

NMR \rightarrow MRI
(spin precession of nuclei)

from PHY 117:
angular momentum
torque
magnetic moment

PHY 127 FS2024

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Lecture 11

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Linear motion

momentum $\vec{p} = m\vec{v}$

$$\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = m \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = m\vec{a} \quad (\text{mass constant})$$

Newton's 2nd law:

$$\sum \vec{F} = m\vec{a} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$$

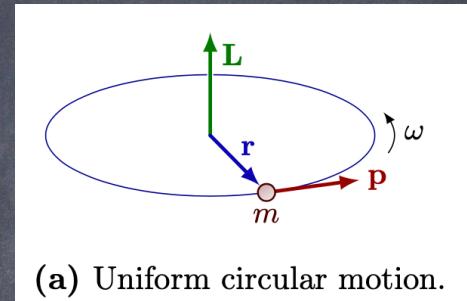
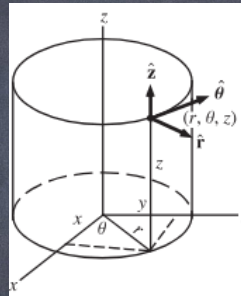
Angular motion

angular momentum $\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times \vec{p} = \vec{r} \times m\vec{v}$

Newton's 2nd law for rotation:

$$\sum \vec{\tau} = \frac{d\vec{L}}{dt} \quad \vec{\tau} = \vec{r} \times \vec{F}$$

cylindrical coordinates



(a) Uniform circular motion.

$$\omega = \frac{v}{r}$$

(a) when $\vec{r} \perp \vec{v}$, then

$$\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times m\vec{v} = r m v = r m \omega r$$

$$\textcircled{1} \quad L = m r^2 \omega$$

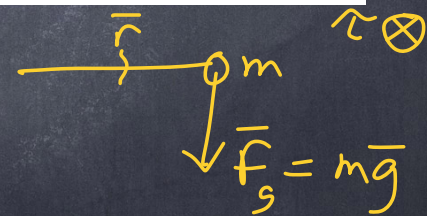
$$\textcircled{2} \quad \frac{d\vec{L}}{dt} = \vec{\tau}$$

