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Synthesis and optoelectronic properties of chemically modified bi-fluorenylidenes[†]

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The development of new light harvesting materials is a key issue for the progress of the research on organic & hybrid photovoltaics. Here, we report a new class of organic sensitizers based on the bi-fluorenylidene moiety as π -linker within the donor- π -linker-acceptor (D- π -A) scheme. The new dyes are endowed with electron donor and electron acceptor units at strategic positions in order to improve their electronic and light-harvesting properties. The comprehensive study of these compounds through the use of different experimental and theoretical techniques, provides an in-depth understanding of their electronic and photophysical properties, and reveal their interest as photovoltaic materials.

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Introduction

Within the field of renewable energies, solar energy is expected to play a prominent role. The search for new materials able to efficiently convert solar energy into electrical power is a current challenge for materials scientists.¹ The utilization of lightharvesting materials would bring new advantages such as the possibility of processing directly from solution, affording lighter and cheaper flexible solar devices.

Dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) based on organic dyes adsorbed on TiO₂ semiconductor electrodes emerged as a new generation of sustainable photovoltaic devices.² Their attraction to chemists, physicists and engineers originates not only

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from the already established high incident-photon-to-current conversion efficiencies and low-cost production but also from the scientific interest in their operational principles.³ The fabrication of high-performance DSSCs requires the development of efficient organic dyes, whose molecular structures are optimized to provide sufficient light-harvesting features, good electronic communication between the dye and the conduction or valence band of the semiconductor, and a controlled molecular orientation on the semiconductor surface.4

Due to the almost infinite synthetic versatility and the high potential in molecular design, precise control of the photophysical and electrochemical properties may be achieved by the modification of the chromophore skeleton or the introduction of substituents.⁵ Hence, a whole arsenal of molecular structures of organic dye sensitizers for DSSCs is present in the literature, and the information about the relationship between the chemical structure of the dyes and their photovoltaic performances in DSSCs is steadily increasing. In fact, families of organic dyes, which exhibit high DSSC performances, such as polyenes, hemicyanines, thiophene-based dyes, coumarins, indolines, heteropolycyclic dyes, boron dipyrromethenes (BODIPYs), merocyanines, xanthenes, perylenes, carbazoles, porphyrins, catechols, polymeric dyes, squaraines, cyanines and phthalocyanines (Pcs) have been reported.6 In our group we have also designed exTTF- and hemiexTTF-based materials, where exTTF stands for 9,10-di(1,3dithiol-2-ylidene)-9,10-dihydroanthracene, bearing cyanoacrylic acid or rhodanine as the accepting fragment.⁷ This structural versatility illustrates the scientific interest and progress in the quest for new molecular architectures to be used as sensitizers in DSSCs.

According to the above mentioned reports on organic dyes, requirements such as the presence of an anchoring group,

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[†] Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available: Synthesis and characterization of all the dyes (Fig. S1-S41). B3LYP/cc-pVDZ optimized geometries (Fig. S42), representation of the HOMOs and LUMOs (Fig. S43) and spin-density distributions of the cations (Fig. S44). Lowest-energy excited states calculated for neutral and cationic dyes (Tables S1 and S2). Differential absorption spectra (Fig. S45 and S46). Photovoltaic measurements (Fig. S47 and Table S3). See DOI: 10.1039/c5tc03501e

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efficient coupling to the conduction band of TiO₂ and high molar absorption coefficients can be fulfilled by chemical modification of the dye structure through the introduction of electron-donating and -accepting groups and by expansion of π -conjugation. Assuring directional transport of electrons and chemical stability, and preventing dye aggregation, on the other hand, is achieved through the introduction of sterically hindering substituents such as hydrophobic long alkyl chains and aromatic units onto the chromophore skeleton.^{5d} In summary, to obtain new and efficient organic dye sensitizers for DSSCs, novel molecular designs capable of controlling not only the photophysical and electrochemical properties of the dyes themselves but also their molecular orientation and arrangement on the TiO₂ surface are necessary.⁸

Herein, we present a new class of organic sensitizers based on fluorene and bi-fluorenylidene as π -linkers within the donor- π -linker-acceptor (D- π -A) scheme. DSSCs based on 2-donor, 7-acceptor, 9-alkyl chain fluorenes have been extensively studied.9 However, bi-fluorenylidenes have been comparatively less studied. Bi-fluorenylidenes and their thiophene-based analogues have been used as electron acceptors¹⁰ or as monomers to prepare low bandgap polymers.¹¹ In this work, we have carried out a systematic study on the synthesis of a variety of fluorene derivatives, such as 2,7-donor, 9-acceptor and 3,6donor, 9-acceptor fluorenes. Furthermore, we have also prepared a series of suitably functionalized bi-fluorenylidenes endowed with electron-donor and electron-acceptor units at strategic positions. In particular, this work aims to establish the relationship between precise and controlled changes of the molecular architecture and their impact on the electronic structure of the dyes. Photophysical and theoretical studies provide in-depth insights into the effects of electronic structure modification on the charge transfer between the dyes and TiO₂. All investigated molecules are shown in Chart 1. F2a, F3a and F3b are mono-fluorene dyes with two diphenylamine (DPA) donor units linked to the phenyl rings of the fluorene moiety and a cyanoacrylic acid (CA) group as the acceptor. For the connection of the DPAs, different linkage patterns have been applied. Taking F1 as the mono-fluorene reference structure, the donor units in F2a and F3a are linked in meta and para positions, respectively. Compared with F3a, F3b presents a conjugated phenylenevinylene spacer connecting the DPA units to the fluorene core. On the other hand, BF1, BF3a, BF3b and BF3c consist of a bi-fluorenylidene core and a carboxylic acid (COOH) accepting unit. BF3a and BF3b contain DPA donors attached *via* the same π -conjugated linkers as in F3a and F3b, respectively, and BF1 and BF3c lack of an explicit donor part and constitute reference compounds. The investigation focuses on the charge transfer properties and their dependence on parameters such as (i) the variation of the anchoring moieties: CA vs. COOH, (ii) the change in the distance and the π -conjugated linker between the donor and the anchoring/ acceptor groups and (iii) the difference in the conjugation pattern between meta and para substitution. Thus, we explore the effects of specific structural modifications on the electronic, photophysical, and photovoltaic features of the dyes.

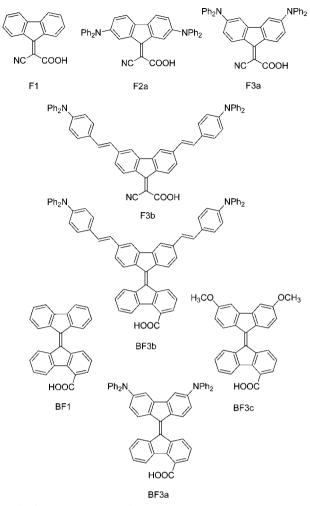


Chart 1 Chemical structure of the dye molecules.

Experimental section

Absorption spectra (Cary 5, Varian), fluorescence spectra (Fluorolog 3, Horiba) and NMR spectra (AVANCE-400, Bruker) were recorded with the indicated instruments.

Differential pulse voltammetry (DPV) measurements

The measurements were conducted using an Autolab system (PGSTAT30, Metrohm, Switzerland). A typical, three-electrode setup consisting of a glassy carbon electrode (working electrode), a Pt plate (auxiliary electrode) and a Pt wire (quasi-reference electrode) was used along with the ferrocene/ferrocenium redox couple as an internal standard. The concentration of the dye in dichloromethane solvent was 0.1 mM and 0.1 M TBAPF₆ was added to improve the conductivity. Differential pulse voltammetry was performed in order to enable precise determination of the oxidation potentials.

Computational methods

The molecular geometry of the dyes was fully optimized *in vacuo* and in dichloromethane solution using density functional theory (DFT) calculations with the B3LYP¹² functional and the cc-pVDZ¹³ basis set as implemented in the Gaussian 09

(version C.01)¹⁴ program package. The radical cation species were obtained by fully relaxing the optimized geometries of the neutral dyes with a charge of +1 assuming a doublet spin configuration. Ionization potentials were calculated as the adiabatic energy difference between the fully-relaxed cationic and neutral species in their respective doublet and singlet electronic ground state. Spin densities were computed to predict the localization of the unpaired electron in the cationic species. Time-dependent DFT (TD-DFT)¹⁵ calculations of the lowest-lying singlet/doublet states were performed for all neutral/cation compounds using dimethylformamide (DMF) as solvent. Solvent effects were taken into account using the polarizable continuum model (PCM).¹⁶ Molecular orbitals and spin densities were plotted using Chemcraft 1.6.¹⁷

Photophysical studies

Time-resolved transient absorption measurements were performed on dye-sensitized, 3 µm-thick, transparent TiO₂ mesoporous films screen-printed on non-conducting microscope slides immersed in dye solutions. The pump-probe technique uses a compact CPA-2001, 1 kHz, Ti:Sapphire-amplified femtosecond laser (Clark-MXR), with a pulse width of about 120 fs and a pulse energy of 1 mJ at a central wavelength of 775 nm. The output beam was split into two parts for pumping a double-stage noncollinear optical parametric amplifier (NOPA) and to produce a white light continuum in a sapphire plate or 387 nm UV light by second harmonic generation of the CPA output in a thin BBO crystal. The NOPA was pumped by 200 µJ pulses at a central wavelength of 775 nm and the excitation wavelength was tuned to 480 nm to generate pulses of approximately 10 µJ. The output pulses of the NOPA were compressed in an SF10-glass prism pair compressor down to duration of less than 60 fs (fwhm). Iris diaphragms were used to decrease the pulse energy down to a few micro joules for the pump and to less than 1 μ J for the probe beam. Transient spectra were measured using a white light continuum (WLC) for probing.

The nanosecond laser flash photolysis employed 7 ns pulses to excite the sample at λ = 480 nm and using a 30 Hz repetition rate. A Powerlite 7030 frequency-doubled Q-switched Nd:YAG laser (Continuum, Santa Clara, California, USA) served as a light source. The laser beam output was expanded by a plano-concave lens to irradiate a large cross-section of the sample, whose surface was kept at a 40° angle to the excitation beam. The laser fluence on the sample was kept at a low level (35 μ J cm⁻² per pulse) to ensure that, on average, less than one electron is injected per nanocrystalline TiO₂ particle on pulsed irradiation. The probe light, produced by a continuous wave xenon arc lamp, was first passed through a monochromator tuned at different wavelengths to probe a broad spectral range, various optical elements, the sample, and then through a second monochromator, before being detected by a fast photomultiplier tube (Hamamatsu, R9110).

Device fabrication

State-of-the-art double-layer mesoporous TiO_2 layer (8 μ m of 20 nm particle (DSL 18NR-T, DYESOL) plus 5 μ m of 400 nm

light scattering particles (HPW-400NRD, CCIC)) was printed on FTO conducting glass (Solar-4 mm, Nippon Sheet Glass Co, Ltd). The double-layer TiO₂ film was sensitized by immersing it into a THF/EtOH (1:4) solution of the respective dye (0.3 mM) for 15 h at room temperature. The composition of the electrolyte was 1.0 M 1,3-di-methylimidazolium iodide, 30 mM I₂, 0.5 M tert-butylpyridine, 0.1 M lithium iodide and 0.1 M guanidinium thiocyanate in a mixture of acetonitrile and valeronitrile (85/15, v/v). A platinized FTO conducting glass (LOF TECH 7, Pilkington) was used as counter electrode. The spectral distribution of the light source simulates the AM 1.5G solar irradiation characteristics (Xe 450W/K113, filter) with a spectral mismatch of less than 4%. The exposed area of the devices was 0.16 cm², a black tape mask being used to exclude any stray light. An antireflection film (ARCTOP, Mihama Co.) was attached on the photoanode side.

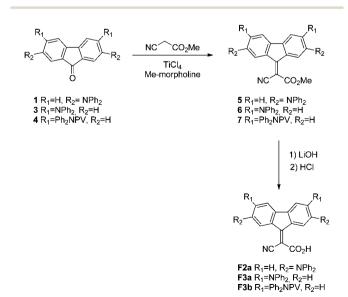
Results and discussion

Synthesis

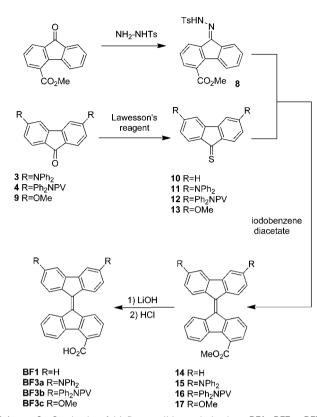
New dyes based on different fluorene substitution patterns, such as 2,7-donor, 9-acceptor and 3,6-donor, 9-acceptor fluorenes or even bi-fluorenylidene units, have been carefully designed.

Compounds F2a, F3a and F3b were prepared through a multi-step synthetic route starting with the preparation of fluorenone precursors 1, 3 and 4, respectively (see the ESI†). The synthesis of 1, 3 and 4 was achieved through the Buchwald reaction on the corresponding bromofluorenone precursors. Knoevenagel condensation followed by hydrolysis in the presence of LiOH afforded compounds F2a, F3a and F3b (Scheme 1). The reference compound F1 was prepared following a previously reported procedure.¹⁸

In the bi-fluorenylidene (BF) series, esters were obtained using Barton's two-fold coupling between fluorenones **3**, **4** and **9** which were prior converted to fluorenthiones, and 4-carboxymethylester-fluoren-9-tosylhydrazone (**8**) in the presence



Scheme 1 Synthesis of F2a, F3a and F3b.



