Optimized halogen atomic radii for PBSA calculations using off-center point-charges

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Abstract

In force field methods, the usage of off-center point-charges, also called extra-points (EPs), is a common strategy to tackle the anisotropy of the electrostatic potential of covalently-bonded halogens (X), thus allowing the description of halogen bonds (XBs) at the molecular mechanics / molecular dynamics (MM/MD) level. Diverse EP implementations exist in the literature differing on the charge sets and/or the X–EP distances. Poisson–Boltzmann and surface area (PBSA) calculations can be used to obtain solvation free energies ($\Delta G_{\rm solv}$) of small molecules, often to compute binding free energies ($\Delta G_{\rm bind}$) at the MM-PBSA level. This method depends, among other parameters, on the empirical assignment of atomic radii (PB radii). Given the multiplicity of off-center point-charges models and the lack of specific PB radii for halogens compatible with such implementations, in this work we assessed the performance of PBSA calculations for the estimation of $\Delta G_{\rm solv}$ values in water ($\Delta G_{\rm hyd}$), also conducting an optimization of the halogen PB radii (Cl, Br, and I) for each EP model. We

not only expand the usage of EP models in the scope of the General AMBER Force Field (GAFF) but also provide the first optimized halogen PB radii in the context of the CHARMM General Force Field (CGenFF), thus contributing to improving the description of halogenated compounds in PBSA calculations.

keywords: hydration free energy, halogen radii, extra-point, PBSA calculations, halogenated ligands, halogen bonding

Introduction

The determination of binding free energies (ΔG_{bind}) is of extreme importance in computeraided drug discovery^{1,2} and, in order to obtain accurate results, the solvation free energy (ΔG_{solv}) must be properly estimated. Furthermore, ΔG_{solv} is by itself an important property in the study and characterization of compounds, therefore, the estimation of ligand hydration free energies, ΔG_{hyd} , is paramount as most biomolecular processes occur in water.^{3,4} Free energy perturbation (FEP) and thermodynamic integration (TI) methods can be used to calculate both ΔG_{bind} and ΔG_{solv} ,⁵⁻⁹ but at a cost of being computationally demanding. On the other hand, the molecular mechanics-Poisson-Boltzmann surface area (MM-PBSA) method has the advantage of requiring a much lower computational cost to obtain both quantities, hence, it can be applied to large libraries of compounds.^{10,11} In this method, the hydration (solvation) free energies of the components of the system (e.g. protein–ligand) are estimated using the Poisson–Boltzmann (PB) equation and surface area (SA) calculations, which, among other terms, depends on atomic charges and a set of atomic radii, often called PB radii , which are used to define the solute (ϵ_{in}) and solvent (ϵ_{out}) regions (Figure 1).

Covalently-bonded halogens (R–X, with X = Cl, Br, I) possess anisotropic electronic features, showing a positive region in their electrostatic potential, called the σ -hole, which enables their interaction with a Lewis base (B).¹² This type of R–X···B interaction, known as halogen bond (XB),¹³ has found application in diverse fields of (bio)chemical sciences.^{14,15}



Figure 1: Schematic representation of a halogenated molecule in a PBSA calculation: an offcenter point-charge (EP) is placed at a given distance from the halogen X ($d_{X...EP}$) whereas the halogen PB radius along with those of the remainder atoms, is used to define the region of the solute (ϵ_{in}) and the solvent (ϵ_{out}).

Indeed, there are numerous examples were XBs play an important role in anion recognition,^{16,17} catalysis,¹⁸ and in protein-ligand systems,^{19–21} this latter case showing their relevance in medicinal chemistry. In fact, halogenated compounds are strongly present in drug discovery,^{20,22} mainly due to their propensity to improve drug-like properties such as membrane permeability and pharmacokinetic stability.^{23,24} Therefore, computational methods aiming at describing halogenated ligands and their association with a biomolecular target must provide a proper description of the σ -hole which is not straightforwardly achieved by standard force fields (FFs) as these typically consider halogen atoms to carry a negative charge leading to unfavorable interactions with other negative atoms.²¹ To overcome this problem, various strategies to emulate the σ -hole in empirical FFs emerged, namely, electric multipole expansions, aspherical interatomic potentials, and off-center point charges.²⁵ The latter methodology is quite simple and consists of placing a positive charge, often called extra point (EP), at a given distance from the halogen along the R–X bond axis to emulate the σ -hole (Figure 1). This strategy has the advantage of a rather low impact on the computational cost which is important for large-scale simulations. Thus, a variety of different implementations of the EP strategy were published ^{26–33} differing in the charge-fitting scheme or charges assigned, and on the X···EP distance ($d_{X...EP}$). These implementations are able to properly describe XBs in molecular dynamics simulations of protein–ligand systems.²¹ In some studies, MD trajectories were used in MM-(GB/PB)SA (GB = Generalized Born) calculations to estimate $\Delta G_{\text{bind}}^{26,34-37}$ and even though the presence of an EP usually leads to accurate results regarding protein–ligand geometries and sampling of XBs, its impact on the accuracy of ΔG_{solv} predictions when using such methods is yet to be properly evaluated.

