

Final Report
for the period
2 March 1987 to
31 May 1987

Theoretical Studies of Highly Energetic CBES Materials

December 1990

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F04611-87-C-0026

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Air Force Space Technology Center
Space Systems Division
Air Force Systems Command
Edwards AFB CA 93523-5000

AD-A231 340

NOTICE

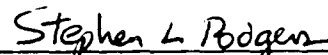
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FOREWORD

This final report was submitted by Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge LA on completion of contract F04611-87-K-0026 with the Astronautics Laboratory (AFSC), Edwards AFB CA. The AL Project Manager was Captain Pete Dolan.

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REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE

Form Approved
OMB No. 0704-0188

1a. REPORT SECURITY CLASSIFICATION Unclassified		1b. RESTRICTIVE MARKINGS	
2a. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION AUTHORITY		3. DISTRIBUTION / AVAILABILITY OF REPORT Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited	
2b. DECLASSIFICATION / DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE			
4. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER(S)		5. MONITORING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER(S) AL-TR-90-060	
6a. NAME OF PERFORMING ORGANIZATION Louisiana State University	6b. OFFICE SYMBOL (if applicable)	7a. NAME OF MONITORING ORGANIZATION Astronautics Laboratory (AFSC)	
6c. ADDRESS (City, State, and ZIP Code) Department of Physics and Astronomy Baton Rouge Louisiana 70803-4001		7b. ADDRESS (City, State, and ZIP Code) AL/LSXP Edwards AFB CA 93523-5000	
8a. NAME OF FUNDING / SPONSORING ORGANIZATION	8b. OFFICE SYMBOL (if applicable)	9. PROCUREMENT INSTRUMENT IDENTIFICATION NUMBER F04611-87-C-0026	
8c. ADDRESS (City, State, and ZIP Code)		10. SOURCE OF FUNDING NUMBERS	
		PROGRAM ELEMENT NO 62302F	PROJECT NO 5730
		TASK NO 008G	WORK UNIT ACCESSION NO 343380
11. TITLE (Include Security Classification) Theoretical Studies of Highly Energetic CBES Materials (U)			
12. PERSONAL AUTHOR(S) Nathan E. Brener, Neil R. Kestner, and Joseph Callaway			
13a. TYPE OF REPORT Final	13b. TIME COVERED FROM 870302 TO 870531	14. DATE OF REPORT (Year, Month, Day) 9012	15. PAGE COUNT 70
16. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTATION			
17. COSATI CODES		18. SUBJECT TERMS (Continue on reverse if necessary and identify by block number)	
FIELD	GROUP	SUB-GROUP	
07	02		
		High Energy Density Materials, Propellants, Ab Initio Calculations, N ₂ , N ₄ , FN ₃ , HN ₃ , Simulated Annealing	
19. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse if necessary and identify by block number)			
This is the final report of a theoretical research investigation which was undertaken to identify new propellants with revolutionary performance. A general method of locating new candidates was developed. By use of this method, several candidates were identified, including N₅ and N₄, which are predicted to have better performance (specific impulse) than liquid hydrogen and oxygen. Condensed phase properties of azides and promising propellant candidates were also determined by use of a simulated annealing program.			
20. DISTRIBUTION / AVAILABILITY OF ABSTRACT ☒ UNCLASSIFIED/UNLIMITED ☐ SAME AS RPT ☐ DTIC USERS		21. ABSTRACT SECURITY CLASSIFICATION Unclassified	
22a. NAME OF RESPONSIBLE INDIVIDUAL PETE DOLAN, Capt, USAF		22b. TELEPHONE (Include Area Code) (805) 275-5760	22c. OFFICE SYMBOL LSXP

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DTIC TAB	☐
Unannounced	☐
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By _____	
Distribution/	
Availability Codes	
Dist	Avail and/or Special
A-1	

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Summary of Major Results

1. A procedure has been developed and refined for identifying new energetic molecules that are candidates for advanced propellants.
2. The above procedure has led to the identification of two candidates for advanced propellants, trans N₆ and the N₄ tetrahedron.
 - A. At the CISD 6-31G* level, trans N₆ has a specific enthalpy of 13.22 MJ/kg, an average I_{sp} of 496 sec., and an activation barrier of 0.80 eV.
 - B. At the CISD 6-311G(2D) level, the N₄ tetrahedron has a specific enthalpy of 17.72 MJ/kg, an average I_{sp} of 574 sec., and an activation barrier of 2.72 eV.
3. A simulated annealing cluster program has been developed to study energetic molecules in the condensed phase and the adsorption of energetic molecules on surfaces.
4. The simulated annealing program has been used to calculate values of 1.3 g/cm³ and 1.1 kcal/(mole·Å³) for the density and energy density of solid FN₃.
5. The simulated annealing program has been used to calculate stable configurations for FN₃ and HN₃ molecules on KF surfaces.
6. A fast Fourier transform program has been developed to study light atoms in solid hydrogen.

Introduction

The goal of this project is to theoretically identify new high energy density materials that have the potential to form advanced propellants. The technical effort has focused on four major areas:

1. Identification of new energetic molecules
2. Condensed phase studies of energetic molecules
3. Adsorption of energetic molecules on surfaces
4. Light atoms in solid hydrogen

Each of these areas is described in detail below. The first section describes initial screening calculations that were done on a large number of new molecules in order to determine their energy density and stability. Two promising candidates selected from these screening calculations, trans N₆ and the N₄ tetrahedron, are investigated at higher levels of theory in the following section. The next section describes simulated annealing cluster calculations which were used to study FN₃ in the condensed phase. The following section describes simulated annealing studies of the adsorption of FN₃ and HN₃ molecules on KF surfaces. A fast Fourier transform program, which has been developed to study light atoms in solid hydrogen, is discussed in the last section.

New Energetic Molecules

A procedure has been developed and refined for identifying new energetic molecules that have the potential to form advanced propellants. The standard of comparison used in these studies is the $\text{H}_2\text{-O}_2$ system with a specific enthalpy (ΔH) of 12.56 MJ/kg and a specific impulse (I_{sp}) in the neighborhood of 457 sec. In the first stage of this procedure, new molecules are investigated at the SCF 6-31G* level, using Gaussian 86, in order to determine their specific enthalpy, vibrational stability, and relative position on the potential energy hypersurface. Promising candidates selected from these initial screening calculations are then further studied at the SCF 6-31G* level in order to determine their activation barrier and hence stability. If a significant barrier is found, the above calculations are repeated at the SCF level using larger basis sets and are then done at the CISD level with the MESA program.

Thus far, the initial SCF 6-31G* screening calculations have been performed on 33 new molecules, all of which are shown in Figs. A1-A31 in Appendix A and Figs. 1 and 3. Figs. A32-A34 in Appendix A give SCF 6-31G* results for three known molecules which were calculated for purposes of comparison. The calculated bond lengths and angles for FN_3 (Fig. A34) agree with experimental measurements to within 5 %. In all of the screening calculations, the molecules are in the singlet state, total energies are in Hartrees, distances are in Angstroms, the heat of formation is defined with respect to diatomic molecules of the elements, and the specific enthalpy is defined as the heat of formation divided by the molecular mass. The geometry and energy of the diatomic molecules of the elements are shown in Table 1. Table 2 summarizes the results of our screening calculations on the molecules given in Figs. A1-A31. As Table 2 shows, most of these structures were found to be vibrationally unstable, insufficiently energetic, or local, rather than global, minima on the potential energy hypersurface, and hence they were not investigated further. However, two molecules, trans N_6 and the N_4 tetrahedron, have been found to be stable and highly energetic at all of the levels of calculation mentioned above, and are therefore considered to be candidates for advanced propellants. Both of these molecules were investigated at higher levels of theory, as described below. It should also be noted that two of the stable molecules given in Appendix A, N_2O_3 and HN_3O , have significant specific enthalpies and hence warrant further investigation, particularly in view of the possibility that their specific enthalpies will increase at higher levels of calculation, as we will show for the case of trans N_6 and the N_4 tetrahedron.

Table 1. SCF 6-31G* optimized geometry and total energy of the diatomic molecules used in the heat of formation calculations. Bond lengths are in Angstroms and total energies are in Hartrees.

	<u>BOND LENGTH</u>	<u>TOTAL ENERGY</u>
H ₂ singlet	0.729779	-1.1268278
B ₂ quintet	1.505839	-49.1575116
N ₂ singlet	1.078372	-108.9439495
O ₂ triplet	1.162888	-149.5982597
F ₂ singlet	1.344892	-198.6777567

Table 2 Results of SCF 6-31G* calculations. The numbering of the molecules corresponds to Figs. A1-A31.

	Specific Enthalpy (MJ/kg)	Vibrational Stability	Lower Energy Structure on the Potential Energy Hypersurface
1. Rhombic N ₂ H ₂	30.66	unstable	Trans N ₂ H ₂ (Fig. A16)
2. Rhombic N ₂ F ₂	14.11	unstable	Trans N ₂ F ₂ (Fig. A32)
3. Rhombic N ₂ O ₂	9.62	stable	Linear N ₂ O ₂ (Fig. A13)
4. Rhombic N ₂ B ₂	.49	stable	none
5. Tetrahedral N ₂ H ₂	29.29	unstable	Trans N ₂ H ₂ (Fig. A16)
6. Tetrahedral N ₂ F ₂	14.10	unstable	Trans N ₂ F ₂ (Fig. A32)
7. Tetrahedral HN ₃	26.89	unstable	Hydrogen Azide (Fig. A33)
8. Tetrahedral BN ₃	13.90	stable	Boron Azide (Fig. A17)
9. Tetrahedral FN ₃	12.37	unstable	Fluorine Azide (Fig. A34)
10. HNO ₂	8.44	stable	none
11. BNO ₂	7.39	stable	none
12. FNO ₂	5.08	stable	none
13. Linear N ₂ O ₂	7.11	stable	none
14. Linear N ₂ B ₂	5.74	stable	Asymmetric N ₂ B ₂ (Fig. A15)
15. Asymmetric N ₂ B ₂	4.35	stable	none
16. Trans N ₂ H ₂	6.64	stable	none
17. Boron Azide (BN ₃)	5.35	stable	none
18. N ₄ H ₂ Ring	27.19	unstable	Trans N ₄ H ₂ (Fig. A23)
19. N ₄ F ₂ Ring	18.34	unstable	Trans N ₄ F ₂ (Fig. A24)
20. N ₆ Ring	11.95	stable (6-31G*) unstable (6-311G(2DF))	Trans N ₆ (Fig. 1)
21. N ₄ B ₂ Ring	9.37	unstable	Trans N ₄ B ₂ (Fig. A25)
22. N ₄ O ₂ Ring	8.39	unstable	N ₄ O ₂ Boat (Fig. A31)
23. Trans N ₄ H ₂	14.17	unstable	none
24. Trans N ₄ F ₂	9.66	unstable	none
25. Trans N ₄ B ₂	8.07	unstable	none
26. Trans N ₂ H ₂ O ₂	13.65	unstable	none
27. Trans N ₂ F ₂ O ₂	8.31	unstable	none
28. N ₂ O ₃	10.72	stable	none
29. HN ₃ O	10.15	stable	none
30. N ₄ H ₄	8.39	stable	none
31. N ₄ O ₂ Boat	8.05	stable	none

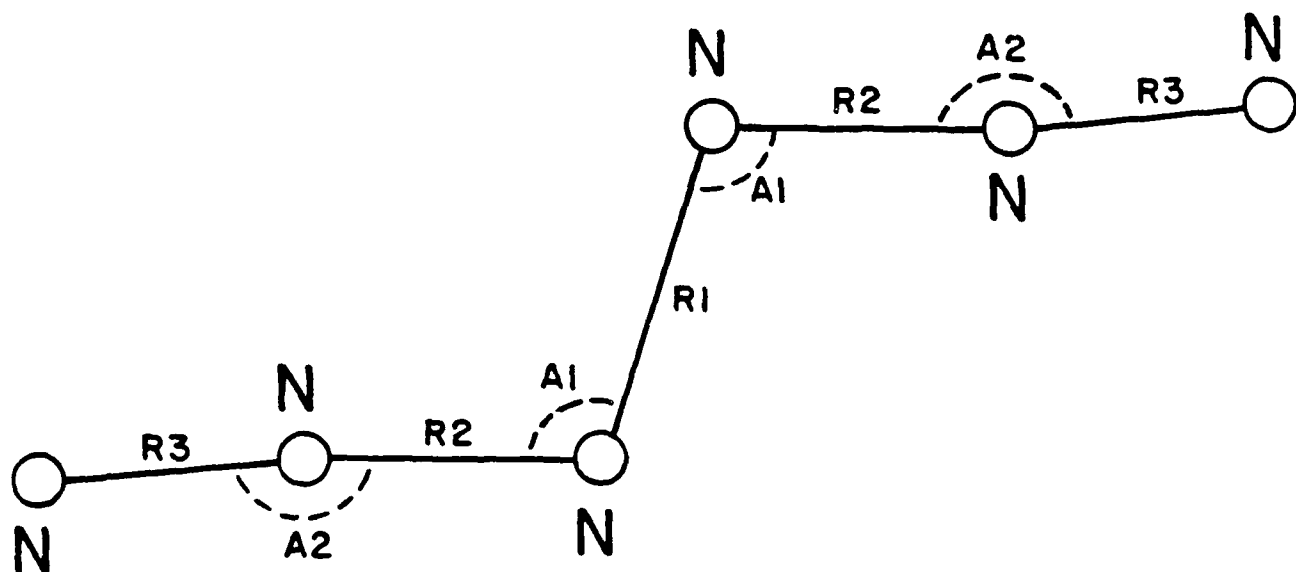
Further Investigation of Trans N₆ and the N₄ Tetrahedron

1. Trans N₆

As reported previously^{1,2}, the following results have been obtained in studies of an azide-like structure called Trans N₆:

- 1) At the SCF 6-31G* level, trans N₆, shown in Fig. 1, is found to be highly energetic, vibrationally stable, and the global minimum on the N₆ potential energy hypersurface. In the geometry optimizations on this molecule, all possible configurations, including nonplanar and nonsymmetric structures, were allowed, but the geometry still converged to the planar symmetric (C_{2h}) configuration given in Fig. 1. Another N₆ structure, the N₆ ring, given in Fig. A20 in Appendix A, was also found to be vibrationally stable at the SCF 6-31G* level but was significantly higher in energy than trans N₆, indicating that trans N₆ is the global minimum of the N₆ system.
- 2) Using the heat of formation given in Fig. 1, which is defined as the total energy of trans N₆ minus the total energy of three N₂ molecules, we computed a specific enthalpy for trans N₆ of 11.13 MJ/kg and a corresponding I_{sp} of 430 sec. A larger I_{sp} value of 480 sec. was computed by the Astronautics Laboratory for the case of a trans N₆ monopropellant. Taking the average of these values, one obtains an I_{sp} of 455 sec., which is at the level of the current state-of-the-art propellant system.
- 3) Two larger basis sets, 6-311G* and 6-311G(2DF), have been used to perform geometry optimization and vibrational frequency calculations on both trans N₆ and the N₆ ring at the SCF level. The results of these geometry optimizations are given in Tables 3 and 4. In the case of trans N₆, all of the vibrational frequencies remain positive at both of these higher basis set levels. However, the N₆ ring exhibits one negative frequency when the largest basis set, 6-311G(2DF), is used, indicating that the N₆ ring is vibrationally unstable. This result provides further indications that trans N₆ is the global minimum or ground state of the N₆ system.
- 4) The transition state of trans N₆ at the SCF 6-31G* level has been found and is given in Fig. 2. This structure is a nonplanar C₂ configuration and leads to dissociation into three N₂ molecules, as expected. The trans N₆ transition state yields an activation barrier of 0.54 eV compared with the corresponding FN₃ barrier of 0.47 eV. Thus at the SCF 6-31G* level, the trans N₆ barrier is approximately the same as the FN₃ barrier, indicating that the stability of trans N₆ is comparable to that of FN₃.

