

Fast Solvent Screening via Quantum Chemistry: COSMO-RS Approach

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COSMO-RS, a general and fast methodology for the a priori prediction of thermophysical data of liquids is presented. It is based on cheap unimolecular quantum chemical calculations, which, combined with exact statistical thermodynamics, provide the information necessary for the evaluation of molecular interactions in liquids. COSMO-RS is an alternative to structure interpolating group contribution methods. The method is independent of experimental data and generally applicable. A methodological comparison with group contribution methods is given. The applicability of the COSMO-RS method to the goal of solvent screening is demonstrated at various examples of vapor-liquid-, liquid-liquid-, solid-liquid-equilibria and vapor-pressure predictions.

Introduction

A large part of chemical engineering critically depends upon the knowledge of the thermophysical data of solutions or mixtures of liquids (for example, separation processes like distillation, liquid-liquid extraction, dissolution of solids, crystallization from solution, extractive distillation, membrane processes, absorption, and adsorption, but also the description of a chemicals environmental fate). For all of the processes just mentioned it is highly desirable to choose an optimum solvent or solvent mixture. Criteria for such an "optimal" solvent can be the cost of the process technology (cost of heating/cooling, simpler or more robust processing technology, product quality) as well as the cost aspects of the environmental, health, and safety properties of the process. Numerous industrial solvents and solvent mixtures are available (Flick, 1991; Gessner, 1996; Marcus, 1998). Theoretical-computational models can be valuable tools for the estimation of the thermodynamic properties of solutions and mixtures, thus reducing the time, resources, and overall cost of the screening of a large number of solvents. The correct description of the dependence on composition, temperature, and pressure in multicomponent systems requires reliable thermodynamic models. One can distinguish two approaches to solvent screening: First, methods based upon inter- or extrapolation of a given set of experimental thermodynamic data of the system. Activity-coefficient models (for example, the NRTL model or UNIQUAC) and equation-of-state models (for example, the Soave-Redlich-Kwong or the Peng-

Robinson equations of state) belong to this class. An overview of these methods is given by Sandler (1998), Prausnitz et al. (1999) and Reid et al. (1987). Basically, these methods all involve the fitting of some set of experimental data to a given functional form. The thermodynamic information subsequently is inter- or extrapolated from that functional form. Second, there are methods that are independent of experimental thermodynamic data of the given solutions or mixtures. Estimates are obtained from molecular structure information only. Examples for the second approach are group-contribution methods (GCMs) (Fredenslund et al., 1975, 1977; Gmehling, 1998). GCMs are based on interaction parameters that have been obtained previously by analysis of the phase-equilibrium data of systems containing the same functional groups. Furthermore, the UNIQUAC model has been shown to be independent of experimental data for polar/polar mixture cases when information from quantum chemical calculations is used (Lin and Sandler, 1999). A related model is COSMO-RS, the "the conductor like screening model for real solvents" (Klamt, 1995), which is based upon unimolecular quantum chemical calculations of the individual species in the system (that is, not of the mixture itself). Predictive methods often are indispensable for chemical engineers in the synthesis and design of chemical processes and plants. They are especially well suited for the task of solvent screening if reliable experimental data for a system is missing or not available at affordable cost.

This article mainly concentrates on the second approach to solvent screening. The next section presents the COSMO-RS

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method and gives a methodical comparison of COSMO-RS with the perhaps most prominent group-contribution method, UNIFAC (Fredenslund et al., 1977). The third section presents applications of COSMO-RS to problems of chemical and engineering thermodynamics such as vapor–liquid equilibria (VLE), liquid–liquid equilibria (LLE), and solid–liquid equilibria (SLE).

COSMO-RS and UNIFAC

Group contribution methods/UNIFAC

Group contribution methods are currently the most reliable and most widely accepted way of predicting activity coefficients and other thermophysical data of compounds in liquid multicomponent mixtures without explicit use of experimental mixture data. The “UNIQuac Functional group Activity Coefficient” (UNIFAC) model (Fredenslund et al., 1977) and its modified versions UNIFAC-Dortmund (Do) (Weidlich and Gmehling, 1987) and UNIFAC-Lyngby (Ly) (Larsen et al., 1987) are probably the most accurate of such group-contribution methods. The theory of UNIFAC has been summarized in an excellent way by Sandler (1998). Recent developments in the field of GCMs have been reviewed by Gmehling (Gmehling, 1998).

GCMs are based on the assumption that, with appropriately defined groups, the interaction energy of any system can be well approximated by the sum of functional group interaction energies, that is, a liquid is not considered a mixture of interacting molecules, but a mixture of interacting structural groups. Thus, the number of possibly interacting species is greatly reduced and a moderate number of parameters can be used to predict properties of a relatively wide variety of systems. The introduction of interacting groups also leads to the predictive properties of the GCMs: experimental VLE data of binary mixtures as well as other experimental thermodynamic data (such as activity coefficients in infinite dilution, LLE, and SLE data) are used to fit the interaction parameters of the groups that occur in these systems. The resulting group-interaction parameters can be used to predict the properties of other systems if all compounds in the system can be built from the same functional groups. This is the main difference between the GCM UNIFAC and the UNIQUAC model, which is—although algebraically equivalent to UNIFAC—based on molecular interactions.

In practice, the first step in the application of the UNIFAC method is the splitting of the molecules into functional subgroups. The activity coefficient of the system is built by summing up all of the activity coefficients of the fragment groups. The activity coefficients of a species i in a mixture is built from two contributions

$$\ln \gamma_i = \ln \gamma_i^C + \ln \gamma_i^R. \quad (1)$$

The first term, the combinatorial contribution $\ln \gamma_i^C$ accounts for the size and shape differences of the groups

$$\ln \gamma_i^C = 1 - V_i + \ln V_i - 5q_i \left[1 - \frac{V_i}{F_i} + \ln \left(\frac{V_i}{F_i} \right) \right]. \quad (2)$$

Parameters V_i and F_i are given as

$$V_i = \frac{r_i}{\sum r_j x_j}, \quad F_i = \frac{q_i}{\sum q_j x_j},$$

where

$$r_i = \sum R_k \nu_k^{(i)} \quad \text{and} \quad q_i = \sum Q_k \nu_k^{(i)} \quad (3)$$

where $\nu_m^{(j)}$ is the number of groups of type m in compound j , Q_k denotes the relative surface area, and R_k is the group volume of group k .

The residual contribution to the activity coefficient $\ln \gamma_i^R$ is computed from

$$\ln \gamma_i^R = \sum_k \nu_k \left[\ln \Gamma_k - \ln \Gamma_k^{(i)} \right]. \quad (4)$$

The residual contribution to the logarithm of the activity coefficient of group k in the mixture and in the pure compound (group activity factors $\ln \Gamma_k$ and $\ln \Gamma_k^{(i)}$) are given as

$$\ln \Gamma_k = Q_k \left[1 - \ln \left(\sum_m \Theta_m \Psi_{mk} \right) - \sum_m \frac{\Theta_m \Psi_{km}}{\sum_n \Theta_m \Psi_{nm}} \right]. \quad (5)$$

The surface fraction Θ_m and mol fraction X_m of group m in the mixture are calculated from

$$\Theta_m = \frac{X_m Q_m}{\sum_n X_n Q_n} \quad \text{and} \quad X_m = \frac{\sum_j \nu_m^{(j)} x_j}{\sum_j \sum_n \nu_n^{(j)} x_j}. \quad (6)$$

Finally, Ψ_{mn} is defined as

$$\Psi_{mn} = \exp \left(- \frac{a_{mn}}{T} \right), \quad (7)$$

where the a_{mn} are the group-interaction parameters between two groups m and n . In *mod*-UNIFAC (Do), Eq. 7 is replaced by a more elaborate term that holds two additional temperature-dependent group interaction parameters for each group m and n (Weidlich and Gmehling, 1987). The group-interaction parameters a_{mn} are obtained from fitting of the experimental VLE data of the molecules containing the considered groups. For *mod*-UNIFAC (Do), the fitting procedure also included LLE and SLE data (Gmehling et al., 1993, 1998). As is clear from Eq. 7, the performance of UNIFAC critically depends upon the availability and quality of the group interaction parameters. Although a considerable amount of work by various research groups is devoted to the preparation of group-interaction parameters, the matrix of available a_{mn} still shows conspicuous gaps, for example, for the description of fluorinated compounds or amines (Gmehling et al., 1998). In addition, as has been shown elsewhere (Klamt and Eckert, 2000), Eq. 5 is based on a mean field assumption, which leads to errors if strongly interacting

groups are considered in high or infinite dilution. It is also responsible for the poor performance of UNIFAC in the predictions of octanol–water partition coefficients, which permit an estimate of a chemicals environmental fate. This problem of UNIFAC eventually could be met by special parameterizations for the prediction of activity coefficients in infinite dilution and for octanol–water partition coefficients (Wienke and Gmehling, 1998)—however, at the cost of a further reduction of the generality of the approach.

COSMO-RS

In comparison to GCMs, the COSMO-RS approach to chemical thermodynamics starts from a completely different point of view, namely from the complete molecule or, to be more precise, from the molecular surface as computed by quantum chemical methods (QM). COSMO-RS combines an electrostatic theory of locally interacting molecular surface descriptors (which are available from QM calculations) with an exact statistical thermodynamics methodology (which, as will be shown, holds some similarities to UNIFAC statistical thermodynamics).

The quantum chemical basis of COSMO-RS is COSMO, the “Conductor-like Screening Model” (Klamt and Schüürmann, 1993), which belongs to the class of QM continuum solvation models (CSMs). In general, basic quantum chemical methodology describes isolated molecules at a temperature of $T = 0$ K, allowing a realistic description only for molecules in vacuum or in the gas phase. CSMs are an extension of the basic QM methods toward the description of liquid phases. CSMs describe a molecule in solution through a quantum chemical calculation of the solute molecule with an approximate representation of the surrounding solvent as a continuum (Tomasi and Persico, 1994; Cramer and Truhlar, 1995, 1999). Either by solution of the dielectric-boundary condition or by solution of the Poisson–Boltzmann equation, the solute is treated as if embedded in a dielectric medium via a molecular surface or “cavity” that is constructed around the molecule. Here, the macroscopic dielectric constant of the solvent is normally used. COSMO is a quite popular model based on a slight approximation, which in comparison to other CSMs achieves superior efficiency and robustness of the computational methodology (Klamt and Schüürmann, 1993; Klamt, 1998). The COSMO model is available in several quantum chemistry program packages: Turbomole (Schäfer et al., 2000), DMOL3 (Andzelm et al., 1995), GAMESS-US (Baldridge et al., 1998), and Gaussian (Frisch et al., 2001). If combined with accurate QM, CSMs have been proven to produce reasonable results for properties like Henry law constants or partition coefficients (Cramer and Truhlar, 1999). However, as has been shown elsewhere (Klamt, 1995, 1998), the continuum description of CSMs is based on an erroneous physical concept: the macroscopic dielectric continuum theory is a linear response theory, while the electric fields on molecular surfaces of polar molecules are so strong that the major part of the polarizable continuum (that is, the “solvent”) does not behave linearly. This leads to saturation effects that cannot be captured by the linear response theory. The success of CSMs in some areas of application is for different reasons (Klamt, 1998). In addition, concepts of temperature and mixture are missing in CSMs.

