Directionality Reversal and Shift of Rotational Axis in a Hemithioindigo Macrocyclic Molecular Motor

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Abstract

Molecular motors are central driving units for nanomachinery and control of their directional motions is of fundamental importance for their functions. Light-driven variants use an easy to provide, easy to dose, and waste free fuel with high energy content, making them particularly interesting for applications. Typically, light-driven molecular motors work via rotations around dedicated chemical bonds where directionality of the rotation is dictated by the steric effects of asymmetry in close vicinity to the rotation axis. In this work we show how unidirectional rotation around a virtual axis can be realized by reprogramming a molecular motor. To this end, a classical light-driven motor is restricted by macrocyclization and its intrinsic directional rotation is transformed into a directional rotation of the macrocyclic chain in the opposite direction. Further, solvent polarity changes allow to toggle the function of this molecular machine between a directional motor and a nondirectional photoswitch. In this way a new concept for the design of molecular motors is delivered together with elaborate control over their motions and functions by simple solvent changes. The possibility of sensing the environmental polarity and correspondingly adjusting directionality of motions opens up a next level of control and responsiveness to light-driven nanoscopic motors.

Introduction

Artificial molecular machines are miniaturized versions of macroscopic machines and work by controlling dedicated motions within their molecular structures.¹⁻⁹ Such control needs to be achieved against the equilibrating force of the Brownian motion to allow operation out of equilibrium.^{10, 11} In this regard molecular motors stand out as one of the most important sub-types of molecular machines as they convert external energy input into directional motions, which are not canceling out over continuous operation.^{2, 5, 12-17} The first realization of a molecular motor was achieved in 1999 by Feringa, who used the light-driven double bond isomerization of an overcrowded stilbene as energy fueling mechanism.¹⁸ This achievement gave rise inter alia to the *Nobel* prize in chemistry in 2016.³ Since then, the development of molecular motors is growing ever steeply and today a large number of different variants with different working mechanisms, energy supplies, and types of motions are available. They include catenane based structures as first developed by Leigh, where rotation of one macrocyclic ring around another proceeds directionally (for selected examples see ¹⁹⁻²¹), chemically driven variants rotating around a single bond²² as pioneered again by Feringa,^{23, 24} surface bound structures rotating around an axis perpendicular to the surface and energized by electric current,^{25, 26} or just recently added electrically driven versions in solution.²⁷ Further examples include linear molecular motors such as walkers^{28, 29} and pumps,³⁰⁻ ³⁶ which use distinct mechanisms and fuels to achieve a directional linear motion. When it comes to fueling however, simple illumination is particularly attractive because energy can be supplied continuously and precisely dosed, no waste is accumulated during operation, and the energy content of photons is very high. To date, a number of light-driven rotary motor types has been introduced, most eminently overcrowded alkenes from the Feringa group,^{18, 37, 38} imine-based motors from Greb and Lehn,^{39, 40} and hemithioindigo (HTI)-based systems from our group.⁴¹⁻⁴⁸ More recent additions to light-driven molecular motors inherit biomimetic chromophores⁴⁹ or heterocyclic alkenes.^{50, 51} Currently, incorporation of light driven molecular motors into larger molecular setups is pursued in order to utilize the work that they can produce and to fulfill a specific task.⁵² In this context the active disentanglement of polymer strands,^{53, 54} transmission of motor rotation to remote entities,⁵⁵ active acceleration of remote passive rotary motions,⁵⁶ controlled motor motion restrictions,⁵⁷ or energy storage and subsequent triggered reverse motor rotation⁵⁸ represent important steps to realize the full potential of molecular motors for driving advanced nanomachinery. Furthermore, disentanglement by molecular motors can be used to shift coupled chemical equilibria in response to strain⁵⁹ and motor-powered active molecular threading allows to

