



# Investigation of the Structural and Optical Properties of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/ZrO<sub>2</sub> Nanocomposites

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## Abstract

This study used ultrasonication method to prepare graphitic carbon nitride (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>)/zirconium oxide (ZrO<sub>2</sub>) nanocomposites with varying ratios. Various approaches were used to characterize the as-prepared nanocomposites. The structural properties were investigated by x-ray diffraction (XRD) and Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy. XRD patterns showed that pure g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> has a unique peak, while ZrO<sub>2</sub> has a monoclinic phase with no additional phases. The nanocomposites exhibited peaks from both materials, indicating the successful synthesis of the nanocomposites. The optical properties of the nanocomposites were studied using UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS) and photoluminescence spectroscopy. According to Tauc's plot, the nanocomposites g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>:ZrO<sub>2</sub>{ 1:0.5 } (CZ1) and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>:ZrO<sub>2</sub>{ 1:2 } (CZ2) showed bandgaps of 2.92 eV and 2.93 eV, respectively. The photoluminescence emission of the nanocomposites displayed a broad peak centered at ~450 nm. According to the CIE diagram, the nanocomposites exhibited strong emission in the blue region, with 80.4% purity. The average lifetime decay times of the nanocomposites were 0.18 ms and 0.01 ms. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that this material has the potential for use in the field of optoelectronics.

**Keywords** g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/ZrO<sub>2</sub> · nanocomposite · XRD · UV–Vis spectroscopy · photoluminescence spectroscopy

## Introduction

Over the last few years, two-dimensional (2D) materials have attracted researchers' interest because of their remarkable properties, such as mechanical qualities, high thermal conductivity, biocompatibility, and large surface area. These characteristics make 2D nanomaterials extremely useful for various applications, including sensors, photocatalysis, optoelectronics, energy storage devices, electronics, and water purification.<sup>1,2</sup> Numerous 2D nanomaterials have been successfully synthesized and extensively studied for their structural and optical properties, including graphene, MXenes, transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs), black phosphorous (BP), hexagonal boron nitride (h-BN), and graphitic carbon nitride (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>). They have all shown a sheet-like structure with lateral sizes that can reach micrometers or greater and a thickness of only one or a few atomic layers. Due to the atomic thickness, extreme anisotropy, and electron confinement in two dimensions, 2D nanomaterials have incredibly intriguing physical, chemical, electrical, and optical features that have sparked much interest in

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their study.<sup>2–4</sup> Because of the tunability of the large surface area and remarkable properties, 2D nanomaterials are critical components in developing next-generation technologies, including multidisciplinary research endeavors.

Among semiconducting 2D materials, graphitic carbon nitride (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>) has piqued the interest of researchers in recent decades because of its unique properties and wide range of applications in luminescence,<sup>5</sup> photocatalysis,<sup>6</sup> electrocatalysis,<sup>7</sup> and optoelectronics.<sup>8</sup> The g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> is a 2D semiconductor material of the carbon nitride family with a bandgap around 2.7–2.9 eV. g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> is thermally (up to 600–800°C) and chemically stable and has a wide surface area, which provides many sites for catalytic and electrochemical reactions. It is also an excellent electron donor and acceptor, with an appropriate bandgap for absorbing visible light, making it a promising photocatalyst for solar-powered applications.<sup>9</sup> Additionally, because g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> is composed of earth-abundant elements and does not contain harmful heavy metals, it is environmentally friendly. g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> comprises layers consisting of nitrogen (N) and carbon (C) atoms organized in a hexagonal lattice, just like graphite. Tri-s-triazine rings connected by carbon–nitrogen (C–N) linkages make up the fundamental repeating unit, creating a honeycomb-like structure. g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> has tunable photoluminescence.<sup>10</sup> It is suitable for environmental remediation and water purification because it generates reactive oxygen species (ROS) and breaks down organic contaminants in photocatalysis when exposed to visible light. It has also been shown to have a high level of catalytic activity when used as a co-catalyst in electrocatalysis for hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) and oxygen reduction reaction (ORR). In addition, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> is used in batteries and supercapacitors. It has also been manufactured for optoelectronic devices, including sensors and photovoltaics, because of its semiconducting qualities and light-absorbing capabilities.<sup>11–13</sup>

The properties of graphitic carbon nitride have been enhanced via doping. The concept behind nanocomposites is based on the layered nature of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and its potential for heteroatom housing in its pores, which causes an upshift of the conduction band without obstructing the absorption of visible light.<sup>14</sup> Combining two-dimensional g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> with transition metal oxides (TMOs) yields an array of morphological features that enhance both the specific surface area and dispersion of TMOs and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, which makes these combinations desirable for applications such as photocatalysis and high-specific-capacitance supercapacitors.<sup>15</sup> TMOs are abundant in nature and generally inexpensive, with various crystal forms including hematite, perovskite, and spinel. TMOs can exhibit a variety of shapes, ranging from zero-dimensional (0D) to 3D, which is advantageous for increasing the exposed active catalytic sites and specific surface area.<sup>16,17</sup> Therefore,

g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-TMO-based nanocomposites were selected for tuning the bandgap, improving photochemical stability, and reducing charge recombination. The addition of several TMOs, including titanium oxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>), zinc oxide (ZnO), tungsten oxide (WO<sub>3</sub>), iron oxide (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>), and tin oxide (SnO<sub>2</sub>), can enhance the photocatalytic effectiveness of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub><sup>18–24</sup> by reducing electron–hole recombination and increasing charge carrier separation. In context with this, nanocomposites of TMO-based g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> can be applied in a wide range of applications, with improved optical, magnetic, photocatalytic, and electrical properties, including hydrogen generation, solar cells, degradation of dyes (organic and inorganic), carbon dioxide reduction, nitrogen oxide oxidation, elimination of hazardous metals from water, especially Cr(VI), disinfection of antibodies, and sensing.<sup>9,14,25</sup> Liu et al. synthesized g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and zinc oxide nanocomposites, which showed higher degradation efficiency for methylene blue (MB) dye than pristine g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>.<sup>26</sup> He et al. fabricated a g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and bismuth oxide nanocomposite by in situ synthesis at room temperature, which outperformed pure bismuth oxide and graphitic carbon nitride in terms of photocatalytic activity for phenol degradation in visible light.<sup>27</sup> WO<sub>3</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> prepared via co-calcination by Liang et al. showed 99.18% degradation of rhodamine B dye.<sup>28</sup> SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> produced by Vo et al. exhibited better cycling performance than standalone SnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, which is explained by the presence of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>.<sup>29</sup>

