Nanofluidity of fatty acid hydrocarbon chains as monitored by benchtop time-domain nuclear magnetic resonance

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: The functional properties of lipid-rich assemblies such as serum lipoproteins, cell membranes, and intracellular lipid droplets are modulated by the fluidity of the hydrocarbon chain environment. Existing methods for monitoring hydrocarbon chain fluidity include fluorescence, electron spin resonance, and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy; each possesses advantages and limitations. Here we introduce a new approach based on benchtop time-domain 1H NMR relaxometry (TD-NMR). Unlike conventional NMR spectroscopy, TD-NMR does not rely on the chemical shift resolution made possible by homogeneous, high-field magnets and Fourier transforms. Rather, it focuses on a multiexponential analysis of the time decay signal. In this study, we investigated a series of single-phase fatty acid oils, which allowed us to correlate 1H spin–spin relaxation time constants ($T_2$) with experimental measures of sample fluidity, as obtained using a viscometer. Remarkably, benchtop TD-NMR at 40 MHz was able to resolve two to four $T_2$ components in biologically relevant fatty acids, assigned to nanometer-scale domains in different segments of the hydrocarbon chain. The $T_2$ values for each domain were exquisitely sensitive to hydrocarbon chain structure; the largest values were observed for pure fatty acids or mixtures with the highest cis-double bond content. Moreover, the $T_2$ values for each domain exhibited positive linear correlations with fluidity. The TD-NMR $T_2$ and fluidity measurements appear to be monitoring the same underlying phenomenon: variations in hydrocarbon chain packing. The results from this study validate the use of benchtop TD-NMR $T_2$ as a nanofluidity meter and demonstrate its potential for probing nanofluidity in other systems of biological interest.

Lipids in biological systems display a remarkable variability in hydrocarbon chain composition, particularly in chain length and in the number, position, and stereochemistry of double bonds. That compositional variability underlies a considerable diversity in physical properties and biological functions. For example, low-density lipoprotein (LDL), which functions as the primary cholesterol-carrying particle in the blood, undergoes a liquid-crystalline-to-liquid phase transition near body temperature. Below this transition, the cholesteryl ester molecules in LDL pack in an ordered smectic liquid-crystalline phase, which makes LDL less fluid and more susceptible to oxidation and impaired clearance from the circulation. The temperature at which this phase transition occurs depends on the fatty acyl composition of cholesteryl esters and triglycerides, which, in turn, is influenced by the dietary intake of saturated, mono- and polyunsaturated fatty acids. Similarly, the hydrocarbon chain fluidity of biological membranes and membrane domains is thought to be a key determinant of cell surface receptor function. For example, B-cell membrane lipid fluidity is altered through n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid supplementation, which disrupts the lateral translocation of major histocompatibility complex class II into lipid rafts and suppresses T-cell activation.

A variety of methods have been used to probe the fluidity of lipid-rich biological assemblies such as cell membranes, lipid droplets, and serum lipoproteins. Fluorescence and electron spin resonance methods have excellent sensitivity and have been used to characterize the rotational and lateral motions of a variety of lipid probes. With the exception of parinaric acid found in exotic plants, biologically native fatty acids lack intrinsic fluorescence. Therefore, fluorescent probes such as DPH (1,6-diphenyl-1,3,5-hexatriene), NBD (nitrobenzoxadiazole), bis-pyrene, and BODIPY (4,4-difluoro-4-bora-3a,4a-diazas-indacene) have been synthetically incorporated into the fatty acid hydrocarbon chains of phospholipids and other lipids. For electron spin resonance, fatty acid analogues incorporating a variety of spin-labels such as TEMPO [(2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidin-1-yl)oxy] and doxyl moieties have been utilized. While fatty acid analogues offer powerful tools...
for measuring probe dynamics, it is not clear what impact their non-native structures have on hydrocarbon chain packing in the vicinity of the probe. This potential complication can be avoided using nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy, where $^1$H, $^2$H, or $^{13}$C has been used to monitor hydrocarbon chain motions, order parameters, and/or fluidity. Deuterium NMR is particularly well suited for studies of membranes, as it can be used to derive order parameters for hydrocarbon chains from quadrupolar splittings. However, it may not always be feasible or practical to incorporate $^2$H into the biological system of interest; also, sensitivity can be a limiting factor. High-resolution $^1$H and $^{13}$C NMR spectroscopy is well suited for smaller assemblies such as serum lipoproteins and model membranes, including micelles, bicelles, and small unilamellar vesicles. However, the spectra of larger lipid assemblies like liposomes and cell membranes suffer from line broadening and poor chemical shift resolution.

