

p-BLOCK ELEMENTS

IMPORTANT CONCEPTS :

Back bonding

Inert pair effect

Hydrolysis

Silicates and Silicones

Reactions and compounds (Group 13-18)

Dimerisation

Oxyacids

Allotropes

Drying agent and bleaching agents

BACK BONDING

It is formed between two covalently bonded adjacent atoms.

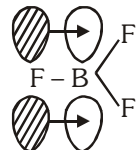
Conditions for back bonding :

- (i) Both bonded atoms must belong to 2nd period or one bonded atom must belong to 2nd period and the other must belong to 3rd period.
- (ii) One bonded atom must possess vacant orbital and the other bonded atom must possess lone pair.

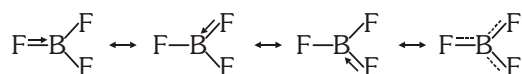
- **As a result of back bonding between the bonded atoms, bond length decreases and bond energy increases.**

Back bonding :

It is a partial sideways overlap in which there is a slight electron transference from electron rich atom to electron deficient atom. As a result the electron deficiency of the deficient atom gets slightly compensated.



F-donor
B-acceptor



$$(B-F) B.O = 4/3 = 1.33$$

Types of back bonding :

Based on type of orbital : (2 types)

$p\pi-p\pi$ back bonding

$p\pi-d\pi$ back bonding

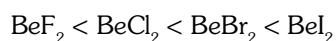
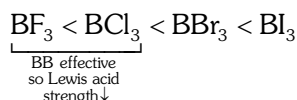
$p\pi-p\pi$ back bonding :

Order of strength : $2p - 2p > 2p - 3p > 2p - 4p \dots\dots$

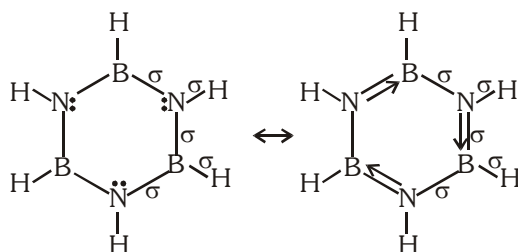
Size \uparrow extent of B.B. \downarrow

It is used to explain following observations :-

- (a) Abnormal bond length and bond energy of B-F bond in BF_3 .
- (b) Lewis acidic order of **Boron** and **Beryllium** halides.

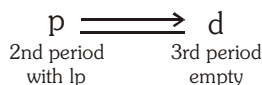


- (c) **Hybridisation** : If a lone pair participates in back bonding then it is not considered in hybridisation.
 Ex. $B_3N_3H_6$ (inorganic benzene or borazine or borazole)
- Hybridisation of B as well as N = sp^2



- Inorganic benzene is more reactive than organic benzene as in it the **bonds are polar**, although over all molecule is non polar.
- (d) If back bonding is present then tendency to form dimer or polymer decreases.
 Ex. BF_3 , BeF_2

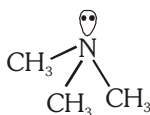
$p\pi-d\pi$ back bonding :



it is used to explain following observations :

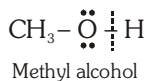
(a) Hybridisation

Ex. Trimethyl amine
 $(CH_3)_3N$



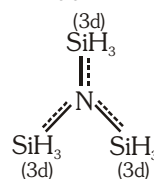
- sp^3 hybrid (N)
- trigonal pyramidal
- Lewis base (due to presence of lp)

(b) Acidic strength

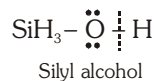


- No back bonding
- Less acidic

Trisilyl amine
 $(SiH_3)_3N$



- sp^2 hybrid (N)
- trigonal planar
- Not Lewis base
- Bond angle increases



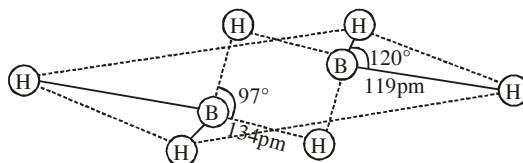
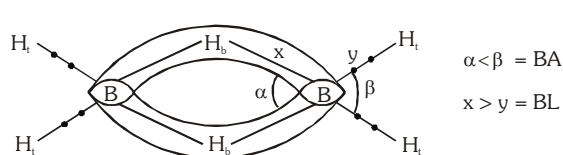
- Back bonding present in conjugate base
- More acidic

DIMERISATION / POLYMERISATION

Types of Dimerisation	
3C—2e	3C—4e
B ₂ H ₆	(BeCl ₂) ₂
(BeH ₂) ₂	(BeCl ₂) _n
(BeH ₂) _n	(AlCl ₃) ₂
Al ₂ (CH ₃) ₆	(ICl ₃) ₂
Ga ₂ (CH ₃) ₆	

(A) By banana Bond or by 3C–2e bond or by e[–] deficient bond

(a) B₂H₆



$$2\text{C} - 2e^- \text{ bonds} = 4$$

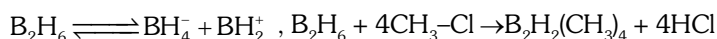
$$3\text{C} - 2e^- \text{ bonds} = 2$$

The structure of diborane, B₂H₆

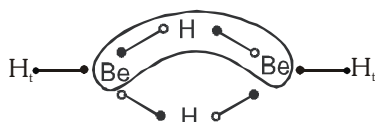
Hybridisation state = sp³

Electron deficient molecule (act as Lewis acid)

- All four terminal hydrogen and two boron atoms are present in same plane both bridging H are present in perpendicular plane.
- If substitution reaction takes place than only four terminal hydrogen atom will be substituted.



(b) (BeH₂)₂ (dimer of BeH₂ in vapour state)

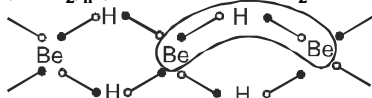


Hybridisation state = sp²

Planar

electron deficient molecule

(c) (BeH₂)_n (polymer of BeH₂ in solid state)



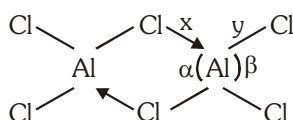
Hybridisation state = sp³

Non-planar

electron deficient molecule

(B) By-coordinate Bond / 3C–4e bond

(a) Al₂Cl₆ (dimer of AlCl₃ in liquid or solid state)



BA = $\alpha < \beta$

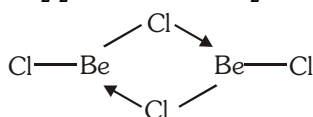
BL = $x > y$

Hybridisation state = sp³

Non-planar

octet complete

(b) (BeCl₂)₂ (dimer of BeCl₂ in vapour state)

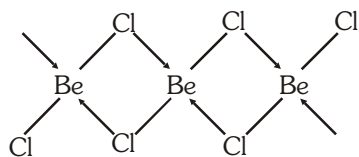


Hybridisation state = sp²

Planar

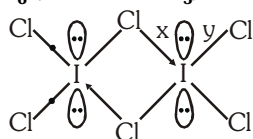
electron deficient molecule

(c) $(\text{BeCl}_2)_n$ (polymer of BeCl_2 in solid state)



Hybridisation state = sp^3
Non-planar
octet complete

(d) I_2Cl_6 (dimer of ICl_3)



Hybridisation state = sp^3d^2
Planar
super octet complete (12 electrons)

Note :

- (i) BCl_3 , BBr_3 & BI_3 do not form dimer due to smaller size of boron & large size of halogen (due to more steric repulsion)
- (ii) BF_3 cannot form dimer due to its back bonding.
- (iii) AlF_3 cannot form dimer due to its ionic nature.

INERT PAIR EFFECT

	Group-13	Group-14	Group-15
(group oxidation state)	$\frac{ns^2np^1}{+3}$	$\frac{ns^2np^2}{+4}$	$\frac{ns^2np^3}{+5}$

- While moving down the group the stability of lower oxidation state (2 less than group oxidation state) progressively increases, for the last element of the group the stability of lower oxidation state becomes even greater than the group oxidation state. **This is called inert pair effect.**
- For the last element group oxidation state is highly oxidising in nature.

Group-13		Group-14		Group-15	
B	+3	C	+4	N	+5
Al	+3	Si	+4	P	+5
<hr/>					
Ga	+3 > +1	Ge	+4 > +2	As	+5 > +3
In	+3 > +1	Sn	+4 > +2	Sb	+5 > +3
Tl	+3 < +1	Pb	+4 < +2	Bi	+5 < +3

Reason : As we move down the group there is presence of d & f-orbitals in inner shells which have poor shielding effect hence Z_{eff} increases. As a result the ns^2 electron pair becomes more and more tightly held to the nucleus and becomes reluctant to participate in bonding.

Examples :

1. PbCl_2 is more stable than PbCl_4 .
2. TlCl is more stable than TlCl_3 .
3. GaCl_3 is more stable than TlCl_3 .
4. SnCl_4 is more stable than PbCl_4 .
5. Thallium (III) iodide does not exist.
6. PbI_4 does not exist.
7. Only BiF_5 exists but BiCl_5 does not exist ?

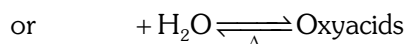


OXY ACID

General Formula of Oxy acid : $H_xZ_yO_z$ (Z = non metal)

- Compounds which contain Z-OH bond are known as oxyacids.

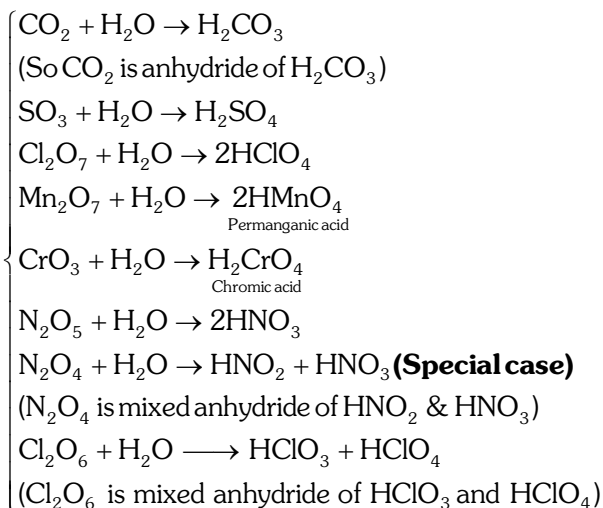
- Acidic oxide



Non metallic oxide

Anhydrides of oxyacids

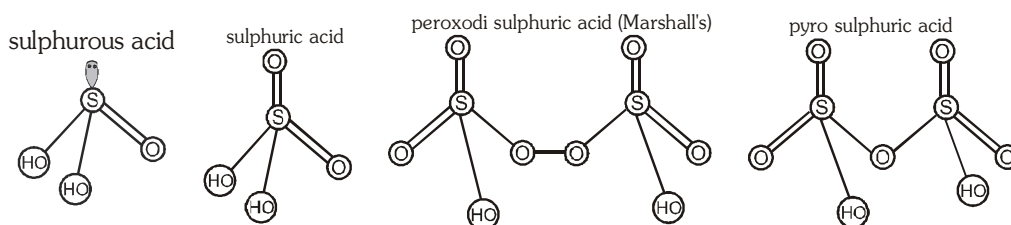
Anhydrides of their
corresponding oxyacids



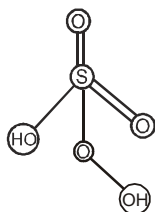
- Oxidation state of central atom does not change.

Pyro	Meta	Per oxy acid	Hypo	
2 mole oxy acid ↓ -H ₂ O pyro acid	1 mole oxy acid ↓ -H ₂ O meta acid	↓ Z—O—O—H	Ous acid ↓ -O Hypo us acid	ic acid ↓ -O Hypo ic acid
Ex. $H_2S_2O_5$ $H_2S_2O_7$ $H_4P_2O_7$	Ex. HPO_3 HBO_2	Ex. H_2SO_5 $H_2S_2O_8$ HNO_4 CH_3CO_3H $C_6H_5CO_3H$	Ex. HOX H_3PO_2	Ex. $H_4P_2O_6$

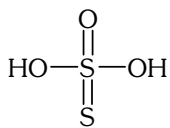
OXY ACIDS OF SULPHUR



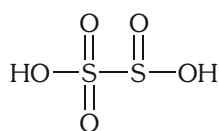
Peroxo monosulphuric acid
(Caro acid)



Thiosulphuric acid

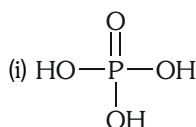


Pyrosulphurous acid

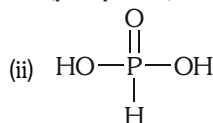


OXY ACID OF PHOSPHORUS

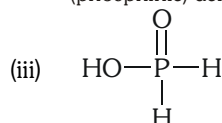
Phosphoric acid



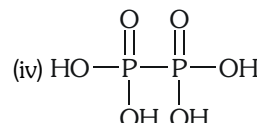
Phosphorous
(phosphonic) acid



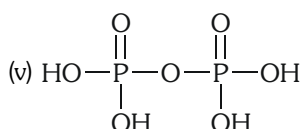
Hypo phosphorous
(phosphinic) acid



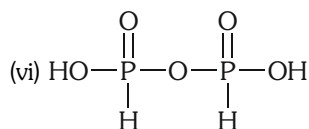
Hypo phosphoric acid



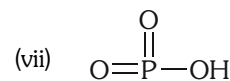
Pyro phosphoric acid



Pyro phosphorous acid



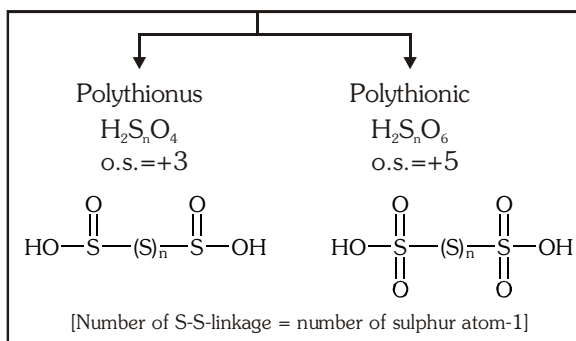
Meta phosphoric acid



OXY ACIDS OF HALOGENS

Hypohalous	Halous	Halic	Per halic
HO-X	O=X-OH	HO-X(=O)2	HO-X(=O)3
+1 HOCl HOBr HOI	+3 HClO ₂ — —	+5 HClO ₃ HBrO ₃ HIO ₃	+7 HClO ₄ HBrO ₄ HIO ₄

OXY ACIDS CONTAINING S-S LINKAGE



Important points :

- $H_2S_2O_3$
- $H_2S_2O_4$
- $H_2S_2O_5$
- $H_2S_2O_6$

(S-S bond)

$H_2S_2O_7 \rightarrow [S-O-S]$

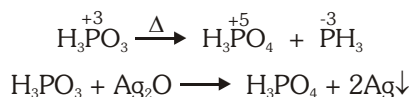
$H_2S_2O_8 \rightarrow [S-O-O-S]$

Trick for drawing structure of oxy compound

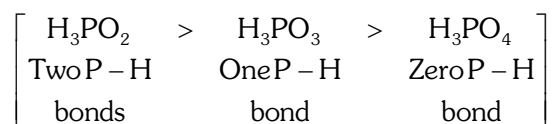
Oxy compounds	Group present
$X_2O_6^{-q}$	[X-X]
$X_2O_7^{-q}$	[X-O-X]
$X_2O_8^{-q}$	[X-O-O-X]

Some important points

- (1) Oxy acid of phosphorus having +1 & +3 oxidation state (having P-H bond) can act as reducing agent or give disproportionation reaction on heating.



