

# Those from whom I stole

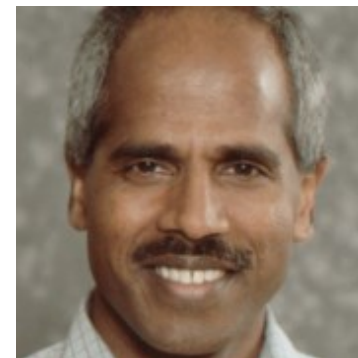
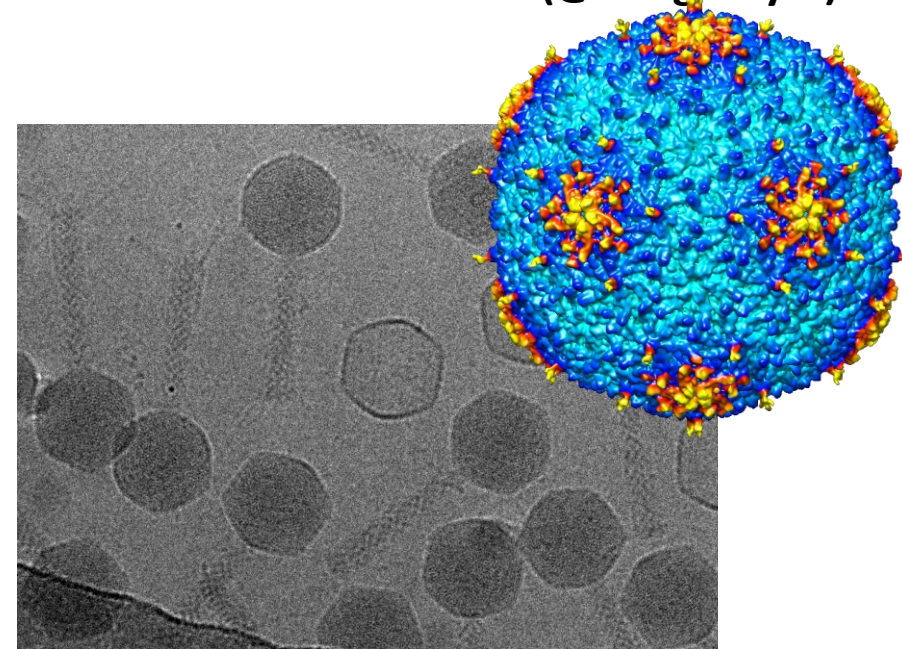
Research in the Parent lab (@Phage4Lyfe)



Dr. Kristin Parent  
("KP", course coordinator)



Dr. Sundharraman Subramanian  
("Sundhar")



Dr. Kaillathe Padmanabhan  
("Pappan")



# Trivial, But Important: Size Matters

1 nm =  $1 \times 10^{-9}$  meter = one billionth of a meter

1 nm = 10 Å (Ångstrom)

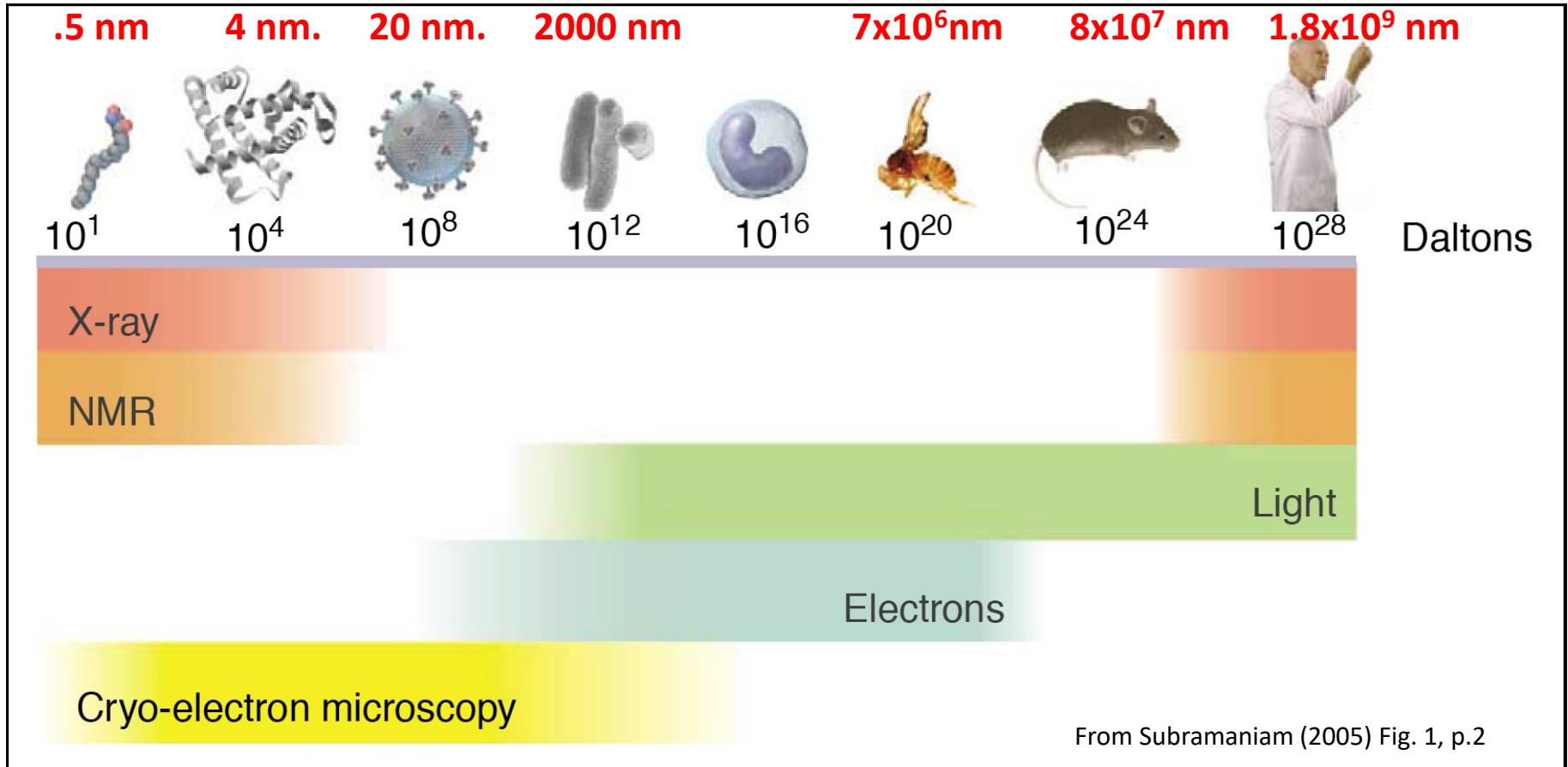
1  $\mu\text{m}$  =  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  meter

1  $\mu\text{m}$  = 1000 nm

1  $\mu\text{m}$  = 10,000 Å

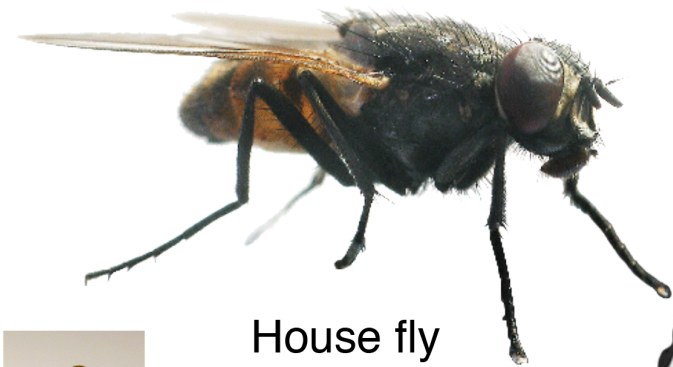


# Trivial, But Important: Size Matters



# How big/little specimens really are

Scale: 27  
128X



House fly



Needle and  
thread



5.0 mm

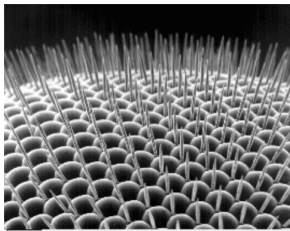


# How big/little specimens really are

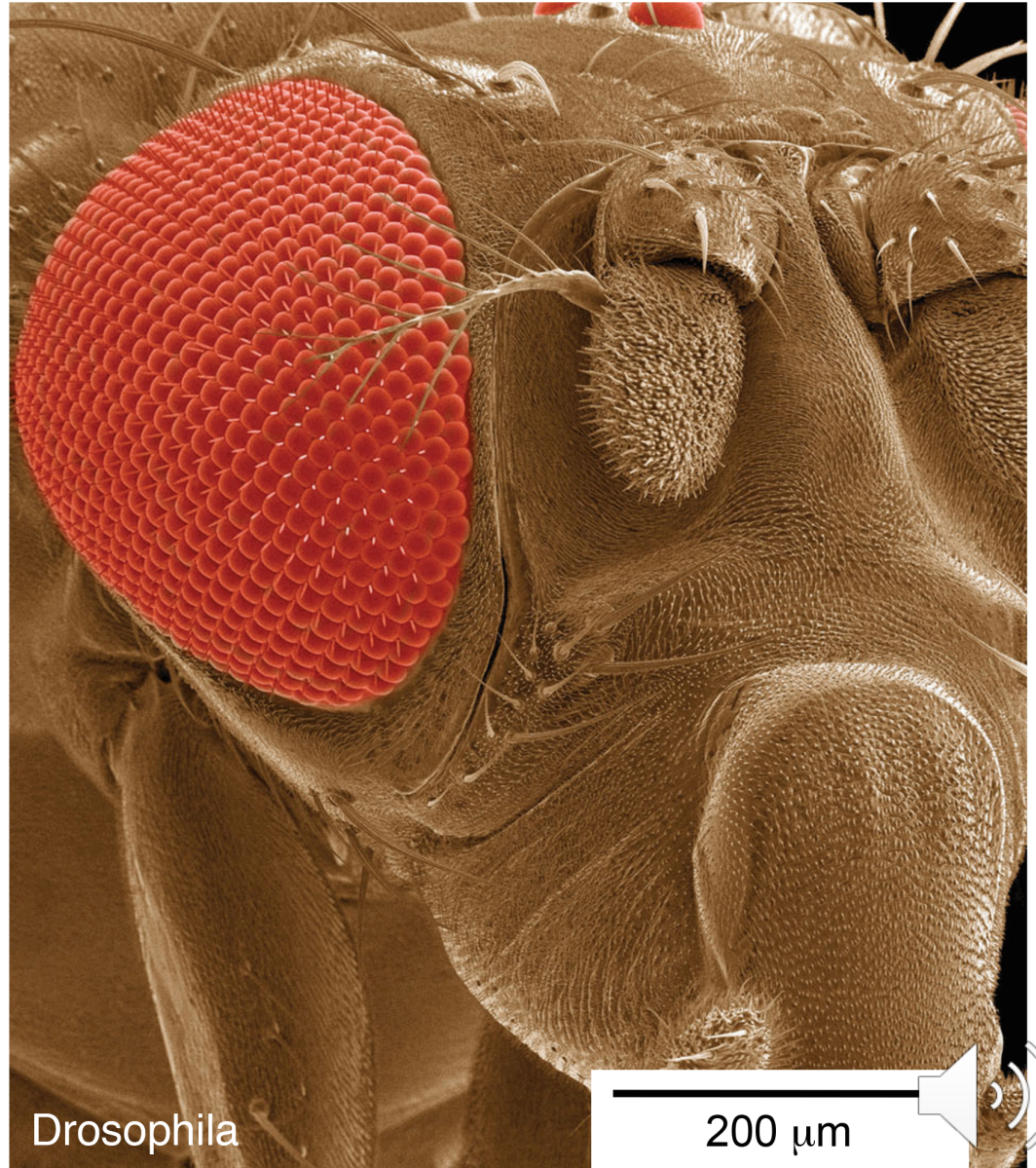
Scale:  $2^{12}$   
4096X



Bed bug



Drosophila eye



Drosophila

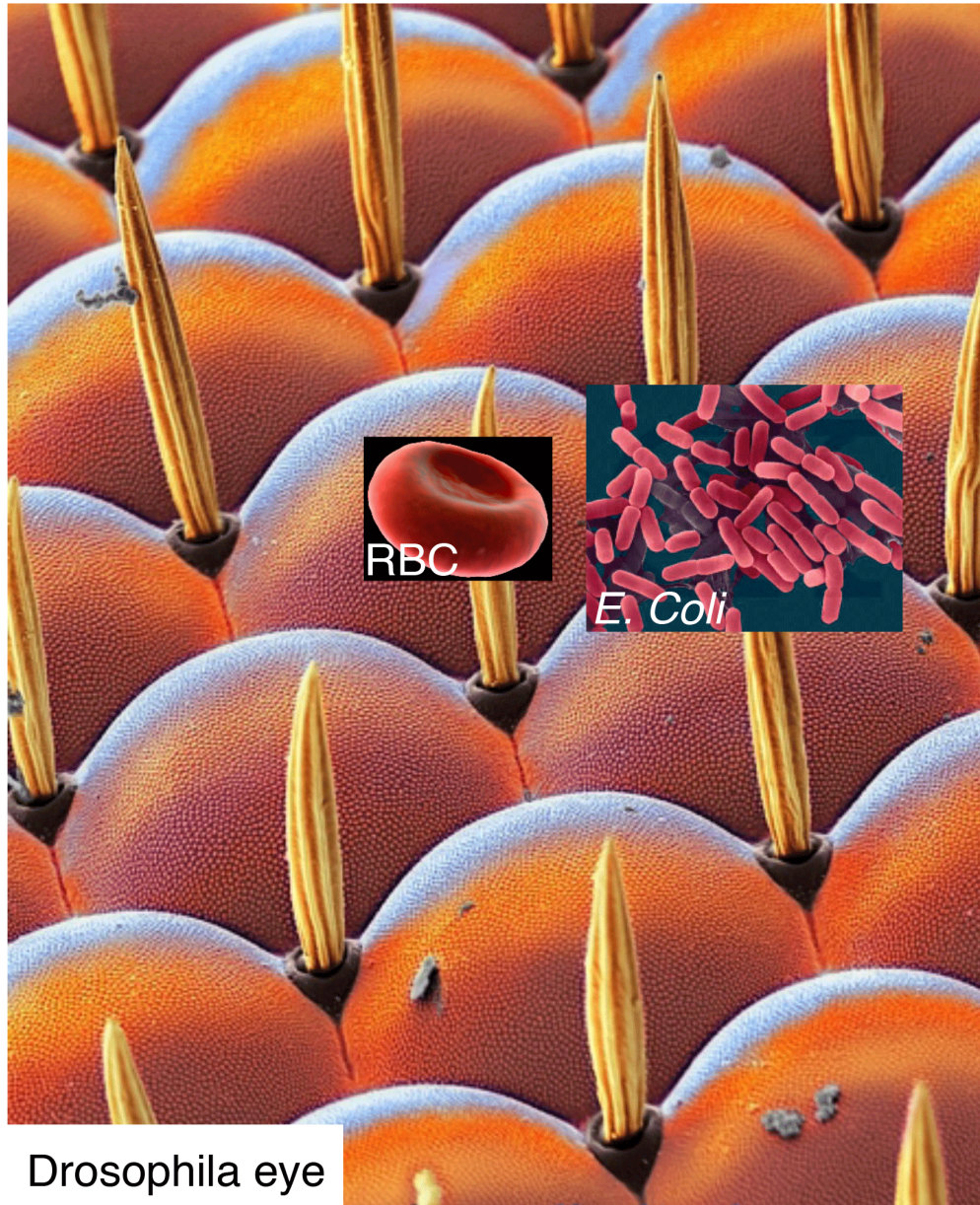
200  $\mu\text{m}$





# How big/little specimens really are

Scale:  $2^{16}$   
65,536X



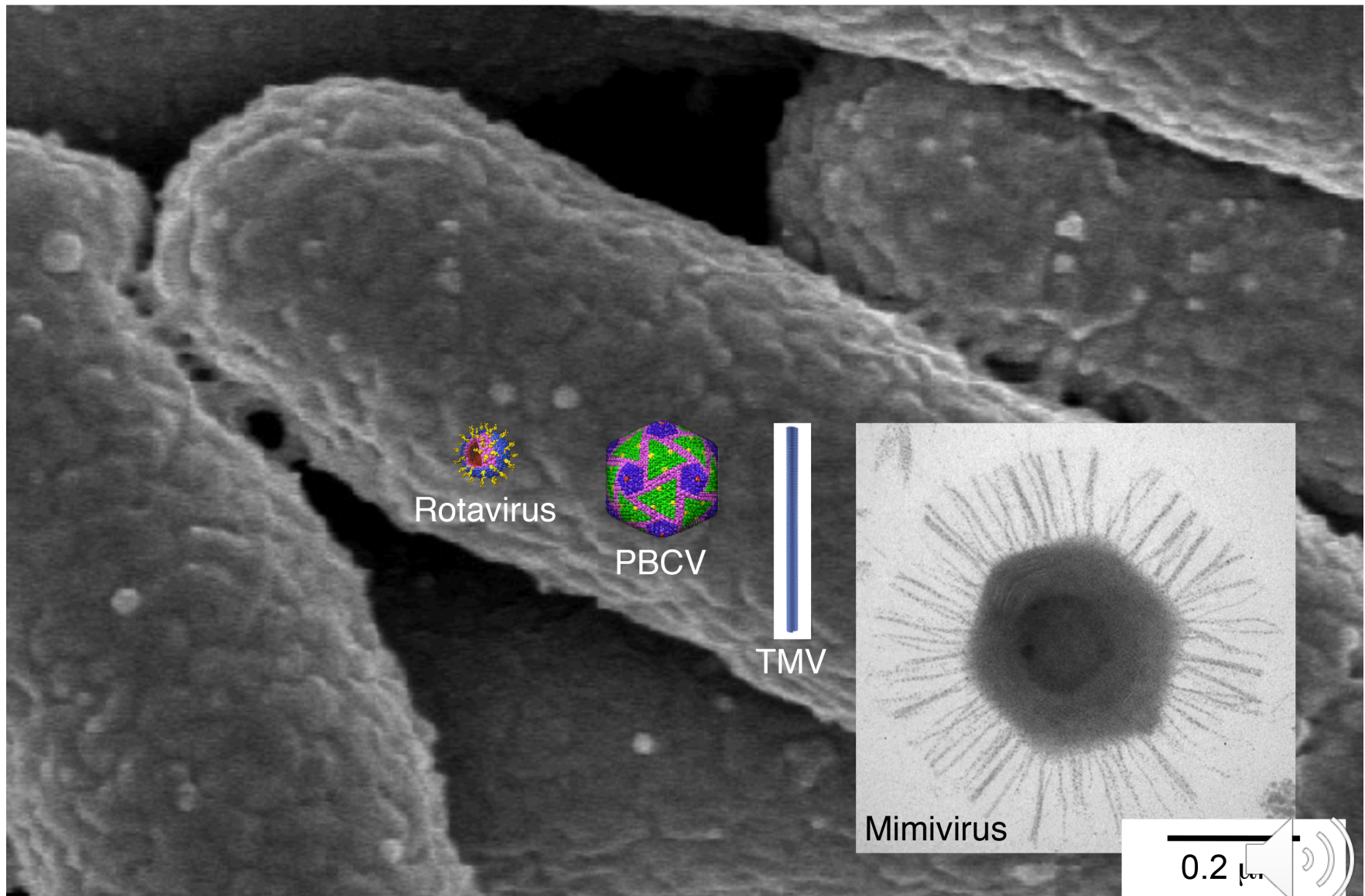
Drosophila eye

10 μm



# How big/little specimens really are

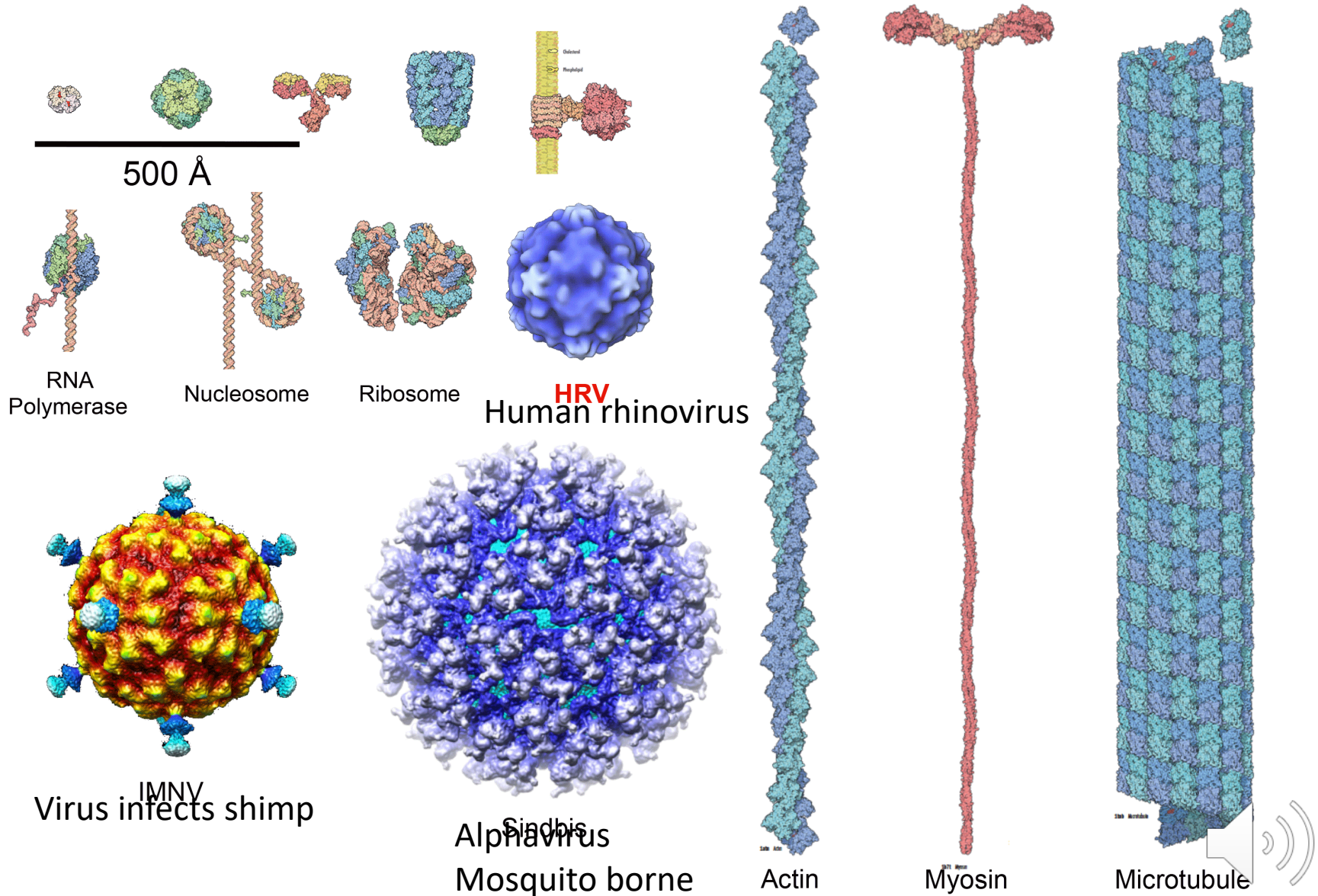
Scale:  $2^{21}$   
2,097,152X





# How big/little specimens really are

Scale:  $2^{24}$   
16,777,216X



How can we visualize objects in that size range?





