

# LA-UR-23-29999

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**Intended for:** Report

**Issued:** 2023-09-01



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# A Progress Report for a 44-month Aging Study on Nitroplasticizer (NP) Stability – Summary of DFT and FTIR Results

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**Abstract:** In the past few years, a 44-month long aging experiment was conducted under various aging conditions. The properties of aged nitroplasticizer (NP) samples were analyzed using Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy, Karl Fischer (KF) titration, thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), liquid chromatography tandem quadrupole time of flight mass spectrometry (LC/QTOF), and ion chromatography (IC). In this progress report, some FTIR results are documented and discussed. On the theoretical front, density functional theory (DFT) calculations were carried out. Some DFT results are discussed as well.

## 1. Introduction

In the formulation of 9501 PBX, a binder that consists of 2.5 wt% nitroplasticizer and 2.5 wt% Estane, is commonly used to bind the energetic crystals together for propellant and explosive fabrications. Nitroplasticizer studied here is the eutectic mixture of bis-2,2-dinitropropyl acetal (BDNPA) and bis-2,2-dinitropropyl formal (BDNPF), with a weight ratio of approximately 1:1 (hereinafter called NP) [1, 2]. The molecular structures of BDNPA and BDNPF are given in Figure 1. NP also contains a trace amount of N-phenyl- $\beta$ -naphthylamine (PBNA) (~0.1 wt%) for the purpose of long-term storage, which was added after NP production for scavenging NO<sub>x</sub> radicals and oxidants generated from NP degradation [3]. The molecular structure of PBNA is also given in Figure 1. Like many plasticizers with a low molecular weight, NP has a tendency to diffuse out of the PBX matrix and decompose at moderate temperatures after prolonged aging into reactive by-products, such as NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, HONO, HNO<sub>3</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O, and other NP residuals. Through oxidation and hydrolysis, the reactive molecules can further degrade NP, NP residues, and nearby polymeric materials, which cause undesired impacts. Understanding how NP degradation initiates and progresses is a critical prerequisite for understanding how to control the aging condition and to prevent NP and hence polymers from degradation during storage, handling, manufacturing, and application stages. Toward this goal, we conducted the present 44-month aging experiment with improved experimental design. Over the aging process, the properties of aged samples are characterized by using coulometric Karl Fischer (KF) titration and Near Infrared (NIR), thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR). In the 1<sup>st</sup> progress report, we documented and discussed the TGA and KF results [4]. In this progress report, the results of FTIR analyses for the same set of aged NP samples are documented and discussed. To add more insights on different degradation mechanisms which might occur during NP aging, density functional theory (DFT) calculations were performed. Some of these results will be discussed.

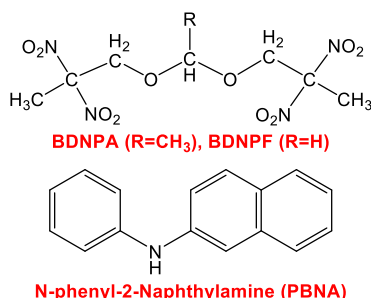


Figure 1. Molecular structures of BDNPA, BDNPF, and PBNA.

## 2. Experiment

### 2.1. Aging sample preparation

Baseline NP was obtained from a newly opened drum (lot number OCP–A/F–XB 8/8), which was made around 1965 and stored at LANL. At the beginning of this aging experiment, this baseline NP has been naturally aged for more than 51 years. As expected, some degradation has taken place during the storage, such as the depletion of PBNA (as low as ~760 mM) and increased water concentration (~780 ppm (wt/wt)). After the production, the pristine NP contains 0.1 wt% PBNA (= 6.33 mM) and <600 ppm water [5]. The baseline NP was used to prepare all aged samples, which had been aged in dry air and under nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) conditions (called dry samples), and in direct contact with deionized (DI) water (called wet samples). Each set of samples was loaded into two different types of containers: one type - IR cells (32 SIR1, Firefly Sci.com) for NIR measurements in a pseudo-in-situ mode; and second type - glass vials (12x32 clean vials with screw caps, Fisher) for TGA/KF/MIR/LC-QTOF/IC measurements. The samples aged inside the cells were capped with a Teflon stopper secured with two layers of Teflon tape. Evidentially, this seal was imperfect so that some volatiles were able to leak out of the cells, hence they are referred to as leaked samples. For the vial samples, Teflon tape was added between the thread and the cap to ensure the tightness of the seal, hence they were referred to as sealed samples. All cell and vial samples were kept inside Teflon containers. Four sets of samples were respectively heated at 38, 45, 55, and 64°C up to 44 months. The full suite of analyses was performed at twenty points during the aging experiment. More details on the preparation procedure of the aging samples, description, and visual observation can be found elsewhere [6, 7]. For clarification of discussion, Table 1 summarizes the labelling method of all samples, aging environments, and characterization techniques applied to the samples.

Table 1. Summary of sample labelling, aged environments, and characterization techniques\*.

	Container	Environment	Short label	Characterization
<b>Sealed sample</b>	Glass vial	Air and N <sub>2</sub>	Dry	TGA, KF, MIR, LC/QFOT, IC
		DI water	Wet	TGA, KF, MIR, LC/QFOT, IC
<b>Leaked sample</b>	IR cell	Air and N <sub>2</sub>	Dry	NIR
		DI water	Wet	NIR

\*: At 44 months, after the NIR measurement, the aged samples were removed from the NIR cells for MIR and LC/QTOF analyses, but TGA and KF analyses were not conducted due to limited sample size (<0.28 ml of liquid sample in each cell).

A Thermo Nicolet™ iS50 FTIR spectrometer was used to perform MIR in an attenuated total reflectance (ATR) mode with a diamond crystal between 4000 and 450  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . The resolution of 4  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 16 scans were used. The Thermo OMNIC™ software was used to process the MIR results. For each sample, two to four spectra were collected, and the average spectrum was used for data analysis.

### 3. Computational methods

All electronic structure calculations were performed using DFT, with the BP86 functional and the DEF2-TZVPP basis set as implemented in the *ab initio* quantum chemistry program ORCA 5.0.3 [8, 9]. The description of dispersion interactions was included through Grimme's atom-pairwise dispersion correction [10] and Becke-Johnson damping (D3BJ). All BDNPA/F structures were optimized with tight settings, i.e., tight convergence criteria for the electronic energy calculations and geometry optimizations. The transition states were located with the quadratic synchronous transit technique using the structures for the reactant and product. For each structure, a frequency calculation is performed to confirm that the resulting geometry corresponds to a minimum (positive frequencies) or a first order saddle point (one mode with imaginary frequency) on the potential energy surface. For  $\text{NO}_2$  homolysis the transition state is identified as a triplet electronic state. The solvation effect in NP was introduced using conductor-like polarizable continuum model [11] with refractive index set to 1.45 [12] and dielectric constant set to 15.4 [13]. Optimized geometries are used to compute the thermodynamic properties and evaluate Helmholtz free energy for primary elementary step to start the degradation of BDNPA/F via three degradation reactions: HONO elimination,  $\text{NO}_2$  homolysis, and BFNPF/A hydrolysis. We focus on the Helmholtz free energies, rather than the Gibbs free energies, because the experiments are run at constant volume and not constant pressure. For each structure, the Helmholtz free energy ( $F$ ) is computed at various temperatures in the range of 25-60  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The reaction Helmholtz free energies are obtained as the difference in Helmholtz free energy between the products and the reactants, for example  $\Delta F = F(\text{C}) + F(\text{D}) - F(\text{A}) - F(\text{B})$  for the reaction  $\text{A} + \text{B} \rightarrow \text{C} + \text{D}$ . The kinetic barriers were calculated as the Helmholtz free energy difference between the reaction transition state and the reactant. It is worth noting that the performance of the BP86 functional was evaluated by comparing with kinetic barriers to the ones calculated using MP2 level of theory with a DEF2-TZVPP basis set, which should provide a valid estimate for the range of values that could be obtained with different choice of functionals. The comparison shows that the MP2 calculated kinetic barriers are consistently larger (for ~30%) than the ones calculated with DFT, indicating that the relative values (differences in calculated numbers for different systems or reactions) will not be strongly dependent on the choice of the functional. This is in agreement with previous work [14, 15] that reported errors for BP86 barrier height calculations between 35 kJ/mol and 84 kJ/mol.

