


Blind prediction of distribution in the SAMPL5 challenge with QM based protomer and pK_a corrections

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Abstract The computation of distribution coefficients between polar and apolar phases requires both an accurate characterization of transfer free energies between phases and proper accounting of ionization and protomerization. We present a protocol for accurately predicting partition coefficients between two immiscible phases, and then apply it to 53 drug-like molecules in the SAMPL5 blind prediction challenge. Our results combine implicit solvent QM calculations with classical MD simulations using the non-Boltzmann Bennett free energy estimator. The OLYP/DZP/SMD method yields predictions that have a small deviation from experiment (RMSD = 2.3 log D units), relative to other participants in the challenge. Our free energy corrections based on QM protomer and pK_a calculations increase the correlation between predicted and experimental distribution coefficients, for all methods used. Unfortunately, these corrections are overly hydrophilic, and fail to account for additional effects such as aggregation, water dragging and the

presence of polar impurities in the apolar phase. We show that, although expensive, QM-NBB free energy calculations offer an accurate and robust method that is superior to standard MM and QM techniques alone.

Keywords Free energy · Partition coefficients · Distribution coefficients · Non-Boltzmann Bennett · Implicit solvent · SAMPL5 · pK_a · Protomer · Tautomer

Introduction

The relative balance between hydrophilic and hydrophobic non-bonded molecular interactions is of central importance to the fields of chemistry [15], biophysics [70] and pharmacology [47]. Within the field of pharmacology, accurate characterization of these physiochemical properties is critical, as they affect all aspects of the drug design process, such as: availability [47], potency [75] and toxicity [48]. Tuning the hydrophobicity of a ligand affects its ability to diffuse across cellular membranes, alters its ability to bind to targets and impacts its clearance properties.

One way of rigorously quantifying a ligand's hydrophilicity is the free energy required to transfer a molecule from a bulk apolar environment (k), e.g. octanol or hexane, to a bulk aqueous environment, $\Delta G^{k \rightarrow \text{aq}}$, in the limit of infinite dilution. In the pharmaceutical sciences, this transfer free energy is often cast as a partition coefficient, P_k , the ratio of concentrations of the solute in the two immiscible phases, which is trivially related to the transfer free energy, where k_B is the Boltzmann constant and T is the absolute temperature. Because of this, it is frequently expressed as a common logarithm ($\log P_k$).

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$$P_k = \frac{[A]_k}{[A]_{\text{aq}}} \quad (1)$$

$$\Delta G^{k \rightarrow \text{aq}} = k_B T \ln(10) \log P_k \quad (2)$$

Since many drug molecules contain ionizable groups that may exist in multiple protomeric states under physiological pH conditions, the reality is often more complicated than the two-state model implied by partition coefficients. Solute aggregation, and the water dragging effect [18, 19] can also lead to non-negligible populations of solute molecules in “other” states. To account for these deviations from ideal behavior, we can combine the definition of a partition coefficient with a looser definition of relevant solute states. By including protonation, tautomerization, multimerization, etc., we obtain the definition of a distribution coefficient, D_k (Eq. 3).

$$D_k = \frac{\sum_i \gamma_i [A]_{k,i}}{\sum_j \gamma_j [A]_{\text{aq},j}} \quad (3)$$

The summation is over all states i and j in the apolar and aqueous environments, respectively. Equation 3 introduced the activity coefficient, γ , to account for further, subtler deviations from ideal behavior, however in this work we will ignore this effect, and assume $\gamma \equiv 1$.

While distribution coefficients are reliably and quickly characterized experimentally, [13, 46, 61] analogous physics-based computational predictions are expensive, and typically limited to neutral solutes [8, 32]. The accurate characterization of ionizable solutes, and thus $\text{p}K_a$ values remains a challenge. Most successful computational approaches to $\text{p}K_a$ prediction involve significant fitting to experimental data, [45, 77] or relative $\text{p}K_a$ calculations [11]. Accurately modeling the precise experimental conditions poses further challenges to the computational prediction of distribution coefficients. For example, the partitioning between aqueous and organic phases is exquisitely sensitive to the water content of the organic phase [1]. In experiments, both polar [29] and apolar [43] solutes are known to aggregate in the interfacial region, and thus deplete in the bulk phase.

Even without the complexities associated with predicting distribution coefficients, accurate prediction of partition coefficients still requires properly accounting for the change of solute–solvent interactions between apolar and polar phases. Previous SAMPL small molecule challenges have emphasized the calculation of hydration free energies for small molecules, [22, 55, 65] a not-dissimilar task from our current charge. The lessons learned in this regard from our previous work in SAMPL4, [40, 58] in which we showed the effectiveness of using quantum mechanical [39] based potential energy calculations in combination with the non-Boltzmann Bennett (NBB) free energy

method [41], should be directly applicable in this current challenge [2].

In this work we predict the partitioning between aqueous and cyclohexane phases for 53 small drug-like molecules in the SAMPL5 blind prediction challenge (Figs. 1, 2). We use various computational techniques ranging from molecular dynamics (MD) simulations to quantum mechanical potential energy evaluations (QM), combining the best aspects of these approaches via the NBB free energy estimator. These QM-NBB calculations with implicit solvent yield predictions with a root mean squared deviation from experiment (RMSD) that ranks second among the various entries. We also attempt to account for deviations from non-ideal behavior using QM based $\text{p}K_a$ and protomeric calculations. When these corrections are applied to partition predictions, the resulting distribution predictions are found to correlate more strongly with experimental results, than those predictions made without the corrections. The results of the underlying molecular mechanics (MM) free energy simulations, as well as QM/MM multi-scale free energy results are discussed in a companion paper in the same issue [38]. The vast majority of the data in this work were generated in a blind fashion, before the conclusion of the SAMPL5 challenge, the exceptions being the inclusion of additional protomeric states of molecule **83** and additional dimerization states of molecule **50**. These additional results are discussed in the body of this text, and do not appear in any tabulated results.

