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Thermodynamic forecasting of mechanically interlocked switches[†]

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Mechanically interlocked molecular (MIM) switches in the form of bistable [2]rotaxanes and [2]catenanes have proven to be—when incorporated in molecular electronic devices (MEDs) and in nanoelectromechanical systems (NEMS)-a realistic and viable alternative to the silicon chip density challenge. Structural modifications and chemical environment can have a large impact on the relaxation thermodynamics of the molecular motions, such as translation and circumrotation in bistable rotaxanes and catenanes responsible for the operation of devices based on MIMs. The effects of structural modifications on the difference in free energy (ΔG°) for the equilibrium processes in switchable MIMs can be predicted by considering, firstly, the interactions present in their precursor pseudorotaxanes. By employing isothermal titration microcalorimetry (ITC) to investigate the thermodynamic parameters governing pseudorotaxane formation for a series of monosubstituted, acceptor host cyclophanes with various donor guests, in conjunction with X-ray crystallographic data, an obvious link between the noncovalent bonding interactions in pseudorotaxanes and MIMs that survive following the formation of the mechanical bond can be identified. It follows that the changes ($\Delta\Delta G^{\circ}$ values) in the difference of free energy during the formation of different pseudorotaxanes can subsequently be extrapolated to predict ΔG° values for the thermodynamics associated with switching in analogous MIM switches, employing the same donor-acceptor recognition components. In this manner, a systematic and predictive thermodynamic approach to designing and tuning switchable MIMs and MIM-based materials has been established. Additionally, these thermodynamic relationships are reminiscent of the long forgotten concept of the 'parachor' as a molecular descriptor with respect to the additivity of physical properties in chemical systems dealing specifically with quantitative structure property-activity relationships (QSPR/QSAR).

Introduction

Mechanically interlocked molecules (MIMs)¹ have a rich evolutionary history, encompassing single-station rotaxanes and catenanes,² degenerate molecular shuttles,³ and ultimately bistable molecular switches.⁴ The potential for molecular electronics,⁵ and other applications,⁶ where these molecules have been incorporated and can be addressed by chemical,⁷ electrochemical,⁸ and photochemical⁹ means, is the result of the ability to tune the properties of the molecules themselves through subtle synthetic manipulations. These structural modifications play¹⁰ a key role in the ground-state equilibrium thermodynamics of the molecular switches, which, in turn, carry over to device^{5,6} behaviour. Since there are only a few examples of investigations relating to how

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structural modifications to bistable molecular switches affect their device behaviour, there is a knowledge gap surrounding the consequences of these changes on device properties. Structure– activity investigations, which shed light on this relationship, could lead to more complex MIMs with advanced properties and applications.

The structural parameters that control association constants (K_a) in host–guest¹¹ complexes can be understood experimentally by comparing the free energy of binding (ΔG°) between different host and guest components. The utility of host–guest binding studies is that they provide a straightforward, thermodynamic understanding of the parameters that affect such binding. An exemplary study by Cram *et al.*,¹² on the binding of primary alkylammonium ion guests in crown ether hosts led to the concepts of preorganisation and complementarity,¹³ laying the groundwork for the field of supramolecular chemistry.¹¹ Herein, we intend to show how similar structure–activity investigations of the binding of donor–acceptor pseudorotaxanes can have an analogous impact on the emerging field of MIMs as switches.

Pseudorotaxanes¹⁴ are supramolecular complexes which consist of a linear guest that is threaded and bound within a macrocyclic host by one or more noncovalent bonding interactions, and this host–guest system is the fundamental, functional precursor that leads, under the guise of templation, to the formation of rotaxanes

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and catenanes.¹⁻⁴ In the case of donor-acceptor MIM switchesbased on the preferential binding of the cyclobis(paraquat-pphenylene) (CBPOT⁴⁺) tetracationic cyclophane with the electrochemically active tetrathiafulvalene (TTF) recognition unit over the dioxynaphthalene (DNP) unit^{2,4b-i,10}—the difference in the free energy (ΔG°) between these two recognition units can be modelled experimentally by comparing (Fig. 1) the free energy of binding with the diethyleneglycol-disubstituted tetrathiafulvalene (TTF-DEG) and diethyleneglycol-disubstituted 1,5dihydroxynaphthalene (DNP-DEG) with the host component CBPOT⁴⁺ during pseudorotaxane formation. Bistable molecular switches, based on these TTF-DEG⊂CBPQT⁴⁺ and DNP-DEG CBPQT⁴⁺ binding motifs,^{2,4b-i,10} have proven⁴⁻⁶ to be excellent molecular switches. Switching of these bistable systems can be achieved¹⁰ using either chemical⁷ or electrochemical⁸ stimuli. The ground-state co-conformation (GSCC), in which the CBPQT⁴⁺ ring binds preferentially to the TTF recognition unit, is in equilibrium with the metastable-state co-conformation (MSCC), in which the CBPQT⁴⁺ ring encircles the DNP unit.^{10a,c} This equilibrium between the GSCC and the MSCC at 298 K corresponds^{10a,c} to a ratio of 9 : 1, or a ΔG° value of about 1.6 kcal mol⁻¹, when the CBPQT⁴⁺ ring is free to distribute itself between the TTF and DNP recognition units. Calculating the ΔG° of bistable systems from the $\Delta\Delta G^{\circ}$ of the supramolecular host–guest behavior, we find that $\Delta G^{\circ}_{\text{GSCC/MSCC}} \approx (\Delta G^{\circ}_{\text{DNP-DEG}\subset \text{CBPOT}} - \Delta G^{\circ}_{\text{TTF-DEG}\subset \text{CBPOT}})$ is roughly 1.6 kcal mol⁻¹. The experimentally determined ΔG° for the bistable [2] catenane that uses the same recognition motifs is $1.5 (\pm 0.2)$ kcal mol⁻¹, which is in very good agreement with the value predicted by this simple quantitative relation. The pseudorotaxanes form¹⁵ as a result of $[\pi \cdots \pi]$, $[C-H \cdots \pi]$, and $[C-H \cdots O]$ interactions between the π -electron deficient host CBPQT⁴⁺ and π -electron rich guests, (TTF-DEG) or (DNP-DEG). Structural modifications¹⁶ to either of the recognition units, and/or the cyclophane affects the K_a of complexation, rendering it possible to tune, alter and predict the thermodynamic equilibria of the resulting MIM switches, and consequently, molecular switch-based device performance.

Bistable, donor-acceptor MIMs⁴ are usually the end product of a multistep synthesis and, as a result, are rarely carried on to further chemical transformations. While modifications¹⁶ to the guest components are well known, few examples¹⁷ of modifications to the CBPQT⁴⁺ skeleton exist. A straightforward approach to structural modifications of bistable [2]catenanes, and also bistable [2]rotaxanes, which will permit further transformations, is the functionalisation of the CBPQT⁴⁺ ring, at a single ortho position on one of the *p*-xylyl rings. This strategy has been exploited successfully for attaching molecular switches to surfaces and onto gold nanoparticles through the covalent modification of the CBPQT⁴⁺ ring, as opposed to the dumbbell, and has resulted in a linear artificial molecular muscle^{17a} and nanoparticulated switches.^{17b} Since the extent to which covalent modification of the CBPQT⁴⁺ ring affects guest binding, and thus switching in MIMs has not been studied to any great extent, such an investigation would help to answer the following questions: (1) do the steric effects of appending bulky substituents onto the host alter the binding of guests, and (2) what is the potential for new supramolecular/molecular systems which benefit from these functionalised CBPQT⁺⁴ rings? It is cumbersome and impractical, however, to synthesise the series of MIMs required to answer these questions. A more rational approach is to study the binding of the individual components as pseudorotaxanes and subsequently extrapolate to the properties of the potential MIMs.

The research reported herein describes a systematic approach to designing and tuning switchable MIMs and MIM-based materials by looking initially at the interactions present in their precursor pseudorotaxanes. This approach bridges the knowledge gap between the binding of supramolecular systems^{11,13} and the switchable, mechanically bound⁴ molecules. We (1) describe the use of a library of CBPQT⁴⁺-based hosts in order to understand the effects of substituents on pseudorotaxane formation with a variety of guests using isothermal titration microcalorimetry (ITC) and electrochemistry. The $\Delta\Delta G^{\circ}$ values between different host-guest complexes can subsequently be extrapolated to predict the switching thermodynamics of analogous MIM switches, employing the same donor-acceptor recognition components. Concurrently, we (2) look to X-ray crystallographic data to illuminate in detail the relationship between supermolecules, *i.e.*, the pseudorotaxanes, and MIMs. Finally, we (3) investigate experimentally the ground-state equilibrium thermodynamics of bistable molecular switches appended to a polymer side-chain by a structurally modified CBPQT⁴⁺ ring to validate this predictive thermodynamic approach to designing MIM switches in a sterically demanding environment.