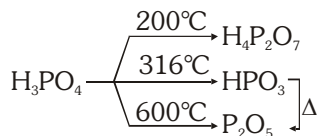
Order of reducing nature.



Note : Nitrogen compound having +1 & +3 oxidation state gives disproportion to reaction in acidic medium.



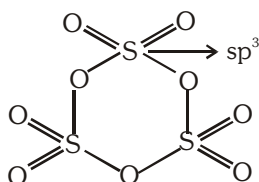
- (2) Heating effect of phosphoric acid



- (3) Heating effect of boric acid

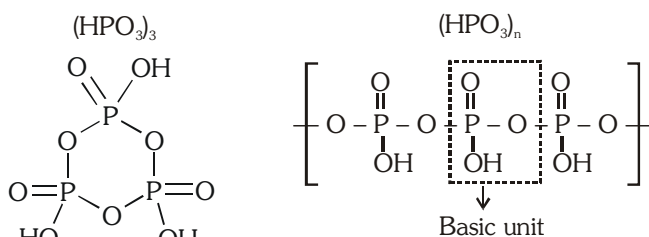


- (4) SO_3 exists as a cyclic trimer (S_3O_9)



6 S=O bonds
3 S-O-S bonds
 sp^3 hybrid 'S', Non planar

- (5) Metaphosphoric acid exists as dimer, cyclic trimer or polymer



- (6) Acidic nature of oxy acids.

General concept :

$$\text{For same elements} \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{Acidic nature} \\ \text{of oxyacids} \end{array} \propto \begin{array}{l} \text{Oxidation number of} \\ \text{active element} \end{array} \right)$$

(Acidic nature of oxyacids \propto EN of active element) for different elements

Exception :

- for oxy acids of P**

$$\left(\text{Acidic nature} \propto \frac{1}{\text{Oxidation number}} \right)$$

Example : $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_2 > \text{H}_3\text{PO}_3 > \text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$ (acidic order)

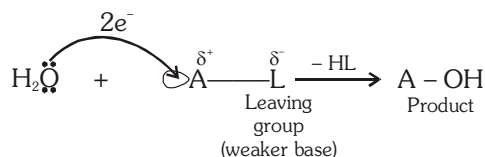
HYDROLYSIS

Chemical reaction of H_2O with a covalent compound.

Condition :

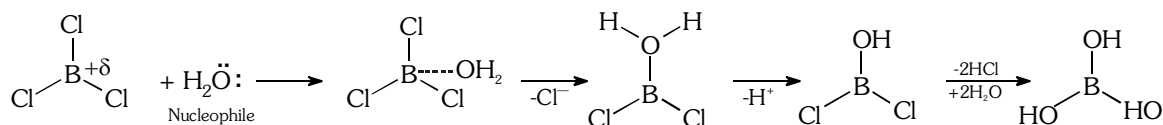
One atom must possess vacant orbital and positive charge.

Mechanism : (SN^2 mechanism)



- Weaker base goes out and a stronger base substitutes it.

Example



- For hybridisation of transition state

Reactant \longrightarrow Transition state

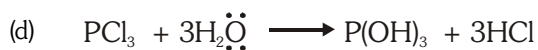
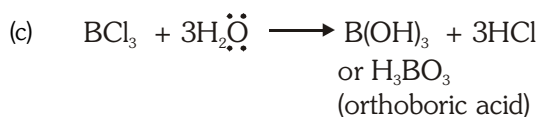
Ex. : $\text{sp} \longrightarrow \text{sp}^2$

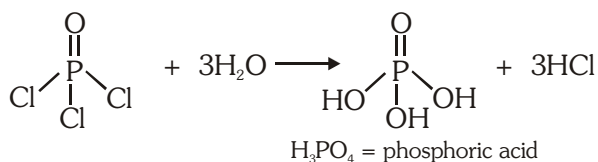
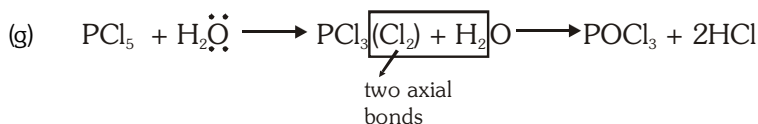
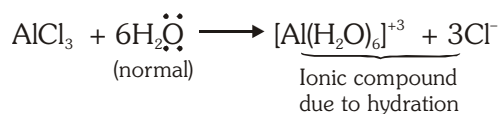
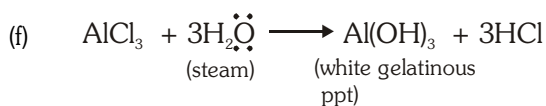
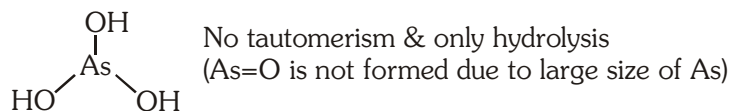
$\text{sp}^2 \longrightarrow \text{sp}^3$

$\text{sp}^3 \longrightarrow \text{sp}^3\text{d}$

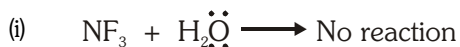
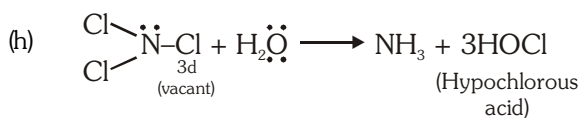
Important examples of hydrolysis

Hydrolysis of some important covalent molecules.

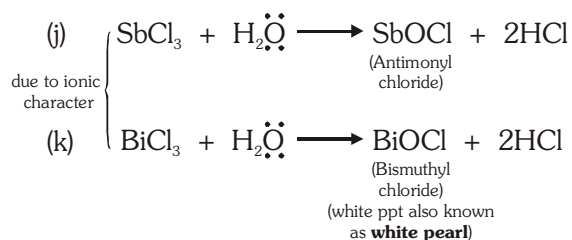




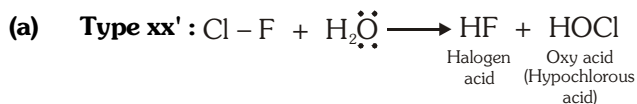
- **Hydrolysis is not a redox reaction**



- **Partial hydrolysis**

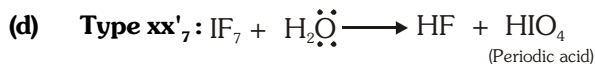
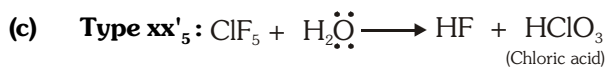
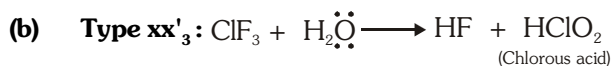


Hydrolysis of interhalogen compounds

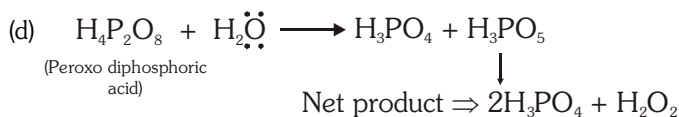
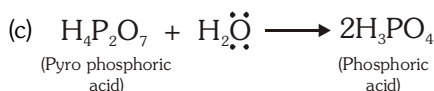
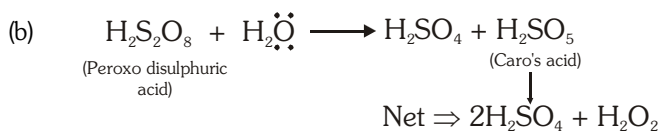
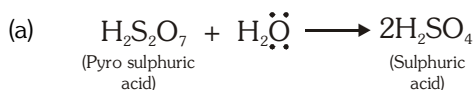


x = oxy acid (same oxidation number)

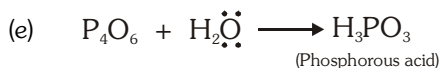
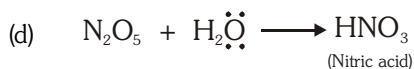
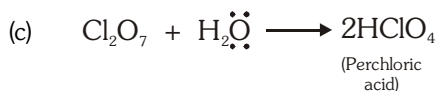
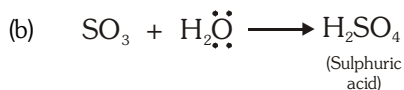
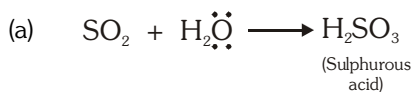
x' = Halogen acid

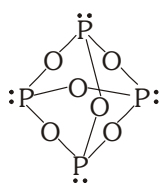


Hydrolysis of oxyacids

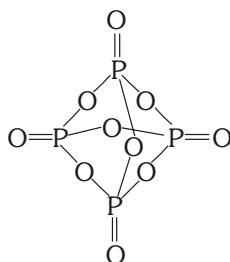


Hydrolysis of oxides (N, P, S, Cl)



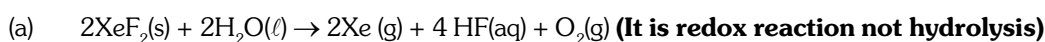


P_4O_6
 $\rightarrow sp^3$ hybrid 'P'
 $\rightarrow 6 \text{ P-O-P bonds}$
 $\rightarrow \text{lp on 'P'} = 4$

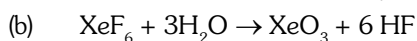


P_4O_{10}
 $\rightarrow sp^3$ hybrid 'P'
 $\rightarrow 6 \text{ P-O-P bonds}$
 $\rightarrow 4 \text{ P = O bonds}$

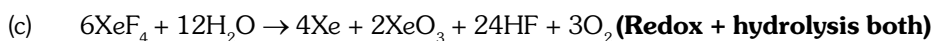
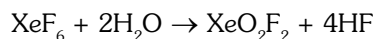
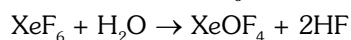
Hydrolysis of Xe-fluoride



Hydrolysis of XeF_4 and XeF_6 with water gives XeO_3



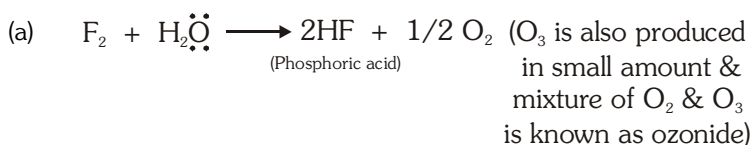
Partial hydrolysis of XeF_6 gives oxyfluorides, $XeOF_4$ and XeO_2F_2 .



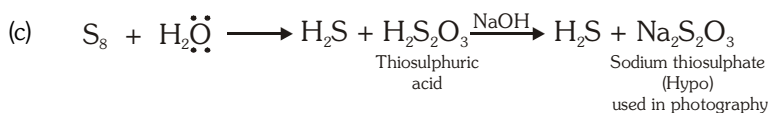
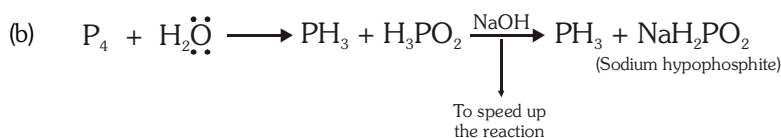
Hydrolysis of ionic compounds

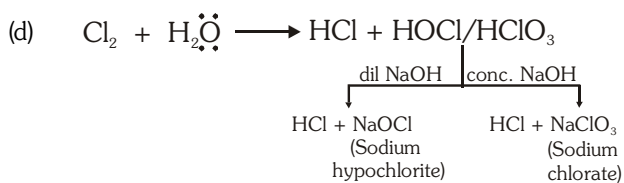
(a) Carbides (b) Nitrides (c) Phosphides

Hydrolysis of non-metals and halogen



- ' F_2 ' is the only non-metal that can oxidise H_2O as it is a powerful oxidising agent. Other halogens & non-metals undergo disproportionation with water in basic medium. (Redox reaction)

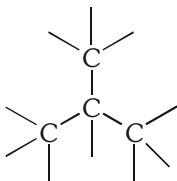
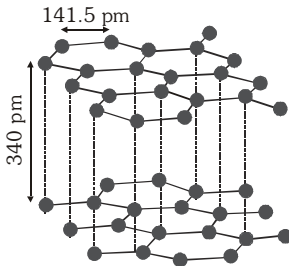




ALLOTROPES

(A) Allotropes of Carbon

Crystalline	Amorphous
Ex. Diamond Graphite Fullerene	Ex. Coke Charcoal Coal, C-lamp black

DIAMOND	GRAPHITE
	
Each carbon bonded with four other carbon atom sp^3 hybridisation tetrahedral structure Insulator due to absence of free electrons Hard due to presence of strong sigma bond and 3D structure Density = 3.35 gm/cm^3 High melting point (giant molecule) Bond length (C—C) = 1.54 \AA	Each carbon bonded with three other carbon atom sp^2 hybridisation hexagonal layer structure Conductor due to presence of delocalised electrons Soft due to presence of weak van der Waals forces between two layers Density = 2.22 gm/cm^3 Low melting point Bond length (C—C) = 1.41 \AA

Special Point :

- Thermodynamically graphite is more stable than diamond.
- Aqueous solution of graphite is known as **aquadag**.
- Graphite is also known as **plumbago (used in lead pencil)**
- Graphite use as a dry lubricants.
- Hardest allotrope** of carbon is diamond, **softest allotrope** is lamp black, **purest allotrope** is fullerene

Fullerene

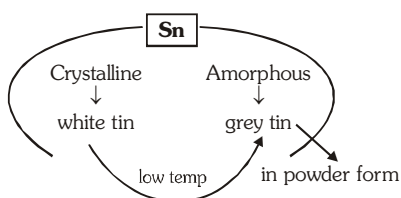
- C-60 & C-70 are common fullerene.
- C-60 is also known as Buckminster fullerene (Bucky ball)

- There are 32 rings $\begin{cases} 12 \text{ pentagonal} \\ 20 \text{ hexagonal} \end{cases}$
- Each carbon atom bonded with 3 other carbon by sigma & double bond (resonance)
- sp^2 hybridisation & aromatic in nature

⚠ Dangling Bond

In diamond or graphite some surface carbon atom have free valency. These carbon atoms form new bonds with impurities. These new bonds are known as dangling bond.