Another source of uncertainty in studies of lipid fluidity is the ill-defined relationship between the properties of the spectroscopic probe and the actual fluidity of the lipid hydrocarbon chain environment. In strict terms, fluidity is defined as the inverse of viscosity that, in turn, is a measure of a fluid’s resistance to flow. There may be an implicit assumption that the spectroscopic or motional properties of a molecular probe are monitoring the fluidity of the lipid microenvironment. However, for that assumption to be rigorously validated, the spectroscopic or motional parameters should be calibrated against independent measures of fluidity.

Here we present a new approach for monitoring the nanofluidity of fatty acyl hydrocarbon chains using benchtop time-domain $^1$H NMR (TD-NMR). In contrast to conventional Fourier transform NMR spectroscopy, which emphasizes analysis via the frequency domain, TD-NMR focuses on the exponential analysis of the time-domain signal. This type of NMR relaxometry (as opposed to spectroscopy) circumvents the requirement for superconducting magnets with a high magnetic field strength and field homogeneity. As a result, time-domain NMR can be performed on simpler, smaller, and less expensive benchtop instruments equipped with low-field permanent magnets. Thus, TD-NMR is more practical for use in non-NMR research laboratories, as well as in nonresearch settings, such as clinical diagnostic laboratories, manufacturing/quality control, and field testing sites. Moreover, it is better suited for the study of larger lipid membrane assemblies, as it does not rely on chemical shift resolution or narrow NMR resonances. While TD-NMR sacrifices the measurement of chemical shifts, it retains the ability to measure $T_1$ and $T_2$ relaxation time constants, which possess significant information content and resolving power on their own.

In this study, we utilized benchtop TD-NMR to resolve $T_2$ domains in a series of oil-phase fatty acids and biologically relevant fatty acid mixtures with varying hydrocarbon chain structures. The use of single-phase fatty acids afforded us the opportunity to correlate the TD-NMR values for hydrocarbon chain $T_2$ domains with independent measurements of sample fluidity. The results demonstrate the exquisite influence of hydrocarbon chain structure on $T_2$ and fluidity. These findings illustrate the potential of employing benchtop TD-NMR as a nanofluidity meter for analyzing a variety of biologically significant lipid, lipoprotein, and membrane assemblies. Moreover, this approach could help inform strategies for acquiring and interpreting $T_2$-weighted and -corrected MRI images of lipid-rich tissues, as well as in vivo MRS analyses of hepatic lipid content in fatty liver disease.

## EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

### Sample Preparation

Individual neat fatty acids (>99% purity) were purchased from Nu-Chek Prep (Elysian, MN); for several of these samples, the purity was cross-checked and verified by $^1$H and $^{13}$C NMR spectroscopy. Free fatty acid-based fish oil extracts were kindly provided as a gift by Originates (Aventura, FL), a global supplier of omega-3 fish oil concentrates; they also provided a certificate of analysis for the sample composition and physical characteristics. The 7.5 mm diameter NMR tubes used for TD-NMR were filled to a sample volume of approximately 350 μL, corresponding to a sample height of 0.7 mm. The NMR tubes were evacuated with dry nitrogen gas before and after sample filling to minimize lipid oxidation during experiments. Most of the fatty acid samples used in this study showed no susceptibility to oxidation during multiple repeat experiments at $237 ^\circ$C; the highly unsaturated α-linolenic (18:3), arachidonic (20:4), eicosapentaenoic (20:5), EPA, and docosahexaenoic (22:6) DHA samples were more susceptible. For these fatty acids, each NMR experiment was performed within 2 h using a fresh sample.

### Viscosity and Fluidity Measurements

The absolute viscosity values for single-phase fatty acid oil samples were measured using a VISCOlab 3000 instrument (Petroleum Analyzer Co. or PAC, L.P., Houston, TX). This laboratory viscometer utilizes a piston-style electromagnetic sensor, a Peltier-type temperature controller, and an integrated temperature sensor. In this study, two different pistons were employed, suitable for the absolute viscosity ranges of 0.5–10 and 10–200 cP. Each measurement utilized approximately 0.7 mL of fatty acid. Sample fluidity, reported here in units of inverse centipoise ($cP^{-1}$), was obtained by simply taking the inverse of the absolute viscosity.