Fig. 1 A comparison of the potential-energy surfaces illustrating (i) two independent host–guest pseudorotaxanes in which the free-energy difference $\Delta\Delta G^{\circ}$ for TTF \subset CBPQT⁴⁺ and DNP \subset CBPQT⁴⁺ correspond to (ii) the ΔG° for GSCC and MSCC in the bistable [2]catenane incorporating the same recognition units, and is defined against a normal coordinate Q, representing circumrotation from the GSCC to the MSCC.

Results and discussion

Structural modification of the host component

The syntheses of 1,4-bis(bromomethyl)-benzene containing OMe, 13,¹⁸ CO₂H, 14,¹⁹ CO₂Et, 11¹⁹ and Br, 12²⁰ substituents were carried out as previously described in the literature. The synthesis of the dibromides is shown in Scheme 1. The phenyl-substituted p-xylene derivative 8 was synthesised by a Suzuki coupling between phenyl boronic acid and 2,5-dimethylbromobenzene as reported previously.²¹ The 1,4-bis(bromomethyl)benzene derivative 10 is of particular significance because it is an example of appending a functional group, a phenyl ring, using a Pd-catalysed coupling to a bromine-functionalised 1,4-bis(bromomethyl)benzene derivative and, eventually, onto the CBPOT⁴⁺ periphery, a strategy which has the potential to enable the attachment of many functional groups with direct conjugation into the aryl ring of the cyclophane. Dibromides 9 and 10 were prepared by radical bromination of the appropriate ortho-substituted 1,4-dimethyl benzene. The substituted 1,4dimethyl benzenes were mixed with N-bromosuccinimide (NBS) and 2,2'-azobis(2-methylpropionitrile) (AIBN) in CH₂Cl₂ and kept under a sodium lamp for 1 day. After the resulting red solution had been filtered to remove the white succinimide precipitate and concentrated in vacuo, the resulting orange solid was recrystallised twice in cyclohexane. The dibromide 9 could not be isolated as a pure compound, but its presence in the mixture was confirmed by mass spectrometry. The syntheses of the substituted tetracationic cyclophane hosts 1-7.4PF₆ are also shown in Scheme 1. Hosts $6.4 PF_{6}$,¹⁹ and $7.4 PF_{6}^{25i}$ were synthesised as previously reported. Generally, the cyclophanes were prepared by mixing the 1,4bis(bromomethyl) derivatives with $1.2PF_6$ in the presence of an excess of DNP-DEG 17 (3 equiv.) in DMF at high-pressure (10-15 kbars).

An azide-functionalised side-chain polymethacrylate²² was synthesised *via* atom transfer radical polymerisation $(ATRP)^{22}$ (Scheme 2). Starting with 2-(2-(2-azidoethoxy)-ethoxy)ethanol **18**, esterification with methacryloyl chloride gave the azide



Scheme 1 Template-directed syntheses of the CBPQT⁴⁺-based host library, in which CBPQT⁴⁺ has been functionalised at the single *ortho* position on one of the *p*-xylyl rings (R).

monomer **19** in 80% yield. ATRP of monomer **19** using ethyl-2-bromoisobutyrate as the initiator and 4,4'-di(*tert*-butyl)-2,2'bipyridine as the ligand, with CuBr in Me₂CO gave the desired polymer **20** in 68% yield. It is worth noting at this point that compound **7**·4PF₆ does not survive the polymerisation conditions, necessitating post-polymerisation modification of the polymer backbone. Size exclusion chromatography (SEC) analysis of **20** showed a monomodal peak with a $M_w = 55\,000$ g mol⁻¹ and $M_n =$ 39,000 g mol⁻¹, PDI = 1.4.

With the aid of autocatalysis,²³ promoted in part by anchimeric assistance²² during polytriazole formation, polymer **20** was taken to 100% coverage with the alkyne-derivatised CBPQT⁴⁺ 7·4PF₆ in DMF- d_7 at 60 °C, in the presence of stoichiometric amounts of CuI with an NMR tube serving as the reaction vessel (Scheme 2). The reaction progress was monitored by ¹H NMR spectroscopy (Fig. 2a–c). The signals in the ¹H NMR spectrum of **21**·*n*PF₆ begin to broaden at the onset of the click reaction (Fig. 2b) and are significantly broadened after 3 h (Fig. 2c). The disappearance of the propargyl proton (–CO₂CH₂C=CH, δ = 3.75 ppm) of unreacted 7·4PF₆ can be observed with the simultaneous appearance of a broad singlet (δ = 8.55 ppm) for the triazole proton. Additionally, the chemical shift of the propargyl methylene



Scheme 2 Synthesis of the side-chain azide-functionalised methacrylate polymer followed by the click functionalisation of azide polymer 20 ($n \approx 160$) with the alkyne-functionalised CBPQT⁴⁺ derivative 7-4PF₆ for the formation of the side-chain polyCBPQT⁴⁺ 21-*n*PF₆ ($n \approx 160$).



Fig. 2 Stacked ¹H NMR spectra recorded in DMF- d_7 at 298 K following the click reaction for the formation of **21** nPF₆ at (a) time = 0, (b) time = 1 h, and (c) time = 3 h.

protons (-CO₂CH₂C=CH, $\delta = 5.15$ ppm) of unreacted 7·4PF₆ can also be observed at $\delta = 5.6$ ppm in **21**·*n*PF₆ for the -CO₂CH₂triazole-protons. The protons in the bismethylene unit in the oligoethylene chain closest to the azide function (-OCH₂CH₂N₃, $\delta = 3.45$ ppm and -OCH₂CH₂N₃, $\delta = 3.69$ ppm) can also be observed to have undergone (-OCH₂CH₂-triazole-, $\delta = 4.70$ ppm; -OCH₂CH₂-triazole-, $\delta = 4.00$ ppm) sizable downfield shifts upon triazole formation. Both the broadening of the peaks for the protons and their chemical shifts in unreacted 7·4PF₆, and of the polymer **20** protons, indicate complete conversion after 3 h, with no further spectroscopic changes being evident after 24 h. Analysis by SEC, coupled with detection by multi-angle light scattering $(\text{SEC-MALS})^{24}$ of $21 \cdot n \text{PF}_6$ leads to an M_w of $(9.30 \pm 0.19) \times 10^5$ g mol⁻¹, an M_n value of $(6.10 \pm 0.30) \times 10^5$ g mol⁻¹, and a PDI of 1.5 ± 0.1 . Assuming the click reaction²⁵ proceeds to complete conversion and, based on the molar ratio of the azide functions to the alkyne-functionalised cyclophane $7 \cdot 4 \text{PF}_6$, a theoretical M_n of 300,000 g mol⁻¹ for $21 \cdot n \text{PF}_6$ was calculated, a value which agrees with that estimated from end-group analysis by ¹H NMR spectroscopy.

Predicting the thermodynamics of mechanical switching

The ability to derive the thermodynamics of switching in MIMs from the thermodynamic binding properties of the components is a valuable tool that enables the rational design of donoracceptor bistable [2]catenanes. Experimentally, predicting ΔG° for MIMs is best achieved^{10c} by studying the difference in the binding energies ($\Delta\Delta G^{\circ}$) between the guest components—TTF-DEG and DNP-DEG—with the host component CBPQT⁴⁺. The thermodynamic parameters $(K_a, \Delta G^{\circ}, \Delta H^{\circ}, \Delta S^{\circ})$ determined by ITC,26 for a library of CBPQT4+ derivatives (Scheme 3) that have been structurally modified at a single ortho position on one of the *p*-xylyl rings reveals (Table 1) the steric and electronic effects of the substitution (R), compared with CBPQT⁴⁺ itself (R = H). For all the hosts substituted, the binding strengths are always the greatest when the guest is TTF-DEG, followed by DNP-DEG, and finally by TTF-a trend that is identical to the trends observed with CBPQT⁴⁺ itself. With a variety of hosts, the differences in the ΔG° values of complexes with TTF varied by no more than 0.5 kcal mol⁻¹. However, the range of ΔG° values increased to approximately 1 kcal mol⁻¹ when diethylene glycol chains are appended to the guests. Structural modifications to the host cyclophane decreases the association constant for the formation of the corresponding pseudorotaxane, with the bulky phenyl substituent causing the largest decrease in binding. For the substituents (R), the electron-withdrawing (donating) ability—quantified by the Hammet constant,²⁷ σ —is an indicator of how the oxidation potential of $TTF^{0} \rightarrow TTF^{++}$ shifts

Table 1Thermodynamic binding data" corresponding to the complexation between the CBPQT⁴⁺ derivatives and TTF, TTF-DEG, and DNP-DEGguests in MeCN determined by isothermal titration microcalorimetry at 298 K

