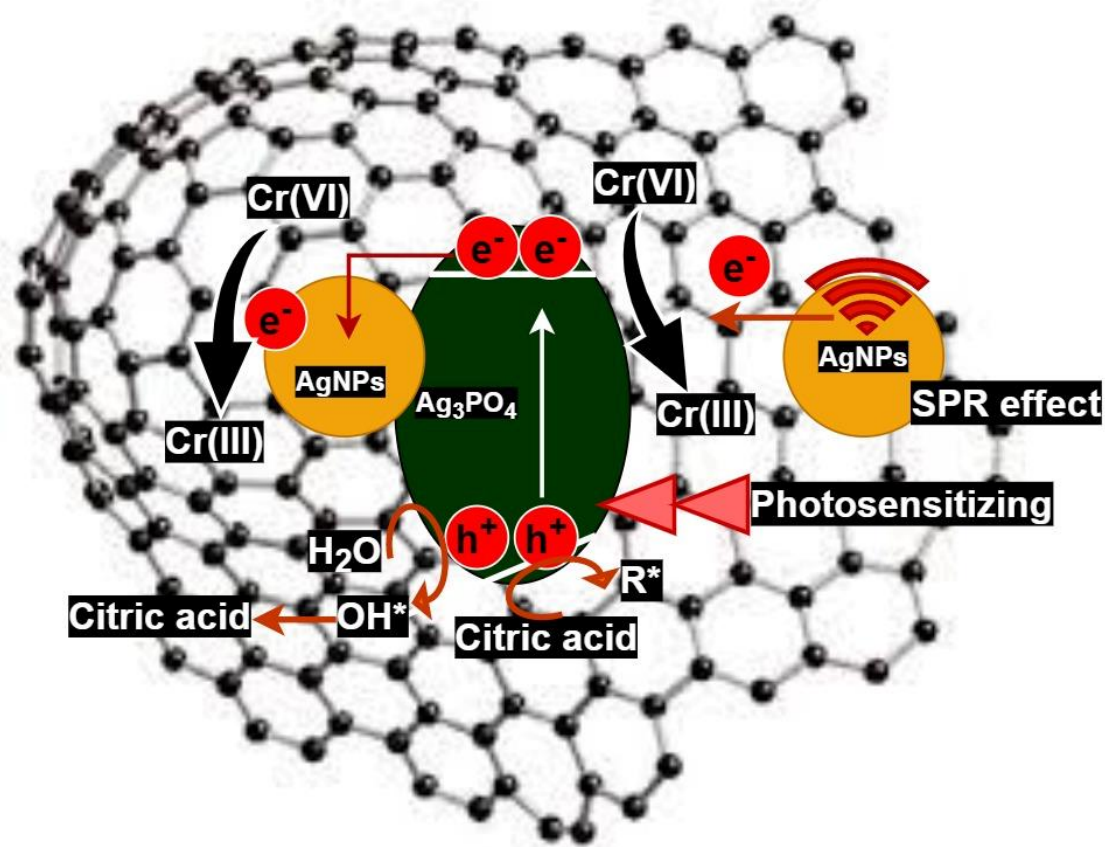


Figure 9. Simplified scheme showing the possible pathways for the photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) on the surface of SACAg/Ag₃PO₄.

4. Conclusions

The present study has investigated the photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) in water and phosphoric acid mediums using three types of as-prepared photocatalysts, namely, MAg₃PO₄, ACAg₃PO₄, and SACAg₃PO₄. Comparatively, the adsorption and photocatalytic activity were studied in aqueous solution and phosphoric acid. The addition of citric acid as a hole scavenger significantly enhanced the reduction performance in all cases. Under UV light, MAg₃PO₄ led the best photocatalytic reduction compared to the other materials. While under solar light, SACAg₃PO₄ and ACAg₃PO₄ showed enhanced photoreduction efficiency. Interestingly, the photocatalytic reduction in phosphoric acid was much faster than that in an aqueous solution. At 50 ppm of Cr(VI) in the absence of citric acid, the reduction rates were around 50, 28, and 37% for MAg₃PO₄, ACAg₃PO₄, and SACAg₃PO₄

under UV within 3 h, respectively, while in phosphoric acid medium, a total reduction was obtained by all as-prepared photocatalysts. It was claimed that the generation of ROSs in phosphoric acid would be lesser than that in an aqueous solution, which may favor the photoreduction performance. SACAg₃PO₄ showed significant reduction rates even at higher Cr(VI) concentrations (100 to 300 ppm). The results of this study are very promising in terms of the use of photocatalytic technology for the recovery of heavy metals from phosphoric acid. As a primary first investigation, this work may open the door to future research in this field to carry our further studies towards the purification of phosphoric acid produced by the wet process.

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