

In Silico Prediction of Medium Effects on Esterification Equilibrium Using the COSMO-RS Method

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This paper presents a new approach for predicting solvent effects on esterification reactions of industrial importance in the field of biocatalysis. The COSMO-RS method has been used to calculate the activity coefficients of the chemical species involved in various reactions, carried out in different solvents. For comparison we also used the traditional UNIFAC method. Three lipase-catalyzed esterifications were considered: (1) 1-dodecanoic acid with menthol in *n*-hexane, *n*-heptane, cyclohexane, 2,2,4-trimethylpentane, toluene, acetonitrile, and 2-methyl-2-butanol; (2) 1-dodecanoic acid and 1-dodecanol in *n*-hexane, *n*-heptane, cyclohexane, 2,2,4-trimethylpentane, and toluene; and (3) glycerol and *n*-octanoic acid in acetonitrile, benzene, and toluene and in the neat reaction mixture (without any solvent). Predicted activities were used to calculate the thermodynamic equilibrium ratio. This should be independent of medium, and the variation in COSMO-RS values is at most 9-fold (corresponding to a ΔG° of about 5.5 kJ/mol, which would still be a very useful prediction) and often only 2-fold (corresponding to less than 2 kJ/mol or 0.5 kcal/mol, therefore comparable with experimental error). UNIFAC is weaker, especially when important roles are played by conformational freedom, intramolecular interactions, strong polar effects, and charge distribution of molecules in the mixture. The relative percent deviations from the mean of equilibrium constants in different solvents range between 17 and 49 for COSMO-RS versus 32 to 65 for UNIFAC. The COSMO-RS method opens up new perspectives for the development of theoretical models for solvent selection with general applicability.

Introduction

Biocatalysis is becoming an important tool for the production of fine chemicals, because of several drivers. From the environmental point of view, the chemical industry is exploring bioprocesses to improve long-term sustainability. Attractive features of biocatalysts include versatility; substrate selectivity; regio-, chemo-, and enantioselectivity; limited use of hazardous reagents; reduction of byproducts; and catalysis at moderate temperature and pressure.

Since the pioneering work of Klibanov (*1*), it has been clear that the technological utility of biocatalysts can be widened further by carrying out some reactions in organic media. This allows the possibility of dissolving hydrophobic molecules, avoiding bacterial contamination, and improving product yield in processes such as ester synthesis, where the position of equilibrium is reversed with respect to aqueous solutions. The several advantages of biotransformations are discussed in refs 1–4.

Unlike most other synthetic methods, many enzymatic processes operate under conditions where the position of chemical equilibrium may control the final yield achieved. In part this reflects the avoidance of forcing conditions and

aggressive reagents; it is these that make many purely chemical transformations essentially irreversible thermodynamically. For example, the chemical synthesis of an ester would normally use strongly acidic conditions, water removal, or an activated acyl donor like an acid chloride. In such reactions yield is limited by kinetic factors including side reactions. In contrast, biocatalytic ester synthesis often uses direct condensation of the acid and alcohol under neutral conditions with significant levels of water present (giving a water activity not much less than 1). Nevertheless, very high conversions can be achieved in such thermodynamically controlled syntheses, for example, in non-polar organic solvents (5–7).

When the conversion attainable is close to the thermodynamic equilibrium, understanding and predicting effects on this become important. Hence biocatalysis has stimulated a number of studies of how the equilibria of organic reactions are affected by the conditions, particularly the choice of solvent (6, 8–12). Careful measurements of equilibrium positions are quite laborious but are crucial for understanding reaction energetics and for process optimization. In this context, the most accurate and extensive studies are those of Tewari and colleagues (6, 10–12) on a variety of ester synthesis equilibria.

It is clear that a reliable theoretical technique for predicting the reaction thermodynamics would be a valuable tool for biocatalysis in nonconventional media. Correct predictions of the activity coefficients of each reactant in each solvent lead to prediction of the solvent dependence of the equilibrium constant, thus allowing the prediction of the feasibility of a biocatalytic synthesis.

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80 It is possible to make predictions of solvent effects on dilute
81 solution equilibria using experimental partition coefficients.
82 Application of this approach to esterification reactions that might
83 be catalyzed enzymatically (8) also revealed a useful correlation
84 with solvent properties. However, these methods are not
85 applicable to more concentrated systems in which ideal dilute
86 behavior no longer applies and of course require data on partition
87 coefficients that is usually not available.

88 Group contribution methods, especially UNIFAC (13), have
89 found successful industrial applications, especially to mixtures
90 of hydrocarbons and other nonpolar compounds. Some biocatalysis-related applications can also be found in the literature. UNIFAC has been examined for the prediction of esterification equilibria (14) and was found to perform quite well for some simple esters. However, predictions were poor for glycerol esters, probably because of the limitations in the treatment of intramolecular interactions and other proximity effects when polar groups are close together. UNIFAC predictions are independent of the location of the functional groups in the molecules and cannot account for the effect that one group has on another group if they are close in the molecule.