Methods

Free energy methods

We will first predict the partition coefficients, $\log P_{\text{chex}}$, by calculating the transfer free energy from cyclohexane to water, $\Delta G^{\text{chex} \rightarrow \text{aq}} = \Delta G_{\text{aq}}^* - \Delta G_{\text{chex}}^*$, for the reference states of the molecules in the challenge, as they were provided by D3R. Here, the “*” denotes the standard state of 1 mol L^{-1} , and will be implied for the rest of this work. The most straightforward approach for estimating the free energy difference between a sampled state i and an unsampled state j is by application of Zwanzig’s equation [80]. This approach is used to obtain the free energy difference by the following

$$\Delta G^{i \rightarrow j} = -\beta^{-1} \ln \langle \exp[-\beta(U_j - U_i)] \rangle_i, \quad (4)$$

where $\beta^{-1} = k_B T$ is the thermodynamic temperature, and U_i is the potential energy of a configuration evaluated using the indicated Hamiltonian, and the angular brackets indicate an ensemble average over state i . In principle this approach can be used to obtain a free energy value from an expensive

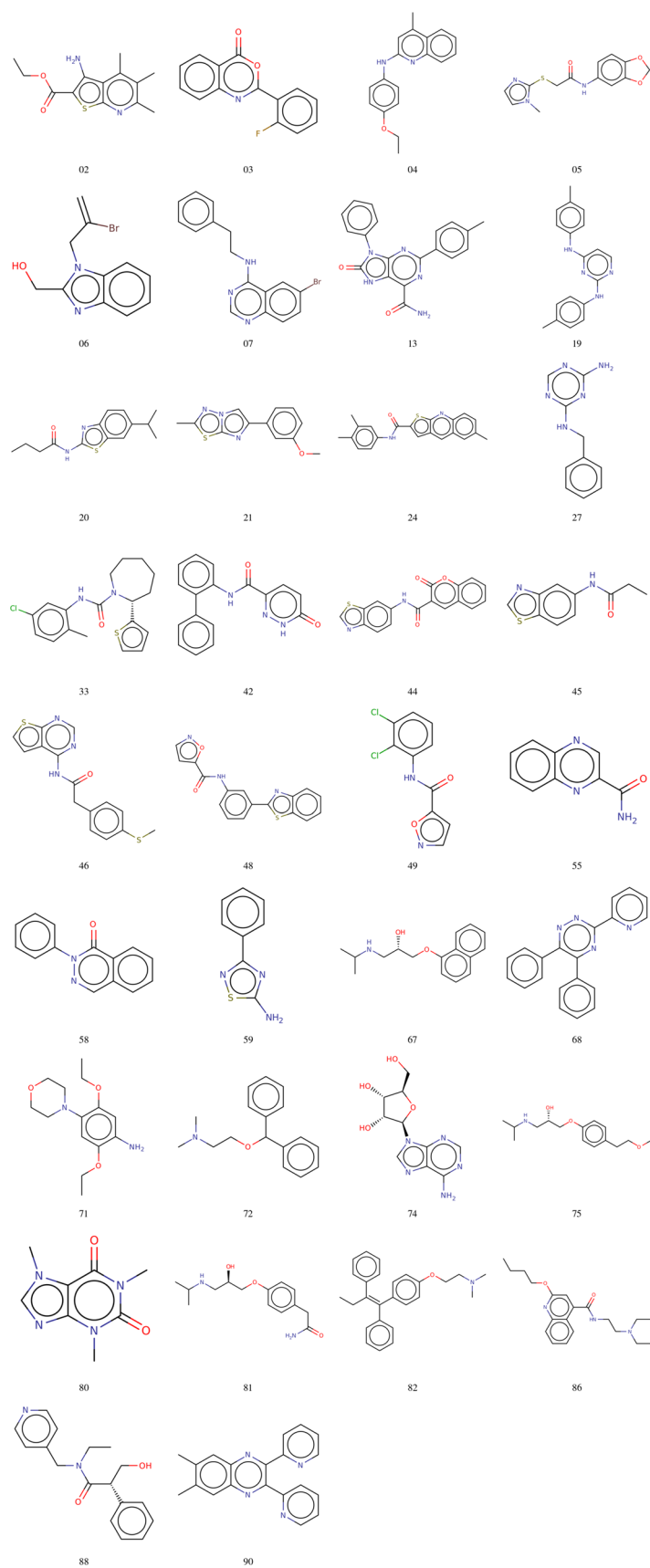


Fig. 1 Chemical structures of the molecules did not deviate significantly from their reference states (<0.01 kcal mol $^{-1}$)

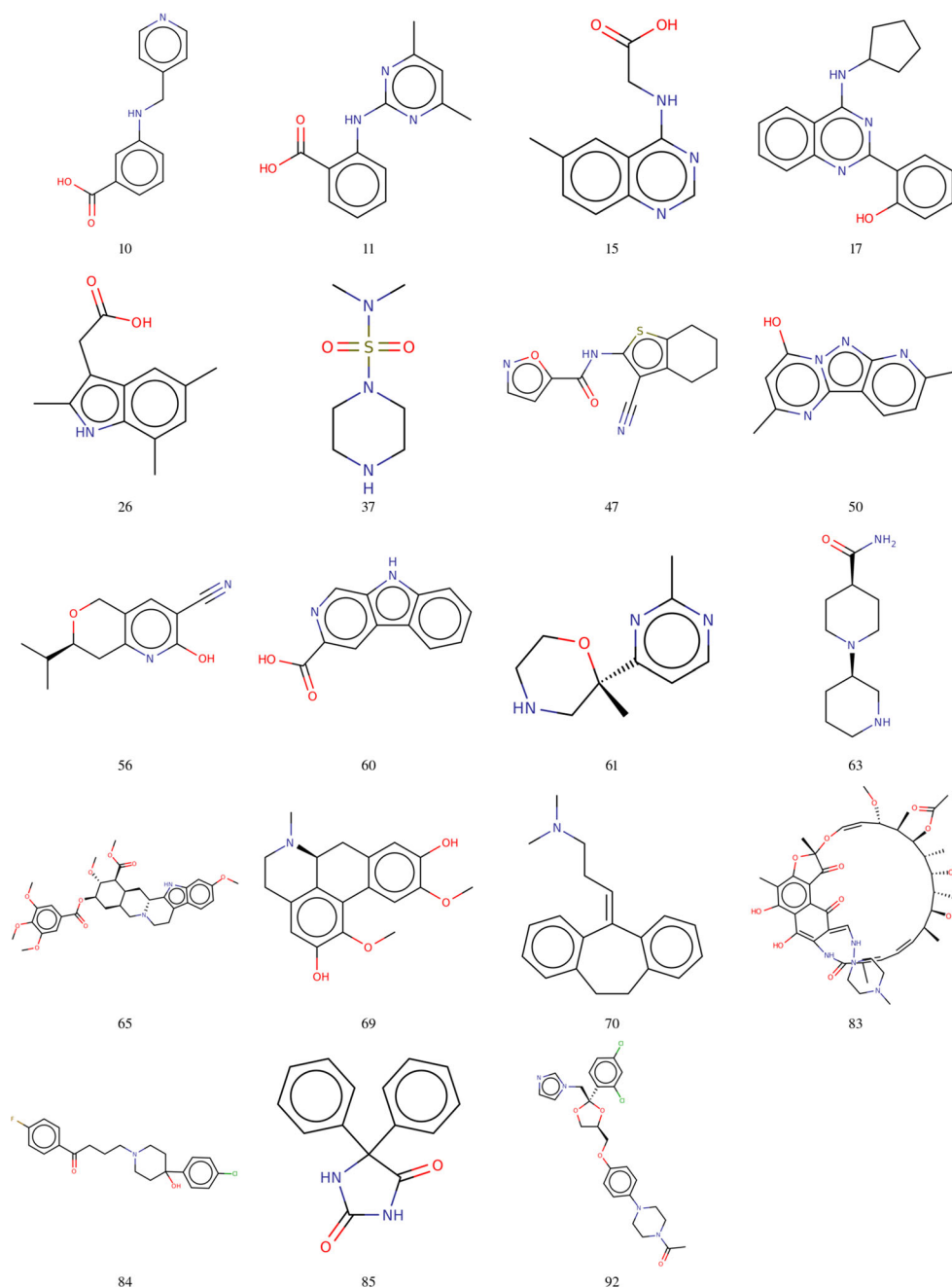


Fig. 2 Chemical structures of the molecules that were determined to have multiple protomeric states

