

Shape-persistent ladder molecules exhibit nanogap-independent conductance in single-molecule junctions

Xiaolin Liu^{1,2†}, Hao Yang^{1,3†}, Hassan Harb^{4†}, Rajarshi Samajdar^{1,5}, Toby J. Woods², Oliver Lin², Qian Chen^{1,2,3}, Adolfo I. B. Romo^{1,2}, Joaquín Rodríguez-López^{1,2}, Rajeev S. Assary^{4*}, Jeffrey S. Moore^{1,2,3*}, Charles M. Schroeder^{1,2,3,5*}

¹Beckman Institute for Advanced Science and Technology, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, IL, 61801, USA

²Department of Chemistry, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, IL, 61801, USA

³Department of Materials Science and Engineering, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, IL, 61801, USA

⁴Materials Science Division, Argonne National Laboratory, Lemont, IL, 60439, USA

⁵Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, IL, 61801 USA

† These authors contributed equally to this work.

* Correspondence: assary@anl.gov, jsmoore@illinois.edu, cms@illinois.edu

Abstract

Molecular electronic devices require precise control over the flow of current in single molecules. However, the electron transport properties of single molecules critically depend on dynamic molecular conformations in nanoscale junctions. Here, we report a unique strategy for controlling molecular conductance using shape-persistent ladder molecules. Chemically diverse, charged ladder molecules, synthesized via one-pot multicomponent ladderization strategy, show a molecular conductance ($d\log(G/G_0)/dx \approx -0.1 \text{ nm}^{-1}$) that is nearly independent of junction displacement x , in stark contrast to the nanogap-dependent conductance ($d\log(G/G_0)/dx \approx -7 \text{ nm}^{-1}$) observed for non-ladder analogs. Ladder molecules show an unusually narrow distribution of molecular conductance during dynamic junction displacement which is attributed to the shape-persistent backbone and restricted rotation of terminal anchor groups. Our results further show that molecular conductance remains unaffected by the chemical identity of counterions or substitution groups on the ladder backbone. Overall, our work provides new avenues for controlling molecular conductance using shape-persistent ladder molecules.

Main

The miniaturization of electronic devices has driven remarkable advances ranging from portable computing devices to high-speed communication and high-density data storage¹. In recent years, the transistor density on silicon-based microchips has doubled approximately every two years in accordance with Moore's Law². Although this empirical observation has held true for decades, physical size limitations are beginning to disrupt this trend³. Molecular electronics offers a potential path forward for continued miniaturization of nano- and microelectronic devices⁴. Single-molecule junctions generally consist of a molecular bridge linked to two or more metal electrodes via terminal anchor groups (*e.g.*, thiol, amine, or pyridine)⁵. Despite recent progress⁶⁻⁹, achieving robust and controllable conductance in single-molecule junctions remains challenging due to the dynamic nature of molecular conformations that invariably fluctuate over operational timescales at ambient temperatures, destabilizing device performance and impacting reproducibility. Using standard microfabrication techniques, it is challenging to construct electrodes with sub-5 nm features tailored for specific molecules, which leads to distorted molecular conformations in nanoscale junctions^{10,11}. Uncertainties in nanogap dimensions ultimately lead to unfavorable broad variations in molecular conductance¹².

Advances in molecular design offer promising strategies for controlling molecular conformations in nanoscale junctions. Molecules exhibiting a junction conformation-independent conductance could overcome the limitations associated with precise control over nanogap dimensions and conformational variability. Ladder-type molecules feature an uninterrupted sequence of rings with two or more shared atoms between adjacent rings¹³, which provides unique structural characteristics beneficial to molecular electronics^{14,15}. Ladder molecules exhibit a shape-persistent architecture¹⁶ that reduces the conformational degrees of freedom of molecular backbones^{17,18}. From this view, we hypothesized that ladder-type molecules would exhibit a nanogap-independent conductance in single-molecule junctions—a trait seldom observed in conformationally flexible scaffolds¹⁹. In addition, the increased coplanarity in ladder-type molecules promotes delocalization of the frontier orbitals across the molecule^{20,21}, facilitating efficient end-to-end charge transport along the backbone.

Despite the potential advantages of using ladder molecules for molecular electronics, synthetic challenges have limited systematic exploration of the relationship between ladder structure and molecular conductance²². Traditional ladderization strategies primarily involve multistep one-

or two-component reactions (Fig. 1a) that typically fuse two molecular rings (at most) per step²³⁻²⁵. In general, these synthetic approaches limit the structural and functional diversity of the ladder products. Therefore, continued advances in the field critically rely on the development of robust and scalable synthesis methods that accommodate a wide array of ladder configurations.

The electronic properties of single molecules can be experimentally characterized using the scanning tunneling microscope-break junction (STM-BJ) technique²⁶⁻²⁹. The STM-BJ method is used to determine molecular conductance as a function of applied bias and junction displacement, providing statistically robust measurements by repeatedly forming and breaking junctions over a large ensemble of molecules in a single experiment ($\sim 10^3$ – 10^4 molecules)³⁰. The timescale of molecular conformational changes in an STM-BJ experiment (picoseconds to nanoseconds)³¹ is typically orders of magnitude smaller than the timescale of a single STM-BJ trajectory (milliseconds)³², suggesting that a broad range of molecular conformations is sampled over the course of a single ‘pulling’ experiment in STM-BJ. For these reasons, the conductance of individual molecules typically shows significant variability across the underlying ensemble³³⁻³⁵, and average molecular conductance is frequently reported along with one-dimensional (1D) conductance histograms^{19,36,37}.

