

# Determining the Energy Gap between the $S_1$ and $T_1$ States of Thermally Activated Delayed Fluorescence Molecular Systems Using Transient Fluorescence Spectroscopy

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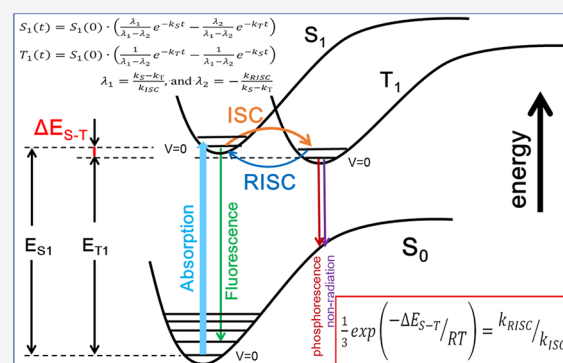


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Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** The energy gap ( $\Delta E_{S-T}$ ) between the lowest single and triple excited states is a crucial parameter for thermally activated delayed fluorescence (TADF) molecular systems with high quantum yield. However, a reliable experimental approach to precisely determine this value is challenging. Here, we introduce a new, simple, and efficient strategy to accurately obtain the  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  in TADF systems from time-resolved fluorescence spectroscopy using a recently reported TADF molecule, DMACPDO, as a representative. By introducing an explicit model to describe the corresponding singlet–triplet coupling system, elusive intersystem crossing and reverse intersystem crossing rates can be extracted by fitting the kinetics of the observed fluorescence. The  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  value can then be determined. Moreover, our modeling accurately explained the opposite trend in fluorescence intensity of DMACPDO with solvent polarity under air-saturated and deoxygenated conditions. Additionally, the validity of this approach has been demonstrated in another well-known TADF molecule, 4CzIPN. We demonstrate how this approach of determining  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  sheds light on a deeper understanding of energy-loss mechanisms involved in related photoconversion processes.



Thermally activated delayed fluorescence (TADF) has attracted considerable interest because of its ability to enhance the efficiency of organic light-emitting diodes (OLEDs) by harvesting triplet excitons. For a TADF molecular system, the energy gap ( $\Delta E_{S-T}$ ) between the lowest single ( $S_1$ ) and triple ( $T_1$ ) excited states is the most crucial parameter for achieving a high quantum yield (or the efficiency) of delayed fluorescence emission.<sup>1–8</sup> An overall TADF process has been extensively addressed in the context of the Jablonski diagram, as shown in Figure 1. Usually, the smaller the  $\Delta E_{S-T}$ , the greater the TADF efficiency, which has proven vital for the improvement of OLED efficiency.<sup>4,9–13</sup> With a smaller  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  (usually less than 100 meV),<sup>4</sup> both singlet-to-triplet intersystem crossing (ISC) and reverse ISC (RISC) have fast reaction rates, thus establishing an equilibrium between the  $S_1$  and  $T_1$  state populations. Following photoexcitation, fluorescence emission occurs immediately from the populated  $S_1$  state, also called prompt fluorescence (PF). Also, activated excitons in the  $T_1$  state are reversely converted to  $S_1$  via a thermally activated process due to the equilibrium, resulting in extra fluorescence emission. Since this endothermic RISC is relatively slow compared with the exothermic ISC, the fluorescence emits later than the PF emission and is therefore called delayed fluorescence (DF).

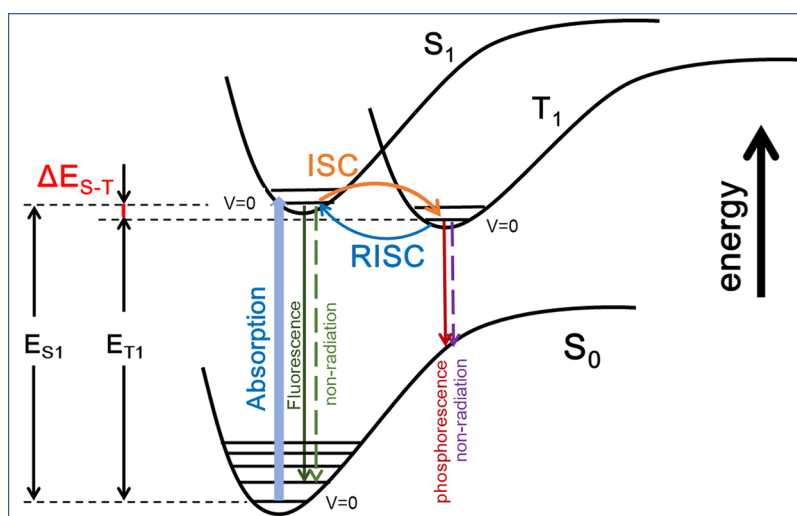
In theory,  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  is defined as the energy difference between the  $S_1$  and  $T_1$  states at each optimized geometry (i.e.,  $\Delta E_{S-T} =$