## 4. Results and Discussion

### 4.1. DFT Calculation Results

Because BDNPA/F have four  $\text{NO}_2$  groups, HONO elimination can lead to four different products: (trans, right), (cis, right), (trans, left) and (cis, right), as shown on the right-hand side of Figure 2 in which the results obtained from BDNPA are presented. The calculated Helmholtz free energies for four cases are

negative, which means the HONO elimination is an exothermic reaction though trans configurations (left or right) are more energetically favorable than cis configurations. Since the trans-products give the lowest Helmholtz free energy ( $<-12$  kJ/mol), as shown on the left-hand side of Figure 2. The trans-products will be used in the following DFT calculation and discussion.

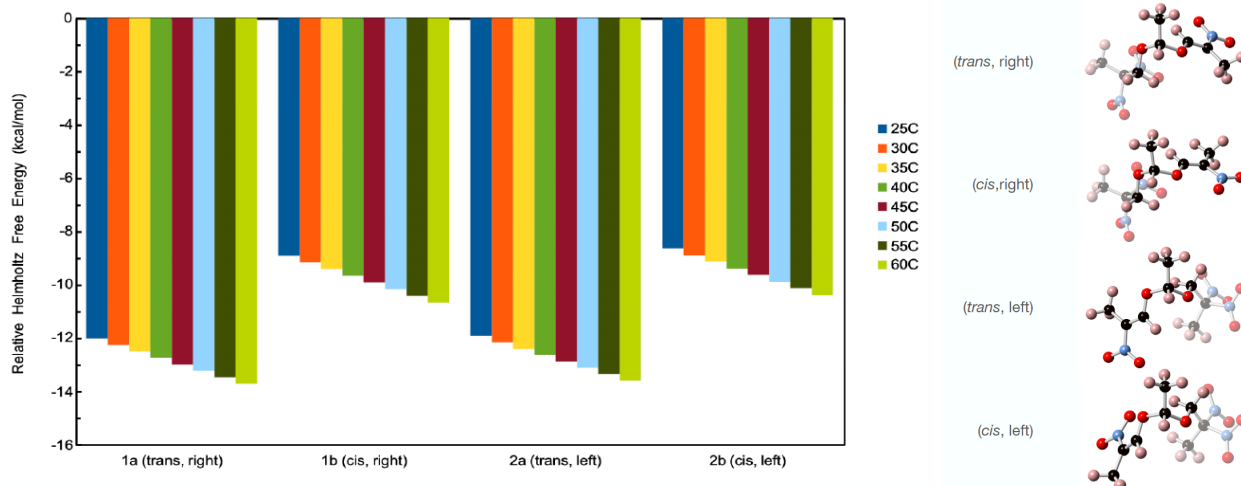


Figure 2. The calculated Helmholtz free energies for four configurations. The 3D molecular structures of these four configurations are illustrated on the right-hand side.

Table 2 summarizes the DFT calculated change in Helmholtz free energy for HONO elimination and NO<sub>2</sub> homolysis together with the kinetic barriers calculated for the two reactions. The results further show that HONO elimination is an exothermic process and will release -50.3 and -56.2 kJ/mol in energy, in the case of BDNPA and BDNPF, respectively. The energy barrier, also called activation energy, for the HONO elimination reaction in BDNPA and BDNPF are similar, 114.2 and 109.6 kJ/mol, respectively. These results explain why the BDNPA/F ratio is often observed unchanged in the early stage when both actually undergo HONO elimination. Therefore, the BDNPA/F ratio should not be used as an indicator to monitor the degree of NP degradation.

Table 2. Summary of DFT calculated activation energy and Helmholtz free energy associated with the HONO elimination and the NO<sub>2</sub> homolysis reaction in NP degradation.

Reaction	HONO Elimination		NO <sub>2</sub> Homolysis	
Chemical	BDNPA	BDNPF	BDNPA	BDNPF
Activation energy (kJ/mol)	114.2	109.6	230.3	231.3
Free energy ( $\Delta F$ ) (kJ/mol)	-50.3	-56.2	93.4	88.3
	Exothermic		Endothermic	

The DFT calculation also shows that NO<sub>2</sub> homolysis is an endothermic process, which requires 93.4 and 88.3 kJ/mol of energy in the case of the BDNPA and BDNPF molecule, respectively. DFT calculations also show that NO<sub>2</sub> homolysis requires more than double the energy barrier than HONO elimination. Namely, the kinetic barrier for NO<sub>2</sub> homolysis is calculated as 230.3 kJ/mol for BDNPA

and 231.3 kJ/mol for BDNPF, respectively. The results show that the BDNPA/F degradation *via* the NO<sub>2</sub> homolysis is much less likely to happen than the HONO elimination. Coincidentally, the DFT calculations also suggest that the Helmholtz free energy change for HONO elimination and NO<sub>2</sub> homolysis in BDNPF is slightly smaller than in BDNPA. Furthermore, it is worth emphasizing that HONO elimination and NO<sub>2</sub> homolysis can happen on either end of the molecule and the present full molecule model corroborates a previous assumption that the kinetic barrier on one end of the molecule is independent of the other end [16], which allows us to write the HONO elimination reaction as NP → NP' + 2HONO. Hence, the DFT results reveal the Helmholtz Free Energy for the elimination of two HONO is almost equivalent to twice the Helmholtz Free Energy for the elimination of only one HONO from a half molecule model of BDNPA, which indicates that one end of the molecule does not influence the other end.

The DFT calculated change in Helmholtz free energy for HONO elimination together with the kinetic barriers and concluded that HONO elimination is more energetically favorable over other degradation mechanisms, like NO<sub>2</sub> homolysis. Furthermore, it is suggested that HONO could react back to form two possible isomers, nitroso alcohol (HO-R-R<sub>o</sub>-NO) and nitrite (R-ONO), when the HONO formed in close proximity to the decomposed fragments due to the cage effect (e.g., minimal headspace) [16, 17]. We calculated Helmholtz free energy for HONO re-addition to BDNPA molecules. As the previous work suggested, HONO can be re-added as HO-NO or H-ONO (i.e., HO-C1-C2-NO or H-C1-C2-ONO). For each configuration, there is four possible conformations (front-front (a), front-back (b) back-front (c), and back-back (d)), as shown in Figure 3. In total, there are for the sixteen of possible BDNPA isomers. Considering the lowest energy state of the trans form, the HONO re-addition is only tested for the left-trans configuration of BDNPA(-HONO). Considering overall isomerization reaction of BDNPA through HONO elimination and subsequent re-addition, the calculated Helmholtz free energies are plotted in Figure 4 for the 16 possible BDNPA isomers. The temperature effect is evaluated from 25°C to 60°C. Among these isomers formed via HO-NO re-addition is more energetically favorable than H-ONO re-addition, which agrees with the previous results [16, 18, 19]. Among the isomers via HO-ON re-addition, the configurations denoted NO-OH\_2a and NO-OH\_2d give the lowest Helmholtz free energies.

