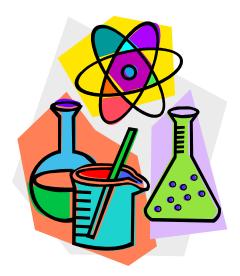
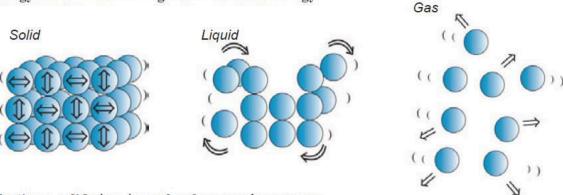
J.C. Chemistry



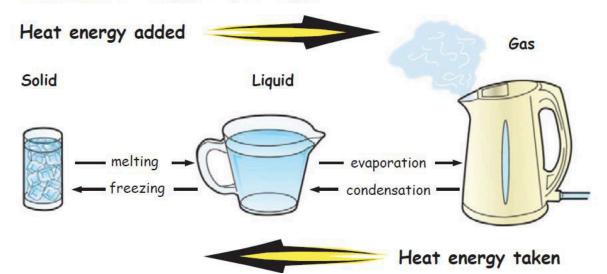
States of Matter

- Matter is anything that takes up space and has mass.
- Solids have a definite mass, definite shape and definite volume.
 They do not flow and can't be squeezed into a smaller space.
- Liquids have a definite mass, definite volume but no definite shape.
 They can flow but can't be squeezed into a smaller space.
- Gases have a definite mass, but no definite volume or shape.
 They move into the available space and can be squeezed into a smaller space.

Molecules of a solid have the least energy, molecules of a liquid have more energy and molecules of a gas have the most energy.

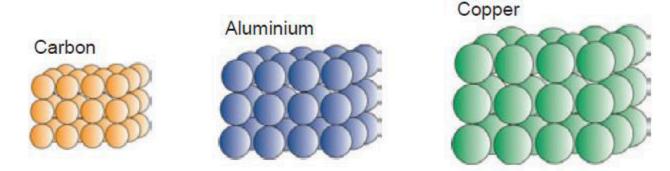


- Heating a solid gives its molecules enough energy to behave like a liquid (it melts).
- Heating a liquid gives its molecules enough energy to behave like a gas (it evaporates).
- The melting point of a solid is the temperature at which both the solid and liquid states of a substance exist together.
- Evaporation is the changing of a liquid to a gas or vapour.
- The boiling point of a liquid is the temperature at which evaporation begins to occur throughout the liquid.
- Condensation is the changing of a gas to a liquid.



Elements, Compounds, Mixtures

- An element is a substance which cannot be broken down into simpler substances by chemical means.
- Examples of elements that are metals are: iron (Fe), copper (Cu), zinc (Zn), aluminium (Al), silver (Ag), gold (Au), and sodium (Na).



- Examples of elements that are non-metals are: carbon (C), sulfur (S), chlorine (Cl), oxygen (O), hydrogen (H), and nitrogen (N)
- An atom is the smallest part of an element that still has the properties of that element.

- A compound is formed when two or more elements combine chemically.
- **Examples of compounds** are: water (H₂O), carbon dioxide (CO₂), sodium chloride (NaCl), magnesium oxide (MgO), and iron sulfide (FeS).
- A compound is a completely new substance with its own properties.
- A molecule is the smallest part of an element or compound that can exist on its own.
- Examples of molecules are: H₂O, CO₂, HCl, MgO, FeS, O₂, H₂, and Cl₂.



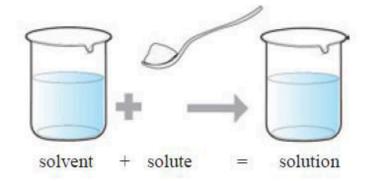
- A mixture consists of two or more different substances mingled together but not chemically combined.
- Examples of mixtures are: air (nitrogen + oxygen + carbon dioxide),
 seawater (water + salt), ink (water + various dyes), steel (iron + carbon).

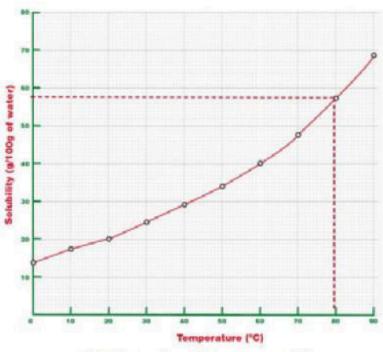
• **Differences** between mixtures and compounds:

MIXTURE		COMPOUND	
1.	Consists of two or more substances.	Consists of a single substance	
2.	The proportion of each substance in the mixture does not matter	The elements in a compound are always in a fixed proportion.	
3.	The properties are the same as those of the substances used.	The properties are very different to those of the elements used.	
4.	Usually easy to separate.	Very difficult to separate.	

Solutions

- A solution is a mixture of a solute and a solvent.
- A solute is the substance which is dissolved.
- A solvent is the liquid in which the solute dissolves.
- When blue copper sulfate (solute) is dissolved in water (solvent) a solution of copper sulfate in water is formed.
- The hotter a solution of copper sulfate is, the more solute it will dissolve.
- A saturated solution is one which contains as much dissolved solute as possible, at a given temperature.
- A solubility curve shows how the solubility of a substance changes with increasing temperature.
- A concentrated solution has a large amount of solute in a small amount of solvent.





solubility curve for copper sulfate

- A dilute solution can be made more concentrated by either adding more solute, or by **evaporating** off some of the solvent.
- The forming of crystals when a hot saturated solution is cooled. Crystallisation:
- When a **hot saturated solution** of copper sulfate is allowed to **cool**, blue crystals of copper sulfate are formed.