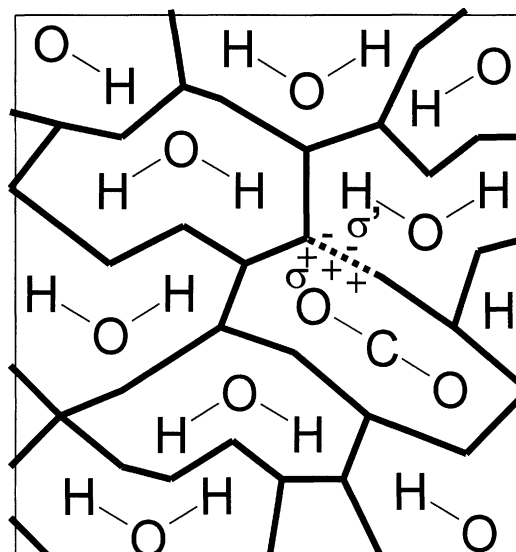


Figure 1. COSMO-RS view of surface-contact interactions of molecular cavities.

COSMO-RS, the COSMO theory for “real solvents” goes far beyond simple CSMs in that it integrates concepts from quantum chemistry, dielectric continuum models, electrostatic surface interactions and statistical thermodynamics. Still, COSMO-RS is based upon the information that is evaluated by QM-COSMO calculations. Basically, QM-COSMO calculations provide a discrete surface around a molecule embedded in a virtual conductor (Klamt and Schüürmann, 1993). Of this surface each segment i is characterized by its area, a_i , and the screening charge density (SCD), σ_i , on this segment, which takes into account the electrostatic screening of the solute molecule by its surroundings (which in a virtual conductor is perfect screening) and the back-polarization of the solute molecule. In addition, the total energy of the ideally screened molecule, E_{COSMO} , is provided. Within the COSMO-RS theory, a liquid is now considered an ensemble of closely packed ideally screened molecules, as shown in Figure 1. In order to achieve this close packing, the system has to be compressed, and thus the cavities of the molecules get slightly deformed (although the volume of the individual cavities does not change significantly). As is visible in Figure 1, each piece of the molecular surface is in close contact with another piece. Assuming that there still is a conducting surface between the molecules, that is, that each molecule still is enclosed by a virtual conductor, in a contact area the surface segments of both molecules have net SCDs σ and σ' (compare Figure 1). In reality there is no conductor between the surface contact areas. Thus an electrostatic interaction arises from the contact of two different SCDs. The specific interaction energy per unit area resulting from this “misfit” of SCDs is given by

$$E_{\text{misfit}}(\sigma, \sigma') = a_{\text{eff}} \frac{\alpha'}{2} (\sigma + \sigma')^2, \quad (8)$$

where a_{eff} is the effective contact area between two surface segments, and α' is an adjustable parameter. The basic as-

sumption of Eq. 8 (which is the same as in other surface-pair models like UNQUAC) is that residual nonsteric interactions can be described by pairs of geometrically independent surface segments. Thus, the size of the surface segments a_{eff} has to be chosen in a way that it effectively corresponds to a thermodynamically independent entity. There is no simple way to define a_{eff} from first principles, and it must be considered to be an adjustable parameter (Klamt et al., 2002). Obviously, if σ equals $-\sigma'$, the misfit energy of a surface contact will vanish. Hydrogen bonding (HB) can also be described by the two adjacent SCDs. HB donors have a strongly negative SCD, whereas HB acceptors have strongly positive SCDs. Generally, a HB interaction can be expected if two sufficiently polar pieces of surface of opposite polarity are in contact. Such a behavior can be described by a functional of the form

$$E_{HB} = a_{\text{eff}} c_{HB} \min \left[0; \min (0; \sigma_{\text{donor}} + \sigma_{HB}) \right. \\ \left. \max (0; \sigma_{\text{acceptor}} - \sigma_{HB}) \right], \quad (9)$$

where c_{HB} and σ_{HB} are adjustable parameters. In addition to electrostatic misfit and HB interactions, COSMO-RS also takes into account van der Waals (vdW) interactions between surface segments via

$$E_{vdW} = a_{\text{eff}} (\tau_{vdW} + \tau'_{vdW}), \quad (10)$$

where τ_{vdW} and τ'_{vdW} are element-specific adjustable parameters. The vdW energy is dependent only on the element type of the atoms that are involved in surface contact. It is spatially nonspecific. E_{vdW} is an additional term to the energy of the reference state in solution. Currently nine of the vdW parameters (for elements H, C, N, O, F, S, Cl, Br, and I) have been optimized (see below). For the majority of the remaining elements reasonable guesses are available (Klamt et al., 1998).

The link between the microscopic surface-interaction energies and the macroscopic thermodynamic properties of a liquid is provided by statistical thermodynamics. Since in the COSMO-RS view all molecular interactions consist of local pairwise interactions of surface segments, the statistical averaging can be done in the ensemble of interacting surface pieces. Such an ensemble averaging is computationally efficient, especially in comparison to the computationally very demanding molecular dynamics or Monte Carlo approaches, which require averaging over an ensemble of all possible different arrangements of all molecules in the liquid. As a result, the computational effort of a COSMO-RS calculation is not significantly higher than that of a UNIFAC calculation. To describe the composition of the surface-segment ensemble with respect to the interactions (which depend on σ only), only the probability distribution of σ has to be known for all compounds, X_i . Such probability distributions, $p^X(\sigma)$, are called “ σ -profiles.” The σ -profile of the whole system/mixture $p_S(\sigma)$ is just a sum of the σ -profiles of the components X_i weighted with their mol fraction in the mixture x_i

$$p_S(\sigma) = \sum_{i \in S} x_i p^{X_i}(\sigma). \quad (11)$$

The chemical potential of a surface segment with SCD σ in an ensemble described by normalized distribution function $p_S(\sigma)$ is exactly given by

$$\mu_S(\sigma) = -\frac{RT}{a_{\text{eff}}} \ln \left[\int p_S(\sigma') \exp \left\{ \frac{a_{\text{eff}}}{RT} \left[\mu_S(\sigma') \right. \right. \right. \\ \left. \left. \left. - E_{\text{misfit}}(\sigma, \sigma') - E_{HB}(\sigma, \sigma') \right] \right\} d\sigma' \right], \quad (12)$$

where $\mu_S(\sigma)$ is a measure for the affinity of the system S to a surface of polarity σ . It is a characteristic function of each system and is called “ σ -potential.” Please note that E_{vdW} is not included in Eq. 12 (not part of the statistical averaging) because it is not a function of individual surface contacts. Instead, E_{vdW} is added to the reference energy in solution *a posteriori*. Equation 12 is an implicit equation. It must be solved iteratively. This is done in milliseconds on any PC. Thus COSMO-RS computations of thermodynamic properties are very fast (see the section on applications). It should be stressed that in contrast to the statistical averaging in UNIFAC (Eq. 5), which is based on a mean-field approximation, Eq. 12 is exact, thus avoiding errors in the calculation of properties at very small concentrations. A detailed description and a rationale of this statistical averaging procedure are given by Klamt (1995). A detailed analysis of COSMO-RS's statistical thermodynamics as well as a proof of its thermodynamic rigidity is given by Klamt et al. (2002). The chemical potential (the partial Gibbs free energy) of compound X_i in system S is readily available from integration of the σ -potential over the surface of X_i

$$\mu_S^{X_i} = \mu_{C,S}^{X_i} + \int p^{X_i}(\sigma) \mu_S(\sigma) d\sigma, \quad (13)$$

where $\mu_{C,S}^{X_i}$ is a combinatorial contribution to the chemical potential. It contains one adjustable parameter, λ_C

$$\mu_{C,S}^{X_i} = \frac{\partial G_{C,S}}{\partial N_i}$$

where

$$G_{C,S} = -NkT\lambda_C \left[\sum_i \sin^2 \left(\frac{X_i \pi}{2} \right) \ln \left(\frac{A_i}{A_0} \right) + \ln(A_0) \right]. \quad (14)$$

Please note, that the chemical potential of Eq. 13 is a “pseudo-chemical potential,” which is the standard chemical potential minus $RT \ln(x_i)$ (Ben-Naim, 1987). The chemical potential μ_S of Eq. 13 allows for the prediction of almost all thermodynamic properties of compounds or mixtures, such as activity coefficients, excess properties, or partition coefficients and solubility. The course of a COSMO-RS calculation is illustrated in Figure 2. The starting point is always a QM-COSMO calculation. However, the time-consuming QM-COSMO calculations have to be done only once for each compound. The results of the QM-COSMO calculations (that

