Slow dynamics of solid proteins – Nuclear magnetic resonance relaxometry versus dielectric spectroscopy

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ABSTRACT

1H Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) relaxometry and Dielectric Spectroscopy (DS) have been exploited to investigate the dynamics of solid proteins. The experiments have been carried out in the frequency range of about 10 kHz-40 MHz for NMR relaxometry and 10−2Hz-20 MHz for DS. The data sets have been analyzed in terms of theoretical models allowing for a comparison of the correlation times revealed by NMR relaxometry and DS. The 1H spin–lattice relaxation profiles have been decomposed into relaxation contributions associated with 1H–1H and 1H–14N dipole – dipole interactions. The 1H–1H relaxation contribution has been interpreted in terms of three dynamical processes of time scales of 10−7 s, 10−5 s and 10−8 s. It has turned out that the correlation times do not differ much among proteins and they are only weakly dependent on temperature. The analysis of DS relaxation spectra has also revealed three motional processes characterized by correlation times that considerably depend on temperature in contrast to those obtained from the 1H relaxation. This finding suggest that for solid proteins there is a contribution to the 1H spin–lattice relaxation associated with a kind of motion that is not probed in DS as it does not lead to a reorientation of the electric dipole moment.

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1. Introduction

Revealing the structure and dynamics of biological macromolecules is essential for understanding their biological function. High resolution Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) spectroscopy is a leading method providing access to multi-dimensional protein structure and conformation [1–3]. The impressive achievements in terms of determining protein structure by NMR are, however, not accompanied by a parallel, deep knowledge of protein dynamics, especially when it comes to slow motion (long time-scale dynamics). The most powerful methods of probing slow dynamics of biomolecules are NMR relaxometry and Dielectric Spectroscopy (DS). Although both methods provide information about molecular motion, their physical principles are very different: spin relaxation is a quantum–mechanical phenomenon reflecting time scales and mechanisms of stochastic fluctuations of magnetic dipole–dipole interactions between pairs of nuclei, while dielectric relaxation is a fingerprint of reorientation of the electric dipole moment of a molecule in response to electric fields. In this work these methods are exploited to enquire into dynamical properties of solid proteins.

Standard NMR relaxation experiments are performed only at a single resonance frequency (magnetic field) versus temperature. By applying Fast Field-Cycling technology [4–7], frequency-dependent relaxation experiments have become possible. The typically-covered frequency range is from about 1 kHz to 120 MHz (referring to the 1H resonance frequency). This broad frequency range allows probing of motional processes on time scales from ms to ns in a single experiment [8–11]. At low frequencies the spin relaxation is dominated by slow dynamics, while for successively higher frequencies spin interactions mediated by progressively faster motional processes become more efficient. NMR relaxometry is a unique method probing molecular dynamics on the atomic level. The dominant mechanism of 1H relaxation is provided by magnetic dipole–dipole interactions. The interactions stochastically fluctuate in time due to molecular (atomic) motion. According to spin relaxation theory, relaxation rates are given as linear combinations of spectral density functions (Fourier transform of time correlation functions), characterizing the motion modulating the dipole–dipole interactions [12–15]. For proteins

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there are two 1H relaxation channels: via 1H-1H and 1H-14N dipole–dipole interactions, respectively. The second relaxation pathway gives rise to Quadrupole Relaxation Enhancement (QRE) effects [16–29]. The energy level structure of 1H is fully determined by its Zeeman interaction. At the same time the energy level structure of 14N originates from a superposition of its Zeeman interaction and quadrupole coupling – i.e. a coupling with the electric field gradient tensor at the 14N site, provided the molecular dynamics are slow. When the 1H resonance frequency (the transition frequency between the 1H energy levels) matches one of the 14N transition frequencies, the 1H polarization can be “taken over” by 14N, leading to a frequency-specific enhancement of the 1H spin–lattice relaxation rate referred to as QRE, while the 1H spin–lattice relaxation rate maxima are called quadrupole peaks. The positions of the quadrupole peaks depend on the quadrupole parameters which are determined by the electric field gradient tensor at the 14N site. In consequence, the QRE is a very sensitive fingerprint of molecular arrangement which can be exploited in materials science [19,22–24], biology [25,26], and medicine [27–29].

Dielectric spectroscopy is based on the interaction of an external electric field with the electric dipole moment of the molecule. Dielectric relaxation studies provide information on molecular rotation from the point of view of reorientation of the electric dipole moment of the molecule. The use of DS to probe the motion requires molecules to have a nonzero electric dipole moment. The rotational correlation time probed by DS is a rank-one correlation time associated with magnetic dipole–dipole interactions between two nuclei. For small-step rotational dynamics the rank-one correlation time is three times longer than its rank-two counterpart. One could argue at this stage that the frequency range accessible by DS is much broader than in NMR relaxometry; indeed, this is the case. It is important to realize, however, that DS does not allow to enquire into dynamics of solid proteins occurring on a long time scale. To our knowledge, the presented studies are the first example of combining NMR relaxometry and DS for investigating the dynamics of macromolecules.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 (2.1 and 2.2), the theoretical foundation of 1H relaxation processes in solids and DS is presented – special attention has been turned to a development of a methodology allowing for a comparison of experimental data obtained by means of these two methods. Section 2.3 includes experimental details, while in Section 3 the experimental data are presented, analysed, discussed. Eventually, Section 4 contains concluding remarks.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Theory: 1H spin–lattice relaxation dispersion profiles

1H spin–lattice relaxation for proteins is caused by 1H–1H and 1H-14N magnetic dipole–dipole interactions. Consequently, the overall 1H spin–lattice relaxation rate, $R_1^{\text{1H}}(\omega_H)$ (where $\omega_H$ denotes the 1H resonance frequency in angular frequency units) is a sum of the corresponding relaxation rates $R_1^{\text{HH}}(\omega_H)$ and $R_1^{\text{HN}}(\omega_H)$:

$$R_1(\omega_H) = R_1^{\text{HH}}(\omega_H) + R_1^{\text{HN}}(\omega_H)$$

(1)