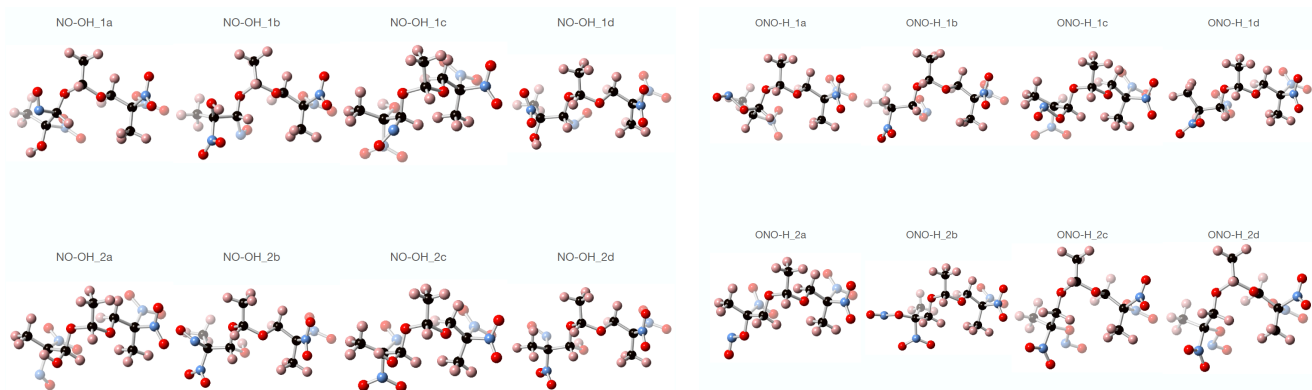


Figure 3. Isomers formed by HONO re-addition via HO-NO addition (left) and H-ONO addition (right) into the left-trans BDNPA-HONO configuration. For each configuration, there are four possible conformations (front-front (a), front-back (b) back-front (c), and back-back (d)).

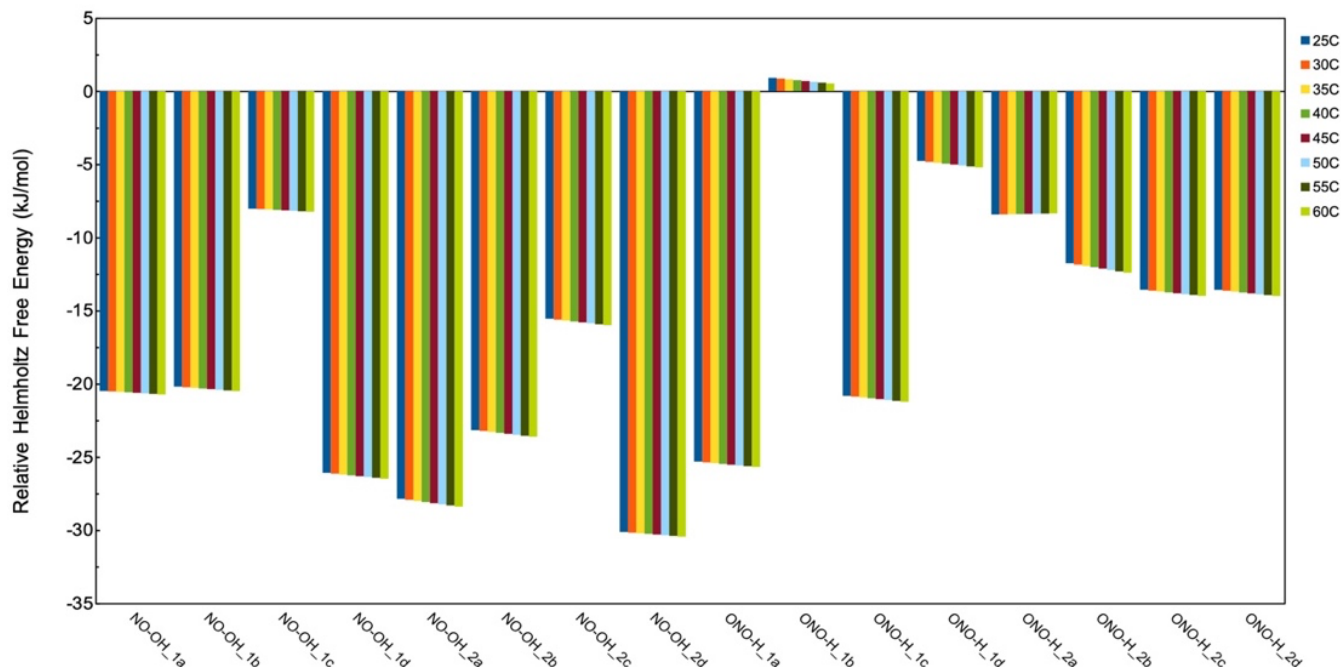


Figure 4. Helmholtz free energies of overall isomerization reaction of BDNPA through HONO elimination and subsequent re-addition into the left-trans BDNPA-HONO configuration. The temperature effect is evaluated.

Next, we investigated the protonation reaction of BDNPA/F with hydronium (Figure 5a) and water molecules (Figure 5b) as reactants, which will start the hydrolysis degradation reaction. As the local conditions and thus the effective dielectric function, of NP could change during the aging process, we plotted the Helmholtz free energy for the protonation of BDNPA as a function of dielectric constant of the system. We also explored how Helmholtz free energy for the protonation reaction changes with the change in the proton concentration, i.e., ratio of proton and water molecules ( $[H_3O^+]/[H_2O]$ ). The results show that the protonation of BDNPA, and therefore the hydrolysis reaction, is strongly dependent on the local acidity conditions. On the contrary, without a proton, water molecules will not protonate BDNPA as the energy required for this process is larger than 250 kJ/mol. Evidently, the presence of protons is crucial to start hydrolysis degradation reaction. For example, for the dielectric constant set to 15.4 and in excess of water molecules ( $[H_3O^+]/[H_2O]$  ratio of  $10^{-6}$ ), the change in the Helmholtz free energy for the protonation of BDNPA is calculated as 33.7 kJ/mol. However, the Helmholtz free energy for the BDNPA protonation decreases as the concentration of  $H_3O^+$  increases and becomes exothermic when the  $[H_3O^+]/[H_2O]$  ratio falls below 0.8. The dielectric constant also influences the energetics of the protonation reaction. Namely, a low value of dielectric constant (more nonpolar environment) benefits the protonation reaction and the Helmholtz free energy for the BDNPA protonation at  $[H_3O^+]/[H_2O] = 10^{-6}$  decreases from 33.7 to 4.2 kJ/mol as the dielectric constant decreases from 15.4 to 2.5. The Helmholtz free energy for the protonation of BDNPA and BDNPF (Figure 5c) shows larger differences in free energy as compared to the HONO elimination and  $NO_2$  homolysis reaction. Helmholtz free energy for the protonation of BDNPF is calculated as 51.1 and 17.3 kJ/mol for  $[H_3O^+]/[H_2O]$  ratios of  $10^{-6}$  and 1, respectively, as compared to the value of 33.7 and -0.5 kJ/mol calculated for BDNPA. Unlike the



degradation of BDNPA through HONO elimination, this result shows that the degradation of BDNPA via hydrolysis is expected to be more pronounced than the degradation of BDNPF and will accelerate at high proton concentrations (high acidity).