Very recently,³⁸ we showed that a problematic issue arises when using PBSA calculations combined with a common off-center point-charge implementation for the General Amber Force Field $(GAFF)^{39}$ that uses a $d_{X...EP}$ value corresponding to the Lennard-Jones (LJ) parameter $R_{\rm min}$ of the halogen²⁶ along with restrained electrostatic potential (RESP) charges 40 fitted for all particles (here denoted *EP1* method). Indeed, since PB radii sets such as PARSE⁴¹ or modified Bondi (mbondi)⁴² do not include specific values for the heavier halogens, standard radii $(r_{\rm std})$ are commonly taken from the literature^{4,43} (Table S1). However, these values are smaller than R_{\min} , thus placing the EP outside the halogen radius, i.e., in the solvent dielectric, leading to a poor estimation of ΔG_{solv} . By conducting an optimization we provided a new set of halogen PB radii (r_{opt}) that can be used with $d_{X \dots EP} = R_{min}$ in the context of GAFF $(EP1)^{26}$ yielding mean absolute error (MAE) values between experimental and calculated $\Delta G_{\rm solv}$ values lower than 1.5 kcal mol⁻¹ as opposed to 4.2 kcal mol⁻¹ when standard radii are used. This work also showed that even without EP addition, the halogen PB radii can be slightly optimized (MAE below 1.8 kcal mol^{-1} vs 2.0 kcal mol^{-1} without optimization). A grid of $d_{X\cdots EP}$ values and halogen PB radii eventually showed the nonexistence of optimal parameters as a wide range of pairs yield low MAE values, also demonstrating that the optimization strategy can be ported into other FFs and/or off-center point-charge implementations.

Given the diverse EP strategies that can be used for performing MD simulations (and

possibly MM-PBSA calculations), some of them also placing the EP outside the halogen radius (i.e. $d_{X...EP} > r_{std}$) herein, we assess the performance of PBSA in the estimation of ΔG_{solv} in water (ΔG_{hyd}) using three different off-center point-charge implementations from literature in the context of GAFF^{27,29} and CHARMM³⁰ force fields, also conducting an optimization of the PB radii for Cl, Br, and I for each EP model. With this work we aim at improving the description of halogenated compounds in structure-based virtual screening approaches by providing methods that accurately estimate ΔG_{solv} values which are paramount to understand protein–ligand binding events. Moreover, and since the addition of EPs is not limited to halogens, being also important to address anisotropic electronic features in other elements such sulfur (σ -hole),^{44,45} oxygen or nitrogen atoms (lone pairs),^{44,46} this work might also lay the ground for expanding the optimizations to those elements.

Methods

Experimental Data

From FreeSolv⁴⁷(version 0.51⁴⁸), a database of experimental and simulation data of hydration free energies, 142 halogenated molecules were taken, comprising 107 chlorinated, 23 brominated, and 12 iodinated compounds which were analysed independently. As before,³⁸ compounds containing multiple halogens from different elements in their structure (other than fluorine), namely, ID 4506634 (2-bromo-2-chloro-1,1,1-trifluoroethane) and ID 7768165 (1-bromo-2-chloroethane) were excluded from our analysis. Regarding fluorine-containing molecules, only compounds comprising also heavier halogens in their structure were considered.

Off-center point-charge models

We used three different off-center point-charge implementations taken from the literature termed EP2,²⁷ EP3,²⁹ and EP4.³⁰ For all of them, only one EP is added along the C–

X covalent bond axis with the C–X··· EP angle being fixed at 180.0°. Their main features, namely, $d_{X...EP}$ and atomic charges assigned to the EP (q_{EP}) are summarized in Table 1. The values for **EP1** model, studied in an earlier publication,³⁸ are also shown for comparison.

Table 1: General information $(d_{X \dots EP} \text{ in } \text{\AA} \text{ and EP charges, } q_{EP})$ for the different methods used in this work.

	GAFF					CHAR	MM	
	EP1		EP2		EP3		EP4	
Halogen	$d_{X\cdots EP}$	$q_{\rm EP}$	$d_{X\cdots EP}$	$q_{\rm EP}$	$d_{X\cdots EP}$	$q_{\rm EP}$	$d_{X\cdots EP}$	\mathbf{q}_{EP}
Cl	1.948				1.00	0.1	1.64	0.05
Br	2.020	RESP fitted	Best fit	to QM ESP^a	1.30	0.2	1.89	0.05
Ι	2.150				1.60	0.3	2.20	0.05

^a The list of $d_{X...EP}$ values is given in Tables S2-S4.