(B) ALLOTROPES OF TIN



(C) ALLOTROPES OF PHOSPHOROUS

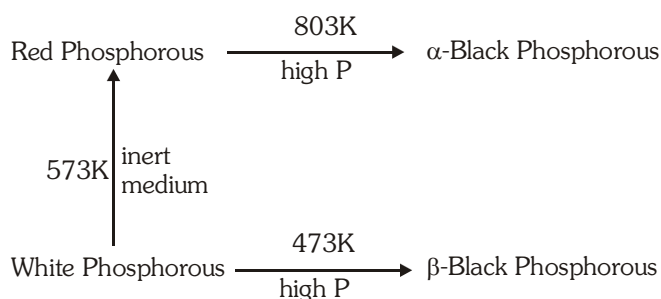
(a) white/yellow phosphorous

(b) Red phosphorous

(c) Black phosphorous

White phosphorous	Red Phosphorous
Waxy solid	Brittle powder
Poisonous	Non poisonous
Soluble in CS_2 , Insoluble in water	Insoluble in water & CS_2
Monomer of P_4	Polymer of P_4
Highly reactive due to bond angle strain	More stable than white phosphorous
It glows in dark due to slow oxidation (phosphorescence)	It does not glow in dark
It gives phosphene (PH_3) on reaction with NaOH	It give hypo phosphoric acid when on reaction with NaOH

Order of stability or MP or density \rightarrow white < red < black



(D) ALLOTROPES OF SULPHUR

I.

S	
Crystalline	Amorphous
<p>Rhombic sulphur (α-S) most stable form</p> <p>Monoclinic sulphur (β-S)</p> $\alpha\text{-S} \xrightleftharpoons[<95.6^\circ\text{C}]{>95.6^\circ\text{C}} \beta\text{-S}$ <p>95.6°C = transition Temp. both are soluble in CS_2 but insoluble in water</p>	<p>Milk of sulphur Plastic sulphur (γ-S)</p> <p>Colloidal sulphur</p> $\underset{\text{RA}}{\text{H}_2\text{S}} + \underset{\text{OA}}{2\text{HNO}_3} \xrightarrow{\text{Redox}} \text{S} + 2\text{NO}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

II.

- density of $\alpha\text{S} > \beta\text{S}$
- Both are puckered crown shape having S_8 units
- S_2 is paramagnetic sulphur which exist in vapour form at high temperature.
- S_6 is chair form of S

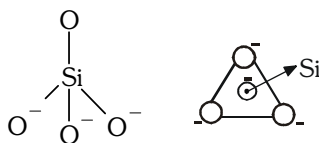
III. Effect of temperature :



(A) SILICATES

Basic / structural unit : SiO_4^{-4}

SiO_4^{-4} have a tendency of polymerisation



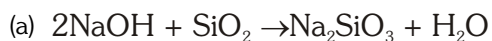
Silicate	No. of shared oxygen per unit	General formula	Structure	Example
Ortho silicate	0	SiO_4^{-4}		Zircon ZrSiO_4
Pyro silicate	1	$\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7^{-6}$		Hemi morphite $\text{Zn}_3\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7 \cdot \text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
Single chain silicate	2	$(\text{SiO}_3^{-2})_n$		$\text{LiAlSi}_2\text{O}_6$ Spodumene
Cyclic silicate	2	$(\text{SiO}_3^{-2})_n$		Beryl $(\text{Be}_3\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_6\text{O}_{18})$
Sheet silicate	3	$(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5^{-2})_n$		Talc $\text{Mg}_3(\text{OH})_2(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5)_2$
3-D silicate	4	$(\text{SiO}_2)_n$		Silica (SiO_2)

(B) Sodium Zeolite $[\text{Na}_2\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_8]/[\text{Na}_2\text{O} \cdot \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}]$

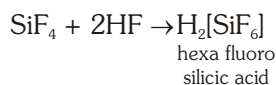
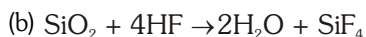
- (i) It is a 3-D silicate
- (ii) It is used in
 - (a) For softening of hard water
 - (b) For cracking of hydrocarbon & isomerisation

Ex. ZSM-5 (Zeolite) is used to convert ethyl alcohol into petrol.

(C) SILICA : Generally silica is inert but it can react with NaOH & HF.



base acid
[Na_2SiO_3 known as water glass or water soluble]



- This process is also known as **Etching of glass**.

(D) SILICONES

Silicones are organometallic polymer which contain R_2SiO as a basic unit.

Properties :

- (i) Silicones are chemically inert due to presence of strong sigma bond.
- (ii) Silicones have water repelling nature due to presence of alkyl group.
- (iii) Silicones are insulator due to absence of free electrons.

Preparation :

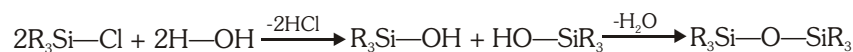
Alkyl chloro silane $\xrightarrow{\text{hydrolysis}}$ product $\xrightarrow{\text{condensation}}$ silicones

R_3SiCl : dimer (used to stop chain formation)

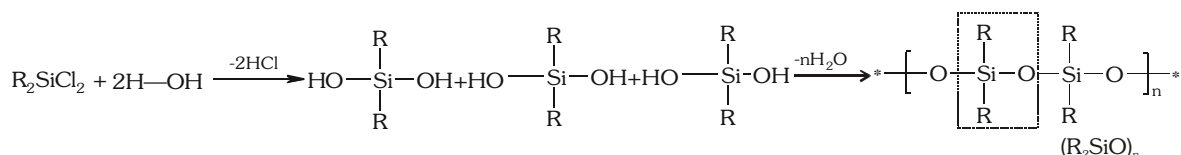
R_2SiCl_2 : linear polymer

RSiCl_3 : cross link polymer

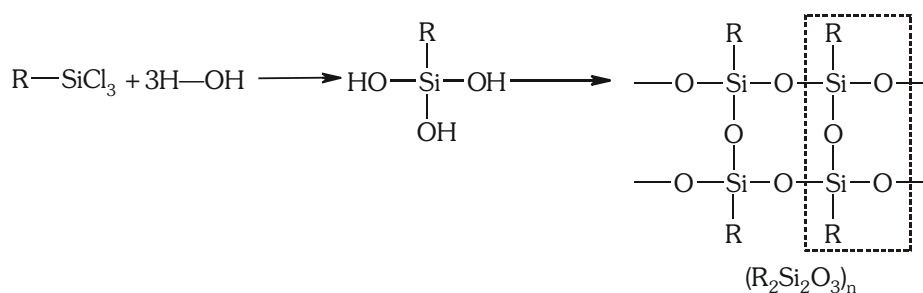
(a) Dimer silicone:



(b) Linear chain silicone



(c) Cross linked silicone



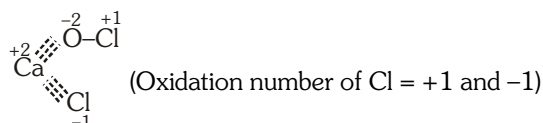
BLEACHING AGENTS AND DEHYDRATING AGENTS

(A) BLEACHING AGENTS

- Bleaching can be done by oxidation or reduction.
 - Coloured substance $\xrightarrow[\text{Oxidation}]{[\text{O}]}$ Colourless (Permanent bleach)
 - Coloured substance $\xrightarrow[\text{Reduction}]{[\text{H}]}$ Colourless (Temporary bleach)
- $\xleftarrow[\text{air}]{[\text{O}]}$

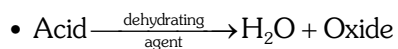
Examples :

- | By oxidation | By Reduction |
|--|-------------------------------|
| (1) O_3 (Dry bleach) | SO_2 (with moisture) |
| (2) H_2O_2 (with moisture) | |
| (3) Cl_2 (with moisture) | |
- **Bleaching powder** : Used in textile industries. Bleaches by oxidation.
 $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot \text{Ca}(\text{OCl})_2 \cdot \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (average oxidation number of Cl = 0)
or

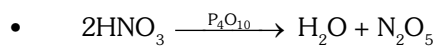
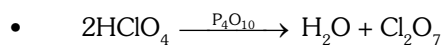
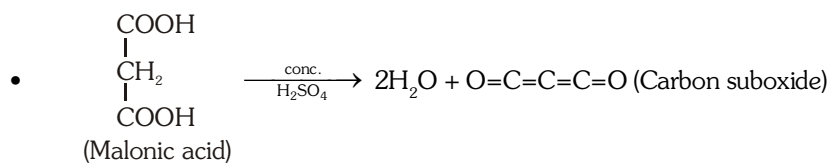
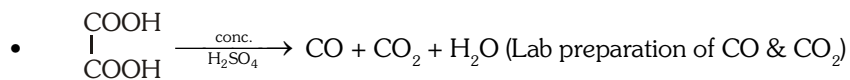
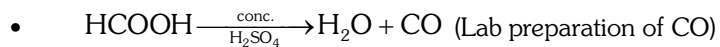


(B) DEHYDRATING AGENTS

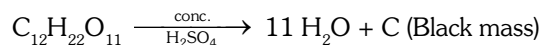
Example : $[P_4O_{10}, (\text{Conc.}) H_2SO_4, CaO (\text{Quick lime}), CaCl_2 (\text{Anhydrous})]$



Example :



• Charring of sugar (dehydration) :



Some extra points :

- (i) NH_3 can not be dried by conc. H_2SO_4 , P_4O_{10} and $CaCl_2$
- (ii) Alcohols, phenols can not be dried by metal hydrides.
- (iii) $MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ and $AlCl_3 \cdot 6H_2O$ can not be dried by heating alone.



BORON FAMILY (GROUP 13)

INTRODUCTION

The p-block elements are those elements of the periodic table in which the differentiating electron (or the last electron) enters the p-subshell of the last (outermost) shell. Since the maximum capacity of any atomic orbital is of two electrons with opposite spins (Pauli's principle), the maximum number of electrons that can be accommodated in any p-subshell is six. As a result, the p-block of the periodic table consists of six groups: 13 (III A), 14 (IV A), 15 (V A), 16 (VI A), 17 (VIIA) and 18 (zero group). On the basis of electronic configuration, the element He is to be excluded from the p-block as its last electron enters the s-subshell of the last shell.

BORON FAMILY

Boron is a typical non-metal, aluminium is a metal but shows many chemical similarities to boron, and gallium, indium and thallium are almost exclusively metallic in character,

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

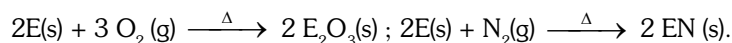
Physical properties :

- Boron is non-metallic in nature.
- It is extremely hard and black coloured solid. It exists in many allotropic forms.
- Due to very strong crystalline lattice, boron has unusually high melting point.
- Rest of the members are soft metals with low melting point and high electrical conductivity. Gallium with low melting point (303 K), could exist in liquid state during summer. Its **high boiling point (2676 K)** makes it a useful material for measuring high temperatures.

Chemical properties

Reactivity towards air

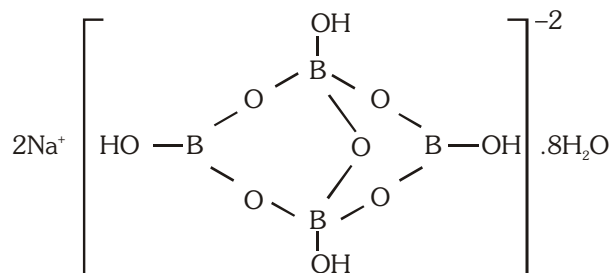
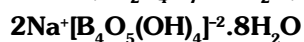
- Boron is unreactive in crystalline form.
- Aluminium forms a very thin oxide layer on the surface which protects the metal from further attack.
- Amorphous boron and aluminium metal on heating in air form B_2O_3 and Al_2O_3 respectively. With dinitrogen at high temperature they form nitrides.



The nature of these oxides varies down the group. Boron trioxide is acidic and reacts with basic (metallic) oxides forming metal borates. Aluminium and gallium oxides are amphoteric and those of indium and thallium are basic in their properties.

COMPOUNDS OF BORON

(I) Borax ($Na_2B_4O_7 \cdot 10H_2O$)

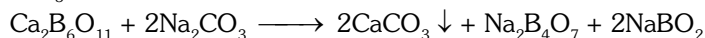


Important points :

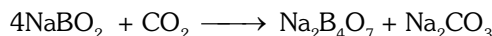
- B-O-B linkage = 5
- Total B-O bonds = 14
- Two Boron- sp^2 hybridised
- Two Boron- sp^3 hybridised

(i) From Colemanite.

When colemanite powder is heated with Na_2CO_3 solution, the following reaction occurs with the precipitation of CaCO_3 .

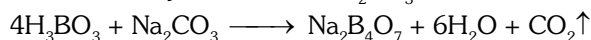


The filtrate is cooled when white crystals of borax are precipitated. The mother liquor on treatment with CO_2 converts NaBO_2 to $\text{Na}_2\text{B}_4\text{O}_7$ which precipitates out on crystallization.



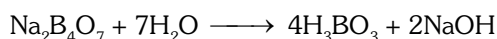
(ii) From orthoboric acid.

Borax is obtained by the action of Na_2CO_3 on orthoboric acid.



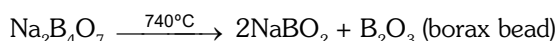
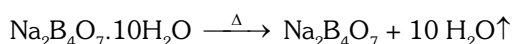
Properties :

- (i) Borax is a white powder, less soluble in cold water, more soluble in hot water.
- (ii) Its aqueous solution is alkaline because of its hydrolysis to weak acid H_3BO_3 and strong alkali NaOH .



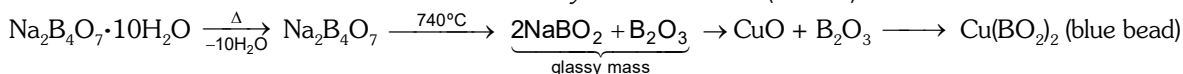
(iii) Action of heat.

When borax powder is heated, it first swells due to loss of water in the form of steam but at 740°C it becomes converted into colourless transparent borax bead.



