

#### **Energetic Materials**

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## Experimental Detection of Trinitramide, N(NO<sub>2</sub>)<sub>3</sub>\*\*

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There is an incentive for research directed towards new environmentally friendly oxidizers and energetic materials.[1-3] Recent examples for advances in polynitrogen chemistry are the bulk synthesis of the V-shaped  $N_5^{+,[4,5]}$  the tetrazole-based  $CN_7$ ,  $^{-[6]}$  and the detection of cyclic  $N_5^{-,[7,8]}$ Compounds containing exclusively oxygen and nitrogen are desirable for applications such as environmentally benign rocket propulsion. Of those, the dinitramide anion (N- $(NO_2)_2^{-})^{[9-11]}$  is the heaviest compound known to date.

Trinitramide (TNA; N(NO<sub>2</sub>)<sub>3</sub>) constitutes a possible energetic green oxidizer that could be suitable for future high-performance propellants. Only a few theoretical works have previously dealt with this hitherto unknown nitrogen oxide. [12–14] The heat of formation ( $\Delta H^0_{\rm f(gas)}$ ) of TNA has been estimated at between 38 and 71 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, [12–14] and the N–N bond dissociation energy has been estimated to be 20-27 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>.[13,14] The existence of an N<sub>4</sub>O<sub>6</sub> intermediate has also been speculated to explain observed decomposition kinetics of dinitraminic acid (HN(NO<sub>2</sub>)<sub>2</sub>) in nitric acid.<sup>[15]</sup> To the best of our knowledge, no synthetic effort toward TNA has been attempted. Herein we present the first experimental detection of this exotic molecule.

We initially subjected TNA to a thorough quantum chemical analysis. The aim of this study was to decipher the kinetic stability and different decomposition pathways in gas phase and in solution. We also performed calculations on two possible synthesis routes, and estimated physical properties such as density, heat of formation, vaporization, sublimation, and performance characteristics of TNA as a rocket-propellant component.

Proposed self-decomposition pathways available to TNA are shown in Scheme 1. The N-N bond dissociation enthalpy in the gas phase is calculated to be 28.2 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. Owing to the favorable change in entropy, this dissociation is likely the

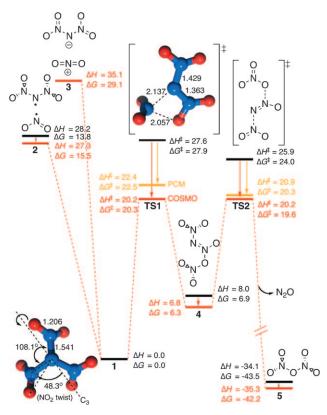
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Scheme 1. The potential-energy surface surrounding TNA (1) investigated at the CBS-QB3 level of theory (energies [kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>], bond lengths [Å]). Black and colored lines correspond to gas-phase (1 atm) and THF solution (1 M), respectively.

dominant route for decomposition in the gas phase. The transition state TS1 (Scheme 1) was found to be in close competition with the homolytic bond fission, with a barrier corresponding to a relative free energy of 27.9 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>.

Surprisingly, DFT methods, such as the widely used B3LYP, or the more recent B2PLYP functional, fail in describing the energy landscape of both these pathways. The barrier heights are underestimated by 8–11 kcalmol<sup>-1</sup> compared to CBS-QB3 (extrapolated CCSD(T)) and SCS-MP2 calculations, which are in very good agreement. As we know from previous studies that B3LYP, B2PLYP, and highlevel ab initio methods (such as CCSD(T) and SCS-MP2) behave very similarly when treating N(NO<sub>2</sub>)<sub>2</sub> and its radical, [16] and, given the high accuracy of the latter methods, we can safely assume that the error by DFT stems from an overestimation of the TNA ground state energy. Thus, the limited interest in TNA might be caused by the wide use of B3LYP, which underestimates its stability.

