

# “Seeing” Biological Polymers with X-Rays in Solution

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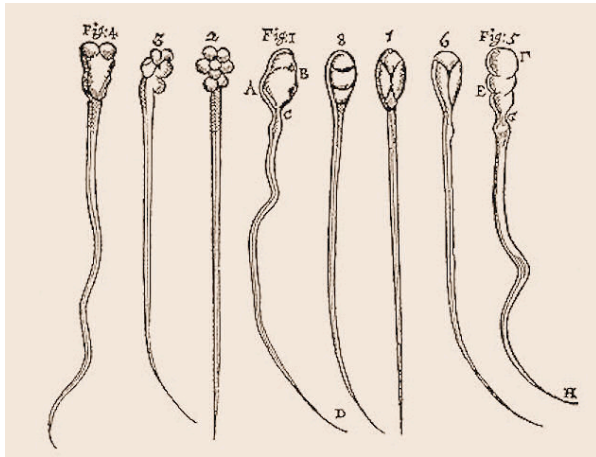
# How can we “see” biological polymers?

## (ATOMIC or NEAR-ATOMIC) STRUCTURE DETERMINATION TECHNIQUES

- X-ray, neutron and electron crystallography
- Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR)
- Cryo-electron microscopy (EM)
- Small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS)

# Why Is It Important to See Biological Assemblies and Polymers?

## Structure Dictates Function



<http://www.brianjford.com/wav-spf.htm>

Antony van Leeuwenhoek, 1678

1674 The Infusoria - (Protist class in modern Zoology)

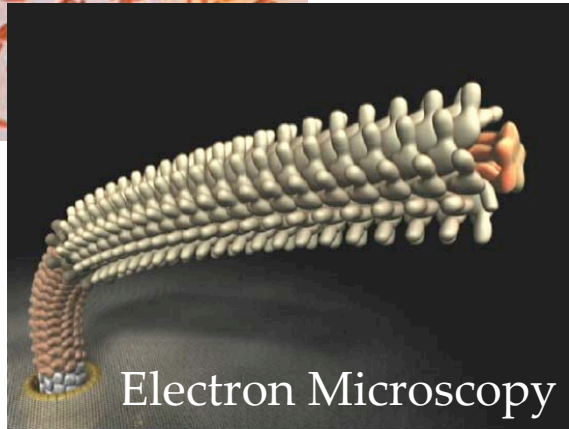
1676 The Bacteria (Genus Selenomonas - crescent shaped bacteria from human mouth)

1677 The Spermatozoa

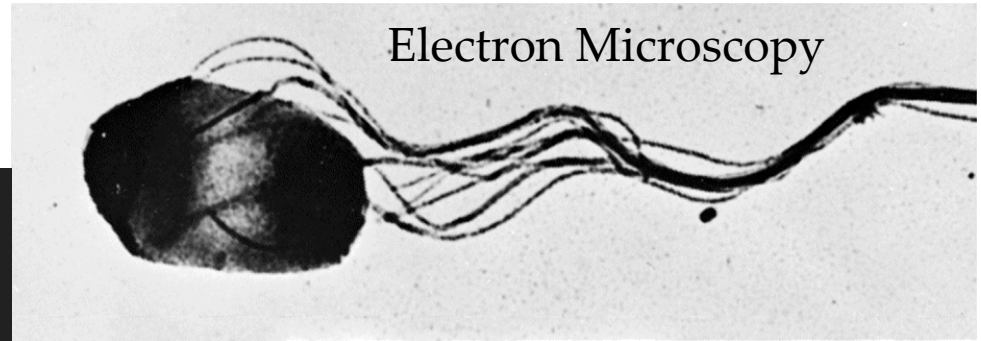
1682 The banded pattern of muscular fibers

# Structure Dictates Function: Bacterial

## Flagella

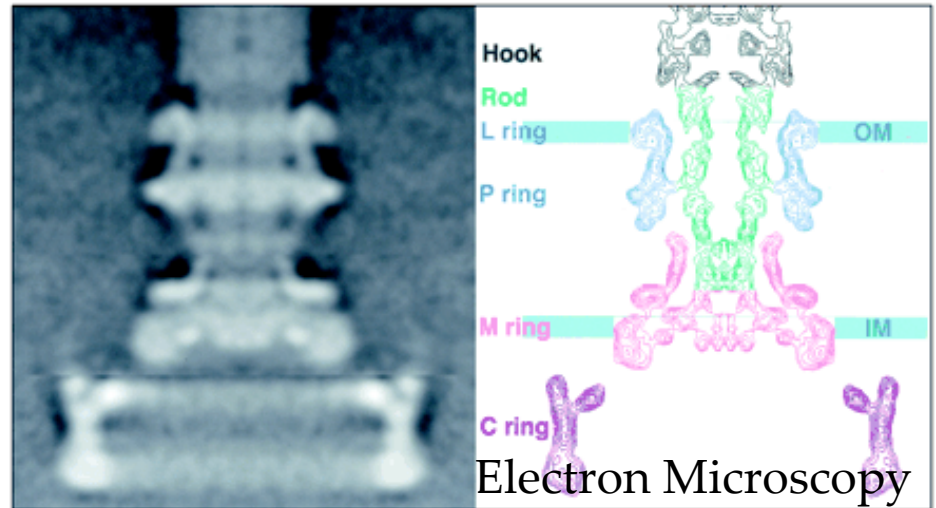
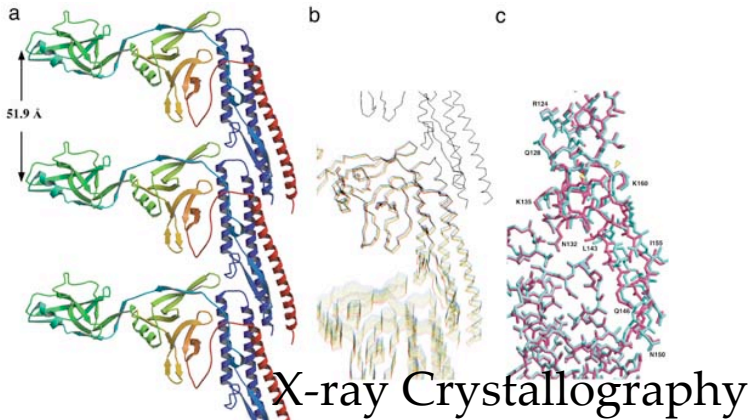


Electron Microscopy



1  $\mu\text{m}$

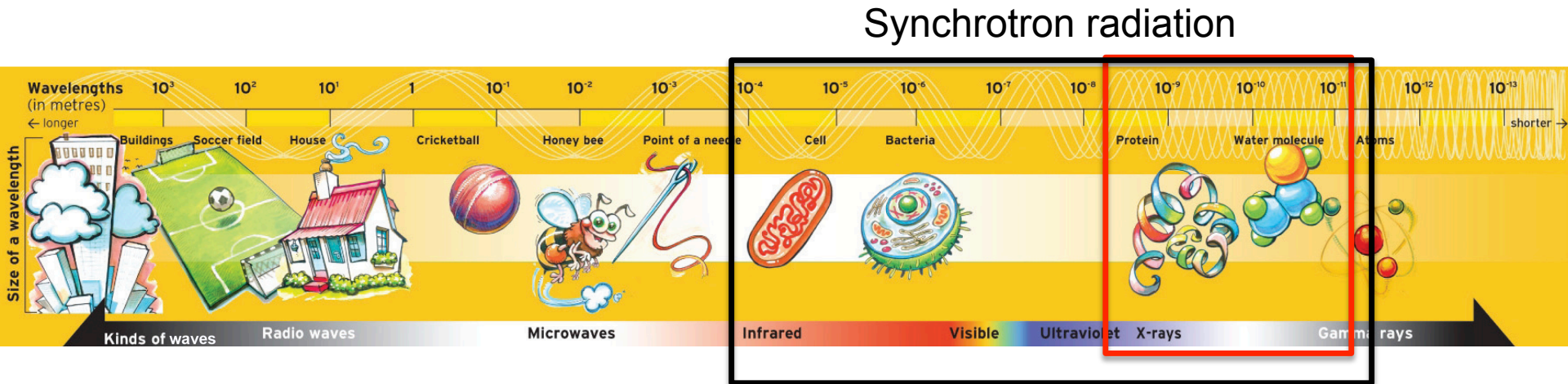
<http://www.bmb.leeds.ac.uk/illingworth/6form/index.htm>



