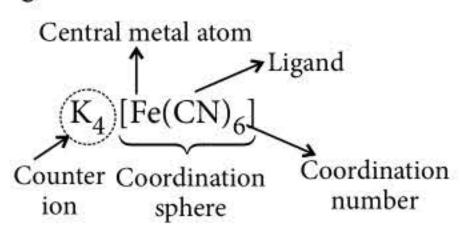
# **COORDINATION COMPOUNDS**

 A coordination compound contains a central metal atom or ion surrounded by a number of oppositely charged ions or neutral molecules, called ligands.



# **Types of Ligands**

### Monodentate

Only one donor atom is present, e.g., NH<sub>3</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, CN<sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO

#### **Bidentate**

Two donor atoms are present, e.g., ethylenediamine (en)  $CH_2 - \ddot{N}H_2$   $CH_2 - \ddot{N}H_2$   $Oxalato (ox) COO^ COO^-$ 

### Tridentate

Three donor atoms are present, e.g.,

$$H\ddot{N} \sim (CH_2)_2 \ddot{N}H_2$$
  
 $(CH_2)_2 \ddot{N}H_2$ 

Diethylenetriamine (dien)

### Polydentate

Tetradentate : Triethylenetetraamine (*trien*)
Pentadentate : Ethylenediaminetriacetate ion
Hexadentate : Ethylenediaminetetraacetate ion
(EDTA)

### Chelating ligands

A bidentate or a polydentate ligand is known as chelating ligand if on coordination it results in the formation of a closed or cyclic ring structure. The complex thus formed are called chelates.

$$\begin{bmatrix} CH_2 - H_2N \\ CU - H_2N \end{bmatrix}^{CH_2 - CH_2}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} CH_2 - H_2N \\ NH_2 - CH_2 \end{bmatrix}^{2+}$$

# EAN RULE

EAN = Z - O.N + 2(C.N)

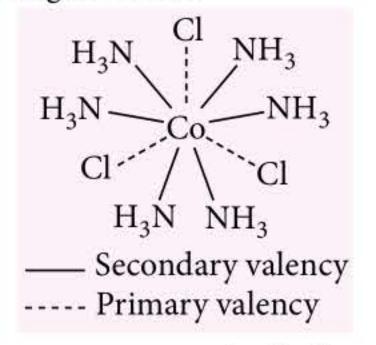
Z = Atomic number of central metal atom

O.N. = Oxidation number of central metal atom

C.N. = Coordination number of central metal atom

# WERNER'S THEORY

- Metal possesses two types of valencies, i.e., primary valency (ionisable) and secondary valency (nonionisable).
- Primary valency corresponds to the oxidation state of the central metal and secondary valency represents the coordination number of the metal.
- Primary valencies are satisfied by negative ions, while secondary valencies may be satisfied by neutral or negative ions.



 Negative ion can satisfy both primary and secondary valencies at the same time.

## Nomenclature of Coordination Compounds

# Rules for nomenclature :

- Positive ion is named first followed by negative ion.
- Negative ligands are named by adding suffix o.
- Positive ligands are named by adding suffix ium.
- Neutral ligands are named as such without adding any suffix or prefix.
- Ligands are named in alphabetical order.
- Name of the ligands is written first followed by name of metal with its oxidation number mentioned in roman numerals in simple parenthesis.
- Number of the polysyllabic ligands i.e., ligands which have numbers in their name, is indicated by prefixes bis, tris, tetrakis, etc.
- When both cation and anion are complex ions, the metal in negative complex is named by adding suffix -ate.