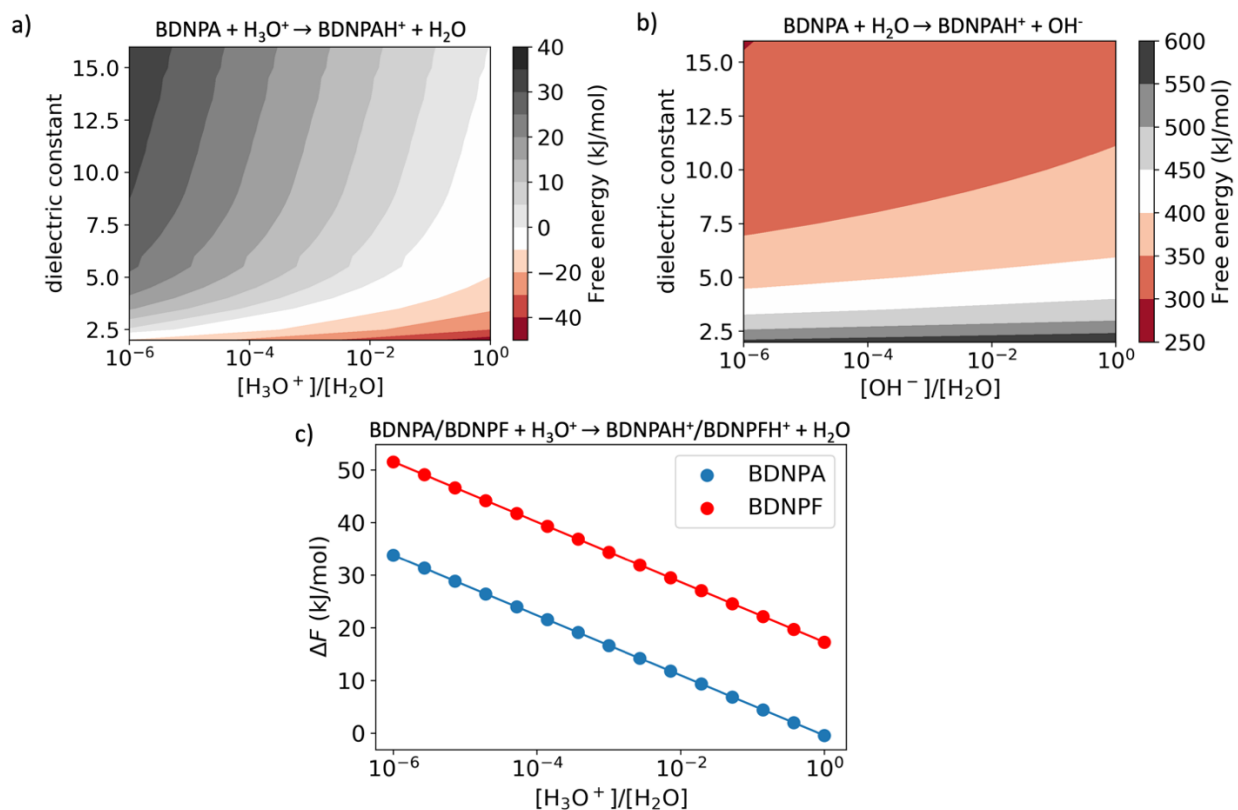


Figure 5. Helmholtz free energy for a) protonation of BDNPA from  $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  as a function of dielectric constant and  $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}_2\text{O}$  concentration, b) protonation of BDNPA from  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  as a function of dielectric constant and  $\text{OH}^-/\text{H}_2\text{O}$  concentration, and c) dependence of the Helmholtz free energy for BDNPA and BDNPF protonation on the ratio of protons and water for  $\epsilon = 15.4$ . Calculated using BP86-D3BJ/DEF2-TZVPP level of theory.

## 4.2. FTIR Results

### 4.2.1 Temperature effect

Figure 6 shows the FTIR spectra of the baseline NP and the dry samples aged inside the glass vials for 44 months at 38 °C (3A), 45 °C (4A), 55 °C (5A), and 64 °C (6A). For better illustration, the FTIR spectra are divided into two regions: high wavenumber (HWN: 4000–2350  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and low wavenumber (LWN: 1850–450  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ). The tentative assignments of important peaks in BDNPA, BDNPF, and degraded fragments are summarized in Tables 2(a) and 2(b). Since the baseline NP has been aging for more than 51 years during its storage, it already contains acidic molecules (HONO and oxalic acids) [20] and an extra amount of water [6, 7]. A recent Pantex's report evidenced that NP gains its acidity and water concentration during the storage, compared to the pristine NP [21, 22]. In the FTIR spectrum of the baseline NP, while HONO might be responsible for the weak peak at  $\sim 3600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [23], the weak peaks at 3678 and 3260  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  are for large water clusters and small water clusters, respectively [24]. The

formation of the water cluster in NP was previously reported by Salazar et. al. and the cluster of 5 water molecules was used in their water sorption study in NP [25]. Additionally, the baseline spectrum shows a broad shoulder between 3200 and 3400  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which indicates the presence of -OH groups, due to the formation of free vs. hydrogen bonded (H-bonded) water, and water clusters [24, 26], and also influenced by impurities and degraded PBNA products [21, 27]. After aging at 38°C and 45°C for 44 months, the changes in the FTIR spectra of the aged samples are minimal compared to that of the baseline NP. Some intensity increase in the region of 2550  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is most likely associated with the formation of  $\text{HNO}_x$  from a small degree of NP degradation.

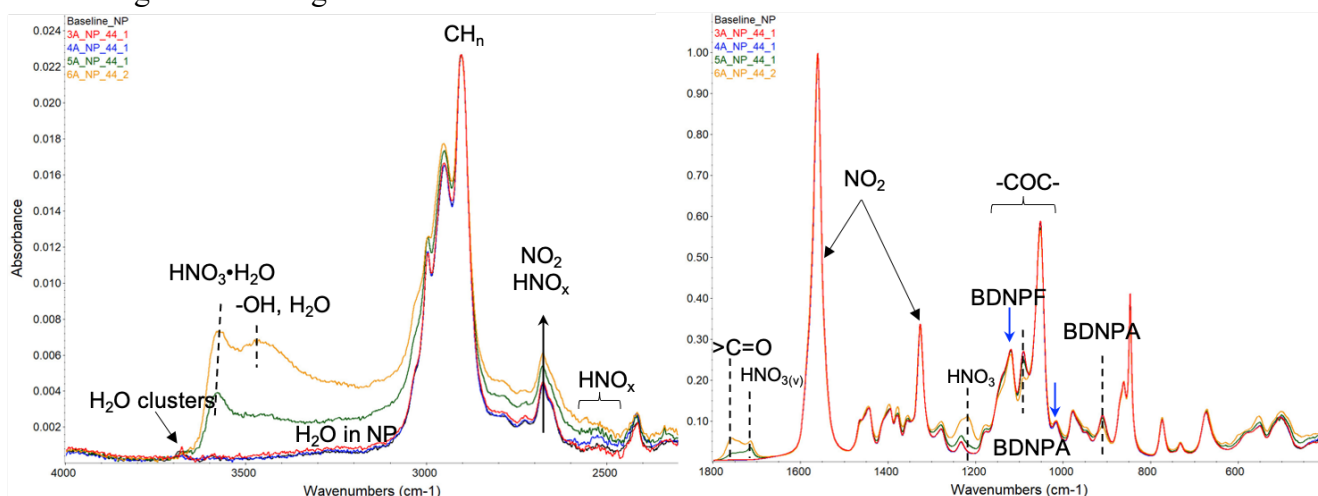


Figure 6. FTIR of the dry (air) samples aged for 44 months at different temperatures. All spectra are normalized at highest peak respective to the HWN and LWN regions.

More obvious changes are observed in the FTIR spectra of samples aged at 55°C and 64°C for 44 months. New peaks and shoulders grow between 3700  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 3200  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , suggesting the formation of  $\text{HNO}_3$  (at  $\sim 3580 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and the presence of different forms of water molecules (free vs. H-bonded) [24, 26, 28], alcohols (e.g., DNPOH), and organic acids [20]. New peaks form between 1800  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 1700  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , suggesting the formation of aliphatic ester ( $>\text{C}=\text{O}$ , at  $\sim 1760 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and carboxylic acid ( $\sim 1730 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) [29], and  $\text{HNO}_{3(\text{vapor})}$  ( $\sim 1710 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) [28]. Changes in the intensity of numerous peaks between 1600  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 450  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  suggest changes in the backbone structure of NP due to oxidation and hydrolysis [18, 19, 30]. More specifically, while the peaks at 1710  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 1340  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , associated with  $\text{HNO}_3$  molecules, grow noticeably, the peak at 1092  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , associated with the  $-\text{COC}(\text{CH}_3)-$  group in BDNPA, decreases greatly. This observation suggests that as more  $\text{HNO}_3$  forms, BDNPA degrades severely, supporting the acid-catalyzed hydrolysis hypothesis. Relatively speaking, the intensity of the peaks at 1050 and 1120  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , associated with the  $-\text{COC}-$  group in BDNPF, does not change significantly. Similar behaviors and features are found in the FTIR spectra of the  $\text{N}_2$  and wet samples, as shown in Figure 7 and Figure 8. All these results confirm that 1) temperature plays an important role in degrading NP regardless of the environmental conditions, and 2) 55°C seems to be a transition point for the different aging behavior occurring in NP because the wet sample ages less than the dry samples at 55°C and below. However, at 64°C, whereas the wet sample does hydrolyze more than the dry samples (air and  $\text{N}_2$ ), the dry samples

are oxidized more (the higher  $>C=O$  peak intensity at  $\sim 1760\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) than the wet sample. All these FTIR results agree with the KF and TGA results [4], the NIR results [6, 7], and the IC results [20].