Electron Microscopy



# The Electromagnetic Spectrum



## Soft X-Rays

(10 nm to 0.1 nm)

Easily absorbed in air

## Hard X-Rays

(<0.1 nm)

Penetrant

- X-ray crystallography
- SAXS  
(wavelength  $\sim 1 \text{ \AA}$ )

# Electrons, Neutrons or X-rays?

**d ~ Wavelength**

- **Electrons** (diffraction, EM) → **Coulombic potential maps** (  $\lambda$ =pm at 200kV)
- **X-rays** wavelengths (diffraction and SAXS): typically 0.8-1.5Å
  - interact with electron cloud → **electron density maps**
  - can take advantage of anomalous scattering
  - many synchrotron beamlines
  - (relatively) easy sample preparation
- **Neutrons** (diffraction and SANS) → **neutron density maps** ( $\lambda$ =4-20Å @NIST)
  - interact with atomic nuclei
  - generate fewer free radicals (minimal radiation damage)
  - very few beamlines (ESRF) and relatively weak and costly
  - low signal to noise ratio
  - more difficult sample preparation (deuteration)

# What Can SAXS Do?

- Structure of metal alloys, synthetic polymers, emulsions, porous materials, nanoparticles, **biological macromolecules**
- **Works in solution under close-to-physiological conditions**
- **Measures shape and sizes**
- **Short response time**
- **Ideal for testing environmental parameters (pH, temperature, salt concentration, presence of ligands and cofactors)**

# Why Choose SAXS (or not)?

- No need for crystals (X-ray crystallography)
- No need to derivatize with heavy-atoms for phases (X-ray crystallography)
- No conformational selection (X-ray crystallography)
- In solution, under close-to-physiological conditions
- No grid-specimen interaction (EM)
- No staining artifacts (EM)
- Typically faster than X-ray crystallography, NMR or EM

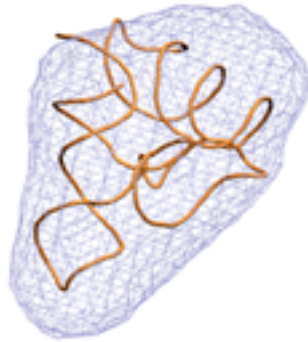
**Modest resolution (1-3nm)**

# How Big is Too Big (or Vice Versa)?

- No size limitation (unlike in EM, NMR or crystallography )
- Suitable for molecules from kDa to megadaltons (nm to  $\mu\text{m}$ )



*P. furiosus* protein  
8.9 kDa  
BID: 2HYPHP



SAM-1 Riboswitch  
30.1 kDa  
BID: 2SAMRR



30S ribosomal subunit  
*S. Solfataricus*  
~1MDa  
BID: SS30SX



# SAXS Development



André Guinier (1911-2000)  
([www.iucr.org](http://www.iucr.org))



With J. Friedel

<http://www.lps.u-psud.fr/spip.php?article829&lang=en>

- 1930s-1950s polymers, porous materials (Guinier; Fournet; Kratky)
- 1960s and 1970s - biological SAXS (hardware development)
- 1990s – beginning of ab initio modeling for reconstruction of 3d-envelopes
- Software development: ATSAS by the group of Dmitri Svergun (EMBL)

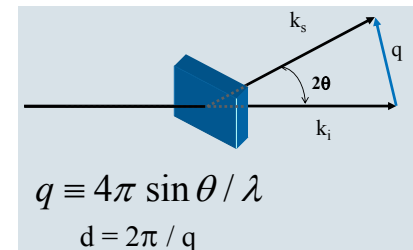
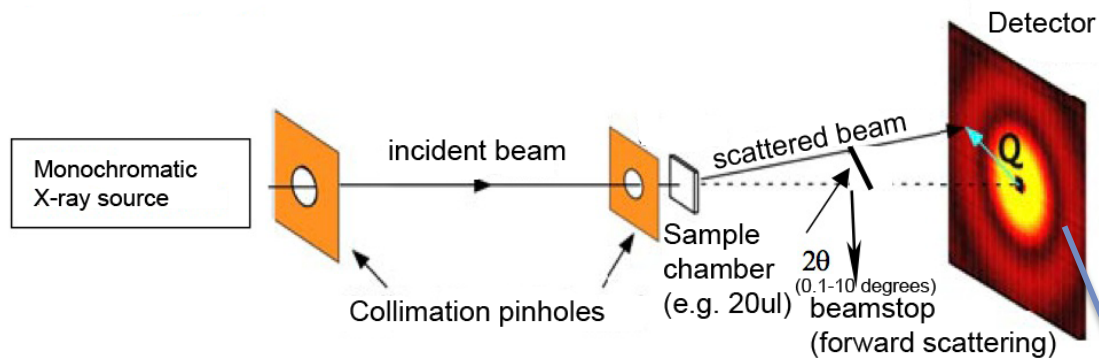
# Experimental Setup

- Most hardware to generate, prepare and detect X-rays is shared with crystallography (dual purpose beamlines, e.g. Sibyls at ALS)



Tom Ellenberger, Bio 5325,  
wustl.edu

# Experimental Setup



Adapted from Petoukhov, M., EMBO lecture  
Bruker AXS

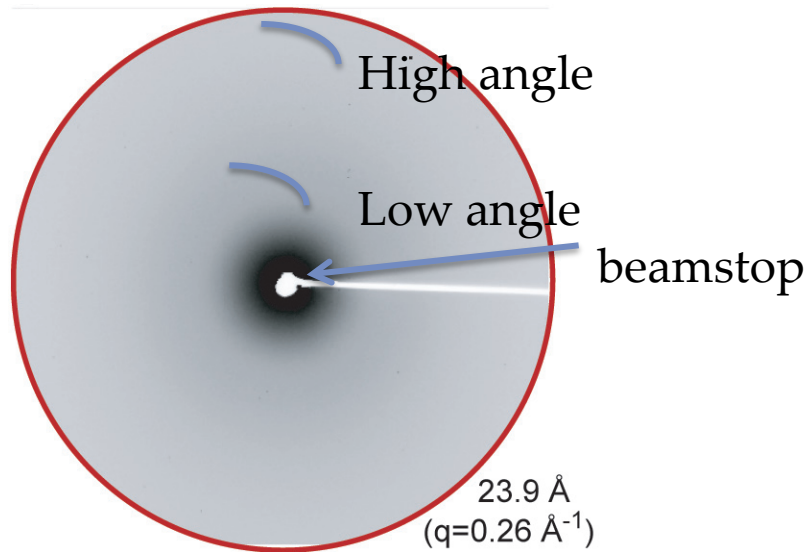
Sample: 1-2 mg (>0.5mg/ml)  
Angles = 0-5 degrees  
Q range: 0.001 to 0.45 Å<sup>-1</sup> (d=μm to nm)

