Dietrich O. Hummel

Atlas of Plastics Additives Analysis by Spectrometric Methods

With 62 tables and 772 FTIR spectra

Prof. Dr. Dietrich O. Hummel Im Lindenhof 15 D-53773 Hennef

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Prefac e

Twenty years ago the 2nd edition of the text and spectra volume of Friedrich Scholl on the analysis of plastics additives was published, it can be found in most laboratories. He deceased shortly after his retirement, and my coworkers and I took over his heritage. Collecting samples of additives of all kind as well as the measurement of their *FTIR* spectra was done by Sigrun Wittmann, Liu Min, Mark Amberg, Vera Brunne, Astrid Baum and myself; my wife Doris digitised the structures. 752 spectra of the more important additives were selected from a total of 1630. To facilitate access for the analyst, the "triplets" (spectrum with peak table, structure, legend) were arranged according to a decimal system (technological class, chemical composition). Registers (chemical and trade name, empirical formula) help one to find the desired spectrum.

Literature on (predominantly) spectroscopic methods in the analysis of plastics additives was evaluated until 2001. Methods and experiments were critically reported; wherever possible the results were compressed in tables. In order to keep the volume of the book within limits only elementary methods for the separation of additives and matrices were described (2nd chapter). The chromatographic separation of mixtures had to be omitted; it is amply described in the book of Scholl and in later monographs. The reason why chapters 3 and 7 are so large is very simple: *(FT)IR* and mass spectrometries are by far the most important methods for identification and quantitative determination of additives. They are also suitable for combination with chromatographic and other analytical methods.

I owe gratitude to my coworkers for their zeal as well as to *Stiftung Industrieforschung* for generous support of our research, to many chemical companies for providing samples and to numerous colleagues sending reprints. Many thanks go to my colleagues B. Schrader (Uni. Essen), K.-W. Brzezinka (BAM, Berlin-Adlershof), K.-J. Eichhorn and D. Fischer (IPF Dresden) for measuring the Raman spectra of problematic samples. Finally, many thanks go to the editorial staff of *Springer Verlag* and to *medio Technologies* (producer) for skill and carefulness and for their patience with the author.

Dietrich O. Hummel Summer 2002

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Part A **Theory and Practical Applications**

1 Introductio n

About 5×10^{10} kg of polymeric materials are annually consumed by mankind. Few of these polymers can be used as produced; examples are intrinsically stabilised polyaromatics like the polypyromellitic imides or inorganic polymers like boron nitride or quartz. All organic polymers are subject to oxidative or other kinds of degradation, or they lack certain properties like elasticity or flame resistance, or they do not have the colour wanted for a certain application. Thermoplastics may degrade during processing, rubber gets brittle from ozone attack.

Here enter the additives. However, before going into details it has to be stated that many chemical and physical properties can be reached by the choice of the proper material, by copolymerisation or by polymer blending. None of these materials, however, can withstand sunlight, ionising radiation, heat, the attack of microorganisms, not to mention aggressive chemicals. (Very few may pass for stable, for instance aromatic polypyromellitic imides like Kapton.) Protective additives, in amounts between 0.02% and about 2%, are able to prolong the lifetime of polymeric materials by several orders of magnitudes. This means that optical and mechanical properties - these are the most important ones - remain almost constant for a long time.

Polymers are the most widely used materials after steel, and polymeric hydrocarbons¹ (polyethylene, polypropylene, polystyrene) together with polyvinylchloride make the majority of all industrial polymers. This explains why *antioxidants* for polyhydrocarbons and *heat-* as well as *light stabilisers* for PVC are on top of the big family of additives. To give two figures: the worldwide production of PVC in 1985 was 1.4×10^{10} kg and that of PVC stabilisers 2.5×10^8 kg (this makes an average of 1.8% of stabiliser in PVC). The importance of all the other industrial polymers and additives is, of course, no less; this may be shown by the considerable variety of applications and chemical compositions of the latter.

The following chapters were arranged according to the instrumental techniques used in additive analysis. The bibliography, on the other hand, presents publications on special

groups of additives and on the applied analytical methods. This allows rapid access to both topics - methods and materials.

The complete analysis of an industrial polymer follows this scheme:

- 1. *Extraction* of low-molecular material from polymer
- 2. *Separation* of additive mixtures into their components
- 3. *Identification* of polymer
- 4. *Identification* of additives
- 5. *Quantitative analysis*

In this text, only items 1 and 4 will be treated in more detail. Item 2 is thoroughly described in the book of Scholl (Hummel/Scholl vol. 3, Sect. 10.1), chemical analysis (items 4 and 5) in that of Crompton. Recent literature is found in Sect. 10.2 and in the 4th edition of Gächter/Müller.

¹ We use the term *polyolefines* only for unsturated polymeric hydrocarbons like polybutadiene, polyisoprene etc.

2 Extraction, solution precipitation and separation of additives

2.1 Extraction

Most additives are soluble in the usual solvents; as a rule, a solvent can be found which extracts the additive (or the mixture of additives) and leaves the polymer undissolved. In practice, a Soxhlet-type extractor or an extractor applying the boiling solvent is used. Prior to extraction, the polymer material is reduced by milling (in the N_2 -cooled mill) or chopping. An admixture of quartz sand is applied in order to avoid the lumping or sticking together of the material. Films can easily be extracted after they have been, together with a net of thin wire, rolled into a scroll. The same can be done with thin films of vulcanisates which have been obtained by microtoming. (The extracted vulcanisate can frequently be dissolved by boiling in 1,3-dichlorobenzene.)

The extract is evaporated, preferably under N_2 . Knowledge of the polymer and of the additives used for this material as well as a mass or *IR* spectrum of the dry residue usually gives sufficient information on the additive system in question. A separation into components is done by chromatographic methods (see Sect. 2.3). Plasticisers are usually separated by gas chromatography. Ample information on experimental details, stationary phases and retention times can be found in the book of Scholl (l.c.).

Solvent extraction has a number of shortcomings. It is time-consuming, up to two days for almost fully regaining the additive system. (Extraction by supercritical fluids, especially $CO₂$, at high pressures and high temperatures may reduce the time to about 1 h.) "Polymer" additives (they are usually oligomers) diffuse slowly, need long extraction times and will not be completely extracted. Chemically unstable additives may be degraded, e.g. by oxidation. Fractionated extraction with different solvents, preferred by some authors, certainly do not make chromatographic or other methods of separation unnecessary.

Pigments are sold either in solid or in paste forms. Aqueous pastes are agitated several times with hot acetone/water 1:1; eventually, a few drops of dilute HCl are added. The pigment is isolated by filtration or in a centrifuge. Organic pastes are worked up with acetone, ether, hexane (spirit) or another suitable solvent for the dispersing agent. The same is tried with paints, printing inks and unhardened surface coatings.

Prior to extraction, hardened surface coatings and insoluble plastics are milled and afterwards extracted with CHCl₃ (azo pigments) or glacial acetic acid (sulfonates, carboxylates, lake pigments). Soluble plastics may be dissolved in suitable solvents, and the dispersion is centrifuged. Ester-type binders may be hydrolysed; in nice cases the pigment stays undissolved.

Table 2.1 gives a collection of solvents and materials to be extracted which have been suggested in the literature.

2.2 Solution Precipitation

Solution precipitation (or reprecipitation) has the advantage that it can be performed under protective gas from the beginning, that the separation of additives from polymer can usually be made complete, and that the time needed is less than for extraction. The prerequisite for this method is of course that the polymer be soluble in whatever solvent.

Precipitation sometimes happens simply by cooling the solution (polyethylene, polypropylene, polyoxymethylene). Oligomers (together with the additives) may stay in solution. They can be precipitated with a proper non-solvent; during subsequent chromatography they remain, together with polymer additives, at the origin. In all other cases the solution is poured into an excess (at least ten times) of nonsolvent for the polymer but solvent for the additives. This is usually methanol or acetonitrile. The polymer is washed several times with the nonsolvent, and the combined solutions are evaporated. In order to check the complete separation of polymer and additives, the polymer is reprecipitated. If the liquid phase, after evaporation, does not leave a residue then the separation is considered to be complete.

The dried residue is studied by *IRS* or MS, before or after separation by chromatography.

Table 2.2 shows solvents/non-solvents for different polymers described in the literature.

Table 2.1.

a Some oxidation may occur

Table 2.2.

Separation of additives from polymers by solution/precipitation (from Hummel/Scholl and Gachter/Muller, 10.1; by kind permission of Carl Hanser Verlag, Munich)

reacted with the polymer and then cannot be separated completely from the latter by physical methods. This is shown treatment. Depending on the solvent system the radioactiv-

In aged or thermally treated samples, additives may have in Fig. 2.1 (from Schroeder, 10.2.1). PVC was stabilised with acted with the polymer and then cannot be separated com-
dibutyl-¹¹³Sn-bis(methylmaleate) and subject

Fig. 2.1 Progress of the separation of dibutyl-¹¹³Sn-bis(methylmaleate) from PVC by reprecipitation. Solvents: THF *(1* 3% PVC, *2* 7.5% PVC) and cyclohexanone (3 7.5% PVC). The PVC/stabiliser system was heat-treated prior to solution/precipitation. Technique: radiometry. (E. Schröder et al., 10.1, 10.2.1)

ity went down, after 12 reprecipitations, to about 40 or 25%; it is presumed that the PVC-stabiliser complex can partially be dissociated by certain solvents.

If the polymer material contained insoluble components like fillers, these can usually be removed by filtration (with a filter aid) or centrifuging. The insoluble material is washed several times with the solvent. It is, after drying, dispersed in tetrabromomethane $(d=2.97 g cm^{-3})$; this operation is simplified by pasting the solids with paraffin oil. The dispersion is centrifuged; heavy components $(TiO₂,$ corundum, Pb compounds) subside. The lighter ones (silicates) float to the surface.

2.3 Separation of Additive Mixtures into Components

Separation of the extracted mixture of additives into fractions of defined composition is done by liquid chromatography *(LC)* in columns, thin layer *(TL),* high-performance liquid *(HPL),* gas-liquid *(GC),* gel permeation *(GP)* or supercritical fluid *(SF)* chromatography. Volatiles like plasticisers are usually separated by *GC.* The same method was applied to phenolic antioxidants and *UV* absorbers (Denning and Marshall, 10.2.2). Ample information on experimental details, stationary phases and retention times can be found in the book of Scholl (I.e.) and in the monograph of Munteanu

of pigments. A thorough investigation on the chromatographic analysis of elastomer antidegradants and accelerators has been made by Vimalasiri et al. (10.1); 258 references represent older literature from 1984 back. In the following, only a few examples are given for the separation of mixtures by these methods.

A general *TLC* screening method was described by Mady et al. (10.2.2). A small amount of the dissolved material is brought upon a 0.25-mm pre-coated silica-gel 60 F-254 plate (Merck) and developed in a well-saturated tank with $CH_2Cl₂/$ CH3OH 49:1. For hindered phenols, phosphomolybdic acid was used for detection. *UV* absorbers like Tinuvin 328 were developed with $CH₂Cl₂/heptane$ 7:3, the spots were detected under a *UV* lamp. Light stabilisers like Tinuvin 765 were developed with $CH₂Cl₂/CH₃OH/aqueous NH₃ 90:9:1 and$ detected by potassium diplatinate.

HPLC is successfully used for the separation of mixtures. The results can be evaluated quantitatively; the peak heights are directly proportional to the amount of the substance which produced the signal. Figure 2.2 shows the result of *HPLC* separation of a complex mixture of rubber chemicals. The amount of material per fraction is typically in the range 10-100 ng. This is at the edge or already beyond the limit of *IR* identification but well within *MS.* The assignment of the peaks to defined compounds is, however, usually done with calibration mixtures of known composition.

HPLC offers a very high separation power (up to 650 theoretical plates/cm column); thus, it is able to separate, e.g. oligomers, homologous series or even isomers. Figure 2.3 demonstrates this with phthalic acid esters used as plasticisers.

Stoveken (10.2.1) achieved the complete separation of five antioxidants, one *UV* inhibitor and three slip additives on silica gel HC-ODS/Sil-X (250 mm, 2.6 mm i.d.) at 80 °C with acetonitrile: H_2O 1:1 linear in 25 min to pure acetonitrile. The detector was LC-55 at 200 nm (Perkin-Elmer).

GPC (in columns) separates mixtures on porous gels according to the size of the molecules. Big ones traverse a *GP* column much faster than small ones - they have little chance to rest in holes of the gel. The smallest molecules come last because it is difficult to elute them from their resorts. For the detection of the eluted fractions, differential refractometers, *UV* photometers or calorimetric devices are available.

Braun and Bezdadea (10.2.8) used *GPC* for the separation of four extracted additives (2 Irgastabs, stearyl stearate and epoxidised soy-bean oil) from PVC compounds as well as the THF-soluble from plate-out produced during processing of this plate-out. The equipment was a Waters pump 6000A, a differential refractometer R 401 and μ -styragel columns. The solvent was THF.

Separation of additives by 5FC and identification by *FTIRS* is described in Sect. 3.5.1.2.

Fig. 2.2 Separation of additives by *HPLC* (JJ. Stoveken, 10.2.1, from Scholl, I.e.). Column: silica-gel HC-ODS/Sil-X, 250/2.6 mm, 80 ⁰C. Detector: LC-55 (Perkin-Elmer). Mobile phase: acetonitrile/H₂O 1:1, 25 min linear to AN. (1) BHT, (2) oleamide, (3) Topanol CA (2,4-dimethyl-6-tbutylphenol), (4) UV 531, (5) stearamide, (6) erucamide, (7) dilaurylthiopropionate, (8) 2-(3,5-di-£-butyl-4-hydroxyphenyl)propionic pentaerythritol tetraester (Irganox 1010), β -(3,5-di-t-butyl-4-hydroxyphenyl)propionic octadecyl ester (Irganox 1076)

Fig. 2.3 Separation of phthalate ester plasticisers by *HPLC* (with Perkin-Elmer mod. 601, laboratory information by Scholl). Columns: $2 \times \text{ODS-SIL-X-1}$ (reversed phase), 250/4.6 mm; 75 °C, 2 cm³/min, 500 bar. Mobile phase: $H_2O/$ acetonitrile 3:2, in 80 min with convex gradient to AN. UV detector LC 55 from Perkin-Elmer. (1) dimethyl-, (2) diethyl-, (3) diallyl-, (4) diphenyl-, (5) dibutyl-, (6) dipentyl-, (7) dicyclohexyl-, (8) dioctyl-phthalate

3 Infrare d Spectrometr y

3.1 Fundamentals

The mid-infrared spectrum (4000-400 cm⁻¹, *IRS*) exhibits part of the vibrational behaviour of molecules, it houses their fundamental vibrations *(FV). A FV* is connected with a transition from the ground state of a certain vibrational mode to the first excited state. It is infrared-active if the dipole moment of the molecule in the ground state or of a (decoupled) partial structure changes during this transition. A vibrational mode is Raman-active when the polarisability of the molecule changes during the transition. The two methods are complementary. Selection rules, based on molecular symmetries, tell us which of the possible vibrations are *IR* and which ones are Raman active.

A complete picture of the vibrational behaviour of a molecule can be obtained solely by inelastic neutron scattering spectrometry *(INS).* This method does not know excitation conditions and selection rules; thus, the (few) vibrational modes being both *IR* and Raman inactive can be observed by *INS.*

The total number *NFV* of *FV* of a molecule built of *n* atoms can be obtained by a simple consideration. (We set, by the way, a mechanical model of masses and springs in the stead of a molecule. The number of possible vibrations of this model are set = N_{FV} .) In 3-dimensional space, *n* atoms have *3n* degrees of freedom. If the atoms are bound together, the resulting molecule, if it is non-linear, can perform 3 translations in space and three rotations around 3 axes. What is left are vibrations: $N_{FV} = 3n-6$; for linear molecules NFV = $3n-5$. Why? The rotation around the main axis of the molecule cannot be excited - the excitation energy would be higher than the dissociation energy. This is a consequence of quantum mechanics. The equations given above hold only if all vibrations in the molecule considered are coupled. We also keep in mind that doubly degenerate vibrations count twice, triply degenerate ones three times.

This model, despite the included assumptions, works quite well with small molecules. Large ones exhibit much less *IR* and Raman bands than required by $N_{FV} = 3n-6$. Quite dramatic is this band deficit in the case of polymers. The reason for this effect is the limited vibrational coupling in large mol-

ecules. This is evident in the case of strongly deviating masses or bond strengths. C and H are not sufficiently different; $v_s(\rm CH_2)$ and $v_{as}(\rm CH_2)$ differ by about 75 $\rm cm^{-1}$ and can easily be measured. The $SiH₂$ group produces only one stretching band with normal *IR* spectrometers. The effect of different bond strengths is also obvious. The stretching vibrations of single, double, triple bonds of CC and CN are separated by several hundred cm⁻¹. Within a chain, double and triple bonds as well as heavy atoms interrupt vibrational coupling. Finally, looking at polymers, numerous different chain conformations restrict coupling within a few monomeric units. (This is, however, sufficient to distinguish between block, statistical and alternating copolymers.) Crystalline polymers, on the other hand, show long-range coupling within a chain - regular chain conformations are the prerequisite for polymer crystallisability. This view can, *mutatis mutandis,* also be applied to smaller molecules. These, in the liquid state, may assume different conformations, being different in symmetry. This produces a broadening of the bands attributable to vibrations of the related partial structure. Crystallisation forces the molecules into the same conformation. This causes sharp bands and frequently also splitting of bands due to intra- or inter-molecular phase relations.

Due to the low symmetry of large molecules (usually just identity) most of the *IR* bands are isofrequent with analogous Raman bands. Due to the different excitation conditions, the intensities (transition probabilities) of IR and Raman bands belonging to the same vibrational mode may be quite different.

From these considerations we draw the following conclusions for analytical *IR* spectrometry:

- Molecular identity can be determined only for relatively \bullet small molecules.
- In a first approximation, *IR* spectra of large molecules \bullet may be considered as the superposition of partial spectra of partial structures. The term "group frequency" is inadequate.
- \bullet Some partial structures allow the assignment of substances from their spectra to certain "families" or to members of homologous series.

Insufficient spectral differences of closely related liquid substances can be lifted by measuring the spectra of the solid materials at low temperatures.

The spectroscopist sometimes puts aside the fact that the *MIR* range not only exhibits bands belonging to *FV* but also (usually weak) bands from overtones and combination vibrations. These may sometimes be helpful in structure elucidation (substitution of aromats) and for the statement of identity. They can, however, feign *FV* once they are intensified by Fermi resonance: if an overtone or a combination vibration comes close to an intense *FV* then the former usually increases considerable in intensity. (This is a simplified presentation.)

In recent years, near-infrared spectrometry *(NIRS)* obtained renewed attention. FT-spectrometers are available which give easy access to the NIR (4000-12500 cm⁻¹) and the Raman ranges. The former is free from *FV* as well as from overtones and combination vibrations of heavier groups; thus, it houses predominantly the 1st and 2nd overtones of XH_n groups, X being C, N, O, P... in addition to the 2nd and 3rd overtones of strong FV in the 1800-1500 cm⁻¹ range. Their intensities are 1/10 or less of the related *FV,* film thicknesses are therefore around 0.5 mm or more. This is advantageous for quantitative determinations (less noise and false-light, averaging of possible deviations of the composition of the sample). Scattered light may produce some problems, especially with KBr dispersions; background correction with a suitable program usually solves them.

Generally, *NIR* spectra do not provide sufficient information for structure elucidation. However, there is another interesting application - it is the possibility to use the *NIRS* as a physical constant. Almost no sample preparation is necessary; the powdered material in a vessel is put into the *FT* spectrometer and the spectrum is measured in diffuse reflexion *(DRIFT IRS).* This technique is almost unique for quality control and (after calibration) for the quantitative analysis of multicomponent systems. Not the least advantage of reflexion *NIRS* is the possibility of remote control via glass fibre optics: *NIR* radiation is not absorbed by glass. Thus, the *NIR* data may be collected where additives and plastics are mixed, and immediately transported to the spectrometer. Siesler gave a number of basic contributions on technique and applications (10.1, 10.2.8). Spatafore and McDermott (10.2.1) describe the analysis of polyhydrocarbon additives by reflexion *NIRS.*

3.2 Sample Preparation and Measurement

The classical methods of sample preparation have been described in detail (Brame and Grasselli, 10.1; Giinzler and

Böck, 10.1 and others). We restrict ourselves to some special aspects.

The least disturbance of the plastic/additive system would be caused by a direct measurement, either by transmission or by reflexion. Unfortunately for the analyst, the concentration of additive in polymer is so low (1% or lower) that it is really difficult to find an absorption range where the additive has a strong absorption band and the polymer offers a window. Best chances provide aliphatic polyhydrocarbons, i.e. polyethylene (PE) and polypropylene.

A fine example is described by Tikuisis and Van Dang (10.2.2). Two common antioxidants, Irganox 1010 and Irgafos, were incorporated in PE. A film of 0.5 mm thickness was pressed and measured. Luckily, the ester-type Irganox 1010 absorbs at 1740 $\mathrm{cm^{-1}}$ where PE does not, and the phosphorus derivative Irgafos found, with a characteristic band complex at 850 cm⁻¹, another window (Fig. 3.1). It was possible to calibrate the method by measuring samples with additive concentrations between 1000 ppm and 2000 ppm. If bands of polymer and additive overlap partially then spectral subtraction of the pure polymer should be a technique to be examined.

In most cases, additives have to be separated from their matrix. Plasticisers, fillers, rubber extenders and the like can be recovered in quantities allowing conventional preparation methods. Antioxidants, stabilisers, vulcanisation agents and sometimes also pigments are applied in small concentrations and, to daunt the analyst, as mixtures. If the additives in 5g of polymer are extracted or separated by solution/precipitation, the yield will be typically 5 mg. These will be subjected to chromatographic *(TLQ HPLC, GC -* if volatile) separation; the components weigh down to 50 ug.

Fortunately, hardware companies provided micro-accessories which allow the measurement of good spectra with samples down to about 0.1 µg. The following (older) data are from Bodenseewerk Perkin-Elmer (Krohmer, Kemmner):

Volatiles (plasticisers, alkylsubstituted phenolics, hindered amines, some rubber chemicals) can be analysed by the elegant combination capillary-*GC-FTIRS*. Here, the separated fractions with defined compounds are measured online in

a short gas cell with low diameter. Non-volatiles (oligo- or polymers) may be thermally degraded in a pyrolyser directly attached to the gas chromatograph. Figures. 3.2-3.4 show the results obtained in our institute by D. Weber (10.2.8).

Fig. 3.2

3-heptene, 19–23 olefins, 24
2-alkylpyridine (from D. Weber, 10.2.8) CO

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(Bunatex
ne pyrolysis
pyrolysis
pyrolysis
pyrolation
3,3-butadien
pentadien
pyrolina
xene, 13 stylame, 17 bran
xene, 13 stylame, 17 bran
ne, 17 bran
olefins, 24
cene, 17 bran
cene, 18 s

Fig. **3.3**

Fig. 3.4

D.Weber, 10.2.8)

FTIR gas-phase spectrum of 2 vinylpyridine from peak 14 of the Gram-Schmidt reconstruction of poly(butadiene-co-styrene-co-2 vinylpyridine) at 250 ⁰C (from

FTIR gas-phase spectrum of 4-vinyl-l-cyclohexene from peak 12 of the Gram-Schmidt reconstruction of poly(butadieneco-styrene-co-2-vinylpyridine) at 250 ⁰C (from D.Weber, 10.2.8)

3.3 Conventional and Computer-Supported Interpretation of IR Spectra

Once upon a time there was a spectroscopist who sat in front of his PE model 21, waited until the cylinder had made its turn and the pen had drawn the spectrum, threw a look at the paper and said: "Oh, this is emulsion PVC with some vinyl acetate in it." The time for learning took years in those old days, books and publications were the daily bread, and experience brought knowledge. *Tempi passati.* Nobody will pay for this long period of learning, some universities stopped lectures in applied infrared spectrometry, spectral libraries are now on

analysis is now a few minutes (plus sample preparation time) instead of an hour. Interpretation of spectra is frequently made only by computer-aided search for the nearest match in a digitised library.

Yet ... the unforgettable Thomas Clerc once wrote: *Today, a spectroscopist doesn't have to understand spectroscopy - though it wouldn't hurt.* So I urge everyone to keep the books of Socrates, Lin-Vien et al. and Günzler/Böck (all 10.1) to hand. The first look at a spectrum is still an adventure, and it helps immensely to have a rough knowledge of the chemistry of the analytical material in mind when studying the list of the 20 substances (produced after a search) which are spectroscopically most similar to the analyte.

The chemistry of plastics additives covers almost the whole organic and inorganic chemistry. Tables 3.1-3.23 present partial spectra (characteristic band combinations) of all important organic structures and basic absorptions of inorganic ions. The absorption ranges given do not represent the whole probability region for a vibration but rather those of highest probability. The assignments are tentative; most of the vibrations cited are coupled with other modes. The information for these tables have been taken from the literature and from our own spectral data. They can help to make some

basic assignments; everything else may be done with similarity searches and by using the cited literature.

The spectroscopic literature has been used to establish computer-driven assignment programs, "artificial intelligence". Usually, they give their suggestions immediately after a spectrum has been measured. Immense work of thoroughly trained spectroscopists has been buried in these programs, and they are certainly apt to give some basic information on the chemistry of defined substances. With mixtures, and this is almost always the case in practical analytical work, these suggestions tend to be oracular.

How can, by the way, the spectroscopist distinguish between the spectrum of a defined substance and that of a mixture? If the mixture is a series of homologues (adipates, phthalates etc.) or oligomers (polyoxyethylenes etc.) he cannot. If it represents species with spectroscopically prominent components (phthalate+phosphate esters, carbonate+sulfate etc.), the expert will recognise the mixture. Generally speaking, the perception of a mixture from its spectrum is an art rather than science - in other words, it needs a large amount of experience.

Some Aspects of FTIR Spectrometry

3.4.1

3.4

Storage of Spectra in the Computer

The first computer-equipped *IR* spectrometers were hybrids: the spectrometer itself was double beam-dispersive, the attached computer stored the wavenumber and intensity data point by point. Programs for mathematical treatment allowed standardisation, forming of derivatives, addition or subtraction of spectral information etc.

The dispersive spectrometers are extinct (big body, little brain), the modern ones are creatures with a big brain (rapid computer for Fourier analysis, large storage room, lots of programs) and small body (interferometer). After Fourier analysis, a spectrum is digitised as a one-dimensional matrix. The step width on the wavenumber scale is found from the positions of the first and last wavenumbers in the spectrum and the number of data points. (In the abscissa-expanded spectrum on screen or as hardcopy, the steps appear as straight lines.) This information is to be found in the "header block" of each spectrum and is followed by the series of intensity values.

The specified distance of the data points on the wavenumber axis is known as the data interval. The number of data points is found from the wavenumber range chosen (usually 4000-400/cm) and the data interval. So we get 226 data points for an interval of 16 cm^{-1} and 3601 for an interval of 1 cm^{-1} , both the first and last points being counted. The smaller the data interval the larger is the amount of computer memory required; file operations then take longer. It has to be stressed that the data interval in a library considerably influences search operations and intensity measurements. If the analytical band is sharp (half band width, e.g. 4 cm⁻¹), a data interval of 16 cm-1 would almost with certainty have the consequence that the exact position of *Amax* of the band is missed - the measured value is low. The influence on the integrated intensity of the band is much smaller. Our own experience is that search operations should be done with data intervals of 4 cm^{-1} , and quantitative measurements of A with 2 cm^{-1} , in case of spectra with very sharp bands, even with 1 cm⁻¹. By the way, the computer printouts show intensity and wavenumber values with a ridiculously large number of decimals; apparently nothing can be done against this rubbish (it is not the computer, it is the programmer).

Intensity values are at best reproducible within a range of 2% on the *A* scale.

3.4.2 The Search for Similarity and Equality ('Identity")

In everyday speech the concepts identity, equality and similarity are often confused; here we use the scientific definitions. Identity, in a strict sense, means uniqueness. It can only be with a thing or organism itself: a piece of rock, a tree, a person. Identity is the elementary symmetry property. To say that two spectra were measured with the identical sample means that one and the same specimen (cell included) was measured twice. The two spectra are equal but not identical; the same is true for two eggs of the same size. *Similarity* is a term that could be applied to a cat and its kitten, or to the spectra of two adjacent members of a homologous series.

In computer-aided searches we must make a compromise. Our aim is to find for our analyte the "identical twin" in the library, say anatase for anatase. The score on the similarity scale for this case is said to be the highest one, it *defines* identity. In commercial (and proprietary) spectral libraries one and the same compound may, due to different trade names, be present several times. This is a fine opportunity to check

the reproducibility of the measurement and the performance of the search system. None of these (normalised) spectra will have the same score on the similarity scale, though all of them own high scores. So we define (with *reservatio menta-Us)* a certain niveau on the scale as the beginning of identity. We remain aware that real spectra are only an approach to the ideal of the *IRS* as a physical constant. The distance from this ideal depends on quite a number of factors.

As a rule, *FTIR* spectra are measured with a spectral resolution of 1 cm^{-1} or 2 cm^{-1} . Commercial libraries contain normalised (baseline, *Amax)* spectra, usually with this high resolution. To keep the storage capacity and searching time within reasonable limits, the spectra for an actual search file have data intervals of 4 cm^{-1} , 8 cm^{-1} or even 16 cm^{-1} . The optimal data interval of the library depends on the analytical spectrum; if this exhibits numerous sharp bands, a high data density in the search file may be necessary. Using an appropriate program, this interval can be chosen by the analyst if the original file is available. In our experience, a data interval of 4 cm^{-1} is good enough for all purposes, and 8 cm^{-1} is adequate for most.

Fig. 3.5 *FTIR* spectrum of Cu phthalocyanine, influence of data reduction; from above: 2/cm, 8/cm, 16/cm (by K. Holland-Moritz)

Whether data reduction influences the appearance of a spectrum or not depends on the "sharpness" of bands, i.e. on the half-band width of the bands. (The half-band widths of the bands in a spectrum may differ considerably; we refer to the sharp ones.) The *IRS* of Cu phthalocyanine presents around 25 peaks, most of them sharp (Fig. 3.5, upper spectrum with a resolution of 2 cm^{-1}). Reduction of the data density to 8 cm^{-1} (middle) reduces the number of bands but little; thus, the splitting of the close twins at about 945 cm^{-1} , 865 cm $^{-1}$ and 415 cm $^{-1}$ is lifted. The relative intensities of the bands are, on the other hand, afflicted considerably. Further reduction of data density to 16 cm⁻¹ leads to the disappearance of weak and sharp bands and to the fusion of neighbouring bands. At the same time, the shape of the bands approaches triangle functions. Whole-spectrum similarity searches with strongly reduced spectra, either in the library or as analytical spectrum, are useless if the spectra have sharp bands. Spectra containing exclusively broad bands (oxides, sulfides and others) are hardly influenced by data reduction. The majority of organic substances, including polymers, produces spectra with bands having half-band

widths between these extremes. Figure 3.6 shows IRS of dinonylphthalate with data reductions of 2 cm^{-1} , 8 cm^{-1} and 16 cm⁻¹, respectively (from above). Here, the number of bands is diminished only slightly when going from 2 cm^{-1} to $16\ \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$, and the band shapes aren't changed too badly.

Principally, we have the possibility to search with peak tables or with the whole spectrum (point-by-point). The first process is the oldest (half a century). It began with the mechanical evaluation of punched cards; each card contained a peak table (λ or cm⁻¹, A_{max} or transmittance) and chemical information on the related substance. All modern program packages have algorithms on the same principle (chemical information separately). Spectacle² allows four different algorithms working with *peak tables:*

$$
M_{sum} = \sum_i p_i
$$

Creon.Lab.Control, Max-Planck-Str. 17a, D 50858 Köln; delivered with the hardware of several companies.

$$
M_{wei} = \sum_{i} |R - dp_i| \cdot dp_i
$$

$$
M_{squ} = \sum_{i} (|R - dp_i|^2) \cdot p_i
$$

$$
M_{per} = \left(\sum_{i} p_i / P\right) \cdot f_s
$$

where $p_i=1$ if the band is present in both the sample spectrum and the reference spectrum, otherwise $p_i=0$, R is the prescribed tolerance, *dpi* is the wave number difference between the band in the data file and the analytical band, *P* is the total number of bands in the spectrum of the analyte and *fs* is a scaling factor.

The first correlation coefficient *MSUM* lists library spectra in the order of the number of peaks that match peaks in the spectrum of the analyte. The values vary between zero (no matching pairs of bands) and the actual number of peaks in the analytical spectrum (maximum *75).*

MWEI (WEI means weighting) distinguishes between large and small discrepancies between the matching peaks of analyte and reference substance; this discrepancy lies within a predetermined tolerance range *R.* Large discrepancies receive extra weighting.

^MSQJJ squares the discrepancies of *MWEI.*

 M_{PER} is similar to M_{SUM} , but gives the fraction of matching peaks based on the total number of absorption bands in the unknown spectrum. The *Spectacle* software package also allows searches in a maximum of ten wavenumber ranges (characteristic band combinations).

Peak table algorithms (PTA) are simple and extremely fast; very big libraries can be searched in seconds. The results are less specific than those resulting from whole-spectrum searches. PTA have some advantages if the libraries to be searched are of relatively low quality.

Most of the commercial program packages contain the Lowry-Huppler algorithms (LH1-LH4) for whole-spectrum searches; *Spectrafile* offers these:

$$
M_{AB} = \sum_{i} |s_i \cdot r_i|
$$

\n
$$
M_{SQ} = \sum_{i} |s_i - r_i|^2
$$

\n
$$
M_{AD} = \sum_{i} |ds_i - dr_i|
$$

\n
$$
M_{SD} = \sum_{i} |ds_i - dr_i|^2
$$

where s_i and r_i are the normalised absorbance values for each data point, *s* is sample, and *r* reference

LHl (M*AB)* calculates the difference between the analytical and the reference spectrum on the absorbance scale in the selected data interval for each wavenumber determined by

the interval. The differences are then summed. A small value of M indicates a high similarity between the two spectra.

LH2 (M_{SO}) squares the differences on the absorbance scale prior to the summation (sum of the least squares of differences). As all differences are <1, the larger differences are more strongly weighted than the smaller. A distance of one order of magnitude on the linear *A* scale increases to two orders of magnitude on the square scale. This conflicts with spectroscopic reality. A small number of large discrepancies produce a larger value of M (reduced similarity) than a large number of small discrepancies. The absence of weak but important bands ($v_{\rm{=C-H}}$ of olefins and $v_{\rm ring-H}$, 3150–3000 cm⁻¹. combination vibrations of aromats, $2100-1700$ cm⁻¹ and others) in the reference spectrum affects the value of *A* but little. With the LH2 algorithm spectra are defined as identical if their dissimilarity values are $<$ 10 3 . Since all organic matter has some structural and spectral similarity the LH2 dissimilarity for organics will not go far beyond 10⁵.

LH3 and LH4 *(MAD* and *MSD)* use the first derivatives of the two spectra being compared. *MAD* sums the linear differences, and *MSD* sums the squared differences. This has the advantage that a rising or falling base line is straightened and broad, weak absorptions (mostly useless for analysis) are not considered. A disadvantage is that all the reference spectra in the library have to be differentiated. With a very noisy background these two algorithms cannot be used. It is noteworthy that these two derivative functions increase the gap on the dissimilarity scale between identical and similar spectra.

MEUy a fifth algorithm, squares the absorbance values and then forms the differences:

$$
M_{EU} = \sum \left(\left| s_i^2 - r_i^2 \right| \right)^2
$$

i.e., Euclidian distance.

Let us, for a last time, come back to the problem of similarity and identity. It must be possible to detect, in the result of a search, whether the substance at the bottom of the dissimilarity scale is identical with the analyte; in other words, whether the spectrum of the analyte is present in the library. This is illustrated by Fig. 3.7. Naturally, each search ends with a comparison of the spectra of the first few hits with the spectrum of the analyte (visual pattern recognition).

A new algorithm specially for spectra of mixtures was developed by Frohlich (10.2.8, included in *Spectacle).* It uses the results of similarity (usually with *MAB)* and peak (complete table) searches in the following way:

Fig. 3.7 Spectroscopic identity and similarity, a spectroscopic definition by evaluation of a spectral file and plotting the results on a dissimilarity scale. *Left:* the spectrum of the analyte is present in the file; there is a jump in the dissimilarity function between the best hit and the second one. *Right:* the spectrum of the analyte is absent in the file. The dissimilarity function begins above the identity limit and shows only hits with increasing dissimilarity

The dissimilarity value M_{comb} for the best hit is given by

$$
M_{comb} = \sum (s^2 + p^2)
$$

where s is the placement in the whole-spectrum similarity search and p the one in peak search. For the placement on the dissimilarity scale of the next hits the results of whole-spectrum and peak searches are ratioed with M_{comb} ; the results are correlated. The values of M_{comb} are theoretically between 2 and infinity; they usually don't go beyond 500 (residual spectral and structural similarity of all organics, disregarding the structure). Spectral identity is given if M_{comb} <50.

The theoretical basis for this combination algorithm is small though reasonable. Due to the limited range of vibrational coupling in large molecules of low symmetry (famous exception: Cu phthalocyanine with its centre of symmetry) the vibrational spectrum of such molecules tends to be a superposition of the partial spectra of the decoupled partial structures. (One of the consequences of this fact is the spectral similarity of substance families.) Thus, band positions *(Amax)* tell us more about structures than band envelopes. In the case of mixtures (including copolymers and multifunctional molecules) *Mcom\)* puts the highest similarities, as usual, on top of the list of the best 20. The components of the mixture are heaved up from low similarities into the range of best hits.