$$d\vec{L} = \vec{\tau} dt$$

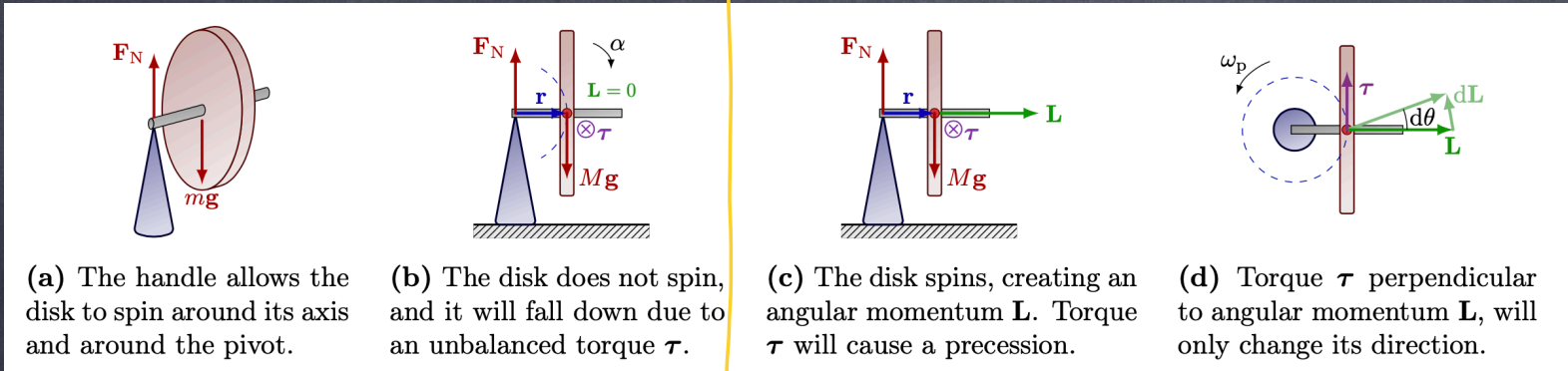
$$= (\vec{r} \times \vec{F}) dt$$

If force is due to gravity, then $\vec{F}_g = m\vec{g} + \vec{r} \perp \vec{F}$,
 so $d\vec{L} = (\vec{r} \times m\vec{g}) dt = r m g dt (\hat{\theta})$

side view







(a) The handle allows the disk to spin around its axis and around the pivot.

(b) The disk does not spin, and it will fall down due to an unbalanced torque τ .

(c) The disk spins, creating an angular momentum L . Torque τ will cause a precession.

(d) Torque τ perpendicular to angular momentum L , will only change its direction.

(from above)

θ changing

(a+b) forces balance, torque $\vec{\tau} = \vec{r} \times M\vec{g} = rmg\hat{\theta}$ causes wheel to rotate (fall) when $\vec{L} = 0$

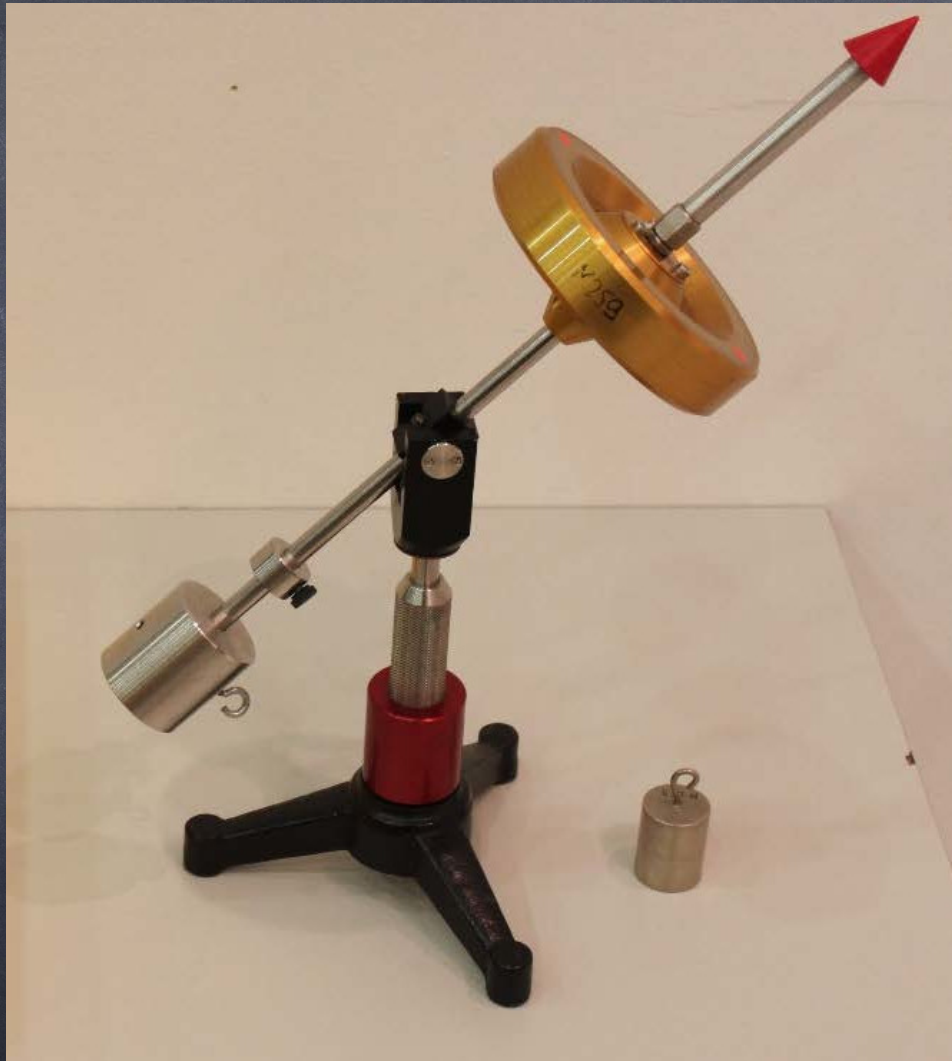
(c) wheel spins with angular speed $\omega = \frac{v}{r}$, we have $L = mr^2\omega$ (1)

