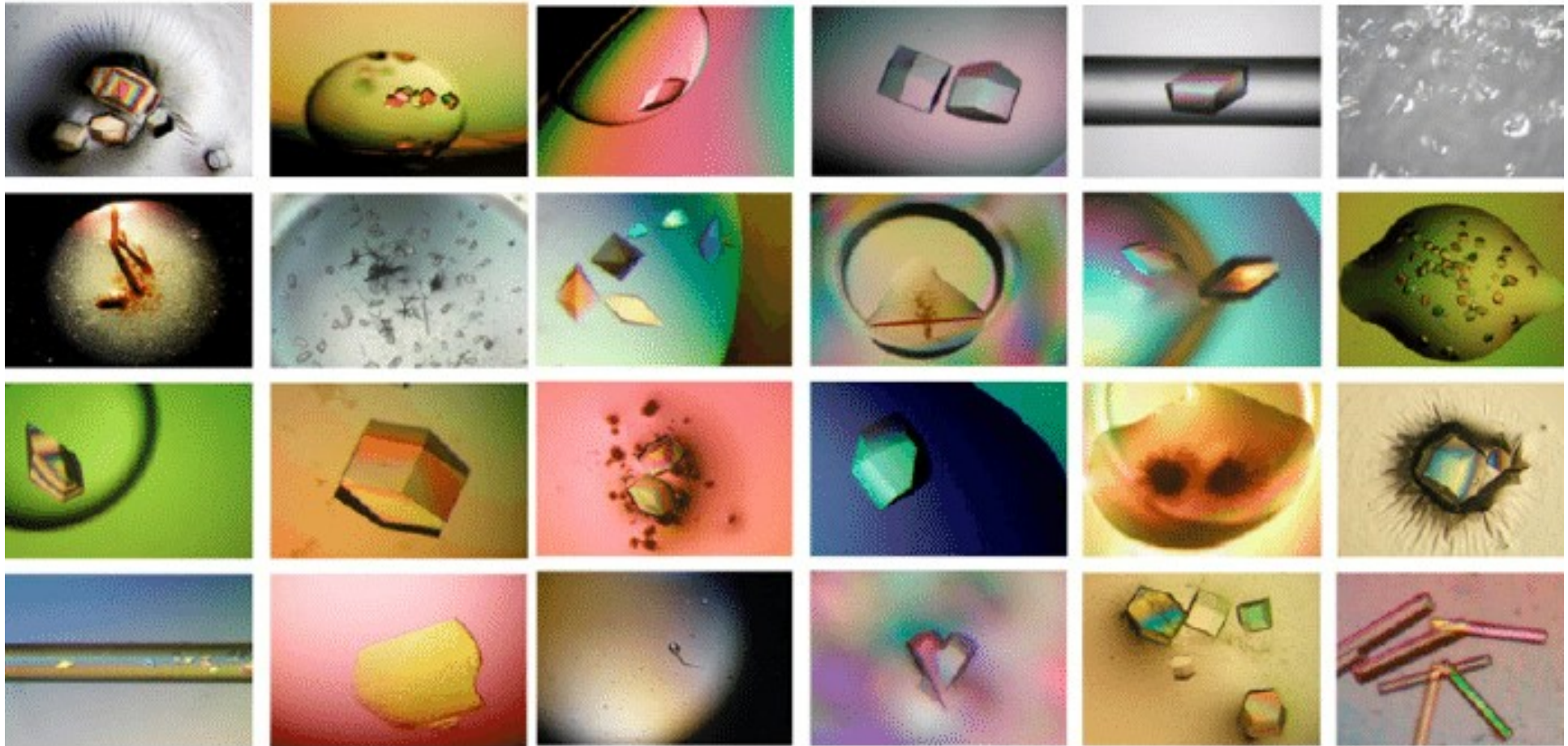


Crystal geometry



Corso di Biocristallografia e Microscopia Elettronica rdezorzi@units.it

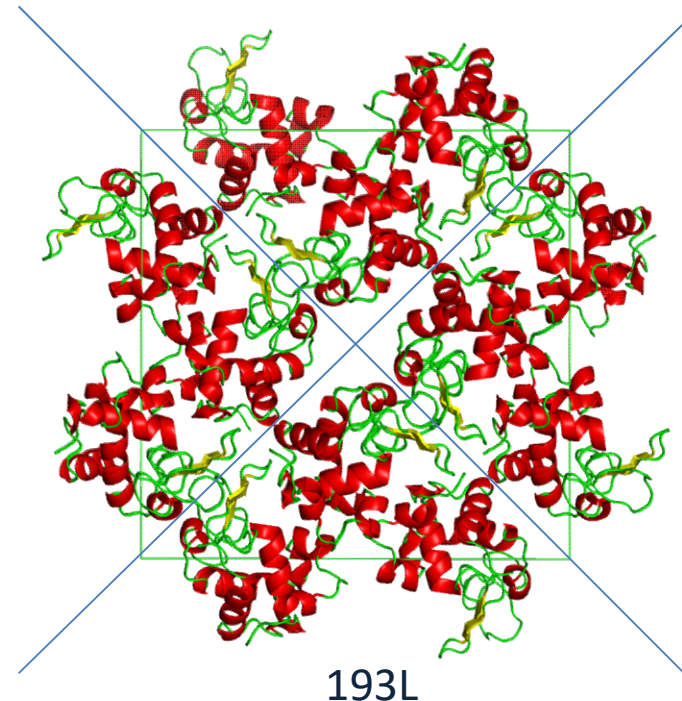
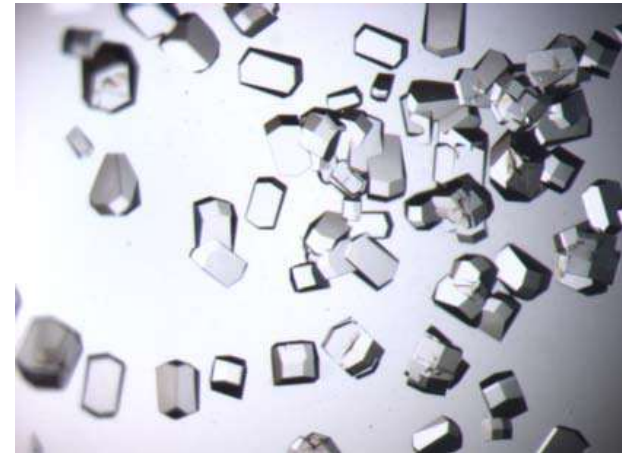
Sharp edges and plane faces

Regular crystal habit depends on internal long-range order of crystal structure.

Diffraction properties of crystals depend on their internal order: X-ray interaction with the ordered molecules forming the crystal.

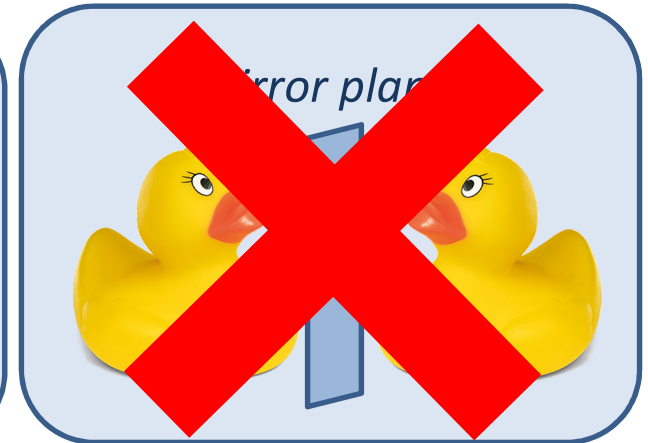
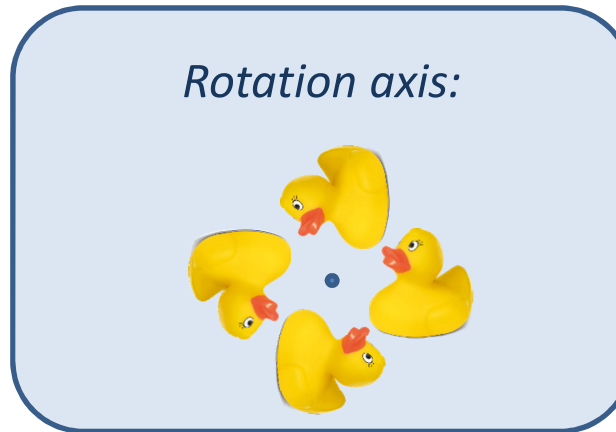
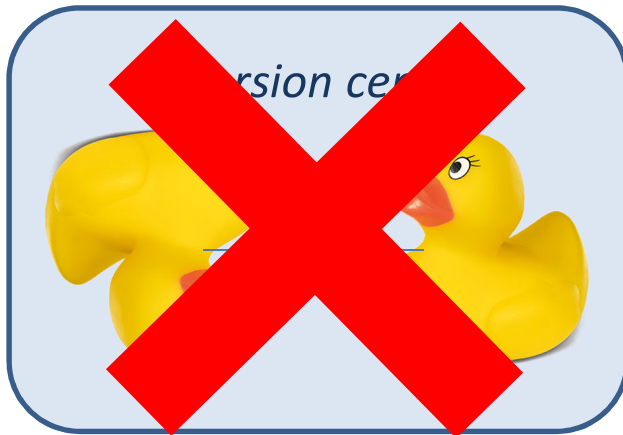
Combination of the requirements for:
long-range order
and
symmetries between molecules in the crystal
=
230 **space groups** for crystals,
But only **65** allowed for protein crystals

To understand diffraction phenomena and to analyze crystallographic data:
analyze crystal order.



Point group symmetry elements

Point group symmetry elements are invariant points of transformations able to relate a point (x,y,z) to its symmetry related (x',y',z') .



During each of these transformations, a generic point of coordinates (x,y,z) is transformed into a symmetric point, with coordinates (x',y',z') , by a matrix operator:

Inversion center, i :

$$\mathbf{x}' = i \mathbf{x}$$

$$i = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Rotation axis, e.g. 4 along z :

$$\mathbf{x}' = A \mathbf{x}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Mirror plane, e.g. in yz :

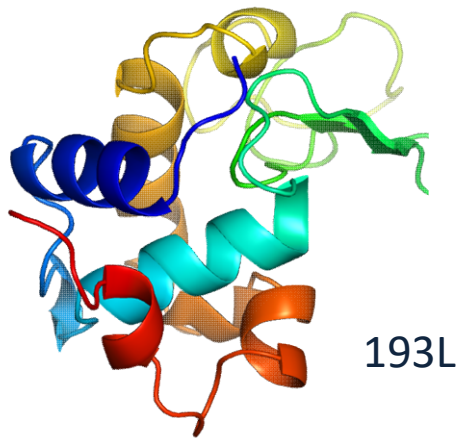
$$\mathbf{x}' = m \mathbf{x}$$

$$m = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

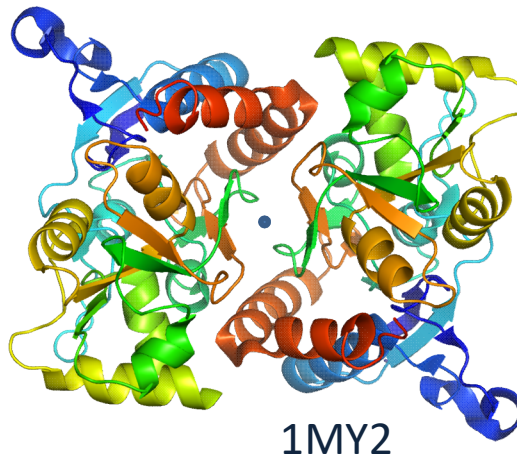
Rotation axes

A rotation operation n (or of order n) describes a rotation of each point of $360^\circ/n$ around the rotation axis:

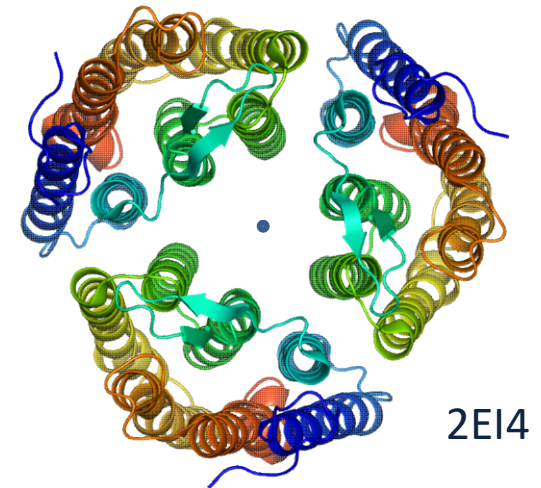
1 Rotation of 360°
(identity!)