# Principles: Comparison of Optical and Electron Microscopy



## Key Concept:

Electrons and photons have common properties!

Both can be used to form images

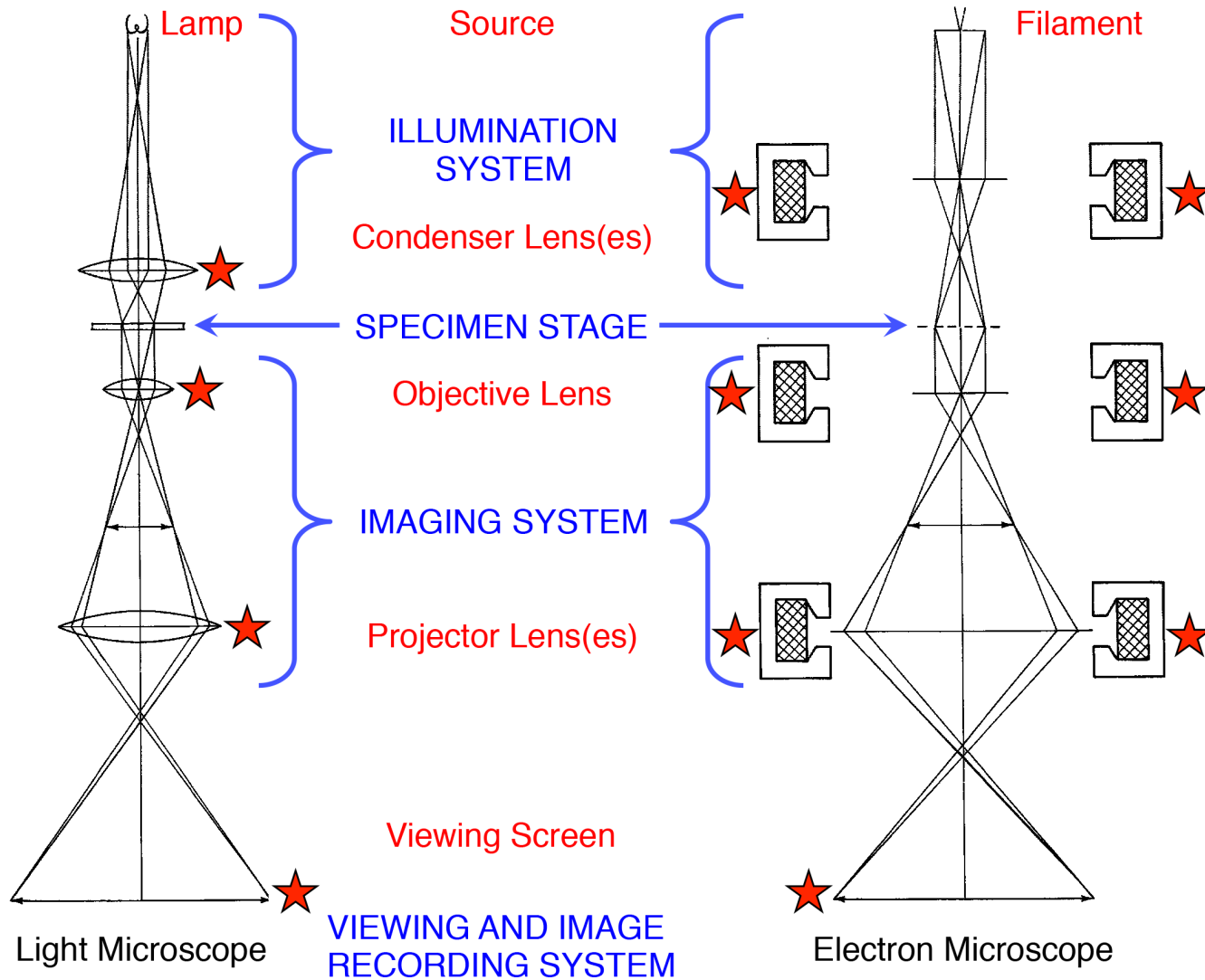
Because both can be **Focused**.

To focus the beam must be **Bent**.

***X-rays cannot be focused!***



# Principles: Comparison of Optical and Electron Microscopy



# Similarities between Optical and Electron Microscopes

## Illumination system

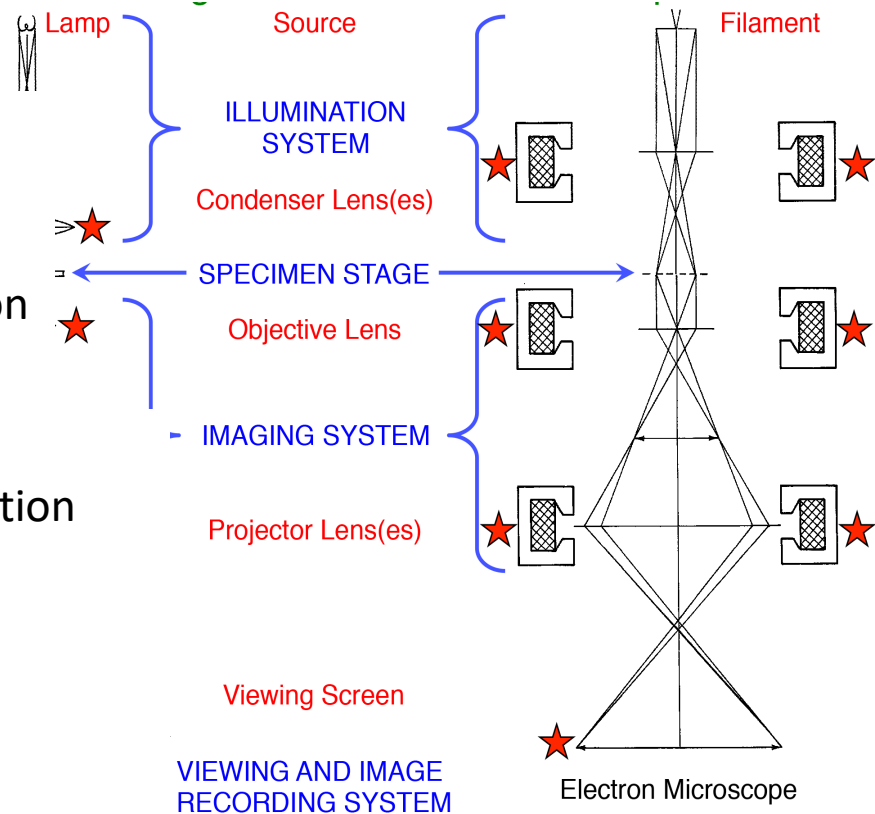
Radiation source directed towards specimen  
Condenser lenses to focus illumination beam

## Specimen stage

Positions specimen between illumination and imaging system

## Imaging system

Lenses that produce the final image  
Objective lens  
Projector lenses  
Converts radiation to permanent image  
Some camera type to capture image



# How is instrument resolution determined?

Photons and electrons behave as **particles** and **waves**

Any moving particle has a wavelength associated with it

TEM: **electrons** travel very fast (near speed of light) and have **short wavelengths**

**Resolution:** ability to distinguish objects or object details

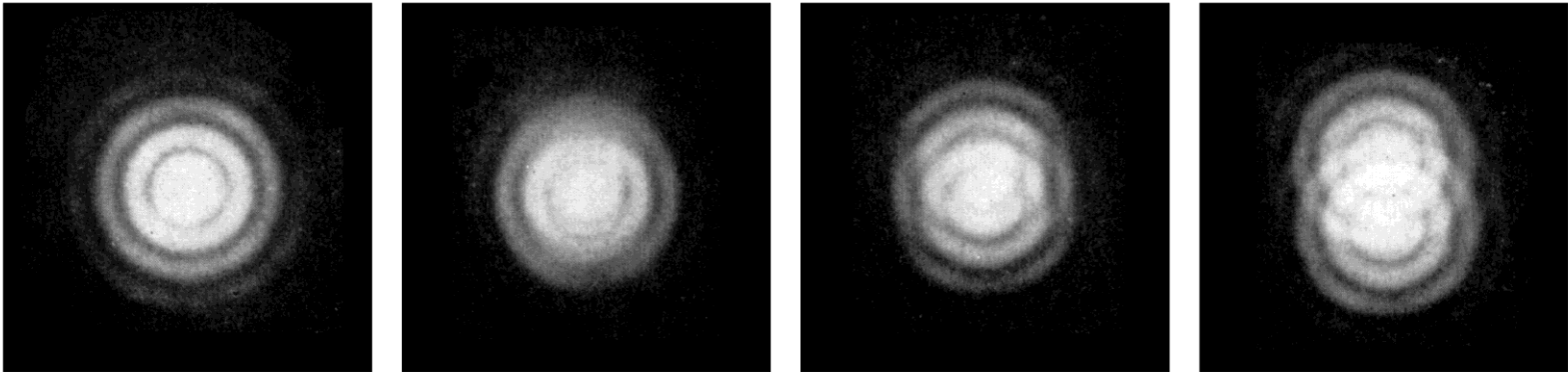
**Instrument resolution:** *limited by wavelength of radiation*



# Practical limits of resolution

**Ideal lens:** each point in an object is a point

**Real lens:** each point in an object is spread out (Airy disk)



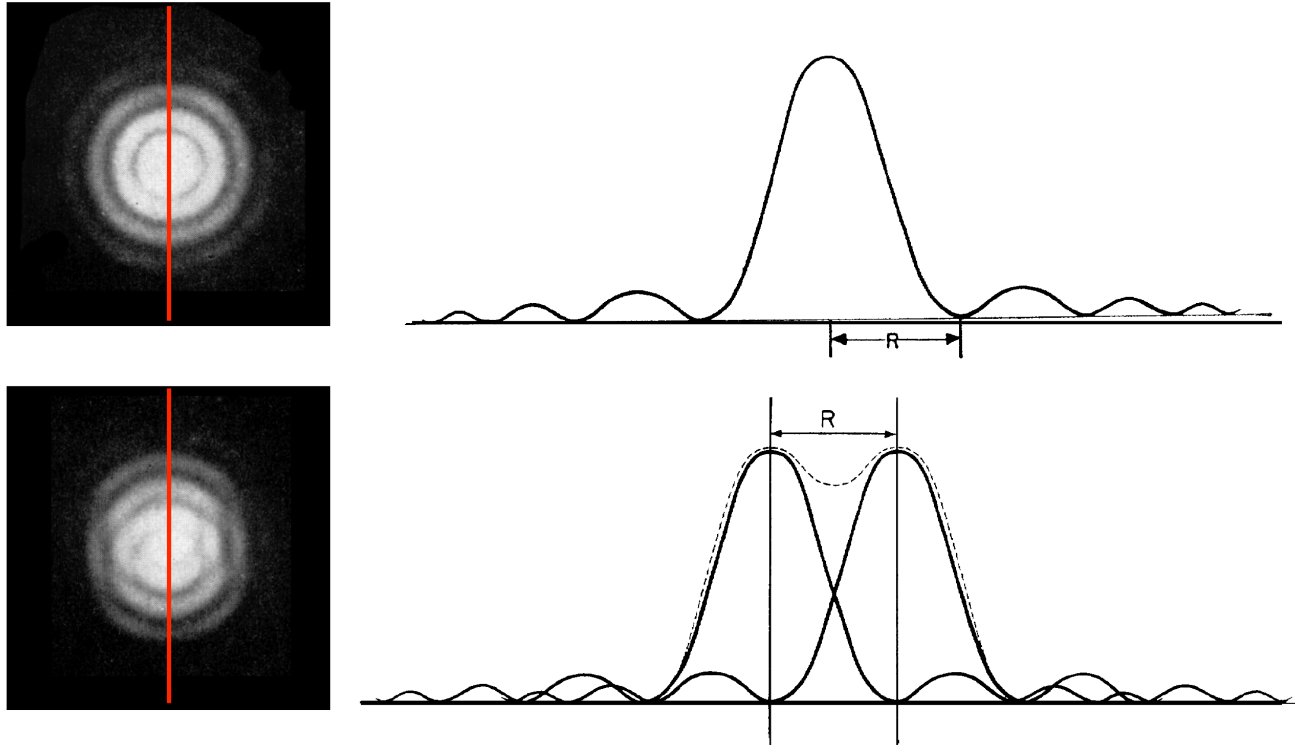
**Airy disk:** Caused by diffraction of the light wave.  
See constructive and destructive interference  
pattern

***Determined by the wavelength of the irradiation!***





# Practical limits of resolution



From Sjostrand, Fig. IV.18, p.115

The shortest distance between 2 Airy disks at which the two appear partially separated  $\sim \frac{1}{2}$  the width of the disks

Width of disk determined by wavelength of irradiation.



# How do we get to high resolution?

The **shortest distance** between two Airy disks at which they appear partially separated corresponds to about 1/2 the width of the disks

The distance,  $d$ , in **object space** is given by the **Abbe Equation**:

$$d = \frac{0.612\lambda}{n \cdot \sin\alpha}$$

$\lambda$  = wavelength of the radiation

$n$  = refractive index of the media

$\alpha$  = lens semi-angular aperture

Note:  $n \sin\alpha$  = lens numerical aperture (N.A.)



# TEM outperforms light microscopes

$$d = \frac{0.612\lambda}{n \cdot \sin \alpha}$$

To maximize resolving power (*i.e.* aim to get  $d$  as small as possible),  $\lambda$  must be decreased,  $n$  increased, or  $\alpha$  increased

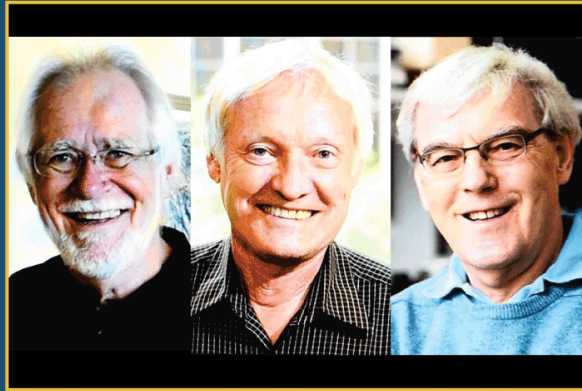
	$n$	$\sin \alpha$	$\lambda^*$	$d$
LM	1.5	0.87	400 nm	$\sim 0.2 \mu\text{m}$
TEM	1.0	0.01	0.0037 nm	0.23 nm

\*  $\lambda = 400 \text{ nm}$  for violet light

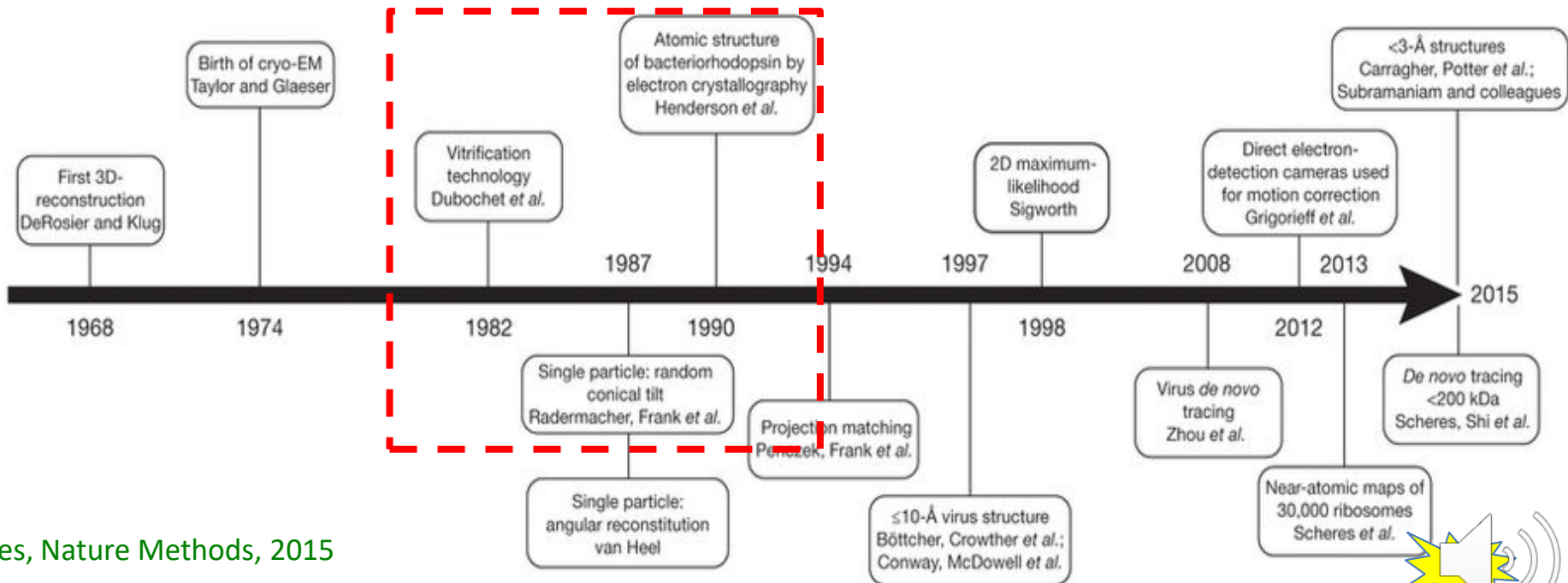
= 0.0037 nm for 100kV electrons



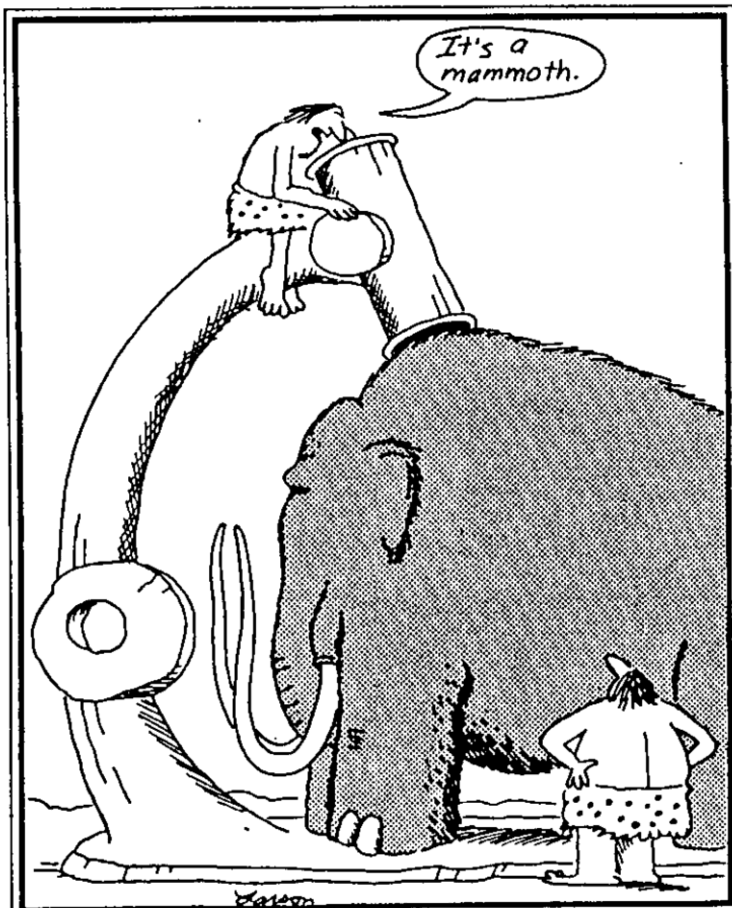
# Nobel Prize in Chemistry



Scientists *Jacques Dubochet, Joachim Frank* and *Richard Henderson* were honoured for developing cryo-electron microscopy which simplifies and improves the imaging of biomolecules



