

pNMR
Mariapfarr 2014

Introduction to NMR relaxation

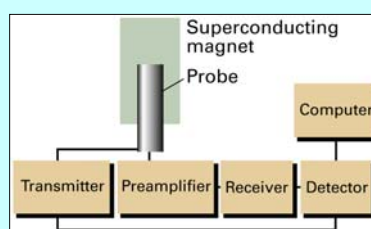
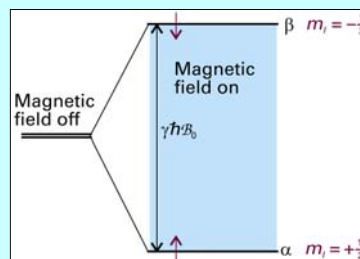
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Outline

- What is NMR?
- Phenomenological Bloch equations
- Introductory example: spin-lattice relaxation
- Elements of statistics and theory of random processes
- Time-dependent perturbation theory
- A simple model and its predictions
- Dipole-dipole relaxation

What is NMR?

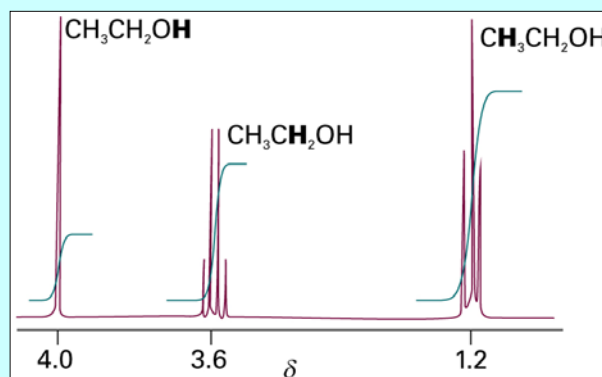
- Features:
 - Splitting controlled by the experimenter (B_0 field)
 - Many species possible to study ($I \neq 0, \gamma_I$), most common is ^1H
 - Very small energy splitting & population difference with the available magnets



Atkins *et al.* "Quanta, Matter and Change"

^1H NMR of ethanol

- What NMR measures in solution:
 - ✓ Line positions (chemical shifts)
 - ✓ Splittings (J -couplings)
 - ✓ Integrals
 - ✓ Relaxation



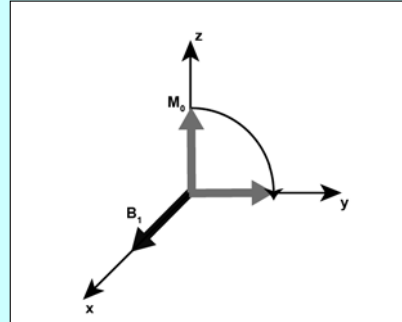
- Relaxation means return to equilibrium after a perturbation

Simple NMR: magnetization vector

- The equilibrium state of an ensemble of N (non-interacting) spins can be described by a *magnetization vector*, oriented along B_0 and with the length:

$$M_0 = \frac{N\gamma_I^2 \hbar^2 I(I+1)B_0}{3k_B T}$$

- The magnetization vector is a classical quantity and can be described by classical physics
- Effect of radiofrequency pulses



Figures from: Kowalewski & Mäler, "Nuclear Spin Relaxation in Liquids", Taylor & Francis, 2006

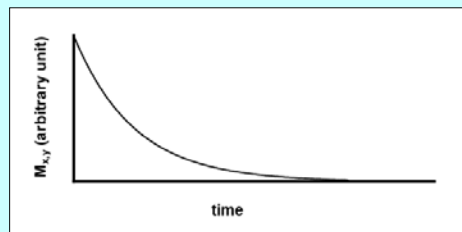
Simple relaxation: Bloch equations

- Phenomenological description of the magnetization vector after a pulse (in rotating frame):
- Free induction decay (FID) on resonance decays exponentially with T_2 , transverse relaxation time

