## Hydrogen and Its Compounds.

#### (1) Position of hydrogen in the periodic table

Hydrogen is the first element in the periodic table. Hydrogen is placed in no specific group due to its property of giving electron (When  $H^-$  is formed) and also losing electron (When  $H^+$  is formed).

(i) Hydrogen is placed in group I (Alkali metals) as,

(a) It has one electron in its (Outer) Shell-  $1s^1$  like other alkali metals which have (inert gas)  $ns^1$  configuration.

(b) It forms monovalent  $H^+$  ion like  $Li^+$ ,  $Na^+$ ...

(c) It valency is also 1.

(d) Its oxide  $(H_2O)$  is stable as  $Li_2O$ ,  $Na_2O$ .

(e) It is a good reducing agent (In atomic as well as molecular state) like Na, Li...

(ii) Hydrogen also resembles halogens (Group VIII A) as,

(a) It is also diatomic  $(H_2)$  like  $F_2, Cl_2 \dots$ 

(b) It also forms anion  $H^-$  like  $F^-$ ,  $Cl^-$ ... by gain of one electron.

(c)  $H^-$  has stable inert gas (He) configuration as  $CH_4$ ,  $C_2H_6$  like halogens  $CCI_4$ ,  $SF_2CI_2$  etc.

(d) *H* is one electron short of duplet (Stable configuration) like *F*, *Cl*,... which are also one electron deficient than octet,  $F - 2s^2 2p^5$ ;  $Cl - 3s^2 3p^5$ .

(e) (*IE*) of  $H(1312 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1})$  is of the same order as that of halogens.

(iii) (*IE*) of *H* is very high in comparison with alkali metals. Also size of  $H^+$  is very small compared to that of alkali metal ion. *H* forms stable hydride only with strongly electropositive metals due to smaller value of its electron affinity (72.8 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>).

(iv) In view of the anomalous behavior of hydrogen, it is difficult to assign any definite position to it in the periodic table. Hence it is customary to place it in group I (Along with alkali metals) as well as in group VII (Along with halogens).

(2) **Discovery and occurrence :** It was discovered by **Henry Cavendish** in 1766. Its name hydrogen was proposed by **Lavoisier**. Hydrogen is the 9<sup>th</sup> most abundant element in the earth's crust.

(3) Preparation of Dihydrogen : Dihydrogen can be prepared by the following methods,

(i) **Laboratory method**: In the laboratory, dihydrogen can be prepared by the action of dil.  $H_2SO_4$  on granulated Zinc,  $Zn + H_2SO_4$  (dil.)  $\rightarrow ZnSO_4 + H_2$ 

### (ii) Industrial method

(a) By the electrolysis of water : The hydrogen prepared by this method is highly pure. Dihydrogen is collected at cathode.  $2H_2O(l) \xrightarrow{\text{Electrolysis}} 2H_{2(g)} + O_{2(g)}$ 

(b) Hydrocarbon steam process :  $H_2$  is prepared by the action of steam on hydrocarbon. e.g.

$$CH_4 + H_2O \xrightarrow{1170K} CO + 3H_2$$

(c) Bosch process :  $H_2 + CO + H_2O \xrightarrow{773K} CO_2 + 2H_2$ water gas  $Fe_2O_3, Cr_2O_3 \rightarrow CO_2 + 2H_2$ 

(d) Lane's process :  $H_2$  is prepared by passing alternate currents of steam and water gas over red hot iron. The method consists of two stages,

Oxidation stage :  $3Fe_{Iron filings} + 4H_2O \xrightarrow{1025-1075K} Fe_3O_4 + 4H_2 + 161KJ$ Magnetic oxide of iron

Reduction stage :  $2Fe_3O_4 + 4CO + 4H_2 \rightarrow 6Fe + 4CO_2 + 4H_2O_4$ 

(4) **Physical properties of dihydrogen :** It is a colourless, tasteless and odourless gas. It is slightly soluble in water. It is highly combustible. The Physical constants of atomic hydrogen are,

Atomic radius (pm) – 37; Ionic radius of  $H^-$  ion (pm) – 210; Ionisation energy ( $kJmol^{-1}$ ) – 1312;

Electron affinity  $(kJ mol^{-1})$  –72.8; Electronegativity – 2.1.

(5) **Chemical properties of dihydrogen** : Dihydrogen is quite stable and dissociates into hydrogen atoms only when heated above 2000 K,  $H_2 \xrightarrow{2000 K} H + H$ . Its bond dissociation energy is very high,  $H_2 \rightarrow H + H$ ;  $\Delta H = 435.9 \, kJ \, mol^{-1}$ . Due to its high bond dissociation energy, it is not very reactive. However, it combines with many elements or compounds.

(i) Action with metals : To forms corresponding hydrides.  $2Na + H_2 \xrightarrow{Heat} 2NaH$ ;  $Ca + H_2 \xrightarrow{Heat} CaH_2$ .

With transition metals (elements of d – block) such as Pd, Ni, Pt etc. dihydrogen forms interstitial hydrides in which the small molecules of dihydrogen occupy the interstitial sites in the crystal lattices of these hydrides. As a result of formation of interstitial hydrides, these metals adsorb large volume of hydrogen on their surface. This property of adsorption of a gas by a metal is called **occlusion**. The occluded hydrogen can be liberated from the metals by strong heating.

(ii) **Reaction with Non-metals**: 
$$2H_2 + O_2 \xrightarrow{970K} 2H_2O$$
;  $N_2 + 3H_2 \xrightarrow{Fe, Mo} 2NH_3$   
 $H_2 + F_2 \xrightarrow{Dark} 2HF$ ;  $H_2 + Cl_2 \xrightarrow{Sunlight} 2HCl$   
 $H_2 + Br_2 \rightarrow 2HBr$ ;  $H_2 + I_2 \xrightarrow{673K} 2HI$ 

The reactivity of halogen towards dihydrogen decreases as,  $F_2 > Cl_2 > Br_2 > I_2$ 

As a result,  $F_2$  reacts in dark,  $Cl_2$  in the presence of sunlight,  $Br_2$  reacts only upon heating while the reaction with  $I_2$  occurs in the presence of a catalyst.

(iii) **Reaction with unsaturated hydrocarbons** :  $H_2$  reacts with unsaturated hydrocarbons such as ethylene and acetylene to give saturated hydrocarbons.

$$H_{2}C = CH_{2} + H_{2} \xrightarrow{\text{Nior Pt or Pd}} CH_{3} - CH_{3}; \quad HC \equiv CH + 2H_{2} \xrightarrow{\text{Nior Pt or Pd}} CH_{3} - CH_{3} = CH_{3}$$

This reaction is used in the *hydrogenation or hardening of oils*. The vegetable oils such as groundnut oil or cotton-seed oil are unsaturated in nature because they contain at least one double bond

in their molecules. Dihydrogen is passed through the oils at about 473 K in the presence of catalyst to form solid fats. The vegetable ghee such as Dalda, Rath, etc. are usually prepared by this process.

Vegetable oil+
$$H_2 \xrightarrow[(liquid)]{Ni} Fat_{(solid)}$$

### (6) Uses of Dihydrogen

(i) As a reducing agent, (ii) In the hydrogenation of vegetable oils, (iii) As a rocket fuel in the form of liquid  $H_2$  (iv) In the manufacture of synthetic petrol, (v) In the preparation of many compounds such as  $NH_3$ ,  $CH_3OH$ , Urea etc, (vi) It is used in the oxy-hydrogen torch for welding if temperature around 2500°C is required. It is also used in atomic hydrogen torch for welding purposes in which temperature of the order of 4000°C is required.

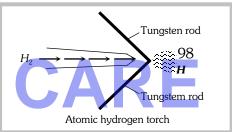
#### **Different forms of hydrogen**

(1) Atomic hydrogen : It is obtained by the dissociation of hydrogen molecules. The atomic hydrogen is stable only for a fraction of a second and is extremely reactive. It is obtained by passing dihydrogen gas at atmospheric pressure through an electric

arc struck between two tungsten rods.

The electric arc maintains a temperature around 4000 – 4500°C. As the molecules of dihydrogen gas pass through the electric arc, these absorb energy and get dissociated into atoms as

$$H_2(g) \xrightarrow{Electric} 2H(g) : \Delta H = 435.90 KJ mol^{-1}$$



This arrangement is also called atomic hydrogen torch.

(2) **Nascent hydrogen :** The hydrogen gas prepared in the reaction mixture in contact with the substance with which it has to react, is called nascent hydrogen. It is also called newly born hydrogen. It is more reactive than ordinary hydrogen. For example, if ordinary hydrogen is passed through acidified  $KMnO_4$  (pink in colour), its colour is not discharged. On the other hand, if zinc pieces are added to the same solution, bubbles of hydrogen rise through the solution and the colour is discharged due to the reduction on  $KMnO_4$  by nascent hydrogen.

$$\begin{split} &KMnO_{4} + \underset{Molecular}{H_{2}} + H_{2}SO_{4} \rightarrow No \, \text{Re} \, \text{action} \; ; \; Zn + H_{2}SO_{4} \rightarrow ZnSO_{4} + \underset{Nascent \, hydrogen}{2} \\ &2KMnO_{4} + 3H_{2}SO_{4} + 10H \rightarrow K_{2}SO_{4} + 2MnSO_{4} + 8H_{2}O \end{split}$$

(3) **Ortho and para hydrogen :** A molecule of dihydrogen contains two atoms. The nuclei of both the atoms in each molecule of dihydrogen are spinning. Depending upon the direction of the spin of the nuclei, the hydrogen is of two types,

(i) Molecules of hydrogen in which the spins of both the nuclei are in the same directions, called ortho hydrogen.

(ii) Molecules of hydrogen in which the spins of both the nuclei are in the opposite directions, called para hydrogen.

Ordinary dihydrogen is an equilibrium mixture of ortho and para hydrogen. Ortho hydrogen  $\Rightarrow$  Para hydrogen. The amount of ortho and para hydrogen varies with temperature as,

(a) At  $0^{\circ}K$ , hydrogen contains mainly para hydrogen which is more stable.

(b) At the temperature of liquefaction of air, the ratio of ortho and para hydrogen is 1:1.

(c) At the room temperature, the ratio of ortho to para hydrogen is 3:1.

(d) Even at very high temperatures, the ratio of ortho to para hydrogen can never be more than 3:1.

Thus, it has been possible to get pure para hydrogen by cooling ordinary hydrogen gas to a very low temperature (close to 20 K) but it is never possible to get a sample of hydrogen containing more than 75% of ortho hydrogen. i.e., Pure ortho hydrogen can not be obtained.

## **Isotopes of Hydrogen**

Isotopes are the different forms of the same element which have the same atomic number but different mass numbers.

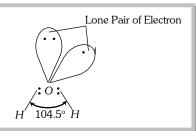
Isotopes of hydrogen					
Name	Symbol	Atomic number	Mass number	Relative abundance	Nature radioactive or non-radioactive
Protium or Hydrogen	<sup>1</sup> <sub>1</sub> H or H	1	1	<b>99.985</b> %	Non-radioactive
Deuterium	${}_{1}^{2}$ H or D	1	2	0.015%	Non-radioactive
Tritium	<sup>3</sup> <sub>1</sub> H or T	1	3	10 <sup>-15</sup> %	Radioactive

	Physical constants o	of $H_2$ , $D_2$ and $T_2$	
Property	$H_2$		T <sub>2</sub>
Molecular mass	2.016	4.028	6.03
Melting point (K)	13.8	18.7	20.63
Boiling point (K)	20.4	23.9	25.0
Heat of fusion (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	0.117	0.197	0.250
Heat of vaporisation (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	0.994	1.126	1.393
Bond energy (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	435.9	443.4	446.9

### Water

Water is the oxide of hydrogen. It is an important component of animal and vegetable matter. Water constitutes about 65% of our body. It is the principal constituent of earth's surface.