QM based potential energy surface, using an ensemble generated using a cheaper MM based force field. This strategy is preferable to obtaining a free energy directly from ab initio MD, which would be prohibitively expensive. The accuracy of this approach is strictly limited by the similarity between the QM and the MM potential energy surfaces, as well as by the system size. Because of the presence of numeric instabilities in this method, alternative approaches are often preferable [5, 12, 17, 20, 23, 26, 30, 31, 33, 42, 54, 56, 60, 62, 63].

By drawing configurations from both states i and j , one can obtain the minimum variance estimate between these states by applying Bennett's Acceptance Ratio (BAR) [6].

$$\Delta G^{i \rightarrow j} = -\beta^{-1} \ln \left(\frac{\langle f(\beta[U_i - U_j + C]) \rangle_j}{\langle f(\beta[U_j - U_i - C]) \rangle_i} \right) + C \quad (5)$$

where f is the Fermi function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(x)} \quad (6)$$

and C is a constant. An iterative solution is obtained, such that the ratio in Eq. 5 converges to unity. BAR is very commonly applied to studying free energy changes in chemical processes. More recently, a multistate variant has been derived [64], and it should be adopted when simultaneously considering the free energy differences between more than two states, such as in a chain of states during an alchemical transformation process. One strict disadvantage of using BAR is that it requires configurations to be drawn from *both* states i and j . This can make direct application of BAR to QM based calculation too computationally demanding.

Similar to the Zwanzig equation, we can use the non-Boltzmann Bennett method to estimate the free energy of an unsampled state i by using configurations drawn from a sampled state i' . This is accomplished by biasing the sampled states i' and j' using the potential energy difference between i and i' by the following function.

$$V_i^b = U_{i'} - U_i. \quad (7)$$

The correct ensemble averages in the unsampled states i and j are then recovered from the biased states by applying Torrie and Valleau's relationship [71] to calculate the unbiased ensemble average, $\langle X \rangle_i$, from configurations taken from a biased state i' .

$$\langle X \rangle_i = \frac{\langle X \exp(\beta V_i^b) \rangle_{i'}}{\langle \exp(\beta V_i^b) \rangle_{i'}} \quad (8)$$

By combining Eqs. 5 and 8 one obtains the NBB equation, allowing us to estimate the free energy difference between two unsampled states i and j , that are typically too expensive to explicitly sample.

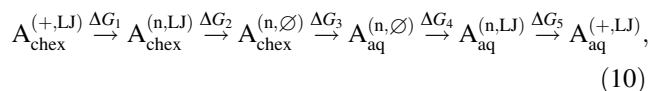
$$\Delta G^{i \rightarrow j} = -\beta^{-1} \ln \left(\frac{\langle f(\beta[U_i - U_j + C]) \exp(\beta V_j^b) \rangle_{j'} \langle \exp(\beta V_i^b) \rangle_{i'}}{\langle f(\beta[U_j - U_i - C]) \exp(\beta V_i^b) \rangle_{i'} \langle \exp(\beta V_j^b) \rangle_{j'}} \right) + C \quad (9)$$

MD simulation

All MD simulations were carried out using the PERT module [10] of the CHARMM simulation package [9, 10] and the CHARMM General Force Field (CGenFF) for organic molecules. [73] The aqueous phase was modeled with 1906 TIP3P water molecules [34] and six pairs of sodium and chlorine ions, to approximately reproduce the ionic strength of the reported experimental conditions (pH 7.4, 136 mM NaCl, 2.6 mM KCl, 7 mM Na₃PO₄, 1.46 mM KH₂PO₄, 0.27 M DMSO and 0.18 M acetonitrile). The cubic simulation boxes were pre-equilibrated with 0.5 ns of constant pressure dynamics, resulting in unit

cells with edges varying between 38.55 and 38.75 Å in length. The apolar phase was modeled with 337 cyclohexane molecules and cubic box sizes with edges varying from 39.93 to 40.18 Å in length. Long range electrostatics were represented using smooth particle mesh Ewald summation [14], while Lennard–Jones interactions used a switching window at 10 Å, before being truncated at 12 Å. A Nosé–Hoover thermostat [28] maintained the canonical ensemble during the 0.5 ns equilibration runs, and during the 5 ns production runs. All simulations used a 1 fs timestep and SHAKE constraints on all hydrogen valence terms. Geometric configurations were saved every 1000 steps for later analysis and post-processing.

Transfer free energies were calculated by turning off all non-bonded solute interactions, both in the cyclohexane and the aqueous phases. This alchemical mutation was carried out in five steps. In step 1, the charges on the cyclohexane phase solute were decremented to zero over six states ($\lambda = 0.00, 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, 0.90$ and 1.00). We refer to this process as “uncharging”. In step 2, we decremented the Lennard–Jones interactions in the gas phase over 24 equidistant states ($\lambda = 0, 1/23, \dots, 22/23, 1$). We refer to this process as “vanishing”. For molecules **65**, **83** and **92** an additional state at $\lambda = 0.022$ was used to achieve convergence as these are the largest and most flexible molecules. In step 3, we transfer the non-interacting ligand, A^(n,∅), from the cyclohexane to the aqueous phase. The free energy of this process is equivalent to zero. Step 4 and step 5 negate the vanishing process and uncharging processes, respectively, in the aqueous phase, using the same alchemical scheme employed in the cyclohexane phase. The alchemical scheme is summarized in Eq. 10,



where “+” denotes the fully-charged states, and “n” denotes uncharged states.

To enhance sampling, λ -Hamiltonian Replica Exchange [67, 68] was used to attempt exchanges between neighboring λ -states every 1000 steps. Because these λ -states are already required for the underlying BAR free energy calculation, multiplexing the alchemical states together via replica exchange provides accelerated convergence, for marginal cost. Soft-core potentials were used to avoid the endpoint problem [7, 76].

