

# Applications of graphitic carbon nitride-based S-scheme heterojunctions for environmental remediation and energy conversion

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**Abstract:** The contemporary era's top environmental problems include the lack of energy, recycling of waste resources, and water pollution. Due to the speedy growth of modern industrialization, the utilization of non-renewable sources has increased rapidly, which has caused many serious environmental and energy issues. In photocatalysis, as a proficient candidate, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (metal-free polymeric photocatalyst) has gained much attention due to its auspicious properties and excellent photocatalytic performance. But, regrettably, the quick recombination of photoinduced charge carriers, feeble redox ability, and inadequate visible light absorption are some major drawbacks of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> that hamper its photocatalytic ability. Henceforth, these significant limitations can be solved by incorporating modification strategies. Among all modification techniques, the amalgamation of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> with two or more photocatalytic semiconducting materials via heterojunction formation is more advantageous. In this review, we have discussed various modification strategies, including conventional, Z-scheme and S-scheme heterojunctions. S-scheme heterojunction is considered an efficient and profitable charge transfer pathway due to the excellent departure and transfer of photoexcited charge carriers with outstanding redox ability. Consequently, the current review is focused on various photocatalytic applications of S-scheme-based g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalysts in pollutant degradation, H<sub>2</sub> production, and CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

**Keywords:** g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>; Modification strategies; S-scheme heterojunction; Pollutants degradation; Energy conversion.

## List of Abbreviations

Acetylene black (AB); All-solid-state (ASS); Apparent quantum efficiency (AQE); Bisphenol A (BPA); Carbon nitride quantum dots (CNQDs); Cefixime (CFX); Ciprofloxacin (CIP); Conduction band (Vedula *et al.*); Diclofenac (DCF); Electron-hole pairs (EHPs); Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS); Electron proton resonance (EPR); Fluoroquinolones (FQs); Graphene oxide (GO); Levofloxacin (LVF); Internal electric field (IEF); Methyl orange (MO); Methylene blue (MB); Nanorods (NRs); Nanosheets (NSs); Nanotubes (NT); Near-infrared (NIR); NPs (nanoparticles); Norfloxacin (NOR); Photocatalytic water splitting (PWS); Photoluminescence (González-Pleiter *et al.*); Reactive oxygen species (ROS); Rhodamine B (RhB); Specific surface area (SSA); Surface plasmon resonance (SPR); Tetracycline (TC); Valence band (VB)

## Highlights

- An overview of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> as a photocatalyst.
- Modification strategies of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalysts are explored with their mechanisms.
- S-scheme-based g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> heterojunctions were elaborated for pollutant degradation.
- S-scheme-based g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> heterojunctions in energy conversion are explored
- Current challenges with some future perspectives are explained.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Recently, viable photocatalytic clean energy production has been well-thought-out as an efficient and advantageous solution to minimize the energy shortage and environmental pollution crisis. The rise in living standards and growing population are the primary reason for the depletion of non-renewable energy sources due to their excessive use. Approximately 80% of global energy utilization includes non-renewable fossil fuels (Akhundi *et al.*, 2020; Akhundi *et al.*, 2019; Amin *et al.*, 2022). Several kinds of pharmaceuticals, textiles, leather, food products and paper mills industries discharge various harmful pollutants into water sources that are deprived of any treatment processes (Lellis *et al.*, 2019; Patel *et al.*, 2019; Sasi *et al.*, 2020; Yang *et al.*, 2021). Consequently, energy deficit and environmental pollution are major concerns in the current era. Due to companies' excessive growth, wastewater contains agriculture-based chemicals, medicines, personal care products, and industrial chemicals as pollutants (Freeman *et al.*, 1992; Sharma *et al.*, 2017; Thornton *et al.*, 2002). Conventionally, many physical, chemical, and biological methods have been used to resolve these issues, but unfortunately, these techniques have poor pollutant removal efficiency (Cervantes-Avilés *et al.*, 2021; Crini *et al.*, 2019; Gupta *et al.*, 2021). Henceforth, photocatalytic waste water treatment, an advanced oxidation process, has gained much consideration due to its eco-friendly features (Bie *et al.*, 2021b). Photocatalysis technology has been extensively utilized for various energy and environmental applications (Akhundi *et al.*, 2022; Hou *et al.*, 2020), such as H<sub>2</sub>O splitting, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production, CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> reduction, O<sub>2</sub> evolution, gas purification, pollutants degradation, (Bai *et al.*, 2022; Chen, *et al.*, 2021; Kudo

*et al.*, 1998; Liu, *et al.*, 2021; Niu *et al.*, 2021; Sudhaik *et al.*, 2022; Xu, *et al.*, 2021) etc. Photocatalytic oxidation a smart pathway, has more advantages for environmental pollutants removal.

In photocatalysis production of highly reactive oxygen species (ROS), i.e. ·O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and ·OH radicals, take place by the photoinduced charge carriers (e<sup>-</sup> and h<sup>+</sup>) in the presence of solar or other light sources (Ameta *et al.*, 2018; Sabri *et al.*, 2021; Serpone, 2000). The most commonly employed semiconductors in photocatalysis are TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, BiOCl, Ag<sub>3</sub>VO<sub>4</sub>, Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, etc. (Chen *et al.*, 2010; Gu *et al.*, 2016; Guo *et al.*, 2019; Hu *et al.*, 2007; Mishra *et al.*, 2015; Sudhaik *et al.*, 2022). Some of the extensively utilized wide band gap photocatalysts (TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, etc.) have certain limitations and only respond to UV light which diminishes solar energy utilization and significantly limits their practical applications (Sabri *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2012; Xu *et al.*, 2012). Consequently, visible-light-responsive photocatalysts with tremendous photocatalytic ability grabbed the attention of researchers and have been employed for various photocatalytic applications (Kumar *et al.*, 2018; Pirhashemi *et al.*, 2018; Xiao *et al.*, 2020; Zhou *et al.*, 2021). The photo-oxidation caused by visible light is more promising as visible light is easily accessible, harmless for living organisms and contains ~45% part of solar irradiation (Brillas *et al.*, 2015; Reddy *et al.*, 2016; Wang *et al.*, 2016). In this context, numerous visible-light-responsive photocatalysts, viz. Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, BiVO<sub>4</sub>, WO<sub>3</sub>, CdS, MoS<sub>2</sub>, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, etc., have been synthesized for numerous photocatalytic applications (Cheng *et al.*, 2018; Li *et al.*, 2018; Nguyen *et al.*, 2020; Niu *et al.*, 2013; Sudhaik *et al.*, 2020; Tahir *et al.*, 2017). Amongst all visible light-driven photocatalysts, graphite-like carbon nitride (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>), a typical metal-free photocatalyst, has attained the consideration of the researchers owing to apt energy gap (2.7 eV), non-toxicity, cost-effectiveness, exceptional electronic properties, excellent thermal stability, simply synthesis at large-scale and high reduction ability (Fu *et al.*, 2018; Liu *et al.*, 2021; Wen *et al.*, 2017). It is a promising photocatalyst with a 2D layered framework already prepared since 2009 for H<sub>2</sub> production due to its outstanding properties (Chen *et al.*, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2009; Yan *et al.*, 2009). Instead of the abovementioned exceptional properties, some drawbacks like smaller specific surface area (SSA), poorly visible light harnessing and fast charge carriers recombination constrained its photoactivity (Xiao *et al.*, 2020; Zhou *et al.*, 2021).

Therefore, to minimize these drawbacks and to boost the photoactivity, a multitude of modification strategies have been utilized, for example, morphology control, cocatalyst loading, metallic and non-metallic doping, and heterojunction formation and use of support materials (Cheng *et al.*, 2021; Fu *et al.*, 2018; Li *et al.*, 2021; Wen *et al.*, 2017; Zhu *et al.*, 2021), etc.

In the midst of all modification strategies, heterojunction construction is one of the utmost efficient ways to prolong visible light garnering and to reduce the photocarriers recombination via escalating photocarriers separation and migration (Meng *et al.*, 2019; Wang *et al.*, 2014). Heterojunction techniques include conventional, Z-scheme and S-scheme (step-scheme) heterojunction, which have been employed to enhance the photo-oxidation ability of single photocatalyst through effective photocarriers separation as a result, promoting  $H_2$  production or pollutants degradation efficiency (Kumar *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2020). Numerous reports were published on traditional type-II heterojunctions of  $g-C_3N_4$  with other semiconductors, e.g. ZnO,  $ZnFe_2O_4$ ,  $BiPO_4$  and CdS, etc. (Borthakur *et al.*, 2019; He *et al.*, 2015; Xu *et al.*, 2017; Zhu *et al.*, 2021). Photocurrent transfer process in type-II heterojunction is considered perfect due to charge carriers split-up. Still, thermodynamically type-II is imperfect due to significant electrostatic repulsion among  $e^-$  and  $h^+$ , which prevents their transferal in type-II heterojunction (Li *et al.*, 2022; Xu *et al.*, 2020). Because of type-II heterostructures limitations, traditional Z-Scheme heterojunction was offered to speed-up charge carriers separation rate while preserving great redox ability, but this fit only for the solution systems (Wu *et al.*, 2022; Zhou *et al.*, 2014). Later on, researchers suggested all-solid-state (ASS) and direct Z-scheme heterojunctions with enhanced features (Li *et al.*, 2021; Low *et al.*, 2017a). Still, both these types of heterojunctions have several faults and conflicts. Therefore, to diminish the flaws of type-II and Z-Scheme heterojunctions, a novel kind of S-scheme heterojunction was recommended by Yu and his research team first time (Cheng *et al.*, 2021; Fu *et al.*, 2019; Xu *et al.*, 2020).

In S-scheme heterojunctions, two types of semiconductor photocatalysts are required, i.e. oxidative photocatalysts and reductive photocatalysts, which can be referred to as denoted by SC-I and SC-II, respectively (Wang *et al.*, 2022). In this heterostructure photocatalytic system, the  $e^-$  and  $h^+$

are retained individually in the SC-IICB and in SC-IVB, and the migration of  $e^-$  followed the path like a “step” (Kumar *et al.*, 2021; Zhang *et al.*, 2022). Similarly, in this charge transfer pathway, the fragile redox  $e^-$  and  $h^+$  are used and transported even though resilient ones are reserved and instigated for further photocatalytic reactions and, thus, promote the redox ability of the heterostructure (Bao *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2021; Xu *et al.*, 2020). In this photocatalytic system, comparatively unused  $h^+$  of semiconductor with higher valance band (VB) potential and unused  $e^-$  of semiconductor with lower conduction band (Vedula *et al.*, 2013) potential are united and abolished at the interface (Vedula *et al.*, 2013). So far, several reports have been published on S-scheme based  $g-C_3N_4$  heterojunction systems for energy conversion and pollutant degradation. For instance, 2D/2D  $Bi_2MoO_6/g-C_3N_4$ , S-scheme heterostructure with extended visible-light absorption via Au loading was prepared to employ a photoreduction and hydrothermal method by Li and coworkers (Li *et al.*, 2020). The synthesized S-scheme  $Bi_2MoO_6/g-C_3N_4/Au$  nanocomposite was used to remove Rhodamine B (RhB) dye. The degradation results confirmed that  $Bi_2MoO_6/g-C_3N_4/Au$  nanocomposite had almost 9.7 and 13.1 folds higher RhB removal efficacy than the  $Bi_2MoO_6$  and  $g-C_3N_4$  single photocatalysts, respectively. Au nanoparticles (NPs) acted as a co-catalyst to boost  $e^-$  relocation and departure rate from CB of  $g-C_3N_4$ . Li and his research team reported the preparation of visible light-assisted S-scheme-based porous  $g-C_3N_4/TiO_2$  photocatalyst for  $H_2$  generation and RhB degradation (Li, B. *et al.*, 2021). The observed  $H_2$  production rate and RhB removal efficiency of optimized 40-MTO/PCN were  $2137.3 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1}$  and 35.24%, respectively. Similarly,  $CO_2$  photocatalytic reduction and Bisphenol-S degradation were reported by Die *et al.* using  $g-C_3N_4/Cu_2O@Cu$  S-scheme photocatalyst (Dai *et al.*, 2022b). The study explored the highest CO and  $CH_4$  production rate for S-scheme  $g-C_3N_4/Cu_2O@Cu-4$  nanocomposite, i.e. 13.5 ( $10.8 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1}$ ) and 15.5 folds ( $3.1 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1}$ ) greater than bare  $Cu_2O$ , respectively. Also,  $g-C_3N_4/Cu_2O$  S-scheme heterojunction had shown 49.5% Bisphenol-S degradation than bare  $Cu_2O$  (24.8%) and  $g-C_3N_4$  (31.4%) within 120 min of photocatalytic reaction. In the discussed work, the enhanced efficiency was due to S-scheme charge transfer pathway that efficiently enhanced separation and transferal of photoexcited charge carriers with outstanding redox ability.

Henceforth, a new and efficient S-scheme heterojunction with exceptional assistances, such as a solid capability to boost photoexcited charge carriers split-up and concurrent retaining of the inclusive/higher redox potential of photocatalyst (Xu *et al.*, 2020), has made the current research community to focus more towards S-scheme based photocatalytic system. Thus, knowing the advantageous of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalyst and S-scheme heterojunction (as modification strategy), the current review article is based on S-scheme heterojunctions of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. To date, limited reviews have been published on S-scheme-based g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Li *et al.*, 2022). So, in this review, we have summarized different modification strategies (traditional, Z-scheme and S-scheme heterojunction) to boost the photocatalytic ability of a single g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalyst. Similarly, due to aforesaid benefits of the S-scheme charge transfer route, we have broadly discussed the diverse photocatalytic applications of S-scheme based g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> heterojunctions for the removal of various water contaminants (Antibiotics, textile dyes, phenols, Cr(VI) reduction), photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> production, CO<sub>2</sub> photo-reduction into fuels from newly published works. In conclusion, based on recent research progress, we have also proposed some current challenges and key points associated with the future leaning in their construction/synthesis and applications of S-scheme based g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> heterostructures, which can be helpful for further innovative research (Li *et al.*, 2022).