EXPERIMENTS:

24.1 To Investigate the Solubility of Different Substances in Water A spatula full of each substance is added to water in a test tube.

The test tube is **stoppered** and **shaken** to see which dissolve.

24.2 To Investigate the Solubility of Copper Sulfate at Different Temperatures

The mass of copper sulfate that will dissolve in 100 g of water at 20°C is found using an electronic balance.

The water is **heated** to 30°C and **more copper sulfate** is added to find the mass that can dissolve at this temperature.

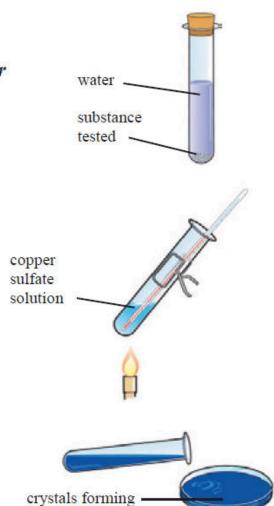
This is repeated for temperatures of 40°C, 50°C and 60°C.

The results are **plotted** on graph paper to give a **solubility curve** for copper sulfate (see above).

24.3 Growing Copper Sulfate Crystals

A hot, concentrated solution of copper sulfate is poured onto a warm evaporating dish. The dish is left for 3 hours.

Crystals of copper sulfate form as the solution cools.

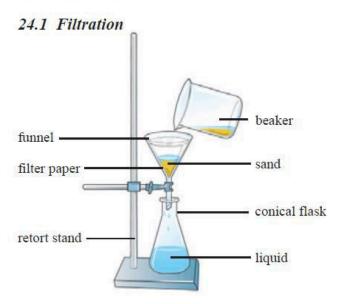




Separating Mixtures

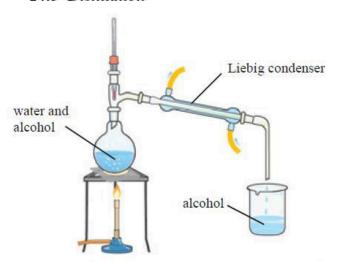
- **Filtration** is a method used to separate small **insoluble solids** from a **liquid** by using **filter paper** to trap the solids.
- Evaporation is a method used to separate soluble solids from a solution by evaporating off the liquid to leave the solids.
- Crystallisation occurs when crystals appear from a solution which has been evaporated.
- Crystallisation occurs when crystals appear from a hot, concentrated solution which has cooled.
- **Distillation** is used to separate **two liquids** with different **boiling points** such as alcohol and water. It is also used to separate a **soluble solid** from a **liquid** (e.g. seawater) to give a pure sample of each.
- Chromatography is a method used to separate a mixture of dissolved substances in a solution.

EXPERIMENTS:



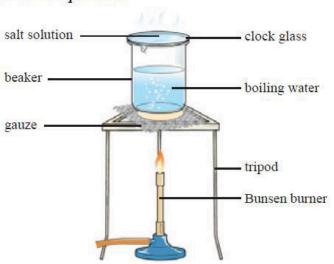
• The sand is trapped in the filter paper, the water goes through.

24.3 Distillation



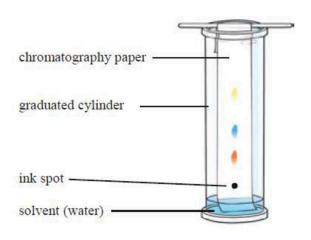
• The alcohol (boiling point 78°C) evaporates first, condenses in the Liebig condenser and is collected.

24.2 Evaporation



• The water evaporates, the salt remains on the clock glass and forms crystals.

24.4 Chromatography



• The more soluble dyes stay in solution longer and get deposited further up the chromatography paper.

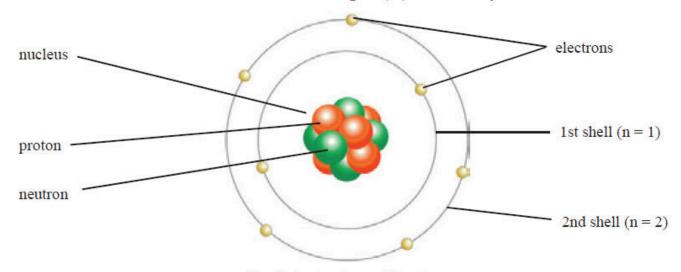
The Atom - A Closer Look

• The atom is made up of sub-atomic particles called protons, neutrons and electrons.

	MASS	CHARGE	LOCATION
PROTON	1 amu	+1	In the nucleus
NEUTRON	1 amu	0	In the nucleus
ELECTRON	1/1840 amu	-1	Orbiting the nucleus

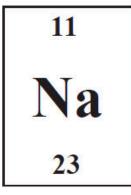
- The atomic number of an atom is the number of protons it has in its nucleus.
- Atoms are arranged in the Periodic Table according to the number of protons they have.
- Atoms are electrically neutral because they have the same number of electrons as protons.
- Electrons are found in shells around the nucleus.
 The first shell can only hold 2 electrons, all the others can hold a maximum of 8.
- Shells are filled from the inside (1st shell) outwards.

- The atomic number of sodium (Na) is 11, it has 11 protons and therefore 11 electrons. Its electronic configuration is 2, 8, 1 (i.e. three shells of electrons).
- The electronic configuration of calcium (atomic number = 20) is 2, 8, 8, 1.
- The atom shown below is an atom of nitrogen (N). How do you know?