$E_{S_1} - E_{T_1}$ , where  $E_{S_1}$  and  $E_{T_1}$  are the adiabatic excitation energies of the  $S_1(v=0)$  and  $T_1(v=0)$  levels. Although this definition is clear, the accurate experimental determination of  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  remains challenging; hence, a few crude approximations have been widely used in early studies.<sup>14</sup> For example, the  $E_{S_1}$  value is usually estimated using steady-state absorption and fluorescence spectroscopy.<sup>14</sup> Based on the Franck–Condon principle, the ideal 0–0 transition energy of  $S_1$  (so-called  $E_{S_1}$ ) corresponds to the lowest energy onset in the absorption spectra or the highest energy threshold of the fluorescence spectra when these absorptions and emissions occur solely for discrete photon energies related to transitions between the vibrational levels of the ground and excited states. However, the absorption and emission spectra of photosensitizers seldom consist of well-resolved vibrational peaks due to low-frequency vibrations and electron–phonon coupling. Thus, transitions from thermally populated vibrational modes always lead to the onset of absorption at photon energies below  $E_{S_1}$  and emission at energies above  $E_{S_1}$ . Besides, the  $E_{T_1}$  value (0–0 transition

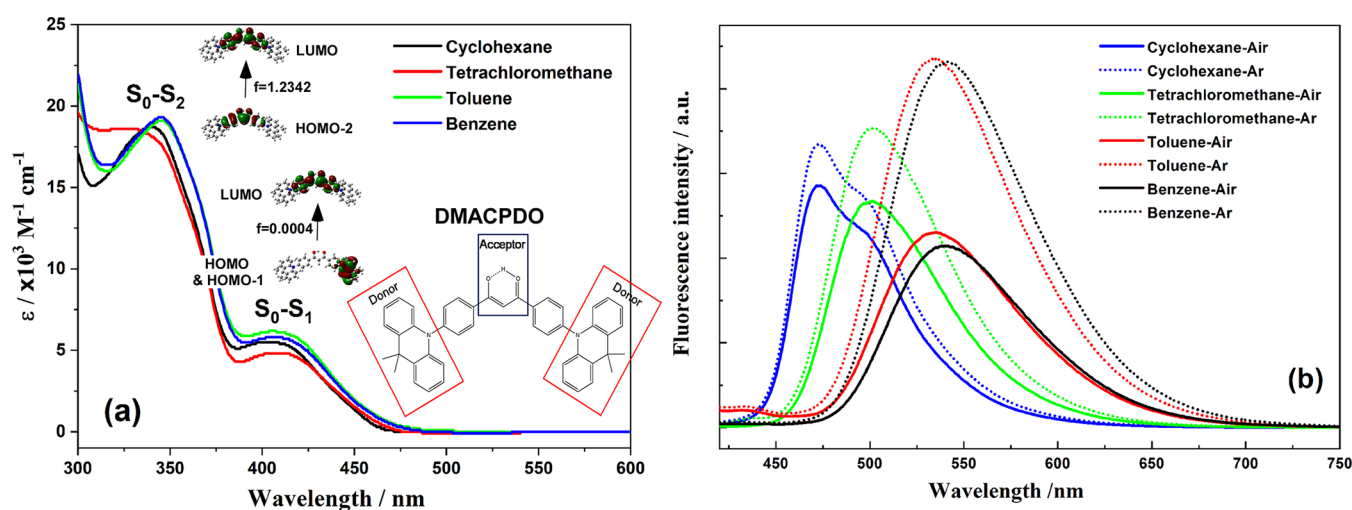
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**Figure 1.** Jablonski diagram of a representative thermally activated delayed fluorescence process. ISC indicates intersystem crossing, and RISC is reverse intersystem crossing.  $S_1$  and  $T_1$  represent the lowest singlet and triplet excited states, respectively.



**Figure 2.** (a) Steady-state UV-vis absorption and (b) fluorescence emission ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 405$  nm) spectra of DMACPDO in cyclohexane, tetrachloromethane, toluene, and benzene solvents ( $1 \times 10^{-5}$  M) at room temperature.

energy of  $T_1$ ) has been assessed as the highest-energy threshold onset of low-temperature (77 K) phosphorescence spectra,<sup>6,15–20</sup> and the peak maximums of both fluorescence and phosphorescence spectra have been used to evaluate  $E_{S_1}$  and  $E_{T_1}$  in a few experiments.<sup>21,22</sup> Apparently, these methods are far from accurate measurements. Recently, Vandewal et al. proposed a simple but efficient strategy to precisely determine  $E_{S_1}$  as the crossing point of appropriately normalized absorption and emission spectra.<sup>23</sup> In contrast, no reliable experimental approach has been reported to precisely determine the  $E_{T_1}$  value. Moreover, using the temperature-dependent photoluminescence measurements, the  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  value was estimated by fitting the plot of the photoluminescence lifetime vs temperature.<sup>24–27</sup> However, there was a very stringent condition in this method, that the prompt fluorescence is entirely quenched and cannot be observed directly due to the much faster ISC rate than the fluorescence emission rate, and thus, the luminescence in experiment is only contributed by the delayed fluorescence component. Apparently, it is not suitable for every TADF molecular system.

