

Week 3

Optical Properties 1

Born-Oppenheimer and Franck-Condon

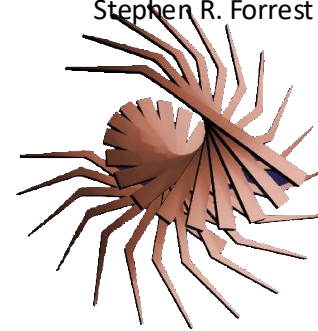
Fermi's golden rule

Transitions and selection rules

Interpreting spectra and the energy gap law

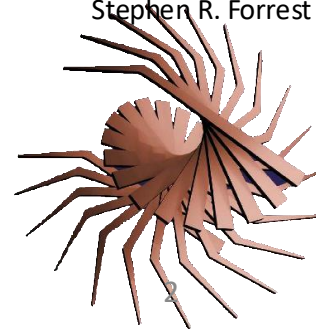
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Chapter 3.1 - 3.6



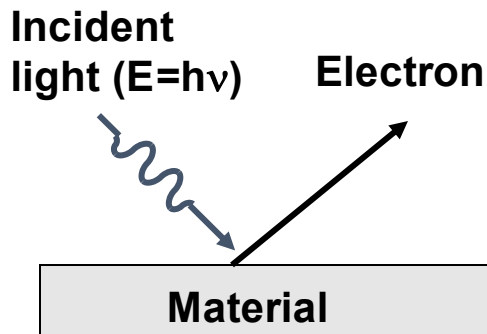
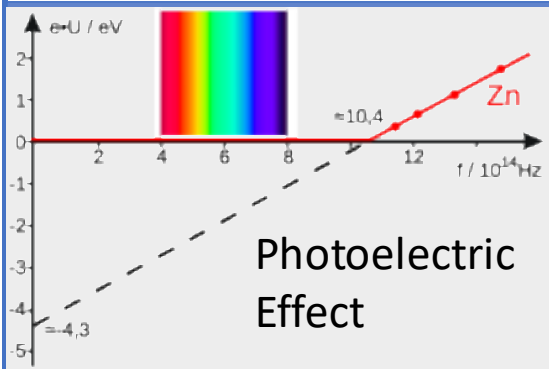
Objectives

- Optical properties are the *core to understanding* molecules both independently, in solutions, and in solids
- We will spend approximately 4 lectures on developing the physics and understanding optical phenomena
- Primarily, our understanding is based on quantum mechanics (but not always)
- Our discussion will take the following path:
 - Single molecules (and orbitals) \Rightarrow pairs and small assemblies \Rightarrow solids



Principles Of Quantum Mechanics

Energy Quanta



Electron current observed at photon energy $h\nu > \phi_m$
 ϕ_m = metal work function.

Einstein, 1905

Wave-Particle Duality

Waves show particle-like behavior (photons=light)

Particles show wave-like behavior (electron=wave)

de Broglie Wavelength $\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$

$$h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J-s}$$

Electrons are a wave!

Electrons are a particle!

(Can't you make up your mind?!)

de Broglie, 1924

Uncertainty Principle

Uncertainty in position/momentum of particle and energy/momentum of wave

$$\Delta p \Delta x \geq \hbar$$

$$\Delta E \Delta t \geq \hbar$$

$$\hbar = h/2\pi$$

A particle, like a wave, is not at a single spot

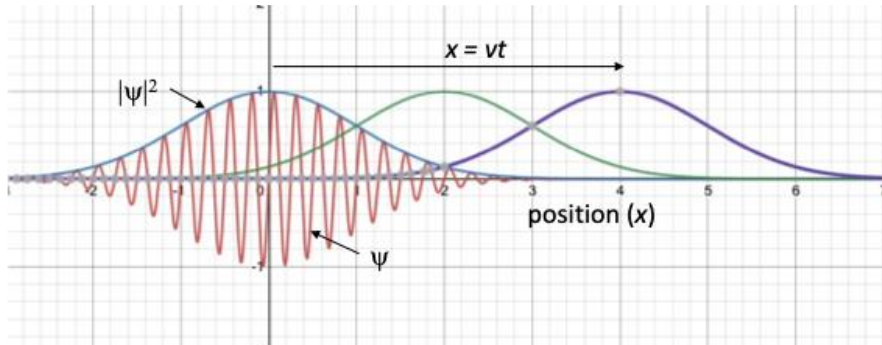
Heisenberg, 1927

Wave-particle duality

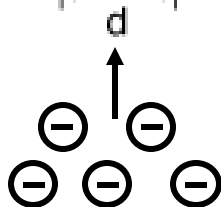
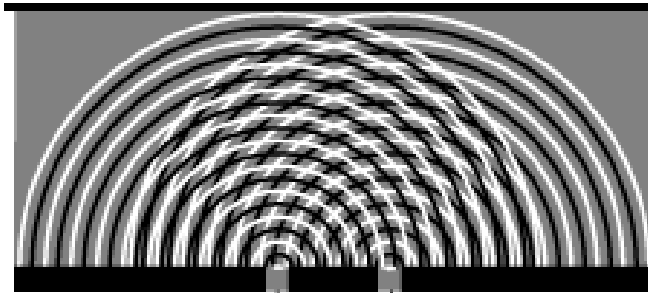
Electron beam incident on “double-slit”

Detect electrons on other side

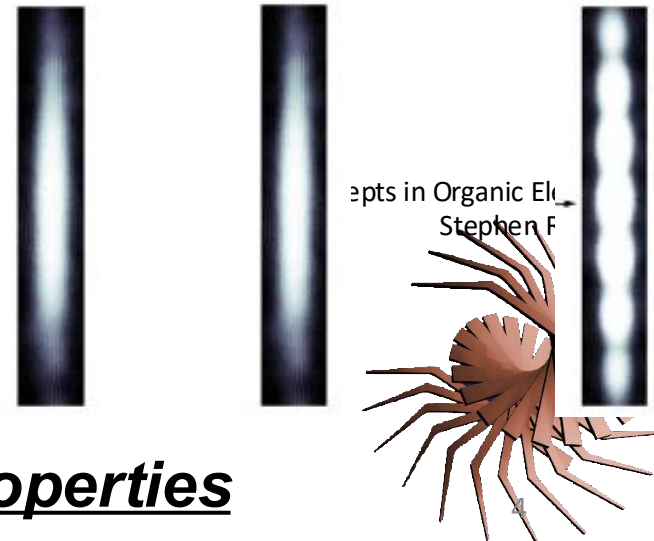
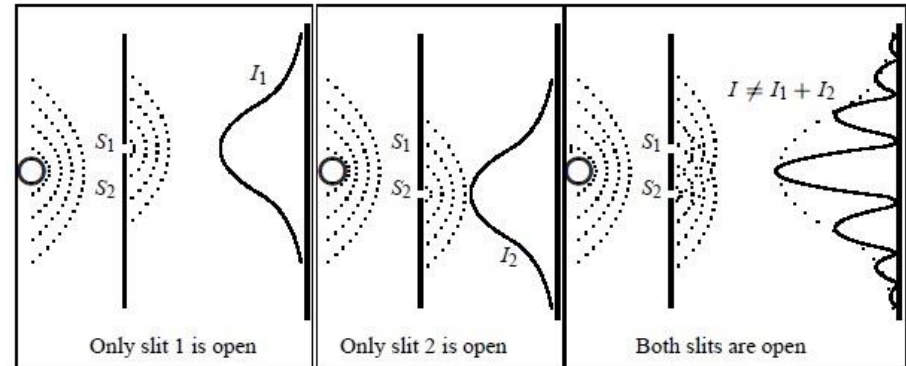
Electron described by a wave packet



detect here



Result



Electrons have wave-like properties

Electron states in a Hydrogen Atom

Schrödinger's Equation is the Foundation of Quantum Mechanics

Schrödinger's Equation

$\psi(x)$ is the *probability amplitude* that a particle will be at x.

$|\psi(x)|^2$ is its actual **probability**

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \text{KE} & + & \text{PE} & = & \text{Total E} \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V(r) \right) \psi = E\psi \end{array}$$

$$V(r) = -\frac{q^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \quad \nabla^2 = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}$$

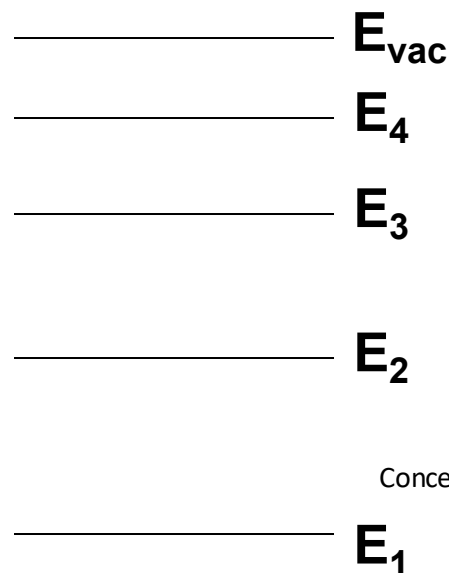
Solution for Hydrogen atom

$$E = -\frac{m_0 q^4}{2(4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar n)^2} = -\frac{13.6\text{eV}}{n^2}$$

$n = 1, 2, 3\ldots$ (Principal quantum number)

$\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-14}$ F/cm (Permittivity of free space)

Discrete Energy Levels



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**“Accurately” predicts the spectrum of H,
and every other atom and compound
ever examined**

Electronic Orbitals

The Born-Oppenheimer Approximation

- Understanding molecular energetics requires knowledge of the molecular orbital structure
- To calculate the wavefunction, write the **spinorbital** wavefunction:

$$\Psi(\{\mathbf{r}_i\}; \{\mathbf{R}_j\}; \{S_k\}) = \Phi(\{\mathbf{r}_i\}; \{\mathbf{R}_j\}) \sigma(\{S_k\})$$

Electronic Nuclear Spin

$\{\mathbf{r}_i\} = \mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N$ = all electron position vectors.

$\{\mathbf{R}_i\} = \mathbf{R}_1, \mathbf{R}_2, \dots, \mathbf{R}_M$ = all nuclear position vectors.

- To make the problem of excited and ground state calculations tractable, we invoke the **Born-Oppenheimer approximation**:
 - Electronic and nuclear motions are *independent*
 \Rightarrow Wavefunctions and variables are separable

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Singlet and triplet states

Spatially symm. Spin antisymm.