The character of **TS1** is between a NO<sub>2</sub> radical and a NO<sub>2</sub> cation transfer, with an increased importance of the latter in

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solvated media. There is therefore a large solvent effect on the activation barrier. In a low-polarity solvent, the free-energy barrier for **TS1** is estimated to be only 20–23 kcal  $\text{mol}^{-1}$ , depending on solvation method. Thus, compared to homolytic (1 $\rightarrow$ 2) and heterolytic (1 $\rightarrow$ 3) bond fission, passage over **TS1** is clearly the dominant decomposition pathway in solution. Based on the assumed first-order decomposition kinetics, TNA should exhibit a half-life of roughly 10 days at  $-40\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ , or 230 years at  $-80\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

The initial decomposition products of TNA are predicted to be  $NO_2$ ,  $N_2O$ , and  $NO_3$  gas, which are produced by the rupture of conformer **4** through **TS2** (Scheme 1).  $NO_2$  and  $NO_3$  are expected to combine into dinitrogen pentoxide  $(N_2O_5; 5)$ , which in turn is in equilibrium with its ionic constituents  $NO_2^+$  and  $NO_3^-$ . HNO<sub>3</sub> is likely to be generated through subsequent hydrogen abstraction reactions involving  $NO_3$ , protonation of  $NO_3^-$ , and hydrolysis of  $NO_2^+$ .

It has been demonstrated that the variation of the electrostatic potential (ESP) over the molecular surface can be correlated to several macroscopic properties reflecting intermolecular interaction tendencies, such as lattice enthalpy, heat of sublimation, and boiling point. [17,18] We have estimated the heat of vaporization ( $\Delta H_{\rm vap} \approx 7.8$  kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>) and sublimation ( $\Delta H_{\rm sub} \approx 6.6$  kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>) of TNA from its computed surface ESP. On the basis of comparisons with a range of other compounds, such as tetranitromethane ( $\Delta H_{\rm vap} = 11.9$  kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>,  $T_{\rm m} = 13.8$  °C), trinitromethane ( $\Delta H_{\rm vap} = 13.1$  kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>,  $T_{\rm m} = 15$  °C), and benzene ( $\Delta H_{\rm vap} = 8.0$  kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>,  $T_{\rm m} = 5.5$  °C), we predict pure TNA to be in liquid form close to ambient temperatures, where it will decompose rapidly.

The solid-state density of TNA was estimated to be  $(2.00\pm0.06)~{\rm g\,cm^{-3}}$  directly from its theoretical molecular volume ( $V=126~{\rm \AA}^3$ ). The value exceeds that of most high energy density materials, such as 1,3,5-trinitro-1,3,5-triazine (RDX;  $1.82~{\rm g\,cm^{-3}}$ ) and 1,3,5,7-tetranitro-1,3,5,7-tetrazocine (HMX;  $1.91~{\rm g\,cm^{-3}}$ ), and it rivals that of high-performance oxidizers and explosives, such as ammonium perchlorate (AP;  $1.95~{\rm g\,cm^{-3}}$ ) and hexanitrohexaazaisowurtzitane (CL-20;  $2.05~{\rm g\,cm^{-3}}$ ).

 $\Delta H^0_{\rm f(gas)}$  of TNA was calculated to be  $(54.8\pm2)~{\rm kcal\,mol^{-1}}$  by combining highly accurate experimental heats of formations with theoretical reaction energies (see the Supporting Information). Our  $\Delta H^0_{\rm f(gas)}$  value is in poor agreement with earlier B3LYP estimates  $(71~{\rm kcal\,mol^{-1}})^{[14]}$  The agreement is somewhat better with reported MP2 values  $(50\text{--}65~{\rm kcal\,mol^{-1}})^{[13,14]}$  The large difference is again explained by B3LYPs overestimation of the TNA ground-state energy. The heat of formation in the condensed phase was estimated to be  $\Delta H^0_{\rm f(s)} = (48.4\pm5)~{\rm kcal\,mol^{-1}}$  by subtracting our calculated heat of sublimation,  $\Delta H_{\rm sub}$ , from  $\Delta H^0_{\rm f(gas)}$ .

