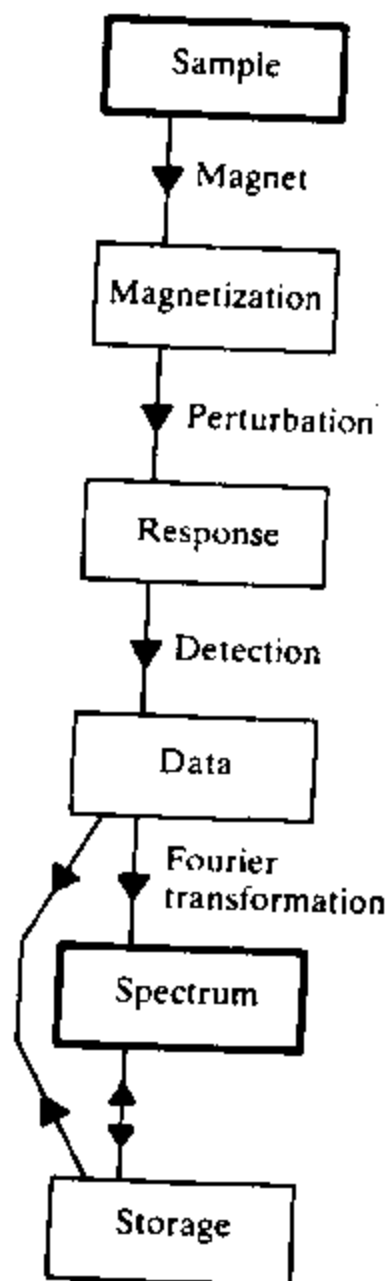


**CHEM / BCMB 4190/6190/8189**

**Introductory NMR**

Lectures 1 and 2



## Nuclear Magnetism:

NMR is a manifestation of nuclear spin angular momentum (**P**).

$$P = \hbar \sqrt{I(I+1)}$$

$I$  = angular momentum quantum number

$\hbar$  = Planck's constant/  $2\pi$

### Possible Values of $I$ :

1.  $I=0$ , mass number ( $A$ ) and atomic number ( $Z$ ) are even.
2.  $I$  = half-integral value,  $A$  is odd.
3.  $I$  = integral value,  $A$  is even and  $Z$  is odd.

### For NMR:

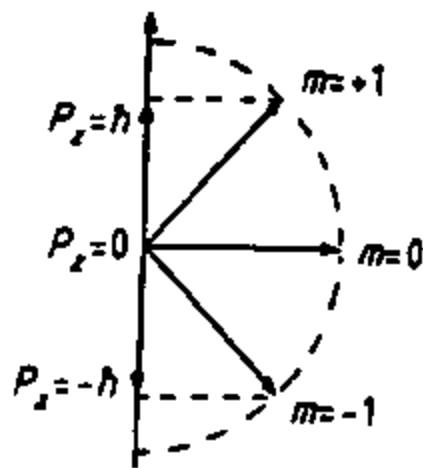
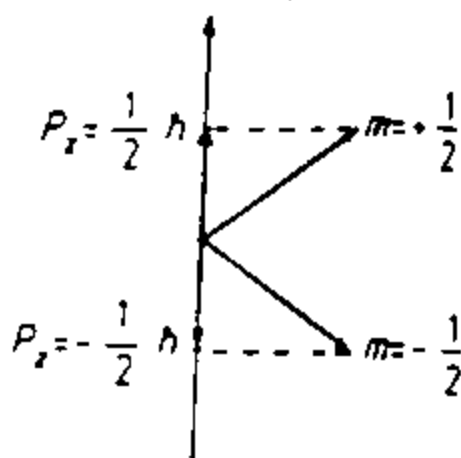
- $I=0$  are NMR-inactive
- $I > 1/2$ , nuclei possess electric quadrupole moment due to non-spherical nuclear charge distribution. The lifetime of the magnetic states for quadrupoles in solution are much shorter than for  $I=1/2$ . This results in line broadening and they can be more difficult to study.
- $I = 1/2$  include  $^1\text{H}$ ,  $^{13}\text{C}$ ,  $^{15}\text{N}$  and  $^{31}\text{P}$ .

Due to restrictions of quantum mechanics only one of the three Cartesian coordinates can be specified.

$$P_z = \hbar m$$

$m = (-I, -I + 1, \dots, I - 1, I)$  - magnetic quantum number.

$I_z$  has  $2I+1$  values of  $m$ . This behavior is called directional quantization.



Nuclei with non-zero spin angular momentum also possess nuclear magnetic moment:

$$\mu = \gamma \mathbf{P}$$

–  $\gamma$  in part determines the receptivity of a nucleus in NMR spectroscopy. It is a constant for a given nuclide and it is referred to as the gyromagnetic ratio.

–  $\mu$  and  $\mathbf{P}$  are usually in the same direction but one important exception is  $^{15}\text{N}$ .