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2; 0, 0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\phi_a(\mathbf{r}_1)\phi_b(\mathbf{r}_2) + \phi_a(\mathbf{r}_2)\phi_b(\mathbf{r}_1)) (\alpha_1\beta_2 - \alpha_2\beta_1)$$

Singlet
S=0
m_s=0

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2; 1, 1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\phi_a(\mathbf{r}_1)\phi_b(\mathbf{r}_2) - \phi_a(\mathbf{r}_2)\phi_b(\mathbf{r}_1)) \alpha_1\alpha_2$$

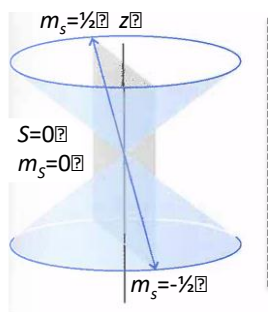
$$\psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2; 1, 0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\phi_a(\mathbf{r}_1)\phi_b(\mathbf{r}_2) - \phi_a(\mathbf{r}_2)\phi_b(\mathbf{r}_1)) (\alpha_1\beta_2 + \alpha_2\beta_1)$$

Triplet
S=1
m_s=±1, 0

and

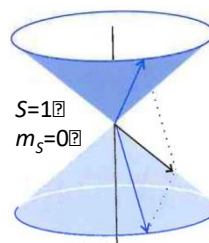
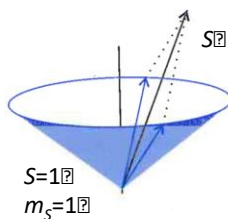
$$\psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2; 1, -1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\phi_a(\mathbf{r}_1)\phi_b(\mathbf{r}_2) - \phi_a(\mathbf{r}_2)\phi_b(\mathbf{r}_1)) \beta_1\beta_2$$

180° out of phase

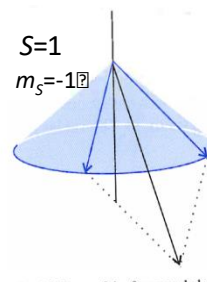


(a)

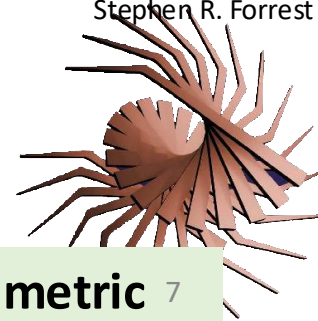
In phase



(b)



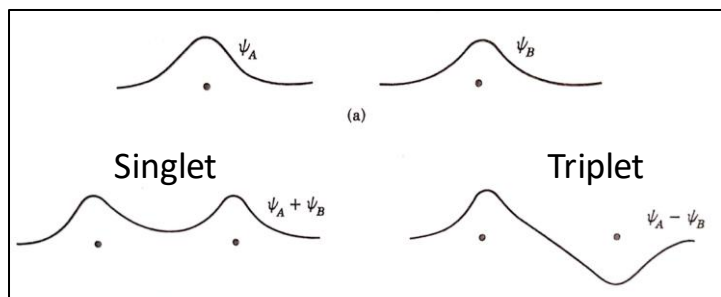
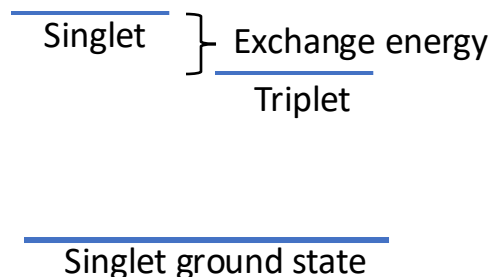
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Pauli Exclusion Principle: Total wavefunctions must be antisymmetric 7

Answers to a couple of questions

- Why do triplet states have lower energy than singlets?



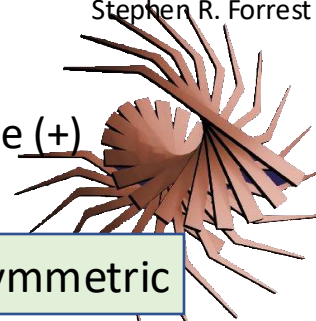
Symmetric **spatial states** have electrons in closer proximity than antisymmetric states
 → larger Coulomb repulsive energy

- Why does the wavefunction have to be antisymmetric to agree with Pauli exclusion?
 - Take two particle wavefunctions, $|1\rangle, |2\rangle$
 - The total wavefunction is a linear combination of the two under exchange:

$$|tot\rangle = \text{constant} \times \{|1\rangle|2\rangle \pm |2\rangle|1\rangle\}$$

- If $|1\rangle = |2\rangle$ the antisymmetric wavefunction (-) vanishes but the symmetric one (+) does not.

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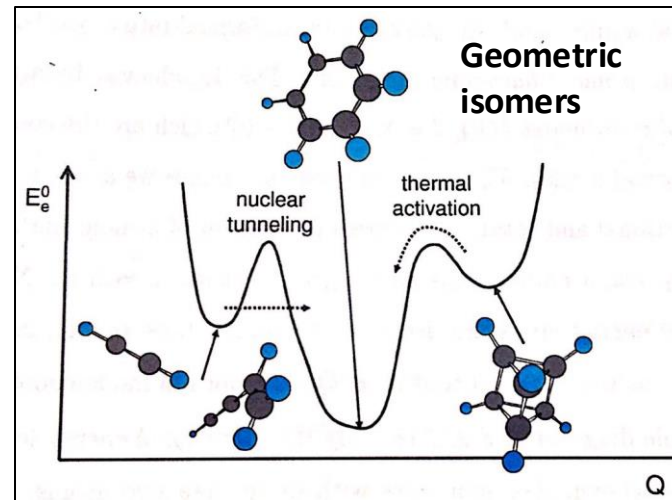
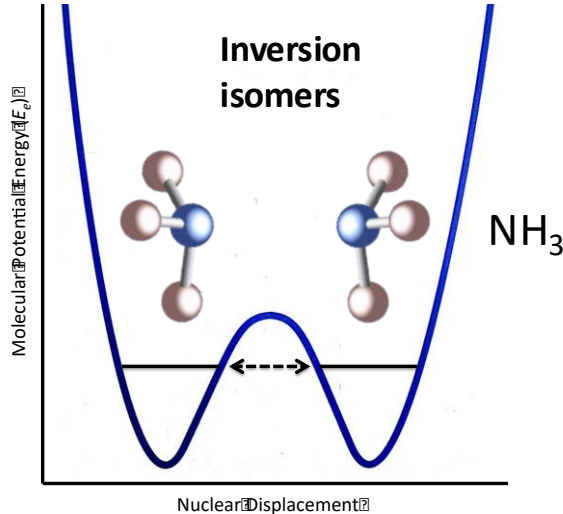
Pauli Exclusion demands no two electrons occupy the same state ⇒ antisymmetric

Solving for the orbitals

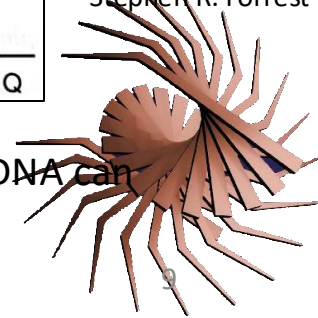
- This is solved by taking the product of the N-electron wavefunctions for an M-atom system:

$$\phi_e^0(\{\mathbf{r}_i\}) = \prod_{i=1}^N \phi_{e,i}^0(\mathbf{r}_i)$$

- But we still don't know what the minimum energy nuclear configuration is—there can be one or many **isomers** at different energies!
 - Isomer** = each of two or more compounds with the same formula (e.g. C_6H_6) but a different arrangement of atoms in the molecule, and with different properties.



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Topological isomers: When the same molecule can have different topologies (i.e. DNA can have both helices and knots).

H₂⁺ molecular orbitals

- Wavefunctions split by **Coulomb repulsion**

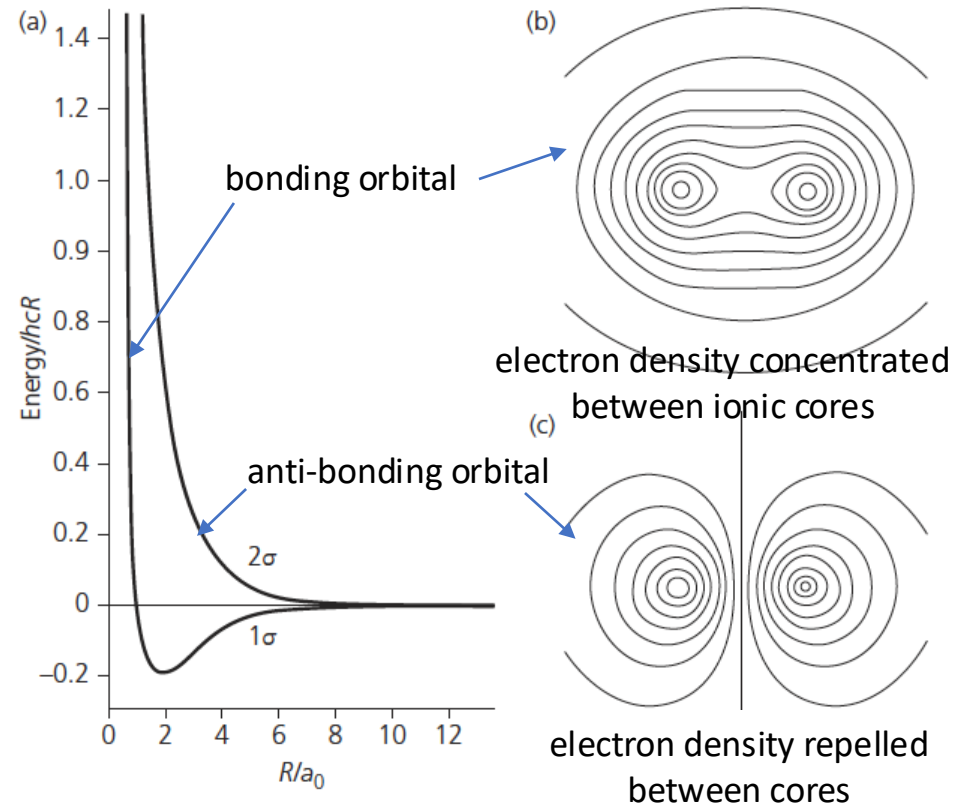
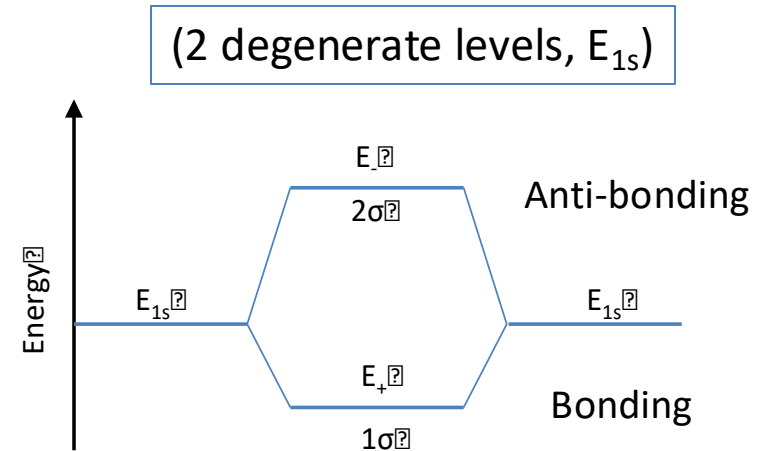
$$1\sigma: \psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\phi'_r + \phi'_s)$$

$$(c_r = c_s = 1)$$

$$2\sigma: \psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\phi'_r - \phi'_s)$$

$$(c_r = -c_s = 1)$$

Splitting increases
as distance decreases



Linear Combination of Atomic Orbitals (LCAO)