Theoretical performances of hypothetical TNA-based propellants have been compared to similar liquid oxygen (LOX), nitrogen tetroxide (NTO), and AP mixtures (see the Supporting Information). TNA is expected to provide specific impulses (Ns kg<sup>-1</sup>) that are comparable to all three references when combusting similar fuels. Owing to a higher density, the TNA propellants are expected to enable a roughly 30% higher density impulse (Ns L<sup>-1</sup>) than LOX, a 16–20%

improvement to NTO when combusting hydrogen-rich fuels, and a 19% increase as compared to AP when combusting aluminum. Thus, provided that feasible synthesis and handling of TNA can be managed, it could constitute an environmentally friendly high-performance oxidizer for cryogenic rocket engines.

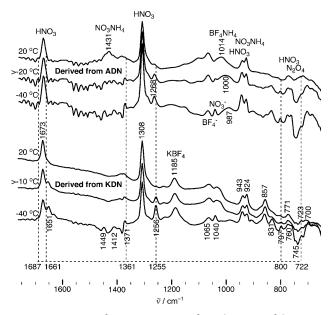
Two synthetic routes to TNA were considered [Eq. (1) and (2)]. Based on previous theoretical work, [^{16]} the  $N(NO_2)_2$  radical can be assumed to be reasonably stable, and it might constitute an intermediate to TNA. The oxidation of  $N(NO_2)_2^-$  requires a positive absolute potential of at least  $4.4 \, \text{eV}$ . [^{19]} Thus, electrochemical synthesis of TNA by electrochemical oxidation of  $N(NO_2)_2^-$ , in the presence of  $N_2O_4$ , appears reasonable at low temperatures [Eq. (1)].

A second alternative is direct nitration of  $N(NO_2)_2^-$  [Eq. (2)]. The procedure requires a strong nitration agent, which allows the nitronium cation  $(NO_2^+)$  to be present in free form. The calculated electrostatic potential of  $N(NO_2)_2^-$  reveals that the negative charge is predominantly delocalized over the oxygen atoms.<sup>[20]</sup> However, the central nitrogen still holds some negative charge, and the greater thermodynamic gain associated with nitrogen addition, in contrast to oxygen addition, should enable a selectivity towards TNA (1) ahead of the less stable conformer 4.

$$N(NO_2)_2 \xrightarrow{ox} N(NO_2)_2 + e^{-\frac{NO_2 \cdot}{2}} N(NO_2)_3$$
 (1)

$$N(NO_2)_2^{-} \xrightarrow{NO_2^+} N(NO_2)_3$$
 (2)

The second route was chosen, and TNA was obtained by low-temperature nitration of both ammonium dinitramide (ADN) and potassium dinitramide (KDN) in acetonitrile, using  $NO_2BF_4$  as nitration agent. In situ IR spectroscopy was used to follow the reaction from  $-40\,^{\circ}\text{C}$  up to room temperature (Figure 1). The main IR bands originating from



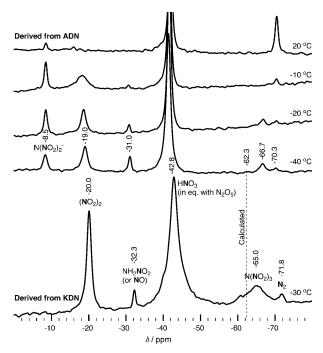
**Figure 1.** IR spectra of reaction mixtures after subtraction of the acetonitrile background at different temperatures. Theoretical frequencies of TNA are overlaid as dashed lines.



 $N(NO_2)_2^-$  (1520, 1188 and 1007 cm<sup>-1</sup>) disappear when a sufficient amount of  $NO_2BF_4$  is added. Nitric acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>) was detected in ample amounts (1673, 1308, and 771 cm<sup>-1</sup>). This is expected, as any residual water in the reactant solutions would have hydrolyzed  $NO_2^+$ .

Six IR bands (1673, 1651, 1371, 1256, 797, and 723 cm<sup>-1</sup>) appeared, in good agreement with our theoretical estimate for TNA (Figure 1 and Supporting Information). The bands disappeared when the temperature was raised from -40 °C towards room temperature, in good agreement with the theoretical estimates.