(d) torque from $\vec{r} \times \vec{F}$, causing \vec{L} to change direction
 (from 2) $\frac{d\vec{L}}{dt} = \vec{\tau}$ $d\vec{L} = \vec{\tau} dt = rmg dt (\hat{\theta})$ (3)

Looking at (d), $dL = L d\theta$, $d\theta = \frac{dL}{L}$ (4)

(3) \rightarrow (4), $d\theta = \frac{rmg dt}{L}$, so $\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{rmg}{L}$, we define $\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \omega_p$ (precession)

(5) $\omega_p = \frac{rmg}{L}$ put (1) \rightarrow (5), $\omega_p = \frac{Mg}{mr^2\omega} = \frac{g}{r\omega}$
 ↑ precession ↑ spinning wheel



magnetic moment

① Rotating particle carries angular momentum

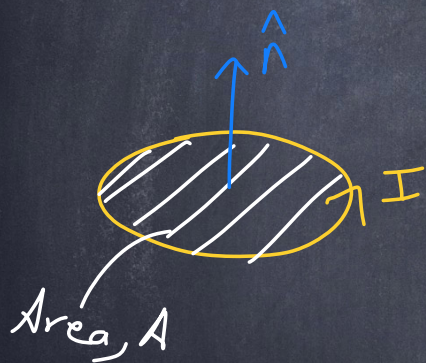
$$\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times m\vec{v}$$

② A electric current generates a magnetic field.
A current-carrying loop will generate a magnetic moment, $\vec{\mu}$.

\hat{n} : normal vector perpendicular to the loop.

$$\vec{\mu} = IA \hat{n}$$

see script 2,
§ 11.1



③ A rotating charged particle has a magnetic moment related to the angular momentum.

$$\vec{\mu} = g \frac{q}{2m} \vec{L}$$

g : electric charge
 m : mass
] of particle

g : strength parameter

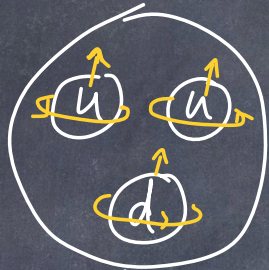
$g=1$ if charge + mass have the same distribution

In QM, $spin = \frac{1}{2}$ particle, $g = 2$

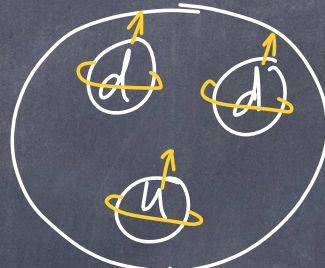
(4) protons + neutrons are composed of quarks.

