

TREATISE
ON INORGANIC
CHEMISTRY



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VOLUME I

INTRODUCTION AND MAIN GROUPS
OF THE PERIODIC TABLE

ABBREVIATED CONTENTS OF VOLUME II

Chap.

- 1. METALS AND INTERMETALLIC PHASES**
- 2. THIRD SUB-GROUP OF THE PERIODIC SYSTEM: SCANDIUM, YTTRIUM, LANTHANUM AND ACTINIUM**
- 3. FOURTH SUB-GROUP OF THE PERIODIC SYSTEM: TITANIUM, ZIRCONIUM, HAFNIUM AND THORIUM**
- 4. FIFTH SUB-GROUP OF THE PERIODIC SYSTEM: GROUP OF THE ACID EARTHS**
- 5. SIXTH SUB-GROUP OF THE PERIODIC SYSTEM: CHROMIUM, MOLYBDENUM, TUNGSTEN (WOLFRAM) AND URANIUM**
- 6. SEVENTH SUB-GROUP OF THE PERIODIC SYSTEM: MANGANESE GROUP**
- 7. EIGHTH SUB-GROUP OF THE PERIODIC SYSTEM: METALS OF THE IRON GROUP AND PLATINUM METALS**
- 8. FIRST SUB-GROUP OF THE PERIODIC SYSTEM: COPPER, SILVER AND GOLD**
- 9. SECOND SUB-GROUP OF THE PERIODIC SYSTEM: ZINC, CADMIUM AND MERCURY**
- 10. THE LANTHANIDE SERIES**
- 11. RADIOACTIVITY AND ISOTOPY**
- 12. ISOTOPY OF THE STABLE ELEMENTS**
- 13. ARTIFICIAL RADIOACTIVITY AND NUCLEAR CHEMISTRY**
- 14. THE TRANSURANIC ELEMENTS**
- 15. DISTRIBUTION OF THE ELEMENTS. GEOCHEMISTRY**
- 16. COLLOIDS AND SURFACE CHEMISTRY**
- 17. CATALYSIS AND REACTION KINETICS**
- 18. REACTIONS IN NON-AQUEOUS SOLUTIONS**
- 19. REACTIONS OF SOLID SUBSTANCES**

PREFACE

Since its first German edition in 1931, this book has been repeatedly revised and supplemented in accordance with the progress of chemistry; but its original plan has proved entirely satisfactory as a framework for new knowledge. In particular the systematic treatment of inorganic substances on the basis of the Periodic System has so far proved its worth as to have found its way into many other textbooks. Equally successful, when dealing with particular classes in each group, has been found the method of giving first a general introduction and then, before the detailed discussion of each substance, a survey of such topics of wider significance as may present themselves in its connection.

It is likely that future textbooks will give increasing prominence to the behaviour of groups of substances, as opposed to the discussion of individual ones; and in successive editions of this book, such chapters have become more numerous and fully developed. Each starts from some special property which for its further explanation needs the general theory, or else points the way to it. Thus is taken into account the line of thought of the chemist, progressing from particulars to generalities; and such knowledge then throws further light on subsequent problems.

The present translation is based essentially on the 7th and 8th German editions, but with further revision, improvement and supplementation before translation; notably in the sections on the chemical bonds, radioactivity, nuclear chemistry and the transuranic elements. I am very grateful to Professor J. S. Anderson, F.R.S., for the translation, carried out with great keenness and insight into the author's mind, and for suggesting many valuable improvements and additions to meet the needs of the wider circle of readers to whom the book is now addressed. And to the Editor, Professor Kleinberg, for his great interest my thanks are equally due.

Hamburg, October 1955

H. REMY

TRANSLATOR'S FOREWORD

During the past ten or fifteen years there has been a marked resurgence of interest in inorganic chemistry in Great Britain and the United States. The need for a detailed understanding of the chemical relationships between the elements in many pure and applied research problems has become apparent, and increased attention has been given to the chemistry of the elements in university courses. In consequence, many have felt the need for a comprehensive text in the English language setting out the subject in its present state of development. Such a work needs to cover the whole of the factual material and to bring it into proper relationship with the relevant thermodynamic, kinetic and structural data.

Amongst German texts, successive editions of Remy's *Lehrbuch der anorganischen Chemie* have gone far to meet this need, and it is to be hoped that this translation will prove valuable to a wide circle of readers. The translation has been based upon Professor Remy's latest revision of this standard work, and has been brought up to date as far as is practicable in a rapidly changing field of activity. With the author's permission, a few passages have been modified by the translator. Thermodynamic conventions have been changed where necessary, to follow American usage.