TNA was also identified by low-temperature <sup>14</sup>N NMR spectroscopy (Figure 2). Natural-abundance <sup>15</sup>N NMR spectroscopy did not provide sufficient signal-to-noise ratio. The



*Figure 2.*  $^{14}$ N NMR spectra of reaction mixtures at different temperatures. Omitted are higher chemical shifts from acetonitrile (-138 pmm, solvent),  $N_2O$  (-146 and -230 ppm), and  $NH_4^+$  (-360 ppm).

nitro groups of TNA were assigned to a peak seen between -66.7 and -64.8 ppm. These values are in good agreement with our theoretical estimate of -62.3 ppm. Aside from being of one-third intensity, the signal of the central nitrogen atom most likely suffers from extensive broadening owing to quadrupolar relaxation; [21] the highest principal value of the electric field gradient tensor is estimated to be almost one order of magnitude larger for central nitrogen than that for the other nitrogen atoms (both for  $N(NO_2)_2^-$  and TNA; see the Supporting Information). Thus, the line width of the central nitrogen atom can be two orders of magnitude larger than that for the nitro groups. TNA was seen to decompose when the temperature exceeded approximately -10 °C, in agreement with the IR study. Some HNO<sub>3</sub> (-41.4 ppm) was found already in the  $NO_2BF_4$  reagent solution, where also

 $NO_2^+$  was present at -132 ppm. This was expected to be due to the hygroscopic nature of the  $NO_2BF_4$  salt.

After combination of the reagents at low temperature, six resonances appeared.  $N_2O$  was seen in large amounts at -147 and -231 ppm. Its existence can be explained by the decomposition of both TNA and  $N(NO_2)_2^{-.[16,19,22]}$  A peak at -19 ppm (shift values refer to ADN solutions, shifts in KDN solutions are slightly different) was designated to  $N_2O_4$ , in excellent agreement with literature values. [23] This species is also expected to form, through decomposition of both  $N(NO_2)_2^{-[16,19,22]}$  and TNA (Scheme 1). In some cases, when extremely dry reagents were used, or when an excess of  $NO_2BF_4$  was added, an  $HNO_3-N_2O_5$  equilibrium was observed between -40 and -55 ppm.

A peak at -31 ppm was identified as  $NH_2NO_2$ , in good agreement with both our theoretical estimates (-35.1 ppm) and literature values. [24] The formation of  $NH_2NO_2$  is explained by nitration of ammonia, which could form through proton abstraction from  $NH_4^+$ , or from decomposition of  $N(NO_2)_2^-$  in the presence of protons. The peak could also correspond to some sort of unstable NO complex, as previously suggested. [25]  $N_2$  was found at -71 ppm.

The nitro groups of  $N(NO_2)_2^-$  were observed at -8.5 ppm, in good agreement with previous measurements. The stability of  $N(NO_2)_2^-$  is reduced in the very harsh environment, and it was seen to slowly decompose into  $HNO_3$ ,  $N_2O_4$ , and  $N_2O$  above a temperature of approximately  $0^{\circ}C$ .

The peaks designated to  $NH_2NO_2$  (or NO) and  $N_2O_4$  disappeared above  $-10\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ . This also in agreement with literature, which has shown that  $NH_2NO_2$  under acidic conditions decomposes to  $HNO_3$  above  $-5\,^{\circ}\text{C}.^{[27]}$   $N_2O_4$  is likely dissociated into  $NO_2$  at higher temperatures (or could also be oxidized or hydrolyzed).

To summarize, we have subjected TNA to an extensive theoretical investigation that led to its detection at low temperature by IR and NMR spectroscopy. The molecule is by far the largest nitrogen oxide known, and it is predicted to have excellent properties as an oxidizer for cryogenic propulsion.

#### **Experimental Section**

**Caution!** Several of the used and investigated compounds are highly energetic. They should be handled on a small scale while using appropriate safety precautions, such as a face shield, leather gloves, and protective clothing.

