Conformational constraints from NMR experiments

Because of a quantum-mechanical property named spin, the nucleus and the electrons of an atom can be regarded as charged particles in motion.

Therefore nucleus and electrons exhibit a magnetic dipole moment.



Magnetic dipoles align to external magnetic fields, like the compass needle points towards the Earth magnetic North

Nucleons, i.e. protons and neutrons, possess a spin that, like a rotation, entails a spin angular momentum, a quantum mechanical property that assumes only discrete values. The sum of the spin angular momenta of the individual nucleons builds up the overall nuclear spin angular momentum, that is still quantized.

The overall spin angular momentum of a nucleus, the currents of the protons and the intrinsic magnetism of the nucleus constituents are the basis of the nuclear magnetism that means a quantized nuclear magnetic moment.

A nuclear magnetic dipole in a magnetic field behaves like a gyroscope with an angular momentum that rotates around its axis and around the gravitational field axis (*precession motion*).

A gyroscope would fall down if left with its axis perpendicular to the ground.



By imparting a rotation, i.e. an angular momentum, under steady conditions (neglecting energy loss) the gyroscope *precesses* around the gravitational field direction, at a *precession* frequency (ω_p) that depends on the angular momentum (J):

$$\omega_p = \frac{mgr}{J}$$



A nuclear magnetic dipole moment precesses around an external magnetic field axis according to:

$$\omega = -\gamma \cdot B$$
 Larmor Equation
 $\omega = 2\pi\nu \implies \nu = \frac{\gamma}{2\pi}B$

at an angular frequency, ω , referred to as *Larmor frequency*.



$$\omega = -\gamma \cdot \mathbf{B} \quad \text{Larmor Equation}$$
$$\omega = 2\pi\nu \quad \Rightarrow \quad \nu = \frac{\gamma}{2\pi}B$$

Movie: Brian Hargreaves



$$\omega = -\gamma \cdot B$$
 Larmor Equation
 $\omega = 2\pi\nu \implies \nu = \frac{\gamma}{2\pi}B$

The proportionality constant γ is named *gyromagnetic ratio* and represents the ratio between the magnetic moment and the angular momentum:





The moment of a force has the same units as an energy, but is a vector.

The nuclear spin angular momentum can adopt only discrete values, i.e. it is quantized. Hence, also the nuclear magnetic dipole moment will be quantized.



$$J = \hbar \Big[I \Big(I + 1 \Big) \Big]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad J_z = \hbar m_I \quad m_I = I, I - 1, I - 2, \dots - I \quad \text{(totally (2I+1) values)}$$
$$\mu = \gamma \cdot J = \gamma \hbar \Big[I \Big(I + 1 \Big) \Big]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad \mu_z = \gamma \cdot J_z = \gamma \hbar m_I$$

Nuclei with an odd mass number, have half-integer nuclear spin (¹H, ⁷Li, ²⁷Al I = 1/2, 3/2 5/2).

Nuclei with even mass number and even atomic number, have zero nuclear spin $({}^{12}C, {}^{16}O, {}^{32}S)$.

Nuclei with even mass number and odd atomic number, have integer nuclear spin (²H, ¹⁴N, I = 1).

$$v = \frac{\gamma}{2\pi}B$$
 $v = \frac{|\omega|}{2\pi}$ $\omega = -\gamma \cdot B$ Larmor Equation

Larmor equation dictates the condition to observe nuclear magnetic resonance, i.e. applying the energy that is required to change the precession mode of the nuclear magnetization vector around the direction of a static magnetic field. For I = 1/2 there is a single possible transition $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ or *vice versa*.



Larmor equation highlights the dependence of the resonance frequency on the magnetic field and the gyromagnetic ratio, a constant that is specific for every nucleus. For instance, at B = 2.3 T, the NMR signal from ¹H is observed at 100 MHz ($\gamma = 26.75 \cdot 10^7$ rad T⁻¹ s⁻¹), from ¹³C at 25.145 MHz ($\gamma = 6.73 \cdot 10^7$ rad T⁻¹ s⁻¹), from ¹⁵N at 10.14 MHz ($\gamma = -2.71 \cdot 10^7$ rad T⁻¹ s⁻¹), from ³¹P at 40.48MHz ($\gamma = 10.84 \cdot 10^7$ rad T⁻¹ s⁻¹).