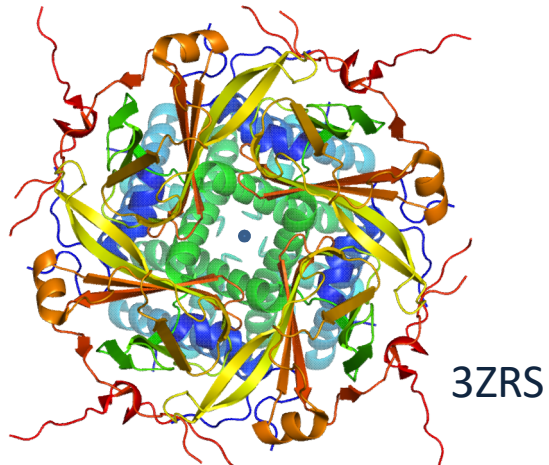
2 Rotation of 180°



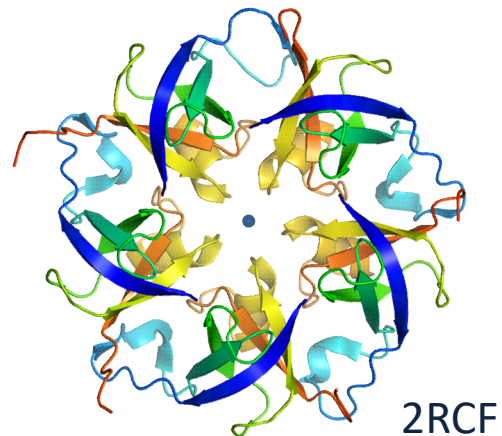
3 Rotation of 120°



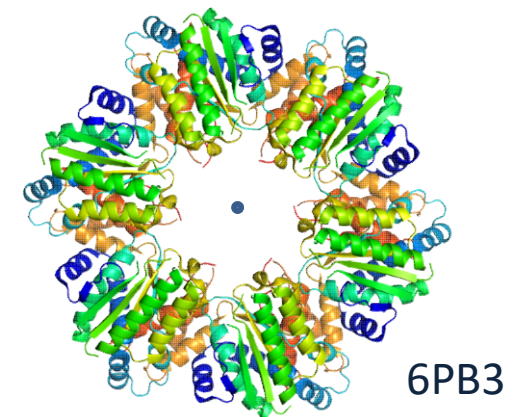
4 Rotation of 90°



5 Rotation of 72°

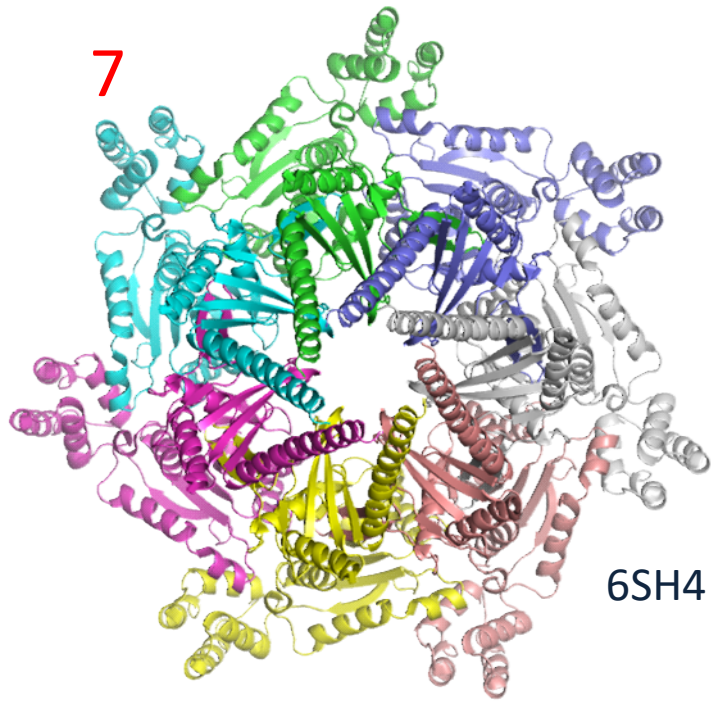


6 Rotation of 60°

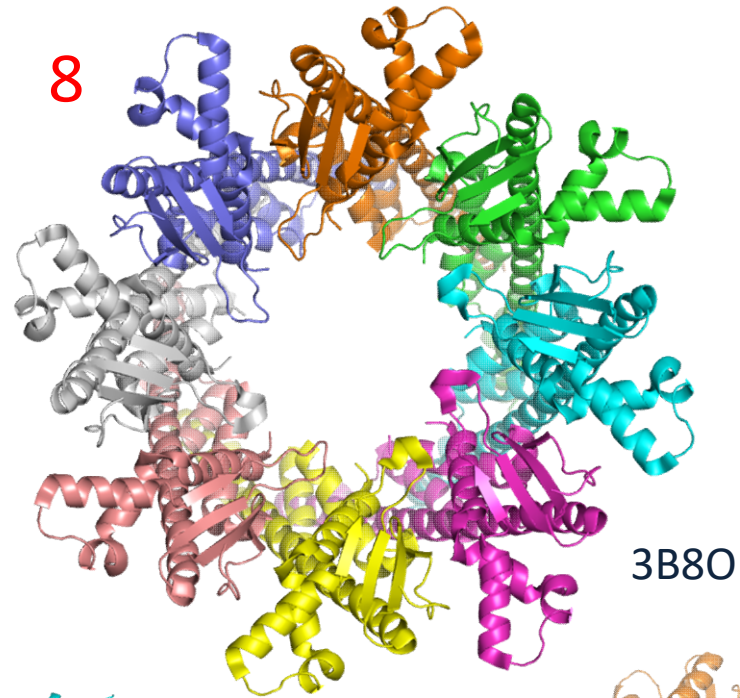


And more:

7

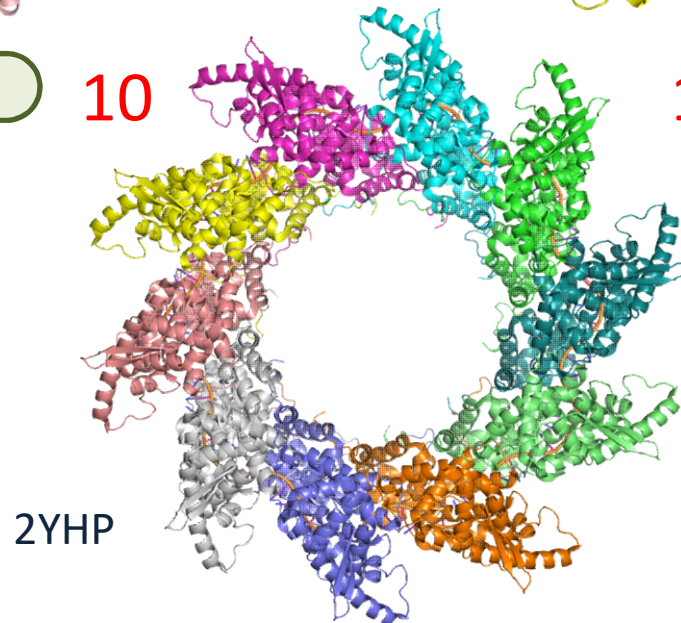


8



When symmetry elements are present, they involve more than one protein chain: proteins are **ASYMMETRIC!**

10



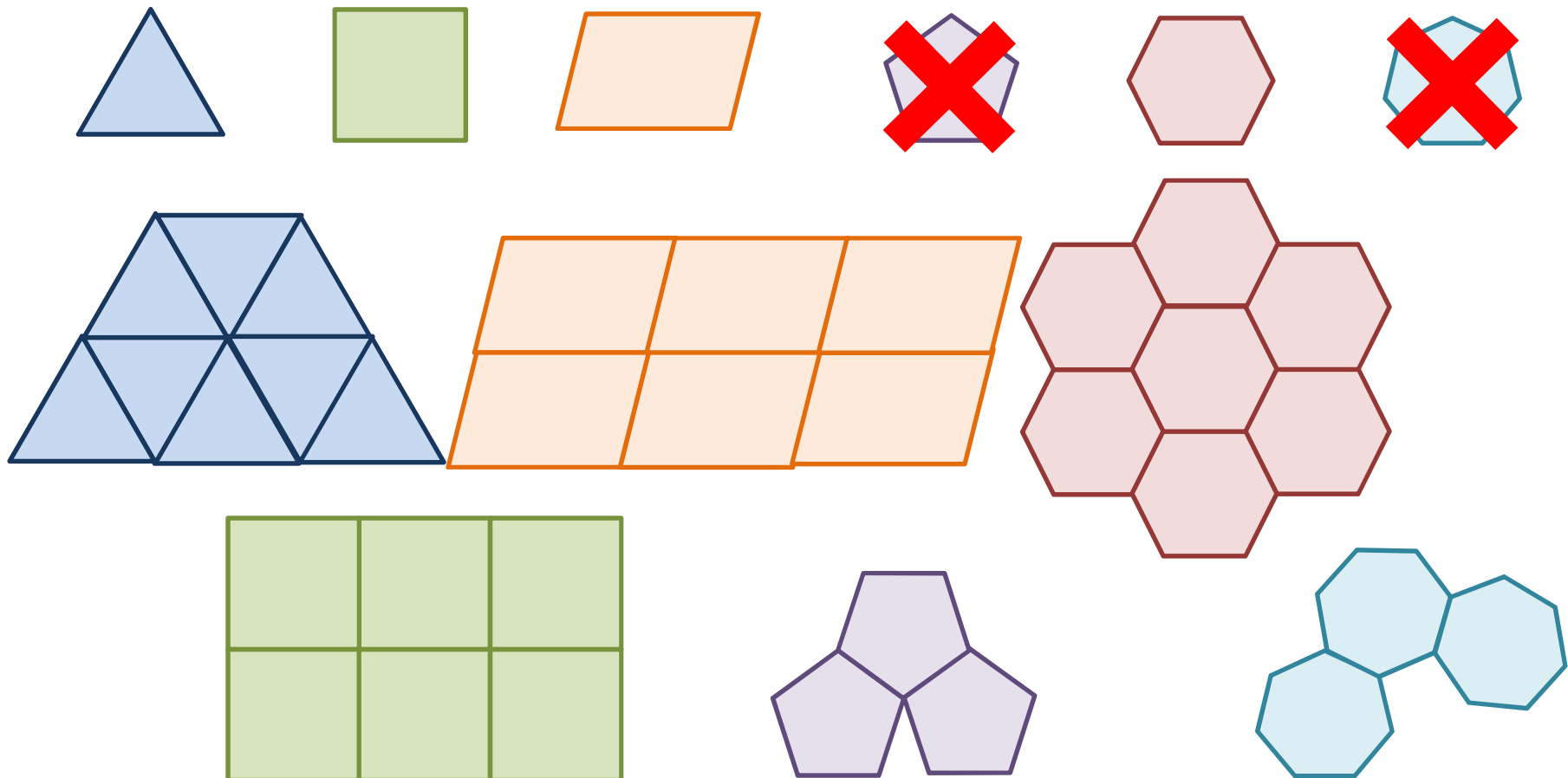
12



Translational periodicity: lattice and unit cell

Crystals are formed by repeated units along the three directions, but to simplify the problem we can start to describe lattice in the 2D case

How to cover a floor with tiles??