The first off-center point-charge model studied in this work was proposed by Sironi and co-workers²⁷ (Table 1, *EP2*) in the context of AMBER/GAFF.³⁹ In this approach, atomic charges are fitted for all atoms (including the EP) using a RESP fitting procedure, and $d_{X \dots EP}$ values are determined individually for each molecule by minimizing the error of the fit to the reference quantum-mechanical (QM) electrostatic potential (ESP). Thus, using previously optimized geometries at the B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) level of theory⁴⁹⁻⁵⁴ with Gaussian 09, Revision A.2,⁵⁵ the reference ESPs were generated at the $HF/6-31G(d)^{56-58}$ level of theory for all elements, with the exception of iodine, for which the $6-311G(d)^{54}$ basis set was used. The remainder parameters are described in an earlier publication.³⁸ Atomic partial charges were obtained by applying the restrained ESP (RESP)⁴⁰ procedure using the antechamber⁵⁹ module as implemented in AmberTools17.⁶⁰ During this RESP fitting procedure, an EP was placed along the C–X covalent bond by varying $d_{X \dots EP}$ from 1 Å to 4 Å with 0.01 Å increments. According to the *EP2* model strategy, the selected $d_{X\dots EP}$ values were the ones minimizing the relative root-mean-square (RRMS) error of the fit. When $d_{X \dots EP}$ was larger than R_{\min} , the value of R_{\min} and respective atomic charges were attributed instead. The final $d_{X \dots EP}$ values obtained for each compound are presented in Tables S2-S4. Notice that in EP2, and owing to the variable nature of the $d_{X...EP}$ values, the EP is often placed in the water dielectric when using standard halogen PB radii (Table S1), i.e. $d_{X...EP}$ > r_{std} (see also the Off-center point-charge model EP2 section in Results and Discussion).

The second method tested, EP3, also called "no fit" explicit σ -hole (ESH), was proposed by Hobza and co-workers²⁹ in the context of AMBER/GAFF.³⁹ In this work a Br-EP distance of 1.5 Å and an EP charge of 0.20*e* were suggested as universal parameters. These values were reviewed in a subsequent publication,⁶¹ also providing $d_{X...EP}$ and q_{EP} values for iodine and chlorine. In this case, the same RESP fitting procedure as described before was performed without EP addition. Then, the EP was added at the corresponding $d_{X...EP}$ value and a charge (q_{EP}) was attributed (Table 1, EP3). The value of q_{EP} is then subtracted from the halogen charge, while the other atomic partial charges were not modified. Notice than once charges are obtained for a given set of molecules, no additional calculations are necessary to assign EP charges, thus saving computational time which could be useful for high-throughput calculations.⁶¹ In this EP model, the $d_{X...EP}$ values are always smaller than the corresponding r_{std} and therefore, the EP is correctly placed within the solute dielectric.

The last method explored in this work, named EP4, is based on the parameterization of XBs in the CHARMM General Force Field (CGenFF).³⁰ In this case, and similarly to EP3, the EP distances and charges for each halogen are fixed (Table 1, EP4). To the best of our knowledge, no specific halogen PB radii exist to be employed along with CGenFF parameters. In this work, we used the halogen R_{\min} values as r_{std} placeholders for the subsequent optimization (see Table S5 and Discussion below). Hence, using the standard values, $d_{X...EP} < r_{std}$ which correctly places the EP in the solute. The platform Ligand Reader & Modeler⁶² from CHARMM-GUI,⁶³ or in some specific cases for which CHARMM-GUI failed to create a topology file, the CGenFF server (https://cgenff.umaryland.edu)⁶⁴ were used to generate CHARMM topologies containing atomic charges. Unfortunately for compounds ID 2996632 (chloroform), ID 6359135 (carbon-tetrachloride) and ID 8311321 (chloro-diffuoro-methane), CHARMM topologies could not be obtained, thus decreasing the number of chlorinated molecules analyzed to 104. A direct conversion of the CHARMM topology to an AMBER compatible one (e.g. using CHAMBER⁶⁵), which could be read by the **pbsa** program of AmberTools 17,⁶⁰ was not performed since colinear lonepairs are not supported. Therefore the CHARMM topologies were converted to a free-format pqr file using in-house scripts.

PBSA Calculations

We followed a similar procedure as the one described in reference 21. Succinctly, PBSA calculations were performed using the **pbsa** program provided in AmberTools 17,⁶⁰ with a single conformation per compound. These type of data sets are most frequently constituted by compounds with few rotatable bonds,⁴ thus averaging over multiple conformations has only a marginal impact on the results.⁶⁶ Indeed, in our previous work,³⁸ no significant improvement is achieved after systematic conformational search for selected compounds. The solvation free energy (ΔG_{solv}) was computed from the contribution of a polar component (ΔG_{polar}) and a nonpolar component ($\Delta G_{nonpolar}$):

$$\Delta G_{\rm solv} = \Delta G_{\rm polar} + \Delta G_{\rm nonpolar} \tag{1}$$

The ΔG_{polar} accounts for the electrostatic contribution to the total solvation free energy, obtained by a finite difference solution of the linearized Poisson-Boltzmann (PB) equation. On the other hand, the $\Delta G_{\text{nonpolar}}$ returns the contribution of solute-solvent hydrophobic interactions and cavitation. A solvent probe radius of 1.4 Å was used to define the solvent excluded surface and the solute and solvent dielectric constants were set to 1 and 80, respectively, thus setting $\Delta G_{\text{solv}} = \Delta G_{\text{hyd}}$. The remainder parameters can be found in reference 38.