Here, we adopt and expand a one-pot multicomponent ladderization approach to synthesize a diverse set of charged ladder molecules (Fig. 1b) bearing methylthio (–SMe) anchor groups for single-molecule electronic characterization. Our results demonstrate that ladder-type molecules with fused arene backbones exhibit a molecular conductance ($d\log(G/G_0)/dx \approx -0.1 \text{ nm}^{-1}$) that is independent of junction displacement x , in stark contrast to the nanogap-dependent conductance ($d\log(G/G_0)/dx \approx -7 \text{ nm}^{-1}$) observed for non-ladder analogs. In addition, molecular conductance through the ladder backbone is robust and nearly independent of the chemical identities of counter anions or substituent groups. Our computational results show that charged ladder molecules exhibit constrained torsional motion in their terminal anchor groups, which contributes to an exceptionally narrow conductance distribution during dynamic ‘pulling’ trajectories in STM-BJ experiments. In addition, ladder-type molecules offer enhanced junction conductance compared to their non-ladder counterparts, which is attributed to enhanced electron delocalization along the molecular backbone. Interestingly, our results show that positively charged ladder backbones can serve as electrostatic anchor points, facilitating voltage-regulated dual charge-transport pathways in ladder-type molecules. A

combination of molecular simulations and chemical and physical characterization was used to understand the electronic properties of ladder-type molecules, including density functional theory (DFT) calculations, X-ray crystallography, electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR), superconducting quantum interfering device (SQUID) experiments, and cyclic voltammetry. Overall, our work provides new avenues for achieving nanogap-independent conductance in molecular electronics using precise molecular design and synthesis.

Results and Discussion

One-pot multicomponent synthesis

The C–H annulative coupling of benzaldehydes, anilines, and alkynes catalyzed by different co-catalysts ($[\text{CpRhCl}_2]_2$, $\text{Cu}(\text{OAc})_2$, and AgBF_4)³⁸ efficiently generates complex polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, including ladder molecules, in a highly adaptable and modular fashion. To evaluate the compatibility of the anchor group –SMe, we synthesized the short ladder molecule **L1-PF₆** from 4-(methylthio)benzaldehyde, 4-(methylthio)aniline, and diphenylacetylene in 87% yield (Fig. 1b). Additional diarylalkyne and dialkylalkyne substrates were also efficiently tolerated in this multicomponent reaction. Post-annulation ion exchange reactions conveniently generated an expanded library of ladder compounds. Building on this success, we synthesized longer and more intricate ladders (*e.g.*, **L2-PF₆**, **L3-PF₆**, and **L4-PF₆**) from dianilines or dialdehydes as starting materials, with yields ranging from 56 to 80%. The structures were extensively characterized by infrared spectroscopy (Supplementary Figs. 1–4), NMR spectroscopy (¹H and heteronuclear, Supplementary Figs. 5–59), high-resolution electrospray ionization mass spectrometry, and single crystal X-ray diffraction analysis (Supplementary Tables 1–3). In addition to the facile installation of terminal anchor moieties for STM-BJ (Fig. 1c), this method provided a diverse array of ladders with adjustable backbones, pendent substituents, and counter anions. Minor adjustments to the reaction conditions provided analogous non-ladder counterparts (*e.g.*, **N1-PF₆**, **N2-PF₆**, and **N3-PF₆**), which served as unfused control molecules for single-molecule electronics experiments. The molecules are divided into four categories: conjugated ladder molecules (**L1**, **L2**), non-conjugated ladder molecules (**L3**, **L4**), conjugated non-ladder molecules (**N1**, **N2**), and non-conjugated non-ladder molecule (**N3**).

