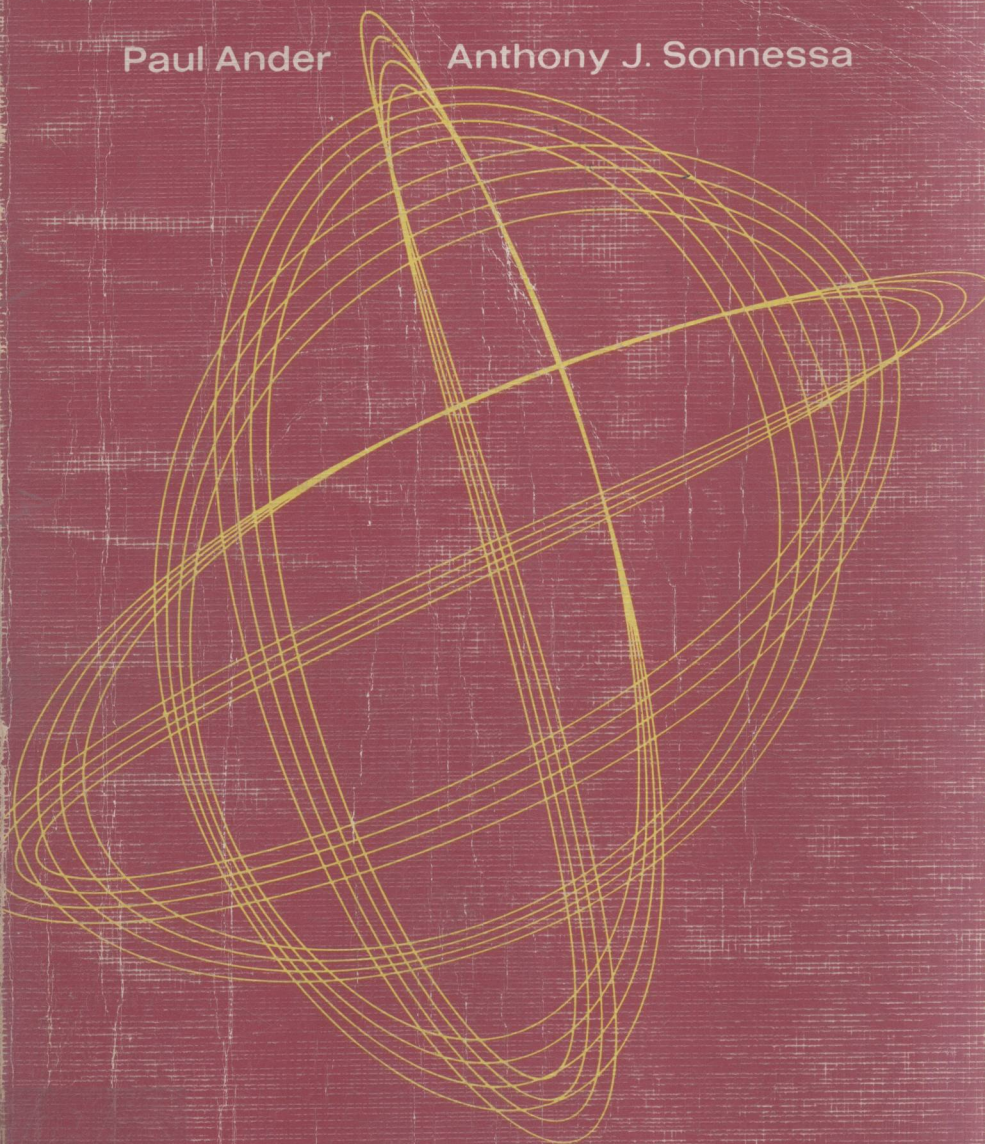


PRINCIPLES OF CHEMISTRY

AN INTRODUCTION TO THEORETICAL CONCEPTS

Paul Ander

Anthony J. Sonnessa



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PRINCIPLES of CHEMISTRY

An Introduction
to Theoretical Concepts

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Preface

During the past few years it has been generally recognized that the initial college course in chemistry should employ a more quantitative approach to the subject matter. There are two principal reasons for this point of view. First, research today requires more rigorous training in the quantitative aspects of science. Second, high school graduates currently seem to exhibit great enthusiasm for the modern ideas in chemistry; they have heard or read about many exciting topics in chemistry, such as bonding theory, nuclear chemistry, and the structure of nucleic acids and proteins. To maintain and extend this interest, the rudiments of some modern topics should be presented in the freshman course.

