

ICTP School on Synchrotron Radiation and Application

Trieste 10.05.04

# Protein Crystallography: Tutorial on Crystal Structure Determination

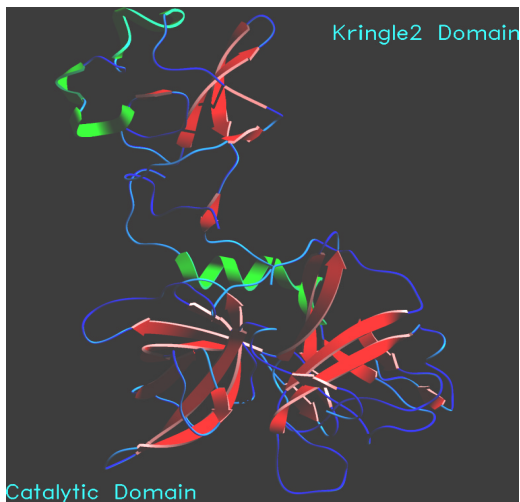
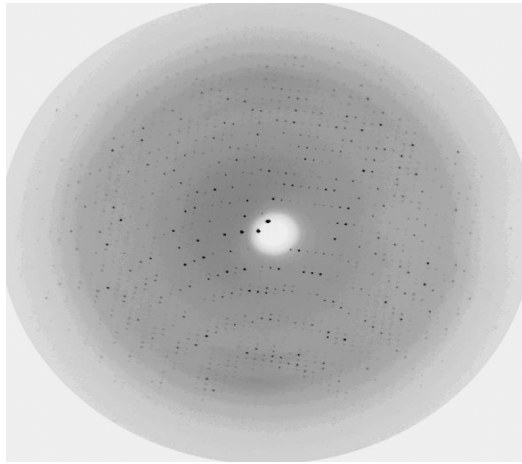
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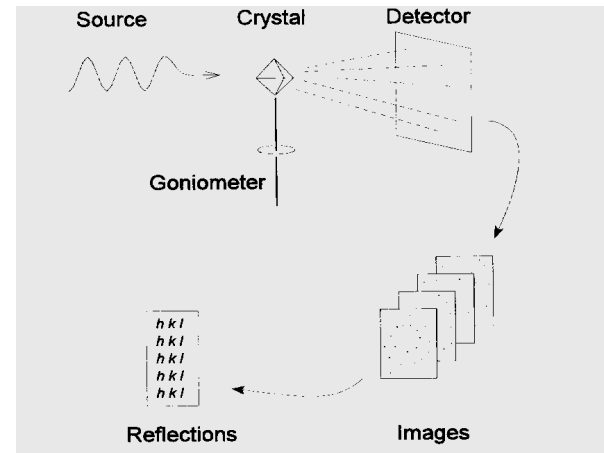
# Summary