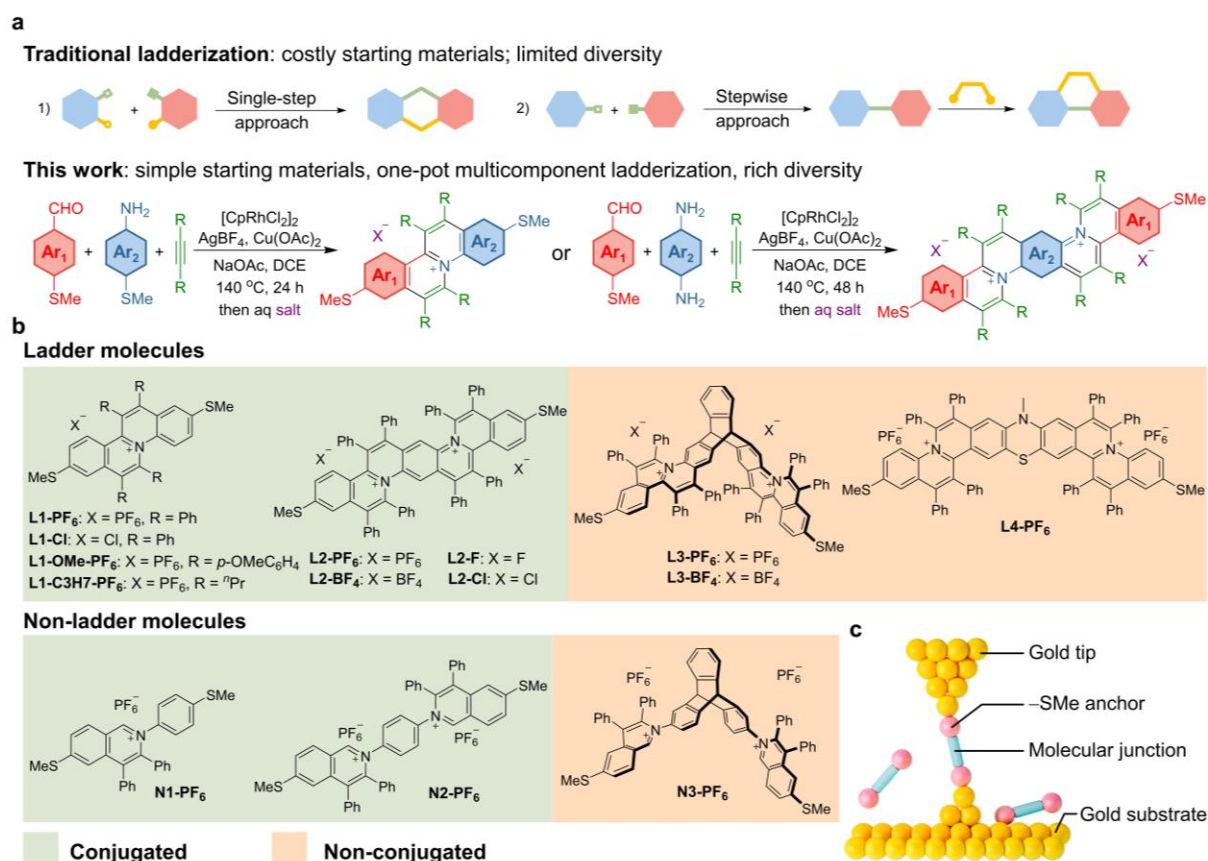


Fig. 1 | Molecular design and synthesis for single-molecule electronics. (a) Comparison between (top) traditional ladderization approaches and (bottom) the one-pot multicomponent ladderization method developed in this study. (b) Chemical structures of the ladder molecules and their non-ladder counterparts. Ladders are denoted with an **L** designation and their non-ladder counterparts are denoted by **N**. (c) Schematic representation of a molecular junction in the scanning tunneling microscopy-break junction (STM-BJ) technique.

Single-molecule electronics experiments

We characterized the single-molecule electronic properties of ladder and non-ladder molecules using the STM-BJ method^{27,29}. In this experiment, a gold tip electrode is repeatedly moved into and out of contact with a gold substrate electrode in solution containing molecules with terminal anchor groups, resulting in the repeated making and breaking of molecular junctions. During each molecular ‘pulling’ event, the current is measured for a constant applied bias across the molecular junction. The experiment begins as the tip moves away from the bottom (substrate) electrode, resulting in a sharp decrease in molecular conductance typically observed at one unit of quantum conductance (G_0 , where $G_0 = 2e^2/h$ or 77.5 μS ; e , electron charge; h , Planck’s constant), which indicates the start of

the single-molecule pulling event. Molecular conductance is then measured as junction displacement increases, which corresponds to formation of a single-molecule junction. At junction breakage, the molecular conductance abruptly decreases to the limit of detection of the instrument ($\sim 10^{-5.5} G_0$). The STM-BJ instrument is automated, and the experiment is repeated over an ensemble of 10^3 – 10^4 molecules. Single-molecule conductance data are then analyzed using 1D and two-dimensional (2D) histograms without data selection (Methods).

We determined 1D conductance histograms for ladder and non-ladder molecules (Fig. 2a). Conjugated ladder molecules **L1-PF₆** and **L2-PF₆** exhibited two dominant conductance peaks with high and low conductance features (*vide infra*). For the high conductance peaks, the most probable or average conductance values for **L1-PF₆** and **L2-PF₆** were similar at $10^{-2.9} G_0$ and $10^{-3.2} G_0$, despite large differences in the end-to-end molecular contour length (12.5 Å for **L1-PF₆** and 18.0 Å for **L2-PF₆** determined by DFT calculations, Supplementary Tables 4–5). Remarkably, the attenuation factor for **L1-PF₆** and **L2-PF₆** (defined as the change in molecular conductance G/G_0 with respect to contour length) was only 0.12 \AA^{-1} , which is among one of the smallest conductance decays reported in literature and significantly smaller than previously reported values for oligo[n]phenylenes³⁴ and oligothiophenes³⁹ (0.44 \AA^{-1} and 0.40 \AA^{-1} , respectively).

In contrast to the ladder molecules, the conjugated non-ladder molecules **N1-PF₆** and **N2-PF₆** showed significantly smaller average conductance values at $10^{-3.8} G_0$ and $10^{-4.8} G_0$, respectively. Moreover, the attenuation factor for conjugated non-ladder molecules **N1-PF₆** and **N2-PF₆** was observed to be 0.23 \AA^{-1} , which is significantly larger than the conjugated ladder molecules **L1-PF₆** and **L2-PF₆**. These results highlight the role of the ladder structure in molecular junctions for achieving relatively high junction conductance levels and minimal conductance decays as a function of molecular contour length. In addition to the primary conductance peak at $10^{-4.8} G_0$, **N2-PF₆** also exhibits a small shoulder feature in the 1D conductance histogram around $10^{-3.2} G_0$, which is attributed to an intermediate junction conformation before the molecule is fully extended as suggested by 2D correlation analysis (Supplementary Fig. 66). The average conductance values of non-conjugated ladder molecules **L3-PF₆** and **L4-PF₆** were approximately $10^{-4.9} G_0$. The lack of conjugation within these molecules significantly lowers their average conductance values by nearly two orders of magnitude compared to **L2-PF₆**, which shows that continuous conjugation across the entire ladder structure significantly enhances molecular conductance. On the other hand, the

non-conjugated, non-ladder molecule **N3-PF₆** exhibited a broad 1D conductance distribution showing a peak value around $10^{-4.7} G_0$. Although 1D conductance histograms for **N3-PF₆** and **L3-PF₆** show similar peak conductance values, **N3-PF₆** only showed conductance signals at extremely small junction displacements around 0.2 nm (*vide infra*). These results suggest that **N3-PF₆** junctions tend to break at relatively short displacements.

