Diagnostic Organometallic and Metallodendritic Materials for SO₂ Gas Detection: Reversible Binding of Sulfur Dioxide to Arylplatinum(II) Complexes

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Abstract: A series of square-planar platinum(II) complexes of the N,C,N'terdentate-coordinating monoanionic "pincer" ligand, [PtX(4-E-2,6- $\{CH_2NRR'\}_2-C_6H_2\}$ (X = Cl, Br, I, tolyl; R, R' = Et, Me; E = H, OH, OSiMe₂tBu) has been prepared. In the presence of sulfur dioxide, these complexes spontaneously adsorb this gas to form pentacoordinated adducts. Solid-state crystalstructure analyses of the SO₂ adducts 8c $(X = I, R = R' = Me, E = OSiMe_2tBu)$ and **11** (X = Cl, R = R' = Me, E = OH) show a square-pyramidal geometry around the metal center with SO₂ in the apical position. Most interestingly, the adduct 11 forms similar Pt-Cl... H–O hydrogen-bonded α -type networks as the corresponding SO₂-free complex 5. The conservation of the supramolecular information (hydrogen-bonded selfassembly) throughout a reaction (SO₂ adsorption) is unprecedented in crystal engineering. Adduct formation in the solid state or in solution is fast and reversible and is indicated by a characteristic color change of the material from colorless to bright orange. Since facile methods have been developed to remove SO₂ from the adducts and to regenerate the square-planar starting complexes, these complexes fulfill several essential prerequisites of sensor materials for repeated diagnostic SO₂ detection. The platinum sensors have

Keywords: ligand design • metallodendrimers • platinum • sensors • sulfur dioxide been found to be highly selective for sulfur dioxide and particularly sensitive for submilimolar to molar gas quantities. Their response capacity is tuneable by electronic and steric modifications of the ligand array by introduction of, for example, different substituents on the nitrogen donors. The periphery of dendrimers is shown to be an appropriate macromolecular support for anchoring the detection-active sites, thus allowing full recovery of the sensor materials for repeated use. By using this concept, metallo-dendrimers 3 and 15 have been prepared. Owing to the dendritic connectivity, these sensors are suitable for repetitive qualitative and quantitative detection of small amounts of SO₂.

Introduction

A major environmental concern is the emission of sulfur-containing compounds during, for example, the combustion of fossil

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Supporting information for this article is available on the WWW under http://www.wiley-vch.de/home/chemistry/ fuels, the extraction of sulfide ores, or from natural sources (e.g., volcanoes or oceanic phytoplankton).^[1] In particular, sulfur dioxide (SO₂) is thought to contribute significantly to the production of smog and/or acid rain.^[2] In the presence of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) or (sun-) light and ozone, SO₂ rapidly oxidizes to SO₃, which spontaneously reacts with water to form sulfuric acid. Therefore, the detection (with a suitable sensor^[3]), concentration and subsequent removal of even minute levels of SO₂ is evidently desirable.^[4]

Since the synthesis of the first transition metal complexes of sulfur dioxide,^[5] SO₂ has been shown to be a versatile ligand in inorganic and organometallic chemistry, as it can act as both a Lewis base or acid.^[6] Various binding modes of sulfur dioxide to a metal center have been realized, making this ligand a very useful probe of the electronic character of a metal center. The bonding principles of sulfur dioxide to transition metals has been subject of various investigations.^[7]

With transition metals of a formal d⁶ or d⁸ electronic configuration, the bonding of sulfur dioxide mainly originates

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from an interaction of the d_{z^2} orbital of the metal with the nonbonding 4_{a^1} orbital of SO₂. This overlap is constructive in the case of d⁶ metal centers and, consequently, transition-metal-SO₂ complexes have been found in which the metal-sulfur vector is coplanar with the sulfur dioxide molecule (planar binding mode).^[8] With d⁸ metal centers, however, this primary interaction is unfavorable, since both the metal d_{z^2} and the ligand 4_{a^1} orbitals are filled. The resulting repulsion becomes less important upon bending of the SO₂ molecule, and a new interaction involving both the HOMO and LUMO (2_{h^1}) of sulfur dioxide with either the filled metal d_{yz} or d_{yz} orbital is possible. This theory is supported by the isolation of SO₂ complexes with a number of d⁸ transition metals (Ni^{II}, Rh^I, Ir^I) that contain sulfur dioxide in a bent binding mode (i.e., the metal-sulfur vector crosses the plane formed by the sulfur dioxide molecule by an angle between 180° and 90°).^[9]

It has been previously shown that platinum complexes containing the terdentate-coordinating monoanionic [2,6-

Abstract in Dutch: De synthese wordt beschreven van een reeks vlak-vierkante platina(II)-complexen, die alle een monoanionisch drietandig-gecoördineerd tangligand bevatten, $[PtX(4-E-2,6-\{CH_2NRR'\}_2-C_6H_2)]$ (X = Cl, Br, I, tolyl; R, R' = Et, Me; E = H, OH, $OSiMe_2tBu$). Deze complexen reageren spontaan met zwaveldioxide onder vorming van adducten met een vijf-gecoördineerd platina-centrum. Uit kristalstructuuranalyse van twee van deze adducten, 8c (X= I, R = R' = Me, $E = OSiMe_2tBu$) en **11** (X = Cl, R = R' = Me, E = OH), blijkt dat SO_2 de top-positie van een vierkante pyramide bezet. Adduct 11 vormt waterstofbruggen door middel van Pt-Cl····H-O interacties; dit zelfde bindingspatroon wordt ook in het SO_2 -vrije complex 5 gevonden. Dit behoud van supramoleculaire informatie (self-assemblage door waterstofbruggen) voor en na een reactie is uniek en geeft interessante mogelijkheden voor het bewerken van kristallijn materiaal (crystal engineering). De selectieve binding van SO₂ aan de platina-complexen vindt zowel in oplossing als in de vaste toestand plaats en is snel en reversibel. Bij de adsorptie van SO₂ treedt een karakteristieke kleurverandering op van kleurloos naar oranje. Zelfs zeer lage concentraties SO_2 (tot millimolaire hoeveelheden) kunnen door detectie van deze kleurverandering specifiek worden aangetoond. Milde methoden voor de verwijdering van SO₂ en het regenereren van de platina-complexen zijn ontwikkeld. Hiermee wordt aan de belangrijkste eisen voor het gebruik van deze platina-complexen als efficiente sensormaterialen voor de detectie van SO₂ voldaan. De detectiegrens kan worden beïnvloed door het veranderen van de electronische en/of sterische eigenschappen van het tangligand (ligand tuning). Het gebruik van dendrimeren als dragermateriaal van deze SO₂ detectoren wordt beschreven. Aangezien metallodendritische macromoleculen gemakkelijk af te scheiden en terug te winnen zijn is herhaald gebruik van deze sensormaterialen voor zowel de kwalitatieve als kwantitatieve detectie van SO₂ mogelijk. Het principe van het gebruik van dendrimeren als efficiënte gas-sensoren wordt geïllustreerd met de synthese van de metallo-dendrimeren 3 en 15 en hun SO₂ adducten.

(CH₂NMe₂)₂-C₆H₃]⁻ (i.e., NCN) "pincer" ligand reversibly bind SO2 gas.^[10] Reversibility is generally not observed in transition-metal-SO₂ adducts,^[7e, 11] but is an inherent prerequisite for the design of carrier and sensor materials. Furthermore, a characteristic color change of the platinum complexes has been observed upon coordination to SO₂. These facts, namely reversibility and macroscopic change of the materials properties, suggest that these compounds may be useful as diagnostic materials for SO2 detection.^[12, 13] Modification of the coordination sphere of the metal center by tuning the ligand properties can be applied as a methodology to optimize the (optical) response of these materials to SO₂. Fine-tuning of the system predominantly occurs through change of the electrophilicity of the metal center either by the introduction of electron-withdrawing or -releasing para-substituents on the aryl ring or by changing the basicity of the nitrogen donor atoms. In addition, this latter method enables the adjustment of the steric bulk in close proximity to the metal center, thus strongly influencing the accessibility of this atom to coordination.^[14] On the other hand, fragments that have only a marginal effect on the binding sensitivity of the metal center to sulfur dioxide offer potential anchoring points for the attachment of the sensor to (in)organic supports. Platinum complexes containing a modified pincer ligand have been fixed onto dendritic molecules and these organometallic materials represent the first "dendrimer sensors" for toxic SO₂ gas.^[12, 15]

Herein, we report on the fundamental factors that influence the formation of sulfur dioxide adducts with platinum complexes containing the NCN "pincer" skeleton (Figure 1).^[16] Particularly intriguing is the response of the sensor capacity of these platinum complexes to various ligand



Figure 1. Potential sites for tuning the steric and electronic impact of the N,C,N terdentate-coordinating "pincer" ligand; this offers a suitable strategy to modify the physico-chemical properties of the metal center.

modifications (i.e., E, R, R' and X, see Figure 1). As a result of these studies, we present arylplatinum complexes with optimized affinity of the metal center towards sulfur dioxide. Appropriate immobilization of these diagnostic sites allows the development of the first metallo-dendrimers^[17] for application as fully reversible sensor materials for the selective and quantitative detection of low levels of SO₂ gas.