Borax-bead test :

Borax reacts with certain metal salts such as, Ni^{2+} , Co^{2+} , Cr^{3+} , Cu^{2+} , Mn^{2+} etc. to form coloured metaborates. The colour of the metaborates can be used to identify the metallic ions (cations) in salts.

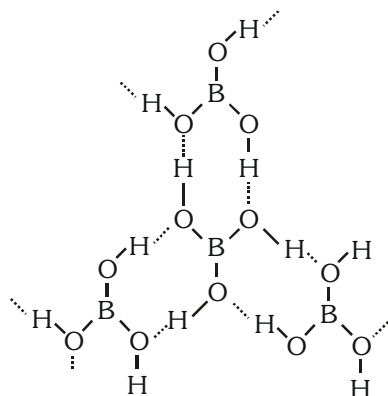


Uses : Borax is used

1. in borax bead test
2. in purifying gold
3. as flux during welding of metals and
4. in production of glass.

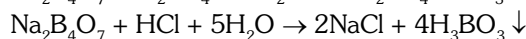
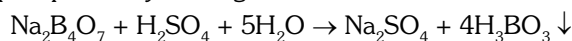
(III) ORTHO BORIC ACID [$\text{H}_3\text{BO}_3/\text{B}(\text{OH})_3$]

Orthoboric acid is greasy to touch less soluble in cold water but more soluble in hot water. In the solid state, the $\text{B}(\text{OH})_3$ units are hydrogen bonded together into two dimensional sheets with almost hexagonal symmetry.



(A) Preparation :

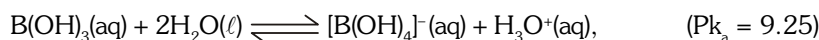
- (i) It is precipitated by treating a concentrated solution of borax with mineral acid.



- (ii) From Colemanite: Powdered colemanite is suspended in water and excess SO_2 is passed through it. On filtering and cooling the filtrate, white crystals of H_3BO_3 are obtained.

**(B) Properties:**

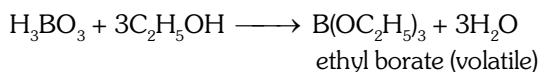
It is a weak monobasic acid soluble in water and in aqueous solution the boron atom completes its octet by accepting OH^- from water molecules:



It, therefore, functions as a Lewis acid and not as a proton donor like most acids.

(C) Test for Borate radical :

When boric acid is heated with ethyl alcohol, the evolved gas is burned forming a green edged flame.

**Uses :**

1. It is an antiseptic and its water solution is used as an eyewash.
2. It is also used in glass, enamel and pottery industry.

(III) DIBORANE (B_2H_6)

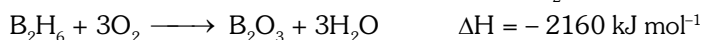
Binary compounds of boron with hydrogen are called boron hydrides or boranes.

Preparation :

- (i) $4\text{BF}_3 + 3\text{LiAlH}_4 \xrightarrow{\text{ether}} 2\text{B}_2\text{H}_6 + 3\text{LiF} + 3\text{AlF}_3$
- (ii) $2\text{NaBH}_4 + \text{I}_2 \xrightarrow{\text{ether}} \text{B}_2\text{H}_6 + 2\text{NaI} + \text{H}_2$
- (iii) $2\text{BF}_3 + 6\text{NaH} \xrightarrow{453\text{ K}} \text{B}_2\text{H}_6 + 6\text{NaF}$ (Industrial method)

Properties :

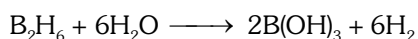
- (i) B_2H_6 is colourless gas and highly reactive (boiling point 183 K).
- (ii) It catches fire spontaneously in air and explodes with O_2 . Reaction with oxygen is extremely exothermic.



Mixtures of diborane with air or oxygen in flame spontaneously producing large amount of heat. Diborane has a higher heat of combustion per unit weight of fuel than most other fuels. It is therefore used as a rocket fuel.

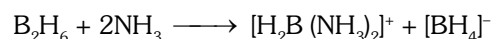
At red-heat the boranes decomposes to boron and hydrogen.

- (iii) Reaction with water is instantaneous.

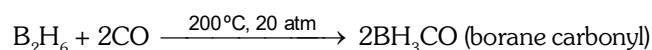
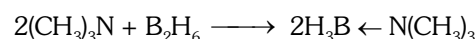


- (iv) The electron deficient 3c-2e B-H-B bridges are sites of nucleophilic attack.

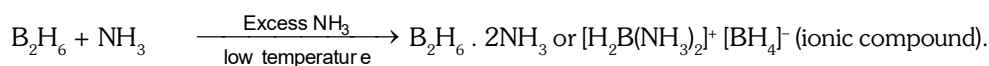
Small amines such as NH_3 , CH_3NH_2 and $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{NH}$ give unsymmetrical cleavage of diborane.



Large amines such as $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{N}$ and pyridine give symmetrical cleavage of diborane.



- (v) The reaction with ammonia depends on conditions.

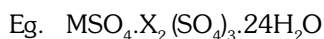


Borazole is much more reactive than benzene.

COMPOUNDS OF ALUMINIUM :

ALUM

- (a) Alums are double sulphates with their general formula $\text{M}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot \text{M}'_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 24\text{H}_2\text{O}$
where M = monovalent radical like Na^+ , K^+ , NH_4^+ and M' = Trivalent radical like Al^{+3} , Cr^{+3} , Fe^{+3} .
- (b) The different alums are -
- (i) Potash alum - $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot \text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 24\text{H}_2\text{O}$
 - (ii) Chrome alum - $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot \text{Cr}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 24\text{H}_2\text{O}$
 - (iii) Iron alum - $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot \text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 24\text{H}_2\text{O}$
 - (iv) Ammonium alum - $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot \text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 24\text{H}_2\text{O}$
- (c) In alums each metal ion is surrounded by six water molecules.
- (d) Lithium does not form alum because Li ion is too small to have a coordination number of six.
- (e) **Pseudo alums** : Double sulphates of divalent ions and trivalent ions with 24 water molecules in their crystals are known as **pseudo alums**.



M = divalent or Bivalent ion

X = Trivalent metal ion

Properties :

- (a) It is a white crystalline solid highly soluble in water.
- (b) On heating it undergoes dehydration and swells up.
- (c) It is highly acidic in aqueous solution due to the hydrolysis of aluminium sulphate to sulphuric acid
- (d) It is a double salt and its aqueous solution gives reaction of all the constituents ions K^+ , Al^{+3} , SO_4^{-2} .

Uses :

- (i) Alum is used to stop bleeding.
- (ii) It is used for purification of water.
- (iii) It is used as a mordant in dyeing industry.
- (iv) Alum is used for tanning of leather.

CARBON FAMILY (GROUP 14)

PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

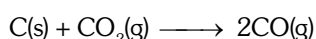
- All group 14 members are solids.
- Carbon and silicon are non-metals, germanium is metalloid whereas tin and lead are soft metals with low melting points.
- Melting points and boiling points of group 14 elements are much higher than those of corresponding elements of group 13 due to stronger metallic bonding.

COMPOUNDS OF CARBON

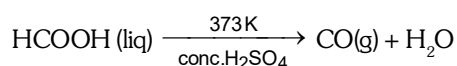
(A) Carbon Monoxide (CO)

(I) Preparation

- (i) It is formed together with CO_2 , when carbon or carbonaceous matter is oxidized by air or oxygen. It is also produced when CO_2 is reduced by red-hot carbon; this reaction is of importance in metal extractions.



- (ii) In the laboratory it can be prepared by dehydrating methanoic acid with concentrated sulphuric acid.



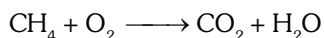
(II) Physical Properties

- (i) Carbon monoxide is a colourless, odourless gas which burns in air with a blue flame, forming CO_2 .
- (ii) It is sparingly soluble in water and is a neutral oxide.
- (iii) CO is toxic, because it forms a complex with haemoglobin in the blood and this complex is more stable than oxy-haemoglobin. This prevents the haemoglobin in the red blood corpuscles from carrying oxygen round the body. This causes oxygen deficiency, leading to unconsciousness and then death.
- (iv) It acts as good reducing agents for all metal oxide.

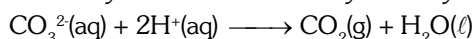
(B) CARBON DIOXIDE (CO₂)

Preparation :

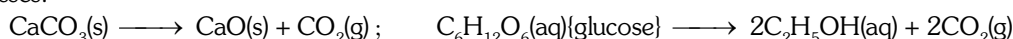
- (i) Complete combustion of carbon containing compounds.



- (ii) In the laboratory it can be conveniently made by the action of dilute hydrochloric acid on marble chips :

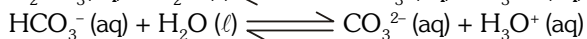
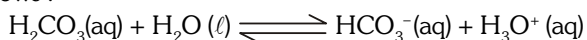


- (iii) Industrially it is produced as a by-product during the manufacture of quicklime and in fermentation processes:



Properties :

- (i) It is a colourless, odourless and heavy gas.
- (ii) Carbon dioxide is the acid anhydride of carbonic acid, which is a weak dibasic acid and ionises in two steps as follows :



$\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3/\text{HCO}_3^-$ buffer system helps to maintain pH of blood between 7.26 to 7.42.

A solution of carbonic acid in water will slowly turn blue litmus red and when the solution is boiled, all the CO_2 is evolved.

- (iii) Carbon dioxide readily reacts with alkalies forming the carbonate and, if CO_2 is in excess, the hydrogen carbonate. This is the basis of the lime-water test for CO_2 gas.



The above reaction accounts for the formation of temporarily hard water.

- (iv) Gaseous CO_2 is extensively used to carbonate soft drinks. Being heavy and non-supporter of combustion it is used as fire extinguisher. A substantial amount of CO_2 is used to manufacture urea.

(C) Carbides :

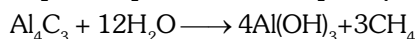
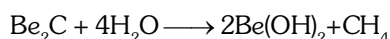
On the basis of type of bonding carbides are of three types :-

- (I) Salt like carbides (ionic carbides)
- (II) Covalent carbides (giant molecular carbides)
- (III) Interstitial carbides.

(I) Salt like carbides (ionic carbides) :

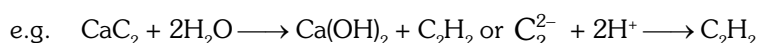
- (a) These are formed by strong electropositive elements of groups 1, 2 and 13
- (b) These are transparent crystalline substances and do not conduct electric current in the solid state.
- (c) These are easily hydrolysed by water or dilute acids to give aliphatic hydrocarbons,
 - (i) **Methanides (Methides)** – Methanides are the carbides which give methane on hydrolysis.

They contain C^{4-} ions.



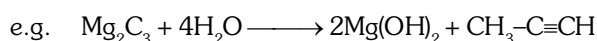
- (ii) **Acetylides** – These are the carbides which yield acetylene on hydrolysis.

They contain the ion C_2^{2-} .



- (iii) **Allylides** – These carbides give methylacetylene or allylene ($CH_3-C\equiv CH$) on hydrolysis.

They contain C_3^{4-} ions.



(II) Covalent carbides (giant molecular carbides)

- (a) Covalent carbides are the compounds of carbon with elements having similar electronegativity.
- (b) These are covalent, polymeric, thermally stable, extremely hard, high melting and technically inert solid.
- (c) B_4C and SiC are two main covalent carbides.

(III) Interstitial carbides.

Transition metals like Ti, Zr, Hf, V, Nb, Ta and Mo form these carbides. The metals retain their **close packed lattice** and carbons are incorporated in their interstitial spaces. These carbides are extremely hard and have very high melting points. The carbides of V and Ta are very hard hence they are used for manufacture of high speed cutting tools.

GLASS

- (a) Glass is a hard, brittle transparent, amorphous solid or supercooled liquid made up of silicates of Na, Ca and other metals like Pb, Zn etc.
- (b) Being amorphous solid (not a true solid) it has no sharp melting and melts at high temperature.
- (c) Glass has no definite chemical formula, however it may be represented as :



where M = monovalent metals (eg : Na, K)

M' = bivalent metals Ca, Pb, Zn etc. x and y are integers.

- (d) $CaO + Na_2CO_3 + 6SiO_2 \xrightarrow{1700K} Na_2SiO_3 + CaSiO_3 + 4SiO_2 + CO_2$
Glass

Different Types of Glass

- (i) **Soda or Soft glass or Sodalime glass** : It is common glass. Contains Na & Ca metal carbonate. Used for formation of tube, window.
- (ii) **Potash or Hard glass** : It is a mixture of potassium and calcium silicates. It fuses with difficulty. It is used for making hard glass apparatus.

(iii) **Flint glass** : It is mixture of potassium and lead silicates. It has a very high refractive index and is used for making electric bulbs and optical instruments.

(iv) **Crooke's glass** : It is a optical glass containing CeO_2 which prevents the entry of UV rays.

(v) **Pyrex glass or borasil or borosilicate glass** : It is used to make lab appliances as it is resistant to heat, shock and common reagents. It is a mixture of zinc and barium boro silicates and alumina silicate.

Small part of SiO_2 is replaced by boric oxide/borax.

Low coefficient and thermal expansion, can with stand sudden change in temperature so used for making lab glass wares.

SOME GASEOUS FUELS

(a) Water gas or syn gas = $\text{CO} + \text{H}_2$

(b) Producer gas = $\text{CO} + \text{N}_2$

(c) Semi water gas = $\text{CO} + \text{N}_2 + \text{H}_2$

(d) Natural gas = CH_4

(e) Coal gas = $[\text{CO}_2 + \text{CO} + \text{H}_2 + \text{CH}_4]$

NITROGEN FAMILY (GROUP 15)

Group 15 includes nitrogen, phosphorus, arsenic, antimony and bismuth.

PHYSICAL PROPERTIES:

- Dinitrogen is a diatomic gas while all others are solids.
- Except nitrogen, all the elements show allotropy.
- As we go down the group, there is a shift from non-metallic to metallic through metalloid character. Nitrogen and phosphorus are non-metal, arsenic and antimony are metalloid and bismuth is a typical metal.

CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

Oxidation States and trends in a chemical reactivity :

- The common oxidation states of these elements are -3, +3 and +5. The tendency to exhibit -3 oxidation state decreases down the group, bismuth hardly forms any compound in -3 oxidation state.
- Nitrogen also exhibits +1, +2, +4 oxidation states when it reacts with oxygen. Phosphorus also shows +1 and +4 oxidation states in some oxyacids.
- In the case of nitrogen, all oxidation states from +1 to +4 tend to disproportionate in acid solution.

