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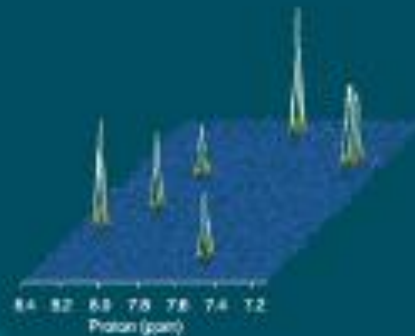
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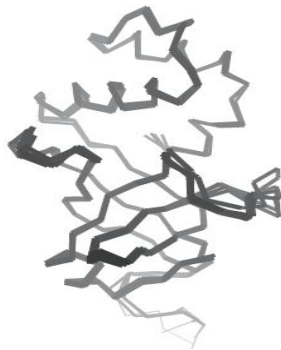
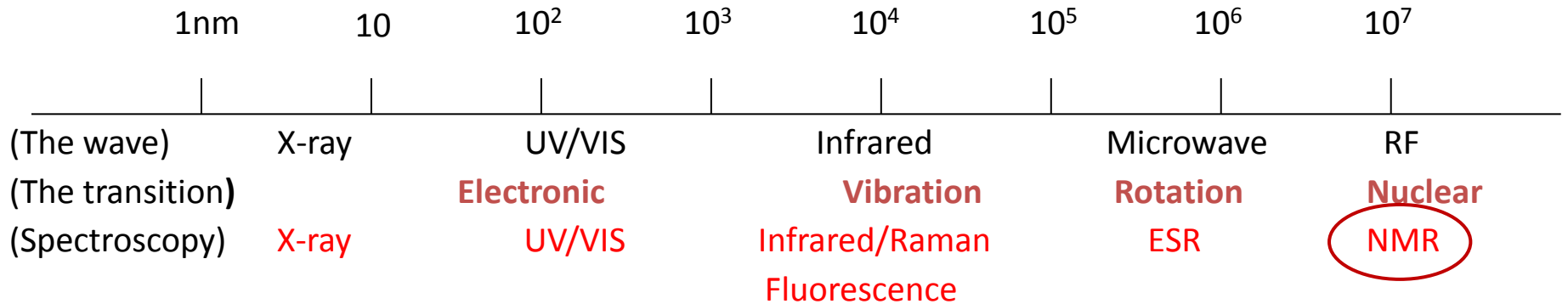
Fundamentals of Protein NMR Spectroscopy

by

Gordon S. Rule and T. Kevin Hitchens



Focus on Structural Biology



- Structure
- Dynamics
- Interactions

NMR method -----
 Time scale -----
 Molecular motion --

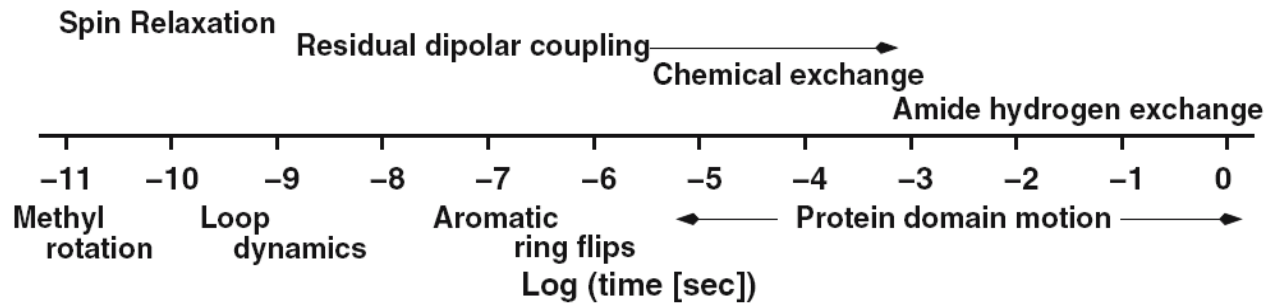


Figure 1.2. Characterization of molecular dynamics with NMR. The time scale of motions in proteins are indicated below the axis and NMR techniques that can be used to characterize motion on the various time scales are shown above the axis.

1.1 Introduction to NMR Spectroscopy

In this chapter we will employ a semi-classical model of the nuclear spins to obtain an intuitive understanding of many of the fundamental aspects of modern NMR spectroscopy. This treatment will highlight a number of important features of NMR spectroscopy, including:

1. How energy states are created by the magnetic field,
2. How resonance signals are detected,
3. How the detected signals are transformed into spectra,
4. How the relaxation properties of the excited state are affected by the environment,
5. How the relaxation properties affect the NMR lineshape,
6. How the absorption frequency of a nuclear spin is affected by its environment,
7. How the characteristic NMR absorption frequencies of amino acids are interpreted.

1.2 One Dimensional NMR Spectroscopy

1.2.1 Classical Description of NMR Spectroscopy

1.2.2.1 Magnetic Dipole

Magnetic moment of a nuclear spin: $\vec{\mu}_n = \gamma_n \hbar \vec{I}$ (Erg/Gauss)

γ : Nuclear gyric ratio (Gyromagnetic ratio) (Hz/gauss)

\hbar : Plank's constant (Erg/Hz); I : Spin quantum number (unitless)

γ and I are intrinsic properties of a nucleus

Table of Isotopes and NMR Parameters

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|---|--|---|--|--|---|--|--|--|---|---|--|---|--|--------------------------------------|------------------------|
| Li 6 7 3.58 1.5 $\times 10^2$ 10 40 | Be 9 78 | H 1 2 5.7 8.2 $\times 10^1 \times 10^{-1}$ 10 10 | | H 3 6.9 $\times 10^1$ 10 | | <p>Isotope</p> <p>(The shaded ones are of spin I=1/2)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Mass number ● Relative receptivity* ($^{13}\text{C}=1.0$) ● Chemical shift range (in ppm) | | | | | B 10 11 22 764 150 | C 13 1.0 200 | N 14 15 5.7 2.2 $\times 10^{-1}$ 900 | O 17 8.1 $\times 10^{-1}$ 1600 | F 19 4.7 $\times 10^1$ 200 | Ne 21 | |
| Na 23 525 30 | Mg 25 1.5 40 | Al 27 117 400 | Si 29 2.1 400 | P 31 377 600 | S 33 9.7 $\times 10^{-1}$ 1000 | Cl 35 37 2.2 3.8 1000 | Ar | | | | | | | | | | |
| K 39 41 2.7 3.3 $\times 10^{-1}$ 30 | Ca 43 5.27 $\times 10^{-2}$ 70 | Sc 45 1.7 $\times 10^1$ 350 | Ti 47 49 8.7 1.18 $\times 10^{-1}$ 1700 | V 50 51 7.5 2150 $\times 10^{-1}$ 2400 | Cr 53 0.49 2000 | Mn 55 994 3000 | Fe 57 4.2 $\times 10^{-1}$ 3000 | Co 59 1570 18000 | Ni 61 0.24 100 | Cu 63 65 385 201 600 | Zn 67 0.865 300 | Ga 69 71 237 319 1000 | Ge 73 0.617 1100 | As 75 143 800 | Se 77 3.0 2000 | Br 79 81 226 277 500 | Kr 83 123 |
| Rb 85 87 43 277 200 | Sr 87 1.1 60 | Y 89 0.888 600 | Zr 91 6.04 2200 | Nb 93 2740 5500 | Mo 95 97 2.9 1.8 2134 3000 | Tc 99 2134 8300 | Ru 99 101 8.3 1.56 $\times 10^{-1}$ 6000 | Rh 103 0.18 1.41 600 | Pd 105 0.2 0.28 6.9 7.6 $\times 10^1$ 1100 | Ag 107 109 111 113 117 119 20 25 520 111 8.9 13 $\times 10^{-1}$ 2700 | Cd 111 113 117 119 20 25 520 111 8.9 13 $\times 10^{-1}$ 3500 | In 113 115 117 119 20 25 520 111 8.9 13 $\times 10^{-1}$ 4000 | Sn 117 119 20 25 520 111 8.9 13 $\times 10^{-1}$ 4000 | Sb 121 123 123 125 6.9 13 $\times 10^{-1}$ 4000 | Te 127 530 7000 | I 127 530 7000 | Xe 129 32 |
| Cs 133 269 300 | Ba 135 137 1.8 4.4 10 | La 139 3.4 $\times 10^1$ 300 | Hf 177 179 8.8 0.27 $\times 10^{-1}$ 6900 | Ta 181 2.0 $\times 10^1$ 6900 | W 183 6.0 $\times 10^{-1}$ 6900 | Re 185 187 2.8 4.9 $\times 10^1 \times 10^1$ 6900 | Os 187 189 1.1 2.1 $\times 10^{-1}$ 6900 | Ir 191 193 2.0 0.05 $\times 10^{-2}$ 6900 | Pt 195 19 15000 | Au 197 0.06 3000 | Hg 199 201 5.4 1.1 $\times 10^1$ 7000 | Tl 203 205 2.89 770 $\times 10^1$ 3500 | Pb 207 12 3500 | Bi 209 777 | Po | At | Rn |
| Ce | Pr 141 1.7 $\times 10^1$ | Nd 143 145 233 37 | Pm | Sm 147 149 125 59 | Eu 151 153 4.8 4.5 $\times 10^1 \times 10^1$ | Gd 155 157 23 52 | Tb 159 3.3 $\times 10^1$ | Dy 161 163 45 16 | Ho 165 1.0 $\times 10^1$ | Er 167 66 | Tm 169 3.2 | Yb 171 173 4.1 1.14 | Lu 175 158 | | | | |

* Relative Receptivity = Natural abundance
 \times Relative sensitivity

For biological systems we deal almost exclusively with ^1H , ^2H , ^{13}C , ^{15}N and ^{31}P . With the exception of ^2H they are all spin $\frac{1}{2}$ nuclei.

