

Powerful combination of g-C₃N₄ and LDHs for enhanced photocatalytic performance: a review of strategy, synthesis, and applications

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Abstract

The utilization of solar energy with photocatalytic technology has been considered a good solution to alleviate environmental pollution and energy shortage. Constructing 2D/2D heterostructure photocatalysts with layered double hydroxide (LDH) and graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) is an effective approach to attain high performance in solar photocatalysis. This paper provides a review of recent studies about 2D/2D LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterostructure photocatalysts. Main strategies for constructing the desired 2D/2D heterojunction are summarized. The planar structure of LDH and g-C₃N₄ offers a shorter transfer distance for charge carriers and reduces electron-hole recombination in the bulk phase. The face-to-face contact between the two materials can promote the charge transfer across the heterostructure interface, thus improving the electron-hole separation efficiency. The performance and mechanisms of LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts in hydrogen production, CO₂ reduction, and organic pollutant degradation are analyzed and discussed. Incorporating reduced graphene oxide or Ag nanoparticles into LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterojunction and fabricating calcined LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites are effective strategies to further facilitate charge transfer at the interface of LDH and g-C₃N₄ and improve the absorption capacity for visible light. This review is expected to provide basic insights into the design of 2D/2D LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterojunctions and their applications in solar photocatalysis.

Keywords: Carbon nitride; Layered double hydroxide; 2D/2D heterojunction; Photocatalysis; Visible light

1. Introduction

Environmental pollution and energy shortage have brought great challenges to human sustainable development [1-6]. Exploiting clean and renewable solar energy with photocatalytic technology has been widely considered one of promising solutions to the problems [7-12]. Photocatalytic technology can utilize solar irradiation to realize organic pollutant degradation [13, 14], Cr(VI) reduction [15, 16], and bacterial inactivation [17, 18], which provides a great way for pollution abatement. Additionally, considerable effort is being directed at photocatalytic hydrogen production and CO₂ reduction for converting solar energy to chemical energy [19-22]. If this technology can be applied in large scale, the energy crisis will be effectively alleviated. Photocatalytic reaction is essentially a photoinduced redox process. Photocatalyst is the core of photocatalytic technology, and plays a vital role in harvesting light and driving the reaction [23-26]. Thus, the study of high-efficient photocatalyst is essential for the development of photocatalytic technology.

Graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) is a polymer semiconductor with triazine or heptazine as a basic structural unit, and has a graphite-like layer structure [27, 28]. Since its application in photocatalytic hydrogen production was first reported [29], g-C₃N₄ has attracted wide attention and been extensively researched for photocatalytic applications [30-33]. Compared with conventional photocatalysts (e.g., TiO₂), the band gap of g-C₃N₄ is smaller (~2.7 eV), which allows it to function under visible light [33]. Additionally, the great chemical stability, high thermostability, cheap raw materials, and simple synthesis process make g-C₃N₄ competitive among various

64 photocatalytic materials [30]. Nevertheless, g-C₃N₄ faces many problems in its
 65 practical applications. Only blue and violet light (wavelength < 460 nm) can be
 66 absorbed by g-C₃N₄, which causes low utilization rate of solar energy [34]. Fast
 67 recombination of photoinduced electron-hole pairs in g-C₃N₄ decreases the redox
 68 ability [35]. The bulk structure of g-C₃N₄ leads to relatively small specific surface
 69 area [36]. These shortcomings limit the further development of g-C₃N₄ for
 70 photocatalytic applications. Many strategies have been used to improve the
 71 photocatalytic activity of g-C₃N₄, such as loading co-catalyst, doping element (e.g., Fe,
 72 Zn, P, and S), designing nanostructure, and constructing heterojunction [37-40].
 73 Among these strategies, constructing heterostructure with other semiconductor
 74 materials is typically applied to facilitate the separation of charge carriers in g-C₃N₄.
 75 Due to the difference in Fermi level of two different semiconductors, charge carriers
 76 can move between the semiconductor when they contact with each other, which
 77 finally forms an internal electric field at the interface. The photoinduced electrons and
 78 holes can move directionally in the electric field, thus being separated effectively
 79 [41].

80 Recently, using layered double hydroxides (LDHs) to construct heterojunction
 81 with g-C₃N₄ has been found a highly effective strategy for enhancing the
 82 photocatalytic performance. LDHs are a class of two-dimensional (2D) materials of
 83 hydrotalcite-like clays, which are composed of positively charged host layers and
 84 exchangeable interlayer anions. They can be expressed by a general chemical formula
 85 $[M^{2+}_{1-x}M^{3+}_x(OH)_2](A^{n-})_{x/n} \cdot mH_2O$, where M²⁺ is divalent cation (e.g., Ca²⁺, Co²⁺, Fe²⁺,

Mg²⁺, Ni²⁺, and Zn²⁺), M³⁺ is trivalent cation (e.g., Al³⁺, Co³⁺, Cr³⁺, Fe³⁺, Mn³⁺, and Ni³⁺), Aⁿ⁻ is interlayer anion (e.g., CO₃²⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and Cl⁻), x is the molar ratio of trivalent cation in total cations [M³⁺ / (M²⁺ + M³⁺)], and m is the crystal water number for each LDH molecule [42, 43]. Due to the low cost, high chemical stability, adjustable composition and uniform distribution of metal cations, as well as exchangeable interlayer anions, LDHs and their calcined products have found applications in many fields including photocatalysis [44]. However, pure LDHs are dissatisfactory in photocatalytic processes due to the fast recombination of photoinduced electron-hole pairs [43]. Constructing LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterojunctions with clever design can overcome the disadvantages of g-C₃N₄ and LDHs, and obtain ideal photocatalysts with excellent performance. In this article, recent advances in 2D/2D LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterostructure photocatalysts and their applications for solar energy conversion and pollution abatement are carefully reviewed. The characteristics of 2D/2D LDH/g-C₃N₄ as photocatalysts are first summarized to provide better understanding of the strategy for constructing LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterostructures. Then, various methods to achieve effective assembly of LDH and g-C₃N₄ are introduced and discussed. The applications of LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalytic systems in H₂ production, CO₂ reduction, and organic pollutant degradation are reviewed and analyzed. Lastly, some future research needs in 2D/2D LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterostructure photocatalysts are proposed. This work may benefit the design of high-efficient LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts and their applications.

2. Characteristics of 2D/2D LDH/g-C₃N₄ as photocatalysts

Constructing 2D/2D heterostructure has been considered an effective way to enhance the photocatalytic activity of LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites. The 2D structure of LDHs and g-C₃N₄ offers plentiful surface active sites for constructing photocatalytic composites and substantially shortens the transfer distance of photoinduced charge carriers within the materials, which is advantageous to the photocatalytic reactions [45-48]. The tunable composition and band structure make LDHs excellent semiconductors for constructing photocatalytic heterojunctions with g-C₃N₄. By adjusting and controlling the M²⁺ and M³⁺ in LDHs, the band gap of LDHs can be in the range of 2.0–3.4 eV, which benefits the harvesting of visible light [49]. Abundant basic sites on LDHs enable the materials to be used as heterogeneous solid base catalysts for many chemical reactions, and the position of catalytic active sites and product selectivity are also tunable as the metal cations and interlayer anions can be artificially controlled [50, 51]. Additionally, it is relatively easy to design the number of layers and interlayer space of LDHs, and functionalize LDHs with g-C₃N₄ [47, 52]. Constructing 2D/2D heterostructure with LDHs and g-C₃N₄ can make good use of the photocatalytic characteristics of these two 2D materials. Compared with other types of photocatalysts, 2D/2D LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterostructure has many advantages (Fig. 1). (1) Because of face-to-face contact between the two semiconductors, photoinduced charge carriers can transfer more efficiently across the heterojunction interface, which is conducive to electron-hole separation in a single material [53, 54]. (2) The 2D LDHs and g-C₃N₄ have a higher surface area that can increase the contact between

photocatalyst and reaction substrate, as well as the light harvesting ability of the photocatalyst [55, 56]. (3) 2D/2D heterostructure takes advantage of short transfer distance of charge carriers within LDHs and g-C₃N₄, and decreases the electron-hole recombination in the bulk phase [57, 58]. (4) The band structure of 2D/2D LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterostructure is tunable, which makes the photocatalyst suitable for various application systems [59-61]. These merits greatly improve the photocatalytic performance and applications of 2D/2D LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterojunctions.

3. Construction of 2D/2D LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterojunctions

The design and synthesis of photocatalyst are of great importance to achieve a good photocatalytic performance. Based on the assembly strategies of LDHs and g-C₃N₄ and the desired 2D/2D structure, the constructing methods mainly include electrostatic self-assembly, in-situ coprecipitation, hydrothermal method, solvothermal method, and calcination method. The following sections provide detailed information about these synthesis methods.

3.1. Electrostatic self-assembly

Electrostatic self-assembly is commonly used for constructing layered composites. It makes use of the electrostatic interaction between differently charged materials [62]. In the self-assembly process, the electrostatic attraction between opposite charges mainly drives the assembly, and meanwhile the assembly of each layer is controlled due to the electrostatic repulsion between like charges. This method

has been successfully applied in synthesizing many 2D/2D photocatalysts [62-65]. The water suspension of pristine g-C₃N₄ is negatively charged because of the amine-group deprotonation [66], while the host layer of LDHs is positively charged because of the ordered arrangement of metal cations [67]. These properties provide the basis for constructing LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterojunctions via electrostatic self-assembly. In the synthesis process, LDH and g-C₃N₄ are generally synthesized and exfoliated to sheets separately before the self-assembly. Many methods for exfoliating LDHs through ultrasonic treatment or mechanical stirring have been reported, such as directly exfoliating LDHs in organic solvents (e.g., formamide) and exfoliating LDHs after they are intercalated with organic anions (e.g., dodecyl benzene sulfonate) [68]. Additionally, LDHs can also be exfoliated through hydrothermal method, and the key to effectively delaminate LDHs is that the LDHs must be newly prepared wet sample [69]. In the laboratory, photocatalytic g-C₃N₄ nanosheets are mainly obtained through sonication exfoliation of bulk g-C₃N₄ [70, 71].

Hong et al. [72] synthesized Mg-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst by electrostatic self-assembly (Fig. 2). In that study, the authors first synthesized g-C₃N₄ from urea by thermal polymerization and Mg-Al-LDH by precipitation with NaOH. Then, the g-C₃N₄ nanosheets and Mg-Al-LDH nanosheets were obtained through sonication exfoliation and hydrothermal method. According to the measurement, the obtained g-C₃N₄ suspension and Mg-Al-LDH suspension had a zeta potential of -27.3 mV and +52.7 mV, respectively. By directly mixing the two suspensions, the g-C₃N₄ nanosheets and Mg-Al-LDH nanosheets assembled via electrostatic interaction and

Mg-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst was obtained. For confirming the 2D/2D assembly of Mg-Al-LDH and g-C₃N₄, the authors observed the photocatalyst morphology by transmission electron microscope (TEM), and found that Mg-Al-LDH flakes were well distributed on g-C₃N₄ sheets. Nayak et al. [73] reported a weight impregnation method for synthesizing Ni-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composite. It is actually a self-assembly process via electrostatic interaction, but the process was somewhere different from the above one. In their experiments, Ni-Fe-LDH and g-C₃N₄ were first produced by coprecipitation method and thermal polymerization, respectively. When synthesizing the Ni-Fe-LDH, the NaOH solution was dropwise added and the resulting precipitate was vigorously stirred for 24 h, in order to obtain Ni-Fe-LDH easy to be exfoliated in the following procedure. Then, the obtained Ni-Fe-LDH and g-C₃N₄ were severally suspended in methanol and ultrasonically treated for 30 min to obtain nanosheet suspensions. The two suspensions were subsequently mixed and put in a fume cupboard to completely volatilize methanol and obtain the final product. Though electrostatic self-assembly offers a simple operation for constructing LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst, the assembly process is difficult to control and it is affected by many factors, such as material surface roughness and effective charges. Therefore, using this method alone for LDH/g-C₃N₄ synthesis was relatively few. However, the electrostatic interaction between LDHs and g-C₃N₄ was also involved in constructing LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst with many other methods.