QM calculations

All QM calculations in this work were performed using Gaussian 09 [21]. Transfer free energies were calculated by using a standard QM optimization approach. To calculate QM based partition coefficients, We used an

“adiabatic” protocol at the M06-2X/6-31+G(d) level of theory [78, 79] with the SMD implicit solvent [50, 51, 59]. In this scheme, geometry optimizations are carried out in both the cyclohexane and aqueous phases. Next, the Hessian matrices are computed for both phases, and are used to compute the thermal corrections (to 298.15 K) for each molecule in the harmonic limit. Finally, a single point calculation (SPC) was computed on the static geometries using a larger (6-311++G(d,p)) basis set, in both phases, to attempt to further improve the computed transfer free energies, and to explore the efficacy of the 6-311++G(d,p) basis set. All QM optimizations were performed with “Tight” wave function and geometry convergence criteria and by using “UltraFine” numerical quadrature as required by M06-2X.

Due to the large size of molecule **83**, QM optimizations on this ligand instead used the cheaper BLYP/6-31G(d) [4, 44, 53] method in conjunction with the SMD implicit solvent. We estimated the transfer free energy as the difference of vertical solvation free energies from the gas phase into the appropriate bulk phase. Specifically, this was calculated as the hydration free energy less the solvation free energy in cyclohexane. The default options for wavefunction and geometric convergence, as well as default numerical quadrature were also used to speed up the calculations. Harmonic entropy contributions were ignored, as the frequency calculations were too expensive. Some of our previous work [37] has indicated the effectiveness of the BLYP functional for HFE predictions, despite its simplicity (and significantly reduced cost) with respect to M06-2X.

QM-NBB calculations

We also estimated the transfer free energies using NBB combined with two different QM methods: M06-2X/6-31+G(d) and OLYP/DZP¹ [16, 25, 27, 44, 53]. In this approach, configurations are drawn from the explicit solvent MD calculations, the explicit solvent is removed and energies are computed using single point QM calculations with the SMD implicit solvent. Because the solvent degrees of freedom are treated implicitly, there now exists sufficient overlap, with NBB biasing, to connect the cyclohexane state to the aqueous state directly. In this case $4N$ QM calculations are required, where N is the number of configurations drawn from the two chemical states, and the NBB equation simplifies to the following.

$$V_i^b = U_{i,MM} - U_{i,QM} \quad (11)$$

¹ This is the version of Dunning’s DZP basis set that appears in the Psi4 quantum chemistry package [72].

$$\Delta G_{QM}^{\text{chex} \rightarrow \text{aq}} = C + \beta^{-1} \ln \left(\frac{(f(\beta[U_{\text{chex},QM} - U_{\text{aq},QM} + C]) \exp(\beta V_{\text{aq}}^b))_{\text{aq},MM} (\exp(\beta V_{\text{chex}}^b))_{\text{chex},MM}}{(f(\beta[U_{\text{aq},QM} - U_{\text{chex},QM} - C]) \exp(\beta V_{\text{chex}}^b))_{\text{chex},MM} (\exp(\beta V_{\text{aq}}^b))_{\text{aq},MM}} \right) \quad (12)$$

While this approach requires a large number of single point QM calculations, 4×5000 per molecule in this study, these costs can be mitigated by the use of looser wave function convergence criteria and coarser numerical quadrature than was used for the analogous QM optimization calculations. This increased performance *ca.* fivefold and incurred a loss of <0.005 kcal mol⁻¹ in precision. These calculations also have the advantage of being “embarrassingly” parallel, allowing us to efficiently use any and all available computer resources, especially older marginal hardware with poor networking capabilities.

Protomer and pK_a corrections

Because the goal of the SAMPL5 challenge is to predict the distribution coefficients between cyclohexane and water, rather than the partition coefficients, we must incorporate contributions from states that significantly deviate from the neutral reference structures. Using QM based pK_a calculations [11, 49], we will account for populations of the acidic and basic ligands in their conjugate forms (ΔG_{pK_a}). Our corrections will also address the presence of protomers (ΔG_{taut}). While our submissions did not include corrections for the effects of dimerization (ΔG_{dimer}) or water dragging ($\Delta G_{\mu\text{solv}}$) [18, 19], we will demonstrate that ignoring these phenomena may diminish the accuracy of distribution predictions as well.

Our pK_a calculations used both an “absolute” and a “relative” protocol [11, 49]. In the absolute protocol we use the usual thermocycle (Fig. 3) to obtain an expression for the free energy of deprotonating AH⁺, in the aqueous phase. Values for $G(\text{AH}_{\text{aq}}^+)$ and $G(\text{A}_{\text{aq}})$ are obtained directly from the QM calculations. The value of $G(\text{H}_{\text{gas}}^+)$ is analytic [52], while $\Delta G_{\text{solv}}(\text{H}^+)$ is experimentally determined [69]. A final factor of $RT \ln(24.46)$ is also included to account for change of standard state from 1 atm L⁻¹, denoted “o”, in the gas phase to 1 mol L⁻¹ in the aqueous phase. Physically, this term corresponds to the loss of entropy when compressing an ideal gas from 1 to 24.46 atm (1 M), and is 1.89 kcal mol⁻¹ at

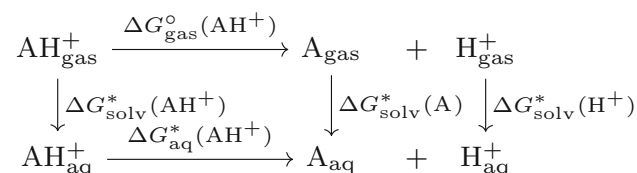


Fig. 3 The thermodynamic cycle used for absolute pK_a calculations in this work

Table 1 Predicted values for partition coefficients using the various QM methods presented in this work, in units of log P, as they were submitted to the challenge