Scheme 2 Synthesis of bi-fluorenylidene derivatives BF1, BF3a, BF3b, and BF3c. Compound 10 was synthesized according to an already described procedure.¹⁹

of iodobenzene diacetate (Scheme 2). The esters were then hydrolyzed to obtain **BF1**, **BF3a**, **BF3b** and **BF3c**.

Redox potentials

Differential pulse voltammetry (DPV) was used to determine the redox potentials of the new synthesized sensitizers. For all the dyes, two oxidation potentials were measured, which are collected in Table 1. The introduction of the DPA units shifts the potentials to less anodic values, the effect being more pronounced when the DPA groups are linked in *meta* (F2a) than in *para* (F3a) positions. The presence of the second fluorene moiety in BF3a and BF3b further reduces the oxidation potentials compared to F3a and F3b, which suggests an effective conjugation between the two fluorene units. BF3c presents higher oxidation potentials due to the lower electron-donor

 Table 1
 DPV oxidation potentials measured for the fluorene and bifluorenylidene dyes in dichloromethane

Dye	$E_{\text{ox},1}$ (V vs. NHE)	$E_{\text{ox},2}$ (V vs. NHE)
F1	2.05	2.37
F2a	1.45	1.74
F3a	1.59	1.85
F3b	1.59	1.84
BF3a	1.38	1.56
BF3b	1.43	1.74
BF3c	1.72	2.06

character of the methoxy groups when compared with the DPA units.

Molecular and electronic structure

To analyze the effect of the substitution pattern on the molecular structure, geometry optimizations of the fluorene (**F1**, **F2a**, **F3a** and **F3b**) and bi-fluorenylidene (**BF1**, **BF3a**, **BF3b** and **BF3c**) dyes were performed at the B3LYP/cc-pVDZ level using dichloromethane as solvent. Fig. 1 shows the optimized geometries of **F3a**, **BF3a** and **BF3b** as representative examples (see Fig. S42, ESI[†] for the geometry of the remaining molecules).

The main difference in the molecular geometry is found when passing from the mono-fluorene to the bi-fluorenylidene derivatives. In the former, the dihedral angle defined by the π -conjugated core and the acceptor moiety through the carboncarbon double bond is computed close to zero (a maximum dihedral of 7.6° is calculated for F3a, Fig. 1). In the bi-fluorenylidene derivatives, the two fluorene units forming the π -conjugated core that separates the donor and acceptor units twist around the central C=C bond to alleviate the steric hindrance between hydrogen atoms in 1 and 8 positions, and form an angle of $\sim 36^{\circ}$ (see Fig. 1). The attachment of the donor DPA units in meta position determines no significant change in the molecular geometry of F2a compared to F1. For instance, the C=C bond connecting the fluorene core and the acceptor CA unit has the same length (1.381 Å) for both compounds and the twisting angle around this bond has almost the same value (5.7 and 5.5° , respectively). This is not however the case for compound F3a, for which the DPA units are linked in para positions. For F3a, the exocyclic C=C bond lengthens to 1.395 Å and the twisting angle increases to 7.6°. These changes are due to the larger negative charge borne by the cyanoacrylic unit in F3a (-0.36e) compared with F2a (-0.25e) and F1 (-0.26e). The larger charge transfer obtained for F3a evidences the more effective electronic communication that takes place between the donor and acceptor moieties when the DPA groups are attached in para positions. The extension of the π -conjugated linker in passing from F3a to F3b reduces the charge transfer and the CA unit in F3b is linked by a C=C bond of 1.391 Å and accumulates a net charge of -0.31e. The bi-fluorenylidene dyes present very similar geometrical structures due to the larger separation between the donor and acceptor groups and the weaker acceptor character of the COOH group. The only significant difference is the slight lengthening of the central C=C bond linking the two fluorene units in passing from **BF1** (1.386 Å),

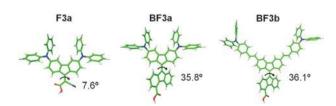


Fig. 1 B3LYP/cc-pVDZ-optimized geometries calculated for F3a, BF3a, and BF3b in dichloromethane. Characteristic dihedral angles are indicated.

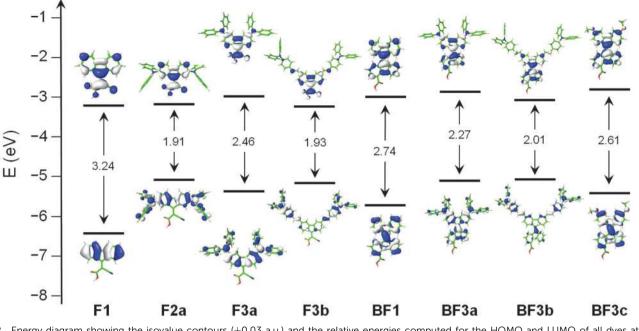


Fig. 2 Energy diagram showing the isovalue contours (\pm 0.03 a.u.) and the relative energies computed for the HOMO and LUMO of all dyes at the B3LYP/cc-pVDZ level in dichloromethane. HOMO-LUMO energy gaps are indicated.

bearing no donor group, to BF3c (1.389 Å), BF3b (1.391 Å) and BF3a (1.392 Å).

The changes introduced in the chemical structure of the dyes strongly influence their electronic and optical properties. The molecular orbital diagram shown in Fig. 2 reveals significant differences between the two families of dyes and among the members of each family. The energies calculated for the highest-occupied (HOMO) and the lowest-unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) are collected in Table 2. The HOMO is entirely localized on the fluorene core for F1, whereas it spreads over the donor groups and the fluorene core for F2a and F3a. The attachment of the DPA groups produces a destabilization of the HOMO that is more pronounced for the meta-substituted F2a (-5.05 eV) than for the *para* isomer F3a (-5.35 eV). Compared to F3a, the introduction of the phenylenevinylene π -conjugated linkers in F3b leads to an additional destabilization of the HOMO (-5.13 eV), which is now mostly located on the DPA units and the linkers. This destabilization stems from the extension of the π -conjugated system.

Dye	² HOMO	$\varepsilon_{\rm LUMO}$	$\Delta E_{\rm H-L}$	IP
F1	-6.41	-3.17	3.24	6.33
F2a	-5.05	-3.14	1.91	4.91
F3a	-5.35	-2.90	2.46	5.28
F3b	-5.13	-3.19	1.93	5.06
BF1	-5.68	-2.94	2.74	5.53
BF3a	-5.06	-2.79	2.27	4.90
BF3b	-5.03	-3.02	2.01	4.93
BF3c	-5.36	-2.75	2.61	5.19

-3.02 2.01 4.93 (-2.75 2.61 5.19 HOMO. The intro

The LUMO of the fluorene derivatives remains localized on the acceptor CA moiety and the fluorene core. No significant energy difference between the LUMO of F1 (-3.17 eV) and F2a (-3.14 eV) is predicted, suggesting an inefficient electronic communication between the DPA groups and the fluorene core in F2a (Fig. 2). In contrast, the attachment of the DPA units in para positions significantly destabilizes the LUMO of F3a (-2.90 eV) by 0.27 eV owing to the antibonding interaction of the nitrogen atoms of DPA with the fluorene core (Fig. 2). These trends suggest a more efficient electronic communication between the DPA groups and the fluorene core in F3a than in F2a. Therefore, as can be seen in Fig. 2 and Table 2, important differences are found in the HOMO-LUMO energy gap (ΔE_{H-L}) depending on the structural changes and the extension of π -conjugation in the mono-fluorene compounds. The most relevant trends are: (i) the attachment of donor DPA groups increases considerably the HOMO energy with small changes in the LUMO energy, (ii) para substitution favours the π -conjugation between the DPA units and the fluorene core compared to meta substitution and leads to significantly larger HOMO-LUMO gaps (F2a: 1.91 eV, F3a: 2.46 eV) and (iii) the introduction of phenylenevinylene units as π -conjugated linkers of the DPA units destabilize and stabilize the HOMO and the LUMO, respectively, narrowing the HOMO-LUMO gap (F3a: 2.46 eV, F3b: 1.93 eV).

Similar conclusions to those extracted for the monofluorene systems can be established for the bi-fluorenylidene dyes. For the reference compound **BF1**, the HOMO and LUMO spread over the conjugated bi-fluorenylidene core (Fig. 2), and it presents a narrower HOMO–LUMO gap (2.74 eV) compared with **F1** (3.24 eV) especially due to the destabilization of the HOMO. The introduction of the donor methoxy groups in **BF3c**

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raises the HOMO and LUMO energies and slightly reduces the HOMO–LUMO gap (2.61 eV). The same scenario is obtained for **BF3a**, where the substitution of *para* positions with DPA donor fragments increases the molecular orbital energies, especially for the HOMO, leading to a narrower HOMO–LUMO gap of 2.27 eV. The extension of the π -conjugated system in **BF3b** produces an additional narrowing of the HOMO–LUMO gap (2.01 eV) as obtained when comparing **F3a** and **F3b**. However, the changes predicted for the bi-fluorenylidene dyes are somewhat smaller than those found for the mono-fluorene compounds. This is due to the fact that the incorporation of the DPA donor groups does not destabilize the HOMO energy as much as in the mono-fluorene derivatives owing to the spreading of the HOMO over the two fluorene moieties.

It is worth mentioning that the cyanoacrylic acid moiety in all the mono-fluorene dyes (F1, F2a, F3a and F3b) remarkably shifts the electronic density of the LUMO onto the anchoring part of the molecule allowing for a more efficient electronic communication with the TiO₂ conduction band compared to the bi-fluorenylidene dyes (BF1, BF3a, BF3b, and BF3c) which bear carboxylic acid anchors. The LUMO of the latter actually shows no electron density on the COOH anchoring group (Fig. 2).

Chemical substitution of the dyes has a strong impact on the relative stability of the radical cations obtained upon oxidation. Since these oxidized species are formed just after the electron injection to the semiconductor, they play a key role in the photovoltaic performance of the dyes. Ionization potentials (IPs) were computed as the adiabatic energy difference between the radical cation and the neutral species in their respective ground-state optimized geometries (Table 2), and spin densities were calculated to predict the localization of the unpaired electron in the radical cation species (Fig. S44, ESI[†]). F1 shows the most positive ionization potential (6.33 eV), matching the highest oxidation potential found experimentally (2.05 V, Table 1). The introduction of the DPA groups allows for an extra delocalization of the unpaired electron over the donor moieties thus providing more stable cations. In the mono-fluorene series, the lowest IP is obtained for F2a (4.91 eV) and the F3a cation is predicted to be less stable (IP = 5.28 eV). This trend accords with the experimental oxidation potentials (1.45 and 1.59 V, respectively) and with the higher HOMO energy predicted for F3a (Table 2). The extension of the π -conjugated system by the phenylenevinylene linkers adds an extra delocalization for the unpaired electron with the consequent lowering of the IP for F3b (5.06 eV) compared to F3a (5.28 eV). The bi-fluorenylidene derivatives BF3a and BF3b exhibit smaller IPs (4.90 and 4.93 eV, respectively) than their mono-fluorene analogues due to the delocalization of the unpaired electron over the second fluorene unit (Fig. S44, ESI⁺). The presence of the methoxy groups in BF3c partially stabilizes the unpaired electron in the cation and reduces the IP (5.19 eV) with respect to BF1 (5.53 eV). The theoretical picture nicely agrees with the redox potentials experimentally recorded for the fluorene and bi-fluorenylidene series.

Photophysical features

Steady-state absorption. The investigation of the steady-state absorption features of the dyes in solution and after adsorption on TiO₂ films allows for important conclusions on the impact that structural changes have on the electronic properties of the dyes. Furthermore, it is feasible to identify the interactions between the building blocks, *i.e.*, donors, π -linkers and acceptors, when considering the absorptions of the reference structures **F1**, **BF1** and **BF3c**.

Fig. 3 represents the ground-state absorption spectra of all dyes (0.1 mM) in dimethylformamide (DMF) solutions. As seen from the spectrum of F1, the mono-fluorene features correspond to a single, broad absorption band between 300 and 400 nm. In F2a this absorption is shifted by 40 nm due to the additional interactions with the DPA moieties. Furthermore, the addition of the DPA donors results in the appearance of a broad band in the range between 460 and 650 nm. However, due to the lack of overlap between both maxima we assume only minor electronic communication between the DPA groups and the fluorene core in F2a. The situation is completely different when considering the absorptions of F3a and F3b. In F3a, for instance, the substitution of the fluorene unit at the para positions leads to a broadening of the spectrum and a significant overlap between all the absorption bands. This implies that, as suggested above based on the geometry and molecular orbital energy differences found theoretically, changing the substitution pattern from meta to para improves the π -conjugation in comparison to F2a. On the other hand, increasing the distance between the DPA and the fluorene core increases the extinction coefficients from 1.5 \times 10⁻⁴ M⁻¹ cm⁻¹ in F3a to 2.6 \times $10^{-4} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ in F3b but the broad absorption centered around 422 nm does not undergo a red-shift.

After adsorption to TiO_2 (Fig. 4), a significant blue-shift due to the deprotonation of the anchoring groups is experienced in all dyes. This implies successful binding of all compounds to the TiO_2 surface after 12 h of dye loading.

