

WJEC Chemistry A-level

3.4: Chemistry of the *d*-block Transition Metals

Detailed Notes

Welsh Specification

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Transition Metal Properties

The transition metals are elements in the **d-block** of the periodic table with a **partially filled d-orbital** of electrons. They lose electrons to form positive ions with the s-orbital electrons being removed first.

All transition metals have **similar physical properties** including atomic radius, high densities and high melting and boiling points. They all also have special **chemical properties**:

- They form complexes
- They form coloured ions
- Variable oxidation states
- Good catalysts

Variable Oxidation States

A key chemical property of the d-block transition metals is that they can exist in variable oxidation states. Elements such as vanadium, manganese, chromium and iron all show variable oxidation states because the energy levels of the 4s and 3d sublevels are very close to one another. This means that different numbers of electrons can be gained or lost using similar amounts of energy.

Generally, the **oxidation state** of the metal ion formed depends on the **energetics** of the reaction.

Iron is a transition metal with variable oxidation states. Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ are the main ions it commonly forms but Fe⁶⁺ can also be produced as part of ferrate(VI) ions, FeO₄²⁻.

Most Stable Oxidation States

Transition Metal	Oxidation States
Chromium (Cr)	+2, +3, +6
Manganese (Mn)	+2, +4, +7
Iron (Fe)	+2, +3
Cobalt (Co)	+2, +3
Copper (Cu)	+1, +2









These different oxidation states can also produce different coloured aqueous solutions:

Metal Species	Solution Colour
Cr ³⁺	Green
CrO ₄ ²⁻	Yellow
Cr ₂ O ₇ ²⁻	Orange
MnO ₄ -	Purple
Co ²⁺	Pink
Fe ²⁺	Pale green
Fe ³⁺	Brown to yellow

Complexes

Complexes form from transition metals, consisting of a central metal ion or atom surrounded by coordinately bonded ligands.

Example:

They can also be represented in formulas using square brackets.

Example:

$$[Co(H_2O)_6]^{2+}$$











Ligands

Ligands are **molecules**, **atoms** or **ions** which donates a **pair of electrons** to a central transition metal ion to form a **coordinate bond**.

Common ligands include:

- Cl⁻
- H₂O
- NH₃

Coordination Number

The coordination number is equal to the **number of coordinate bonds** formed around the central metal ion.

Common coordination numbers are 6 and 4. For small ligands, like NH₃ or H₂O, the coordination number is 6. However, for larger ligands like Cl⁻, only 4 can fit around the central metal ion so the coordination number is 4.

Some silver complexes have a coordination number of 2 as they only form 2 coordinate bonds. This gives the complex a linear shape:

$$[NH_3-Ag-NH_3]^+$$

Octahedral Complexes

Transition metal complexes with H₂O and NH₃ ligands commonly form octahedral complexes with a bond angle of 90°.

Example:

The ligands don't all have to be the same, but they must be of a **similar size** to maintain the octahedral shape.







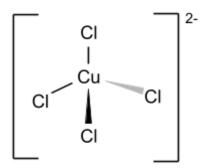




Tetrahedral Complexes

When complexes form with larger ligands such as CI, they form tetrahedral complexes with a bond angle of 109.5°.

Example:

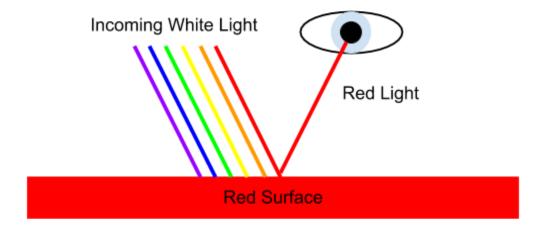


Coloured Compounds

Transition metal ions can be identified by their colour, which depends on the coordination number of the complex, type of ligand bonded to the ion and the oxidation state.

Observing colour

Colour arises because of how substances **absorb** and **reflect** light. When **white light shines** on a substance, some of the **wavelengths of light are absorbed** but the remaining wavelengths are **reflected** and **transmitted** to the human eye. These **reflected wavelengths** correspond to a specific colour which is then **observed** by the human eye.













Electrons in the **d-orbital** exist in a series of **energy states**. When they are given energy, they move from ground state (n=1) to a higher energy state called an 'excited state'.