For these and other reasons, chemistry curricula are in the process of revision. Course content has been updated for analytical, inorganic, organic, and physical chemistry. In each of these courses, stress has been placed upon *principles* rather than upon descriptive aspects. One need only look at recently published textbooks in these areas to become aware of this trend. The movement toward presenting material of a more advanced nature in these courses creates two basic needs which must be satisfied in the introductory course. First, it is essential that the freshman course prepare the student for the advanced material presented in these upper-level courses by introducing him to the language used; and second, freshman course

should include those topics that are either omitted or treated superficially in the later courses to provide more time for the advanced material.

The nature of the work performed today in physics, biology, and engineering requires an understanding of chemical principles, and the freshman chemistry course taken by students in these areas should provide them with the necessary background. This book has been written to meet the needs of such students, as well as the chemistry major. Most of the material has been presented to a select group of science majors at Seton Hall University in a course that has been most stimulating to both the instructor (P. A.) and the students.

Wherever possible, the research approach has been employed: First, the experimental facts are presented, then a theory is advanced to explain the facts. For thorough understanding of the later chapters, the student must be familiar with certain basic physical and mathematical terms. These are therefore reviewed in Chapter 1 as an integral part of the text, rather than being relegated to an appendix. Chapter 2 deals with the experimental foundations of the quantum theory. The application of this theory to atomic structure is discussed, and the theory is correlated with the properties of atoms and molecules. In Chapter 3, the quantum theory is extended to the bonding of atoms in molecules. The student is introduced to the qualitative ideas of the bonding theories and to the results derived from these theories. Descriptive inorganic and organic chemistry has not been discussed systematically in this book because the authors feel that it is covered more adequately in the upper-level courses. However, the principles described in the book are applied to the chemistry of the elements whenever possible, and it is hoped that later courses will extend this application.

Chapter 4 extends the application of the principles to the formation of ionic compounds and to their properties in the solid state and in solution. The importance of understanding the arrangement of atoms and ions in the solid state cannot be denied. The elementary presentation of this material in the second part of the chapter should enable the student to better grasp the more advanced presentation given in physical chemistry courses.

Chapter 5 treats the properties of gases. The approach, once again, is to start with the experimental facts, then to explain the facts by using a theoretical model. The modifications in the model of an ideal gas necessary to explain the observed properties of real gases illustrate for the beginning student the need for reviewing theories in the light of new experimental findings.

The empirical and theoretical aspects of chemical equilibrium are treated separately in Sections I and II of Chapter 8. The student is first given a firm feeling for equilibrium by treating many types of equilibria empirically, in order to enable him to understand more readily the more abstract and difficult theoretical aspects of the subject. The breakdown is also for

the convenience of those instructors who desire to omit the theoretical aspects entirely because of time limitations.

There is great interest today in biological macromolecules, which are usually discussed in elementary biochemistry and biology courses. Accordingly, an introduction to the nature of macromolecules has been presented in Chapter 10. Also presented are the mechanisms for the formation of polymers which provide the student with excellent, simple examples of reaction mechanisms.

Although nuclear chemistry is usually included in physical chemistry texts, it is rarely presented in physical chemistry courses and the principles of this subject are generally not provided for in the undergraduate curriculum. Since the principles of nuclear chemistry can be presented using only algebra, it can be part of a freshman course.

