

Article



pubs.acs.org/JACS

High-Throughput PIXE as an Essential Quantitative Assay for Accurate Metalloprotein Structural Analysis: Development and Application

Geoffrey W. Grime,[†][®] Oliver B. Zeldin,[‡] Mary E. Snell,[§][®] Edward D. Lowe,[‡][®] John F. Hunt,[⊥][®] Gaetano T. Montelione,[#][®] Liang Tong,[⊥][®] Edward H. Snell,^{*,§,∥}[®] and Elspeth F. Garman^{*,‡}[®]

[†]Ion Beam Centre, Advanced Technology Institute, University of Surrey, Guildford, Surrey GU2 7XH, United Kingdom

[‡]Department of Biochemistry, University of Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford OX1 3QU, United Kingdom

[§]Hauptman-Woodward Medical Research Institute, 700 Ellicott St., Buffalo, New York 14203, United States

^{II}Materials Design and Innovation, SUNY Buffalo, 700 Ellicott St., Buffalo, New York 14203, United States

¹Department of Biological Sciences, Columbia University, New York, New York 10027, United States

[#]Department of Chemistry and Chemical Biology, Center for Biotechnology and Interdisciplinary Sciences, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy New York 12180 United States

ABSTRACT: Metalloproteins comprise over one-third of proteins, with approximately half of all enzymes requiring metal to function. Accurate identification of these metal atoms and their environment is a prerequisite to understanding biological mechanism. Using ion beam analysis through particle induced X-ray emission (PIXE), we have quantitatively identified the metal atoms in 30 previously structurally characterized proteins using minimal sample volume and a high-throughput approach. Over half of these metals had been misidentified in the deposited structural models. Some of the PIXE detected metals not seen in the models were explainable



as artifacts from promiscuous crystallization reagents. For others, using the correct metal improved the structural models. For multinuclear sites, anomalous diffraction signals enabled the positioning of the correct metals to reveal previously obscured biological information. PIXE is insensitive to the chemical environment, but coupled with experimental diffraction data deposited alongside the structural model it enables validation and potential remediation of metalloprotein models, improving structural and, more importantly, mechanistic knowledge.

1. INTRODUCTION

Metals are important in biology with over one-third of all proteins having one or more metal ligands playing a key structural or catalytic role¹ critical for the progression of many diseases and attractive for therapeutic intervention.² The correct identity and accurate stoichiometry of these ligands are vital biophysical data for characterizing proteins and understanding mechanism, but there is currently no widely accepted standard metal assay. If the structural model is known, circumstantial evidence from the model is used, but this has been shown to be unreliable, particularly at low resolutions.³ For models determined by X-ray crystallography or similar resolution techniques, the choice of metal made at the refinement stage affects the restraints, biasing the final structure. There are sophisticated techniques that make use of anomalous signals in the structure factors which allow for element identification^{4,5} independent of particle induced X-ray emission (PIXE) data. However, these require a knowledge of the expected elemental species and use multiple refinements, comparing the models produced for the different species, or

the use of multiple incident X-ray wavelengths. When no structural information is available, bioinformatic approaches can be used,⁶ but experimental measurement is not part of routine characterization protocols.

To identify and quantitate the metal content of proteins, the limit of detection (LoD) required is a single metal atom in a 100 kDa macromolecule or 500 ppm by dry weight. Current methods for metal identification (reviewed by Hare et al.⁷) include wet assays,⁸ mass spectrometry⁹ and X-ray¹⁰ or electron based characterization¹¹ and imaging,¹² and various combinations of these.^{13,14} The former rely on detecting chemical compounds bound to metal atoms but can only detect one species at a time. Mass spectrometry is sensitive, but results can be degraded by partial occupancies, glycosylation, or post- translational modifications. X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) requires a high sample volume and has stringent experimental requirements.¹⁵ Electron induced X-ray emission