Ligand	Name in complexes	Ligand	Name in complexes	
Azide (N <sub>3</sub> )	Azido	Oxalate $(C_2O_4^{2-})$	Oxalato	
Bromide (Br <sup>-</sup> )	Bromido	Oxide (O <sup>2-</sup> )	Oxo	
Chloride (Cl <sup>-</sup> )	Chlorido	Ammonia (NH <sub>3</sub> )	Ammine	
Cyanide (CN <sup>-</sup> )	Cyano	Carbon monoxide (CO)	Carbonyl	
Fluoride (F <sup>-</sup> )	Fluorido	Ethylene- diamine ( <i>en</i> )	Ethylene- diamine	

Hydroxide (OH <sup>-</sup> )	Hydroxo	Pyridine (C <sub>5</sub> H <sub>5</sub> N)	Pyridine
Carbonate $(CO_3^{2-})$	Carbonato	Water (H <sub>2</sub> O)	Aqua

Few examples illustrate the nomenclature :

- [Pt(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>6</sub>]Cl<sub>4</sub> Hexaammineplatinum(IV) chloride
- $[Cu(en)_2]SO_4 bis(ethane-1,2-diamine)copper(II)$ sulphate
- K<sub>4</sub>[Fe(CN)<sub>6</sub>] Potassium hexacyanoferrate(II)
- [Pt(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>][PtCl<sub>4</sub>] Tetraamminedichlorido--platinum(IV) tetrachloridoplatinate(II)

