Benchmarking Atomistic Simulations against the ThermoML Data Archive: **Neat Liquid Densities and Static Dielectric Constants**

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Atomistic molecular simulations are a powerful way to make quantitative predictions, but the accuracy of these predictions depends entirely on the quality of the forcefield employed. While experimental measurements of fundamental physical properties offer a straightforward approach for evaluating forcefield quality, the bulk of this information has been tied up in formats that are not machine-readable. These formats require substantial human effort to compile benchmark datasets which are prone to accumulation of human errors, hindering the development of reproducible benchmarks of forcefield accuracy. Here, we examine the feasibility of benchmarking atomistic forcefields against the NIST ThermoML data archive of physicochemical measurements, which aggregates thousands of experimental measurements in a portable, machinereadable, self-annotating format. As a proof of concept, we present a detailed benchmark of the generalized Amber small molecule forcefield (GAFF) using the AM1-BCC charge model against measurements (specifically bulk liquid densities and static dielectric constants at ambient pressure) automatically extracted from the archive, and discuss the extent of available data. The results of this benchmark highlight a general problem with fixed-charge forcefields in the representation low dielectric environments such as those seen in binding cavities or biological membranes.

Keywords: molecular mechanics forcefields; forcefield parameterization; forcefield accuracy; forcefield validation; mass density; static dielectric constant; biomolecular simulation

INTRODUCTION

Recent advances in hardware and software for molec-14 ular dynamics simulation now permit routine access to atomistic simulations at the 100 ns timescale and beyond [1]. Leveraging these advances in combination with consumer GPU clusters, distributed computing, or custom hardware has brought microsecond and millisecond simulation timescales within reach of many laboratories. These dramatic advances in sampling, however, have revealed deficiencies in forcefields as a critical barrier to enabling truly 22 predictive simulations of physical properties of biomolecular systems.

Protein and water forcefields have been the subject of nu-₂₅ merous benchmarks [2–4] and enhancements [5–7], with key outcomes including the ability to fold fast-folding proteins [8-10], improved fidelity of water thermodynamic properties [11], and improved prediction of NMR observables. Although small molecule forcefields have also been the subject of benchmarks [12] and improvements [13], such work has typically focused on small perturbations to spe-32 cific functional groups. For example, a recent study found

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33 that modified hydroxyl nonbonded parameters led to im-34 proved prediction of static dielectric constants and hydra-35 tion free energies [13]. There are also outstanding questions of generalizability of these targeted perturbations; it is uncertain whether changes to the parameters for a spe-38 cific chemical moiety will be compatible with seemingly un-39 related improvements to other groups. Addressing these 40 questions requires establishing a community agreement on 41 shared benchmarks that can be easily replicated among 42 laboratories to test proposed forcefield enhancements and 43 expanded as the body of experimental data grows.

A key barrier to establishing reproducible and extensible 45 forcefield accuracy benchmarks is that many experimen-46 tal datasets are heterogeneous, paywalled, and unavail-47 able in machine-readable formats (although notable coun-48 terexamples exist, e.g. the RCSB [14], FreeSolv [15], and 49 the BMRB [16]). While this inconvenience is relatively mi-50 nor for benchmarking forcefield accuracy for a single tar-51 get system (e.g. water), it becomes prohibitive for stud-52 ies spanning the relevant chemical space. To ameliorate 53 problems of data archival, the NIST Thermodynamics Re-54 search Center (TRC) has developed a IUPAC standard XML-55 based format—ThermoML [17]—for storing physicochemical 56 measurements, uncertainties, and metadata. Experimen-57 tal researchers publishing measurements in several journals 58 (J. Chem. Eng. Data, J. Chem. Therm., Fluid Phase Equil., 59 Therm. Acta, and Int. J. Therm.) are guided through a data 60 archival process that involves sanity checks, conversion to a 61 standard machine-readable format, and archival at the TRC

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62 (http://trc.nist.gov/ThermoML.html).

Here, we examine the ThermoML archive as a potential source for providing the foundation for a reproducible, extensible accuracy benchmark of biomolecular forcefields. In particular, we concentrate on two important physical property measurements easily computable in many simulation codes—neat liquid density and static dielectric constant measurements—with the goal of developing a standard benchmark for validating these properties in fixedcharge forcefields of drug-like molecules and biopolymer residue analogues. These two properties provide sensitive tests of forcefield accuracy that are nonetheless straightforward to calculate. Using these data, we evaluate the generalized Amber small molecule forcefield (GAFF) [18, 19] with the AM1-BCC charge model [20, 21] and identify systematic biases to aid further forcefield refinement.

METHODS

ThermoML Archive retrieval and processing

A tarball archive snapshot of the ThermoML Archive was obtained from the the NIST TRC on 8 Apr. To explore the content of this archive, we 2015. created a Python (version 2.7.9) tool (ThermoPyL: https://github.com/choderalab/ThermoPyL) formats the XML content into a spreadsheet-like format accessible via the Pandas (version 0.15.2) library. First, we obtained the XML schema (http://media.iupac.org/ namespaces/ThermoML/ThermoML.xsd) defining the layout of the data. This schema was converted into a Python object via PyXB 1.2.4 (http://pyxb.sourceforge.net/). Finally, this schema was used to extract the data into Pandas [22] dataframes, and the successive filters data filters described in Section III A were applied.

Simulation

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Preparation

Simulation boxes containing 1000 molecules were constructed using PackMol version 14-225 [23, 24] wrapped in an automated tool. Packmol box volumes were chosen to accomodate twice the van der Waals volume of the enclosed atoms. AM1-BCC [20, 21, 25] charges were generated with the OpenEye Python Toolkit version 2015-2-3 [26], using the oequacpac.OEAssignPartialCharges module with the OECharges_AM1BCCSym option, which utilizes a conformational expansion procedure (using oeomega.OEOmega) prior to charge fitting to minimize artifacts from intramolecular contacts. then processed using antechamber (with parmchk2) and 155 109 inpcrd files, which were then read into OpenMM using 157 ducting ("tin-foil") boundary conditions [11, 33], with the to-

iii libraries gaff2xml 0.6.4 [28], OpenMM 6.3 [29], and MD-112 Traj 1.3 [30]. Exact commands to install various dependen-113 cies can be found in section A1.

2. Equilibration and production

Boxes were first minimized and equilibrated for 10^7 steps with an equilibration timestep of 0.4 fs and a collision rate of 5 ps $^{-1}$. Production simulations were performed with 118 OpenMM 6.2 [29] using a Langevin integrator (with collision $_{
m 119}$ rate 1 ps $^{-1}$) and a 1 fs timestep, as we found that timesteps of 2 fs timestep or greater led to a significant timestep dependence in computed equilibrium densities (Fig. 4).

