**Atmospheric
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EVAPORATION: a new vapor pressure estimation method for organic molecules including non-additivity and intramolecular interactions

S. Compernolle, K. Ceulemans, and J.-F. Müller

Belgian Institute for Space-aeronomy, Ringlaan 3, 1180 Brussels, Belgium

Correspondence to: S. Compernolle (steven.compernolle@aeronomie.be)

Abstract

We present EVAPORATION (Estimation of VApour Pressure of ORganics, Account-
ing for Temperature, Intramolecular, and Non-additivity effects), a method to predict
vapour pressure p^0 of organic molecules needing only molecular structure as input.
The method is applicable to zero-, mono- and polyfunctional molecules. A simple for-
mula to describe $\log_{10} p^0(T)$ is employed, that takes into account both a wide temper-
ature dependence and the non-additivity of functional groups. In order to match the
recent data on functionalised diacids an empirical modification to the method was in-
troduced. Contributions due to carbon skeleton, functional groups, and intramolecular
interaction between groups are included. Molecules typically originating from oxidation
of biogenic molecules are within the scope of this method: carbonyls, alcohols, ethers,
esters, nitrates, acids, peroxides, hydroperoxides, peroxy acyl nitrates and peracids.
Therefore the method is especially suited to describe compounds forming secondary
organic aerosol (SOA).

1 Introduction

The vapour pressure of a molecule is an important property regulating its distribu-
tion between the gas and particulate phase. While the vapour pressure of hydrocar-
bons and monofunctional molecules follows simple relationships, that of polyfunctional
molecules is more difficult to describe. This is partly because the vapour pressure of
such molecules is typically lower and therefore the experimental error is larger, and
partly because there are more complex interactions (inter- and intramolecular in the
liquid, intramolecular in the gas phase) between the functional groups. The molecules
comprising secondary organic aerosol (SOA), which is the focus of our research, are
typically polyfunctional. These semi- and low-volatility molecules originate from the
oxidation of volatile organic compound (VOC) and they are of such a large diversity
that a full determination of all species is unrealistic, let alone that for each species

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a vapour pressure can be measured. Near-explicit volatile organic compound oxidation mechanisms, like the MCM (Master chemical mechanism Jenkin et al., 1997; Saunders et al., 2003), BOREAM (Biogenic compounds Oxidation and RElated Aerosol formation Model Capouet et al., 2008; Ceulemans et al., 2010), the GECKO-A (Generator for Explicit Chemistry and Kinetics of Organics in the Atmosphere Aumont et al., 2005)) aim to simulate the complex chemistry leading to the oxygenated semi-volatile and low-volatile species. To simulate SOA formation, the chemical mechanism is coupled to a partitioning module, where it is typically assumed that these compounds partition to the SOA according to their vapour pressure. Frequently used is the equilibrium partitioning formalism proposed by Pankow (1994) where the SOA is considered as a well-mixed liquid; although recent findings (Cappa and Wilson, 2010) suggest that also another mechanism is possible, where the aerosol is rapidly converted from an absorptive to a non-absorptive phase. Estimation methods are therefore desired, that can quickly but reliably calculate vapour pressure from basic molecular structure information (e.g. a SMILES (Simplified Molecular Input Line Entry Specification) notation).

For some vapour pressure estimation methods other molecular properties are required as input, such as the boiling point (Nannoolal et al., 2008; Moller et al., 2008; Myrdal and Yalkowsky, 1997), and this can contribute to the overall error if this property itself has to be estimated. Several estimation methods were developed primarily for the relatively volatile hydrocarbons and monofunctional compounds, rather than the low-volatility polyfunctional molecules. For example, for low-volatility compounds, the method of Joback and Reid (1987) overpredicts boiling points (Stein and Brown, 1994; Barley and McFiggans, 2010; Compernolle et al., 2010), and the method of Myrdal and Yalkowsky (1997) tends to overestimate vapour pressures (Barley and Mc-Figgans, 2010) when provided with an experimental boiling point. Another frequently encountered limitation is that not all molecule types are covered by the method at hand. Therefore, we recently extended some estimation methods to cover e.g. hydroperoxides and peracids (Compernolle et al., 2010). Some methods assume additivity in $\ln p^0$ for all functional groups (Capouet and Müller, 2006; Pankow and Asher, 2008), but this

approximation breaks down especially for hydrogen bonding functional groups. The method of Moller et al. (2008); Moller (2010) includes a special term for alcohols and acids to address this issue. Both the methods of Nannoolal et al. (2008) and Moller et al. (2008); Moller (2010) include terms to describe group-group combinations. How-
ever, the number of groups needed to describe these interactions might become very large, with some parameters constrained by only a few molecules. Also the group interactions are described in a non-local way, i.e. the relative position of two functional groups does not matter, contrary to chemical intuition. Finally, very recently new room temperature low vapour pressure data of polyfunctional compounds became available
– especially diacids and polyfunctional diacids (Frosch et al., 2010; Booth et al., 2010, 2011) – and it turned out that the available methods do not predict this data well (Booth et al., 2010, 2011). For these reasons, the need of a new estimation method addressing the above issues is clear.

2 Data set

2.1 Data collection of vapour pressures and boiling points

The data used for the development of EVAPORATION is presented in Table 1 of the Supplement. Data can be present as (i) original experimental data, (ii) a pressure-temperature ($p^0(T)$) correlation, (iii) a boiling point at atmospheric pressure or (iv) a boiling point at reduced pressure. Although original experimental vapor pressure data is preferable over a $p^0(T)$ correlation, the error due to the use of a $p^0(T)$ correlation within its appropriate temperature range is minor compared to other error sources. As collecting all individual points in a data file is time-consuming, this was not pursued in all cases, even when the original experimental data was available. When using a $p^0(T)$ correlation, we took points with a 10 K interval. For $p^0(T)$ correlations of secondary data sources, we took generally only the vapour pressures above 1 kPa into account. This follows the recommendations of the secondary data source Engineering

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Sciences Data Unit (ESDU). We adopted this procedure also for the other secondary references (Yaws, 1994; Poling et al., 2001; KDB), as we presumed that the lower end of the reported temperature range rather referred to the melting point, i.e. where a liquid vapour pressure is applicable but the given $p^0(T)$ correlation is not necessarily reliable.

Sublimation pressure data was converted to subcooled liquid vapour pressure data by taking into account the fusion temperature and enthalpy.

Boiling points at atmospheric or reduced pressure were assembled, mostly from Chemistry Webbook of the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST, Linstrom and Mallard) – with important contributions from the compilations of Weast and Grasselli (1989) and Aldrich (1990) – from Lide (2000) and Sanchez and Myers (2000). Hence most boiling points were from secondary sources.

Following groups of compounds can be distinguished:

2.1.1 Non-functionalized hydrocarbons (alkanes and alkenes)

As their vapour pressures are generally considered to be well characterised, we made no attempt to retrieve the primary references for these compounds, and considered a single reference source per compound as sufficient. The most important data sources were the books of Poling et al. (2001); Yaws (1994); Dykyj et al. (1999) and the Korean Thermophysical Properties Databank (KDB). The data was always in the form of a pressure-temperature ($p^0(T)$) correlation. No aromatic compounds were considered, as they are beyond the scope of this work.

2.1.2 Monofunctional compounds

These include aldehydes, ketones, ethers, esters, peroxides, nitrates, peroxy acyl nitrates, alcohols, acids, hydroperoxides and peracids. For these compounds we tried also to collect the primary reference sources. As a rule, all primary reference sources for the same molecule were taken into account, and at most one additional secondary reference if (e.g. by chronology) it was clear that the secondary reference was not

based on the primary reference sources. In addition to the data sources already mentioned for the non-functionalized hydrocarbons, important secondary data sources were ESDU, the compilations of Pankow and co-workers (Asher et al., 2002; Asher and Pankow, 2006; Pankow and Asher, 2008) and NIST. For secondary data sources the data was always in the form of a $p^0(T)$ correlation. ESDU is claimed to be of high quality and contains error estimations of the $p^0(T)$ correlation. Therefore it was preferred over other secondary references. If a $p^0(T)$ correlation or original experimental data set was available for a molecule, no boiling point or reduced pressure boiling point was taken into account, as this point (most often from a secondary data source) would fall most often within the range of this correlation or data set. While for most monofunctional compound types data availability is satisfactory, for some, especially hydroperoxides, peracids and peroxy acyl nitrates, it is not.

2.1.3 Polyfunctional compounds

For bifunctional compounds the availability of vapour pressure data depends strongly on the molecule type. For diols and diacids the situation is best, with data for over 30 molecules and with often dozens of experimental data points per molecule, while for hydroxy nitrates and hydroxy acids data availability is very limited, with data for less than six molecules and often only in the form of a single data point. Also, not all group combinations are covered, e.g. we do not have vapour pressure data on carbonyl nitrates. Important secondary sources here are ESDU and NIST.