### Ionisation isomerism

Isomerism arises in the compounds which have same molecular formula but give different ions in solution, e.g., [Co(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>5</sub>Br]SO<sub>4</sub>, [Co(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>5</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>]Br.

# Linkage isomerism

Stereoisomerism

Structural Isomerism

**Isomerism in Coordination Compounds** 

Occurs in the complex compounds which contain ambidentate ligand. e.g., [Co(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>5</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>]Cl<sub>2</sub> or [Co(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>5</sub>ONO]Cl<sub>2</sub>

# Coordination (position) isomerism

Exhibited by polynuclear complexes by interchanging the position of ligands. e.g.,

## Hydrate or solvate isomerism

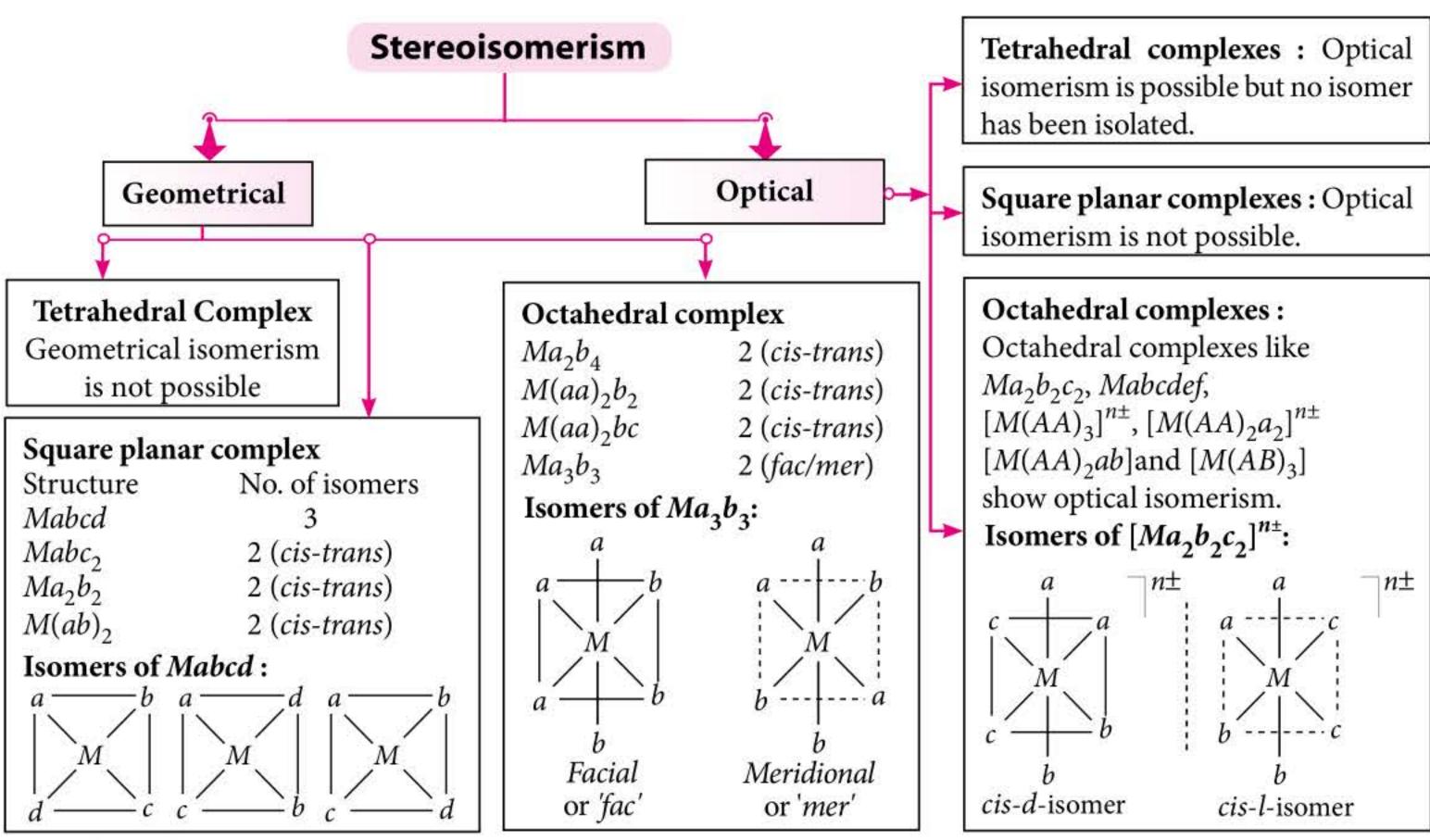
Isomerism arises when different number of water molecules are present inside and outside the coordination sphere, e.g., CrCl<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O exists in three isomeric forms.  $[Cr(H_2O)_6]Cl_3$ ,  $[Cr(H_2O)_5Cl]H_2O.Cl_2$ ,  $[Cr(H_2O)_4Cl_2]Cl.2H_2O$ 