Submission	27 M06-2X/ 6-31+G(d) Vertical	18 M06-2X/ 6-31+G(d) Adiabatic	21 M06-2X/ 6-31+G(d) NBB	02 OLYP/ DZP NBB	Expt. [61]
02	−0.34	−1.25	−1.36	−0.43	1.5 ± 0.3
03	1.80	1.19	−0.16	1.41	1.9 ± 0.6
04	2.69	1.91	2.24	3.10	2.2 ± 0.3
05	−0.20	−0.29	−2.49	−0.79	−0.9 ± 0.7
06	−2.68	−2.46	−3.94	−1.85	−1.0 ± 0.7
07	1.37	0.92	1.22	1.96	1.4 ± 0.3
10	−3.74	−3.86	−4.45	−3.07	−1.7 ± 0.6
11	2.13	0.53	−1.47	−0.09	−3.0 ± 0.9
13	1.99	0.56	−0.19	1.35	−1.3 ± 0.6
15	−3.91	−4.31	−4.83	−3.35	−2.3 ± 0.3
17	3.67	2.82	1.41	2.44	2.6 ± 0.3
19	4.91	4.41	2.05	3.27	1.4 ± 0.7
20	1.15	0.83	−0.84	−0.16	1.7 ± 0.3
21	0.24	0.09	−0.73	−0.11	1.2 ± 0.3
24	2.34	0.83	0.56	1.64	1.0 ± 0.4
26	−1.25	−1.49	−2.23	−1.62	−2.6 ± 0.3
27	0.70	−0.28	0.37	1.02	−1.9 ± 0.8
33	3.84	3.51	2.16	3.17	1.8 ± 0.3
37	−5.80	−6.56	−7.68	−6.08	−1.5 ± 0.3
42	−0.30	−0.92	−1.77	−0.84	−1.1 ± 0.2
44	−0.34	−1.37	−3.60	−2.42	1.1 ± 0.4
45	−2.30	−2.79	−3.93	−2.88	−2.1 ± 0.3
46	0.21	−0.42	−1.85	−0.99	0.2 ± 0.3
47	−0.12	−0.90	−1.46	−0.57	−0.4 ± 0.2
48	0.21	0.25	−2.53	−1.12	1.0 ± 0.3
49	1.30	0.53	−0.74	−0.08	1.3 ± 0.5
50	−1.71	−2.54	−5.70	−4.18	−3.4 ± 0.5
55	−3.65	−3.77	−4.23	−3.45	−1.5 ± 0.7
56	−2.41	−2.76	−2.25	−1.54	−2.5 ± 0.3
58	1.34	0.05	−0.15	0.98	0.8 ± 0.6
59	−1.12	−1.64	−1.46	−1.26	−1.3 ± 0.3
60	−2.65	−3.46	−3.69	−2.58	−3.9 ± 0.4
61	−3.64	−3.50	−3.95	−2.96	−1.5 ± 0.9
63	−6.84	−6.92	−8.22	−7.17	−3.1 ± 0.4
65	−4.89	−5.42	−5.30	−3.90	0.7 ± 0.3
67	1.13	1.06	−2.36	−0.18	−1.3 ± 0.3
68	0.55	−0.13	−1.25	0.11	1.4 ± 0.3
69	−2.08	−3.35	−4.73	−2.18	−1.2 ± 0.4
70	3.60	3.78	3.92	4.61	1.6 ± 0.3
71	−2.37	−3.86	−3.61	−1.98	−0.0 ± 0.4
72	1.92	2.62	1.90	2.18	0.6 ± 0.3
74	−7.03	−9.24	−10.52	−7.22	−1.9 ± 0.3
75	−1.53	−0.27	−1.97	−0.67	−2.8 ± 0.3
80	−0.26	−0.91	−0.89	0.37	−2.2 ± 0.3
81	−4.49	−4.35	−7.08	−6.21	−2.2 ± 0.3

Table 1 continued

Submission	27	18	21	02	Expt. [61]
	M06-2X/ 6-31+G(d)	M06-2X/ 6-31+G(d)	M06-2X/ 6-31+G(d)	OLYP/ DZP	
Molecule	Vertical	Adiabatic	NBB	NBB	
82	4.78	5.19	3.91	4.93	2.5 ± 0.3
83	<u>-12.45</u>	<u>-12.45</u>	<u>13.30</u>	<u>-9.92</u>	-2.0 ± 0.3
84	0.89	0.45	-1.46	0.31	-0.0 ± 0.3
85	-0.25	-0.92	-1.72	-0.36	-2.3 ± 0.3
86	2.46	2.04	0.75	0.89	0.7 ± 0.3
88	-2.33	-3.76	<u>-3.76</u>	<u>-2.13</u>	-1.9 ± 0.3
90	0.33	-0.43	-0.82	0.04	0.7 ± 0.2
92	-3.48	-4.06	<u>-4.06</u>	<u>-4.06</u>	-0.4 ± 0.3
RMSD	2.6 ± 0.4	2.7 ± 0.4	3.4 ± 0.6	2.3 ± 0.3	
τ	0.49 ± 0.08	0.47 ± 0.07	0.44 ± 0.08	0.48 ± 0.07	
R	0.61 ± 0.08	0.60 ± 0.07	0.40 ± 0.20	0.63 ± 0.07	

Several predictions appear in the table underlined. While these predictions were part of their respective submission, they were not generated using the indicated method. These discrepancies are due to problems converging certain NBB or QM calculations (**83**), or other problems with underlying MM simulation (**88** and **92**). Replacement values were taken from our pure QM submissions, or from BLYP/6-31G(d)/SMD vertical solvation QM calculations in the case of **83**. Distribution coefficients may be readily obtained by converting free energy corrections from Table 2 and adding them to values in this table

298.15 K. Errors from the QM calculation of hydrating the charged ligand and uncertainties associated with the experimental value of hydrating a free proton ($\Delta G_{\text{solv}}(\text{H}^+) = -265.9 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$) [69], are thought to limit the accuracy of the absolute scheme [11]. Once the quantity ΔG_{aq} has been obtained, it can be readily converted into a $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ value using Eq. 13, where $R = k_{\text{B}}/N_{\text{A}}$ is the usual gas constant.

$$\Delta G_{\text{aq}} = \text{p}K_{\text{a}}RT \ln(10) \quad (13)$$

Alternatively, relative $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ corrections may be preferable (Eq. 14), as the two main sources of error stated above are explicitly removed. The correctness of relative $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ calculations instead depends upon the choice of an appropriate analog ligand, **L**, and the availability of reliable experimental data, $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}^{\text{exp}}$, obtained under conditions (temperature, concentration and ionic strength) mirroring those for the system of interest. If any of these conditions are not sufficiently met, the relative $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ calculations can vastly underperform their absolute counterparts. For more information about the specific analogs used in this work, please see Table 3 and Figure S1.

$$\text{p}K_{\text{a}}^{\text{rel}}(\text{AH}^+) = \text{p}K_{\text{a}}^{\text{exp}}(\text{LH}^+) + \left[\Delta G_{\text{aq}}^*(\text{AH}^+) - \Delta G_{\text{aq}}^*(\text{LH}^+) \right] / [RT \ln(10)] \quad (14)$$

Both $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ schemes can be combined with either adiabatic or vertical hydration free energy (HFE) calculations from QM. The adiabatic scheme is as described above. In the vertical solvation scheme, gas phase optimized geometries optimized at the M06-2X/6-31+G(d) level of theory are used

