A DIFFERENTIAL THERMAL ANALYSIS INVESTIGATION TO DETERMINE THE SENSITIVITY OF LEAD AZIDE IN VARIOUs GASEOUS ATMOSPHERES

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ABSTRACT

The sensitivity of lead azide RD 1333 was investigated in various gases by differe al thermal analysis (DTA) to determine which atmospheric conditions could affect its ignition temperature and "critical" weight. It was found that water vapor and, to a lesser extent, pure oxygen distinctly changed the decomposition temperature (exotherms) and critical weights of lead azide.

Small samples of lead azide thermally programmed in atmospheres containing essentially dry argon, nitrogen, carbon dioxide or air produced exotherms between 319 and 333OC. Atmospheres which contained even small amounts of water vapor caused a shift of the lead azide exotherm t₀ 348-357°C and 377-298°C at a heating rate of 10°C min-'. Critical weights changed from 0.7 mg in dry atmospheres to 11.0 mg in open air.

An autoignition temperature of 292'C for lead azide heated in an aluminum detonator cup and an apparent activation energy of $43\,000$ cal mole⁻¹ were obtained. 10% additions of the fine copper, lead, or aluminum caused no change in the decomposition tempera**mg** in dry argon or nitrogen.

INTRODUCTION

Lead azide, $Pb(N_3)_2$, is a salt of hydrozoic acid, HN_3 , and exists in two **forms, orthorhombic (** α **, density 4.71 g cm⁻³) and monoclinic (** β **, density** 4.93 g cm⁻³). It has a wide military use as a primary high explosive. Fol**lowing a series of unexplained explosions involving non-electrical initiators, and subsequent to the conclusion that the factor common to all these explo** sions was lead azide, a study was initiated to investigate the high-temperature **reactions of lead azide by differential thermal analysis (DTA).**

A technique to differentiate between the thermal sensitivity of lead azide in different gaseous atmospheres and with different additives was adopted from a report published in 1968 [Xl. This technique consisted of obtaining the critical mass of explosive below which it would not explode. The critical mass is a term used to denote the minimum mass of an explosive relative to a specific shape and environment necessary to sustain a chain reaction. At a fixed kating rate in a standard size cup, it should be reasonable to define the critical mass as the minimum weight which would explode, since an **explosion can be considered to be a climax of a chain reaction. Thus, the**

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critical mass as defined here is the minimum weight of sample which would explode in a fixed and specified condition at an elevated temperature. It is then a measure of the sensitivity of the tested explosive.

Thermal sensitivity is a means to determine relative sensitivity. It must not be construed as an indication of handling characteristics for lead azide.

TABLE 1

Lead azide RD 1333, Du Pont Lot 51-49 A. Chemical and physical requirements

B. Ingredients used in the manufacture of lead azide RD 1333

* The crystal growth control agent specified in MIL-L-46225C(MU) was used in the manufacture of RD 1333 lead azide in the lot covered by this certification.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

DTA was conducted on a Deltatherm III DTA accessory [2]. Two steel thermocups, to which alumel-chromel thermocouples were welded, were placed within an open cylindrical steel sample block with a separation of a few millimeters of open space. The sample and reference material (quartz) were placed in 0.14-in. diameter **X** 0.225 in. high steel cups situated inside the thermocups. Although this system would essentially relay the surface temperature, the tiny samples preclude any variation in temperature from the interior of the reference or sample. Thermograms were recorded on a Mosely 7100 B two-pen time base recorder. One pen recorded the temperature of the reference material and the other the temperature difference, ΔT , of the two cups at a space of 0.1 in. advanced on the time axis (abscissa).

TG was conducted on a Deltatherm III TG accessory. The sample was placed on a top-loaded balance inside a cylindrical area. Nitrogen was passed across the sample, but the system was open to air through the electronics section. A thermocouple to record the approximate temperature of the sample was located 1 mm from the bottom of the sample tube. The sample was placed in **the same steel** cups as were used for **DTA. Thermogravimetric** experiments were recorded on a two-pen time base recorder. One pen recorded the temperature from the above-mentioned thermocouple, the other responded to the weight loss of the sample.

Nitrogen, argon and oxygen came from commercial grade cylinders, the carbon dioxide was bone dry grade and the compressed air came directly from the air lines at Arradcom. The flow rate was controlled by a Matheson low flow flowmeter. The compressed air was dried by passing it through a 150 mm straight drying tube filled with a chemical drying agent.

An analysis of the lead azide used in all these experiments appears in Table 1. Metallic lead added to the lead azide was from Fisher Scientific and labeled finest powder, metallic copper was Fisher Scientific Electrolytic Dust, Purified and the aluminum was labeled atomized, 6 $m\mu$ from the Alcan Aluminum Company.