- To determine the energies of all the orbitals, we start by assuming that they are simply linear combinations of electronic states of the comprising atoms
- Original atomic orbitals only slightly perturbed when placed within the molecule
 - First order perturbation theory applies
 - M atoms, L orbitals
- The most important electron is the last electron that completes the valence states of the molecule.

$$\psi_i(\mathbf{r}_i) = \sum_{j=1}^M \sum_{k=1}^L c_{ijk} \phi_{jk}(\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{R}_j)$$

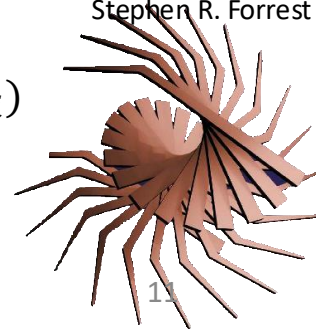
↑ Molecular orbitals
 ↑ Unperturbed atomic orbitals

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- But B-O says that nuclear positions are separable:

$$\psi_i(\mathbf{r}_i) = \sum_{k=1}^M c_{ik} \phi_k(\mathbf{r}_i)$$

New, electron-only atomic orbitals



Solving for Larger Molecules

$$(H - E)\psi = 0$$

$$H_{rr} = \left\langle \psi_r \left| \frac{1}{r} \right| \psi_r \right\rangle = \alpha$$

$$H_{rs} = \left\langle \psi_r \left| \frac{1}{r} \right| \psi_s \right\rangle = \beta$$

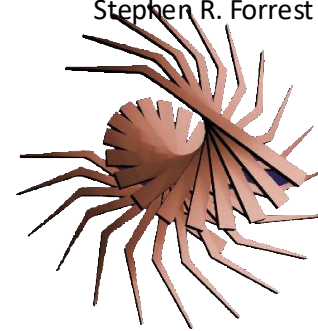
ψ_r & ψ_s are orthonormal, i.e.

$$\int \psi_r \psi_s d^3r = \delta_{rs}$$

Hückel rule:

Only nearest neighbors considered: $H_{rs} = 0$ unless $|r-s| = 1$

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We can write anti-symmetric functions in terms of determinants

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \det \begin{vmatrix} \Phi^-(\mathbf{r}_1) & \Phi^+(\mathbf{r}_1) \\ \Phi^-(\mathbf{r}_2) & \Phi^+(\mathbf{r}_2) \end{vmatrix}$$

det=0 if any two rows or columns are identical

More generally, for N electrons, we write the **Slater determinant**:

$$\psi(\{\mathbf{r}_i\}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N!}} \det \begin{vmatrix} \Phi^a(\mathbf{r}_1) & \Phi^b(\mathbf{r}_1) & \dots & \Phi^z(\mathbf{r}_1) \\ \Phi^a(\mathbf{r}_2) & \Phi^b(\mathbf{r}_2) & \dots & \Phi^z(\mathbf{r}_2) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \Phi^a(\mathbf{r}_N) & \Phi^b(\mathbf{r}_N) & \dots & \Phi^z(\mathbf{r}_N) \end{vmatrix}$$

B-O implies that the nuclear and electronic parts of the wavefunction are separable:

$$\Phi(\{\mathbf{r}_i\}, \{\mathbf{R}_I\}) = \phi_e(\{\mathbf{r}_i\}, \{\mathbf{R}_I\}) \phi_N(\{\mathbf{R}_I\})$$

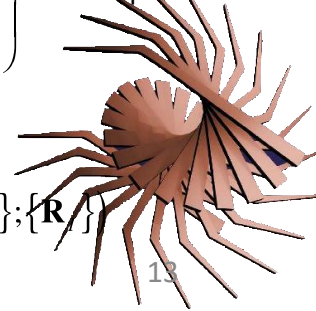
Total Hamiltonian:

$$H_T = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \sum_i \nabla_{\mathbf{r}_i}^2 - \frac{\hbar^2}{2} \sum_I \frac{1}{m_{NI}} \nabla_{\mathbf{R}_I}^2 + \frac{q^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\sum_{i>j}^N \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|} - \sum_{i,I}^{N,M} \frac{Z_I}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{R}_I|} + \sum_{I>J}^M \frac{Z_I Z_J}{|\mathbf{R}_I - \mathbf{R}_J|} \right)$$

Just the electronic part:

$$H_e \phi_e(\{\mathbf{r}_i\}; \{\mathbf{R}_I\}) = \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \sum_i \nabla_{\mathbf{r}_i}^2 + \frac{q^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\sum_{i>j}^N \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|} - \sum_{i,I}^{N,M} \frac{Z_I}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{R}_I|} \right) \right] \phi_e(\{\mathbf{r}_i\}; \{\mathbf{R}_I\}) = E_e \phi_e(\{\mathbf{r}_i\}; \{\mathbf{R}_I\})$$

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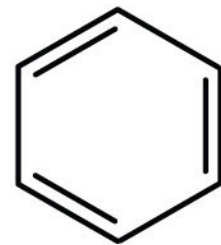


Benzene: Solving for a simple molecule

$$(H - E)\psi = 0$$

6x6 Secular determinant: \det

$$\begin{vmatrix} \alpha - E & \beta & 0 & 0 & 0 & \beta \\ \beta & \alpha - E & \beta & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \beta & \alpha - E & \beta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \beta & \alpha - E & \beta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \beta & \alpha - E & \beta \\ \beta & 0 & 0 & 0 & \beta & \alpha - E \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

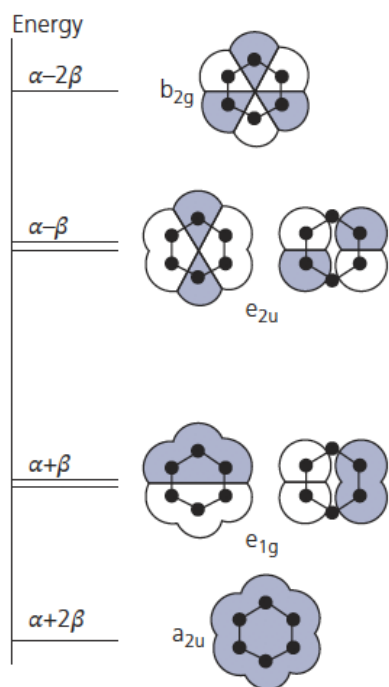


Yields valence solutions:

$$E(a_1) = \alpha + 2\beta; E(e_2) = \alpha + \beta; E(e_1) = \alpha - \beta; E(b_1) = \alpha - 2\beta$$

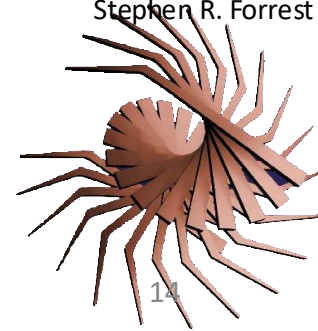
$\alpha, \beta < 0$

Constant offset



u =ungerade; spatially odd
 g =gerade; spatially even

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Density Functional Theory

- The primary approach to calculate molecular orbitals is density functional theory

- Replaces electron distribution by an **electron density functional**

$$\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{k=1}^n |\phi_k(\mathbf{r}_i)|^2$$

- Then energy is a function of local charge density

$$E(\rho) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \sum_{i=1}^n \int \phi_e^*(\mathbf{r}) \nabla^2 \phi_e^*(\mathbf{r}) d^3r - \sum_{I=1}^M \int \frac{Z_I q^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{R}_I|} \rho(\mathbf{r}) d^3r + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \int \int \left[\frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}_i) \rho(\mathbf{r}_j)}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|} \right] d^3r_i d^3r_j + E_{XC}(\rho)$$