- Diffraction
- Data Collection
- Structure Solution
- Refinement

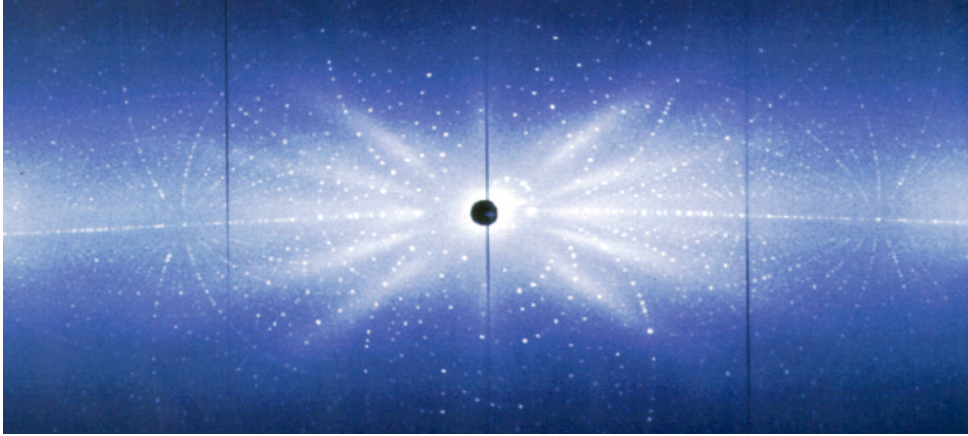
# Diffraction – The method



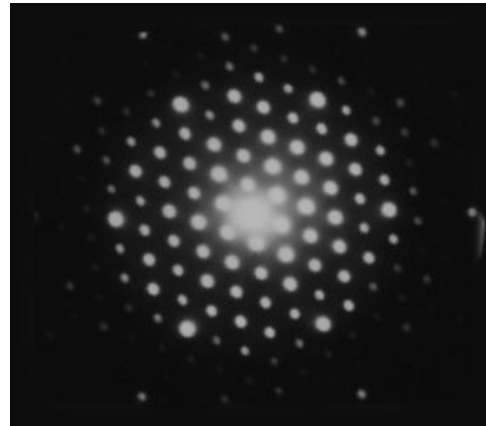
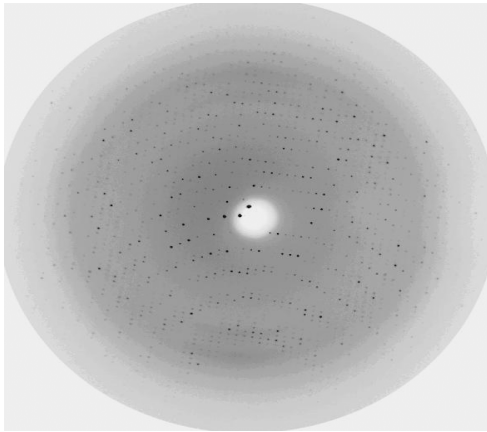
- X-ray diffraction from single crystal is still the main method for proteins structure determination.



# Diffraction – Diffraction and Crystals

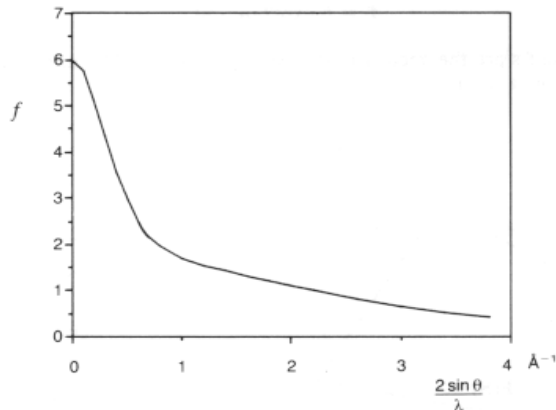


- Crystals behave as a three-dimensional diffraction net.
- The interaction between waves of a given wavelength such as X-rays, but even neutrons and electrons give rise to diffraction phenomena.



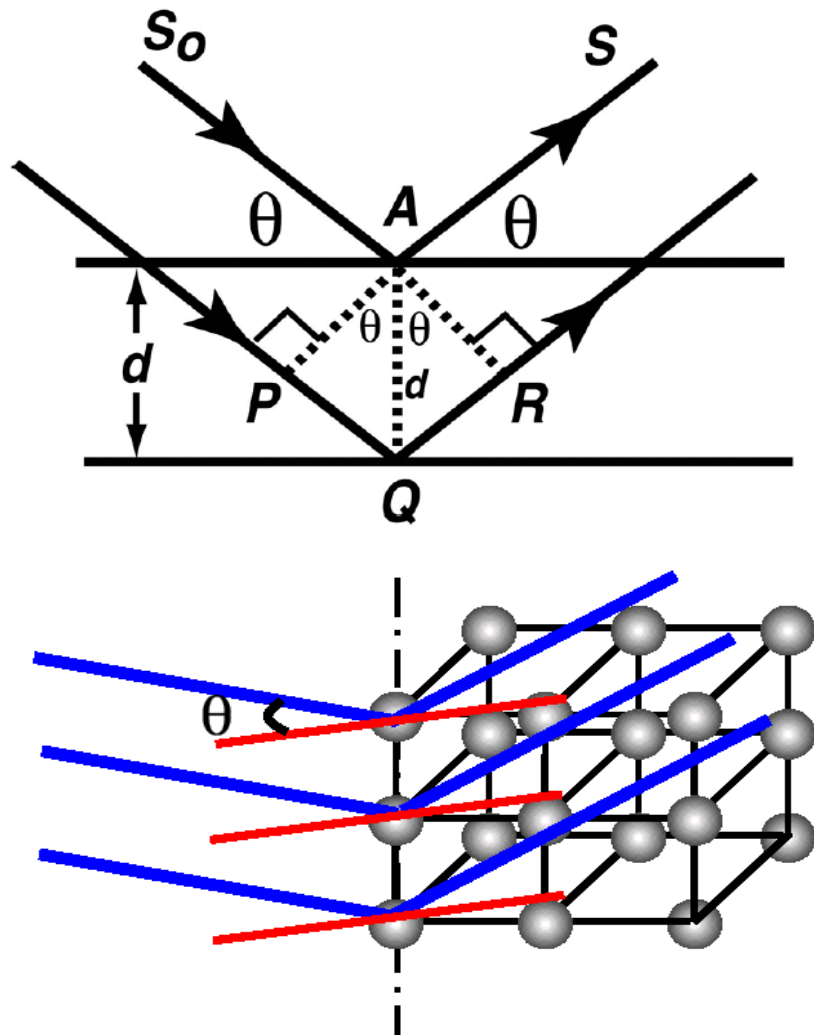
# Diffraction – X-ray electrons interaction