For compounds with more than two functional groups, availability is even a more severe problem, although specifically for functionalised diacids the situation improved in recent years thanks to efforts of the atmospheric community (e.g., Booth et al., 2010; Chattopadhyay and Ziemann, 2005; Soonsin et al., 2010; Cappa et al., 2007).

As opposed to monofunctional compounds, for polyfunctional compounds an available boiling point was taken into account even if a $p^0(T)$ correlation or or original experimental data set was available, as the boiling point was generally above the range of this $p^0(T)$ correlation.

2.2 Conversion of sublimation pressure to subcooled liquid vapour pressure data

Sublimation pressures are converted to subcooled liquid vapour pressures by

$$\ln\left(\frac{p_l^0}{p_s^0}\right) = \frac{\Delta H_{fus}}{R}\left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_{fus}}\right) - \frac{\Delta C_{p,sl}}{R}\left(\frac{T_{fus}}{T} - 1 - \ln\left(\frac{T_{fus}}{T}\right)\right) \tag{1}$$

with p_l^0, p_s^0 the vapour pressures of the liquid and solid state respectively, R the ideal gas constant, ΔH_{fus} the enthalpy of fusion and $\Delta C_{p,sl}$ the difference between solid and liquid heat capacity. $\Delta C_{p,sl}$ is frequently not experimentally available and the estimation $\Delta C_{p,sl} \approx \Delta S_{fus} = \frac{\Delta H_{fus}}{T_{fus}}$ is used here. The conversion is especially relevant for the recent data on diacids and functionalised diacids (e.g., Booth et al., 2010; Chattopadhyay and Ziemann, 2005), where the temperature of measurement is far below T_{fus}. In case no experimental ΔH_{fus} and/or T_{fus} is available, it can be estimated by the simple method of Compernolle et al. (2011).

2.3 Data weighting

Optimal parameters are obtained by multiple linear regression, such that

$$\sum_i w_i \left(\log_{10}\left(p_{est,i}^0\right) - \log_{10}\left(p_{exp,i}^0\right)\right)^2 \tag{2}$$

is minimised, with $p_{exp,i}^0$ the experimental vapour pressure data point i and $p_{est,i}^0$ the corresponding modeled vapour pressure. w_i is a weighting factor, introduced such that one reference source cannot dominate, e.g. a reference with a large number of T, p^0 data points as opposed to a reference providing a single boiling point. We set arbitrarily that one reference cannot contribute more than three times more than another one. If $N_{data}(i)$ is the size of the data set which i belongs to, w_i is then defined as

$$w_i = 1, \text{ if } N_{\text{data}}(i) \le 3$$
$$w_i = \frac{3}{N_{\text{data}}(i)}, \text{ otherwise.} \tag{3}$$

2.4 Kovats retention indices from gas chromatography

From NIST, a large quantity of Kovats retention indices (RI) are available. For nitrates and functionalised nitrates, collections are available from Fischer (1999); Kastler (1999). RI are calculated from retention times of the target molecule and of a set of linear alkane reference compounds. A simple and often used approach (e.g. Fischer et al., 1992) to calculate vapour pressure at 298 K from RI of the target molecule, is to use the correlation $\log_{10} p^0$(298 K) – RI of the reference compounds. A hundred-fold increase in RI then corresponds theoretically to a ~ 0.5 decrease in $\log_{10} p^0$ at 298 K. This approach presumes that target compound and reference compounds have the same affinity towards the column, which is not generally true. Furthermore, RI are measured mostly far above room temperature and – specifically for temperature programmed RI, as opposed to isothermal RI – not at one single temperature. Therefore we did not use RI for the parameter fitting of our p^0 estimation method. However, they are still used to draw qualitative conclusions.

2.5 Notes on specific molecule classes

2.5.1 Monofunctional carboxylic acids

Small carboxylic acids ($\sim$ 1–5 carbon atoms) can undergo significant gas-phase dimerization. Acetic acid, for example, is known to be mostly in dimeric form at room temperature, but the effect weakens for larger molecules and higher temperatures. As the association effect is not incorporated in our model, the experimental data has to be corrected for this. The experimental vapour pressure is the sum of both monomeric

(p_m^0) and dimeric (p_d^0) forms.

$$p^0 = p_m^0 + p_d^0 \tag{4}$$

$$K_{assoc} = \frac{p_d^0}{\left(p_m^0\right)^2} \tag{5}$$

Therefore, the vapour pressure of the monomer p_m^0 can be calculated from the experimental vapour pressure p^0 and the association constant:

$$p_m^0 = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{1 + 4p^0 K_{assoc}}}{2K_{assoc}} \tag{6}$$

p_m^0 is taken as observational data to fit the model. Association constants of small carboxylic acids are taken from Miyamoto et al. (1999).

2.5.2 Peroxy acyl nitrates

The only peroxy acyl nitrate for which a measured vapour pressure is available is peroxy acetyl nitrate (Bruckmann and Willner, 1983; Kacmarek et al., 1978). This hampers a cross-validation for this type of compounds. However, it is possible to estimate additional vapour pressures from Henry law's constants $H = p^0 \gamma^\infty$ of peroxy acyl nitrates, under the assumption that the contribution to the infinite dilution activity coefficient γ^∞ of the peroxy acyl nitrate (PAN) group is the same as for peroxy acetyl nitrate itself. Assuming that $\ln\gamma$ of a peroxy acyl nitrate RPAN can be splitted into a contribution of the parent hydrocarbon RCH_3 and a PAN group contribution, one gets

$$\ln\gamma_{PAN}^\infty = \ln\gamma_{RPAN}^\infty - \ln\gamma_{RCH_3}^\infty \tag{7}$$

$$= \ln\gamma_{CH_3PAN}^\infty - \ln\gamma_{C_2H_6}^\infty$$

The vapour pressure of a general RPAN can be found from p^0, H data of hydrocarbons and of peroxy acetyl nitrate (CH$_3$PAN) and H data of the RPAN:

$$\ln p^0_{RPAN} = \ln \frac{H_{RPAN}}{\gamma^\infty_{RPAN}}$$
$$= \ln H_{RPAN} - \ln \gamma^\infty_{RCH_3} - \ln \gamma^\infty_{PAN}$$
$$= \ln H_{RPAN} - \ln \frac{H_{RCH_3}}{p^0_{RCH_3}} - \ln \frac{\gamma^\infty_{CH_3PAN}}{\gamma^\infty_{C_2H_6}} \tag{8}$$
$$= \ln H_{RPAN} - \ln \frac{H_{RCH_3}}{p^0_{RCH_3}} - \ln \frac{H_{CH_3PAN}}{p^0_{CH_3PAN}}$$
$$+ \ln \frac{H_{C_2H_6}}{p^0_{C_2H_6}}$$
$$= \ln \frac{H_{RPAN}}{H_{CH_3PAN}} \frac{H_{C_2H_6}}{H_{RCH_3}} + \ln \frac{p^0_{RCH_3}}{p^0_{C_2H_6}} + \ln p^0_{CH_3PAN}$$

Data of Henry's law constants was taken from Kames and Schurath (1995); Sander (1999).

2.5.3 Diacids and functionalised diacids

Recently, vapour pressure data of several groups on diacids and functionalised diacids became available: Booth et al. (2010, 2011); Pope et al. (2010); Chattopadhyay and Ziemann (2005); Bilde et al. (2003); Monster et al. (2004); Frosch et al. (2010); Soonsin et al. (2010). This data is critical for the development of our vapour pressure method, primarily intended for polyfunctional molecules occurring in SOA. However, there can

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be orders of magnitude difference between measurements by different groups for the same compound, way above the reported experimental errors (typically 30–50 %). Figure 1 shows the vapour pressure vs. carbon number at 300 K for linear diacids calculated from $p^0(T)$ correlations of different reference sources, up to 10 carbon atoms. From 11 carbon atoms on, a departure of the expected vapour pressure or vaporisation enthalpy is observed, probably due to gas-phase cyclization (Ribeiro da Silva et al., 1999; Roux et al., 2005), and therefore this data is not included. Both liquid and solid data sets are present. Note that the shown points of ESDU, Yaws (1994) are obtained by bold extrapolation of $p^0(T)$ correlations from the appropriate temperature range. To a lesser extent this also applies to Ribeiro da Silva et al. (1999, 2001). The subcooled liquid data sets that are not extrapolations (Soonsin et al., 2010; Pope et al., 2010; Riipinen et al., 2007) agree relatively well with one another. Such data is most relevant to the parameterization of our method, as it is intended to predict liquid vapour pressures. Unfortunately, at room temperature liquid data is available only up to 6 carbon atoms, and no data is available for nonlinear or functionalised diacids.

