

Rapid and selective screening of organic peroxide explosives using acid-hydrolysis induced chemiluminescence

This is the Accepted version of the following publication

Mahbub, Parvez, Hasan, Chowdhury, Rudd, David, Voelcker, Nicolas Hans, Orbell, John, Cole, Ivan and Macka, Mirek (2023) Rapid and selective screening of organic peroxide explosives using acid-hydrolysis induced chemiluminescence. Analytica Chimica Acta, 1255. ISSN 0003-2670

The publisher's official version can be found at https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S000326702300377X?via%3Dihub Note that access to this version may require subscription.

Downloaded from VU Research Repository https://vuir.vu.edu.au/45595/

Rapid and selective screening of organic peroxide explosives using acid-hydrolysis 1 induced chemiluminescence 2 Parvez Mahbub^{a*}, Chowdhury Kamrul Hasan^a, David Rudd^{b,c}, Nicolas Hans Voelcker^{b,c,d}, John 3 Orbell^a, Ivan Cole^e, Mirek Macka^{f,g,h} 4 ^aInstitute for Sustainable Industries and Liveable Cities (ISILC), Victoria University, Werribee, 5 Victoria 3030, Australia 6 7 ^bMelbourne Centre for Nanofabrication, Victorian Node of the Australian Fabrication Facility, 8 Clayton, Victoria 3168, Australia 9 ^cDrug Delivery, Disposition and Dynamics, Monash Institute of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Faculty 10 of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia 11 ^dCommonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organization (CSIRO), Clayton, Victoria, 3168, 12 Australia ^eResearch & Innovation Portfolio, RMIT University, Melbourne, Australia 13 ^fAustralian Centre for Research on Separation Science (ACROSS), University of Tasmania, Hobart, 14 15 Australia ^gCentral European Institute of Technology, Brno University of Technology, Purkynova 123, CZ-16 612 00, Brno, Czech Republic 17 ^hDepartment of Chemistry and Biochemistry, Mendel University in Brno, Zemedelska 1, CZ-613 18 00 Brno, Czech Republic 19 *Corresponding Author: parvez.mahbub@vu.edu.au 20 21 22

23 Abstract

Organic peroxide explosives (OPEs) are unstable, non-military, contemporary security threats 24 25 often found in improvised explosive devices. Chemiluminescence (CL) can be used to detect 26 OPEs, via radical formation consisting of peroxide moieties (-O-O-) under acidic conditions. However, selectivity for specific OPEs is hampered by the ubiquitous background of H_2O_2 . Herein, 27 we report the differentiation of hexamethylene triperoxide diamine (HMTD), triacetone 28 triperoxide (TATP), and methyl ethyl ketone peroxide (MEKP) by specific flow injection analysis-29 30 CL (FIA-CL) signal profiles, after H₂SO₄ treatment. The radical degradation pathway of each 31 structure, and its corresponding FIA-CL profile, was explored using mass spectrometry to reveal the rapid loss of -O-O- from TATP and HMTD structures, while MEKP formed CL signal-sustaining 32 33 oligomers, as opposed to the immediate attenuation of H_2O_2 . The CL response for OPEs in an aqueous media, measured via the described FIA-CL method, enabled ultra-trace limits of 34 35 detection down to 0.40 µM for MEKP, 0.43 µM for HMTD, and 0.40 µM for TATP (combined linear 36 range 1-83 μ M with 95% confidence limit, n = 12). Expanded uncertainties of measurement (UM) of MEKP = ± 0.98 , HMTD = ± 1.03 , and TATP = ± 1.1 (UM included probabilities of false positive and 37 false negative as well as standard deviations of % recoveries and limit of detections of OPEs). 38 Direct aqueous sample introduction via FIA-CL thus offers the prospect of rapid and selective 39 40 screening of OPEs in security-heightened settings (e.g., airports), averting false positives from 41 more ubiquitous H_2O_2 .

Keywords: Acid hydrolysis, direct flow injection analysis-chemiluminescence, hydrogen peroxide,
 organic peroxide explosives, rapid screening, selectivity

44 Introduction

Organic peroxide explosives (OPEs) are a special class of explosives not used for military purposes 45 46 due to their highly unstable state. OPEs, such as hexamethylene triperoxide diamine (HMTD) and 47 triacetone triperoxide (TATP), can be synthesized in 'home laboratories'[1]. Crude synthesis of OPEs has been possible because their ingredients, including mineral acids (e.g. nitric, sulfuric or 48 hydrochloric acids), acetone, and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) , are easily accessible. This along with 49 their rapid and simple synthesis has prompted exploitation of OPEs in several public 50 51 incidences[2]. OPEs are often chosen for such activities because HMTD and TATP achieve near 52 military-grade detonation velocity, calculated as 60% and 88% of the velocity of 2,4,6-trinitro 53 toluene, respectively[3]. Methyl ethyl ketone peroxide (MEKP), an emerging OPE, is also claimed 54 to achieve 51% detonation velocity compared to ammonium nitrate explosives[4]. Considering their explosivity and illegal use in public places, rapid screening and selective detection of OPEs 55 56 is highly important.

One issue that inhibits the selective detection of OPEs via chemiluminescence (CL) is the presence 57 of a ubiquitous "background" H₂O₂, originating from household products such as hair dyes and 58 59 nail polish remover. This ubiquitous signal poses the risk of false positives during the rapid 60 screening process. All OPEs contain the peroxy -O-O- moiety, originating from the H_2O_2 utilized in their synthesis. The instability of the -O-O- bond within an OPE structure presents a challenge 61 62 when attempting to differentiate an OPE signal from background H_2O_2 in a rapid screening 63 scenario; a currently unresolved concern. Krivitsky et al. (2019) have reported electrode sensing of OPE vapor from collected air, unhindered from background H₂O₂[5]. However, it was noted 64 65 that at H_2O_2 concentrations beyond 150 ppm (4.4 mM) generate peaks at the same voltages as

TATP and HMTD, raising the possibility of false positives at the higher concentrations of H_2O_2 that are expected from household products. To account for the potential broad range of H_2O_2 that can be found in security settings, research on developing rapid and selective OPE screening is warranted.

70 Several degradation mechanisms of H_2O_2 in aqueous solutions (e.g., acid/base hydrolysis, photolysis, redox and enzymatic degradation) could be employed to eliminate the interference 71 72 of background H₂O₂. Of these, acid hydrolysis is the simplest and most inexpensive approach that 73 could be incorporated into a microfluidic system for interference-free OPE screening. Therefore, 74 we initially demonstrated a new screening approach for OPEs in aqueous samples, which involved 75 acid hydrolysis to differentiate OPEs from background H₂O₂. Following this, we developed a new 76 analytical method via flow injection analysis-CL (FIA-CL), which enabled ultra-trace detection of OPEs in a time-sensitive manner without onerous sample preparation compared to conventional 77 78 detection methods.

79 Conventional detection of OPEs has included electrochemical[5, 6], acid-hydrolysis[7], photolysis[2], and reverse phase high performance liquid chromatography-Fourier transform 80 infrared (RP HPLC-FTIR)[8]. Additionally, surface-assisted laser desorption/ionization-time of 81 82 flight-mass spectrometry (SALDI-TOF-MS) and direct analysis in real time (DART-MS) were employed in analyzing liquid OPE samples spread on ceramic tiles[9]. For liquid OPE samples 83 collected on vendor supplied polytetrafluoroethylene filters, ion mobility -tandem mass 84 85 spectroscopy (IM-MS/MS) was employed [10]. The analysis time, as is typically required by these classical methods, varies between 1 and 30 min, with most requiring large laboratory-grade 86 instrumentation, arduous sample preparation, and analytes in volatile/aerosol forms, which may 87

