(iii) Octahedral complexes involving chelate groups like acetyl acetone, oxalates and 8-hydroxy quinoline.

COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ELEMENTS OF CARBON FAMILY

General Characteristics. The elements carbon, silicon, germanium, tin and lead belong to group IV A or 14 of the periodic table. Their general electron configuration is $ns^2 np^2$ and hence all are tetravalent. These belong to p-block of the periodic table.

Their general characteristics are given in the following table 3.5.

Table 3.5 Some physical properties of group IV A Elements.

Property 1	Elements, Carbon,C →	Silicon, Si	Gormanium, Go	Tin, Sn	Lond, Pb
The same of the sa		14	32	50	82
Atomic number	0 22.22.2	INIa110 3-2 3n2	1Ar118 3d104524p2	1Kcl364d105s25p2	$[Xe]^{54}4f^{14}5d^{16}6s^{2}6p + II. (+ IV)$
Electronic configuration	$[\text{He}]^2 2s^2 2p^2$ (+ 11), + 1V	(+11), $+1V$	(+ ID. + IV	+ 11, + 15	+ 11. (+ 17)
Oxidation states*	(+11), +10	(411), 414	(, 11), , , ,	- 1	
Ionisation energies keal/mole	1st 260	188	182	169	171
remained energies designion	2nd 562	377	367	337	347
	3rd 1103	772	789	707	740
	4th 1486	1040	1053	939	967
Total	3411	2377	2391	2152	2225
Density (gm/ml)	3.51 (diamond)	2.35	5.36	6.00	11.34
Matria and	2.25 (graphite)				
Melting point (°C)	= 3750	1423	960	231.19	327
Boiling point (°C) Electronegativity	3800	2680	2380	268.7	1751
(Pauling scale)	2.5	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8
Atomic radii (Å)	0.77	1.17	1.22		
onic radii (Å) of M ⁴⁺	0.16	1.17 0.52	1.22	1.41	1.54
Atomic weight	12.011		0.53	0.71	0.84
NOMALOUS BEH		28.09	72.60	118.70	207.21

ANOMALOUS BEHAVIOUR OF CARBON

Carbon differs from rest of the elements in group 14 because of its smaller size, higher electronegativity and non-availability of d-orbitals. Thus:

- (i) Maximum coordination number shown by carbon is 4 because of non-availability of d-subshell in its penultimate shell. Other elements of group 14 show coordination number 4 and 6. e.g., CCl₄, SiCl₄, [SiF₆]²⁻ [SnCl₆]²⁻. etc.
- (ii) Carbon forms multiple bonds such as C = C, $C \equiv C$, $C \equiv N$, C = O, C = S etc. due to its small size. Other elements of group 14 usually do not show multiple bond.
- (iii) Carbon has a great tendency to catenation (i.e. tendency to form long chains). This tendency of carbon is related to the strength of bond (in kJ mol⁻). The bond strength in kJ mol⁻ of some bonds in group
- C C (348); Si Si (222); Ge Ge (167) and Sn-Sn (155). Since C-C bond strength is more, carbon shows the property of catenation.

PERIODICITY IN PROPERTIES OF GROUP 14 ELEMENTS

From the electron configuration of these elements, it is clear that C and Si have noble gas kernel beneath their valence shell while Ge, Sn and Pb have 18 electrons in their penultimate shell. Lead has even 32 electron in its ante-penultimate shell. So, there is regular gradation in properties of these elements down the group.

1. Size of atom (atomic radii and atomic volume). Both atomic radii and atomic volume increase down the group as shown below:

Atomic radii (pm)	C 72.2	Si 117.6	Ge 122 3	Sn 140.5	Pb
Atomic volume (cm ³)	5.4	11.4			- 10
*Uncommon oxidation states are given i	n brackets	11.4	13.6	16.3	18.27
0	oracicia,				10,7%

The reason is that as we go down the group, the screening effect of the new added shells is greater than the effective nuclear charge of the elements.

2. Ionisation energy. The ionisation energy to form M⁴⁺ ions in group 14 elements has the following order:

$$C > Si < Gc > Sn < Pb$$
.

The order of I.E. of C and Si is same as expected.

However in case of germanium, the filling of 3d subshell increase the nuclear charge and provides poorly shielding d-electrons. Similarly in case of tin and lead, the filling of 4f and 5f subshells increases the poorly since and provides poorly shielding f-electrons. This explains the above irregular order of ionisation

- 3. Metallic and non-metallic character. A metal has a tendency to lose electrons and become electro energies. positive. $(M \rightarrow M^+ + e^-)$. Smaller the value of ionisation energy of an element, greater the case with which it will lose electron and greater will be its metallic character. The decrease in ionisation energy on moving down the group from Si to Ge and further to Sn and Pb is comparatively smaller. Thus C and Si are non-metals, germanium is metalloid while tin and lead are metals. The increase in metallic character is exhibited in the following characters.
 - (i) Malleability, ductility and electrical conductivity nature. (ii) Structure and appearance of elements
- (iii) Increase in basic character, decrease in acidic character of their oxides and hydroxides and increased tendency to form M²⁺ ions down the group.
- 4. Electronegativity values. The electronegativity value of these elements do not decrease in a regular way. For example; (C = 2.5), Si (1.8), Ge (1.8), Sn (1.8), Pb (1.9). It is probably due to the filling of d and later f-orbitals of elements down the group.
- 5. Oxidation states. (a) Carbon. C^{4-} (Ne gas configuration formation) is energetically unfavourable because very high energy will be required to add four electrons to C-atom. However, C⁴⁻ ion is thought to exist in Be₂C and Al₄C₃. Also C⁴⁺ ion (He gas configuration) formation is energetically unfavourable because very high energy (1411 kcal/mole) is required to remove four electrons from neutral gaseous carbon atoms. $_6$ C (excited) is $1s^22s^12p_x^12p_y^12p_z^1$. It undergoes sp^3 hybridisation and forms four equivalent hybrid orbitals which are directed towards the four corners of a regular tetrahedron. Thus, it shows a covalency of four. Divalent carbon compounds are unstable but are known in organic reactions in which transient carbene intermediates like: \hat{CH}_2 and: CF_2 are known.
 - (b) Silicon. Its ionisation energies to form Si^{4+} ion are much less than C^{4+} ion and shows covalency of four in $SiCl_4$.
- (c) Germanium, tin and lead. All these elements exhibit +2 and +4 oxidation states. As we go from Ge to Pb, the stability of +2 oxidation state increases while that of +4 oxidation state decreases. It is due to the increasing stability of inert pair of s-electrons in the valence shell. Thus, the decreasing order of stability of +2 and +4 oxidation states is:

$$Pb^{2+} > Sn^{2+} > Gc^{2+}$$
; $Ge^{4+} > Sn^{4+} > Pb^{+4}$

It indicates that (1) SnCl₂ is less stable and hence better reducing agent than PbCl₂

$$\operatorname{Sn}^{2+} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Sn}^{4+} + 2e^{-} ; \operatorname{Pb}^{2+} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Pb}^{4+} + 2e^{-}$$