The data for solids on the other hand shows severe disagreement, with the most extreme example being three orders of magnitude different for sebacic acid (ten carbon atoms) between the data of Salo et al. (2010) and Cappa et al. (2007). It has been speculated that this might be due to the experimental technique employed (Cappa et al., 2007; Pope et al., 2010) or to the physical nature of the diacids (Zardini et al., 2006; Soonsin et al., 2010; Salo et al., 2010) (presence of defects, partially or totally amorphous/liquid behaviour). Soonsin et al. (2010) also present vapour pressures of saturated solutions that should in theory equal the sublimation pressure of the corresponding crystalline solid particle, but without the complications encountered for solid particles. Inclusion of all available data in our model would lead to large uncertainties in the fitting parameters. Rather, we did a selection, although we are fully aware that the debate – which vapour pressure data set of diacids is the most reliable? – is not settled. For linear chains, we selected the liquid data sets (Soonsin et al., 2010; Pope et al., 2010; Riipinen et al., 2007) because of their mutual consistency. Second, the

sublimation data of Soonsin et al. (2010) was selected, partly because their data on saturated solutions should be more reliable than data on solid particles themselves, but also because it is consistent with the corresponding liquid vapour pressure data and the fusion enthalpy. Finally, the sublimation pressure data of Cappa et al. (2007) was
5   chosen as it is the most consistent with that of Soonsin et al. (2010) and extends to 10 carbon atoms.

For the nonlinear and functionalised diacids, no data from these references is available. We took therefore data from Monster et al. (2004); Booth et al. (2010, 2011); Ribeiro da Silva et al. (2000, 2001); Bilde and Pandis (2001); Chattopadhyay and Zie-
10 mann (2005); Frosch et al. (2010). The sublimation pressure data of the group of Bilde and coworkers (Bilde and Pandis, 2001; Monster et al., 2004) is relatively high, and we assume that they actually correspond to liquid vapour pressure, as it has been suggested before for the odd-numbered linear chain diacids (Zardini et al., 2006; Soonsin et al., 2010).

15 MacLeod et al. (2007) derived a linear relationship between ΔH_v and $\ln p^0$ for non-hydrogen bonding compounds starting from Trouton's rule. Epstein et al. (2010) established a more general empirical linear relationship including also hydrogen-bonding compounds. It is informing to investigate whether the data on diacids and functionalised diacids obey this relationship. Figure 2 shows that while such a linear correla-
20 tion is indeed observed for various compounds (alkanes, aldehydes, esters, alcohols, diols, hydroperoxides, peracids, peroxy acetyl nitrate and water were taken here), this is in general not the case for the diacids and functionalised diacids. The data of ESDU does obey the correlation, notwithstanding the fact that the data points are bold extrapolations from the appropriate temperature range. Also the data of Cappa et al. (2007)
25 obeys the correlation satisfactorily, and this is an extra argument why we chose their data as representative for linear diacids. Many of the other data points, especially those of Booth et al. (2010); Monster et al. (2004); Bilde et al. (2003) are far from the correlation. This is in itself no proof that these data points are incorrect; for hydrogen-bonding compounds, the $\frac{\Delta H_v}{RT}$ vs. $\ln p^0$ relationship is empirical after all. But it does clearly show

that the measured vapour pressure behaviour of these compounds strongly deviates
from the expected pattern.

3   Statistical evaluators

Reported statistical evaluators include the model bias or mean deviation (MD), the
mean absolute deviation (MAD), indicating the ability of the model to fit the data, and
the predicted MD and MAD, indicating the predictivity of the model.

$$MD = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log_{10} p^0_{est,i} - \log_{10} p^0_{exp,i} \tag{9}$$

$$MAD = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left| \log_{10} p^0_{est,i} - \log_{10} p^0_{exp,i} \right| \tag{10}$$

$$pred.\,MD = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log_{10} p^0_{pred,i} - \log_{10} p^0_{exp,i} \tag{11}$$

$$pred.\,MAD = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left| \log_{10} p^0_{pred,i} - \log_{10} p^0_{exp,i} \right| \tag{12}$$

with p^0_{est} obtained by fitting the model to all available data points i. Note that one
molecule corresponds in general to several data points, from several reference sources
and/or for several temperatures. $p^0_{pred,i}$ is obtained by fitting the model to all data points,
except those of the molecule which i belongs to. Note that to calculate these evaluators
only a multiple linear regression (MLR) was performed; the few nonlinear parameters
(κ for the method optimised for zero- and monofunctional compounds, see Sect. 4.2,
κ, r, N_{eff} for the method optimized for all compounds, see Sect. 4.3) were kept fixed.
The evaluators pred. MD and pred. MAD provide in terms of molecules a leave-one-out
cross-validation (for each item to be estimated, its experimental value is left out of the

fitting set, while all other values remain in the fitting set), but in terms of data points this is a leave-many-out procedure (as leave-one-out, but now for groups of items), as one molecule corresponds in general to several data points. Performing a separate MLR for each left-out molecule would be very inefficient: take a data set of 500 molecules, assume for simplicity that each molecule corresponds to 20 data points, and that 40 parameters are to be optimised, this would amount to solving 500 linear systems of size $(10000 - 20) \times 40$. Applying the work of Besalu (2001) on the leave-many-out method, the problem can be reduced to solving 500 linear systems of size 20×20. Specifically, Eqs. (6) and (7) of Besalu (2001) were used to calculate the $p^0_{\mathrm{pred},i}$. Although Besalu (2001) divided the data set in portions of equal size for sequential prediction, we found that it was not necessary to do so.

4 Method outline

We first describe the temperature dependence of the method. Next, a method applicable to zero- and monofunctional compounds is described. Up to this level, the formulation follows that of a simple group contribution method. Then the method is extended to polyfunctional compounds, and it is described how non-additivity of functional groups is taken into account.

4.1 Temperature dependence

To describe the temperature dependence of the vapour pressure, the following simple empirical formula is proposed:

$$\log_{10} \frac{p^0}{\mathrm{atm}} = A + \frac{B}{T^\kappa} \tag{13}$$

Basically the same formulation was presented by Korsten (2000), who adopted $\kappa = 1.3$, to describe the vapour pressure of hydrocarbons with or without hetero-atoms in a wide

temperature range. Note that setting $\kappa = 1$ returns the basic Clausius-Clapeyron equation under assumption of a temperature-independent enthalpy of vaporisation, valid only in a small temperature interval. A more precise description of the temperature evolution could probably be reached by introducing a larger number of group-specific coefficients, as in SIMPOL (Simplified p_L^0 prediction method, Pankow and Asher, 2008), but Eq. (13) was chosen for its simplicity and to avoid the danger of overfitting.

The term A is directly related to the entropy of boiling $\Delta S_b \equiv \Delta S_v(T_b)$, as from Eq. (13) it follows

$$T_b = \left(-\frac{B}{A} \right)^{1/\kappa} \tag{14}$$

and, under the assumption of an ideal gas,

$$\frac{d\log_{10} p^0}{d(\frac{1}{T})} = -\frac{\Delta H_v}{\ln(10)R} = \frac{\kappa B}{T^{\kappa-1}} \tag{15}$$

Hence the enthalpy of vaporisation ΔH_v and of boiling ΔH_b is given by:

$$\Delta H_v = -\frac{\kappa \ln(10)R}{T^{\kappa-1}} B \tag{16}$$

$$\Delta H_b \equiv \Delta H_v(T_b) = A\kappa \ln(10)R T_b \tag{17}$$

Combining Eq. (17) with the relation $\Delta H_b = \Delta S_b T_b$ results in

$$A = \frac{\Delta S_b}{\kappa \ln(10)R} \tag{18}$$

4.2 Method for zero- and monofunctional compounds

The most basic group-contribution approach describes $\log_{10} p^0$ as into a sum of group contributions (Capouet and Müller, 2006; Pankow and Asher, 2008). This model is

adequate for zero- and monofunctional compounds. A and B are then both divided into a sum of group contributions:

$$A = \sum_k c_k a_k \tag{19}$$

$$B = \sum_k c_k b_k \tag{20}$$

where a_k, b_k can be both first-order group contributions or second-order corrections on these group contributions and c_k are descriptor values of the molecule. A descriptor is a property of the molecule that is readily obtained or calculated, e.g. the number of times a certain functional group occurs. The parameters a_k, b_k then connect the descriptor values to the observable estimate (here $\log_{10} p_{\text{est}}^0$). Combining Eqs. (2), (19) and (20) results in

$$\sum_i w_i \left(\log_{10}\left(p_{\text{est},i}^0 \right) - \log_{10}\left(p_{\text{exp},i}^0 \right) \right)^2$$

$$= \sum_i w_i \left(\sum_k c_k a_k + \frac{\sum_k c_k b_k}{T^\kappa} - \log_{10}(p_{\text{exp},i}^0) \right)^2 \tag{21}$$

which is the function to be minimised. The problem is linear in the parameters a_k, b_k and thus can be solved by MLR at fixed κ. We report also the total group contribution g_k at 298 K

$$g_k = a_k + \frac{b_k}{(298\text{K})^\kappa} \tag{22}$$

and its standard deviation

$$\sigma_k = \sqrt{\text{covar}(a_k) + \frac{\text{covar}(b_k)}{(298\text{K})^{2\kappa}}} \tag{23}$$

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with covar(a_k), covar(b_k) the corresponding diagonal elements of the covariance matrix. To test whether descriptor k is statistically significant, a student's t-test is performed: it was checked if

$$p\text{-value} = 1 - \int_{-u}^{u} f(t, \text{df}) \mathrm{d}t$$

5 with $u = g_k/\sigma_k$, $f(t, \text{df})$ the student's t probability density distribution, df the degrees of freedom, and the p-value the probability that the null hypothesis is true, i.e. that g_k is not statistically different from zero. A high p-value (above the significance level) indicates that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, and hence the descriptor was not retained. A significance level of 0.05 was taken.