FIGURE 7. Equilibrium state with similarily populated α - and β -states (left), uncorrelated phases (middle) and no net phase coherence (right).

NMR deals with ensembles of nuclear magnetic moments, the nuclear spins, that sum up into a *macroscopic magnetization*.



vector of the x,y component.

To observe a NMR signal, we must introduce some preferential distribution of the individual magnetization vectors, i.e. a *spin coherence*, that gives rise to a non-zero transverse magnetization.

Only the transverse magnetization components are observed by NMR.

The magnetic field B_1 associated to a radiofrequency oscillating at the Larmor frequency polarizes the macroscopic magnetization onto the x-y plane.



Laboratory frame



Rotating frame

Movie: Brian Hargreaves



By the end of the radiofrequency pulse, in the absence of B_1 , the tranverse magnetization starts to precess again around B_0 .



FIGURE 10. Spins precessing at different velocities

During precession, the transverse magnetization will split into components, if any, due to different Larmor frequencies.



Movie: Brian Hargreaves



$$I(t) \xrightarrow{FT} I(v)$$



The simplest 2D experiment is:

$$90^{\circ}_{x} - t_{1} - 90^{\circ}_{y} - t_{2}$$







The tranverse magnetization precesses but also goes back to the initial equilibrium position, along z, through relaxation





FID = Free Induction Decay



Laboratory frame

Movie: Brian Hargreaves



Relaxation = equilibrium recovery

Loss of *x*-*y* coherence = tranverse, T_2 Recovery of *z* magnetization = longitudinal, T_1

Movie: Brian Hargreaves

The FID damping constant, T_2 (transverse relaxation time), can be directly interpreted as the time nesessary for a signal to lose 63% of the original intensity, and determines the signal linewidth at half-height::

$$\Delta v_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{\pi T_2}$$



FIGURE 21. Slowly decaying FIDs lead to narrow lines (left), rapidly decaying ones to broad lines (right).

NMR signals are observed over restricted spectral windows (SW) - from hundreds of Hz up to tens of kHz - around the fundamental frequency of a nucleus.

At B = 1 T, SW = 500 Hz, the low resolution ¹H NMR spectrum of ethanol shows three signals, from the three different types of hydrogens



Each signal exhibits an amplitude that is proportional to the concentration of the parent nuclei. Hence, for the ethanol molecule, the integral ratios of the signals will be the stoichiometric coefficients of the basic formula.





The ethanol hydrogen nuclei resonate at *different* frequencies in *different* chemical environment - their resonance frequencies show a *chemical shift*.

In general, chemical shifts are observed in any molecule and for any type of nucleus.



The chemical shift depends on the actual external magnetic field shielding that a nucleus experiences due to the local environment.

The fundamental resonance condition is recast to include the screening term that changes the resonance frequency or chemical shift

$$v_i = \left| \frac{\gamma}{2\pi} \right| B_0 \left(1 - \sigma_i \right)$$

where σ_i is the shield constant of nucleus *i*.

The shield constant collects the effect of several contributions such as the diamagnetic (dia), the paramagnetic (para), the chemical shift anisotropy (csa), the ring currents (rc), the electric field (ef), the solvent (solv):

$$\sigma = \sigma_{dia} + \sigma_{para} + \sigma_{csa} + \sigma_{rc} + \sigma_{ef} + \sigma_{solv}$$

Chemical shifts (δ) are measured in parts per million, ppm, with respect to a reference compound frequency that sets the scale origin ($\delta = 0$ ppm), according to:

f = absolute signal frequency f_0 = absolute reference frequency

$$\delta = \frac{f - f_0}{f_0} \times 10^6 \text{ ppm}$$



Chemical shifts are very important to interpret the NMR spectra of biopolymers such as proteins and oligonucleotides.



¹H NMR spectrum of a folded protein



For any aminoacid (R = side chain), it is possible to establish limiting δ values.