(1) **Structure** : Due to the presence of lone pairs, the geometry of water is distorted and the H - O - H bond angle is 104.5°, which is less than the normal tetrahedral angle (109.5°). The geometry of the molecule is regarded as angular or bent. In water, each O - H bond is polar because of the high electronegativity of oxygen (3.5) in comparison to that of hydrogen (2.1). The resultant dipole moment of water molecule is 1.84D.



*In ice*, each oxygen atom is tetrahedrally surrounded by four hydrogen atoms; *two by covalent bonds and two by hydrogen bonds*. The resulting structure of ice is open structure having a number of

vacant spaces. Therefore, the density of ice is less than that of water and ice floats over water. It may be noted that water has maximum density  $(1g cm^{-3})$  at 4°C.

(2) Heavy water : Chemically heavy water is deuterium  $oxide(D_2O)$ . It was discovered by **Urey**. It has been finding use in nuclear reactors as a moderator because it slows down the fast moving neutrons and therefore, helps in controlling the nuclear fission process.

(3) **Physical properties** : Water is colourless, odourless and tasteless liquid at ordinary temperature.

Constant	Ordinary water H <sub>2</sub> O	Heavy water D <sub>2</sub> O
Molecular mass	18.015	20.028
Maximum density (g cm <sup>-3</sup> )	1.000	1.106
Melting point (K)	273.2	276.8
Boiling point (K)	373.2	374.4
Heat of fusion ( <i>kJ mol<sup>-1</sup></i> ) at 273K	6.01	6.28
Heat of vaporisation ( <i>kJ mol<sup>-1</sup></i> ) at 373K	40.66	41.61
Heat of formation (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	- 285.9	- 294.6
Ionisation constant	1.008×10 <sup>-14</sup>	<b>1.95 × 10<sup>-15</sup></b>

## Some physical constants of H<sub>2</sub>O and D<sub>2</sub>O at 298 K

(4) **Chemical properties :** Water shows a versatile chemical behaviour. It behaves as an acid, a base, an oxidant, a reductant and as ligand to metals.

(i) **Dissociation of water**: Water is quite stable and does not dissociate into its elements even at high temperatures. Pure water has a small but measurable electrical conductivity and it dissociates as,

$$H_2O + H_2O \Rightarrow H_3O^+ + OH^-$$
;  $K_W = 1.0 \times 10^{-14} \text{ mol}^2 L^2$  at 298K

(ii) *Amphoteric nature* : Water can act both as an acid and a base and is said to be amphoteric. However, water is neutral towards litmus and its *p*H is 7.

(iii) **Oxidising and reducing nature :** Water can act both as an oxidising and a reducing agent in its chemical reactions. e.g.  $2Na + 2H_2O \rightarrow 2NaOH + H_2$ ;  $2F_2 + 2H_2O \rightarrow 4HF + O_2$ Oxidising agent

#### (5) Hard and Soft water

Water which produces lather with soap solution readily is called **soft water**. e.g. distilled water, rain water and demineralised water.

Water which does not produce lather with soap solution readily is called **hard water**. e.g. sea water, river water, well water and tap water.

(i) *Cause of hardness of water* : The hardness of water is due to the presence of bicarbonates, chlorides and sulphates of calcium and magnesium.

Hard water does not produce lather because the cations  $(Ca^{+2} \text{ and } Mg^{+2})$  present in hard water react with soap to form insoluble precipitates,  $M^{+2}_{From hard water} + 2C_{17}H_{35}COONa \rightarrow (C_{17}H_{35}COO)_2M + 2Na^+$ , Where  $M_{etal stearate}(PPt.)$ 

### M = Ca or Mg

Therefore, no lather is produced until all the calcium and magnesium ions are precipitated. This also results into wastage of lot of soap.

(ii) Type of hardness of water : The hardness of water is of two types,

(a) *Temporary hardness* : This is due to the presence of bicarbonates of calcium and magnesium. It is also called carbonate hardness.

(b) *Permanent hardness* : This is due to the presence of chlorides and sulphates of calcium and magnesium. It is also called non-carbonate hardness.

(iii) **Softening of water** : The process of the removal of hardness from water is called softening of water.

(a) Removal of temporary hardness : It can be removed by the following methods,

By boiling : During boiling, the bicarbonates of Ca and Mg decompose into insoluble carbonates and give  $CO_2$ . The insoluble carbonates can be removed by filtration.

$$Ca(HCO_{3})_{2} \xrightarrow{Heat} CaCO_{3} + CO_{2} + H_{2}O; Mg(HCO_{3})_{2} \xrightarrow{Heat} MgCO_{3} + CO_{2} + H_{2}O; Mg(HCO_{3})_{3} \xrightarrow{Heat} MgCO_{3} + CO_{2} + H_{2}O; Mg(HCO_{3})_{3} \xrightarrow{Heat} MgCO_{3} + CO_{3} + H_{2}O; Mg(HCO_{3})_{3} \xrightarrow{Heat} MgCO_{3} + H_{2}O; Mg(HCO_{3})_{3} \xrightarrow{Heat} MgCO_{3} + H_{2}O; Mg(HCO_{3})_{3} + H_{2}O; Mg(HCO_{$$

*Clark's method* : This process is used on a commercial scale. In this process, calculated amount of lime  $[Ca(OH)_2]$  is added to temporary hard water.

$$Ca(HCO_{3})_{2} + Ca(OH)_{2} \longrightarrow 2CaCO_{3} \downarrow + 2H_{2}O$$
Insoluble
$$Mg(HCO_{3})_{2} + Ca(OH_{2}) \longrightarrow MgCO_{3} \downarrow + CaCO_{3} \downarrow + 2H_{2}O$$
(Insoluble)

(b) Removal of permanent hardness : Permanent hardness can be removed by the following methods,

By washing soda method : In this method, water is treated with a calculated amount of washing soda  $(Na_2CO_3)$  which converts the chlorides and sulphates of Ca and Mg into their respective carbonates which get precipitated.

$$CaCl_{2} + Na_{2}CO_{3} \longrightarrow CaCO_{3} + 2NaCl ; MgSO_{4} + Na_{2}CO_{3} \longrightarrow MgCO_{3} + Na_{2}SO_{4}$$

*Permutit method* : This is a modern method employed for the softening of hard water. hydrated sodium aluminium silicate  $(Na_2Al_2Si_2O_8.xH_2O)$  is called permutit. These complex salts are also known as zeolites.

The permutit as loosely packed in a big tank over a layer of coarse sand. Hard water is introduced into the tank from the top. Water reaches the bottom of the tank and then slowly rises through the permutit layer in the tank. The cations present in hard water are exchanged for sodium ions. Therefore this method is also called ion exchange method.

$$\begin{array}{c} Na_{2}Z + \underset{\text{Zeolite}}{Na_{2}Z} + \underset{\text{water}}{Ca} CaZ + 2Na^{+}; \\ Na_{2}Z + \underset{\text{Water}}{Mg}^{+2} \longrightarrow \underset{\text{Wagnesium}}{MgZ} + 2Na^{+}, \\ \text{Water} \\ Z = Al_{2}Si_{2}O_{8}. \\ xH_{2}O \end{array}$$

Hydrogen peroxide

Hydrogen peroxide  $(H_2O_2)$  was discovered by French chemist **Thenard**.

(1) Preparation : It is prepared by

(i) *Laboratory method* : In laboratory,  $H_2O_2$  is prepared by Merck's process. It is prepared by adding calculated amounts of sodium peroxide to ice cold dilute (20%) solution of  $H_2SO_4$ .

$$Na_2O_2 + H_2SO_4 \longrightarrow Na_2SO_4 + H_2O_2$$

(ii) *Industrial method* : On a commercial scale,  $H_2O_2$  can be prepared by the electrolysis of 50%  $H_2SO_4$  solution. In a cell, peroxy disulphuric acid is formed at the anode.

$$2H_2SO_4 \xrightarrow{\text{Elecrolysis}} H_2S_2O_8(aq.) + H_2(g)$$

This is drawn off from the cell and hydrolysed with water to give  $H_2O_2$ .

 $H_2S_2O_8 + 2H_2O \longrightarrow 2H_2SO_4 + H_2O_2$  The resulting solution is distilled under reduced pressure when  $H_2O_2$  gets distilled while  $H_2SO_4$  with high boiling point, remains undistilled.

(2) **Physical properties** : Pure  $H_2O_2$  is a thick syrupy liquid with pale blue colour. It is more viscous and dense than water. It is completely miscible with water, alcohol and ether in all proportions.

#### (3) Chemical properties

(i) **Decomposition**: Pure  $H_2O_2$  is an unstable liquid and decomposes into water and  $O_2$  either upon standing or upon heating,  $2H_2O_2 \longrightarrow 2H_2O + O_2$ ;  $\Delta H = -196.0 \, kJ$ 

(ii) **Oxidising nature**: It is a powerful oxidising agent. It acts as an oxidising agent in neutral, acidic or in alkaline medium. *e.g.*  $2KI + H_2O_2 \longrightarrow 2KOH + I_2$  [In neutral medium]

$$2FeSO_4 + H_2SO_4 + H_2O_2 \longrightarrow Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + 2H_2O$$
 [In acidic medium]

$$MnSO_4 + H_2O_2 + 2NaOH \longrightarrow MnO_2 + Na_2SO_4 + 2H_2O$$
 [In alkaline medium]

(iii) **Reducing nature :**  $H_2O_2$  has tendency to take up oxygen from strong oxidising agents and thus, acts as a reducing agent,  $H_2O_2 + O \xrightarrow{}_{\text{From oxidising}} H_2O + O_2$ . It can act as a reducing agent in acidic, basic or

even neutral medium.

In acidic medium,  $H_2O_2 \longrightarrow 2H^+ + O_2 + 2e^-$ 

In alkaline medium,  $H_2O_2 + 2OH^- \longrightarrow 2H_2O + O_2 + 2e^-$ 

(iv) **Bleaching action :**  $H_2O_2$  acts as a bleaching agent due to the release of nascent oxygen.

 $H_2O_2 \longrightarrow H_2O + O$ 

Thus, the bleaching action of  $H_2O_2$  is due to oxidation. It oxidises the colouring matter to a colourless product, Colouring matter  $+O \rightarrow$  Colour less matter

 $H_2O_2$  is used to bleach delicate materials like ivory, silk, wool, leather etc.

(4) **Structure of**  $H_2O_2$ :  $H_2O_2$  has non-planar structure in which two *H*-atoms are arranged in two directions almost perpendicular to each other and to the axis joining the two oxygen atoms. The O - O linkage is called peroxide linkage.

(5)**Strength of H\_2O\_2:** The strength of  $H_2O_2$  is expressed in terms of weight or volume,

(i) **As weight percentage**: The weight percentage of  $H_2O_2$  gives the weight of  $H_2O_2$  in 100 g of solution. For example, a 40% solution by *wt*. means 40 g of  $H_2O_2$  are present in 100 g of solution.

(ii) **As volume**: The strength of  $H_2O_2$  is commonly expressed as volume. This refers to the volume of oxygen which a solution of  $H_2O_2$  will give. For example, a "20 volume" of  $H_2O_2$  means that 1 litre of this solution will give 20 litres of oxygen at NTP.

(6) Uses of *H*<sub>2</sub>*O*<sub>2</sub>

(i) It is used as an antichlor in bleaching because it can reduce chlorine.

 $Cl_2 + H_2O_2 \longrightarrow 2HCl + O_2$ 

(ii) It is used for restoring the colour of lead paintings.

(iii) It is used as an antiseptic for washing wounds, teeth and ears under the name perhydrol.

### Alkali Metals and Their Compounds.

The group 1 of the periodic table contains six elements, namely lithium (Li), sodium (Na), potassium (K), rubidium (Rb), caesium (Cs) and francium (Fr). All these elements are **typical metals**. These are usually referred to as alkali metals since their hydroxides forms strong bases or alkalies.