101 Predictions of activity coefficients in enzyme reaction mixtures can be useful for understanding kinetics as well. There are often large solvent effects on the reaction rate and the enzyme's affinity for the reactants. However, it is clear that these effects can often be largely explained by solvent effects on solvation of the reactants themselves, without needing to invoke effects on the enzyme (15–17). Even if there are some effects on the enzyme, these reactant solvation effects will always occur as well. Hence understanding the effects of solvent on substrate solvation offers useful predictions about kinetics as well. UNIFAC has also found a useful application in the prediction of solvent dependence of enzymatic prochiral selectivity, by calculating the activity coefficients of the solvated portions of substrates after their binding to the enzyme (18).

115 The basis of the UNIFAC method is to consider molecules as an aggregation of functional groups. This approach offers the great advantage of being able to describe a virtually infinite number of different compounds with a small number of experimentally estimated parameters, but this approximation often limits dramatically the accuracy of results. Recent expansion of the parameter tables has improved the calculation of intermolecular interactions. However, the inaccuracy of the basic assumption of the additivity of group contribution cannot be overcome, as discussed further herein.

125 Searching for an alternative theoretical method we now describe the use, in the field of biocatalysis, of the COSMO-RS method. This is based upon the approximated continuum description of solvent, in particular on the “conductor-like screening model”, which has proved to be a powerful technique for the prediction of thermo physical properties of mixtures. Therefore, the aim of the present paper is to evaluate the applicability of the COSMO-RS model to the prediction of activities for systems of interest to biocatalysis, especially in those cases where the UNIFAC method showed poor accuracy.

Theory

136 Excess Gibbs energies, and consequently activity coefficients, for condensed phases can be calculated by means of quantum chemistry calculations. First principles quantum mechanical methods are capable of correctly describing the electronic and geometrical structures of solute molecules, including polarization effects due to the presence of the solvent. However, in a quantum mechanical approach, only a few solvent molecules can be considered explicitly because of the high computational cost. The use of Density Functional Theory (DFT), as

implemented in many commercially available codes (Turbomole, Gaussian, DMol³, and others), allows us to treat larger molecular systems than in ab initio methods such as Hartree–Fock or Møller–Plesset perturbation theory (MP2). However, even within the framework of DFT, a simplified model has to be used, and the most successful theories so far are all based on the polarizable continuum model (PCM) proposed originally by Miertus et al. (19). In this model, the solute molecule is embedded in a dielectric continuum of permittivity ϵ . The dielectric continuum is polarized by the charge distribution of the solute, which results in a charge distribution on the cavity surface (also called solvent accessible surface, SAS). For a given charge distribution within the cavity, the surface screening charges are then calculated by solving the Poisson equation and hence used as a perturbation included in the Hamiltonian for electronic structure calculations of the solute. The new, perturbed density of the solute is used again for Poisson calculations, and the procedure is iterated until self-consistency is achieved. At costs comparable to gas-phase calculations, these methods are capable of giving a surprisingly good description of the properties and energetics of molecules in various solvents, including water. Despite the considerable success of PCM-based models, they are hard to justify theoretically, mainly because of the high electric fields on the molecular surfaces of even fairly polar solutes. These fields are so strong that the major part of the solvent polarizability, i.e., the reorientation of static dipoles, no longer behaves linearly, as it does in the macroscopic limit, but is almost at saturation.

173 Starting from these considerations and with the aim of solving the inherent inconsistencies of the original method, Klamt and co-workers (20–22) have proposed a theory, called the conductor-like screening model for real solvent (COSMO-RS). This is based on screening in conductors, is noniterative, and allows for the calculation of accurate gradients without cavity shape constraints. The theory has been extended and enhanced for treating complex systems (23–26). The COSMO-RS theory takes the ideally screened molecules as starting points for the description of molecules in solution. The deviations from ideal screening, which occur in any real solvent, are described as pairwise misfit interactions of the ideal screening charges on parts of the molecules in contact in the fluid. Since COSMO-RS does not depend on experimental data or any parametrization for the solvent, it efficiently enables the calculation of the chemical potential of almost any solute in almost any solvent. Thus, it is capable of treating almost the entire equilibrium thermodynamics of fluid systems and can constitute a powerful alternative to group/fragment-based methods such as UNIFAC.

192 Basically, the COSMO-RS method assumes that the molecule is made up of small surface elements rather than functional groups. The charge density of each of these elements is evaluated by means of quantum mechanics calculations. An ensemble of interacting molecules is replaced by the corresponding ensemble of interacting surface pieces characterized by a screening charge density, namely, the contribution of all of the differences in polarity obtained when the molecules are not isolated. The characteristic distribution of charges obtained by considering all of these surface elements is the “sigma profile” of the molecule, which describes the amount of surface in the ensemble having a screening charge density between σ and $\sigma + d\sigma$. Starting from the sigma profile and applying a straightforward statistical mechanics treatment, one obtains directly the excess Gibbs energy as a function of composition.