# The cryo-EM revolution is due to three main improvements



Early microscope

**Magnified** view of an object to visualize details using an **Optical Instrument**

**\*\*\* hardware advancements with instrumentation**

Need to **Form** and **Record** an image

**\*\*\* hardware advancements with cameras.**

**Direct electron camera. The real gamechanger.**

Ability to process **Big Data**

**\*\*\* computation improvements- algorithms and data management Terabytes of image data.**





# Differences between Optical and Electron Microscopes

## Lenses

Optical (glass, FIXED focal length)

Electron (ferromagnetic, can adjust magnification with current)

## Depth of field\*\*\*\*

Optical: SMALL

Electron: BIG (whole specimen is in focus at once)

## Specimen state

Optical: can be kept alive

Electron: high vacuum, heavy metal stain, electron beam damage: DEAD ☹️

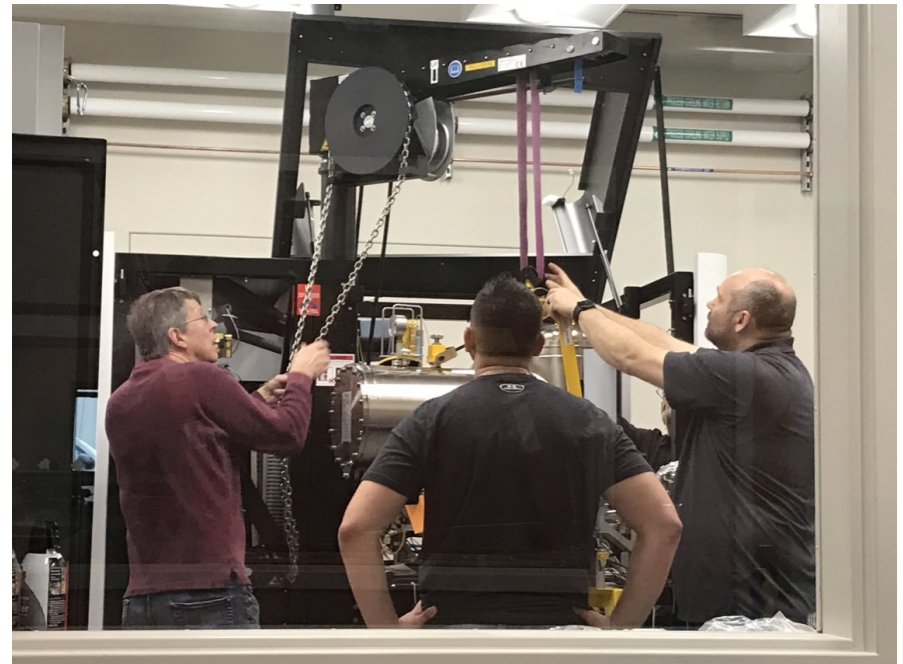
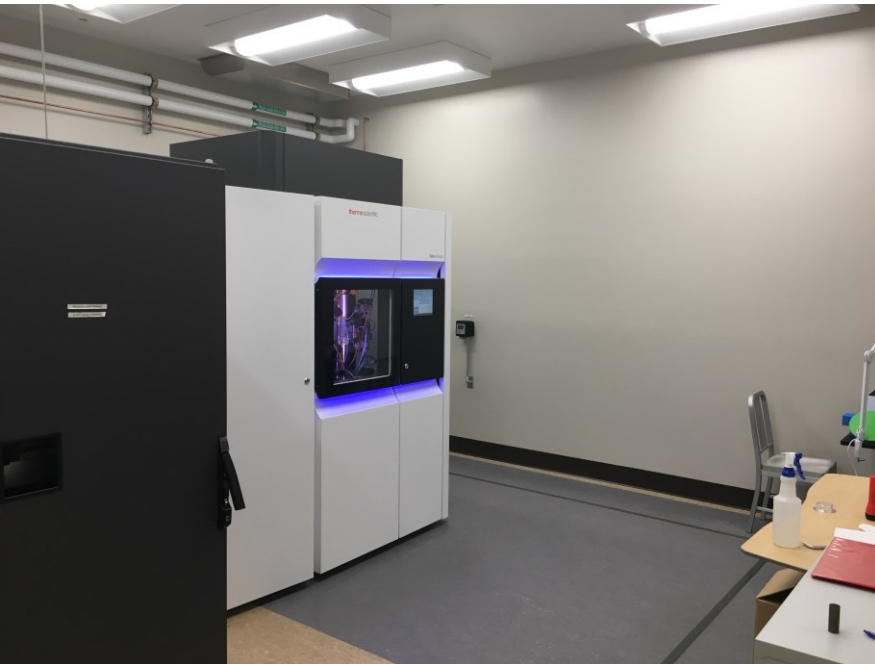
## Price tag

Optical- thousand to tens of thousands

Electron- **millions (our facility is worth about over \$14 M)**



# Cryo-Electron Microscope at MSU



<https://cryo-em.natsci.msu.edu/>

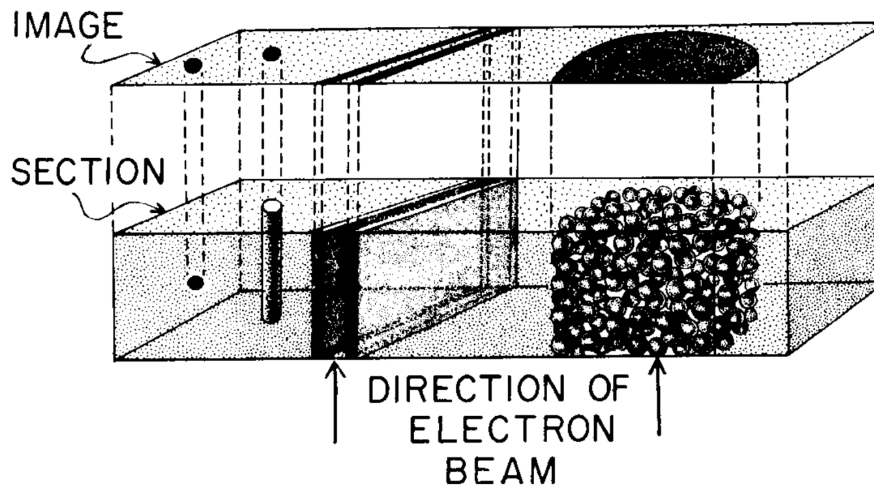
Talos Arctica (200 keV)  
Falcon 3 DDD  
Autoloader

*So... what makes these so awesome?*



# Depth of Field is BIG in TEM

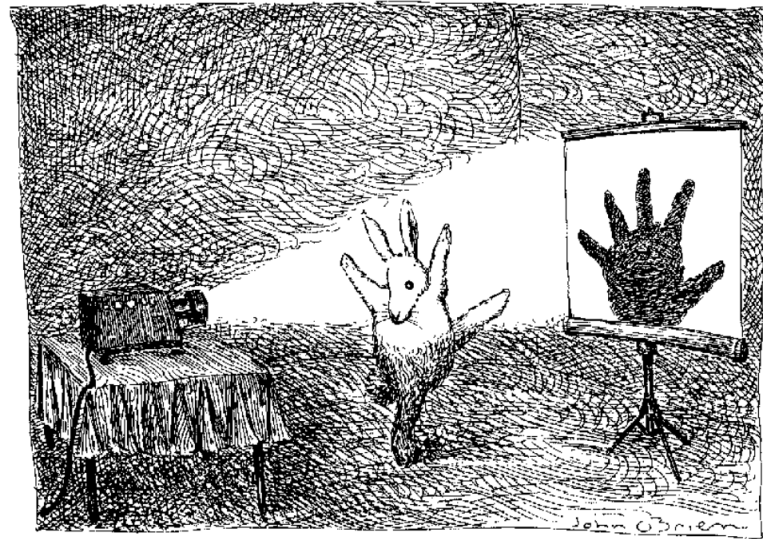
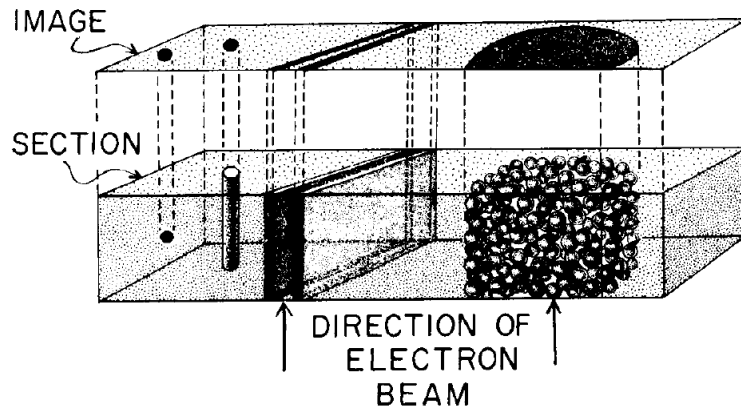
Images are **projections** of the **entire contents** of a specimen



Each part of the **2D** image represents **projected** contributions from a **3D** object in the direction of the electron beam



# More about Depth of Field

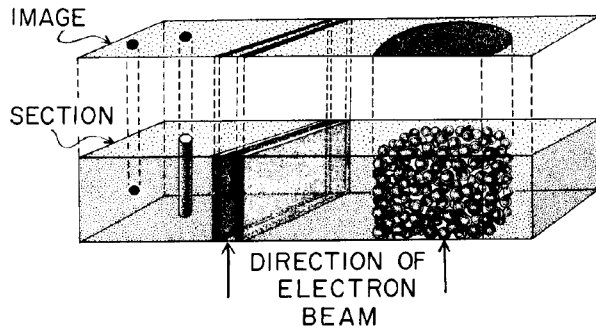


Projection images are **NOT** “shadow-graphs”

Radiation **IS** transmitted through a TEM image



TEM images are **NOT** shadow-graphs, but more like X-ray images



The type of information we obtain depends heavily on **Specimen Preparation**





# There are a variety of TEM imaging types

## Each has pros and cons

- Thin section TEM
- Negative staining
- Metal shadowing
- **Cryo-EM**



# Specimen Support Material

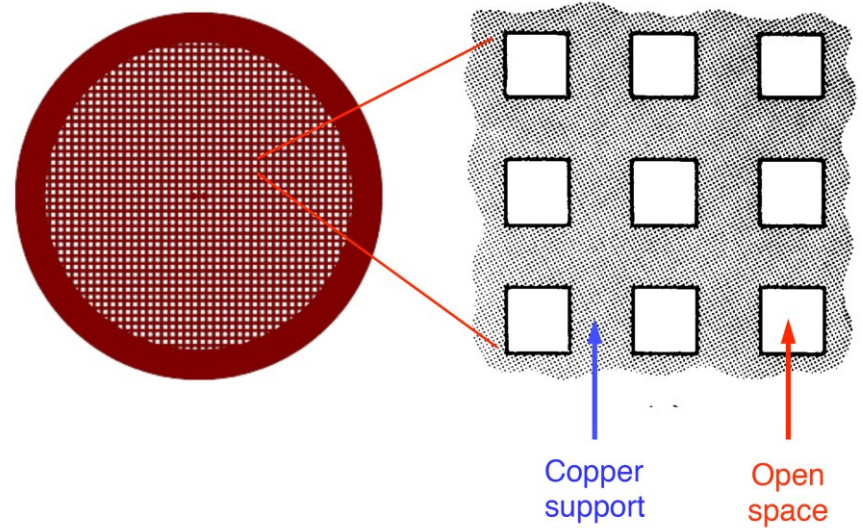
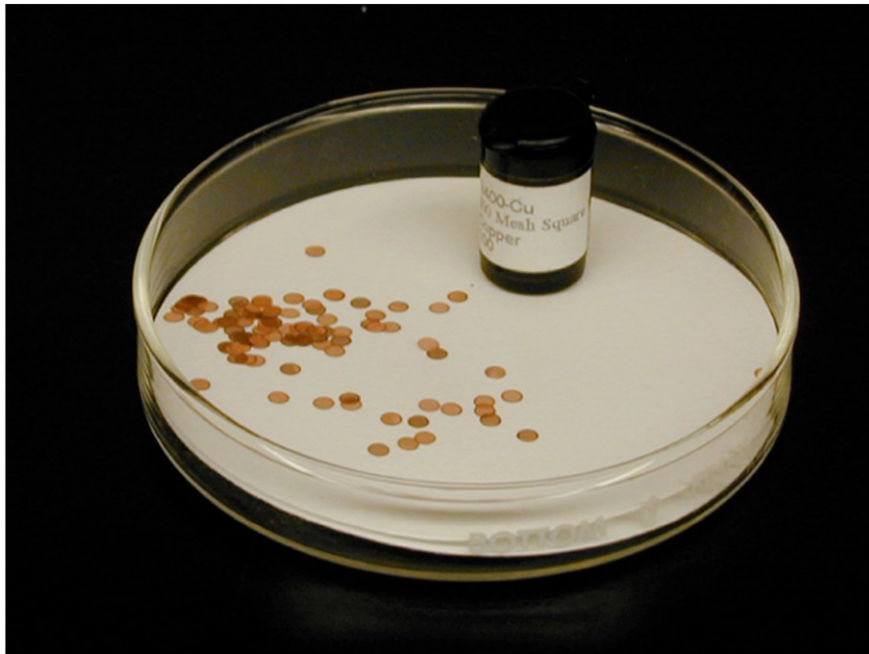
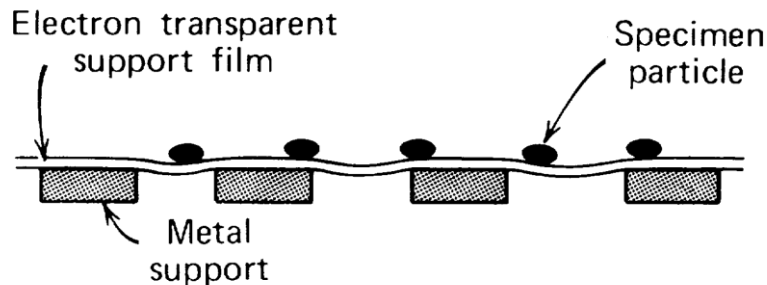


Image courtesy of P. Chipman (2004)



**Surface** to deposit sample

Adds **physical strength** to grid

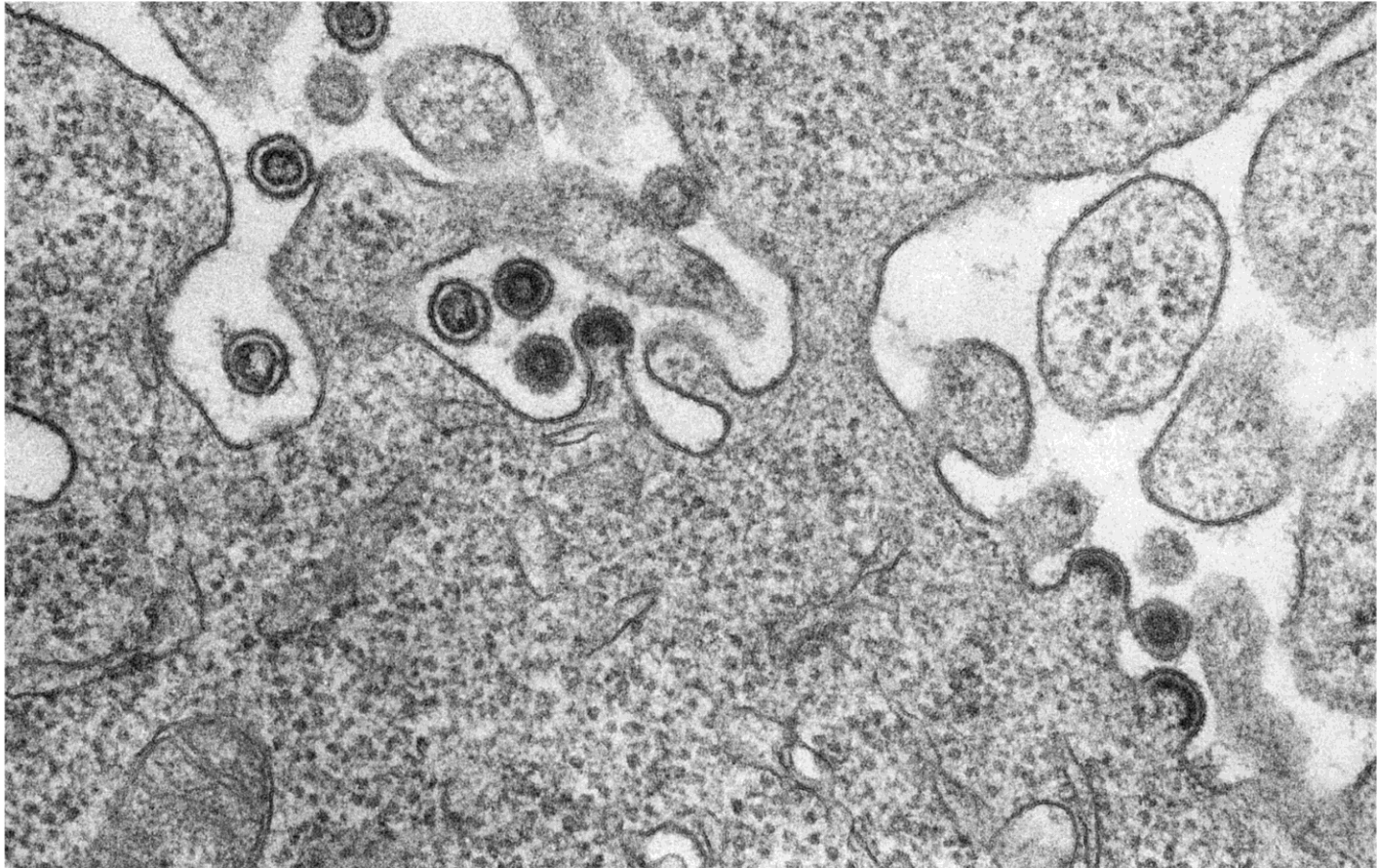
**Heat dissipation** in  $e^-$  beam

Carbon or formvar (**amorphous**)



# Thin section examples:

## Retroviruses budding from a leukemia cell



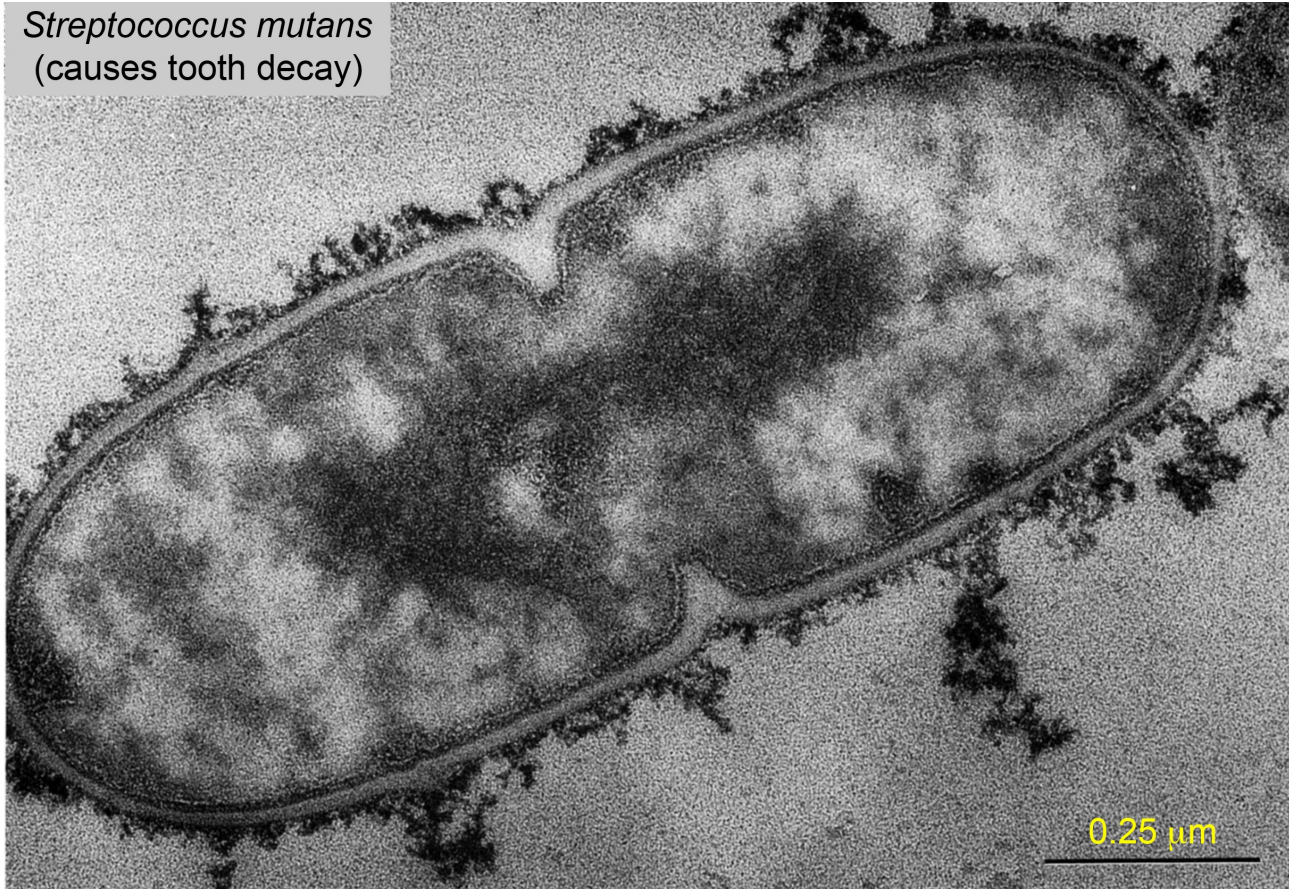
From Bozzolla and Russell, Fig. 19-129, p.49





# Thin section examples:

## Ultra thin section of gram positive bacteria



From Bozzolla and Russell, Fig. 19-119, p.482

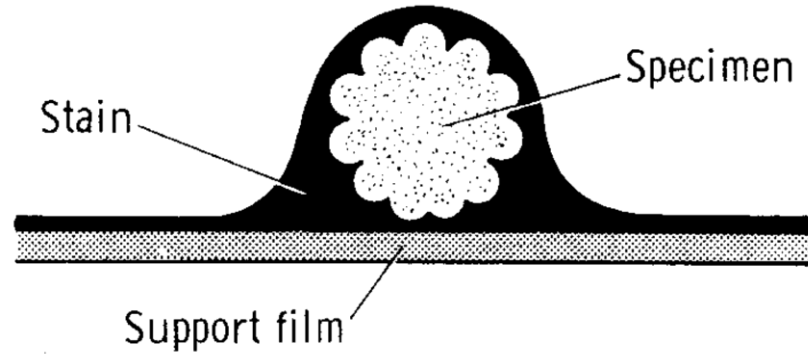




# Negative staining

- Pros
  - Stains provide **high contrast**
  - Can assess concentration and homogeneity easily
  - Great for small particulate specimens (proteins, macromolecular complexes, 20 kDa-100 MDa)
  - Information comes from a **single particle**
  - **Rapid!** (~15 min prep)
- Cons
  - **Dehydrates** the specimens (terrible for membranes!)
  - **Lower resolution** information obtained (12-40Å)
  - Not everything stains the same

# Negative staining (mostly particulate samples)



Sample is embedded in **heavy metal salt** (fast and easy!)

