

# X-Ray Crystallography

Oct 14, 2013

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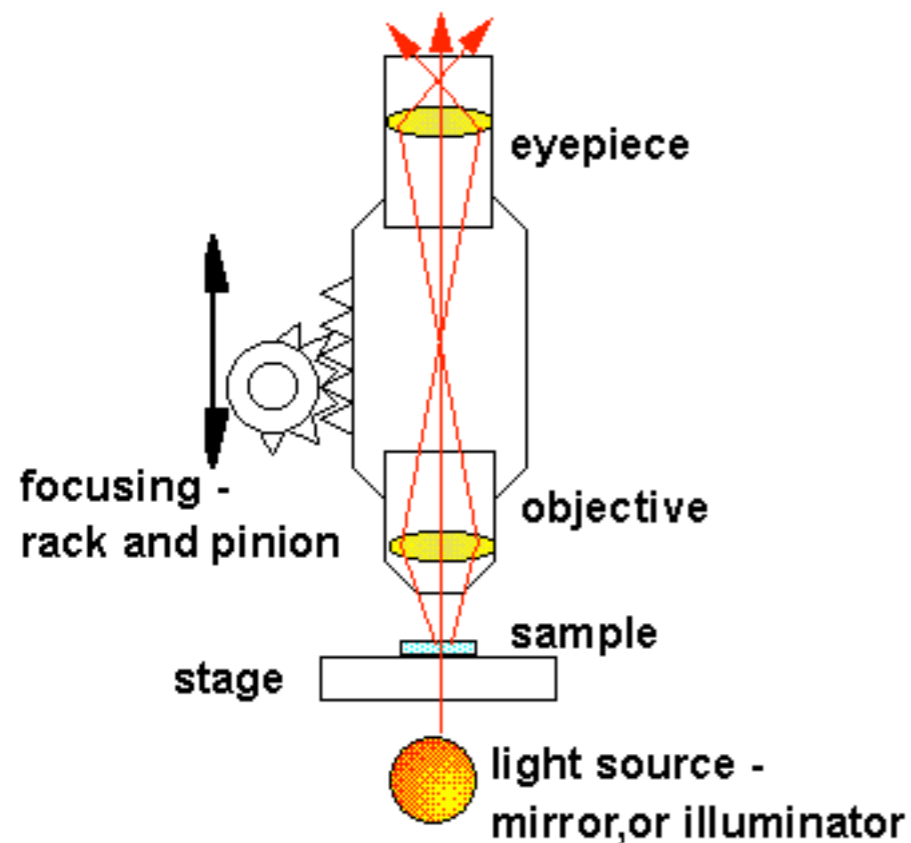
- Method to determine the ATOMIC structure of a molecule
- The most widely used technique for determine structures of biological molecules
- Can also be used to determine small molecules
- Most entries in the PDB were determined by X-ray crystallography
  - X-Rays just under 42,000 entries - numbers from 2009
  - NMR 7,115 entries
  - other techniques 256 entries
- NMR depends on interactions between nuclei X-Rays interacts with electrons.

# X-Ray

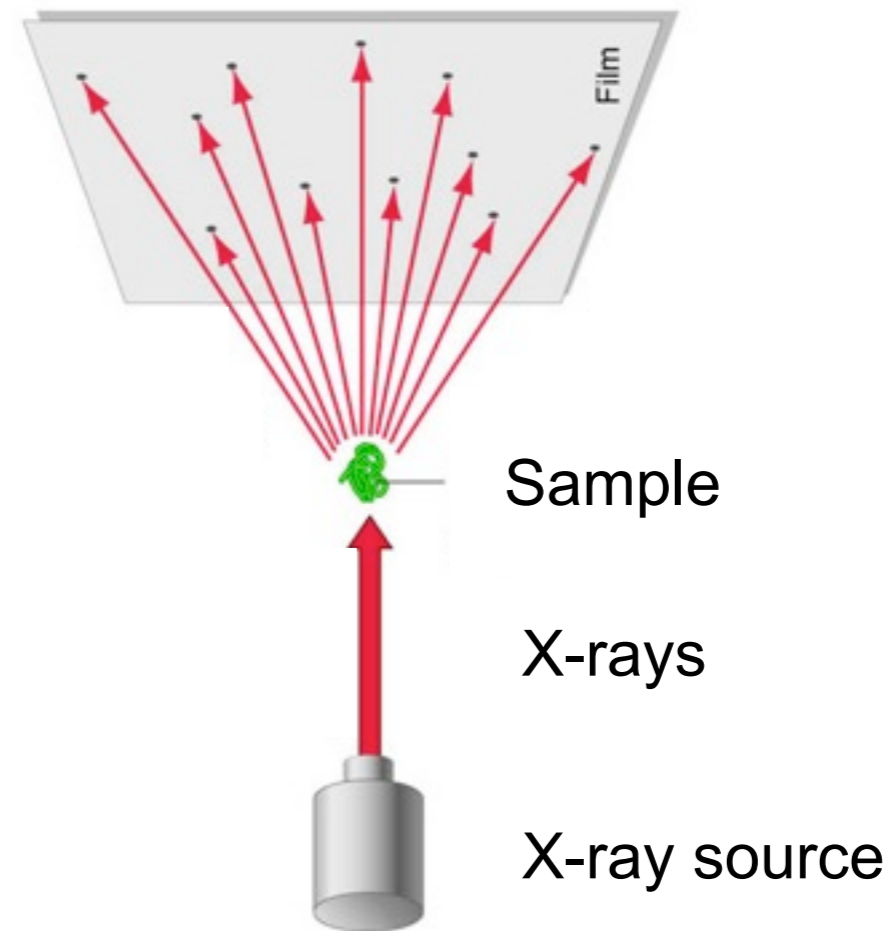
- Why X-rays??
- X-rays are part of the EM spectrum
- Atomic resolution - the position of two bonded atoms can be distinguished
- Typical covalent bond is about 0.12 nm or  $1.2 \times 10^{-10}$  m
  - $1 \times 10^{-10}$  m is called an Angstrom (Å)
- Limit of resolution of any optical method is defined by half the wavelength of the incident radiation
  - This is a consequence of the wave like properties of light
  - wavelength of visible light (400 to 800nm) therefore it can resolve objects to about 200nm (many cellular organelles)
  - For atomic resolution  $0.12 \text{ nm} \times 2 = 0.24 \text{ nm}$
  - This falls into the range of X-rays.
- NO LENS for X-rays