Therefore:

$$\mu_z = m\gamma\hbar$$

More Quantitatively:

$$\mu = \frac{g e \hbar I}{4\pi M c}$$

$M$  = mass

$e$  = charge uniformly spread over the surface

$c$  = speed of light.

**\*\* No simple model can predict or explain the actual magnetic moments of nuclei\*\***

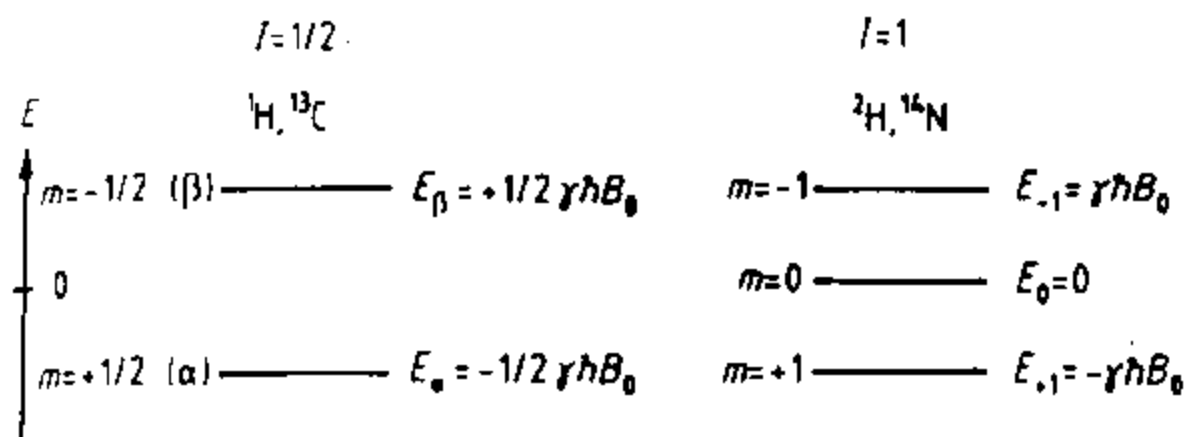
In absence of an external magnetic field:  
 $2I + 1$  states of  $m$  are equivalent

In presence of an external magnetic field, the spin states of a nucleus have energies given by:

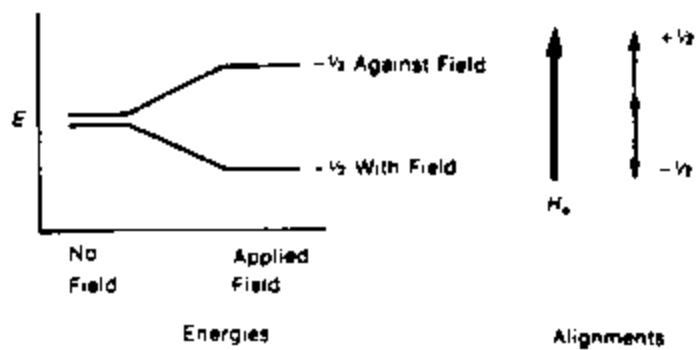
$$E = \mu_z B_0 = -I_z \gamma \hbar B_0$$

$B_0$  = static magnetic field strength

The projection of angular momentum of the nuclei onto the z-axis of the laboratory frame results in  $2I + 1$  equally spaced energy levels, which are referred to as the Zeeman levels or Zeeman States.



For  $I_z = 1/2$  we have  $m = +1/2$  and  $m = -1/2$  in which  $\mu_z$  is either parallel or anti-parallel to the field direction.



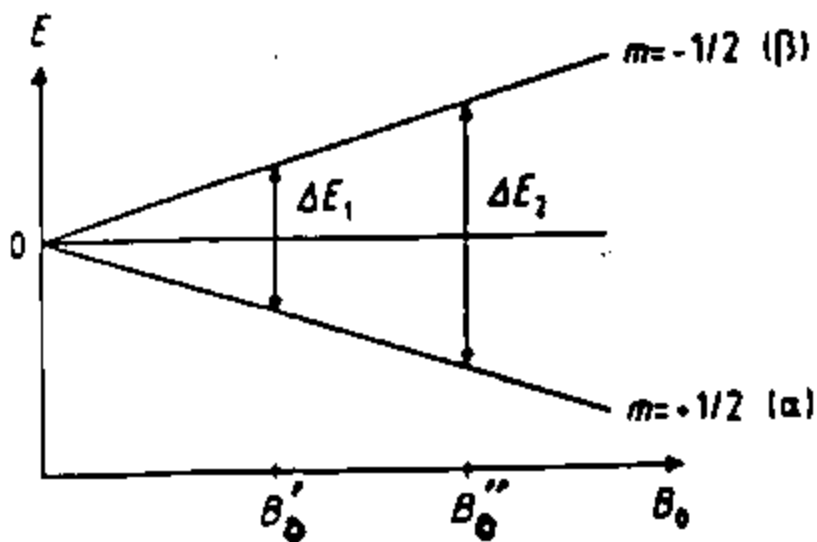
In quantum mechanics:

$m = +1/2 = \text{spin function } \alpha$

$m = -1/2 = \text{spin function } \beta$

Since we are restricted to single quantum transitions:

$$\Delta m = \pm 1$$



$$\Delta E = \gamma \hbar B_0$$

What Effects  $\Delta E$  and why is this important?