10 To calculate a p-value from a student's t probability density distribution the degrees of freedom (df) has to be specified. The degrees of freedom is "the number of independent pieces of information that go into the estimate of a parameter" (Wikipedia). Our approach is different from that of e.g. Raventos-Duran et al. (2010), where, df = #species – #parameters – 1 (or more generally, #observables – #parameters – 1).

15 As the number of species is much higher than the number of parameters, the distribution would then essentially become a normal probability density distribution, with a minimal width. In our opinion, this approach is too optimistic, probably only true when all observables are important to constrain all parameters. Taking as example the peroxy acyl nitrates, only a limited amount of information, namely data on 5 molecules, is

20 available to constrain the parameter for the peroxy acyl nitrate group, the other data being irrelevant for this purpose. Instead, we took as degrees of freedom

df = #(number of species where descriptor occurs) – 1   (24)

Hence df, as we define it here, can be different for different descriptors.

4.2.1 Size and topology of the molecule, evaluating hydrocarbons only

25 Apart from a constant term ($c_1 = 1$), two descriptors are used to describe hydrocarbons. As a descriptor related to the size of the molecule, the number of carbon atoms

are counted; for functionalised molecules also the number of in-chain oxygen atoms is counted. In-chain oxygen atoms are oxygen atoms that cannot be removed without breaking the carbon skeleton and occur in ethers (C**O**C), esters (C(=O)**O**C) and peroxides (C**OO**C). As a descriptor for the topology of the molecule, the topological index
5   t is defined as

t = branching number – ring number   (25)

where the branching number is defined by taking at each carbon the number of *single* carbon-carbon bonds exceeding 2. The notion of single bonds is important as we found that branching at double bonds has no impact on the vapour pressure (Table 1).
10   As ring number and branching number have an impact on $\log_{10} p^0$ that is similar in magnitude but opposite in sign, we lumped them into the single descriptor t. With the few descriptors given above, all non-functionalised hydrocarbons in our database (130 molecules) can be described. Performing the regression for several κ an optimal value (smallest STD) for $\kappa = 1.5$ was found, somewhat higher than the value proposed by
15   Korsten (2000). The method performs well for hydrocarbons, with an MAD of 0.057 and a pred. MAD of 0.060.

4.2.2   Including functional groups and local structure effects, evaluating also monofunctionals

Adding the monofunctional compounds to our fitting set results in a total of 568 species.
20   $\kappa = 1.5$ was still the optimal value. An overview of the descriptors, together with their optimal parameters a_k, b_k for hydrocarbons and monofunctional compounds is given in Table 2. Also given in Table 2 is the total group contribution at 298 K g_k, and the combined standard deviation.
    Parameters are introduced for the functional groups nitrate, carbonyl (including both
25   aldehydes and ketones as their vapour pressures are very similar), ester, peroxy acyl nitrate, alcohol, acid, hydroperoxide and peracid. Ethers and peroxides have no separate functional group contributions, as they are counted already for $k = 2$. Note that the

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hydrogen bonding groups (alcohol, acid, hydroperoxide, peracid) have about the same high a value of ~ 1. In other words, they give a similar contribution to the entropy of boiling. The high value is due to the higher ordering in the liquid phase compared to non-hydrogen bonding liquids. The carbonyl-containing nonhydrogen bonding groups (carbonyl, ester, peroxy acyl nitrate) have a lower a value of ~ 0.3.

The second order effects can be seen as modifications to the functional group contributions, and have likely steric and/or inductive causes. If a functional group is placed on a ring (as opposed to a chain), $\log_{10} p^0$ will be lower. On the other hand, if a functional group is placed not at or near the end of a chain (i.e. not at the 1 or 2 position) $\log_{10} p^0$ will be higher. As is well known, primary alcohols (i.e. where the hydroxyl is placed on a primary carbon) have lower vapour pressures than secondary alcohols, which in turn have lower vapour pressures than tertiary alcohols. The difference in $\log_{10} p^0$ is about the same between primary and secondary, and between secondary and tertiary alcohols. A double bond conjugated with a carbonyl functionality lowers the vapour pressure. This is probably due to the increased dipole moment. p-values of the second order effects are all well below the 0.05 significance level.

For the hydrocarbons, there is an increase in MAD and predicted MAD compared to the regression for hydrocarbons only (see Sect. 4.2.1), but the performance is still satisfactory. For most molecule classes, MAD and pred. MAD are quite low, indicating the goodness-of-fit and the predictivity. The relatively lower performance of the model for peroxy acyl nitrates and peracids can be ascribed to the very limited number of molecules in the data set and possibly also to experimental uncertainty, as decomposition can be a problem for this type of molecules (Egerton et al., 1951; Kacmarek et al., 1978). The bad performance for peroxides, for which the number of data points seems acceptable, is more difficult to understand. Either their vapour pressures do not follow a simple group-contribution rule as for example for the ethers, or the data quality is particularly bad. The peroxide group, as the ether group, does not have a separate group contribution, as they are counted already in descriptor $k = 2$. Inserting a separate descriptor for peroxides did not improve significantly their performance.

We considered also some second order effects that are not retained in the final model. Apart from the p-value, also their influence on the pred. MAD was considered. In our previous method (Capouet and Müller, 2006), we distinguished between primary, secondary and tertiary nitrate groups. However, based on our current vapour pressure data set, we do not find this effect significant (p-value not below 0.05) and it is therefore not retained in the current method. On the other hand, the RI data of Fischer (1999); Kastler (1999) does suggest such an effect. More experimental vapour pressure data on nitrates will hopefully shed light on this issue.

Introducing a descriptor for branching next to peroxide groups (e.g. $-C(C)OOC-$), reduced the MAD from 0.39 to 0.25, but increased the pred. MAD from 0.40 to 0.51, and the p-value of this parameter was 0.08. Therefore, this descriptor was not retained. As opposed to carbonyl functionalities, no important impact was found for double bonds conjugated with acid or ester functionalities. Although branching next to hydrogen bonding groups (e.g. $-C(C)C(=O)OH$, $-C(C)C(OH)-$) seems to increase $\log_{10}p^0$(298K) by about 0.06 (p-value of 0.007), its impact on the MAD and pred. MAD of the hydrogen bonding compounds is marginal.

4.3 Full method

4.3.1 Non-additivity in the A (or ΔS_b) term

An additive model as described above works well for non-substituted hydrocarbons and monofunctional compounds, but it breaks down in general for molecules with multiple functional groups, especially hydrogen bonding ones. For example, the vapour pressure of diols and diacids is lower than would be expected from the purely additive model described in Sect. 4.2, with parameters from Table 2 (Fig. 3). To a smaller degree, this can also be the case for non-hydrogen bonding polar compounds, like diesters (Fig. 4).

To describe this nonadditive behaviour in $\log_{10}p^0$, we assume that while B can still be described as a sum over groups, A can be split up in three parts, and for two of them the group contributions a_k do not add linearly.

$$A = A_{\text{lin}} + A_{\text{CL}} + A_{\text{HB}} \tag{26}$$

$$A_{\text{lin}} = \sum_{k,\text{lin}} c_k a_k \tag{27}$$

$$A_{\text{CL}} = \sum_{k,\text{CL}} \frac{c_k a_k}{N_{\text{CL}}^r} \tag{28}$$

$$A_{\text{HB}} = \sum_{k,\text{H}} \frac{c_k a_k}{N_{\text{HB}}^r} \tag{29}$$

The first part (lin) contains groups that are additive: the groups needed to describe hydrocarbons ($k = 1 - 3$) and the nitrate group. CL (carbonyl-like) denotes groups with a C=O group that are not hydrogen bonding: carbonyls, esters and peroxy acyl nitrates. HB (hydrogen-bonding) includes the hydrogen bonding functionalities (alcohols, acids, hydroperoxides, peracids). The optimal value of the exponent r must be between 0 (additivity of group contributions for A_{CL} and A_{HB}) and 1 (A_{CL} and A_{HB} are averages rather than sums of group contributions), N_{HB} is the number of hydrogen bonding functionalities and N_{CL} the total number of carbonyl, ester and peroxy acyl nitrate groups. Optimizing "by hand" resulted in an optimal value of $r = 0.5$. The non-additivity in A – or ΔS_b, see Eq. (18) – can be understood as follows: the higher molecular order in the liquid when introducing a second group (e.g. going from a mono-alcohol to a diol) is smaller then for the first functional group (e.g. going from an alkane to an alcohol). So while Eqs. (28) and (29) are empirical, they can be thermodynamically rationalised. The value of r is assumed to be the same for A_{CL} and A_{HB}, but because of the smaller value of a_k (~ 0.3) for the CL group, the nonadditive behaviour is weaker than for A_{HB} ($a_k \sim 1.0$). Note that also in the vapour pressure formulation of Myrdal and Yalkowsky (1997) the entropy of boiling increases less than linearly with the number of hydrogen bonding groups. By considering the separate terms A_{CL} and A_{HB}, one assumes additivity for CL and HB types of groups towards each other. This is supported by the data on hydroxy ketones.