Thomson (elastic) scattering

## Variations on the setup

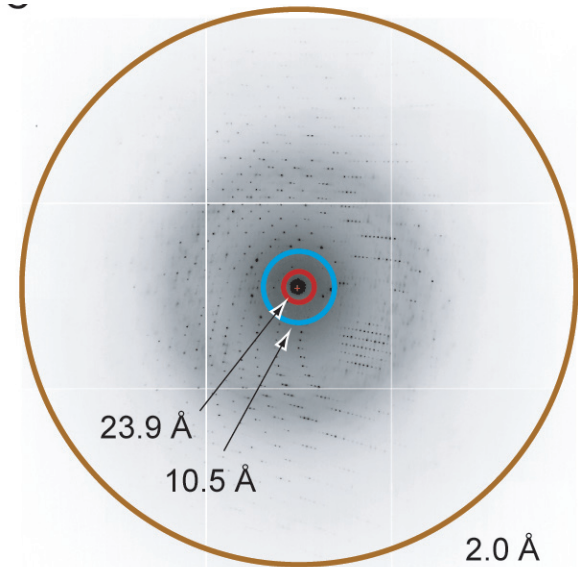
- Flow cell (capillary) instead of a simple sample chambers  
minimize radiation damage
- Flow cell may be in-line with SEC

# SAXS versus X-ray Crystallography



- Tumbling molecules
- Radially symmetric (isotropic)
- Low SNR
- Few observations/parameter
- (**underdetermined**)

Putnam et al., Q Rev. Biophysics (2007)

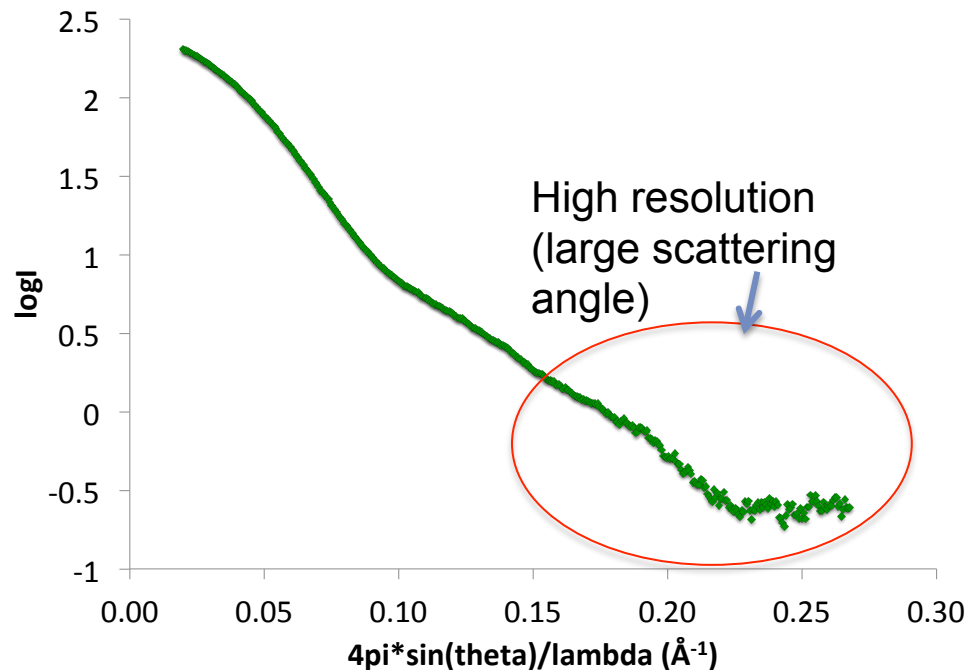


- Molecules “frozen” in lattice
- Non-isotropic →
- Convolution of the molecular transform with the lattice
- Discrete maxima
- High SNR
- Crystal needs to be rotated
- Many observations/parameter to be refined (at least at high resolution)

# Anatomy of a Scattering Intensity Curve

- radially-average intensity distribution to obtain 1-d curve,  $I(q)$
- $I$  is a function of momentum transfer  $q=4\pi\sin\Theta/\lambda$  ( $\text{\AA}^{-1}$ ) or directional momentum change that photons undergo
- Normalization (against exposure time, transmitted sample intensity)

$$q_{\max}=2\pi/d \quad 1/d \text{ reciprocal resolution (nominal)}$$



After background subtraction  
 $I \sim$  scattering of single particle  
averaged over all orientations



# What is Being Measured?

1. Scattering from sample of interest (protein)
2. Background scattering (buffer, water, quartz cell etc.)
3. Electronic noise, stray X-rays (not passing through samples)

$$I(q) \sim (\rho_p - \rho_s)^2 P(q) S(q)$$

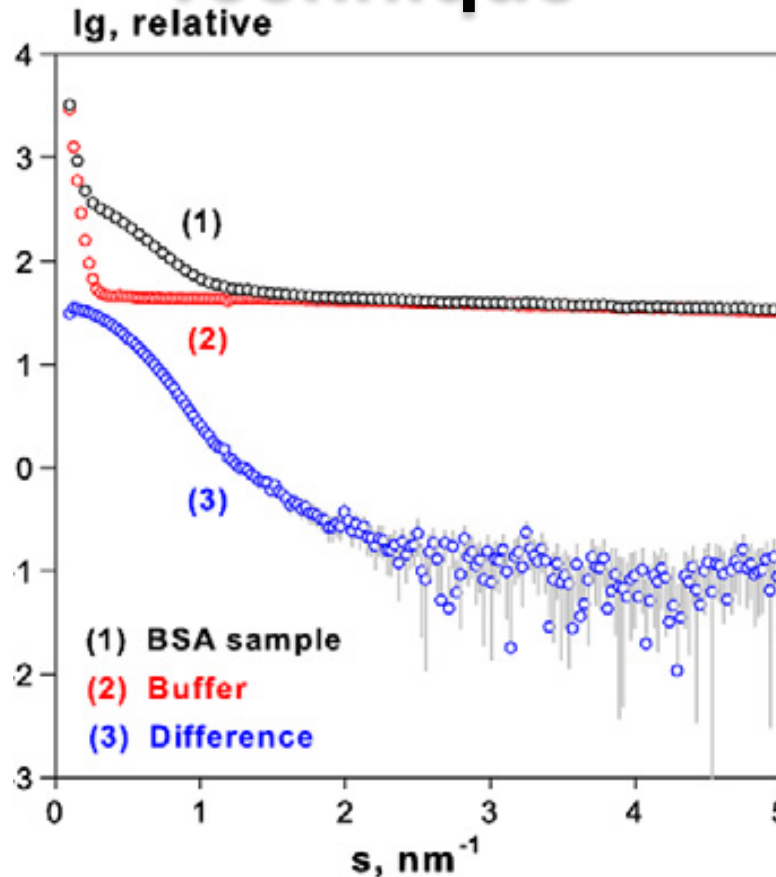
Contrast  
Factor

$\rho$ =electron density

Form factor (SHAPE and SIZE)

Structure factor  
(1 for ideal, dilute  
solutions)

# Small-Angle Scattering is a Contrast Technique



Mertens & Svergun (2010)  
*J. Struct. Biol*

- The contribution of bulk solvent to scattering is explicitly subtracted out
- **Background subtraction is VERY important** (measure “sample” and “matching buffer” series)

# SAXS is a Contrast Technique

$$I \sim \rho_{\text{protein}} - \rho_{\text{solvent}}$$

electron                  electron  
density of              density of  
protein                  solvent

- **Proteins are made up of light atoms (low Z), which do not scatter very well (as opposed to DNA/RNA, which gives better contrast)**
- **typically 5% above background**

$$\rho_{\text{protein}} = 0.44 \text{ e}^-/\text{\AA}^3$$
$$\rho_{\text{water}} = 0.33 \text{ e}^-/\text{\AA}^3$$

- use relatively large protein concentrations (1-10mg/ml)

# Scattering from an Ideal Solution

- No interaction between particles (no interparticle interference, e.g. aggregation or repulsion)
- Only one species (monodisperse)
- Particles are free to move (independent scatters)
- $I(q) = (\rho_1 - \rho_s)^2 P(q) S(q)$

To a limited extent, interparticle interference can be dealt with.  
But, for analysis, solution has to be monodisperse.

