

# 1 Near-Infrared Room-Temperature Phosphorescence from Monocyclic Luminophores

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8 **ABSTRACT:** Compact luminophores with long emission wavelengths have aroused considerable theoretical and practical  
9 interest. Organics with room-temperature phosphorescence (RTP) are also desirable for their longer lifetimes and larger Stokes  
10 shifts compared to fluorescence. Utilizing the low electronic transition energy intrinsic to thiocarbonyl compounds, electron-  
11 withdrawing groups were attached to the 4*H*-pyran-4-thione core to further lower the excited states energies. The resulting  
12 mini-phosphors were doped into appropriate polymer matrices. Both pure organic, amorphous materials emitted near-infrared  
13 (NIR) RTP. Having a molar mass of only 162 g·mol<sup>-1</sup>, one of the phosphors emitted RTP that peaked at 750 nm, with a very  
14 large Stokes shift of 15485 cm<sup>-1</sup> (403 nm). Thanks to the good processability of the polymer film, light-emitting diodes (LEDs)  
15 with NIR emission was easily fabricated by coating doped polymer on ultraviolet LEDs. This work provides an interesting  
16 strategy to achieve NIR RTP using compact luminophores.

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17 Photoluminescent materials with novel structures and unique properties have long been the pursuit of scientists for their  
18 theoretical values as well as broad applications.<sup>1-8</sup> Due to longer lifetimes and larger Stokes shifts compared to fluorescence,  
19 materials with room-temperature phosphorescence (RTP) are of particular interest and is applied to various fields.<sup>9-16</sup> Tradi-  
20 tional inorganic and organo-metallic RTP typically requires harsh preparation conditions or heavy metals.<sup>17</sup> To avoid these  
21 drawbacks, pure organic RTP materials emerged in recent years.

22 For organic molecules, the transition from an excited singlet state to a triplet state is largely spin forbidden. Heavy atoms  
23 like bromine and iodine were introduced to enhance spin-orbit coupling (SOC), accelerating intersystem crossing (ISC).<sup>18-21</sup>  
24 Other functional groups like carbonyl can also promote ISC.<sup>22-28</sup> Still, triplet excitons can easily be deactivated by molecular  
25 motion and quenchers like oxygen, which make them only emissive at cryogenic temperatures and in inert atmospheres. Crys-  
26 tallization,<sup>29-32</sup> host-guest interactions,<sup>33-35</sup> and copolymerization<sup>36-38</sup> were employed to inhibit the nonradiative decay and  
27 shield the quenchers, making organic RTP possible.

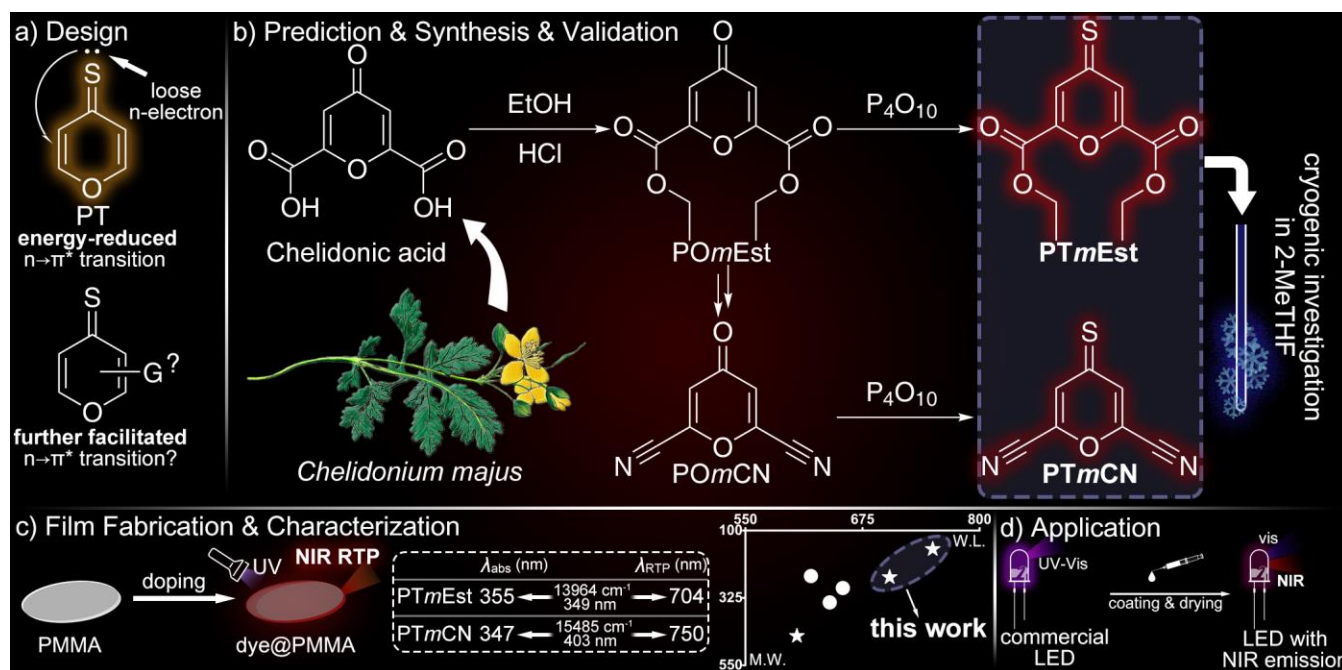
28 Long wavelength emissions were often achieved by expansion of conjugation.<sup>39-41</sup> Fused ring luminophores can cause prob-  
29 lems like limited solubility and processability. For RTP, Stokes shifts would be reduced due to narrowed singlet-triplet energy