Received: August 24, 2019 Published: December 3, 2019

_	. Samp	Uniprot or Uni- parc ID ^a	ith PDB ID, Gene, Protei	in Descr	iption, N chains in the asym-	umber of	Residues	s, and Chains	in the Asym potential met-	metric Unit, Together with Results Discussed below
DB I	Ð.	Parc ID $(NESG ID)^{b}$	protein description	residues	the asym- metric unit	PDB	Kesolution (Å)	metals in PIXE (>3× LoD)	als in PIXE (1–3× LoD)	crystallization conditions or NMR sample buffer for PDB model
HIX HIX	inco	Disistent with PIXI Q8YQN0 (NeR4371)	E Alr3790 protein	106	ю	Mn	1.92			20% PEG 4000, 0.1 M Mn chloride, 0.1 M MES, pH 6.0
JSR		Q8Z082 (NsR236)	All0216 protein	119	1	К	1.80		Ca	8.64 M K acetate, 0.1 M TAPS, pH 9.0
ILN	_	Q8YQN0 (NsR437H)	Alr3790 protein ^c	141	4	Mn	2.26		Fe, Co	20% PEG 1000, 0.1 M Mn chloride, 0.1 M MES, pH 6.0
HL	54	A0A0H3K5M0 (SnR135D)	flavoprotein	161	ŝ	Ca	2.40		Ca	20% PEG 8000, 0.1 M Ca acetate, 0.1 M MES, pH 6.0
99	ц	Q8A9F0 (BtR324A)	putative chitobiase	169	1	Zn	3.00		Ca, Mn, Fe	0.75 M Mg formate, 0.1 M Bis-Tris, pH 7.0
KB	Т	O28015 (GR157)	nucleotide-binding proteins	262	7	Π	2.87		Co	100 mM Na acetate (pH 4.6), 30% MPD, and 200 mM NaCl
DC	8	A0A3H3KZ89 (LmR141)	histidinal-phosphatase	283	ε	Fe/Zn	2.10	Ca (3.3), Mn (0.5), Fe (1.2), Co (1.2)	лл	15% PEG 8000, 0.17 M Na acetate, 0.01 ML-cysteine, 0.1 M MES pH 6.2
TV	4	Q65D31 (BiR14)	glycoside hydrolase, family 43 YxiA	456	7	Ca	1.70		Ca, Mn	18% PEG 3350, 0.2 M Ca acetate, 0.1 M MES, pH 6.15
ext	ra me	tals present in PIX	CE							
NH	М	Q8AAM3 (BtR319D)	putative chitobiase	172	4	Mg ^d	3.00	Ca (1.74)		100 mM NaCl, 5 mM DTT, 0.02% NaN ₃ , 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5)
ILM	Q	A2SQK8 (MuR16)	peptidase, zinc-dependent	210	1	Fe/Zn	2.00	Fe (0.6), Co (0.9), Ni (0.4), Zn (0.7)		0.1 M Na ₂ MoO ₄ 2H ₂ O, 0.1 M Bis-Tris propane, 12% PEG 20000
ĬĦ	N	Q8DVV9 (SmR83)	TPK_B1_binding domain-containing protein	218	б	Mg^d	3.00	Ca (0.5), Fe (0.1)	Ti, Co, Cu	0.1 M LiCl ₂ 0.1 M Bis-Tris, pH 5.5, 18% PEG 3350
ILM	8	O34664 (SR677)	thiamine pyrophosphokinase	222	4	Mg^d	2.56	Ca (0.7), Fe (0.05)	K/Br	0.1 M KH ₂ PO ₄ 0.1 M NaC ₂ H ₃ O ₂ PH 5.0, 12% PEG 20000
KB ²		Q8YJY7 (NsR141)	lipid binding protein	225	7	Mg ^d	2.41	Mn (0.2), Fe (0.4), Ni (0.4)	Co	0.1 M citric acid, pH 5.0, 1.6 M (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄
ESZ	N	Q9RXN3 (DrR130)	gluconolactonase, putative	296	7	Mg ^d	2.01	Ca ⁵		0.1 M NaCl, 0.1 M TAPS, pH 9.0, 18% PEG 3350, MgCl ₃ - no specified concentration
E48		A0A0H3JTC8 (ZR319)	putative nucleoside- diphosphate-sugar epimerase	289	7	Mg ^d	1.60		Ca, Fe, Cu	0.1 M Tris-HCl, pH 9.1, 18% PEG 3350, 0.1 M MgSO ₄
DEV	~	Q4L745 (ShR87)	uncharacterized protein	320	2	Mg^d	3.10	Mn (0.8), Fe (0.7)		0.1 M Na citrate, pH 5.2, 1.25 M $\rm Li_2SO_4$ 0.5 M (NH_4)2SO_4
K2C	\sim	A1U3A9 (MqR88)	pyrophosphate-fructose 6-phosphate 1-phosphotransferase	420	б	Na ^d	2.48	Ca (7.1)	Fe	0.1 M Na ₂ MoO ₄ 0.1 M Tris, pH 8.0, 20% PEG 8000
E	XE da	ata consistent with	PDB							
Ž N	IJ	QSLFR2 (BfR258E)	F5/8 type C domain-containing protein	168	2	Ca	2.18	Ca (1.7)	Fe	40% PEG 4000, 0.1 M CaCl ₂ 0.1 M Bis-Tris propane, pH 7.0
KP	4	Q81D73 (BcR147A)	bacillolysin	103	1	Ca	N/A	Ca (0.8)		20 mM MES, 200 mM NaCl, 5 mM CaCl ₃ , 10 mM DTT, 0.02% NaN ₃ , 0.05 mM DSS, 90% H ₂ O/10% D ₂ O, pH 6.5

