

SAXS and WAXS alternatives when crystallography is not possible

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Layout

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PART I: SAXS and WAXS alternatives when crystallography is not possible

- Introduction to the Theory ("Graz School")
- From Experiments to Real Space
- Bio-SAXS ("Hamburg School")

PART II: SAXS applications in life science and material science using synchrotron

- Examples:
 - Chemistry
 - Hierarchical Materials
- Grazing Incidence SAXS ("no school")
 - Biomembranes
 - In situ* Chemistry

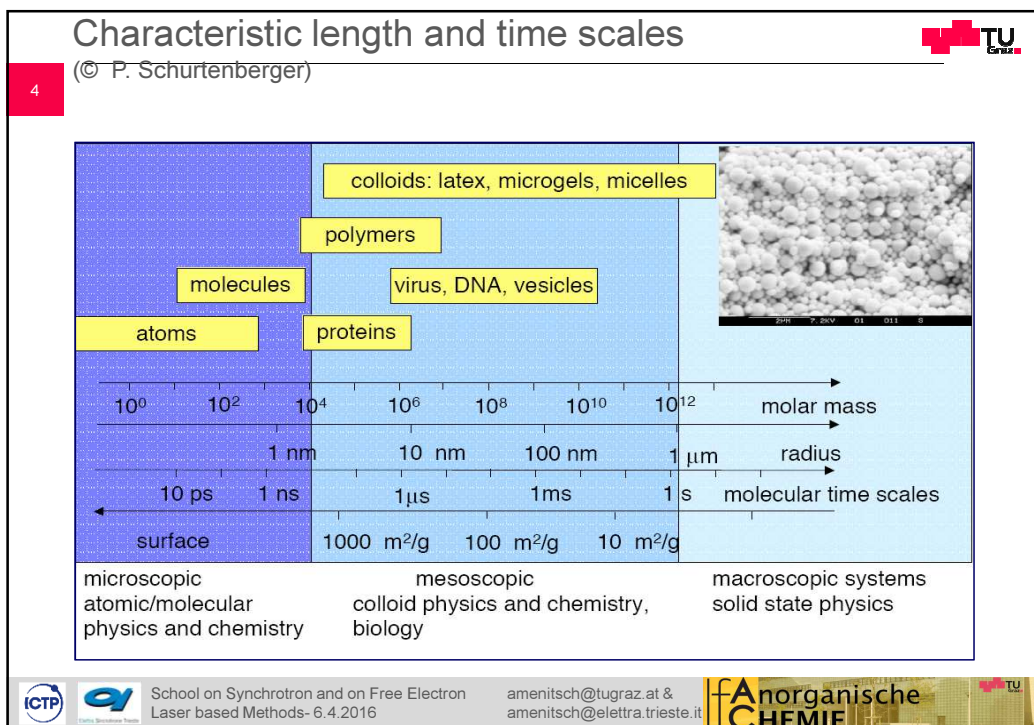
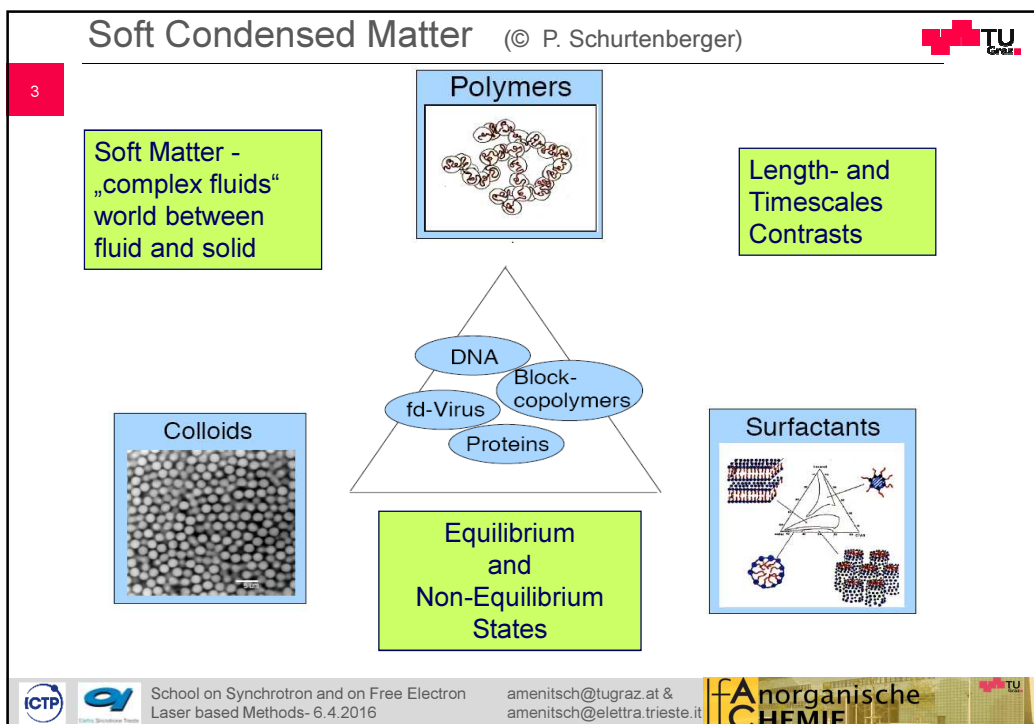


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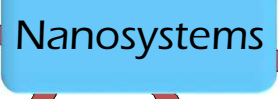
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Research topics

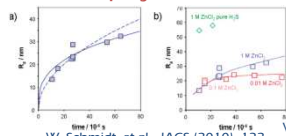
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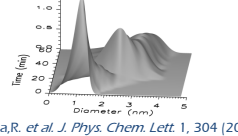
Nanosystems

ZnS NPs growth in a liquid jet



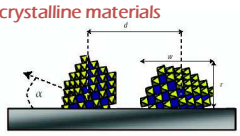
W. Schmidt, et al., JACS (2010), 132, 6822-6826

CdS nucleation and growth



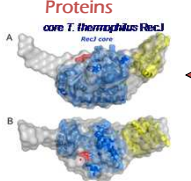
Viswanatha, R. et al. J. Phys. Chem. Lett. 1, 304 (2010)

Formation of mesoporous & crystalline materials



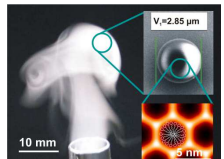
Grosso, D. et al. Nature Materials 2004, 3, 787-792.

Proteins



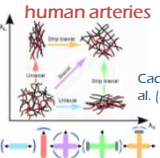
core *T. thermophilus* PheC
Krasanova I. et al. J. Biol. Chem. (2012)

Mesostructured SiO₂ produced by aerosol reaction



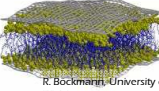
I. Shykhmon, et al., Rev. Scient. Instr., 79 (4), 043905 (2008), Langmuir (2011)

Biomechanics human arteries





Cacho-Nerin, F., et al. (2015)

Biomembranes & drug delivery systems




Rappolt M, Pabst G, R. Bockmann, University of P. Mariani et al. Zürich.