## 2. g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> PHOTOCATALYST WITH ITS MODIFICATION STRATEGIES

In general, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> is an n-type semiconductor with an energy gap of 2.7 eV that harvest visible light, making it a visible light-driven semiconductor material (Dai *et al.*, 2021; Sudhaik *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2009). The g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> has numerous exceptional properties like non-toxicity, stability, low-cost, appropriate energy-gap, and visible-light absorption. But, still, pristine g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> has some glitches like low quantum yield, charge recombination, poor conductivity, etc. therefore, it is modified every so often (Akhundi *et al.*, 2019; Cao *et al.*, 2015; Li *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2014). g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> can be fabricated by a simple preparation route i.e. the thermal polycondensation/thermal polymerization of melamine or dicyandiamide precursor. It can also be prepared using thermal-polymerization of urea (Akhundi *et al.*, 2020; Alwin *et al.*, 2020a; Alwin *et al.*, 2020b;

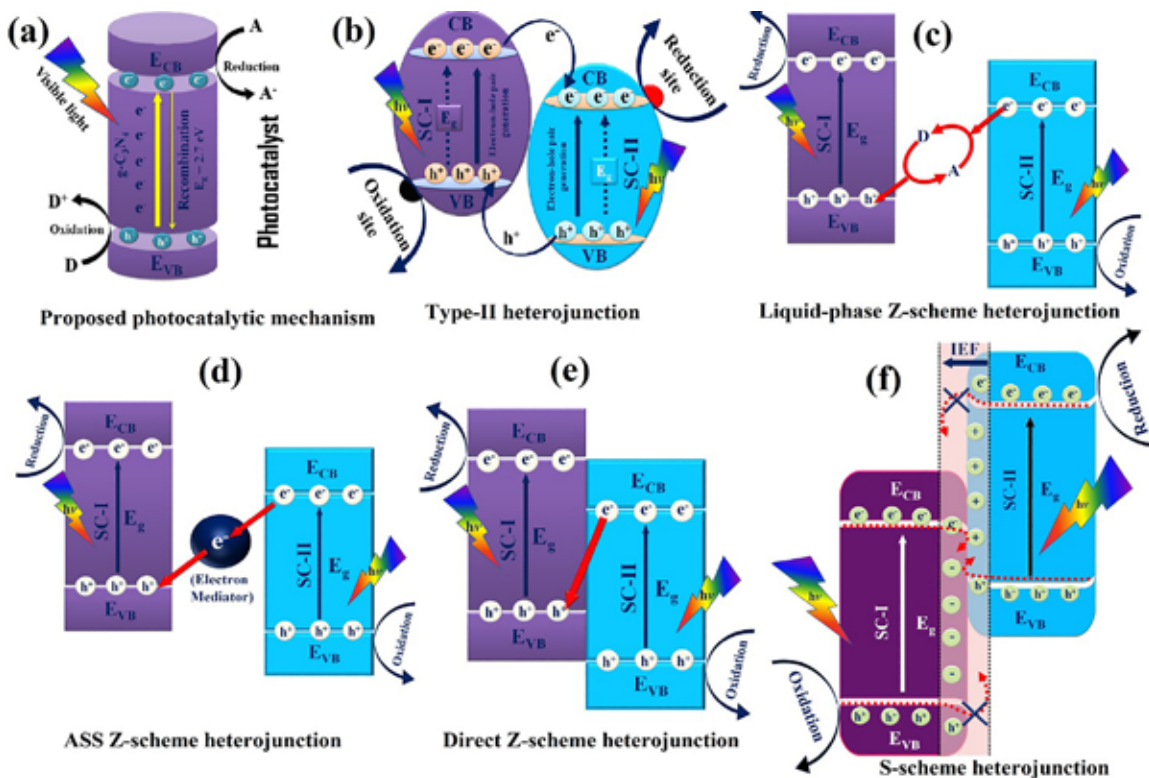
Yang *et al.*, 2021). Though the procedure is simple, during thermal polycondensation of melamine or dicyandiamide, some toxic gases are released which can pollute the atmosphere. However in the case of thermal polymerization of urea, the attained yield is meager, and the calcination environment, as well as the temperature, are stringent (Wu *et al.*, 2022). The expected photocatalytic mechanism of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalyst is presented in Fig.1a, indicating the photocatalytic process in different steps, such as excitation of electrons in the presence of light to form photoexcited charge carriers (electrons and holes), charge carrier's migration towards the surface and finally the participation of charge carriers in further redox reactions on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalyst surface to produce ROS (Bie *et al.*, 2021a; Li *et al.*, 2022; Sudhaik *et al.*, 2022). Although due to constricted bandgap, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> utilize visible light and generates  $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$  radicals in its CB but still can't produce  $\cdot\text{OH}$  radicals (Sudhaik *et al.*, 2020; Wei *et al.*, 2021). As in photocatalysis, more -ve CB potential and +ve VB potential are essential to boost the surface redox reactions. Hence, it is challenging for a bare photocatalyst to exhibit a lower energy gap and strong redox capabilities concurrently (Li *et al.*, 2016; Li, Yang *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2021). Furthermore, the attainment of efficient charge carriers' separation is also an excellent challenge for a single g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalyst. Despite good and exceptional possessions, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> has several drawbacks as a photocatalyst (Cao *et al.*, 2015; Liao *et al.*, 2019; Yang *et al.*, 2021; Yuan *et al.*, 2022). To minimize those limitations and to augment the photocatalytic ability of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> with extended visible light absorption, various modification strategies have been adopted such as metal/nonmetal elements doping, heterojunctions formation, coupling with support materials (combination of two or more semiconductors) (Diao *et al.*, 2021; Li *et al.*, 2022; Li *et al.*, 2020; Zhang *et al.*, 2021), etc. These modification strategies not only enrich the light-harvesting but also improve the photodegradation ability of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalysts in different fields, and some of the examples have been discussed in the next section.

### 2.1. Modification strategies

To date numerous modification strategies have been employed towards g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalyst to improve its photocatalytic properties, but amongst all strategy, construction of heterojunction of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>

photocatalyst with different semiconducting materials helps to achieve all the mentioned concerns at the same time (Lian *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2021; Zhu *et al.*, 2021). To date, numerous  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -based heterojunctions have been synthesized and have been used for various photocatalytic applications such as type-II, Schottky,

Z-scheme and p-n heterojunction (Huang *et al.*, 2019; Li *et al.*, 2020; Maihemllti *et al.*, 2021; Ren *et al.*, 2019; Wang *et al.*, 2021; Yang *et al.*, 2019). From these heterojunctions, Z-scheme, S-scheme, and type-II heterojunctions comprising two n- and p-type SCs have gained much consideration (Xu *et al.*, 2020; Zhang *et al.*, 2020).



**Figure 1.** (a) The proposed photocatalytic mechanism of  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  photocatalyst, Charge transfer route in various types of heterojunctions: (b) Type-II, (c-e) Z-scheme, ((c) Liquid-phase, (d) ASS and (e) Direct Z-scheme heterojunctions), and (f) S-scheme heterojunctions, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431430538676) (Kumar *et al.*, 2021)

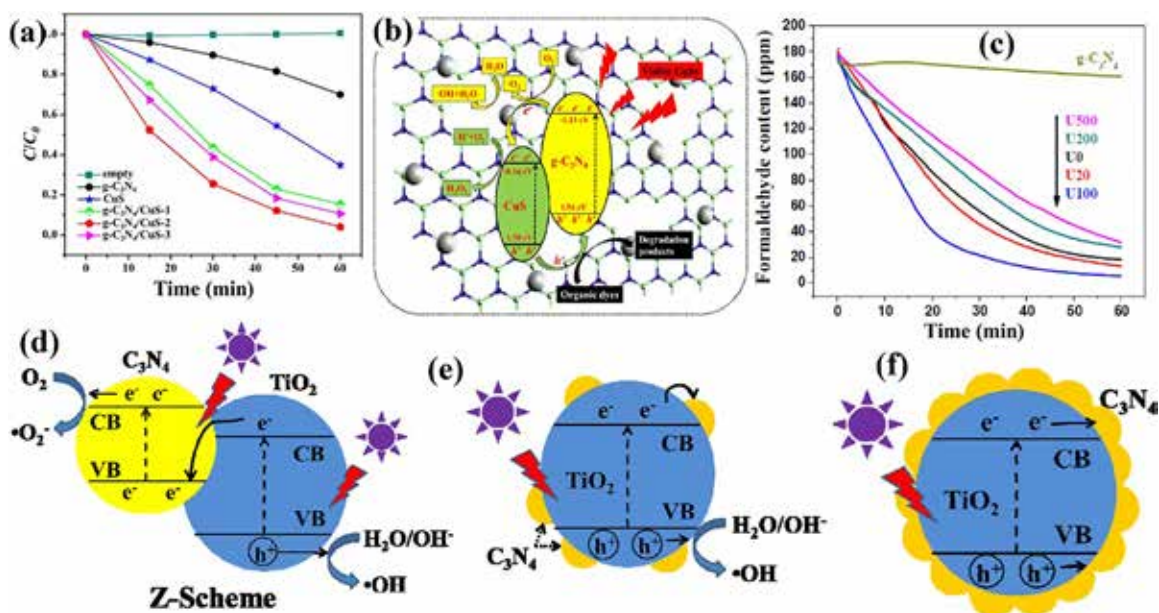
### 2.1.1. Conventional Heterojunctions

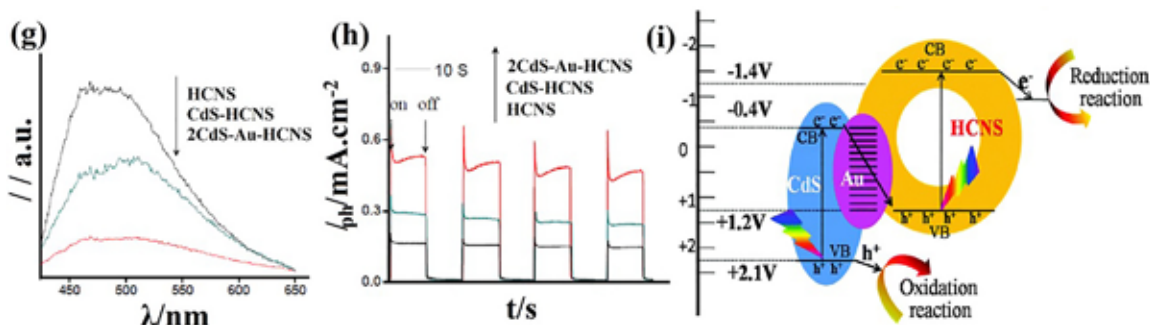
Conventional heterostructures include p-n heterojunctions and Schottky junctions, as well as type-I, type-II, and type-III heterostructures (Kumari *et al.*, 2022; Low *et al.*, 2017b). In type-I heterojunction, photoinduced  $CB\ e^-$  and  $VB\ h^+$  present in the semiconductor-I (SC-I) migrate to the  $VB$  and  $CB$  of semiconductor-II (SC-II), respectively. All the charge carriers were stored in SC-II; hence due to no progress in charge carriers separation in this heterojunction, its photocatalytic activity is low. In type-II heterojunction,  $CB\ e^-$  migrates from SC-I to  $CB$  of SC-II, and  $h^+$  transfers from  $VB$  of SC-II to SC-I. The remaining photoinduced  $h^+$  in  $VB$  of

SC-I and  $e^-$  in  $CB$  of SC-II, respectively, take part in the further redox processes. Therefore, strong redox capability and spatially dispersed redox reaction sites are possible because of the type-II charge-transfer mechanism (Fig. 1b) (Liu *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2013). Sun and coworkers designed  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{ZnO}$  composites with type-II heterojunction for photocatalytic efficiency of p-nitrophenol and MO (Sun *et al.*, 2012). The  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{ZnO}$  nanocomposites were more photocatalytic than pristine  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  and  $\text{ZnO}$ . Photoexcited  $e^-$  in the  $CB$  of  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  can reduce  $\text{O}_2$  to produce highly oxidizing  $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ . However, photoexcited  $h^+$  in the  $VB$  of  $\text{ZnO}$  can directly oxidize MO. The increased photocatalytic performance was demonstrated by

suppression of  $e^-h^+$  recombination and the production of more  $\cdot O_2^-$ , showing the boosted efficiency of  $g-C_3N_4/ZnO$ . Whereas the ideal type-II heterojunction may be able to segregate charge couples spatially, the increased  $e^-h^+$  separation across the type-II heterojunction is insufficient to counteract the quick recombination of  $e^-h^+$  that occurs on the semiconductor (Li et al., 2022). To improve photocatalytic efficiency, it is proposed to design a photocatalyst with p-n heterojunction, which uses an extra electric field to speed up the photocarrier separation and relocation. The desirable photocatalyst with p-n heterojunction is fabricated using p-type and n-type SCs (Sah et al., 1957; Wang et al., 2019). The Fermi level of p-type SC is close to the VB, whereas that of n-type SC is close to the CB. Accordingly, an electric field is generated between two SC of different types. Photoexcited  $e^-h^+$  pairs will dissociate under the influence of an electric field. Generally, because of its structural NH/NH<sub>2</sub> groups, which act as electron donors,  $g-C_3N_4$  is classified as an n-type SC (Fu et al., 2018). Cai et al. used in situ synthesis to construct a  $g-C_3N_4/CuS$  p-n heterostructures composite for the photodegradation of RhB and MB dye (Cai et al., 2017). The photodegradation ability of the  $g-C_3N_4/CuS$  heterojunctions was significantly improved than bare CuS and  $g-C_3N_4$ . As presented in Fig. 2a,  $g-C_3N_4/CuS$ -2 nanocomposite had shown 96.8% RhB degradation efficacy within 60 min of light irradiation. CuS have more positive VB than  $g-C_3N_4$ , and  $g-C_3N_4$  have more negative CB than CuS. So, photoexcited

$h^+$  readily transferred from VB of CuS to VB of  $g-C_3N_4$ , and photoinduced  $e^-$  quickly moved from CB of  $g-C_3N_4$  to CB of CuS (Fig. 2b). A p-n heterostructure amid CuS and  $g-C_3N_4$  allowed for the effectual separation of photo-induced charge carriers. Schottky junction is made up of an SC and a metal or metal-like substance, which is helpful in creating a spatial charge division area. Because of its distinctive properties, electrons may quickly jump from one material to another over the interface between them (Tung, 2001). The photocatalytic activity was enhanced because of the Fermi energy levels placement and considerable control of photocarrier recombination. Shen and coworkers fabricated  $g-C_3N_4$ -AB-CuS photocatalyst using acetylene black (AB) as the mediator that connected CuS and  $g-C_3N_4$  photocatalysts to fabricate the highly stable ternary Schottky junction (Shen et al., 2018). Incorporating AB nanoparticles into a  $g-C_3N_4$  system resulted in the creation of Schottky junctions, so that the transport of  $e^-$  from CB of  $g-C_3N_4$  to AB. Owing to the high electronic conductivity of AB, the recombination of photocarriers in  $g-C_3N_4$ -AB-CuS was reduced, proving the material's improved photocatalytic activity. Even though traditional type-II heterostructure appears to activate charge transmission, but it lowers the redox capability of charge carriers formed during photocatalytic system. Furthermore, the repulsion among the CB  $e^-$  and VB  $h^+$  of the two SCs hinder the transference of photocarriers in a type-II heterojunction (Li et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021).





**Figure 2.** (a) RhB degradation rate beneath visible-light radiation (deprived of catalyst and using  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ , CuS and  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{CuS}$  photocatalysts) and (b) Representation of proposed RhB degradation mechanism using visible light assisted  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{CuS}$  photocatalyst, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5433490423077) (Cai *et al.*, 2017). (g) PL spectra, (h) Photocurrent response, and (i) Proposed photocatalytic mechanism presenting Z-scheme electron transfer in CdS-Au-HCNS nanocomposite, Reprinted with permission from RSC (License ID. 1292693-2) (Yu *et al.*, 2013). (c) Assessment of the photoactivity of differently prepared samples for the decomposition of HCHO in air, (d) Graphic design showing photocarriers separation and transferal in Z-scheme  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$  heterostructure beneath UV light exposure, Reprinted with permission from RSC (License ID. 1292693-1) (Zheng *et al.*, 2015).

### 2.1.2. Z-scheme Heterojunctions

All the heterojunctions above enhance  $e^-h^+$  separation efficacy, but their redox ability is limited since oxidation and reduction processes happen on the semiconductor with lower oxidation and reduction potentials (Kumar *et al.*, 2021). To address these issues, leading researchers Bard *et al.* 1979 proposed developing a Z-scheme photocatalytic system (Bard *et al.*, 1979). In nature, green plants inspire this ideal transfer of charges since it's not only effectively separate photoinduced carriers but also provide strong and high redox proficiencies. Nonetheless, the redox mediators restrict the usefulness of Z-scheme photocatalytic systems to the liquid state (Fig. 1c). Therefore, the development of an ASS Z-scheme utilizing a metal as a mediator, or without a mediator, is expected (Fig. 1d). Yu and coworkers intended a potential mediator-free model in 2013 (Yu *et al.*, 2013). For recombination with photoinduced holes, photoexcited  $e^-$  on the lower-level CB of SC-II can go straight to the VB of SC-I. Direct Z-scheme mechanism defines this type of charge transferal (Fig. 1e). The  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -based metal sulfide nanohybrids have received multidisciplinary attention because of their broad ability in energy applications and their attribution to the improved photocatalytic Z-scheme system (Low *et al.*, 2017a). Starting with the traditional Z-scheme system to an electron mediator system and working our way up to the direct Z-scheme that doesn't need an electron mediator. ASS Z-scheme system has more significant

applications in gas-solid and liquid-solid systems than their liquid-phase counterparts (Zhou *et al.*, 2014). Nanoparticles have been widely utilized as mediators in the building of Z-scheme because of their superior electrical conductivity. Another category of dual Z-scheme has also gained interest as it improves the photoactivity of a photocatalyst and minimizes the imitations of direct Z-scheme photocatalysts (Kumar *et al.*, 2021; Low *et al.*, 2017a). Considering these benefits, Yu and coworkers fabricate  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$  direct Z-scheme heterojunction utilizing urea, P25 and  $\text{TiO}_2$  as precursors in a one-step calcination procedure (Yu *et al.*, 2013). The photocatalytic results displayed that U100 exhibited the highest HCHO decomposition ratio (94%), as shown in (Fig. 2c). Through the calcination process, the interface amid  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  was improved, allowing for better electrical conductivity.  $\text{TiO}_2$  has a thin coating of  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  nanosheets (NSs), and the  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  NSs are in intimate contact with the  $\text{TiO}_2$  substrate (Fig. 2e and f). The concentration of photoexcited  $\cdot\text{OH}$  was examined through the PL process in the presence of a probe molecule (terephthalic acid). With formaldehyde degradation activity under UV light and improved charge separation efficacy, the  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$  nanocomposite surpasses pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  photocatalysts. The  $\text{VB}_{\text{h}^+}$  of  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  holes cannot generate  $\cdot\text{OH}$  because their VB potential is less positive than  $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\cdot\text{OH}$  and  $\cdot\text{OH}$  radicals were formed from holes in VB of  $\text{TiO}_2$  (Fig. 2d). However, the generation of  $\cdot\text{OH}$  intermediates in  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$  hybrids cannot be

described by charge transfer via type II heterojunctions. The findings reveal a simple charge transfer via Z-scheme. Zheng *et al.* successfully fabricated CdS/Au/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> Z-scheme ternary heterojunction using HCNS (Zheng *et al.*, 2015). A prominent emission peak was showed by PL characterization of the HCNS (Fig. 2g). Combining HCNS with CdS and Au resulted in a photocatalyst with much-reduced charge recombination, as seen by the rapid quenching of the intense PL. These results obtained from the highly efficient charge separation were afforded by the indirect Z-scheme heterojunction which was validated through photocurrent response (Fig. 2h). Au nanoparticles worked as an electron mediator, accelerating the transport of photoexcited e<sup>-</sup>-h<sup>+</sup> pairs from CdS to HCNS. Fabricated CdS/Au/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> heterojunction has the maximum photocatalytic activity than CdS and HCNS nanoparticles. In order to shuttle the photoexcited e<sup>-</sup>s between two SCs in Z-scheme, it is necessary to introduce electron mediators, as indicated above. It's important to note that the interface, in close contact, can serve as a mediator, much like electrons. The illustration of the proposed photocatalytic mechanism presented in (Fig. 2i).