Trans N₆



R1 = 1.429808
R2 = 1.235724
R3 = 1.101074
A1 = 107.378173°
A2 = 174.807741°
Total Energy = -326.4750476

HEAT OF FORMATION = .3568009 Hartrees = 9.7050 eV

Figure 1. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of trans N₆.

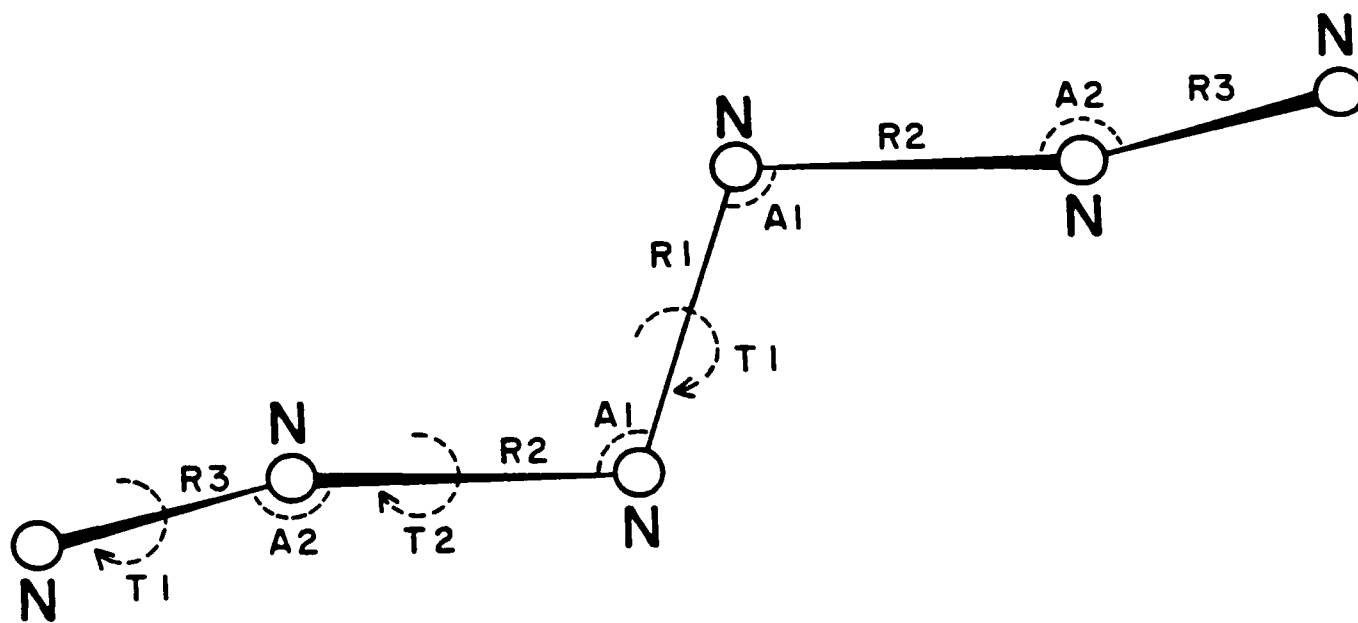
Table 3. Trans N₆ optimized geometry and total energy. The bond lengths and angles in the first column are defined in Fig. 1.

	<u>SCF 6-31G*</u>	<u>SCF 6-311G*</u>	<u>SCF 6-311G(2DF)</u>
R1	1.4298	1.4285	1.4287
R2	1.2357	1.2324	1.2288
R3	1.1011	1.0945	1.0898
A1	107.38°	107.48°	107.51°
A2	174.81°	175.02°	175.19°
Total Energy	-326.47505	-326.55419	-326.58743

Table 4. N₆ ring optimized geometry and total energy. R1 is defined in Fig. A20.

	<u>SCF 6-31G*</u>	<u>SCF 6-311G*</u>	<u>SCF 6-311G(2DF)</u>
R1	1.2854	1.2836	1.2807
Total Energy	-326.44896	-326.52109	-326.55336

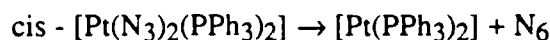
Trans N₆ Transition State



R1 = 1.35345
R2 = 1.442
R3 = 1.082699
A1 = 108.346951°
A2 = 167.059478°
T1 = 157.407856°
T2 = 98.908924°
Total Energy = -326.4553285

Figure 2. Trans N₆ transition state at the SCF 6-31G* level.

- 5) Extensive CISD calculations on trans N₆ have been carried out with the MESA program using the 6-31G* basis set and the geometries that were optimized at the SCF 6-31G* level. The results of these calculations, given in Table 5, yield a specific enthalpy for trans N₆ of 13.22 MJ/kg and a corresponding average I_{sp} of 496 sec., which is larger than the I_{sp} of the H₂-O₂ system.
- 6) The CISD results for trans N₆, given in Table 5, yield an activation barrier of 0.80 eV compared with the FN₃ barrier of 0.80 eV at this same level of calculation. Thus the CISD calculations again indicate that the stability of trans N₆ is approximately the same as that of FN₃ and suggest that since FN₃ has been synthesized by several research groups, the synthesis of trans N₆ should also be possible.
- 7) In the trans N₆ CISD calculations described above, the coefficient of the reference state, c(0), is 0.91, which indicates that multi-reference CI (MRCI) calculations are not likely to produce significant changes in the above results.
- 8) A paper³ has been found in which the authors report the possible synthesis of the N₆ molecule in a low temperature matrix, according to the reaction



2. N₄ Tetrahedron

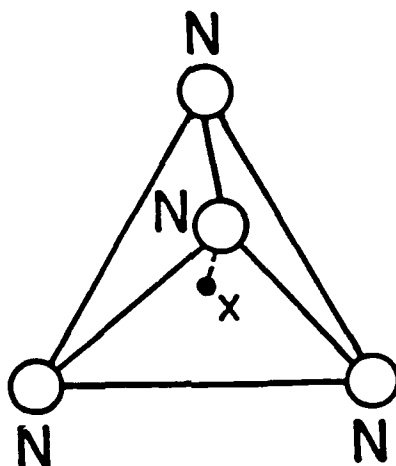
We have previously reported² the following results for the N₄ tetrahedron:

- 1) The N₄ tetrahedron, shown in Fig. 3 and henceforth referred to as N₄, is found to be highly energetic, vibrationally stable, and a global minimum at the SCF 6-31G* level.
- 2) Using the heat of formation given in Fig. 3, which is defined as the total energy of N₄ minus the total energy of two N₂ molecules, we computed a specific enthalpy for N₄ of 16.57 MJ/kg and a corresponding I_{sp} of 525 sec. By comparison with the case of trans N₆, it is estimated that an I_{sp} of 586 sec. would be obtained if N₄ is treated as a monopropellant. Taking the average of these two values, one obtains an I_{sp} of 556 sec., which is approximately 100 sec. larger than the I_{sp} of the current state-of-the-art propellant system.

Table 5. Trans N₆ CISD calculations.

	<u>CISD Energy</u>
6-31G* Ground State, 447,931 Configurations	-327.24143
6-31G* Transition State, 447,931 Configurations	-327.21208

N₄ Tetrahedron



$$d_{NN} = 1.3949$$

$$\text{Total Energy} = -217.5338449$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .3540541 \text{ Hartrees} = 9.6303 \text{ eV}$$

Figure 3. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of the N₄ tetrahedron.
d_{NN} is the N-N distance.

- 3) N_4 geometry optimization and vibrational frequency calculations have also been done at the SCF 6-311G(2D) level. The resulting geometry is given in Table 6. All of the vibrational frequencies remain positive and large at this higher basis set level, with the smallest frequency increasing slightly from its 6-31G* value, indicating clearly that N_4 is stable with respect to vibration.
- 4) The SCF 6-311G(2D) calculations yield a specific enthalpy for N_4 of 17.26 MJ/kg and a corresponding average I_{sp} of 567 sec.
- 5) The N_4 transition state at the SCF level has been computed with both the 6-31G* and the 6-311G(2D) basis sets and is given in Fig. 4. This transition state leads to dissociation into two N_2 molecules, as expected. As shown in Table 7, the N_4 transition state yields 6-31G* and 6-311G(2D) activation barriers of 3.02 eV and 2.84 eV, respectively.
- 6) Extensive CISD calculations on N_4 have been carried out with the MESA program using both the 6-31G* and 6-311G(2D) basis sets and the geometries that were optimized at the SCF 6-31G* and SCF 6-311G(2D) levels, respectively. The resulting CISD energies, given in Table 8, yield specific enthalpies of 16.45 MJ/kg and 17.72 MJ/kg for the 6-31G* and 6-311G(2D) basis sets, respectively, and corresponding average I_{sp} values of 553 sec. and 574 sec. Thus at the highest level of calculation considered so far, the I_{sp} of N_4 is more than 100 sec. larger than the I_{sp} of the H_2-O_2 system. Table 9 summarizes the specific enthalpies and average I_{sp} values obtained for N_4 at various levels of calculation.
- 7) The N_4 CISD calculations yield activation barriers of 2.90 eV and 2.72 eV for the 6-31G* and 6-311G(2D) basis sets, respectively, as shown in Table 8. Thus the N_4 barrier decreases slightly at the CISD level, compared to the SCF level, but the values of the N_4 CISD barrier are still more than three times as large as the corresponding values of the FN_3 barrier, indicating that N_4 is highly stable compared to FN_3 .
- 8) In the N_4 CISD calculations described above, the coefficient of the reference state, $c(0)$, is 0.93, which indicates that MRCI calculations are not likely to produce significant changes in the above results.

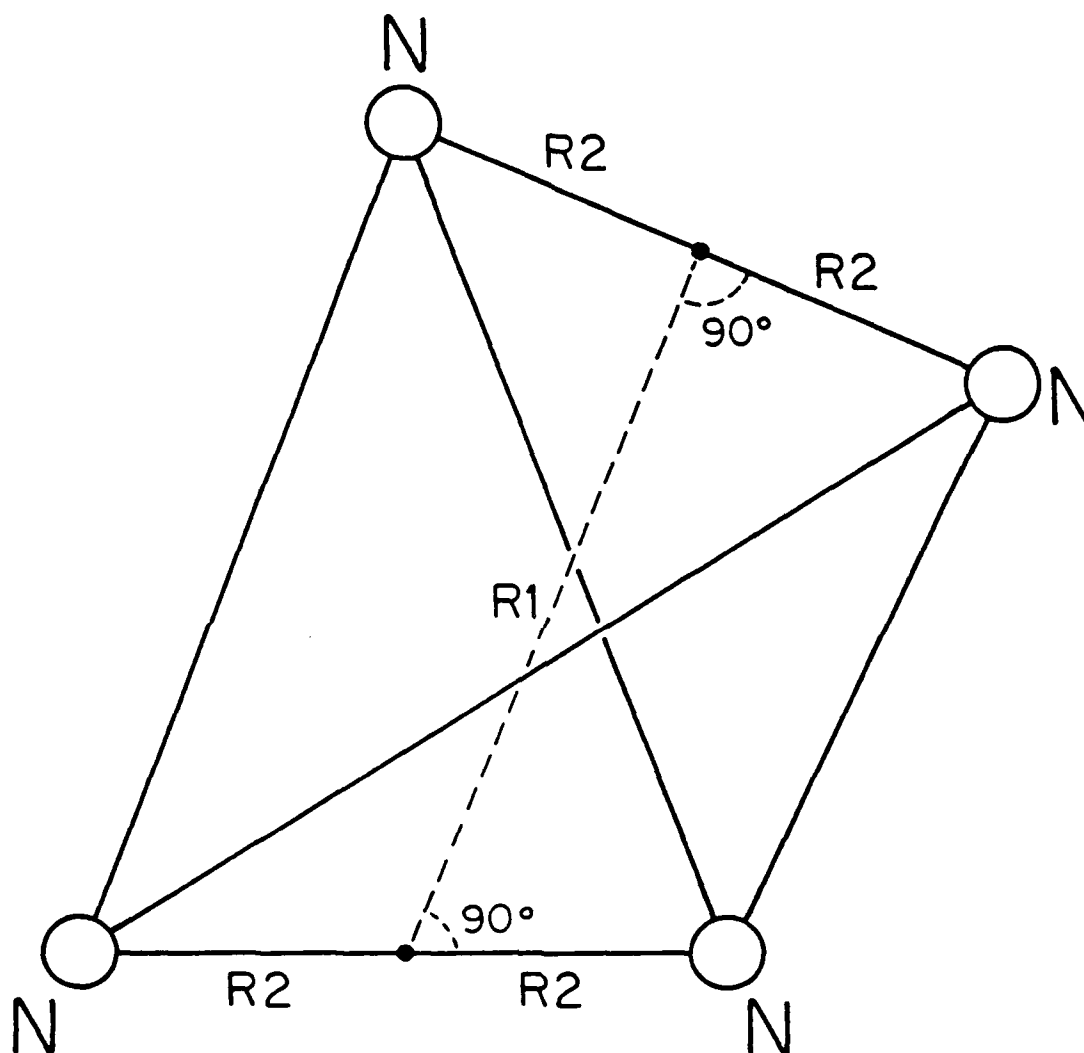
Conclusion

Both trans N_6 and the N_4 tetrahedron are stable and highly energetic at all of the levels of theory described above, and are therefore considered to be candidates for advanced propellants. We recommend that experimental research groups investigate the synthesis of both of these molecules.

Table 6. N₄ tetrahedron optimized geometry and total energy. d_{NN} is defined in Fig. 3.