TABLE 2.3. Random Coil ¹H Chemical Shifts for the 20 Common Amino Acid Residues⁴

Residue	1431	OLH	58	Others
Gly	8.39	3,97	100 2004	
Ala	8,25	4.35	1.39	
Val	8.44	4,18	2.13	YCH3 0.97, 0.94
Ile	8.19	4.23	1.90	YCH2 1,48, 1,19
				YCH3 0.95
				6CH 3 0.89
Leu	8,42	4.38	1.65,1.65	γE 1.64
				6CH3 0.94, 0.90
Pro b		4.44	2,28,2.02	yCH2 2.03, 2.03
				δCH2 3.68, 3.65
Eer	8,38	4.50	3.88,3.88	
The	8.24	4.35	4.22	YCH1 1,23
Asp	8,41	4.76	2,84,2.75	
Glu	8.37	4.29	2.09,1.97	YCH2 2.31, 2.20
Lys	8,41	4.36	1.85,1.76	YCH2 1.45, 1.45
				\$CH _Z 1.70, 1.70
				«CH2 3.02, 3.02
				4383 7.52
Arg	8.27	4.38	1.89,1.79	YCH2 1.70, 1.70
			11-12220-00361-65	óCH2 3.32, 3.32
				NH 7,17, 6,63
Ann	8.75	4.75	2.83,2.75	YNU12 7.59, 5.91
Gln	0.41	4.37	2.13,2.01	YCH2 2.38, 2.34
				5NH, 6.87, 7.50
Not	8,42	4.52	2,15,2.01	YCH2 2,64, 2,64
				ECB3 2,13
Cys	8,31	4.69	3,28,2.96	경제도학 벗었다. 6
Trp	8,09	4.70	3, 32, 3, 19	2H 7,24
				4H 7.65
				58 7.17
				6H 7.24
				7E 7.50
				NH 10.22
Phe	8,23	4.66	3,22,2,99	2,6H 7.30
				3,5н 7.39
				48 7.34
Tys	8.18	4.60	3,13,2.92	2,68 2.15
	00000202			3,58 6.86
His	8.41	4.63	3,26,3,20	28 8.12
				4H 7.14

* Data for the nonterminal residues X in terrapeptides GGXA, pH 7.0, 19°C than flundi and Withrich (1979a), except that more precise data were obtained for Leu, Pm, Lys, Arg, Met, and Phe using new measurements at 500 Metz).

^b Data for mani-Pro.



TABLE 2.4. Groups of Hydrogen Atoms in the Common Amino Acid Residues with Similar Random Coil ¹H Chemical Shifts⁴

* In model peptides the labile protons (identified by *) are only observed in H₂O solution. The singlet resonance of aCH₁ in Met is at 2.13 ppm (Table 2.3).

The limiting δ values are expected for disordered structures, *random coil*.



The limiting δ values for disordered structures can be determined also for nuclei other than ¹H.



The limiting δ values for disordered structures can be determined also for nuclei other than ¹H.

The secondary and tertiary structure in a polypeptide chain change sensibly the local chemical environment, and the chemical shifts deviate from the limiting values of disordered structures.






Effect of tertiary structure on the chemical shifts



	NH	α	β	γ	δ	
Ile	8.19	4.23	1.90	1.48, 1.19 γCH ₃ 0.95	0.89	
Leu	8.42	4.38	1.65, 1.65	1.64	0.94, 0.90	

Also the secondary structure of a polypeptide chain introduces deviations of the chemical shifts from the limiting values of disordered structures.

Contrary to the deviations due to tertiary structure, the chemical shift deviations from secondary structure are quite diagnostic and affect essentially only the peptide backbone nuclei.



The deviation from the limiting values of the α H chemical shift is employed to define the *chemical shift index*, CSI, of a protein. The deviation is meaningful when > ± 0.1 ppm with respect to the random coil value.

TABLE VIII							
Average Secondary Shift for Various							
NUCLEI RELATIVE TO RANDOM COIL VALUES ^a							

Nucleus	Helix	β Strand
α - ^t H	-0.38	0.38
N- ¹ H	-0.19	0.29
2-13C	2.6	-1.4
1- ¹³ C	1.7	-1.4
¹⁵ N	-1.7	1.2

^a Data are given in ppm.





