

OXFORD

A GUIDE TO THE

ELEMENTS

SECOND EDITION

ALBERT STWERTKA



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Atomic number	1
Chemical symbol	H
Atomic weight	1.00794

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
IA	IIA	IIIB	IVB	VB	VIB	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII	IIIA	IVA	VA	VIA	VIIA	VIIIA
1 H 1.00794	2 He 4.00260	3 Li 6.941	4 Be 9.01218	5 B 10.811	6 C 12.011	7 N 14.00674	8 O 15.9994	9 F 18.99840	10 Ne 20.1797	11 Na 22.98977	12 Mg 24.3050	13 Al 26.98154	14 Si 28.0855	15 P 30.97376	16 S 32.066	17 Cl 35.4527	18 Ar 39.948
19 K 39.0983	20 Ca 40.078	21 Sc 44.95591	22 Ti 47.88	23 V 50.9415	24 Cr 51.9961	25 Mn 54.9380	26 Fe 55.847	27 Co 58.93320	28 Ni 58.6934	29 Cu 63.546	30 Zn 65.39	31 Ga 69.723	32 Ge 72.63	33 As 74.92159	34 Se 78.96	35 Br 79.904	36 Kr 83.80
37 Rb 85.468	38 Sr 87.62	39 Y 88.90585	40 Zr 91.224	41 Nb 92.90638	42 Mo 95.94	43 Tc 98.9062	44 Ru 101.07	45 Rh 102.90550	46 Pd 106.42	47 Ag 107.8682	48 Cd 112.411	49 In 114.82	50 Sn 118.710	51 Sb 121.76	52 Te 127.57	53 I 126.90447	54 Xe 131.29
55 Cs 132.90543	56 Ba 137.327	57 *La 138.9055	58 Ce 140.115	59 Pr 140.90765	60 Nd 144.24	61 Pm 144.9127	62 Sm 150.36	63 Eu 151.965	64 Gd 157.25	65 Tb 158.92534	66 Dy 162.50	67 Ho 164.93032	68 Er 167.26	69 Tm 168.93421	70 Yb 173.04	71 Lu 174.967	72 *Hf 178.49
87 Fr 223.0197	88 Ra 226.0754	89 †Ac 227.0278	90 Th 232.0381	91 Pa 231.0369	92 U 238.0289	93 Np 237.0482	94 Pu 244.0642	95 Am 243.0614	96 Cm 247.0703	97 Bk 247.0703	98 Cf 251.0796	99 Es 252.083	100 Fm 257.0951	101 Md 258.10	102 No 259.1039	103 Lr 262.11	104 †Ta 180.9479
101 Bi 208.98039	102 Po 209	103 At 210	104 Rn 222	105 Fr 223	106 Ra 226	107 Ac 227	108 Th 232	109 Pa 231	110 U 238	111 Np 237	112 Pu 244	113 Am 243	114 Cm 247	115 Bk 247	116 Cf 251	117 Es 252	118 Fm 257

****** All the isotopes of this element are radioactive. With the exception of uranium and thorium, the atomic weight shown represents the relative atomic weight of the longest-lived isotope. The numbers in parentheses are the mass numbers of the longest-lived isotope.

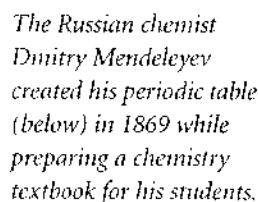
Although the world is varied and complex, everything in it—air, water, rocks, living tissue, and the almost infinite number of other objects and materials around us—is actually made up of only a limited number of chemical elements. We know today that only 91 such elements exist naturally on the Earth. They range from hydrogen, the lightest element, to uranium, the heaviest. Actually, several more elements do exist, but these have to be made artificially in laboratories.

The basic components of each chemical element are atoms. The atoms of an element consist of three kinds of particles: protons, neutrons, and electrons. Protons and neutrons exist at the core, or nucleus, of the atom. One of the important ways in which these two kinds of particles differ from one another is that each proton carries a single, positive electric charge, whereas a neutron carries no electric charge. Electrons, which are much smaller than either protons or neutrons, each carry a single negative electric charge. Electrons are present at some distance away from the nucleus of the atom and travel rapidly around it in complex paths known as orbits. Under normal circumstances, the number of electrons orbiting around the nucleus of a particular atom is exactly equal to the number of protons in the nucleus of the atom, so that the overall positive electric charge provided by its protons is exactly balanced by the overall negative charge provided by the electrons orbiting its nucleus.