ystallization conditions or NMR sample buffer for PDB model		[w/v) MPD, 0.1% (w/v) 1,2,3:heptanetriol, 0.1% (w/v) diethylene- innepentakis (methyphosphonic acid), 0.1% (w/v) D-sorbitol, 0.1%) glycerol, 0.06 M HEPES, 12.5% PEG 3350	Na ₂ C ₃ H ₂ O ₄ , 0.1 M NaC ₂ H ₃ O ₂ , pH 5.0, 0.05% Anapoe X-305	4 NaAc, 100 mM NaCl, 5 mM CaCl, 10 mM DTT, 0.02% NaN ₃ , mM DSS, 90% H ₂ O/10% D ₂ O, pH 4.5	000 (no specified concentration), 0.2 M $\rm NH_4C_2H_3O_2$ 0.1 M Na te, pH 5.6	Na Citrate, 0.1 M NaCl, pH 5.0	(no specified concentration), 0.2 M MES, pH 6.0, 20% PEG 3350, pF	(no specified concentration), 0.1 M Na Citrate, pH 4.2	4 MgSO4, 0.1 M Na Citrate, 20% PEG 3350	0% MPD, 0.1 M HEPES, pH 7.5	1 MES, 200 mM NaCl, 150 mM MgCl,, 5 mM CaCl,, 10 mM DTT % NaN ₃ , 50 µM DSS, 90% H ₂ O/10% D ₂ O, pH 6.5	HEPES, pH 7.5, 40% PEG 1000, 0.1 M KNO3		HEPES, pH 7.5, 5% PEG 8000, 0.1 M Ca(C ₂ H ₃ O ₂) ₂	MgSO4, 0.1 M Bis-Tris, pH 5.5, 16% PEG 8000
let- E D) c		u 0.1% (trian (w/-	2.0 M	20 mM 0.02	PEG ⊿ citra	0.1 M	NaCl 6.15	RbCl	и 0.15 N	40-44	20 mM 0.02	0.1 M		0.1 M	0.1 M
potential m als in PIX (1–3× Lol		Ca, Co, C	Fe, Ni	Fe	Ca, Fe		Co	Fe	Ca, Fe, Cı		Ca, Fe	Fe, Ni		K, Mn	
metals in PIXE (>3× LoD)		Zn (2.5), Fe (0.3)	Ca, Zn ^f	Ca (0.2)											
Resolution (Å)		2.29	2.69	N/A	2.50	2.40	1.50	2.40	1.60	1.89	N/A	2.90		2.50	2.12
metal in PDB		Zn	Zn			Na ^d	Na^{ν}	Na ^d	Na ^d	Mg ^d	Mg ^d	Mg ^d		Ca	${ m Mg}_{{ m Na}^d}$
chains in the asym- metric unit		4	2	1	4	3	7	7	1	7	1	2		2	3
residues		100	114	80	129	105	149	212	100	255	147	223		284	232
protein description	PDB	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase TRIM37	Gag-Pol polyprotein	uncharacterized protein	FabA domain-containing pro- tein	replication factor A	HIT family hydrolase	putative thiamine pyrophosphokinase	rhodanese domain- containing protein	nucleoside-diphosphate-sugar pyrophosphorylase	RNase H domain-containing protein	hydrolase, HD family	E (no Se signal)	lipase/esterase	
Uniprot or Uni- Parc ID ^a (NESG ID) ^b	lata consistent with	O94972 (HR4604D)	P03355 (OR3)	Q58598 (MjR117B)	Q6CYK7 (EwR179)	Q58559 (MjR118E)	QSE3V1 (VfR176)	Q49X04 (SyR86)	Q49YI7 (SyR101A)	A0A0K9UNA8 (VcR193)	Q24WL3 (DhR1A)	Q6HJG6 (BuR114)	too dilute for PIXI	F9US10 (LpR108)	D7 V7L4 (LpR109)
PDB ID	III: PIXE d	3LRQ	3NNQ	2KS2 ^e	3ESI	3DM3	3124	3L8M	3FOJ	4EVW	2KW4 ^e	3DJB	IV: sample	3D3N	3DC7
.ou	class	3	4	5	6	7	8	6	10	Ξ	12	13	class	-	5