repeatedly move a molecular string through a macrocycle – a process akin to macroscopic sewing or weaving.⁶⁰ The utility of macrocyclization was further employed by our group to evidence unidirectionality in ultra-fast molecular rotary motors in a photochemical way.⁶¹ In larger macrocyclic setups it even becomes possible to control multiple types of motions, such as 360° motor rotation, 180° biaryl rotations, and structural reconfigurations, within the same molecular machine with very high precision.⁶² However, in virtually all of these motor systems, a defined chemical bond (double or single bond) represents the actual rotational axis. Light-driven molecular motors possessing a different molecular axis remain an exception so far. In this context, *Haberhauer* introduced a multi-stimuli molecular motor based on an azobenzene photoswitch connected to a chiral bipyridine clamp.⁶³ The seminal photon-only molecular motor from our group can be regarded as another example for providing a directional rotation around a virtual axis.⁴⁴

In this work we present a different concept to establish directional light-driven motor rotations around a virtual axis. To this end we reprogram the directional rotations of a "classical" HTImolecular motor⁴¹ by aid of a constricting macrocycle (Figure 1). In this minimal macrocyclic system, the inherent 360° unidirectional rotation around the double bond axis of the motor is restricted to only 180° within one molecular half-space. However, E/Z and Z/E photoisomerization reactions are thermally ratcheted by intervening atropisomerization reactions, which break symmetry and thus give rise to a resulting unidirectional motion of the macrocyclic linker chain around a virtual axis. As a result, the rotation direction of this macrocyclic motor is not only shifted by about 60° but the rotation direction itself is reversed with respect to the intrinsic rotation direction of the double bond axis. With this concept it is shown how directional molecular rotations can be realized in a completely different way by transforming and restricting the inherent directional motion of a light-driven motor. Further, the resulting four-step motor shows a strong dependence of state stabilities on solvent polarity. Because of this dependence, simple solvent changes transform the molecular motor into a molecular photoswitch and vice versa, giving rise to another level of outside control over the function of this machine. In principle this property can be used deliberately to sense the polarity of the environment in which the machine is working and respond to that environment with a specific function (motor versus switch motions).



Figure 1

Shift of rotational axis and reversal of molecular motor directionality by macrocyclization. a) Clockwise (cw) rotation of the classical HTI motor. Macrocyclization and introduction of a biaryl unit in ortho-position at the thioindigo fragment leads to counterclockwise (ccw) rotation around a virtual rotational axis. b) Rotational cycle of macrocyclic molecular motor 1. Alternating double bond photoisomerization and thermal atropisomerization processes furnish a ccw rotation of the PEG-linker chain around a virtual rotational axis. By changing the solvent polarity, the motor can be transformed into a molecular photoswitch.

Results and Discussion

Macrocyclic system 1 was synthesized using an approach similar to a previously published procedure for macrocyclic motors (Figure 2a).⁵⁶ However, different to earlier macrocyclic motors from our group, motor 1 incorporates the asymmetric biaryl moiety in *ortho*-position to the sulfur atom, which gives rise to a 90° angle of the biaryl axis with respect to the photoisomerizable double bond. Introduction of the bromide at this position in the precursor HTI was achieved by an unexpected halogen migration from *para-* to *ortho*-position during the intramolecular *Friedel-Crafts* acylation of precursor 2. The resulting benzothiophenone 3 was condensed with indanone 4 to form the corresponding brominated HTI 5. After attachment of a short polyethylene glycol (PEG) chain 6 *via* an azide-alkyne *Huisgen* click-reaction to yield 7, an intramolecular *Suzuki* cross-coupling leads to the macrocyclized HTI 8. Final oxidation of the sulfur to the corresponding sulfoxide 1 introduces the chiral information necessary for unidirectional motor rotation. With oxidation of the sulfur, two molecular half-spaces are established relative to the position of the

sulfoxide oxygen with respect to the plane of the thioindigo fragment. We arbitrarily termed the half space containing the sulfoxide oxygen as top half-space and the opposite as bottom half-space (Figure 2b). For detailed synthetic information see the Supporting Information chapter 2.