Numerous searches in our institute have confirmed this assumption, with two remarkable irritations: (1) searching with a "wrong" (analyte: pigment, library: pyrolysates) library yields irrational results, and (2) a certain amount of artefacts (false-light, Christiansen effect, bad base-line correction) puts such a spectrum way down on a similarity scale, far apart from the (correct) library spectrum of the same substance.

3.5 Recent Work on IR Spectrometry of Additives

3.5.1 Additives with Preventive or Curative Properties

3.5.1.1 Empirical IR Band Assignment

The first comprehensive spectral collection of antioxidants and stabilisers was the one of Scholl (10.1). In the second edition (1981), 163*IRS* of *UV* and PVC stabilisers and 113*IRS* of antioxidants were presented. In the same book, the empirical assignment of *IR* bands to structures was discussed.

Most antioxidants and stabilisers belong either to the hindered-amine light stabilisers (HALS) or to the phenolic antioxidants. The former usually exhibit one or (rarely) two sharp bands, $v(NH_{free})$, of weak (aliphatic) or medium to strong (aromatic-aliphatic) intensity at the high-frequency end of the spectrum. ν (H-N<aliphatic) may be found around 3600 cm⁻¹, ν (H-N<aliphatic/aromatic or aromatic) around 3400 cm⁻¹. Some of the aromatic-aliphatic (di-)amines carry associated NH groups. In this case, $v(NH)$ produces a w-m, broad band at 3350-3400 cm⁻¹. Common to all aromatic-aliphatic and aromatic amines is a medium (associated NH) to strong (free NH) $v(Ar-N)$ band between 1360 cm⁻¹ and 1305 cm⁻¹.

Phenolic antioxidants exhibit $v(OH)$ at the high-frequency end of the spectrum. If no bulky substituents are in the two o -positions the OH groups will associate; $v(OH)$ then produces a band (vs, br) at about 3250 cm⁻¹. Sterically hindered phenols exhibit a band (s-vs sh) between 3650 cm^{-1} and 3600 cm⁻¹; this may show crystal splitting (two close peaks). If the kind of substituents in o, o' -positions allows some association $v(OH)$ broadens; finally a sharp band at about 3450 cm^{-1} and a broad one with maximum at about 3250 cm^{-1} appear. Other typical bands of the HO-Ar group can be recognised by their being broader than the sharp ring vibrations, namely 1475-1440 cm^{-1} (s, associated phenols) or ca. 1430 $\rm cm^{-1}$ (s sh, free phenols), ca. 1200 $\rm cm^{-1}$, (s-vs br, associated phenols) or ca.1160 cm^{-1} (s sh), both $v(Ar-O)$.

Bands characterising NH or OH, aromatic ring system and alkyl substituents usually allow (near) identifications of amine type and phenolic antioxidants. In an early publication, Carlson et al. (10.2.6) use *IR, NMR* and *MS* for the identification of antioxidants from rubber vulcanisates. The samples were ground in a Wiley mill and extracted at r.t. with acetonitrile. Extending oil was "freezed out" by cooling the solution at -20 °C for 2-3 h. The decanted and filtrated solution is evaporated, the residue is used for the spectroscopic analyses.

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3.5.1.2 Separation of Additives and Identification by (FT)IR Spectrometry

There is (friendly) competition between mass and infrared spectroscopists with respect to their hyphenated techniques: *GC-MS, MS-MS, GC-FTIRS, LC-FTIRS,* etc. We have executed both quite intensely in our institute, and I dare say that *FTIR* and *MS* techniques complement each other ideally. *MS,* depending on the kind of ionisation, yields molecular masses and fragment masses of volatile, separated species; due to well-known thermal or electronic fragmentation mechanisms it is possible to reconstruct non-volatile substances like polymers from their pyrolysates. MS can analyse picograms of sample; this allows the very efficient coupling of capillary *GC* with *MS. FTIRS,* other than *MS,* is independent on the aggregational state of the sample, "visualises" functional groups and whole structures, distinguishes between structural isomers, and finally allows quantitative analyses due to strict physical correlations between molar concentrations and absorbances. It has reached a sensitivity in the range of nanograms.

3.5.1.2.1

Separation by Liquid Chromatography (references 10.2.1)

Already in 1968, Crompton (survey article) described the (offline) combination of thin layer, column or gas chromatography with *IR* spectrometry for the identification of additives in polymeric hydrocarbons. After the introduction of the faster HPLC with its much higher separation power (some 10³ up to 5×10^4 theoretical plates), it was possible to separate multicomponent additive mixtures in a reasonably short time. Standt, in a typical investigation, described the identification of low-molecular compounds, basically additives, in the extracts of dashboard films by reversed or normal phase, gradient HPLC (acetonitrile/CH₃OH+H₂O). Up to 30 components were separated on preparative columns (LiChrosorb RP-8, 250 mm long, 20 mm i.d., 7 um particle size), detected by their *UV* absorption at 260 nm and identified (still off-line) by *IRS,* employing reference spectra. Alternatively, analytical columns with 4.6 mm i.d. were used. The most time-consuming process (24 h) was the Soxhlet extraction with ether or hexane; the separation itself needed about 90 min.

HPLC, especially with preparative columns, is but a semimicro method. With sufficient amount of analyte and off-line *IR* identification this is advantageous. However, on-line *FTIR* analysis is a challenge, and for that it is necessary to get rid of the solvent at least in a semi-continuous way. Somsen et al. extracted the additives from PVC and polypropylene samples and separated them on narrow-bore *HPLC* columns by reversed-phase chromatography. The volatile mobile-phase solvent was removed during the deposition of the effluent

by a spray-jet interface onto ZnSe windows. The spots of the components (nanogram range) were small enough for micro *FTIRS,* and the spectra were good enough for library search and/or visual interpretation.

Bruheim et al., in a recent publication, turned to temperature-programmed packed-capillary liquid chromatography (let us call it *TP-CLC),* off-line coupled to *FTIRS.* (In fact, the system is on-line up to the deposition of the spots on a rotating GeAl disc; the latter has to be transferred to the *FTIR* spectrometer.) This combination is quite sensational in being related to temperature-programmed gas chromatogra*phy-FTIRS -* with the basic difference that non-volatile substances including (to present) oligomers are separated. With true capillaries (i.d.<l mm), only isocratic mobile phases can be used; gradual changes of the mobile phase composition cause problems with respect to the low flow-rates required as well as during the nebulisation process.

In the present investigation, the fused silica capillary columns (length 300 mm, $320 \mu m$ i.d.) were packed using supercritical $CO₂$ as the slurry medium. The stationary phase material was 3.5-um Kromasil 100 ODS (HiChrom, Reading, UK). A Merck Hitachi L-7100 piston pump delivered the mobile phase (acrylonitrile, AN) with a flow rate of 5 mm³ min⁻¹. Manual injections were performed with a Valco Model CI4 W injection valve having an internal loop of 0.06 mm³. The column was coupled to the injection valve by a 100-mm fused silica capillary (50 μ m i.d.). A 5730A gas chromatograph (Hewlett Packard) served as column oven. *UV* detection (280 nm) was performed using a Spectra Physics model 2000, using a capillary "U" shaped detector cell with 8 mm light path (UZ-LI-CAP from LC Packings, Amsterdam). A Shimadzu C-R5 A integrator was used for *UV* data sampling. To prevent the mobile phase from boiling when operating at elevated temperatures, a fused silica linear restrictor (length 400 mm, 50 um i.d.) was connected to the end of the *UV* detector cell. The end of this restrictor capillary served as the nebuliser tip, and was subsequently mounted directly within the in-house constructed nebuliser of the modified *LC-FTIR* interface (LC Transform 200, Lab Connections, Marlborough, MA, USA). The solutes were deposited on GeAl discs, utilising the original rotation disc drive system (5° min⁻¹). The discs were routinely cleaned with AN.

The nebuliser was an important part of the arrangement. It was constructed with special attendance to minimum dead volume (optimal separation of the components of mixtures); sufficient details are given in the paper of Bruheim et al. Heated sheath gas (50 °C, 5.5 dm³ min⁻¹) was introduced to the capillary nebuliser, surrounding the fused silica restrictor capillary. Nebuliser spray and analyte deposition (spots) on the collector discs could be observed visually. It was found that a vertical position of the nebuliser outlet 5 mm above the disc collector resulted in optimal deposits (AN as mobile phase solvent).

FTIR measurements (eight scans per spectrum, 4000- 700 cm $^{-1}$, resolution 4 cm $^{-1}$) were carried out on a Nicolet Magma 550 with deuterated triglycine sulfate detector. The GeAl disc was rotated during scanning at the same rate as during the sample deposition. Reflection-absorption spectra and constructed Gram-Schmidt chromatograms were acquired with the Nicolet Omnic 2.0 software. The mass limit of detection was 40 ng (signal/noise=3). The sensitivity may be improved by a factor of ca. 5 by employing an HgCdTe detector. Mixtures of antioxidants were separated and measured with good results. In one case (Irgafos P-EPQ) even the isomers of this oligomeric phosphonic acid ester were completely separated. The *FTIRS* were good enough for library search and visual interpretation. The range beyond about $850\ \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$ showed very strong noise and couldn't be used for a discussion of aromatic substitution.

TP-CLC-FTIRS, as described by Bruheim et al., can also be used for the separation and identification of oligomeric additives. The same is true for the (off-line) combination of gel permeation chromatography (GPC) with IRS as described by Howard in an early publication. The molar mass exclusion limit depends on the gel used for separation; with Poragel A-1 used in this study it is 1 kg mol⁻¹. The separation power of *GPC* is much lower than in the case of *HPLC* or *CLC;* Howard reached 460 theoretical plates with nine *(sic)* 4-ft. columns filled with a tetrahydrofuran slurry. The separation of the molecules is effected by their size; small molecules will penetrate the gel deeply, big molecules do not. This is the reason why, in *GPC*, big molecules are eluted first and small ones come last. Isomers and most other isobaric molecules cannot be separated. The "bands" in a *GP* chromatogram (empirical intensity vs eluted volume or "elution counts") are usually broader than the peaks in *HPLC* or *CLC;* Howard used them for the quantitative determination of specific antioxidants. In addition, THF extracts from polypropylene and PVC (1Og each) of different producers were separated; the chromatograms were characteristic for their origins. In addition, the

influence of ageing and processing was studied by analysing consecutive chromatograms. *IRS* was used for the identification of eluted plasticisers.

3.5.1.2.2

Separation by Supercritical Fluid Capillary Chromatography

The (off-line) combination of 5FC with *FTIRS* is one of the most powerful methods for separation and identification of multicomponent systems. Other chromatographic techniques suffer from certain disadvantages. Thus, *GC* requires volatility and thermal stability of a system; high-molecular mass or reactive additives are therefore not apt for *GC* separation. *HPLC* has detector problems and considerably lower resolution power than capillary chromatography, and it isn't easy to couple with *IR* or *MS.* Size-exclusion (gel permeation) chromatography suffers from poor resolution and low sensitivity.

Capillary *SFC* with $CO₂$ as mobile phase allows high-resolution separation of nonvolatile, thermally labile, high-molecular mass compounds. It can (among others) be operated with the universal flame-ionisation detector *(FID).* The considerable compressibility of $CO₂$ in the supercritical state as well as its relatively low critical temperature (31 $^{\circ}$ C at 7.4 MPa) allows one to work at moderate temperatures. Densities similar to liquids can be achieved; thus, density programming can control the solvating power of the fluid and thereby also the selectivity of the arrangement.

Finally, each eluate with a defined component is directly deposited from the end of a restrictor onto a small area (ca. 0.2 mm, a few ng of substance) of an IR transparent support as the CO₂ evaporates immediately. The IRS is measured with the substance on its support in a microscope.

A thorough investigation of the application of this technique to mixtures of additives was presented by Raynor et al. (10.2.1). A schematic diagram of the *SFC/FTIR* system is shown in Fig. 3.8. A Lee Scientific 501 SFC pump controlled by LS software run on an IBM XT 286 PC was used for

Fig. 3.8

Schematic diagram of the major instrumental components of an *SFC/FTIR* system with a microscope accessory (M.W. Raynor et al., 10.2.1)

pressure programming. $CO₂$ was delivered by the pump to a pneumatically actuated C14W microvalve injector (15 ⁰C) fitted with a 0.2-mm³ Valvo internal sample volume rotor. A 15-m fused-silica capillary column (0.1 mm i.d.) coated with a 0.5-um crosslinked poly(methyl phenyl siloxane) was mounted in a Carlo Erba Fractovap 2150 *GC* oven with *FID* (400 ⁰C). The column was connected to the injection valve via an inlet splitter (SGE) having a split ratio of 1:3. The column effluent was split between a tapered capillary restrictor in the *FID* and a heated transfer line by using a butt connector and a graphite ferrule (SGE). The system was maintained at 140 $^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ and an initial pressure of 150 atm for 12 min, before programming to 350 atm at a rate of 3 atm/min (1 atm=1.01 \times 10⁵ Pa).

The transfer line from the *SFC* to the *IR* microscope interface consisted of a 0.5-m deactivated fused-silica capillary $(50 \mu m \text{ i.d.})$ with a tapered restrictor fixed at the interface end. The transfer line was threaded through a piece of stainless steel tubing, maintained at the column temperature. The tubing was inserted into the restrictor housing (140 ⁰C). An *FID/FTIR* interface split ratio of 1:1 was set by cutting the *FID/FTIR* interface restrictors until each had a gaseous flow rate of 1.5 cm³/min measured at r.t., and a column pressure of 150 atm. The end of the transfer line restrictor was positioned approximately 50 um above the surface of a 13 mm KBr disc

Fig.3.9 *SFC* of 21 defined additives (M.W. Raynor et al., 10.2.1); for the structures belonging to certain trade names see Table 7.24. 1 Topanol OC, 2,4,6-tri-t-butylphenol, 2 Tinuvin P, 2-(2-hydroxy-5-methylphenyl)- 2H-benzotriazole, 3 Tinuvin 292, bis(1-methyl-2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidinyl)sebacate, 4 Tinuvin 320,5 Tinuvin 326,6 Tinuvin 328,7 Chimassorb 81,2-hydroxy-4-octyloxybenzophenone, 8 Z-13-docoseneamide, 9 Tinuvin 770, bis(2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-4-piperidinyl)sebacate, 10 Tinuvin 440, 8-acetyl-3-dodecyl-7,7,9,9-tetramethyl-l,3,8-triazaspiro(4,5)decane-2,4 dione, 11 Irgafos 168,12 Tinuvin 144,13 Irganox PS800,14 Irganox 1076, 15 Irganox MD1025,16 Irganox 245,17 Irganox 1035,18 Irganox 3114,19 Irganox PS802, 20 Irganox 1330, 1,3,5-tris(3,5-di-t-butyl-4-hydroxybenzyl)-2,4,6-trimethylbenzene,21 Irganox 1010

which was kept at r.t. After the elution of each peak (as detected by the *FID)* the KBr disc was placed in the microscope. The *IR* beam was reduced to an aperture of 150 µm or less depending on the size of the deposit and spectra were measured with a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} . The results were very good.

The polymer additives used are listed in the legend of Fig. 3.9; additional structure informations are found in Table 7.24. A synthetic mixture containing 400 ng mm⁻³ of each of the 21 components in CH_2Cl_2 was used to find suitable chromatographic conditions, the resolution was excellent (Fig. 3.9). Commercial polypropylene samples from ICI (10 g) were Soxhlet extracted with ether for 15 h, the extracts were freed from low-molecular PP and subsequently analysed in the described way.

3.5.1.3

Solubility of Stabilisers and Antioxidants in Polymers

An interesting contribution on the solubility of HALS in low-density polyethylene (LDPE) has been published by Zehnacker and Marchal (10.2.5). The authors found that both A_{max} and the absorptivity a (m² mol⁻¹, not l mol⁻¹) of $v(CO)$ depend on the state of the investigated antioxidant, $bis(2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-4-piperidinyl)$ (Tinuvin 770). Thus, A_{max} for v (CO) of the dissolved antioxidant was 1740 cm⁻¹ (in hexane) or 1736 $\rm cm^{-1}$ (in LDPE). The same band for the solid additive was found at 1718 cm^{-1} . The polymer solution was obtained by heating LDPE with 0.5 wt% of the additive to 190 °C, extruding to films (ca. 50 µm) and quenching. Due to the absence of absorptions of LDPE in the range of 1740 cm^{-1} the films can be measured directly. The value for a_{solid} (additive bloomed to the surface) of $v({\rm CO})$ at 1718 ${\rm cm}^{-1}$ was found to be about 1/3 higher than that for $a_{\text{dissolved}}$. Quantitative measurements allowed the determination of the fractions of dissolved and solid additive, respectively.

Coleman and coworkers (10.2.2) studied the important problem of self-association *vs* inter-association (additive to polymer) for the additive poly(2,6-di-f-butyl-4-vinylphenol) in poly(oxytetramethylene) (poly-THF). Polymeric additives are not volatile, exhibit low diffusion rates and are resistant to leaching. They are, on the other hand, usually incompatible with the polymer they are supposed to protect. They share this property with most polymer-polymer systems. This is a consequence of the extremely small free enthalpy of mixing due to the extremely small mixing entropy. There is a chance for a negative *free* mixing enthalpy left: a negative mixing enthalpy. (This is a simplified explanation.) Weak self-association (SA) and strong inter-association (IA, by hydrogen bonds) of a phenolic antioxidant with a polymer would therefore increase the solubility of the additive in the polymer.

The authors studied the $v(OH)$ range of four phenolic model compounds with increasing steric hindrance (none to completion) and made the following assignments $(cm⁻¹)$:

In order to study interactions with ester carbonyl, the four phenolic model compounds were dissolved 1:4 (w/w) in ethyl i -butyrate (EIB); the latter is a fine model for the monomeric unit of poly(ethylmethacrylate). Spectra were measured at r.t. from 1800 cm^{-1} to 1650 cm^{-1} . $v(\text{CO})$ for neat EIB is at 1738 cm^{-1} . Hydrogen bond formation shifts $v(CO)$ to the red end, the more the stronger the bond. The measurements revealed that sterically unhindered phenols caused the strongest shift (28 cm^{-1}); the one for a 2,6-di-t-butylphenol was 10 cm⁻¹. Apparently, the oxygen of the ester carbonyl successfully competes with the oxygen of the phenolic OH; in other words, IA was, in these cases, stronger than SA. This is a bit simplified. The authors calculated the equilibrium constants for these systems from the spectra. They found out that methyl in the 2,6-position decreases SA by about 1/3, compared with 4-ethylphenol. IA is, however, in both cases reduced by about the same factor. Thus, the ratio IA/SA is in both cases the same, namely 2.5. For a 2,6-di-i-propylphenol, SA was reduced to about 1/10, IA/SA was 4.4. For the 2,6-di-tbutylphenol, SA and IA were not detectable.

The step to polymers was done with $poly(2, 6-di-i$ propyl-4-vinylphenol) (PPVP) as antioxidant and poly- (oxytetramethylene) (POTM) as polymer to be protected. PPVP is soluble in POTM (and many other polymers) over the whole range of compositions. In its spectrum, $v(OH_{free})$ is at 3622 $\rm cm^{-1}$ and $\rm \nu(OH_{ass})$ at about 3550 $\rm cm^{-1}.$ In the spectrum of a polymer blend with 5 wt% PPVP, $v(OH_{ass})$ appears at about 3450 cm^{-1} ; this belongs to the inter-associate.

Ageing experiments were done at 150 ⁰C in air. Pure POTM, after 30 min, already exhibited a weak $v(C=O)$ band in its $spectrum$. After 3 h, a band at 1737 cm^{-1} (oxidation product) was even stronger than v (CH). With 0.04 wt% of PPVP, even after 10 h at 150 °C only a very weak $v(C=O)$ was visible.

These results show that solubility of antioxidants (in this case polymers being able to form chain-like associates via hydrogen bridges) is an important factor in polymer stabilisation.

In a recent publication, Coleman, Mock and Painter (10.2.2) showed that carefully designed copolymers (CP) of styrene (S) with relatively small amounts of 2,6-di-i-propyl-4-vinylphenol (PVP) are compatible with poly(oxyethylene) (POE) and poly(vinylmethylether) (PVME). The CP used for these experiments contained 7 mol.% PVP. An amount of 10 wt% of the CP in POE and 5 wt% in PVME stabilised the polyethers in a way that even after 4 h at 150 °C in air no $v(CO)$ was observable in the spectra.

3.5.1.4 ATR Investigations of Rubber Surfaces

The surfaces of unvulcanised or vulcanised rubber mixtures differ in their composition from that of the interior. This is partially due to release agents or processing aids like silicone oil, talc, soaps, and partially due to the fact that low-molecular additives in rubber tend to diffuse to the surface³.

Attenuated total reflectance *(ATR)* is a rather sensitive method to study surfaces. The infrared beam, coming from the medium with the higher refractive index, at the interface between the reflecting crystal and the analyte leaves the former and enters the analyte for a few microns before it is definitively reflected (this description is simplified). On its way, the *IR* beam is partially absorbed by the analyte $-$ a spectrum can be calculated. The usual *ATR* materials are Ge, Si and KRS-5 [Tl(Br,I)]. Ge, in this order, has the highest, KRS-5 the lowest refractive index *n;* the penetration increases with decreasing *n.*

Pasch and Disselhoff (10.2.6) described possibilities and limits of *ATR* for qualitative and (in some cases) quantitative analysis of rubber surfaces. In order to overcome the problem of the strongly absorbing carbon black at least partially they used Si as reflecting crystal. By this, samples with up to 30% carbon black can be investigated. (It has to be mentioned that most vulcanisates contain higher amounts of a strengthening filler, carbon black or amorphous $SiO₂$. In these cases, Ge would be preferable.)

Vulcanisates with known additives were subjected to *ATR.* Substituted p-phenylenediamines, zinc stearate (formed during vulcanisation from ZnO and stearic acid), benzothiazolesulfenamides and paraffins were observable.

Quantitative analysis of surface components was made possible by defined surface impregnations with different additives $(50-1500 \text{ µg cm}^{-2})$.

3.5.1.5

Quantitative IRS Analysis of Additives

In a historical though important publication Spell and Eddy (10.2.2) showed that *IRS* is quite apt for a (somewhat time-consuming) quantitative determination of additives in polyethylene. Standard samples containing known amounts (1-500 ppm) of 2,6-di-f-butyl-4-methylphenol (BMP), 4,4 thio-bis(6-t-butyl-3-methylphenol) (SBMP) and 9-octadeceneamide (OAMD) as a slip agent were milled to 50 mesh in a Braun pulveriser. Then 5 g of a sample were shaken at r.t. with 25 cm³ of CS_2 or CCl_4 in a stoppered bottle for about 1 h; this was sufficient to extract 98% of these additives. The $CS₂$ extractions were filtered in a 1-cm or - for low additive con-

³ They don't know, of course, where the surface is. They diffuse in all directions and finally find the surface.

centrations – in a 3.3-cm cell and scanned between $1280\ \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$ and 1075 cm^{-1} . The same thickness of pure solvent was in the reference beam. The analytical bands of BMP $(1156~\mathrm{cm}^{-1})$ and SBMP (1183 cm⁻¹) had absorptivities of 17.8 m² mol⁻¹ and 50.2 m^2 mol⁻¹, respectively.

For OAMD CCl₄ was used as a solvent. Amide-I at 1695 cm^{-1} (34.6 m² mol⁻¹) or $v_{\text{free}}(\text{NH})$ at 3450 cm⁻¹ (about $3.5~\mathrm{m^2}$ mol $^{-1})$ served as analytical bands. Minimum detectability was about 1 ppm, precision within 4 ppm.

When interferences were present the alkylphenol was extracted by *i*-octane. The extracts were measured in the UV between 250 nm and 350 nm in a 1-cm or 5-cm cell. *Amax* for BMP was measured at 285 nm, the absorptivity was 208 $m²$ mol^{-1} ; the data for SBMP were 286 nm and 714 $\mathrm{m}^{2}\,\mathrm{mol}^{-1}$.

The quantitative analysis of mixtures from their spectra is principally possible for spectroscopically ideal systems. This prerequisite means that the values for $A_i(v)$ for each component *i* are additive; simply speaking, the spectra of the components in the system add up to the spectrum of the mixture (modified Lambert-Beer law).

The first research group to solve the problem of the simultaneous determination of additives from their *IRS* was quite recently Blanco et al. (10.2.6). In their first publication the authors investigated mixtures of different compositions containing four or five additives from analytically pure components in CCl₄. The FTIR spectra of CCl₄ solutions were recorded in 0.15 mm NaCl cuvettes in the range $4000-600$ cm⁻¹ at 4 cm^{-1} intervals. The CCl₄ spectrum was subtracted from each sample spectrum; the result was converted to its first derivative.

Only the range 1800–900 cm^{-1} contained analytically useful information; also, the range of maximum absorption of CCl_4 (1650–1500 cm⁻¹) had to be disregarded.

The results of numerous measurements were subjected to a matrix treatment, using partial least-squares regression for multivariate regression. The quantitative results were quite satisfactory; the errors of prediction were generally <2% and in the worst of cases <5%.

In a second publication the same research group developed a quantitative *FTIR* method for the determination of accelerators and antioxidants in extracts of vulcanised rubber. Since additives during vulcanisation decompose, at least to some fraction, this method again does not depend on characteristic bands of the components in the system but rather on absorption ranges containing the highest information on these. In this respect, the described method resembles closely the near-infrared (NIR) analysis of multicomponent mixtures (Hirschfeld, Stark, 10.1; Osborne, Fearn, 10.1; Siesler, 10.2.8), though with diffuse reflectance.

The two model vulcanisates, in addition to ZnO, stearic acid, carbon black and (in one case) oil, contained three accelerators/vulcanising agents and one antioxidant (amounts as parts per hundred parts of rubber):

The polymer bases were poly(styrene-co-butadiene) and poly(isoprene-co-butadiene), respectively. Extractions were done with 5 g vulcanisate/75 cm^3 CCl₄ in a Soxhlet for 6-8 h. The extracts were reduced to 5 $cm³$ and measured in a cell 0.15 mm wide. Subsequently, $CCl₄$ absorptions were subtracted, and the spectra were normalised. Both absorbance and first derivative spectra were used for the investigations. It turned out that the latter brought better results, very likely because underground problems are minimised.

For quantitative evaluation six different *MIR* ranges were tested; best results were obtained with 1500-900 cm⁻¹. From system I, 23 vulcanisates with different compositions of additives were prepared, 12 of them were used as calibration set and the rest as validation set (to avoid "in-breeding"). The calibration technique used was partial least-squares regression, internal validation by cross validation, using the leaveout method (literature is given). The relative standard errors of prediction, with first derivatives, were 7-8%.

3.5.2 Pigments⁴ and Fillers

3.5.2.1 Organic Pigments

3.5.2.1.1 Some Basic Facts

Few other functional classes in nature and in human chemistry posses so many different functional groups and substituents as organic pigments. The reason is that the human eye distinguishes minute hues and wants them in clothes, paints and other coloured objects - and the chemist tries to follow this by adding functional groups or substituents to the pigment molecule. The spectroscopist isn't too happy about this because it is close to impossible to unravel the superimposed partial spectra (with a sum of 60-70 bands) of partial structures, and to assign an analytical spectrum to a certain

⁴ The term *colorants* covers *dyes* and *pigments.* In this book, we deal predominantly with pigments.

pigment family. The richness in bands makes, on the other hand, pigment spectra highly specific. This is quite advantageous in quality control and computer-aided statement of identity. (Note: pigment spectra are not strictly reproducible, especially if a pigment exhibits polymorphism. This is the case with, e.g. pigment violet 19, pigment red 122, copper phthalocyanine. For the latter, see Knudsen and Shurvell; Pinzuti, both 10.2.3.)

In addition, pigments are frequently applied as mixtures, including inorganic fillers like $BaSO₄$. Simple tests of solubility may give hints on their presence (consecutive treatment):

The isolation of pigments from dispersions or processed materials is described elsewhere in this chapter. Thin-layer separation of pigments is treated in the literature, especially in the book of Scholl (10.1).

Isolated pigments are usually prepared with KBr for *IRS.* In favourable cases - printing inks and prints, pigmented binder on plane surface - *ATR* maybe successful (Reichert, 10.2.3).

In the following paragraphs more recent literature on the *IR* analysis of pigments will be dealt with.

3.5.2.1.2 Phthalocyanines

Phthalocyanine itself $(PcH₂)$, its copper derivative $(PcCu)$ and the halogenated (Cl, Br) derivatives of PcCu have attracted considerable attention both in fundamental and in applied research. Pcs own high symmetries, PcCu, for example, has a centre of symmetry. The shade of Pcs between deep blue and green depends on the central atom, on the (halogen) substitution of the four 1,2-benzenic rings and not least on the crystal structure (amorphous content, polymorphous modification).

The first *IR* investigation of Pcs was published by Cannon and Sutherland (10.2.3). Later, Knudsen found no less than five $(\alpha - \varepsilon)$ modifications with (slightly) differing *IRS*; Shurvell and Pinzuti studied, in addition to PcH₂ itself, the IRS of PcCu (probably the β modification), PcCl₄Cu, PcCl₁₆Cu, PcNa₂, PcAlOH and PcMo. Table 3.21 collects some of the results of these authors together with our own ones; Fig. 3.10 shows the *MIRS* of the modifications of PcCu. According to Knudsen, the modifications of PcCu may be distinguished by the following bands $(cm⁻¹)$:

Fig. 3.10

IRS of the five polymorphous modifications of copper phthalocyanine (B.I. Knudsen, 10.2.3)

3.5.2.1.3 Increasing the Information on Structures: Combination of Spectroscopic Methods

FTIRS is certainly a powerful method for the *identification* of organic pigments, but it is not strong enough for complete *structure elucidation.* One of the reasons for this is that it is close to impossible to disentangle the superimposed partial spectra produced by a pigment structure; another is that we lose the intramolecular connections when applying this concept of spectral interpretation (we have no other choice - the coupling phenomena are too complicated).

Manukian and Lichti, a generation ago (10.2.3), gave a fine example for the combination of *IR,* mass, *NMR* and *VIS* spectrometries together with elementary analysis for a complete elucidation of the structure of the analyte. They anticipate that the family of the analytical pigment is known. This is either taken from company information or found by a characteristic *IR* band combination. Today, this is done by a similarity search with a pigment library. The task is now to identify the substituents and/or the bridges.

In their first example the authors investigate a dimer tetrachloroisoindolinone (TCI, Pigment Yellow 109) whose bridging group is unknown:

The *IRS* exhibited bands at 3330,1742/1730,1660,798 and $720\ \mathrm{cm^{-1}};$ the latter two gave a hint on three adjacent H atoms at a benzene ring.

If the two monomeric groups were directly bound the chemical formula $C_{16}H_2N_4O_2Cl_8$ would result. Elemental analysis differed considerably and suggested a hydrocarbon bridge. The *(EI)* mass spectrum exhibited series of *e/m=372* (+2, 4, 6, 8) and 650 (+2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12) with the typical intensity distribution of the Cl isotopes. These mass numbers had to be explained by monomer-C₇H₇ and dimer-C₇H₆. The ¹H-NMR spectrum (solvent: CF3COOD) revealed three aromatic (7.9 ppm, TMS=O) and three aliphatic (2.6 ppm) H atoms. Consequently, the bridge between the TCI units was 2,6-tolylene.

A more complicated problem was the identification of the substituents of Pigment Violet 35 (9,10-dichlorotriphenedioxazine) (DAZ) derivative:

The unsubstituted DAZ is red, the analyte is violet; consequently the structure of DAZ must be different. The *EIMS* revealed series at *m/z=575/577/579* and 680/682/684; no higher masses were observed. With the results of an elemental analysis, a chemical formula $C_{36}H_{26}N_4O_6Cl_2$ was concluded. Since DAZ of this kind have equal substituents on the 1,2-benzo groups, each of these should have the formula $C_9H_{10}NO_2$.

The EIMS also exhibited a series with m/z =634/636/638 and 575/ 577/579. The former series can be explained by the elimination of C_2H_6O , i.e. ethanol, from the DAZ molecule. The latter series suggests the elimination of C7H5O (105), i.e.benzoyl.

The IRS shows bands of a secondary amide (3320 and 1660 cm $^{-1}$), of an aromatic-aliphatic ether at ca. 1190 cm $^{-1}$, and bands characterising the ring substitution at ca. 910, $867,820,773$ and $700\ \mathrm{cm}^{-1}.$ The latter two bands characterise phenyl attached to C=O. Consequently, the substituents are C_2H_5O - and C_6H_5 -CO-NH-, and the structure can be formulated like this:

(I may add that both 1,2/3,4- and 1,3-substitutions, due to the bands at 820 and 910 cm^{-1} , seem likely - adjacent H pair and isolated H.)

Admittedly, this publication is historical, and modern analytical methods would shorten the way to the correct results considerably. The systematic way of these analyses is, however, still exemplary.

3.5.2.2 Inorganic Pigments and Fillers

Substances containing carbon are called organic, and all of them are molecular. Molecules, charged or not, are held together by forces directed in space; we call these forces bonds. Inorganic substances do not contain carbon, they may form molecules, many of them do not (e.g. metal oxides and sulfides). In the latter case the forces are usually ionic and coulombic in nature (we should therefore not speak of ionic bonds). Ionic forces are distributed all over space, ideally in a spherical distribution (alkali halides). Detailed information on the *IRS* of inorganics are found in the books by Siebert, Nyquist and Kagel, and Nakamoto (10.1).

The spectroscopist treats inorganic molecules and molecular ions like organic ones, and excitation conditions and selection rules are the same for both categories. Since inorganics rarely form large structures, their molecules/ molecular ions usually possess simple symmetries. In a simplified way, we look at the following possibilities:

The superscript a denotes the Rule of mutual exclusion: *IR* active vibrations are Raman inactive and vice versa.

Interestingly, the *IRS* of a molecule or ion becomes simpler with increasing symmetry. Thus, the frequent XY_4 species possess nine FV; due to selection rules and degeneracy only two *IR* bands should be observable. Owing to a distortion of the equilibrium potential energy field by, e.g. cations a degeneration may be lifted. This is quite frequent in the case of sulfates; the band around 1100 cm⁻¹ is then split into three components. In addition, weak to medium bands may show up where Raman active *FV* exist. This is due to a distortion of the symmetry of the molecular ion by, among other causes, the (metallic) cations and allows, e.g. the distinction between salts with the same anion. In the case of solids, the crystallographic elementary cell serves for the calculation of the *FV;* this is the reason why polymorphous modifications frequently can be distinguished by their *IRS.*

Both effects, together with the one of the cation on bond strengths (v_{as} !) can be studied with XO_4^{2-} and CO_3^{2-} (Table 3.22).

Non-molecular inorganics generally do not exhibit bands in the *NIR* and *MIR* ("internal" vibrations; they absorb, however, strongly in the *FIR.* These lattice or "external" vibrations may be considered as hindered translations and rotations. The sum of internal and external vibrations is *3N.*

A thorough investigation of the *IRS* of metal oxides was published by McDevitt and Baun (10.2.3); results which may be relevant for pigments and fillers are included in Table 3.23.

In most cases, by the way, the presence of an inorganic substance can be derived from the absence of CH bands $(v, \delta,$ (ω, γ) in the spectrum.

3.5.2.3

Pigments and Other Components in Fine Art and Historical Objects

FTIRS including micro-techniques has brought considerable progress in the field of the analysis of painting materials. A major advantage is the small amount of material needed; this is a few mg for normal *FTIRS* and 50-10 ug for micro-techniques. Table 3.24 shows characteristic band combinations for pigments and pigment mixtures used in paints.

There is no standardised procedure for the separation of binder and fillers. In the case of pasty or liquid paint systems a series of possible solvents are applied, e.g. water, $C_1 - C_3$ alcohols, acetone, esters, chloroform, white spirit; usually, at least one works. The same is true for fresh coatings. Separation is done by a centrifuge, the solution is evaporated in a Petri dish. Some of the concentrated solution is distributed with a glass rod onto a pre-warmed KBr disk; care has to be taken that the solution does not collect as a ring at the edge of the disk. After drying in vacuo, the binder is identified by its *IR* spectrum.

Most organic pigments dissolve in conc. H_2SO_4 ; carbonates (evolution of $CO₂$) and some oxides will dissolve too. Most of the inorganics (sulfates, silicates, others) will stay undissolved; separation can be done by a sintered frit.

Hardened (crosslinked) paints are boiled in dioxane or 1,3-dichlorobenzene or immersed in hexafluoro-2-propanol (1-2 h). If they will not dissolve, boiling alcoholic KOH is applied. The unsaponifiable is filtered off, dried and again treated with solvents. The residue is considered to be pigments and fillers; the *IRS* will give the answer. If the residue is white it is heated in a crucible; if it turns black it still contains organic (non-pigment) matter. The digestion and identification of hardened paints challenges the skill and imagination of an analyst.

3.5.3 Plasticisers

Plasticisers were the earliest additives to be analysed by *IRS:* they present little problems in preparation and have "beautiful spectra". This means that the spectra are characteristic, easy to interpret and appropriate for quantitative analysis. Two limitations have to be kept in mind: (1) the spectra usually reveal the acid component but the alcoholic one only with difficulties; (2) plasticisers are frequently applied as mixtures. When the plasticiser has been separated from the polymer it has to be established whether it is a mixture or not. This can usually be done by simple column chromatography.