Materials: Acetonitrile (anhydrous,  $\geq 99.8\,\%$ , Sigma–Aldrich), NO<sub>2</sub>BF<sub>4</sub> ( $\geq 95.0\,\%$ , Fluka), 2-propanol (99.8 %, Scharlau), diethyl ether (99.9 %, Prolabs); ammonium dinitramide (ADN; batch ADN-0546172,  $\geq 99.2\,\%$ ) and potassium dinitramide (KDN; batch KDN-502,  $> 99.5\,\%$ ) were kindly supplied by Eurenco Bofors. ADN (1.0 g) was dried by dissolving in methanol (1.6 mL), filtering, and precipitating in cold (<  $-20\,^{\circ}$ C) diethyl ether (100 mL). KDN (1.1 g) was dried by dissolving in distilled water (2 mL), filtering, and precipitating in cold (<  $-20\,^{\circ}$ C) 2-propanol (100 mL). Both solids were stored at 50 °C during the 48 h before use.

Nitration of dinitramide salts, method 1:  $NO_2BF_4$  (53.2 mg, 0.4 mmol, partly hydrolyzed) was sealed in a glass vial under argon and dissolved in cold (ca. -20°C) and dry acetonitrile (2 mL, 0.2 m). ADN (24.8 mg, 0.2 mmol) and KDN (29 mg, 0.2 mmol) were each dissolved in dry acetonitrile (1 mL, 0.2 m) and kept under argon. In a

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typical experiment, either of the dinitramide solutions was lowered into an acetonitrile/ $CO_2(s)$  cold bath  $(-40\,^{\circ}C)$ .  $NO_2BF_4$  solution (1~mL) was then added by slow dropwise addition with stirring. The reaction to form TNA was instantaneous.

Nitration of dinitramide salts, method 2: To limit the exothermicity associated with method 1 (which can result in low or no yield), pure  $NO_2BF_4$  was added directly to frozen solutions of ADN and KDN. Subsequent slow dissolution of  $NO_2BF_4$  at -40 or  $-30\,^{\circ}\text{C}$  provided better thermal control.

<sup>14</sup>N NMR: (36.1 MHz, -40 °C, acetonitrile):  $\delta$  = -66.8 to -64.8 ppm (s, 3N, N(NO<sub>2</sub>)<sub>3</sub>). IR: (acetonitrile, -40 °C):  $\tilde{v}$  = 1673 (s), 1651 (s), 1371 (w), 1256–1263 (s), 797 (w), 723 (w) cm<sup>-1</sup>.

Apparatus: <sup>14</sup>N NMR spectra were acquired on a Bruker 500 Avance III spectrometer. The chemical shift scale was referenced by setting the frequency of 0.2 m nitromethane in acetonitrile to zero ppm at -40 °C. Up to four thousand transients were accumulated with a repetition time of 1 s. IR measurements were made on a ReactIR iC10 from Mettler Toledo equipped with a SiComp probe using the iCIR software. One spectrum (256 scans) was measured per minute.

Computational details: Reported relative energies were calculated using CBS-QB3<sup>[28]</sup> in Gaussian 03.<sup>[29]</sup> Solvation energies were obtained at the COSMO-B2PLYP<sup>[30]</sup>/aug-cc-pVTZ//PCM-B3LYP/6-31 + G(d) level using the ORCA<sup>[31]</sup> program.<sup>[19]</sup> The density of TNA was obtained from the volume of its 0.001 a.u. electron density contour using a B3LYP/6-31G(d) wavefunction and the HS95-v09[32] program.  $\Delta H_{\mathrm{vap}}$  and  $\Delta H_{\mathrm{sub}}$  were obtained from the calculated electrostatic potential (ESP) at the same level, using a parameterization relationship. ^[33]  $\Delta H^0_{\rm \ f(gas)}$  was obtained from an average of three CBS-QB3 reaction enthalpies combined with experimental data. Nuclear magnetic shielding tensors were calculated in acetonitrile at the GIAO-PCM-B3LYP/6-311 ++ (3df,3pd) level. IR spectra in acetonitrile were calculated at the PCM-B3LYP/6-31+G(d) level and scaled by 0.972 for best fit with experimental results. Rocketpropellant performance was calculated using the NASA CEA code.  $\ensuremath{^{[34]}}$ More information is given in the Supporting Information.

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