Z-scheme heterojunctions have excellent, efficient charge separation efficiency and great redox ability, but they also have several limitations: conventional heterojunctions, Z-scheme Heterojunctions, and all-solid-state exhibit glaring flaws (Zhu *et al.*, 2017). Unlike the latter, the former is restricted towards the solution phase and is likely to choose alternative, less desirable charge-transfer paths. Under these conditions, the adequate photogenerated holes and electrons will be consumed by the redox pairs. In contrast, the photoinduced holes and electrons with lower abilities will be preserved, rendering the advantage of the classic Z-scheme over the type-II heterojunction (Paul *et al.*, 2019). Also, the redox pairs are unstable and prone to destructive reactions that might compromise the whole system. The redox couples are also sensitive to changes in pH and light, limiting their usefulness. The purpose of the ASS Z-scheme is to replace redox couples with nanoscale conductors, thereby removing the need for them and expanding the scheme's potential applications. Nonetheless, it has the same flaw (Wu *et al.*, 2017). While the all-solid-state Z-scheme may seem promising at first glance, its charge-transfer method differs from what is advertised (Ge *et al.*, 2019). When the potential difference between two photocatalysts is more

significant, the driving force is greater, and e<sup>-</sup> in the photo-catalyst with the higher CB potential will prefer to pass via the conductor to the photo-catalyst with the lower VB potential. If the conductor is not perfectly positioned between the two photocatalysts, electron transfer may still occur through the conductor to the surface. The Z-scheme family, of which ASS Z-scheme is a part, includes the vulnerable direct Z-scheme heterojunction (Kumar *et al.*, 2021).

### 2.1.3. S-scheme Heterojunctions

The latter group is rather extensive and includes the more common Z-scheme photocatalysts and the more exotic direct and ASS Z-scheme photocatalysts. Some ideas are borrowed from other fields during the first two generations. When a family's ancestors, such as conventional Z-scheme photocatalysts, have serious flaws, the offspring are sometimes wrongly assumed to have the same issues. Direct Z-scheme feels the shortcomings of conventional traditional and ASS Z-scheme photocatalysts also felt by direct Z-scheme (Bao *et al.*, 2021; Zhang *et al.*, 2022). Here, a novel notion is preferred over Z-scheme and type-II heterojunction because it more accurately represents the photocatalytic mechanism. S-scheme heterojunctions, like type-II heterojunctions, are made up of two semiconductors with distinct band structures (SC-II and SC-I). However, this configuration transfers the charge through a different path (Shawky *et al.*, 2022; Wang *et al.*, 2022). In S-scheme heterojunction, when two SCs were coupled together, the most efficient photoexcited e<sup>-</sup>-h<sup>+</sup> were stored in VB of SC-II and CB of SC-I, while the less useful photocarriers were recombined, resulting in a powerful redox reaction (Fig. 1f) (Kumar *et al.*, 2021; Zhang *et al.*, 2022). It is possible to describe the pathway by which charges move through an S-scheme as follows: (1) Compared to SC-I, SC-II has a more significant CB and VB position and a lower work function. Electrons from the SC-II spontaneously diffuse into the SC-I, forming an accumulation and depletion layer close to the interface in the two SCs. SC-I have a negative charge, while SC-II has a positive one. Simultaneously, an axial electric field is generated, with the direction of the area being from SC-I to SC-II. This internal electric field (IEF) has the opposite effect of what would happen with external electric fields, speeding up the transference of photoinduced e<sup>-</sup> from SC-I to SC-II. (2) It is optimal for SC-I and



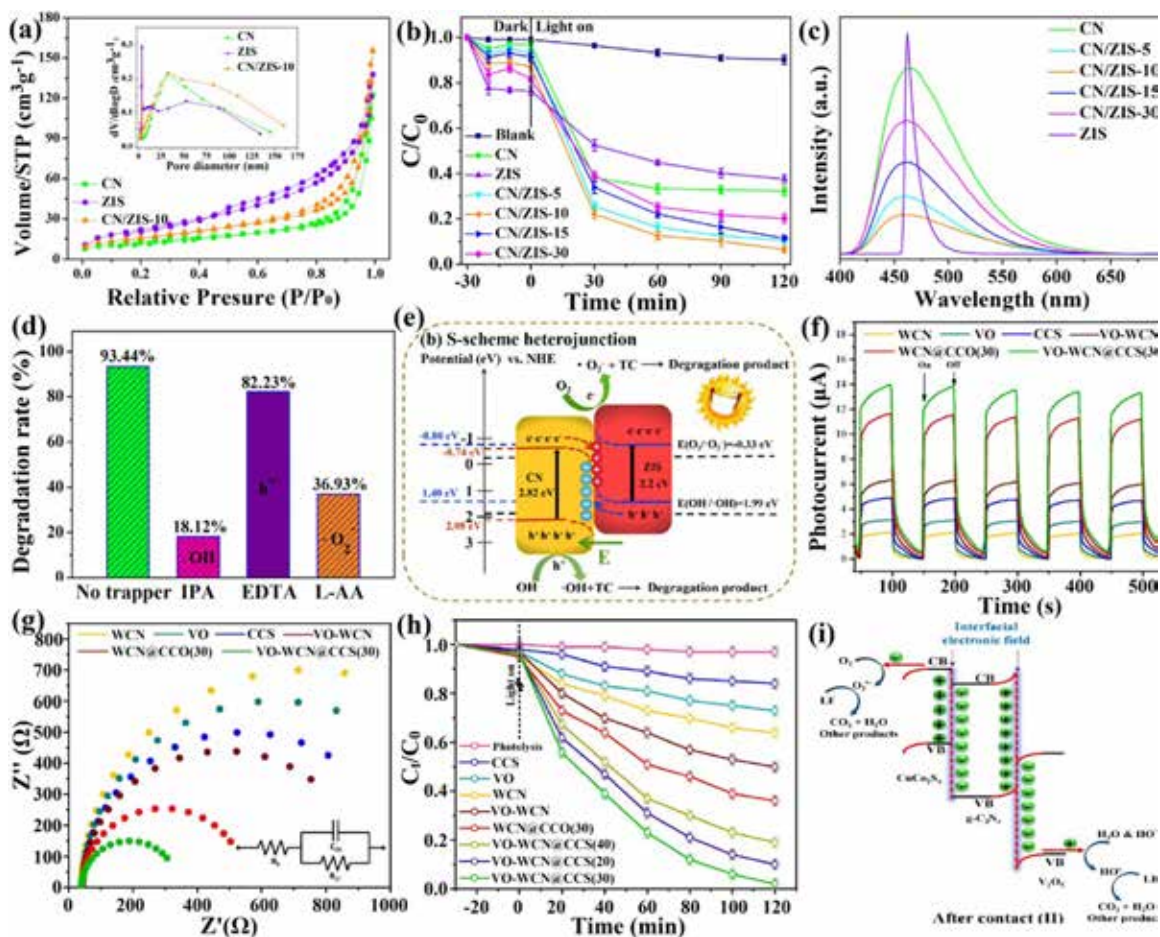
SC-II to have identical Fermi energies when they interact. As a result, the Fermi levels of SC-I and SC-II go upward and downward, correspondingly (Xu *et al.*, 2020). Photoexcited  $h^+$  in VB of SC-II and  $e^-$  in CB of SC-I at the edge region were forced to recombine due to the band bending, which can be understood by imagining water flowing downhill. (3) Owing to the Coulombic interaction amongst photocarriers, the photogenerated CB  $e^-$  of SC-I and VB  $h^+$  of SC-II are likely to recombine at the border (Bao *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2021; Xu *et al.*, 2020). In conclusion, the recombination of  $e^-$  in the CB of SC-I and  $h^+$  in the VB of SC-II is driven by the Coulombic attraction, band bending, and IEF. As a result, the photogenerated  $e^-$  and  $h^+$  in the SC-II CB and the SC-I VB, respectively, are maintained for photocatalytic processes while the surplus electrons and holes are removed by recombination. The introduction of a new mechanism, specifically, the S-scheme heterojunction has also been explored on the topic at hand. According to their band structure, photocatalysts are classified as either OP or RP in this system. We find that not all photoinduced holes and electrons are useful as we investigate this phenomenon. This system keeps the valuable elements and gets rid of the useless ones. Here, we have an instance where charge segregation and strong redox capability go hand in hand (He *et al.*, 2020). Long-term light adsorption, effective charge separation, and high redox potentials may be attained. To explain this occurrence, the authors not only present the concept of the S-scheme but also give experimental data in support of it. When compared to type-II heterojunctions and members of the Z-scheme family, the charge-transferal mechanism in S-scheme is significantly distinct, leading to improved photocatalytic performance (Kumar *et al.*, 2021). In our opinion, this proposal is the better option among all other heterojunction systems.

Deng and his peer group fabricated 2D/2D  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{ZnIn}_2\text{S}_4$  (CN/ZIS) S-scheme heterojunction with boosted interfacial charge migration and separation by facile hydrothermal process and employed for the removal of TC (Deng *et al.*, 2022). The formed S-scheme heterojunction photocatalysts was an efficient way to boost the photodegradation ability of photocatalyst via efficient and enhanced photo-redox capacity and higher charge transmission efficacy. The morphological and microstructures results showed excellent interaction among ZIS (average size of  $\sim 20$  nm) and CN via deposition of small-sized ZIS NSs with low agglomeration

on the shell of ultrathin  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ , which ultimately enhanced contact area among both NSs. Through BET analysis,  $81.56 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  and  $43.80 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  SSA (specific surface area) were observed for pristine ZIS and CN, respectively and after the formation of nanocomposite SSA of CN/ZIS-X photocatalyst progressively enhanced SSA with the increase of ZIS content (Fig. 3a). The enhanced SSA, average pore diameter and total pore volume of CN/ZIS-10 recommended more photocatalytic locates to simplify the interfacial reaction. The photodegradation results also confirmed that within 120 min of visible light illumination, the observed degradation efficiencies were 62.42%, 67.73%, 79.91%, 89.59%, 93.41%, and 88.53% for CN, ZIS, CN/ZIS-30, CN/ZIS-5, CN/ZIS-10, and CN/ZIS-15 correspondingly as displayed in Fig. 3b. Amongst all fabricated photocatalysts, the CN/ZIS-10 nanocomposite exhibited higher removal efficacy due to the higher photocarriers separation and fast interface charge relocation via the formation of S-scheme charge transfer route. Validation of efficient charge separation and migration in synthesized photocatalysts was done through PL (Fig. 3c), photocurrent and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) analysis. CN/ZIS-10 nanocomposite has higher PL intensity and photocurrent density, while the lowest Nyquist plot arc was achieved for CN/ZIS-10. The proposed S-scheme photocatalytic mechanism for CN/ZIS-10 demonstrated in Fig. 3d and e presented that  $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$  and  $\cdot\text{OH}$  radicals were the only reactive species participating in the photodegradation process (confirmed *via* scavenging experiments). Another report on the photodegradation of levofloxacin (LVF) was provided by Yang *et al.* via preparation of yolk-shell spheres  $\text{CuCo}_2\text{S}_4$  entrenched with S-scheme heterostructure of  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$ -accumulated on crumpled  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  (VO-WCN) (Yang *et al.*, 2022). The work reported tremendous photodegradation capability because of extensive light absorption, excellent reduction capability and (photo)electrochemical benefits of  $\text{CuCo}_2\text{S}_4$  (CCS) of thio-spinels. The work presented embedding of the synthesized CCS on S-scheme VO-WCN heterostructure by using a repetitive two-step method (solvothermal followed by neutral calcination) to form VO-WCN@CCS nanocomposite. The synthesized photocatalysts had superb SSA calculated through the BET isotherm method ( $S_{\text{BET}}$ ), i.e. 11.3, 120.2, 43.0, 96.3, 115.1, and  $93.7 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$  for VO, WCN, CCS, WCN@CCS(30), VO-WCN, and VO-WCN@CCS(30), respectively (Fig. 3h). Amongst all prepared

photocatalysts, the optimized VO-WCN@CCS(30) nanocomposite (30 wt% CCS loading) presented 98% LVF removal, which was 9.9, 7.2, and 19.1 folds higher than bare WCN, VO, and CCS, correspondingly within 120 min. Incremented LVF degradation efficacy of nanocomposite was attributed to effective charge migration and departure due to its IEF at the WCN, VO, and CCS interface in S-scheme heterostructure, which diminished the

charge recombination rate as shown in the charge-flow transfer diagram in Fig 3i. Similarly, the outstanding stability of heterogeneous VO-WCN and its  $e^-$  donor ability seized self-oxidation of CCS. PL and electrochemical quantification (TPC and EIS) analysis validated the low recombination rate and enhanced charge separation and transferal ability in the VO-WCN@CCS nanocomposite (Fig. 3f and g).



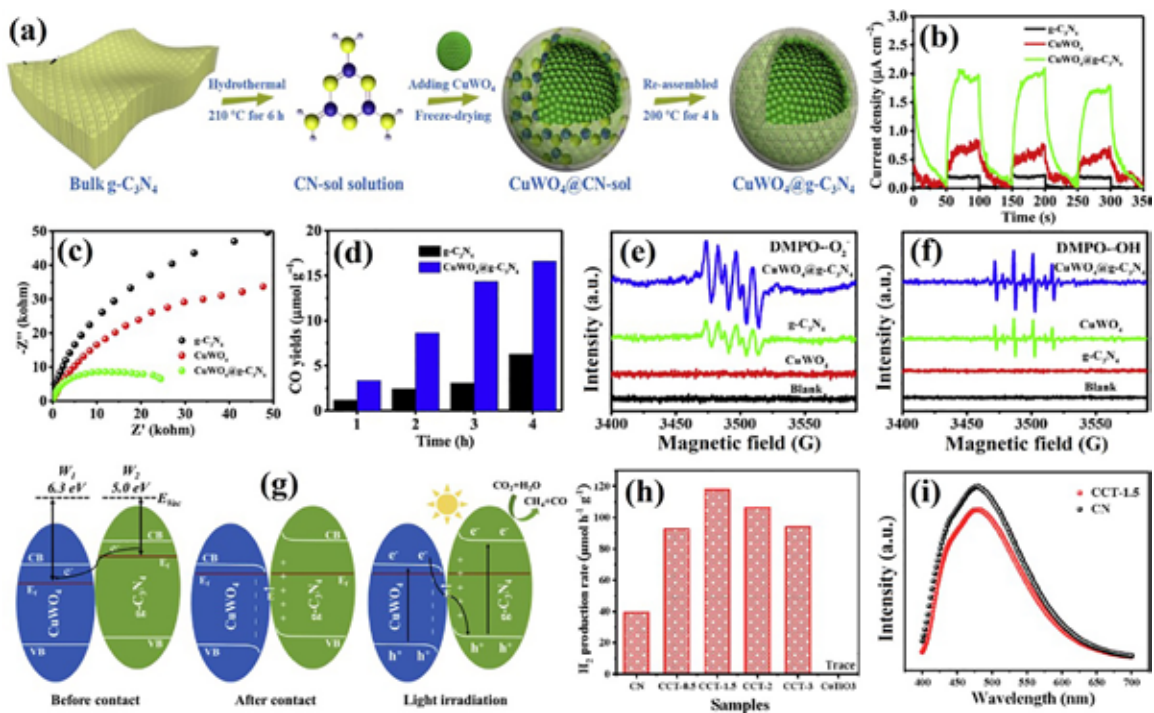
**Figure 3.** (a) BET isotherms results with inset showing pore diameter distribution curves of CN, ZIS and CN/ZIS-10 photocatalysts, (b) TC degradation results and (c) PL spectra of all prepared photocatalysts, (d) Scavenging results showing TC degradation and (e) Graphical representation of visible light assisted possible charge transfer mechanism of TC degradation using CN/ZIS-10 photocatalyst, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431271201890) (Deng *et al.*, 2022). (f) Photocurrent and (g) EIS spectra and (h) Photodegradation results of all prepared photocatalysts, (i) Illustration of charge-transfer mechanism in VO-WCN@CCS nanocomposite via built-in IEF, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431280254096) (Yang, X. *et al.*, 2022).