207 Many are the advantages of the method. First, because each molecule is characterized by a sigma profile, the method can treat proximity effects, can distinguish among isomers, and can also take into account the result of a conformational analysis.

211 Furthermore, unlike UNIFAC, the method is not based on an
 212 analytical form of the excess Gibbs energy, and the model
 213 contains only a very few adjustable parameters at the atomistic
 214 level, such as the atomic dimensions. If the parameters are
 215 known for each element present, predictions can be made for
 216 any compounds or mixtures made up from them. There is no
 217 requirement for large databases of experimental data for
 218 characterizing the binary interactions between functional groups,
 219 as needed for UNIFAC. The method is presently applicable only
 220 to liquids, since the basic theory has been derived at liquid-like
 221 densities.

222 With COSMO-RS we use DFT calculations, which yield
 223 ground-state properties as reliably as Hartree–Fock methods
 224 with higher order correlation corrections but at much lower cost.
 225 DFT methods, even at the default level, have sufficiently good
 226 tails to reproduce reliably quantities such as dipole moments
 227 and polarizabilities, which are of crucial importance for any
 228 solvation calculation.

229 Compared with COSMO-RS, UNIFAC has a number of
 230 limitations, to set against its great calculation speed. The
 231 assumption that a given group makes the same contribution in
 232 different molecules implies that it is not influenced by the nature
 233 of the atoms that surrounds it. Similarly, positional isomers are
 234 necessarily considered identical (e.g., the different mono- and
 235 dioctanoyl derivatives of glycerol), and the effects of different
 236 conformations are also ignored. Moreover UNIFAC shows a
 237 significant difficulty in the treatment of mixtures of molecules
 238 with strong size and shape differences. COSMO-RS is an
 239 efficient method for calculating equilibrium properties for liquid
 240 mixtures that shows several advantages with respect to UNIFAC.
 241 Nonetheless, being based on approximations, it has some
 242 limitations such as the impossibility of describing structural
 243 changes induced by hydrogen bond formation. Fortunately these
 244 limitations are not crucial for the applications considered.

245 Calculations

246 In this work we consider three lipase-catalyzed esterification
 247 reactions, carried out in different solvents: (1) esterification of
 248 1-dodecanoic acid with menthol in *n*-hexane, *n*-heptane, cyclo-
 249 hexane, 2,2,4-trimethylpentane, toluene, acetonitrile, and 2-methyl-
 250 2-butanol (10); (2) esterification of 1-dodecanoic acid and
 251 1-dodecanol in *n*-hexane, *n*-heptane, cyclohexane, 2,2,4-trimethyl-
 252 pentane, and toluene (6); and (3) esterification of glycerol
 253 and *n*-octanoic acid in acetonitrile, benzene, and toluene and in
 254 the neat reaction mixture (without any solvent) (12). In the case
 255 of this last reaction, there are five possible products, which lead
 256 to 12 different reactions. Experimental concentrations at equi-
 257 librium were taken directly from the work of Tewari et al. (6,
 258 10, 12).

259 Both UNIFAC and COSMO-RS offer predictions of activity
 260 coefficients (γ , defined such that $a_i = \gamma_i \cdot x_i$) in a mixture of any
 261 defined composition. For any esterification reaction, there will
 262 be a thermodynamic equilibrium constant (K_{th}) given by a ratio
 263 of activities:

$$264 \quad K_{th} = \frac{a_{ester} \cdot a_{water}}{a_{alcohol} \cdot a_{acid}} \quad (1)$$

265 whose value is independent of the composition of the medium
 266 (including the nature of any solvent). It is necessary that the
 267 same standard state is used for these activities under all
 268 conditions; both UNIFAC and COSMO-RS satisfy this by using
 269 the pure (super cooled) liquid standard state.

270 K_{th} can be also defined as

$$271 \quad K_{th} = K_x \cdot K_\gamma \quad (2)$$

272 where K_x is the mole fraction ratio as reactions approach
 273 equilibrium and K_γ is
 274

$$275 \quad K_\gamma = \frac{\gamma_{ester} \cdot \gamma_{water}}{\gamma_{alcohol} \cdot \gamma_{acid}} \quad (3)$$

276 Since all of the reactions considered here have the same
 277 number of molecules among the starting materials and products,
 278 the concentration-based equilibrium ratio K_c is dimensionless
 279 and equal to K_x .

280 The data of Tewari et al. offer a series of reported composi-
 281 tions as reactions approach equilibrium. The reported mole
 282 fractions can be used as an input to a UNIFAC or COSMO-RS
 283 calculation, leading to predicted activity coefficients for each
 284 reactant at the composition given.

285 Now, if the reactions measured were at equilibrium and the
 286 activity coefficient predictions are correct, all K_{th} values for a
 287 given reaction should be equal regardless of the solvent,
 288 composition, etc. (The K_c and K_γ values are of course different.)
 289 Therefore, correct predictions of the activity coefficients of each
 290 reactant in each solvent lead simply to prediction of the solvent
 291 dependence of the equilibrium constant (K_c or K_x).