In the case of a homogenous (characterized by a single correlation time) dynamics modulating the dipole–dipole interactions and leading to a single-exponential correlation function, the $R_1^{\text{HH}}(\omega_H)$ relaxation contribution is given as [12–15]:

$$R_1^{\text{HH}}(\omega_H) = C^\text{HH} [J(\omega_H) + 4J(2\omega_H)] = C^\text{HH} \left[\frac{\tau_c}{1 + (\omega_H \tau_c)^2} + \frac{4\tau_c}{1 + (2\omega_H \tau_c)^2}\right]$$

(2)

where $\tau_c$ denotes the correlation time of this dynamical process, while $C^\text{HH}$ is referred to as a dipolar relaxation constant; it is defined as: $C^\text{HH} = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{\gamma_1 M_0}{\alpha_1}ight)^2$, where $\gamma_1$ denotes the 1H gyromagnetic factor, while $M_0$ should be treated as an “effective” inter-spin distance
accounting for dipole–dipole interactions between several pairs of protons. The spectral density function, \(J(\omega) = \frac{\omega C_0}{1+(\omega \tau_c^2)^2}\), can be transformed to the co-called susceptibility representation by multiplying it with \(\omega\) (the \(\delta_{\text{DMR}}(\omega, \tau_c)\) function then takes the Debye form given by Eq. (3)):

\[
\delta_{\text{DMR}}(\omega, \tau_c) = \omega J(\omega) = \frac{\omega \tau_c}{1+(\omega \tau_c^2)^2}
\]

(3)

This implies that the \(^1\)H spin–lattice relaxation rates (Eq. (2)) can be expressed in the susceptibility representation as:

\[
\chi_{\text{NMR}}(\omega, \tau_c) = \omega H_{\text{NMR}}^{\text{RHH}}(\omega H) = C_{\text{RHH}}[\delta_{\text{DMR}}(\omega H, \tau_c) + 2\delta_{\text{DMR}}(2\omega H, \tau_c)]
\]

(4)

NMR relaxation studies performed as a function of frequency give access to dynamical processes of different time scales. Relaxation contributions associated with slow dynamics dominate the relaxation at low frequencies, then, with increasing frequency, relaxation times originating from fast fluctuations of the dipole–dipole interactions become progressively more pronounced. Anticipating the results, the \(R_{\text{NMR}}^{\text{RHH}}(\omega H)\) relaxation rates for solid proteins can be expressed as a sum of the following terms [38]:

\[
R_{\text{NMR}}^{\text{RHH}}(\omega H) = C_{\text{NMR}}^{\text{RHH}}\left[\frac{\tau_1^0}{1 + (\omega \tau_1^0)^2} + \frac{4\tau_2^0}{1 + (2\omega \tau_2^0)^2}\right] + C_{\text{RHH}}^{\text{RHH}}\left[\frac{\tau_c^0}{1 + (\omega \tau_c^0)^2} + \frac{4\tau_2^0}{1 + (2\omega \tau_2^0)^2}\right] + A_{\text{RHH}}
\]

(5)

where the pairs of parameters, \((C_{\text{NMR}}^{\text{RHH}}, \tau_1^0), (C_{\text{RHH}}^{\text{RHH}}, \tau_c^0), (C_{\text{RHH}}^{\text{RHH}}, \tau_2^0)\), refer to slow, intermediate and fast dynamical processes, while the frequency-independent term, \(A\), describes a relaxation contribution associated with a time-scale shorter than \(10^{-5}\) s. For such short correlation times the condition \(\omega H \tau_c^0 << 1\) holds and, therefore, the corresponding relaxation rate does not show a dependence on \(\omega H\). The index (2) in the correlation times, \(\tau_1^0, \tau_2^0, \tau_c^0\), explicitly points out that the quantities are rank-two correlation times, as magnetic dipole–dipole interactions are rank-two spin interactions. For convenience we shall refer to the first, second and third terms of Eq. (5) as \(R_{\text{NMR}}^{\text{RHH}}, R_{\text{RHH}}^{\text{RHH}}\) and \(A_{\text{RHH}}\), respectively. In analogy to Eq. (4) one can transform Eq. (5) to the susceptibility representation:

\[
\chi_{\text{NMR}} = \chi_{\text{NMR}1} + \chi_{\text{NMR}2} + \chi_{\text{NMR}3} = C_{\text{NMR}}^{\text{RHH}}[\delta_{\text{DMR}}(\omega, \tau_1^0)] + 2C_{\text{NMR}}^{\text{RHH}}[2\delta_{\text{DMR}}(2\omega, \tau_2^0)] + C_{\text{RHH}}^{\text{RHH}}[\delta_{\text{DMR}}(\omega, \tau_c^0)] + 2C_{\text{RHH}}^{\text{RHH}}[2\delta_{\text{DMR}}(2\omega, \tau_2^0)] + A_{\text{RHH}}
\]

(6)

As far as the \(^1\)H–\(^{14}\)N relaxation contribution is concerned, the \(R_{\text{NMR}}^{\text{RHH}}(\omega H)\) relaxation rate can be expressed as in terms of Eq. (4) of [38], based on [51]. The model predicts the existence of three frequency specific relaxation maxima referred to as quadrupole peaks caused by the QRE effects [16–29,51]. The quadrupole peaks appear at the frequencies: \(\nu_c = \frac{\omega_c}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2}a_0(1 - \frac{1}{2})\), \(\nu_s = \frac{\omega_s}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2}a_0(1 + \frac{1}{2})\) and \(\nu_0 = \nu_c = \frac{\omega_0}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2}a_0\), where \(a_0\) and \(\eta\) describe the amplitude and the asymmetry parameter of the quadrupole coupling, respectively. The amplitude is defined as: \(a_0 = e^2Q/\hbar\) where \(Q\) denotes the quadrupole moment of the nucleus, while \(q\) is the \(zz\) component of the electric field gradient tensor at its site. The model also involves angles \(\Theta\) and \(\Phi\) describing the orientation of the \(^1\)H–\(^{14}\)N dipole–dipole axis with respect to the principal axis system of the electric field gradient at the \(^{14}\)N site, a correlation time \(\tau_0\) characterizing fluctuations of the \(^1\)H–\(^{14}\)N dipole–dipole coupling and the \(^1\)H–\(^{14}\)N inter-spin distance, \(\delta_{\text{NN}}\).