In addition to the average conductance values, the width of the conductance distributions in 1D conductance histograms provides valuable insights into the electronic properties of molecular junctions. Broad conductance distributions often arise from variations in junction conformations, whereas narrow or tight conductance distributions typically indicate a more rigid or shape-persistent structure¹⁹. We determined the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the primary conductance peaks by fitting the 1D conductance histograms to a Lorentzian function³⁵. For the ladder molecules (**L1-PF₆**, **L2-PF₆**, **L3-PF₆**, **L4-PF₆**), the FWHM was found to be $10^{0.41}$ (≈ 2.6), $10^{0.69}$, $10^{0.75}$, and $10^{0.84}$ for the primary conductance peaks, respectively. In contrast, the non-ladder molecules (**N1-PF₆**, **N2-PF₆**, **N3-PF₆**) exhibited significantly broader conductance distributions with FWHM values of $10^{1.3}$, $10^{2.3}$, and $10^{2.5}$ (≈ 316) for the primary conductance peaks, respectively. These results indicate that ladder-type molecules tend to have significantly narrower distributions in molecular conductance compared to non-ladder molecules. In addition, for both ladder and non-ladder molecules, the FWHM increases with molecular contour length, which suggests an increase in variation in the junction conformation for longer molecules.

Although 1D conductance histograms provide a convenient method to visualize single-molecule conductance distributions, peak conductance values may not fully reflect junction characteristics, particularly when conductance depends on molecular extension. To understand how molecular conductance depends on junction separation, we constructed 2D molecular conductance histograms by plotting conductance as a function of tip displacement (Figs. 2b–h). Ladder molecules exhibit remarkably constant conductance values during junction displacement (Figs. 2b–e, Supplementary Figs. 61–64). To quantitatively understand the variation in molecular conductance as a function of tip displacement, we determined the slope of trend lines fit to the peak conductance value as a function of junction displacement using linear regression (Fig. 2i) (Methods). Our results show that the most probable conductance values of ladder molecules (**L1-PF₆**–**L4-PF₆**) exhibit extremely small changes in molecular conductance G/G_0 as a function of electrode separation x

($d\log(G/G_0)/dx \approx -0.1 \text{ nm}^{-1}$), indicating the presence of robust and stable junctions with a nearly displacement-independent conductance. In contrast, non-ladder analogs (**N1-PF₆**–**N3-PF₆**) exhibit broadly distributed molecular conductance peaks spanning several orders of magnitude of conductance in the underlying ensemble (Figs. 2f–h). Non-ladder analogs (**N1-PF₆**–**N3-PF₆**) show much larger changes in molecular conductance as a function of junction displacement ($d\log(G/G_0)/dx \approx -7 \text{ nm}^{-1}$). These results clearly show more variability in the molecular conductance of non-ladder molecules compared to the ladder analogs.

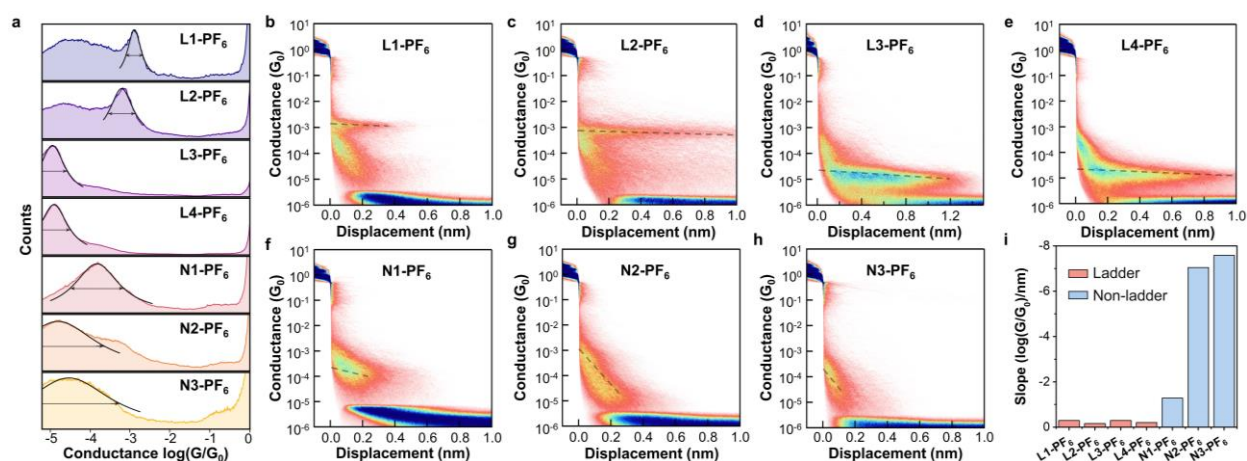


Fig 2 | Single-molecule conductance of ladder and non-ladder molecules. (a) 1D conductance histograms for ladder and non-ladder molecules. (b–h) 2D conductance histograms for (b) **L1-PF₆**, (c) **L2-PF₆**, (d) **L3-PF₆**, (e) **L4-PF₆**, (f) **N1-PF₆**, (g) **N2-PF₆**, and (h) **N3-PF₆**. A dashed black line shows a fit to the most probable conductance value as a function of junction separation (Methods). The color scale of the heat map was standardized across all plots for comparison. (i) Slopes derived from linear regression fits of the 2D conductance histograms in STM-BJ measurements. All data were obtained at 250 mV applied bias.

In addition to the high conductance peak, **L1-PF₆** and **L2-PF₆** also exhibited a less well-defined low conductance peak. To understand the origin of these conductance features, we used a 2D correlation analysis of single-molecule conductance trajectories (Fig. 3a) that showed a negative correlation between the two molecular conductance populations, indicating that either one or the other conductance feature occurs in individual single-molecule traces. These results suggest that these two molecular conductance features arise due to different molecular junction conformations (static heterogeneity) rather than dynamic

molecular junction conformations that interchange during the molecular pulling trajectory (dynamic heterogeneity). We further analyzed the molecular conductance features of the ladder-type molecules using flicker noise analysis^{32,40}. Flicker noise analysis provides a measure of conductance fluctuations that reveals information regarding molecular conduction pathways (e.g., through-bond or through-space conductance)^{32,40}. In this experiment, we performed holding-mode conductance measurements where molecular junctions were held at a fixed displacement for ~100 ms. Conductance traces surviving the holding period are then selected and their noise power was determined by integrating the conductance noise power spectral density (PSD) in a frequency range between 100 Hz to 1000 Hz (Methods), as previously reported¹⁵. Prior work has shown that the conductance tends to have smaller variations for through-bond conduction pathways⁴⁰. On the other hand, fluctuations in conductance are typically larger for through-space conduction pathways, where chemical bonds do not cover the entire conduction pathway and electrons tunnel through space to complete the circuit. Prior work has shown that plotting normalized noise power (noise power/ G^n) versus average normalized conductance G yields a power-law dependence where the scaling exponent $n \approx 1$ indicates a through-bond conduction pathway whereas $n \approx 2$ indicates a through-space conduction pathway⁴⁰.