3.2. *In-situ coprecipitation*

Coprecipitation is the simultaneous precipitation of two or more cations in a homogeneous solution by adding a precipitating agent. This method has been an important way to synthesize composites that contain two or more metals, due to the simple operation, low cost, manageable reaction conditions, short synthesis time, and good products with uniform composition [74-76]. Coprecipitation is also a commonly used method for synthesizing LDHs [77]. The desired LDHs can be obtained by adding alkaline liquor into the mixed solution of metal cations that are needed for the host layer and subsequent aging of the resulting suspension. The mixed cation solution or the alkaline liquor contains interlayer anions of the LDHs. The LDH size can be tuned through changing the reaction conditions such as solution pH value, temperature, and aging time. For constructing LDH/g-C₃N₄ by coprecipitation, the basic strategy is to precipitate the metal cations in situ after they are adsorbed on the g-C₃N₄ sheet via electrostatic attraction.

Liu et al. [56] successfully synthesized 2D/2D Zn-Cr-LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterojunction by in-situ coprecipitation. Fig. 3 illustrates the specific synthesis process. The authors first synthesized modified g-C₃N₄ sheets from urea in the presence of citric acid (denoted as g-C₃N₄-C(N) by the authors) and made them to a suspension. Then, Zn²⁺ and Cr³⁺ were added to the suspension with stirring. In this process, Zn²⁺ and Cr³⁺ were adsorbed on the g-C₃N₄-C(N) sheet through electrostatic attraction. NaOH was subsequently added to precipitate Zn²⁺ and Cr³⁺ and form Zn-Cr-LDH in situ on g-C₃N₄ surface. The authors further applied the

Zn-Cr-LDH/g-C₃N₄-C(N) product for photocatalytic degradation of Congo red, and the photocatalytic activity was higher than that with Zn-Cr-LDH or g-C₃N₄ as the photocatalyst. Arif et al. [78] synthesized Co-Mn-LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterojunction by a similar in-situ coprecipitation process. In the experimental section of their report, it was emphasized that the mixture of metal cations and g-C₃N₄ needed to be ultrasonically treated for over one hour to enable sufficient adsorption of Co²⁺ and Mn²⁺ on g-C₃N₄ sheets through electrostatic interaction. This treatment process is vital to ensure an effective in-situ coprecipitation. Yuan and Li [79] reported an in-situ crystallization method for fabricating Zn-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites. It is actually an in-situ coprecipitation process. In that study, Zn-Al-LDH crystals formed in situ on g-C₃N₄ sheets as the coprecipitation of Zn²⁺ and Al³⁺. The authors observed the microstructure of Zn-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ by TEM and found that relatively large g-C₃N₄ sheet was uniformly covered with Zn-Al-LDH flakes. It was considered that g-C₃N₄ could act as a substrate to induce the LDH crystallite growth. Polar functional groups on g-C₃N₄ had a good affinity for metal cations, which was conducive to the enrichment of Zn²⁺ and Al³⁺ and the growth of Zn-Al-LDH crystals on the g-C₃N₄ sheets. According to these studies, electrostatic interaction and g-C₃N₄-induced crystallization are the main mechanisms of LDH/g-C₃N₄ synthesis by in-situ coprecipitation.

3.3. Hydrothermal method

Hydrothermal method, also termed hydrothermal synthesis, is a common technique for producing composite materials via chemical reactions that occur in aqueous solution in a pressure-tight reactor with high temperature and high pressure [80]. The main advantage of this method is that well-crystallized product can be easily obtained by a simple hydrothermal process [81]. Additionally, it is convenient to design the product morphology and structure through controlling the reaction conditions [82]. According to the reaction type, hydrothermal method can be further divided into hydrothermal oxidation, hydrothermal reduction, hydrothermal precipitation, hydrothermal decomposition, hydrothermal polymerization, and so on. For constructing LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterostructure, hydrothermal precipitation method was used in many studies. Some metal cations are difficult to form layered hydroxides by coprecipitation under mild temperature and pressure conditions, but the reaction is easier to occur in a hydrothermal system with high temperature and pressure. Furthermore, the resulting LDH/g-C₃N₄ products usually have a good 2D/2D morphology.

Liu et al. [83] synthesized Zn-Cr-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composite by a hydrothermal method (Fig. 4). In their experiments, g-C₃N₄ nanosheet suspension was obtained through ultrasonic treatment of bulk g-C₃N₄, which was prepared through thermal polymerization with urea as the raw material. Then, Zn²⁺, Cr³⁺, and alkaline liquor (NaOH and Na₂CO₃) were added to the suspension. The hydrothermal reaction was carried out in a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave at 120 °C for 24 h. The

Zn-Cr-LDH/g-C₃N₄ product was finally obtained by collecting and drying the precipitates from the autoclave. For constructing LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts with a better 2D/2D morphology, Wu et al. [54] used urea and NH₄F instead of NaOH alkaline liquor in the hydrothermal synthesis of Co-Al-LDH/O-doped g-C₃N₄. In this process, the hydrolysis of urea was utilized to precipitate Co²⁺ and Al³⁺, which avoided the unevenness of LDH size resulting from the nonuniform precipitant distribution and reaction rate. Urea broke down into NH₃ and CO₂ by hydrolysis. The generated NH₃ increased the pH value of reaction mixture, while the release of CO₂ played a role of agitation. Thus, homogeneous precipitation of Co-Al-LDH flakes gradually occurred, and the products were of high purity and uniform size. Considering the difficulty in recycling powder photocatalysts from aqueous solutions in practical applications, Yazdani et al. [84] fabricated a Ni-Ti-LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterojunction film by hydrothermal method and used it as a fix-bed photoreactor. In their experiments, g-C₃N₄ film was first synthesized on a quartz glass substrate via thermal polymerization, and then the g-C₃N₄-covered substrate was further used to load Ni-Ti-LDH film by hydrothermal treatment. The formation of Ni-Ti-LDH was achieved by precipitation through urea hydrolysis. Layered structure of LDH and g-C₃N₄ makes them suitable for constructing 2D photocatalytic films. Using immobilized LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst may benefit its practical applications in aqueous solutions.

3.4. Solvothermal method

Solvothermal method is further developed from hydrothermal method. It uses organic solvents as reaction media. Despite many advantages of hydrothermal method, it is limited in synthesizing some non-oxides (e.g., carbides, nitrides, and phosphides) as the reactants and products may react with water, hydrolyze, or be unstable in water [85]. Using nonaqueous solvents can help to run these reactions successfully. Additionally, many properties of organic solvent (e.g., density, viscosity, and surface tension) vary a lot under high-pressure condition, which can provide special media for many chemical reactions [86]. At the same temperature, the gas pressure in solvothermal system can reach a higher level compared with that in hydrothermal system due to the lower boiling point of some organic solvents, and the high pressure favors the product crystallization [87]. For constructing LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterostructure, organic solvent can improve the dispersity of reaction precursors (e.g., g-C₃N₄ suspension), which increases the chemical reactivity and facilitates the construction of 2D/2D structure. Considering the advantages, solvothermal method was applied for synthesizing LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts in many studies.

Zhang et al. [88] synthesized Zn-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites by solvothermal method. In their experiments, ethylene glycol (EG) served as the reaction medium (Fig. 5). The g-C₃N₄ was prepared by calcining urea and suspended in EG with NaOH. Metal salts were added into another EG. The two EG suspensions were then mixed for the solvothermal treatment. According to the TEM observation, g-C₃N₄ sheets were well dispersed in EG and the Zn-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ products exhibited a satisfactory

layered structure. Additionally, due to the intercalation of EG in the solvothermal reaction, the interlayer distance of Zn-Al-LDH (1.03 nm) was found larger than that of conventional LDHs intercalated with carbonate (0.73 nm). A relatively large interlayer space can provide more space for reactant diffusion and more active sites for photocatalytic reaction, which helps to increase the photocatalytic efficiency [89, 90]. Shakeel et al. [91] used a mixed solvent of water and methanol for constructing Ni-Mn-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composite. To obtain a stable g-C₃N₄ nanosheet suspension, the g-C₃N₄ was ultrasonically treated in the mixed solvent before being transferred to the solvothermal reactor. Similar operation was performed with a mixed solvent of water and dimethylformamide (DMF) by Arif et al. [92] in synthesizing Co-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composite. With the assistance of these organic solvents, the dispersity of g-C₃N₄ sheets was greatly improved, which contributed to the synthesis of products with high quality.

3.5. Calcination Method

Calcination is a thermal treatment process in which a substance is heated to lose water or undergo redox reactions. This method is applied for synthesizing calcined LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites. In the synthesis process, LDHs are used as precursors and calcined to form mixed metal oxides (MMOs) via topological transformation [93, 94]. The resulting MMOs can be highly dispersed and have a good thermal stability. Due to the formation of metal oxides with higher porosity and specific surface area, the photocatalytic activity can be further improved [95]. Additionally, the calcination of

LDHs may generate spinels that can help to increase the harvesting ability for visible light [96, 97]. According to the available literature, there are three calcination strategies to obtain calcined LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites. The first way is directly calcining prepared LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites [98]. The second method is calcining LDH to MMO, followed by a secondary calcination of the mixture of MMO and g-C₃N₄ raw material [60]. The third approach is calcining the mixture of LDH and g-C₃N₄ raw material together, and this method was more widely used [96, 97, 99, 100]. Fig. 6 illustrates the synthesis of calcined Zn-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites through calcining the mixture of Zn-Fe-LDH and melamine together by Di et al. [97]. In the experiment, Zn-Fe-LDH was first synthesized by hydrothermal treatment. Urea hydrolysis was utilized to achieve homogeneous precipitation of Zn²⁺ and Fe³⁺. Melamine simultaneously underwent the hydrothermal treatment to dissolve and recrystallize after cooling down. The resulting precipitates were then calcined at 550 °C to produce the calcined Zn-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites. The calcination temperature was relatively higher than that in directly calcining prepared LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites (300 °C), because the synthesis of g-C₃N₄ needed to be simultaneously accomplished during the topological transformation of LDH to MMO [98]. An attractive property of LDHs is the structural memory effect that many LDH-derived MMOs generated at moderate calcination temperature (generally below 500 °C) can reconstruct the LDHs by being added to the solution that contains desired anions [101, 102]. This property is conducive to LDHs as adsorbents for removing anionic pollutants from wastewater [93]. However, the memory effect should be abandoned in

order to make full use of the photocatalytic capacity of calcined LDHs, as the formation of spinels at high calcination temperature will destroy the structural memory effect [103]. For example, Mg-Al-LDH would generate MgAl_2O_4 spinel at a calcination temperature over 600 °C [104]. Therefore, it is important to control the calcination temperature when synthesizing calcined LDH/g- C_3N_4 composites for photocatalytic applications.

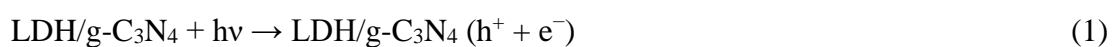
4. Applications of LDH/g- C_3N_4 photocatalytic systems

Rational design of 2D/2D structure can considerably enhance the performance of LDH/g- C_3N_4 photocatalysts, which enables them to be widely used for energy and environmental applications based on solar photocatalysis. The photocatalytic applications mainly involve hydrogen production from water splitting, CO_2 reduction, and organic pollutant degradation. The performance and mechanism of various LDH/g- C_3N_4 photocatalysts are reviewed and discussed in this section.