Taking together all stereo-elements present in 1, eight diastereomers are possible for one configuration of the sulfoxide stereo-center (Figure 3a). For simplicity only (*S*)-configured sulfoxide structures are shown and discussed in the following. The isomers are termed A, B, C, and D with corresponding subscripts R and T referring to a relaxed or tense arrangement of the PEG-chain within the macrocycle. Six of the eight possible isomers were observed directly experimentally by different techniques. Single crystals suitable for X-ray structural analysis could be obtained for the four isomers A_{R-1} , B_{R-1} , C_{R-1} , and D_{R-1} (Figure 3b). Isomers C_{T-1} and D_{T-1} were obtained in solution experiments. Two isomers, A_{T-1} and B_{T-1} , were not observed to be populated because they would require an unfavorable helix conformation in conjunction with substantial strain in the short PEG-linker chain. Detailed information on the assignments of the

different isomers and their structural elucidation can be found below and in the Supporting Information.



Figure 3 a) Schematic representation of all possible diastereomeric isomers of motor system 1. Only the (S)-configured enantiomers are shown for clarity. The biaryl unit is colored in dark orange for (S_a) -configured atropisomers and in light orange for (R_a) -configurations. b) Crystal structures of racemic isomers A_{R-1} E-(S)-(P)- (S_a) , D_{R-1} E-(S)-(M)- (R_a) , B_{R-1} Z-(S)-(M)- (S_a) and C_{R-1} Z-(S)-(P)- (R_a) with 50% probability ellipsoids.

A comprehensive theoretical analysis was conducted for macrocyclic motor 1 on the ω B97xD/6-311++ G(d,p) IEPPCM (CH₂Cl₂ or CS₂) level of theory (Figure 4) in order to establish the energy landscape in the ground state, the different stabilities of isomeric states and their molecular structures, as well as the corresponding spectral signatures (see Supporting Information chapter 8 for details). As isomer A_R-1 was obtained from the synthesis as one main product and

then was found to convert irreversibly with light first into B_R-1 and ultimately into C-and D-type isomers, A_R-1 and B_R-1 were also included in the energy scheme shown in Figure 4. However, once C-and D-type isomers are populated, light induced photoisomerizations and thermal atropisomerization reactions only lead to conversions between isomers C_R-1 , C_T-1 , D_R-1 , and D_T-1 . In the following we therefore focus on the latter four isomers and their properties.

The calculated energy scheme for the C-and D-type isomers shows that three isomers C_{R-1} , C_{T-1} , and D_{R-1} represent the most stable structures with isomer C_{T-1} as the global minimum. C_{T-1} possesses Z-configuration of the photoisomerizable double bond, an energetically favorable (P)helicity, and a (S_a) -configured biaryl axis. This stereo-configuration forces the PEG-linker chain to be in a tensed state (T) as its attachment points at the rotor and the biaryl fragments are residing in opposite half-spaces with respect to the thioindigo-fragment plane (see also Figure 2b for definitions of molecular fragments and half-spaces). The C_R-1 isomer has the same stereoconfiguration except for the axial chirality of the biaryl, which is (R_a) -configured in this case. As a result, the PEG-linker chain is in the relaxed state (\mathbf{R}) in this isomer, which makes it in fact the expected global minimum. However, the calculated energy difference between C_R-1 and C_T-1 is only 2.2 kcal/mol, which lies within the typical error for DFT calculations. For this reason, it can be assumed that both isomers C_R-1 and C_T-1 are rather similar in energy and could both be populated. Furthermore, the exact energy differences are subject to change when including different solvent models in the calculations. If an apolar solvent model like CS₂ is included, isomer C_T -1 is stabilized versus C_R -1, while a polar solvent model increases the stability of C_R -1. This is exactly observed in the experiments where the energetic order of C_R-1 and C_T-1 can actually be completely inverted, which enables solvent induced reversible toggling between motor and photoswitch functions. The D_{R} -1 isomer possesses *E*-configuration of the double bond, a less favorable (M)-helicity, and a (R_a) -configured biaryl axis leading to a relaxed (**R**) PEG-chain. The D_T -1 isomer inherits $E(M)(S_a)$ configuration and thus a tense (T) PEG-chain. Again, a rather small energy difference of 1.8 kcal/mol is found theoretically between the more stable D_{R} -1 and the less stable D_{T} -1 isomer. The calculated order of stability is however fully supported by the experiments where a complete thermal conversion from D_T-1 to D_R-1 occurs regardless of solvent polarity changes.