Among all the TMOs, zirconium oxide (ZrO<sub>2</sub>) has drawn the attention of researchers in the last few years.<sup>30–32</sup> Zirconia is a white crystalline oxide and is among the ceramic materials that have been studied the most. ZrO<sub>2</sub> has unique properties including high mechanical resistance, high-temperature resistance, low thermal conductivity, and chemical resistivity. It is used in many application fields, including ceramics, biomedical implantation, refractory purposes, fuel cells, shielding with a thermal barrier, and dental implants.<sup>33,34</sup> ZrO<sub>2</sub> is a metallic oxide semiconductor substance with a large bandgap and an optical bandgap of greater than 4 eV that can be utilized to create a heterostructure with g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>.

A few research groups have reported work on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>:ZrO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>35–37</sup> Therefore, in this work, we synthesized g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites to improve their physical and chemical properties for optoelectronics applications. The g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>:ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites were prepared using a simple ultrasonication technique. The structural properties of these nanocomposites were investigated by x-ray diffraction. The surface functional groups of the produced samples were observed using FT-IR spectroscopy, and the optical properties of the composites were characterized by UV–Vis and photoluminescence spectroscopy.

## Experimental Section

### Experimental Reagents

Urea (MW 60.06 g/mol; Molychem, 99% pure), zirconyl nitrate (MW 231.23 g/mol; Otto Chemie, 99.5% pure), ethanol (99.9%), and distilled water were used in the experiments. All chemicals were of analytical grade and used exactly as received.

### Synthesis of Graphitic Carbon Nitride (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>)

Graphitic carbon nitride was synthesized by the direct heating method.<sup>38</sup> Urea was used as a precursor for graphitic carbon nitride. In the direct heating method, 10 g urea was placed in a silica crucible with lid to prevent degradation. Next, a muffle furnace was used to heat the silica crucible to 550°C with a 5°C ramp-up temperature. Subsequent cooling to room temperature yielded a lightweight powder with a pale yellow color. The powder was ground and used for further synthesis and characterization. This sample was designated as g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>.

### Synthesis of Zirconium Oxide

ZrO<sub>2</sub> was synthesized via the combustion method,<sup>31</sup> ZrO<sub>2</sub> using zirconyl nitrate (ZrO(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O) as oxidizer and urea (CO(NH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>2</sub>) as fuel. A total of 2.309 g zirconyl nitrate and 1 g urea were mixed in stoichiometric ratios in 50 mL DI

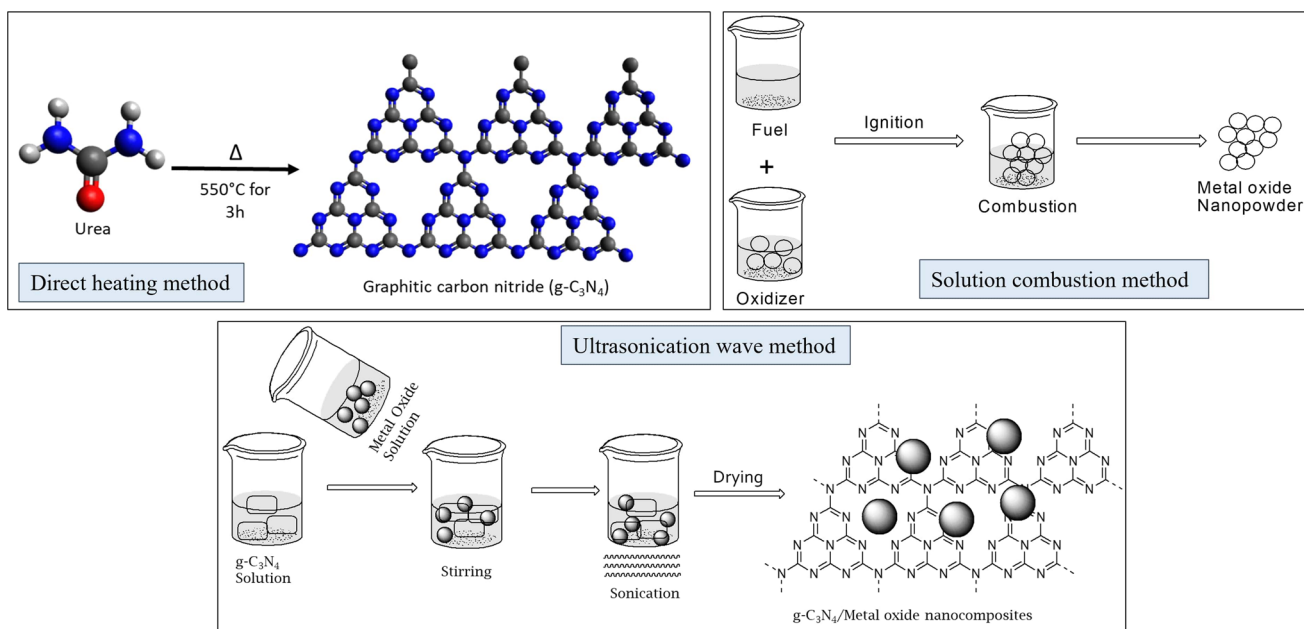
water. The mixed solution was then placed into a muffle furnace at 550°C with a ramp rate of 5°C/min for 1 h. This solution ignited in the muffle, and porous and fluffy powder was obtained. This powder was finely ground with mortar and pestle. The sample was then annealed in the furnace for 3 h at 900°C with a ramp rate of 8°C/min to produce nanoparticles for additional synthesis and characterization. This sample was designated as ZrO<sub>2</sub>.