The author is indebted to Mr. J. D. M. McConnell B.Sc. for undertaking the task of proof correction, and for his care in the final preparation of the text.

Melbourne, September 1955

J. S. ANDERSON

SOME IMPORTANT PHYSICAL CONSTANTS

Absolute temperature of the melting point of ice, $T_{0^{\circ}\text{C}} = 273.16^{\circ}\text{K}$.

Atmosphere (normal pressure), 1 atm. = $1.013250 \cdot 10^6$ dyne cm^{-2} .

Avogadro's number, $N_A = 6.0238 \cdot 10^{23}$.

Boltzmann's constant, $k = 1.38026 \cdot 10^{16}$.

Elementary quantum of electricity, $e = 4.8022 \cdot 10^{-10}$ e.s.u. = $1.60186 \cdot 10^{-20}$ c.m.u. = $1.60186 \cdot 10^{-19}$ coulomb.

Specific charge on the electron = $\frac{e}{m} = 1.7591 \cdot 10^8$ coulomb g^{-1} .

Units of energy

1 erg = 10^{-7} joules (watt-seconds) = $2.777778 \cdot 10^{-14}$ kWh = $0.239006 \cdot 10^{-7}$ cal.

1 liter-atmosphere = $1.013278 \cdot 10^9$ erg = 101.3278 joules = $2.81466 \cdot 10^{-5}$ kWh = 24.2180 cal.

1 $\text{cm}^3\text{atm.} = \frac{1 \text{ l-atm.}}{1000.028} = 0.101325$ joules = $2.81458 \cdot 10^{-5}$ kWh = $2.42177 \cdot 10^{-2}$ cal.

1 cal (thermochemical gram-calorie) = 4.1840 joule = 1.16222 kWh = 0.041292 l-atm. = 41.293 $\text{cm}^3\text{atm.}$

1 cal_{15°} (15° calorie) = 4.1855 joules = 1.00036 cal.

1 ev (electron-volt) = $1.6020 \cdot 10^{-19}$ joules = $3.829 \cdot 10^{-20}$ cal.

1 ev per molecule is equivalent to 23.064 kcal per mol.

Energy of a light quantum (photon) of wave length λ cm, $\frac{hc}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \cdot 1.98574 \cdot 10^{-18}$ erg = $\frac{1}{\lambda} \cdot 1.23954 \cdot 10^{-4}$ ev.

This corresponds to $\frac{1}{\lambda} \cdot 11.9617$ joules per mol or $\frac{1}{\lambda} \cdot 2.85892$ cal per mol.

Faraday (electrical charge per gram equivalent), 1 \mathcal{F} = 96493 coulombs. This represents 26.804 ampere-hours.

Gas constant, $R = 0.082054$ l-atm. = 8.3144 joules = 1.9872 cal.

Velocity of light, $c = 2.9979 \cdot 10^{10}$ cm sec^{-1} .

Liter (volume of 1 kg of air free water at its temperature of maximum density), 1 l = 1000.028 cm^3 .

Molar volume of ideal gas (at 0°, 760 mm pressure) = 22.414 l = 22414.5 cm^3 .

Acceleration of gravity (normal value, at sea level and 45° latitude), $g_0 = 980.665$ cm sec^{-2} .

Quantum of action (Planck's constant), $h = 6.6238 \cdot 10^{-27}$ erg sec.

Smyth factor $\left(= \frac{\text{physical atomic weight}}{\text{chemical atomic weight}} \right) = 1.000279$.

INTRODUCTION

Chemistry is concerned with the occurrence, isolation and artificial preparation of the different sorts of matter; with the study of their composition, properties, and reactions; and with the systematics and the reasons for the phenomena observed.

From analysis of the various sorts of matter presented to us in nature, it has been concluded that the whole known material world is formed from a limited number of fundamental sorts of matter—the *chemical elements*. A chemical element was formerly defined as a substance which could not be resolved by chemical means. However, it has been found that it is not always possible to delimit the concept of an element with sufficient precision by this criterion of resolvability. A chemical element is now defined as a species of matter of which all the atoms bear *the same nuclear charge* (cf. p. 1). When it became possible, by processes directly affecting the nucleus of the atom, to alter the charge on the nucleus, and thereby to transform atoms of one element into atoms of another element (cf. Vol. II, Chap. 13), it became possible to prepare elements which do not occur in Nature. Including these artificially produced elements (the products of nuclear transformations), 101 different species of atoms, differing in their nuclear charge, are now known with certainty—i.e., 101 chemical elements are now known (cf. Table II, Appendix). Only 91 of these have been detected in Nature.