- gyromagnetic ratio
- strength of static magnetic field

At equilibrium the energy states are not equally populated and the relative populations is given by the Boltzmann distribution.

$$\frac{N_m}{N} = \exp\left(\frac{-E_m}{k_B T}\right) / \sum_{m=-I}^I \exp\left(\frac{-E_m}{k_B T}\right)$$

In our case,  $E_m = -m \hbar \gamma B_0$

$$= \exp\left(\frac{m \hbar \gamma B_0}{k_B T}\right) / \sum_{m=-I}^I \exp\left(\frac{m \hbar \gamma B_0}{k_B T}\right)$$

Since  $m \hbar \gamma B_0 \ll k_B T$  the exponential can be expanded to first order using Taylor series.

$$\approx \left(1 + \frac{m \hbar \gamma B_0}{k_B T}\right) / \sum_{m=-I}^I \left(1 + \frac{m \hbar \gamma B_0}{k_B T}\right)$$
$$\approx \left(1 + \frac{m \hbar \gamma B_0}{k_B T}\right) / (2I + 1),$$

- $\exp(-E/k_B T) \approx 1 - E/k_B T$
- denominator sums to  $\approx 2I + 1$

The book gives an example for  $I=1/2$

$$\frac{N_{\beta}}{N_{\alpha}} = e^{-\Delta E/k_b T} \cong 1 - \Delta E/k_b T = 1 - \gamma \hbar B_0 / k_b T$$

$k$ : Boltzmann constant ( $1.3805 \times 10^{-16}$  erg  $K^{-1}$ )

$T$ : temperature (K)

$\hbar$ : Plank constant ( $1.0546 \times 10^{-27}$  erg S)

$B_0$ : magnetic field strength

(Tesla, T; 100 MHz  $\Leftrightarrow$  2.35 T )

$\gamma$ : gyromagnetic ratio ( $10^7$  Hz  $T^{-1}$ )

e.g.

At  $T = 300K$  and  $B_0 = 5.875$  T (250 MHz),

$^1H$ :

$$\frac{N_{\beta}}{N_{\alpha}} = 1 - \frac{26.7519 \times 10^7 \times 1.0546 \times 10^{-27} \times 5.875}{1.3805 \times 10^{-16} \times 300}$$

$$N_{\beta} \approx (1 - 0.00004) N_{\alpha} = 0.99996 N_{\alpha}$$

For  $B_0 = 18.8$  T (800 MHz),

$$N_{\beta} \approx 0.99987 N_{\alpha}$$



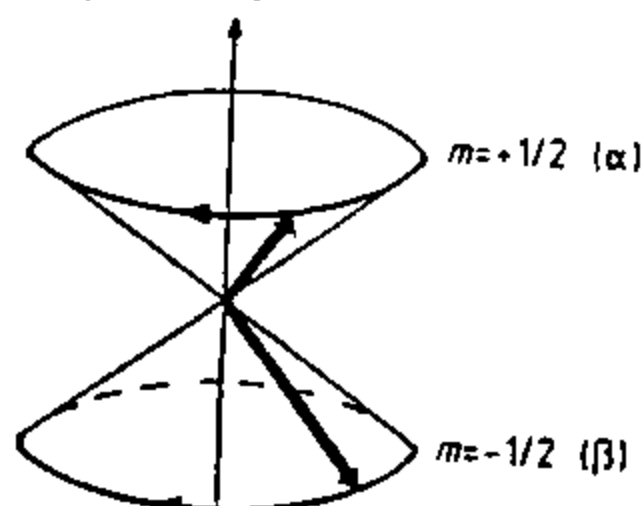
In classical representation the nuclear dipoles precess about the magnetic field direction with Larmor Frequency:

$$\omega_0 = \gamma B_0 \text{ (Radians/sec)}$$

$$\nu = \omega_0 / 2\pi = \gamma B_0 / 2\pi \text{ (Hertz or cycles/sec)}$$

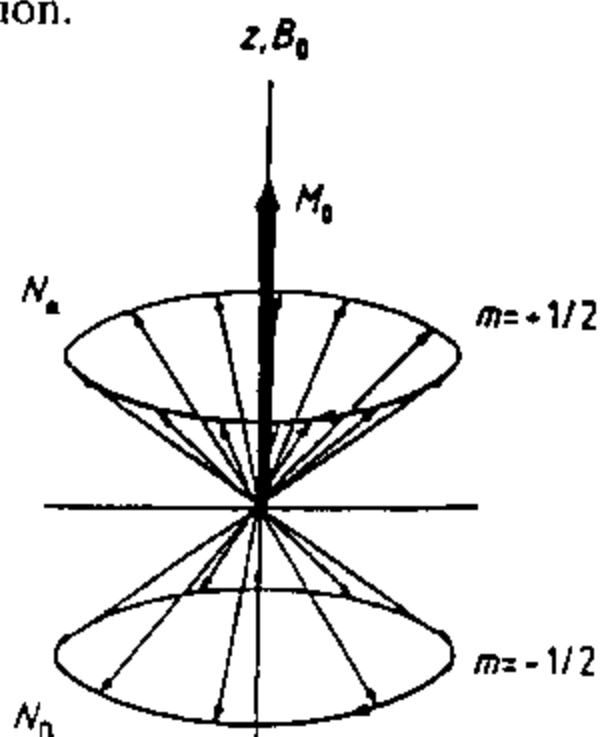
The z-component is given by the magnetic moment:

$$\mu_z = \gamma P_z = m\gamma\hbar \quad z, B_0$$



When  $m = \pm 1/2$ ; The nuclear dipoles precess around a double cone with a half-angle of the cone is  $54.7^\circ$ .

Due to the differences in populations of the energy states there is macroscopic magnetization along the magnetic field direction.



For a macroscopic sample,

The x and y components are random and sum to zero so:

$$M_0 = \gamma \hbar \sum_{m=-I}^I m N_m$$

but we know that:

$$N_m = N \exp(m \hbar \gamma B_0 / k_b T) / \sum \exp(m \hbar \gamma B_0 / k_b T)$$

Doing the math:

$$M_0 = N \gamma^2 \hbar^2 B_0 I(I+1) / (3 k_b T)$$

So the macroscopic magnetization ( $M_0$ ) depends on:

- $B_0$
- $I$
- $\gamma^2$
- $1/T$

## What happens in NMR:

To induce NMR transitions a radiofrequency pulse is applied to the sample. The pulse is generated by a linear alternating electromagnetic field ( $B_1$ ) along a transverse axis. This results in  $M_0$  being rotated into the XY plane.

## Resonance Condition:

$$h \nu_1 = \Delta E$$

Absorption: Lower energy  $\Rightarrow$  higher energy

Emission: Higher energy  $\Rightarrow$  Lower energy

Saturation: Equal number of emissions to absorption.

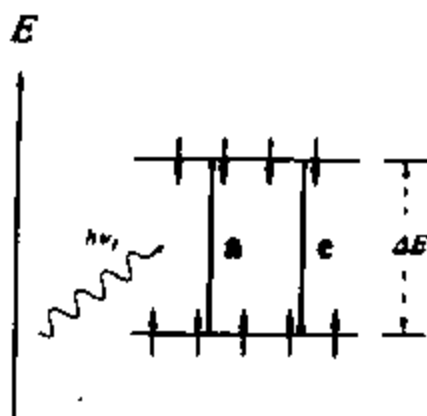


Figure 1-6.

Larmor frequency :  $\nu_1 = \nu_L = |\gamma / 2\pi| B_0$

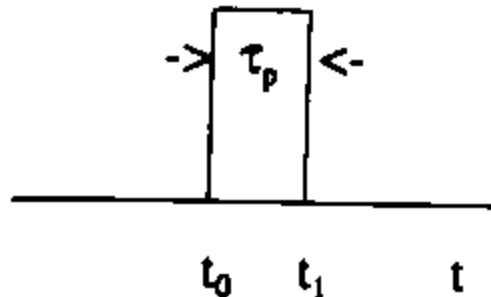
At 11.7T: for  $^1\text{H}$   $\gamma = 2.675 \times 10^8$   $\nu_0 = 500$  MHz

For  $^{13}\text{C}$   $\gamma = 0.6726 \times 10^8$   $\nu_0 = 125$  MHz

$B_0$ [T]	Resonance frequencies [MHz]	
	$^1\text{H}$	$^{13}\text{C}$
1.41	60	15.1
1.88	80	20.1
2.11	90	22.63
2.35	100	25.15
4.70	200	50.3
5.87	250	62.9
7.05	300	75.4
9.40	400	100.6
11.74	500	125.7
14.09	600	150.9
17.62	750	188.2
18.79	800	201.2

## Pulsed NMR:

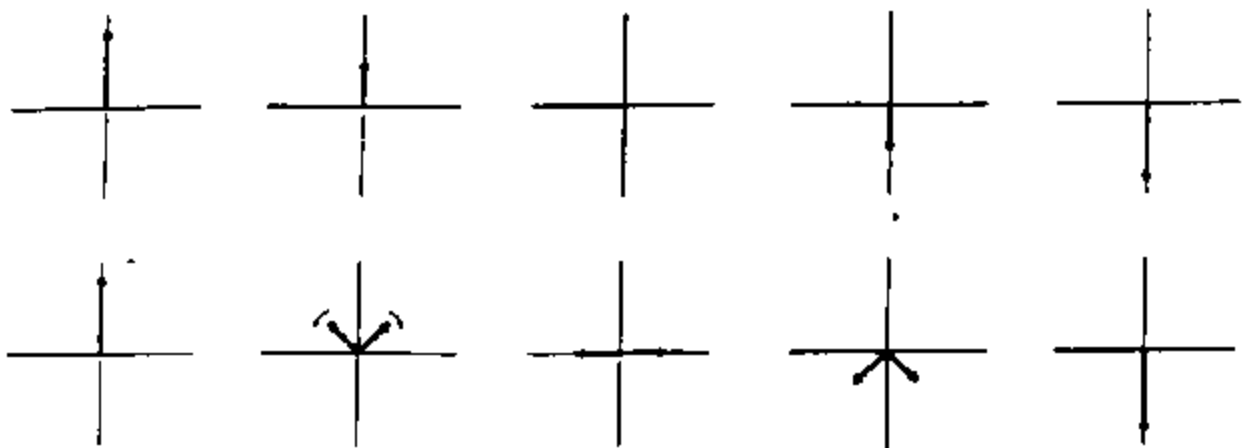
All nuclei are excited simultaneously by a radiofrequency pulse.