Heavy metal salt adds considerable **contrast**

## Artifacts?

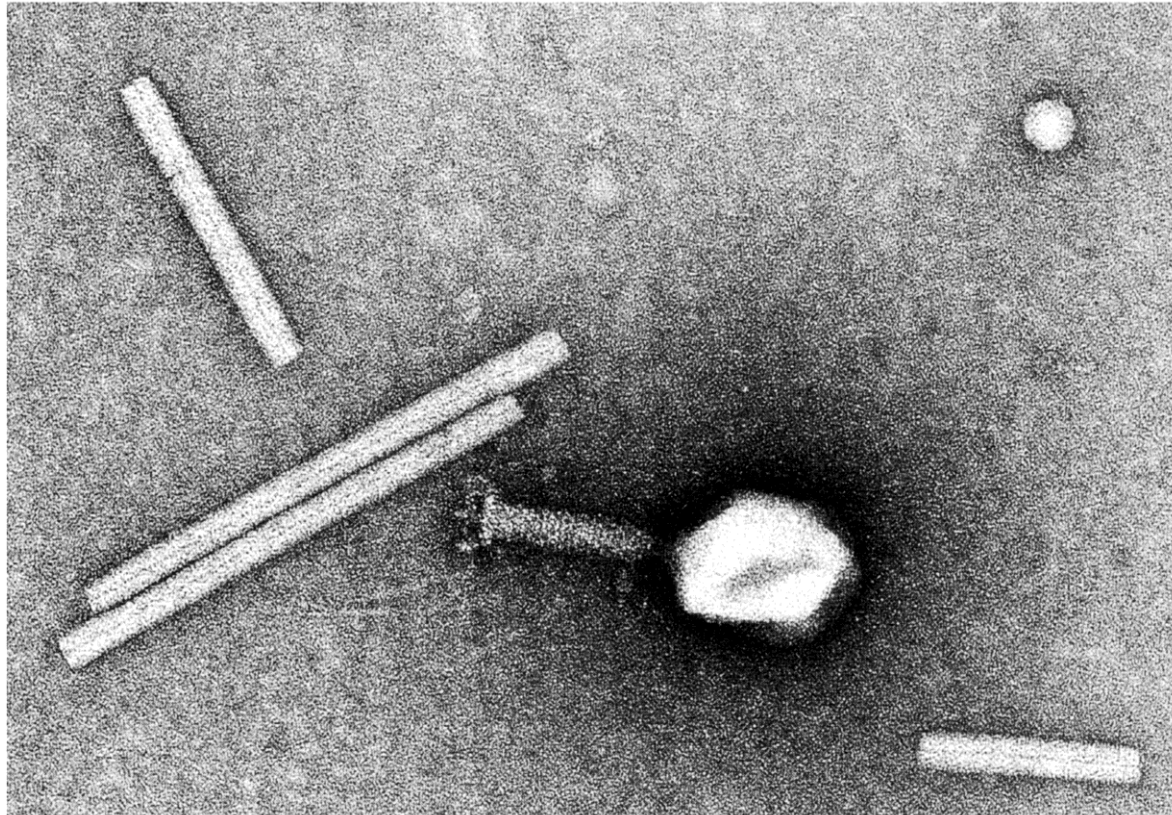
Most are low-med pH (3-7) and high [salt] (~20% final)

Dehydration/flattening

Sample may be “positively stained”



# Examples of negatively stained images



TMV and bacteriophages T4 and  $\phi$ X174

Image taken by F. Eiserling

Note contrast is reversed from thin sections! **(NEGATIVELY stained)**

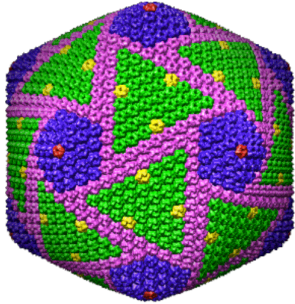
Good way to count phage/virus isolated from various environments





# How big/little specimens really are

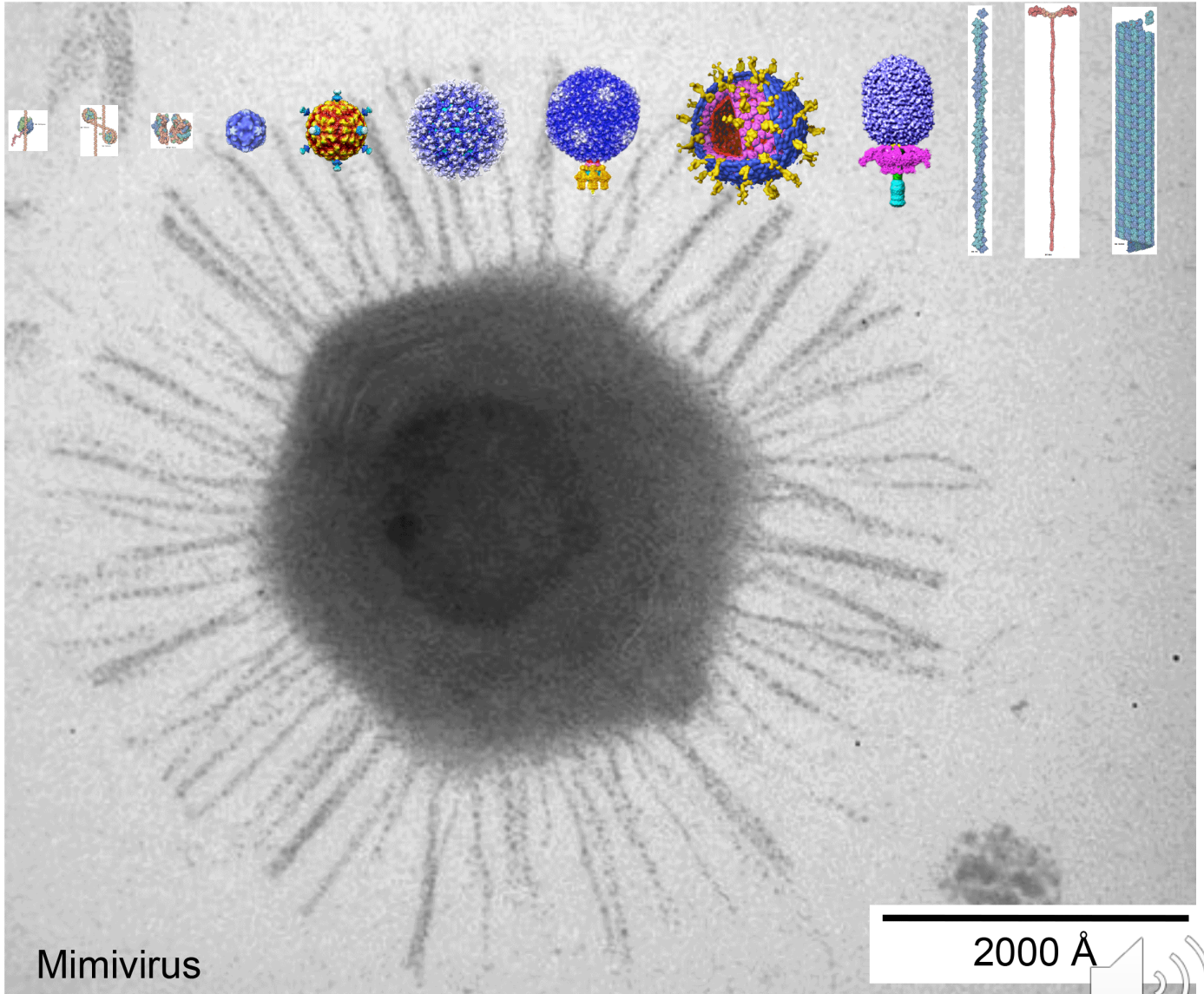
Scale:  $2^{22}$   
4,194,304X



PBCV-1



TMV

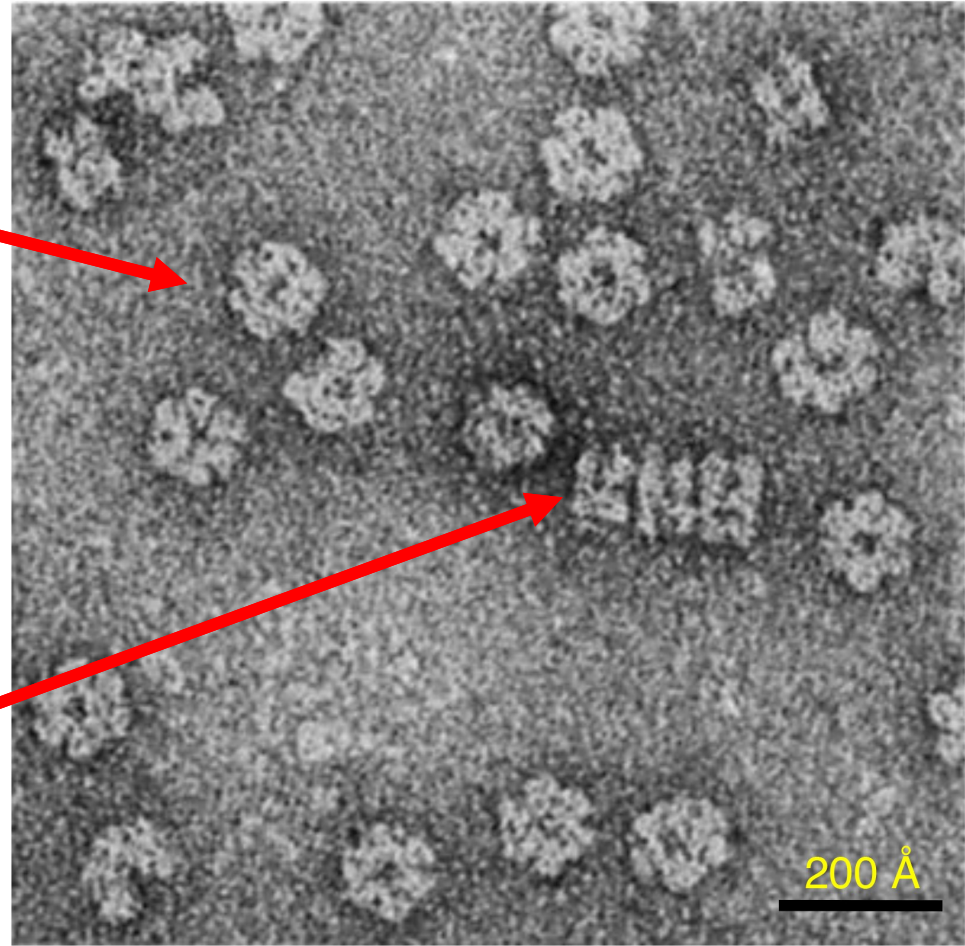
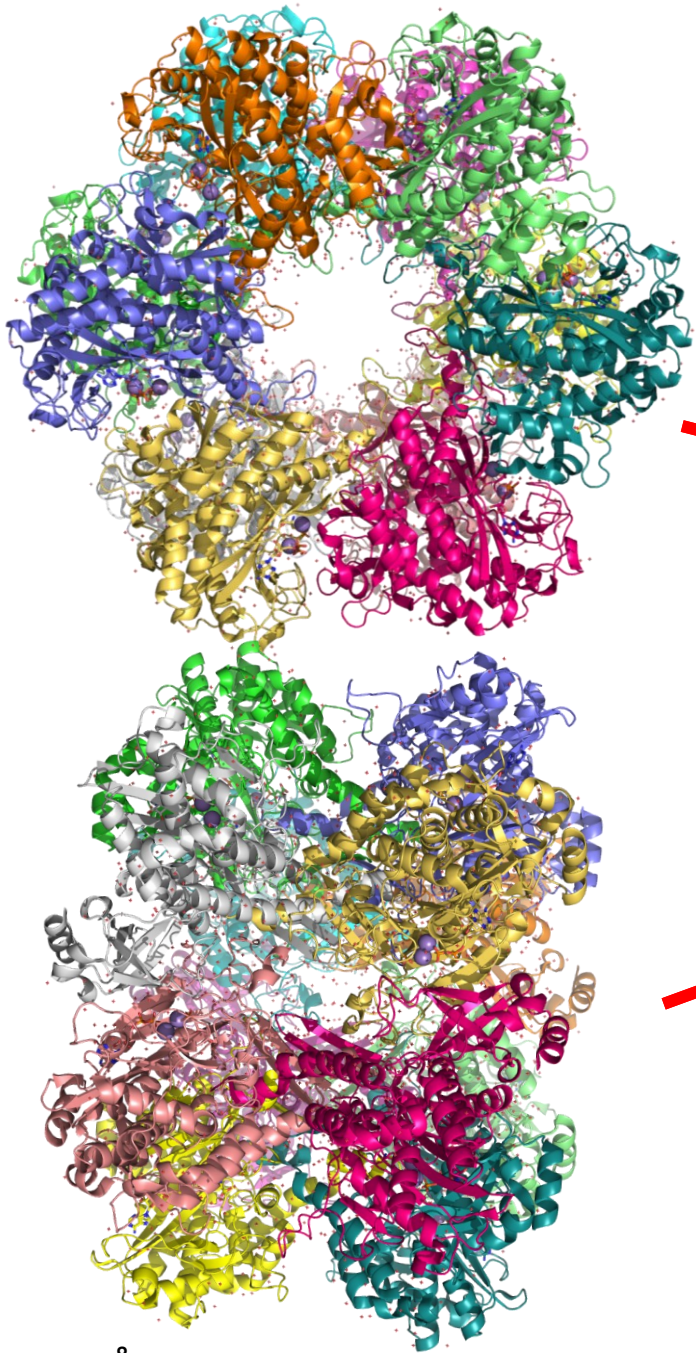


Mimivirus

2000 Å



# Examples of negatively stained images



Glutamine synthetase



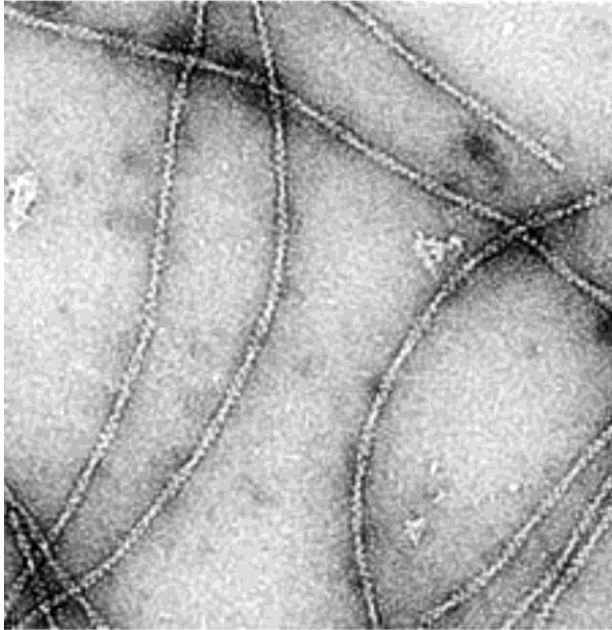
1FPY 2.9 Å X ray

(2001) Biochemistry **40**: 1903-1912

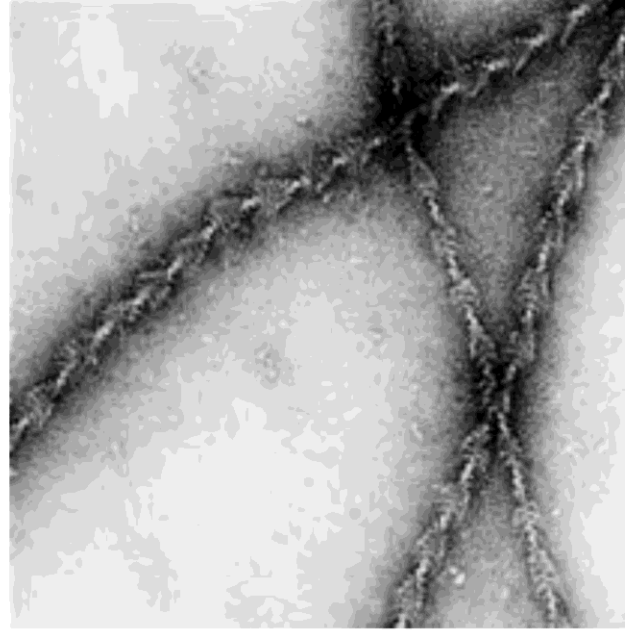
# Examples of negatively stained images



Actin



Actin filament

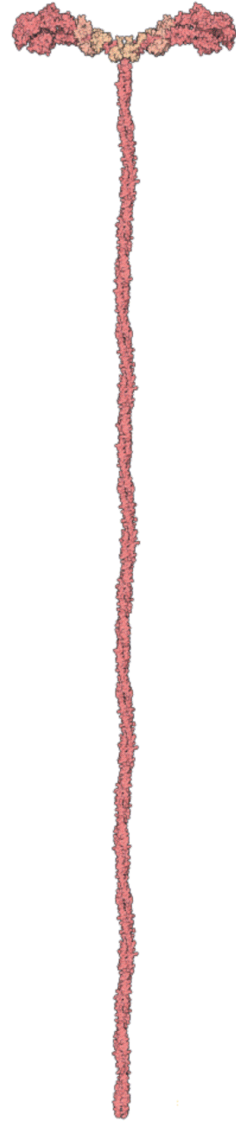


Actomyosin filament

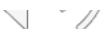
Images taken by R. Graig (see [www.umassmed.edu/cemf/negstain.aspx](http://www.umassmed.edu/cemf/negstain.aspx))



Actin



Myosin



# Cryo-EM

- Pros
  - High resolution (can obtain 1.5 Å in rare cases)
  - Native like state
- Cons
  - Very low contrast
  - Computationally intensive
  - Expensive

