# Lecture #3 Nuclear Spin Hamiltonian

- Topics
  - Liouville-von Neuman equation
  - Time-averaged versus instantaneous spin Hamiltonian
  - Chemical shift and J, dipolar, and quadrupolar coupling

1

- Reading assignments
  - van de Ven: Chapters 2.1-2.2
  - Levitt, Chapters 7 (optional)

#### Coherences

- Nuclear spins can be thought of as weak magnetic dipoles, each with a well defined direction of polarization.
- Summing the polarization across many spins can result in net phase coherences.



Net tendency for S spins to be +z No net tendency for I spins in any direction



No net tendency for I or S spins to be  $\pm z$ If I or S is  $\pm z$ , increased probability paired spin is  $\pm z$ 

## The Spin Density Operator

- Spin density operator,  $\hat{\sigma}(t)$ , is the mathematical quantity that describes a statistical mixture of spins and the associated phase coherences that can occur, as encountered in a typical NMR or MRI experiment.
- $\hat{\sigma}(t)$  is usually expressed as a linear combination of basis operators, e.g.  $\{\frac{1}{2}\hat{E}, \hat{I}_x, \hat{S}_x, \hat{I}_y, \hat{S}_y, \dots, 2\hat{I}_z\hat{S}_z\}$  (the 16 two-spin product operators)
- Coherences (signals) observable with an Rf coil:

$$M_{x} = \gamma \hbar \operatorname{Tr}\left\{\hat{\sigma}\hat{I}_{x}\right\} = \gamma \hbar \overline{\langle\hat{I}_{x}\rangle} \qquad M_{y} = \gamma \hbar \operatorname{Tr}\left\{\hat{\sigma}\hat{I}_{y}\right\} = \gamma \hbar \overline{\langle\hat{I}_{y}\rangle}$$

• Some coherences not directly observable with an Rf coil:

$$M_{z} = \gamma \hbar \overline{\langle \hat{I}_{z} \rangle} \qquad C_{xz} = \gamma \hbar \overline{\langle 2\hat{I}_{x}\hat{S}_{z} \rangle} \qquad C_{zz} = \gamma \hbar \overline{\langle 2\hat{I}_{z}\hat{S}_{z} \rangle} \qquad C_{zz} = \gamma \hbar \overline{\langle 2\hat{I}_{z}\hat{S}_{z} \rangle} \qquad \text{``longitudinal two-spin order''}$$

• The goal is to describe how these quantities evolve in time.

# Liouville-von Neumann Equation

• Time evolution of  $\hat{\sigma}(t)$ :



 $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\hat{\sigma} = -i\hat{H}\hat{\sigma} \qquad \hat{H} \text{ is the Hamiltonian operator} \\ \text{and corresponds to the energy} \\ \text{of the system } (\mathcal{E}/\hbar). \end{cases}$ 

•  $\hat{H}$  can often be expressed as sum of a large static component plus a small time-varying perturbation:  $\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}_1(t)$ , leading to...

Relaxation superoperator (a function of  $\hat{H}_1$ )

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\hat{\sigma} = -i\hat{\hat{H}}_{0}\hat{\sigma} - \hat{\hat{\Gamma}}(\hat{\sigma} - \hat{\sigma}_{B})$$
Rotations Relaxation

(Compare with Bloch's equations)

• The key, yet again, is finding the Hamiltonian!

### Spin-Lattice Disconnect

 Complete QM description of a molecule involves lots of terms in the Hamiltonian (nuclear spin, molecular motion, electron-nucleus interactions, etc).

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_{l} + \hat{H}_{s} + \hat{H}_{i}$$
lattice spin interaction term

• Previously, we assumed a negligible interaction between the nuclear spins and the lattice:

$$\hat{H} \approx \hat{H}_l + \hat{H}_s$$
 and just solved  $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\hat{\sigma} = -i\hat{H}_s\hat{\sigma}$ 

• Now we need to take a closer look at the interaction term, which includes effects such as spin operator coefficients that depend on molecular orientation, etc.