	CBPQT ⁴⁺ <i>b</i>	$1.4PF_6$	$2 \cdot 4 PF_6$	$3.4 PF_6$	$4.4 PF_6$	$7.4 \mathrm{PF}_{6}$	$22 \cdot n PF_6$
TTF							
$K_{a} \times 10^{3} \text{ M}^{-1}$	6.91 ± 0.18	3.80 ± 1.12	2.19 ± 0.68	3.47 ± 0.07	4.99 ± 0.09		
ΔH° /kcal mol ⁻¹	-10.6 ± 0.1	-11.6 ± 1.1	-7.57 ± 0.23	-10.5 ± 0.2	-9.64 ± 0.31		_
$T\Delta S^{\circ}/\text{kcal mol}^{-1}$	-5.4 ± 0.1	-6.6 ± 1.1	-2.6 ± 0.1	-5.7 ± 0.2	-4.6 ± 0.3	_	_
$\Delta G^{\circ}_{298 \text{ K}}$ /kcal mol ⁻¹	-5.27 ± 0.03	-4.91 ± 0.05	-4.94 ± 0.13	-4.79 ± 0.06	-5.07 ± 0.01	_	_
TTF-DEG							
$K_{\rm a} / \times 10^3 {\rm M}^{-1}$	380 ± 22.0	212.7 ± 0.9	160.5 ± 8.1	217.5 ± 3.5	348.0 ± 21.0	114.7 ± 1.1	55.4 ± 4.7
ΔH° /kcal mol ⁻¹	-14.2 ± 0.1	-13.6 ± 0.9	-12.1 ± 0.1	-14.1 ± 0.1	-13.4 ± 0.4	-11.4 ± 0.1	-9.66 ± 0.22
$T\Delta S^{\circ}/\text{kcal mol}^{-1}$	-6.6 ± 0.1	-6.3 ± 1.0	-5.0 ± 0.2	-6.8 ± 0.1	-5.8 ± 0.5	-4.5 ± 0.1	-3.2 ± 0.3
$\Delta G^{\circ}_{298 \text{ K}}$ /kcal mol ⁻¹	-7.66 ± 0.07	-7.23 ± 0.27	-7.09 ± 0.05	-7.29 ± 0.01	-7.57 ± 0.02	-6.92 ± 0.05	-6.49 ± 0.05
DNP-DEG							
$K_{\rm a} / \times 10^3 {\rm M}^{-1}$	36.4 ± 0.3	13.1 ± 2.2	2.19 ± 0.1	12.9 ± 0.4	17.0 ± 4.2	13.4 ± 1.9	8.02 ± 0.8
ΔH° /kcal mol ⁻¹	-15.4 ± 0.1	-15.3 ± 0.7	-12.9 ± 0.6	-14.5 ± 0.1	-14.1 ± 0.2	-13.9 ± 0.6	-14.2 ± 1.5
$T\Delta S^{\circ}/\text{kcal mol}^{-1}$	-9.1 ± 0.1	-9.7 ± 0.8	-8.4 ± 0.7	-8.9 ± 0.1	-8.3 ± 0.2	-8.3 ± 0.5	-8.9 ± 1.5
$\Delta G^{\circ}_{_{298}\mathrm{K}}/\mathrm{kcal}\mathrm{mol}^{_{-1}}$	-6.26 ± 0.04	-5.62 ± 0.09	-4.57 ± 0.02	-5.61 ± 0.04	-5.79 ± 0.02	-5.65 ± 0.07	-5.33 ± 0.05

^{*a*} A 0.39 mM standard solution for all CBPQT⁴⁺ derivatives was used for all titrations into which solutions of various concentrations of guest were added in 5 mL aliquots (4.7 mM TTF, 3.2 mM TTF-DEG; 3.9 mM DNP-DEG). Hosts **5**·4PF₆ and **6**·4PF₆ were not measured because of low yield and low binding respectively. Fits were performed using Microcal LLC software. The stoichiometry of all complexes was between 0.99 and 1.02 indicating a 1 : 1 complex is formed. ^{*b*} Binding data on CBPQT⁴⁺ where R = H was obtained from previously published results.^{10c}

Table 2 Linear free energy relationships (LFERs): A comparison of the electronic (Hammett Constants (σ_{meta})) and steric (Winstein–Holness A values; steric taft parameters (E_s)) contributions to the binding strength (K_a) of TTF-DEG with CBPQT⁴⁺ for a variety of substituents (R) appended onto the CBPQT⁴⁺ ring

Host	R	$\sigma^{_{27}}$	$E_{1/2}/\mathbf{V}^a$	K_{a} /× 10 ³ M ⁻¹	A value/kcal mol ^{-128}	$E_s{}^b$
CBPOT-4PF ₆	Н	0.00	0.36	380.0 ± 22.0	0.00	1.24
1.4PF	Me	-0.07	0.34	212.7 ± 0.9	1.74	0.00
$2.4PF_6$	Ph	0.06	0.39	160.5 ± 8.1	2.80	-2.55
3.4PF	CO ₂ Et	0.36	0.41	217.5 ± 3.5	1.15	
$4.4 PF_6$	Br	0.37	0.40	348.0 ± 21.0	0.48 - 0.67	0.01

^{*a*} The first oxidation potentials of TTF \supset CBPQT⁴⁺ derivatives were obtained from a 0.4 mM solution of hosts and a 5 mM solution of TTF samples dissolved in MeCN (0.1 M TBAPF₆) using a glassy carbon working electrode and a Ag/AgCl reference electrode. ^{*b*} Taft parameters for R = CO₂Et have not been reported.

as a result of changes to the electronic structure of the substituted CBPQT⁴⁺. Table 2 lists the oxidation potential of $TTF^0 \rightarrow TTF^{+}$ as TTF resides within the cavity of CBPQT⁴⁺ along with the σ value of the substituent. The host with the substituent that is the least electron-withdrawing, Me ($\sigma = -0.07$) has the lowest measured potential for the oxidation of TTF, and as the electronwithdrawing ability of the substituent increases, so too does the first oxidation potential of TTF⁰ in the [2]pseudorotaxane. The cyclophanes with the most electron-withdrawing substituents-3.4PF₆ ($\sigma = 0.36$) and 4.4PF₆ ($\sigma = 0.37$)—cause the TTF⁰ \rightarrow TTF⁺ oxidation potential to shift anodically compared to CBPQT⁴⁺ derivatives with less electron-withdrawing substituents. This study demonstrates that small changes to the CBPQT⁴⁺ constitution alters the first oxidation potential of TTF⁰ by up to 60 mV as a result of changes in electronic structure that occur from adding a single substituent to the CBPQT⁴⁺ skeleton. A linear relationship, however, cannot be discerned from a Hammett plot constructed from known Hammett constants (σ) and the experimentally determined binding constants (K_a) , since pseudorotaxane formation is not solely governed by electronic effects, but can also be influenced by steric interactions between the substituent and the guests. Linear free energy relationships (LFERs) describing steric size for each substituent (R)-quantified by both the Winstein-Holness A values,²⁸ and steric Taft parameters²⁹ (E_s)—suggests (Table 2) that pseudorotaxane formation is strongly perturbed as a function of steric hindrance. Previous investigations have highlighted¹⁵ the importance of [C-H···O] interactions during pseudorotaxane formation between the oligoethyleneglycol oxygen atoms and the methylene hydrogen atoms in CBPQT⁴⁺ in establishing a strong association constant with guests TTF-DEG and DNP-DEG. The solid-state crystal superstructure (Fig. 3b) of DNP-DEG⊂1⁴⁺ reveals that the source of the weaker binding is a result of the loss of a [C–H···O] interaction since the glycol chain is disrupted to avoid unfavourable steric interactions with the R group, whereas the oligoethylene glycol chains wrap¹ the CBPQT⁴⁺ ring at the methylene positions. Indeed we find that 1·4PF₆ experiences weaker binding interactions (Table 1) with TTF-DEG (212.7 ± 0.97) × 10³ M⁻¹ and DNP-DEG (13.1 ± 2.20) × 10³ M⁻¹ compared to that of CBPQT⁴⁺ (380.0 ± 22.0) × 10³ M⁻¹ and (36.4 ± 0.25) × 10³ M⁻¹, respectively.^{10c}

The thermodynamic parameters²⁶ obtained by ITC during pseudorotaxane formation are listed in Table 1 for each of the CBPQT⁴⁺ derivatives. The difference in the free energies of binding (ΔG°) between TTF-DEG *versus* DNP-DEG have been shown to correlate^{10a,c} directly to the ΔG° values for the GSCC *versus* MSCC for the corresponding mechanically interlocked bistable switch, such that $\Delta \Delta G^{\circ} \approx \Delta G^{\circ}_{\text{predicted}}$. The binding data indicate that substitution at the *ortho* position of one *p*-xylylene ring disrupts the [C–H···O] interaction, reducing binding. However, for bistable MIMs, this reduction in binding strength does not result in a change in $\Delta \Delta G^{\circ}$ because binding with TTF-DEG and DNP-DEG are reduced equally. Scheme 4 illustrates the thermodynamic equilibrium between the GSCC and the MSCC for bistable [2]catenanes that have been structurally modified



Scheme 3 Pseudorotaxane formation between the CBPQT⁴⁺ hosts and the diethyleneglycol-disubstituted tetrathiafulvalene (TTF-DEG) and diethyleneglycol-disubstituted 1,5-dihydroxynaphthalene (DNP-DEG).