For example, $3\text{HNO}_2 \longrightarrow \text{HNO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O} + 2\text{NO}$

- Similarly, in case of phosphorus nearly all intermediate oxidation states disproportionate into +5 and -3 both in alkali and acid. However +3 oxidation state in case of arsenic, antimony and bismuth become increasingly stable with respect to disproportionation.

Reactivity towards hydrogen :

- All the elements of Group 15 form hydrides of the type EH_3 where E=N, P, As, Sb or Bi.
- The stability of hydrides decreases from NH_3 to BiH_3 . Consequently the reducing character of the hydrides increases. Ammonia is only a mild reducing agent while BiH_3 is the strongest reducing agent amongst all the hydrides. Due to weaker Bi-H bond.

Reactivity towards oxygen :

- All these elements form two types of oxides : E_2O_3 and E_2O_5 . The oxides of the type E_2O_3 of nitrogen and phosphorus are purely acidic, that of arsenic and antimony amphoteric and those of bismuth is predominantly basic.

Reactivity towards halogens :

- These elements react to form two series of halides : EX_3 and EX_5 .
- All the trihalides of these elements except those of nitrogen are stable. In case of nitrogen, only NF_3 is known to be stable. Trihalides except BiF_3 are predominantly covalent in nature.

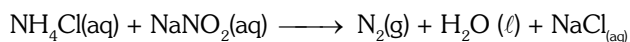
COMPOUND OF NITROGEN

NITROGEN GAS (N_2) :

Nitrogen is an important and essential constituent of proteins and amino acids. Nitrates and other nitrogen compounds are extensively used in fertilizers and explosive.

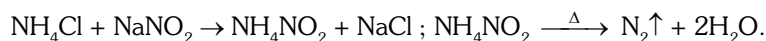
(a) Preparation :

(i) Laboratory method of preparation :

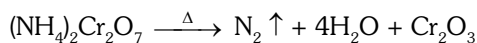


N_2 is collected by the downward displacement of water.

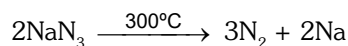
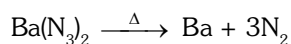
This reaction takes place in two steps as given below :



(ii) **By heating ammonium dichromate :**



(iii) **Very pure nitrogen can be obtained by heating sodium or barium azide.**



(iv) **Industrial methods of preparation :**

From liquified air by fractional distillation : The boiling point of N_2 is -196°C and that of oxygen is -183°C and hence they can be separated by fractional distillation of air.

(b) Properties :

(i) N_2 is a colourless, odourless gas very less soluble in water. It is neither combustible nor a supporter of combustion.

(ii) **Reaction with oxygen:** Dinitrogen combines with dioxygen only at very high temperature (at about 2000K) to form nitric oxide.

This reaction is endothermic. $\text{N}_2 + \text{O}_2 \longrightarrow 2\text{NO}$

(c) Uses :

(i) For providing an inert atmosphere during many industrial processes where presence of air or O_2 is to be avoided.

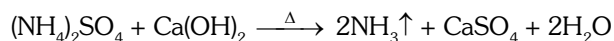
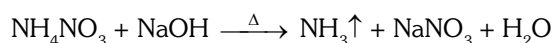
(ii) For manufacture of NH_3 by the Haber's process.

(iii) Liquid dinitrogen is used as a refrigerent to preserve biological materials, food items & cryosurgery.

AMMONIA (NH_3)

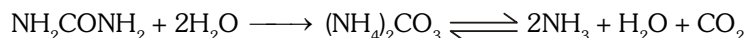
(a) Preparation :

(i) By the action of any base or alkali on any ammonium salt :

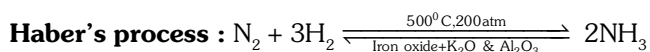


This is a general method and is used as a test for ammonium salts.

Ammonia is present in small quantities in air and soil where it is formed by the decay of nitrogenous organic matter e.g., urea.



(ii) Industrial methods of preparation :

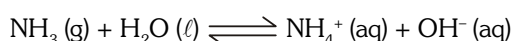


In accordance with Le Chatelier's principle, high pressure would favour the formation of ammonia. The optimum conditions for the production of ammonia are a pressure of 200×10^5 Pa (about 200 atm), a temperature of ~ 700 K and the use of a catalyst such as iron oxide with small amounts of K_2O and Al_2O_3 to increase the rate of attainment of equilibrium.

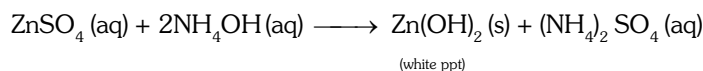
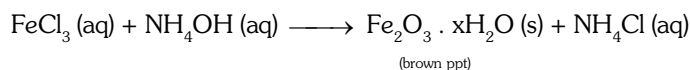
(b) Physical properties : Ammonia is a colourless gas with a pungent odour.

(c) Chemical properties :

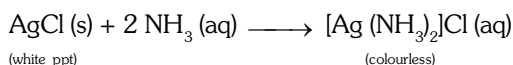
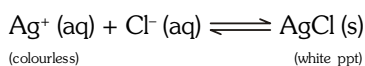
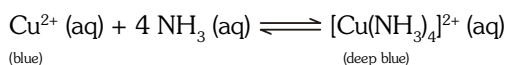
(i) Its aqueous solution is weakly basic due to the formation of OH^- ions.



- (ii) It forms ammonium salts with acids, e.g., NH_4Cl , $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ etc. As a weak base, it precipitates the hydroxides of many metals from their salt solutions. For example ,



- (iii) The presence of lone pair of electrons on the nitrogen atoms of the ammonia molecule makes it a Lewis base. It donates the electrons pair and forms linkage with metal ions and the formation of such complex compounds finds applications in detection of metal ions such as Cu^{2+} , Ag^+

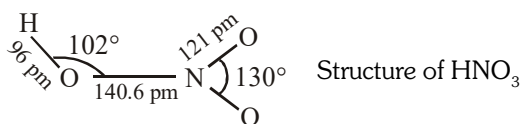


OXIDES OF NITROGEN :

Nitrogen forms a number of oxides, N_2O , NO , N_2O_3 , NO_2 or N_2O_4 and N_2O_5 . All these oxides of nitrogen exhibit $\pi\pi$ - $\pi\pi$ multiple bonding between nitrogen and oxygen.

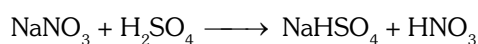
Name	Formula	Oxidation state of nitrogen	Common methods of preparation	Physical appearance and chemical nature
Dinitrogen oxide [Nitrogen(I) oxide]	N_2O	+ 1	$\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3 \xrightarrow{\text{Heat}} \text{N}_2\text{O} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	colourless gas , neutral
Nitrogen monoxide [Nitrogen(II) oxide]	NO	+ 2	$2\text{NaNO}_2 + 2\text{FeSO}_4 + 3\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \longrightarrow \text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + 2\text{NaHSO}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 2\text{NO}$	colourless gas , neutral
Dinitrogen trioxide [Nitrogen(III) oxide]	N_2O_3	+ 3	$2\text{NO} + \text{N}_2\text{O}_4 \xrightarrow{250\text{ K}} 2\text{N}_2\text{O}_3$	blue solid , acidic
Nitrogen dioxide [Nitrogen(IV) oxide]	NO_2	+ 4	$2\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \xrightarrow{673\text{ K}} 4\text{NO}_2 + 2\text{PbO} + \text{O}_2$	brown gas, acidic
Dinitrogen tetroxide [Nitrogen(IV) oxide]	N_2O_4	+ 4	$2\text{NO}_2 \xrightleftharpoons[\text{Heat}]{\text{cool}} \text{N}_2\text{O}_4$	colourless solid / liquid , acidic
Dinitrogen pentoxide [Nitrogen(V) oxide]	N_2O_5	+ 5	$4\text{HNO}_3 + \text{P}_4\text{O}_{10} \longrightarrow 4\text{HPO}_3 + 2\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$	colourless solid, acidic

NITRIC ACID (HNO_3)



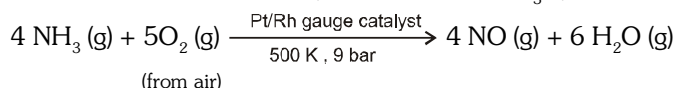
(a) Preparation :

In the laboratory, nitric acid is prepared by heating KNO_3 or NaNO_3 and concentrated H_2SO_4 in a glass retort.

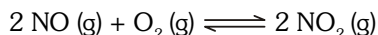


On a large scale it is prepared mainly by **Ostwald's process**.

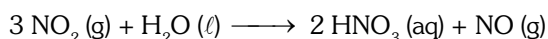
This method is based upon catalytic oxidation of NH_3 by atmospheric oxygen.



Nitric oxide thus formed combines with oxygen giving NO_2 .



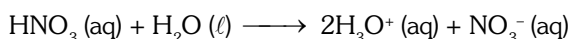
Nitrogen dioxide so formed, dissolves in water to give HNO_3 .



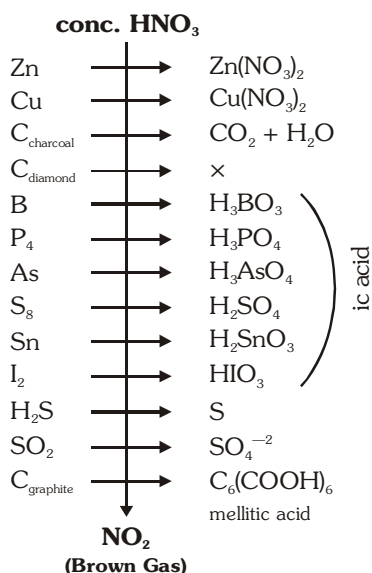
NO thus formed is recycled and the aqueous HNO_3 can be concentrated by distillation upto ~ 68% by mass. Further concentration to 98% can be achieved by dehydration with concentrated H_2SO_4 .

(b) Physical properties :

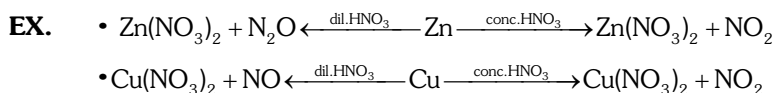
- (i) It is a colourless liquid. Freezing point is 231.4 K and boiling point is 355.6 K. Laboratory grade nitric acid contains ~ 68% of the HNO_3 by mass and has a specific gravity of 1.504.
- (ii) In the gaseous state, HNO_3 exists as a planar molecule.
- (iii) In aqueous solution, nitric acid behaves as a strong acid giving hydronium and nitrate ions.



- (iv) Concentrate nitric acid is a strong oxidising agent and attacks most metals except Au & Pt. The product of oxidation depend upon the concentration of the acid, temperature and nature of metal.
- (v) Concentrate HNO_3 also oxidises non-metals and their compounds.

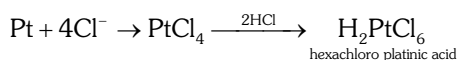
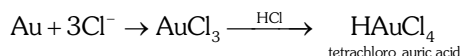


Types of Metal	conc. HNO_3	dil. HNO_3	very dil. HNO_3
negative SRP metal	Metal nitrate + NO_2	Metal nitrate + N_2O	Metal nitrate + $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3/(\text{NH}_3)$
positive SRP metal & Pb	Metal nitrate + NO_2	Metal nitrate + NO	×
Metalloids, Non-metals & Sn	ic-acid + NO_2	×	×



SOME EXCEPTIONAL POINTS

- **Mg and Mn form H_2 gas on reaction with very dilute HNO_3**
- **Be, Al, Fe, Cr do not react with conc. HNO_3 due to formation of protective oxide layer.**
- **Au and Pt (Noble metals) do not react with conc. HNO_3**
- **Sn reacts with conc. HNO_3 and forms H_2SnO_3 (metastannic acid)**
- **Au and Pt react only with aqua regia (3 part of conc. HCl and 1 part of conc. HNO_3)**



conc. HNO_3 + skin \rightarrow yellow spot (protein \rightarrow xanthoprotein)

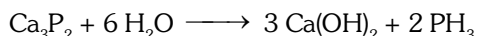
- **The major use of nitric acid is in the manufacture of ammonium nitrate for fertilizers and other nitrates for use in explosives and pyrotechnics. It is also used for the preparation of nitroglycerin, trinitrotoluene and other organic nitro compounds. Other major uses are in the pickling of stainless steel, etching of metals and as an oxidiser in rocket fuels.**

COMPOUNDS OF PHOSPHORUS :

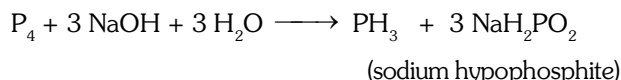
Phosphine (PH_3) :

(a) Preparation :

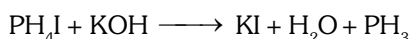
- (i) Phosphine is prepared by the reaction of calcium phosphide with water.



- (ii) In the laboratory, it is prepared by heating white phosphorus with concentrated NaOH solution in an inert atmosphere of CO_2 .



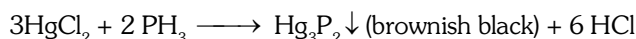
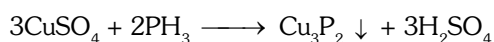
- (iii) When pure, it is non inflammable but becomes inflammable owing to the presence of P_2H_4 or P_4 vapours. To purify it from the impurities, it is absorbed in HI to form phosphonium iodide (PH_4I) which on treating with KOH gives off phosphine.



(b) Properties :

- (i) It is a colourless gas with rotten fish smell and is highly poisonous. It is slightly soluble in water. The solution of PH_3 in water decomposes in presence of light giving red phosphorus and H_2 .

- (ii) When absorbed in copper sulphate or mercuric chloride, the corresponding phosphides are obtained.



- (iii) Phosphine is weakly basic and like ammonia, gives phosphonium compounds with acids



- **Uses :** The spontaneous combustion of phosphine is technically used in **Holme's signals**. Containers containing calcium carbide and calcium phosphide are pierced and thrown in the sea when the gases evolved burn and serve as a signal.
- It is also used in the production of smoke screens. Calcium phosphide reacts with water producing phosphine which burns in air to give clouds of phosphorus pentaoxide and that acts as smoke screens.

PHOSPHOROUS HALIDES

Phosphorous forms two types of halides, PX_3 ($X = F, Cl, Br, I$) and PX_5 ($X = F, Cl, Br$).