When taking into account the calculated energies of the C-and D-type isomers, a four-step cycle of sequential interconversions can be established. Starting from the global minimum C_T -1 isomer, light irradiation induces Z to E photoisomerization to populate D_T -1 without changing axial

chirality of the biaryl. Isomer D_T -1 is highly metastable and releases tension of the PEG-linker chain in a thermal atropisomerization step leading to population of D_R -1. This step can be regarded as a thermal ratcheting step, effectively removing population from the C_T -1/ D_T -1 photoequilibrium. A second light irradiation induces *E* to *Z* photoisomerization of D_R -1 to populate C_R -1, again without changing axial chirality of the biaryl axis. A final thermal atropisomerization inverts the biaryl axial chirality yielding again the C_T -1 isomer. At this point it should be noted that if the energy order between C_R -1 and C_T -1 is inverted, the four-step cycle is halted and only back-and-forth photoswitching between C_R -1 and D_R -1 is taking place. The reason for this behavior is that these two isomers now represent the most stable *E* and *Z* isomeric forms of 1 and no thermal ratcheting steps are taking place to shift populations to another photoequilibrium.



Figure 4 Theoretical ground-state energy profile of macrocyclic molecular motor 1 calculated at the $\omega B97xd/6-311++G(d,p)$ IEFPCM(CH₂Cl₂ or CS₂) level of theory (black, blue and grey dashed) and corresponding experimental values (blue and grey solid). Schematic representations of the six populated states with different stereochemical configurations are shown. For detailed information and calculated structures see Supporting Information chapter 8. Despite six isomers being accessible, the actual motor rotational cycle of 1 starts from isomer C_{T} -1 which undergoes a sequence of light induced double bond isomerization and atropisomerization processes (blue box). Solvent induced inversion of C_{T} -1 and C_{R} -1 stability leads to toggling between four-step motor

function in apolar solvents like CS_2 and sole photoswitching between D_R-1 and C_R-1 (grey area)) in polar solvents like CH_2Cl_2 .