Fig. 3 Stick representations of the solid-state superstructures of (a) $TTF \subset 1^{4+}$ and (b) DNP-DEG $\subset 1^{4+}$ pseudorotaxanes. Additional methyl groups attached to 1^{4+} reflect disorder in the crystal.

at the *ortho* position of the *p*-xylylene unit, and the predicted ΔG° values for the structures. These $\Delta G^\circ_{
m predicted}$ values for the bistable [2]catenanes agree well with the free energy profiles for molecular motions in bistable molecules obtained by Goddard et al.³⁰ using molecular dynamic simulations, and from previous experiments^{10a,c} using bistable [2]rotaxanes in a variable temperature cyclic voltammetry study. These predicted results demonstrate that modification at the ortho position of CBPOT⁴⁺ should not perturb significantly the switching behaviour, suggesting that molecular switches with ortho-substituted CBPQT⁴⁺ rings are indeed candidates for future device applications. To what extent these predictions correlate with the actual experimental values for ΔG° in bistable [2]catenanes must now be considered. To validate directly these predictions on a bistable [2]catenane, the alkyne-functionalised dibromide precursor 15 was used to synthesise the corresponding alkyne-derivatised bistable [2]catenane 23.4PF₆ in order to study its switching behaviour as a small molecule [2]catenane. Further support for the thermodynamic relationship between the pseudorotaxanes and catenanes following the formation of the mechanical bond was obtained³¹ by synthesising a side-chain poly[2]catenane using the alkyne-derivatised bistable [2]catenane $23.4PF_6$ precursor, and studying its ground state equilibrium and thermodynamic properties.

Structural modification of the bistable [2]catenane

In order to form **23**·4PF₆ by way of template-directed synthesis³² (Scheme 5), **16**·2PF₆ was added to a solution of the dibromide **15** and macrocycle **22** in dry DMF. The reaction mixture was stirred for a week. The ¹H–¹H g-DQF-COSY (Fig. 4b) of **23**·4PF₆ in CD₃CN at 298 K reveals correlation peaks between the α and β protons of the CBPQT⁴⁺ ring. The peaks for the protons H-3/7 and H-4/8 of the DNP recognition unit are hidden underneath the signals for the *p*-xylylene protons of the CBPQT⁴⁺ ring in the ¹H NMR spectrum (Fig. 4a). The COSY spectrum (Fig. 4b) shows clearly the correlation peaks for the overlapping H-3/7 and H-4/8 protons of DNP. Correlations between the propargyl methylene protons and the unreacted alkyne proton can also be observed. Correlations among the glycol chain protons can be detected but are not well-resolved.



Scheme 4 Translating the thermodynamics from supramolecular host–guest behaviour ($\Delta\Delta G^{\circ}$) to predicted free energy of binding ($\Delta G^{\circ}_{predicted}$) for an interlocked bistable catenane library, where the host CBPQT⁴⁺ has been functionalised at the single *ortho* position on one of the *p*-xylyl rings (**R**).



Scheme 5 Template-directed synthesis of the alkyne-functionalised bistable [2]catenane.

Slow vapour diffusion of *i*-Pr₂O into a MeCN solution of 23.4PF₆ afforded green crystals suitable for X-ray analysis (Fig. 5). Of the two configurational isomers, only the "trans" isomer of the disubstituted TTF on the two-station crown ether macrocycle is observed^{4b} in the solid-state structure of 23.4PF₆. The alkynefunctionalised [2]catenane is stabilised by the same $[\pi \cdots \pi]$, $[C-H\cdots\pi]$ and $[C-H\cdotsO]$ interactions that are also present^{1a} in the psuedorotaxane model complexes. In fact, a closer examination of the solid-state crystal superstructure of pseudorotaxanes DNP-DEG $\subset 1.4PF_6$ and TTF $\subset 1.4PF_6$ (Fig. 6a–b) reveals that the guests adopt^{1a} the same co-conformation within the host CBPQT⁴⁺ as the DNP and TTF binding sites within the alkyne-derivatised [2] catenane $23.4 PF_6$, including identical values (Table 3) for the $[H \cdots O^c]$ and $[H \cdots O^c]$ bond distances, and the $[C-H \cdots O^d]$ bond angle. The discrepancy in the second $[C-H \cdots O^{f}]$ bond angle, however, is a result of the guests residing in a crown ether macrocycle as opposed to the linear thread of the pseudorotaxane.

The observed difference in the $[\pi \cdots \pi^h]$ bond distance is a result of the DNP recognition unit no longer residing within the CBPQT⁴⁺ ring as the guest in the interlocked species. The solid-state crystal structure (Fig. 5) of $23.4PF_6$ also reveals that the source of the weaker binding during pseudorotaxane formation is a result of the loss of a $[C-H\cdots O]$ interaction since the glycol chain is displaced to avoid unfavourable steric interactions with the R group on the host, which results in an unusual kink in the glycol chain of the π -electron rich macrocycle whereas the solid-state crystal structures of similar underivatised bistable [2]catenanes^{4b} have no such kink. These observations illustrate the obvious link^{1a} between the noncovalent bonding interactions in pseudorotaxanes and MIMs that survive following the formation of the mechanical bonds. Furthermore, the solid-state packing of $23.4PF_6$ (Fig. 7) is comprised of intermolecular donor-acceptor $[\pi \cdots \pi]$ interactions between the outside electron-deficient bipyridinium units and the alongside electron rich DNP units of adjacent [2]catenanes. These

 Table 3
 Comparison of the crystallographic parameters of the solid-state superstructures for the pseudorotaxanes DNP-DEG $\subset 1.PF_6$, TTF $\subset 1.PF_6$ and bistable [2]catenane 23.4PF₆

	DNP-DEG⊂1·4PF ₆ ^{<i>a</i>}	TTF⊂1·4PF ₆ ^a	23 ·4PF ₆ ^b
Formula	$C_{67}H_{67}N_{10}O_6(4PF_6)$	$C_{43}H_{38}N_4S_4(4PF_6)$	$C_{74}H_{78}N_4O_{12}S_4.6.5H_2O.C_6H_{14}O(4PF_6)$
Mass	1697.26	1392.79	2142.80
Space group	$P2_1/n$	$P2_1/n$	$P2_{1}/c$
Symmetry	C_{i}	C_{i}	
a/Å	13.83834 (9)	10.8498 (8)	14.216 (4)
b/Å	23.2237 (16)	19.3989 (14)	54.971 (12)
c/Å	13.0531 (9)	13.8729 (10)	13.678 (4)
[H · · · O] ^e ∕Å	2.38	_	2.33
$[C-H \cdots O]^d / \circ$	152	_	156
[H···O] ^e /Å	2.46	_	2.35
[C−H···O]⁄/°	142	_	175
$[C-H\cdots\pi]^g/Å$	2.57	_	_
$[\pi\cdots\pi]^h/\AA$	3.76	_	3.53
$[\pi \cdots \pi]^i / Å$	_	3.80	3.80

^{*a*} See Fig. 3. ^{*b*} See Fig. 5. ^{*c*} Length refers to the $[H \cdots O]$ interactions between O₃ of the glycol chain of the DNP guest/station and the methylene hydrogen of the host. ^{*d*} Angle refers to the $[C-H \cdots O]$ interactions between O₃ of the glycol chain of the DNP guest/station and the methylene hydrogen of the host. ^{*e*} Length refers to the $[H \cdots O]$ interactions between O₂ of the glycol chain of the DNP guest/station and the H_α on the bipyridine of the host. ^{*f*} Angle refers to the $[C-H \cdots O]$ interactions between O₃ of the glycol chain of the DNP guest/TTF station and the H_α on the bipyridine of the host. ^{*f*} Angle refers to the $[C-H \cdots O]$ interactions between O₃ of the glycol chain of the DNP guest/TTF station and the H_α on the bipyridine of the host. ^{*s*} Length refers to the $[C-H \cdots \pi]$ interactions between H₁ of the naphthalene rings of DNP-DEG and the aryl rings of the host. ^{*h*} Length refers to the $[\pi \cdots \pi]$ interactions between TTF guest and the aryl rings of the host.



Fig. 4 (a) ¹H NMR spectrum of $23 \cdot PF_6$ in CD₃CN at 298 K. (b) The ¹H–¹H g-DQF-COSY spectrum of $23 \cdot PF_6$ in CD₃CN at 298 K.



Fig. 5 A stick representation of the solid-state crystal structure of the alkyne-functionalised bistable [2]catenane 23^{4+} .

intermolecular interactions may also contribute to the previously observed³¹ aggregation of bistable side-chain poly[2]catenanes in solution, but more importantly they serve as a reminder highlighting the presence of the noncovalent bonding interactions that are present not only in the psuedorotaxanes, but also in MIMs as well.