- X-rays interact with electrons, which absorb X-ray photons starting to oscillate in phase with the incident wave. Oscillating electrons emit “secondary” wave which conserve energy and original phase difference (elastic scattering).
- Scattered waves from electrons of all atoms inside the crystal interfere, generating diffracted waves



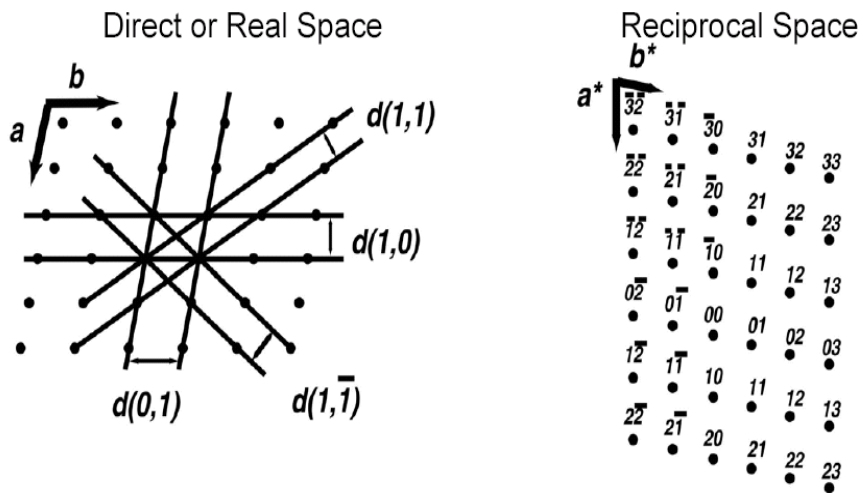
The intensity of X-ray scattered waves from atoms increases with the atomic number and decreases as the scattering angle increase