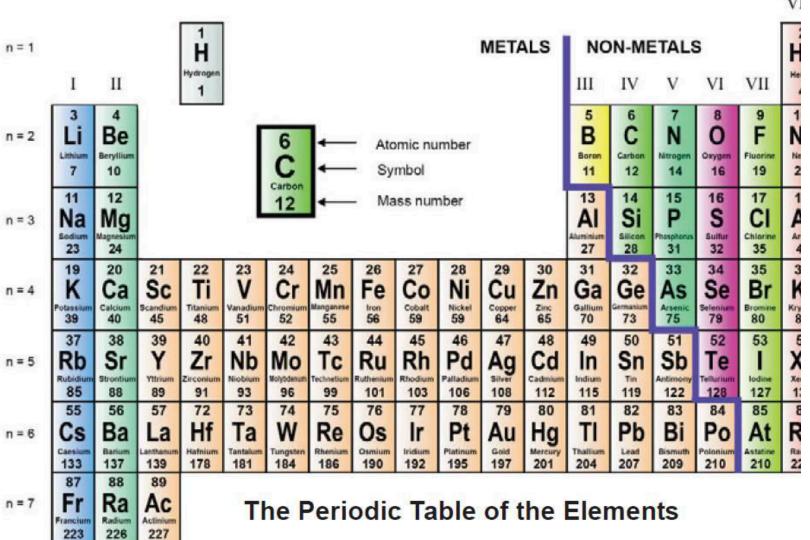
The Bohr structure of the atom

- The mass number of an atom is the number of protons plus the number of neutrons in its nucleus.
- The mass number is the larger number, written below the element symbol in the Periodic Table.
- An atom of sodium has 11 protons (atomic number 11) and 11 electrons, it has 23 protons plus neutrons (mass number 23), so it has 12 neutrons in its nucleus (23 11 = 12).
- Isotopes are atoms of the same element, which have different numbers of neutrons.
- Isotopes of an element therefore have the same atomic number, but different mass numbers.



The Periodic Table

- The atomic number of an atom is the number of protons in the nucleus of that atom.
- The Periodic Table arranges the elements in order of increasing atomic number.

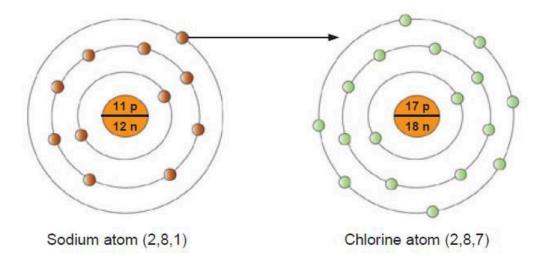


- A Group is a vertical column of elements that all have the same number of electrons in their outside shells.
- All the elements in a particular Group behave in a similar manner chemically.
- Group I is the Alkali Metals, and includes the elements lithium, sodium and potassium.
- Group II is the Alkaline Earth Metals, and includes the elements magnesium and calcium.
- Group VII is the Halogens, and includes the elements helium, neon and argon.
- Group VIII is the Noble Gases.
- A **Period** is a **horizontal row** of elements in the Periodic Table.
- Periods are numbered n=1; n=2; n=3; etc.
- All the elements in a Period have the same number of electron shells.
- The Periodic Table can be divided into metals (on the left and middle), and non-metals (on the right).
- Common **metal elements** include: Cu, Zn, Al, Pb, Fe, Ag and Au.
- Common non-metal elements include: C, O, S, H and N.

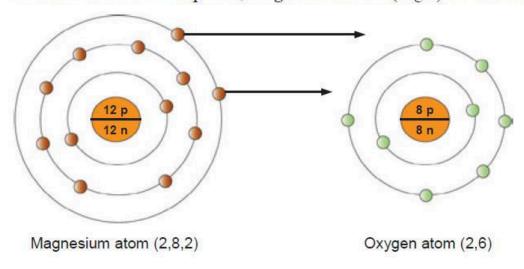
Chemical Bonding I - Ionic

- Atoms combine with each other to form compounds.
- A chemical bond holds atoms together in a compound.
- The noble gases (Group VIII elements) have the most stable electron setup.
 They have an outer shell of 8 electrons (i.e. they all have a full outer shell).
- The Octet Rule states that atoms bond together so that each atom ends up with an electron arrangement with 8 electrons in its outermost shell.
- An ionic bond is formed when electrons are given or taken by atoms.
- An ion is a positively or negatively charged atom or group of atoms.
- When an atom loses electrons, it becomes a positively charged ion.
- When an atom gains electrons, it becomes a negatively charged ion.

• A sodium atom (2, 8, 1) gives its outer electron to a chlorine atom (2, 8, 7) to form NaCl, sodium chloride, made up of sodium ions (Na⁺) and chloride ions (Cl⁻). An ionic bond is formed and both ions now have a full outer shell of 8 electrons.



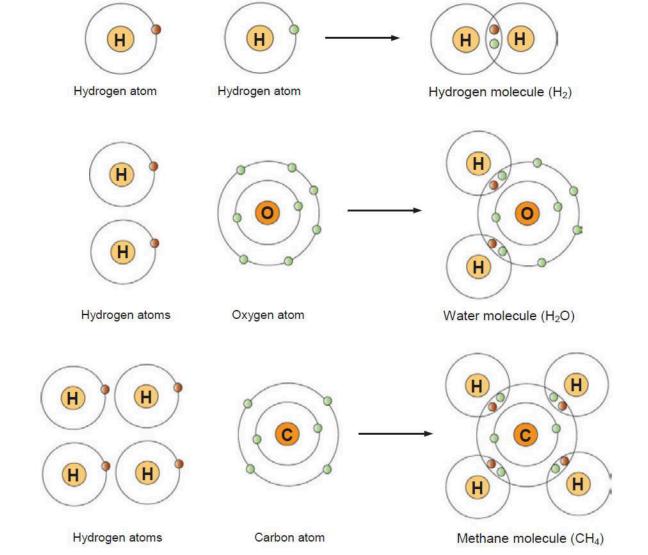
• In the same way, a **magnesium atom** forms an **ionic bond** with an **oxygen atom** by **giving** it its two outer electrons. The ionic compound, **magnesium oxide** (MgO) is formed.



