

Chemical Crystallography and Structural Chemistry

VO 270287

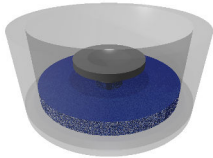
Lecture N° 2 — 11th March 2021

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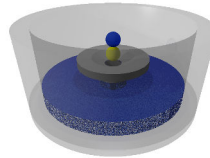
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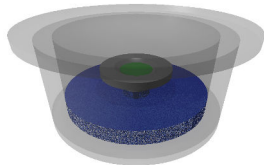
ad Crystallisation with vapour diffusion



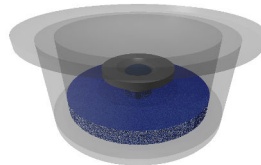
Well with mother liquor (ML) with precipitant



Mix ML with compound solution
($V_{\text{drop}}=1 \mu\text{l}+1 \mu\text{l}$)



Seal well ($V_{\text{drop}}=2 \mu\text{l}$)



After equilibration: $V_{\text{drop}}=1 \mu\text{l}$

ad Crystallisation with vapour diffusion

1. Compound dissolved in 100 % isopropanol, concentration c
2. Mother liquor: 90 % isopropanol, 10 % water

Setup procedure

	Volume	H_2O	<i>i</i> -PrOH	conc ⁿ	soluble?
before	1 μ l	0 %	100 %	c	yes
mixing	2 μ l	5 %	95 %	$c/2$	yes
equilibration	1 μ l	10 %	90 %	c	no

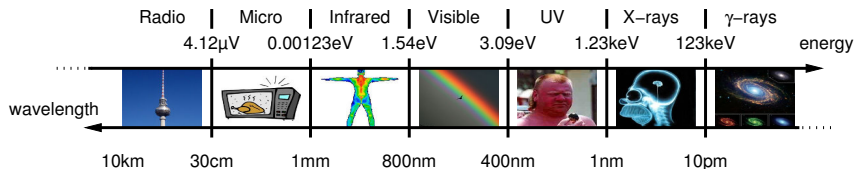
Remarks

- composition of mother liquor fine tunes end state
- insoluble compound precipitates
- slow diffusion enhances crystallization

1 X-rays and Diffraction

X-rays as electromagnetic radiation

X-rays are one type electromagnetic radiation — like visible light, UV-radiation, or radio waves



- Energy E and wavelength λ are equivalent ($E = h\frac{c}{\lambda} = 12.4 \text{ keV}\text{\AA}/\lambda$):
- Long wavelength $\lambda \leftrightarrow$ low energy E .
- Short wavelength $\lambda \leftrightarrow$ high Energie E .

X-rays as electromagnetic radiation

- Typical wavelength range for structure determination: 0.5-2 Å (24.8 - 6.2 keV).
- Inhouse X-ray instruments:

CuK_{α} : 1.54 Å \leftrightarrow 8.0 keV

MoK_{α} : 0.71 Å \leftrightarrow 17.3 keV

AgK_{α} : 0.56 Å \leftrightarrow 22.1 keV

WK_{α} : 0.21 Å \leftrightarrow 59.3 keV (medical applications)

- 1 Å = 10^{-10} m = 100 pm

Generation of X-rays

1. **X-ray fluorescence** (mainly laboratory sources) electron beam at specific energy hits metal surface (Cu or Mo). This creates
 - a) Bremsstrahlung (background)
 - b) X-ray fluorescence

Examples: rotating anode, liquid jet anode

2. **Synchrotron radiation** Acceleration of electron bunches in a magnetic field

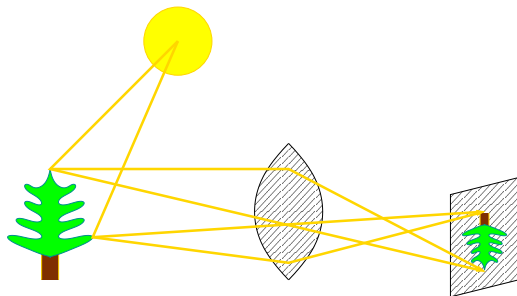
Why X-rays?

