

came somewhat neglected following the accurate determination of atomic weights.

But as argued in a recent book, once one accepts that the more correct ordering principle for the elements is atomic number the concept of triads makes a significant return, at least in about half of all conceivable triads in the modern table (6). Using the atomic numbers of chlorine, bromine, and iodine for example the middle element is not just the approximate mean of the atomic numbers of the flanking elements but the exact mean.

If one looks for an atomic number triads among the elements helium, beryllium, and magnesium within the left-step table one encounters a serious discrepancy. Moreover, the conventional placing of helium among the noble gases gives a perfect atomic number triad. So why would one want to lose an atomic number triad by adopting the left-step table? This we suggest now is a serious objection against the repositioning of helium in the way that is carried out in the left-step table. As will be argued, the existence of atomic number triads represents a fundamental aspect of periodic classification because it depends just on atomic number which, as mentioned above, is the one essential criterion for the characterization of elements as basic substances.

A Brief History of Triads

Perhaps the earliest hints of any numerical regularity among the atomic weights of the elements was discovered as early as 1817 by Döbereiner. He was the first to notice the existence of various groups of three elements, subsequently called triads, that showed chemical similarities. In addition, such elements displayed an important numerical relationship, namely that the equivalent weight, or atomic weight, of the middle element is the approximate mean of the values of the two flanking elements in the triad.

In 1817 Döbereiner found that if certain elements were combined with oxygen in binary compounds, a numerical relationship could be discerned among the equivalent weights of these compounds. Thus when oxides of calcium, strontium, and barium were considered, the equivalent weight of strontium oxide was approximately the mean of those of calcium oxide and barium oxide. The three elements in question, strontium, calcium, and barium were said to form a triad.

$$\text{SrO} = \frac{\text{CaO} + \text{BaO}}{2} = \frac{59 + 155}{2} = 107$$

Though Döbereiner was working with weights that had been deduced with the relatively crude experimental methods of the time, his values compare rather well with current values for the triad:

$$104.71 = \frac{56.08 + 153.33}{2}$$

Döbereiner's observation had little impact on the chemical world at first but later became very influential. He is now regarded as one of the earliest pioneers of the development of the periodic system. Very little happened regarding triads until twelve years later, in 1829, when Döbereiner added three new triads. The first involved the element bromine, which had been isolated in the previous year. He compared bromine to chlorine and iodine, using the atomic weights obtained earlier by Berzelius:

$$\text{Br} = \frac{\text{Cl} + \text{I}}{2} = \frac{35.470 + 126.470}{2} = 80.970$$

The mean value for this triad is reasonably close to Berzelius' value for bromine of 78.383. Döbereiner also obtained a triad involving some alkali metals, sodium, lithium, and potassium, which were known to share many chemical properties:

$$\text{Na} = \frac{\text{Li} + \text{K}}{2} = \frac{15.25 + 78.39}{2} = 46.82$$

In addition he produced a fourth triad:

$$\text{Se} = \frac{\text{S} + \text{Te}}{2} = \frac{39.239 + 129.243}{2} = 80.741^1$$

Once again, the mean of the flanking elements, sulfur (S) and tellurium (Te), compares well with Berzelius' value of 79.5 for selenium (Se).

Döbereiner also required that, in order to be meaningful, his triads should reveal chemical relationships among the elements as well as numerical relationships. On the other hand he refused to group fluorine, a halogen, together with chlorine, bromine, and iodine, as he might have done on chemical grounds, because he failed to find a triadic relationship between the atomic weights of fluorine and those of these other halogens. He was also reluctant to take the occurrence of triads among dissimilar elements, such as nitrogen, carbon, and oxygen, as being in any sense significant even though they did display a triadic numerical relationship.

Suffice it to say that Döbereiner's research established the notion of triads as a powerful concept, which several other chemists were soon to take up with much effect. Indeed, Döbereiner's triads, which would appear on the periodic table grouped in vertical columns, represented the first step in fitting the elements into a system that would account for their chemical properties and would reveal their physical relationships.

Later Work on Triads

It is probably fair to say that much time was wasted by other researchers in trying to uncover triads where they simply did not exist. Some pioneers, including Mendeleev, made it a point to turn their backs on numerical approaches such as Prout's hypothesis and the search for triads. This attitude certainly seems to have paid dividends for Mendeleev in that he made progress where others had failed to do so.

The problem with triads, as well as the other important numerical hypothesis due to Prout, is easy to discern in retrospect. It is simply that atomic weight, which both concepts draw upon, is not the most fundamental quantity that can be used to systematize the elements. The atomic weight of any element depends on the particular geological origin of the sample examined. In addition, the atomic weight of any particular element is an average of several isotopes of the particular element.