30 gap. In addition, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons are often carcinogenic and difficult to degrade.<sup>42</sup> Beyond practical concerns,  
31 the scientific question of whether small luminophores can have long wavelength emissions also became a research interest.  
32 Some researchers attached two pairs of electron donors and acceptors to a benzene ring, which is called X-shaped benzene  
33 strategy.<sup>43-46</sup> Used for both fluorescence and phosphorescence (Scheme 1c right), the maximum emission wavelength was 654  
34 nm<sup>45</sup> and the smallest molar mass was 252 g·mol<sup>-1</sup>.<sup>43</sup> However, no near-infrared (NIR) emission was obtained.

35 Herein, a different approach was taken by utilizing the low  $n \rightarrow \pi^*$  transition energy intrinsic to thiocarbonyl groups and  
36 auxiliary electron-withdrawing groups. 4*H*-pyran-4-thione (PT, Scheme 1a) was chosen as a compact core. Assisted by density  
37 functional theory (DFT) prediction, electron-withdrawing groups were designed to be attached to its *meta* positions to further  
38 lower the  $T_1$  energies. Both of the resulting luminophores exhibited phosphorescence in solution at 77 K. Poly(methyl meth-  
39 acrylate) (PMMA) was then chosen as a matrix to endow them with RTP in ambient environment. Both the resulting polymer  
40 films emitted NIR RTP. Impressively, one phosphor emitted 750 nm RTP with a Stokes shift as large as 15485 cm<sup>-1</sup> ( $\lambda_{\text{abs}} = 347$   
41 nm), while its molar mass is only 162 g·mol<sup>-1</sup>. The amorphous character ensures that these polymer films had good processi-  
42 bility. Therefore, light-emitting diodes (LEDs) with NIR emission was easily fabricated by coating dye@PMMA on commer-  
43 cial ultraviolet (UV) LEDs. Scheme 1 illustrates this strategy and the design process.

44 Behaving very differently from ketones, thiones have received some attention historically,<sup>47</sup> but are largely neglected today.  
45 The frontier molecular orbitals of thiones involves sulfur atomic orbitals with a principal quantum number of 3. Therefore,  
46 their energies of lowest electronic transitions ( $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ ) are significantly lower compared to the corresponding ketones. Other  
47 typical properties of thiones include: highly forbidden  $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$  transitions; large  $S_2-S_1$  energy gaps; and very strong SOC, re-  
48 sulting in ultrafast transitions between singlets and triples and direct  $S_0 \rightarrow T_1$  absorbance.<sup>47</sup>

49 PT was chosen as the core because of its small size and possibility for substitution. Although PT had not been studied for  
50 ambient condition phosphorescence, its photophysical properties had been investigated at cryogenic and inert environments.<sup>48</sup>  
51 Basic properties were measured again using 2-MeTHF as solvent to develop a reference for the following DFT prediction of  
52 substituted molecules. As shown in Figure 1a, PT exhibited a maximum absorbance at 334 nm and a weak peak at about 519  
53 nm. Consistent with previous findings, the former was attributed to the  $S_0 \rightarrow S_2$  ( $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ ) transition and the latter to the forbidden  
54  $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$  ( $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ ) transition. Because of the solvent interactions herein (compared to perfluoroalkanes<sup>48</sup>),  $S_0 \rightarrow T_1$  direct absorb-  
55 ance was hidden in the  $n \rightarrow \pi^*$  tail, which is slightly broadened. At 77 K, the phosphorescence of PT had two local maxima at  
56 551 and 585 nm, which was further confirmed with delayed spectrum and decay measurement (Figure S19d, g).