4.3.2 Modification for functionalised diacids

The recent data on functionalised diacids (e.g., Booth et al., 2010) points however to a much higher vapour pressure than predicted by the above formulation, and also higher than obtained by a simple group contribution method, with parameters obtained from less functionalised molecules. For example, citric acid, (6 carbon atoms, 3 acid functionalities, 1 alcohol functionality), has about an order of magnitude higher liquid vapour pressure than adipic acid, (6 carbon atoms, 2 acid functionalities) (Booth et al., 2010), while values by roughly 5–6 orders of magnitude lower could be expected based on the simple group contribution method in Sect. 4.2. Likewise, according to the data of Booth et al. (2010), 2,3-dihydroxy succinic acid has about two orders of magnitude higher liquid vapour pressures than succinic acid, while the simple group contribution method would predict roughly 3–4 orders of magnitude lower. This cannot be explained by uncertainties between references (see Sect. 2.5.3), as we took for these examples all vapour pressures from the same reference. Including the non-additivity behaviour from the previous section would only increase the disagreement, since it tends to lower the modeled vapour pressure of a polyfunctional compound. Therefore, for this type of compounds (at least three functionalities, of which at least two acids) an effective group number N_{eff} is introduced:

$$c'_k = \frac{c_k}{N_{CL} + N_{HB}} N_{eff} \qquad (30)$$

Optimizing "by hand" resulted in an optimal value of $N_{eff} = 2.4$. In contrast with the non-additivity behaviour discussed in the previous section, we cannot give a straight-forward explanation of this behaviour, except that seemingly in such heavily function-alised molecules not all functional groups can bond efficiently in the liquid phase at the same time.

For polyols for example, it is seemingly not necessary to introduce this modification. An explanation could be that for the polyols in our data base (mostly with a linear carbon skeleton) efficient intermolecular interaction is possible despite the fact that

they are heavily functionalised. Another explanation could lie in the fact that most data for polyols was obtained at high temperature (above, or closely below, the melting point), and that the need for Eq. (30) for functionalised diacids would also disappear for high temperature data.

4.3.3 Including intramolecular group-interactions, evaluation of all molecules

The set of descriptors and associated parameters of the full model is given in Table 4.

The second order effect "X on chain and not at 1 or 2 position", which was still present for the method described in Sect. 4.2, was not retained here, as its g_k became very small (~ 0.01) and its p-value became very large (~ 0.5).

Except the "alkenoic alcohol flag", which is to be counted at most once per molecule, the other second order effects are counted for each functional group they apply to. Therefore, if applicable, groups 16 and 17 are to be counted twice for dicarbonyls (once for each carbonyl functionality) and once for carbonyl esters (once for the carbonyl functionality, but not for the ester functionality). A molecule with two vicinal carbonyl groups will have a higher vapour pressure, because the dipole moments of both carbonyl groups tend to cancel each other. Except for 2,3-butanedione, there are no room-temperature vapour pressures available of molecules with this structure, and this could be a reason why previous estimation methods did not take this effect into account. It can be illustrated with boiling points and with RI (Table 5). Both properties indicate that molecules with vicinal carbonyl functionalities have a significantly higher volatility than isomers with non-vicinal functionalities.

For diesters, we cannot discern a similar effect from the vapour pressure data. This is probably due to the lower dipole moment of an ester functionality. If a carbonyl group is in β-position vs. another carbonyl group, this also leads to a higher vapour pressure. This is ascribed to the keto-enol tautomerism, an effect well-known in organic chemistry (e.g., Burdett and Rogers, 1964), where the keto-form is transformed into the less polar, more volatile, enolic form.

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Intramolecular hydrogen-bonding for diols with vicinal alcohol functionalities leads to an increased vapour pressure and lower vaporisation enthalpy, as noted by Verevkin (2004). We noticed also for hydroxy carbonyls and hydroxy ethers an increase in vapour pressure if the two functionalities are vicinal. For hydroxy nitrates, direct vapour pressure data (see Roberts (1990) for a compilation) is very sparse (often only a single vapour pressure point) and of questionable accuracy, as vapour pressure was not the target property of the respective studies. However, from the RI on hydroxy nitrates of Kastler (1999) (see Table 6) a decrease in RI (increased p^0) is observed if both functionalities are vicinal. Therefore, we introduced one single descriptor for a functional group next to an alcohol functionality, leading to an increase in vapour pressure. Data on oxo acids is sparse, but it could nevertheless be concluded that p^0 increases if carbonyl and acid functionalities are vicinal. For hydroxy acids, no firm conclusions could be drawn in this respect.

We note that the RI data from Kastler (1999); Fischer (1999) on dinitrates suggests that the vicinality of nitrate functionalities also lead to an increase in p^0. The direct vapour pressure data does not allow to draw this conclusion, so this effect was not retained in the final model.

For bifunctional compounds, the model works reasonably well, but with a lower performance for dinitrates, diacids, keto acids and hydroxy nitrates (Table 7). This can at least in part be ascribed to the experimental data, which is sparse and/or conflicting. Given that other bifunctional compounds are relatively well described, new experimental data can probably reduce these errors significantly, by updating the parameters but without having to modify the model framework. For compounds with more than 2 functional groups, the pred. MD can be very large, up to 0.69. We checked for each vicinal group interaction descriptor, that its removal led to a significantly higher MD and pred. MD for some molecule classes.

5   Comparison with other methods

The considered methods are SPARC (SPARC performs automated reasoning in chemistry) version 4.2 (http://ibmlc2.chem.uga.edu/sparc/) (Hilal et al., 2003), SIMPOL (SIMplified p_L^0 prediction method, Pankow and Asher, 2008), and the methods of Capouet and Müller (2006) (CM), of Myrdal and Yalkowsky (1997) (MY), and of Nannoolal et al. (2008) (Nan). The last two methods are combined with the boiling point methods of Joback and Reid (1987) (JR) or Nannoolal et al. (2004) (Nan): MY-Nan, MY-JR and Nan-Nan. These methods were already intercompared by Compernolle et al. (2010). Note that some of the original methods had to be extended (Compernolle et al., 2010) to treat certain functional groups (i.e. hydroperoxides, peracids). A short description of the methods is given in Table 8. We did not implement the code of SPARC, as we do not have access to its current version, but we have calculated the vapor pressure of all condensable explicit species occurring in BOREAM on-line with SPARC, version 4.2.

5.1   For SOA components where generally no experimental vapour pressure is available

Figure 5 compares the $\log_{10} \frac{p^0}{\text{Torr}}$ of various estimation methods vs. that of EVAPORATION, which is taken as the base case. Intercomparing different estimation methods cannot determine which method is the best for estimating vapour pressures of SOA components, but it might help modellers to figure out the possible impact of using EVAPORATION on simulated aerosol yield. As in Compernolle et al. (2010), the test molecules are the explicit molecules present in the chemical mechanism BOREAM for α-pinene degradation by OH, O_3 and NO_3(Capouet et al., 2008). Given are the MD and mean absolute deviation MAD of these methods vs. the base case. On average, EVAPORATION calculates somewhat lower vapour pressures than the CM method used hitherto by us, indicating that simulated SOA yields will be higher upon implementation of this new method in the BOREAM model.

However, currently no functionalised diacids are present in the explicit part of the BOREAM mechanism. Therefore, the empirical modification of the method, described in Sect. 4.3.2, does not play any role. Applying EVAPORATION to the α-pinene tracer 3-methyl-1,2,3-butane-tricarboxylic acid (MBTCA), found in substantial amounts in ambient aerosols (Szmigielski et al., 2007), a relatively high vapor pressure ($\sim 10^{-8}$ Torr) is predicted, as compared to the other methods, except MY-Nan and SPARC.