## The Nuclear Spin Hamiltonian

•  $\hat{H}$  is the sum of different terms representing different physical interactions.  $\hat{H} = \hat{H}_1 + \hat{H}_2 + \hat{H}_3 + \cdots$ 

Examples: 1) interaction of spin with  $B_0$ 

2) interactions with dipole fields of other nuclei

3) nuclear-electron couplings

- In general, we can think of an atomic nucleus as a lumpy magnet with a (possibly non-uniform) positive electric charge
- The spin Hamiltonian contains terms which describe the orientation dependence of the nuclear energy



The nuclear magnetic moment interacts with magnetic fields

The nuclear electric charge interacts with electric fields

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}^{elec} + \hat{H}^{mag}$$

#### **Electromagnetic Interactions**

$$\hat{H}^{mag} = -\vec{\hat{\mu}} \cdot \vec{B} = -\gamma \hbar \vec{\hat{I}} \cdot \vec{B}_{\star}$$

local magnetic field

• Electric interactions

Nuclear electric charge distributions can be expressed as a sum of multipole components.

monopole dipole quadrapole  

$$= \underbrace{(\vec{r})}_{r} + \underbrace{(\vec{r})}_{r}$$

Symmetry properties:  $C^{(n)}=0$  for n>2I and odd interaction terms disappear

$$\hat{H}^{elec} = 0 \text{ (for spin I = 1/2)}$$
$$\hat{H}^{elec} \neq 0 \text{ (for spin I > 1/2)}$$

Hence, for spin- $\frac{1}{2}$  nuclei there are no electrical energy terms that depend on orientation or internal nuclear structure, and they behaves exactly like point charges! Nuclei with spin >  $\frac{1}{2}$  have electrical quadrupolar moments.

### Motional Averaging

• Molecular motion



• Previously, we used averaging to simplify the Hamiltonian

Molecular orientation depends on time and Hamiltonian terms can be written as  $\hat{H}^{0}_{int}(\Theta(t))$ . These terms were replaced by their time averages:



"secular" mean?

• We no longer want to make this approximation. Instead, the time variations will be analyzed as perturbations.

#### Time-averaged Spin Hamiltonian



### Instantaneous Spin Hamiltonian



### Simplifications

- In general, the nuclear spin Hamiltonian is quite complicated.
- We'll regularly make use of two simplifications.
  - 1. For terms in the Hamiltonian that are periodic, we use a change of basis.

$$\hat{H}' = e^{-i\omega t \hat{l}_z} \hat{H} = e^{-i\omega t \hat{l}_z} \hat{H} e^{i\omega t \hat{l}_z}$$
rotating frame laboratory frame

$$\hat{H}(t) = -\omega_0 \hat{I}_z - \omega_1 \left( \hat{I}_x \cos \omega t - \hat{I}_y \sin \omega t \right) \implies \hat{H}_{eff} = -(\omega_0 - \omega) \hat{I}_z - \omega_1 \hat{I}_x$$

2. The secular approximation

### The Secular Approximation

"large" "small"

- The large  $B_0$  field dominates some of the internal spin interactions.
- Consider the general case of  $\hat{H} = \hat{A} + \hat{B}$
- Choosing the eigenkets,  $\hat{A}|i\rangle = a_i|i\rangle$ , as an orthonormal basis set, then  $\underline{A} = \text{diag}(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n).$
- Example: let the eigenvalues of <u>A</u> have the following pattern: •



## The Secular Approximation

• The secular approximation of <u>B</u> is:

• Mathematically  $\underline{B}^0 = \sum_{n} b_{nn} |n\rangle \langle n| + \sum_{m \neq n} \dot{b}_{mn} |m\rangle \langle n|$ 

where the ' indicates summation only over terms which connect degenerate or nearly degenerate states of <u>A</u>.

- This is equivalent to omitting terms for which  $|b_{mn}| \ll |a_m a_n|$ .
- The secular approximation for the Hamiltonian is:  $\hat{H} \approx \hat{A} + \hat{B}^0$ .

### Secular Approximation Example

- Consider a spin in a large field  $B_0$  to which we add an x gradient  $G_x$ .
- We actually can't create the field  $G_x x \vec{z}$  alone (see Laplace's Eqn)
- We really have:  $\vec{B} = B_0 \vec{z} + G_x x \vec{z} + \Delta B_x (x, y, z) \vec{x} + \Delta B_y (x, y, z) \vec{y}$ In MRI, these are often called "Maxwell" or "concomitant gradient" terms.

