

First-Principles Calculations of Exciton Radiative Lifetimes in Monolayer Graphitic Carbon Nitride Nanosheets: Implications for Photocatalysis

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First-Principles Calculations of Exciton Radiative Lifetimes in Monolayer Graphitic Carbon Nitride Nanosheets: Implications for Photocatalysis

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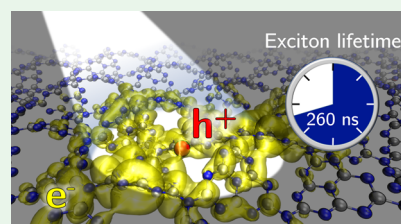


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ABSTRACT: In this work, we report on the exciton radiative lifetimes of graphitic carbon nitride monolayers in the triazine-based ($\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$) and heptazine-based ($\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$) forms, as obtained by means of ground-state plus excited-state *ab initio* calculations. By analyzing the exciton fine structure, we highlight the presence of dark states and show that the photogenerated electron–hole (e–h) pairs in $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ are remarkably long-lived, with an effective radiative lifetime of 260 ns. This fosters the employment of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ in photocatalysis and makes it attractive for the emerging field of exciton devices. Although very long intrinsic radiative lifetimes are an important prerequisite for several applications, pristine carbon nitride nanosheets show very low quantum photoconversion efficiency, mainly due to the lack of an efficient e–h separation mechanism. We then focus on a vertical heterostructure made of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ layers, which shows a type-II band alignment and looks promising for achieving net charge separation.



KEYWORDS: carbon nitride, excitons, 2D materials, radiative lifetimes, heterostructures

1. INTRODUCTION

After the seminal work of Wang et al.¹ in 2009, proposing polymeric graphitic carbon nitride as a new, eco-friendly, low cost, and thermally stable photocatalyst for hydrogen evolution, this layered material has become the subject of intense research efforts^{2–9} for possible employment in several applications^{10–12} as a “green” replacement of more expensive, polluting, metal-containing compounds.^{13–18} Among various allotropes of C_3N_4 with different densities,^{19–21} the graphitic form has been proved to be the most stable at standard conditions.²² It is composed of two-dimensional (2D) layers of carbon and nitrogen atoms covalently bonded, stacked by means of van der Waals (vdW) interactions as in graphite. These weak dispersion forces allow to easily exfoliate graphitic carbon nitride^{23,24} into few-layers nanosheets or even single-layer, graphene-like carbon nitride (gC_3N_4). gC_3N_4 single layers can be built from either triazine or heptazine (tri-*s*-triazine) molecules as basic units, forming, respectively, the so-called triazine- ($\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$) or heptazine-based ($\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$) graphene-like carbon nitride.

Most of the experimental works on pristine graphitic carbon nitride investigate the optoelectronic properties and address the carrier dynamics with the goal of understanding the origin of the low photoconversion efficiency.^{25–28} Typical lifetimes of the photogenerated electron–hole pairs, measured in nanosheets with thickness ranging from few to several nanometers, are of the order of few nanoseconds, with values that change depending on the sample preparation and thickness.^{29–34}

On the theoretical side, a large number of *ab initio* studies, at different levels of approximation, have been carried out to

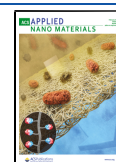
clarify the structural, electronic, and optical properties both of the bulk and the monolayer form.^{35–40} Thanks to these studies, it is now clear that the most stable atomic structure is buckled^{41–44} and that corrugation, by breaking the delocalized π -bond, significantly alters the electronic and excitonic optical properties from those calculated for the flat, unstable structures. However, different corrugated geometries have been proposed and a complete description of the fundamental properties of both $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$, encompassing optical spectra, exciton fine structure, and intrinsic radiative lifetimes is, to our knowledge, still lacking.

Our aim is therefore to provide a thorough study of the electronic, optical, and excitonic properties of both $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ in the buckled geometries without dynamical instabilities. This preliminary structural optimization, performed using density functional theory (DFT) simulations, enables us to reliably predict the quasi-particle (QP) electronic structures of both allotropes at the state-of-the-art GW^{45–47} level. Our study shows that the effect of corrugation on the electronic properties is sizeable both at the DFT and GW level of approximation. While this behavior has been already discussed in the literature, as we will point out in the

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following, our QP bandgaps present significant differences with previously published data. The optical properties, obtained by solving the Bethe–Salpeter equation (BSE),^{48,49} are characterized by pronounced excitonic effects associated to a rich structure of dark and bright strongly bound excitons, widely influenced by corrugation.