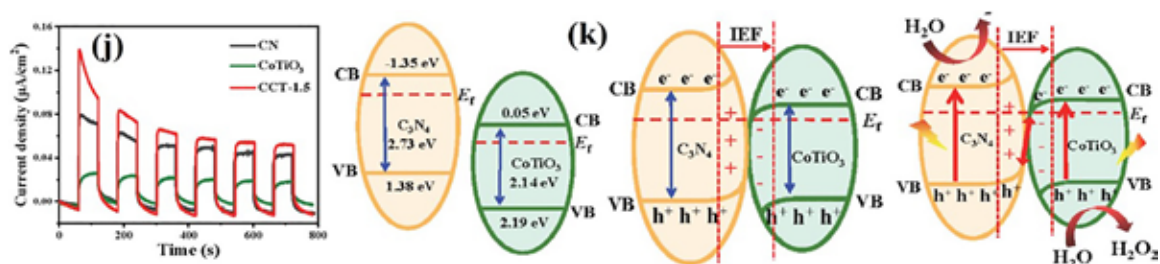
Lu and Wang designed core-shell microsphere  $\text{CuWO}_4@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  with S-scheme for the photoreduction of  $\text{CO}_2$  (Lu *et al.*, 2023). The work presented the preparation of core-shell microspheres

$\text{CuWO}_4@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  through annealing and hydrothermal method (Fig. 4a).  $\text{CuWO}_4@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  nanocomposite attained much superior photocatalytic performance to the single photocatalysts. The

enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction was due to increased SSA, enhanced visible light absorption, and enriched CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption proficiency. The observed BET SSA of CuWO<sub>4</sub>, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, and CuWO<sub>4</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> was 21, 34, and 50 m<sup>2</sup>g<sup>-1</sup> with a pore volume of 0.11, 0.08 0.20 cm<sup>3</sup>g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. During CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction, the highest achieved CO yield rate for CuWO<sub>4</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanocomposite was 2.7 folds than pristine g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, i.e. 4.15 μmol g<sup>-1</sup>h<sup>-1</sup> and 1.56 μmol g<sup>-1</sup>h<sup>-1</sup> for CuWO<sub>4</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalysts, respectively (Fig. 4d). Using theoretical studies, it was indicated that reduction and hydrogenation of \*OCHO to \*HCOOH were taken in higher E<sub>b</sub> of 0.39 eV which was more significant than CO (0.24 eV) and also contributed in high selectivity for CO yield. Furthermore, in CuWO<sub>4</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> S-scheme heterojunction, facilitated photoinduced charge carrier's separation (EIS and validated through photocurrent) and recognized strong redox ability contributed to superior CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction ability (Fig. 4b and c). The EPR analysis verified the S-scheme heterojunction by DMPO·OH and DMPO·O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> EPR spectra (Fig. 4e and f), revealing strong DMPO·OH and DMPO·O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> signals in CuWO<sub>4</sub> and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, respectively. This confirmed that CuWO<sub>4</sub> was an oxidative semiconductor, while g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> was a reductive semiconductor. The proposed mechanism is presented in (Fig. 4g). To reconnoitre H<sub>2</sub> production, and a S-scheme g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/

CoTiO<sub>3</sub> heterojunction was employed by Meng and his research group (Meng *et al.*, 2022). In this work, S-scheme g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/CoTiO<sub>3</sub> nanocomposite was used during photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> production, and no sacrificial agents were utilized. 118 μmol g<sup>-1</sup>h<sup>-1</sup> H<sub>2</sub> production rate was obtained with 1.5 wt% optimum loading of CoTiO<sub>3</sub> in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/CoTiO<sub>3</sub> (CCT-1.5) (Fig. 4h). The increased H<sub>2</sub> production rate mainly credited to the prolonged light garnering due to amalgamated visible light driven property of CoTiO<sub>3</sub> and efficient charge departure plus relocation with strong redox capability, prompted by the S-scheme charge transfer way (confirmed through PL and photocurrent) (Fig. 4i and j). As presented in Fig. 4k, CoTiO<sub>3</sub> have lower Fermi potential than CN but when both SCs CoTiO<sub>3</sub> and CN came in contact with each other, transference of e<sup>-</sup> took place from CN to CoTiO<sub>3</sub> owing to the difference in their Fermi levels. After some time, when Fermi levels align, the charge migration attained equilibrium at the end. In this situation, the -ve charged ions accumulated on the CoTiO<sub>3</sub> side of the edge, whereas +ve charged ions were collected on the other side of CN. So, an IEF is and produced from CN to CoTiO<sub>3</sub> transversely through the interface. Consequently, band bending in CB and VB of both semiconductors took place at the interface region and led to the construction of an S-scheme heterostructure, as illustrated in Fig. 4k.





**Figure 4.** (a) Diagram showing preparation route of  $\text{CuWO}_4@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  core-shell nanocomposite, (b) photocurrent and (c) EIS spectra of samples, (d) Bar graph presenting photoreduction of  $\text{CO}_2$  into CO, (e) DMPO- $\text{O}_2^-$  and (f) DMPO-OH EPR spectra, (g) The band arrangement among  $\text{CuWO}_4$  and  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  photocatalysts (before, after contact, and in the presence of light illumination) with proposed mechanism displaying photocarriers migration among  $\text{CuWO}_4$  and  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  in  $\text{CuWO}_4@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  heterojunction, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431280870375) (Lu *et al.*, 2023). (h) Results showing photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2$  production by CN,  $\text{CoTiO}_3$ , and CCT- $x$  ( $x = 0.5, 1.5, 2, 3$ ) photocatalysts, (i) PL spectra and (j) Photocurrent spectra of prepared photocatalysts, (k) Graphic representation of the band alignments in CN and  $\text{CoTiO}_3$  before, after contact, and under light irradiation presenting photocatalytic S-scheme charge transfer route in CCT-1.5 nanocomposite via the formation of IEF, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431281145797) (Meng *et al.*, 2022).

### 3. APPLICATIONS OF S-SCHEME BASED $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ HETEROJUNCTION PHOTOCATALYSTS IN POLLUTANT DEGRADATION AND ENERGY CONVERSION

The significant fundamental problems in type-II heterojunction and the Z-scheme family have upsurged the emergence of S-scheme-based photocatalytic applications. This section discusses the worldwide issues of energy conservation and waste-water treatment with progressive research on  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$   $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ -based S-scheme heterostructures. The photocatalytic efficiency mainly depends on the utilization of light photons to improve oxidation/reduction reaction rates for sufficient generation of reactive oxidative species (Shawky *et al.*, 2022). The development of a desirable S-scheme heterojunction is well-explored using  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  photocatalyst owing to its inherent tunable electronic structure and visible light active band gap with prospected redox potentials (Xu *et al.*, 2020).

#### 3.1. Pollutant degradation

The presence of different kinds of hazardous pollutants in wastewater is one of the significant problems in recent times. The speedy growth of industries and population has severely affected drinking water resources (Afroz *et al.*, 2014; Li *et al.*, 2019). Numerous pollutants, such as dyes, antibiotics,

phenols, heavy metals, etc., are continuously being released, which are entering into the drinking water resources and polluting them. These pollutants have several hazardous effects on the life of all living organisms as well as on the environment, e.g. the indestructible waste of the pharmaceutical industries and the excreted drug deposits by societies due to meagre metabolic action caused the release of these contaminants into environmental sources and also caused the growth of antibiotic-resistant pathogens (Andersson, 2003; Chen *et al.*, 2018; Khachatourians, 1998). Hence, photo-oxidation is recognized as an effective way to solve this major issue and abatement of environmental contaminants. Notably, the photo-oxidation accelerated under visible light is more promising as visible light is easily accessible and harmless to humans (Wang *et al.*, 2020; Yang *et al.*, 2021). Previously, we have discussed the advantages of S-scheme heterostructure and  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -based nanocomposites in the field of photocatalysis. So, in this section, we are the uses of S-scheme based  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  heterojunctions for eradicating various noxious waste existing in wastewater, e.g. antibiotics, dyes, phenols and heavy metals etc.

##### 3.1.1. Antibiotics removal

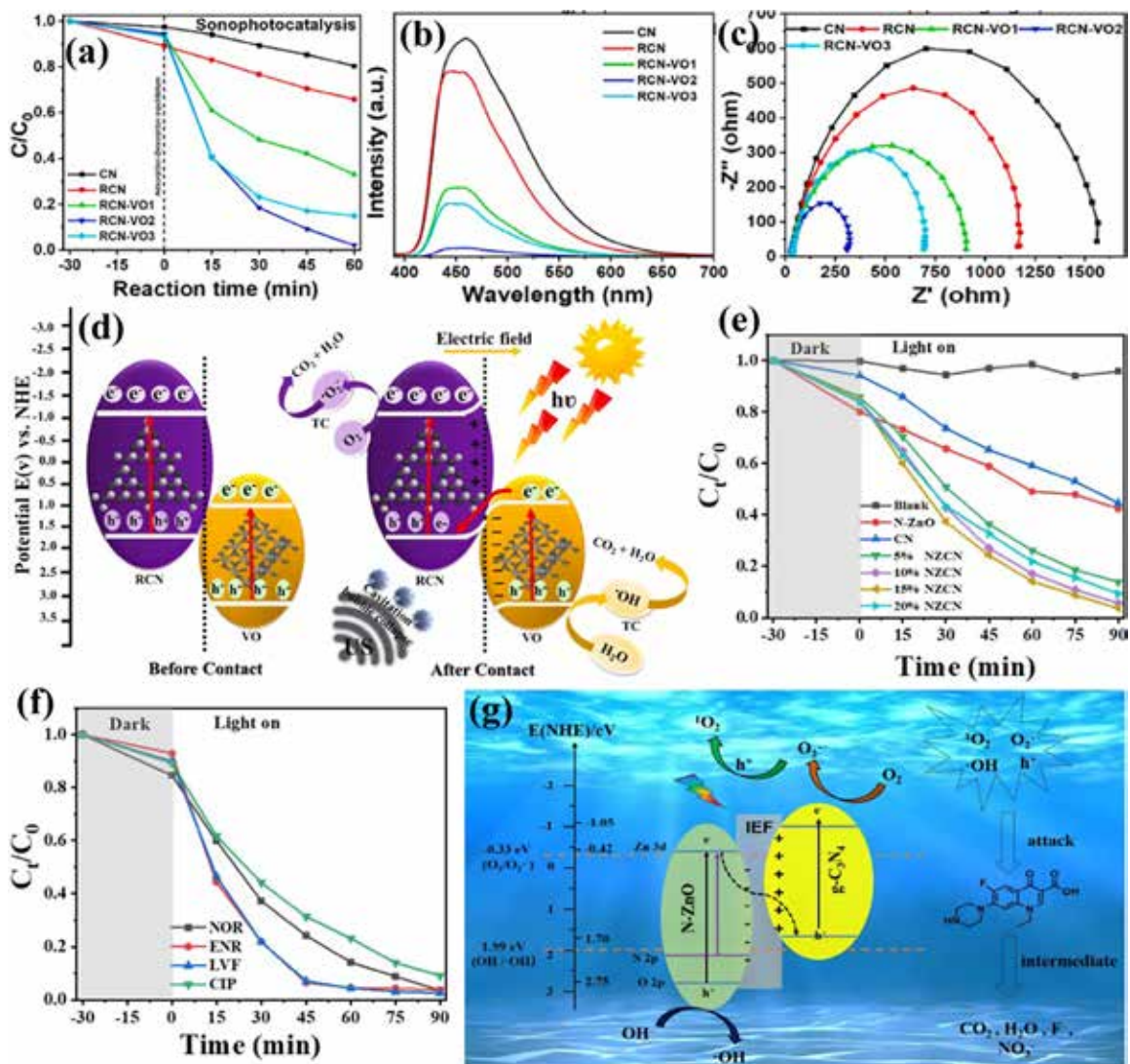
Nowadays, the inappropriate and excessive use of several antibiotics has threatened the life of living beings via polluting water resources. These are considered major components of water pollution and environmental concerns. By 2020, the utilization

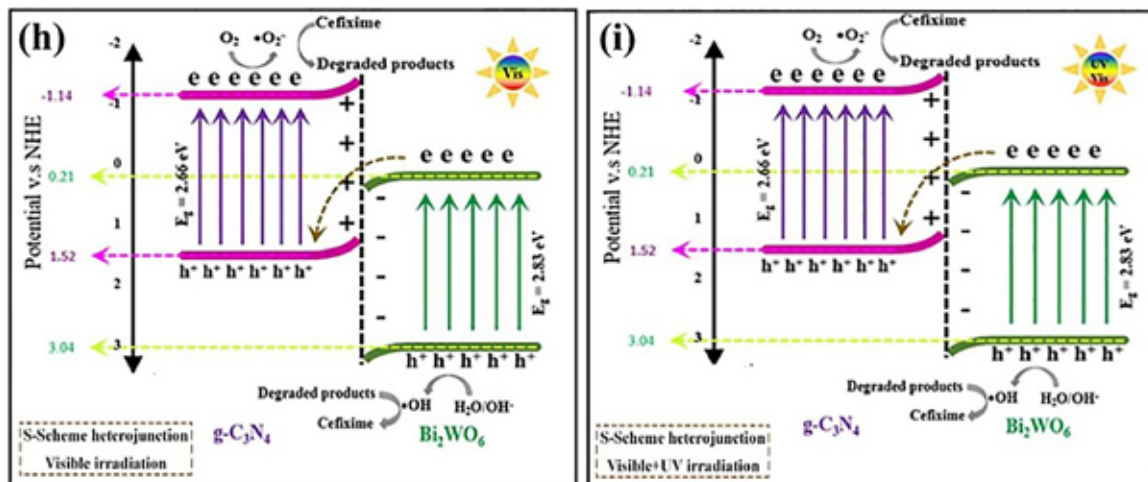
of pharmaceuticals has reached up to 4500 billion tons world widely, and a minimum of 3000 pharmaceutical species have been found in water and wastewater (Chavoshani *et al.*, 2020). The high pharmaceutical consumption and persistent and unsafe disposal the water resources have harmful and dreadful consequences on the environment and living organisms (Qiao *et al.*, 2018). As an emerging pollutant, antibiotics have gradually turned out to be the centre of attention. Several kinds of antibiotics are polluting water resources such as tetracycline, norfloxacin (NOR), diclofenac (DCF), Levofloxacin (LF), (Iwuzor *et al.*, 2021; Vieno *et al.*, 2014; Xia *et al.*, 2022; Zhang *et al.*, 2019), etc. Hence, removal of these; in this context,  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  based photocatalytic materials has been considered as antibiotic contaminants highly required; in this context,  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  based photocatalytic materials has been considered an efficient and potential candidate. For the removal of these pharmaceutical pollutants, several reports on S-scheme based  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  heterojunctions were published (Li *et al.*, 2022). The reported data found that preparation and utilization of S-scheme-based  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  heterojunctions is a way to mineralize these harmful pollutants into non-toxic products. TC is extensively utilized and produced antibiotic for living organisms (Vinesh *et al.*, 2020; Xu *et al.*, 2021). However, TC is more advantageous to human and animal health. Still, untreated and over usage of TC affect the ecological balance as it is not liable to biodegradation and causes the production of drug-resistant bacteria (Ahmad *et al.*, 2021; Davies *et al.*, 2021). The eradication of TC pollutant from water resources is highly required, and the researchers did several works on photocatalytic TC removal. For example, Preeyanghaa and his research group reported the degradation of TC using an S-scheme 1D/2D rod-like  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$  (RCN-VO) heterojunction (Preeyanghaa *et al.*, 2022). Ultrasound-assisted thermal polycondensation technique was used to prepare S-scheme RCN-VO nanocomposite. The photodegradation results presented in Fig. 5a displayed complete removal of TC, i.e. 100% within 60 min of visible light exposure and ultrasound from wastewater using RCN-VO-2 nanocomposite. The results also confirmed  $\sim 1.5$  times higher TC removal efficacy via sonophotocatalytic process than sonocatalytic and photocatalytic processes utilizing RCN-VO nanocomposite. The augmented sonophotocatalytic degradation efficacy of RCN-VO was ascribed to 1D/2D nanostructure, and the formed S-scheme