One of the chemical elements plays a special role in the living world—namely, *carbon*. All living organisms consist of carbon compounds, some of great complexity. The part of chemistry which is particularly concerned with the compounds of carbon is therefore called *organic chemistry*. As distinct from this field, the study of the composition, properties, reactions, etc., of the whole material world, in so far as it does not properly fall within the subject of organic chemistry, is called *inorganic chemistry*.

Even among the compounds of carbon, it is usual to class as *organic compounds* only those which, in composition, structure and properties are related to the carbon compounds of importance for living organisms. This includes, admittedly, the great majority of the compounds of carbon, but there is a considerable number of carbon compounds which are quite different from these in composition and structure, and therefore in properties—for example, the metallic carbides. Such carbon compounds are regarded as *inorganic compounds*. ‘Carbon compounds’ and ‘organic compounds’ are thus not identical concepts. Elementary carbon also falls within the scope of inorganic chemistry, while its simplest compounds (especially its oxides and the acids derived therefrom, and the simplest hydrocarbons) are closely related both to organic and inorganic compounds. It is therefore usual to discuss these compounds in both inorganic and organic chemistry.

The aim and content of *inorganic chemistry* are concerned with the extraction and utilization of the different elements, and with a knowledge of their chemical individuality (i.e., with the occurrence, preparation and properties of the elements and their compounds). It treats also of the general and systematic laws deduced from a comparison of the elements with one another, and of the causes which, in the ultimate analysis, underlie the observed properties and behavior.

There are other branches of chemistry which overlap both organic and inorganic chemistry. The particular field of *analytical chemistry* is the study and application of those properties and reactions of matter which make it possible to decompose a substance into its constituents. It is then possible to determine whether a substance is simple or compound in nature, and to determine the proportions of its constituents. *Synthetic chemistry* is sometimes set in contrast with this, as the science which builds up substances from their constituents. It is now more usual to take *preparative chemistry* as the antithesis of analytical chemistry. Preparative chemistry, of which synthetic chemistry is a part, comprises the preparation of substances, with the techniques involved. It includes not only the preparation of compounds from simple substances, but also the preparation of elements from compounds—a by no means unimportant aspect of preparative inorganic chemistry. The methods and apparatus which are used in industry for chemical operations, form part of *chemical technology*, which deals also with the applications and methods of testing the substances manufactured. *Industrial chemistry* merges into chemical technology, in so far as it treats of the organization and operation of the chemical industry; it is also concerned with the economic importance of raw materials and the products derived from them by chemical processes.

There are also other important special branches of chemistry. *Electrochemistry* deals with the use of the electric current in carrying out chemical reactions. *Photochemistry* deals with the effects of light on chemical change. *Colloid chemistry* is the study of the properties of matter in a state characterized by a certain range of particle size (cf. Vol. II). *Radiochemistry* deals with the chemistry of radioactive substances, and such of their properties as are significant for chemistry. *Nuclear chemistry* is the study of the transformations of atomic nuclei, and of the properties and behavior of artificially produced species of atoms. *Crystal chemistry* is the study of the relation between crystal structure and chemical constitution. *Geochemistry* is concerned with the composition of the earth, and the principles underlying the terrestrial distribution of the elements. *Metallography* employs special experimental methods which have found application in other parts of chemistry. Mention should also be made of the *history of chemistry* as an important and instructive branch of the science.

In so far as they are concerned with inorganic substances, these branches of chemistry form part of the wider subject of inorganic chemistry. They will be dealt with in such scope as seems appropriate in a book covering the whole field of inorganic chemistry.

Mathematics and physics are the sciences which are most valuable subsidiary subjects in the study of chemistry. Some knowledge of the fundamental ideas of *crystallography* is also indispensable, and for an understanding of certain parts of chemistry an acquaintance with mineralogy and geology, or with the biological sciences, is also profitable.

During the last century, the application of physical methods and of mathematical reasoning created a new branch of science, *physical chemistry*. The principal objects of this subject lie in the quantitative application of physical methods to substances and reactions, with a view to discovering general laws, and deducing

the behavior of matter from simple fundamental principles (e.g., from the laws of thermodynamics). It is not possible to draw a sharp line of distinction between the proper scope of physical chemistry, as compared with physics or with general chemistry, the more so as, during the last few decades, physical methods have been applied increasingly in all parts of chemistry. This is especially true of inorganic chemistry, so that it is no longer possible to present the subject from a modern and scientific standpoint without making extensive use of the results of physico-chemical investigations.