In the context of AMBER/GAFF (methods *EP2*, *EP3*) we used three different calculation setups, termed *pb1*, *pb2*, and *pb3*, representing different flavors usually employed for MM-PBSA calculations with this force field (Table S6). Briefly, for **pb1** and **pb2** setups, the PARSE⁴¹ and mbondi radii,⁴² respectively, are used for both ΔG_{polar} and $\Delta G_{\text{nonpolar}}$ calculations. For **pb3**, ΔG_{polar} is calculated using mbondi radii whereas for $\Delta G_{\text{nonpolar}}$, attractive ($\Delta G_{\text{dispersion}}$) and repulsive interactions are treated separately.^{10,67} This is done by using a surface-based integration method for the $\Delta G_{\text{dispersion}}$ term while the molecular volume enclosed by SASA (SAV) is estimated for the calculation of the cavity repulsive term using the R_{min} values as atomic radii. Atomic radii were assigned by default by **leap** in AmberTools 17⁶⁰ for each set (PARSE and mbondi), with minor corrections and the values are provided in Table S1.

In the context of CHARMM/CGenFF, we used a calculation setup, termed **pb4** (Table S6), similar to the one described in reference 68 which applied CHARMM36 (C36) and CGenFF to reproduce the experimental solvation free energies of a set of 70 molecules yielding an RMS of 2.5 kcal mol⁻¹. Similarly to this work, herein both ΔG_{polar} and $\Delta G_{\text{nonpolar}}$ were calculated using the set of radii from Nina et al.⁶⁹ and Banavali et al.⁷⁰ (see Table S5) and setting $\gamma = 0.005$ kcal mol⁻¹ Å⁻² while the constant term, β was set to zero.

For all tested off-center point-charge models and PBSA setups, the PB radii of the halogen atoms (Cl, Br, I) were varied between 1.00 and 4.00 Å at incremental values of 0.01 Å while keeping those of the remaining elements constant. A value of 0.00 Å was assigned to both the EP PB radius and its $R_{\rm min}$ value (a detailed explanation on how to run PBSA calculations with an EP was given in an earlier publication).³⁸ It is important to mention that in setups **pb1**, **pb2**, and **pb4** the variation of the halogen PB radius affects both $\Delta G_{\rm polar}$ and $\Delta G_{\rm nonpolar}$ terms. For **pb3**, the halogen radius variation only affects $\Delta G_{\rm polar}$, while the contribution of $\Delta G_{\rm nonpolar}$ is constant as it only depends on the $R_{\rm min}$ value.

The mean absolute error (MAE), calculated as

$$MAE = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\Delta G_{solv}(calc)_i - \Delta G_{solv}(exp)_i|$$
(2)

was used to evaluate the accuracy of the solvation free energy values. It consists of the unsigned difference between the computed ($\Delta G_{solv}(calc)$) and experimental ($\Delta G_{solv}(exp)$) values, averaged for each entire subset of compounds (n).

Results and Discussion

The solvation free energies (ΔG_{solv}) for a set of halogenated molecules taken from the FreeSolv database⁴⁷ were estimated using PBSA calculations with different calculation setups (*pb1*, *pb2*, *pb3*, and *pb4*). Three off-center point-charge models (*EP2*, *EP3*, and *EP4*), meant to tackle the anisotropy of the halogens, were evaluated in the context of PBSA calculations aiming at the optimization of the halogen radii by comparing the calculated ΔG_{solv} values with the experimental ones. A comparison with the values obtained in a previous work using *EP1*³⁸ is also performed. A discussion for each EP model is presented in the following sections.

Off-center point-charge model EP2

As mentioned previously, model EP2 is based on the work of Sironi and co-workers,²⁷ and considers the ability of the EP to reproduce the full anisotropy of the potential around the halogen by using the X···EP distance that yield the best fit to the QM electrostatic potential. This means that, for each compound, a specific X···EP distance is assigned along with atomic charges which are attributed to all atoms (including the EP) by the RESP procedure. We therefore applied this method to our library of halogenated compounds and the X···EP distances (d_X..._{EP}) that provide the best fit of the ESP against the QM potential are summarized in Tables S2-S4. Notice that for the subsequent PBSA calculations, when the obtained d_X..._{EP} values are larger than R_{\min} , d_X..._{EP} is set to the R_{\min} value since placing the EP beyond this value might lead to instabilities during MD simulations.²⁵ The distribution of d_X..._{EP} values for each dataset is shown in Figure 2. For iodinated molecules,



Figure 2: Distribution of $d_{X \dots EP}$ values (Å) assigned using *EP2*.