Table 1.1. Properties of NMR active nuclei.

| Nuclei ¹ | γ (rad \times sec ⁻¹ \times gauss ⁻¹) [†] | I | Natural Abundance (%) |
|---------------------|--|-----|-----------------------|
| ^1H | 26,753 | 1/2 | 99.980 |
| ^2H | 4,106 | 1 | 0.016 |
| ^{19}F | 25,179 | 1/2 | 100.000 ² |
| ^{13}C | 6,728 | 1/2 | 1.108 ³ |
| ^{15}N | -2,712 | 1/2 | 0.37 ³ |
| ^{31}P | 10,841 | 1/2 | 100.00 |

¹The term “Protons” is used interchangeably with ^1H in the text.

²Fluorine is not normally found in biopolymers, therefore it has to be introduced by chemical or biosynthetic labeling.

³These isotopes of carbon and nitrogen are normally found in low levels in biopolymers, therefore the levels of these two spins are generally enriched, often to 100%, by biosynthetic labeling.

[†]CGS units are used throughout the text.

| <u>AT 71000 GAUSS (7.1 TELS LA)</u> | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|--|
| (1T = 10,000G) | | | | | | | | |
| W ₀ (MHz) | 0 | 30 | 75 | 121 | 280 | 300 | 320 | |
| Nucleus | | ↑ ^{15}N | ↑ ^{13}C | ↑ ^{31}P | ↑ ^{19}F | ↑ ^1H | ↑ ^3H | |

1.2.2.2 Nuclear Dipole-Magnetic Field Interaction

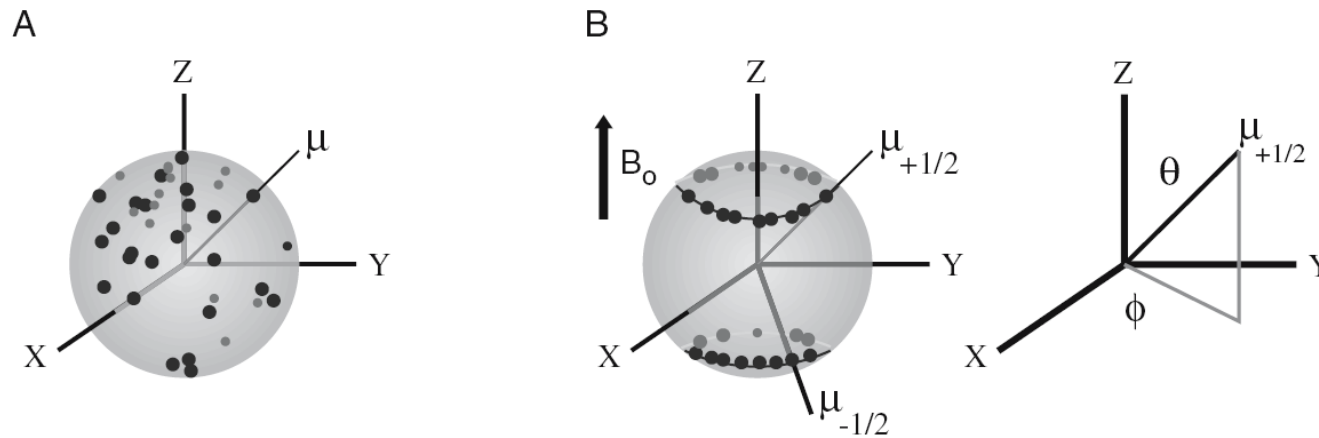


Figure 1.3. Orientation of magnetic dipoles.

A. Orientation of nuclear magnetic dipoles in the absence of a magnetic field. A unit sphere is shown and the dots on the surface illustrate the various orientations of the dipoles in space. The orientation of one dipole μ is indicated by a line drawn from the center of the sphere.

B. The orientation of the nuclear spin dipoles in a static magnetic field along the z -axis. Note that approximately one-half of the spins are pointed up and the other half are pointed down. Also note that they can assume any value of ϕ , but only two values of θ . ϕ and θ represent the orientation of the magnetic dipole in spherical coordinates, as shown on the right part of this figure.

Energy of a spin in a magnetic field of strength B :

$$E = -\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B} \quad B = (1 - \sigma)B_o$$

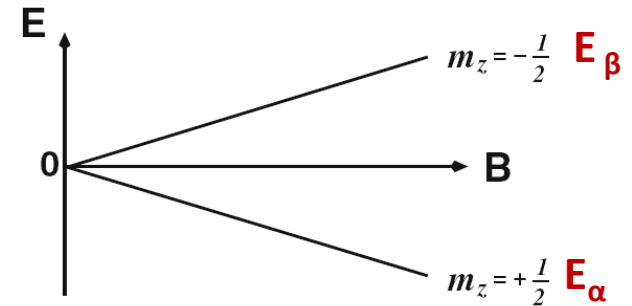
Where σ represents the degree of shielding due to surrounding electrons. Σ is in the order of 10^{-6} and will be ignored for the time being.

The Zeeman Hamiltonian: $\mathcal{H} = -u_z B_z = -\gamma \hbar B m_z$ for $\mu_z = \gamma \hbar m_z$

$$m_z = -I, -I+1, \dots, I-1, I \quad E_\alpha = -\frac{\gamma \hbar B}{2} \quad E_\beta = +\frac{\gamma \hbar B}{2}$$

$$\Delta E = E_\beta - E_\alpha = \gamma \hbar B \quad E = \hbar \omega$$

$$\omega_s = \gamma B \quad \text{Larmor equation}$$



➤ Resonance frequency depends on:

(i) The type of nucleus, γ , and (ii) External field strength, B .

1. The population difference between the two energy levels is very small, on the order of 1 part in 10^6 . The actual population difference can be easily calculated from Boltzmann's relationship:

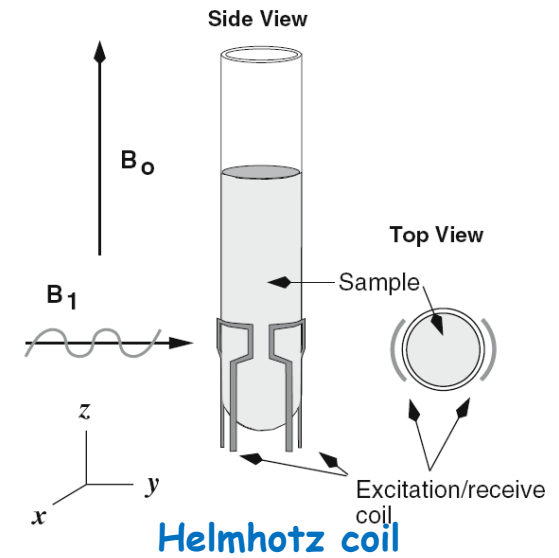
$$\frac{N_\beta}{N_\alpha} = e^{-\frac{\gamma \hbar B}{kT}} \approx 1 - \frac{\gamma \hbar B}{kT} \quad (1.10)$$

➤ The higher the resonance frequency the more sensitive it is.

2. The lifetime of the excited state can be quite long, on the order of msec to sec. As discussed above, a long lifetime provides three benefits: narrow resonance lines, experimental manipulation of the excited state in multi-dimensional experiments, and sensitivity to molecular motion over a wide time scale.