	<u>SCF 6-31G*</u>	<u>SCF 6-311G(2D)</u>
d _{NN}	1.3949	1.3979
Total Energy	-217.53384	-217.58983

N_4 Tetrahedron Transition State



	<u>SCF 6-31G*</u>	<u>SCF 6-311G(2D)</u>
R1	1.498	1.493
R2	0.628035	0.626879
Total Energy	-217.4229495	-217.4854588

Figure 4. N_4 tetrahedron transition state.

Table 7. N₄ tetrahedron activation barrier.

	<u>Barrier</u>
SCF 6-31G*	3.02 eV
SCF 6-311G(2D)	2.84 eV
CISD 6-31G*	2.90 eV
CISD 6-311G(2D)	2.72 eV

Table 8. N₄ tetrahedron CISD calculations.

	<u>CISD Energy</u>
6-31G* Ground State, 88,831 Configurations	-218.09199
6-31G* Transition State, 88,831 Configurations	-217.98552
6-311G(2D) Ground State, 337,431 Configurations	-218.21259
6-311G(2D) Transition State, 337,431 Configurations	-218.11248

Table 9. N₄ tetrahedron specific enthalpy and average I_{sp}.

	Specific Enthalpy (MJ/kg)	Average I _{sp} (sec.)
SCF 6-31G*	16.57	556
SCF 6-311G(2D)	17.26	567
CISD 6-31G*	16.45	553
CISD 6-311G(2D)	17.72	574

Condensed Phase Studies of FN_3

A new method of geometry optimization for large clusters of molecules, the simulated annealing procedure, has recently been developed. This method, which is fast and flexible, enables one to study increasingly larger clusters of energetic molecules in order to determine the trends that occur as the cluster approaches the molecular solid. In this way one can obtain converged values for a number of condensed phase properties of interest, including the density, energy density, and binding energy per molecule. In this procedure, which simulates the process of gradually cooling the cluster from an initial high temperature, the molecular geometries are held fixed while atom-atom potentials are used to describe the interaction between each pair of atoms in the cluster. As an example of this method, results are presented for simulated annealing calculations on clusters of the FN_3 molecule, whose SCF 6-31G* geometry is given in Fig. A34. In these FN_3 studies, N-N, N-F, and F-F atom-atom potentials were determined from atomic charges computed at the CISD 6-31G* level and from N_2 -NF and NF-NF interactions computed at the MP2 6-31G* level. The simulated Annealing program was then used to obtain optimized geometries and average molecular volumes for FN_3 clusters containing up to 9 molecules. As shown in Table 10, the volume per molecule was found to quickly reach a nearly constant value as the size of the cluster increases. This converged value of the molecular volume has been used to compute the density and energy density of solid FN_3 , yielding values of 1.3 g/cm^3 and $1.1 \text{ kcal}/(\text{mole} \cdot \text{Å}^3)$, respectively. The energy density calculation is based on the FN_3 heat of formation of 4.143 eV given in Fig. A34. To our knowledge, there have been no experimental measurements of the density or energy density of solid FN_3 . As shown by Table 11, the binding energy per FN_3 molecule also converges rapidly with increasing cluster size, approaching an estimated converged value of 0.12 eV. Due to its speed and flexibility, the Simulated Annealing program can be applied to many energetic molecules of interest.

Table 10. Average molecular volume of clusters of FN_3 molecules.

<u>Number of Molecules in Cluster</u>	<u>Volume per Molecule ($\text{\AA}^3$)</u>
3	82.7
4	82.2
5	80.7
6	79.7
7	79.1
8	80.5
9	80.6

Density of Solid $\text{FN}_3 = 1.3 \text{ g/cm}^3$

Energy Density of Solid $\text{FN}_3 = 1.1 \text{ kcal}/(\text{mole} \cdot \text{\AA}^3)$

Table 11. Binding energy of clusters of FN_3 molecules.

<u>Number of Molecules in Cluster</u>	<u>Binding Energy per Molecule</u>
5	0.087 eV
6	0.097 eV
7	0.103 eV
8	0.112 eV
9	0.114 eV

Adsorption of FN_3 and HN_3 Molecules on KF Surfaces

The possible stabilization of energetic molecules by adsorption on surfaces has recently become an area of considerable interest, as this process can lead to larger I_{sp} values for solid propellants if the substrate is also an energetic substance. In this regard, Dr. Stephen Rodgers of the Astronautics Laboratory has shown that the I_{sp} yield of ammonium perchlorate (AP), which is the current state-of-the-art solid propellant, could be increased by the adsorption of FN_3 molecules on AP substrates.⁴ In order to gain insight into this potentially important process, the Astronautics Laboratory has carried out experimental studies of azide molecule adsorption on alkali-halide surfaces. In these studies it was found that FN_3 and HN_3 molecules stick to several alkali-halide surfaces, including KF, but not to others such as NaF and LiF. In order to explain these experimental results and gain an understanding of the mechanism of azide molecule surface adsorption, we used the Simulated Annealing program to study the adsorption of FN_3 and HN_3 molecules on KF surfaces. In these simulated annealing calculations, the geometry of the adsorbed molecule was held fixed while atom-ion potentials were used to describe the interaction between the azide molecule and the surface ions. The F- K^+ , F- F^- , N- K^+ , N- F^- , H- K^+ , and H- F^- atom-ion potentials used in these studies were determined from atomic charges computed at the CISD 6-31G* level and from F_2 - K^+ , F_2 - F^- , N_2 - K^+ , N_2 - F^- , H_2 - K^+ , and H_2 - F^- interactions computed at the MP2 6-31G* level. The Simulated Annealing program was then used to optimize the geometry of the system, yielding stable configurations for both FN_3 and HN_3 . Two different views of each of these configurations are given in Figs. 5 and 6 (FN_3) and Figs. 7 and 8 (HN_3). As shown by the figures, the F atom in FN_3 is found to be directly above a K^+ ion while the H atom in HN_3 is found to be directly above an F^- ion, as expected. In both cases the line of the three nitrogen atoms is nearly parallel to the surface.

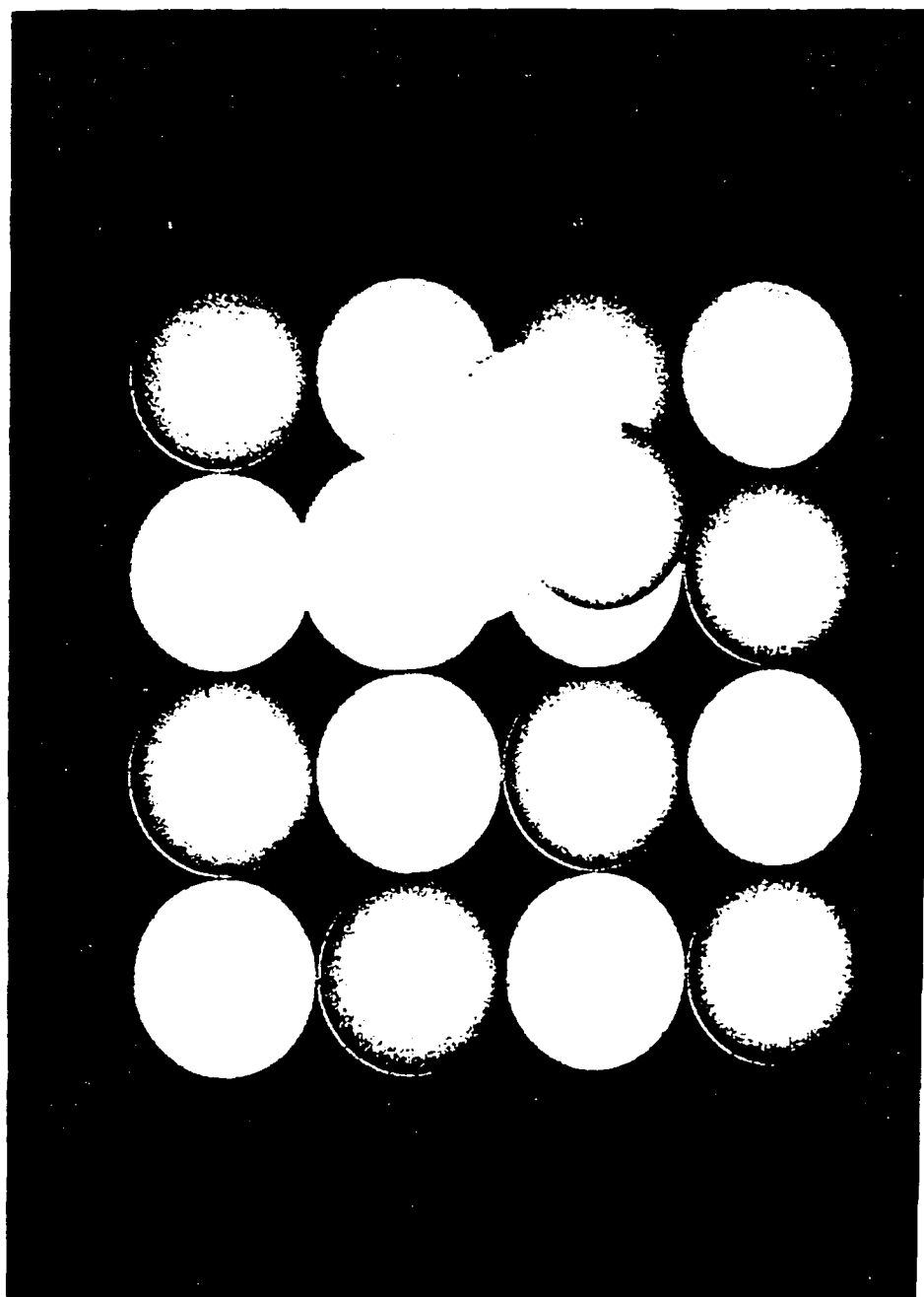


Figure 5. FN_3 molecule on KF surface. The K^+ (F^-) surface ions are pink (green).

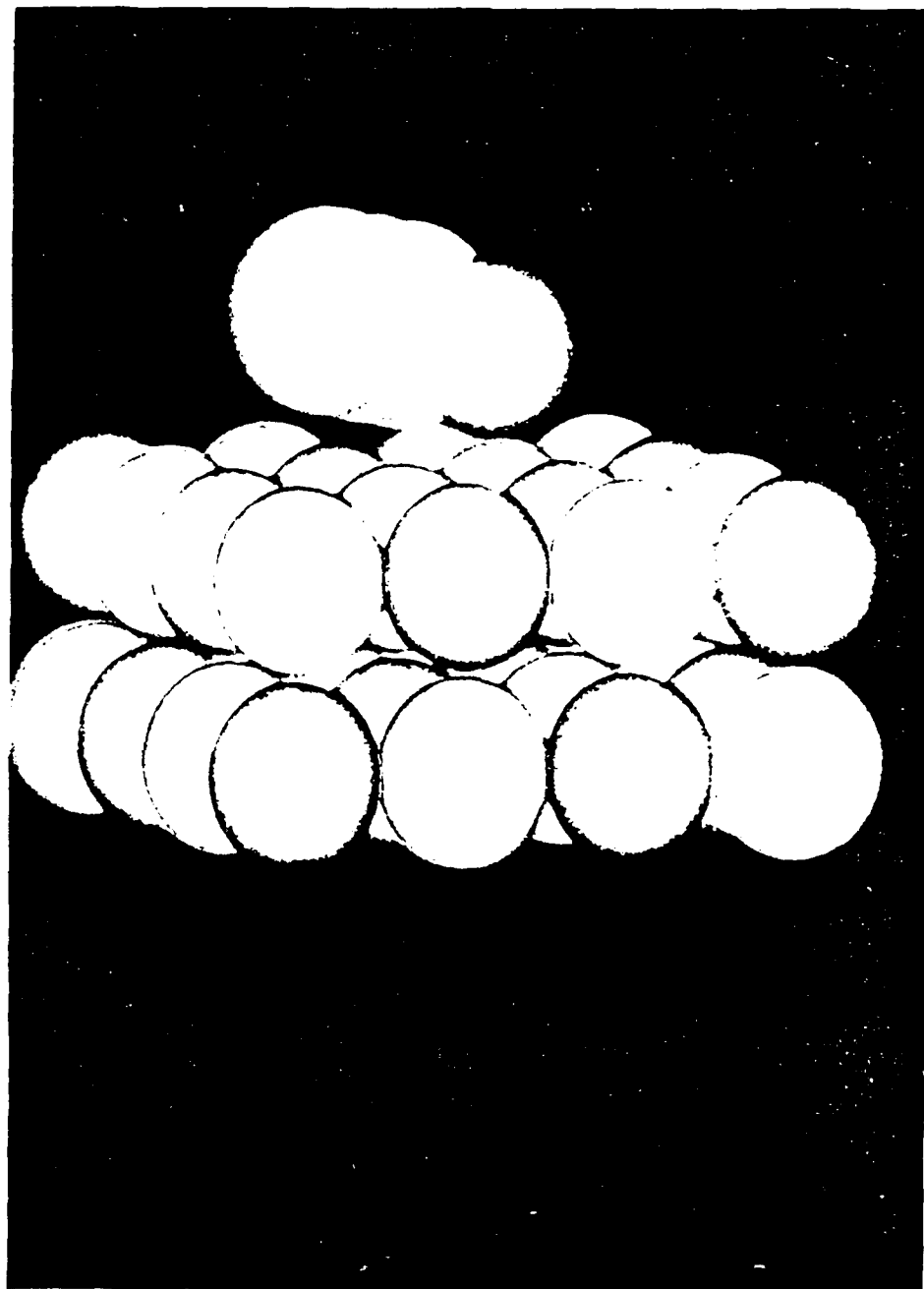


Figure 6. FN_3 molecule on KF surface. The K^+ (F^-) surface ions are pink (green).