the assigned distances are in the 1.25–2.41 Å range with a maximum at ≈ 2.02 Å, slightly smaller than the R_{\min} value for iodine (2.15 Å) and slightly larger than r_{std} (1.98 Å for both PARSE and mbondi sets, see Table S1) meaning that for several molecules, $d_{X...EP} > r_{std}$. For the brominated dataset, the distances that led to the best fit to the QM are in a range of 0.72–2.40 Å, with a peak occurring at ≈ 2.02 Å, similar to the R_{\min} value for bromine (2.02 Å) and larger than the standard PB radius (1.85 Å). The behavior of the chlorinated set is different as the $d_{X...EP}$ values are evenly distributed around the maximum occurring at 1.42 Å (range 0.74-1.97 Å), a value much smaller than the R_{\min} for chlorine (1.948 Å) and the standard PB radius (1.70 Å). These results show that placing the EP at R_{\min} in iodinated and brominated compounds (as in **EP1** model) might not introduce larger errors on the fit of the ESP when compared with the reference potential, while for chlorinated molecules, shorter distances than R_{\min} appear to reduce the mentioned error. Given the different size of the datasets, this issue must be further investigated, however, it is out of the scope of this manuscript.

In order to optimize the halogen PB radii, these were systematically varied for all compounds while using point charges derived for model EP2, and the MAE values against experimental values were calculated (Figure 3). The plot reflects the non-constant nature



Figure 3: Variation of the MAE values with the halogen radius for each subset of halogenated compounds with an addition of an EP based in model EP2 using PBSA setups pb1, pb2, and pb3.

of the $X \cdots EP$ distances in model *EP2*. As we have shown before,³⁸ when the halogen PB radius is equal to the $X \cdots EP$ distance, an asymptotic-like behavior in the error is observed. Therefore, several error peaks are observed whenever PB radii = $d_{X \cdots EP}$ for a given compound. These errors may result from instabilities associated with a point charge being placed at the interface between the two-dielectric media. In spite the occurrence of these peaks, all curves show a minimum corresponding to an optimal halogen PB radius (r_{opt}) that minimizes the MAE. The values are presented in Table 2 along with the MAEs obtained using r_{std} values. Using standard radii leads to considerably larger errors (up to c.a. 6 kcal mol⁻¹) Table 2: MAE (kcal mol⁻¹) values obtained with standard (r_{std}) and optimized (r_{opt}) halogen radii (Å) for each subset of halogenated compounds with the addition of an EP using **EP2** model for PBSA setups **pb1**, **pb2**, and **pb3**.

Halogen	$r_{\rm std}$	pb1		pb2		pb3	
		MAE _{std}	$MAE_{opt}(r_{opt})$	$\mathrm{MAE}_{\mathrm{std}}$	$MAE_{opt}(r_{opt})$	$\mathrm{MAE}_{\mathrm{std}}$	$MAE_{opt}(r_{opt})$
Cl	1.70	4.201	1.579(2.42)	2.923	1.172(2.03)	3.686	1.059(2.33)
Br	1.85	2.812	0.901 (2.50)	2.025	0.712(2.33)	2.302	0.647(2.49)
Ι	1.98	6.218	0.583(2.73)	5.631	0.819(2.54)	5.795	0.654(2.64)

for pb1 in the iodine dataset) than those obtained using the optimized values for which the larger MAE is c.a. 1.6 kcal mol⁻¹ using pb1 for chlorine, thus showing the importance of the halogen radii optimization in this context.

The setup that lead to lower MAE values for iodinated compounds was pb1, with an MAE value of 0.583 kcal mol⁻¹, although pb3 yields competitive results (0.654 kcal mol⁻¹). This latter setup achieved better results (0.647 kcal mol⁻¹ and 1.059 kcal mol⁻¹) for brominated and chlorinated compounds, respectively. Moreover, for this latter dataset, larger MAEs were observed for all setups, which was also verified in the previous study,³⁸ and is related to the larger sample size (107 compounds).

The r_{opt} values follow the expected order of increasing atomic number (Cl < Br < I) in all the setups and are larger than the corresponding R_{min} , which is coherent with the results obtained in a previous work³⁸ for **EP1**. Indeed, comparing the **EP2** results with those reported for **EP1**, both the r_{opt} values and MAEs are quite similar.

The correlation between the calculated and experimental ΔG_{solv} values can be obtained



using r_{opt} values (*EP2*, Figure 4). For all the setups, the correlations are high, although

Figure 4: Correlation between experimental an calculated ΔG_{solv} values for each subset of halogenated compounds with with *EP2* model. The inset shows the resulting Kendall τ , Spearman rank correlation, and Pearson R correlation coefficients.

slightly lower for chlorinated compounds, which is consistent with the MAE values obtained. Additionally, the majority of the compounds possess an absolute deviation below 2 kcal mol⁻¹ (Figure S1 and Figure S2), with higher deviations obtained for chlorinated compounds, as expected. These plots also show that the magnitude of the MAE is not concomitant with a systematic over/underestimation of ΔG_{solv} as the signed difference between calculated $(\Delta G_{solv}(calc))$ and the experimental values $(\Delta G_{solv}(exp))$ is reasonably distributed around 0.