Thanks to a recently derived approach,^{50,51} we compute, for both materials, the intrinsic exciton radiative lifetimes and their effective average, showing that $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ is characterized by a significantly long effective radiative lifetime. By suppressing electron–hole recombination, long exciton lifetimes can increase the chances of exciton dissociation and enhance the photocatalytic activity.^{52–54} Moreover, excited states with long lifetimes can be particularly suitable for study and manipulation in external electromagnetic fields, as in the emerging domain of excitonic devices.^{55–59}

To overcome the small availability of photogenerated free carriers, due to the large binding energies, exciton dissociation must be improved. Several mechanisms to achieve this goal have been proposed, ranging from doping with metal and non-metal atoms,^{60,61} to order–disorder transitions,⁶² to the creation of heterojunctions.^{63–65} We show that a novel vdW heterostructure, in which a $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and a $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ layer are vertically stacked, results in an interface with a type-II band alignment, promising for obtaining net charge separation between the two layers.

In the quest for a deeper knowledge of this intriguing 2D material and for devising new applications in various fields, ranging from optoelectronics,^{66–69} to electrocatalysis,^{42,70,71} to photocatalysis,^{72–75} a detailed description and comparison of the electronic, optical, and excitonic properties is essential. Our results aim at providing such a resource, which can prove helpful in the understanding gC_3N_4 features and in the design of new technological applications.

The paper is organized as follows: in Section 2, we present the computational methods used to carry out our study; in Section 3, we discuss the results; and finally, in Section 4, we draw the conclusions.

2. METHODS

Structural optimizations are performed by means of DFT simulations carried out with the Quantum ESPRESSO package.^{76,77} At this level of approximation, the gradient corrected Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) functional⁷⁸ is employed to describe the exchange–correlation effects, and norm-conserving pseudopotentials⁷⁹ are used to model the electron–ion interactions. Wavefunctions are expanded in plane waves up to an energy cutoff of 80 Ry. To study various degrees of buckling, we employ different cells for both allotropes. We consider the standard unit cell, 1×1 , of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ ($\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$), comprising 7 (14) atoms (cf. Figure 1), supercells obtained by its repetition along the lattice plane, such as 2×2 and 4×4 supercells, and rotated $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ cells, as shown in Figure 1, containing 21 and 42 atoms for $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$, respectively. In the case of the standard 1×1 cells, the Brillouin zone is sampled using a $4 \times 4 \times 1$ Monkhorst–Pack mesh⁸⁰ for $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and a $2 \times 2 \times 1$ mesh for $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$. For the $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ cells, calculations are performed on a $2 \times 2 \times 1$ mesh for $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and at the Γ point for $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$. vdW interactions are treated within the semiempirical Grimme-D3 approach,⁸¹ and a vacuum region at least 15 Å thick along the direction orthogonal to the atomic layer is used to ensure the decoupling of the periodic replicas.

Dynamical stability of the obtained structures is assessed through the calculation of their phonon density of states (phDOS).⁸² The presence of modes with imaginary frequencies is a sign that the considered structure, though an energy stationary point, tends to collapse to more stable geometries. phDOS are obtained with the

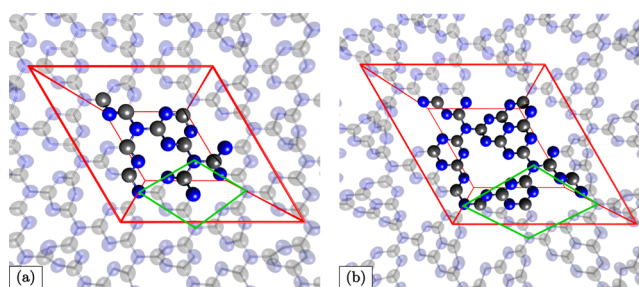


Figure 1. (a, b) Perspective views of the optimized geometries of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$, respectively. The $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ cells are marked with solid red lines, while the standard 1×1 cells with thinner, green lines. Carbon and nitrogen atoms are represented by gray and blue spheres, respectively.