Results and Discussion

Synthesis: The new arylplatinum(II) complexes 2b and 2c were prepared following the synthetic protocol previously established for the corresponding analogues 1 (Scheme 1).^[18]

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 $\begin{array}{l} \label{eq:scheme 1. The synthesis of the arylplatinum(II) complexes $1-6$. i) n-BuLi, pentane; ii) [PtCl_2(SEt_2)_2], Et_2O; \\ iii) [AgSO_3CF_3], acetone; iv) NaX (X = Cl, a; Br, b; I, c), H_2O; v) Li-C_6H_4-Me-4, Et_2O; vi) Bu_4NF, CH_2Cl_2; vii) 1,3,5-(COCl)_3-C_6H_3, CH_2Cl_2; viii) Bu_4NF, THF/H_2O. \end{array}$

Halide abstraction in [PtCl(4-OSiMe2tBu-2,6-{CH2NMe2}2- C_6H_2] (2a, [PtCl(4-OSiMe₂tBu-Me,Me-NCN)]) with silver trifluoromethane sulfonate (AgSO₃CF₃) in wet acetone yields the cationic aqua-complex [Pt(4-OSiMe₂tBu-Me,Me-NCN)-(OH₂)][SO₃CF₃]. Nucleophilic substitution of the aqua ligand by a halide anion affords the corresponding neutral complexes $[PtX(4-OSiMe_2tBu-Me,Me-NCN)]$ **2b** and **2c** (X = Br or I,respectively) in high yields. An asymmetric Pt^{II} complex 4b, [PtCl(4-H-Et,Me-NCN)] was also prepared. The nitrogen centers in 4b are stereogenic provided that Pt-N coordination occurs. Lithiation of the diaminoaryl ligand precursor 1,3-(CH₂NEtMe)₂-C₆H₄ afforded the 2-lithio derivative,^[16b] which was subsequently transmetallated with $[PtCl_2(SEt_2)_2]$ to give 4b as a pale-yellow air-stable solid. This compound exists as a mixture of rac and meso forms (ratio 2:3). Attempts to separate the diastereomers by column chromatography or repeated recrystallization were not successful. Prolonged heating of a toluene solution of 4b (100 °C) does not change the meso:rac isomer distribution. This suggests either that racemization is prevented by a large kinetic barrier of the process involving reversible Pt-N bond dissociation or that the initially observed diastereomeric ratio represents the thermodynamic distribution.

The hexametallic arylester dendrimer **15** was prepared by using a convergent synthetic approach.^[19] Coupling of two equivalents of **5** (as the peripheral end group) with the oxoprotected bis(acyl chloride)phenol **13** (as AB₂ branching unit)^[21] yields—by double esterification—the dimetallated Pt₂ building block **14** (Scheme 2). Deprotection of the phenolic hydroxy functionality of the platinum dimer **14** and in situ esterification with the trifurcate core 1,3,5-benzenetricarboxylic acid chloride affords the hexaplatinated dendrimer 15 (first-generation dendrimer). This method is similar to the one applied for the preparation of the trimetallic complex 3 (zero-generation dendrimer).[22] Note that all difficulties associated with peripheryand functionalization endgroup determination of the dendritic materials have elegantly been encompassed by using a convergent approach starting from organometallic platinum(II) building blocks. The identity of both the organoplatinum dendron 14 and the dendrimer 15 was unambiguously confirmed by elemental analysis (14), mass spectrometry (FAB-MS for 14, MALDI-TOF for 15), and ¹H and ¹³C{¹H} NMR spectroscopy.

Adduct formation with sulfur dioxide: The exposure of the square-planar Pt^{II} complexes

1-6 to an atmosphere of SO₂ leads to the formation of the corresponding five-coordinate SO_2 adducts 7-12. Platinum(II) centers in square-planar complexes that contain the monoanionic pincer ligand demonstrate an enhanced nucleophilicity when compared with other d⁸ metal centers.^[23] Consequently, they react with Lewis acids (e.g., SO₂) to form adducts. These reactions occur if the NCN-Pt complexes are in the solid state or dissolved in an appropriate solvent. Product formation is instantaneous on the laboratory timescale and is accompanied by an immediate color change from colorless to bright orange. When stored in an atmosphere devoid of excess sulfur dioxide, all these adducts slowly loose SO2 with regeneration of the corresponding starting materials over a period of several weeks. Neither oxidation of the SO₂ ligand to sulfate nor insertion products have been found, except for complex 6 (vide infra). Changing back to an SO₂-rich environment leads again to quantitative adduct formation. These facts unambiguously demonstrate that the adsorption reaction is an equilibrium process between free and bound SO_2 complexes [Eq. (1)].

$$[PtX(NCN)] + n(SO_2) \rightleftharpoons [PtX(NCN)SO_2)_n]$$
(1)

This equilibrium is shifted towards the four-coordinate SO_2 free complexes, if the sulfur dioxide atmosphere is removed. Desorption of SO_2 from the adducts **7–10** is accelerated by exposure to air, to solvents free of SO_2 , or by reducing the atmospheric pressure, which again quantitatively regenerates complexes **1–4**, respectively. Heating can also be used to remove SO_2 from these platinum complexes. An increase in temperature (to 40 °C) leads to the formation of the SO_2 -free starting materials within a few minutes. For this latter method

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Scheme 2. Synthetic procedure for the convergent preparation of metallodendrimer **15**.

to be effective and quantitative, the Pt complexes must be in solution. In the solid state, thermogravimetric analyses have shown that they do not loose sulfur dioxide at these temperatures. With solid complex **7c**, for example, slow desorption starts at 75 °C, which becomes faster with increasing temperature. At 150 °C, no additional weight is lost; this indicates complete removal of SO₂. This is confirmed by a reduction of the initial mass to 88%, which clearly corresponds to the reversion of **7c** to **1c** (theoretical weight loss: 89%).

Various chemical methods can be used to regenerate the Pt^{II} complexes 1-4 from the SO_2 adducts (7–10). These include the addition of a tertiary amine (e.g., NEt₃), a basic aqueous solution (e.g., 1N NaOH), or a halide source, such as Bu_4NI , to a solution containing the sulfur dioxide adducts.

The SO₂ adduct of the 4-hydroxy platinum complex **5** shows deviating properties with respect to these regeneration methods. Several of the procedures for removing sulfur dioxide developed for the other adducts have been found to be much slower (evaporation in vacuo requires hours rather than minutes to be complete) or ineffective (refluxing a solution of [PtCl(4-OH-Me,Me-NCN)(SO₂)] **11** in THF for several hours did not lead to decolorization and reformation of [PtCl(4-OH-Me,Me-NCN)] **5**).

Finally, adsorption of SO₂ greatly enhances the solubility characteristics of all the platinum complexes studied here. This fact is most prominently demonstrated by the solubility behavior of 5, which contains a polar organometallic site and a phenolic hydroxy group. As a four-coordinate complex, it is virtually insoluble in most common organic and chlorinated solvents. For example, in benzene, the solubility is lower than 0.2 gL^{-1} . In SO₂-saturated solution, however, dissolved concentrations of adduct **11** higher than 20 g L^{-1} may be obtained. This increased solubility becomes particularly important for macromolecular diagnostic materials that contain several gasadsorption-active centers. Whereas most of the monomeric complexes are soluble in THF, the tri- and hexa-organoplatinum complexes 3 and 15 fail to dissolve in this solvent and only solubilize as the corresponding sulfur dioxide adducts 9 and 16, respectively. This is probably due to the change of the coordination geometry of the platinum center from square planar to square pyramidal; this changes the lattice energy of the solid material and reduces the impact of the phenyl factor.^[24]

The reactivity of related Pt^{II} complexes such as [PtCl(2-{CHN(Me)CH₂CH₂NMe₂}-C₆H₄],^[25] (nitrogen donors in *cis* positions) and the ionic complexes [Pt(4-E-Me,Me-NCN)(OH₂)][SO₃CF₃] (with E = H, OH, OSiMe₂*t*Bu) with SO₂ were also briefly examined. However, neither NMR nor UV-visible spectroscopy indicate any change comparable with that found for the Pt-SO₂ adsorption products described above. This suggests that no adduct formation takes place. The reason for this lack of reactivity may be the result of a reduced nucleophilicity of these platinum centers relative to that of the neutral sensor sites in complexes **1**–**6** and **15**. It is another indication of the special binding properties of the [M – X]⁺ entity held in the η^3 -mer NCN ligand manifold (cf. the role of [Ni–X] unit in the [NiX(NCN)]-catalyzed atom-transfer reaction of CCl₄ with methyl methacrylate).^[26]

Spectroscopic properties: The characteristic orange color found for all the SO₂ adducts studied here originates from two $Pt \rightarrow S$ metal-to-ligand charge-transfer bands that are located in the UV-visible absorbance region. The observed maxima for the adducts 7-12 all lie at approximately 350 nm with a broad shoulder (except complexes 10) at longer wavelength that is primarily dependent on the metal-bound halide (Table 1). The series of SO_2 complexes that contain the unsubstituted NCN ligand (complexes 7a-c) strictly obeys the spectroscopic series upon change of the Pt-bound halide, that is, the absorption maximum shifts towards higher wavelength with increasing electron release of the halide (I > Br >Cl). Surprisingly, this tendency is not seen in the series of complexes that contain the siloxy group (i.e., OSiMe₂tBu) as the substituent in the position para to the metal-bound carbon atom (8a - c). The bromide complex 8b has a remarkably high energy gap for the corresponding electronic transition with a maximum at 333 nm, whereas the maxima of 8a (X = Cl) and 8c (X = I) were found at 350 nm and 368 nm, respectively. A similar halide dependence is found in the series of complexes free of SO₂ (2a-c); in contrast to the chloride and iodide species, the absorption spectrum of the bromide complex 2b differs considerably from its unsubstituted analogue 1b.

Table 1. UV-visible^[a] and relevant IR^[b] spectroscopic data for complexes 1-12.