$$\frac{dM_x}{dt} = M_y \omega_{off} - \frac{M_x}{T_2}$$

$$\frac{dM_y}{dt} = -M_x \omega_{off} - \frac{M_y}{T_2}$$

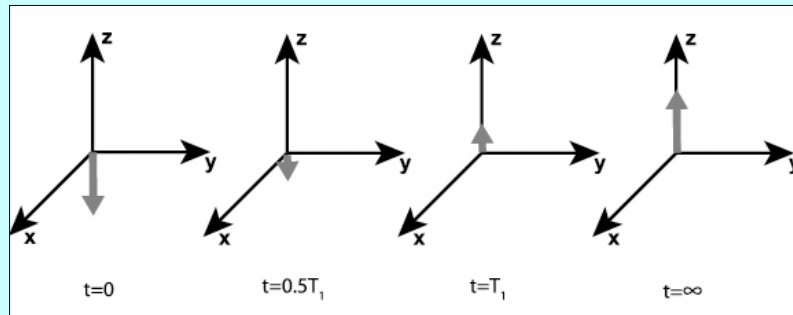
$$\frac{dM_z}{dt} = \frac{M_0 - M_z}{T_1}$$



$$M_{x,y} = M_0 \exp(-t/T_2)$$

Spin-lattice relaxation

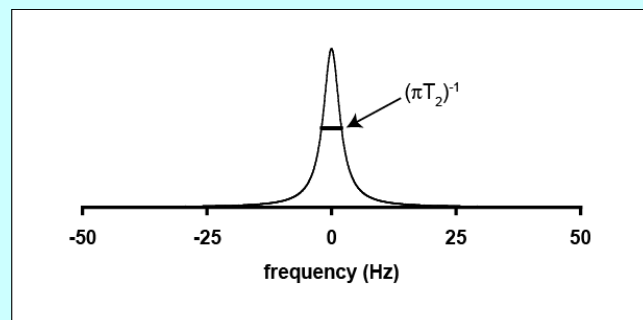
- Consider a sequence of two RF-pulses: (180° - t - 90° -FID), called inversion-recovery experiment:



$$M_z(t) = M_0(1 - 2\exp(-t/T_1))$$

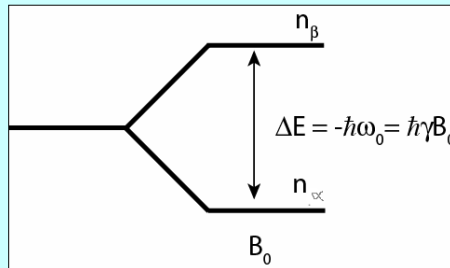
Meaning of T_1 and T_2

- Longitudinal relaxation (T_1): energy exchange with other degrees of freedom (the lattice)
- Transverse relaxation (T_2): loss of phase coherence, gives decay of FID and the line-broadening:



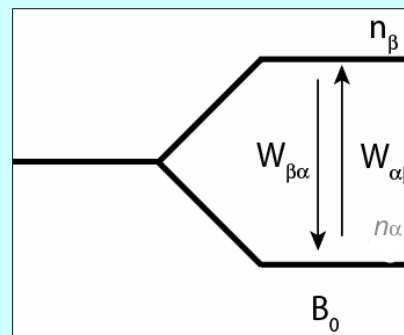
Simple theory – spin-lattice relaxation 1.

- Consider a system of $I=1/2$ spins
- Energy splitting proportional to B_0 , ω_0 =Larmor frequency
- Populations: n_α , n_β
- At equilibrium, Boltzmann distributed: n_α^{eq} , n_β^{eq}
- A non-equilibrium situation can be created by changing the magnetic field or by RF-pulses



Simple theory – spin-lattice relaxation 2.

- Assume simple kinetics for changing the populations of the two states:



$$\frac{dn_\alpha}{dt} = (n_\beta - n_\beta^{eq})W_{\beta\alpha} - (n_\alpha - n_\alpha^{eq})W_{\alpha\beta} =$$

$$= W_I (n_\beta - n_\beta^{eq} - n_\alpha + n_\alpha^{eq})$$

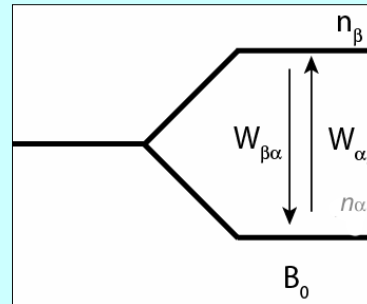
$$\frac{dn_\beta}{dt} = W_I (n_\alpha - n_\alpha^{eq} - n_\beta + n_\beta^{eq})$$

Simple theory – spin-lattice relaxation 3.