88 limit their availability in many on-site investigations [11]. Conversely, solid OPE samples were 89 analyzed by stand-alone IMS with a built-in Faraday plate electron capture detector, reported by Oxley and co-workers[12]. The IMS systems were reported to facilitate fast analysis time (<7 90 91 sec)[13], but the sample preparation time might take up to 16 days for specific OPEs (e.g., TATP) 92 in explosive-mode (E-mode or negative IMS mode), mainly due to low detection sensitivity and high detection limit or LOD (3.9 µg for TATP) in E-mode[12]. In fact, the reported LODs of TATP 93 (0.8 µg) in the studies of Oxley et al. (2008), were achieved in narcotics-mode (N-mode or positive 94 IMS mode) through (1) placing human hair directly into the IMS desorption chamber, (2) 95 swabbing hair with a sample trap and its subsequent placement within the vapour desorption 96 unit, and (3) adding acetonitrile extract of hair to sample trap and then sample trap to desorption 97 98 unit[12]. Ideally, during a rapid screening scenario, a swab is preferable to placing bodily components into the IMS desorption unit. This together with the high vapor pressures of many 99 100 OPEs exacerbate the problem of an increased LOD for trace residual OPEs on a surface, due to their rapid volatilization in ambient air. Additionally, the selection of positive or negative ion 101 102 modes in IMS appears to be a limiting factor in controlling the sensitivity and detection limits of 103 OPEs via IMS. For example, whilst TATP was reported to be detected only in positive mode[12, 14], HMTD was shown to be determined in both positive and negative modes. Recently, HMTD 104 105 was reported to form only negative product ions in the IMS's drift tube, thereby, acquired in 106 negative detection modes[15]. This, together with a conventional screening system's inability to directly analyse aqueous OPE samples and a reliance on onerous sample preparation prior to 107 108 their transfer to a costly thermal desorber [16, 17], demands an alternative screening system for OPEs. 109

110 OPEs are highly sensitive to impact, friction, and temperature change[18], readily releasing 111 compounds with unstable peroxy moieties (e.g. unstable C₃H₆O₂ isomers from TATP)[19], that 112 are detectable at trace levels in various sample matrices via the conventional analytical methods 113 previously mentioned. In these contexts, rapid microfluidic detection systems such as FIA-CL, that 114 negate selecting negative/positive modes, presents one of the fastest, most portable, and widely employed analytical applications [20] for direct (without sample preparation) detection of OPEs 115 in aqueous solutions. Previous studies focused on indirect OPE detection (measuring the 116 117 concentration of released H_2O_2) via acid hydrolysis and photolysis [2, 7], involved lengthy sample 118 preparation. To date, direct detection of OPEs (i.e. in situ without sample preparation) in aqueous forms via a portable microfluidic platform has not been reported. Therefore, in this study, we 119 120 present the development of a rapid and selective approach of differentiating OPEs from residual H₂O₂ via acid hydrolysis, aiming towards their subsequent direct detection (in case of a positive 121 122 screening result of OPE) in aqueous forms via FIA-CL without onerous sample preparation.

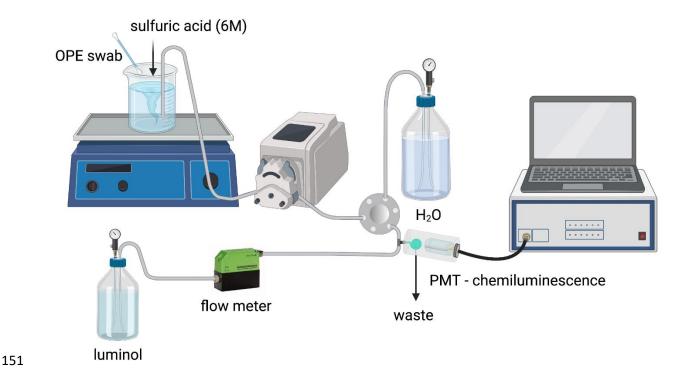
123 Materials and Methods

124 Chemicals and Consumables

Analytical grade chemicals were used throughout. 30% (w/w) H₂O₂ was purchased from Sigma Aldrich, Australia. Acids were selected based on gradually lower acid dissociation constants. HPLC grade 98% sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄), nitric acid (HNO₃), acetic acid (CH₃COOH) and lactic acid (C₃H₆O₃) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, Australia. OPE standards (99.9% HMTD and TATP in acetonitrile) were obtained from AccuStandard, USA, and MEKP was purchased from Sigma Aldrich, Australia. Various oxidizers/reducers such as potassium permanganate (KMnO₄), potassium dichromate ($K_2Cr_2O_7$), orthoperiodic acid (H_5IO_6), L-ascorbic acid ($C_6H_8O_6$), and potassium iodide (KI) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, Australia. More information about CL agents and CL assay preparation are given in supplementary information (**Table S1**). The fluoroethylene polymer (part no. 1677L) tubing and accessories (e.g., nuts and ferrules) to construct the microfluidic FIA-CL system were purchased from Idex Health and Science, USA.

136 Instrumentations

A Hamamatsu head-on photomultiplier tube (PMT) was employed for CL measurements. The 137 138 PMT housed a built-in power supply circuit and a low noise amplifier (H7827-001, Japan) with 139 maximum emission sensitivity at ~430 nm wavelength. The circular CL reaction flow cell (CNC 140 milled; 2 mm nominal depth) was sealed with precision-cut quartz glass, having 99% 141 transmittance of the visible wavelength. A powerchrom data acquisition unit (eDAQ Pty Ltd., 142 Sydney, Australia), installed with a powerchrom software (version 2.8.3), was employed for 143 analyzing the PMT data. A Rheodyne manual injector (6 port 2 position Make-Before-Break (MBB[™]) Model 7725i, Merck Pty Ltd., Sydney, Australia) was connected to a peristaltic pump and 144 used as an automated sample loader. Fluid propulsions were regulated in a pulse-free manner 145 by micro-pressure regulators (IR 1000-01, SMC Corporation, Japan), which were connected to 146 500 mL Schott glass bottles via pneumatic tubing (6 mm ID, SMC Japan). Liquid flow rates were 147 148 precisely monitored with a Sensirion electronic microfluidic flow meter (SLI-1000-FMK, Sensirion 149 AG, Switzerland). A schematic representation of instrumentations is shown in Figure 1.



152 Figure 1. Schematic of rapid and selective screening of OPEs via FIA-CL platform showing the 153 addition of sulfuric acid in a flow system as a rapid screening step that differentiates the chemiluminescence of luminol via release of peroxy moieties from OPEs from that of ubiquitous 154 H₂O₂. PMT= photomultiplier tube. Known concentrations of OPEs on pig skins were deposited 155 156 and swabbed from the skin surface within 10 min of deposition. Swabs were dipped in 200 mL 157 deionised water. The FIA-CL method has two steps: 1. Rapid and selective differentiation of OPEs 158 from H_2O_2 by comparing initial peaks without acid with subsequent peaks with acid, and 2. In 159 case of a positive screening result of OPE, quantitation of OPE via analysing the initial peaks without acid from step 1. For optimal composition of CL assay, please refer to Table S1 in the 160 supplementary information. 161

162 FIA-CL method of screening and selective differentiation of OPEs

163 The aim of this study was to understand the screening and differentiation of OPEs from H_2O_2 164 using FIA-CL as a suitable microfluidic platform. As Figs. 2-4 were focused on understanding the 165 principles of differentiating OPEs from H_2O_2 during acid hydrolysis, equal concentrations of OPE 166 and H_2O_2 (~9-10 μ M) hydrolysed by 6 M H_2SO_4 were injected into the FIA-CL system following the 167 parameters given in Table 1. The experiment described in Fig. 5 aimed to illustrate the effect of 168 dissociation constants of different acids on the degradation of OPE. Hence, in Fig. 5, 2.5 µM MEKP 169 hydrolysed by 1 M of various acids were injected. In our effort to illustrate the determinative step 170 in case of a positive OPE screening result, the experiment in Fig. 8 demonstrated whether a single 171 swab loaded with OPE from a model skin surface can quantitatively detect OPEs or not. Hence, in Fig. 8, 10 μL 30 mM OPEs were swabbed within 10 minutes of deposition on 25 mm x 25 mm 172 173 cut of pig skins and dipped into 200 mL DI water blank, followed by injection into the FIA-CL as 174 per the optimised parameters of Table 1.