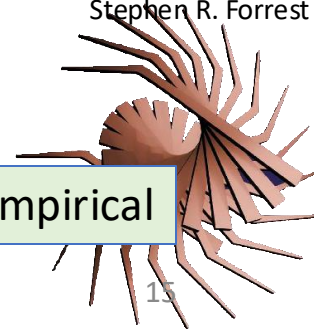
- With exchange-correlation energy (the outer electrons interact and their collective motion is cooperative) : local density approximation

$$E_{XC} = \int \rho(\mathbf{r}) \epsilon \rho(\mathbf{r}) d^3\mathbf{r}$$

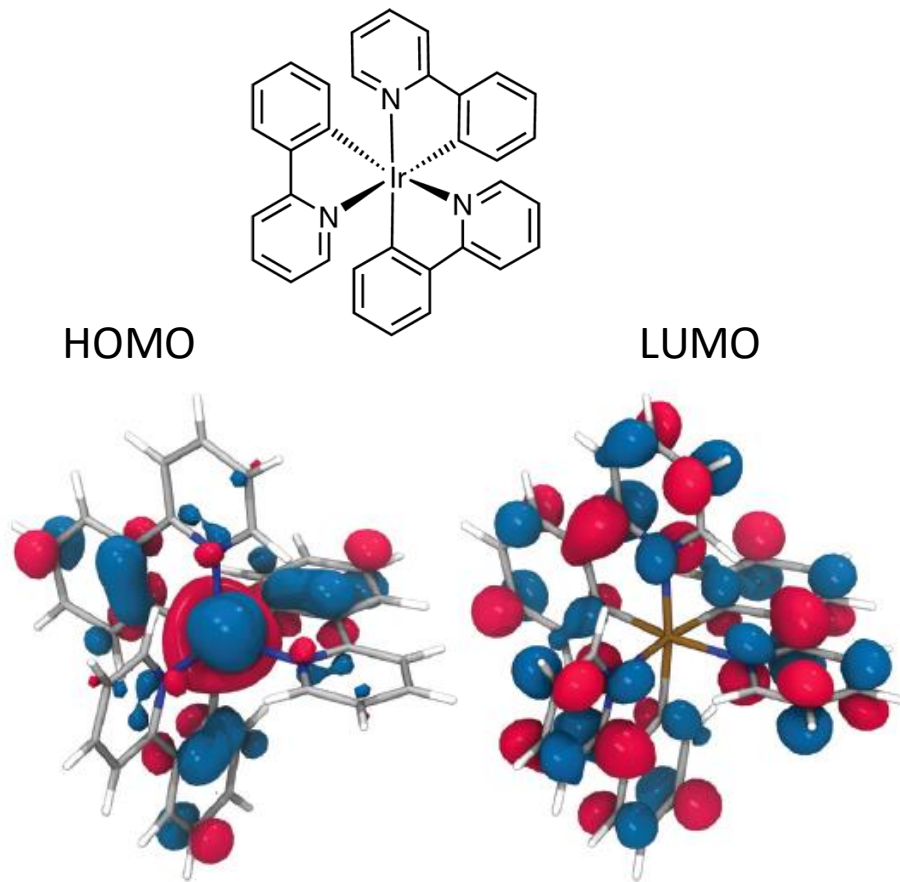
Single electron exchange energy

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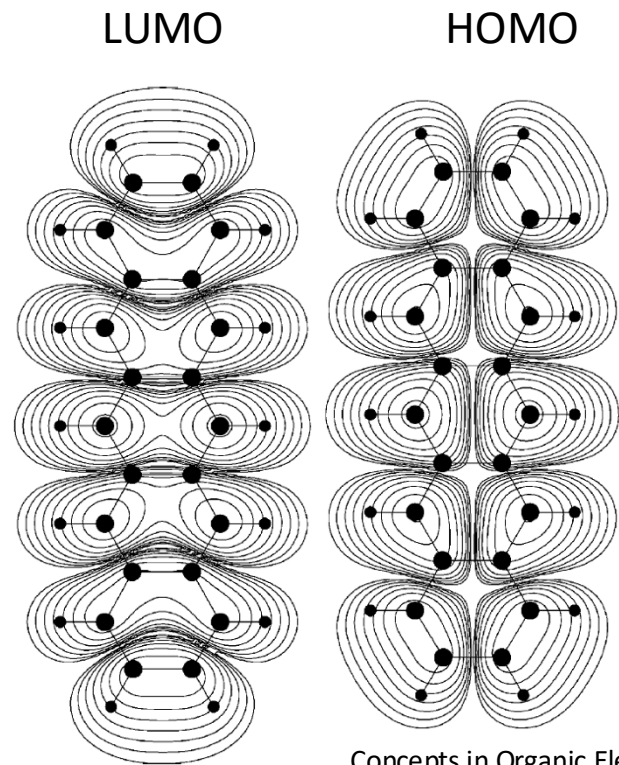
The trick is finding the correct basis set and density functional: Semi-empirical



DFT Examples: Ir(ppy)₃ and Pentacene

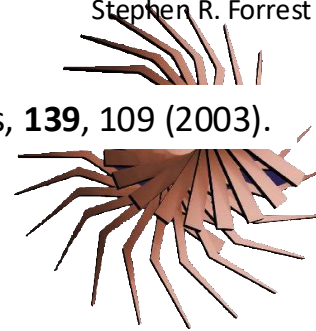


J. Frey, J., et al. (2014). Dalton Transactions, **43**, 5667–5679

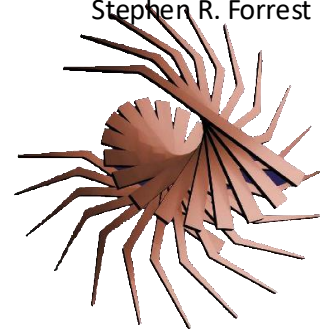
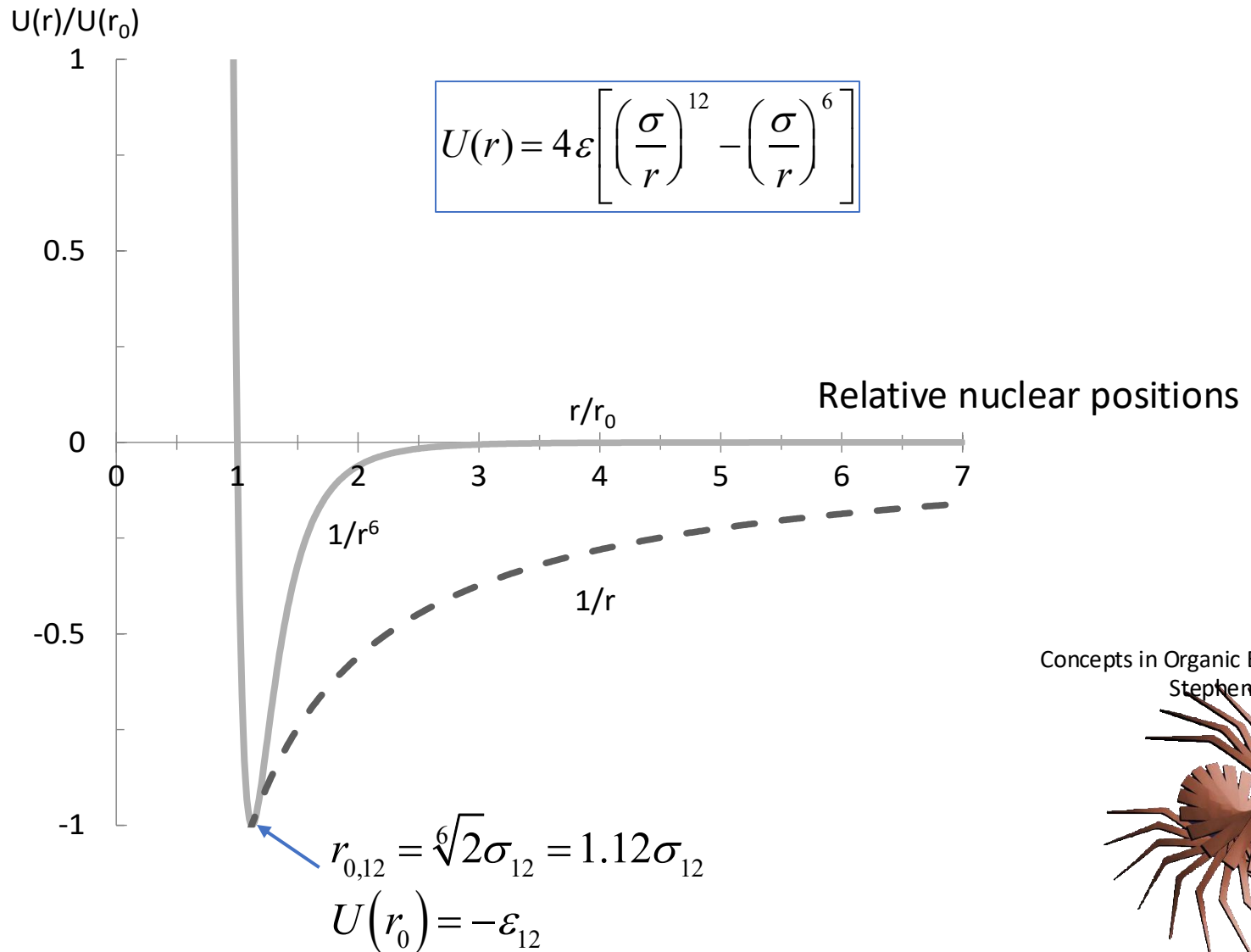


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de Wijs et al. Synthetic Metals, **139**, 109 (2003).



vdW Potential is the basic intermolecular interaction

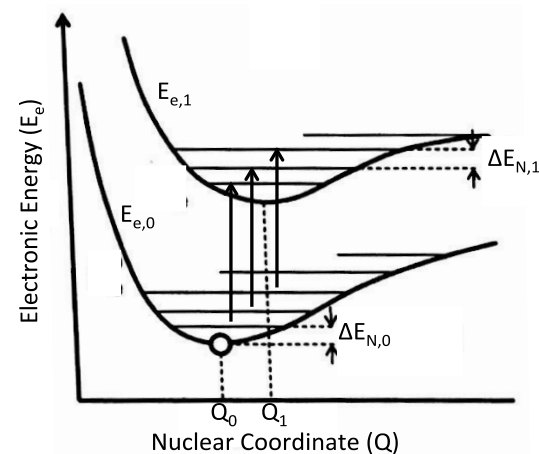


Luckily, we only have to worry about things near equilibrium

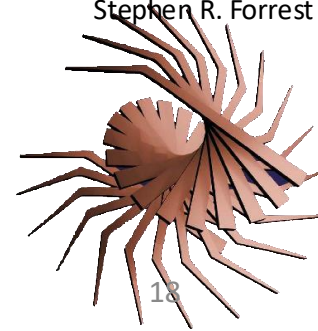
- Recall, the molecule is held together by covalent, i.e. Coulomb forces. And near the bottom of the potential (in relative coordinates!) it “looks” like a parabola
 - Simple Harmonic Oscillator (SHO) with solutions for the j^{th} electronic level, l^{th} normal mode:

$$E_{N,j} = \hbar \sum_{l=1}^{3N-6} \omega_l(E_{e,j}) \left[n_l(E_{e,j}) + \frac{1}{2} \right]$$

- Things to notice:
 - A shift in **nuclear coordinates** between the ground and first excited state ($\Delta Q = |Q_1 - Q_0|$)
 - Only relative nuclear coordinates (Q) are important.
 - Equal spacing of levels near bottom of an electronic manifold
 - These “inner levels” called vibronics
 - They are phonon modes (e.g. C-H, C-C, C=C Vibrations)
 - Vibronics “compress” as we go to higher energies.



