Grenoble | France





Principles of X-ray scattering by macromolécules

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How can we "see" macromolecules?



- Based on interaction between radiations and matter
- The wavelength of the radiation used should be suited to the size of the smallest details we want to observe:
 ▶ Resolution limit in diffraction experiments is λ/2
- Proteins and macromolecules assemblies are too small (1 to 50 nm, 10 to 500 Å) to be observed with visible light (300 nm < λ < 800 nm)
- To see atoms, a wavelength of about 1 Å is required



Three types of "radiation" commonly used



- X-rays
 - Electromagnetic waves / photons

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•Photon energy w = hc/\lambda = hv with h = 6.6257 10<sup>-34</sup> J.s (Plank constant)
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•7 keV < w < 17 keV or 1.7 Å > λ > 0.7 Å

Neutrons

 \blacktriangleright Neutral particle (m_n = 1.6749 10⁻²⁷ kg)

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•Energy w = 1/2m_nv^2, wavelength \lambda = h / m_nv
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• λ = 1.5 Å for v = 2600 m/s and w = 3.6 10⁻² eV

Electrons

- \blacktriangleright Negatively charged particle (q = 1.6 10⁻¹⁹ C, m_e = 9.1091 10⁻³¹ kg)
 - •Energy w = $1/2m_ev^2$, wavelength $\lambda = h / m_ev$
 - •λ = 1.2 Å for v = 6000 km/s and w = 100 eV

Here, we will focus only on X-rays!

X-rays interact with electrons in atoms



Elastic scattering (no loss of energy, wavelength is conserved)

➢ Rayleigh scattering: bound electron (photon energy << electron binding energy)</p>

Thomson scattering: free electrons (photon energy >> electron binding energy)

•Carbon atom E(1s) = -1013 eV, E(2s,2p) = -36 eV to be compared to 7 to 15 keV for X-ray photons

•Photon energy should differ from element absoption edges

 Inelastic scattering (loss of energy, scattered photon have a larger wavelength)

➢Compton scattering (a bound electron is ejected in the continuum)

➢Raman effect (a bound electron jump to a free state of the atom or molecule)

Ionisation

How a photon is scattered by an atom ?



- Classical model
 - > The photon is scattered by the electronic cloud of the atom
 - ➤The incident electromagnetic wave induce the oscillation of the electronic cloud

The negatively charged electronic cloud et the positively charged nucleus become an oscillating dipole, thus emitting a spherical electromagnetic wave of same wavelength and a phase difference of π .



Anomalous scattering



- Hypothesis of Thomson scattering:

 Free electrons (photon energy >> electron binding energy)

 Carbon atom E(1s) = -1013 eV, E(2s,2p) = -36 eV to be compared to 7 to 15 keV for X-ray photons
 Photon energy should differ from element absoption edges
- For some elements the energy required to exite a core electron (1S or 2S orbitals) is in the X-ray energy range







	absorption edges (keV/ Å)				
Element	Edges K	Edge L1	Edgel L2	Edge L3	Edgel M
С	0.28 / 44				
0	0.54 / 23				
Ν	0.40 / 31				
S	2.47 / 5	0.193	0.164	0.162	0.017
Se	12.66 / 0.98	1.653	1.477	1.436	0.232
Pt	78.39	13.89 / 0.89	13.27 / 0.93	11.56 / 1.07	3.29 / 3.77
W	69.52	12.09 / 1.02	11.54 / 1.07	10.20 / 1.21	2.82 / 4.89
Re	71.67	12.52 / 0.99	11.96 / 1.03	10.53 / 1.17	2.93 / 4.23
Тс	21.04	3.04 / 4.07	2.79 / 4.44	2.68 / 4.62	0.54
U	115.6	21.75	20.95	17.17 / 0.72	5.55 / 2.23

Atomic form factor at the edge



In the vicinity of the edge

➢ Resonance phenomena between the incident wave and the electrons of the atom

The phase difference between the incident and the scattered wave is no longer π : change in the phase.