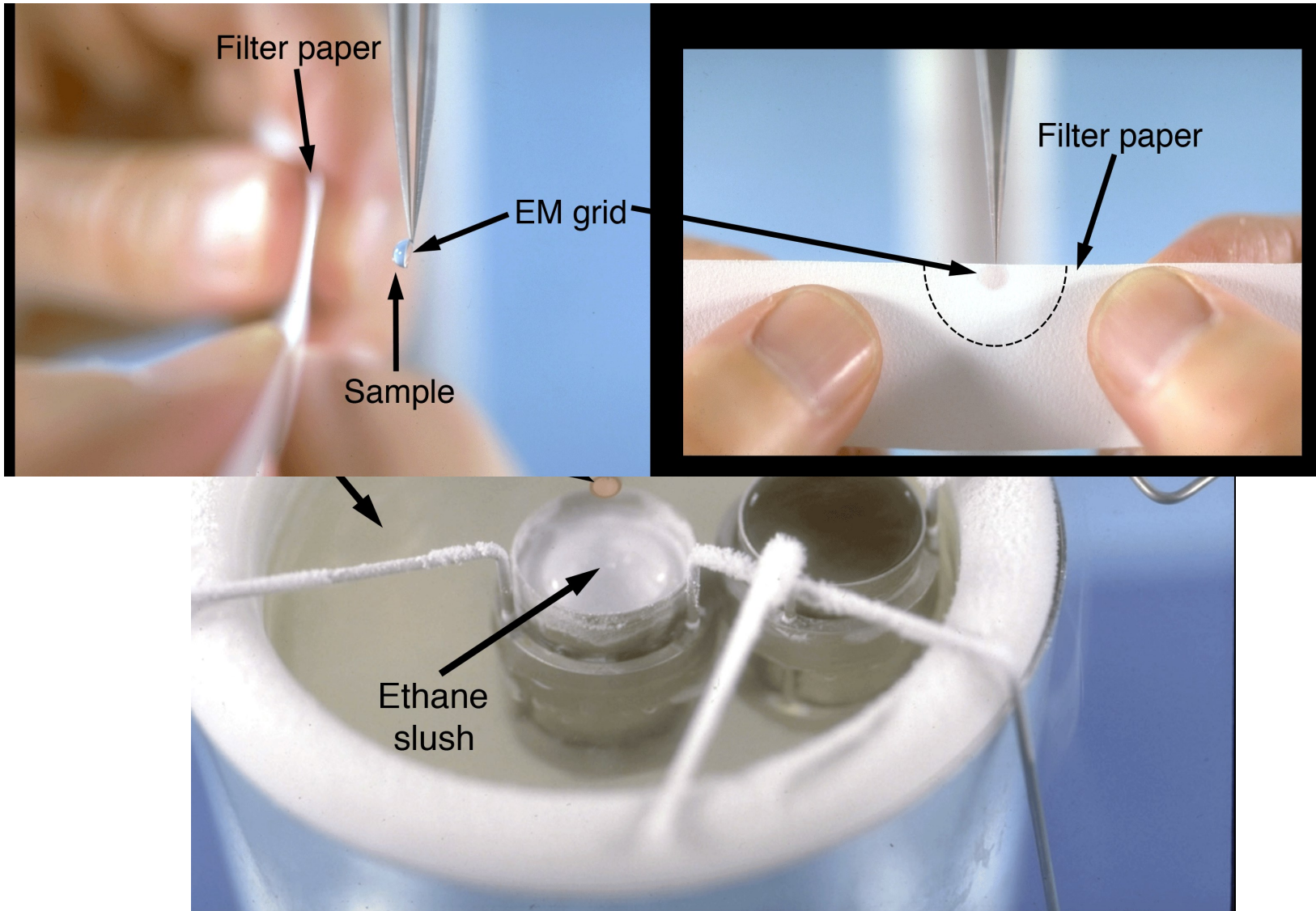
\* Much more common technique recently





# Vitrification: blotting and plunge freezing

Just like crystal freezing. Avoid ice formation





# More recently, robotic versions available



## Pros:

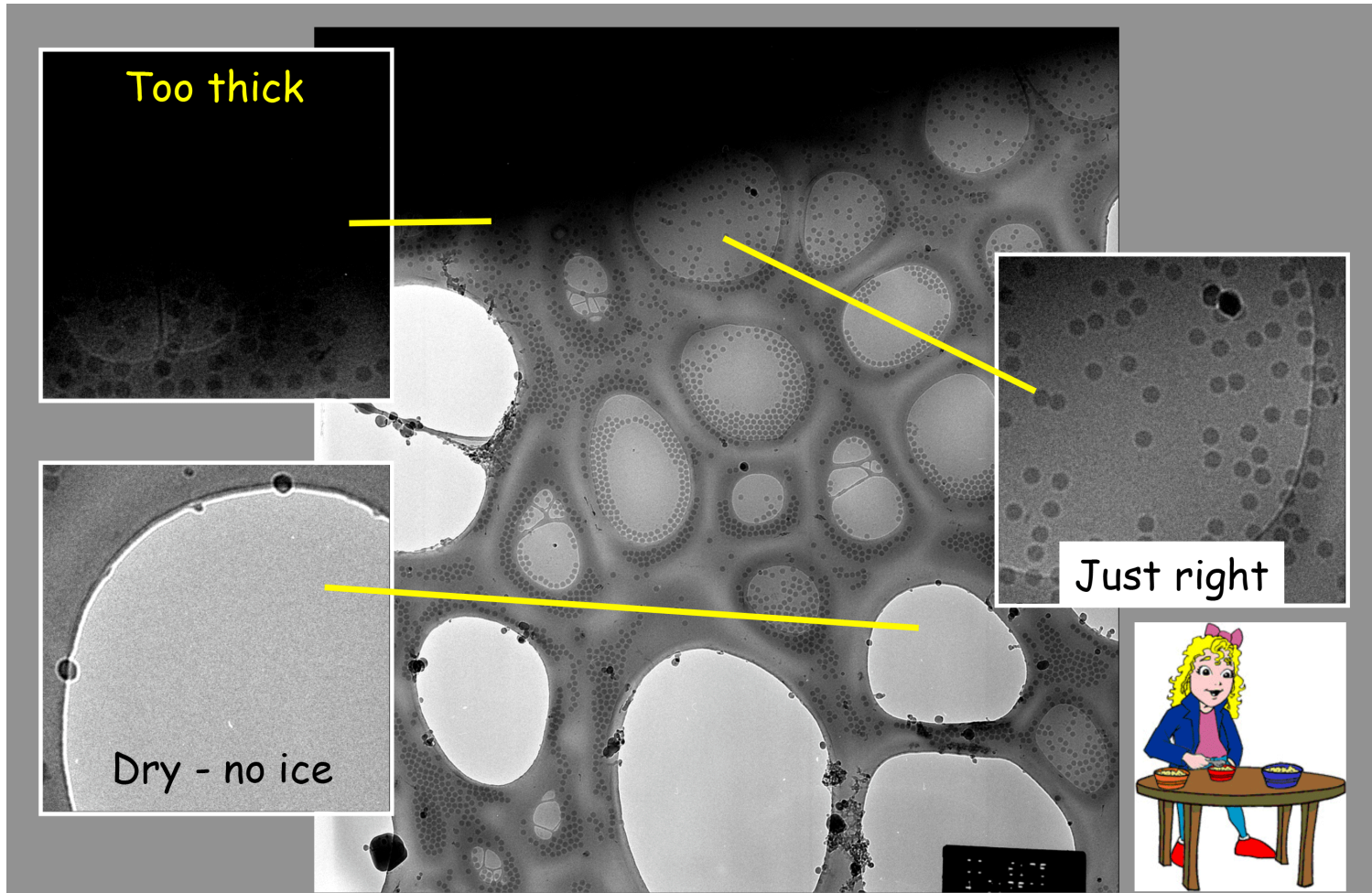
- Reliable
- Consistency
  - Timing
  - Temperature
  - Humidity
  - Blot Force

## Cons:

- Big price tag (\$80k-0.6M)



# How to find and image a specimen?



# Radiation damages the specimen (one shot only to image)

## Low dose microscopy

“**rch**” at low mag, with exposure ( $<1 \text{ e}^-/\text{\AA}^2$ )

“**us**” off target

“**ge**” at high mag and that does not destroy hole ( $20\text{-}24 \text{ e}^-/\text{\AA}^2$ )



A **2-sec** exposure delivers energy at the same level equivalent to the energy that we would experience if a 10-megaton hydrogen bomb detonated

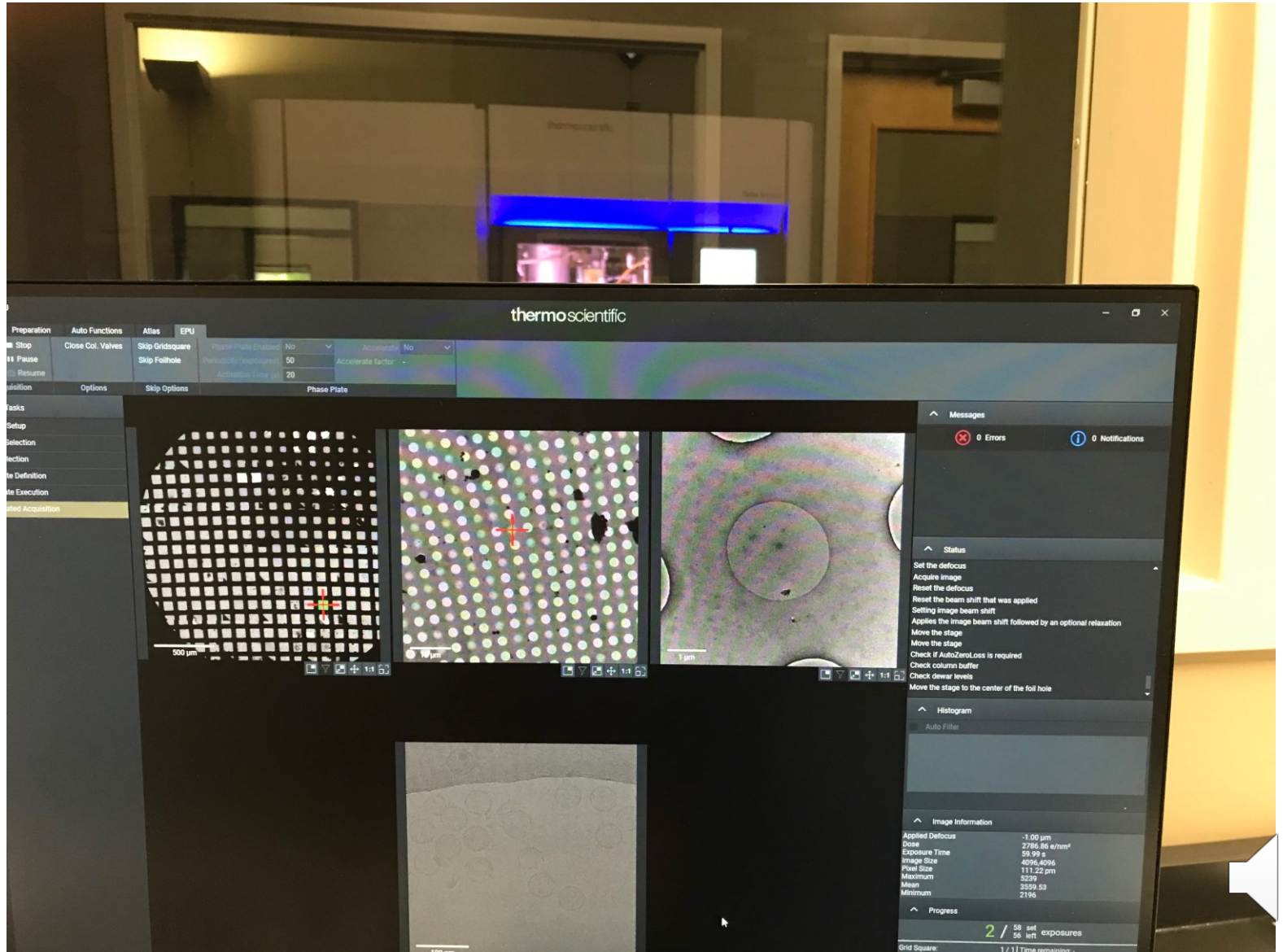
**30 meters outside this room!!**

\*\*\*\* Only possible since relatively recent advances in computation!



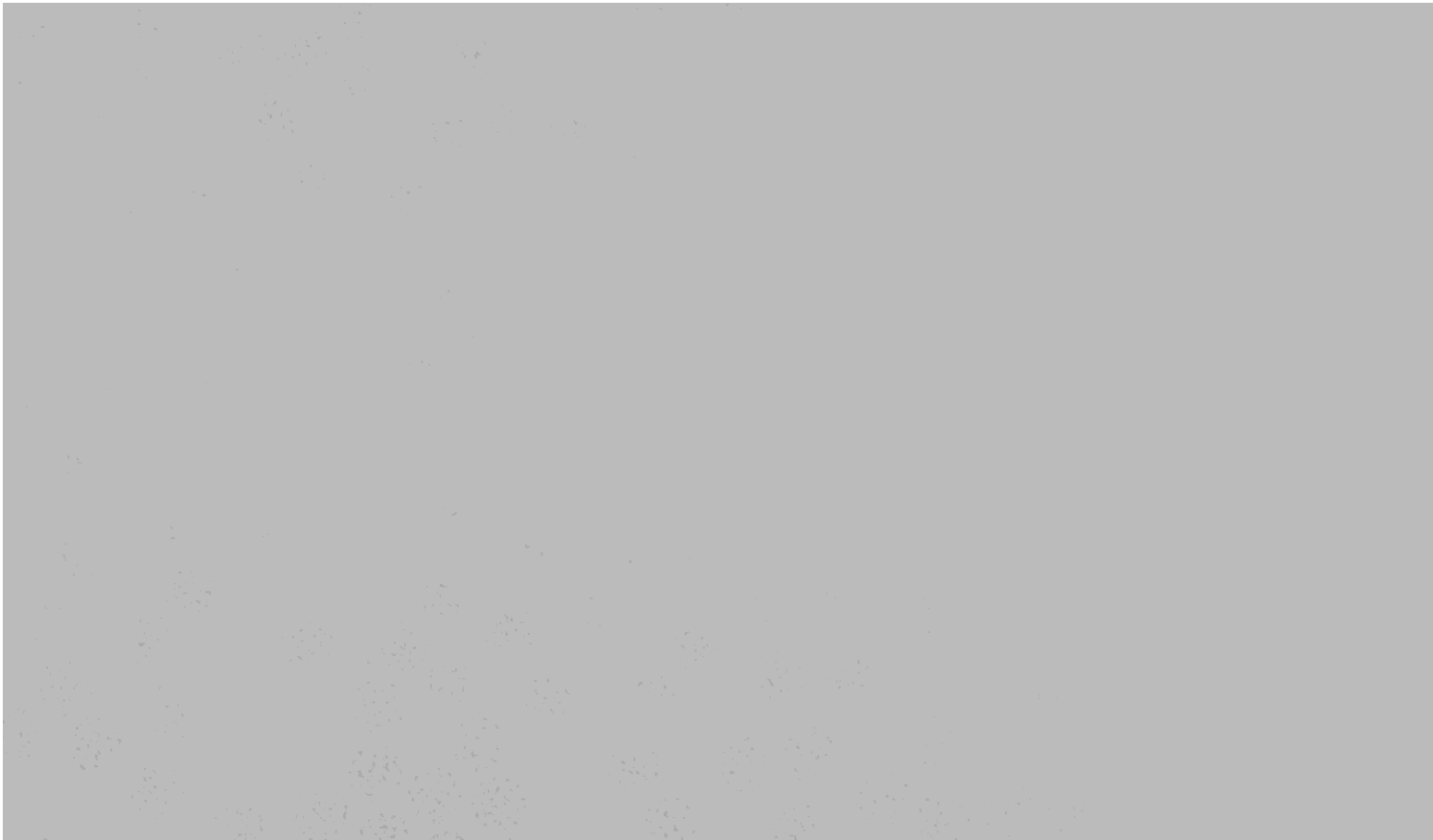


# Modern day support films cryo-EM: Quantifoil and automated software





Final image has low contrast but high resolution info!



Low dose image of Simian Virus 40 (Baker lab, UCSD)



# What features are evident at various resolutions in cryo-EM?

Sample Type	Method	Resolution Range	Features you can see
Larger, heterogenous	Tomography	~20 - 40 Å	Ultra structure mainly
Smaller, homogenous	Single particle analysis	~1.5 - 60 Å	Depends* <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• &gt; 10 Å; overall envelope</li><li>• 6-10 Å, alpha helices</li><li>• 4-5 Å, beta sheet strands</li><li>• &lt;3.5 Å, amino acid side chains</li><li>• &lt;2.0 Å water and metal atoms</li></ul>

About 900 Cryo-EM structures under 2.5 Å in the PDB.



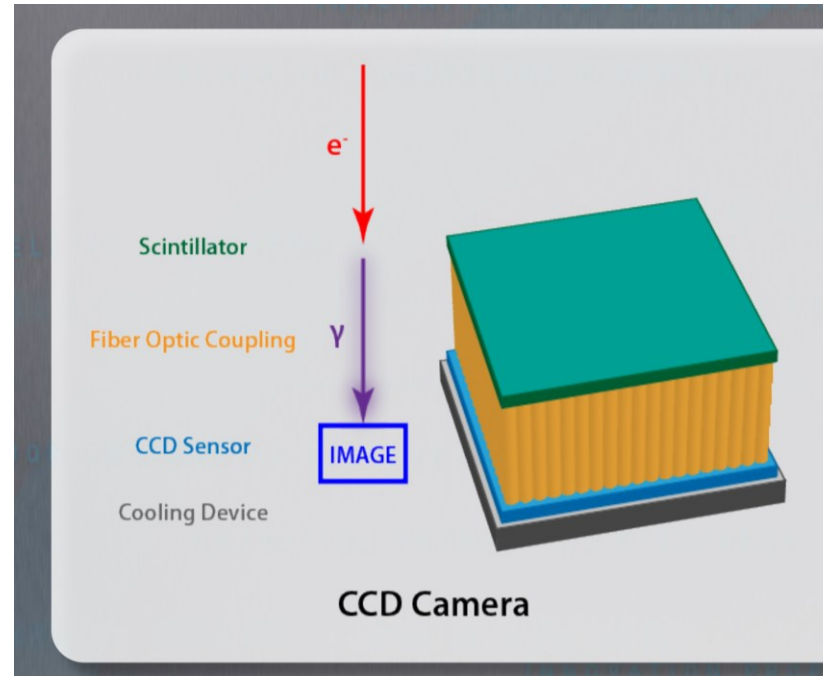
Okay, we have a microscope and know how to take pictures, but how do we store the information?

Three choices:

1. Film
2. CCD camera (Charge Coupled Device)
3. DDD (Direct Detection Device)



# CCD Cameras (Charged coupled device)



## Advantages:

1. Immediate image access
2. Good for automated data collection
3. Good for cryo-tomography

## Disadvantages:

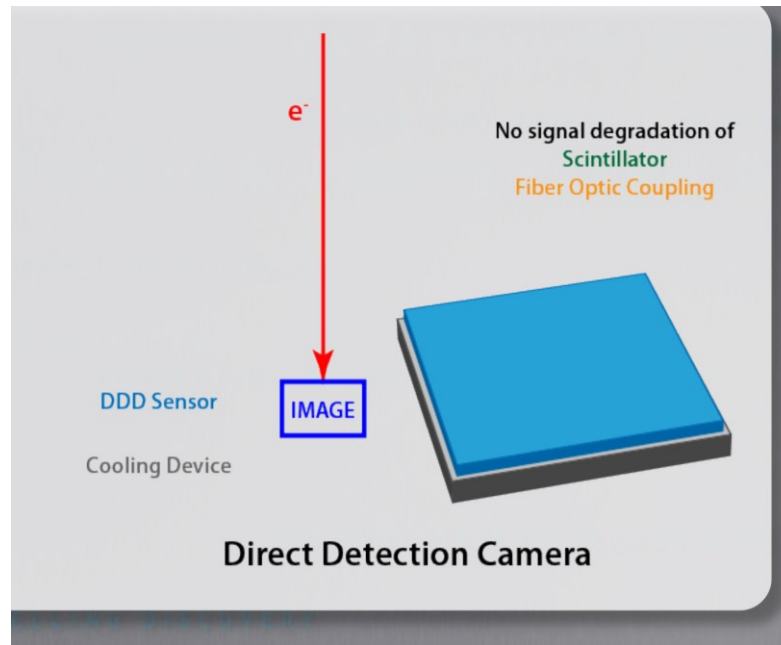
1. Poorer resolution and less real estate ( $4k^2$  pixels,  $\sim 15\mu m$ )
2. \$200k typical cost for  $4k^2$

\*mostly used for screening these days





# DDD (Direct Detection Device)



## Advantages:

1. Immediate image access
2. Good for automated data collection
3. Good for cryo-tomography
4. MOVIE mode
5. pixel size and detector sizes almost as good as film
6. better sensitivity per pixel

## Disadvantages:

1. HUGE amounts of data (each image = 1GB)
2. High cost (~\$1M)

\*best for high resolution imaging



# How do we get a 3D structure?

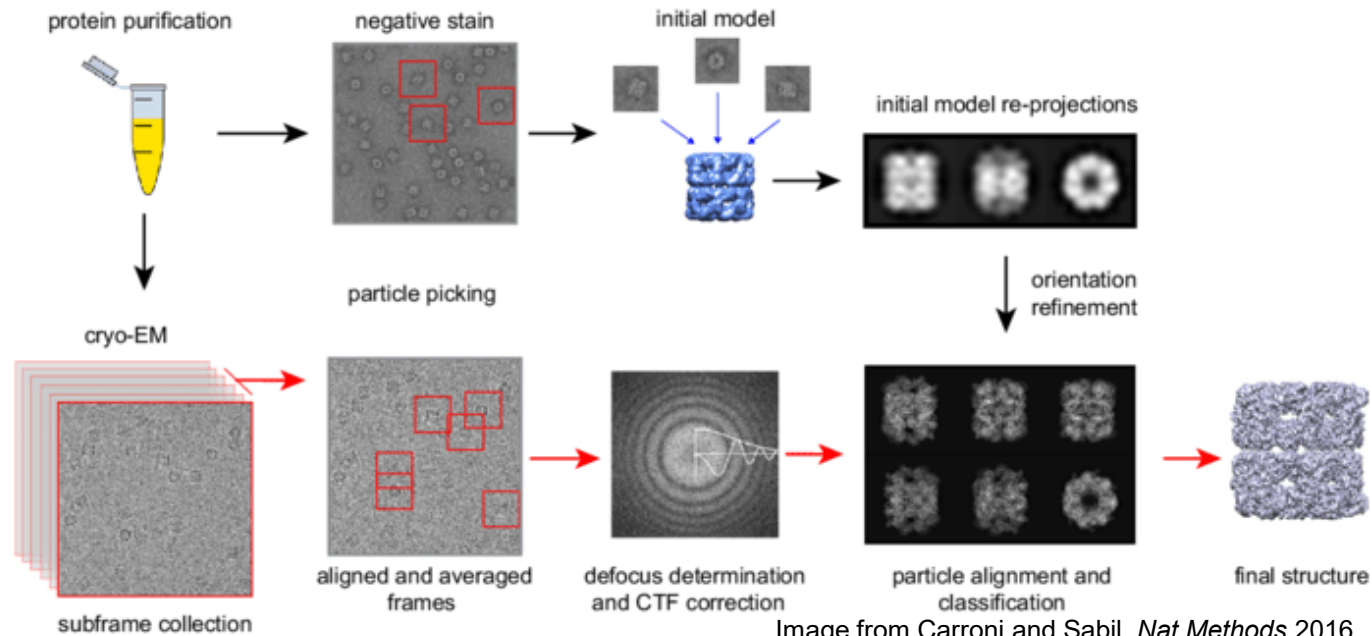
Main choices:

1. Single Particle Analysis (SPA)\*
2. Tomography\*
3. Micro-ED (electron diffraction)

\*We will explore 1 & 2 analysis techniques in this course



# Single Particle Cryo-EM (3D reconstructions from averaging many particles together)



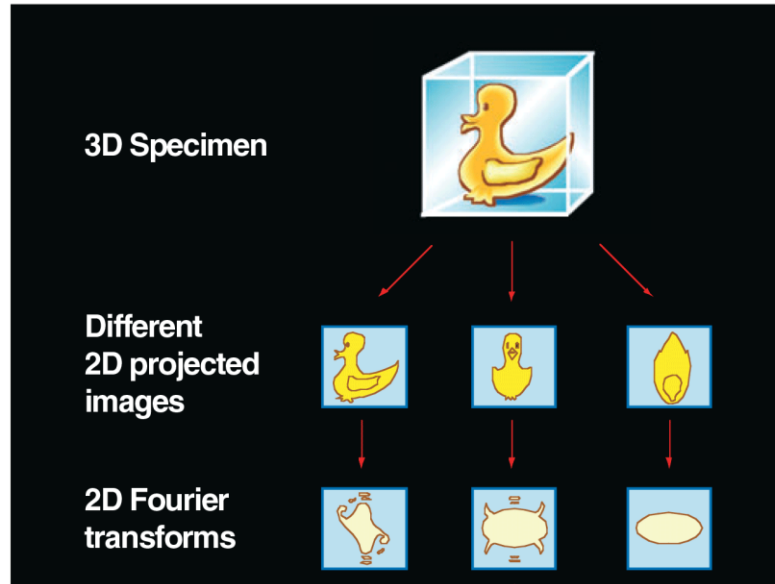
Good for **homogeneous** samples

Currently routinely achieving atomic level resolution (3 Å)

**Total** dose is low ( $<24 \text{ e}^-/\text{Å}^2$ )

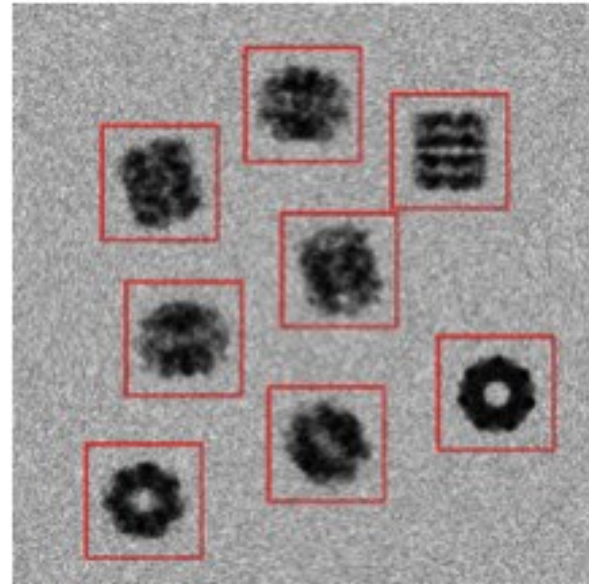
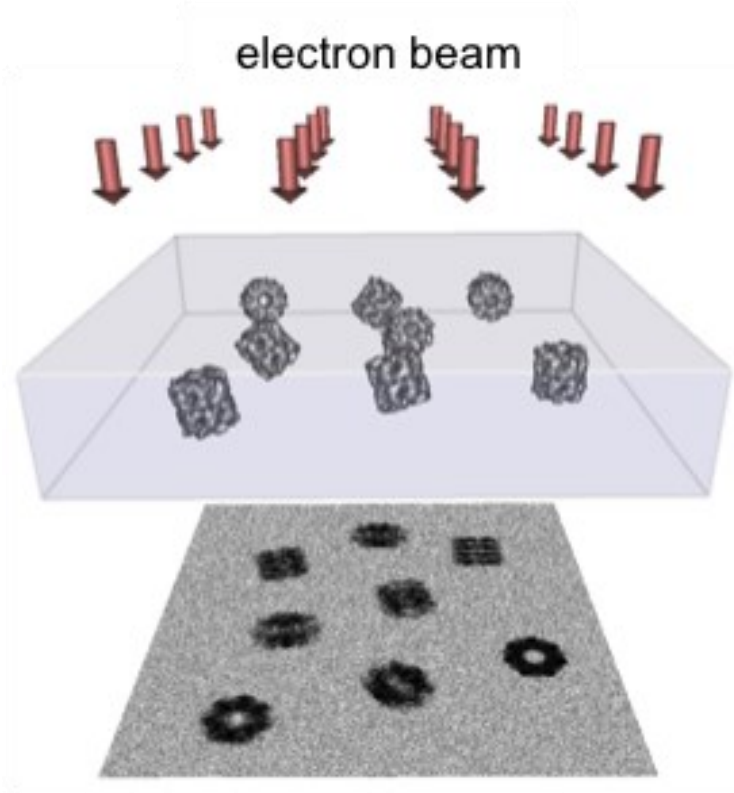


# How do you go from 2D projections to 3D reconstructions?



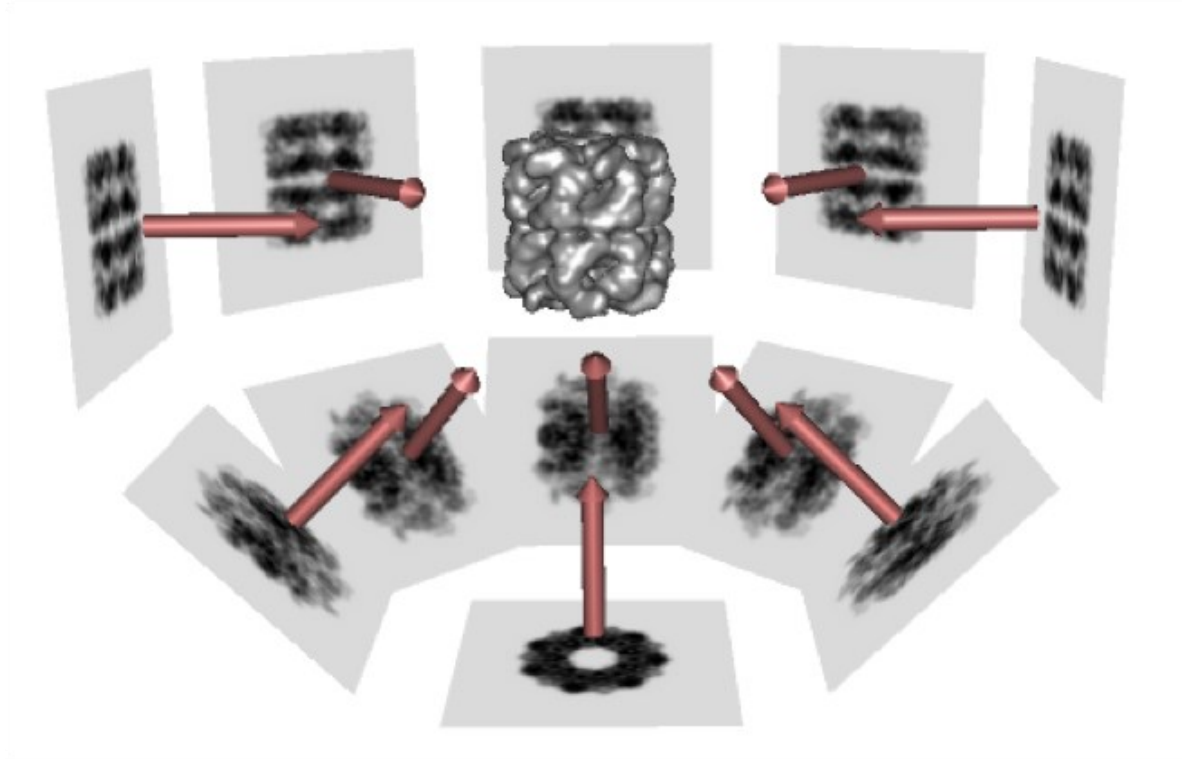


# Single particle analysis



<http://people.csail.mit.edu/gdp/cryoem.html>

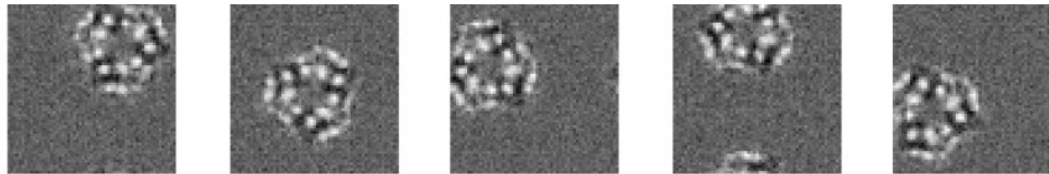
# Single particle analysis



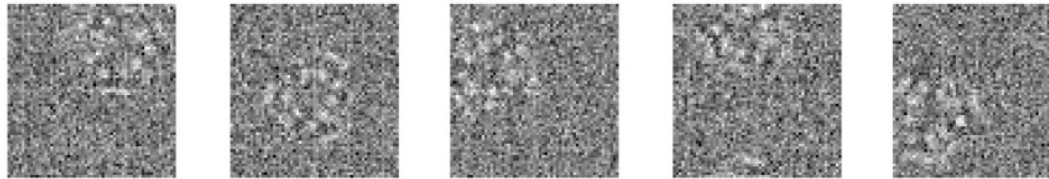
<http://people.csail.mit.edu/gdp/cryoem.html>

# 2D Classification

Goal is to group similar projections together and as a digital particle purification process



**Features clearly visible**



**Features barely visible**

Due to very low signal to noise ratio, grouping projections based on features is difficult



# Example - LarA – Jian Hu Lab

**Sample type:** soluble protein

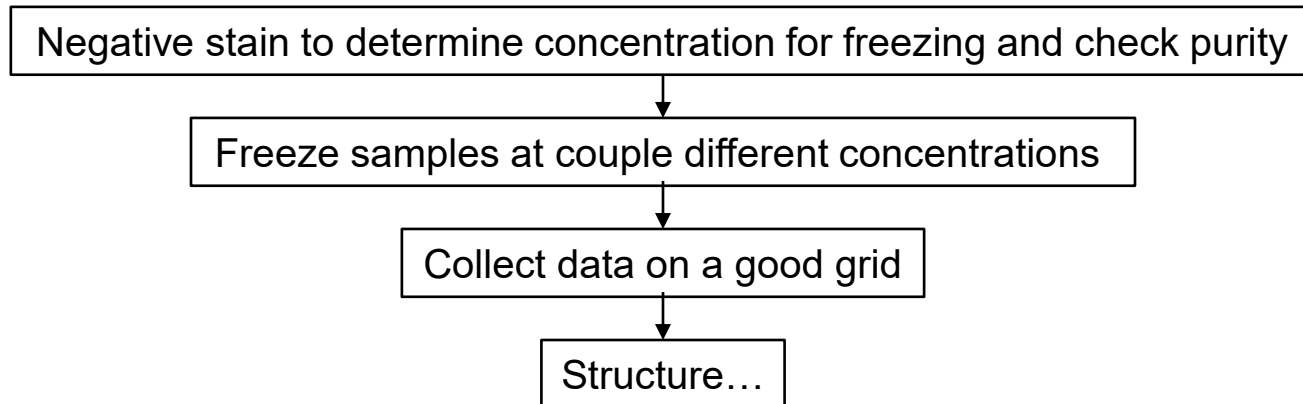
**Number of amino acids:** 495

**Molecular weight:** 56207.08 Da

**Oligomeric State:** May be a Hexamer or an Octamer

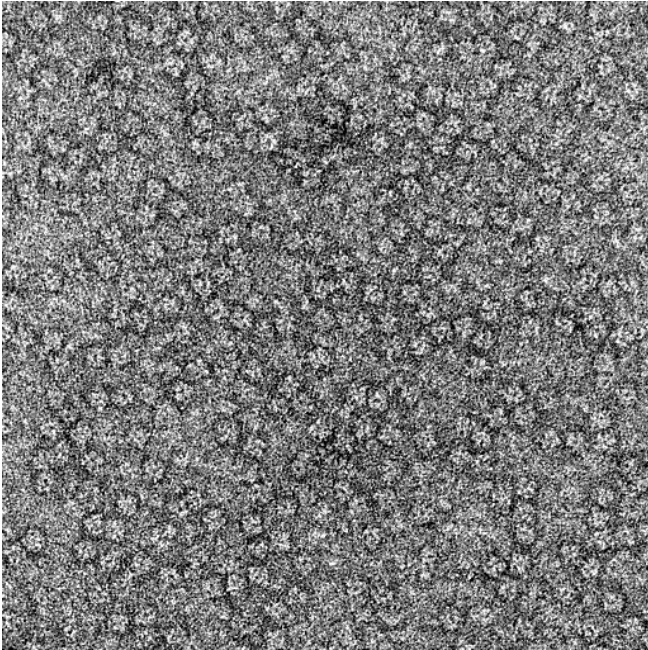
**Amount of Sample required:** ~5  $\mu$ L per grid

## Ideal World Scenario





# LarA – Negative Stain

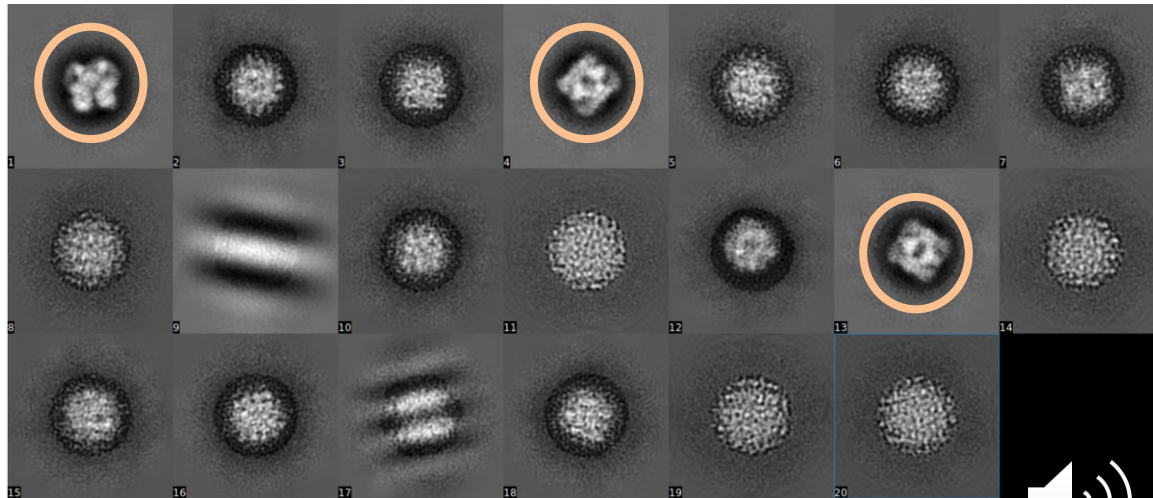


Collected <1day of data for some initial 2D class averages

Particle picking

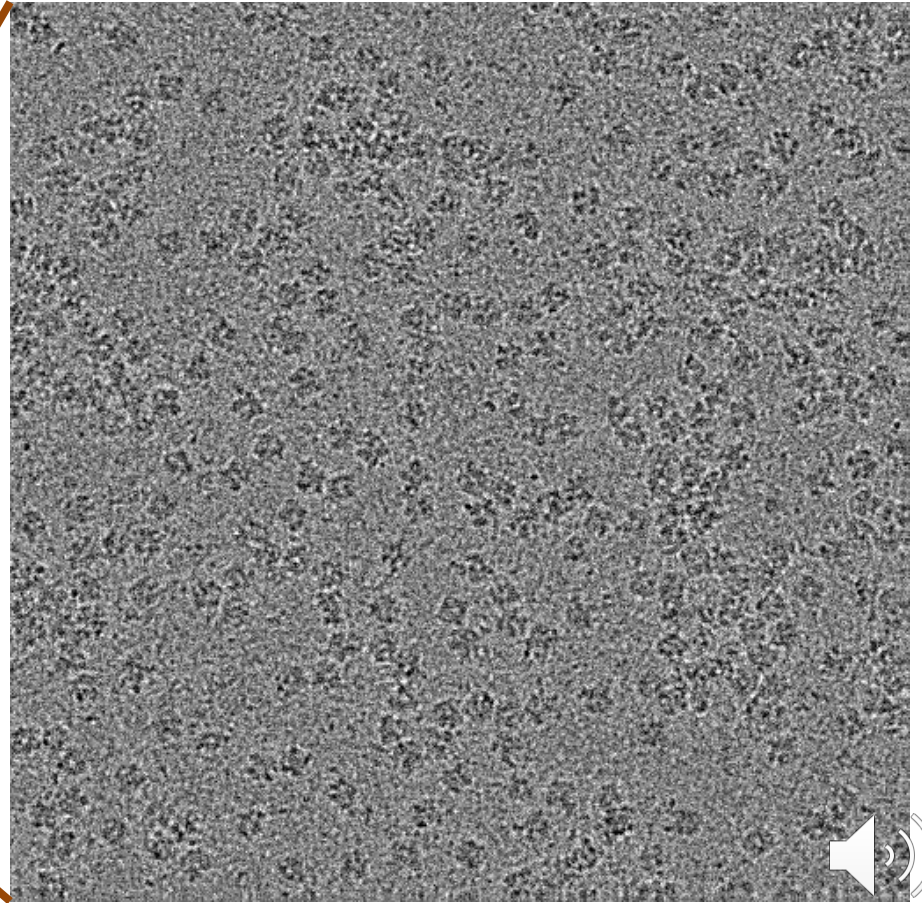
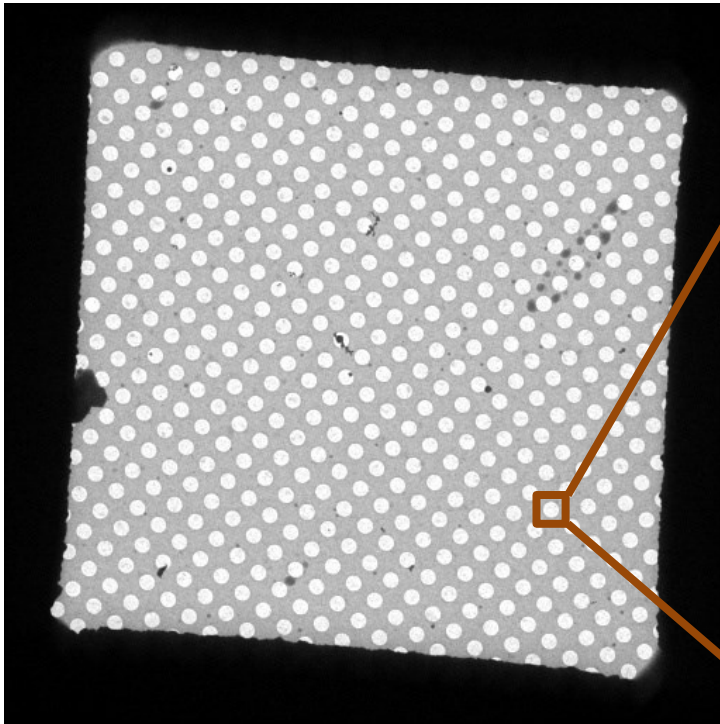


2D classification



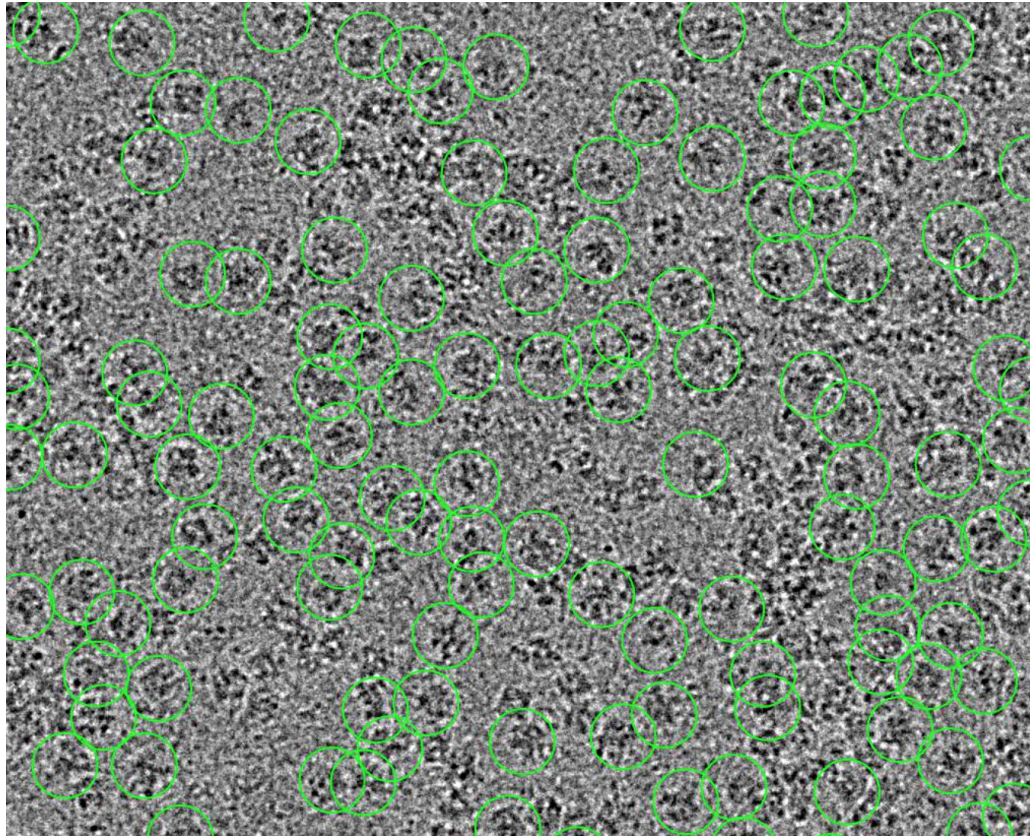
# LarA – Ultrathin carbon coated Quantifoil grids