PHONOPY code,⁸³ which employs a supercell, frozen-phonon approach. The dynamically stable, equilibrium geometries are then used for further calculations of their electronic and optical properties.

It is well known that DFT fails at properly describing the electronic structure and bandgap of semiconductors and insulators. To obtain precise results on the band structure and electronic gap, many-body perturbation theory techniques must be used. In this work, many-body corrections are calculated within the non-self-consistent perturbative GW (G_0W_0) approximation, as implemented in the YAMBO code.^{84,85} The vacuum thickness is increased to 20 Å, and a box cutoff along the direction orthogonal to the lattice plane is employed. Bruneval–Gonze terminators⁸⁶ are used in the calculation of both the susceptibility and the correlation self-energy, and the plasmon-pole approximation is adopted. Convergence with respect to the free parameters of the theory is assumed when the value of the QP bandgap at the Γ point varies less than 50 meV. Following this criterion, an $8 \times 8 \times 1$ ($6 \times 6 \times 1$) k -point mesh is used for $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ ($\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$).

We followed a “ladder” convergence method as laid out in ref 87, obtaining converged results with 400 (800) bands for $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ ($\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$) and a dielectric matrix energy cutoff of 20 Ry for both allotropes. More details on the convergence procedure are available in the Supporting Information. Reliable optical properties can then be obtained by solving the BSE using the obtained QP corrections and adopting the Tamm–Dancoff approximation.^{88,89} Converged spectra are computed within the static exchange approximation on denser $18 \times 18 \times 1$ and $9 \times 9 \times 1$ grids, using 150 and 300 bands for $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$, respectively, and a 2 Ry cutoff on the dielectric matrix for both materials. Once the BSE is solved, we compute the radiative lifetime, τ_s , of each exciton state S at $\mathbf{Q} = 0$ using Fermi’s golden rule.^{50,51,90} For Wannier excitons, the exciton dispersion in \mathbf{Q} could be taken into account and the radiative lifetime renormalized by a thermal average on \mathbf{Q} , assuming a parabolic dispersion. However, as shown in the following section, in our cases the bands involved in the relevant exciton states are almost flat in the neighborhood of the k points where the most significant transitions take place. This, in turn, causes a negligible exciton dispersion, which does not justify a thermal average over finite \mathbf{Q} inside the light cone. Therefore, in what follows we shall employ the exciton radiative lifetimes calculated at $\mathbf{Q} = 0$ and obtain the effective radiative lifetime, $\langle \tau \rangle_{\text{eff}}$, at temperature T , by assuming thermalization and carrying out a Boltzmann average of the τ_s .⁹¹

Finally, the unit cell of the vdW heterostructure made of a $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and a $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ layer is obtained from the respective optimized $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ cells by means of the CellMatch code.⁹²

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We begin our study by comparing the stability of different gC_3N_4 structures built from the standard 1×1 cell and the $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ cell. The flat 1×1 cells are included in our study as references. When addressing buckling, the 1×1 cells show

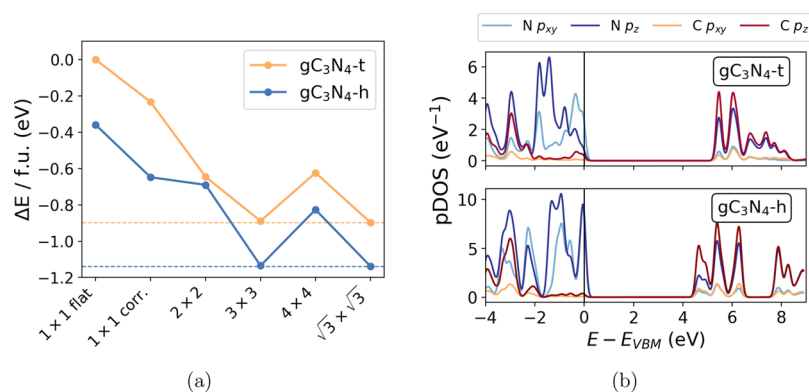


Figure 2. (a) Energy per formula unit (f.u.) of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ in different simulation cells, referenced to flat $1 \times 1 \text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$. (b) Projected density of states of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ (top panel) and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ (bottom panel).