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SAXS and WAXS

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X-rays

DETECTOR

Beam Stop



SAXS

WAXS

Andre Guinier

Otto Kratky


The pioneers of Small Angle Scattering

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SAXS and WAXS



Small – Angle : Supramolecular Envelope

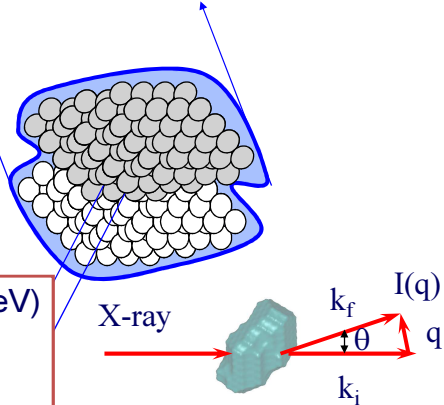
Bragg's law:

$$\sin \theta/2 = \lambda / 2d$$



small θ
large d

For CuK $_{\alpha}$ 0.154 nm (8 keV)

20 deg	0.5 nm
0.9 deg	10 nm
0.09 deg	100 nm





Molecular Lattice


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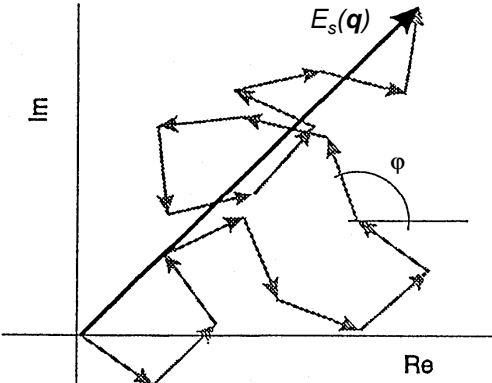
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The Scattered Field $E_s(q)$







The scattering amplitudes of all coherently scattered waves have to be added according to their amplitude and relative phase $e^{i\varphi}$.

The phase difference depends on the relative location of the scattering centers.

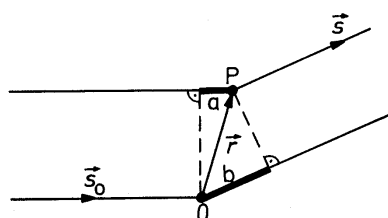
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The Phase Difference φ and the Scattering Vector \mathbf{q}

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$$a = \vec{r} \cdot \vec{s}_0$$

$$b = \vec{r} \cdot \vec{s}$$

The path length difference is given by the length difference between the two paths a and b:

$$a - b = r s_0 - r s = -r(s - s_0)$$

The phase difference φ is given by the wave number $(2\pi/\lambda)$ times the path length difference:

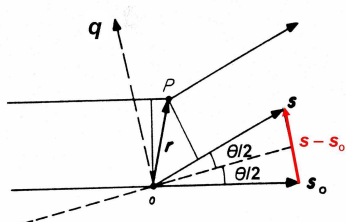
$$\varphi = -(2\pi/\lambda)r(s - s_0)$$

Now we introduce the scattering vector \mathbf{q} :

$$\mathbf{q} = (2\pi/\lambda)(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}_0) \rightarrow \varphi = -\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{r}$$

Its magnitude is:

$$q = 4\pi/\lambda \sin \theta/2$$



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The Scattered Field $E_s(\mathbf{q})$

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In order to find the total scattered field we have to integrate over the whole illuminated scattering volume V

$$E_s(\mathbf{q}) = \text{const} \int_V \rho(\mathbf{r}) e^{-i\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{r}} d\mathbf{r}$$

We can now express the density $\rho(\mathbf{r})$ by its mean $\bar{\rho}$ and its fluctuations $\Delta\rho(\mathbf{r})$:

$$\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \bar{\rho} + \Delta\rho(\mathbf{r})$$

The Fourier integral is linear, so we can rewrite the above equation:

$$E_s(\mathbf{q}) = \text{const} \left[\int_V \bar{\rho} \cdot e^{-i\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{r}} d\mathbf{r} + \int_V \Delta\rho(\mathbf{r}) e^{-i\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{r}} d\mathbf{r} \right]$$

Taking into account the large dimension of the scattering volume we get:

$$E_s(\mathbf{q}) = \text{const} \int_V \Delta\rho(\mathbf{r}) e^{-i\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{r}} d\mathbf{r}$$



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From Scattering Amplitudes to Scattering Intensities

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For monodisperse dilute systems we can write:

$$I_s(q) = N \langle |E_1(q)|^2 \rangle = N I_1(q)$$

We have introduced the single particle scattering amplitude $E_1(q)$ which is the scattered field resulting from integration over the particle volume only.

$$E_1(q) = \int_V \Delta\rho(\mathbf{r}) e^{-i\mathbf{q}\cdot\mathbf{r}} d\mathbf{r}$$

$$|E_1(q)|^2 = E_1(q) \cdot E_1^*(q) = \int_V \int_V \Delta\rho(\mathbf{r}_1) \Delta\rho(\mathbf{r}_2) e^{-i\mathbf{q}(\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2)} d\mathbf{r}_1 d\mathbf{r}_2$$

We put $\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2 = \mathbf{r}$ and use $\mathbf{r}_2 = \mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}$ and introduce the *convolution square* of the density fluctuations:

$$\gamma(\mathbf{r}) \equiv \Delta\tilde{\rho}^2(\mathbf{r}) = \int_V \Delta\rho(\mathbf{r}_1) \Delta\rho(\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r}_1$$



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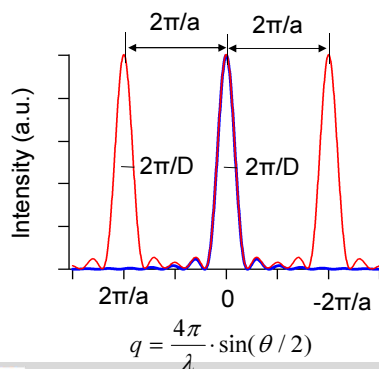
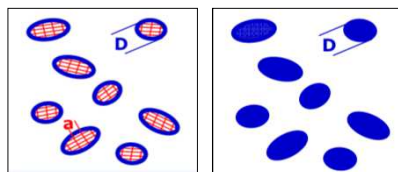
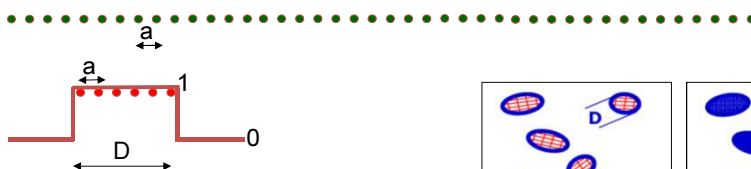
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SAXS:

peak width (+ shape) → particle size

WAXS:

positions → lattice (type, spacings, strain)

width + shape → particle size

+ lattice strain fluctuations



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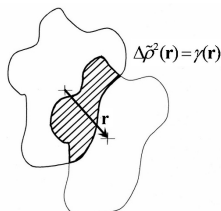


The Convolution Square of the Density Fluctuations



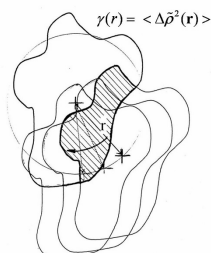
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$\gamma(r)$ and $\gamma(r)$:



The function $\gamma(r)$ is calculated by shifting the “ghost” particle a vector r and integrating the overlapping volume.

This function is also called *spatial autocorrelation function (ACF)*.