# Light Microscope vs X-Ray Diffraction

## Light Microscopy



## X-ray Diffraction



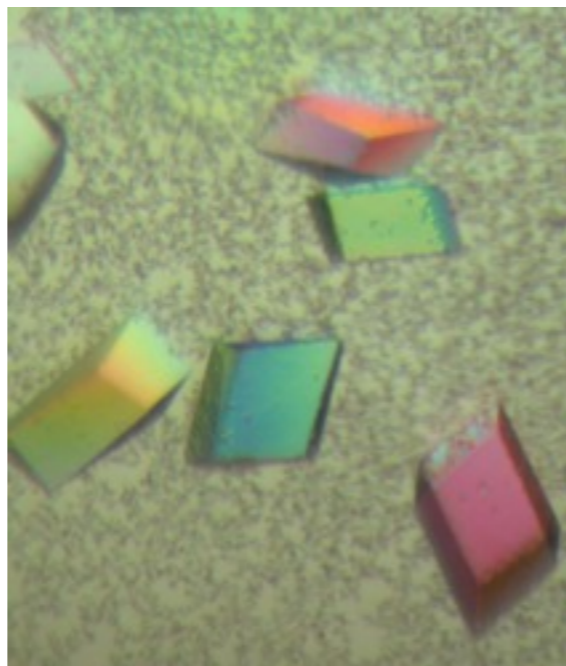
There is no lens for X-rays

# Crystals

- X-rays weakly interact with matter
- Crystals serve two purposes
  - High concentration
  - Order
    - Crystals are solids that are exact repeats
- Comparison of crystalline quartz and glass - same molecule but quartz is an ordered crystal and glass is amorphous solid
- Crystals are composed of repeating units - translational and rotational symmetry operators relate molecules to each other
- Biological molecules are composed of chiral molecules.
- Chirality limits the types of symmetry that can be used to describe a crystal
  - No mirror planes or points of symmetry

# Growing Crystals

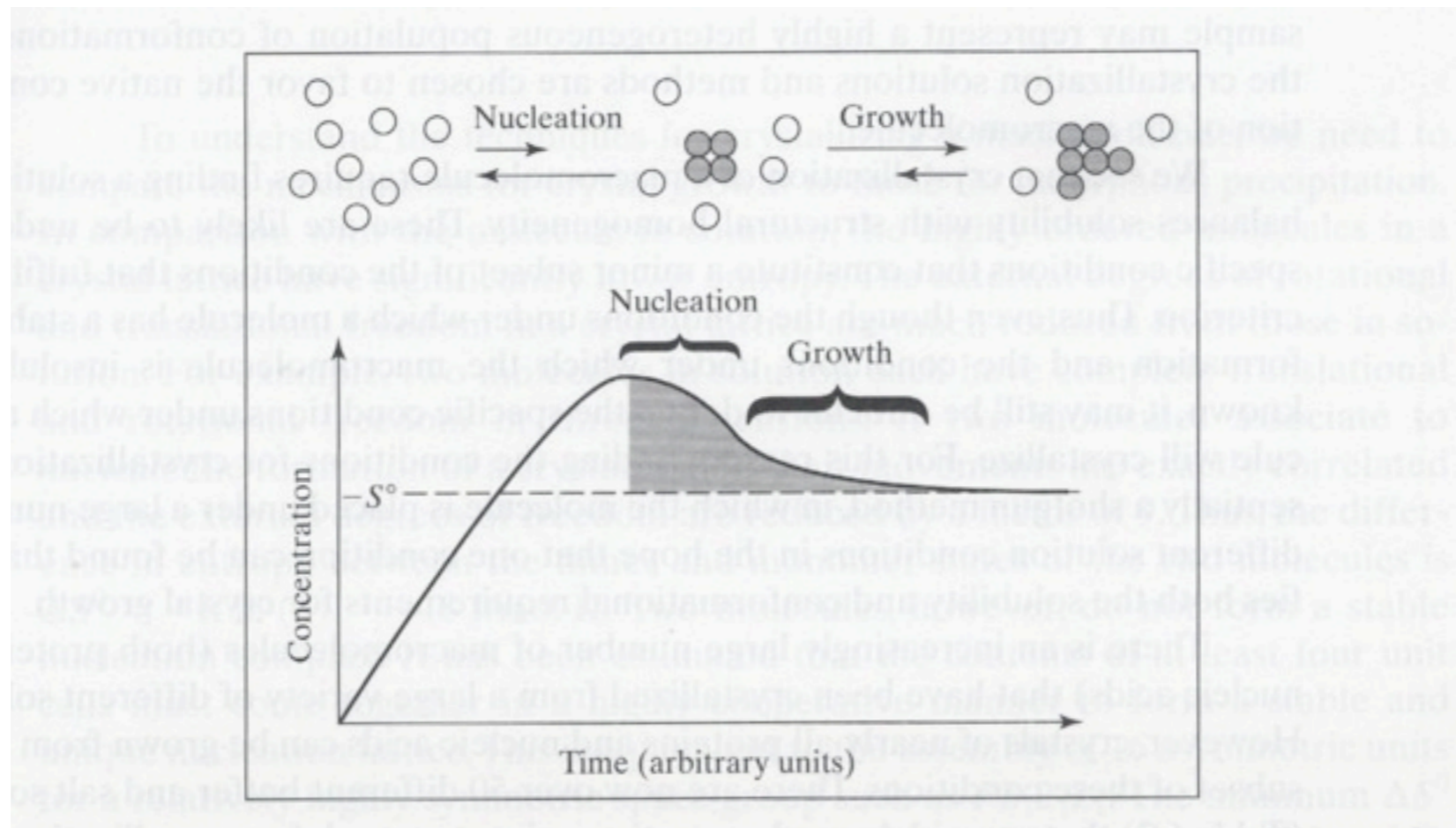
- There is no straightforward way to grow crystals
- Protein crystals are a solid but do contain a lot of solvent - Most have 30-70% solvent
- Large amounts of purified material
- Empirical process that requires careful observation