Pulse angle is proportional to the pulse width (duration) and pulse power (Magnitude of  $B_1$  field).

The coil is arranged so that this field is perpendicular to the applied field ( in the x-y plane)

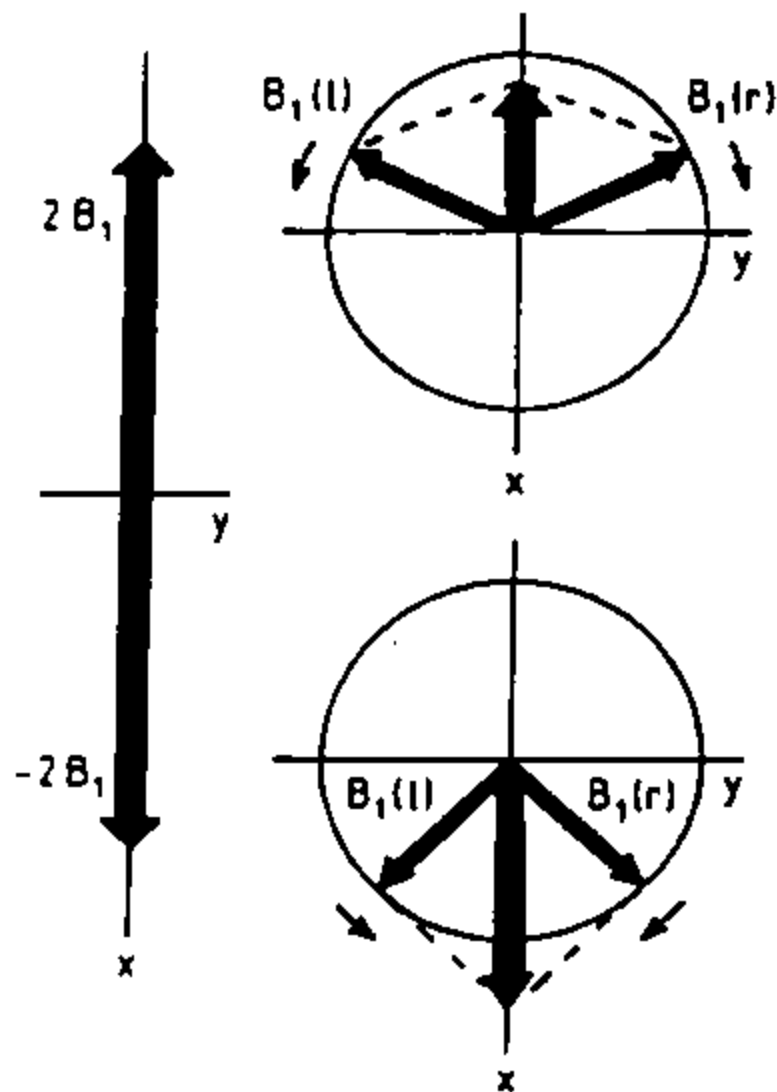
The oscillating magnetic field is equivalent to two counter-rotating magnetization vectors.



We can use this pair of counter-rotating vectors as an equivalent representation of the  $rf$  signal.

We will represent the  $rf$  along the  $x$ -direction as two vectors with the same magnitude ( $B_1$ )

- one vector rotates clockwise  $B_1(r)$
- one vector rotates c-clockwise  $B_1(l)$