Pressure control at 1 atm was achieved with a Monte Carlo barostat utilizing molecular scaling and automated step size adjustment during equilibration, with volume moves attempted every 25 steps. The particle mesh Ewald (PME) method [31] was used with a long-range cutoff of 0.95 nm and a long-range isotropic dispersion correction. PME grid and spline parameters were automatically selected using the default settings in OpenMM 6.3 for the CUDA platform.

Simulations were continued until automatic analysis $_{ exttt{131}}$ showed standard errors in densities were less than $2 imes 10^{-4}$ 132 g / mL. Automatic analysis was run every 1 ns of simulation time, and utilized the detectEquilibration method in the timeseries module of pymbar 2.1 [32] to automatically trim the initial portion of the simulation with strong farfrom-equilibrium behavior by maximizing the number of ef-137 fectively uncorrelated samples in the remainder of the production simulation as determined by autocorrelation analysis. Statistical errors were computed after subsampling the 140 data to produce effectively uncorrelated equilibrium samples by $\delta^2 \rho \approx {\rm var}(\rho)/N_{\rm eff}$, where ${\rm var}(\rho)$ is the sample vari- $_{
m 142}$ ance of the density and $N_{
m eff}$ is the number of effectively un-143 correlated samples. With this protocol, we found starting trajectory lengths of 15000 ± 12000 frames (250 fs each), discarded regions of 2200 ± 8700 , and statistical inefficiencies of 30 ± 31 (mean \pm standard deviation).

Instantaneous densities were stored every 250 fs, while trajectory snapshots were stored every 5 ps.

Data analysis and statistical error estimation

Trajectory analysis was performed using OpenMM 6.3 [29] and MDTraj 1.3 [30]. Mass density ρ was computed via the 152 relation.

$$\rho = \left\langle \frac{M}{V} \right\rangle,\tag{1}$$

 $_{153}$ where M is the total mass of all particles in the system and The 0E0mega selected conformer was 154 V is the instantaneous volume of the simulation box.

Static dielectric constants were calculated using the tleap in AmberTools 14 [27] to produce prmtop and 156 dipole fluctuation approach appropriate for PME with con- $_{100}$ the simtk.openmm.app module. Simulation code used $_{158}$ tal system box dipole μ computed from trajectory snapshots 159 using MDTraj 1.3 [30].

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$$\epsilon = 1 + \frac{4\pi}{3} \frac{\langle \mu \cdot \mu \rangle - \langle \mu \rangle \cdot \langle \mu \rangle}{\langle V \rangle k_B T} \tag{2}$$

Statistical uncertainties were computed by bootstrapping uncorrelated samples following discarding the automatically-determined initial portion of the simulation to equilibration, as described in Section IIB2. All reported 164 uncertainties represent an estimate of one standard deviation of the mean unless otherwise reported.

Code availability

Data analysis, intermediate data (everything but trajectories), and figure creation code for this work is available at 169 https://github.com/choderalab/LiquidBenchmark.

RESULTS

A. Extracting neat liquid measurements from the NIST TRC 171 ThermoML Archive

As described in Section II A, we retrieved a copy of the 205 ThermoML Archive and performed a number of sequential filtering steps to produce an ThermoML extract rele- 207 vant for benchmarking forcefields describing small organic 208 conditions—where a condition here indicates a (molecule, molecules. As our aim is to explore neat liquid data with 209 temperature, pressure) tuple—for which both density and functional groups relevant to biopolymers and drug-like 210 dielectric data are available. The functional groups present molecules, we applied the following ordered filters, starting with all data containing density or static dielectric con- 212 tion II A for further description of the software pipeline used. 181 stants:

1. The measured solution contains only a single component (e.g. no binary mixtures)

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- 2. The molecule contains only druglike elements (defined here as H, N, C, O, S, P, F, Cl, Br)
- 3. The molecule has < 10 heavy atoms
- 4. The measurement was performed in a biophysically relevant temperature range $(270 \le T \text{ [K]} \le 330)$
 - 5. The measurement was performed at ambient pressure $(100 \le P \text{ [kPA]} \le 102)$
- 6. Only measurements in liquid phase were retained
- 7. The temperature and pressure were rounded to nearby values (as described below), averaging all measurements within each group of like conditions
- 8. Only conditions (molecule, temperature, pressure) available were retained

	Number of measurements remaining	
Filter step	Mass density	Static dielectric
1. Single Component	136212	1651
2. Druglike Elements	125953	1651
3. Heavy Atoms	71595	1569
4. Temperature	38821	964
5. Pressure	14103	461
Liquid state	14033	461
7. Aggregate T, P	3592	432
8. Density+Dielectric	246	246

TABLE I: Successive filtration of the ThermoML Archive. A set of successive filters were applied to all measurements in the ThermoML Archive (accessed 13 Sep 2014) that contained either mass density or static dielectric constant measurements. Each column reports the number of measurements remaining after successive application of the corresponding filtration step.

198 The temperature and pressure rounding step was moti-199 vated by common data reporting variations; for example, 200 an experiment performed at the freezing temperature of 201 water and ambient pressure might be entered as either 101.325 kPA or 100 kPA, with a temperature of either 273 K 203 or 273.15 K. Therefore all pressures within the range [kPA] $(100 \le P \le 102)$ were rounded to exactly 1 atm (101.325) kPa). Temperatures were rounded to one decimal place in

The application of these filters (Table I) leaves 245 in the resulting dataset are summarized in Table II; see Sec-

Benchmarking GAFF/AM1-BCC against the ThermoML Archive

Mass density

Mass densities of bulk liquids have been widely used for parameterizing and testing forcefields, particularly the Lennard-Jones parameters representing dispersive and repulsive interactions [35, 36]. We therefore used the present ThermoML extract as a benchmark of the GAFF/AM1-BCC forcefield (Fig. 1).

Overall, the densities show reasonable accuracy, with a 223 root-mean square (RMS) relative error over all measure- $_{224}$ ments of 2.9 \pm 0.1%, especially encouraging given that this forcefield was not designed with the intention of modeling bulk liquid properties of organic molecules [18, 19] This 227 is reasonably consistent with previous studies reporting ²²⁸ agreement of 4% on a different benchmark set [12].

For a given compound, the errors are roughly similar at 230 different temperatures (Fig. 7). Overall, the predictions give for which both density and dielectric constants were 231 an average density of $.948 \pm 0.009 \ q/mL$, while the mea-232 surements give an average density of $.928 \pm 0.008 \ g/mL$.

Functional Group	Occurrences
1,2-aminoalcohol	4
1,2-diol	3
alkene	3
aromatic compound	1
carbonic acid diester	2
carboxylic acid ester	4
dialkyl ether	7
heterocyclic compound	3
ketone	3
lactone	1
primary alcohol	19
primary aliphatic amine (alkylamine)	2
primary amine	2
secondary alcohol	4
secondary aliphatic amine (dialkylamine)	2
secondary aliphatic/aromatic amine (alkylarylamine)	1
secondary amine	3
sulfone	1
sulfoxide	1
tertiary aliphatic amine (trialkylamine)	3
tertiary amine	3

TABLE II: Functional groups present in filtered dataset.