The spatially averaged convolution square $\gamma(r)$ results from the same process, the ghost is shifted by a distance $r = |r|$, but we have to average over all possible directions in space.

$$\gamma(r) = \tilde{\rho}^2(r) - V(\bar{\rho})^2 = \langle \Delta \tilde{\rho}^2(r) \rangle = \langle \int_V \Delta \rho(r_1) \Delta \rho(r_1 - r) dr_1 \rangle$$



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RDG: Spatially Averaged Intensity $I(q)$



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The spatially averaged intensity $I(q)$ is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} I(q) &= \langle |E_1(q)|^2 \rangle = \langle \int_V \Delta \tilde{\rho}^2(r) e^{-iqr} dr \rangle \\ &= 4\pi \int_0^\infty \gamma(r) r^2 \frac{\sin qr}{qr} dr \end{aligned}$$

by introducing the *pair distance distribution function (PDDF)* $p(r)$ with

$$p(r) = \gamma(r) \cdot r^2 = \Delta \tilde{\rho}^2(r) \cdot r^2$$

we finally get

$$I(q) = 4\pi \int_0^\infty p(r) \frac{\sin(qr)}{qr} dr$$



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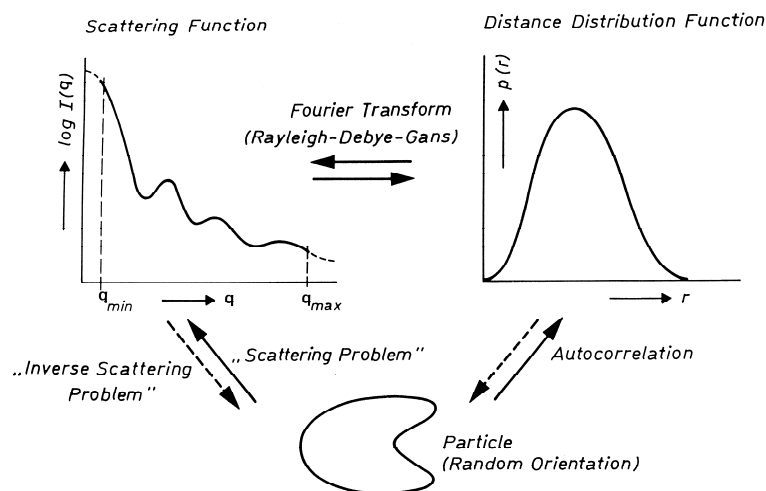
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The Scattering Problem and the Inverse Scattering Problem

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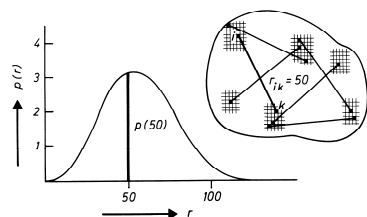
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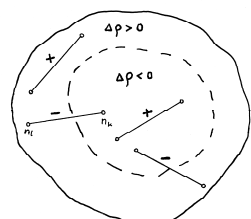


Definition of the Pair Distance Distribution Function (PDDF) $p(r)$

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We can relate the meaning of a distance histogram to the PDDF $p(r)$ if the particles are homogeneous. The height of $p(r)$ is proportional to the number of distances that can be found inside the particle within the interval r and $r+dr$



The $p(r)$ function of inhomogeneous particles is proportional to the product of the difference scattering lengths $n_i n_k$ [$n_i = \Delta\rho(\mathbf{r}_i) dV(\mathbf{r}_i)$] of two volume elements i and k with a center-to-center distance between r and $r+dr$ and we sum over all pairs with this distance.



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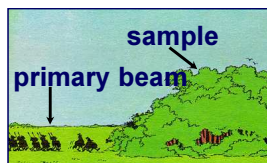
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Inverse Problem in Scattering – Artists View*



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design of the experiment

* "Asterix in Belgium"

associated by Anna Stradner & Gerhard Fritz

result in q-space



?

structure of the scattering particle



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RDG: The Particle Form Factor



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$$I_s(q) = NI_1(q) = NI_1(0)P(q)$$

$I_1(0) = V^2 \Delta \rho^2$ intensity of single particle at $q = 0$

$P(q)$ particle form factor, where

$$P(q) = \frac{I_1(q)}{I_1(q \rightarrow 0)}$$

The normalized form factor $P(q)$ contains information about size and structure of the particle.

Form factor of a homogeneous sphere:

$$P(q) = \left[\frac{3(\sin qR - qR \cos qR)}{(qR)^3} \right]^2$$



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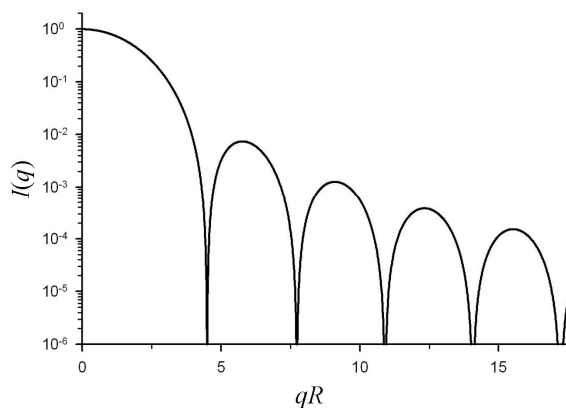
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The Particle Form Factor



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The function has minima for $\tan(qR) = qR$, or $qR = 4.49, 7.73, \dots$



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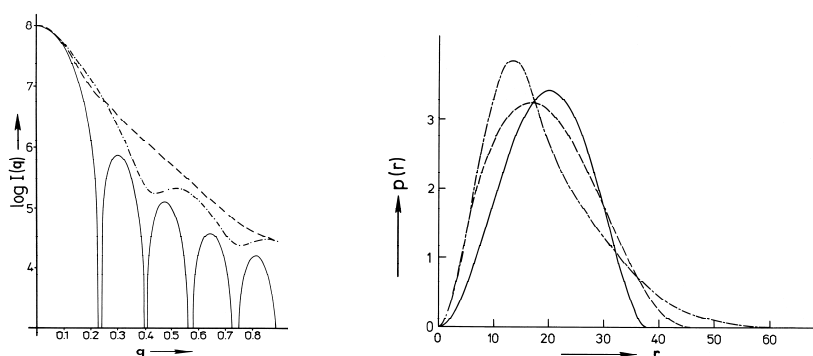
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Different Shapes of Homogeneous Particles



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Comparison of a sphere (full line) an oblate ellipsoid (dashed line) and a prolate ellipsoid with the same volume.



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Rod-like Particles



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Let us regard a rod of length L and of cross-section A_c . The cross-section A_c (with maximum dimension d) should be small in comparison to the length of the whole particle L ($d \ll L$). For $q > 1/L$ we can write

$$I(q) = \frac{L\pi}{q} \cdot I_c(q)$$

The cross-section scattering function $I_c(q)$ is related to the cross-section distance distribution $p_c(r)$ by

$$I_c(q) = 2\pi \int_0^\infty p_c(r) J_0(qr) dr$$

where

$$p_c(r) = \gamma_c(r) \cdot r = 2\pi r \int_{A_c} \Delta\rho_c(r') \Delta\rho_c(r' + r) dr$$



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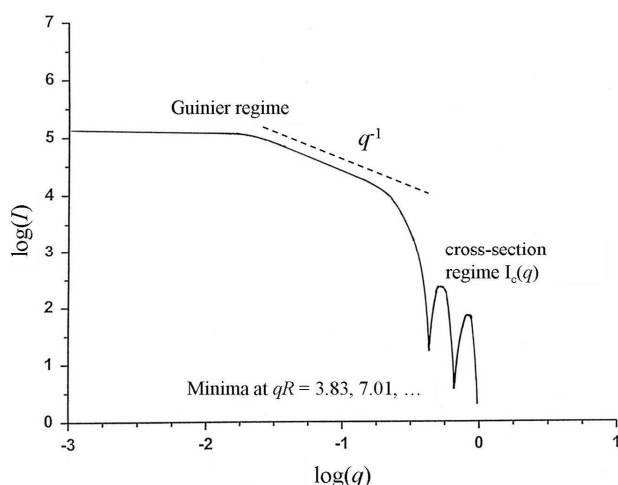
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Scattering Function for a Long, Rod-like Particle Schematic Representation



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The different regimes can be visualized in a $\log(I)$ vs. $\log(q)$ plot of the scattering curve:

The Guinier regime, the q^{-1} regime and the cross-section regime.



