Co-ordination Compounds

• Co-ordination compounds:

- 1. A coordination compound contains a central metal atom or ion surrounded by number of oppositely charged ions or neutral molecules. These ions or molecules re bonded to the metal atom or ion by a coordinate bond.
- 2. Example: $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$
- 3. They do not dissociate into simple ions when dissolved in water.

Double salt

- 1. When two salts in stoichiometric ratio are crystallised together from their saturated solution they are called double salts
- 2. Example: $FeSO_4$. (NH_4) $2SO_4$. 6H2O (Mohr's salt)
- 3. They dissociate into simple ions when dissolved in water.

• Coordination entity:

- 1. A coordination entity constitutes a central metal atom or ion bonded to a fixed number of ions or molecules.
- 2. Example: In K_4 [$Fe(CN)_6$], $[Fe(CN)_6]^{4-}$ represents coordination entity.

• Central atom or ion:

- 1. In a coordination entity, the atom/ion to which a fixed number of ions/groups are bound in a definite geometrical arrangement around it, is called the central atom or ion.
- 2. Example: In $K_4[Fe(CN)_6, Fe]^{'}$ is the central metal ion.

• Ligands:

- 1. A molecule, ion or group that is bonded to the metal atom or ion in a complex or coordination compound by a coordinate bond is called ligand.
- 2. It may be neutral, positively or negatively charged.
- 3. Examples: H_2O , CN^- , NO^+ etc.

• Donor atom:

- 1. An atom of the ligand attached directly to the metal is called the donor atom.
- 2. Example: In the complex $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$, CN is a donor atom.

Coordination number:

- 1. The coordination number (CN) of a metal ion in a complex can be defined as the number of ligand donor atoms to which the metal is directly bonded.
- 2. Example: In the complex K_4 [$Fe(CN)_6$], the coordination number of Fe is 6.

• Coordination sphere:

- 1. The central atom/ion and the ligands attached to it are enclosed in square bracket and are collectively termed as the coordination sphere.
- 2. Example: In the complex $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$, $[Fe(CN)_6]^{4-}$ is the coordination sphere.

Counter ions:

- 1. The ions present outside the coordination sphere are called counter ions.
- 2. Example: In the complex $K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$, K+ is the counter ion.

• Coordination polyhedron:

- 1. The spatial arrangement of the ligand atoms which are directly attached to the central atom/ ion defines a coordination polyhedron about the central atom.
- 2. The most common coordination polyhedra are octahedral, square planar and tetrahedral.
- 3. Examples: $[PtCl_4]^{2-}$ is square planar, $Ni(CO)_4$ is tetrahedral while [Cu(NH3)6]3+ is octahedral.

- **Charge on the complex ion:** The charge on the complex ion is equal to the algebraic sum of the charges on all the ligands coordinated to the central metal ion.
- **Denticity:** The number of ligating (linking) atoms present in ligand is called denticity.

• Unidentate ligands:

- 1. The ligands whose only one donor atom is bonded to metal atom are called unidentate ligands.
- 2. Examples: H_2O , NH_3 , CO, CN^-

• Didentate ligands:

- 1. The ligands which contain two donor atoms or ions through which they are bonded to the metal ion.
- 2. Examples: Ethylene diamine $(H_2NCH_2CH_2NH_2)$ has two nitrogen atoms, oxalate ion $\begin{pmatrix} COO^- \\ I \end{pmatrix}$ has two oxygen atoms which can bind with the metal atom.

• Polydentate ligand:

- 1. When several donor atoms are present in a single ligand, the ligand is called polydentate ligand.
- 2. Examples: In $N(CH_2CH_2NH_2)_3$, the ligand is said to be polydentate and Ethylenediaminetetraacetate ion $(EDTA^{4--})$ is an important hexadentate ligand. It can bind through two nitrogen and four oxygen atoms to a central metal ion.