$$g(u) = +\frac{2}{3}e$$

$$g(d) = -\frac{1}{3}e$$



proton
 $g(p) = +1e$



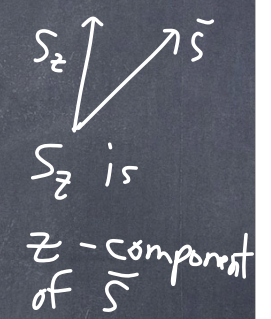
neutron
 $g(n) = 0$

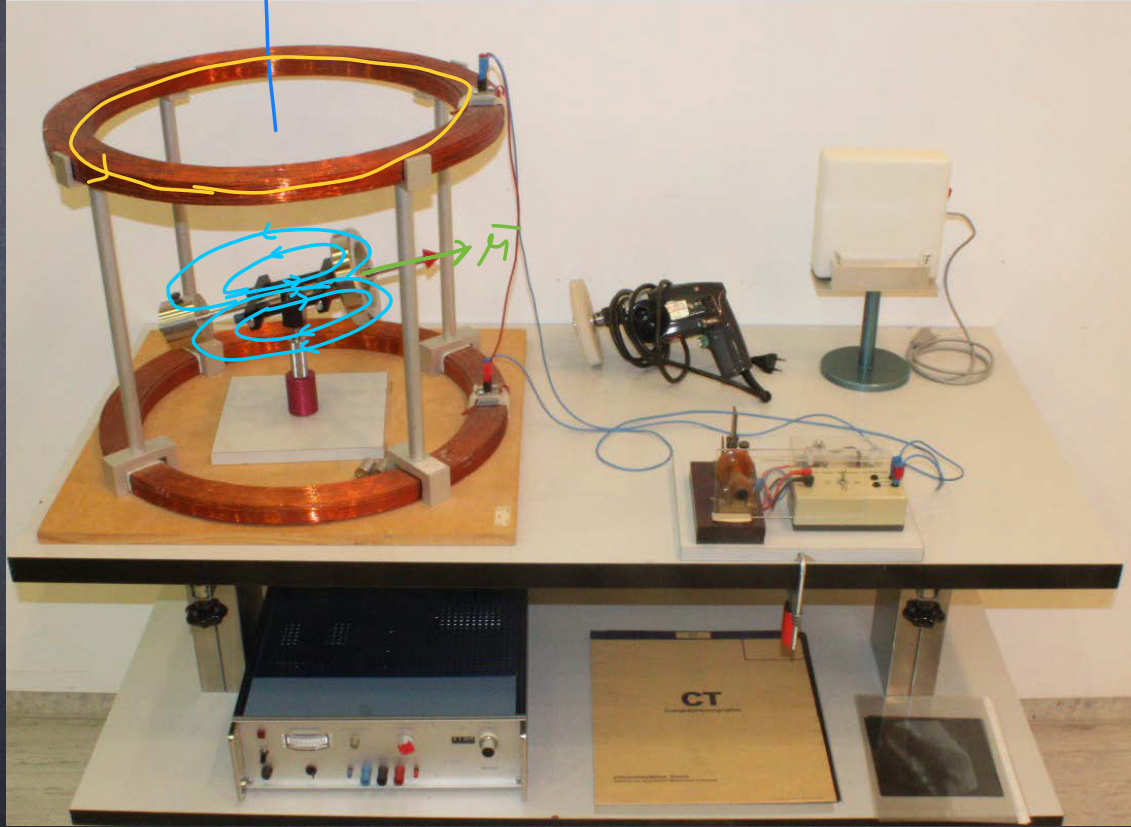
quarks are
 $spin = \frac{1}{2}$ particles

The spin of a proton + neutron gives it angular momentum. Both have magnetic moments.

the angular momentum S_z quantized by an integer
 number of $\frac{1}{2}h = \frac{h}{4\pi}$ (h : Planck's constant)
 $\hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi}$

nucleus	spin	S_z	S
proton	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}h$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}h$
neutron	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}h$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}h$
deuteron (${}^2\text{H}$)	1	h	$\sqrt{2}h$
Helium (He)	0	0	0
${}^{12}\text{C}$	0	0	0
${}^{13}\text{C}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}h$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}h$
${}^{14}\text{N}$	1	h	$\sqrt{2}h$
${}^{16}\text{O}$	0	0	0
${}^{19}\text{F}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}h$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}h$
${}^{31}\text{P}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}h$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}h$





I

B

M

CT

The atomic nuclei have nuclear magnetic moments that depend on their nuclear spin.