- Instead of discussing changes in populations, we introduce the sum (N) and difference (n) in populations

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = 0$$

$$\frac{dn}{dt} = -2W_1(n - n^{eq})$$



Simple theory – spin-lattice relaxation 4.

The simple result shows that the change in the difference in population (return to equilibrium or relaxation) occurs through an exponential process.

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = 0$$

$$\frac{dn}{dt} = -2W_1(n - n^{eq})$$

If we assume that the difference in population is proportional to the longitudinal component of the magnetization vector, $M_z(t)$, we can identify from the Bloch equations:

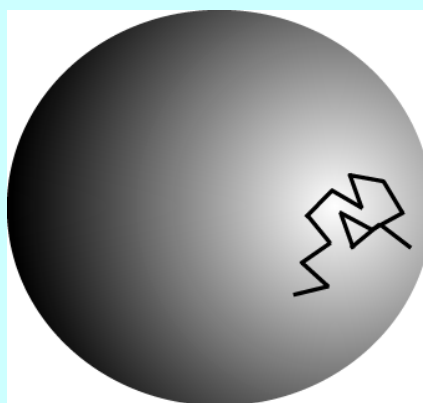
$$1/T_1 = 2W_1$$

Transition probabilities

- The relaxation rate is proportional to the transition probability
- Transitions giving rise to NMR relaxation are non-radiative, they do not arise through emission or absorption of radiation from radiofrequency field
- They occur as a result of weak magnetic interactions within the sample, if those oscillate in time with frequency components at the Larmor frequency
- Weak interaction → slow relaxation

Where do the transitions come from?

- Weak magnetic interactions often anisotropic
- Time-dependence through molecular motions
- The reorientation of molecules (or molecule-fixed axes) can be pictured as a random walk on a spherical surface
- The combination of the motion and anisotropic interactions leads to:
- Hamiltonians varying randomly with time:
stochastic interaction



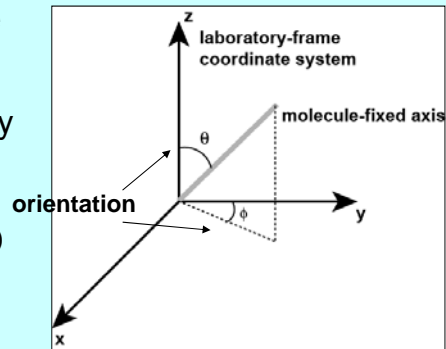
Stochastic variables 1.

- The orientation of a molecule-fixed axis can be described in terms of stochastic variables, characterized by probability density

$$p(x; y) dx dy =$$

$$= P(x \leq X \leq x + dx; y \leq Y \leq y + dy)$$

- Means: the probability that X and Y take on values in the indicated ranges



Stochastic variables 2.

- If $p(x; y) = p(x)p(y)$ we say that the two variables are *statistically independent*
- We can also write: $p(x; y) = p(x)p(y|x)$, the latter meaning the probability that Y takes on the value y *provided* that X takes on value x \rightarrow *conditional probability*
- Average value (mean): $m_1 = \langle X \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xp(x) dx$
- The second moment around the mean (*variance*):

$$\mu_2 = \langle (X - m_1)^2 \rangle = \langle X^2 \rangle - m_1^2 = \sigma^2$$

Product of two variables:

$$m_{11} = \langle XY \rangle$$

If the two variables are statistically independent: $m_{11} = \langle XY \rangle = \langle X \rangle \langle Y \rangle$

Stochastic variables 3.

- The mixed second moment:

$$\mu_{11} = \langle (X - m_{10}) \rangle \langle (Y - m_{01}) \rangle = \langle XY \rangle - m_{10}m_{01}$$

- Correlation coefficient:

$$\rho = \frac{\mu_{11}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

- Vanishes if X and Y statistically independent

Stochastic functions of time

The time-dependence of anisotropic interactions can be described in terms of stochastic functions of time (stochastic processes) due to the random motions

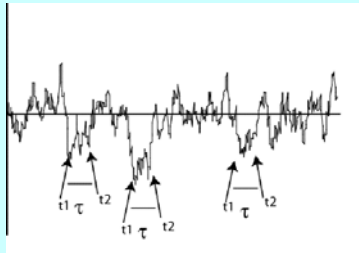
Average value:
$$\langle Y(t) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} yp(y,t) dy$$

The properties of a stochastic function are in general dependent on t .