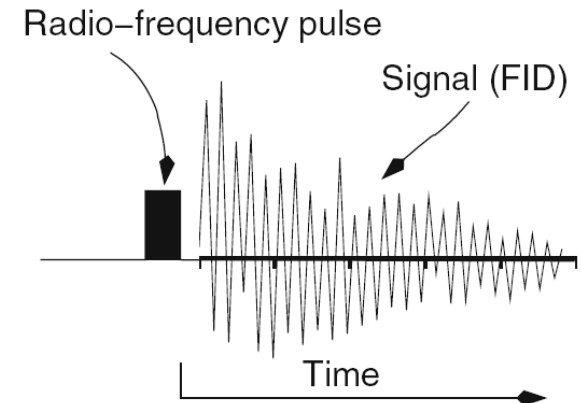
1.3 Detection of Nuclear Spin Transitions

- The presence of static field caused the spins to occupy different energy states
- To detect the magnetization one need to apply a RF field of frequency equal to the Larmor frequency in the orthogonal direction to the static field.



Two ways of detecting the magnetization:

1. Continuous wave method: Swapping the static or RF field so that the Larmor condition is met to observe absorption of RF field.
➔ Slow and not versatile.
2. Pulsed Fourier Transform NMR:
➔ Fast (x100) and more versatile.



Steps involved in a simple one pulse expt:

1. Preparation: Allow spin to reach thermal equilibrium.
2. Excitation: Apply B_1 field at defined frequency and time duration.
3. Detection: B_1 off and receiver on. The signal (Free induction decay, FID) is digitized and Fourier transformed to obtain spectrum.

1.3.2.1 Before the Pulse: Magnetization at Equilibrium

The torque on the magnetization subjecting to a magnetic field B is given by:

$$\Gamma = \frac{dS}{dt} = \vec{\mu} \times \vec{B} \quad \text{Using } \vec{\mu} = \gamma \vec{S} \text{ we can write } \frac{d\mu}{dt} = \gamma \vec{\mu} \times \vec{B} \quad (1.12)$$

Rotating frame: The change in magnetization as observed in a frame rotating a frequency Ω is given by:

$$\frac{\delta \vec{\mu}}{\delta t} = \gamma \vec{\mu} \times \left(\vec{B} + \frac{\Omega}{\gamma} \right) = \gamma \vec{\mu} \times B_{\text{eff}} \quad (1.14)$$

Where $B_{\text{eff}} = \left(\vec{B} + \frac{\Omega}{\gamma} \right)$ is the effective field in the Z-direction.

- In the rotating frame equation 1.14 has the same form as (1.12) provide B is replaced by B_{eff} .
- The additional field Ω/γ is a fictitious field.
- $\delta \mu / \delta t = 0$ if $B_{\text{eff}} = 0$ or $\Omega = -\gamma B$
- In this frame the magnetization appears as stationary (i.e. no change)
- In a frame rotating at the Larmor frequency the magnetization appears as stationary (No oscillation).

The bulk (macroscopic magnetization:
$$M_i = \sum_{i=1}^{\text{All spins}} \mu_i$$

At thermal equilibrium the components in the three axes are:

$$M_z = M_0 \quad M_x = M_y = 0$$

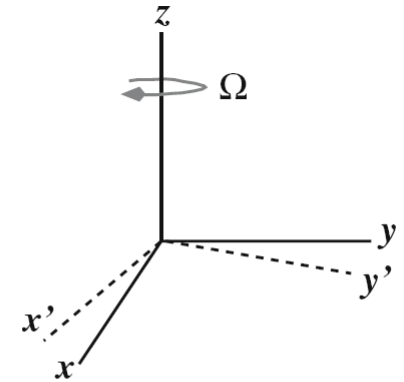


Figure 1.7. Rotating frame of reference. The coordinate system is rotating at a frequency $|\Omega|$ about the z-axis.

1.3.2.2 Effect of the B_1 Pulse: Excitation of Nuclear Spins

If we apply a RF field $\vec{B}_1 = |b_1| \cos(\omega t) \hat{j}$ in the y-direction.

Then the effective in the rotation frame : $\vec{B}_{rot} = \left[\left(B + \frac{\Omega}{\gamma} \right) \hat{k} + B_1 \hat{j} \right]$

$$\frac{\delta \mu}{\delta t} = \gamma \mu \times \left[\left(B + \frac{\Omega}{\gamma} \right) \hat{k} + B_1 \hat{j} \right]$$

Let: $\Omega = -\omega$; $\gamma B = \omega_s$; $\omega_1 = \gamma B_1$, then

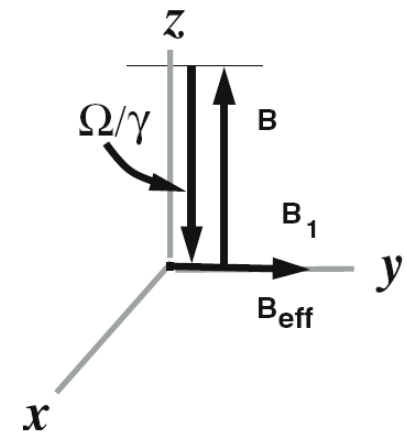
Then: $\frac{\delta \mu}{\delta t} = \gamma \mu \times \left[\left(\frac{\omega_s - \omega}{\gamma} \right) \hat{k} + \frac{\omega_1}{\gamma} \hat{j} \right]$

Where ω_s is the resonance frequency of the nucleus, ω is the frequency of the applied RF field and ω_1 is proportional to B_1 field strength.

- B and ω differ only by a factor γ and they can be considered as the same quantities.
- There are two fields, one in the Z-direction and is given by the static field and the opposing fictitious field and another one in the B_1 direction (X or Y depending on the operator).

For the case $\omega_s = \omega$ (on resonance) we have: $\frac{\delta \vec{\mu}}{\delta t} = \gamma \mu \times \frac{\omega_1}{\gamma} \hat{j}$

For the macroscopic magnetization: $\frac{\delta \vec{M}}{\delta t} = -\omega_1 \hat{i}$



→ M is tipped away from the z-axis at a rate of ω_1 rad/sec.

→ The angle it tips: $\beta = \omega_1 \tau$ where τ is the duration of the RF pulse.

Define $P_{\beta}^{\vec{u}}$ as a pulse in the \vec{u} that flips the magnetization by β degree.

So P_{45}^y is a 45 y -pulse. If $\beta = 90$ it is called a 90° or $\pi/2$ pulse or a π -pulse if $\beta = 180^\circ$.

After a P_{β}^y pulse the magnetization has the following components:

$$M_z = M_o \cos(\beta) \quad M_x = M_o \sin(\beta) \quad M_y = 0$$

This transformation is often abbreviated as:

$$M_z \xrightarrow{P_{\beta}^y} M_z \cos(\beta) + M_x \sin(\beta)$$

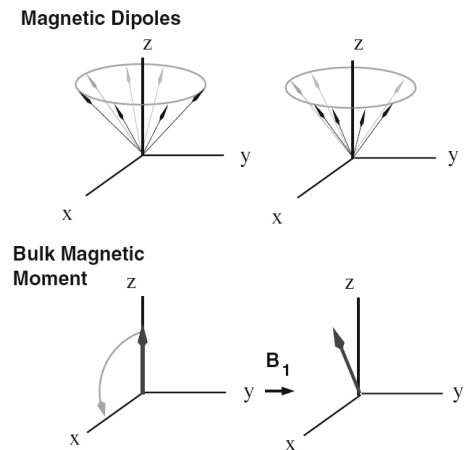
A $\pi/2$ pulse generates the maximum amount of magnetization in the x - y plane (maximum signal, transverse magnetization) while a π -pulse generates a $-M$ magnetization and is called an inversion pulse.

→ The distribution of magnetization after a $\pi/2$ pulse is called a **coherent** state.

→ After a P_{β}^y pulse we have: $M_z = M_o \cos(\beta) \quad M_x = -M_o \sin(\beta)$

→ A P_{β}^x pulse will produce: $M_z = M_o \cos(\beta); \quad M_x = 0$ and $M_y = -M_o \sin(\beta)$

→ After a $P_{\pi/2}^y$ pulse: $M_z = 0; \quad M_x = M_o$ and $M_y = 0 \rightarrow$ Magnetization on x - y plane.