The field of study of inorganic chemistry is very wide. It comprises more than 100 elements, no two of which are exactly identical in behavior, and the enormous number of compounds which these elements form with one another. A survey of this wide field, and a grasp of those facts which are significant, can be made easier by organizing the multiplicity of facts in a suitable way. Such a synoptic viewpoint is provided by the Periodic System. This is based on the observed periodicity of chemical properties among the elements and—as will shortly be shown—it can be regarded as an inherently natural classification of the elements. Before considering the individual elements and their most important compounds, we shall therefore discuss the Periodic System. A consideration of the regularities which it reveals furnishes, at the same time, a brief survey of some of the most important properties of the elements and their compounds.

CONTENTS

PREFACE	III
TRANSLATOR'S FOREWORD	IV
SOME IMPORTANT PHYSICAL CONSTANTS	XIV
INTRODUCTION	XV

Chapter 1. The Periodic System

1. General	1
(a) The Natural Order of the Elements, 1 – (b) The Three Origins of the Periodic System, 5 – (c) Historical, 7	
2. Periodicity of Chemical Properties	9
(a) Valence, 9 – (b) Electrochemical Character, 11 – (c) Basic and Acidic Character, 13 – (d) Heats of Formation of the Oxides and Chlorides, 13 – (e) Tendency of Oxides to Combine with Water, 14	
3. Periodicity of Physical Properties	14
(a) Atomic Volumes, 14 – (b) Apparent Atomic and Ionic Radii, 15 – (c) Optical Spectra, 16 – (d) Ionization Potentials, 17 – (e) Other Physical Properties, 17	
4. Change of Properties in the Horizontal Series of the Periodic System	18
5. Periodicity of Atomic Structure	19
References	20

Chapter 2. Hydrogen

1. Introduction	21
(a) General, 21 – (b) Occurrence, 22 – (c) History, 22 – (d) Formation, Preparation and Uses, 23	
2. Most Important Methods of Preparation of Hydrogen	23
3. Electrolysis of Water; Electrochemical Potential Series	27
(a) Electrode Potential and Decomposition Voltage, 28 – (b) Overvoltage, 31 – (c) Decomposition Voltage, 32 – (d) Conditions under which Hydrogen is Evolved from Solutions, 33	
4. Thermal Decomposition of Water. Law of Mass Action	34
(a) Law of Mass Action, 34 – (b) Application of the Mass Action Law to the Thermal Decomposition of Water, 37	
5. Properties of Hydrogen	38
6. Special Forms of Hydrogen	42
(a) Atomic Hydrogen, 42 – (b) Heavy Hydrogen. Deuterium, 43 – (c) Tritium, 43 – (d) Ortho- and Para-Hydrogen, 43	
7. Hydrogen Compounds. Hydrides	44
8. Water	46
(a) Occurrence and Purification, 46 – (b) Properties, 47 – (c) Equilibrium Diagram of Water and the Phase Rule, 50 – (d) Electrolytic Dissociation of Water, 51 – (e) Thermal Dissociation of Water, 52	
9. Hydrogen Peroxide and Its Derivatives	53
(a) Hydrogen Peroxide, 53 – (b) Derivatives of Hydrogen Peroxide, 56	