Translational periodicity: lattice and unit cell

Crystals are formed by repeated units along the three directions, but to simplify the problem we can start to describe lattice in the 2D case

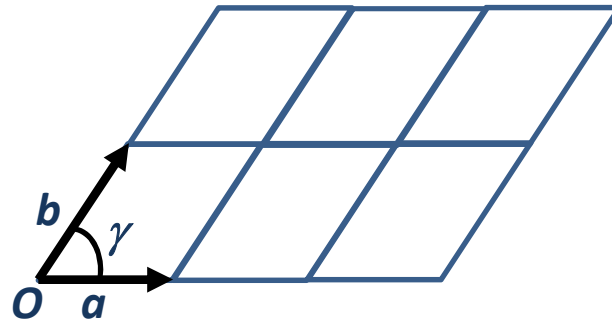
How to cover a floor with tiles??



Due to the requirement for **translational periodicity**, lattices can have only the following rotational symmetries:

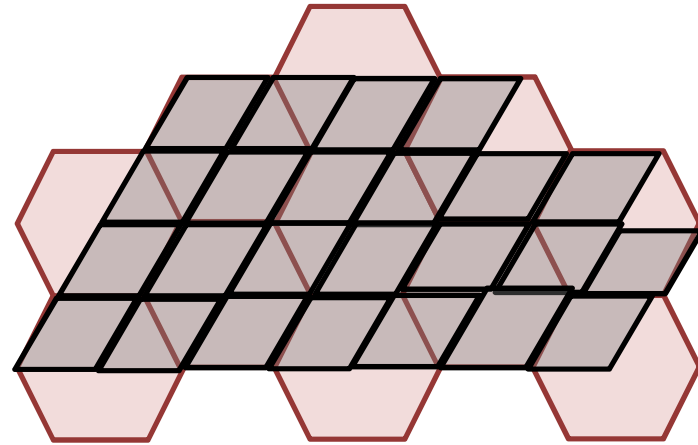
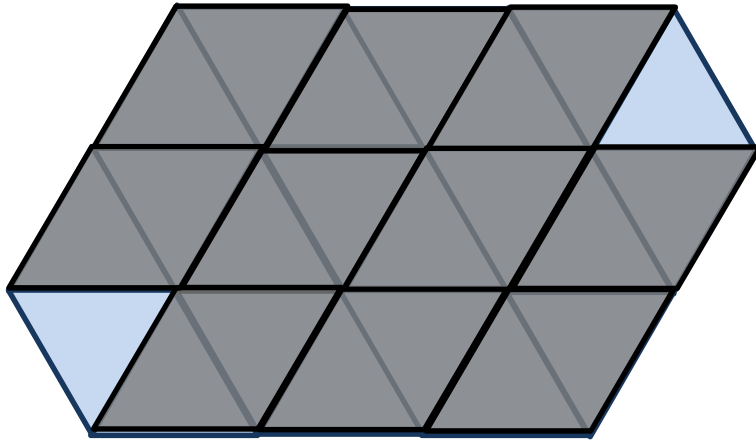
1, 2, 3, 4 and 6

In 2D, the lattice is formed by a repeated unit, translated in 2 directions:

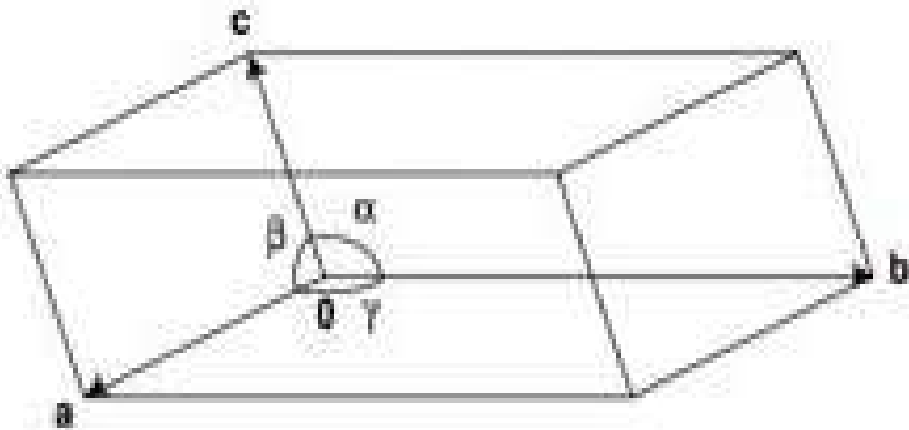


The repetitive unit is called **unit cell**. The lattice is defined by an **origin** of the translations and the **unit cell parameters** (or dimensions):
(in 2D) a , b and γ

Even when symmetry elements include a 3-fold axis or a 6-fold axis, unit cell can be described as a parallelogram:

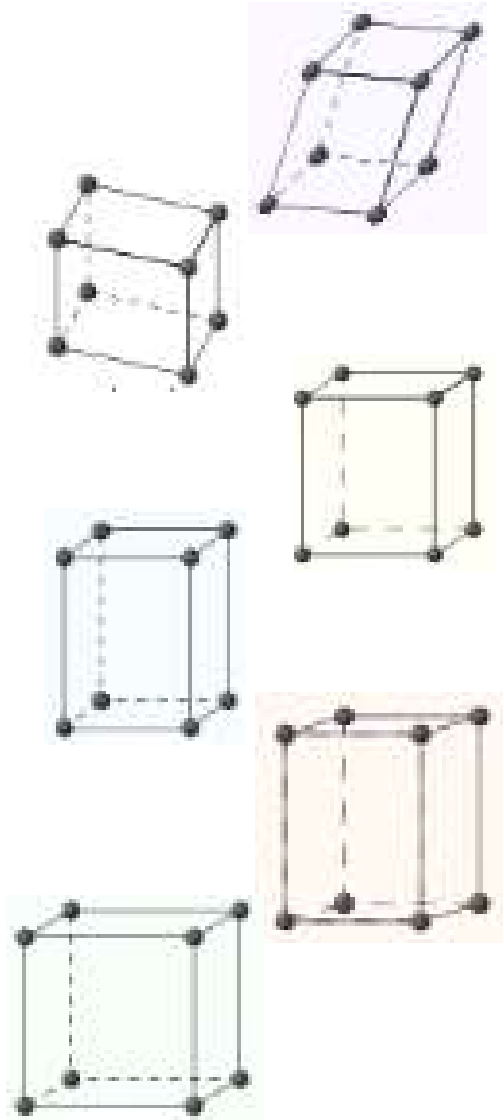


In 3D:



Unit cell parameters:
 a, b, c and α, β, γ

Crystal families and crystal systems



Crystal family	Crystal system	Unit cell dimensions	Minimal symmetry elements
Triclinic	Triclinic	$a, b, c, \alpha, \beta, \gamma$	none
Monoclinic	Monoclinic	a, b, c, β ($\alpha, \gamma=90^\circ$)	2
Orthorhombic	Orthorhombic	a, b, c ($\alpha=\beta=\gamma=90^\circ$)	three perpendicular 2 axes
Tetragonal	Tetragonal	a, c ($b=a, \alpha=\beta=\gamma=90^\circ$)	4
Hexagonal	Trigonal	a, c ($b=a, \alpha=\beta=90^\circ, \gamma=120^\circ$)	3
	Hexagonal		6
Cubic	Cubic	a ($b=a, c=a, \alpha=\beta=\gamma=90^\circ$)	four 3 axes along diagonal directions

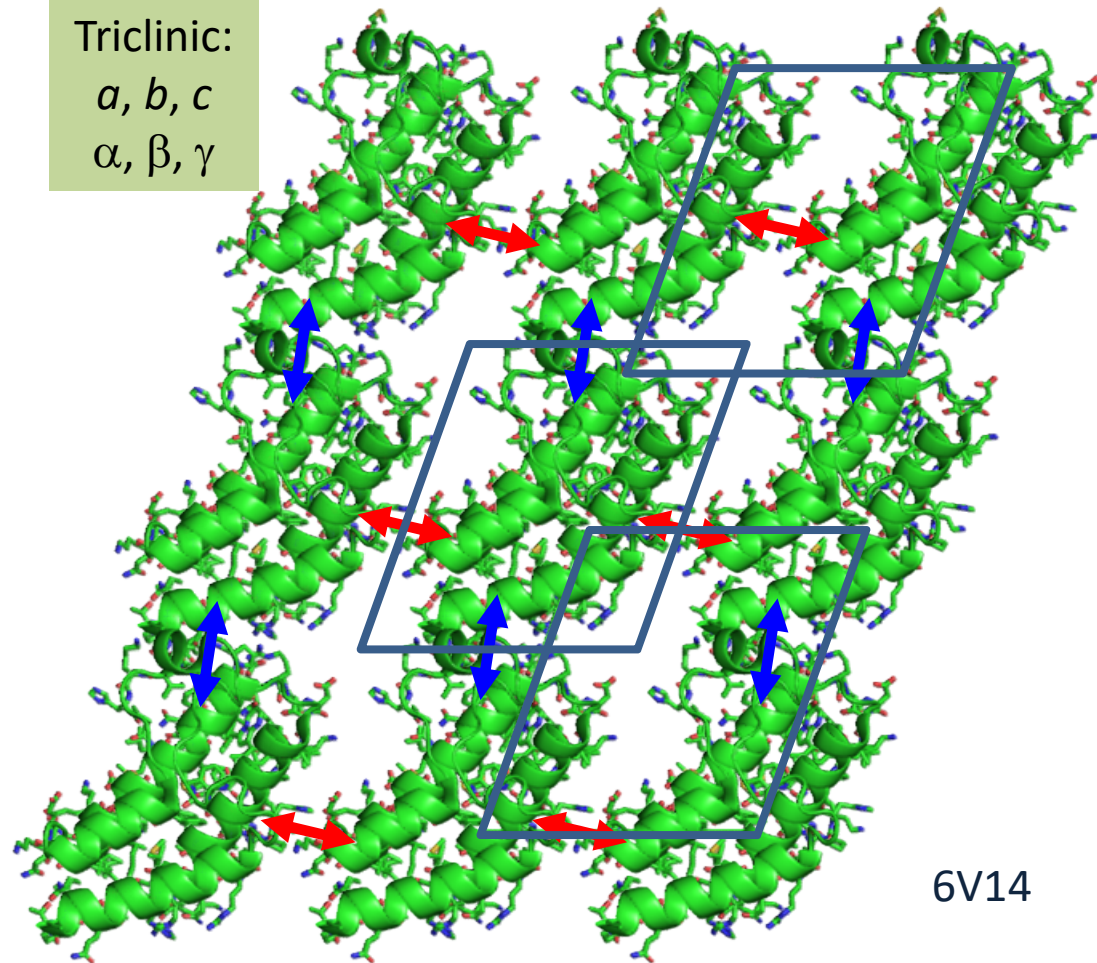
Intermolecular contacts and crystal packing

Crystals are held together by intermolecular contacts, that determine their packing:

Crystal packing must be evaluated:

- 1) to evaluate the effect of crystal contacts on protein conformation
- 2) to obtain biologically active unit (for symmetry related oligomers)

Triclinic:
 a, b, c
 α, β, γ



Different **origin** choices are possible (while unit cell dimensions are the same!) for a lattice with no additional symmetry.