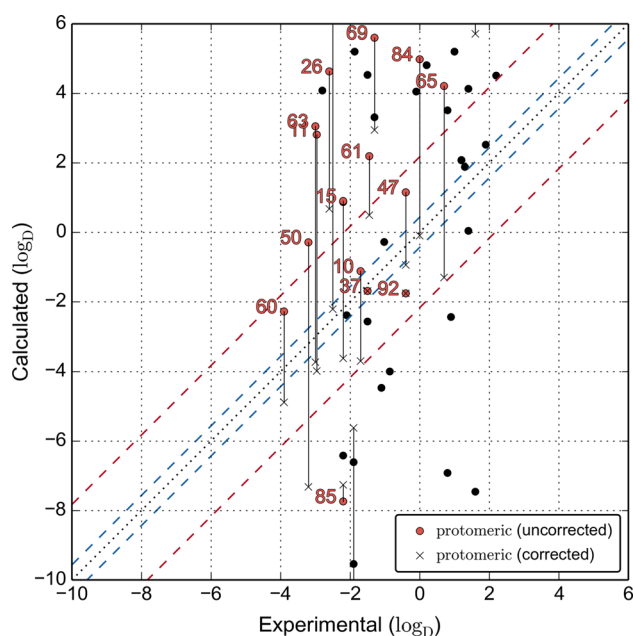


Fig. 4 Our partition estimations from MM BAR (submission 38) plotted against experiment. We have applied our QM based free energy corrections (adiabatic/absolute scheme, submission 10), shifting the predicted values towards more hydrophilic values. These corrections account for multiple protomeric states and for ligand ionization due to the presence of protonizable groups. These corrections substantially reduce the RMSD and increase the correlation of these predictions with respect to experimentally determined values

for a single point energy calculation in the aqueous phase at the same level of theory in the SMD implicit solvent. This approach neglects solvent relaxation effects during solvation

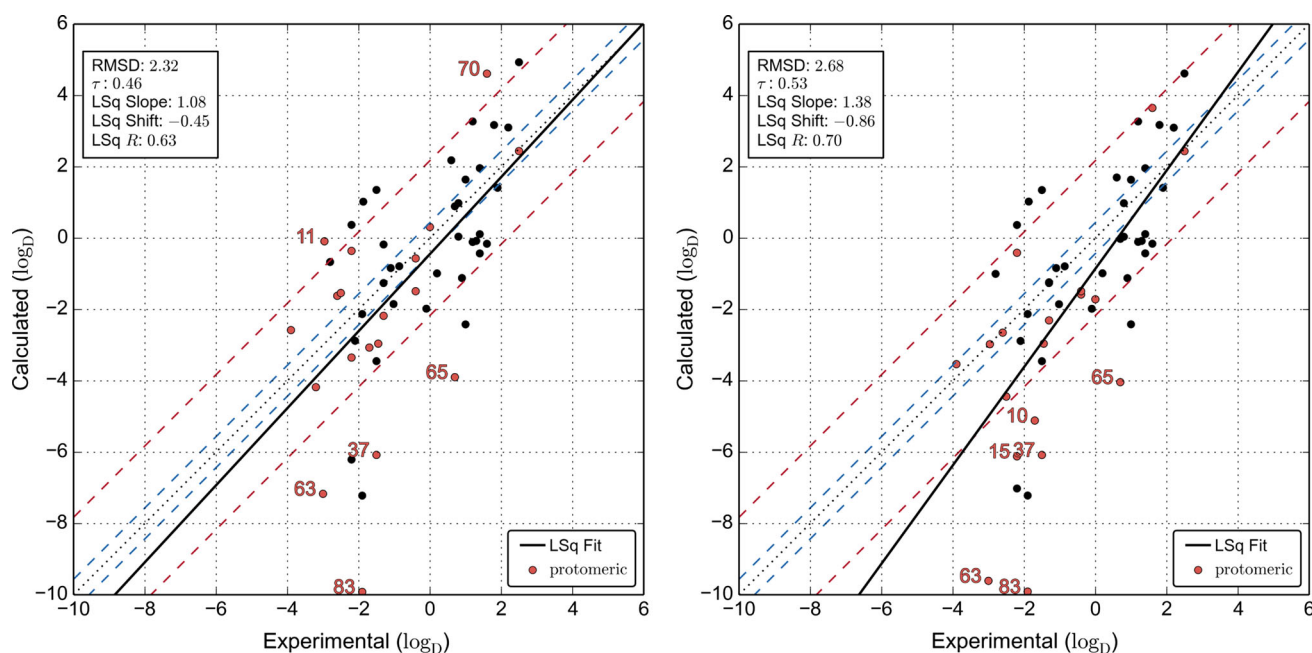


Fig. 5 Partition coefficient estimations from our QM-NBB OLYP/DZP free energy calculations (*left*, submission 02). After application of our free energy corrections (adiabatic/absolute scheme, the

process and may not be appropriate for some of the larger more flexible molecules in the SAMPL5 data set. A simple combination of these various approaches yields the four total pK_a correction schemes we used in our submissions. Once we calculated the pK_a values from our various approaches, we obtained relative populations of conjugate pairs using the Henderson–Hasselbalch equation at $pH = 7.4$. These populations are then converted into free energy corrections (ΔG_{pK_a}) from the neutral reference state.

Other corrections, such as ΔG_{taut} , can be obtained by appropriately combining Eqs. 1 and 3. We then cast the difference between QM calculated $\log P_k$ and $\log D_k$ values as a free energy correction (Eq. 15) from the reference transfer free energy, to a transfer free energy that has additional states included to model the correction of interest. This correction, originally derived from QM calculations, may then be applied to a transfer free energy obtained from any method of choice (Eq. 16).

$$\log D_{\text{QM}} = \log P_{\text{QM}} + \frac{\Delta G_{\text{corr}}}{k_B T \ln(10)} \quad (15)$$

$$\log P_{\text{chex}} = [\Delta G^{\text{chex} \rightarrow \text{aq}} + \Delta G_{\text{corr}}] / [k_B T \ln(10)] \quad (16)$$

Results and discussion

In this section, individual and collective descriptors, such as RMSD, of partition and distribution coefficients will be given in logarithmic units, which are dimensionless, and

resulting distribution coefficients correlate more strongly with experiment, but are significantly too hydrophilic, and systematically overestimate the hydrophilicity (*right*, submission 54)

thus will not be explicitly listed. These results can be expressed as free energies using the conversion $1 \log = 1.36 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$, at 25°C . When comparing predictions with an experiment, a “–” sign indicates that the prediction is more hydrophilic than experiment, while a “+” indicates that our prediction is too hydrophobic.