Since Sn⁴⁺ ion is more stable than Pb⁴⁺ ion, Sn²⁺ ion is better reducing agent than Pb²⁺ ion. (2) PbCl₄ is less stable than SnCl₄. Thus PbCl₄ is better oxidising agent than SnCl₄

$$Pb^{4+} + 2e^{-} \longrightarrow Pb^{2+}$$
; $Sn^{4+} + 2e^{-} \longrightarrow Sn^{2+}$

Types of compounds. M²⁺ ions are bigger in size and smaller in the amount of charge than M⁴⁺ ions. Thus M²⁺ ions and M⁴⁺ ions are expected to form ionic and covalent compounds respectively. Hence, as we go down the group, the tendency to form ionic compounds increases. However, the oxides and fluorides of tin and lead, viz SnO₂, SnF₄, PbO₂, and PbF₄ are ionic in nature.

- 6. Melting point, boiling point and heat of atomisation. As we go down the group, the inter-atomic force decreases. As a result, the melting point, boiling point and heat of atomisation decrease.
- 7. Formation of complexes. The tendency of an element to form complexes is favoured by its small size high charge and availability of vacant orbitals of right energy in it. Since ${}_{6}C$ [(He) ${}^{2}2s^{2}2p^{2}$] has no d-orbital so it cannot extend its octet. It is only tetravalent (e.g., CH_{4} , CCl_{4}) and does not form any complex compound

Silicon and other members of the group have vacant (n-1) d subshells. So, these can extend their octet and form complex compounds having coordination number 4 and more than 4. For example, it is 6 for Si $(SiF_6)^{2-}$ and Ge, $[GeCl_6]^{2-}$ and 8 for Sn and Pb.

$$Si F_4 + 2F^- \longrightarrow [SiF_6]^{2-}; SnCl_4 + 2Cl^- \longrightarrow [SnCl_6]^{2-}$$

In these complexes, the central atom Si and Sn form four covalent and two coordinate bonds through sp^3d^2 hybridisation as shown in fig. 3.18. $(SiF_6)^{2-}$ and $(SnCl_6)^{2-}$ both have octahedral structure.

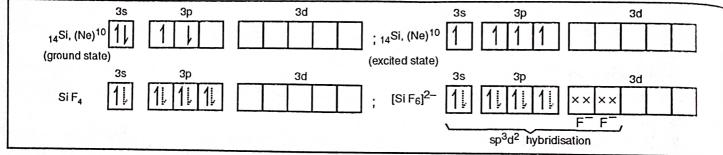


Fig. 3.18.

- 8. formation of tetra-alkyls. These elements form tetra-alkyls e.g. silicon forms tetraethylsilicon, Si $(C_2 H_5)_4$ and lead forms tetra ethyl lead, Pb $(C_2 H_5)_4$
- 9. Hydrides. All the group 14 elements form covalent hydrides. The number formed and the ease of their formation decreases as we go down the group.
- (a) Carbon forms a large number of chain and ring compounds including alkanes $(C_n H_{2n+2})$, alkenes $(C_n H_{2n})$, alkynes $(C_n H_{2n-2})$ and aromatic compounds due to catenation. Here, the limit of 'n' is not known.
- (b) Silicon forms a limited number of saturated hydrides, $Si_n H_{2n+2}$ (straight or branched chains) called silanes. Here n is from 2 to 6. Their limited number is due to weak Si-Si bond.
- (c) Germanium hydrides behave similarly as silicon. But germanium hydrides, GeH₄ (germane), Ge₂H₆ (digermane), Ge₃H₈ (trigermane) etc. are less readily hydrolysed and are less inflammable.
- (d) Tin. It forms two hydrides: stannane (SnH_4) and distanane (Sn_2H_6). SnH_4 is less stable but can be prepared by reducing $SnCl_4$ with $Li(AlH_4)$ in ether at $-30^{\circ}C$.
- (e) Lead. It forms plumbane, PbH₄. It is less stable than stannane and is difficult to be prepared. It has however, been prepared by the cathodic reduction and has been detected by mass spectrometer.

From above we see that the number formed and ease of formation of hydrides decrease as we move down the group.

Stability of hydrides. As we go down the group, the stability of hydrides goes on decreasing. It is

- (i) In hydrides of carbon, the electronegativity difference between C(2.5) and H(2.1) is extremely small. Thus H-atom in C-C-H bond does not withdraw electronic charge to much extent. As a result, the strength of the last it is a few to be a small of the last it.
- (ii) In hydrides of silicon, the electronegativity of H(2.1) is more than Si(1.8). Thus, H-atom withdraws electric charge from Si-H bond and makes Si-Si bond weak. Thus silanes are less stable than alkanes.
- (iii) In hydrides of Ge, Sn and Pb, there is a large difference in the sizes of metals and hydrogen. As a decreases down the group.

Reducing nature. All the hydrides act as reducing agents. Since the decreasing order of stability of hydrides is $CH_4 > SiH_4 > GeH_4 > SnH_4 > PbH_4$

the decreasing order of reducing power is:

$$PbH_4 > SnH_4 > GeH_4 > SiH_4 > CH_4$$

10. Halides. (i) All the group IVA or 14 elements form tetrahedral covalent halides.

(ii) Carbon halides are saturated compounds. Since carbon atoms has no d-orbital, it cannot increase its co- ordination number.