With aid of the theoretical description, experimental characterization and elucidation of the working mechanism of molecular machine 1 was undertaken next. The A_R-1 isomer and a mixture of C_T-1 and C_R-1 could be obtained separately from the synthesis. X-ray crystallographic analysis of A_R-1 directly revealed $E_{-}(S)_{-}(P)_{-}(S_{a})$ configuration of this isomer with the PEG-chain residing in the same half-space as the chiral sulfoxide oxygen atom (Figure 2b and 3b). Accordingly, solution NMR, UV/Vis, and electronic circular dichroism (ECD) spectra of A_{R-1} could unambiguously be assigned. The experimental spectra match very well with the theoretically predicted UV/Vis and ECD spectra lending further support for the assignment. Isomers C_R-1 and C_T-1 interconvert rapidly at ambient temperature prohibiting their separation by HPLC methods. They were therefore analyzed as mixtures in solution. However, we found that it is possible to strongly enrich each isomer C_{R-1} or C_{T-1} by choosing either polar or apolar solvents, respectively (Figure 5d-e, Figure 6e). In polar CH_2Cl_2 solution C_{R-1} is enriched in up to 71% and crystals suitable for X-ray analysis unambiguously evidenced Z-(S)-(P)-(R_a) configuration of this isomer (Figure 3b and 5c). In apolar CS₂ solution the C-isomeric mixture is strongly enriched in the C_T-1 isomer in up to 76% (also see the Supporting Information chapter 4 for additional solvent screens). From that apolar solution co-crystals of C_{R-1} with B_{R-1} (with Z-(S)-(M)-(S_a) configuration) were formed instead of the expected C_{T-1} isomer as revealed by X-ray structural analysis (Figure 3b). However, the Z-(S)-(M)-(S_a) configuration of **B_R-1** proved already that the second isomer enriched in apolar solution inherits the same double bond configuration and opposite axial chirality of the biaryl moiety as compared to C_{R-1} . These two structural features are indeed the ones expected for isomer C_T -1. Only the (*M*)-helicity found in the co-crystal was not matching the expected more stable (P)-helicity of C_T -1 leading to the presence of B_R -1 instead. This unexpected capture of the instable helix in the condensed phase is most likely the result of crystal packing effects in the cocrystal, which leads to a nearly perfect structural overlap between C_R-1 and B_R-1 in the solid state (see details of the co-crystal elucidation in the Supporting Information). Thermal helix inversion is a highly dynamic process and thus is not inhibited kinetically if the higher energy of the unfavorable helix can be compensated. Indeed, when spectroscopically analyzing the corresponding solution mixture it became evident that in solution the second isomer is in fact C_T-1 and not B_{R-1} because of the much more stable (P)-helicity of the former. To this end, NMR, UV/Vis, and especially ECD spectroscopy together with theoretical analysis allowed us to unambiguously identify the expected $Z_{-}(S)_{-}(P)_{-}(S_{a})$ configuration of C_{T} -1 for the isomer strongly enriched in apolar solvents (Figure 5). First, a clear identification of double bond and atropisomer configuration was achieved using Nuclear Overhauser effect (NOE) NMR spectroscopy (Figure 5f). Close proximity between the triazole proton 31 and the isolated biaryl proton 24 confirmed Zconfiguration of isomer C_R-1 and residing of the biaryl-oxygen atom within the same molecular half-space as the sulfoxide oxygen atom, i.e. (R_a) -configuration of the biaryl axis. Correspondingly, proximity of triazole proton 31 to the opposite facing biaryl protons 20 and 22 evidenced Zconfiguration of the double bond and (S_a) -configuration of the axially chiral biaryl within C_T-1. Second, ECD spectroscopy allowed to directly probe helicity of the scrutinized isomer, which is opposite for C_T-1 and B_R-1. The experimentally observed ECD spectra clearly show that helicity of the scrutinized isomer is the same as for C_R-1, which is manifest in the overall very similar ECD spectrum and Cotton-effect features (Figure 5d). Further, the corresponding calculated ECD spectra are in very close agreement with the experimental ones for both, C_T -1 and C_R -1. They are exact enough to distinguish these two isomers, which are only differing in their axial chirality of the biaryl moiety as manifested in the Cotton-effect features between 250 nm and 300 nm (Figure 5d). The inverted helicity of isomer B_{R-1} expectedly leads to opposite Cotton-effects especially in the visible region of the calculated ECD spectrum, which does not match at all with the experimentally observed spectrum of the isomer enriched in apolar solvents (Figure 5e). Thus, this isomer could unambiguously be assigned to the C_T -1 isomer by the comprehensive spectroscopy analysis.

Additionally, isomers D_T -1 and D_R -1 were obtained from irradiation experiments of the initial three isomers A_R -1, C_T -1, and C_R -1. Isomer D_R -1 could be separated by HPLC at ambient temperatures enabling X-ray crystallographic analysis (Figure 3b) in combination with solution NOE NMR experiments. These experiments directly revealed E-(S)-(M)-(R_a) conformation of the D_R -1 isomer. D_T -1 was only observed at low temperatures (below –70 °C), however NOE NMR spectroscopy established E-configuration of the central double bond and a (S_a)-isomeric biaryl unit, which allowed an unambiguous assignment of this structure as well (see Supporting Information chapter 3.2.4 for the detailed analysis).