Atom distances of molecules about 1–2 Å: required resolution d

Optical instruments are limited in resolution to $d > \lambda/2$ (later: derivation *via* Bragg's law)

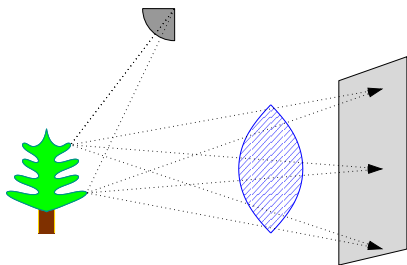
2 Why Crystals?

Optics and Imaging (Microscope / Telescope)



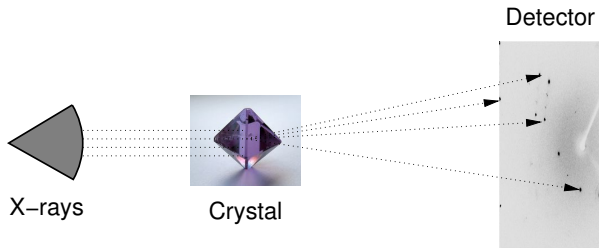
Objects scatter light. In order to see the object, the scattered light must be focused by **at least** one lens

X-ray Scattering



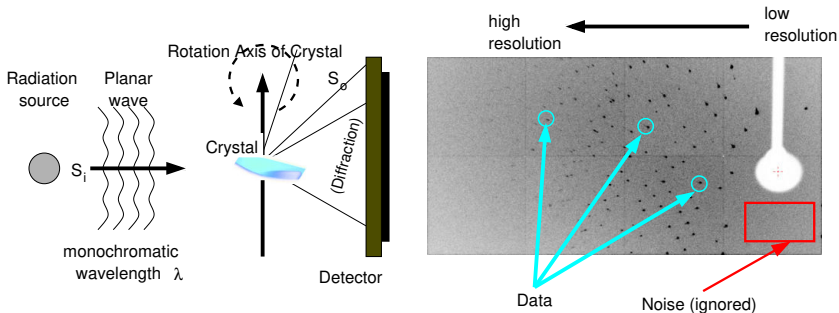
X-ray lenses do not exist: It is not possible to create a direct image of an object with X-rays.

X-ray Scattering by Crystals: Diffraction



The periodicity of the crystal results in a focussing of the scattered X-rays into **discrete spots**. The spots (reflections) can be measured without lenses. The crystal acts like a signal amplifier.

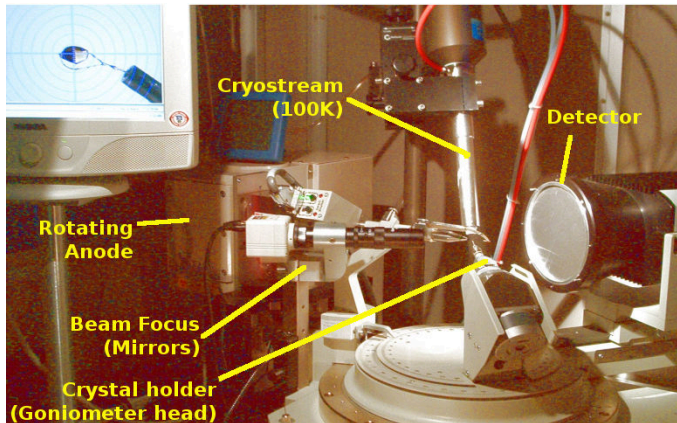
The X-ray Diffraction Experiment



The crystal diffracts X-rays. This creates a **diffraction pattern** recorded by the detector.