### Synthesis of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/ZrO<sub>2</sub> Nanocomposite

Two solutions were prepared for nanocomposite by dissolving g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> in double-distilled water. Each solution was stirred for 30 min using a magnetic stirrer, and then they were mixed under continued stirring for 2 h at 500 rpm. Next, the solution was sonicated for 3 h at room temperature, after which it was centrifuged, washed with ethanol and DI water, then dried overnight at 80°C. The resulting powder was finely ground with a pestle and mortar. Figure 1 shows a schematic of the synthesis. Nanocomposites of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> were synthesized in two different ratios, 1:0.5 and 1:2. Nanocomposites g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>:ZrO<sub>2</sub> (1:0.5) and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>:ZrO<sub>2</sub> (1:2) were designated as CZ1 and CZ2, respectively.

### Instrumentation and Characterization

X-ray diffraction was carried out using a Bruker D8 Advance Eco Pro x-ray diffractometer, and the XRD pattern was then used to assess the crystal structure and determine the phase of the powder samples. To record XRD, a Cu Kα



**Fig. 1** Schematic diagram of ZrO<sub>2</sub>, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2 synthesis.

( $\lambda = 1.54056 \text{ \AA}$ ) source was employed. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) was performed using a PerkinElmer FT-IR spectrometer to capture the materials' FT-IR spectra. The photoluminescence emission of samples was measured using a Horiba FluoroMax Plus spectrometer and a xenon lamp as the source. A RIMS UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectrometer (DRS) was used to measure optical characteristics, using deuterium and halogen lamps as the sources.

## Results and Discussion

### XRD Analysis

Figure 2 indicates the X-ray diffraction patterns of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2. The peaks present in the XRD pattern at positions  $\sim 13.10^\circ$  and  $27.20^\circ$  correspond to the (100) and (002) planes, respectively, which clearly matches with JCPDS card number 87-1526 of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>.<sup>38</sup> The diffraction peak found at  $\sim 13.10^\circ$  is attributed to the (100) plane, which is related to the in-plane structural stacking of heptazine units with an interplanar distance of 0.686 nm. In comparison, the standard predominant peak of about  $27.20^\circ$  allocated to the (002) plane belongs to the inter-layer stacking of the conjugated aromatic structures with an interplanar distance of 0.332 nm.<sup>39,40</sup> The interplanar distance is calculated using Bragg's law (Eq. 1).<sup>41</sup>

$$n\lambda = 2d \cdot \sin \theta, \quad (1)$$

where  $n$  is a number of orders, the wavelength of the X-ray is indicated with  $\lambda$ , the incidence angle is represented with  $\theta$ , and  $d$  is the interplanar distance. The ZrO<sub>2</sub> diffraction peaks

correspond to JCPDS card number 86-1451 and it shows the monoclinic phase of ZrO<sub>2</sub> with P 1 21/c1 space group.<sup>42</sup> The crystalline size of monoclinic ZrO<sub>2</sub> is 40.8 nm. Average crystalline size is measured using the Debye-Scherrer formula (Eq. 2),<sup>43</sup>

$$D(\text{Crystalline size}) = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta}, \quad (2)$$

in which  $\beta$  indicates the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of a peak,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the X-ray,  $\theta$  represents the angle of incidence, and  $K$  denotes the dimensionless shape factor, which has a value of 0.9. The XRD patterns of CZ1 and CZ2 nanocomposites show the characteristic peaks of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> materials. No changes in characteristic peaks were observed for the nanocomposite sample. In nanocomposite, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> peaks at  $13.10^\circ$  and  $27.2^\circ$ , and ZrO<sub>2</sub> has a monoclinic phase. Zhang et al. prepared g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>:ZrO<sub>2</sub> which showed the same result as ours.<sup>44</sup> Individually, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> has lower peak intensity than ZrO<sub>2</sub>. As a result, the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> peak in the XRD pattern of the nanocomposite is smaller than the ZrO<sub>2</sub> peak. In CZ1 the intensity of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> characteristic peak is higher than CZ2 because CZ2 has a higher amount of ZrO<sub>2</sub> than CZ1. Because in nanocomposites, both g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> are in identical phases, they are not incorporated into each other, but instead create a heterostructure. When we compare the XRD intensity of pristine g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> to ZrO<sub>2</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub> has a higher XRD intensity. As the quantity of ZrO<sub>2</sub> in CZ2 nanocomposites is greater than that of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, the ZrO<sub>2</sub> peak is higher and the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> peak is lower.<sup>44</sup>

### FT-IR Analysis

The FT-IR spectra of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2 were examined for the presence of the functional groups, and their corresponding image is shown in Fig. 3. A strong peak in pure g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> at  $810 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  indicates the bending vibration of heptazine (tri-s-triazine) units. A broad peak at  $2900\text{--}3600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  is attributed to the stretching vibration of the amino groups (N-H) of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> tri-s-triazine rings, as well as the hydroxyl group (O-H) of the adsorbed H<sub>2</sub>O molecule. Aromatic heterocycle stretching vibrations of carbon and nitrogen (C-N and C=N) cause many intense bands in the  $1240\text{--}1640 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  range.<sup>45</sup> In pure ZrO<sub>2</sub>, the absorption peaks at  $508 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $589 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and  $753 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  correspond to the stretching vibration of Zr-O, whereas the wideband at  $3445 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  is attributed to the hydroxyl group (-OH).<sup>46</sup> CZ1 and CZ2 show the characteristic peaks of both g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> material. No changes in characteristic peaks were observed for the nanocomposite sample. Aromatic heterocycle stretching vibrations of single-double-bond carbon and nitrogen, uncondensed terminal amino groups N-H

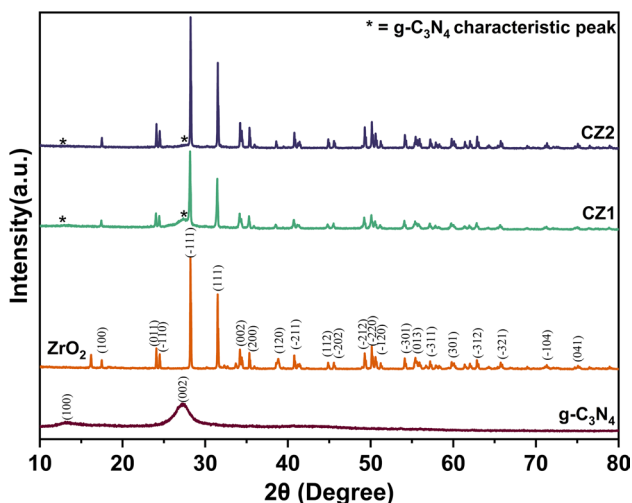


Fig. 2 X-ray diffraction patterns of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2.