10. Acids, Bases, and Salts	57
(a) Acids, 57 - (b) General Methods of Preparation of Acids, 58 - (c) Bases, 60 - (d) General Methods of Preparation of Bases, 60 - (e) Summary of the Preparation of Bases of Various Classes of Metals, 62 - (f) Salts, 62 - (g) Weak and Strong Electrolytes, 63 - (h) Dissociation in Stages, 70 - (i) Range of Applicability of Mass Action Law to Strong Electrolytes, 70	
11. Hydrates	71
(a) Solubility Diagram of Hydrates and the Phase Rule, 72 - (b) Vapor Pressure Curves. Thermal Degradation of Hydrates, 73 - (c) Hydration of Ions, 75	
12. The Hydrogen Ion (Hydronium Ion)	76
(a) Properties, 76 - (b) Methods of Determining Hydrogen Ion Concentrations, 76	
References	78
Chapter 3. The Hydrogen Spectrum and the Structure of the Hydrogen Atom	
1. The Hydrogen Spectrum	80
(a) Examination and Interpretation, 80 - (b) Series and Their Terms, 81 - (c) Line Spectra and Band Spectra, 82	
2. Bohr's Theory of the Structure of the Hydrogen Atom	82
(a) Rutherford's Theory of Atomic Structure, 82 - (b) The Bohr Theory, 84 - (c) Principal and Subsidiary Quantum Numbers, 88 - (d) Inadequacy of the Bohr Theory. Wave Mechanics and Quantum Mechanics, 89	
3. The Hydrogen Atom in Wave Mechanics	91
(a) Basic Ideas of Wave Mechanics, 91 - (b) Equation for Vibration, and the Wave Equation, 91 - (c) General Solution of the Vibration Equation, 94 - (d) Three Dimensional Vibration Equation, 94 - (e) Three Dimensional Wave Equation, 95 - (f) The Schrödinger Equation, 95 - (g) The Hydrogen Atom in Wave Mechanics, 95 - (h) Principal and Subsidiary Quantum Numbers in Wave Mechanics, 97 - (i) Significance of the ψ -Function, 98 - (j) Application of the Schrödinger Equation to Atoms with Several Electrons, 100	
References	100
Chapter 4. Group o of the Periodic System: the Inert Gases	
1. Introduction	101
(a) General, 101 - (b) History, 103 - (c) Occurrence, 104	
2. Isolation and Applications	105
3. Properties	107
4. The Spectra of Inert Gases	108
5. Ionization and Radiation	111
(a) Direct Measurement of Ionization Energy, 112 - (b) Significance of the Subsidiary Quantum Numbers in the Helium Atom, 116 - (c) The Neutral Helium Atom, 117	
6. Number of Electrons in the Inert Gas Shells	118
7. The Pauli Principle	120
8. Symbols for Atomic Structure	120
9. The Emanations	121
10. Isotopy of the Inert Gases	122
References	123

Chapter 5. Valence and Affinity

1. Valence	124
(a) Grouping of the Elements about the Inert Gases, 124 - (b) Kossel's Theory, 126 - (c) Applications of the Kossel Theory, 129 - (d) The Valence Theory of Lewis, 129 - (e) The Wave Mechanical Treatment of the Covalent Bond, 131 - (f) Bond Formation and Wave Functions, 133 - (g) Hybridization, 134 - (h) Transition between Electrovalence and Covalence, 136 - (i) The Semipolar (Coordinate Covalent) Bond. Electrovalence and Covalence, 138	
2. Chemical Affinity	139
(a) Maximum Work and Useful Work, 139 - (b) Energy of Formation and Affinity of Formation, 140 - (c) Temperature Variation of Free Energy, 141 - (d) Determination of Free Energy, 141 - (e) Importance of Free Energy Determinations, 148	
References	151

Chapter 6. First Main Group of the Periodic System: the Alkali Metals

1. Introduction	153
(a) General, 153 - (b) Occurrence, 160 - (c) History, 161	
2. Preparation	164
3. Properties	166
4. The Spectra of the Alkali Metals	168
5. Uses of the Alkali Metals and Their Compounds	172
6. Compounds of the Alkali Metals	172
(a) Hydrides, 173 - (b) Oxides, 175 - (c) Higher Oxides, 176 - (d) Sodium Peroxide, 177 - (e) Hydroxides, 178	
7. Electrolysis of Alkali Metal Chlorides	182
8. Alkali Metal Salts	184
(a) Chlorides, 186 - (b) Nitrates, 190 - (c) Carbonates, 192 - (d) Sulfates, 198 - (e) Sparingly Soluble Alkali Salts, 201	
9. Analytical	201
References	202

Chapter 7. Crystal Structure and X-rays

1. X-ray Diffraction	203
(a) Molecule and Crystal, 203 - (b) Diffraction of X-rays by Crystals, 203 - (c) Theory of X-ray Interference, 205 - (d) Methods of Producing X-ray Diffraction, 206 - (e) Application of X-ray Diffraction, 207	
2. X-ray Structure Analysis	208
(a) Crystal Structures, 208 - (b) Electrons as the Origin of the Scattering of X-rays, 213 - (c) Layer Lattices, 216 - (d) Structure of Sodium Nitrate, 217 - (e) Double Salts, 218 - (f) Isomorphism and the Formation of Mixed Crystals, 218 - (g) Isotypy, 219 - (h) Structure of the Gas Hydrates, 219 - (i) Volume Chemistry of Substances of Non-polar Structure, 221	
3. X-ray Spectroscopy	223
(a) Characteristic Radiation and 'Bremsstrahlung', 223 - (b) Moseley's Law, 224 - (c) X-ray Spectrum Analysis, 226 - (d) Characteristic Radiation and Atomic Structure, 227 - (e) Atomic Number and Nuclear Charge, 230 - (f) Atomic Number and Atomic Weight, 232	
References	232