(iii) Except carbon halides, halides of other group IVA or 14 elements undergo hydrolysis. It is because these elements have vacant d-orbitals and can extend their co-ordination number beyond four

$$CCl_4 + H_2O \longrightarrow \text{No action}$$
; $SiCl_4 + 4H_2O \longrightarrow Si(OH)_4 + 4HCl$
Silicic acid

The hydrolysis involves following steps:

- (a) Oxygen atom (donor) of H₂O: forms co-ordinate bond with central atom.
- (b) HX gas (X = halogen atom), then goes out.

(iv) Except carbon halides, all group IVA or 14 halides act as strong Lewis acids. It is because these elements have vacant d-orbtials and can extend their coordination number beyond four.

(v) Stability of CX_4 (X = halogen) decreases with increase in the molecular weight of halogen. It is because, the C - X bond energy (kcal/mole) decreases with increase in atomic weight of halogen e.g.

$$C - F = 116 : C - Cl = 81 ; C - Br = 68 ; C - I = 51.$$

(vi) Volatility of group IVA or 14 halides decreases regularly with increase in the molecular weight of

(vii) Since Br₂ and I₂ are weak oxidants, these are unable to oxidise Pb²⁺ to Pb⁴⁺. Hence PbBr₄ and tetrahalides.

11. Oxides. Elements of group IVA form monoxides and dioxides. Oxides of carbon differ from oxides Pbl4 are unknown. of other elements because these contain $p\pi - p\pi$ multiple bonds between carbon and oxygen. Various oxides of carbon are CO, CO₂, C₃O₂, C₅O₂ and C₁₂O₉. We shall discuss CO, CO₂ and oxides of other elements of group IVA. The tendency to form monoxide increases down the group.

(vi) Nature of bonding in oxides (i) CO2. X-ray analysis of solid carbon dioxide shows that it is of molecular lattice type in which each CO2 molecule occupies an independent position in the geometric

pattern. CO₂ molecules are held together by weak polar intermolecular attractions.

(vii) SiO2. X-ray analysis shows that SiO2 has an infinite three dimensional structure. In SiO2, silicon and oxygen atoms are held together by strong covalent forces in a continuous chain. Here each silicon atom is bonded tetrahedrally to four oxygen atoms. Also each oxygen atom is common to two tetrahedra (Fig. 3.19).

CO2 is a gas but other oxides of group IVA or 14 elements are solids. Carbon as well as oxygen atoms are small in size and form multiple covalent bonds. CO₂ has linear structure with zero dipole moment. Hence CO₂ molecules are held together at room temperature by weak intermolecular forces. Thus CO2 is a gas. Other elements of this group are of large size and are unable to form multiple bonds. The Si = O, Ge = O, Sn = O and Pb = O bonds do not exist. As a result, oxides of group IVA

Fig. 3.19 Structure of silicon dioxide.

elements are non-gaseous but are solids. Catenation. Carbon and silicon atoms have the property of catenation (i.e., property to join with one another in large number) to form straight chain and ring compounds. This property is more marked in carbon than in silicon.

CARBON AND TIN

Both show similarity in the formation of allotropic forms as shown below:

Allotropy. Various forms of the same element having same chemical properties but different physical properties are called allotropic forms and the phenomenon is called allotropy. Carbon as well as tin show allotropy. These are explained below:

- 1. Allotropy of carbon. Two main allotropic forms of carbon are diamond and graphite.
- (i) Graphite. Each carbon atom in graphite is sp^2 hybridised. It is bonded to three other carbon atoms through covalent bonds forming hexagonal rings in two dimensions. Thus it has two dimensions sheet like polymeric rings. Any two successive sheets (layers) are about 3.35Å apart and are held by weak van der Waal's forces. It is due to these forces that graphite layers slip easily over each other.

As a result, graphite is very soft to touch and has lower density (2.2 gm/c.c.).

Good Conductivity. Each carbon in graphite is sp^2 hybridised. Thus one valence electron of each carbon atom is free to move from one point to other. The unhybridised orbitals containing one electron each overlap laterally to form π -bonds between adjacent layers.

These electrons are delocalised and are quite free to move under the influence of heat and electric field Thus, graphite is good conductor of heat and electricity.

(ii) Diamond. Each carbon atom in diamond is sp^3 hybridised. It is bonded tetrahedrally to other four carbon atoms by covalent bonds. Thus, it has a three dimensional network of strong covalent bonds. Thus, it is the hardest substance known (m.p. = 3570°C).

Since no electron is left unpaired in its formation, it is a bad conductor of heat and electricity. Each C-C bond length is 1.54 Å and bond angle is 109° 28' or 109.5°.

(i) Allotropy of tin. Allotropic forms of tin are: (i) α or grey tin and (ii) β or white tin.

The two forms co-exist as follows:

$$\alpha - \text{Sn}$$
 $\beta - \text{Sn}$ (Grey. $d = 5.75 \text{ gm/cc}$) (white, $d = 7.31 \text{ gm/c.c}$)

(i) Grey tin. It exists in powder form. It lacks metallic properties and is a poor conductor of electricity. It is stable below 13.2°C and consists of interlocking tetrahedral units.

Bond length, Sn - Sn = 2.80 Å and density = 5.75 gm/cc.

(ii) White tin. It exists in the form of metal. It is soft, ductile and good conductor of heat and electricity. It changes to grey tin at low temperature. It has cubic close packed lattice.

NITROGEN FAMILY

The elements belonging to group V A or 15 or pnictogens are given in table 3.6. Table 3.6 Some physical properties of group VA elements.