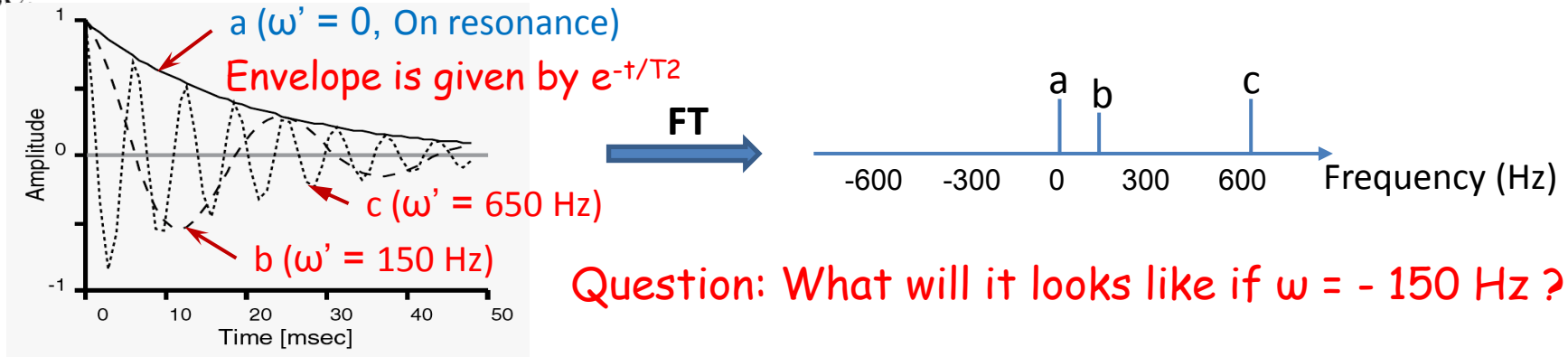


1.3.2.3 Detection of Resonance

After the B_1 pulse is turned off, the transverse magnetization precesses in the x - y plane around the B_o field, just as it did before the pulse. The key difference is that the transverse magnetization is now coherent and gives rise to a non-zero magnetic moment in the x - y plane.

The precession of the coherent magnetization in the x - y plane induces a time dependent current in the receiver coil. This signal is called the *free induction decay* (FID) and represents bulk magnetization that exists in the x - y plane. The frequency of the induced signal is *exactly* equal to the resonance frequency of the nuclear spin transition since the magnetization precesses around B_o at $\omega_s = \gamma B$.

Detection of the precessing magnetization is accomplished by analog circuits that actually measure the magnetization **in the rotating** frame, i.e. the observed frequency, ω' , is $\omega_s - \omega$, where ω_s is the precessional frequency of the spin and ω is the rate of rotation of the coordinate frame, or equivalently, the frequency of the applied B_1 pulse.



Quadrature detection (Detect the signal in both X- and Y-direction):
 Signal at time t after the B_1 pulse ends: ($\omega' = \omega_s - \omega$)

$$M_x(t) = M_o \cos(\omega' t) e^{-t/T_2} \quad M_y(t) = M_o \sin(\omega' t) e^{-t/T_2}$$

- $\omega' = \omega_s - \omega$ is the rotating frame resonance frequency
- ω_s : The freq of RF pulse, i.e. coordinate rotating frequency.
- ω : The actual resonance frequency in laboratory frame

These two signals are usually combined into a single complex number:

$$S(t) = M_x(t) + iM_y(t) = M_o e^{i\omega' t} e^{-t/T_2}$$

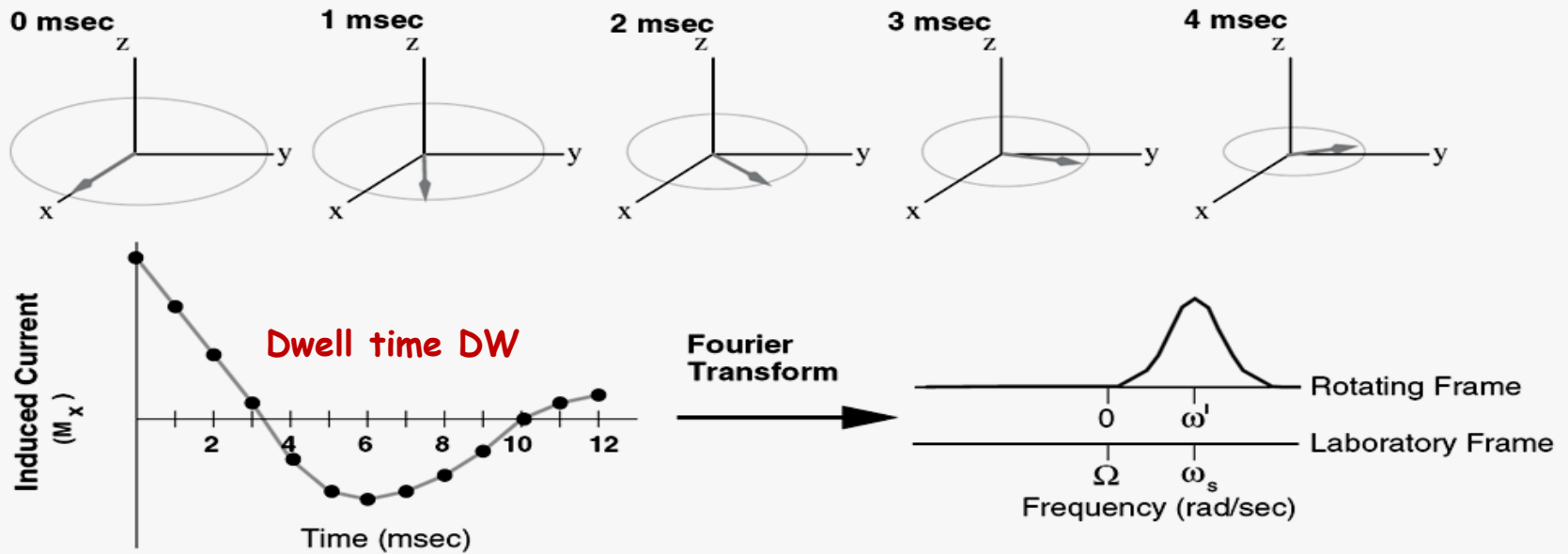
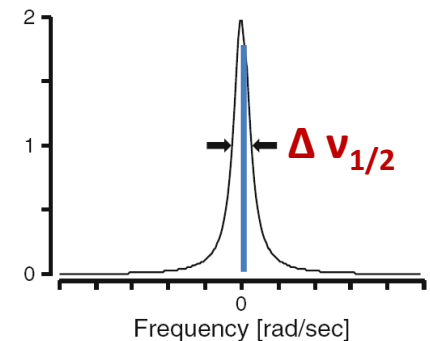


Figure 1.11. Fourier transform of the time domain signal. The free induction decay after the 90° pulse is shown. The upper section of the figure shows the precession of the transverse (i.e. x - y) magnetization after the pulse. The lower part of the figure shows the FID with the points indicating the data sampled during digitization, representing a dwell time of 1 msec. The subsequent resonance line obtained after Fourier transformation is shown to the right. In this case the pulse is slightly off-resonance and precesses in the rotating frame. The upper scale for the abscissa of the spectra gives frequencies in the rotating frame, the lower scale gives frequencies in the laboratory frame.

Question: What are the FT of M_x , M_y , $S(t)$ and e^{-t/T_2} ?

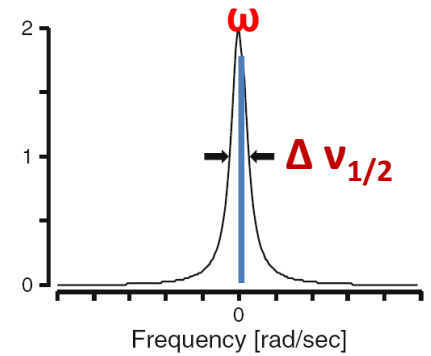
FT of e^{-t/T_2} is:
$$F(\omega) = \frac{T_2}{1 + T_2^2 \omega^2}$$
 Lorentzian lineshape

This lineshape is shown in Fig. 1.12. The full width of the line at half-height, $\Delta\nu$, is inversely proportional to the T_2 : $\Delta\nu = 1/(\pi T_2)$.



$$\text{FT}(e^{i\omega t}) = \delta(\omega) \quad (\text{A delta function at } \omega) \quad \text{FT}(e^{-t/T_2}) = \frac{T_2}{1 + T_2^2 \omega^2}$$

$$\text{FT}[e^{-i\omega t} \cdot e^{-t/T_2}] = \delta(\omega) \otimes \frac{T_2}{1 + T_2^2 \omega^2}$$



1.4 Phenomenological Description of Relaxation

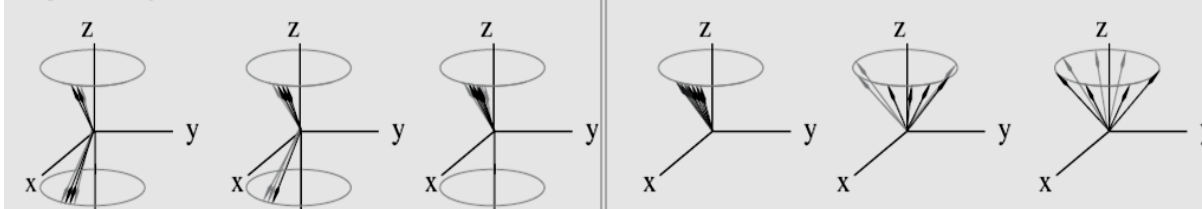
First order relaxation process: $I(t) = I_0 e^{-t/T} = I_0 e^{-Rt}$

T is the relaxation time (sec) and R is the relaxation rate (sec^{-1}) and $R = 1/T$.