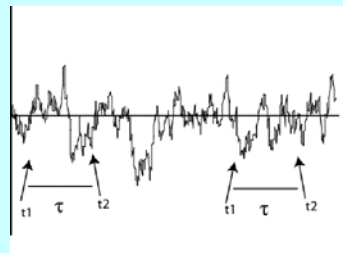
What is the correlation between $Y(t)$ at two time-points, t_1 and t_2 ?

What is the correlation between $Y(t)$ at two time-points, t_1 and t_2 ?

“ $t_1 - t_2$ small”



“ $t_1 - t_2$ large”



- Correlation vanishes for large time separations
- The same is true for an ensemble average over many spins

Stationary stochastic process

If t_1 and t_2 are close (defined by the time-scale of the random oscillation of $Y(t)$) a correlation is probable

Useful formulation with the conditional probability density for $Y(t)$ acquiring the value y_2 at t_2 provided that it takes on y_1 at t_1 :

$$p(y_1, t_1; y_2, t_2) = p(y_1, t_1) p(y_1, t_1 | y_2, t_2)$$

If the probability $p(y_1, t_1)$ density does NOT vary with time, the process is called *stationary*. In such a case:

$$p(y_1, t_1 | y_2, t_2) = p(y_1, 0 | y_2, t_2 - t_1) = p(y_1 | y_2, \tau)$$

Time-correlation functions

The average value of a product of a stationary process, $Y(t)$ at two different times can be defined. Because this quantity is only dependent on the time difference, $t=t_2-t_1$, we can define:

$$\langle Y(t_1)Y(t_2) \rangle = G(t_2 - t_1) = G(\tau)$$

Time-correlation function (TCF)

Autocorrelation function:

The same function correlated with itself at different time points. Acts as a correlation coefficient between the same stochastic variable at different points in time.

Cross-correlation function:

Different functions at different points in time are correlated

Properties of time-correlation functions

The autocorrelation function of Y at $t=0$ becomes the variance of Y :

$$G(0) = \langle Y(t)Y^*(t) \rangle = \langle |Y(t)|^2 \rangle = \sigma^2$$

The average of $Y(t)$ can often be assumed to be zero.

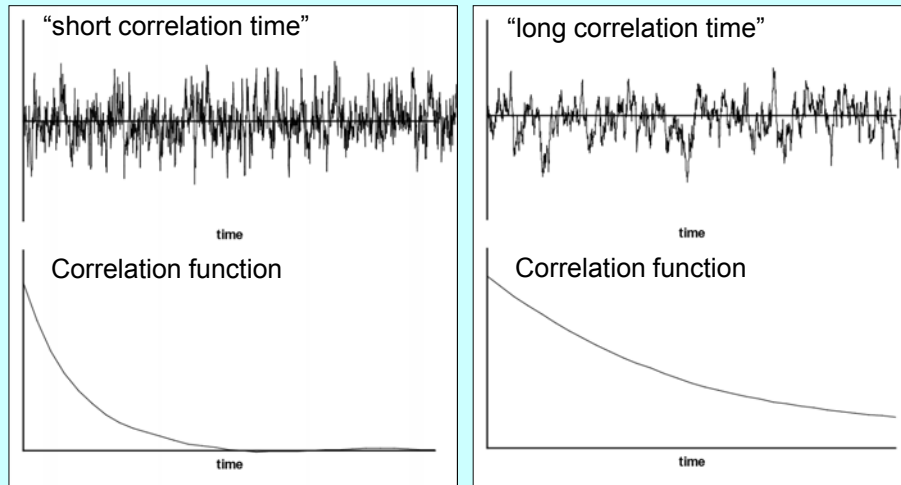
Reasonable to assume that correlation vanishes for long τ .

$$\lim_{\tau \rightarrow \infty} G(\tau) = 0$$

The following TCF works (and can be derived within a simple model): $G(\tau) = G(0)\exp(-|\tau|/\tau_c)$

The correlation time, τ_c , can be interpreted as a measure of persistence of the correlation of the values $Y(t)$ at different points in time.