			•		
Property ↓	Element Nitrogen, → N	Phosphorus, P	Arsenic, As	Antimony, Sb	Bismuth, Bi
Atomic number Electronic configuration Oxidation states Atomic weight	7 [He] ² 2s ² 2p ³ 0, -I, -II, -III, +I, +II, +III, +IV, +V 14.008	15 [Ne] ¹⁰ 3s ² 3p ³ + III, (+IV), +V 30.975	33 $[Ar]^{18} 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^3$ +III, +V 74.91	51 [Kr]36 4d105s25p3 +III, +V 121.76	$[Xe]^{54} 4f^{14}5d^{10}6s^{2}6p + III, +V$ 208.98
Ionisation energies in kcal/molecule	1st 335	253	226	190	168
	2nd 683 3rd1487	463 695	466 629	429 572	385 589
	4th1784 5th 2256	1184	1155	1018	1044
Cotal	6545	1499 4094	1443 3919	1284 3502	1291 3477

AND O-BLOCK E	ELEMENTS-I				-
And Colores and Co	17.3	1.70 (white P4)	13.1	18,2	21.3
	0.95	1.82 (white P4)	5.72	6,69	9/80
	-210	44 (white P4)	817 (36 mm)	630,5	271
	-195.8	280 (white P4)	613	1337	1559
	3.0	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.9
	0.74	1.10	1.21	1.41	1.52
Deliver D. L.	1.71	1.12	2.22 0.69	2.45 0.90	1.52
Total announces T.C. (grad mose)	0.11	0.34	0.47	0.62	0.74
	1.12	79.8	69.4	47.5	47.5

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

- (a) Physical properties. Some physical properties of group VA elements are given in table 3.6. These properties are discussed below:
- 1. Electronic configuration. The electronic configuration of these elements (table 3.6) shows the presence of five electrons (ns² np³) in their valence shell.
 - 2. Oxidation states. These elements attain inert gas configuration by the following two different methods:
- (a) By transfer of electrons. Nitrogen as well as phosphorus atoms form triply charged negative ions N³⁻, P³⁻) but As, Sb and Bi have little or no tendency to form such ions.

The reasons are: (i) As we move down the group, the size of the element increases and attraction of the nucleus for the newly added electrons decreases.

- (ii) More the negative charge on the ion, more it becomes susceptible to polarisation.
- (iii) A large sized anion cannot fit well in a lattice of small cations.

N3- ions form stable ionic compounds with strong electropositive metals like Li, Mg and Al, e.g., Li₂ N, Mg₃ N₂ and AIN. P³⁻ ions behave similarly but less effectively.

- -3 exidation state is exhibited by N and P atoms through the transfer of electrons from metal atoms to N and P-atoms.
 - +3 and +5 oxidation states. +3 and +5 states are shown by oxides of the type M_2 O_3 and M_2 O_5 respectively.

M⁵⁺ ions are rare. It is due to following reasons;

(i) The size of M⁵⁺ ion is extremely small and its ionisation energy will be abnormally high.

(ii) M⁵⁺ ions are hydrolysed in aqueous solution.

M3+ ions are common. As we move down the group, the inert pair effect increases regularly. Thus, the stability of +3 oxidation state (by the loss of three p electrons) increases while that of + 5

(b) By sharing of electrons. All these elements have three unpaired electrons in their valence shell. Thus, these form three covalent bonds by sharing these electrons with electrons of other atoms e.g.,:

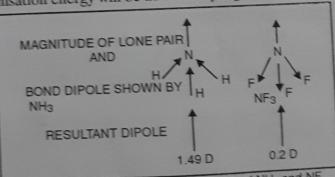


Fig. 3.20 Comparison of dipolemoment of NH3 and NF3 molecules.

NH3, PH3, AsH3 SbH3 and BiH3.

Maximum covalency of N is 4 and those of others is 5 and 6. N-atoms $(_7N = 1s^2 2s^2 2p_x^{-1} 2p_y^{-1} 2p_z^{-1})$ has one lone pair of electrons (2x2) in its valence shell. When it donates its lone pair to H+-ion, NH4+ion is

edino.

n, Bi

1065-60

98

168

. Malume ml	17.3	1.70 (white P ₄)	13.1	18,2	21.3
tomic Volume, ml	0.95	1.82 (white P4)	5.72	6.69	9,80
ensity gm/ml solid	-210	44 (white P4)	817 (36 mm)	630.5	271
clting point (°C)	-195.8	280 (white P4)	613	1337	1559
oiling point (°C) ectronegativity (Pauling scale)	3.0	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.9
ctronegativity (Talanig actio)	0.74	1.10	1.21	1.41	1.52
omic radii (Å) X ³	1.71	1.12	2.22	2.45	**
c radii (Å) X ³⁺	***		0.69	0.90	1.52
+ tof atomisation, 25°C (keal/mole)	0.11	0.34	0.47	0.62	0.74
tol and mental -	1.12	79.8	69.4	47.5	47.5

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

- (a) Physical properties. Some physical properties of group VA elements are given in table 3.6. These properties are discussed below:
- 1. Electronic configuration. The electronic configuration of these elements (table 3.6) shows the presence of five electrons (ns² np³) in their valence shell.
 - 2. Oxidation states. These elements attain inert gas configuration by the following two different methods:
- (a) By transfer of electrons. Nitrogen as well as phosphorus atoms form triply charged negative ions (N^{3-}, P^{3-}) but As, Sb and Bi have little or no tendency to form such ions.

The reasons are: (i) As we move down the group, the size of the element increases and attraction of the nucleus for the newly added electrons decreases.

- (ii) More the negative charge on the ion, more it becomes susceptible to polarisation.
- (iii) A large sized anion cannot fit well in a lattice of small cations.

N³⁻ ions form stable ionic compounds with strong electropositive metals like Li, Mg and Al, e.g., Li₃ N, Mg₃ N₂ and AIN. P³⁻ ions behave similarly but less effectively.

-3 oxidation state is exhibited by N and P atoms through the transfer of electrons from metal atoms to N and P-atoms.

+3 and +5 oxidation states. +3 and +5 states are shown by oxides of the type M_2 O_3 and M_2 O_5 respectively.

 M^{5+} ions are rare. It is due to following reasons;

(i) The size of M⁵⁺ ion is extremely small and its ionisation energy will be abnormally high.

(ii) M⁵⁺ ions are hydrolysed in aqueous solution.

 M^{3+} ions are common. As we move down the group, the inert pair effect increases regularly. Thus, the stability of +3 oxidation state (by the loss of three p electrons) increases while that of +5 decreases.

(b) By sharing of electrons. All these elements have three unpaired electrons in their valence shell. Thus, these form three covalent bonds by sharing these electrons with electrons of other atoms e.g.,:

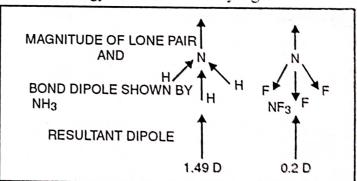


Fig. 3.20 Comparison of dipolemoment of NH₃ and NF₃ molecules.

NH₃, PH₃, AsH₃, SbH₃ and BiH₃.