### Benchtop Time-Domain NMR Relaxometry

Measurements were acquired using a Bruker mq40 minispec NMR instrument equipped with a permanent magnet and operating at 0.94 T, corresponding to a resonance frequency of 40 MHz for $^1$H. The magnet temperature on this particular instrument is controlled at 37 °C. This mq40 instrument is equipped with a 7.5 mm $^1$H probe with variable sample temperature capability (Bruker probe model H40-7.5-15BAV) and a circulating water bath (Julabo, model F32-MA). To ensure sample temperature equilibration, the NMR samples were incubated in the instrument probe compartment at the experimental sample temperature at least 30 min before final NMR data acquisition was initiated.

Time-domain spin–spin relaxation exponential decay curves were acquired using a CPMG pulse sequence (Figure 15 of the Supporting Information) with a 2τ delay of 380 μs between 180° pulses, kept short to eliminate the potential impact of translational diffusion on $T_2$ values. The 90° and 180° pulses were calibrated for each sample at each temperature prior to CPMG acquisition. The NMR intensities were acquired during the middle of the 2τ delays, and 4000–8000 data points were acquired for each decay curve, depending on the $T_2$. The recycle delay was set to 8$T_1$ to ensure that the spins were fully relaxed at the beginning of the pulse sequence, and the data acquisition time was set to 8–9$T_2$ so that the exponential decay curve reached the baseline. We observed that acquisition times significantly less than 8$T_2$ resulted in poor resolution of the CONTIN-derived peaks in the $T_2$ profile.
signal averaging, 512 scans were acquired for each experiment, corresponding to a total experiment time of ~2 h.

The multiexponential \( T_2 \) decay curves were analyzed using an inverse Laplace transform algorithm as implemented in CONTIN\textsuperscript{61} (see also s-provencher.com). For oil-phase fatty acids, this analysis yielded two to four resolved \( T_2 \) exponential terms and the amplitudes associated with each term. The high signal-to-noise ratio obtained for oil-phase fatty acid samples provided sufficient information content in the data to ensure that the inverse Laplace calculations were stable and reproducible. The data are represented as \( T_2 \) profiles (intensity vs \( T_2 \)).

This Bruker mq40 instrument is also equipped with a 10 mm \(^1\)H probe that ultimately was not used in this study. We observed that \( T_2 \) decay curves acquired with the larger diameter probe for concentrated neat oil-phase fatty acid samples led to radiation damping. That phenomenon manifested itself as an oscillatory component in the residuals for the fit of the experimental data with the calculated CONTIN exponential decay curves. No such oscillations were observed when the smaller 7.5 mm probe was used, which has a sample volume that is approximately half that of the 10 mm probe.

**NMR Spectroscopy.** In this study, frequency-domain NMR spectroscopy was used for two purposes: (1) as an independent check of the \( T_2 \) domain assignments inferred from the time-domain NMR results and (2) as an independent check of the purity of the fatty acid samples obtained from Nu-Chek Prep, Inc. NMR spectra were recorded with a Magritek Spinsolve-Carbon benchtop NMR spectrometer operating at 1 T, corresponding to a resonance frequency of 42.5 MHz for \(^1\)H and 10.8 MHz for \(^{13}\)C. One-dimensional \(^1\)H and \(^{13}\)C spectra were acquired, and CPMG-based frequency-domain \( T_2 \) values were accumulated. Unlike the TD-NMR values, the \( T_2 \) curves in this case were generated by measuring the areas of resolved NMR resonances after Fourier transformation. In some cases, individual decay curves fit well to single exponentials, whereas in other cases, a biexponential fit was required, as analyzed with GraphPad Prism.

### RESULTS

**Fatty Acid \( T_2 \) Profiles and \( T_2 \) Assignments.** The \( T_2 \) profiles for five different 18-carbon \( \textit{cis} \)-unsaturated fatty acids, varying in the position and numbers of double bonds, are shown in Figure 1. Although \( T_2 \) profiles displayed in this manner (intensity vs \( T_2 \)) bear a superficial resemblance to NMR spectra (intensity vs chemical shift), the two types of NMR data should not be confused with one another because they have a different x-axis and a fundamentally different meaning. The profiles displayed in this paper are inverse Laplace transforms of the multiexponential \( T_2 \) decay curves.