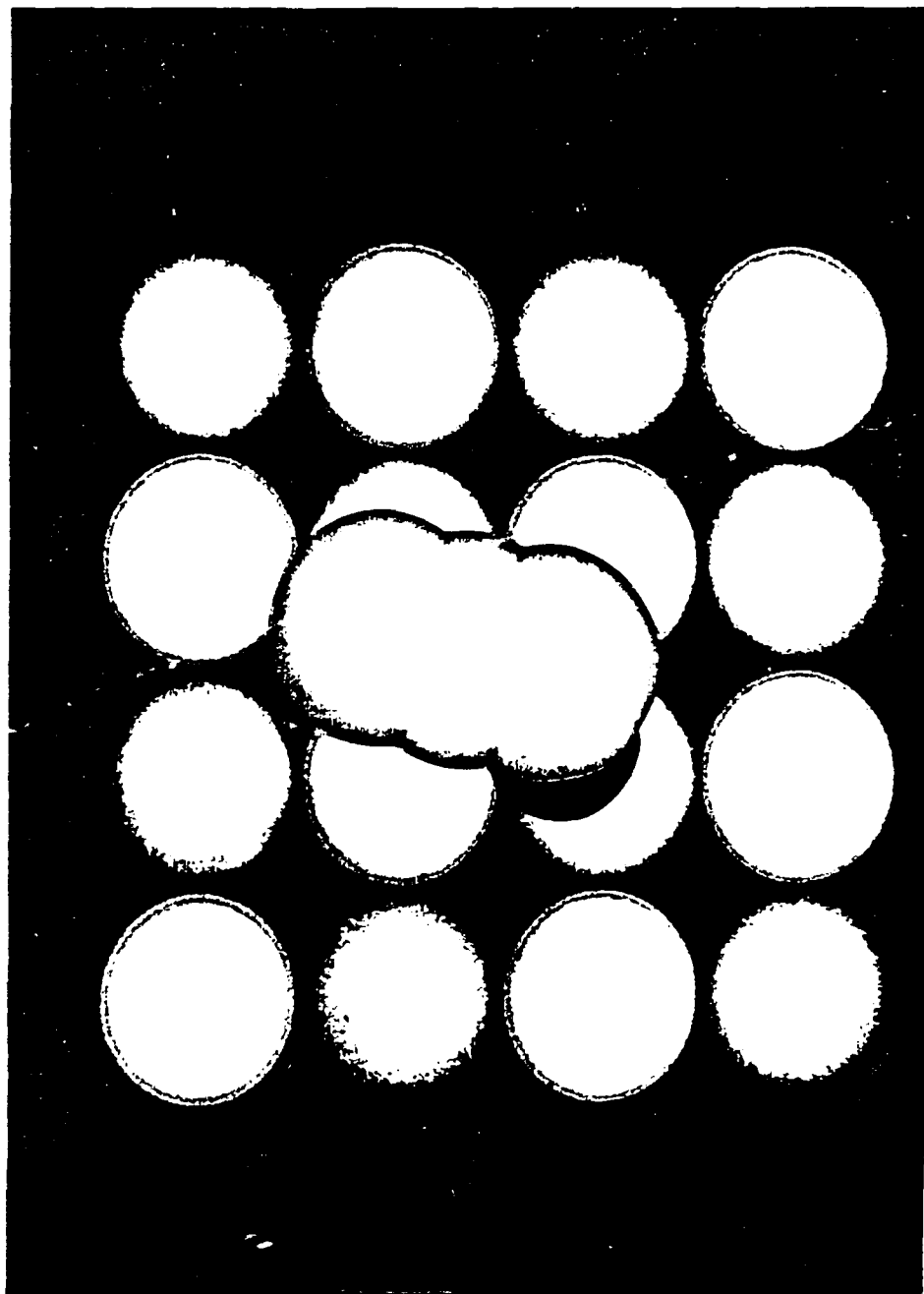


Figure 7. HN_3 molecule on KF surface. The K^+ (F^-) surface ions are pink (green).

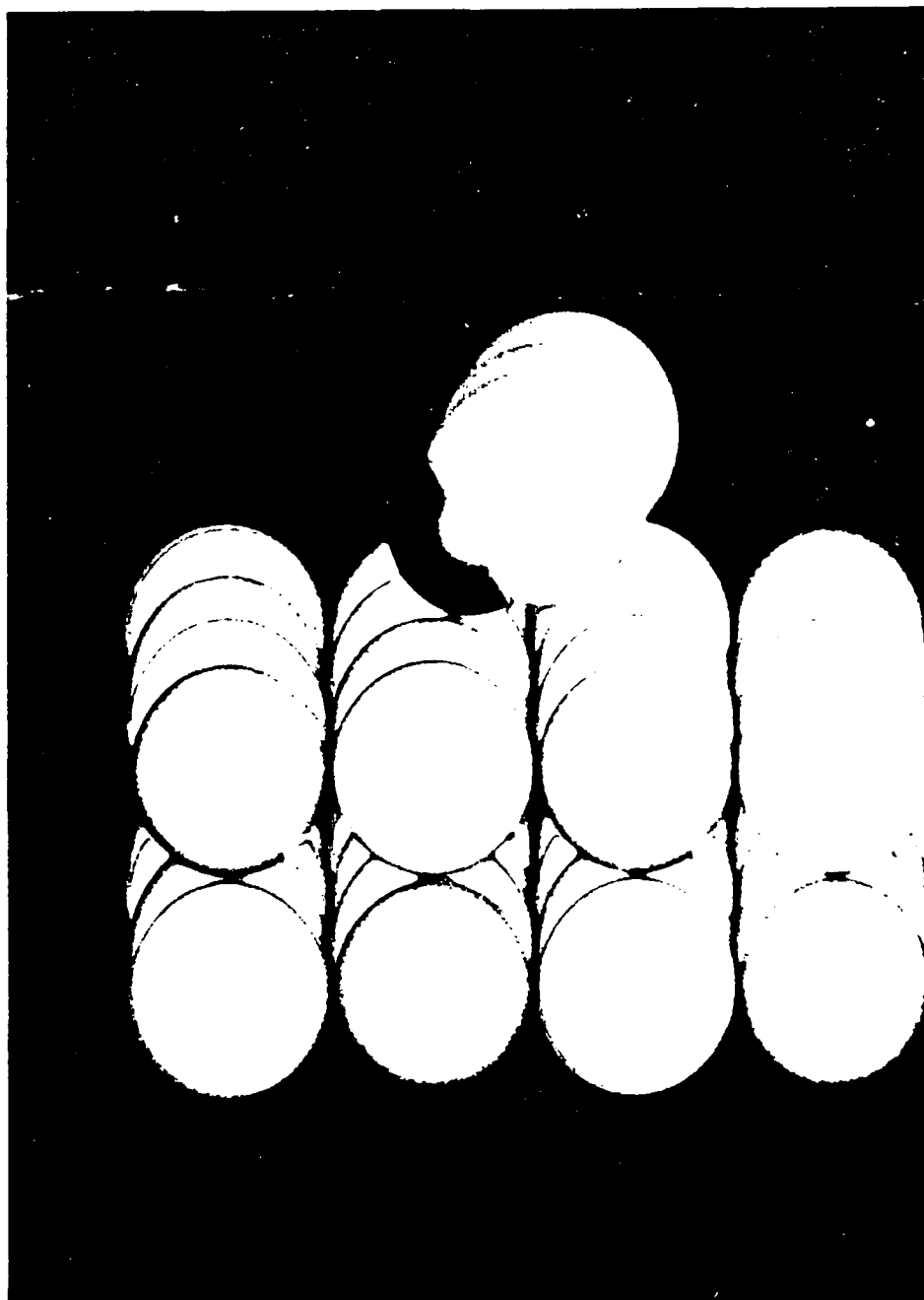


Figure 8. HN_3 molecule on KF surface. The K^+ (F^-) surface ions are pink (green).

Light Atoms in Solid Hydrogen

Studies have recently been performed on the trapping of light atoms, particularly Li atoms, in solid hydrogen. Such systems can yield significant I_{sp} values if the density of the trapped Li atoms is relatively large and the Li atoms can be prevented from clustering. Recent HEDM experiments involving rare gas solids have shown that this type of trapping can occur if an initial gas mixture of Li atoms and host particles is rapidly cooled. In preliminary theoretical studies of Li in solid H_2 , carried out with the Simulated Annealing program, we found that the trapped Li atom is surrounded by a relatively large hole. The size of this hole would make it difficult for the Li atom to move through the H_2 solid, particularly if vacancies and defects are present as might be expected in the case of rapid cooling. Thus these initial calculations suggest that diffusion effects are not likely to be significant in this type of system and indicate that such systems have the potential to form stable energetic materials. In addition to the Simulated Annealing program, a Fast Fourier Transform program has recently been developed to study the spectra of the trapped Li atoms. A description of this program and the results of spectra calculations on Li atoms in xenon, a prototype system, are given below.

It is well known that doping lithium or other light elements into hydrogen can significantly boost its specific impulse. Work is now underway at Edwards Air Force Base, Astronautics Laboratory, to experimentally study these systems and their prototypes, namely alkali atoms in inert gases. But in order to characterize these new compositions, their properties must be understood and there must be diagnostic tools available to identify the state of the atom. We are now developing such tools and already have results for lithium in xenon and helium, media which serve as extreme test cases. During the past few years a number of new interrelated techniques have been developed to handle just this type of problem. They represent major advances in computational techniques. These new methods also take advantage of the vector and parallel architectures of the new supercomputers.

Consider the electronic absorption spectrum of a molecule or atom in some condensed phase, some disordered medium (it is just as easy to study the vibrational structure). Based on the Franck Condon Principle, we need the excitation energy for that molecule in all of the thermally accessible configurations of the medium, but, in particular, all thermally accessible configurations of the solvent around the molecule since the effect of the medium is usually relatively short range. If we could calculate this we would then have the inhomogeneously broadened line shape as the configurational average of the excitation energy for each of the possible configurations. We can find these configurations by using standard statistical mechanical methods once the correct interactions between the molecules have been determined. Since the molecules are often not spherically symmetric we will need the complete coordinates of all molecules, not just their radial distribution function around the impurity. If the medium is ordered, we could use the crystal structure as have many previous workers. Alternatively, if one wanted to only have a general picture and the medium was rather simple, one could use methods like the Mean Spherical Approximation and consider the medium as a perturbation as Chandler and co-workers have done very effectively⁵. However if we want to consider cases where

the wave functions are distorted by the medium and the system is rather non-isotropic, then we need to consider more elaborate methods.

Since the number of configurations we must consider is large, we need a fast way to obtain the electronic energy levels. The standard ab initio quantum chemistry techniques are much too slow to make this calculation feasible unless the number of configurations is very low and the systems very simple. The Fast Fourier Technique using the split operator method is just what is needed. Since the problem of interest can be reduced to a quasi one electron Hamiltonian, these methods are very accurate and very fast. The Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) method was originally developed by Feit, Fleck, and Kosloff^{6,7}. It has been applied to many one electron or quasi one electron problems by Rossky and associates⁸, by Landman and associates⁹, and by Metiu and his coworkers¹⁰, to name but a few of the major groups. There is a similarity to the approach of Carr and Parrinello¹¹ who evaluated systems like electrons in molten salts and most importantly, systems like liquid semiconductors. Standard quantum chemistry procedures using basis sets are also ruled out since our impurity could be altered significantly by the media as well as by temperature. We also wanted to allow for the electron density distribution to respond in any way possible, unbiased by any basis set. The FFT can also provide the lower excited states to sufficient accuracy.

The program runs were made on an IBM 3090/600S using subroutine calls to the highly vectorized ESSL (Engineering and Scientific Subroutine Library). The method scales roughly as $n \log n$, where n is the cube of the number of points along each dimension. In order to get the energies, it is necessary to do a number of FFTs for each configuration and then propagate these in time (or imaginary time) to achieve a converged answer. This means that we need to do something of the order of 200 steps with about 2 FFTs and 2 Inverse FFTs at each time step. Nevertheless this can be done sufficiently fast so that for $16 \times 16 \times 16$ grid points, we can get one excited state in about 12 seconds. The excited states are then found as the next orthogonal solution of the Hamiltonian, repeating the entire process. Thus we can obtain two excited states in about 20-30 seconds. This means that even for 500 or 1000 configurations three electronic states can be determined in a reasonable amount of computer time.

It might not be clear why the Fast Fourier Transform method is applicable to this problem. In principle any type of solution of those equations would be acceptable. However we will see that the FFT method is ideal. In Quantum Mechanics it is well known that one can work in either position or momentum space and solve the Schroedinger equation. The spatial representation is preferred when dealing with coordinates or electron density distributions in space, while the momentum representation is preferred by physicists and scattering theorists who are concerned with motions of particles. It is also well known that one can transform from one representation to another using a Fourier Transform. Also we know that the evaluation of the exponential momentum operator acting on the wave function is particularly simple if we use the momentum representation since the operator is just a number, i.e. it is diagonal in the momentum. On the other hand, the potential (V) which depends on x is most easily evaluated in the coordinate representation since V and all functions of V are then diagonal. The only

complications arise since most operators do not commute but these problems can be easily overcome by using short time steps and the split operator method.

But how do we implement this? Obviously we want to use a Fast Fourier Transform method to gain the economies of speed. We also need to discretize our space into some reasonable number of points, partly determined by the accuracy we desire. Assuming that we have the potential in some functional form or at least, evaluated at each point in our grid, let us review the steps required. One must first choose a grid size and time step which are appropriate. This generally requires some experimentation, although for a wide variety of problems which we and others have considered, a 16 point grid seems acceptable and a step size of about .3 atomic time units is also optimal. Too large a time step might lead to the wrong answer while too short a time step could cause the number of steps needed to become extremely large, and the time to be lengthened. We have found that somewhere between 100 and 200 time steps are necessary, although the program is set to stop when the necessary criterion is reached, usually about one percent in the energy.

If an excited state is desired, one chooses a new arbitrary trial function and first orthogonalizes it to the the ground state solution. In the case of finite representations of functions, such orthogonalizations are extremely fast. The results are then propagated as above. However, before being sent through another time step it is reorthogonalized to make sure it remains a pure excited state.

The program we use was originally written by U. Landman and R. Barnett at the Georgia Institute of Technology for a CDC Cyber but we modified it to use IBM ESSL routines. The speed comes from the use of the highly vectorized FFT routines, in which 256 FFTs are done at one time, and all functions are calculated only once. This is possible since we always have the same grid.