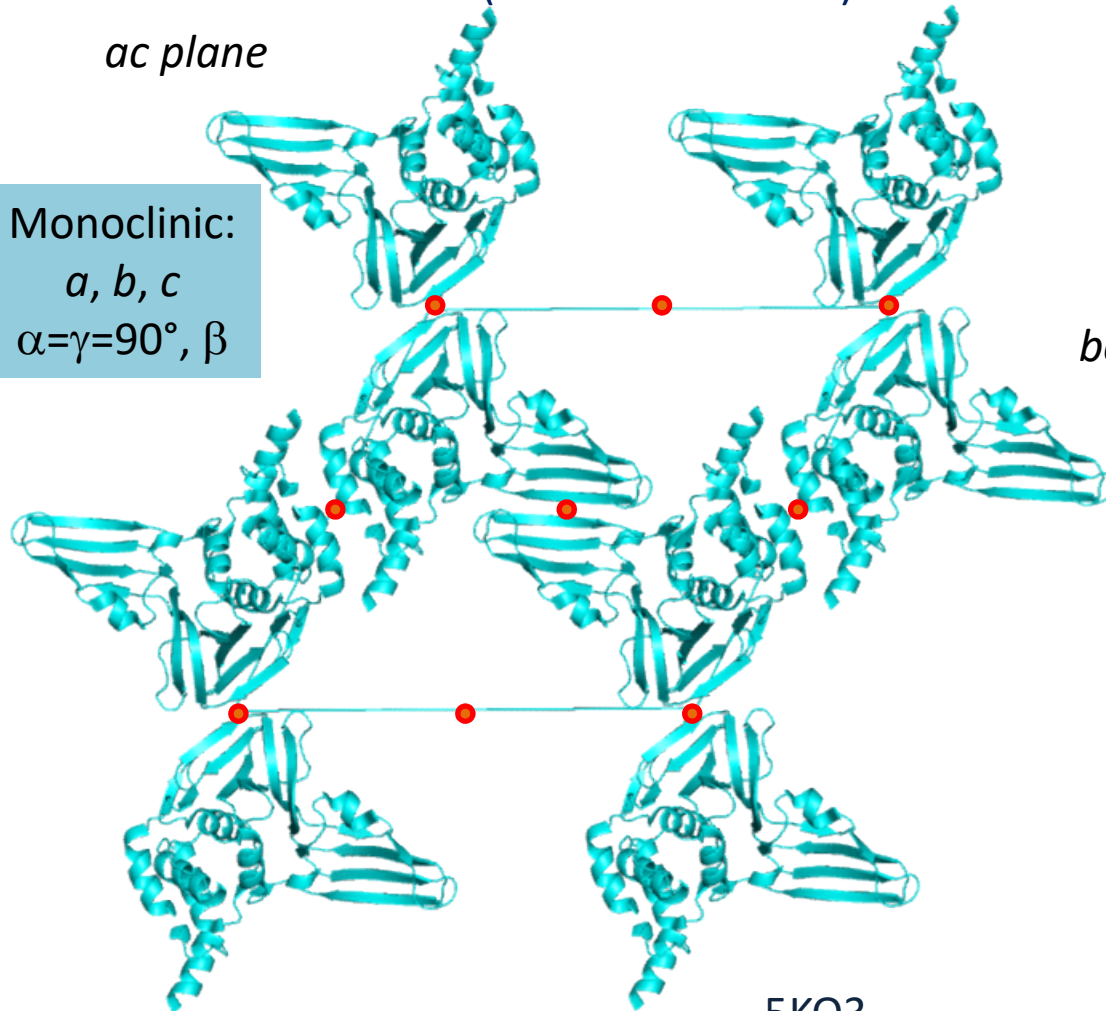
Choice of the origin

The choice of the origin depends on the symmetry of the crystal lattice.

Case in point: lattice with 2-fold axis along b
(monoclinic lattice)

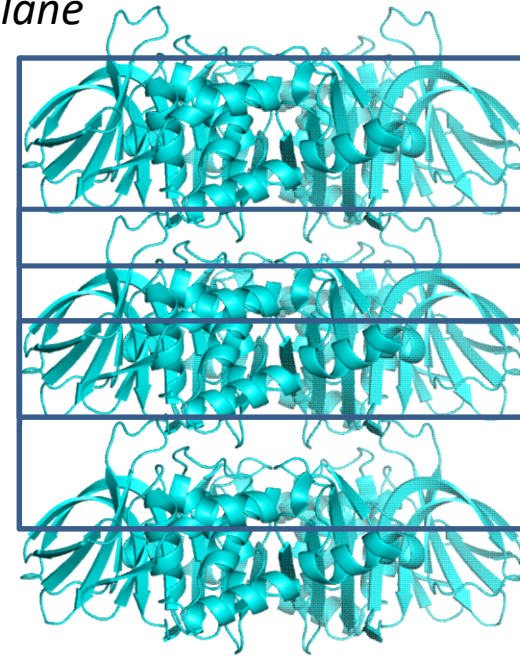
ac plane

Monoclinic:
 a, b, c
 $\alpha=\gamma=90^\circ, \beta$

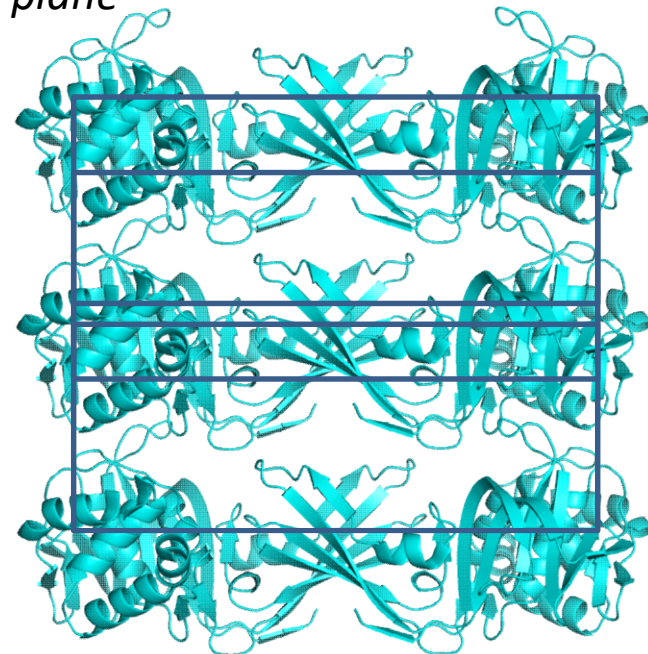


5KO3

ab plane



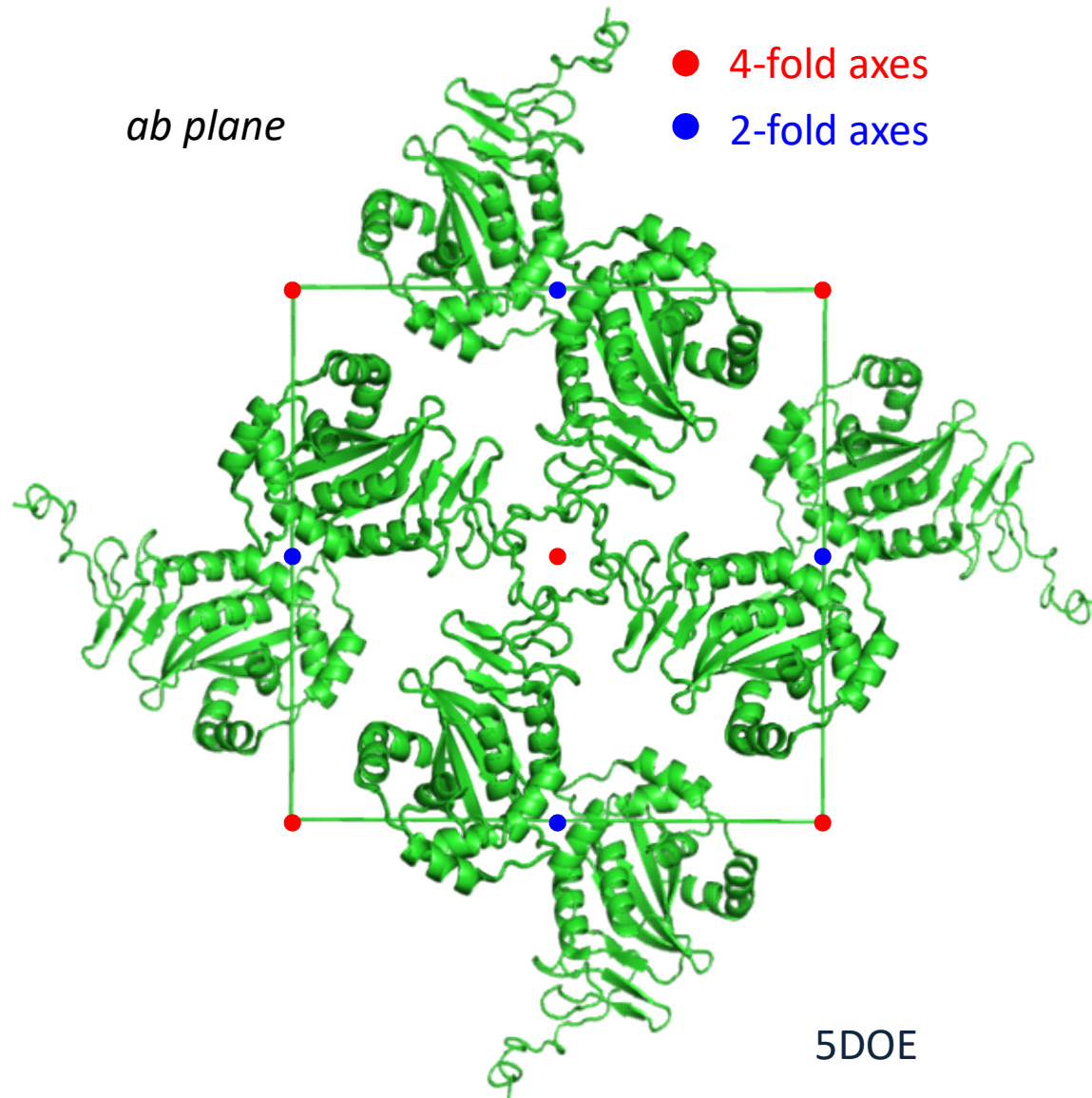
bc plane



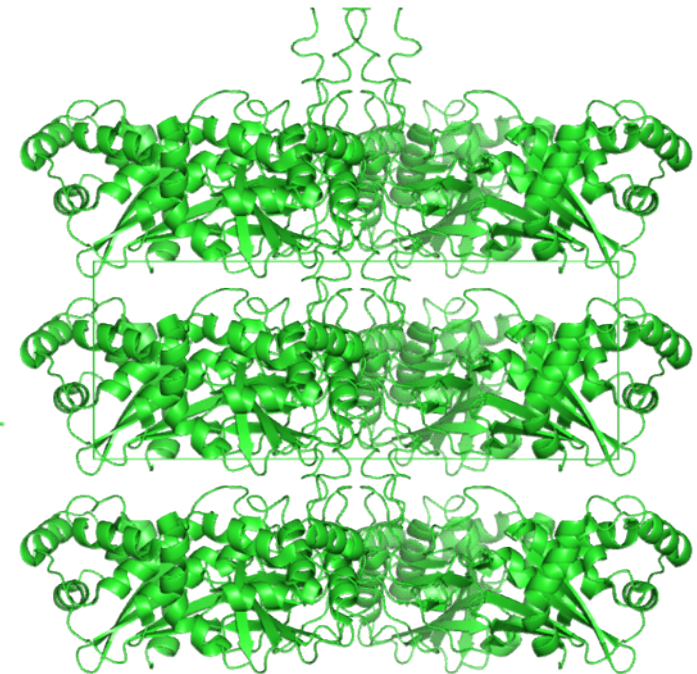
Choice of the origin

Case in point: lattice with 4-fold axis along c (tetragonal lattice)

Tetragonal:
 $a=b, c$
 $\alpha=\beta=\gamma=90^\circ$



ac and bc planes



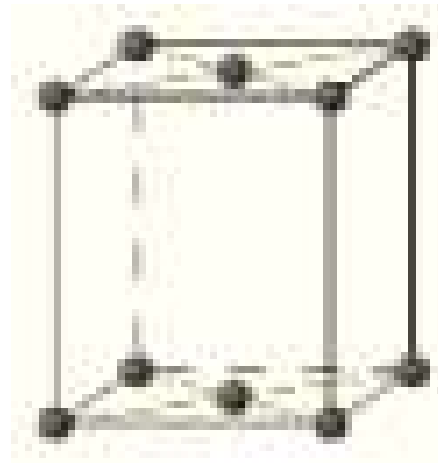
Primitive and centered lattices

Primitive lattices have *nodal points (nodes)* at the vertices of the unit cell.