The first three \( T_2 \) profiles in Figure 1 correspond to fatty acids with a single \( \textit{cis} \) double bond at positions \( \Delta 6, \Delta 9, \) and \( \Delta 11 \) (panels A−C, respectively). Petroselenic acid displays only two \( T_2 \) peaks, whereas oleic and vaccenic acids reveal three. As the position of the double bond moves away from the carboxyl group and closer to the methyl terminus, the peak at the lowest \( T_2 \) value increases in intensity (area under the peak). However, the \( T_2 \) values for the peaks are comparable for these three monounsaturated 18-carbon fatty acids. By contrast, the presence of a second and third \( \textit{cis} \) double bond results in large increases in \( T_2 \) values, resulting in a dramatic right shift in the \( T_2 \) profiles for linoleic and \( \alpha \)-linolenic acids (panels D and E, respectively).

The center of each resolved peak represents the average \( T_2 \) value for a domain or cluster of hydrogen atoms in the fatty acid molecule. The number of hydrogen atoms contributing to each domain, i.e., to each resolved \( T_2 \) peak, can be inferred from the relative amplitudes of the peaks derived from the inverse Laplace analysis. Oleic acid has a total of 34 hydrogen atoms and displayed a relative intensity ratio of \( \sim 3:18:13 \), reasoning that the carboxyl proton is the least mobile because of intermolecular hydrogen bonding with the carboxyl group of an adjacent molecule\textsuperscript{3}, we tentatively assigned the lowest \( T_2 \) domain to the three hydrogens at the carboxyl end, including the carboxyl proton and the C-2 methylene protons. The middle \( T_2 \) domain was assigned to the 18 hydrogen atoms in the middle of the hydrocarbon chain, spanning the double bond. The highest \( T_2 \) domain was assigned to the 13 distal hydrogen atoms, including the methyl terminus. These tentative assignments of the \( T_2 \) profile of oleic acid (Figure 2S and Table 1S of the Supporting Information) were subsequently confirmed using \( T_2 \) data from frequency-domain NMR spectroscopy (Figure 3S of the Supporting Information).

**Effect of Hydrocarbon Chain Length on the \( T_2 \) Profile.** Figure 2A–C displays \( T_2 \) profiles for three saturated fatty acids of increasing chain length: lauric (12:0), myristic (14:0), and palmitic acids (16:0), respectively. These data were acquired at 65 °C to ensure that all three fatty acids were above their crystalline-to-liquid phase transition and in the oil phase. Each of the saturated fatty acids displayed only two resolved \( T_2 \) domains. As hydrocarbon chain length increased, the \( T_2 \) values decreased, and the profile shifted to the left (Figure 2A–C). Moreover, the number of hydrogens in the lowest \( T_2 \) domain increased with increasing hydrocarbon chain length, while the protons in the higher \( T_2 \) domain remained constant (Table 1S of the Supporting Information).

**Comparison of \( T_2 \) Profiles for Saturated and Mono-unsaturated Fatty Acids.** Figure 2C–E compares palmitic acid with two of its monounsaturated counterparts, palmitoleic
(16:1 cis-\(\Delta^9\)) and palmitelaidic (16:1 trans-\(\Delta^9\)) acids. The addition of a double bond, regardless of the stereochemistry, increased the number of resolved \(T_2\) domains from two to three. In addition, the \(T_2\) values for 16-carbon fatty acids containing one double bond (Figure 2D,E) were both higher than that of the 16-carbon saturated fatty acid (Figure 2C).

**Effect of Double Bond Stereochemistry.** Two matched sets of monounsaturated fatty acids in their cis and trans configuration were compared: 16:1 cis and trans at 65 °C (Figure 2D,E and Table 1S of the Supporting Information) and 18:1 cis and trans at 55 °C (Table 1S of the Supporting Information). Each \(\Delta^9\)-monounsaturated fatty acid displayed three \(T_2\) domains, although those with cis double bonds had much higher \(T_2\) values than those with trans double bonds. Note that the \(T_2\) values for fatty acids with a trans double bond were between those for cis-unsaturated and saturated fatty acids. The number of hydrogen atoms corresponding to each \(T_2\) domain was only minimally affected by double bond stereochemistry (Table 1S of the Supporting Information).