57

58 **Scheme 1. Illustration of (a) initial conceptualization of mini NIR phosphors based on thiones; (b) synthesis and validation of**  
 59 **the predicted structure; (c) film fabrication (left), characterization results (middle) and comparison with other works<sup>43-46</sup>**  
 60 **(right, star: RTP; dot: fluorescence; M.W.: molecular weight; W.L.: wavelength); and (d) application as NIR-emitting LEDs.**

61 Since the low electronic transition energy of PT was attributed to the loose n-electron localized on the sulfur atom, it is  
 62 possible to further assist the excitation and lower the energy *via* substitution of an electron-withdrawing moiety on the aromatic  
 63 ring. A strong conjugated electron-withdrawing functional group, cyano group, was selected. Judging from resonance theory,  
 64 cyano groups should be placed on the *meta* positions relative to C=S to assist its  $n \rightarrow \pi^*$  transition, where cyano and thione  
 65 groups are separated by an odd number of double bonds. Fortunately, the designed molecule (4-thioxo-4*H*-pyran-2,6-dicar-  
 66 bonitrile, PTmCN) might be reasonably synthesized (Scheme 1b). First discovered in extracts of *Chelidonium majus*, cheli-  
 67 donic acid offered natural *meta* substitution sites on the  $\gamma$ -pyrone core, which could be later thiolated. PT with ethoxycarbonyl  
 68 groups as another electron-withdrawing group was synthetically possible too (diethyl 4-thioxo-4*H*-pyran-2,6-dicarboxylate,  
 69 PTmEst) from the intermediate.

70 Before carrying out the syntheses, the photophysical properties of PTmEst and PTmCN were predicted. Accurate prediction  
 71 of spectral maxima by DFT might be difficult, but assuming similar vibronic structures, using the calculated energy levels and  
 72 experimental spectra of PT itself as a reference should be enough. Calculations were done on ORCA<sup>49-51</sup> at M06-2X/def2-  
 73 QZVPP level. Vertical excitation energies and orbital contributions were calculated using time-dependent DFT at ground state  
 74 geometries. However, because phosphorescence emission is the most interested here, triplet state geometries and vertical emis-  
 75 sion energies were calculated using unrestricted Kohn-Sham (see Supporting Information, SI).

Dye	Calc. vert. energies (eV)		Pred. wavelengths (nm)	
	Excitation <sup>a</sup>	Emission	Absorption <sup>a</sup>	Emission <sup>b</sup>
PT (ref.)	2.42, 4.34	1.92	-	-
PT <i>m</i> Est	2.18, 4.01	1.53	578, 366	668, 719
PT <i>m</i> CN	2.08, 4.09	1.44	605, 357	702, 758
PT <i>o</i> CN	2.28, 3.97	1.66	551, 371	626, 670

77 Two values refer to (a) transition to  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ , (b) two phosphorescence maxima both from  $T_1$ .

78 Table 1 shows that substitution on *meta* positions can cause significant redshifts for both absorption and phosphorescence.

79 PT*m*Est and PT*m*CN could have NIR phosphorescence peaks above 700 nm, while the substitution at *ortho* positions (PT*o*CN)

80 had limited redshift, matching the expectations. Table S1 shows that  $S_1$  and  $T_1$  of all calculated molecules were dominated by

81 HOMO→LUMO transition. As all HOMOs were constructed from  $n$  orbitals on sulfur atom, only LUMOs of PT*m*Est and

82 PT*m*CN incorporated the electron-withdrawing substitution, and the effect of *ortho*-CN on LUMO is trivial (Figures 1d–f,

83 S20).

84 Based on the prediction, PT*m*Est and PT*m*CN were successfully synthesized following the planned route (see SI for details).