175 The CL line of Fig. 1 (i.e., line connecting luminol bottle to PMT) was fitted with the flow meter, 176 and hence the flow rate in this line was precisely measured and observed on the computer screen. The carrier line of Fig. 1 (i.e., line connecting H₂O bottle to PMT) did not have a flow 177 178 meter, and hence flow rate in this line was only controlled via the SMC pressure regulators. For 179 optimum performance of both pressure regulators, we maintained a constant 60 psi building 180 pressure (termed as regulated back pressure) at the inlet. We aimed to maintain a rapid analysis time (<60 sec from injection to detection) and found that 20 psi in CL line and 50 psi in carrier 181 line resulted reproducible peaks within ~30 sec of the injection. For this FIA set-up, the CL line 182 showed a flow rate of 250 µL min⁻¹ via the flow meter. For maximum reproducible peak intensity, 183 184 we employed the similar CL assay used in our previous FIA-CL studies [2, 7]. Table 1 provides the 185 FIA-CL operating conditions.

Table 1: Optimised operating conditions of the FIA-CL system for selective OPE detection (Fig. 1).
Abbreviations: internal diameter (ID); outside diameter (OD).

FIA-CL parameter	Optimisation range tested	Final optimal value				
Sample loop	20 - 100 μL	40 µL				
CL line (ID)	1.5- 2 mm	1.5 mm				
CL line (OD)	3 mm	3 mm				
Carrier line (ID)	1.5- 2 mm	1.5 mm				
Carrier line (OD)	3 mm	3 mm				
CL pressure	20-40 psi	20 psi				
Carrier pressure	20-50 psi	50 psi				
Regulated back pressu	ire 60 -100 psi	60 psi				
PMT gain range	980- 1000 mV	986 mV				
CL flowcell	2 mm ID; 1 mL nominal volume	2 mm				
Pneumatic line (ID)	6 mm	6 mm				
Fixed assay conditions						
CL assay	luminol (0.51 mM) and cobalt chloride (9.96 μ M CoCl ₂ .6H ₂ O) in aqeous media with Na ₂ HPO _{4.} 7H ₂ O (50 mM) and NaOH (40 mM)					
Carrier media	Millipore 18.2 M Ω cm at 25 °C deionised water					

188

189 Characterization of Acid Degradation Products of OPEs

The acid degradation products of OPEs were investigated by direct sample analysis-time of flight mass spectrometry (DSA-TOF MS), which consisted of a mass spectrometer (AxION2 TOF MS, Perkin Elmer, USA) coupled with an ionization source (AxION® DSA™, Perkin Elmer, USA). Acquisition parameters were set at 10 spectra/s, pulsed, in positive mode. Ion source voltages included: needle 2000 V, endplate 200 V, and capillary 800 V. The drying gas flow rate was maintained at 3 L min⁻¹. Nitrogen was used as the ionization gas for all DSA-TOF MS experiments, and the atmospheric pressure chemical ionization (APCI) heating temperature was set to 220 °C. The mass spectra for OPEs were collected in full scan acquisition mode (m/z 50 – 2000). APCI-L low concentration tuning mix (G1969-85010, Agilent Technologies) was employed for DSA calibration. Initially, 5 μ L of OPEs (1 μ M), prepared in ultrapure water (UPW), was deposited on the sample mesh of DSA-TOF-MS to observe their mass spectral signature. Then, 1 μ L of concentrated OPEs (1:4 v/v OPE standard: UPW) was placed on the sample mesh, followed by 1 μ L of concentrated OPEs in 3.25 μ L UPW and 0.75 μ L 6M H₂SO₄.

Desorption ionization on silicon (DIOS) TOF MS (Ultraflextreme, Bruker, Germany) was also 203 204 employed to confirm the acid degradation products of OPEs. The DIOS surface was fabricated in-205 house at the Melbourne Centre for Nanofabrication (MCN)[21]. After calibration of the 206 instrument with cesium iodide clusters[21], acquisition was obtained in reflectron positive mode 207 using a 1 KHz Smartbeam[™]-II laser, with a 100 µm laser diameter, collecting 1000 shots @ 1000 208 Hz in a random walk pattern. Spectra were collected in the 40 - 3500 Da range. For DIOS TOF MS, 209 initially, 0.2 μ L of standard OPE sample was deposited on the DIOS surface. Then, 1 μ L of concentrated OPEs was spiked with 1 µL 6M H₂SO₄. From this mixture, 0.2 µL of aliquot was 210 placed directly on the DIOS surface for MS analysis. 211

212 Results and Discussions

Since H_2O_2 could be potentially present in an OPE screening environment, we initially determined residual H_2O_2 concentration on cotton (shirt), pig skin, acrylic (false nails), and synthetic human hair; mimicking possible areas where H_2O_2 contamination might be present. Swabs of 6% household H_2O_2 from these surfaces revealed that pig skin elicited the most reproducible FIA-CL signal, compared to other models (Figure S1). Residual H_2O_2 recovery from swabs (maximum 218 value estimated to be $79 \pm 1.4\%$) were then tested by spiking the sterile polystyrene surface with 219 10 μ L household 6% H₂O₂ (Figure S3). Its recovery efficiency of H₂O₂ for other surfaces is shown 220 in Table S2. As background H_2O_2 may interfere with direct OPE detection, we focused on 221 eliminating this using various oxidizing/reducing agents, namely potassium permanganate 222 (KMnO₄), potassium dichromate ($K_2Cr_2O_7$), orthoperiodic acid (H_5IO_6), ascorbic acid ($C_6H_8O_6$), and potassium iodide (KI) (Figure S4 & S5). The intent was to conduct a selective analysis to 223 differentiate OPEs from background H_2O_2 . Our results indicated that neither of these 224 225 oxidizers/reducers met that purpose (Figure S6). This led us to employ acid hydrolysis as a 226 selective screening approach to differentiate OPEs from H_2O_2 . A direct FIA-CL approach to rapidly 227 detect OPEs, without onerous sample preparation, would be more fitting with screening in a 228 security environment, and amenable to miniaturization into a microfluidic system.

229 **Distinguishing H₂O₂ from the OPEs**

230 Initially, the decomposition of H_2O_2 in the presence of H_2SO_4 was investigated. The addition of H_2SO_4 to H_2O_2 caused degradation of H_2O_2 and resulted in incomplete reaction between its 231 232 degradation products and luminol, as evident in the broadening of the peaks (heights of peaks 4-233 6 compared to those of peaks 1-3), as shown in Figure 2. Such broadening of the peaks was due 234 to the decreasing pH level (pH 2.52 upon addition of H_2SO_4) in the FIA-CL system. The low level of pH was probably responsible for an incomplete chemiluminescence (CL) reaction in the system 235 (as opposed to optimal pH level of ~9-11), which was confirmed by our previous study [7], 236 237 reporting the pH dependence of CL reaction between H₂O₂ and luminol. It was further stated that 238 the CL signals markedly reduced at pH 8, showing no signal at pH 2.5[7]. The slight increase in the signals of peaks 1-3 from 3 consecutive injections of 10 µM H₂O₂ in Fig. 2 might have resulted due 239

240 to instantaneous fluctuation in flow regime during injection via the manual injector, although 241 such minor fluctuations do not affect the measurement as long as the relative standard deviations (RSDs) of signals were within acceptable limits for analytical measurement (Burrows 242 and Parr 2020) [22]. Additionally, we emphasize that Fig. 2 is intended towards finding 243 244 differentiating phenomena during acid hydrolysis of H_2O_2 , rather than quantitation of H_2O_2 . Hence, the increase in peak heights 1-3 in Fig. 2 did not affect our investigation of finding the 245 differentiating phenomena. For quantitative analyses, please see our discussions of Fig. 8 later in 246 247 the 'Direct Detection' section. Additionally, we maintained a constant gain (i.e., output voltage) of PMT and almost equal and comparable concentrations of OPE and H₂O₂ (~9-10 µM) in our 248 attempt to find the differentiating phenomena amongst these substances in Figs. 2-4. 249