Mendeleev's Path to Mature Periodic System

Many historians have examined in detail the path that Mendeleev took in arriving at his early periodic tables. It seems to be agreed that the first key document, which still exists, consists of a letter sent to Mendeleev. On the back of the letter Mendeleev

H																	He														
Li	Be															B	C	N	O	F	Ne										
Na	Mg															Al	Si	P	S	Cl	Ar										
K	Ca															Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
Rb	Sr															Y	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I	Xe
Cs	Ba	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu	Hf	Ta	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	Tl	Pb	Bi	Po	At	Rn
Fr	Ra	Ac	Th	Pa	U	Np	Pu	Am	Cm	Bk	Cf	Es	Fm	Md	No	Lr	Rf	Db	Sg	Bh	Hs	Mt	Ds	Rg							

Figure 2. Long-form periodic table.

sketched some rudimentary ideas on how best to arrange the elements into a coherent system.

This letter, which is held in the Mendeleev archives, is dated February 17, 1869, which is also the date of the famous first table that Mendeleev produced. The letter is from one Alexei Ivanovich Khodnev, secretary of the Free Economic Society in St. Petersburg, inviting Mendeleev to the visit to a cheese factory where he was due to conduct an inspection. On the back of the letter Mendeleev has made a comparison of the following atomic weights:

23	39	85	133
7 or 14	24	65	112
16 or 9	15	20	21

Historians differ regarding the precise assignment of elements to these values. In particular they disagree with respect to the identity of the element depicted as 7 or 14. According to some it is twice the atomic weight of lithium, while others maintain that it is beryllium using an older value for its atomic weight.

Na	K	Rb	Cs
2 Li?	Mg	Zn	Cd

Kedrov, and after him Dimitriev, conclude that the first entry in the second row should be twice the weight of lithium (7). In any case it is clear that Mendeleev is groping his way towards a horizontal relationship by examining differences in atomic weights and is starting to see hints of almost constant differences in some cases such as Rb/Zn and Cs/Cd. We suggest that his endeavor was in the same spirit as the search for triads. The only difference being that in the case of a triad one seeks two differences between the weights of three elements rather than just two as Mendeleev was doing in these early attempts.

A similar activity is found in Mendeleev's first attempt at a periodic system as presented in a hand-written table. If one examines the calculations that he is carrying out one finds again an attempt to compute differences between the atomic weights of elements in the columns of his table. For example Mendeleev writes the number 27 in smaller writing below the symbols for potassium ($Zn - K = 65 - 39 = 27$) and again below rubidium ($Cd - Rb = 112 - 85 = 27$).

It appears that, in the space of a single day, February 17th 1869, Mendeleev not only began to make horizontal comparisons but also produced the first version of a full periodic table that included most of the known elements. Moreover, Mendeleev's overall approach consists of looking at atomic weight differences in conformity with the general principle of triads even though he was not specifically identifying triads in the manner of Döbereiner.

Mendeleev's Use of Triad-Like Concepts To Make Predictions

Mendeleev went to some length to distance himself from the use of numerical relationships such as Prout's relationship and the notion of triads. However, it is quite clear that many of his predictions of the properties of new elements involve the notion of triads. The triads he considered were sometimes vertical, or horizontal, or at times the combination of both vertical and horizontal triads.

In the various editions of his textbook, and in the publications dealing specifically with his predictions, Mendeleev repeatedly illustrates his method using the known element selenium as an example. The atomic weight of selenium was known at the time and so could be used to test the reliability of his method. Given the position of selenium and the atomic weights of its four flanking elements,

	S (32)	
As (75)	Se ?	Br (80)
	Te (127.5)	

the flanking atomic weights can be averaged to yield approximately the correct value for the atomic weight of selenium:

$$\frac{32 + 75 + 80 + 127.5}{4} = 79$$

Atomic Number Triads

The atomic weight of any particular elements is not a fundamental property in that it depends upon terrestrial contingencies concerning isotopic abundances. Atomic number, on the other hand, is fundamental and more correctly characterizes the distinction between one element and the next. The adoption of atomic number has an intriguing consequence on triads that has seldom been discussed. This is the fact that approximately 50% of all vertical triads based on atomic number, rather than atomic weight, is mathematically exact. This remarkable result is easy to appreciate by referring to the long-form of the modern periodic table (Figure 2).

By considering elements from rows 1, 2, and 3, such as helium, neon, and argon one obtains a perfect atomic number triad,

He	2
Ne	$10 = (2 + 18) / 2$
Ar	18

or from rows 3, 4, and 5, for example,

The new proposed version does not alleviate the concern that some authors voice in wanting to maintain the metals on the left and non-metals on the right of the table. We suggest that such a desideratum does not necessarily reflect the most fundamental aspects of the elements as basic substances whereas the left-step and its new variant do. The latter two forms aim to represent elements as basic substances as well as establishing a closer connection with fundamental aspects of electron-shell filling, and consequently with quantum mechanics, than the medium-long form table does. Finally, we have recently published another new table that differs only in shape from the one proposed here (10).

Note

1. This seems to be a printer's error since the mean should be 84.241.

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