	Complex	UV-visible	IR ṽ [IR $\tilde{\nu}$ [cm ⁻¹]	
	-	$\lambda_{\max} [nm] (\varepsilon)$	$\tilde{\nu}_{s}(SO_{2})$	$\tilde{v}_{\rm as}({ m SO}_2)$	
[PtX(4-E-R	,R'-NCN)]				
1a	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = Cl	279 (9.7)			[18b]
1b	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = Br	281 (9.8)			[18b]
1c	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = I	285 (12.8)			[18b]
2a	$R = R' = Me$, $E = OSiMe_2tBu$, $X = Cl$	278 (14.2)			[22]
2 b	$R = R' = Me$, $E = OSiMe_2tBu$, $X = Br$	259 (16.5)			
2c	$R = R' = Me$, $E = OSiMe_2tBu$, $X = I$	283 (16.5)			
3	$[C_6H_3-\{C(O)-O-NCN-PtCl\}_3]$	276 (26.5)			[22]
4a	R = R' = Et, E = H, X = I	277 (12.2)			
4b	R = Me, R' = Et, E = H, X = Cl	277 (7.2)			
5	$R = R' = Me, E = OH, X = Cl^{[c]}$	277 (10.9)			
6	R = R' = Me, $E = H$, $X = 4$ -tolyl	338 (1.0)			
[PtX(4-E-R	,R'-NCN)(SO ₂)]				
7a	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = Cl	352 (6.5), 408 (1.7)	1076	1238	
7b	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = Br	356 (6.9), 410 (1.9)	1076	1230	
7c	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = I	364 (6.8), 410 (1.4)	1076	1226	
8a	$R = R' = Me$, $E = OSiMe_2tBu$, $X = Cl$	350 (7.8), 421 (2.3)	1074	1226	
8b	$R = R' = Me$, $E = OSiMe_2tBu$, $X = Br$	333 (9.3), 395 (2.4)	1074	1215	
8c	$R = R' = Me$, $E = OSiMe_2tBu$, $X = I$	368 (9.4), 422 (2.2)	1074	1215	
9	$[C_6H_3-\{C(O)-O-NCN-PtCl\}_3(SO_2)_3]$	351 (14.8), 402 (4.3)	1075 (sh)	1226	
10 a	R = R' = Et, E = H, X = I	368 (sh; 1.5)	1067 (sh)	1219	
10b	R = Me, R' = Et, E = H, X = Cl	353 (6.3), 401 (1.5)	1078	1234	
11	$R = R' = Me, E = OH, X = Cl^{[d]}$	350 (8.7), 419 (2.0)	1072	1236	
12	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = 4-tolyl	357 (4.1), 410 (1.3)	1063	1215	

[a] From CH₂Cl₂ solution, ε [10³ m⁻¹cm⁻¹]. [b] In CHCl₃. [c] ν (O–H) 3304 cm⁻¹; [d] ν (O–H) 3306 cm⁻¹.

Time-resolved UV-visible spectroscopic measurements (stopped flow; benzene solution) indicate that the reaction of arylplatinum complexes with SO_2 is complete within 50 µs. Decreasing the mixing temperature from ambient temperature to 7 °C did not significantly slow down the process and, hence, no definite mechanistic conclusions on the adsorption reaction (pre-equilibria, site of initial attack) can be drawn from these measurements.

Infrared spectroscopic investigations have concentrated on the assignment of the symmetric and asymmetric stretching vibrations of the bound SO₂ molecule (Table 1). In all the adducts the signals assigned to these vibrations were found between 1238 and 1214 cm⁻¹ (ν_s) and 1080 and 1064 cm⁻¹ (ν_{as}) (measured in CHCl₃ saturated with SO₂). These regions are characteristic for sulfur dioxide bound to d⁸ metal centers.^[7b] However, complexes **10a** and **10b**, which contain ethyl substituents on the metal-bound amines, do not clearly exhibit an absorbance at lower wavenumber, probably because of the overlap with the very strong ν_{as} band from free sulfur dioxide.^[7c] Furthermore, the values obtained for complexes **7a**-**c** in this study corroborate well with the frequencies found earlier from Nujol measurements of the solid materials.^[10]

The NMR characteristics of the square-planar complexes 1–6 have been discussed earlier.^[10, 14] For the SO₂ adducts 7–12, comparison of the NMR resonance data with those of the corresponding starting materials 1–6 is illustrative. The ¹H NMR spectra of the SO₂ adducts 7–9, 11, and 12, reveal a characteristic down-field shift of the resonance signals of the NCH₃ and CH₂N protons ($\Delta \delta = 0.14$ and 0.23 ppm, respectively, in SO₂ saturated solutions of CDCl₃, with $\Delta \delta = \delta_{(adduct)} - \delta_{(free complex)}$, Table 2) when compared with the corresponding SO₂ free complexes.^[27] The same chemical

shifts of the two benzylic CH₂N protons and of both the nitrogen-bound methyl groups of the (NCN) ligand moiety in 7 have been demonstrated.^[10] In an environment which is subsaturated with sulfur dioxide, one single set of signals is observed which is positioned between that found for the SO₂free complex and the adduct.^[28] Similar conclusions can be drawn from the analyses of the ¹³C{¹H} NMR spectroscopic data (Table 3); adduct formation is pronounced by a notable shift of the nitrogen-bound methyl carbons towards higher field, which indicates an enhanced shielding of these nuclei. The position of the relevant signals in the ¹H or ¹³C $\{^{1}H\}$ NMR spectrum is directly dependent on the total concentration of sulfur dioxide and can therefore be used to indicate and quantify the presence of dissolved SO₂ (Figure 2). Remarkably, the trifurcate organoplatinum complex 9 shows one set of signals only, regardless of the concentration of SO₂. This unambiguously indicates that all three PtII centers are equally coordinating to SO_2 .

A particular NMR behavior has been found for the platinum compounds **4a** and **4b** with prochiral CH₂ groupings at the nitrogen-bound carbons because of the presence of ethyl- instead of methyl-amino substituents.^[29] In the case of the diethylamino compound **4a**, the multiplets that result from the NCH₂Me protons at $\delta = 3.69$ and 2.92 (ABX₃ pattern) undergo a shift of 0.06 ppm (high field) and 0.01 ppm (down field), respectively, upon addition of SO₂. Also the benzylic protons do not show a characteristic change as observed for the adducts **7**–**9** and, hence, the resonance signals of **10a** appear at virtually the same position as found for SO₂-free **4a**. This indicates that coordination of SO₂ to **4a** is, if it occurrs at all, very weak. A different situation accounts for **10b** and **4b**; from the benzylic protons, which are split into two sets of AB doublets (assigned to the *rac* and *meso* isomers,

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Table 2. ¹H NMR data for complexes 1–12.^[a]

	Complex	C _{aryl} -H	ArCH ₂ N ($^{3}J(H,Pt)$)	$NCH_3 (^{3}J(H,Pt))$	Other H	Ref.
[PtX(4	-E-R,R'-NCN)]					
1a	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = Cl	6.99 (t), 6.80 (d)	4.02 (46)	3.07 (38)		
1b	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = Br	7.03 (t), 6.80 (d)	4.02 (46)	3.11 (38)		
1c	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = I	7.03 (t), 6.83 (d)	4.03 (46)	3.18 (39)		
2 a	$R = R' = Me, E = OSiMe_2tBu, X = Cl$	6.35	3.96 (46)	3.07 (38)	0.96, 0.16	[22]
2 b	$R = R' = Me, E = OSiMe_2tBu, X = Br$	6.33	3.96 (45)	3.11 (38)	0.96, 0.16	
2 c	$R = R' = Me, E = OSiMe_2tBu, X = I$	6.73	3.96 (45)	3.16 (39)	0.96, 0.16	
3	$[C_6H_3-\{C(O)-O-NCN-PtCl\}_3]$	6.73	4.05 (41)	3.11 (36)	9.15	[22]
4a	R = R' = Et, E = H, X = I	6.97 (t), 6.70 (d)	4.06 (37)	3.69, ^[b,c] 2.92 (22) ^[c]	1.52	[29a]
4b	R = Me, R' = Et, E = H, X = Cl					
	major isomer	6.96 (t), 6.78 (d)	4.24 (29), 3.81 (56)	3.13 (39), 3.33-2.80 (m) ^[b,c]	1.47	
	minor isomer	6.96 (t), 6.78 (d)	4.21 (38), 3.83 (53)	$3.11 (39), 3.33 - 2.80 (m)^{[b,c]}$	1.50	
5	R = R' = Me, E = OH, X = Cl	6.39	3.98 (45)	3.07 (30)		
6	R = R' = Me, $E = H$, $X = 4$ -tolyl	6.9	4.16 (43)	2.95 (43)	7.64, 7.02, 2.33	[18b]
[PtX(4	-E-R,R'-NCN)(SO ₂)]					
7a	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = Cl	7.08 (t), 6.88 (d)	4.25 (41)	3.22 (32)		
7b	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = Br	7.08 (t), 6.88 (d)	4.25 (41)	3.26 (33)		
7 c	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = I	7.11 (t), 6.87 (d)	4.25 (42)	3.33 (36)		
8a	$R = R' = Me, E = OSiMe_2tBu, X = Cl$	6.43	4.19 (41)	3.22 (32)	0.98, 0.18	
8b	$R = R' = Me, E = OSiMe_2tBu, X = Br$	6.42	4.18 (42)	3.25 (33)	0.97, 0.18	
8c	$R = R' = Me, E = OSiMe_2tBu, X = I$	6.41	4.20 (41)	3.32 (35)	0.97, 0.18	
9	C_6H_3 -(C(O)-O-NCN-PtCl) ₃ (SO ₂) ₃	6.84	4.27 (41)	3.24 (31)	9.13	
10 a	R = R' = Et, E = H, X = I	6.96 (t), 6.69 (d)	4.06 (37)	3.63, ^[b,c] 2.93 (21) ^[c]	1.50	
10b	R = Me, R' = Et, E = H, X = Cl					
	major isomer	6.99 (t), 6.79 (d)	4.24 (17), 4.01 (25)	$3.14(36), 3.48,^{[b,c]} 3.15^{[b,c]}$	1.33	
	minor isomer	6.98 (t), 6.79 (d)	4.17, ^[b] 4.06 (18)	3.13(36), 3.34, [b,c] 3.08[b,c]	1.38	
11	R = R' = Me, E = OH, X = Cl	6.44	4.21 (41)	3.22 (31)		
12	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = 4-tolyl	7.05 (t), 6.89 (d)	4.41 (37)	3.34 (36)	7.70, 7.12, 2.38	

[a] Singlet signals from CDCl₃ solutions unless stated otherwise; doublet (d), triplett (t), multiplett (m); δ (*J* [Hz]). [b] ³*J*(Pt,H) not resolved/observed. [c] NCH₂Me; ABX₃ pattern of NCH_AH_BMe; ²*J*(H,H) = 12.3 Hz, ³*J*(H,H) = 7.2 Hz.