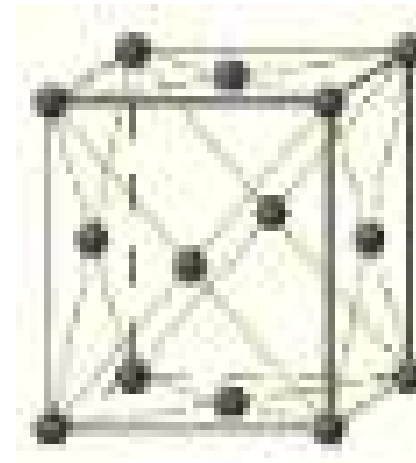
But further translations are possible in the unit cell, forming **centered lattices**, with additional nodes:



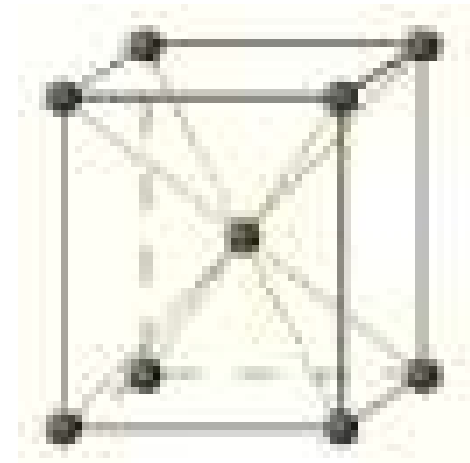
*Primitive
lattice*



Base centered



Face centered



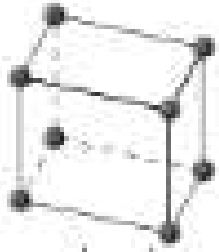
*Body
centered
lattice*

*Face(s) centered
lattices*

A primitive lattice can **always** describe the structure, but in presence of specific elements of symmetry it can be useful to describe the lattice as centered.

Crystal families + centering = 14 Bravais lattices

Triclinic lattice

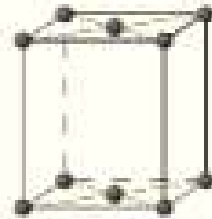


Primitive, P

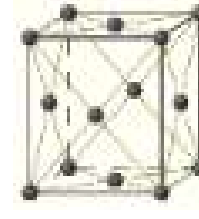
Orthorhombic lattice



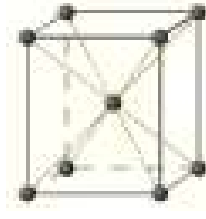
Primitive, P



*Base
centered, C*

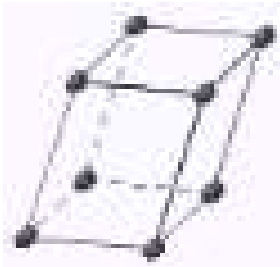


*Face
centered, F*



*Body
centered, I*

Monoclinic lattice

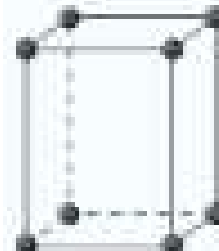


Primitive, P



Base centered, C

Tetragonal lattice

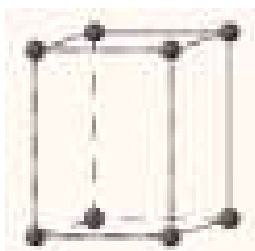


Primitive, P

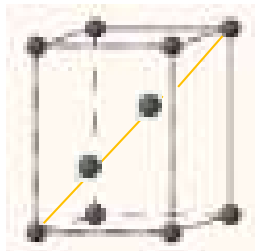


Body centered, I

Hexagonal lattice

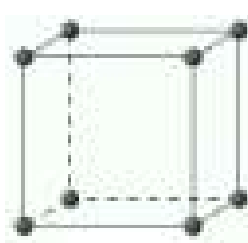


Primitive, P

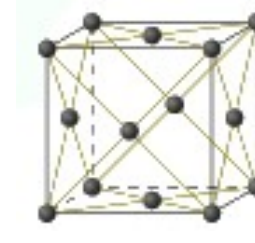


Rhombohedral, R

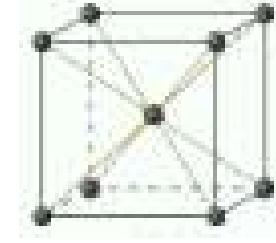
Cubic lattice



Primitive, P



Face centered, F



Body centered, I

Crystal families + centering = 14 Bravais lattices

Triclinic lattice

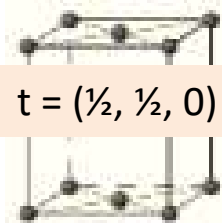


Primitive, P

Orthorhombic lattice

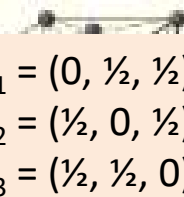


Primitive, P



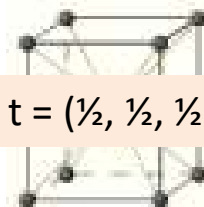
$$t = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0)$$

*Base
centered, C*



$$\begin{aligned} t_1 &= (0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}) \\ t_2 &= (\frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{2}) \\ t_3 &= (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0) \end{aligned}$$

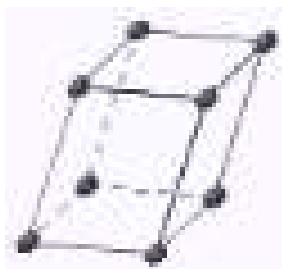
*Face
centered, F*



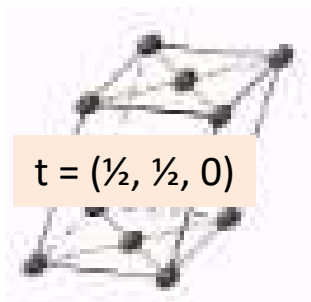
$$t = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$$

*Body
centered, I*

Monoclinic lattice



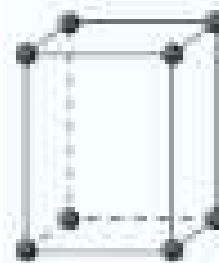
Primitive, P



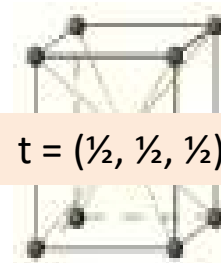
$$t = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0)$$

Base centered, C

Tetragonal lattice



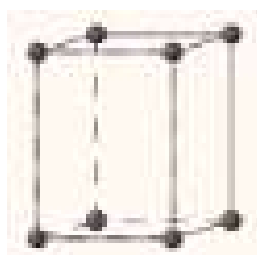
Primitive, P



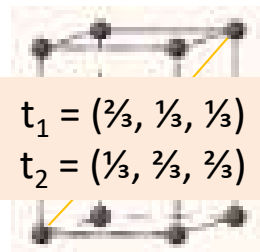
$$t = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$$

Body centered, I

Hexagonal lattice



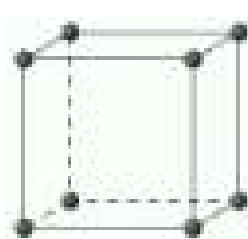
Primitive, P



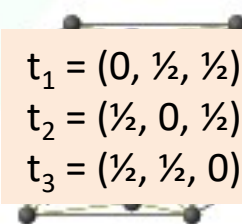
$$\begin{aligned} t_1 &= (\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}) \\ t_2 &= (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}) \end{aligned}$$

Rhombohedral, R

Cubic lattice

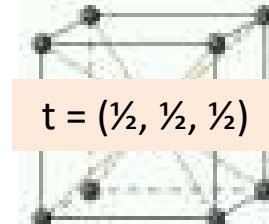


Primitive, P



$$\begin{aligned} t_1 &= (0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}) \\ t_2 &= (\frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{2}) \\ t_3 &= (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0) \end{aligned}$$