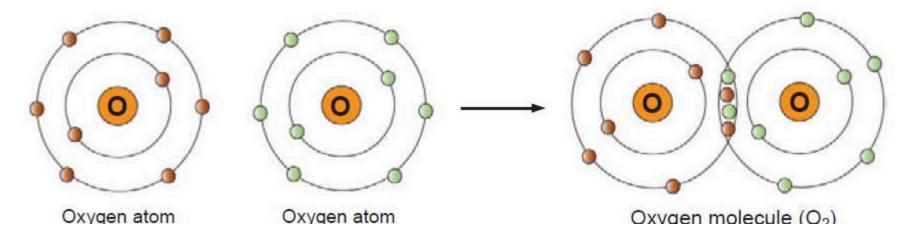
An ionic bond is formed by the force of attraction between a positive and a negative ion.

Chemical Bonding II - Covalent

- A covalent bond is formed when atoms combine by sharing electrons so that each atom has a stable outer shell of electrons.
- A single covalent bond is formed when atoms share one pair of electrons.
- Single covalent bonds occur in the following molecules:

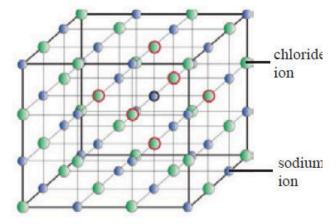


- A double covalent bond is formed when atoms share 2 pairs of electrons.
- A double bond occurs in the oxygen molecule:



Ionic & Covalent Compounds

- Ionic bonds are formed between metals and non-metals.
- Ionic compounds consist of many oppositely charged ions held together strongly to form a crystal lattice.
- Examples of ionic compounds include: sodium chloride (NaCl), and magnesium oxide (MgO).
- A covalent compound is made up of separate, single molecules.
- In a covalent compound, there is a fairly weak attraction between the individual molecules.
- Examples of covalent compounds include: water (H₂O), carbon dioxide (CO₂), and methane gas (CH₄).



The sodium chloride crystal lattice

ionic compounds	covalent compounds
Consist of crystal lattices	Consist of separate molecules
Usually crystalline solids	Usually liquids or gases
High melting and boiling points	Low melting and boiling points
Usually soluble in water	Usually insoluble in water
Conduct electricity when melted or in solution (see experiment below)	Do not conduct electricity (see experiment below)

EXPERIMENT:

29.1 To Investigate the Ability of Ionic and Covalent Compounds to Conduct Electricity

A circuit is set up as shown.

A variety of **covalent liquid compounds** are poured into the beaker.

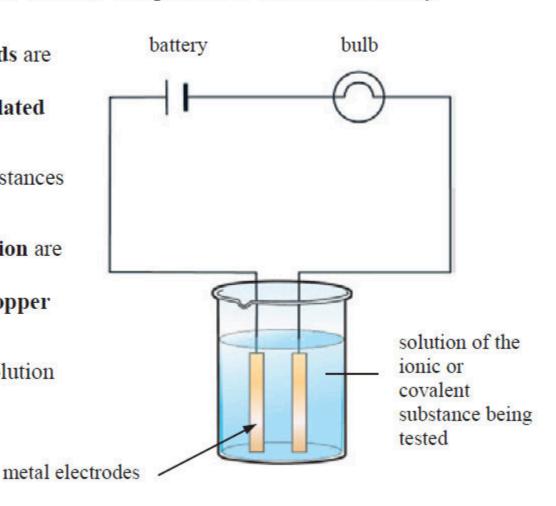
Examples include: paraffin oil, methylated spirit, distilled water.

The **bulb does not light**. Covalent substances will **not conduct electricity**.

A variety of **ionic compounds in solution** are poured into the beaker.

Examples include: sodium chloride, copper sulfate, sodium hydroxide.

The bulb lights. Ionic substances in solution will conduct electricity.



ACIDS & BASES

- An acid is a substance that turns blue litmus paper red.
- Strong acids are hydrochloric acid (HCl) and sulfuric acid H₂SO₄.
- Weak acids include vinegar, lemon juice, and acid rain.
- A base is a substance that turns red litmus paper blue.
- Bases that are soluble in water are called alkalis.
- Strong bases are sodium hydroxide, NaOH, and calcium hydroxide, Ca(OH)₂.
- Weak bases include toothpaste, soap and window cleaner.
- An indicator is a chemical which shows, by means of a colour change, whether a substance is an acid or a base. Litmus is an indicator.
- The pH scale goes from 0 to 14 and measures the strength of an acid or a base.
- Universal indicator paper is used to measure the pH of a substance.
- Neutral solutions have a pH of 7.
 Acids have a pH of less than 7.
 Alkalis have a pH of greater than 7.

- A neutralisation reaction occurs when an acid and a base react together and neutralise each other to form a salt and water.
- An experiment to neutralise an acid (HCl) with a base (NaOH) is called a titration. A burette, pipette, conical flask and white tile are used.