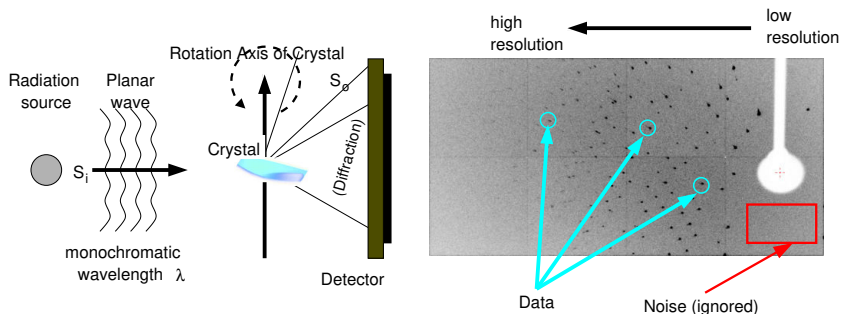
The reflection spots are not images of the atoms

Typical laboratory X-ray Diffractometer



3 Data Collection

Data collection experiment



Reflections are data point. Each one contains different information. In order to collect as many data points as possible:

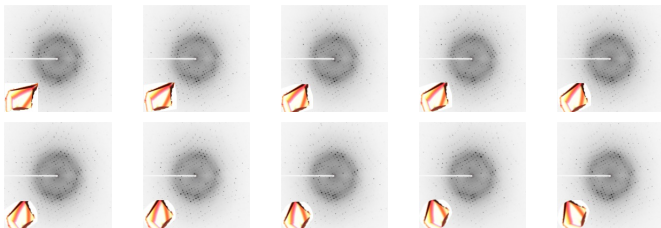
1. Rotation of the crystal (about one of three different axes, called ϕ -, ω -, and χ -circles)).
2. Rotation of the detector around the crystal, called 2θ -circle. This is parallel to the ω -circle).

The Data Set

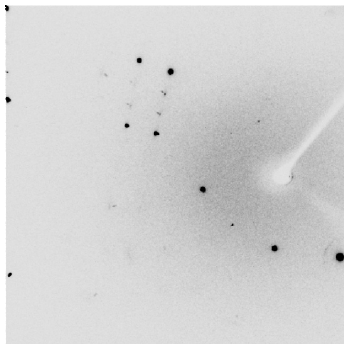
The reflections can be described as three dimensional **reciprocal lattice**. The two dimensional detector records an intersection of the three dimensional lattice.

The full experiment results in a **data set**.

One data set consists of several runs (1–20). One run is the rotation of the crystal about a single axis. Per run, 180–2,000 **frames** are recorded. One frame corresponds typically to $0.1^\circ - 1^\circ$ rotation of the crystal.

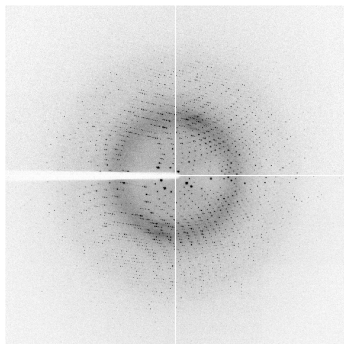


Examples of Data Frames



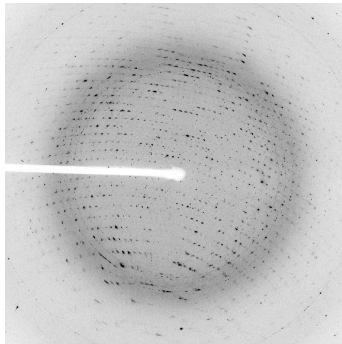
- Small molecule, unit cell dimensions:
 $a = 10.56\text{Å}$, $b = 11.64\text{Å}$, $c = 16.14\text{Å}$, $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$
- Small unit cell: \Rightarrow few reflections
- Reflections beyond edge of detector:
 $\rightarrow 2\theta$ offset of detector necessary
- black reflections = data; grey regions: noise, neglectable

