The Principles of NUCLEAR MAGNETISM

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THE PRINCIPLES OF NUCLEAR MAGNETISM

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OXFORD AT THE CLARENDON PRESS 1961

Oxford University Press, Amen House, London E.C.4 GLASGOW NEW YORK TORONTO MELBOURNE WELLINGTON BOMBAY CALCUTTA MADRAS KABACHI KUALA LUMPUR CAPE TOWN IBADAN NAIROBÍ ACCRA

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PRINTED IN GREAT BRITAIN

PREFACE

People have now-a-days got a strange opinion that everything should be taught by lectures. Now, I cannot see that lectures can do so much good as reading the books from which the lectures are taken.

Dr. Johnson (1766)

SINCE the first successful detection of nuclear resonance signals late in 1945, nuclear magnetism has developed at a pace which after fifteen years still shows no sign of slackening. Besides its first and obvious application to the measurement of nuclear moments, it has become a major tool in the study of the finer properties of matter in bulk. Structure of molecules, reaction rates and chemical equilibria, chemical bonding, crystal structures, internal motions in solids and liquids, electronic densities in metals, alloys, and semiconductors, internal fields in ferromagnetic and antiferromagnetic substances, density of states in superconductors, properties of quantum liquids, are some of the topics where nuclear magnetism has so far provided specific and detailed information.

Detailed studies of nuclear relaxation processes combined with electron spin resonance have led to original methods of nuclear alignment which may in the near future open up new experimental possibilities to nuclear physicists as well as to the specialists of very low temperatures.

On a more fundamental level, systems of nuclear spins provide examples of problems in statistical mechanics and in the theory of irreversible processes that are sufficiently simple to allow a clean and unambiguous solution both theoretically and experimentally, but are still sufficiently complex to be far from trivial. Thus the hitherto purely academic concept of negative temperature has found its full physical significance in nuclear magnetism. Thus also the trend toward thermal equilibrium of a system (the spin system) coupled to a thermal bath (the lattice) can be investigated, theoretically and experimentally, more fully than is usually possible in other fields of physics.

One of the more remarkable features of nuclear magnetism and, at least for the author of this book, the most deeply satisfying, is the very close connexion between theory and experiment that leaves little room for a theory that could not be tested by a suitable experiment or for an experiment that does not admit of a well-defined theoretical interpretation; this perhaps to a greater extent than in any other branch of modern physics.

Such at any rate was the view that has presided over the writing of this book. It is an attempt to provide an account of the principles and methods of nuclear magnetism that would be acceptable to the theorist and of use to the experimentalist; a wish often expressed, seldom fulfilled, that stands a better chance, it is hoped, in a field where theorist and experimentalist as often as not are the same person.

On the contents of this book the following comments can be made.

The experimental methods are discussed very briefly and in very general terms. The lack of space and the lack of competence of the author have precluded any detailed description of the experimental techniques currently in use. One can only hope that the definite need for a monograph dealing with these problems will be satisfied in the future.

There are no tables of important constants such as nuclear moments, quadrupole couplings, chemical shifts, relaxation times, and spin-spin couplings. The amount of labour involved in the compiling of such data, the space requirements, and also the danger of rapid obsolescence have led to the conclusion that their presentation in review articles in a form comparable to that currently used for electron resonance data is much more suitable. For the same reason it did not seem possible nor indeed desirable to include an extensive bibliography of the published work in the field of nuclear magnetism, which at the time of writing contains well over 2,000 titles and is continually increasing.

The selection of the references included in this book was made on the following basis. The viewpoint adopted is that in a book, in contrast to an article, no references need be given for credit and that it is the privilege and indeed the role of the author to blend together the contributions of the various workers in the field and to modify them as he sees fit, for the benefit of the reader. In fairness to all concerned it should therefore be made perfectly clear that the references given in each case are not necessarily considered by the author as the most original or the most important contributions in the field but rather as convenient sources of information to supplement that given in the book. To give one example among many, the important work of Kubo and Tomita, which has influenced the author very strongly, is not quoted because it was felt that the gist of its contents was dealt with in sufficient detail to make further reference to the original paper less useful for the reader than that to some other, perhaps less important, work. Under such circumstances it was clear that a name index would serve no useful purpose and it has accordingly been omitted.

To conclude, one may ask what category of readers I had in mind in writing this book. This is a difficult question which may be answered in part by saying what kind of book I would have liked to have written. What I had in mind was to attempt for nuclear magnetism what Van Vleck has done for the theory of electric and magnetic susceptibilities in a book which thirty years after its publication is still the book on the subject. A demi-succès in this undertaking would be good enough.

It is not possible to acknowledge in detail my great indebtedness for illuminating discussions and constructive criticism to so many friends and colleagues and especially to the members of our group at Saclay and to our visitors from abroad. I would like, however, to thank particularly 'the long legg'd spinner', my good friend Ionel Solomon who has patiently coached me in the mysteries of the lock-in detector and who has kindly prepared some beautiful photographs with the express purpose of illustrating this book.

The planning of the book and the writing of many chapters have benefited from the help and advice of Professor R. V. Pound more than I can say. Although I must take full responsibility for the entire book, those familiar with his work will have no difficulty in discerning his influence. Let him be assured of my deep gratitude.