#### **Electronic configuration**

Elements	Discovery	Electronic configuration (ns <sup>1</sup> )
<sub>3</sub> Li	Arfwedson (1817)	$1s^2 2s^1$ or $[He]^2 2s^1$
11 Na	Davy (1807)	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^1$ or $[Ne]^{10} 3s^1$
<sub>19</sub> K	Davy (1807)	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^1$ or $[Ar]^{18} 4s^1$
<sub>37</sub> Rb	Bunsen (1861)	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^6 5s^1$ or $[Kr]^{36} 5s^1$
55 Cs	Bunsen (1860)	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^6 4d^{10} 5s^2 5p^6 6s^1$ or [Xe] <sup>54</sup> 6s <sup>1</sup>
<sub>87</sub> Fr	Percy (1939)	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^6 4d^{10} 4f^{14} 5s^2 5p^6 5d^{10} 6s^2 6p^6 7s^1$ or [Rn] <sup>86</sup> 7s <sup>1</sup>

**Note** : **\*** Francium is radioactive with longest lived isotope  ${}^{223}Fr$  with half life period of only 21 minute.

(1) Because of similarity in electronic configuration, they exhibit similar properties. A regular gradation in their properties with increase in at. no. is observed due to increasing size of atoms/ions and the low binding energy of valency electrons.

(2) Of all the alkali metals, only sodium and potassium are found in abundance in nature. Francium occurs only in minute quantities as a radioactive decay product.

#### **Physical properties**

### (1) Physical state

(i) All are silvery white, soft and light solids. These can be cut with the help of knife. When freshly cut, they have bright lustre which quickly tarnishes due to surface oxidation.

(ii) These form diamagnetic colourless ions since these ions do not have unpaired electrons, (i.e.  $M^+$  has ns<sup>0</sup> configuration). That is why alkali metal salts are colourless and diamagnetic.

#### (2) Atomic and ionic radii

(i) The alkali metals have largest atomic and ionic radii than their successive elements of other groups belonging to same period.

(ii) The atomic and ionic radii of alkali metals, however, increases down the group due to progressive addition of new energy shells.

No doubt the nuclear charge also increases on moving down the group but the influence of addition of energy shell predominates

	Li	Na	Κ	Rb	Cs	Fr
Atomic radius (pm)	152	186	227	248	265	375
Ionic radius of $M^+$ ions (pm)	60	95	133	148	169	
(3) Density	ы			2 (		

(i) All are light metals, *Li*, *Na* and *K* have density less than water. Low values of density are because these metals have high atomic volume due to larger atomic size. On moving down the group the atomic size as well as atomic mass both increase but increase in atomic mass predominates over increase in atomic size or atomic volume and therefore the ratio mass/volume i.e. density gradually increases down the groups

(ii) The density increases gradually from Li to Cs, Li is lightest known metal among all.

Li = 0.534, Na = 0.972, K = 0.86, Rb = 1.53 and Cs = 1.87 g/ml at  $20^{\circ}C$ .

(iii) *K* is lighter than *Na* because of its unusually large atomic size.

(iv) In solid state, they have body centred cubic lattice.

#### (4) Melting point and Boiling point

(i) All these elements possess low m.pt and b.pt in comparison to other group members.

		Li	Na	Κ	Rb	Cs
Fr						
	m.pt (K)	453.5	370.8	336.2	312.0	301.5
-						
	b.pt (K)	1620	1154.4	1038.5	961.0	978.0

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(ii) The lattice energy of these atoms in metallic crystal lattice relatively low due to larger atomic size and thus possess low m.pt and b.pt On moving down the group, the atomic size increases and binding energy of their atoms in crystal lattice decreases which results lowering of m.pts. (iii) Lattice energy decreases from Li to Cs and thus m.pt and b.pt also decrease from Li to Cs.

## (5) Ionisation energy & electropositive or metallic character

(i) Due to unpaired lone electron in ns sub-shell as well as due to their larger size, the outermost electron is far from the uncleus, the removal of electron is easier and these low values of ionisation energy.(*I.E.*)
 (ii) Ionisation energy of these metal decreases from Li to Cs.

(/						
	Ionisation energy	Li	Na	Κ	Rb	Cs
Fr						
	$I\!E_1$	520	495	418	403	376
-	$I\!E_2$	7296	4563	3069	2650	2420

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A jump in 2nd ionisation energy (huge difference) can be explained as,

$$Li: 1s^{2}2s^{1} \xrightarrow{\text{Re moval of}} Li^{+}: 1s^{2} \xrightarrow{\text{Re moval of}} Li^{2+}: 1s^{1}$$

Removal of 1s electrons from  $Li^+$  and that too from completely filled configuration requires much more energy and a jump in 2nd ionisation is noticed

(iii) Lower are ionisation energy values, greater is the tendency to lose  $ns^1$  electron to change in  $M^+$ ion (i.e.  $M \rightarrow M^+ + e$ ) and therefore stronger is electropositive character.

(iv) Electropositive character increases from Li to Cs.

Due to their strong electropositive character, they emit electrons even when exposed to light showing **photoelectric effect**. This property is responsible for the use of *Cs* and *K* in photoelectric cell.

### (6) Oxidation number and valency

(i) These elements easily form univalent + ve ion by losing solitary  $ns^1$  electron due to low ionisation energy values.

(ii) Alkali metals are univalent in nature and form ionic compounds. Lithium salts are, however, covalent.

(iii) Further, the  $M^+$  ion acquires the stable noble gas configuration. It requires very high values of energy to pull out another electron from next to outer shell of  $M^+$  ion and that is why their second ionisation energy is very high. Consequently, under ordinary conditions, it is not possible for these metals to form  $M^{2+}$  ion and thus they show +1 oxidation state.

(iv) Since the electronic configuration of  $M^+$  ions do not have unpaired electron and thus alkali metal salts are diamagnetic and colouress. Only those alkali metal salts are coloured which have coloured anions e.g.  $K_2Cr_2O_7$  is orange because of orange coloured  $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$  ion,  $KMnO_4$  is violet because of violet coloured  $MnO_4^{1-}$  ion.

## (7) Hydration of lons

(i) Hydration represents for the dissolution of a substance in water to get adsorb water molecule by weak valency force. Hydration of ions is the exothermic process when ions on dissolution water get hydration.

(ii) The hydration is an exothermic process i.e energy is released during hydration.

(iii) The energy released when 1 mole of an ion in the gaseous state is dissolved in water to get it hydrated is called hydration energy  $M_{(q)}^{+} + Aq \rightarrow M^{+}_{(aq)}$ ;  $\Delta H = -energy$ .

(iv) Smaller the cation, greater is the degree of hydration. Hydration energy,  $Li^+ > Na^+ > K^+ > Rb^+ > Cs^+$ 

(v)  $Li^+$  being smallest in size has maximum degree of hydration and that is why lithium salts are mostly hydrated, *LiCl.*  $2H_2O$  Also lithuim ion being heavily hydrated, moves very slowly under the influence of electric field and, therefore, is the poorest conductor current among alkali metals ions It may, therefore, be concluded that it is the degree of hydration as well as the size of ion is responsible for the current carried by an ion.

Relative ionic radii	$Cs^{+} > Rb^{+} > K^{+} > Na^{+} > Li^{+}$
Relative hydrated ionic radii	$Li^+ > Na^+ > K^+ > Rb^+ > Cs^+$
Relative conducting power	$Cs^{+} > Rb^{+} > K^{+} > Na^{+} > Li^{+}$
(8) Electronegativities	

(i) These metals are highly electropositive and thereby possess low values of electronegativities.

(ii) Electronegativity of alkali metals decreases down the group as the trend of numerical values of electronegativity given below on Pauling scale suggests.

	Li	Na	Κ	Rb	Cs	Fr
Electronegativity	0.98	0.93	0.82	0.82	0.79	_

**Note** : **\*** *Fr* being radioactive elements and thus studies on physical properties of this element are limited.

(9) **Specific heat :** It decreases from *Li* to *Cs*.

(10) **Conduction power** : All are good conductors of heat & electricity, because of loosely held valence electrons.

#### (11) Standard oxidation potential and reducting properties

(i) Since alkali metals easily lose ns<sup>1</sup> electron and thus they have high values of oxidation potential i.e.,

 $M + aq \rightarrow M^+_{(aq)} + e$ 

(ii) The standard oxidation potentials of a alkali metals (in volts) are listed below,

Li	Na	Κ	Rb	Cs
+3.05	+2.71	+2.93	+2.99	+2.99

(iii) More is oxidation potential, more is the tendency to get oxidized and thus more powerful is reducing nature in aqueous medium. That is why alkali metals liberate  $H_2$  from  $H_2$ O and HCl.

$$2H_2O + 2M \rightarrow 2MOH + H_2$$
;  $2HCl + 2M \rightarrow 2MCl + H_2$ 

(iv) However, an examination of ionisation energy for alkali metals reveals that Li should have the minimum tendency to lose electron and thus its reducing nature should be minimum. The greatest reducing nature of Li in aq. medium is accounted due to the maximum hydration energy of  $Li^+$  ion. For Lithium

$Li_{(s)} \rightarrow Li_{(g)};$	$\Delta H_1$ = Heat of sublimation, $\Delta H_s$
$Li_{(g)} \rightarrow Li^{+}{}_{(g)} + e;$	$\Delta H_2 = IE_1$
$Li^{+}{}_{\scriptscriptstyle (g)} \rightarrow Li^{+}{}_{\scriptscriptstyle (aq);}$	$\Delta H_3 = -$ Heat of hydration, $\Delta H_h$

$$Li_{(s)} + H_2O \rightarrow Li^+_{(aq)} + e; \Delta H = \Delta H_1 + \Delta H_2 + \Delta H_3 = \Delta H_s + IE_1 - \Delta H_h$$

Similarly, for sodium,  $Na_{(s)} + H_2O \rightarrow Na^+_{(sq)} + e; \Delta H = \Delta H_5 + IE_1 - \Delta H_h$ 

 $\Delta H_{\rm h}$  for  $Li > \Delta H_{\rm h}$  for Na. Therefore, large negative  $\Delta H$  values are observed in case of Li and this explains for more possibility of Li to get itself oxidized or have reducing nature.

(12) Characteristic flame colours : The alkali metals and their salts give characteristic colour to Bunsen flame. The flame energy causes and excitation of the outermost electron which on reverting back to its initial position gives out the absorbed energy as visible light. These colour differ from each other Li – crimson, Na-Golden yellow, K – Pale violet , Rb and Cs –violet. These different colours are due to different ionisation energy of alkali metals. The energy released is minimum in the case of Li<sup>+</sup> and increases in the order.

 $\lambda$  released

Energy released  $: Li^+ < Na^+ < K^+ < Rb^+ < Cs^+$  $: Li^+ > Na^+ > K^+ > Rb^+ > Cs^+$ Frequency released  $: Li^+ < Na^+ < K^+ < Rb^+ < Cs^+$ 

#### **Chemical properties**

(1) **Occurrence** : Alkali metals are very reactive and thus found in combined state Some important ores of alkali metals are given ahead.

(i) *Lithuim* : Triphylite, Petalite, lepidolite, Spodumene [*LiAl*(SiO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub>], Amblygonite [*Li*(Al F)PO<sub>4</sub>]

(ii) **Sodium** : Chile salt petre ( $NaNO_3$ ), Sodium chloride (NaCl), Sodium sulphate ( $Na_2SO_4$ ), Borax ( $Na_2B_4O_710H_2O$ ), Glauber salt ( $Na_2SO_4.10H_2O$ )

(iii) **Potassium** : Sylime (KCl), carnallite (KCl.MgCl<sub>2</sub>.6H<sub>2</sub>O) and Felspar (K<sub>2</sub>O.Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.6SiO<sub>2</sub>)

(iv) **Rubidium** : Lithuim ores Lepidolite, triphylite contains 0.7 to  $3\% Rb_2 O$ 

(v) **Caesium** : Lepidolite, Pollucite contains 0.2 to 7% Cs<sub>2</sub>O

(2) **Extraction of alkali metals** : Alkali metals cannot be extracted by the usual methods for the extraction of metals due to following reasons.