# Growing Crystals II

- Molecules come out of solution when its concentration exceeds its intrinsic solubility
- Intrinsic solubility is related to the properties of the molecule (ie basic, acidic, hydrophobic, etc) and conditions (ie salt concentrations, pH, temperature)
- Make a supersaturated solution and slowly precipitate the molecule in an orderly fashion
- Methods
  - Remove excess solvent
    - This method is done for many small molecules
    - Not so useful for proteins since there may be other additives (salt, detergent, etc)
  - Decrease the solubility of molecule
    - This is accomplished by increasing or decreasing ionic strength of the solution or the addition of a molecule to dehydrate the protein (PEG)

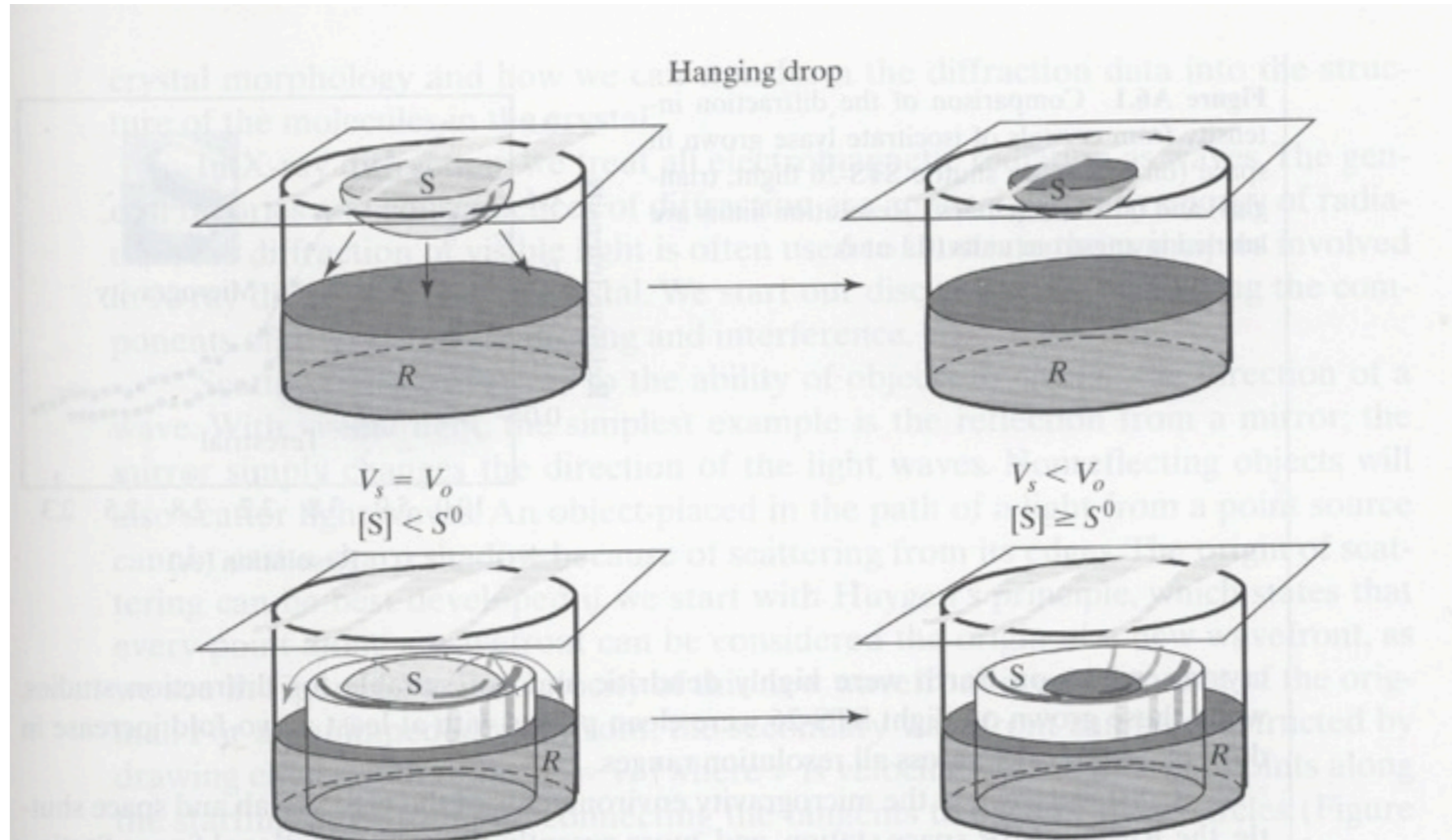
# Crystal Growth in Theory



**Figure 6.6** Mechanism of crystallization. The initial step in crystallization is the nucleation of a minimum crystal lattice. This is a low probability step that occurs in a supersaturated solution. The crystal grows by adding molecules to the surface of the seed, and occurs at concentrations close to the intrinsic solubility  $S^0$  of the molecule.