# Diffraction – Bragg Planes



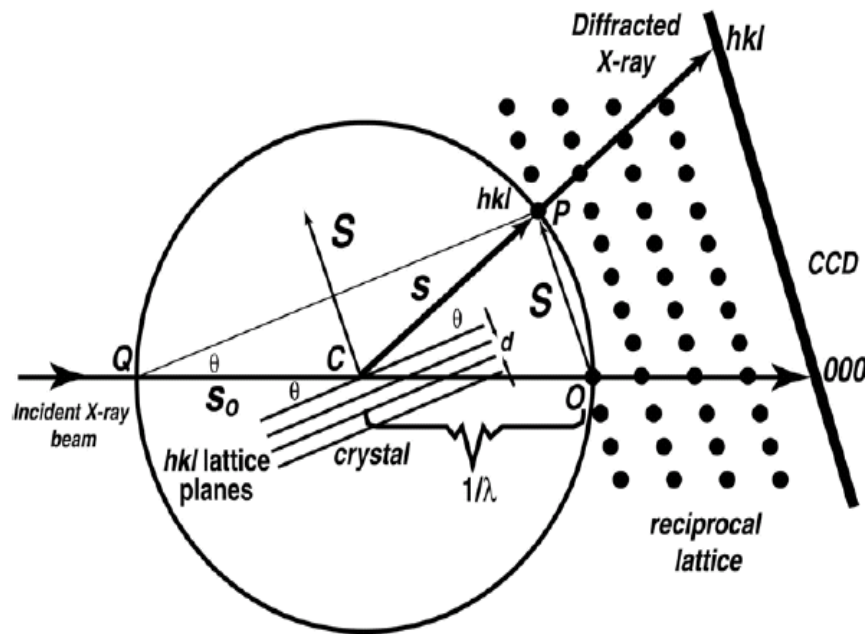
- Diffraction of X-ray by crystals can be viewed as the reflection by families of planes, containing atoms, inside the crystal itself.
- Each family of planes is characterized by 3 numbers (Miller indexes) which identify the Bragg plane orientation relative to the crystal axes.
- The angle between the incident (or scattered) wave and the plane is called Bragg angle.

# Diffraction – The Reciprocal Lattice



- We can associate at every family of Bragg planes a vector orthogonal to the planes themselves.
- We can construct in this way a new net called reciprocal lattice, and every discrete point inside it is called reciprocal lattice point (rlp).

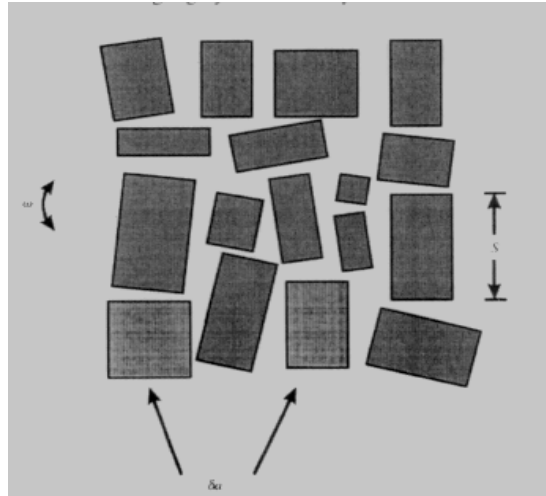
# Diffraction – The Ewald Sphere



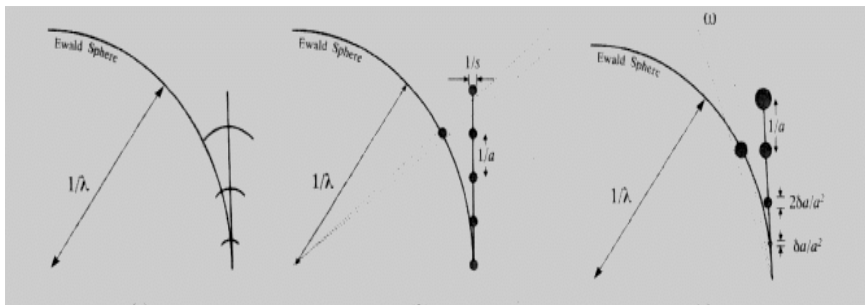
- A useful tool when considering diffraction by crystals, is the Ewald sphere.
- Every time a reciprocal lattice point lies on the Ewald sphere, that point (or its related Bragg Plane) originates a diffracted ray.