Relative to experiments, theoretical calculations have made great progress in predicting excitation energies in past decades.<sup>28–31</sup> Density functional theory (DFT) and time-dependent DFT (TD-DFT)<sup>32–34</sup> have been widely used to calculate  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  because of the favorable trade-off between accuracy and computational cost.<sup>35</sup> The average uncertainties are generally in a range of 0.1–0.3 eV<sup>36–40</sup> with the classical DFT and TD-DFT methods. Recently, the development of optimally tuned range-separated density functionals makes a certain improvement in predicting  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  with mean absolute deviations of 0.09 eV.<sup>41</sup> However, in these range-separated exchange density functionals, the range-separation parameters are strongly system-dependent, constraining their wide application. Additionally, Penfold proposed a simple analysis based on the overlap between the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) and the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) to estimate  $\Delta E_{S-T}$ .<sup>42</sup> The mean errors relative to the reported experimental values were reduced to 0.05 eV. Nevertheless, such uncertainties still cannot meet the rigorous demand for  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  to predict the ISC and RISC rates of TADF molecules.<sup>4,43</sup>

For most TADF molecules, the  $S_1$  or  $T_1$  state is often accompanied by moderate changes in molecular geometry relative to the ground state, with certain characteristics of charge-transfer (CT) states. Their spectra contain no fine vibrational structures, regardless of their fluorescence and phosphorescence emissions. Moreover, most solvents are glassy during low-temperature (77 K) measurements, in which the solvation energy is different from that at room temperature due to the exceptionally postponed relaxation time of solvent molecules.<sup>44,45</sup> In other words, the  $E_{T_1}$  value estimated from spectra under the glassy condition may be inevitably shifted from its real state at room temperature. Therefore, the fundamental understanding of the TADF process requires an unambiguous experimental approach to precisely determine the  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  and  $E_{T_1}$  values.

Recently, an excited-state intramolecular proton transfer (ESIPT) emitter, DMACPDO, has been synthesized with high photoluminescence quantum yield (86%) and a relatively long fluorescence lifetime (1.94  $\mu$ s) in the film state.<sup>16</sup> In its symmetric D- $\pi$ -A- $\pi$ -D molecular architectures (see the inserted structure in Figure 2a), 9,9-dimethyl-9,10-dihydroacridine (DMAC) and  $\beta$ -diketone moieties play the roles of electron donor (D) and electron acceptor (A), respectively. The D and A subunits are connected through phenylene  $\pi$ -bridges, and each D- $\pi$ -A unit has a twisting configuration. The sole enol-type forms stabilized by intramolecular hydrogen bonds together with the twisting configuration of the D and A moieties promote its TADF characteristics.<sup>16</sup> However, the core parameter,  $\Delta E_{S-T}$ , has not been determined by either experiment or calculation. Thus, this new strategy for designing efficient ESIPT emitters has limited significance.

In this work, we proposed an experimental approach using ultrafast kinetic measurements to precisely determine  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  using DMACPDO as an example. We observed and explained the unusual dependence of prompt and delayed fluorescence intensities on solvent polarity based on time-resolved fluorescence spectra and kinetics. For comparison, theoretical calculations using standard DFT and TD-DFT were also performed for the  $S_0$ ,  $S_1$ , and  $T_1$  electronic states of DMACPDO.

As the HOMO and LUMO of the DMACPDO molecule are dominantly localized on the D and A units, respectively, an intramolecular CT process naturally occurs upon photoexcitation. Accordingly, the CT state energy might be sensitive to the fraction of Hartree–Fock exchange in hybrid functionals; thus, we performed a series of computations for the UV–vis absorption and fluorescence emission spectra of DMACPDO at several different DFT levels (e.g., B3LYP,<sup>46,47</sup> PBE0,<sup>48,49</sup> BMK,<sup>50</sup> M062X,<sup>51,52</sup> CAM-B3LYP,<sup>53</sup> and  $\omega$ B97XD<sup>54</sup>). The polarizable continuum model (PCM) model<sup>34,55</sup> was used to describe solvent effects on equilibrium geometries and excitation energies. As the calculated results at these levels were generally consistent, as shown in the Supporting Information, we only present the BMK results here as a representative. Once excited, the dihedral angle between the Ph-bridge and acceptor in DMACPDO is significantly decreased from 17° in  $S_0$  to approximately 0° in  $S_1$ , while the dihedral angle between the donor and the Ph-bridge is maintained at  $\sim$ 90°. Such a large change in the dihedral angle between D–A units reduces the overlap of frontier orbitals, leading to a reduced  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  value and the good performance of DMACPDO as an ideal TADF molecule. In addition, the optimized geometries of the  $S_0$ ,  $S_1$ , and  $T_1$

states in cyclohexane, tetrachloromethane, toluene, and benzene solvents are very close at all of these theoretical levels. Therefore, no apparent solvent effects were predicted for the calculated excitation energies of  $E_{S_1}$  and  $E_{T_1}$ , as shown in Table S1 of the Supporting Information. As a result, the  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  values in these four solvents were computed to be in the range of 0.17–0.25 eV.