be confirmed in the experimental configuration used here. ^eNMR derived models: in these cases the sample buffer contained 20 mM CaCl₂. ^JSelenium signal was below 3× the limit of detection, so accurate stoichiometry could not be established. The metals contained in the PDB model are shown along with the resolution of the structural data, the PIXE identified metals (concentration above 3× the limit of detection, so the limit of detection (LoD)) with their stoichiometry in brackets, and potential metals (concentration 1–3× the LoD) from the same protein as used for the structural determination. The crystallization conditions used to produce the PDB model are listed based on the deposited information for the model. ^aUniprot for full-length protein. ^bNortheast Structure

Journal of the American Chemical Society

Table 1. continued



Figure 1. Key components of the experimental setup showing (a) the sample drop array, (b) a schematic of the high-throughput sample stick and sample holder, (c) a schematic of the experimental chamber, and (d) a photograph of the microbeam end station at the University of Surrey Ion Beam Centre, Guildford, UK.

(electron probe microanalysis) has a high LoD so that generally metals in proteins are undetectable. X-ray fluorescence has a sufficiently low LoD and spatial resolution for metal identification.¹⁶ However, the LoD and range of elements detectable depends strongly on the primary X-ray beam energy used to induce X-ray emission, and achieving accurate quantitation is challenging.

We have developed the use of an MeV microbeam ion beam analysis (IBA) technique, PIXE, in combination with Rutherford backscattering spectrometry (RBS)¹⁷ to identify metal atoms in proteins and quantify their stoichiometry, in a high-throughput pipeline (HT-IBA). A single microPIXE analysis in a sub-nanoliter sample can detect all elements heavier than sodium with detection limits (<50 ppm) well matched to the accurate quantification of metals in proteins. Our HT-IBA methodology has been validated on a well characterized sample set of 32 metalloproteins which revealed the promiscuous nature of metals in the protein samples used for crystallization. We examined three in detail for which the metal detected by IBA differed from that in the Protein Data Bank (PDB) model, with one revealing important structural knowledge that was initially missed.

2. EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

2.1. Samples. The 32 proteins used for the study came from the Northeast Structural Genomics (NESG) program. These samples were expressed, purified, and prepared as described elsewhere.^{18,19} Purification mostly involved a Ni-NTA affinity column followed by gel filtration chromatography, although in some cases Co-NTA affinity purification was used. Details of the sample preparation for each protein are recorded in the SPINE database²⁰ under the corresponding NESG Target ID listed in Table 1. Sample homogeneity was >95% based on SDS-PAGE gels with Coomassie Brilliant Blue staining.

Purified protein samples were provided to the Hauptman-Woodward High-Throughput Crystallization Screening Center $(HTCSC)^{21}$ as part of the NIH supported Protein Structure Initiative (PSI), and all resulted in crystals. The samples used for the PIXE measurements represented the material recovered from the delivery robot dead volume after crystallization screening took place and were not produced specifically for this study. They consist of the protein in

the protein buffer and are not contaminated by any of the components of the crystallization cocktails. All the samples incorporated seleno-methionine (SeMet) for crystallographic phasing purposes, and all were in a buffer containing 5 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), 100 mM sodium chloride, 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, and in some cases 0.02% sodium azide. The structures of all samples were determined as part of the PSI, 29 by crystallography and 3 by NMR using the same protein as produced for crystallization screening. All were deposited in the PDB together, in the case of the crystallographic models, with the structure factors and the optimized crystallization conditions. Details of the samples are provided in Table 1 which also summarizes the results. Samples ranged in molecular weight from 80 to 456 kDa and were chosen at random from a set of metalloproteins screened in the regular HTCSC pipeline.