4.1. LDH/g- C_3N_4 binary photocatalysts

According to available literature, divalent cations including Co^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Ni^{2+} , and Zn^{2+} , and trivalent cations including Al^{3+} , Cr^{3+} , Fe^{3+} , Mn^{3+} , and Ti^{3+} were used to construct LDH/g- C_3N_4 binary photocatalysts (Table 1). These LDH/g- C_3N_4 photocatalysts with improved photocatalytic activity were explored for solar energy conversion and pollution abatement. Nayak et al. [73] fabricated Ni-Fe-LDH/g- C_3N_4 composites with various g- C_3N_4 content (2, 5, 8, 10, 12, and 15 wt%, denoted as

CNLDH2, CNLDH5, CNLDH8, CNLDH10, CNLDH12, and CNLDH15 by the authors, respectively) and applied them for water splitting. Fig. 7a and 7b showed the evolution amount of H₂ and O₂ with different photocatalysts during two-hour irradiation process with visible light. The CNLDH10 composite presented the highest photocatalytic performance for water splitting and the evolution amounts of H₂ and O₂ were 1488 and 886 μmol/g, respectively. The combination of Ni-Fe-LDH and 10 wt% g-C₃N₄ greatly enhanced water splitting efficiency compared with that by only Ni-Fe-LDH or g-C₃N₄. The reduced electron-hole recombination mainly contributed to the result. According to experimental results, the photoluminescence (PL) intensity was negatively related to photocatalytic activity (Fig. 7c). The PL was excited when the electrons and holes recombined, thus the PL spectra suggested that coupling Ni-Fe-LDH and g-C₃N₄ could efficiently separate photoinduced charge carriers and decrease their recombination. In the water splitting process, both Ni-Fe-LDH and g-C₃N₄ could produce electron-hole pairs with visible light irradiation. As the conduction band (CB) edge potential of g-C₃N₄ is more negative than that of Ni-Fe-LDH, the photoinduced electrons on g-C₃N₄ could move to the CB of Ni-Fe-LDH. The electrons (e⁻) on the CB of Ni-Fe-LDH were captured by H⁺ to generate H₂. Similarly, the holes (h⁺) on the valence band (VB) of Ni-Fe-LDH could move to the VB of g-C₃N₄ where the holes oxidized H₂O to form O₂ (Fig. 7d). The photocatalytic process can be explained with the following equations:

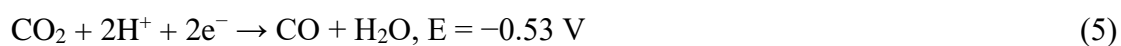




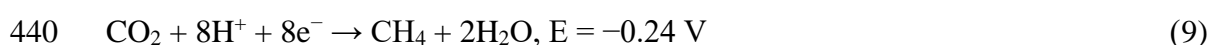
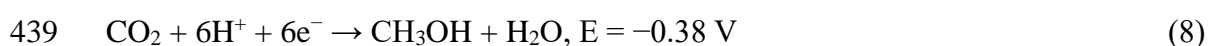
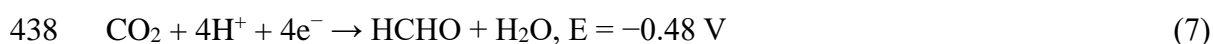
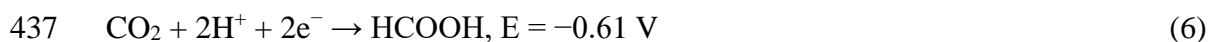
392 Apart from being directly used as powder photocatalysts, LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites
 393 have also been studied as electrode materials of photoelectrochemical cell (PEC),
 394 which can convert solar energy to electric energy for water splitting. The hydrogen
 395 and oxygen evolve at the cathode and anode, respectively. Water splitting by PEC can
 396 utilize electrode as the photocatalyst support, which simplifies the separation of
 397 photocatalyst from water and favors the recycling of photocatalyst. Additionally, the
 398 electron-hole recombination can be suppressed by bias voltage. Arif et al. [92]
 399 constructed Co-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composite and used it as both the anode and the
 400 cathode in a two-electrode electrolyzer for overall water splitting. Their results
 401 suggested that the Co-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composite could enhance the current density at
 402 a lower over potential compared with pristine Co-Fe-LDH and g-C₃N₄. The improved
 403 photoelectrocatalytic performance in water splitting mainly resulted from the
 404 suppressed electron-hole recombination in Co-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ and its 2D/2D porous
 405 structure that provided higher active surface area for gas penetration and release.
 406 These examples both demonstrate that LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites can display a higher
 407 photocatalytic performance in water splitting through the construction of 2D/2D
 408 structure and rational ratio control, and the enhanced performance is mainly due to the
 409 decreased electron-hole recombination in the heterojunction.

410 Tonda et al. [53] constructed 2D/2D Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites with various
 411 weight percentages of Ni-Al-LDH (5, 10, 15, and 20 wt%, denoted as CNLDH-5,

CNLDH-10, CNLDH-15, and CNLDH-20 by the authors, respectively) for realizing high-efficient photocatalytic CO₂ reduction. The TEM images showed successful 2D/2D assembly and intimate interface of Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composite (Fig. 8a-c). The results of photocatalytic experiments showed that CNLDH-10 presented the highest activity to reduce CO₂ to CO, H₂, and O₂ (Fig. 8d, e, and f). The optimal evolution rate of CO with CNLDH-10 was reported to be 8.2 μmol/h/g, and this value was much higher than that with only Ni-Al-LDH (0.92 μmol/h/g) and g-C₃N₄ (1.56 μmol/h/g). An experiment by using physical mixture of Ni-Al-LDH (10 wt%) and g-C₃N₄ as the photocatalyst was carried out for comparison, and the evolution rate of CO was only 2.84 μmol/h/g. This result demonstrated the importance of intimate contact between LDH and g-C₃N₄ in achieving high photocatalytic performance with LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites. In the photocatalytic mechanism study, CNLDH-10 showed the lowest PL intensity and the highest transient photocurrent responses (Fig. 8g and h), which was consistent with its high photocatalytic performance in CO₂ reduction. The possible photocatalytic mechanism for CO₂ reduction by Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst was proposed and illustrated as shown in Fig. 8i. Both Ni-Al-LDH and g-C₃N₄ could produce electrons and holes under the irradiation of visible light. The electrons on the CB of g-C₃N₄ could transfer to the CB of Ni-Al-LDH, while the holes on the VB of Ni-Al-LDH could move to the VB of g-C₃N₄. The accumulated electrons on the CB of Ni-Al-LDH reduced CO₂ to CO. The reduction process of CO₂ was described by the following equation and redox potential (vs. NHE, at pH 7.00):



434 Except being reduced to CO for renewable fuels, CO₂ may also be reduced to
 435 HCOOH, HCHO, CH₃OH, and CH₄ with different redox potential (vs. NHE, at pH
 436 7.00) [107]:



441 For example, Hong et al. [72] constructed Mg-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts and
 442 used them for reducing CO₂ to CH₄. If this technique can be successfully applied in
 443 practical engineering, both the global warming and energy crisis will be alleviated.

444 Salehi et al. [106] synthesized Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites with various
 445 weight percentages of g-C₃N₄ (10, 20, 30, 40, and 50 wt%, denoted as
 446 g-C₃N₄-10@NiAl-LDH, g-C₃N₄-20@NiAl-LDH, g-C₃N₄-30@NiAl-LDH,
 447 g-C₃N₄-40@NiAl-LDH, and g-C₃N₄-50@NiAl-LDH by the authors, respectively) and
 448 studied their photocatalytic activity for removing rhodamine B (RhB) and methyl
 449 orange (MO) in wastewater. Fig. 9a showed the typical 2D/2D structure of the
 450 synthesized Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites. The g-C₃N₄-40@NiAl-LDH displayed
 451 the highest photocatalytic performance in degrading RhB (Fig. 9b), while the
 452 g-C₃N₄-20@NiAl-LDH showed the highest photocatalytic performance in degrading
 453 MO (Fig. 9c). With the optimal photocatalyst, the removal rates of RhB and MO both
 454 reached 93% after visible light irradiation of 240 and 180 min, respectively. For
 455 elucidating the photocatalytic degradation mechanism, p-benzoquinone (BQ, O₂⁻

scavenger), isopropanol (IPA, $\cdot\text{OH}$ scavenger), and $\text{Na}_2\text{-EDTA}$ (h^+ scavenger) were used to identify important oxidative species in the Ni-Al-LDH/g- C_3N_4 photocatalytic systems. The significant inhibition of dye degradation with the incorporation of isopropanol and $\text{Na}_2\text{-EDTA}$ implied that the generation of $\cdot\text{OH}$ and h^+ mainly contributed to the dye degradation (Fig. 9d). As illustrated in Fig. 9e, $\cdot\text{OH}$ could be generated when O_2 was reduced by the enriched electrons on the CB of Ni-Al-LDH. The generated $\cdot\text{OH}$ and accumulated h^+ on the VB of g- C_3N_4 contributed to the oxidative degradation of RhB and MO. Additionally, h^+ could also lead to the formation of $\cdot\text{OH}$. Related reactions are expressed by the following equations:



In the experiments that assessed the photocatalytic performance of LDH/g- C_3N_4 composites for removing organic pollutants, organic dyes were generally selected as model pollutants due to the relatively obvious experimental phenomenon and convenient measurement. Additionally, some antibiotics and endocrine disruptors were targeted in the degradation experiments [54, 55]. Zhang et al. [88] fabricated

Zn-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites and applied them to degrade methylene blue (MB). In the experiments, Zn-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst completely removed the MB under the irradiation of ultraviolet (UV) light for 60 min, while g-C₃N₄ and Zn-Al-LDH could only remove 55.0% and 21.0% MB under the same conditions, respectively. This demonstrated the improved photocatalytic activity after the combination of Zn-Al-LDH and g-C₃N₄. However, commercial ZnO photocatalyst only took 20 min to completely remove the MB under UV light irradiation. Under the irradiation of visible light, the Zn-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst removed 100% MB within 240 min, but only 27.2% MB was removed by the commercial ZnO photocatalyst under the same conditions. The higher performance of Zn-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst under visible light made it more competitive in solar photocatalysis. Considering the practical applications, Yazdani et al. [84] constructed Ni-Ti-LDH/g-C₃N₄ films on quartz glass substrates and used them for photocatalytic degradation of MO. The films were placed in a reactor where the MO solution was circulated over the film surface under visible light irradiation. After a single run, the films could be directly taken out, washed, and dried for the next run. Immobilizing Ni-Ti-LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst on the film simplified the process of recycling photocatalysts from aqueous solutions compared with using powder photocatalysts, which might be beneficial for the practical applications.

4.2. LDH/g-C₃N₄/X ternary photocatalysts

Though coupling LDH and g-C₃N₄ can increase the electron-hole separation, the charge carriers on some LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts are difficult to further transfer and participate in redox reactions [108]. Therefore, constructing LDH/g-C₃N₄/X ternary photocatalysts is considered, where X represents other semiconductor or noble metal. This strategy is expected to not only facilitate the charge carrier transfer at the interface of LDH and g-C₃N₄, but also improve the harvesting ability for visible light. According to available literature, Ag and reduced graphene oxide (RGO) were primarily used to realize these goals [108-111].