2.2. Dielectric relaxation spectra

Keeping a close analogy between the labeling of NMR and DS quantities (although the labeling somewhat differs from the traditional nomenclature of DS), dielectric relaxation spectra can be modeled in terms of the Cole-Davidson function [53]:

\[
\chi_{\text{DS}} = C_{\text{DS}}[\delta_{\text{DS}}(\omega, \tau_1^1)] = C_{\text{DS}}\left[\frac{\sin[\arctan(\omega(\tau_1^1/\beta))] / (1 + (\omega(\tau_1^1/\beta))^2)^{0.5}}{1 + (\omega(\tau_1^1/\beta))^2} \right]
\]

(7)

There are other functions used in DS for this purpose, for instance Cole-Cole or Havriliak-Negami functions [53–55], but the Cole-Davidson form has been chosen here, anticipating the DS results for solid proteins. The parameter \(\beta\) is in the range of \(0 < \beta < 1\); for \(\beta = 1\) the Cole-Davidson function converges to the Debye form. For \(\beta < 1\) the Cole-Davidson function becomes broader on the high frequency site compared to the Debye function. This implies a distribution of correlation times (i.e. heterogeneous dynamics). It is of primary importance to note that the correlation time, \(\tau_1^1\), probed in DS is a rank-one correlation function. For small step rotational dynamics the relationship \(\tau_1^1 = 3\tau_0^2\) holds. The pre-factor \(C_{\text{DS}}\) (a dielectric relaxation constant) in Eq. (7) describes the amplitude of the dielectric relaxation peak.

Anticipating further the experimental results, the dielectric relaxation spectra can be described in terms of three relaxation peaks of the Cole-Davidson shape:

\[
\chi_{\text{DS}} = C_{\text{DS}} \delta_{\text{DS}}(\omega, \tau_1^1) + C_{\text{DS}} \delta_{\text{DS}}(\omega, \tau_2^1) + C_{\text{DS}} \delta_{\text{DS}}(\omega, \tau_3^1)
\]

\[
+ B \omega^{-s} \sin[\arctan(\omega(\tau_1^1/\beta))] / (1 + (\omega(\tau_1^1/\beta))^2)^{0.5}
\]

\[
+ C_{\text{DS}} \left[\frac{\sin[\arctan(\omega(\tau_1^1/\beta))] / (1 + (\omega(\tau_1^1/\beta))^2)^{0.5}}{1 + (\omega(\tau_1^1/\beta))^2} \right]
\]

\[
+ B \omega^{-s} \sin[\arctan(\omega(\tau_1^1/\beta))] / (1 + (\omega(\tau_1^1/\beta))^2)^{0.5}
\]

(8)

The indexes “es”, “s” and “i” refer to extra-slow, slow and intermediate dynamics. The labeling is meant to match the time scale of the dynamical processes revealed in the NMR relaxometry experiments. The “classification” of the time scales of the dynamical processes can be somewhat problematic – in principle, one could ask why Eq. (8) does not refer to slow, intermediate and fast dynamics, in analogy to Eq. (6). Anticipating the results, we can say that the fast dynamics identified in the analysis of the \(^1\)H spin–lattice relaxation dispersion profiles is characterized by correlation times of the order of \(10^{-5}\) s; so fast processes are not seen in the dielectric experiments in the considered frequency range. The parameters \(B\) and \(\alpha\) characterize the conductivity contribution to the dielectric relaxation spectra.

2.3. Experimental details

\(^1\)H spin–lattice relaxation experiments were performed in the frequency range from 4 kHz to 30 MHz (referring to \(^1\)H resonance frequency) using an FFC relaxometer (Stelar S.r.l., Mede, Italy, Spinmaster 2000). For frequencies above 10 MHz initial pre-polarization at 25 MHz has been applied (expressing the magnetic field as the equivalent \(^1\)H resonance frequency). The duration of the radio-frequency pulse was 8 \(\mu\)s, the detection frequency was
15.8 MHz, the slew rate of the magnetic field was 12 MHz/ms and the repetition delay time was five times larger than the spin–lattice relaxation time at the frequency of 30 MHz. The ¹H magnetization curves were recorded with 8 accumulations for 16 logarithmically-spaced time intervals. Temperature was controlled with an accuracy of 0.5 K. The relaxation process turned out to be single-exponential for all proteins at all temperatures in the whole frequency range.

DS measurements were performed using a Novacontrol impedance analyzer operating in the frequency range from 10 – 2 Hz to 20 MHz. Temperature was controlled using a nitrogen gas cryostat with an accuracy of 0.5 K. The measurements were conducted using a parallel-plate steel capacitor of 20 mm diameter.

The proteins studied were as follows: Elastin from bovine neck ligament, Lysozyme from hen egg white, Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) and Myoglobin from equine heart were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich in the form of lyophilized powder. In addition, ¹H spin–lattice relaxation measurements for hydrated elastin (10% wt and 37%wt of water) and hydrated lysozyme (24%wt of water) were performed for comparison. The essential structural properties of the first three proteins have been outlined in [38]. BSA and lysozyme are globular, while elastin is a fibrillar protein. Molecular weights of BSA is 66.4 kDa [56], the number of amino acids: 583 [57]. The helical content of BSA reaches 53%, 14% of BSA structure forms β– sheets, 4% forms β– turns and 16% is random [58]. The molecular weight of lysozyme is 13.9 kDa.; the α– helical content ranges from 26 to 31 % and β structure content varies between 11 and 16% [59,60]. The elastin monomer, tropoelastin, weights about 70 kDa, the helical content of elastin is about 10%, while about 35% of the structure forms β– strands [61,62]. Myoglobin is also a globular protein; its molecular weight is 16.7KDa. It contains 154 amino acids and consists of eight alpha helices. Myoglobin contains a porphyrin ring with an iron at its centre and attached histidine groups [63,64].