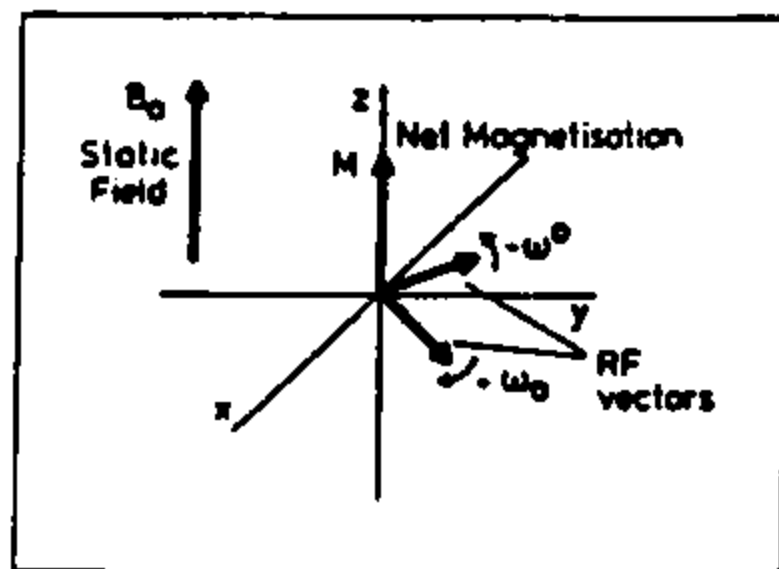
Only one of the two components is capable of interacting with the precessing nuclear dipoles ( $B_1$ ).

The sample magnetization is static along the z-axis.

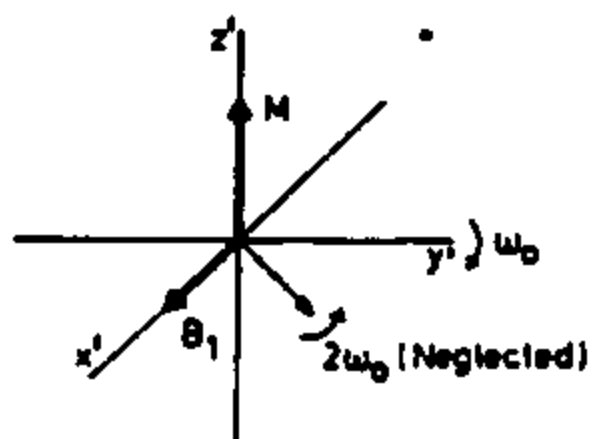
What happens when the *rf* magnetization (which is moving) interacts with the sample magnetization?

The Rotating Frame:

- Experimentally, detected signal is subtracted from the carrier frequency. We chose a set of coordinates that rotate along with the nuclear precession.



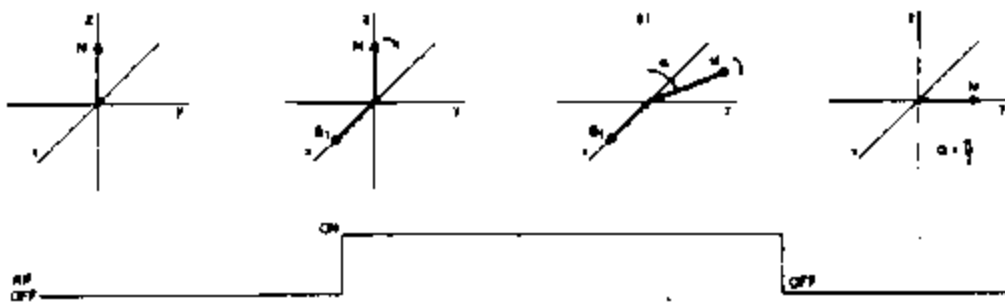
LAB FRAME



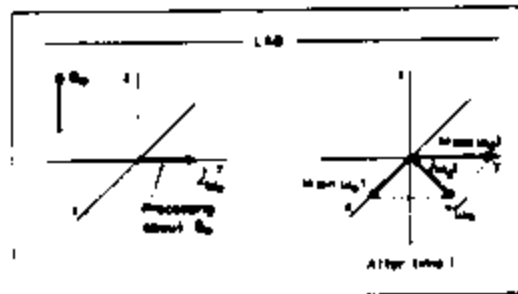
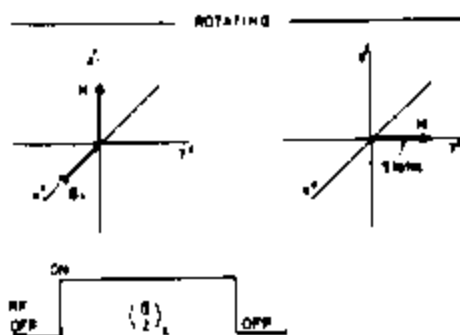
ROTATING FRAME

How can we use this to look at  $\mu$  pulses( $B_1$ )?