some level of corrugation; however, due to the periodic boundary conditions, they impose strong constraints on the atom positions. By considering larger supercells, such as 2×2 , etc., artificial constraints on the geometry are gradually lifted, and the atomic layers acquire different degrees of corrugation. The buckling is due to the strong electrostatic repulsion between the lone pairs of the pyridinic-like nitrogen atoms that surround the void triangular regions in the atomic layer. Lifting geometrical constraints allows for a certain degree of relaxation so that the atoms can rearrange in such a way that opposite lone pairs do not directly face each other. Nevertheless, due to the periodic boundary conditions imposed by the computational scheme, geometrical artefacts can be fully avoided either in the limit of very large supercells or by identifying a reasonably small supercell that proves to be an energetic minimum. Pursuing the second strategy, in Figure 2a, we report the relative energy per formula unit (f.u.) of both $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$, studied in different simulation cells, with respect to an f.u. of flat $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$. The cell parameters and the relative energies per f.u. are reported in the Supporting information. It is evident that, by enlarging the standard unit cell, an energy minimum is reached with the 3×3 supercell. Further expanding the supercell to 4×4 introduces other artificial constraints on the buckling periodicity that result in a higher energy. The 3×3 supercells hence appear to provide a fully relaxed geometry; however, it is possible to notice that the smaller, rotated, $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ cells reported in Figure 1 show the same energy per f.u. and buckling pattern. The pDOS computed for $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ in the flat 1×1 and $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ cells (c.f. Supporting information, Figure S3) demonstrate that, while the flat geometry is dynamically unstable, the $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ structures do not show soft phonon modes. We also note that, for all considered simulation cells, the heptazine-based allotrope presents a lower energy per formula unit than the corresponding $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ structure, though the stabilization of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ with respect to $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$, both in $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ geometry, is less than 40 meV/atom. We shall then adopt as equilibrium geometries the $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ structures and compute the electronic and optical properties for both allotropes.

In Figure 3, we report the electronic band structure of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ (a) and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ (b) computed in their $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ cell, at the DFT (@DFT), and at the G_0W_0 (@ G_0W_0) levels of approximation.

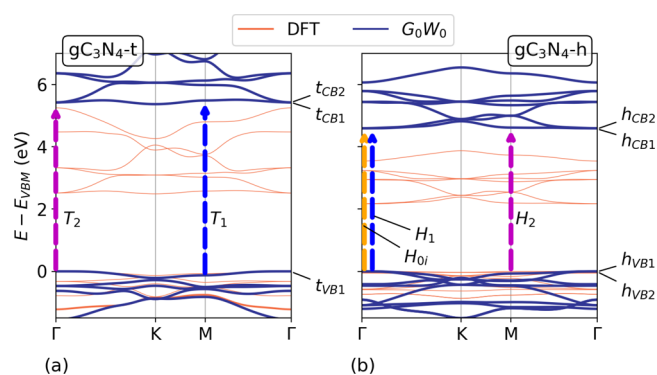


Figure 3. Band structures of $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ (a) and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ (b), computed at the DFT (thin red lines) and at the G_0W_0 (blue lines) levels of approximation. The dashed vertical arrows mark the electronic transitions contributing to some exciton states obtained by solving the BSE. The arrows in panels (a) and (b) correspond to the crosses in the upper panels of Figure 4a and Figure 4b, respectively.

$\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ presents an indirect electronic gap between the valence band maximum, located at the Γ point, and the conduction band minimum at the K point. The indirect gap is computed to be 2.48 eV @DFT and is then widened to 5.37 eV @ G_0W_0 . The direct gap at the Γ point is only slightly larger, measuring 2.52 eV @DFT and 5.42 eV @ G_0W_0 . It is possible to notice that the effect of corrugation and stabilization of the structure leads to important changes to the electronic properties. In particular, the stress minimization of the $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ cell results in a slightly indirect gap, as opposed to previous results in the literature.^{38,39} It is also worth pointing out that the direct gap obtained from the optimized, buckled structure is more than 1 eV larger than the result for flat geometry,³⁸ both @DFT and @ G_0W_0 .