Phosphorous Trichloride (PCl_3)

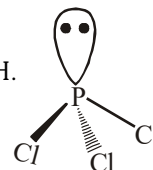
(a) Method of preparation

- (i) It is obtained by passing dry chlorine over heated white phosphorus.
$$P_4 + 6Cl_2 \rightarrow 4PCl_3$$
- (ii) It is also obtained by the action of thionyl chloride with white phosphorus.
$$P_4 + 8SOCl_2 \rightarrow 4PCl_3 + 4SO_2 + 2S_2Cl_2$$

(b) Properties

- (i) It is a colourless oily liquid and hydrolyses in the presence of moisture.
$$PCl_3 + 3H_2O \rightarrow H_3PO_3 + 3HCl$$
- (ii) It reacts with organic compounds containing $-OH$ group such as CH_3COOH , C_2H_5OH .
$$3CH_3COOH + PCl_3 \rightarrow 3CH_3COCl + H_3PO_4$$

$$3C_2H_5OH + PCl_3 \rightarrow 3C_2H_5Cl + H_3PO_3$$



PHOSPHORUS PENTACHLORIDE (PCl_5)

(a) Method of preparation

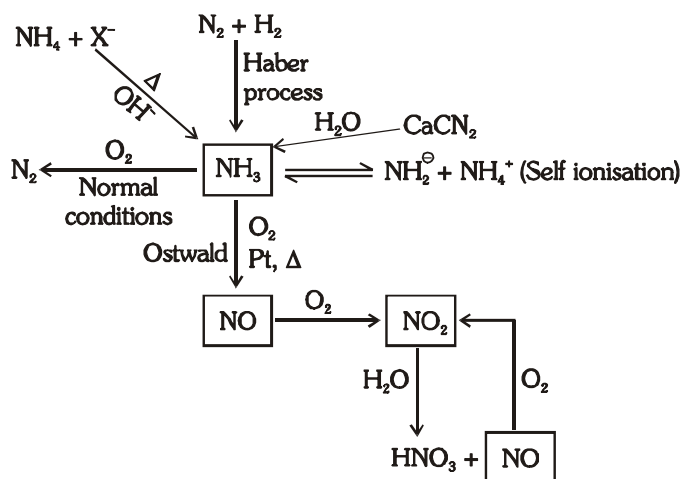
- (i) Phosphorus pentachloride is prepared by the reaction of white phosphorus with excess of dry chlorine.
$$P_4 + 10Cl_2 \rightarrow 4PCl_5$$
- (ii) It can also be prepared by the action of SO_2Cl_2 on phosphorus.
$$P_4 + 10SO_2Cl_2 \rightarrow 4PCl_5 + 10SO_2$$

(b) Properties

- (i) PCl_5 is a yellowish white powder and in moist air, it hydrolyses to $POCl_3$ and finally gets converted to phosphoric acid.
$$PCl_5 + H_2O \rightarrow POCl_3 + 2HCl$$

$$POCl_3 + 3H_2O \rightarrow H_3PO_4 + 3HCl$$
- (ii) When heated, it sublimes but decomposes on stronger heating.
$$PCl_5 \xrightarrow{\text{Heat}} PCl_3 + Cl_2$$
- (iii) It reacts with organic compounds containing $-OH$ group converting them to chloro derivatives.
$$C_2H_5OH + PCl_5 \rightarrow C_2H_5Cl + POCl_3 + HCl$$
- (iv) Finally divided metals on heating with PCl_5 give corresponding chlorides.
$$2Ag + PCl_5 \rightarrow 2AgCl + PCl_3$$

$$Sn + 2PCl_5 \rightarrow SnCl_4 + 2PCl_3$$
- (v) It is used in the synthesis of some organic compounds, e.g., C_2H_5Cl , CH_3COCl .



NCERT QUESTIONS (REASONING)

Q. Why BiH_3 is the strongest reducing agent amongst all the hydrides of Group 15 elements ?

Ans. In hydrides of nitrogen family on moving down the group M-H bond length increases so bond strength decreases hence tendency to release hydrogen increases and reducing nature increases.
Increasing order of reducing nature is $\text{NH}_3 < \text{PH}_3 < \text{AsH}_3 < \text{SbH}_3 < \text{BiH}_3$

Q. Write the reaction of thermal decomposition of sodium azide.

Ans. Thermal decomposition of sodium azide gives dinitrogen gas.
$$2\text{NaN}_3 \rightarrow 2\text{Na} + 3\text{N}_2$$

Q. Why N_2 is less reactive at room temperature?

Ans. N_2 is less reactive at room temperature because of the high bond enthalpy of $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ bond.

Q. Why does $\text{R}_3\text{P}=\text{O}$ exist but $\text{R}_3\text{N}=\text{O}$ does not (R = alkyl group)?

Ans. Due to presence of vacant d orbital phosphorous can form five covalent bond, while nitrogen restricts its covalency to four due to absence of vacant d orbitals.

Q. Why does nitrogen show catenation properties less than phosphorus?

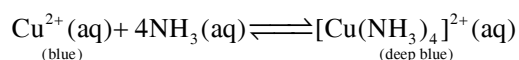
Ans. N-N bond is weaker than the single P-P bond due to high interelectronic repulsion of non-bonding electrons as a result the catenation tendency is weaker in nitrogen.

Q. Mention the conditions required to maximise the yield of ammonia.

Ans. In accordance with Le Chatelier's principle, high pressure would favour the formation of ammonia. The optimum conditions for the production of ammonia are a pressure of 200×10^5 Pa (about 200 atm), a temperature of ~ 700 K and the use of a catalyst such as iron oxide with small amounts of K_2O and Al_2O_3 to increase the rate of attainment of equilibrium.

Q. How does ammonia react with a solution of Cu^{2+} ?

Ans. The presence of a lone pair of electrons on the nitrogen atom of the ammonia molecule makes it a Lewis base. It donates the electron pair and forms linkage with metal ions and the formation of such complex compounds finds applications in detection of Cu^{2+} .



Q. Illustrate how copper metal can give different products on reaction with HNO_3 .

Ans.
$$3\text{Cu} + 8\text{HNO}_3(\text{dilute}) \rightarrow 3\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 + 2\text{NO} + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$$
$$\text{Cu} + 4\text{HNO}_3(\text{conc.}) \rightarrow \text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 + 2\text{NO}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$$

Q. Why is nitrogen di-oxide paramagnetic in gaseous state but the solid obtained on cooling it is diamagnetic.

Ans. NO_2 contains odd number of electrons in its valence shell. On cooling it forms dimer and converted to stable N_2O_4 which is a colourless solid and diamagnetic in nature.

Q. Why NH_3 gas cannot be dried by passing over P_2O_5 , CaCl_2 and H_2SO_4 ?

Ans. $\text{CaCl}_2 + 8\text{NH}_3 \longrightarrow \text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 8\text{NH}_3$

$\text{P}_2\text{O}_5 + 6\text{NH}_3 + 3\text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow 2(\text{NH}_4)_3\text{PO}_4$

$\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + 2\text{NH}_3 \longrightarrow (\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$

So it is dried by passing over quick lime (CaO).

$\text{CaO} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow \text{Ca(OH)}_2$

Q. Why inert atmosphere of CO_2 is taken in the formation of PH_3 by the reaction of white phosphorous with conc. NaOH solution.

Ans. To decrease the partial pressure of O_2 in atmosphere.

Q. Why does PCl_3 fumes in moisture?

Ans. PCl_3 hydrolyses in the presence of moisture giving fumes of HCl

$\text{PCl}_3 + 3\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_3\text{PO}_3 + 3\text{HCl}$

Q. What happens when PCl_5 is heated?

Ans. When heated, it sublimes but decomposes on stronger heating

$\text{PCl}_5 \xrightarrow{\Delta} \text{PCl}_3 + \text{Cl}_2$

Q. Can PCl_5 act as an oxidising as well as reducing agent? Justify.

Ans. It can act as an oxidising as well as reducing agent due to oxidising nature of P(V) and reducing nature of Cl^-



OXYGEN FAMILY (GROUP 16)

INTRODUCTION

Oxygen, sulphur, selenium, tellurium and polonium constitute group 16 of the periodic table. This is sometimes known as group of chalcogens (ore forming elements) because a large number of metals ores are oxides or sulphides.

Physical Properties :

- Oxygen and sulphur are non-metal, selenium and tellurium metalloids, whereas polonium is a metal. Polonium is radioactive and is short lived (Half-life 13.8 days).
- The melting and boiling points increase with an increase in atomic number down the group. The larger difference between the melting and boiling points of oxygen and sulphur may be explained on the basis of their atomicity; oxygen exist as diatomic molecules (O_2) whereas sulphur exists as polyatomic molecule (S_8).

CATENATION

Tendency for catenation decreases down the group. This property is prominently displayed by sulphur (S_8). The S—S bond is important in biological system and is found in some proteins and enzymes such as cysteine.

Chemical Properties

Oxidation states and trends in chemical reactivity :

The elements of group 16 exhibit a number of oxidation states. The stability of -2 oxidation state decreases down the group. Except oxygen other elements of the group exhibit + 2, + 4, + 6 oxidation states but + 4 and + 6 are more common. Sulphur, selenium and tellurium usually show + 4 oxidation in their compounds with oxygen and +6 oxidations state with fluorine. The stability of +6 oxidation state decreases down the group and stability of + 4 oxidation state increases (inert pair effect). Bonding in + 4 and + 6 oxidation states are primarily covalent.

(i) Reactivity with hydrogen :

All the elements of group 16 form hydrides of the type H_2E ($E = O, S, Se, Te, Po$).

- (ii) **Reactivity with oxygen :** All these elements form oxides of the EO_2 and EO_3 types where $E = S, Se, Te$ or Po . Ozone (O_3) and sulphur dioxide (SO_2) are gases while selenium dioxide (SeO_2) is solid. Reducing property of dioxide decreases from SO_2 to TeO_2 ; SO_2 is reducing while TeO_2 is an oxidising agent. Besides EO_2 type sulphur, selenium and tellurium also form EO_3 type oxides (SO_3, SeO_3, TeO_3). Both types of oxides are acidic in nature.

- (iii) **Reactivity toward the halogens :** Elements of group 16 form a larger number of halides of the type EX_6 , EX_4 and EX_2 where E is an element of the group -16 and X is an halogen. The stabilities of the halides decrease in the order $F > Cl > Br > I$. Amongst hexahalides, hexafluorides are the only stable halides. All hexafluorides are gaseous in nature. They have octahedral structure. Sulphur hexafluoride SF_6 is exceptionally stable for steric reasons.

Amongst tetrafluorides, SF_4 is a gas, SeF_4 liquid and TeF_4 a solid

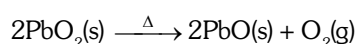
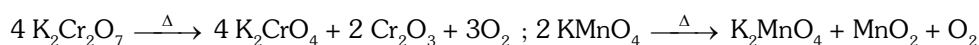
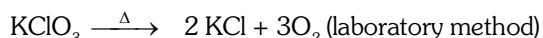
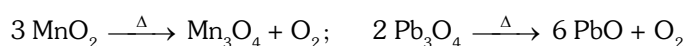
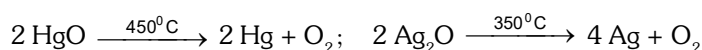
All elements except selenium form dichlorides and dibromides. The well known monohalides are dimeric in nature, Examples are $S_2F_2, S_2Cl_2, S_2Br_2, Se_2Cl_2$ and Se_2Br_2 . These dimeric halides undergo disproportionation as given $2Se_2Cl_2 \longrightarrow SeCl_4 + 3Se$.

COMPOUNDS OF OXYGEN

DIOXYGEN (O_2)

(a) Preparation of DiOxygen (O_2) :

By thermal decomposition of oxides of metals.

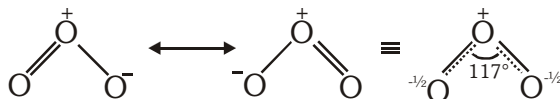


Properties:

- Dioxygen is a colourless and odourless gas.
- Oxygen atom has three stable isotopes: ^{16}O , ^{17}O and ^{18}O . Molecular oxygen.
- O_2 is paramagnetic (by MOT)
- Dioxygen directly reacts with nearly all metals and non-metals except some metals (e.g., Au, Pt) and some noble gases.

OZONE (O_3):

Preparation : It is prepared by passing silent electric discharge through pure and dry oxygen.



Mixture obtained contains 5-10% ozone by volume and this mixture is called ozonised oxygen.

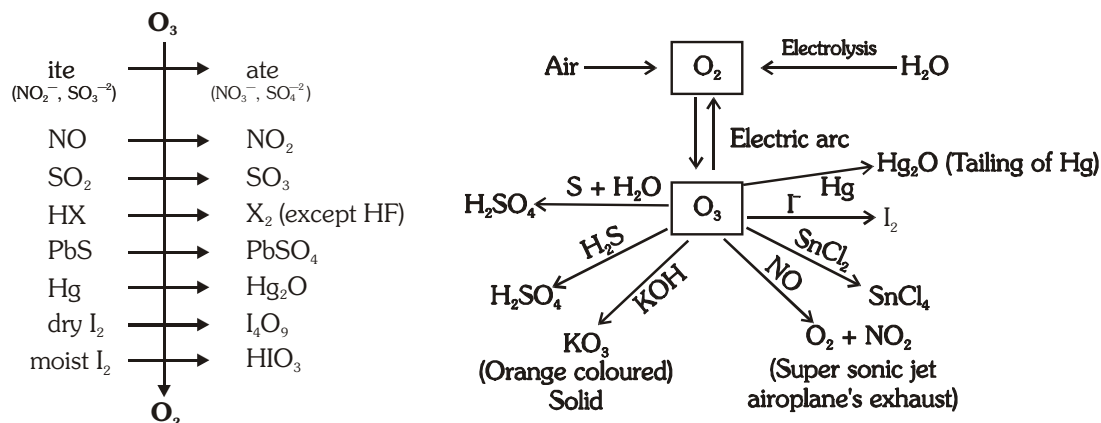
Since the formation of ozone from oxygen is an endothermic process, it is necessary to use a silent electrical discharge in its preparation to prevent its decomposition. If concentrations of ozone greater than 10 per cent are required, a battery of ozonisers can be used, and pure ozone (b.p. 385 K) can be condensed in a vessel surrounded by liquid oxygen.

Properties :

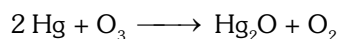
- Pure ozone is a pale blue gas, dark blue liquid and violet-black solid.
- Ozone is thermodynamically unstable with respect to oxygen since its decomposition into oxygen results in the liberation of heat (ΔH is negative) and an increase in entropy (ΔS is positive). These two effects reinforce each other, resulting in large negative Gibbs energy change (ΔG) for its conversion into oxygen. Therefore, high concentrations of ozone can be dangerously explosive.