I am very grateful to many colleagues and to the editors of the following journals for permission to reproduce a number of figures from these journals: Acta Metallurgica—Comptes Rendus de l'Academie des Sciences—Journal of the Physical Society of Japan—Molecular Physics—Nature—Physica—Physical Review—Physical Review Letters—Proceedings of the Physical Society—Proceedings of the Royal Society—Science—The Journal of Chemical Physics—The Physics and Chemistry of Solids. My special thanks go to those authors who kindly took the trouble of sending original photographs.

I am greatly indebted to Madame Houzé and Madame Gugenberger for their help with the preparation of the manuscript and to Madame Gugenberger for her competent handling of the proof. Mr. Timothy Hall has kindly prepared the subject index.

A. A.

Saclay October 1960

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1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

... pale, deluding beams.

PURCELL (Dido and Aeneas)

A. Nuclear paramagnetism

THE subject matter of this book is the magnetic behaviour of assemblies of large numbers of atomic nuclei.

We denote their collective macroscopic magnetic properties by the term 'nuclear magnetism' in analogy with the term electronic magnetism for assemblies of electrons.

It is essentially this collective aspect of the problem that distinguishes both theory and experiments in the field of nuclear magnetism proper, from other research in the field of nuclear moments.

Many atomic nuclei in their ground state have a non-zero spin angular momentum $I\hbar$ (integer or half integer in units of \hbar) and a dipolar magnetic moment $\mu = \gamma hI$ collinear with it. With few exceptions, the order of magnitude of these moments is between 10-3 and 10-4 Bohr magnetons. It is these moments that give rise to nuclear magnetism. Without attempting a detailed parallel between nuclear and electronic magnetism, a few differences can be pointed out. Of the three usual aspects of magnetism, namely ferromagnetism (or antiferromagnetism), diamagnetism, and paramagnetism, only the last is of interest in nuclear magnetism. It will be remembered that ferromagnetism may arise when the temperature, T of the sample, times the Boltzmann constant k (i.e. kT), becomes comparable to the couplings between the spins. The strong exchange coupling of electrostatic origin that gives rise to electronic ferromagnetism is absent in nuclear magnetism, and, because of the smallness of nuclear moments, the magnetic coupling between nuclear spins is such that temperatures of the order of 10-7 °K or less would be required for a possible observation of nuclear ferromagnetism (or antiferromagnetism). This makes nuclear ferromagnetism a subject beyond experimental possibilities for the time being (although possibly not for ever). A nuclear analogue of electronic diamagnetism, that is of magnetism arising from the Larmor precession of the electronic charges in an applied magnetic field, is not easy to visualize, but

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at least in bulk matter it can reasonably be expected to be entirely negligible.

We are thus left with nuclear paramagnetism. While for electronic paramagnetism there is an appreciable contribution from the orbital motion of the bound electrons, the nuclear paramagnetism of orbital origin is entirely negligible in bulk matter (for reasons that will appear in Chapter VI) and only that due to the nuclear spins will be considered.

The existence of spin paramagnetism, that is, the appearance in a sample containing a large number of elementary spin-moments of a net macroscopic magnetization when placed in a magnetic field H_0 , is due to the fact that different orientations of the spins with respect to the field, described by different values of the quantum number $I_s = m$ of the spin quantized along the field, correspond to different magnetic energies E_m . According to the fundamental Boltzmann law of statistical mechanics, the populations P_m of the energy levels are proportional to $\exp(-E_m/kT) = \exp(\gamma \hbar m H_0/kT)$. The net magnetization of a sample containing N spins will thus be

$$M = N\gamma \hbar \frac{\sum_{m=-I}^{I} m \exp(\gamma \hbar m H_0/kT)}{\sum_{m=-I}^{I} \exp(\gamma \hbar m H_0/kT)}.$$
 (1)

In nuclear magnetism, where the ratio $\gamma \hbar H_0/kT$ is almost always a very small number, it is permissible to make a linear expansion of the Boltzmann exponential, thus obtaining

$$M = \frac{N\gamma^2\hbar^2 H_0}{kT} \frac{\sum_{m=-1}^{I} m^2}{2I+1} = \frac{N\gamma^2\hbar^2 I(I+1)}{3kT} H_0 = \chi_0 H_0, \tag{2}$$

where χ_0 is the static nuclear susceptibility. The proportionality of χ_0 to 1/T is the well-known Curie law.

Since the static nuclear susceptibility is, according to (2), proportional to $\gamma^2\hbar^2I(I+1)$, that is, to the square of the magnitude of the elementary nuclear moment, it will be smaller than the electronic paramagnetic susceptibility by a factor of the order of 10^{-6} to 10^{-8} . Because of this smallness it is very difficult to observe by the conventional magnetostatic methods. To give an example, the static proton susceptibility of a cubic centimetre of water is at room temperature of the order of 3×10^{-10} e.g.s. units. Although a static measurement of nuclear magnetic susceptibility had been made as early as 1937 (1), on solid hydrogen at 2° K (to take advantage of the large factor 1/T in (2)), nuclear