The height of the cup is critical if exotherms are to be obtained from tiny non-explosive samples of lead azide. The autoignition temperature was obtained by heating the lead azide RD 1333 (Table 1) in 0.167 in. high \times 0.143 in. o.d. aluminum cups by a previously described procedure [2].

RESULTS

The results in Table 2 indicate that the critical mass for lead azide RD 1333, DuPont Lot 51-49, **in dry,** non-reactive gas is 0.7 mg at a temperature between 320 and 330°C for the experimental conditions used here. The critical mass diminished only when aluminum powder was added to the lead azide sample. The results also indicate that moist air and oxygen had affected the critical mass of lead azide to make the explosive less sensitive.

Further analysis of the same trends indicated by the data in Table 2 was conducted with sample sizes of less than the critical masses in the same

$\begin{array}{ccc}\n\textbf{TABLE 2} & \qquad & \vdots\n\end{array}$

Critical weights of lead azide, RD i333, DuPont Lot 51-49 Heating rate 10° C min⁻¹.

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Fig. 2. DTA of lead azide RD 1333 in nitrogen. Sample weight, 0.6 mg; gas flow **rate, 30** ml min⁻¹; heating rate, 10° C min⁻¹.

atmospheres. The results from these thermograms are listed in Table 3 **together with the previous results in which explosions occurred.**

The data in Table 3 indicate that at least three distinctive exotherms exist for lead azide RD 1333, DuPont Lot 51-49, depending on the size of sample and the atmosphere which flows around it. The temperatures in Table 3 obtained from these exotherms are: the temperature at the initial departure from the base line, the temperature at the base of the steepest slope to the **peak, the temperature at the peak of the exotherms, and the peak height,** which is measured in ΔT ^oC.

The chemical reaction as interpreted from DT.A is also included. A description of these exotherms, an interpretation of them, and their importance to understanding spontaneous detonation are discussed in **the following** paragraphs.

Table 4 includes DTA data from samples of lead azide at or below the critical weight mixed with fine powders of aluminum, copper, and lead. The data in Table 5 come from recent thermccurves of mostly small samples of

DTA of lead azide RD 1333, DuPont Lot 51-49, in steel cups DTA of lead azide RD 1333, DuPont Lot 51-49, in steel cups

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TABLE 3

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Fig. 3. DTA of lead azide RD 1333 in a system open to the air. Sample weight, 1.2 mg; heating rate, 10° C min⁻¹.

lead azide of less than the critical weight. This data is used to calculate the autoignition temperature and the activation energy by a modified Kissinger technique 12 . Table 1 contains specification limits for RD 1333 as well as a chemical analysis and the ingredients used to manufacture lead azide RD 1333.

DISCUSSION

The first exotherm (lowest in temperature) has been assigned to decomposing or exploding lead azide [l] (Figs. 1 and 2). This exotherm appears between 319 and 333° C depending on the size of the sample and the thermal conductivity of the surrounding atmosphere. Thermocurves of lead azide RD 1333, DuPont Lot 51-49, samples of less than the critical weight in moist atmospheres show a decrease in the height or a disappearance of the first exotherm and the appearance of a large exotherm at a higher tempera'ure (Fig. 3 and Table 3). TG of samples of lead azide RD 1333, DuPont Lot 51-49,

Fig. 4. TG of Iead azide RD 1333 in argon. Sample weight, 8.0 mg; gas flow rate, 5 ml min^{-1} ; heating rate, 10^{o} C min⁻¹; total weight loss, 1.7 mg.

tested in a system open to the atmosphere but with a 5 ml min⁻¹ flow of nitrogen across the sample holder indicated that the largest weight loss occurred between 273 and 320°C. The weight loss was perceptible, however, beginning at 220°C (Fig. 4). Since no distinguishable exotherms appeared on any thermocurves below 319°C, the indications are that a slow oxidation reaction takes place which converts the lead azide to basic lead azide when any moisture is present. Conversion of the lead azide to $PbN_6 \cdot PbO$ would result in an 11.7% theoretical weight loss [3]. This is in agreement with the weight loss up to 310°C.

An identification of exotherms 2 and 3 (over 333° C) was attempted by means of a literature search. These exotherms were indentified as being produced by decomposing basic lead azide which exists in two modifications PbN₆ \cdot PbO and 2 PbN₆ \cdot 5 PbO [3]. It is reported that only 0.11-0.20 wt.% of water vapor $(1 \times 10^{-3}$ mg of water) is sufficient to produce basic lead azide. The mechanism by which lead azide is hydrolyzed by water vapor to basic lead azide appears in ref. 4.