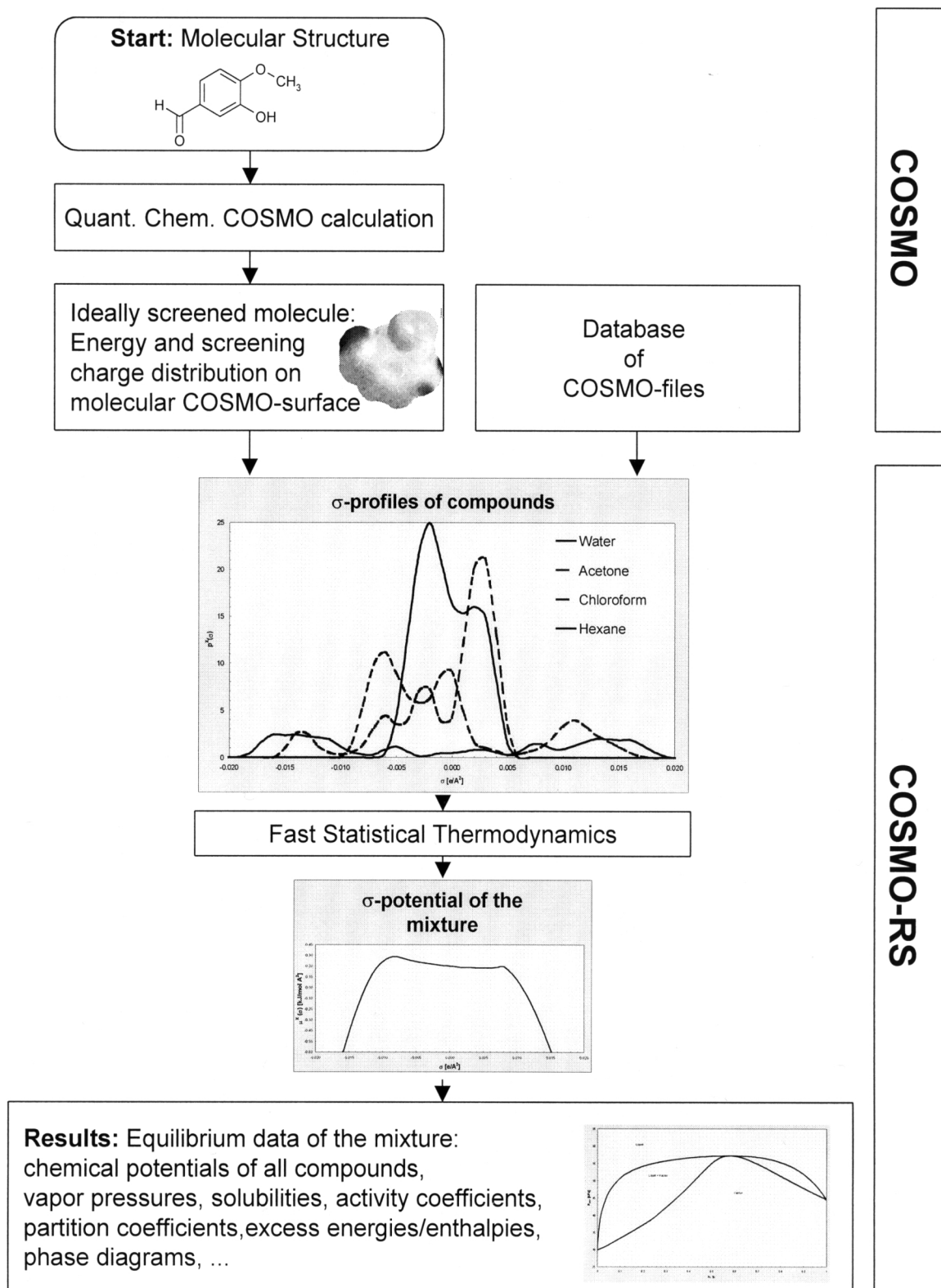


Figure 2. COSMO-RS calculation of thermodynamic properties.

is, the charge distribution on the molecular surface) can be stored in a database. COSMO-RS then can be run from a database of stored QM-COSMO calculations. Thus COSMO-RS is well suited for the task of screening large

numbers of solvents or solutes if an appropriate database of QM-COSMO calculations is available.

The COSMO-RS representations of molecular interactions, namely the σ -profiles and σ -potentials of compounds

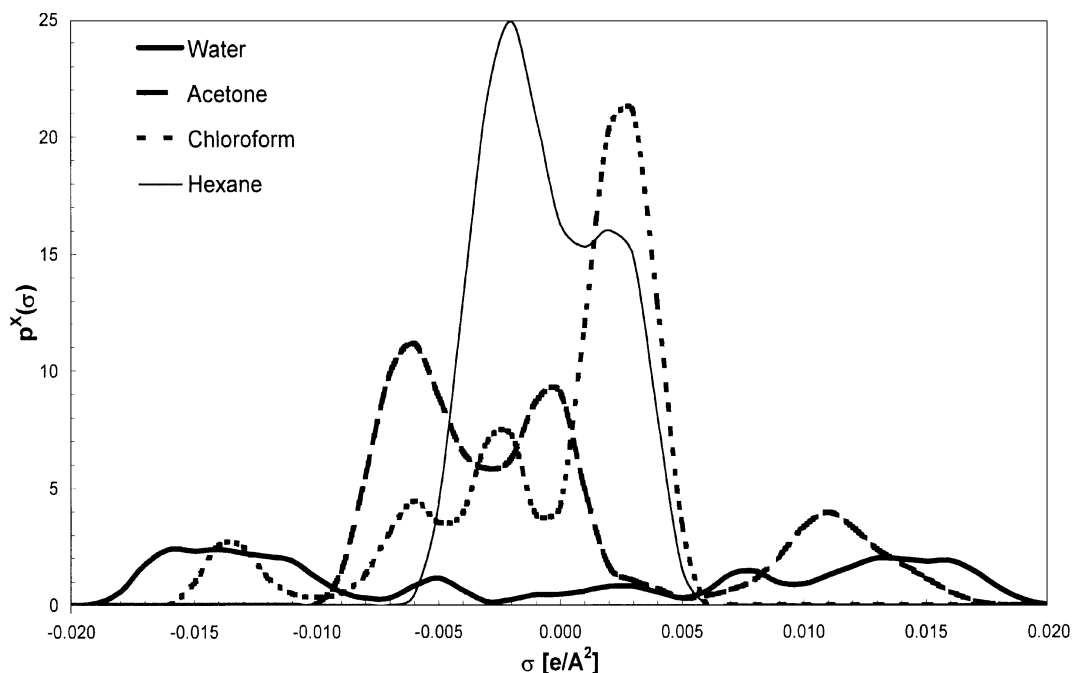


Figure 3. σ -Profiles of the solvents water, acetone, chloroform, and hexane.

and mixtures, respectively, contain valuable information—qualitatively as well as quantitatively. Figures 3 and 4 show the σ -profiles and the room temperature σ -potentials of the four solvents water, acetone, chloroform, and hexane, respectively. Of these, hexane is the least polar compound. This is reflected in the narrow distribution of the charge densities around zero in Figure 3. The two peaks can be assigned to

the carbon atoms for positive σ and to the hydrogen atoms for negative σ values. (Please keep in mind that negative partial charges of atoms cause positive screening charge densities and vice versa.) The corresponding σ -potential, which is a measure for the affinity of the solvent to a molecular surface of polarity, σ , is a simple parabola centered at $\sigma = 0$ (see Figure 4). Such a shape arises from misfit contributions

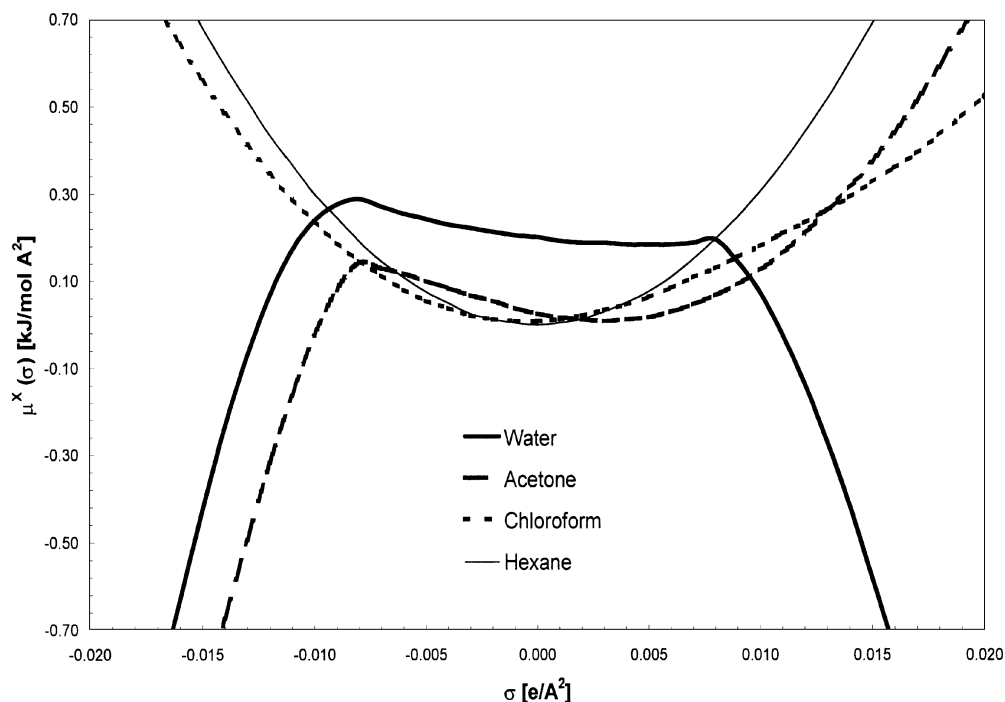


Figure 4. σ -Potentials of the solvents water, acetone, chloroform, and hexane at $T = 298.15$ K.

only (no hydrogen bonding) and is equivalent to purely dielectric behavior. The other extreme is represented by the σ -profile of water: it is very broad and the probability for σ is almost zero at the center of the σ -profile. The broad peak around $-0.015 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$ arises from the two very polar hydrogen atoms, whereas the peak around $+0.015 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$ results from the lone pairs of the oxygen. This reflects the excellent ability of water to act as a donor as well as an acceptor for hydrogen bonding.

In addition, such a symmetric shape of the σ -profile indicates a favorable electrostatic interaction of water with itself, explaining its high boiling point and surface tension. The corresponding σ -potential has a much higher value around zero, reflecting an unfavorable interaction with nonpolar surface. This is reflected in the much stronger hydrophilicity of water in comparison to hexane. The shape of the outer regions of the σ -potential is due to hydrogen bonding: if a hydrogen-bond donor in another compound has an SCD that is greater than $0.01 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$, or if a hydrogen-bond acceptor has an SCD that is below $-0.01 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$, it can build hydrogen bonds with water. The σ -profile of acetone is not symmetric. The peak at $+0.012 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$ resulting from the carbonyl oxygen indicates hydrogen-bonding acceptor capacity. However, unlike water there is no corresponding peak in the hydrogen-bonding donor area. Therefore, the interaction of acetone with itself is very unfavorable, explaining its relatively low boiling point and surface tension. This is also reflected in the σ -potential: while on the positive side it shows almost parabolic behavior (no-hydrogen bonding donor capacity), on the negative side it quickly becomes strongly negative.

Compared to water, the hydrogen-bonding acceptor capacity of acetone is stronger, which is reflected in the smaller σ -values at which the σ -potential becomes negative. The σ -profile of chloroform shows three peaks in the region around zero that derive from the chlorine atoms. The peak at $-0.013 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$ correspond to an acidic hydrogen atom. However, due to the quite small area of this peak, no significant hydrogen-bonding donor capacity can be expected from this hydrogen atom. This is clearly visible from the σ -potential, which does not become negative in the region of large positive σ values. As for the acetone, the asymmetric shape of the σ -profile indicates an unfavorable interaction of chloroform with itself, again resulting in a relatively low boiling point. It should be noted that the σ -profiles of acetone and chloroform are almost complementary in the region of misfit interactions (for σ values between -0.008 and $+0.008 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$). This means that they should mix quite favorably. This is in fact the case, as can be seen from the strongly negative excess enthalpy of acetone–chloroform mixtures (see also the subsection on vapor–liquid equilibria). To sum up, one can say that σ -profiles and σ -potentials can be used to qualitatively interpret the interactions in a compound or a mixture, for example, to assert a certain solvent or cosolvent that has a certain effect on the activities in a solution or mixture.