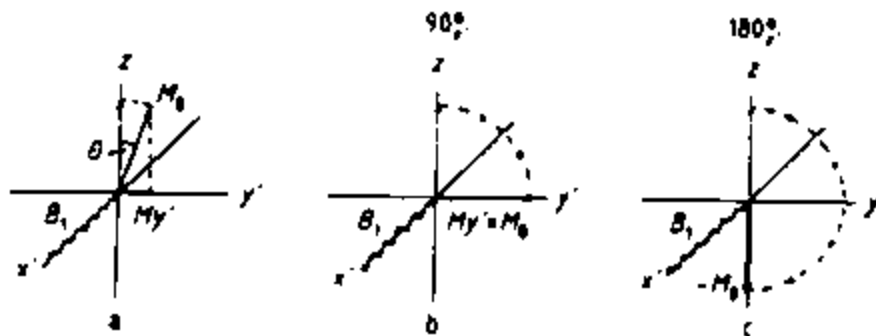
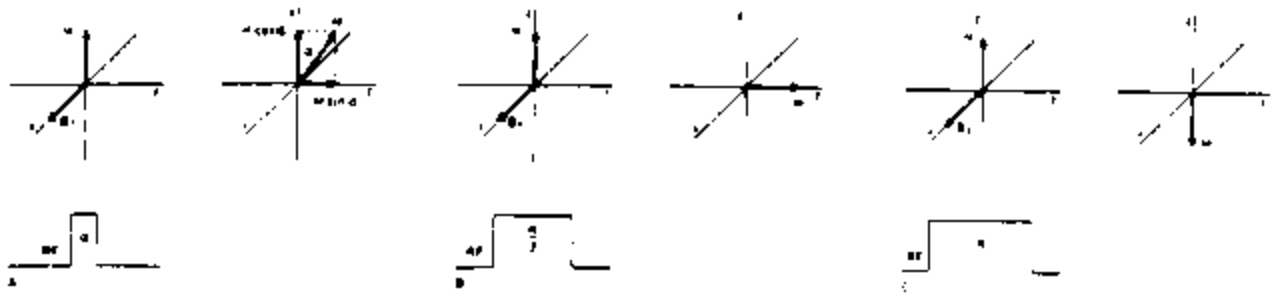
- In the rotating frame  $B_1$  is at right angles to  $M$ .
- The net result is to produce a torque acting around  $B_1$  at a speed depending on the field strength.



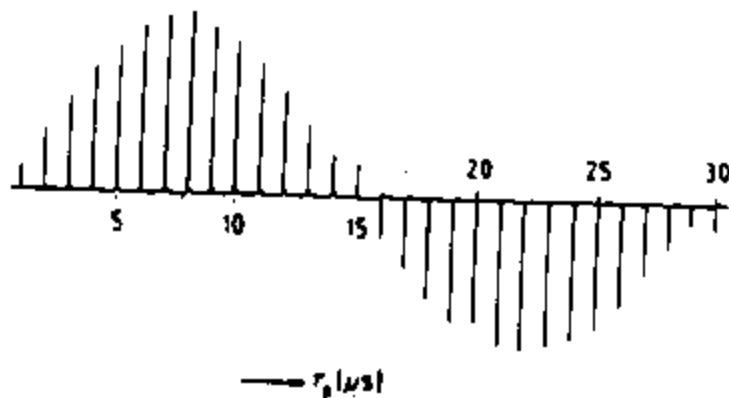
How does this look in our two frames of reference?



What happens to  $M$  as we increase the length of the pulse?



How does this effect the NMR signal?

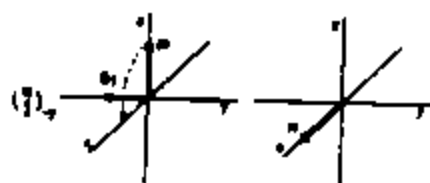
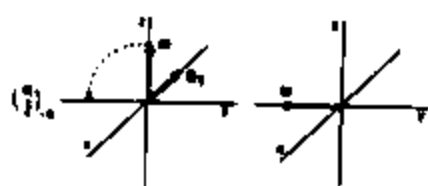
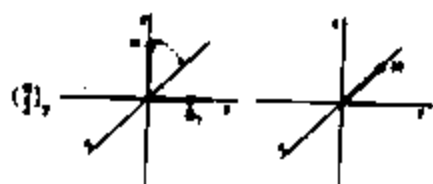
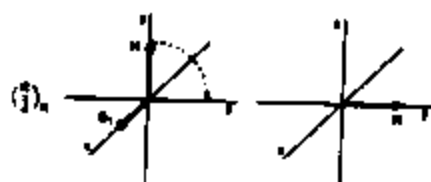


Our receiver is oriented with its axis along the  $y$ -direction.