Appreciation of the efficacy of water on lead azide was an incidental result of decomp $\tilde{\mathbf{c}}$ sing lead azide in an atmosphere of compressed air. The L:.

Fig. 5. DTA of lead azide RD 1333 in air passed through ascarite. Sample weight, 1.8 mg; gas flow rate, **30** ml min-' ; heating rate, **10°C** min-'.

compressed air was piped over 2000 ft. from a compressor to where it was used in the thermal analyzer. Although a trap existed for separating water from the air, the air was not dried. Since only 0.11-0.20% water vapor is needed to produce basic lead azide, the compressed air probably always contained at least this minimum amount.

AU experiments with lead azide conducted in undried compressed air showed the basic lead azide peak at approximately **390" C** whenever a sample size of less than 0.0020 g was analyzed. The weight specification is necessary since larger samples of lead azide produced sufficient heat at 323-333°C to explode.

The next task was to determine which component of the compressed air was responsible for the larger critical weights and higher temperature exotherms of lead azide RD 1333, DuPont 51-49. Carbon dioxide was removed from the compressed air by passing the air through a tube of ascarite (a mixture of sodium hydroxide and asbestos). This mixture also has the ability to dry the air to a residual water content of 0.16 mg of water per liter of air [5]. Lead azide, tested in air passed through ascarite, showed a reduced critical weight, but still produced large, higher-temperature exotherms

Fig. 6. DTA of lead azide RD 1333 in dry carbon dioxide. Sample weight, 0.5 mg: **flow rate, 30 ml min-'** ; **heating rate, 10°C** min-'.

(Fig. 5 and Tablector 3). A dry atmosphere of carbon dioxide resulted in lead azide thermocurves identical to the thermocurves of lead azide obtained in argon (Fig. 6 and Table 2). The conclusion from these analyses was that carbon dioxide does not react with the lead azide. It is the dessication property **of ascarite which resulted in the diminshed critical weight of the lead azide.**

Compressed air was next passed through phosphorus pentoxide (P_2O_5) , a more efficient drying agent (residual water content 2×10^{-5} mg of water per liter of air [5]) but one of limited capacity. The use of fresh P_2O_5 resulted in the disappearance of the higher-temperature exotherms (above 333°C) (Fig. 7 and Table 3). The critical weight in compressed air decreased to within 0.2 mg of the minimum explosion weight which occurs in a dry argon atmosphere. The effect of water vapor on the thermal performance of lead azide was thus found to be quite drastic. On the second day that the P_2O_5 was utilized unreplenished to dry the compressed air, the higher-temperature exotherms reappeared and the critical weight was noticed to have also risen (Fig. 7 and Table 3). The first day's test on lead azide with P_2O_5 -dried air produced a black residue which could contain lead. The residue from the

Fig. 7. DTA of lead azide RD 1333 in air passed through fresh phosphorus pentoxide. **Sample weight, 0.7 mg; gas flow rate, 30 ml min-'** ; **heating rate, 10°C min-'**

lead azide decomposition (produced by the second day's use of the same P_2O_5) was orange. (The color of Pb_2O_3 , which is the stable lead oxide between 375 and 460°C, is orange.)

In order to complete the investigation concerning the effect of compressed air on lead azide, thermal analysis was conducted in an atmosphere of oxygen from a commercial cylinder. The specifications for commercial grade oxygen call for a dew point of better than -70° F which is equivalent to 1 X 10^{-5} mg of residual water per liter. Any alteration in the performance of lead azide would then be due to oxygen and not water vapor. The critical weight of the lead azide increased slightly (Table 2) and higher-temperature e_{λ} otherms appeared when a small sample size was used (Fig. 8). The extent of the change was considered minor in comparison with the drastic changes brought about by water vapor. The mechanism of formation of basic lead azide is the hydrolysis by water vapor of lead azide at temperatures above 130°C [S]. Perhaps another, but less important, mechanism may be the direct reaction of oxygen with free lead to also form basic lead azide.

If the sensitivity of lead azide can be controlled with water vapor, then the possibility exists that the absence of water vapor could lead to spontaneous detonation. The mechanism to control the sensitivity of lead azide would be the production of basic lead azide nuclei during the induction period of the lead azide decomposition reaction. The probability then exists that the autocatalytic decomposition [4] can be poisoned during its induction period by oxidation of the reaction catalyst, free lead.