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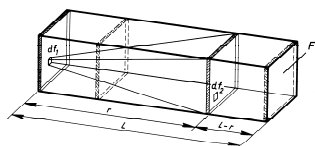
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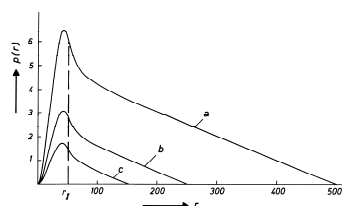
PDDF's for Rod-like Particles



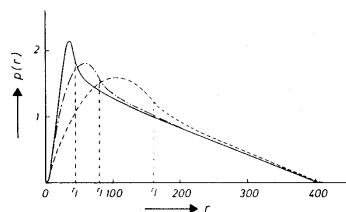
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$$p(r) = \frac{2}{4\pi} \int_r^L \int_A \Delta \rho^2 df_1 df_2 dx = \frac{1}{2\pi} \Delta \rho^2 A_c^2 (L-r),$$



PDDF from homogeneous prisms with edge lengths of: (a) 50:50:500, (b) 50:50:250 and (c) 50:50:150



PDDF for three parallel epipeds with constant length L (400 Å) and constant cross-section area A_c but varying length of the edges: 40:40, 80:20 and 160:10.



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Flat Particles



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Let us now consider a flat particle, with a finite and constant thickness D_t , being extremely large in the two other dimensions with an area A . In full analogy to the case of the rod we can separate the scattering amplitude into a *planar factor* $2\pi A q^{-2}$ and a *thickness-factor* $I_t(q)$, i.e. the total intensity is given by

$$I(q) = I_{plane} \cdot I_t(q) = \frac{2\pi A}{q^2} \cdot I_t(q).$$

The thickness-factor is related to the thickness distance distribution $p_t(r)$ by

$$I_t(q) = 2 \int_0^\infty p_t(r) \cos(qr) dr$$

where

$$p_t(r) = \gamma_t(r) = 2 \int_0^\infty \Delta \rho_t(r') \Delta \rho(r' + r) dr'.$$

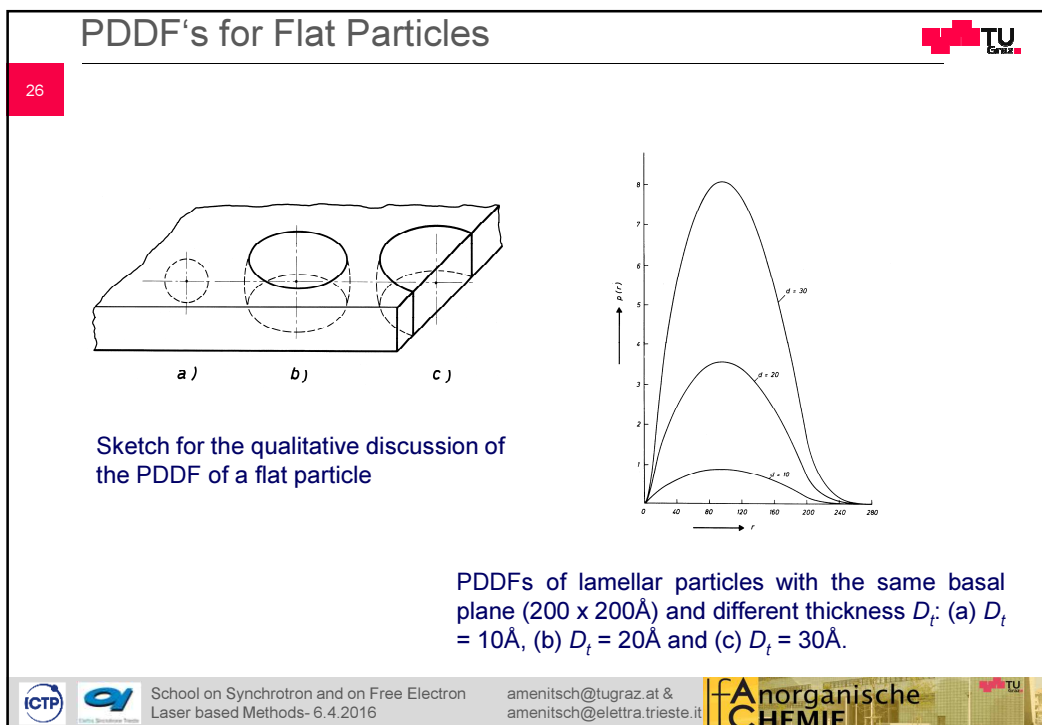
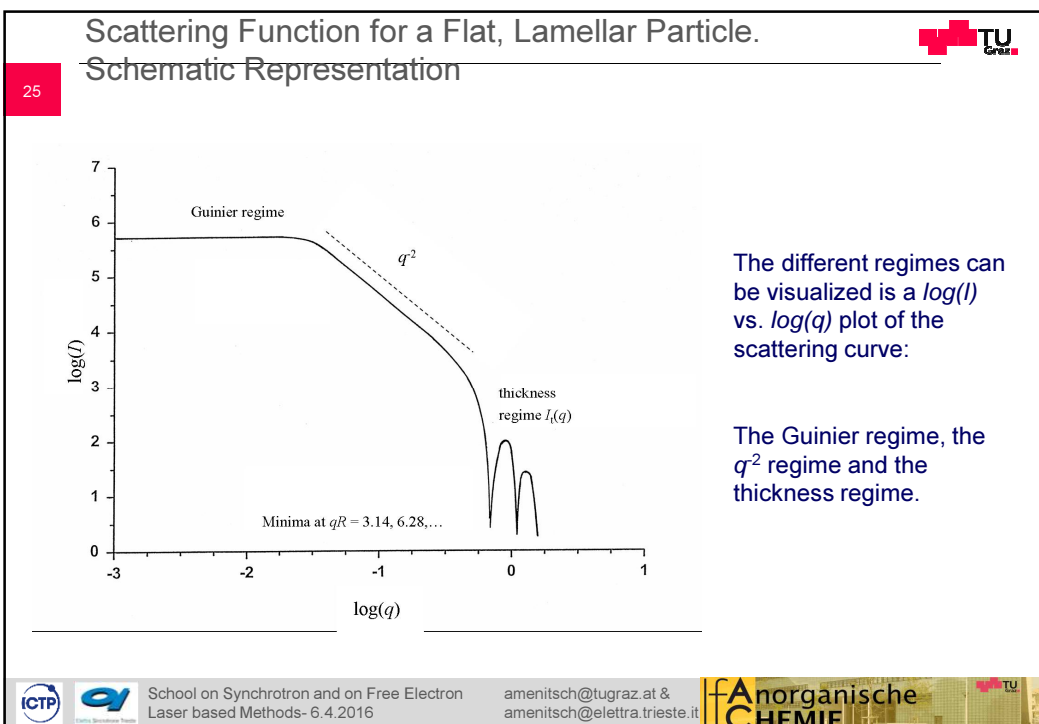


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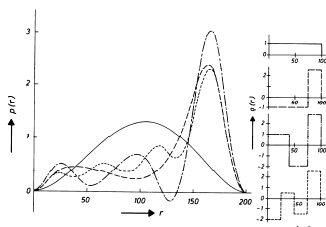
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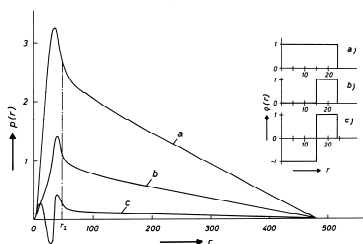




Inhomogeneous Particles: Spheres and Cylinders with Radial Inhomogeneity

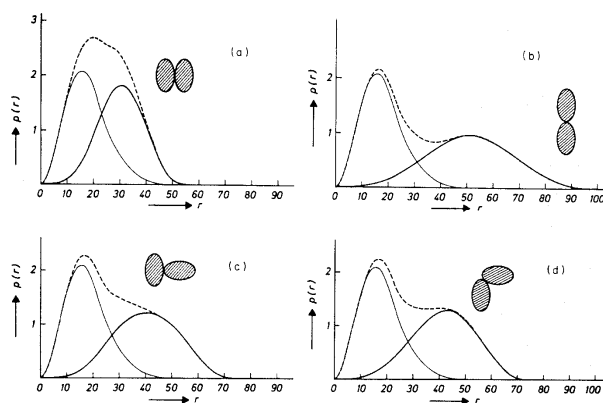


Spherical multilayer models with constant outer diameter of 200 Å. PDDFs in the left part, density profiles in the right part of the figure.