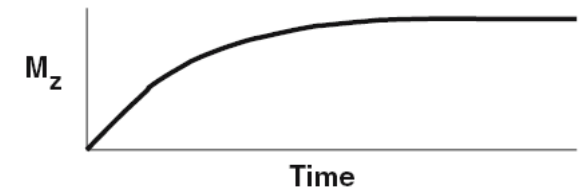
T_1 : Spin-lattice (Longitudinal) relaxation (Relaxation in Z-direction) (Energy dissipation).

T_2 : Spin-spin (Transverse) relaxation (relaxation on x-y plane) (Dephasing or lost of coherent).

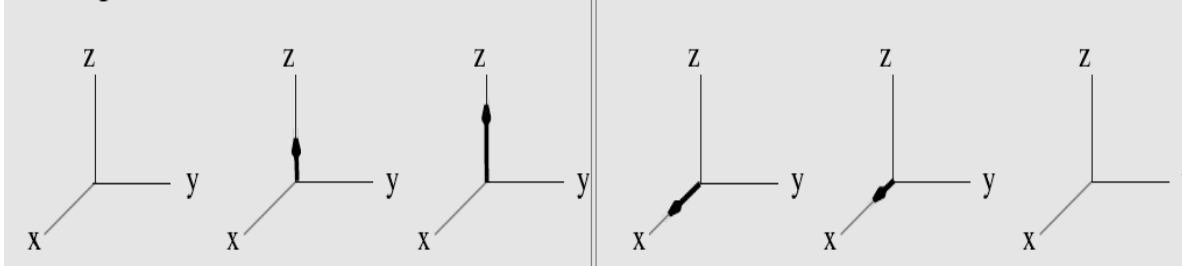
Magnetic Dipoles



Z-Magnetization



Bulk Magnetic Moment



Observed Signal



Factors affecting T_2 :

1. Field inhomogeneity: Cause spins at different location to resonate at different frequency.
2. Dipolar coupling between adjacent spins (spin-spin coupling). Causes splitting.
3. Chemical shield anisotropy (CSA) due to anisotropic distribution of electrons around the nucleus.

Thus,

$$R_2^* = \frac{1}{T_2^*} = R_2^{\Delta B} + R_2^{DD} + R_2^{CSA}$$

In cases where $R_2^{\Delta B}$ can be ignored:

$$\frac{1}{T_2} = R_2 = R_2^{DD} + R_2^{CSA}$$

1.4.1 Relaxation and the Evolution of Magnetization

$$\frac{d\vec{M}}{dt} = \gamma \vec{M} \times B$$

The decay of magnetization :
(Phenomenological description)
The decay terms are added to
account for relaxation.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dM_z}{dt} &= \frac{M_o - M_z}{T_1} + \gamma(M \times B)_z \\ \frac{dM_x}{dt} &= \frac{-M_x}{T_2} + \gamma(M \times B)_x \\ \frac{dM_y}{dt} &= \frac{-M_y}{T_2} + \gamma(M \times B)_y \end{aligned}$$

(Bloch equations)

In the rotating frame:

$$\frac{\delta M_z}{\delta t} = \frac{M_o - M_z}{T_1}$$

$$\frac{\delta M_x}{\delta t} = \frac{-M_x}{T_2} + M_y(\omega_s - \omega)$$

$$\frac{\delta M_y}{\delta t} = \frac{-M_y}{T_2} - M_x(\omega_s - \omega)$$

where $\omega_s = \gamma B, \omega = -\Omega$.

Let $M^+ = M_x + iM_y$ then

$$\frac{\delta M^+}{\delta t} = -M^+ \left[\frac{1}{T_2} + i\omega' \right] \quad (1.42)$$

The solution to eq. (1.42) is:

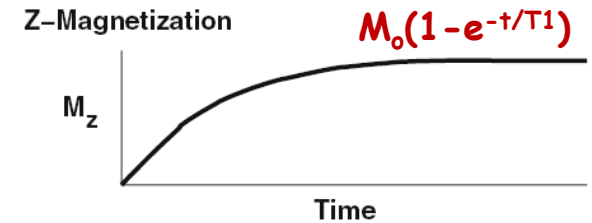
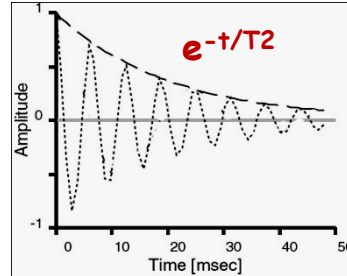
$$M^+ = e^{-i\omega't} e^{-t/T_2} \quad (1.43)$$

The magnetization after a P_{90^x} pulse we have the initial conditions: $M_x = M_z = 0$ and

$$M_x(t) = \sin(\omega't) e^{-t/T_2}$$

$$M_y(t) = \cos(\omega't) e^{-t/T_2}$$

$$M_z(t) = M_o[1 - e^{-t/T_1}]$$



In quadrature detection the signal: $S(t) = \overset{\text{Real}}{M_x(t)} + i \overset{\text{Imaginary}}{M_y(t)} = M_o e^{i\omega't} e^{-t/T_2} \quad (1.31)$

1.5 Chemical Shielding

$$B = (1 - \sigma) \cdot B_o$$

Lamb formula: For isotropic electron distribution:
 σ is call chemical shift.

$$\sigma = \frac{e^2}{3mc^2} \int \frac{\rho(r)}{r} dr$$

For an anisotropic distribution σ is a tensorial quantity:

$$\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_{yy} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_{zz} \end{bmatrix}$$

In solid the resonance frequency of a spin depends on its orientation w.r.t. the magnetic field and equals σ_{xx} if along the x-direction and σ_{yy} if along Y-direct and σ_{zz} is along the Z-direction.

In solution, it averages to a scale quantity:

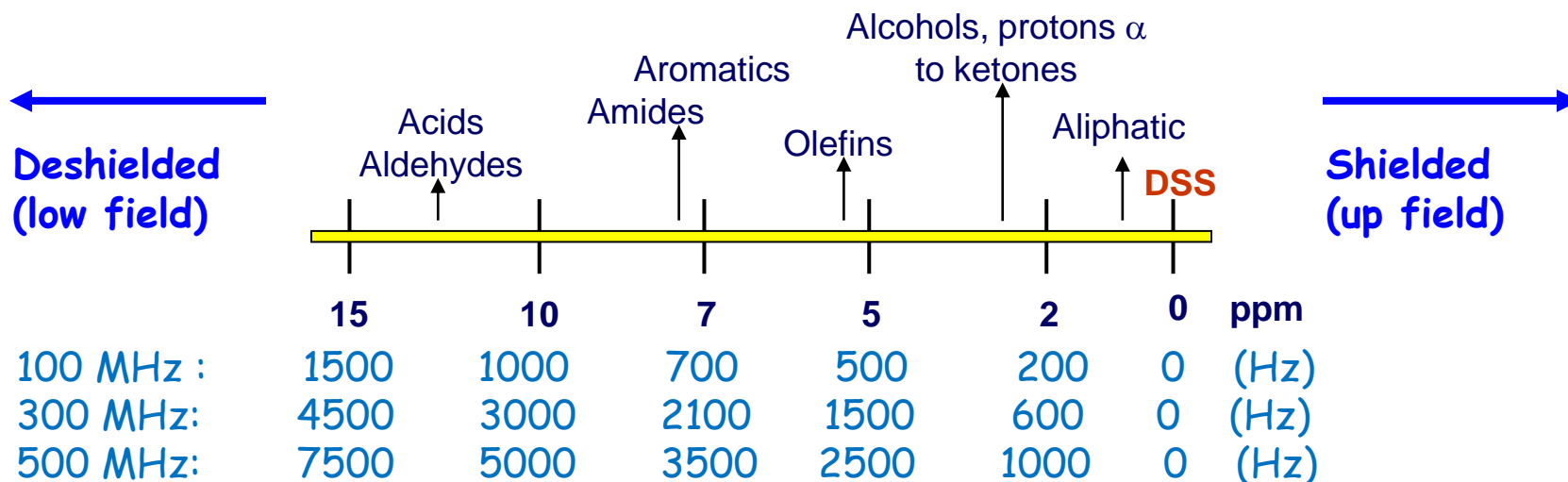
$$\bar{\sigma} = \frac{1}{3} [\sigma_{xx} + \sigma_{yy} + \sigma_{zz}]$$

σ is proportional to B but if we define $\delta = \frac{\nu - \nu_0}{\nu_0} \times 10^6$ then the chemical shift will be independent of the field the spectrum is taken. Here ν_0 is the frequency of the RF pulse and ν is the resonance frequency of the spin. σ has the unit of ppm (part per million). This makes it possible to directly compare the position of resonance lines in spectra obtained at different field.