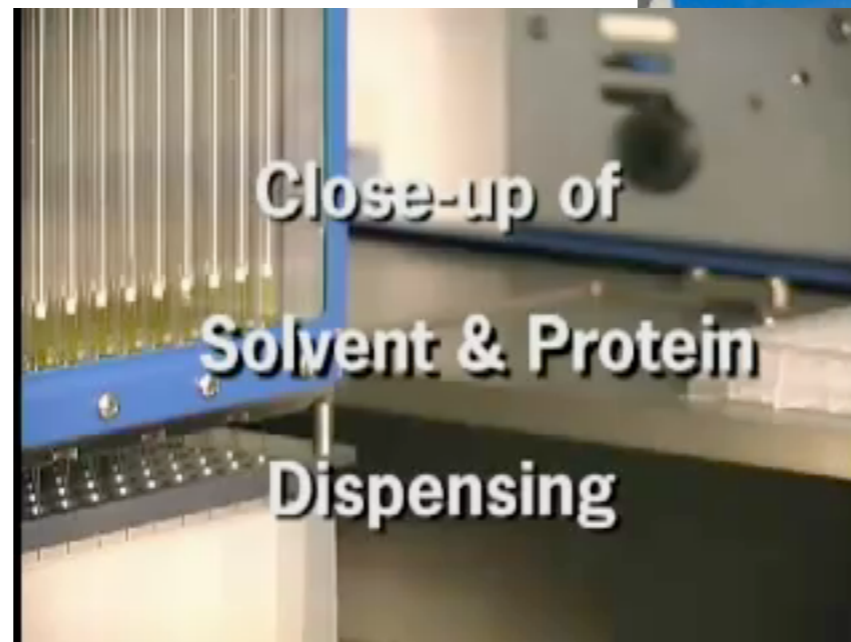


# Crystal Growth in Practice



**Figure 6.7** Vapor diffusion methods of crystallization. In the hanging drop method of vapor diffusion, a sample in solution is suspended above a reservoir,  $R$ , that contains a high concentration of a precipitant. The lower vapor pressure of the reservoir draws water from the sample solution,  $S$ , to reduce the volume of the sample,  $V_s$ , below its initial volume,  $V_o$ . Consequently, the concentration of molecules in the sample solution,  $[S]$ , increases to above the intrinsic solubility  $S^0$  of the molecule, resulting in precipitation or crystallization. In the sitting drop method, the sample solution sits in a well rather than hanging suspended, but otherwise the two methods are the same.

# Past and Present Technology



# Crystals in Space

- Crystal growth in a microgravity
- The microgravity causes a reduction in convection flow and a more uniform concentration within the drop
- First crystals grown in space were on the Columbia Space Shuttle in 1992
- Crystals grown in space can be 50% larger than those grown on Earth.
- DeLucs et al. *Science* Vol 246, 651-4

# Bravais Lattice

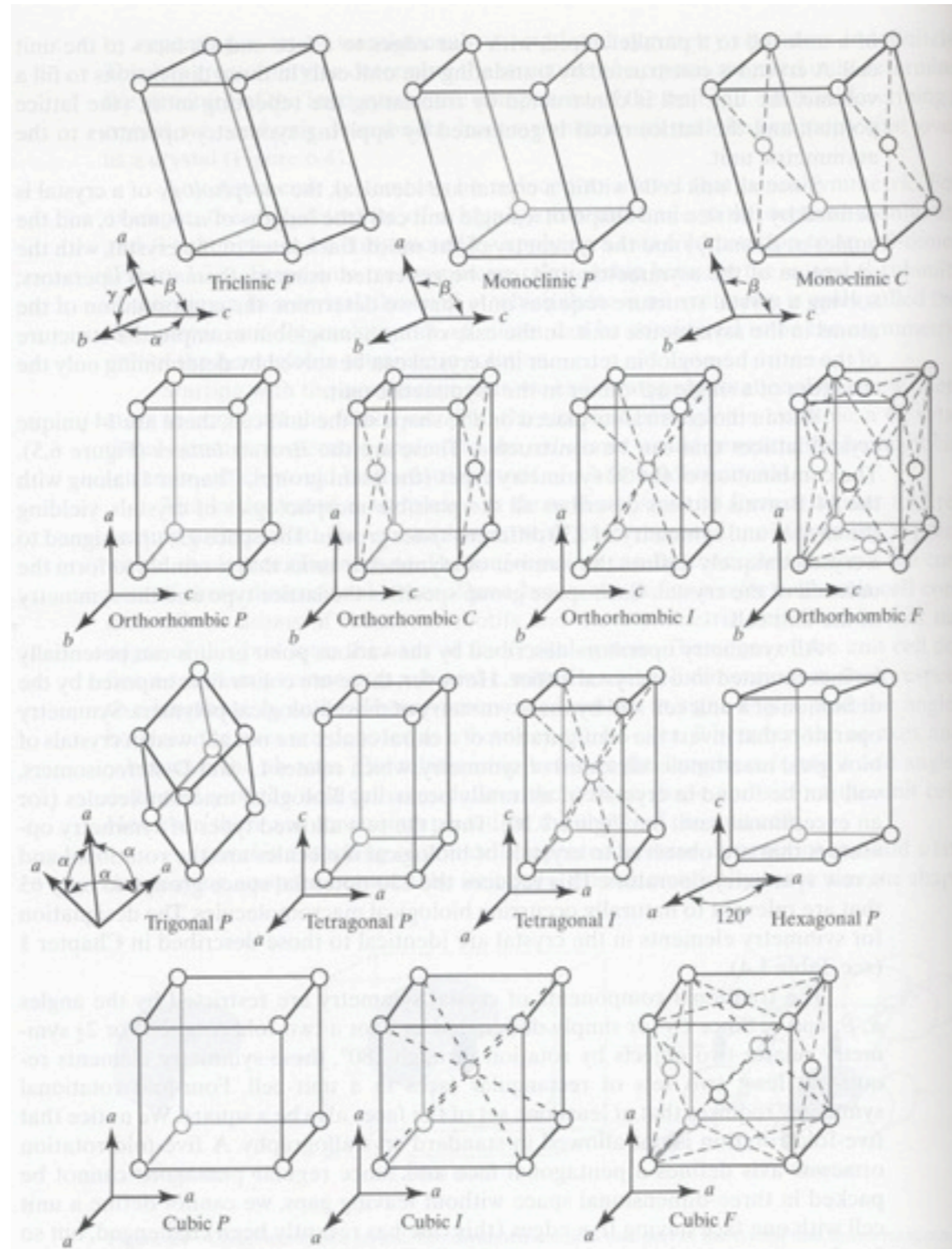


Figure 6.5 The 14 Bravais lattices in crystallography. [Adapted from G. H. Stout and L. H. Jensen (1989), *X-Ray Structure Determination, a Practical Guide*, 2nd ed., 50. John Wiley & Sons, New York.]