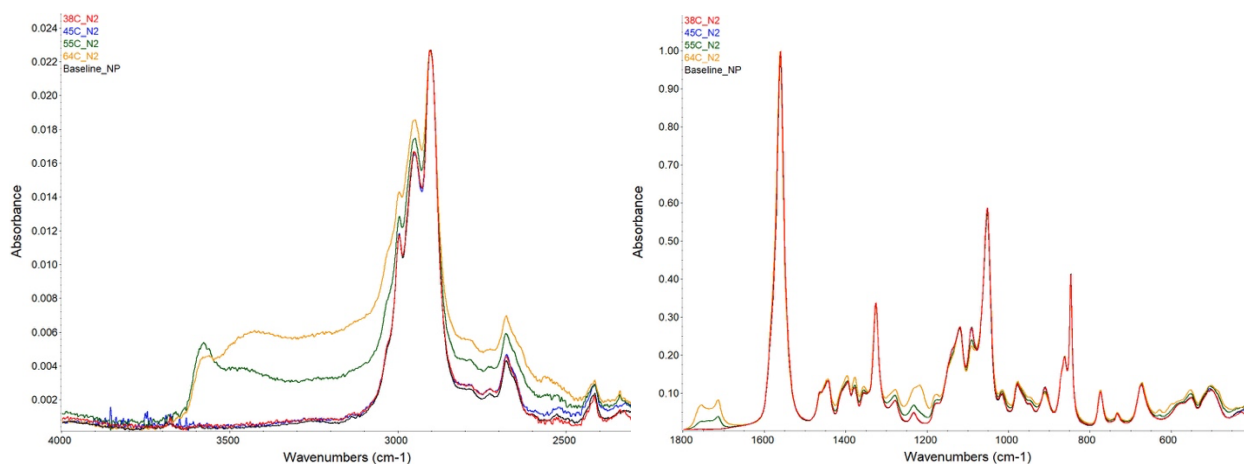


Figure 7. FTIR of the dry ( $N_2$ ) samples aged for 44 months at different temperatures. All spectra are normalized at highest peak respective to the HWN and LWN regions.

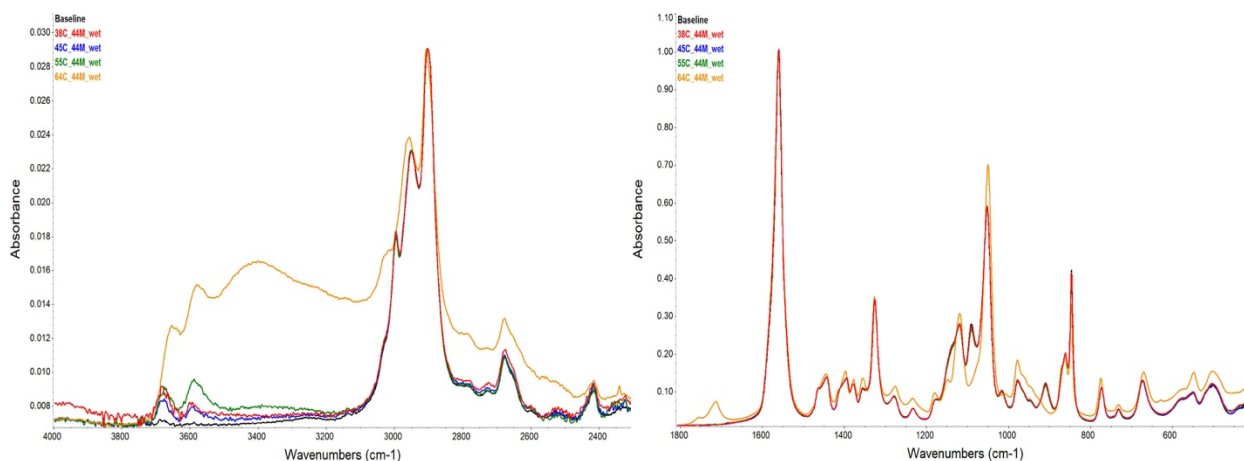


Figure 8. FTIR of the wet samples aged for 44 months at different temperatures. All spectra are normalized at highest peak respective to the HWN and LWN regions.

Table 3(a). Tentative assignment for the key peaks found in the FTIR spectra of BDNPA, BDNPF, NP, and fragments from NP degradation (from 4000–1380  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) <sup>1)</sup> [30, 31]. Key: u – stretching,  $u_s$  – symmetric stretching,  $u_{as}$  – asymmetric stretching, d – scissoring.

BDNPA	BDNPF	NP	Degraded NP	Tentative Assignment
		3678 vvw	3678 vvw, sh	Free water [24]
			3600-3580 vw	$\text{HNO}_2$ [23]
			3580 - 3560 vw to w 3550	$\text{HNO}_3 \bullet \text{H}_2\text{O}$ [23, 28] [32]
			3470 w +/- 30	Poly-OH 2(>C=O)
			3450 w +/- 20	$\text{H}_2\text{O}$ in $\text{HNO}_3$ [28]
			3380 m	$\text{HNO}_3$ liquid [28]
3266 vvw	3266 vvw	3260 vvw	3260 vvw (wet)	$(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6$ cluster [24]
3038 vw	3034 vw	3030 vw, sh	3030 vw to w, sh	$\nu_{as}(\text{CH}_3)$
3003 w	3001 vw	2997 w	2997 w, up	$\nu_{as}(\text{CH}_2)$
2975 w, sh	2976 w			$\nu_s(\text{CH}_3)$
	2961 w			$\nu_s(\text{O}-\text{CH}_2-\text{O})$
			2960 v	$\text{HNO}_3 \bullet \text{H}_2\text{O}$ [28]
2949 v		2951 v	2951 v, up	$\nu(>\text{CH}-\text{CH}_3)$ (from BDNPA)
			2920 vvw	$\text{NO}_2$ [23, 33]
2895 w	2910 w	2903 w	2903 w	$\nu_s(\text{CH}_2)$
2680 vvw	2684 vw	2678 vvw	2678 vvw, up	$2[\nu_s\text{NO}_2] + \nu(\text{OH})$ [28]
2650 vvw	2664 & 2641 vvw	2654 vvw, sh		$2[\nu_s\text{NO}_2]$
			2690 w, 2600 w (wet)	$\text{NO}_3^- \bullet \text{HNO}_3$ , $\text{H}_2\text{O} \bullet \text{HNO}_3$ [28]
			2560 vvw, 2510 sh	$\text{HNO}_3$ vapor [28]
		2325 vw		$\text{NO}_2^+$ [28]
			1760 - 1730 w	>C=O
			1640 & 1720 w	$\text{NO}_2$ and $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ ( $\text{NO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ ) / $\text{HNO}_3$ [23, 34]
			1710-1714 m	$\text{HNO}_3$ (vapor) [28, 35]
			1675-1680 w	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$ , $\text{HNO}_3$ [28, 35]
1560 vs	1555 vs	1560 vs	1562 vs	$\nu_{as}(\text{NO}_2)$
1465 w	1467 w	1464 w, sh	1464 w, sh down	$\delta(\text{CH}_2)$
1443 w, sh	1443 m	1444 w	1446 w, up	$\delta_{as}(\text{CH}_3)$
			1440 vvw	$\delta_{as, s}(\text{NO}_2)$ from -ONO [34]
1411 w	1414 vw, sh	1410 w, sh	1410, w, sh up	$\nu(\text{CO}-\text{CH}_2)$
1395 w	1401 m	1395 w	1398 w (more F)	$\delta_s(\text{CH}_3)$
1384 w				$\nu(\text{CO}-\text{CH}_2) + \delta(\text{CH}_3)$ (from BDNPA)
			1384 sh, up	$\text{NO}_3^-$ , $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ [34]

<sup>1)</sup>: vvw – very very weak, vw – very weak; w – weak; m – moderate; s – strong; vs – very strong; sh – shoulder.