Table 3. ¹³C NMR data for complexes 1–12.^[a]

	Complex	C_{ipso}	Cortho	C _{meta}	C_{para}	ArCH ₂ N	R, R′	Other C	Ref.
[PtX(4	·E-R,R'-NCN)]								
1 a	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = Cl	144.5	142.7	122.6	118.6	77.1	53.7		[18b]
1b	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = Br	145.7	142.7	122.8	118.7	76.8	54.5		[18b]
1c	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = I	149.6	143.4	123.4	119.2	76.9	56.3		
2a	$R = R' = Me$, $E = OSiMe_2tBu$, $X = Cl$	152.6	143.8	136.2	111.4	77.7	54.5	25.7, 18.1, -4.4	[22]
2b	$R = R' = Me, E = OSiMe_2tBu, X = Br$	152.6	143.7	137.5	111.3	77.4	55.0	25.6, 18.0, -4.5	
2 c	$R = R' = Me, E = OSiMe_2tBu, X = I$	152.6	144.0	141.1	111.3	76.9	56.4	25.5, 18.0, -4.5	
3	C ₆ H ₃ -(C(O)-O-NCN-PtCl) ₃	147.3	144.1	143.1	112.8	77.6	54.5	163.7, 135.8, 131.3	[22]
4a	R = R' = Et, E = H, X = I	146.2	145.4	122.8	117.4	69.0	61.7 ^[c]	13.5	[29a]
4b	R = Me, R' = Et, E = H, X = Cl								
	major isomer	144.1	143.9	122.8	118.6	73.3	59.4, ^[c] 53.7	12.9	
	minor isomer	144.2	143.8	122.8	118.7	73.8	59.7, ^[c] 53.5	13.0	
5	$R = R' = Me, E = OH, X = Cl^{[b]}$	154.3	143.4	133.1	106.7	77.3	54.0		[20]
6	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = 4-tolyl	172.0	145.1	122.4	118.1	81.1	54.9	179.2, 138.9, 129.6,	[18b]
								127.4, 21.0	
[PtX(4	$-E-R,R'-NCN)(SO_2)$]								
7 a	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = Cl	147.4	142.4	125.4	120.5	75.9	53.8		
7b	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = Br	150.1	142.5	125.6	120.6	75.6	54.4		
7 c	R = R' = Me, E = H, X = I	151.9	142.7	125.5	120.4	75.1	55.4		
8 a	$R = R' = Me, E = OSiMe_2tBu, X = Cl$	154.3	142.9	138.7	112.6	75.7	53.5	25.5, 18.0, -4.5	
8b	$R = R' = Me, E = OSiMe_2tBu, X = Br$	154.3	142.9	140.3	112.5	75.5	54.3	25.5, 18.0, -4.5	
8 c	$R = R' = Me, E = OSiMe_2tBu, X = I$	154.3	143.4	141.4	112.4	75.2	55.5	25.6, 18.1, -4.5	
9	$[C_6H_3-\{C(O)-O-NCN-PtCl\}_3(SO_2)_3]$	148.7	144.7	143.4	114.0	75.9	54.0	163.4, 135.9, 131.2	
10 a	R = R' = Et, E = H, X = I	146.3	145.0	123.0	117.6	68.0	61.7 ^[c]	13.4	
10b	R = Me, R' = Et, E = H, X = Cl								
	major isomer	145.4	143.5	124.2	119.3	72.4	59.5, ^[c] 51.7	12.0	
	minor isomer	145.5	143.4	124.1	119.2	72.8	59.9, ^[c] 51.8	12.5	
11	R = R' = Me, E = OH, X = Cl	154.7	143.0	138.0	108.3	75.7	53.9		
12	R = R' = Me, $E = H$, $X = 4$ -tolyl	[d]	142.8	124.9	120.5	75.4	55.0	^[d] 138.3, 129.0	
								126.2, 22.0	

 $\label{eq:cDCl_3} \mbox{ solutions unless stated otherwise. [b] In CDCl_3/[D_6]DMSO. [c] NCH_2Me. [d] C_{ipso} \mbox{ not observed}.$

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Figure 2. Diagnostic characteristics of the ligand resonance signals in ¹H NMR spectroscopy. The chemical-shift dependence on the concentration of SO₂ is shown for the benzylic (top, circles) and methyl (bottom, triangles) protons of a mixture of **2c** and **8c**.

respectively), the resonances at lower frequency are shifted characteristically upon addition of SO₂, whereas the signals around $\delta = 4.2$ are unaffected. A similar behavior is found for the NCH₂Me protons. Additional evidence for sulfur dioxide bonding and a concomitant change of the geometry around the metal center in 10b is gained from consideration of the coupling constants, which decrease substantially when SO₂ is present in solution. These results indicate that in contrast to **4a** (which contains two NEt₂ groupings), coordination of SO_2 to 4b (which bears two NEtMe groupings) occurs for both isomers. Apparently, one methyl group on the nitrogen donor already gives space enough for coordination, while two larger substituents (e.g., NEt₂) prevent bonding to SO₂, unless their steric impact is reduced (as, for example, in N(CH₂)₄).^[9e] This effect is best understood by considering the puckering of the two five-membered metallacycles Pt-N-C-C-Cipso with the aryl plane of the NCN ligand in the square-planar PtX(NCN) complexes ($C_{\rm S}$ symmetry).^[14, 29a] Owing to this puckering, the two alkyl substituents on each nitrogen are positioned pseudo-axially and pseudo-equatorially, and the two axial substituents are anti-planar to each other (see Newman projection in Scheme 3). Coordination of SO₂ forces one metallacycle to invert this relative axial-equatorial orientation of the substituents (C_v symmetry). Such a structure is minimized when only little repulsion of the two syn-planar, co-axially positioned substituents occurs, that is, when at least one of these substituents is a CH_3 group.^[14] In the case of **4a**, no such configuration is possible and, as a consequence of the steric repulsion of the mutually co-axial ethyl groups, the nitrogen atom is continuously forced to adopt a coplanar



Scheme 3. Newman projection along the $Pt-C_{ipso}$ axis, illustrated at the equilibrium of *meso-***4b** and *meso-***10b**; because of the repulsion of the axial substituents on nitrogen in the adduct (syn-orientation), only the product is formed that contains the bulky substituents in equatorial positions.

position with respect to the aryl ring. Hence, the puckering diminishes and strong coordination of SO₂ is hampered. This conclusion is corroborated by the observation that crystallization from SO₂-saturated solutions afforded **4a** instead of **10a** (vide infra). In **4b**, however, axial orientation of the methyl groups is possible in both the *rac* and the *meso* isomers. In the latter case, two diastereotopic adducts may form in princple, namely those with either axial or equatorial methyl groups. However, only one adduct, *meso*-**10b**, is observed spectroscopically (along with *rac*-**10b**), which contains the methyl groupings in pseudo-axial and the ethyl substituents in equatorial orientation (see ¹³C NMR data, Table 3). Such a site-selective bonding of SO₂ is expected to occur, when steric repulsion of large substituents in co-axial positions is dominant.

When sulfur dioxide is added to the tolyl-complex [Pt(4- C_6H_4Me)(NCN-Me,Me)] **6**, a set of signals appears, which points to the formation of a SO₂ adduct **12**. Besides **12**, another compound is formed gradually that is characterized by two new AB doublets in the aromatic region ($\delta = 7.93$ and 7.25) of the ¹H NMR spectrum, together with shifted signals assigned to the protons of the NCN ligand. In contrast to the AB patterns for **6** and **12**, these new signals, which are due to the *para*-tolyl ligand, do not contain characteristic ¹⁹⁵Pt-¹H couplings. This suggests the formation of a product that results from the irreversible insertion of SO₂ into the metal-carbon bond.^[30] No attempts have been made to isolate and further identify this product.

Based on these NMR investigations, it becomes evident that for all [PtX(NCN)] complexes with X = Cl, Br, and I, adduct formation with SO₂ occurs, provided that the ligating nitrogen atoms contain at least one methyl substituent. Ethyl substituents are already bulky enough to prevent significant coordination of SO₂ to the metal center. Moreover, complexes with X = p-tolyl form adducts that bind SO₂ as strong as the corresponding halide complexes, since the chemical shift differences of the diagnostic protons are in a similar range. This implies that steric repulsion of the tolyl ligand with respect to the SO₂ molecule is negligible and the oxygen atoms of SO₂ are probably directed towards the NCN-aryl π system.

Solid-state studies: In order to unambiguously establish the nature of **11** and the SO₂ complex of **4a**, crystal structure determinations were carried out for complex **11** and attempted for **10a**. Generally, crystals were grown by slow diffusion of pentane into a SO₂-saturated CH₂Cl₂ solution of the arylplatinum species; this afforded orange needles of **11** and colorless blocks of **4a** suitable for X-ray analysis. For comparison, the structures of **8c**^[12] and **7b**^[10] will also be discussed.

