



# Synchrotron Radiation and Biocrystallography





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### **Biocrystallography**

X-ray crystallography is the science of determining the arrangement of atoms within a crystal from the manner in which X-rays are deflected by the crystal

### Aim:

3D structure determination of biological macromolecules at atomic resolution (x, y, z positions for each atom of the macromolecule), but ...

Strictly speaking, X-ray crystallography measures only the <u>density of</u> <u>electrons</u> within the crystal, from which the atomic positions can be inferred





### **Protein 3D structure**







### **Biocrystallography**

**Object:** <u>real system</u> (not a model system)

proteins, DNA, RNA, and their complexes (virus, ribosome,...)

- the specimen should not be damaged during the experiment (the sample is X-ray sensitive)
- the smallest proteins have well <u>over 1000 atoms</u> and the largest proteins may have <u>between 10000 and 100000 atoms</u>

Ribosome: 19198 protein atoms di proteina, 32470 RNA atoms (>50000 atoms)



Prokaryotes



### **DNA, RNA & Proteins**

### Eukaryotes







### The structure of the Ribosome



"for studies of the structure and function of the ribosome"



Photo: MRC Laboratory of Molecular Biology

Venkatraman Ramakrishnan



Credits: Michael Marsland/Yale University

Thomas A. Steitz



Credits: Micheline Pelletier/Corbis

Ada E. Yonath







### **Examples of protein targets:**

- **Catalytic reactions:** <u>enzymes</u> that catalyze (i.e. accelerate) biochemical reactions, and are vital for metabolism
- Structural or mechanical functions: <u>actin</u> and <u>myosin</u> in muscle, <u>collagen</u> in skin and bones, <u>keratin</u> in hair, <u>fibrin</u> in silk
- **Transcription factors:** protein/DNA interaction
- Immune responses: <u>antibodies</u> used to identify and neutralize foreign objects, such as bacteria and viruses. Search for antigens.
- Cell signaling: <u>receptors</u>
- Molecular transport: carriers for small molecules and/or ions (<u>hemoglobin</u>)
- Membrane channelling: <u>membrane proteins</u> control the flow of small molecule (i.e. ions) through cell membranes and organelles





### **Application of Biocrystallography**

3D structures of macromolecules allow us to understand **biological processes and interactions** at atomic resolution (i.e. how a particular macromolecule accomplishes its various functions)

- macromolecule to macromolecule interactions
- macromolecule to small molecules (substrates, cofactors, inhibitors, ions ...) interactions
- structural-functional studies on enzymes
- <u>rational drug design</u> (how drug lead compounds interact with their protein targets)
- biotechnological applications







DBS/

## Application of Biocrystallography @ UNIMI

- Molecular bases of protein mis-folding disease: engineering and biophysics of pathogenic proteins involved in degenerative diseases
- Transcription factors in chromatin regulation and dynamics:

structural principles and protein/DNA complexes

- **Drug design/discovery (antivirals):** targeting flavivirus replication machinery
- Structural vaccinology:

designing epitopes based on 3D structure of antigens from bacterial pathogens











### **Application of Biocrystallography**

# Good news !!!!



• No limitation in Mw of the sample

(instead NMR < 30 kDa, cryoEM > 200 kDa)

# Bad news iiii

• good diffracting **crystals** are needed







### **Past**, present and future

The first solved protein crystal structure was Sperm Whale myoglobin (1958)



<u>Max Perutz</u> and Sir <u>John Cowdery Kendrew</u>, awarded the Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 1962 for their structural studies on globular proteins (hemoglobin and myoglobin, respectively)





### **Past**, present and future



FRANKLIN

helical nature of the DNA structure

helical structure

3.4 Å repetition (between bases)



X-ray diffraction image ( $n^{\circ}51$ ) from DNA fibers (1953)





### Past, present and future

Biocrystallography is, to date, the most prolific discipline within the area of structural biology