(i) Alkali metals are strong reducing agents, hence cannot be extracted by reduction of their oxides or other compounds.

(ii) Being highly electropositive in nature, it is not possible to apply the method of displacing them from their salt solutions by any other element.

(iii) The aqueous solutions of their salts cannot be used for extraction by electrolytic method because hydrogen ion is discharged at cathode instead of an alkali metal ions as the discharge potentials of alkali metals are high. However, by using *Hg* as cathode, alkali metal can be deposited. The alkali metal readily combines with Hg to form an amalgam from which its recovery difficult. The only successful method, therefore, is the electrolysis of their fused salts, usually chlorides. Generally, another metal chloride is added to lower their fussion temperature.

**Fused** NaCl : NaCl  $\xrightarrow{\text{fusion}}$  Na<sup>+</sup> + Cl<sup>-</sup> Electrolysis : Anode :  $2Cl^{-} \rightarrow Cl_2 + 2e$ of fused salt : Cathode :  $2Na^+ + 2e \rightarrow 2Na$ 

### (3) Alloys Formation

(i) The alkali metals form alloys among themselves as well as with other metals.

(ii) Alkali metals also get dissolved in mercury to form amalgam with evolution of heat and the amalgamation is highly exothermic .

#### (4) Formation of oxides and hydroxides

(i) These are most reactive metals and have strong affinity for  $O_2$  quickly tranish in air due to the formation of a film of their oxides on the surface. These are, therefore, kept under kerosene or paraffin oil to protect them from air,

$$M + O_2 \rightarrow \underset{\text{Oxide}}{M_2O} \longrightarrow \underset{\text{Peroxide}}{M_2O_2} M_2O_2$$

(ii) When burnt air ( $O_2$ ), lithium forms lithium oxide ( $Li_2O$ ) sodium forms sodium peroxide ( $Na_2O_2$ ) and other alkali metals form super oxide ( $Mo_2$  i.e.  $KO_2$ ,  $RbO_2$  or  $CsO_2$ )

$$2Li + \frac{1}{2}O_2 \rightarrow \underbrace{Li_2O}_{\text{Lithuim oxide}} ; \ 2Na + O_2 \rightarrow Na_2 O_2 \ ; \ K + O_2 \rightarrow \underbrace{KO_2}_{\text{Potassium super oxide}}$$

The reactivity of alkali metals towards oxygen to form different oxides is due to strong positive field around each alkali metal cation. Li<sup>+</sup> being smallest, possesses strong positive field and thus combines with small anion  $O^{2-}$  to form stable Li<sub>2</sub>O compound. The Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> being relatively larger thus exert less strong positive field around them and thus reacts with larger oxygen anion i.e,  $O_2^{2-}$  and  $O_2^{1-}$  to form stable oxides.

The monoxide, peroxides and superoxides have  $O^2$  and  $O_2^{2-}, O_2^{1-}$  ions respectively. The structures of

each are,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \bullet O \bullet \\ \bullet \end{bmatrix}^{2-}; \begin{bmatrix} \bullet O - O \bullet \\ \bullet \end{bmatrix}^{2-}, \begin{bmatrix} \bullet O \bullet \bullet O \bullet \\ \bullet \end{bmatrix}^{1-}$$

The  $O_2^{-1}$  ion has a three electron covalent bond and has one electron unpaired. It is therefore superoxides are paramagnetic and coloured  $KO_2$  is light yellow and paramagnetic substance.

(iii) The oxides of alkali metals and metal itself give strongly alkaline solution in water with evolution of heat

$$\begin{split} M + H_2 O \rightarrow MOH + \frac{1}{2}H_2; \qquad \Delta H = -ve \\ Li_2 O + H_2 O \rightarrow 2LiOH; \qquad \Delta H = -ve \\ Na_2 O_2 + 2H_2 O \rightarrow 2NaOH + H_2 O_{2(l)}; \qquad \Delta H = -ve \\ 2KO_2 + 2H_2 O \rightarrow 2KOH + H_2 O_{2(l)} + O_{2(a)}; \qquad \Delta H = -ve \end{split}$$

The peroxides and superoxides act as strong oxidising agents due to formation of  $H_2O_2$ 

(iv) The reactivity of alkali metals towards air and water increases from Li to Cs that is why lithium decomposes  $H_2O$  very slowly at 25°C whereas Na does so vigorously, K reacts producing a flame and Rb, Cs do so explosively.

$$M + H_2O \rightarrow MOH + \frac{1}{2}H_2$$

(v) The basic character of oxides and hydroxides of alkali metals increases from Li to Cs. This is due to the increase in ionic character of alkali metal hydroxides down the group which leads to complete dissociation and leads to increase in concentration of OH<sup>-</sup> ions.

### (5) Hydrides

(i) These metal combines H to give white crystalline ionic hydrides of the general of the formula MH.

(ii) The tendency to form their hydrides, basic character and stability decreases from Li to Cs since the electropositive character decreases from Cs to *Li*.

 $2M+H_2 \rightarrow 2MH$ ; Reactivity towards  $H_2$  is Cs < Rb < K < Na < Li

(iii) The metal hydrides react with water to give MOH &  $H_2$ ; MH +  $H_2O \rightarrow MOH + H_2$ 

(iv) The ionic nature of hydrides increases from Li to Cs because of the fact that hydrogen is present in the these hydrides as H<sup>-</sup> and the smaller cation will produce more polarisation of anion (according to Fajan rule) and will develop more covalent character.

(v) The electrolysis of fused hydrides give  $H_2$  at anode. NaH <sub>fused</sub> Contains Na<sup>+</sup> and H<sup>-</sup> i.e.,

At cathode:  $Na^+ + e \rightarrow Na$ ; At anode:  $H^- \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}H_2 + e$ 

(vi) Alkali metals also form hydrides like NaBH<sub>4</sub>, LiA/H<sub>4</sub> which are good reducing agent.

#### (6) Carbonates and Bicarbonates

(i) The carbonates  $(M_2CO_3)$  & bicarbonates  $(MHCO_3)$  are highly stable to heat, where M stands for alkali metals.

(ii) The stability of these salts increases with the increasing electropositive character from Li to Cs. It is therefore  $\text{Li}_2 \text{CO}_3$  decompose on heating,  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3 \rightarrow \text{Li}_2\text{O}+\text{CO}_2$ 

(iii) Bicarbonates are decomposed at relatively low temperature,  $2MHCO_3 \xrightarrow{300^0C} M_2CO_3 + H_2O + CO_2$ 

(iv) Both carbonates and bicarbonates are soluble in water to give alkaline solution due to hydrolysis of carbonate ions or bicarbonate ions.

## (7) Halides

(i) Alkali metals combine directly with halogens to form ionic halide  $M^+X^-$ .

(ii) The ease with which the alkali metals form halides increases from Li to Cs due to increasing electropositive character from Li to Cs.

(iii) Lithium halides however have more covalent nature. Smaller is the cation, more is deformation of anion and thus more is covalent nature in compound. Also among lithium halides, lithium iodide has maximum covalent nature because of larger anion which is easily deformed by a cation (The Fajan's rule) Thus covalent character in lithium halides is, LiI > LiBr > LiCl > LiF

(iv) These are readily soluble in water. However, lithium fluoride is sparingly soluble. The low solubility of LiF is due to higher forces of attractions among smaller  $Li^+$  and smaller  $F^-$  ions (high lattice energy).

(v) Halides having ionic nature have high m.pt. and good conductor of current. The melting points of halides shows the order, NaF > NaCl > NaBr > Nal

(vi) Halides of potassium, rubidium and caesium have a property of combining with extra halogen atoms forming polyhalides.

 $KI + I_2 \rightarrow KI_3$ ; In  $KI_{3(aq)}$  the ions K<sup>+</sup> and I<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub> are present

#### (8) Solubility in liquid NH<sub>3</sub>

(i) These metals dissolve in liquid  $NH_3$  to produce blue coloured solution, which conducts electricity to an appreciable degree.

(ii) With increasing concentration of ammonia, blue colour starts changing to that of metallic copper after which dissolution of alkali metals in  $NH_3$  ceases.

(iii) The metal atom is converted into ammoniated metal in i.e.  $M^+$  (NH<sub>3</sub>) and the electron set free combines with  $NH_3$  molecule to produce ammonia solvated electron.

 $Na + (x + y) \rightarrow NH_{3}[Na(NH_{3})_{x}]^{+} + [e(NH_{3})_{y}]^{-}$ Ammoniated cation Ammoniated electron

(iv) It is the ammoniated electron which is responsible for blue colour, paramagnetic nature and reducing power of alkali metals in ammonia solution. However, the increased conductance nature of these metals in ammonia is due to presence of ammoniated cation and ammonia solvated electron.

(v) The stability of metal-ammonia solution decreases from Li to Cs.

(vi) The blue solution on standing or on heating slowly liberates hydrogen,  $2M + 2NH_3 \rightarrow 2MNH_2 + H_2$ . Sodamide (NaNH<sub>2</sub>) is a waxy solid, used in preparation of number of sodium compounds.

(9) **Nitrates** : Nitrates of alkali metals ( $MNO_3$ ) are soluble in water and decompose on heating. LiNO<sub>3</sub> decomposes to give NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> and rest all give nitrites and oxygen.

 $2MNO_3 \rightarrow 2MNO_2 + O_2 \text{ (except Li) }; 4 \text{ LiNO}_3 \rightarrow 2\text{Li}_2\text{O} + 4NO_2 + O_2$ (10) Sulphates

(i) Alkali metals' sulphate have the formula  $M_2 SO_4$  .

(ii) Except  $Li_2SO_4$ , rest all are soluble water.

(iii) These sulphates on fusing with carbon form sulphides,  $M_2SO_4 + 4C \rightarrow M_2S + 4CO$ 

(iv) The sulphates of alkali metals (except Li) form double salts with the sulphate of the trivalent metals like Fe, Al, Cr etc. The double sulphates crystallize with large number of water molecules as alum. e.g.  $K_2SO_4$ .  $Al_2$  ( $SO_4$ )<sub>3</sub>. 24  $H_2O$ .

### (11) Reaction with non-metals

(i) These have high affinity for non-metals. Except carbon and nitrogen, they directly react with hydrogen, halogens, sulphur, phosphorus etc. to form corresponding compounds on heating.

$2Na + H_2 \xrightarrow{300^{\circ}C} 2Nah$	$H; 2K + H_2 \rightarrow 2KH$
$2Na + Cl_2 \rightarrow 2NaCl$	; $2K + Cl_2 \rightarrow 2KCl$
$2Na + S \rightarrow Na_2S$	; $2K + S \rightarrow K_2S$
$3Na + P \rightarrow Na_3P$	$; 3K + P \rightarrow K_{3}P$

(ii) Li reacts, however directly with carbon and nitrogen to form carbides and nitrides.

 $2Li + 2C \rightarrow LiC_2 \ ; \ 6Li + 2N_2 \rightarrow 2 \ Li_3N$ 

(iii) The nitrides of these metals on reaction with water give  $NH_3$ .  $M_3N + 3H_2O \rightarrow 3MOH + NH_3$ 

(12) **Reaction with acidic hydrogen** : Alkali metals react with acids and other compounds containing acidic hydrogen (i.e, H atom attached on F,O, N and triply bonded carbon atom, for example, HF, H<sub>2</sub>O, ROH, RNH<sub>2</sub>, CH=CH) to liberate H<sub>2</sub>.

$$M + H_2O \rightarrow MOH + \frac{1}{2}H_2 \quad ; \quad M + HX \rightarrow MX + \frac{1}{2}H_2$$
$$M + ROH \rightarrow ROH + \frac{1}{2}H_2 \quad ; \quad M + RNH_2 \rightarrow RNHNa + \frac{1}{2}H_2$$

(13) **Complex ion formation :** A metal shows complex formation only when it possesses the following characteristics, (i) Small size (ii) High nuclear charge (iii) Presence of empty orbitals in order to accept electron pair ligand. Only Lithium in alkali metals due to small size forms a few complex ions Rest all alkali metals do not possess the tendency to form complex ion.