Circular cylinders with a constant length of 480 Å and an outer diameter D_c of 48 Å. (a) Homogeneous cylinder, (b) hollow cylinder, (c) inhomogeneous cylinder. The PDDFs are shown on the left, the corresponding radial density distributions $\rho(r)$ on the right.

Aggregates - Dimers

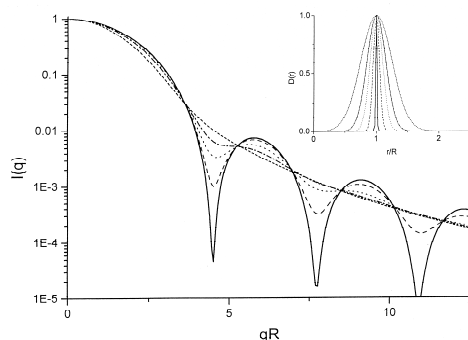


PDDFs from dimer models built from prolate ellipsoids. Monomers (full line), dimers (broken line), and difference between dimers and monomers (thick full line).

Polydisperse Systems



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Intensity Distribution

$$I(q) = c_i \int_0^{\infty} D_i(R) \cdot P_0(q, R) dR$$

Volume or Mass Distribution

$$I(q) = c_v \int_0^{\infty} D_v(R) \cdot R^3 \cdot P_0(q, R) dR$$

Number Distribution

$$I(q) = c_n \int_0^{\infty} D_n(R) \cdot R^6 \cdot P_0(q, R) dR$$

Scattering curves of Gaussian size distributions of spheres with varying width (see inset).



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Radius of Gyration



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The radius of gyration is one of the most important parameters in the field of small-angle scattering. In full analogy to the radius of inertia in mechanics it is defined as

$$R_g^2 = \frac{\int \Delta\rho(r_i) r_i^2 dV_i}{\int \Delta\rho(r_i) dV_i}$$

According to the momentum theorem of Fourier transformation the second moment of a function in one space is related to the second derivative (curvature) of its Fourier transform at the origin. This relation is the basis of the so-called *Guinier approximation* for the description of $I(q)$ for low q derived from a series expansion:

$$I(q) = I(0) e^{-\frac{q^2 R_g^2}{3}}$$

We can also use another relation for the estimation of the radius of gyration:

$$R_g^2 = \frac{\int p(r) r^2 dr}{2 \int p(r) dr}$$



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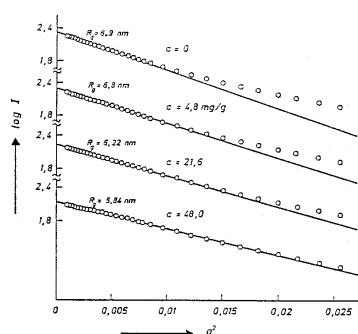
Radius of Gyration - Guinier Plot



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From the previous equation it is clear that we can calculate the radius of gyration from the PDDF once it is known. Otherwise we can use the Guinier approximation to determine R_g directly from the scattering data with a so-called *Guinier-plot*.

Plotting $\ln(I(q))$ vs q^2 we get a straight line with a slope proportional to R_g^2 .



Example for a Guinier plot from scattering data of a protein solution with varying concentration, including an extrapolation to zero concentration.



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Radius of Gyration of the Cross-Section



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For rod-like particles we can also define a radius of gyration of the cross-section which can be calculated from $p_c(r)$ by

$$R_c^2 = \frac{\int p_c(r) r^2 dr}{2 \int p_c(r) dr}$$

or it can be estimated in reciprocal space form

$$I_c(q) = I_c(0) e^{-\frac{q^2 R_c^2}{2}}$$

by a so-called cross section Guinier plot [$\log(I(q)q)$ vs. q^2].



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Radius of Gyration of the Thickness Function



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For lamellar particles we can also define a radius of gyration of the thickness function which can be calculated from $p_t(r)$ by

$$R_t^2 = \frac{\int p_t(r) r^2 dr}{2 \int p_t(r) dr}$$

or it can be estimated in reciprocal space form

$$I_t(q) = I_t(0) e^{-q^2 R_t^2}$$

by a so-called thickness Guinier plot [$\log(I(q)q^2)$ vs. q^2].



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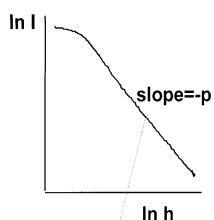
Porod Limit - Porod Plot - Fractals



34

We proceed now to the discussion of the **final slope** of the scattering curve at high q -values, we may expect this to depend mainly on the fine structure of the particle.

$$I(q)_{q \rightarrow \infty} = (\Delta\rho)^2 \cdot \frac{2\pi}{q^4} \cdot S$$



For mass fractals, where
 $1 < D < 3$, and $M \propto R^D$
it holds, that
 $p = D$

For surface fractals, where
 $2 < D_s < 3$
it holds, that
 $p = 6 - D_s$



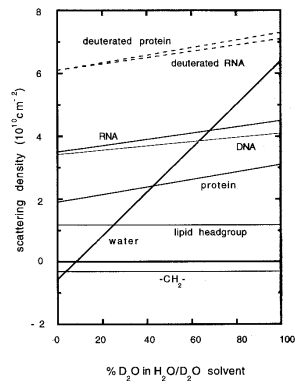
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Contrast Variation: Index Match



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A mixture of H₂O and D₂O allows to match different regions in a sample.

When the monster came, Lola, like the peppered moth and the arctic hare, remained motionless and undetected, Harold, of course, was immediately devoured!

Autrans'94 R. May (found in „Los Alamos Science“)



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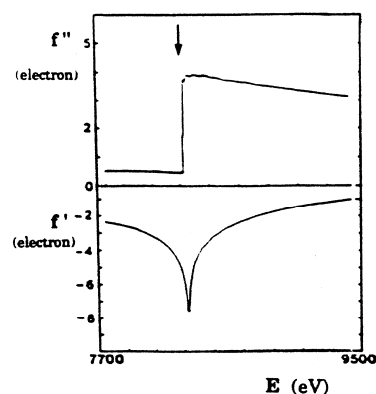
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Contrast Variation in SAXS by Anomalous Scattering



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This method, also known as *resonant small angle scattering* uses another possibility for the variation of the contrast. Near the inner shell absorption edge, the coherent scattering length or atomic scattering factor of an atom is a function of the energy E of the X-ray photon:

$$f(E) = Z + f'(E) + if''$$

Energy variation is only possible with the "white" X-ray beam of a synchrotron. The main problem for applications in chemistry is the fact that the edges for C, H, N and O are outside the useful energy window at very low energies. In solution experiments this effect might be useful for heavy counter ions (Br⁺) in micellar systems.