Tonda and Jo [111] incorporated 1 wt% Ag nanoparticles into Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites with various weight percentages of Ni-Al-LDH (5, 10, 15, and 20 wt%, denoted as ALDHCN-5, ALDHCN-10, ALDHCN-15, and ALDHCN-20 by the authors, respectively) and studied their photocatalytic performance in degrading RhB and 4-chlorophenol (4-CP). In their study, the Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites were first fabricated through hydrothermal method, and then the composites were decorated with Ag nanoparticles via a photo-reduction process to form Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄/Ag hybrids (Fig. 10a). The deposition of Ag nanoparticles on Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ was clearly observed with TEM image (Fig. 10b). The combination of Ni-Al-LDH and g-C₃N₄ greatly increased the photocatalytic activity in degrading both RhB and 4-CP, while the incorporation of Ag nanoparticles further enhanced the photocatalytic performance (Fig. 10c and d). In the mechanism study, the photocatalytic activity of ALDHCN-15 was significantly inhibited in the

520 presence of ammonium oxalate (AO, h^+ scavenger), benzoquinone (BZQ, O_2^-
 521 scavenger), tert-butanol (TBA, OH scavenger). The order of inhibiting ability was
 522 $BZQ > TBA > AO$ (Fig. 10e). This result demonstrated that O_2^- and OH were the
 523 main active species that accounted for the pollutant degradation. The generation
 524 of OH during the photocatalytic process was further confirmed by OH trapping PL
 525 spectra in terephthalic acid solution (Fig. 10f). The possible photocatalytic mechanism
 526 of Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄/Ag composite was illustrated in Fig. 10g. Both Ni-Al-LDH and
 527 g-C₃N₄ could generate electron-hole pairs under visible light. Because the CB of
 528 g-C₃N₄ (-1.32 eV) is more negative than that of Ni-Al-LDH (-0.72 eV), the electrons
 529 on the CB of g-C₃N₄ could move to the CB of Ni-Al-LDH. Similarly, the holes on the
 530 VB of Ni-Al-LDH could transfer to the VB of g-C₃N₄. This facilitated the
 531 electron-hole separation. The surface Ag nanoparticles on the composites were
 532 excellent electron trappers, which could transfer electrons from the CB of both
 533 Ni-Al-LDH and g-C₃N₄. Therefore, the electron-hole separation efficiency was further
 534 enhanced, contributing to the higher photocatalytic performance. Nayak and Parida
 535 [109] added Ag@Ag₃PO₄ component into Ni-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ to improve the
 536 performance for photocatalytic Cr(VI) reduction and phenol degradation. It was
 537 reported that Ag nanoparticles could induce surface plasmon resonance, in which free
 538 electrons on the surface of Ag nanoparticles oscillated collectively under the light
 539 irradiation. The plasmon resonance improved the light harvesting capacity and thus
 540 enhanced the photocatalytic Cr(VI) reduction and phenol degradation. This offered

another mechanism by which Ag nanoparticles promote the performance of LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst.

Jo and Tonda [108] fabricated Co-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄/RGO composites with 1 wt% RGO and various weight percentages of Co-Al-LDH (5, 10, 15, and 20 wt%, denoted as LCR-5, LCR-10, LCR-15, and LCR-20 by the authors, respectively) and applied them for photocatalytic degradation of Congo red (CR) and tetracycline (TC). The composites were synthesized by adding RGO suspension into the mixture of Co-Al-LDH and g-C₃N₄ before the hydrothermal reaction (Fig. 11a). The TEM image of LCR-15 showed a typical 2D/2D/2D structure. The incorporation of RGO considerably improved the photocatalytic activity of Co-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites in degrading CR and TC, and LCR-15 exhibited the highest photocatalytic performance for degrading both the pollutants. Due to the generation of intermediate products, the decoloration of CR is generally not equal to that the pollutant has been completely mineralized into CO₂ and H₂O. Fig. 11e showed the removal of total organic carbon (TOC) by LCR-15 in removing CR, which suggested the pollutant mineralization by the photocatalytic process. The LCR-15 photocatalyst could remove 79% TOC from CR solution under visible light for 30 min. The high photocatalytic activity of Co-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄/RGO composites could be partly ascribed to the enhanced light harvesting ability due to the RGO incorporation. As shown in the UV-vis diffuse reflection spectra (DRS, Fig. 11f), the presence of RGO increased the absorption capacity of Co-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄/RGO for visible light. Additionally, because of the conductivity of RGO, the generated electrons on the CB of both

Co-Al-LDH and g-C₃N₄ could transfer along the RGO network, further enhancing the electron-hole separation for degrading CR and TC (Fig. 11g). Nayak and Parida [110] added N-doped RGO into Ni-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ to increase the photocatalytic activity in degrading RhB and phenol, as well as producing H₂ and O₂. Doping nitrogen on the RGO networks facilitated the charge transfer between adjacent carbon atoms. The direct coupling of N-doped RGO and transition-metal atom sites on Ni-Fe-LDH accelerated the charge transfer at the interface of LDH/g-C₃N₄. These attempts provided valuable experience for using RGO to further promote charge transfer at the interface of LDH/g-C₃N₄ and the absorption capacity for visible light.

4.3. Calcined LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts

Calcining LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites or using LDHs as precursors can fabricate calcined LDH/g-C₃N₄ with higher surface area and better photocatalytic activity [60, 94, 96-100]. The topological transformation of homogeneous LDHs ensures the formation of highly dispersed MMOs on g-C₃N₄. Besides metal oxides, the calcination of LDHs may generate spinels which present smaller band gap than metal oxides and can serve as light sensitizer to increase the harvesting ability for visible light [96, 97].

Lan et al. [100] fabricated some calcined Zn-In-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites from different weight ratios of melamine and Zn-In-LDH (1:1, 3:1, and 5:1, denoted as 1-MMO/C₃N₄, 3-MMO/C₃N₄, and 5-MMO/C₃N₄ by the authors, respectively). These composites were applied for the degradation of RhB. Fig. 12a showed the 2D layered

structure of the calcined Zn-In-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composite. The XRD patterns suggested that ZnO had a higher crystallinity than In₂O₃ in the calcined Zn-In-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites (Fig. 12b). The 3-MMO/C₃N₄ showed the highest photocatalytic activity for RhB degradation, showing a complete removal of RhB within 60 min (Fig. 12c). Additionally, the degradation efficiency of RhB was still over 95% after the 3-MMO/C₃N₄ was recycled for eight times, which indicated the stability of photocatalyst (Fig. 12d). The higher photocatalytic performance of calcined Zn-In-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composite was attributed to higher photocurrent response (Fig. 12e), and the generation of more O₂⁻ and OH (Fig. 12f and g). The possible mechanism for the carrier transfer was illustrated in Fig. 12h. Under visible light irradiation, many charge carriers were generated on the g-C₃N₄ and In₂O₃. The transfer of electrons and holes through the heterojunction interface separated the charge carriers and enriched holes on the VB of g-C₃N₄ and electrons on the CB of In₂O₃. The ZnO further improved the charge separation efficiency because of the excellent electron mobility of ZnO. The electrons could be accepted by oxygen to generate O₂⁻ and OH, and these strong oxidants decomposed the RhB. Shi et al. [60] constructed 2D/2D calcined Mg-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst and achieved an improved H₂ production under the irradiation of visible light. In their experiments, it was found that the CB position was tunable and the product with a smaller CB potential could be obtained with a more addition amount of calcined Mg-Fe-LDH. The result provided valuable information for tuning band structure of LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst to meet the demands in different applications.

Di et al. [97] synthesized several kinds of calcined Zn-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites with various weight percentages of g-C₃N₄ (0.5, 1.0, 5.0, 70, and 90, denoted as CNZF-0.5, CNZF-1.0, CNZF-5.0, CNZF-70, and CNZF-90 by the authors, respectively) and explored their photocatalytic activity in degrading ibuprofen (IBF) and sulfadiazine (SDZ). The high-resolution TEM images showed the intimate face-to-face contact between calcined Zn-Fe-LDH and g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 13a and b). The characteristic diffractions of ZnO and ZnFe₂O₄ were observed with the XRD pattern of calcined Zn-Fe-LDH (Fig. 13c). The CNZF-1.0 and CNZF-90 exhibited the best photocatalytic performance among the prepared photocatalysts in the IBF and SDZ degradation process, respectively (Fig. 13d and e). Different scavengers for h⁺ (Na₂-EDTA), O₂⁻ (BQ), and ·OH (IPA) were used in the photocatalytic systems to identify the main oxidative species that accounted for the pollutant degradation. It was found that h⁺ mainly contributed to the degradation of IBF by CNZF-1.0 photocatalyst (Fig. 13f), and the degradation of SDZ by CNZF-90 mainly resulted from the generation of ·OH (Fig. 13g). A Z-scheme charge transfer mechanism was proposed for explaining the improved photocatalytic performance of calcined Zn-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites (Fig. 13h). The authors did not directly present the inference process about the Z-scheme charge transfer mechanism. However, it was indicated by their experimental results. The photoinduced generation of ·OH on Zn-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ was ascertained by electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra (Fig. 13h). The redox potential needed for ·OH generation was more positive than the VB potential of g-C₃N₄. If the photoinduced h⁺ accumulated on VB of

g-C₃N₄, the resulting redox ability would be insufficient for OH generation [112]. Therefore, it should be a Z-scheme charge transfer mechanism. Under visible light irradiation, both g-C₃N₄ and ZnO in the heterojunction could generate electron-hole pairs. The generated electrons on the CB of ZnO could move to the VB of g-C₃N₄ and recombine with the holes generated there. This resulted in the electron-hole separation, and the accumulation of electrons on the CB of g-C₃N₄ and holes on the VB of ZnO contributed to the removal of IBF and SDZ. The ZnFe₂O₄ spinel phase played a role of light sensitizer, which enhanced the light harvesting and charge carrier generation. Similar role of ZnCr₂O₄ spinel phase in the calcined Zn-Cr-LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst was reported by Patnaik et al. [96] because of smaller band gap of ZnCr₂O₄ (1.5 eV) than that of ZnO (3.2 eV), ZnCr₂O₄ could harvest visible light and sensitize ZnO to promote the photocatalytic performance. These studies suggested that the formation of spinel phase in calcined LDH/g-C₃N₄ could increase photocatalytic performance by enhancing the absorption of visible light.

5. Conclusion and outlook

In summary, constructing 2D/2D LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterojunction is an effective approach to achieve high performance in solar photocatalysis for pollution abatement and energy conversion. The planar structure and face-to-face contact of LDH and g-C₃N₄ can greatly facilitate the separation and transfer of photoinduced charge carriers, thus improving the photocatalytic performance. Many synthesis methods including electrostatic self-assembly, in-situ coprecipitation, hydrothermal method,

651 solvothermal method, and calcination method have been developed for constructing
652 LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterojunction with desired 2D/2D structure and rational band gaps. The
653 synergetic effect of LDH and g-C₃N₄ has contributed to high photocatalytic
654 performance in hydrogen production, CO₂ reduction, and organic pollutant
655 degradation. Fabricating LDH/g-C₃N₄/X ternary photocatalysts and calcined
656 LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites is effective for further improving and optimizing the
657 photocatalytic performance. The following points may be considered in future
658 research:

659 (1) Increasing the harvesting ability for visible light and even near infrared light
660 that accounts for more than 50% of solar irradiation. Though LDH/g-C₃N₄
661 photocatalysts can function under visible light, the harvesting ability for sun light may
662 be further improved through surface sensitization, doping element, band gap
663 adjustment, etc.

664 (2) Matching the CB (or VB) potential of LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts with the
665 redox potential for specific photocatalytic reaction. Since the band structure of
666 LDH/g-C₃N₄ is tunable, it is possible to adjust the CB (or VB) position to provide
667 high redox potential for various photocatalytic reactions. However, the accurate
668 adjustment method needs further study.

669 (3) Going deep into the transfer mechanism of charge carriers. Better
670 understanding of the mechanism is helpful for seeking more LDH materials that can
671 combine with g-C₃N₄ to achieve better photocatalytic performance.

(4) Photocatalytic reaction mechanisms. How the reactants contact and interact with the LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts, and the effects of photocatalyst properties (e.g., size and porosity) on the photocatalytic activity need to be further illuminated.

(5) Constructing ultrathin 2D/2D structure. Some studies have proposed the ultrathin LDH and g-C₃N₄ as photocatalysts [113-115]. It is also possible to construct ultrathin LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterostructure that will enable faster carrier transfer due to the further shortened transfer distance from inner to surface and reduced electron-hole recombination in the bulk phase.

(6) Application expansion. Current uses of LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites mainly target at photocatalytic water splitting and organic pollutant degradation. The application for CO₂ reduction is relatively fewer. Existing and new LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts may also be explored for applications in degradation of other more organic pollutants, Cr(VI) reduction, and nitrogen fixation. Simultaneously, the photocatalytic conditions should be recorded and optimized in different applications.

(7) Practical engineering applications. Most studies were conducted under laboratory conditions. Considering the practical applications, the design of applicable reaction systems for LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts is required.

690 **Acknowledgements**

691 This work was supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China
692 (51378190, 51508177, 51521006, 51579095, 51709101), the Program for Changjiang
693 Scholars and Innovative Research Team in University (IRT-13R17).