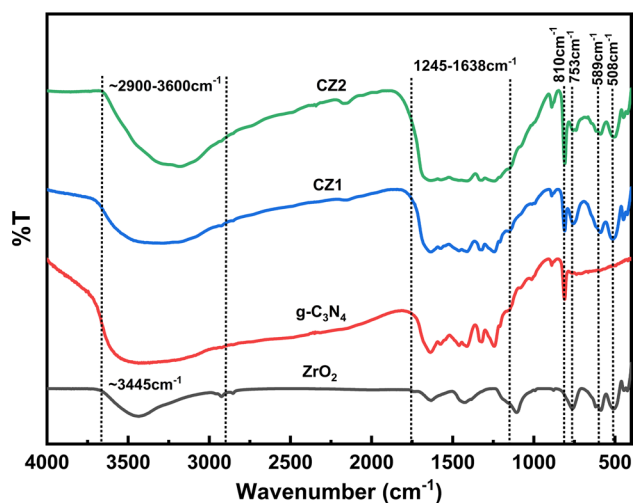


Fig. 3 FT-IR of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2.

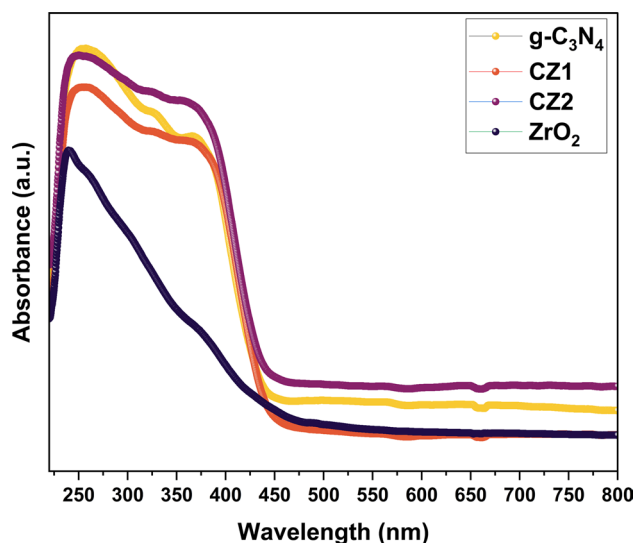


Fig. 4 Optical absorption spectrum of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2.

stretching vibration, bending vibration of heptazine rings, and stretching vibration of Zr–O remained undisturbed for the nanocomposite samples.<sup>47</sup> The results demonstrate that the CZ1 and CZ2 nanocomposites have a heterostructure, which agrees with the X-ray diffraction data.

### UV–Vis DRS Analysis

UV–Vis DRS analysis was conducted for all samples to analyze light absorption properties. Figure 4 indicates optical absorption for g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2. Bare ZrO<sub>2</sub> exhibits an absorption peak at 240 nm and an absorption edge near 400 nm. However, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2 have a broad absorption peak with an absorption edge at roughly

450 nm. This is due to  $\pi$ – $\pi^*$  electronic transition in the aromatic unit (1,3,5-triazine). A broad absorption band demonstrates significant charge transfer between g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>35</sup> When compared with pristine ZrO<sub>2</sub>, nanocomposites show a red shift in absorption edge. This indicates that bandgap is decreased for nanocomposites. For each sample, a bandgap energy is calculated using Tauc's plot. Figure 5 shows  $ah\nu^2$  versus photon energy graph, which gives a direct bandgap of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2. The Tauc plot (Eq. 3) is expressed as follows:<sup>48</sup>

$$ah\nu = A(h\nu - E_g)^m, \quad (3)$$

where  $E_g$  is the sample's bandgap energy,  $\nu$  is the photon frequency,  $h$  is the Planck constant,  $m$  is a constant that varies on the electronic transition, and  $\alpha$  is the absorption coefficient. The bandgaps of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2 are 2.95 eV, 3.4 eV, 2.92 and 2.93 eV, respectively. Because of the heterostructure between g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub>, nanocomposites have less bandgap than pure g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub>. Reduced bandgap induces absorption of light, which increases its photocatalytic activity. Equation 4 was used to calculate the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2 refractive indexes ( $n$ ).<sup>49</sup>

$$\frac{n^2 - 1}{n^2 + 2} = 1 - \sqrt{\frac{E_g}{20}}. \quad (4)$$

The calculated values of the refractive index for g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2 were 2.42, 2.42, 2.20, and 2.41, respectively. It is observed that the nanocomposites have a lower refractive index than pristine materials, which indicates that nanocomposites have a less dense structure than pristine materials.<sup>48</sup> Urbach energy can be used to determine the impact of all conceivable defects. It results from disorder brought on by defects, such as impurities and crystalline phase deviation, in the sample. The donor levels widen in the presence of impurities, merging with the conduction band to produce band tailing.<sup>50</sup> As per the Urbach rule, the absorption coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) of materials at the band edge is exponentially dependent on the energy of photons ( $h\nu$ ), which is shown in Eq. 5.

$$\alpha = \alpha_0 \exp\left(\frac{h\nu}{E_u}\right). \quad (5)$$

Figure 6 highlights the logarithm of absorption coefficient ( $\ln(\alpha)$ ) versus photon energy graph for g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2. The Urbach energy value indicates that the CZ1 and CZ2 nanocomposites have fewer lattice defects than ZrO<sub>2</sub>. Table I shows the values of the refractive index ( $n$ ), the Urbach energy ( $E_u$ ), and the bandgap. The band diagram of the heterostructure of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite is shown in Fig. 7. Equations 6 and 7 represent