The bi-fluorenylidene reference compounds **BF1** and **BF3c** exhibit a broad maximum between 400 and 550 nm due to the larger π -electron system of the bi-fluorenylidene core. The maximum in **BF3c** is slightly red-shifted by 12 nm due to the π -extension by the methoxy groups. Both **BF1** and **BF3c**

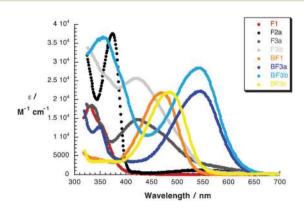


Fig. 3 Steady-state absorption spectra of all investigated dyes in 0.1 mM DMF solutions.

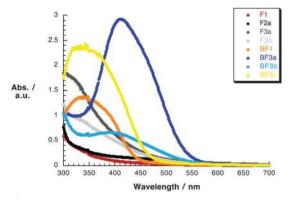


Fig. 4 Steady-state absorption spectra of all investigated dyes adsorbed on 3 µm-thick transparent mesopourous TiO₂ films.

absorb also in the region between 300 and 400 nm with low extinctions. When considering the donor-acceptor dyes **BF3a** and **BF3b**, the broad maxima shift to the red by more than 60 nm due to the remarkable extension of π -conjugation. Furthermore, in the region between 300 and 450 nm a new sharp absorption band arises with extinction coefficients of 1.2×10^{-4} and 3.6×10^{-4} M⁻¹ cm⁻¹ for **BF3a** and **BF3b**, respectively. The higher extinction in **BF3b** stems once more from the improved delocalization of π -electrons as compared with **BF3a**.

To get more insight into the electronic nature of the experimentally observed absorption bands, theoretical calculations of the lowest-lying singlet excitations $(S_0 \rightarrow S_n)$ were performed for all the dyes using the TD-DFT approach and DMF as solvent (Table S1 in the ESI[†]). For F1, the broad band observed around 350 nm originates from the $S_0 \rightarrow S_2$ and $S_0 \rightarrow S_3$ electronic excitations calculated at 357 and 355 nm, respectively. These two excitations are mainly described by one-electron promotions from the HOMO - 1 and HOMO - 2 to the LUMO and involve both the fluorene core and the acceptor CA unit. The lowest-energy $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$ transition computed at 510 nm corresponds to the HOMO \rightarrow LUMO excitation that implies some charge transfer (CT) from the fluorene moiety, where the HOMO is located, to the acceptor CA unit, where the LUMO mainly resides (Fig. 2). The net charge accumulated by the CA group increases from -0.26e in S₀ to -0.51e in S₁. This CT excitation is not perceivable in the UV-Vis spectrum due to its small computed oscillator strength (f = 0.001) but becomes more evident in the remaining fluorene dyes (Fig. 3 and Table S1, ESI[†]). For F2a, the HOMO \rightarrow LUMO CT excitation is computed to be more intense (f = 0.036) and is observed in the experiment, and the $S_0 \rightarrow S_4$ and $S_0 \rightarrow S_6$ transitions calculated at 395 (f = 0.606) and 366 nm (f = 0.376), respectively, account for the intense absorption band peaking at 380 nm (Fig. 3). In passing to F3a, the features of the absorption spectrum undergone a dramatic change. The variation of the position of the DPA substituents, from meta to para, induces the appearance of three CT excitations (S $_0 \rightarrow S_1, S_0 \rightarrow S_2$, and $S_0 \rightarrow S_3$) calculated at 648, 523 and 437 nm with high oscillator strengths of 0.264, 0.524 and 0.126, respectively (Table S1, ESI[†]), which account for the intense broad absorption band

observed in the 400–640 nm range for **F3a** (Fig. 3). Similar transitions with higher oscillator strengths appear in the same energy region for **F3b** thus explaining the higher intensity of the absorption band observed experimentally (Fig. 3).

For the bi-fluorenylidene BF1 and BF3c dyes, only the $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$ transition contributes to the broad band experimentally observed at around 475 nm (Table S1, ESI† and Fig. 3). This transition is fully described by the HOMO \rightarrow LUMO monoexcitation located on the bi-fluorenylidene core with some contribution of the oxygen atoms of the additional methoxy groups for BF3c. The better optical performance of BF3a and BF3b associated with the intense broad band observed at 440–640 nm is mainly due to the HOMO \rightarrow LUMO excitation that implies the bi-fluorenylidene core and the CT from the DPA units to the core, especially for BF3b (Table S1, ESI[†] and Fig. 2). The participation of the phenylenevinylene linkers increases the oscillator strength of the lowest-energy transitions, justifying the higher intensity of the absorption band for BF3b (Fig. 3). The anchoring COOH group is not involved in these transitions. The intense band observed for BF3b at around 350 nm is due to monoexcitations located on the donor fragment, which are significantly less intense for **BF3a.** $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions associated to the bi-fluorenylidene core also contribute to this part of the spectra.

Excited state features

To investigate the charge transfer processes and their kinetics we have employed further spectroscopic investigation methods. Time-resolved transient absorption measurements were performed in order to scrutinize the dynamics of charge injection into TiO_2 and charge recombination between the dyes' oxidized states and the injected electrons.

Femtosecond transient absorption spectra with 480 nm laser excitation were recorded for the donor-acceptor compounds F2a, F3a, F3b, BF3a and BF3b and the reference compounds BF1 and BF3c. Due to the lack of the electron donating unit only singlet excited-state formation was observed in BF1 and BF3c. The spectral characteristic of the singlet excited state of the bi-fluorenylidene dyes is a broad maximum extending from 520 nm beyond 700 nm (Fig. 5). The formation occurs instantaneously after laser excitation with rate constants of 3.7×10^{12} s⁻¹ for **BF1** and 7.8×10^{12} s⁻¹ for **BF3c**. Thereby, the singlet excited state signal in BF1 decays within 50 ps, whereas it is stable on the time scale of our femtosecond experiment for BF3c due to the contribution of the oxygen atoms of the additional methoxy groups. The additional donor methoxy groups in BF3c add electron density to the molecule, which raises the HOMO-LUMO energies (Fig. 2) and allows for a more stable singlet excited state. The slightly lower HOMO-LUMO energy gap in BF3c is also responsible for faster singlet activation as compared with BF1. Fig. 5 displays the spectral characteristics of the reference structures as evolved after photoexcitation.

When going to the donor-acceptor dyes **BF3a** and **BF3b** the spectral characteristics are notably different (Fig. S45, ESI \dagger). An instantaneous charge injection into TiO₂ leads to a singlet

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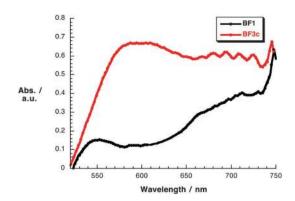


Fig. 5 Differential absorption spectra obtained upon femtosecond flash photolysis (λ_{exc} = 480 nm) of 3 µm-thick TiO₂ films sensitized with **BF1** (black) and **BF3c** (red) with a time delay of 4 ps at room temperature showing the spectral characteristics of the singlet excited states.

bleaching between 500 and 640 nm for BF3a and between 500 and 590 nm for BF3b. On the other hand, in agreement with the photoinduced absorption studies, a positive signal in the regions beyond 600 nm characterizes the oxidized state of the dyes. Theoretical calculations predict that excitations from the single-occupied molecular orbital (SOMO) and HOMO -1to the LUMO, which exhibit a predominant CT nature, contribute the most to the cationic signal of both dyes (Table S2, ESI[†]). As can be seen from the spectra, the formation of the oxidized state of BF3a occurs with a much slower rate constant than for BF3b. The charge injection rates differ by one order of magnitude, *i.e.*, 1.5×10^{11} s⁻¹ and 6.0×10^{12} s⁻¹ for **BF3a** and BF3b, respectively. Again, the significantly lower HOMO-LUMO energy gap in **BF3b** is responsible for this trend. Interestingly, the transient absorption spectra of BF3b exhibit an isosbestic point. Hence, singlet excited-state energy transfer powers the charge separation between the electron donating DPA and the anchoring group and the subsequent charge injection into TiO₂. The singlet bleaching recovers according to the decay of the signal of the oxidized states. Important in this context is the fact that the charge injection occurs instantaneously with photoexcitation, which proves efficient electronic communication between the electron donating and the anchoring groups. Low-energy singlet excited states facilitate the charge separation and increase the rate for charge injection. Thus, the slower charge injection rate constants measured for BF3a point to

higher energy singlet excited states, in accord with theoretical predictions (Table S1, ESI[†]), and justify the lack of the isosbestic point (Fig. S45, ESI[†]).

Moving on to F2a and F3b, similar features (singlet bleaching and isosbestic points) due to the formation of the oxidized states of the dyes are found in the corresponding transient absorption spectra (Fig. S46, ESI⁺ - top and middle). However, the smaller size of the π -conjugated system gives rise to higher excitation energies and the spectral features become sharper with their maxima and minima shifted to the blue as compared with the bi-fluorenylidene compounds BF3a and BF3b. In F2a and F3b the singlet bleaching is shifted to 530 and 550 nm, respectively, and the broad signature of the oxidized states maximizes at 600 and 660 nm, respectively. Theoretical calculations predict that these signals are assigned to the CT electronic transitions associated with the SOMO \rightarrow LUMO excitation (Table S2, ESI⁺). The red-shift of the maxima is well in line with the extension of the π -system in F3b as compared with F2a. On the contrary, the spectrum of F3a (Fig. S46, ESI⁺ - bottom) lacks any excited state features. Considering the more efficient electronic interactions between the DPA and the fluorene in the ground-state in F3a (see Fig. 3), we assume that due to the variation of the substitution (para vs. meta) the electronic coupling between the donor and the anchoring moiety is altered. Theoretical calculations indeed suggest a better electronic communication between the DPA groups and the CA unit for F3a. This is directly correlated with the deactivation kinetics and therefore the charge separation is instantaneously deactivated by an ultrafast charge recombination. As a consequence, charge injection into TiO₂ is hindered and no oxidized state formation is evident in the transient absorption spectrum of F3a. This simple change of the position of the substitution on the fluorene moiety goes along with a significant increase of the HOMO-LUMO gap of F3a (2.41 eV) as compared with F2a (1.90 eV) (Fig. 2).

Considering the charge injection kinetics of F2a, F3b, BF3a and BF3b (Table 3), the rates are related to the above-mentioned stabilization of the singlet-excited states, which obviously facilitates the charge injection into TiO_2 . An improved stabilization of the singlet-excited state facilitates the formation of the oxidized species of the dyes. Due to the highly delocalized character of the oxidized states the charge injection kinetics may be correlated with the ionization potentials (Table 2),

Table 3 Rate constants for charge injection (k_{CI}) /singlet-excited state formation $(k_{Singlet})$, charge recombination without electrolyte (k_{CR}) and dye regeneration with electrolyte (k_{DR}) for all dyes on 3 μ m-thick TiO₂ films as obtained by femtosecond transient absorption measurements and nanosecond flash photolysis with 480 nm light excitation

	$k_{ m CI/Singlet}/ m s^{-1}$	$k_{\rm CR}/{\rm s}^{-1}//k_{\rm DR}/{\rm s}^{-1}$	$\tau_{1/2} ({\rm CI/S})$	$\tau_{1/2}(CR)//\tau_{1/2}(DR)$
TiO ₂ no EL				
F3a _{Singlet}	_	_	_	_
F2a	$3.0 imes10^{12}$	$1.5 imes 10^5 / / 1.8 imes 10^5$	0.34 ps	6.49 μs//5.58 μs
F3b	$5.0 imes10^{12}$	$2.1 imes 10^3 / / 3.7 imes 10^4$	0.20 ps	474 μs//27.0 μs
BF1 _{Singlet}	$3.7 imes10^{12}$	_	0.27 ps	
BF3a	$1.5 imes10^{11}$	$3.9 imes 10^3 / / 1.1 imes 10^5$	6.7 ps	255 μs//8.94 μs
BF3b	$6.0 imes10^{12}$	$2.2 imes10^{3}/\!/1.1 imes10^{5}$	0.17 ps	454 μs//9.09 μs
$BF3c_{Singlet}$	7.8×10^{12}	_	0.13 ps	

which in turn explains the fact that that charge injection occurs on equal time-scales as found for the singlet-excited state formation. Proof for this assumption is found by comparing the charge injection rates in **BF3a** and **BF3b** with those for the singlet-excited state formation in **BF1** and **BF3c**. Therefore, it can be safely assumed that the photoexcitation of the donoracceptor dyes results in an instantaneous formation of the oxidized state and an immediate charge injection into TiO_2 due to very efficient π -conjugation of the molecules.

Apart from a rapid charge injection, a slow charge recombination is crucial for an effective performance of the dyes in photovoltaic devices. To probe the dynamics of the regeneration of the oxidized states of the dyes in the presence and in the absence of a redox electrolyte environment complementary nanosecond flash photolysis experiments have been employed.

In the absence of the redox electrolyte the regeneration of the dyes' ground state occurs by back-electron transfer from TiO_2 . The nanosecond spectra of the dyes adsorbed on the TiO_2 films resemble the spectral features of the femtosecond studies. Fig. 6 shows the nanosecond transient absorption spectra of **BF3a** and **F3b** for comparison. The singlet bleaching and the absorption maxima are comparable to those found throughout the femtosecond studies. The analysis of the decays

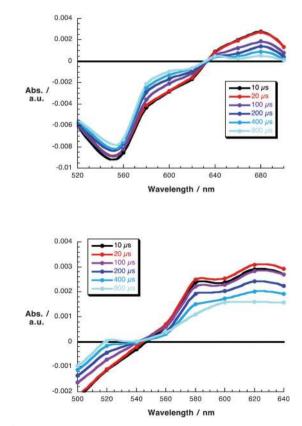


Fig. 6 Differential absorption spectra obtained upon nanosecond flash photolysis ($\lambda_{exc} = 480$ nm) of 3 µm-thick TiO₂ films sensitized with **BF3a** (top) and **F3b** (bottom) with several time delays at room temperature showing the spectral characteristics of the oxidized states and the slow charge recombination.