Gridsquare view





# LarA – Particle picking and 2D classification

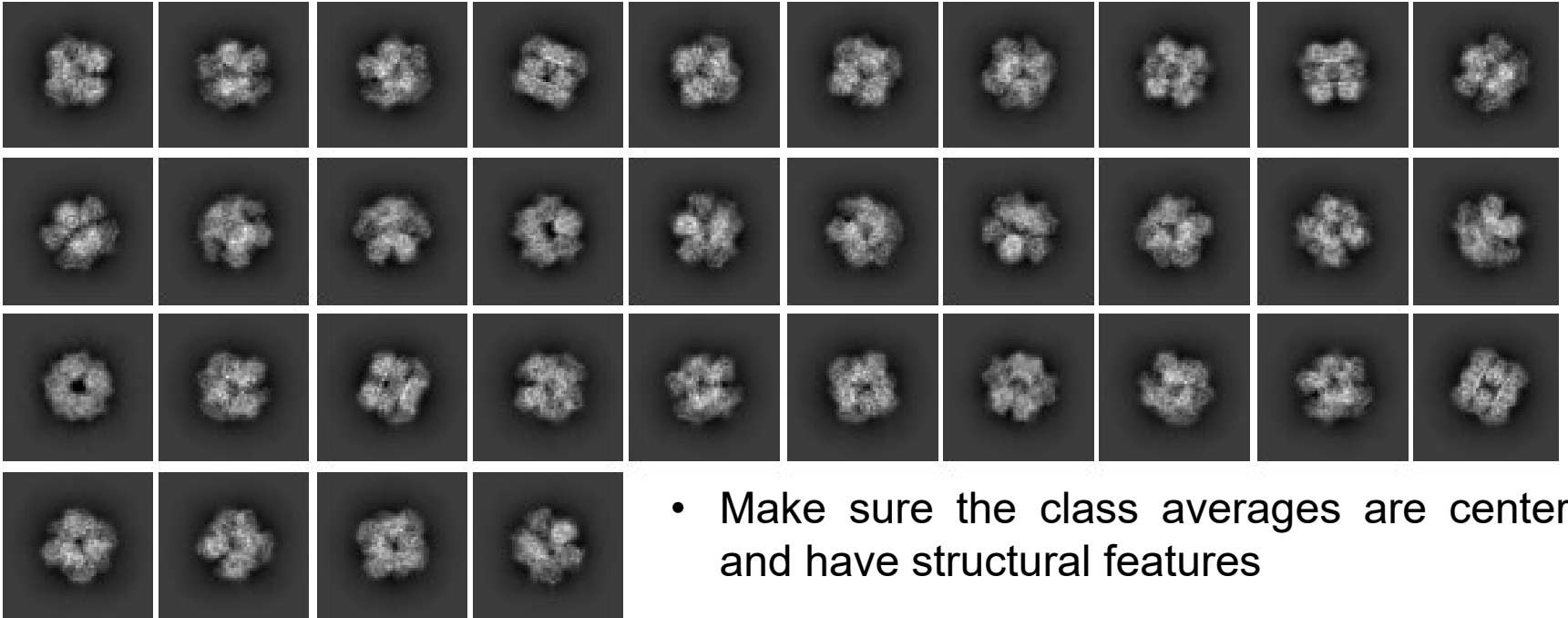


# LarA – Particle picking and 2D classification





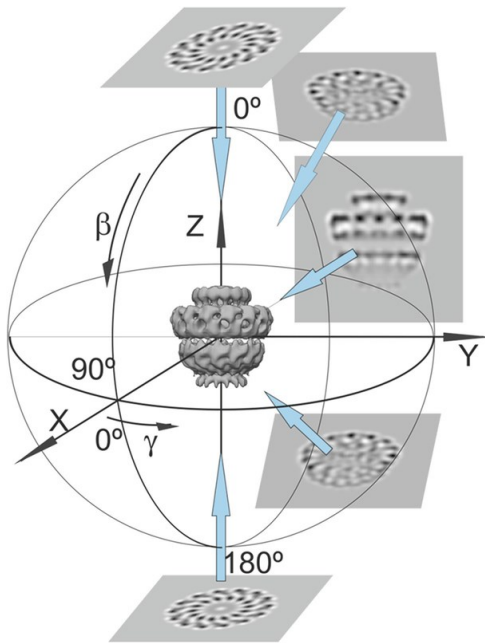
# LarA – Good 2D classes



- Make sure the class averages are centered and have structural features
- Avoid classes with blurred averages

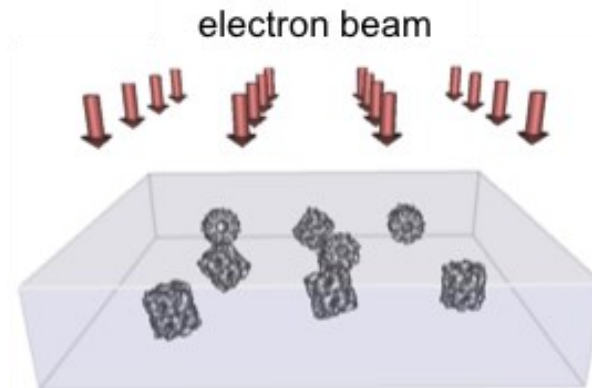


# 3D reconstruction



Total of 6 degrees of freedom

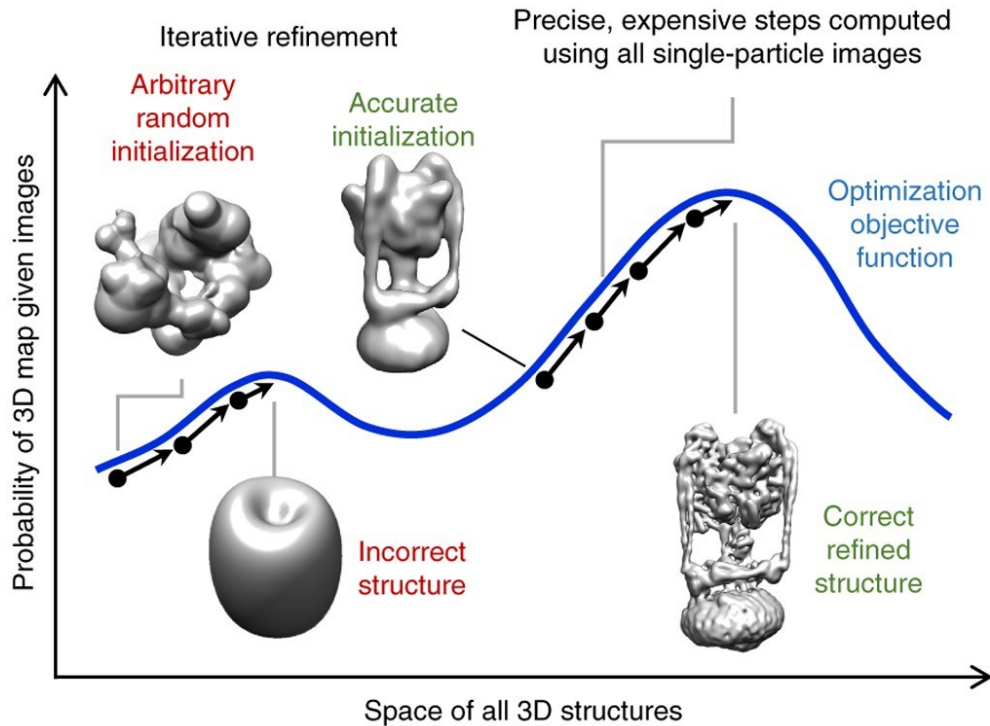
- Each projection can be defined by a set of Euler angles and the shift in X, Y in reference to a 3D structure
- Why not Z ?



The shift in Z is negligible if one assumes that the electron beam is along Z



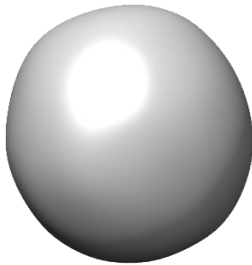
# 3D ab-initio



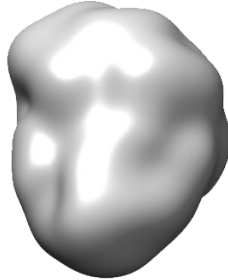
- Goal is to estimate an initial 3D model of your samples based on a given set of projections
- Can lead to incorrect initial model
- Computationally intensive and challenging
- Various algorithms have been developed to address this problem
- Common theme is start with random initial parameters and then iteratively refine them



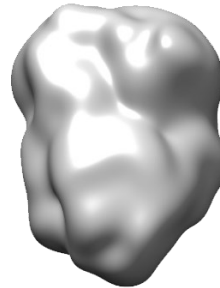
# 3D ab-initio – cisTEM



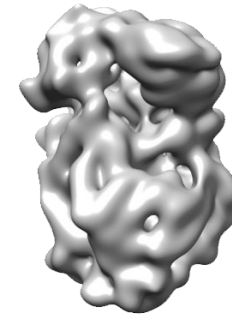
Start



Cycle 9



Cycle 27



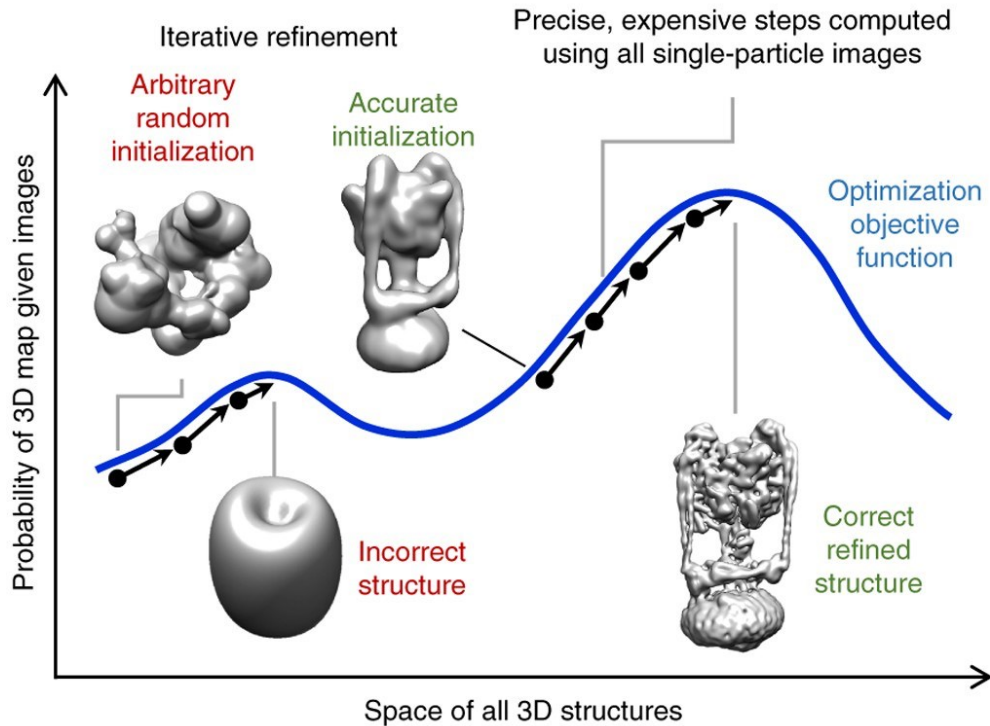
Cycle 40

- Assign random Euler angles for each projection image
- Initial model will basically be a sphere with no features
- Iterative rounds of projection matching with Global searches (sampling the whole range of Euler angles)
- Utilize a subset of the particles and continually increase the number of particles used to generate the initial model





# 3D ab-initio



- Usually initial alignment is carried out at a lower resolution and then increased if improvement is achieved.
- If no features show up during the initial model and the resolution does not improve, then the approach needs to be optimized
- Spherical molecules like viruses and apoferritin for example need to be aligned at a higher resolution initially and more particles are utilized.



But how do you define the *resolution*?

The data is collected to the same resolution always

What determines the resolution?

The quality of the 3D reconstruction.

How do you evaluate that?

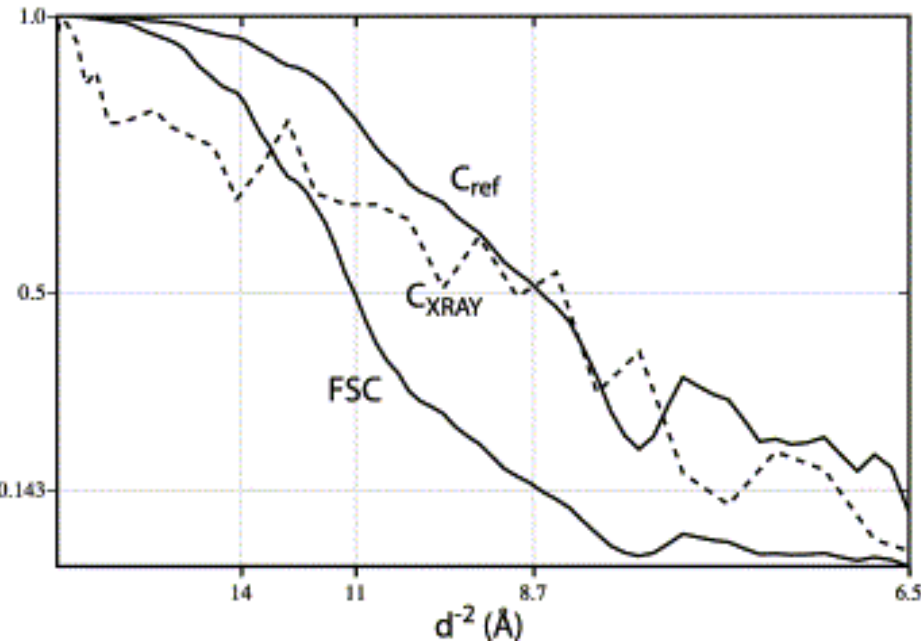
***FSC curve***

$$\text{FSC} = \frac{\sum F_1 F_2^*}{\sqrt{\sum |F_1|^2 \sum |F_2|^2}}$$

- Take the images, split them randomly into two halves.
- Calculate an electron density map from each of the halves
- Apply the structure factor equation (the same one as crystallography)
- The FSC is the correlation between two independent maps, where each map is calculated from half the images. F1 and F2 are the structure factors of the two maps.



# FSC curve



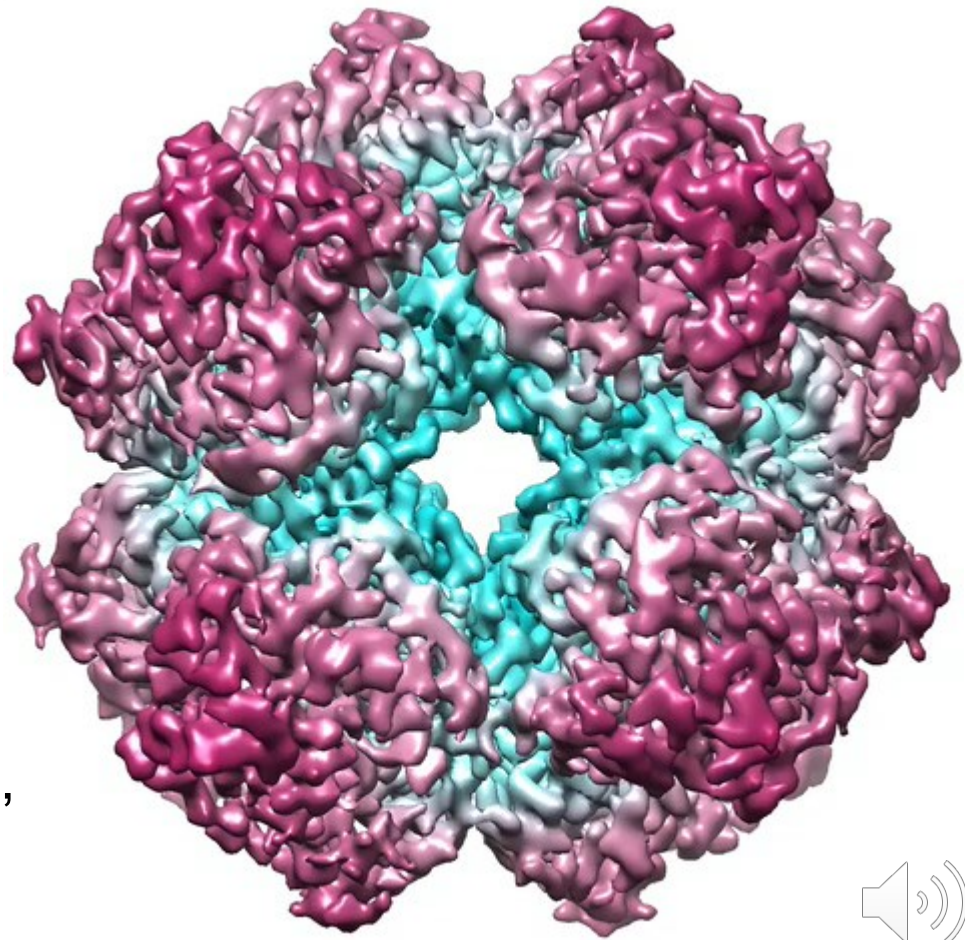
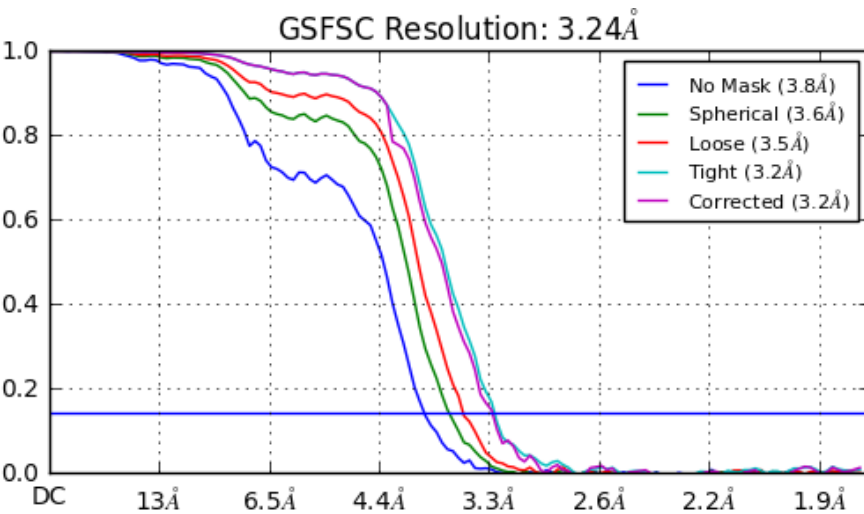
$C_{REF}$  the estimated correlation between a density map calculated from all the data and a perfect reference map.

$C_{XRAY}$  – Crystallographic Figure of Merit

- The resolution of the map is assigned at the point where the FSC crosses a threshold of 0.143.
- Earlier 0.5 was used as the cutoff but its an underestimate because your final reconstruction contains both the halves of data.
- But there is so much debate still going on whether it should be 0.5 or 0.143.



# LarA – C1 symmetry

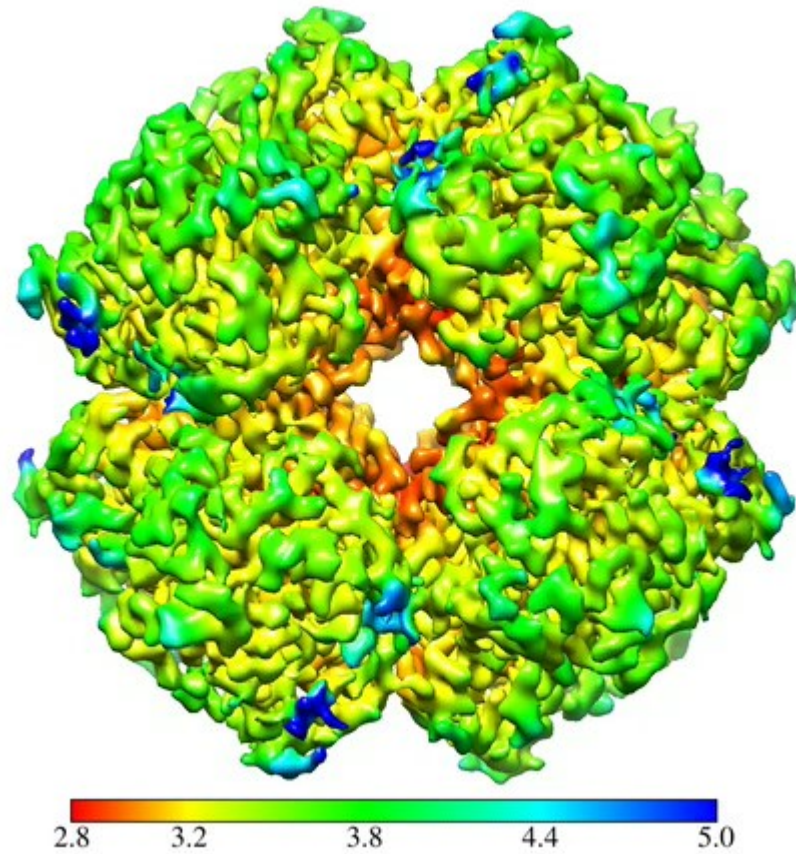


A total of **eight LarA monomers**,  
so higher symmetry possible.  
C4 ? D2 ?