• Chelate:

- 1. An inorganic metal complex in which there is a close ring of atoms caused by attachment of a ligand to a metal atom at two points.
- 2. An example is the complex ion formed between ethylene diamine and cupric ion, $\left[Cu(NH_2\,CH_2\,NH_2\,)_2\right]^{2+}$.

• Ambidentate ligand:

- 1. Ligands which can ligate (link) through two different atoms present in it are called ambidentate ligand.
- 2. Example: NO^{2-} and SCN^- . Here, NO^{2-} can link through N as well as O while SCN^- can link through S as well as N atom.

• Werner's coordination theory:

- 1. Werner was able to explain the nature of bonding in complexes.
- 2. The postulates of Werner's theory are:
- a). Metal shows two different kinds of valencies: primary valence and secondary valence.
- b). The ions/ groups bound by secondary linkages to the metal have characteristic spatial arrangements corresponding to different coordination numbers.
- c). The most common geometrical shapes in coordination compounds are octahedral, square planar and tetrahedral.

• Primary valence

- 1. This valence is normally ionisable.
- 2. It is equal to positive charge on central metal atom.
- 3. These valencies are satisfied by negatively charged ions.
- 4. Example: In $CrCl_3$, the primary valency is three. It is equal to oxidation state of central metal ion.

• Secondary valence

- 1. This valence is non –ionisable.
- 2. The secondary valency equals the number of ligand atoms coordinated to the metal. It is also called coordination number of the metal.
- 3. It is commonly satisfied by neutral and negatively charged, sometimes by positively charged ligands.

- **Oxidation number of central atom:** The oxidation number of the central atom in a complex is defined as the charge it would carry if all the ligands are removed along with the electron pairs that are shared with the central atom.
- **Homoleptic complexes:** Those complexes in which metal or ion is coordinate bonded to only one kind of donor atoms. For example: $\left[Co(NH_3)_6\right]^{3+}$
- **Heteroleptic complexes:** Those complexes in which metal or ion is coordinate bonded to more than one kind of donor atoms. For example: $[CoCl_2(NH_3)_4]^+$, $[Co(NH_3)_5Br]^{2+}$
- **Isomers:** Two or more compounds which have same chemical formula but different arrangement of atoms are called isomers.

• Types of isomerism:

- a). Linkage isomerism
- b). Solvate isomerism or hydrate isomerism
- c). Ionisation isomerism
- d). Coordination isomerism
- 1. Structural isomerism
- 2. Stereoisomerism
- a). Geometrical isomerism
- b). Optical isomerism

• Structural isomerism:

- 1. It arises due to the difference in structures of coordination compounds.
- 2. Structural isomerism, or constitutional isomerism, is a form of isomerism in which molecules with the same molecular formula have atoms bonded together in different orders.

Ionisation isomerism:

- 1. It arises when the counter ion in a complex salt is itself a potential ligand and can displace a ligand which can then become the counter ion.
- 2. Example: $[Co(NH_3)_5Br]$ SO_4 and $[Co(NH_3)_5SO_4]$ Br

Solvate isomerism:

- 1. It is isomerism in which solvent is involved as ligand.
- 2. If solvent is water it is called hydrate isomerism, e.g., $[Cr(H_2O)_6]Cl_3$ and $[CrCl_2(H_2O)_4]Cl_2$. $2H_2O$.

• Linkage isomerism:

- 1. It arises in a coordination compound containing ambidentate ligand.
- 2. In the isomerism, a ligand can form linkage with metal through different atoms.
- 3. Example: $[Co(NH_3)_5ONO]Cl_2$ and $[Co(NH_3)_5NO_2]Cl_2$.