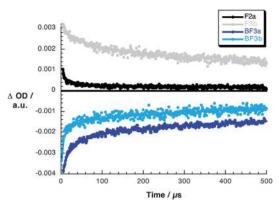


Fig. 7 Time absorption profiles at 600 nm of 3 μ m-thick transparent TiO₂ films of F2a, F3b, BF3a and BF3b without electrolyte solution as obtained from nanosecond flash photolysis studies (λ_{exc} = 480 nm) at room temperature indicating the slow decay of the radical cation signal of F3b, BF3a, and BF3b as compared with F2a.

of the spectral signatures of the oxidized state allowed for the determination of the lifetimes of the oxidized states in the absence of the redox electrolyte. The lifetimes and the corresponding charge recombination rate constants are given in Table 3.

Without the redox electrolyte solution the decays of the signals at 600 nm follow an exponential behavior (Fig. 7) and give rise to lifetimes on the order of hundreds of microseconds for **F3b**, **BF3a** and **BF3b**. For **F2a**, the lifetime of the oxidized state decreases by two orders of magnitude to 6.5 μ s. The reason for the very fast charge recombination in **F2a** is shown throughout the molecular modeling studies (*vide supra*). Altering the substitution pattern from *meta* to *para* directly affects the delocalization of the positive charge within the molecular framework (Fig. S44, ESI[†]). Therefore, in the oxidized state of **F2a** the positive charge is much more localized within the fluorene unit (+0.84*e*) as compared with **F3b** (+0.23*e*), **BF3a** (+0.19) and **BF3b** (+0.12*e*), which in turn results in a significant destabilization of the charge-separated species.

Importantly, upon addition of the redox electrolyte the oxidized states are regenerated on a much faster timescale and the signals decay with accelerated dynamics – dye regeneration. As shown in Table 3, except for **F2a**, the charge recombination rates of the remaining dyes increase by two orders of magnitude. The reason for the increasing rates stems from the fact that in the presence of the electrolyte the oxidized species of the dyes are mainly reduced by electrons from the redox electrolyte solution, which occurs notably faster than the charge recombination from TiO_2 . Due to very fast charge recombination in **F2a**, the dye regeneration rate constant is nearly invariant.

Photovoltaic studies: a proof of concept

Some preliminary photovoltaic experiments were conducted to evaluate the potential of employing these new molecules as sensitizers in DSSC devices. DSSC device fabrication details are given in the Experimental section. The *J*–*V* curves of the devices are shown in Fig. S47 (ESI[†]). The photovoltaic parameters: the short-circuit current density (J_{sc}), the open-circuit photovoltage (V_{oc}), the fill factor (FF) and the overall power conversion efficiency (PCE) are tabulated in Table S3 (ESI[†]). The maximum PCE of 3.3% was obtained for the **BF3b**-sensitized device with a volatile-solventbased electrolyte under AM 1.5G sunlight (100 mW cm⁻²).

It is interesting to note the low efficiency values shown by **BF3a** and **BF3c** when compared with **BF3b** which exhibits the lower HOMO–LUMO gap. The relatively moderate values found for the PV parameters indicate that there are several factors that can be optimized in terms of electronic properties, light absorption and morphology to significantly improve the PV properties of these new molecules. In this regard, the introduction of additional methoxy or hexyloxy groups in the DPA units would extend the absorption region of organic dyes in the visible light while preventing charge recombination.⁸ Nevertheless, these photovoltaic data reveal the interest of functionalized bi-fluorenylidenes for PV applications. However, a more precise design and the presence of efficient substituents are essential requirements in the search for efficient materials.

Conclusions

In summary, we have carried out the synthesis of a series of new fluorenes and bi-fluorenylidenes endowed with different electron donor and acceptor units in order to improve their electronic and optical properties as light-harvesters. The new fluorene derivatives have been synthesized in a multistep manner involving Buchwald and Knoevenagel reactions and the bi-fluorenylidenes through a Barton's coupling starting from fluorenones. All the new compounds have been fully characterized by spectroscopic techniques and by cyclic voltammetry. DFT theoretical calculations reveal relatively planar π -conjugated fluorene derivatives, whereas a dihedral angle of around 36° is found between the two fluorene units in bi-fluorenylidenes. For the fluorene dyes, calculations evidence a better electronic communication between the donor and acceptor moieties when the donor diphenylamine (DPA) substituents are linked to the fluorene core in para than in meta positions. The effect of the substitution pattern on the oxidation potentials and the relative stability of the resulting radical cations has been nicely rationalized on the basis of theoretical calculations. The attachment of DPA groups in meta positions increases the energy of the HOMO in a higher degree and leads to significantly more stable cations than para substitution. The π -extended bi-fluorenylidene core produces a relative stabilization of the radical cations compared with the analogous mono-fluorene dyes.

The electronic absorption spectra show the effect that the presence of electron-releasing and electron-withdrawing groups, as well as their *meta* or *para* position, has on the electronic structure of the fluorene and bi-fluorenylidene derivatives. Remarkably, the better optical performance of donor-acceptor bi-fluorenylidenes showing an intense broad

band covering the 440–660 nm region is associated with CT excitations involving the donor units and the bi-fluorenylidene core. The inclusion of π -conjugated phenylenevinylene spacers to link the donor DPA groups is shown to improve the optical performance of the dyes.

Adsorption of chromophores on TiO_2 occurs with a blueshift due to the deprotonation of the carboxylic anchoring groups, which confirms the connectivity of the organic addends to the TiO_2 surface.

The charge recombination process has been studied in the presence and in the absence of a redox electrolyte. Interestingly, the regeneration of the dyes' ground state occurs by back electron transfer from TiO_2 in the absence of electrolyte, whereas in the presence of electrolyte the oxidized species of the dyes are mainly reduced by the electrolyte in a significantly faster charge recombination process.

Finally, preliminary photovoltaic DSSCs measurements show that the new systems are photoactive showing values of power conversion efficiencies as high as 3.3% obtained for the most π -extended **BF3b** bi-fluorenylidene compound under AM 1.5 G sunlight conditions.

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Supporting Information

Efficient Light-Harvesters Based on Modified Bi-fluorenylidenes.

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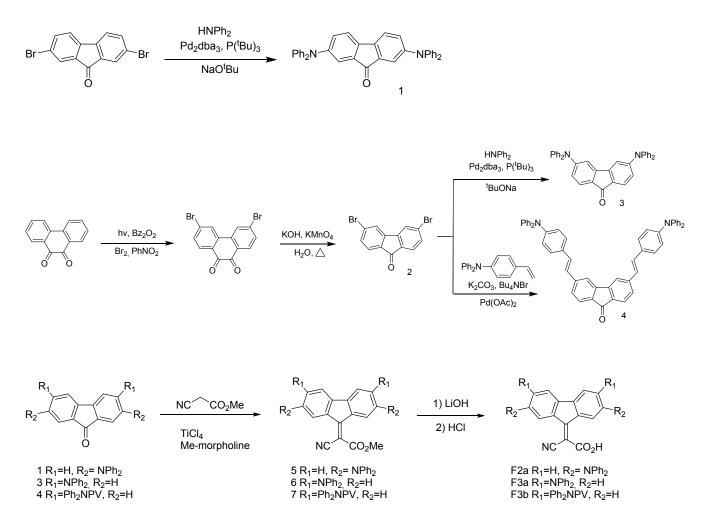
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1. General

NMR spectra (¹H, ¹³C) were recorded at room temperature on Bruker DPX 300 MHz and Bruker AVIII. 500 MHz data are listed in parts per million (ppm) and are reported relative to tetramethylsilane (¹H, ¹³C). Mass spectrometry was carried out by the services at the Universidad Complutense de Madrid. UV-vis spectra were recorded in a Varian Cary 50 spectrometer at a constant temperature of 25 °C in diluted dimethylsulfoxide solution (ca. 10^{-5} mol L⁻¹). Compounds F1,¹ 1,² 2,³ 3,⁴ 10,⁵ and 13⁶ were synthesized according to already described procedures.

2-Synthesis of fluorene derivatives (F series)



Scheme S1. Synthesis of F2a, F3a, and F3b.

2.1 Synthesis of fluorenone derivatives

4: **2** (60 mg, 0.17 mmol), *n*-Bu₄NBr (112 g, 0.35 mmol), K_2CO_3 (100 g, 0.71 mmol) and diphenyl-(4-vinyl-phenyl)-amine (54 g, 0.2 mmol) were dissolved in 25 mL of dry DMF under argon atmosphere. Pd(OAc)₂ (catalytic amount, 2–3 % mmol) was then added under an argon flow. The mixture was heated at 80–90 °C overnight. The crude was poured in water to precipitate **4** that was then filtered. Purification by column chromatography over silica gel afford **4** as a red solid (53 % yield).

¹H-NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃): *δ* ppm 7.63 (s, 2H), 7.55 (d, 2H, *J* = 7.7 Hz), 7.35 (d, 4H, *J* = 8.5 Hz), 7.29 (s, 1H), 7.23-7.18 (m, 10H), 7.13 (s, 1H), 7.07-6.92 (s, 18H). ¹³C-NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃): *δ* ppm 148.3, 147.5, 144.7, 144.2, 133.9, 131.3, 130.6, 129.5, 127.9, 127.5, 126.1, 125.0, 124.8, 123.6, 123.1, 117.5. MS: (ESI⁺); calculated: *m/z* 718.30; found *m/z*: 741.3 [M+Na] ⁺, 742.3 [M+H+Na] ⁺. IR: 1736, 1700, 1587, 1496, 1324, 1281, 754, 668.

2.2 General procedure for Knoevenagel condensation:

Compounds 5, 6, and 7 were successfully obtained only in neat conditions. The use of solvents, such as DCM or chloroform yielded only traces of the titled compounds. The corresponding ketones were dissolved in 10 eq of cyano-acetic acid methyl ester, 4-methyl-morpholine (10 eq). Then TiCl₄ (10 eq) was carefully added dropwise, *via* a syringe. The reaction was performed in vial or in a 10mL schlenk flask. After the addition of TiCl₄, the reaction was gently heated at 60 °C until no more starting materials was observed by TLC. The crude was poured in water (100 mL) and extracted with DCM (2 × 25 mL). In case of emulsion, the solution was filter over celite and ammonium chloride was added to the water phase. The organic layers were collected, dried over MgSO₄ and the solvent removed under reduced pressure. The crude solid was purified by chromatography column (hexanes / DCM; 3 : 7 in all cases). The target compound, which contained a large excess of cyano-acetic acid methyl ester, was further purified by washing with MeOH, giving pure derivatives 5, 6, and 7. Relative low yields are reported as follows due to the additional purification process.

5: a bluish green solid was obtained (47 % yield)

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 8.19 (bs, 2H), 7.4–7.1 (m, 24H), (3.5, s, 3H); ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 152.9, 147.45, 136.5, 135.6, 129.5, 127.3, 124.5, 122.1, 121.6, 123.4, 120.0, 115.4, 53.2MS: (ESI⁻); calculated: *m/z* 595.23; found: *m/z*: 537.0 [M-COOCH₃], 568.1 [M-CN]. IR: 3031, 2925, 2856, 2205, 1588, 1489, 1462, 1322, 1274, 754, 696.

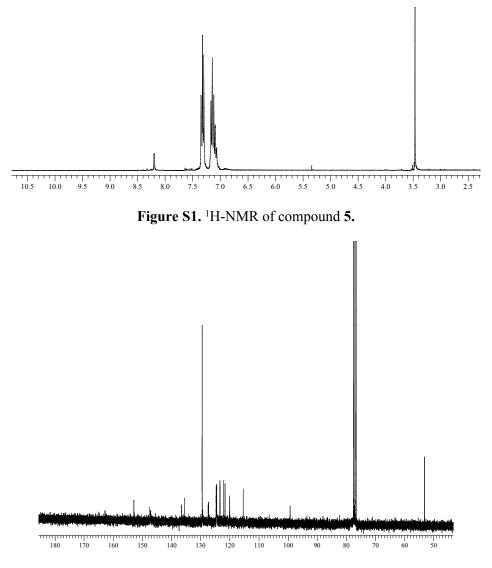


Figure S2. ¹³C-NMR of compound 5.

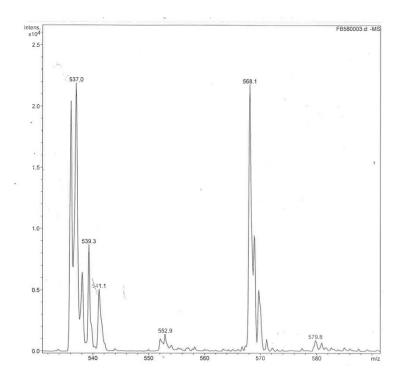


Figure S3. MS of compound 5.