$$\vec{\mu} = g \frac{q}{2m} \vec{L} = \gamma \vec{S} \quad (8)$$

γ : gyromagnetic ratio
 $\gamma = \frac{gq}{2m}$

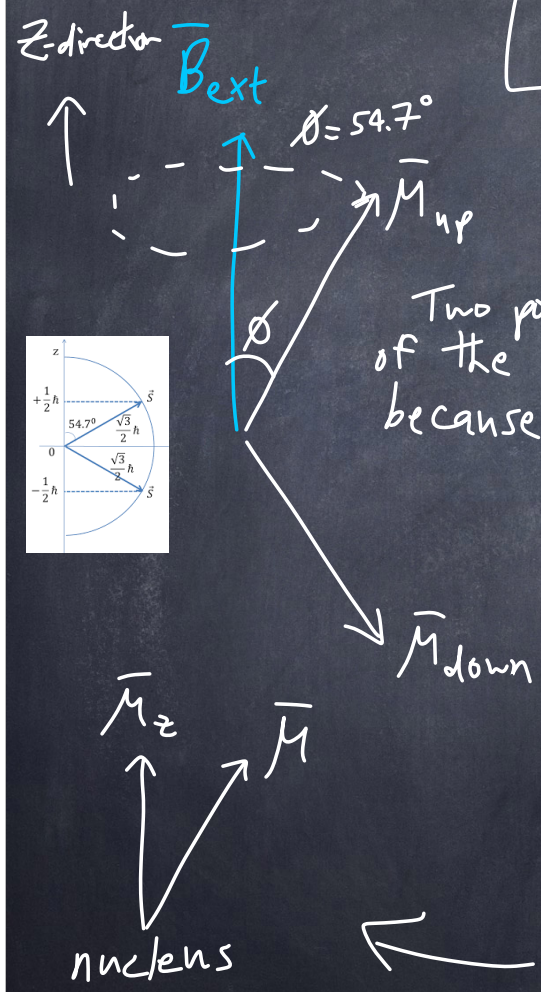
S : spin (angular momentum)
 $\vec{\mu} = \gamma \vec{S}$
 $\mu_z = \gamma S_z$

Two possible orientations of the magnetic moment, because μ_z is quantized.

When a magnetic moment and an external magnetic field are not parallel, there is a torque on the magnetic moment.

$$\vec{\tau} = \vec{\mu} \times \vec{B} = \mu B \sin \theta \hat{n}$$

z -component is quantized & points up or down.



$$\bar{\tau} = MB \sin \phi = \frac{d\bar{L}}{dt}$$

$$dL = \tau dt$$

the torque is $\bar{M} \times \bar{B}$

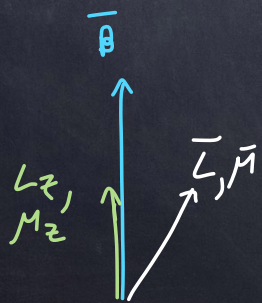
$$d\bar{L} = (\bar{M} \times \bar{B}) dt \quad (\hat{n})$$

$$d\theta = \frac{dL}{L} = \frac{\bar{M} \times \bar{B}}{L} dt$$

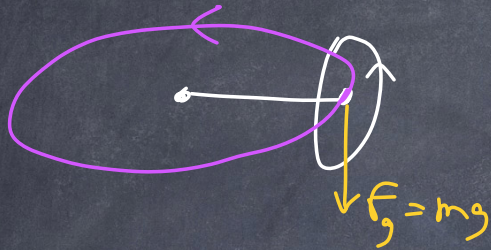
$$\omega_p = \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{dL}{L} = \frac{\bar{M} \times \bar{B}}{L} dt$$

$$\omega_p = \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{MB \sin \phi}{L_z} = \frac{MB \sin \phi}{L \sin \phi}$$