Oxidising behaviour of ozone :

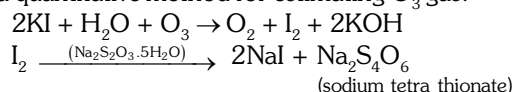
Due to the ease with which it liberates atoms of nascent oxygen ($\text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{O}$), it acts as a powerful oxidising agent. For example, it oxidises lead sulphide to lead sulphate and iodide ions to iodine.

**Tests for Ozone**

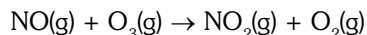
Tailing of mercury : Pure mercury is a mobile liquid but when brought in contact with O_3 its mobility decreases and it starts sticking to glass surface forming a type of tail due to the dissolution of Hg_2O (mercury sub-oxide) in Hg.



Estimation of Ozone : When ozone reacts with an excess of potassium iodide solution buffered with a borate buffer (pH 9.2), iodine is liberated which can be titrated against a standard solution of sodium thiosulphate. This is a quantitative method for estimating O₃ gas.



Depletion of ozone layer : Experiments have shown that nitrogen oxides (particularly nitric oxide) combine very rapidly with ozone and there is, thus, the possibility that nitrogen oxides emitted from the exhaust systems of supersonic jet aeroplanes might be slowly depleting the concentration of the ozone layer in the upper atmosphere.

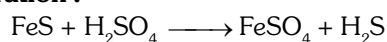


Another threat to this ozone layer is probably posed by the use of freons which are used in aerosol sprays and as refrigerants.

COMPOUNDS OF SULPHUR :

Hydrogen Sulphide (H₂S)

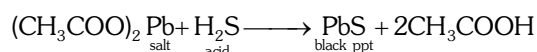
Preparation :



It is prepared in kipp's apparatus

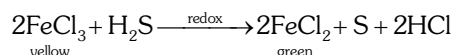
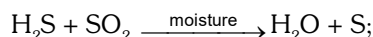
Properties :

- (i) Colourless gas with rotten egg smell .
- (ii) Moderately soluble in water but solubility decreases with increasing temperature.
- (iii) It gives black ppt with lead acetate



Reducing behaviour :

Acts as a strong reducing agent as it decomposes evolving hydrogen.



SO₂ (Sulphur Dioxide)

Preparation :

- (i) $\text{S} + \text{O}_2 \text{ or air} \xrightarrow{\text{Burn}} \text{SO}_2$
- (ii) By reaction of metal sulphites with dilute HCl (Laboratory method)

$$\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3 + 2\text{HCl} \longrightarrow 2\text{NaCl} + \text{SO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$$

Similarly bisulphites also give SO₂ with dilute HCl

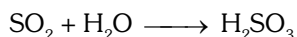
$$\text{NaHSO}_3 + \text{HCl} \longrightarrow \text{NaCl} + \text{SO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$$
- (iii) By heating sulphides (metal sulphide ores) in excess of air.

$$2\text{ZnS} + 3\text{O}_2 \longrightarrow 2\text{ZnO} + 2\text{SO}_2$$

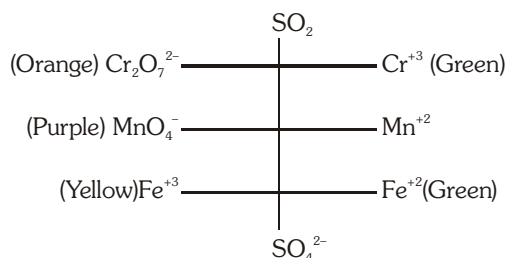
By this method SO₂ is obtained in large scale

Properties :

- (i) Colourless gas with pungent smell.
- (ii) It is heavier than air and is highly soluble in water.
- (iii) Acidic Nature : Acidic oxide and thus dissolve in water forming sulphurous acid.

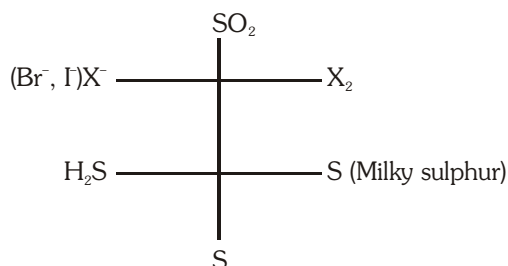


Reducing nature :



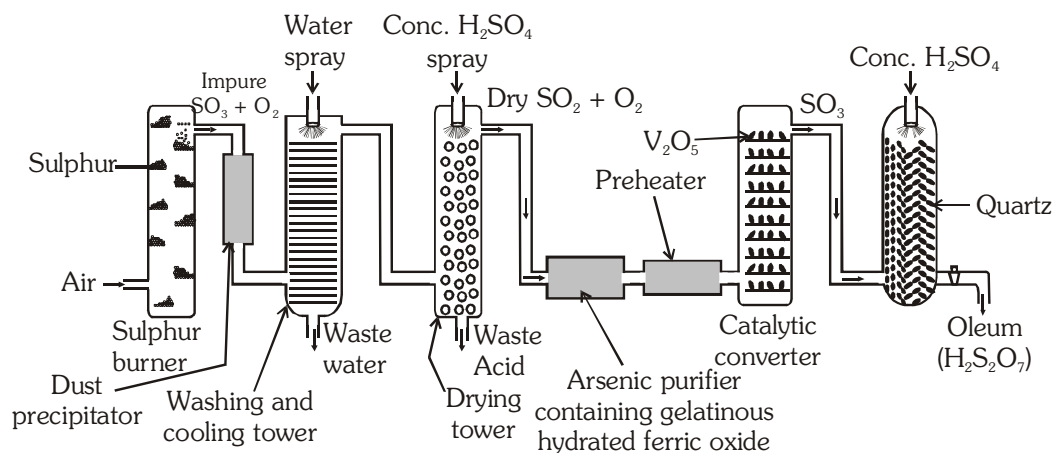
The above reactions are not given by CO_2 , so they are used to distinguish between SO_2 and CO_2

Oxidising nature : Acts as oxidising agent with strong reducing agent



SULPHURIC ACID (H_2SO_4) :

Manufacture by contacts process :



Flow diagram for the manufacture of sulphuric acid

Sulphuric acid is one of the most important industrial chemicals worldwide.

Sulphuric acid is manufactured by the contact process which involves three steps :

- burning of sulphur or sulphide ores in air to generate SO_2
- Conversion of SO_2 to SO_3 by the reaction with oxygen in the presence of a catalyst (V_2O_5), and
- Absorption of SO_3 in H_2SO_4 to give Oleum ($\text{H}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_7$)

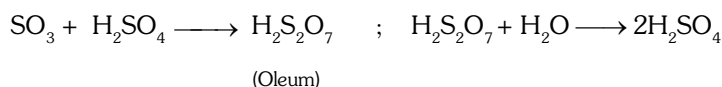
The SO_2 produced is purified by removing dust and other impurities such as arsenic compounds.

The key step in the manufacture of H_2SO_4 is the catalytic oxidation of SO_2 with O_2 to give SO_3 in the presence of V_2O_5 (catalyst).



The reaction is exothermic reversible and the forward reaction leads to a decrease in volume. Therefore, low temperature and high pressure are the favourable conditions for maximum yield. But the temperature should not be very low otherwise rate of reaction will become slow.

Dilution of oleum with water gives H_2SO_4 of the desired concentration. In the industry two steps are carried out simultaneously to make the process a continuous one and also to reduce the cost.

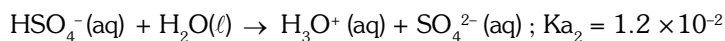
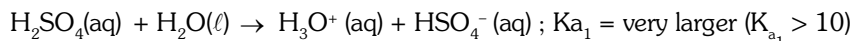


The sulphuric acid obtained by Contact process is 96-98% pure.

Properties : Sulphuric acid is a colourless, dense, oily liquid with a specific gravity of 1.84 at 298 K. The acid freezes at 283 K and boils at 611 K. It dissolves in water with the evolution of a larger quantity of heat.

The chemical reaction of sulphuric acid are as a result of the following characteristics : (a) low volatility (b) strong acidic character (c) strong affinity for water and (d) ability to act as an oxidising agent in aqueous solution,

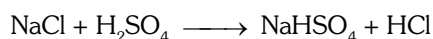
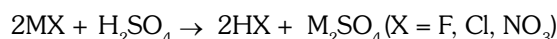
- (i) Sulphuric acid ionises in two steps.



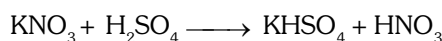
The larger value of K_{a_1} ($K_{a_1} > 10$) means that H_2SO_4 is largely dissociated into H^+ and HSO_4^- . Greater the value of dissociation constant (K_a) the stronger is the acid.

- (ii) **The acid forms two series of salts :** Normal sulphates (such as sodium sulphate and copper sulphate and acid sulphate (e.g., sodium hydrogen sulphate)

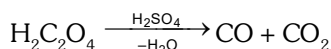
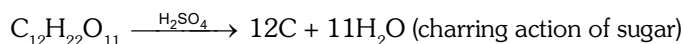
- (iii) Sulphuric acid, because of its low volatility can be used to manufacture more volatile acid from their corresponding salts.



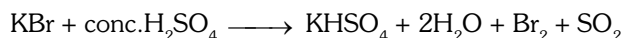
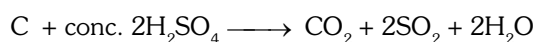
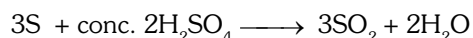
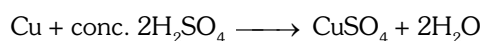
(M = Metal)



- (iv) Concentrated sulphuric acid is a strong dehydrating agent. Many wet gases can be dried by passing them through sulphuric acid, provided the gases do not react with the acid. Sulphuric acid removes water from organic compound; it is evident by its charring action on carbohydrates.



- (v) Hot concentrated sulphuric acid is moderately strong oxidising agent. In this respect it is intermediate between phosphoric and nitric acids. Both metals and non-metals are oxidised by concentrated sulphuric acid, which is reduced to SO_2 .



NCERT QUESTIONS (REASONING)

Q. H_2S is less acidic than H_2Te . Why?

Ans. Due to the decrease in bond (E–H) dissociation enthalpy down the group, acidic character increases.

Q. Why is H_2O a liquid and H_2S a gas?

Ans. Hydrogen bonds are present between H_2O molecules while between H_2S molecules, vander Waal's forces are present.

Q. Why is dioxygen a gas but sulphur a solid?

Ans. Oxygen exist as a O_2 molecule while sulphur exist as a S_8 molecule due to more molecular mass sulphur is solid.

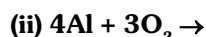
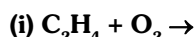
Q. Knowing the electron gain enthalpy values for $\text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}^-$ and $\text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}^{2-}$ as -141 and 702 kJ mol^{-1} respectively, how can you account for the formation of a large number of oxides having O^{2-} species and not O^- ?

Ans. Consider lattice energy factor in the formation of compounds.

Q. Which of the following does not react with oxygen directly? Zn, Ti, Pt, Fe

Ans. Pt is a noble metal which does not react directly with oxygen.

Q. Complete the following reactions:



Ans. (i) $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + 3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{CO}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

(ii) $4\text{Al} + 3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$

Q. How is O_3 estimated quantitatively?

Ans. When ozone reacts with an excess of potassium iodide solution buffered with a borate buffer (pH 9.2), iodine is liberated which can be titrated against a standard solution of sodium thiosulphate. This is a quantitative method for estimating O_3 gas.

Q. What happens when sulphur dioxide is passed through an aqueous solution of Fe(III) salt?

Ans. $2\text{Fe}^{+3} + \text{SO}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 2\text{Fe}^{+2} + \text{SO}_4^{-2} + 4\text{H}^+$

Q. How is the presence of SO_2 detected?

Ans. It has colourless gas with pungent smell and decolourise acidified KMnO_4 solution.

Q. Write the conditions to maximise the yield of H_2SO_4 by Contact process.

Ans. The reaction is exothermic, reversible and the forward reaction leads to a decrease in volume. Therefore, low temperature and high pressure are the favourable conditions for maximum yield. But the temperature should not be very low otherwise rate of reaction will become slow.

Q. Why is $K_{a_2} \ll K_{a_1}$ for H_2SO_4 in water?

Ans. It is difficult to remove H^+ ion from HSO_4^- ion.

HALOGEN FAMILY (GROUP-17)

(A) PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

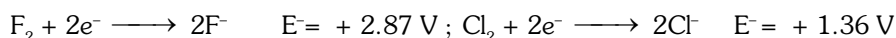
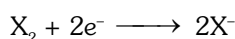
- (i) Fluorine and chlorine are gases, bromine is a liquid whereas iodine is a solid.
- (ii) Their melting and boiling points steadily increase with atomic number.
- (iii) All halogens are coloured. This is due to absorption of radiations in visible region which results in the excitation of outer electrons to higher energy level. By absorbing different quanta of radiation, they display different colours.
For example, F_2 , has yellow, Cl_2 , greenish yellow, Br_2 , red and I_2 , violet colour.
- (iv) Fluorine and chlorine react with water. Bromine and iodine are only sparingly soluble in water. But are soluble in organic solvents such as chloroform, carbon tetrachloride, carbon disulphide and hydrocarbons to give coloured solutions.
- (v) Except the smaller enthalpy of dissociation of F_2 compared to that of Cl_2 . **The X-X bond disassociation enthalpies from chlorine onwards show the expected trend : $Cl - Cl > Br - Br > F - F > I - I$. The reason for the smaller enthalpy of dissociation of F_2 is the relatively larger electrons-electrons repulsion among the lone pairs in F_2 molecule where they are much closer to each other than in case of Cl_2 .**

(B) CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

(i) Oxidation states and trends in chemical reactivity

- All the halogens exhibit -1 oxidation state. However, chlorine, bromine and iodine exhibit $+1$, $+3$, $+5$ and $+7$ oxidation states also. The higher oxidation states of chlorine, bromine and iodine are realised mainly when the halogens are in combination with the small and highly electronegative fluorine and oxygen atoms e.g., in interhalogens, oxides and oxoacids.
- The fluorine atom has no d orbitals in its valence shell and therefore cannot expand its octet. Being the most electronegative, it exhibits only -1 oxidation state.
- All the halogens are highly reactive. They react with metals and non-metals to form halides. The reactivity of the halogens decreases down the group.

Standard Reduction Potential (SRP)



More the value of the SRP, more powerful is the oxidising agent.