85 Their solutions showed weak  $S_0$ → $S_1$  absorption maxima at about 602 and 627 nm, respectively, confirming that the effect of

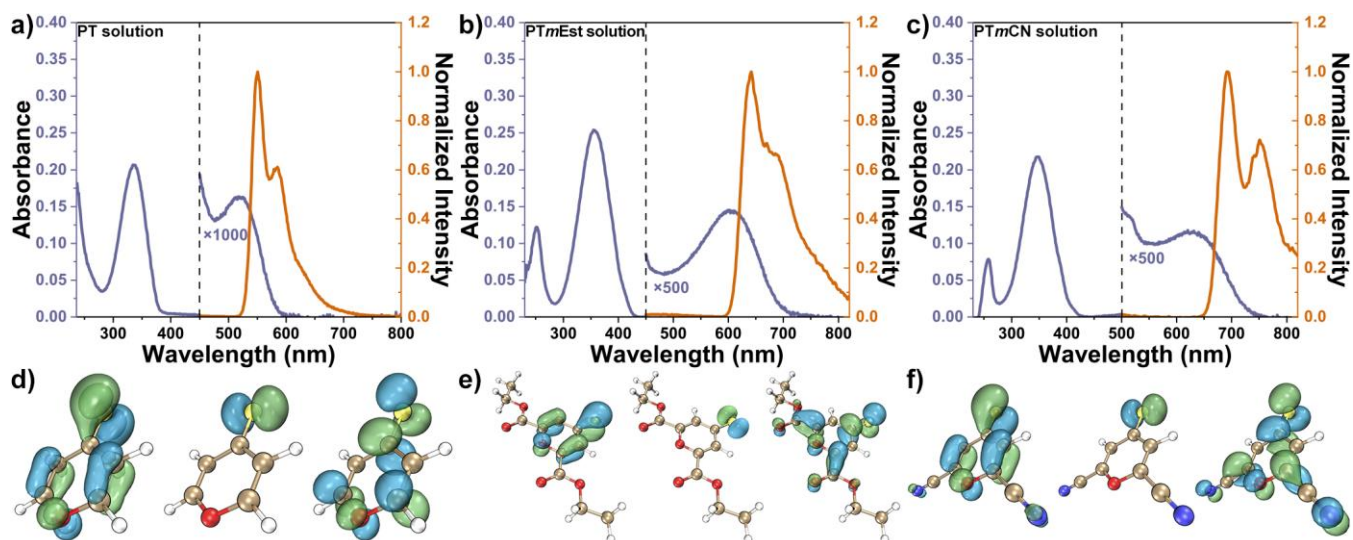
86 cyano groups was stronger than that of ethoxycarbonyl groups (Figure 1b, c). Interestingly, the  $S_0$ → $S_2$  transitions exhibited the

87 opposite trend (Table S2), which also agreed with the calculations (Table 1). Dominated by HOMO-1→LUMO transition, the

88  $S_2$  state of PT and PT*m*Est does not involve the high energy  $n$  orbital (Table S1), and the stronger electron-withdrawing sub-

89 stitution only shifted excitation energy towards a higher level by deepening the HOMO-1 orbital. Their  $S_0$ → $T_1$  absorptions

90 were also present as a tail extending to the emission spectra discussed below.