Hence: 
$$\hat{H} = -\gamma \vec{B} \cdot \vec{\hat{I}} = -\gamma B_0 \hat{I}_z - \gamma G_x x \hat{I}_z - \gamma \Delta B_x \hat{I}_x - \gamma \Delta B_y \hat{I}_y = \hat{A} + \hat{B}$$
  
where  $\hat{A} \Rightarrow \underline{A} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \gamma B_0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\gamma B_0 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\hat{B} \Rightarrow \underline{B} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \gamma G_x x & \gamma (\Delta B_x + i \Delta B_y) \\ \gamma (\Delta B_x - i \Delta B_y) & -\gamma G_x x \end{bmatrix}$ 

- However,  $B_0 >> G_x x$ ,  $\Delta B_x$ ,  $\Delta B_y \Rightarrow |a_1 a_2| = \gamma B_0 >> \gamma |\Delta B_x \pm i \Delta B_y|$ hence  $\underline{B}^0 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \gamma G_x x & 0 \\ 0 & -\gamma G_x x \end{bmatrix}$
- The secular approximation is:  $\hat{H} = -\gamma \vec{B} \cdot \vec{\hat{I}} \approx \hat{A} + \hat{B}^0 = -\gamma (B_0 + \gamma G_x x) \hat{I}_z$

i.e. we can safely ignore the "Maxwell" terms as is routinely done in MRI (with just a few exceptions, particularly at low field)

### **B**<sub>0</sub>-Electron Interactions

When a material is placed in a magnetic field it is magnetized to

some degree and this modifies the field...

Shielding: Electrons in an atom circulate about  $B_0$ , generating a magnetic moment opposing the applied magnetic field.

• Global effects: magnetic susceptibility  $B_0^s = (1 - \chi)B_0$ 



field inside sample bulk magnetic susceptibility

Hereafter we'll use " $B_0$ " to refer to the internal field.

• Local effect: Chemical Shift

Different atoms experience different electron cloud densities.

applied field

shielding constant (Don't confuse with the spin density operator!)  $\Rightarrow B = B_0(1 - \sigma)$ 

#### The Zeeman Hamiltonian

• The interaction energy between the magnetic field,  $\vec{B}$ , and the magnetic moment,  $\vec{\mu} = \gamma \vec{I}$ , is given by the Zeeman Hamiltonian.

Classical: 
$$E = -\gamma \vec{B} \cdot \vec{I} \implies QM: \hat{H}_{zeeman} = -\gamma \vec{B} \cdot \hat{\vec{I}}$$

• The formal correction for chemical shielding is:

$$\hat{H}_{zeeman} = -\gamma \vec{I} (1 - \underline{\sigma}) \vec{B}$$
 where  $\underline{\sigma} = 3 \times 3$  shielding tensor

- In vivo, rapid molecular tumbling averages out the non-isotropic components.  $\sigma = \sigma_{iso} = \text{Tr}(\underline{\sigma}/3)$
- Hence for  $\vec{B} = [0, 0, B_0]$ :

$$\hat{H}_{Zeeman} = -\gamma (1 - \sigma) B_0 \hat{I}_z$$

A little foreshadowing...

## Chemical Shielding Tensor

- Electron shielding is in general anisotropic, i.e. the degree of shielding depends on the molecular orientation.
- The shielding tensor can be written as the sum of three terms:

$$\underline{\sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & \sigma_{xy} & \sigma_{xz} \\ \sigma_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} & \sigma_{yz} \\ \sigma_{zx} & \sigma_{zy} & \sigma_{zz} \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_{iso} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \underbrace{\sigma^{(1)}}_{i} + \underbrace{\sigma^{(2)}}_{i}$$
See Kowalewski, pp  
105-6 for details.  
$$= \frac{1}{3} (\sigma_{xx} + \sigma_{yy} + \sigma_{zz})$$

- Both  $\underline{\sigma}^{(1)}$  and  $\underline{\sigma}^{(2)}$  are time-varying due to molecular tumbling.
- $\underline{\sigma}^{(2)}$  gives rise to a relaxation mechanism called chemical shift anisotropy (CSA). (to be discussed later in the course)
- $\underline{\sigma}^{(1)}$  causes only 2<sup>nd</sup> order effects and is typically ignored.

# J-Coupling: Mechanism

• At *very* small distances (comparable to the nuclear radius), the dipolar interaction between an electron and proton is replaced by an *isotropic* interaction called "Fermi contract interaction".



#### J-Coupling: Energy Diagram



• The J-Coupling Hamiltonian J-coupling constant (Hz)  $\hat{H}_{J} = \hat{\vec{I}} \underline{J} \hat{\vec{S}} = 2\pi J \hat{\vec{I}} \cdot \hat{\vec{S}} = 2\pi J (\hat{I}_{x} \hat{S}_{x} + \hat{I}_{y} \hat{S}_{y} + \hat{I}_{z} \hat{S}_{z})$ "product operators" <sup>19</sup> A little foreshadowing...