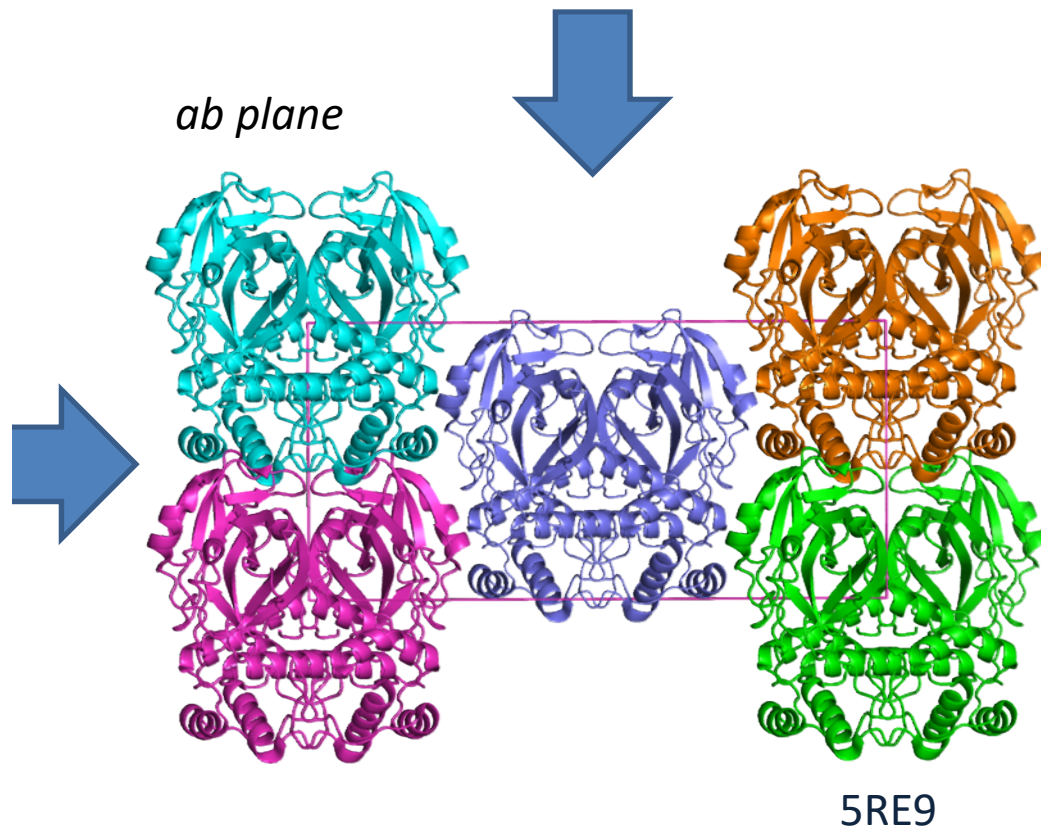
Face centered, F



$$t = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$$

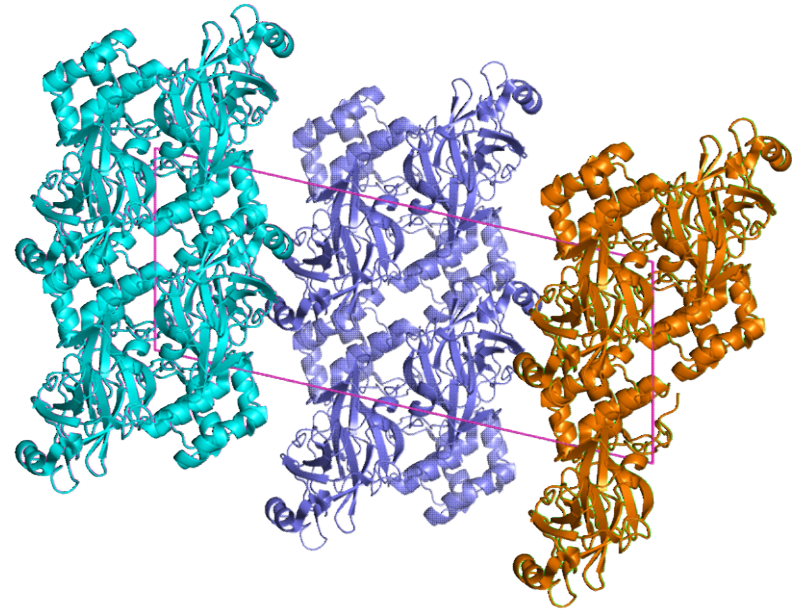
Body centered, I

Case in point: monoclinic C2 lattice

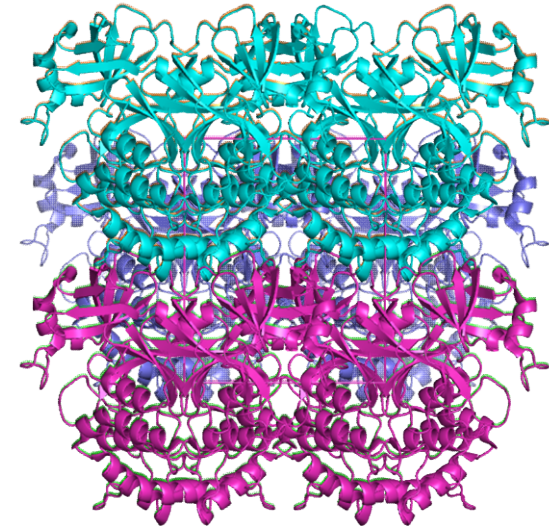


Monoclinic:
 a, b, c
 $\alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ, \beta$

ac plane



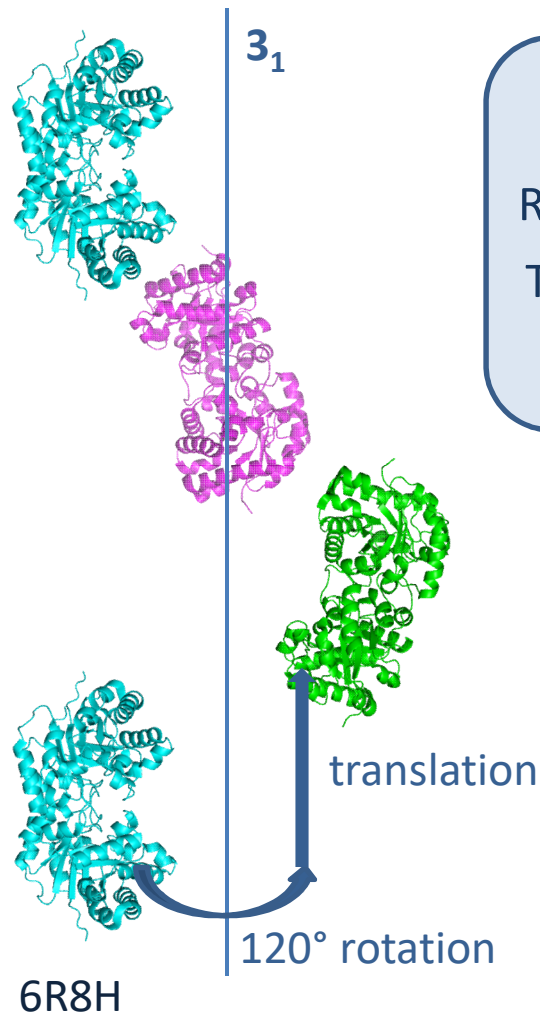
bc plane



Rotation + translation = screw axis

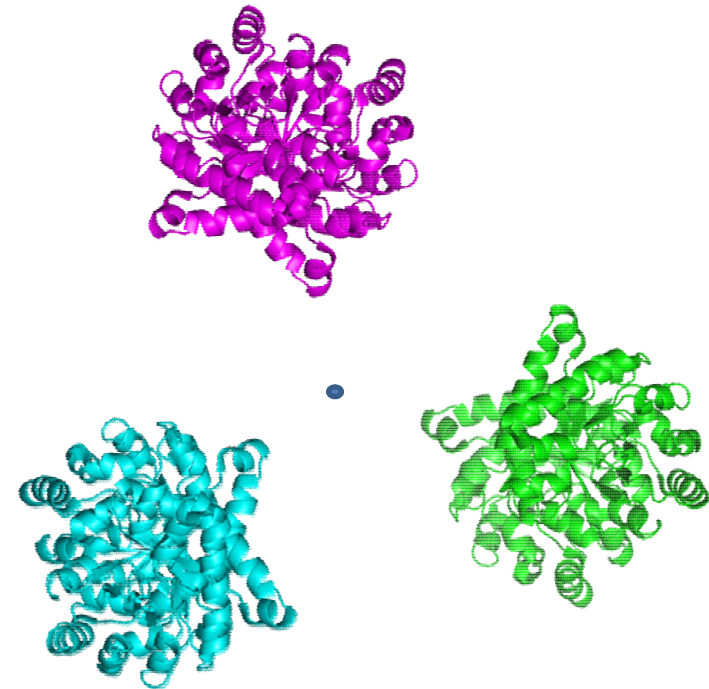
Besides the point group symmetry elements, additional symmetry elements are possible in crystal cells:

- **screw axis** = rotation + translation
- ~~glide planes = mirror + translation~~



Screw axis N_m

Rotation of order N
Translation of m/N
of the unit cell



Screw axis 3_1

Rotation of order 3
Translation of $1/3$ of the unit cell

Symmetry operations

Symmetry operations are represented with specific figures when perpendicular to the plane, or arrows when parallel to the plane of the figure:

	2-fold axis	
	2_1 screw axis	
	3-fold axis	
	3_1 screw axis	<p>Rotation axes</p>
	3_2 screw axis	
	4-fold axis	
	4_1 screw axis	
	4_2 screw axis	
	4_3 screw axis	
	6-fold axis	
	6_1 screw axis	<p>Rototranslation axes</p>
	6_2 screw axis	
	6_3 screw axis	
	6_4 screw axis	
	6_5 screw axis	

Rototranslations
in opposite
directions!

Rototranslations
in opposite
directions!

Fractional coordinates

Each symmetry operation can be represented by:

(1) a square matrix \mathbf{S} and (2) a translation vector \mathbf{t} that transform a generic point \mathbf{x} with coordinates (x,y,z) in its symmetric \mathbf{x}' with coordinates (x',y',z') : $\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{t}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} & S_{13} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} & S_{23} \\ S_{31} & S_{32} & S_{33} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} t_x \\ t_y \\ t_z \end{pmatrix}$$

The coordinate system of this equation, however, is not the orthogonal system in which we describe the atomic structure with distances in Å (i.e. in the pdb file).

The matrices \mathbf{S} and vectors \mathbf{t} are defined in the coordinate system of each specific lattice, i.e. having the x,y,z directions along the translational vectors that define the lattice. In addition, this coordinate system has **fractional coordinates**, that are calculated as fractions of the unit cell parameters in each direction.

Example: the coordinate system of a monoclinic lattice has 2 directions (x and z) that are not perpendicular, but form an angle equal to β .

Transformation: 4-fold axis along c direction of a tetragonal lattice

$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Transformation: 2_1 screw axis along the b direction

$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1/2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Space groups

Space groups are a combination of:

- **point group operations** (inversion center, symmetry axes, mirror planes),
- **symmetry operations involving translations** (screw axes, glide planes),
- **centering translations** (base-, face-, body-centering),
- **lattice translations.**

A space group:

- (1) is a **closed** group (combinations of its elements yield the identity transformation),
- (2) contains the **identity** transformation,
- (3) contains inverse transformations of its elements (**inversion** property),
- (4) contains combinations of its elements (**associativity** property).

In 3D, 230 space groups,
but only 65 for protein structures*

INTERNATIONAL TABLES for CRYSTALLOGRAPHY

Volume
A
Space-group symmetry
Edited by Th. Hahn
Fifth edition

International Tables of Crystallography Volume A

Volume containing information for
each of the 230 space groups:

- Symmetry elements and their position
- Origin choice
- General positions and their multiplicity
- Asymmetric unit
- Systematic absences
- ...

$P2_12_12_1$

No. 19

 D_2^4 $P2_12_12_1$

222

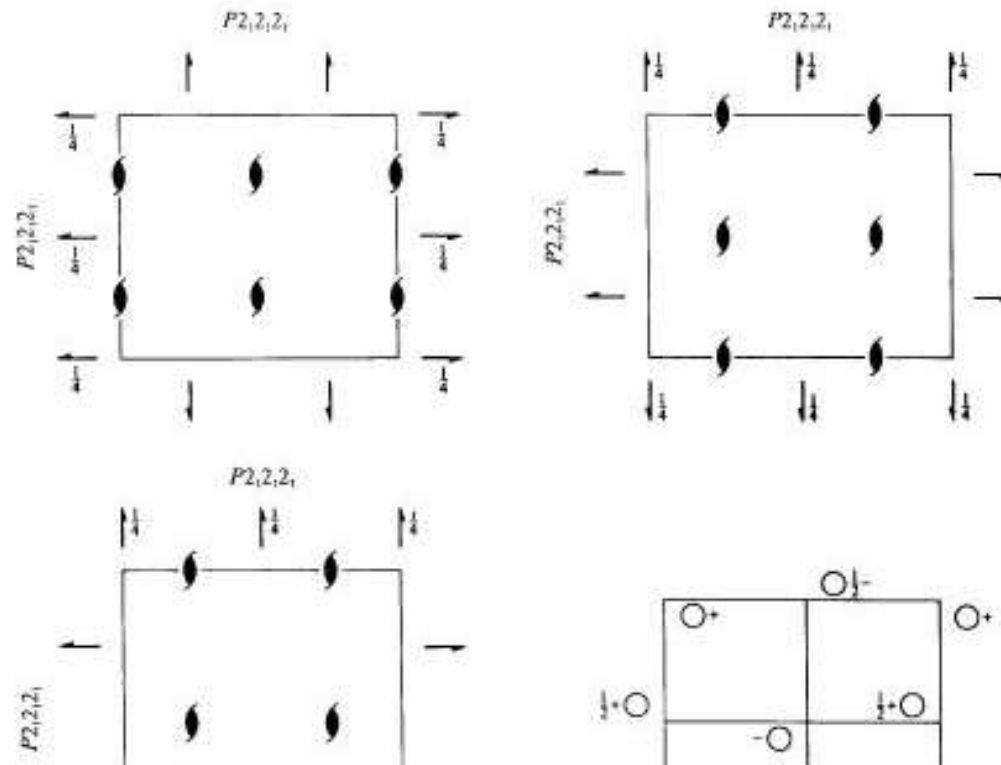
Orthorhombic

Patterson symmetry $Pmmm$

Name: type of
lattice (P) and
symmetry
elements along
the lattice main
axes

Crystal
system and
Patterson
symmetry

Projections of
the unit cell
with symmetry
elements



Origin at midpoint of three non-intersecting pairs of parallel 2_1 axes

Asymmetric unit $0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2}; 0 \leq y \leq \frac{1}{2}; 0 \leq z \leq 1$