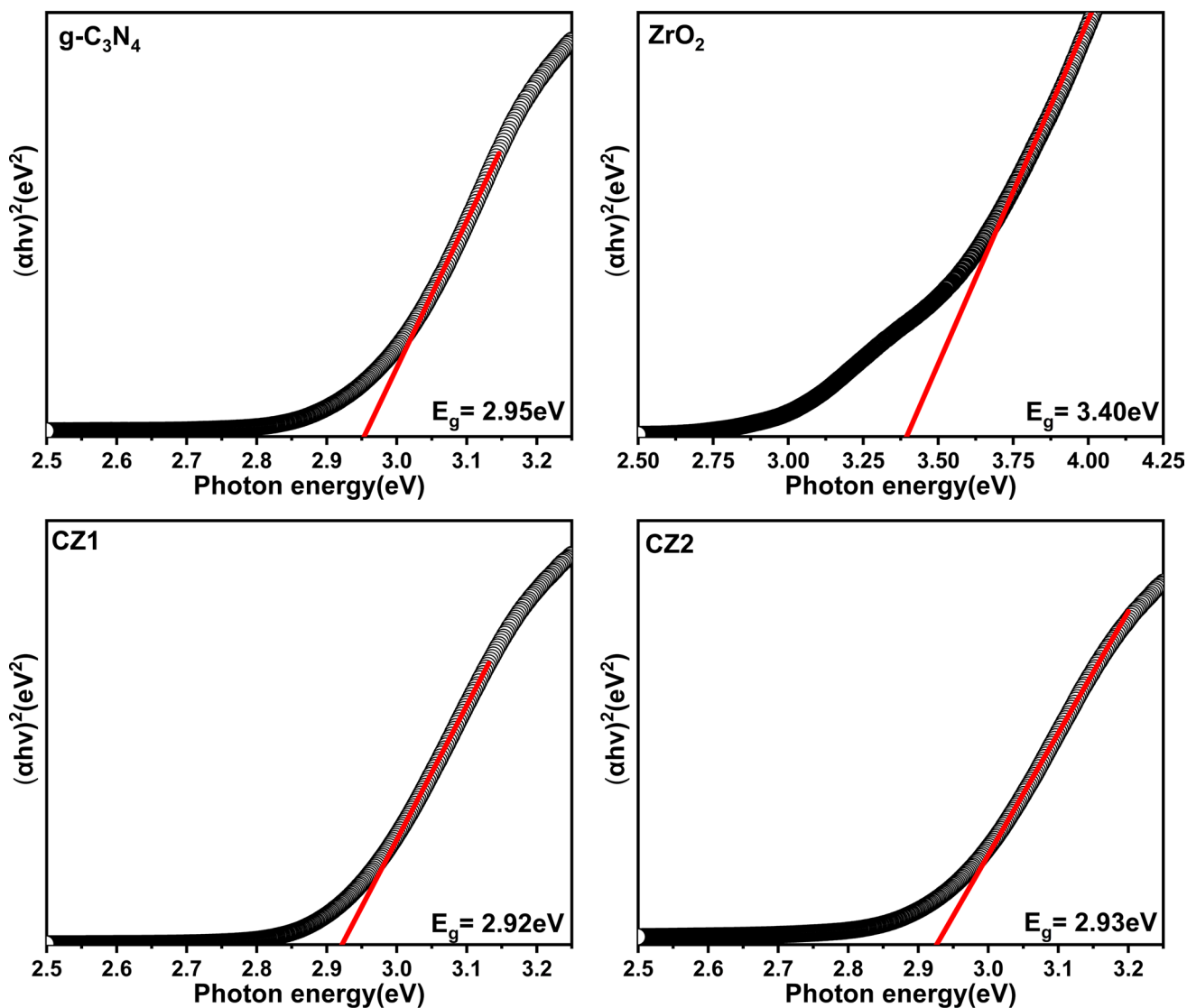


Fig. 5 Tauc plot of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2.

the relationship between the conduction band (CB) and valance band (VB) positions as determined by UV–Vis bandgap measurements.<sup>51</sup>