# Space Group

**Table 6.1** Sixty-Five Possible Space Groups in Macromolecular Crystals

Lattice Type	Possible Bravais Lattices	Crystal Shape	Possible Space Groups
Triclinic	<i>P</i>	$a \neq b \neq c$ $\alpha \neq \beta \neq \gamma \neq 90^\circ$	<i>P1</i>
Monoclinic	<i>P, C</i>	$a \neq b \neq c$ $\alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ, \beta \neq 90^\circ \text{ or } 120^\circ$	<i>P2, P2<sub>1</sub>, C2</i>
Orthorhombic	<i>P, C, I, F</i>	$a \neq b \neq c$ $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$	<i>P222, P2<sub>1</sub>2<sub>1</sub>2<sub>1</sub>, P2<sub>1</sub>2<sub>1</sub>2, P222<sub>1</sub>, C222, C222<sub>1</sub>, F222, I222, I2<sub>1</sub>2<sub>1</sub>2<sub>1</sub></i>
Tetragonal	<i>P, I</i>	$a = b \neq c$ $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$	<i>P4, P4<sub>1</sub>, P4<sub>2</sub>, P4<sub>3</sub>, I4, I4<sub>1</sub>, P422, P4<sub>2</sub>2<sub>1</sub>, P4<sub>1</sub>22, P4<sub>1</sub>2<sub>1</sub>2, P4<sub>2</sub>22, P4<sub>2</sub>2<sub>1</sub>2, P4<sub>3</sub>2<sub>1</sub>2, P4<sub>3</sub>22, I422, I4<sub>1</sub>22</i>
Trigonal	<i>P</i>	$a = b \neq c$ $\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ, \gamma = 120^\circ$	<i>P3, P3<sub>1</sub>, P3<sub>2</sub>, P321, P312, P3<sub>1</sub>12, P3<sub>1</sub>21, P3<sub>2</sub>12, P3<sub>2</sub>21, R3, R32</i>
	<i>R</i> (Rhombohedral)	$a = b = c$ $\alpha = \beta = \gamma < 120^\circ (\neq 90^\circ)$	
Hexagonal	<i>P</i>	$a = c \neq b$ $\alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ, \beta = 120^\circ$	<i>P6, P6<sub>1</sub>, P6<sub>2</sub>, P6<sub>3</sub>, P6<sub>4</sub>, P6<sub>5</sub>, P622, P6<sub>1</sub>22, P6<sub>3</sub>22, P6<sub>3</sub>22, P6<sub>4</sub>22, P6<sub>5</sub>22</i>
Cubic	<i>P, I, F</i>	$a = b = c$ $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$	<i>P432, P4<sub>1</sub>32, P4<sub>2</sub>32, P4<sub>3</sub>32, F432, F4<sub>1</sub>32, I432, I4<sub>1</sub>32</i>

# Two-Fold Axes of Rotation

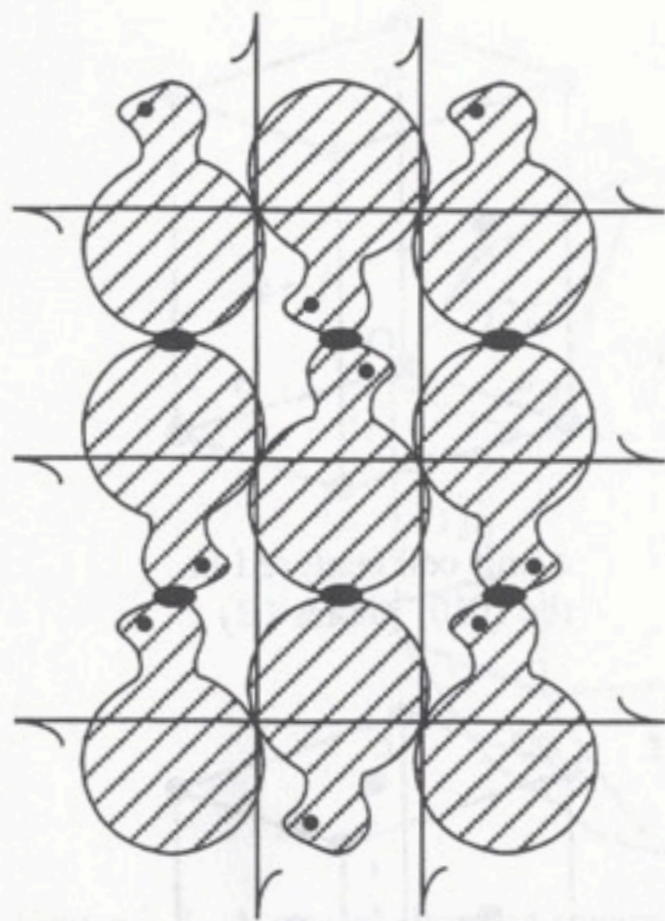


Figure 3.10. A two-dimensional lattice with 2-fold symmetry axes perpendicular to the plane of the figure and 2-fold screw axes in the plane.