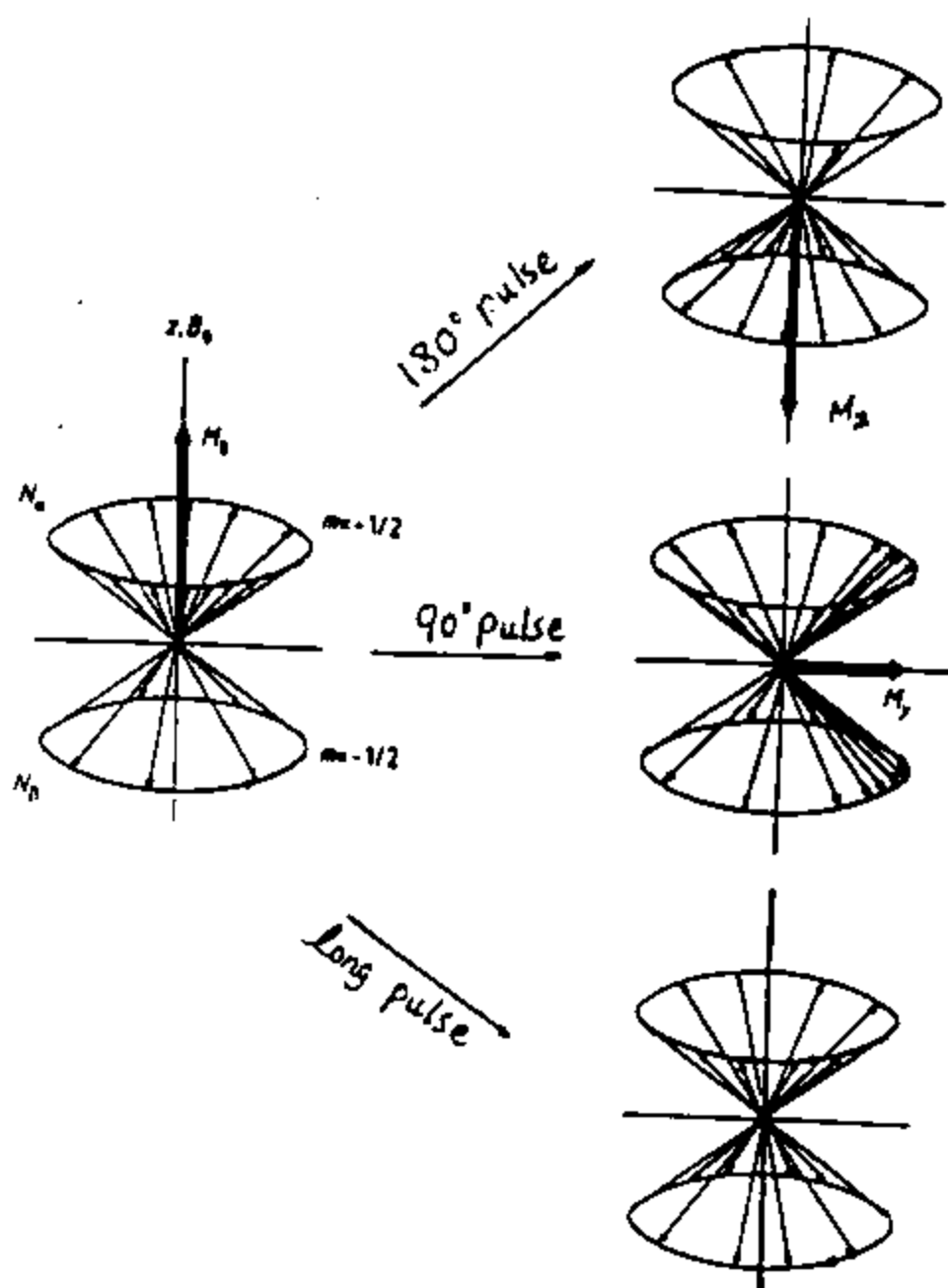


$\theta$  = pulse angle or pulse flip-angle.

Four common pulses and their phases ( $\phi$ ):



Pictorial representation of phase coherence:



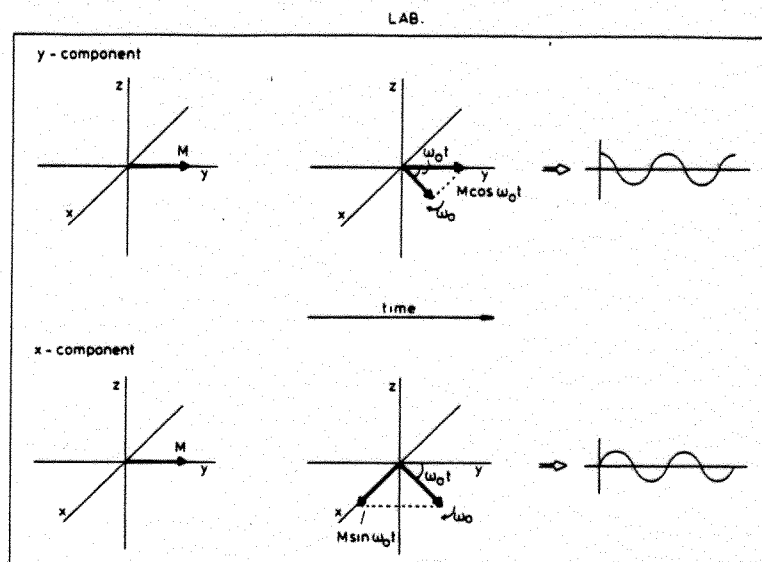
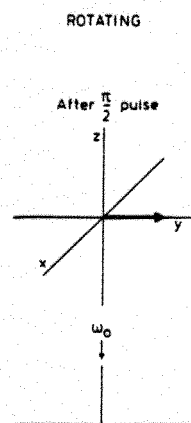


Figure 4.13 A closer look at the sample magnetisation in the lab. frame after a  $(\pi/2)_x$  pulse reveals *two* rf signals, differing only in phase (by  $90^\circ$ ).

Figure 4.14 The same as 4.13, but after a  $(\pi/2)_y$  pulse.