Isomers A_{R} -1, C_{T} -1 and C_{R} -1 as well as D_{R} -1 could be used directly as starting points for thermal and photoirradiation experiments to decipher the function and working mechanism of 1. Heating a solution of A_{R} -1 to 120 °C in (CDCl₂)₂ led to population of C_{T} -1 and C_{R} -1 until an equilibrium distribution with 12% A_{R} -1, 19% C_{T} -1, and 69% C_{R} -1 was established. This distribution could directly be translated into the relative free energy differences of the three isomers. Thus, the global minimum in this solvent was found to be C_{R} -1, followed by C_{T} -1 (1.0 kcal·mol⁻¹ higher in energy), and then A_{R} -1 (1.3 kcal·mol⁻¹ higher in energy). Analysis of the corresponding kinetic measurements using *COPASI*⁶⁴ revealed the *Gibbs* energies of activation, i.e. $\Delta G^{\neq} = 29.09$ kcal·mol⁻¹ for A_{R} -1 to C_{T} -1 isomerization at 120 °C and $\Delta G^{\neq} = 17.56$ kcal·mol⁻¹ for the C_{T} -1 to C_{R} -1 conversion at the same temperature. Heating D_{R} -1 did not result in any population of A_{R} -1. Instead, thermal conversion of D_{R} -1 to C_{R} -1 with a corresponding $\Delta G^{\neq} = 22.58$ kcal·mol⁻¹ and subsequent C_{R} -1 and C_{T} -1 equilibration is observed at 40 °C in (CDCl₂)₂. These findings excluded thermally induced helix inversion and atropisomerization of the biaryl moiety in D_{R} -1, which would be accompanied by the ethylene glycol chain moving from one half-space of the thioindigo fragment plane to the other. Therefore, no 360° rotation around the central double bond is possible in machine 1 via thermally activated processes.

At ambient temperatures irradiation of E-isomeric A_{R-1} with 470 nm light leads to a photostationary state (pss) with the isomer composition 17% C_T-1, 44% C_R-1, and 39% D_R-1. No residual isomer A_R-1 remains and A_R-1 also cannot be repopulated at any other wavelength of irradiation tested (see the Supporting Information chapter 6.1 for details). This experiment shows directly that A_R-1 only serves as entry point for reaching the actual working mechanism of this molecular machine. Cooling A_R-1 to -90 °C in CD₂Cl₂ solution and subsequent in situ irradiation in the NMR spectrometer revealed a more detailed picture. At the lower temperature, photoinduced interconversion of A_{R-1} to Z-configured C_{T-1} is observed, which possesses the same (S_a) axial chirality. As is the case for related HTI-motors, the direct photoproduct of A_{R-1} , i.e. B_{R-1} , remained elusive in solution and was not observed even at -108 °C because of its very fast thermal helix inversion (THI) immediately forming C_T-1. After accumulation of C_T-1 and switching off the light, warming the mixture to -70 °C induced thermal atropisomerization of the biaryl moiety in C_T-1 and population of only isomer C_R-1 . A Gibbs free energy of activation of $\Delta G^{\neq} = 15.54 \text{ kcal·mol}^{-1}$ was measured for this process (see the Supporting Information chapter 6.2.3). If instead, irradiation was continued at -90 °C two more intermediate states, i.e. **D**_T-1 and D_{R-1} , were observed to be populated in sequence. In order to disentangle the multiple isomer interconversions additional experiments were conducted at -108 °C in a 1:3 mixture of $CD_2Cl_2:CS_2$. At this low temperature irradiation of E-isomeric A_R-1 first populated Z-isomeric C_T-1 (via elusive B_{R-1}), which photoisomerized further to form exclusively *E*-isomeric D_{T-1} (Figure 6a). In this sequence of isomer interconversions, the same (Sa)-configuration of the biaryl axis is