The unique properties of each of the chemical elements are determined by their number of neutrons, protons, and electrons. Besides determining the properties of a pure chemical element, the neutron, proton, and electron content of its atoms also determines its behavior in relation to other chemical elements. Although each element behaves differently and has different properties from all of the others, the atoms of different elements can combine with one another to form clusters of atoms called molecules. It is this combination of atoms that accounts for the enormous variety of chemical substances that can be found in nature and created by modern technology.

When scientists first tried to describe the physical and chemical properties of the elements and chemical compounds, which are formed by the combination of atoms of different elements, they soon became buried under a mountain of seemingly unconnected facts. Many early scientists recognized the need to organize this information, and they attempted to discover some sort of order or pattern that could simplify what seemed to them an overwhelming array of chemical facts. The solution to the

THE PERIODIC TABLE



The modern periodic table is based primarily on the work of the Russian chemist Dmitry Ivanovich Mendeleev (1834–1907) and the German physicist Julius Lothar Meyer (1830–1895). Working independently, both of these scientists developed similar periodic tables within a few months of each other in 1869. Mendeleev, however, is usually given the credit for having developed the periodic table because he managed to publish his work first.

Much of Mendeleyev's success depended on his placing elements with similar properties in the same group, even though

The table that Mendeleyev developed is in many ways similar to the one we use today. One of the main differences is that Mendeleyev's table lacks the column containing the elements helium through radon. In Mendeleyev's time none of the elements in this column had yet been found because they are relatively rare and because they show no tendency to undergo chemical reactions. Occasionally, Mendeleyev was forced to switch the order of his elements to make the table come out right, placing elements with greater atomic weights ahead of those with smaller weights. The atomic weight of an element is the average weight of all the atoms that form the element. It is mostly determined by the total number of protons and neutrons the atoms contain. Electrons are so much lighter than these

XVIII

PRINCIPLES OF CHEMISTRY

PERIODIC SYSTEM OF THE ELEMENTS IN GROUPS AND SERIES.

GROUPS OF ELEMENTS

	O	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
1		Hydro- gen H 1.008							
2	Li- thium He 4.0	Li- thium Li 7.0	Beryl- lium Be 9.1	Boro- nium B 11.0	Car- bon C 12.0	Nitro- gen N 14.6	Oxy- gen O 16.0	Fluo- rine F 19.0	
3		Sodium Na 23.0	Magne- sium Mg 24.5	Alu- minium Al 27.0	Silico- nium Si 28.4	Phos- phorus P 31.0	Sul- phur S 32.06	Chlo- rine Cl 35.46	
4	Argo- n Ar 38	Potas- sium K 39.1	Cal- cium Ca 40.1	Stra- ontium Sr 44.1	Zinc- blende Zn 43.1	Copper- blende Cu 51.4	Mer- cury Hg 52.1	Manga- nese Mn 55.0	Iron Fe 55.9
5		Cop- per Cu 63.6	Zinc Zn 65.4	Gall- ium Ga 70.0	Ger- manium Ge 72.5	Ar- senic As 75	Sel- enium Se 79	Bro- mine Br 79.95	Nickel Ni 58.9
6	Kryp- togen Kr 81	Rubi- dium Rb 85.4	Stron- tium Sr 87.6	Yt- trium Y 89.0	Zinc- blende Zn 90.0	Nio- bium Nb 94.0	Molyb- denum Mo 96.0		Ruthen- ium Ru 101.1
7		Silico- gen Si 107.9	Calc- ium Ca 112.4	Indi- um In 114.0	Titan- ium Ti 119.0	Antim- ony Sb 120.0	Tellu- rium Te 127	Iodine I 127	Palladium Pd 106.5
8	Xenon Xe 128	Ce- sium Cs 132.9	Ba- rium Ba 137.4	Lan- thanum La 139	Tan- talo- m Ta 181	Tung- sten W 184			Cobalt Co 113.1
9									Nickel Ni 194.9
10				Yt- trium Y 173	Tan- talo- m Ta 183	Tung- sten W 184			Cobalt Co 113.1
11		Gold Au 197.2	Mer- cury Hg 200.5	Thal- ium Tl 204.1	Lead Pb 206.9	Bismuth Bi 208			Cadmium Cd 112.4
12			Ra- dium Ra 224		Tho- rium Th 232		Ura- nium U 238		