5.2 Comparison with experimental data points

We have also compared the various methods to our experimental data set of vapour pressures. While EVAPORATION was fitted also for high temperatures (up to the critical temperature if available) this is not the case for most other methods, and it would be unreasonable to test them for these high temperatures. On the other hand, the restriction to atmospherically relevant temperatures (say up to 40 °C) would leave out several molecule classes (e.g. most polyols). Therefore, we took a temperature range of 270 to 390 K. Another requirement was that the temperature had to be below the MG estimated critical temperature of the parent hydrocarbon, as otherwise the CM method would fail. SPARC was not considered in this intercomparison, as the number of vapour pressure points was too high to calculate by this on-line method. Figure 6 summarizes the MD and MAD for all methods for different molecule classes. One can conclude that

– already for monofunctional compounds, the CM method shows larger deviations. The main reason is that the CM method was optimised only within 298–320 K, a much narrower range than the considered temperature interval of 270–390 K.

– the MY-Nan method follows closely the Nan-Nan method for hydrocarbons and monofunctional compounds but diverge for more functionalised compounds, for which MY-Nan generally predicts higher vapour pressures than Nan-Nan. This is logical as both methods use the same boiling point method, and the difference is evident only when the temperature is well below the boiling point. For some

molecule classes, the overestimation of MY-Nan is extreme, reaching almost two orders of magnitude.

– SIMPOL and MY-JR show some of the largest underestimations.

– the largest deviations are seen for diacids, carbonyl acids, functionalised diacids and the rest group "other polyfunctionals" (see Supplement for their identity). Most methods overestimate diacid vapour pressure and underestimate vapour pressure of oxo acids and functionalised diacids. We note here that for diacids, Pankow and Asher (2008) selected some data (e.g., Chattopadhyay and Ziemann, 2005) that we chose not to take (see Sect. 2.5.3 for the motivation).

– EVAPORATION shows generally the lowest deviations. This is of course not a surprise as EVAPORATION was fitted to the data. We note however that for most molecule classes, the predictions of EVAPORATION are only slightly above its fittings (see Sect. 4.3.3).

6 Conclusions

A new vapor pressure estimation method has been developed, EVAPORATION, intended for polyfunctional molecules as they occur in SOA. Important features are the non-additivity in $\log_{10} p^0$ of functional groups, especially hydrogen-bonding ones, intramolecular group interactions, and the inclusion of recent data on functionalised diacids. To describe this last type of compounds, an ad-hoc modification had to be introduced, effectively limiting the number of groups which are taken into account. We cannot provide a straightforward explanation for this behaviour. Although there is less data on functionalised diacids than on diacids, it is also in this case clear that important differences exist between different reference sources. E.g. sublimation pressure data for 2-oxoglutaric acid can differ by almost two orders of magnitude between different reference sources (Booth et al., 2010; Chattopadhyay and Ziemann, 2005; Frosch

et al., 2010). If the experimental methodology of Soonsin et al. (2010), with the use of mixtures with water, would be applied to obtain vapour pressures of functionalised diacids, the divergence would likely increase, as their sublimation pressure data for diacids is the lowest available. At this point, it is difficult to conclude whether the need of our ad-hoc modification is due to an experimental artefact or an ill-understood behaviour of functionalised diacids. Light could be shed on this issue by the measurement of high-temperature (above the melting point) liquid vapour pressure of functionalised diacids. These vapour pressures should be relatively reliable: no solid to subcooled liquid (e.g., Booth et al., 2010) or mixture to pure liquid conversion (e.g., Riipinen et al., 2007) would be needed, and the vapour pressure should be more accurately measurable at this higher temperature. Then it should become clear whether functionalised diacids have indeed a relatively high vapour pressure compared to e.g. linear diacids. It could then also be checked whether ΔH_v vs. $\ln(p^0)$ at fixed temperature does obey a linear correlation, as it does for a wide variety of compounds (MacLeod et al., 2007; Epstein et al., 2010), and also for the high-temperature data of linear diacids (ESDU, 1995, 2001).

EVAPORATION performs well for zero-, mono- and bifunctional compounds, while errors for molecules with more functional groups remain quite high, although lower than other methods. This can at least in part be attributed to the fact that experimental error on the vapour pressures of these compounds is higher, evidenced by the disagreement between different reference sources in the case of diacids. On the other hand, it is to be expected that our -still relatively simple- model does not grasp completely the complex group-group interactions. However, to develop more detailed models, additional and more accurate data is a prerequisite.

Supplementary material related to this article is available online at:
http://www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/11/13229/2011/
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Table 1. Illustration of the effect of branching on single bonds, and the absence of this effect on double bonds, on some example molecules.

Branched molecule	Linear isomer	$\log_{10}\left(p^0_{\text{br}}/p^0_{\text{lin}}\right)$ (298 K)
Alkanes or alkenes with branching not on double bond		
2-Methyl propane	Butane	0.16
2-Methyl butane	Pentane	0.13
2,2-Dimethyl propane	Pentane	0.40
2-Methyl pentane	Hexane	0.15
3-Methyl pentane	Hexane	0.10
3,3-Dimethyl-1-butene	1-Hexene	0.36
4-Methyl-1-pentene	1-Hexene	0.16
Alkenes, branching on double bond		
2-Methyl-propene	1-Butene	0.008
2-Methyl-2-butene	2-Pentene	−0.02
2-Methyl-1-butene	1-Pentene	−0.02
2-Methyl-2-pentene	2-Hexene	0.007
2,3-Dimethyl-2-butene	2-Hexene	−0.09
2-Methyl-1-pentene	1-Hexene	0.02

Table 2. Optimal parameter values for the model for hydrocarbons and monofunctional compounds.

Descriptor	k	a_k	b_k	$g_k \pm \sigma_k{}^{\mathrm{d}}$	
First order					
Zero-point	1	2.62108	−1457.68	2.34 ± 0.02	
Size and topology					
# C + # in-chain O atoms	2	0.06138	−2894.73	-0.501 ± 0.002	
t	3	−0.02027	1091.44	0.192 ± 0.006	
Functional groups					
# −ON(=O)=O	4	0.77042	−16 610.02	-2.46 ± 0.05	
# −C(=O)− (carbonyl)	5	0.31096	−7813.12	-1.21 ± 0.02	
# −C(=O)O−	6	0.29801	−4837.68	-0.64 ± 0.02	
# −C(=O)OON(=O)=O	7	0.36275	−15 622.80	-2.67 ± 0.19	
# −OH (alcohol)	8	0.89020	−16 026.31	-2.23 ± 0.02	
# −C(=O)OH	9	1.04484	−23 731.51	-3.57 ± 0.04	
# −OOH	10	0.86140	−19 332.14	-2.90 ± 0.09	
# −C(=O)OOH	11	0.82300	−18 348.10	-2.74 ± 0.13	
Second order					p-value
# X in ring[a]	12	−0.04838	−554.75	-0.16 ± 0.03	2×10^{-7}
# X on chain, and not at 1 or 2 position[a]	13	0.03537	184.37	0.07 ± 0.02	4×10^{-5}
# −C=C−C=O (carbonyl)	14	−0.11900	−744.98	-0.26 ± 0.04	9×10^{-7}
0, 1, 2 for prim., sec., tert. OH resp.	15	−2.30131	2128.66	0.39 ± 0.02	1×10^{-7}
1 if alkenoic alcohol, 0 otherwise	16	−0.32583	2824.44	0.22 ± 0.07	0.005

[a] X = −**O**− (ether, ester), −**OO**−, −**C**ON(=O)=O, −**C**(=O)− (carbonyl, ester), −**C**(OH)−, −**C**(OOH). The location of the bold atom is considered.

Table 3. Evaluation of the model for hydrocarbons and monofunctional compounds.

	# Molecules	MAD	Pred. MAD
Hydrocarbons	130	0.073	0.075
Nitrates	23	0.087	0.095
Carbonyls	128	0.067	0.070
Ethers	52	0.076	0.078
Esters	53	0.043	0.044
Peroxides	11	0.390	0.404
Peroxy acyl nitrates	5	0.106	0.226
Alcohols	120	0.076	0.080
Acids	38	0.076	0.080
Hydroperoxides	4	0.041	0.0993
Peracids	4	0.215	0.304
All	568	0.072	0.075

Table 4. Descriptors and parameters for the full method.