3. Results and discussion

3.1. ¹H spin–lattice NMR relaxation dispersion profiles

The ¹H spin–lattice relaxation profiles for the solid proteins: bovine Elastin (293 K, 312 K), Lysozyme from hen egg white (293 K, 363 K), BSA (233 K) and Myoglobin from equine heart (293 K) are shown in Fig. 1. The data for Lysozyme and BSA are in good agreement with those reported in [65] at 302 K, although in the present case the QRE effects have been investigated in much more detail.

The first observation is that the relaxation profiles do not differ much. They only slightly change with temperature. The data for bovine elastin, lysozyme and BSA at 308 K shown in [38] confirm this statement. Moreover, the relaxation profiles are similar for all proteins, despite their different structures. The last statement should, however, be treated with caution: contrary to the other proteins, myoglobin does not show QRE effects.

The NMR relaxation data have been analyzed in terms of Eq. (1) with \( R_{11}(\omega) \) described by Eq. (5) and \( R_{10}(\omega) \). For myoglobin the \( R_{10}(\omega) \) relaxation contribution has been omitted. The result of the analysis is shown in Fig. 2. The obtained parameters are collected in Table 1.

The correlation times characterizing the slow dynamical process, \( \tau_i^{(2)} \), varies between \( 2.33 \times 10^{-6} s \) and \( 3.86 \times 10^{-4} s \) (the ratio between the correlation times is below 2). The correlation times \( \tau_i^{(2)} \) and \( \tau_i^{(3)} \) do not vary much either; \( \tau_i^{(3)} \) ranges between \( 1.23 \times 10^{-3} s \) and \( 3.09 \times 10^{-3} s \), while for \( \tau_i^{(2)} \) the span reaches \( 6.32 \times 10^{-5} s \) – \( 2.09 \times 10^{-6} s \). Analogously, the corresponding dipolar relaxation constants show only small variations between the proteins. The frequency independent term, \( A \), can be attributed to the fast dynamics of methyl groups. The quadrupole parameters, \( a_0 \) and \( \eta \), have been determined from the positions of the QRE maxima (quadrupole peaks). They are similar for elastin, lysozyme and BSA. This is not surprising taking into account that the protein backbones in all proteins have the same local structure and the ¹H–¹¹N relaxation contribution stems from ¹H–¹¹N dipole–dipole interactions in the protein backbone amide groups. The correlation times, \( \tau_{0i} \), characterizing the fluctuations of the ¹H–¹¹N dipole–dipole coupling are also very similar for all proteins; the correlation times are in all cases somewhat shorter than \( \tau_i^{(2)} \), but longer than \( \tau_i^{(3)} \). The effective fluctuations of the ¹H–¹¹N dipole–dipole interactions originate from the molecular dynamics and the quadrupole relaxation of ¹¹N. The second contribution leads to a shortening of the effective correlation time. One can also expect ¹H–¹¹N relaxation contributions associated with the intermediate and fast dynamics. Quadrupole peaks are, however, observed only for slow dynamics. This implies that one can hardly reveal possible ¹H–¹¹N relaxation contributions associated with a relatively fast motion, especially as the terms are small (\( \gamma_n \) is small) – they are masked by the ¹H–¹H relaxation contributions. The ¹H–¹¹N inter–spin distance is longer than the one reported in the literature [66] the ¹H–¹¹N bond length in amide groups (about 1 Å). The same situation has been reported in [38]. One should, however, take into account that Eq. (4) of Ref. [38] describes QRE effects for a system including one ¹H and one ¹¹N nuclei. Considering more nuclei into the description would mean including numerous (unknown) parameters. Though, there are longer–range dipole–dipole couplings between non–bonded ¹H and ¹¹N nuclei contributing to the effect. Furthermore, the ratio between the number of involved ¹H and ¹¹N nuclei is not 1:1. To understand why QRE effects are not seen for myoglobin one should realize that in this compound paramagnetic Fe centres are placed in the vicinity of ¹¹N nuclei, The fast electronic relaxation acts as an additional source of the ¹¹N relaxation, leading to a broadening (in fact, to the extent of disappearance) of the quadrupole peaks. In other words: the ¹H–¹¹N dipole–dipole coupling fluctuates in time as a result of the protein dynamics and the ¹¹N relaxation that originates from two sources: local fluctuations of the electric field gradient tensor and dipole–dipole interactions between ¹¹N and the electron spin of the paramagnetic center. The second contribution can make the ¹¹N relaxation fast, shortening the effective correlation time, \( \tau_{0i} \)
Table 1
Parameters obtained from the analysis of the $^1$H spin–lattice relaxation data, (+) - not adjustable parameters.