Fingerprint of β 2-m 2D ¹H TOCSY



 $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C' (ppm)

TALOS predictions of ψ and ϕ bb torsion angle



Average of ψ , ϕ values and st.dev. of the ten triplets with highest degree of similarity

Inspection of predictions and selection of the useful ones



TALOS c1q_co.tab 158 Residues							•		
M1	H2	НЗ	H4	H5	H6	H7	A8	P9	V10
P11	Q12	V13	A14	F15	516	A17	A18	L19	520
L21	P22	R23	524	E25	P26	G27	T28	V29	P30
F31	D32	R33	V34	L35	L36	N37	D38	G39	G40
¥41	Y42	D43	P44	E45	T46	G47	V48	F49	T50
A51	P52	L53	A54	G55	R56	Y57	L58	L59	560
A61	V62	L63	T64	G65	H66	R67	H68	E69	K70
V71	E72	A73	V74	L75	576	R77	578	N79	Q80
G81	V82	A83	R84	V85	D86	<mark></mark>	G88	G89	Y90
E91	P92	E93	G94	L95	E96	N97	K98	P99	V100
A101	E102	<mark>5103</mark>	Q104	P105	S106	P107	G108	T109	L110
G111	V112	F113	5114	L115	<mark>I116</mark>	L117	P118	L119	<mark>Q120</mark>
A121	G122	D123	T124	V125	C126	V127	D128	L129	V130
M131	G132	Q1 33	L134	A135	H1 36	S137	E138	E139	P140
L141	T142	I143	F144	S145	<mark>G146</mark>	A147	L148	L149	<u> 7150</u>
G151	D152	P153	E154	L155	E156	H157	A158		

-		Residue	L75, Triplet	V74 Ľ	75 S7	'6	•
	-104	112	46.21	E21	I22	I23	IIIglc
	-132	120	48.68	T167	K168	V169	cutinase
	-95	109	52.01	L25	M26	Y27	snase
	-95	110	52.18	V65	H66	Y67	profilin
	-71	141	54.43	L23	L24	D25	HIVprotease
	-93	101	54.72	Q62	L63	A64	cvn
	-97	125	56.31	W69	I70	Q71	cutinase
	-109	114	57.12	T62	I63	D64	calmodulin_co
	-110	97	57.76	A90	V91	K92	maxacal
	-72	134	58.47	I140	Y141	T142	mmp
!	-98	116	53.79				Average



The ¹H NMR spectrum of ethanol reveals an interesting *fine structure* when run at high resolution.



Scalar coupling



Why the methyl signal has a triplet structure?

Why the methylene is a quartet?

Why the hydroxyl is a singlet?

The magnetic dipole of a nuclear spin (1) is able to *feel* the spin state of another nucleus belonging to the same molecule. The information is passed through the spin state of the electrons that form the chemical bonds ($\frac{1}{2}$).



Following Hund's rule, the electrons with orbital density at the nucleus other than zero (s type) have an antiparallel spin with respect to the nuclear spin, in the lower energy configuration. The same electrons, involved in a σ chemical bond, obey the Pauli principle and therefore arrange with antiparallel spin in the bonding orbital. Therefore the nuclear spin state of the second nucleus determines the larger or smaller energy of the system. The transition energy of a nuclear spin (H), i.e. its transition frequency, will be therefore affected by the spin state of the bound nucleus (C).

This coupling mechanism leads to the *splitting* of the NMR transition frequency, by an extent equal to the *scalar coupling constant* or *spin-spin coupling constant*, J.



The value of any scalar coupling constant is independent of the external magnetic field B. Therefore J is expressed in Hz and not in ppm.

The scalar coupling information travels along the chemical bonds, but attenuates substantially beyond three chemical bonds.

Multiplicity

Each single scalar coupling with a spin 1/2 nucleus introduces a doubling of the number of lines. This comes from the basic multiplicity rule = $(2 \times I + 1) = (2 \times 1/2 + 1)$.