Table 3(b). Tentative peak assignment in BDNPA, BDNPF, NP, and fragments from NP degradation in their FTIR spectra (1380–450  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )<sup>1)</sup>. Key: u – stretching,  $u_s$  – symmetric stretching,  $u_{as}$  – asymmetric stretching w – wiggling, d – scissoring,  $\rho$  – rocking, def. – deformation.

BDNPA	BDNPF	NP	Degraded NP	Tentative Assignment
1374 w	1375 w	1379 w	1379 w, up	$\nu(\text{CO-CH}_2) + \delta(\text{CH}_2)$
			1366 m	$\text{HNO}_3$ (2.8 mole%) [28]
1359 w	1355 w	1356 w	1355 w, up	$\nu(\text{CO-CH}_2) + \delta(\text{CH}_2)$
			1340 w, up	$\text{NO}_3^-$ [23], $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5/\text{HNO}_3$ [32]
1325 m	1331 m	1327 m	1326 m	$\nu_s(\text{NO}_2)$
			1263 m	HONO [23, 33, 35]
1279 w	1266 w	1278 w	1279 w, up	$\nu(\text{CN}), \nu(-\text{C-OH}),$
1238 w	1225 w	1233 vw	1233 w, sh	$\nu_{as}(-\text{COC-})$
			1220 w (dry), up	$\text{HNO}_3$ (vapor) [28]
	1180 w	1176 w	1178 w, up	$\nu_{as}(-\text{COC-}), \nu(-\text{C-OH})$
	1151 vw			$\nu_{as}(-\text{COC-}) [\text{O}(\text{CH}_2)\text{O}]$ (from BDNPF)
1137 s		1137 m, sh	1137 m, sh, down	$\nu_{as}(-\text{COC-}) [-\text{CH}_2\text{OCH}<]$ (from BDNPA)
1115 m	1119 s	1120 m	1120 m, down	$\nu_s(-\text{COC-})$
1092 m		1091 m	1090 m to w, down more	$\nu_s(-\text{COC-}) [-\text{CH}_2\text{OCH}<]$ (from BDNPA)
1064 s	1060 s	1053 s	1053 s, down	$\nu_s(-\text{COC-})$
1015 m		1017 w	1017 w, up	$\nu_s(-\text{COC-}) [-\text{CH}_2\text{OCH}<]$ (from BDNPA)
976 w	977 m	978 m	978 m, up	$\nu(-\text{CNO-}), \nu(-\text{CCOOH}),$
948 w	945 w	948 w, sh	949 w, sh up	$\delta(\text{N-O})$
910 m		910 w	910 w, down more	$\delta_s(\text{COC}) [-\text{CH}_2\text{OCH}<]$ (from BDNPA)
865 $s^2)$	878 $s^2)$	862 m	862 m	$\nu(\text{C-NO}_2) + \text{C}=\text{C-H}$
847 $m^2)$	850 $m^2)$	847 s	847 m, down	$\nu(\text{C-N}) + \text{C}=\text{C-H}$
774 m	772 s	774 w	774 w, up	$\delta(\text{O-N=O})$ [28]
733 w	729 w	732 w	732 vw	$\rho(\text{CH}_2)$
674 m	680 s	674 m	672 w, up	$\text{CH}_3\text{-CH}_2\text{-NO}_2$ nitroethane
			630 w, up	$\omega(\text{H-NO}_2)$
			602 sh, up	$\text{HNO}_3$ (vapor) [28]
557 m	556 w	550 w	555 w, up	-OH, def.(COH)
518 & 503 m	510 m	506 w	501 w, up	-OH, def. (COH)

<sup>1)</sup>: vvww – very very weak, vw – very weak; w – weak; m – moderate; s – strong; vs – very strong; sh – shoulder.

<sup>2)</sup>: These peaks were only labeled as  $-\text{CH}_n$  bending in our previous paper [36].

#### 4.2.2. Environment effect

Figure 9 shows a set of FTIR spectra obtained from air,  $\text{N}_2$ , and wet samples aged for 44 months in various environments, at 45°C (top row), 55°C (middle row) and 64°C (bottom row). The FTIR spectrum of the baseline NP is also included. At 45°C, for all three samples, the lack of spectral changes between 3000 and 700  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , compared to the spectrum of baseline NP, suggests that the backbone structure of these aged NP samples remains the same. Even though there are some changes in the region of 3000-

4000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , they are mostly related to the states of water molecule arrangements (free vs. clustered) due to the variation of exposed environments. Overall, if there is some degradation, the structural changes are not detectable in their FTIR spectra after the samples aged at 45°C for 44 months regardless of aging environments.

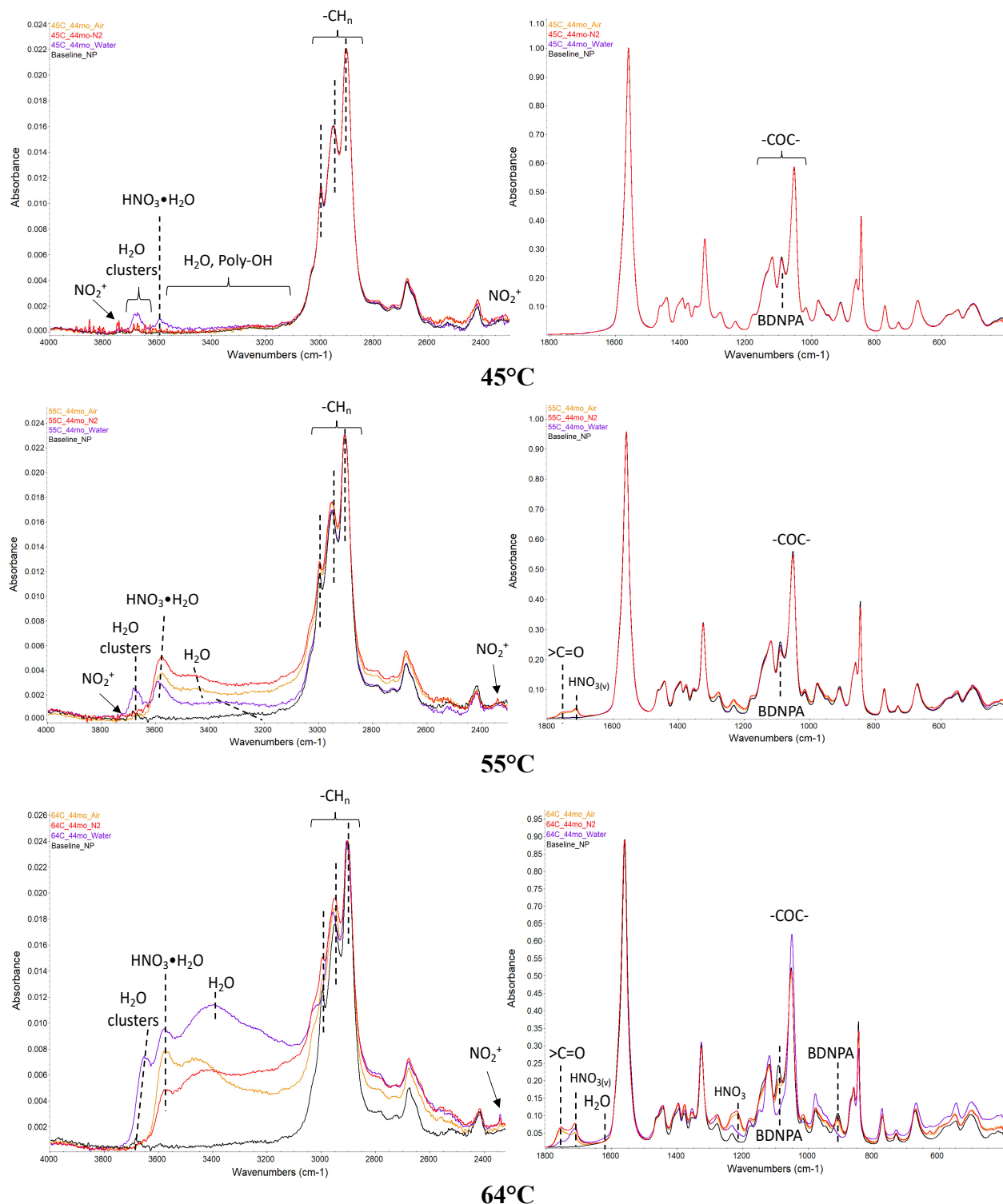


Figure 9. FTIR spectra of the samples aged inside the vials at various temperatures for 44 months.