Before performing flicker noise analysis, we used the K-mean++ clustering algorithm to classify single-molecule traces corresponding to high and low conductance features into two distinct molecular sub-populations⁴¹. We then analyzed each molecular sub-population using flicker analysis; the high-conductance feature resulted in a scaling exponent $n \approx 1.37$, consistent with a through-bond conductance pathway. In contrast, the low-conductance feature yielded a scaling exponent $n \approx 2.05$, consistent with a through-space conductance pathway (Fig. 3b). Based on these results, we hypothesized that the low conductance feature arises from molecular junctions formed by electrostatic interactions between the gold tip and the positively charged backbone at one terminus and by the –SMe anchor and electrode surface at the other terminus (Fig. 3c). To validate this hypothesis, we synthesized a ladder molecule **L1'-PF₆** with only one terminal –SMe anchor group as a control and determined its conductance using STM-BJ. Indeed, the entire 2D conductance histogram of **L1'-PF₆** was dominated by a low-conductance feature closely matching the low-conductance behavior of **L2-PF₆** (Fig. 3d), which is consistent with the hypothesis of electrostatic anchor formation governing the low-conductance peak of **L2-PF₆**. We further studied the conductance of **L2-PF₆** as a function of applied bias between 200 mV to 400 mV (Fig. 3e).

Upon increasing the applied bias, our results show an increase in the probability of the molecular sub-population corresponding to the low conductance feature. This phenomenon is attributed to the voltage-dependent behavior of electrostatic interactions forming junction contacts between the charged molecular backbone and the gold electrode⁴². Taken together, our results clearly demonstrate the ability to control the distribution between charge transport pathways simply by changing the applied bias (Fig. 3f).

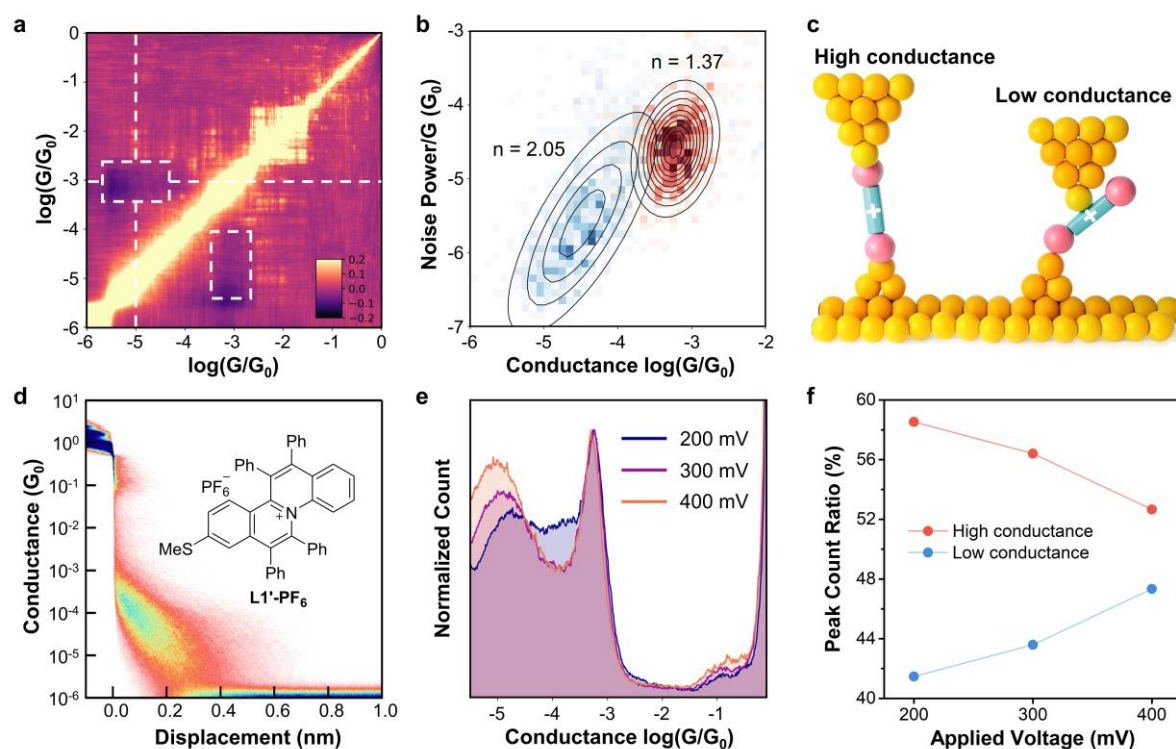


Fig 3 | Voltage-regulated dual charge transport pathways in ladder molecules. (a) 2D correlation analysis of the single-molecule conductance traces for $L2-PF_6$ revealing anti-correlated high and low conductance peaks. (b) Flicker noise analysis of molecular sub-populations corresponding to the high and low conductance features for $L2-PF_6$, which suggests through-bond and through-space conductance pathways for the high and low conductance features (scaling exponents of $n \approx 1.37$ and $n \approx 2.05$, respectively). (c) Schematic illustration of the junction conformations for ladder molecules, resulting in high and low conductance charge transport pathways. (d) 2D conductance histogram for control molecule $L1'-PF_6$ containing only one terminal $-SMe$ anchor. (e) 1D conductance histogram for $L2-PF_6$ with different bias voltages applied between the gold tip and the substrate. The counts were normalized using high conductance counts as the reference (f) Ratio of molecular

conductance peak probability for high and low conductance states in **L2-PF₆**, as a function of applied bias.