Descriptor	k	Type	a_k	b_k	$g_k \pm \sigma_k$	p-value
First order						
Zero-point	1	lin	2.61457	−1938.29	2.24±0.03	
Size and topology						
# C + # in-chain O atoms	2	lin	0.06288	−2814.40	−0.484±0.004	
t	3	lin	−0.01205	1106.46	0.20±0.01	
Functional groups						
# −ON(=O)=O	4	lin	0.71917	−15 899.28	−2.37±0.03	
# −C(=O)− (carbonyl)	5	CL	0.22563	−7436.96	−1.22±0.02	
# −C(=O)O−	6	CL	0.33353	−5290.50	−0.69±0.03	
# −C(=O)OON(=O)=O	7	CL	0.29442	−15 048.51	−2.63±0.33	
# −OH(alcohol)	8	HB	0.96963	−16 804.98	−2.30±0.02	
# −C(=O)OH	9	HB	1.03483	−24 156.19	−3.66±0.02	
# −OOH	10	HB	0.79662	−18 661.91	−2.83±0.16	
# −C(=O)OOH	11	HB	0.82630	−18 143.60	−2.70±0.23	
Second order						
# X on ring[a]	12	lin, CL, HB[b]	0.16451	−2364.04	−0.30±0.03	1×10^{-7}
# −C=C−C=O	13	CL	−0.19115	135.64	−0.16±0.07	0.02
0, 1, 2 for prim., sec., tert. OH respectively	14	HB	−0.23918	3852.00	0.51±0.03	1×10^{-7}
1 if alkenoic alcohol, 0 otherwise	15	HB	−0.36136	3129.11	0.25±0.11	0.04
Intramolecular group interactions[c]						
Per carbonyl group:						
C=O (CL type) at α-position present	16	CL	0.24634	1845.97	0.61±0.13	5×10^{-4}
C=O (CL type) at β-position present	17	CL	0.10074	1145.03	0.32±0.12	0.02
Functional group (not CL type nor acid) at α-position present	18	CL	−0.36750	4254.53	0.46±0.13	0.006
Per alcohol group: functional group at α-position present	19	HB	−0.03588	855.12	0.13±0.02	2×10^{-6}
Per acid group: C=O (CL type) at α-position present	20	HB	1.00565	−2481.72	0.52±0.08	6×10^{-5}

[a] For X the same definitions as in Table 2 are applicable.

[b] The type depends on the type of functional group contribution to which this second order effect is applicable.

[c] Functional group at α-position with respect to another functional group means that both functional groups are vicinal: they are bonded to two adjacent carbon atoms. Examples: −C(=O)C(=O)−, −CH(OH)CH$_2$OCH$_2$−. Functional group at β-position with respect to another functional group means that they are bonded to two carbon atoms that are separated by one carbon atom. Example: −C(=O)CH$_2$C(=O)−.

Table 5. Boiling points and isothermal Kovats retention indices from GC on nonpolar columns for diones, both retrieved from NIST. This list is not meant to be complete, but only serves to illustrate the intramolecular effect of vicinal functional groups.

Molecule	T_b/K	RI
2,3-Pentanedione	384.2	653–675
2,4-Pentanedione	411	763–791
2,3-Hexanedione	401.2	755–764
3,4-Hexanedione	403.2	773
2,4-Hexanedione	431.2	800–900
2,5-Hexanedione	467.15	906
2,3-Octanedione	n.a.	968
2,4-Octanedione	n.a.	1079–1091

Table 6. Temperature programmed Kovats retention indices from GC from Kastler (1999) for hydroxy nitrates. This list is not meant to be complete, but only serves to illustrate the intramolecular effect of vicinal nitrate and hydroxy groups.

Molecule	RI
1-Hydroxypropyl-2-nitrate	818
1-Hydroxypropyl-3-nitrate	884
1-Hydroxybutyl-2-nitrate	915
4-Hydroxybutyl-2-nitrate	932
1-Hydroxyhexyl-2-nitrate	1111
6-Hydroxyhexyl-1-nitrate	1217

Table 7. Evaluation of the model for all compounds.

Molecule class	# Molec.	MD	Pred. MD	MAD	Pred. MAD
Hydrocarbons	130	0.034	0.033	0.095	0.099
Monofunctional					
Nitrates	23	4×10^{-4}	3×10^{-4}	0.072	0.073
Carbonyls	128	−0.050	−0.051	0.087	0.089
Ethers	52	−0.002	-7×10^{-4}	0.083	0.085
Esters	53	−0.019	−0.02	0.052	0.053
Peroxides	11	−0.262	−0.271	0.311	0.320
Peroxy acyl nitr.	5	0.021	−0.032	0.095	0.214
Alcohols	120	0.014	0.015	0.084	0.086
Acids	38	−0.057	−0.058	0.086	0.087
Hydroperoxides	4	−0.013	−0.048	0.047	0.069
Peracids	4	−0.040	−0.057	0.208	0.293
Bifunctional					
Dinitrates	10	4×10^{-4}	0.094	0.278	0.291
Dicarbonyls	18	−0.039	−0.069	0.073	0.108
Diols	32	0.020	0.021	0.116	0.122
Diacids	31	0.013	0.015	0.209	0.216
Diethers	16	−0.008	−0.010	0.112	0.114
Diesters	13	0.046	0.047	0.104	0.108
Oxo esters	12	0.050	0.052	0.074	0.077
Oxo acids	16	0.150	0.179	0.268	0.295
Hydroxy ethers	11	−0.026	−0.027	0.079	0.080
Hydroxy nitrates	4	0.333	0.339	0.333	0.390
Hydroxy peroxides	1	−0.373	−0.377	0.373	0.388
Hydroxy carbonyls	17	0.038	0.042	0.112	0.125
Hydroxy acids	5	−0.020	−0.022	0.139	0.142
> 2 Functionalities					
Polyols	32	−0.002	−0.010	0.310	0.341
Polynitrates	5	−0.290	−0.661	0.328	0.690
At least 2 acids	11	0.08	0.082	0.579	0.674
Other	5	0.372	0.615	0.381	0.626
All	788	0.001	-5×10^{-4}	0.099	0.104

Table 8. Methods used in the intercomparison with EVAPORATION.

Method	Reference	Property	Short description
	p^0 estimation from molecular structure only		
CM	Capouet and Müller (2006)	p^0	Group contribution method[a]
SIMPOL	Pankow and Asher (2008)	p^0	Group contribution method
SPARC	Hilal et al. (2003)	p^0	Includes molecular descriptors (e.g. polarizability, dipole), which are themselves calculated from atomic fragments
	p^0 estimation from molecular structure and T_b		
MY	Myrdal and Yalkowsky (1997)	p^0	Includes two descriptors: for molecular flexibility and #hydrogen bonding groups
Nan	Nannoolal et al. (2008)	p^0	Detailed group contribution method
	T_b estimation from molecular structure		
Nan	Nannoolal et al. (2004)		Detailed group contribution method
JR	Joback and Reid (1987)		Group contribution method

[a] The parent hydrocarbon part is estimated by combining work from Marrero and Gani (2001) (MG) and Ambrose and Walton (1989) (AW) (for details see Compernolle et al., 2010).

Table 9. $\log_{10}(p^0/\text{Torr})$ of MBTCA, as calculated by various methods including EVAPORATION. No experimental value is available.

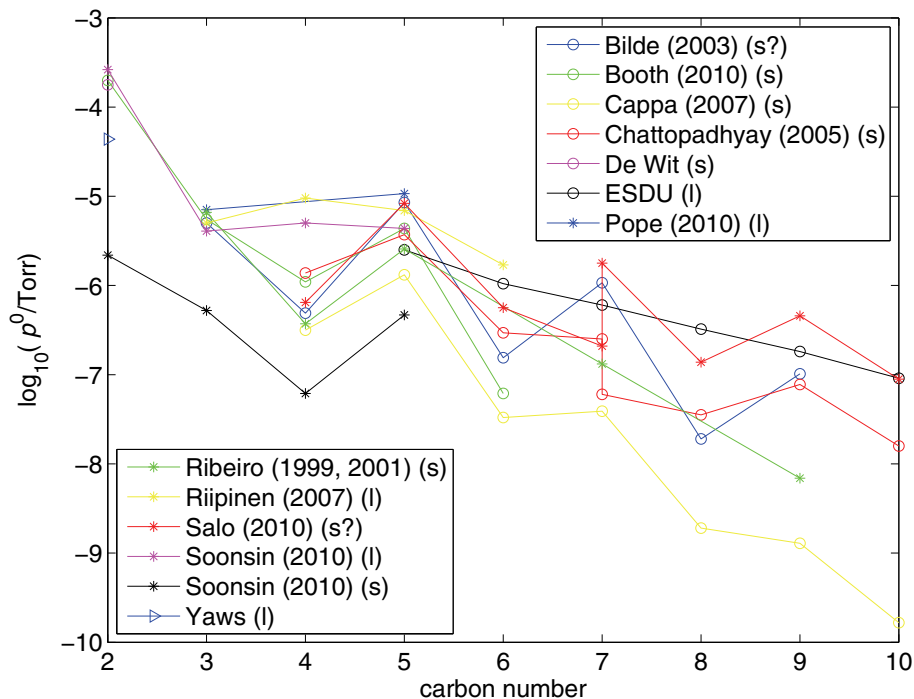| Method	$\log_{10}\left(p^0/\text{Torr}\right)$
CM	-8.26
MY-JR	-10.2
MY-Nan	-6.38
Nan-Nan	-9.17
SIMPOL	-9.21
SPARC	-7.73
EVAPORATION	-7.98

Fig. 1. $\log_{10}\left(\frac{p^0}{\text{Torr}}\right)$ vs. carbon number at 300 K for linear diacids, from different reference sources. (s) and (l) stands for solid and liquid, respectively. (s?) indicates that there is some doubt if all data was for solid particles.