| parameter | elastin | lysozyme | BSA | myoglobin |
|-----------|---------|----------|-----|-----------|
| $T$ / K   | 293     | 312      | 293 | 363       | 233 | 293 |
| $C_{\text{M}}$ / Hz$^2$ | $7.85 \times 10^7$ | $7.33 \times 10^7$ | $7.43 \times 10^7$ | $1.26 \times 10^8$ |
| $\tau_{\text{M}}$ / s  | $3.09 \times 10^{-6}$ | $2.53 \times 10^{-6}$ | $3.86 \times 10^{-6}$ | $3.46 \times 10^{-6}$ | $3.28 \times 10^{-6}$ | $2.33 \times 10^{-6}$ |
| $C_{\text{H}}$ / Hz$^2$ | $2.84 \times 10^8$ | $2.77 \times 10^8$ | $2.36 \times 10^8$ | $2.63 \times 10^8$ |
| $\tau_{\text{H}}$ / s  | $1.88 \times 10^{-7}$ | $1.23 \times 10^{-7}$ | $3.09 \times 10^{-7}$ | $1.51 \times 10^{-7}$ | $1.97 \times 10^{-7}$ | $2.30 \times 10^{-7}$ |
| $\tau_{\text{H}}$ / s  | $4.21 \times 10^{-5}$ | $4.52 \times 10^{-5}$ | $4.31 \times 10^{-5}$ | $6.31 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| $A$ / s$^{-1}$  | $1.72 \times 10^{-8}$ | $1.14 \times 10^{-8}$ | $2.09 \times 10^{-9}$ | $6.32 \times 10^{-9}$ | $1.77 \times 10^{-8}$ | $1.80 \times 10^{-8}$ |
| $\Delta / \text{s}$  | $6.97$ | $5.87$ | $5.34$ | $1.38$ | $6.18$ | $8.60$ |
| $\omega_0$ / MHz  | $3.38$ | $3.37$ | $3.37$ | $4.33$ | $3.18$ | $-2$ |
| $(\times)$ - | 0.41 | 0.40 | 0.44 | 0.43 | 0.44 | $-2$ |
| $\tau_0$ / s  | $1.21 \times 10^{-6}$ | $1.20 \times 10^{-6}$ | $1.01 \times 10^{-6}$ | $8.82 \times 10^{-7}$ | $8.89 \times 10^{-7}$ | $-2$ |
| $\theta_{\text{v}}$ / $\text{Å}$  | 1.64 | 1.64 | 1.71 | 1.71 | 1.69 | $-2$ |
| $\phi_{\text{a}}$  | 69 | 70 | 62 | 61 | 41 | $-2$ |
| $\phi_{\text{a}}$  | 50 | 52 | 41 | 33 | 38 | $-2$ |
| rel. error (%) | 7.4 | 7.3 | 5.8 | 9.4 | 8.4 | 7.9 |

Fig. 2. $^1$H spin–lattice relaxation rates, $R_{\text{HH}}$; black lines – theoretical fits decomposed into the individual relaxation contributions: $R_{\text{HH}1}$ (green lines), $R_{\text{HH}2}$ (orange lines), $R_{\text{HH}3}$ (brown lines); $A$ (light blue lines) and $R_{\text{HN}1}$ (pink lines). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)
and, hence, leading to the condition: \(2\pi \tau_0 T_2 \ll 1\) being fulfilled. In such a case one does not observe QRE effects.

It is interesting to mention that a large amount of water is needed for the protein dynamics to change. Fig. 3 shows \(^1\)H spin–lattice relaxation dispersion profiles for hydrated elastin and lysozyme. Even the hydration level is high (37\%wt for elastin and 24\%wt for lysozyme), the differences between the shapes of the relaxation data are not significant.

3.2. Dielectric relaxation spectra

The dielectric relaxation spectra for bovine Elastin, Lysozyme from hen egg white, BSA and Myoglobin from equine heart are shown in Fig. 4. The color scheme has been chosen to match the colors of the corresponding NMR relaxation profiles.

Before proceeding with the analysis the spectra were normalized (the amplitude of the maxima being set to unity) and displayed in Fig. 5. The spectra for which there is no maximum present in the discussed frequency range have been omitted (lysozyme and BSA at 293 K and 312 K).

In order to compare the results of NMR relaxometry and DS, a sum of the NMR susceptibility functions \(\chi_{NMR}(\omega, \tau_1(1))\), \(\chi_{NMR}(\omega, \tau_1(2))\) and \(\chi_{NMR}(\omega, \tau_1(3))\) (where \(\omega_0\) has been replaced by \(\omega\) for simplicity) for \(\tau_1(1) = 3\tau_1(2), \tau_1(1) = 3\tau_1(2)\) and \(\tau_1(2) = 3\tau_1(2)\) (using the values of \(\tau_1(2), \tau_1(2)\) and \(\tau_1(2)\) obtained from the analysis of the \(^1\)H spin–lattice relaxation dispersion profiles) has been plotted in Fig. 6a,b for elastin at 293 K and 312 K. The ratios between the amplitudes of the relaxation peaks have been set as equal to the ratios between the corresponding dipolar relaxation constants. It has turned out that although shifted towards high frequencies, the resulting peaks capture some features of the dielectric relaxation spectra. Following Eq. (8) one can reproduce the dielectric relaxation spectra in terms of three Cole-Davidson contributions as shown in Fig. 6c, d. The analysis has revealed a relaxation peak...
Dielectric relaxation spectra, \( \chi_{\text{DS}}(\omega) \), for solid elastin, lysozyme, BSA and myoglobin were normalized in such a way so the maxima of the dielectric relaxation peaks reached the value of 1.

![Graph of dielectric relaxation spectra](image)

**Fig. 5.** Dielectric relaxation spectra, \( \chi_{\text{DS}}(\omega) \), for solid elastin, lysozyme, BSA and myoglobin were normalized in such a way so the maxima of the dielectric relaxation peaks reached the value of 1.

at very low frequencies, masked by the conductivity term – the corresponding correlation time has been denoted as \( \tau_{1}^{C} \) (as anticipated in Eq. (8)). The obtained parameters are collected in Table 2.

The dielectric spectra can, however, be also quite well reproduced in terms of three motional processes with the correlations times \( \tau_{1}^{C} = 3\tau_{3}^{C} \), \( \tau_{2}^{C} = 3\tau_{2}^{C} \) and \( \tau_{2}^{C} = 3\tau_{2}^{C} \) (where \( \tau_{3}^{C}, \tau_{2}^{C} \) and \( \tau_{2}^{C} \) are obtained from the analysis of the \( ^1\text{H} \) spin–lattice relaxation dispersion profiles) by adjusting their relative contributions, i.e. the \( C_{1}^{\text{DS}}, C_{2}^{\text{DS}} \) and \( C_{3}^{\text{DS}} \) parameters as shown in Fig. 6e,f. The concept of interpreting the dielectric relaxation spectra in terms of Eq. (8) has also been applied to the dielectric data for solid elastin at 273 K, 253 K and 233 K. The results are shown in Fig. 7a-c, while the obtained parameters are collected in Table 2. At these temperatures the extra slow process is masked by the conductivity (the conductivity contribution is not explicitly shown but included into the overall fit). The parameters \( C_{1}^{\text{DS}}, C_{2}^{\text{DS}} \) and \( C_{3}^{\text{DS}} \) remain unchanged. Following this concept, the corresponding dielectric spectra for lysozyme at 273 K, 253 K and 233 K have also been interpreted in terms of Eq. (8) as shown in Fig. 7d-e. The obtained parameters are collected in Table 3. For lysozyme one cannot compare the dielectric relaxation spectrum at 293 K with the corresponding susceptibility curves for the correlation times obtained from the analysis of the \( ^1\text{H} \) spin–lattice relaxation dispersion profile, because at this temperature the maximum of the dielectric relaxation spectrum is not visible in the considered frequency range.

