

# Introduction to Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy

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# 1.1. Introduction to Magnetic Resonance

- Magnetic resonance (MR) is a phenomenon of resonant energy absorption by a system of nuclei (and electrons).
- Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) results from the intrinsic magnetic moment of the nuclei of some atoms. Magnetic moments of electrons are exploited in electron spin resonance (ESR).
- Magnetic resonance (MR) generally involves placing a sample in a strong magnetic field (to generate polarisation at a fixed resonant frequency) and detecting signals produced following application of pulsed radio-frequency electromagnetic fields (RF pulses).
- MR is a very powerful method for studying the structure of materials: used in physics, chemistry, biology, medicine etc.

## 1.2. Applications of NMR

- NMR spectroscopy is used for chemical analysis and for molecular structure determination

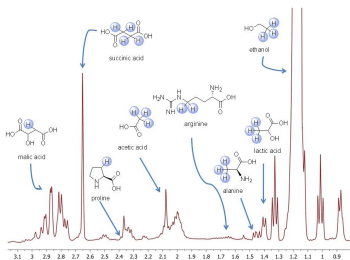


Fig.1:  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum of a sample of Spanish wine (<http://www.unirioja.es/gsoe/NMR.htm>)

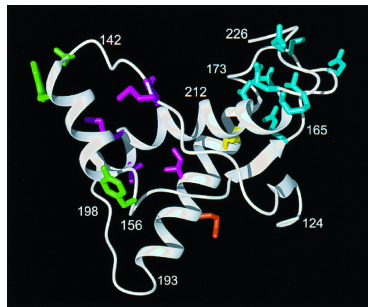


Fig.2: NMR-derived structure of a prion <http://www.pnas.org/content/94/14/7281.full>

## 1.2. Applications of NMR

- NMR relaxometry can be used to monitor molecular environment

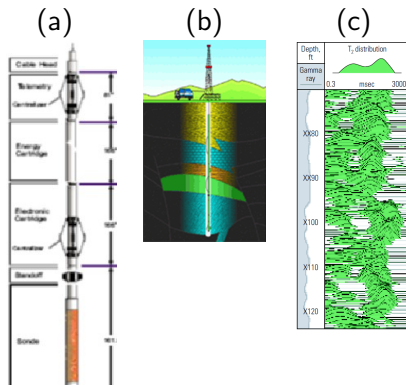


Fig.3: (a) NMR-logging probe, (b) Schematic positioning of the probe in a well, (c) T<sub>2</sub>-relaxation profile along the bore. Sources: 1) Allen et al. Oilfield review, Autumn 2000; 2) Coates, Xiao NMR Logging Principles and Applications, Halliburton

## 1.2. Applications of NMR

- NMR forms the basis for magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)

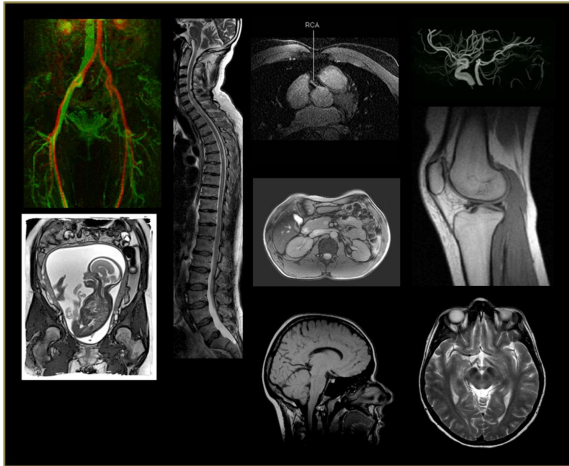


Fig.4: Example magnetic resonance images of blood vessel (in legs), fetus in utero, spine, heart, abdomen, head, blood vessels (in brain), knee, brain (courtesy of Prof. Richard Bowtell)

## 1.3. Magnetic moments in magnetic field.

- Consider charges moving in a limited volume. The position of a charge  $e_n$  will be given by a vector  $\mathbf{r}_n$  and its velocity by  $\mathbf{v}_n$ . The overall magnetic moment of such a system is defined as:

$$\mathbf{M} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_n e_n \mathbf{r}_n \times \mathbf{v}_n \quad (1)$$

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- If all the charges and masses are the same, then  $\mathbf{M}$  can be rewritten as:

$$\mathbf{M} = \frac{e}{2m} \sum_n m \mathbf{r}_n \times \mathbf{v}_n = \gamma \mathbf{L}, \quad (2)$$

where

$$\mathbf{L} = \sum_n \mathbf{p}_n \times \mathbf{r}_n \quad (3)$$

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- Gyromagnetic ratio** (or magnetogyric):

$$\gamma = \frac{e}{2m} \quad (4)$$



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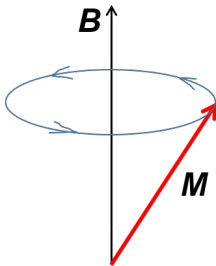
$$\frac{d\mathbf{L}}{dt} = \mathbf{M} \times \mathbf{B} \quad (6)$$

- Now using equation 2 we can obtain the equation describing the motion of vector  $\mathbf{M}$ :

$$\frac{d\mathbf{M}}{dt} = \gamma \mathbf{M} \times \mathbf{B} \quad (7)$$

## 1.3. Magnetic moments in magnetic field.

- In a uniform magnetic field directed along z-axis  $\mathbf{B} = (0, 0, B_0)$ , the equation for individual components of  $\mathbf{M}$  follow the equations:



$$\frac{dM_x}{dt} = \omega_L M_y$$

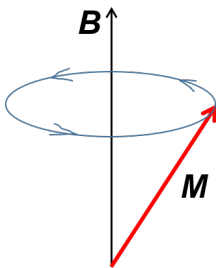
$$\frac{dM_y}{dt} = -\omega_L M_x \quad (8)$$

$$\frac{dM_z}{dt} = 0,$$

where  $\omega_L = \gamma B_0$  - Larmor frequency.

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where  $\omega_L = \gamma B_0$  - Larmor frequency.