Coming back to the problem of the alcoholic component of ester-type plasticisers: it is worthwhile to take a closer look at the spectra. The following ranges will permit conclusions on the kind of alkoxy group present $(cm⁻¹)$:

- 3050-2700,v(CH); \bullet
- \bullet $1395-1365, \delta_s$ (CH₃);
- \bullet $1150-1000, \nu(C-C);$
- \bullet 1000-900, ρ (CH₃);
- 760-720, ρ (CH₂)n;
- 650-400,6(skeleton).

Generally speaking, low members of a homologous series can easily be distinguished, the higher ones are spectroscopically very similar. In the latter case, intensity considerations may be helpful.

The first (1958) spectral collection of plasticisers was probably my own (69 spectra) (10.1). Meise and Ostromow (10.2.4) described the *IR* identification of plasticisers in extracts of plastics and exhibited 39 *IRS.* The 3rd volume (of R Scholl) of the 2nd edition of the Atlas (Hummel, Scholl, 1971) already presented the spectra of 313 *IRS* of plasticisers with all known compositions. This book also contains all desirable information on the extraction of plastics and their separation by chromatographic methods.

Table 3.1

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of saturated aliphatic hydrocarbons

Table3.2

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of alkyl-X groups with $X \# C$

Table 3.2 Continue

Table 3.3

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of alkynes and alkenes

Table 3.4

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of aromats

Vibrating group	Assignment	Range/ cm^{-1}	Intensity	Remark
All aromats	$v(ring-H)$	3080-3010	$w-m$	Several peaks ^a
	combination	2000-1700	VW-W	Number and position
	vibration			depend on substitution
	v(ring)	ca. 1600	$w-s^b$	Sometimes split ^c
	v(ring)	1510-1470	$w-s^d$	Wavenumber depends on substituente
	δ (ring-H)	1150-1000	var	Difficult to identify
Benzene derivatives (-substituted)				
mono-	γ (ring-H) ^f	750±15	s	Five adjacent H atoms
	γ (ring)	697±11	$m-s$	
	δ (ring	625-605	w-m	
$1,2$ -di-	γ (ring-H)	750±10	VS	Four adjacent H atoms
	δ (ring)	550-500	w-m	
$1,3$ -di-	γ (ring-H)	780±10	$\mathbf{v}\mathbf{s}$	Three adjacent H atoms
	γ (ring)	690±15	$m-s$	
$1,4$ -di-	γ (ring-H)	815±20	vs	
1,2,3-tri-		780-760	S	Three adjacent H atoms
		745-705	var	
$1,2,4$ -tri-		885-870	m	
		830-800	$m-s$	Two adjacent H atoms
1,3,5-tri-		865-810	S	Isolated H atoms
	δ (ring)	730-675	m	
1,2,3,4-tetra-	γ (ring-H)	810-800	m	Two adjacent H atoms
	δ (ring)	585-565	$m-s$	
$1,2,3,5$ -tetra-	γ (ring-H)	850-840	m	
	δ (ring)	580-505	$m-s$	
$1,2,4,5$ -tetra-	γ (ring-H)	ca. 805	W	
		870-855	$m-s$	
penta-		ca. 870	m	Single H atom
	δ (ring)	580-555	$m-s$	

a Decreasing in number with increase in substitution
b Strong in aromats with electronegative substituents and in aromatic heterocyclics, absent in benzene

c With substituents having double or triple bonds conjugated to the ring

d Strong with polar substituents

e ca. 1510/cm for electron donors and ca. 1470/cm for electron acceptors

f First order substituents (alkyl, other groups with no double or triple bond conjugated to the ring)

Table 3.5

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of five-membered heterocyclics and their aromatically condensed derivatives

Table 3. 5 Continu e

Table 3.5 Continue

Table 3.6

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of six-membered aromatic heterocyclics

Table 3.6 Continue

Table 3.7

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of -C=N, >C=N, -N=N-, -N=C=N- and -N=C=O compounds

Table 3.7 Continue

Table 3.8

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of amines

Table 3.9

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of OH compounds and ethers

Table 3.10

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of CHO-carbonyl compounds: ketones and quinones

Table 3.11

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of CHO-carbonyl compounds: aldehydes, carboxylic acids, carboxylates

Table 3.11 Contunie

Table 3.12

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of CHO-carbonyl compounds: esters, anhydrides

Table 3.12 Continue

Table 3.13

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of CHNO-carbonyl compounds: amides and lactams

Table 3.13 Continue

a 2-pyrrolidone

b 2-piperidone

Table 3.14

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of CHNO-carbonyl compounds: ureas

Table 3.15

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of CHNO-carbonyl compounds: isocyanates, urethanes and imides

Table 3.15 Continue

a The conformations relate to the carbonyl groups

Table 3.16

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of CHNO compounds: amine oxides, nitroso and nitro compounds, nitrite and nitrate esters

Table 3.16 Continue

a May be adjacent or superimposed to δ_s (CH₃), 1380/cm

Table 3.17

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of sulfur-organic compounds

Table 3.17 Continue

a Sulfonic acids are very hygroscopic; spectra obtained under normal laboratory conditions represent usually the hydrated form

Table 3.18

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of organic phosphorus compounds

Table 3.18 Continue

Table 3.19

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of organic silicium compounds

Vibrating group	Assignment	$Range/cm^{-1}$	Intensity	Remark
SiH derivatives				
RSiH ₃	v(SiH)	2155-2140	s	Reduced coupling
	$\delta_{\rm as}$ (SiH ₃)	945-930	$m-s$	No splitting
	δ_{s} (SiH ₃)	930-910	$m-s$	in asymmetric and sym. modes
	$\varrho(SiH_3)$	680-540	S	
R_2SiH_2	v(SiH)	2140-2115	s	
	$\delta(SiH_2)$	950-930	$m-s$	
	$\omega(SiH_2)$	895-885	$m-s$	
R_3 SiH	v(SiH)	2100-2090	s	
	$\omega(SiH)$	845-800	S	
ArSiH ₃	v(SiH)	2160-2150	s	
	$\delta_{as}(SiH_3)$	945-930	$m-s$	
	δ_{s} (SiH ₃)	930-910	$m-s$	
Ar_2SiH_2	v(SiH)	2150-2130	s	
	$\delta(SiH)$	950-925	$m-s$	
	$\omega(SiH)$	870-840	$m-s$	
Ar ₃ SiH	v(SiH)	2135-2110	S	
	$\omega(SiH)$	845-800	s	
$-O-Si(CH3)H$	v(SiH)	ca. 2230	S	
SiC derivatives				
$C-Si(CH_3)_{1-3}$	$v_{as}(CH_3)$	2980	s-vs sh	May be merged with $v_{as}(CH_3-C)$
	$\delta_{s}(CH_{3})$	ca. 1250	s sh	
$O-Si(CH_3)_{1-3}$	$v_{as}(CH_3)$	2980	s-vs sh	
		ca. 1265	s sh	

Table 3.19 Continue

Table 3.19 Continue

Vibrating group	Assignment	$Range/cm^{-1}$	Intensity	Remark
$-Si(OC2H5)3$	overtone	2770	w sh	Important for identification
	overtone	2740	w-m sh	
	$v_{\rm as}$ (Si-O-C)	1170	$m-s$	
	$v_{as}(O-Si-O)$	1110+1080	vs br	Merged twin band
		645-635	$w-m$	
(RO) ₃ Si-CH=CH ₂	$v(HC=CH2)$	3060	m sh	
	$v(C=C)$	1600	m-s sh	
	δ (HC=CH ₂)	1010	s sh	
		550-540	m-s sh	

Table 3.20

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of organic halogen compounds

Table 3.20 Continue

a CF groups are vibrationally strongly coupled with neighbouring structures. Thus, it is not feasible to speak simply of v(CF), 6(CF) etc. In addition, the electronegative nature of F activates vibrations of adjacent C-C bonds by an inductive effect (electric coupling)

b Mechanical coupling of CCl groups with adjacent structures is less than in the case of CF. On the other hand, CCl band frequencies are dependent on both configuration and conformation of adjacent groups. In the case of i -alkyl, a number of additional bands are observed in the $v(C-C)$ range c Other w-m sharp bands may appear between 1100 and 1000

d Dependent on conformation

Table 3.21

Table 3.22

Lift of degeneration and selection rules as shown with XO_4^{2-} and CO_3^{2-} (data from Newman, 10.2.3); values in cm⁻¹

a Triply degenerate

b Forbidden

c Doubly degenerate

Table 3.23

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of inorganic compounds (arranged according to symmetries)

Table 3.23 Continue

Table 3.23 Continue

Table 3.23 Continue

Vibrating group	Assignment	$Range/cm^{-1}$	Intensity	Remark	
$SiO2$ amorph.	$v(-O-Si-)$	1100	vs br	Chain vibration	
	$\delta(-O-Si-)$	800	m br	Chain vibration	
	$y(-O-Si-)$	470	$m-s$ br	Chain vibration	
$TiO2$ rutile	$\delta(-O-Ti-)$	680	vs vbr	Merged bands	
		525	s vbr		
		420	m		
		350	m	Lattice vibration	
Anatas	$\delta(-O-Ti-)$	680	vs vbr	Merged bands	
		530	s br		
		360	m	Lattice vibration	

Table 3.24

Characteristic absorption band combinations/partial spectra of pigments and pigment mixtures for paints; spectral range sometimes does not cover 4000–400 $\rm cm^{-1}$ (Newman, 10.2.3, own measurements)

Table 3.24 Continue

a seladonite, Fe(II) Ca Mg Al layer silicate

b Close twin band

c Colourless to light greenish

4 Rama n Spectrometr y

4.1 Fundamentals

The inelastic scattering of light by molecular systems was predicted by Smekal and discovered by Raman. Outside of resonance absorption, most of the light interacting with matter is scattered elastically (Rayleigh scattering). A small fraction, typically 10^{-8} to 10^{-9} , of the light is shifted to the red (Stokes) or to the violet (anti-Stokes):

 $h\nu_R = h\nu_i \pm (E_m - E_n)$

where v_i is the frequency of the incident light, v_R the one of the Raman-scattered light; *Em* and *En* are vibrational energy states of the interacting system⁵ . *AE* is usually much smaller than *hvi.* At room temperature, most of the molecules of our system remain in the vibrational ground state. If a larger fraction of the molecules is excited to the first level above ground ("hot" systems in a direct or indirect sense) then a molecule may transfer its vibrational energy to the colliding photon. This is the reason why Stokes is much more frequent than anti-Stokes shift. Commercial Raman spectrometers scan the red-shift (Δv) as a two-dimensional intensity/ wavenumber plot.

The *excitation condition* for the Raman effect is that, during the induced vibration, the polarisability of the molecule changes. *Selection rules* tell us which of the possible modes are active in one or the other effect or in both (or in none). The vibrational modes of molecules with only identity as symmetry element are active in both effects. Increasing symmetry of a molecule splits, so to speak, the activity of the modes: an increasing number of modes is either *IR* or Raman active. If a molecule has a centre of symmetry IR-active modes are Raman inactive and vice versa (rule of spectroscopic exclusion). Examples for this are some polycyclic pigments. Figure 4.1 shows the Raman spectrum of Cu phthalocyanine; the true bands on the low-wavenumber side, despite the long-wavelength excitation, are almost outshone by the strong fluorescence (candle in sunshine). This back-

5 For condensed systems, we neglect rotational states.

ground can partially be removed by mathematical treatment, and some more Raman bands will come up (Fig. 4.2). None of these appear in the *IRS* (compare Fig. 3.5).

Fluorescence, the main problem of Raman spectrometry *(RS),* is possible if the system absorbs radiation by resonance and owns a number of energy levels between the ground state and the excited state considered. An excited electron may then, rather than falling straight down, prefer the detour along steps. The radiation emitted between each step is called fluorescence or phosphorescence (the latter if the step is a triplet state). It is, in the case of simple molecules without chromophoric groups, easy to find an exciting wavelength far from absorption ranges, and therefore obtain spectra with little or no fluorescence. Most organic pigments have several chromophoric and auxochromic groups, absorb over wide ranges and allow many transitions from the near *UV* to the *NIR.* They are definitely no pleasure for a spectroscopist.

RS has a number of advantages over *IRS:* it covers a broad range of vibrational frequencies (4000-30 cm⁻¹), it doesn't incur the problem of sample thickness, the exciting vibration traverses glass (capillaries or vessels for substances) and water (investigation of solutions), it allows the study of samples with sizes of a few micrometers (Raman microscopy), and the (maximal or integral) intensity of a band is directly proportional to the concentration of the vibrating group or molecule. These advantages are almost compensated by serious disadvantages: the equipment is about twice as expensive as a (modest) *FTIR* spectrometer, the laser radiation may heat the sample and change its physical or chemical state, the reproducibility of the spectra is still not satisfactory, and fluorescence.

The latter problem has partially been solved by the use of *NIR* lasers, by resonance *RS* or by other techniques.

4.2 Applications of RS in the Field of Plastics Additives

This would be a fine and interesting chapter; unfortunately, there are no general publications in this field and only few

Raman spectrum of Cu phthalocyanine with defocused Nd:YAG 1.064 um laser excitation (100 mW). High-frequency side of the fluorescence maximum: rotational-modified first overtone of $v(H_2O)_{gas}$ low-frequency side: Raman bands. (Measurement by B. Schrader, University of Essen)

Fig. 4.2

Raman spectrum of Cu phthalocyanine, conditions as in Fig. 4.1. The fluorescence was mathematically subtracted (B. Schrader). Real bands are the ones at $\rm (cm^{-1})$ 1529,1453,1342,1185,1143 and 748. None of these coincides with bands in the *IRS* (see Fig. 3.5)

ones dealing with special applications⁶. This looks strange in view of the large number of literature on *IRS* of additives. The farther-reaching question is why the enthusiastic welcome of laser-excited *FT* Raman spectrometers wasn't followed by a flood of papers on the application of this method in all fields where *IRS* keeps the fortress. Some of the reasons have been discussed toward the end of the preceding chapter, but there are some more:

Poor Raman scattering of certain substance categories

- \bullet Unsatisfying reproducibility of spectra with one and the same instrument
- Differences in spectral quality when comparing results of \bullet different laboratories (even with the same make of instrument)
- Lack of digitised specific Raman libraries (which is par- \bullet tially due to the above arguments)

A number of these problems can be overcome by experimental tricks like changing the laser wavelength, cooling the samples (to reduce laser heating or to induce crystallinity), using 6 I used the CA search algorithm and appropriate key words. resonance Raman etc., but all this needs skill and time and

makes the price of a good Raman spectrum several times higher than the price of a good *FTIR* spectrum.

However, there are a few really impressive advantages of laser *RS* over *IRS*: to measure down to about 30 cm^{-1} (lattice vibrations), to measure aqueous solutions, to have a very fine space resolution (down to 1 um) by the extremely narrow laser beam, and to be able to couple *RS* with *VIS* microscopy. The latter technique will fill most of the next chapter.

In order to exemplify possibilities and limits of *RS* in the field of plastics additives three befriended institutes⁷ measured a number of selected additives under adjusted conditions. Colourless, liquid or solid samples generally presented few problems. The *RS* of triphenylphosphite (colourless liquid, Fig. 4.3) exhibits almost exclusively vibrations of the phenyl groups. The strongest *IR* bands of TPP, 1490 (v_{as}) ring), 1196 ($v_{\rm as}$ PO₃), 861 (δ PO₃), and 690 cm⁻¹ (γ PO₃) are Raman inactive. The *RS* of the colourless solid 2,6-di-f-butylphenol (Fig. 4.4) is again almost free from fluorescence; due to the low melting point of this substance (36 °C) the sample melted during the measurement. $v(OH)$ (3640 cm⁻¹ in the IR) is Raman inactive, and so is v (ring-O) (1430 cm^{-1} in the *IR).* The *RS* is quite characteristic for the aliphatic-aromatic

system. Tetramethylthiuramdisulfide (vulcanisation accelerator) is a colourless solid. Its RS (Fig. 4.5) shows v_s (CH₃) as second-strongest band (2927 cm⁻¹); in the *IRS*, this is weak. $v(C=S)$, in the *IRS* (1500 cm⁻¹), is very strong; in the *RS*, it is weak (1463 cm $^{-1}$) or inactive. Here 973 cm $^{-1}$ is active in both *IR* and Raman (φ CH₃, ν C-S). The strongest band in the *RS* (559 cm^{-1}) is active also in the *IR* $(563 \text{ cm}^{-1}, \text{medium})$. Thus, $v(S-S)$ as an assignment is unlikely; $\rho(C=S)$ is more likely.

1,3-Diphenylguanidine (accelerator) is a colourless solid; despite this, the RS exhibits short-wavelength fluorescence of medium intensity; this reduces the information of the *RS* but little (Fig. 4.6). Due to the low symmetry of the molecules (different types of association) about a dozen bands coincide in Raman and *IR.* Interestingly, both in Raman and *IR* several bands appear in the $v(C=N)/\delta(NH)$ range (1660-1530 cm⁻¹).

Almost all organic pigments are aromatic, many of them condensed. Consequently, they own numerous electronic states in *UV/VIS* and therefore, with *UV/VIS* laser excitation, produce extremely strong fluorescence which drowns all Raman-shifted lines. By using red (785 nm) or near *IR* (1064 nm) excitation and subtraction of the background, reasonable *RS* may be obtained in the medium and long-wavelength range. This is shown by Figs. 4.7-4.9. Despite these successful investigations, *IRS* is faster, cheaper and more specific than *RS* in the identification of organic pigments.

Fig. 4.3

Raman spectrum of triphenylphosphite (Ciba-Geigy). Conditions: Holoprobe, Kaiser Optics, 785 nm laser, resolution 0.6 cm^{-1} , 5-mm quartz cell, 2 s exposure, 20 scans. (Measurement by K.-J. Eichhorn and D. Fischer, IPF Dresden)

⁷ B. Schrader, University of Essen; K.-J. Eichhorn, D. Fischer, Institut fur Polymerforschung, Dresden; P. Reich, K.-W. Brzezinka, BAM, Berlin-Adlershof

Fig. 4.4 Raman spectrum of 2,6-di-tbutylphenol (Ethyl). Conditions: DILOR-XY spectrometer with $LN₂$ *CCD* camera and BH2 Olympus microscope, 514.5 nm 10 mW
laser. Peaks (cm⁻¹): 158, 288, 324, 445,525,622,805,843,930,1016, 1142,1168,1231,1269,1394,1444, 1582,1598,2886,2968,3006,3013, 3077. (Measurement by K.-W. Brzezinka, BAM, Berlin-Adlershof)

Fig. 4.5

Raman spectrum of tetramethylthiuramdisulfide (Perkazit TMTD, Akzo). Conditions as in Fig. 4.4. Peaks (cm⁻¹): 177, 317, 360, 393, 442,559,849,973,1040,1088,1147, 1234,1371,1395,1463,1694,2783, 2847,2927

Fig. 4.6

Raman spectrum of 1,3-diphenylguanidine (Perkacit DPG, Akzo), fluorescence uncorrected. Conditions as in Fig. 4.4. Peaks $(cm⁻¹)$: 241,276,513,703,760,833,1007, 1079,1175,1233,1272,1298,1324, 1364,1443,1482,1497,1543,1581, 1633,1658,3061

Fig. 4.7

Raman spectrum of pigment red 12515 (Novoperm Carmin HF3 C, Hoechst), background subtracted. Conditions as in Fig. 4.3, glass tube, exposure time 5 s. Peaks
(cm⁻¹, strong and medium bands in the medium range): 1604,1581, 1551,1503,1482,1428,1360,1318, 1287,1260,1223,1189,1107,952, 729,634

Fig. 4.8 Raman spectrum of pigment red 12512 (Novoperm Marron HFMOl, Hoechst), background subtracted. Conditions as in Fig. 4.3, glass tube, exposure time 5 s. Peaks (cm⁻¹, only strong and medium bands): 1586,1555,1505, 1483,1449,1395,1364,1334,1289, 1255,1223,1155,1106,969,800, 736,378

Wavenumber (cm⁻¹)

 $\ddot{\circ}$

Time: Accum: Objectiv: Grating: Remark:

4195 sec 2500 scans

1400

Detector: D418-S LabelHor: Wavenumber (cm"¹) LabelVer: Intensity (a.u.)

6 mm

1600

AUX0099

Hole.

 \circ

217/00

Fig. 4.9

Raman spectrum of pigment yellow 147 (Cromophtal GeIb AGR, Ciba-Geigy), N, N' -(5phenyl-1,3-triazine)*-bis*(1-amino-9,10-anthraquinone), fluorescence uncorrected. Conditions: Bruker IFS66 V spectrometer, FT-Raman module FRA106,75-mW 1064-nm laser, 2500 scans. Peaks in the medium range (cm⁻¹): 984, 1003, 1021,1042,1082,1285,1360,1409, 1592,1604,1645,1669. (Measurement by K.-W.Brzezinka, BAM, Berlin-Adlershof)

> File: Sample: Date:

120

Operator: Brzezinka Excit_line: 1064 nm

H99g AUX0099 10-10-2000 Power: Filter: Spectro: Slit: Spec, width:

1000

75 mW, 1 mm Rayleigh
900 – 1750 cm⁻¹

1200

4.3

Raman Spectrometry Combined with Information-Enhancing Techniques for the Identification of Dyes and Pigments⁸

4.3.1

Subtracted Shifted Resonance Raman Spectrometry

Before we turn to so-called Raman microscopy *(RS* combined with optical microscopy) an interesting paper recently published by Bell et al. should be discussed. The authors, when investigating a Chinese, yellow-dyed, 9th century manuscript *(Diamond Sutra),* found Raman signals buried in fluorescence and noise. Known strategies (among others) to circumvent these problems were:

- Enhancing the Raman signal by, e.g. resonance *RS* or surface-enhanced *RS*
- Shifting of the exciting wavelength in a way that the Raman signals are remote from the range of fluorescence (which is rarely possible)
- Shifting of the exciting wavelength into a range where it would (hopefully) not generate fluorescence (Nd:YAG laser at $1.064 \,\mu m$)

Surface-enhanced *RS* was not acceptable since the unique manuscript would have to be pressed on the reflecting metal surface and possibly be damaged. Shifting of the exciting wavelength (out of the near-resonance condition) was not possible since resonance *RS* was necessary to enhance the signals of the dye from the ones of the paper substance. Finally, NIR-excitation didn't promise success (and wasn't available).

The solution of the problem by the authors is impressive. The 100 mW 363.8 nm radiation of an Ar⁺ laser was close enough to the *UV* absorption of the paper dye to perform resonance *RS.* The acquisition protocol was then first to record a spectrum under normal conditions, then shift the optics of the spectrometer by δ cm⁻¹ (21 cm⁻¹) and record a second spectrum, and then move to the third position (2δ) for the final data acquisition of the cycle. These shifts are chosen to be sufficiently small that the background fluorescence remains approximately constant while the Raman bands follow the shifted spectrometer grating positions. To minimise the effect of changes in background fluorescence, this cycle was repeated several times. Typical accumulation times were 1-2 h. Subsequently, each of the shifted spectra is subtracted from the original *RS* thus yielding derivative-like spectra from which fluorescence and noise background has been almost eliminated. Curve-fitting of the difference data

using a double-Lorentzian function (GRAMS 386 software) finally allows the reconstruction of *RS* in the usual presentation. (The results with shifts of δ and 2δ were quite similar.) The *RS* shown in this publication of two isolated dyes from *Phellodendron amurense* as well as of three different dyed papers are excellent and allow qualitative and semi-quantitative characterisations of dyes on organic carriers.

4.3.2

Raman Spectrometry Combined with Light Microscopy

The VIS-lasers used to excite Raman lines emit usually at 514.5 nm or 647.1 nm. This radiation is not absorbed by glass, and a Raman spectrometer can therefore be combined with conventional microscopic equipment including studies with polarised light. Microscopically small samples (down to a diameter of ca. $1 \mu m$ and a sample weight of a few nanograms) can first be localised and subsequently measured without remounting. This non-sampling method is unique for the identification of materials in, e.g. paintings, coloured manuscripts and forensic material.

In a pioneering work, Andersen accentuated the considerable increase in analytical reliability of Raman results by employing other physical or physico-chemical methods with the same sample. These techniques should be complementary in yielding information (elementary composition, crystal structure, chemistry of binders, etc.) the *RS* does not comprise. Andersen used, in addition to *RS,* scanning electron microscopy with energy-dispersive X-ray analysis for the identification of Naples yellow of different provenance. He found, in addition to $Pb_3(SbO_4)$ (the supposed constituent of Naples yellow), bindheimite, valentinite, cerussite and crocoite (see Table 4.1). In a delustered spandex fibre he found rutile as a pigment.

Ten years later, Clark, Best and coworkers started a series of fascinating publications on the identification of pigments in mediaeval paintings and manuscripts.

The result of these elaborate investigations was the identification of pigments in coloured initials or in other illuminated parts of choir books (13th and 16th century), in a 13th century Lucka bible (Paris), in an Icelandic law code, in a Byzantine/Syriac gospel lectionary (13th century) and in other old manuscripts, in paintings of Titian and Veronese.

Table 4.1 (taken from these papers, together with some information from other sources) presents colour, name and chemical composition of commonly used inorganic pigments, whitenings and fillers. These authors also made a study of the performance of accompanying methods which is interesting enough to be reproduced as Table 4.2.

In a few cases I do not agree. Specificity is, at least basically, excellent for both *IRS* and *RS;* they are twins. In *RS* the intensity of a Raman line depends not only on the change of polarisability of a molecule or a chemical group during a

Table 4.1

Inorganic pigments of artistic, forensic and industrial importance (after Best et al., 10.2.3/1, Andersen, ibid., Clare, ibid. 1, own sources)

Table 4.2

Strengths and weaknesses of the main techniques available for pigment analysis (Best, Clark, Withnall, 10.2.3)

a Scanning electron microscopy

b Except where used in conjunction with an energy-dispersive X-ray analysis attachment

c X-ray fluorescence

d With appropriate modifications *in situ* studies may be performed, but with a loss of spatial resolution

e Elements heavier than K

f X-ray diffraction

- g Increases with atomic number
- h Particle-induced X-ray emission

i Simultaneous analysis of all elements with atomic number >9; Li, Be, B and N can also be detected with high sensitivity

- j Fluorescence can be an interference
- k Polarisation studies require samples to be removed

1 My judgement

vibration but also on the state of the system. To give just one example: one and the same substance in the amorphous state may produce a poor *RS* which may even be drowned by fluorescence (e.g. certain natural and synthetic resins) whereas, in the crystalline (pure!) state, this substance produces a fine *RS* with sharp bands. Another problem is presented by strongly emitting groups. Substances with long aliphatic or ethyleneoxide chains exhibit an extremely simple *RS;* it consists only of the very intense $v(CH_2)$ pair whereas other structural details can hardly be seen. Polar groups, in the *RS,* make weak bands whereas, in the IRS, they produce strong ones. The situation is *vice versa* for nonpolar groups or molecules. To express it as simple as possible: *if a* good *IRS* or *RS* can be obtained both are highly specific.

Immunity to interference is another point of discussion. If the analyst wants to identify a pigment by *RS* and the binder fortunately is a "weak emitter" he feels lucky. If he wants to identify the binder he has bad cards. Certainly, minor constituents below 5-10% are difficult to "see" in the *IRS.* Each component contributes, however, with its own partial spectrum to the *IRS.* A drop in the similarity score of the *IRS* of the analyte as compared with the *IRS* of the main component reveals the mixture and allows tricks like subtraction of the *IRS* of the main component.

The technique of Raman microscopy (Fig. 4.10) is described in more detail by these authors (slightly changed text). The incident laser beam is passed through a beamsplitter (B_1) , converted into a parallel beam by lens L_1 and focused on the sample using a microscope objective. The Raman radiation retraces the path of the incident laser beam

as far as the beamsplitter B_1 , where half of the radiation is directed into the monochromator.

Two aspects of the optical configuration are of particular importance for pigment analysis. First, collinear with the final leg of the path of the incident laser beam is the whitelight beam of a conventional microscope. Thus, selection of the particle to be examined is achieved in the same way as in optical microscopy. Selection of either white-light or laser illumination is accomplished using the swing-away mirror. Second, in the optical train between the microscope and the

Fig. 4.10 The optical configuration of a Raman microscope (S.P. Best etal., 10.2.3/2)

spectrometer is a secondary focus. The accurate location of an aperture at the focal point improves the spatial resolution of the experiment, and this has allowed the collection of Raman spectra at different depths within the sample (depth profiling) in favourable cases. In circumstances where the Raman signal due to the pigment is swamped by fluorescence an enormous reduction in the fluorescent signal can be achieved by use of the aperture at the secondary focus.

Another group around B.W. Singer (Davey et al.; Singer and Cahaner) used Raman microscopy for the identification of pigments used in water-colour works on paper and in Indian miniature paintings. The first paper is realistic in showing also Raman spectra where fluorescence almost

drowns the Raman signals. The authors expect that red and near-infrared lasers will reduce fluorescence due to media or organic pigments. They announce a library of Raman data on both traditional and modern pigments (which is highly desirable). Table 4.3 shows Raman data of inorganic pigments collected from the literature.

Finally, a recent paper of Edwards et al. should be mentioned which deals with the identification of pigments from wall paintings. Small samples ("about the size of a pin-head")were measured with a Fourier-transform Raman spectrometer equipped with a near-infrared Nd:YAG laser (1064 nm). The spectra shown are excellent and free from fluorescence.

Table 4.3

Raman bands (cm⁻¹) of selected inorganic pigments in alphabetic order (from Best et al., 10.2.3/1 and 2; Clark et al.; Davey et al., ibid.)

5 Spectrometr y i n th e Ultraviole t an d Visibl e Region s

5.1 Fundamentals

Resonance absorption in the ranges 200-400 nm (50,000- 25,000 cm⁻¹, near *UV*) and 400–800 nm (25,000–12,500 cm⁻¹, VIS)⁹ is caused by electronic transitions. Formally, these are accompanied by vibrational and rotational transitions; the whole spectrum can, however, be resolved only for free (gaseous) molecules and with high-resolution instruments. The UV/VIS spectra of condensed matter exhibit few and broad bands (non-resolvable vibrational broadening) which are hardly substance-specific. (Citation from D.A. Wheeler, 10.2.2: Ultraviolet spectroscopy is not a good tool for the identification of unknown constituents since it is non-specific and subject to many interferences.) The bands in the near *UV* belong to electronic transitions of chromophoric groups like double or triple bonds and aromatic ring systems. Certain other (bathochromic) functional groups shift the absorption of chromophoric groups into the visible range. This is important for coloured pigments and dyes. (The reason why *UV* measurements below 190 nm are only possible with evacuated spectrometers is the absorption of atmospheric $O = 0.$

There is (at least) one distinct advantage of *UVlVIS* over *IR* spectrometry - the very high molar absorptivities. These may go up to 10^3 m^2 mol⁻¹ which is about 100 times higher than the molar absorptivities of medium intense *IR* bands. $v(C=O)$, e.g. may reach 50 m² mol⁻¹. This is the reason why UWWS is frequently used for the quantitative analysis of dissolved, absorbing species (spectrometry, colorimetry). Care has to be taken, however, that a moderately absorbing component (to be determined) is not superimposed by a strongly absorbing impurity.

Another important point is the integrating nature of *UV* bands. Thus, members of homologous species carrying the same chromophoric group produce the same absorption band(s), though with different molar absorptivities; consequently, they can be analysed as a "family". Closely related compounds like 2,4,6-alkylsubstituted phenols (alkyl does

not absorb in the *UV/VIS* ranges) have at least one common band and can also be determined jointly. If molar absorptivities are related only to the band of the analytical group, they may be equal or very close.

The third and final point is that more qualitative and especially quantitative information can be extracted from UW WS spectra by calculating higher derivatives. This is made possible by the large signal-to-noise ratio of these spectra. By forming derivatives shoulders may become peaks and weak peaks grow into a quantitative range. Absorption peaks, in derivatives with odd number, become points of inflection; in derivatives with even number they remain peaks but with increasing sharpness (with negative satellites on both sides).

5.2 Antioxidants

A review of methods proposed for the analysis of antioxidants in polymeric materials, cast in the form of a step-bystep examination of the problems involved in any scheme of analysis, with a critical appraisal of the published procedures designed to overcome them was published by D.A. Wheeler (10.2.2¹⁰) in 1968. It contains chapters on Analysis *in situ,* Analysis after separation, Identification of separated antioxidants, Quantitative analysis and no less than 132 citations up to 1967. The UWWS paragraph is short and concentrates mainly on quantitative analysis by (spectroscopic) colorimetry.

Scholl (Hummel/Scholl, 10.1/2), in a chapter on *UV* spectrometry of antioxidants (AO), referred to the high absorptivities of phenols and aromatic amines which makes them apt for quantitative determination in the presence of additives without chromophoric groups. For the same reason aromatic additives in optically clear films of aliphatic polyhydrocarbons can be determined without extraction (see below). The fact that phenolates absorb 20-40 nm higher (red shift) than the respective phenol allows the distinction of phenolic AO with different degrees of steric hindrance (see below). AO

⁹ This partition is wholly for instrumental reasons. 10 Same for all following citations.
without o,o' -substitution are deprotonated already by very weak methanolic alkali; o, o' -di-t-butylphenols need up to 3 N alkali, and even then the deprotonation is a slow process. In the case of $4,4'$ -methylene-bis(2,6-di-t-butylphenol) the deprotonation by methanolic N alkali is not yet complete even after 20 h. Also, 2,6-di-£-butyl-4-methylphenol needs methanolic 3 N KOH to be (almost) completely deprotonated. Table 5.1 shows the values of *Amax* for a number of phenolic AO and their phenolates (from Scholl, I.e.).

The direct *UV* analysis of an AO in molten polyethylene (PE) was described by Albarino. PE is free of *UV* absorptions but, in its partially crystalline state, scatters *UV/VIS* (low signal-to-noise ratio). The author therefore investigated molten PE samples at temperatures around 130 °C and, depending on the concentration of 2,6-di-£-butyl-4-methylphenol (AO1), film thicknesses between $30 \mu m$ (0.1% AO1) and 780 µm (0.01% AO1). The analytical wavelength was 280 nm, the concentration measure was the absorbance *Aan* between A_{max} and the intersection with the baseline. For 30 μ m/0.10% AO, A_{an} =0.180, for 780 μ m/0.01% AO1, A_{an} =0.42. The quantitative evaluation for *Aan vs* film thickness was very good. The molar absorptivities at 280 nm were between 815 $m²$ mol $^{-1}$ and 795 m^2 mol $^{-1}$ with an average of 807 m^2 mol $^{-1}$. The method described here will (to my opinion) be applicable to other $(UV$ non-absorbant) and non-scattering (amorphous) polymers. Prerequisite is of course that the AO withstands thermal treatment and will not evaporate.

The first to employ derivative spectrometry for the determination of phenolic antioxidants (AO) in low-density PE were Pump and Woltjes. Contrary to the technique of Albarino, these authors used high-temperature (140 ⁰C) pressed and quenched (amorphous) pellets for their measurements. The AO were 2,6-di-£-butyl-4-methylphenol (I), 4,4'-thio $bis(2-t-butyl-5-methylphenol)$ (II) and $1,1,3-tris(2-methyl-1)$ 4-hydroxy-5-£-butylphenyl)butane (III). The chromophoric groups were similar, and consequently the analytical band for I—III was almost at the same wavelength, namely 280 nm. The interesting point is that in the second derivative these AO were easily distinguishable, and even the second derivative of the spectrum of a mixture of II and III allowed a quantitative evaluation.

The authors showed in the same publication that second derivatives also in the case of *VIS* spectra can be of considerable advantage. As examples, the "tedious" spectra of blue, yellow and orange transparent LDPE films gain considerable information in the second derivative.

Soon afterwards, Nuyken and Talsky followed with a paper on high-resolution higher-order *UV/VIS* derivative spectrophotometry *(HODS)* for copolymer composition, determination of unconverted monomer in polymers and analysis of polymer additives. In the latter case, the analytical system was Irganox 1010 (AOl, see above) down to 0.05% in polystyrene (!). AOl reveals itself only by a weak shoulder at the red flank of a very intense PS band. In the fourth and fifth derivative, the band of AOl is well separated from the PS absorption and can be used for quantitative analyses; the calibration lines show very good linearity.

Soucek and Jelinkova investigated a case where the *UV* spectra of the two investigated AO (2,6-di-f-butyl-4-methylphenol, AOl, and a 4-alkylsubstituted 2,6-xylenol, AO2) were qualitatively so similar that also the second derivatives of the spectra were indistinguishable. (The molar absorptivity of AO1 at 283 nm was 195.6 m^2 mol⁻¹, the one of AO2 50.6 m^2 mol⁻¹.) The problem was solved by the bathochromic effect

Table 5.1

Values of *Amax* in the *UV* for a number of phenolic antioxidants (in methanol) and their phenolates (in 0.1 N methanolic KOH). Concentrations: $0.25-1.0$ mg cm⁻³

a Incomplete deprotonation

of deprotonation of the phenolic group of AO2. AOl, due to the steric hindrance by the t -butyl groups, is difficult to deprotonise by weak bases. A02 is deprotonated already by weak alkali; the band maximum shifts from about 280 nm to 298 nm. This works also with mixtures of the two AO.