### PDB Current Holdings Breakdown

Exp.Method	Proteins	Nucleic Acids	Protein/NA Complexes	Other	Total
X-RAY	111813	1878	5711	4	119406
NMR	10488	1223	245	8	11964
ELECTRON MICROSCOPY	1235	30	432	0	1697
HYBRID	102	3	2	1	108
other	199	4	6	13	222
Total	123837	3138	6396	26	133397

(Click on any number to retrieve the results from that category.)
109195 structures in the PDB have a structure factor file.
9304 structures in the PDB have an NMR restraint file.
3056 structures in the PDB have a chemical shifts file.
1700 structures in the PDB have a 3DEM map file.



out of the **133397** 3D structures solved, X-ray crystallography is responsible for **119406** (<u>89.5%</u>)





### **Past, present and future**







### **Protein structure**

A protein forms via the **condensation of amino acids** to form a chain of amino acid "residues" linked by peptide bonds.







### **Protein structure**



MPRPLVALLDGRD · · · · · ETVEMPILKDVR





### Why X-rays ?

The wavelength of a X-rays is roughly 1 Å, which is on the scale of a single atom, and it allows to have **sufficient resolution to determine the atomic positions** 



### Why crystals ?

X-ray crystallography requires a crystal to amplify the signal (10<sup>15</sup>-10<sup>16</sup> identical molecules); the periodicity of the electron density is used to diffract the X-rays with manageable measurement error







### **Crystallographic experiment**







### **Protein Crystal**



- volume  $\leq 0.1 \text{ mm}^3$
- crystal lattice periodicity > 100 Å
- solvent content 30% 80% v/v
- mechanic fragility (E<sub>stab.</sub>< 10 kcal/mol)
- non-covalent interactions (surface a.a. residues)











# FIRST BIG PROBLEM !!



# How to crystallize a protein (the "bottleneck" of the procedure...)





### **Crystallization**

• protein crystallization is mainly <u>a trial-and-error procedure</u> in which the <u>protein is slowly precipitated</u> from its solution (to avoid formation of useless dust or amorphous gel)

 crystal growth in solution is a multiparameter process involving three basic steps: <u>nucleation</u> (possibly having only 100 molecules), <u>growth</u>, and <u>cessation of growth</u>

• it is extremely difficult to predict good conditions for nucleation or growth of well-ordered crystals. In practice, favorable conditions are identified by screening (hundreds, even thousands, of solution conditions are generally tried)

• large amounts (<u>milligrams</u>) of highly pure protein are required (due to high concentration of the molecule(s) to be crystallized)





### **Crystallization**





### Physical-chemical parameters

- ionic strength
- buffer, pH
- temperature
- precipitant & protein concentrations
- dielectric constant of the solvent





### **Crystallization (real life)**







### **Final optimized results**



### **Initial crystallization screening results**



Clear Drop



Precipitate/Phase



Needle Cluster



Skin/Precipitate





Quasi Crystals



Plates



Rod Cluster



Precipitate



Microcrystals





### **Crystallographer's fortune cookie (1)**

Set up trials

...just remember:

A watched crystal never grows









### **Crystallographer's fortune cookie (2)**

*If you see a crystal:* 





don't go running down the corridor screaming "URRA!!!" until...







you know your crystal isn't salt...

and that it diffracts





### **Data collection**





 $2d_{hkl} \sin\theta = n\lambda$  (Bragg's equation)





### **Data collection**

						high resolution
h	k	1	I	σ	٦ /	
0	0	18	5377.7	426.7		
0	0	30	87315.1	7080.9		
0	0	39	79150.9	5678.3		
0	0	42	88255.3	6544.6		
0	0	45	14582.6	1511.1		low resolution
0	0	48	8125.2	596.7		
0	0	51	46929.6	3740.0		
0  etc	0	54	79917.3	8107.1		





### Why Synchrotron radiation ?

Advantages over laboratory based X-ray sources:



- intensity typically >10,000 times that emitted by rotating anodes
- plane polarized X-rays, with emission concentrated in a small forward pointing (flattened cone emission instead of rotating anode spherically emission)
- X-rays selected out of a relatively <u>wide range of wavelengths</u> to optimise the experiment around the sample properties (i.e. I tuned to exploit the <u>absorption properties</u> of heavier chemical elements naturally present or added to the crystal).
- <u>cryo-cooling</u> of the sample is required







The energy range of X-rays used for diffraction (6 - 15 keV) is a severely ionizing radiation

 $\Rightarrow$  formation of reactive <u>radicals</u> in the sample, which rapidly destroy any protein crystal, particularly at dose rates experienced at synchrotrons









Radiation damage Warning

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 $\Rightarrow$  formation of reactive <u>radicals</u> in the sample, which rapidly destroy any protein crystal, particularly at dose rates experienced at synchrotrons

### Symptoms:

- increase in unit cell parameters
- decrease of intensity and resolution
- non isomorphism within a data series
- site-specific damages (disulphide bond breakage, decarboxylation of acidic residues, reduction of metal centers, ...)







### **Cryo-crystallography at the synchrotron**

- an efficient way to suppress radiation damage by slowing down the kinetics of the radical reactions is <u>cryogenic cooling</u>
- ⇒ flash-cooling crystals to liquid nitrogen temperatures, either in cold nitrogen gas streams or directly into liquid nitrogen
- to prevent the formation of crystalline ice during flash-cooling of the crystals, <u>cryoprotectants</u> are necessary
- $\Rightarrow$  ethylene glycol (the anti-freeze in automobile radiators), glycerol, higher alcohols, ... etc

#### A note on nomenclature:

in our cooling experiments we want to avoid the formation of an ice phase, so we <u>cool</u> our crystals, we do <u>not freeze</u> them





### Cryo-crystallography at the synchrotron

### **Cryo-mounting:**

the crystal is removed from the crystallization drop using cryo-loops and briefly dipped into a cryoprotectant before being immersed into liquid nitrogen









### **Cryo-crystallography at the synchrotron**

### Sample changer







## Cryo-crystallography at the synchrotron

### **Crystal mounting**






#### **Experimental setup at synchrotron**

#### ESRF ID14-2







X-rays

#### **Experimental setup at synchrotron**

#### ESRF ID23-1







# SECOND BIG PROBLEM !! Phasing







#### The "phase problem"







#### The "phase problem"







# The "phase problem"

in X-ray crystallography, there are several ways to recover the lost phases:

- Molecular Replacement (<u>MR</u>) method (synchrotron radiation not required)
- Heavy atom method
  - Multiple Isomorphous Replacement (<u>MIR</u>) (synchrotron radiation not required)
  - Single (or Multiple) Isomorphous Replacement with anomalous scattering (<u>SIRAS</u> or <u>MIRAS</u>) (synchrotron radiation required)
  - Multiple wavelength Anomalous Diffraction (<u>MAD</u>) (synchrotron radiation required)







Synchrotron





#### **Molecular Replacement method**

• a **good model** for the protein of unknown structure is needed



 $\geq$  30% sequence identity **m** good 3D structure homology





#### **Molecular Replacement method**

• the "calculated" phases can be obtained by simulating the molecule's packing in the crystal (using the model protein)







#### Heavy atom method



- isomorphism between native and derivative crystals is required
- comparison of the diffraction pattern of the two crystals

identification of the heavy atom positions within the unit cell

calculation of approximate initial phases α<sub>P</sub> (for every hkl)





#### Heavy atom method: MIR







heavy atom positions from Patterson synthesis  $\Rightarrow |\textbf{F}_{H}|$  and  $\alpha_{H}$ 

N heavy atoms

$$\mathbf{F}_{H} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{f}_{j} \exp \left[2\pi i \left(h\mathbf{x}_{j} + k\mathbf{y}_{j} + l\mathbf{z}_{j}\right)\right] =$$
$$= \left|\mathbf{F}_{H}\right| \exp \left(i\alpha_{H}\right) \quad \text{for every } hkl$$