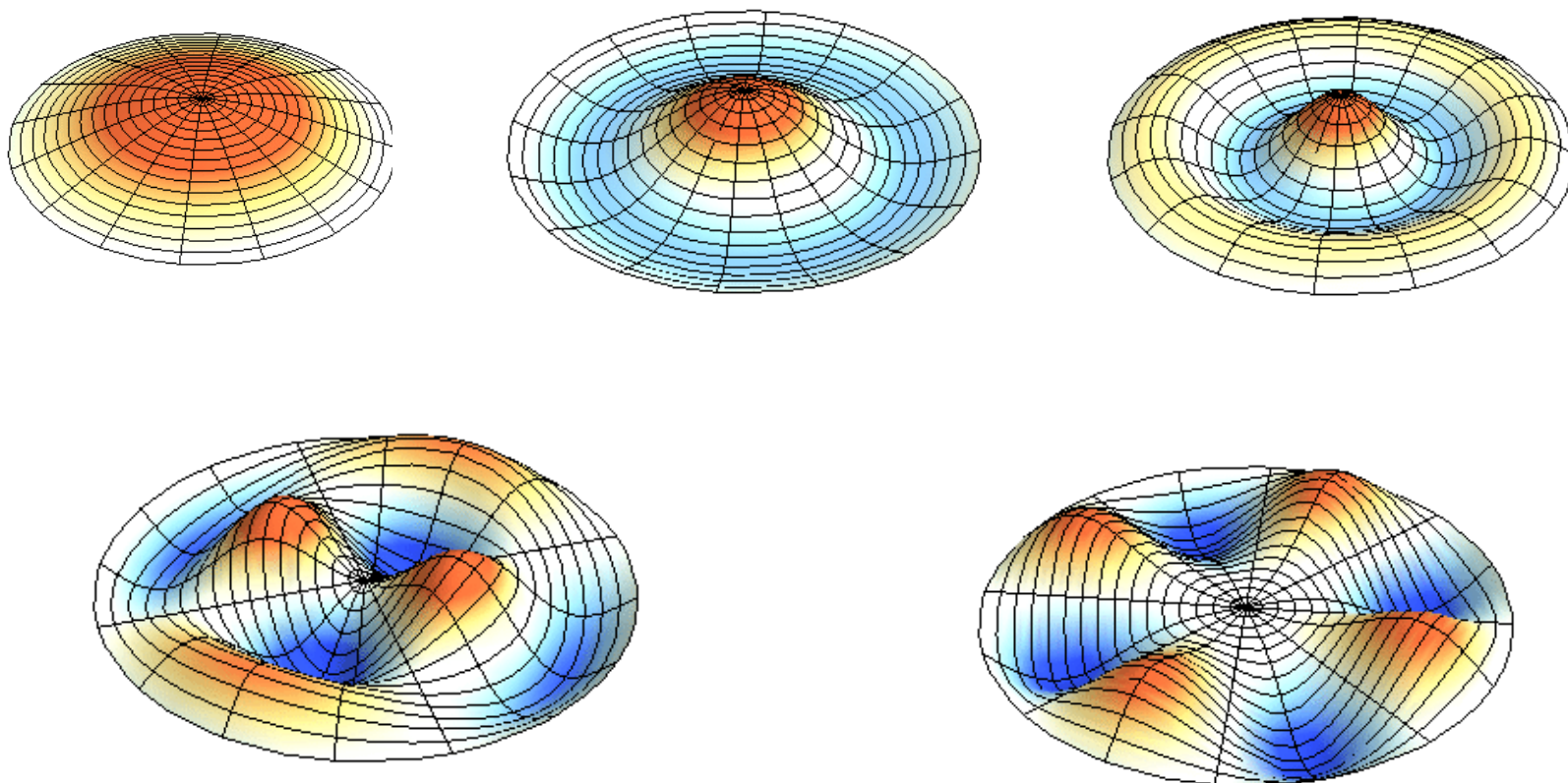
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Intramolecular phonons

Think of benzene as an approximately circular drumhead

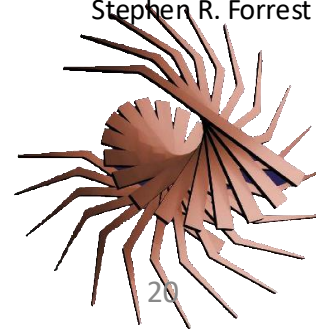
These represent several of the lowest possible normal vibrational modes



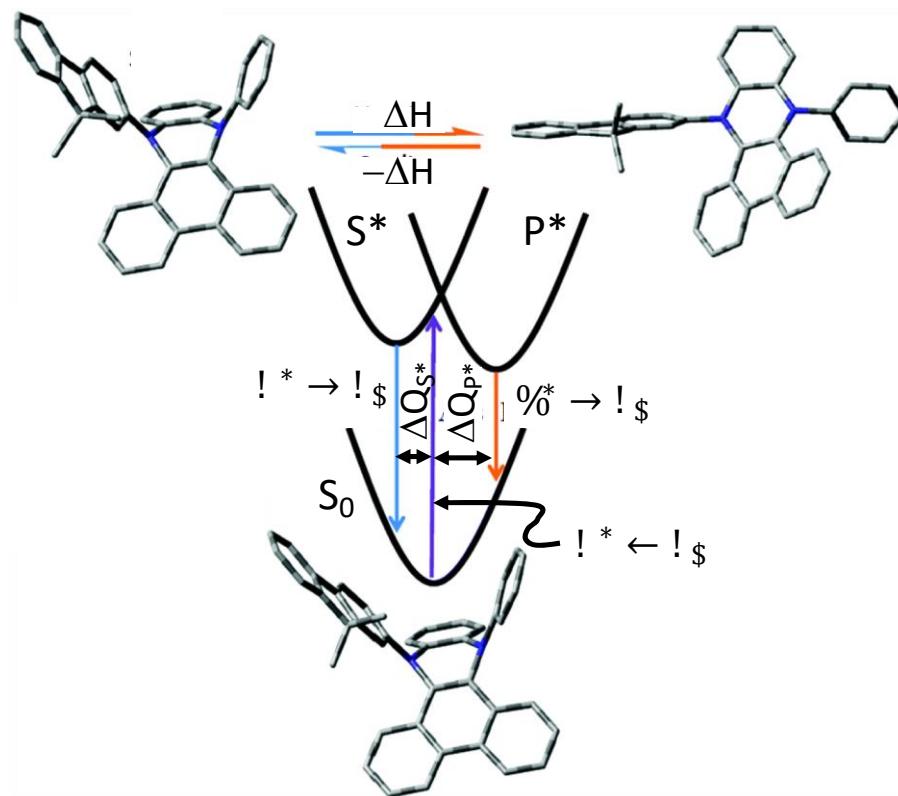
Another important approximation

- **Franck-Condon Principle**

- Molecules relax after excitation, but we assume that relaxation takes place on a time scale much slower than the excitation (i.e. absorption or emission of a photon).
- That is, the electron distribution changes upon excitation much faster than the nuclear positions change (they are “static” during transitions) due to their larger mass.
 - Electronic time scales: femtoseconds ($\sim 1/\nu$)
 - Nuclear time scales: picoseconds (phonon lifetime)
- Implication: All transitions are vertical



Molecular reconfiguration leads to Stokes shifts

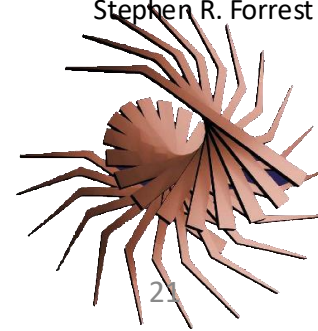


Two excited isomers

S^* : saddle-like

P^* : planar-like

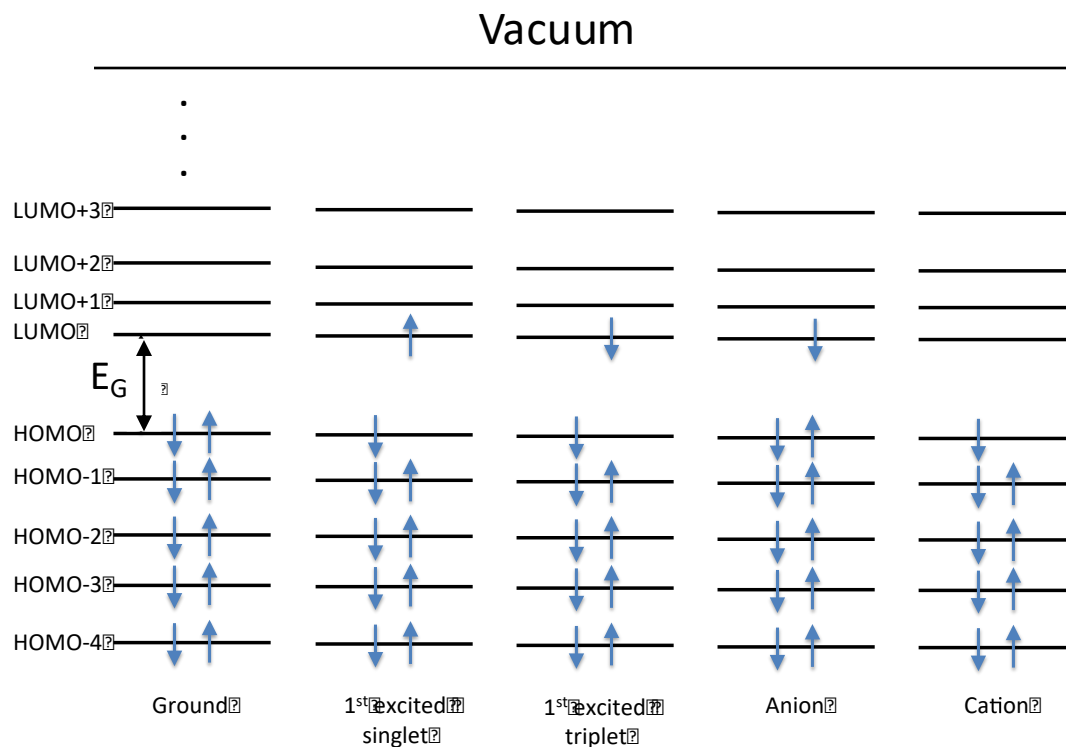
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Molecule: 9-(9,9-dimethyl-9Hfluoren-3yl)-14-phenyl-9,14-dihydrodibenzo[a,c]phenazine (FIPAC) in MeTHF (methyl tetrahydrofuran) solution

Possible electronic states

Aufbau principle: “Building up” principle – state filling begins at the lowest level (HOMO- n) and continues until it fills up the highest (HOMO) state.