**Correlation of \(T_2\) from TD-NMR with Sample Fluidity.** Figure 3A displays the \(T_2\) values for oleic acid measured across the temperature range of 25–55 °C. The results reveal a positive correlation of \(T_2\) with temperature and with sample fluidity, as measured using a viscometer. All three resolved \(T_2\) domains in oleic acid showed this positive correlation with fluidity. Similar positive correlations between NMR \(T_2\) and bulk sample fluidity were observed for all three domains in palmitoleic acid (Figure 3B) and linoleic acid (Figure 3C).

To determine how hydrocarbon chain structure impacted the correlation between NMR \(T_2\) and fluidity measurements, we compared values for a wide range of fatty acids that varied in hydrocarbon chain length, number of double bonds, and double bond stereochemistry, all at 37 °C. As shown in Figure 4, a positive correlation between TD-NMR \(T_2\) and sample fluidity is apparent for each of the three resolved \(T_2\) domains. Overall, the highest \(T_2\) and fluidity values were observed for the fatty acids with the largest numbers of double bonds. We reasoned that the deviation from linearity for \(\alpha\)-linolenic and arachidonic...
acids might be explained, in part, by the atypical hydrogen domain size (and hence average $T_2$) seen with those fatty acids. In this regard, the number of protons in domain 1 for α-linolenic acid is relatively low, in contrast to arachidonic acid, in which it is relatively high, compared to those of other fatty acids (Table 1S of the Supporting Information).

**$T_2$ Profiles for Fatty Acid Mixtures.** Binary mixtures of oleic and linoleic acids were prepared with varying percentages of the two components. As the volume percent of linoleic acid increased, so did the $T_2$ values and the fluidity for each domain at 37 °C (not shown).

To mimic the diversity of fatty acyl hydrocarbon chain structures seen in biological samples, we prepared oil-phase fatty acid mixtures with compositions similar to those seen in the human blood serum lipid profiles from individuals on a diet rich in saturated fats (SAFA), monounsaturated fats (MUFA), or polyunsaturated fats (PUFA).20,21 The composition of these three mixtures is specified in Table 2S of the Supporting Information. The $T_2$ profiles are shown in Figure 5. Like pure linoleic acid, the mixtures showed four resolved $T_2$ components: three intense peaks and a very small peak at a low $T_2$ value. The PUFA mixture had the highest $T_2$ and fluidity values, whereas the SAFA mixture yielded the lowest. These results demonstrate that TD-NMR is able to detect differences in $T_2$ and fluidity in complex mixtures that mimic the variations in hydrocarbon chain composition seen in human blood serum.

To assess the ability of benchtop TD-NMR to detect fluidity differences in nutritional oils, we compared two different free fatty acid-based fish oil samples highly enriched in $n$−3 ($ω$−3) fatty acids. These two samples varied only slightly in the total percentage of $n$−3 fatty acids (74.8% vs 73.6%). The $T_2$ and fluidity values for the 74.8% $n$−3 sample were significantly higher (Figure 4S of the Supporting Information), consistent with the observation that $n$−3 fatty acids have the highest $T_2$ values (Figure 4). These results suggest that TD-NMR may be sensitive to small differences in hydrocarbon chain composition in nutritional oils.

**DISCUSSION**

The results from this study yielded three key observations. The first is that benchtop time-domain NMR is capable of resolving two to four $T_2$ domains in biologically relevant long chain fatty acids. These domains correspond to clusters of hydrogen atoms in the proximal (carboxyl), middle, and distal (methyl) segments of the hydrocarbon chain. This resolving power is remarkable, considering that benchtop TD-NMR relaxometry does not benefit from the chemical shift resolution afforded by conventional frequency-domain NMR spectroscopy. The second observation is that $T_2$ measurements are exquisitely sensitive to differences in hydrocarbon chain structure and composition. The most profound increases in $T_2$ were observed for individual fatty acids or mixtures with a higher content of cis-double bonds. The third key observation is that the average $\text{\textsuperscript{1}H } T_2$ value for each molecular domain is linearly correlated with sample fluidity, as measured using a viscometer.

