## Alfred Werner



Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 1913 for his studies on the structure of coordination complexes

## Coordination Complex

Typically consists of a complex ion and counterions (anions or cations as needed to produce a neutral compound)
$\left[\mathrm{Co}\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)_{5} \mathrm{Cl}\right] \mathrm{Cl}_{2}-\left[\mathrm{Co}\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)_{5} \mathrm{Cl}\right]^{2+}$ and two Cl ; Co is in +3 oxidation state $\mathbf{K}_{3}\left[\mathrm{Fe}(\mathbf{C N})_{6}\right]-\left[\mathrm{Fe}(\mathrm{CN})_{6}\right]^{3-}$ and three $\mathrm{K}^{+} ; \mathrm{Fe}$ is in +3 oxidation state

Coordination number is the Number of bonds formed between the metal ion and the ligands in the complex ion. The most common coordination numbers are 4 and 6.


## The Metal Ion



## Ligands

Neutral molecules or ions having a lone electron pair that can be used to form a bond to a metal ion.

Monodentate ligand - one bond to a metal ion


Bi and polydentate ligand - Two or more bonds to a metal ion


oxalate (ox)


## Most Common Geometries



Terruhedral


## Isomerism

On finding compounds with different properties follow the chart below...


## Ionization Isomerism

They form different ions in solution.

$$
\begin{gathered}
{\left[\mathrm{Cr}\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)_{5} \mathrm{SO}_{4}\right] \mathrm{Br} \text { and }\left[\mathrm{Cr}\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)_{5} \mathrm{Br}\right] \mathrm{SO}_{4}} \\
{\left[\mathrm{PtBr}\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)_{3}\right] \mathrm{NO}_{2} \text { and }\left[\mathrm{Pt}\left(\mathrm{NO}_{2}\right)\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)_{3}\right] \mathrm{Br}}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Coordination Isomerism

Found in compounds in which both cations and anions are complexes, through the exchange of some ligands from the cationic part to the anionic part

$$
\begin{gathered}
{\left[\mathrm{Co}\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)_{6}\right]\left[\mathrm{Cr}\left(\mathrm{C}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{4}\right)_{3}\right] \text { and }\left[\mathrm{Co}\left(\mathrm{C}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{4}\right)_{3}\right]\left[\mathrm{Cr}\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)_{6}\right]} \\
{\left[\mathrm{Zn}\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)_{4}\right]\left[\mathrm{CuCl}_{4}\right] \text { and }\left[\mathrm{ZnCl}_{4}\right]\left[\mathrm{Cu}\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)_{4}\right]}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Hydrate Isomerism

Through the replacement of coordinated groups by water molecules

$$
\begin{gathered}
{\left[\mathrm{CrCl}_{2}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{4}\right] \mathrm{Cl}_{2} 2 \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O} \text { (bright-green) }} \\
{\left[\mathrm{CrCl}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{5}\right] \mathrm{Cl}_{2} \cdot \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O} \text { (grey-green) }} \\
{\left[\mathrm{Cr}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{6}\right] \mathrm{Cl}_{3} \text { (violet) }}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Linkage Isomerism

Occurs with ambidentate ligands. These ligands are capable of coordinating in more than one way. The best known cases involve the monodentate ligands SCN- / NCS- and $\mathrm{NO}_{2}{ }^{-}$/ ONO.




$\left[\mathrm{Co}\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)_{5}\left(\mathrm{NO}_{2}\right)\right] \mathrm{Cl}_{2}$ and $\left[\mathrm{Co}\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)_{5}(\mathrm{ONO})\right] \mathrm{Cl}_{2}$


Nitro isomer


Nitrito isomer

## Geometrical Isomerism

Geometrical isomerism is possible with square planar and octahedral complexes but not with tetrahedral complexes.