Illustration of correlations on different time-scales



Size and temperature dependence of correlation time

One can use hydrodynamic arguments to derive the **Stokes-Einstein-Debye** relationship for a sphere:

$$\tau_c = \frac{4\pi\eta a^3}{3k_B T} = \frac{V\eta}{k_B T} \quad \begin{array}{l} a = \text{radius} \\ \eta = \text{viscosity} \end{array}$$

This relation is valid for a rank-2 spherical harmonics

- Correlation time increases with molecular size
- Correlation time increases with viscosity
- Correlation time decreases with temperature

The temperature dependence is often modeled by an Arrhenius-type expression:

$$\tau_c = \tau_0 \exp(E_a / k_B T)$$

Spectral density functions

Spectral density functions are Fourier transforms of the time-correlation functions.

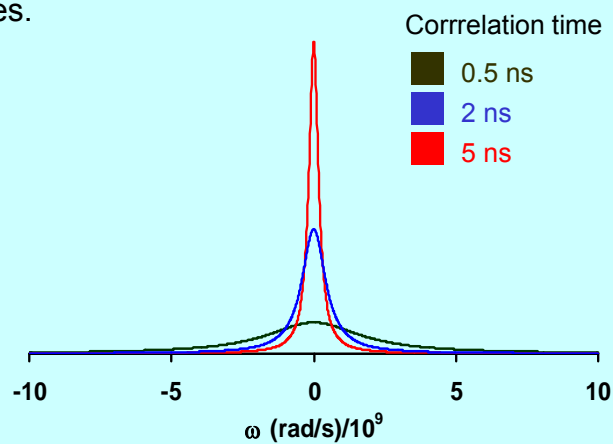
$$J(\omega) = 2 \int_0^{\infty} G(\tau) \exp(-i\omega\tau) d\tau$$

From the exponentially decaying time-correlation function we get a *Lorentzian* spectral density

$$J(\omega) = G(0) \frac{2\tau_c}{1 + \omega^2 \tau_c^2}$$

Spectral density functions

The spectral density function as a function of frequency calculated with different correlation times.



Time-dependent perturbation theory

$$\hat{H}(t) = \hat{H}_0 + \hat{V}(t)$$

- Hamiltonian acting on system is composed of two parts:
- Time-independent Hamiltonian with known solutions
- Time-dependent small *perturbation, stochastic function of time*
- Consider a two-level system
- The transition probability between the levels *a* and *b*:

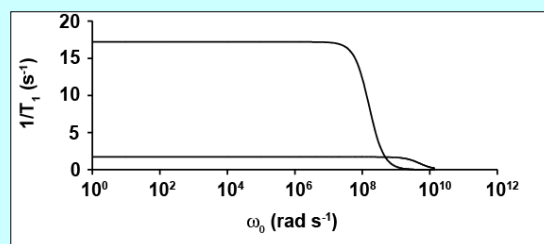
$$W_{ab} = 2 \int_0^{\infty} G_{ba}(\tau) e^{-i\omega_{ab}\tau} d\tau = J_{ba}(\omega_{ab})$$

- Wiener- Khinchin theorem: the spectral density function is a measure of the distribution of fluctuations in $Y(t)$ among different frequencies

Simple two-level system

$$1/T_1 = 2W = 2G(0) \frac{2\tau_c}{1 + \omega_0^2 \tau_c^2}$$

ω_0 = Larmor frequency, (resonance frequency).

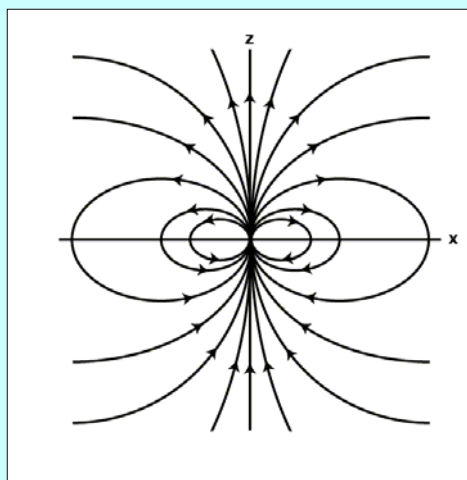


Relaxation interactions in real systems

- Dipole-dipole interaction
- Chemical shift anisotropy
- Quadrupolar interaction ($I \geq 1$)
- Spin-rotation
- Scalar
- Paramagnetic

The dipole-dipole (DD) interaction

- Every nuclear spin ($I > 0$) acts as a magnetic dipole, generating a local magnetic field
- This magnetic field interacts with the magnetic moments of other nuclei nearby