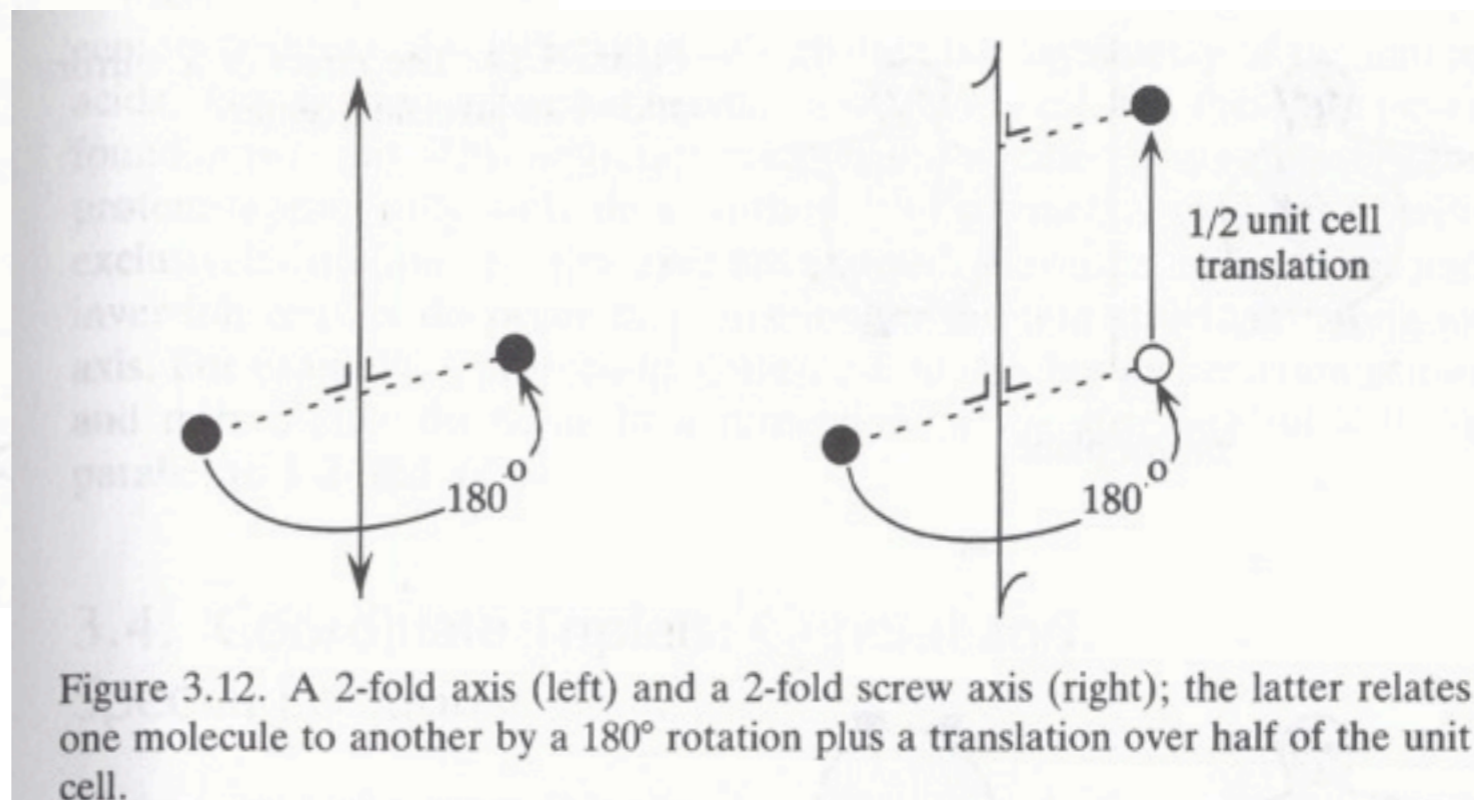


Figure 3.12. A 2-fold axis (left) and a 2-fold screw axis (right); the latter relates one molecule to another by a  $180^\circ$  rotation plus a translation over half of the unit cell.