## J-Coupling and Relaxation

• Because *J* is unchanged with molecular tumbling, J-coupling typically does not contribute to relaxation.

$$\hat{H}_{J} = 2\pi J \hat{\vec{I}} \cdot \hat{\vec{S}}$$
 where  $J(\Theta(t)) = J$ 

- However, there are a few cases where *J* can become "effectively" time-varying.
  - Case 1: the S spin is engaged in chemical exchange
  - Case 2: the  $T_1$  of the S spin itself is << 1/J.
- These cases are called scalar relaxation of the first and second kind respectively, and both are important for the study of MRI contrast agents.

### Magnetic Dipoles

• Nuclei with spin  $\neq 0$  act like tiny magnetic dipoles.



## **Dipolar Coupling**

- Dipole fields from nearby spins interact (i.e. are coupled).
- Rapid fall off with distance causes this to be primarily a intramolecular effect.



## The Nuclear Dipolar Coupling Hamiltonian

• Mathematically speaking, the general expression is:

$$\hat{H}_{dipole} = -\frac{\mu_0 \gamma_I \gamma_S}{4\pi r^3} \hbar \left( \hat{\vec{I}} \cdot \hat{\vec{S}} - \frac{3}{r^2} (\hat{\vec{I}} \cdot \vec{r}) (\hat{\vec{S}} \cdot \vec{r}) \right) \quad \text{where} \quad \vec{r} \text{ vector from} \\ \text{spin } I \text{ to spin } S$$

• Secular approximation:

$$\hat{H}_{dipole} = d\left(3\hat{I}_{z}\hat{S}_{z} - \hat{\vec{I}}\cdot\hat{\vec{S}}\right) \quad \text{where} \quad d = -\frac{\mu_{0}\gamma_{I}\gamma_{S}}{4\pi r^{3}}\hbar\left(3\cos^{2}\Theta_{IS} - 1\right)$$

$$\begin{array}{c}\text{dipole coupling}\\\text{constant}\end{array} \quad \text{angle between B}_{0}\\\text{and vector from}\\\text{spins L and S}\end{array}$$

- With isotropic tumbling, the time average of  $\hat{H}_{dipole} = 0$
- However, the temporal variations of  $\hat{H}_{dipole}(t)$  are typically the dominant source of  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  relaxation in vivo.

## Quadrupolar Interactions

- Nuclei with spin I > ½ have a electrical quadrupolar moment due to their non-uniform charge distribution.
- This electrical quadrupole moment interacts with local electric field gradients
  - Static E-field gradients results in shifts of the resonance frequencies of the observed peaks.
  - Dynamic (time-varying) E-field gradients result in relaxation.
  - Quadrupolar coupling Hamiltonian (secular approximation):

Coupling constant  $\hat{H}_{Q} = \frac{3eQ}{4I(2I-1)\hbar} V_{0} \left( 3\hat{I}_{z}^{2} - \hat{\vec{I}} \cdot \hat{\vec{I}} \right)$ Looks like an interaction of a spin with itself. What's the spin of Gd<sup>3+</sup> with its 7 unpaired electrons? Electric field gradient – dependent on molecular orientation A little foreshadowing...

## Nucleus-unpaired electron couplings

- Both nuclear-electron J and dipolar coupling occur.
- Important for understanding MR contrast agents.



#### Summary: Nuclear Spin Hamiltonian

$$\hat{H} = -\gamma_I \hat{\vec{I}} (1 - \underline{\sigma}_I) \vec{B} - \gamma_S \hat{\vec{S}} (1 - \underline{\sigma}_S) \vec{B} + 2\pi J \left( \hat{\vec{I}} \cdot \hat{\vec{S}} \right) + d \left( 3\hat{I}_z \hat{S}_z - \hat{\vec{I}} \cdot \hat{\vec{S}} \right) + \eta Q \left( 3\hat{I}_z^2 - \hat{\vec{I}} \cdot \hat{\vec{I}} \right)$$

Zeeman terms

J-coupling

Dipolar coupling Quadrupolar coupling (+S spin term)

- Major relaxation mechanisms important for MRI (+ contrast agents)
  - d(t) gives rise to dipolar relaxation
  - $\underline{o}(t)$  gives rise to chemical shift anisotropy (CSA)
  - $\eta(t)$  gives rise to quadrupolar relaxation
  - "J(t)" gives rise to scalar relaxation of the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> kind
  - Plus, we also need to figure out how include chemical exchange effects
  - At the end, we'll add Rf excitation when computing  $T_{1\rho}$ :  $\hat{H}_{Rf} = -\omega_1^I \hat{I}_x \omega_1^S \hat{S}_x$

### Next lecture: Basics of Relaxation