- A solution to this system of differential equations with initial values of  $M_x(0)$ ,  $M_y(0)$ ,  $M_z(0)$  has the following form:

$$\begin{aligned}M_x(t) &= M_x(0) \cos(\omega_L t) + M_y(0) \sin(\omega_L t) \\ M_y(t) &= -M_x(0) \sin(\omega_L t) + M_y(0) \cos(\omega_L t) \\ M_z(t) &= M_z(0)\end{aligned}\quad (9)$$

## 1.4. Orbital angular momentum operator

- In quantum mechanics physical quantity  $A$  is represented by an operator  $\hat{A}$ . The mechanical angular momentum is replaced by its corresponding operator:

$$\mathbf{L} = \sum_n \mathbf{p}_n \times \mathbf{r}_n \longleftrightarrow \hat{\mathbf{L}} = \frac{1}{\hbar} \sum_n \hat{\mathbf{r}}_n \times \hat{\mathbf{p}}_n = -i \sum_n \hat{\mathbf{r}}_n \times \nabla_n \quad (10)$$

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- Angular momentum operator properties. Commutation:

$$[\hat{L}_y, \hat{L}_z] = i\hat{L}_x, [\hat{L}_z, \hat{L}_x] = i\hat{L}_y, [\hat{L}_x, \hat{L}_y] = i\hat{L}_z \quad (11)$$

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- Angular momentum squared, and its commutation properties:

$$\hat{L}^2 = \hat{L}_x^2 + \hat{L}_y^2 + \hat{L}_z^2 \quad (12)$$

$$[\hat{L}^2, \hat{L}_x] = [\hat{L}^2, \hat{L}_y] = [\hat{L}^2, \hat{L}_z] = 0 \quad (13)$$



## 1.4. Orbital angular momentum operator

- Eigenfunctions of both  $\hat{L}^2$  and  $\hat{L}_z$  operators can be characterized by integer quantum numbers  $l$  and  $m$  respectively. These eigen functions will be denoted as  $|lm\rangle$ . Their eigenvalues are:

$$\hat{L}_z|lm\rangle = m|lm\rangle \quad (14)$$

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- Another useful operators are raising and lowering operators:

$$\hat{L}_+ = \hat{L}_x + i\hat{L}_y, \hat{L}_- = \hat{L}_x - i\hat{L}_y \quad (16)$$

$$\langle lm|\hat{L}_+|l(m-1)\rangle = \langle l(m-1)|\hat{L}_-|lm\rangle = \sqrt{(l+m)(l-m+1)} \quad (17)$$

## Problem

Calculate  $[\hat{L}_+, \hat{L}_x] = ?$  ,  $[\hat{L}_+, \hat{L}_-] = ?$

$$[\hat{L}_y, \hat{L}_z] = i\hat{L}_x, [\hat{L}_z, \hat{L}_x] = i\hat{L}_y, [\hat{L}_x, \hat{L}_y] = i\hat{L}_z$$

$$\hat{L}^2 = \hat{L}_x^2 + \hat{L}_y^2 + \hat{L}_z^2$$

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- Given the electron charge  $e = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{C}$ , and mass  $m = 9.1 \cdot 10^{-31} \text{kg}$  **Bohr magneton**:

$$\beta_e = \gamma \hbar = \frac{e \hbar}{2m} \approx 9.27 \cdot 10^{-24} \text{J} \cdot \text{T}^{-1} \quad (19)$$

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- Similarly a **nuclear magneton** could be calculated for a proton ( $^1\text{H}$  nucleus):

$$\beta = \gamma_N \hbar = \frac{e \hbar}{2m_p} \approx 5.05 \cdot 10^{-27} \text{J} \cdot \text{T}^{-1} \quad (20)$$

## 1.5. Spin angular momentum operator

However, real nuclei and electrons have spins (intrinsic magnetic moment). Their z-axis projection  $m$  takes integer and half-integer values:  $m = \frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{2}, 2$  etc. Similar to the equation for the orbital angular momentum Eq.18. For nuclei spins we get its magnetic moment as:

$$\hat{\mu}_{\mathbf{N}} = \gamma_N \hbar \hat{\mathbf{I}}, \quad (21)$$

where  $\hat{\mathbf{I}}$  stands for the nuclear spin operator. All the properties of angular momentum operators listed in Eqs.11-17 will be true for  $\hat{\mathbf{I}}$ .

## 1.5. Spin angular momentum operator

- Many nuclei in the periodic table are magnetic, i.e. have spin  $I \neq 0$ . Their magnetic moments could be measured in units of  $\beta_N$ :

$$\hat{\mu}_N = \gamma_N \hbar \hat{\mathbf{I}} = g_N \beta_N \hat{\mathbf{I}}, \quad (22)$$

where  $g_N$  - dimensionless g-factor.



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Nucleus	Natural abundance %	Nuclear spin (I)	$g_N$ , g-factor	$\gamma_N$ , Gyromagnetic ratio ( $10^7$ rad/T*s)
$^1\text{H}$	99.98	$\frac{1}{2}$	5.585	26.7519
$^2\text{H}$	$1.5 \cdot 10^{-2}$	1	0.857	4.1066
$^{13}\text{C}$	1.108	$\frac{1}{2}$	1.405	6.7283
$^{14}\text{N}$	99.635	1	0.403	1.9338
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- Electron magnetic moments can be measured in units of Bohr magnetons:  $\hat{\mu}_S = -\gamma_e \hbar \hat{S} = -g_e \beta_e \hat{S}$ , and for a free electron spin  $g_e \approx 2.0023$ .

# Summary of Lecture 1

- Applications of NMR: chemistry, biology, medicine, industry ...
- Magnetic moment in magnetic field: Classical description
- Recap of angular momentum operator properties: commutation properties.
- Nuclei have their own nuclear magnetic moment. Described using spin angular momentum operator.