HIGHER HALOGEN OXIDES

R, R₂O, RO, R₂O₂, RO, R₂O₃, RO, R₂O₄, RO, R₂O₅, RO, R₂O₆, RO, R₂O₇, RO, R₂O₈, RO, R₂O₉, RO, R₂O₁₀, RO, R₂O₁₁, RO, R₂O₁₂, RO, R₂O₁₃, RO, R₂O₁₄, RO, R₂O₁₅, RO, R₂O₁₆, RO, R₂O₁₇, RO, R₂O₁₈, RO, R₂O₁₉, RO, R₂O₂₀, RO, R₂O₂₁, RO, R₂O₂₂, RO, R₂O₂₃, RO, R₂O₂₄, RO, R₂O₂₅, RO, R₂O₂₆, RO, R₂O₂₇, RO, R₂O₂₈, RO, R₂O₂₉, RO, R₂O₃₀, RO, R₂O₃₁, RO, R₂O₃₂, RO, R₂O₃₃, RO, R₂O₃₄, RO, R₂O₃₅, RO, R₂O₃₆, RO, R₂O₃₇, RO, R₂O₃₈, RO, R₂O₃₉, RO, R₂O₄₀, RO, R₂O₄₁, RO, R₂O₄₂, RO, R₂O₄₃, RO, R₂O₄₄, RO, R₂O₄₅, RO, R₂O₄₆, RO, R₂O₄₇, RO, R₂O₄₈, RO, R₂O₄₉, RO, R₂O₅₀, RO, R₂O₅₁, RO, R₂O₅₂, RO, R₂O₅₃, RO, R₂O₅₄, RO, R₂O₅₅, RO, R₂O₅₆, RO, R₂O₅₇, RO, R₂O₅₈, RO, R₂O₅₉, RO, R₂O₆₀, RO, R₂O₆₁, RO, R₂O₆₂, RO, R₂O₆₃, RO, R₂O₆₄, RO, R₂O₆₅, RO, R₂O₆₆, RO, R₂O₆₇, RO, R₂O₆₈, RO, R₂O₆₉, RO, R₂O₇₀, RO, R₂O₇₁, RO, R₂O₇₂, RO, R₂O₇₃, RO, R₂O₇₄, RO, R₂O₇₅, RO, R₂O₇₆, RO, R₂O₇₇, RO, R₂O₇₈, RO, R₂O₇₉, RO, R₂O₈₀, RO, R₂O₈₁, RO, R₂O₈₂, RO, R₂O₈₃, RO, R₂O₈₄, RO, R₂O₈₅, RO, R₂O₈₆, RO, R₂O₈₇, RO, R₂O₈₈, RO, R₂O₈₉, RO, R₂O₉₀, RO, R₂O₉₁, RO, R₂O₉₂, RO, R₂O₉₃, RO, R₂O₉₄, RO, R₂O₉₅, RO, R₂O₉₆, RO, R₂O₉₇, RO, R₂O₉₈, RO, R₂O₉₉, RO, R₂O₁₀₀, RO, R₂O₁₀₁, RO, R₂O₁₀₂, RO, R₂O₁₀₃, RO, R₂O₁₀₄, RO, R₂O₁₀₅, RO, R₂O₁₀₆, RO, R₂O₁₀₇, RO, R₂O₁₀₈, RO, R₂O₁₀₉, RO, R₂O₁₁₀, RO, R₂O₁₁₁, RO, R₂O₁₁₂, RO, R₂O₁₁₃, RO, R

nuclear particles that they contribute very little to the weight of an atom. Apparently, listing elements in order of their atomic weights did not always work. It was not until the beginning of the 20th century, with the knowledge gained about the structure of the atom, that the correct way of ordering the elements was discovered and the present periodic table was formulated.

THE NUCLEAR ATOM

The key event that led to the modern understanding of the atom was the discovery that atoms are made up of electrons, protons, and neutrons. Thus, despite its name, which derives from the Greek word for “indivisible,” the atom could indeed be divided into smaller components.

In April 1897, Joseph John Thompson, professor of physics and director of the Cavendish Laboratory at Cambridge University in England, announced the discovery of the electron. Thompson reported that this tiny particle had a negative electric charge and a mass of about one two-thousandth of that of the lightest atom. Thompson’s momentous discovery of a particle of matter smaller than the atom so startled his colleagues that many thought he had been “pulling their legs.” It was no joke, however, and in Thompson’s own words: “The production of electrons essentially involves the splitting up of the atom, [with] a part of the mass of the atom getting free and becoming detached from the original atom—that part being one or more electrons.”

Ernest Rutherford, the distinguished New Zealand physicist who had been a pupil of Thompson’s and who was a professor of physics at Cambridge University, supplied the next step toward the modern understanding of the atom in 1911. He discovered that the atom had a nucleus and that one of the important particles that occupied the nucleus was the positively charged proton.