Symmetry operations

(1) 1

(2) $2(0, 0, \frac{1}{2}) \quad \frac{1}{2}, 0, z$

(3) $2(0, \frac{1}{2}, 0) \quad 0, y, \frac{1}{2}$

Origin position,
asymmetric unit limits
in fractional
coordinates, symmetry
operations

Generators selected (1); $t(1,0,0)$; $t(0,1,0)$; $t(0,0,1)$; (2); (3)

Positions

Multiplicity,
Wyckoff letter,
Site symmetry

Coordinates

4	<i>a</i>	1	(1) x, y, z	(2) $x + \frac{1}{2}, y, z + \frac{1}{2}$	(3) $x, y + \frac{1}{2}, z + \frac{1}{2}$	(4) $x + \frac{1}{2}, y + \frac{1}{2}, z$
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Symmetry
equivalents for
a generic point
in fractional
coordinates

Reflection conditions

General:

$$h00 : h = 2n$$

$$0k0 : k = 2n$$

$$00l : l = 2n$$

Reflections
allowed by
systematic
absences

$P4_32_12$

D_4^8

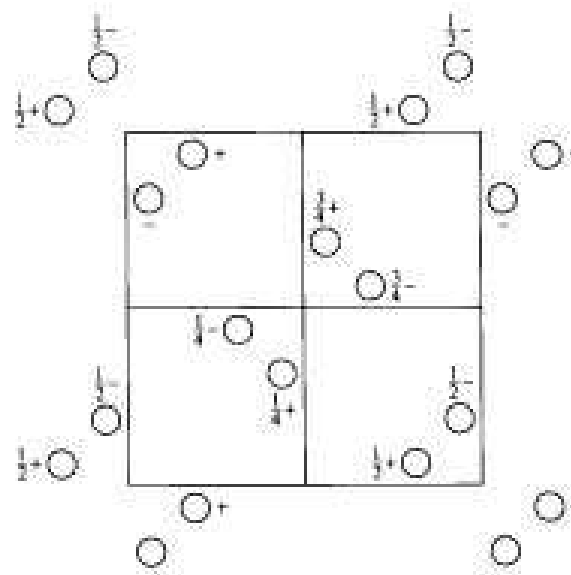
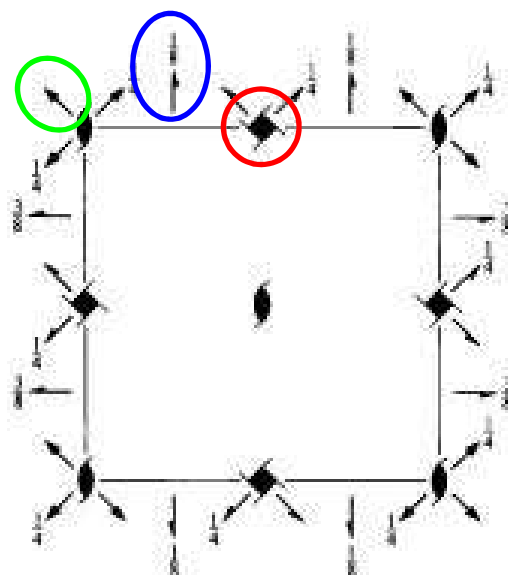
422

Tetragonal

No. 96

$P4_32_12$

Patterson symmetry $P4/mmm$



Origin on $2[110]$ at $2, 1(1, 2)$

Asymmetric unit $0 \leq x \leq 1; 0 \leq y \leq 1; 0 \leq z \leq \frac{1}{2}$

Symmetry operations

- | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| (1) 1 | (2) $2(0, 0, \frac{1}{2})$ $0, 0, z$ | (3) $4^+(0, 0, \frac{1}{2})$ $0, \frac{1}{2}, z$ | (4) $4^-(0, 0, \frac{1}{2})$ $\frac{1}{2}, 0, z$ |
| (5) $2(0, \frac{1}{2}, 0)$ $\frac{1}{2}, y, \frac{1}{2}$ | (6) $2(\frac{1}{2}, 0, 0)$ $x, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}$ | (7) 2 $x, x, 0$ | (8) 2 $x, x, \frac{1}{2}$ |

Enantiomorphic space groups

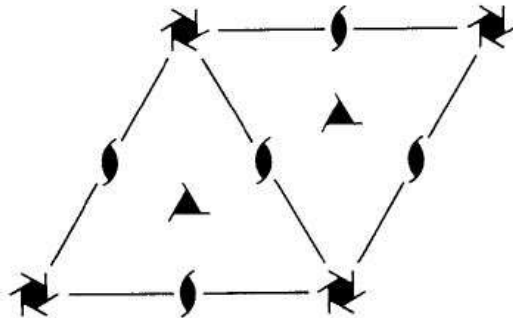
Enantiomorphic space groups, with screw axis in opposite directions:

$P6_1$

No. 169

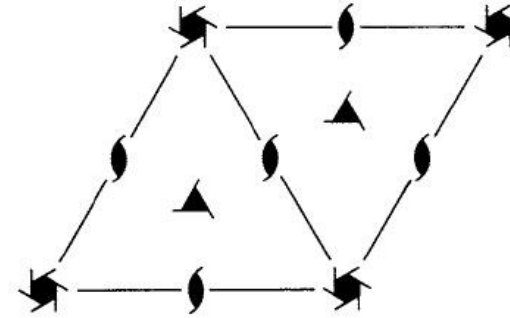
C_6^2

$P6_1$



$P6_5$

No. 170



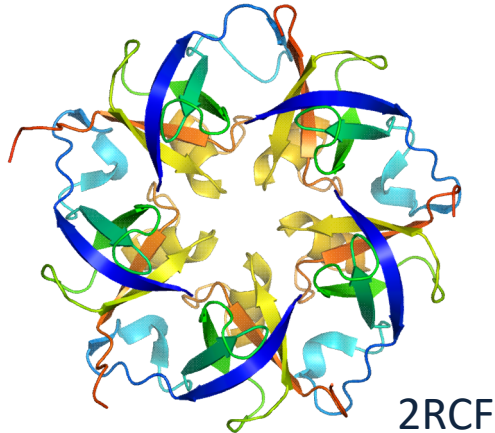
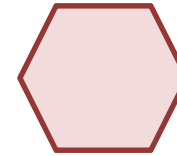
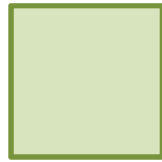
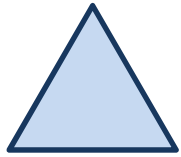
Enantiomorphic pairs:

(tetragonal) $P4_1$ and $P4_3$, $P4_1 2 2$ and $P4_3 2 2$, $P4_1 2_1 2$ and $P4_3 2_1 2$, $I4_3 2 2$, ...

(hexagonal) $P3_1$ and $P3_2$, $P3_1 2 1$ and $P3_2 2 1$, $P3_1 1 2$ and $P3_2 1 2$, $P6_1$ and $P6_5$,

$P6_1 2 2$ and $P6_5 2 2$, $P6_2$ and $P6_4$, $P6_2 2 2$ and $P6_4 2 2$

(cubic) $P4_1 3 2$ and $P4_3 3 2$.



Non-crystallographic symmetry

Besides the symmetry elements of the space group, other symmetry elements may occur in a crystal structure, including symmetry elements not allowed by the lattice periodicity (e.g. 5-fold axes, 7-fold axes, ...).

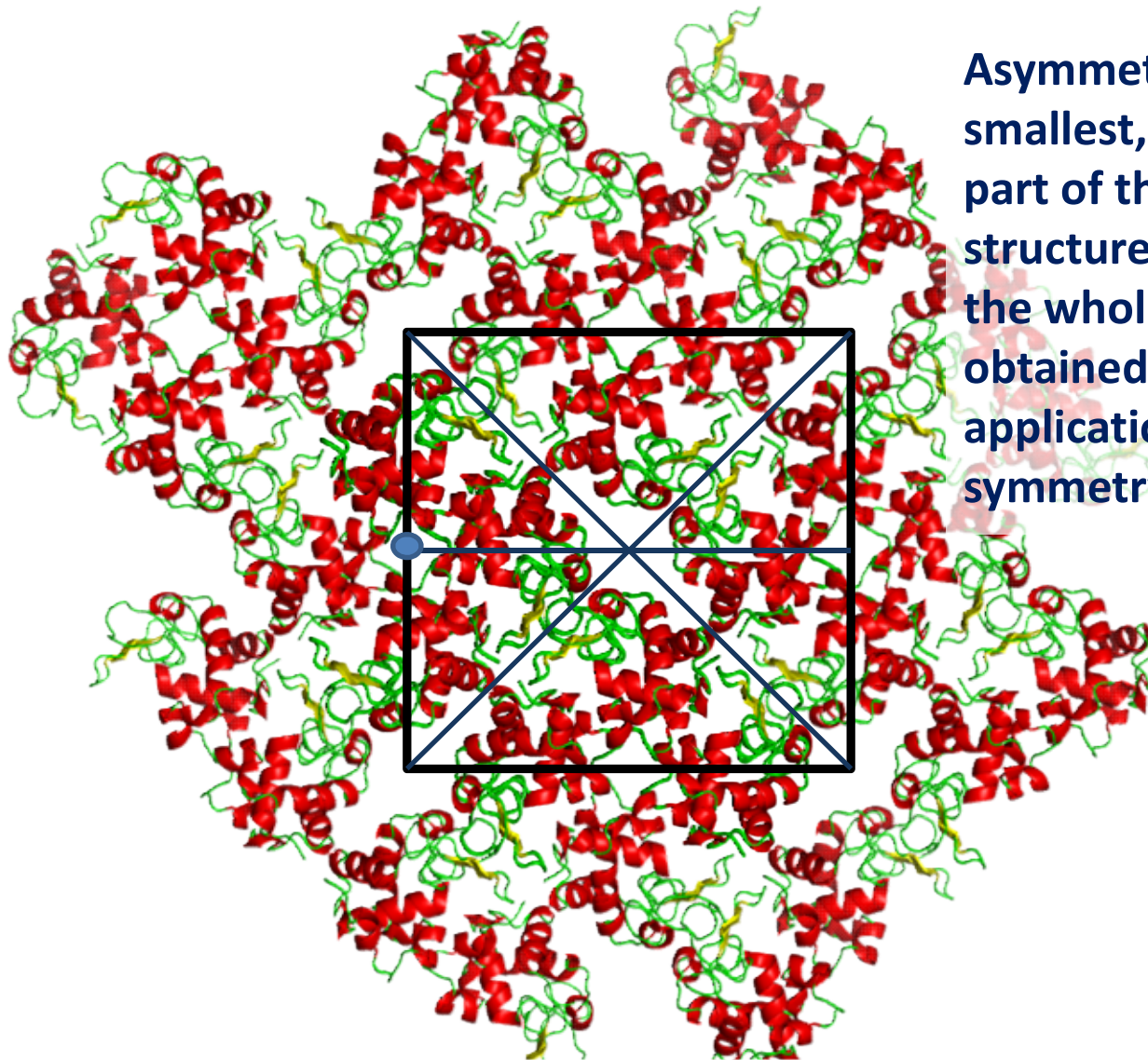
They are called Non-Crystallographic Symmetry (NCS).