**Suggested reading:** Harris: 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4, 1.6, 2.4

## 1.6. Spin in a magnetic field

- Let's quantum mechanically describe the system of spins in the magnetic field. Eq. 5 can be rewritten in a form of Hamiltonian:

$$E = -\mathbf{M} \cdot \mathbf{B} \longleftrightarrow \mathcal{H} = -\hat{\mu}_{\mathbf{N}} \cdot \mathbf{B} \quad (23)$$

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- when the magnetic field is directed along z-axis  $\mathbf{B} = (0, 0, B_0)$ :

$$\mathcal{H} = -\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{\mathbf{N}} \cdot \mathbf{B} = -\gamma_N \hbar B_0 \hat{I}_z \quad (24)$$

## 1.6. Spin in a magnetic field

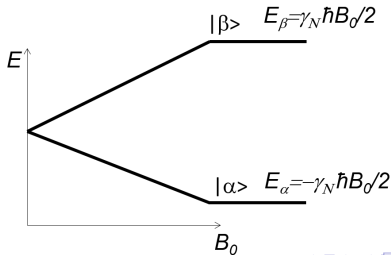
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$$\mathcal{H} = -\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{\mathbf{N}} \cdot \mathbf{B} = -\gamma_N \hbar B_0 \hat{I}_z \quad (24)$$

- For spin  $I = \frac{1}{2}$  such Hamiltonian produces a two-level system. Its energy levels corresponding to eigenfunctions  $|\alpha\rangle$  and  $|\beta\rangle$ :



## 1.6. Spin in a magnetic field

- The transition between the two states requires an energy quantum<sup>1</sup>:

$$h\nu_L = \gamma\hbar B_0, \omega_L = \gamma B_0, \nu_L = \frac{\gamma B_0}{2\pi} \quad (25)$$

$\omega_L$  and  $\nu_L$  is the Larmor frequency (angular and cyclic respectively)

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Nucleus	Natural abundance %	Nuclear spin (I)	Larmor frequency at 11.744T, MHz	$\gamma_N$ , Gyro-magnetic ratio ( $10^7$ rad/T*s)
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$^{13}\text{C}$	1.108	$\frac{1}{2}$	125.721	6.7283
$^{14}\text{N}$	99.635	1	36.118	1.9338
$^{15}\text{N}$	0.365	$\frac{1}{2}$	50.664	-2.712



## 1.7. Equilibrium magnetization

NMR measurements are generally made on bulk samples which contain very large numbers of nuclear spins (e.g.  $1 \text{ cm}^3$  contains  $N \approx 6.7 \cdot 10^{22}$   $^1\text{H}$  atoms) The measured signals therefore result from the collective effect of a large number of magnetic moments that can be described using a bulk magnetization. At thermal equilibrium, the numbers of nuclei in the  $|\alpha\rangle$  state  $N_\alpha$  and  $|\beta\rangle$  state  $N_\beta$  follow Boltzmann distribution:

$$\frac{N_\alpha}{N_\beta} = e^{-\frac{\gamma B_0}{kT}} \approx (1 - \frac{\gamma B_0}{kT}), \quad (26)$$

when  $\gamma B_0 \ll kT$ . Overall magnetization then can be calculated as:

$$M_z = N_\alpha(-\frac{1}{2}\gamma\hbar) + N_\beta(\frac{1}{2}\gamma\hbar) = N\frac{\gamma^2\hbar^2 B_0}{4kT} \quad (27)$$

## Problem

- What is the value of  $\frac{\gamma_N \hbar B_0}{kT}$  for proton nuclei ( $^1\text{H}$ ) at 9.4 T magnetic field at 300 K?
- What is the value of  $\frac{\gamma_e \hbar B_0}{kT}$  electron ( $^1\text{H}$ ) at 9.4 T magnetic field at 4 K?

Electron charge  $e = 1.602 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ C}$

Electron mass  $m_e = 9.109 \cdot 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$

Proton mass  $m_p = 1.673 \cdot 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$

Plank constant  $\hbar = 1.054 \cdot 10^{-34} \frac{\text{J} \cdot \text{s}}{\text{rad}}$

Proton g-factor  $g_p = 5.585$

Electron g-factor  $g_e = 2.0023$

Nuclear magneton  $\beta_N = 5.05 \cdot 10^{-27} \text{ J} \cdot \text{T}^{-1}$

Bohr magneton  $\beta_e = 9.27 \cdot 10^{-24} \text{ J} \cdot \text{T}^{-1}$

Proton gyromagnetic ratio  $\gamma_N = 26.7519 \cdot 10^7 \frac{\text{rad}}{\text{T} \cdot \text{s}}$

Electron gyromagnetic ratio  $\gamma_e = 1.76 \cdot 10^{11} \frac{\text{rad}}{\text{T} \cdot \text{s}}$

Boltzmann constant  $k = 1.38 \cdot 10^{-23} \text{ J} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$

Avogadro's constant  $N_A = 6.023 \cdot 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}$

## 1.8. Resonant energy absorption.

- Let's apply oscillating magnetic field to our system. A spin system Hamiltonian becomes time-dependent and for an oscillation along the  $x$ -axis we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{H}(t) &= -\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\mathbf{B}_0 + \mathbf{B}(t)) = \\ &= -\gamma\hbar\hat{I}_z(B_0 + B_1(t)) = \\ &= -\gamma\hbar\hat{I}_zB_0 - \gamma\hbar\hat{I}_xB_1\cos(\omega t),\end{aligned}\tag{28}$$

where  $H_1$  and  $\omega$  are the amplitude and the frequency of the oscillating magnetic field.

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where  $H_1$  and  $\omega$  are the amplitude and the frequency of the oscillating magnetic field.

- According to perturbation theory the transition probability between the initial state  $|a\rangle$  and the final state  $|b\rangle$  with a time dependent Hamiltonian  $\hat{V}(t) = 2\hat{F}\cos(\omega t)$  is (Fermi's golden rule):

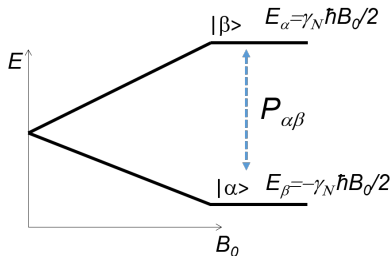
$$P_{ab} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |\langle a|\hat{F}|b\rangle|^2 \delta(E_{ab} - \hbar\omega),\tag{29}$$

where  $E_{ab} = E_a - E_b$  is an energy difference between the energies of levels  $a$  and  $b$ .