Maximum covalency of N is 4 and those of others is 5 and 6. N-atoms $(_7N = 1s^2 2s^2 2p_x^{-1} 2p_y^{-1} 2p_z^{-1})$ has one lone pair of electrons $(2s^2)$ in its valence shell. When it donates its lone pair to H^+ -ion, NH_4^+ ion is

^{*}Uncommon oxidation states are in brackets.

strength in NH, intrinsen shows a constancy of four Since Nation has no d-orbital, it is unable to extend its coordination number beyond 4. Hence, nitrogen does not form NF₅ or NCl₂, it may be noted the nitrogen also exhibits 0, -1, -2, -3, +1, +2 and +4 orientation states in N₂, NH₂ OH, N₂ H₄, NH₃, N₂ O, N₃ and NO₃ respectively.

P, As, Sb and Bi have available d-orbitals and can extend their coordination number to 5 or 6 eg

Fluorides of these elements (NF₃, PF₃, AsF₃, ShF₃, BdF₃) exist as ionic solids. The M³⁺ ion undergo, hydrolysis in H₂ O to form SbO⁺ and BiO⁺. The change can be reversed by adding 5M HCl.

3. Metallic and non-metallic character. As we move down the group, there is a decrease in the value of electronogativity and heat of atomisation. As a result, there is an increase in metallic character down to group. Thus N and P are non-metals, As and Sb are metalloids while bismuth is a true metal. This character is indicated in their oxides. For example, the normal oxides of N and P are strongly acidic, those of As and St are amphoteric while that of Bi are strongly basic

4. Ionisation energy. As we go down the group, the screening effect of new shells becomes greater the effective nuclear charge. As a result, the energy required to remove valence electron becomes less and less. Thus the first ionisation energy goes on decreasing down the group. However, the first ionisation energy VA group elements is much higher (than expected) than IVA elements. This trend is explained on the base of (i) increased nuclear charge and (ii) increased stability of half-filled p-orbitals.

5. Catenation (Self-linkage). The property of catenation in group VA elements is less than that of group IVA elements. For example, two N-atoms are bonded together in hydrazine, H₂N - NH₂ while three N-atom

are bonded in hydrazoic acid, H - N = N = N and azide ions, N_3

Reason. The lesser tendency of catenation is due to the weakness of N-N bond strength (3 kcal/mole) as compared to C-O bond (84 kcal/mole). This trend is attributed to the repulsion between non-bonding lone pair of electrons on N-atoms.

The tendency of catenation decreases down the group. It is due to decreasing M – M bond energies at hence decreasing tendency to form chains. For example, P and As form P₂ H₄ and As₂ H₄ respectively.

6. Thermal and electrical conductivity. The thermal and electrical conductivity of group VA element increases with increase in atomic number down the group. It is due to the increasing delocalisation electrons in moving from nitrogen (:N \equiv N:), (co-ordination number, 1) to bismuth (having metallic crystal co-ordination number, 6).

7. Atomic radius, ionic radius $[X^{3-}, X^{3+}, X^{5+})$ atomic voulme, atomic weight, density, melting point (except Bi) and boiling point. These properties increase as we move down the group.

The difference in the size of Sb (1.41 Å) and Bi (1.52 Å) is less than expected. It is because the filling 4d-sub-shell in Sb increases the nuclear charge due to poorly shielding effect of 4d-electrons. The 3d additional protons in Bi-nucleus have a deciding effect in pulling various shells close to the nucleus. As result, the six shells of Bi occupy a little more volume than five shells of Sb. Due to the same reason, there sharp increase in the density of Bi (9.8 gm/cc) than Sb (6.7 gm/cc).

Melting point of Bi is less than that of Sb. It is because of comparatively less availability of pair of electrons in bismuth due to inert pair effect. The inert pair effect increases down the group.

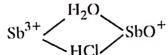
8. Volatile nature. Group VA elements are more volatile than their immediate neighbours. It is because these elements have five electrons $(ns^2 np_x^{-1} np_y^{-1} np_z^{-1})$ in their valence shell. This arrangement

formed. In NH_4^+ ion nitrogen shows a covalency of four. Since N-atom has no d-orbital, it is unable to extend its coordination number beyond 4. Hence, **nitrogen does not form NF**₅ or NCI_5 . It may be noted that nitrogen also exhibits 0, -1, -2, -3, +1, +2 and +4 oxidation states in N_2 , NH_2 OH, N_2 H₄, NH_3 , N_2 O, N_0 and NO_2 respectively.

P, As, Sb and Bi have available d-orbitals and can extend their coordination number to 5 or 6 e_g

 PF_{5} , $[Sb F_{6}]^{-}$, $[PCl_{6}]^{-}$

Fluorides of these elements (NF_{3.}, PF₃, AsF₃, SbF₃, BiF₃) exist as ionic solids. The M³⁺ ion undergoes hydrolysis in H₂ O to form SbO⁺ and BiO⁺. The change can be reversed by adding 5M HCl.



- 3. Metallic and non-metallic character. As we move down the group, there is a decrease in the values of electronegativity and heat of atomisation. As a result, there is an increase in metallic character down the group. Thus N and P are non-metals, As and Sb are metalloids while bismuth is a true metal. This character is indicated in their oxides. For example, the normal oxides of N and P are strongly acidic, those of As and Sb are amphoteric while that of Bi are strongly basic
- 4. Ionisation energy. As we go down the group, the screening effect of new shells becomes greater that effective nuclear charge. As a result, the energy required to remove valence electron becomes less and less. Thus the first ionisation energy goes on decreasing down the group. However, the first ionisation energy of VA group elements is much higher (than expected) than IVA elements. This trend is explained on the basis of (i) increased nuclear charge and (ii) increased stability of half-filled p-orbitals.
- 5. Catenation (Self-linkage). The property of catenation in group VA elements is less than that of group IVA elements. For example, two N-atoms are bonded together in hydrazine, $H_2N NH_2$ while three N-atoms are bonded in hydrazoic acid, H N = N = N and azide ions, N_3

Reason. The lesser tendency of catenation is due to the weakness of N-N bond strength (36 kcal/mole) as compared to C-O bond (84 kcal/mole). This trend is attributed to the repulsion between non-bonding lone pair of electrons on N-atoms.

$$-\overset{\cdot\cdot}{N}-\overset{\cdot}{N}-\overset{\cdot}{N}-\overset{\cdot}{N}-$$

The tendency of catenation decreases down the group. It is due to decreasing M-M bond energies and hence decreasing tendency to form chains. For example, P and As form P_2 H_4 and As_2 H_4 respectively.