retained. Isomer **D**_T-**1** was then scrutinized for its thermally induced motions in CD₂Cl₂ solution at -90 °C, which revealed exclusive and complete thermal atropisomerization populating only **D**_R-**1** (Figure 6b). Kinetic analysis of this process corresponded to an energy barrier of $\Delta G^{\neq} = 13.11$ kcal·mol⁻¹. When irradiating a solution of pure **D**_R-**1** at -90 °C in CD₂Cl₂ solution, only light induced photoisomerization to *Z*-isomeric **C**_R-**1** was observed establishing a photoequilibrium between just these two isomers (Figure 6c). Allowing the sample to warm to 25 °C resulted in thermal conversion of **C**_R-**1** to **C**_T-**1** in up to 22% (Figure 6d) via a thermally activated atropisomerization of the biaryl moiety. Although **C**_R-**1** is still the dominant isomer in the final mixture in polar CD₂Cl₂ solution, this last transformation directly evidences completion of a four-step interconversion cycle. When moving to an apolar solvent like CS₂ the relative stability of **C**_R-**1** to **C**_T-**1** is inverted and **C**_T-**1** becomes the dominant isomer in up to 73% (Figure 6e). In this case the last thermal atropisomerization step also becomes dominant and so does the entire four-step cycle.

Taken together, this behavior establishes a continuous four-step cycle of isomer interconversions under continued illumination in apolar solvents. The cycle proceeds via an initial double bond photoisomerization from C_T -1 to D_T -1 followed by a thermal atropisomerization ratcheting step from D_T -1 to D_R -1, photoisomerization from D_R -1 to C_R -1, and a final thermal atropisomerization from C_R -1 to C_T -1. It needs to be emphasized here that the two thermal atropisomerization steps are proceeding with significantly different efficiencies. While D_T -1 to D_R -1 conversion is quantitative, the conversion from C_R -1 to C_T -1 strongly depends on the relative energies of these two states, which can be switched upside down by choice of the solvent (Figure 6e). Therefore, a proficient four-step cycle is present in apolar solvents such as CS_2 , whereas in polar solvents like CD_2Cl_2 the dominating process is simple photoswitching between C_R -1 and D_R -1. A related toggling between switch and motor function reported earlier required much more drastic chemical changes, i.e. acid base additions to a dedicated basic site of the motor.⁶⁵

Isomer A_{R} -1 was not found to be populated under any illumination conditions, which also excludes a light-induced 360° rotation around the central double bond in machine 1 (see the Supporting Information chapter 6.1).



Figure 6 Experimental elucidation of the isomer interconversions of macrocycle 1. a) ¹H NMR spectra (CD₂Cl₂:CS₂ = 1:3, 400 MHz, -108 °C) recorded while irradiating initially pure isomer A_R-1 with 470 nm light, which leads to population of Cr-1 and subsequent accumulation of Dr-1. b) ¹H NMR spectra (CD₂Cl₂, 400 MHz, -90 °C) following the thermal decay of Dr-1 to D_R-1 in the dark until complete disappearance of Dr-1 signals after 60 min. c) ¹H NMR spectra (CD₂Cl₂, 400 MHz, -90 °C) recorded during irradiation of isomer D_R-1 with 470 nm light, which leads to photoequilibrium of 43% D_R-1 and 57% C_R-1 is established after 90 min. d) ¹H VT-NMR spectra (CD₂Cl₂, 400 MHz, showing the thermal C_R-1 to C_T-1 atropisomerization in the dark upon warming from -90 °C (top) to 25 °C (bottom). e) ¹H NMR spectra (different CD₂Cl₂: CS₂ ratios, 400 MHz, 23 °C) recorded after addition of C_R-1 in pure CD₂Cl₂. Last spectrum: Mixture of 76% C_T-1 and 24% C_R-1 in pure CS₂.