### Anomalous behaviour of Lithium

Anomalous behaviour of lithium is due to extremely low size of lithium its cation On account of small size and high nuclear charge, lithium exerts the greatest polarizing effect out of all alkali metals on negative ion. Consequently lithium ion possesses remarkable tendency towards solvation and develops covalent character in its compounds. Li differs from other alkali metals in the following respects,

(1) It is comparatively harder than other alkali metals.

(2) It can be melted in dry air without losing its brilliance.

(3) Unlike other alkali metals, lithium is reactive among all. It can be noticed by the following properties,

(i) It is not affected by air. (ii) It decomposes water very slowly to liberate  $H_2$ . (iii) It hardly reacts with bromine while other alkali metals react violently.

(4) Lithium is the only alkali metal which directly reacts with  $N_2$ .

(5) Lithium when heated in  $NH_3$  forms imide,  $Li_2 NH$  while other metals form amides,  $MNH_2$ .

(6) When burnt in air,, lithium form  $Li_2O$  sodium form  $Na_2O$  and  $Na_2O_2$  other alkali metals form monoxide, peroxide and superoxide.

(7)  $Li_2O$  is less basic and less soluble in water than other alkali metals.

(8) LiOH is weaker base than NaOH or KOH and decomposes on heating.

 $2LiOH \xrightarrow{\Lambda} Li_2O + H_2O$ 

(9) LiHCO<sub>3</sub> is liquid while other metal bicarbonates are solid.

(10) Only  $Li_2CO_3$  decomposes on heating  $Li_2CO_3 \xrightarrow{heat} Li_2O + CO_2$ . Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>, K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> etc. do not decompose on heating.

(11) LiNO<sub>3</sub> and other alkali metal nitrates give different products on heating

 $4\text{LiNO}_3 = 2\text{Li}_2\text{O} + 4\text{NO}_2 + \text{O}_2 \hspace{0.1 cm}; \hspace{0.1 cm} 2\text{NaNO}_3 = 2\text{NaNO}_2 + \text{O}_2$ 

(12) LiCl and LiNO<sub>3</sub> are soluble in alcohol and other organic solvents. These salts of other alkali metals are, however, insoluble in organic solvents.

(13) LiCl is deliquescent while NaCl, KBr etc. are not. Lithium chloride crystals contain two molecules of water of crystallisation (LiCl.  $2H_2O$ ). Crystals of NaCl KBr, KI etc do not conation water of crystallisation.

(14)  $Li_2SO_4$  does not form alums like other alkali metals.

(15) Li reacts with water slowly at room temperature Na reacts vigorously Reaction with K. Rb and Cs is violent.

(16) Li reacts with  $Br_2$  slowly. Reaction of other alkali metals with  $Br_2$  is fast.

(17)  $Li_2 CO_3 Li_2C_2O_4$ , LiF ,  $Li_3PO4$  are the only alkali metal salts which are insoluble or sparingly soluble in water.

#### Diagonal Relationship of Li with Mg

Due to its small size lithium differs from other alkali metals but resembles with Mg as its size is closer to Mg Its resemblance with Mg is known as diagonal relationship. Generally the periodic properties show either increasing or decreasing trend along the group and vice versa along the period which brought the diagonally situated elements to closer values. Following are the characteristic to be noted.

Period	Group I	Group II
2	Li	Be
3	Na	∽ Mg

(1) Both Li and Mg are harder and higher m.pt than the other metals of their groups.

(2) Due to covalent nature, chlorides of both Li and Mg are deliquescent and soluble in alcohol and pyridine while chlorides of other alkali metals are not so.

(3) Fluorides, phosphates of li and Mg are sparingly soluble in water whereas those of other alkali metals are soluble in water.

(4) Carbonates of Li and Mg decompose on heating and liberate  $CO_2$  Carbonates of other alkali metals are stable towards heat and decomposed only on fusion.

$$Li_2CO_3 \rightarrow Li_2O + CO_2$$
;  $Mg CO_3 \rightarrow MgO + CO_2$ 

(5) Hydroxides and nitrates of both Li and Mg decompose on heating to give oxide. Hydroxides of both Li and Mg are weak alkali.

 $4 \text{ LiNO}_3 \rightarrow 2 \text{Li}_2 \text{O} + 4 \text{NO}_2 + \text{O}_2 \ ; \ 2 \text{Mg}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{MgO} + 4 \text{NO}_2 + \text{O}_2$ 

$$2\text{LiOH} \rightarrow \text{Li}_2\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$$
;  $Mg(\text{OH})_2 \rightarrow Mg\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ 

Hydroxides of other alkali metals are stable towards heat while their nitrates give O<sub>2</sub> and nitrite.

 $2KNO_3 \rightarrow 2KNO_2 + O_2$ 

(6) Both Li and Mg combine directly with N<sub>2</sub> to give nitrides Li<sub>3</sub> N and Mg<sub>3</sub> N<sub>2</sub>. Other alkali metals combine at high temperature,  $6\text{Li} + N_2 \rightarrow 2\text{Li}_3\text{N}$ ;  $3\text{Mg} + N_2 \rightarrow \text{Mg}_3 \text{N}_2$ . Both the nitrides are decomposed by water to give NH<sub>3</sub>

 $Li_{3}N + 3H_{2}O \rightarrow 3LiOH + NH_{3} \ ; \ Mg_{3}N_{2} + 6H_{2}O \rightarrow 3Mg(OH)_{2} + 2NH_{3}$ 

(7) Bicarbonates of Li and Mg are more soluble in water than carbonates whereas carbonates whereas carbonates of alkali metals are more soluble.

(8) Both Li and Mg combine with carbon on heating.

 $2\text{Li} + 2\text{C} \rightarrow \text{Li}_2\text{C}_2$ ; Mg + 2C  $\rightarrow$  Mg C<sub>2</sub>

(9) The periodic properties of Li and Mg are quite comparable

	Li	Mg
Electronegativity	1.0	1.2
Atomic radii	1.23	1.36
Ionic radii	0.60(Li <sup>+</sup> )	$0.65(Mg^{+2})$
Atomic volume	12.97 c.c	13.97 c.c

(10) Both have high polarizing power. Polarizing Power = Ionic charge / (ionic radius)<sup>2</sup>.

(11) Lithium and Mg Form only monooxide on heating in oxygen.

 $4\text{Li} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{Li}_2\text{O} ; 2\text{Mg} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{MgO}$ 

(12)  $Li_2SO_4$  Like MgSO<sub>4</sub> does not form alums.

(13) The bicarbonates of Li and Mg do not exist in solid state, they exist in solution only.

(14) Alkyls of Li and Mg (R.Li and R. MgX) are soluble in organic solvent.

(15) Lithium chloride and  $MgCl_2$  both are deliquescent and separate out from their aqueous solutions as hydrated crystals, LiCl.  $2H_2O$  and  $MgCl_2$ .  $2H_2O$ .

### Sodium and its compounds

(1) **Ores of sodium** : *NaCl* (common salt), *NaNO*<sub>3</sub> (chile salt petre),  $Na_2SO_4.10H_2O$  (Glauber's salt), borax (sodium tetraborate or sodium borate,  $Na_2B_4O_7.10H_2O$ ).

(2) **Extraction of sodium :** It is manufactured by the electrolysis of fused sodium chloride in the presence of  $CaCl_2$  and KF using graphite anode and iron cathode. This process is called **Down process**.

 $NaCl \Rightarrow Na^+ + Cl^-$ .

At cathode :  $Na^+ + e^- \rightarrow Na$ ; At anode :  $Cl^- \rightarrow Cl + e^-$ ;  $Cl + Cl \rightarrow Cl_2$ 

**Note** : \* Sodium cannot be extracted from aqueous NaCl because  $E^0_{H_2O/H_2}$  (-0.83V) is more

than  $E^0 Na^+ / Na (-2.71V)$ .

Anode and cathode are separated by means of a wire gauze to prevent the reaction between Na

and  $Cl_2$ .

(3) Compound of sodium

#### Sodium hydroxide (Caustic soda), NaOH

### (i) **Preparation**

(a) Gossage process :  $Na_2CO_3 + Ca(OH)_2 \rightarrow 2NaOH \downarrow + CaCO_3$ (10% solution)

(b) *Electrolytic method* : Caustic soda is manufactured by the electrolysis of a concentrated solution of *NaCl*.

At anode: Cl<sup>-</sup> discharged; At cathode: Na<sup>+</sup> discharged

(c) *Castner - Kellener cell* (Mercury cathode process) : *NaOH* obtained by electrolysis of *aq*. solution of brine. The cell comprises of rectangular iron tank divided into three compartments.

Outer compartment – Brine solution is electrolysed ; Central compartment – 2% NaOH solution and  $H_2$ 

(ii) **Properties** : White crystalline solid, highly soluble in water, It is only sparingly soluble in alcohol.

(a) Reaction with salt :  $FeCl_3 + 3NaOH \rightarrow Fe(OH)_3 \downarrow + 3NaCl_{(Insoluble hydroxide)} \downarrow + 3NaCl_{(Insoluble$ 

 $HgCl_2 + 2NaOH \rightarrow 2NaCl + Hg(OH)_2 \rightarrow H_2O + HgO \downarrow$ unstable yellow

$$AgNO_{3} + 2NaOH \rightarrow 2NaNO_{3} + 2AgOH \rightarrow Ag_{2}O \downarrow +H_{2}O$$
Brown
Brown

- \*  $NH_4Cl + NaOH \xrightarrow{heat} NaCl + NH_3 \uparrow +H_2O$
- (b) Reaction with halogens :  $X_2 + 2NaOH$  (cold)  $\rightarrow NaX + NaXO + H_2O$ sod. hypohalite

$$3X_2 + 6NaOH \text{ (hot)} \rightarrow 5NaX + NaXO_3 + 3H_2O;$$
 (X = C1, Br, I)  
(Sod. halate)

(c) Reaction with metals: Weakly electropositive metals like Zn, Al and Sn etc.

$$Zn + 2NaOH \rightarrow Na_{2}ZnO_{2} + H_{2} \uparrow$$
(d) Reaction with sand,  $SiO_{2} : 2NaOH + SiO_{2} \rightarrow Na_{2}SiO_{3} + H_{2}OAR$ 
(e) Reaction with CO:  $NaOH + CO \xrightarrow{150-200^{\circ}C}{5-10 \text{ atm}} \rightarrow HCOONa$ 
(e) Reaction with CO:  $NaOH + CO \xrightarrow{150-200^{\circ}C}{5-10 \text{ atm}} \rightarrow Sod.$  formate

**Note** : **\*** *NaOH* breaks down the proteins of the skin flesh to a pasty mass, therefore it is commonly known as caustic soda.

(iii) **Uses** : In the manufacturing of sodium metal, soap, rayon, paper, dyes and drugs. For mercuring cotton to make cloth unshrinkable and reagent in lab.