**Best to use orthogonal methods (e.g. SEC, AU, maybe native PAGE, mass spectrometry, or best MALS-SEC) to ensure monodispersity**

# What Kind of Parameters Can We Extract from Scattering Curves?

## Data Processing

2D image  $\rightarrow$  1D curve

Background subtraction

## Data Analysis

Size (Guinier plot)

Conformation (Kratky plot)

Pair Distribution Function

Low resolution molecular envelope

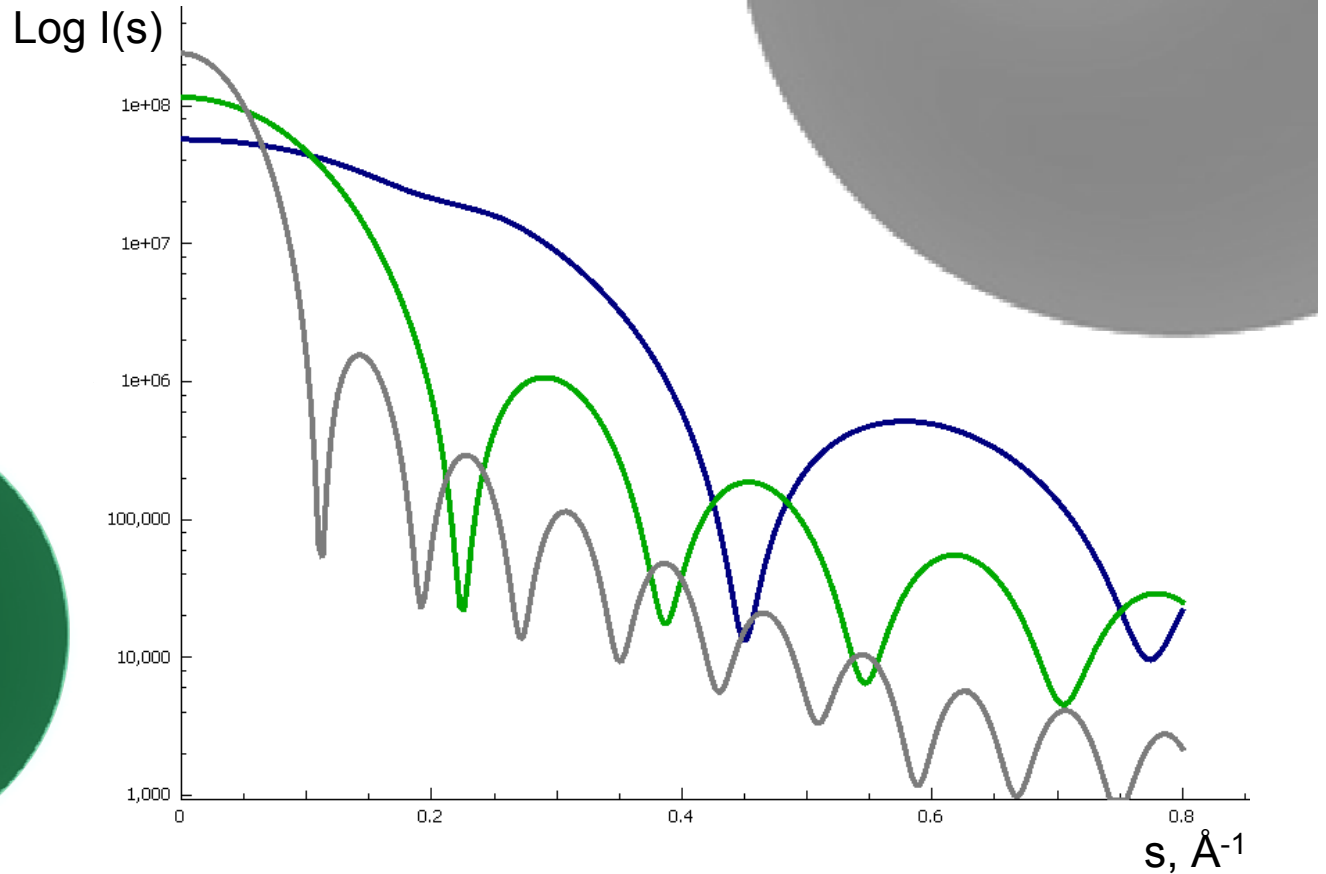
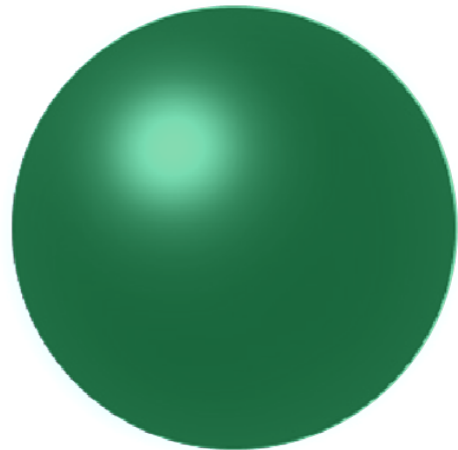
Model-independent

Model-dependent



## **A. Model independent analysis (directly from the scattering curve)**

# Sizes



Al Kikhney, BIOSAXS

<http://www.embl-hamburg.de/biosaxs/courses/embo2012/>

# I. Forward Scattering $I_0$ and Molecular Masses

$I_0 \sim (\text{electrons in the particle})^2$

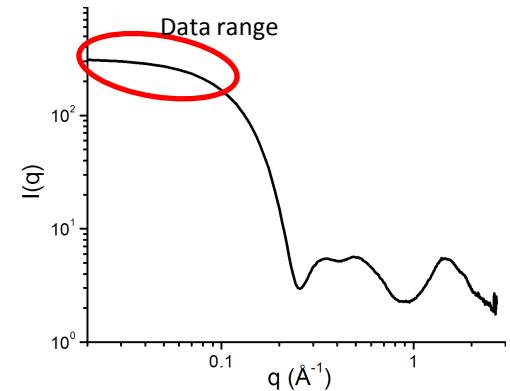
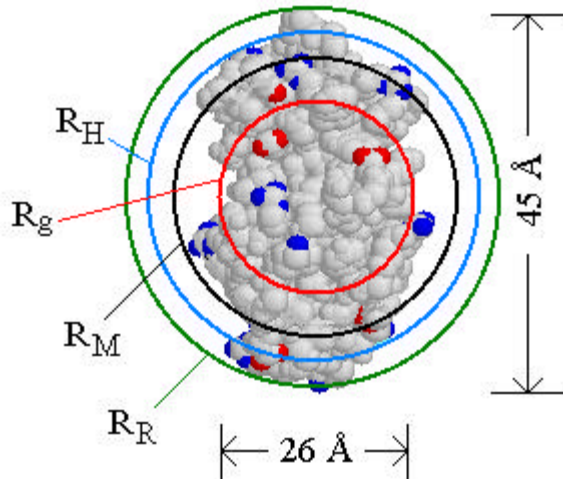
$I_0 \sim \text{particle concentration}$