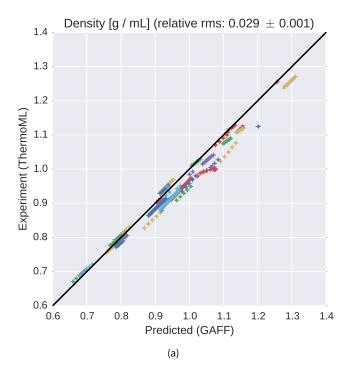
The filtered ThermoML dataset contained 245 distinct (molecule, temperature, pressure) conditions, spanning 45 unique compounds. The functional groups represented in these compounds (as identified by the program checkmol v0.5 [34]) is summarized here.

The largest density errors occur for 1,4-dioxane, 2,5,8-234 trioxanonane, 2-aminoethanol, dimethyl carbonate, formamide, and water. The absolute error on these poor predictions is on the order of $0.05\,g/mL$, which is substantially higher than the measurement error ($0.008\,g/mL$; see Fig. 5). We note that our benchmark uses a GAFF model for water, as our purpose is to test the AM1-BCC charges. For production simulations, however, it is advisable to use one of the parameterized water models.

2. Static dielectric constant

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As a measure of the dielectric response, the static dielectric constant of neat liquids provides a critical benchmark of the accuracy electrostatic treatment in forcefield models. We therefore compare simulations against the measurements in our ThermoML extract (Fig. 2). Overall, we find the dielectric constants to be qualitatively reasonable, but with clear deviations from experiment particularly for nonpolar liquids. This is not surprising given the complete neglect of electronic polarization which will be the dominant contribution for such liquids. In particular, GAFF/AM1-BCC systematically underestimates the dielectric constants for nonpolar liquids, with the predictions of $\epsilon \approx 1.0 \pm 0.05$ being substantially smaller than the measured $\epsilon \approx 2$. Because this deviation likely stems from the lack of an explicit treatment of electronic polarization, we used a simple empirical polar-



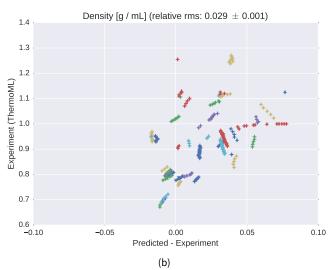


FIG. 1: Comparison of liquid densities between experiment and simulation. (a). Liquid density measurements extracted from ThermoML are compared against densities predicted using the GAFF / AM1-BCC small molecule fixed-charge forcefield. Color groupings represent identical chemical species, although the color map repeats itself due to the large (45) number of unique compounds. Plots of density versus temperature grouped by chemical species are available in Fig. 7. Simulation error bars represent one standard error of the mean, with the number of effective (uncorrelated) samples estimated using pymbar. Experimental error bars indicate the standard deviation between independently reported measurements, when available, or author-reported standard deviations in ThermoML entries; for some measurements, neither uncertainty estimate is available. See Fig. 5 for further discussion of error. (b). The same plot, but with the residual (predicted minus experiment) on the x axis. Note that the error bars are all smaller than the symbols.

258 ization model that computes the molecular electronic polarizability α a sum of elemental atomic polarizability contributions [37].

From the computed molecular electronic polarizability α , an additive correction to the simulation-derived static dielectric constant accounting for the missing electronic polarizability can be computed [11]

$$\Delta\epsilon = 4\pi N \frac{\alpha}{\langle V \rangle} \tag{3}$$

265 A similar polarization correction was used in the development of the TIP4P-Ew water model, where it had a minor effect [11] because almost all the high static dielectric constant for water comes from the configurational response of its strong dipole. However, the missing polarizability is a dominant contribution to the static dielectric constant of nonpolar organic molecules; in the case of water, the empirical atomic polarizability model predicts a dielectric correction of 0.52, while 0.79 was used for the TIP4P-Ew model. Averaging all liquids in the present work leads to polarizability corrections to the static dielectric of 0.74 ± 0.08 .

DISCUSSION

Mass densities

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Our simulations have indicated the presence of systematic densities biases with magnitudes larger than the measurement error. Correcting these errors may be a lowhanging fruit for future forcefield refinements. As an example of the feasibility of improved accuracy in densities, a recent three-point water model was able to recapitulate water density with errors of less than 0.005 g / mL over temperature range [280 K, 320 K] [40]. This improved accuracy in density prediction was obtained alongside accurate predictions of other experimental observables, including static dielectric constant. We suspect that such accuracy might be obtainable for GAFF-like forcefields across some portion of chemical space. A key challenge for the field is to demarcate the fundamental limit of fixed-charge forcefields for predicting orthogonal classes of experimental observables. For example, is it possible to achieve a relative density error of 306 constant, arises from the almost-instantaneous electronic 10^{-4} without sacrificing accuracy of other properties such 307 polarization in response to the external electric field: this as enthalpies? In our opinion, the best way to answer such 308 contributes a small component, generally around $\epsilon=2$, questions is to systematically build forcefields with the goal 309 which can be dominant for non-polar liquids but is comof predicting various properties to within their known exper- 310 pletely neglected by the non-polarizable forcefields in comimental uncertainties, similar to what has been done for water [11, 40].

Dielectric constants in forcefield parameterization

is that, for forcefield purposes, it consists of two very differ- 318 dielectric. ent components, distinguished by the dependence on the 319 fixed charges of the forcefield and dynamic motion of the 320 of papers fitting dielectric constants during forcefield pa-

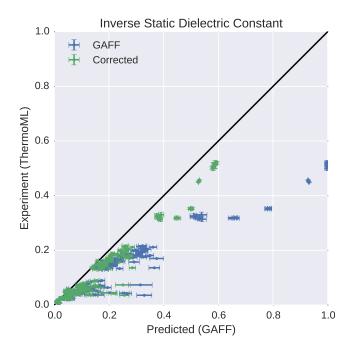


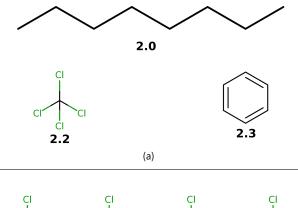
FIG. 2: Measured (ThermoML) versus predicted (GAFF / AM1-BCC) inverse static dielectrics (a). Simulation error bars represent one standard error of the mean estimated via circular block averaging [38] with block sizes automatically selected to maximize the error [39].

Experimental error bars indicate the larger of standard deviation between independently reported measurements and the authors reported standard deviations; for some measurements, neither uncertainty estimate is available. See Fig. 5 for further discussion of error. Plots of dielectric constant versus temperature grouped by chemical species are available in Fig. 8. The inverse dielectric constant ϵ^{-1} is plotted instead of ϵ because ϵ^{-1} is directly proportional to the Coulomb interaction energy between point charges embedded in a dielectric material [e.g.