Although the ability to predict ΔG_{solv} significantly varies with the PBSA method, some compounds are particularly difficult to tackle. For instance, in the iodinated set, 2-iodophenol presents the largest deviations (-4.48 to -2.55 kcal mol⁻¹). This systematic overestimation also occurs in a brominated analogue, 4-bromophenol (deviations up to -2.99 kcal mol⁻¹). As before,³⁸ the largest outlier is the chlorinated compound dialifor, the ΔG_{solv} values being highly overestimated especially when using the **pb1** setup (-9.14 kcal mol⁻¹ deviation). Notice that the difficulties regarding the prediction of the hydration free energy of this compound was observed in other studies,^{71,72} which can be associated with the presence of polar functional groups such as triophosphate, and also by a significant conformational floppiness.

Overall, using default radii leads to larger errors and therefore r_{opt} values should be used instead. When comparing the three tested PBSA setups, *pb3* setup is recommended under optimized conditions.

Off-center point-charge model EP3

Contrarily to EP2, in model EP3 the values for the distances and charges of the EP are fixed (Table 1).²⁹ Thus, in the plots depicting the variation of the MAE against the PB radius of the halogen (Figure 5), error peaks are observed at 1.00 Å, 1.30 Å, and 1.60 Å, for chlorinated, brominated, and iodinate compounds, respectively. As explained before, these peaks occur when the PB radius value is equal to the X···EP distance ($d_{X...EP}$) and the overall shape of the curves resemble those obtained with EP1 where a fixed X···EP distance (equal to R_{\min}) was also used,³⁸ although the peaks obtained herein are broader, specially for iodine.

In Table 3, the MAE values obtained for both $r_{\rm std}$ and $r_{\rm opt}$ are summarized. For iodinated



Figure 5: Variation of the MAE values with the halogen radius for each subset of halogenated compounds with an addition of an EP based in model EP3 using PBSA setups pb1, pb2, and pb3.

Table 3: MAE (kcal mol⁻¹) values obtained with standard (r_{std}) and optimized (r_{opt}) halogen radii (Å) for each subset of halogenated compounds with the addition of an EP using *EP3* model for PBSA setups *pb1*, *pb2*, and *pb3*.

Halogen	$r_{\rm std}$	pb1		pb2		pb3	
		$\mathrm{MAE}_{\mathrm{std}}$	$MAE_{opt}(r_{opt})$	$\mathrm{MAE}_{\mathrm{std}}$	$MAE_{opt}(r_{opt})$	$\mathrm{MAE}_{\mathrm{std}}$	$MAE_{opt}(r_{opt})$
Cl	1.70	2.281	1.648(2.13)	1.525	1.352(1.89)	1.766	1.273(2.17)
Br	1.85	4.564	1.034(2.60)	3.639	0.924(2.41)	4.067	1.069(2.80)
Ι	1.98	15.92	0.869(3.07)	14.89	1.074(2.87)	15.33	1.131(3.10)

molecules, the errors obtained using $r_{\rm std}$ values were significantly large (> c.a. 15 kcal mol⁻¹) for all tested PBSA setups. This is caused by the fact that $r_{\rm std}$ is located very near the broad error peak. Thus, the standard PB radii for iodine (1.98 Å) along with and a X···EP distance of 1.6 Å without charge refitting is not recommended in spite of the distances fulfill the criterion of placing the off-center point-charge inside the solute dielectric ($r_{\rm opt} > d_{\rm X...EP}$), again, highlighting the importance of the halogen PB radii optimization. Indeed, by using the optimized iodine PB radii, much lower MAE values (c.a. 1 kcal mol⁻¹) are obtained. For brominated molecules, the MAE values obtained using standard PB radii are also relatively large (c.a. 4 kcal mol⁻¹) whereas, noticeably, those obtained for the chlorinated database are not particularly high ($\approx 2 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$) since $r_{\rm std}$ is substantially far from the broad error peak located a 1.00 Å (Figure 5). Nonetheless, the MAE values decrease, specially in brominated molecules, when optimized halogen PB radii are used.

Again, for all the PBSA setups, the r_{opt} values follow the expected order of increasing atomic number (Cl < Br < I) and the setup that leads to lower MAE errors is dependent on the halogen set. For iodinated molecules, **pb1** performs better (MAE = 0.869 kcal mol⁻¹), while for brominated and chlorinated, **pb2** an **pb3** yield better results (0.924 kcal mol⁻¹ and 1.273 kcal mol⁻¹, respectively). These are, however, slightly higher than those obtained for **EP2** in this work and for **EP1** in an earlier study,³⁸ although still acceptable, specially taking into account that in model EP3 the charges are not specifically fitted with the EP. Nonetheless, a recommendation of the PBSA flavour that should be used with this off-center point charge model is not evident. By plotting the calculated and experimental ΔG_{solv} values under optimized conditions (Figure 5), the correlations are high, which was expected considering the low MAE values. However, pb3 yields higher rank correlations for all halogens when compared with pb1 and pb2. It is also noteworthy to mention that our library of compounds qualitatively mimics the amount of each halogenated species present in the majority of databases, i.e. a huge presence of chlorinated molecules in relation to iodinated molecules. If we consider the weighted average of the MAEs for each setup ($\bar{x} = 1.489 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ for pb1; $\bar{x} = 1.264 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ for pb2; $\bar{x} = 1.230 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ for pb3), and the mentioned correlations (Figure 5) the latter one performs the best. As for EP2, no obvious systematic over/underestimation of ΔG_{solv} is observed regardless of the used method (Figure S3 and Figure S4).