### Polymerisation isomerism

Isomerism arises in the compounds which have same stoichiometric composition but different molecular composition.  $[Pt(NH_3)_2Cl_2]$  and  $[Pt(NH_3)_4]$   $[PtCl_4]$ 

## Coordination isomerism

Isomerism arises when both complex cation and complex anion are present.  $[Pt(NH_3)_4]$   $[CuCl_4]$  and  $[PtCl_4]$   $[Cu(NH_3)_4]$ 



<sup>\*</sup>AA and AB are bidentate ligands.

# BONDING IN COORDINATION COMPOUNDS

 For explaining the nature of bonding and different properties of coordination compounds such as colour, geometry and magnetic properties, some theories has been developed.

## Valence Bond Theory (VBT)

- The central atom uses its number of empty *s*-, *p* and *d*-atomic orbitals which is equal to its coordination number.
- These empty orbitals hybridise together to form hybrid orbitals.
- The non-bonding electrons of the metal occupy the inner orbitals.
- The *d*-orbitals participating in the process of hybridization in octahedral complexes may either be  $(n-1)d^2sp^3$ , inner or low spin complexes or  $nsp^3d^2$  outer or high spin complexes.

Coordination number	Type of hybridization	Geometry	Examples
2	sp	Linear	$[Ag(NH_3)_2]^+, [Ag(CN)_2]^-$
3	sp <sup>2</sup>	Trigonal planar	[HgI <sub>3</sub> ] <sup>-</sup>
4	sp <sup>3</sup> $dsp^2$	Tetrahedral Square planar	[Ni(CO) <sub>4</sub> ], [NiX <sub>4</sub> ] <sup>2-</sup> , [ZnCl <sub>4</sub> ] <sup>2-</sup> , [CuX <sub>4</sub> ] <sup>2-</sup> (where $X = Cl^-$ , Br <sup>-</sup> , I <sup>-</sup> ) [Ni(CN) <sub>4</sub> ] <sup>2-</sup> , [Cu(NH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> ] <sup>2+</sup> [Ni(NH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> ] <sup>2+</sup>
5	sp <sup>3</sup> d	Trigonal bipyramidal	[Fe(CO) <sub>5</sub> ], [SbF <sub>5</sub> ] <sup>2-</sup>
6	$d^2sp^3$ or $sp^3d^2$	Octahedral	$[Cr(NH_3)_6]^{3+}$ , $[Fe(CN)_6]^{3-}$ $[FeF_6]^{3-}$ , $[Fe(H_2O)_6]^{2+}$ , $[Ni(NH_3)_6]^{2+}$

### Differences between inner orbital and outer orbital complexes:

S.N.	Inner orbital octahedral complexes or low spin complexes	Outer orbital octahedral complexes or high spin complexes	
1.	The complexes are formed by strong ligands and showing $d^2sp^3$ -hybridisation.	The complexes are formed by weak ligands and showing $sp^3d^2$ -hybridisation.	
2.	These complexes generally possess less number of unpaired electrons <i>i.e.</i> , they show either low or no magnetic moment.	These complexes generally possess greater number of unpaired electrons <i>i.e.</i> , they show high magnetic moment.	
3.	These are less reactive <i>i.e.</i> , more stable. Substitution reactions are difficult to occur.	These are reactive <i>i.e.</i> , less stable. Substitution reactions are easy to occur.	

# **Crystal Field Theory (CFT)**

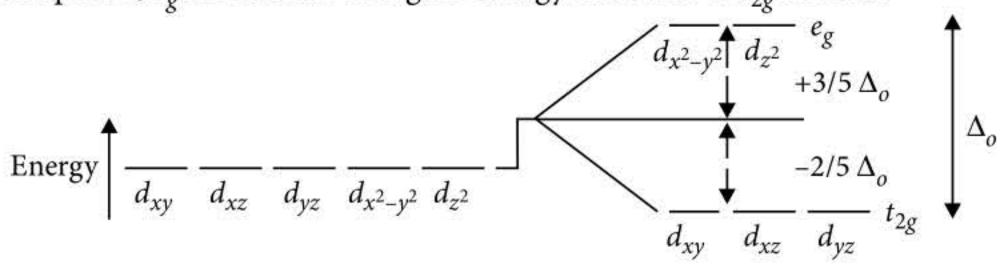
- According to crystal field theory, the bonding in complexes is purely electrostatic.
- The complex is regarded as a combination of a central metal ion surrounded by ligands which act as point charges or point dipoles.
- Interaction between positively charged central metal ion or atom and the negatively charged ligands are of two types.
  - The attractive forces arise due to the positive metal ion and the negatively charged ligands or the negative end of a polar neutral molecules.
  - The repulsive forces arise between the lone pairs on the ligands and electrons in the *d*-orbitals of

the metal or atom.

- In a free transition metal or ion, there are five d-orbitals which are designated as  $d_{xy}$ ,  $d_{yz}$ ,  $d_{zx}$ ,  $d_{x^2-y^2}$  and  $d_{z^2}$ . The five d-orbitals are split into two sets, depending on the nature of their orientation in space. This splitting known as crystal field splitting.
- The splitting is different in different structures with different coordination numbers. The crystal field splitting (Δ<sub>o</sub>) depends upon the nature of the ligands. The ligands which cause only a small degree of crystal field splitting are called weak field ligands while those which cause a large degree of splitting are called strong field ligands.