- A salt (e.g. NaCl) is formed when the hydrogen in the acid is replaced by a metal.
- The salt can be seen by evaporating off the water in a clock glass.
- Acids are involved in the following reactions:

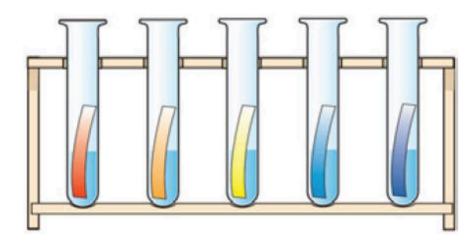
Acid + Base
$$\longrightarrow$$
 Salt + Water
HCl + NaOH \longrightarrow NaCl + H₂O
Acid + Carbonate \longrightarrow Salt + Water + Carbon dioxide
2HCl + CaCO₃ \longrightarrow CaCl₂ + H₂O + CO₂

EXPERIMENTS:

30.1 Testing the pH of Various Chemicals

Various acids and alkalis are placed in test tubes and tested with strips of universal indicator paper.

The **colour change** of the paper is then compared with a **pH colour chart** to find the **pH** of the solution.



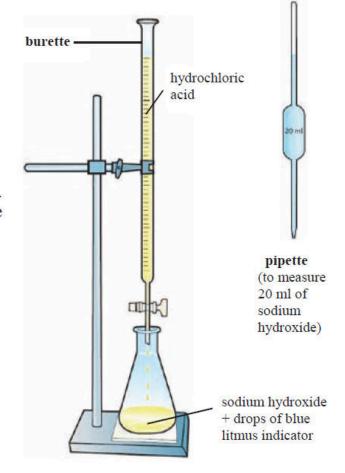
30.3 To Neutralise an Acid with a Base by Titration

A fixed volume of hydrochloric acid is placed in a burette. A pipette is used to measure 20 ml of sodium hydroxide into a conical flask. A few drops of litmus indicator is added to the flask. A white tile is placed under the flask to see the colour change easily.

The acid is added slowly while the flask is shaken. When the solution in the flask just begins to change colour, neutralisation is complete, and the volume of acid used is noted. This is repeated and an average volume of acid needed is calculated.

The **titration** is repeated again, without litmus indicator and using the volume of acid calculated before.

The flask now contains the salt, sodium chloride and water.

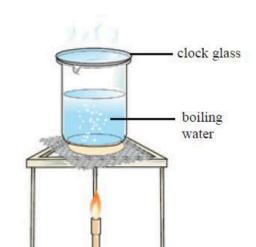


30.4 To Show the Salt formed from the Neutralisation Reaction

A sample of the **salt solution** from the flask (30.3) is placed in a clock glass.

The water in the clock glass is evaporated off as shown.

This leaves crystals of **sodium chloride** on the clock glass.



AIR

- Air consists of the **elements** nitrogen (78%), oxygen (21%), argon (<1%), and the **compounds** carbon dioxide (0.03%) and water vapour (0 4%).
- Air is a **mixture** because:
 - Its **composition varies** from place to place.
 - The different gases condense as liquids at different temperatures.
- Cobalt chloride paper is used to test for the presence of water.
 It is blue when dry, pink when wet.
- Limewater is used to test for carbon dioxide.
 Carbon dioxide turns limewater milky.

 Carbon dioxide is prepared by the reaction between dilute hydrochloric acid (HCl) and marble chips (calcium carbonate, CaCO₃).

```
Calcium carbonate + hydrochloric acid \longrightarrow calcium chloride + water + carbon dioxide CaCO<sub>3</sub> + 2HCl \longrightarrow CaCl<sub>2</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O + CO<sub>2</sub>
```

- Oxygen is prepared by the breakdown of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) in the presence of manganese dioxide (MnO₂).
- Manganese dioxide is a catalyst it speeds up the breakdown of the hydrogen peroxide into water and oxygen.
- A catalyst is a substance that speeds up a chemical reaction.
- A glowing splint is used to test for oxygen. Oxygen relights a glowing splint.

Properties of Oxygen		
Physical	Chemical	
 colourless, odourless, tasteless slightly heavier than air slightly soluble in water 	 supports burning (combustion) very reactive element, easily forming oxides: 2Mg + O₂	

Oxygen is used for breathing, welding and burning.

Properties of Carbon dioxide			
Physical	Chemical		
1. colourless, odourless, tasteless	1. does not supports burning		
2. heavier than air	turns limewater milky forms carbonic acid in water		
3. moderately soluble in water	CO ₂ + H ₂ O → H ₂ CO ₃ 4. acidic to litmus paper		

• Carbon dioxide is used in photosynthesis, fire extinguishers and fizzy drinks.

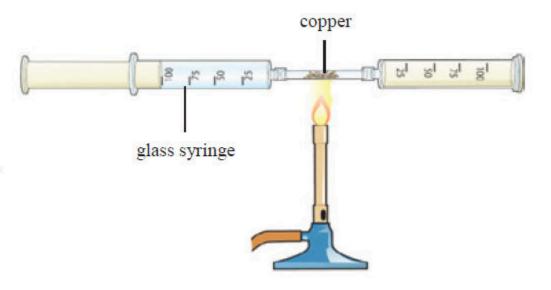
EXPERIMENTS:

31.1 To Measure the Percentage of Oxygen in Air

100 cm³ of air is repeatedly passed from one syringe to the other.

Copper is heated strongly in the tube.

The oxygen in the air reacts with the copper, forming copper oxide.
Only 79 cm³ of air remains.
Oxygen comprises 21% of air.

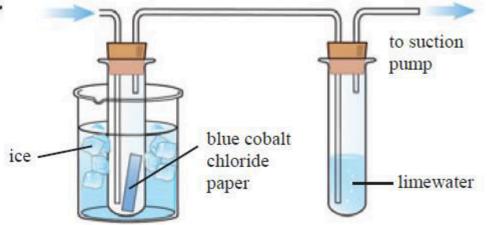


31.2 To Show the Presence of Water Vapour and Carbon Dioxide in Air

Water in the air turns the blue cobalt chloride paper pink.