Let us now consider some of the results for lithium and sodium in inert gases. To begin we must model the Hamiltonian of an alkali in the inert gas. We have chosen to consider a simple one electron model. The alkali metal's valence electron is modeled by a simple pseudopotential composed of the Coulombic interaction with a plus one charge and an exponential repulsive term which has been fit to yield the lower excited states of the metal. In particular we use the parametrizations of Preuss¹², although we have adjusted the parameters for lithium to yield better agreement with experiment. The electron inert gas potential is also represented by a pseudopotential, which for the electron xenon and electron helium was taken from work of Berne, Coker and Thirumalai¹³. We report here only some of the early studies of sodium and lithium in xenon under various experimental conditions. Our procedure in this case is to use the previously fit inert gas-inert gas and inert gas-alkali atoms interactions (the latter by Baylis¹⁴) in a molecular dynamics program. We have been fortunate to have the MIXNVT program written by S. Gupta at Louisiana State University. After running the program long enough to establish equilibrium, we dump sample configurations at every tenth time step until we have collected 500 to 1000 representative solvent configurations around the impurity. These configurations are then put into the FFT program and three or four excited states are obtained for each configuration of the molecules. The results are then expressed in terms of a histogram of the energies using either 50 or 100 bins (both are listed on the figure, the dotted lines are the 100 bin results) typically, with the range

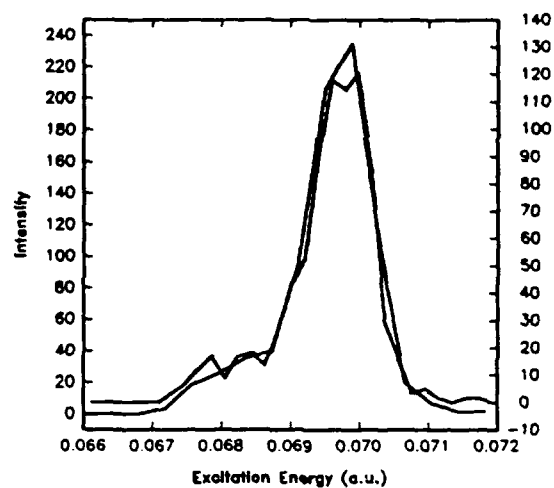
covering the absorption peak. The same range is used for all densities in the results shown in Fig. 43. In order to understand these results it is important that one realize that we have used a Lennard Jones 6-12 potential for the atomic interactions and thus all results are expressed relative to those parameters. In particular the relative temperature, T_r , is expressed in terms of the well depth for the inert gas reactions. Typically a liquid or solid has T_r near one. The densities, D_r , are expressed relative to the zero of the potential cubed, or sigma cubed as it is usually expressed. It is a number density with low numbers being low densities. Only at low temperatures is the liquid state reached for relative densities, D_r , below about 0.7. The figures included in this paper represent only a brief sample of the capabilities of this method.

This method has the unique capability of going back to find out what type of configurations contribute to what features. In early work we were able to see that one case involving three distinct peaks corresponded to three distinct sets of nearest neighbor distances. Thus this method can be used to really understand some specific spectral features in molecular terms. There is currently a lot of controversy concerning the origin of the three peaks in the absorption spectra of alkali atoms in solid rare gases¹⁵ and this method can determine whether those differences are due to different sites or splitting of excited state energies.

The extension of this method to study lithium or other alkali metals in hydrogen is straightforward. It can study in detail, effects of temperature, density, and various degrees of disorder on electronic energies. It can study a range of densities and temperatures. It can also be applied to solid state systems where the configurations will be obtained from molecular dynamics or simulated annealing results. All that is required is to implement the new potentials which are available from Dr. Konowalow at Edwards Air Force Base and also evaluate the electron hydrogen pseudopotential.

Low Density

Lithium in Xenon ($Tr = 2.8$, $Dr = .1$)
2s - 2p Transition



The dotted line is the more jagged one (100 bins vs 50).

Higher Density

Lithium in Xenon ($Tr = 2.0$, $Dr = .7$)
2s - 2p Transition

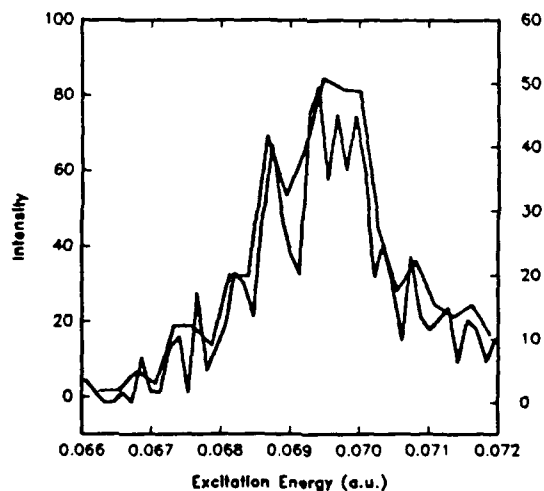


Figure 9. Lithium atoms in xenon.

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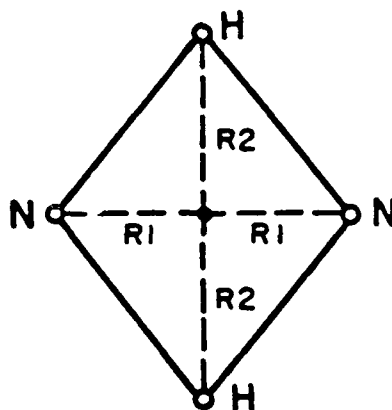
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Appendix A

Geometry and Energy of HEDM Candidates Examined

Note: In the following figures, the molecules are in the singlet state, total energies are in Hartrees, distances are in Angstroms, the heat of formation is defined with respect to diatomic molecules of the elements, and the specific enthalpy is defined as the heat of formation divided by the molecular mass.

Rhombic N_2H_2



$$R1 = 0.701237$$

$$R2 = 0.905973$$

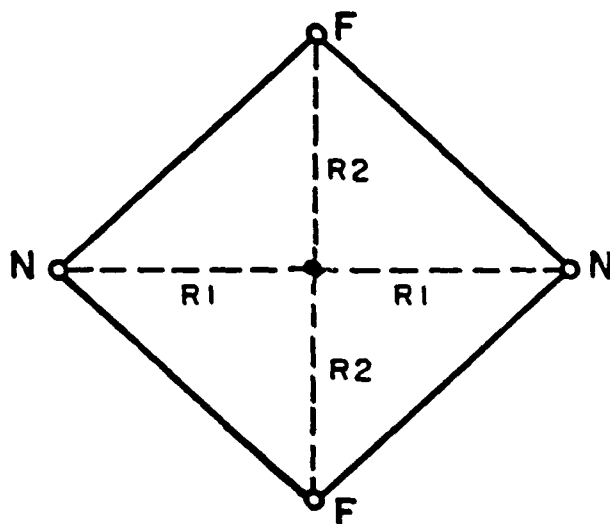
$$\text{Total Energy} = -109.7198483$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .3509290 \text{ Hartrees} = 9.5453 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 30.66 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A1. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of rhombic N_2H_2 .

Rhombic N_2F_2



$$R_1 \approx 1.148706$$

$$R_2 \approx 1.061801$$

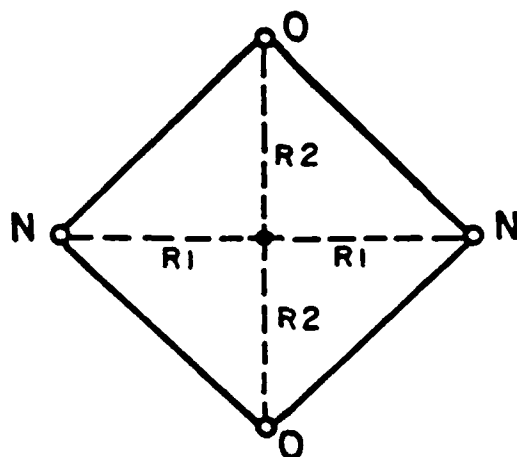
$$\text{Total Energy} \approx -307.2665175$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} \approx .3551887 \text{ Hartrees} = 9.6611 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} \approx 14.11 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A2. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of rhombic N_2F_2 .

Rhombic N_2O_2



$$R_1 = 0.938047$$

$$R_2 = 0.902935$$

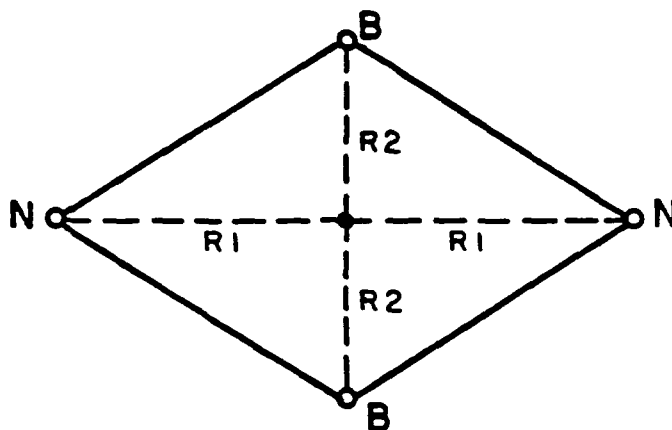
$$\text{Total Energy} = -258.3218875$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .2203217 \text{ Hartrees} = 5.9928 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 9.62 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A3. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of rhombic N_2O_2 .

Rhombic N_2B_2



$$R1 = 1.167842$$

$$R2 = 0.745876$$

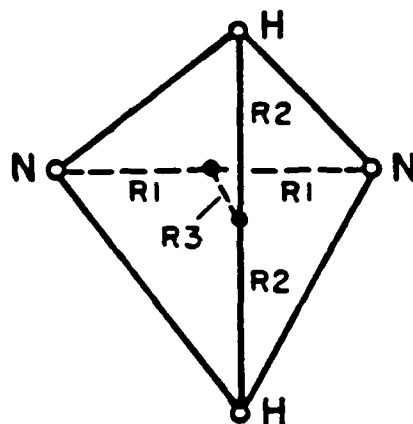
$$\text{Total Energy} = -158.0921921$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .0092690 \text{ Hartrees} = .2521 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = .49 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A4. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of rhombic N_2B_2 .

Tetrahedral N₂H₂



$$R1 = 0.681382$$

$$R2 = 0.860303$$

$$R3 = 0.454431$$

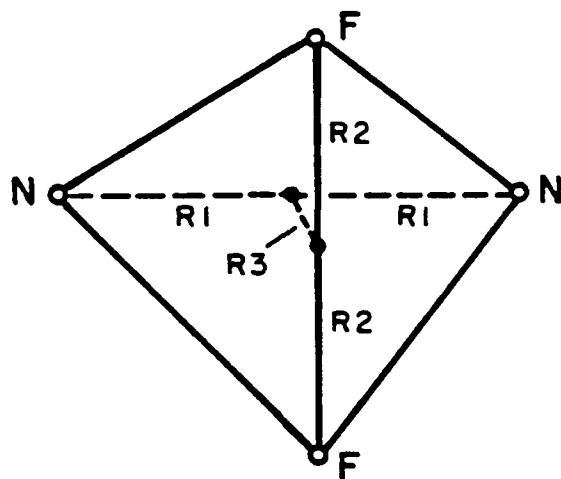
$$\text{Total Energy} = -109.7355652$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .3352121 \text{ Hartrees} = 9.1178 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 29.29 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A5. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of tetrahedral N₂H₂.

Tetrahedral N_2F_2



$$R1 = 1.139556$$

$$R2 = 1.056573$$

$$R2 = 0.174398$$

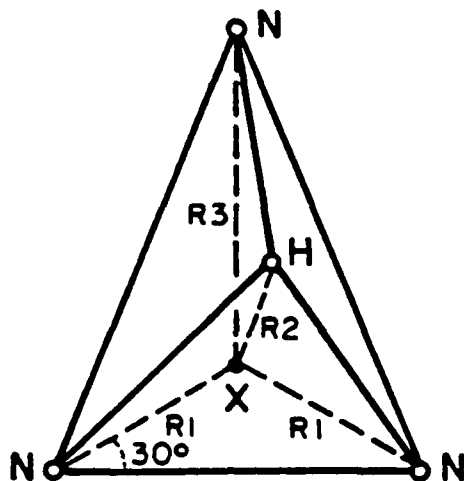
$$\text{Total Energy} = -307.2666412$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .3550650 \text{ Hartrees} = 9.6578 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 14.10 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A6. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of tetrahedral N_2F_2 .

Tetrahedral HN_3



$$R1 = 0.701595$$

$$R2 = 1.068082$$

$$R3 = 1.105794$$

$$\text{Total Energy} = -163.5381599$$

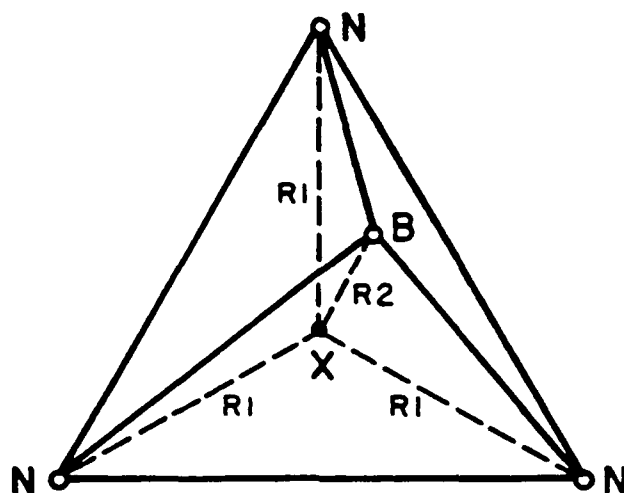
$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .4411783 \text{ Hartrees} = 12.0000 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 26.89 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A7. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of tetrahedral HN_3 .

Note: In Figs. A7-A9, the point X is in the plane of the three nitrogen atoms, and the H-X, B-X, and F-X lines are perpendicular to this plane.

Tetrahedral BN_3



$$R1 = 0.882693$$

$$R2 = 1.060935$$

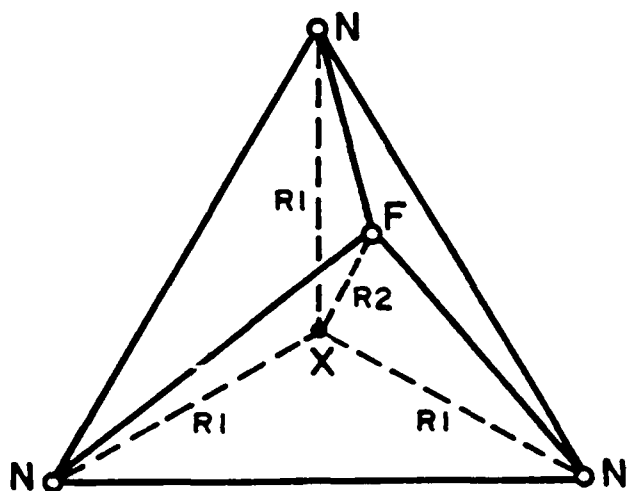
$$\text{Total Energy} = -187.7146720$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .2800081 \text{ Hartrees} = 7.6162 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 13.90 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A8. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of tetrahedral BN_3 .