Two protein chains related by NCS are crystallographically independent and both belong to the asymmetric unit. Usually, NCS is not perfect.

Asymmetric unit

Lysozyme (pdb: 193L):

tetragonal lattice, space group $P 4_3 2_1 2$, unit cell $a = 78.54 \text{ \AA}$, $c = 37.77 \text{ \AA}$



Asymmetric units:
smallest, independent
part of the crystals
structure, from which
the whole structure is
obtained upon
application of the
symmetry operations

pdb file

The pdb file contains:

- atomic Cartesian coordinates only of the asymmetric unit, in Å and in an orthogonal system (**ATOM** cards),
- lattice informations, i.e. unit cell dimensions ($a, b, c, \alpha, \beta, \gamma$) in Å and °, and space group symbol and number (**CRYST** card)
- transformation matrix from Cartesian (orthogonal) coordinates in Å to fractional coordinates in the specific crystallographic system (**SCALE** card)

SITE	1	AC3	5	GLY	A	142	TRP	A	143	ASN	A	144	ASN	A	145	
SITE	2	AC3	5	GLN	A	148										
CRYST1	76.465		98.869			79.516	90.00		93.49	90.00	C	1	2	1		4
ORIGX1		1.000000		0.000000			0.000000				0.000000					
ORIGX2		0.000000		1.000000			0.000000				0.000000					
ORIGX3		0.000000		0.000000			1.000000				0.000000					
SCALE1		0.013078		0.000000			0.000798				0.000000					
SCALE2		0.000000		0.010114			0.000000				0.000000					
SCALE3		0.000000		0.000000			0.012599				0.000000					
ATOM	1	N	SER	A	6		-28.148	4.590	-7.800	1.00113.33						N
ATOM	2	CA	SER	A	6		-26.785	4.701	-7.207	1.00115.91						C
ATOM	3	C	SER	A	6		-26.419	6.159	-6.970	1.00114.54						C
ATOM	4	O	SER	A	6		-26.103	6.886	-7.915	1.00110.10						O
ATOM	5	CB	SER	A	6		-25.744	4.037	-8.113	1.00116.34						C

How to apply crystal symmetry with Pymol?

When opening a pdb file with the software Pymol, only the asymmetric unit appears. However, often the asymmetric unit is NOT the biologically active assembly. In addition, analysis of packing may be important to detect crystal artifacts.

The whole lattice can be reconstructed from (1) the contents of the asymmetric unit, (2) the unit cell parameters and (3) the space group (i. e., information about the symmetry of the unit cell).

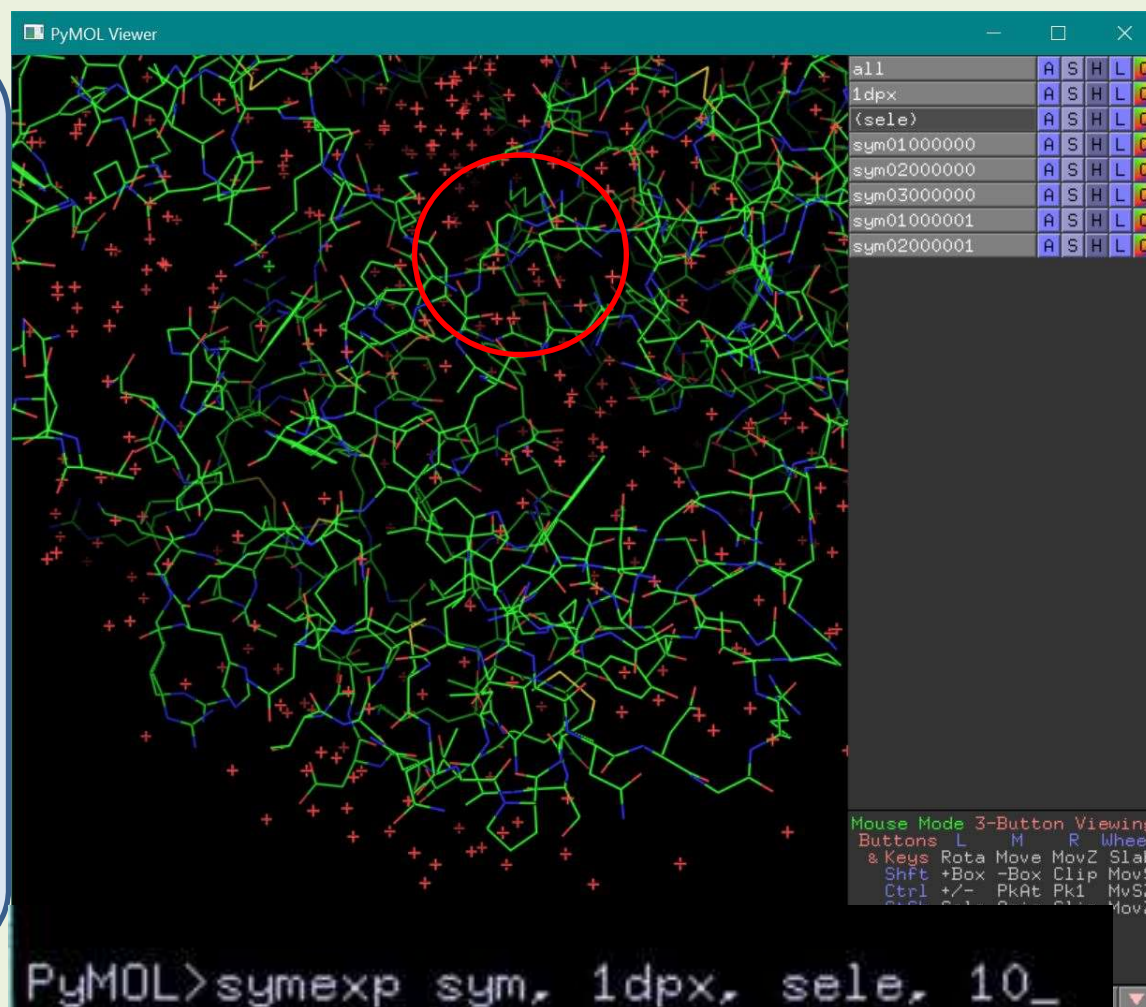
CRYST1	76.465	98.869	79.516	90.00	93.49	90.00	C 1 2 1	4	
ORIGX1	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000				
ORIGX2	0.000000	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000				
ORIGX3	0.000000	0.000000	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000				
SCALE1	0.013078	0.000000	0.000798	0.000000	0.000000				
SCALE2	0.000000	0.010114	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000				
SCALE3	0.000000	0.000000	0.012599	0.000000	0.000000				
ATOM	1	N	SER A	6	-28.148	4.590	-7.800	1.00113.33	N
ATOM	2	CA	SER A	6	-26.785	4.701	-7.207	1.00115.91	C
ATOM	3	C	SER A	6	-26.419	6.159	-6.970	1.00114.54	C
ATOM	4	O	SER A	6	-26.103	6.886	-7.915	1.00110.10	O
ATOM	5	CB	SER A	6	-25.744	4.037	-8.113	1.00116.34	C
ATOM	6	OG	SER A	6	-26.087	2.689	-8.379	1.00121.40	O
ATOM	7	N	SER A	7	-26.458	6.572	-5.703	1.00116.37	N
ATOM	8	CA	SER A	7	-26.153	7.952	-5.306	1.00112.95	C
ATOM	9	C	SER A	7	-24.758	8.391	-5.751	1.00109.79	C
ATOM	10	O	SER A	7	-24.497	9.586	-5.902	1.00104.20	O
ATOM	11	CB	SER A	7	-26.313	8.125	-3.794	1.00113.79	C
ATOM	12	OG	SER A	7	-25.474	7.228	-3.088	1.00117.64	O

How to apply crystal symmetry with Pymol?

The command *symexp* instructs the program to retrieve the information requires and show on the screen the symmetric molecules within a certain distance from a center.

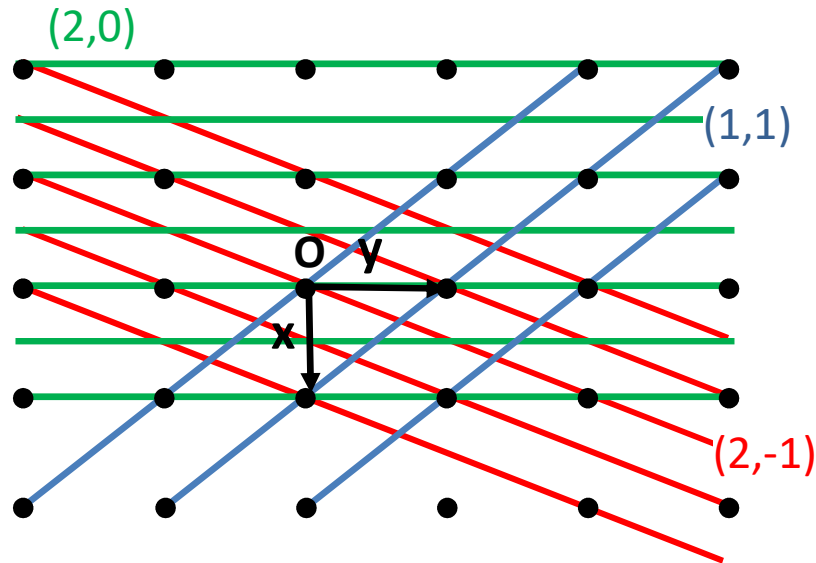
- 1) Open pdb file (1dpx.pdb, lysozyme)
- 2) Select an area of the structure for which crystal contacts should be analyzed (Arg residues on the surface)
- 3) Create a sphere with **radius n** (10) of the symmetric molecules around the **selected position** (center of sphere = sele) as new **objects** (name = sym), according to the symmetry elements present in the **original pdb file** (object name = 1dpx). Command:

```
symexp sym, 1dpx, sele, 10
```



Miller indices

Crystal lattice: described in the real space (coordinates x, y, z)



In the real space of the crystal lattice, we can define **families of parallel planes**.

To identify this planes, we can use the **Miller indices (h,k)** :

starting from the origin of the lattice and moving in a lattice direction, we can count the number of planes until the next node.

For the blue set of planes: the first Miller index (in x direction) is 1, the second is 1.

For the red set of planes: the first Miller index is 2, the second is -1.

For the green set of planes: the first Miller index is 2, the second is 0.

Which of the families has the shorter distance d between planes?

The distance between planes depends on the Miller indices: planes with higher Miller indices have shorter distances.

From the real to the reciprocal lattice

The **reciprocal lattice** is a mathematical construction, but it is useful to describe diffraction phenomena.

Reciprocal lattice: described in the reciprocal space by the Miller indices (h,k,l) .

The origin of the lattice is common to the real lattice.

Reciprocal lattice dimensions: $a^* = 1/a, b^* = 1/b, c^* = 1/c$

Direction of the reciprocal lattice base vectors: $\mathbf{a}^* \perp \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{a}^* \perp \mathbf{c}$

$\mathbf{b}^* \perp \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}^* \perp \mathbf{c}$

$\mathbf{c}^* \perp \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c}^* \perp \mathbf{b}$

A family of planes in real space can be described by a vector \mathbf{d}^* in reciprocal space.

The vector \mathbf{d}^* is obtained by the combination of the Miller indices and the base vectors of the lattice: $\mathbf{d}^* = h\mathbf{a}^* + k\mathbf{b}^* + l\mathbf{c}^*$.

The modulus of \mathbf{d}^* is: $d^* = 1/d$, with d distance between planes of the family in the real space.

(For an orthogonal system: $d_{hkl} = \sqrt{\frac{a^2}{h^2} + \frac{b^2}{k^2} + \frac{c^2}{l^2}}$)