6: a dark solid was obtained (43 % yield).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 8.40 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 8.5$ Hz), 8.14 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 8.7$ Hz), 7.30–7.27 (m, 8H), 7.12–7.09 (m, 12H), 6.98 (dd, 2H, $J_3 = 10.8$ Hz, $J_4 = 2.0$ Hz), 6.77 (dd, 1H, $J_3 = 8.8$ Hz, $J_4 = 2.2$ Hz), 6.69 (dd, 1H, $J_3 = 8.7$ Hz, $J_4 = 2.2$ Hz), 3.91 (s, 3H); ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 164.2, 156.4, 152.2, 152.1, 146.6, 146.5, 143.9, 143.6, 130.7, 129.7, 128.5, 128.1, 125.9, 125.8, 125.7, 124.7, 120.9, 120.5, 118.5, 112.7, 112.4, 92.8, 53.1; MS: (ESI⁺); calculated: *m/z* 595.23; found: *m/z*: 618.3 [M+Na]⁺, 634.3 [M+K]⁺. IR: 3062, 2924, 2855, 2204, 1726, 1586, 1489, 1276, 1238, 1099, 760, 698.

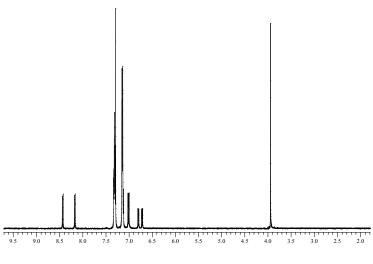


Figure S4. ¹H-NMR of compound 6.

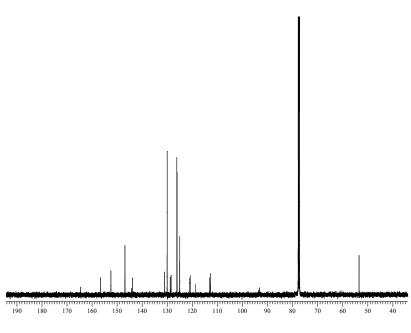


Figure S5. ¹³C-NMR of compound 6.

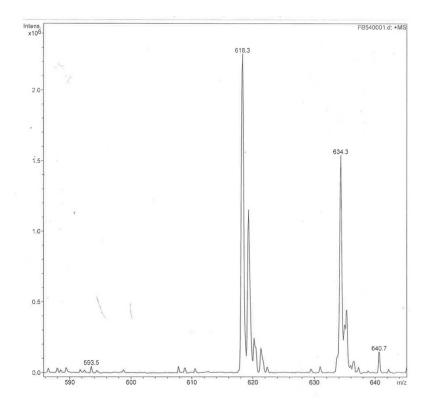


Figure S6. MS of compound 6.

7: a dark solid was obtained (37 % yield).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 8.54 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 13$ Hz), 8.16 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 13$ Hz), 7.73 (d, 2H, $J_3 = 8$ Hz), 7.45–7.41 (m, 4H), 7.38–7.35 (m, 2H), 7.31–7.28 (m, 7H), 7.22 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 5.6$ Hz), 7.14–7.05 (m, 18H), 6.99 (d, 2H, $J_3 = 10.5$ Hz), 4.00 (s, 3H). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 163.8, 156.2, 148.6, 147.7, 143.2, 142.9, 135.4, 134.3, 131.5, 131.4, 130.8, 130.9, 129.8, 128.3, 127.5, 127.3, 127.0, 126.2, 125.3, 123.9, 123.8, 123.4, 123.3, 117.7, 117.4, 117.3, 97.3; MS: (ESI⁺); calculated: *m/z* 799.32; found: *m/z*: 822.3[M+Na]⁺; 823.4 [M+H+Na]⁺, IR: 3030, 1730, 1541, 1497, 1280, 1236, 1180, 1100, 959, 831, 754, 665.

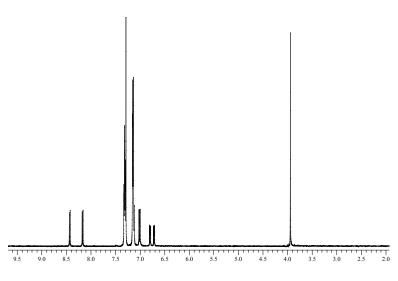


Figure S7. ¹H-NMR of compound 7.

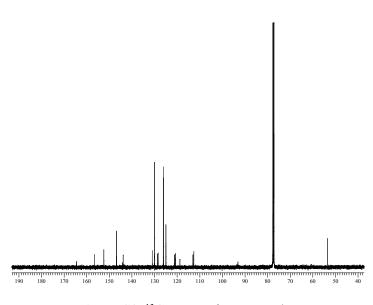


Figure S8. ¹³C-NMR of compound 7.

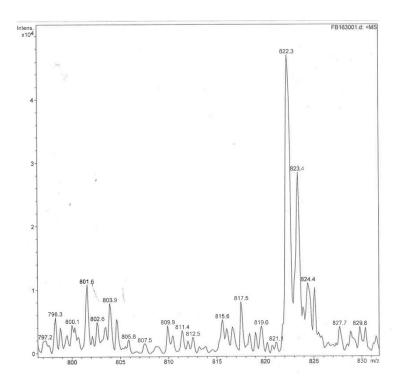


Figure S9. MS of compound 7.

2.3 Hydrolysis of esters

Due to intrinsic solubility issues of some of the described final materials (F2a, F3a and F3b), its complete characterization by NMR techniques was difficult to perform. However in all these materials, it is possible to appreciate the disappearance of the methoxy group, therefore confirming the hydrolysis of the esters. Additionally, it is important to remark here, that those materials difficult to study by NMR were correctly characterized by MS, HR-MS and FT-IR techniques.

F2a: ester derivative **5** (0.18 mmol) was dissolved in CH₃CN (30 mL) and treated with LiOH (excess, 86.4 mg, 3.6 mmol) dissolved in water (10 mL). The reaction was stirred at RT for 5–6 hrs and monitored by TLC (eluent mixture: DCM : hexanes; 1 : 1). Acetonitrile was removed under reduced pressure and the crude was extracted with AcOEt (3×25 mL) and a 10 % HCl water solution. The combined organic layers were dried over MgSO₄ and concentrated affording bluish green solid **F2a** (% yield).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 8.2 (bs, 2H), 7.7 (bs, 2H), 7.4–6.9 (m, 22H); MS: (ESI-); calculated: *m/z* 581.21; found: *m/z*: 604.2 [M+Na]⁻, 620.1 m/z: [M +K]⁻; HR MS: (ESI⁻); calculated: *m/z* 581.2103; found: *m/z*: 581.2079 [M]⁺; IR: 3031, 2925, 2856, 2205, 1588, 1489, 1462, 1322, 1274, 754, 696.

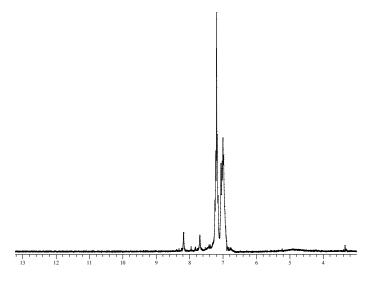


Figure S10. ¹H-NMR of compound F2a.

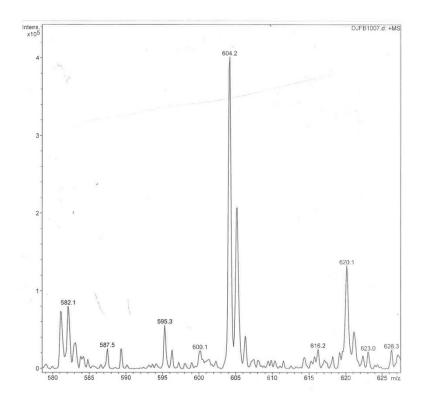


Figure S11. MS of compound F2a.

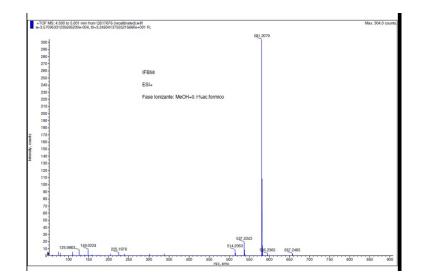


Figure S12. HR MS of compound F2a.

F3a: ester derivative **6** (0.20 mmol) was dissolved in 40 mL of a CH₃CN / methanol (1:1 v/v) solvent mixture and treated with an excess of NaOH (20–25 mL of a 3M water solution). The reaction was gently heated at 40–50 °C until no more ester was observed by TLC. Acetonitrile and methanol were removed under reduced pressure and the crude was extracted with DCM (3×30 ml) and a 10 % HCl solution. The organic layers were gathered, dried over Na₂SO₄, and evaporated under reduced pressure. The solid was washed with cyclohexane affording dark solid **F3a** (yield 42 %).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 8.40 (d, 1H, J_3 = 8.5 Hz), 8.20 (d, 1H, J_3 = 8.7 Hz), 7.30–7.27 (m, 8H), 7.12–7.09 (m, 12H), 6.98 (m, 2H), 6.77 (dd, 1H, J_3 = 8.8 Hz, J_4 = 2.2 Hz), 6.69 (dd, 1H, J_3 = 8.7 Hz, J_4 = 2.2 Hz); MS: (ESF); calculated: *m/z* 581.66; found: *m/z*:535.9 [M-COOH]⁺; IR: broad 3367, 3051, 2923, 2855, 2198, 1692, 1587, 1489, 1276, 754, 696.

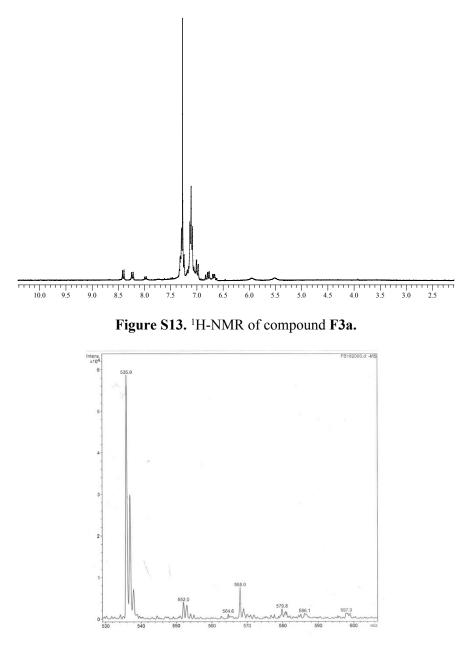


Figure S14. MS of compound F3a.

F3b: ester derivative 7 (0.20 mmol) was dissolved in 40 mL of a CH₃CN / methanol (1:1 v/v) solvent mixture and treated with an excess of NaOH (20–25 mL of a 3M water solution). The reaction was gently heated at 40–50 °C until no more ester was observed by TLC. Acetonitrile and methanol were removed under reduced pressure and the crude was extracted with DCM (3×30 ml) and a 10 % HCl solution. The organic layers were gathered, dried over Na₂SO₄, and evaporated under reduced pressure. The solid was washed with cyclohexane and pentane, **F3b** (yield 8 8%).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 8.05 (bs, 2H), 7.73 (bs, 2H), 7.5-6.9 (m, 34H); MS: (ESI⁻); calculated: *m/z* 785.93; found: *m/z*: 740.1 [M-COOH]⁺; IR: broad 3359, 3199, 2201, 1663, 1619, 1394, 753, 696.

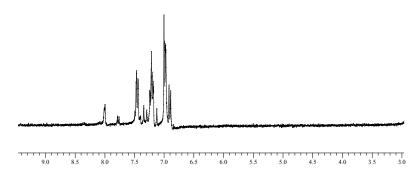


Figure S15. ¹H-NMR of compound F3b.

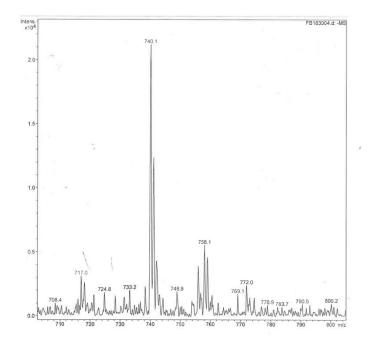
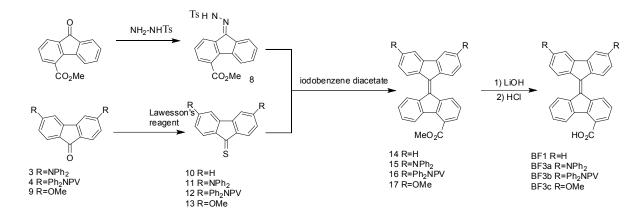


Figure S16. MS of compound F3b.

3 Synthesis of 9'9-fluorenylidene derivatives (BF series)



Scheme S2. Synthesis of BF1, BF3a, BF3b, and BF3c.