Polypropylene was stabilised with the following mixtures: 0.03-0.15% AOl and 0.1-0.2% AO2. Stabilised sheets (0.5 mm thick) were cut into pieces of 50×50 mm², weighed and refluxed 3 h in 50 cm^3 of boiling heptane; >98% of AO were extracted by this procedure. The heptane extract was transferred quantitatively into a 50-cm³ calibrated flask and made up to the mark with heptane (solution A). The solution of phenolics (B) was made from 8 cm^3 A and 2 cm^3 2-propanol. Solution of phenolate (C) was made from 8 cm³ A and 2 cm³ of 0.005 moldm⁻³ KOH in 2-propanol. Concentrations of the solutions used for measurement corresponded to extraction of AO from 1 g of a stabilised sheet into 50 cm^3 of heptane.

The principle of the analytical procedure was as follows. First, AO2 is determined by second derivative difference spectrometry of the bathochromically shifted, basified extract using the non-basified extract as a reference. The second derivative spectral amplitudes of non-basified extracts are additive for both AO. The contribution of AO2 to the total second derivative amplitude is then subtracted, and the residual corrected amplitude corresponds to AOl.

5.3 Light Stabilisers

Light stabilisers are frequently hindered amines (HALS). The aliphatic ones usually do not absorb in the *UV.* Some HALS, however, contain aromatic groups. For the polymeric HALS Chimassorb 944 (LS1,CIBA-Geigy),e.g.the chromophore is a melamine derivative (2,4,6-aminosubstituted 1,3,5-triazine). This is used for the light stabilisation of polypropylene (PP).

Freitag (10.2.2) investigated the system PP/LS1 by *UV* spectrometry. Extraction of a polymer additive by solvents is inefficient; the author preferred therefore the separation of LSI by solution precipitation.

Decalin - with 0.1% tetrakis[methylene-3-(3',5'-di-t-butyl -4'-hydroxyphenyl)propionate] methane as an antioxidant - was used as solvent. Here 1.00 g of the LSI-stabilised PP was dissolved in 100 cm³ solvent at 150 °C bath temperature during max. 40 min with stirring. The solution was allowed to cool down to room temperature without stirring, PP precipitated. The suspension was agitated ultrasonically for 5 min, then quantitatively transfered to a separatory funnel and extracted with 100.0 $\rm cm^3$ N sulfuric acid containing 0.5% diethanolamine. The latter proved to be useful in preventing the adsorption of LSI on the glass walls. Phase separation takes several hours, the aqueous phase was used for the *UV* measurement. *Amax* at 245 nm was compared with the same band of the calibration solution. The latter was prepared by dissolving 1.00 mg LS1 in 100.0 cm 3 N sulfuric acid containing 0.5% diethanolamine. The measurements were made between 200 nm and 350 nm using a 1 cm quartz cell and N sulfuric acid in the reference beam; the absorbance range was $0-2$.

As a standard, PP was mixed with 0.3 wt% LSI and extruded. Here 96% of the LSI was found by the process described; down to 0.01% (or even somewhat less) of LSI can be determined quantitatively. *UV* absorbers and phenolic antioxidants in the usual range of 0.05-0.5% do not interfere as they are separated off during the extraction step.

5.4 Pigments

Vibrational spectrometry *(IR* and Raman) is unsurpassed in the identification of organic and inorganic pigments. Raman microscopy in combination with scanning electron microscopy and X-ray analysis is excellent in the identification of micro-particles of pigments in objects of fine art or in forensic objects. It seems that *UV/VIS* spectrometry has little chance against these giants. Reflective¹¹ microspectrophotometry in the *VIS* range together with a computer program based on the Kubelka-Munk theory was, however, quite effective for the identification of pigments in small, forensic paint samples (Cousins et al., based on work by Laing et al., 10.2.3). The computer program allowed the prediction of the reflectance spectra of pigment mixtures from the reflectance spectra of individual components by the following equation: where $(K/S)_{\lambda}$ =ratio of absorption to scatter at wavelength λ and R_{λ} =reflectance at wavelength λ expressed as a decimal

$$
(K/S)_{\lambda} = \frac{(1 - R_{\lambda})^2}{2R_{\lambda}}
$$

The *K/S* values are additive. To combine two individual spectra, *K/S* is calculated for both spectra and these are added together for each wavelength. The appertaining reflectances can then be calculated from the transposition of the equation given above.

The following wavelength ranges (nm) were observed in the reflectance spectra of some blue and green pigments:

¹¹ A minimum in the reflectance curve corresponds to a maximum in the absorbance curve.

The equipment consisted of a Nanospec spectrophotometer (370-900 nm) combined with a Leitz microscope. (The former produced an artificial peak at 800 nm which sometimes disappeared or turned negative.) Different concentrations of the pigments were obtained by mixing the original paint with a rutile-based respray paint; the diluted paints were spread on glass microscope slides and dried. (Dilution usually yields reflection spectra with more details.) Pigment squares with known concentrations from the Hoechst catalogue were measured without further preparation.

Fuller (10.2.3) combined thin-layer chromatography with direct reflectance microspectrometry in the visible range. This allows the identification of soluble mono-azo pigments (red, some yellow) in tiny forensic objects. The pigments were extracted with $CH₂Cl₂$, 1,2-dichlorobenzene or dimethylformamide, spotted on Merck DC aluminium sheets, pre-coated with silica gel 60F254 (activated 1 h at 110 ⁰C), and developed with chlorobenzene/l,2-dichloroethane/toluene 1:1:1 (by volume). R_f values were given for a few pigments:

The VTS spectra (380-900 nm) were measured directly in remission from the plates¹². They are good (with the exception of a constant artefact at 803 nm) and are apt for a characterisation of (soluble) pigments.

The majority of the 72 pigments investigated were insoluble. Spots of the suspended material were applied to *TLC* plates - even though no elution was possible - and measured in reflection.

Bacci et al. (10.2.3/1) investigated the inorganic pigments in frescoes by WS (400-800 nm) reflection spectrometry. The spectral characteristics of pigment standards are presented in Table 5.2. The spectra showed usually one intense and broad band, sometimes with a shoulder or a weaker neighbouring band. Band width and to some extent also λ_{max} of a pigment depended on whether this pigment was measured as pure sample (powder) or in a fresco. The intensities along a reflection curve depended on grain sizes. In a second publication Bacci et al. applied fibre optic reflectance spectroscopy (400-1000 nm) for the identification of inorganic pigments used in paintings. The use of first derivatives of the reflection curves increased somewhat the possibility to distinguish different pigments.

5.5 Plasticisers

Chromophoric groups in plasticisers are almost exclusively benzo-aromatic systems. Esters of aliphatic alcohols with a defined aromatic acid form families with very similar *UV* spectra, i.e. phthalates, isophthalates, trimellitates etc. The same is true for phenolic esters of phosphoric acid. The following small compilation may be helpful (values in nm):

¹² This method resembles the (superior) measurement of *TLC* spots directly with Raman microscopy by Adams and Gardner and later by von Czarnecki (both 10.2.8).

Table 5.2

Spectral characteristics (400-800 nm in reflection) of pigments used in the fresco technique (Bacci et al. 10.2.3/1)

6 Nuclear Magnetic Resonance [NMR) Spectrometry

6.1 Fundamentals

All nuclei whose mass number is not divisible by 4 have a nuclear magnetic spin *(NMS)* moment. The magnitude of this moment depends on the kind of nucleus. If a chemical system containing equal nuclei with an NMS is brought into a strong magnetic field, then the direction of these moments is (at least partially) aligned. When a tunable microwave source is arranged perpendicular to the magnetic field, the spins of the aligned nuclei will flip over at a defined micro-wavelength. (This is not a periodic process. With intense microwave radiation we observe spin saturation.) The exact value of this wavelength is influenced by the chemical neighbourhood of the nucleus in question (chemical shift) as well as by adjacent nuclear spins (spin-spin coupling). The position of a resonance is given on the abscissa relative to a standard, usually tetramethylsilane $(= 0)$. The (maximal or integrated) intensity of a resonance peak is proportional to the amount of nuclear spins being in resonance. This is important for quantitative analyses.

In order to get highly resolved *NMR* spectra with sharp resonances, the sample has to be liquid or dissolved in a liquid (randomly oriented spins). The solvent itself should have a simple *NMRS* with but few resonance lines (CDCl₃ is rather optimal). This reduces the applicability *of NMRS* for additive analyses to some extent. A way out would be the use of magic angle spinning *NMRS.*

A wealth of empirical *NMR* data has been collected over the years; this helps in assigning the resonance lines in (the sometimes quite complicated) *NMRS.* Mixtures can be analysed quantitatively if a typical resonance line can be found for each component.

Most frequently used nuclei are ¹H and ¹³C; ³¹P is impor tant for phosphate ester plasticisers, phosphite antioxidants, flame inhibitors and other P-containing additives. ¹³C is a rare C-isotope; however, modern *NMR* spectrometers are sensitive enough to produce good resonances. These are very sharp since it is close to impossible that two adjacent ¹³C nuclei are found in a molecule. *NMR* spectrometers have to be tuned for each analytical nucleus.

6.2 Applications

Literature on *NMRS* of additives is scarce. Freitag and Lind (10.2.2) extracted the following antioxidants exhaustively from polypropylene plaques $(5 g)$ with CHCl₃ and determined them quantitatively by analytical proton resonances: 2,6-di-f-butyl-4-methylphenol (BHT, 7.0 ppm, aryl-H), 3,3' thio-bis(propanoic acid didodecyl ester) (DLTDP, 4.1 ppm, -CH₂-COO-), octadecyl-3-(3',5'-di-t-butyl)-4'-hydroxyphenylpropionate (Irganox 1076, 7.0 ppm), and *tetrakis(methylene-*3-(3',5'-di(t-butyl-4'-hydroxyphenyl)-propionate)methan (Irganox 1010, 7.0 ppm). A polymeric light stabiliser of the hindered amine class (Tinuvin 622) was separated from a low-density polyethylene blown film by the following process: 5 g of the film were dissolved in boiling toluene. The solution was allowed to cool to room temperature, LDPE precipitated. The analytical resonances were 2.5 ppm (-OCO- CH_2 -CH₂-CO-O-) and 2.8 ppm (>N-CH₂-). In both cases, the solution was evaporated to dryness, and 1,4-dinitrobenzene (2 mg) in CDCl₃ (2 cm^3) was added as an integration standard. The solutions were concentrated to about 0.5 cm³ and spectra were recorded at 100 MHz. At least three integrations were run. Owing to the presence of extracted atactic or low molar mass polymer, only signals at lower field than 2.5 ppm were considered.

The additive contents were calculated using the formula

% additive =
$$
\frac{(W_{st} \cdot N_{st} \cdot I_a \cdot M_a)}{(W_p \cdot N_a \cdot I_{st} \cdot M_{st})}
$$

with W_{st} the weight (mg) of integration standard applied, W_p the weight (mg) of polyolefin, *N* the number of protons corresponding to the integrated signal, *I* the peak area and M the molar mass of additive $\binom{a}{a}$.

The error observed was 5-10%.

The method is useful for the determination of complex stabiliser mixtures in a single run. Furthermore, it is suitable for the analysis of polymeric stabilisers which are difficult to determine otherwise.

NMRS is frequently employed together with other physicochemical techniques for the analysis of complex polymer-additive systems. Pierre and van Bree (10.2.8) used pyrolysis mass spectrometry (MS) together with¹³ C-NMRS for the analysis of moulding compounds. The *NMR* spectra of complex additive mixtures were not disentangled for defined constituents but rather considered as "fingerprints". Examples were epoxidised soybean oil and chlorinated paraffins.

The authors report also on a ³¹P NMR investigation of the behaviour of phosphite antioxidants during processing of the styrene-butadiene-acrylonitrile compound. The extract of the finished compound did not show the resonances of nonylphenol phosphite (as an example) but rather P-containing decomposition products.

Braun and Bezdadea (10.2.8) employed a combination of physico-chemical methods including *¹H-NMRS* for the elucidation of the formation of plate-out¹³ during the extrusion of PVC compounds. Typically, a compound being likely to produce plate-out had the following composition:

^a CaCO₃ was added only to some mixtures.

Three parts of PVC compound or plate-out were refluxed for 8 h in 97 pts. of tetrahydrofuran, centrifuged for 2 h and decanted. The polymer was precipitated from the solution by gradually adding petrol ether. All additives with the exception of the inorganics and part of the main stabiliser Irgastab BC-29 stayed in solution. For the gravimetric determination, the insoluble was treated with 32% aqueous HCl, CaCO₃ went into solution. After washing and drying, the residue was treated with 98% H_2SO_4 , metal soaps went into solution.

The ¹H-NMRS were measured with a 100-MHz instrument, solvent was THF-d₈. According to the spectra, the THF-soluble part of the compound and the plate-out were chemically quite similar. The assignments for quantitative determinations are given in the following compilation:

- Epoxy plasticiser/stabiliser
	- 5.26 ppm quintet, $β$ -glyceryl protons
- Irgastab CH-300, isodecylphenylphosphite 7.17 ppm, phenyl protons; aromatic: methylene $protons = 1:4.5$
- Irgastab BC-29

6.76 ppm, one of the two doublets (the other one produces 7.06) from bisphenol A (4 protons), component of this stabiliser; pentaerythritol interferes

Lauroyl

this group interfere.

- 1.2 ppm $(CH₂)₉$, 0,95 ppm $CH₃$ triplet
- Irgawax 370, >90% stearylstearate 4.00 ppm, methylene-oxycarbonyl; other substances with

¹³ Plate-out is the deposit of organic matter from a polymer compound during extrusion or calendering on metallic surfaces of the machinery.

7 Mass Spectrometry

7.1 Fundamentals

7.1.1 Mass Separation

Modern mass spectrometry *(MS)* began around 1920 with the work of Aston, Mattauch, Herzog and Dempster: the (positive) ions, produced by electron impact on the molecules of the (volatile) analyte, were $-$ in a high vacuum of $<$ 10⁻⁴ Pa - accelerated in an electrical field and separated according to their m/z values in a magnetic sector field (*m*=relative molecular mass, z=number of elementary charges, usually 1, sometimes 2). Afterwards they were caught successively in Faraday cages, and the electrical ion currents were measured. The single-focusing mass spectrometers of today have the same principle. Their resolution, *m*/∆*m* is about 10³; this means that the mass numbers 1000 and 1001 (10% valley) can be determined separately. Double-focusing spectrometers have, after the accelerating field, an additional homogeneous electrical field; their resolution is 10⁵–10⁶. The time needed for the scanning of a highly resolved *MS* is of course longer than that needed for a single-focus *MS.* The considerable advantage of high-resolution *MS* is the possibility to distinguish between (almost) isobaric masses having different atomic compositions.

Quadrupole mass spectrometers need no magnetic field. Their separating principle ("mass filter") is a quadratic arrangement of four charged bars producing a complicated electrical field. Only ions with a certain *mlz* can traverse this system, others are discharged at the bars.

The last mass separation principle to be mentioned is the time-of-flight *(TOF)* mass spectrometer. Here, the speeds of the isoenergetic but - due to their different masses - differently fast ions are measured. One of the advantages of quadrupole and *TOF-MS* is the possibility to measure mass numbers up to a few 10⁴ *mlz.*

7.1.2 lonisation

Until about 1970, mass spectrometers were equipped solely with *electron impact (EI)* ion sources. The standard accelerating voltage was 70 V; this is far beyond bond energies and above the highest ionisation energy (He, 24.5 eV). The yield of radical ions M^+ is high. The primary species are long enough (ca. 10^{-6} s) in the ion source to undergo dissociation and rearrangement reactions. (Vibrational energy transferred during ionisation is dissipated in a molecule within the time of a few vibrations, i.e. within 10^{-12} s.) With *EI,* CH(O,S) fragments usually have uneven mass numbers. The fragmentation pattern is typical for a certain molecule, and it is sufficiently reproducible. Digitised libraries simplify the interpretation of 70 V *EI* results. *EIMS* is less or not at all applicable for mixture analysis: it is difficult or impossible to unravel superimposed fragmentation patterns. (See, however, MS with preseparated mixtures.)

Reduced accelerating voltage (20-10 V) is accompanied with lower ion yield but allows the analysis of mixtures as well as on-line identification of *GC* fractions.

Normally, volatile substances (including pyrolysates) are first collected in a heatable chamber attached to the *MS* and then enter the *MS* through a perforated diaphragm. Chemically unstable substances are (in a suitable vessel) fixed at the tip of a shifting rod and moved close to the electron source within the *MS.*

Field ionisation (FI) MS was developed by Beckey and others as a low-fragmentation method for the determination of relative molecular masses of large molecules and for the analysis of mixtures. It was, for the first time by Schiiddemage, Diissel and others in our institute, combined with isothermal and temperature-controlled pyrolysis for the analysis of non-volatile substances, especially polymers.

The essence of *FIMS* is the action of a strongly inhomogeneous field $(5\times10^7 \text{ V/cm})$ at the tips of microscopic needles on the molecules of the analyte. These are polarised and drawn towards the tip of a needle. Directly above the surface, they lose an electron by tunnelling and are, as positive ions, pushed out of the field right into the mass separator. Alternatively, a proton is transfered from H_2O , tenaciously sticking to the surface of the cathode, and the molecule leaves with the mass $m+1$. The ionising Wollaston wire (Pt or W, ca. $10 \,\mu m$) is activated in the spectrometer (under $10 \,kV$) with acetonitrile, benzonitrile or acetone. By this process the wire is covered with a dense fur of fine needles, containing the metal and C, and then looks like a brush for microbottles. The ionisation probability is much lower (about 1/100) than for *EI;* this is partially compensated by the fact that the *FIMS* frequently exhibits only the very intense peaks M^+ and $M+1^+$ (with some weak peaks due to field fragments). The analyte, if necessary after pyrolysis, enters the *MS* from the heated inlet system or is pyrolysed close to the ionisation wire. (Caution, the wire may break in the storm of the pyrolysis gases!)

Field desorption (FD) ionisation is closely related to F/, with two exemptions. (1) The sample, usually in solution, is deposited directly onto the (W) ionising wire. (2) The ionisation itself happens during desorption of the analyte by controlled heating of the wire or by cationisation (addition of cations like H^+ , Na $^+$ etc. from impurities on the surface of the emitter or from deliberately added substances); it is higher than with *FL FDMS* was frequently used for the investigation of chemically unstable substances.

CH(O,S) compounds, with *FI* or *FD,* predominantly form ions or radical ions with even mass numbers. CHN/P(O) compounds with uneven number of N/P atoms tend to form ions or radical ions with uneven mass number.

Chemical ionisation (CI) is quite different from the methods described above. The volatile analyte A (partial pressure $<$ 10⁻⁴ Pa) is mixed with a large excess of a highly pure (>99.5%) gaseous reactand X (10-100Pa) having a higher ionisation potential *(IP)* than A. The mixture is then transfered into a special *EI* source; the electrons (50-100 V) ionise almost exclusively X molecules. Still within the source, the following two categories of processes are possible:

- X^+ +A \rightarrow A⁺+X charge transfer (1)
- Chemical processes (2) X^+

In both cases (1 and 2) ionisation fragmentation will occur. This increases with increasing differences in the *IPs.* When /P(X) reaches additional 5 eV, the *CIMS* becomes similar to a 70-V *EIMS*. Among the standard reactands, CH_4 is a "hard" one (high IP), i-butane a "soft" one. With approximately equal *IPs,* fragmentation of A is minimised and the *CIMS* presents almost exclusively A^+ , AH^+ , $(A - H)^+$ and AX^+ . This allows qualitative and quantitative analyses of mixtures. With decreasing $IP(X)$ selective gas-phase chemistry becomes possible: some substance categories are ionised, others are not. With the comparably soft $\tilde{C_6H_5}^+$, e.g. unsaturated fatty esters

are ionised, saturated are not. In cases where a high output of AH⁺ or AX⁺ ions is wanted protonating gas mixtures are employed, e.g. CH_4 with a few percent of NH₃. Here, NH₄⁺ is almost exclusively the acting ion.

Fast atom bombardment (FAB) is an interesting alternative to the other mild ionising techniques for the investigation of chemically unstable and/or scarcely volatile substances. The analyte is mixed with a dispersive liquid, usually glycerol, and eventually a salt (NaCl), brought upon a target and exposed to fast (hot) Ar or Xe atoms. In a sputtering process, supported by an electric field, molecular cations A⁺ or simple derivatives like AH⁺ or ANa⁺ are expelled from the surface and measured as usual. This technique was successful in cases where others fail, i.e. with organic cations and anions (e.g. surfactants), free acids, sugars and oligopeptides.

7.1.3 Ion-Detection

Originally the ions hit a photographic plate which they blackened. These plates were replaced by Faraday cages and later by secondary-electron multipliers *(SEM).* A sophisticated and very successful selective separator/detector is another mass spectrometer, on-line coupled with the first one. This technique is called tandem *MS* or *MS/MS.* It has been developed by Beckey and Levsen and described in details by Schwarz (10.1). More information is found in Sect. 7.5.

7.2 Mass Spectrometry with Electron Impact Ionisation (EIMS)

Scholl (Hummel/Scholl vol. 3,10.1), in the early 1970s, made a thorough investigation on *EIMS* of plastics additives. The technique was standard: heated inlet system and ion source, 70 V acceleration, single-focusing sector-field MS (resolution ca. 10³), SEM detection.

Figure 7.1 shows the results of an investigation on additives in vulcanised rubber. The microslices were evaporated at different temperatures directly in the *MS* and close to the ion source. The observed *mlz* have to be interpreted in the following way:

1. N-Nitrosodiphenylamine (Vulkalent A), M=198.2 g/mol

38	Benzyne/2
83.5	$M-HNO/2$
84.5	Diphenylamine/2
168	Diphenylamine - H
169	Diphenylamine

Fig. 7.1

Mass spectra of rubber additives. The vulcanisate was positioned directly in the mass spectrometer, the samples were heated to different temperatures; ionisation at 70 V. (E Scholl, laboratory information.) Characteristic mass numbers M/z , usually $z=1$; sometimes, for aromats with a strong mass current,*z=* and 2

57	$\rm{C_4H_9}$				
167	2-Mercaptobenzothiazole				
3. Di-(2-benzothiazole) disulfide (Vulkacit DM), $M=332.4$ g/mol					
64	S,				
135	Benzothiazole				

2. N-Cyclohexyl-2-benzothiazolesulfenamide (Vulkacit CZ), Relative intensity I *M-264A* g/mol

4. Di-2-octyl-p-phenylenediamine (UOP 288), M=332.5 g/mol

175	N-Cyclohexenylphenylenediamine
261	$M - C_5H_{11}$
303	$M - C2H5$
332	м

5. Stearic acid,M=284.2 g/mol

All compounds containing isotopes $(^{12}C/^{13}C, ^{35}Cl/^{37}Cl...)$ produce split signals for one and the same fragment or molecule. If a species contains *n* atoms with two isotopes, its signal is split into *n+l* lines. Pentachlorothiophenol is an impressive example for this situation. It is used for the mastication (partial depolymerisation, solubilisation of vulcanisates) of rubber. Due to the five Cl-atoms in the molecule, the molecular peak is split into six components with a typical intensity distribution. This is shown by Fig. 7.2; the peak for 5³⁷Cl atoms (290) is too weak to be observed.

The first and until today largest collection of *EIMS* of additives was published in the book of Scholl (I.e.). The samples were completely volatilised into the glass container $(150-250\,\mathrm{°C})$ attached to the MS. The spectra were measured with a single-focusing instrument RMU 6-D (Hitachi-Perkin Elmer) with 70-V ionising electrons and an ion-source temperature of 150-200 ⁰C; they were standardised and represented in tables. For the present book these were freed from some errors and evaluated with respect to fragment structures (Tables 7.1-7.22).

Yoshikawa et al. (10.2.1) published the first paper on the identification of plastics additives by evaporating these from the polymer matrix in a heated tube connected directly to the inlet system of a mass spectrometer. Reprecipitated polypropylene was mixed with solutions of additives in CCl₄, dried

Fig. 7.2 Mass spectrum of pentachlorothiophenol. The four molecular peaks represent the following species; the one with 5³⁷Cl atoms is too weak to be observed; *mlz* 280 282 284 286 *288;*³⁵Cl 5 4 3 2 1; ³⁷Cl 0 12 3 4

and compression moulded for 1 min at 190 °C into films of 1 mm thickness. The mass spectra were measured with a Hitachi RMU-6 single-focus spectrometer under the following conditions: ion-source temperature 250 ⁰C, ionisation energy 80 eV, ionising current 80 μ A, accelerating potential 1.2 kV. The temperature of the inlet system was kept, depending on the volatility of the additives, between 250 °C and 350 °C. The vapors produced by additive (20 mg) or polymer samples (0.2 g) were collected in a heated reservoir (1 dm^3) and subsequently transfered into the spectrometer. PP produced hydrocarbon fragments from C_2 to C_{14} ; additive fragments with m/z<200 were therefore not considered.

All of the investigated phenolic compounds as well as a selection of commercial additives showed the parent/molecular peak M in their mass spectra with intensities between 100 (strongest peak) and 15. Table 7.23 exhibits mass numbers and relative intensities of the peaks observed by the authors in the *EIMS* of commercial additives. The limits of detection from the polymer matrix were between 0.02% and 0.1%.

With the described method the authors were able to identify the additives in 14 commercial PP samples.

7 3

Mass Spectrometry with Low-Fragmentation Ionisation

7.3.1

(Pyrolysis-) Field Ionisation (Fl) and Field Desorption Mass Spectrometry [Py-FIMS, FDMS)

Czybulka et al. (10.2.6, thesis and publication) investigated, in our institute, the isothermal degradation of both vulcanisates (extracted or not) and vulcanisation accelerators by *Py-FIMS.* The mass spectrometers used were the CH4 and CH5/DF

Fig. 7.3 Pyro-field ionisation *MS* of benzothiazole-2-cyclohexylsulfenamide, M=264.4 g/mol (Vulkacit CZ, Bayer), T_{max}=250 °C (Czybulka et al., 10.2.6)

(Varian MAT) with combined *EI/FI* sources (activated Pt WoIlaston wire for the latter). The samples (rubber or accelerator, ca. 0.2 mg) were collected in a small quartz vessel at the top of a vacuum-tight shifting rod and pyrolysed in the vacuum (<1 Pa) of the high-temperature (250 ⁰C) inlet system (glass, 800 cm³). The gaseous pyrolysates diffused through a perforated metal screen into the high vacuum of the *MS.*

Typical examples were tetraethylthiuramdisulfide (TET) and benzothiazole-2-cyclohexylsulfenamide (CBS). Earlier studies with polymers had shown that, under the conditions chosen, field fragmentation was negligible; in other words, the fragments observed were true thermal ones. The pyrolytic reactions occur when the sample is still in the condensed state (time of pyrolysis ca. 10 s).

TET proved to be thermally labile; already at 290 °C no molecular peak with *m/z* 296 was observable. Strongest peak was 87 (ethylisothiocyanate) followed by 73 (diethylamine) and 76 (CS₂). The heaviest peak was 232, dithiooxalic-N,N'tetraethylamide which is formed by the combination of two $(C_2H_5)_2N-C=$ S radicals. The latter originate when S_2 is abstracted from TET. (The masses at 322 and 354 are probably unidentified condensation products of TET.)

Fig. 7.4 Schematic diagram of the thermal degradation of benzothiazole-2-cyclohexylsulfenamide at 250 ⁰C (Czybulka et al., 10.2.6)

Figure 7.3 shows the Py-FIMS of CBS at 250 °C. The molecular peak at 264 is observable though weak. The strong peaks at 99 (cyclohexylamine) and 135 (benzothiazole) show that separation of the ring systems by N-S and S-ring is predominant over cleavage of the rings themselves. Figure 7.4 depicts the structures belonging to the observed mass numbers. (Here, 19 is H_3O^+ from water adsorbed on the surface of the Wollaston wire.)

Using these results, the authors were able to identify fragments of accelerators in extracted and non-extracted vulcanisates. Model vulcanisates were made with 100 parts polymer, 40 parts carbon black, 2 parts sulfur and 0.6 parts benzothiazole-2-cyclohexylsulfenamide (Vulkacit CZ). The rubbers were poly(Z-butenylene) (BR), natural rubber SMR-5 (NR), synthetic poly(2-methyl-Z-butenylene) (IR), poly(butadiene-co-styrene) (SBR) and poly(butadiene-coacrylonitrile) (NBR). Pyrolysis was effectuated at 500 <mark>°</mark>C. Ir addition to the fragments of the polymer chains, masses were observed which were characteristic for the accelerator as well as CHS compounds resulting from reactions between the polymer chain and the sulfur in the blend (tentative assignments):

Interestingly, BR and SBR on the one hand and NR as well as IR on the other showed the same accelerator/sulfur fragments; this may be explained by specific vulcanisation behaviours. (None of these *mlz* values matched with strong hydrocarbon masses.)

Soon afterwards the thermal degradation of guanidine accelerators was described by Hummel et al. (10.2.6); the experimental equipment was the same. Figure 7.5 shows the (relatively simple) *Py-FIMS* (290 ⁰C) of 1,3-diphenylguanidine (DPG), Fig. 7.6 the assignment of the observed m/z values (including the molecular mass 211). Main decomposition product is aniline, followed by diphenylcarbodiimide. HCN, which should be formed in considerable amounts, produces only a weak signal *(m/z* 27). This is very likely due to a low ionisation probability. Interestingly, dimerisation and trimerisation must have happened when DPG was still in the condensed phase; the masses at 312 and 354 can be assigned to 1-phenyl-2,4-bis(phenylimino)-1,3-diazetidine and symtriphenylmelamine:

In the same publication, pyrolysis of di-o-tolylguanidine is described. It is quite analogous to that of DPG, including the dimerisation and trimerisation *(mlz* 354 and 396, respectively.)

Lattimer et al. (10.2.6/2 and 3; the publications are very similar) studied the analytical efficiency of different ionisation techniques for the identification of rubber additives in uncured rubber compounds and in vulcanisates: *EI, FI, FD, CI* and *FAB* with compounds (high-vacuum evaporation near the ion source) and with extracts. Standard compounds were made with natural (NR), butadiene-styrene (SBR) and Z-l,4-polybutadiene (BR) rubber; all of them contained carbon black, aromatic processing oil, paraffin wax, ZnO, stearic acid, f-octylphenol-formaldehyde resin and sulfur as well as three or four of the additives shown in Fig. *7.7.*

Fig. 7.6 Schematic diagram of the thermal degradation of 1,3-diphenylguanidine (without the constructive masses 312 and 354) at 290 °C $\,$ (Hummel et al., 10.2.6)

For *direct (evaporation) rubber analysis* small pieces were cut from ASTM sheets, placed in an Al crucible and introduced into the *MS. EI* and *CI* spectra were measured with a Finnigan MAT 311A/Incos 2400 having a mass range up to m/z 1450. The ion source temperature was 250 °C, the accelerating potential 3 kV, and the resolution 1000 (10% valley). The ionisation potential for *EI* was 70 V, the *CI* gases were CH_4 or *i*-butane. CH₄ yields a somewhat larger abundance of fragment ions than *i*-butane. The temperature of the sample was increased from 50 °C to 300 °C

For direct *FAB* analysis the rubbers were cut into strips (8x3x2 mm³) which were attached to the *FAB* probe with Scotch 924 transfer tape.

For *FI* analysis a Finnigan MAT 731/SS200 system with a combined *EIIFDIFI* ion source was used. The source temperature was 50 ⁰C, the accelerating potential 8 kV, the extraction plate potential 3 kV, and the resolution was 2000. The heated direct probe (AMD Intectra, D-Beckeln) was used for sample introduction. It employs a quartz crucible that is positioned within 2 mm of the emitter, and the temperature is programmable with a maximum of 800 <mark>°</mark>C.

For *extract analysis* the samples were extracted with acetone, acetonitrile or CH_2Cl_2 either in a Soxhlet (24 h) or by

Fig. 7.5

Fig. 7.7 Structures of rubber additives (Lattimer et al., 10.2.6/3)

placing a small piece of rubber (5 \times 5 \times 2 mm³) with 1 cm³ of solvent in a vial and letting it stand for at least 1 h. The results were the same. A Finnigan MAT 31IA was used for the analyses (details given above). Samples in the direct probe (Al crucible) were heated from 50 °C to 300 °C. For *FD* analysis about 1 mm^3 of the extract was applied directly to the emitter wire. The ion source temperature was 90 ⁰C, the acceleration potential 3 kV, the extraction plate potential 6 kV, and the resolution 600. The emitter was heated manually with up to 3OmA.

For *FAB* analysis, 1 mm³ of the extract was deposited onto the stainless steel *FAB* probe containing some thioglycerol as liquid matrix. The ion-source temperature was 70 °C and the resolution 1000. The IonTech *FAB* gun provided Xe atoms at an energy of 8.0 keV. The conditions for *FI* were the same as described above.

The characteristic mass numbers found by the authors using different ionisation techniques were, for comparison with the results of other authors, collected in Table 7.23. Lattimer et al. stated that *FUFD* is the most efficient method for identifying organic additives in rubber stocks; this confirms our own findings in *Py-FIMS.*

Just a few examples of the many given in the papers of Lattimer et al. will demonstrate the specificity of FIMS both with direct (evaporation) and extract analysis. Figure 7.8 shows the *FIMS* produced by an (unvulcanised) SBR compound when heated in the vacuum of the MS to 300 °C. All organic additives in the compound (with the exception of DPG) are present as molecular peaks: HPPD (268), poly-TMDQ (386 and 346, two of the many components), OBTS (252), S_8 (256) and stearic acid (284). The multiple-mass underground ("mass memory") looking like the back of a hedgehog certainly is not caused by the rubber.

Fig. 7.8 *FIMS* (direct analysis) of a butadiene-styrene standard rubber containing HPPD, poly-TMDQ, OBTS and DPG (see Fig. 7.7) as organic additives (Lattimer et al., 10.2.6/2+3)

Fig. 7.9 *FIMS* of the acetone extract of the rubber system of Fig. 7.8 (Lattimer et al., 10.2.6/2+3)

Figure 7.9 exhibits the *FIMS* of the acetone extract of the same SBR compound. It presents (together with a considerable mass-memory effect) additional poly-TMDQ components with relative molecular masses of 652,692 and 732. The very weak masses 252 and 256 are swallowed by the mass noise. The peak of stearic acid (284) is missing; this additive is not extracted by acetone.

Figure 7.10 shows (this time without the mass-memory effect) the direct-analysis *FIMS* of the NR compound. All organic additives (and sulfur) in the compound are present as molecular peaks: DOPPD (332), DODPA (393), OBTS (252, very weak), stearic acid (284) and S_8 (256). The peak at 256 very likely belongs to palmitic acid. Other peaks being separated by 28 mass numbers $(CH₂)$ belong to saturated

Fig. 7.10 *FIMS* (direct analysis) of a natural rubber compound containing DOPPD, DODPA and OBTS (see Fig. *7.7)* as organic additives (Lattimer et al., 10.2.6/2+3)

and unsaturated hydrocarbons from extender oil and wax (252,280,308,332).

We keep in mind that these thorough investigations had the aim to identify rubber additives with an optimal method and not to study the degradation behaviour of additives as such or - during vulcanisation - in the rubber.

7.3.2 Chemical lonisation Mass Spectrometry (CIMS)

Hunnemann (10.2.4) demonstrated the differences between *EI* and *CI* with dipentylphthalate (DPP, Fig. 7.11). M⁺ is missing in the *EIMS*; instead, 237 $(M^+$ - C₅H₁₀), 167 (phthalic acid+H), 149 (phthalic anhydride) and 71 $(C_5H_{11}^+)$ give sufficient evidence for DPP. The $CI(CH_4)$ shows $M+H^+$ in addition to the known fragments. In the *CIMS* of the "soft" i-butane all fragment peaks are weak (but still helpful for identification).

In the publications of Lattimer et al. (see above), *CI* with $CH₄$ was also employed for the identification of the components in the evaporating gas of rubber compounds. Figure 7.12 shows the result with a natural rubber $mix. M+H^+$ is strongest peak, followed by 333 $(M^{+}$ - $\mathrm{C_4H_{10}})$ and lighter fragments produced by the impact of the "hard" $CH₄$ on the molecules in the gaseous mixture. The *FIMS* of the same system under analogous conditions (Fig. 7.10) is easier to interpret.

CIMS with "soft" ionisation gases is the prefered method for multicomponent volatile systems. Rudewicz and Munson (10.2.1) demonstrated this with the determination of antioxidants in polypropylene without prior separation. The equipment was a CJ-modified Du Pont 492B mass spectrometer with Hewlett-Packard 21-MX computer. The PP slices (1- 2 mg) containing 0.5-5 ug additive/g PP or a small amount of the pure additive were placed in the well of a heatable glass probe which itself was placed in the *CI* ion source. The source temperature was kept at 225 °C for the pure additives

Fig. 7.11a-c Mass spectra of dipentylphthalate, M=306.4 g/mol (D.H. Hunnemann, 10.2.4): a electron impact ionisation *(EI)* 70 V; b chemical ionisation *(CI)* with methane; c *CI* with *i*-butane

Fig. 7.12

CIMS (CH4, direct analysis) of the NR compound of Fig. 7.10 (Lattimer et al., 10.2.6/2+3)

and 240 °C for the polymer samples. The heating programs (30-350 ⁰C) were 20 °C/min or 30 °C/min. The accelerating potential was 1750 V, the source repeller potential was kept at 0 to maximise the ionic residence times. A mixture of

1.1% $NH₃$ in CH₄ at 67 Pa was used as the reagent gas. The reason for this composition is that $NH₃/CI$ H⁺-sensitivities of $CHO(X)$ compounds having a smaller H^+ affinity than that of $NH₃$ (854 kJ/mol) increase with decreasing partial

pressure of NH₃ in CH₄. Under the conditions chosen NH₄⁺ makes *85%* of the reactant ionisation. If the H⁺ affinity of the analyte exceeds that of NH₃, AH⁺ ions will be formed by H⁺ transfer from $NH₄$; if it is smaller but contains polar groups, NH_4^+ will be attached to form $(A+NH_4)^+$ ions. Thus, Ionox 330 (a hindered triphenol) formed the NHj adduct *(m/z* 792), Irganox 168 (an aliphatic-aromatic phosphite) and UV-531 (a substituted benzophenone) formed AH⁺ *(m/z* 647 and 327, respectively). The background from the polymer was very low.