292 In the case of glycerol esterification, the analytical methods
 293 used by Tewari et al. (12) were unable to distinguish the
 294 positional isomers of monoacylglycerols. Those authors there-
 295 fore used statistical arguments to assign isomer ratios. However,
 296 other experiments have shown that isomer ratios can be
 297 substantially different (e.g., Dudal and Lortie (33)). We have
 298 not attempted to adjust the reported concentrations, in part
 299 because the isomer ratio is probably medium-dependent, as
 300 suggested by the activity coefficients calculated by COSMO-
 301 RS. This should be taken into account in considering the
 302 reactions involving monoacylglycerols (3.1, 3.2, 3.6–3.10). It
 303 should also be noted that achievement of full equilibrium in
 304 the glycerol system probably involved nonenzymatic acyl
 305 migration reactions, because the lipase used was 1,3-specific.

306 For UNIFAC calculation the implementation available in the
 307 Aspen Properties version 11.1 program (31) with standard
 308 parametrization was used (original UNIFAC model).

309 The COSMO-RS statistical mechanics by Klamt (27) was
 310 implemented in the program COSMOtherm (28) from COS-
 311 MOlogic (version C 2.1 rel 01/04) with the parametrization as
 312 implemented in the commercial Turbomole code (29) version
 313 5.7 (30). The gas-phase reference energies for all the structures
 314 in the data sets were obtained from nonlocal DFT with VWN-
 315 BP (= B88-VWN-P86) gas-phase optimization applying the
 316 Ahlrichs-TZVP basis set (30). The resolution of identity (RI)
 317 method was used, although it proved to be irrelevant for the
 318 properties of interest in this investigation. All structures were
 319 then reoptimized in a continuum conductor (i.e., with Turbo-
 320 mole/COSMO and $f(\epsilon) = 1$, using a number of segments =
 321 92). The values of the area and volume of the dielectric cavity
 322 in which the solute molecule is embedded can be extracted
 323 directly from the corresponding files. The COSMO-RS code
 324 reports in the output file the values of the activity coefficients
 325 under the experimental conditions.

326 A detailed conformational analysis has been carried out for
 327 those components for which different conformers show evident
 328 differences in the sigma profiles. Long chain aliphatic com-
 329 pounds (such as dodecanoic acid and dodecanol) do not show
 330 any appreciable effect on the sigma profile, since this is mainly
 331 influenced by the polar functional group. The same reasoning
 332 may easily be extended to all the solvents and to menthol, which
 333 has a limited conformational mobility. Therefore, the confor-
 334 mational analysis has been carried out for glycerol only, and
 335 the results have been used in the COSMO-RS predictions: four
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Table 1. Equilibrium Constants for Menthol Reaction; Comparison between the COSMO-RS and UNIFAC Models for Prediction of Activities^a

	COSMO-RS			UNIFAC	
	K_x	K_γ	K_{th}	K_γ	K_{th}
<i>n</i> -hexane	6.4	9.2	58.6	31.5	200.7
<i>n</i> -heptane	18.2	11.8	215.0	30.6	556.5
cyclohexane	25.9	12.3	319.3	33.1	856.7
2,2,4-trimethylpentane	16.9	11.5	194.2	30.4	515.2
toluene	10.6	14.9	157.2	24.3	257.1
acetonitrile	3.4	34.4	115.9	22.4	75.4
2-methyl-2-butanol	4.3	21.6	93.1	25.8	110.8
SSD			87.7		285.2
RAD % (eq 4)			41		64

^a K_x is the composition equilibrium constant, K_γ is the activity coefficient ratio, and K_{th} is the thermodynamic equilibrium constant.

322 discrete conformers with equal probability have been used in
323 the calculations.

334 All simulations were performed on Intel Xeon 3.03 MHz bi-
335 processors with 1Gbyte RAM each connected to a storage area
336 network of up to 2 Tbyte capacity with Linux Red Hat 7.2 or
337 Windows XP operating systems. UNIFAC calculation time was
338 negligible, and COSMO-RS calculation time was between 1
339 and 2 h for the Turbomole quantum mechanics and of the order
340 of seconds for the statistical mechanics calculations on each
341 mixture composition. It should be noted that quantum mechanics
342 calculations are done just once for each molecule and the results
343 are stored in a database for subsequent calculations on any
344 mixture containing that compound.

345 Results and Discussion

346 Table 1 shows the results of the calculations for the
347 esterification of menthol. The concentration equilibrium constant
348 is reported in column 2 and clearly varies considerably between
349 the different media. This must reflect differing solvation of the
350 reactants, which the treatment in terms of thermodynamic
351 activities should allow for. Columns 3 and 4 report the values
352 of the activities and thermodynamic equilibrium constants
353 obtained by the COSMO-RS model and columns 5 and 6 the
354 same quantities calculated by UNIFAC. We can note that the
355 average relative percent deviation and the standard deviations
356 (SSD) of the K_{th} values are substantially lower for the COSMO-
357 RS method than for UNIFAC. The relative average deviations
358 are calculated with respect to the mean value, as follows:

$$359 \text{ RAD\%} = 100 \frac{1}{n} \sum \frac{|x_i - \bar{x}|}{\bar{x}} \quad (4)$$

360 The deviations give an indication of the departure from the
361 mean, constant values; therefore, they are good measures of
362 the quality of the model predictions, since K_{th} should be constant
363 on changing solvents, as noted above.