## Sodium carbonate or washing soda, Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>

(i) **Preparation :** Solvay process : In this process, brine (NaCl),  $NH_3$  and  $CO_2$  are the raw materials.

$$\begin{split} & NH_{3} + CO_{2} + H_{2}O \rightarrow NH_{4}HCO_{3} \\ & NH_{4}HCO_{3} + NaCl \xrightarrow{30^{o}C} NaHCO_{3} \downarrow + NH_{4}Cl \\ & 2NaHCO_{3} \xrightarrow{250^{o}C} Na_{2}CO_{3} + H_{2}O + CO_{2} \\ & 2NH_{4}Cl + Ca(OH)_{2} \rightarrow CaCl_{2} + 2H_{2}O + 2NH_{3} \\ & \text{slaked} \\ & \text{lime} \end{split}$$

**Note** : \* CaCl<sub>2</sub> so formed in the above reaction is a by product of solvay process.

(ii) **Properties**: (a)  $Na_2CO_3.10H_2O \xrightarrow{dry air} Na_2CO_3.H_2O + 9H_2O$ (decahydrate) (Monohydrate)

 $Na_2CO_3.H_2O \xrightarrow{\Delta} Na_2CO_3 \rightarrow$  It does not decompose on further heating even to redness (m.pt. 853°C)

(b) It is soluble in water with considerable evolution of heat.

$$Na_2CO_3 + H_2O \rightarrow H_2CO_3 + 2Na^+ + 2OH^-$$
  
Weak acid

(c) It is readily decomposed by acids with the evolution of  $CO_2$  gas.

(d)  $Na_2CO_3 + H_2O + CO_2 \rightarrow 2NaHCO_3$ 

(iii) **Uses** : In textile and petroleum refining, Manufacturing of glass, NaOH soap powders etc.

Sodium peroxide 
$$(Na_2O_2)$$

(i) **Preparation :** It is manufactured by heating sodium metal on aluminium trays in air (free from  $CO_2$ )

 $2Na + O_2$  (air)  $\xrightarrow{\Delta} Na_2O_2$ 

(ii) **Properties :** (a) When pure it is colourless. The faint yellow colour of commercial product is due to presence of small amount of superoxide  $(NaO_2)$ .

(b) On coming with moist air it become white due to formation of NaOH and  $Na_2CO_3$ .

 $2Na_2O_2 + 2H_2O \rightarrow 4NaOH + O_2 \ ; \ 2NaOH + CO_2 \rightarrow Na_2CO_3 + H_2O$ 

(c) It is powerful oxidising agent. It oxidises Cr (III) hydroxide to sodium chromate, Mn (II) to sodium manganate and sulphides to sulphates.

(iii) **Uses** : As a bleaching agent and it is used for the purification of air in confined spaces such as submarines because it can combine with  $CO_2$  to give  $Na_2CO_3$  and oxygen,  $2CO_2 + 2Na_2O_2 \rightarrow 2Na_2CO_3 + O_2$ .

## Alkaline Earth Metals and Their Compounds .

The group 2 of the periodic table consists of six metallic elements. These are beryllium (Be), magnesium (Mg), calcium (Ca), strontium (Sr), barium (Ba) and radium (Ra). These (except Be) are known as alkaline earth metals as their oxides are alkaline and occur in earth crust.

### **Electronic configuration**

Element	Electronic configurations (ns <sup>2</sup> )
<sub>4</sub> Be	$1s^2 2s^2$ or $[He] 2s^2$
<sub>12</sub> Mg	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2$ or [Ne] $3s^2$
<sub>20</sub> <i>Ca</i>	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2$ or $[Ar]4s^2$
<sub>38</sub> Sr	$\frac{1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^6 5s^2}{[Kr]5s^2} \text{ or } [Kr]5s^2$
<sub>56</sub> Ba	$\frac{1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^6 4d^{10} 5s^2 5p^6 6s^2}{[Xe]6s^2} \text{ or } [Xe]6s^2$
<sub>88</sub> Ra	$\frac{1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^6 4d^{10} 4f^{14} 5s^2 5p^6 5d^{10} 6s^2 6p^6 7s^2}{[Rn]7s^2}$ or [Rn]7s <sup>2</sup>

Note : \* Radium was discovered in the ore pitch blende by madam Curie. It is radioactive in

nature.

### **Physical properties**

(1) **Physical state :** All are greyish-white, light, malleable and ductile metals with metallic lustre. Their hardness progressively decrease with increase in atomic number. Althought these are fairly soft but relatively harder than alkali metals.

### (2) Atomic and ionic radii

(i) The atomic and ionic radii of alkaline earth metals also increase down the group due to progressive addition of new energy shells like alkali metals.

	Be	Mg	Ca	Sr	Ba	Ra
Atomic radius (pm)	112	160	197	215	222	_
Ionic radius of M <sup>2+</sup> ion (pm)	31	65	99	113	135	140

(ii) The atomic radii of alkaline earth metals are however smaller than their corresponding alkali metal of the same period. This is due to the fact that alkaline earth metals possess a higher nuclear charge than alkali metals which more effectively pulls the orbit electrons towards the nucleus causing a decrease in size.

### (3) **Density**

(i) Density decreases slightly upto Ca after which it increases. The decrease in density from Be to Ca might be due to less packing of atoms in solid lattice of Mg and Ca.

Be	Mg	Ca	Sr	Ba	Ra
		1.55		3.75	6.00

(ii) The alkaline earth metals are more denser, heavier and harder than alkali metal. The higher density of alkaline earth metals is due to their smaller atomic size and strong intermetallic bonds which provide a more close packing in crystal lattice as compared to alkali metals.

## (4) Melting point and Boiling point

(i) Melting points and boiling points of alkaline earth metals do not show any regular trend.

	Be	Mg	Ca	Sr	Ba	Ra
m.pt. (K)	1560	920	1112	1041	1000	973
b.pt (K)	2770	1378	1767	1654	1413	_

(ii) The values are, however, more than alkali metals. This might due to close packing of atoms in crystal lattice in alkaline earth metals.

### (5) Ionisation energy and electropositive or metallic character

(i) Since the atomic size decreases along the period and the nuclear charge increases and thus the electrons are more tightly held towards nucleus. It is therefore alkaline earth metals have higher ionisation energy in comparison to alkali metals but lower ionisation energies in comparison to p-block elements.

(ii) The ionisation energy of alkaline earth metals decreases from Be to Ba.

	Be	Mg	Ca	Sr	Ba	Ra
First ionisation energy (k J mol <sup>-1</sup> )	899	737	590	549	503	509
Second ionisation energy (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	1757	1450	1146	1064	965	979

(iii) The higher values of second ionisation energy is due to the fact that removal of one electron from the valence shell, the remaining electrons are more tightly held in which nucleus of cation and thus more energy is required to pull one more electron from monovalent cation.

(iv) No doubt first ionisation energy of alkaline earth metals are higher than alkali metals but a closer look on 2nd ionisation energy of alkali metals and alkaline earth metals reveals that 2nd ionisation energy of alkali metals are more

Li Be  
1st ionisation energy (kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>) 520 899  
2nd ionisation energy (kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>) 7296 1757  
This may be explained as, Li : 1s<sup>2</sup>, 2s<sup>1</sup> 
$$\xrightarrow{removal of 2s}_{electron}$$
 Li <sup>+</sup>: 1s<sup>2</sup>  $\xrightarrow{removal of 1s}_{electron}$  Li<sup>2+</sup> : 1s<sup>1</sup>  
Be : 1s<sup>2</sup>, 2s<sup>2</sup>  $\xrightarrow{removal of 2s}_{electron}$  Be<sup>+</sup> : 1s<sup>2</sup>, 2s<sup>1</sup>  $\xrightarrow{removal of 2s}_{electron}$  Be<sup>2+</sup> : 1s<sup>2</sup>

The removal of 2<sup>nd</sup> electron from alkali metals takes place from 1s sub shell which are more closer to nucleus and exert more nuclear charge to hold up 1 s electron core, whereas removal of 2nd electron from alkaline earth metals takes from 2s sub shell. More closer are shells to the nucleus, more tightly are held electrons with nucleus and thus more energy is required to remove the electron.

(v) All these possess strong electropositive character which increases from Be to Ba.

(vi) These have less electropositive character than alkali metals as the later have low values of ionisation energy.

#### (6) Oxidation number and valency

(i) The IE<sub>1</sub> of the these metals are much lower than IE<sub>1</sub> and thus it appears that these metals should form univalent ion rather than divalent ions but in actual practice, all these give bivalent ions. This is due to the fact that  $M^{2+}$  ion possesses a higher degree of hydration or  $M^{2+}$  ions are extensively hydrated to form  $[M(H_2O)_x]^{2+}$ , a hydrated ion. This involves a large amount of energy evolution which counter balances the higher value of second ionisation energy.

$$M \to M^{2+}$$
,  $\Delta H = IE_1 + E_2$ 

 $M^{2+} + {}_xH_2O \rightarrow [M(H_2O)_x]^{2+}; \Delta H = -$  hydration energy.

(ii) The tendency of these metals to exist as divalent cation can thus be accounted as,

(a) Divalent cation of these metals possess noble gas or stable configuration.

(b) The formation of divalent cation lattice leads to evolution of energy due to strong lattice structure of divalent cation which easily compensates for the higher values of second ionisation energy of these metals.

(c) The higher heats of hydration of divalent cation which accounts for the existence of the divalent ions of these metals in solution state.

### (7) Hydration of ions

(i) The hydration energies of alkaline earth metals divalent cation are much more than the hydration energy of monovalent cation.

	$Mg^+$	$Mg^{2+}$
Hydration energy or Heat of hydration (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	353	1906

The abnormally higher values of heat of hydration for divalent cations of alkaline earth metals are responsible for their divalent nature.  $MgCl_2$  formation occurs with more amount of heat evolution and thus  $MgCl_2$  is more stable.

(ii) The hydration energies of  $M^{2+}$  ion decreases with increase in ionic radii.

 $Be^{2+}$   $Mg^{2+}$   $Ca^{2+}$   $Sr^{2+}$   $Ba^{2+}$ 

Heat of hydration kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> 2382 1906 1651 1484 1275

(iii) Heat of hydration are larger than alkali metals ions and thus alkaline earth metals compounds are more extensively hydrated than those of alkali metals e.g  $MgCl_2$  and  $CaCl_2$  exists as  $MgCl_2$ .  $6H_2O$  and  $CaCl_2$ .  $6H_2O$  which NaCl and KCl do not form such hydrates.

(iv) The ionic mobility, therefore, increases from  $Ba^{2+}$  to  $Ba^{2+}$ , as the size of hydrated ion decreases.

### (8) Electronegativities

(i) The electronegativities of alkaline earth metals are also small but are higher than alkali metals.

(ii) Electronegativity decreases from Be to Ba as shown below,

	Be	Mg	Ca	Sr	Ba
Electronegativity	1.57	1.31	1.00	0.95	0.89

(9) **Conduction power** : Good conductor of heat and electricity.

### (10) Standard oxidation potential and reducing properties

(i) The standard oxidation potential (in volts) are,

 Be
 Mg
 Ca
 Sr
 Ba

 1.69
 2.35
 2.87
 2.89
 2.90

(ii) All these metals possess tendency to lose two electrons to give  $M^{2+}$  ion and are used as reducing agent.

(iii) The reducing character increases from Be to Ba, however, these are less powerful reducing agent than alkali metals.

(iv) Beryllium having relatively lower oxidation potential and thus does not liberate  $H_2$  from acids.

### (11) Characteristic flame colours

(i) *The characteristic flame colour shown are* : Ca-brick red; Sr –crimson ; Ba-apple green and Racrimson.

(ii) Alkaline earth metals except Be and Mg produce characteristic colour to flame due to easy excitation of electrons to higher energy levels.

(iii) Be and Mg atoms due to their small size, bind their electrons more strongly (because of higher effective nuclear charge) Hence these requires high excitation energy and are not excited by the energy of flame with the result that no flame colour is shown by them.