- 6. Thermal and electrical conductivity. The thermal and electrical conductivity of group VA elements increases with increase in atomic number down the group. It is due to the increasing delocalisation of electrons in moving from nitrogen (:N \equiv N:), (co-ordination number, 1) to bismuth (having metallic crystal co-ordination number, 6).
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8. Volatile nature. Group VA elements are more volatile than their immediate neighbours. It is because these elements have five electrons $(ns^2 np_x^{-1} np_y^{-1} np_z^{-1})$ in their valence shell. This arrangement is

conducive to form discrete molecules. Since the attraction among such molecules is very small, less energy is conquered to separate them. Hence these elements are much volatile.

Elemental state. (a) Nitrogen is small sized atom $({}_{7}N = 1s^2 2s^2 2p^3)$. It contains only $1s^2$ electrons in its

inner core. When N-atoms come close, these do not encounter any repulsion from 1s² electrons. Thus, atoms inner core multiple bonds by the lateral overlap of p- orbitals. Hence nitrogen exists as a diatomic form $p\pi - p\pi$ multiple bonds by the lateral overlap of p- orbitals. Hence nitrogen exists as a diatomic form p^{n} $(N \equiv N)$ or N_2 . Since the forces holding discrete nitrogen molecules are weak van der Waal forces, nitrogen exists as a gas.

- (b) P, As and Sb are large sized atoms. The atoms of these elements cannot approach close enough because of increased repulsions from the non-bonding electrons of the inner core. Thus these elements are because of the property of th unable to shares its three unpaired electrons with other three elements to form tetrahedral molecules, P₄, As₄ and Sb₄. As we move down the group, the giant lattices of P, As, Sb and Bi show a gradual trend from covalent to metallic bonding. For example:
 - (i) Red and violet phosphorus form layered structure with co-ordination number three.
- (ii) Arsenic and antimony form more closely packed layers having intermediate covalent-metallic structures, and
 - (iii) Bismuth involves such a packing of atoms that the bonding is purely metallic.

Inert nature of nitrogen. 7N-atoms $(1s^2 2s^2 2p_x^1 2p_y^1 2p_z^1)$ shares its three unpaired electrons with three unpaired electrons of another N-atom to form $p\pi - p\pi$ multiple bond. As a result, both N-atoms attain neon gas (stable) configuration and form $N \equiv N$ molecule. The bond length is very short (1.094 Å) and bond dissociation energy (225 k cal per mole) is very high. Thus:

- (i) At room temperature, strong bonding in N₂ molecule is not disturbed by collision among molecules. Thus, it is not reactive at room temperature.
- (ii) At very high temperature, the N₂ molecules acquire high kinetic energy. The triple bond in N₂, thus gets broken (into atoms) by the collision among molecules. The atoms so formed have high electronegativity and exhibit high chemical reactivity.
- (iii) The formation of most of nitrogen compounds involve endothermic nature. This is also one of the causes of inert nature of nitrogen. For example:

$$N_2 + O_2 + 43.2 \text{ k cal} \xrightarrow{3000^{\circ}\text{C}} 2 \text{ NO} \uparrow$$

CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

1. Hydrides. The elements of group VA form volatile hydrides of the type MH3. N, P and As also form hydrides of the type M2 H4. Nitrogen also forms hydrazoic acid, HN3. Some hydrides are given in the following table 3.7.

Table 3.7 Hydrides	of group VA elements,
--------------------	-----------------------

MH ₃ type	M ₂ H ₄ type	M ₃ H type
NH ₃ Ammonia PH ₃ Phosphine AsH ₃ Arsine SbH ₃ Stibine BiH ₃ Bismuthine	N ₂ H ₄ Hydrazine P ₂ H ₄ Diphosphine As ₂ H ₄ Diarsine Sb ₂ H ₄ distibine	N ₃ H Hydrazoic acid

(a) Hydrides of MH₃ type are discussed below:

Structure. These hydrides (MH₃) have pyramidal structure. The bond angle, bond energy, electronegativity and atomic radii of these hydrides are given in the following table 3.8.

Table 3.8 So	me character	of	group	VA	ol	emen	19.
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Bond angle	Bond energy M-H (kcal/mole)	Electronegativity	Atomic radius (Å)
HNH (106° .45')	N-H = 93	N == 3.0	N = 0.74
HPH (94°)	P-H = 77	P == 2.1	P = 1.10
HAsH (91° .48')	As-H = 59	As == 2.0	As = 1.21
HSbH (91° .18')	Sb-H = 61	Sb == 1.9	Sb = 1.41

In all these hydrides, the central atom involves sp^3 hybridisation and forms four sp^3 hybrid orbitals. O_{n_0} sp^3 -hybrid orbital contains a lone pair of electrons. Rest sp^3 hybrid orbitals overlap with s-orbitals of H-atom₅. As a result, MH₃ attains **pyramidal structure**.

The H-N-H bond angle is slightly less than tetrahedral angle (109°.28′). The bond angle in rest hydrides is considerably less (table 3.8). It is because as we go down the group, the electronegativity of the central atom goes on decreasing. As a result, lone pair-bond pair and bond-pair-bond pair repulsion decreases regularly. Thus, the bonding electrons in MH₃ are drawn farther and farther away from M and closing up of bond $angle_3$ takes place.

- (iii) Properties. (a) Covalent nature. As we move down the group, the electronegativity difference between group VA elements and hydrogen goes on decreasing. Thus, polar character goes on decreasing and covalent character goes on increasing.
- (b) Hydrogen bonding. The small size and high electronegativity of nitrogen atom results in intermolecular hydrogen bonding in ammonia molecules.

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} H & H & H \\ & & & | & & | \\ ...H - N...H - N...H - N.... \\ & & & | & | \\ & & | & | & | \\ H & & H & | & H \\ \end{array}$$
(Intermolecular hydrogen bonding)

Thus, ammonia (NH₃) is a liquid. Since high energy is required to break hydrogen bonding, NH₃ has high boiling point and heat of vaporisation. As we move down the group, the size of central atom goes on increasing while the electronegativity goes on decreasing. Thus these elements are unable to form intermolecular hydrogen bonding. So, PH₃, AsH₃, SbH₃ and BiH₃ are gases.