364 Table 1 shows a 3-fold difference in K_{th} for the esterification
365 of menthol in hexane and heptane, which is quite odd behavior
366 considering the similarity of these two solvents. This happens
367 using either COSMO-RS or UNIFAC: in both cases K_γ values
368 are almost identical for the two solvents, while the significant
369 difference is completely ascribable to the experimental K_x .
370 Treating the hexane value as an outlier would significantly
371 reduce the SSD and RAD values for COSMO-RS, but not for
372 UNIFAC.

373 Table 2 shows similar results obtained for the esterification
374 of dodecanol: the statistical indexes show clearly the significant
375 difference in the performance of the models.

376 The higher accuracy of the COSMO-RS method is also
evident for the esterification of glycerol (Table 3), in which all

Table 2. Equilibrium Constants for Dodecanol Reaction; Comparison between the COSMO-RS and UNIFAC Models for Prediction of Activities^a

	COSMO-RS			UNIFAC	
	K_x	K_γ	K_{th}	K_γ	K_{th}
<i>n</i> -hexane	42.6	3.0	127.7	34.5	1470.1
<i>n</i> -heptane	35.5	3.8	134.4	33.9	1202.9
cyclohexane	24.2	3.6	85.9	36.1	873.3
2,2,4-trimethylpentane	24.5	3.6	86.9	33.5	820.2
toluene	15.3	6.8	104.1	26.2	400.0
SSD			22.6		406.1
RAD % (eq 4)			17		32

^a K_x is the composition equilibrium constant, K_γ is activity coefficient ratio, and K_{th} is thermodynamic equilibrium constant.

of the reactions are considered separately. The better perfor-
mance of the COSMO-RS model is particularly evident for
reactions 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, 3.9, and 3.10. Figure 1 shows
a graphical comparison of K_{th} values calculated for each reaction.
 K_{th} values calculated by COSMO-RS (white bars) and UNIFAC
(black bars) are reported, on a logarithmic scale, for all of the
subreactions (see Table 3). The graphical representation makes
it visually evident that for most of the 12 reactions K_{th} in the
four different solvents is much more constant (similar height
of the bars) when calculated by COSMO-RS.

To help the reader evaluate the differences between the two
models, Figure 2 reports the details of four selected reactions
(3.1, 3.3, 3.9, and 3.10). Comparison for all reactions is reported
in Supporting Information. In the reactions in Figure 2, the
COSMO-RS predicted values of K_{th} vary by only about 2-fold.
It is generally considered hard to measure equilibrium constants
more accurately than this, corresponding to a change in ΔG°
value of less than 2 kJ or 0.5 kcal/mol. This can be seen in the
differences between replicate measurements for the same
reaction in the data of Tewari et al. Hence in these cases
COSMO-RS predictions for medium effects would be as
accurate as experiment, certainly in hands less skilled than the
NIST group. In the worse cases the variation is about 9-fold,
corresponding to about 5.5 kJ/mol. This would still be a very
useful prediction that would point to the best solvents for
experimental test.

The good predictions made using the COSMO-RS model are
very promising. COSMO-RS uses the easier conductor solution
to approximate the complicated solution at the limit for
dielectrics. This approximation, which considers the solvent as
an ideal conductor, makes COSMO-RS calculations exact for
the infinite limit and keeps a very high accuracy in the case of
strong dielectrics, such as water. Even in the case of the lowest
dielectric for an organic solvent, the accuracy is still good.

The activity coefficients calculated by the two methods in
some cases differ by more than 10-fold, up to more than 100-
fold (see Supporting Information for tables of activity coef-
ficients). Species that show these high differences are mostly
reactants and products of the esterification of glycerol and
octanoic acid. In particular, activity coefficients of glycerol in
the hydrophobic solvents (toluene and benzene) differ by more
than 10-fold, whereas an even higher variation is evident in the
case of the correspondent esters in acetonitrile. Probably this is
due to the important role that proximity and conformational
effects play in the solvation process. Moreover COSMO-RS
calculates different activity coefficients for the different dio-
ctanoyl esters, which are indeed different chemical species,
whereas UNIFAC cannot distinguish between them. However
these differences cannot be discussed in detail without a
comparison with experimental data for individual activity
coefficients, which will be the subject of future work.

