

CHEMISTRY 1000





Topic #3: Colour in Chemistry Fall 2020 Dr. Susan Findlay See Exercises 12.1 to 12.3





Transition Metals

- Mercury (Hg) is the only transition metal that is not a solid.
- The transition metals all have valence electrons in a *d* subshell.
- Like other metals, transition metals form cations not anions.
- We shall see that many transitions cations form beautifully coloured compounds (as shown on the previous page).



Fourth-period transition metals: left to right, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu









Group 1B: copper (Cu)

Group 1B: silver (Ag)

Group 1B: gold (Au)



Group 2B: left, zinc (Zn); right, mercury (Hg)

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 Co-ordination complexes are compounds in which several ligands are co-ordinated to a transition metal cation.

 A ligand is any substance (neutral or anion) which can act as a Lewis base, donating electrons to the transition metal cation (which acts as a Lewis acid).

• If the resulting complex has a charge, it is a **complex ion**.

The number of atoms attached to the transition metal is referred to as the **co-ordination number**. It doesn't matter whether these atoms come from the same molecule/ion or from several different ones.

• $[Cu(OH_2)_6]^{2+}$ is Cu^{2+} with six water molecules as ligands:

• $[Zn(CN)_4]^{2-}$ is Zn^{2+} with four cyanide ions as ligands:

- The ligands around the metal do not all have to be the same!
- A very important co-ordination complex is found in hemoglobin:



This is a cartoon! Heme (the porphyrin in hemoglogin) has chains branching off the porphyrin ring.

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- Classifying Ligands
 - Ligands co-ordinated to a transition metal though one atom are called monodentate ("one-toothed") ligands.
 - Ligands co-ordinated to a transition metal through two atoms are called **bidentate** ("two-toothed") ligands.
 - Polydentate ligands can also be called chelating ligands, or chelates ("claws"). Such ligands are able to "grip" a cation by co-ordinating to it with many different atoms!



 To make a neutral precipitate, charged co-ordination complexes (complex ions) need one or more counterions to balance the charge. This gives a complex salt.

 Some co-ordination complexes and complex salts contain extra water molecules which were trapped during crystallization. These complexes are also **hydrates**. Water of hydration can be removed by heating a complex salt in a dry oven.

• In the CHEM 2000 lab, you will make the bright green complex salt, $K_3[Fe(C_2O_4)_3] \cdot 3H_2O$ containing Fe^{3+} . Break this formula into a complex ion, counterion and water of hydration. Identify the ligands and their charge.

• If 5.00 grams of $K_3[Fe(C_2O_4)_3] \cdot 3H_2O$ is heated until all of the water has evaporated, what mass of solid ought to remain?

- A co-ordination complex *must* contain:
 - a transition metal cation
 - several ligands.

- A co-ordination complex *may* also have:
 - counterion(s) (to balance charge) and/or
 - extra water molecules ("water of hydration")

• Co-ordination complexes can be charged or neutral.

Why are Transition Metals Special?

We have seen that main group metals are somewhat limited in what oxidation states they can adopt. Many transition metals, on the other hand, can take on a wide variety of different oxidation states. This distribution is not entirely random, as show in the graph below (common oxidation states in dark red):



Why are Transition Metals Special?

- Compared to s and p electrons, d electrons can be added or removed relatively easily.
- The electron configuration of neutral vanadium is:

- The first two electrons lost from vanadium will be those in the 4s orbital. After that, electrons are lost from the 3d orbitals giving the three observed oxidation states:
 - vanadium(III)
 - vanadium(IV)
 - vanadium(V)

- One of the more fun consequences of these partially filled d subshells is that the co-ordination complexes of transition metals are often brightly coloured.
- The flasks below contain aqueous solutions of nitrate salts. Since all nitrates are water-soluble, these solutions contain aqua complexes of the transition metal cation: [M(OH₂)₆]ⁿ⁺.



- Why is the Zn^{2+} complex the only colourless one?
 - Consider the electron configurations of the five cations:
 - *Fe*³⁺
 - Co²⁺
 - Ni²⁺
 - Cu²⁺
 - *Zn*²⁺

- Where does the variety in colour come from?
 - Many co-ordination complexes have octahedral geometry. This means that two of the *d* orbitals on the transition metal point directly at ligands while the other three do not:



A simple electrostatic model, called the *crystal field theory*, assumes that there will be a certain degree of **electron-electron repulsion** between the electron pair a ligand donates and any electrons already in the metal's *d* orbitals. This repulsion is felt most strongly by electrons in the *d* orbitals pointing at the ligands.