# Three-Fold Axes of Rotation

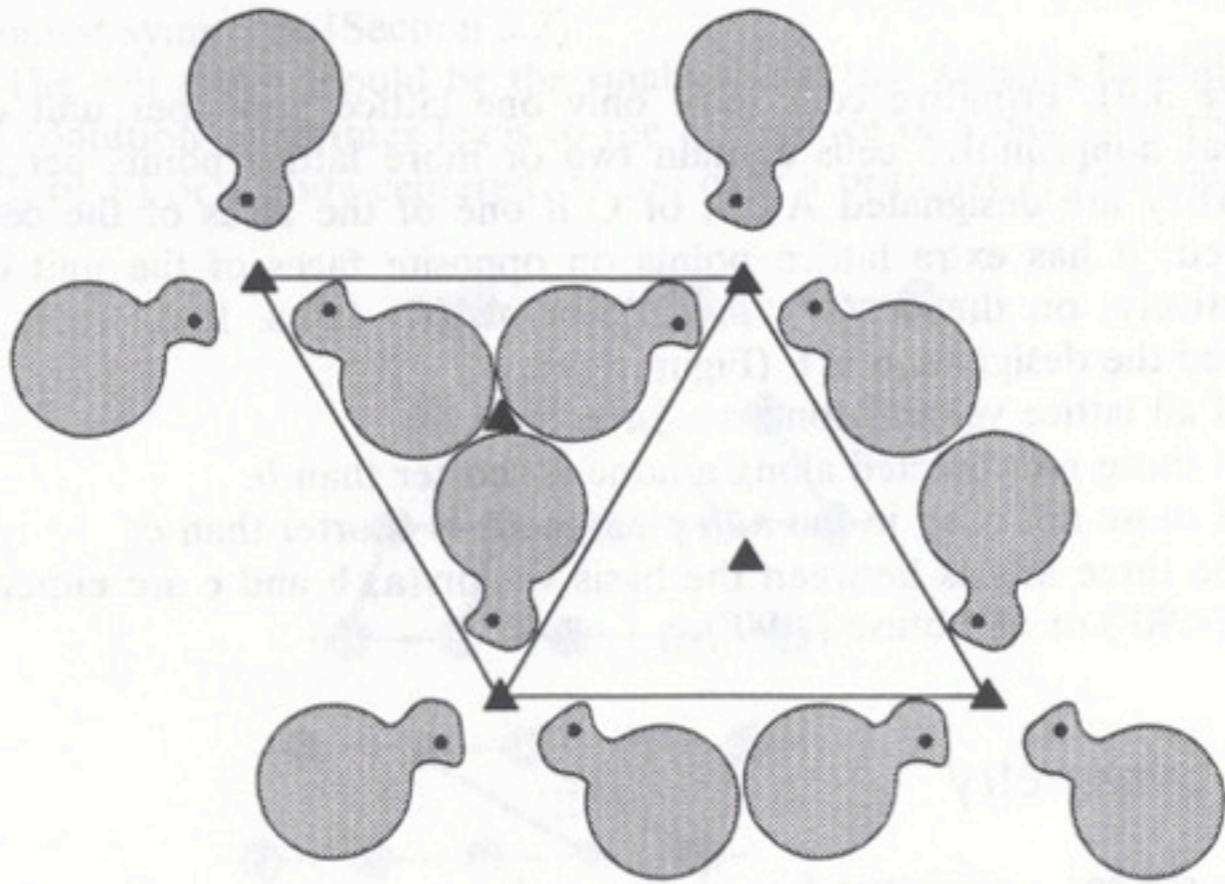


Figure 3.11. A two-dimensional lattice with 3-fold symmetry axes perpendicular to the plane of the figure.

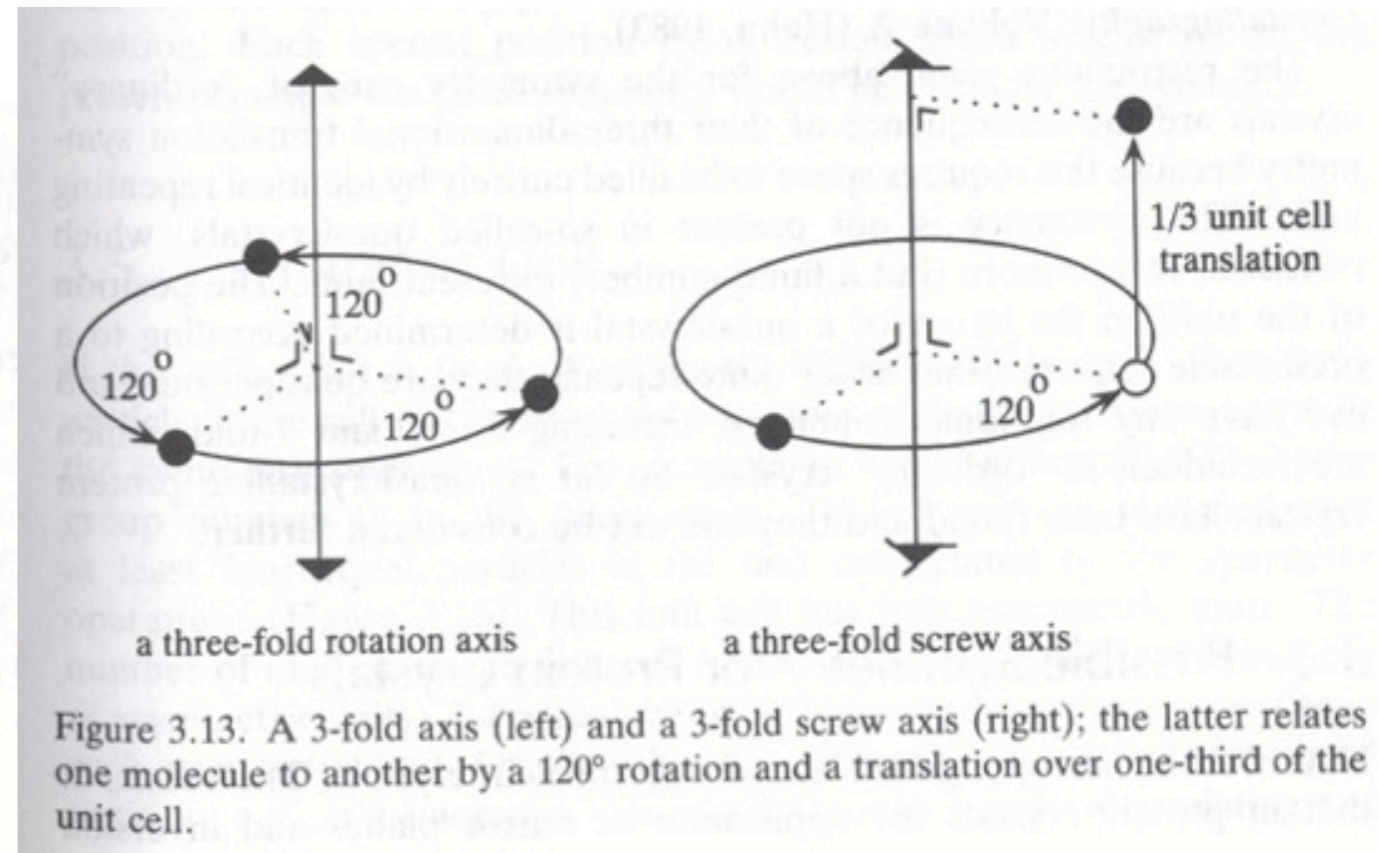
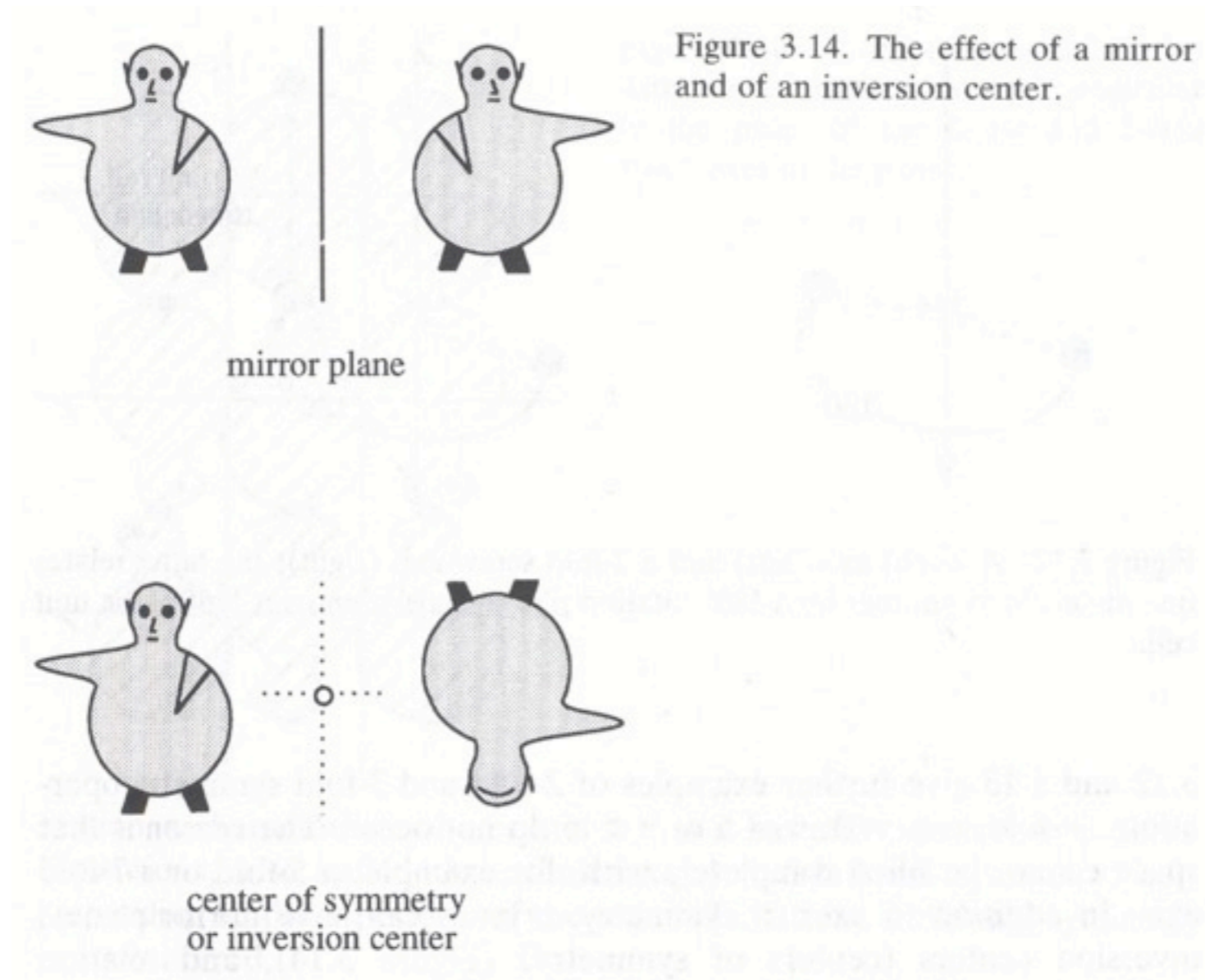