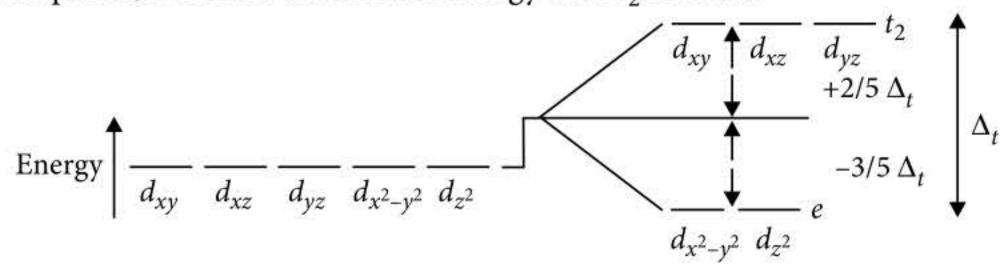
Strong Weak 
$$\longrightarrow$$
 CO > CN<sup>-</sup> > NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> > en > NH<sub>3</sub>  $\approx$  Py > EDTA > H<sub>2</sub>O > ox > OH<sup>-</sup> > F<sup>-</sup> > NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> > Cl<sup>-</sup> > SCN<sup>-</sup> > Br<sup>-</sup> > l<sup>-</sup> Relative ligand field strengths

• In octahedral complexes,  $e_q$  orbitals are of higher energy than that of  $t_{2q}$  orbitals.



Splitting of *d*-orbitals in an octahedral complex

• In tetrahedral complexes, e orbitals are of lower energy than  $t_2$  orbitals.



Splitting of d-orbitals in a tetrahedral complex

Splitting in tetrahedral complexes ( $\Delta_t$ ) is considerably less than in octahedral complexes ( $\Delta_o$ ) i.e.,  $\Delta_t \approx 4/9 \Delta_o$ 

### **Calculation of CFSE**

• In an octahedral complex, each electron occupying  $t_{2g}$  orbital results in lowering of energy by  $-0.40~\Delta_o$  (or  $-4~\mathrm{Dq}$ ). Similarly, each electron occupying  $e_g$  orbital results in increase of energy by  $+0.60~\Delta_o$  (or  $+6~\mathrm{Dq}$ ). Thus, CFSE =  $(-0.4x + 0.6y)~\Delta_o$ 

where, x = number of electrons occupying  $t_{2g}$  orbitals and y = number of electrons occupying  $e_g$  orbitals. Negative value of CFSE indicates net lowering in energy, *i.e.*, gain in stability.