Examples of Data Frames



- Macromolecule. unit cell dimensions: $a = 92.6\text{\AA}$, $b = 92.6\text{\AA}$, $c = 128.9\text{\AA}$, $\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$, $\gamma = 120^\circ$
- Many more reflections
- Reflexes form patterns (lunes, “Kugeldreiecke”)
- Intensity reduces towards edge of detector

Examples of Data Frames



- Macromolecule. unit cell dimensions: $a = 111.7\text{\AA}$, $b = 80.5\text{\AA}$, $c = 70.3\text{\AA}$, $\alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ$, $\beta = 94.2^\circ$
- smeared reflexes
- ice rings (formed during measurement, or due to poor shock-freezing conditions)
- Closer look: small spots between “patterns”: twinned crystal, not a single crystal.

4 Objectives of a Crystal Structure

Why Crystal Structure Determination?

The Structure provides atom coordinates: arrangement of elements in 3D space

Organic Chemistry:

- Success (or failure) of synthesis
- Determination of absolute structure
- Polymorphism: different crystal packing of the same compound

Inorganic Chemistry:

- Bonding geometry, coordination geometry (of metals ...)
- Polymorphism: different crystal packing of the same compound
- Space group determination: space group symmetry relates to electro-optical properties (thermal expansion, piezo-material, ...)

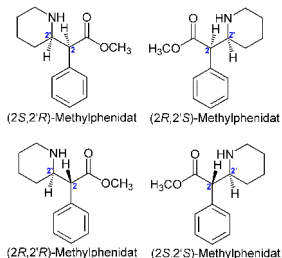
Comparison with other Structural Methods

NMR : chemical environment, sum formula. Not absolute structure

Rotational spectroscopy: (and gas phase electron diffraction): bond distances (**much more precise** than crystal structure)

Crystallography : Virtually no size limit (protein complexes > 1.5 MDa; differentiation of element types)

Examples: Absolute structure and degree of purity [1]

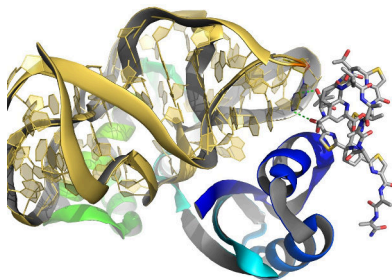


<http://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Methylphenidat>

The crystal structure is the only method to determine the absolute structure and the degree of purity of mixtures.

- Methylphenidate (*alias* Ritalin): medication to treat Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD).
- Two chiral centres, *four* stereoisomers
- Typical: only one stereoisomer with desired effect.
- Remaining stereoisomers: side effects

Structure based Drug Development



The antibiotic *Thiostrepton* together with its target DNA. Dr. K. Pröpper.

Knowledge of structure of ligand and target:

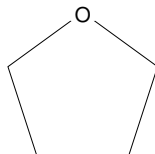
- Improvement of chemical interaction
- Improvement of shape / surface: Functionality and access to cell or nucleus.
- Uptake in body (cf. <http://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Insulinpräparat>)

5 Crystal Diffraction: Why do crystals produce reflections?

Independent Atom Model (IAM)

Crystal structure determination is based on the **independent atom model (IAM)**:

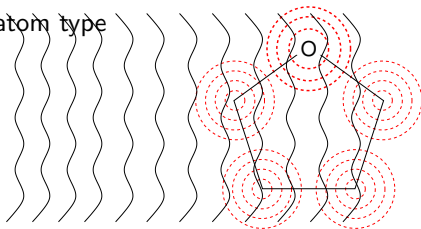
- the molecule consists of spherical atoms



Independent Atom Model (IAM)

Crystal structure determination is based on the **independent atom model (IAM)**:

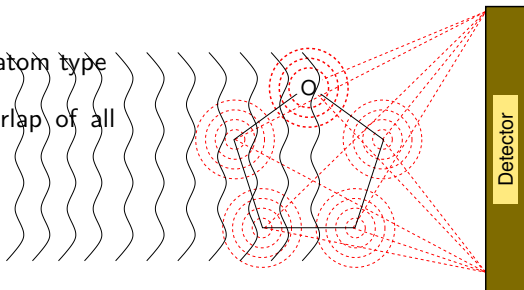
- the molecule consists of spherical atoms
- upon irradiation, each atom re-emits a small spherical wave independently from the others
- the strength depends on the atom type



Independent Atom Model (IAM)

Crystal structure determination is based on the **independent atom model (IAM)**:

- the molecule consists of spherical atoms
- upon irradiation, each atom re-emits a small spherical wave independently from the others
- the strength depends on the atom type
- the detector records the overlap of all (tiny) waves

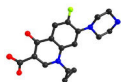


Independent Atom Model (IAM)

- every atom emits a tiny signal
- individual molecules are too weak to detect
- the crystal **amplifies** the signal

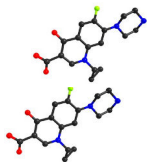
To understand, we introduce the **unit cell** and the **crystal lattice**.

The Unit Cell



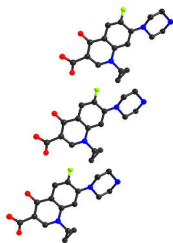
“Periodicity of the
unit cell”?

The Unit Cell



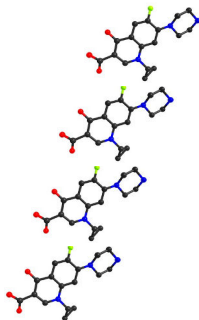
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The Unit Cell



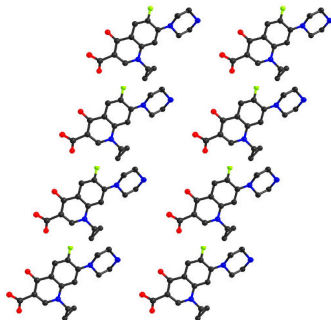
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The Unit Cell



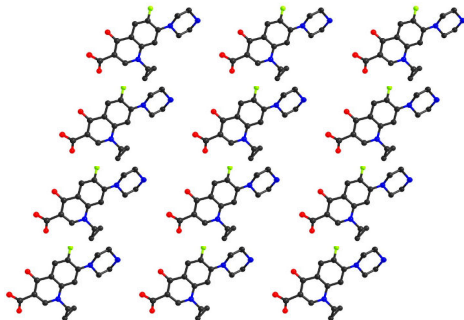
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The Unit Cell



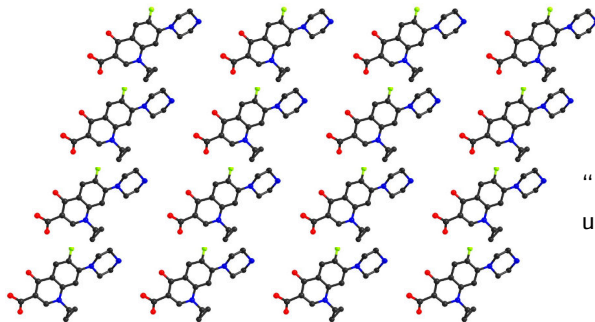
“Periodicity of the unit cell”?

The Unit Cell



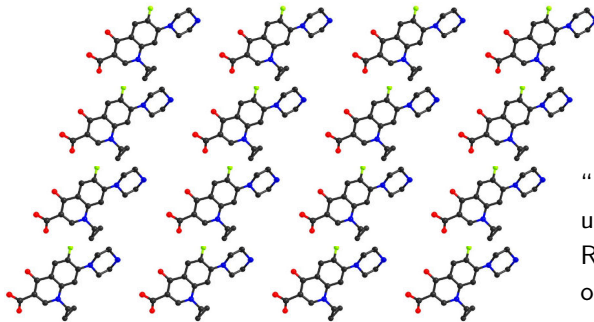
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The Unit Cell



“Periodicity of the unit cell”?