The steady-state UV–vis absorption spectra of DMACPDO in cyclohexane, tetrachloromethane, toluene, and benzene exhibited very similar features, as shown in Figure 2a: a weak band ( $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$ ) contributed by the HOMO (or HOMO<sub>-1</sub>)  $\rightarrow$  LUMO transition at  $\sim$ 405 nm and a  $\pi$ - $\pi^*$  transition (HOMO<sub>-2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  LUMO) located at  $\sim$ 340 nm ( $S_0 \rightarrow S_2$ ). Notably, the HOMO and HOMO<sub>-1</sub> are degenerated due to the almost symmetric D–A–D structure. With the increase in solvent polarity, the two absorption peaks showed mild redshifts, indicating that the dipole moments of the  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  states were slightly larger than that of the ground state  $S_0$ . Figure 2b shows the overall fluorescence emission spectra of DMACPDO in the four solvents, with photoexcitation at 405 nm ( $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$ ). Unlike the absorption spectra and the prediction of the preceding quantum calculation, the fluorescence emission peak exhibited a significant red-shift with increasing solvent polarity, which was consistent with the CT feature of  $S_1$ . To our surprise, the trend in the dependence of fluorescence intensity on solvent polarity was opposite in the presence and absence of solvated oxygen, as indicated by the solid and dashed curves in Figure 2b. The fluorescence yield ( $\Phi_F$ ) under air-saturated conditions was visibly reduced with increasing solvent polarity (e.g., 10.94% in tetrachloromethane and 9.37% in benzene). Contrastingly, a positive correlation with solvent polarity was observed in the fluorescence intensity in deoxygenated solutions. The  $\Phi_F$  value was significantly enhanced from 10.30% in cyclohexane to 14.57% in tetrachloromethane, 17.32% in toluene, and 18.90% in benzene (Table 1). Additionally, the overall

**Table 1. Absorption and Fluorescence Emission of DMACPDO in Four Solvents at Room Temperature**

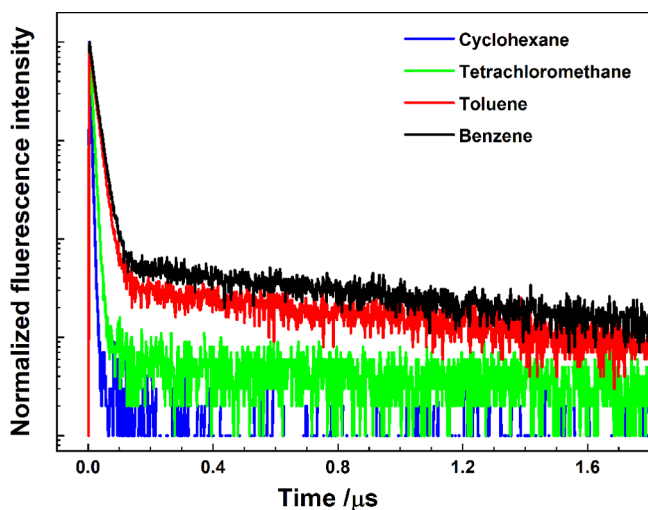
solvent	dielectric constant	$\lambda_{\text{abs}}$ (nm)	$\epsilon$ ( $M^{-1}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$ )	$\lambda_{\text{em}}$ (nm)	$\Phi_F^a$ (%)
cyclohexane	2.052	405	5500	470	10.30
tetrachloromethane	2.238	407	4800	495	14.57
toluene	2.240	406	6200	550	17.32
benzene	2.283	412	5800	550	18.90

<sup>a</sup>Measured in deoxygenated solutions.

fluorescence intensities in the deoxygenated solutions were stronger than those in the air-saturated solutions, as shown in Figure 2b. This inconsistent dependence in the presence and absence of solvated oxygen provided indubitable evidence for the existence of a DF component in the observed fluorescence emission according to the quenching of solvated oxygen molecules.

Usually, the steady-state fluorescence of a TADF molecule includes a simultaneous PF component with a short lifetime (from a picosecond to a few tens of nanoseconds) and a DF component with a long lifetime (microseconds), where the latter mainly originated from a thermally activated RISC from nearby triplet states. For DMACPDO in air-saturated solutions, the  $T_1$  state is efficiently quenched by solvated oxygen; hence, only the PF process contributes to the observed

fluorescence. In comparison, the fluorescence in the deoxygenated solutions involves both PF and DF components. Therefore, the opposite dependences of fluorescence intensity on solvent polarity in the presence and absence of solvated oxygen strongly imply that solvent polarity plays a crucial role in the thermally activated RISC of DMACPDO by changing  $\Delta E_{S-T}$ . With increasing solvent polarity, the  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  value should reduce to accelerate ISC and RISC, which leads to a higher populated  $T_1$  state and improves the fraction of the DF component. To quantitatively characterize the fractions of the PF and DF components and precisely determine their lifetimes, the transient fluorescence kinetics of DMACPDO in these solvents was measured. As shown in Figure 3, the



**Figure 3.** Fluorescence emission kinetics for DMACPDO ( $1 \times 10^{-5}$  M) in deoxygenated cyclohexane, tetrachloromethane, toluene, and benzene solvents at room temperature and  $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 375$  nm.

fluorescence decay kinetics is typically comprised of two processes: a fast nanosecond PF and a slow microsecond DF. By fitting these biexponential curves and integrating the corresponding fluorescence intensities in different characteristic time domains, the proportions of the PF and DF components ( $I_{\text{PF}}/I_{\text{DF}}$ ) were calculated. Table 2 lists the