$$\omega_p = \frac{MB}{L}$$



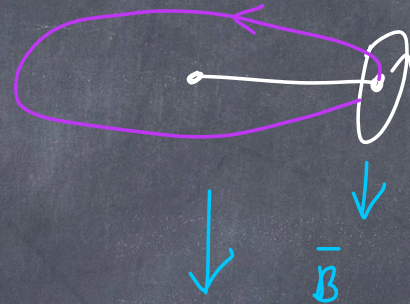
Spinning top in gravity



$$\omega_p = \frac{rmg}{L} = \frac{\tau}{L}$$

$$\tau = rmg$$

Spinning magnet in a magnetic field



$$\omega_p = \frac{\mu B}{L} = \frac{\tau}{L}$$

$$\tau = \mu B$$

Larmor frequency

$$\omega = -\gamma B$$

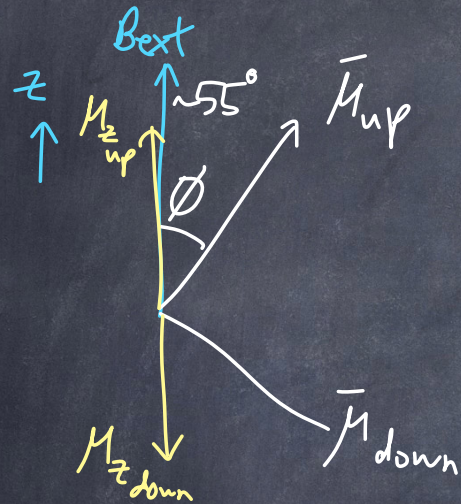
B: external magnetic field

$$\gamma = \frac{-eg}{2m} \leftarrow \text{strength factor}$$

gyromagnetic ratio for a particle

(γ is (+)) of charge -e

The fact that μ is not aligned with \vec{B}_{ext} gives the nucleus a potential energy, U .

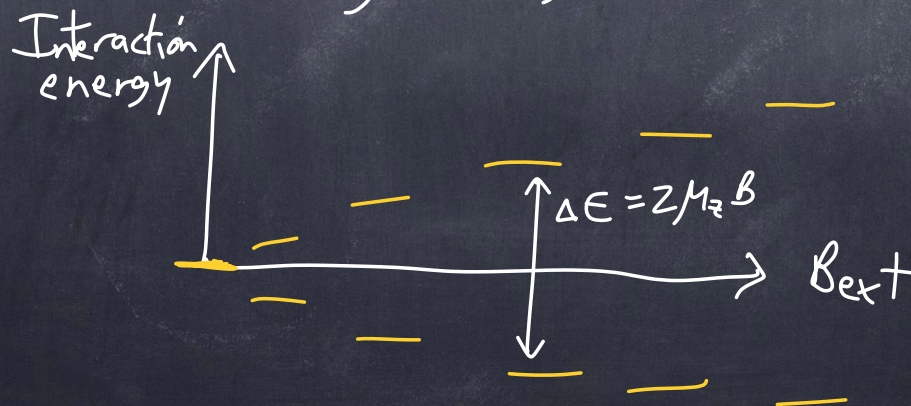
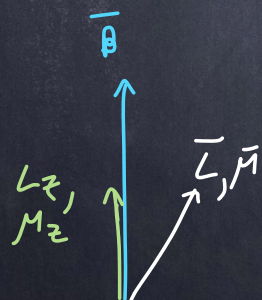


$$U = -\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B} = -\mu B \cos \phi = -B(\mu \cos \phi) = -B\mu_z$$