**Molecular Origins of $T_2$ and Fluidity Differences.** In principle, spin−spin or transverse relaxation time constants are able to probe molecular motions over a wide range of time scales.62 Fast motions on the nanosecond-to-picosecond time scale include small-amplitude, high-frequency fluctuations such as segmental bond rotations or small-amplitude translational displacements.63 Slow motions on the millisecond-to-second time scale involve large-amplitude fluctuations such as global conformational exchange or oligomerization in macromolecules. For the fatty acid systems studied here, we observed that $T_2$ is approximately equal to $T_1$ (extreme narrowing limit), implying that $T_2$ relaxation was driven primarily by fast motions with correlation times of $\ll$25 ns.

Upon comparison of $T_2$ values for domains within a given fatty acid molecule, the domain at the methyl end had average $T_2$ values higher than those of the middle and carboxyl domains. Thus, the hydrocarbon chain becomes progressively more mobile from the carboxyl end toward the methyl end, consistent with the notion that the carboxyl end is anchored by intermolecular hydrogen bonding. However, increasing the number of double bonds, which reduced the number of degrees of freedom for intramolecular bond rotations, had the effect of increasing the $T_2$ value, the opposite of what would be expected if intramolecular carbon−carbon bond rotations were the dominant contributors to fast Brownian motions. Instead, we propose that the dominant source of variation in the $\text{\textsuperscript{1}H } T_2$ values measured in this study is variation in the interactions that occur between adjacent hydrocarbon chains.

Neat oil-phase fatty acids do not form ideal fluids but consist of small domains of hydrogen-bonded bilayers somewhat similar to the molecular organization seen in their X-ray crystal structures.364 For saturated oil-phase fatty acids, the hydrocarbon chains pack quite tightly with low mean volumes per methylene group, especially near the carboxyl end. As demonstrated by J. A. Hamilton and D. M. Small, the $\text{\textsuperscript{13}C } T_1$ values for oil-phase undecanoic acid, an 11-carbon saturated fatty acid, increase progressively from the carboxyl to the methyl end (Figures 8−26 of ref 3). For unsaturated fatty acids, the addition of a cis-double bond introduces a 120° kink into the chain, which is only partially overcome by trans−gauche isomerization in adjacent methylene groups. Hydrocarbon chain packing is disrupted, with a corresponding decrease in melting temperature. The increased volume per methylene group provides greater freedom for adjacent hydrocarbon chains to undergo molecular fluctuations. As
those fluctuations increase well above the Larmor frequency (here 40 MHz, corresponding to a 25 ns lifetime), $T_2$ and $T_1$ relaxation becomes less efficient and the relaxation time constants increase.

Molecular packing considerations may help explain the correlation between $T_2$ and fluidity as observed in this study. Viscosity, the inverse of fluidity, can be described as liquid friction. Such friction is increased by interactions between molecules. For oil-phase saturated fatty acids, those interactions include the van der Waals attractive forces between well-packed hydrocarbon chains. As cis-double bonds are introduced into the chain and the conformation becomes progressively more kinked and circular, chain packing weakens and van der Waals interactions weaken, resulting in less liquid friction and an increase in fluidity. Thus, the $T_2$ and fluidity measurements appear to be monitoring the same fundamental phenomenon, variations in hydrocarbon chain packing.

The relationship between $T_2$ and fluidity can also be explained using the generalized Stokes–Einstein–Debye relationship for rotational diffusion:

$$
\tau_i = 1/D_i = \eta V_f/k_B T
$$

where $\tau_i$ is the rotational correlation time about the $i$th axis of a molecule in solution, $D_i$ is the rotational diffusion constant, $\eta$ is the absolute viscosity, $V$ is the molecular volume, $k_B$ is Boltzmann’s constant, and $T$ is the absolute temperature. The friction coefficient, $f_\phi$, is a dimensionless quantity that depends on the shape of the molecule and the boundary conditions imposed by the molecule and surrounding fluid. As fatty acid hydrocarbon chains have a dense network of spin-1/2 nuclei, the dominant relaxation mechanism is through dipole–dipole interactions. The relationship between $\tau_i$ and $T_2$ for dipole–dipole relaxation is

$$
1/T_2 = \gamma^2\langle B^2 \rangle \left\{ \tau_i + \tau_i/[1 + (2\pi\nu_0\tau_i)^2] \right\}
$$