The authors have tried to arrange the material in this book so that certain topics can be omitted if the teacher desires. This material, however, is there for the more interested student. Hopefully, the student will find the problems challenging. The authors have tried to include some problems which illustrate important principles not fully developed in the text, so that the student can deduce them for himself.

A minimum knowledge of calculus is required for Chapters 8 (Section II), 9, and 10 only. The other chapters require only knowledge of algebra.

The authors thank those who have aided them, both directly and indirectly, in this project. We are indebted to Professors Kenneth Wiberg of Yale University and Jack Halpern of The University of Chicago for their helpful comments on the manuscript. We are further indebted to Professor Eugene Kupchik of St. John's University for his perusal of the entire manuscript. We are grateful to Professor Charles Erickson of Rutgers, The State University for making sets of problems available to us for inclusion in the book. We gratefully acknowledge the support and encouragement given us during this project by several of our colleagues at Seton Hall University. Special thanks are due Mrs. Sally Kynor Johnson, whose excellent typing of the manuscript was of great aid, and Miss Lynn Ebbets, who assisted with the typing. We are particularly indebted to our past teachers and to our students, who have been, and remain, sources of stimulation.

We will be grateful for any constructive criticism of this book.

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Contents



1	Review of Mathematical and Physical Terms	1
1-1	SCIENCE	1
1-1.1	Observations and Measurements	2
1-1.2	Precision of Experimental Measurements	4
1-2	EQUATIONS AND GRAPHS	5
1-2.1	Linear Equations	6
1-2.2	Inverse First-power Relations	8
1-2.3	Quadratic Equations	9
1-2.4	Summation	12
1-2.5	Exponents and Logarithms	13
1-2.6	Exponential and Logarithmic Functions	17
1-3	DEFINITIONS FROM MECHANICS AND ELECTRICITY	19
1-3.1	Units of Force	21
1-3.2	Work and Energy	21
1-3.3	Conservation and Transformation of Energy	23
1-3.4	Motion in a Circle; Centripetal and Centrifugal Forces	24
1-3.5	Forces Acting Between Charged Bodies; Coulomb's Law	25
		xi

1-3.6 The Electric Field	27
1-3.7 The Electric Potential	28
1-3.8 Movement of Charge	29
1-3.9 Electromagnetism	30
1-3.10 Force Acting on a Current in a Magnetic Field	31

2 Atomic Structure 37

2-1 DISCHARGE OF ELECTRICITY THROUGH GASES	37
2-2 DETERMINATION OF e/m FOR CATHODE RAYS	40
2-3 DETERMINATION OF THE CHARGE ON AN ELECTRON	43
2-4 CONCEPTS OF THE ATOM AND THE MOLECULE	46
2-5 ISOTOPES AND THE MASS SPECTROGRAPH	47
2-6 ATOMIC AND MOLECULAR WEIGHTS	50
2-7 CHEMICAL EQUATIONS	53
2-8 EQUIVALENT WEIGHTS	55
2-9 ORIGIN OF THE QUANTUM THEORY	57
2-10 BOHR'S MODEL OF THE ATOM	65
2-11 QUANTUM NUMBERS	74
2-12 ELECTRONIC CONFIGURATION OF THE ELEMENTS	76
2-13 PERIODIC PROPERTIES OF THE ELEMENTS	79
2-14 THE WAVE CONCEPT OF THE ELECTRON	92

3 Covalent Bond 100

3-1 VALENCE	100
3-2 OXIDATION NUMBER	101
3-3 TYPES OF CHEMICAL BONDS	102
3-4 OCTET RULE	105
3-5 LEWIS FORMULAS	106
3-6 MULTIPLE ELECTRON-PAIR BONDS	106
3-7 ODD-ELECTRON COMPOUNDS	107
3-8 VALENCE BOND THEORY	107
3-8.1 Directional Character of Covalent Bonds; Hybrid Orbitals	109
3-8.2 Hybridization Involving d Orbitals; Complex Compounds	120
3-8.3 Hefnerich's Rules	124
3-8.4 Valence Shell Electron-Pair Repulsion Theory of Directed Valence	125
3-8.5 Resonance	131
3-8.6 Delocalized Orbitals	132
3-9 MOLECULAR ORBITAL THEORY	135
3-9.1 Bond Strength	141