#### **Chemical properties**

(1) **Occurrence**: These are found mainly in combined state such as oxides, carbonates and sulphates Mg and Ca are found in abundance in nature. Be is not very abundant, Sr and Ba are less abundant. Ra is rare element. Some important ores of alkaline earth metals are given below,

(i) **Baryllium** : Beryl (3BeO.Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.6SiO<sub>2</sub>); Phenacite (Be<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub>)

(ii) *Magnesium* : Magnesite (MgCO<sub>3</sub>); Dolomite (CaCO<sub>3</sub>. MgCO<sub>3</sub>); Epsomite(MgSO<sub>4</sub>. 7H<sub>2</sub>O); Carnallite (MgCl<sub>2</sub>.KCl. 6H<sub>2</sub>O); Asbestos [CaMg<sub>3</sub>(SiO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub>]

(iii) **Calcium** : Limestone (CaCO<sub>3</sub>); Gypsum : (CaSO<sub>4</sub>.2H<sub>2</sub>O), Anhydrite (CaSO<sub>4</sub>); Fluorapatite  $[(3Ca_3(PO_4)_2,CaF_2)]$  Phosphorite rock  $[Ca_3(PO_4)_2]$ 

(iv) *Barium* : Barytes (BaSO<sub>4</sub>) ; witherite (BaCO<sub>3</sub>)

(v) **Radium** : Pitch blende  $(U_3O_8)$ ; (Ra in traces); other radium rich minerals are carnotite  $[K_2UO_2)$ ]  $(VO_4)_2 8H_2O$  and antamite  $[Ca(UO_2)_2]$ 

### (2) Extraction of alkaline earth metals

(i) Be and Mg are obtained by reducing their oxides carbon,

 $BeO + C \rightarrow Be + CO$ ;  $MgO + C \rightarrow Mg + CO$ 

(ii) The extraction of alkaline earth metals can also be made by the reduction of their oxides by alkali metals or by electrolysing their fused salts.

(3) Alloy formation : These dissolve in mercury and form amalgams.

### (4) Formation of oxides and hydroxides

(i) The elements (except Ba and Ra) when burnt in air give oxides of ionic nature  $M^{2+}O^{2-}$  which are crystalline in nature . Ba and Ra however give peroxide. The tendency to form higher oxides increases from Be to Ra.

 $\begin{array}{ll} 2M \,+\,O_2 \,{\rightarrow}\,\, 2MO & (M \text{ is Be, Mg or Ca} \;) \\ 2M \,+\,O_2 \,{\rightarrow}\,\, MO_2 & (M \text{ is Ba or Sr}) \end{array}$ 

(ii) Their less reactivity than the alkali metals is evident by the fact that they are slowly oxidized on exposure to air, However the reactivity of these metals towards oxygen increases on moving down the group.

(iii) The oxides of these metals are very stable due to high lattice energy.

(iv) The oxides of the metal (except BeO and MgO) dissolve in water to form basic hydroxides and evolve a large amount of heat. BeO and MgO possess high lattice energy and thus insoluble in water.

(v) BeO dissolves both in acid and alkalies to give salts i.e. BeO possesses amphoteric nature.

 $\begin{array}{ccc} BeO + 2NaOH \rightarrow Na_2BeO_2 + H_2O & ; & BeO + 2HCl \rightarrow BeCl_2 + H_2O \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ \end{array}$ 

(vi)The basic nature of oxides of alkaline earth metals increases from Be to Ra as the electropositive Character increases from Be to Ra.

(vii)The tendency of these metal to react with water increases with increase in electropositive character i.e. Be to Ra.

(viii) Reaction of Be with water is not certain, magnesium reacts only with hot water, while other metals react with cold water but slowly and less energetically than alkali metals.

(ix) The inertness of Be and Mg towards water is due to the formation of protective , thin layer of hydroxide on the surface of the metals.

(x) The basic nature of hydroxides increase from Be to Ra. It is because of increase in ionic radius down the group which results in a decrease in strength of M -O bond in M  $-(OH)_2$  to show more dissociation of hydroxides and greater basic character.

(xi) The solubility of hydroxides of alkaline earth metals is relatively less than their corresponding alkali metal hydroxides Furthermore, the solubility of hydroxides of alkaline earth metals increases from Be to Ba. Be  $(OH)_2$  and Mg  $(OH)_2$  are almost insoluble, Ca  $(OH)_2$  (often called lime water) is sparingly soluble whereas Sr $(OH)_2$  and Ba  $(OH)_2$  (often called baryta water ) are more soluble.

The trend of the solubility of these hydroxides depends on the values of lattice energy and hydration energy of these hydroxides. The magnitude of hydration energy remains almost same whereas lattice energy decreases appreciably down the group leading to more –Ve values for  $\Delta H_{solution}$  down the group.

 $\Delta H_{\text{solution}} = \Delta H_{\text{lattice energy}} + \Delta H_{\text{hydration energy}}$ 

More negative is  $\Delta H_{solution}$  more is solubility of compounds.

(xii) The basic character of oxides and hydroxides of alkaline earth metals is lesser than their corresponding alkali metal oxides and hydroxides.

(xiii) Aqueous solution of lime water  $[Ca(OH)_2]$  or baryta water  $[Ba(OH)]_2$  are used to qualitative identification and quantative estimation of carbon dioxide, as both of them gives white precipitate with  $CO_2$  due to formation of insoluble  $CaCO_3$  or  $BaCO_3$ 

 $Ca(OH)_2 + CO_2 \rightarrow CaCO_3 + H_2O \ ; \ Ba(OH)_2 + CO_2 \rightarrow BaCO_3 + H_2O$ 

**Note** :  $\mathbf{*}$  SO<sub>2</sub> also give white ppt of CaSO<sub>3</sub> and BaSO<sub>3</sub> on passing through lime water or baryta water However on passing CO<sub>2</sub> in excess, the white turbidity of insoluble carbonates dissolve to give a clear solution again due to the formation of soluble bicarbonates,

 $CaCO_3 \rightarrow H_2O + CO_2 \rightarrow Ca(HCO_3)_2$ 

## (5) Hydrides

(i) Except Be, all alkaline earth metals form hydrides (MH<sub>2</sub>) on heating directly with H<sub>2</sub> .  $M+H_2 \rightarrow$  $MH_2$ .

(ii)  $BeH_2$  is prepared by the action of Li Al H<sub>4</sub> On  $BeCl_2$ ;  $2BeCl_2 + LiAlH_4 \rightarrow 2BeH_2 + LiCl + LiAlH_4 \rightarrow 2BeH_2$ AlCl<sub>3</sub>.

- (iii)  $BeH_2$  and  $MgH_2$  are covalent while other hydrides are ionic.
- (iv) The ionic hydrides of Ca, Sr, Ba liberate H<sub>2</sub> at anode and metal at cathode.

$$H_2$$
  $\xrightarrow{\text{tusion}} a^{2+} + 2H$ 

Anode :  $2H^{-} \rightarrow H_{2} + 2e$  Cathode :  $Ca^{2+} + 2e \rightarrow Ca$ 

Cał

- (v) The stability of hydrides decreases from Be to Ba.
- (vi) The hydrides having higher reactivity for water, dissolves readily and produce hydrogen gas.

 $CaH_{2(s)} + 2H_2O \rightarrow Ca(OH)_2 + 2H_2\uparrow$ 

#### (6) Carbonates and Bicarbonates

(i) All these metal carbonates (MCO<sub>3</sub>) are insoluble in neutral medium but soluble in acid medium . These are precipitated by the addition of alkali metal or ammonium carbonate solution to the solution of these metals.

 $(NH_4)_2 CO_3 + CaCl_2 \rightarrow 2NH_4Cl + CaCO_3$ ;  $Na_2CO_3 + BaCl_2 \rightarrow 2NaCl + BaCO_3$ 

(ii) Alkaline earth metal carbonates are obtained as white precipitates when calculated amount of carbon dioxide is passed through the solution of the alkaline metal hydroxides.

 $M(OH)_2$  (aq) +  $CO_2$  (g)  $\rightarrow MCO_{3(s)}$  +  $H_2O(l)$ 

and sodium or ammonium carbonate is added to the solution of the alkaline earth metal salt such as CaCl<sub>2</sub>.

 $CaCl_2 (aq) + Na_2CO_3 (aq) \rightarrow CaCO_3(s) + 2 NaCl(aq)$ 

(iii) Solubility of carbonates of these metals also decreases downward in the group due to the decrease of hydration energy as the lattice energy remains almost unchanged as in case of sulphates.

(vi) The carbonates of these metals decompose on heating to give the oxides, the temperature of decomposition increasing from Be to Ba. Beryllium carbonate is unstable.

 $MCO_3 \xrightarrow{Heat} MO + CO_2$ 

#### (7) Halides

(i) The alkaline earth metals combine directly with halogens at appropriate temperatures forming halides, MX<sub>2</sub>. These halides can also be prepared by the action of halogen acids (HX) on metals, metal oxides, hydroxides and carbonates.

 $\begin{array}{l} M+2HX \rightarrow MX_2+H_2 \hspace{0.2cm} ; \hspace{0.2cm} MO+2HX \rightarrow MX_2+H_2O \\ M(OH)_2+2HX \rightarrow MX_2+2H_2O \hspace{0.2cm} ; \hspace{0.2cm} MCO_3+2HX \rightarrow MX_2+CO_2+H_2O \end{array}$ Beryllium chloride is however, conveniently obtained from oxide  $BeO+C+Cl_2 \xrightarrow{870-1070K} BeCl_2+CO. \end{array}$ 

(ii)  $BeCl_2$  is essentially covalent, the chlorides  $MgCl_2$ ,  $CaCl_2$ ,  $SrCl_2$  and  $BaCl_2$  are ionic; the ionic character increases as the size of the metal ion increases. The evidence is provided by the following facts,

(a) Beryllium chloride is relatively low melting and volatile whereas BaCl<sub>2</sub> has high melting and stable.

(b) Beryllium chloride is soluble in organic solvents.

(iii) The halides of the members of this group are soluble in water and produce neutral solutions from which the hydrates such :  $MgCl_2 6H_2O$ ,  $CaCl_2.6H_2O.BaCl_2 2H_2O$  can be crystallised. The tendency to form hydrated halides decreases with increasing size of the metal ions.

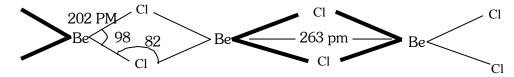
(iv) BeCl<sub>2</sub> is readily hydrolysed with water to form acid solution, BeCl<sub>2</sub> +  $2H_2O \rightarrow Be (OH)_2 + 2HCl$ .

(v) The fluorides are relatively less soluble than the chlorides due to high lattice energies. Except  $BeCl_2$  and  $MgCl_2$  the chlorides of alkaline earth metals impart characteristic colours to flame.

 $CaCl_2$   $SrCl_2$   $BaCl_2$ 

Brick red colour Crimson colour Grassy green colour

Structure of  $BeCl_2$  In the solid phase polymeric chain structure with three centre 2 electron bonding with Be-Cl-Be bridged structure is shown below,



In the vapour phase it tends to form a chloro-bridged dimer which dissociates into the linear triatomic monomer at high temperature at nearly 1200 K.

(8) **Solubility in liquid ammonia :** Like alkali metals, alkaline earth metals also dissolve in liquid ammonia to form coloured solutions When such a solution is evaporated, hexammoniate,  $M(NH_3)_6$  is formed.

### (9) Nitrides

(i) All the alkaline earth metals directs combine with  $N_2$  give nitrides,  $M_3N_2$ .

(ii) The ease of formation of nitrides however decreases from Be to Ba.

(iii) These nitrides are hydrolysed water to liberate  $NH_3$ ,  $M_3N_2 + 6H_2O \rightarrow 3M(OH)_2 + 2NH_3$ 

#### (10) Sulphates

(i) All these form sulphate of the type M  $SO_4$  by the action of  $H_2$   $SO_4$  on metals, their oxides, carbonates or hydroxides.