However it is necessary to distinguish between coupling with equivalent nuclei and non-equivalent nuclei.

If N nuclei with I = 1/2 are coupled to nucleus x, the multiplicity of the x signal will be:

2^N if the N nuclei are *not equivalent*;

(N+1) if the N nuclei are *equivalent*



FIGURE 17. Coupling of a proton a with two other protons b and c for the case of different (left) or similar (right) couplings.

Scalar coupling



We should understand why the CH_3 signal is a triplet and the CH_2 is a quartet.

Why the hydroxyl is a singlet?

The coupling constant of vicinal nuclei $({}^{3}J)$ show a characteristic dependence on the dihedral angle between the involved nuclei.



FIGURE 12. Left: Karplus curve, right: Definition of dihedral angles

 ${}^{3}J = 7 - 1.0\cos\phi + 5\cos 2\phi$ for ${}^{1}\text{H}{}^{-1}\text{H}$ couplings ${}^{3}J = 3.81 - 0.9\cos\phi + 3.83\cos 2\phi$ for ${}^{1}\text{H}{}^{-13}\text{C}$ couplings Karplus equations

The dependence of ${}^{3}J$ on the dihedral angle is due to the extent of overlap of the binding orbitals that propagate the spin-spin coupling information.



FIGURE 14. Overlap of adjacent orbiatals for $\phi=0^\circ$ (left) and $\phi=90^\circ$ (right).

The analysis of the fine structure of protein 2D scalar correlations enables one to measure the ${}^{3}J$ couplings of α H with NH and the two β H.



From the value of $J_{\rm NH\alpha}$, by means of a Karplus-type relationship, it is possible to estimate the peptide backbone dihedral angle ϕ .



$${}^{3}J_{NH\alpha} = 6.98\cos^{2}\theta - 1.38\cos\theta + 1.72$$

A similar analysis extended to $J_{\alpha\beta}$ coupling constants, enables one to extract information on the dihedral angle χ^1 .





The measurement of the *J* coupling from peak spacing is hindered by limited experimental resolution and large linewidths



The interaction between two nuclear magnetic dipoles, *I* and *S* (dipole-dipole interaction), generates a local field whose component in the direction of B_0 (*z*) affects the effective field at each nucleus by a factor:









In practice, nucleus S changes its resonance frequency according to (2I+1) possible values of μ_z from nucleus I, whereas nucleus I changes its resonance frequency according to (2S+1) possible values of μ_z from nucleus S.

Dipolar coupling means resonance splitting; the dipolar coupling *D* depends on the external field.

Dipolar splittings are observed only in solids, either crystals or amorphous, or in liquid crystals.

Solid state ¹³C NMR spectrum of cholesterol (polycrystalline powder)



$$B_z^{dip} = \left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right) \frac{\mu_z}{r^3} \left(3\cos^2\theta - 1\right)$$

a) basic solid state spectrum (severe broadening = a baseline)

b) solid state spectrum with ¹H saturation to quench ¹H dipolar couplings (¹³C dipolar couplings still present)

c) solid state spectrum in magic angle spinning mode: isotropic chemical shift are observed;

d) liquid state spectrum (in chloroform).

Alignment by Liquid Crystal



It is possible to restrict the motion of macromolecules in solution along preferential directions using proper orienting media.



Under these conditions it is possible to measure residual dipolar couplings, RDC.

RDC measurement in partially aligned media



IPAP ¹H-¹⁵N HSQC anisotropic solution

RDC measurement in partially aligned media



isotropic solution/anisotropic solution

RDC measurement in partially aligned media



The RDC value of a nuclear pair depends on the orientation of the internuclear vector with respect to the overall molecular alignment tensor.

$$D_{AB(\theta,\phi)} = A_a^{AB} \left\{ \left(3\cos^2\theta - 1 \right) + \frac{3}{2}R\sin^2\theta\cos 2\phi \right\}$$