The change in energy (ΔE) between these states corresponds to a wavelength and **frequency** of light which can be calculated:

n=2
$$\Delta E = \frac{hc}{\lambda} = hv$$
n=1

(υ = frequency in hertz) (λ = wavelength in meters) (h = Planck's constant, 6.63x10⁻³⁴)

When the ligands form a coordinate bond with the transition metal ion, there is repulsion from the ligands' electrons and the electrons in the d orbitals of the metal ion. This increases the energy of the d orbitals, but due to the spatial arrangement of the d orbitals, the energies are not all raised by the same amount. This **splits** the orbitals into groups.

Different ligands on the metal complex lead to different splittings of the d orbitals, which is why the different complexes display different colours.











Colours of Octahedral Compounds

[Cu(H₂O)₂]²⁺ - When present, these complex ions produce a pale blue solution.

 $[Cu(NH_3)_4(H_2O)_3]^{2+}$ - When present, these complex ions produce a deep blue solution.

[Co(H₂O)₆]²⁺ - When present, these complex ions produce a pink solution.

These compounds can all undergo substitution reactions with chloride ions to produce tetrahedral complexes. A change of colour also will occur.

[CuCl₄]²⁻ - When present, these complex ions produce an olive green solution.

[CoCl₄]²⁻ - When present, these complex ions produce a deep blue solution.

Ligand Substitution Reactions

One ligand can be swapped for another ligand in a ligand exchange or substitution reaction. The ligands NH₃ and H₂O are similar in size and are both uncharged. This means they can be exchanged without a change in coordination number via a ligand substitution reaction.

Example: In this reaction the solution changes colour from pink to a yellow straw colour.

$$[Co(H_2O)_6]^{2+} + 6NH_3 \longrightarrow [Co(NH_3)_6]^{2+} + 6H_2O$$

With copper complexes and NH₃ in excess, this substitution is incomplete and the complex formed has a combination of water and ammonia ligands.

Example: In this reaction the solution changes colour from pale blue to deep blue.

$$[\mathrm{Cu}(\mathrm{H_2O})_6]^{2^+} \ + \ 4\mathrm{NH_3} \ \longrightarrow \ [\mathrm{Cu}(\mathrm{H_2O})_2(\mathrm{NH_3})_4]^{2^+} \ + \ 4\mathrm{H_2O}$$

The Cl ligand is much larger than the NH₃ and H₂O ligands meaning substitution with this ligand results in a change in coordination number for that complex. These substitution reactions take place when concentrated HCI is reacted with the metal complex.











Example: The solution changes colour from pale blue to yellow.

$$[Cu(H_2O)_6]^{2+} + 4Cl^- \longrightarrow [CuCl_4]^{2-} + 6H_2O$$

Example: The solution changes colour from pink to blue.

$$[Co(H_2O)_6]^{2+} + 4CI^- \longrightarrow [CoCl_4]^{2-} + 6H_2O$$

Complexes with just CI- ligands always have a coordination number of four, producing a tetrahedral shaped complex.

Transition Metals as Catalysts

Many transition metals and their compounds have good **catalytic properties**. A catalyst is a substance that **speeds up the rate of a reaction** without being used up in the reaction. It provides an alternative reaction pathway with a **lower activation energy**. Catalysts don't affect the position of equilibrium but allow it to be reached faster. There are two main types of catalyst: **heterogeneous** and **homogeneous**.

Heterogeneous Catalysts

Heterogeneous catalysts are catalysts that are in a different phase or state to the species in the reaction. An example of this is the Haber Process, where a solid iron catalyst is used to speed up the reaction between hydrogen and nitrogen gases. Similarly, a nickel catalyst is used in the hydrogenation of alkenes. Heterogeneous catalysts use the process of adsorption:

<u>Adsorption</u>

A solid catalyst works by adsorbing molecules onto an active site on the surface of the catalyst. These active sites increase the proximity of molecules and weaken the covalent bonds in the molecules so that reactions occur more easily and rate of reaction is increased.