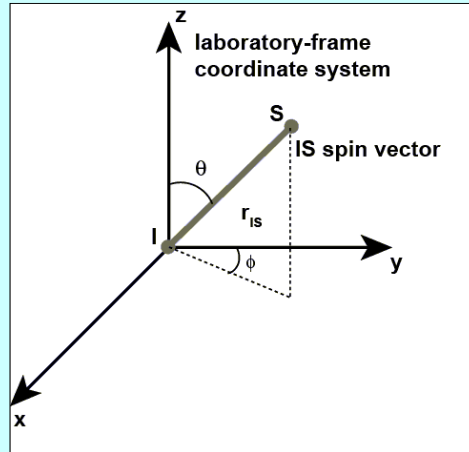
The dipole-dipole interaction 2

- The DD interaction energy:

$$H_{DD}(\Omega) \propto r_{IS}^{-3} (3 \cos^2 \theta - 1) \hat{I}_z \hat{S}_z$$

Ω (solid angle) stands for (θ, ϕ)

- The reorientation of the IS-axis – by molecular motion – affects the DD interaction



How to derive the exponential tcf?

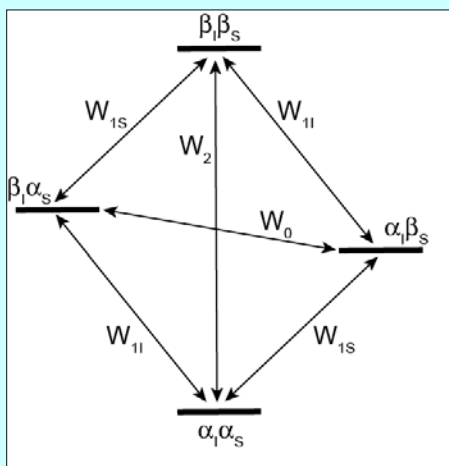
- Consider a stationary process: $Y_{2,0}(t) = \sqrt{(5/16\pi)}(3 \cos^2 \theta(t) - 1)$
- The tcf is: $G_2(\tau) = \langle Y_{2,0}(t) Y_{2,0}^*(t + \tau) \rangle =$

$$= \iint Y_{2,0}(\Omega_0) Y_{2,0}^*(\Omega) P(\Omega_0) P(\Omega_0 | \Omega, \tau) d\Omega_0 d\Omega$$
- Isotropic liquid: $P(\Omega) = P(\Omega_0) = 1/4\pi$
- Conditional probability $P(\Omega_0 | \Omega, \tau)$ from Fick's law for rotational diffusion: $\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} f(\Omega, \tau) = D_R \hat{\Delta}_R f(\Omega, \tau)$
- Boundary condition: $P(\Omega_0 | \Omega, 0) = \delta(\Omega - \Omega_0)$
- Leads to: $G_2(\tau) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \exp[-6D_R \tau]$
- Identical to the "guessed" exponential function with: $\tau_c = 1/6D_R$

The dipole-dipole relaxation

- To understand the DD relaxation, we need to consider transition probabilities in a *four-level system*
- Transition probabilities originate from molecular motion by stochastic variation of the DD interaction,

$$W_{ab} \sim J(\omega_{ab})$$



Spin-lattice relaxation: Solomon equations

$$\frac{d\langle \hat{I}_z \rangle}{dt} = -(W_0 + 2W_{1I} + W_2)(\langle \hat{I}_z \rangle - I_z^{eq}) - (W_2 - W_0)(\langle \hat{S}_z \rangle - S_z^{eq})$$

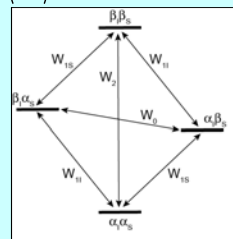
$$\frac{d\langle \hat{S}_z \rangle}{dt} = -(W_2 - W_0)(\langle \hat{I}_z \rangle - I_z^{eq}) - (W_0 + 2W_{1S} + W_2)(\langle \hat{S}_z \rangle - S_z^{eq})$$

or

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} \langle \hat{I}_z \rangle \\ \langle \hat{S}_z \rangle \end{pmatrix} = - \begin{pmatrix} \rho_I & \sigma_{IS} \\ \sigma_{IS} & \rho_S \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \langle \hat{I}_z \rangle - I_z^{eq} \\ \langle \hat{S}_z \rangle - S_z^{eq} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \rho_I &= W_0 + 2W_{1I} + W_2 \\ \rho_S &= W_0 + 2W_{1S} + W_2 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{spin-lattice relaxation rates}$$