Calculation of CFSE Values for  $d^1$  to  $d^{10}$  Configurations

Metal ion configuration	Low spin state (strong field ligand)	CFSE (Δ <sub>o</sub> /Dq)	High spin state (weak field ligand)	CFSE ( $\Delta_o$ /Dq)
$d^1$	$t_{2g}^1$ $e_g^0$	$-0.4 \times 1 = -0.4 \Delta_o$ or $-4$ Dq	$t_{2g}^1\ e_g^0$	$-0.4 \times 1 = -0.4 \Delta_o$ or $-4 \mathrm{Dq}$
$d^2$	$t_{2g}^2 e_g^0$	$-0.4 \times 2 = -0.8 \Delta_o \text{ or } -8 \text{ Dq}$	$t_{2g}^2 e_g^0$	$-0.4 \times 2 = -0.8 \Delta_o$ or $-8 \mathrm{Dq}$
$d^3$	$t_{2g}^3 e_g^0$	$-0.4 \times 3 = -1.2 \ \Delta_o \ \text{or} \ -12 \ \text{Dq}$	$t_{2g}^{3} e_{g}^{0}$	$-0.4 \times 3 = -1.2 \Delta_o \text{ or } -12 \text{ Dq}$
$d^4$	$t_{2g}^4 e_g^0$	$-0.4 \times 4 = -1.6 \Delta_o \text{ or } -16 \mathrm{Dq}$	$t_{2g}^3 e_g^1$	$-0.4 \times 3 + 0.6 = -0.6 \Delta_o \text{ or } -6 \text{ Dq}$
$d^5$	$t_{2g}^5 e_g^0$	$-0.4 \times 5 = -2.0 \ \Delta_o \ \text{or} \ -20 \ \text{Dq}$	$t_{2g}^{3} e_{g}^{2}$	$-0.4 \times 3 + 2 \times 0.6 = 0.0 \Delta_o \text{ or } 0 \text{ Dq}$
$d^6$	$t_{2g}^6 \ e_g^0$	$-0.4 \times 6 = -2.4 \Delta_o$ or $-24 \mathrm{Dq}$	$t_{2g}^4 e_g^2$	$-0.4 \times 4 + 2 \times 0.6 = -0.4 \Delta_o \text{ or } -4 \text{ Dq}$
$d^7$	$t_{2g}^6 \ e_g^1$	$-0.4 \times 6 + 0.6 = -1.8  \Delta_o \text{ or } -18 \text{ Dq}$	$t_{2g}^5 e_g^2$	$-0.4 \times 5 + 2 \times 0.6 = -0.8 \Delta_o \text{ or } -8 \text{ Dq}$
$d^8$	$t_{2g}^{6} e_{g}^{2}$	$-0.4 \times 6 + 2 \times 0.6 = -1.2 \Delta_o \text{ or } -12 \text{ Dq}$	$t_{2g}^{6} e_{g}^{2}$	$-0.4 \times 6 + 2 \times 0.6 = -1.2 \Delta_o \text{ or } -12 \mathrm{Dq}$
$d^9$	$t_{2g}^{6} e_{g}^{3}$	$-0.4 \times 6 + 3 \times 0.6 = -0.6 \Delta_o \text{ or } -6 \text{ Dq}$	$t_{2g}^6 e_g^3$	$-0.4 \times 6 + 3 \times 0.6 = -0.6 \Delta_o \text{ or } -6 \text{ Dq}$
$d^{10}$	$t_{2g}^6 e_g^4$	$-0.4 \times 6 + 4 \times 0.6 = 0.0 \Delta_o \text{ or } 0 \text{ Dq}$	$t_{2g}^6 e_g^4$	$-0.4 \times 6 + 4 \times 0.6 = 0.0 \Delta_o \text{ or } 0 \text{ Dq}$

Similarly, for tetrahedral complex CFSE =  $(-0.6 x + 0.4 y) \Delta_t$ 

- The actual configuration adopted by the complex is decided by the relative values of Δ<sub>o</sub> and P, where P represents the energy required for electron pairing in a single orbital.
- If  $\Delta_o$  is less than  $P(\Delta_o < P)$ , we have weak field, the fourth electron will enter one of the  $e_g$  orbitals giving the configuration,  $t_{2g}^3 e_g^1$ . It will be high spin complex.
- If  $\Delta_o$  is more than  $P(\Delta_o > P)$ , we have strong field and the pairing will occur in the  $t_{2g}$  orbitals with  $e_g$  orbitals remaining unoccupied giving the configuration,  $t_{2g}^4$ . It will be low spin complex.

# STABILITY OF COORDINATION COMPOUNDS

• Consider the following reaction  $M + 4L \rightleftharpoons ML_4$  ...(i) The equilibrium constant for the reaction is called the stability constant and is represented by  $\beta_4$ .

$$\beta_4 = \frac{[ML_4]}{[M][L]^4}$$

Larger the stability constant, higher is the proportion of  $ML_4$  that exists in solution.

$$M + L \Longrightarrow ML$$
;  $K_1 = \frac{[ML]}{[M][L]}$ 

$$ML + L \Longrightarrow ML_2; \quad K_2 = \frac{[ML_2]}{[ML][L]}$$

$$ML_2 + L \Longrightarrow ML_3$$
;  $K_3 = \frac{[ML_3]}{[ML_2][L]}$ 

$$ML_3 + L \Longrightarrow ML_4$$
;  $K_4 = \frac{[ML_4]}{[ML_3][L]}$ 

 $K_1$ ,  $K_2$  etc. referred to as stepwise stability constants. Overall stability constant,  $\beta_4 = K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3 \times K_4$ ,

or, 
$$\beta_4 = \frac{[ML_4]}{[M][L]^4}$$

The instability constant or the dissociation constant of coordination compounds is defined as the reciprocal of the formation constant (stability constant).