3-10	DIPOLE MOMENTS	144
3-11	PARTIAL COVALENT BOND CHARACTER AND ELECTRONEGATIVITY	149
3-12	THE HYDROGEN BOND	155
3-13	ELECTRON-DEFICIENT MOLECULES	157
3-14	RARE GAS COMPOUNDS	159

4 Properties of Ionic Compounds 163

SECTION I FORMATION OF IONS

4-1	FORMATION OF AN ION	164
4-1.1	Ionization Potential and Electron Affinity	172
4-2	FORMATION OF AN IONIC BOND	176

SECTION II IONS IN SOLIDS

4-3	FORMATION OF AN IONIC SOLID	183
4-4	THE ARRANGEMENT OF IONS IN CRYSTALS	189
4-4.1	Lattice Planes	192
4-4.2	Lattice Planes in Cubic Crystals	195
4-5	DIFFRACTION OF ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION	199
4-5.1	Experimental Methods of X-Ray Diffraction	205
4-5.2	The Structure of Sodium Chloride from X-Ray Diffraction	209
4-5.3	Avogadro's Number from Lattice Dimensions	211
4-6	EFFECT OF ION SIZE ON CRYSTAL GEOMETRY	213
4-7	COMPLEX IONS	222
4-7.1	Factors Affecting the Formation of Complex Ions	224
4-7.2	Isomerism in Complex Ions	227
4-7.3	Crystal Field Theory	236

SECTION III IONS IN SOLUTION

4-8	SOLUBILITY OF IONIC SALTS	244
4-9	CONCENTRATION UNITS	248
4-10	THE ELECTROLYTIC CELL AND THE LAWS OF ELECTROLYSIS	254
4-11	CONDUCTIVITY OF ELECTROLYTIC SOLUTIONS	258
4-11.1	Dissociation of Strong and Weak Electrolytes	269
4-12	THEORIES OF ACIDS AND BASES	271
4-12.1	Titration of Acids and Bases	279
4-13	ELECTROMOTIVE FORCE	280
4-13.1	Calomel Electrode	291
4-13.2	Lead Storage Cell and Dry Cell	292

4-13.3 Balancing Oxidation-Reduction Reactions	293
4-13.4 Normality in Oxidation-Reduction Reactions	297

5

The Gaseous State 304

5-1 THE PHYSICAL STATES OF MATTER	304
5-2 MEASUREMENT OF GAS PRESSURE; THE BAROMETER AND MANOMETER	306
5-3 THE GAS LAWS	309
5-3.1 Boyle's Law	310
5-3.2 Charles's Law	312
5-3.3 The Equation of State	316
5-3.4 Dalton's Law of Partial Pressures	320
5-4 KINETIC THEORY OF GASES	322
5-4.1 Derivation of the Ideal Gas Equation from the Kinetic Theory	323
5-5 THE DISTRIBUTION OF MOLECULAR VELOCITIES	327
5-6 DEVIATIONS FROM IDEAL GAS BEHAVIOR	334
5-6.1 Causes for Deviation from Ideality; the van der Waals Equation	338
5-6.2 Determination of Molecular Weight of Real Gases	345
5-6.3 The Nature of Intermolecular Forces	347
5-7 THE MEAN FREE PATH OF GAS MOLECULES	350
5-8 THE HEAT CAPACITIES OF GASES AND THE EQUI- PARTITION-OF-ENERGY PRINCIPLE	354

6

The Liquid State 367

6-1 GENERAL COMPARISON OF SOLIDS, LIQUIDS, AND GASES	367
6-2 THE LIQUEFACTION OF GASES AND THE CRITICAL STATE	368
6-3 VAPOR PRESSURE	373
6-4 BOILING POINT	377
6-5 FREEZING POINT	378
6-6 SUBLIMATION	380
6-7 VISCOSITY OF LIQUIDS	381
6-8 SURFACE TENSION	385