## 1.9. Populations dynamics in two-level system.

- For a two level system described before, the matrix element  $\langle \alpha | \hat{I}_x | \beta \rangle = \frac{1}{2}$ . The transition probability then becomes:

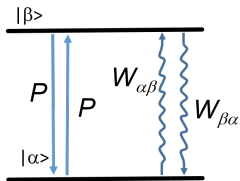
$$P_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{\pi}{2\hbar} (\gamma H_1)^2 \delta(E_{\alpha\beta} - \hbar\omega), \quad (30)$$



- The effect of resonant absorption (and emission) of electromagnetic irradiation at the frequency matching the energy difference in a nuclear system is called Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR).

## 1.9. Populations dynamics in two-level system.

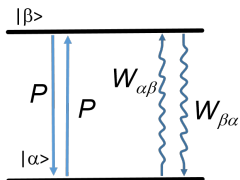
- In a two-level system the transition will take place due to the action of external irradiation, but also due to interaction with the environment.



$P$  - the rate of transitions driven by external field,  $W_{\alpha\beta}, W_{\beta\alpha}$   
- rates of spontaneous spin flips due to interaction with environment.

## 1.9. Populations dynamics in two-level system.

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$P$  - the rate of transitions driven by external field,  $W_{\alpha\beta}$ ,  $W_{\beta\alpha}$  - rates of spontaneous spin flips due to interaction with environment.

- In thermal equilibrium:

$$N_{\alpha}^0 W_{\alpha\beta} = N_{\beta}^0 W_{\beta\alpha}, \text{ i.e.} \quad (31)$$

$$\frac{W_{\beta\alpha}}{W_{\alpha\beta}} = \exp\left(-\frac{\gamma\hbar B_0}{kT}\right) \approx 1 - \frac{\gamma\beta B_0}{kT} \quad (32)$$

## 1.9. Populations dynamics in two-level system.

- Equation for populations of levels:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dN_\alpha}{dt} &= -N_\alpha(P + W_{\alpha\beta}) + N_\beta(P + W_{\beta\alpha}) \\ \frac{dN_\beta}{dt} &= N_\alpha(P + W_{\alpha\beta}) - N_\beta(P + W_{\beta\alpha})\end{aligned}\tag{33}$$



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- If we introduce the average rate of spontaneous transitions

$$W = \frac{1}{2}(W_{\alpha\beta} + W_{\beta\alpha}), \text{ then } W_{\alpha\beta} = W(1 + \frac{\gamma\hbar B_0}{2kT}) \text{ and}$$

$$W_{\beta\alpha} = W(1 - \frac{\gamma\hbar B_0}{2kT}), \text{ the equations can be rewritten:}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dN_\alpha}{dt} &= (N_\beta - N_\alpha)P + (N_\beta - N_\alpha)W - W\frac{\gamma\beta B_0}{2kT}N \\ \frac{dN_\beta}{dt} &= -(N_\beta - N_\alpha)P - (N_\beta - N_\alpha)W + W\frac{\gamma\beta B_0}{2kT}N\end{aligned}\quad (34)$$

## 1.9. Populations dynamics in two-level system.

- Denote the population difference as  $n = N_\beta - N_\alpha$  and thermal equilibrium population difference  $n_0 = N_\beta^0 - N_\alpha^0 \approx N \frac{\gamma \hbar B_0}{2kT}$  the equations can be rewritten as:

$$\frac{dn}{dt} = -2nP - 2nW + 2Wn_0, \quad (35)$$

or

$$\frac{dn}{dt} = -2nP - \frac{(n - n_0)}{T_1}, \quad (36)$$

where  $T_1 = \frac{1}{2W}$  is called **spin-lattice relaxation time** determines how quickly a spin system reaches a thermal equilibrium with environment.

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where  $T_1 = \frac{1}{2W}$  is called **spin-lattice relaxation time** determines how quickly a spin system reaches a thermal equilibrium with environment.

- In equilibrium, when  $\frac{dn}{dt} = 0$ :

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + 2PT_1} \quad (37)$$

when the power is very large  $PT_1 \gg 1$ ,  $n \rightarrow 0$ , i.e. the system is **saturated** and no signal can be observed.

# Summary of Lecture 2

- Spin  $I = \frac{1}{2}$  in a magnetic field. Two-level system.
- System of spins in a magnetic field is capable of absorbing radiation at a resonant frequency.
- Population dynamics in a two-level system. Signal as function of radiation power and saturation.

**Suggested reading:** Harris 1.5, 1.7, Slichter 1.3

Harris 1.20 - CW NMR spectrometer

## 2.1. Chemical shifts.

- Electrons in atoms in molecules interact with external magnetic field and in turn produce their own magnetic field  $B_0$ . The Larmor frequency get shifted in a chemical specific manner - this is known as the **chemical shift**. The spin Hamiltonian for a nucleus is:

$$\hat{H} = -\gamma_N \hbar (1 - \sigma) B_0 \hat{I}_z, \quad (38)$$

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- Classical illustration of diamagnetic chemical shift:

$$\omega = \frac{e}{2m_e} B_0$$

$$\mathbf{j} = -e[\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r}] \rho_e = -\frac{e^2}{2m_e} [B_0 \times \mathbf{r}] \rho_e$$

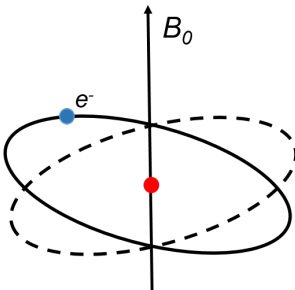
$$d\mathbf{B}_i = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi r^3} [\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{r}] dV$$

$$d\mathbf{B}_i = -\frac{\mu_0 e^2}{8\pi m_e r^3} [[B_0 \times \mathbf{r}] \times \mathbf{r}] \rho_e dV$$

$$B_{iz} = -B_0 \frac{\mu_0 e^2}{8\pi m_e} \int \rho_e \frac{x^2 + y^2}{r^3} dV$$