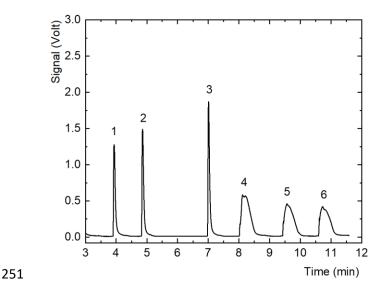


Figure 2. Showing attenuation of chemiluminescence signal intensity (average signal to noise or S/N of peaks 4-6 = 0.5 V \pm 0.05) following spiking H₂O₂ (200 mL of 10 μ M) with H₂SO₄ (50 μ L of 6M) compared to signal intensity without H₂SO₄ (average S/N of peaks 1-3 = 1.6 V \pm 0.3). [injection volume: 40 μ L, flow rate: 250 μ L min⁻¹ in CL line, pressure: 20 psi in CL line and 50 psi

in carrier line; CL assay: 0.51 mM luminol + 9.96 μ M CoCl₂.6H₂O in 50 mM Na₂HPO₄.7H₂O and 40 mM NaOH buffer]. Approximately 7.3 fold broadening of peaks 4-6 (full width at half maxima or FWHM = 0.58 ± 0.08 min) resulting from acid hydrolysis of H₂O₂ as compared to peaks 1-3 (FWHM = 0.08 ± 0.002 min)

260 Notably, on the addition of H₂SO₄ (50 µL of 6 M), MEKP generated sustained and saturated 261 luminescence signals, reaching the maximum voltage limit coming from the PMT detector (peaks 4, 5 with H₂SO₄ compared to peaks 1-3 without H₂SO₄) (Figure 3). The signal response returned 262 to original peak intensity on removal of H₂SO₄ (peaks 6-8 in Figure 3). A similar saturated signal 263 264 was achieved even when a 2-fold reduction of volume of H₂SO₄ was applied, indicating release of 265 peroxy (-O-O-) moleties either from direct degradation or from oligomeric derivatives of OPEs, 266 which can form through hydrolysis and acid condensation/polymerization (Figure 4; volume of 267 6M H₂SO₄ down to 25 μ L from 50 μ L as in Figure 3). The acid-catalyzed (e.g. using H₂SO₄) stepwise 268 degradation pathway of OPEs, marked by the release of H₂O₂ and acetone, was proposed by 269 Armitt et al. (2008)[23]. This proposition is also supported by Tsaplev (2012)[24], reporting that the rate of active oxygen (i.e. H₂O₂) formation from TATP increased with increasing acid 270 concentrations, which was more prominent in H₂SO₄ than in HCl. 271

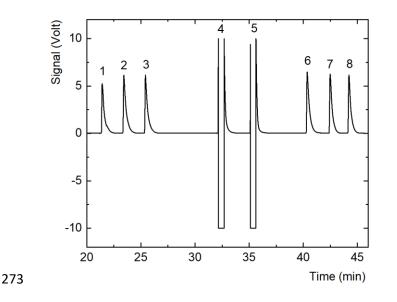
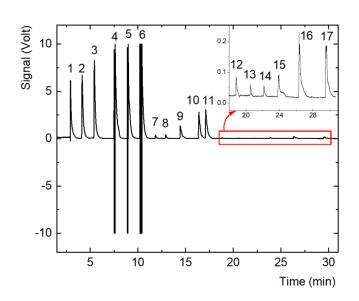


Figure 3. Effect of acid hydrolysis on MEKP (peaks 1-3: 10 µM MEKP with average peak signal to 274 noise or S/N= 6.1 \pm 0.4 volts, peaks 4-5: 10 μ M MEKP after H₂SO₄ treatment resulting signal 275 276 saturation), showing remarkable increase in signal intensity exceeding the FIA-CL detector's capacity due to the release of peroxy moieties from MEKP, and peaks 6-8 (average S/N = $6.3 \pm$ 277 278 0.01 volts) returned to normal peak intensity when H₂SO₄ was removed. The relative standard deviation (RSD %) of six MEKP peaks (i.e., 1-3 and 6-8) = 4.2%, which is well within the acceptable 279 280 RSDs at ppb level of analyte concentrations [25]. [injection volume: 40 µL, volume of 6M H₂SO₄: 50 µL, flow rate: 250 µL min⁻¹ in CL line, pressure: 20 psi in CL line and 50 psi in carrier line; CL 281 assay: 0.51 mM luminol + 9.96 µM CoCl₂.6H₂O in 50 mM Na₂HPO₄.7H₂O and 40 mM NaOH buffer]. 282

284 Conversely, it was interesting to note how the CL signal intensity changed when lower 285 concentrations of H₂SO₄, along with nitric acid (HNO₃), acetic acid (CH₃COOH), and lactic acid 286 (C₃H₆O₃) were used. Noticeably, lowering acid concentrations from 6 M (Figure 4) to 1 M (Figure 287 5) not only increased the pH value in the FIA-CL system, but also enabled overall sharper peak 288 shapes with reduced peak tailing and splitting (as compared to Figure 4). Such signal behavior of 289 the system also indicated more complete CL reactions.



291

290

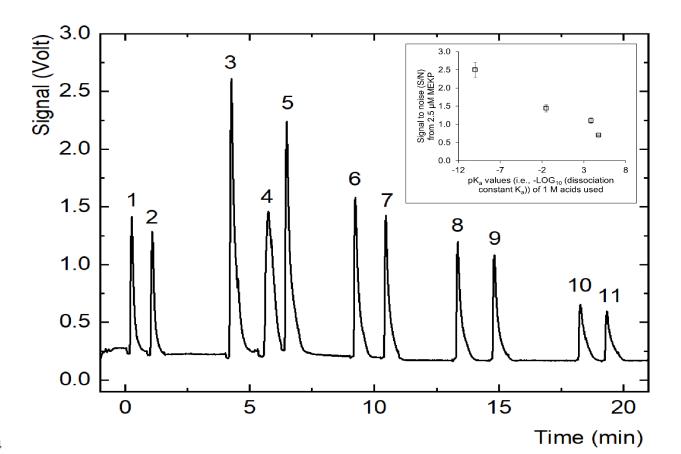
292 Figure 4. Consistent boost of signal intensity when treating OPEs by H₂SO₄ with a 2-fold reduction 293 in the volume of acid used. Peaks 1-3: 10 μ M MEKP (average signal-to noise or S/N 7.1 ± 1.1 volts), 294 peaks 4-6: 10 μ M MEKP after H₂SO₄ treatment resulting signal saturation as in Fig. 3, peaks 7-8: 295 9.6 μ M HMTD (average S/N 0.51 ± 0.01 volts, FWHM = 0.351 ± 0.001 min), peaks 9-11: 9.6 μ M 296 HMTD after H_2SO_4 treatment (FWHM = 0.95 ± 0.05 min, thus acid hydrolysis resulting ~2.7 fold 297 HMTD peak broadening compared to peaks 7-8), peaks 13-14: 8.9 μ M TATP (average S/N 0.071 298 \pm 0.001 volts, FWHM = 0.32 \pm 0.01 min, and peaks 15-17: 8.9 μ M TATP after H₂SO₄ treatment 299 (FWHM = 0.55 ± 0.04 , thus acid hydrolysis resulting ~1.72 fold TATP peak broadening compared to peaks 13-14]. [injection volume: 40 μ L, volume of 6M H₂SO₄: 25 μ L, flow rate: 250 μ L min⁻¹ in 300 301 CL line, pressure: 20 psi in CL line and 50 psi in carrier line; CL assay: 0.51 mM luminol + 9.96 μM 302 CoCl₂.6H₂O in 50 mM Na₂HPO₄.7H₂O and 40 mM NaOH buffer].

303

Observing the peaks in Figs. 4, we emphasize that in our attempt to find the differentiating phenomena during acid hydrolysis of OPEs, the on and off acid-intervention into the system in Figs. 4 might have resulted pH fluctuations in the system, thereby affecting the resulting peak heights and shapes of OPEs. Nevertheless, Figs. 2 -4 established the differentiating phenomena during acid hydrolysis (i.e., signal boost in case of OPEs and signal attenuation in case of H₂O₂).