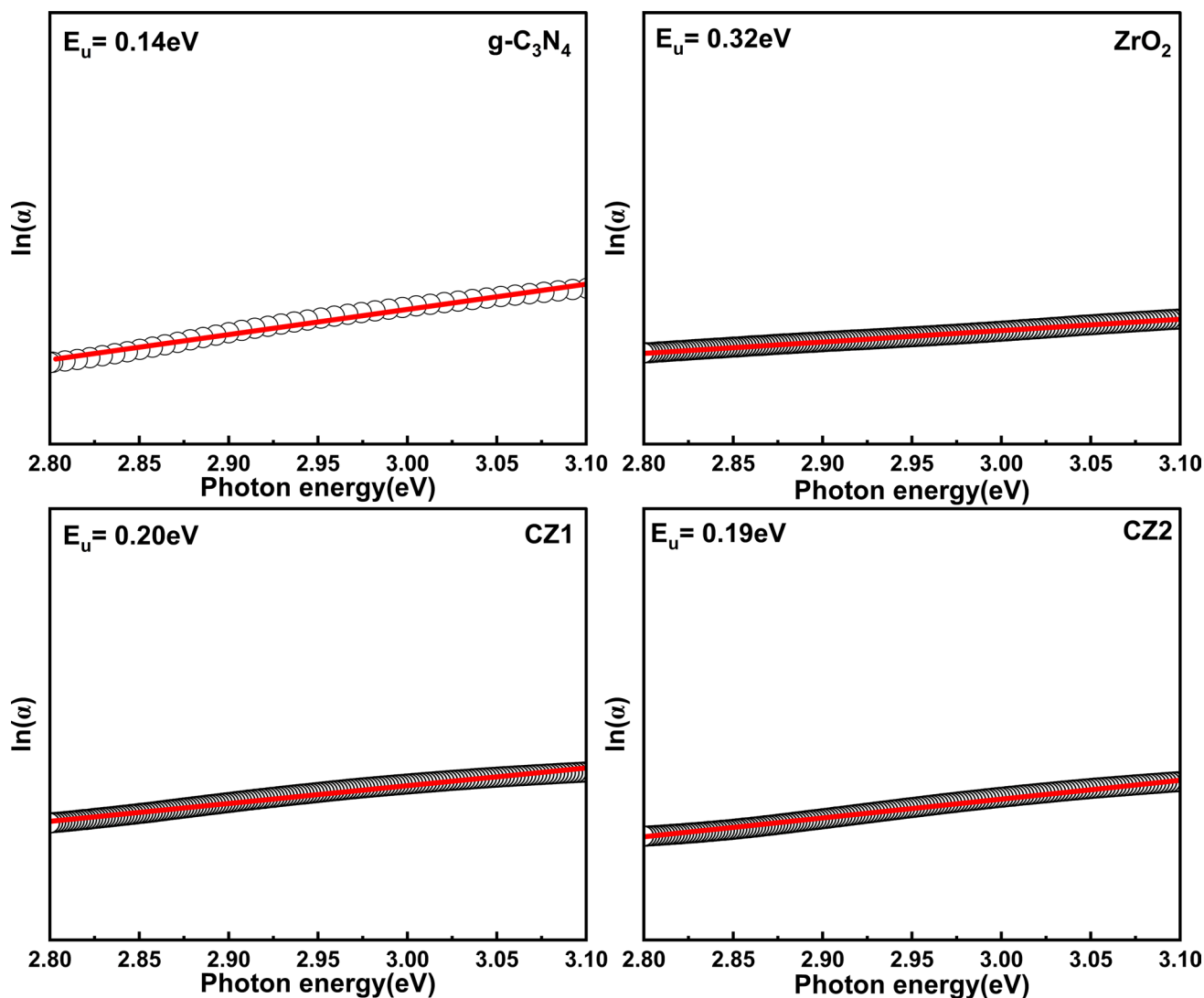
$$E_{\text{VB}} = \chi - E^c + (0.5 \times E_g), \quad (6)$$

$$E_{\text{CB}} = E_{\text{VB}} - E_g, \quad (7)$$

where  $E_{\text{VB}}$  represents the energy of the valence band, and  $E_{\text{CB}}$  represents the energy of the conduction band.  $\chi$  denotes the sample's electronegativity, ZrO<sub>2</sub> and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> have electronegativity values of 5.71 eV and 4.72 eV, respectively. On the hydrogen scale, the value of free electron energy  $E_c$  is 4.5 eV. The symbol for sample bandgap energy is  $E_g$ .

### Photoluminescence Spectroscopy

Figure 8 shows the photoluminescence (PL) spectrum of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2 with an excitation of 360 nm. The inset of Fig. 8 shows the PL spectrum of ZrO<sub>2</sub> with an excitation of 278 nm. The PL spectra of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> show a broad emission peak centered at ~440 nm; nanocomposites also show the same broad emission peak. The emission peak in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> is caused by the electron transition from  $\sigma^* \rightarrow \text{LP}$  to  $\pi^* \rightarrow \text{LP}$ . The transitions from  $\sigma^*$  to LP and  $\pi^*$  to LP exhibit blue and green emission, respectively. This is analogous to the results discussed by Bauri and Chaudhary.<sup>37</sup> ZrO<sub>2</sub> shows a broad emission peak centered at 470 nm. The emission



**Fig. 6** Graph of  $\ln(\alpha)$  versus photon energy of  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ ,  $\text{ZrO}_2$ , CZ1, and CZ2.

**Table 1** The values of bandgap energy ( $E_g$ ), Urbach energy ( $E_u$ ), and refractive index ( $n$ ) of  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ ,  $\text{ZrO}_2$ , and nanocomposites

Samples	Bandgap ( $E_g$ ) (eV)	Urbach energy ( $E_u$ ) (eV)	Refractive index ( $n$ )
$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	2.95	0.14	2.42
$\text{ZrO}_2$	3.40	0.32	2.42
CZ1	2.92	0.20	2.20
CZ2	2.93	0.19	2.41

peaks detected at 470 nm may result from electrons being pulled in by surface defects and oxygen vacancies, which are mid-bandgap trap states.<sup>52,53</sup> The CZ1 and CZ2 nanocomposites show almost the same emission peak with emission position as pure  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ , and the reason for the emission is also the same. The PL spectra of  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ , CZ1, and CZ2

indicate that the CZ1 and CZ2 nanocomposites have lower PL intensity than pristine  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ , which indicates the successful formation of a heterostructure between  $\text{ZrO}_2$  and  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ . Figure 7 depicts the band position of the  $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{ZrO}_2$  nanocomposites, suggesting that electron–hole recombination is decreased and charge separation is increased in the heterostructure. The intensity of PL emission decreases as the concentration of  $\text{ZrO}_2$  increases, demonstrating a quenching effect.<sup>54,55</sup>

The emission colors for all samples are specified using the 1931 CIE ( $x, y$ ) color space, which is the Commission Internationale d'Éclairage (CIE) chromaticity in two-dimensional color spaces. Color components including color purity, correlated color temperature (CCT), and dominant wavelength can be determined using the CIE system. Figure 9 indicates the color coordinates of graphitic carbon nitride, zirconium oxide, and CZ1, and CZ2 nanocomposites using OSRAM

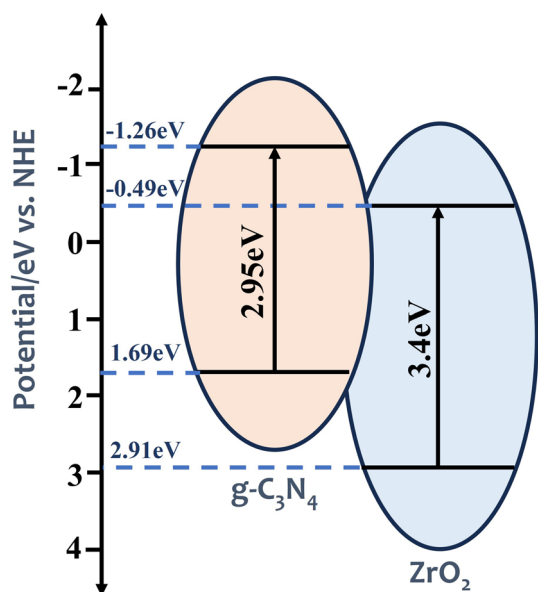


Fig. 7 Band diagram of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites.