Typical energy dependence of f' and f'' near the absorption edge of an element. Shown here is the nickel K edge at 8333 eV.



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The Scattering Problem and the Inverse Scattering Problem

For the solution of the inverse Problem it is essential to be able to calculate the PDDF from the experimental scattering curve with minimum termination effect.

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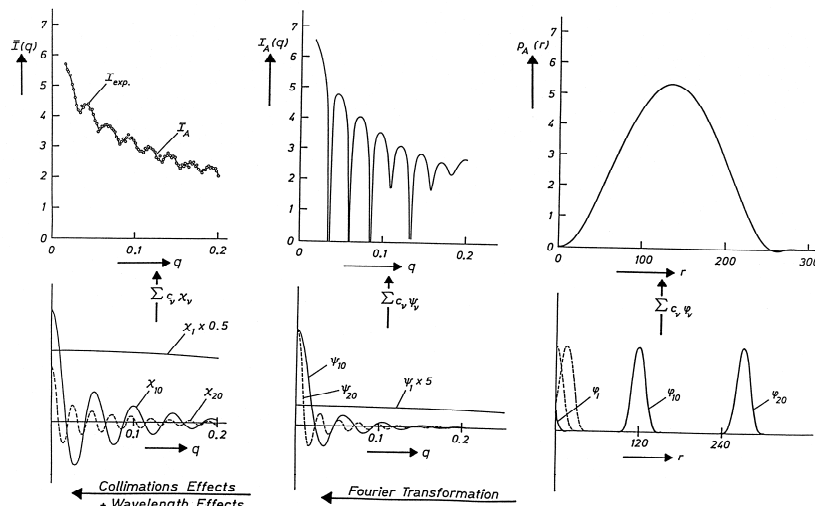
From experimental data to the PDDF

All Transformations T1 to T4 are linear and are mathematically well defined, this does not hold for their inverse transformations.

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The Principles of the Indirect Fourier Transformation

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Other IFT Applications - Equations

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Summary of the different transforms T_1 used in IFT:

Arbitrary shape:

$$I(q) = 4\pi \int_0^\infty p(r) \frac{\sin(qr)}{qr} dr$$

Cylindrical Symmetry:

$$I(q) = \frac{2\pi^2 L}{q} \int_0^\infty p_c(r) J_0(qr) dr$$

Lamellar Symmetry:

$$I_{plane}(q) = \frac{4\pi A}{q^2} \int_0^\infty p_l(r) \cos(qr) dr$$

The structure is the same for all equations, just the kernels of the integrals differ!



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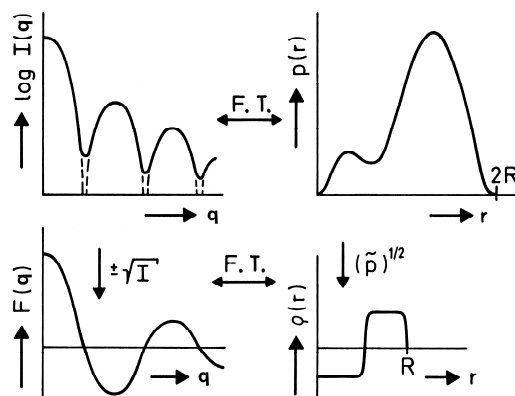
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Deconvolution of the PDDF – The *Magic Square*



41



The *Magic square* of small-angle scattering: The correlations between the radial density $\Delta\rho(r)$ and the PDDF $p(r)$ and their Fourier transforms, the scattering amplitude $F(q)$ and scattering intensity $I(q)$ under the assumption of spherical symmetry.



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Deconvolution of the PDDF – Principles I



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Here we are facing a similar situation as in the *IFT* method: for a given density distribution $\rho(r)$ we can calculate the exact $p(r)$ -function for all three cases (spherical, cylindrical and lamellar symmetry) by a convolution square operation but we do not have a useful description of the inverse problem, the so-called convolution square root.

As an additional problem we have to keep in mind the fact, that the convolution square operation is a **nonlinear transformation** which will not allow an inversion by the solution of a simple linear least squares technique like in the case of the indirect Fourier transformation.

We start again with a series expansion of the radial density function $\rho(r)$ in the usual way:

$$\bar{\rho}(r) = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i \varphi_i(r)$$



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Deconvolution of the PDDF – Principles II



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The approximation for the density profile corresponds to an approximation to the PDDF:

$$\bar{p}(r) = \sum_{i=1}^N V_{ii}(r) c_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i>k} V_{ik}(r) c_i c_k$$

The overlap integrals $V_{ik}(r)$ describe the overlapping of the i -th with the k -th step or shell where one function has been shifted an arbitrary distance r . These overlap or convolution integrals are very simple for the planar case (one-dimensional convolution of two step function leads simply to a triangle) but are a bit more complicated for the cylindrical and spherical case:

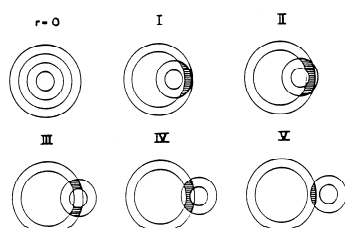


Illustration of the five sub-regions for the calculation of the overlap integrals $V_{ik}(r)$.



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Deconvolution of the PDDF – Iterative Solution



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The above equation for the PDDF is nonlinear in its coefficients c_i . The corresponding least squares problem has to be linearized by a series expansion where higher order terms are omitted.

Such linearized systems must be solved iteratively. In addition one needs starting values $c_i^{(0)}$ for the first iteration. Here we set all coefficients equal to a constant.

We then calculate the difference function

$$\Delta p(r) = p(r) - \bar{p}^{(o)}(r)$$

which would be zero only if we would know the exact coefficients c_i .

Now we calculate correction terms Δc_i in order to minimize $\Delta p(r)$ in a least square sense.

$$\sum_{i=1}^N V_{ii}(r) [(c_i + \Delta c_i)^2] + 2 \sum_{i>k} V_{ik}(r) [(c_i + \Delta c_i)(c_k + \Delta c_k) - c_i c_k] = \Delta p(r)$$



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Deconvolution of the PDDF – Iterative Solution II



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We linearize this equation by omitting the second order terms Δc_i^2 and $\Delta c_i \Delta c_k$ and we get

$$2 \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^N c_i V_{ik}(r_j) \Delta c_k = \Delta p(r_j)$$

for $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, M$ and $M > N$. These equations can be written in matrix notation

$$A_{jk} \Delta c_k = \Delta p_j \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{A} \Delta \mathbf{c}^{(0)} = \Delta \mathbf{p}^{(0)}$$

where the matrix elements A_{jk} are given by

$$A_{jk} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^N c_i V_{ik}(r_j)$$

This system is solved with a weighted least squares condition considering the standard deviations of the function $\Delta p(r)$ and we get the correction terms Δc .



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Deconvolution of the PDDF – Iterative Solution III



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They allow the calculation of improved coefficients $c_i^{(1)}$:

$$c_i^{(1)} = c_i^{(0)} + \Delta c_i$$

and with these coefficients we start the next iteration, get further improvements and if this iterative procedure converges we have solved the problem.

This problem is, however, again an *ill-posed problem* so that we have to add again a stabilization criterion and we have to solve the nonlinear problem by iteration for every *Lagrange multiplier*.

Many applications performed in the meantime have shown that the deconvolution technique works well in combination with the indirect transformation method, also in cases where the conditions of symmetry are not perfectly fulfilled.