 $M + H_2SO_4 \rightarrow MSO_4 + H_2$ ;  $MO + H_2SO_4 \rightarrow MSO_4 + H_2O_4$ 

 $MCO_3 + H_2SO_4 \rightarrow MSO_4 + H_2O + CO_2$ ;  $M(OH)_2 + H_2SO_4 \rightarrow MSO_4 + 2H_2O_4$ 

(ii) The solubility of sulphates in water decreases on moving down the group  $BeSO_4$  and  $MgSO_4$  are fairly soluble in water while  $BaSO_4$  is completely insoluble. This is due to increases in lattice energy of sulphates down the group which predominates over hydration energy.

(ii) Sulphate are quite stable to heat however reduced to sulphide on heating with carbon.

 $MSO_4 + 2C \rightarrow MS + 2CO_2$ 

(11) Action with carbon : Alkaline metals (except Be, Mg) when heated with carbon form carbides of the type  $MC_2$  These carbides are also called acetylides as on hydrolysis they evolve acetylene.

 $MC_2 + 2H_2O \rightarrow M(OH)_2 + C_2H_2$ 

(12) Action with sulphur and phosphorus : Alkaline earth metals directly combine with sulphur and phosphorus when heated to form sulphides of the type MS and phosphides of the type  $M_3P_2$  respectively.

 $M + S \rightarrow MS \ ; \ 3M + 2P \rightarrow M_3P_2$ 

Sulphides on hydrolysis liberate H<sub>2</sub>S while phosphides on hydrolysis evolve phosphine.

MS + dil. acid  $\rightarrow$  H<sub>2</sub>S ; M<sub>3</sub>P<sub>2</sub> + dil. acid  $\rightarrow$  PH<sub>3</sub>

Sulphides are phosphorescent and are decomposed by water

 $2MS + 2H_2O \rightarrow M(OH)_2 + M(HS)_2$ 

(13) **Nitrates :** Nitrates of these metals are soluble in water On heating they decompose into their corresponding oxides with evolution of a mixture of nitrogen dioxide and oxygen.

$$M(NO_3)_2 \rightarrow MO + 2NO_2 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)O_2$$

#### (14) Formation of complexes

(i) Tendency to show complex ion formation depends upon smaller size, high nuclear charge and vacant orbitals to accept electron. Since alkaline metals too do not possess these characteristics and thus are unable to form complex ion.

(ii) However,  $Be^{2+}$  on account of smaller size forms many complex such as  $(BeF_3)^{1-}$ ,  $(BeF_4)^{2-}$ .

Anomalous behaviour of Beryllium

Beryllium differs from rest of the alkaline earth metals on account of its small atomic size, high electronegativity Be<sup>2+</sup> exerts high polarizing effect on anions and thus produces covalent nature in its compounds. Following are some noteworthy difference of Be from other alkaline earth metals,

(1) Be is lightest alkaline earth metal.

(2) Be possesses higher m.pt. and b.pt than other group members.

(3) BeO is amphoteric in nature whereas oxides of other group members are strong base.

(4) It is not easily effected by dry air and does not decompose water at ordinary temperature.

(5)  $BeSO_4$  is soluble in water.

(6) Be and Mg carbonates are not precipitated by  $(NH_4)_2 CO_3$  in presence of  $NH_4 CI$ .

(7) Be and Mg salts do not impart colour to flame.

(8) Be does not form peroxide like other alkaline earth metals.

(9) It does not evolve hydrogen so readily from acids as other alkaline earth metals do so.

(10) It has strong tendency to form complex compounds.

(11)  $Be_3N_2$  is volatile whereas nitrides of other alkaline earth metals are non-volatile.

(12) It's salts can never have more than four molecules of water of crystallization as it has only four available orbitals in its valence shell.

(13) Berylium carbide reacts water to give methane whereas magnesium carbide and calcium carbide give propyne and acetylene respectively.

 $Be_2C+4H_2O\rightarrow 2Be(OH)_2 + CH_4$ ;  $Mg_2C_3 + 4H_2O \rightarrow 2Mg(OH)_2 + C_3H_6$ 

# $CaC_2 + 2H_2O \rightarrow Ca(OH)_2 + C_2H_4$ Diagonal relationship of *Be* with *Al*

Due to its small size Be differs from other earth alkaline earth metals but resembles in many of its properties with Al on account of diagonal relationship.

(1)  $Be^{2+}$  and  $Al^{3+}$  have almost same and smaller size and thus favour for covalent bonding.

(2) Both these form covalent compounds having low m. pt and soluble in organic solvent.

(3) Both have same value of electronegativity (i.e.1.5).

(4) The standard O.P of these elements are quite close to each other ;  $Be^{2+}=1.69$  volts and  $Al^{3+}=1.70$  volts.

(5) Both become passive on treating with conc.  $HNO_3$  in cold.

(6) Both form many stable complexes e.g.  $(BeF_3)^-$ ,  $(AIH_4)^-$ .

(7) Like BeO,  $Al_2O_3$  is amphoteric in nature. Also both are high m. pt. solids.

 $Al_2O_3 + 2NaOH \rightarrow 2NaAlO_2 + H_2O$ ;  $Al_2O_3 + 6HCl \rightarrow 2AlCl_3 + 3H_2O$ 

(8) Be and Al both react with NaOH to liberate  $H_2$  forming beryllates and alluminates.

 $Be + 2NaOH \rightarrow Na_2BeO_2 + H_2 ; 2AI + 6NaOH \rightarrow 2Na_3AIO_3 + 3H_2$ 

(9)  $\text{Be}_2 \text{ C}$  and  $\text{Al}_4\text{C}_3$  both give  $\text{CH}_4$  on treating with water.

 $Be_2C + 2H_2O \rightarrow CH_4 + 2BeO \ ; \ Al_4C_3 + 6H_2O \rightarrow 3CH_4 + 2Al_2O_3$ 

(10) Both occur together in nature in beryl ore, 3BeO.  $Al_2O_3$  6SiO<sub>2</sub>.

(11) Unlike other alkaline earths but like aluminium, beryllium is not easily attacked by air (Also Mg is not attacked by air)

(12) Both Be and Al react very slowly with dil. HCl to liberate  $H_2$ .

(13) Both Be and Al form polymeric covalent hydrides while hydrides of other alkaline earth are ionic.

(14) Both  $BeCl_2$  and  $AlCl_3$  are prepared is similar way.

 $BeO + C + Cl_2 \rightarrow BeCl_2 + CO \ ; \ Al_2O_3 + 3C + 3Cl_2 \rightarrow 2AlCl_3 + 3CO$ 

(15) Both  $BeCl_2$  and  $AlCl_3$  are soluble in organic solvents and act as catalyst in Friedel –Crafts reaction.

(16) Both Be (OH) $_2$  and Al (OH) $_3$  are amphoteric whereas hydroxides of other alkaline earths are strong alkali.

(17) The salts of Be and Al are extensively hydrated.

(18)  $BeCl_2$  and  $AlCl_3$  both have a bridged polymeric structure.

(19) Be and Al both form fluoro complex ions  $[BeF_4]^{2-}$  and  $[AlF_6]^{3-}$  in solution state whereas other members of 2nd group do not form such complexes.

### Difference between alkali metals and alkaline earth metals

Properties	Alkaline earth metals	Alkali metals
Electronic configuration	Two electrons are present in the valency shell. The configuration is ns <sup>2</sup>	One electron is present in the valency shell. The configuration is ns <sup>1</sup>
Valency	Bivalent	Monovalent
Electropositive nature	Less electropositive	More electropositive
Carbonates	Insoluble in water. Decompose On heating	Soluble in water. Do not decompose on heating ( $Li_2CO_3$ is an exception).
Hydroxides	Weak bases, less soluble and decompose	Strong bases, highly soluble and
Bicarbonates Action of carbon	on heating These are not known in free state. Exist only in solution Directly combine with carbon and form	stable towards heat. These are known is solid state. Do not directly combine with carbon.
	carbides	
Action of nitrogen	Directly combine with nitrogen and form nitrides	Do not directly combine with nitrogen.
Nitrates	Decompose on heating evolving a mixture of $NO_2$ and oxygen	Decompose on heating evolving Only oxygen
Hydration of compounds	The compounds are extensively hydrated. $MgCl_2$ . $6H_2O$ , $CaCl_2$ , $6H_2O$ , $BaCl_2$ , $2H_2O$ are hydrated chlorides	The compounds are less hydrated NaCl, KCl, RbCl form non-hydrated chlorides.
Solubility of salts	Sulphates, phosphates, fluorides, chromates, oxalates etc. are insoluble in water	Sulphates, phosphates, fluorides, chromates, oxalates, etc. are soluble in water
Physical properties	Comparatively harder. High melting points. Diamagnetic	Soft. Low melting points, Paramagnetic

### Magnesium and its compounds

(1) **Ores of magnesium :** Magnesite  $(MgCO_3)$ , Dolomite  $(MgCO_3.CaCO_3)$ , Epsomite (epsom salt)  $(MgSO_4.7H_2O)$  Carnallite  $(MgCI_2.KCI.6H_2O)$  Asbestos  $(CaMg_3(SiO_3)_4)$ , Talc  $(Mg_2 (Si_2O_5)_2.Mg(OH)_2)$ .

(2) **Extraction of magnesium :** It is prepared by the electrolysis of fused magnesium chloride which is obtained from carnallite and magnesite.

(3) Compounds of magnesium

(i) *Magnesia* (*MgO*) : It is used as magnesia cement. It is a mixture of *MgO* and *MgCl*<sub>2</sub>. It is also called Sorel's cement.

(ii) *Magnesium hydroxide* : It aqueous suspension is used in Medicine as an antacid. Its medicinal name is milk of magnesia.

(iii) *Magnesium sulphate or Epsom salt* ( $MgSO_4.7H_2O$ ): It is isomorphous with  $ZnSO_4.7H_2O$ . It is used as a purgative in medicine, as a mordant in dyeing and as a stimulant to increase the secretion of bile.

(iv) *Magnesium chloride*  $(M_gCl_2.6H_2O)$ : It is a deliquescent solid. Hydrated salt on heating in air undergoes partial hydrolysis.  $M_gCl_2.6H_2O \xrightarrow{\text{Heat}} M_g(OH)Cl + HCl + 5H_2O$ .

### **Calcium and its compounds**

(1) **Ores of calcium** : Lime stone or marble or chalk  $(CaCO_3)$ , Gypsum  $(CaSO_4.2H_2O)$ , Dolomite  $(CaCO_3.MgCO_3)$ , Fluorspar  $(CaF_2)$ , phosphorite  $Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ . Calcium phosphate is a constituent of bones and teeth.

(2) **Manufacture :** It is manufactured by the electrolysis of a molten mixture of calcium chloride containing some calcium fluoride. Calcium chloride in turn is obtained as a by product of the solvay process.

#### (3) Compounds of calcium

(i) **Calcium oxide or Quick lime or Burnt lime (CaO)** : It's aqueous suspension is known as slaked lime.

$$CaO + H_2O \xrightarrow{\text{hissing sound}} Ca(OH)_2 + \text{Heat},$$
  
slaked  
lime

When exposed to oxy-hydrogen flame, it starts emitting light called lime light.

**Note** : **\*** *CaO* is used as basic flux, for removing hardness of water, as a drying agent (for  $NH_3$  gas) for preparing mortar (*CaO*+ sand +water).

(ii) **Calcium chloride**  $(CaCl_2.6H_2O)$ : Fused  $CaCl_2$  is a good dessicant (drying agent). It can't be used to dry alcohol or ammonia as it forms additional products with them.

(iii) Calcium carbonate (CaCO<sub>3</sub>) : Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> + CO<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  CaCO<sub>3</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O.

- **Note** : **\*** It is insoluble in water but dissolves in the presence of  $CO_2$  due to the formation of calcium bicarbonate.  $CaCO_3 + H_2O + CO_2 \rightarrow Ca(HCO_3)_2$ 
  - # It is a constituent of protective shells of marine animals.