**Table 2.** Lifetimes of the Prompt Fluorescence (PF) and Delayed Fluorescence (DF) Components of DMACPDO in Four Solvents at Room Temperature, as Well as the Proportion of Their Intensities

solvent	$\tau_{\text{PF}}$ (ns)	$\tau_{\text{DF}}$ (ns)	$I_{\text{PF}}/I_{\text{DF}}$
cyclohexane	$3.51 \pm 0.02$	<i>a</i>	$\sim 0.99/0.01$
tetrachloromethane	$6.89 \pm 0.01$	$2640 \pm 127$	$0.89/0.11$
toluene	$15.46 \pm 0.01$	$1039 \pm 25$	$0.82/0.18$
benzene	$17.51 \pm 0.01$	$1100 \pm 16$	$0.76/0.24$

<sup>a</sup>Too weak to be obtained from fitting.

lifetimes and the relative proportions of the PF and DF components in the four deoxygenated solvents. The PF lifetime was gradually extended from 3.51 ns in cyclohexane to 17.51 ns in benzene, with increasing solvent polarity, while the DF lifetime decreased (i.e., 2640 ns in tetrachloromethane, 1039 ns in toluene, and 1100 ns in benzene). Notably, the fraction of the DF component of the overall fluorescence

intensity is visibly promoted by solvent polarity, while its corresponding lifetime is shortened.

According to the Jablonski diagram shown in Figure 1, the PF emission and the ISC process are in competition. Since the PF emission rate is reduced with increasing solvent polarity, as indicated by  $\tau_{\text{PF}}$  in Table 2, the promotion of the DF fraction in polar solvents suggests that the ISC becomes more favorable with increased rate; thus, the  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  value in polar solvents should naturally decrease with solvent polarity. Following this deduction, it is predicted that the triplet lifetime can be reduced by increasing solvent polarity owing to accelerated RISC, which is greatly consistent with the present experimental results. To quantitatively examine this prediction and determine the  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  value, we conducted population-evolution modeling for the decay of an excited DMACPDO molecule after photoexcitation based on the Jablonski diagram. Fluorescence emission, ISC, and RISC processes were included for the decay and formation of the singlet excited state, while internal conversion (IC) was considered insignificant in this system according to the energy gap law<sup>56</sup> and the too-large energy gap between  $S_1$  and  $S_0$  states (i.e., 52–70 kcal/mol, as derived from the absorption peak in Figure 2a). Additionally, other non-radiation decay pathways, such as collision, were also neglected for the  $S_1$  state compared to the fluorescence emission and ISC. A similar assumption was made for the evolution of the  $T_1$  state population formed by the ISC from  $S_1$ ; that is, IC was removed from the modeling. Meanwhile, phosphorescence emission was assumed to be insignificant for the  $T_1$  state, since no phosphorescence was observed in the room-temperature experiments. Additionally, unlike the case of  $S_1$ , the non-radiation pathway, such as collision, may have been indispensable for the  $T_1$  population according to its relatively long lifetime. Consequently, only RISC and non-radiation pathways were included for the  $T_1$  decay. Therefore, the time-dependent singlet and triplet populations, denoted  $S_1(t)$  and  $T_1(t)$ , respectively, can be described by the following equations

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dS_1(t)}{dt} &= -(k_{\text{ISC}} + k_{\text{F}}) \cdot S_1(t) + k_{\text{RISC}} \cdot T_1(t) \\ &= -k_{\text{S}} \cdot S_1(t) + k_{\text{RISC}} \cdot T_1(t) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dT_1(t)}{dt} &= k_{\text{ISC}} \cdot S_1(t) - (k_{\text{RISC}} + k_{\text{NR}}^{\text{T}}) \cdot T_1(t) \\ &= k_{\text{ISC}} \cdot S_1(t) - k_{\text{T}} \cdot T_1(t) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where  $k_{\text{ISC}}$ ,  $k_{\text{RISC}}$ ,  $k_{\text{F}}$ , and  $k_{\text{NR}}^{\text{T}}$  denote the elementary rates of the ISC, RISC, fluorescence emission, and non-radiation pathways, respectively, and  $k_{\text{S}} = k_{\text{ISC}} + k_{\text{F}}$  and  $k_{\text{T}} = k_{\text{RISC}} + k_{\text{NR}}^{\text{T}}$  are the overall decay rates of the  $S_1$  and  $T_1$  states. As for TADF systems<sup>4,57,58</sup> and also well justified in the current experiments (as described in the following discussions), a certain approximation,  $k_{\text{ISC}} \gg k_{\text{RISC}}$  (or  $k_{\text{NR}}^{\text{T}}$ ), was adopted, and hence,  $k_{\text{S}} \gg k_{\text{T}}$  was achieved. Jointly solving eqs 1 and 2 gives the following simplified, analytical expressions

$$S_1(t) = S_1(0) \cdot \left( \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} e^{-k_{\text{S}}t} - \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} e^{-k_{\text{T}}t} \right) \quad (3)$$

$$T_1(t) = S_1(0) \cdot \left( \frac{1}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} e^{-k_{\text{T}}t} - \frac{1}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} e^{-k_{\text{S}}t} \right) \quad (4)$$