As a probe for his study of the atom, Rutherford used the newly discovered phenomenon of radioactivity. Radioactive atoms, like uranium and radium, are unstable, and their nuclei spontaneously disintegrate. One of the products of this disintegration is a massive, positively charged particle called an alpha particle. At the time of its discovery, Rutherford did not know that the alpha particle was the nucleus of a helium atom, consisting of two protons and two neutrons. He therefore used the first letter of the Greek alphabet, *alpha*, to identify this particle and distinguish it from the other products given off by radioactive atoms.

Because the atom was too small to observe directly,

Rutherford's brilliant idea was to use alpha particles as projectiles, firing them at atoms and observing how they scattered. This was like firing bullets at a sealed box and deducing the contents of the box by seeing how the bullets bounced. His target atoms were at first gold atoms contained in very thin sheets of gold foil. Gold was used because it is possible to make gold foil that is very thin, often thinner than fine paper. Rutherford observed that although most of the alpha particles passed right through the target, many were deflected at very large angles. Some were even deflected backward, as if they had hit a stone wall. Rutherford was so astonished by this that he compared it to "firing a 15-inch shell at a piece of tissue paper and having it come back and hit the gunner." Because most of the alpha particles went right through the foil, he reasoned that the atom was mainly empty space but that it must contain a small, heavy, positively charged core that was capable of repelling and scattering the projectiles fired at it. Rutherford called this massive core the nucleus of the atom.

After Rutherford's discovery of the nucleus, it became obvious that the nucleus of hydrogen, the lightest of the atoms, must play a fundamental role in the structure of all atoms. In 1920, he proposed to call this particle the proton, the name by which it has been known ever since.

Finally, in 1932, the British physicist Sir James Chadwick, who also worked at the Cavendish Laboratory in Cambridge, discovered that yet another particle existed in the nucleus of atoms. This new particle was the neutron. It has a mass close to the mass of the proton, but it has no electric charge.

These fundamental discoveries, coupled with the work of a brilliant young English physicist named Henry Moseley, ultimately led to the reason for Mendeleyev's success with the periodic table. Moseley, just before World War I, had been investigating the X rays given off by various elements. X rays are a very penetrating form of radiation usually produced by accelerating electrons to high speeds and then abruptly stopping them by having them smash into a metal target. The collision causes the target to give off X rays. When different elements are used as targets, the X rays have different properties. Each element has its own set of characteristic X rays. They are almost like a fingerprint of the element. Moseley was able to relate the properties of the X rays to the number of protons contained in the element. He discovered that every element had a different number of protons in the nucleus. The number of protons came to be called the atomic number of the element, represented by the letter Z , and it was always a whole number.

Atoms are normally electrically neutral, with an equal number of electrons and protons. This means, for example, that carbon, with an atomic number of 6, has six protons in its nucleus and six electrons outside the nucleus.

ISOTOPES

Moseley's experiments demonstrated that what distinguishes one element from another is its atomic number, the number of protons in the nucleus of its atoms, not its atomic weight, which is a measure of the total number of protons and neutrons in the nucleus. The correct way of ordering the elements in the periodic table was, therefore, by their atomic number, and not, as Mendeleev had thought, by their atomic weight.

Although all the atoms of a given element have the same number of protons, they can have different numbers of neutrons. This explains, for example, why there are three different species of the element hydrogen. Ordinarily, a hydrogen atom has a lone proton in its nucleus and no neutrons. A heavier form of hydrogen, called deuterium, also has a single proton in the nucleus but contains a neutron as well. A still heavier form of hydrogen, known as tritium, has two neutrons in addition to the proton. These three species are called isotopes of the element hydrogen. Yet even though a deuterium atom, because of its extra neutron, weighs twice as much as an ordinary hydrogen atom, its chemical behavior is similar to that of hydrogen, indicating that the number of protons in the nucleus is what determines the behavior of each element.

Like hydrogen, the majority of the elements have isotopes. Some elements have only two isotopes, while others can have as many as eight or nine. It is a remarkable fact that the relative percentage, or abundance, of each of the various isotopes of any element is the same all over the Earth.

The existence of isotopes also explains why the atomic weight is an unreliable indicator of the position of an element in the periodic table. For any element, the atomic weight really measures the average weight of a mixture of its different isotopes. On this basis, it is possible for an element like argon, which has an atomic number of 18, to exist in a mixture of isotopes that have a greater average atomic weight than that of potassium, whose atomic number is 19. The atomic weight in the periodic table is often a number with a decimal fraction. The atomic weight of calcium, Ca, for example, is 40.08. The nucleus of the calcium atom cannot