Fig. 6 Side-on views of the solid-state superstructure of (a) $TTF \subset 1^{4+}$ and (b) DNP-DEG $\subset 1^{4+}$ pseudorotaxanes showing the co-conformations of host and guests when bound within the CBPQT⁴⁺ host cavity. Additional methyl groups attached to 1⁴⁺ reflect disorder in the crystal.



Fig.7 (a) A space-filling representation of the packing of the alkyne-functionalised bistable [2]catenane 23^{4+} molecule in the solid-state, illustrating the intermolecular donor-acceptor $[\pi \cdots \pi]$ interactions between the DNP recognition unit (red \equiv D) sitting outside the CBPQT⁴⁺ host which contains a TTF recognition unit (green \equiv D) with the outside Bipy²⁺ unit of the CBPQT⁴⁺ ring. (b) A graphical representation of the polar stack present in the solid-state of 23^{4+} .

The synthesis (Scheme 6) of the bistable side-chain poly[2]catenane proceeded much like the synthesis of the sidechain polyCBPQT⁴⁺ **21**·*n*PF₆. Polymer **20** was taken to 27% side-chain modification with the alkyne-derivatised [2]catenane **23**·4PF₆ in DMF- d_7 at 60 °C, in the presence of stoichiometric CuI, again with an NMR tube serving as the reaction vessel. The click reaction progress was monitored by ¹H NMR spectroscopy (Fig. 8a–d). The resonances in the ¹H NMR spectrum (Fig. 8a) of **24**·*n*PF₆ begin to broaden at the onset of the click reaction, and



Scheme 6 Click functionalisation of polymer 20 ($n \simeq 160$) with the alkyne-functionalised bistable [2]catenane 23.4PF₆ for the formation of 24.*n*PF₆ ($x \simeq 42, y \simeq 118$).

are significantly broadened after 3 h. Additionally, the chemical shift of the propargyl methylene protons ($-CO_2CH_2C\equiv CH$, $\delta = 5.15$ ppm) in unreacted **23**·4PF₆ can be observed at $\delta = 5.6$ ppm in **24**·*n*PF₆ for the $-CO_2CH_2$ -triazole–protons. The signals for the protons in the bismethylene unit in the oligoethylene chain closest to the azide function ($-OCH_2CH_2N_3$, $\delta = 3.45$ ppm) can also be observed to have undergone ($-OCH_2CH_2$ -triazole–, $\delta =$



Fig. 8 Stacked ¹H NMR spectra in DMF- d_7 at 298 K following the click reaction that leads to the formation of **24**-*n*PF₆ at (a) time = 0, (b) time = 1 h, (c) time = 3 h, and (d) after capping the remaining azide moieties with methyl propargyl ether.

4.70 ppm) sizable downfield shifts upon triazole ring formation. Both the broadening of the peaks for the protons and the chemical shifts of the protons in unreacted $23.4 PF_6$, and of the polymer 20 protons indicate complete conversion after 3 h, with no further spectroscopic changes evident after 24 h. Following the functionalisation of 20 with 23.4PF₆, the unreacted azides can be capped by reacting the product with methyl propargyl ether. This step (Fig. 8d) shows a dramatic increase in the peak areas for the triazole protons ($\delta = 8.55$ ppm), as well as for the side-chain bismethylene protons closest to the azide moiety (-OCH₂CH₂triazole-, $\delta = 4.70$ ppm), and the appearance of a broad resonance for the methyl protons (-triazole-CH₂OCH₃, $\delta = 1.19$ ppm). Analysis by SEC-MALS²⁴ of $24 \cdot n PF_6$ produces a M_w value of $(1.30 \pm 0.07) \times 10^6$ g mol⁻¹, a M_n value of $(8.70 \pm 0.61) \times 10^5$ g mol^{-1} , and a PDI of 1.5 \pm 0.1. Assuming the click reaction proceeds to complete conversion and, based on the molar ratio of the azide functions to the alkyne-functionalised cyclophane $7.4 PF_6$, a theoretical M_n of 128 000 g mol⁻¹ for 24 $\cdot n PF_6$ was calculated, a value which agrees with that estimated from end-group analysis by ¹H NMR spectroscopy.

Ground state equilibrium thermodynamics

Tetrathiafulvalene can undergo^{4b-i,10} a two-electron oxidation process (TTF \rightarrow TTF⁺⁺ \rightarrow TTF²⁺), generating cationic species, at which point switching through circumrotation in 23.4PF₆ and 24.*n*PF₆ of the macrocyclic polyether with respect to the CBPQT⁴⁺ ring occurs. Upon reduction of the cationic species back to the neutral form, the MSCC relaxes to the equilibrium mixture of the GSCC and MSCC.^{4b-i,10} Switching of the GSCC to the MSCC can be achieved electrochemically or chemically.

Table 4 Ground-state equilibrium thermodynamic parameters ($\Delta H^{\circ}, \Delta S^{\circ}, \Delta G^{\circ}_{298K}$) obtained after analysis of variable-temperature UV-vis experiments

Species	$\Delta H^{\circ a}/\mathrm{kcal}\ \mathrm{mol}^{-1}$	$T\Delta S^{\circ b}/ ext{kcal mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta G^\circ_{_{298\mathrm{K}}}{}^c/\mathrm{kcal\ mol^{-1}}$	$\Delta G^{\circ}_{\mathrm{predicted}}{}^{d}/\mathrm{kcal} \mathrm{mol}^{-1}$
23 ·4PF ₆	3.9 (± 0.1)	2.4 (± 0.2)	1.5 (± 0.2)	1.3 (± 0.1)
24 · <i>n</i> PF ₆	3.8 (± 0.1)	2.2 (± 0.1)	1.6 (± 0.1)	1.2 (± 0.1)

^{*a*} Obtained from a linear van't Hoff plot where the slope of the line is equal to $-\Delta H^{\circ}/R$. ^{*b*} Obtained from a linear van't Hoff plot where the the intercept is equal $\Delta S^{\circ}/R$. ^{*c*} Calculated from the Gibbs free energy identity $\Delta G^{\circ} = \Delta H^{\circ} - T\Delta S^{\circ}$. ^{*d*} Predicted from the difference in the free energies of binding ($\Delta \Delta G^{\circ}$) between TTF-DEG versus DNP-DEG with hosts 7.4PF₆ and **22**·*n*PF₆ obtained by ITC in MeCN at 298 K.

The thermochromic properties of both the **23**·4PF₆ and **24**·*n*PF₆ were examined (Fig. 10) by variable temperature (VT) UV-vis spectroscopy in DMF in order to quantify the ground-state equilibrium thermodynamic parameters. The CT band situated at 812 nm is characteristic^{10b} of the (GSCC), whereas the (MSCC) produces a characteristic^{10b} CT band at 475 nm in DMF. Upon cooling the solution, the TTF⊂CBPQT⁴⁺ CT band ($\varepsilon = 4000$ L mol⁻¹ cm⁻¹) increases in intensity, while the DNP⊂CBPQT⁴⁺ CT band decreases. This observation indicates that the equilibrium between the translational isomers favors the GSCC at lower temperatures. Upon heating, the opposite trend is observed. With the aid of VT ¹H NMR spectra (Fig. 9) recorded to determine the equilibrium constant for the GSCC/MSCC ratio in **23**·4PF₆ by monitoring the DNP 2/6 proton resonances ($\delta \approx 6.7$ ppm) at 298 K, van't Hoff plots were constructed³³ (Fig. 10a–b inset)



Fig. 9 Partial variable temperature ¹H NMR stacked spectra of $23.4PF_6$ taken in CD₃CN showing the temperature-dependent equilibrium between the GSCC and the MSCC by using the H-2/6 protons of the DNP recognition unit as probe protons.



Fig. 10 (a) Variable temperature UV-vis spectra of the alkyne-functionalised [2]catenane 23·4PF₆ and (b) the side-chain poly[2]catenane 24·*n*PF₆ (2 × 10⁻⁴M, DMF), illustrating the temperature-dependent equilibrium between GSCC (TTF⊂CBPQT⁴⁺ charge transfer band at 800 nm) and MSCC (DNP⊂CBPQT⁴⁺ charge transfer band at 480 nm). Linear van't Hoff plots for 23·4PF₆ ($R^2 = 0.996$) and 24·*n*PF₆ ($R^2 = 0.996$) for the thermally induced GSCC \rightarrow MSCC equilibrium change was employed to calculate the ΔG°_{298K} , ΔH° , and ΔS° values for the process and are tabulated in the Table 4.