charge transfer route among RCN and VO, in which the transference of excited  $e^-$  took place from RCN to VO through the RCN-VO border. However, the accumulated  $e^-$  in RCN and  $h^+$  in VO strongly participated in the redox processes generating free radicals to eradicate TC molecules. It was also observed that creating S-scheme heterojunction via a built-in electric field, band bending and Coulombic interaction concurrently enabled charge separation with a reduced recombination rate. The highest charge separation and low recombination rate was observed for RCN-VO2 nanocomposite, validated through PL and EIS analysis as shown in Fig 5b and c. The observed TC sonophotocatalytic removal efficacy of RCN-VO3, RCN-VO2, RCN-VO1, RCN, and CN was 85%, 98%, 70%, 34%, and, 20%, respectively. The presented photocatalytic mechanism in as shown in Fig. 5d revealed the major role of  $h^+$ ,  $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$  and  $\cdot\text{OH}$  radicals during sonophotocatalytic degradation process of TC using RCN-VO2 nanocomposite. Another antibiotics, Norfloxacin (NOR) and Levofloxacin (LF), family members of fluoroquinolones (FQs) antibiotics, are widely consumed for a several infectious diseases owing to its minimal complication and wide-spectrum antibiotic characteristics (Wammer *et al.*, 2013). It was found in many water resources (Chen *et al.*, 2021; Du *et al.*, 2017), and its long-term survival in the environs persuades the production of antibiotic-resistant pathogens (Chen *et al.*, 2018; González-Pleiter *et al.*, 2013). For the photocatalytic removal of norfloxacin (NOR) pollutant, a 2D/2D N-ZnO/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  (2D/2D N-ZnO/CN) S-scheme heterostructure was fabricated by calcination of ZIF-L/CN composites (Zhang *et al.*, 2022). The results stated that the bare CN and N-ZnO exhibited low charge separation efficacy but after the S-scheme heterojunction formation with N-doped ZnO, the photocarriers separation and transference rate increased at the border due to the generation of IEF, directed from CN to N-ZnO. The observed degradation efficacy of S-scheme heterostructure i.e. 15% NZCN/vis system was 96.4% within 90 min, however for CN and N-ZnO the degradation rate was 55.4% and 57.7%, respectively Fig. 5e. Besides, NOR degradation, the researcher also examined the photocatalytic efficacy of 15% NZCN/vis system towards enrofloxacin (ENR), levofloxacin (LVF), and ciprofloxacin (CIF) and the attained photodegradation rate was more than 90% in 90 min (Fig. 5f). NOR degradation results displayed 4.15 and 4.65 folds higher rate constant of 15% NZCN compared to CN and

N-ZnO, individually. During NOR photodegradation process, the reactive species participated were  $h^+$  and  $\cdot O_2^-$  radicals validate through quenching and electron proton resonance (EPR) results. The NOR degradation mechanism showing the S-scheme charge transfer route among CN and N-ZnO photocatalysts were represented in Fig. 5g Through mechanism it can be explained that the S-scheme heterostructure reserved the redox potential of photocarriers for further reaction and resulted in higher charge separation and transmission. In the similar way there are reports on cefixime (CFX) antibiotic photocatalytic degradation using green and environmentally friendly S-scheme heterostructure of  $Bi_2WO_6/g-C_3N_4$  (BC) and  $Bi_2WO_6/TiO_2$  nanocomposite (Gordanshekan et al., 2023). In this work, Gordanshekan and his peer has compared the

photodegradation ability of two different nanocomposite ( $Bi_2WO_6/g-C_3N_4$  and  $Bi_2WO_6/TiO_2$ ) synthesized via hydrothermal treatment. The degradation results revealed 94 % and 91 % CFX removal efficacy of BC 60% and BT 12.5% within 135 min of photocatalytic reactions. The PL, photocurrent response, EIS, and LSV results presented low recombination rate and enhanced photocarriers separation and transference ability in BC 60% compared to BT 12.5%. Due to S-scheme heterostructure formation the nanocomposite exhibited higher charge separation and transferal ability due to formation of IEF among binary photocatalysts as presented in Fig. 5h and i. The scavenging tests confirmed the noteworthy role of  $\cdot OH$  and  $\cdot O_2^-$  radicals in  $Bi_2WO_6/g-C_3N_4$  but for  $Bi_2WO_6/TiO_2$ ,  $\cdot OH$  and  $e^-$  were the major reactive species during photodegradation process.





**Figure 5.** (a) C/CO plots presenting sonophotocatalytic TC degradation results using the synthesized photocatalysts, (b) PL and (c) EIS spectra of CN, VO, RCN, and RCN-VO<sub>x</sub> photocatalysts, (d) Schematic diagram of S-scheme based sonophotocatalytic degradation mechanism of TC using 1D/2D RCN-VO photocatalyst, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431281439729) (Preeyanghaa *et al.*, 2022). (e) Photodegradation results of NOR antibiotic using fabricated photocatalysts. (f) Photodegradation results of NOR, ENR, LVF, and CIP, and (g) The proposed photodegradation mechanism of NOR using S-scheme based 15% NZCN/vis photocatalytic system, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431290386686) (Zhang *et al.*, 2022). The proposed S-scheme charge transfer route in BC 60 % nanocomposite (h) under visible irradiation and (i) UV-vis irradiation, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431290789718) (Gordanshekan *et al.*, 2023).

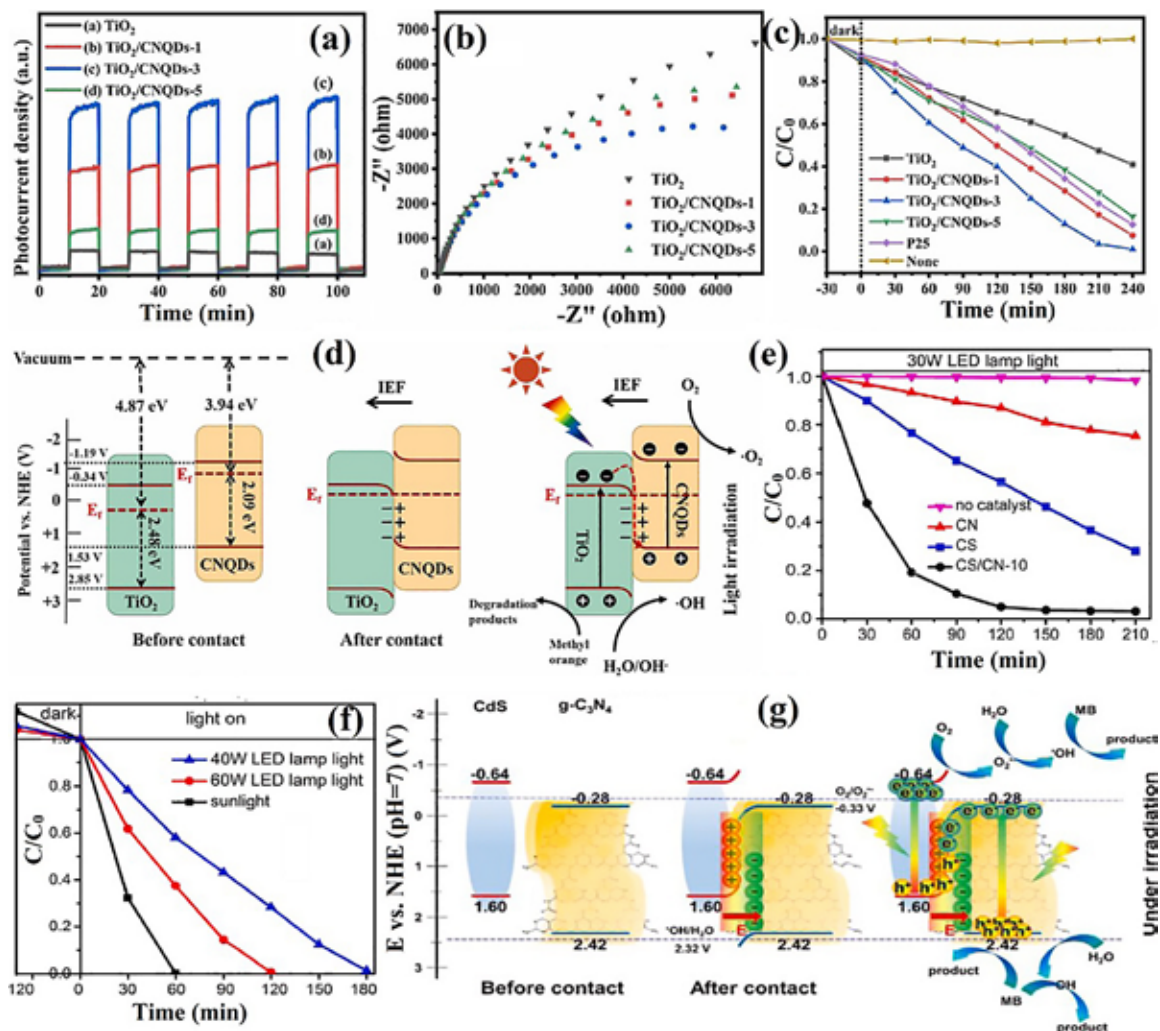
### 3.1.2. Textiles dyes removal

The existence of different textile dyes in water resources caused harmful effects on living organism life. The dyes are extensively used by small-scale to large-scale industries, with the production of 1,000,000 tons world widely (Maheshwari *et al.*, 2021; Tkaczyk *et al.*, 2020). Regardless of the significance of industries to humans, these are the major global pollutants that consume fuels and chemicals to high extents (Kumar, 2022; Mani *et al.*, 2019). Several reports on photocatalytic dye degradation have been reported using g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-based S-scheme photocatalysts. Li *et al.* performed the methyl orange (MO) degradation using a hierarchical flower-like 0D/3D g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> (TiO<sub>2</sub>/CNQDs) S-scheme heterojunction which was low-cost and eco-friendly (Li, Yuan *et al.*, 2022). This work combined a non-toxic, metal-free 0D carbon nitride quantum dots (CNQDs) and 3D flower-like TiO<sub>2</sub> microspheres to form a heterostructure with improved visible-light harvesting ability, resilient redox ability, larger SSA and pore volume. The broad energy gap of TiO<sub>2</sub> and higher recombination rate of photocarriers limits

its photoactivity under solar light, but after combining with g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> the photodegradation ability against MO dye increased. This was attributed to the prepared S-scheme heterostructure which has shown boosted charge separation, and transference of photocarriers with reticent charge recombination rate verified through photocurrent and EIS analysis (Fig. 6a and b). Among all the prepared photocatalysts, TiO<sub>2</sub>/CNQDs-3 nanocomposite has shown superior photodegradation ability and excellent light absorption intensity with transient photocurrent density and charge separation. The degradation results presented the highest MO degradation rate constant value for the TiO<sub>2</sub>/CNQDs-3, i.e. first-order reaction kinetics that was 5.4 and 2.2 folds higher pure TiO<sub>2</sub> and P25, correspondingly (Fig. 6c). The photodegradation mechanism indicated the existence and essential part of h<sup>+</sup>, •OH, and •O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> radicals in formed S-scheme heterojunction (Fig. 6d). Similarly, methylene blue (MB) dye degradation was reported by Van and his research team by employing a novel S-scheme CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanocomposite possessing enriched visible-light photodegradation ability (Van *et al.*, 2022). The CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanocomposite was constructed using

a facile solvothermal route to minimize the limitations of both bare photocatalysts, i.e. inherent high recombination rate of photocarriers and photocorrosion of CdS. The degradation results showed that MB photodegradation efficiency was much higher for CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (96.89%) however, CS and CN had 45.58% and 12.85% removal efficacy within 120 min of 30W LED light lamp, as shown in Fig. 6e. Besides this the research group also observed 98.66% and 99.85% MB removal efficacy after 180 and 60 min of 40W LED lamp and natural sunlight

illumination (Fig. 6f). The enhanced removal efficacy of nanocomposite owed to the efficient photocarriers transportation through the S-scheme pathway which has extended the lifespan of photocarriers, delocalized oxidative h<sup>+</sup> on CdS<sub>CB</sub> to prevent photocorrosion and preserved the higher reactive oxygen species for different photocatalytic reactions as displayed in Fig. 6g. Through quenching experiments, the substantial part of <sup>•</sup>OH, and <sup>•</sup>O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> radicals were confirmed which was also illustrated in the proposed photocatalytic mechanism.

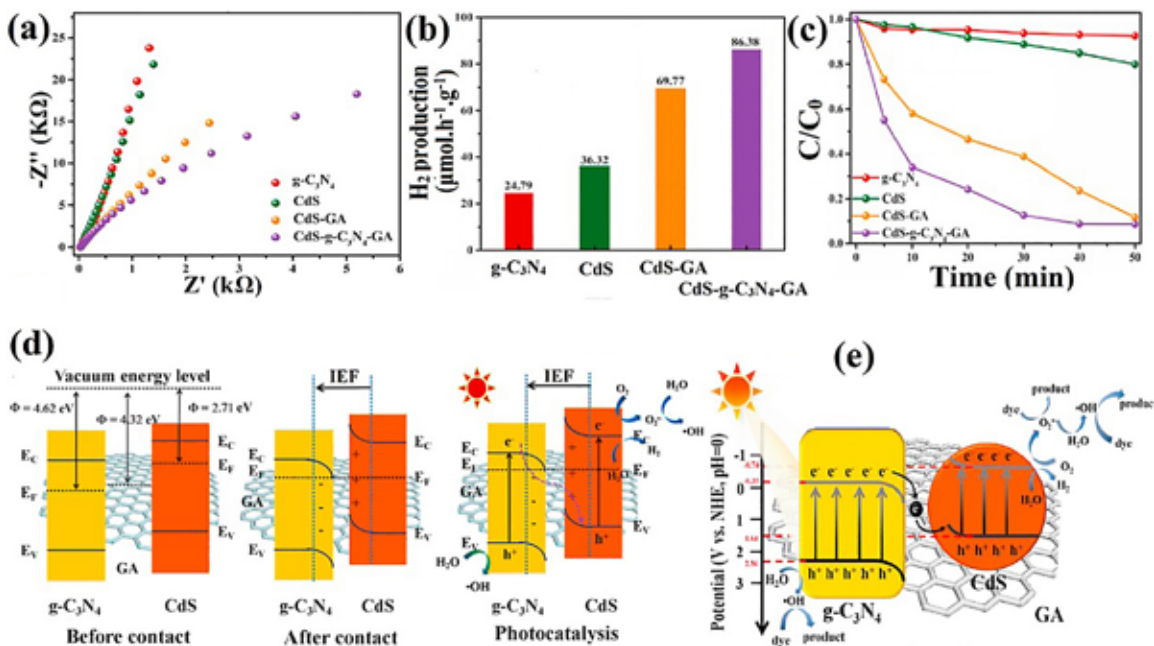


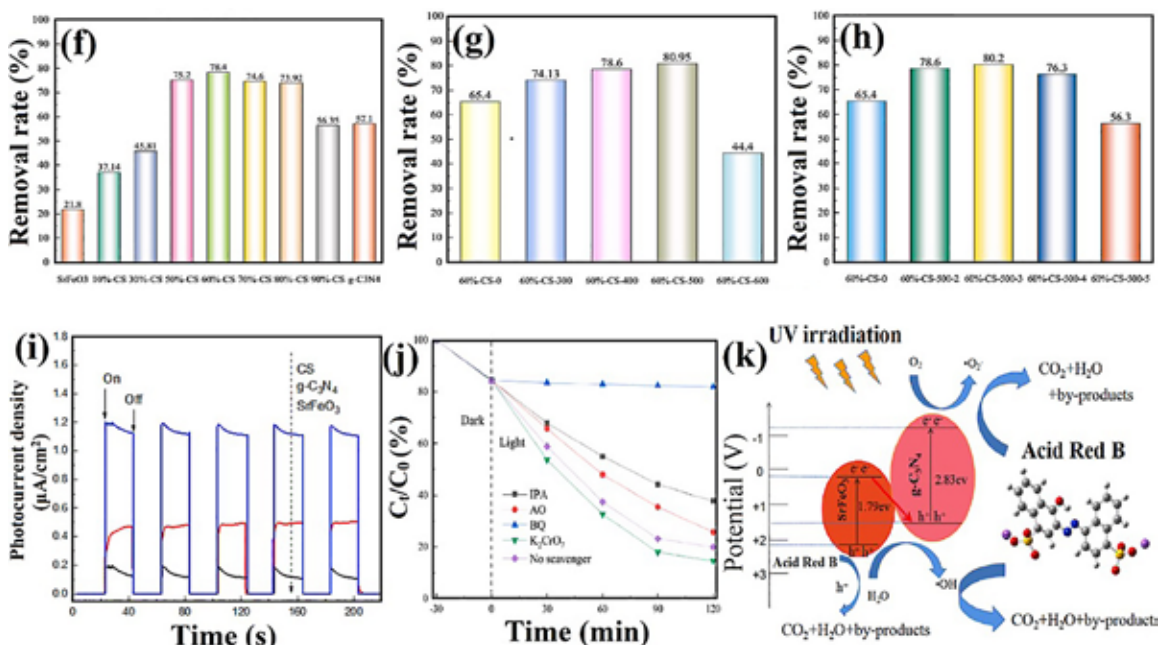
**Figure 6.** (a) The photocurrent and (b) EIS spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub> and the TiO<sub>2</sub>/CNQDs photocatalysts, (c) The MO photodegradation results of TiO<sub>2</sub>/CNQDs-x, pure TiO<sub>2</sub> and P25, (d) The proposed MO photodegradation mechanism of TiO<sub>2</sub>/CNQDs-3 nanocomposite (before, after and under light illumination), Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431301087156) (Li, Yuan *et al.*, 2022). (e) MB photodegradation results using prepared photocatalysts under 30W LED light exposure, (f) Influence of the different light sources on the MB degradation, (g) Possible charge transfer route in S-scheme g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/CdS nanocomposite (before, after and under light illumination), Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431301449278) (Van *et al.*, 2022).