The molecular structure of **8c** is shown in Figure 3a (for selected bond lengths and angles, see Table 4). The sulfur dioxide molecule is coordinated through S in a η^1 -bonding mode to the platinum center. Platinum is in a pseudo-square-pyramidal environment with SO₂ in the apical position. The angles to the four basal atoms are between 91.4(2)° and 98.1(1)°. No disorder in the position of SO₂ has been detected that could rise from partial coordination to iodide. This selective bonding to Pt is remarkable with respect to the









Figure 3. Perspective diagrams (50% probability) and numbering schemes of the structures of the adducts a) 8c [PtI(4-OSiMe₂tBu-Me,Me-NCN)(SO₂)] and b) 11 [PtCl(4-OH-Me,Me-NCN)(SO₂)] and of the SO₂-free complexes c) 5 [PtCl(4-OH-Me,Me-NCN)] and d) 4a [PtI(Et,Et-NCN)]. Hydrogen atoms and the second independent molecule in the unit cell of 4a are omitted for clarity.

expected competitive behavior of iodide in nucleophilicity and size.^[31] Related structures of organometallic Pt^{II}-iodide complexes are known that contain the SO₂ molecule coordinated to iodide such as in [Pt(Me)(I-SO₂)L₂] (L = PPh₃).^[32] Nevertheless, the predictions of the geometry for complexes of the type [ML{SO₂}]^[8] derived from extended Hückel calculations are clearly demonstrated.^[7a] These include i) selective η^1 coordination of sulfur dioxide (note that both S–O bonds are statistically equal in length within experimental error), ii) a pyramidal geometry of the SO₂ plane with respect to the Pt–S axis (θ of the plane defined by SO₂ with the Pt–S axis is approximately 116°), and iii) bending of the oxygen atoms away from iodide (π donor) and towards the aryl unit of the NCN ligand (π acceptor). This last point is evident in the structure of **8c**, whereas in the bromide

Table 4. Selected bond lengths [Å] and angles [°] for **4a** and **5**,^[a] and the SO₂ complexes **8** $c^{[b]}$ and **11**.

	4a (X = I)		8c	5	11
	molecule 1	molecule 2	$X {=} I$	X = Cl	X = Cl
bond length	18				
Pt-C1	1.929(7)	1.928(6)	1.946(6)	1.915(9)	1.923(10)
Pt-X	2.7328(6)	2.7300(6)	2.718(1)	2.434(2)	2.423(3)
Pt-N1	2.089(5)	2.095(5)	2.112(4)	2.094(8)	2.106(8)
Pt-N2	2.089(5)	2.103(4)	2.113(5)	2.082(8)	2.096(8)
Pt-S	-	_	2.479(2)	-	2.531(3)
SO1	-	-	1.443(4)	-	1.444(9)
S-O2	-	-	1.433(6)	-	1.430(9)
bond angles	3				
N1-Pt-N2	165.37(17)	164.7(2)	156.7(2)	163.9(3)	160.5(3)
C1-Pt-X	180.00(8)	178.15(13)	174.4(2)	177.4(4)	173.1(3)
C1-Pt-N1	82.68(12)	82.1(2)	81.2(2)	81.6(4)	82.3(4)
C1-Pt-N2	82.68(12)	82.6(2)	81.5(2)	82.4(4)	81.5(4)
X-Pt-N1	97.32(12)	98.54(16)	98.15(13)	97.9(2)	97.2(2)
X-Pt-N2	97.32(12)	96.70(12)	97.58(15)	98.2(2)	97.7(2)
X-Pt-S	-	_	94.14(4)	-	96.90(11)
C1-Pt-S	-	-	91.44(18)	-	90.0(3)
N1-Pt-S	_	_	98.1(1)	_	93.2(3)
N2-Pt-S	-	-	97.8(2)	-	97.6(2)
O1-S-Pt	-	-	103.3(2)	-	105.6(4)
O2-S-Pt	_	_	105.9(2)	_	103.6(4)
O1-S-O2	-	-	113.6(3)	-	113.4(6)
С4-О-Е	_	_	132.5(4)	113(9)	109.5
			(E = Si)	(E = H)	(E = H)

[a] From ref. [20]. [b] From ref. [12].

complex **7b** the orientation of the sulfur dioxide ligand is less predictable (the vector of one S–O bond being nearly collinear with that of the Pt–Br bond). This may rise from a more prominent π -donor – acceptor relationship in complex **8c**, induced by the halide and the oxo substituent on the aryl ligand. Probably this is also the reason for the shorter metalto-sulfur bond length in **8c** (2.479(2) Å) relative to this bond in **7b** (2.613(7) Å). An energy profile of the rotation of the SO₂ ligand around the Pt–S bond axis (analysis of the steric factors by CAChe techniques^[33]) does not exceed a maximal difference of 6.0 kJ mol⁻¹. This emphasizes the importance of electronic arguments and crystal-packing effects in the orientation of the sulfur dioxide molecule in the apical position, as demonstrated by the crystal structures of **8c** and **7b**.

The molecular structure of the adduct [PtCl(4-OH-Me,Me-NCN)(SO₂)] **11** displays similar features as described for the 4-OSiMe₂*t*Bu complex **8c** (Figure 3b; selected bond lengths and angles in Table 4). Compared with its SO₂-free 4-OH analogue **5** (Figure 3c),^[20] only slight differences in bond lengths and angles are found. Remarkably, even the hydrogen-bond motif,^[34] which interconnects the single molecules to linear chains through strong Pt–Cl…H–O bonds, is conserved in the sulfur dioxide adduct **11** (see Table 5). An

Table 5. Hydrogen-bond characteristics for compound 5 and the corresponding SO₂ complex 11.

	O-H	$\mathrm{H} \cdots \mathrm{Cl}$	$O \cdots Cl$	O−H ··· Cl
5 ^[a]	0.84(13)	2.32(13)	3.127(8)	161(15)
11 ^[b]	0.84	2.31	3.126(8)	163.9

[a] The hydrogen atom was located on the difference Fourier map and further refined (from ref. [20]). [b] Located on the difference Fourier map and refined with a rotating model.

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intriguing feature of the crystal structure of **11** is the considerably short distance between the sulfur nucleus and the metal-bound chloride of a neighboring molecule (3.253(4) Å).^[35] This gives rise to a β -type network with Pt…S…Cl interactions that are perpendicular to the (former) α -type network induced by Pt–Cl…H–O hydrogen bonding. The result is a two-dimensional supramolecular assembly as depicted in Figure 4, due to molecular recognition



Figure 4. The crystal structure of **11** [PtCl(4-OH-Me,Me-NCN)(SO₂)]. The view along the *y* axis shows the supramolecular self-assembly of **11** in the solid state by directional Pt-Cl···H-O hydrogen bonding and super-imposed Pt···S···Cl interactions, which results in the formation of a β -type network.

(hydrogen-bonded network) and substrate-mediated (SO₂) interlocking of these chains. Materials such as **11** are particularly attractive for crystal engineering, since they combine the directional properties of the α -type interaction and the self-organization through reversibly formed β -type interactions.

Attempts to crystallize 10b failed. In all cases, crystals of 4a were obtained exclusively. However, the structural details of the molecular geometry of 4a in the solid state gives valuable information concerning the weak tendency of 4a to form SO₂ complexes. Two inequivalent molecules of 4a were found in the crystal lattice; one is C_{2v} symmetric (4a- C_2) and the second is asymmetric $(4a-C_1)$. The molecular structure (Figure 3d) is characterized by a platinum(II) metal center in a slightly distorted square-planar geometry, bound to the η^3 mer-coordinating NCN ligand and an iodide ion. Bond lengths and angles (Table 4) are closely related to the values found for similar complexes.^[9e, 18b, 36] The puckering of the five-membered metallacycles with the plane of the aryl ring, characterized by the torsion angle of N1-Pt-C1-C2, does not exceed $4.3(3)^{\circ}$. This is significantly smaller than the values found typically in the corresponding NMe_2 complexes (around 10°). This increased coplanarity of the aryl plane and the square plane around the platinum center probably originates from steric repulsion of the four ethyl substituents and results in a flattening of the five-membered chelate rings, that is, in a less pronounced axial/equatorial orientation of these ethyl groups. Consequently, replacment of both nitrogen-bound methyl by ethyl groups gives rise to an increased hindrance of the potential coordination sites at the platinum center.^[9e] Note that the NMR studies already indicated that 4a did not show any notable interaction with SO_2 in solution (vide supra).

Thermodynamics: To get further information concerning the nature and the stability of the Pt-SO₂ binding in the complexes 7–11 in solution, UV-visible spectrophotometric measurements at varying concentrations of SO₂ were carried out (Figure 5). The overlapping spectra do not show an isosbestic point, probably because of the coinciding strong absorbance of free SO₂ (relevant below 320 nm), which entirely covers the absorption bands of the SO₂-free complexes 1–5. Increasing the concentration of sulfur dioxide leads to a higher absorbance at λ_{max} (Figure 5).



Figure 5. The response of the complex 2a on changes in the concentration of SO₂, monitored by UV-visible spectroscopy. The spectra correspond to 2a (dashed line) and to mixtures of 2a and 8a at 40, 80, 160, 300, 540, 1000 mM, and saturated solutions of SO₂. Inset: Variation of the extinction at 350 nm.