$\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ displays a direct electronic gap at the Γ point, 2.17 eV wide @DFT and 4.60 eV @ G_0W_0 . We note that the QP bandgap of the flat structure was, instead, computed to be indirect, 4.15 eV wide, while the direct bandgap was 2.09 eV @DFT and 5.22 eV @ G_0W_0 .³⁸

From Figure 3a,b, it is evident that the electronic structures of both $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$, in the $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ buckled geometry, feature bands that show little dispersion along the Brillouin zone path. This reflects the higher spatial localization of the electronic states imposed by corrugation and, in particular, the breaking of the delocalized π bond that

characterizes the lower conduction band in the flat geometry. When corrugation is considered, the p_z orbitals of C and N, which contribute to the lower conduction band as seen in Figure 2b, cannot create a complete, delocalized π system across the structure but are forced to form much more localized and less stabilized states. The impact of buckling on the electronic band structure can then be regarded as twofold: on the one hand, the destabilization of the states contributed by carbon and nitrogen p_z orbitals, i.e., the lower conduction bands of both $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$, causes the opening of the bandgap already at the DFT level. On the other hand, a higher electronic localization increases the screening and results in a G_0W_0 gap opening which tends to be smaller than what observed in the flat case.

The QP energies computed @ G_0W_0 are then employed in the calculation of the optical absorption of both allotropes. In the upper panels of Figure 4a and Figure 4b, we report the

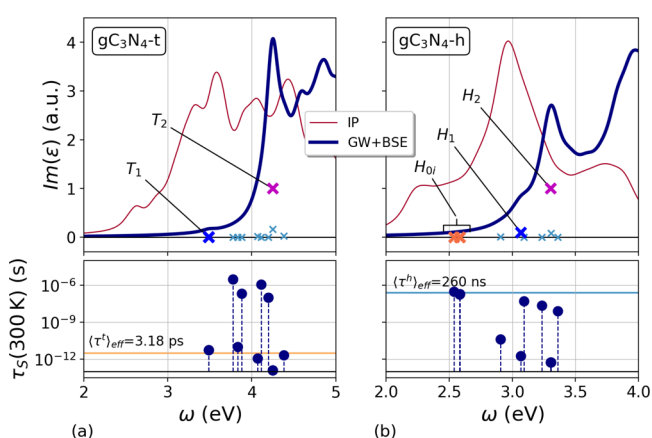


Figure 4. (a, b) Upper panels: imaginary part of the macroscopic dielectric function computed for $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$, respectively, at the independent particle and GW+BSE levels. The crosses mark the excitonic states obtained from the BSE. (a, b) Lower panels: exciton radiative lifetimes of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$, respectively, at $T = 300$ K. The horizontal lines mark the effective radiative lifetimes $\langle \tau^t \rangle_{\text{eff}}$.

imaginary part of the macroscopic dielectric function of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ and $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$, respectively, computed with different approaches. The thin red lines show the spectra obtained with the independent-particle (IP) random phase approximation based on the PBE energy levels. The thick blue lines represent the spectra obtained by solving the BSE built by using the QP energies. It is evident that the IP approach, using PBE energetics, largely redshifts the spectra. On the contrary, the solution of the BSE allows one to obtain reliable absorption spectra by taking into account excitonic effects.

In the upper panel of Figure 4a, it is possible to notice that the optical absorption of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ shows a pronounced peak at 4.25 eV, related to the T_2 bright exciton. The optical gap, however, is given by the bright T_1 exciton, which also corresponds to the lowest-energy solution of the BSE and is located at 3.49 eV. By analyzing the exciton wavefunctions, it is possible to identify which electronic transitions give the largest contributions. In particular, as marked by the arrows in Figure 3a, T_2 receives significant contributions from transitions around the Γ point between the top valence band (tVB) and the degenerate bottom conduction band (bCB), while T_1 is mostly given by transitions around the M point between the tVB and the non-degenerate bCB. Although the electronic gaps