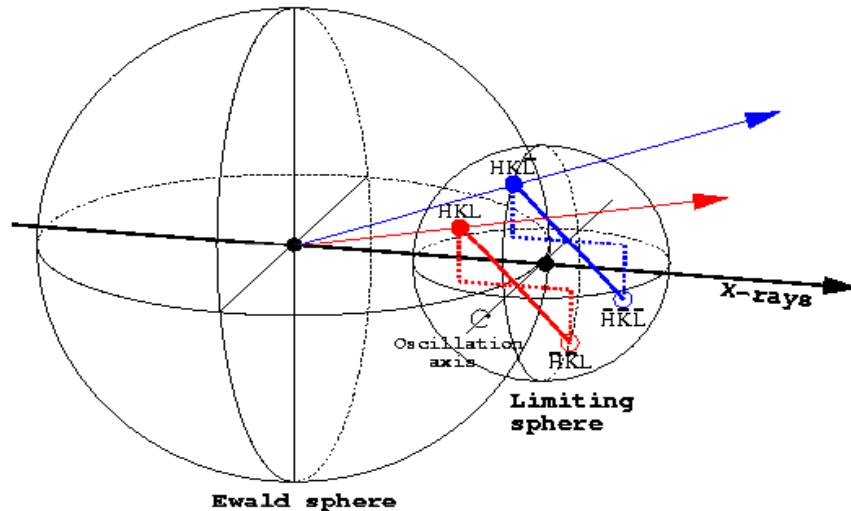
# Diffraction – Mosaic Spread



- In principle reciprocal lattice points are zero dimensional, in practice they are not.
- A single crystal can be seen as composed of several blocks, each other misaligned by a more or less small extent.
- The different blocks will be brought in diffraction condition for different but contiguous angles  $\phi$  (while Bragg angle  $\theta$  does not change), so the diffracted spot will have a distribution (assumed gaussian) around the theoretical position.



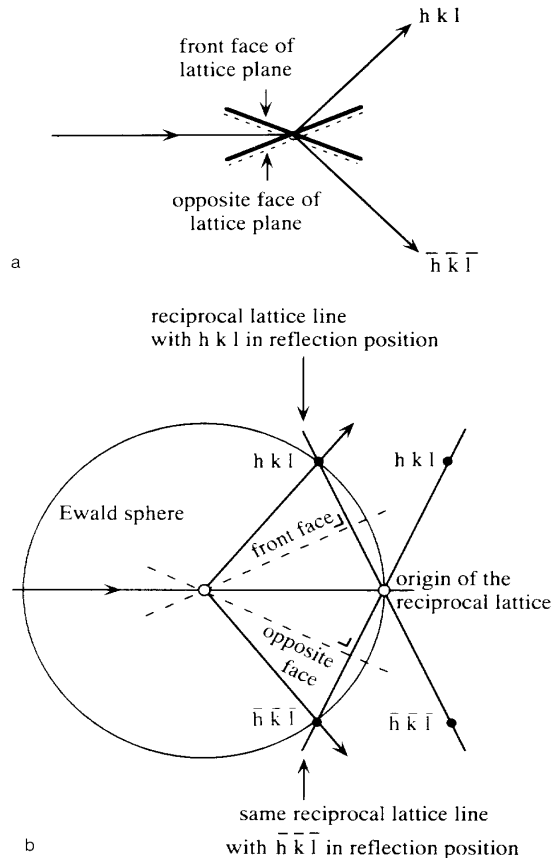
# Diffraction – Limiting Sphere



- The intensity of the scattered wave from an atom decreases as the Bragg angle  $\theta$  increases.
- The internal disorder of the crystal and the thermal motion of the atoms have the same effect on diffraction intensity.
- In practice a maximum angle  $\theta$  exists above which diffraction is not observed anymore. This angle is related to the level of detail of the final crystal structure (Resolution).

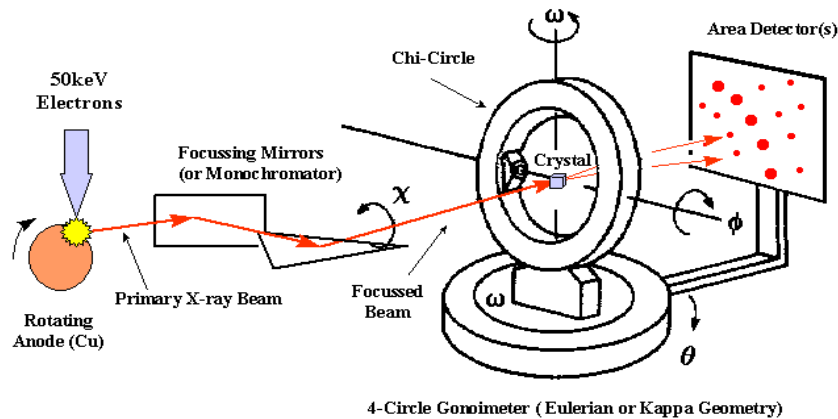
$$\rho(x \ y \ z) = 1/V \sum_{hkl} F(h \ k \ l) \exp[-2\pi i(hx+ky+lz) + i\alpha(h \ k \ l)]$$