The Unit Cell

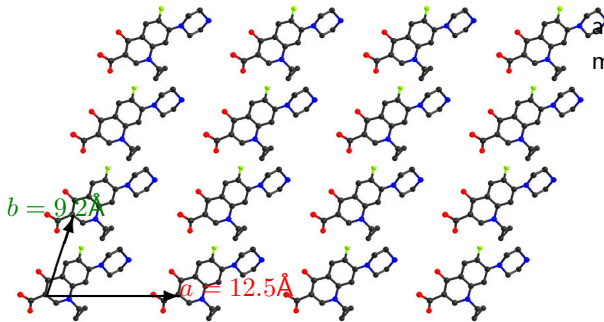


“Periodicity of the unit cell”:
Regular repetition
of the molecule

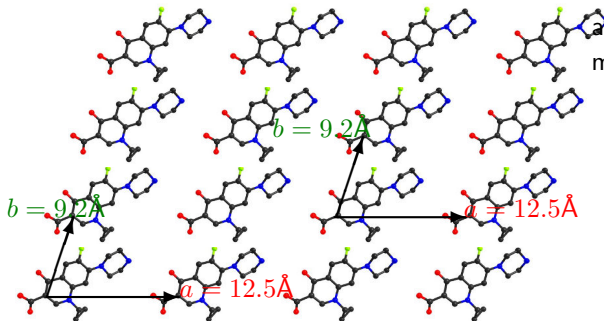
The Unit Cell

Periodicity of the unit cell:

Connect two equivalent atoms in two equivalent molecules



The Unit Cell

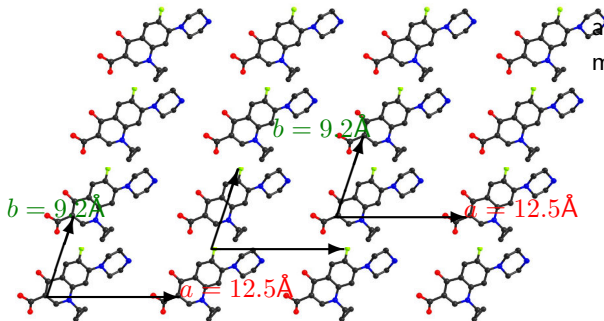


Periodicity of the unit cell:
connect

two equivalent atoms in two equivalent molecules

- connection can be shifted throughout the crystal

The Unit Cell

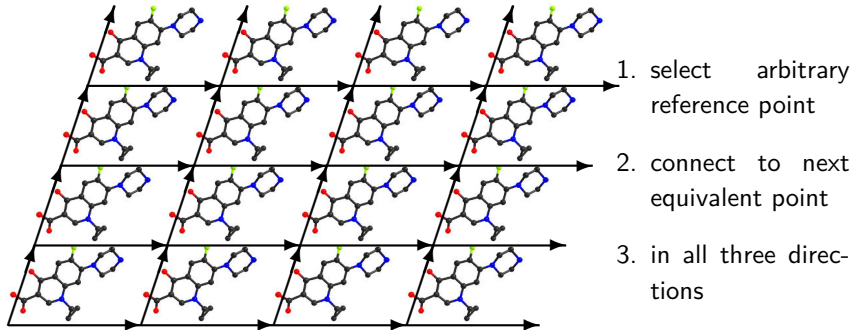


Periodicity of the unit cell:

Connect two equivalent atoms in two equivalent molecules

- connection can be shifted throughout the crystal
- can be any atom

The Unit Cell



This results in the **crystal lattice**. The smallest parallelepiped (smallest box) forms the **unit cell** of the crystal.