Being one of the most popular and effective quantum chemistry methods in use today, the M06-2X/6-31+G(d)/SMD level of theory yielded $\log P_{\text{chex}}$ predictions that served as a good reference point by which we could evaluate the accuracy and efficiency of the rest of our submissions to the SAMPL5 challenge. When combined with the vertical solvation protocol (the adiabatic protocol performs similarly, submission 28), these predictions agreed relatively well with experiment, sixth overall (submission 27, RMSD = 2.58), but correlated poorly with experiment (Kendall’s $\tau = 0.46$). While we chose to include both frequency and single point corrections with a triple- ζ basis set, with our adiabatic protocol, neither of these corrections changed the collective behavior of our predictions significantly (Figure S2). The most significant outlying result, by far, is for **83**. We did not identify the correct protomeric state for this molecule in either the cyclohexane or aqueous phases. Using the incorrect protomer as the basis for our predictions, our value for $\log P_{\text{chex}}$ (**83**) is too hydrophilic by 12.45. The results from these submissions are explicitly tabulated in Table 1.

After consulting with other participants at the D3R meeting, and then identifying more stable protomers in

Table 2 The original free energy corrections from reference to equilibrium conditions using the various solvation and pK_a schemes, as submitted to the SAMPL5 challenge

Molecule	Analog	Adiabatic pK_a^{abs}	Adiabatic pK_a^{rel}	Vertical pK_a^{abs}	Vertical pK_a^{rel}
04	L01	-0.0027	-0.3847	-0.0044	-0.3284
10	L02	-2.7875	-6.2984	-1.4855	-5.4582
11	L03	-3.9355	-5.7448	-8.3692	-5.6514
15	L04	-3.7814	-9.2797	-2.9715	-9.1309
17	L05	-0.0006	-0.0006	-0.4107	-0.4107
26	L06	-1.4138	-3.4527	-0.0296	-2.7488
27	-	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
37	L07	-0.0065	-0.0800	-0.0015	-0.0314
47	L08	-1.3858	0.0000	-0.3834	0.0000
48	L08	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
49	L08	-0.0002	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
50	L05	-8.5884	-14.2726	-9.0355	-16.3250
56	L05	-3.9610	-6.5669	-4.7477	-6.9113
60	L03	-1.2984	-3.0039	-1.2355	-3.8497
61	L09	-0.0007	-0.0179	-0.0016	-0.0372
63	L10	-3.3279	-4.3205	-2.5632	-3.1222
65	L11	-0.1986	-0.7811	-0.0033	-0.0037
67	L12	-1.4434	-1.0910	-0.6303	-0.0509
69	L10	-0.1734	-0.6055	-1.1760	-0.5853
70	L13	-1.3071	-2.2183	-0.8740	-1.5455
71	-	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
72	L13	-0.6511	-1.4325	-0.1069	-0.3275
75	L12	-0.4576	-0.2757	-1.1267	-0.1414
81	L12	-1.1127	-0.7939	-1.5449	-0.2765
82	L12	-0.4290	-0.2561	-0.0602	-0.0030
84	L10	-2.7626	-3.7442	-0.3028	-0.5945
85	L14	-0.0777	-0.4561	-0.0513	-1.1204
86	L11	-1.2386	-2.3146	-0.0683	-0.0747
92	L15	-0.0001	-0.0880	-0.0027	-1.4623

The M06-2X/6-311++G(d,p)//6-31+G(d) level of theory was used with the SMD implicit solvent. No attempts to correct for deviations from reference states were made for molecule that do not appear in this table. Free energy calculations are in kcal mol^{-1}

both phases, our predicted partition value is in much better agreement with experiment, but is still far too hydrophilic $\Delta_{\text{exp}} = -7.11$. The RMSD for this submission is also significantly reduced to 2.25 units by using the proper tautomers for **83**, now ranking it amongst the best submissions by RMSD. The correlation with experiment is still very poor however, and is significantly worse than the result obtained by the top performing COSMO-RS submission (submission 16, $\text{RMSD} = 2.1 \pm 0.2$, $\tau = 0.73 \pm 0.04$) [36, 35]. The extreme sensitivity of these results to the inclusion of two additional protomers for a single molecule in the data set, dramatically underscores the difficult nature of these calculations.

Table 3 Chemical names and experimental pK_a values for analog molecules used in relative pK_a calculation schemes

Molecule	Chemical name	pK_a^{exp}	Ref.
L01	4-Methylquinoline	5.67	[57]
L02	Aniline-3-carboxylic acid	3.07, 4.79	[57]
L03	Aniline-2-carboxylic acid	2.17, 4.85	[57]
L04	Sarcosine	2.21, 10.1	[57]
L05	Phenol	9.99	[57]
L06	Benzeneacetic acid	4.31	[57]
L07	Piperazine	9.73, 5.33	[57]
L08	Isoxazole	-2.0	[57]
L09	Morpholine	8.50	[57]
L10	N-methylpiperidine	10.08	[24]
L11	Triethylamine	10.75	[57]
L12	Diisopropylamine	11.05	[57]
L13	N,N-dimethylethylamine	10.16	[57]
L14	Hydantoin	9.0 ^a	[3, 74]
L15	Imidazole	6.99	[57]
L16	2-Pyridone	11.65	[66]

All pK_a measurements were taken at 25°C, except for L01, which was taken at 20 °C

^a An erroneous value of 9.16 from the secondary literature [74] was used mistakenly in the pK_a calculations

While a detailed analysis of the results from the underlying MM free energy simulations are discussed in a companion paper to this work, [38] it is important to briefly introduce and discuss them. Running the simulations using reference states where all protonizable groups are neutral, and protomers are incorrectly assigned for at least three molecules (**50**, **56** and **83**), yields extremely poor results. The CGenFF fixed charge force field, in combination with the BAR free energy estimator, provides partition predictions that significantly deviate from experiment (submission 38, $\text{RMSD} = 5.6 \pm 0.4$, $\tau = 0.25 \pm 0.08$). Applying our corrections based on absolute pK_a calculations (Table 3) and adiabatic solvation free energy calculations, improves this result dramatically (Fig. 4), reducing the deviation from experiment and increasing the correlation (submission 10, $\text{RMSD} = 3.14$, $\tau = 0.49$).