The mechanism for the autocatalytic decomposition [6] is

 $2 N_3 \rightarrow 3 N_2 + 2 e$

 $Pb^{2+}+2e$ + Pb

In a review and analysis of previous decomposition studies on lead azide, there is accumulated data for lead azide decomposed in a vacuum (no water vapor) and iead azide decomposed in air (water vapor present) [3]. It is reported that the decomposition of lead azide is autocatalytic and results in a S-shaped curve of gas volume vs. time. The decomposition of basic lead azide, on the other hand, produces a linear plot of gas volume vs. time. A possibility exists that the presence of moisture is necessary to poison a spontaneous chain reaction of dry lead azide by producing basic lead azide.

The data from ref. 4 that less than 8.9 mm of water vapor must be present to obtain an autocatalytic reaction is corroborated by the data in Table 3.

TABLE 4

DTA of lead azide RD 1333, DuPont Lot 15-49, with 10% metallic additive

Heating rate 10° C min⁻¹.

Fig. 8. DTA of lead azide RD 1333 in oxygen. Sample weight. 0.5 mg; gas flow rate, 30 ml min⁻¹; heating rate, 10° C min⁻¹.

When the water vapor level was less than 8.9 mm, only the lead azide 320°C exotherm was prominent. As the moisture concentration increased slightly, such as when a slower flow of argon was used or when the drying agent became less efficient, both the lead azide and basic lead azide exotherms were observed (Figs. 9 and IO).

In an atmosphere of compressed air dried with fresh phosphorus pentoxide (drying efficiency 2×10^{-5} mg of residual water per liter of air), only the lead azide 320°C exotherm appeared (Fig. 7). When the compressed air was dried with ascarite (drying efficiency 0.16 mg of residual water per liter of air) and passed over the lead azide sample, the basic lead azide ezotherm at 380°C appeared. The 320°C lead azide exotherm was indicative of an autocatalytic decomposition. The 350 and 380°C basic lead azide exotherms were indicative of a decomposition which was linear for gas volume vs. temperature.

Dry carbon dioxide, nitrogen and argon did not react with lead azide. The critical weight and the decomposition temperature of the bad azide RD

Fig. 9. DTA of lead azide RD 1333 in air passed through one day old phosphorus pentoxide. Sample weight, 0.7 mg; gas flow rate, 30 ml min-' ; **heating rate, 10°C min-' .**

1333, **DuPont Lot** 51-49, was **approximately ihe same in dry argon, nitrogen** or carbon dioxide. Any variations in the temperature of the lead azide exotherm or the explosion temperature are probably due to differences in the thermal conductivities of argon, nitrogen and carbon dioxide at 319-333°C. The information accumulated in this report indicates that the surfaces of lead azide crystals are very reactive to hydrolysis by water vapor at elevated temperature; the formation of the less sensitive basic lead azide nuclei is dependent on the vapor pressure of water. Only when all moisture and perhaps oxygen are consumed in a sealed component can the catalytic lead nuclei be found [7].

The data in Table 4 represent an attempt to find the effect of metallic impurities on lead azide. 10% fine aluminum, copper or lead were mixed with lead azide RD 1333, DuPont Lot 51-49. The intention of these experiments was to test less than the critical weight of lead azide in argon or nitrogen and

Fig. 10. DTA of lead azide RD 1333 in argon. Sample weight, 0.5 mg; gas flow rate, 6 ml min-' ; **heating rate, 10°C min-I.**

observe differences in explosion temperature. No temperature changes occurred as can be seen in Table 4, but the 10% aluminum reduced the critical weight of lead azide. An exothermic chemical reaction between aluminum and nitrogen freed from decomposed lead azide must be considered probable. Copper in the presence of moisture has been reported to form the dangerous sensitive compound copper azide [S]. In these experiments, the lead azide in contact with copper was decomposed in dry atmospheres of argon and nitrogen and no evidence of sensitization appeared.

The autoignition temperature of lead azide RD 1333 was found by a procedure described earlier [Z] and from the data listed in Table 5 to be 290°C. Below this temperature, lead azide appears to decompose into nitrogen and lead without explosion. An activation energy of $43\,000$ cal mole⁻¹ from Fig. 11 is close to the theoretical value of $41,300$ cal mole⁻¹ reported for pure lead azide [S]. Examination of the chemical analysis in Table 1 would suggest that RD 1333 of purity 98.43% should be most similar to pure lead ' azide for activation energy.

Fig. 11. Heating rate vs. absolute temperature of DTA exotherm peak of lead azide RD 1333. Activation energy, 43 236 cal mole-l.

TABLE 5

DTA data for calculation of activation energy

Atmosphere: 20 ml min⁻¹ nitrogen.

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