at Γ and at M differ by less than 0.2 eV, the binding energies of T_1 and T_2 are $E_{T_1}^b = 1.94$ eV and $E_{T_2}^b = 1.18$ eV. Indeed, as shown in Figure 3a, at the Γ point, the bCB is made of two degenerate bands, $t_{\text{CB}1}$ and $t_{\text{CB}2}$, one of which, $t_{\text{CB}2}$, shows a larger dispersion along the $\Gamma\bar{K}$ direction, while, at M , the bCB is only composed of the almost flat $t_{\text{CB}1}$ band. Therefore, around Γ the electronic transitions involve less localized states, which, in turn, yield a smaller screening than more localized states as $t_{\text{CB}1}$ around M . A smaller screening implies a reduced direct electron–hole interaction and thus a smaller exciton binding energy, so that $E_{T_1}^b > E_{T_2}^b$. In the lower panel of Figure 4a, we report the exciton radiative lifetimes of the exciton states between T_1 and T_2 . Here, we can notice the presence of several dark excitons, with very small dipole strength, with $\tau_s \approx 1$ μs , while $\tau_{T_2} = 0.1$ ps and $\tau_{T_1} = 3.1$ ps. The thermal average favors the lowest energy states so that the effective radiative lifetime of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ is dictated by the lifetime of T_1 and, at $T = 300$ K, results in $\langle \tau^t \rangle_{\text{eff}} = 3.18$ ps.

The absorption spectrum and excitonic properties of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$, the upper panel of Figure 4b, look richer. In the lowest part of the spectrum, we notice the presence of a closely spaced triplet of excitons H_{0i} with $i = a, b, c$. These are all dark, and the lowest-energy exciton, H_{0a} , is located at 2.57 eV. As shown in Figure 3b, the tVB of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ around the Γ point is composed of two degenerate bands, $h_{\text{VB}1}$ and $h_{\text{VB}2}$, and, likewise, the bCB is given by the degenerate $h_{\text{CB}1}$ and $h_{\text{CB}2}$ bands. The dark excitons H_{0i} are mainly composed of transitions around the Γ point involving $h_{\text{VB}1}$ and $h_{\text{CB}1}$, which are dipole-forbidden. The first bright exciton, responsible for a noticeable bump in the spectrum, is H_1 at 3.08 eV, mainly due to transitions between $h_{\text{VB}1}$ and $h_{\text{CB}2}$ around Γ , while at 3.30 eV, we find H_2 , which forms the first strong absorption peak and receives the largest contributions from transitions between $h_{\text{VB}1}$ and $h_{\text{CB}1}$ around the M point.

Some comments on this complex exciton pattern are in order. Excitons H_{0i} and H_1 receive contributions from transitions between bands that are degenerate in energy; nonetheless, their binding energies are largely different, e.g., $E_{H_{0a}}^b = 2.03$ eV and $E_{H_1}^b = 1.52$ eV. This discrepancy can again be traced back to differences in the direct electron–hole interaction in the two cases. As shown Figure 2b, the tVB of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ receives significant contributions from N p_z orbitals and so does the $h_{\text{VB}1}$ state at the Γ point ($h_{\text{VB}1} @ \Gamma$). bCB states $h_{\text{CB}1} @ \Gamma$ and $h_{\text{CB}2} @ \Gamma$ both result from C and N p_z orbitals, but their spatial localizations differ from each other (cf. Supporting Information). For this reason, the overlap between $h_{\text{VB}1} @ \Gamma$ and $h_{\text{CB}1} @ \Gamma$ is large and screening plays a significant role, giving the particularly large exciton binding energy of H_{0i} , while the overlap between $h_{\text{VB}1} @ \Gamma$ and $h_{\text{CB}2} @ \Gamma$ is small so that $E_{H_{0a}}^b > E_{H_1}^b$. Similar considerations can be drawn for H_2 (cf. Supporting Information) given that the electronic bandgap at M differs from the gap at Γ only by some meV, while $E_{H_{0i}}^b > E_{H_3}^b = 1.51$ eV.