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Accepted MS

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Table 1Constructing strategies and applications of some LDH/g-C₃N₄ binary photocatalysts.

Photocatalyst	Constructing strategy	Application	Reference
Mg-Al-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄	Electrostatic self-assembly	CO ₂ reduction	[72]
Ni-Fe-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄	Electrostatic self-assembly	Water splitting	[73]
Zn-Cr-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄	Electrostatic self-assembly	Water splitting	[105]
Zn-Cr-LDH/modified g-C ₃ N ₄	In-situ coprecipitation	Degradation of Congo red	[56]
Co-Mn-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄	In-situ coprecipitation	Water splitting	[78]
Zn-Al-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄	In-situ coprecipitation	Degradation of methylene blue	[79]
Ni-Al-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄	Hydrothermal method	CO ₂ reduction	[53]
Co-Al-LDH/O-doped g-C ₃ N ₄	Hydrothermal method	Degradation of methyl orange and bisphenol A	[54]
Ni-Ti-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄	Hydrothermal method	Degradation of amoxicillin	[55]
Zn-Cr-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄	Hydrothermal method	Water splitting	[83]
Ni-Ti-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄ film	Hydrothermal method	Degradation of methyl orange	[84]
Ni-Al-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄	Hydrothermal method	Degradation of rhodamine B and methyl orange	[106]
Zn-Al-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄	Solvothermal method	Degradation of methylene blue	[88]
Ni-Mn-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄	Solvothermal method	Degradation of rhodamine B	[91]
Co-Fe-LDH/g-C ₃ N ₄	Solvothermal method	Water splitting	[92]

High surface area increases the contact with reaction substrate.

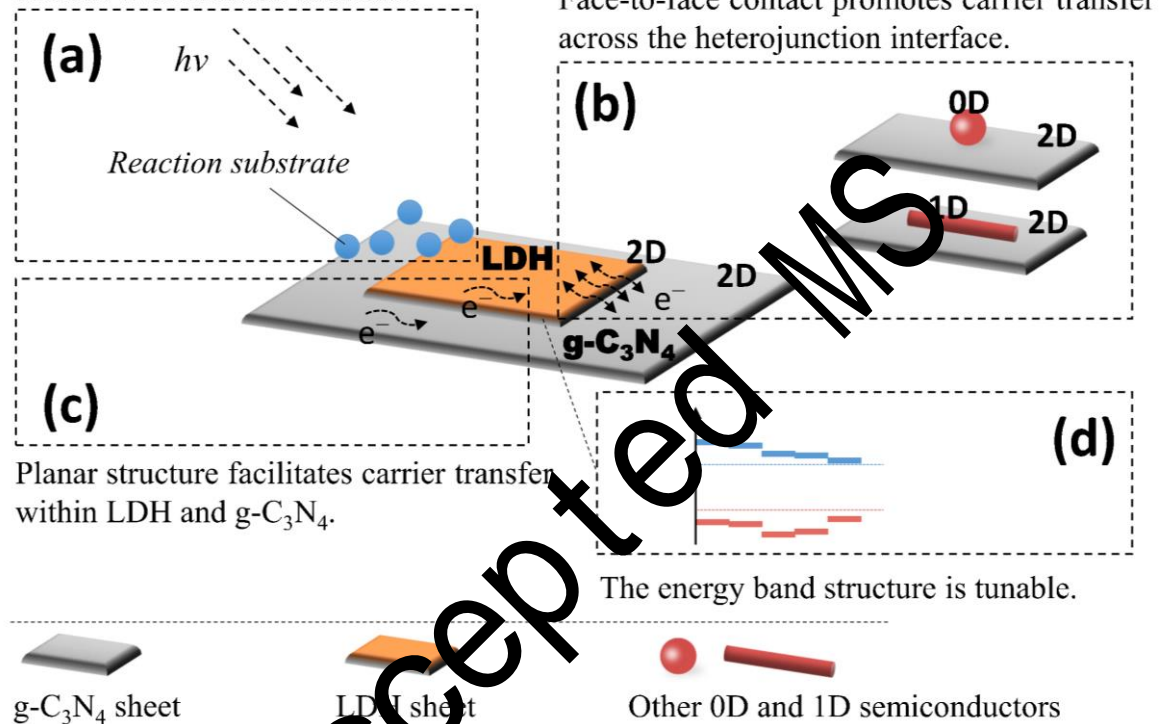


Fig. 1. Advantages of 2D/2D LDH/g-C₃N₄ heterostructure in photocatalytic applications.

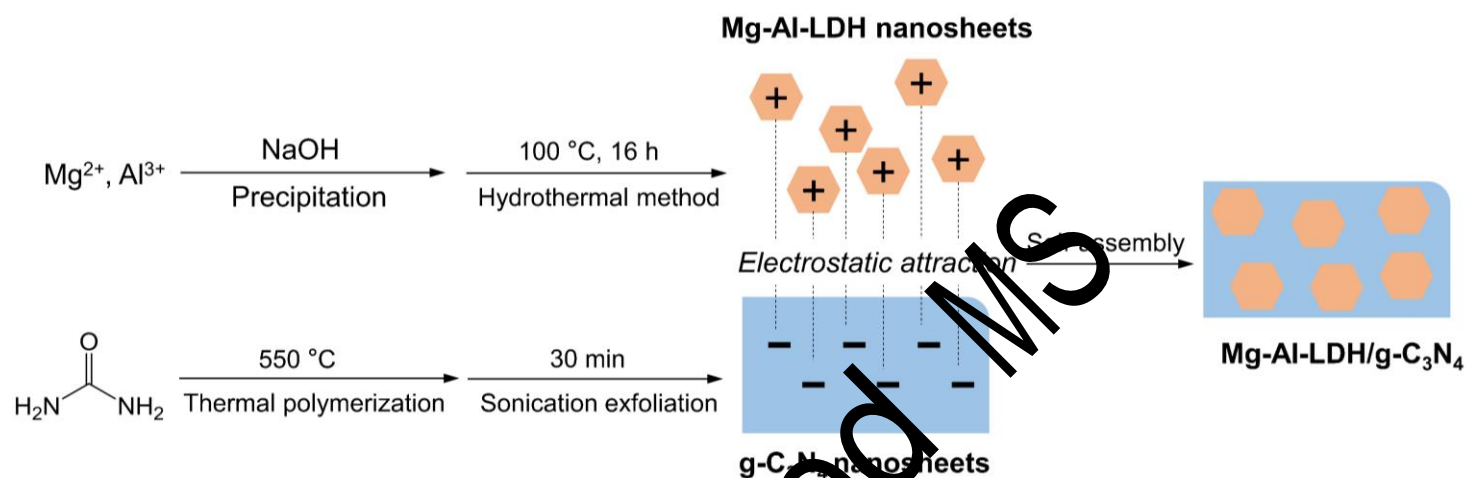


Fig. 2. Synthesis of Mg-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst by electrostatic self-assembly. This schematic diagram was drawn according to the method used by Hong et al. [72].

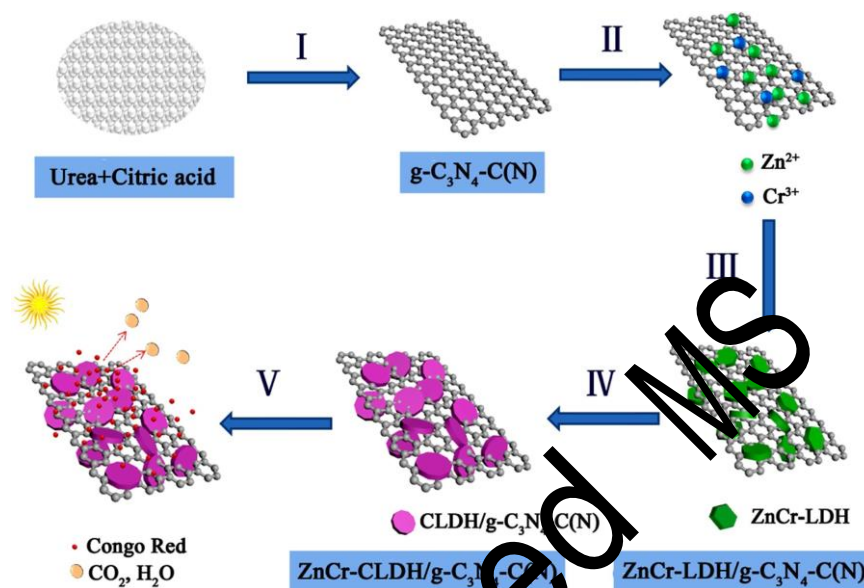


Fig. 3. Schematic illustration of the fabrication route of hybrid Zn-Cr-CLDH/g-C₃N₄-C(N) nanocomposites. (I) Thermal polymerization at 550 °C; (II) adding Zn²⁺ and Cr³⁺ under stirring; (III) in situ precipitation of Zn-Cr-LDH on g-C₃N₄-C(N); (IV) calcinations and formation of Zn-Cr-CLDH/g-C₃N₄-C(N); (V) adsorption and photocatalytic Congo red under visible light. Reproduced with permission from ref. [56]. Copyright 2018 Elsevier.

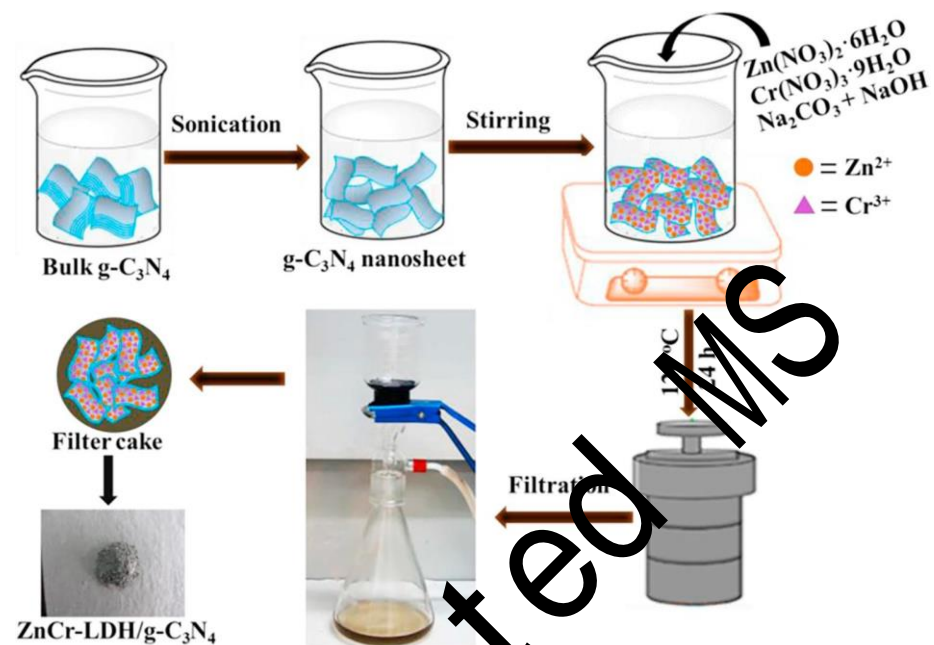


Fig. 4. Schematic representation of the synthesis process of the Zn-Cr-LDH/ $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ composite. Reproduced with permission from ref. [83]. Copyright 2018 Elsevier.