 $U(r) \propto q_1 q_2/r \propto \epsilon^{-1}$]. For nonpolar liquids, it is clear that the forcefield predicts electrostatic interactions that are substantially biased by missing polarizability.

mon use for biomolecular simulations. The other component arises from the dynamical response of the molecule, through nuclear motion, to allow its various molecular mul-314 tipoles to respond to the external electric field: for polar liguids such as water, this contributes the majority of the dielectric constant. Thus for polar liquids, we expect the pa-A key feature of the static dielectric constant for a liquid are rameterized atomic charges to play a major role in the static

Recent forcefield development has seen a resurgence molecule. One component, the high-frequency dielectric 321 rameterization [13, 40]. However, a number of authors



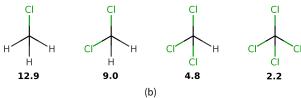


FIG. 3: Typical experimental static dielectric constants of some nonpolar compounds. (a). Measured static dielectric constants of various nonpolar or symmetric molecules [43, 44]. Fixed-charge forcefields give $\epsilon \approx 1$ for each species; for example, we calculated $\epsilon = 1.0030 \pm 0.0002$ for octane. (b). A congeneric series of chloro-substituted methanes have static dielectric constants between 2 and 13. Reported dielectric constants are at near-ambient temperatures.

322 have pointed out potential challenges in constructing selfconsistent fixed-charge forcefields [41, 42].

Interestingly, recent work by Dill and coworkers [41] observed that, for CCl₄, reasonable choices of point charges are incapable of recapitulating the observed dielectric of = 2.2, instead producing dielectric constants in the range of $1.0 \le \epsilon \le 1.05$. This behavior is quite general: fixed point charge forcefields will predict $\epsilon \approx 1$ for many nonpolar or symmetric molecules, but the measured dielectric constants are instead $\epsilon \approx 2$ (Fig. 3). While this behavior is well-known and results from missing physics of polarizabilwhich we discuss below.

346 mismatches, where symmetric molecules (e.g. benzene and 397 electric media.

CCl₄) have qualitatively different properties than closely related asymmetric molecules (e.g. toluene and CHCl₃).

How important is this effect? We expect it to be important wherever we encounter the transfer of a polar molecule (such as a peptide, native ligand, or a pharmaceutical small molecule) from a polar environment (such as the cytosol, interstitial fluid, or blood) into a non-polar environment (such as a biological membrane or non-polar binding site of an enzyme or receptor). Thus we expect this to be implicated in biological processes ranging from ligand binding to absorption and distribution within the body. To understand this conceptually, consider the transfer of a polar smallmolecule transfer from the non-polar interior of a lipid bilayer to the aqueous and hence very polar cytosol. As a possible real-world example, we imagine that the missing atomic polarizability could be important in accurate transfer free energies involving low-dielectric solvents, such as the small-molecule transfer free energy from octanol or cyclohexane to water. The Onsager model for solvation of a dipole μ of radius a gives us a way to estimate the magnitude of error introduced by making an error $\Delta \epsilon$ the static dielectric constant of a solvent. The free energy of dipole 369 solvation is given by this model as

$$\Delta G = -\frac{\mu^2}{a^3} \frac{\epsilon - 1}{2\epsilon + 1} \tag{4}$$

such that, for an error of $\Delta\epsilon$ departing from the true static $_{371}$ dielectric constant ϵ , we find the error in solvation is

$$\Delta \Delta G = -\frac{\mu^2}{a^3} \left[\frac{(\epsilon + \Delta \epsilon) - 1}{2(\epsilon + \Delta \epsilon) + 1} - \frac{\epsilon - 1}{2\epsilon + 1} \right]$$
 (5)

 $_{\mbox{\tiny 372}}$ For example, the solvation of water (a=1.93 Å, $\mu=2.2$ D) 373 in a low dielectric medium such as tetrachloromethane or $_{ ext{374}}$ benzene ($\epsilon\sim 2.2$, but $\Delta\epsilon=-1.2$) gives an error of $\Delta\Delta G\sim$ -2 kcal/mol.

As another example, consider the transfer of small drug-377 like molecules from a nonpolar solvent (such as cyclohexane) to water, a property often measured to indicate the ex-379 pected degree of lipophilicity of a compound. To estimate 380 the magnitude of error expected, for each molecule in the latest (Feb. 20) FreeSolv database [15, 45], we estimated the 382 expected error in computed transfer free energies should 383 GAFF/AM1-BCC be used to model the nonpolar solvent cycloity, we suspect it may have several profound consequences, 384 hexane using the Onsager model (Eq. 5). We used took the $_{
m 385}$ cavity radius a to be the half the maximum interatomic dis-Suppose, for example, that one attempts to fit force- $_{^{386}}$ tance and calculated $\mu=\sum_i q_i r_i$ using the provided mol2 field parameters to match the static dielectric constants of 387 coordinates and AM1-BCC charges. This calculation predicts $\mathrm{CCl_4}$, $\mathrm{CHCl_3}$, $\mathrm{CH_2Cl_2}$, and $\mathrm{CH_3Cl}$. In moving from the 388 a mean error of -0.91 ± 0.07 kcal/mol for the 643 molecules tetrahedrally-symmetric CCl₄ to the asymmetric CHCl₃, 389 (where the standard error is computed from bootstrapping it suddenly becomes possible to achieve the observed di- 390 over FreeSolv compound measurements), suggesting that electric constant of 4.8 by an appropriate choice of point 391 the missing atomic polarizabilty unrepresentable by fixed charges. However, the model for $CHCl_3$ uses fixed point $_{392}$ point charge forcefields could contribute substantially to ercharges to account for *both* the permanent dipole moment 393 rors in predicted transfer and solvation properties of drugand the electronic polarizability, whereas the CCl₄ model 394 like molecules. We conjecture that this missing physics will contains no treatment of polarizability. We hypothesize that 395 be important in the upcoming (2015) SAMPL challenge [46], 345 this inconsistency in parameterization may lead to strange 396 which will examine transfer free energies in several low di-

Given their ease of measurement and direct connection to 450 and particularly static dielectric constants. Element-based dielectric media is sufficiently alarming to motivate fur- 456 membranes. ther study of polarizable forcefields. In particular, continuum methods [47-49], point dipole methods [50, 51], and Drude methods [52, 53] have been maturing rapidly. Finding 457 the optimal balance of accuracy and performance remains an open question; however, the use of experimentallyparameterized direct polarization methods [54] may provide polarizability physics at a cost not much greater than fixed charge forcefields.

ThermoML as a data source

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The present work has focused on the neat liquid density and dielectric measurements present in the ThermoML Archive [17, 55, 56] as a target for molecular dynamics forcefield validation. While liquid mass densities and static difield work, several aspects of ThermoML make it a unique 471 Institute. resource for the forcefield community. First, the aggregation, support, and dissemination of ThermoML datasets through the ThermoML Archive is supported by NIST, whose 472 mission makes these tasks a long-term priority. Second, the ThermoML Archive is actively growing, through partner- 473 dreds of thousands of measurements. Numerous additional 479 well. physical properties contained in ThermoML—including activity coefficients, diffusion constants, boiling point temperatures, critical pressures and densities, coefficients of expansion, speed of sound measurements, viscosities, excess molar enthalpies, heat capacities, and volumes—for neat phases and mixtures represent a rich dataset of high utility for forcefield validation and parameterization.