Hence the order of oxidising power is $F_2 > Cl_2 > Br_2 > I_2$

Order of reducing behaviour is $I^- > Br^- > Cl^- > F^-$

(ii) Halogen oxides :

- Fluorine forms two oxides OF_2 and O_2F_2 . However, only OF_2 is the thermally stable at 298 K. These oxide are essentially oxygen fluorides because of the higher electronegativity of fluorine than oxygen. Both are strong fluorinating agents.
- O_2F_2 oxidises plutonium to PuF_6 and the reaction is used in removing plutonium as PuF_6 from spent nuclear fuel.
- Chlorine, bromine and iodine form oxides in which the oxidation states of these halogen vary from $+1$ to $+7$. A combination of kinetic and thermodynamic factors lead to the generally decreasing order of stability of oxides formed by halogens, $I > Cl > Br$. The higher oxides of halogens tend to be more stable than the lower ones. This is called middle row anomaly.
- Chlorine oxides, Cl_2O , ClO_2 , Cl_2O_6 and Cl_2O_7 are highly reactive oxidising agents and tend to explode. ClO_2 is used as a bleaching agent for paper pulp and textiles and in water treatment.
- The bromine oxides, Br_2O , BrO_2 , BrO_3 are the least stable halogen oxides and exist only at low temperature. They are very powerful oxidising agents.
- The iodine oxides, I_2O_4 , I_2O_5 , I_2O_7 are insoluble solids and decompose on heating. I_2O_5 is very good oxidising agent and is used in the estimation of carbon monoxide.

COMPOUNDS OF HALOGEN

CHLORINE GAS (Cl₂)

(a) Preparation :

- (i) By heating chloride with concentrated H₂SO₄ in presence of MnO₂.

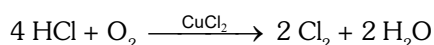


Bromides and iodides also liberate Br₂ and I₂ respectively with concentrated H₂SO₄ and MnO₂.

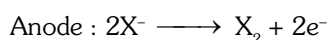
- (ii) • $\text{CaOCl}_2 + 2\text{HCl} \longrightarrow \text{CaCl}_2 + \text{Cl}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
• $2\text{KMnO}_4 + 16\text{HCl} \rightarrow 2\text{KCl} + 2\text{MnCl}_2 + 5\text{Cl}_2 + 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$
• $\text{PbO}_2 + 4\text{HCl} \rightarrow \text{PbCl}_2 + \text{Cl}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

(iii) Manufacture of chlorine :

- **Deacon's process** : By oxidation of hydrogen chloride gas by atmospheric oxygen in the presence of CuCl₂ (catalyst) at 723 K.



- **Electrolytic process** : Chlorine is obtained by the electrolysis of brine (concentrated NaCl solution). Chlorine is liberated at anode. It is obtained as a by-product in many chemical industries e.g.; in manufacturing of sodium hydroxide.

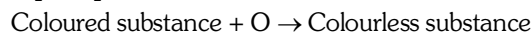
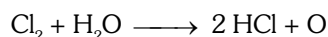


(b) Properties :

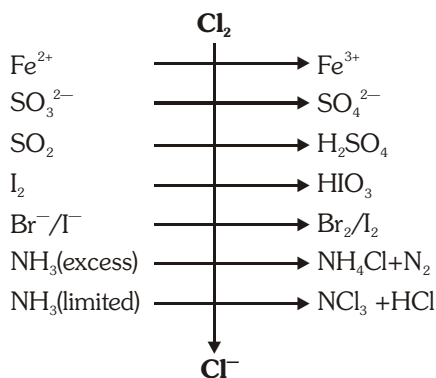
- (i) It is a greenish-yellow gas with pungent and suffocating odour. It is about 2–5 times heavier than air. It can be liquefied into greenish-yellow liquid which boils at 239 K. It is soluble in water.

- (ii) **Oxidising & bleaching properties** : Chlorine dissolves in water giving HCl and HOCl. Hypochlorous acid (HOCl) so formed, gives nascent oxygen which is responsible for oxidising and bleaching properties of chlorine.

It is a powerful bleaching agent ; bleaching action is due to oxidation.



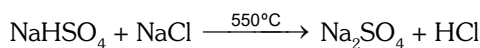
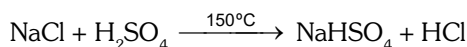
It bleaches vegetable or organic matter in the presence of moisture. Bleaching effect of chlorine is permanent.



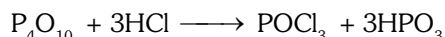
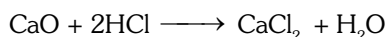
HALOGEN ACIDS (HCl)

(a) Preparation :

- (i) **By heating a halide with concentrated acid :**



- Above method is called as salt cake method as it involves the formation of NaHSO_4 (salt cake).
- HCl cannot be dried over P_2O_5 (P_4O_{10}) or quick lime since they react with gas chemically.



- HCl is, hence dried by passing through concentrated H_2SO_4 .

(b) Properties :

- This is colourless, pungent smelling gas with acidic taste.
- This is neither combustible nor supporter of combustion.
- When perfectly dry, HX have no action on litmus, but in presence of moisture, they turn blue litmus red, showing acidic nature. Among HX , HI is the strongest and HF is the weakest acid.

Pseudo halogens and pseudo halides : Some inorganic compounds consisting of two or more atoms of which at least one is N have been found to behave like halogens & they are known as pseudo halogen solids,

Pseudo halogens	Pseudo halides
(i) $(\text{CN})_2$ cyanogen	(i) $(\text{CN})^-$ cyanide ion
(ii) $(\text{SCN})_2$ thiocyanogen	(ii) $(\text{SCN})^-$ thiocyanate ion
(iii) $(\text{SeCN})_2$ selenocyanogen	(iii) $(\text{SeCN})^-$ selenocyanate ion
(iv) $(\text{SCSN}_3)_2$ azidocarbonyldisulphide	(iv) $(\text{OCN})^-$ cyanate ion
	(v) $(\text{NCN})^{2-}$ cyanamide ion
	(vi) $(\text{N}_3)^-$ azide ion etc.

INTERHALOGEN COMPOUNDS :

We know that halogen atoms have different electronegativity. Due to this difference in electronegativity the halogen atoms combine with each other and give rise to the formation of binary covalent compounds, which are called interhalogen compounds. These are of four types.

AB	AB_3	AB_5	AB_7^*
ClF	ClF_3	ClF_5	IF_7
BrF	BrF_3	BrF_5	
ICl	ICl_3	IF_5	
IF	IF_3		

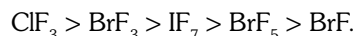
* Where A - halogen of smaller size and A is more electro positive than B.

(a) Properties :

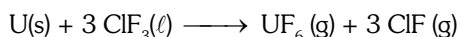
- These compounds may be gases, liquids or solids.
Gases : ClF , BrF , ClF_3 , IF_7 ; Liquids : BrF_3 , BrF_5 ; Solids : ICl , IBr , IF_3 , ICl_3 .
- Interhalogens containing fluorine are generally colourless but inter halogens consisting of heavier halogens are coloured. The intensity of colour increases with increase in the molecular weight of the compounds.
- All interhalogens are covalent molecules and are diamagnetic in nature since all the valence electrons present as bonding or non-bonding electrons are paired.
- Interhalogen compounds are more reactive than the parent halogens but less reactive than F_2 .



The order of reactivity of some interhalogens is as follows :



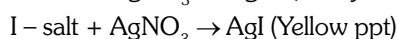
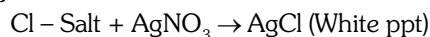
- (v) These compounds can be used as non aqueous solvents. Interhalogen compounds are very useful fluorinating agents. ClF_3 and BrF_3 are used for the production of UF_6 in the enrichment of ^{235}U .



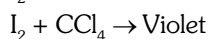
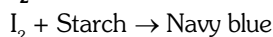
TEST OF HALOGENS

F^- = **Itching of glass**

AgNO_3 test (Cl^- , Br^- , I^-)



Test of I_2



Layer test (Br^- , I^-)



(**Note :** In case of I^- violet colour is obtained.)

Chromyl chloride test (Test of Cl^-) : see d-block

NCERT QUESTIONS (REASONING)

Q. Covalent radius of fluorine is 64 pm but the bond length is not equal to 128 pm and that is 143 pm and bond energy is found to be comparable to I_2 .

Ans. This may be attributed to $\ell.p - \ell.p$ repulsions due to small size of F atom.

Q. Electron affinity of chlorine is more than F. Inspite of this F_2 is the better oxidising agent. Why?

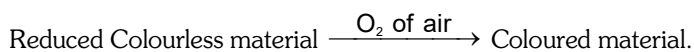
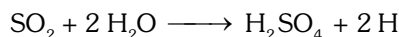
Ans. SRP of F_2 is much higher than that of Cl_2 on account of smaller bond dissociation energy and high hydration energy of F^- ion.

Q. Layer test of Br^- is successful with Cl_2 but not with I_2 . Explain?

Ans. Br^- is oxidised by Cl_2 but not by I_2

Q. What is the difference between bleaching action of SO_2 and Cl_2

Ans. The bleaching action of SO_2 is temporary because it takes place through reduction.



The bleaching action of Cl_2 is permanent because it takes place through oxidation

Q. (a) When HCl reacts with finely powdered iron, it forms ferrous chloride and not ferric chloride. why?

(b) Chlorine water turns blue litmus red but solution becomes colourless after sometime.

Ans. (a) It forms H_2 gas. $\text{Fe} + 2 \text{HCl} \longrightarrow \text{FeCl}_2 + \text{H}_2$.

Liberation of hydrogen prevents the formation of ferric chloride.

(b) Blue litmus change into red due to acidic nature ($\text{Cl}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{HOCl} + \text{HCl}$) but it is bleaching agent, therefore, it decolourises the red litmus.

ZERO GROUP (GROUP-18)

INTRODUCTION

Group 18 consists of six elements: helium, neon, argon, krypton, xenon and radon. All these are gases and chemically unreactive. They form very few compounds. Because of this they are termed noble gases.

(A) PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

- (i) All the noble gases are mono-atomic.
- (ii) They are colourless, and tasteless. They are sparingly soluble in water.
- (iii) They have very low melting and boiling points because the only type of interatomic interaction in these elements is weak dispersion forces.
- (iv) Helium has the lowest boiling point (4.2K) of any known substance. It has a unusual property of diffusing through most commonly used laboratory materials such as rubber, glass or plastics.

(B) CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

In general, noble gases are least reactive. Their inertness to chemical reactivity is attributed to the following reasons:

- (i) The noble gases except helium ($1s^2$) have completely filled $ns^2 np^6$ electronic configuration in their valence shell.
- (ii) They have high ionisation enthalpy and more positive electron gain enthalpy.

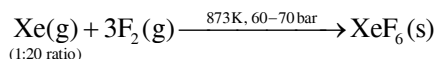
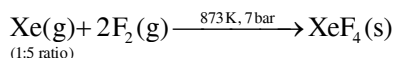
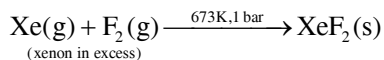
Neil Bartlett, observed the reaction of a noble gas. First, he prepared a red compound which is formulated as $O_2^+ [PtF_6]^-$. He, then realised that the first ionisation enthalpy of molecular oxygen (1175 kJ mol^{-1}) was almost identical with that xenon (1170 kJ mol^{-1}). He made efforts to prepare same type of compound with $Xe^+ [PtF_6]^-$ by mixing PtF_6 and Xenon. After this discovery, a number of xenon compounds mainly with most electronegative elements like fluorine and oxygen, have been synthesised.

The compounds of krypton are fewer. Only the difluoride (KrF_2) has been studied in detail. Compounds of radon have not been isolated but only identified (e.g., RnF_2) by radiotracer technique. No true compounds of Ar, Ne or He are yet known.

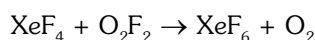
COMPOUNDS OF XENON

Xenon-fluorine compounds

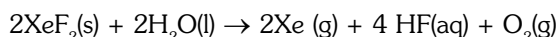
Xenon forms three binary fluorides, XeF_2 , XeF_4 and XeF_6 by the direct reaction of elements under appropriate experimental conditions.



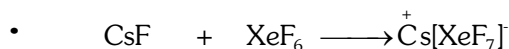
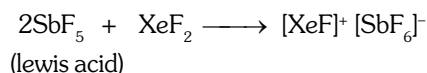
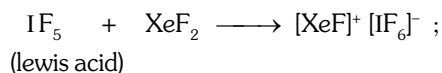
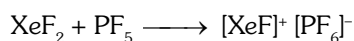
XeF_6 can also be prepared by the interaction of XeF_4 and O_2F_2 at 143K.



XeF_2 , XeF_4 and XeF_6 are colourless crystalline solids and sublime readily at 298 K. They are powerful fluorinating agents. They are readily hydrolysed even by traces of water. For example, XeF_2 is hydrolysed to give Xe, HF and O_2 .



Formation of addition compounds : XeF_2 reacts with fluoride ion acceptors to form cationic species and fluoride ion donors to form fluoroanions.



[With s-block fluorides and alkyl fluorides it is F^- acceptor with others it is F^- donor]

USES OF INERT GASES :

- (1) He is non-inflammable and light gas, so it is used in filling balloons for meteorological observations.
- (2) He is used in gas cooled nuclear reactors.
- (3) Liquid He is used as cryogenic agent.
- (4) He is used to produce powerful superconducting magnets.
- (5) Ne is used in discharge tubes.
- (6) Ar is used as inert atmosphere in metallurgical process.
- (7) Xenon and Krypton are used in light bulbs designed for special purposes.

IMPORTANT ORDER :

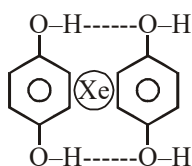
- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| (1) $\text{He} < \text{Ne} < \text{Ar} < \text{Kr} < \text{Xe}$ | Atomic radius |
| (2) $\text{He} > \text{Ne} > \text{Ar} > \text{Kr} > \text{Xe}$ | Ionisation energy |
| (3) $\text{He} < \text{Ne} < \text{Ar} < \text{Kr} < \text{Xe} < \text{Rn}$ | Density |
| (4) $\text{He} < \text{Ne} < \text{Ar} < \text{Kr} < \text{Xe} < \text{Rn}$ | mpt. bpt |

[Atomic mass / size / polarisability / London force] \uparrow

- (5) $\text{He} < \text{Ne} < \text{Ar} < \text{Xe} < \text{Rn}$ **[solubility in water because of dipole-induced dipole attraction]**

Clathrate Compounds : Larger inert gas atoms are trapped into cavity or crystal structure of some organic compounds and form clathrate compounds. For eg xenon diquinol.

- Force of attraction between noble gas and organic compound is **dipole-induced dipole** attraction.



He, Ne do not form clathrate compounds due to smaller size