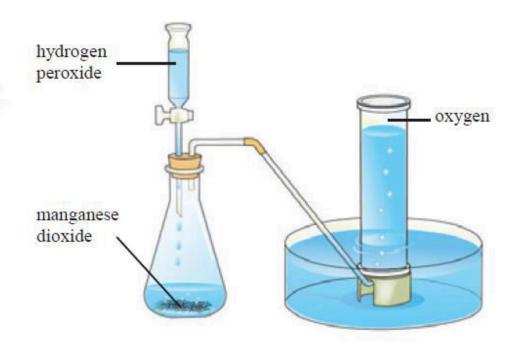
Carbon dioxide in the air turns the limewater milky.

Air contains water vapour and carbon dioxide



31.3 To Prepare Oxygen Gas

Oxygen is prepared by the breakdown of hydrogen peroxide in the presence of the catalyst, manganese dioxide. Oxygen is collected in the gas jar.

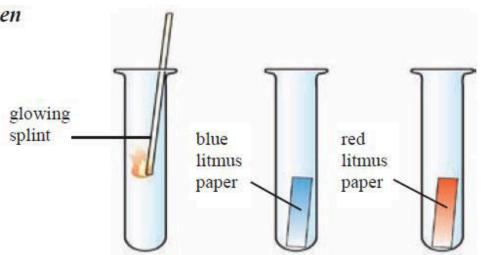


31.4 To Investigate the Properties of Oxygen

Oxygen relights a glowing splint.
Oxygen has no effect on moist blue litmus paper.

Oxygen has no effect on moist red litmus paper.

Oxygen supports combustion and is a neutral gas.



31.5 Burning Carbon and Magnesium in Oxygen

Carbon or magnesium are heated on a deflagrating spoon and then plunged into a jar of oxygen.

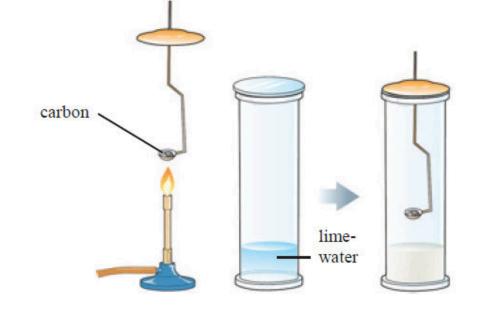
Carbon reacts to form carbon dioxide which turns some limewater milky.

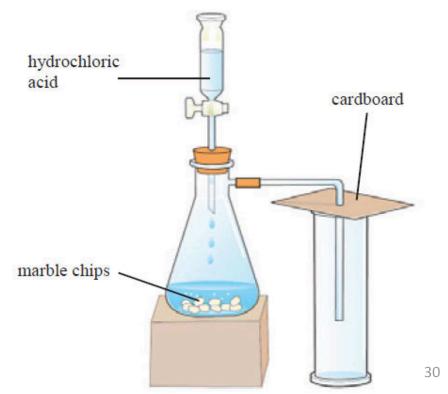
Magnesium forms white specks of magnesium oxide - a basic oxide which turns moist red litmus paper blue.



Carbon dioxide is prepared by the reaction between dilute hydrochloric acid (HCl) and marble chips (CaCO₃).

Carbon dioxide is **denser** than air and is therefore collected as shown.



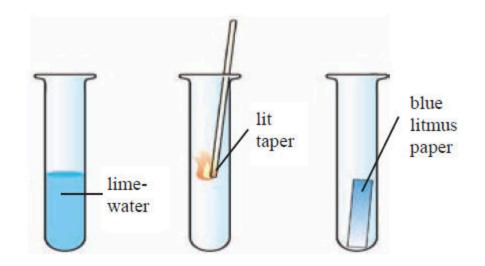


31.7 To Investigate the Properties of Carbon Dioxide

Carbon dioxide turns limewater milky.

Carbon dioxide does not support combustion.

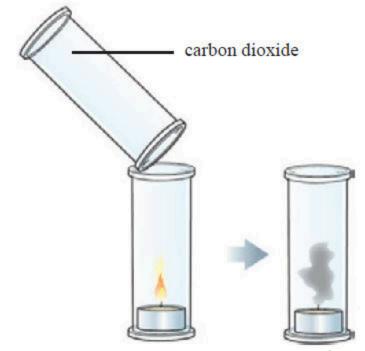
Carbon dioxide turns moist blue litmus paper red - it is an acidic oxide.



31.8 To Show that Carbon Dioxide is Denser than Air

Carbon dioxide can be poured from one gas jar to another - this shows that it is denser than air.

The **candle** is **extinguished**, showing that carbon dioxide does **not** support combustion.



Water

- Blue **cobalt chloride paper** is used to test for water. It is **blue** when **dry** water turns it **pink**.
- The freezing point of pure water is 0°C. Its boiling point is 100°C.
- Ice is less dense than water, therefore it floats on water.
- Water is an excellent solvent. Many substances dissolve in it.
- The water cycle is how water is recycled on the planet.
- Water treatment consists of 5 stages:
 screening (wire mesh), settling (settling tanks), filtration (sand and gravel filter beds),
 chlorination (adding chlorine to kill bacteria), and fluoridation (fluoride for teeth).