#### Heavy atom method: MIR











#### Heavy atom method: MIR







#### Heavy atom method: MIR









native crystal

derivative derivative crystal 1 crystal 2 heavy atom position from Patterson synthesis  $\Rightarrow$  |**F**<sub>H1</sub>| and  $\alpha_{H1}$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  |**F**<sub>H2</sub>| and  $\alpha_{H2}$ 





#### Heavy atom method: MIR







### Heavy atom method: MIR

#### real case:

- experimental errors in  $|\textbf{F}_{\mathsf{PH}}|$  and  $|\textbf{F}_{\mathsf{P}}|$
- poor isomorphism between native and derivative crystals
- errors in heavy atom localization (Patterson "noise", FH)



 $\begin{array}{l} m = "figure \ of \ merit" \\ 0 \leq m \leq 1 \end{array}$ 

$$\rho(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y},\mathbf{z}) = 1/V \sum_{hkl} m_{hkl} |\mathbf{F}_{hkl}| \exp \left[i\alpha(\text{best})_{hkl}\right] \exp \left[-2\pi i(h\mathbf{x}+k\mathbf{y}+l\mathbf{z})\right]$$





#### **Anomalous scattering**



• in this technique, atoms' inner electrons absorb X-rays of particular wavelengths, and reemit the X-rays after a delay, inducing a <u>phase shift</u> in all of the reflections, known as the <u>anomalous dispersion effect</u>







#### **Anomalous scattering**

$$f_{\text{anomalous}}(\theta,\lambda) = f^{0}(\theta) + f'(\lambda) + i f''(\lambda)$$

$$f'(\mathsf{E}) = \frac{\mathsf{mc}}{4\pi \mathrm{e}^2 \hbar} \mathsf{E} \,\mu_{\mathsf{a}}(\mathsf{E})$$

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



#### The Friedel's law

$$\mathbf{I}_{hkl}=\mathbf{I}_{\text{-h-k-l}}$$
 ,  $|\mathbf{F}_{hkl}|=|\mathbf{F}_{\text{-h-k-l}}|$  and  $\alpha_{hkl}=-\alpha_{\text{-h-k-l}}$ 







#### **Anomalous scattering**

$$f_{\text{anomalous}}(\theta,\lambda) = f^{0}(\theta) + f'(\lambda) + i f''(\lambda)$$

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#### The Friedel's law

$$\mathbf{I}_{hkl}$$
 =  $\mathbf{I}_{\text{-h-k-l}}$  ,  $|\mathbf{F}_{hkl}|$  =  $|\mathbf{F}_{\text{-h-k-l}}|$  and  $\alpha_{hkl}$  = - $\alpha_{\text{-h-k-l}}$ 







#### **Anomalous scattering**



 $|F_{PH+}| \neq |F_{PH-}|$  and  $\alpha_{PH+} \neq -\alpha_{PH-}$ 

F real contribution from anomalous scattering atoms

**f**"(+) and **f**"(-) imaginary contribution from anomalous scattering atoms





#### Heavy atom method with anomalous scattering: SIRAS



( $\lambda \cong$  absorption edge of the heavy atom)









### Heavy atom method with anomalous scattering: SIRAS



( $\lambda \cong$  absorption edge of the heavy atom)



crystal



crystal 1







#### Heavy atom method with anomalous scattering: SIRAS





native crystal



derivative crystal 1







### Heavy atom method with anomalous scattering: MAD

 $f_{\text{anomalous}}(\theta,\lambda) = f^{0}(\theta) + f'(\lambda) + i f''(\lambda)$ 

- $\lambda$ 1) *f* " has its maximum (maximum of difference between Bijvoet pairs)
- λ2) f' has its minimum(maximum of dispersive difference)

$$\Delta \mathsf{F}_{\Delta\lambda}(hkl) = |\mathbf{F}^{\lambda 2}(hkl)| - |\mathbf{F}^{\lambda 3}(hkl)|$$

where 
$$\overline{|\mathbf{F}^{\lambda}(hkl)|} = \frac{|\mathbf{F}^{\lambda}(hkl)|+|\mathbf{F}^{\lambda}(-h-k-l)|}{2}$$