in order to obtain (Table 4) the standard enthalpy (ΔH°) and standard entropy ($T\Delta S^{\circ}$) changes for the GSCC \rightarrow MSCC process. The GSCC \rightarrow MSCC processes in **23**·4PF₆ and **24**·*n*PF₆ correspond to ΔG° values of 1.5 (± 0.2) and 1.6 (± 0.1) kcal mol⁻¹, respectively. Van't Hoff plots constructed using integration of the resonance peaks from the VT ¹H NMR experiment for **23**·4PF₆ also leads to a ΔG° value of \approx 1.6 kcal mol⁻¹. Attempts at VT ¹H NMR characterisation of **24**·*n*PF₆ to probe switching proved impractical as a consequence of overlapping resonances and characteristic broadening of high molecular weight polymers. The observed ΔG° values for both **23**·4PF₆ and **24**·*n*PF₆, namely 1.5 (± 0.24) and 1.6 (± 0.05) kcal mol⁻¹, respectively, agree well with the predicted values found (Table 4) by determining the $\Delta \Delta G^{\circ}$ of

the pseudorotaxane components. Additionally the data in Table 4 also indicate that the GSCC->MSCC switching process for both 23.4PF₆ and 24.*n*PF₆ is enthalpy driven as indicated by the larger enthalpic contribution over the entropic contribution (ΔH° = 3.9 (± 0.1) kcal mol⁻¹_{23.4PF6}, $\Delta H^{\circ} = 3.8 (\pm 0.1)$ kcal mol⁻¹_{24.nPF6}; $T\Delta S^{\circ} = 2.4 ~(\pm 0.2) ~\text{kcal mol}^{-1}_{23.4 \text{PF}_6}, ~T\Delta S^{\circ} = 2.2 ~(\pm 0.1) ~\text{kcal}$ mol⁻¹_{24.nPF6}). A comparison of the thermodynamic parameters from Table 1 and Table 4, also indicates that pseudorotaxane formation is an enthalpy driven process, having a much larger enthalpic contribution during the threading process than the $GSCC \rightarrow MSCC$ process in the [2]catenane. This situation can be explained by the inherent differences between a process in which solvent molecules must be displaced from the inside of CBPQT⁴⁺ ring during pseudorotaxane formation, and circumrotation in the catenated species, which does not require the displacement of solvent molecules or the unraveling of the linear glycol chains of the guest. Despite the inherent differences between the processes of pseudorotaxane formation and circumrotation, thermodynamic compensation ensures that the free energy (ΔG°) for both processes remains closely related.

Conclusions

We have demonstrated that a reliable comparison exists between the thermodynamic free energy differences ($\Delta\Delta G^{\circ}$) observed for the binding of different guests with modified hosts, and the thermodynamic free energy of switching (ΔG°) of the analogous bistable [2]catenanes made with the same components. A small library of π -electron deficient CBPQT⁴⁺ hosts, modified at the ortho positions on one of the p-xylylene rings, was synthesised, and the consequences of the substitutions upon their binding of π -electron rich guests were evaluated by means of ITC studies and X-ray crystallography. A decrease in the binding constants was observed for all guests interacting with the substituted host CBPQT⁴⁺ ring when compared to the unsubstituted host, CBPQT⁴⁺, as a result of the loss of a single $[C-H \cdots O]$ interaction. This observation was further supported by studying the linear free energy relationships (LFERs) describing steric size for each substituent (R)-quantified by both the Winstein-Holness A values,²⁸ and steric Taft parameters²⁹ (E_s)—and the influence of such on the binding strength of the host and guest (K_a) . However, the behaviour of the resulting bistable catenanes is unchanged because the interactions of the cyclophane with both recognition units are diminished to the same extent. This behaviour was illustrated by synthesising an alkyne-modified bistable [2]catenane, as well as a polymer with a bistable [2]catenane side-chain modification. In both systems, the switching thermodynamics were comparable to the unmodified bistable [2]catenane, and the switching thermodynamics could be predicted by inspection of the $\Delta\Delta G^{\circ}$ values of the components enabling accurate predictions without cumbersome synthesis. The additivity of the thermodynamic differences ($\Delta\Delta G^{\circ}$) observed for binding of different guests with modified hosts, and the thermodynamic switching parameters (ΔG°) in MIMs is consistent, at the very least, with the long forgotten concept³⁴ of the 'parachor', where these thermodynamic quantities, obtained from two separate binding experiments "which are a priori independent", require³⁵ the examination of their influence on the switching behavior of the analogous MIM, and their "eventual statistical dependence a posteriori".

Experimental

Materials and methods

All solvents (Fischer Scientific) were dried prior to use. All reagents and starting materials were purchased from Aldrich or VWR and used without further purification. 6.4PF₆,¹⁹ 7.4PF₆,^{25h} 8,¹⁸ 11,¹⁹ 12,²⁰ 13,¹⁸ 14,¹⁹ 15,^{25h} 16·2PF₆,^{25h} 17,^{25h} 22^{4b} and TTF-DEG^{10b} were prepared according to published literature procedures. Thin-layer chromatography was carried out using aluminum sheets precoated with silica gel 60 (Merck 40-60 mm, 230-400 mesh). Melting points are uncorrected. Deuterated solvents (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories) for NMR spectroscopic analyses were used as received. Column chromatography was performed on silica gel 60 (Merck 40–60 nm, 230–400 mesh). Size exclusion chromatography was performed using an Agilent 100 Series pump with a Viscotek ViscoGEL GPC column, coupled to a Wyatt DAWN HELEOS-II multi-angle light scattering detector and an OPTILAB rEX refractive index detector. NMR Spectra were recorded on Varian INOVA-400 (at 400 MHz), Varian INOVA-500 (at 500 MHz), Varian P INOVA-500 (at 500 MHz), and Varian INOVA-600 (at 600 MHz) spectrometers. All chemical shifts are quoted in ppm, relative to tetramethylsilane, using the residual solvent peak as a reference standard. Mass spectra were measured on an IonSpec 7.0T Ultima FTMS with ESI and MALDI ion sources. Electrochemistry was performed using a Gamry Reference 600 potentiostat/galvanostat/ZRA.

General procedure of the cyclisation to form tetracationic cyclophane hosts

1, 1'-[1, 4 - Phenylenebis - (methylene)] bis (4, 4' - bipyridinium) bis(hexafluorophosphate) (1 equiv.) was added to a solution of the appropriate dibromo-p-xylene derivative (1 equiv.) and the template 17 (3 equiv.) dissolved in DMF. The reaction mixture was subjected to high pressure (10-15 kbar) for three days. The solvent was removed from the resulting purple solution under vacuum, and the purple oil was subjected to liquid-liquid extraction [CHCl₃/1% (w/v) NH₄Cl (aq)] until the solution became colourless. The solvent was removed from the aqueous portion and the resulting solid was subjected to column chromatography [SiO₂: MeOH/MeNO₂/2 M NH₄Cl (7 : 1 : 2)]. The eluent was removed in vacuo, the solid was dissolved in hot H₂O and a saturated aqueous solution of NH₄PF₆ was added until no further precipitate was observed. The precipitate was recovered by filtration to give the appropriate tetracationic cyclophane as its tetrakis(hexafluorophosphate) salt.

1.4PF₆. (33 mg, 0.13 mmol, 10%) ¹H NMR (500 MHz, CD₃CN) δ = 9.28 (d, J = 6 Hz, 2 H), 9.23 (d, J = 7 Hz, 2 H), 9.08 (d, J = 7 Hz, 2 H), 8.49–8.40 (m, 6 H), 8.37 (d, J = 7 Hz, 2 H), 7.68–7.60 (m, 4 H), 7.53 (d, J = 8 Hz, 1 H), 7.49 (s, 1 H), 7.44 (d, J = 8 Hz, 1 H), 6.11 (s, 2 H), 6.04 (s, 2 H), 6.02 (s, 2 H), 2.32 (s, 3 H); ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, CD₃CN) δ = 149.8, 149.5, 145.6, 145.4, 145.3, 145.2, 139.2, 136.4, 136.2, 136.1, 134.4, 132.1, 131.9, 130.4, 130.3, 127.6, 127.3, 127.2, 127.1, 64.6, 64.5, 62.2, 18.2; ESI-HRMS: m/z calcd for C₃₇H₃₄F₁₈N₄P₃ [M – PF₆]⁺ = 1305.3267; found 1305.3134.

2·4PF₆. (150 mg, 0.127 mmol, 18%) ¹H NMR (500 MHz, CD₃CN) δ = 9.47 (d, *J* = 7 Hz, 2 H), 9.38 (m, 4 H), 8.65 (d,

 $J = 7 \text{ Hz}, 2 \text{ H}, 8.62 \text{ (d}, J = 7 \text{ Hz}, 2 \text{ H}, 8.56 \text{ (d}, J = 7 \text{ Hz}, 2 \text{ H}), 8.51 \text{ (d}, J = 7 \text{ Hz}, 2 \text{ H}), 8.36 \text{ (d}, J = 6 \text{ Hz}, 2 \text{ H}), 7.82-7.74 \text{ (m}, 6 \text{ H}), 7.71 \text{ (dd}, J = 7 \text{ Hz}, 2 \text{ H}, 8.36 \text{ (d}, J = 6 \text{ Hz}, 2 \text{ H}), 7.82-7.74 \text{ (m}, 6 \text{ H}), 6.25 \text{ (s}, 2 \text{ H}), 6.21 \text{ (s}, 2 \text{ H}), 6.19 \text{ (s}, 2 \text{ H}), 6.17 \text{ (s}, 2 \text{ H}); {}^{13}\text{C} \text{ NMR} \text{ (125 MHz, CD}_3\text{CN)} \delta = 149.8, 149.76, 149.7, 149.6, 149.58, 145.4, 145.2, 145.1, 143.9, 137.9, 136.4, 136.0, 133.5, 133.5, 131.9, 131.3, 130.5, 130.4, 129.5, 129.2, 129.2, 128.6, 127.4, 127.4, 127.3, 126.6, 64.6, 64.5, 64.3, 62.3; ESI-HRMS: <math>m/z$ calcd for $C_{42}H_{36}F_{18}N_4P_3$ $[M - PF_6]^+ = 1367.3433;$ found 1367.3230.