The evolution of additives from PP usually begins suddenly around 190 °C, i.e. above the melting point of PP. From the area under the peaks of the ion currents of AH^{+} or $(A+NH₄)⁺$ calibration curves can be made for quantitative determinations. The authors quote a short-term reproducibility of peak areas of 6%.

More recently, Vit et al. (10.2.1) made direct quantitative analyses of additives in polyethylene (XDK 183, ICI) employing a Finnigan 3300F quadrupole MS kept at 200 <mark>°</mark>C and multiple ion detection (MID) CIMS with CH₄ instead of $CH₄/NH₃$ reactant gas (0.12 Pa in the source). It was found by the authors that, with CH4, the instrument showed greater stability (for the measurements of one day) and a significant increase in sensitivity. (Anyway, 15% NH₃ in CH₄ seems to be very high.) The probe was heated from 30 <mark>°C to 350 °C at</mark> a rate of 120 °C/min and spectra were collected at 3-s intervals by a Superlncos data system.

Great pains were taken to prepare PE/additive samples with defined compositions and shapes. It turned out that also reproducible dimensions (in this case $0.25\times0.40\times1.50$ mm³, 0.15 mg) are important for reproducible results. (In fact, compact samples with minimal surface area were found to be ideal.) The samples were placed in a glass vial on a direct insertion probe and placed into the ion source.

Analytical samples were the antioxidant Permanax WSP (CIL) and the Cu deactivator OABH (Eastman):

Analytical (thermal) fragment of the former was its dissociation product:

As an internal standard (1 ug per analytical sample) phenolphthalein (M+H⁺ =225) served right . This has a similar evaporation temperature range in PE as the two additives and its base peak is close to the analytical peaks. The *MID* mass chromatograms (specific ion currents/relative intensities as functions of time/temperature) exhibited quite symmetric peaks whose area was used for the construction of calibration curves, ratio analytical peak/peak of standard vs ug of analytical additive in PE; the linearity was quite satisfying. The relative standard deviation was 7% or less in most cases.

Great care had to be taken to ensure that accurate and reproducible results were obtained regarding the state of the mass spectrometer. The instrument was allowed to equilibrate at the experimental settings before starting an experiment; this improves the peak area stability. At times, the sensitivity of the instrument dropped markedly after several hours of measurement.

7.3.3

Fast-Atom Bombardment Mass Spectrometry (FAB-MS)

Feistner et al. (10.2.4) studied the performance of no less than seven different *MS* techniques in the identification and semi-quantitative determination of carboxylic and phosphoric acid esters:

- Gas chromatography coupled with electron-impact *MS (GC-EIMS)7 EIMS/MS* **or chemical ionisation** *MS (CI-MS* **or** *CI-MS/MS)*
- *CI-MS/MS* without *GC* pre-separation
- *FAB-MS* **and** *FAB-MS/MS*

The plasticiser-type esters were found as contaminants in commercial alcohol and proved - incidentally - to be almost ideal for such a critical investigation:

- Di(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate (DOP)
- Hexanoic, octanoic and decanoic mono- and diesters as well as mixed esters of tri(oxyethylene)diol (TEG-C8, TEG- C_{10} , TEG-2C₈, TEG-2C₁₀, TEG-C₆C₈, TEG-C₈C₁₀)
- Triphenylphosphate (Φ_3P)
- Three isomeric/isobaric *i*-propylphenyl diphenyl phos- 7.3.4 phates $(C_3\Phi - \Phi_2P)$
- Two isomeric/isobaric tri(i-propylphenyl) phosphates $[(C_3\Phi)_3P]$
- Di(*i*-propylphenyl) phenyl phosphate $(C_3\Phi)$, $P\Phi$, possibly a mixture of isomers]

GC separation was achieved on a 10-m or 30-m/0.25-um DB-5 column (J&W Ass., Folsom, CaL). Low-resolution spectra were measured with an HP-5985B GC/MS, a VG-ZAB-SE spectrometer was used for high-resolution spectra. The latter instrument also served for *FAB* and *FAB* collisional activation (CA) B/E-linked scan analyses of authentic compounds. *FAB* and *FAB-CA* mass analysed ion kinetic energy *(MIKE)* spectra were obtained on a three-sector mass spectrometer linked to a Kratos DS-55 computer system. *FAB* was performed with 8keV Xe atoms using either glycerol-acetic acid (5:1), thioglycerol, or dithioerythritol-dithiothreitol (1: 5) matrices.

Protonated molecular ions of the TEG esters are not present in *EIMS* but can be detected with either *CI* or *FAB (m/z)*: TEG-C₈ 277, TEG-C₁₀ 305, TEG-2C₈ 403, TEG-2C₁₀ 459, TEG- C_8C_{10} 431. Fragments arise from cleavage at the TEG ether linkages. Fatty acyl oxyethyl ions are observed in *EI, CI, FAB* and *MIKE* spectra, fatty acyl ions in *FAB CA MIKE* and in *EI CA* spectra. Protonated DOP (391) is present both in *EIMS* and *FABMS.*

Protonated molecular ions of phosphate esters are present both in *EIMS* and *FABMS* (*m/z*): Φ_3P 327, $C_3\Phi - \Phi_2P$ 369, $(C_3\Phi)_3P$ 453, $(C_3\Phi)_2P\Phi$ 411.

The classical *GC/EIMS* still appears to be the method of choice whenever ultimate sensitivity and specificity are needed. Pre-separation with *GC (HPLC* etc.) is obligatory when isomers have to be identified. Employing this technique we should keep in mind that certain additives are chemically instable and wouldn't leave the *GC* unchanged.

FAB can also be applied for solid or resinous substances. Here, the material is finely dispersed in the matrix or, if this is not possible, it is covered with a layer of the matrix. This has been shown by Lay and Miller (10.2.4) for phthalate plasticisers in PVC (baby pacifiers). DOP reveals itself in the *FAB-MS* by its protonated molecular ion *(m/z* 391). A quantitative determination is possible if a standard phthalate (e.g. didecylphthalate) is added to the analyte. The relative standard deviation amounts to a few percent but may go up to about 10%. It has to be kept in mind that physiological properties of substances depend also on the isomeric composition. In the present case, all di-C8H17 phthalates would produce *m/z* 391. A pre-separation (usually *GC-MS)* is necessary if a specification is wanted.

Laser-Desorption Mass Spectrometry

Laser radiation has long been employed for the evaporation of substances with low volatility directly within the mass spectrometer; it replaces thermal devices like the Pt coil. A prerequisite for its action is that the laser radiation is absorbed by the sample; thus, the laser has to be chosen with respect to the absorption behaviour of the sample. In addition, the intensity of the radiation has to be controlled carefully; otherwise the sample is heated, changes its state of aggregation or decays. The latter may be desirable with samples having defined mechanisms of pyrolysis like a number of polymers.

Tremendous progress has been achieved by the invention (Hillenkamp and Karas) and development of a technique where the absorption behaviour of a matrix, usually in the UV, allows the investigation of a broad variety of analytes, regardless of whether they absorb the laser radiation or not. This will be the subject of the following paragraph.

7.3.4.1

Matrix-Assisted Laser-Desorption lonisation Time-of-Flight (MALDI-TOF) Mass Spectrometry

The essence of this technique is a low-molecular, strongly UV-absorbing, usually hydroxyaromatic matrix which dissolves or disperses the analyte; the absorption behaviour of the latter doesn't matter. Examples for matrix substances are 2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid, 1,8,8-trihydroxyanthracene or 4 -hydroxy- α -cyanocinnamic acid. Frequently, the analyte is cationised with Li⁺, Na⁺ or K⁺, or it is protonated in the matrix during desorption. The matrix substance is usually applied as concentrated solution, the concentration of analyte in the common solvent is low, $1-0.1$ %. Around $1/4$ mm³ solution for each spot, containing about 100 ng solute, are placed on a metallic target thus forming spots with a diameter of about 2 mm. After evaporation of the solvent, the target is introduced into the mass spectrometer. *UV* light excites the matrix electronically, the energy is transfered to the analyte molecular ions and both analyte and matrix molecules are desorbed from the surface. Very little fragmentation happens to the molecular ions, and it is therefore possible to analyse even molecules which are thermally instable. The *MS* signal(s) of the analyte should be well above that of the matrix.

Pasch et al. (10.2.5) presented an interesting study on the direct identification of *UV* stabilisers in plastics by *MALDI-TOF-MS.* The measurements were made with a Kratos Compact MALDI 3, Urmston, UK; the mass number precision was, in the mass ranges studied, ± 1 . 4 mg of material were dissolved in 1 cm^3 solvent, 10 mg of 1,8,9-trihydroxyanthracene were dissolved in 1 cm³ THF. Then 15 mm³ of the two solu-

Fig.7.13 *MALDI-TOF-MS* of *UV*stabilisers (Pasch et al, 10.2.5): 1 *(above left)* Tinuvin 350, Ciba; 2 *{above right)* 2-(2-hydroxy-3-dodecyl-5-methyl) phenyltriazole; 3 *(below left)* 2-(2-hydroxy-3-£-butyl-5-carboxypropionic)phenyltriazole-EO adduct; 4 *(below right)* mixture of hindered phenols with aliphatic-aromatic phosphite (see Fig. 7.15)

tions were mixed, 0.5 mm^3 of solution per spot were applied. For each *MS* the sample was irradiated with 150 laser pulses. Figure 7.13 shows the spectra of four different *UV* stabilisers and antioxidants. Each of the benzotriazoles 1 and 2 (above) produced only one strong signal which was easily assigned to M+H⁺ . The spectrum of 3 (below left) shows three series with a typical distribution of peak intensities and peak distances of 44 mass numbers. This is typical for ethyleneoxide adducts, and 3 is in fact the EO adduct of a benzenetriazole derivative, together with poly(oxyethylene) (Fig. 7.14). The peaks are not signals of degradation products but those of defined adducts. Then 4 is a mixture of a hindered phenol and an aliphatic-aromatic phosphite (Fig. 7.15). The interesting thing here is that the two kinds of molecules grabbed the omnipresent alkali ions Na⁺ and K⁺.

The investigations were continued with samples of polyethylene (HDPE) and polypropylene being stabilised with different concentrations of a hindered phenol or a hindered amine (Fig. 7.16). These stabilisers absorb strongly in the *UV,* the polymers do not. The authors therefore left out the matrix and simply deposited thin films from a hot toluene solution on the target. The result is quite spectacular (Fig. 7.17). Down to a concentration of 0.1% of stabiliser, the species M-Na⁺ govern the spectra. Interestingly, the chances of K^+ to unite with M decrease rapidly with decreasing concentration of the latter.

7.3.4.2 Laser-Desorption Ff-lon Cyclotron Resonance *{LD/FT-ICR)* **Mass Spectrometry**

This sophisticated technique seems to unite the specific advances of other *MS* techniques discussed to now. *FT-ICR* can achieve both high resolution and high mass accuracy. Switching from positive to negative ion mass spectral acquisition can be done simply through a software command. At low laser power density, predominantly molecular ions (with addet H^+ , Na⁺, K⁺) are formed while, with higher power density, extensive fragmentation can be obtained for addi-

Fig. 7.17 *Left: MALDI-TOF-MS* of HDPE, stabilised with Hostanox 03; 1: 0.4 wt%, 2: 0.2 wt%, 3: 0.1 wt%, 4: 0.01 wt% additive; *right:* same, stabilised with Hostavin N20; 1: 1.0 wt%, 2: 0.2 wt%, 3: 0.1 wt%, 4: 0.01 wt% additive (Pasch et al., l.c.)

tional structural information. It is also possible to select a particular parent ion for fragmentation by collision-induced dissociation. Asamoto et al. describe this in their basic and highly informative paper (10.2.1) giving details on the procedure and presenting reference spectra of 18 antioxidants, 7 *UV* absorbers and 4 amide waxes (Table 7.24). In addition, they identified the additives extracted from three different polyethylenes (wash bottle, garbage can, tarp).

The polymer samples (10-15 g) were Soxhlet extracted for 8 h with around 150 cm^3 of ether. (It seems preferable to separate the additives by solution/precipitation.) The residue $(50-150 \text{ mg})$ was dissolved in CHCl₃, part of the low-molecular PE was precipitated with acetone. The precipitate was filtered out with a 0.5-um Teflon filter. The filtrate was evaporated, redissolved in CH_2Cl_2 and deposited on the probe tip with a nebuliser.

From commercial additives, probe samples were prepared by dissolving 10-20 mg in 1 cm³ of $\rm CH_2Cl_2$ or methanol. Approximately 30 ul of solution were placed on the probe tip and evaporated in air. Alternatively, ca. 0.3 mg of additive was deposited on the probe tip with a nebuliser.

The spectra were measured with a Nicolet FTMS-2000 fitted with a Tachisto model 216 pulsed $CO₂$ laser. The energy is in the mid-infrared $(10.6 \,\mu\text{m})$ where most organic compounds absorb; it was varied between 2 mj and 20 mj per pulse, typically 10 mj. The power density at the sample was varied by moving the probe tip in or out along the magnet axis, which focuses or defocuses the beam at the probe tip while not changing the total energy. The spot sizes correspond to maximum power densities of some 10^8 W/cm². The amount of sample vaporised per shot was on the order of 100 ng. Several spectra were obtained at each of four conditions, X⁺ and X", focused and defocused.

Table 7.25 shows the *LD-FTMS* (we prefer now this easierto-read acronym) of the additives measured by Asamoto et al. Fragmentation of the molecules was, as expected, dependent on the laser power. With a defocused laser (low power), H⁺, Na $^{\texttt{+}}$ and K $^{\texttt{+}}$ adducts were the most abundant, and sometimes the only observable ions. (These three cations are omnipresent, they were not added to the systems.) With focused beam, the intensity of the quasi-molecular ions decreased and that of fragment ions increased. Carbon clusters and other noncharacteristic fragment ions were not observed.

From the spectra of additives with the same composition (6, 9, 14, 23), it can be seen that positive molecular additive species and the negative species $[M-H]$ ⁻ and M ⁻ are almost always present and well reproducible. Fragments, possibly formed by laser splitting of M, are much less reproducible though always typical for the original molecule. This may be explained by the presence of several "weak links" in a molecule.

Johlman et al. (10.2.1) made an interesting comparison of laser-desorption/ionisation Fourier transform *(LD-FT)*

with *FAB-MS* for non-volatile additives. Their results (as they state) supplement and extend the thorough study by Asamoto et al.

LD-FT spectra were measured with a Nicolet FTMS-1000 spectrometer, coupled to a Tachisto 215G pulsed TEA $CO₂$ laser with 300-400 mJ per 40 ns at $10.6 \,\mu m$. A ZnSe lens with a 7.5 cm focal length was used to focus the laser beam through the trapped ion cell into a 1 mm spot size on a stainless steel probe tip. There, power density was in the range of 10⁸-10⁹ W/cm². The measurement was initiated by a computer-controlled trigger of the laser pulse and was followed by a 3-10-s delay prior to data acquisition in order to permit a return to base pressure. During this time, uncharged species may escape the ion trap.

Alternatively, spectra were measured with a modified Nicolet FTMS-2000, coupled to a Spectra Physics DRA 11 Nd:YAG laser providing an unfiltered 30 mj per 9-ns pulse at 1064 nm (9398 cm^{-1}) . This is in the range of the third overtone of CH/NH/OH stretching vibrations and thus will allow good radiation absorption. With a spot size of 0.5 mm diameter, power densities were 10⁷-10⁹ W/cm², depending on initial laser energy. Spectra were acquired 2-5 s after the laser pulse.

FAB spectra were acquired with a double-sector *MS* (VG-ZAB-HF, 8 kV accelerating potential, 8 kV *FAB* source, 1 mA) or a Finnigan TSQ-70 triple-quadrupole mass analyser. Here, the *FAB* source was operated at 8 kV with a 0.2-mA discharge current. For measurements with both instruments the sample matrix was 3-nitrobenzyl alcohol.

Both pure samples (Table 7.26) and extracts were prepared in the same manner. Other than in the experiments of Asamoto et al., KBr was applied to the stainless steel probe tip either by dissolving it in $CH₃OH$ and depositing it dropwise, or by burnishing the tip directly with the salt. Approximately 1 µg of a sample was dissolved in CH_2Cl_2 and added dropwise to the probe tip. A thin uniform coating will usually remain after evaporation of the solvent.

The results may be summarized as follows.

For all additives that were analysed, *LD* is superior to *FAB.* Since the latter has a strong tendency to fragmentise analyte molecules, the *FAB-MS* of these high-molecular mass additives present weak parent peaks or none at all. In all cases, *LD* spectra showed $[M+K]^+$ as the strongest peak. CO_2 -LDMS exhibit more fragment peaks and thus allow the verification of structures. Nd:*YAG-LD* produces very little fragmentation and is therefore apt for multicomponent analyses. This has been established by the analysis of a five-component mixture of DLTDP, DSTDP, Goodrite 3114, Seenox 4125 and Irganox 1010; the [M+K]⁺ of each are observed. On the other hand, spectra obtained with this laser are more dependent on a variety of factors including laser energy, laser power, sample preparation (and possibly chemical constitution of the analyte).

7.4 Mass Spectrometry with Pre-Separated Mixtures [GC-, HPLC-, TLC-MS)

7.4.1

On-Line Coupling of GC with Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS)

Capillary gas chromatography has an excellent separation efficiency (some 10⁵ theoretical plates), and its on-line coupling with *MS* yields optimal analytical information on multicomponent systems. Unfortunately, *GC-MS* is restricted to volatile systems, and most polymer additives are non-volatile or volatilise under decomposition. One of the few exceptions are plasticisers; ample information on *GC* and *MS* data are found in the book of Scholl (I.e.; for *MS* data see Tables 7.1-7.22).

An interesting possibility is the on-line coupling of *GC* with single-ion monitoring *EI-MS.* Here, chemically similar molecules, even isomers, having a key fragment in common, are first separated by *GC* and subsequently introduced into the mass spectrometer. The magnetic field of the latter is stabilised on the *mlz* value of this key fragment. Any time a certain species is eluted, the spectrometer scans a peak with the mass number chosen. Ulsaker and Hoem (10.2.4) applied this technique for the determination of phthalate contaminants in intravenous solutions stored in PVC bags. Phthalic anhydride *(mlz* 149), as an example, is a key fragment for most phthalate esters.

In certain, lucky cases the analyst may circumvent missing volatility of a system (large molecules, polymers) by employing pyrolysis-GC-MS. For many years, *Py-GC* has been a comparably cheap though not too effective method for the identification of troublesome systems (crosslinked polymers like thermosetting materials and rubber, copolymers etc.). Relative retention times are not sufficient for identification; the on-line coupling of *Py-GC* with *FTIRS* or *MS*, however, brought a real jump in analytical reliability.

Literature on *Py-GC-MS* for the direct identification of additives or fragments of additives in polymers is scarce. Geissler (10.2.1) investigated additives in polymers and rubber and announced a library of *Py-EIMS* of additives. Recently, Meyer-Dulheuer et al. (10.2.1) published more details on the identification of neat additives and those in plastics by coupling conventional pyrolysis(550 °C)-GC with a quadrupole mass spectrometer (QP-5000, Shimadzu), EI with 70 V, *mlz* range 45-700. For each analysis, 0.1 mg of additive or polymer were weighed into a platinum vessel and introduced into the pyrolyser.

The wide-bore column had an i.d. of 0.32 mm and a length of 60 m (Restek, Bad Soden), and the oven was programmable up to 300 °C. A stream of He $(0.8 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ min}^{-1})$ carried the pyrolysate through the column to the *MS* interface (split ratio 1:30). A computer calculated the mass spectra (1000 scans min"¹) and total ion chromatograms *(TIC).*

The *EI-MS* of neat additives were typical enough for identification. It was even possible to distinguish between isomeric additives. This is shown in Fig. 7.18 with species having the same molar mass and differing only in aliphatic substituents; they differ, however, in their fragmentation behaviour under electron impact. These experiences encouraged the authors to establish a library with the *MS* of meanwhile 174 additives; an expedient program allows the comparison of analytical spectra with the library.

The identification of additive fragments in pyrolysates of stabilised polymers is possible if these fragments are big enough, i.e. heavier than the biggest fragment of the polymer. This is frequently the case, here just two examples. It was possible to identify the phenolic antioxidant Irganox 3052 FF in poly(methylmethacrylate) by fragments with *mle* 161, 263, 339, 361 and 394. Irganox 3114, an isocyanurate with 4-hydroxy-3,5-di-£-butylphenyl substituents, and Hostanox 03 (see Fig. 7.15 above) in PP can be identified by *mlz* 91,161, 175, 189, 203 and 119, 175, 309, 324, respectively. In another typical case (Hostavin N20 in PP) the identification of this HALS in the pyrolysate was not possible.

Fig. 7.18 Pyrolysis-£I-MS of three isomeric stabilisers (Meyer-Dulheuer et al., 10.2.1)

7.4.2 On-Line Coupling of Separation Techniques for Non-Volatile Substances with Mass Spectrometry

On-line coupling of non-destructive separation methods for large molecules with *MS* is quite promising; some interfaces are commercially available. Experimental or commercial techniques may be categorised as follows:

- Direct liquid introduction *(DLI)*
- Thermospray interfaces
- Mechanical transport (belt) interfaces
- Supercritical chromatography-MS interface

Probably the best-developed technique is *HPLC-MS.* Separation power of *HPLC* is lower than that of capillary *GC;* this is compensated by employing a low or medium fragmentising *MS.*

DLI of the eluate through a capillary into the ion source followed by *CI-MS* with the accompanying *HPLC* solvent seems to be the simplest technique. It often produces, however, the poorest results. Better ones are achieved by removal of the solvent in a desolvation chamber which, at the same time, produces a finely dispersed jet of the sample. Alternatively, a He nebuliser can be used as interface. *DLI* under *CI* conditions is usually operated together with quadrupole-MS.

Similar to *DLI* is the *thermospray interface.* The *HPLC* eluate passes a stainless steel capillary which is pre-heated to 200-300 °C. Opposite to the orifice of the capillary (and after the ion source) is a rotation pump which keeps the pressure in the ion source in an optimal range (ca. 800 Pa). The pump is equipped with a cooled trap. The high pressure difference between capillary and ion source produces a high-speed jet of nebulised sample. Ionisation is effectuated, e.g. by *CI* in the presence of ammonium acetate in the eluate. This mechanism ionises preferably polar molecules.

The *belt-interface* is a well-established and very sensitive technique (10 ng for a complete mass spectrum). The basic component of this interface is an endless belt made of stainless steel or Kapton [poly(pyromellitic imide) of oxy-bis(4-phenol)]. The eluate is sprayed continuously onto the moving band. It is essential that a thin, uniform film is formed. In case the eluate contains a higher concentration of $H₂O$ (>50%) droplets may form on the belt. This is disadvantageous for the *MS*, but can be avoided by applying 2propanol together with the eluate. In a first heated chamber most of the solvent is evaporated under normal pressure. The rest of the solvent is removed in two differently heated and evacuated chambers. In the ion source, the sample on the belt is flash-evaporated (direct *CI).* Alternatively, *EI* is possible. On the way back, the belt passes a clean-up heating stage and a washing chamber. This is just one version of the different commercial belt interfaces. It allows *HPLC* gradient elution

and flow-rates up to $1 \text{ cm}^3\text{/min.}$ The eluent has to be salt-free. Frequently, *HPLC* is run with a *UV* detector in a way that the two detectors *(MS* is the second one) operate in series.

7.4.3 A Typical Investigation

Vargo and Olson (10.2.2) identified antioxidants and *UV* stabilisers in plastics by on-line coupling of a dual-pumpgradient *HPLC* system (Waters Ass.), a Kratos 773 detector fixed at 280 nm and equipped with a 0.5 $\rm cm^3$ flow cell (Kratos Analytical Instruments), and a Finnigan-MAT 4615 quadrupole mass spectrometer with a polyimide moving belt *LC/MS* interface.

The *HPLC* column (250 mm long, 2.1 mm i.d.) was packed with 5-um ODS particles (Alltech Ass.). Sample injections were made with a Valco injection valve equipped with a 10 cm³ loop. A pre-column filter (Upchurch Scientific) was used to remove particulate material from the injection sample. Solvent A (acetonitrile/ H_2O 3:1) and solvent B (acetonitrile/ THF 1:1) were applied according to the following gradient elution scheme:

The gradient controller was set for a flow rate of 0.2 cm³/min. The column effluent was deposited on the belt in a fine spray using a nebuliser. When the *UV* detector and the *MS* were operated in series, a stainless steel tubing (200 mm long, 0.25 mm i.d.) connected the absorbance detector outlet with the interface. There was no significant loss of resolution or efficiency in going from the *UV* detector to the *MS.*

The ion source (120 °C) of the MS was pressurised to 40 Pa with CH₄ reagent gas; this was ionised with 70 V electrons. Solutes were desorbed from the belt at 230 °C. CI spectra were recorded repetitively at 3 s/scan from *m/z* 200-1200, *EI* spectra from *m/z* 50 to 800.

A mixture (in THF) of nine commonly used antioxidants and *UV* light stabilisers was used to develop a general gradient elution scheme and to optimise the *HPLC/MS* parameters. Detection was achieved with *UV* and *MS* detectors in series. The resolution was excellent (near base-line); an aliphatic stabiliser (distearyl thiodipropionate) was not detected by *UV* absorption but easily by *MS.* The sensitivity was in the region of 10^{-6} g. The 280 nm UV absorbance for selected aromatic-aliphatic additives was in the region of a few ng. Reconstructed mass chromatograms from selected ion currents improved the *MS* detection limit *(S/N=3)* to about the same level.

Two polypropylene samples with unknown additive contents were cut into small shavings with a drill bit. Approximately 1 g of these was extracted overnight at r.t. with 5 cm³ of acetonitrile in a sealed vial with constant stirring (complete extraction was not intended). The solution was filtered and analysed as described above. By evaluating total ion and selected ion currents, it was possible to identify most of the substances producing the peaks. Standard addition and absorbance detection allowed the determination of the concentrations (between 0.07 mg/g and 0.95 mg/g) of some additives in the two PP samples.

7.5

Mass Spectrometry with a Second Mass Spectrometer as Analyser *(MS-MS, Tandem-MS)*

7.5.1 Fundamentals

It seems strange to operate two mass spectrometers on-line - it is not. With one of them we have the choice between two, may be three possibilities of ionisation: a soft one (FJ, *FD...),* a hard one *(EI)* or something in between *(CI, FAB...).* Soft ionisation gives us molecular peaks but little information on structure. Hard ionisation yields many fragment peaks with structural information, but frequently no information on the molecular mass. The intermediate ionisation techniques are a compromise but have other disadvantages.

Separating multicomponent systems with *GC* and analysing them on-line with *MS* is already a classical and not too expensive method. Why then *MS-MSl*

The answer is (simplified): it is the considerably reduced time for an analysis, and the increased sensitivity (and a lot more). Many thousand publications prove the almost explosive development of *MS-MS* into one of the strongest analytical methods. Details are given in an excellent book of McLafferty et al. and later in a monography of Schwarz (both 10.1).

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Figure 7.19 (from Schwarz, Lc.) shows the principle of *MS-MS* for direct analysis of a multicomponent system. ABC, DEF etc. symbolise molecules being composed of functional groups A, B, C etc. The first mass spectrometer (MSI) operates with soft ionisation (FJ, *FD, CI, LD)* and thus produces an ensemble of molecular ions (or $\mathrm{M} + \mathrm{H}^+$, $\mathrm{M} - \mathrm{H}^+$, or adducts). It is assumed that we want to identify ABC. Then, the fields of MSI are fixed in a way that only ABC⁺ enters the interface where it is excited by collisional activation, laser radiation or surface-induced dissociation. Within the time of one vibration (10^{-13} s), ABC⁺ dissociates into fragments characterising the original molecule. These are separated and detected by MSII.

The sensitivity of *MS-MS* is generally in the pg range, sometimes even lower. The time needed for a complete analysis of a multicomponent system normally doesn't exceed 20 min. The quality of the spectra is high (Fig. 7.20). There are, however, shortcomings. Soft ionisation with *FUFD* produces much lower ion yields (ca. 1/100) than *EI.* This may be not sufficient for *MS-MS.* Here, *EI* with reduced ionisation voltage, typically 20 V, or the experimentally demanding liquid secondary ion *(LSI)* technique may solve the problem. Mixtures with an extremely high number of components (some 10²) and isomeric/isobaric species should be analysed with *GC-MS -* if the samples are volatile. (Meanwhile, *GC-MS/MS* is a well-introduced technique.) Non-volatile samples cause the same difficulties as with other *MS* techniques; laser desorption ionisation (LDI) or pyrolysis-*GC-MS* with soft ionisation may solve the problem. Finally, it shouldn't be forgotten that *MS-MS* is very expensive and needs highly skilled analysts.

7.5.2 *MS-MS* **of Additives**

Jackson et al. (10.2.1) recently contributed a fundamental and scientifically oriented paper on the analysis of (equimolar)

Fig. 7.20 a *CI* spectrum of trichlorodibenzodioxin *(m/z* 288) adsorbed on carbon; b *MS-MS* of the same sample

(from Schwarz, Lc, after R.G. Cooks) ordinates: relative intensity/counts

mixtures of five high-molecular weight additives (Table 7.27) by means of high-energy *MS* and tandem *MS.* (This work also proves the highly demanding nature of *MS-MS.)*

UV-MALDI spectra were measured with a time-of-flight *MS* (Micromass) operated in linear mode with an accelerating potential of 25 kV. Approximately 50 laser shots were employed to obtain the mass spectra under control of the OPUS data system. *EIy* C/, *LSI* and *FD* spectra were acquired by means of a ZAB-T (Micromass) four-sector *MS* of reverse geometry operating at an accelerating potential of 8 kV.

No less than five different ionisation techniques (first *MS)* were employed:

- *EI*, *CI*, *FD*, liquid secondary ionisation *(LSI)*
- • *UV* matrix-assisted laser desorption *(MALD)*

The matrix employed for *LSI-MS/MS* experiments was *m*nitrobenzyl alcohol. (The choice of the optimal matrix was crucial for these experiments.)

The collision-induced dissociation *(CID)* spectra of molecular ions were then obtained by means of tandem *MS.* The optimal fragmentation method for *MS-MS* was *LSI* (which is similar to *FAB).* Table 7.28 exhibits the fragments observed with a Cs ion gun operated at 35 kV and a gun current of 1 µA. Benzonitrile-activated W wires (13 μ m) were used in *FD* experiments. The fragment with *m/z* 219 was identified as 2,6-di-f-butyl-p-cresol (minus H) and is considered as characteristic for the investigated Irganox additives. Possible structures are also discussed for the other fragments presented in Table 7.28.

To sum up: mixtures of non-volatile additives with high molar masses can preferably be analysed by *LSI-MS/MS.* This technique gives strong molecular ion signals as well as fragment ions for structural information. FD is also well-suited but the analysis is time-consuming and experimentally challenging. The *FD* ion currents are generally two orders of magnitude lower than those obtained by *LSI.*

It is quite a step from defined multi-component systems to dirty ones - the daily toil of the analyst. Few macromolecular systems contain, in addition to the polymer, so many wanted

and a few non-wanted additives and other components than vulcanised elastomers do. In a recent and very informative publication (10.2.6), Lattimer described the practically complete (qualitative) analysis of three vulcanisates by a combination of the following techniques:

- 1. (Pyrolysis) F/ of the mixture evaporating at temperatures up to 300 ⁰C in order to win a survey *MS* with predominantly molecular species
- 2. Selection of prominent or otherwise interesting peaks/ species and subjecting these to collision fragmentation and tandem *MS.* Evaluation of the production scan by experience
- 3. High resolution atomic composition (AC) MS. A computer program calculates the most likely atomic composition from the measured *m/z* (7 decimals).

The *MS-MS* system employed was a Finnigan MAT 95Q hybrid arrangement. A small slice (0.2-0.4 mg for 70 V *EI* and isobutane CI , 1.0-1.5 mg for FI) in an Al crucible was introduced into the spectrometer via the direct probe, and heated with 15-20 °C/min. The collision-induced dissociation for *MS/MS* was effectuated with air (50 eV, 0.2 Pa) in the "collision octapole". The pressure in the quadrupole analyser was 8×10^{-4} Pa.

High-resolution MS *(EI* or *CI* mode) was carried out by computerised peak-matching with perfluorokerosene reference peaks. Accuracy was 3-5 ppm or better.

In the following, the results of one of the three analyses are given in detail. Figure 7.21 shows the *i*-butane CI-MS survey scan of an unknown polyurethane below the thermal decomposition of the polymer (<200 ⁰C). The numerous molecular peaks (odd, M+H⁺) suggest CHO or CHN(O) compounds, the latter ones with even number of N atoms. From the strongest one, a high-resolution *CI-AC-MS* yielded *m/z* 363.28. A computer program calculated as closest hit the formula $C_{25}H_{35}N_2$ (*M*= 363.56 g/mol). This was identified as bis(2,6-di-2-propylphenyl)carbodiimide (Stabaxol P, Bayer). m/z 419 is an adduct ion $(M+C_4H_9)^+$ and m/z 188 is a fragmention (NC-C₆H₄-C₆H₁₂)⁺.

Fig. 7.21 *i-*Butane *CI-MS* survey scan of an unknown polyurethane evaporated between 20 ⁰C and 200 ⁰C (from Lattimer, 10.2.6/4)

Fig. 7.22 Product-ion scan *(CI-MS/MS)* of MH⁺ 229 from unknown polyurethane (from Lattimer, 10.2.6/4)

Fig. 7.23 Pyrolysis *CI-MS* survey scan (200-300 ⁰C) of unknown polyurethane (from Lattimer, 10.2.6/4)

There are a number of peaks left for identification. The one at 229 was subjected to *CI-MS/MS* (Fig. 7.22); this revealed, as collision fragments MH⁺, exclusively fragments of adipic acid, butanediol and hexanediol as well as cyclic adipate oligomers with the C_4 and the C_6 alcohol.

In order to reveal the polymer structure, the polyurethane was pyrolysed between 200 °C and 300 °C. The *i*-butane CI *MS* survey scan (Fig. 7.23) was assigned as follows: 250/251, 4,4'-methylene-bis(phenylisocyanate), MDI; 341, protonated MDI-butanediol; 269, protonated MDI- $H₂O$; 225, OCN- C_6H_4 -CH₂-NH₂; 132, OCN-C₆H₄-CH₂; 91 and 73 (fragments

of the chain extender butanediol, MH and C_4H_9O). The peaks at 201,229,401,429 and 457 can be derived from protonated cyclic adipic oligoesters.

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Thus, the system is identified as a poly(ester urethane) on the basis of MDI, a mixed adipic C_4 - C_6 polyester and butanediol as chain extender. Stabaxol P was added as a stabiliser.

Egsgaard et al. (10.2.2) proved that *MS-MS* with off-line *HPLC* is a powerful technique for the identification of antioxidants in crude extracts of polymers (orthopaedic bandages and protective gloves). Here 5.Og of the (finely cut) material was extracted with 50 cm³ THF for 16 h at r.t. The solution was decanted and evaporated to 5 $\rm cm^3$. Then 50 $\rm cm^3$ CH3OH were added to precipitate dissolved polymer. The supernatant was evaporated to 5 cm^3 , and the precipitation procedure was repeated. The solution was evaporated to a small volume.

The *MS-MS* analyses were carried out using a Varian MAT CH5 D double-focusing spectrometer equipped with an *EU FUFD* ion source. *FUFD* spectra were obtained with a 10-um W wire emitter, activated in benzonitrile vapor. Collisioninduced dissociation *[CID)* was carried out by introducing He as a target gas in the second field-free region (interface). Samples were introduced in Al crucibles via the direct inlet system or dipping the emitter into the extract (for *FD).*

HPLC was performed with a Spherisorb 3- μ m C₁₈ column (120 mm long, 4.6 mm i.d.) and CH₃OH/H₂O (4:1) as eluent (1 cm³ /min). *UV* detection was done at 280 nm.

The *FD-MS* of the extract of a bandage material exhibited *m/z* 226 as strong signal, a few signals of lighter fragments were weak. *CID* by accelerated electrons of the substance causing this parent peak produced fragments with *m/z* 211 $(-CH_3)$, 183 $(-C_3H_7)$, 169 $(-C_3H_7N)$, with decreasing intensity. The original molecule was identified as N-(2-propyl)- N -phenyl-p-phenylenediamine (IPPD). Quantitation with *HPLC* revealed a concentration of 0.1% IPPD in the polymer.