Equilibrium constants K_f of the equilibrium between the SO₂ adducts **7**-**11** and their four-coordinate starting materials were determined by titration of solutions of complexes **1**-**5**, respectively, with SO₂ (dissolved in benzene). The constants K_f were evaluated by recording A_c (absorbance λ_{max} of the adduct at a SO₂ concentration c, relative to A_{∞} , the absorbance in SO₂-saturated benzene solution) versus the concentration of sulfur dioxide. These plots are shown in Figure 6 for the reactions of sulfur dioxide with [PtI(4-OSiMe₂tBu-Me,Me-NCN)] **2c** (as representative for



Figure 6. Titration curves for various mono- (2c, circles; 4b, triangles) and multimetallic sensor materials (3, bars) against SO₂.

the monometallic NMe₂ complexes **1**, **2**, and **5**), the dendritic Pt₃ species **3**, and [PtI(4-H-Et,Me-NCN)] **4b**. The molarity in SO₂ was adjusted to be always at least ten times higher than the actual concentration of the platinum complexes.^[37] This allows us to neglect the change in concentration of SO₂ due to

adduct formation. Hence, from Equation (2), Equation (3) can be deduced and was applied to fit the obtained data points.

$$K_{\rm f} = \frac{[\rm PtX(\rm NCN)(\rm SO_2)_n]}{[\rm PtX(\rm NCN)][\rm SO_2]^n}$$
(2)

$$\frac{[PtX(NCN)(SO_2)_n]_c}{[PtX(NCN)SO_2)_n]_{\infty}} = \frac{K_f [SO_2]^n}{K_f [SO_2]^n + 1}$$
(3)

The values for the formation constants K_f and the corresponding Gibbs free energies ΔG° are summarized in Table 6. For the reactions starting with monoplatinum species [PtX(4-H-Me,Me-NCN)] **1** or the corresponding 4-substitut-

Table 6. Equilibrium constants $K_{\rm f}$ and $\Delta G^{\circ,[a]}$

	$K_{ m f} \left[{ m M}^{-1} ight]$	$\Delta G^{\circ} [\mathrm{kJ}\mathrm{mol}^{-1}]$
1a	10.42 (0.42)	- 5.71 (0.10)
1b	9.97 (0.93)	-5.60(0.22)
1c	9.80 (1.36)	- 5.56 (0.32)
2a	14.81 (0.35)	-6.57(0.06)
2b	8.48 (0.34)	- 5.21 (0.10)
2 c	9.51 (1.53)	-5.49(0.36)
3	9.90 (1.26)	-5.59(0.29)
4b	2.16 (0.09)	- 1.88 (0.10)
5	9.70 (0.63)	- 5.54 (0.15)

[a] Esds in parantheses; for platinum complex **4a**: see text.

ed complexes **2** or **5**, these data are entirely consistent with the formation of a 1:1 adduct with SO₂ in solution and, hence, are in agreement with the $\Delta\delta$ data obtained by ¹H NMR spectroscopy. Despite an earlier hypothesis,^[10] no indication for the formation of an octahedral product containing two coordinated molecules of SO₂ has been found. Neither the substituent H or OR on the aryl ligand nor the metal-bound halide seem to affect the equilibrium constant substantially, and, thus, the values found for K_f are all in the same range.

The equilibrium between the trimetallic species **3** and **9** is of a different nature and is best described by a 1:3 complex between **3** and SO₂. The similarity of the titration curves of the monometallic and trimetallic sensors suggests that in **3**, the diagnostic platinum centers are virtually independent from each other and behave similar to monomers.^[38] This emphasizes the applicability of dendritic materials as useful sensor materials.

Compared with the complexes that contain the pincer ligand with two methyl substituents on the amine donor, for example, complexes **1** or **2**, a significantly lower equilibrium constant has been found for complex **4b**, which contains a bulkier substituent on the amine ligand. The titration measurements still point to a 1:1 adduct with SO₂, whereas in the corresponding NEt₂ complex **4a** a linear relationship between the spectroscopic absorbance and the concentration of SO₂ has been found; this points to a very small equilibrium constant. These observations are remarkable in terms of electronic factors, since the basicity of the nitrogen donor is increased upon changing the substituents in the order Me $\langle Et(\langle iPr) \rangle$. As a consequence, the nucleophilicity on the metal center and, therefore, its affinity to Lewis acids (e.g., SO₂) is increased. Evidence for the predomination of the

steric rather than the electronic arguments in these platinum(II) complexes has arisen from closely related work that includes I₂ as Lewis acid.^[39] Data from the X-ray structure determination of platinum complexes with pincer derivatives similar to 4b, but with NtBuMe instead of NEtMe donors, confirmed that the metal center is still accessible by I_2 . Adducts that display a square-pyramidal geometry were isolated only when the methyl groups were in pseudo anticonformation with respect to the iodine ligand (pseudo-axial position). A different isomer containing both the tBu groups in the pseudo anti-position (methyl groups equatorial) is not stable, probably owing to steric repulsion of the large amine substituents. Hence, the meso-conformer of 4b is supposed to coordinate SO₂ selectively on one site, thus forming a product with axially positioned methyl groups, whereas in rac-4b, no such site-discrimination is expected. This model is further confirmed by comparison of the spectroscopic data of 10a and 10b (vide supra).

Sensor capacity of the square-planar Pt^{II} complexes: The platinum compounds 1, 2, 4b, and 5 and the dendritic Pt₃ complex 3 are all very sensitive towards the presence of low concentrations of sulfur dioxide. Sulfur dioxide coordination is fast (less than 50 µs at room temperature) and can be monitored by various analytical techniques like UV-visible or NMR spectroscopy. No pretreatment of the sensor materials is necessary to activate the platinum complexes. Their selectivity for sulfur dioxide is illustrated by the fact that no evidence for the formation of either adducts with oxygen or with other gases present in the atmosphere (e.g., N_2 , CO, CO₂) has been found. Consequently, these platinum-based sensor materials do not need particular protection (e.g., from humidity or air) or pre-activation. None of the frequently observed reactions occur that follow sulfur dioxide coordination on organometallic complexes [e.g., insertion of SO₂ into a metal-carbon (NCN-aryl) bond,^[30] oxidation of SO₂ to sulfate in the presence of air or oxygen^[40]]. Evident exceptions are complexes that contain unstabilized metal-carbon bonds, like the Pt-C_{tolyl} bond in intermediate complex 12, in which slow insertion of sulfur dioxide and formation of Pt-S(O)2-Ctolvl bonds most probably takes place. A similar insertion into the metal-carbon bond of the Pt(NCN) unit is inhibited, owing to the η^3 -mer-N,C,N chelation of the NCN ligand that stabilizes the platinum-carbon bond to a large extent.^[16]

A variety of facile and non-destructive methods have been elaborated to recycle the sensor materials, including chemical (e.g., competitive sulfur dioxide transfer to halide ions^[41] or amines^[42]) and physical (e.g., heating, pressure reduction) removal of sulfur dioxide. This broad choice of procedures underlines the suitability of these compounds as sensor devices for repeated and efficient use in various environmental situations.

Even traces of sulfur dioxide gas are sufficient to induce the characteristic color change. By using a solution of 2a in CH₂Cl₂ (40 µM), it is possible to detect SO₂ concentrations as low as 200 µM by means of UV-visible spectroscopy; this results in a Pt/SO₂ ratio of 1:5. In contrast to these observations, the threshold value for detecting SO₂ has been found to be higher when the sensors are used in the solid state.

A cellulose surface coated with dendritic macromolecule **3** in a density of 20 nmol mm⁻² is enough for the detection of an SO₂ concentration of 8.5(±0.5) mg L^{-1,[12]} Interestingly, the threshold values reported here have been determined by routine measurements with common laboratory equipment. This implies that the sensitivity of these sensors must be considerably higher and that threshold limits can be lowered when signal detection is performed on dedicated instruments. Moreover, improvement of the sensor capacity may be achieved by means of signal (light) amplification techniques.^[43]

The full reversibility of the SO₂ adsorption is demonstrated by time-resolved photospectroscopic monitoring of a solution of 2c in dependence of the gaseous environment. Saturation of a solution of 2c in CH₂Cl₂ (0.1 mM) with SO₂ results in full conversion of the complex into its SO_2 adduct 8c, which is visualized by maximal absorbance at 368 nm. Continuous addition of air to this solution (slowly) regenerates the fourcoordinate starting complex 2c, which does not absorb at this wavelength. Repetition of this adsorption-desorption cycle by saturating the solution with sulfur dioxide and air, respectively, does not cause a decrease of the observed extinction coefficients, even after several cycles. Figure 7 shows these spectral changes of the detector sites at a fixed wavelength $(\lambda_{\text{max}} \text{ of the corresponding adduct } \mathbf{8c}, E = OSiMe_2 tBu, X = I)$ as a diagnostic response on variation of the atmospheric constitution. These results further provide evidence that there is no loss of SO₂ binding activity, a result which demonstrates the resistance of the Pt-NCN unit towards the applied sensoring conditions. Moreover, the fast response of the detector device to the presence of SO_2 is emphasized by an instantaneous signal transmission.

Another major characteristic of the sensor materials presented here is their activity towards sulfur dioxide both as solid materials or in liquid (in solution or as suspension).

Dendrimer-supported sensor devices: Complete recovery of the diagnostic materials requires a suitable support for the active sites of the sensor. Dendritic supports have an outstanding potential for such purposes, since they combine all advantages of the monomeric complexes with those typically found for heterogeneous or polymeric materials (e.g., easy recovery). Nanofiltration techniques have been successfully used to separate dendritic materials from (reaction) solu-



tions.^[44] Most importantly, the presence of well-defined connectivity patterns and exact number of functional (sensor) sites in dendrimers allows *qualitative and quantitative* substrate detection without preceding calibration. This is particularly desirable for solution measurements and contrasts with heterogenous and polymeric sensors, for which the loading of the sensor units must be determined for each batch.

By using this principle,^[15] the nanosize dendrimer **15**, which contains six peripheral sensor units, has been tested in the reaction with sulfur dioxide (Scheme 4).^[45] When this metallodendrimer **15** is exposed to an atmosphere of SO₂, an



Scheme 4. The activity of multimetallic sensors towards sulfur dioxide adsorption.

instantaneous color change is likewise observed and spectroscopic analyses are consistent with the formation of the hexaadduct **16**. The shift difference of the characteristic protons in the ¹H NMR spectrum ($\Delta \delta = 0.12$ and 4.20 ppm for the NCH₃ and the benzylic CH₂N protons, respectively) and the extinction coefficient of **16** reveal that all platinum centers in the macromolecule are active on SO₂ binding. Reformation of the SO₂-free material is easily achieved by any of the desorption methods described above. The shape-persistence of the core^[46] of these nanosize metallo-dendrimers makes

them good candidates for successful recovery from solutions by nanofiltration.