# Diffraction - Friedel Pairs



- The interaction between X-ray and crystals is such that planes related by centrosimmetry, which is planes  $(h k l)$  and planes  $(-h -k -l)$ , have the same diffracted intensity (Friedel law).
- Friedel Law does not hold anymore, if the wavelength of the incident X-ray is near or equal to an absorption edge of an element inside the crystal. This is due to the anomalous scattering contribution.

# Data Collection



We collect Intensities of the diffracted waves, but not their phases!

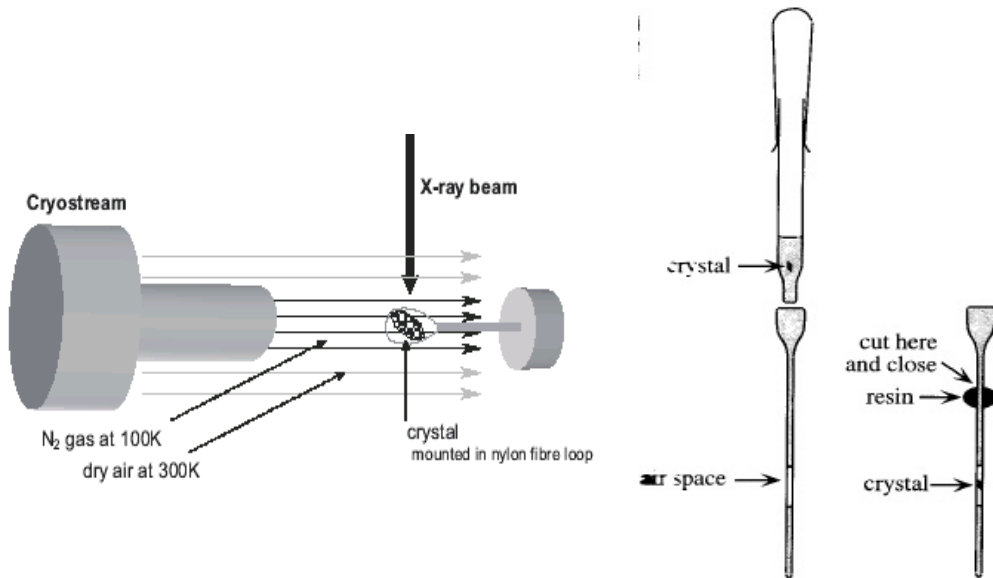
$$I_{hkl} = KI_0 \lambda^3 LPA V_x |F_{hkl}|^2 / V_0^2$$

- In a Single Crystal diffraction experiment we have to collect as much as possible diffracted waves, generally indicated as reflections. To do that a general setup consist of:
  - A source of X-rays
  - A goniostat to orientate and rotate the crystal so that a certain number of Bragg planes can be brought in diffraction conditions
  - A detector to acquire the diffracted rays

# Data Collection – Radiation Damage

- Protein crystals are damaged from the exposure to the X-ray beam
- Radiation damage causes a reduction in lifetime of crystals, which becomes apparent as a reduction of the diffraction pattern maximum resolution, and worsening of the diffracted spot shape.
- At the final electron density map level, disulfide bonds can be broken, and carboxylic groups of exposed aspartic or glutamic acid may be lost.
- The extent of the damage depends on the X-ray dose absorbed, and on the energy of the incoming photons.
- X-rays promote the radiolysis of water molecules, the radicals generated chemically damage the proteins. Migration of radicals can be stopped by freezing protein crystals with an appropriate cryoprotectant.
- X-ray absorption causes the emission of photoelectrons with formation of ions. With an extremely intense X-ray beam (3<sup>rd</sup> Generation Synchrotron undulators) this effect may become apparent. It is insensitive to low temperature data collection.