The energy difference between the up + the down state ($\vec{\mu}_{\text{up}} + \vec{\mu}_{\text{down}}$) is

$$\Delta E = \mu_z B - (-\mu_z B) = 2\mu_z B$$

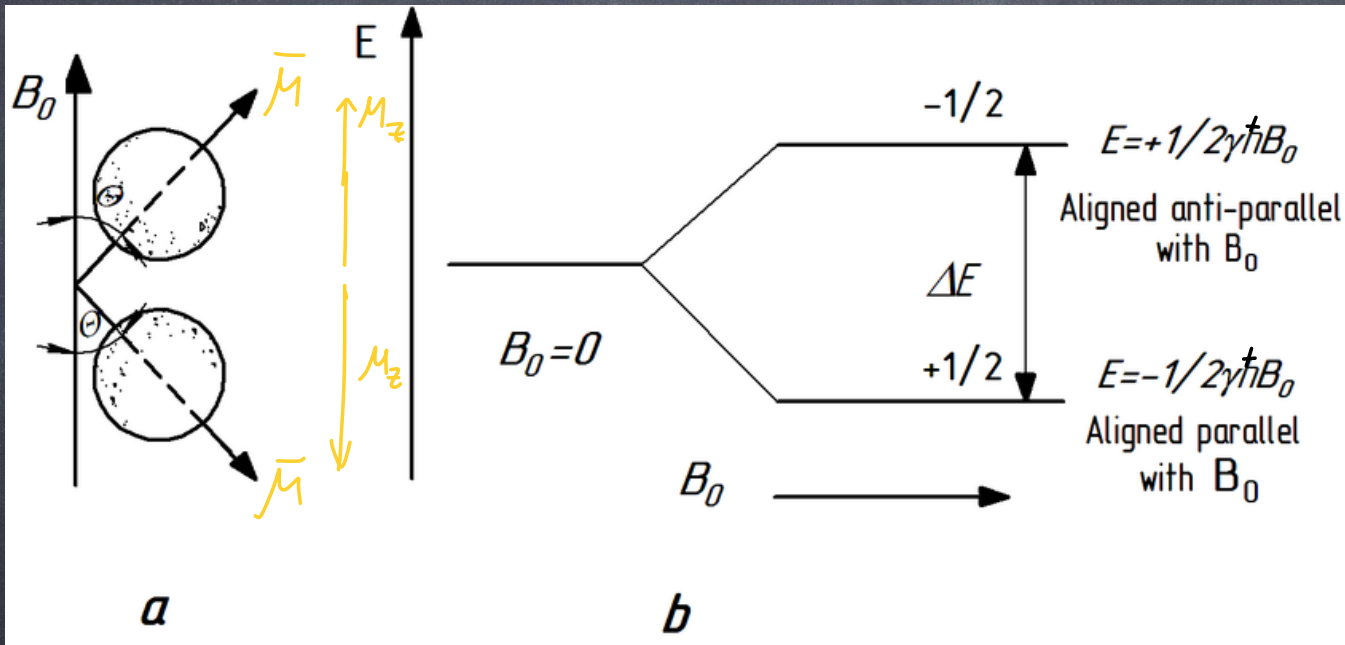
The energy difference increases with increasing magnetic field B_{ext} .



$$\Delta E = 2\mu_z B$$

from ⑧ $\mu_z = \gamma S_z$ $S_z = \pm \frac{1}{2} \hbar$

so $\Delta E = 2 \cdot \gamma \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \hbar \cdot B = \gamma \hbar B$



Some numbers:

For $B = 1 \text{ T}$ + a nucleus of hydrogen
(1 proton) with nuclear spin
of $\frac{1}{2} \hbar$

we would get $\Delta E \sim 2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ eV}$

we can compare this to the thermal energy of
a proton (Hydrogen) at room temperature:

$$\sim k_B T \approx 2.5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ eV}$$

The magnetic potential energy is small
compared to the thermal energy.