(c) Thermal Stability. As we move down the group, the size of central atom goes on increasing. Thus, the extent of overlaping of sp^3 -hybrid orbital of central atom with s-orbitals of small H-atoms goes on decreasing. As a result, the strength of M-H bond goes on decreasing. Hence, the thermal stability of group VA hydrides goes on decreasing as shown below:

$$NH_3 > PH_3 > AsH_3 > SbH_3 > BiH_3$$

(d) Reducing nature. The thermal stability of hydrides of group VA elements goes on decreasing in the

$$NH_3 > PH_3 > AsH_3 > SbH_3 > BiH_3$$

It is because, as we go down the group, the strength of M – H bond goes on decreasing (Also see thermal stability concept above). Hence the reducing character of hydrides goes on increasing.

(e) Basic nature. The basic nature of the hydrides of group VA elements is due to the lone pair of electrons present on central atom. The decreasing order of basicity of these hydrides is

"
$$NH_3 > PH_3 > AsH_3 > SbH_3 > BiH_3$$

Reason. Nitrogen is small sized atom. Lone pair of electrons, is thus concentrated on small region. As we move down the group, the size of central atom goes on increasing. The electron cloud (of lone pairs)

diffuses over larger and larger volume. As a result, the electron density in the sp^3 -hybrid orbitals goes on decreasing and hence electron donor capacity (basic strength) goes on decreasing.

2. Halides. Group VA elements form halides of the type MX_3 and MX_5 .

(a) Trihalides of nitrogen. These are predominantly covalent. The ionic character increases down the group and thus, BiCl₃ is ionic.

 $_{
m NF_3}$ is very stable gas and is inert in nature. It can be explained on the basis of its strong N - F bond. Also, its heat of formation, $\Delta H_f^{\circ} = -26$ kcal/mole is very high.

NCl₃ is explosive. NCl₃ is unstable or explosive. It is because of its high positive heat of formation, $\Delta H_0^{\circ} = +55.4$ kcal/mole. It undergoes hydrolysis to form ammonia and hypochlorous acid (HOCl):

 $NCl_3 + 3H_2O \longrightarrow NH_3 + 3HOCl$

NF3 has very low dipolemoment and also does not act as Lewis acid. NF3 has pyramidal structure. Since F-atom is small sized highly electronegative atom, it withdraws lone pair of electrons of sp^3 -hybrid orbital of N-atom strongly towards itself. Thus, N-atom is devoid of its electron donor character and does not act as Lewis base. Due to the same reason, the resultant dipole-moment of NF3 becomes less than NH3 in which H-atom has comparatively less electronegativity (Fig. 3.20).

Trihalides of phosphorus. (a) PF₃ is stable and does not undergo hydrolysis because of strong P – F bond.

Also, P-F bond is stronger than P-O bond due to high electronegativity of fluorine. Thus during hydrolysis of PF₃, P – O bonds are not formed and PF₃ does not undergo hydrolysis.

The hydrolysis of trichlorides of these elements is shown below. The product depends upon the nature of the element. For example:

$$NCl_3 + 3H_2 O \longrightarrow NH_3 + 3HOCl$$
; $PCl_3 + 3H_2 O \longrightarrow H_3 PO_3 + 3HCl$
 $AsCl_3 + 3H_2 O \longrightarrow 3HCl + H_3 AsO_3$ (Arsenous Acid)
 $SbCl_3 + H_2 O \longrightarrow SbO^+ + 3Cl^- + 2H^+$; $BiCl_3 + H_2 O \longrightarrow BiO^+ + 3Cl^- + 2H^+$

NF₃ reacts with water only when electric spark is passed through the mixture:

$$2NF_3 + 3H_2 O \longrightarrow N_2 O_3 + 6HF$$

(b) Trifluorides and trichlorides of phosphorus and antimony also act as lewis acids, (i.e., tendency to accept lone pair of electrons). It is because of the tendency of these elements to accept lone pair of electrons in their vacant d-orbitals. For example:

$$SbF_3 + 2F^- \longrightarrow [SbF_5]^{2-}$$
; $SbCl_3 + Cl^- \longrightarrow [SbCl_4]^-$
 $PCl_3 + 6NH_3 \longrightarrow PCl_3$, $6NH_3$; $PCl_3 + (CH_3)_3 N \longrightarrow PCl_3$, $N \hookrightarrow PCl_$

PCl₃ also acts as Lewis base (electron donor nature) because P-atom is able to donate its lone pair of electrons to the vacant d-orbitals of other elements like nickel. for example:

$$Ni(CO)_4 + 4PCl_3 \longrightarrow Ni(PCl_3)_4 + 4CO$$

Nickel carbonyl Lewis base

(c) Pentahalides of group VA elements. (i) N-atom does not have d-orbital. Thus, it cannot expand its octet to accept lone pair of electrons from other halogen atoms. So, nitrogen pentahalides are not possible.

(ii) Phosphorous, aresnic and antimony form pentahalides. It is because these elements have d-orbitals. Thus, these elements are able to expand their octet and can accept lone pair of electrons from other halogen atoms especially fluorine to form pentahalides.

(iii) Bismuth pentahalide is not formed. It is because the 6s electrons in bismuth element are reluctant to take part in bond formation due to inert pair effect.

(iv) In solid state. PCl₅ exists as ionic [PCl₄]⁺ [PCl₆]⁻. The [PCl₄]⁺ is tetrahedral while [PCl₆]⁻ is octahedral. In the gaseous and liquid state, it has trigonal bipyramidal shape. PBr₅ exists as [PBr₄]⁺ and Br⁻

(v) PI5 does not exist. It is explained on the basis of large size of iodine atom and small electronegativity difference between P (2,1) and 1-atom (2.2).

(w) All pentabalides (except nitrogen) act as Lewis acids (electron pair acceptor). It is because the central atoms accept halide ions in their vacant d-orbitals and extend their coordination number to six

For example, in [PCl6], P-atom has coordination number six and the ion has octahedral structure.