Another report on a visible light-assisted S-scheme CdS-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-graphene aerogel (CdS-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-GA) heterostructure was given by Liu and his research team to eradicate RhB (Liu *et al.*, 2021). The researchers have also tested their prepared photocatalysts for H<sub>2</sub> production and found that CdS-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-GA S-scheme heterostructure has shown the highest photocatalytic ability compared to bare photocatalysts. The enhanced degradation efficacy and H<sub>2</sub> evolution rate are credited to S-scheme heterojunction resulting from the strong IEF, which enhanced the charge separation proficiency and light harnessing ability of photocatalysts. In ultrasonication-prepared S-scheme photocatalysts, the incorporated GA as electron acceptors assisted the efficient electron transference podium in boosting the photocarriers separation rate, proved through photoelectrochemical analysis (Fig. 7a). The observed H<sub>2</sub> hydrogen evolution rate from H<sub>2</sub>O splitting was 24.79, 36.32, 69.77 and 86.38 μmol h<sup>-1</sup>g<sup>-1</sup> for g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, CdS, CdS-GA and CdS-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-GA, respectively under 4 h of visible light exposure, as shown in Fig. 7b. Similarly, RhB degradation results have presented 7.43%, 20.43% and 91.41% RhB degradation efficiency for g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, CdS and CdS-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-GA photocatalysts within 50 min of light irradiation (Fig. 7c). CdS-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-GA photocatalyst had superior degradation efficacy due to S-scheme charge transfer pathway and integration of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, which promoted

the visible light harnessing ability and charge carriers separation rate. Additionally, the possible photocatalytic mechanism shown in Fig. 7d and e presented the band banding and S-scheme charge transfer route among the CdS and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalysts in the existence of electron mediator GA. Also, the perovskite-type SrFeO<sub>3</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> S-scheme nanocomposite (prepared by simple calcination method) was utilized to remove Acid Red B dye (Hu *et al.*, 2022). The work explored that excellent photocatalytic ability was attained when the mass ratio was 3:2 for g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and SrFeO<sub>3</sub> with a calcination temperature of 500 °C for 3 h. The attained Acid Red B dye degradation efficacy was 80.2% for prepared SrFeO<sub>3</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> under UV light illumination that was 3.68, 1.36 and 1.23 folds greater than bare SrFeO<sub>3</sub>, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and uncalcined SrFeO<sub>3</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, correspondingly (Fig. 7f-h). Furthermore, using photocurrent (Fig. 7i) and PL experiments higher charge separation and relocation proficiency was observed for calcined SrFeO<sub>3</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanocomposite. The reactive species validation was done through the scavenging experiment, which specified a substantial role of ·O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> radicals during the photodegradation process in SrFeO<sub>3</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> S-scheme heterojunction (Fig. 7j). As presented in SrFeO<sub>3</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> S-scheme photocatalytic system, the enhanced photocarriers separation and immigration efficacy significantly reduced the undesirable recombination of photocarriers (Fig. 7k).





**Figure 7.** (a) EIS spectra of  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ , CdS, CdS-GA, and CdS- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -GA photocatalysts, (b) Results showing photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2$  production from  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  splitting and (c) RhB photodegradation using all prepared photocatalysts, (d) Graphic representation of work functions of CdS and  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  before contact, after contact (built-in IEF among GA, CdS and  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ ) and S-scheme charge migration route amongst CdS- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -GA photocatalyst beneath visible light illumination, (e) Possible photodegradation mechanism of the fabricated CdS- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -GA S-scheme heterojunction, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5433781454448) (Liu *et al.*, 2021). (f) Acid Red B photodegradation results using different composite, (g) at different calcination temperatures and (h) at other calcination times using  $\text{SrFeO}_3/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  nanocomposite with varied ratios, (i) Photocurrent spectra of CS,  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  and  $\text{SrFeO}_3$ , (j) Scavenging results presenting the role of scavengers on Acid Red B degradation using CS, and (k) Photodegradation mechanism of Acid Red B dye removal using S-scheme  $\text{SrFeO}_3/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  nanocomposite under UV light exposure, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431310741717) (Hu *et al.*, 2022).

### 3.1.3. Phenols removal

Due to the extensive use of several synthetic compounds, organic micropollutants have widely been detected in several water bodies (König *et al.*, 2020; Sasi *et al.*, 2020). One of the harmful pollutants is phenols which harm the ecosystem even at very minute concentrations ( $\text{ng L}^{-1}\sim\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) (Mpatani *et al.*, 2021; Naveira *et al.*, 2021). Amongst phenolic compounds, bisphenol A (BPA) is a kind of endocrine disruptor generally utilized in various electronic tools, food storage vessels, water pipes, and remedial devices (Rodríguez-Llorente *et al.*, 2021; Xiao *et al.*, 2020), etc. To date, several works on S-scheme-based  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  nanocomposite for photocatalytic removal of phenolic compounds have been published. For instance, a novel peroxymonosulfate (PMS) assisted S-scheme  $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  (ZFO-CN) heterojunction photocatalyst was

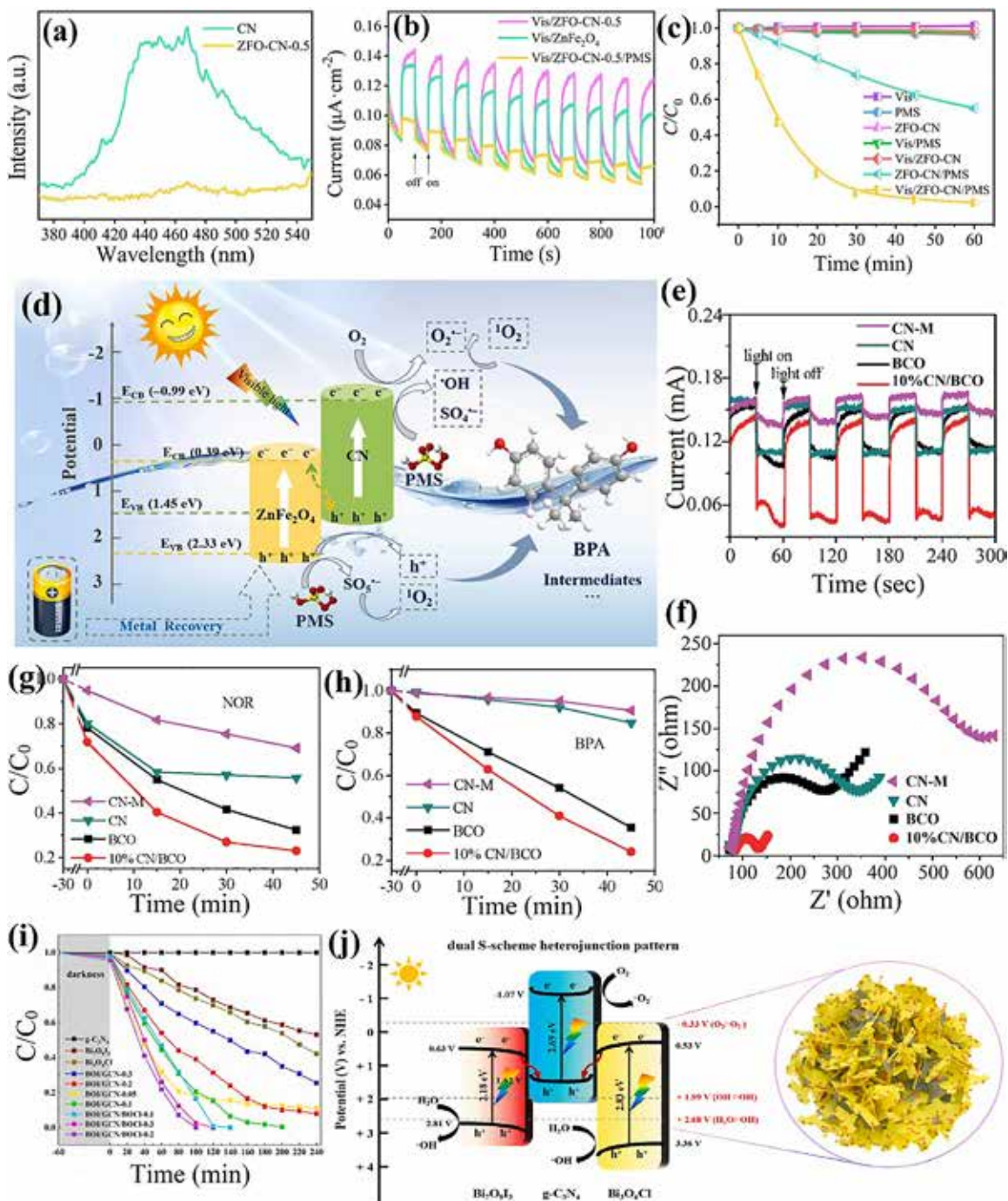
reported for the removal of BPA by Tang and co-workers (Tang *et al.*, 2022). The work reported the preparation of  $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4$  (ZFO) from a spent alkaline Zn-Mn battery, which was further amalgamated with CN via a sol-gel method to form a ZFO-CN S-scheme heterostructure. The prepared photocatalyst has shown excellent photocatalytic ability in the presence of PMS against BPA due to extended visible light harnessing and the S-scheme charge transfer route. The PL and EIS results in Fig. 8a and b confirmed minimal recombination and efficient charge separation in the ZFO-CN nanocomposite. The BPA degradation results confirmed that Vis/ZFO-CN-0.5/PMS system has shown upto 97.7% removal efficacy within 60 min; however, 39.4% and 10.9% of BPA removal were observed for Vis/ $\text{ZnFe}_2\text{O}_4$ /PMS and Vis/CN/PMS photocatalytic systems, correspondingly (Fig. 8c). The formed S-scheme heterostructure increased the

redox ability and enhanced the charge separation and transferal ability among both ZFO and CN due to built-in IEF at the interface. The novel S-scheme photocatalytic degradation mechanism displayed shown in Fig. 8d presented Fermi levels (EF) of CN and ZFO before and after contact. After the contact amongst CN and ZFO photocatalysts, the IEF and band bending at the border of ZFO-CN resulted in the S-scheme charge transferal route beneath light illumination. The possible BPA S-scheme photocatalytic mechanism by Vis/ZFO-CN-0.5/PMS photocatalytic system was illustrated in Fig. 8d, showing the presence of  $\text{SO}_4^{\cdot-}$ ,  $\cdot\text{OH}$ ,  $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$  radicals. At the same time,  $^1\text{O}_2$  and  $h^+$  non-radicals species were the leading oxidation species during the photodegradation process, which was confirmed through quenching tests. Another report on photocatalytic removal of BPA and NOR presented excellent photocatalytic ability using an S-scheme  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Bi}_8(\text{CrO}_4)\text{O}_{11}$  (CN/BCO) nanocomposite (Gu *et al.*, 2022). Among all synthesized photocatalysts, hydrothermally prepared 10% CN/BCO nanocomposite exhibited upto 77% removal efficiency against both NOR and BPA pollutants within 45 min of visible light illumination, which was greater than the bare BCO and CN photocatalysts. The excellent photodegradation rate of S-scheme heterostructure was due to efficient charge separation and migration between the CN and BCO photocatalysts because, after the contact, there was IEF generation and band edge bending of the interface that enhanced the transference of photo-carriers (established through photocurrent and EIS analysis as shown in Fig. 8e and f). The quenching experiments confirmed the major part of  $h^+$  and  $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$  radicals during NOR and BPA photodegradation process. In addition,  $\cdot\text{OH}$  radicals also had minor role in degradation process. The possible S-scheme based photodegradation mechanism of CN/BCO heterojunction towards NOR and BPA was illustrated in Fig. 8g and h. Similarly, a work on visible light driven double S-scheme  $\text{Bi}_7\text{O}_9\text{I}_3/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Bi}_3\text{O}_4\text{Cl}$  (BOI/GCN/BOCl) heterostructure was reported by Yuan and coworkers for phenol degradation (Yuan *et al.*, 2022). The ternary nanocomposite BOI/GCN/BOCl was synthesized using a simple oil bath method. Through EIS, photocurrent and PL experiments the lower recombination rate and higher charge separation efficacy was attained by BOI/GCN/BOCl-0.2 nanocomposite. Due to proficient charge separation efficacy, the BOI/GCN/BOCl-0.2 nanocomposite presented 100% removal

efficiency while BOI/GCN/BOCl-0.1 and BOI/GCN/BOCl-0.3 nanocomposite had shown 84% and 95% degradation rate within 100 min of visible light exposure (Fig. 8i). Similarly, the attained TOC removal efficacy was lower than phenol removal efficacy i.e. 93.57% in 160 min of light exposure. Free radical scavenging experiments validated the important role of  $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$  and  $\cdot\text{OH}$  radicals which were the foremost oxidizing species during phenol degradation. The DFT studies also explored that a dual S-scheme charge immigration was formed at the interface of BOI, GCN and BOCl resulting in efficient photocarriers separation. To understand the dual S-scheme photocatalytic mechanism a proposed charge transfer mechanism was shown in Fig. 8j illustrating the energy level diagram and interface band bending with interfacial electron relocation among the three BOI, GCN and BOCl photocatalysts.