Our multicomponent synthetic approach enables facile elucidation of the role of molecular substitutions, side groups, and counterions on molecular charge transport. Ladders bearing aromatic (C₆H₅, *p*-OMeC₆H₄) or aliphatic (*n*Pr) groups exhibited similar average end-to-end conductance values corresponding to the high conductance feature (Fig. 2b and Supplementary Fig. 62). Interestingly, the high conductance feature remained nearly constant for **L2** regardless of the complexing anion (F⁻, Cl⁻, BF₄⁻, PF₆⁻; Supplementary Figs. 63 and 65). However, prior work reported that molecular charge transport in viologen-based molecules is highly dependent on the chemical identity of the counterions⁴³. DFT simulations showed that differences in conductance for viologen molecules were driven by changes in the torsion angles of the molecular backbone, which sensitively depend on counter anion identity⁴³. Our results suggest that a shape-persistent structure minimizes the rotational degrees of freedom of the molecular backbone, and hence the junction conductance is independent of counterion identity.

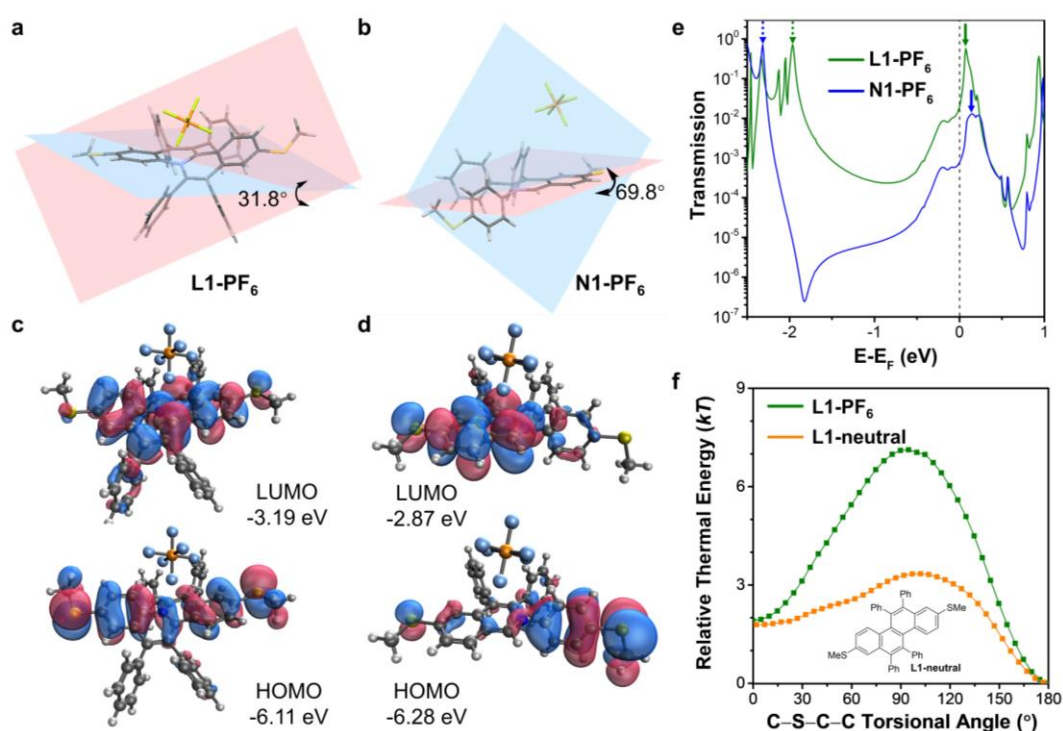


Fig 4 | Comparative analysis of structural and electronic properties. Single-crystal structure of (a) **L1-PF₆** and (b) **N1-PF₆** determined by single-crystal X-ray diffraction. Molecular orbitals of (c) **L1-PF₆** and (d) **N1-PF₆** determined using DFT with B3LYP/6-

311+G(d,p). (e) Transmission calculations for **L1-PF₆** and **N1-PF₆** from NEGF-DFT simulations. (f) Energy as a function of C–S–C–C torsional angle for **L1-PF₆** and its neutral analog **L1-neutral**.

Structure and electronic properties

We further aimed to understand the physical and chemical origins of the conductance behavior of ladder-type molecules. We first determined the single-crystal structures of **L1-PF₆** and **N1-PF₆** (Figs. 4a–b) by X-ray diffraction. The molecular backbone of non-ladder molecule **N1-PF₆** showed a large dihedral angle of 69.8° between phenyl and isoquinolinium moieties due to its non-ladder structure. Conversely, **L1-PF₆** with shape-persistent ladder backbone exhibited a significantly smaller dihedral angle of 31.8°. DFT calculations revealed that in **L1-PF₆**, both the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) and the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) span the entire molecule. This electronic configuration creates a seamless, unhindered pathway for electron transport while simultaneously constraining the backbone flexibility (Fig. 4c). On the other hand, the HOMO and LUMO of the **N1-PF₆** were localized on opposite ends of the rotatable C–N bond (Fig. 4d). These apparent differences in the electronic and structural properties results in drastic differences in the single-molecule electronic properties for these two types of molecules.