According to the Boltzmann factor for the
ratio of the number of spin-up atoms
(nuclei) to spin-down
atoms
(nuclei)

$$\frac{n_{\text{up}}}{n_{\text{down}}} = e^{\frac{-\Delta E}{k_B T}} = e^{\frac{-2 \times 10^{-7}}{2.5 \times 10^{-2}}} = 0.999992$$

→ diff. between $n_{\text{up}} + n_{\text{down}}$
is only a few parts per million

NMR (nuclear magnetic resonance)

involves adding electromagnetic radiation in units of photon energy, $E = h\nu$, and then measuring the net (total) absorption of the photons.

$$\Delta E = 2M_z B = h\nu$$

we need very low-frequency photons \sim radio-frequency (MHz)

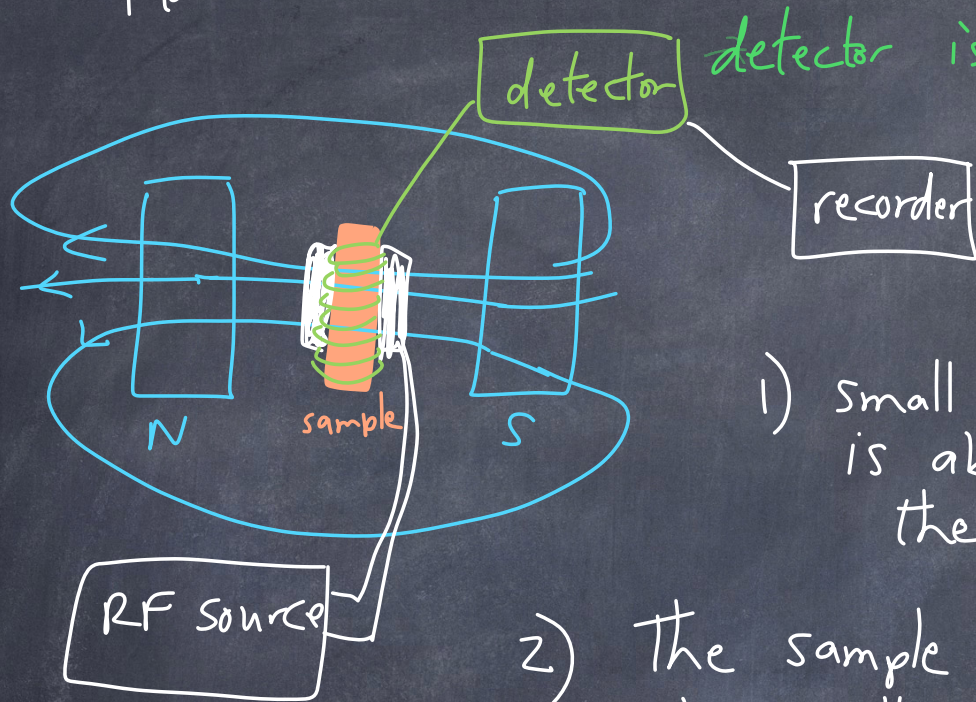
Looking at formula, we see that by either varying ν and fixing \vec{B} , or fixing ν and varying \vec{B} , we can generate a resonance condition where there will be a net absorption of photon energy causing the nuclei to flip spins to high energy state.

In NMR, RF (radio frequency) is fixed and \bar{B} is varied by small amounts while scanning through for resonance conditions. (see video on wikipedia page)

Einstein showed that the same RF photons that can be absorbed, flipping spins to a higher energy state, can with equal probability, flip the nuclear spin to a lower energy state, emitting a second RF photon with energy ΔE .

If $n_{up} + n_{down}$ were equal, there would be no net absorption. But, since there are slightly more nuclei in the n_{down} state than the n_{up} state, there is a slight net absorption of photons. This is our signal for NMR.

How to detect NMR radiation.



detector is a solenoid that can detect electrical current.

1) Small amount of RF radiation is absorbed by our sample, then we turn off the RF.

2) The sample returns to equilibrium, by emitting RF energy.

The net magnetic moment of the sample changes, and this can be detected in the solenoidal coil. (This comes from PHY 117 (script 2))
The changing magnetism of the sample induces a electric current in the solenoid. (Faraday's Law)

Next time: how to use NMR to determine molecular structure