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SAXS 2.0: Theoretical Background



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Assumption of monodisperse globular particles:

$$I(q) = n \cdot P(q) \cdot S(q)$$

n ... Particle density

q ... Scattering vector

$I(q)$... Scattering Intensity

$P(q)$... Form Factor $P(q) \leftrightarrow p(r)$

$S(q)$... Structure Factor $[S(q) - 1] \leftrightarrow [g(r) - 1]$

Interaction Potential: Hard Spheres Potential

Closure relation: Percus-Yevick-Approximation (analyt. Solution)

Kinning & Thomas, *Macromolecules* (1984), 17



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Fourier Transformation



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$$I(q) = n \cdot P(q) \cdot S(q)$$

Form Factor $P(q) \leftrightarrow$ Pair Distance Distribution Function $p(r)$

$$P(q) = 4\pi \int_0^\infty p(r) \frac{\sin(qr)}{qr} dr$$

Structure Factor $[S(q) - 1] \leftrightarrow$ Total Correlation Function $[g(r) - 1] r^2$

$$S(q) - 1 = 4\pi n \int_0^\infty [g(r) - 1] r^2 \frac{\sin(qr)}{qr} dr$$

Due to the nearly identical structure of these equations it is obvious that it is not a trivial task to split the scattering intensity into these factors by mathematical means

GIFT (=General Indirect Fourier Transformation)



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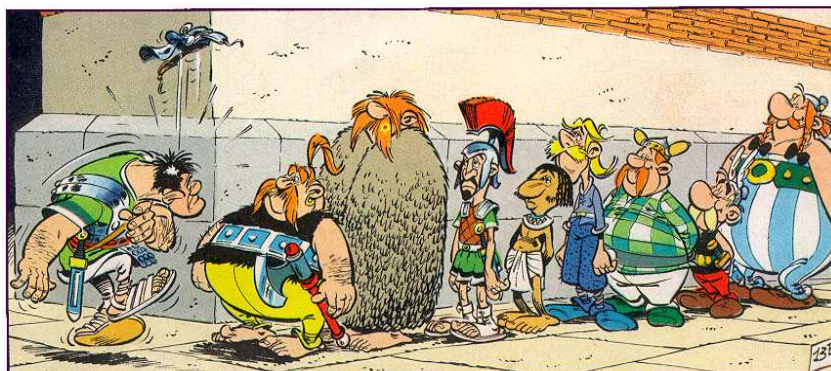
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Particle Form Factor $P(q)$ - Artists View[©]



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© **Asterix Legionnaire**, associated by Judith Brunner-Popela



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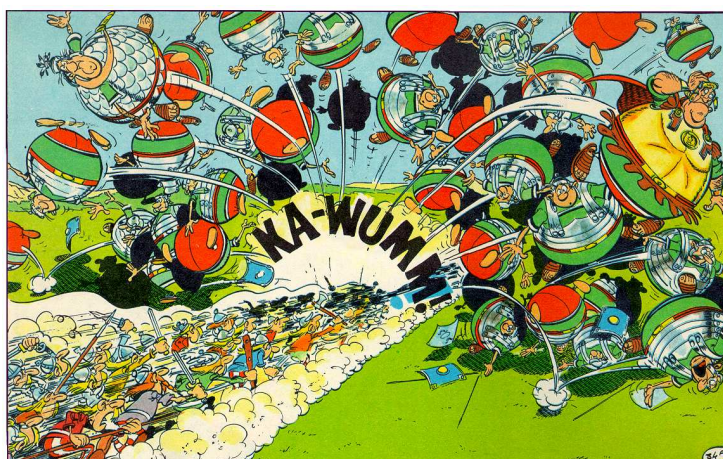
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Structure factor $S(q)$ - Artists View[©]



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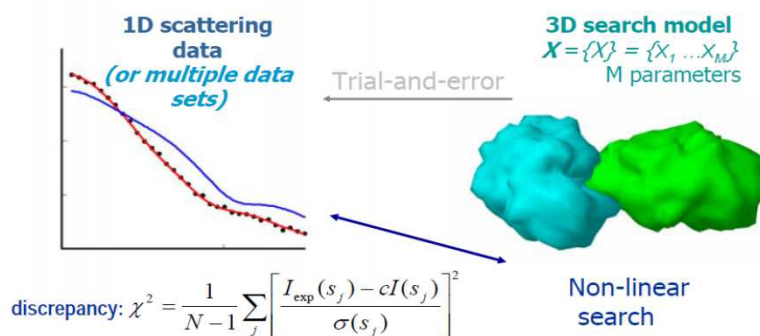
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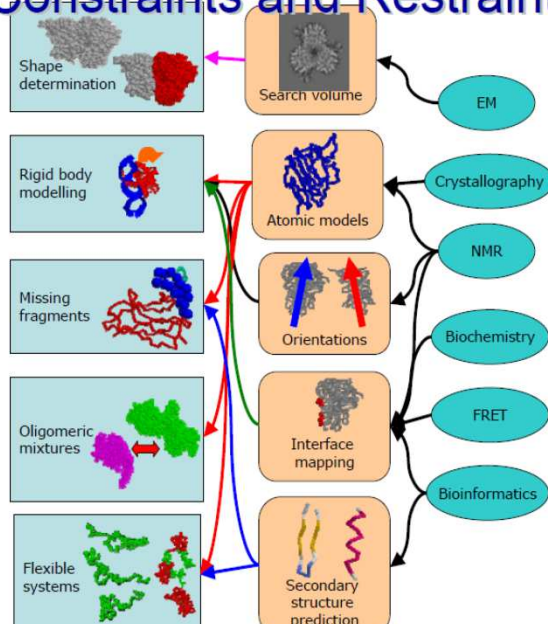


General principle of SAS modelling



Additional information is ALWAYS required to resolve or reduce ambiguity of interpretation at given resolution

Constraints and Restraints



Target function

- To reduce the ambiguity of data analysis

$$E(\{X\}) = \chi^2[I(s), I_{\text{exp}}(s)] + \sum_i \alpha_i P_i$$

is minimized

- Penalties describe model-based restraints and/or introduce the available additional information from other methods: MX, NMR, EM etc)
- If the number of free parameters is small, a brute force (grid) search may be applied, otherwise a Monte-Carlo based technique (e.g. simulated annealing) is employed to perform the minimization of $E(\{X\})$



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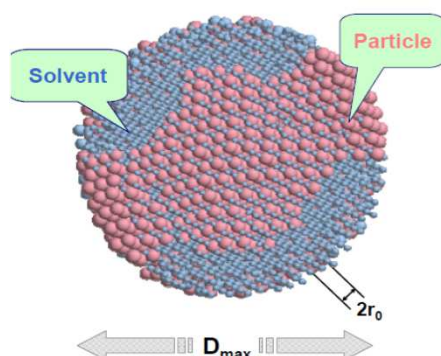
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Ab initio shape determination

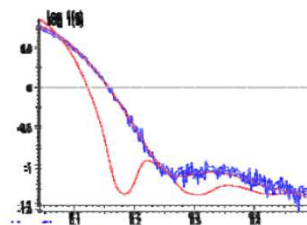
A sphere of radius D_{max} is filled by densely packed beads of radius $r_0 \ll D_{\text{max}}$



Vector of model parameters:

$$\text{Position } (j) = X_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if particle} \\ 0 & \text{if solvent} \end{cases}$$

(phase assignments)



Svergun, D.I. (1999) *Biophys. J.* 76, 2879-2886



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Bead Modelling: DAMMIN

- Scattering intensity is computed using spherical harmonics

$$A_{lm}^{(k)}(s) = i^l \sqrt{2/\pi} f(s) \sum_{j=1}^{N_k} j_l(sr_j) Y_{lm}^*(\omega_j)$$