Chapter 8. Second Main Group of the Periodic System: the Alkaline Earth Group

1. Introduction	234
(a) General, 234 - (b) Occurrence, 240 - (c) History, 243	
2. Preparation of the Metals	244
3. Properties	246
4. Crystal Structure	249
5. Flame Colorations and Spectra	250
6. Uses	253
7. Compounds of the Elements of the Second Main Group	255
(a) Hydrides, 255 - (b) Oxides and Hydroxides, 256 - (c) Peroxides, 263	
8. Salts	265
(a) Halides, 265 - (b) Nitrates, 272 - (c) Carbonates, 274 - (d) Sulfates, 278	
9. Analytical	283
References	284

Chapter 9. Constitution and Properties

1. General	285
2. Types of Bond	286
3. Resonance (Mesomerism)	290
4. Structure and Constitution	292
5. Constitution as a Basis for Classification	293
6. Determination of the Constitution of Inorganic Compounds	297
(a) Introduction, 297 - (b) Molecular Weights, 298 - (c) Ionic Weights, 299 - (d) Structure Determinations, 300 - (e) Determination of Bond Type, 300 - (f) Magnetochemistry, 302 - (g) Band Spectra and Molecular Structure, 307 - (h) Raman Spectra, 308 - (i) Dipole Moment and Polarization, 310	
7. The Color of Inorganic Compounds	312
References	313

Chapter 10. Third Main Group of the Periodic System: Boron-Aluminum Group

1. General	315
2. Boron (B)	323
(a) Occurrence, 323 - (b) History, 323 - (c) Preparation, 323 - (d) Properties, 324 - (e) Uses, 324	
3. Boron Compounds	325
(a) Boron Hydrides (Boranes), 326 - (b) Properties and Constitution of the Boron Hydrides, 327 - (c) The Borohydrides (Borates), 329 - (d) Borazole, 331 - (e) Borazane, Borazene, and Borazine, 332 - (f) Boroxoles and Borosulfates, 332 - (g) Boron Halides, 333 - (h) Boron Alkyls, 336 - (i) Oxygen Compounds of Boron, 336 - (j) Other Compounds of Boron, 342	
4. Analytical (Boron)	343
5. Aluminum (Al)	344
(a) Occurrence, 344 - (b) History, 344 - (c) Manufacture, 345 - (d) Properties, 347 - (e) Uses, 348	

CONTENTS

ix

6. Compounds of Aluminum	349
(a) Oxygen Compounds of Aluminum, 350 - (b) Halides of Aluminum, 356 - (c) Organoaluminum Compounds, 359 - (d) Aluminum Hydrides, 361 - (e) Aluminum Sulfate, 363 - (f) Other Aluminum Compounds, 364	
7. Analytical (Aluminum)	366
8. Gallium (Ga), Indium (In), Thallium (Tl)	367
(a) General, 367 - (b) Crystal Structure, 369	
9. Gallium (Ga)	369
(a) Occurrence, 369 - (b) History, 369 - (c) Preparation, 370 - (d) Properties, 370	
10. Compounds of Gallium	371
(a) Gallium(III) Compounds, 371 - (b) Gallium(II) and Gallium(I) Compounds, 373 - (c) Gallium Alkyls and Gallium Hydride, 374	
11. Indium (In)	374
(a) Occurrence and History, 374 - (b) Preparation, 375 - (c) Properties, 375	
12. Compounds of Indium	375
(a) Indium(III) Compounds, 376 - (b) Indium(II) and Indium(I) Compounds, 378 - (c) Indium Alkyl Compounds and Indium Hydride, 379	
13. Thallium (Tl)	380
(a) Occurrence, 380 - (b) History, 380 - (c) Preparation, 380 - (d) Properties, 380	
14. Compounds of Thallium	381
(a) Thallium(I) Compounds, 383 - (b) Thallium(III) Compounds, 385 - (c) Thallium Alkyl Compounds, 387 - (d) Thallium Hydrides, 388	
15. Analytical (Gallium, Indium, Thallium)	388
References	389