At 55°C, noticeable changes are detected, as shown in Figure 9 (middle). For the wet sample, the intensity of the nitronium ion ( $\text{NO}_2^+$ ) peak ( $\sim 3740\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) decreases, the  $\text{HNO}_3$  peak ( $\sim 3585\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) increases compared to the result of the wet sample aged at 45°C. Considering the low water concentration ( $< 3000\text{ ppm}$ ) in the wet samples, we suspect that local  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentration in some region is high even though its bulk concentration is small. Since the baseline NP is more than 51 years old, it actually contains a trace amount of  $\text{HNO}_3$ , and possible  $\text{NO}_2^+$  species. When aged in direct contact with water, water concentration increases in the NP phase from  $\sim 760\text{ ppm}$  to up to  $3000\text{ ppm}$ , which allows the equilibrium of  $\text{NO}_2^+ \text{NO}_3^- + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons 2\text{HNO}_3$  shifts forward. Accordingly, the intensity of the small water cluster at  $\sim 3680\text{ cm}^{-1}$  increases and ends up outgrowing the  $\sim 3350\text{ cm}^{-1}$  peak, suggesting that the number of the water molecules in the clusters is reduced, i.e., from 5 to 3. This observation can be explained in the following way. As the temperature increases from 45°C to 55°C, the  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentration increases due to more aggressive degradation. Furthermore, more available water molecules dissociate  $\text{HNO}_3$  into ionic form -  $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , instead of forming  $\text{HNO}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_n$  water clusters. As a result, the acidity increases, compared to the wet sample aged at 45°C. For the dry (air and  $\text{N}_2$ ) samples, the spectral changes are different from those observed from the wet sample. There is no peak detected at  $3680\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , but the intensity of the peaks between  $3600\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $3200\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is higher than that in the wet sample. Accordingly, a tiny peak at  $2340\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , associated with  $\text{NO}_2^+$ , grows in the dry samples. The water peak between  $3500$  and  $3200\text{ cm}^{-1}$  shifts from  $\sim 3350\text{ cm}^{-1}$  in the wet sample to  $\sim 3480\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The peak of  $\text{HNO}_3$  vapor (v) at  $1710\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is only detected in the dry samples. The BDNPA peak at  $1093\text{ cm}^{-1}$  also decreases more in the dry samples than in the wet sample. Additionally, two new peaks between  $1800$  and  $1600\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , associated with  $>\text{C}=\text{O}$  group ( $\sim 1760\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and  $\text{HNO}_{3(\text{v})}$  molecules ( $\sim 1710\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), respectively, are only detected in the dry samples as well. All these comparative results suggest that 1) the dry samples do not contain a large amount of water clusters, but do contain more H-bonded water molecules; 2) the concentration of  $\text{HNO}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_n$  (peak at  $3580\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) in the dry sample is higher than in the wet sample, which is also responsible for the higher intensity of the  $\text{NO}_2$  peak at  $\sim 2680\text{ cm}^{-1}$  in the dry samples than in the wet sample; and 3) NP hydrolysis is more advanced in the dry samples than the wet sample when both of them are aged at 55°C for 44 months. These observations suggest that the excess amount of water in the wet sample dilutes the  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentration so to reduce the acid-catalytic effect. Furthermore, some acidic molecules are removed from the NP phase into the aqueous phase.

At 64°C, spectral difference among three samples grows even larger than that found at 55°C and below, as shown in Figure 9 (bottom). Based on the FTIR spectral information provided by Marcus et. al. [28], the concentration of nitric acid was estimated to be between 25 wt% and 70 wt% in the wet samples, and maybe as high as 95 wt% and even exists in an anhydrate form in the dry samples. The spectral changes in the  $3200\text{--}2800\text{ cm}^{-1}$  region are dramatic, compared to those found at lower temperatures: while the intensity of the C-H peaks grows noticeably in the dry samples, the  $\text{CH}_2$  peak at  $3000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  – a characteristic peak of BDNPA, completely disappears in the wet sample. Accordingly, the BDNPA peak at  $1090\text{ cm}^{-1}$  completely disappears, suggesting that the  $-\text{COCH}(\text{CH}_3)\text{O}-$  functional group in BDNPA is destroyed through acetal hydrolysis in the wet sample. However, the  $-\text{COCH}(\text{CH}_3)\text{O}-$  group in BDNPA in the dry samples is still detected. All these observations suggest the less degree of hydrolysis occurring in the dry samples than that in the wet sample. On the contrary, the  $>\text{C}=\text{O}$  peak at

1760  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is more intense in the dry samples than in the wet samples, suggesting that the dry samples were oxidized more than the wet samples. All these spectral changes reveal that NP degrades differently under the dry and the wet environments. While BDNPA is preferably degraded through hydrolysis over oxidation under the wet condition, both BDNPA/F are oxidized to a greater degree in the dry condition than that in the wet condition when they are aged at 64°C for 44 months.

#### 4.2.3. Headspace effect

Since the initial NP degradation involves volatiles formation (e.g.,  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{HNO}_x$ , and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ), headspace composition will critically influence its cascading effect on the aging behavior of NP due to the suspected autocatalytic effect. To investigate this effect, we compare FTIR spectra, as shown in Figure 10, collected from two sets of samples aged at different containers: one set was aged in the sealed container and the other was aged in the leaked container. However, both sets of samples had been aged at 64°C for 44 months under either the dry (top row) or the wet environment (bottom row).