We next performed transmission function calculations for ladder and non-ladder molecules using the non-equilibrium Green's function method by employing the TranSiesta and Tbttrans package⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶ (Methods). As shown in Fig. 4e, zero-bias transmission probabilities are plotted as a function of energy relative to the Fermi energy E_F , where HOMO and LUMO resonance transport peaks are denoted by dashed and solid arrows. For both **L1-PF₆** and **N1-PF₆**, the LUMO transmission peaks are located close to the Fermi energy level, which is consistent with a LUMO-dominated charge transport mechanism. This phenomenon was attributed to the highly electron-deficient nature of the positively charged backbones in both molecules. This electron deficiency was evidenced by cyclic voltammogram reduction events at -1.1 V and -1.5 V for **L1-PF₆** and **N1-PF₆**, respectively, using ferrocene as a reference (Supplementary Figs. 70–71). The transmission function probability at E_F for **L1-PF₆** is an order of magnitude larger compared to **N1-PF₆**, which is qualitatively consistent with the experimental data.

EPR (Supplementary Figs. 72–75) and SQUID (Supplementary Fig. 76) measurements provided additional evidence for electron delocalization in ladder molecules, which arises due to their locked molecular architecture. Electron delocalization is likely a key contributor to the observed high conductance values and minimal conductance decay as the molecule length increases. Moreover, in contrast to **L1-PF₆**, **N1-PF₆** shows a pronounced anti-resonance dip (Fig. 4e) that is consistent with destructive quantum interference, resulting in a diminished electron transmission probability and consequently leading to the suppression of molecular conductance^{28,47}.

To our knowledge, prior work^{15,48} on ladder-type molecules with rigid backbones and –SMe anchors has not reported the well-defined conductance features observed here. Rigid molecular backbones generally show minimized structural variations compared to flexible molecular backbones. However, the ladder-type molecules studied here contain terminal anchor –SMe groups, which retain rotational degrees of freedom. We hypothesize that a donor-acceptor (D–A) interaction between electron-deficient backbones and electron-rich –SMe anchors constrains anchor rotation by favoring specific angles⁴⁹, thus reducing variability in junction conductance. To test this hypothesis, we performed DFT calculations on a hypothetical neutral analog molecule **L1-neutral** complemented by a dihedral angle sweep. The energy barrier for bond rotation in **L1-neutral** is approximately 3 *kT*, but the barrier increases substantially to >7 *kT* for **L1-PF₆**. We further investigated the frontier orbitals corresponding to the dihedral angles at the highest and the lowest energies. In the case of **L1-PF₆** (Supplementary Figs. 77), as the bond undergoes rotation from the lowest to the highest energy structure, a notable decrease in HOMO orbital overlap was observed between the –SMe anchor and the backbone. This observation implies that the anchor group engages in electron delocalization only at specific dihedral angles, subsequently restricting the rotational degrees of freedom. In contrast, **L1-neutral** (Supplementary Figs. 78) without D–A interaction exhibited a consistent frontier orbital structure, irrespective of the dihedral angle, suggesting a more uniform electron distribution behavior. The constrained bond angle rotation in **L1-PF₆** minimizes junction structural variability, thereby refining the conductance distribution and yielding the distinctive sharp features observed in our 2D conductance histogram. These findings highlight an intriguing aspect of single-molecule junction design related to the degree of anchor rotation in addition to backbone rigidity.

Conclusions

Our work presents a new molecular design strategy for molecular electronics that provides promising new avenues for overcoming challenges associated with fabrication of nanoscale devices with precise gap dimensions. Using a unique one-pot multicomponent synthesis strategy, we created a diverse range of positively charged ladder molecules from readily available starting materials. Our results show that charged ladder molecules exhibit exceptional shape-persistent conductance behavior in molecular junctions, regardless of pendant substituent groups, counter anions, or junction displacement. This conductance behavior arises from both the rigidity of the ladder backbone and the constrained rotation of the anchor in charged systems. Furthermore, the ladder structure promotes electron delocalization, enhancing conductance up to extremely high levels ($\sim 10^{1.6} G_0$) compared to non-ladder counterparts. Interestingly, we further show that the probability of different binding sites can be controlled by varying the applied bias, which demonstrates control over dual charge transport pathways as a function of applied voltage. Overall, the innovative synthetic strategies and molecular design principles presented in this work highlight the role of charged ladder-type molecules as promising candidates for next-generation materials in the quest for miniaturization in electronic devices.

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Methods

Synthesis

All synthetic procedures were performed under an argon atmosphere, utilizing Schlenk techniques. The detailed procedure for the synthesis of both ladder and non-ladder molecules, along with the corresponding characterization data is presented in the Supplementary Information.

Conductance measurement and analysis

Single-molecule conductance measurements

Single-molecule conductance was measured using the STM-BJ technique²⁷. Experiments were using a custom-built STM-BJ setup, as previously reported¹⁵. Gold substrates were prepared by evaporating 100 nm of gold onto polished Ted Pella AFM specimen disks with an e-beam evaporator. STM tips were prepared with 0.25 mm Au wire (99.998%, Alfa Aesar). Measurements were performed in a propylene carbonate solution at room temperature (22 °C). STM tips were coated with Apiezo wax to minimize the exposed area to polar solvents and to reduce the non-Faradaic current. Single-molecule conductance data were acquired at a sampling rate of 40 kHz. During experiments, the STM tip is controlled by a piezoelectric micro-positioner to repeatedly form and break molecular junctions, and the current was recorded and analyzed during this process. A variable-gain low noise current amplifier (DLPCA-200 from Artisan Technology Group) was used to accurately convert current to voltage for data processing. Data were obtained across molecular ensembles of at least 5,000 molecules and collected and analyzed without data selection. 2D conductance histograms were determined by aligning single-molecule conductance traces relative to the junction formation point (denoted as 0 nm displacement). 2D conductance histograms were fit with linear regression trend lines to better visualize and demonstrate conductance evolutions during the pulling process of STM-BJ experiments. To perform the linear regression fitting, the 2D conductance histograms were first transformed into 50 distinct 1D conductance histograms at equally spaced intervals of junction displacement, such that each of the 1D conductance histograms correspond to the conductance distribution at a particular junction displacement. The peak values were then determined for the 1D conductance distributions, and the peak values were used as data points for linear regression analysis from which the line fitting can be constructed.