We also checked for systematic deviations on each setup/halogenated database. Again 2-iodophenol was the compound that yielded higher deviations (-5.60 to -3.58 kcal mol⁻¹), independently of the PBSA setup, while for brominated species, 4-bromophenol and bromacil are constantly ranked in the higher deviations (up to -2.94 kcal mol⁻¹ and -5.13 kcal mol⁻¹, respectively). Once more in the chlorinated dataset, the calculated ΔG_{solv} values for dialifor were considerably more negative than the experimental ones resulting in a high deviation (up to -9.39 kcal mol⁻¹ in *pb1*).

Off-center point-charge model EP4

In order to test an off-center point-charge model out of the scope of AMBER/GAFF³⁹ such as *EP2* and *EP3*, and given the similarity of the AMBER force field energy functional form with that of CHARMM,⁶⁵ we also performed an optimization of the halogen PB radii in the context of this latter force field. Indeed, recently, the CHARMM General Force Field (CGenFF) was updated with positively-charged virtual particles to describe halogen bonds³⁰



Figure 6: Correlation between experimental an calculated ΔG_{solv} values for each subset of halogenated compounds with with *EP3* model. The inset shows the resulting Kendall τ , Spearman rank correlation, and Pearson R correlation coefficients.

with fixed charges (q_{EP}) and distances $(d_{X...EP})$ as summarized in Table 1. Although our set of halogenated molecules is diverse, it is important to notice that the optimization was based on interactions in model systems of halobenzenes and therefore, the strategy of porting the parameters to other molecules should be subject of further analysis. The variations of the MAEs with halogen radius using PBSA setup *pb4* is depicted in Figure 7. Not surprisingly,



Figure 7: Variation of the MAE values with the halogen radius for each subset of halogenated compounds with an addition of an EP based in model EP4 using PBSA setup pb4.

the behavior of the curves is quite similar to the one observed for EP3 (this work) and EP1 (reference 38) where fixed $d_{X...EP}$ values are used. When the PB radius = $d_{X...EP}$, an error peak is observed while a minimum is observed at PB radius > $d_{X...EP}$. Table 4 reports the MAEs for obtained with r_{std} along with those obtained with r_{opt} . Recall that while for the remainder elements CHARMM-compatible radii were used, ^{69,70} for the halogens their R_{min} value was used as r_{std} . Surprisingly, for chlorine, the standard radii (1.86 Å) is extremely similar to the optimized one (1.84 Å), yielding MAEs of ≈ 1.5 kcal mol⁻¹. For bromine, radii optimization leads to a slight improvement of the MAE values whereas for iodine, a large improvement of about 3 orders of magnitude is observed upon optimization owing to the fact that r_{std} (2.24 Å) is almost overlapping with $d_{X...EP}$ (2.20 Å). A strong linear correlation between calculated and experimental values (Figure 8) is obtained for iodine and bromine

Table 4: MAE (kcal mol⁻¹) values obtained with standard (r_{std}) and optimized (r_{opt}) halogen radii (Å) for each subset of halogenated compounds with the addition of an EP using *EP4* model for PBSA setup *pb4*

Halogen	$r_{ m std}$	pb4		
malogen		$\mathrm{MAE}_{\mathrm{std}}$	$MAE_{opt}(r_{opt})$	
Cl	1.86	1.552	1.535(1.84)	
Br	1.98	1.816	1.148(2.12)	
Ι	2.24	4.120	1.392(2.37)	

with Pearson correlation coefficients > 0.9, tough a degradation of the monotonic character of the relationship is observed (lower Spearman rank correlation coefficients). For chlorine,



Figure 8: Correlation between experimental an calculated ΔG_{solv} values for each subset of halogenated compounds with with *EP4* model and *pb4* PBSA setup. The inset shows the resulting Kendall τ , Spearman rank correlation, and Pearson R correlation coefficients.

the linear correlation (0.76) is the worse amongst tested PBSA setups and EP models and the same degradation of the monotonic character is observed.