 $\lambda$ 3) "*remote*", where *f* ' e *f* " are small (almost no anomalous scattering) (>1000 eV from  $\lambda$ 1)







#### Heavy atom method with anomalous scattering: MAD









#### Heavy atom method with anomalous scattering: MAD

- presence of heavy atoms with strong anomalous signal (soaking or co-crystallizzation, <u>"natural" incorporation</u>)
- only <u>one crystal</u> is required
- 3 data sets at 3 different wavelengths
- cryogenic conditions
- tunable radiation
- wavelengths are <u>carefully chosen</u> to optimize the difference in intensity of Bijvoet pairs and between the diffraction at selected wavelengths











## The importance of the resolution

$$\rho(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y},\mathbf{z}) = \frac{1}{V} \sum_{hkl} |\mathbf{F}_{hkl}| \exp\left[-2\pi i(h\mathbf{x}+k\mathbf{y}+l\mathbf{z}-\alpha'_{hkl})\right]$$





 $d_{hkl}^{min}$  = resolution of the diffraction data

high resolution ( $d_{hkl}^{min}$  small)  $\Rightarrow$  high hkl  $\Rightarrow$  high frequences in the Fourier synthesis  $\Rightarrow$  well interpretable electron density map









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XIV School on Synchrotron Radiation: Fundamentals, Methods and Applications Muggia, Italy / 18-29 September 2017



# Protein Data Bank file.pdb

ATOM ATOM ATOM	11 12 13	CG2 C O	THR THR THR	2 2 2	32.020 28.542 27.815	-1.403 -3.116 -2.341	33.566 33.777 33.141	1.00 38.83 1.00 38.40 1.00 38.79	6 6 8
• • •									
-	2166	-		401	20.048	3.400	49.038	1.00 31.45	8
	2167 2168	НОН НОН		402 403	-9.403 3.928	0.553 -6.370	32.633 32.724	1.00 44.09 1.00 21.48	8
END	2100	поп	VV AT	JUJ	3.920	€.370 ↑	52.724	1.00 Z1.48 ↑ ↑	0





# Protein Data Bank file.pdb



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. .   ATOM 2166 HOH WAT 401 20.048 3.400 49.038 1.00 31.45 8   ATOM 2167 HOH WAT 402 -9.403 0.553 32.633 1.00 44.09 8   ATOM 2168 HOH WAT 403 3.928 -6.370 32.724 1.00 21.48 8   END Image: mail of the state of the		ATOM	13	0	THR	2	27.815	-2.341	33.141	1.00 38.79	8	
ATOM 2167 HOH WAT 402 -9.403 0.553 32.633 1.00 44.09 8 ligand ATOM 2168 HOH WAT 403 3.928 -6.370 32.724 1.00 21.48 8 END		•										
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ATOM 2167 HOH WAT 402 -9.403 0.553 32.633 1.00 44.09 8 ligand ATOM 2168 HOH WAT 403 3.928 -6.370 32.724 1.00 21.48 8 END		•										
ATOM 2168 HOH WAT 403 3.928 -6.370 32.724 1.00 21.48 8 END		ATOM	2166	HOH	WAT	401	20.048	3.400	49.038	1.00 31.45		
END A A A		ATOM	2167	HOH	WAT	402	-9.403	0.553	32.633	1.00 44.09	8 ligands	
		ATOM	2168	НОН	WAT	403	3.928	-6.370	32.724	1.00 21.48	8	
x v z occ B-factors		END					<b>↑</b>	<b>↑</b>		<b>↑ ↑</b>		
x v z occ B-factors	L											
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unit cell





## Example: X-ray structure of Protoglobin at 1.3 Å resolution



Nardini et al., EMBO Rep. 9, 157-163 (2008)





# Example: X-ray structure of NF-Y/DNA at 3.1 Å resolution



Nardini et al., Cell 152, 132-143 (2013)