Excited state pictures
prior to relaxation

Energy Gap

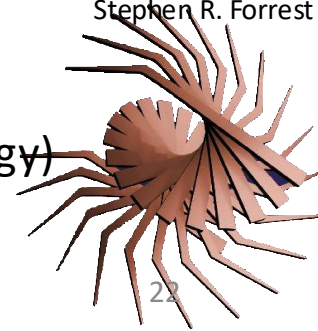
$$E_G = E_{\text{LUMO}} - E_{\text{HOMO}} \quad (\text{unrelaxed})$$

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HOMO= highest occupied molecular orbital (e.g. valence energy)

LUMO= lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (e.g. conduction energy)

HOMO and LUMO are “frontier orbitals”



Transitions between levels

- Once we have the electronic structure, we can predict the most important optical property: the rate (i.e. the probability, strength) of a transition between states
 - Predicts emission and absorption spectra
 - Can predict exciton states and properties
- The cornerstone of our analysis: **Fermi's Golden Rule**
 - From time dependent perturbation theory
 - Easy to use and understand

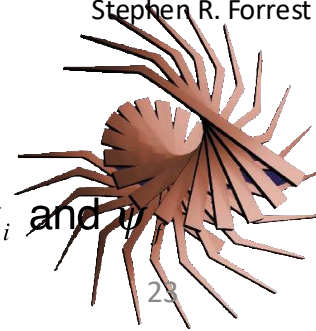
$$k_{if} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} \left| \langle \psi_f | H_{\text{int}} | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \rho(E_{if})$$

Transition matrix element:

$$M_{if}^2 = \left| \langle \psi_f | H_{\text{int}} | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2$$

$\rho(E_{if})$ is the joint density of initial and final states of the wavefunctions, ψ_i and ψ_f

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Electric dipole transitions are dominant

- Dipole interaction: $H_{\mu} = -\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathbf{r},\mathbf{R}} \cdot \mathbf{F}$
- But the dipole moment is: $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathbf{r},\mathbf{R}} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_e + \boldsymbol{\mu}_N = -q \left[\sum_k \mathbf{r}_k - \sum_K Z_K \mathbf{R}_K(Q) \right]$
- And then the dipole matrix element is: $\mu_{if} = \langle \phi_{e,f}(\mathbf{r},Q) \phi_{N,f}(Q) | \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathbf{r},\mathbf{R}} | \phi_{e,i}(\mathbf{r},Q) \phi_{N,i}(Q) \rangle$
- But B-O says that the electronic and nuclear coordinates are separable:

$$\mu_{if} = -q \left[\int \phi_{N,f}^*(Q) \phi_{N,i}(Q) dQ \sum_k \phi_{e,f}^*(\mathbf{r},Q) \mathbf{r}_k \phi_{e,i}(\mathbf{r},Q) d^3r \right] = \mu_{if,e} \sqrt{FC_{if}}$$

- This leads us to transition selection rules.

FC = Franck-Condon factor

- A transition is allowed as long as the transition matrix element is non-zero.

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$$M_{if} = \langle \phi_{e,f}(\mathbf{r}_f) | \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{F} | \phi_{e,i}(\mathbf{r}_i) \rangle \langle \phi_{N,f}(Q_f) | \phi_{N,i}(Q_i) \rangle \langle \sigma_f(S_f) | \sigma_i(S_i) \rangle \neq 0$$

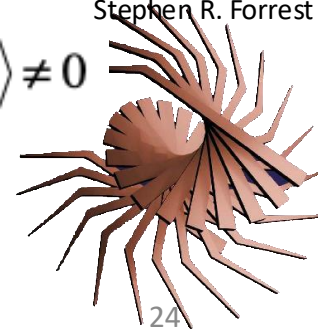
Three rules:

Spatial

Nuclear

Spin

See integral above



Transition Selection Rules-I

$$M_{if} = \left\langle \phi_{e,f}(\mathbf{r}_f) \left| \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{F} \right| \phi_{e,i}(\mathbf{r}_i) \right\rangle \left\langle \phi_{N,f}(Q_f) \left| \phi_{N,i}(Q_i) \right\rangle \left\langle \sigma_f(S_f) \left| \sigma_i(S_i) \right\rangle \neq 0 \right.$$

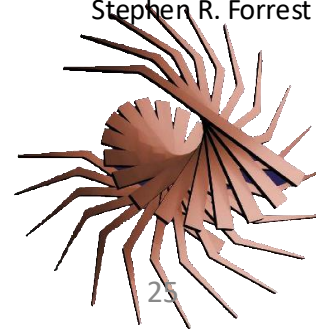
- Spatial transition requires a parity inversion:

- Since the dipole moment has odd parity: $\mu_r(\mathbf{r}) = -\mu_r(-\mathbf{r})$

- Then for the integral: $\left\langle \phi_{e,f}(\mathbf{r}_f) \left| \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{F} \right| \phi_{e,i}(\mathbf{r}_i) \right\rangle \neq 0$

we require transitions between states ($\phi_f(\mathbf{r})$ and $\phi_i(\mathbf{r})$) of opposite spatial parity!

- E.g. one is a gerade, and the other an ungerade state under spatial inversion



Transition Selection Rules-II

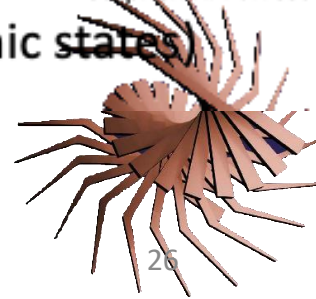
$$M_{if} = \langle \phi_{e,f}(\mathbf{r}_f) | \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{F} | \phi_{e,i}(\mathbf{r}_i) \rangle \boxed{\langle \phi_{N,f}(Q_f) | \phi_{N,i}(Q_i) \rangle} \langle \sigma_f(S_f) | \sigma_i(S_i) \rangle \neq 0$$

- Vibronic initial and final states must overlap:
 - The degree of overlap is expressed by the Franck-Condon Factor:

$$FC_{if} = \left| \langle \phi_{N,f}(Q_f) | \phi_{N,i}(Q_i) \rangle \right|^2$$

- Note: orthogonality suggests that this integral always vanishes
- But the nuclear wavefunctions are in separate electronic manifolds
- And there is usually a “reconfiguration” of the molecule between ground and excited states (i.e. $\Delta Q = Q_f - Q_i \neq 0$)
- So $\phi_f(Q)$ and $\phi_i(Q)$ are no longer orthogonal and hence inter-vibronic transitions are possible. (i.e. vibronics are mixed with electronic states)

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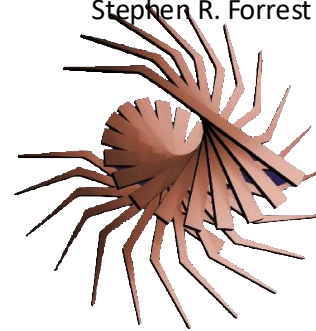
Transition Selection Rules-III

$$M_{if} = \langle \phi_{e,f}(\mathbf{r}_f) | \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{F} | \phi_{e,i}(\mathbf{r}_i) \rangle \langle \phi_{N,f}(Q_f) | \phi_{N,i}(Q_i) \rangle \langle \sigma_f(S_f) | \sigma_i(S_i) \rangle \neq 0$$

- Spin must remain unchanged during the transition
- Otherwise: $\langle \sigma_f(S_f) | \sigma_i(S_i) \rangle = 0$
- Spectroscopically, we say that these transitions are allowed:

$$S_i \rightarrow S_f \text{ or } T_i \rightarrow T_f$$

- Note on spectroscopic notation: the highest energy state is always to the left.
- Thus: the transitions above are from a high initial to a low final energy state
 \Rightarrow emission
- Absorption is written: $S_1 \leftarrow S_0$ or $T_2 \leftarrow T_1$

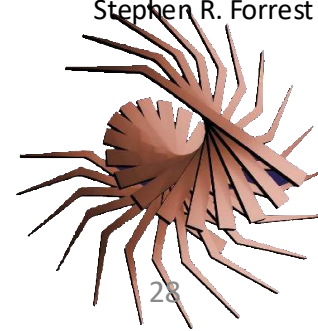


Summarizing the Transition Rules

Transition	Selection rule	Matrix Element	Exception
Between electronic states	Parity of $\phi_{e,f}$ and $\phi_{e,i}$ must be different (e.g. even \rightarrow odd)	$\langle \phi_{e,f}(r) \mathbf{r} \phi_{e,i}(\mathbf{r}) \rangle$	Low symmetry molecules, two photon transitions, higher order multipoles
Between vibronic states in different electronic manifolds	Vibronic quantum number $n_i - n_f = 0$	$\langle \phi_{N,f}(Q) \phi_{N,i}(Q) \rangle$	$\Delta Q_{if} \neq 0$: nuclear reconfiguration between $\phi_{e,f}(\mathbf{r}, Q)$ and $\phi_{e,i}(\mathbf{r}, Q)$
Between spin states	$S_i \rightarrow S_f; T_i \rightarrow T_f$	$\langle \sigma_f(S_f) \sigma_i(S_i) \rangle$	Spin-orbit coupling Spin-spin coupling

'to every rule there is an exception, including this one'