The atomic form factor is then:

• $f_j(\lambda) = {}^0f_j + f_j'(\lambda) + i.f_j''(\lambda)$

•The $f_j''(\lambda)$ term introduce the change in phase: component with phase shift of $\pi/2$

•Calculed from the absoption or fluorescence spectra

• $f_i'(\lambda)$ is calculated by the Kramers-Kroning formula:

$$f'(E) = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{E' \cdot f''(E') \cdot dE'}{E^2 - E'^2}$$

E is the energy

•

Exemple of absorption spectra



 Different height of the edge



Scattering by one atom



The planar incident wave induces the emission of a spherical wave of same wavelength and with a π phase shift







Scattering by two atoms



The two atoms are emitting a spherical electromagnetic wave. If the two atoms are not mobile and close by, the two waves interfere







Scattering by numerous atoms



Représentation de Fresnel des ondes



- $E_0 \cos[\omega t \mathbf{q}_0 \cdot \mathbf{r}] \Leftrightarrow E_0 \exp[i(\omega t \mathbf{q}_0 \cdot \mathbf{r})]$
- $E_0 \cos[\omega t \mathbf{q}_0 \cdot \mathbf{r} + \phi] \Leftrightarrow E_0 \exp[i(\omega t \mathbf{q}_0 \cdot \mathbf{r} + \phi)]$
- $\Leftrightarrow E_0 \exp[i(\omega t \mathbf{q}_0 \cdot \mathbf{r})] \cdot \exp(i\phi)$



Représentation de Fresnel des ondes



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- $E_0 \cos[\omega t \mathbf{q}_0 \cdot \mathbf{r} + \phi] \Leftrightarrow E_0 \exp[i(\omega t \mathbf{q}_0 \cdot \mathbf{r} + \phi)]$
- $\Leftrightarrow E_0 \exp[i(\omega t \mathbf{q}_0 \cdot \mathbf{r})] \cdot \exp(i\phi)$



Scattered wave by an ensemble of atoms?



- Incident wave : $E_0 \exp[i(\omega t q_0.r)]$
- f_i is the scattering factor for the atom j at point J (defined by r_j)

The wave scattered by atom j at J, as observed in P (defined by s) is:

• $E_j(s) = E_0/r' f_j \exp[i(\omega t - q_0.r_j)].exp(-iq_1.(r-r_j)). exp(i\pi)$

 $= E_0/r' f_j \exp(i(\omega t - q_1.r)). \exp(2i\pi r_j.s).\exp(i\pi)$

 To calculate the wave scattered by the entire sample, we have to sum on all the atoms of the sample:

 $\geq E(\mathbf{s}) = \sum_{j} E_0 / \mathbf{r}' \mathbf{f}_j \exp(i(\omega t - \mathbf{q}_1 \cdot \mathbf{r})) \cdot \exp(2i\pi \mathbf{r}_j \cdot \mathbf{s}) \cdot \exp(i\pi)$

 $= E_0/r' \exp(i(\omega t - \mathbf{q}_1 \cdot \mathbf{r})) \exp(i\pi) \Sigma_j f_j \exp(2i\pi r_j \cdot \mathbf{s})$

>E(s) is proportional to the Fourier transform of the scattering factors of the atoms present in the sample

 For X-rays, this scattering factor is proportional to the electron density (number of electrons) of the atom

E(s) is proportional to the Fourier transform of the electron density

Structure factor



- $E(s) = E_0/r' \sigma \int_v \rho(r) \exp(2i\pi r.s) \partial r$
- Structure factor:

Direct Fourier transform of the electron density

 $F(s) = \int_{v} \rho(\mathbf{r}) \exp(2i\pi \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{s}) d\mathbf{r} = \Sigma_{j} f_{j} \exp(2i\pi \mathbf{r}_{j} \cdot \mathbf{s})$

Complex number (amplitude and phase)

Electron density

Indirect Fourier transform of the structure factors $\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \int_{V} F(\mathbf{s}) \exp(-2i\pi \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{s}) d\mathbf{s}$

- The detector measures the intensity of the scattered wave
- The intensity of the scattered wave is proportional to the square of the structure factor modulus
 >I(s) α F(s).F^{*}(s) = |F(s)|²

A few exemples ...