**Table 3. Dynamic Decay Parameters for DMACPDO in the  $S_1$  State at Room Temperature Derived from the Fitting of Fluorescence Intensity Curves**

solvent	$k_S$ ( $\times 10^7$ s $^{-1}$ )	$k_T$ ( $\times 10^5$ s $^{-1}$ )	$\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2}$	$\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2}$	$k_{ISC} \cdot k_{RISC}$ ( $\times 10^{13}$ s $^{-2}$ )
cyclohexane	28.57 $\pm$ 0.16				
tetrachloromethane	14.50 $\pm$ 0.01	3.79 $\pm$ 0.18	19748	7	0.74
toluene	6.47 $\pm$ 0.01	9.63 $\pm$ 0.23	13186	44	1.36
benzene	5.71 $\pm$ 0.01	9.09 $\pm$ 0.13	12728	67	1.66

**Table 4. Dynamic Decay Parameters of DMACPDO ( $S_1$ ) in Deoxygenated Solutions at Room Temperature**

solvent	$k_F$ ( $\times 10^6$ s $^{-1}$ )	$k_{ISC}$ ( $\times 10^7$ s $^{-1}$ )	$k_{RISC}$ ( $\times 10^5$ s $^{-1}$ )	$k_{NR}^T$ ( $\times 10^5$ s $^{-1}$ )	$\Delta E_{S-T}$ (eV)
cyclohexane	29.10 $\pm$ 3.20	25.70 $\pm$ 0.36			
tetrachloromethane	18.80 $\pm$ 2.58	12.62 $\pm$ 0.26	0.59 $\pm$ 0.02	3.20 $\pm$ 0.18	0.17 $\pm$ 0.01
toluene	9.19 $\pm$ 1.00	5.55 $\pm$ 0.10	2.44 $\pm$ 0.07	7.18 $\pm$ 0.31	0.11 $\pm$ 0.01
benzene	8.20 $\pm$ 0.84	4.89 $\pm$ 0.08	3.40 $\pm$ 0.08	5.69 $\pm$ 0.16	0.10 $\pm$ 0.01

where  $S_1(0)$  is the initial concentration of the  $S_1$  state ( $t = 0$ ),  $\lambda_1 = \frac{k_S - k_T}{k_{ISC}}$ , and  $\lambda_2 = -\frac{k_{RISC}}{k_S - k_T}$ . The details of the above formulations are given in the Supporting Information. Therefore, both  $S_1(t)$  and  $T_1(t)$  populations exhibit a form of biexponential decay after photoexcitation in exact agreement with the kinetics shown in Figure 3. In the current study, the evolution of the  $T_1(t)$  population was not detected due to a lack of low-temperature phosphorescence measurement apparatus; however, the observed fluorescence decay dynamics clearly shows the relationship between the  $S_1(t)$  population and decay time. Thus, the values of  $k_S$  and  $k_T$  are directly obtained by fitting the routine kinetics shown in Figure 3 with eq 3. Two pre-exponential coefficients,  $\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2}$  and  $-\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2}$ , are also determined. Detailed comparisons of the experimental and fitted results for the four solvents are given in Figure S1 of the Supporting Information. Given that it is not possible to directly extract the  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  coefficients from this fitting, here we introduce a new approach to obtain  $k_{ISC}$  and  $k_{RISC}$  values. Specifically, the  $k_{ISC} \cdot k_{RISC}$  value can be calculated by dividing these two pre-exponential coefficients. Table 3 lists all of the obtained dynamic parameters for the four solvents.

During the initial fluorescence emission stage, the contribution of the DF component can be ignored due to a limited  $T_1$  population. Thus, the quantum yield of the PF process,  $\Phi_{PF}$ , is readily calculated by eq 5 according to the Jablonski diagram. Meanwhile,  $\Phi_{PF}$  could also be estimated from eq 6 as a part of the overall fluorescence quantum yield,  $\Phi_F$ , from the experiments.

$$\Phi_{PF} = k_F / (k_F + k_{ISC}) = k_F / k_S \quad (5)$$

$$\Phi_{PF} = \Phi_F \cdot [I_{PF} / (I_{PF} + I_{DF})] \quad (6)$$

Using the experimentally measured  $\Phi_F$  and  $I_{PF}/I_{DF}$  data in Table 1 together with the  $k_S$  values in Table 3,  $k_F$  and  $k_{ISC}$  can be calculated. We can then obtain  $k_{RISC}$  values for the different solvents based on the  $k_{ISC} \cdot k_{RISC}$  values in Table 3. Additionally, the  $k_{NR}^T$  values of non-radiation rates for the  $T_1$  state are subsequently determined as the difference between  $k_T$  and  $k_{RISC}$ . Table 4 summarizes these calculated values. Take toluene, for instance, the  $k_F$ ,  $k_{ISC}$ ,  $k_{RISC}$ , and  $k_{NR}^T$  values are  $9.19 \times 10^6$ ,  $5.55 \times 10^7$ ,  $2.44 \times 10^5$ , and  $7.18 \times 10^5$  s $^{-1}$ , respectively. In fact, these values agree with our assumptions of  $k_{ISC} \gg k_{RISC}$  and  $k_{ISC} \gg k_{NR}^T$ .