The correlation times, \( \tau_{1}^{C} \), \( \tau_{2}^{C} \) and \( \tau_{2}^{C} \) for elastin and lysozyme are plotted versus reciprocal temperature in Fig. 8a, b. In addition, the correlation times obtained in [38] for elastin and lysozyme at 308 K have been included in the figure.

Comparing the dielectric relaxation spectrum for BSA at 233 K (Fig. 9a) with the susceptibility curves corresponding to the parameters obtained from the analysis of the \( ^1\text{H} \) spin–lattice relaxation data, one can easily see that the dielectric spectrum cannot be reproduced in terms of the correlation times \( \tau_{1}^{C} = 3\tau_{3}^{C} \), \( \tau_{2}^{C} = 3\tau_{2}^{C} \) and \( \tau_{2}^{C} = 3\tau_{2}^{C} \) by adjusting the relative contributions of these processes. However, in analogy to elastin and lysozyme, the dielectric spectra for BSA at 233 K, 253 K and 273 K have been analyzed in terms of Eq. (8) (Fig. 9b-d); the obtained parameters are included in Table 4.

Fig. 8c shows the comparison of the correlation times \( \tau_{1}^{C} \), \( \tau_{2}^{C} \) and \( \tau_{2}^{C} \) for BSA including the values for 308 K taken from [38].

As far as myoglobin is concerned, in the first step (in analogy to elastin) a sum of the NMR susceptibility functions \( \chi_{\text{NMR}}(\omega, \tau_{i}^{C}) \), \( \chi_{\text{NMR}}(\omega, \tau_{i}^{C}) \) and \( \chi_{\text{NMR}}(\omega, \tau_{i}^{C}) \) for \( \tau_{1}^{C} = 3\tau_{3}^{C} \), \( \tau_{2}^{C} = 3\tau_{2}^{C} \) and \( \tau_{2}^{C} = 3\tau_{2}^{C} \) (using the values of \( \tau_{3}^{C}, \tau_{2}^{C} \) and \( \tau_{2}^{C} \) obtained from the analysis of the \( ^1\text{H} \) spin–lattice relaxation dispersion profiles) has been compared in Fig. 11a with the normalized dielectric spectrum at 293 K, keeping the ratios between the amplitudes of the relaxation peaks equal to those between the corresponding dipolar relaxation constants. The resulting peak is shifted, analogous to the case of elastin. Fig. 11b shows the result of reproducing the dielectric spectrum in terms of Eq. (8), including the extra-slow and slow processes. Looking at the figure one can wonder why the two Cole-Davidson contributions have not been attributed to the slow and intermediate processes, respectively. As already explained, the labelling is not straightforward, but to make it easier we have chosen to refer to fast dynamics only when the corresponding correlation time is of the order of \( 10^{-4}\text{s} \) or shorter. The obtained parameters are collected in Table 5. Then, in Fig. 10c the dielectric spectrum has been reproduced, keeping the correlation times obtained from the analysis of the \( ^1\text{H} \) spin–lattice relaxation data, but adjusting the contributions of the corresponding susceptibility curves, by changing the amplitudes \( C_{1}^{\text{DS}}, C_{2}^{\text{DS}} \) and \( C_{3}^{\text{DS}} \).

The dielectric relaxation spectra for myoglobin for the remaining temperatures, 312 K, 273 K, 253 K and 233 K, decomposed into the individual Cole-Davidson contributions are shown in Fig. 11. For 312 K only the extra slow and slow processes are visible (in analogy to 293 K), at the lower temperatures, 273 K, 253 K and 233 K, the contribution associated with the intermediate dynamics...
enters the frequency window. The parameters characterising the Cole-Davidson susceptibility curves are included in Table 5, while the obtained correlation times are compared in Fig. 8d.

Before we begin the discussion we wish to point out that the purpose of the paper is not to demonstrate an agreement (or a disagreement) between the results obtained from NMR relaxometry...
and DS. On the basis of the presented data, one is not able to draw ultimate conclusions. The comparison, however, should stimulate a discussion about the mechanisms of motion in proteins (in particular) and analogies between the findings of NMR relaxometry and DS (in general).

In the first step a description of the NMR relaxation profiles and DS relaxation spectra allowing for a comparison of the parameters obtained by reproducing both types of results has been proposed. In both cases the data have been modelled in terms of the same spectral density (susceptibility) forms. Such a comparison would not be possible for a power-law model of the $^1$H relaxation processes. However, independently of the model, the data clearly show that the dynamics reflected by the $^1$H relaxation is very similar for all proteins and only weakly dependent on temperature. This does not apply to the DS data. This might bring one to the conclusion that the methods probe different kinds of protein dynamics. At this stage it is worth pointing out that for simple molecules (such as glycerol) [50,51] the agreement between the parameters describing their rotational dynamics obtained by means of NMR relaxometry and DS are in a very good agreement. Coming back to the parameters obtained from the analysis of the NMR relaxation data, one might attribute the slow and intermediate dynamical processes (characterized by the correlation times $\tau_s^{(2)}$ and $\tau_i^{(2)}$) to global motions of whole protein domains [38,52], however this statement is hypothetical. Actually, instead of introducing the slow and intermediate processes one could reproduce the $^1$H relaxation profiles by assuming a distribution of correlation times covering both the contributions. The fast motional process ($\tau_f^{(2)}$) could be associated with dynamics of structural elements, like $\alpha$-helices [38,53].