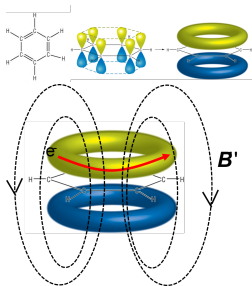
Quantum mechanical result:

$$\sigma = -\frac{\mu_0 e^2}{8\pi m_e} \langle \psi | \frac{x^2 + y^2}{r^3} | \psi \rangle$$



## 2.1. Chemical shifts.

Let's calculate the effect of ring current in cyclic aromatic molecules. Consider benzene molecule:



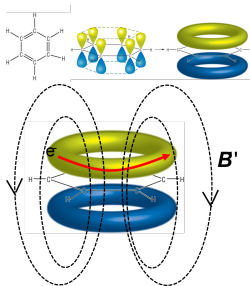
- Larmor precession frequency of electrons  $\omega_L = \frac{eB_0}{2m_e}$ . Current can be calculated as charge  $6e$ , divided by precession period  $\frac{2\pi}{\omega_L}$ :

$$i = \frac{3e^2 B_0}{2\pi m_e} \quad (39)$$

Fig.5: (top) Schematic representation of electron orbitals in a benzene molecule, (bottom) local fields in a benzene molecule produced by electron currents induced by a magnetic field.

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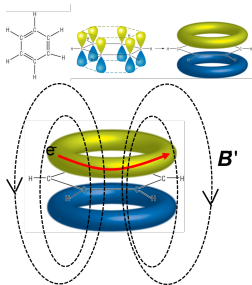


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- The magnetic field created by a magnetic moment

$$\mathbf{B} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \left( \frac{\mathbf{r}(\mathbf{m} \cdot \mathbf{r})}{r^5} - \frac{\mathbf{m}}{r^3} \right) \text{ reduces to:}$$

$$B_i = - \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{m}{r^3} = \frac{3\mu_0 e^2}{8\pi} \frac{r^2}{(r+d)^3} B_0 \quad (41)$$

$$\sigma = - - \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi m_e} \frac{m}{r^3} = \frac{3\mu_0 e^2}{8\pi} \frac{r^2}{(r+d)^3} \quad (42)$$

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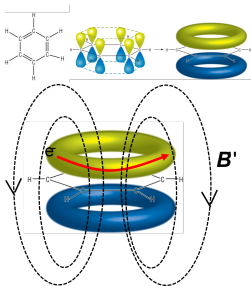


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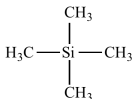
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- Given benzene molecule radius  $r = 1.4\text{\AA}$ , CH-bond length  $d = 1.1\text{\AA}$  we obtain:

$$\sigma \approx -5.3 \cdot 10^{-6}, \sigma_{iso} \approx -1.8 \cdot 10^{-6} \quad (43)$$

## 2.1. Chemical shifts.

- Chemical shifts are usually measured in ppm's and are referenced with respect to the signals of tetramethylsilane (TMS).

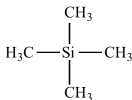


$$\delta = \frac{\nu_{\text{sample}} - \nu_{\text{TMS}}}{\nu_{\text{TMS}}} \times 10^6 \text{ ppm} \quad (44)$$

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- In general the  $^1\text{H}$  chemical shift is greater for nuclei to atoms/bonds that reduce the electron density at the atom.

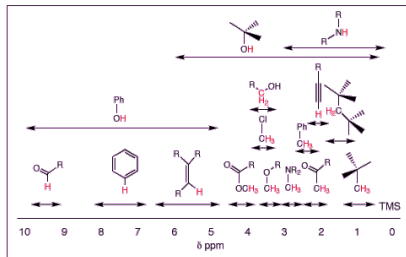


Fig.6: Chemical shifts in various organic molecules Source: <http://orgchem.colorado.edu/Spectroscopy/nmrtheory/protonchemshift.html>

## 2.1. Chemical shifts.

Consider the  $^1\text{H}$ -spectrum of methyl acetate.

- the TMS appears at 0 ppm

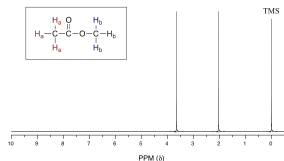


Fig.7:  $^1\text{H}$  spectrum of methyl acetate. Source: [http://chemwiki.ucdavis.edu/Organic\\_Chemistry](http://chemwiki.ucdavis.edu/Organic_Chemistry)

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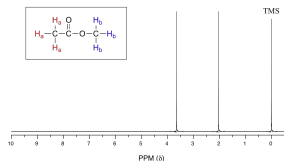


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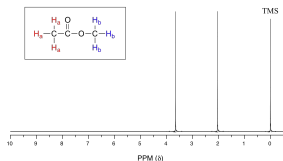


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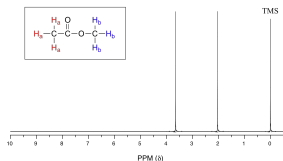


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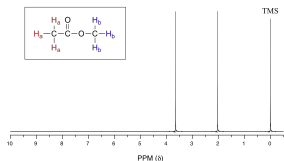


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- chemical shift increases from right to left
- two resonances correspond to protons of the two methyl groups
- the presence of electronegative oxygen atom in methoxy group produces weaker shielding ( $\sigma$ ) thus makes bigger chemical shift  $\delta$
- three nuclei of methyl groups resonate at the same frequency. Peak heights are the same.

## 2.1. Chemical shifts.

For other nuclei, paramagnetic shifts which arise from mixing of excited state with the ground state due to the effect of the applied field,  $B_0$  on the Hamiltonian can be important, and the range of chemical shifts is usually larger than for  $^1\text{H}$  nuclei.

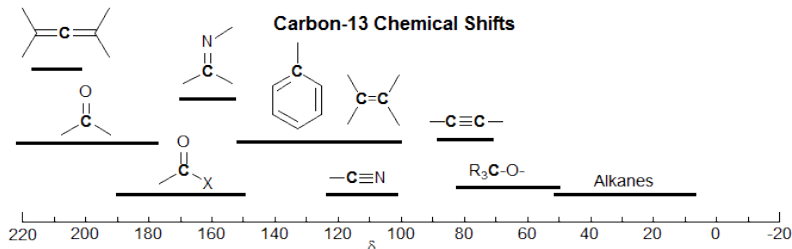


Fig.8:  $^{13}\text{C}$  chemical shifts, <https://www.chem.wisc.edu/areas/reich/nmr/>

## 2.2. J-couplings.

Nuclear spins interact with one another. In solution, one prominent spin-spin interaction is called **J-coupling**.