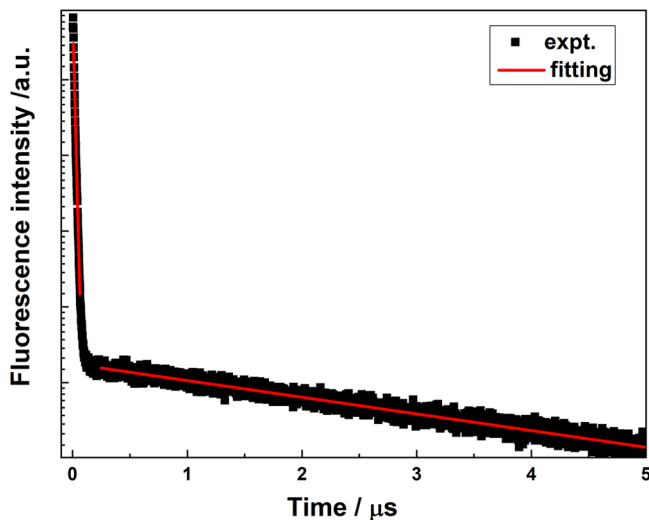
As shown in Table 2, the typical value of  $\tau_{DF}$  is larger than 1  $\mu$ s; therefore, thermal dynamic equilibrium between the  $S_1$  and  $T_1$  populations can be rapidly established<sup>59</sup> (usually in a time scale of picoseconds to nanoseconds) at room temperature after the initial photoexcitation, with the triplet state being activated, and keeping both the  $S_1$  and  $T_1$  populations in a type of steady-state. As indicated in Figure S2 of the Supporting Information, this reversible process takes only about 60 ns to establish equilibrium using the obtained  $k_S$  and  $k_T$  values. Therefore, the  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  value can be calculated using the following equation based on this equilibrium approximation

$$\frac{1}{3} \exp(-\Delta E_{S-T}/RT) = k_{RISC}/k_{ISC} \quad (7)$$

where  $T$  is the ambient temperature. At room temperature (298 K), the calculated  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  values using the above  $k_{ISC}$  and  $k_{RISC}$  data are listed in Table 4. The  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  value of DMACPDO does decrease with increasing solvent polarity (e.g., 0.17 eV for tetrachloromethane, 0.11 eV for toluene, and 0.10 eV for benzene) in perfect agreement with our experimental results. Additionally, the calculated  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  values using the standard DFT or TD-DFT methods, such as BMK, are 0.17–0.18 eV, which are acceptable considering the uncertainty of the calculated levels of the theory, yet they do not exhibit a similar trend with solvent polarity. This disagreement further indicates that these standard DFT approaches and the PCM model are insufficient to quantify  $\Delta E_{S-T}$ . Lastly, Hu et al. very recently have demonstrated a novel approach for the facile retrieval of a RISC rate from the global kinetics fitting of transient absorption spectra.<sup>60</sup> They were able to readily calculate the  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  value of a corresponding rare-earth chelate molecular system based on their  $k_{ISC}$  and  $k_{RISC}$  data. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that, in their systems, the dominant decay of a singlet excited photosensitizer is ultrafast ISC (i.e.,  $k_{ISC} = 0.235$  ps $^{-1}$ ),<sup>60</sup> while fluorescence emission and other non-radiation paths are negligible. Moreover, intramolecular resonance energy transfer plays the same crucial role as RISC in the evolution of the  $T_1$  population compared to TADF systems. Therefore, Hu et al.'s modeling is unsuitable for TADF systems, which has motivated us to introduce the new approach described in this study.

To validate the reliability of our strategy for other TADF molecular systems, we performed an additional experiment using this method for a well-known TADF molecule, 4CzIPN, whose fluorescence quantum yield ( $\Phi_F$ ) was reported to be

93.8%.<sup>4</sup> The transient fluorescence kinetics of 4CzIPN is shown in Figure 4, and Table 5 summarizes the dynamic decay parameters and  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  in deoxygenated toluene at room temperature.



**Figure 4.** Fluorescence emission kinetics of 4CzIPN ( $1 \times 10^{-5}$  M) in deoxygenated toluene, at room temperature and  $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 380$  nm, and with the emission detected at 507 nm.

The two components of prompt and delayed fluorescence emissions were observed clearly in Figure 4. From the biexponential fitting,  $\tau_{\text{PF}}$  and  $\tau_{\text{DF}}$  were determined to be 13.4 and 2688 ns, respectively. Using the  $I_{\text{PF}}/I_{\text{DF}}$  proportion and our modeling, we finally obtained the corresponding rates and energy gap for 4CzIPN,  $k_{\text{ISC}} = 5.42 \times 10^7 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k_{\text{RISC}} = 1.09 \times 10^6 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and  $\Delta E_{S-T} = 72 \text{ meV}$ . This energy gap is slightly lower than the previous result (83 meV in CBP films).<sup>4</sup> However, the previously reported value actually was the activation energy from the  $T_1$  to  $S_1$  state,<sup>4</sup> which deservedly was slightly higher than the real energy gap.

Additionally, in contrast to another widely used approach to calculate  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  using temperature-dependent photoluminescence measurements,<sup>24–27</sup> no stringent condition of  $k_{\text{ISC}} \gg k_{\text{F}}$  is demanded in our method, and a more modest assumption of  $(k_{\text{S}} - k_{\text{T}})^2 \gg 4k_{\text{ISC}} \cdot k_{\text{RISC}}$  is requested. Thus, our strategy can be suitable for the systems in which  $k_{\text{ISC}}$  is comparable with the fluorescence emission rate ( $k_{\text{F}}$ ). Moreover, since in our method the  $k_{\text{S}}$ ,  $k_{\text{T}}$ , and  $k_{\text{ISC}} \cdot k_{\text{RISC}}$  values are determined by fitting transient fluorescence kinetics with a biexponential function, it will be invalidated if the prompt fluorescence is entirely quenched. Therefore, our approach and the temperature-dependent photoluminescence lifetime measurements are complementary to each other.