$$\sigma_{IS} = W_2 - W_0 \quad \text{cross-relaxation rate}$$

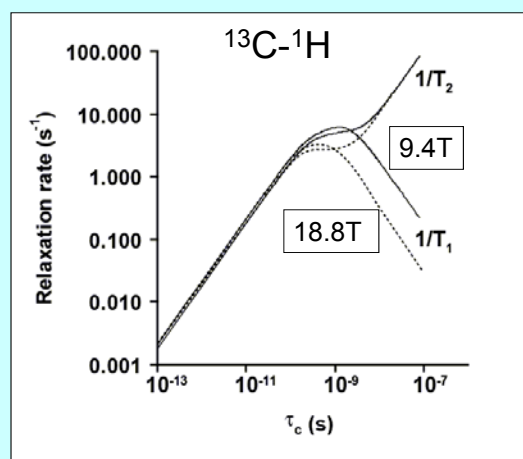


Single exponential relaxation

- ... (well-defined T_1) occurs only in some limiting cases:
 - ✓ I and S are identical (e.g. protons in water)
 - ✓ One of the spins (say S) has another, faster relaxation mechanism (e.g. unpaired electron spin)
 - ✓ One of the spins (say I) is saturated by rf irradiation (e.g. $^{13}\text{C}\{-^1\text{H}\}$ experiment)
- Otherwise, bi-exponential relaxation

^{13}C relaxation under proton decoupling

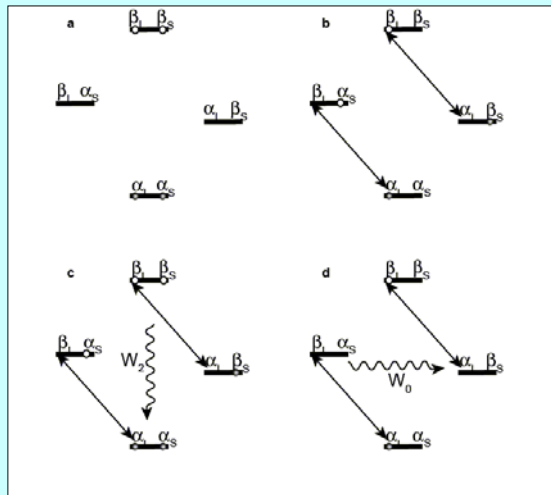
- Spin-lattice relaxation rate (T_1^{-1}) depends on the molecular size (τ_c) and the magnetic field
- For rapidly-moving systems (small molecules, extreme narrowing) $T_1^{-1} = T_2^{-1}$



The nuclear Overhauser effect

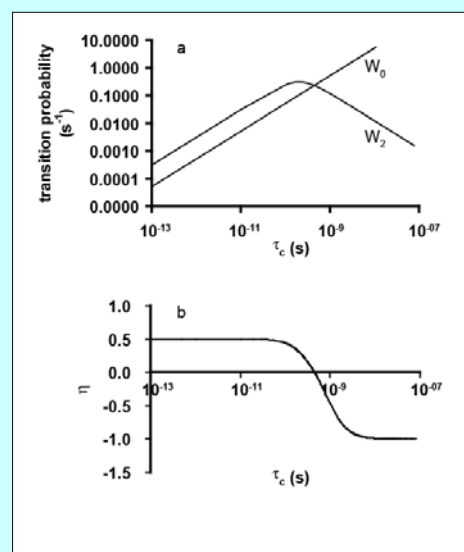
- Continuous irradiation of the I-spin creates non-equilibrium populations for the S-spin
- This multiplies the S-spin signal intensity by a factor $1+\eta$ (the NOE factor),

$$\eta = \frac{\gamma_I \sigma_{IS}}{\gamma_S \rho_S}$$



The Nuclear Overhauser effect 2.

- The transition probabilities W_0 and W_2 have different correlation time dependences
- Example: I & S are both protons, $B_0=21$ T



Summary

- Relaxation rates are related to transition probabilities
- Relaxation (transitions) occur through a combination of anisotropic interactions and random walk motion
- Fundamental quantities: time-correlation functions and spectral densities for the stochastic processes
- The relationship between transition probabilities and the random motions can be derived through time-dependent perturbation theory
- Important source of relaxation: the dipole-dipole interaction