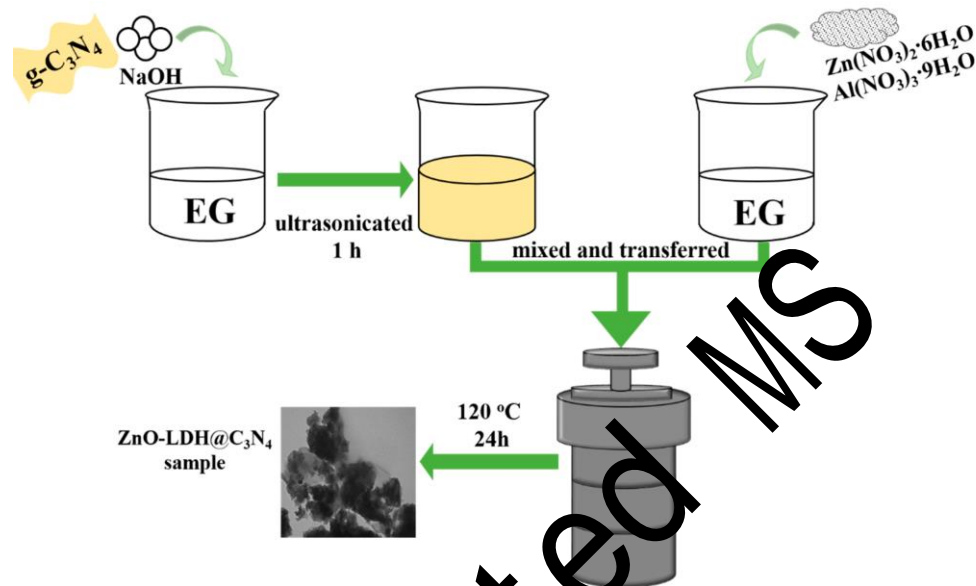


Fig. 5. Schematic representation of the synthesis process of the Zn-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composite. Reproduced with permission from ref. [88]. Copyright 2016 The Authors.

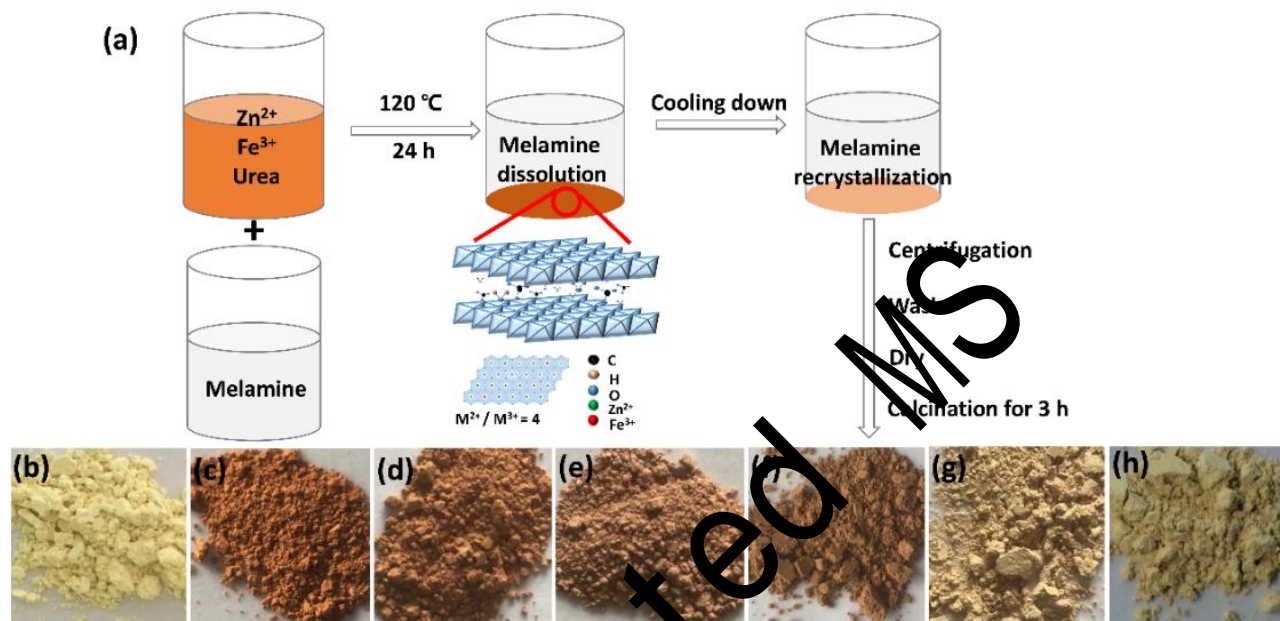


Fig. 6. (a) Schematic illustration of synthesizing the calcined Zn-Fe-LDH/g- C_3N_4 composites; photographs of the g- C_3N_4 (b), the calcined Zn-Fe-LDH (c), and the calcined Zn-Fe-LDH/g- C_3N_4 products with different weight percentages of g- C_3N_4 (d-h, from left to right: 0.5, 1.0, 5.0, 70, and 90 wt%). Reproduced with permission from ref. [97]. Copyright 2018 Elsevier.

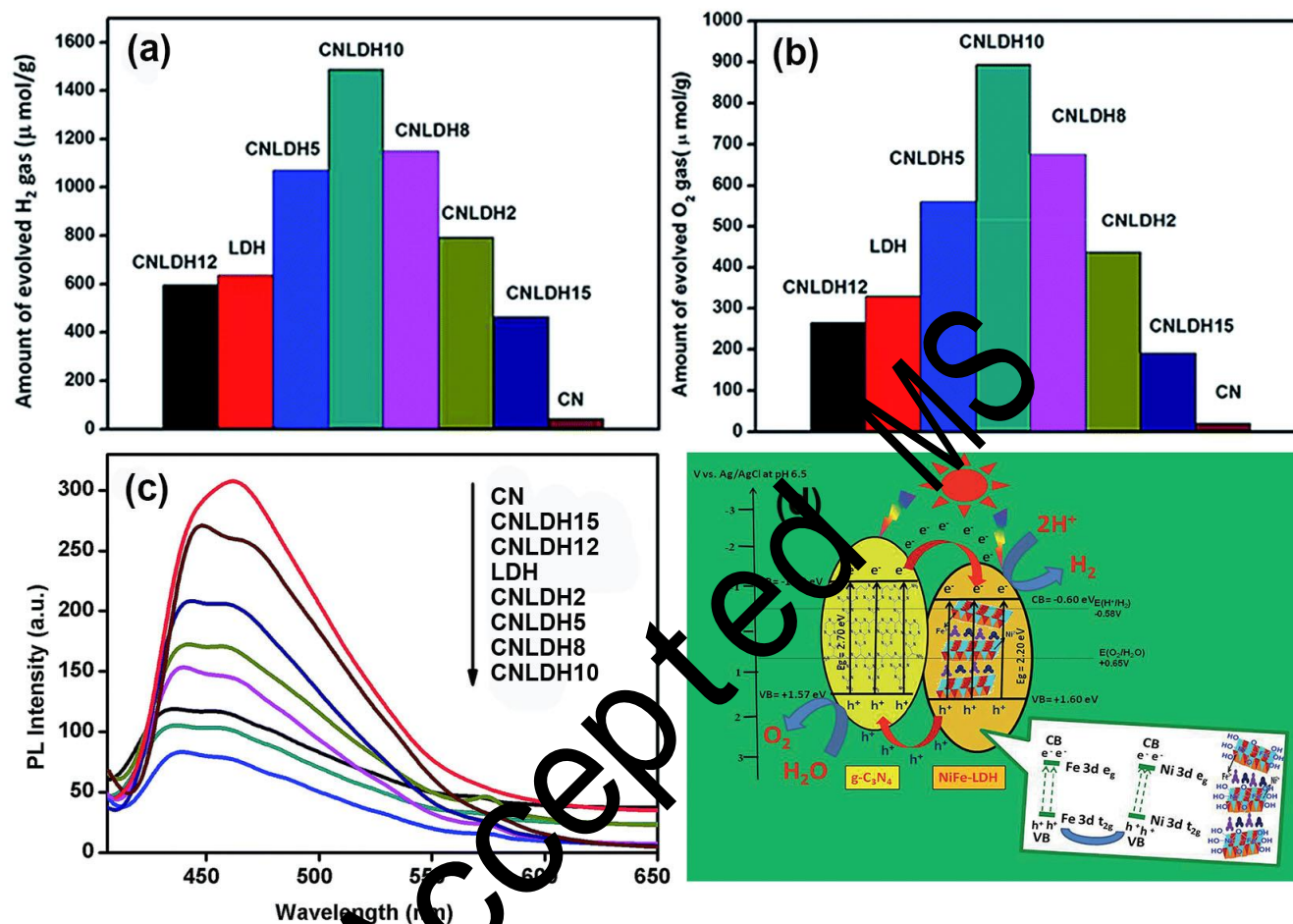


Fig. 7. (a) The amount of evolved hydrogen with Ni-Fe-LDH, g-C₃N₄ and different Ni-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites in the photocatalytic water splitting; (b) the amount of evolved oxygen with Ni-Fe-LDH, g-C₃N₄ and different Ni-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites in the photocatalytic water splitting; (c) photoluminescence spectra of Ni-Fe-LDH, g-C₃N₄ and different Ni-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites; (d) proposed mechanism of the charge separation and transfer in Ni-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites for the evolution of hydrogen and oxygen under visible light irradiation. CN: g-C₃N₄, LDH: Ni-Fe-LDH, CNLDHn: Ni-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ containing n wt% g-C₃N₄. Reproduced with permission from ref. [73]. Copyright 2015 The Royal Society of Chemistry.

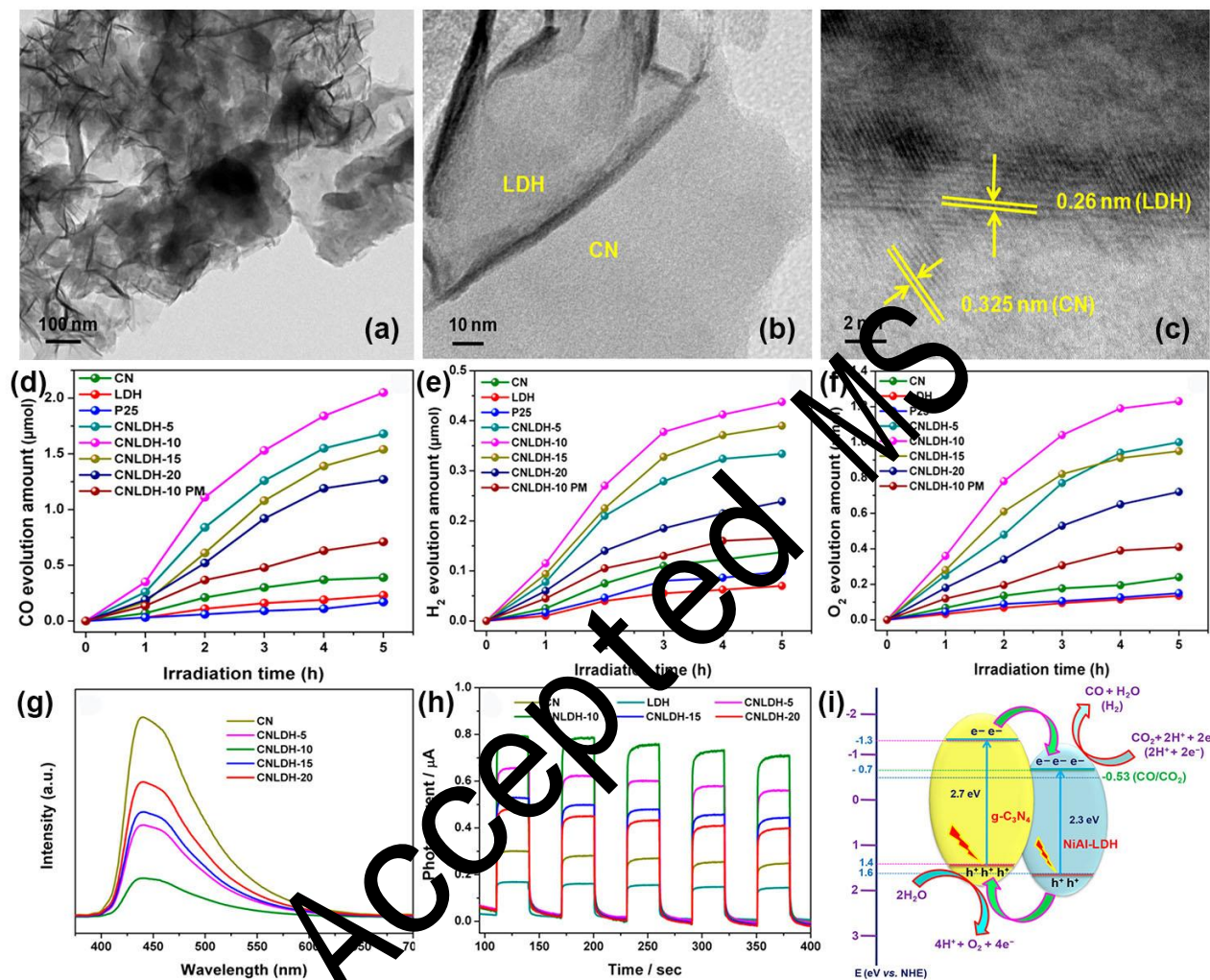


Fig. 8. (a and b) TEM images of CNLDH-10 composite; (c) high-resolution TEM image of CNLDH-10 composite; time-dependent evolution amount of (d) CO, (e) H₂, and (f) O₂ over all the synthesized photocatalysts under visible light irradiation; (g) PL spectra of g-C₃N₄, Ni-Al-LDH, and Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄; (h) transient photocurrent responses of g-C₃N₄, Ni-Al-LDH, and Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄; (i) proposed mechanism for CO₂ photoreduction by the Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst. CN: g-C₃N₄, LDH: Ni-Al-LDH, CNLDH-n: Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ containing n wt% Ni-Al-LDH, P25: commercial P25 reference catalyst, CNLDH-10 PM: physical mixture of Ni-Al-LDH (10 wt%) and g-C₃N₄. Reproduced with permission from ref. [53]. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