3.1 Synthesis of tosylhydrazone

8: 4-carboxymethyl fluoren-9-one (1.0 g, 4.2 mmol), was refluxed in methanol in the presence of tosylhydrazine (1.2 g; 6.3 mmol) and a catalytic amount of HCl (36%). After heating for a few hours the suspension turned pale yellow. TLC (eluent : DCM) was used to monitor the reaction. The cooled solution gave a pale yellow precipitate of **8** that was filtered on Buchner. (1.4 g, yield 82%).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, [D₆]DMSO): δ ppm mixture of isomers: 8,33 (dd, $J_3 = 8$ Hz, $J_4 = 1$ Hz), 8,18 (dd, $J_3 = 7$ Hz, $J_4 = 1.0$ Hz), 8.15 (dd, $J_3 = 9$ Hz, $J_4 = 1.0$ Hz), 7,95–7.93 (m), 7,82 (dd, $J_3 = 7$ Hz, $J_4 = 1.0$ Hz), 7.77 (dd, $J_3 = 8$ Hz, $J_4 = 1$ Hz), 7.64 (dd, $J_3 = 7$ Hz, $J_4 = 0.4$ Hz), 7.58–7.50 (m), 7.47–7.42 (m), 7.38 (td, $J_3 = 7$ Hz, $J_4 = 1$ Hz), 3.96 (s), 3.94 (s), 2.39 (s). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, [D₆]DMSO): δ ppm mixture of isomers: 167.5, 167.4, 150.0, 150.0, 143.9, 143.9, 139.6, 139.4, 137.5, 137.5, 137.4, 136.6, 135.0, 135.0, 132.2, 131.8, 131.7, 130.8, 130.5, 130.2, 129.5, 129.4, 129.1, 128.9, 128.3, 128.1, 128.0, 128.0, 127.6, 126.7, 126.4, 124.6, 124.5, 124.2, 121.2, 52.6, 20.99. MS: (ESI-); calculated: *m/z* 406.10; found: *m/z*: 404.8 [M-H]⁻. IR: 2923, 2855, 1708, 1596, 1439, 1343, 1276, 1168, 957, 879, 816, 772, 735, 682.

3.2 Synthesis of fluroene-thione derivatives

11: the corresponding fluorenone derivative 3 (103 mg, 0.2 mmol) and Lawesson's reagent (80 mg, 0.2 mmol) were heated in toluene (100 mL) at 90–100 °C for 5–6 hrs. The reaction was protected from the light with aluminum foil and monitored by TLC (hexanes/DCM 1:1). The solvent was removed under reduced pressure and the residue purified by chromatography column over silica gel (eluent: hexanes/DCM 1:1) to afford brown solid **11** (67% yield).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 7.63 (d, 2H, $J_3 = 8.3$ Hz), (s, 2H), 7.32–7.29 (m, 8H), 7.15–7.11 (m, 12H), 6.94 (d, 2H, $J_1 = 1.9$ Hz), 6.73 (d, 2H, $J_3 = 8.3$ Hz, $J_4 = 1.9$ Hz). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 219.68, 153.3, 146.7, 144.7, 136.6, 129.7, 125.8, 125.6, 124.7, 121.2, 112.4. MS: (ESI⁺); calculated: *m/z* 530.68; found: *m/z*: 529.2 [M-H]⁻, 530.2 [M]⁺, 531.2 [M+H]⁺. IR: 1585, 1484, 1327, 1274, 1105, 754, 697, 654.

12: 4 (143 mg, 0.2 mmol) and Lawesson's reagent (80 mg, 0.2 mmol) were heated in toluene (120 mL) at 90–100 °C for 5–6 hrs. The reaction was protected from the light with aluminum foil and monitored by TLC (hexanes/DCM 1:1). The solvent was removed under reduced pressure and the residue purified by chromatography column over silica gel (eluent: hexanes/DCM 1 : 1) to afford brown solid **12** (83% yield).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 7.74 (d, 2H, *J*₃ = 7.7 Hz), 7.76 (s, 2H), 7.43 (d, 5H, *J*₃ = 8.2 Hz), 7.30–7.27 (m, 7H), 7.14–7.13 (m, 10H), 7.08–7.05 (m, 12H). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 223.8, 148.3, 147.5, 144.1, 143.7, 141.1, 131.2, 130.7, 129.5, 129.5, 128.0, 127.4, 126.4, 125.0, 124.8, 124.7, 124.6, 123.6, 123.1, 116.9. MS: (ESI⁻); calculated: *m/z* 734.28; found: *m/z*: 734.2 [M]⁻, 735.1 [M+H]⁻. IR: 2923, 2854, 1588, 1496, 1323, 1269, 1216, 1097, 1028, 804, 757, 697, 669.

3.3 Barton's two fold coupling: general procedure for the synthesis of esters (13, 14, 15).

A solution of hydrazone **8** (295 mg, 3 eq, 1.2 mmol) was dissolved in 100 mL of anhydrous THF. Activated manganese oxide (100 mg, 10 eq, 12 mmol) was added to the solution and stirred at RT under N_2 . The reaction was monitored by TLC using DCM as the eluent. The solution was filtered on celite and washing with dry THF to collect all the diaza-intermediate. The filtrate, without any further purification, was quickly added to 0.40 mmol (1 eq) of the corresponding thione **10, 11, 12**, and **13**. The reaction was stirred overnight at room temperature and covered with aluminum foil. The solvent was removed under reduced pressure, and the residue was purified by column chromatography.

14: the crude was purified by chromatography column over silica gel (eluent: hexanes/DCM 4 : 6), affording orange solid **14** (75% yield).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 8.55 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 8.1$ Hz), 8.43, (d, 1H, $J_3 = 8.1$ Hz), 8.37 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 7.7$ Hz), 8.23 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 7.9$ Hz), 8.19 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 7.9$ Hz), 7.60 (d, 3H, $J_3 = 7.3$ Hz), 7.35–7.31 (m, 3H), 7.25–7.18 (m, 4H), 4.05 (s, 3H); ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 168.9, 141.7, 141.7, 141.6, 140.3, 140.1, 139.6, 139.1, 138.4, 138.3, 130.6, 129.7, 129.6, 129.5, 129.4, 127.6, 127.2, 127.2, 127.1, 127.0, 126.8, 126.5, 126.0, 124.8, 120.2, 120.1, 52.6. MS: (ESI⁺); calculated: *m/z* 381.1; found: *m/z*: 409.1 [M+Na]⁺; IR: 3059, 2924, 2856, 1718, 1604, 1445, 1262, 1190, 1137, 1088, 736.

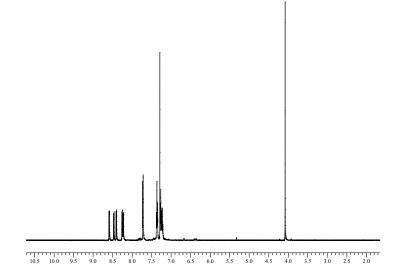


Figure S17. ¹H-NMR of compound 14.

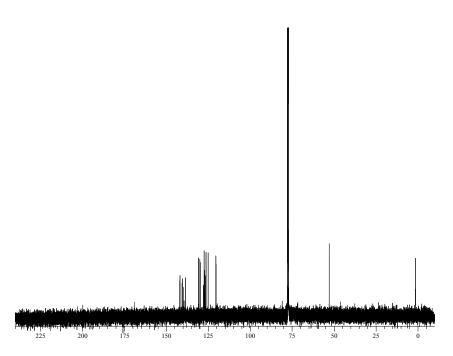


Figure S18. ¹³C-NMR of compound 14.

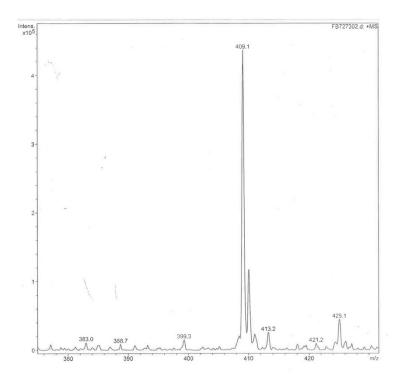


Figure S19. MS of compound 14.

15: the crude was purified by chromatography column over silica gel (eluent: hexanes/DCM 6:4), affording red solid **15** (67% yield).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 8.52 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 8.2$ Hz), 8.39 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 7.9$ Hz), 8.22–8.20 (m, 2H), 8.06 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 8.8$ Hz), 7.66 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 7.5$ Hz), 7.31–7.27 (m, 11H including CDCl₃), 7.23 (q, 2H, $J_3 = 7.7$ Hz), 7.17–7.15 (m, 8H), 7.07 (t, 4H, $J_3 = 7.7$ Hz), 6.85–6.81 (m, 2H), 4.06 (s, 3H). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 169.1, 149.3, 149.2,147.4, 147.4, 142.7, 142.5, 141.1, 140.2, 139.3, 138.7, 138.6, 135.7, 133.1, 133.0, 129.5, 129.4, 129.2, 128.2, 128.2, 127.9, 127.2, 126.6, 126.0, 125.6, 125.0, 124.5, 123.7, 123.6, 122.1, 122.0, 114.6, 114.6, 52.48. MS: (ESI⁻); calculated: *m/z* 720.28; found: *m/z*: 743.3 [M+Na]⁺,744.3 [M+H+Na]⁺; IR: 3062, 2923, 2855, 2258, 1726, 1589, 1488, 1447, 1329, 1271, 1129, 761, 695.

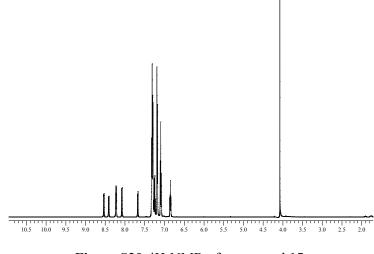


Figure S20. ¹H-NMR of compound 15.

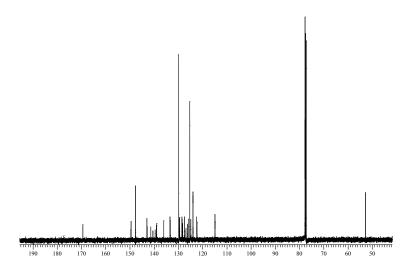


Figure S21. ¹³C-NMR of compound 15.

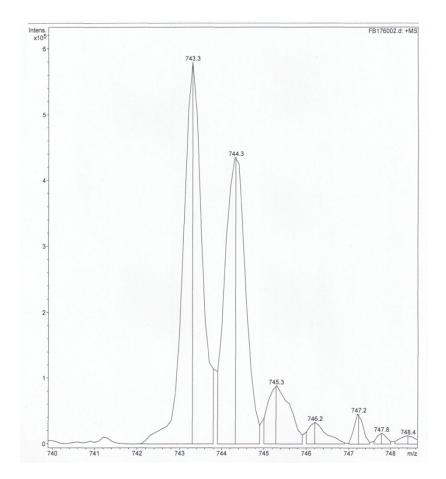


Figure S22. MS of compound 15.

16: the crude was purified by chromatography column over silica gel (eluent: hexanes/DCM 1:1), affording dark solid **16** (50% yield).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 8.52 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 7.5$ Hz), 8.40 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 7.8$ Hz), 8.30 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 8.3$ Hz), 8.20 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 8.0$ Hz), 8.16 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 8.3$ Hz), 7.87 (s, 2H), 7.68 (d, 1H, $J_3 = 7.5$ Hz), 7.44 (d, 4H, $J_1 = 8.4$ Hz), 7.35-7.21 (m, 13H including CDCl₃), 7.14–7.04 (m, 20H), 4.05 (s, 3H); ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 168.9, 147.9, 147.9, 147.6, 142.0, 141.8, 141.2, 140.2, 139.4, 139.3, 139.2, 139.1, 139.0, 138.0, 137.9, 131.3, 131.3, 130.3, 129.6, 129.5, 129.4, 129.4, 129.1, 127.7, 127.5, 127.4, 127.2, 126.9, 126.9, 126.7, 126.4, 125.9, 125.5, 125.5, 124.8, 123.5, 123.4, 117.6, 117.6, 52.55. MS (Maldi-TOF); DCM/Ditranol; calculated: *m/z* 924.37; found *m/z*: 924.4 [M]⁺, 925.4 [M+H]⁺, 926.4 [M+2H]⁺; IR: 3013, 2948, 2061, 1722, 1592, 1428, 1265, 1190, 1138, 1087, 751.

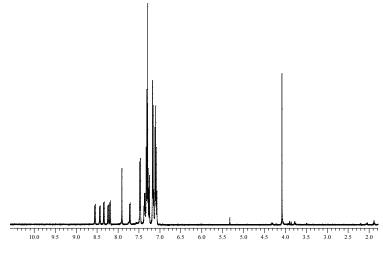


Figure S23. ¹H-NMR of compound 16.

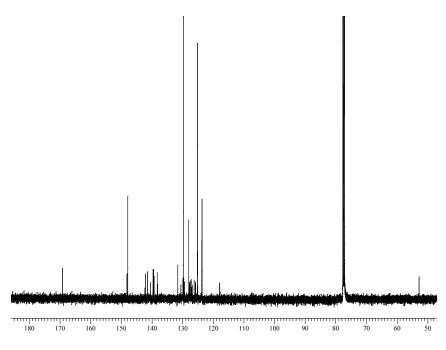


Figure S24. ¹³C-NMR of compound 16.

17: the crude was purified by chromatography column over silica gel (eluent: hexanes/DCM 1:1) affording red solid (54% yield).

¹H-NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 8.47 (dd, 1H, $J_1 = 7.8$ Hz, $J_2 = 0.9$ Hz), 8.36 (dd, 1H, $J_1 = 7.8$ Hz, $J_2 = 0.9$ Hz), 8.22 (t, 2H, $J_1 = 8.7$ Hz), 8.08 (d, 1H, $J_1 = 8.7$ Hz), 7.65 (dd, 1H, $J_1 = 7.7$ Hz, $J_2 = 1.0$ Hz), 7.30 (td, 1H, $J_1 = 7.6$ Hz, $J_2 = 1.2$ Hz), 7.26-7.13 (m, 4H), 6.75–6.70 (m, 2H), 4.05 (s, 3H), 3.92 (s, 3H), 3.91(s, 3H); ¹³C-NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 169.0, 161.3, 161.3, 143.3, 143.2, 141.3, 140.2, 139.2, 138.8, 138.7, 135.6, 132.2, 132.1, 129.5, 129.2, 128.5, 128.3, 128.3, 127.2, 126.6, 125.9, 125.6, 124.6, 113.1, 105.3, 55.7, 52.5. MS: (ESI⁺); calculated: *m/z* 446.15; found: *m/z*: 469.1[M+Na]⁺; IR: 2927, 2844, 1722, 1607, 1489, 1461, 1433, 1295, 1239, 1202, 1167, 1131, 1031, 953, 765.