# **O**RGANOMETALLIC COMPOUNDS

## Organometallic compounds:

Compounds in which metal is directly attached to carbon, are called organometallic compounds.

# Sigma bonded compounds

# $\pi$ -bonded compounds

## $\sigma$ and $\pi$ bonded compounds

Metal carbon bond is sigma bond. e.g., R - Mg - X,  $R_2\text{Zn}$ ,  $(\text{CH}_3)_4\text{Sn}$ ,  $(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_4\text{Pb}$  etc.

Metal and ligands form a bond that involve  $\pi$ -electrons of ligands. *e.g.*, ferrocene, zeise's salt, etc.

These compound possess both  $\sigma$  -and  $\pi$ - bonding between M and ligands. e.g., Ni(CO)<sub>4</sub>, Fe(CO)<sub>5</sub>, Cr(CO)<sub>6</sub> etc.

# BONDING OF METAL CARBONYLS

 In a metal carbonyl, the metal-carbon bond possesses both the σ- and π-character. A σ-bond between metal and carbon atoms is formed when a vacant hybrid orbital of the metal atom overlaps with an orbital on C atom of carbon monoxide containing a lone pair of electrons.

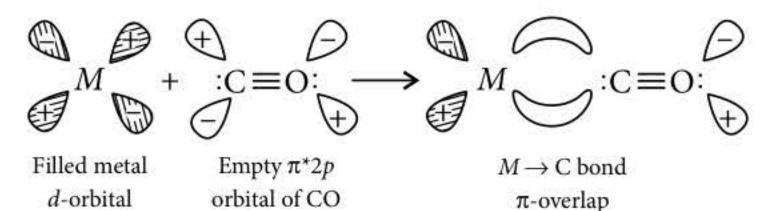
$$\bigcirc M \bigcirc + + \bigcirc C \equiv O : \longrightarrow \bigcirc M \bigcirc + \bigcirc C \equiv O :$$

Vacant orbital on metal

Lone pair

 $\sigma$ -overlap  $M \leftarrow C$  bond

Formation of  $\pi$ -bond is caused when a filled orbital of the metal atom overlaps with a vacant antibonding  $\pi^*$  orbital of C atom of carbon monoxide. This overlap is also called back donation of electrons by metal atom to carbon *i.e.*, synergic bonding.



The  $\pi$ -overlap is perpendicular to the nodal plane of  $\sigma$ -bond.

# IMPORTANCE OF COORDINATION COMPOUNDS

- In both qualitative and quantitative methods of analysis.
- In metallurgical operations.
- In photography.
- In electroplating: Metal complexes release metal slowly and thus give a uniform coating *i.e.*, electroplating of the metal on the desired object.
- In biological processes: Coordination compounds are essential in storage and transport of oxygen as electron transfer agents, acts as catalysts and are used in photosynthesis.
- In medicinal field: The complex of Ca with EDTA
  is used for treatment of lead poisoning. Cis-platin is
  used as an antitumor agent.



### Some Recent Developments in Coordination Chemistry

Catalysts of the type  $(R_3Q)_2MX_2$  (R is an alkyl, aryl, or phenoxy group; Q is P, As, or Sb; M is Ni, Pd, or Pt, X is a halogen or halogenoid are recently developed. In the presence of such a substance, polyunsaturated compounds, especially esters of long chain fatty acids are hydrogenated until one double bond remains. The hydrogenation is preceded by *cis-trans* rearrangement of the double bond and migration of the double bonds along the carbon chain ocours for a conjugated system. Another research project has shown that certain bacteria can utilize the nitrogen from d- $[Co(en)_3]Cl_3$  but that l- $[Co(en)_3]Cl_3$  inhibits their growth.