The dissociation constant values of acids (pK_a) had a pronounced effect on protonating the MEKP 310 311 structure and its consequent release of peroxy moieties, which is observed in Fig. 5 through the 312 gradually reduced signal intensities starting from 1 M H_2SO_4 (pK_a = -10.0) and ending with 1 M CH₃COOH (pK_a = 4.75). Figure 5 further indicated that no other acids except H₂SO₄ were found to 313 314 be capable of differentiating the residual H₂O₂ peaks from that of OPEs. Such differentiation was evident when 1 M of H_2SO_4 was added to the OPE samples, releasing significant amount of 315 H₂O₂/derivatives containing peroxy moieties from this OPE structure and causing an increase of 316 the peak signals unlike nitric (HNO₃), lactic ($C_3H_6O_3$) or acetic (CH₃COOH) acids. Acetic acid's 317 inability to degrade OPEs (e.g. TATP) was also observed by Armitt et al. (2008)[23]. Additionally, 318 319 as acid hydrolysis continuously progresses within each sample that were repeatedly injected, the 'not so good' repeatability of the peaks in Fig. 5 (e.g., amongst peaks 3-5, or amongst peaks 6-7 320 321 and so on) is expected after the start of acid treatment. From the above discussion, we propose that H_2SO_4 can be employed for selective differentiation of OPEs from residual H_2O_2 . 322

323



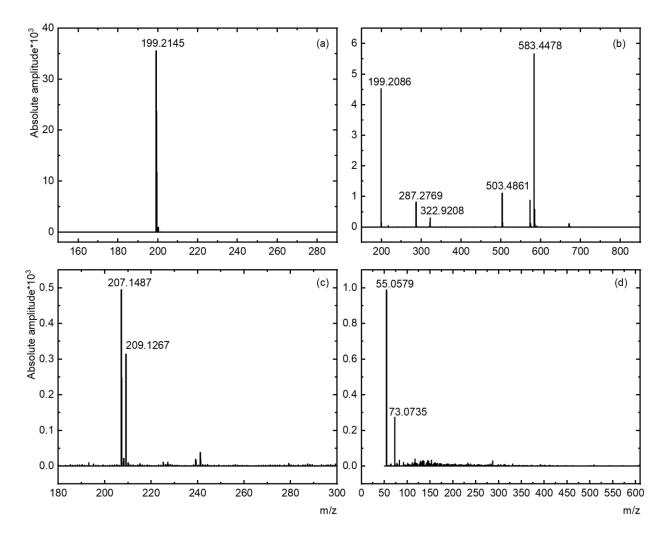
Page 17 of 30

325 Figure 5. Comparison of signal intensities when MEKP (2.5 μ M) treated with 1 M acids with gradually reduced acid dissociation constant values. [peaks 1-2: without acid treatment, peaks 3 326 327 -5: after H_2SO_4 treatment (pK_a = -10.0), peaks 6-7: after HNO₃ treatment (pK_a = -1.5), peaks 8-9: after $C_3H_6O_3$ treatment (pK_a = 3.86), peaks 10-11: after CH₃COOH treatment (pK_a = 4.75)]. 328 [injection volume: 40 μL, volume of acids: 10 μL each, flow rate: 250 μL min⁻¹ in CL line, pressure: 329 20 psi in CL line and 50 psi in carrier line; CL assay: 0.51 mM luminol + 9.96 μ M CoCl₂.6H₂O in 50 330 331 mM Na₂HPO_{4.}7H₂O and 40 mM NaOH buffer]. The gradual increase in the degree of acid hydrolysis of 2.5 µM MEKP via utilizing stronger acids is shown in the inset. 332

333 Acid Condensation Polymerization of OPEs

To understand how each OPE generates a specific chemiluminescence profile, and hence 334 335 generates selectivity in the FIA-CL response, we used mass spectrometry to determine the effect 336 of H₂SO₄ on OPE structure. DSA-TOF-MS detected both MEKP and HMTD, as well as their H₂SO₄ acid degradation products. When H₂SO₄ was applied to MEKP, a MEKP dimer was detected at 337 338 m/z 199.2086 as well as higher order oligomers such as, trimer at m/z 287.2769, tetramer at m/z 322.5292, pentamer at 503.4861, and a Na⁺ adduct ion of hexamer at m/z 583.4478 (Figures 6a-339 b). The formation of MEKP's oligomers via acid condensation polymerization in acidic 340 341 environment has been previously reported by Milas and Golubovic (1959)[26] and Yuan et al. (2005)[27]. All these oligomers of MEKP contain multiple numbers of peroxy (-O-O-) moieties, 342 and higher order MEKP oligomers contain more peroxy moieties than the lowers order oligomers. 343 The chemiluminescence (CL) reaction in our proposed FIA-CL approach is a cobalt catalysed 344 345 luminol CL reaction with maximum emission at 425 nm. Burdo and Seitz (1975) [28] have reported that a cobalt- H₂O₂ complex is the essential Intermediate required for cobalt catalysed luminol 346 CL. As (-O-O-) moieties are common in MEKP acid-hydrolysates as well as in H₂O₂, we expect 347 similar cobalt catalysed CL reactions between MEKP oligomers and luminol. Hence, the increased 348

presence of these peroxy moieties leads to more intense CL, thereby likely to contributing to the 349 350 saturation of FIA signals as demonstrated in Figure 4 (peak heights 4-6 compared to peaks 1-3). The DSA-TOF-MS analyses further revealed complete degradation of HMTD (m/z 209.1267) and 351 its dialdehyde derivative tetramethylene diperoxide diamine dialdehyde (TMDDD) (m/z 352 207.1487)[29] into decomposition products[30], identified as [C₃H₇ON+H]⁺ at m/z 74.097, 353 [2(CHO)NH] at m/z 73.0735, and $[C_3H_2O+H]^+$ at m/z 55.0579 (Figures 6c-d). The release of the 354 355 peroxy moiety (-O-O-) from the completely degraded HMTD and TMDDD during H₂SO₄ hydrolysis 356 resulted in the sharp increase in FIA signals, as it was shown in Figure 4 (peak heights 9-11 compared to peaks 7-8). 357



Page 19 of 30

Figure 6. DSA-TOF mass spectra of OPEs with/without H₂SO₄ analyzed, (a) MEKP (1 μ L of 30.2 μ M in ultrapure water (UPW), (b) MEKP (1 μ L of 30.2 μ M in UPW) spiked with H₂SO₄ (4 μ L of 6M), (c) HMTD (1 μ L of 96.1 μ M in UPW), and (d) HMTD (1 μ L of 96.1 μ M in UPW) spiked with H₂SO₄ (4 μ L of 6M).

363

364 Employing DSA-TOF MS to analyze TATP appeared to provide inconsistent spectra. This is partly related to TATP's high volatility at ambient condition because of its low vapor pressure of 4.65 x 365 10⁻² Torr at 25 °C[31]. Hence, we employed an alternative mild ionization technique, 366 367 desorption/ionization on silicon (DIOS) TOF MS for detection and identification of TATP acid degradation products, which allows partial trapping of the TATP sample into a nanoporous silicon 368 369 layer. DIOS TOF MS showed a TATP tetramer at m/z 298.417, following laser 370 desorption/ionization (Figure 7a). The formation of a TATP tetramer (C₁₂H₂₄O₈) is also supported by Jiang et al. (1999)[32], who reported the existence of a similar oligomer when acetone was 371 372 oxidized by 30% H₂O₂ in presence of tin (IV) chloride pentahydrate (SnCl₄.5H₂O) as a catalyst. The tetramer was found to further degrade into fragments when TATP was spiked with H₂SO₄ (Figure 373 7b). 374

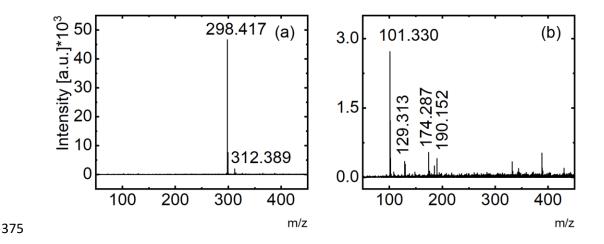


Figure 7. DIOS TOF mass spectra of TATP, (a) before (1 μ L of 449 μ M TATP) and (b) after spiking with H₂SO₄ (1 μ L of 449 μ M TATP + 1 μ L 6M H₂SO₄).