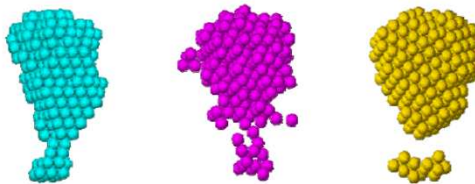
$$I(s) = 2\pi^2 \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-l}^l \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^K \left[\Delta\rho_k A_{lm}^{(k)}(s) \right]^2 + 2 \sum_{n>k} \Delta\rho_k A_{lm}^{(k)}(s) \Delta\rho_n \left[A_{lm}^{(n)}(s) \right]^* \right\}$$

- Penalty terms ensure compactness and connectivity

compact

loose

disconnected



Svergun, D.I. (1999) *Biophys. J.* 76, 2879-2886



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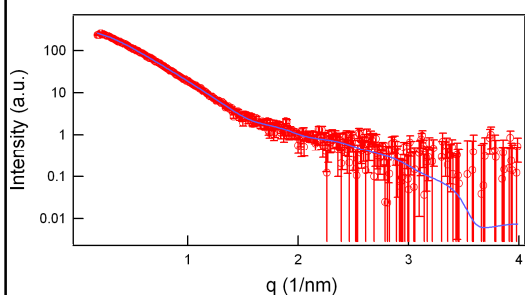
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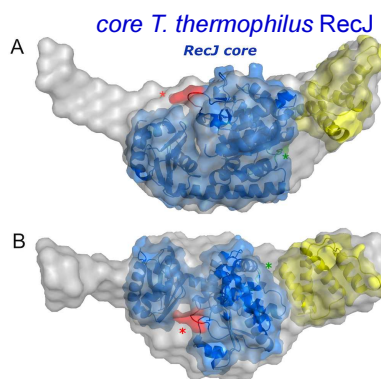
Scattering on human CDC45 Protein

CDC45 protein conserved in all eukaryotes
initiation of DNA replication
progression of the replication fork



hCDC45, 1.85 mg/ml, 40 µl, 30 s

Kastranova I, Onesti S et al., *J. Biol. Chem.* (2012)



helical domain of the acyl-CoA



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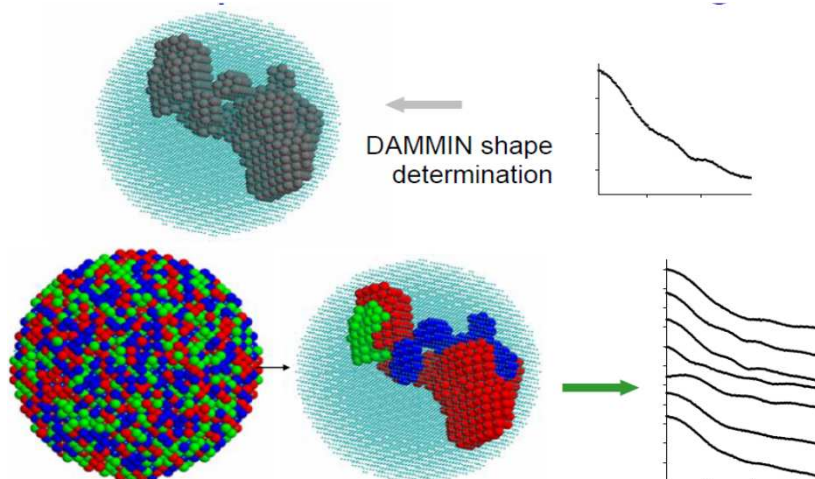
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Multiphase bead modelling



- One can differentiate between distinct parts of the particle
- Several curves are fitted assuming the same arrangement of the parts in different samples



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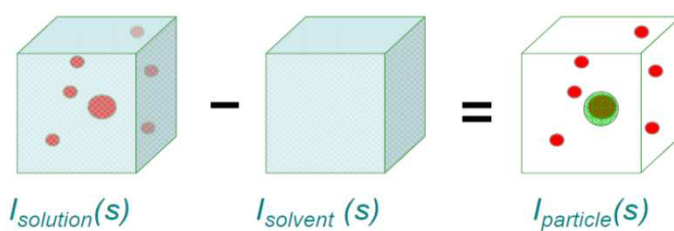
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How to compute SAS from atomic model



- ♦ To obtain scattering from the particles, solvent scattering must be subtracted to yield effective density distribution $\Delta\rho = \langle\rho(r) - \rho_s\rangle$, where ρ_s is the scattering density of the solvent
- ♦ Further, the bound solvent density may differ from that of the bulk



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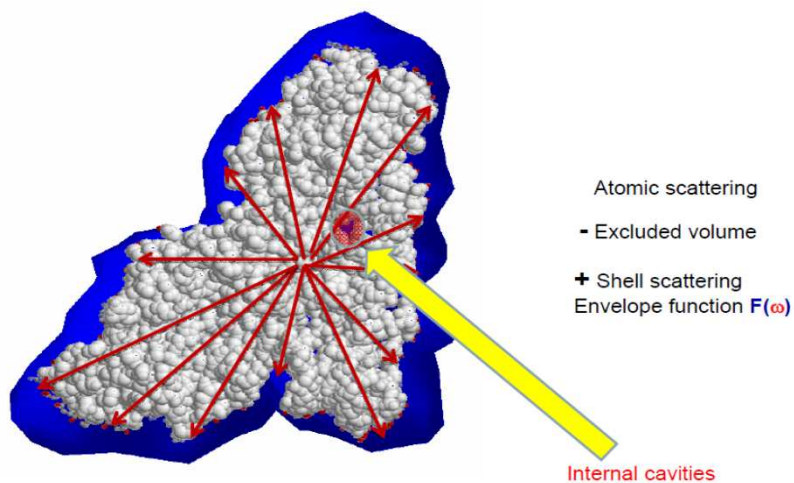
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Scattering from a macromolecule in solution



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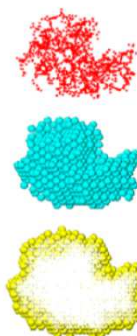


Scattering from a macromolecule in solution



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$$I(s) = \langle |A(s)|^2 \rangle_{\Omega} = \langle |A_a(s) - \rho_s E(s) + \delta \rho_b B(s)|^2 \rangle_{\Omega}$$



- ♦ $A_a(s)$: atomic scattering in vacuum
 (total scattering length / number of e^-)
- ♦ $E(s)$: scattering from the excluded
 volume (normalized)
- ♦ $B(s)$: scattering from the hydration
 shell (normalized)

CRY SOL (X-rays): Svergun et al. (1995). *J. Appl. Cryst.* **28**, 768

CRY SON (neutrons): Svergun et al. (1998) *P.N.A.S. USA*, **95**, 2267



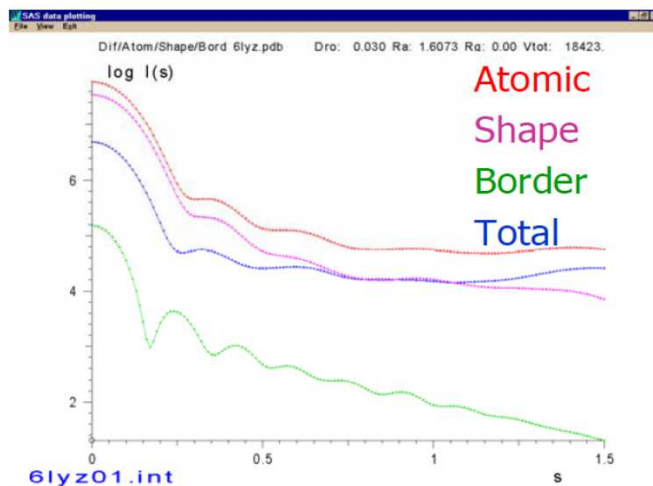
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Scattering components (lysozyme)



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