Figure 3.13. A 3-fold axis (left) and a 3-fold screw axis (right); the latter relates one molecule to another by a  $120^\circ$  rotation and a translation over one-third of the unit cell.

# Mirror Planes and Inversion Center





# Projections

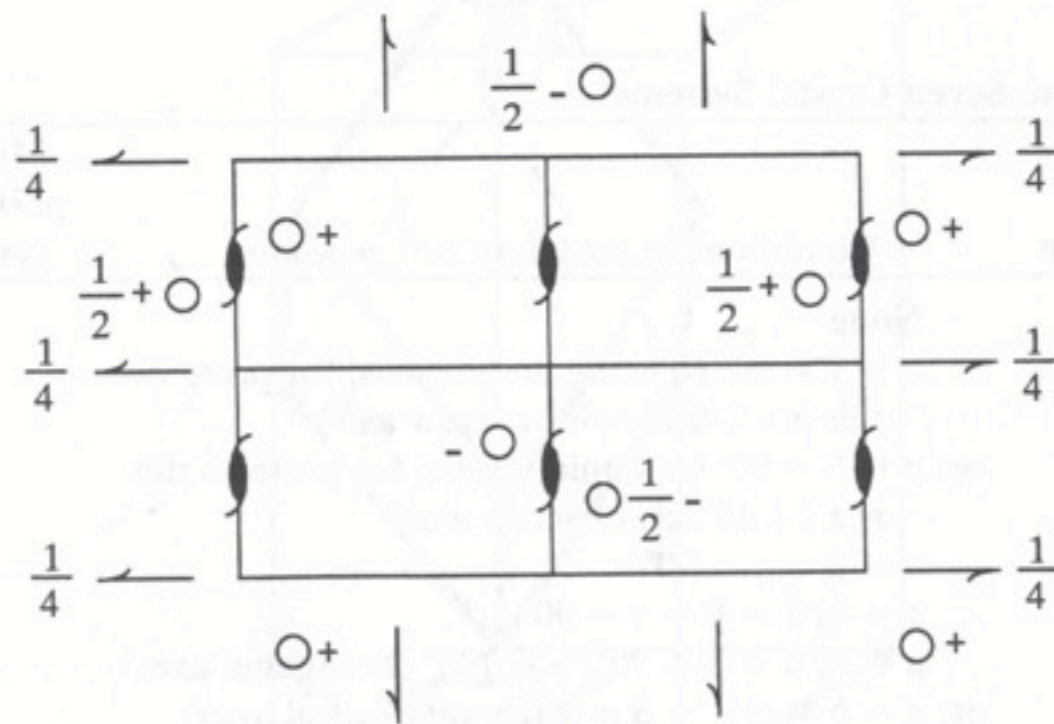


Figure 3.16. The projection of a  $P2_12_12_1$  unit cell; it contains four asymmetric units.