378 These fragments correspond to the major moieties found in the TATP tetramer structure, for example, m/z 190 [M-CH₃COOCH₃- H₂O₂], m/z 174 [M-CH₃COOCH₃-H₂O₂-CH₂], m/z 129 [M-379 CH₃COOCH₃-CH₃COO-H₂O₂], and m/z 101 [M-CH₃COOCH₃-H₂O₂-CH]. The release of CH₃COOCH₃ 380 from TATP, when exposed to H₂SO₄, agrees with the findings of Armit *et al* (2008)[23]. MS/MS 381 analysis (Figure S7) of m/z 298 revealed the loss of CH₃COOCH₃ fragments from the tetramer, 382 383 giving rise to moieties 2(CH₃)COO- at m/z 74.44, 2(CH₃)CO-H at m/z 56.793, and CH₂CO at m/z 384 42.512. The release of such moieties due to thermal decomposition of TATP matched with those 385 described by Hiyoshi and Nakamura (2007)[33]. The release of these derivatives following spiking the TATP with H_2SO_4 confirmed the sharp rise in FIA-CL signal intensity, shown in Figure 4 (peak 386 387 heights 12-14 compared to peaks 15-17). Clearly, degradation of OPEs takes place in the presence of H₂SO₄, generating several of their oligomers, which trigger a structure specific FIA-CL signal, 388 389 differentiating OPEs from background H₂O₂ and from each other.

Direct Detection of OPEs in FIA-CL System

391 After positively screening the OPEs from H_2O_2 , the logical next-step would be their quantitative 392 detection via FIA-CL. We mentioned 'direct' to highlight the fact that in the event of a positive screening result in the initial screening step, OPEs can be quantified without any further sample 393 394 injection and/or conventional sample preparation on a microfluidic platform. The initial OPE 395 signals without acid as detected in step 1 of the proposed FIA-CL approach can be employed for OPE quantitation. If the result of rapid OPE screening is negative, then there will be no need for 396 their 'direct' detection. As mentioned in the supplementary information, pig skins being the 397 398 closest model to human skin, we swabbed known concentrations of OPEs from pig skins (25 mm 399 x 25 mm square pieces as shown in Fig. S2) in our attempt to analyse real samples. In this context, we emphasize that a sample with both OPE and background H₂O₂ will boost the analytical signal 400 401 after acid hydrolysis as OPEs via either losing -O-O- moieties from HMTD and TATP, or via forming a multiple number of CL signal-sustaining oligomers from MEKP as we have observed in Figs. 2-402 403 4. However, such a sample cannot be used for OPE quantitation in the event of a positive 404 screening result of OPE, as FIA-CL will only produce a single resultant peak (from both OPE and H₂O₂) per injection. Therefore, we only deposited known concentrations of OPEs on pig skins and 405 swabbed the surface of the skin within 10 min of deposition as part of our real sample analyses 406 407 in Fig. 8. We accept the fact that quantitation of OPEs will not be applicable via our proposed 408 method in case OPEs are present with H_2O_2 in the sample, although it will positively screen the 409 sample for OPE.

Herein, we present the FIA-CL analytical method to rapidly screen OPE samples and their subsequent direct detection (in the event of a positive screening result) from the single swab, allowing ultra-trace level of detection and achieving linearity (linear range 1 – 83 μ M, R² > 0.99)

- 413 (Table S3 & Figure S8). Spontaneously released peroxide moieties from the OPE samples did
- result in oxidation of luminol (Figures 8a-c), enabling such direct detection of OPEs.



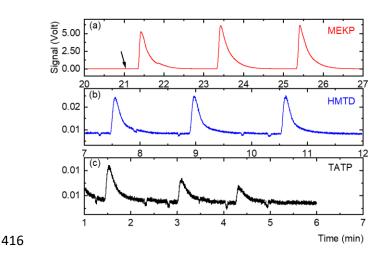


Figure 8. Direct detection of OPEs prior to acid hydrolysis in FIA-CL via injection of (a) MEKP (1.5 417 μ M), (b) HMTD (1.5 μ M), and (c) TATP (1.5 μ M). Arrow indicates the sample injection time. 418 419 [Samples swabbed within 10 min of deposition of 10 µL 30 mM OPEs on pig skins and swab dipped into 200 mL DI water blank, injection volume: 40 μL, flow rate: 250 μL min⁻¹ in CL line, pressure: 420 421 20 psi in CL line and 50 psi in carrier line; CL assay: 0.51 mM luminol + 9.96 μ M CoCl₂.6H₂O in 50 422 mM Na₂HPO₄,7H₂O and 40 mM NaOH buffer]. For % recovery of three OPEs, please see Table S4 in supporting information. Relative standard deviation (RSD %) of MEKP = 1.6%, HMTD = 0.2%, 423 424 and TATP = 6%.

This direct detection scheme of OPEs via FIA-CL, as demonstrated in Figures 8a-c, has great implications in any rapid *in situ* OPE screening mechanism as it is independent of any sample preparation or pre-treatment. This would save significant amount of cost and time unlike alternative OPE detection methods which rely heavily on onerous sample preparation. Another important advantage of the developed approach is that it allows swabs to be inserted into a semisealed, water interfaced FIA-CL system for OPE detection. Additionally, the system's analysis time 431 of ~12.5 s (from injection to start of peaks in Figures 8a-c) was close to an alternative rapid IMS
432 analytical time of ~7 s[12].

433 For comparison of available techniques, we present the LOD values of the current study along 434 with other detection methods published between 2016-2021 (see Table 2). The LOD values of TATP and HMTD achieved via direct FIA-CL were found to be comparable or better than that 435 obtained with other detection methods. The FIA-CL method's LOD for MEKP (0.40 µM) was found 436 to be 1000 times lower than that achieved via direct-analysis-in-real-time ionization with mass 437 438 spectrometry (DART-MS)[34]. LODs for MEKP have yet to be reported for IMS systems to date. 439 Achieving LOD values of OPEs without acid hydrolysis clearly indicate that the FIA-CL system can directly be employed for ultra-trace level detection of these explosives. 440

441 **Table 2.** Organic peroxide explosives (OPEs) detection methods published over the last six years

442	(2016-2021).
-----	--------------

Name of OPEs	Sample type	Detection Method	LOD	Analysis time	Ref.
MEKP, HMTD & TATP	Aqueous	FIA-CL	ΜΕΚΡ (0.4 μΜ) ΗΜΤD (0.43 μΜ), & ΤΑΤΡ (0.40 μΜ)	~12.5 s	This work
HMTD & TATP	Air	Electrochemical	<10 ppb	3 s	[5]
HMTD	Liquid	Dopant-assisted photoionization IMS	0.2-0.3 mg L ⁻¹	10 s	[17]
HMTD & TATP	Aqueous	Electrochemical	HMTD (3.0 mg L ⁻¹) TATP (1.5 mg L ⁻¹)	>5 min	[35]
TATP	Aqueous	Electrochemical	0.31 mg L ⁻¹	>55 min	[36]
HMTD & TATP	Aqueous	LC-APCI-QToF-MS	HMTD (0.5 ng) TATP (10 ng)	4-8 min	[37]
HMTD & TATP	Gaseous	Electrochemical	HMTD (not reported) TATP (8.7 ng)	60 s	[38]
ТАТР	Gaseous	Electrochemical	40 ppb	60 s	[39]
TATP	Liquid	Colorimetry	0.1 mg L ⁻¹	>11 min	[40]
HMTD	Liquid	Paper spray mass spectrometry	2.5 ng	0.5 min	[41]
HMTD	Liquid	DART-MS	Closed-mesh (250 ng) Direct insert (5 ng)	6-10 s	[42]
ТАТР	Liquid	Colorimetry	5.13 x 10 ⁻⁴ mol L ⁻¹ –	>17 min	[43]