# Data Collection – Crystal Mounting

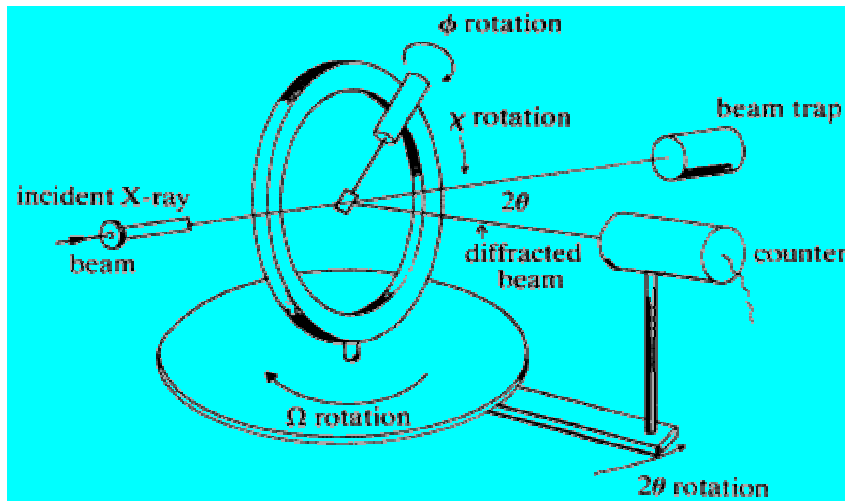
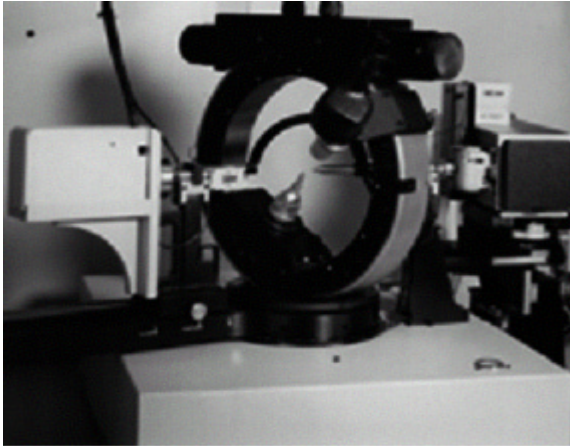


- If crystal decay is not a problem, capillary mounting is an option.
- For Synchrotron data collection, the safest option is to flash freeze crystals soaked with a cryoprotectant.
- Finally crystals are mounted on goniometer head and centered, so that they do not give rise to precession upon spindle axis rotation.

# Data Collection - Methods

- Different methods exist for collecting diffraction data, depending on:
  - The incident beam is monochromatic or not
  - The Geometry of diffraction experiment
  - The Detector can be zero, one or bidimensional
- Polychromatic
  - Laue Method
- Monochromatic
  - Single Crystal Diffractometer (with photon counter)
  - Precession Method
  - Rotation Method

# Data Collection – Diffractometer



- The Bragg planes are brought into diffraction condition one at a time. The diffracted intensity is collected with a zero dimensional detector (photo multiplier)
- Advantage: Data are accurate, semi-empirical absorption correction is possible.
- Disadvantages: Extremely slow! In practice it is not used anymore for Protein crystallography.



# Data Collection – Rotation Method

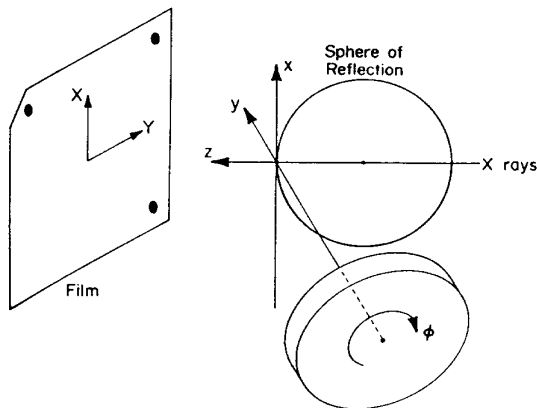
- The crystal is rotated around a generic crystallographic direction so that a certain number of rlp planes are brought into diffraction conditions.
- Advantages: Fast
- Disadvantages: Distorted Image of rlp planes.
- Rotation Method is the Standard method of data collection for macromolecules.