• Coordination isomerism:

- 1. This type of isomerism arises from the interchange of ligands between cationic and anionic entities of different metal ions present in a complex.
- 2. Example: $[Co(NH_3)_6][Cr(C_2O_4)_3]$ and $[Cr(NH_3)_6][Co(C_2O_4)_3]$.
 - **Stereoisomerism:** This type of isomerism arises because of different spatial arrangement.
 - **Geometrical isomerism:** It arises in heteroleptic complexes due to different possible geometrical arrangements of ligands.
 - **Optical isomerism:** Optical isomers are those isomers which are non-superimposable mirror images.

Valence bond theory:

- 1. According to this theory, the metal atom or ion under the influence of ligands can use its (n-1)d, ns, np or ns, np, nd orbitals for hybridisation to yield a set of equivalent orbitals of definite geometry such as octahedral, tetrahedral, and square planar.
- 2. These hybridised orbitals are allowed to overlap with ligand orbitals that can donate electron pairs for bonding.

Coordination Number	Type of hybridisation	Shape of hybrid
4	sp^3	Tetrahedral
4	dsp^2	Square planar
5	sp^3d	Trigonalbipyramidal
6	sp^3d^2 (nd orbitals are involved – outer orbital complex or high spin or spin free complex)	Octahedral
6	$d^2sp^3\left(n-1 ight)$ d orbitals are involved –inner orbital or low spin or spin paired complex)	Octahedral

• Magnetic properties of coordination compounds:

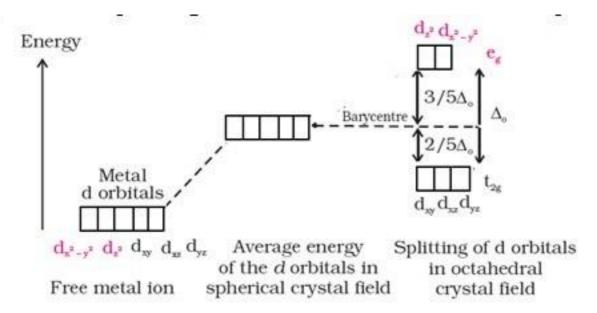
A coordination compound is paramagnetic in nature if it has unpaired electrons and diamagnetic if all the electrons in the coordination compound are paired.

Magnetic moment $\mu = \sqrt{n(n+2)}$ where n is number of unpaired electrons.

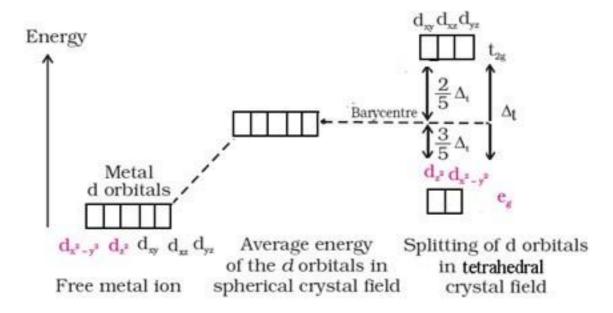
• Crystal Field Theory:

- 1. It assumes the ligands to be point charges and there is electrostatic force of attraction between ligands and metal atom or ion.
- 2. It is theoretical assumption.

Crystal field splitting in octahedral coordination complexes:



• Crystal field splitting in tetrahedral coordination complexes:



• For the same metal, the same ligands and metal-ligand distances, the difference in energy between eg and t2g level is $\Delta_t=-\frac{4}{9}\Delta_0$

• Metal carbonyls:

- 1. Metal carbonyls are homoleptic complexes in which carbon monoxide (CO) acts as the ligand.
- 2. Example: $Ni(CO)_4$
- 3. The metal-carbon bond in metal carbonyls possess both s and p character.
- 4. The M-C σ bond is formed by the donation of lone pair of electrons from the carbonyl carbon into a vacant orbital of the metal.
- 5. The M–C π bond is formed by the donation of a pair of electrons from a filled d orbital of metal into the vacant antibonding π * orbital of carbon monoxide.
- 6. The metal to ligand bonding creates a synergic effect which strengthens the bond between CO and the metal.