3.54 x 10⁻⁷ mol L⁻¹

443

444 Measurement Uncertainty

As discussed earlier, the proposed FIA-CL method has two steps: 1. Rapid and selective 445 differentiation of OPEs from H₂O₂ by comparing initial peaks without acid with subsequent peaks 446 with acid, and 2. In case of a positive screening result of OPE, quantitation of OPE via analysing 447 the initial peaks without acid from step 1. Therefore, in our proposed method, quality control 448 449 and quality assurance (QA/QC) parameters for the detection (i.e., step 2) are always related to 450 that of screening (i.e., step 1) since only a single swab is proposed for both the steps. As in any 451 other analytical method, there is always a degree of uncertainty in the screening. The method's 452 uncertainty might be caused by 1. False positive, 2. False negative, 3. Reported limit of detection (LOD) of OPEs in the study 4. Reported % recovery OPEs from the pig skin. The probability of 'false 453 positive' might occur if organic peroxides different from OPEs are present in the sample. Out of 454 455 7 different types totaling with a list of 151 organic peroxides (UNECE 2022)[44], the probability 456 of occurrence of an organic peroxide other than OPEs in the sample would be 1/151 = 0.007. The 457 probability of 'false negative' might occur in the case of expired CL assay, which will be very rare 458 as we proposed weekly replacement of the CL assay in our previous studies. We prepared approximately 100 CL assay over 1 month period and only 1 of those assays expired before 7 459 460 days. Hence, in our case, monthly probability of occurrence of expired CL assay were 1/100= 0.01. 461 We have undertaken a 4-point calibration with three replications of each observation (Fig. S8 in ESI), hence, there were 12 observations or samples in total. Therefore, Standard deviation (Stdev) 462 of 'false positive'= Square root (sample size * probability of occurrence * (1- probability of 463

464 occurrence)) = 0.29 and that of 'False negative' = 0.34. The standard deviations of LODs and
 465 percentage recoveries of OPEs were provided in Tables S3 and S4 of ESI, respectively.

466 The 'Expanded Uncertainty (U)' of the screening of OPEs would be expressed as (Taylor and 467 Kuyatt 1994) [45]:

$$468 \qquad U = U_c \times K \tag{1}$$

469 Where U_c = Combined standard uncertainties and K = coverage factor. Here we considered K=2 470 for normal distribution at 99% interval and Uc was calculated using eqn. 2 according to Taylor 471 and Kuyatt [45].

472
$$U_{c} = \sqrt{\sum (Stdev_{1}^{2} + Stdedv_{2}^{2} + \dots + Stdedv_{n}^{2})}$$
(2)
473 So, U_{c} for MEKP = $\sqrt{\sum 0.29^{2} + 0.34^{2} + 0.2^{2} + 0.014^{2})}$ = 0.489
474 And U for MEKP = 0.489 * 2 = 0.98
475 Similarly, we calculated U_{c} for HMTD = $\sqrt{\sum 0.29^{2} + 0.34^{2} + 0.26^{2} + 0.003^{2})}$ = 0.517, and
476 And U for HMTD = 0.517 * 2 = 1.03
477 U_{c} for TATP = $\sqrt{\sum 0.29^{2} + 0.34^{2} + 0.33^{2} + 0.041^{2})}$ = 0.557, and
478 And U for TATP = 0.557 * 2 = 1.1
479

480 **Conclusions**

481 The current study demonstrates the ability to differentiate OPEs from background H_2O_2 using 482 acid hydrolysis. The mechanism of differentiation of OPE signals from the ubiquitous H_2O_2 signals 483 was confirmed by the mass spectral analysis of OPEs with/without H_2SO_4 , corresponding to acid 484 condensation polymerization of MEKP and hydrolysis of HMTD and TATP. H₂SO₄ induced 485 degradation produced OPE derivatives with clear and selective FIA-CL signal, distinguishable from 486 the reduced FIA-CL signal intensity of H_2O_2 . These structure specific signals afford the opportunity of direct and rapid sampling, requiring minimal sample preparation prior to selective analysis, 487 488 and distinct from any possible source of confounding H_2O_2 seen in security screening 489 environments. The FIA-CL analytical working range had significantly improved LODs (TATP: 0.4 μ M, HMTD: 0.43 μ M, and MEKP: 0.4 μ M). FIA-CL could find the balance between selective 490 491 analysis of OPEs and speed of analysis, with an arrangement that is feasibly deployable in security environments with a need to detect trace OPE levels. 492

493 Acknowledgements

494 The authors gratefully acknowledge financial contribution of Defence Science Institute (DSI)

495 Australia (Grant ID: G12017SMahbubVU380) to Victoria University that enabled the authors to

496 conduct this investigation as part of the project. We also acknowledge contributions of Ms Jessica

497 San Diego and Mr Bryce Peter Cochrane, who worked as VU interns at various stages of the

498 project. This work was performed in part at the Melbourne Centre for Nanofabrication (MCN) in

499 the Victorian Node of the Australian National Fabrication Facility (ANFF).

500

501 References

502 [1] H. Schubert, A. Kuznetsov, Detection and disposal of improvised explosives, Springer Science & 503 Business Media2006.

[2] P. Mahbub, R. Wilson, P.N. Nesterenko, Ultra-fast continuous-flow photo degradation of organic
 peroxide explosives for their efficient conversion into hydrogen peroxide and possible application,
 Propellants Explos. Pyrotech. 41(4) (2016) 757-763.

- 507 [3] J.C. Oxley, J.L. Smith, K. Shinde, J. Moran, Determination of the vapor density of triacetone triperoxide
- (TATP) using a gas chromatography headspace technique, Propellants Explos. Pyrotech. 30(2) (2005) 127130.
- 510 [4] R. Merrifield, T. Roberts, A comparison of the explosion hazards associated with the transport of 511 explosives and industrial chemicals with explosive properties, IChemE Symposium, 1991, pp. 209-224.
- 512 [5] V. Krivitsky, B. Filanovsky, V. Naddaka, F. Patolsky, Direct and selective electrochemical vapor trace 513 detection of organic peroxide explosives via surface decoration, Anal. Chem. 91(8) (2019) 5323-5330.
- 514 [6] S. Parajuli, W. Miao, Sensitive determination of triacetone triperoxide explosives using 515 electrogenerated chemiluminescence, Anal. Chem. 85(16) (2013) 8008-8015.
- [7] P. Mahbub, P. Zakaria, R. Guijt, M. Macka, G. Dicinoski, M. Breadmore, P.N. Nesterenko, Flow injection
 analysis of organic peroxide explosives using acid degradation and chemiluminescent detection of
 released hydrogen peroxide, Talanta 143 (2015) 191-197.
- 519 [8] R. Schulte-Ladbeck, A. Edelmann, G. Quintas, B. Lendl, U. Karst, Determination of peroxide-based
- explosives using liquid chromatography with on-line infrared detection, Anal. Chem. 78(23) (2006) 81508155.
- [9] F. Rowell, J. Seviour, A.Y. Lim, C.G. Elumbaring-Salazar, J. Loke, J. Ma, Detection of nitro-organic and
 peroxide explosives in latent fingermarks by DART-and SALDI-TOF-mass spectrometry, Forensic Sci. Int.
 221(1-3) (2012) 84-91.
- [10] J. Kozole, L.A. Levine, J. Tomlinson-Phillips, J.R. Stairs, Gas phase ion chemistry of an ion mobility
 spectrometry based explosive trace detector elucidated by tandem mass spectrometry, Talanta 140
 (2015) 10-19.
- [11] Z. Can, A. Uzer, K. Turkekul, E. Ercag, R. Apak, Determination of triacetone triperoxide with a N, N Dimethyl-p-phenylenediamine sensor on nafion using Fe3O4 magnetic nanoparticles, Analytical chemistry
 87(19) (2015) 9589-9594.
- [12] J.C. Oxley, J.L. Smith, L.J. Kirschenbaum, S. Marimganti, S. Vadlamannati, Detection of explosives in
 hair using ion mobility spectrometry, J. Forensic Sci. 53(3) (2008) 690-693.
- [13] D. Martinak, A. Rudolph, Explosives detection using an ion mobility spectrometer for airport security,
 Proceedings IEEE 31st Annual 1997 International Carnahan Conference on Security Technology, IEEE,
 1997, pp. 188-189.
- [14] A.J. Marr, D.M. Groves, Ion mobility spectrometry of peroxide explosives TATP and HMTD, Int. J. IonMobil. Spectrom 6 (2003) 59-62.
- 538 [15] Z. Du, T. Sun, J. Zhao, D. Wang, Z. Zhang, W. Yu, Development of a plug-type IMS-MS instrument and
- its applications in resolving problems existing in in-situ detection of illicit drugs and explosives by IMS,Talanta 184 (2018) 65-72.
- 541 [16] M. Maziejuk, M. Szyposzyńska, A. Spławska, M. Wiśnik-Sawka, M. Ceremuga, Detection of Triacetone
- 542 Triperoxide (TATP) and Hexamethylene Triperoxide Diamine (HMTD) from the Gas Phase with Differential 543 Ion Mobility Spectrometry (DMS), Sensors 21(13) (2021) 4545.