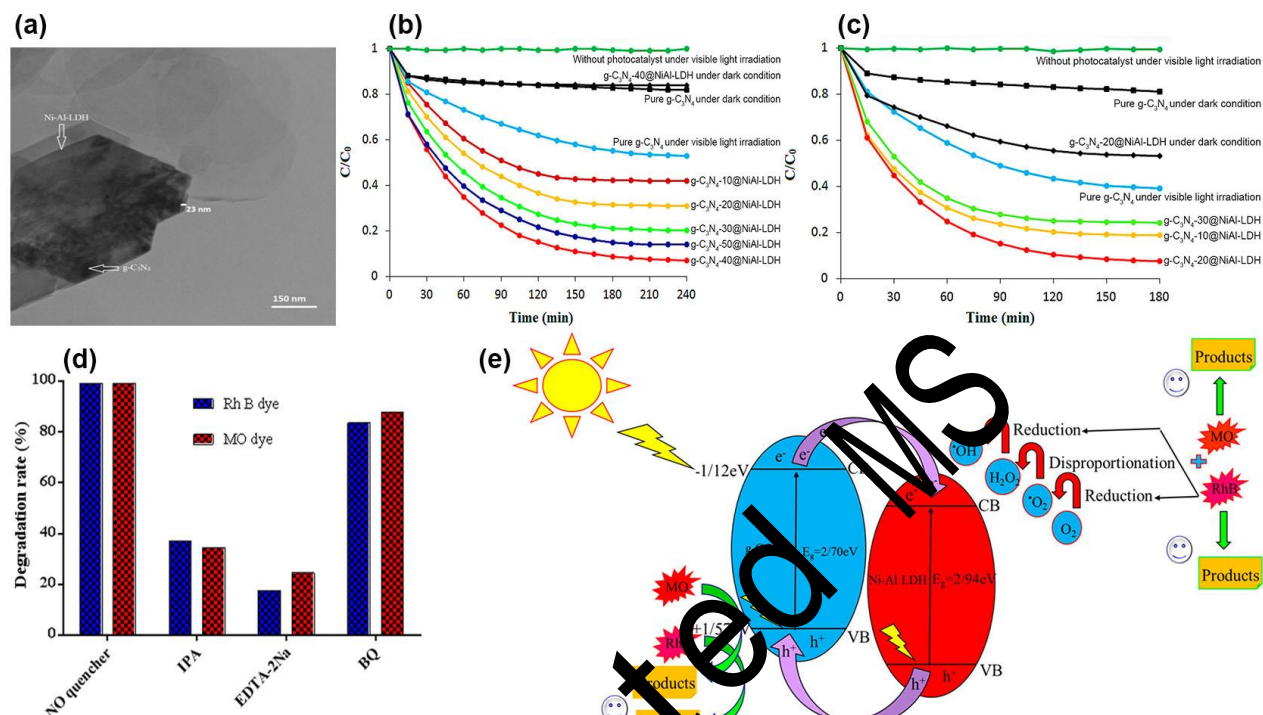


Fig. 9. (a) TEM image of the synthesized g-C₃N₄-40@NiAl-LDH composite; (b) photocatalytic activities for the degradation of rhodamine B under various conditions; (c) photocatalytic activities for the degradation of methyl orange under various conditions; (d) effects of various active scavengers on the degradation of rhodamine B by g-C₃N₄-40@NiAl-LDH and the degradation of methyl orange by g-C₃N₄-20@NiAl-LDH under visible light irradiation for 240 and 180 min, respectively; (e) possible mechanism for the photocatalytic degradation of rhodamine B and methyl orange by Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composite under visible light irradiation. g-C₃N₄-n@NiAl-LDH: Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composite containing n wt% g-C₃N₄, Rh B: rhodamine B, MO: methyl orange, IPA: isopropanol, BQ: p-benzoquinone. Reproduced with permission from ref. [106]. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

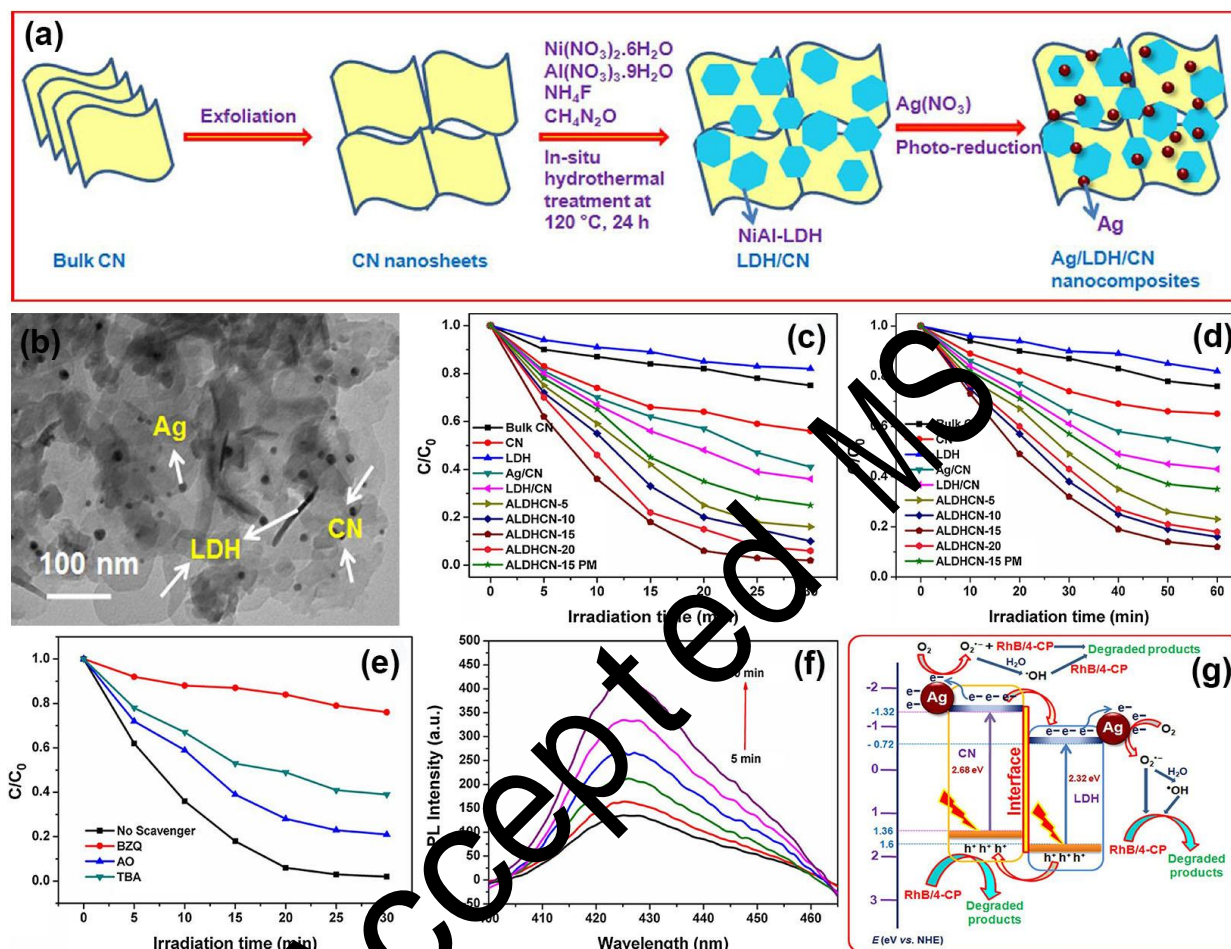


Fig. 10. (a) Schematic illustration of the synthesis of Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄/Ag face-to-face hybrid nanocomposites; (b) TEM images of the synthesized ALDHCN-15; (c) photocatalytic activities in the degradation of RhB over all the synthesized photocatalysts under visible light irradiation; (d) photocatalytic activities in the degradation of 4-CP over all the synthesized photocatalysts under visible light irradiation; (e) effects of different scavengers on the degradation of RhB with ALDHCN-15 under visible light irradiation; (f) OH trapping PL spectra of ALDHCN-15 in terephthalic acid solution under visible light irradiation; (g) schematic illustration of the charge separation and transfer in the Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄/Ag nanocomposite system under visible light irradiation. CN: g-C₃N₄, LDH: Ni-Al-LDH, ALDHCN-n: Ni-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄/Ag containing n wt% Ni-Al-LDH, ALDHCN-15 PM: physical mixture of 15 wt% Ni-Al-LDH and CN (followed by 1 wt% Ag deposition), BZQ: benzoquinone, AO: ammonium oxalate, TBA: tert-butanol. Reproduced with permission from ref. [111]. Copyright 2017 Elsevier.