4.4PF₆. (284 mg, 0.241 mmol, 34%) ¹H NMR (500 MHz, CD₃CN) δ = 8.97–8.86 (m, 8 H), 8.25–8.18 (m, 6 H), 8.15 (d, J = 7 Hz, 2 H), 7.81 (d, J = 2 Hz, 1 H), 7.72 (d, J = 8 Hz, 1 H), 7.63 (dd, J = 2 Hz, 8 Hz, 1 H), 7.57 (s, 4 H), 5.93 (s, 2 H), 5.78 (s, 2 H), 5.77 (s, 2 H), 5.76 (s, 2 H); ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, CD₃CN) δ = 63.6, 63.8, 64.6, 117.3, 124.8, 126.9, 127.2, 127.3, 127.4, 129.6, 130.1, 130.3, 133.4, 134.3, 134.9, 135.8, 135.9, 137.8, 145.1, 145.2, 145.7, 149.3, 149.4, 149.7; ESI-HRMS: *m*/*z* calcd for C₃₆H₃₁F₁₂N₄P₂ [*M* – 2PF₆]²⁺ = 444.0502; found 444.0519.

5.4PF₆. (95 mg, 0.075 mmol, 25%) ¹H NMR (500.1 MHz, CD₃CN) δ = 8.87 (m, 6 H), 8.83 (d, J = 7 Hz, 2 H), 8.18 (m, 6 H), 8.11 (d, J = 7 Hz, 2 H), 7.62 (dd, J = 8 Hz, J = 1 Hz, 1 H), 7.53 (s, 4 H), 7.62 (d, J = 8 Hz, 1 H), 6.94 (s, J = 1 Hz, 1 H), 5.74 (s, 4 H), 5.70 (s, 4 H), 3.74 (s, 3 H); ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃) δ = 30.7, 56, 5, 61.4, 65.5, 65.8, 112.8, 118.2, 122.9, 125.2, 127.3, 128.1, 128.2, 131.6, 131.2, 132.9, 136.8, 136.9, 138.8, 146.1, 146.7, 149.9, 150.1, 150.3, 150.4, 159.1; ESI-HRMS: *m*/*z* calcd for C₃₇H₃₆F₁₂N₄OP₂ [*M* - 2PF₆]²⁺ = 420.1008; found 420.1007.

10. Compound 8 (0.50 g, 2.7 mmol), *n*-bromosuccinimide (1.01 g, 5.7 mmol), and benzoyl peroxide were added to a solution of CH₂Cl₂ (20 mL). The solution was stirred vigorously under reflux for 1 day in the presence of a sodium lamp. After cooling down to room temperature, the solution was filtered, and the solvent was evaporated off under vacuum. Purification of the residue by column chromatography [SiO₂: MeOH : CH₂Cl₂ (1 : 99)] gave compound 10 as a white solid (650 mg, 1.9 mmol, 70%). ¹H NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃) δ = 7.53–7.40 (m, 8H), 4.53 (s, 2H), 4.44 (s, 2H); ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃) δ = 31.5, 32.6, 121.7, 128.3, 128.49, 128.8, 130.9, 131.4, 135.3, 137.9, 139.5, 142.4; ESI-HRMS: *m/z* calcd for C₁₄H₁₂Br₂ = 338.9208; found = 338.9196.

19. 2-(2-(2-Azidoethoxy)ethoxy)ethanol (18) (7.0 g, 40 mmol) and Et_3N (4.0 g, 39.5 mmol) were added to dry degassed CH_2Cl_2 (175 mL) and the mixture was left to stir for 1 h. The reaction mixture was cooled down to 0 °C and methacryloyl chloride (4.80 g, 46.3 mmol) was added. The reaction was warmed up slowly to 25 °C and stirred for a further 14 h. The solvent was removed under vacuum, and the resulting mixture was subjected to column chromatography $[SiO_2: CH_2Cl_2: hexane (6.5:3.5)]$. The fractions containing the product were combined and solvent was removed in vacuo to give 19 as a colourless oil (7.7 g, 32 mmol, 68%). ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, 400 MHz, 25 °C): $\delta = 1.89-1.90$ (dd, J =1.43 Hz, 3H), 3.33 (t, J = 4.91 Hz, 2H), 3.59–3.65 (m, 6H), 3.70 (t, J = 4.92 Hz, 2H), 4.25 (t, J = 4.93 Hz, 2H), 5.52–5.53 (m, 1H), 6.07–6.08 (m, 1H); ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃, 400 MHz, 25 °C): $\delta = 18.3$, 50.7, 63.8, 69.0, 69.2, 70.1, 125.7, 136.1, 167.3; ESI-HRMS: m/z calcd for $C_{10}H_{17}N_3O_4 = 243.121$; found: 244.128 $[M + H]^+$.

20. A mixture of the monomer 19 (250 mg, 1.02 mmol) and Me₂CO (3 mL) were degassed in a Schlenk flask by six freezepump-thaw cycles. This mixture was then injected into another dry Schlenk flask containing CuBr (9.3 mg, 0.065 mmol) and 4,4'-dinonyl-2,2'-dipyridal (DNBB) (20.2 g, 0.049 mmol) and the mixture was left to stir for 10 min. Ethyl 2-bromoisobutyrate (EBIB) (9.5 µL, 0.065 mmol) was then injected into the reaction mixture which was left to stir for 16 h. The reaction mixture was diluted with CH_2Cl_2 then washed with saturated aqueous Na_2CO_3 : EDTA mixture. The organic layer was washed with a saturated NaCl solution, dried (MgSO₄), and then precipitated into hexane. The solvent was subsequently removed under vacuum, affording the azide polymer 20 (conversion > 95% det. by ¹H NMR spectroscopy); $M_n = 39,000$; $M_w = 55,000$ PDI = 1.4 det. by GPC analysis. ¹H NMR (CD₂Cl₂, 400 MHz, 25 °C): $\delta = 0.86$ – 1.23 (m, 3H), 1.82-1.96 (m, 2H), 3.39 (s, 2H), 3.64-3.67 (m, 6H), 4.08 (s, 2H); ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃, 400 MHz, 25 °C): δ = 16.4, 44.6, 50.8, 63.9, 68.5, 69.9, 70.5, 177.4.

21.nPF₆. A mixture of the azide polymer 20 (25.6 mg, 0.105 mmol) and CBPQT⁴⁺ alkyne derivative 7.4PF₆ (124.5 g, 0.105 mmol) was added to DMF- d_7 (1 mL) in a dry NMR tube and it was degassed by bubbling Ar through the solution for 2 h. An ¹H NMR spectrum of this mixture was recorded at this juncture. CuI (20 mg, 0.105 mmol) was then added to the reaction mixture. The reaction was heated to 60 °C in a sandbath and monitored periodically with ¹H NMR spectroscopy. After 24 h, the reaction mixture was cooled and washed with aqueous EDTA. The organic laver was then added dropwise to a saturated NH₄PF₆ solution in H₂O to precipitate out the product. The precipitate was recovered by filtration to afford the $21 \cdot n PF_6$ copolymer as a crystalline brown solid (145 mg, conversion > 95% by ¹H NMR); $M_n = 2.27 \times 10^5$ g mol⁻¹ (det. by ¹H NMR integration analysis); $M_{W} = (1.99 \pm 0.14) \times$ $10^{6} \text{ g/mol}, M_{n} = (1.63 \pm 0.07) \times 10^{5} \text{ g mol}^{-1}, \text{PDI} = 1.5 (\pm 0.1) \text{ (det.}$ by SEC-MALS analysis). ¹H NMR (DMF-*d*₇, 500 MHz, 25 °C): $\delta = 0.78 - 1.32$ (m), 1.66 - 1.81(br s), 3.51 - 3.80 (m), 3.92 - 4.03 (br s), 4.05-4.20 (br s), 4.62-4.88 (m), 5.55-5.75 (m), 6.12-6.28 (br m), 6.30–6.49 (br s), 7.91–8.12 (m), 8.42–8.49 (m), 8.53–8.83 (m), 9.34-9.78 (br m).