- Hard water is water that does not easily form a lather with soap.
- Soft water is water that forms a lather easily with soap.
- Hardness in water is caused by the presence of calcium ions dissolved in the water.
- Calcium carbonate (limestone) + rainwater (acidic) → calcium ions in the water
- Hardness can be removed by passing the water through an ion exchange resin, or by distillation.
- Ion exchange resin exchanges calcium ions for hydrogen ions to remove hardness.
- Water can be broken down into its elements, hydrogen and oxygen by electrolysis.
- Electrolysis is the production of a chemical reaction by using electricity.
- A **Hoffman voltameter** is used in the **electrolysis** of water to form H_2 and O_2 .
- Hydrogen gas forms at the negative electrode, oxygen forms at the positive electrode.
- Twice as much hydrogen as oxygen is formed because water is H₂O.

EXPERIMENTS:

32.1 To Use a Sand/Gravel Filter Model to Purify Water

Muddy water is poured through the filter, set up as shown.

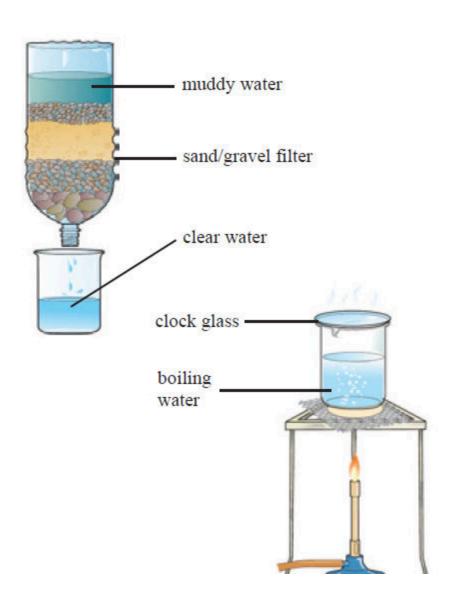
The water gets **filtered** and is **clear** when it enters the **beaker**.

32.2 To Show that Water Contains Dissolved Solids

Various water samples are evaporated in the clock glass.

Dissolved solids remain on the clock glass.

Hard waters such as mineral water and water from limestone areas contain the most dissolved solids. Rainwater contains least.

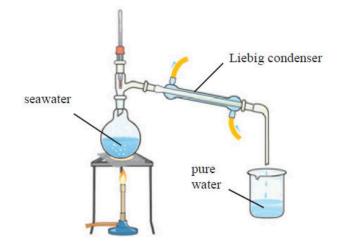


32.3 To Obtain Pure Water from Seawater

Seawater is placed in the **flask** of the **Liebig condenser** apparatus.

Pure water evaporates and condenses in the Liebig condenser and is collected in the beaker. The **salt remains** in the **flask**

Pure water collects in the beaker.



32.4 To Test Various Water Samples for Hardness

Equal amounts of various **water samples** are placed in test tubes.

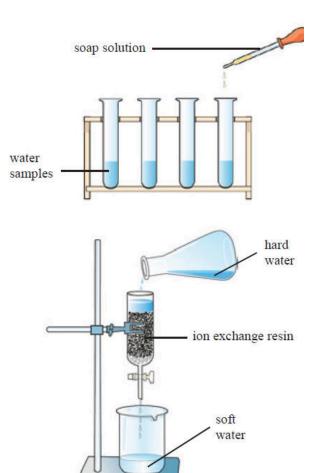
Soap solution is added to each test tube, a **drop** at a time, and the tube **shaken** to see if a **lather forms**.

Hard water samples will need more drops of soap solution to form a lather than soft water samples.

32.5 To Remove Hardness from Water Using Ion Exchange Resin

A tap funnel is filled with ion exchange resin. Hard water is then poured through the resin as shown.

The water collected in the **beaker** is **soft water**. This can be **tested** by using **soap solution** as described in Experiment 32.4 above.

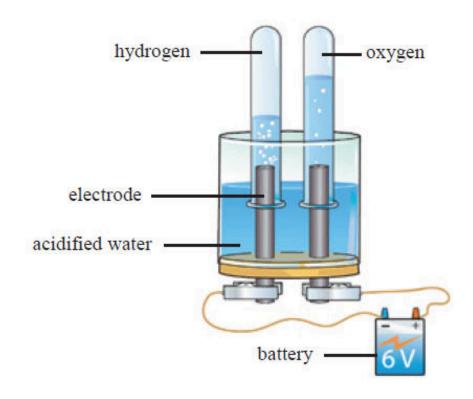


32.6 To Show the Composition of water by Electrolysis

The **Hoffman voltameter** and the two test tubes are filled with water to which a few **drops of acid** have been added to help conduct the electricity.

Oxygen collects in the test tube above the positive electrode - it can be tested for by using a glowing splint, which relights. Twice as much hydrogen collects in the test tube above the **negative electrode** - it can be tested for by using a lit taper.

Hydrogen gives a 'pop' sound when lit.



Groups of Elements

- Atoms of elements in the same Group all have the same number of electrons in their outermost shells.
- All elements in the same Group show similar chemical properties.
- Group I elements, the alkali metals are soft and shiny, with low densities.
- The first three alkali metals are: lithium, sodium, and potassium.
- The alkali metals react with oxygen to form oxides.
 Sodium metal gets a white coat of sodium oxide when it is cut with a knife.
- The alkali metals react with water to form hydroxides and hydrogen gas.
 Sodium metal in water produces hydrogen gas which bursts into flame.
- Reactivity increases going down the Group in the alkali metals.
- Lithium is used to make watch and camera batteries.
- Sodium is used in street lights that give a soft orange glow.
- Potassium is used in plant fertilisers.

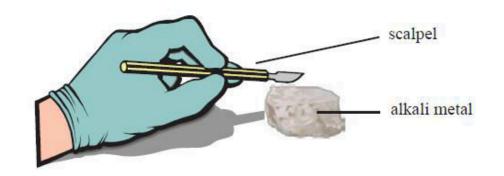
EXPERIMENTS:

33.1 To React an Alkali Metal with Air

A sample of **sodium** or **lithium** is cut with a **scalpel**.