- 544 [17] D.-D. JIANG, P. Li-Ying, Z. Qing-Hua, C. Chuang, L. Ji-Wei, W. Shuang, L. Hai-Yang, Quantitative 545 detection of hexamethylene triperoxide diamine in complex matrix by dopant-assisted photoionization 546 ion mobility spectrometry, Chinese J. Anal. Chem. 44(11) (2016) 1671-1678.
- 547 [18] M. Fitzgerald, D. Bilusich, Sulfuric, hydrochloric, and nitric acid-catalyzed triacetone triperoxide 548 (TATP) reaction mixtures: an aging study, J. Forensic Sci. 56(5) (2011) 1143-1149.
- 549 [19] A.C. van Duin, Y. Zeiri, F. Dubnikova, R. Kosloff, W.A. Goddard, Atomistic-scale simulations of the 550 initial chemical events in the thermal initiation of triacetonetriperoxide, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 127(31) (2005)
- 551 11053-11062.
- [20] P.A. Fletcher, Kevin, N.; Calokerinos, A. C.; Forbes, Stuart; Worsfold, P. J., Analytical applications of
 flow injection with chemiluminescence detection a review, Luminescence 16 (2001) 1-23.
- [21] R.S. Minhas, D.A. Rudd, H.Z. Al Hmoud, T.M. Guinan, K.P. Kirkbride, N.H. Voelcker, Rapid detection of
 anabolic and narcotic doping agents in saliva and urine by means of nanostructured silicon SALDI mass
 spectrometry, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 12(28) (2020) 31195-31204.
- 557 [22] R. Burrows, J. Parr, Evaluating the goodness of instrument calibration for chromatography 558 procedures, LCGC Supplements 18(11) (2020) 35-38.
- 559 [23] D. Armitt, P. Zimmermann, S. Ellis-Steinborner, Gas chromatography/mass spectrometry analysis of
- triacetone triperoxide (TATP) degradation products, Rapid Commun. Mass Spectrom. 22(7) (2008) 950 958.
- 562 [24] Y.B. Tsaplev, Decomposition of cyclic acetone peroxides in acid media, Kinet. Catal. 53(5) (2012) 521563 524.
- [25] W. Horwitz, L.R.Kamps., K. W. Boyer, Quality assurance in the analysis of foods and trace constituents,
 J Assoc Off Anal Chem 63(6) (1980) 1344-54.
- [26] N.A. Milas, A. Golubović, Studies in organic peroxides. XXV. Preparation, separation and identification
 of peroxides derived from methyl ethyl ketone and hydrogen peroxide, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 81(21) (1959)
 5824-5826.
- [27] M.-H. Yuan, C.-M. Shu, A.A. Kossoy, Kinetics and hazards of thermal decomposition of methyl ethyl
 ketone peroxide by DSC, Thermochim. Acta 430(1-2) (2005) 67-71.
- 571 [28] T.G. Burdo, W. R. Seitz, Mechanism of cobalt catalysis of luminol chemiluminescence, Analytical 572 Chemistry 47(9) (1975) 1639-1643.
- 573 [29] T. Krawczyk, Enhanced electrospray ionization mass spectrometric detection of hexamethylene
 574 triperoxide diamine (HMTD) after oxidation to tetramethylene diperoxide diamine dialdehyde (TMDDD),
 575 Rapid Commun. Mass Spectrom. 29(23) (2015) 2257-2262.
- [30] J.C. Oxley, J.L. Smith, M. Porter, L. McLennan, K. Colizza, Y. Zeiri, R. Kosloff, F. Dubnikova, Synthesis
 and degradation of hexamethylene triperoxide diamine (HMTD), Propellants Explos. Pyrotech. 41(2)
 (2016) 334-350.
- [31] H. Östmark, S. Wallin, H.G. Ang, Vapor pressure of explosives: a critical review, Propellants Explos.
 Pyrotech. 37(1) (2012) 12-23.
- [32] H. Jiang, G. Chu, H. Gong, Q. Qiao, Tin chloride catalysed oxidation of acetone with hydrogen peroxide
 to tetrameric acetone peroxide, J. Chem. Res. 23(4) (1999) 288-289.

- [33] R.I. Hiyoshi, J. Nakamura, T.B. Brill, Thermal decomposition of organic peroxides TATP and HMTD by
 t-jump/FTIR spectroscopy, Propellants Explos. Pyrotech. 32(2) (2007) 127-134.
- 585 [34] C. Black, T. D'Souza, J.C. Smith, N.G. Hearns, Identification of post-blast explosive residues using 586 direct-analysis-in-real-time and mass spectrometry (DART-MS), Forensic Chem. 16 (2019) 100185.
- [35] A. Arman, S.e. Sağlam, A.e. Üzer, R.a. Apak, Direct electrochemical determination of peroxide-type
 explosives using well-dispersed multi-walled carbon nanotubes/polyethyleneimine-modified glassy
 carbon electrodes, Anal. Chem. (2021).
- [36] A. Üzer, S. Durmazel, E. Erçağ, R. Apak, Determination of hydrogen peroxide and triacetone
 triperoxide (TATP) with a silver nanoparticles—based turn-on colorimetric sensor, Sens. Actuators B 247
 (2017) 98-107.
- [37] L. Dunn, H.S.A. Al Obaidly, S.E. Khalil, Development and validation of fast liquid chromatography high resolution mass spectrometric (LC-APCI-QToF-MS) methods for the analysis of hexamethylene triperoxide
- diamine (HMTD) and triacetone triperoxide (TATP), Forensic Chem. 10 (2018) 5-14.
- [38] J.C. Mbah, S. Steward, N.O. Egiebor, Solid membrane electrode assembly for on board detection ofperoxides based explosives, Sens. Actuators B 222 (2016) 693-697.
- 598 [39] S. Fan, J. Lai, P.L. Burn, P.E. Shaw, Solid-state fluorescence-based sensing of TATP via hydrogen 599 peroxide detection, ACS Sens. 4(1) (2019) 134-142.
- [40] N. Bagheri, A. Khataee, J. Hassanzadeh, B. Habibi, Visual detection of peroxide-based explosives using
 novel mimetic Ag nanoparticle/ZnMOF nanocomposite, J. Hazard. Mater. 360 (2018) 233-242.
- [41] C. Costa, E.M. van Es, P. Sears, J. Bunch, V. Palitsin, K. Mosegaard, M.J. Bailey, Exploring rapid,
 sensitive and reliable detection of trace explosives using paper spray mass spectrometry (PS-MS),
 Propellants Explos. Pyrotech. 44(8) (2019) 1021-1027.
- 605 [42] J. Frazier, V. Benefield, M. Zhang, Practical investigation of direct analysis in real time mass 606 spectrometry for fast screening of explosives, Forensic Chem. 18 (2020) 100233.
- 607 [43] B. Gökdere, A. Üzer, S. Durmazel, E. Erçağ, R. Apak, Titanium dioxide nanoparticles–based
 608 colorimetric sensors for determination of hydrogen peroxide and triacetone triperoxide (TATP), Talanta
 609 202 (2019) 402-410.
- 610[44]UNECEClassificationofOrganicPeroxides,Part2(2022),611https://unece.org/DAM/trans/danger/publi/adr/adr2003/English/Part2_b.pdf, accessed 30 Dec 2022
- [45] B.N. Taylor, C.E. Kuyatt, Guidelines for Evaluating and Expressing the Uncertainty of NIST
 Measurement Results, United States Department of Commerce Technology Administration, National
 Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST)Technical Note 1297, 1994 Edition, 1994, pp. 24.