7

Properties of Solutions 391

7-1	INTRODUCTION	391
7-2	VAPOR PRESSURE OF SOLUTIONS CONTAINING VOLATILE COMPONENTS	392
7-2.1	Ideal Solutions; Raoult's Law	392
7-2.2	Nonideal Solutions	394
7-2.3	Henry's Law	397
7-3	BOILING POINT OF SOLUTIONS CONTAINING VOLATILE COMPONENTS	403
7-3.1	Ideal Solutions	403
7-3.2	Nonideal Solutions	410
7-3.3	Immiscible Components	411
7-4	DILUTE SOLUTIONS CONTAINING NONVOLATILE SOLUTES	414
7-4.1	Vapor Pressure Lowering	415
7-4.2	Boiling Point Elevation	416
7-4.3	Freezing Point Lowering	419
7-4.4	Osmotic Pressure	422
7-4.5	Colligative Properties of Solutions of Electrolytes	426
7-4.6	The Nernst Distribution Law	429

8

Chemical Equilibrium

436

**SECTION I EMPIRICAL DEVELOPMENT
AND APPLICATIONS**

8-1	LAW OF CHEMICAL EQUILIBRIUM	436
8-2	EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANTS EXPRESSED IN DIFFERENT UNITS	441
8-3	VARIABLES AFFECTING THE EQUILIBRIUM CONCENTRATIONS	444
8-3.1	Affect of Temperature Change	444
8-3.2	Affect of Concentration Change	446
8-3.3	Affect of Pressure Change	446
8-4	AQUEOUS SOLUTIONS OF WEAK ACIDS AND BASES	448
8-5	THE IONIZATION OF WATER AND THE pH SCALE	451
8-6	BUFFERED SOLUTIONS	454
8-7	POLYFUNCTIONAL ACIDS AND BASES	457
8-8	HYDROLYSIS	460
8-8.1	Salts of a Weak Acid and a Strong Base	460
8-8.2	Salts of a Strong Acid and a Weak Base	462
8-8.3	Salts of a Weak Acid and a Weak Base	463
8-8.4	Metallic Ions	465
8-8.5	Salts of a Dibasic Acid	466

8-9	TITRATION OF ACIDS AND BASES	467
8-9.1	Strong Acids and Strong Bases	468
8-9.2	Weak Acids and Strong Bases	470
8-9.3	Indicators	472
8-10	COMPLEX ION EQUILIBRIA	475
8-11	EQUILIBRIUM BETWEEN IONS IN THE SOLID AND LIQUID PHASES	477
8-11.1	Solubility and Solubility Product	477
8-11.2	Effect of a Common Ion on the Solubility of Slightly Soluble Salts	479
8-11.3	Separation of Ions	480
8-11.4	Effect of Hydrolysis on the Solubility of Slightly Soluble Salts	482
8-12	EQUILIBRIUM IN SYSTEMS CONTAINING SOLID AND GASEOUS PHASES	483
	SECTION II GENERAL PRINCIPLES— THERMODYNAMICS	
8-13	THE NATURE OF THERMODYNAMICS	489
8-13.1	Definition of Thermodynamic Terms	491
8-13.2	Definition of Temperature	494
8-14	THE FIRST LAW OF THERMODYNAMICS	497
8-15	ENTHALPY	506
8-16	HEAT CAPACITY OF GASES	507
8-17	REVERSIBLE ADIABATIC PROCESSES	508
8-18	THERMOCHEMISTRY	512
8-18.1	Standard States	513
8-18.2	Enthalpy of Reactions	513
8-18.3	Hess's Law	515
8-18.4	Relationship Between Heats of Reaction at Constant Pressure and at Constant Volume	518
8-18.5	Heat of Solution	520
8-18.6	Enthalpy of Formation of Ions in Solution	521
8-18.7	Bond Energies	523
8-18.8	Dependence of Heat Capacity and of Enthalpy of Reaction on Temperature	527
8-19	THE SECOND LAW OF THERMODYNAMICS	531
8-19.1	Carnot Cycle	533
8-19.2	Molecular Interpretation of Entropy	541
8-19.3	Examples of Entropy Calculations	542
8-20	CRITERIA FOR EQUILIBRIUM	546
8-20.1	The Work Function and the Gibbs Free Energy	548