•The simplest setup consist of:

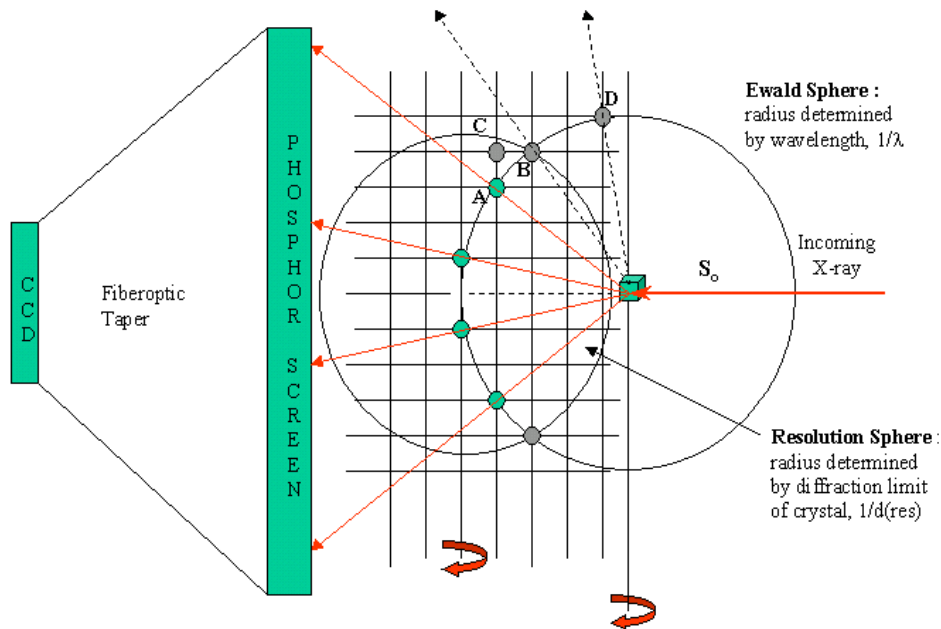
–monochromatic X-ray beam

–single axis goniometer orthogonal to the incident beam

–flat bidimensional detector parallel to the rotation axis. The detector is normally orthogonal to the incident beam, but not necessarily.

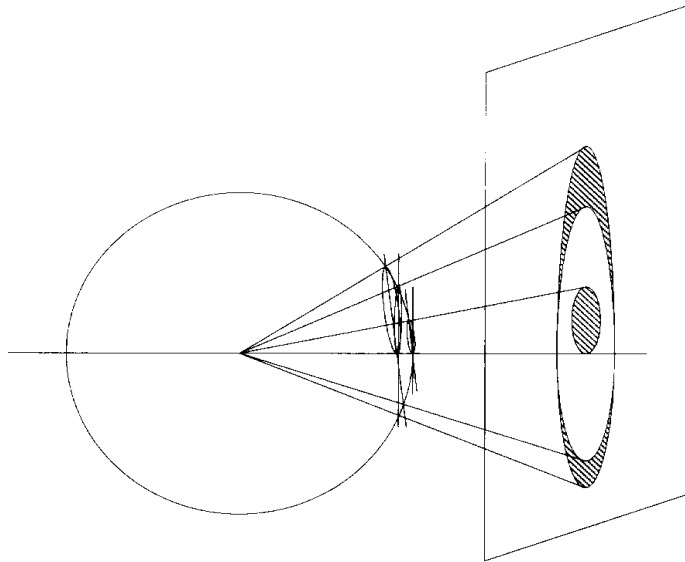


# Rotation Method - Geometry



- The crystal is rotated around the goniometer axis of a certain angle so that several rlp's will be in diffraction condition during the rotation. The diffracted X-rays are collected from the detector behind the crystal, without any intercepting screen between them.
- The rotation is repeated for contiguous angles until, given the orientation of the crystal, the independent (at least) part of the reciprocal lattice is completely scanned.

# Rotation Method – Diffraction Pattern



- The diffraction pattern shows typical diffraction figures called “lunes”, due to the sweep through the Ewald sphere of the reciprocal lattice, during the crystal rotation
- The rotation angle must be small enough in order to avoid spots superposition. In practice the lunes must be well resolved.