Comparing the correlation times obtained by means of NMR and DS for elastin one can get the impression of a relatively good agreement (Figs. 6 and 8a). One can also see from Fig. 6 that the DS relaxation spectra can be reproduced in terms of different models – one can use the Cole-Davidson form of the susceptibility function, but one can also reach this goal by using the correlation times obtained from the analysis of the $^1$H relaxation data, employing the relationship $\tau_s^{(1)} = 3\tau_s^{(2)}$ and adjusting the amplitudes of the Debye contributions – there is no reason to follow the relationship between the dipolar relaxation constants in the analysis of the dielectric spectra. It is interesting to recognize that the temperature shift in the position of the dielectric spectra (293 K and 312 K, Fig. 5) can be achieved by changing the relative amplitudes of the contributing processes, keeping the correlation times only weakly temperature-dependent (as obtained from the analysis of

![Figure 7](image-url)  
Fig. 7. Normalized dielectric relaxation spectra for elastin at 273 K, 253 K and 233 K for (a), (b), (c) elastin and (d), (e), (f) lysozyme reproduced in terms of Eq. (8) and decomposed into the individual contributions – conductivity (grey dashed line), extra slow process (purple dashed line), slow process (green dashed line) and intermediate process (orange dashed line); black solid lines – overall fits including the conductivity term. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

| Table 3 | Parameters obtained from the analysis of dielectric relaxation spectra for lysozyme.  
| CDS;es / CDS;es = 0.69, CDS;es / CDS;es = 1.23.  
| T / K | 233 | 253 | 273  
| $\tau_s^{(1)} / s$ | $1.12 \times 10^{-2}$ | $1.37 \times 10^{-3}$ | $3.21 \times 10^{-4}$  
| $\beta_m$ | 0.42 | 0.42 | 0.50  
| $\tau_s^{(2)} / s$ | $1.09 \times 10^{-3}$ | $1.48 \times 10^{-4}$ | $3.20 \times 10^{-5}$  
| $\beta_s$ | 0.44 | 0.48 | 0.60  
| $\tau_i^{(2)} / s$ | $1.13 \times 10^{-4}$ | $1.55 \times 10^{-5}$ | $3.75 \times 10^{-6}$  
| $\beta_i$ | 0.40 | 0.45 | 0.70  
| rel. error (%) | 11.7 | 10.6 | 13.1  

This strategy can, however, be hardly continued down to 233 K and one might wonder to which extent it is physically justified. The correlation times obtained for lysozyme (Fig. 8b) can be considered as being potentially consistent, provided the dynamics associated with the $^1$H relaxation slows down with temperature. This effect cannot be excluded, however it has not been observed for BSA (Fig. 8c). As far as the possible mechanisms of the dynamical processes contributing to the DS relaxation spectra are concerned, they are also unknown. In [49] the dielectric peaks for dry lysozyme (being with a good agreement

![Fig. 8. Comparison of correlation time obtained by means of NMR relaxometry and DS.](image)

![Fig. 9. (a) Normalized dielectric relaxation spectra for BSA at 233 K compared with the $\chi_{NMR}^{es}$ (green solid line), $\chi_{NMR}^{s}$ (orange solid line) and $\chi_{NMR}^{i}$ (pink solid line) relaxation rates (corresponding to $\tau_{NMR}^{es}$, $\tau_{NMR}^{s}$, and $\tau_{NMR}^{i}$, respectively); (b), (c), (d) normalized dielectric relaxation spectra for BSA at 233 K, 253 K and 273 K reproduced in terms of Eq. (8) and decomposed into the individual contributions – extra slow process (purple dashed line), slow process (green dashed line) and intermediate process (orange dashed line); black solid lines – overall fits. (In (c) and (d)) the conductivity contribution is not explicitly shown, but it is included into the overall fit). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

![Table 4](image)

| T / K  | 233 | 253 | 273 |
|-------|-----|-----|-----|
| $\tau_{es}^{(1)} / s$ | $3.31 \times 10^{-3}$ | $4.05 \times 10^{-4}$ | $7.85 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| $\beta_{es}$ | 0.40 | 0.40 | 0.42 |
| $\tau_{s}^{(1)} / s$ | $4.05 \times 10^{-4}$ | $6.41 \times 10^{-5}$ | $8.45 \times 10^{-6}$ |
| $\beta_{s}$ | 0.40 | 0.40 | 0.40 |
| $\tau_{i}^{(1)} / s$ | $3.25 \times 10^{-5}$ | $1.05 \times 10^{-5}$ | $1.31 \times 10^{-6}$ |
| $\beta_{i}$ | 0.45 | 0.55 | 0.63 |
| rel. error (%) | 7.9 | 8.7 | 10.7 |

the NMR relaxation data). This strategy can, however, be hardly continued down to 233 K and one might wonder to which extent it is physically justified. The correlation times obtained for lysozyme (Fig. 8b) can be considered as being potentially consistent, provided the dynamics associated with the $^1$H relaxation slows down with temperature. This effect cannot be excluded, however it has not been observed for BSA (Fig. 8c). As far as the possible mechanisms of the dynamical processes contributing to the DS relaxation spectra are concerned, they are also unknown. In [49] the dielectric peaks for dry lysozyme (being with a good agreement...
with our data) have been attributed to structural relaxation of ill-defined mechanism (the have not been decomposed into individual contributions). For myoglobin the correlation times $\tau_s^2$ is more close to $\tau_s^1$ than to $\tau_i^1$ (omitting any scaling).

The overview of the parameters obtained by means of NMR relaxometry and DS can suggest that a significant contribution to the $^1H$ relaxation rates is associated with dynamics that is not probed in DS. The question whether, for instance, fluctuations propagating along the protein backbone can give rise to such a relaxation contribution remains open. In any case, we are of the opinion that the “model-free” approach provides a valuable insight into the protein dynamics, allowing determination of its time scale (that can hardly be obtained in terms of a power-law) and reflecting the heterogeneity of the dynamics.