Tetrahedral FN_3



$$R_1 = 0.7354$$

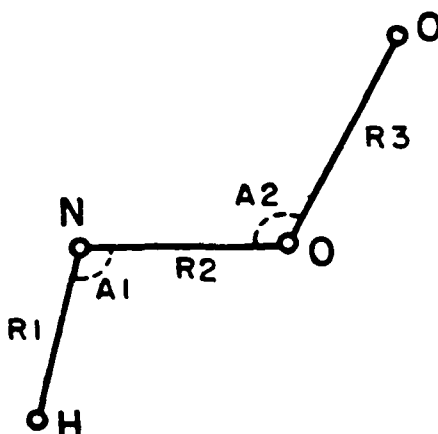
$$R_2 = 1.9158$$

$$\text{Total Energy} = -262.4668922$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .2879104 \text{ Hartrees} = 7.8312 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 12.37 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A9. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of tetrahedral FN_3 .



$$R1 = 1.013525$$

$$R2 = 1.197729$$

$$R3 = 1.301152$$

$$A1 = 104.305787^\circ$$

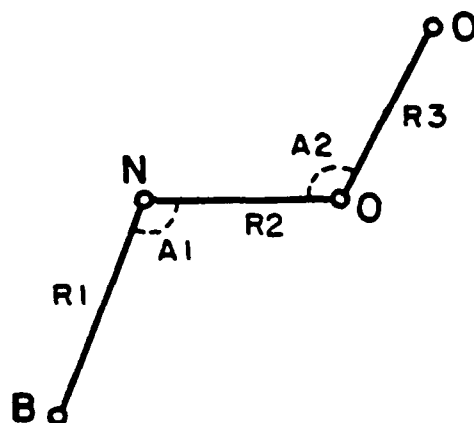
$$A2 = 118.303346^\circ$$

$$\text{Total Energy} = -204.4822336$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .1514148 \text{ Hartrees} = 4.1185 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 8.44 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A10. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of HNO₂.



$$R1 = 1.466356$$

$$R2 = 1.228616$$

$$R3 = 1.235892$$

$$A1 = 111.662849^\circ$$

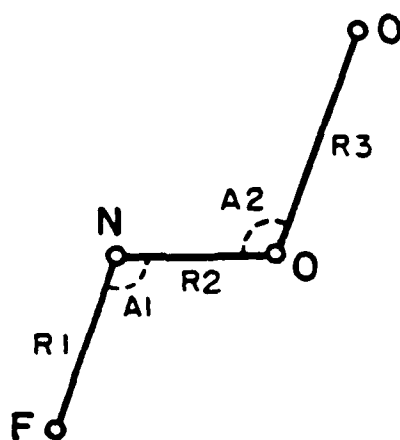
$$A2 = 119.23601^\circ$$

$$\text{Total Energy} = -228.4887084$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .1602819 \text{ Hartrees} = 4.3597 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 7.39 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A11. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of BNO₂.



$$R1 = 1.338146$$

$$R2 = 1.144817$$

$$R3 = 1.703125$$

$$A1 = 109.30518^\circ$$

$$A2 = 111.63729^\circ$$

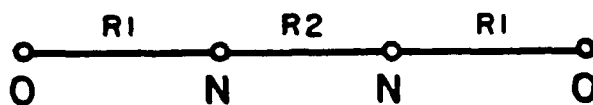
$$\text{Total Energy} = -303.2830799$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .1260329 \text{ Hartrees} = 3.4281 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 5.08 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A12. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of FNO₂.

Linear N₂O₂



$$R1 = 1.215443$$

$$R2 = 1.081264$$

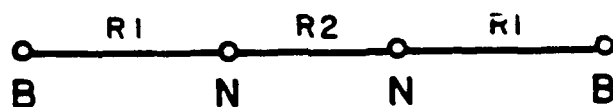
$$\text{Total Energy} = -258.3793481$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .1628611 \text{ Hartrees} = 4.4298 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 7.11 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A13. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of linear N₂O₂.

Linear N_2B_2



$$R1 = 1.406811$$

$$R2 = 1.176888$$

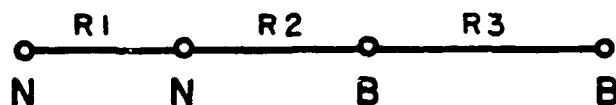
$$\text{Total Energy} = -157.9927275$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .1087336 \text{ Hartrees} = 2.9576 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 5.74 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A14. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of linear N_2B_2 .

Asymmetric N_2B_2



$$R1 = 1.141336$$

$$R2 = 1.324709$$

$$R3 = 1.71895$$

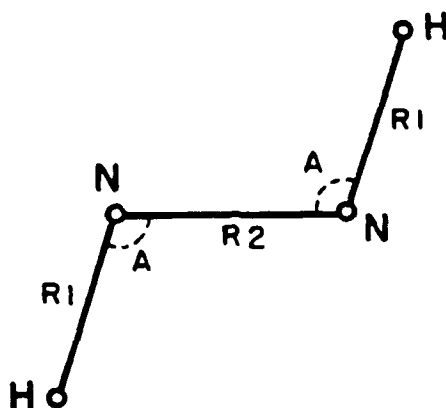
$$\text{Total Energy} = -158.0191996$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .0822615 \text{ Hartrees} = 2.2375 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 4.35 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A15. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of asymmetric N_2B_2 .

Trans N₂H₂



$$R1 \approx 1.014529$$

$$R2 \approx 1.215645$$

$$A \approx 107.585995^\circ$$

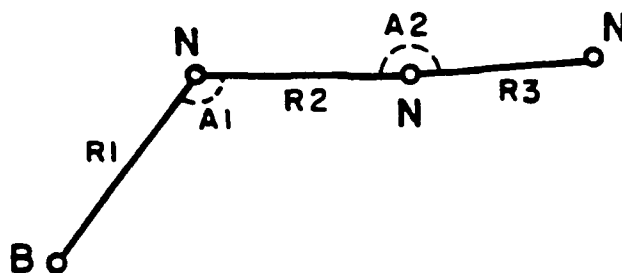
$$\text{Total Energy} \approx -109.9947653$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} \approx .0760120 \text{ Hartrees} = 2.0675 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} \approx 6.64 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A16. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of trans N₂H₂.

Boron Azide (BN_3)



$$R1 = 1.396075$$

$$R2 = 1.231734$$

$$R3 = 1.091593$$

$$A1 = 126.873161^\circ$$

$$A2 = 175.959388^\circ$$

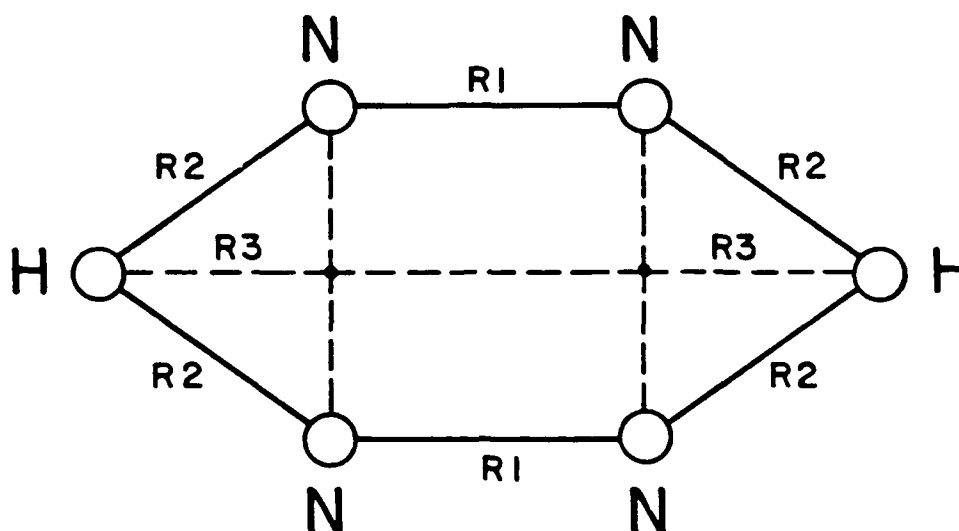
$$\text{Total Energy} = -187.8868880$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .1077921 \text{ Hartrees} = 2.9319 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 5.35 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A17. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of boron azide (BN_3).

N₄H₂ Ring



$$R1 = 1.298588$$

$$R2 = 1.194035$$

$$R3 = 0.972595$$

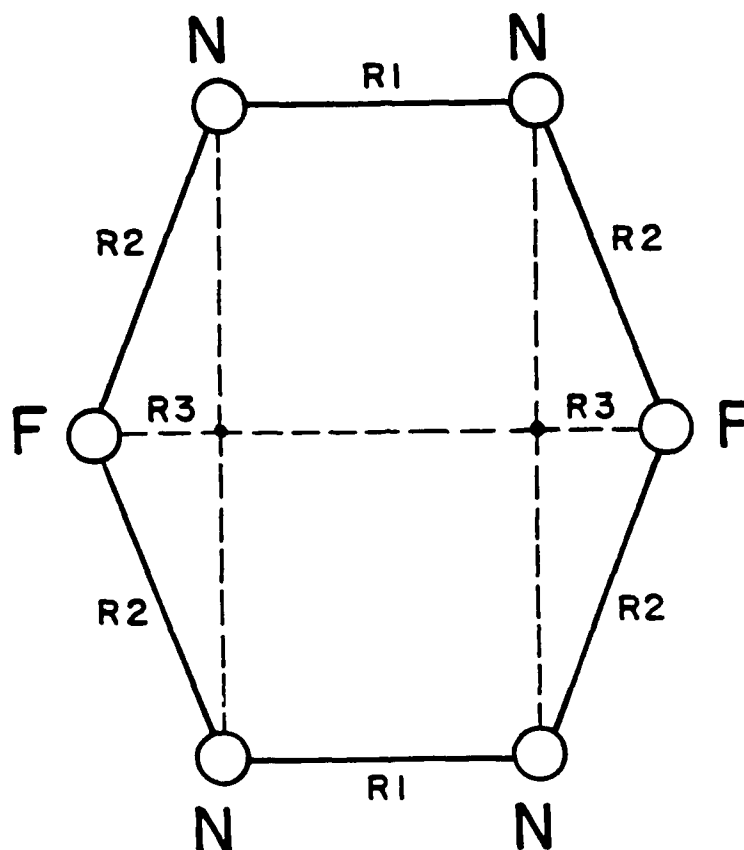
$$\text{Total Energy} = -218.4130777$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .6016491 \text{ Hartrees} = 16.3649 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 27.19 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A18. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of the N₄H₂ ring.

N_4F_2 Ring



$$R1 = 1.317416$$

$$R2 = 1.4667$$

$$R3 = 0.537757$$

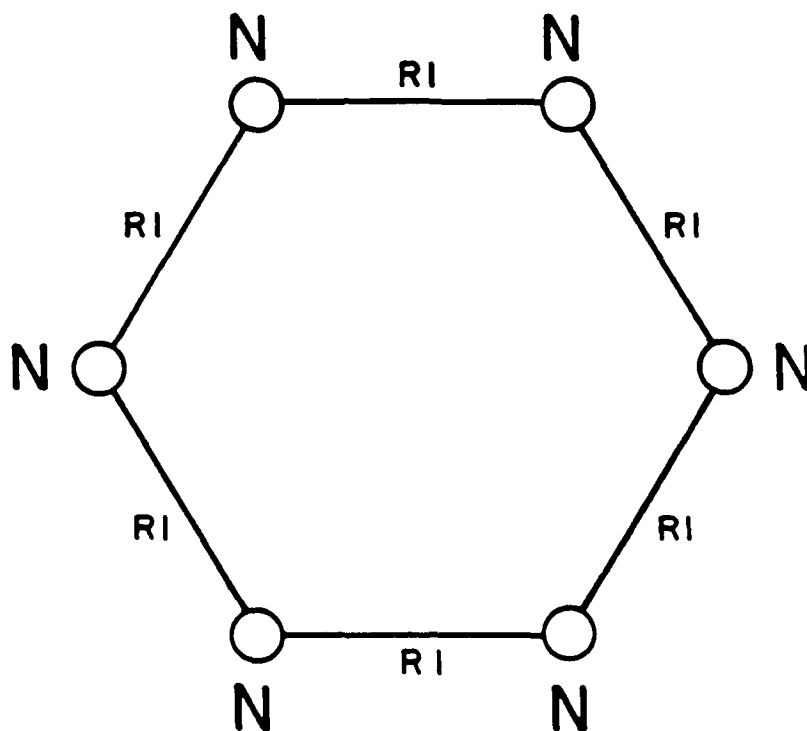
$$\text{Total Energy} = -415.9077499$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .6579058 \text{ Hartrees} = 17.8950 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 18.34 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A19. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of the N_4F_2 ring.

N₆ Ring



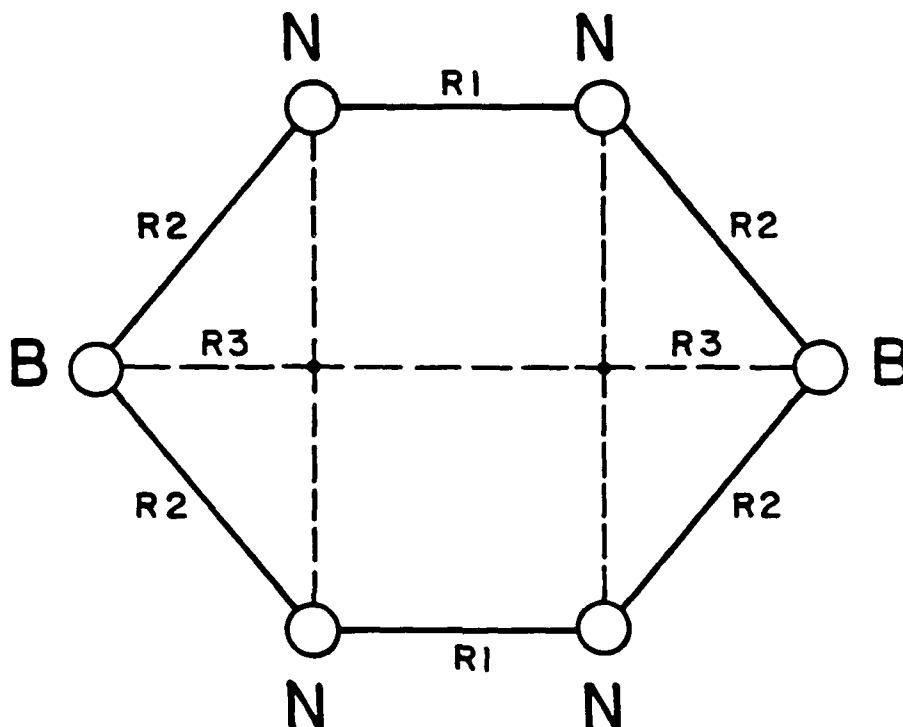
R1 = 1.285389
Total Energy = -326.4489642

HEAT OF FORMATION = .3828843 Hartrees = 10.4145 eV

SPECIFIC ENTHALPY = 11.95 MJ/kg

Figure A20. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of the N₆ ring.