This intra-molecular scalar coupling is caused by the combination of two effects: the Pauli principle means that the electrons in the bond have opposite spin-state (spin-up and spin-down), while hyperfine couplings (specifically Fermi contact interaction) mean that it is energetically favourable for each nuclear spin to be anti-parallel to the electron spin.

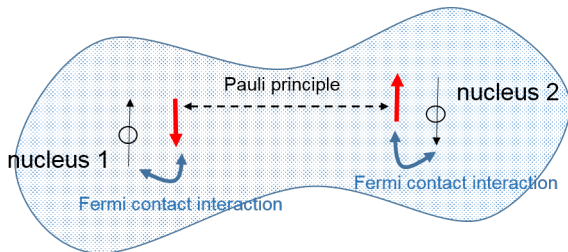


Fig.9: Origin of J-couplings. Low energy configuration in which nuclear spins are antiparallel

## 2.2. J-couplings.

- Hamiltonian of J-coupling in solution (all anisotropy is averaged):

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{H} &= J\hat{\mathbf{I}}_1 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{I}}_2 = J(\hat{I}_{1x}\hat{I}_{2x} + \hat{I}_{1y}\hat{I}_{2y} + \hat{I}_{1z}\hat{I}_{2z}) = \\ &= J\hat{I}_{1z}\hat{I}_{2z} + \frac{J}{2}(\hat{I}_{1+}\hat{I}_{2-} + \hat{I}_{1-}\hat{I}_{2+})\end{aligned}\tag{46}$$

J is usually measured in units of frequency, i.e. Hz.

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$J$  is usually measured in units of frequency, i.e. Hz.

- In frequency units the full spin Hamiltonian for a system of two nuclei A and B of the same kind would be:

$$\hat{H} = -\nu_0(1-\sigma_A)\hat{I}_{Az} - \nu_0(1-\sigma_B)\hat{I}_{Bz} + J\hat{I}_{Az}\hat{I}_{Bz} + \frac{J}{2}(\hat{I}_{A+}\hat{I}_{B-} + \hat{I}_{A-}\hat{I}_{B+})\quad (47)$$

## 2.2. J-couplings.

- For two coupled spins  $\frac{1}{2}$  the Hamiltonian matrix in the basis of functions  $|1\rangle = |\alpha_1\alpha_2\rangle, |2\rangle = |\alpha_1\beta_2\rangle, |3\rangle = |\beta_1\alpha_2\rangle, |4\rangle = |\beta_1\beta_2\rangle$  The energy levels of such a system are:

$$H_{ik} = \langle i|\hat{H}|k\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{\nu_A + \nu_B}{2} + \frac{J}{4} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{\nu_A - \nu_B}{2} - \frac{J}{4} & \frac{J}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{J}{2} & \frac{\nu_A - \nu_B}{2} - \frac{J}{4} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{\nu_A + \nu_B}{2} + \frac{J}{4} \end{bmatrix} \quad (48)$$

when  $|\nu_A - \nu_B| \gg J$  the off-diagonal terms due to  $\hat{I}_{A\pm}\hat{I}_{B\mp}$  can be neglected. That is a called **AX system**. When off-diagonal terms cannot be neglected, we deal with a so called **AB system**.

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- Let's consider nuclei of the same type (i.e. both  $^1\text{H}$  or both  $^{13}\text{C}$ ). When  $\gamma_N\hbar |\omega_1 - \omega_2| \ll J$ ,

## 2.3. J-couplings in AX system.

Eq.29 is non-zero when corresponding matrix element is not zero.  
The selection rules for two nuclei then :  $\langle i | \hat{I}_{1x} + \hat{I}_{2x} | k \rangle \neq 0$ .

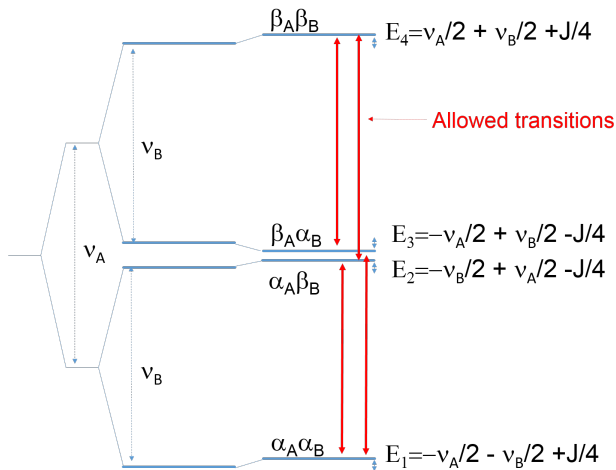


Fig.10: Level diagram for two J-coupled spins in AX system



## 2.3. J-couplings in AX system.

In a more general case, when  $I_A, I_B \neq \frac{1}{2}$ , the energy levels follow the following equation:

$$E = -\nu_A m_1 - \nu_0(1 - \sigma_B)m_2 + Jm_1m_2 \quad (49)$$

The allowed transitions for spin  $A$  have the following frequencies:

$$\nu = \nu_A + m_B J, \quad (50)$$

where  $m_B = -I_B, -(I_B - 1) \dots (I_B - 1), I_B$  is the projection of nuclear spin  $B$ . The resonance line is therefore being split into several components. Similarly, for spin  $B$ :

$$\nu = \nu_B + m_A J, \quad (51)$$

## 2.4. Interpreting simple NMR spectra

For one coupled nucleus:

$$\nu = \nu_A + m_B J, \quad (52)$$

For two coupled nuclei:

$$\nu = \nu_A + m_B J + m_C J, \quad (53)$$

For three:

$$\nu = \nu_A + m_B J + m_C J + m_D J, \quad (54)$$

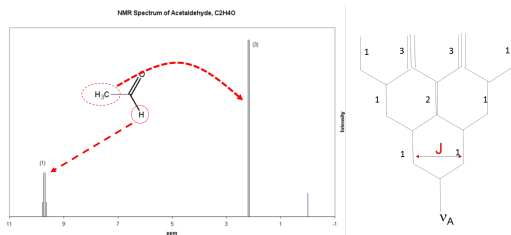
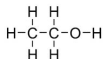


Fig.11: Spectrum of acetaldehyde. Source: <https://chem242.wikispaces.com>

## 2.4. Interpreting simple NMR spectra

### Problem

Draw schematically  $^1\text{H}$  spectrum of ethyl alcohol? Treat as AX system.