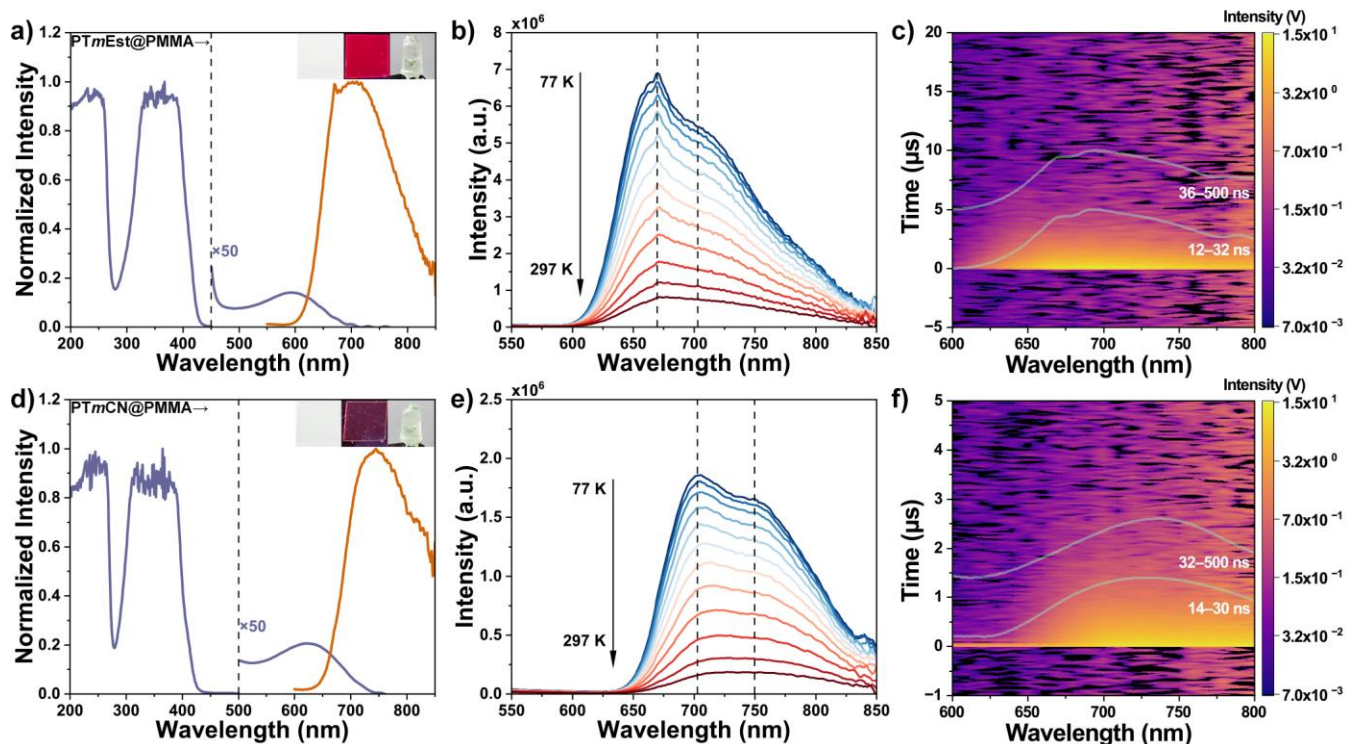


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92 Figure 1. Absorbance (purple lines,  $1 \times 10^{-5}$  M) at room temperature and steady-state emission (orange lines,  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  M) at 77 K in 2-MeTHF  
 93 solution of (a) PT, (b) PT*m*Est, and (c) PT*m*CN. HOMO-1 (left), HOMO (middle) and LUMO (right) of (d) PT, (e) PT*m*Est, and (f) PT*m*CN.  
 94 Zoomed absorptions used 200 times concentrations before scaling an appropriate factor.

95 The solutions of the two dyes were then excited using their  $S_0 \rightarrow S_2$  absorptions at 77 K (Figure 1b, c). PTmEst exhibited a  
96 significantly redshifted emission compared to PT, with two peaks at 641 and 691 nm. PTmCN redshifted even more, exhibiting  
97 emission at 696 and 753 nm. Both major and minor peaks had excitation spectra matching the absorptions and the same life-  
98 times (Figure S19). Rise in relative excitation intensity at  $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$  absorption range was observed at higher concentrations ( $2 \times 10^{-3}$   
99 M), further confirming the emission species since weak absorption peaks rise more in excitation spectra, a consequence of  
100 the definition of absorbance values. The delayed spectra and decay profiles (Figure S19), along with the absence of prompt  
101 emission within 50 and 500 ns range (Figure S21) confirmed their pure delayed emission nature. Additionally, they exhibited  
102 shorter lifetimes than PT because of energy gap law. These photophysical properties were summarized in Table S2. Due to the  
103 short lifetimes and proximity between emissions and  $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$  absorptions, the attribution to phosphorescence emission needed  
104 to be confirmed despite resemblance with PT. Figure S22 shows that these emission intensities decreased and decayed faster  
105 from 77 K to 137 K. At the solvent melting point, the peaks disappeared due to diffusion quenching by oxygen, confirming  
106 the phosphorescence emissions.