In summary, we introduce a new, facile yet robust approach to precisely determine energy gap (i.e.,  $\Delta E_{S-T}$ ) in TADF systems using a recently reported DMACPDO molecule as a representative. Explicit modeling has been conducted to meaningfully physically describe this singlet–triplet coupling

system in which the decay of singlet-excited DMACPDO is expected to occur biexponentially. Based on fitting the kinetics of transient fluorescence emission together with a thermal-equilibrium approximation of  $S_1$  and  $T_1$  populations, the elusive ISC and RISC rates can be extracted and the  $\Delta E_{S-T}$  value is then determined. Moreover, our modeling and corresponding results perfectly explain the unusual experimental results of DMACPDO fluorescence: an opposite trend was observed in its fluorescence intensity with solvent polarity under air-saturated and deoxygenated conditions. Our approach can be readily extended to other similar TADF systems like 4CzIPN to precisely determine the crucial parameter of  $\Delta E_{S-T}$ . Therefore, a deeper understanding of the energy-loss mechanisms involved in the related photo-conversion process can be achieved.

## EXPERIMENTAL AND COMPUTATIONAL METHODS

Steady-state UV–vis absorption spectra were recorded with a spectrophotometer (UV-3600; Shimadzu) at room temperature (298 K). Photoluminescence spectra were measured at room temperature with a fluorescence spectrophotometer (F-4600; Hitachi). Time-dependent fluorescence emission dynamics were obtained by a spectrometer (FluoTime 300; PicoQuant, GmbH) with a picosecond pulsed laser (LAS-TER480; PicoQuant) as the photoexcitation source. Using perylene as a standard, steady-state absorbance spectra of the sample and a standard in diluted solutions were recorded using a fluorescence spectrometer, where their absorbance at the excitation wavelength was no more than 0.05. By integrating the band area in the emission spectra of the sample or standard, the quantum yield of the sample could be determined. In the current experiments, the fluorescence quantum yield,  $\Phi_{\text{F}}$ , was calculated using eq 8 and taking into account  $\Phi_{\text{std}} = 71.0\%$  in toluene<sup>61</sup>

$$\Phi_{\text{F}} = \Phi_{\text{std}} \left( \frac{A_{\text{std}}}{I_{\text{std}}} \right) \left( \frac{I_{\text{sam}}}{A_{\text{sam}}} \right) \left( \frac{\eta_{\text{sam}}}{\eta_{\text{std}}} \right)^2 \quad (8)$$

where  $A$ ,  $I$ , and  $\eta$  are the absorbance intensities, integrated luminescence intensities, and refractive indices of the solvents used for the standard and samples, respectively. All quantum chemical calculations were performed with the Gaussian 16 program suite.<sup>62</sup> For all of the DFT calculations, def2-tzvp basis sets<sup>63</sup> were used for geometry optimization and excitation energy computations. The harmonic vibrational frequencies were calculated at the same levels of theory to verify optimized structures and calculate zero-point energies.

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jpcllett.2c00428>.

Optimized geometrical parameters and excitation energies of DMACPDO in the  $S_0$ ,  $S_1$ , and  $T_1$  states; details of modeling formulation; fitting the kinetics of

**Table 5.** Dynamic Decay Parameters of 4CzIPN ( $S_1$ ) in Deoxygenated Toluene at Room Temperature

	$I_{\text{PF}}/I_{\text{DF}}$	$k_{\text{F}} (\times 10^7 \text{ s}^{-1})$	$k_{\text{ISC}} (\times 10^7 \text{ s}^{-1})$	$k_{\text{RISC}} (\times 10^6 \text{ s}^{-1})$	$\Delta E_{S-T} (\text{meV})$
4CzIPN	0.29/0.71	$2.03 \pm 0.04^a$	$5.42 \pm 0.04, 4.00^b$	$1.09 \pm 0.01, 1.29^b$	$72 \pm 1, 83^b$

<sup>a</sup>The present results. <sup>b</sup>From ref 4, in CBP films.

transient fluorescence intensity; thermal equilibrium analysis; and Cartesian coordinates of optimized geometries of DMACPDO in the  $S_0$ ,  $S_1$ , and  $T_1$  states at the BMK/def2-tzvp level (PDF)

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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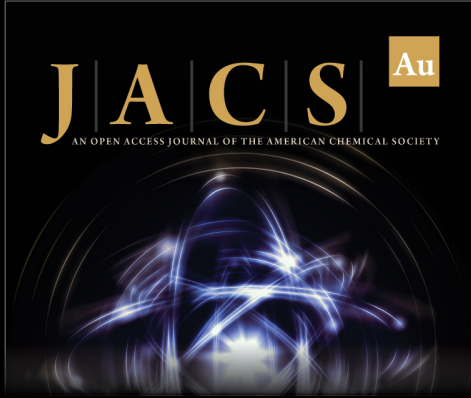
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