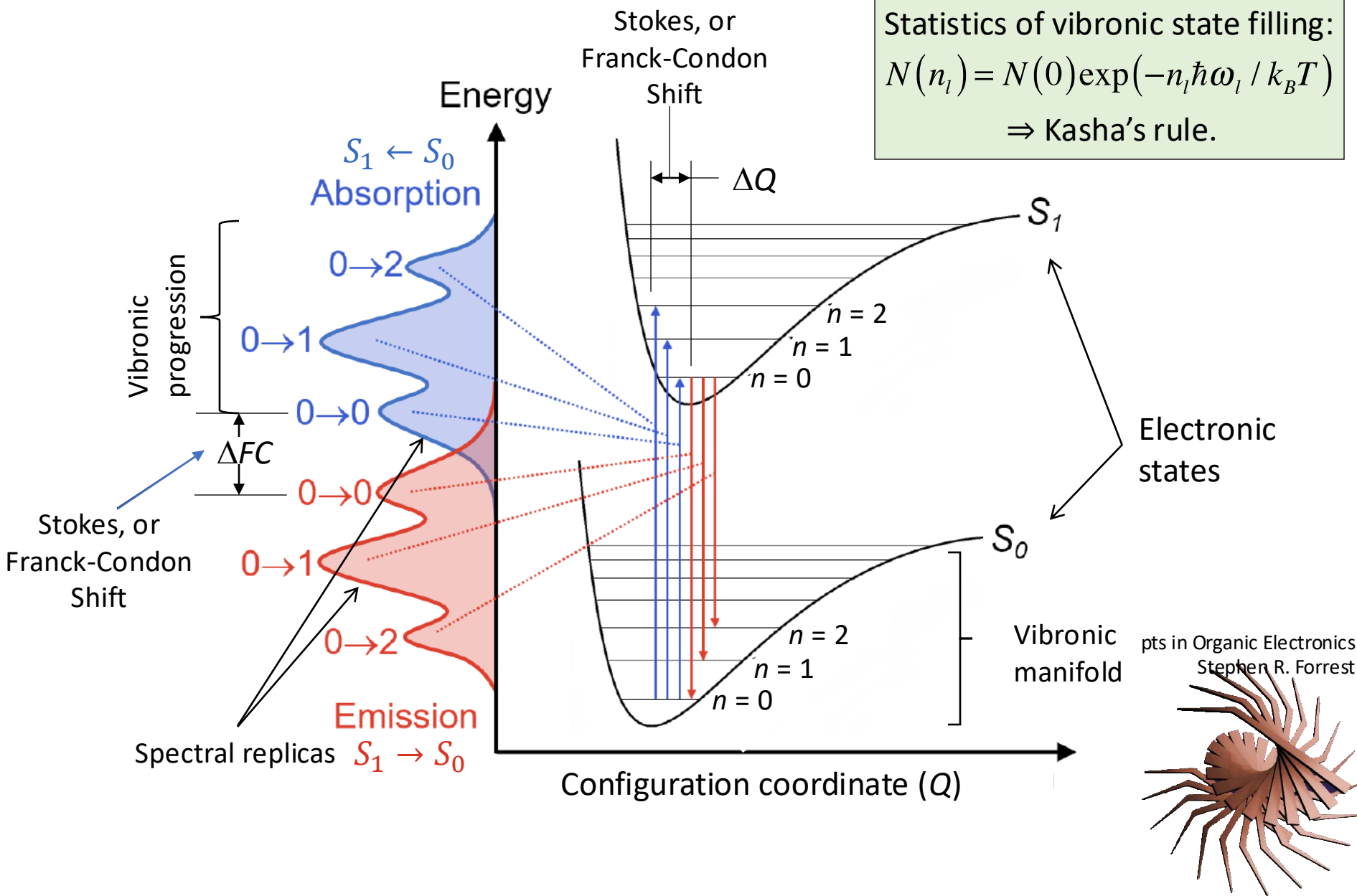
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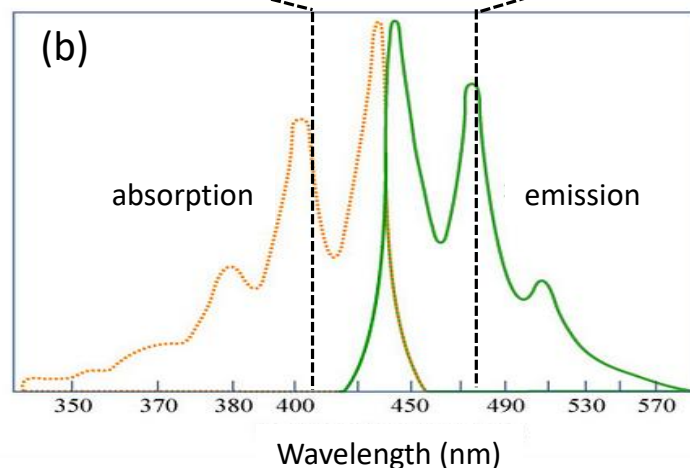
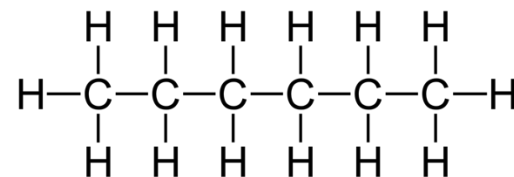
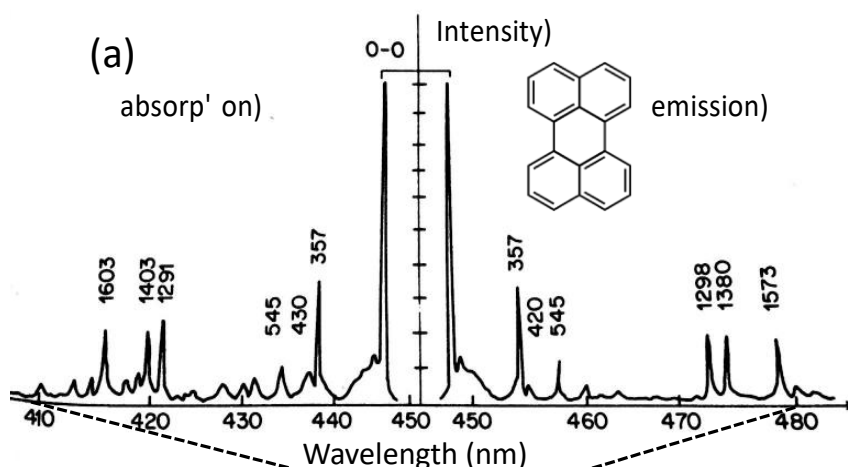
Understanding molecular spectra

Statistics of vibronic state filling:

$$N(n_l) = N(0) \exp(-n_l \hbar \omega_l / k_B T)$$
 \Rightarrow Kasha's rule.



A classic spectrum at low temperature



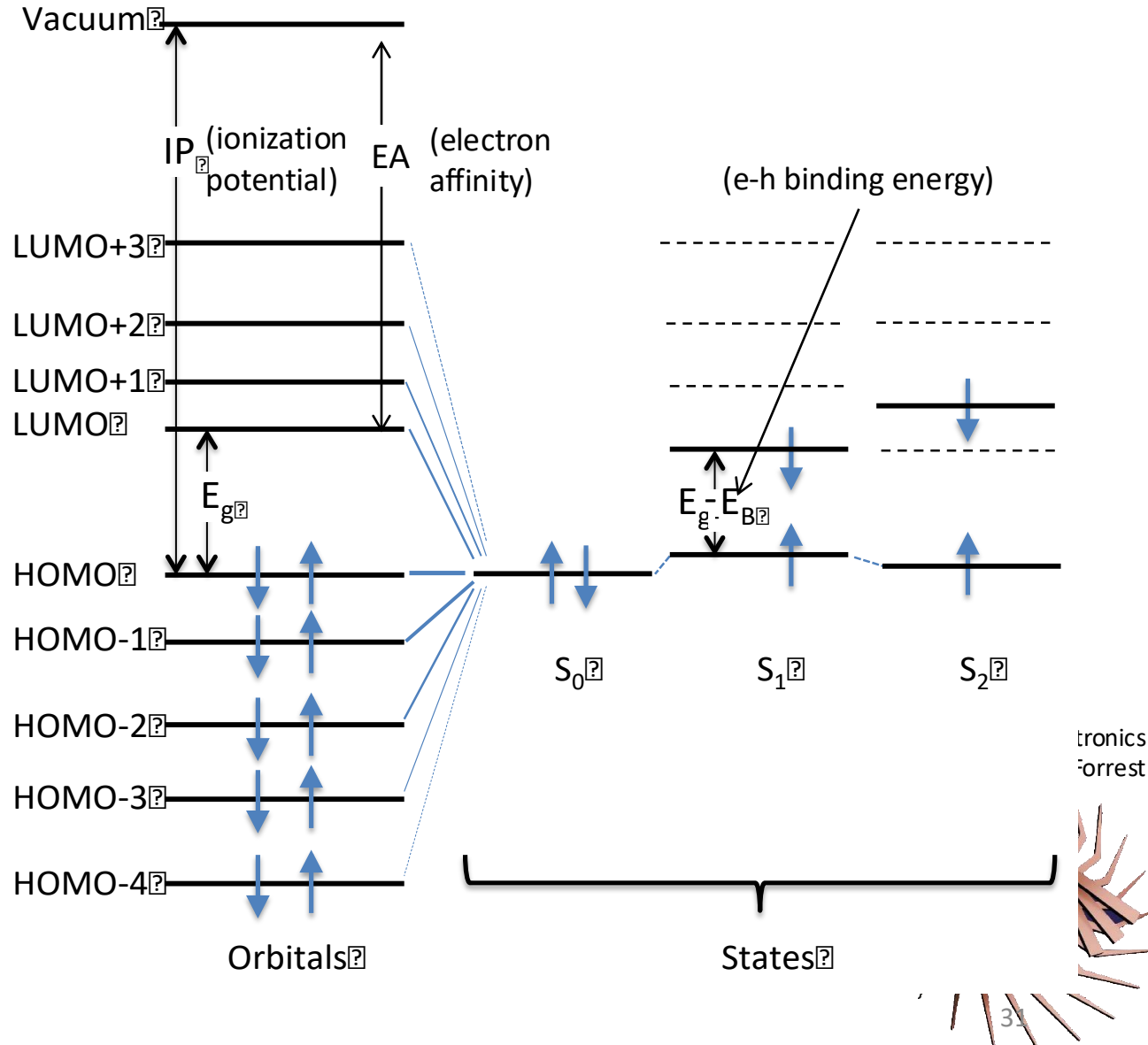
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- **Perylene in *n*-hexane solution**
- Perfect replica of absorption and emission
- Homogeneously broadened phonon lines narrow as the random disorder is “frozen” out
- Numerous vibronics apparent in this progression: rotons, librons, etc...