Chapter 11. Coordination Theory

1. General	390
(a) Radical, 390 - (b) Structural Group, 391 - (c) Complex, 391 - (d) Compounds of Higher Order, 392 - (e) Principal and Auxiliary Valence, 393 - (f) Coordinative Binding, 393 - (g) Historical, 394 - (h) Classification of Coordination Compounds, 395	
2. Detection and Structure of Complexes	395
(a) Detection of Complexes, 395 - (b) Structure of Complexes, 399	
3. Theoretical	401
(a) The Origin of Coordinative Valence, 401 - (b) Application of Kossel's Theory to the Fluoroborate Ion, 401 - (c) Application of the Theory of the Covalent Bond to the Fluoroborate Ion, 402 - (d) Relations between Ordinary and Coordinative Valences, 403	
4. Penetration Complexes	403
(a) 'Penetration' Complexes and 'Normal' Complexes, 403 - (b) Characterization of Penetration Complexes by Magnetic Measurements, 405	
5. Formation of Complexes of the Transition Elements	405
6. Nomenclature	406
References	408

Chapter 12. Fourth Main Group of the Periodic System: Carbon-Silicon Group

1. General	409
2. Carbon (C)	415
(a) Occurrence, 415 - (b) Properties and Uses of Carbon, 418	
3. Compounds of Carbon	426
(a) Hydrocarbons, 427 - (b) Halides, 438 - (c) Oxygen Compounds, 440 -	
(d) Sulfides, Selenides, Tellurides, 455 - (e) Cyanogen Compounds, 458 - (f)	
Thiocyanogen Compounds, 463 - (g) Carbides, 466	
4. Analytical (Carbon)	468
5. Silicon (Si)	469
(a) Occurrence, 469 - (b) History, 470 - (c) Preparation and Uses, 470 - (d)	
Properties, 472	
6. Compounds of Silicon	473
(a) Silicides, 474 - (b) Silicon Hydrides (Silanes), 474 - (c) Silicon Alkyl Com-	
pounds, 477 - (d) Silicones, 478 - (e) Silazanes, 479 - (f) Silicon Halides, 479	
- (g) Silicic Acid Esters, 485 - (h) Silicon Thiocyanate, 485 - (i) Sulfides of	
Silicon, 485 - (j) The Oxygen Compounds of Silicon, 486	
7. Crystal Structure of the Silicates	498
(a) Island Structures, 499 - (b) Chain and Ribbon Structures, 500 - (c)	
Sheet Structures (Layer Lattices), 501 - (d) Three Dimensional Networks,	
502 - (e) Relation between Structure and Properties of the Silicates, 503	
8. Silicate Products of Special Technical Importance	504
(a) Glasses and Glazes, 504 - (b) Clay, Kaolin and Ceramic Products, 507 -	
(c) Cement, 511 - (d) Permutits and Zeolites, 513 - (e) Ultramarine, 514	
9. Analytical (Silicon)	516
10. Germanium (Ge)	516
(a) Occurrence, 516 - (b) History, 517 - (c) Preparation, 517 - (d) Proper-	
ties, 518	
11. Compounds of Germanium	519
(a) Germanium(IV) Compounds, 519 - (b) Germanium(II) Compounds,	
522	
12. Analytical (Germanium)	524
13. Tin (Sn)	524
(a) Occurrence, 524 - (b) History, 525 - (c) Preparation, 525 - (d) Proper-	
ties, 525 - (e) Uses, 527	
14. Compounds of Tin	528
(a) Tin(IV) Compounds, 529 - (b) Tin(II) Compounds, 535	
15. Analytical (Tin)	538
16. Lead (Pb)	538
(a) Occurrence, 538 - (b) History, 539 - (c) Preparation, 539 - (d) Proper-	
ties, 541 - (e) Uses, 542	
17. Compounds of Lead	543
(a) Oxides, 544 - (b) Lead(II) Salts, 549 - (c) Lead(IV) Compounds, 555	
18. Analytical (Lead)	557
References	558

Chapter 13. Alloys

1. Introduction	561
2. The Texture of Metals and Their Alloys	562
(a) The Process of Crystallization, 562 - (b) Single Crystals, 562 - (c) Solidified Alloys, 563 - (d) Tin-Lead Alloys. Eutectic, 564	
3. Cooling Curves and Phase Diagrams	564
(a) General, 564 - (b) Magnesium-Lead Alloys. Formation of a Compound, 566 - (c) Mixed Crystal Formation, 568 - (d) Incomplete Miscibility, 569	
4. Influence of Mechanical Working on the Properties of Metals and Alloys	570
5. Intermetallic Compounds and Mixed Crystals	571
(a) General, 571 - (b) Behavior of the Metals of Main Groups I-IV Towards Each Other, 573	
References	578