K-mean++ clustering algorithm

We applied the K-mean++ clustering algorithm to separate individual traces into distinct populations⁴¹. Each trace was segmented into a 30-by-30 bin 2D histogram and a 100-bin 1D histogram. The resulting data, encompassing both conductance and displacement information, was then binned into these histograms. The 30-by-30 2D histogram was reshaped into vector containing 900 elements. Upon adding the 100 elements from the 1D histogram, a 1000-element feature vector was generated, encapsulating displacement and conductance data. K-mean++ clustering algorithm was then performed on these feature vectors to effectively distinguish between the high and low conductance features.

Flicker noise analysis

Flicker noise analysis was performed to distinguish between intramolecular and intermolecular charge transport modes. To perform this analysis, the conductance fluctuations were experimentally determined while holding molecular junctions at a fixed tip-to-substrate separation for 100 ms. The transient conductance response is then analyzed using discrete Fourier transform to obtain the noise power spectral density (PSD). Flicker noise power is determined by numerically integrating the PSD between frequencies of 100 Hz to 1000 Hz. 2D flicker noise histograms are then determined based on the flicker noise power and their corresponding average conductance. The relationship between the noise power and the average conductance can be described based on a scaling factor n . By fitting the 2D flicker noise histogram with 2D Gaussian, the scaling factor n is determined when the correlation between the noise power/ G^n and the average conductance is minimized. A scaling factor of $n \approx 1$ indicates through-bond conductance, whereas a scaling factor of $n \approx 2$ indicates through-space conductance. Because our experiments on ladder type molecules revealed two clear populations, we first utilized the K-means++ clustering algorithm to classify the data into two distinct sub-populations. Flicker noise analysis was then performed independently for each cluster⁴⁰.

DFT Methods

Electronic structure calculations

All electronic structure calculations were performed using the Gaussian 16 software⁵⁰, employing the unrestricted form of the B3LYP⁵¹⁻⁵⁵ functional combined with the 6-311+G(d,p) basis set⁵⁶. Dispersion corrections were included via Grimme's empirical GD3 model⁵⁷. To account for solvation effects, an implicit conductor-like polarizable continuum model was used with acetonitrile as the solvent model⁵⁸. Molecular geometry optimization was performed, and the nature of the stationary point on the potential energy surface was confirmed by the absence of imaginary frequencies⁵⁹. To address counter ion effects, calculations were performed in the presence of explicit PF₆⁻ ions. The quantity of PF₆⁻ ions included in each calculation was dependent on the charge of the molecule under study. Specifically, PF₆⁻ ions were added until the overall charge of the system was neutral, effectively mimicking the influence of counter ions. Molecular Orbitals were generated with a contour value of 0.04 au.

Analysis of dihedral angles

To explore the rigidity of the molecules, the dihedral angle variation of a C-S-C-C fragment was systematically investigated in both **L1-PF₆** and **L1-neutral**. A constrained optimization was carried out using the `opt=modredundant` keyword in Gaussian, which allow for the geometry of the molecule to be optimized at each step while fixing the C-S-C-C dihedral angle at a specific value. The dihedral angle was varied in 36 steps, each of 5 degrees, resulting in a complete 180-degree rotation. For each step, the geometry of the molecule was optimized with the specified dihedral angle fixed at the current value in the scan, thus generating an energy profile associated with the rotation about the C-S-C-C dihedral angle.

NEGF-DFT calculations

The NEGF-DFT calculations are performed with a DFT based non-equilibrium Green's function (NEGF) approach using the TranSiesta and Tbtans package⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶. The electrodes contain 8 layers of 16 gold atoms. The sulfur atoms in the ladder molecules were made to interact with the gold atoms using a trimer binding motif, as described in literature⁶⁰. Prior to transport calculations, geometry relaxation of the molecules was carried out using generalized gradient approximation-Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (GGA-PBE) functional⁶¹. The SZP basis sets were used for all the gold atoms. DZP basis sets were used for carbon, hydrogen, sulfur, and nitrogen, phosphorous and fluorine. Electrode calculations were carried out with a $4 \times 4 \times 50$ k-mesh. The geometry relaxation was carried out using a $4 \times 4 \times 1$ k-mesh, which was performed until all the forces were $< 0.05 \text{ eV \AA}^{-1}$. After the junction was relaxed, the transport calculations were carried out using the TranSiesta package with the same functionals, basis sets, pseudopotential, and k-mesh as the geometry relaxation. Tbtans was used to carry out the NEGF calculations and to obtain electron transmission as a function of energy (relative to the fermi energy level). NEGF calculations were carried out from -3 eV to 3 eV with 0.01 eV energy increments.

Supplementary information

Materials and instruments information; synthetic procedure and characterization data; Supplementary Figs. 1–78, and Supplementary Tables 1–8.

Accession codes

CCDC 2294843, 2294844, and 2294846 contain the supplementary crystallographic data for this paper. These data can be obtained free of charge via www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif, or by emailing data_request@ccdc.cam.ac.uk, or by contacting The Cambridge

Crystallographic Data Centre, 12 Union Road, Cambridge CB2 1EZ, UK; fax: +44 1223 336033.

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Author contributions

X.L. and H.Y. conceived the idea, designed the experiments, and wrote the manuscript. C.M.S., J.S.M., and R.S.A. co-supervised the project and revised the manuscript. X.L. designed and synthesized the molecules, and conducted structural, optical, magnetic properties, and redox activity characterizations and analyses. H.Y. performed the break junction experiments and analyses. H.H. carried out electronic structure calculations. R.S. carried out transmission calculations. T.J.W. performed single crystal characterizations and analyses, and also provided technical guidance for EPR measurements. O.L., and Q.C. contributed constructive discussions. A.I.B.R. and J.R. provided technical guidance for the cyclic voltammetry measurements.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interest.