2.2. Sample Preparation. The liquid samples were prepared for high-throughput PIXE studies by the addition of 10% v/v glycerol to control their viscosity and wetting properties. They were then deposited (printed) onto a 4 µm thick Prolene (polypropylene, $(C_3H_6)_n$) backing film (TF-240, Fluxana, Germany) using a noncontact array jet printer (ArrayJet Marathon microprinter arrayer Edinburgh, UK). Two 100 pL volume drops were deposited in each position onto the film which was stretched over and then attached with contact adhesive to a 75 mm × 25 mm aluminum alloy plate with five 8 mm \times 8 mm square apertures. The spots were $\hat{60} \ \mu m$ in diameter and can be printed in up to a 12×9 rectangular array with their centers positioned 200 μ m apart, Figure 1a. An array can be printed on each of the five apertures in a single holder that fits onto the microbeam target ladder, Figure 1b, enabling up to 540 different proteins to be mounted in the sample chamber in a single loading (avoiding the need to break the vacuum).

2.3. Data Collection. The PIXE analysis was carried out using the microbeam line on the 2MV Tandetron accelerator (HVEE Corporation, NL) installed in the Stephens Laboratory of the University of Surrey Ion Beam Centre.²² Monoenergetic protons (available energies 1.5 to 4 MeV) are focused to a diameter of <2 μ m using a magnetic quadrupole triplet lens type OM-150 (Oxford Microbeams Ltd., UK).²³ The beam is transported under high vacuum, and analysis takes place in an evacuated target chamber. The focused beam can be magnetically scanned over areas of up to 2 mm square. The beam induced X-rays are detected using a lithium drifted silicon detector (SGX Sensortech, UK) with active area of 80 mm² and 140 eV resolution at an X-ray energy of 5.9 keV, mounted at a central angle of 135° to the beam direction in the horizontal plane and with a sample to detector distance which can be varied between 20 mm and 70 mm. Elastically backscattered protons (RBS) are detected using a PIPS charged particle detector (Canberra, now Mirion Technologies, USA) with an active area of 300 mm² mounted 52 mm from the sample at a central angle of 128° to the beam direction in the vertical plane. X-ray photon and particle energies are converted to amplitude-modulated voltage pulses and recorded using the OMDAQ data acquisition system (Oxford Microbeams Ltd., UK). OMDAQ also controls the magnetic beam scanning and the positioning of the motorized sample stage, allowing the recorded data pulses to be coordinated with the beam position to create spatially resolved elemental maps. A schematic and a photograph of the chamber are shown in Figure 1c and d.

The HT-IBA experiments reported here were carried out using a 2.5 MeV proton beam focused to a diameter of 2 μ m with a current of ~500 pA measured in a spectroscopically pure graphite Faraday cup mounted behind the samples. The X-ray detector was fitted with a 130 μ m beryllium foil absorber to avoid spectrum degradation due to recoiling protons entering the detector. This also blocks the low energy X-rays emanating from Na and Mg which could not be detected under these experimental conditions. However, these elements can be measured by removing the beryllium filter and using a lower primary beam energy.²⁴

Due to imperfections of the printer and variations in the properties of the liquid solutions, the spots in the printed array are subject to irregularities in both shape and position. Additionally, there can be small misalignments between the axes of the printer, the sample stage motion, and the beam scanning system, so the array may appear distorted when it is mapped by PIXE. To overcome this, the array is assumed to be divided into quadrilateral cells, each containing a single spot. The array is printed with a metal salt spot, e.g., KCl, in each corner cell (fiducial marks) which are easily visible using PIXE mapping. The fiducial spots are located manually using PIXE and the centroid coordinates determined from the most intense PIXE signal using a least-squares circular feature location algorithm (CFL) implemented in OMDAQ. Using the recorded coordinates of the corner cells, the center of each cell of the array is found automatically by linear interpolation and the sample stage is then moved to visit each cell in sequence. This procedure corrects for any linear distortion of the array pattern. To correct for spot printing errors within the cells and to optimize the utilization of beam time, an automated procedure is used in which the region occupied by each spot within the cell is located by PIXE mapping of the entire area of that cell. The CFL algorithm is then used to restrict the beam scanning area to the actual extent of the spot for the analysis exposure, thus reducing the beam time required for that spot by up at a factor of 4 and providing a significant improvement in sample throughput.