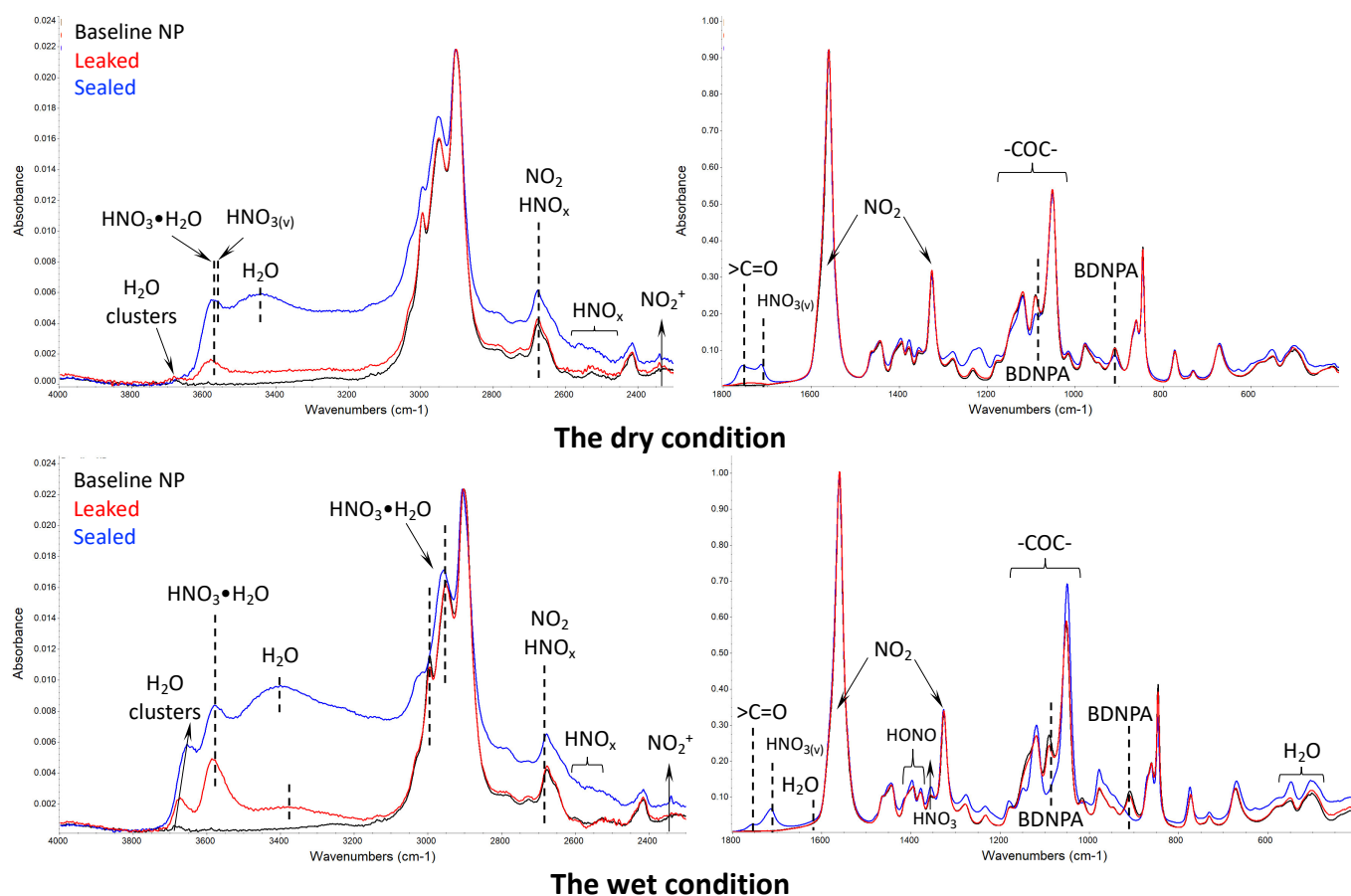


Figure 10. FTIR spectra of the leaked samples (red lines) and the sealed samples (blue lines) under the dry condition (top) and under the wet condition (bottom) at 64°C for 44 months.

Regardless of the aging environments, larger spectral changes are observed for the sealed samples compared with leaked samples. Aging at 64°C for 44 months, the intensities of the  $\text{HNO}_3$  (at  $\sim 3580 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and water/acid cluster (at  $3400\text{--}3200 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) peaks in the leaked samples grow noticeably, compared to those in the baseline sample. However, no significant changes are seen between  $3000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $450 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ .



<sup>1</sup> except for a small decrease in the intensity of BDNPA peaks at 1093 and 910  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  under the wet condition, suggesting that some hydrolysis occurred in the leaked sample aged under the wet condition, but not noticeable in the leaked sample aged under the dry condition. Conversely, in the sealed samples, the intensities of the  $\text{HNO}_3$  (at  $\sim 3580\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and water/acid (at  $3400\text{--}3200\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) peaks grow significantly in the HWN region. Accordingly, the intensity of the  $>\text{C}=\text{O}$  peak (at  $\sim 1760\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and  $\text{HNO}_{3(\text{v})}$  (at  $1710\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) peaks grows noticeably in the LWN region. All these large changes in the FTIR spectra of the sealed samples suggest that the accumulated volatiles can not only serve as reactants, but also as catalysts to accelerate oxidative and hydrolysis processes in the sealed samples. Elevated temperatures will enhance their auto-catalytic effects. As a result, the backbone structure of NP is severely changed through oxidation under the dry condition and through hydrolysis under the wet condition. Due to the reactivity and auto-catalytic effects of the accumulated products, NP degradation will be more advanced in a closed system than in a leaked system. This comparison indirectly demonstrates the effect of the headspace composition on the aging behavior of NP.

## 5. Conclusions

In the past several years, we have conducted a systematical aging experiment and attempted to understand how NP degradation starts and progresses under various conditions. Together with our previous publications and the work presented here, we have a much better understanding of the reaction mechanisms involved in the NP aging under moderate temperatures ( $<70^\circ\text{C}$ ). The major findings and achievements of these studies are:

- 1) DFT calculations are performed using the complete molecules of BDNPA and BDNPF. The calculated activation energy and Helmholtz free energy for the HONO elimination and HONO re-addition are almost the same as those found in the previous study when the “half of a BDNPA” molecule was used (in earlier work). One end of the complete molecule has negligible influence on the other end. For the HONO re-addition, the HO-NO re-addition to form nitroso alcohols isomers is more energetically favorable than the H-ONO re-addition to form nitrite isomers.
- 2) DFT calculations are further used to compare the activation energy and Helmholtz free energy of four reactions: HONO elimination,  $\text{NO}_2$  homolysis, reaction with water reaction, and reaction with a proton. The results suggest that under a pH neutral environment, HONO elimination is the most energetic favorable reaction.  $\text{NO}_2$  homolysis requires more than two times higher activation energy to proceed. *Water does not react with BDNPA and BDNPF under the moderate temperatures.* However, in the presence of proton, NP hydrolysis can occur. As the acidity increases, the activation energy of NP hydrolysis changes from positive to negative, which explains why there is an acidity threshold to trigger the NP hydrolysis.
- 3) NP degradation exhibits two stages: early and later.
  - a. In the early stage, HONO elimination is a key product through NP oxidation degradation. Due to its instability, HONO can decompose into water, NO and  $\text{NO}_2$ . These are reactive molecules that can further degrade NP via different reactions pathways, depending on the surrounding environment and temperatures. Overall degradation progresses very slowly (less than 1-2 wt%) in the early stage due to the protection PBNA and its derivatives [37]. The bulk properties of NP are well preserved.

- b. In the later stage, as the efficiency of the antioxidants decreases, the concentration of  $\text{HNO}_3$  increases. When  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentration is higher than 1.35 mM, NP degradation rapidly progresses into the secondary stage in which it is predominately degraded through acid-catalyzed hydrolysis [20]. Elevated temperatures accelerate this degradation process, which can greatly change the bulk properties of NP.
- 4) In our early work, we have suggested that BDNPA can preferentially degrade over BDNPF. However, the DFT calculations in the current study suggests that the activation energy and Helmholtz free energy for both BDNPA and BDNPF are very compatible via the HONO elimination reaction. On the other hand, the DFT simulations predict that BDNPA is more prone to hydrolysis than BDNPF under the acidic condition. These results explain why the BDNPA/F ratio is often observed unchanged when NP degrades predominantly through HONO elimination. However, once NP largely degrades, the BDNPA/F ratio largely decreases. Depending on the type of NP degradation, the BDNPA/F ratio might not properly reflect the property changes in aged NP.
- 5) Since compounds generated from HONO decomposition are volatile, the surrounding environment significantly alters the reaction pathways followed. At low temperatures (below  $55^\circ\text{C}$ ), an excess of water slows down NP degradation through the chemical equilibrium of  $2\text{HONO} \leftrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$ . Over dry condition under extensive evacuation the NP phase can trigger more HONO decomposition and hence accelerates the PBNA consumption and NP degradation.
- 6) Since headspace composition significantly impacts the aging behavior of NP, in future aging experiment design, the headspace volume of an aging container must be rigorously controlled as tight as possible to mimic the aging conditions when NP is involved in these applications.

Finally, by taking advantage of the knowledge gained from the previous studies, and the insights obtained from different characterization methods, the obtained wealth of information not only verifies the previously proposed mechanisms, but also identifies new reaction mechanism(s) occurring in the real-world application conditions. The ultimate goal of future LC/QTOF and IC studies is to build an extended library of degraded products and fragments, which could be used to search and identify the products found inside the stockpile. The compared results would help us predict the degree of degradation of the PBX 9501 inside the stockpile and thus help to predict the lifetime performance of PBX 9501 materials under various application conditions.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Justine Yang for aging sample preparation and some KF and FTIR analyses. We thank Kitmin Chen, Alex Edgar, Joel Kress, Cameron Moore, Paul Peterson, Robert Gilbertson, Phil Leonard, Troy Holland, and Brennan Billow for fruitful discussion of NP degradation topic in general. This research *used resources provided by* Los Alamos National Laboratory Aging and Lifetimes Program and *by the Los Alamos National Laboratory Institutional Computing Program*. Los Alamos National Laboratory is

operated by Triad National Security, LLC, for the National Nuclear Security Administration of the U.S. Department of Energy (Contract No.89233218CNA000001).

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