Table 3. Equilibrium Constants for Esterification of Glycerol and *n*-octanoic Acid. Comparison between the COSMO-RS and UNIFAC Models for the Prediction of Activities^a

	neat reaction	aceto- nitrile	tol- uene	ben- zene	SSD	RAD% (eq 4)		neat reaction	aceto- nitrile	tol- uene	ben- zene	SSD	RAD% (eq 4)
3.1: glycerol + <i>n</i> -octanoic acid = 1-monoctanoyl glycerol + H ₂ O							3.7: 1-monoctanoyl glycerol + <i>n</i> -octanoic acid = 1,3-dioctanoyl glycerol + H ₂ O						
COSMO-RS	K_x	1.6	5.8	0.8	0.6		COSMO-RS	K_x	0.8	3.5	2.2	2.7	
	K_y	1.5	0.3	4.2	2.7			K_y	1.4	1.4	0.4	0.2	
	K_{th}	2.4	1.8	3.3	1.6	0.8	25		K_{th}	1.1	5.0	0.8	0.7
UNIFAC	K_y	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.6			UNIFAC	K_y	3.3	4.7	5.8	5.3
	K_{th}	0.6	3.3	0.5	0.4	1.4	85		K_{th}	2.7	16.7	12.8	14.4
3.2: glycerol + <i>n</i> -octanoic acid = 2-monoctanoyl glycerol + H ₂ O							3.8: 2-monoctanoyl glycerol + <i>n</i> -octanoic acid = 1,2-dioctanoyl glycerol + H ₂ O						
COSMO-RS	K_x	1.6	5.8	0.8	0.6		COSMO-RS	K_x	0.6	2.4	1.5	1.8	
	K_y	1.5	0.3	4.2	2.7			K_y	3.6	1.6	0.4	0.3	
	K_{th}	2.4	1.8	3.3	1.6	0.8	25		K_{th}	2.0	3.9	0.6	0.5
UNIFAC	K_y	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.6			UNIFAC	K_y	3.3	4.7	5.8	5.3
	K_{th}	0.6	3.3	0.5	0.4	1.4	85		K_{th}	1.9	11.4	8.7	9.8
3.3: glycerol + 2 <i>n</i> -octanoic acid = 1,2-dioctanoyl glycerol + 2 H ₂ O							3.9: 1-monoctanoyl glycerol + 2 <i>n</i> -octanoic acid = 1,2,3-trioctanoyl glycerol + 2 H ₂ O						
COSMO-RS	K_x	0.9	13.9	1.2	1.1		COSMO-RS	K_x	0.3	2.8	3.0	3.0	
	K_y	5.3	0.5	1.6	0.7			K_y	61.0	8.5	8.4	3.6	
	K_{th}	4.9	7.1	1.8	0.8	2.9	64		K_{th}	19.8	23.6	25.0	10.9
UNIFAC	K_y	1.3	2.7	4.0	3.4			UNIFAC	K_y	36.5	74.8	111.3	94.3
	K_{th}	1.2	37.1	4.7	3.8	17.0	109		K_{th}	11.9	207.6	332.6	285.5
3.4: glycerol + 2 <i>n</i> -octanoic acid = 1,3-dioctanoyl glycerol + 2 H ₂ O							3.10: 2-monoctanoyl glycerol + 2 <i>n</i> -octanoic acid = 1,2,3-trioctanoyl glycerol + 2 H ₂ O						
COSMO-RS	K_x	1.3	20.4	1.7	1.6		COSMO-RS	K_x	0.3	2.8	3.0	3.0	
	K_y	2.0	0.4	1.5	0.7			K_y	61.0	8.5	8.4	3.6	
	K_{th}	2.7	9.0	2.6	1.1	3.5	67		K_{th}	19.8	23.6	25.0	10.9
UNIFAC	K_y	1.3	2.7	4.0	3.4			UNIFAC	K_y	36.5	74.8	111.3	94.3
	K_{th}	1.8	54.5	7.0	5.6	25.0	109		K_{th}	11.9	207.6	332.6	285.5
3.5: glycerol + 3 <i>n</i> -octanoic acid = 1,2,3-trioctanoyl glycerol + 3 H ₂ O							3.11: 1,2-dioctanoyl glycerol + <i>n</i> -octanoic acid = 1,2,3-trioctanoyl glycerol + H ₂ O						
COSMO-RS	K_x	0.5	16.0	2.4	1.8		COSMO-RS	K_x	0.6	1.2	2.0	1.6	
	K_y	89.9	2.7	35.1	9.7			K_y	16.9	5.2	22.6	13.9	
	K_{th}	47.6	42.5	82.6	17.8	26.7	37		K_{th}	9.8	6.0	44.8	22.7
UNIFAC	K_y	14.5	42.3	76.8	59.9			UNIFAC	K_y	11.1	15.8	19.3	17.8
	K_{th}	7.7	676.3	180.8	109.9	297.1	89		K_{th}	6.4	18.2	38.3	29.1
3.6: 1-monoctanoyl glycerol + <i>n</i> -octanoic acid = 1,2-dioctanoyl glycerol + H ₂ O							3.12: 1,3-dioctanoyl glycerol + <i>n</i> -octanoic acid = 1,2,3-trioctanoyl glycerol + H ₂ O						
COSMO-RS	K_x	0.6	2.4	1.5	1.8		COSMO-RS	K_x	0.4	0.8	1.3	1.1	
	K_y	3.6	1.6	0.4	0.3			K_y	44.8	6.0	23.6	14.8	
	K_{th}	2.0	3.9	0.6	0.5	1.6	70		K_{th}	17.6	4.7	31.8	16.5
UNIFAC	K_y	3.3	4.7	5.8	5.3			UNIFAC	K_y	11.1	15.8	19.3	17.8
	K_{th}	1.9	11.4	8.7	9.8	4.2	38		K_{th}	4.4	12.4	26.0	19.8
COSMO-RS average					6.8	49							
UNIFAC average					55.2	65							