The accumulated data are monitored in real time to determine when to terminate the analysis of each spot. A Gaussian fitting procedure in OMDAQ periodically calculates the backgroundcorrected counts (N) and, hence, the relative counting error $(1/\sqrt{N})$ of each of the X-ray peaks of interest in the PIXE spectrum (defined by the user). The data collection on that spot is terminated when the ratios of the element peaks of interest to the internal standard element in the sample (see below) can be determined to a user-specified accuracy, Δ , i.e. $\sqrt{1/N_x + 1/N_s} < \Delta$, where x and S are the unknown and standard elements. Sulfur is normally used as the internal calibration element, 25,26 but in this work the standard sample buffer contained additional sulfur (5 mM DTT). Therefore, we used the selenium (as SeMet) already incorporated into the samples as the internal standard. The RBS spectrum is monitored simultaneously to ensure that the total number of detected backscattered protons is sufficient to allow the sample matrix composition and thickness to be well determined, enabling accurate correction of the PIXE data for sample matrix effects (X-ray absorption and incident particle energy loss within the sample). For each set of samples supplied to the Arrayjet printer, an input file provided by the user contains the position and identity of each spot in the printed array, the elements of interest, the number of selenium (or sulfur) atoms per macromolecule (known from the primary sequence), and the desired accuracy of the determination, Δ . This procedure is applied sequentially to the individual samples listed in the input file, automatically locating the target spot and then dwelling on the spot until the specified analytical accuracy has been achieved. Checks are in place at each stage to identify and exclude cases such as missing array spots or spots which are so badly misaligned that they cannot be uniquely located. Data collected from each spot are in the form of a 2048-channel PIXE spectrum, a 2048-channel RBS energy spectrum and a set of experimental parameters. In this experiment, the run time on each spot was 5-10 min, so that all 32 samples could be measured in a 6 h unattended overnight period.

2.4. Data Processing. 2.4.1. Determining Accurate Metal Stoichiometry. Under certain conditions, ion beam analysis has been demonstrated to have a quantitative accuracy of 1% with traceability to primary standards,²⁷ but this requires very careful calibration of many experimental parameters such as detector solid angle and beam charge. In our method we eliminate many of these factors by measuring concentration ratios to a known "standard" element within the same spectrum. Thus, the stoichiometry of element *x* in a macromolecule is given by

$$N_x = \frac{C_x}{C_S} \frac{M_S}{M_x} N_S$$

where N_x is the number of atoms of element *x* per protein, C_x and C_S are respectively the concentration of *x* and the known element to be used as the internal standard (extracted from the PIXE spectrum), M_x

and $M_{\rm S}$ are respectively the atomic mass of x and the standard, and $N_{\rm S}$ is the number of standard atoms per molecule, in this case the selenium incorporated into the samples. An average 75-80% selenomethionine substitution is reported in the sample production pipeline,¹⁸ and the crystallographic structural data examined for the samples studied here indicated complete substitution judging by the observed electron density, an observation that is not unexpected.² For the NMR cases, we cannot examine the electron density. The 75-80% seleno-methionine substitution sets a lower boundary and establishes the degree of any potential experimental error. The difference in quantification of the number of metals measured when assuming 100% substitution versus 80% is insignificant for our purposes, e.g., for 3DCP, protein 7 in Table 1, 100% substitution yields 3.28 Ca, 0.48 Mn, 1.20 Fe, and 1.20 Co compared to 3.33 Ca, 0.51 Mn, 1.15 Fe, and 1.15 Co for 80% substitution. Therefore, we used the number of fully substituted methionine residues in the protein for $N_{\rm s}$.

The elemental ratios C_x/C_s are obtained from the PIXE spectrum using the commercially available GUPIX software package that embodies a physical model of the X-ray emission process to simulate the observed spectrum and a least-squares fitting algorithm to vary the elemental concentrations in order to optimize the fit to the measured spectrum.²⁹ The only instrumental calibration routinely required is to determine the variation of X-ray detector efficiency with energy at the start of each run period. This is achieved by analyzing a lead-glass standard reference material (BCR-126A, European Commission, Joint Research Centre (JRC), Geel, Belgium), shown as "calibration sample" in Figure 1b and adjusting the parameters in the model of the efficiency to optimize the accuracy of determination for all detected elements.³⁰ GUPIX applies corrections based on the thickness and composition of the sample matrix, and these are determined from the simultaneously collected RBS spectrum. The RBS spectra were processed using a least-squares fitting algorithm to vary the elemental concentrations in a physical model to obtain the concentrations and depth distribution of the sample matrix. This algorithm is implemented in the OMDAQ software and uses non-Rutherford proton elastic scattering cross sections obtained from the IBANDL database³¹ maintained by the International Atomic Energy Agency.