- **If the particle concentration is known, measurements can be calibrated with a known monodisperse protein (e.g. glucose isomerase NOT BSA), yielding the molecular mass of the solute of interest.**
- **An ensemble measurement (monodispersity again!)**
  - Calculated by extrapolation (coincident with the direct beam)

## II. Radii of Gyration – the Guinier Plot

- $R_g$  (root-mean-square distance of an object's part from the center of gravity), a function of a particle's mass distribution (size)

$$R_g^2 = \frac{\sum m_i r_i^2}{\sum m_i}$$



**Guinier 1939**  
**Guinier and Fournet 1955**

- $R_g$  can be calculated from the slope of the Guinier Plot ( $\ln I$  versus  $q^2$ ), but the limits of the Guinier regime is dependent on the type of shape (larger for globular objects, smaller for elongated shapes,  $qR_g < 0.8$ )

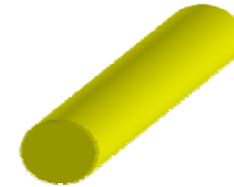
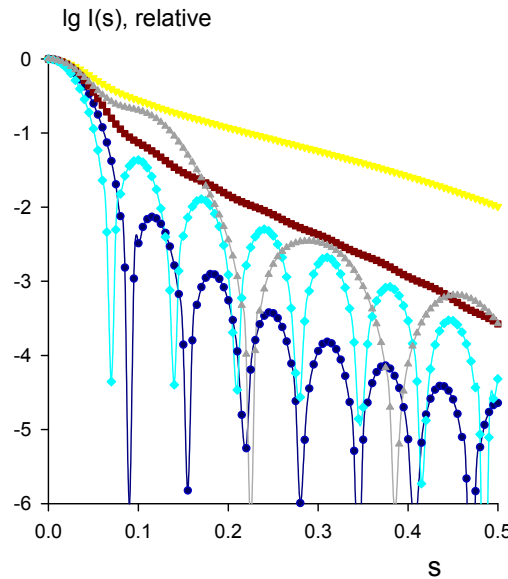
# Shapes Shape



**Solid sphere**



**Hollow sphere**



**Long rod**



**Flat disc**



**Dumbbell**

Al Kikhney, BIOSAXS

<http://www.embl-hamburg.de/biosaxs/courses/embo2012/>

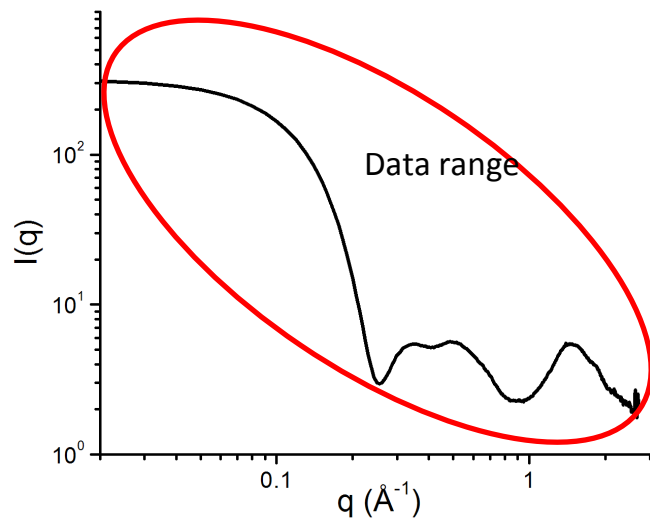


# Persistence Length-Folded versus Unfolded

- **Kratky Plot:**  $I(s) \cdot s^2$  versus  $s$ ; generally **bell-shaped** when folded

# The Pair Distribution Function

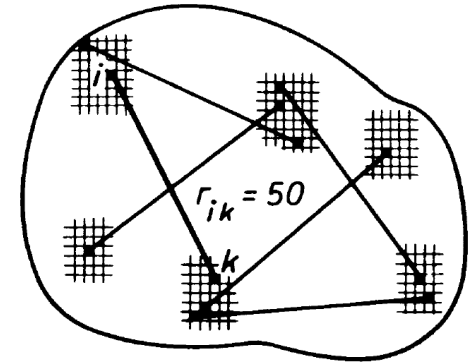
## Atom Pair Distance Histogram



Reciprocal (Fourier) space

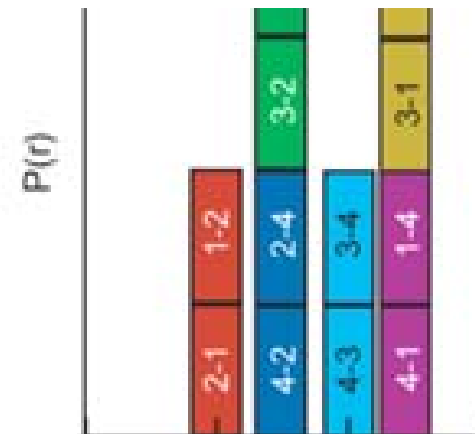
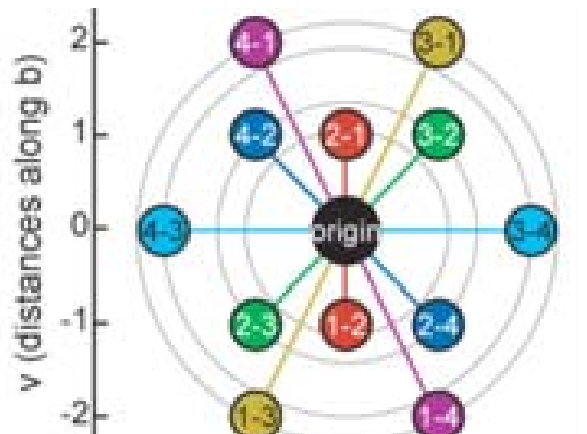