Diffusion spectra of one atom

Spherical electron density

≻
$$f_{at}(s) = 2 \int_{r=0,+\infty} \rho_{at}(r) r \sin(2\pi sr) / s ∂r$$

 $> f_{at}(0) =$ number of electrons in atom



f_{at}(s) is constant when atom is ponctual (neutron diffraction)
 f_{at}(s) is the atomic scattering factor



More atoms ...









Diffusion by five atoms







 Four atoms: effect of translation and rotation of the set of atoms



Diffusion spectra is rotated when the set of atoms are rotated



Structure factor of an assembly of atoms



- $f_i(s)$ is the scattering factor of the atom j
- The phase shift of the wave scattered by an atom in position r_j, in the direction defined by scattering vector s is (relatively to an atom at the origin):
 >2πr_is
- The structure for an assembly a N atoms is thus:
 F(s) = ∑_{j=1,N} f_j(s).exp(2iπr_js)
- f_j(s) are known and tabulated for each element
 Calculating the structure factor of an assembly of atoms is straightforward

A specific case of solid sample: the crystal



- The crystal is described by a lattice which characterize the three-dimensional periodicity
- The lattice is define by three vector, a, b, c, that define the unit cell
- The content of each unit cell is identical





This structure factor close to zero, except for specific values of s :
 ∑_{n=1,Ncell} exp(2iπ n₁a.s)exp(2iπ n₂b.s)exp(2iπ n₃c.s) ~ 0 except when
 >a.s = h, b.s = k, c.s = I where h, k, I are integers (Laue equations)
 > Diffraction spots instead of diffusion spectra
 ∑_{n=1,Ncell} exp(2iπ n₁a.s)exp(2iπ n₂b.s)exp(2iπ n₃c.s) = Ncell (number of cells in the crystal)

Structure factor of a crystal



- In directions that satisfy Laue equation, the structure factor is the one of the unit cell, multiplied by the number of cells in the crystal.
 F(s) = N_{cell} ∫_{vcell} ρ(r) exp(i 2π s.r) ∂r
- The intensity of each spots is proportional to the square of the number of cells.

 $\succ I(s) \alpha N_{cell}^2 (\int_{vcell} \rho(\mathbf{r}) \exp(i 2\pi s.\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r}) (\int_{vcell} \rho(\mathbf{r}) \exp(-i 2\pi s.\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r})$

- The bigger your crystal is, the higher is your signal
- The crystal is a signal amplifier!

Reciprocal lattice



If s satisfy the Laue equation:
 ➤a.s = h, b.s = k, c.s = I where h, k, I are integers

- Then s is a vector of a lattice named reciprocal lattice
 >s = h.a* + k.b* + l.c* where
 •a* = b ∧ c / V_{maille}, b* = c ∧ a / V_{maille}, c* = a ∧ b / V_{maille}
 •V_{maille} = (a ∧ b).c
 •Larger unit cell => smaller reciprocal cell => closer spots on diffraction spectra
- A reciprocal lattice is associated to each real space lattice (defined by the unit cell vectors)
- Each diffraction spots correspond to vectors in the reciprocal space

>s = h.a^{*} + k.b^{*} + l.c^{*} where h, k, l are integers



Zeme Ecole KeivaFobis, 5 - 12 Juin 2015, Oleron, D. Housset

Ewald sphere and data collection





A real data collection (medium resolution)





What does the diffraction tell us ?