107 To endow these phosphors with NIR RTP, we set out to find a suitable polymer matrix. Ideally, polymers with hydrogen  
108 bonding networks like polyvinyl alcohol would apply. However, PMMA was chosen because thiones are sensitive to weak  
109 nucleophiles like alcohols.<sup>52</sup> PMMA with a high glass transition temperature would reasonably provide a rigid environment  
110 for the phosphors and shield water, *i.e.*, another nucleophile. The phosphors were respectively dissolved with PMMA in di-  
111 chloromethane, followed by casting and drying (see SI). The resulting doped films were named dye@PMMA. As shown in  
112 Figure 2a and 2d, the absorptions of PTmEst@PMMA and PTmCN@PMMA were like those in solutions, including the major  
113 and forbidden peaks. NIR RTP was successfully achieved. The emissions of dyes were broadened in PMMA compared to the  
114 solutions, which was expected because of the more complex environment in polymer matrices. The delayed spectra matched  
115 the corresponding steady-state spectra and the excitation spectra also matched the absorptions, including  $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$  excitation  
116 peaks due to larger concentrations (1 wt%) in films (Figure S24). Other than broadening, the relative intensities of the original  
117 two phosphorescence peaks changed in PMMA. For example, PTmCN solution exhibited two maxima at 696 and 753 nm at  
118 77 K, with the former being dominant. But PTmCN@PMMA peaked at 750 nm. Temperature ramping experiment from 77 K  
119 (Figure 2e) shows that the emission intensity became weaker at elevating temperature, as normal phosphorescence does, but  
120 the second peak fell slower. As a result, it dominated at room temperature, further contributing to its ultralong wavelength.  
121 Calculated vibrationally resolved spectra (Figure S26c) also shows an increase in relative Franck–Condon intensity of the  
122 second peak of PTmCN at room temperature compared to 77 K, while the Herzberg–Teller part remained unchanged, suggest-  
123 ing that vibronic levels distributions were the main reason. However, geometry relaxation at higher temperatures could also  
124 contribute.



125

126 Figure 2. Spectra of (a–c) *PTmEst*@PMMA and (b–d) *PTmCN*@PMMA films in ambient environment. (a, d) Normalized absorption (purple lines) and steady-state emission (orange lines) spectra. Inset: photo of polymer films under ambient light (left) and 365 nm UV (middle),  
 127 along with polymer coated LED (right). (b, e) Temperature ramping steady-state emission spectra. (c, f) Decay map and reconstructed transient spectra.  
 128  
 129

130 Rising temperature from 77 K caused the emission lifetimes of *PTmEst*@PMMA and *PTmCN*@PMMA to decrease (Figure  
 131 S25b, c). At room temperature, due to proximity of decay curves to instrument response using microsecond flashlamp, a setup  
 132 using Nd:YAG laser was used to accurately measure the emission dynamics. Decay profiles (Figure S25e, f) indicates the sub-  
 133 microsecond lifetimes. Uniform decay across the wavelengths (Figure 2c, f) shows that the same peak dominated within short  
 134 and long timescales, confirming the ultrafast  $S_1 \rightarrow T_1$  and  $T_1 \rightarrow S_0$  transitions typical of thiones, as  $T_1 \rightarrow S_0$  was further accelerated  
 135 according to energy gap law. The photophysical properties of dye@PMMA (including *PT*@PMMA) were summarized in  
 136 Scheme 1c and Table S3. As shown in Figure 2 inset, the films were almost colorless under ambient light because of forbidden  
 137  $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$  transitions. Under UV, red light onset could be seen from *PTmEst*@PMMA, but only dim light was observed from  
 138 *PTmCN*@PMMA because most of the spectrum was outside the visible range.

139 Powder X-ray diffraction (Figure S27) of all doped films exhibited patterns of amorphous materials, ensuring their good  
 140 processibility. Therefore, dichloromethane solutions of the phosphors and PMMA were dripped on commercial UV LEDs,  
 141 followed by drying (Scheme 1d, Figure 2 inset). Energy transfer *via* trivial mechanism occurred between UV LED and  
 142 dye@PMMA coatings. Electroluminescence spectra shows that LEDs with NIR emission was successfully fabricated (Figure  
 143 S28), but the NIR portion was small because the visible portion of UV LEDs could not be absorbed.

144 In conclusion, two mini NIR phosphors with thiocarbonyl and electron-withdrawing groups were predicted and synthesized  
145 starting from a natural product. Electron deficient cores successfully facilitated the  $n \rightarrow \pi^*$  transition from the loose n-electron  
146 on sulfur, which is however very different from the donor-acceptor strategy since thiocarbonyl had not been considered as a  
147 conventional donor. NIR RTP doped films were made with a maximum RTP wavelength of 750 nm and Stokes shift of 15485  
148  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (403 nm) from an emitter weighing only 162  $\text{g} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ . The good processibility of the polymer films allowed them to be  
149 easily coated on UV LEDs, yielding LEDs with NIR emissions. This research provides an interesting mechanism to achieve  
150 NIR RTP of small luminophores with practical values.

## 151 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### 152 Supporting Information

153 The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website.

154 Materials, methods, detailed experimental procedures, characterization of substances, and additional experimental data (PDF).

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## 158 ACKNOWLEDGMENT

159 We gratefully acknowledge the financial support from the National Key Research and Development Program of China (Grant No.  
160 2022YFB3203500), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (22125803 and 22020102006), and the Fundamental Research Funds  
161 for the Central Universities.

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