CONCLUSIONS

High quality, machine-readable datasets of physico-440 chemical measurements will be required for the construction of next-generation small molecule forcefields. Here we have discussed the NIST/TRC ThermoML archive as a growing source of physicochemical measurements that may be useful for the forcefield community. From the NIST/TRC ThermoML archive, we selected a dataset of 245 ambient, neat liquid systems for which both densities and static dielectric constants are available. Using this dataset, we benchmarked GAFF/AM1-BCC, one of the most popular small 449 molecule forcefields. We find systematic biases in densities

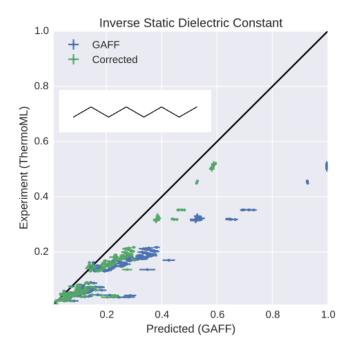
long-range electrostatic interactions, static dielectric con- 451 empirical polarizabilty models are able to account for much stants have high potential utility as primary data for force- 452 of the systematic differences between GAFF/AM1-BCC and field parameterization efforts. Although this will require the 453 experiment. Non-polarizable forcefields may show unacuse of forcefields with explicit treatment of atomic polar- 454 ceptable biases when predicting transfer and binding propizability, the inconsistency of fixed-charge models in low- 455 erties of non-polar environments such as binding cavities or

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Patrick B. Grinaway (MSKCC), Vijay S. Pande (Stanford University), Lee-Ping Wang (Stanford Univer-460 sity), Peter Eastman (Stanford University), Robert McGibbon (Stanford University), Jason Swails (Rutgers University), David L. Mobley (University of California, Irvine), Michael R. 463 Shirts (University of Virginia), and members of Chodera lab 464 for helpful discussions. Support for JMB was provided by the Tri-Institutional Training Program in Computational Biology and Medicine (via NIH training grant 1T32GM083937). KAB was supported in part by Starr Foundation grant 18-A8-058. JDC and KAB acknowledge partial support from NIH grant P30 CA008748. KAB, JLB, ASR, and JDC acknowledge electric constants have already been widely used in force- 470 the generous support of this research by the Sloan Kettering

DISCLAIMERS

This contribution of the National Institute of Standards ships with several journals, and new experimental measure- 474 and Technology (NIST) is not subject to copyright in the ments published in these journals are critically examined 475 United States. Products or companies named here are cited by the TRC and included in the archive. Finally, the files 476 only in the interest of complete technical description, and in the ThermoML Archive are portable and machine read- 477 neither constitute nor imply endorsement by NIST or by the able via a formal XML schema, allowing facile access to hun- 478 U.S. government. Other products may be found to serve as VIII. TOC FIGURE



Appendix A: Appendices

Figure: Timestep-dependence of density

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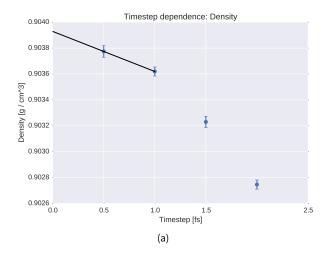
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- Figure: Error analysis (density) for ThermoML dataset
- Figure: Error analysis (static dielectric constant) for ThermoML dataset
 - Figure: Temperature Dependence: Density
 - Figure: Temperature Dependence: Static Dielectric Constant
 - Commands to install dependencies



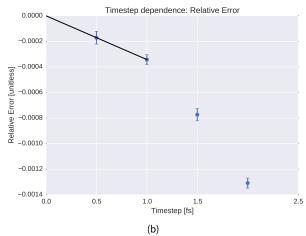
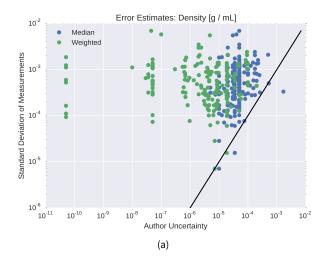


FIG. 4: Dependence of computed density on simulation timestep. To probe the systematic error from finite time-step integration, we examined the timestep dependence of butyl acrylate density. (a). The density is shown for several choices of timestep. (b). The relative error, as compared to the reference value, is shown for several choices of timestep. Error bars represent stand errors of the mean, with the number of effective samples estimated using pymbar's statistical inefficiency routine [32]. The reference value is estimated by linear extrapolation to 0 fs using the 0.5 fs and 1.0 fs data points; the linear extrapolation is shown as black lines. We find a 2 fs timestep leads to systematic biases in the density on the order of 0.13%, while 1 fs reduces the systematic bias to approximately 0.08%—we therefore selected a 1 fs timestep for the present work, where we aimed to achieve

three digits of accuracy in density predictions.



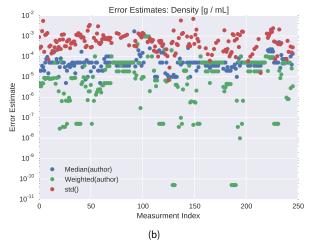
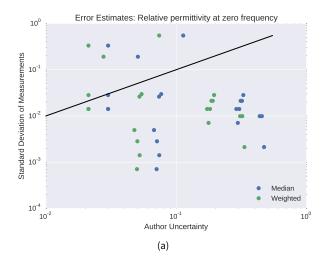


FIG. 5: Assessment of experimental error: Density To assess the experimental error in our ThermoML extract, we compared three difference estimates of uncertainty. In the first approach (Weighted), we computed the standard deviation of the optimally weighted average of the measurements, using the uncertainties reported by authors ($\sigma_{Weighted} = [\sum_k \sigma_k^{-2}]^{-0.5}$). This uncertainty estimator places the highest weights on measurements with small uncertainties and is therefore easily dominated by small outliers and uncertainty under-reporting. In the second approach (Median), we estimated the median of the uncertainties reported by authors; this statistic should be robust to small and large outliers of author-reported uncertainties. In the third approach (Std), we calculated at the standard deviation of independent measurements reported in the ThermoML extract, completely avoiding the author-reported uncertainties. Plot (a) compares the three uncertainty estimates. We see that author-reported uncertainties appear to be substantially smaller than the scatter between the observed measurements. A simple psychological explanation might be that because density measurements are more routine, the authors simply report the accuracy limit of their hardware (e.g. 0.0001 g / mL for a Mettler Toledo DM40 [57]). However, this hardware limit is not achieved due to inconsistencies in sample preparation; see Appendix in Ref. [58]. Panel (b) shows the same information as (a) but as a function of the measurement index, rather than as a scatter plot—because not all measurements have author-supplied uncertainties, panel (c) contains slightly more data points than (a, b).