Example: If a spin resonates at 2 ppm then this spin will resonate at 600 Hz away from the reference frequency at a 300 MHz spectrometer (i.e. ^1H spin resonates at ~ 300 MHz). This spin will resonate at 1800 Hz away from the reference if the spectrum is taken at 900 MHz spectrometer.

In NMR spectroscopy, this standard is often tetramethylsilane, $\text{Si}(\text{CH}_3)_4$, abbreviated TMS, or 2,2-dimethyl-2-silapentane-5-sulfonate, DSS, in biomolecular NMR.

For ^1H the chemical shift of a functional group is usually scattered around a defined region given below:



Chemical Shift Referencing: The ^1H chemical shift was referenced to 2,2-dimethyl-2-Silapentane-5-sulfonate (DSS) at 0 ppm. The ^{15}N and ^{13}C chemical shift values were referenced using the consensus ratio Ξ of 0.101329118 and 0.251449530 for $^{15}\text{N}/^1\text{H}$ and $^{13}\text{C}/^1\text{H}$, respectively

(Wishart and Case, Method. Enzymol. 338, 3-34 (2001))

TABLE I
IUPAC/IUBMB RECOMMENDED Ξ (XI) RATIOS FOR INDIRECT
CHEMICAL SHIFT REFERENCING IN BIOMOLECULAR NMR^a

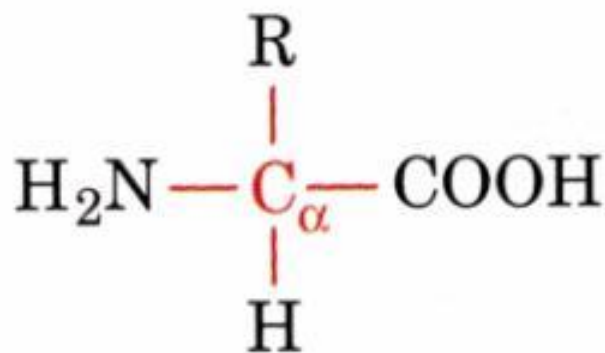
| Nucleus | Compound | Ξ Ratio |
|-----------------|------------------------------|---------------|
| ^1H | DSS | 1.000 000 000 |
| ^{13}C | DSS | 0.251 449 530 |
| ^{15}N | Liquid NH_3 | 0.101 329 118 |
| ^{19}F | CF_3COOH | 0.940 867 196 |
| ^{31}P | $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{PO}_4$ | 0.404 808 636 |

^a Relative to DSS.

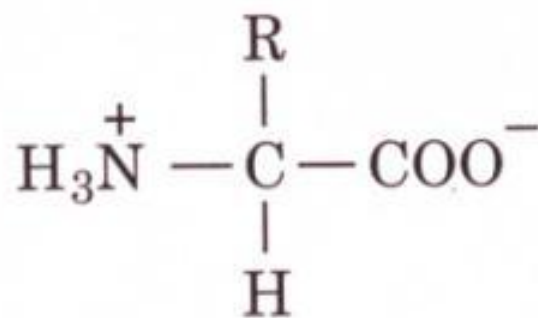
Ξ ratio (Nucleus-specific frequency ratio: Determine the precise ^1H resonance frequency of DSS then multiply this frequency by Ξ of a particular nucleus one obtains the exact resonance frequency reference at 0 ppm of that nucleus.

Structures of Four Building Blocks : Type III Amino Acids 胺基酸

胺基酸為生物蛋白質的基本組成單位。雖然蛋白質所含的胺基酸數目十分龐大，但是這些蛋白質胺基酸多半是由同樣的二十種不同的胺基酸所重複排列組合而成。這些胺基酸的共同結構如下（R為Remainder，代表該分子其他剩餘的部分）

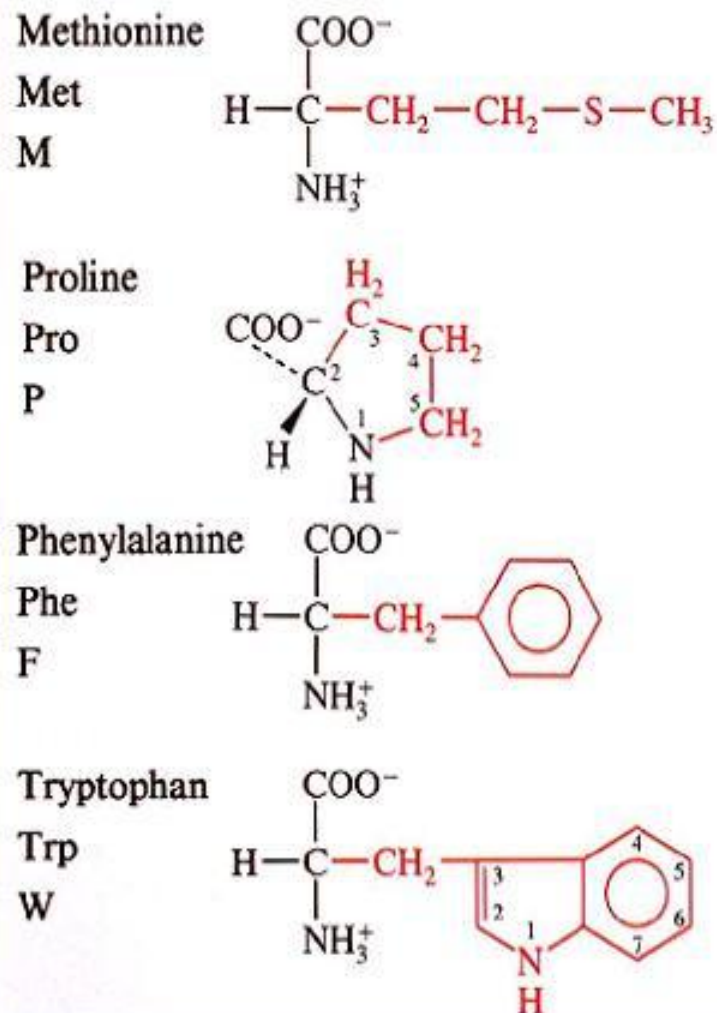
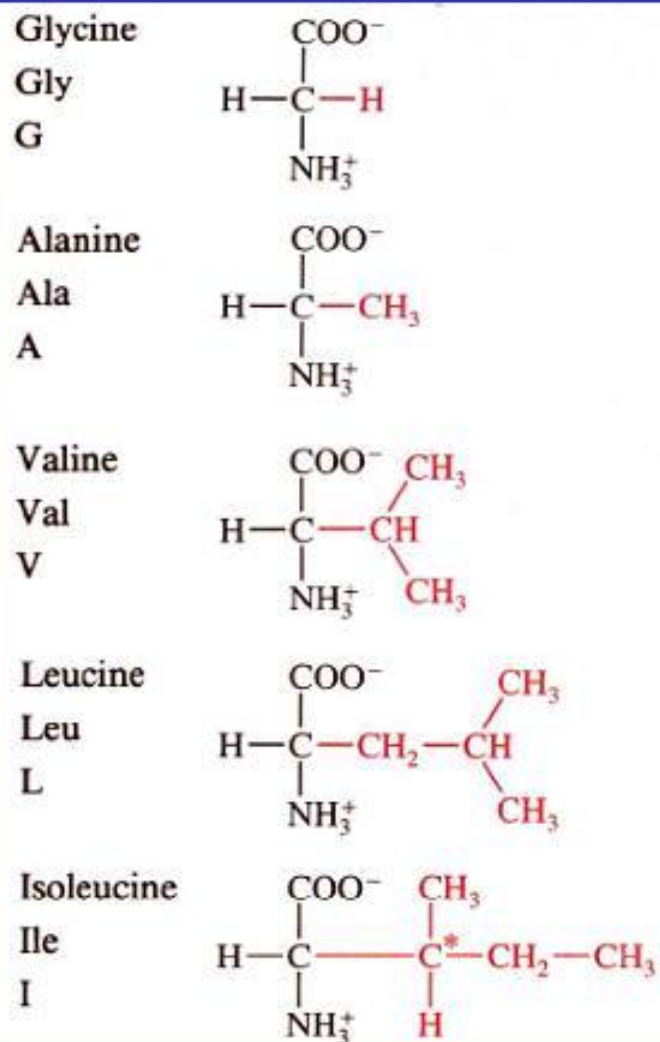