- The position of spots on diffraction images will allow the determination of the unit cell dimension and the orientation of the crystal
- The intensity of each spot contains information on the electron density of the entire cell

 $\succ I(s) = F(s).F^*(s)$

 $\succ = (\int_{vcell} \rho(\mathbf{r}) \exp(i 2\pi \mathbf{s}.\mathbf{r}) \, d\mathbf{r}) (\int_{vcell} \rho(\mathbf{r}) \exp(-i 2\pi \mathbf{s}.\mathbf{r}) \, d\mathbf{r})$



Rap1 diffraction image Courtesy of Dr. Marie-Hélène Le Du

2ème Ecole RéNaFoBiS, 5 - 12 juin 2015, Oleron, D. Housset

ibs

Resolution

- In crystallography
 >d = 1 / |s| in Å
- Directly related with the distance from the center (direct beam position) of the diffraction image:

➢If D (|OO'|) is the crystal - detector distance, O' the center of diffraction image, P the position of diffracted beam on the detector.

$$P |O'P| = D \sin 2\theta$$

$$> 1 / d = |\mathbf{s}| = 2 \sin\theta / \lambda$$

➤The further from the center, the larger s modulus, the lower value of d (higher resolution) in Å

Maximum resolution in diffraction experiments

 $\geq 2\theta = 180^\circ \Rightarrow \theta = 90^\circ \Rightarrow d = \lambda / 2$

Details that can be seen (separated)

➤d/v2 in crystallography. What about SAXS ?

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Calculating the electron density ?





Simple in principle

➤The electron density within the unit cell can be derived from the structure factors :

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•\rho(\mathbf{r}) = 1/V_{\text{maille}} \Sigma_{s} F(\mathbf{s}) \exp(-i 2\pi \mathbf{s}.\mathbf{r})
•But ...
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Calculating the electron density



We do not measure F(s) but only an intensity I(s) which is proportional to the square of F(s) modulus: the phase of the scattered wave is lost

 $\succ F(s) = |F(s)| \exp(i\varphi(s))$

>I(s) = |F(s)|²

➢Intensity measurements do not allow the calculation of the electron density for maromolecules

 Methods have been developed to provided a reasonable estimate of the phases φ(s) and allow the calculation of ρ(r) => Patrice's Talk

Most of the structural information is in the phases





Patterson function



The Patterson function can be calculated without phase information

 $P(\mathbf{u}) = 1/V \sum_{s} F(s) F^{*}(s) \exp(-2i\pi \mathbf{u} \cdot s)$

> = $1/V \sum_{s} |F(s)|^2 \exp(-2i\pi u .s)$

➢ It is the reverse Fourier tranform of the squared amplitude of structure factors

It represents the autocorrelation function of the electron density:

 $P(\mathbf{u}) = \int_{\mathbf{v}} \rho(\mathbf{r}) \cdot \rho(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{r}$

> P(u) has a local maximum when u is an interatomic vector

- Can be used to solved structures when the number of atoms is small (less than 50) : not suitable for proteins
- Very useful for phasing (MR, Heavy atom derivatives, anomalous signal)

What about macromolecules in solution ?



Macromolecules move due to thermal motion
 Each macromolecules adopts all orientations during the measurements

•Spherical averaging

- The distance between scatterers is not fixed
 - ➤The distance between two equivalent atoms in two distant molecules vary during the measurement
 - •=> incoherent scattering
 - •=> no interference (≠ diffraction by a crystal)
 - •=> Intensities scattered by each molecules adds up
- Scattering of the solvent is substracted

 \succ I_{macromolecule}(**q**) = I_{sample}(**q**) - I_{buffer}(**q**)

 Provide information on electron density difference between the sample and the buffer, Δp(r)



- The scattering spectra has a radial symmetry
- One dimensional data due to the spherical averaging



- I(q) = <TF (Δρ(r)) . TF (Δρ(-r))>
- $I(q) = \langle TF(\int_{Vparticle} \Delta \rho(\mathbf{r+u}), \Delta \rho(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}) \rangle$
- $I(q) = 4\pi \int_{0,inf} p(r) .sin(qr)/qr dr$

▶p(r) is the distribution of distances between all pairs of points within the particle weighted by the respective electron densities

- $p(r) = r/2\pi \int I(q).q.sin(qr) dq$
- Some structural characteristics of the macromolecule can be derived from p(r).

Comparison of diffraction and SAXS spectra