^a K_x is the composition equilibrium constant, K_y is the activity coefficient ratio, and K_{th} is the thermodynamic equilibrium constant. Note that several of these reactions may be expressed as the sum of two or three others. Hence K_x , K_y , and K_{th} values are equal to the product of those for the other reactions.

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Conclusions

The calculations reported in this study show how the COSMO-RS model gives good results in predicting activities and hence equilibrium positions for the esterification reactions investigated. Recently (32), similar results indicating the superiority of the COSMO-RS model with respect to classical Excess Gibbs energy models have been reported in the literature, for a simpler system. Consequently, by means of the proposed method, it is possible to select the appropriate solvent for a given enzymatic reaction on the basis of ab initio calculations rather than experimental trials.

The predictions reported are based on DFT gas-phase calculations and the subsequent application of COSMO-RS statistical mechanics for the estimation of the Gibbs energy of the condensed mixtures. The COSMO-RS method proved to be very accurate and superior to UNIFAC. This is probably because COSMO-RS allows the treatment of long chain molecules, conformers, and isomers, while taking into account proximity effects of the functional groups in the molecules. The COSMO-RS method is computationally more intensive than UNIFAC because gas-phase DFT calculations are required for the isolated molecules.

We conclude that COSMO-RS should be a useful tool in biocatalysis for making in silico predictions for the selection of the optimal solvent for a given reaction, with two immediate applications. The first one is the prediction of equilibrium position: if experimental data are available for the equilibrium position in one solvent, one can use activity coefficients calculated from COSMO-RS to estimate K_{th} . This same K_{th} value should apply for the same reaction in any other medium of interest, and hence further iterative COSMO-RS calculations can be used to find the equilibrium position corresponding to any given starting mixture. An efficient algorithm for this is under development. The second application is the prediction or rationalization of medium effects on enzyme kinetics: as noted in the Introduction (16–18), these are often dominated by effects on reactant solvation. When this is the case and kinetic parameters (K_m or V_m/K_m) have been measured for one solvent, COSMO-RS calculations can give predictions for any other medium of interest.

The method can also aid the rational design of reaction systems in the case of water–organic solvent mixtures, where pK_a values can be affected. This appears particularly relevant since the protonation state of reactants and products can strongly

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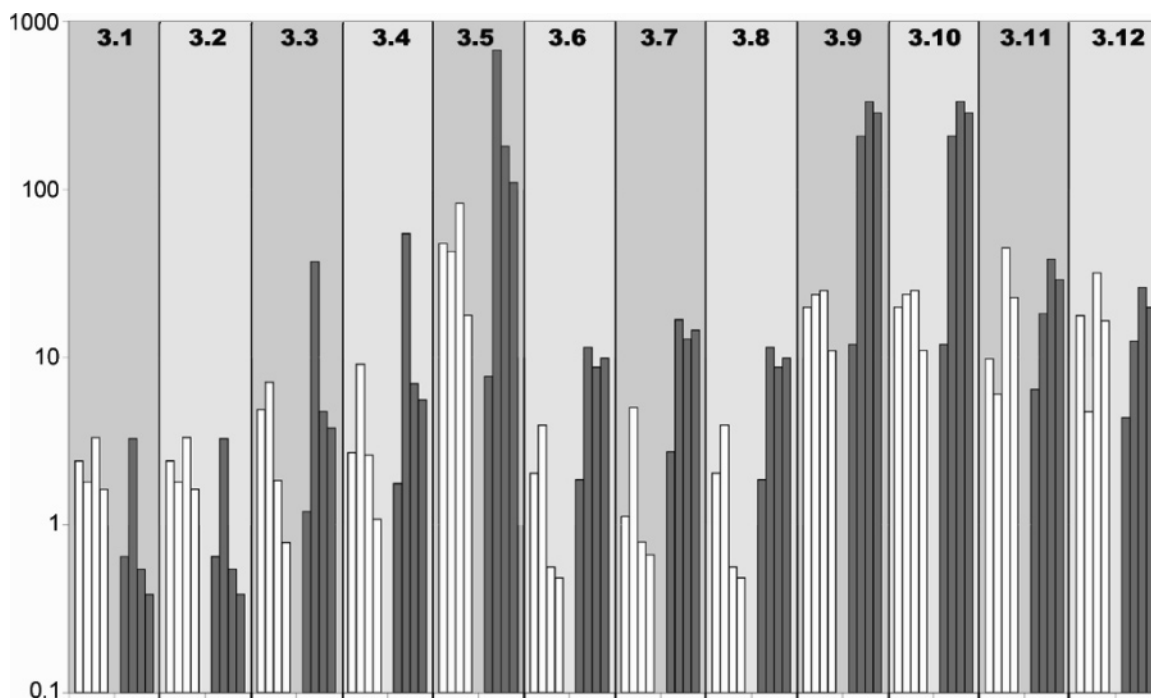