 A_a^{AB} axial, *R* rhombic components of the molecular alignment tensor, **A**, in the main reference frame. **A** components follow the rule $|A_{zz}| \ge |A_{yy}| \ge |A_{xx}|$

$$A_{a} = \frac{1}{3} \left[A_{zz}^{AB} - \left(\frac{A_{xx}^{AB} + A_{yy}^{AB}}{2} \right) \right] \quad A_{r} = \frac{1}{3} \left(A_{xx}^{AB} - A_{yy}^{AB} \right) \quad R = \frac{A_{r}}{A_{a}}$$
$$A_{a}^{AB} = -\frac{\mu_{0}h}{16\pi^{3}} S \gamma_{A} \gamma_{B} r_{AB}^{-3} A_{a}$$

Distribution of 120 ¹H-¹⁵N RDCs in C1q domain



RDC measurement in partially aligned media



Dipolar relaxation

..... and in isotropic liquids?

$$B_z^{dip} = \left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right) \frac{\mu_z}{r^3} \left(3\cos^2\theta - 1\right)$$

Molecular motions are rapid and effectively average, for all molecules, the factor $(3\cos^2\theta - 1)$. Globally, the contributions due to the longitidinal components of the local fields cancel out. For all nuclei:

 $\left\langle B_{z}^{dip}\right\rangle =0$

This means that in isotropic liquids the dipolar interaction does not affect the chemical shift.

Dipolar relaxation

However, in isotropic liquids, the longitudinal and transverse components of B^{dip} are modulated by the molecular motion and thus generate fluctuating local magnetic fields.



When the fluctuation frequency has proper values, the variable local magnetic fields will be able to induce transitions, that is to cause relaxation:

$$\nu = \frac{\gamma}{2\pi} B_L$$

Dipolar relaxation mechanism

The event that ultimately determines NMR relaxation is the transition of a nuclear magnetic moment that occurs at a precise frequency value

$$v = \frac{\gamma}{2\pi} B_L$$

Dipolar relaxation

Consider the dipolar interaction between ¹H and ¹⁵N of a protein amide.



FIGURE 4. Left: definition of the vector connecting two spins and its orientation ϕ with respect to the external field. Right: Overall tumbling changes ϕ .

The reorientation rate of the internuclear vector determines a fluctuating local magnetic field, at each nucleus. This field depends on the distance between the nuclei and on their nature.

$$B_L \propto \left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right) \frac{\mu}{r_{IS}^3} \qquad \mu_I = \gamma_I \hbar \left[I(I+1)\right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \qquad \mu_S = \gamma_S \hbar \left[S(S+1)\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Dipolar relaxation



FIGURE 4. Left: definition of the vector connecting two spins and its orientation ϕ with respect to the external field. Right: Overall tumbling changes ϕ .

Therefore, the overall effect of the dipolar mechanism on relaxation is an increased transition probability (*W*) proportional to:

$$W \propto \left[\left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \right) \frac{\gamma_I \gamma_S \hbar}{r_{IS}^3} \right]^2 \Longrightarrow \propto r_{IS}^{-6}$$

We can measure the dipolar relaxation extent within pairs of nuclei.


The extent of dipolar relaxation between two nuclei in a static external field depends on the interatomic separation and on the rate of reorientation of the internuclear vector, the frequency of θ change, with respect to the reciprocal of Larmor frequency, i.e with respect to the external magnetic.



We can measure NOE (η) that is a function of cross relaxation (σ) , in turn related to internuclear distance and internuclear vector reorientation (molecular motion):

$$\eta = f(\sigma) = f\left(\tau_c, r_{IS}^{-6}\right)$$

$$\sigma_{ij} = \frac{\hbar^2 \gamma^2}{10r_{ij}^6} \left[\frac{6\tau_c}{1+4\omega^2 \tau_c^2} - \tau_c \right]$$

cross-relaxation rate

NOE can be measured from NOESY experiments





The intensity of a NOESY cross-peak depends on the NOE and the experimental *mixing time*, t_m .



Macura & Ernst, Mol. Phys., 1980



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1.6

12

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6.4

From NOESY cross-peak measurements it is possible to determine the internuclear distances that are necessary to solve structures.

From NOESY cross-peak measurements it is possible to determine the internuclear distances that are necessary to solve structures.