N_4B_2 Ring



$$R1 = 1.19747$$

$$R2 = 1.413495$$

$$R3 = 0.902062$$

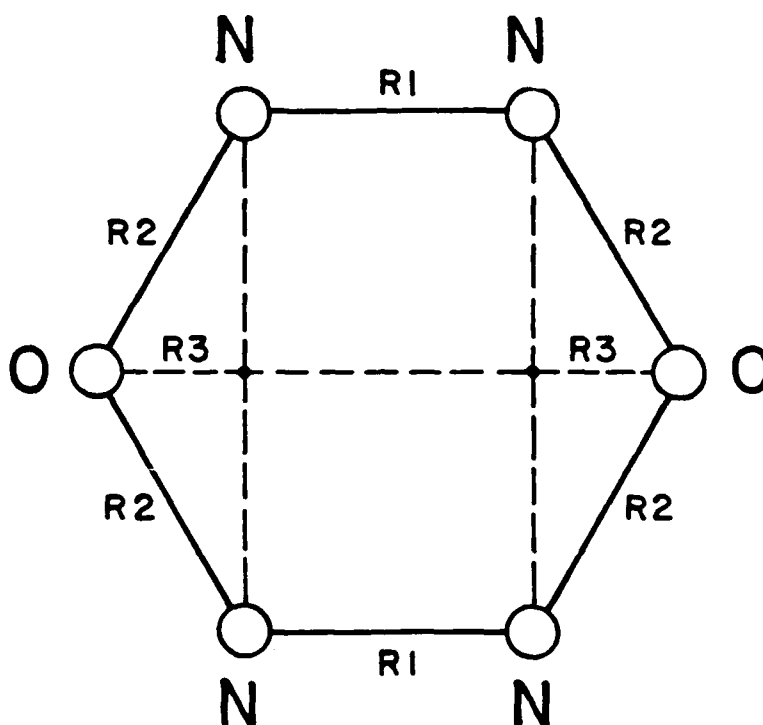
$$\text{Total Energy} = -266.7678932$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .2775174 \text{ Hartrees} = 7.5485 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 9.37 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A21. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of the N_4B_2 ring.

N₄O₂ Ring



$$R1 = 1.195038$$

$$R2 = 1.367266$$

$$R3 = 0.679581$$

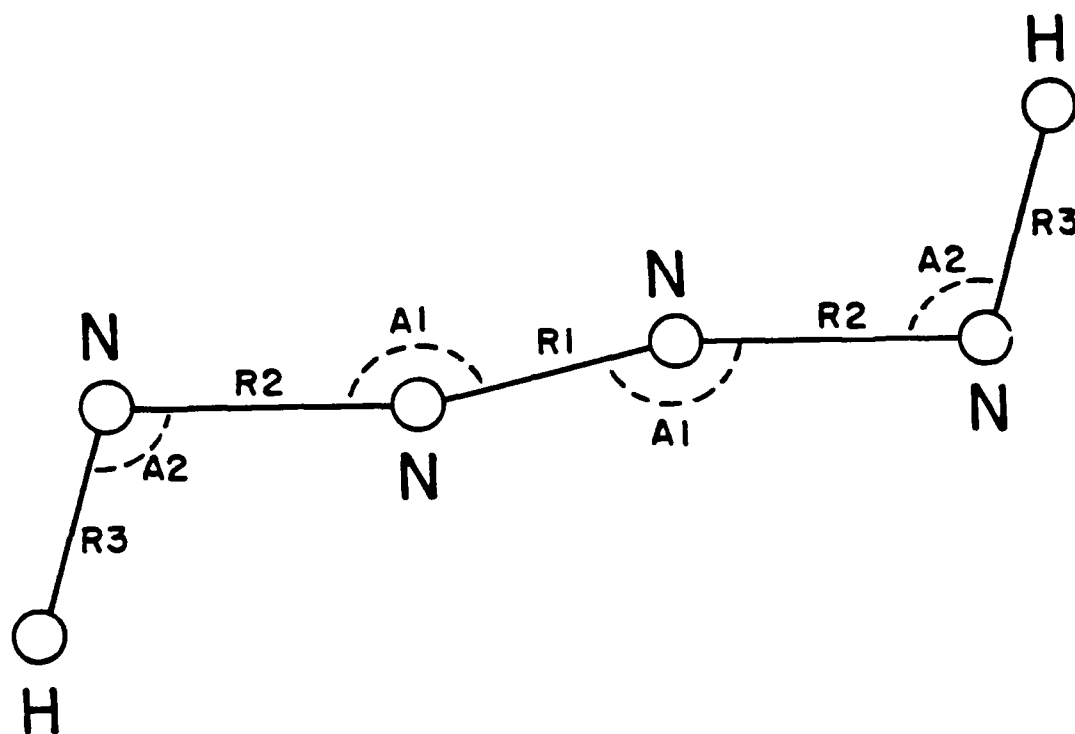
$$\text{Total Energy} = -367.2045477$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .2816110 \text{ Hartrees} = 7.6598 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 8.39 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A22. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of the N₄O₂ ring.

Trans N₄H₂



$$R1 = 1.091182$$

$$R2 = 1.286423$$

$$R3 = 1.006396$$

$$A1 = 167.684971^\circ$$

$$A2 = 106.236127^\circ$$

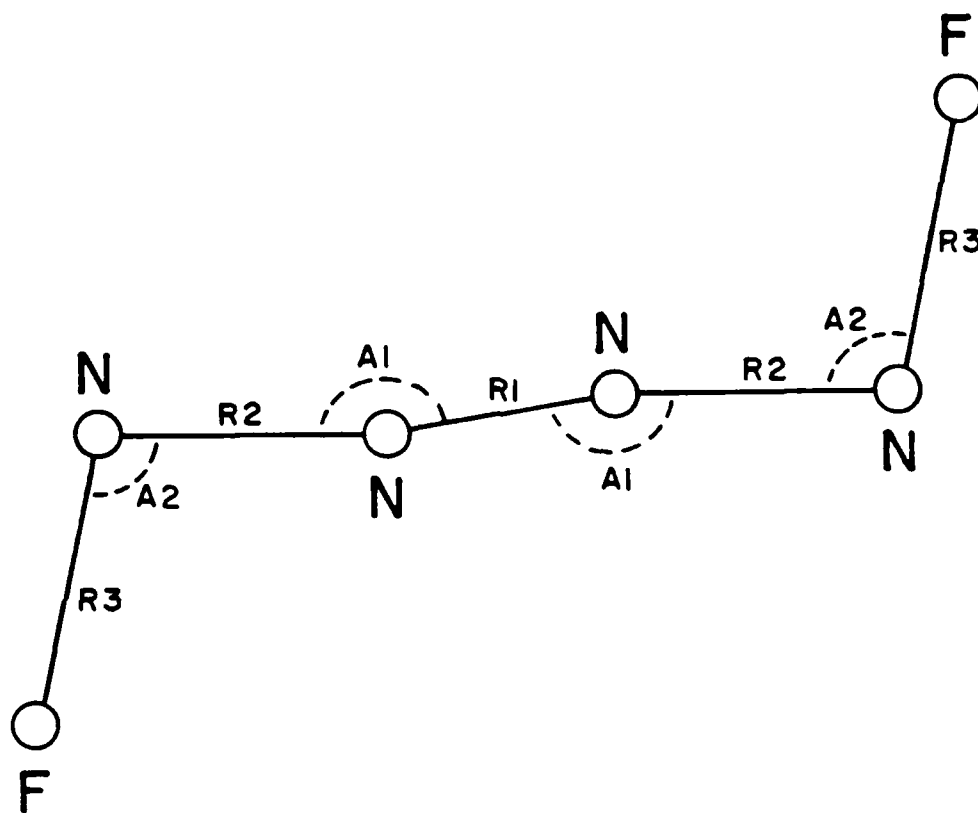
$$\text{Total Energy} = -218.7010918$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .3136350 \text{ Hartrees} = 8.5309 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 14.17 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A23. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of trans N₄H₂.

Trans N₄F₂



$$R1 = 1.083667$$

$$R2 = 1.343208$$

$$R3 = 1.383503$$

$$A1 = 170.891152^\circ$$

$$A2 = 101.687974^\circ$$

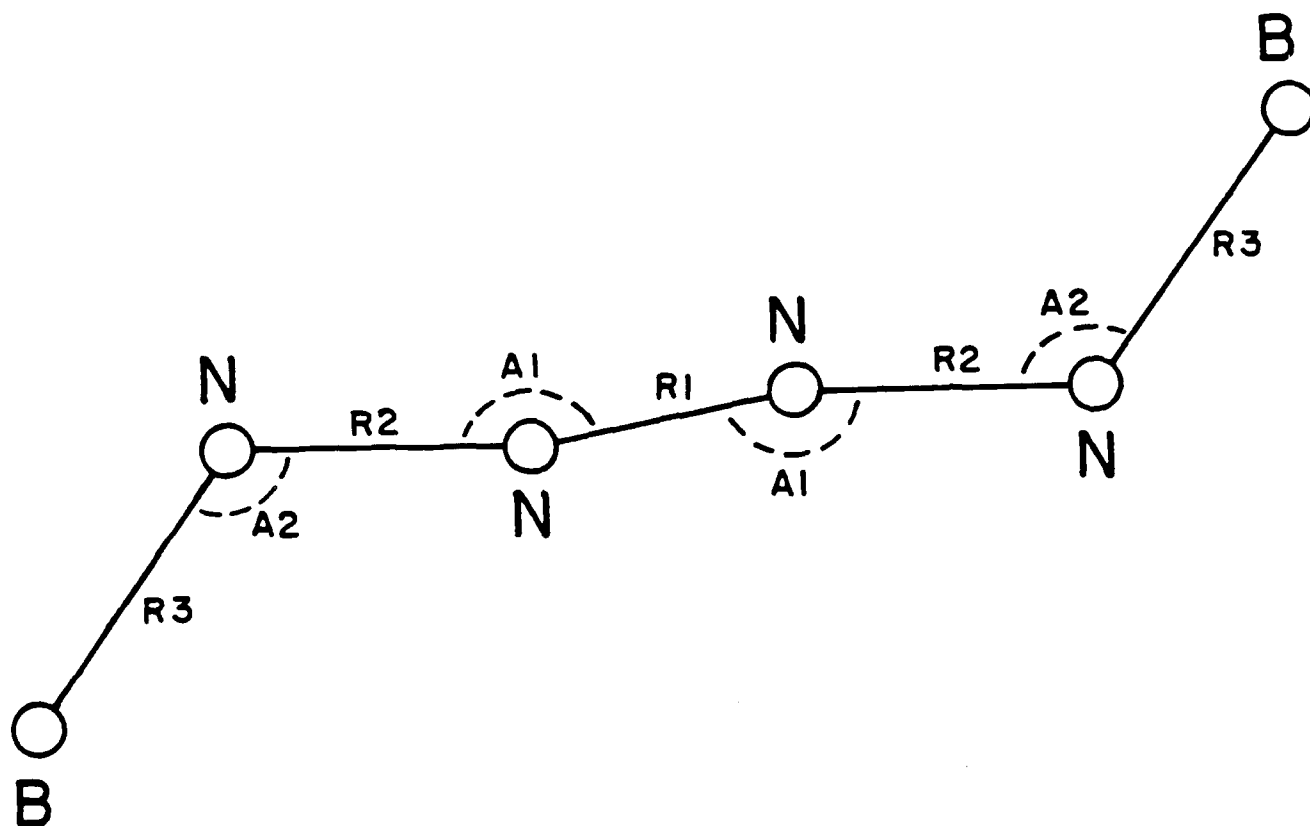
$$\text{Total Energy} = -416.2192904$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .3463653 \text{ Hartrees} = 9.4211 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 9.66 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A24. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of trans N₄F₂.

Trans N_4B_2



$$R1 = 1.091865$$

$$R2 = 1.247395$$

$$R3 = 1.399269$$

$$A1 = 169.835427^\circ$$

$$A2 = 125.449998^\circ$$

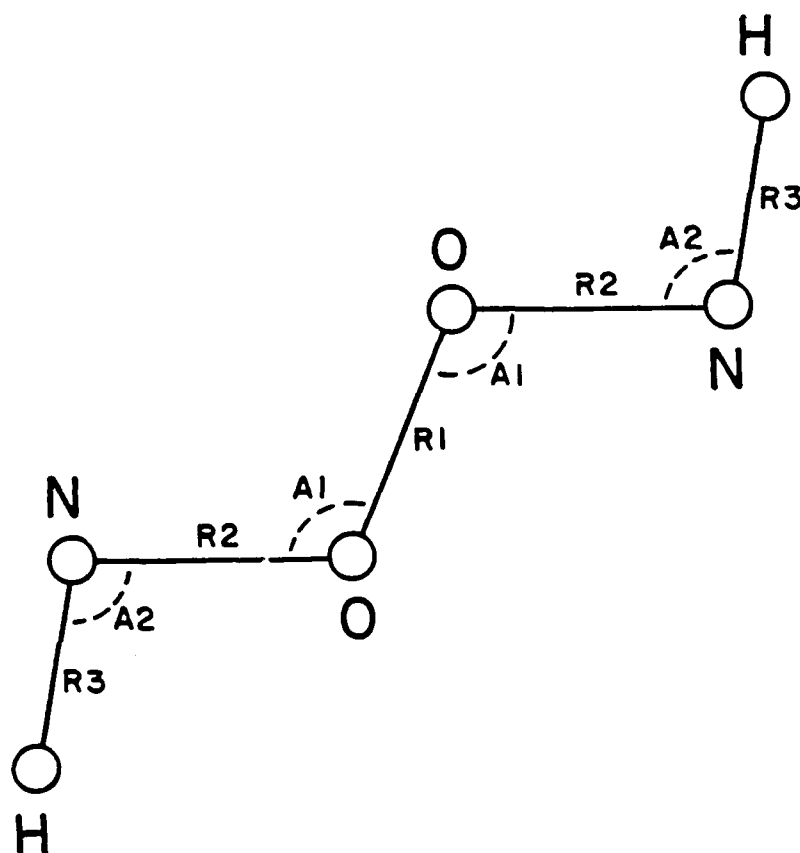
$$\text{Total Energy} = -266.8064233$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .2389873 \text{ Hartrees} = 6.5005 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 8.07 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A25. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of trans N_4B_2 .