where $\gamma$ is the gyromagnetic ratio for $^1H$, $\langle B^2 \rangle$ is the mean square fluctuating field (the magnitude of the fluctuating field resulting from Brownian motion), and $\nu_0$ is the Larmor frequency. In the extreme narrowing limit, where $T_2 \approx T_1$ and $(2\pi\nu_0\tau_i)^2 \ll 1$, eq 2 simplifies to

$$
1/T_2 = \gamma^2\langle B^2 \rangle 2\tau_i
$$

Considering eqs 1–3 together leads to the following proportionality

$$
T_2 \propto 1/\tau_i \propto D_i \propto 1/\eta
$$

which predicts that $T_2$ should be inversely proportional to viscosity and directly proportional to fluidity. A similar proportionality holds for the Stokes–Einstein equation, which describes translational diffusion. Thus, the experimental observation of a linear relationship between $T_2$ and fluidity in this study provides evidence that these theoretical constructs are valid for the analysis of fatty acid hydrocarbon chains, at least for the systems studied here.

**Measuring Nanofluidity in Other Biological Systems.**

The use of single-phase fatty acid oil samples permitted us to validate the correlation between $^1H$ $T_2$ and fluidity measurements and to establish $T_2$ from TD-NMR as a “nanofluidity meter”. Similar $T_2$ measurements from benchtop TD-NMR could be used to measure nanofluidity in multiphase biological samples such as hydrated phospholipid bilayers, biological membranes, cell suspensions, or serum lipoproteins. All of those complex assemblies are bathed in an aqueous milieu, where measurements of bulk sample fluidity may not be relevant to the fluidity of the lipid nanoenvironment inside the membrane or lipoprotein assembly. In such complex samples, TD-NMR is able to probe what a viscometer cannot.

While $^1H$ $T_2$ measurements can be performed using conventional Fourier transform NMR spectroscopy, the benchtop TD-NMR relaxometry approach has several advantages. First, the time decay points are recorded directly during the delays embedded into the CPMG pulse scheme (Figure 1S of the Supporting Information). Therefore, the $T_2$ decay curve can be heavily sampled, allowing a more robust multiexponential analysis using inverse Laplace transforms. By contrast, the $T_2$ decay in NMR spectroscopy is assessed indirectly through the intensities obtained from a series of Fourier-transformed spectra. In practice, the $T_2$ decay curves from TD-NMR have 4000–8000 time points, whereas the corresponding curves from NMR spectroscopy typically have only approximately 10–50 points. A second advantage is that TD-NMR does not suffer from “line broadening” as seen in high-resolution $^1H$ or $^{13}C$ NMR spectroscopy of large membrane assemblies. Therefore, TD-NMR can be used to measure systems with short $T_2$ values, as it does not rely on resolving NMR resonances in the frequency domain. Like $^2H$ NMR, benchtop TD-NMR is particularly well suited for studying membranes and other large assemblies. A third advantage of benchtop TD-NMR is the relative simplicity and low cost of the instrumentation. It can be deployed in environments outside of the typical NMR research lab and should be more accessible to non-NMR specialists.

Finally, TD-NMR detects the properties of the ubiquitous hydrogen atom. There is no need to enrich molecules with $^2H$ or $^{13}C$ or to synthetically incorporate fluorescent or ESR probes into biological lipids. For all these reasons, benchtop TD-NMR shows promise for becoming a versatile tool for investigating lipid and membrane fluidity in a variety of samples of biological interest. Current efforts in our lab are focused on the application of TD-NMR to characterize lipoproteins in whole human serum from subjects with different metabolic disorders.

### ASSOCIATED CONTENT

#### Supporting Information

Four figures and two tables. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

### AUTHOR INFORMATION

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**Notes**

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ABBREVIATIONS

CPMG, Carr-Purcell-Meiboom-Gill pulse sequence; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; LDL, low-density lipoprotein; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; MRS, magnetic resonance spectroscopy; MUFA, fatty acid mixture mimicking a diet rich in monounsaturated fatty acids; NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance; PUFAs, fatty acid mixture mimicking a diet rich in polyunsaturated fatty acids; SAFA, fatty acid mixture mimicking a diet rich in saturated fatty acids; T1, spin–lattice or longitudinal relaxation time constant; T2, spin–spin or transverse relaxation time constant; TD-NMR, time-domain nuclear magnetic resonance.

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