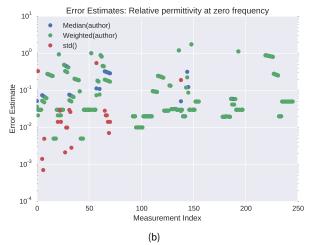


FIG. 6: Assessment of experimental error: Static **Dielectric Constant** To assess the experimental error in our ThermoML extract, we compared three difference estimates of uncertainty. In the first approach (Weighted), we computed the standard deviation of the optimally weighted average of the measurements, using the uncertainties reported by authors ($\sigma_{Weighted} = [\sum_k \sigma_k^{-2}]^{-0.5}$). This uncertainty estimator places the highest weights on measurements with small uncertainties and is therefore easily dominated by small outliers and uncertainty under-reporting. In the second approach (Median), we estimated the median of the uncertainties reported by authors; this statistic should be robust to small and large outliers of author-reported uncertainties. In the third approach (Std), we calculated at the standard deviation of independent measurements reported in the ThermoML extract, completely avoiding the author-reported uncertainties. Plot (a) compares the three uncertainty estimates. Unlike the case of densities, author-reported uncertainties appear to be somewhat larger than the scatter between the observed measurements. Panel (b) shows the same information as (a) but as a function of the measurement index, rather than as a scatter plot—because not all measurements have author-supplied uncertainties, panel (c) contains slightly more data points than (a, b).

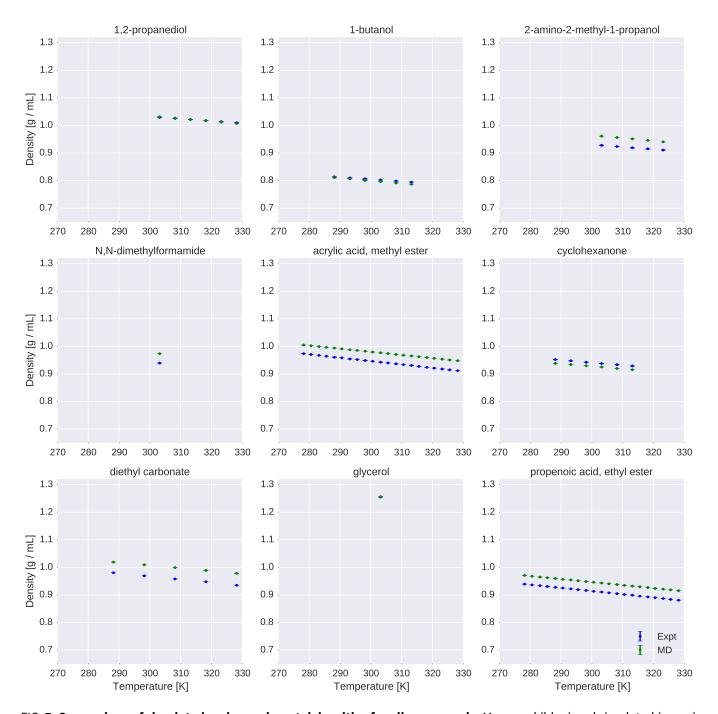


FIG. 7: **Comparison of simulated and experimental densities for all compounds.** Measured (blue) and simulated (green) densities are shown in units of g / mL.

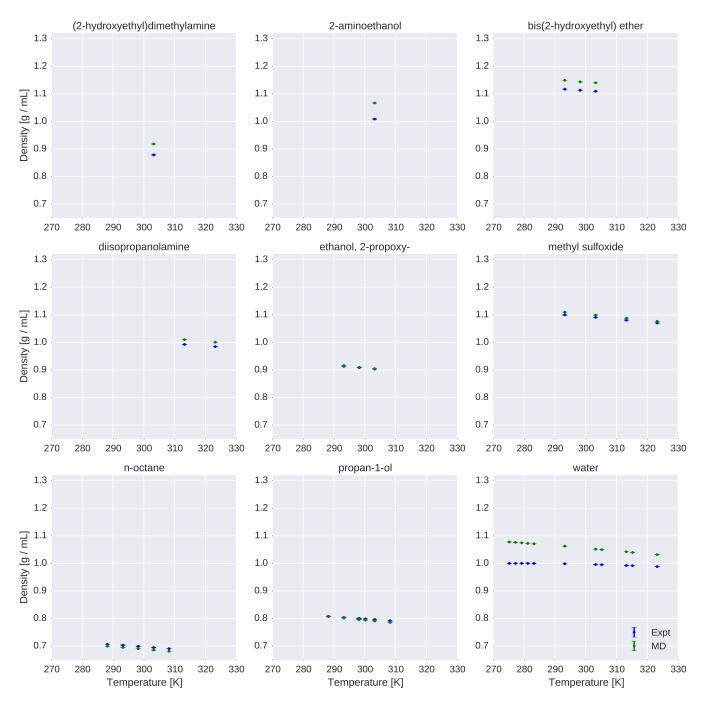


FIG. 7: **Comparison of simulated and experimental densities for all compounds.** Measured (blue) and simulated (green) densities are shown in units of g / mL.

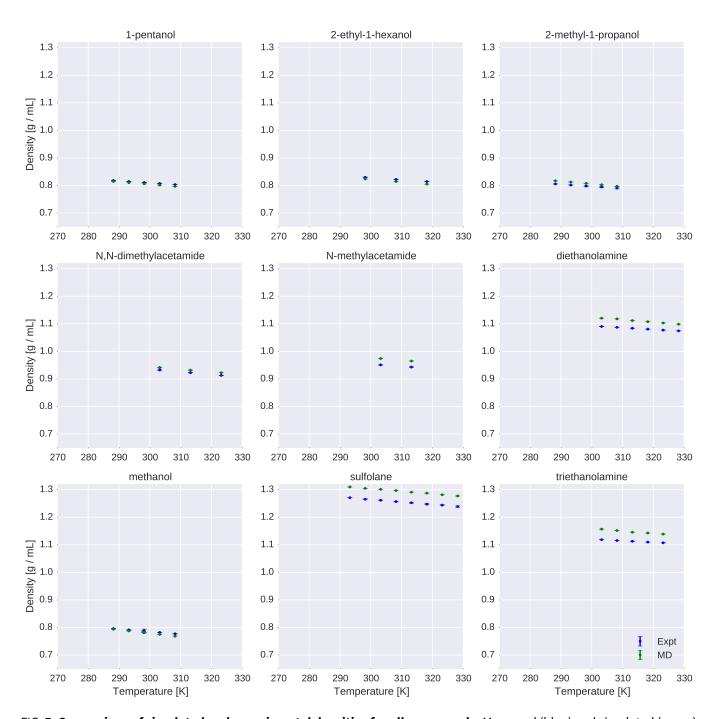


FIG. 7: **Comparison of simulated and experimental densities for all compounds.** Measured (blue) and simulated (green) densities are shown in units of g / mL.