### 3.1.4. Heavy metal ion removal

Besides the presence of several organic pollutants, the occurrence of several heavy metals such as Cr(VI), Hg (II), Pb (II) and As(II) were also observed in water resources. The occurrence of heavy metals in water bodies has a hazardous effect on living organisms due to their carcinogenicity, strong toxicity and accumulation in organisms (Fu *et al.*, 2011; Hua *et al.*, 2012; Malik *et al.*, 2019). Hence, the removal of these pollutants is highly needed. To resolve this issue, several reports have been published on heavy metal ions removal. S-scheme based  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  heterostructures have also been synthesized to remove this harmful pollutant e.g. a novel S-scheme  $\text{Au}/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{BiO}_{1.2}\text{I}_{0.6}$  plasmonic heterostructure was synthesized by calcination of mixture of BiOI (flower-like) and  $\text{Au}/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  NSs which was then utilized for Cr(VI) reduction the bisphenol AF (BPAF) degradation (Dai *et al.*, 2022a). The visible light-assisted photocatalytic reaction explored that the optimized  $4\text{-Au}/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{BiO}_{1.2}\text{I}_{0.6}$  nanocomposite material has an apparent rate of 0.0174  $\text{min}^{-1}$  and 0.0204  $\text{min}^{-1}$  for BPAF degradation and Cr(VI) reduction, which was 6.5 and 3.7 folds higher than the bare  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ , correspondingly. The observed BPAF removal efficacy of  $\text{BiO}_{1.2}\text{I}_{0.6}$  and  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  was 10.8% and 33.0% within 150 min, individually (Fig. 9a). Similarly, for Cr(VI) reduction the observed degradation rate was 27.6% and 43.9% for  $\text{BiO}_{1.2}\text{I}_{0.6}$  and  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  within 100 min (Fig. 9b). Amongst all synthesized



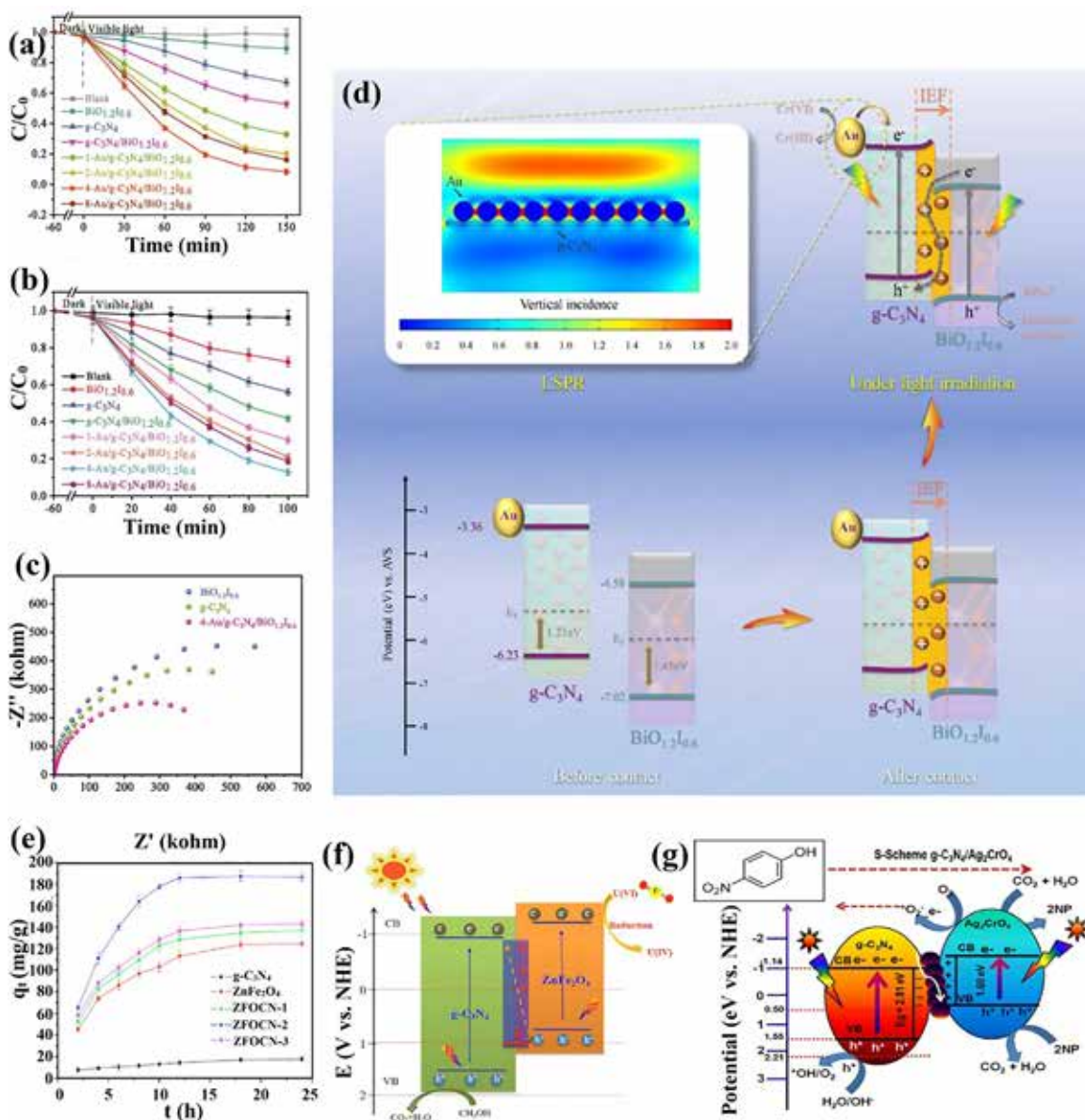
**Figure 8.** (a) PL spectra for CN and ZFO-CN-0.5 photocatalysts and (b) Photocurrent spectra with/without the addition of PMS, (c) BPA photodegradation under different reaction systems, (d) The probable BPA degradation mechanism using Vis/ZFO-CN-0.5/PMS photocatalytic system, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431311068373) (Tang *et al.*, 2022). (e) Photocurrent, (f) EIS spectra, photodegradation curves of (g) NOR and (h) BPA using prepared CN-M, CN, BCO and 10% CN/BCO photocatalysts, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431320344584) (Gu *et al.*, 2022). (i) Visible light-assisted photodegradation of phenol using g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/Cl, Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/G, and Bi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/GCN/BOCl nanocomposites, (j) Graphic illustration of possible charge transference in dual S-scheme BOI/GCN/BOCl nanocomposite, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431320084241) (Yuan *et al.*, 2022).

photocatalysts, 4-Au/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/BiO<sub>1.2</sub>I<sub>0.6</sub> nanocomposite had shown superb photocatalytic ability towards BPAF removal and Cr(VI) photoreduction under visible light which was 91.8% and 87.3%, respectively. The incremented photocatalytic ability of nanocomposite ascribed to the LSPR (by Au NPs) and the S-scheme heterojunction formation, which enhanced charge carriers separation and transferal ability among both the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and BiO<sub>1.2</sub>I<sub>0.6</sub> photocatalyst, validated through EIS analysis as shown in Fig. 9c. Graphic illustration of Au/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/BiO<sub>1.2</sub>I<sub>0.6</sub> nanocomposite was displayed in Fig. 9d presenting IEF generation-induced charge transmission and S-scheme heterojunction formation. Another heavy metal ion, i.e. uranium (VI) (U(VI)) reduction, was reported by Dai and his peer group (Dai *et al.*, 2021). They have reported a reduction of U(VI) to U(IV) (insoluble tetravalent uranium) ion using S-scheme ZnFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (ZFOCN) heterojunction photocatalyst which exhibited boosted light absorption ability and enhanced photoactivity. Through batch adsorption tests, the conquered adsorption ability ( $q_{\max}$ ) for U(VI) was 699.3 mg/g at pH 5.0 (Fig. 9e). Additionally, the ZFOCN-2 nanocomposite exhibited tremendous U(VI) photoreduction i.e. 1892.4 mg/g (adsorption + photoreduction) beneath visible LED light illumination with the degradation efficacy of 94.62% which was greater than physic-chemical adsorption. The enhanced photoreduction ability of ZFOCN corresponded to extended visible light garnering and a lower energy gap. During the photocatalytic process, firstly, the U(VI) get adsorbed on the ZFOCN surface and then after the adsorption process, it gets reduced to U(IV) under LED (visible light) illumination. The photocatalytic mechanism explored that after the contact between ZnFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalysts, the ZnFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> became positively charged and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> negatively charged due to transferal of e<sup>-</sup> and resulted in an electric field formation at the boundary. The proposed charge transferal route of U(VI) photoreduction was presented in Fig. 9f, demonstrating the substantial role of e<sup>-</sup> and 'O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> radicals during the photoreduction process. Besides this, due to the magnetic property of the ZFOCN nanocomposite, the removal rate of U(VI) was affected by co-existing metal ions to some extent. Thus, after five recycles tests, the photoreduction rate decreased to 90%. Other work on Cr(VI) photoreduction was reported by Rajalakshmi *et al.* The work presented the preparation of S-scheme Ag<sub>2</sub>CrO<sub>4</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanocomposite by

a facile hydrothermal method (Rajalakshmi *et al.*, 2021). The photoactivity of the fabricated photocatalysts was examined towards Cr(VI) reduction and 2NP removal beneath visible light exposure. During the photodegradation experiments, the highest removal efficacy was attained for the optimized 10% Ag<sub>2</sub>CrO<sub>4</sub> loaded g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (ACCN10) photocatalysts towards 2NP degradation and Cr(VI) reduction compared to bare Ag<sub>2</sub>CrO<sub>4</sub> and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. The constructed S-scheme heterostructure speeded up the photocatalytic production by promoting redox ability, increasing light harvesting and assisting in charge separation and relocation (Fig. 9g).

### 3.2. Hydrogen evolution

The sense of urgency to find an alternative to depleting fossil fuels has been pressing for which the clean hydrogen gas (H<sub>2</sub>) evolution via photocatalytic water splitting (PWS) has been regarded as a promising technology (Cao *et al.*, 2020; Lee, 2005; Maeda *et al.*, 2010). The PWS reaction is thermodynamically uphill, which needs at least bandgap energy of >1.23 eV to overcome the +237.2 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> of Gibbs free energy (Baniasadi *et al.*, 2013). To restrict the inevitable Coulombic attractions between like charges and inhibit recombination in traditional type-II and Z-scheme heterojunctions, it is well-evidenced that the S-scheme charge transfer route retains the effective charge carriers. To boost the S-scheme conception, Zhang *et al.* prepared Bi<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> binary S-scheme heterojunction via the solvothermal method (Zhang. *et al.*, 2021). The optimized loading of 0.6 % Bi<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> (1D Nanorods) on 2D g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanosheets presented an exceptionally high H<sub>2</sub> production rate of 3394.1 μmol/g/h, which was 2.6 folds greater than bare g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 10a and b). As shown in Fig. 10c, the Fermi level calculation confirmed S-scheme charge carrier migration of electrons from n-type oxidative Bi<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> (0.55 V) to reductive g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (-1.12 V) inducing IEF for preventing EHPs recombination. The conservation of reductive photogenerated electrons for H<sub>2</sub> production was reported by Yang *et al.* in Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> quantum dots modified CoTiO<sub>3</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> ternary heterojunction (Yang *et al.*, 2022). The observed 1971.7 μmol/g/h H<sub>2</sub> evolved within 5 h of irradiations which was attributed to synergistic effects of S-scheme charge carrier migration and electron acceptor co-catalytic property of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> quantum dots (Fig. 10f). Further, the consistent



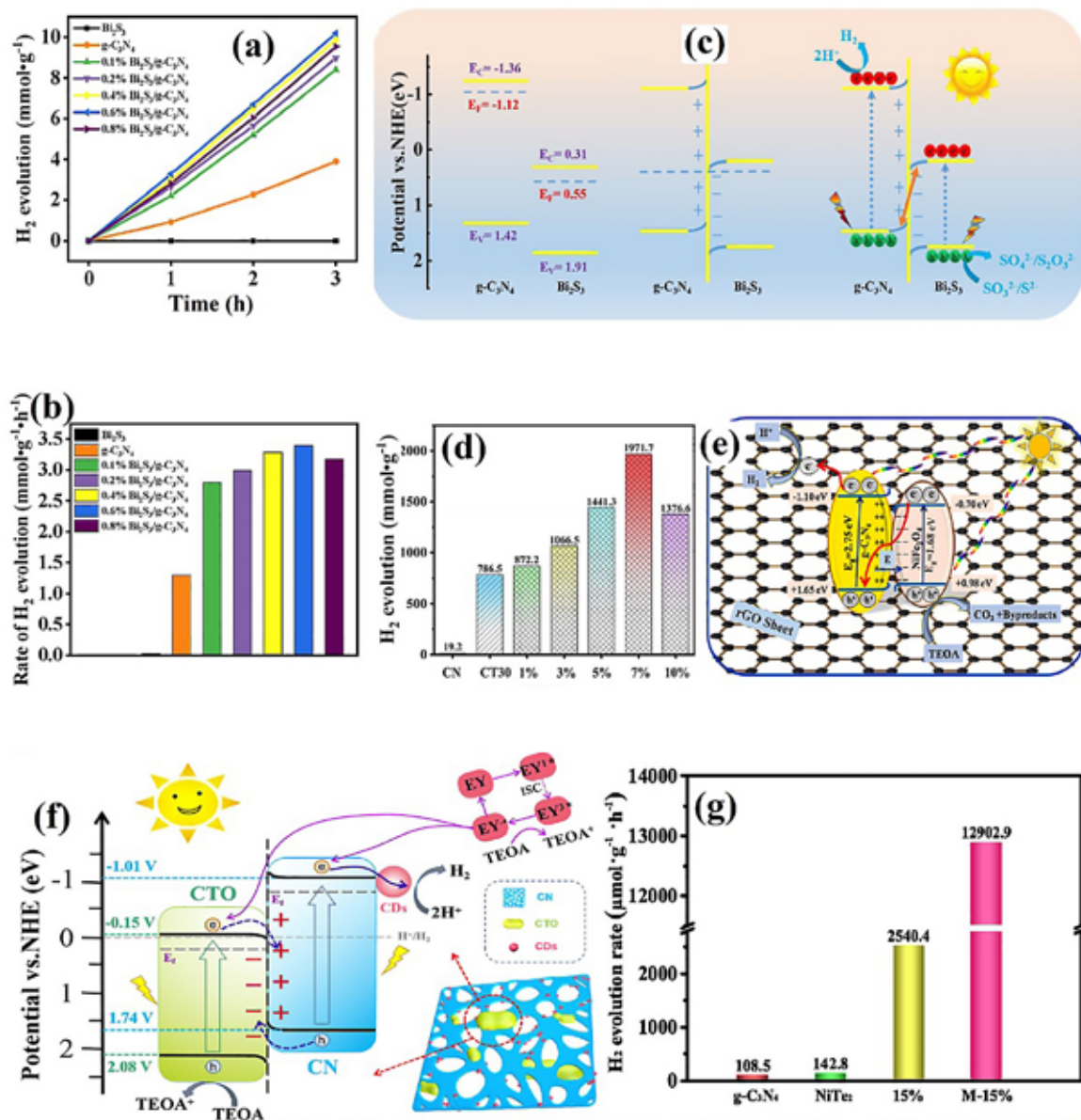
**Figure 9.** (a) BPAF photodegradation results, (b) Photocurrent and (c) EIS results of the fabricated photocatalysts, (d) Graphic sketch of S-scheme Au/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/BiO<sub>1.2</sub>I<sub>0.6</sub> photocatalytic system before contact and after contact as well as showing IEF generation and charge relocation beneath visible light exposure, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5433780470207) (Dai *et al.*, 2022a). (e) Influence of interacted time on U(VI) adsorption using g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZnFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and ZFOCN photocatalysts and (f) Representation of U(VI) photoreduction mechanism of ZFOCN-2 nanocomposite following S-scheme mechanism, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431721196500) (Dai *et al.*, 2021). (g) The proposed S-scheme charge transfer route presenting electron transference in Ag<sub>2</sub>CrO<sub>4</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanocomposite, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431721336543) (Rajalakshmi *et al.*, 2021).