In addition to the prediction of the thermodynamics of liquids and unlike GCMs COSMO-RS is also able to provide a reasonable estimate of a pure compound's chemical potential in the gas phase

$$\mu_{\text{Gas}}^{X_i} = E_{\text{Gas}}^{X_i} - E_{\text{COSMO}}^{X_i} - E_{\text{vdW}}^{X_i} + \omega_{\text{Ring}} n_{\text{Ring}}^{X_i} + \eta_{\text{Gas}}, \quad (15)$$

where $E_{\text{Gas}}^{X_i}$ and $E_{\text{COSMO}}^{X_i}$ are the total chemical energies of the molecule in the gas phase and in the COSMO conductor, respectively; $E_{\text{vdW}}^{X_i}$ is the vdW energy of X_i . The remaining contributions consist of a correction term for ring-shaped molecules, with $n_{\text{Ring}}^{X_i}$ being the number of ring atoms in the molecule, and ω_{Ring} is an adjustable parameter, and parameter η_{Gas} provides the link between the reference states of the system's free energy in the gas phase and in the liquid. Using Eqs. 13 and 15 it is possible to *a priori* predict vapor pressures of pure compounds (see below, the subsection on vapor-pressure prediction). Please note that Eq. 15 is an empirical formulation, and it is not part of the rigorous statistical thermodynamics approach that leads to Eqs. 11–14. Equation 15 is valid for pure compounds only.

Compared to GCMs, COSMO-RS depends on an extremely small number of adjustable parameters (the seven basic parameters of Eqs. 8–10, 13, and 14 plus nine τ_{vdW} values), some of which are physically predetermined (Klamt, 1995). COSMO-RS parameters are not specific of functional groups or molecule types. The parameters have to be adjusted for the QM-COSMO method that is used as a basis for the COSMO-RS calculations only. Thus the resulting parameterization is completely general and can be used to predict the properties of almost any imaginable compound mixture or system.

COSMO-RS has been parameterized for the BP-RI/COSMO-density functional theory, with the TZVP basis set, which is available in the Turbomole program package (Schäfer et al., 2000). The geometries of all molecules involved in the parameterization as well as the validation of COSMO-RS have been optimized at this level of QM theory. The parameter optimization was done with a data set of 890 room temperature values of activity coefficients in infinite aqueous dilution, vapor pressure, and partition coefficients of water with octanol, hexane, benzene, and diethyl ether. The parameterization data set consists of 310 compounds of broad chemical functionality based on the elements H, C, N, O, F, S, Cl, Br, and I. The parameter optimization resulted in root mean square (rms) deviations of $0.285 \log(\gamma^\infty)$ units [maximum deviation: $0.451 \log(\gamma^\infty)$ units] for activity coefficients, 0.307 (rms) and 0.566 (max) $\log(p)$ units for vapor pressure; 0.471 (rms) and 0.723 (max) $\log(K)$ units for 1-octanol/water partition coefficients; 0.200 (rms) and 0.374 (max) $\log(K)$ units for hexane/water partition coefficients, 0.160 (rms) and 0.392 (max) $\log(K)$ units for benzene/water partition coefficients; and 0.433 (rms) and 0.906 (max) $\log(K)$ units for diethyl ether/water partition coefficients. For the six properties considered in the parameterization, an overall rms deviation of 1.8 kJ/mol for the chemical potential differences was found, which corresponds to $0.34 \log$ units for the partition properties. The resulting parameterization was validated with three different test sets: (1) a set of over 1,000 activity coefficients of various solutes (which are not contained in the parameterization data set) in various solvents at a range of temperatures (Howard and Meylan, 2000; Schiller, private communication, 2000), which resulted in an overall rms deviation of $0.47 \log(\gamma^\infty)$ units and a maximum deviation of $1.10 \log(\gamma^\infty)$ units; (2) a set of 150 Henry law constants (which are not contained in the parameterization data set) at various temperatures (Sander, private communication, 2000), which resulted in an overall rms deviation of $0.38 \log(k_H)$ units and a

Table 1. Element-Specific COSMO-RS Parameters

Element	τ_{vdW} [kJ/mol/Å ²]
H	0.0361
C	0.0401
N	0.0181
O	0.0189
F	0.0265
S	0.0510
Cl	0.0514
Br	0.0550
I	0.0580

maximum deviation of $0.75 \log(k_H)$ units; (3) a set of 100 excess Gibbs free-energy values of binary mixtures at various temperatures (Kang et al., 2000), which resulted in an overall rms deviation of 205 J/mol and a maximum deviation of 1.2 kJ/mol. The rms deviations of the parameterization and test data give a rough estimate of the errors that must be expected for the prediction of a certain property with COSMO-RS.

The following parameter values were optimized by the Turbomole BP/TZVP QM-COSMO method: the effective contact area for a single independent molecular contact resulted in $a_{\text{eff}} = 6.25 \text{ Å}^2$. Considering the area of 45 Å^2 of a water molecule, this corresponds to about 7.2 independent neighbors for a water molecule. The electrostatic misfit energy coefficient is $\alpha' = 5950 \text{ kJ/mol/Å}^2$. This agrees reasonably well with the estimate of $8,300 \text{ kJ/mol/Å}^2$, which can be roughly derived from electrostatic considerations (Klamt, 1995). The optimized values of the hydrogen-bonding parameters are $c_{hb} = 36,700 \text{ kJ/mol/Å}^2$ and $\sigma_{hb} = 0.085 \text{ e/Å}^2$. The ring correction coefficient ω_{ring} was optimized to 0.89 kJ/mol . Using the reference states 1 mol/mol and 1 bar for the fluid phase and for the gas phase, respectively, η_{gas} was optimized to 21.7 kJ/mol . The coefficient λ_C in the combinatorial part of the chemical potential was optimized to 0.07 . The optimized values of the element-specific dispersion constants τ_{vdW} are given in Table 1.

COSMO-RS vs. UNIFAC

Although there are similarities in the basic statistical thermodynamics approach, COSMO-RS and UNIFAC are quite different approaches to the prediction of thermodynamic properties, both with their specific strengths and weaknesses.

Due to their longer history and the numerous contributors GCMs currently are in a very elaborate and sophisticated state, and thus also widely accepted as a state-of-the-art method in industrial and academic research. Especially UNIFAC has been parameterized carefully to a very large set of experimental data. Yet, the accuracy of COSMO-RS cannot compete with UNIFAC in its core region of parameterization, although generally the quality of the COSMO-RS predictions is only slightly worse.

The basic weakness of GCMs lies in their concept of interpolating molecular structure with groups. This weakness restricts the applicability of the GCMs to systems where group interaction parameters are available, and thus to systems for which a significant amount of reliable experimental data is available. COSMO-RS is not burdened by such re-

strictions—it is generally applicable to any system that can be calculated by quantum chemistry. This claim also holds for systems where no experimental data are available, such as compounds involving rare functional groups, heterocyclic aromatic compounds, or complicated biochemical molecules, unstable systems (for example, isocyanates in water), and even reactive intermediates, transition states, metastable complexes, complexes on surfaces, among others.

A basic assumption of GCMs such as UNIFAC is that each contact between two groups m and n is associated with a specific group-interaction energy, a_{mn} . This contact has two important consequences: first, any kind of contact between groups is associated with the same energy. The group interactions do not differentiate between vdW interactions (which are spatially nonspecific) and hydrogen bonding (which is strongly directed)—only a physically nondescriptive and averaged energy is provided. Second, intramolecular interactions (for example, electronic push-pull effects on aromatic rings or intramolecular hydrogen bonds) are completely neglected. In contrast, COSMO-RS theory avoids both of these defects of GCMs: first, the interaction energies of surface patches are specific in that they are summed up from contributions of electrostatic misfit, vdW, and hydrogen-bonding interactions. In addition, with the concept of σ -profiles and σ -potentials COSMO-RS allows for a vivid and physically sound interpretation of molecular interactions. Second, the concept of molecular surfaces naturally includes all kinds of intramolecular interactions. Thus also isomeric effects are fully taken into account, allowing the screening of solvents or entrainers for isomer separation problems (Clausen, 1999).

GCM statistical thermodynamics is based on a mean-field assumption, whereas COSMO-RS's statistical thermodynamics is exact. Thus, with one and the same parameterization COSMO-RS is able to predict any equilibrium thermodynamic property at any concentration (including infinite dilution) with approximately the same quality, whereas UNIFAC had to be reparameterized to be applicable to infinite-dilution properties or partition coefficients (Wienke and Gmehling, 1998).

In the original UNIFAC, the temperature dependency of the predicted properties was only poorly described. This was fixed in *mod*-UNIFAC, however, at the cost of a strong increase in the number of adjustable parameters, and thus also of the amount of required experimental data (Weidlich and Gmehling, 1987; Gmehling et al., 1993, 1998). The temperature dependency of COSMO-RS is settled in its generic equations, and is thus dependent on only a very small number of adjustable parameters that are physically predetermined (Klamt et al., 1998).

It is noteworthy that COSMO-RS allows the prediction of vapor pressures of pure compounds (which UNIFAC cannot). Although very often the vapor pressure of pure compounds is known experimentally, the COSMO-RS predictions can be used to check the consistency of the measurements or provide a first estimate if no reliable data are available.

The computational effort of GCMs is very low. COSMO-RS calculations themselves are of comparable speed. The computationally demanding part of a COSMO-RS calculation is the underlying quantum chemical COSMO calculation. However, the time-consuming QM-COSMO computation has to be done only once per compound. Its results can be stored in

a database. Subsequent COSMO-RS calculations can be done from the database (compare Figure 2). Recent developments in computer technology as well as in the techniques of quantum chemistry (Grotendorst, 2000) make QM computations increasingly inexpensive and fast.