HPLC simplifies the identification of *FI-MS* components by providing relative retention times. The *FI-MS* of the extract of surgeon gloves exhibited *m/z* 358 as strongest mass (with a weak companion at 360). *CID-MS* of the 358-substance produced a strong peak at 343 $(-CH₃)$ and numerous much weaker peaks, among them the more prominent ones at 195 and 163. These differ by the mass of $32S$, their sum is 358; ³⁴S would explain 360. The central splitting leaves the sulfur with either fragment. This makes it quite likely that the original molecule is a symmetrically built, t-butyl-substituted thiobisphenol. (t-Butyl easily splits off CH₃; directly ring-attached $CH₃$ will not be split off, neither thermally nor by radiation.) The mass of 358 requires an additional $CH₃$ group on each ring. Thio- $bis(t$ -butylcresol) forms three isomers with equally substituted rings. *CA* and *HPLC* of the authentic compounds verified thio- bis (4-phenol) with t -butyl in 3- and CH₃ in 6-position. By *HPLC*, the concentration of this additive in the polymer was determined to be 1%.

EI (70 V) mass fragments of CHO-phenolic antioxidants (without additional functions); strongest mass (base peak) := 100 (selection of Scholl data, after correction)

p-Bisphenols

(the first representative very likely was mixed with a hydrocarbon oil)

Table 7.1 Continue

o-Bisphenols

Table 7.2

Tentative assignment of *EI* fragments of CHO-phenolic antioxidants to structures (without additional functions; for molecular masses, m.m., see Table 7.1), Mass numbers 29,39,41,43,55,57,65,69,71: unsaturated and saturated hydrocarbons (even) or hydrocarbon radicals (odd). Molecular masses: 186, 220, 228, 250, 340, 368, 382, 420, 424. Molecular masses are usually accompanied by the protonated, sometimes by the deprotonated, species

EI (70 V) mass fragments of thiobisphenol antioxidants; strongest mass (base peak):=100 (selection of Scholl data)

Table 7.4

Tentative assignment of *EI* fragments of thiobisphenol antioxidants to structures (for molecular masses see Table 7.3)

Table 7.5

EI (70 V) mass fragments of phenolic antioxidants with additional hetero functions; strongest mass (base peak):=100 (selection of Scholl data)

Molecule	Molar mass g/mol	Base peak m/z 91	Mass numbers (m/z) (relative intensities)						
Ω . ő HO	214		27 3	39 41	51 91	53 39	65 12	92 8	200 11
(contains hydrocarbon) OH وt-C ₄ H,	180	165	39 8	41 10	77 10	91 9	137 42	166 11	180 59

 $H_3C \sim O \text{ (with } 3-t\text{-butyl)}$

Table 7.5 Continue

Table 7.6

Tentative assignment of *EI* fragments of etherphenol and aminophenol antioxidants to structures (for molecular masses, m.m., see Table 7.5)

EI (70 V) mass fragments of aromatic amine antioxidants; strongest mass (base peak): = 100 (selection of Scholl data)

Molecule
 R_1 -NH-C₆H₄-NH-R₂

Table 7.8

Tentative assignment of *EI* fragments of aromatic amine antioxidants to structures. Molecular masses (see Table *7.7):* 220, 226/227,260/261,266/267,296/297,332/333

Table 7.9

EI (70 V) mass fragments of other CHN (O, S) antioxidants, strongest mass (base peak): = 100 (selection of Scholl data)

Tentative assignment of *EI* fragments of CHN(O,S) antioxidants (other than amines) to structures; molecular masses (see Table 7.9): 150/151,217,228

Table 7.11

EI (70 V) mass fragments of adipate and sebacate plasticisers; strongest mass (base peak) : = 100 (selection of Scholl data)

Tentative assignment of *EI* fragments of adipate and sebacate ester plasticisers to structures. Mass numbers 15,27,29,41,43, 55,56,57,69,71,97: unsaturated and saturated hydrocarbons (even) or hydrocarbon radicals (odd)

Table 7.13

EI (70 V) mass fragments of phthalate plasticisers; strongest mass (base peak): = 100 (selection of Scholl data, corrected)

Table 7.14

Tentative assignment of *EI* fragments of phthalate ester plasticisers to structures. Mass numbers 15,27,29,39,41,43,50,54, 55,57,65,*67,*70,71,83,113: unsaturated and saturated hydrocarbons (even) or hydrocarbon radicals (odd)

EI (70 V) mass fragments of phosphate, thiophosphate and phosphonate plasticisers; strongest mass (base peak): = 100 (selection of Scholl data)

Tentative assignment of *EI* fragments of phosphate, thiophosphate and phosphonate ester plasticisers to structures. Mass numbers 27,29,39,41,43,55,56,57,69,71,83,113: unsaturated and saturated hydrocarbons (even) or hydrocarbon radicals (odd). Molecular masses (see Table 7.15): 166/165,182,198,326,340,368,410

Table 7.17

EI (70 V) mass fragments of anhydride hardeners; strongest mass (base peak): = 100 (selection of Scholl data, after correction and rearrangement)

Tentative assignment of *EI* fragments of anhydride hardeners to structures (for molecular masses see Table 7.17). Mass numbers 26,27,39,41,43,44,50,51,52,54,55,56,57,67,69,70,81,82,83,96,97,109: unsaturated and saturated hydrocarbons (even) or hydrocarbon radicals (uneven)

Table 7.19

EI (70 V) mass fragments of amine and heterocyclic activators; strongest mass (base peak): = 100 (selection of Scholl data, after correction and rearrangement)

Table 7.19 Continue

Table 7.20

Tentative assignment of *EI* fragments of amine and heterocyclic activators to structures (for molecular masses, m.m., see Table 7.19). Mass numbers 15, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 41, 42, 43, 44, 55, 56, 58, 65, 68, 70, 82, 84, 86, 96, 123, 124: unsaturated and saturated hydrocarbons (even) or hydrocarbon radicals (uneven). Some of these may also belong to N-containing fragments (see Table)

Table 7.21

EI (70 V) mass fragments of aminoalcohol activators; strongest mass (base peak): = 100 (selection of Scholl data, after correction and rearrangement)

Table 7.21 Continue

Substance	Molar mass g/mol 103	Base peak m/z 58	Mass numbers (m/z) relative intensities						
N,N-Dimethyl-2-propanolamine			15	30	41	42	44	70	85
			45	74	55	94	65	46	54
N-Methyldiethanolamine	119	42	44	43	58	29	86	15	30
			86	85	75	74	67	62	59

Table 7.22

Tentative assignment of *EI* fragments of aminoalcohol activators to structures (for molecular masses, m.m., see Table 7.19). Mass numbers 15, 27, 28, 29, 30, 41, 42, 43, 44, 56, 58, 70, 72, 84, 85, 86: unsaturated and saturated hydrocarbons (even) or hydrocarbon radicals (uneven). Some of these may also belong to N- or O-containing fragments

Table 7.23

Mass numbers *(m/z>200)* and relative intensities (italics) of fragments in the *EIMS* of commercial additives (from Yoshikawa etal, 10.2.1)

a l=2,6-di-£-butyl-p-cresol,

²⁼dilaurylthiodipropionate,

³⁼pentaerythritol tetraester of 2-(4-hydroxy-3,5-di-f-butylphenyl)propionic acid,

⁴⁼octadecyl-3-(3,5-di-f-butyl-4-hydroxyphenyl)propionate,

⁵⁼l,l,3-fn5(2-methyl-4-hydroxy-5-t-butylphenyl)butane,

^{6=2,2&#}x27;-methylene-bis(4-methyl-6-t-butylphenol),

^{7=4,4&#}x27;-butylidene-bis(3-methyl-6-t-butylphenol),

⁸⁼²⁻⁽²⁻hydroxy-3,5-di-^-butylphenyl)-5-chlorobenzotriazole

Table 7.24

Trade names, structures and molecular masses of the additives investigated by Asamoto et al. (10.2.1).

3. Irganox 1010 M=1176 g/mol

9. Naugard BHT Ultranox226 M=220 g/mol

Table 7.24 Continue

12. Irganox PS 800 Naugard DLTDP M=514 g/mol

13. Irganox PS 802 Naugard DSTDP M=682 g/mol

14. Polygard Weston TNPP M=688 g/mol

10. Ultranox 236 M=358 g/mol

11.Ultranox246 M=340 g/mol

15.lrgafos168 Naugard 524 M=646 g/mol

16.Tinuvin P M=225 g/mol

Table 7.24 Continue

Table 7.25

LD/FT-ICR mass spectra of additives; numbers (bold) from Table 7.24, intensities in italics (after Asamoto et al., 10.2.1)

Table 7.25 Continue

Positive ions of *UV* absorbers

 $[M+K]^+$ $[M+Na]^+$ $[M+H]^+$

Negative ions of *UV* **absorbers**

Positive ions of miscellaneous additives

 $[M+K]^+$ $[M+Na]^+[M+H]^+$

Table 7.25 Continue

a Defocused condition

b Same composition

c Mixed stearyl/palmityl amides, hence three sets of molecular ions for the possible combinations

Table 7.26

Trade names, structures and molecular masses of the additives investigated by Johlman et al. (10.2.1)

Table 7.26 Continue

Table 7.27

The five polymer additives studied by Jackson et al. (10.2.1) with tandem *MS*

Table 7.28

Parent peaks *(m/z)* observed with *FD* as well as peaks derived from parent peaks and observed with liquid secondary ionisation *MS-MS* (numbers, see Table 7.27)

8 Structur e Analysi s b y X-Ra y Diffractio n

8.1 Fundamentals

The wavelength of X-rays is within the same order of magnitude as the distance of atoms or molecules in crystals, i.e. some tenths of a nanometer. In addition, *XR* interfere with electrons, and space in crystals is filled with electrons (and some nuclei). Thus, XR traversing crystals suffer diffraction and interference. The interference patterns can be used for crystal structure elucidation; at the same time they are characteristic for the substance the crystals are made of.

Most organic substances are composed of C,H,N,0 and have few electrons compared with compounds containing heavy atoms. They are therefore poor scatterers; to obtain *XR* diagrams of CHNO crystals using conventional XR sources demands several hours of exposure times. The availability of the intense cyclotron radiation yields good diagrams in reasonably short times.

8.2 Inorganic Pigments and Fillers

All inorganic pigments and fillers contain heavy atoms and are thus good scatterers. This is advantageous if pigmented paints or pigmented amorphous polymers (plastics, rubber) have to be analysed. Several books and publications contain data on *XRD* of pigments. A total of 71 *XRD* patterns (bar graphs) are found in the book of Scholl (I.e.); unfortunately, no spacings and intensities are given in numbers. More data may be found in the powder diffraction file of the International Centre for Diffraction Data (N.N., 10.1). Earlier though valuable sources are the books of Konig and Kittel (both 10.1). A useful source of reference in *XRD* data on synthetic dyes and pigments is the contribution by Whitaker in the book of Venkataraman (10.1).

8.3 Organic Pigments

The problems with *XRD* of organic pigments can be summed up like this (Curry et al., 10.2.3; with minor changes):

- 1. Organic pigments are poor scatterers.
- 2. Many organic OP, due to their intense coloration, are applied in low concentrations. Without separation, their *XRD* are weak and difficult to interpret.
- 3. The unit cells of OP are generally much larger than those of inorganic pigments. Thus, their diffraction lines are confined to low θ angles. Unfortunately, this region has, in the Debye-Scherrer technique, the highest background and may drown weak diffraction lines.
- 4. OP in paints may be non-crystalline and will then yield no *XRD* pattern.
- 5. Many OP may be derived from one parent compound, they belong then to a structurally similar family. Changes in chemical substitutions or inserted metal produce dramatic colour changes yet sometimes only subtle changes in *XRD* patterns.

Despite these problems the authors were able to produce valuable data for the identification of organic pigments in the forensic examination of paints. Debye-Scherrer powder photography was used both for OP and for casework paint flake specimens. Powdered pigments were loaded into 0.3 mm i.d. glass capillary tubes. The camera had 114.6 mm i.d., KODIREX or NO-SCREEN film was used. The samples were exposed for 2 h to iron-filtered Co $K\alpha$ radiation from 35 kV/34 mA electrons. d-Spacings were measured with a film-measuring device; maximal errors were ±10 pm *{d>* nm) or ±1 pm *(d<l* nm). The intensities of the lines were determined with a recording microdensitometer and normalised to a scale with maximum 10.

Table 8.1 shows the results of these measurements; intensities are given in italics, the strongest line in bold. Only the spacings of the three most intense diffraction lines of each pigment have been recorded. As far as paint flake analysis is concerned, the minimum size appears to be 0.5×0.5 mm², corresponding to an approximate weight of 40 ug.

Table 8.1

Diffraction data (three strongest peaks), CI pigment numbers and colorant class for a selection of organic pigments used in paints (CJ. Curry et al., 10.2.3). The numbers for the strongest interferences (intensity 10) are bold, the intensities on the 1-10 scale are italic. PR=Pigment Red, PY=Pigment Yellow, PV=Pigment Violet, PB=Pigment Blue, PBR=Pigment Brown, PG=Pigment Green, PO=Pigment Orange. The spacings are arranged to suit a Hanawalt-type search (see Powder Diffraction File, N.N., 10.1).

Table 8.1 Continue

9 Elemental Analysis

There are numerous spectroscopic techniques for elemental analysis: inductive-coupled plasma atomic spectrometry *(ICP-AES, ICP-MS),* laser ablation *(LA)* mass or atomic emission spectrometry, glow-discharge spectrometry *(GDOES, GDMS)*, atomic absorption *(AA),* X-ray fluorescence *(XRF),* X-ray emission and X-ray induced photoelectron *(XP)* spectrometries (I'm sure that some are missing). We can discuss here only three of these techniques.

9.1 Atomic Emission Spectroscopy

AES is a classic, Bunsen and Kirchhoff were its fathers. Compounds, in an electric arc or in a spark discharge, decompose into atomic elements. One outer electron is excited into different energetic σ states; when returning to the ground state, the energy used for this transition is emitted as electromagnetic radiation. The lines of the *AES* are (mostly) sharp and characteristic for the elements in the system investigated. Thus, up to about ten different elements can be determined in one measurement. The probabilities for transitions into the different electronic states can vary by several orders of magnitude. This is helpful for quantitative analyses; if an element in a mixture is rare, then its strongest line is used for its determination - and vice versa.

Table 9.1 shows emission lines of elements occurring in additives.

Table 9.1

Emission lines of elements occurring in additives, excitation: arc; strongest line is bold (selected data from H. Moenke, 10.1, and Golloch, Siegmund, 10.2.7)

Table 9.1 Continue

	Symbol Lines (nm)				
$\mathsf C$	387.10	247.86	229.69 ^f		
Ca	393.37				
CaF ^d	529.1				
CaCl ^e	621.1	593.4			
Cd	361.051	326.106 228.802			
$_{\rm cl}$	479.45				
Co	412.10	345.351			
$_{\rm Cr}$	428.972	427.480		425.435 360.17	267.70
Cu	327.396	324.754			
$\mathbf H$	486.13				
Hg	2536.528				
Li	812.652	670.784		610.364 460.286	323.261
Mg	383.80				
Mn	293.30				
Mo	319.397	317.035	320.883		
Ni	341.477	351.51			
P	255,328				
PО	327.05	325.53			
PЬ	405.782	283.307	220.35 ^f		
Sb	259.806				
Se	420				
Si	288.16				
Sn	326.233 ^b	317.502	303.41	286.333 ^b 283.999	
Sr	460.733	407.771			
Te	238.576	238.325 ^c			
Ti	337.28				
W	294.698	289.645			
Zn	213.856	334.502			

a Coincides with an SiO band

b May be confused with Ti

c Fe disturbs

d For the determination of F e For the determination of Cl

f Second order

g Disturbed by Co, 2536.49 nm, and vice versa

In a recent publication, Golloch and Siegmund (10.2.7) described sliding spark spectroscopy as an interesting new method for rapid survey analysis of additives, especially flame retardants, in polymers. The system is portable (16.5 kg) and

allows in-situ analyses (if power supply is available). Basically, it consists of a high-energy (up to 2 kj per discharge) sliding spark source with generator, an optical fibre ending in a charge-coupled device *(CCD)* spectrometer, computer and screen. Limits of detection of about 0.1% (elements by weight) for chlorine-free polymers were achieved.

The spark generator (Polycon Analytical Systems, Germany) was used for the ablation of the solid material and the excitation of the evaporated atoms. The energy per spark could be varied from 128 J to 2048 J. The spark head (PTFE, home made) is equipped with two thorated tungsten electrodes. The sample is simply placed on the electrodes. A continuous purge-gas flow of 1 dm³/min through the measuring head prevents pollution of the optics. A multi-mode optical fibre behind a quartz lens collects the emitted radiation from the sample surface with a 10 mm diameter spot. The computer software allows the simultaneous integration and storage of 50 analytical lines.

Figure 9.1 shows as an example the emission spectra of two ABS samples containing Cd and Zn. The background

curve is a blank, the line at 229.68 nm (F) is common to both the sample and a metal-free rubber sample; it is caused by carbon.

A remarkable possibility of this high-intensity spark spectroscopy is the direct determination of Cl (479.46 nm) and Br (481.67 nm,in polyurethanes). Figure 9.2 shows the emission lines of PVC (55 wt% Cl), chlorinated polyethylene (PE, 15- 20% Cl), ABS rubber with 10% of a flame retardant (ABS-FR) and a chlorine-free ABS sample. The line at 479.46 nm was used for quantitative determinations; the limit of detection was 0.5% Cl.

Using calibration standards, the authors made quantitative determinations of Cd, Cr, Pb, Zn, Sb, Si and Ti in chlorine-free polymers as well as Al, Ba, Ca, Cd, Pb, Sn, Ti and Zn in PVC. Multiple determinations are possible; examples shown were Zn/Si/Mg/Ca/Ti/Ba/Pb in PE and PP as well as Br/P/Cl/Sb/Zn/Al/Mg/B from flame retardants in ABS rubber and PE.

Table 9.2 shows the limits of detection for a number of elements as determined with sliding spark spectroscopy.

Fig. 9.1

Emission spectra of two samples of ABS rubber in the *UV* region. *Solid line:* rubber containing Cd and Zn. *Dotted (background) line:* metal-free ABS sample. Zn: A (213.86 nm); Cd: B (214.44 nm), C (219.46 nm), D (226.50), E (228.80), G (231.28); C: F (229.68 nm). (GoIloch and Siegmund, 10.2.7)

Emission spectra of PVC, chlorinated polyethylene (PE), ABS rubber with flame retardant (ABS-FR) and chlorine-free ABS for the determination of Cl. Cl: B (479.46 nm), D (481.01 nm),E (481.95 nm); N: A (478.81 nm), C (480.32 nm). (Golloch and Siegmund, 10.2.7)

Table 9.2

Limits of detection (LOD) for some elements in different polymers obtained by sliding spark spectrometry and calculated according to DIN 32645 (1994) (Golloch and Siegmund, 10.2.7)

9.2 Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy

Table 9.3 Contiune

The law of Kirchhoff says that an atom that emits radiation of a certain wavelength will absorb radiation of the same wavelength. This is the basis of the almost omnipresent flame atomic absorption spectroscopy *(AAS).* Numerous publications describe the different techniques of *AAS;* Table 9.3 shows some of the results which were collected by Knapp and Wegschneider (10.1).

Table 9.3

Analytical wavelengths *X* and limits of detection *(LOD)* for elements occurring in additives as determined by flame atomic absorption spectrometry *(AAS)* (selected values from Knapp and Wegscheider, in Kienitz et al., vol. 1,10.1). Flame: C_2H_2 with air or N_2O

9.3

Analysis of Surfaces: X-Ray Induced Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS)

Soft X-rays (in the region of 10^3 eV) are absorbed by matter. At the same time, low-energy (a few 10^2 eV) electrons are emitted (photoelectric effect). The work of separation

(electronic work function, the frequently used term binding energy is misleading) depends on the chemical state of the atom which is hit. Thus, not only the kind of element but also its state of bonding can be determined by *XPS.* The resolution, however, is low: 10^{-1} eV or 10 kJ/mol. The bonding state of, e.g. carbon can be evaluated only if closely superimposed band complexes are separated. Thus, only simple assignments can be made. On the other hand, *XPS* is suitable for the investigation of the chemical nature of surfaces, since soft Xrays penetrate only a few nanometers of condensed matter. In this respect it has to compete with *ATR-IRS* and Raman microscopy (molecules) and scanning electron microanalysis (elements). In addition, *XPS* is to some extent able to survey surfaces, and it is a non-destructive technique.

Ström et al. (10.2.3) used *XPS* to study the chemical composition of coated paper surfaces. The white pigment for the coating was a 7:3 mixture of fine $CaCO₃$ with European clay. One hundred parts of pigment were pasted with 17 parts of butadiene-styrene or acrylic latex, 0.5 parts synthetic thickener, 0.3 arts polyvinylalcohol, 0.3 parts optical brightener and 0.7 parts hardener (ammonium zirconium carbonate). *XPS* measurements were performed with a Kratos and an X-probe spectrometer (Surface Science Instrument, SSI). The X-ray source was Mg K α 1253.6 eV, the irradiated area was 0.8×0.5 mm² or 1 mm², respectively. The surface composition was calculated from the survey spectra using sensitivity factors provided by SSI. Peak fitting/separation for highresolution CIs signals was done with synthetic peaks with a 4:1 Gaussian-Lorenzian shape. It was assumed that the whole carbon complex (280-290 eV) was composed of five bands.

By low-resolution *XPS*, ten elements (including C and O) were found. Figure 9.3 shows the *XPS* (solid lines) and the curve-resolved partial spectra of a coated paper with acrylate latex (above) and the latex itself (below). Carbonate and ester band overlap but can be separated and evaluated quantitatively.

Fig. 9.3

High-resolution and curve-resolved *XPS* spectra of the CIs signal of a coated paper with acrylate binder (a) and of the binder itself (b) (Strom

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10.2.6

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Part B **FTIR Spectral Atlas of Plastics Additives**

1 Decimal Classification of Additives

1.1.3.1.3 substituted with aralkyl or aryl, multinuclear polyphenols

- 1.2.5 phosphorus derivatives
- 1.2.5.1 metal-free alkylphosphites
- 1.2.5.2 metal-free alkylaryl- and arylphosphites
- 1.2.5.3 metal-organic phosphites
- 1.2.5.4 metal-organic phosphates
- 1.2.5.5 P- and ester-containing metal salts
- 1.2.5.6 derivatives of thiophosphorous acids
- 1.2.5.7 other P-containing compounds
- 1.2.6 silicium derivatives
- 1.2.7 other stabilisers
- 1.3 **Light stabilisers** *(UV***absorbers, radical scavengers)**
- 1.3.1 sterically hindered amines (HALS), acetalamines,triazine derivatives
- 1.3.2 benzotriazole derivatives
- 1.3.3 phenols
- 1.3.4 benzophenone derivatives (ketophenols, ketophenolethers
- 1.3.5 esters of aromatic acids (benzoates, salicylates)
- 1.3.6 derivatives of cyanoacrylic and cyanocinnamic acids
- 1.3.7 oxalic acid anilides
- 1.3.8 nickel-organic compounds, metal soaps
- 1.3.9 hydrocarbon waxes, other light stabilisers

1.4 **Flame retardants**

- 1.4.1 inorganic compounds
- 1.4.1.1 metal oxides and hydroxides
- 1.4.1.2 halogenides
- 1.4.1.3 B-containing compounds
- 1.4.1.4 P-containing compounds
- 1.4.1.5 Sb-containing compounds
- 1.4.1.6 elements
- 1.4.2 organic compounds
- 1.4.2.1 halogen-containing compounds
- 1.4.2.1.1 chlorinated (cyclo) aliphatic compounds
- 1.4.2.1.2 brominated (cyclo)aliphatic compounds
- 1.4.2.1.3 chlorinated (aliphatic-)aromatic compounds
- 1.4.2.1.4 tetrabromobisphenol A and its derivatives
- 1.4.2.1.5 tetrabromophthalic acid and its derivatives
- 1.4.2.1.6 other brominated aromats
- 1.4.2.1.7 halogenated oligomers and polymers
- 1.4.2.1.8 other halogenated compounds
- 1.4.2.2 phosphorus derivatives (classification like 3.6)
- 1.4.2.3 halogen- and P-containing compounds
- 1.4.2.4 compounds containing other hetero-elements
- 1.4.3 metal-organic compounds
- 1.4.4 other flame retardants

1.5 **Metal deactivators**

- 1.5.1 carboxylic acid amides
- 1.5.1.1 amides of monocarboxylic acids
- 1.5.1.2 amides of dicarboxylic acids
- 1.5.1.3 cyclic amides
- 1.5.2 hydrazones
- 1.5.2.1 hydrazones of aliphatic aldehydes
- 1.5.2.2 hydrazones of aromatic aldehydes
- 1.5.2.3 aliphatic N-acylhydrazones

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- 1.5.2.4 aromatic N-acylhydrazones
- 1.5.3 hydrazides
- 1.5.3.1 hydrazides of aliphatic carboxylic acids
- 1.5.3.2 hydrazides of aliphatic-aromatic carboxylic acids
- 1.5.3.3 hydrazides of aromatic carboxylic acids
- 1.5.3.4 hydrazides with CHO functions
- 1.5.3.5 hydrazides with additional CHN(0,S) functions
- 1.5.4 heterocyclic compounds
- 1.5.4.1 sym-triazine derivatives (melamine derivatives)
- 1.5.4.2 (benz)imidazole derivatives
- 1.5.4.3 (benzo)triazole derivatives
- 1.5.5 P-containing compounds
- 1.5.6 other metal deactivators
- 1.6 **Biostabilisers, biocides**
- 1.7 **Other additives with preventive and/or curative properties**
- 2 **Colouring agents, brightening agents, fillers**
- **2.1 Inorganic pigments (classification like 2.5.1)**
- **2.2 Organic pigments**
- 2.2.1 monoazo pigments
- 2.2.1.1 acetoacetic acid arylides
- 2.2.1.2 2-hydroxy-3-naphthoic acid arylides, naphthol-AS derivatives
- 2.2.1.3 other 2-naphthol derivatives
- 2.2.1.4 2-hydroxynaphthoic acid arylide (BONS-) lakes (carboxylates and carboxylatesulfonates)
- 2.2.1.5 benzimidazolone derivatives
- 2.2.1.6 pyrazolone derivatives
- 2.2.1.7 diazole derivatives
- 2.2.1.8 other monoazo pigments
- 2.2.2 disazo pigments
- 2.2.2.1 diarylyellow pigments (benzidine derivatives)
- 2.2.2.2 disazo condensation pigments of the yellow series (p-phenylenediamine-bis-acetoacetamide derivatives)
- 2.2.2.3 disazo condensation pigments of the red series $(p$ -phenylenediamine- bis -naphthamide derivatives)
- 2.2.2.4 pyrazolone derivatives
- 2.2.2.5 metal complexes
- 2.2.2.6 other disazo pigments
- 2.2.3 polycyclic pigments
- 2.2.3.1 without heteroelements in the ring system
- 2.2.3.1.1 anthraquinone derivatives
- 2.2.3.1.2 perylene derivatives
- 2.2.3.1.3 anthanthrone derivatives
- 2.2.3.1.4 (benz-)pyrene derivatives
- 2.2.3.1.5 pyranthrone derivatives
- 2.2.3.1.6 violanthrone and isoviolanthrone derivatives
- 2.2.3.1.7 naphthalene derivatives
- 2.2.3.1.8 noncondensed polycyclic systems without heteroelement in the ring system (di-, triphenylmethane derivatives)
- 2.2.3.2 N in the ring system
- 2.2.3.2.1 benzimidazol- and isoindoline (isoindolinone) derivatives
- 2.2.3.2.2 acridine (acridone) derivatives
- 2.2.3.2.3 (anthra-)pyrazole derivatives
- 2.2.3.2.4 (anthra-)pyrimidine derivatives
- 2.2.3.2.5 quinoline and phenazine derivatives
- 2.2.3.2.6 flavanthrone derivatives
- 2.2.3.2.7 indanthrone derivatives
- 2.2.3.2.8 phthalocyanine derivatives
- 2.2.3.2.9 noncondensed polycyclic systems with N in the ring system
- 2.2.3.3 N and/or O in the ring system (fluorescein-, indigo-, phenoxazine-, anthraoxazole derivatives)
- 2.2.3.4 S in the ring system (thioindigo and its derivatives)
- 2.2.3.5 noncondensed polycyclic systems with N and O in the ring system (oxazole derivatives)
- 2.2.3.6 noncondensed polycyclic systems with N and S in the ring system (thiazole derivatives)
- 2.2.3.7 metal complexes
- 2.2.3.8 other polycyclic pigments
- 2.2.4 other pigments
- 2.3 **Dyes**
- 2.4 **Brightening agents**
- 2.4.1 stilbene derivatives
- 2.4.2 coumarin derivatives
- 2.4.3 1,3-diphenylpyrazoline derivatives
- 2.4.4 naphthalimide derivatives
- 2.4.5 (benz) oxazole derivatives
- 2.4.6 (benzo)triazole derivatives
- 2.4.7 triazine derivatives
- 2.4.8 polyphenylsulfonates
- 2.4.9 other brightening agents
- 2.5 **Fillers, reinforcing agents**
- 2.5.1 inorganic
- 2.5.1.1 compounds with molecule-anions
- 2.5.1.1.1 stick-like and bent anions (cyanides, cyanates, nitrites)
- 2.5.1.1.2 star-shaped anions (carbonates, nitrates)
- 2.5.1.1.3 pyramidal anions (sulfites, phosphites)
- 2.5.1.1.4 tetrahedral anions (sulfates, chromates, orthophosphates, orthosilicates)
- 2.5.1.1.5 octahedral anions (hexafluorosilicates, hexacyanoferrates)
- 2.5.1.1.6 anions with lower symmetry (pyrophosphates, dichromates)
- 2.5.1.1.7 polymeric anions (polysilicates, polyphosphates, metaborates)
- 2.5.1.2 compounds with molecule-cations (ammonium salts)
- 2.5.1.3 uncharged inorganic molecules
- 2.5.1.4 compounds without defined molecules (oxides, hydroxides, sulfides)
- 2.5.2 organic
- 2.6 **Other colouring agents**
- 3 **Plasticisers, Elasticators, Extenders**
- 3.1 **Hydrocarbons and halo-hydrocarbons**
- 3.1.1 saturated, noncyclic hydrocarbons (paraffinic mineral oils)
- 3.1.2 saturated, cyclic hydrocarbons (naphthenic mineral oils)
- 3.1.3 aliphatic-aromatic hydrocarbons (aromatic mineral oils)
- 3.1.4 halogen-containing aliphatic hydrocarbons
- 3.1.5 halogen-containing aliphatic-aromatic hydrocarbons
- 3.1.6 halogen-containing aromatic hydrocarbons
- 3.1.7 polyhydrocarbons

- 3.4.2.3 terephthalic acid esters
- 3.4.2.4 trimellitic acid esters and -polyesters
- 3.4.2.5 esters of other di- or polybasic aromatic carboxylic acids
- 3.4.2.6 polymeric esters of dibasic aromatic carboxylic acids
- 3.4.3 esters of aromatically substituted aliphatic carboxylic acids
- 3.4.4 esters of aliphatically substituted aromatic carboxylic acids
- 3.4.5 other aromatic esters

3.5 **Other esters of organic acids**

3.6 **Phosphorus derivatives**

- 3.6.1 aliphatic phosphates
- 3.6.2 aliphatic-aromatic phosphates (mixed esters, aliphatically substituted phenol esters)
- 3.6.3 aromatic phosphates
- 3.6.4 aliphatic phosphites
- 3.6.5 aliphatic-aromatic phosphites
- 3.6.6 aromatic phosphites
- 3.6.7 phosphonates
- 3.6.8 other phosphorus derivatives

3.7 **Sulfonic acid derivatives**

- 3.7.1 sulfonic acid esters
- 3.7.2 sulfonamides

3.8 **CHN(O) compounds**

- 3.8.1 CHN compounds
- 3.8.2 amides
- 3.8.3 urethanes
- 3.9 **Other plasticisers**

4 **Processing agents, textile auxiliaries**

- 4.1 **Lubricating and release agents, antistatics**
- 4.1.1 hydrocarbons and modified hydrocarbons
- 4.1.1.1 paraffins
- 4.1.1.2 nonpolar polyethylene wax
- 4.1.1.3 polar paraffin and polyethylene waxes
- 4.1.1.3.1 oxidized
- 4.1.1.3.2 amidized
- 4.1.1.3.3 others
- 4.1.1.4 nonpolar polypropylene wax
- 4.1.1.5 polar polypropylene wax
- 4.1.1.6 aliphatic-aromatic compounds
- 4.1.2 fatty alcohols, fatty-alcohol ethers (alkyleneoxide adducts of fatty alcohols)
- 4.1.3 carboxylic acids, their esters and salts
- 4.1.3.1 fatty acids, wax acids
- 4.1.3.2 hydroxy acids
- 4.1.3.3 fatty and wax acid esters
- 4.1.3.4 esteralcohols and etheresters of fatty acids
- 4.1.3.5 fatty acid-alkyleneoxide adducts
- 4.1.3.6 ethers and esters of fatty alcohols
- 4.1.3.7 aliphatic-aromatic acids and their esters
- 4.1.3.8 esters of aromatic acids
- 4.1.3.9 metal soaps
- 4.1.4 fatty amines, aminoalcohols and -ethers, quaternary ammonium salts
- 4.1.5 fatty acid amides, amidized hydrocarbon wax
- 4.1.6 amidoalcohols, amidoamines
- 4.1.7 sulfonic acid esters and salts
- 4.1.8 other lubricating or release agent
- 4.1.9 other antistatics

4.2 **Adhesion agents**

- 4.2.1 silicium derivatives
- 4.2.1.1 (alkoxy)silanes
- 4.2.1.2 silicic acid esters
- 4.2.2 titanium derivatives
- 4.2.3 zirconium derivatives
- 4.2.4 chromium derivatives
- 4.2.5 metal-free organic compounds
- 4.2.6 other adhesive agents

4.3 **PVC processing aids**

4.4 **Blowing agents**

- 4.4.1 chemical blowing agents
- 4.4.1.1 azo compounds
- 4.4.1.2 hydrazine derivatives
- 4.4.1.3 tetrazoles
- 4.4.1.4 semicarbazides
- 4.4.1.5 benzoxazines
- 4.4.1.6 nitrosamines
- 4.4.1.7 others
- 4.4.2 physical blowing agents
- 4.4.2.1 hydrocarbons
- 4.4.2.2 halocarbons
- 4.4.2.3 halohydro carbons
- 4.4.2.4 others

4.5 **Textile auxiliaries**

- 4.5.1 wetting agents, antistatics, foaming agents, emulsifiers, related substances
- 4.5.2 dyeing auxiliaries
- 4.5.3 reviving agents
- 4.5.4 hydrophobing agents
- 4.5.5 other textile auxiliaries

4.6 **Crosslinking agents, activators**

- 4.6.1 olefinic compounds, other monomers
- 4.6.2 peroxy compounds
- 4.6.2.1 inorganic (hydro)peroxides
- 4.6.2.2 organic (hydro)peroxides
- 4.6.2.2.1 hydroperoxides
- 4.6.2.2.2 dialkylperoxides
- 4.6.2.2.3 aralkylperoxides
- 4.6.2.2.4 (hydro)peroxyketals
- 4.6.2.2.5 peresters
- 4.6.2.2.6 diacylperoxides (peroxyanhydrides)
- 4.6.2.2.7 peroxy(di)carbonic acid esters
- 4.6.2.2.8 peroxysulfonic acids and their derivatives
- 4.6.2.3 siliciumorganic (hydro)peroxides
- 4.6.3 isocyanates

- 5.2.3.5.1 (2-mercapto)benzothiazole and its derivatives
- 5.2.3.5.2 benzothiazolesulfenamides

6 **Other additives and auxiliaries**

2 *FTIR* Spectra of Additives

User's Guide

The spectra are arranged in order of their decimal number. You will find this number on the left side above the spectrum. The substance class to which the additives on each page belong is given in the running head of each page. The empirical formula of the structure on which the spectrum is based is also located above the spectrum. The column to the right of each spectrum denotes the strongest peaks in cm⁻¹. The spectrum legend – below the spectrum – shows the following entries:

(1) chemical name (2) trivial/trade name (3)source (4) molar mass in g mol⁻¹ (5) use (6) appearance (7) melting point in ^oC

(8) boiling point in \circ C (9) density in $g \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (10) refractive index n_{D} (11) CIE name (12) CIE no. (13) preparation (14) comment

Only those entries are mentioned for each spectrum where the properties are known.