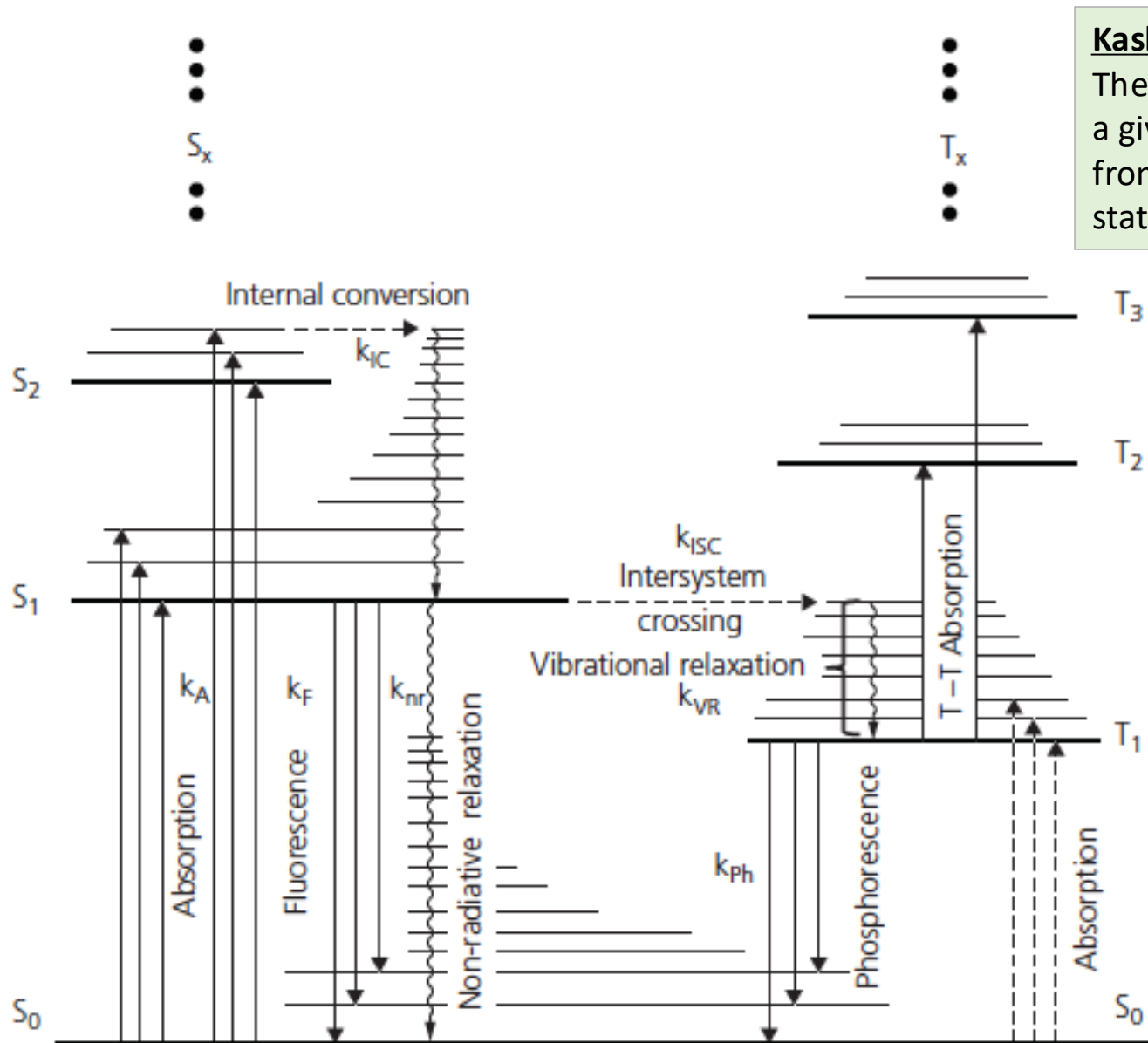


Important distinctions between electronic *orbitals* and electronic *states*

- Orbital energies refer to single electrons**
- Orbital energies are referenced to the vacuum level: All HOMO and LUMO energies < 0
- State energies refer to collections of electrons:** they are calculated from a linear combination of orbitals
- State energies are referenced to each other (not vacuum)
- States are formed after relaxation and include the electron-hole binding energy
- States comprised of two or more electrons, and hence their spin multiplicity determines their character.
- States and orbitals cannot co-exist meaningfully on the same diagram*



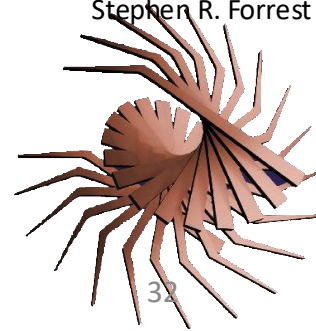
Jablonski Diagrams: Life Histories of Excitons



Kasha's rule

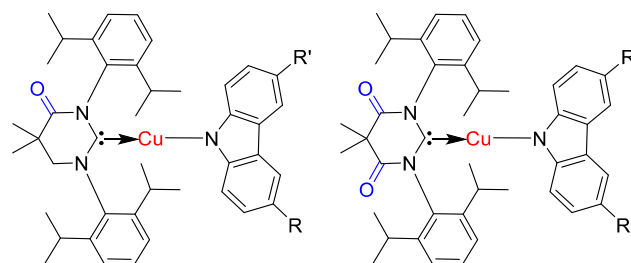
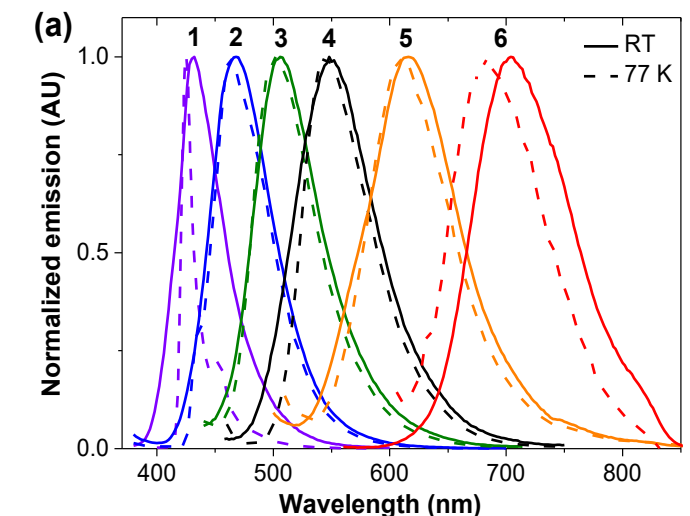
The radiative transition from a given spin manifold occurs from the lowest excited state.

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Energy Gap Law

- The larger the energy gap, the lower the probability for non-radiative recombination.
- ⇒ As the energy gap of a molecular species decreases, radiative transitions have a higher probability for non-radiative decay.

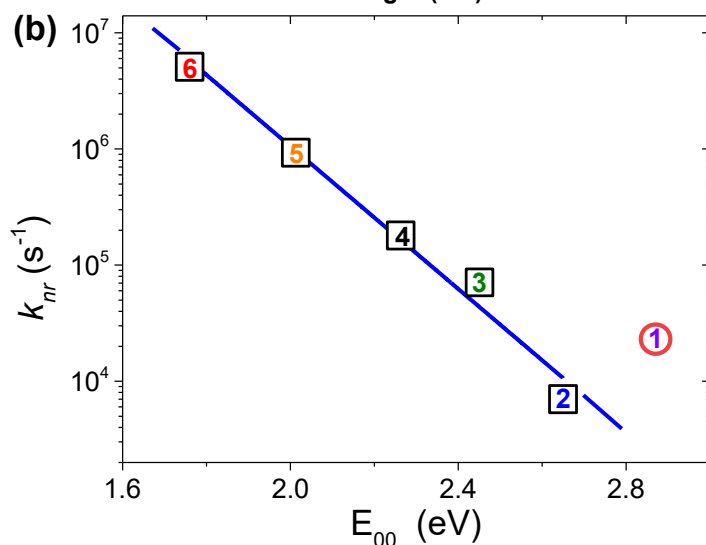


Carbene = MAC*

R, R' = CN (1)
R = CN, R' = H (2)
R, R' = H (3)

Carbene = DAC*

R, R' = CN (4)
R = CN, R' = H (5)
R, R' = H (6)

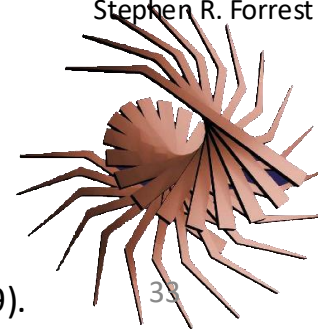


$$k_{if} = A \exp\left(-\gamma E_g / \hbar \omega_p\right) : \text{non-rad. rate}$$

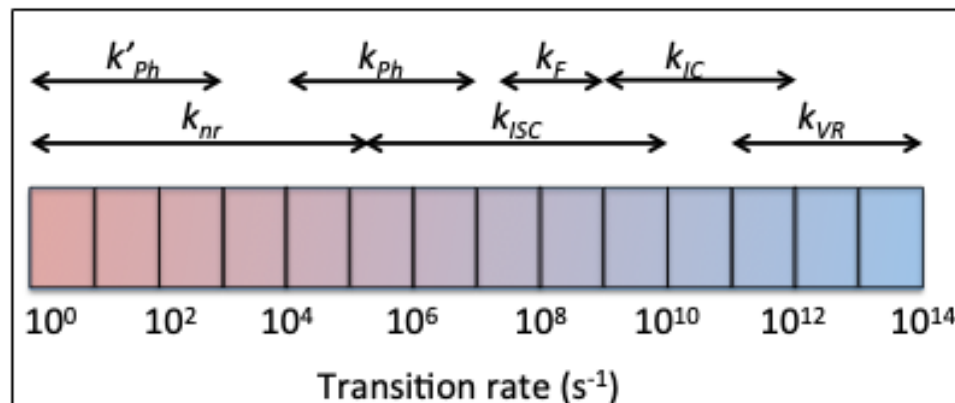
$$\gamma = \log\left(\frac{E_g}{\Omega E_p}\right) - 1$$

Ω = number of modes contributing to the maximum phonon energy,
= $\frac{1}{2}$ the Stokes shift.

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Characteristic Transition Rates



k_{ph}' = phosphorescent transition rate in the absence of S-O coupling

k_{ph} = phosphorescent transition rate in the presence of S-O coupling

Quantum yields: (Ratio of photons emitted into 4π solid angle to photons absorbed)

Fluorescence:
$$\Phi_F = \frac{k_F}{k_F + k_{nrS} + k_{ISC}}$$

Phosphorescence:
$$\Phi_P = \frac{\Phi_{ISC} k_{ph}}{k_{ph} + k_{nrT}} ; \Phi_{ISC} = \frac{k_{ISC}}{k_{ISC} + k_F + k_{nrS}}$$

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