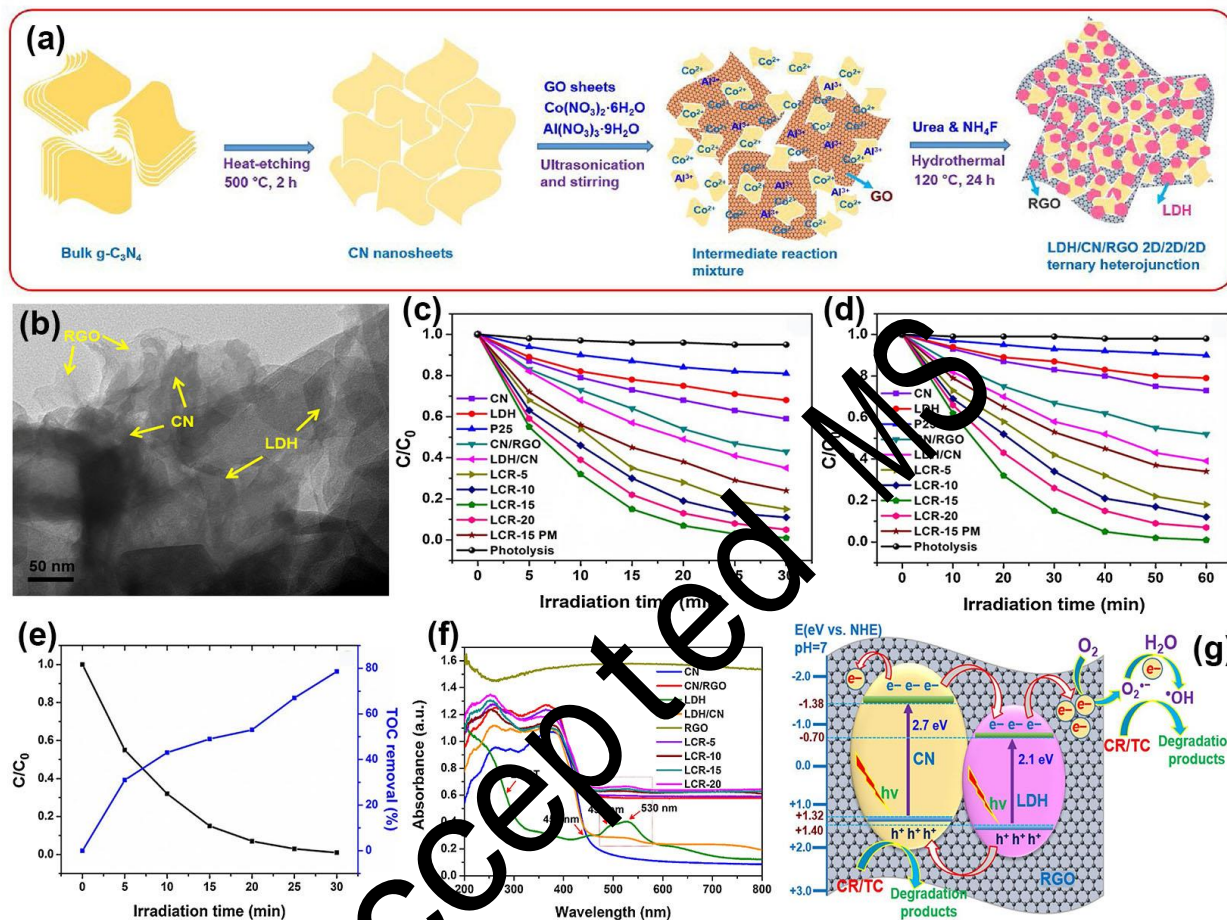


Fig. 11. (a) Schematic representation of the fabrication of Co-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄/RGO 2D/2D/2D ternary heterojunction; (b) TEM image of LCR-15 photocatalyst; (c) the photocatalytic activities over all the fabricated catalysts in the degradation of CR; (d) the photocatalytic activities over all the fabricated catalysts in the degradation of TC; (e) comparison of the photocatalytic performance and TOC removal over the LCR-15 photocatalyst in the degradation of CR; (f) UV-vis DRS patterns of all the fabricated samples; (g) schematic diagram illustrating the photocatalytic mechanism for the degradation of CR and TC over the Co-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄/RGO ternary heterojunction system. CN: g-C₃N₄, LDH: Co-Al-LDH, LCR-n: Co-Al-LDH/g-C₃N₄/RGO containing n wt% Co-Al-LDH, P25: commercial P25 reference catalyst, LCR-15 PM: physical mixture of 15 wt% Co-Al-LDH, 1 wt% RGO and g-C₃N₄. Reproduced with permission from ref. [108]. Copyright 2019 Elsevier.

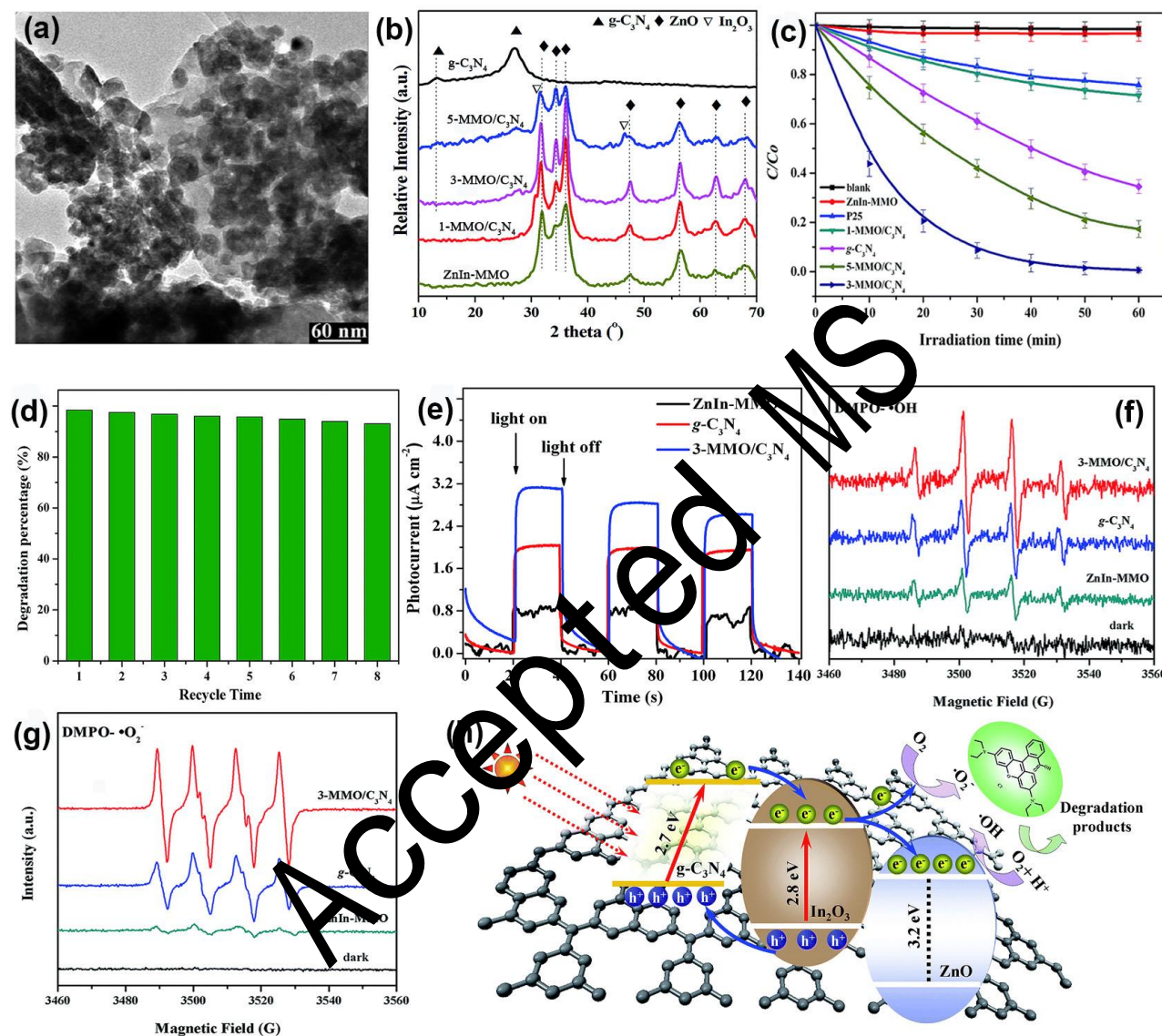


Fig. 12. (a) TEM image of 3-MMO/C₃N₄; (b) XRD patterns of all the prepared photocatalyst; (c) photocatalytic degradation of RhB over different photocatalysts under visible light irradiation; (d) cycling runs of 3-MMO/C₃N₄ in the photodegradation of RhB; (e) photocurrent profiles of ZnIn-MMO, g-C₃N₄ and 3-MMO/C₃N₄; (f) DMPO spin-trapping ESR spectra for DMPO-•OH in aqueous solution; (g) DMPO spin-trapping ESR spectra for DMPO-•O₂⁻ in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO); (h) proposed mechanism of charge separation and photocatalytic activity over ZnIn-MMO/g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst under visible light irradiation. Reproduced with permission from ref. [100]. Copyright 2015 The Royal Society of Chemistry.

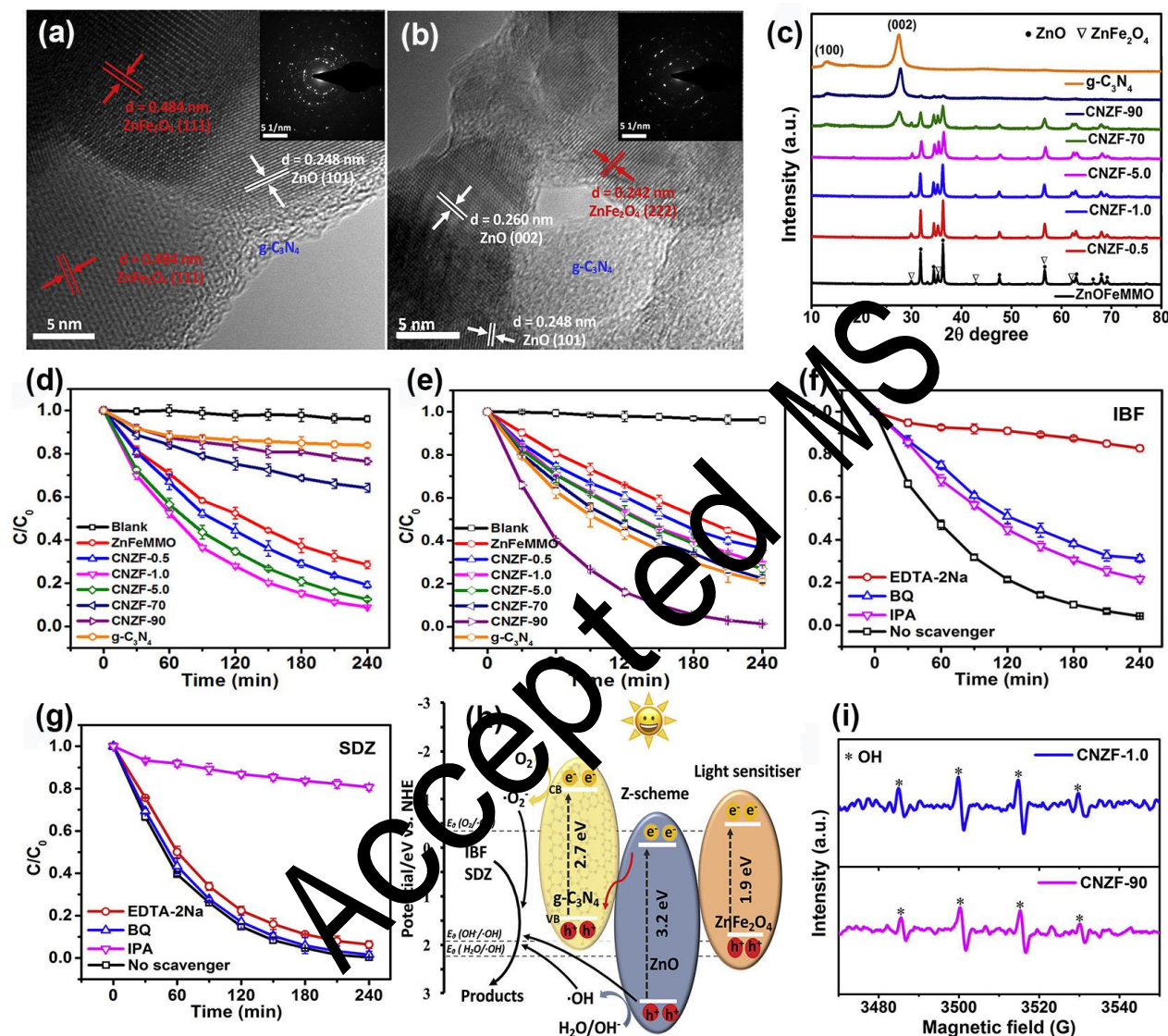


Fig. 13. (a-b) High-resolution TEM images and corresponding selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns of CNZF-1.0 and CNZF-90; (c) XRD patterns for all the prepared composites; (d) photodegradation of IBF over as-prepared photocatalysts under simulated solar irradiation; (e) photodegradation of SDZ over as-prepared photocatalysts under simulated solar irradiation; (f) IBF photodegradation over CNZF-1.0 in the presence of 1.0 mM various scavengers; (g) SDZ photodegradation over CNZF-90 in the presence of 1.0 mM various scavengers; (h) schematic illustration for the charge-transfer and photocatalytic mechanisms of calcined Zn-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites. (i) EPR spectra of DMPO- OH over CNZF-1.0 and CNZF-90 upon irradiation for 5 min. ZnFeMMO: calcined Zn-Fe-LDH, CNZF-n: calcined Zn-Fe-LDH/g-C₃N₄ composites with n wt% of g-C₃N₄. Reproduced with permission from ref. [97]. Copyright 2018 Elsevier.