The predicted partition coefficients (Table 1) using the QM-NBB free energy estimator combined with the OLYP/DZP level of theory had a relatively low deviation from experiment (submission 02, $\text{RMSD} = 2.3 \pm 0.3$, $\tau = 0.48 \pm 0.07$), ranking second by RMSD, but a relatively mediocre correlation (Fig. 5). After applying our free energy corrections based on absolute pK_a calculations and adiabatic solvation free energy, the resulting distribution coefficients deviate further from experiment, however the correlation with experiment increases (submission 54, $\text{RMSD} = 2.68$, $\tau = 0.53$). While we did not address

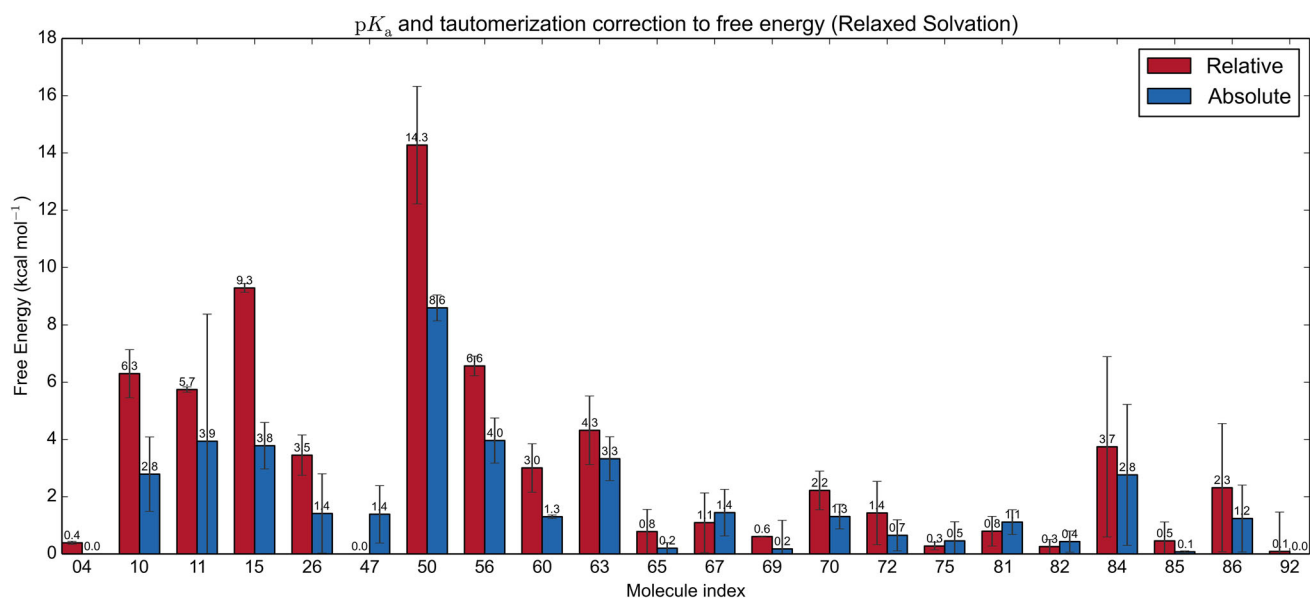


Fig. 6 Differences in free energy corrections calculated using the two different pK_a calculation schemes, both of the free energy corrections in this figure used the adiabatic solvation protocol. When the two sets

dimerization in our SAMPL5 submissions, our subsequent analysis indicated that these effects can be substantial. For example, molecule **50** will likely dimerize in the apolar phase, significantly decreasing its lipophobicity. Similarly, for molecule **74**, the water dragging effect may diminish its lipophobicity as well, as its many alcohol groups can strongly coordinate a water molecule. Similarly the effect of polar impurities in the apolar phase was not investigated either. Our QM-NBB calculations using M06-2X did not perform significantly differently from the analogous OLYP calculations. This is an advantageous result from an efficiency perspective, as OLYP is a pure functional, and does not have a kinetic energy density term, nor a Hartree–Fock exchange, making it significantly cheaper than M06-2X. However, this result is also disappointing, because it closes an obvious path for trivially improving the quality of partition predictions by improving the quality of our QM functional.

The quality of pK_a^{rel} calculations (Table 2) is exquisitely dependent upon the choice of analog molecule (Table 3). In many cases, an obvious choice will present itself, and the resulting pK_a^{rel} calculation is likely to be more accurate than its absolute analog. In other cases, choosing an appropriate chemical analog will be difficult or impossible. One example is the acidic phenolic hydrogen in **17**. Phenol is a poor choice of analog for this system, because this proton is stabilized by an intramolecular hydrogen bond with the neighboring basic heterocyclic nitrogen. By directly comparing the pK_a^{rel} and pK_a^{abs} predictions (Fig. 6), we may be able to blindly assess the quality of our free

of corrections strongly deviate, it may be a sign of poor analog selection in the pK_a^{rel} calculations

energy corrections without any a priori knowledge of the distribution coefficients.

Conclusions

The OLYP/DZP QM method with SMD implicit solvation model performed very strongly relative to other submissions when combined with the NBB free energy estimator (submission 02). Overall, this submission ranked second by RMSD, but had only a mediocre correlation as estimated by Kendall's τ . While this particular combination of density functional and basis set is unusual, this protocol [58] was designed using HFE data from the SAMPL4 challenge [55] as a target. The cost of the QM-NBB approach is relatively high relative to simple QM optimization, due to the large number of configurations that must be evaluated ($\approx 4 \times 5000$) for each molecule. This cost is mitigated somewhat by the embarrassingly parallel nature of these energy evaluations.

The M06-2X/6-31+G(d) QM optimization calculations with SMD implicit solvent also performed well, ranking sixth overall by RMSD (submission 27). This submission was made because the required QM calculations were a strict subset of the calculations required for our pK_a predictions. The M06-2X and SMD approaches are ubiquitous in the literature, [50, 59] and serves as a good “control” to help us understand how our more complicated and more expensive free energy methods compare against other popular approaches. These

predictions also had mediocre correlation as estimated by Kendall's τ .

By including our pK_a and protomeric corrections with our partition predictions (specifically our corrections based on adiabatic solvation free energies and an absolute pK_a scheme), our resulting distribution predictions enjoyed increased correlation for *all* tested methods. Unfortunately, in many of our best performing methods, such as QM-NBB with OLYP/DZP, our corrections *increased* our RMSD values. This occurred because our $\log P_{\text{chex}}$ predictions were already too hydrophilic relative to experiment. Our corrections, as submitted to the SAMPL5 challenge, exacerbated this problem, further increasing the hydrophilicity of our predictions, because our corrections summed over additional aqueous phase states, further tipping the balance of our predictions towards the hydrophilic.

Our pK_a corrections indicated that some of our reference states, under which our MD simulations were performed, were very far from equilibrium. Molecule **83** for example, has a protomer in the apolar phase that is *ca.* 10 kcal mol⁻¹ from the state we modeled with MD. Differences this large, cannot likely be corrected for using QM optimization calculations on one configuration.

Our pK_a corrections were performed using the QM optimization protocol, which, while successful overall, suffers from over representing the global minimum structure, as conformational entropy of neighboring low-lying configurations is neglected. This effect should be particularly troublesome for larger molecules that were very common in this challenge, as well as for the many ionic conjugates that were ubiquitous in this data set. The accuracy of our pK_a corrections could likely be improved by using a NBB scheme here as well. This approach will be the subject of follow up work.

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