Antioxidants, ageing inhibitors

-
- (3) Freudenberg (Brunne collection)

(13) film from the melt on KBr

-
- (4) 393.7 g mol⁻¹
Antioxidants, ageing inhibitors

 \vert 145

(4) 332.6 g mol⁻¹

(13) layer btw KBr

- (4) 226.2 g mol⁻¹
-

- (2) Vulkanox4020
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 268.4 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant
- (7) 45 °C
- (9) 1.02 g cm⁻³
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) PermanaxDPPD
- (3) Akzo Chemicals
- (4) 260.3 g mol⁻¹
- (6) dark-grey solid
- (13) KBr pellet

-
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 219.2 g mol^{-1}
- (5) antioxidan t
-
- (9) 1.23 g cm⁻³
- (13) KB r pelle t

- (1) **polymer 2,2,4-trimethyl-1,2-dihydroquinoline**
- (2) Vulkanox HS/Pulver
- (3) Bayer
- (5) antioxidant
- (6) yellow to amber-coloured solid
- (7) 75 °C
- (9) 1.07 g cm⁻³
- (13) KBr pellet
- (14) structure shows the monomer unit

- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (4) 227.3 g mol⁻¹
-
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **acetone-diphenylamine condensation product on SiO2**
- (2) PermanaxBWL
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (4) 227.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant (6) black solid
- (13) KBr pellet

Additives with preventive or curative properties

- (3) Monsanto
- (4) 217.3 g mol⁻¹
-
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (2) Stabaxol I
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 362.5 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (3) Eastma n
- (4) $110.1~{\rm g}~{\rm mol}^{-1}$
- (5) antioxidan t
- $(8) 286 °C$
- (9) 1.328 g cm⁻³
- (13) KBr pelle t

(1) **2,6-di-t-butyl-4-methylphenol**

3500.0

2500.0

3000.0

2000.0

1750.0

(2) LowinoxBHT

4000.0

 0.0

- (3) Chemische Werke Lowi
- (4) 220.4 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant
- (6) colourless solid

1250.0

 1000.0

750.0

l/cm

500.0

 (7) 69.2 °C

1500.0

(13) KBr pellet

- (1) **2,4-dimethyl-6- (o-methylcyclohexyl)phenol**
- (2) PermanaxWSL
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (4) 218.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant
- (6) yellowish, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **styrenated phenol**
- (2) Montaclere
- (3) Monsanto
- (5) antioxidant
- (6) yellowish to amber-coloured liquid
- (9) 1.1 g cm^{-3}
- (13) layer btw KBr
- (14) structure shows the monomer unit

(4) 250.4 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

Antioxidants, ageing inhibitors

-
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 340.5 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colourless, crystalline solid
- (7) $127 °C$
- (13) KBr pellet

(5) antioxidant

Additives with preventive or curative properties

 (4) 420.6 g mol⁻¹

Antioxidants, ageing inhibitors

(13) KBr pellet

-
- (4) 424.7 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant

 L_{161}

- (1) $2,2'-i$ -butylidene-bis(4,6-dimethylphenol)
- (2) Lowinox 22 IB 46
- (3) Chemische Werke Lowi
- (4) 298.4 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant
- (6) colourless solid

1/cm

- (7) 155 °C
- (13) KBr pellet

- (1) $bis(4-hydroxyphenyl)$ -2-propane
- (2) BisphenolA
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 228.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant
- (6) colourless crystals
- (7) $158 °C$
- (8) 220 ⁰C/500 Pa

- (2) LowinoxCPL
- (3) Chemische Werke Lowi
- (4) 456.7 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

- (3) Ethyl
- (4) 775.2 g mol⁻¹
- (8) 244 °C
- (13) KBr pellet

 (4) 186.2 g mol⁻¹

- (7) 282 °C
- (13) KBr pellet

Antioxidants, ageing inhibitors

- (1) hydroquinone-bis(2-hydroxyethyl)ether
- (2) Eastman HQEE
- (3) Eastman
- (4) 198.2 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant
- (6) colourless flakes
- (7) 98 °C
- (8) 190 ⁰C/5300 Pa
- (9) 1.15 g cm^{-3}
- (13) KBr pellet

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(4) 530.9 g mol⁻¹

Antioxidants, ageing inhibitors

(4) 586.8 g mol⁻¹

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وی

hydroxyphenyl)propionate) (2) LowinoxPP35

3500.0

(1) pentaerythrityl-tetrakis(3-(3,5-di-t-butyl-4-

3000.0

2500.0

2000.0

1750.0

- (3) Chemische Werke Lowi
- (4) 1178 g mol^{-1}

 0.0

 4000.0

- (5) antioxidant
- (6) slightly yellowish solid

 1250.0

 1000.0

750.0

I/cm

500.0

3428 3626 3642

(7) 115° C

1500.0

(13) KBr pellet

- (1) **2,6-di-f-butyl-4-dimethylaminomethylphenol**
- (2) Ethanox703
- (3) Ethyl
- (4) 263.4 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant
- (6) pale-yellow, crystalline solid
- (7) 94 °C
- (8) 179 ⁰C/5300 Pa
- (9) 0.38 g cm^{-3}
- (13) KBr pellet

(4) 588.9 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

- (4) 784.1 g mol⁻¹
-

- (2) Irganox 1520
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 424.8 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant
- (6) pale yellow, low-viscous, free-flowing liquid
- (9) 0.98 g cm^{-3}
- (13) layer btw KBr

-
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- **(4) 358.SgHiOl-¹**
- (6) colourless solid
- (7) $158 °C$
- (13) KBr pellet

Antioxidants, ageing inhibitors

(4) 642.9 g mol⁻¹

 $\mathsf{I}_{\ 175}$

- (1) **2,4-feis(octylthio)-6-(4-hydroxy-3,5-di-f-butylanilino)- 1,3,5-triazine**
- (2) Irganox 565
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 588.9 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant
- (6) colourless solid
- (7) 93.5 °C
- (13) KBr pellet

Antioxidants, ageing inhibitors

 \vert $_{177}$

- (1) **tris(4,4^f -thio-6fs(2-f-butyl-5-methylphenol))phosphite**
- (2) Hostanox VP OSP 1
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant
- (6) colourless solid
- (7) 110° C
- (13) KBr pellet

(4) 683.2 g mol^{-1}

(13) KB r pelle t

- (1) **fris(nonylphenyl)phosphite**
- (2) Weston TNPP
- (3) Borg-Warner, Parkersburg
- (4) 689.0 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant
- (6) yellow, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

Additives with preventive or curative properties

(4) 604.7 g mol⁻¹

 180

- (2) Weston TPP
- (3) Borg-Warner, Parkersburg
- (4) 310.3 g mol⁻¹
-
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr
PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

 I_{181}

- (5) stabiliser
-

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

12113+1241

- (3) Baerlocher
- (5) stabiliser

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(5) PVC-stabiliser

12113+1241

- (1) **coprecipitate based on Pb phosphite-carboxylate**
- (2) Interstab LF 3638
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (5) stabiliser
- (6) cream-coloured flakes
- (13) KBr pellet

(5) PVC-stabiliser

12113+1241

- **2-basic lead phosphite (1:1)**
- (2) Interstab LT 3631/3
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (6) cream-coloured solid
- (13) KBr pellet

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(3) Baerlocher

-
- (4) 973.8 g mol⁻¹
- (9) 6.6 g cm⁻³
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) Interstab LP 3636
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (5) stabiliser
- (6) cream-coloured solid
- (13) KBr pellet

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(2) Interstab LT 3679

(3) Akzo Chemie

- (6) cream-coloured solid
- (13) KBr pellet

(1) **coprecipitate based on Pb sulfate-phosphite-carboxylate**

- (2) Interstab LF 3734
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (5) stabiliser
- (6) cream-coloured granules
- (13) KBr pellet

(5) stabiliser

(13) layer btw KBr

-
- (3) Baerlocher
- (5) PVC-costabiliser

(13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **p,p'-thiodilaurylpropionate**
- (2) Hostanox Se 1
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 514.9 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

Additives with preventive or curative properties

- (4) 542.9 g mol⁻¹
- (5) stabiliser

(13) layer btw KBr

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(4) 683.2 g mol⁻¹

- **with Ca and Zn stearate**
- (5) PVC-stabiliser
- (6) yellowish solid
- (2) Irgastab A 80
- (3) Ciba-Geigy

- (2) Diphenylthioharnstoff
- (3) commercial
- (4) 228.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) PVC stabiliser
- (6) colourless solid
- (7) 155° C
- (9) 1.32 g cm⁻³
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) Interstab M 823
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (5) stabiliser
- (6) pale-yellowish, clear, viscosus liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (3) Reagen s
- (4) 511.0 g mol^{-1}
- $(7) 100 °C$
- (13) KB r pelle t

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

- (3) Reagen s
- (4) 307.5 g mol⁻¹

(4) 591.3 g mol⁻¹

- (3) Swedstab
- (4) 607.0 g mol⁻¹

Antioxidants, ageing inhibitors

- (2) Barium-Stearat
- (3) Reagens
- (4) 704.2 g mol⁻¹
-
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

- (3) Reagen s
- (4) 679.4 g mol⁻¹
- $(7) 105 °C$
- (13) KB r pelle t

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(4) 679.4 g mol⁻¹

- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (4) 774.2 g mol⁻¹

(4) 1221 g mol^{-1}

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

12411+11213

- (3) Baerlocher
- (5) stabiliser

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(3) Baerlocher

- (2) Interstab PDP-E
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- **(4) 817.SgHiOl-¹**
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(4) 817.8 g mol⁻¹

-
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) Naftovin T
- (3) mg Technologies/Chemson
-
- (4) 343.3 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colourless, fine-crystalline solid
- (9) 2.4 g cm^{-3}
- (13) KBr pellet

Additives with preventive or curative properties

(4) 631.6 g mol^{-1}

-
- (3) Meiste r
- (4) 347.0 g mol⁻¹

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(3) Akzo Chemicals

(13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **dioctyltin maleicester carboxylate**
- (2) Stanclere T 80
- (3) Akzo Chemicals
- (5) stabiliser
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

(1) **dibutyltin thioglycolic acid 2-ethylhexylester mercaptide**

- (2) Stanclere T 160
- (3) Akzo Chemicals
- (4) 607.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) stabiliser
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(3) Akzo Chemicals

(13) layer btw KBr

12422

(4) 607.5 g mol⁻¹

- (3) Hoechst
- (5) PVC-stabiliser
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
-
- (10) 1.499
- (13) layer btw KBr

Additives with preventive or curative properties

- (2) Interstab M 731
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (6) amber-coloured, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

- (3) Baerloche r
- (5) stabiliser-lubrican t

- (3) Swedstab
- (5) PVC-stabiliser

(13) layer btw KBr

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(13) KB r pelle t

(3) Baerloche r (5) stabilise r

 $\frac{1}{211}$

(5) stabilise r

(3) Reagen s

(6) colourles s soli d

- (3) m g Technologies/Chemso n
- (5) PVC-stabilise r
-
- (13) KB r pelle t

(5) stabiliser-lubricant

- (1) **Ca Zn ester carboxylate**
- (2) Irgastab CZ 110
- (3) Ciba-Geigy

(5) PVC-stabiliser

(6) yellowish-white, high-viscous paste

(13) layer btw KBr

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(3) Baerlocher

- (3) Swedstab
- (5) PVC-stabiliser

(13) layer bt w KBr

(13) KBr pelle t

(3) Reagen s
PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

-
- (3) Baerlocher

-
- (13) KBr pellet

Additives with preventive or curative properties

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(5) stabiliser, antioxidant

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(4) 733.1 g mol⁻¹

- (2) Weston 430
- (3) General Electric Chemicals
- (4) 396.5 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

- (2) Weston PDDP
- (3) General Electric Chemicals
- (4) 438.6 g mol⁻¹
-
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(1) 4,4'-f-propylidenediphenol-alkylphosphite

- (2) Weston 439
- (3) General Electric Chemicals

(5) stabiliser

- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

- (3) Ethyl
- (4) 486.7 g mol⁻¹
- (7) 200 $^{\circ}$ C
- (13) KBr pellet

- (1) *bis(2,4-di-* **£-butylphenyl)pentaerythrityldiphosphite**
- (2) Ultranox 626
- (3) General Electric Chemicals
- (4) 604.7 g mol⁻¹
- (5) stabiliser
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

- (2) Hostanox PAR 24
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 646.9 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colourless solid
- (7) 185° C
- (13) KBr pellet

Additives with preventive or curative properties

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

(4) 310.3 g mol⁻¹

(13) layer btw KBr

- (2) Baeropan E-RL 25
- (3) Baerlocher
- (5) stabiliser-lubricant
- (6) colourless granules
- (9) $2 g cm^{-3}$
- (13) KBr pellet

PVC stabilisers and co-stabilisers

- (3) Baerlocher
- (5) stabiliser-lubricant
-
- (13) KBr pellet

- (1) **vinyl-functional poly(dimethylsiloxane) with filler**
- (2) Hitzestabilisator H1 Rot
- (3) Wacker (Brunne collection)
- (5) heat stabiliser
- (6) red-brown paste
- (13) layer on KBr

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Next Page

-
- (5) light stabiliser

- (1) $poly(bis(2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-4-piperidinylimino)-1,6$ hexanediyl-alt-4-t-octylamino-1,3,5-triazine-2,4-diyl)
- (2) Chimassorb 944 FL
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (5) UV -stabiliser
- (6) light-yellow granules, low dusting
- (8) 117.5 °C
- (9) 0.98 g cm^{-3}
- (13) KBr pellet
- (14) sterically hindered amine, HALS

Light stabilisers

- **(1) 2-(2-hydroxy-5-methylphenyl)-2H-benzotriazole**
- (2) TinuvinP
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 225.2 g mol⁻¹
- (5) light stabiliser for PVC, PS, PU, PC and polyesters
- (6) slightly yellowish solid
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) Tinuvin326
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (6) pale yellow solid
- (13) KBr pellet

Light stabilisers

- (1) 1,6-hexanediol-bis-3-(3-benzotriazole-4-hydroxy-**5-f-butyl)propionate**
- (2) Tinuvin840
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 760.9 g mol⁻¹
- (5) UV -stabiliser
- (6) slightly yellowish solid
- (7) 117 \degree C
- (9) 1.22 g cm⁻³
- (13) KBr pellet

Light stabilisers

- (2) Tinuvin234
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (5) light stabiliser for films and fibers
- (6) yellowish solid
- (13) KBr pellet

- (3) Bayer
- (4) 228.3 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

 228 Light stabilisers

(1) 1,6-hexanediol-bis-3-(3-benzotriazole-4-hydroxy-**5-f-butyl)propionate**

3000.0

2500.0

2000.0

1750.0

- (2) Tinuvin840
- (3) Ciba-Geigy

 25.0

 0.0

4000.0

3500.0

(4) 760.9 g mol⁻¹

 (5) UV-stabiliser

1500.0

(6) slightly yellowish solid

1250.0

1000.0

750.0

1/cm

500.0

- (7) 117° C
- (9) 1.22 g cm^{-3}
- (13) KBr pellet

Light stabilisers

- (3) Baerlocher
- (4) 312.4 g mol⁻¹
- (7) 127° C
- (13) KBr pellet

Light stabilisers

(4) 572.5 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

- **monoethylester, Ni-salt**
- (2) Irgastab 2002
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (5) stabiliser
- (6) pale-yellow to green solid
- (13) KBr pellet

Light stabilisers

(2) Antilux 610

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(3) Rhein-Chemie (Brunne collection)

-
- (13) recrystallized film from the melt

(1) **mixture of high-MW paraffins, contains some NH (fatty amine)**

- (2) Antilux 654
- (3) Rhein-Chemie (Brunne collection)
- (5) antiozonant
- (6) white to light-yellow wax
- (13) recrystallized film from the melt

Flame retardants 234

- **contains some ester and NH (fatty amine)**
-
- (6) yellowish wax
- (2) Antilux750
- (3) Rhein-Chemie (Brunne collection)
- (13) recrystallized film from the melt
- **1411 Sb2O³** 100.0 545 743 **%T** 956 1075 1124 75.0 1276 1633 1727 2860 50.0 2930 2962 3102 3430 25.0 0.0 3000.0 4000.0 3500.0 2500.0 2000.0 1500.0 1250.0 1000.0 750.0 500.0 1750.0 **1/cm**(1) **antimony(III) oxide** (5) flame retardant (2) Antimontrioxid Typ Blue (6) solid
- (3) Freudenberg (Brunne collection)

(13) KBr pellet

Flame retardants

(5) flame retardant

Flame retardants

(3) Freudenberg (Brunne collection)

(13) KBr pellet

- (1) **Sb2O3 with chlorinated phosphoric acid ester**
- (2) Firex 5718
- (3) Dr.Th.Boehme
- (5) flame retardant
- (6) white sediment (with dispersant)
- (13) layer btw KBr

Flame retardants

(3) Freudenberg (Brunne collection)

(13) KBr pellet

-
- (2) Cereclor S 52 (Brunne collection)
- (3) ICI Petrochemicals and Plastics
-
- (6) yellowish liquid
- (13) layer on KBr

Flame retardants

- (2) Saytex BT 93
- (3) Ethyl/Saytech (Brunne collection)
- (4) 951.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) flame inhibitor
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

Flame retardants

(3) Dr. Th. Boehme

(13) supernatant liquid btw KBr

- (1) **mixture of oligomeric, chlorinated phosphoric acid ester**
- (2) Tego Antiflamm N
- (3) Th. Goldschmidt
- (5) flame retardant
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (7) 21 °C
- (10) 1.462
- (13) layer btw KBr

Metal deactivators

(4) 294.2 g mol⁻¹

- (3) Baerlocher
- (5) metal deactivator
- (10) 1.464
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (3) Scherin g
- (4) 309.1 $\rm g$ mol⁻¹
-
- (13) KB r pelle t

 $242.$ **Biocides**

- (4) 569.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) biocide

(13) layer btw KBr

(5) biocide

(13) layer btw KBr

(13) layer btw KBr

- (4) 411.2 g mol⁻¹
- (5) biocide

- (2) Preventol A3
- (3) Bayer
- (5) biocide
- (6) colourless solid

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(I)Ba permanganate mixed crystals with Ba sulfate (2) Manganblau

- (5) pigment for thermoplastics
- (6) shining middle-blue solid

(3) Bayer

- (2) Sicomin GeIb L 1625
- (3) BASF
- (5) inorganic pigment
- (11) Pigment Yellow 34
- (12) 7763
- (13) KBr pellet

(1) **Pb chromate-molybdate mixed crystals**

- (2) Sicomin Rot L 3030 S
- (3) BASF
- (5) inorganic pigment
- (6) red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 14
- (12) *7765*
- (13) KBr pellet
- (14) contains some sulfate

(1) **S-containing Na Al silicate**

3500.0

 3000.0

2500.0

2000.0

1750.0

(2) Ultramarin Blau

4000.0

- (3) BASF (Brunne collection)
- (5) inorganic pigment

(6) blue solid

1500.0

- (11) Pigment Blue 29
- (13) KBr pellet, H_2O subtracted

1250.0

1000.0

1/an

 500.0

750.0

Pigments, brightening agents, fillers

Inorganic pigments and fillers

(1) **Co Ni Zn titanate aluminate, inverse spinell**

- (2) Lichtgruen 5 G Standard 9270
- (3) Bayer
- (5) inorganic pigment
- (6) green solid
- (11) Pigment Green 14

 $1/cm$

- (12) 77346
- (13) KBr pellet

(5) filler

-
- (5) inorganic pigment
- (12) 77492
- (13) KBr pellet

Pigments, brightening agents, fillers

Inorganic pigments and fillers

582

643

- (1) **chromium(IH) oxide, corundum structure**
-

(5) pigment for thermoplastics

- (2) Chromoxidgruen GN
- (3) Bayer

(6) green solid

 254 Inorganic pigments and fillers

(1) **Sb Ni Ti oxide**

- (2) Lichtgelb 7 G
- (3) Bayer
- (5) inorganic pigment
- (6) yellow solid
- (11) Pigment Yellow 53
- (12) 77788
- (13) KBr pellet

Pigments, brightening agents, fillers

Inorganic pigments and fillers

- (1) **calcined coprecipitation of CdS and CdSe, extended with BaSO⁴**
- (2) Cadmium Red
- (3) Cerdec
- (5) inorganic pigment for ABS and engineering polymers
- (6) red solid
- (11) Red 108
- (13) KBr

- (2) Hansa GeIb G
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 340.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (11) Pigment Yellow 1
- (12) 11680
- (13) KBr pellet

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 370.4 g mol⁻¹
- (12) 11725
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(4) 386.3 g mol⁻¹

- (2) Hansa GeIb 8G
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 409.2 g mol⁻¹
- (11) Pigment Yellow 82
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

- **arylide-2,4-dimethylanilide**
- (2) Hansa GeIb GR
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 388.8 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) yellow solid
- (11) Pigment Yellow 2
- (12) 11730
- (13) KBr pellet

2211 C₁₆**H**₁₂**Cl**₂**N₄O₄** 100.0 620 752 813 **%T** 892 1139 75.0 1178 1260 1281 1337 1356 50.0 IJ 1403 1442 1479 1504 25.0 1536 1565 1584 1592 1614 0.0 1673 3111 1500.0 1250.0 1000.0 750.0 500.0 4000.0 3500.0 3000.0 2500.0 2000.0 1750.0 1/cm **(1) 4-chloro-2-nitroaniline -> acetoacetic** (5) organic pigment **arylide-2-chloroanilide** (6) yellow solid (2) Monolite Yellow 10 GE (11) Pigment Yellow 3 (3) ICI (12) 11710 (4) 395.2 g mol⁻¹ (13) KBr pellet

 (4) 409.2 g mol⁻¹

Organic pigments

 \mathbf{I}_{261}

(4) 390.8 g mol⁻¹

- (2) Irgalite Yellow WSC
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 848.7 g mol⁻¹
- (6) yellow solid
- (11) Pigment Yellow 61:1
- (12) 13880
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

- (2) Irgalite Yellow WSR
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 976.1 g mol⁻¹
- (11) Pigment Yellow 62:1
- (12) 13940:1
- (13) KBr pellet

(2) Symuler Lake Fast Yellow 6G

Organic pigments

- (3) DIC
- (4) 896.3 g mol⁻¹
- (11) Pigment Yellow 133
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(13) KBr pellet

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 450.3 g mol⁻¹

 I_{265}

-
- (4) 464.4 g mol⁻¹

Organic pigments

 I_{267}

- (1) **2,4-dinitroaniline -> 2-hydroxynaphthoic arylide-2-ethoxyanilide**
- (2) Helio Echtbordo RR
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 501.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) dark-red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 136
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(4) 563.0 g mol^{-1}

(13) KBr pellet

 (4) 454.5 g mol⁻¹

Organic pigments

Organic pigments

Monoazo pigments **2212** $C_{24}H_{18}Cl_{3}N_{3}O_{3}$ 100.0 **%T** 75.0 50.0 **M** 25.0 0.0 500.0 1250.0 4000.0 3500.0 3000.0 2500.0 2000.0 1750.0 1500.0 1000.0 750.0 **(1) 3-chloroaniline -> 2-hydroxynaphthoic (5) organic pigment arylide-2-methoxyanilide (6) orange solid (2) Helio Echtorange G (11) Pigment Orange 4 (3) Bayer (12) 12459** (4) 502.8 g mol⁻¹ **(13) KBr pellet**

- **2-methoxyanilide**
- **(2) Permanent Rot FRLL**
- **(3) Hoechst**
- **(4) 466.3 gmol"¹**
- **(6) red solid**
- **(11) Pigment Red 9**
- **(12) 12460**
- **(13) KBr pellet**

1/cm

- (1) **4-amino-2,5-diethoxybenzanilide -> 2-hydroxynaphthoic arylide-2-methylanilide**
- (2) Helio Echtbrilliantblau RR
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 484.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) blue solid
- (11) Pigment Blue 23
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(4) 565.0 g mol^{-1}

- (12) 12433
- (13) KBr pellet

- **(1) 3-amino-4-methoxybenzanilide -> 2-hydroxynaphthoic arylide-4-chloro-2,5-dimethoxyanilide**
- (2) Permanent Carmin FBB02
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 599.0 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) dark-red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 146
- (12) 12485
- (13) KBr pellet

- (1) **2-amino-4-(2,5-dichloroanilido)benzoic methylester -> 2-hydroxynaphthoic arylide-2-anisidide**
- (2) Novoperm Rot HF 3570
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 643.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) red solid
- (13) KBr pellet

(5) organic pigment

 \mathbf{I}_{275}

2212 $C_{25}H_{20}N_4O_4$ $100.0₁$ 749 925 1011 **%T**1039 1083 75.0 1125 1158 1171 1203 1252 50.0 1283 1327 1367 1449 1457 25.0 1493 1513 1550 1591 0.0 1606 1677 1000.0 750.0 500.0 4000.0 3500.0 3000.0 2500.0 2000.0 1750.0 1500.0 1250.0 1/cm **(1) 4-nitro-2-toluidine -> 2-hydroxynaphthoic** (5) organic pigment **arylide-2-methylanilide** (6) dark-red solid (2) Permanent Bordo FRR (11) Pigment Red 12

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 440.5 g mol⁻¹
-
- (12) 12385
- (13) KBr pellet

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 460.9 g mol⁻¹
- (12) 12335
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(4) 561.6 g mol⁻¹

3000.0

2500.0

2000.0

1750.0

(2) Helio Echtbrilliantrot 3B

 3500.0

(3) Bayer

25.0

 0.0

4000.0

(4) 501.5 g mol⁻¹

(5) organic pigment

1250.0

 1000.0

 750.0

 $1/m$

500.0

(6) red solid

1500.0

- (11) Pigment Red 136
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(4) 487.4 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 627.1 g mol⁻¹
- (12) 12490
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

2-hydroxynaphthoic arylide-2-methylanilide (2) Helio Echtcarmin G

Organic pigments

-
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 612.6 g mol⁻¹
- (6) red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 95
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) Pigmentrot B
- (3) Hoechs t
- (4) 290.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organi c pigmen t
- (11) Pigmen t Re d 1
- (12) 1207 0
- (13) KB r pelle t

Organic pigments

-
- (4) 307.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment

Ċ 0.0 3500.0 3000.0 2500.0 2000.0 4000.0

- (1) **2-chloro-4-nitroaniline -> 2-naphthol**
- (2) Hansa Rot R

50.0

 25.0

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 327.7 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment

(6) red solid

1500.0

1750.0

(11) Pigment Red 4

1250.0

 1000.0

1/cm

 500.0

750.0

- (12) 12085
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(1) **2-methylsulfanilic acid -> 2-naphthol, Ba-salt**

- (2) Lithol Rot RMT
- (3) BASF
- (4) 443.6 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 51
- (12) 15580
- (13) KBr pellet

2500.0

2000.0

1750.0

3000.0

(2) Lackrot C

4000.0

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 420.8 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment

3500.0

(13) KBr pellet

(12) 15585

1500.0

(11) Pigment Red 53

1250.0

1000.0

750.0

1/cm

500.0

- (3) Hoechst
-
- (4) 824.8 g mol⁻¹ (5) organic pigment
- (11) Pigment Red 53:1
- (12) 15585:1
- (13) KBr pellet
Organic pigments

- (4) 307.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
-
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) PV-Rot NCR
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 444.8 g mol⁻¹
- (11) Pigment Red 68
-
- (12) 15525
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

- (1) **1-naphthylamine -> 2-naphthol-5-sulfonic acid, Ca-salt**
- (2) Helio Bordo BL
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 384.4 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) dark-red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 54:1
- (12) 14830:1
- (13) KBr pellet

- (1) **5-chloro-2-phenoxyaniline** -> **2-naphthol-3,6-disulfonic acid, Ba-salt**
- (2) Helio Echtrottoner 3B
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 670.2 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 94
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(5) organic pigment

- (2) Lithol Rot RBKX (Brillianttoner CS)
- (3) BASF
- (4) 416.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (11) Pigment Red 49:2
- (12) 15630:2
- (13) KBr pellet

2214 C18H9ClN2O5Cu 799 100.0 830 1021 **%T**1151 1177 75.0 1203 1227 1244 1270 1296 $cu²$ 50.0 1344 1380 1400 HС 1415 1447 25.0 1478 1512 1553 1578 1596 0.0 1619 3500.0 3000.0 2500.0 500.0 4000.0 2000.0 1750.0 1500.0 1250.0 1000.0 750.0 $1/m$ **(1) 2-amino-5-chlororbenzoic acid -> 2-hydroxynaphthoic** (5) organic pigment **arylide, Cu-salt** (6) brown solid

- (2) Newport Maroon RT-647-D
- (3) Newport
- (4) 420.3 g mol⁻¹
- (11) Pigment Red 55
- (12) 15820
- (13) KBr pellet

- (1) **2-amino-5-chlororbenzoic acid -> 2-hydroxynaphthoic arylide, Mn-salt**
- (2) Maroon Gold IRT-608-D
- (3) Du Pont
- (4) 411.7 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) brown solid
- (11) Pigment Red 55
- (12) 15820
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 412.4 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

- **thoic arylide, Ca-salt**
- (2) Symuler Lake Bordeaux 10 B 310
- (3) DIC
- (4) 460.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) dark-red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 63:1
- (12) 15880:1
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) Maroon Toner BB
- (3) BASF
- (4) 475.4 g mol⁻¹
-
- (11) Pigment Red 63:2
- (12) 15580:2
- (13) KBr pellet

- (3) BASF
- (4) 459.7 g mol⁻¹

Organic pigments

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 464.8 g mol⁻¹
- (12) 15865
- (13) KBr pellet

thoic arylide, Ca-salt (2) Rubine Toner 2BO

3500.0

(1) **5-chloro-4-toluidine-2-sulfonic acid -> 2-hydroxynaph-**

2500.0

2000.0

1750.0

3000.0

(3) ICI

 0.0

4000.0

(4) 458.9 g mol⁻¹

(5) organic pigment

1250.0

1000.0

750.0

3426

1/cm

500.0

- (6) dark-red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 48:2
- (12) 15865:2

1500.0

Organic pigments

- (1) **5-chloro-4-toluidine-2-sulfonic acid -> 2-hydroxynaphthoic arylide, Ba-salt**
- (2) Irgalite Red NBSP
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 556.1 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 48:1
- (12) 15865:1
- (13) KBr pellet

- **thoic arylide, Ca-salt**
- (2) Macatawa Red
- (3) commercial
- (4) 458.9 g mol⁻¹
- (6) red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 52:1
- (12) 15860
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 405.3 g mol⁻¹
- (12) 11781
- (13) KBr pellet

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 453.4 g mol⁻¹

Organic pigments

-
- (12) 11783
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 416.8 g mol⁻¹t

(12) 11780 (13) KBr pellet

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 382.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (12) 11775
- (13) KBr pellet

- **benzimidazolone**
- (2) Hostaperm Braun HFR
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 492.3 g mol⁻¹
-
- (6) brown solid
- (11) Pigment Brown 25
- (12) 12510
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(4) 523.5 g mol⁻¹

(4) 572.6 g mol⁻¹

-
- (13) KBr pellet

- (1) **2,5-dichloroaniline -> 3-methyl-1 -phenyl-5-pyrazolone**
- (2) Hansa GeIb R
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 347.2 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) yellow solid
- (11) Pigment Yellow 10
- (12) 12710
- (13) KBr pellet

- disulfonic acid, Ba-salt
- (2) Vulcanosinviolett BB
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 712.9 g mol⁻¹
-
- (6) violet solid
- (11) Pigment Violet 8
- (12) 18005
- (13) KBr pellet

- **amino-l-naphthol-3,5-disulfonic acid, Ba-salt**
- (2) Vulkanosinrot 5B
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 761.7 g mol^{-1}
-
- (6) red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 67
- (12) 18025
- (13) KBr pellet

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 726.4 g mol⁻¹
- (12) 20040
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

- (1) **3,3'-dimethoxybenzidine -> acetoacetic arylide-2,4 dimethylanilide**
- (2) Vulcan Echtorange GG
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 676.7 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) orange solid
- (11) Pigment Orange 14
- (12) 21165
- (13) KBr pellet

2221 $C_{32}H_{26}Cl_2N_6O_4$ 435 100.0 558 621 **%T** 688 752 784 75.0 809 915 950 1182 50.0 1214 1248 1285 1311 1360 25.0 1447 1490 1511 1552 1596 0.0 1665 500.0 3500.0 3000.0 2500.0 1500.0 1250.0 1000.0 750.0 4000.0 2000.0 1750.0 1/cm **(1) 3,3^f -dichlorobenzidine -> acetoacetic arylide-anilide**

- (2) Permanent GeIb DHG
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 629.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) yellow solid
- (11) Pigment Yellow 12
- (12) 21090
- (13) KBr pellet

- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 657.5 g mol⁻¹
- (12) 21095
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

 $\frac{1}{315}$

(4) 818.5 g mol⁻¹

Organic pigments

Disazo pigments

Organic pigments

 \mathbf{l} 317

(2) Cromophtal GeIb 6G

Organic pigments

- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 957.4 g mol⁻¹
-
- (11) Pigment Yellow 94
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(3) Ciba-Geigy

(13) KBr pellet

 $\frac{1}{319}$

- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 828.9 g mol⁻¹

Organic pigments

(13) KBr pellet

- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 770.5 g mol⁻¹

- (1) **3,3'-dichlorobenzidine -> 3-methyl-l-(3'-tolyl)-5 pyrazolone**
- (2) Permanent Orange RL 70
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 651.6 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) orange solid
- (11) Pigment Orange 34
- (12) 21115
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

- (4) 614.7 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment

- (1) **3,3'-dimethoxybenzidine -> 3-methyl-l,4'-tolyl-5 pyrazolone**
- (2) PV-Rot G 1
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 614.6 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 37
- (12) 21205
- (13) KBr pellet

- (3) BASF
- (4) 739.6 g mol⁻¹

- (1) **1,2-dihydroxy-9,10-anthraquinone (alizarin), Al-Ca lake**
- (2) Krapplack C
- (3) Rubia tinctorum
- (4) 240.2 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 83
- (12) 58000
- (13) KBr pellet
Organic pigments

- (1) $4,4-bis(1-amino-9,10-anthraquinonediyl)$ on $CaCO₃$
- (2) Cromophtal Rot C20
- (3) Ciba
- (4) 444.4 g mol⁻¹
- (5) dispersed organic pigment
- (6) red solid
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) Oracet Yellow GHS
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 424.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) yellow solid
- (11) Solvent Yellow 163
- (12) 58840
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

- (1) **quinizarin-2-sulfonic acid, Al-salt**
- (2) Violett 31372
- (3) commercial
- (4) 346.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) violet solid
- (11) Pigment Violet 5
- (12) 58055
- (13) KBr pellet

22311 **C14H7O7SAl** 618 100.0 947 982 **%T** 1015 1034 1056 75.0 1106 1283 1439 1498 50.0 1534 \circ 1572 ОH o
Il 1613 3369 3391 25.0 3400 $A1^{3+}$ 3412 3430 3435 ċ Ó۴ 3467 0.0 3000.0 2000.0 1500.0 750.0 500.0 4000.0 3500.0 2500.0 1750.0 1250.0 1000.0 1/cm **(1) quinizarin-6-sulfonic acid, Al-lake** (6) violet solid (2) Violett 31372 R (11) Pigment Violet 6

- (3) commercial
- (4) 346.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (12) 58060
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) Violett 31372 B
- (3) commercial
- (4) 425.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
-
- (11) Pigment Violet 7
- (12) *58065*
- **(13) KBr** pellet

Organic pigments

- (2) Cromophtal GeIb AGR
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 599.6 g mol⁻¹
- (11) Pigment Yellow 147
- (13) KBr pellet

(1) **perylene-3,4,9,10-tetracarboxylic acid diimide**

3000.0

 2500.0

2000.0

1750.0

(2) Perindo Violet V4047

3500.0

(3) Harmon

4000.0

 0.0

- (4) 390.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) violet solid
- (11) Pigment Violet 29

1250.0

1000.0

750.0

3042 3156

 $1/cm$

500.0

(12) 71129

1500.0

Organic pigments

 (4) 418.4 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

 $\frac{1}{331}$

(4) 598.7 g mol⁻¹

-
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

- (1) **N)N'-di-3^f)5 l -xylylperylene-3>4,9,10-tetracarboxylic acid diimide with poly(dimethylsiloxane)**
- (2) Wacker HTV-Farbpaste
- (3) Wacker
- (4) 598.7 g mol⁻¹
- (5) dispersed organic pigment
- (6) red paste
- (13) layer on KBr

- (3) ICI
- (4) 464.1 g mol⁻¹
- (6) light-red solid
- (11) Pigment red 168

Organic pigments

- (4) 406.4 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
-
- (13) KBr pellet

 $\frac{1}{335}$

22315 $C_{30}H_{12}Cl_2O_2$ 681 100.0 704 732 **%T** 772 809 888 75.0 $\mathbf c$ 903 951 1028 1149 50.0 1158 || 1272 1294 1316 1373 25.0 1471 1497 C. 1572 ö 1597 1650 0.0 3500.0 3000.0 2500.0 2000.0 1750.0 1500.0 1250.0 1000.0 750.0 500.0 4000.0 1/cm**(1) 6,14-dichloropyranthrone** (5) organic pigment (2) Paliogen Orange L 2640 (6) orange solid (3) BASF (11) Pigment Orange 51 (4) 475.3 g mol⁻¹ (13) KBr pellet

- (3) BASF
- (4) 633.1 g mol⁻¹
- (6) red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 226
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(5) organic pigment

 \vert 337

(5) organic pigment

(14) partially converted into quinhydrone derivative

- (2) Indanthren Brilliant Violett 3B
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 614.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
-
- (11) VAT Violet 9
- (12) 60005
- (13) KBr pellet
- (14) partially converted into quinhydrone derivative

Organic pigments

(4) 355.1 g mol⁻¹

 (4) 623.8 g mol⁻¹

-
- (13) KBr pellet

 \vert 341

- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 637.8 g mol⁻¹
-
- (12) 42800
- (13) KBr pellet

- (1) **N,N^f -l,3-phenylene-bfs(3-iminotetrachloroisoindolin-1-one)**
- (2) Cromophtal GeIb 2RLTS
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 641.9 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) yellow solid
- (11) Pigment Yellow 110
- (12) 56280
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(4) 569.2 g mol⁻¹