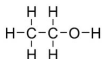


$\delta_{\text{CH}_3} = 1.22 \text{ ppm}$ ,  $\delta_{\text{CH}_2} = 3.68 \text{ ppm}$ ,  $\delta_{\text{OH}} = 2.61 \text{ ppm}$ ,  
consider only  $J_{\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_3} = 7.29 \text{ Hz}$ .

## 2.4. Interpreting simple NMR spectra

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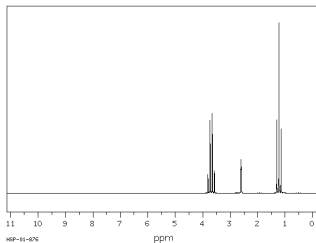


Fig.12: Ethanol spectrum at 90 MHz in  $\text{CDCl}_3$

## 2.5. Range of J-couplings. Are they useful for structure determination?

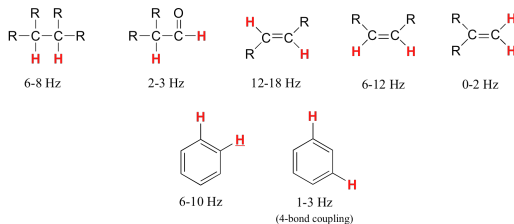


Fig.13: Typical J-couplings [https://chem.libretexts.org/Textbook\\_Maps/Organic\\_Chemistry\\_Textbook\\_Maps/](https://chem.libretexts.org/Textbook_Maps/Organic_Chemistry_Textbook_Maps/)

Is there any simple meaning to J-couplings?

$$J = A \cos \phi + B \cos 2\phi + C \quad (55)$$

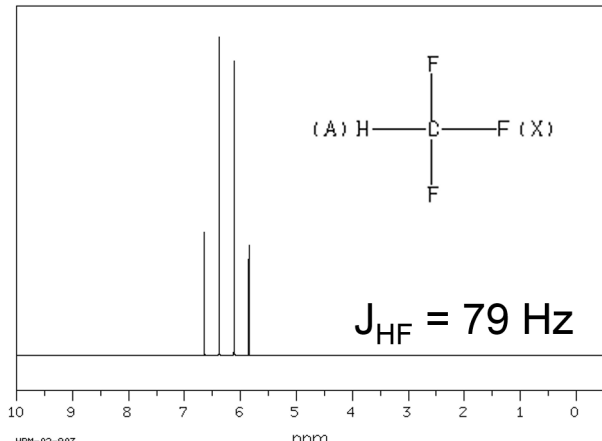
## 2.5. Range of J-couplings. Are they useful for structure determination?

Heteronuclear systems are automatically AX systems, i.e.

$$|\nu_A - \nu_B| \gg J.$$

Example: trifluoromethane (fluoroform)

$^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum



## 2.6. J-coupling in equivalent system.

Are protons in CH<sub>3</sub> or CH<sub>2</sub> groups coupled to one another?

**Yes.** But they are equivalent and therefore not observed.



$$\hat{H} = -\nu_0(\hat{I}_{1z} + \hat{I}_{2z} + \hat{I}_{3z}) + J(\mathbf{I}_1\mathbf{I}_2 + \mathbf{I}_2\mathbf{I}_3 + \mathbf{I}_1\mathbf{I}_3) \quad (56)$$

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- We can introduce new operator:  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{I}_1 + \mathbf{I}_2 + \mathbf{I}_3$ . Given that  $I_1 = I_2 = I_3 = \frac{1}{2}$  the Hamiltonian can be rewritten using this new operator:

$$\hat{H} = -\nu_0\hat{F}_z + J(\mathbf{F}^2 - \frac{9}{4}) \quad (58)$$

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- Eigenfunctions of this Hamiltonian are functions  $|FM_F\rangle$ , where  $F = \frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{3}{2}$ .

## 2.6. J-coupling in equivalent system.



$$\hat{H} = -\nu_0 \hat{F}_z + J(\mathbf{F}^2 - \frac{9}{4}) \quad (59)$$

Selection rules for transitions:  $\langle i | \hat{F}_x | k \rangle \neq 0$ , since

$\hat{F}_x = \frac{\hat{F}_+ + \hat{F}_-}{2}$ , the selection rules then are:  $\langle i | \hat{F}_\pm | k \rangle \neq 0$

Since  $\hat{F}_\pm = \text{const} |FM_F \pm 1\rangle$ , the allowed transition does not change the second term in Eq.58.

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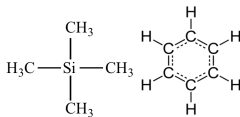
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- Strictly speaking if a molecule contains only nuclei of one type, and no other  $J$ -splitting will not be observed. Examples:

tetramethylsilane (TMS), benzene



## 2.7. J-coupling in AB system.

What happens if  $\nu_A - \nu_B \gg J$  is no longer true?