The shiny cut surface gains a dull layer of sodium or lithium oxide.

Alkali metals react easily with oxygen in the air to form the metal oxide.

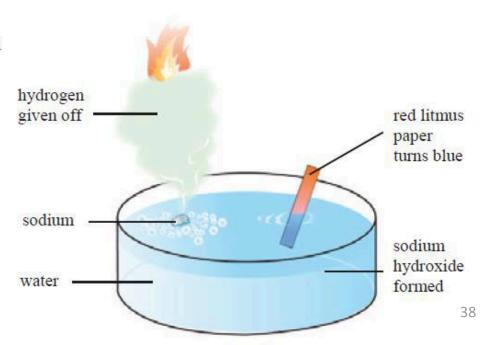


33.2 To React an Alkali Metal with Water

A sample of **sodium**, lithium or potassium is placed in water.

Hydrogen gas, which sometimes lights and explodes, is given off. The metal hydroxide (e.g. NaOH) is formed and dissolves in the water.

The alkali formed turns red litmus paper blue.



Metals

- Metals are usually dense, hard, shiny solids with high melting points.
- Metals are ductile and malleable, are good conductors of heat and electricity, and most corrode.
- Corrosion is a reaction in which a metal slowly reacts with oxygen or some other element in the air, to form an oxide or some other compound.
- The corrosion of iron or steel is called rusting.
- Rusting takes place in the presence of water and oxygen (air).
- Corrosion is prevented by painting, greasing, galvanising or chrome plating.
- Galvanising involves coating iron with a layer of zinc.
- An alloy is a mixture of metals.
- Bronze (copper and tin), brass (copper and zinc), steel (iron and carbon) and solder (lead and tin) are all metal alloys.

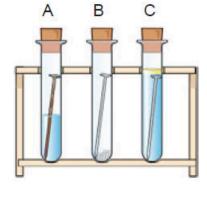
- The Activity Series is a list of metals placed in order of how reactive they are.
- When metals react with an acid, hydrogen gas is given off.
- Zinc reacts with hydrochloric acid to form zinc chloride and hydrogen.

$$Zn + 2HC1 \longrightarrow ZnCl_2 + H_2$$

EXPERIMENTS:

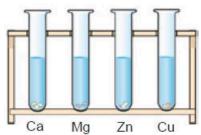
34.1 To Investigate the Conditions Necessary for Rusting

Tube **A** has both **water** and **oxygen** - this is the **control**. Tube **B** has **no water** - removed by **calcium chloride**. Tube **C** has **no oxygen** - cooled, **boiled water** was used. Only the nail in test tube **A** will rust.



34.2 To Compare the Reactivity of Metals

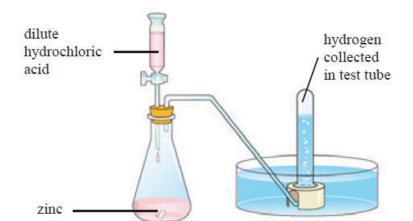
When tested with water and dilute hydrochloric acid, calcium is found to be most reactive, then magnesium, zinc and finally, copper.



34.3 To React Zinc with Hydrochloric Acid and Test for Hydrogen

Dilute hydrochloric acid reacts with **zinc** to form **zinc chloride** and **hydrogen** gas.

The hydrogen is collected in a test tube and tested with a **lit taper** - it goes 'pop'.



Chemistry in Everyday Life

- Fossil fuels are formed from the remains of plants and animals that lived millions of years ago.
- Coal, oil and gas are fossil fuels.
- All fossil fuels contain the elements carbon and hydrogen.
- Natural gas is mainly methane (CH₄).
- Fossil fuels produce carbon dioxide (CO₂) and water (H₂O) when burned.
- Some fossil fuels (coal and oil) contain sulfur compounds which release the gas sulfur dioxide (SO₂) on burning.
- Sulfur dioxide combines with rainwater to form sulfuric acid, causing acid rain.
- Acid rain kills fish, is harmful to plants and erodes limestone buildings.

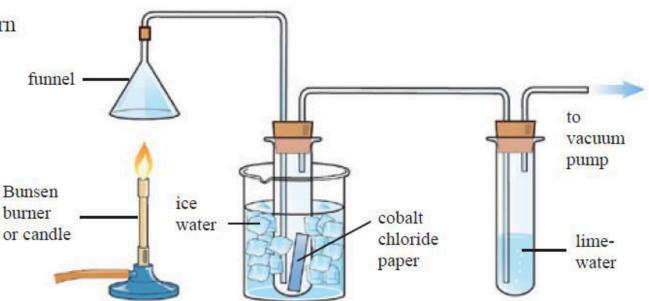
- Plastics are man-made materials made from chemicals called monomers extracted from crude oil.
- The monomers are reacted together to make long chains of molecules called polymers which are used to make plastics.
- Plastics are lightweight, durable, waterproof, easy to clean and can be easily moulded into different shapes.
- Plastics are non-biodegradable which means they cannot be broken down by living organisms, such as bacteria and fungi in the soil.

EXPERIMENTS:

35.1 To Investigate the Products of Combustion

Use a very low flame to burn methane gas as shown.

Water from the burning fuel turns the blue cobalt chloride paper pink.
Carbon dioxide from the burning fuel turns the limewater milky.



35.2 To Show the Effect of Acid Rain on Limestone

Dilute sulfuric acid is dropped onto limestone. This acid is found in acid rain.

The **limestone fizzes** as the sulfuric acid reacts with it.