It is important to notice that, as evident from Figure 4b, the optical absorption edge, around H_1 , falls in the blue-violet part of the visible spectrum, as opposed to the $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-t}$ case, cf. Figure 4a, in which the absorption onset, marked by T_1 , is already in the near ultraviolet. The absorption edge value of $\text{gC}_3\text{N}_4\text{-h}$ obtained in this work, ~ 3 eV, is in line with the experimental optical gap measurement of ~ 2.7 eV,^{93,94} provided one considers that the absorption measurements

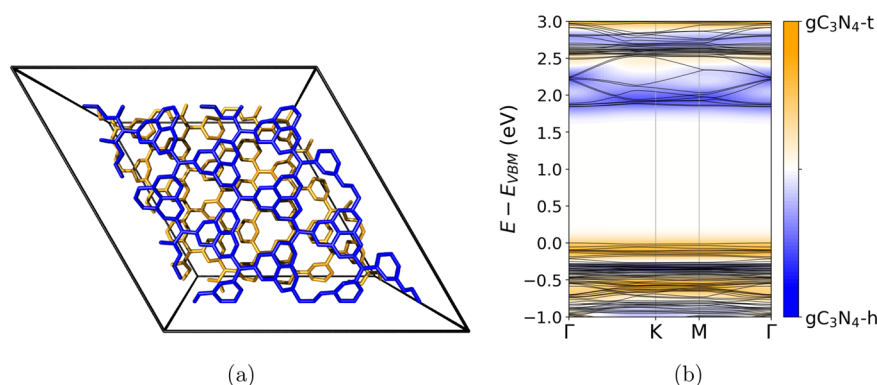


Figure 5. (a) Perspective view of the gC₃N₄-t/gC₃N₄-h vdW heterostructure. The gC₃N₄-t and gC₃N₄-h layers are represented by orange and blue segments, respectively. The periodic cell is marked by the black lines. (b) Heterostructure electronic bands and *k*-resolved DOS. Bands are colored according to the layer whose atomic orbitals contribute the most. The blue color marks contributions from gC₃N₄-h atoms only, white equal contributions from both layers, while orange signals contributions from gC₃N₄-t atoms only.

are carried out on layered systems. Indeed, a larger optical gap is expected in single-layer 2D samples, as in our study, in comparison to bulk or few-layer materials such those experimentally explored.³⁶

In the lower panel of Figure 4b, we report the radiative lifetimes of the exciton states up to around H_2 . As in the case of gC₃N₄-t, we can notice several dark states; however, the crucial property of gC₃N₄-h is the presence of the three dark excitons H_{0i} as lowest-energy states. Their lifetimes are $\tau_{H_{0i}} \simeq 200$ ns, while $\tau_{H_2} = 0.5$ ps. The thermal average is dominated by the lifetimes of the lowest-energy states; therefore, at $T = 300$ K, we obtain $\langle \tau^h \rangle = 260$ ns. Since the bottom of the gC₃N₄-h exciton spectrum is composed of dark states, when thermalization is assumed, these long-lived levels become highly populated and the system remains in an excited state for a rather long period of time. Heptazine-based graphitic carbon nitride has indeed shown remarkably long exciton lifetimes in various experiments, mainly involving the nanosheet form. In ref 31, by means of time-resolved measurements of decay spectra, Dong et al. obtained an average lifetime of the photogenerated electrons and holes of around 37 ns in nanosheets (16 nm-thick). Similar results were collected by Choudhury et al., which, in ref 33, measured an average lifetime of about 20 ns in graphitic C₃N₄ nanosheets composed of more than 10 atomic layers. Niu et al. pointed out in ref 29 that the average exciton lifetime in graphitic C₃N₄ decreases when increasing the thickness of the sample due to quantum confinement effects, which become stronger when dimensionality is reduced. Therefore, by considering the differences in thickness and defectivity between our graphene-like monatomic layer and the experimentally studied few-layer nanosheets, we argue that our results can provide a reliable theoretical prediction on the order of magnitude of the effective exciton radiative lifetime in gC₃N₄-h.

Finally, aiming at suggesting possible strategies to favor exciton dissociation, we focus on a vertical vdW heterostructure made of gC₃N₄-t and gC₃N₄-h layers. The heterostructure relaxed geometry is reported in Figure 5a, where the gC₃N₄-t and gC₃N₄-h layers are represented by the orange and blue nets, respectively. The strain along the lattice vectors is around 1.5% with respect to the equilibrium lattice parameters of the single layers and the cohesion energy is -24 meV/Å², with respect to the separate layers. The intriguing features of the heterostructure come to light with the analysis