Figure 1. Comparison of K_{th} calculated by COSMO-RS and UNIFAC for the entire set of reactions in the esterification of glycerol and *n*-octanoic acid. Each group of four bars shows predictions, from left to right, for the neat reaction mixture, acetonitrile, toluene, and benzene. K_{th} is reported on a logarithmic scale, and the 12 reactions are indicated at the top, numbered as in Table 3. White bars represent the K_{th} calculated by COSMO-RS, and the UNIFAC results are reported in black. Accurate predictions are indicated by similar heights for all four bars in a group.

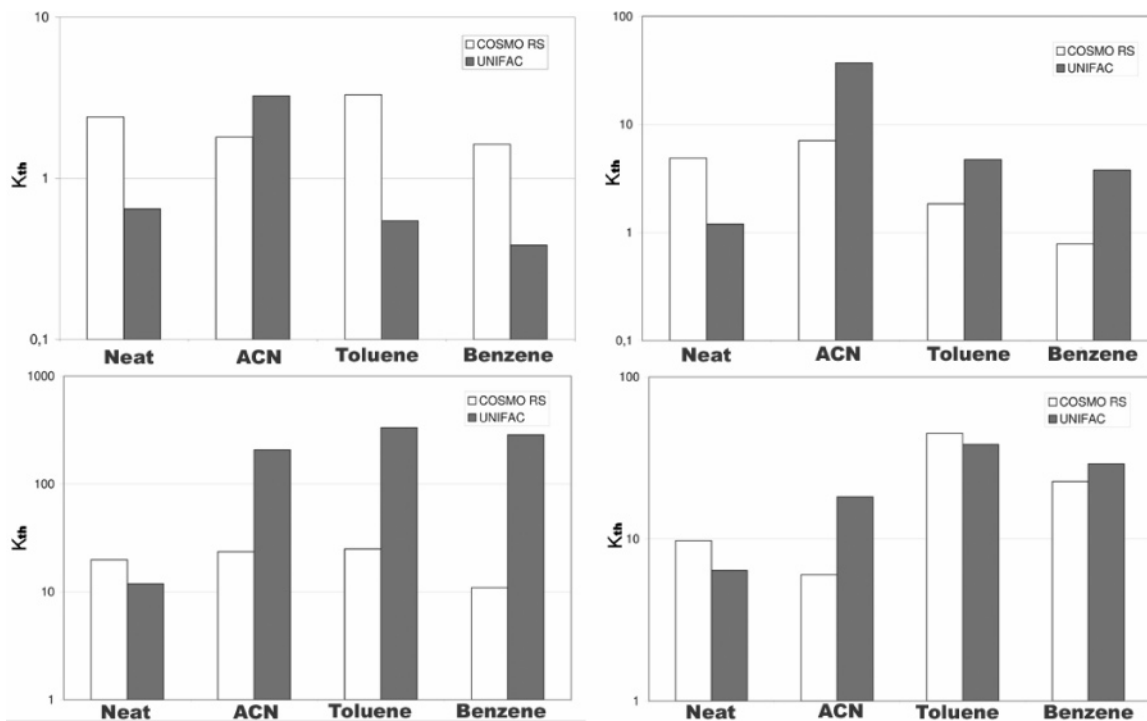


Figure 2. Detailed comparison of K_{th} calculated by COSMO-RS and UNIFAC for selected reactions in the esterification of glycerol and *n*-octanoic acid. Upper left: (3.1) glycerol + *n*-octanoic acid = 1-monooctanoyl glycerol + H₂O. Upper right: (3.3) glycerol + 2 *n*-octanoic acid = 1,2-dioctanoyl glycerol + 2 H₂O. Lower left: (3.9) 1-monooctanoyl glycerol + 2 *n*-octanoic acid = 1,2,3-trioctanoyl glycerol + 2 H₂O. Lower right: (3.11) 1,2-dioctanoyl glycerol + *n*-octanoic acid = 1,2,3-trioctanoyl glycerol + H₂O.

472 affect the reaction system. Moreover, enzyme catalytic activity
473 is strongly influenced by pH, and often the pH range for enzyme
474 activity is very narrow.

475 In the future, the method will be tested against diverse
476 biocatalyzed reactions to assess its performance with very
477 different chemical systems. The final goal is to make a COSMO-
478 RS-based theoretical method for solvent selection with general

applicability. In principle it is applicable also to biocatalysis in
ionic liquids.

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489 **Supporting Information Available:** Activity coefficients for
490 all the species of the reactions. Figures summarizing the results of
491 the complete subset of reactions of esterification of glycerol and
492 octanoic acid. This material is available free of charge via the
493 Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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