## Square planar Complexes

$\mathbf{M a}_{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{2}}-2$ isomers are possible (cis and trans)

trans


Mabcd- 3 isomers are possible




## Geometrical Isomerism

## Octahedral Complexes

$\mathbf{M a}_{\mathbf{4}} \mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{2}}-2$ isomers are possible (cis and trans)

trans

cis
$\mathbf{M a}_{3} \mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{3}}-2$ isomers are possible (fac and mer)

$\mathbf{M A A}_{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{2}}-3$ isomers are possible ( 2 cis and 1 trans)


## Optical Isomerism

Optical isomers are related as non-superimposable mirror images and differ in the direction with which they rotate plane-polarized light. These are possible for both tetrahedral and octahedral complexes, but not square planar.


The absence of a plane of symmetry ensures optical activity in most cases


## Valence Bond Theory

The model utilizes hybridization of metal valence orbitals to account for the observed structures and magnetic properties of complexes. ( $\mathrm{n}-1$ )d, ns and $n p$ undergo hybridization to give hybridized orbitals. An empty hybrid orbital on the metal center can accept a pair of electrons from a ligand to form a $\sigma$-bond.

Octahedral complex of $\mathrm{Co}($ III $)-d^{6}$

$\mathrm{Pt}\left[\mathrm{Cl}_{4}{ }^{2-}\right.$ which is diamagnetic $-d^{8}$ square planar

$\mathrm{Ni}^{\mathrm{N}} \mathrm{Cl}_{4}{ }_{4}{ }^{2-}$ which is paramagnetic $-d^{8}$ tetrahedral


## Limitations of Valence Bond Theory

- The exhibition of color by coordination complexes is not explained
- Quantitative interpretation of magnetic data is not given
- Whether a complex of coordination number 4 is square planar or tetrahedral cannot be exactly predicted
- Weak and strong ligands cannot be distinguished
- The thermodynamic and kinetic stabilities of complexes are not quantitatively interpreted


## Crystal Field Theory

Proposed by Hans Bethe and van Vleck in 1929.
The assumptions of the crystal field theory are as follow:

- The interaction between the metal ion and the ligand is assumed to be purely electrostatic (ionic) in nature.
- The ligands are treated as point charges. CFT does not allow for any overlap between the metal orbitals and the ligand orbitals.


## Consequences

Metal ions are attracted to the electron pairs in ligands
The lone pair of electrons in the ligands repel the electrons present in the d orbitals
These interactions are called crystal field
Such interactions affect the energy of the d orbitals but not uniformly
d orbitals




## Octahedral Field

The corners of octahedron are assumed to be placed on the axes.
The ligands approach along the axes and occupy the corners
Electrons in the d orbitals lying along the axes are repelled the most, while those lying in between the axes are less repelled


## Crystal Field Splitting in an Octahedral Field



The higher energy set of orbitals $\left(d_{z^{2}}\right.$ and $d_{x^{2}-y^{2}}$ ) are labeled as $\mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{g}}$ and the lower energy set is labeled as $\mathrm{t}_{2 \mathrm{~g}}$. These notations are based on the symmetry of the orbitals.

The energy separation between the two levels is denoted by $\Delta_{o}$ or 10 Dq .
To maintain the average energy, the $\mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{g}}$ orbitals need to be repelled by an amount of 0.6 $\Delta \mathrm{o}$ and the $\mathrm{t}_{2 \mathrm{~g}}$ orbitals to be stabilized to the extent of $0.4 \Delta \mathrm{o}$.

## Tetrahedral Field



The higher energy set of orbitals ( $d_{x z}, d_{y z}, d_{x y}$ ) are labeled as $t_{2}$ and the lower energy set ( $d_{z^{2}}$ and $d_{x^{2}-y^{2}}$ ) is labeled as e .

The crystal field splitting in the tetrahedral field is intrinsically smaller than in the octahedral field. For most purposes the relationship may be represented as $\Delta_{\mathrm{t}}=\mathbf{4 / 9} \boldsymbol{\Delta}_{\mathbf{o}}$