### Table 5

Parameters obtained from the analysis of dielectric relaxation spectra for myoglobin. $C_{\text{DS1}}/C_{\text{DS1}} = 1.02, C_{\text{DS1}}/C_{\text{DS1}} = 1.07$.

| T / K  | 233  | 253  | 273  | 293  | 312  |
|-------|------|------|------|------|------|
| $\tau_s^{1}/s$ | $3.28 \times 10^{-1}$ | $1.39 \times 10^{-4}$ | $1.21 \times 10^{-5}$ | $1.84 \times 10^{-6}$ | $6.21 \times 10^{-7}$ |
| $\beta_s$ | 0.45  | 0.67  | 0.83  | 1    | 1    |
| $\tau_s^{1}/s$ | $2.50 \times 10^{-4}$ | $1.75 \times 10^{-5}$ | $2.05 \times 10^{-6}$ | $4.29 \times 10^{-7}$ | $1.59 \times 10^{-7}$ |
| $\beta_s$ | 0.75  | 0.86  | 0.86  | 0.86 | 0.86 |
| $\tau_i^{1}/s$ | $3.15 \times 10^{-5}$ | $2.75 \times 10^{-6}$ | $3.45 \times 10^{-7}$ | $-$  | $-$  |
| $\beta_i$ | 0.66  | 0.66  | 0.91  | $-$  | $-$  |
| rel. error (%) | 32.1  | 15.9  | 13.8  | 15.3 | 17.4 |

Fig. 10. a) Normalized dielectric relaxation spectrum for myoglobin at 293 K compared with the $R_{\text{H}}^{\text{rel}}$ relaxation contribution in the susceptibility representation ($\chi_{\text{NMR}}$) decomposed into $R_{\text{H}}^{\text{es}}$ (green solid line), $R_{\text{H}}^{\text{s}}$ (orange solid line) and $R_{\text{H}}^{\text{i}}$ (pink solid line) relaxation rates (corresponding to $\chi_{\text{NMR}}, \chi_{\text{NMR}}$ and $\chi_{\text{NMR}}$, respectively); b) normalized $\chi_{\text{NMR}}$ reproduced in terms of Eq. (8) and decomposed into the individual contributions – extra slow process (purple dashed line), slow process (green dashed line), slow process (green dashed line); c) normalized $\chi_{\text{NMR}}$ reproduced as a sum of processes contributing to the $R_{\text{H}}^{\text{rel}}$ relaxation terms ($\beta_s = \beta_s = \beta_s = 1$), but with the adjusted pre-factors – $C_{\text{DS1}}/C_{\text{DS1}} = 0.44, C_{\text{DS1}}/C_{\text{DS1}} = 4.97$; black solid lines – overall fits. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Fig. 11. Normalized dielectric relaxation spectra for myoglobin at 312 K, 273 K, 253 K and 233 K reproduced in terms of Eq. (8) and decomposed into the individual contributions – extra slow process (purple dashed line), slow process (green dashed line) and intermediate process (orange dashed line); black solid lines – overall fits. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)
Eventually, it is very important to broach the subject of the origin of the dielectric spectra in the presence of water. Although the protein powders were lyophilized, they include a small amount of water (this can be concluded from the conductivity contribution). Comparison of DS and neutron scattering results show that the processes observed in DS do not stem just from water. It has been suggested that they can be ascribed to protein’s structural relaxation coupled to water and to a large scale protein’s motions (e.g., hinge bending, secondary structure, or domain motions) [45]. Moreover, with the support of Molecular Dynamics simulations it has been demonstrated that even for hydrated proteins the DS spectra cannot be assigned only to hydration water [67–69], but they definitely reveal the presence of protein relaxation.

4. Conclusions

$^1\text{H}$ spin–lattice relaxation and DS studies have been performed for solid Elastin from bovine neck ligament, Lysozyme from hen egg white, BSA and Myoglobin from equine heart in the frequency range of about 10 kHz–40 MHz for NMR relaxation and 10–200 MHz for DS. A theoretical description of the NMR relaxation profiles and DS relaxation spectra has been formulated in a way allowing for a direct comparison of dynamical parameters (correlation times) of motional processes probed by the two methods. It has turned out that the $^1\text{H}$ spin–lattice relaxation profiles do not differ much among the proteins and they are only weakly dependent on temperature – consequently, the correlations times obtained by means of NMR relaxation do not vary much even in a relatively large temperature range. The correlations times are of the order of $10^{-8}$–$10^{-7}$s and $10^{-6}$s and they have been referred to as describing slow, intermediate and fast dynamics, respectively. It has been proposed that the motion of the time scale of $10^{-5}$–$10^{-3}$s could be ascribed to dynamics of whole protein domains leading to conformational changes, while the motion of the timescale of $10^{-3}$ could be attributed to dynamics of structural elements such as $\alpha$-helices. For the first three proteins QRE effects (quadrupole peaks) have been observed. A thorough analysis of their positions and shapes has led to a determination of the quadrupole parameters at the $^{14}\text{N}$ sites and the orientation of the $^1\text{H}$–$^{14}\text{N}$ dipole–dipole axis with respect to the principal axis system of the electric field gradient. Such information cannot be obtained by other methods. The analysis of DS relaxation spectra has also revealed three motional processes referred to as extra-slow, slow and intermediate ones. The assignment has been used merely for the purpose of the discussion, because, in contrast to the correlation times obtained from the analysis of the $^1\text{H}$ spin–lattice relaxation data, the DS correlation times considerably depend on temperature. This finding essentially differs from the outcome of a comparison between rotational correlation times obtained by means of NMR relaxation and DS for simple liquids – in that case the parameters are in a very good agreement [48,49]. In summary, the obtained results suggest that for solid proteins there is a contribution to the $^1\text{H}$ spin–lattice relaxation associated with a kind of motion that is not probed in DS as it does not lead to a reorientation of the electric dipole moment.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmr.2020.106721.

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