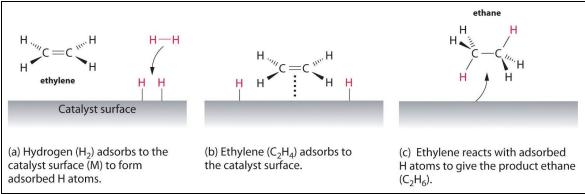












(https://2012books.lardbucket.org/books/principles-of-general-chemistry-v1.0/s18-08-catalysis.html)

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The strength of adsorption depends on the type of catalyst and can affect how much it affects the rate of the reaction. Iron, cobalt and nickel make the best catalysts as they are relatively affordable and increase the rate of reaction the most out of all the period 4 transition metals.

Catalyst Poisoning

Heterogeneous catalysts can be poisoned by impurities which block the active sites and prevent adsorption. Therefore the bonds of the molecules remain strong and the catalyst has minimal effect on the rate of the reaction.

Reaction impurities can lead to an increase in chemical production costs in industry as the catalyst has to be replaced or cleaned regularly.

Sulfur impurities poison the solid iron catalyst used in the **Haber Process**. The sulfur impurities occur from the **natural gas** which is used to obtain methane - this methane is then used to produce hydrogen.

Homogeneous Catalysts

Homogeneous catalysts are catalysts that are in the same phase to the species in the reaction. They work by reacting with the reactants to form an intermediate species, which will then react to form the products, and reform the catalyst.

An example of a homogeneous catalyst being used is the reaction between $S_2O_8^{2-}$ ions and I^- ions where Fe^{2+} is used as a **catalyst**. Without a catalyst, these **negative ions** would naturally **repel** each other and never react.











Example:

Overall:
$$S_2O_8^{2-} + 2I^- \longrightarrow I_2 + 2SO_4^{2-}$$

Intermediate

Reactions:

$$S_2O_8^{2-} + 2Fe^{2+} \longrightarrow 2Fe^{3+} + 2SO_4^{2-}$$

$$2Fe^{3+} + 2I^{-} \longrightarrow 2Fe^{2+} + I_{2}$$

By forming a reactive intermediate, the reaction pathway is changed as the enthalpy change for the formation of the intermediate is much lower than the original reaction. The activation energy is lower so the reaction is more feasible.

Transition metals make good homogeneous catalysts due to their variable oxidation states. **Electrons are transferred** to produce a reactive intermediate and speed up the reaction rate.

The Contact Process uses a vanadium oxide catalyst to speed up the conversion of sulfur dioxide to sulfur trioxide.

Example:

Overall:
$$2SO_2 + O_2 \xrightarrow{V_2O_5} 2SO_3$$

Intermediate

Reactions:

$$V_2O_5 + SO_2 \longrightarrow V_2O_4 + SO_3$$

 $V_2O_4 + 1/2O_2 \longrightarrow V_2O_5$

Vanadium is reduced from +5 to +4 and is then reformed in its original oxidation state, showing it has acted as a catalyst for the reaction.

Manganese(IV) oxide is another transition metal used as a homogeneous catalyst. It is used as a catalyst for the decomposition of hydrogen peroxide.











Reactions of Aqueous Ions

Solutions of transition metal ions **react as acids** with aqueous OH⁻ ions via a **neutralisation** reaction to form a **salt and water**. These reactions **hydrolyse** the metal ions to form **coloured precipitates**. The **salt precipitates** formed all have a **colour** allowing them to be **identified**.

$$[Fe(H_2O)_6]^{2+} + 2OH^- \rightarrow [Fe(H_2O)_4(OH)_2] + 2H_2O$$

The green solution forms a green precipitate.

$$[Fe(H_2O)_6]^{3+} + 3OH^- \rightarrow [Fe(H_2O)_3(OH)_3] + 3H_2O$$

The yellow solution forms a brown precipitate.

$$[Cr(H_2O)_6]^{3+} + 3OH^- \rightarrow [Cr(H_2O)_3(OH)_3] + 3H_2O$$

The violet-blue solution forms a violet-blue precipitate.

$$[Cu(H_2O)_6]^{2+} + 2OH^- \rightarrow [Cu(H_2O)_4(OH)_2] + 2H_2O$$

The blue solution forms a blue precipitate.

It is easiest to remember the formulas of the precipitates by remembering that the number of OH substituted is the same as the value of the charge on the initial ion.