Having determined the C_x/C_s ratio, the stoichiometry of the elements of interest can be calculated from the known number of atoms of the reference element, as above. The uncertainty and LoD of the measurements depend strongly on the specifics of each case but typically the stoichiometry can be determined with a standard error typically less than 0.1 atoms per molecule and with an LoD less than 0.01 atoms per molecule. This has been verified over many years from our previous low throughput work.^{25,26}

2.4.2. Optimization Steps/Optimizing the Method. To establish this technique, we eliminated a number of factors that could affect the accuracy of the results including mixing of adjacent samples, beamstrike on other components, and potential contamination. Mixing of sample material between adjacent spots can be caused by memory effects and mistargeting in the inkjet printer nozzles. This possibility was investigated by printing an array of different metal salt solutions using the procedures detailed above and scanning the beam vertically and horizontally across the salt array. No mixing of samples was observed above the LoD (data not shown). This check also confirmed that there was no cross talk due to halo on the focused proton beam. Beamstrike on other components in the target chamber, particularly the downstream graphite Faraday cup, could cause spurious signals in the measured spectra. This was monitored by regularly retracting the sample from the beam and scanning the beam over an area significantly larger than a single spot. The source of any rogue signal was identified and rectified. Signals from contaminants in the support film would also confound the PIXE results. The Prolene film used here was selected for its elemental purity after an extensive survey and testing of many possible thin support films.³⁷

Several different printing parameters were tested to optimize the suitability of the printed array for IBA. These included the number of inkjet drops per spot, the spacing of the spots, and the amount of glycerol added to the sample solutions. The conditions used above were those found to be the optimum compromise between increasing the amount of analyte, and hence the PIXE yield, and ensuring wellformed spots.

2.4.3. Structural Modeling and Refinement. For all 32 samples, a model had previously been deposited in the PDB, and the associated experimental information was downloaded. To remove subjectivity from the refinement process and ensure comparison using the same processing algorithms, the models were rerefined using PDB RE-DO,³³ version 7.25. The resulting model and electron density was examined using COOT³⁴ and any positive or negative difference density in the metal site of the $F_0 - F_c$ map above a 3σ level examined. If warranted by the electron density, the metal was replaced with that indicated by the PIXE data. The model was then rerefined using PDB REDO and the process repeated. When refinement reached convergence, minimal manual modeling took place in COOT centered on the metal region.³⁴ The R and R_{free} were noted, with $R = \frac{\sum ||F_{obs}| - |F_{calc}||}{\sum |F_{obs}|}, \text{ where } F_{obs} \text{ are the structure factors observed in the}$ X-ray experiment and $F_{\rm calc}$ are those calculated from the resulting model. R values were calculated using 95% of the reflections, with the computation of R_{free} using the remaining 5%.

For the trinuclear 3DCP model (a putative histidinol phosphatase, hisK, from *Listeria monocytogenes*), a further step was taken. From the electron density map and PIXE data, it was not immediately clear which individual metal was in each of the three sites. The peak height of the electron density associated with each metal site was measured after refinement without the metals present using the CCP4 program Peakmax.³⁵ Since all data sets had an anomalous signal due to the presence of selenium, the predicted magnitude of the anomalous signal for potential metals, zinc, cobalt, iron, manganese, and calcium could be calculated for the incident X-ray wavelength of the structure determination (0.979 Å). This step was carried out for 3DCP and these calculated values were normalized to the selenium peak, and then successively to each of the metals in order of molecular weight (see Table 2). The experimentally measured peak heights in each of

Table 2. Calculated Anomalous Scattering from MetalElements at 0.979 Å X-ray Wavelength NormalizedSuccessively According to the Atomic Number, Z

				f'' normalized to							
	Ζ	<i>f</i> ″ at 0.979 Å	Se	Zn	Co	Fe	Mn	Ca			
Se	34	3.843	1.00								
Zn	30	2.478	0.64	1.00							
Co	27	1.715	0.45	0.69	1.00						
Fe	26	1.500	0.39	0.55	0.87	1.00					
Mn	25	1.303	0.34	0.53	0.76	0.87	1.00				
Ca	20	0.565	0.15	0.23	0.33	0.38	0.43	1.00			

the trinuclear metal sites in the three individual protein chains (nine sites in total) were compared with the calculated ratios separately for each chain to determine the closest match (Table 3). This takes into account overall thermal factor differences between protein chains, but assumes that the relative differences between the sites are maintained within each individual protein chain. As the three metal sites are physically interconnected in each chain this seems a reasonable assumption.