胺基酸的通式結構



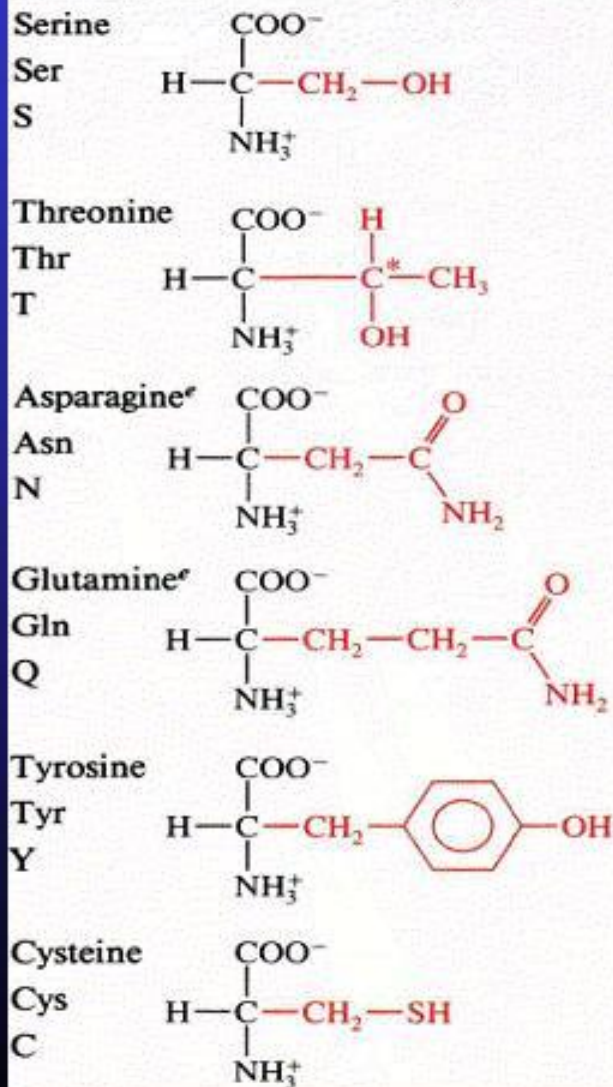
胺基酸的極性結構（zwitterionic form通常發生於生理狀態pH值時）

這常見於細胞中二十種不同的胺基酸的分類可依其分支分子（R部分）的極性來劃分。其中非極性分支端的胺基酸有九種，其分支端的大小與幾何形狀各異。



十一種極性分支端的胺基酸，又可分為六種為帶電極性分支端胺基酸與五種可能帶電極性分支端胺基酸。

Amino acids with uncharged polar side chains



Amino acids with charged polar side chains

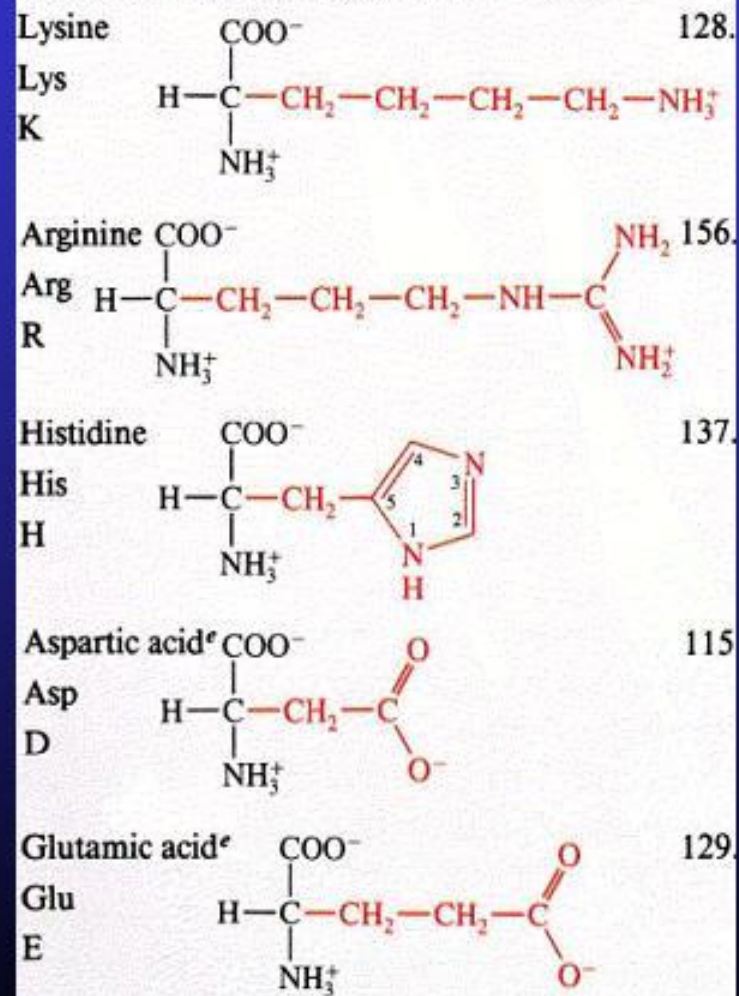


Table 1.2. Proton chemical shifts. The average proton chemical shifts in proteins are shown. These data were obtained from BioMagResBank [52].

| <i>Residue</i> | <i>NH</i> | <i>H_α</i> | <i>H_β</i> | <i>Others</i> |
|----------------|-----------|----------------------|----------------------|--|
| Gly | 8.34 | 3.94 | | |
| Ala | 8.20 | 4.26 | 1.38 | |
| Val | 8.29 | 4.16 | 1.99 | 0.84, 0.83(CH ₃) |
| Ile | 8.26 | 4.20 | 1.80 | 1.30, 1.24 (CH ₂), 0.80 (γCH ₃), 0.70 (δCH ₃) |
| Leu | 8.22 | 4.32 | 1.63,1.57 | 1.54 (γCH), 0.77, 0.76(δCH ₃) |
| Pro | - | 4.41 | 2.05,2.05 | 1.93 (γCH ₂), 3.64, 3.63 (δCH ₂) |
| Ser | 8.29 | 4.51 | 3.88 | 5.33 H _γ (OH) |
| Thr | 8.27 | 4.48 | 4.17 | 1.16 (γCH ₃), 4.40 H _{γ1} (OH) |
| Asp | 8.33 | 4.61 | 2.74,2.70 | |
| Glu | 8.34 | 4.26 | 2.04 | 2.31 (γCH ₂) |
| Lys | 8.22 | 4.28 | 1.79,1.78 | 1.38 (γCH ₂), 1.61 (δCH ₂), 2.93 (εCH ₂), 7.52 (ζNH ₃) |
| Arg | 8.24 | 4.27 | 1.79 | 1.58 (γCH ₂), 3.13 (δCH ₂), 7.32, 6.74, 6.72 (NH) |
| Asn | 8.37 | 4.70 | 2.80,2.78 | 7.27, 7.20 (δNH ₂) |
| Gln | 8.22 | 4.28 | 2.05,2.04 | 2.32 (γCH ₂), 7.17, 7.07 (γNH ₂) |
| Met | 8.26 | 4.39 | 2.03,2.01 | 2.44 (γCH ₂), 1.86 (εCH ₃) |
| Cys | 8.42 | 4.73 | 2.95,2.98 | 1.66 -SH |
| Trp | 8.35 | 4.74 | 3.32,3.18 | 6.68-7.17 (aromatic), 10.13 (NH) |
| Phe | 8.42 | 4.62 | 2.97,2.99 | 6.89-6.91 (aromatic) |
| Tyr | 8.37 | 4.63 | 1.91 | 6.86 (H _δ), 6.64 (H _ε), 9.25 (-OH) |
| His | 8.25 | 4.62 | 3.11,3.12 | H _{δ1} 10.14(NH), H _{δ2} 7.08, H _{ε1} 8.08, H _{ε2} 10.43(NH) |

Note that within a residue, the relationship between atom type and chemical shift is similar for both carbon and proton shifts. For example, in the case of arginine the following ordering is found for both carbon and proton shifts: $\alpha > \delta > \beta > \gamma$ (see