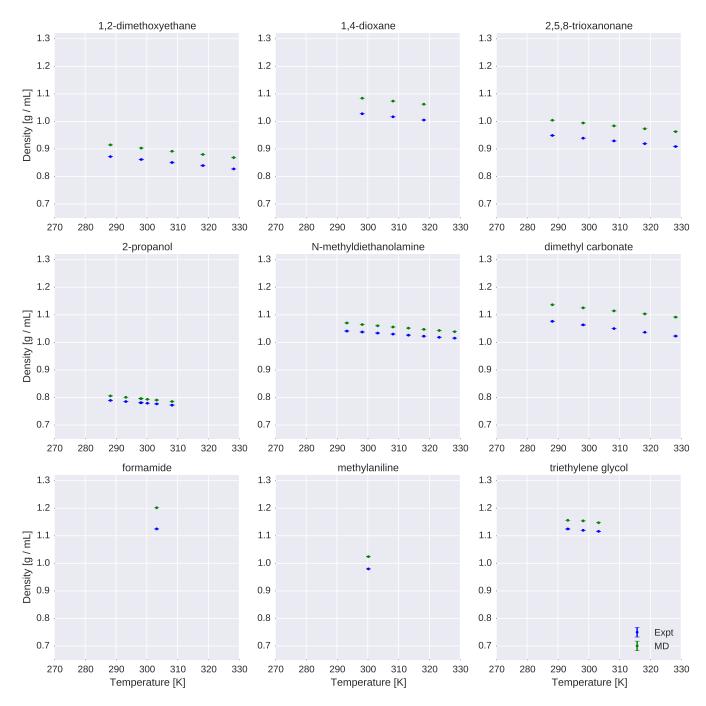


FIG. 7: **Comparison of simulated and experimental densities for all compounds.** Measured (blue) and simulated (green) densities are shown in units of g / mL.

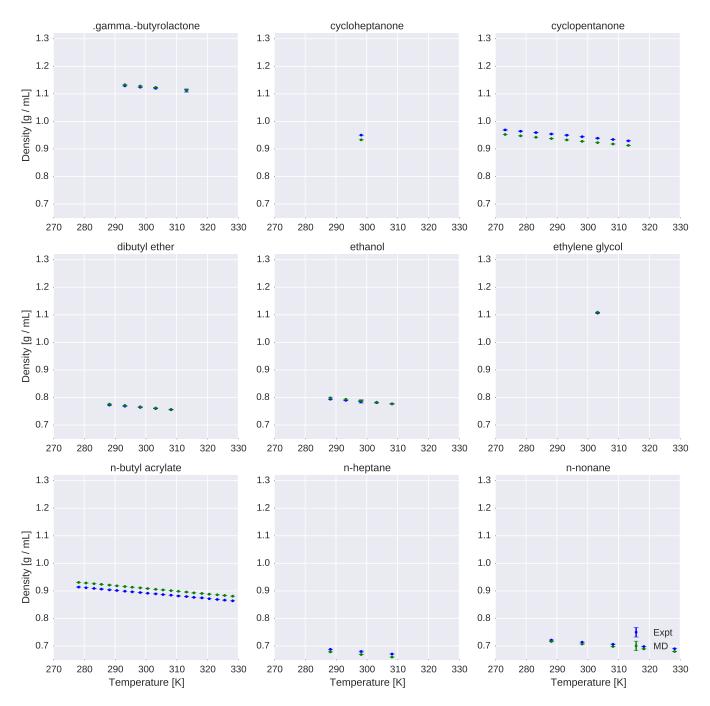


FIG. 7: **Comparison of simulated and experimental densities for all compounds.** Measured (blue) and simulated (green) densities are shown in units of g / mL.

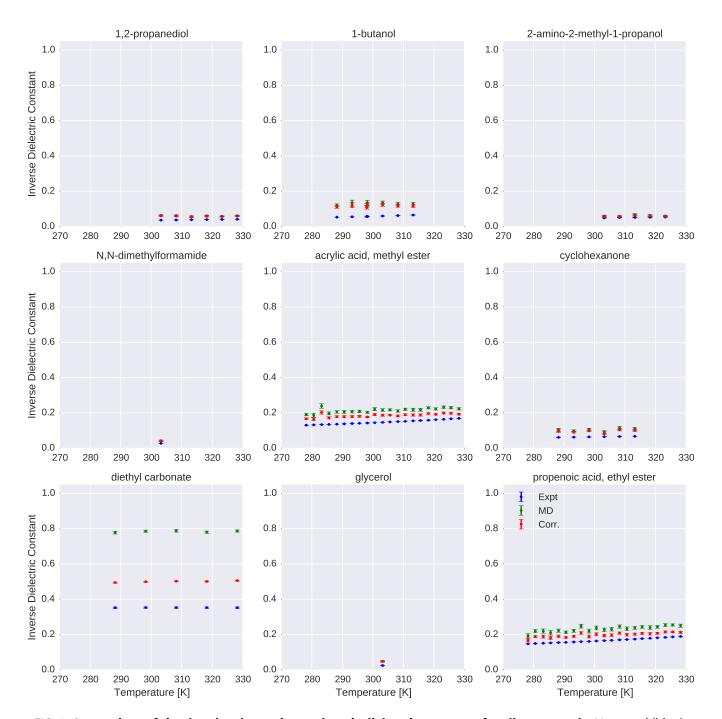


FIG. 8: **Comparison of simulated and experimental static dielectric constants for all compounds.** Measured (blue), simulated (green), and polarizability-corrected simulated (red) static dielectric constants are shown for all compounds.

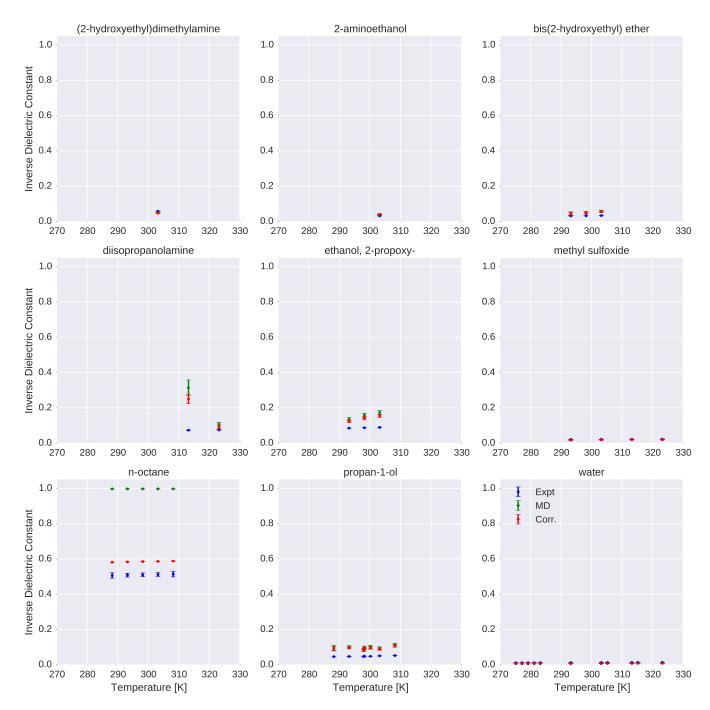


FIG. 8: **Comparison of simulated and experimental static dielectric constants for all compounds.** Measured (blue), simulated (green), and polarizability-corrected simulated (red) static dielectric constants are shown for all compounds.