Conclusion

Multimetallic metallo-dendrimers and monometallic organoplatinum complexes that contain bis-chelating diaminoaryl pincer ligands are efficient sensor materials for the detection of minute levels of sulfur dioxide. Any presence of this gas is



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indicated by various analytical techniques, most prominently by a characteristic color change of the initially colorless sensor devices to orange. Adsorption of SO₂ is fully reversible and is fast on the NMR and UV-visible timescale, as the equilibrium of the adsorption reaction is reached within less than 50 µs at temperatures above 5 °C. Further characteristics of these sensor devices comprise facile quantification of the amount of SO₂ present and excellent chemical resistance properties (e.g., towards acids).The diagnostic platinum sites demonstrate outstanding selectivity for SO₂-gas binding. Sensoring of these organometallic bases (the [PtX(NCN)] systems) occurs by a highly specific molecular recognition process of a single acid (SO₂), even in the presence of other (stronger) acids such as HCl, CO₂, or H₂O.

Sensor-active metallo-dendrimers, detector materials which can be recycled easily and quantitatively, are accessible when detection-insensitive sites of the sensor device are coupled to a dendritic framework. Suitable ligand functionalization has been used as the methodology to anchor organoplatinum sites to dendritic cores. This afforded multimetallic sensor materials that are highly efficient and recoverable as exemplified by the metallo-dendrimers **3** and **15**. The well-defined structures of these macromolecules makes them useful for repetitive qualitative and quantitative diagnostic gas sensor applications

Moreover, a new synthon for organometallic crystal engineering has been developed. In the solid state, the SO₂ molecule in complex **11**, which contains a metal-bound chloride, binds to the metal center in a classical bonding mode (i.e., through η^1 -Pt-S bond formation) and, in addition, is stabilized by bridging coordination of sulfur to a metal-bound chloride nucleus of a different molecule, hence inducing β -type network formation of **11**. This novel supra-molecular synthon has potential application for directing the self-assembly of organometallic building blocks in the solid state.

Experimental Section

General comments: All reactions were performed by using standard Schlenk techniques unless stated otherwise. Sulfur dioxide, PtCl₂, SEt₂, Bu_4NF (1 M in THF), HNEtMe, and α, α' -dibromo-m-xylene were obtained commercially and used without further purification; 1,3,5-benzenetricarboxylic acid chloride was recrystallized from hot hexane prior to use. Benzene, pentane, and Et₂O were distilled from Na/benzophenone, and CH₂Cl₂ from CaH₂. Elemental analyses were performed by Kolbe, Mikroanalytisches Laboratorium (Mülheim, Germany). ¹H and ¹³C¹H NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker AC300 or a Varian Inova 300 spectrometer. All spectra were recorded in CDCl3 solution at 25 °C, unless otherwise stated, and referenced to external TMS ($\delta = 0.00$ ppm, J in Hz; see Tables 2 and 3). Spectroscopic studies (UV-visible) were carried out on a Varian Cary 1 spectrophotometer with degassed benzene or CH₂Cl₂ as solvent and standard quartz cuvettes (Table 1). Infrared measurements were performed on a Perkin-Elmer FT-IR spectrometer with CH₂Cl₂ as solvent. Thermogravimetric analyses were carried out in platinum containers (under a continuous flow of nitrogen) on a Perkin-Elmer TGS-2 apparatus using a heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹. The Pt^{II} complexes 1,^[18b] 2a,^[22] 3,^[22] 4a,^[29a] 5,^[20] and 6^[18b] and the AB₂ branching unit 13^[21] were prepared as described.

[Pt(Cl₂)(SEt₂)₂]: According to a modified literature procedure,^[47] SEt₂ (40 mL, 440 mmol) was poured to a suspension of PtCl₂ (10.6 g, 39.9 mmol) in benzene (100 mL). Within 0.5 h, all solids had dissolved. The solution was stirred for an additional 0.5 h and subsequently filtered through Celite and evaporated to dryness. The yellow solid was washed with cold pentane

 $(3 \times 50 \text{ mL})$ and dried in vacuo for 4 h, to afford 17.6 g of a yellow solid (99%). Spectroscopic analyses (IR, ¹³C{¹H} NMR) indicated a mixture of *trans*- and *cis*-[PtCl₂(SEt₂)₂] and were consistent with literature values.^[48]

[PtBr(4-OSiMe₂/Bu-2,6-{CH₂NMe₂}-C₆H₂] (2b): A modified literature procedure was used.^[18b] AgCF₃SO₃ (76 mg, 0.30 mmol) was added to a solution of **2a** (165 mg, 0.30 mmol) in acetone (5 mL) and water (0.2 mL). After stirring for 0.5 h under strict exclusion of light, the suspension was filtered through a short pad of Celite. All volatiles were removed in vacuo, and the residue was taken up in water (8 mL). Solid NaBr (87 mg, 0.85 mmol) was added to this suspension and stirring maintained for 0.5 h. The precipitate was collected by filtration, washed with Et₂O (4 mL) and extracted with small portions of CH₂Cl₂ (12 mL total). The combined organic layers were then dried in vacuo, leaving a white solid. Yield: 156 mg (87 %); elemental analysis calcd (%) for C₁₈H₃₃BrN₂OPtSi (596.6): C 36.24, H 5.58, N 4.70; found C 36.39, H 5.51, N 4.78.

[PtI(4-OSiMe₂*t*Bu-2,6-{CH₂NMe₂]₂-C₆H₂] (2c): This compound was prepared in a similar way as described for 2b by using NaI (141 mg, 0.94 mmol). Yield: 176 mg (91%); elemental analysis calcd (%) for $C_{18}H_{33}IN_2OPtSi$ (643.6): C 33.59, H 5.17, N 4.35, I 19.72; found C 33.65, H 5.08, N 4.26, I 19.59.

1,3-(CH₂NEtMe)₂-C₆H₄: HNEtMe (5.00 g, 83 mmol) was added to *a***,***a***'-dibromo-***m***-xylene (5.28 g, 20 mmol) dissolved in Et₂O (30 mL) at 0 °C. The suspension was stirred for 3 h at 0 °C and 12 h at ambient temperature, then poured into NaOH (1M, 100 mL). Extraction with pentane (3 × 100 mL) and subsequent drying of the combined organic fractions over K₂CO₃ yielded, after solvent evaporation in vacuo, a colorless oil, which was purified by bulb-to-bulb distillation. Yield: 3.74 g (84 %); ¹H NMR: \delta = 7.23 (t, ³***J***(H,H) = 7 Hz, 1H; Ar***H***), 7.22 (s, 1H; Ar***H***), 7.19 (d, ³***J***(H,H) = 7 Hz, 2H; Ar***H***), 3.47 (s, 4H; Ar***CH***₂N), 2.44 (q, ³***J***(H,H) = 7.2 Hz, 4H; NC***H***₂Me), 2.18 (s, 6H; NC***H***₃), 1.09 (t, ³***J***(H,H) = 7.2 Hz, 6H; NCH₂CH₃); ¹³C{¹H} NMR (75 MHz): \delta = 139.0, 129.8, 128.0, 127,7 (all Ar), 61.9 (Ar***CH***₂N), 51.2 (NCH₂Me), 41.7 (NCH₃), 1.2.4 (NCH₂CH₃); MS (70 eV, EI):** *m***/z (%): 220 (9) [***M***]⁺, 163 (100) [***M* **– NEtMe]⁺; elemental analysis calcd (%) for C₁₄H₂₄N₂ (220.4): C 76.31, H 10.98, N 12.71; found C 76.17, H 11.09, N 12.63.**

[PtCl(2,6-{CH₂NEtMe}₂-C₆H₃)] (4b): A solution of *n*-BuLi (1.6 mL, 1.66 M in hexane, 2.7 mmol) was added dropwise to a solution of 1,3-(CH₂NEtMe)₂-C₆H₄ (0.59 g, 2.7 mmol) in pentane (8 mL) at -78 °C. The reaction mixture was allowed to warm to room temperature overnight, and all volatiles were removed in vacuo. The residue was redissolved in Et₂O (10 mL), added to a suspension of [PtCl₂(SEt₂)₂] (1.20 g, 2.7 mmol) in Et₂O (30 mL) and stirred for 16 h. All volatiles were then removed in vacuo, and the residue was washed with pentane (3 × 30 mL) and extracted with CH₂Cl₂ (3 × 30 mL). Concentration of the combined chlorinated fractions to 5 mL followed by the addition of pentane (70 mL) afforded a colorless precipitate, which was isolated by centrifugation and dried in vacuo. Yield: 0.79 g (66%); elemental analysis calcd (%) for C₁₄H₂₃N₂ClPt (449.9): C 37.38, H 5.15, N 6.23; found C 37.20, H 5.09, N 6.12.

Synthesis of 14 (see Scheme 2): NEt₃ (5 mL, excess) was added dropwise to a suspension of 5 (1.32 g, 3.0 mmol) and 13 (0.50 g, 1.5 mmol) in CH_2Cl_2 (30 mL) over a period of 30 minutes. The reaction mixture slowly became clear and was stirred for additional 24 h before adding H₂O (20 mL). The aqueous phase was separated and extracted with CH_2Cl_2 (2 × 30 mL). The combined organic layers were dried (Na₂SO₄) and evaporated to dryness. The crude product was purified by column chromatography (SiO2; CH2Cl2/ acetone 5:1) to afford 14 as an off-white solid (1.05 g, 62 %). ¹H NMR: $\delta =$ 8.53 (t, ${}^{3}J(H,H) = 1.4$ Hz, 1H; ArH), 7.83 (d, ${}^{3}J(H,H) = 1.4$ Hz, 2H; ArH), 6.69 (s, 4H; ArH), 4.03 (s, 8H; ${}^{3}J(Pt,H) = 38$ Hz, ArCH₂N), 3.09 (s, 24H; ³*J*(Pt,H) broad, not resolved, NCH₃), 1.01 (s, 9H; SiCCH₃), 0.26 (s, 6H; SiCH₃); ${}^{13}C[{}^{1}H]$ NMR (75 MHz): $\delta = 164.4$ (C=O), 156.2 (C=O), 147.5, 144.0, 142.6 (C-Pt), 131.6, 126.2 (C-H), 124.4 (C-H), 112.9(C-H) (all ArC), 77.4 (CH2N), 54.4 (NCH3), 25.6 (SiCCH3), 18.2 (SiCMe3), -4.4 (SiCH₃); FAB-MS: m/z: found 1135.24 (calcd 1135.04); elemental analysis calcd (%) for C₃₈H₅₃Cl₂N₄O₅Pt₂Si (1135.0): C 40.21, H 4.79, N 4.94; found C 40.37, H 4.97, N 4.85.