- **quinone**
- (2) Permanent Rot TG
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 412.4 g mol⁻¹
-
- (6) red solid
- (11) Pigment Red 194
- (12) 71100
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(4) 312.3 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

 $\frac{1}{345}$

22322 $C_{20}H_{12}N_2O_2$ 448 100.0 483 752 **%T** Ō 1138 1314 1342 75.0 1449 1472 1499 1555 50.0 1585 IJ 1604 1627 2942 2978 25.0 3017 3058 3105 3153 3220 0.0 3261 500.0 1500.0 1000.0 750.0 4000.0 3500.0 3000.0 2500.0 2000.0 1750.0 1250.0 1/cm**(1) 7,14-dioxo-5,7,12,14-tetrahydroquinolino-[2,3-b]acridine,** (5) organic pigment (6) red solid **y-form** (2) Hostaperm Rot E2B 70 (11) Pigment Violet 19 (3) Hoechst (12) 46500 (4) 312.3 g mol⁻¹ (13) KBr pellet 22322 $C_{22}H_{18}N_2O_2$ 419 100.0 557 794 **%T** 810 1121 1145

Organic pigments

(4) 383.2 g mol⁻¹

(5) organic pigment

Organic pigments

- (2) Pigmentschwarz 1
- (3) commercial
- (4) g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) black solid
- (11) Pigment Black 1
- (12) 50440
- (13) KBr pellet

2232 6 $C_{28}H_{12}N_2O_2$ 63 7 100.0 68 6 72 4 **% ^T ;** 78 5 85 6 \circ 90 1 75.0 94 5 115 6 127 1 130 4 50.0 131 6 133 7 142 2 144 6 147 8 25.0 155 3 159 2 166 0 340 6 0.0 3000.0 2500.0 2000.0 1750.0 1500.0 1250.0 1000.0 750.0 500.0 3500.0 l/cm **(1) flavanthrone** (5) organi c pigmen t (2) Monolit e Yellow FR (6) orang e soli d

- (3) IC I
- (4) 408.4 g mol^{-1}

- (3) Ciba-Geig y
- (4) 442.4 g mol^{-1}
- (5) organi c pigmen t
- (11) Pigmen t Blue 60
- (12) 69800
- (13) KBr pelle t

(11) Pigmen t yello w 24

Organic pigments

- (1) 7,**16-dichloroindanthrone**
- (2) Indanthren Blau BC
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 511.3 g mol^{-1}
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) blue solid
- (11) Pigment Blue 64
- (12) 69825
- (13) KBr pellet
- (14) partially converted into quinhydrone derivative

(2) Cromophta l Bla u 4GN P

Organic pigments

- (3) Ciba-Geig y
- (4) 576.1 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organi c pigmen t
- (6) blu e soli d
- (11) Pigmen t Blu e 15: 3
- (12) 74160: 3
- (13) KB r pelle t

- (2) Bayplast Gruen 8HG
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 1394 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (11) Pigment Green 36
- (12) 74265
- (13) KBr pellet (contains H_2O)
- (14) substitution uncertain

- (1) **phthalocyanine, halogenated, metalfree**
- (2) Heliogen Blau LG
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) blue solid
- (11) Pigment Blue 16
- (12) 74100
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

-
- (2) Indanthren Rot FBB
- (3) Hoechst
- (4) 420.4 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) red solid
- (11) VAT Red 20
- (12) 67000
- (13) KBr pellet

-
- (4) 589.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
-
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

- (1) **di-N a fluorescein**
- (2) Urani n A extr a
- (3) commercia l
- (4) 376.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organi c pigmen t

(12) 4535 0

(6) dark-re d soli d (11) Aci d Yello w 7 3

- (3) commercial
- (4) 691.9 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment
-
- (12) 45380
- (13) KBr pellet

(5) organic pigment

- (12) 73000
- (13) KBr pellet

Organic pigments

(5) organic pigment

 I 359

(5) organic pigment

Ci8HioCl202S²

(5) organic pigment
Organic pigments

Polycyclic pigments

- (4) 434.1 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment

(13) KBr pellet

C16H4Cl4O2S² 2234 479 100.0 506 713 **%T** 875 1067 75.0 1112 1133 CI 1178 $C₁$ Ö 1232 1250 50.0 1294 1427 1448 1563 1656 25.0 1798 ö ĊI ĊI on CaCO₃ 0.0 3000.0 2000.0 500.0 4000.0 3500.0 2500.0 1750.0 1500.0 1250.0 1000.0 750.0 1/cm **(1) 4,4^f ,7,7'-tetrachlorothioindigo on CaCO³** (6) dark-red solid (2) Cromophtal Bordo RN (11) Pigment Red 88 (3) Ciba-Geigy (12) 73312 (13) KBr pellet

- (4) 434.1 g mol⁻¹
- (5) organic pigment

- (2) Fanalgelb G supra
- (3) Siegle
- (4) 304.8 g mol⁻¹
- (6) yellow solid
- (11) Pigment Yellow 18
- (12) 49005
- (13) KBr pellet

Polycyclic piaments

(3) Capelle

(5) organic pigment

- (12) 42595:2
- (13) KBr pellet
- (14) only the organic structure is shown

- (3) Siegle
- (5) organic pigment
- (13) KBr pellet
-
- (14) only the organic structure is shown

-
- (5) organic pigment
- (13) KBr pellet
- (14) only the organic structure is shown

Polycyclic pigments

- (5) organic pigment
- (6) red solid

(14) structure of the organic residue only

- (1) **P W-molybdato-complex of Rhodamine 6 G**
- (2) Sieglerosa Extrakt D 443
- (3) Siegle
- (5) organic pigment
- (6) pink solid
- (11) Pigment Red 81:1
- (12) 45160:1
- (13) KBr pellet
- (14) structure of the organic residue only

- **(1) PW-molybdato-complex of Rhodamine B**
- (2) Sieglerotviolett D 445
- (3) Siegle

- (5) organic pigment
- (6) violet solid
- (11) Pigment Violet 1
- (12) 45170:2
- (13) KBr pellet
- (14) structure of the organic residue only

- (9) 1.23 g cm^{-3}
	- (13) KBr pellet, surface roughed
-
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 418.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) fluorescent brightening agent

Inorganic

(4) 100.1 g mol⁻¹

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(5) filler

- (2) Kaolin Argirex
- (3) Kaolin
- (4) 516.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) filler
- (6) light-grey solid
- (13) KBr pellet

Inorganic

(3) Blancs MinEraux

(13) KBr pellet

(4) 516.3 g mol⁻¹

(5) filler

- (2) Apyral B $40E$
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 78.00 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colourless solid
- (9) 2.4 g cm^{-3}
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) Naftolen V 4057
- (3) Chemetall
- (5) rubber plasticiser
- (6) brown liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

Hydrocarbons, chloro-hydrocarbons

(3) Chemetall

(13) layer btw KBr

(5) plasticiser

(13) layer btw KBr

CHO-componnds (without esters)

- (5) plasticiser, educt
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (10) 1.445v
- (13) layer btw KBr
- (14) with ester impurity

Plasticisers, extenders

CHO-componnds (without esters)

- (4) 336.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticiser
-

- (2) Vulkanol FH
- (3) Bayer
- (5) plasticiser
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (9) 1.06 g cm⁻³

(13) layer btw KBr

- (10) 1.57
- (13) layer btw KBr

(3) Freudenberg (Brunne collection)

- (2) Ester KE-25
- (3) Freudenberg (Brunne collection)
- (5) plasticiser
- (6) colourless, viscous liquid
- (13) layer on KBr

- (1) **aliphatic carboxylic acid ester**
- (2) Edenol 194
- (3) Henkel
- (5) plasticiser
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (9) 0.86 g cm⁻³
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (4) 430 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticiser
- (10) 1.446
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (2) Loxiol EP 15
- (3) Henkel
- (5) lubricant
- (7) 87 $^{\circ}$ C
- (9) 0.895 g cm^{-3}
- (13) recrystallised film from melt

-
- (4) 314.5 g mol^{-1}

Esters of saturated di- or polycarboxylic acids

(1) **dioctylazelate**

3500.0

3000.0

2500.0

- (2) Priplast 3018 DOZ
- (3) Unichema Chemie
- (4) 412.7 g mol⁻¹

25.0

 0.0

4000.0

(5) plasticiser

1500.0

1750.0

2000.0

(6) pale-yellow liquid

 1250.0

- (13) layer btw KBr
- (14) 1,9-nonanedioic dioctylester

1/cm

 500.0

 750.0

1000.0

- (2) Edenol 888
- (3) Henke l
- (4) 426.7 g mol^{-1}
- (5) plasticise r
- (10) 1.45
- (13) laye r bt w KB r

Esters of saturated di- or polycarboxylic acids

(4) 258.4 g mol⁻¹

-
- (13) layer btw KBr

Esters of saturated di- or polycarboxylic acids

(6) colourless, clear liquid

Esters of saturated di- or polycarboxylic acids

- (3) Exxon Chemical
- (4) 382.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticiser
- 100.0 (1) **di-i-decyladipate** (2) Jayflex DIDA

(10) 1.453

(13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **mixture of di-i-decyladipate and di-f-decylphthalate**
- (2) Palatinol CE
- (3) BASF
- (5) plasticiser
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

Esters of saturated di- or polycarboxylic acids

(3) Henkel

(5) plasticiser

(13) layer btw KBr

- (2) Witamol 615 MEK
- (3) Huels
- (5) plasticiser
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr
- (14) dissolved in butanone

-
- (5) plasticiser
-
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **poly(l,3-butylene-co-l,2-propylene adipate)**
- (2) Diolpate 214
- (3) Macpherson
- (4) 1150 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticiser
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (10) 1.4674
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (2) Palamoll 652
- (3) BASF
- (5) plasticiser
- (9) 1.055 g cm^{-3}
- (10) 1.464
- (13) layer btw KBr

(3) Unichema

(13) layer on KBr

- (2) Edenol 1800
- (3) Henkel
- (5) plasticiser
- (9) $1,06$ g cm⁻³
- (10) 1,468
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **polyester based on adipic and phthalic acids**
- (2) Uraplast RA5
- (3) DSM
- (5) plasticiser
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (9) 1.12 g cm⁻³
- (10) 1.485
- (13) layer btw KBr

Esters of unsaturated acids, epoxyesters

- (3) Henke l
- (5) plasticise r
Plasticisers, esters Esters of unsaturated acids, epoxyesters

(3) Henkel

(13) layer btw KBr

- (3) Henkel
- (4) 338.6 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticiser
- (10) 1.45
- (13) layer btw KBr

Esters of unsaturated acids, epoxyesters

(4) 330.4 g mol⁻¹

- (3) Reagens
- (4) 383.6 g mol⁻¹
- (9) 0.9 g cm^{-3}
- (13) layer btw KBr

Plasticisers, esters

Esters of unsaturated acids, epoxyesters

- (1) i-alkylepoxystearate
- (2) Edenol B35
- (3) Henkel
- (4) 380 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticiser
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (9) 0.91 g cm⁻³
- (10) 1.457
- (13) layer btw KBr

(4) 600 g mol⁻¹

- (3) Henkel
- (4) 935 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticiser
- (10) 1.473
- (13) layer btw KBr

Plasticisers, esters

Esters of unsaturated acids, epoxyesters

- (2) LankroflexL
- (3) Harcros
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

 $C_{21}H_{32}O_4$ 698 100.0 736 750 **%T** 981 1003 75.0 1062 1080 1142 1171 1215 50.0 1239 1356 1382 1419 1456 25.0 1498 1737 2861 2874 2932 0.0 2959 3500.0 3000.0 2500.0 2000.0 1750.0 1500.0 1250.0 1000.0 750.0 500.0 4000.0 1/cm **(1) benzyloctyladipate** (6) colourless, clear liquid (2) Adimoll BO (8) 245 ⁰C / 1300 Pa (3) Bayer (9) $1 g cm^{-3}$ (4) 348.5 g mol⁻¹ (10) 1.48 (5) plasticiser (13) layer btw KBr 338 **C**₁₃H₂₄O₄S₂ 695 723

- (3) Bayer
- (4) 308.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticiser

Sulfur-containing esters

- (1) mixture of **thiocarboxylic and carboxylic acid** esters
- (2) Vulkanol 81
- (3) Bayer
- (5) plasticiser
- (6) pale yellow, clear liquid
- (9) 0.98 g cm⁻³
- (10) 1.475
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **diethylphthalat e**
- (3) Chrompac k
- (4) 222.2 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticise r (GC-standard)
- (6) colourless , clear liqui d

 (7) 3 °C

- $(8) 298 °C$
- (9) 1.118 g cm⁻³
- (10) 1.502
- (13) laye r bt w KB r

Plasticisers, esters

(6) colourless , clear liqui d

(10) 1.492

(4) 334.5 g mol⁻¹

-
- (13) layer bt w KB r

- (2) Witamo l 107
- (3) Huel s
- (4) 362.5 g mol^{-1}
- (5) plasticise r
- (10) 1.48 6
- (13) layer bt w KB r

Plasticisers, esters

- (3) Chrompack
- (4) 474.7 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

(4) 502.8 g mol⁻¹

- (3) Chrompack
- (4) 250.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticiser (GC-standard)
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

Plasticisers, esters

 (4) 278.3 g mol⁻¹

(5) plasticiser

-
- (3) Dynamit Nobel (13) layer btw KBr
- (4) 390.6 g mol⁻¹
-
-

Plasticisers, esters

(2) Palatinol DINP

4000.0

(3) BASF

 0.0

- (4) 418.6 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticiser
- (6) colourless, clear liquid

(1) **di- i-nonylphthalate**

3500.0

3000.0

2500.0

(8) 257 ⁰C/700 Pa

1250.0

- (9) 0.978 g cm^{-3}
- (10) 1.486

1500.0

 $-C₉H₁₉$

1750.0

Ö

2000.0

- (13) layer btw KBr
- (14) structure of i -nonyl is undefined

1000.0

750.0

1/cm

 500.0

2959 3072

- (2) Jayflex DIUP
- (3) Exxon Chemical
- (4) 474.7 $g \text{ mol}^{-1}$
- (5) plasticiser (PVC)
-
- (9) 0.962 g cm⁻³
- (10) 1.485
- (13) layer btw KBr
- (14) structure of i -undecyl is undefined

Plasticisers, esters

(5) plasticiser

(14) structure of i -tridecyl is undefined

- (2) Witamol 110
- (3) Huel s
- (4) 395 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticise r
- (9) 0.982 g cm⁻³
- (10) 1.48 3
- (13) layer bt w KB r

- (2) Calibration Mixture 84C
- (3) Chrompack
- (5) plasticiser (GC-calibration mixture)
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

-
- (4) 346.4 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticiser

(4) 282.3 g mol^{-1}

- (4) 366.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticise r
- (10) 1.48 6
- (13) layer bt w KB r

Trimellitate esters

- (3) Conde a
- (5) plasticise r
- (9) 1.01 g cm^{-3}
- (13) layer bt w KB r

Plasticisers, esters

Trimellitate esters

(5) plasticiser

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- (4) 592 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticiser
-

- (2) Uraplast W4
- (3) DSM
- (5) plasticiser
- (9) 1.13 g cm⁻³
- (10) 1.514
- (13) layer btw KBr

Plasticisers, esters

Phthalate polyesters

(5) plasticiser

- (2) Paraplex G31
- (3) C.P. Hall, Krahn-Chemie
- (5) plasticiser
- (9) 1.1 g cm^{-3}
- (10) 1.503
- (13) layer btw KBr

(4) 266.3 g mol⁻¹

(13) layer on KBr

(5) plasticiser

Plasticisers, esters

- (2) ReomolTXP
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 410.5 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

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(5) plasticiser

- (1) **i-decyldiphenylphosphate**
- (2) Santicizer 148
- (3) Monsanto
- (4) 390.5 g mol⁻¹
- (5) plasticiser
- (6) colourless, clear, oily liquid
- (8) 245 °C
- (9) 1.066 g cm^{-3}
- (10) 1.504
- (13) layer btw KBr
- (14) structure of i -decyl is undefined

Plasticisers, esters

- (2) Reomol CDP
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (4) 354.4 g mol⁻¹
-
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

Plasticisers: esters, amides

Sulfonate esters, sulfonamides, carbonamides

- (2) Mesamoll
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 368.4, 382.4 g mol⁻¹
-
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

Plasticisers: esters, amides

Sulfonate esters, sulfonamides, carbonamides

(3) Mercura

-
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 213.3 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (3) Th.Boehme
- (5) plasticiser for melt adhesives
-
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **N-(2-hydroxypropyl)benzenesulfonamide**
- (2) Isaplast
- (3) Th.Boehme
- (5) plasticiser for PU, PE, PA
- (6) viscous, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

Processing agents, textile auxiliaries Hydrocarbons and modified hydrocarbons

- (2) Irgawax366
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (5) lubricant
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (9) 0.87 g cm⁻³
- (10) 1.478
- (13) layer btw KBr

(3) Chemson

(13) recrystallised film from melt

- (1) **paraffin** wax **with high melting point**
- (2) Naftolube SP 18 (3) Chemson

(5) lubricant

(6) colourless solid

(13) recrystallised film from melt

- (1) **polyethylene wax**
- (2) Naftolube PEF
- (3) Chemson

(5) lubricant

(6) colourless solid

(13) recrystallised film from melt btw KBr

(5) lubricant

(13) KBr pellet

(3) Chemson
Hydrocarbons and modified hydrocarbons

(5) lubricant

- (3) Baerlocher
- (5) lubricant
- (9) 0.9 g cm^{-3}
- (13) KBr pellet

Fatty alcohols, -alcohol ethers

- (3) Ciba-Geigy
	-

(13) KBr pellet

(4) g mol⁻¹

-
- (13) KBr pellet

Fatty alcohols, -alcohol ethers

- (1) **saturated fatty alcohol**
- (2) Loxiol EP 52
- (3) Henkel
- (5) lubricant
- (6) colourless solid
- (7) 51 °C
- (9) 0.82 g cm⁻³
- (10) 1.436
- (13) recrystallised film from melt

Fatty alcohols, -alcohol ethers 436

(5) lubricant

- (1) **fatty alcohol-ethyleneoxide adduct**
- (2) Tebestat PE 1
- (3) Dr.Th.Boehme

(5) antistatic

(6) yellowish wax

(13) dried i.v., layer btw KBr

(3) Henkel

(13) KBr pellet

- (2) Naftozin N
- (3) Chemetall
- (4) 284.5 g mol⁻¹

(6) waxy solid

(13) recrystallised film on KBr

(4) 284.5 g mol⁻¹

- (3) Baerloche r
- (5) lubrican t

(5) lubricant

(5) lubrican t

(13) KB r pelle t

- (4) 537.0 g mol $^{\rm -1}$
- (5) lubrican t

(5) lubrican t

-
- (3) Baerloche r
- (5) lubrican t

(13) laye r bt w KB r

(5) lubricant

- (1) **glycerol ester of unsaturated fatty acids**
- (2) Swedlub FG-4
- (3) Swedstab
- (5) lubricant
- (6) colourless, clear, oily liquid
- (9) 0.92 g cm^{-3}
- (10) 1.47
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **fatty acid triglycerol ester**
- (2) Realube SI
- (3) Reagens
- (5) lubricant
- (7) 60 °C
- (13) recrystallised film from melt btw KBr

- (2) Hostalub We 4
- (3) Hoechst
- (5) lubricant
- (9) 1.01 g cm^{-3}
- (13) KBr pellet

4133+4139

- (2) Naftolube ELP
- (3) Chemson
- (5) lubricant
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

Processing agents, textile auxiliaries

Carboxylic acids, esters, soaps

4133+3421

- (3) Reagens
- (5) lubricant

4133+4131+4139

-
- (3) Baerlocher
- (6) yellowish solid
- (5) combination lubricant
- (13) KBr pellet

(1) **wax esteralcohol, partial ester of glycerol**

3000.0

2500.0

2000.0

3500.0

- (2) RealubeGMS
- (3) Reagens

 4000.0

(5) lubricant

(6) colourless solid

 1250.0

1000.0

750.0

1/cm

 500.0

(7) $56 °C$

1500.0

1750.0

- (3) Baerlocher
- (5) combination lubricant
- (9) 0.96 g cm⁻³
- (13) KBr pellet

-
- (5) antistatic

- (1) **glycerol partial ester of oleic acid**
- (2) Realube GMO
- (3) Reagens
- (5) lubricant for PVC
- (6) light yellowish, clear liquid
- (7) 25 °C
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (3) Baerlocher
- (5) lubricant
-
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **glycerol partial ester of unsaturated fatty acids**
- (2) Irgawax361
- (3) Ciba-Geigy
- (5) lubricant
- (6) light yellowish, clear, oily liquid
- (9) 0.96 g cm^{-3}
- (10) 1.475
- (13) layer btw KBr

(5) antistatic

(14) contains H2O

- (2) Liga Lithiumsterat
- (3) Peter Greven Fettchemie
- (4) 290.4 g mol⁻¹
-
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) Hostamont NaV 101
- (3) Hoechst
- (5) lubricant
- (7) $170 °C$
- (13) KBr pellet
- (14) contains ester groups

- (3) Peter Greven Fettchemie
- (4) 304.5 g mol⁻¹

Processing agents, textile auxiliaries

Carboxylic acids, esters, soaps

(I)K salts of unsaturated fatty acids (predominantly K oleate) (5) lubricant

(2) RhenodivLE (3) Rhein-Chemie

- (6) yellowish, soft paste
- (13) dried layer on KBr

 (4) 320.6 g mol⁻¹

- (2) Liga Calciumsterat CA 800
- (3) Peter Greven Fettchemie
- (4) 607.0 g mol⁻¹

Processing agents, textile auxiliaries

- (4) 632.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) co-stabiliser

- (1) **Al tristearate**
- (2) Liga Aluminiumsterat TR
- (3) Peter Greven Fettchemie
- (4) 877.4 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

 (4) 615 g mol⁻¹

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(3) Akz o Chemi e

(6) colourles s flakes

- (2) Hostastat FA 14
- (3) Hoechst
- (5) antistatic
- (7) 5° C
- (9) 0.9 g cm^{-3}
- (13) layer btw KBr

(4) 283.5 g mol⁻¹

Fatty amides

- (2) Armid HT
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (6) colourless flakes
- (13) KBr pellet

Fatty amides

(5) lubricant

Adhesion agents

- **(1) 3-(2-aminoethylamino)propyltrimethoxysilane**
- (2) Silane A 1100
- (3) Freudenberg (Brunne collection)
- (4) 222.4 g mol⁻¹
- (5) adhesion promoter between inorganic substances
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (2) Cohedur H 30
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 140.2 g mol⁻¹
- (5) adhesion agent
- (6) colourless solid
- (7) 280 °C
- (9) 1.3 g cm^{-3}
- (13) KBr pellet

Processing agents, textile auxiliaries

Adhesion agents

- (2) Desmodur RF/E
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 465.4 g mol⁻¹
- (9) 1.32 g cm⁻³ (13) dried layer on KBr
- (14) structure is simplified, aliphatic substituents

Blowing agents

(5) adhesion agent, adhesion improver

 (4) 116.1 g mol⁻¹

- (2) Porofor BSH
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 172.2 g mol⁻¹
-
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

Textile auxiliaries

 (4) 406.4 g mol⁻¹

- (2) Meister H 9268
- (3) Meister
- (5) antistatic
- (7) 13 °C
-
- (9) 0.96 g cm⁻³
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (2) Dehydat 3204
-
- (3) Henkel
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (9) 0.95 g cm^{-3}
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **substituted fatty alcohol-ethyleneoxide adduct**
- (2) AtepasK
- (3) Dr.Th.Boehme
- (5) viscosity modifier, plasticiser
- (6) colourless, clear, viscous liquid
- (7) 5° C
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (2) Dehydat 22
- (3) Henkel
- (5) antistatic
- (6) colourless, clear, oily liquid
- (9) 1.033 g cm^{-3}
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **mixture of polyglycol ether and phthalate ester**
- (2) Atepas U
- (3) Dr.Th.Boehme
- (5) viscosity modifier, plasticiser
- (6) yellowish, clear, viscous liquid
- $(7) -10$ °C
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **poly(oxyalkylene)-polysiloxane blockcopolymer**
- (2) Tegostab B 1048
- (3) Th. Goldschmidt
- (5) foam stabiliser
- (6) yellowish, clear liquid
- (9) 1.04 g cm^{-3}
- (13) layer btw KBr

451 558 100.0 583 607 **%T** 671 808 834 $75.0 -$ 883 952 1011 1038 50.0 1099 1187 OH 1250 'n 1295 CH₃ 1352 25.0 1376 1460 1511 1610 2873 0.0 3352 750.0 4000.0 3500.0 3000.0 2500.0 2000.0 1750.0 1500.0 1250.0 1000.0 500.0 1/cm

- **(1) mixture of polyether-modified polysiloxane and surfactant**
- (2) Tegostab B 5055
- (3) Th. Goldschmidt
- (5) foam stabiliser

451

- (6) yellowish, clear liquid
- $(7) -20$ °C
- (9) 1.07 g cm^{-3}
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **poly(oxyalkylene)-polysiloxane blockcopolymer**
- (2) Tegostab B 1400 A
- (3) Th. Goldschmidt
- (5) foam stabiliser
- (6) yellowish, clear liquid
- (9) 1.04 g cm⁻³
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **phosphoric acid ester and ethoxylated fatty alcohol**
- (2) Ruco-Netzer VF
- (3) Rudolf Chemie
- (5) wetting agent for textile dyeing
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (2) Ruco-Egalisierer RF
- (3) Rudolf Chemie
- (6) yellowish, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) **aliphatic esteralcohol**
- (2) Verolan GBK
- (3) Rudolf Chemie
- (5) acid-producing component for acid-dyeing
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

Processing agents, textile auxiliaries

- (5) antistatic
- 453 433 100.0 497 504 **%T** 554 580 75.0 611 753 833 889 951 50.0 1013 1061 R_4 N C 1100 1219 1353 25.0 1377 1466 2854 2924 3350 0.0 3500.0 3000.0 2500.0 2000.0 1500.0 1250.0 1000.0 750.0 500.0 4000.0 1750.0 1/cm
- (1) **modified quaternary ammonium compound with ethyleneoxide adduct**
- (2) Tebestat IK 39
- (3) Dr. Th. Boehme
- (5) antistatic
- (6) darkyellow, clear liquid
- (7) –7.5 °C
- (13) layer btw KBr

Textile auxiliaries

(4) 283.9 g mol⁻¹

- (1) **3-mercaptopropyltrimethoxysilane**
- (2) Silane A 189
- (3) Freudenberg (Brunne collection)
- (4) 196.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) hydrophobing and adhesive agent
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

Processing agents, textile auxiliaries

Crosslinking agents, activators

(4) 249.3 g mol⁻¹

- (2) TAIC DL 70
- (3) Freudenberg (Brunne collection)
- (4) 249.3 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer on KBr

-
-
- (4) 198.2 g mol⁻¹

- (1) 2-ethyl-2-hydroxymethyl-1,3-propanedioltrimethacrylate, (4) 338.4 g mol⁻¹ **trimethylolpropanetrimethacrylate**
- (2) Perkalink400
- (3) Akzo Chemie

- (5) crosslinking agent, co-reactant
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

Processing agents, textile auxiliaries

Crosslinking agents, activators

(5) crosslinking and adhesive agent

(13) layer btw KBr

- (2) Trigonox
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (4) 296.5 g mol⁻¹
- (6) light-yellowish, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (2) TrigonoxT
- (3) Akzo Chemie
-
- (4) 208.3 g mol⁻¹
-
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

(4) 338.5 g mol⁻¹

- (2) Perkadox BC
- (3) Akzo Chemie
-
- (4) 270.4 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colourless granules
- (13) KBr pellet

- (3) Bayer
- (4) 348.3 g mol⁻¹
-
- (13) KBr pellet

-
- (4) 89.13 g mol⁻¹
- (5) curing agent/activator
- (8) $133 135$ °C
- (9) 0.887 g cm⁻³
- (13) layer btw KBr

Processing agents, textile auxiliaries

Crosslinking agents, activators

- (2) Tegoamin BDE
- (3) Th. Goldschmidt
- (4) 160.3 g mol⁻¹
- (5) curing agent/activator, catalyst
- (7) $-80 °C$
- (8) 206 °C (9) 0.902 g cm^{-3}
- (13) layer btw KBr

(6) pal e yellowish , clear liqui d

- (2) Vulkacit 576
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 201.3 g mol⁻¹
- (9) 0.99 g cm⁻³
- (13) layer btw KBr

(4) 211.2 g mol⁻¹

- (3) Bayer
- (4) 239.3 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

- (1) **2-imidazolidinethione, ethylenethiourea**
- (2) Perkacit ETU
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (4) 102.2 g mol⁻¹
- (5) accelerator
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

1750.0

(1) **Zn dimethyldithiocarbamate**

3500.0

3000.0

2500.0

2000.0

(2) Vulkacit L

4000.0

- (3) Bayer
- (4) 305.8 g mol⁻¹

(5) vulcanisation accelerator

1250.0

1000.0

750.0

1/cm

500.0

(6) colourless solid

1500.0

(13) KBr pellet, H_2O subtr.

Vulcanisers, accelerators

(4) 720.6 g mol⁻¹

-
- (2) VulkacitLDA
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 361.9 g mol⁻¹
- (5) vulcanisation accelerator
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet, $H₂O$ subtr.

(5) accelerato r

- (2) Vulkacit ZP
-
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 385.9 g mol⁻¹
-
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

(5) vulcanisation accelerator

- (2) Perkacit ZBEC
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (4) 610.2 g mol⁻¹
-
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

Vulcanisers, accelerators

- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (4) 208.3 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

(3) Akzo Chemie (4) 240.4 g mol⁻¹

- (1) dipentamethylenethiuram tetrasulfide
- (2) PerkacitDPTT
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (4) 384.6 g mol⁻¹
- (5) accelerator
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet
- (14) bis(N-piperidylthiocarbonyl)tetrasulfane

I/cm

500.0

- (3) Freudenberg (Brunne collection)
- (4) 344.6 g mol⁻¹
- (5) vulcanisation agent and accelerator
- (6) yellowish, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (2) Perkacit TBZTD
- (3) Akzo Chemie
-
- (4) 544.8 g mol⁻¹
- (5) accelerator
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) VulkacitN P
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 102.1 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colourles s soli d
- (13) KB r pelle t

- (1) **Zn benzothiazolemercaptide**
- (2) VulkacitZM
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 319.7 g mol⁻¹
- (5) vulcanisation accelerator
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

(4) 332.5 g mol⁻¹

- (1) **2-(thiomorpholino)benzothiazole**
- (2) Perkacit MBS
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (4) 224.4 g mol⁻¹
- (5) accelerator
- (6) yellowish, soft granules
- (13) KBr pellet

Vulcanisers, accelerators

- (2) Vulkacit MDA/C
- (3) Bayer
- (4) $351.8 + 167.2$ g mol⁻¹
- (5) vulcanisation accelerator
- (6) greyish solid
- (13) KBr pellet

(1) **2-mercaptobenzothiazole + tetramethylthiuramdisulfide**

- (3) Bayer
- (4) $167.3 + 240.4$ g mol⁻¹
- (5) vulcanisation accelerator
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

-
- (4) 238.3 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

- (2) Vulkacit CZ/EG-C
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 264.4 g mol⁻¹
- (5) vulcanisation accelerator
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

Vulcanisers, accelerators

(4) 264.4 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

- (1) **N,N'-dicyclohexyl-2-benzothiazolesulfenamide**
- (2) Perkacit DCBS
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (4) 346.6 g mol⁻¹
- (5) accelerator
- (6) colourless, soft granules
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) Rhenocure TP/S (Rhenocure TP + SiO2 2:1)
- (6) colourless solid

(3) Rhein-Chemie

(13) KBr pellet

(4) 81.38 g mol⁻¹

(13) KBr pellet

Vulcanisation activators, retarders

 (4) 125.4 g mol⁻¹

- (2) Aflux S
- (3) Freudenberg (Brunne collection)
- (4) 60.09 g mol⁻¹
- (6) colorless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

Vulcanisation activators, retarders

(2) Rhenofit 1987

(3) Rhein-Chemie

- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr

Vulcanisation agents, rubber auxiliaries

Vulcanisation activators, retarders

- (1) **aromatic-aliphatic sulfonamide**
- (2) Vulkalent E
- (3) Bayer
- (5) vulcanisation retarder
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

Rubber antioxidants, reinforcing agents, peptiser, others

(4) 261.3 g mol⁻¹

- (1) **acetone-aniline condensation product, polymeric 1,2-dihydro-2,2,4-trimethylquinoline**
- (5) ageing inhibitor and antioxidant for vulcanisates
- (6) light-brown solid
- (13) film from the melt btw KBr

(2) Flectol H (3) Monsanto

Vulcanisation agents, rubber auxiliaries

Rubber antioxidants, reinforcing agents, peptiser, others

(4) 363.6 g mol⁻¹

- (2) Vulkanox MB2/MG
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 164.2 g mol⁻¹
- (5) antioxidant
-
- (7) 290 °C
- (9) 1.25 g cm^{-3}
- (13) KBr pellet

Rubber antioxidants, reinforcing agents, peptiser, others

- (1) **H-active mixture, phenol-formaldehyde resin (resol)**
- (2) Vulcabond E
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (5) adhesion agent
- (6) black liquid, dried (solid residue)
- ;i3) KBr pellet

Vulcanisation agents, rubber auxiliaries

Rubber antioxidants, reinforcing agents, peptiser, others

- (1) **poly(butadiene-co-styrene-co-2-vinylpyridineco-amide/acid)**
- (2) Pyratex 240
	- (3) Bayer
- (5) adhesion agent, adhesion improver
- (6) yellowish, clear liquid
- (13) layer on KRS-5

Rubber antioxidants, reinforcing agents, peptiser, others $510¹$

- **(1) 3-chloropropyltriethoxysilane**
- (2) Dynasylan CPTEO
- (3) Dynamit Nobel
- (4) 240.8 g mol⁻¹
- (5) promoter between inorganics, adhesion-improving agent
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

-
- (3) Bayer
- (4) 282.4 g mol⁻¹
- (6) light-grey solid
- (9) 2.3 g cm^{-3}
- (13) KBr pellet

Vulcanisation agents, rubber auxiliaries

Rubber antioxidants, reinforcing agents, peptiser, others

- (1) **poly(oxyethylene)dialkylether**
- (2) Vulcastab LW
- (3) Akzo Chemie
- (5) stabiliser for latex
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

Rubber antioxidants, reinforcing agents, peptiser, others

- (1) **fatty acid ester** + **mineral oil** + **dispersant**
- (2) Struktol WB 700, extract
- (3) Schill & Seilacher
- (5) emulsion plasticiser for rubber processing
- (6) colourless, oily liquid
- (13) solution dried on KBr

- (2) Struktol WB 700
- (3) Schill & Seilacher
- (5) emulsion plasticiser for rubber processing
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

- (1) **hydrophilised fatty acid ester**
- (2) StruktolWB222
- (3) Schill & Seilacher
- (5) emulsion plastificator for rubber processing
- (6) colourless, soft waxy material
- (13) KBr pellet

- (2) Struktol KW 400
- (3) Schill & Seilacher
- (5) plastificator for rubber processing
- (6) colourless solid
- (13) KBr pellet

- (1) **phthalic acid ester**
- (2) Struktol KW 500
- (3) Schill & Seilacher
- (5) plastificator for rubber processing
- (6) colourless liquid
- (13) layer on KBr

Vulcanisation agents, rubber auxiliaries

- (2) Struktol WB 300
- (3) Schill & Seilacher
- (6) colourless, viscous liquid
- (13) layer on KBr
- (5) plastificator for rubber processing, additive to nitrile rubber

- (2) Baerorapid 10 F
- (3) Baerlocher
- (5) acrylate-modifier
- (9) 1.2 g cm^{-3}
- (13) KBr pellet

Rubber antioxidants, reinforcing agents, peptiser, others

(5) foam-stabiliser during the production of highly elastic polyurethane expanded rubber

- (1) poly(oxypropylene)-b-poly(dimethylsiloxane)
- (2) Tegostab B 1651
- (3) Goldschmidt
- (5) stabiliser for the production of polyether-urethane expanded rubber
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

Vulcanisation agents, rubber auxiliaries

Rubber antioxidants, reinforcing agents, peptiser, others

- (1) poly(oxypropylene)-b-poly(oxyethylene)-b**poly(dimethylsiloxane)**
- (2) Tegostab B 2219
- (3) Goldschmidt
- (5) foam-stabiliser for the production of polyurethane expanded hard-rubber
- (6) colourless, clear liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (1) poly(oxyethylene)-b-poly(oxypropylene)-b**poly(dimethylsiloxane)**
- (2) Tegostab B 8425
- (3) Goldschmidt
- (5) foam-stabiliser during the production of polyurethane expanded hard-rubbers
- (6) colourless, clear, viscous liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

Rubber antioxidants, reinforcing agents, peptiser, others

- (1) poly(oxyethylene)-b-poly(oxypropylene)**fr-poly(dimethylsiloxane)**
- (2) Tegostab B 8404
- (3) Goldschmidt
- (5) additive for the production of polyurethane expanded hard-rubber, stable against hydrolysis
- (6) colourless, clear, viscous liquid
- (13) layer btw KBr

- (3) Baerlocher
- (5) antiblocking agent

(13) KBr pellet

- (3) Baerlocher
- (5) antiblocking agent

(13) KBr pellet

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