8-21	FREE ENERGY AND THE EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANT	552
8-22	EQUILIBRIUM BETWEEN PHASES; THE CLAPYRON EQUATION	555
8-23	THE THIRD LAW OF THERMODYNAMICS	558

9 The Rates of Chemical Reactions— Chemical Kinetics 565

9-1	INTRODUCTION	565
9-2	THE REACTION RATE	566
9-2.1	Reaction Order and the Rate Law	568
9-2.2	Experimental Methods	570
9-3	FIRST-ORDER REACTIONS	571
9-3.1	Example of a First-Order Reaction	575
9-4	SECOND-ORDER REACTIONS	576
9-4.1	Example of a Second-Order Reaction	579
9-5	THIRD-ORDER REACTIONS	580
9-6	ZERO-ORDER REACTIONS	582
9-7	THE FRACTIONAL-LIFE OF A REACTION	583
9-8	METHODS FOR DETERMINING THE REACTION ORDER	585
9-9	THE INFLUENCE OF TEMPERATURE ON REACTION RATES	588
9-10	THE ARRHENIUS THEORY OF REACTION RATES; THE ACTIVATED COMPLEX	590
9-11	THE COLLISION THEORY OF REACTION RATES	595
9-12	THE TRANSITION-STATE THEORY OF REACTION RATES	599
9-13	UNIMOLECULAR GASEOUS DECOMPOSITION REACTIONS; STEADY-STATE APPROXIMATION	603
9-14	REACTION MECHANISMS	606

10 Macromolecules 617

10-1	CLASSIFICATION OF MACROMOLECULES	618
10-2	MOLECULAR WEIGHT AVERAGES	626
10-3	REACTIVITY OF LARGE MOLECULES	628
10-4	CONDENSATION POLYMERIZATION	629
10-5	FREE RADICAL POLYMERIZATION	633
10-6	IONIC INITIATION OF VINYL POLYMERIZATIONS	638

10-7	CONFIGURATION OF MACROMOLECULES IN SOLUTION	641
10-8	INTRINSIC VISCOSITY	643
10-9	OSMOTIC PRESSURE OF POLYMER SOLUTIONS	644
10-10	LIGHT SCATTERING	645
10-11	ION EXCHANGE RESINS	646
10-12	SEVERAL NATURALLY OCCURRING POLYMERS	649

11	Properties of Metals and Alloys	659
11-1	INTRODUCTION	659
11-2	ARRANGEMENT OF ATOMS IN METALS	660
11-3	BONDING IN METALS	666
11-3.1	Valence Bond Theory of the Metallic Bond	666
11-3.2	Molecular Orbital Approach to the Band Theory of Solids	671
11-3.3	Free Electron Theory of Metals	677
11-4	INSULATORS AND SEMICONDUCTORS	686
11-5	ALLOYS	691
11-5.1	Classification of Alloys	691
11-6	PHASE RULE	698
11-6.1	One-Component Systems	701
11-6.2	Two-Component Systems	704

12	Nuclear Properties and Transformations	718
12-1	INTRODUCTION	718
12-2	BINDING ENERGY OF NUCLEI; THE ENERGY OF NUCLEAR REACTIONS	720
12-3	STABLE NUCLEI	724
12-4	FORCES BETWEEN NUCLEONS	726
12-5	UNSTABLE NUCLEI; RADIOACTIVE DECAY LAW	727
12-6	MODES OF DECAY OF UNSTABLE NUCLEI	731
12-6.1	Gamma-Ray Decay	732
12-6.2	Alpha-Ray Decay	733
12-6.3	Beta-Ray Decay	734
12-6.4	Positron Decay	736
12-6.5	K-Capture	737
12-7	INDUCED NUCLEAR TRANSFORMATIONS	738
12-8	FISSION AND FUSION OF NUCLEI	739