Chapter 14. Fifth Main Group of the Periodic System: Nitrogen-Phosphorus Group

1. General	579
2. Nitrogen (N)	587
(a) Occurrence, 587 - (b) History, 587 - (c) Preparation, 587 - (d) Properties, 588 - (e) Uses, 589	
3. Compounds of Nitrogen	590
(a) Oxides, 590 - (b) Oxyacids of Nitrogen, 595 - (c) Hydrogen Compounds of Nitrogen, and Their Derivatives, 604 - (d) Halogen Compounds of Nitrogen, 619 - (e) Compounds of Nitrogen and Sulfur, 623	
4. Analytical (Nitrogen)	624
5. Phosphorus (P)	624
(a) Occurrence, 624 - (b) History, 625 - (c) Preparation, 625 - (d) Properties, 626 - (e) Uses, 629	
6. Compounds of Phosphorus	629
(a) Oxygen Compounds, 629 - (b) Phosphorus Halides, 643 - (c) Sulfides of Phosphorus, 646 - (d) Phosphorus Nitrogen Compounds, 646 - (e) Phosphorus Hydrides, 648 - (f) Phosphides, 649	
7. Analytical (Phosphorus)	650
8. Arsenic (As)	650
(a) Occurrence, 650 - (b) History, 651 - (c) Preparation, 651 - (d) Properties, 651 - (e) Applications, 652	
9. Compounds of Arsenic	652
(a) Oxides and Hydroxides, 652 - (b) Halides of Arsenic, 658 - (c) Sulfides and Thiosalts of Arsenic, 659 - (d) Arsenic Hydride and the Arsenides, 660	
10. Analytical (Arsenic)	662
11. Antimony (Sb)	662
(a) Occurrence, 662 - (b) History, 663 - (c) Preparation, 663 - (d) Properties, 663 - (e) Uses, 664	
12. Compounds of Antimony.	665
(a) Oxides and Hydroxides, 665 - (b) Halides of Antimony, 669 - (c) Antimony Salts, 671 - (d) Sulfides and Thiosalts of Antimony, 672 - (e) Antimony Hydride, 673 - (f) Metallic Compounds of Antimony, 674	
13. Analytical (Antimony)	674

14. Bismuth (Bi)	675
(a) Occurrence, 675 - (b) History, 675 - (c) Preparation, 675 - (d) Properties, 676 - (e) Uses, 676	
15. Compounds of Bismuth	677
(a) Oxides and Hydroxides, 677 - (b) Salts of Bismuth, 678 - (c) Bismuth Hydride, 681	
16. Analytical (Bismuth)	682
References	683

Chapter 15. Sixth Main Group of the Periodic System: Oxygen-Sulfur Group

1. General	684
2. Oxygen (O)	688
(a) Occurrence, 688 - (b) History, 689 - (c) Preparation, 689 - (d) Properties and Uses, 690	
3. Special Forms of Oxygen.	692
(a) Ozone, 692 - (b) Atomic Oxygen, 694 - (c) Activated Oxygen, 694	
4. Compounds of Oxygen	695
(a) Oxides and Peroxides, 695 - (b) Oxonium Compounds, 696 - (c) The Hydronium Ion, 697 - (d) Addition Compounds of Molecular Oxygen, 698	
5. Sulfur (S)	698
(a) Occurrence, 698 - (b) History, 699 - (c) Extraction, 699 - (d) Properties, 700 - (e) Suspended and Colloidal Sulfur, 703 - (f) Uses, 704	
6. Compounds of Sulfur	704
(a) Oxides and Oxyacids, 704 - (b) Halogen Compounds of Sulfur, 727 - (c) Hydrogen Sulfide and the Sulfides, 732	
7. Analytical (Sulfur)	740
8. Selenium (Se) and Tellurium (Te)	741
(a) Occurrence, 741 - (b) History, 741 - (c) Preparation, 741 - (d) Properties, 742 - (e) Crystal Structure, 744 - (f) Uses, 745	
9. Compounds of Selenium and Tellurium	746
(a) Oxides and Oxyacids, 746 - (b) Halogen Compounds, 750 - (c) Hydrogen Compounds, 751	
10. Analytical (Selenium and Tellurium)	752
11. Polonium (Po)	753
References	755

Chapter 16. Oxidation and Reduction

1. Oxidation	756
2. Reduction	758
3. Deoxygenation	758
4. Hydrogenation and Dehydrogenation	759
5. Oxidizing and Reducing Agents	760
6. Electrolytic Oxidation and Reduction	764
7. Oxidation Potentials.	764
8. Oxido-Reduction and Disproportionation	766
9. Autoxidation	767