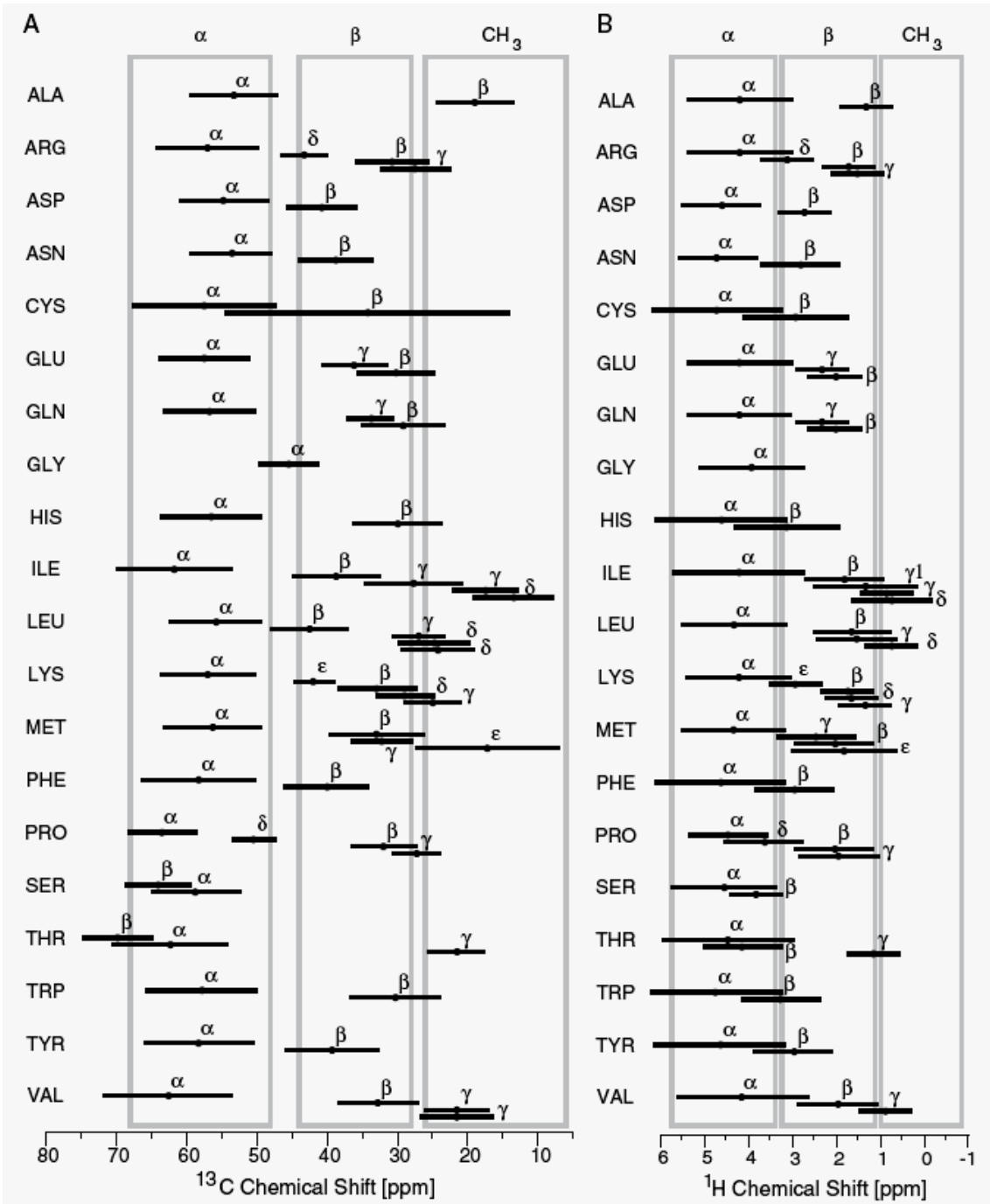
Table 1.3. Nitrogen chemical shifts. The nitrogen chemical shifts for side-chain atoms are shown. The amide nitrogen chemical shifts are ≈ 120 ppm, with the exception of glycine, which is found at 109.9 ppm. Data from BioMagResBank [52].

| <i>Residue</i> | <i>Shifts</i> | <i>Residue</i> | <i>Shifts</i> |
|----------------|---|----------------|--|
| Arg | 89.8 (ϵ), 74.8 NH1, 75.8 NH2 | His | 190.7 (δ 1), 179.8 (ϵ 2) |
| Asn | 112.8 (δ) | Lys | 71.86 (ζ) |
| Gln | 111.8 (ϵ) | Trp | 129.5 (ϵ) |

Table 1.4. Carbon chemical shifts. The average carbon chemical shifts were obtained from the BioMagResBank [52]. Carbonyl shifts have been omitted from this table since they are quite uniform at approximately 175 ppm.

| <i>Residue</i> | C_{α} | C_{β} | <i>Others</i> |
|----------------|--------------|-------------|--|
| Gly | 45.3 | | |
| Ala | 53.1 | 18.9 | |
| Val | 62.5 | 32.6 | 21.3 (CH3) |
| Ile | 61.6 | 38.6 | 27.6 (γ 1), 17.3 (γ CH3), 13.4 (δ CH3) |
| Leu | 55.7 | 42.3 | 26.8 (γ), 24.5 (δ CH3) |
| Pro | 63.3 | 31.8 | 27.1 (γ), 50.3 (δ) |
| Ser | 58.6 | 63.8 | |
| Thr | 62.1 | 69.6 | 21.4 (γ CH3) |
| Asp | 54.5 | 40.7 | 178.41 (γ) sidechain |
| Glu | 57.4 | 30.0 | 36.0 (γ), 181.9 (δ) sidechain |
| Lys | 56.8 | 32.8 | 24.9 (γ), 28.8 (δ), 40 (ϵ) |
| Arg | 56.9 | 30.7 | 27.3 (γ), 43.1 (δ), 159.0 (ζ) |
| Asn | 54.5 | 40.7 | 178.41 (γ) sidechain |
| Gln | 56.6 | 29.1 | 33.7 (γ), 179.7 (δ) sidechain |
| Met | 56.1 | 32.9 | 32.1 (γ), 17.2 (ϵ CH3) |
| Cys | 57.4 | 34.1 | |
| Trp | 57.7 | 30.1 | 110-137 (aromatic) |
| Phe | 58.2 | 40.0 | 129-138 (aromatic) |
| Tyr | 58.0 | 39.1 | 117 (ϵ C), 132 (δ C), 156 (ζ) |
| His | 56.4 | 30.0 | 119.8 (δ 2), 136 (ϵ 1) |

Figure 1.16. Distribution of carbon and proton chemical shifts. The distribution of observed carbon (A, left) and proton (B, right) chemical shifts in proteins. The solid circles (•) mark the average chemical shift. The solid lines indicate $\pm 3\sigma$; 95% of the observed chemical shifts fall within this range. The gray boxes indicate nominal chemical shift ranges for α , β , and methyl atoms. In the case of carbon shifts, these ranges separate the atom types quite well. Note that there are a few exceptions, for example, the β -carbons of Ser and Thr fall in the α -region and the α -carbon of Gly can fall in the β -carbon region. The large range of β -carbon shifts for Cys is due to the fact that both free and disulfide bonded residues are included in this figure. In the case of proton shifts, the separation by atom type is not as clean due to the extensive chemical shift overlap between the various atom types. Data from the BioMagResBank database of chemical shifts [52].



Nitrogen (400 ppm) and carbon (200 ppm) have much larger range of chemical shifts.

In addition to the chemical bonding effect chemical shift is also affected by many external factors, such as: (1) Secondary structure; (2) Hydrogen bonds; (3) Charge near the spin. Positive charge withdraw electrons from the spin and causes de-shielding (Larger chemical shift) and positive charge has the opposite effect. (4) Ring current shift ; (5) Electron spins (paramagnetic shift) etc.

1.6.2 Ring Current Effects

Aromatic groups have delocalized electrons that circulating around the ring and behaves like a coil to generate magnetic fields which affect the chemical shift of adjacent spins.

The dipolar field is given by:

$$\sigma = iB \frac{1 - 3\cos^2\theta}{r^3}$$

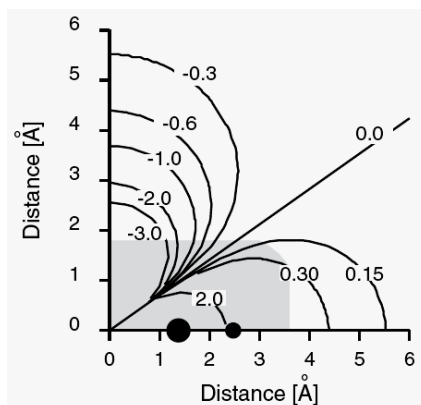


Figure 1.15 Ring current shifts. Calculated ring current shifts for a phenylalanine ring. The x -axis lies in the plane of the ring and the y -axis is perpendicular to the plane of the ring. The location of the carbon and its attached hydrogen are indicated by the large and small spheres, respectively. The large gray area represents the approximate Van der Waals radius of the phenyl group. The lines represent contours of iso-chemical shift changes.

1.6.3.1 Degeneracy and Equivalent Chemical shifts

1.6.4 Use of Chemical Shifts in Resonance Assignments

1.6.5 Chemical Shift Dispersion & Multi-dimensional NMR: Resolving the complex spectrum.

1.7. Exercises