Applications

This section presents a variety of COSMO-RS applications to practical thermodynamic problems, namely, the prediction of VLE, LLE, SLE data, partition coefficients, and vapor pressures. All of the COSMO-RS calculations have been done with the COSMOtherm program (Klamt and Eckert, 2001) using the parameter set described in the subsection on COSMO-RS. The timings of the COSMOtherm calculations given below were obtained on a Linux-PC running on a single CPU (800 MHz, PentiumIII). The underlying quantum chemical calculations of the molecular COSMO surfaces have been done with the Turbomole program package using BP-RI-density functional theory with a TZVP quality basis set (Schäfer et al., 2000). The geometry of all molecules was fully optimized at that level of QM theory. On a single CPU (800 MHz, PentiumIII), timings for the QM-COSMO calculations of the molecules were in the range of less than 30 s for water and 2 h for octylbenzene. UNIFAC calculations have been done with a UNIFAC program by Sandler (1998), which is based on the fourth revision of the original UNIFAC model (Tiegs et al., 1987). The UNIFAC program of Sandler (1998) can be operated in an interactive way only. Thus no timings can be given for UNIFAC calculations.

Vapor–liquid equilibria

VLE thermodynamic properties are routinely demanded in industrial process design. GCMs are heavily parameterized on a very large set of VLE data of various binary mixtures,

and thus are able to reproduce many such data with good to excellent quality. In principle, VLE predictions can be thought of as the “core region” of GCM application. Nevertheless, there is a significant number of systems whose VLEs cannot be predicted properly by GCMs simply because of missing group-interaction parameters or inadequate groups. In contrast, COSMO-RS has no restriction in the structure of molecules to be predicted. However, the quality of the predictions that can be expected from COSMO-RS usually is slightly lower than that of GCMs in their core region. On the other hand, due to its generic approach COSMO-RS’s error can be expected to lie within a certain range, independent of the compounds or compound classes involved. The following examples give an overview over COSMO-RS’s capacities (and limitations).

Table 2 shows the excess enthalpies (H^E) and excess Gibbs free energies (G^E) of equimolar compositions of Chloroform (1) with Compound (2) (Compound (2) being acetone, butanone, or methanol) at a variety of temperatures. As has been deduced from qualitative consideration of the σ -profiles of acetone and chloroform, the excess energy of this system is strongly negative. The correspondence between COSMO-RS and the experimental values of Gonzalez et al. (1997) is good for G^E (rms deviation 49 J/mol) and satisfactory for H^E (rms deviation 101 J/mol). For all systems the COSMO-RS predictions of G^E and H^E show an increase with temperature that is higher than in the experiment, that is, the temperature dependency of G^E and H^E is overestimated. UNIFAC predictions of G^E were better than COSMO-RS for the acetone–chloroform and methanol–chloroform systems, but considerably worse for butanone–chloroform, resulting in an overall rms deviation of 202 J/mol. UNIFAC tends to underestimate the temperature dependency of G^E . Thus UNIFAC predictions of H^E (rms deviation 452 J/mol) are significantly worse than the

Table 2. Molar Excess Functions, Gibbs Free Energies (G^E), and Enthalpies (H^E) of Chloroform (1)–Compound (2) Binary Mixtures at Equimolar Composition and Various Temperatures in [J/mol]*

Compound(2)	T [K]	G^E Exp.	G^E COSMO-RS	G^E UNIFAC	H^E Exp.	H^E COSMO-RS	H^E UNIFAC
Acetone	283.15		−705	−654	−1,972	−1,871	−1,607
Acetone	287.15		−689	−641	−2,173	−1,844	−1,581
Acetone	298.15	−605	−646	−606	−1,907**	−1,770	−1,526
Acetone	303.15	−580	−628	−591	−1,880	−1,738	1,484
Acetone	308.32	−552	−610	−576		−1,705	−1,460
Acetone	313.15	−584	−593	−563	−1,856	−1,674	−1,429
Acetone	323.15	−546	−560	−536	−1,745†	−1,612	−1,376
Acetone	333.15		−529	−511	−1,718	−1,552	−1,325
Acetone	343.15		−499	−487	−1,695	−1,494	−1,278
Butanone	303.15	−727	−683	−515		−1,743	−1,168
Butanone	308.15		−666	−504	−2,103	−1,712	−1,142
Butanone	318.15	−709	−634	−484		−1,652	−1,097
Butanone	328.15	−646	−603	−466		−1,594	−1,055
Methanol	293.15	781	717	765		−376	−83
Methanol	298.15	757	735	780	−300	−340	−61
Methanol	303.15	811	753	793	−66	−303	−40
Methanol	308.15		770	807	−207	−267	−17
Methanol	313.15	841	786	820		−230	3
Methanol	323.15	873	818	846		−155	44

*N experimental values from Gonzalez et al. (1997).

**Experimental data varies -1907 ± 18 kJ/mol (Gonzalez et al., 1997).

†Experimental data varies -1745 ± 5 kJ/mol (Gonzalez et al., 1997).

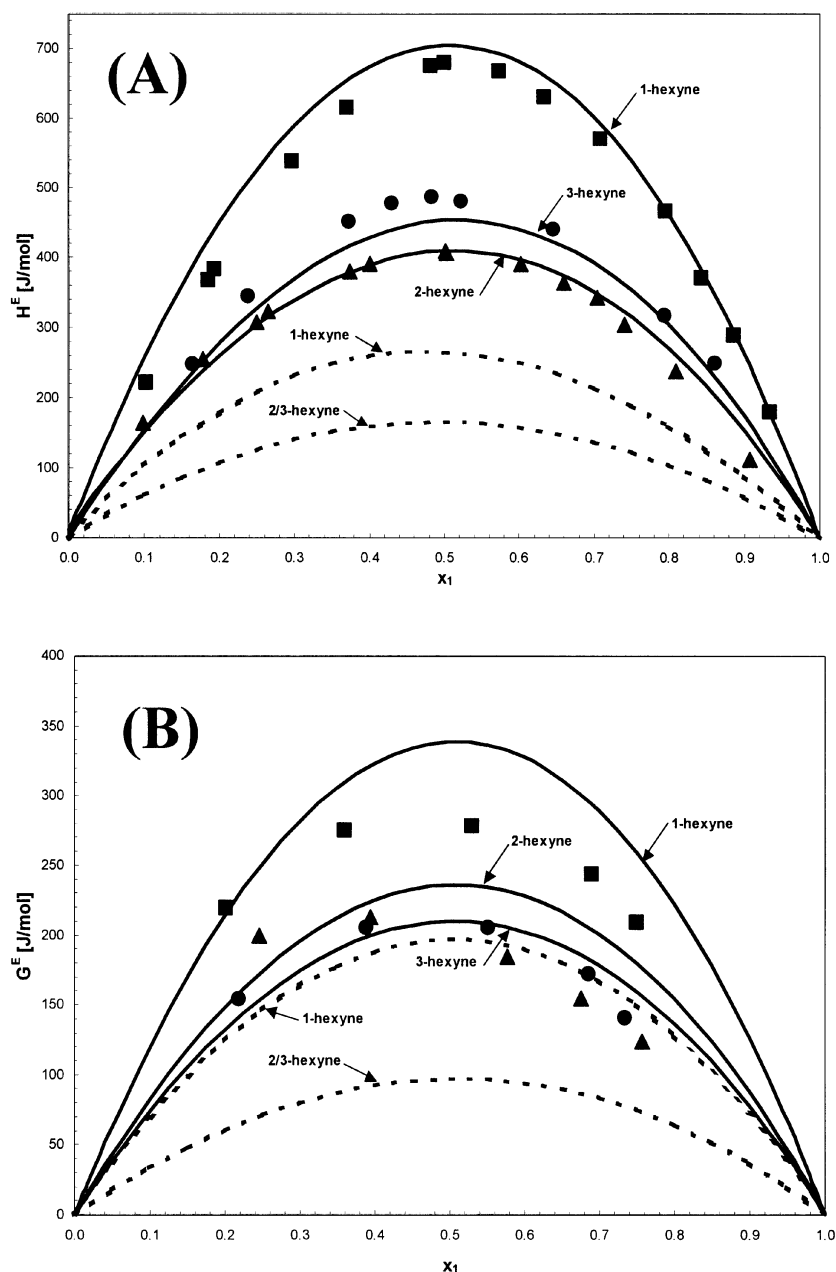


Figure 5. Excess enthalpy (A) and excess Gibbs free energy (B) of binary mixtures of the hexyne-isomers 1/2/3-hexyne (1) with *n*-octane (2) at $T = 303.15$ K.

Filled squares, triangles, and circles: excess enthalpies for (1) = 1-hexyne, 2-hexyne, and 3-hexyne, respectively, which are experimental values of Boukais-Belaribi et al. (2000). Solid lines: calculated values from COSMO-RS. Dotted lines: calculated values from UNIFAC.

COSMO-RS predictions. Please note that parts of the experimental data for methanol–chloroform are questionable: G^E and H^E do not increase homogeneously with temperature (as is predicted by COSMO-RS and UNIFAC). Such inconsistencies in experimental data can be detected with the help of predictive methods like COSMO-RS and UNIFAC. The sum of COSMO-RS calculational times for all predictions in Table 2 was 8 s (CPU).

Figures 5 and 6 demonstrate the application of COSMO-RS to the problem of compounds with different isomeric struc-

tures in the example of the VLE properties of the three *n*-hexyne isomers mixed with *n*-octane. Figure 5 shows the excess enthalpies (H^E) (Figure 5a) and excess Gibbs free energies (G^E) (Figure 5b) of binary mixtures of the three isomeric *n*-hexynes (1) in *n*-octane (2) at $T = 303.15$ K. Figure 6 shows the vapor–liquid composition (x - y) diagrams (Figure 6a) as well as the activity coefficients (Figure 6b) of the 1/2/3-hexyne (1)–*n*-octane (2) mixtures at $T = 303.15$ K. The vapor mol fractions y_i have been calculated from the ratio of partial and total vapor pressure:

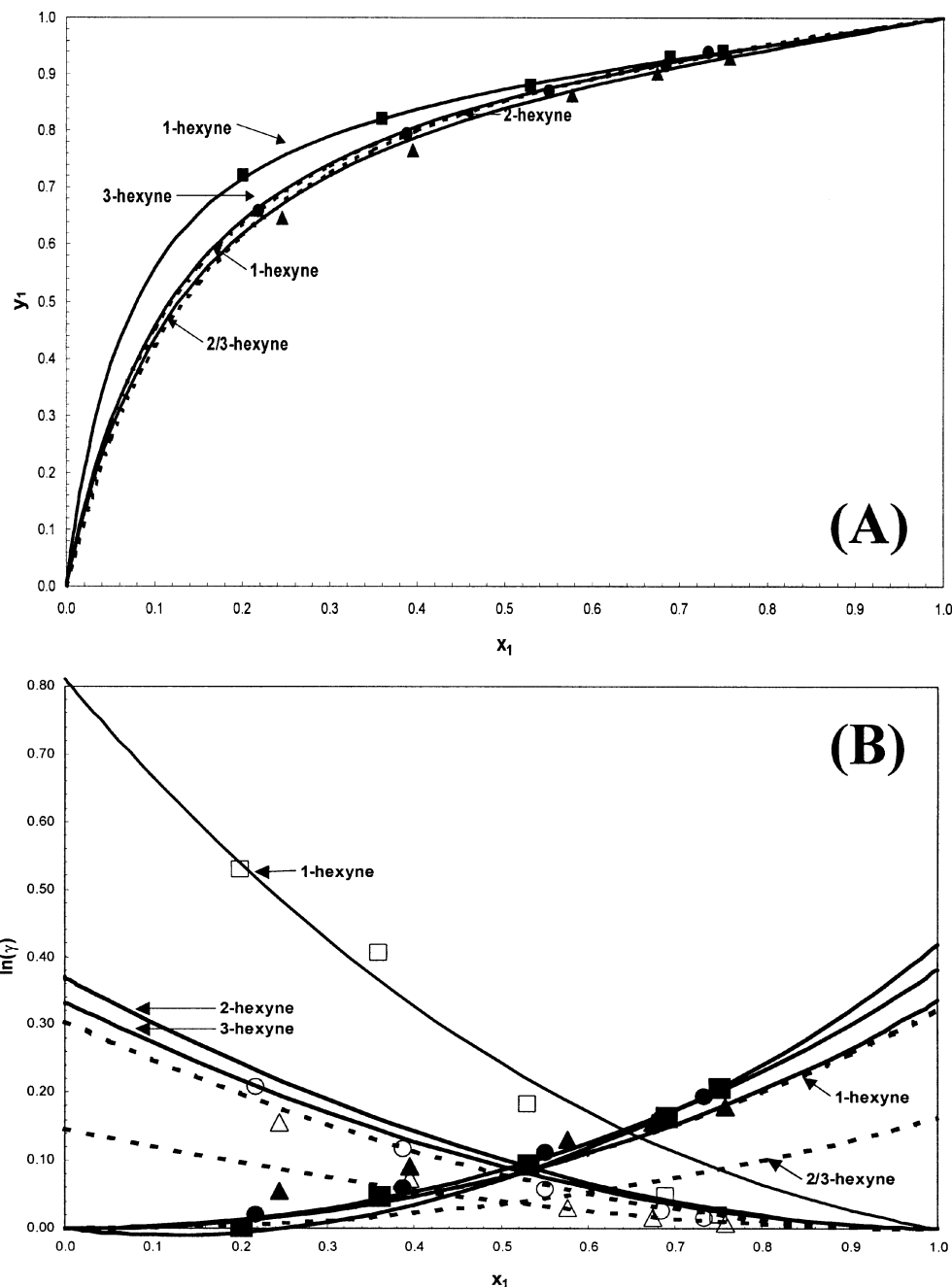


Figure 6. x - y phase diagram (A) and activity coefficients (B) of binary mixtures of the hexyne-isomers 1/2/3-hexyne (1) with n -octane (2) at $T = 303.15$ K.

(A): Filled squares, triangles and circles: mol fractions in the liquid (x) and gas phase (y) of 1-hexyne, 2-hexyne, and 3-hexyne, respectively, which are experimental values of Boukais-Belaribi et al. (2000). Solid lines: calculated values from COSMO-RS. Dotted lines: calculated values from UNIFAC. (B): Filled squares, triangles, and circles: activity coefficient of (1) for (1) = 1-hexyne, 2-hexyne, and 3-hexyne, respectively, which are experimental values of Boukais-Belaribi et al. (2000). Empty squares, triangles, and circles: activity coefficient of (2) for (1) = 1-hexyne, 2-hexyne, and 3-hexyne, respectively, which are experimental values of Boukais-Belaribi et al. (2000). Solid lines: calculated values from COSMO-RS. Dotted lines: calculated values from UNIFAC.

$$y_i = p_i^0 x_i \gamma_i / p_{\text{tot}} \quad (16)$$

The total pressures p_{tot} have been obtained from

$$p_{\text{tot}} = p_1^0 x_1 \gamma_1 + p_2^0 x_2 \gamma_2, \quad (17)$$

where p_i^0 are the pure compound vapor pressures for com-

pounds i ($i = 1, 2$). Experimental p_i^0 values of Boukais-Belaribi et al. (2000) have been used. The mol fractions of the compounds in the liquid are denoted by x_i and γ_i are the activity coefficients of the compounds as predicted by COSMO-RS or UNIFAC. In any case ideal behavior of the gas phase has been assumed. Gas-phase pressures were not corrected by fugacity coefficients. The COSMO-RS calcula-

tion of each binary mixture (30 points of varying composition) took less than 2 s (CPU). The good correspondence between experiment and the COSMO-RS predictions for all given thermodynamic properties is obvious. In addition, COSMO-RS is able to reproduce the qualitative differences between the hexyne isomers, which results from the chemically different environment of the triple bond in 1-hexyne (a hydrogen atom terminating the triple bond, which can be expected to be slightly acidic) and 2- and 3-hexyne (no terminal hydrogen, and thus having very similar chemical behavior). Such isomeric effects cannot be easily reproduced by GCMs. Since there is only one group for nonterminating triple bonds, UNIFAC cannot distinguish 2-hexyne from 3-hexyne. In addition, as is illustrated in Figures 5 and 6, UNIFAC predictions were also worse quantitatively. The UNIFAC predictions of excess enthalpies, excess Gibbs free energies, and activity coefficients were too small.

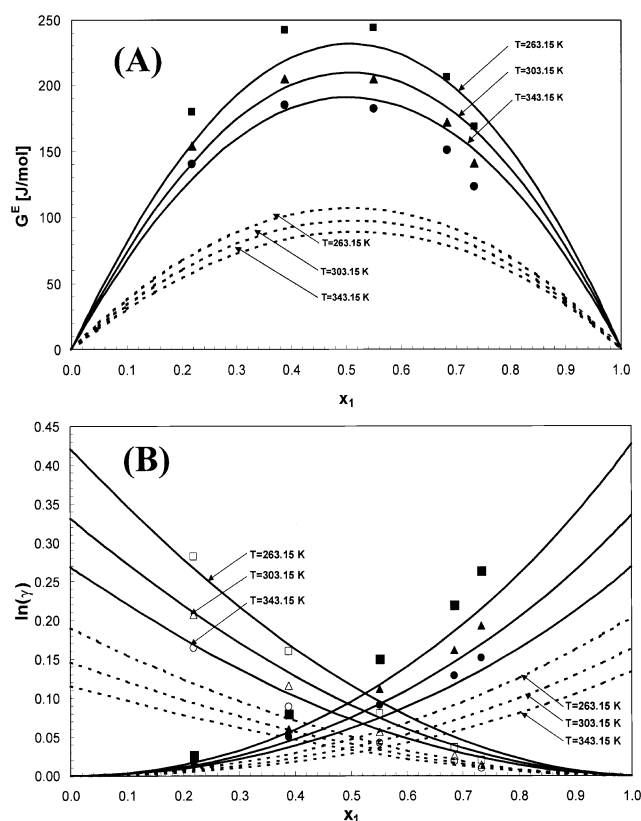


Figure 7. Excess enthalpy (A) and activity coefficients (B) of binary mixtures of 3-hexyne (1) with *n*-octane (2).

(A): Filled squares, triangles, and circles: excess enthalpies at temperatures $T = 263.15$ K, $T = 303.15$ K, and $T = 343.15$ K, respectively, which are experimental values of Boukais-Belaribi et al. (2000). Solid lines: calculated values from COSMO-RS. Dotted lines: calculated values from UNIFAC. (B): Filled squares, triangles, and circles: activity coefficient of (1) at temperatures $T = 263.15$ K, $T = 303.15$ K, and $T = 343.15$ K, respectively, which are experimental values of Boukais-Belaribi et al. (2000). Empty squares, triangles, and circles: activity coefficient of (2) at temperatures $T = 263.15$ K, $T = 303.15$ K, and $T = 343.15$ K, respectively, which are experimental values of Boukais-Belaribi et al. (2000). Solid lines: calculated values from COSMO-RS. Dotted lines: calculated values from UNIFAC.

Figure 7 demonstrates the qualitatively and quantitatively correct prediction of thermodynamic properties at different temperatures for the 3-hexyne and *n*-octane mixture. Figure 7 shows the excess Gibbs free energies (G^E) (Figure 7a) and the activity coefficients $\ln(\gamma_i)$ (Figure 7b) of the binary system 3-hexyne (1)–*n*-octane (2) at three different temperatures between $T = 263.15$ K and $T = 343.15$ K. For all properties, correspondence between experiment and COSMO-RS calculations is very good. The temperature dependency of the VLE properties is reproduced correctly. Again, the UNIFAC predictions of G^E and γ_i were too small.

Liquid–liquid equilibria

Figure 8 shows the COSMO-RS prediction for the LLE of the ternary liquid system decane (1)–octylbenzene (2)–sulfolane (3) at temperatures $T = 323.15$ K, $T = 348.15$ K and $T = 373.15$ K compared to experimental values from a recent measurement (Kao and Lin, 1999). COSMO-RS's overall calculational time was 15 s (CPU). Because of the lack of appropriate groups for sulfolane, no UNIFAC predictions could be done for this system. The experimental tie lines of the LLE are well met by the COSMO-RS predictions. In addition, the temperature dependency of the LLE is reproduced correctly. Table 3 shows the partition coefficients of octylbenzene (2)

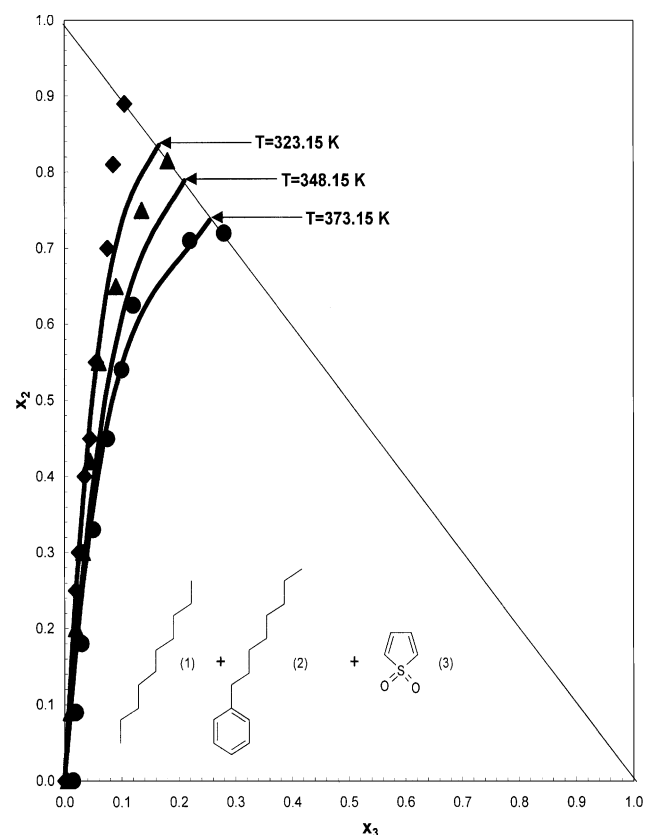


Figure 8. Tie lines for the LLE of the ternary system decane (1)–octylbenzene (2)–sulfolane (3).