When considering the four-step isomer interconversion under illumination in apolar solvents and the associated structural changes, a distinct type of rotary molecular motor behavior is established for 1 (Figure 7). However, in this molecular motor directional circular rotation is not proceeding around a specific covalent bond axis. Instead, the PEG-linker chain moves directionally around a shifted virtual axis. To visualize this directional movement, we chose a single marker point on the PEG-chain that can be followed in its position with respect to the fixed thioindigo fragment during operation of motor 1. In the initial C_T-1 state, the ethylene glycol chain connecting the indanone rotor to the biaryl unit, reaches from one half-space of the thioindigo plane to the other, thus adopting a S-shape conformation. This positions the chosen marker point on the PEG-linker at the upper right area (position 1) for the chosen perspective in Figure 7. Visible light induced photoisomerization to **D**_T-1 is accompanied by severe stretching of the S-shaped PEG-linker, which is also evident from the theoretically obtained geometry. Now the marker point on the PEG-linker resides in the upper left position (position 2 in Figure 7). Upon thermal atropisomerization from D_T -1 to D_R -1 the attachment points of the PEG-linker chain reside in the same half-space of the thioindigo plane leading to a relaxed structure. Consequently, the marker point on the linker now resides in the lower left position (position 3 in Figure 7). This atropisomerization represents a thermal ratcheting step enabling the motor to continue directional rotation by entering a second separate photoequilibrium. Isomer D_{R-1} thus photoisomerizes into C_{R-1} , which compresses the PEG-linker chain and shifts the marker point in the lower right position (position 4 in Figure 7). Another thermal ratcheting step atropisomerizes the biaryl axis and repopulates the initial C_T-1 state. When following the marked point on the PEG-linker chain during one full operational cycle a unidirectional circular rotation trajectory is established proceeding around a virtual axis with respect to the molecule. Although a molecular motor is used with intrinsic directionality for 360° rotation around its double bond axis, this motion is inhibited within the small macrocycle structure. Instead, only 180° of the double bond rotation is accessible, which proceeds exclusively within the bottom half-space of the thioindigo plane (see also Figure 2b for depiction of the half-space assignments). Because this back-and-forth rotation is coupled to thermal atropisomerizations in 1, symmetry is broken for the motions and directional 360° rotation is established around a new and shifted virtual axis. When comparing the two rotations in the separated HTI-motor component (directional double bond rotation) and corresponding macrocyclic 1 (directional rotation around virtual axis) a reversal of directionality is also observed. While the HTI-motor intrinsically rotates clockwise for the perspective chosen in Figures 1 and 7 macrocyclic motor 1 now rotates counterclockwise instead. The macrocyclization approach therefore enables a precise reprogramming of a molecular motors directional motions without resorting to changing the

identity of the embedded motor structure itself.⁶⁶ We believe that such approach will be of high interest when considering both, design as well as applications of molecular motors in the future.

The second important feature of macrocycle **1** is the possibility for altering its function by simple solvent changes. While in apolar solvents the four-step motor rotation proceeds with up to 79% efficiency, simple two-state photoswitching occurs in polar solvents instead without inherent directionality.



Figure 7 Unidirectional motor rotation of macrocycle **1**. a) Schematic illustration of the four-step rotational cycle of motor system **1**. Alternating light-triggered photoisomerizations and thermally induced atropisomerizations lead to stretching and compressing of the PEG-linker chain. Observation of a fixed point on the chain allows to follow unidirectional rotation around a virtual rotational axis (red). Atropisomers with (R_a)-configured biaryl and relaxed linker are depicted in light orange, (S_a)-configuration and tensed conformation of the linker is indicated in dark orange. b) Schematic depiction of the unidirectional movement of one specific point on the ethylene glycol linker with position 1 representing the conformation of the chain in **C**_T-**1**. The molecular structure of **C**_R-**1** representing position 4 is shown in full detail exemplarily (grey box).

In conclusion, we present a concept for reprogramming light driven molecular motors to shift and reverse their intrinsic unidirectional rotations. Using a deliberate macrocyclization strategy opposite directional rotation is established around a virtual axis with respect to the intrinsic directionality of the motor component. Further, simple solvent changes allow to toggle the function of this molecular machine between a four-step molecular motor and a two-step molecular photoswitch reversibly. This sensitivity to the environmental polarity enables a second level of control over molecular machine functions. It can be used to deliberately sense a particular environment, adjust the machines motions accordingly, and allosterically change its behavior. With these results an entry-point for multi-purpose molecular machines and their in-situ programming has been established, which opens up exciting possibilities especially with regard to applications of the same machine for different and even opposing tasks.

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