Synthesis of 15 (see Scheme 2): Bu_4NF (0.75 mL, 1M in THF, 0.75 mmol) was added to a solution of **14** (0.85 g, 0.75 mmol) in CH₂Cl₂ (10 mL). After stirring for 30 minutes, 1,3,5-benzenetricarboxylic acid chloride (58 mg, 0.22 mmol) was added and the mixture stirred for 3 days. All volatiles were then removed in vacuo, and the residue washed with THF (2×20 mL).

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Then the residual solid was dissolved in CH₂Cl₂ (5 mL) and THF was added (20 mL), which caused precipitation of a fluffy solid after 1 h. The residue was collected and precipitated once more by the same procedure, to afford an off-white solid (0.28 g, 39 %). ¹H NMR : $\delta = 9.25$ (s, 3 H; ArH), 8.82 (brs, 3 H; ArH), 8.26 (brs, 6H; ArH), 6.71 (s, 12H; ArH), 4.04 (s, 24H; ³J(Pt,H) broad, not resolved, ArCH₂N), 3.08 (s, 72 H; ³J(Pt,H) broad, not resolved, ArCH₂N), 3.08 (s, 72 H; ³J(Pt,H) broad, not resolved, NCH₃); ¹³C[¹H] NMR (75 MHz): $\delta = 166.5$, 166.4 (both C=O), 159.5, 155.1 (both C=O), 147.5, 143.8, 141.9, 132.3, 113.1, 108.2, 106.5 (all ArC; *C*=Pt not observed), 77.5 (CH₂N), 54.4 (NCH₃); Maldi-TOF: *m/z*: found 3188.1 [*M* – CI]⁺; calcd 3185.9.

Preparation of the SO₂ adducts (7–12, 16): Bubbling SO₂ (g) over or through a CH₂Cl₂ solution of the corresponding platinum(II) complex **1–6** or **15** afforded an instantaneous color change from colorless to orange (yellowish, when **4a** is used). The adducts precipitate readily upon addition of pentane or Et₂O. Filtration yielded quantitatively the title compounds **7–12**, and **16** as orange solids (**10a**: yellowish). Drying of any of these SO₂ adducts in vacuo is not possible, because removal of SO₂ immediately takes place, thus regenerating starting complexes **1–6** and **15**, respectively. The spectroscopic characteristics of the adducts **7–12** can be found in Tables **1**, 2 and 3. Analytical data for **16**: ¹H NMR: $\delta = 9.26$ (s, 3H; ArH), 8.81 (br s, 3H; ArH), 8.32 (brs, 6H; ArH), 6.79 (s, 12H; ArH), 4.24 (s, 24H; ³J(Pt,H) broad, not resolved, ArCH₂N), 3.20 (s, 72H; ³J(Pt,H) broad, not resolved, NCH₃); UV/Vis (CH₂Cl₂): λ_{max} (ε) = 354 nm (sh, 42000 M⁻¹cm⁻¹), 405 nm (11000 M⁻¹cm⁻¹).

When a SO₂ saturated solution of **10a** or **11** in CH₂Cl₂ was exposed to pentane, crystals were obtained that were suitable for single-crystal X-ray structure determination. The crystals of **10a**, however, were colorless and not orange, as expected from the other sulfur dioxide adducts (**11**: orange needles). Indeed, no SO₂ molecules were found in the unit cell, which contains two independent molecules. The crystals, although grown in the presence of excess sulfur dioxide, contained exclusively compound **4a**.

Recovery of the starting complexes 1-6 or 15 in solution is achieved by i) continuous bubbling of N₂, O₂, or air through a solution of 7-12 or 16, respectively, in CH₂Cl₂ for 0.5 h (3 h for 11); ii) heating of a solution to 40 °C for 0.5 h (not suitable for 11); iii) addition of 30 mol equiv NEt₃ or Bu₄NX (X = Cl, Br, I) to a solution containing the SO₂ adducts; iv) extraction with aqueous NaOH (1M); v) washing the adducts with hexane or Et₃O; vi) evacuation.

Solution measurements: Measurements for the determination of the equilibrium constants K_i were performed by two different methods.

Method A: By UV-visible photospectroscopy: A solution of the appropriate Pt^{II} complex (1–6) in degassed benzene (typically 80 mM) was titrated with a solution of SO₂ of well-defined concentration (benzene).^[37] The absorption spectrum was measured by using standard quartz cuvettes in the wavelength range of 700 to 320 nm at typically ten different concentrations of SO₂. From the absorbance at λ_{max} the concentration of the corresponding SO₂ adduct was calculated (relative to the total concentration of sulfur dioxide. Correlation of the measured curve with an idealized 1:1 adduct of SO₂ and Pt was higher than 0.99 for all recorded equilibria except for **4a**.

Method B: By ¹H NMR spectroscopy: Aliquots of gaseous SO₂ (portions of 1 mL, 45 µmol, typically) were added to a well-defined amount of the appropriate Pt^{II} complex (<0.1 mmol) dissolved in CDCl₃ (0.7 mL). The shifts of the resonance signals for the CH₂N and the NCH₃ groups were recorded in relation to those of the SO₂-free complexes and plotted against the actual concentration of SO₂; this resulted in curves that correspond well with the data obtained by method A.

Kinetic measurements were carried out by using routine stopped-flow techniques. The very first UV/Vis spectrum, obtained 0.5 ms after mixing a solution of **1a** with a solution of SO₂ (both in benzene), was identical with the final spectrum of **7a**. The reverse reaction, that is, mixing of a solution of **7a** with **1a** (which has to be ca. 10 times slower, see values of K_i) did not show any kinetic trace and only the final spectrum has been observed.

Structure determination and refinement of 4a and 11: Crystals suitable for X-ray structure analysis were glued onto the tip of a glass fiber, and transferred into the cold nitrogen stream of a Nonius κ -CCD (**4a**) or an Enraf-Nonius CAD4-T diffractometer (**11**). Reduced-cell calculations did not indicate higher lattice symmetry.^[49] Crystal data and details on data collection and refinement are collected in Table 7. Data were collected at

Table 7. Crystallographic data for complexes 4a and 11.

	4a	11
color, shape	colorless cube	orange needle
empirical formula	$C_{16}H_{27}IN_2Pt$	C12H19ClN2O3PtS
formula weight	569.38	501.89
crystal system	orthorhombic	orthorhombic
space group	Pbcn (No. 60)	<i>Pna</i> 2 ₁ (No. 33)
<i>a</i> [Å]	28.3122(3)	16.837(3)
b [Å]	14.2257(1)	10.2189(16)
c Å	13.7374(1)	9.0231(10)
V[Å ³]	5532.89(8)	1552.5(4)
Z	12	4
$ ho_{ m calcd} [m g cm^{-3}]$	2.0506(1)	2.1473(6)
$\mu [\mathrm{mm}^{-1}] (\mathrm{Mo}_{\mathrm{K}a})$	9.28	9.35
F(000)	3216	960
crystal size [mm]	$0.25 \times 0.38 \times 0.50$	$0.03 \times 0.08 \times 0.25$
$(\sin\theta/\lambda)_{\rm max}$ [Å ⁻¹]	0.65	0.65
reflections collected	40 529	11626,
unique reflections	6341	2166
R _{int}	0.086	0.106
transmission range	0.050 - 0.480	0.736 - 1.223
parameters/restraints	310/138	182/79
$R_1^{[a]}$	0.0359	0.0350
$wR_2^{[b]}$	0.095	0.0558
Goodness of fit	1.02	1.054
$w^{-1[c]}$	$\sigma^2(F_o^2) + (0.0415P)^2 + 8.5439P$	$\sigma^2(F_o^2) + (0.0146P)^2$
residual electron density [e Å ⁻³]	1.14 / -0.98	0.97/-1.01

[a] $R_1 = \Sigma ||F_0| - |F_c| |\Sigma |F_0|$, for all $I > 4\sigma(I)$. [b] $wR_2 = [\Sigma [w(F_o^2 - F_c^2)^2] / \Sigma [w(F_o^2)^2]]^{1/2}$. [c] $P = (\max(F_o^2 0) + 2F_c^2)/3$.

293 K (4a) or 150 K (11), with graphite-monochromated Mo_{Ka} radiation $(\lambda = 0.71073 \text{ Å})$. Absorption corrections (DIFABS/PLATON^[50]) were applied for both complexes. The structures were solved by using automated Patterson methods and subsequent difference Fourier techniques (DIR-DIF-92^[51]). The structures were refined on F^2 using full-matrix leastsquares techniques (SHELXL-96[52]); no observance criterion was applied during refinement. Hydrogen atoms were included in the refinement on calculated positions, riding on their carrier atoms, except the oxygen-bound hydrogen in 11, which was located on the difference Fourier map and subsequently refined with a rotating model. All non-hydrogen atoms were refined with anisotropic thermal parameters. Neutral atomic scattering factors and anomalous dispersion corrections were taken from the International Tables of Crystallography. Geometrical calculations and illustrations were performed with PLATON.^[50] Crystallographic data (excluding structure factors) for the structures reported in this paper have been deposited with the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre as supplementary publication nos. CCDC-133528 (4a) and CCDC-133527 (11). Copies of the data can be obtained free of charge on application to CCDC, 12 Union Road, Cambridge CB21EZ, UK (fax: (+44)1223-336-033; e-mail: deposit@ccdc.cam.ac.uk).

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