Filled squares, triangles, and circles: LLE mol fractions at temperatures $T = 323.15$ K, $T = 348.15$ K, and $T = 373.15$ K, respectively, which are experimental values of Kao and Lin (1999). Solid lines: calculated values from COSMO-RS.

Table 3. Partition Coefficients log(P) of Solute Octylbenzene (2) Between *n*-alkanes (1) and Sulfolane (3) at Various Temperatures

<i>n</i> -Alkane (1)	<i>T</i> [K]	Exp.	COSMO-RS
Decane	323.15	-1.51	-0.95
	348.15	-1.31	-0.91
	373.15	-1.21	-0.87
Dodecane	323.15	-1.51	-1.10
	348.15	-1.37	-1.06
	373.15	-1.24	-1.00
Tetradecane	323.15	-1.51	-1.26
	348.15	-1.33	-1.20
	373.15	-1.19	-1.15

* Experimental values from Kao and Lin (1999).

between *n*-alkane (decane, dodecane, and tetradecane) (1) and sulfolane (3) at temperatures $T = 323.15$ K, $T = 348.15$ K and $T = 373.15$ K. COSMO-RS's overall calculational time for all partition coefficients in Table 3 was 2 s (CPU). The overall rms error of COSMO-RS predictions is 0.33 log(*K*) units, which is within the accuracy range expected for partition coefficients (compare the subsection on COSMO-RS).

Solid-liquid equilibria (solubility)

The prediction of SLEs and the solubility of solid compounds with COSMO-RS involves an additional complication: COSMO-RS is a theory of liquids, that is, an ensemble of disordered molecules. COSMO-RS's predictions of chemical potentials of compounds below their melting point are always predictions of the supercooled melt. The solid state of a compound is related to the liquid state by its heat of crystallization (Gibbs free energy of fusion ΔG_{fus}). A general ex-

pression for solubility reads

$$\ln x_i^{\text{SOL}} = \frac{\min(0, \Delta G_{\text{fus}})}{RT} - \ln \gamma_i^{\text{SOL}}, \quad (18)$$

where x_i^{SOL} is the mol fraction of the solid *i* dissolved in the solvent phase at saturation; γ_i^{SOL} is the activity coefficient for the solute in solution and can be predicted by COSMO-RS or GCMs; ΔG_{fus} is positive for liquids and Eq. 18 reduces to $\ln x_i^{\text{SOL}} = -\ln \gamma_i^{\text{SOL}}$; and ΔG_{fus} can be estimated by COSMO-RS (Klamt et al., 2001). Alternatively, ΔG_{fus} can be modeled quite well by the expression

$$\frac{\Delta G_{\text{fus}}}{T} = \Delta S_{\text{fus}} \left(1 - \frac{T_m}{T} \right), \quad (19)$$

as has been demonstrated by Frank et al. (1999). Here, T_m is the melting point of solid *i* and $\Delta S_{\text{fus}} = \Delta H_{\text{fus}}/T_m$ is the solids entropy of fusion. Also T_m and ΔH_{fus} are properties of the pure solute and can be found in databases.

The prediction of SLE is demonstrated in three examples given by Frank et al. (1999). ΔG_{fus} was estimated via Eq. 19 using the T_m and $\Delta S_{\text{fus}}/R$ data given in Frank et al. (1999). This allows an unbiased comparison of COSMO-RS predictions with the UNIFAC and Hansen solubility parameter predictions given by Frank et al. (1999). Figure 9 shows the solubility of acenaphthene over a range of temperatures ($T_m = 365.95$ K and $\Delta S_{\text{fus}}/R = 6.88$). COSMO-RS's overall calculational time for the solubilities presented in Figure 9 was 2 s (CPU). Deviations from experiment are below 0.3 log(*x*) units. The temperature dependency of the solubility is predicted correctly. Table 4 shows solubilities of naphthalene in a number of different solvents at $T = 313.15$ K ($T_m = 353.35$ K and $\Delta S_{\text{fus}}/R = 6.4$). COSMO-RS's overall calculational time for

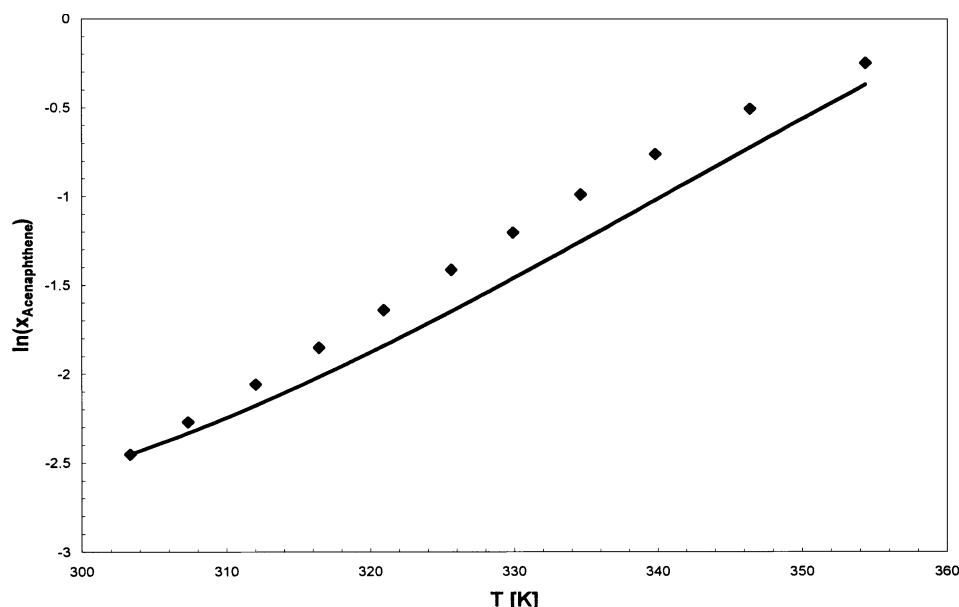


Figure 9. Solubility of acenaphthene in cyclohexane at various temperatures.

Filled squares: experimental values of Frank et al. (1999). Solid line: calculated values from COSMO-RS.

the solubilities presented in Table 4 was 11 s (CPU). The COSMO-RS predictions show an rms error of 0.21 $\log(x)$ units. The largest deviations were found for carbon disulfide and acetic acid (0.41 and 0.42 $\log(x)$ units, respectively). The errors for the remaining solvents are below 0.3 $\log(x)$ units. Frank et al. (1999) did *mod*-UNIFAC (Do) and Hansen solubility model predictions for the naphthalene–solvent systems, which are also presented in Table 4. UNIFAC predictions show an rms error of 0.08 $\log(x)$ units and a maximum deviation of 0.28 $\log(x)$ units for ethanol. Thus, in this case the quality of the COSMO-RS predictions is lower than that of UNIFAC. This is no surprise if one considers the simplicity of the given naphthalene–solvent systems: *mod*-UNIFAC (Do) is very well parameterized for all of the compounds involved. The predictions of the Hansen solubility model (which is a nonpredictive extrapolative model for solubility; see Frank et al., 1999) show an rms error of 0.20 $\log(x)$ units. The maximum error of the Hansen model [0.76 $\log(x)$ units for methanol] is much larger than for COSMO-RS or UNIFAC. Table 5 shows solubilities of cycloserine in a number of different solvents at $T = 301.15$ K ($T_m = 420.15$ K and $\Delta S_{\text{fus}}/R = 6.8$). COSMO-RS's overall calculational time for the solubilities presented in Table 4 was 10 s (CPU). Cycloserine is structurally more complex than naphthalene and its solubility is very small in unpolar solvents. Thus it is a much harder test case for predictive methods. The COSMO-RS predictions show an rms error of 0.50 $\log(x)$ units. The largest deviations were found for the unpolar solvents benzene, toluene, and cyclohexane (0.80, 0.73, and 0.79 $\log(x)$ units, respectively). Because of the lack of appropriate groups for cycloserine, UNIFAC could not be applied to this system. The predictions of the Hansen solubility model show an rms error

Table 4. Solubility of Naphthalene [decadic logarithm of the mol fraction $\log(x^{\text{sol}})$] in Various Solvents at $T = 313.15$ K

Solvent	Exp.	COSMO-RS	UNIFAC	Hansen
Carbon disulfide	−0.31	−0.72	−0.39	−0.37
Acetone	−0.42	−0.55	−0.45	−0.43
Benzene	−0.37	−0.57	−0.35	−0.40
Ethylene dichloride	−0.35	−0.56	−0.37	−0.36
Toluene	−0.37	−0.57	−0.36	−0.38
1,1-Dichloroethane	−0.36	−0.57	−0.34	−0.39
Chloroform	−0.33	−0.55	−0.33	−0.35
Chlorobenzene	−0.35	−0.57	−0.37	−0.36
Nitrobenzene	−0.36	−0.60	−0.47	−0.39
Aniline	−0.51	−0.82	−0.55	−0.42
1,1-Dibromoethane	−0.34	−0.57	−0.37	−0.37
Tetrachloromethane	−0.40	−0.69	−0.39	−0.42
1,2-Dibromoethane	−0.36	−0.58	−0.38	−0.41
Hexane	−0.65	−0.76	−0.59	−0.65
Cyclohexanol	−0.63	−0.88	−0.81	−0.63
Acetic acid	−0.93	−1.36	−0.91	−0.53
1-Butanol	−0.94	−0.98	−1.03	−1.03
1-Propanol	−1.02	−1.04	−1.18	−1.18
2-Butanol	−0.95	−0.91	−1.03	−0.81
Ethanol	−1.14	−1.14	−1.37	−1.52
<i>tert</i> -Butanol	−0.99	−0.86	−1.10	−1.07
Methanol	−1.36	−1.41	−1.31	−2.12
<i>iso</i> -Butanol	−1.03	−0.97	−1.03	−1.18
2-Propanol	−1.12	−0.97	−1.15	−1.12

* Experimental values, UNIFAC, and Hansen estimates from Frank et al. (1999).