(d) Bond angle in NF₃ (102.1°) is less than NH₃ (106° 45'). F-atom in NF₃ is more electronegative (44). than H-atom (2.1) in NH3. Thus, F-atom reduces the size of bond pair of electrons in N-F bond. It causes lesser bond pair-bond pair repulsions than this type of repulsion in N-H bonds in NH3. Hence bond anylo in NF3 is less than that of NH3.

3. Oxides of group VA elements. The various oxides of group VA elements are given in the following table 39 Table 3.9 Oxides of group VA elements.

2 deliver number of elements	Oxides of elements						
Oxidation number of elements	N	P	As	Sb	Bi		
+1 +2 +3 +4 +5	N ₂ O NO N ₂ O ₃ N ₂ O ₄ N ₂ O ₅	P4O6 P4O8 P4O10	As ₄ O ₆ - As ₂ O ₅	Sb ₄ O ₆ - Sb ₂ O ₅	Bi ₂ O ₃		
+6	(NO _{3,} N ₂ C very u	6) which are nstable					

Nature of oxides. (i) For the same element, the oxides in the lower oxidation states are less acidic than those of higher oxidation state. For example, N_2O (oxidation state of N=+1) is neutral while N_0 (oxidation state of N = +4) is acidic. It is because, the N^{4+} is smaller in size than N^{+} and so interacts with water more strongly than N⁺. As a result. NO₂ shows acidic properties.

(ii) As we move down the group, the metallic nature of the elements increases. Thus, the basicity of their oxides increases down the group. Except N2O and NO (which are neutral), the decreasing order of acidity of oxides is given below.

> Sb N and P Amphoteric oxide Weakly basic oxide Weakly acidic oxide Strongly acidic oxides

(iii) Stability. As we go down the group, the inert pair effect increases. Thus, the stability of oxides having elements of higher oxidation states decreases.

Oxyacids. Some important oxyacids of nitrogen, phosphorus and arsenic are stable. The oxyacids of antimony and bismuth are unstable. The oxyacids of N, P and As are formed by dissolving their oxides in water All the oxyacids of phosphorus contain a tetrahedral phosphorus atom which is bonded to four atoms of oxygen through coordinate bond. All the acids contain at least one $\dot{P} = O$ unit and one P - OH group.

Some phosphorus acids (e.g., H₃PO₂, H₂PO₃ and H₄P₂O₅) are reducing agents because of H-atom in P-H bonds.

Order of basicity. As we go down the group; (i) the atomic weight of central atom increases. (ii) X-0 bond distance increases (X = central atom) (iii) the effectiveness of $p\pi - d\pi$ bonding decreases.

As a result, the order of basicity increases in the order.

(HO)₂ PO₂
$$<$$
 (HO)₂ As O₂ $<$ (HO)₂ SbO₂ $^-$

Structure. (I) has

(a) smallest central atom

(b) smallest X - O bond distance

(c) most effective p-d- π bonding

(d) greatest amount of charge delocalisation

Structure. (III) has

- (a) largest central atom
- (c) least effective $p-d\pi$ bonding
- (b) largest X O bond distance
- (d) least amount of charge delocalisation

Thus, it is the weakest base.

Thus, it is the strongest base.

Allotropy. Various forms of the same element having same chemical properties but different physical Allotropy. Allotropic forms and the phenomenon is called allotropy. Phosphorus, arsenic and properties are called allotropy. These are discussed below. properties and the prience and the prience antimony exhibit allotropy. These are discussed below.

1. Allotropy of phosphorus. There are five allotropic forms of phosphorus.

(i) White or yellow phosphorus

Main forms

(ii) Red phosphorus

(iii)Black phosphorus

Variety of white phosphorus

(iv) Scarlet phosphorus (v) Violet phosphorus

Variety of white phosphorus

(a) White phosphorus. (i) Molecular weight data indicates that it exists as P₄ molecule (fig. 3.21).

(ii) Electron diffraction data indicates that P₄ is tetrahedral (Fig. 3.21). These molecules are held together by weak van der Waal forces. Thus, P4 is solid. The PPP bond angle should be 90° but it is 60°. It indicates that P₄ molecule is under strain. And it is actually so. This strained nature is confirmed from its high reactivity. It requires very small energy for its decomposition. It is inflammable in air and is soluble in organic solvents like benzene (C₆ H₆) and CS₂. Action of heat is shown below.

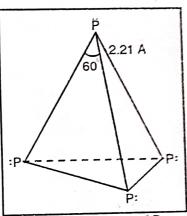


Fig. 3.21 Structure of P

White phosphorus
$$\xrightarrow{\text{(m.pt)}}$$
; Molten white phosphorus $\xrightarrow{\text{B.Pt}}$

Boiling white phosphorus $(P_4) \xrightarrow{\text{800°C and}} P_4$ and $P_2 \xrightarrow{\text{and more}} P_2$ molecules.

(b) Red phosphorus. In this type, P atoms are bound together by covalent bonds to form long chained, giant molecular crystals (Fig. 3.22). It is prepared by heating white phosphorus at 400°C in an atmosphere of N2 or CO2 and a trace of iodine as catalyst.

$$P_4$$
 (white) \rightleftharpoons P_4 (red) + 4.22 kcal/mole

It does not melt but sublimes on heating to give white phosphorus.

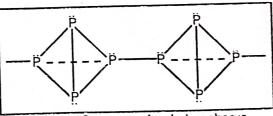


Fig. 3.22 Structure of red phosphorus.

(c) Black phosphorus or β -metallic phosphorus. It is prepared by heating white phosphorus at 200°C under a pressure of 12,000 to 13,000 kg/cm³. It is fairly good conductor of electricity.

Structure. It has double layered crystal lattice. Each layer consists of adjacent zig-zag chains with PPP bond angle 99°

The distance of P-atoms (in one chain) which is bonded to two p-atoms in the same chain and one P-atom in a chain in the layer above or below, is same, i.e., 2.18 A°. The distance between two adjacent layers is 3.68 A° (Fig. 3.23).

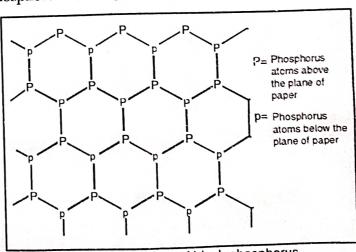


Fig. 3.23 Structure of black phosphorus.