- Thus, in an octahedral complex, the d_{z^2} and $d_{x^2-y^2}$ orbitals are pushed to higher energy than the d_{xy} , d_{xz} and d_{yz} orbitals.
- This separation in energy is referred to as crystal field splitting, and the crystal field splitting energy is Δ_o ('o' is for 'octahedral'):



In co-ordination complexes with crystal field splitting, there are two ways to distribute *d* electrons. Which one is favoured depends on the size of Δ_o which, in turn depends on where the ligands fall on the **spectrochemical series**:

strong field

weak field

 $CN^{-} > en > NH_{3} > EDTA^{4-} > H_{2}O > ox^{2-} > OH^{-} > F^{-} > CI^{-} > Br^{-} > I^{-}$

- Strong field ligands bind tightly to the metal, so there is a strong interaction between the ligand and the *d* electrons of the metal, leading to a large Δ_o.
- Weak field ligands have weaker interaction with the *d* electrons of the metal, leading to a small Δ_o.



- When Δ_o is small (because we are using weak field ligands), a high spin distribution of electrons is observed. This maximizes the alignment of spin of the *d* electrons.
- When Δ_o is large (because we are using strong field ligands), a low spin distribution of electrons is observed. This means that the lowest energy *d* orbitals are completely filled before any electrons are added to the higher energy orbitals in the *d* subshell.



- How does this make for coloured solutions?
 - Recall that photons are emitted when electrons drop from a higher energy orbital to a lower energy orbital. *(see Atomic Line Spectra)* Similarly, the electrons get to the higher energy orbital by absorbing photons of light.
 - Electrons in the lower energy *d* orbitals can absorb photons and be excited into the higher energy *d* orbitals. Since Δ_o corresponds to the energy of light in the visible region (and there is more than one way to absorb a photon), some wavelengths of visible light are absorbed. The wavelengths that are not absorbed give the colour of solution.
 - To see how this works, watch this cute (if very old fashioned) video: <u>Eureka 30 - Radiation Spectrum.mov - YouTube</u>



- To absorb coloured light, the transition metal needs to have electrons in at least one of the low-energy d orbitals and an empty space in at least one of the high-energy d orbitals.
- Which of these two requirements does Zn²⁺ lack (making it colourless)?

- Different ligands provide different amounts of crystal field splitting. $[Fe(OH_2)_6]^{3+}$ and $[Fe(C_2O_4)_3]^{3-}$ are both complexes of Fe^{3+} but $[Fe(OH_2)_6]^{3+}$ is extremely pale purple^{*} (frequently appearing colourless) while $[Fe(C_2O_4)_3]^{3-}$ is green.
 - What colour of light is each compound most likely absorbing?
 - Which of these two ligands is splitting the *d* orbitals of *Fe*³⁺ more? (i.e. which complex has a larger Δ_o)

* The orange colour you're used to seeing for aqueous solutions of Fe^{3+} salts is due to $[Fe(OH_2)_5OH]^{2+}$, the conjugate base of $[Fe(OH_2)_6]^{3+}$. We've seen previously that complexes like $[Fe(OH_2)_6]^{3+}$ are acidic.

Isomers

- Even a very small change in the structure of a complex ion can change its colour drastically.
 - Draw two **<u>different</u>** structures for $[CoCl_2(NH_3)_4]^+$.

- One of these compounds is purple while one is green! The purple one is referred to as *cis*-[CoCl₂(NH₃)₄]⁺ while the green one is *trans*-[CoCl₂(NH₃)₄]⁺
- These compounds are **isomers**. They have the same molecular formula but are not the same substance. No matter how much you rotate either, you cannot superimpose them.





• Draw two isomers of $[PtCl_2(NH_3)_2]$, a square planar complex.

The *cis* isomer is an anti-cancer drug while the *trans* isomer is toxic!



• Draw two isomers of $[CoCl_3(NH_3)_3]$, an octahedral complex.