- The matrix of spin Hamiltonian is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -\frac{\nu_A + \nu_B}{2} + \frac{J}{4} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{\nu_A - \nu_B}{2} - \frac{J}{4} & \frac{J}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{J}{2} & \frac{\nu_A - \nu_B}{2} - \frac{J}{4} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{\nu_A + \nu_B}{2} + \frac{J}{4} \end{bmatrix} \quad (60)$$

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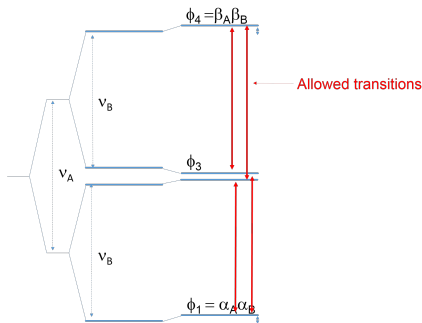
- The general way of solving is finding the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of this Hamiltonian.
- the solution can be represented by following replacements:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\nu_A - \nu_B}{2} &= \frac{\delta}{2} = C \cos 2\theta \\ \frac{J}{2} &= C \sin 2\theta \\ C &= \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\delta^2 + J^2}, \tan 2\theta = \frac{J}{\delta}, \bar{\nu} = \frac{\nu_A + \nu_B}{2} \end{aligned} \quad (61)$$

## 2.7. J-coupling in AB system.

In this notation the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions are:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_1 &= -\bar{\nu} + \frac{J}{4} & \phi_1 &= |\alpha_A \alpha_B\rangle \\
 E_2 &= -\frac{J}{4} - C & \phi_2 &= \sin \theta |\alpha_A \beta_B\rangle - \cos \theta |\beta_A \alpha_2\rangle \\
 E_3 &= -\frac{J}{4} + C & \phi_3 &= \cos \theta |\alpha_A \beta_B\rangle + \sin \theta |\beta_A \alpha_2\rangle \\
 E_4 &= \bar{\nu} + \frac{J}{4} & \phi_4 &= |\beta_A \beta_B\rangle
 \end{aligned} \tag{62}$$



### Problem

Calculate the transition probability between levels 1 and 2? (Hint: use Eq.29)

Fig.14: Level diagram for AB system of J-coupled nuclei.



## 2.7. J-coupling in AB system.

### Problem

Calculate the transition probability between levels 1 and 2? (Hint: use Eq.29 )

For transition  $1 \leftrightarrow 2$  we have:

$$\begin{aligned} I_{1 \leftrightarrow 2} &\sim |\langle 1 | \hat{I}_{Ax} + \hat{I}_{Bx} | 2 \rangle|^2 = \\ &= \langle 1 | \frac{\hat{I}_{A+} + \hat{I}_{A-}}{2} + \frac{\hat{I}_{B+} + \hat{I}_{B-}}{2} | 2 \rangle^2 = \\ &= \left( \langle \alpha_A \alpha_B | \frac{\hat{I}_{A+} + \hat{I}_{A-}}{2} + \frac{\hat{I}_{B+} + \hat{I}_{B-}}{2} | \sin \theta | \alpha_A \beta_B \rangle + \cos \theta | \beta_A \alpha_B \rangle \right)^2 = \\ &= \left( \frac{\cos \theta + \sin \theta}{2} \right)^2 = \frac{1 + \sin 2\theta}{4} \end{aligned} \tag{63}$$

## 2.7. J-coupling in AB system.

For all the transitions we obtain:

Transition	Frequency	Intensity:
$4 \leftrightarrow 2$	$\bar{\nu} + C + \frac{J}{2}$	$1 - \sin 2\theta$
$3 \leftrightarrow 1$	$\bar{\nu} + C - \frac{J}{2}$	$1 + \sin 2\theta$
$4 \leftrightarrow 3$	$\bar{\nu} - C + \frac{J}{2}$	$1 + \sin 2\theta$
$2 \leftrightarrow 1$	$\bar{\nu} - C - \frac{J}{2}$	$1 - \sin 2\theta$
		4

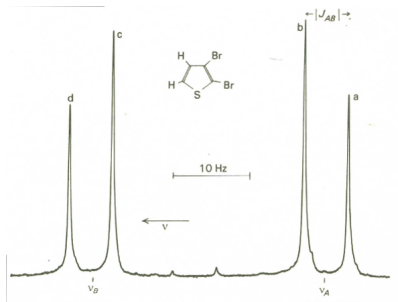


Fig.15: 100 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum of 2,3-dibromothiophene,  $|\nu_A - \nu_B| = 30.5$  Hz,  $J = 5.7$  Hz

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$2 \leftrightarrow 1$	$\bar{\nu} - C - \frac{J}{2}$	$\frac{1 - \sin 2\theta}{4}$

Consider following scenarios:

1.  $J \ll \delta$  means that  $\sin 2\theta \ll 1$  and  $C \approx \frac{\delta}{2}$ . The leads to AX system shown Fig.46B
2.  $\delta \ll J$  means that  $\sin 2\theta \approx 1$ . A strong double and two weak satellite lines in Fig.46C.

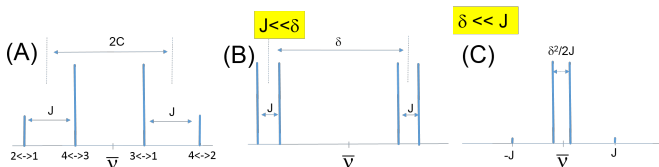


Fig.16: Schematic spectra in several cases (A)  $|\nu_A - \nu_B| \sim J$ , (B) weakly coupled nuclei  $|\nu_A - \nu_B| \gg J$ , (C) very weak J-coupling  $|\nu_A - \nu_B| \ll J$

## 2.7. J-coupling in AB system.

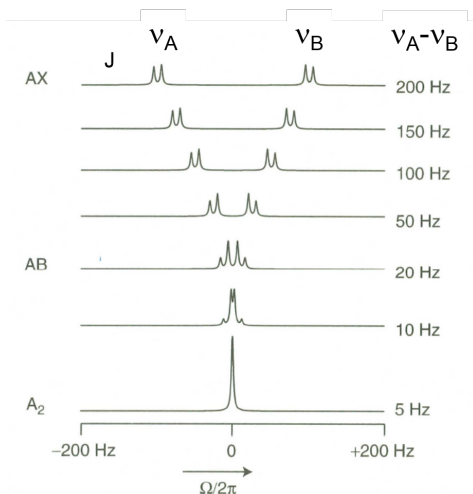


Fig.17: Spectra of spin  $\frac{1}{2}$  pairs for  $J = 10$  Hz as a function of Larmor frequency difference.

content...