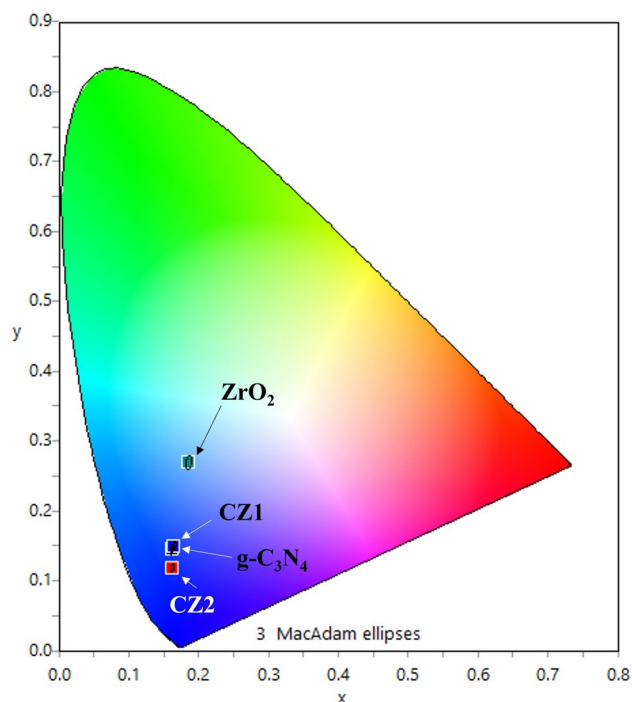


Fig. 9 Chromaticity diagram of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2.

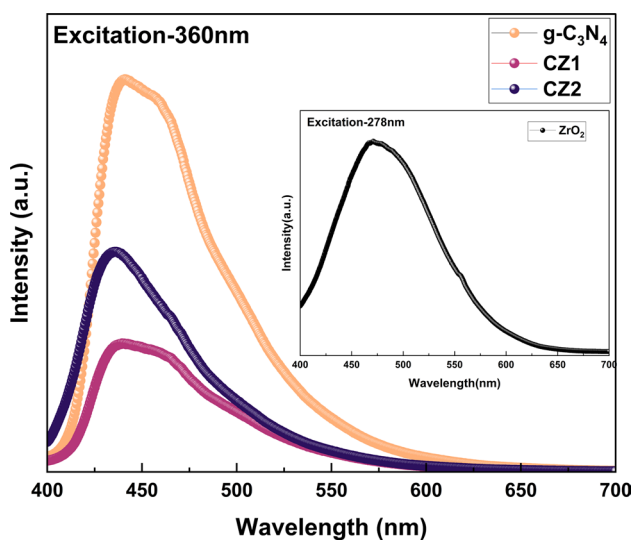


Fig. 8 Photoluminescence spectra of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2 with excitation of 360 nm. Inset: PL of ZrO<sub>2</sub> with an excitation of 278 nm.

color calculator software. It can be observed that ZrO<sub>2</sub> presents a blue-green mixed emission with coordinates (0.19, 0.27). Blue emission is seen in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2 at coordinates of (0.16, 0.15), (0.17, 0.15), and (0.16, 0.12), respectively. The blue emission in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and composites suggests that the transition from  $\sigma^*$  to LP is greater than that from  $\pi^*$  to LP. It also reveals a dominant wavelength and CCT of light for all samples, which is shown in Table II. The emission light in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2 shows 76.6%, 54.8%, 75%, and 80.4% purity, respectively. CZ2

nanocomposites have maximum purity of 80.4%. Bauri and Chaudhary conducted a similar investigation, in which the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>:ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite showed maximum purity of 53%.<sup>37</sup>

A luminescence decay experiment was carried out to understand better the role of emission from band-edge and trap states within the bandgap. Figure 10 shows a lifetime decay curve with the fitting of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2. The multi-exponential function Eq. 8 is used to fit these curves:<sup>56</sup>