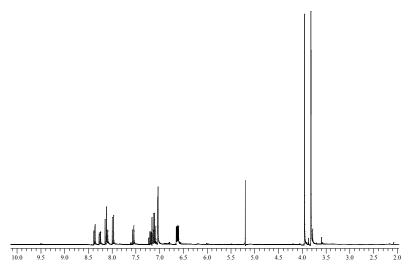


Figure S25. ¹H-NMR of compound 17.

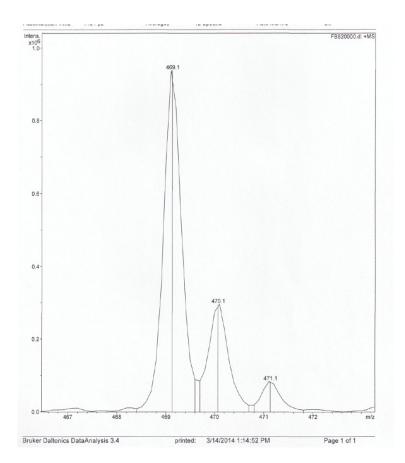


Figure S26. MS of compound 17.

3.4 Hydrolysis of 9'9-fluorenylidene ester derivatives

BF1: **14** (0.18 mmol) was dissolved in CH₃CN (30 mL) and treated with LiOH (excess, 86.4 mg, 3.6 mmol) dissolved in water (10 mL). The reaction was stirred at RT for 5–6 hrs and monitored by TLC (eluent mixture: DCM : hexanes; 1 : 1). Acetonitrile was removed under reduced pressure and the crude was extracted with AcOEt (3×25 mL) and a 10% HCl water solution. The combined organic layers were dried over MgSO₄ and concentrated to dryness under reduced pressure affording orange solid **BF1** which was recrystallized from hot cyclohexane (75% yield).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, *d6*-Acetone): δ ppm 8.60 (dd, 1H, $J_1 = 7.9$ Hz, $J_2 = 0.9$ Hz), 8.46 (d, 1H, $J_1 = 7.5$ Hz), 8.42 (d, 1H, $J_1 = 7.7$ Hz), 8.40 (d, 1H, $J_1 = 8.1$ Hz), 8.29 (d, 1H, $J_1 = 7.9$ Hz), 7.86 (d, 2H, $J_1 = 7.5$ Hz), 7.82 (d, 2H, $J_1 = 7.6$ Hz, $J_2 = 0.9$ Hz), 7.42–7.36 (m, 3H), 7.34–7.26 (m, 3H). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, *d6*-Acetone): δ ppm 141.98, 139.9, 139.03, 131.10, 129.73, 127.94, 127.58, 127.36, 125.43, 120.61. MS: (ESF); calculated: *m/z* 372.12; found: *m/z*: 370.9 [M-H]⁻; IR: 3067, 2924, 2857, 1697, 1438, 1342, 1279, 1151, 934, 764, 726.

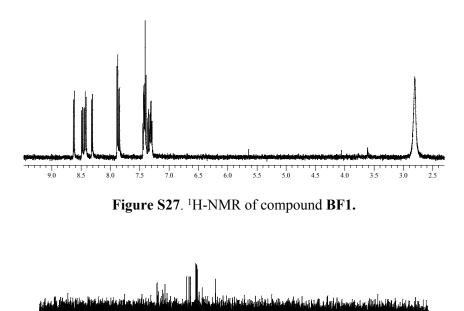




Figure S28. ¹³C-NMR of compound BF1.

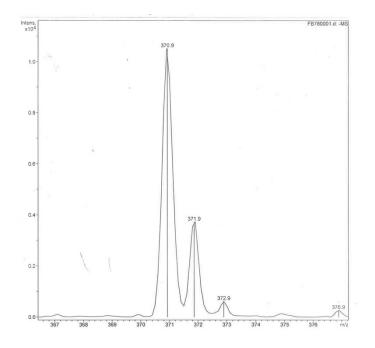


Figure S29. MS of compound BF1.

General procedure for BF3a, BF3b, and BF3d

The corresponding ester derivatives **15**, **16**, and **17** (0.20 mmol) were dissolved in 40 mL of a CH₃CN / methanol (1:1 v/v) solvent mixture and treated with an excess of NaOH (20–25 mL of a 3M water solution). The reaction was gently heated at 40–50 °C until no more ester was observed by TLC. Reaction time varies from 5 hrs to 12 hrs. Work up: acetonitrile and methanol were removed under reduced pressure and the crude was extracted with DCM (3×30 ml) and a 10% HCl solution. The organic layers were gathered, dried over Na₂SO₄ and evaporated under reduced pressure. The solid was washed with cyclohexane or pentane, yielding corresponding acids BF3a, BF3b, and BF3d.

BF3a: A dark violet solid was obtained by washing with hot pentane (yield 90%).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, [D₆]DMSO): δ ppm 8.33 (d, 1H, *J* = 8.0 Hz), 8.25 (m, 2H), 8.12 (d, 1H, *J* = 8 Hz), 8.06 (d, 1H, *J* = 8 Hz), 7.55 (d, 1H, *J* = 8 Hz), 7.40–6.90 (m, 25H), 6.75 (m, 2H). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 170.1, 149.5, 146.9,146.4, 142.2, 140.05, 139.2, 138.7, 138.4, 136.9, 135.07, 132.3, 130.01, 129.22, 128.78, 128.42, 128.19, 127.6, 126.6, 126.16, 125.76, 125.25, 124.42, 121.60, 113.7.MS: (ESI⁻); calculated: *m*/*z* 706.26; found: *m*/*z*: 705.3 [M-H]⁺, 706.0 [M]⁺; HR MS: (ESI⁺); calculated: *m*/*z* 706.2620; found: *m*/*z*: 706.2648; IR: broad 3600-3400, 3030, 2924, 2857, 1694, 1589, 1487, 1320, 1272, 754, 695.

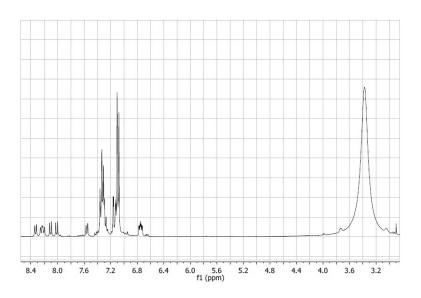


Figure S30. ¹H-NMR of compound BF3a.

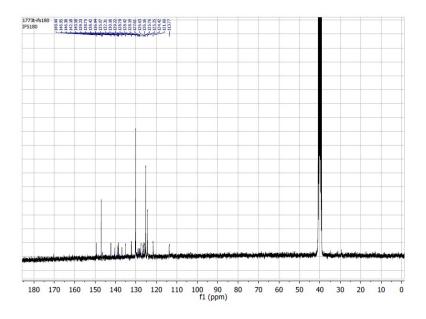


Figure S31. ¹³C-NMR of compound BF3a.

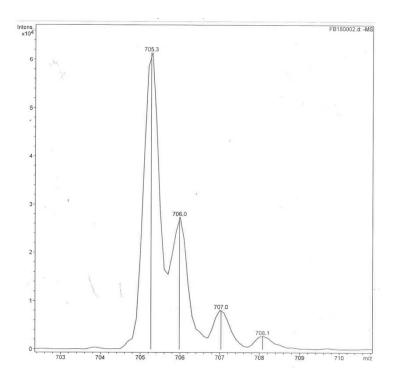


Figure S32. MS of compound BF3a.

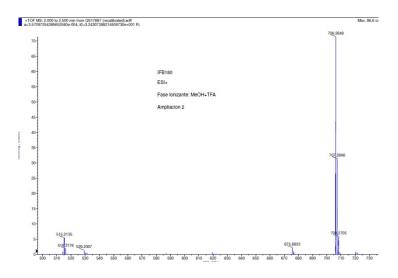


Figure S33. HR MS of compound BF3a.

BF3b: A dark solid was obtained by washing with hot pentane (yield 42%).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, [D₆]DMSO): δ ppm 8.40–8.10 (m, 5H), 7.6–6.9 (m, 32 H). ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃): δ ppm 147.6, 147.3, 131.4, 130.1, 128.3, 124.85, 123.9, 123.26. MS: (ESI⁻); calculated: *m/z* 909.08; found: *m/z*: 909.1 [M]⁺; HR MS: (ESI⁺); calculated: *m/z* 908.3403; found: *m/z*: 908.3403 [M+H]⁺; IR: broad 3400, 2924, 2856, 1714, 1650, 1497, 1280, 752, 696.

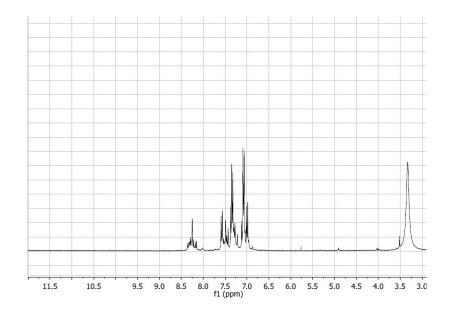


Figure S34. ¹H-NMR of compound BF3b.

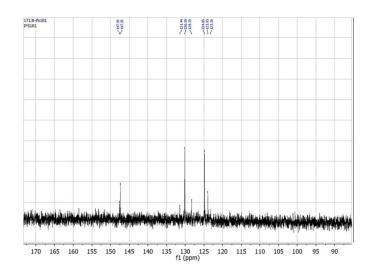


Figure S35. ¹³C-NMR of compound BF3b.

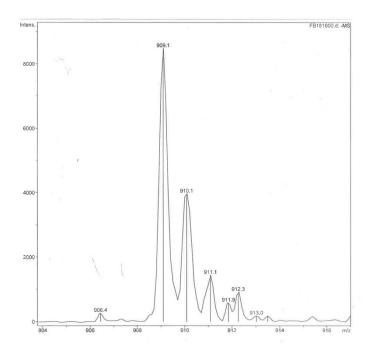


Figure S36. MS of compound BF3b.

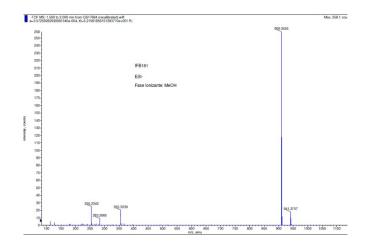


Figure S37. HR MS of compound BF3b.

BF3c: A red solid was obtained by washing with hot cyclohexane (yield 95%).

¹H-NMR (500 MHz, d_6 -Acetone): δ ppm 8.53 (d, 1H, $J_I = 7.7$ Hz), 8.39 (d, 1H, $J_I = 7.7$ Hz), 8.25 (d, 1H, $J_I = 8.8$ Hz), 8.15 (d, 1H, $J_I = 8.8$ Hz), 7.78. (d, 1H, $J_I = 7.7$ Hz), 7.46 (d, 2H, $J_I = 2.7$ Hz), 7.39–7.28 (m, 4H), 6.86–6.83 (m, 2H), 3.95 (s, 6H); ¹³C-NMR (125 MHz, d_6 -Acetone): δ ppm 169.6, 162.7, 162.6, 144.4, 144.3, 142.2, 140.7, 139.8, 139.7, 139.2, 135.8, 132.4, 132.3, 130.5, 129.7, 129.2, 129.0, 128.9, 128.2, 128.1, 126.7, 126.5, 125.8, 114.3, 106.4, 106.4, 56.1. MS: (ESI⁻); calculated: *m/z* 432.14; found: *m/z*: 430.9 [M-H]⁺, 431.9 [M]⁺; HR MS: (ESI⁻); calculated: *m/z* 432.1362; found: *m/z*: 433.1417 [M+H]⁺; IR: 3416, 2925, 2854, 1604, 1461, 1401, 1300, 1236, 1030, 765.

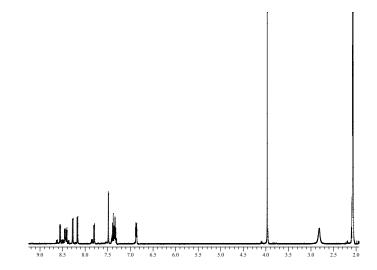


Figure S38. ¹H-NMR of compound BF3c.

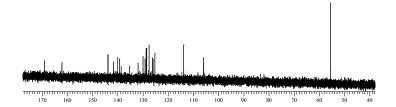


Figure S39. ¹³C-NMR of compound BF3c.

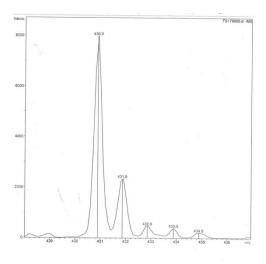


Figure S40. MS of compound BF3c.