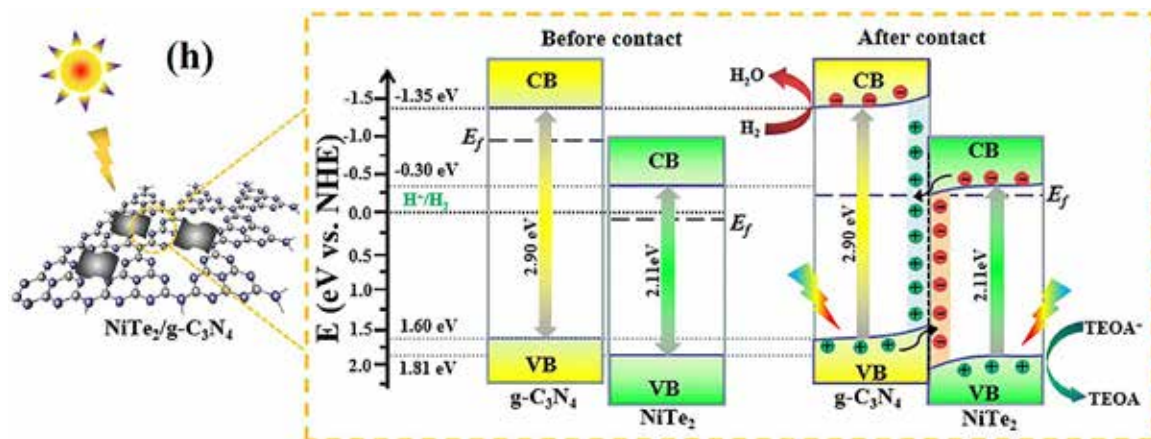
H<sub>2</sub> production rate was verified by the PL spectra and EIS Nyquist plots wherein minimum charge carrier recombination rate was obtained for Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> quantum dots modified CoTiO<sub>3</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. Similarly,

the co-catalytic effect of Ag nanospheres was exploited in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/CdS S-scheme heterojunction, which showed high H<sub>2</sub>O photoreduction efficacy of 204.19 μmol/g/h H<sub>2</sub> generation (Shang *et al.*,

2022). The coupling of reduced graphene oxide (GO) with NiFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> S-scheme heterojunction exhibited a reduced bandgap from 2.75 to 2.48 eV with quenched PL intensity (Hafeez *et al.*, 2022). The resultant GO/NiFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> displayed 11,817 μmolg/h H<sub>2</sub> evolutions which were 76 times higher than NiFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> NSs, as presented in Fig. 10d. The H<sub>2</sub> evolution mechanism in Fig. 10e represents the action of triethanolamine (TEOA) sacrificial agent which serves as holes scavengers to improve high reductive reaction and prevent charge carrier recombination which was also benefitted by built-in- IEF and band edge bending.

Zhang *et al.* reported strategic synthesis for improved H<sub>2</sub> evolution wherein 254.4 μmolg/h and 12902.9 μmolg/h H<sub>2</sub> were produced after in-situ deposition and acid treatment of NiTe<sub>2</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> heterojunction, respectively (Fig. 10g) (Zhang *et al.*, 2022). The work claimed enhanced reactive sites and high hydrophilicity of photocatalyst after adding oleic acid, which was conducive to electron transference. The S-scheme mechanism notably improves the photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub> evolution rate provided minimal interfacial transfer resistance is present for high light absorption capacity (Fig. 10h).





**Figure 10.** (a) Photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2$  production results using  $\text{Bi}_2\text{S}_3/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  nanocomposite, (b) Photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2$  production rates of all synthesized photocatalysts, (c) Band gap alignments in  $\text{Bi}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  photocatalysts (before contact) and after contact presenting IEF formation and band edge bending at the border of  $\text{Bi}_2\text{S}_3/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  leading to S-scheme charge migration route in  $\text{Bi}_2\text{S}_3/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  beneath light exposure, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No 5431730134202) (Zhang *et al.*, 2021). (d) Photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2$  evolution rates of CN, CT30 and CTQx ( $x = \text{QDs wt\%}$ ) photocatalysts, (e) S-scheme charge migration mechanism of RNC-3 photocatalysts, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431730809484). (f) Proposed S-scheme charge transferal route in CTQx photocatalyst, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431730378154) (Yang *et al.*, 2022). (g) Photocatalytic  $\text{H}_2$  production rates of different synthesized photocatalysts and (h) Proposed photocatalytic mechanism presenting efficient charge separation and transportation in  $\text{NiTe}_2/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  S-scheme heterojunction, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431730613334) (Zhang *et al.*, 2022).

### 3.3. $\text{CO}_2$ reduction

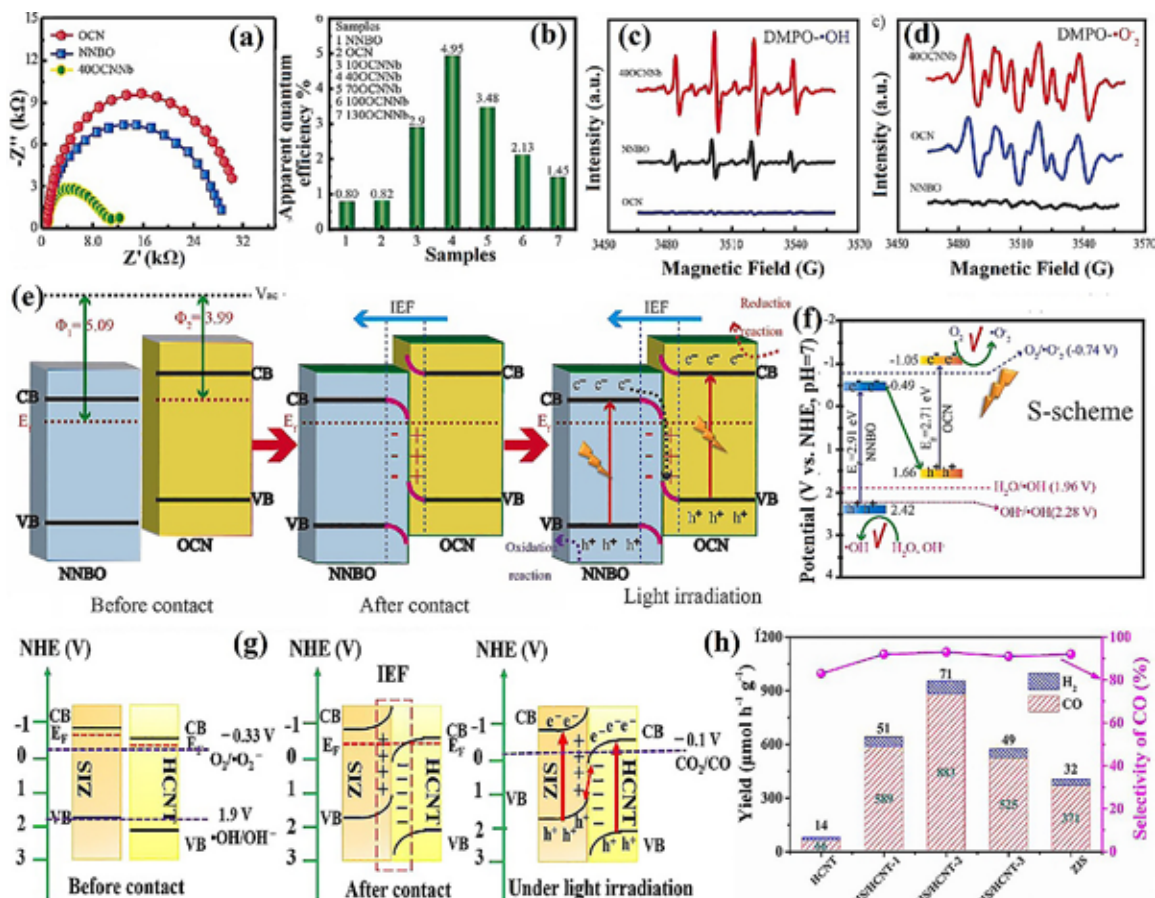
The inexplicable  $\text{CO}_2$  emission in the atmosphere raises global warming concerns, instigating researchers to reduce  $\text{CO}_2$  into high-value chemical feedstocks such as  $\text{CO}$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$ ,  $\text{CH}_3\text{O}_4$ , and other hydrocarbons (Ao *et al.*, 2020; Dey, 2007; Sahara *et al.*, 2015). The strategic conversion of solar energy into chemical energy paves the path for photocatalytic  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction (Wu, J. *et al.*, 2017; Zhang S. *et al.*, 2020). However, the uphill reaction with a large thermodynamic barrier for  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction requires high redox potentials of photocatalysts along with spatially separated electrons and holes for efficient  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction (Ran *et al.*, 2018). Notably, the work function measurement is vital to exemplify the S-scheme charge carrier mechanism, as claimed by Qaraah *et al.* in the study of O-doped  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{N-doped Nb}_2\text{O}_5$ . The highest charge separation in S-scheme heterostructure was proven through EIS analysis, as shown in (Fig. 11a). Wherein the calculated work function for N-doped  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  was 5.09 eV and 3.99 eV for O-doped  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  involving rapid electron transference from high Fermi level of O-doped  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  to N-doped  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  (Fig. 11e)

(Qaraah *et al.*, 2022). Subsequently, the downward bend of N-doped  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  and upward bend of O-doped  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  contributes to high oxidative and reductive abilities (Fig. 11e). The EPR results presented in Fig. 11c and d show high-intensity EPR spectra for DMPO- $\cdot\text{OH}$  adduct for N-doped  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  whereas, an opposite trend is observed for DMPO- $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$  as shown in. This is indicative that  $e^-$ , and  $h^+$  remain intact in the CB of O-doped  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  and VB of N-doped  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  for an effective S-scheme charge migration over type-II (Fig. 11f). The apparent quantum efficiency of the optimized sample was 4.95% under the exposure of simulated sunlight radiation as shown in Fig. 11b. The work establishes a total  $\text{CO}_2$  conversion rate of  $\text{CO}$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  to be 6.04 and 6.19 times higher as compared to pristine O-doped  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  and N-doped  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$ , respectively. Similarly, Li *et al.* performed in-situ growth of  $\text{ZnIn}_2\text{S}_4$  NSs on  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  tubes for the formation of intimate interface (Li *et al.*, 2022). Fig. 11g explains the S-scheme charge carrier migration with retention of high redox potential photogenerated electrons in  $\text{ZnIn}_2\text{S}_4$  and oxidative holes in  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ . The resultant  $\text{ZnIn}_2\text{S}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  S-scheme heterojunction possessed 833  $\mu\text{mol/g/h}$   $\text{CO}$  production rates



at 420 nm that was 13 folds greater than pristine  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  (Fig. 11h). Apart from excellent S-scheme charge migration route,  $\text{ZnIn}_2\text{S}_4/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  exhibited high BET specific surface area ( $137\text{ cm}^2/\text{g}$ ) which increased the active sites for  $\text{CO}_2$  adherence on photocatalyst surface. The  $\text{CO}_2$  photoreduction activity was evaluated over  $\text{Bi}_3\text{NbO}_7/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  heterostructure, which displayed high selectivity to the photocatalytic reduction of  $\text{CO}_2$  to  $\text{CH}_4$  ( $37.59\text{ }\mu\text{mol g/h}$ ) with constant stability over 10 photocatalytic cycles (Wang *et al.*, 2022). The  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction results were attributed to the decreased bandgap from 2.90 eV

to 2.61 eV with extended visible light absorption up to 500 nm. In recent work, Mei *et al.* reported in-situ growth of CoO on porous  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  and formed a close equilibrium interface for S-scheme charge migration with high redox abilities (Mei *et al.*, 2021). The  $\text{CoO}/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  composites exhibited a higher  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction of  $40.31\text{ }\mu\text{molg/h}$ , whereas pristine CoO and  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  showed only  $11.73\text{ }\mu\text{molg/h}$  and  $1.69\text{ }\mu\text{molg/h}$ , respectively. The key target is to attain  $\text{C}^{2+}$  products by  $\text{CO}_2$  conversion with high photostability and minimum charge carrier recombination.



**Figure 11.** (a) EIS spectra of NNBO, OCN, and 40OCNNb nanocomposite, (b) AQE% for photocatalytic  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  using differently prepared photocatalysts, (c) DMPO·OH and (d) DMPO· $\text{O}_2^-$  adducts (water solution and methanol solution, respectively) using NNBO, OCN, and 40OCNNb photocatalysts under 3 min of light irradiation, (e) Energy band alignments and band banding in NNBO and OCN before, after contact and in the presence of light presenting a generation of IEF and S-scheme charge migration, (f) Illustration of the S-scheme charge relocation path among NNBO and OCN photocatalysts for photocatalytic reaction, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431731318945) (Qaraah *et al.*, 2022). (g) The photoreduction  $\text{CO}_2$  and CO selectivity of the various fabricated photocatalysts, (h) Representation of energy band position of HCNT and ZIS before contact, after contact and S-scheme heterojunction photocatalytic system showing efficient charge migration in HCNT/ZIS for  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction beneath light irradiation, Reprinted with permission from Elsevier (License No. 5431731503264) (Li *et al.*, 2022).

## CONCLUSION

Recently,  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  has gained increasing interest as a prototype metal-free polymer photocatalyst due to its exemplary implementation in a broad range of tests. However,  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  photocatalytic effectiveness is still hindered by its restricted optical response range, the quick recombination rate of photoexcited charges, and poor oxidation ability. Fabrication of S-scheme derived  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  heterojunction using two or more SCs fully utilises their unique benefits to eliminate all of the limitations above instantaneously, depending on the features of different modification procedures. The focus on the areas of heterojunction, essential concepts of S-scheme, and fabrication methodologies of S-scheme-based  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  heterojunctions are all introduced in this study. Pollutants photodegradation, water splitting, photocatalytic disinfection, and  $\text{CO}_2$  photoreduction into fuels are only some of the possible uses of S-scheme based  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  heterojunctions described in the last few years. S-scheme photocatalysts have a high driving force due to their high redox ability, which is made possible by the special charge carrier transfer mechanism. However, depending on the thermodynamic benefit of S-scheme photo-catalysts is not adequate since both reaction's thermodynamics and dynamics control the final photocatalytic performance. S-scheme photocatalysts may be made more effective in their photocatalytic roles via several different methods. (1) Modifying the RP and OP Fermi levels. Doping is a technique for modifying a semiconductor's Fermi level, and it may be used to increase the difference between the RP and OP Fermi levels. (2) The use of co-catalyst-facilitated change. It is well known that using an appropriate co-catalyst improves the photocarriers separation rate and reduces the barrier to photocatalytic activity. Consequently, it performs its function by loading the reduction cocatalyst onto the reduction photocatalyst surface and the oxidation cocatalyst onto the oxidation photocatalyst surface. (3) Regulating interfaces and engineering morphology. It is possible to boost the photocatalytic efficacy of S-scheme photocatalysts by carefully tailoring their morphological structure. For instance, the photoinduced charge carriers may be readily separated and dispersed on the surface of the photocatalyst for participation in the redox process because of the high contact area of 2D/2D composite structures.

Heterojunction photocatalysis has progressed long, but S-scheme heterojunction is only getting started. It would be very appreciated if you gave this some more thought and researched it more. First, a plausible photocatalyst for the target reaction may be designed with a thorough grasp of charge-transfer laws and the roles of the co-catalyst in S-scheme heterojunction. Second, it's essential to expand the use of S-scheme heterojunctions beyond their current niches in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  splitting,  $\text{N}_2$  fixation, medicine, and selective chemical synthesis to make use of their benefits. We aim to get a molecular and atomic-level understanding of S-scheme photocatalysts using a mix of in-situ and ex-situ studies and theoretical modelling. Despite extensive research conducted over a few years, preparing S-scheme scheme-based  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  catalysts with the high photocatalytic ability and broad applicability remains difficult. Even further research is needed to understand the S-scheme mechanism fully.

Accordingly, more significant research into the charge transfer mechanism and reactions that occur in S-scheme heterojunctions is required. Therefore, the following are some doubts that need to be further researched and explained in the future: First, while many different approaches have been explored for creating an S-scheme based  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  photocatalyst, many of them require implementing extreme conditions with a complicated procedure, which increases the price of mass manufacturing. Therefore, in future studies, it will be necessary to closely monitor raw materials utilized in the synthesis of S-scheme based  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  photocatalyst to easier the fabrication processes and softer the reaction conditions, therefore decreasing the operational cost for synthesis. Second, additional in-situ characterization approaches should be broadly implemented into various S-scheme based  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$  photocatalytic systems due to the extraordinary complexity of the photocarriers migration route in S-scheme heterojunction. The mechanisms of charge transference in an S-scheme-type heterojunction can be better understood with the help of these dependable in-situ characterization approaches. Third, it's essential to consider the heterojunction photocatalysts' stability. S-scheme heterojunctions, as is well known, are always made up of two or more semiconductor components joined together in some way (physical or chemical adsorption, electrostatic contact, etc.). The performance of  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -based heterojunctions degrades with time because the contact between the components

weakens during the photocatalytic reaction process. Therefore, more research into enhancing the interaction in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-based heterojunction devices is necessary to ensure their long-term stability for real-world implementation. Finally, despite extensive research into the designing and fabricating effective S-scheme-based g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalysts, these materials' catalytic effectiveness still falls short of the requirements required for widespread commercial application. The maximum solar-to-H<sub>2</sub> conversion efficiency for H<sub>2</sub> generation using g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> is currently about 2%, which is still much below market norms of 10%. Therefore, additional research is needed to improve the photodegradation efficiency of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-based photocatalysts. ♦

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