12-9 INTERACTION OF ALPHA, BETA, AND GAMMA RADIATION WITH MATTER	741
12-10 RADIATION CHEMISTRY	745
12-11 ISOTOPIC LABELING	747
12-12 GEOLOGICAL DATING	750
ANSWERS TO ODD NUMBERED PROBLEMS	755
VALUES OF IMPORTANT CONSTANTS	760
GREEK ALPHABET	761
TABLE OF LOGARITHMS	762
INDEX	765

1 REVIEW OF MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL TERMS

1-1 SCIENCE

Man has shown an interest in the natural world about him from the beginning of history. This interest is understandable since the forces in nature affect our lives in a very direct way: lightning, earthquakes, tides, rain and the lack of it, to name a few, all can have drastic effects on human life. Primitive man, through his ignorance of the causes of these natural phenomena, feared them and was completely at their mercy. Superstition and magic, both detrimental to the progress of civilization, were the result of these fears.

It was not until man began carefully and dispassionately to study the causes of natural phenomena that he was able to progress to a high degree of civilization. These studies led to the accumulation of a large body of information which was eventually embodied in quantitative laws and theories, which, in turn, led to further discoveries. From these scientific discoveries, the inventive mind of man developed the machines and industrial processes which are in direct proportion to the degree of civilization.

The process of systematizing experimental facts into theories or laws upon which predictions of future studies and events can be based can be considered the essence of science.

The vast body of knowledge arising from centuries of experimental studies led to broad divisions of science, each of them closely allied to the others. One classification of these divisions could be physical, biological, behavioral, and social sciences. They all attempt to apply the scientific method to the study of their fields; they differ only in that they focus attention on different aspects of science. However, a good scientist should, in the last analysis, be aware of the important discoveries arising from closely allied fields. This is especially true in the physical sciences, which include physics, chemistry, geology, astronomy, and meteorology. Inasmuch as physics is concerned with a fundamental study of matter and energy, all of the other physical sciences look to physics for basic relationships with which to aid in the interpretation of phenomena in their respective fields.

Chemistry is concerned with the changes that occur when atoms and molecules interact and undergo transformation from one form to another. These changes involve atoms and molecules in motion, and it is found that the laws of physics concerning forces between bodies in motion are essential to a quantitative study of atoms and molecules. The science of mathematics, in turn, is of importance to all sciences, since its application to the analysis of experimental results makes it possible to formulate these results in an exact, quantitative manner.

1-1.1 Observations and Measurements

The first step in the study of natural phenomena is the observation of the phenomena. These observables are our only contact with the physical world, and they are conveyed to us by our senses. Thus the experimental data we obtain consists of observables which are only as good as our method of detection. Man has learned through experience that his own senses are limited in many ways and has invented ingenious instruments to aid in his observations (telescope, microscope, photoelectric cell, and so on). However, no primary distinction is made between the observations obtained using instruments and those using the unaided senses, since the interposition of an instrument does not affect the reality of the observation.

The ultimate goal is to obtain quantitative relations between observables. Thus, it is known that when a body is released from the hand it will fall to the ground. What is of greater importance is to know the relationship between the distance it falls and the time of fall. Before this result can be obtained, the process of measurement must be applied to the observation. Measurement is the assignment, to the observable, of a number which tells the size or magnitude of this observable.

The choice of observables is purely arbitrary and is based on experience and expediency. The fundamental observables, from which all others can be derived, are length, mass, and time. Once the observables have been chosen, the units of measurement for the three must be assigned. In the physical sciences, the universally accepted system of units is the metric system. In