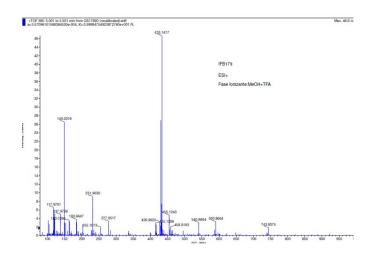


Figure S41. HR MS of compound BF3c.

Theoretical calculations

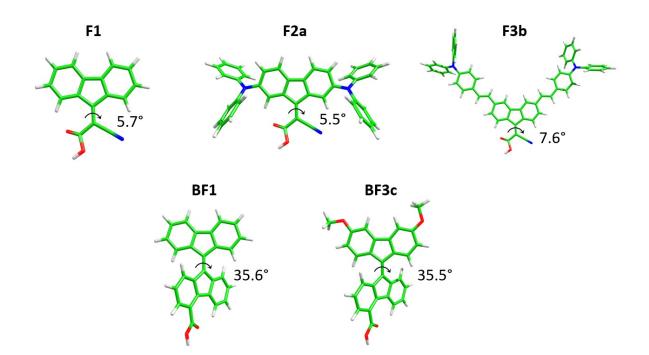


Figure S42. B3LYP/cc-pVDZ-optimized geometries calculated for **F1**, **F2a**, **F3b**, **BF1** and **BF3c** in dichloromethane. The rotational angle between the fluorene unit and the acceptor cyanoacrylic acid group in **F1**, **F2a** and **F3b** and between the two fluorene units in **BF1** and **BF3c** are indicated.

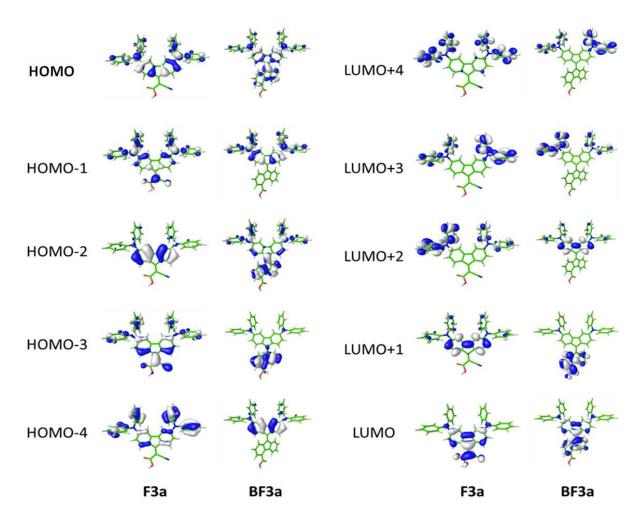


Figure S43. Energy diagram showing the isovalue contours (±0.03 a.u.) computed for the HOMOs and LUMOs of the representative dyes **F3a** and **BF3a** at the B3LYP/cc-pVDZ level.

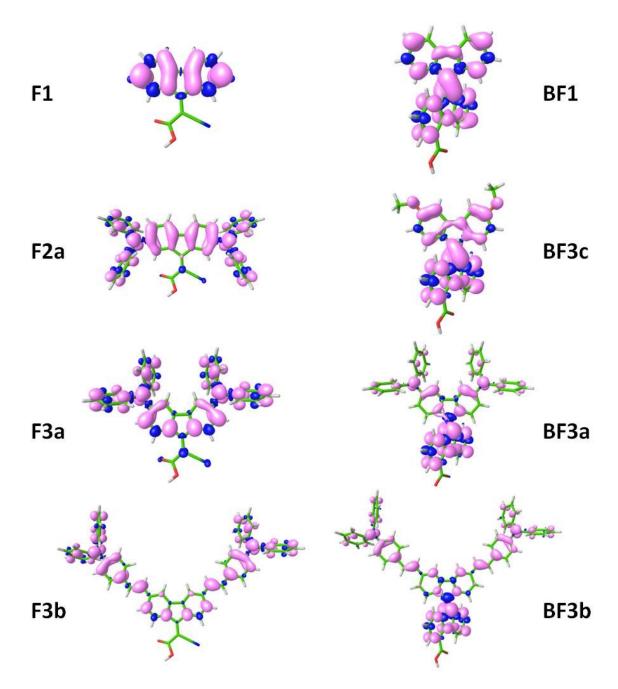


Figure S44. Representation of the electron spin densities calculated for the optimized cationic species at the B3LYP/cc-pVDZ level in dichloromethane.

Table S1. Lowest-energy singlet excited states calculated for all the investigated dyes using the TD-DFT approach and dimethylformamide as solvent. Vertical excitation energies (E), oscillator strengths (f), dominant monoexcitations with contributions (within parentheses) greater than 40%, and description of the excited state are summarized. H and L denote HOMO and LUMO, respectively.

Dye	State	<i>E</i> (eV)	E (nm)	f	Monoexcitations	%	Description
	S_1	2.4298	510	0.0011	H→L	99	СТ
	S_2	3.4695	357	0.2864	H-1→L	56	Core+Acceptor
	-				H-2→L	40	СТ
	S_3	3.4942	355	0.2460	H-2→L	54	СТ
	5				H-1→L	41	Core+Acceptor
	S_6	4.7593	261	0.7128	H→L+1	88	Core
F2a	S ₁	1.3353	929	0.0358	H→L	99	СТ
	S_2	1.9617	632	0.0010	H-1→L	100	СТ
	S_4	3.1407	395	0.6063	H→L+1	86	Donor
	S_6	3.3876	366	0.3764	H-5→L	71	СТ
F3a	S_1	1.9131	648	0.2640	H→L	97	СТ
	S_2	2.3720	523	0.5242	H-1→L	99	СТ
	S_3	2.8377	437	0.1263	H-2→L	95	СТ
	S_4	3.4358	361	0.1901	$H \rightarrow L+1$	87	Core+Donor
	S_5	3.5959	345	0.1260	H-3→L	82	Core+Acceptor
F3b	\mathbf{S}_1	1.6024	774	0.6920	H→L	97	СТ
	\mathbf{S}_2	1.8065	686	0.4811	H-1→L	100	СТ
	S_3	2.3299	532	0.0019	H-2→L	88	СТ
	\mathbf{S}_4	2.8114	441	0.4643	H-3→L	98	Core+Acceptor
	S_5	2.8788	431	0.5799	H-4→L	80	СТ
	S_6	3.0389	408	0.6747	$H \rightarrow L+1$	95	Donor
	\mathbf{S}_7	3.0859	402	0.4811	H-1→L+1	83	Donor
BF1	\mathbf{S}_1	2.4411	508	0.5841	H→L	100	Core
	\mathbf{S}_4	3.2820	378	0.0342	$H \rightarrow L+1$	98	СТ
	S_5	3.4961	355	0.0301	H-3→L	89	Core
	S_6	3.5928	345	0.0322	H-4→L	76	Core
BF3a	\mathbf{S}_1	1.9397	639	0.1989	H-1→L	98	СТ
	S_2	1.9915	623	0.8444	H→L	100	Core
	S_5	2.8564	434	0.0715	H-4→L	89	СТ
	S_6	2.8929	429	0.0789	H-2→L	85	Core
	S_9	3.4297	362	0.1644	H-1→L+2	90	Donor
BF3b	\mathbf{S}_1	1.7215	720	0.5113	H-1→L	97	СТ
	S_2	1.7784	697	0.8792	H→L	100	СТ
	S_3	2.3332	531	0.3243	H-2→L	99	Core
	S_7	2.9242	424	1.2990	$H\rightarrow L+2$	77	Donor
	\mathbf{S}_{10}	3.0581	405	0.5816	H-1→L+2	88	Donor
BF3c	\mathbf{S}_1	2.3526	527	0.7128	Н→L	100	Core
	S_4	3.0643	405	0.0342	H→L+1	98	СТ
	S_5	3.3389	371	0.0733	H-3→L	92	Core

Table S2. Lowest-energy doublet excited states calculated for the cationic species of representative dyes using the TD-DFT approach. Vertical excitation energies (E), oscillator strengths (f), dominant monoexcitations with contributions (within parentheses) greater than 40%, and description of the excited state are summarized. H and L denote HOMO and LUMO, respectively.

Cation	State	E(eV)	E (nm)	f	Monoexcitations	%	Description
F2a	\mathbf{D}_1	0.9877	1255	0.487	H-1→SOMO	94	Donor
	D_2	1.4480	856	0.1327	SOMO→L	92	СТ
	D_9	2.2179	559	0.0116	H-6→SOMO	50	Donor
F3a	D_1	0.3793	3269	0.0835	H-1→SOMO	98*	Donor
	D_2	1.2310	1007	0.0234	H-2→SOMO	94	Donor
	D_3	1.5924	779	0.1314	H-3→SOMO	91	Donor
	D_4	1.6050	773	0.015	H-1→L	59	СТ
	D_5	1.8024	688	0.0042	H-4→SOMO	97	Donor
	D_6	1.8328	676	0.014	H-5→SOMO	98	Donor
	D_7	1.9492	636	0.0099	H-6→SOMO	93	Donor
	D ₁₃	2.2058	562	0.1298	SOMO→L	85	Donor
F3b	D_1	0.3112	3984	0.2207	H-1→SOMO	99*	Donor
	D_2	1.0220	1213	0.1204	H-2→SOMO	94	Donor
	D_3	1.1725	1057	0.2727	H-3→SOMO	98	Donor
	D_4	1.4159	876	0.0098	H-1→L	61	СТ
	D_5	1.4996	827	0.0557	H-4→SOMO	88	Donor
	D_6	1.7759	698	0.2864	SOMO→L	65	СТ
	\mathbf{D}_{11}	2.0456	606	0.2581	H-7→SOMO	40	Donor
BF3a	D_1	0.5362	2312	0.0639	H-1→SOMO	94	СТ
	D_4	1.4711	843	0.0234	H-1→L	64	СТ
	D_5	1.6480	752	0.0998	H-4→SOMO	61	СТ
	D_6	1.6530	750	0.4312	SOMO→L	40	Core
	D_7	1.8555	668	0.2588	H-1→L	55	СТ
	D_8	2.0833	595	0.0224	H-7→SOMO	47	Donor
BF3b	D_1	0.3218	3853	0.2014	H-1→SOMO	98*	Donor
	D_2	0.7906	1568	0.1911	H-2→SOMO	87	Donor
	D_3	1.1308	1096	0.1569	H-3→SOMO	94	Donor
	D_6	1.3178	941	0.4011	SOMO→L	42	СТ
	D_7	1.5648	792	0.6233	H-1→L	57	СТ
	D_{10}	1.8069	686	0.1614	H-5→SOMO	45	Donor
	D ₁₉	2.2500	551	0.1745	H-2→L	44	Core

Photophysical measurements

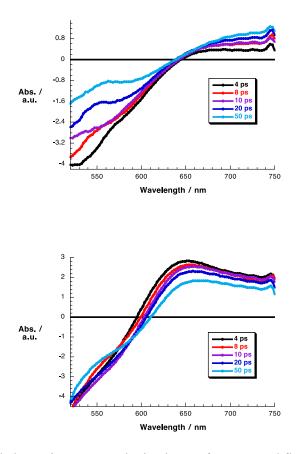


Figure S45. Differential absorption spectra obtained upon femtosecond flash photolysis ($\lambda_{exc} = 480$ nm) of 3 µm-thick TiO₂ films sensitized with **BF3a** (top) and **BF3b** (bottom) with several time delays at room temperature showing the spectral characteristics of the oxidized states generated after charge injection into TiO₂.

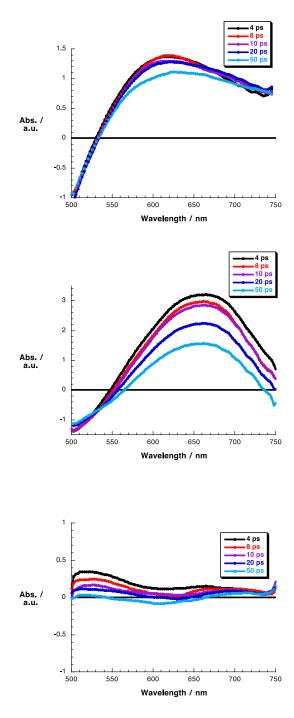


Figure S46. Differential absorption spectra obtained upon femtosecond flash photolysis ($\lambda_{exc} = 480$ nm) of 3 µm-thick TiO₂ films sensitized with **F2a** (top), **F3b** (middle) and **F3a** (bottom) with several time delays at room temperature showing the spectral characteristics of the oxidized states generated after charge injection into TiO₂.

Photovoltaic measurements

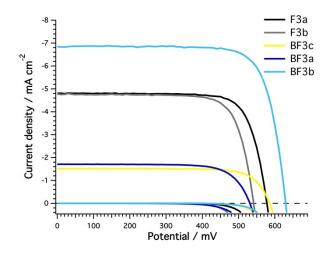


Figure S47. Photocurrent density-voltage characteristic curves of devices sensitized with **F3a**, **F3b**, **BF3a**, **BF3b** and **BF3c** measured under AM 1.5G simulated sunlight illumination (100 mW cm⁻²) and in dark with different dyes.

Table S3. Detailed photovoltaic parameters of devices measured under AM 1.5G simulated sunlight illumination (100 mW cm⁻²).

Dye	J _{sc} / mA cm ⁻²	V _{oc} / mV	FF	PCE / %
F3a	4.802	577	0.767	2.11
F3b	4.777	540	0.758	1.94
BF3a	1.702	530	0.738	0.66
BF3b	6.840	629	0.772	3.29
BF3c	1.514	584	0.766	0.67

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