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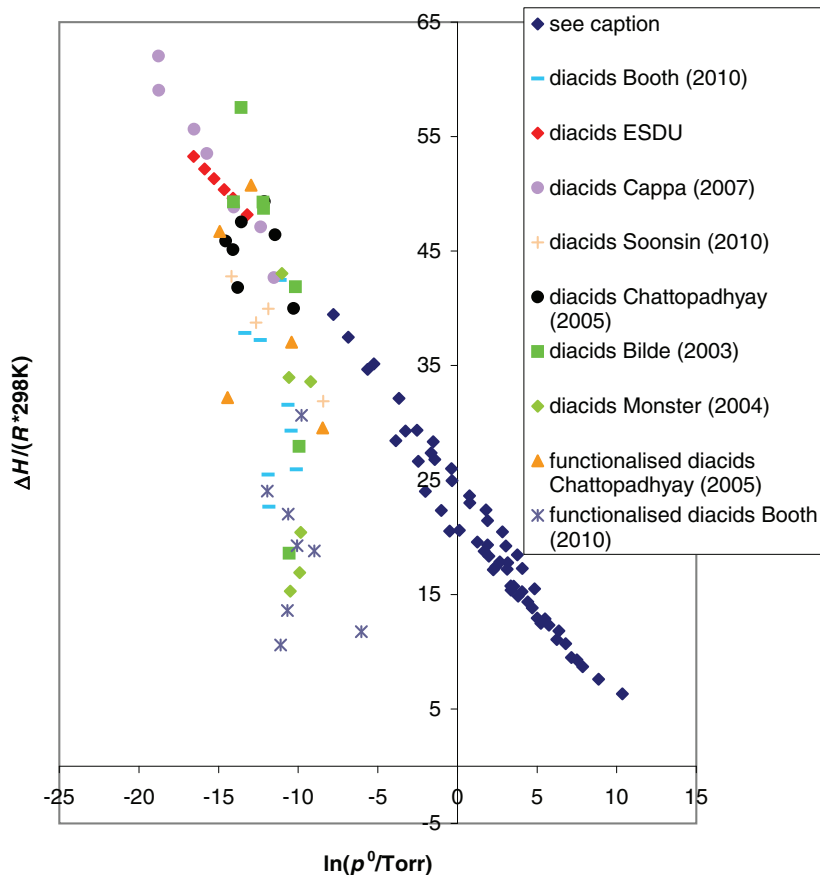Full Screen / Esc

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Fig. 2. $\frac{\Delta H_v}{RT}$ vs. $\ln p^0$ at 298 K for various compounds. The blue points serve as reference and include alkanes, aldehydes, esters, alcohols, diols, hydroperoxides, peracids, peroxy acetyl nitrate and water. The other points are for diacids or functionalised diacids from various references, converted to subcooled liquid if necessary.

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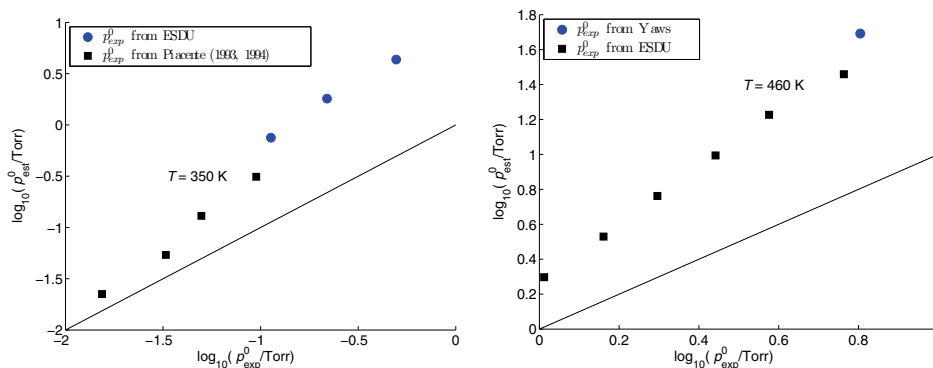
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Fig. 3. Left: modeled vs. experimental $\log_{10} p^0$ for linear α,ω-diols at 350 K, from butanediol to decanediol. Modeled results are obtained with the additive model of Table 2. Right: idem but for α,ω-diacids at 460 K. Smaller chains (2–3 carbon atoms) are not shown as local group-group interaction effects would mask the general trend.
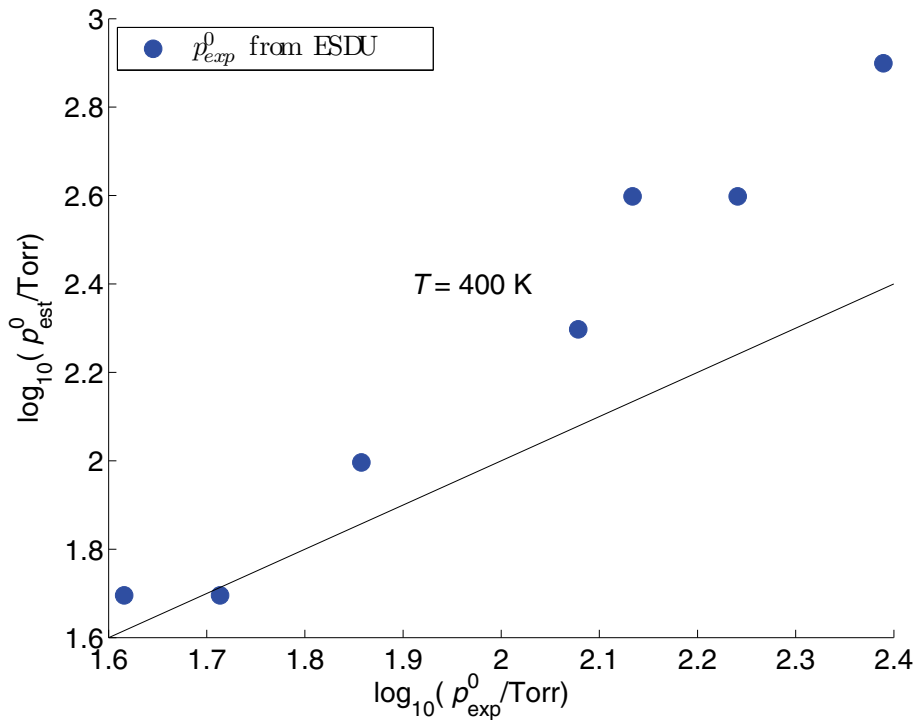
Fig. 4. Modeled vs. experimental $\log_{10}p^0$ at 400 K for linear diesters, containing 4 to 8 carbon atoms. Modeled results are obtained with the additive model of Table 2.

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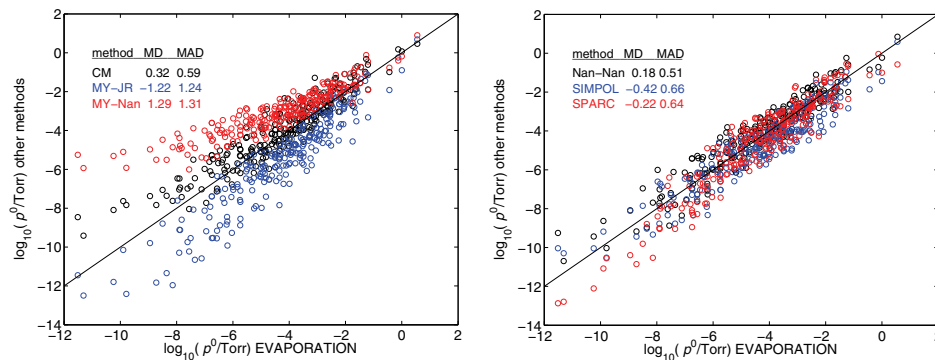Printer-friendly Version

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Fig. 5. $\log_{10}\frac{p^0}{\text{Torr}}$ of various methods vs. that of EVAPORATION, for the explicit molecules in the chemical mechanism BOREAM for α-pinene degradation. Left: the methods CM (black), MY-JR (blue) and MY-Nan (red). Right: the methods Nan-Nan (black), SIMPOL (blue) and SPARC (red). Also given are the mean deviation and mean absolute deviation of those methods vs. EVAPORATION.

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Fig. 6. MD (left) and MAD (right) of various vapour pressure estimation methods for all compounds (first point) and for different molecule classes, with data points selected between 270 and 390 K from our data base. See text for details.