$$I = \sum_{i=1,2,3,\dots} A_i \exp\left(\frac{-t}{\tau_i}\right), \quad (8)$$

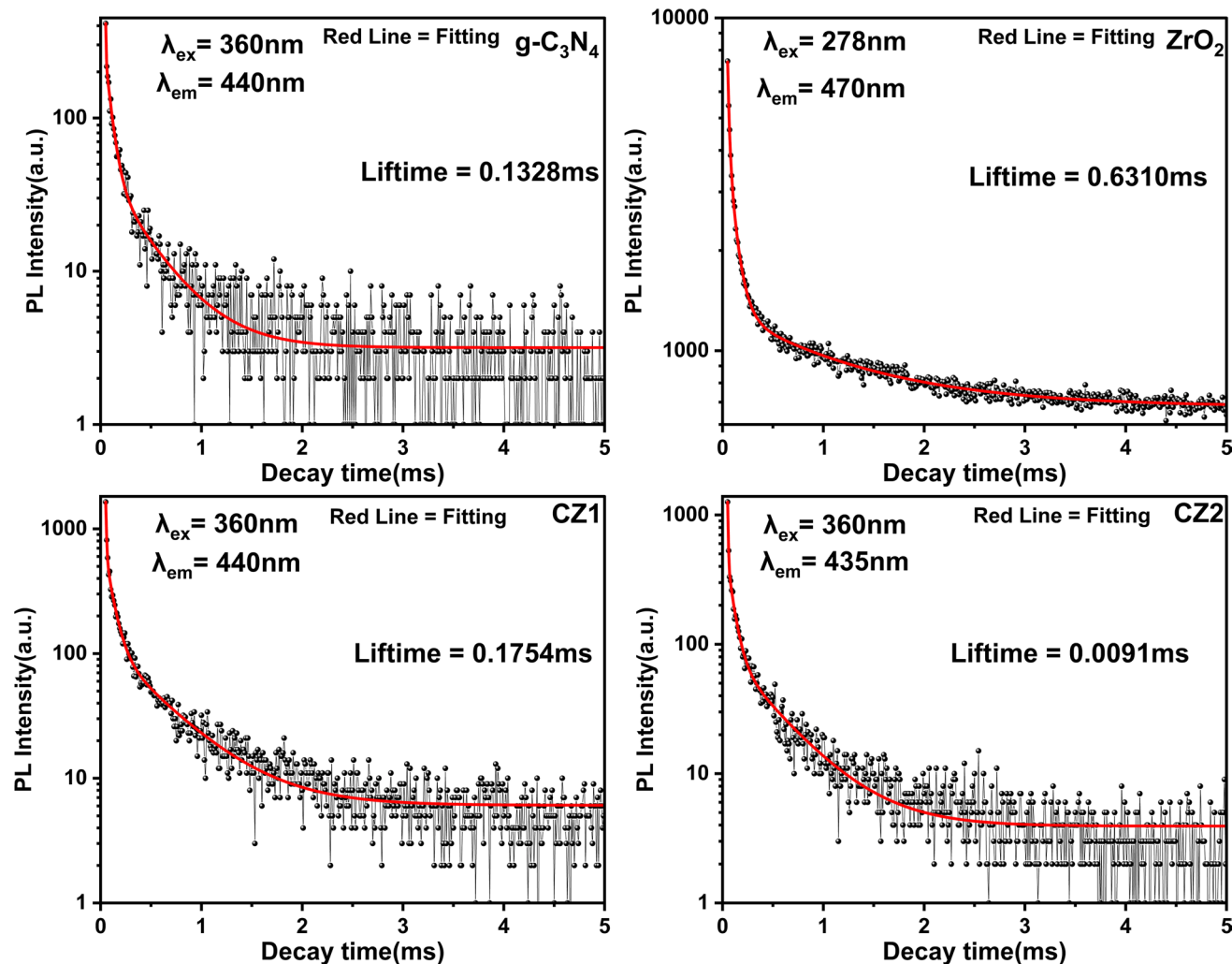
where  $I$  represent PL decay intensity  $\tau_i$  denotes the decay component,  $A_i$  represents the appropriate amplitude. The decay components most likely originate from the emission from exciton recombination. The long-lasting decay component might be attributed to radiative decay caused by surface-localized hole and electron recombination.<sup>57</sup> The tri-exponential function is used here in this work. The average decay times  $\tau_{avg}$  were computed using fitting parameters and Eq. 9.<sup>58</sup>

$$\tau_{avg} = \frac{\sum_{i=1,2,3,\dots} A_i \tau_i^2}{\sum_{i=1,2,3,\dots} A_i \tau_i}. \quad (9)$$



**Table II** Value of color coordinates ( $x$ ,  $y$ ), dominant wavelength ( $\lambda_d$ ), color purity, and CCT values of materials

Materials	Coordinate $x$	Coordinate $y$	Dominant wavelength ( $\lambda_d$ ) (nm)	Color purity (%)	Correlated color temperature (CCT) (K)
g-C <sub>3</sub> N <sub>4</sub>	0.1620	0.1448	475	76.6	7827
ZrO <sub>2</sub>	0.1860	0.2688	485.9	54.8	31107
CZ1	0.1652	0.1496	475.1	75.0	7676
CZ2	0.1624	0.1170	471.3	80.4	3940

**Fig. 10** Lifetime decay curves of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2.

The average lifetime decay times of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2 are 0.13 ms, 0.63 ms, 0.18 ms and 0.01 ms, respectively. ZrO<sub>2</sub> has a higher decay time because of the abundance of defects, such as deficiency of oxygen, the tau value is dependent upon the electrons absorbed by these defect states. These oxygen-deficient monoclinic ZrO<sub>2</sub> atoms act as shallow hole trappers and electron acceptors.

The trapping of carriers in oxygen vacancy prevents the straight recombination of holes and electrons.<sup>59</sup> Also, the CZ1 and CZ2 nanocomposites have a shorter decay time than pristine ZrO<sub>2</sub>, because the nanocomposites have decreased charge recombination, electron capture by defects or traps, and surface-localized electron-hole recombination.

## Conclusion

In summary, graphitic carbon nitride was successfully prepared using the direct heating method. ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles were prepared using the solution combustion method. Ultrasonication methods were used to synthesize nanocomposites of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub>. XRD and FT-IR, UV–Vis DRS, and PL spectroscopy were used for characterization. The XRD patterns and FT-IR spectra revealed the successful incorporation of ZrO<sub>2</sub> in g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and excluded the presence of any impurity peaks. Results showed that the absorption peaks of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2 are broad, with an absorption edge at around 450 nm. When compared to pure ZrO<sub>2</sub>, the CZ1 and CZ2 nanocomposites exhibit a red shift in the absorption edge. This suggests that the bandgap of the CZ1 and CZ2 nanocomposites is decreased. According to Tauc's plot, the bandgaps of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2 are 2.95 eV, 3.4 eV, 2.92 eV, and 2.93 eV, respectively. The Urbach energy of the CZ1 and CZ2 nanocomposites is lower than that of pristine ZrO<sub>2</sub>, indicating that the nanocomposites have fewer defects in the lattice than ZrO<sub>2</sub>. The photoluminescence emission spectra show that the nanocomposites have lower photoluminescence intensity than pristine g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. The heterostructure of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> decreases electron–hole recombination while increasing charge separation. The CIE diagram indicates that the CZ2 nanocomposites show strong blue emission, with maximum purity of 80.4%. For g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CZ1, and CZ2, the average lifetime decay times are 0.13 ms, 0.63 ms, 0.18 ms, and 0.01 ms, respectively. The results of this work lead us to conclude that this nanocomposite has great prospects for use in photocatalysis, as it has high charge separation and reduced electron–hole recombination.

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