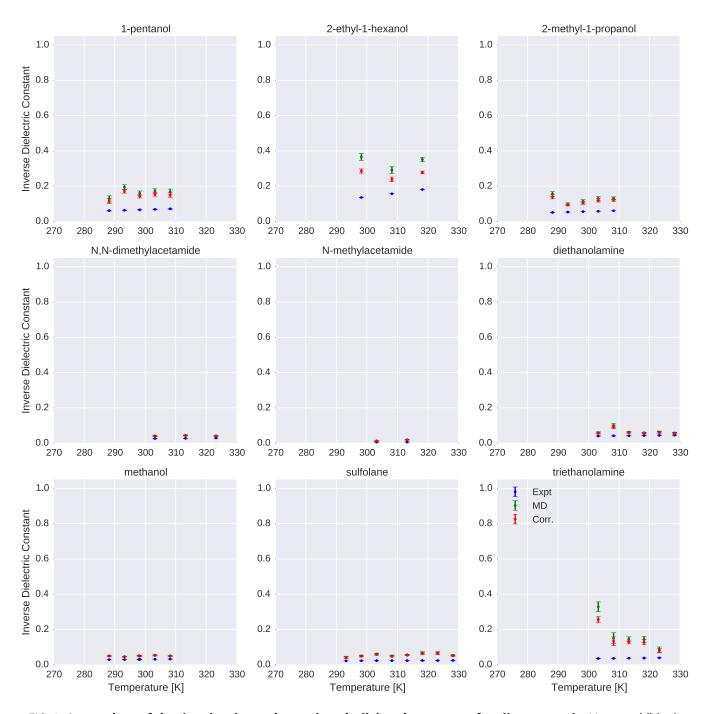


FIG. 8: **Comparison of simulated and experimental static dielectric constants for all compounds.** Measured (blue), simulated (green), and polarizability-corrected simulated (red) static dielectric constants are shown for all compounds.

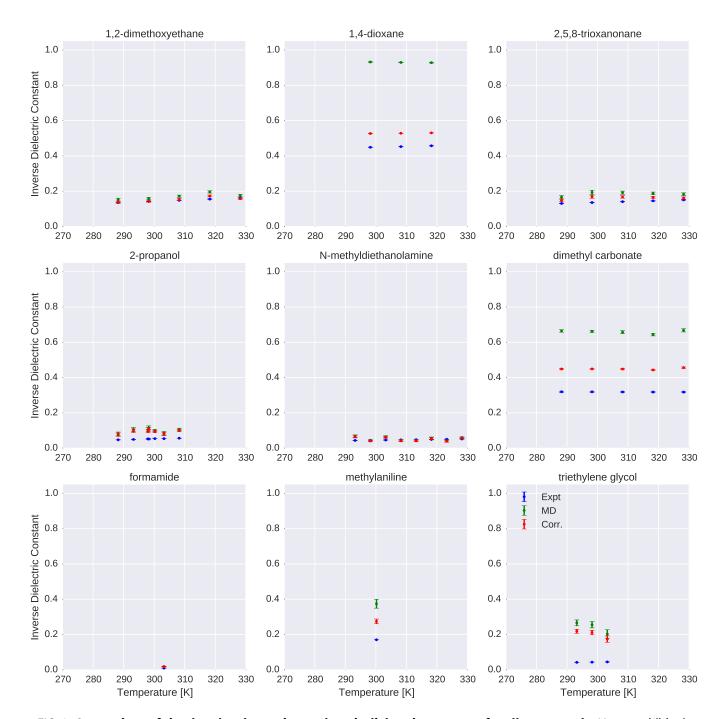


FIG. 8: **Comparison of simulated and experimental static dielectric constants for all compounds.** Measured (blue), simulated (green), and polarizability-corrected simulated (red) static dielectric constants are shown for all compounds.

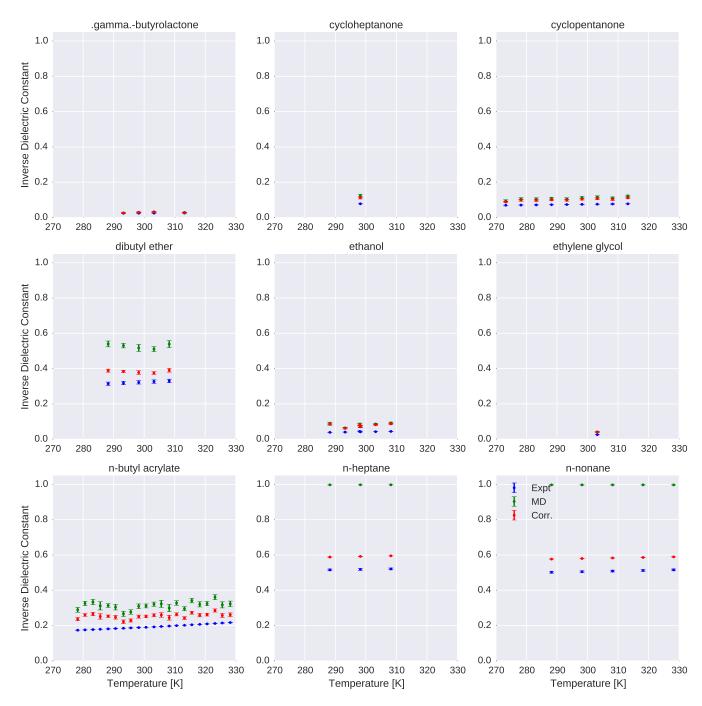


FIG. 8: **Comparison of simulated and experimental static dielectric constants for all compounds.** Measured (blue), simulated (green), and polarizability-corrected simulated (red) static dielectric constants are shown for all compounds.

1. Dependency Installation

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The following shell commands can be used to install the necessary prerequisites via the conda package manager for Python:

494 Python:

495 $ conda config — add channels http://conda.binstar.org/omnia
496 $ conda install "gaff2xml==0.6.4" "pymbar==2.1" "mdtraj==1.3" "openmm==6.3" packmol
497 %

498 Note that this command installs the exact versions used
499 in the present study. However, for authors interested in ex-
500 tending the present work, we suggust using the most up-to-
501 date versions available instead, which involves replace the
502 equality symbols == with >=.
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