Table 5. Solubility of Cycloserine [decadic logarithm of the mol fraction $\log(x^{\text{sol}})$] in Various Solvents at $T = 301.15$ K*

Solvent	Exp.	COSMO-RS	Hansen
Water	> −2.45	−2.60	> −1.37
Methanol	−3.11	−2.62	−2.76
Formamide	−3.20	−2.49	−1.49
Ethylene glycol	−3.08	−2.66	−2.91
Acetone	−3.21	−2.84	−3.17
Benzyl alcohol	−2.99	−3.11	−2.63
Pyridine	−3.15	−2.58	−2.57
Diethyl ether	−3.33	−3.59	−4.84
Isopropanol	−3.42	−2.99	−3.42
Ethanol	−3.59	−2.87	−2.96
Methyl ethyl ketone	−3.40	−3.08	−3.40
1,4-Dioxane	−3.42	−2.84	−3.60
Ethyl acetate	−3.47	−3.54	−3.81
Isoamyl alcohol	−3.48	−3.36	−3.59
Isoamyl acetate	−3.99	−4.07	−4.35
Benzene	−4.38	−5.19	−4.72
Chloroform	−4.28	−4.90	−3.73
Toluene	−4.50	−5.23	−4.50
Cyclohexane	−4.54	−5.33	−5.38
Carbon Disulfide	Trace	−8.23	−4.43
Isooctane	Trace	−7.79	−6.25

* Experimental values and Hansen estimates from Frank et al. (1999).

of 0.68 $\log(x)$ units and a maximum error of 1.71 $\log(x)$ units for formamide. Although the rms error of the COSMO-RS predictions is quite large, it is much better than for the Hansen model (which also shows much larger scattering of the error). Thus, it can be concluded that COSMO-RS is applicable to the screening of solubility, even though the absolute errors of the prediction are quite large for complex molecules like cycloserine. Other methods of solubility prediction either lead to inferior results (Hansen model) or are not applicable (UNIFAC). However, for simple compounds like naphthalene, UNIFAC predictions were superior to COSMO-RS.

Vapor–pressure prediction

Unlike most predictive activity coefficient models, COSMO-RS also allows the *a priori* prediction of the vapor pressures of liquids for a given compound at arbitrary temperatures. The vapor pressure p^X of a pure compound X is estimated via

$$p^X = \exp \left\{ - \left(\mu_{\text{gas}}^X - \mu_X^X \right) / RT \right\}, \quad (20)$$

where μ_{gas}^X is the chemical potential of compound X in the gas phase (Eq. 15) and μ_X^X is the chemical potential of the compound in itself (Eq. 13). If the compound is solid at the given temperature, ΔG_{fus} has to be added to μ_X^X .

Figure 10 shows the COSMO-RS predictions for the vapor pressures of the compounds hexafluoroethane (Figure 10A) and octafluorocyclobutane (Figure 10B) at various temperatures. COSMO-RS's overall calculational time for the vapor pressures presented in Figure 10 was 1.8 s (CPU) for hexafluoroethane and 2.1 s (CPU) for octafluorocyclobutane. The deviations from experiment of $< 0.5 \ln(p)$ units are well within the accuracy range that can be expected for COSMO-

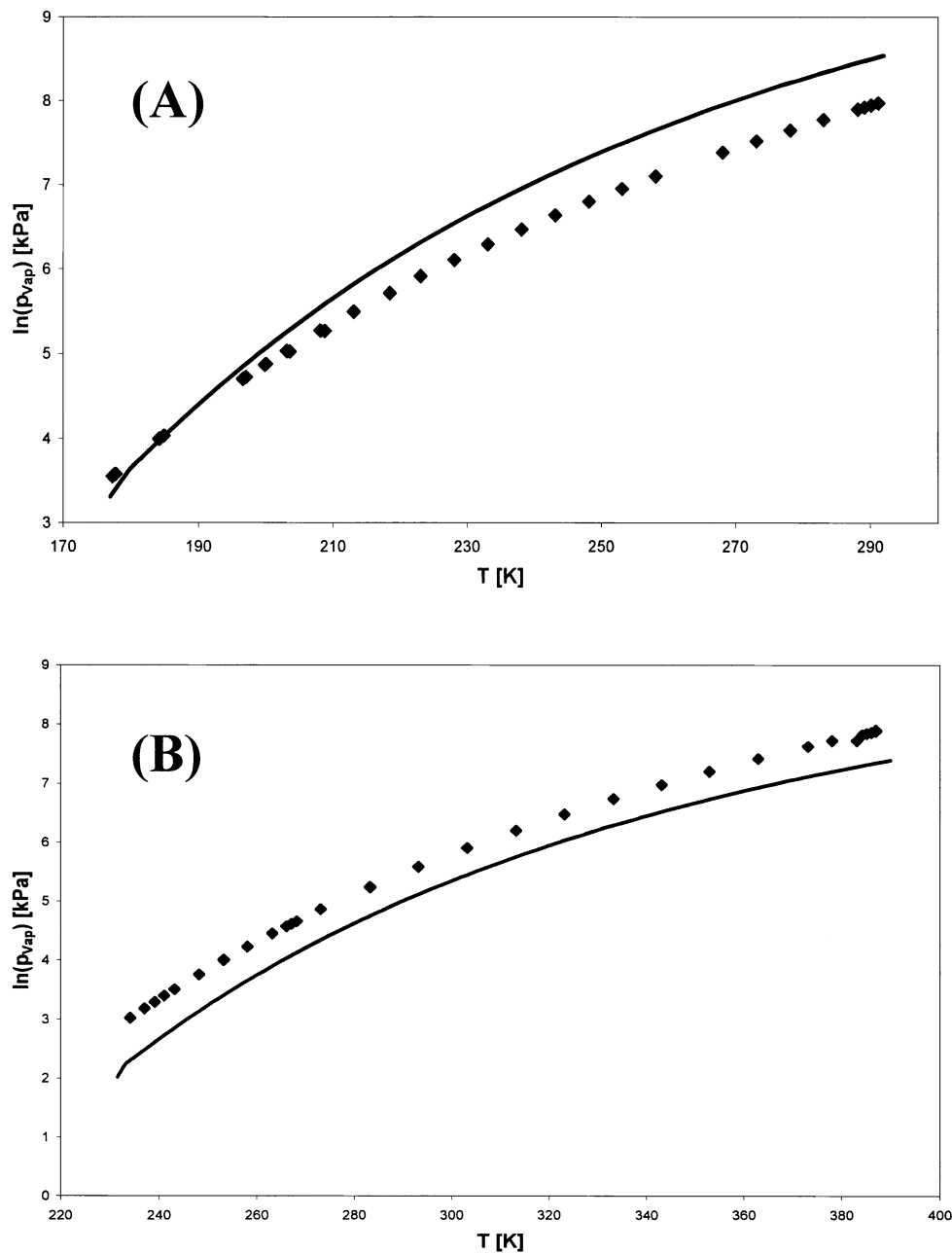


Figure 10. Vapor pressures of (A) hexafluoroethane and (B) octafluorocyclobutane at various temperatures.

Filled squares: experimental values of Kao and Miller (2000). Solid lines: calculated values from COSMO-RS.

RS predictions of vapor pressures (see the subsection on COSMO-RS). The temperature dependency of the vapor pressure is very well met for cyclic compound octafluorocyclobutane; however, it is less well met for linear compound hexafluoroethane, although it should be noted that the overall deviations from experiment are not higher than for octafluorocyclobutane.

Conclusions

As has been demonstrated in the previous sections, COSMO-RS is a promising novel approach for the computa-

tional prediction of equilibrium thermodynamic properties of pure compounds (for example, vapor pressures) and arbitrary mixtures (for example, VLE properties such as activity coefficients, excess properties, phase diagrams, and LLE and SLE properties such as partition coefficients and solubility of liquids and solids), and thus is an alternative and/or supplement to group contribution methods that currently are widely used for such calculations. Like GCMs, COSMO-RS is a surface interaction model; not of groups, however, but of molecular surface charge densities that are provided by molecular quantum chemical COSMO calculations. This leads to the main advantage of COSMO-RS compared to GCMs: COSMO-RS is based on a very small number of adjustable

parameters, which are completely independent of any molecular or structural information (that is, no group interaction parameters). COSMO-RS's parameters are established on a physical basis and depend only on the underlying quantum chemical model. Currently, COSMO-RS is parameterized for the elements H, C, N, O, F, S, Cl, Br, and I. Molecules with other elements like Si or P can be treated as well, although a slightly lower quality of the prediction has to be expected in these cases. Thus COSMO-RS is generally applicable to any system of compounds that can be thought of. COSMO-RS calculations are very fast (milliseconds on a modern PC). The underlying quantum chemical COSMO calculations, which are computationally more demanding (but, in most cases, are easily done overnight on a single CPU), have to be done only once per compound and can subsequently be held in a database. Thus in combination with a large database of solvents, COSMO-RS allows for fast and efficient large-scale solvent screening.

Notation

a_{eff} = COSMO-RS effective contact area
 a_{mn} = UNIFAC group-interaction parameter between groups m and n
 c_{HB} = COSMO-RS parameter for hydrogen bonding
 F_i = UNIFAC surface area of species i
 G^E = excess Gibbs free energy
 H^E = excess enthalpy
 $p^X(\sigma)$ = COSMO-RS sigma profile of a compound X_i
 $p_S(\sigma)$ = COSMO-RS sigma profile of a system/mixture
 Q_k = UNIFAC surface area of group k
 R_k = UNIFAC vdW volume of group k
 rms = root mean square
 R = gas constant
 S = system/solvent, either pure or mixture
 T = temperature
 T_m = melting-point temperature
 V_i = UNIFAC volume of species i
 vdW = van der Waals term
 x_i = mol fraction of compound i in mixture
 X_i = chemical compound i considered as solute
 X_m = UNIFAC mol fraction of group m
 y_i = mol fraction of compound i in the vapor above a mixture

Greek letters

α' = COSMO-RS parameter for electrostatic misfit
 ΔS_{fus} = entropy of fusion
 γ_i = activity coefficient for species i
 γ_i^C = UNIFAC combinatorial term for species i
 γ_i^R = UNIFAC residual term for species i
 λ_C = COSMO-RS parameter for the combinatorial contribution
 $\mu_{S,i}^X$ = chemical potential for species X_i in system S
 $\mu_{C,i,S}^X$ = COSMO-RS combinatorial contribution for species X_i in system S
 ν_i = UNIFAC number of groups for species i
 ω_{Ring} = COSMO-RS parameter for ring correction
 Θ_m = UNIFAC group-constitution function for group m
 Γ_k = UNIFAC group-activity factors for group k
 Ψ_k = UNIFAC group-interaction term for groups m and n
 σ_i = COSMO-RS screening charge density for segment i
 σ_{HB} = COSMO-RS parameters for hydrogen bonding
 τ_{vdW} = COSMO-RS parameter for van der Waals interaction

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