Opposed to what was observed in the previous sections, using EP4 along with PBSA setup pb4 leads to an underestimation of the calculated values when the experimental ΔG_{solv} values are highly negative (Figure S5). Moreover, while for chlorine and bromine the difference between $\Delta G_{\rm solv}(\text{calc})$ and $\Delta G_{\rm solv}(\text{exp})$ values is reasonably distributed around 0, for iodine the distribution is tilted towards positive values (Figure S6) owing to a large underestimation of $\Delta G_{\rm solv}$ for 2-iodophenol (experimental -6.20 kcal mol⁻¹ vs calculated -3.19 kcal mol⁻¹) and 5-iodouracil (experimental -18.72 kcal mol⁻¹ vs -11.39 kcal mol⁻¹). For brominated compounds the largest deviation is observed for 5-bromouracil (an underestimation of c.a. 7 kcal mol⁻¹) whereas 4-bromophenol and bromacil which were difficult cases using the previous EP models/PBSA setups are now nicely predicted (deviations of -0.79 kcal mol⁻¹ and -0.89 kcal mol⁻¹, respectively). For chlorinated molecules, the difficult case of dialifor has only a moderate deviation (-3.82 kcal mol⁻¹) specially taking into account the deviations found in the other EP models while the largest outlier is now trichloronitromethane (experimental -1.45 kcal mol⁻¹, calculated -9.67 kcal mol⁻¹).

Conclusions

In classical force field methods, the σ -hole of halogen atoms is often emulated using an off-center point-charge (EP) placed along the R–X bond. The inclusion of this EP might introduce artifacts in the Poisson–Boltzman calculation if the EP is placed at the dielectric interface separating the solute (treated explicitly) and solvent media (treated implicitly), i.e., if the halogen PB radius is equal to the X–EP distance ($d_{X...EP}$).³⁸ Moreover, standard halogen PB radii (r_{std}) found in the literature can be smaller than $d_{X...EP}$, thus yielding a non-realistic model where the EP is placed in the solvent dielectric. This occurs specially for models placing the off-center point-charge at a fixed distance corresponding to the Lennard-Jones parameter R_{min}^{26} as suggested for AMBER/GAFF (herein termed **EP1**), for which a set of compatible halogen PB radii were previously provided.³⁸

Since other EP models with diverse $d_{X...EP}$ values and associated charged sets exist, a need for parameters for such models is paramount. In the scope of AMBER/GAFF we selected two different models, one with variable $d_{X...EP}$ values, selected according to the best fit to a reference quantum-mechanical electrostatic potential $(EP2)^{27}$ and another (EP3) with a fixed $d_{X \dots EP}$ value and EP charge (q_{EP}) .²⁹ By taking a set of 142 halogenated compounds for which experimental $\Delta G_{\rm solv}$ values are known, we conducted a PB radii optimization using three different PBSA calculation setups. Owing to the variable nature of $d_{X \dots EP}$ in *EP2* the variation of the mean absolute errors (MAEs) with the halogen radius shows several error peaks whenever $d_{X\cdots EP} = PB$ radius for a given compound. Nonetheless, minima could be located and the optimized radii provide MAE values substantially lower than those obtained in standard conditions. Using the best performing PBSA setup which treats the attractive and repulsive interactions separately in the calculation of $\Delta G_{\text{nonpolar}}(pb3)$, the largest error was c.a. 1 kcal mol^{-1} for chlorine, the method also providing excellent linear correlations between calculated and experimental values. The optimized radii and respective MAE values are extremly similar to those obtained for $EP1^{38}$ which is explained by the fact that the distribution of $d_{X \dots EP}$ values in model *EP2* possesses maxima values very close to R_{\min} (where the EP is placed in **EP1**). For **EP3** model, a single but broad error peak occurs at $d_{X \dots EP} = PB$ radius, with pb3 also being recommended. The optimized radii for this model are different from those obtained earlier with EP1 and EP2 in this work and the errors under optimized conditions are slightly larger but still acceptable (MAEs < 1.3 kcal mol⁻¹ using pb3).

Aiming at expanding the range of force fields, we also provide the first optimized halogen PB radii that can be used in the context of the CHARMM General Force Field (CGenFF) which was recently updated to include positively-charged virtual particles to describe halogen bonds (EP4).³⁰ Since no standard PB radii were available for halogens, we initially took the $R_{\rm min}$ values as placeholders for $r_{\rm std}$. Surprisingly, for chlorine, the $R_{\rm min}$ value is a good approximation for the PB radii as the optimized one is similar (1.86 Å and 1.84 Å, respectively), yielding similar MAE values (c.a. 1.5 kcal mol⁻¹), while for bromine and iodine, the $r_{\rm opt}$ are slightly larger than $r_{\rm std}$, providing smaller MAE values (c.a. 1.1 kcal mol⁻¹ and 1.4 kcal mol⁻¹, respectively). A correct description of halogen bonds is extremely important in the context of computeraided drug design²¹ and the above EP models were developed to tackle this issue. However, the discussion of which model/force field performs better for such task is out of the scope of this manuscript but it could depend on the target system. After an appropriate choice of the off-center point-charge model to perform MM/MD simulations, we now provide the user with reliable parameters to perform PBSA calculations when halogenated compounds are involved which could prove very useful in the context of virtual screening.

Supporting Information Available

Supporting Figures and Tables (PDF)

Full list of compounds contained in each subset along with individual experimental and calculated ΔG_{solv} values for each EP model / PBSA setup under optimized conditions (CSV)

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Graphical TOC Entry