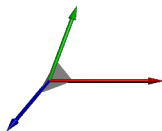
The Unit Cell

A three-dimensional box requires six parameters:

- unit cell constants a, b, c (edge lengths)
- angles between the edges

$$\alpha = \angle(b, c) \qquad \beta = \angle(c, a) \qquad \gamma = \angle(a, b)$$

- constants and angles are independent from the orientation of the crystal
- when written as vectors $\vec{a}, \vec{b}, \vec{c}$, they also describe the orientation of the crystal with respect to the instrument.



The convention **a: red**, **b: green**, **c: blue** comes from computer graphics, where colours are described as *rgb*.

Fractional Coordinates

Atom coordinates are often described with *fractional coordinates*.

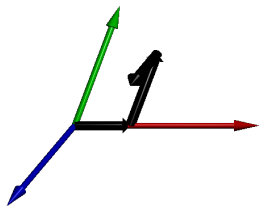
Every position in the crystal has unique coordinates (x, y, z)

$$x * \vec{a} + y * \vec{b} + z * \vec{c}$$

(x, y, z) are called the **fractional coordinates** of this position.

For any position *inside* the unit cell:

$$0 \leq x, y, z \leq 1.$$



The position $(0.3, 0.6, 0.5)$.

Fractional Coordinates

Atom coordinates are often described with *fractional coordinates*.

Every position in the crystal has unique coordinates (x, y, z)

$$x * \vec{a} + y * \vec{b} + z * \vec{c}$$

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For any position *inside* the unit cell:

$$0 \leq x, y, z \leq 1.$$

Fraction coordinates facilitate the use of symmetry operators. They are normally used in crystallographic computing.

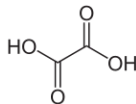
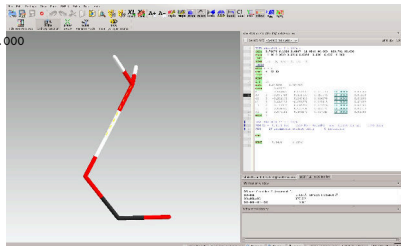
- SHELXL ins-files always use fractional coordinates.
- Macromolecular PDB-files use orthogonal coordinates.

Example: ins-file for Oxalic Acid

```

TITL Oxalic Acid in P 1 21/n 1
CELL 0.71073 6.1026 3.4867 11.9540 90.000 105.791 90.000
ZERR 4.00 0.0020 0.0016 0.0036 0.000 0.027 0.000
LATT 1
SYMM 1/2 - X, 1/2 + Y, 1/2 - Z
SFAC C H O
UNIT 4 12 12
LIST 6
RIGU
L.S. 10
WGHT 0.0180 1.3244
FVAR 0.09892
C1 1 -0.045033 0.058931 0.051985 11.00000 0.00919
O3 3 -0.048452 0.131974 0.321439 11.00000 0.01180
O2 3 -0.221285 0.243842 0.036277 11.00000 0.01151
O1 3 0.085162 -0.055871 0.150165 11.00000 0.01216
H3 2 -0.142238 -0.045413 0.350385 11.00000 0.02677
H1 2 0.023619 0.022591 0.223012 11.00000 0.02363
H2 2 0.079486 0.197530 0.387391 11.00000 0.02464
HKLF 4
END

```

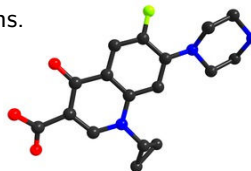


Summary: The Unit Cell

The crystal structure is described by

1. the unit cell parameters $a, b, c, \alpha, \beta, \gamma$
2. positions and element types of the atoms inside the unit cell

The whole crystal is the result of integer translations (= shifts without gaps or overlaps) of the unit cell in all three directions.



References

- [1] E. J. Ariëns. 'Stereochemistry, a basis for sophisticated nonsense in pharmacokinetics and clinical pharmacology'. In: *Eur. J. Clin. Pharmacol.* 26 (1984), pp. 663–668.