of its electronic band structure. In Figure 5b, we show the band structure computed @DFT. Though affected by the notorious limitations, this approach is more than sufficient for the purpose of gaining a qualitative insight on the heterostructure properties. To the band plot, we superimpose the *k*-resolved DOS projected on the orbitals of the atoms composing the two layers. This way, the bands along the *k* path are colored according to the difference between the DOS contributions from the two layers, allowing us to identify whether the electronic states at various *k* points are localized on the gC₃N₄-t layer, or on the gC₃N₄-h layer, or on both. The heterostructure bandgap is 1.84 eV @DFT, smaller than both gC₃N₄-t and gC₃N₄-h single layers, showing the effect of the interaction between the two layers. Moreover, it is evident from Figure 5b that the upper valence band is given by states localized on the gC₃N₄-t layer, while the lower conduction band appears localized on gC₃N₄-h, realizing a type-II band alignment. Although a detailed study of different stacking patterns is needed to pinpoint the most stable heterostructure geometry, we expect that the main feature of a type-II band alignment will not be affected due to the weak interaction between the two layers. It is then conceivable that either a direct transition between tVB and bCB occurs, leaving the hole on the gC₃N₄-t layer and promoting the electron on gC₃N₄-h, or, should the dipole strength of the direct transition vanish, an indirect, phonon-mediated, mechanism takes place, leading to the same final result.^{95,96} Indeed, when considering vdW heterostructures, transitions between states belonging to different layers are very often suppressed due to the scarce overlap of the relative electronic states. However, even in the case of optical transitions taking place between two gC₃N₄-h states, the type-II band alignment is such that the system is at its energetic minimum only when the hole occupies the valence band maximum, located on gC₃N₄-t. It has been shown^{97,98} that this final state can be efficiently reached through tunneling and the emission of phonons with suitable energy and momentum, which make the system relax to its energy minimum, thus enhancing the exciton lifetime and charge separation.⁹⁹

4. CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we have presented a thorough analysis of various properties of the increasingly widespread two-dimensional graphene-like carbon nitride. The features that make this

material attractive for new technological applications are mainly related to its optical absorption and exciton fine structure. These, in turn, are extremely sensitive to the geometry, dimensionality, and strain of the material. For these reasons, a stability analysis of different corrugation geometries has been carried out, highlighting the fundamental role of buckling and pointing at the $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ cell as the most stable geometry for both allotropes.

Only once these stable structures have been identified, it is possible to reliably discuss the electronic properties at the G_0W_0 level, identifying rather large bandgaps of the order of 5 eV. In particular, the bandgap of gC_3N_4 -t in our buckled $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$ cell turns out slightly indirect and larger than the direct bandgap of gC_3N_4 -h. The QP levels have allowed us to compute the optical absorption spectra of both allotropes by solving the BSE and revealing their exciton patterns. In both cases, large exciton binding energies have been computed, in line with the existing literature. While gC_3N_4 -t shows an absorption edge in the near UV region and no low-energy dark excitons, the absorption edge of gC_3N_4 -h falls in the blue-violet part of the visible spectrum and dark excitons are present at a lower energy. These properties directly impact on the viability of gC_3N_4 -h in optoelectronics, photovoltaics, and photocatalysis. Although absorption occurs in an energy window in which the intensity of the solar spectrum is modest, the presence of dark excitons as lowest-energy states largely affects the average radiative lifetime, lifting it to 260 ns. This long excitation lifetime dramatically increases the probability that the photogenerated electrons and holes contribute to photocatalytic reactions before recombination. In addition, single layer gC_3N_4 -h may represent an interesting material in optoelectronics, appearing particularly promising from the perspective of exciton devices, in which long-lived excitons are required.

Finally, we have proposed a novel vdW heterostructure containing one layer of each allotrope. We have predicted a type-II band alignment between the two materials, with the heterostructure tVB consisting of electronic states localized on gC_3N_4 -t and the bCB localized on gC_3N_4 -h. This appears particularly promising for enhanced charge separation between the two layers, achieved either by direct photoexcitation or through the polarization-to-population mechanism.⁹⁸

In conclusion, these results shed light on this promising bidimensional material and can serve as a guide to understanding gC_3N_4 peculiar properties and designing novel applications that best exploit its predicted features.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsnm.0c03317>.

Details on the DFT, G_0W_0 , and BSE calculations; energetic, structural, and vibrational data of studied supercells, and wavefunctions of selected states (PDF)

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Notes

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