23.4PF₆. The dicationic building block $16.2PF_6$ (204 mg, 0.289 mmol) was added to a solution of the dibromide 15 (100 mg, 0.289 mmol) and macrocycle 22 (100 mg, 0.135 mmol) dissolved in dry DMF (50 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred for 1 week. The solvent was removed from the resulting green solution under vacuum, and the green solid was redissolved in Me₂CO. The solution was subjected to column chromatography (SiO₂), first eluting the yellow band containing unreacted macrocycle 22 using Me₂CO and then changing to [MeOH/MeNO₂/H₂O/2M NH₄Cl (7:1:2)]. The eluent was removed under vacuum, the solid was dissolved in hot H₂O, and a saturated aqueous solution of NH₄PF₆ was added until no further precipitate was observed. The precipitate was recovered by filtration to afford 23.4PF₆ (101 mg, 0.052 mmol, 39%) as a green solid. ¹H NMR (CD₃CN, 400 MHz, 25 °C): $\delta = 3.02$ (s, 1H), 3.50–4.16 (m, 36H), 5.08 (s, 2H), 5.67 (s, 4H), 5.84 (s, 2H), 5.96 (s, 2H), 6.06 (br s, 2H), 6.69-6.78 (m, 2H), 7.23–7.34 (br s, 4H), 7.38–7.426 (br s, 3 H), 7.57–7.70 (m, 8H), 7.73–7.88 (m, 3H), 8.30–8.42 (s, 1H), 8.54–9.29 (m, 8H); ¹³C NMR $(CD_3CN, 400 \text{ MHz}, 25 \degree \text{C}): \delta = 22.7, 28.6, 33.7, 34.5, 38.5, 40.4,$ 56.7, 61.9, 64.1, 64.6, 64.8, 64.9, 68.0, 68.3, 69.8, 70.0, 70.2, 70.6, 70.7, 70.8, 71.1, 71.2, 71.5, 106.1, 107.8, 108.0, 114.1, 125.7, 126.3, 130.1, 131.2, 132.8, 134.9, 135.9, 136.6, 144.7, 144.9, 145.2, 154.1, 173.6.; ESI-HRMS: m/z calcd for $C_{74}H_{78}O_{12}N_4P_4S_4F_{24}$: 1922.31; found: 1777.340 $[M - PF_6]^{3+}$, 816.292 $[M - 2PF_6]^{2+}$, 495.843 $[M - 3PF_6]^{+}$, 743.276 $[M - 2PF_6 - HPF_6]^{2+}$.

24.*n*PF₆. A mixture of the azide polymer 20 (30 mg, 0.123 mmol) and 23.4PF₆ (63 mg, 0.033 mmol) was added to DMF- d_7 (1 mL) in a dry NMR tube and it was degassed by bubbling Ar through the solution for 2 h. An ¹H NMR spectrum of this mixture was taken at this point. CuI (15 mg, 0.079 mmol) was added to the reaction mixture. The reaction mixture was then heated to 60 °C in a sandbath for 24 h, and followed periodically by NMR spectroscopy. Excess of methyl propargyl ether was then injected into the reaction mixture, and heated for an additional 24 h at 60 °C. The reaction mixture was cooled and washed with aqueous EDTA. The organic layer was then added dropwise to a saturated NH₄PF₆ solution in MeOH to precipitate out the product. The precipitate was recovered by filtration to afford the side-chain poly[2]catenane $24 \cdot n PF_6$ as a crystalline green solid (90 mg, conversion > 95% det. by ¹H NMR spectroscopy); $M_n =$ 1.28×10^5 g mol⁻¹ (det. by ¹H NMR integration analysis); $M_{\rm w} =$ $(1.3 \pm 0.07) \times 10^6$ g mol⁻¹, $M_n = (8.7 \pm 0.61) \times 10^5$ g mol⁻¹, PDI =1.5 (\pm 0.1) (det. by SEC-MALS analysis). ¹H NMR (DMF- d_7 , 500 MHz, 25 °C): $\delta = 0.80-1.37$ (m), 1.72–2.19 (m), 3.24–4.89 (m), 5.56–5.85 (br s), 5.89–6.27 (m), 6.32–6.57 (br s), 6.75–6.89 (br s), 7.23–7.37 (br s), 7.37–7.47 (br s), 7.69–8.14 (m), 8.20–8.75 (m), 9.12-9.74 (m).

Isothermal titration microcalorimetry

Microcalorimetry was carried out using a Microcal VP-ITC titration microcalorimeter. Aliquouts (3–7 µL) of degassed solutions of the guest in MeCN were titrated with stirring into solutions of the host at 298 K. The heat of dilution for each titration was measured by determining the heat released on the injection of the guest into MeCN in the absence of host, and the enthalpy of dilution was subtracted from the enthalpy of the titration to determine the enthalpy of complexation. Software provided by Microcal LLC was used to compute the thermodynamic parameters of the titration (ΔG° , K_a , ΔS° , ΔH°) based on the one-site binding model. The reported values in Table 1 are the mean results of multiple titrations, and errors are reported as a standard deviation from the mean.

Cyclic voltammetry

Electrochemical experiments were carried out at room termperature in argon-purged solutions of MeCN, with a Gamry Reference 600 potentiostat/galvanostat/ZRA interfaced to a PC. Cyclic voltammetric experiments were performed by using a glassy carbon working electrode (0.07 cm²); its surface was polished routinely with 0.05 mm of alumina–water slurry on a felt surface immediately before each run. The counter electrode was a Pt wire and the reference electrode was a Ag/AgCl electrode. Tetrabutylammonium hexafluorophosphate (0.1 M) was added as a supporting electrolyte.

X-Ray crystal data

23-4PF₆. The X-ray crystal data for compound **23-4PF₆** was collected at 173 K using a Rigaku MM007 High brilliance RA generator (Cu-K_{α} radiation) equipped with confocal optics and Saturn92 CCD system. The results were obtained after collecting data for many crystals from different crystallisation attempts. All of the crystals examined gave the same unit cell and crystal system; the data reported here is the most well behaved. Intensities were corrected for Lorentz-polarization and for absorption. The structure was solved by direct methods. Hydrogen atoms bound to carbon were idealised. Structural refinements were obtained with full-matrix least-squares based on F^2 by using the program SHELXTL.²⁷ CCDC 720651 contains the supplementary crystal-lographic data for this compound.[†]

Crystal data for **23**·**4P**₆. C₇₄H₇₈F₂₄N₄O₁₂P₄S₄.6.5H₂O.C₆H₁₄O, M = 2142.80, space group $P2_1/c$, monoclinic, a = 14.216(4), b = 54.971(12), c = 13.678(4) Å, $\beta = 109.254(7)^\circ$, U = 10091(4) Å³, Z = 4, $\mu = 2.427$ mm⁻¹, 126248 reflections collected, 11023 observed independent reflections (R_{int} 0.0854) gave R 0.1969 for $I > 2\sigma(I)$ and w $R(F^2)$ was 0.5261.

DNP-DEG \subset **1.4PF**₆ and **TTF** \subset **1.4PF**₆. The X-ray crystal data for DNP-DEG \subset **1.4PF**₆ and **TTF** \subset **1.4PF**₆ were collected with a Bruker Smart 1000 CCD-based X-ray diffractometer. The frames for the data collection were integrated with the Bruker SAINT program system using a narrow-frame integration algorithm. The superstructures were solved by direct methods and refined based on F^2 using the SHELXTL software package.³⁶ CCDC 720652– 720653 contain the supplementary crystallographic data for these compounds.[†]

Crystal data for DNP-DEG $\subset 1.4PF_6$. C₆₇H₇₆N₁₀O₆](PF₆)₄, M = 1697.26, space group P_{2_1}/n , monoclinic, a = 13.8934(9), b = 23.2237(16), c = 13.0531(9) Å, $\beta = 116.2620(10)^\circ$, V = 3776.9(4) Å³, Z = 2, $D_{caled} = 1.492$ g cm⁻³, μ (Mo-K_{α}) = 0.216 mm⁻¹, T = 120(2) K, red prisms, 9064 independent measured reflections, 5614 independent observed reflections [| F_o | > 4 σ (| F_o |), 2 $\theta_{max} =$ 54°], F^2 refinement, $R_1 = 0.061$, w $R_2 = 0.139$, 538 parameters.

Crystal data for $TTF \subset 1.4PF_6$. $C_{43}H_{38}N_4S_4$](PF₆)₄.1.8(C₂H₃N) M = 1392.79, space group $P2_1/n$, monoclinic, a = 10.8498(8), b = 19.3989(14), c = 13.8729(10) Å, $\beta = 106.5760(10)^\circ$, V = 2798.5(4) Å³, Z = 2, $D_{calcd.} = 1.653$ g cm⁻³, μ (Mo-K_{α}) = 0.406 mm⁻¹, T = 120(2) K, green block, 6723 independent measured reflections, 4363 independent observed reflections [$|F_o| > 4\sigma(|F_o|), 2\theta_{max} = 56^\circ$], F^2 refinement, $R_1 = 0.052$, w $R_2 = 0.137$, 436 parameters.

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