Fourier transform



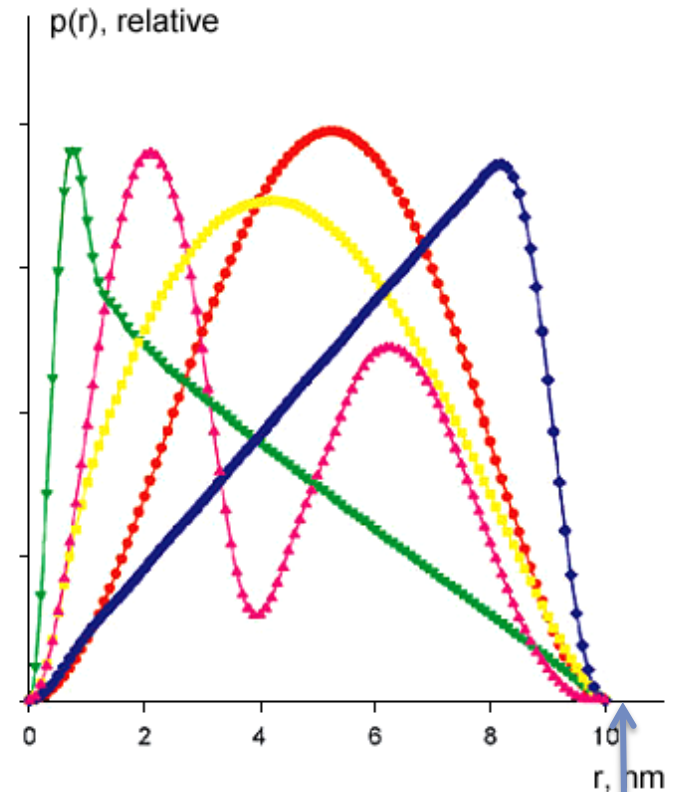
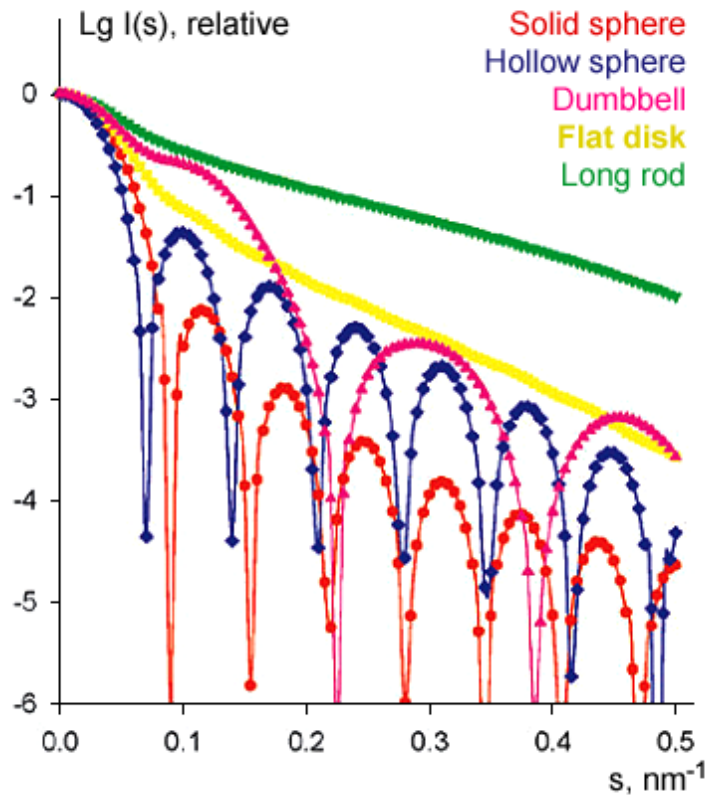
Real space

# P(r) versus a Patterson Function



# The Pair Distribution Function

## (Similar to a “Patterson” Distance)

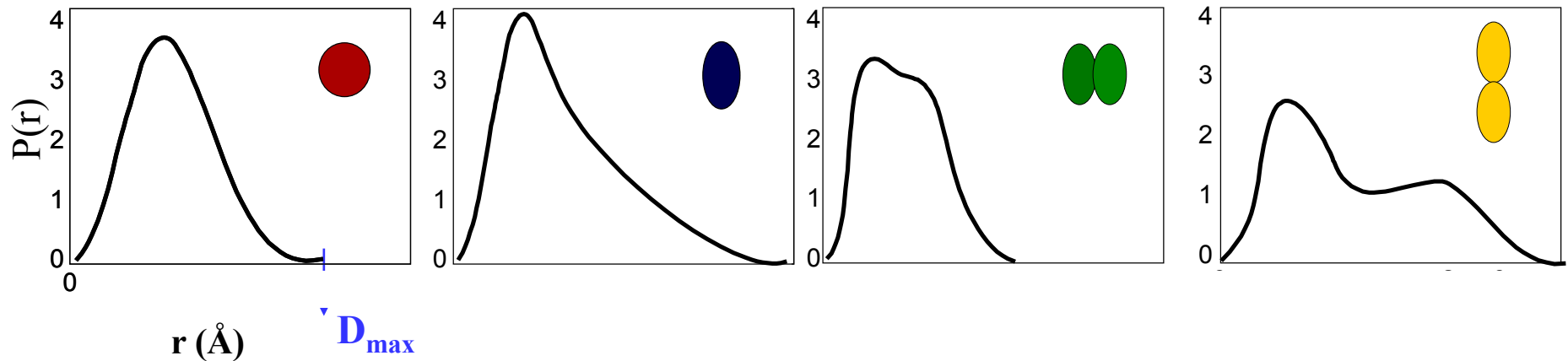


Svergun and Koch (2003)

@Dmax=0

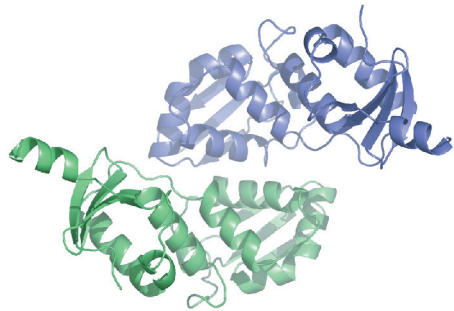
# Oligomerization Changes $D_{\max}$ and $p(r)$

scattering particle.

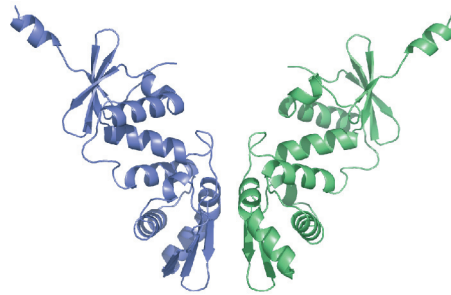


**Shape :** Modeled as a uniform density distribution that best

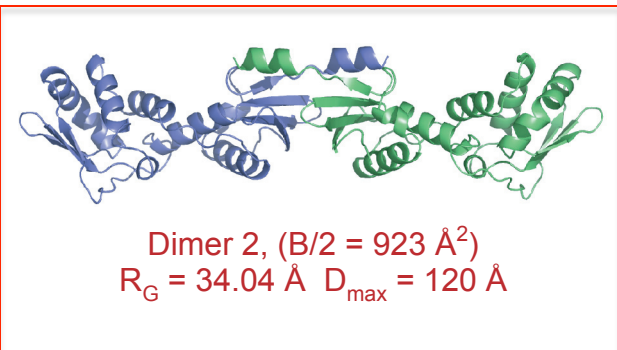
# Differentiating between Crystal Packing and Oligomerization in Solution



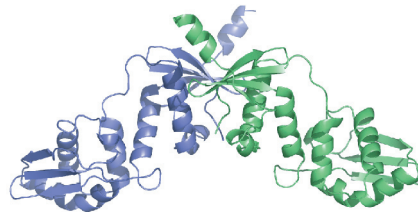
Dimer 1, ( $B/2 = 755 \text{ \AA}^2$ )  
 $R_G = 26.08 \text{ \AA}$   $D_{\max} = 80 \text{ \AA}$



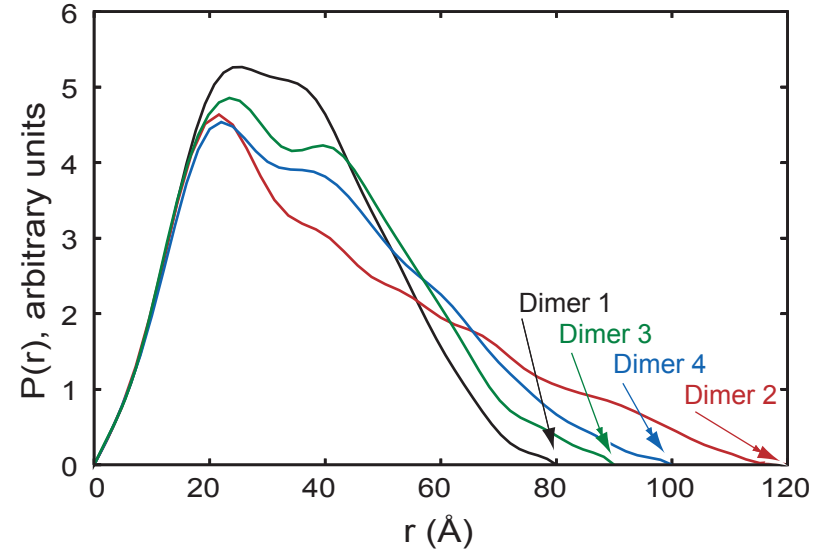
Dimer 3, ( $B/2 = 406 \text{ \AA}^2$ )  
 $R_G = 28.3 \text{ \AA}$   $D_{\max} = 90 \text{ \AA}$