Trans N₂H₂O₂



R1 = 1.260825
R2 = 1.300229
R3 = 1.005899
A1 = 112.956557°
A2 = 99.796521°

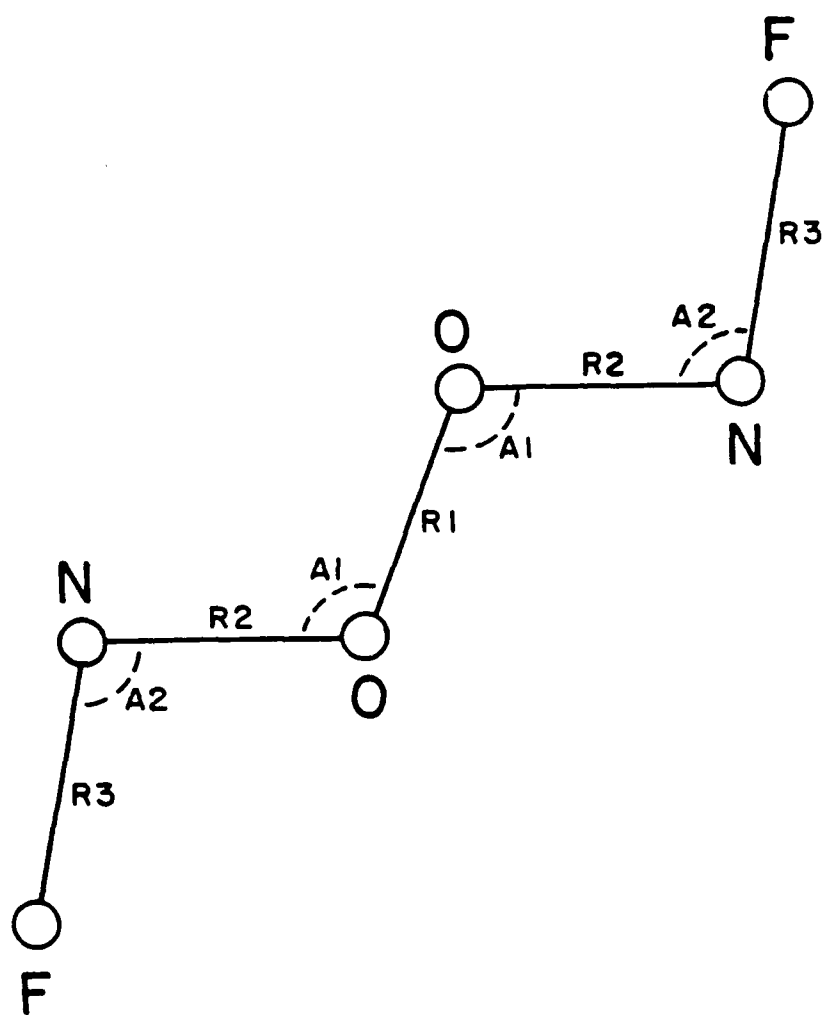
Total Energy = -259.3462083

HEAT OF FORMATION = .3228287 Hartrees = 8.7809 eV

SPECIFIC ENTHALPY = 13.65 MJ/kg

Figure A26. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of trans N₂H₂O₂.

Trans N₂F₂O₂



$$R1 = 1.263938$$

$$R2 = 1.311162$$

$$R3 = 1.338081$$

$$A1 = 111.576175^\circ$$

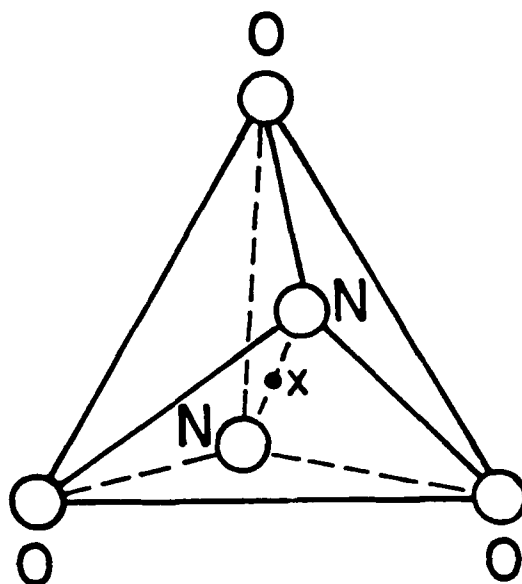
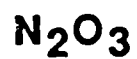
$$A2 = 100.261987^\circ$$

$$\text{Total Energy} = -456.9093693$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .3105966 \text{ Hartrees} = 8.4482 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 8.31 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A27. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of trans N₂F₂O₂.



$$d_{\text{OO}} = 1.94122$$

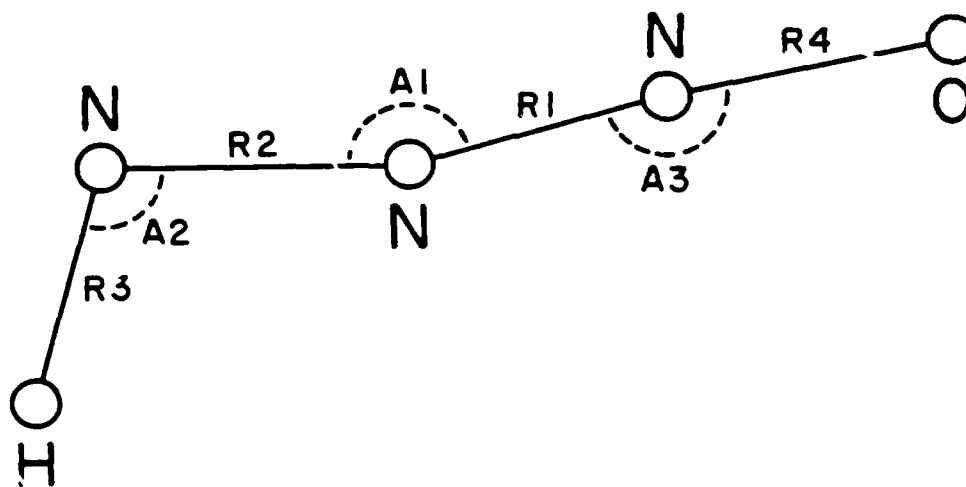
$$d_{\text{NO}} = 1.41942$$

$$\text{Total Energy} = -333.0304189$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .3109202 \text{ Hartrees} = 8.4570 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 10.72 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A28. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of N_2O_3 .



$$R1 = 1.092224$$

$$R2 = 1.27851$$

$$R3 = 1.00633$$

$$R4 = 1.20902$$

$$A1 = 165.835654^\circ$$

$$A2 = 105.853619^\circ$$

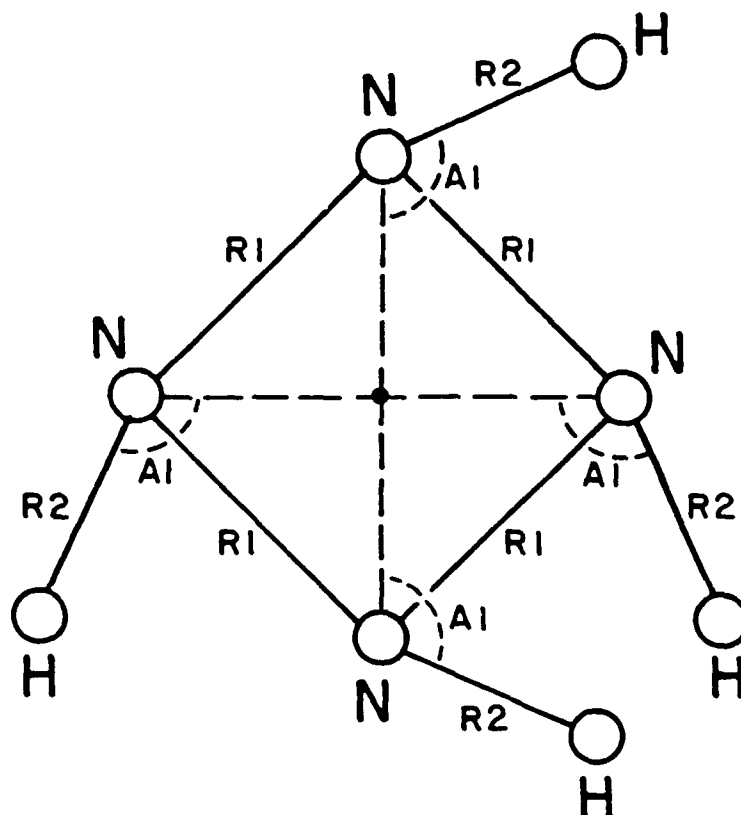
$$A3 = 176.956754^\circ$$

$$\text{Total Energy} = -238.5498836$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .2285844 \text{ Hartrees} = 6.2175 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 10.15 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A29. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of HN₃O.



$$R1 = 1.43963$$

$$R2 = 1.00326$$

$$A1 = 114.38979^\circ$$

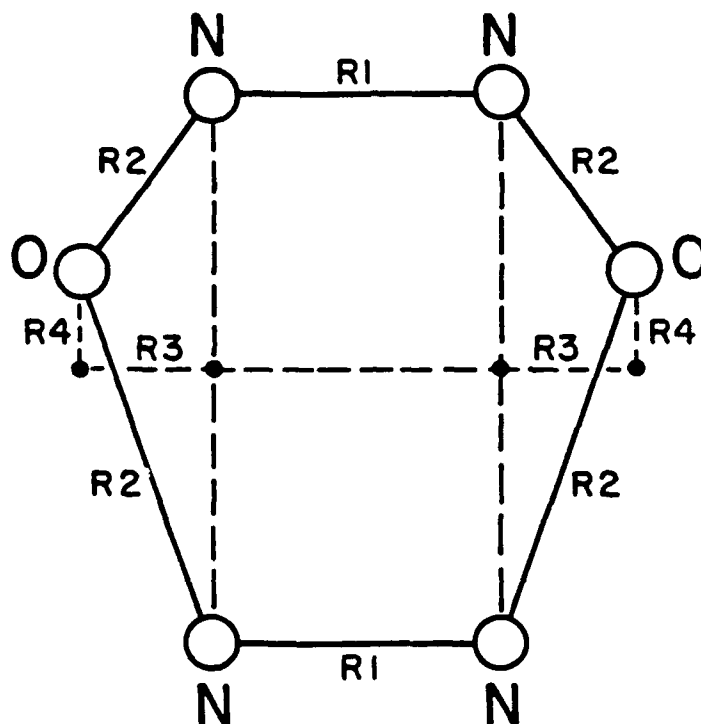
$$\text{Total Energy} = -219.9495478$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .1920068 \text{ Hartrees} = 5.2226 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 8.39 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A30. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of N_4H_4 .

N_4O_2 Boat



$$R_1 = 1.19651$$

$$R_2 = 1.37525$$

$$R_3 = 0.57503$$

$$R_4 = 0.49459$$

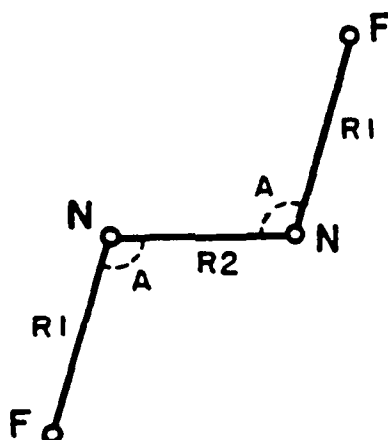
$$\text{Total Energy} = -367.2158732$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .2702855 \text{ Hartrees} = 7.3518 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 8.05 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A31. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of the N_4O_2 boat.

Trans N₂F₂



$$R1 = 1.338713$$

$$R2 = 1.193548$$

$$A = 106.744534^\circ$$

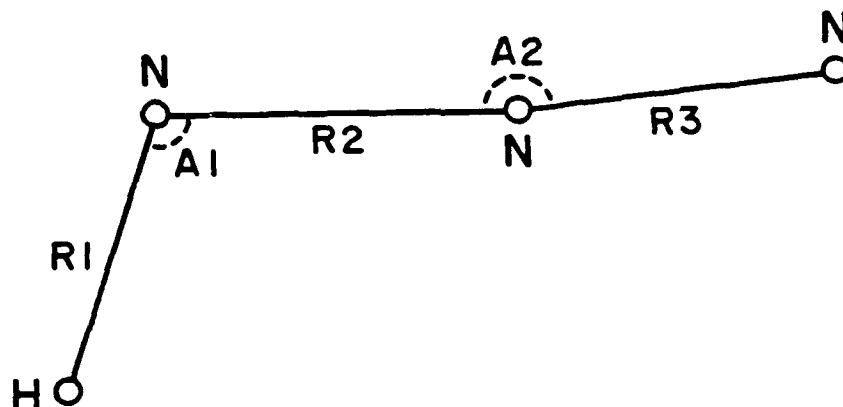
$$\text{Total Energy} = -307.5820929$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .0396133 \text{ Hartrees} = 1.0775 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 1.57 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A32. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of trans N₂F₂.

Hydrogen Azide (HN_3)



$$R1 = 1.005887$$

$$R2 = 1.238722$$

$$R3 = 1.09885$$

$$A1 = 108.242054^\circ$$

$$A2 = 173.740826^\circ$$

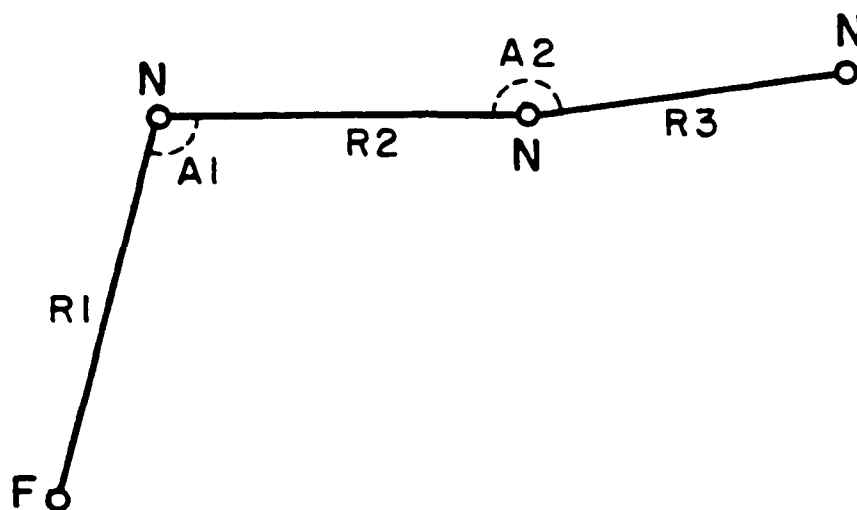
$$\text{Total Energy} = -163.8386958$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .1406424 \text{ Hartrees} = 3.8255 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 8.57 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A33. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of hydrogen azide (HN_3).

Fluorine Azide (FN_3)



$$R1 = 1.3819$$

$$R2 = 1.2536$$

$$R3 = 1.0995$$

$$A1 = 104.33^\circ$$

$$A2 = 173.99^\circ$$

$$\text{Total Energy} = -262.6024876$$

$$\text{HEAT OF FORMATION} = .1523150 \text{ Hartrees} = 4.1430 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{SPECIFIC ENTHALPY} = 6.54 \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Figure A34. SCF 6-31G* geometry and energy of fluorine azide (HN_3).