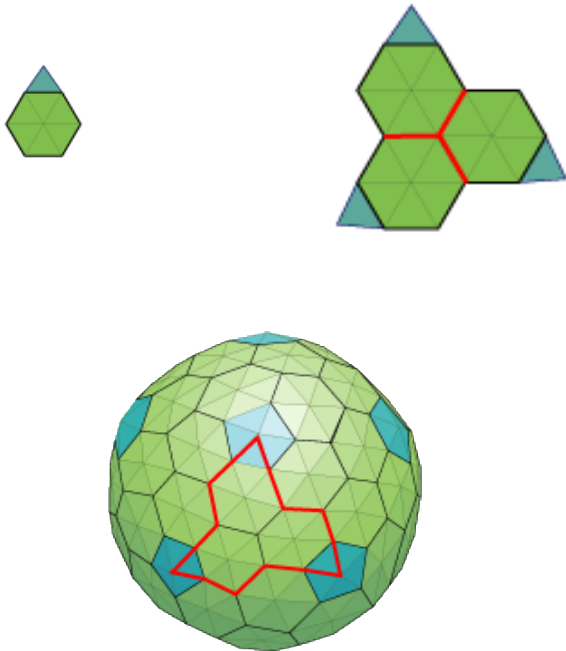




# LarA – C1 Local Resolution



# Symmetry averaging

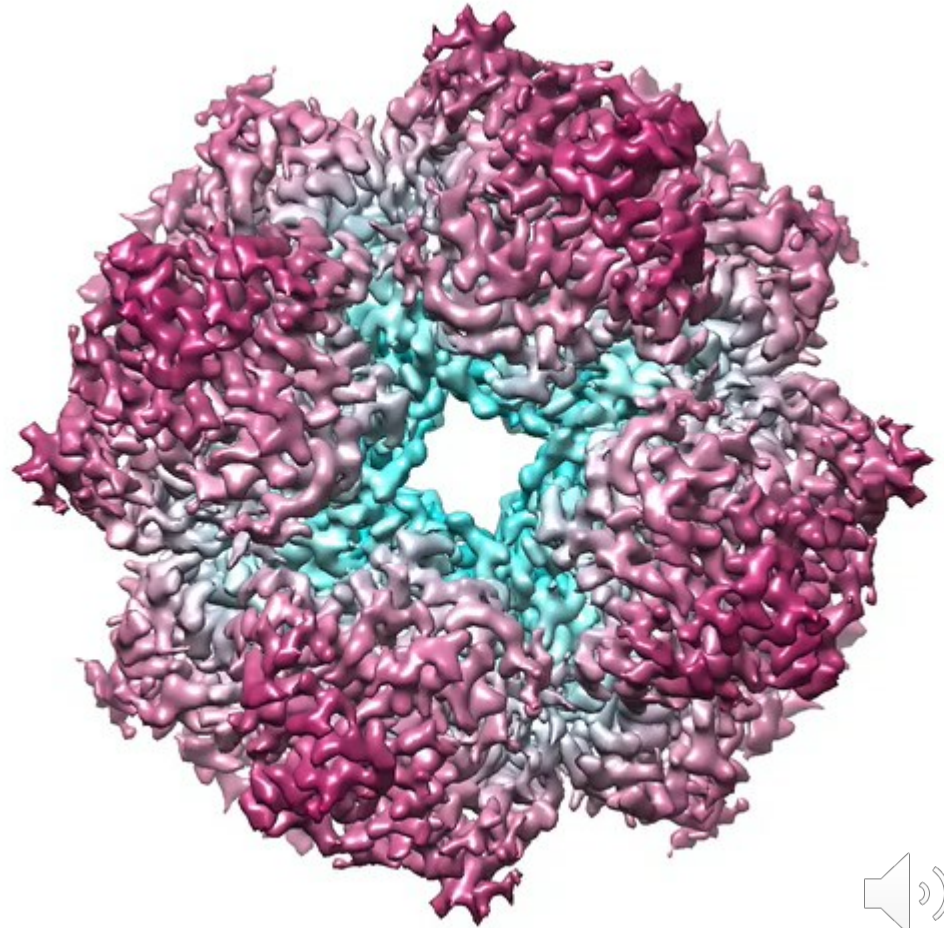
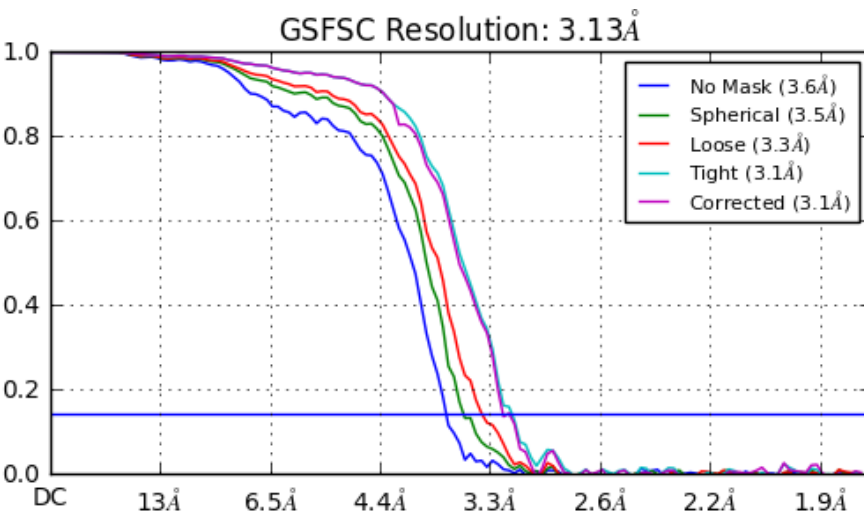


**Mostly beneficial but....**

- Certain biological molecules are oligomers that contain repeating units of a single monomer
- The monomers follow a certain pattern when they come together to form the oligomer
- Simple oligomeric assemblies include dimer, trimer and tetramers
- Certain viruses can form icosahedral structures that contain 60 sub-units
- **Symmetry helps with data processing as there is now extra parameters that can relate projections.**
- **The number of projections required to obtain a reconstruction is lowered when symmetry operators are involved.**



# LarA – C4 symmetry

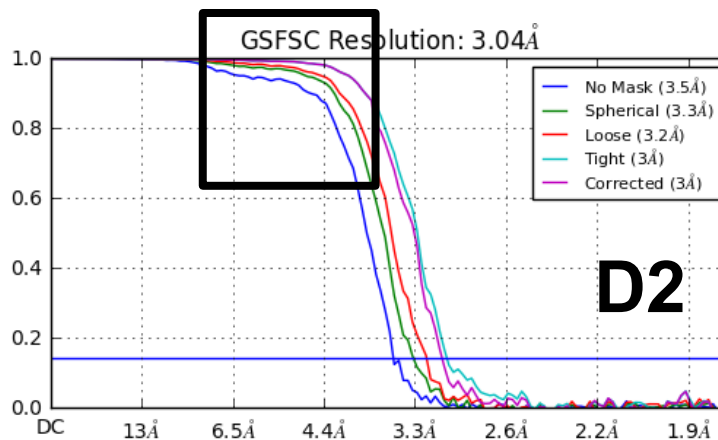
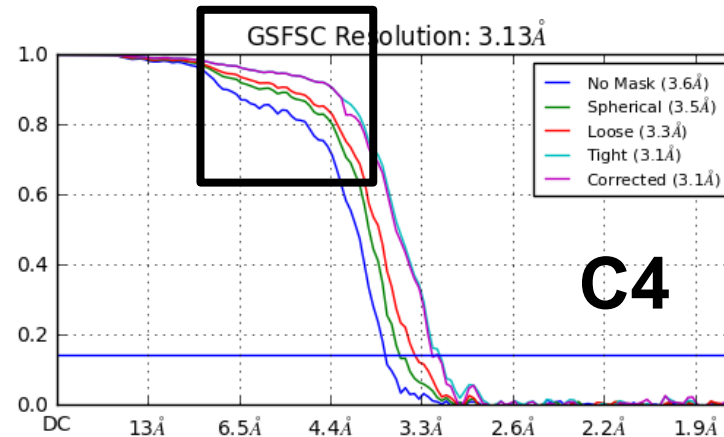
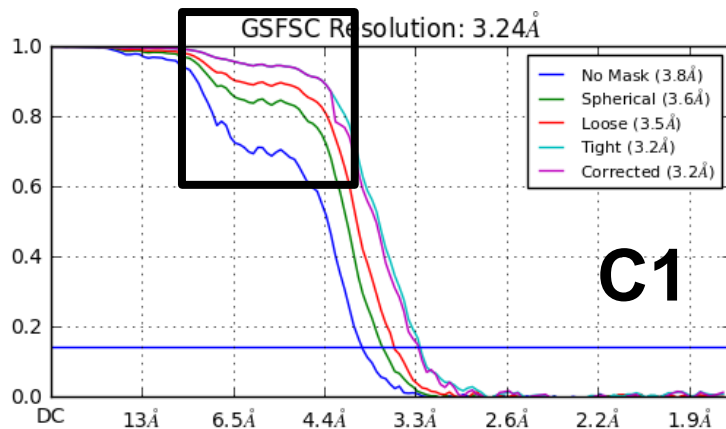


A total of eight LarA monomers,  
so higher symmetry possible.

C4

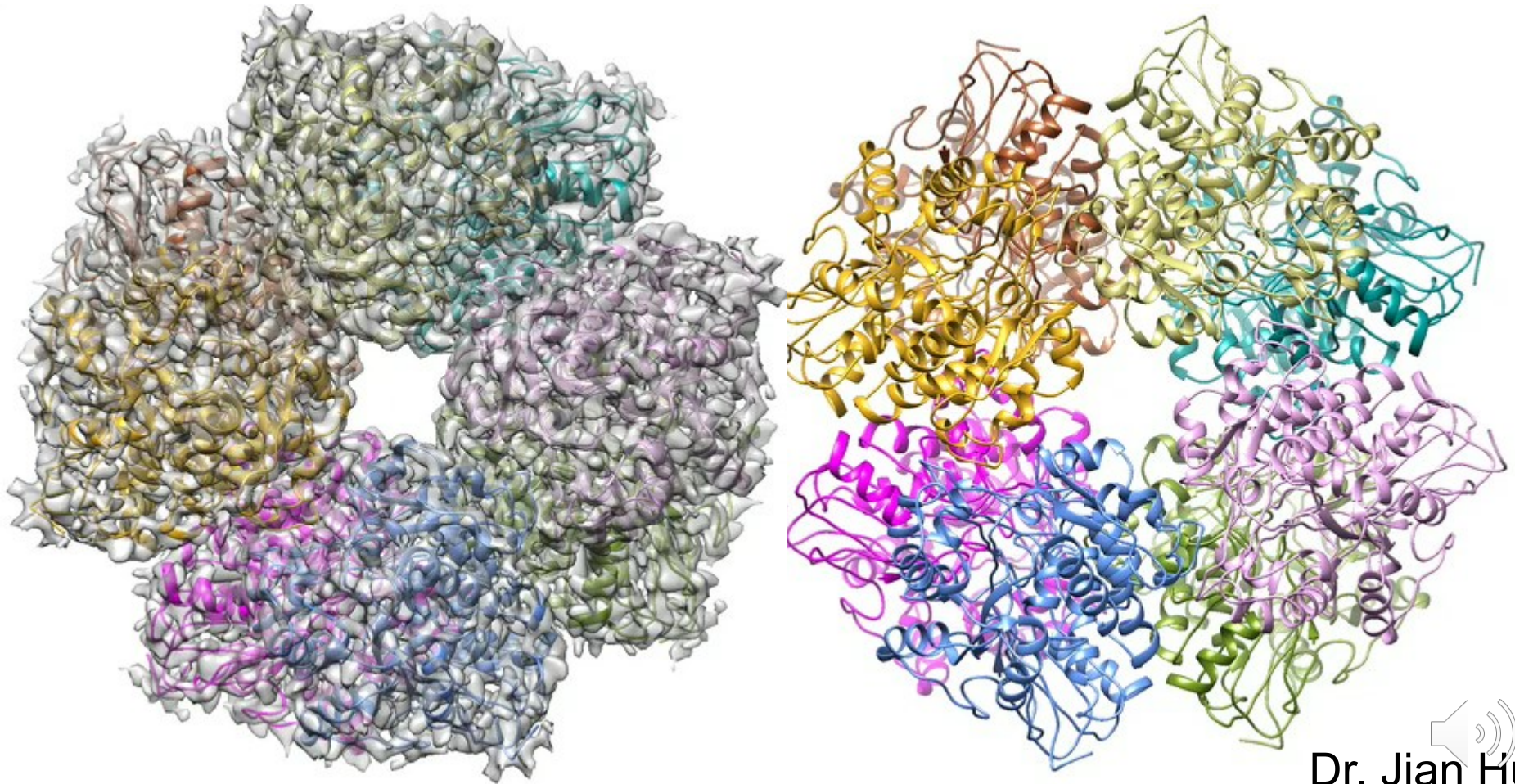


# LarA – C1 (vs) C4 (vs) D2 symmetry





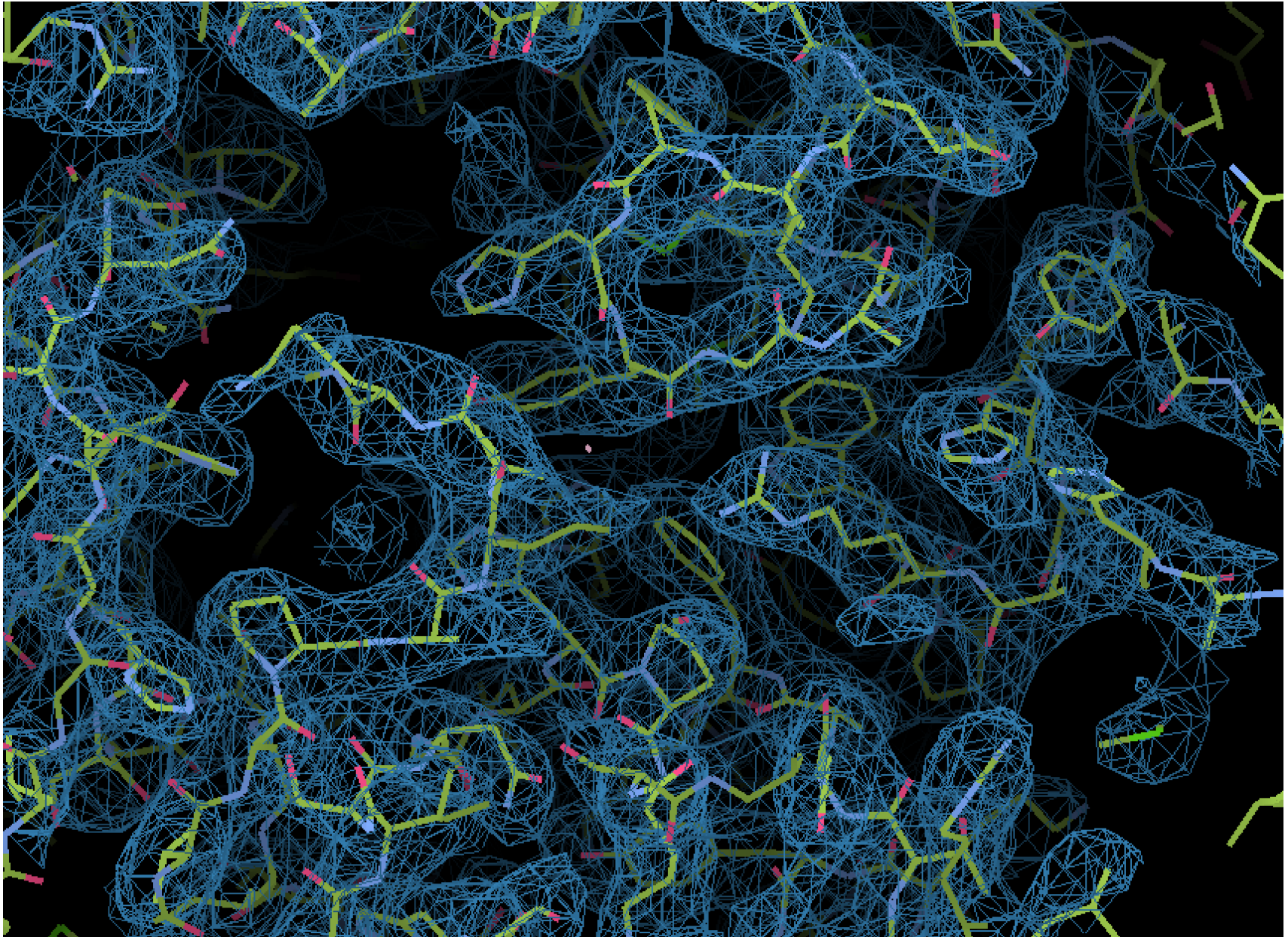
# LarA – Model



 Dr. Jian Hu

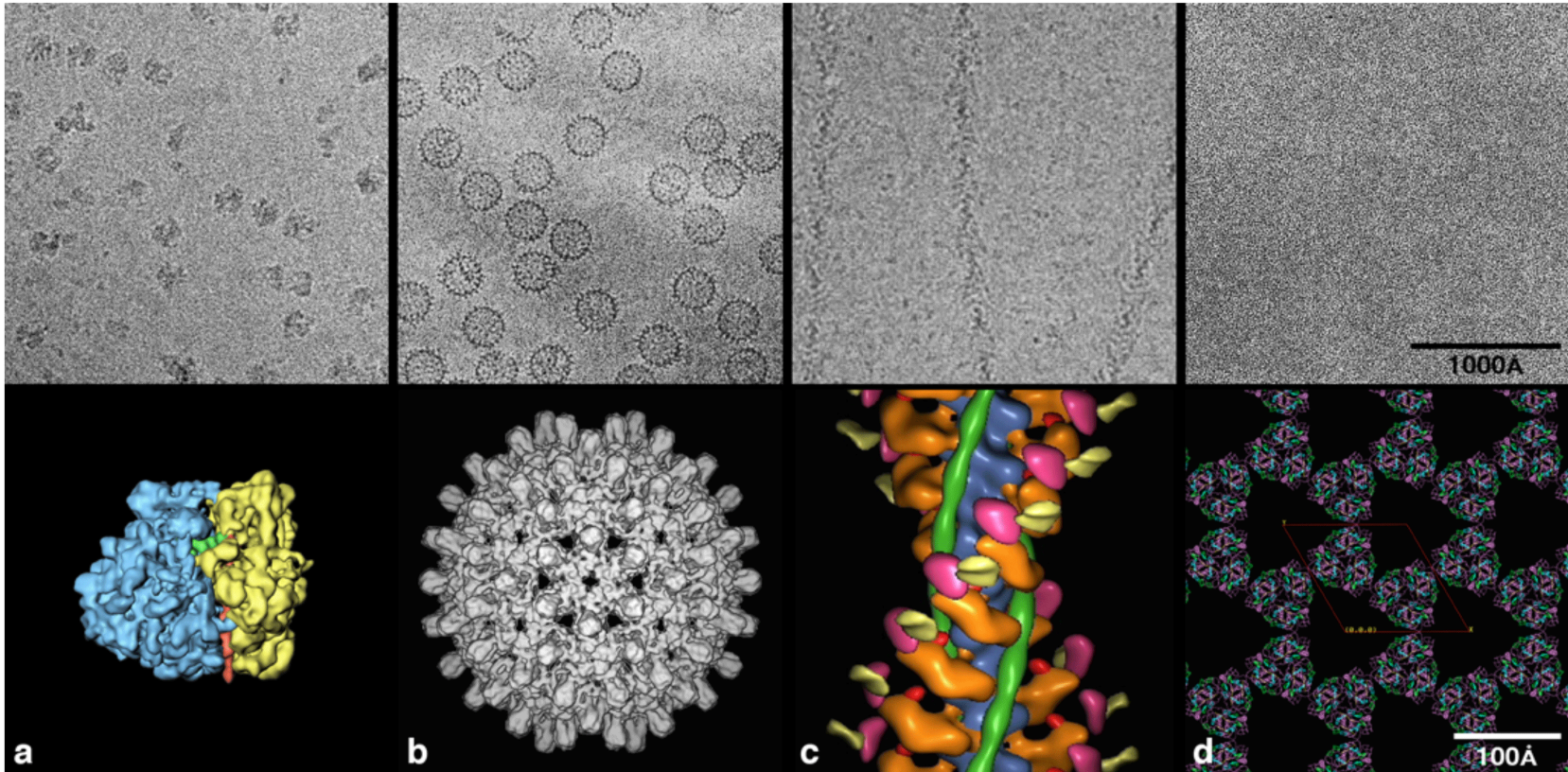


# LarA – Closeup in coot





# Can reconstruct a lot of different specimen types with SPA



a 70S *E. coli* ribosome

b Hepatitis B virus core

c Actin-myosin filament

d Light-harvesting 2D crystal

Current advances reach 1.5 Å resolution with this method!

Artifacts? Averaging losing signal from structure that is not homogenous



# Take home messages

TEM is awesome and really powerful

More than one way to look at a specimen

Need to be aware of the artifacts/limitations

Microscopy is approaching crystallography to achieve near-atomic resolutions of biological structures