Dimer 2, ( $B/2 = 923 \text{ \AA}^2$ )  
 $R_G = 34.04 \text{ \AA}$   $D_{\max} = 120 \text{ \AA}$



Dimer 4, ( $B/2 = 255 \text{ \AA}^2$ )  
 $R_G = 30.4 \text{ \AA}$   $D_{\max} = 100 \text{ \AA}$



SAXS could have readily distinguished between alternative dimer structures of the C-terminal domain of DNA repair protein MutL

C-terminal domain of DNA repair protein MutL  
 Putnam et al., Q Rev. Biophysics (2007)

# **What kind of parameters can we extract from scattering curves?**

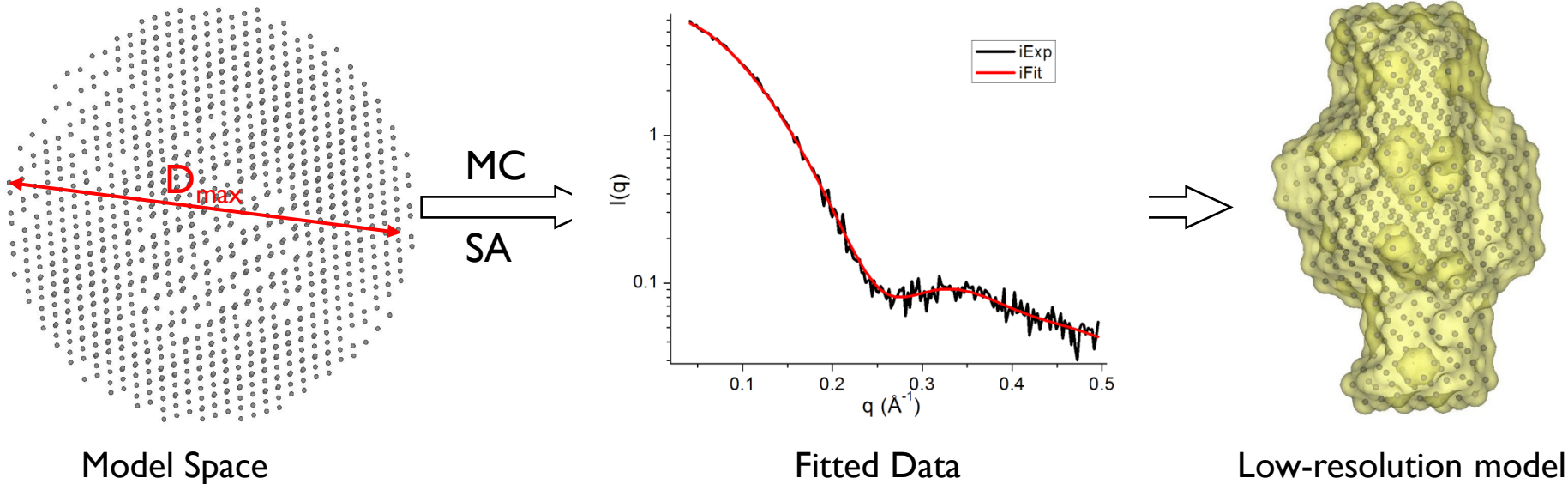
A. Model-dependent analysis (directly from the scattering curve)

B. Model-dependent (3D-reconstruction)

# 3D Reconstructions by Ab Initio

## Simulations: How?

- 3D search model  $\rightarrow$  trial and error  
 $\rightarrow$  fit against experimental data



**Dummy Atoms/Residues Assigned to Either Solvent or Model**

**Simulated Annealing (to find “global” minimum)**



# 3D Reconstructions by Ab Initio Simulations: How?

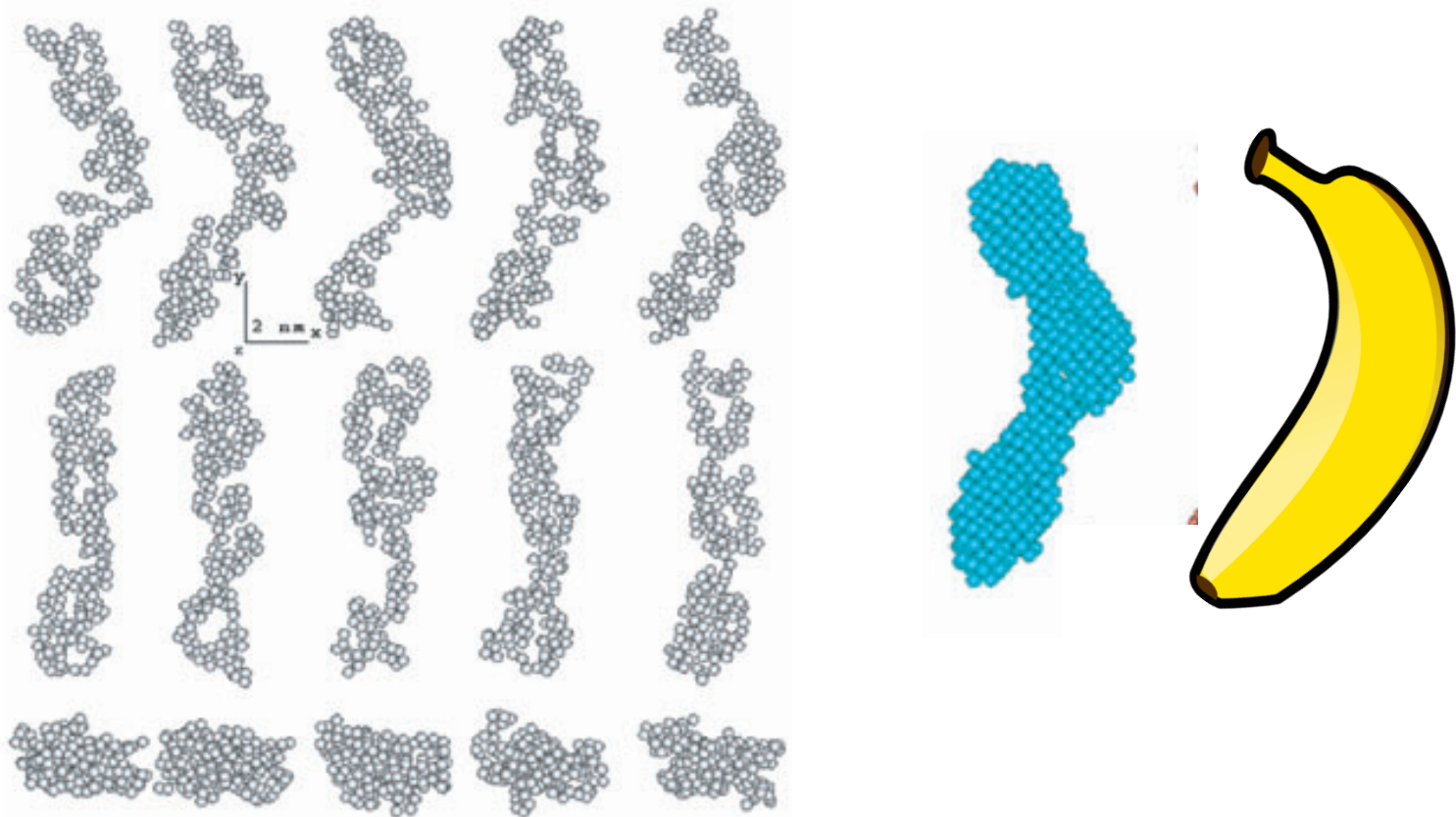
## Constraints:

1. Packing and connectivity (3.8Å between scattering centers)
2. Symmetry (if present according to orthogonal method)

# Multiple Simulations Need to Be Computed

- Reconstruction depends on initial conditions
- >10 independent simulations per sample
- Align models
- Analyze for convergence (NSD = normalized spatial discrepancy)
- Filter composite volume based on occupancy
- Find common features in your reconstructions

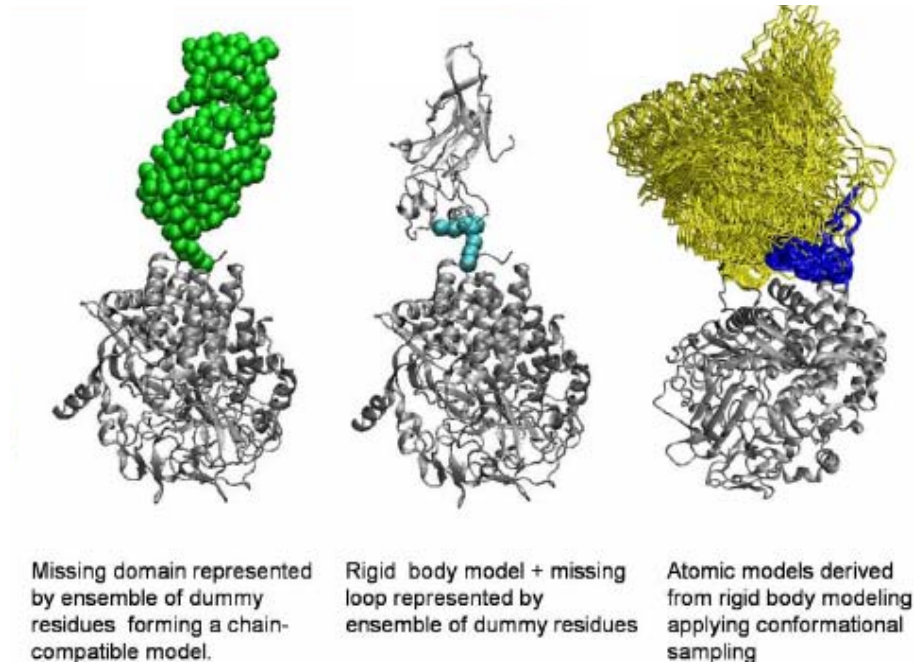
# Solutions are Similar but Not Identical



Z-disc domains of Titin (largest known protein, 35000 amino acids)  
Svergun & Koch (2003)

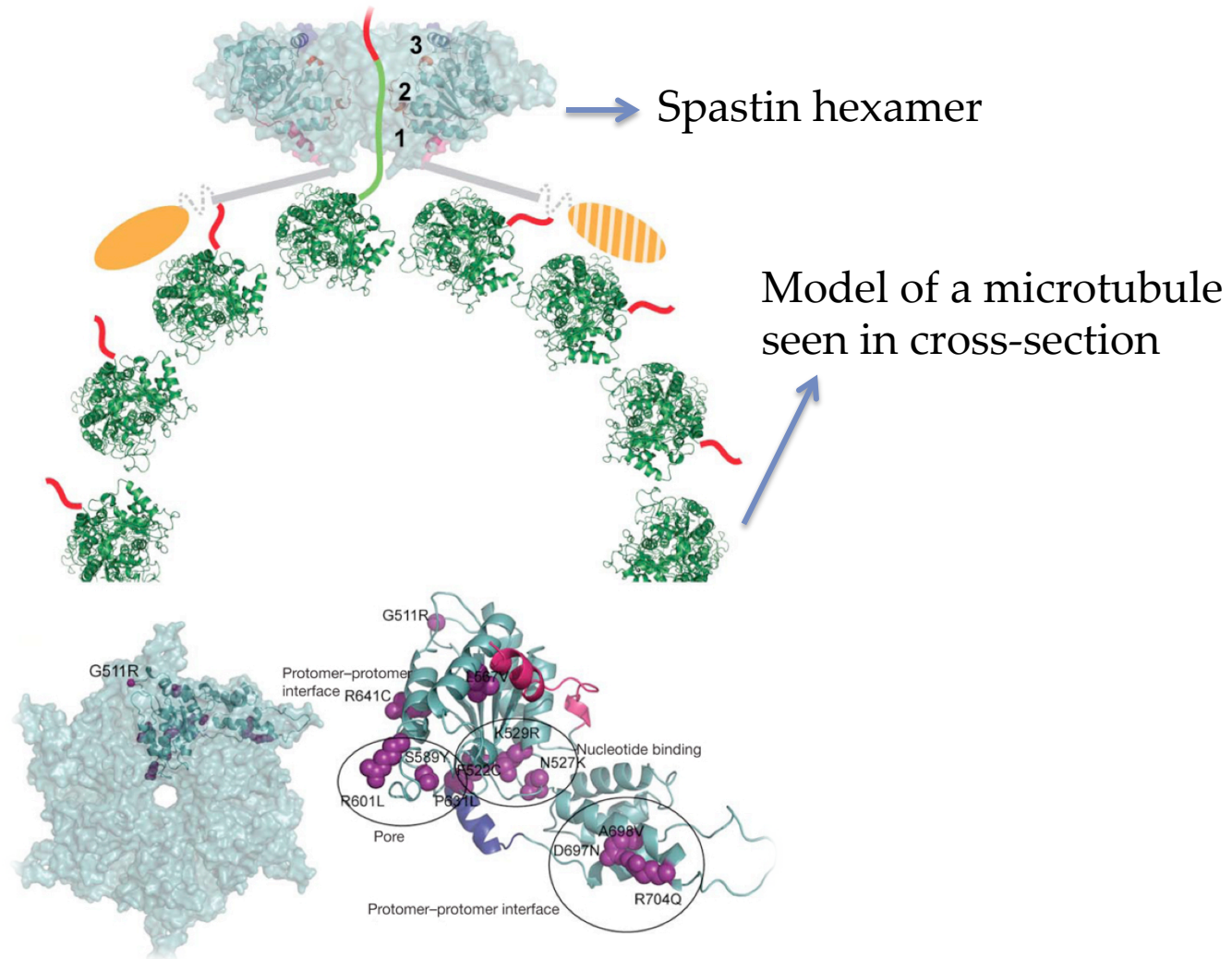
# So What Else Is It Good For?

- Validate crystal structures
- Help identify buffer conditions likely to produce crystals (non-aggregated protein)
- Locate domains and missing linkers (e.g. not visible in crystal structures)
- Look at dynamics of domains (ensemble of models, EOM and MES)



nn, Grossman ...)

# Building Larger Assemblies from Known “Pieces”



# **SAXS Is Versatile, Fast and Informative**

TOMORROW:

1. Coupling transcription and DNA repair with a dsDNA-tracking motor
2. Post-translational modification of tubulin by tubulin tyrosine ligase (TTL)

# Acknowledgements



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Dr. Jané Kondev

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*Foundation*