The value of the nearest theoretical match to the normalized measured f'' is noted. The original metal in the PDB model is indicated, along with the one identified by comparing the normalized anomalous signal to those calculated here, as well as those found in the PIXE experiments.

The individual metal ions so determined from the match in Table 3 were modeled, and the structure was refined with them in place. The program Phenix³⁶ was used to refine the occupancies of the Mn sites based on the stoichiometry indicated by the PIXE data. The resulting occupancy was applied to these sites and the refinement procedure with PDB REDO noted above followed. Additional detail revealed in

3DCP	position	measured <i>f"</i> peak	normalized measured f''	nearest match with theory (seeTable 2)	difference (theory – measured)	old metal (PDB)	PIXE metal
chain A	α	9.59	1.00	1.00		Fe	Co
	β	6.83	0.71	0.76	0.05	Fe	Mn
	γ	6.81	0.71	0.76	0.05	Zn	Mn
chain B	α	8.42	1.00	1.00		Fe	Co
	β	7.50	0.89	0.87	0.02	Fe	Fe
	γ	7.6	0.90	0.87	0.03	Zn	Fe
chain C	α	9.11	1.00	1.00		Fe	Co
	β	7.70	0.85	0.87	0.02	Fe	Fe
	γ	6.28	0.69	0.76	0.07	Zn	Mn

Table 3. Metal Sites in the Three Chains of 3DCP with the Measured Anomalous Peak Heights (f'') and Their Normalized Values



Figure 2. PIXE recorded spectrum for 3DCP, hisK, showing the data, and the fit to the individual characteristic X-ray peaks from GUPIX.²⁹ The counts are on a log scale to illustrate the strong signal-to-noise in the experimental spectrum across the range of elements detected. In this spectrum each element gives two peaks resulting from the K_{α} and K_{β} electronic transitions.

the improved electron density that resulted was further modeled and refined in an iterative manner.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

PIXE and RBS spectra were recorded and processed for all samples. Figure 2 shows a PIXE spectrum for a putative histidinol phosphatase, hisK, from *Listeria monocytogenes*, PDB ID 3DCP. Table 1 summarizes the sample information from the original PDB model (OM) and the PIXE experimental results.

In Table 1, the 32 samples are grouped into four classes: class I, where the OM and PIXE result were inconsistent (8 samples); class II, where extra metals not in the OM were identified (9); class III, where the OM metals and PIXE data agreed (13); and class IV, where the protein sample was too dilute for successful PIXE measurement (2).

A total of 53% of the samples (classes I and II) had metals present that were inconsistent with the OM, 25% of them being completely incorrect. In class I, 5/8 samples had a metal in the OM not detected above the LoD by PIXE. However, the metal present in the OM could be explained by promiscuous metals in the crystallization conditions. The remaining three were selected for full structural refinement using the PIXE metals to replace the original assignments. Extra metals in 2/9 class II samples could be explained by the crystallization conditions. For 12/17 samples showing metals by PIXE that were inconsistent with the OMs, the metal content could not be explained by the crystallization process and must have been present in the sample provided for crystallization screening.

For the three Class I deposited models that were studied further, the PDB_REDO based refinement statistics are shown in Table 4. When the PIXE identified metal was incorporated, PDB_REDO gave improved *R* and $R_{\rm free}$ for 3GGL and 3DCP. For 3KB1, the *R* and $R_{\rm free}$ were slightly higher than for the OM. In the case of 3DCP the *R* and $R_{\rm free}$ were reduced from 19.3 and 21.2% to 16.2 and 18.8%, and when refinement of the Mn occupancy was allowed in order to reflect the PIXE stoichiometry, the *R* and $R_{\rm free}$ further reduced to 15.5 and 18.6%, respectively. The PDB_REDO models and electron density with the original metal and PIXE metal for 3GGL and 3KB1 are shown in Figures 3 and 4 respectively, generated using CCP4mg³⁷ with F_o-F_c maps shown as semitransparent solid surfaces.

For a C-terminal domain (277–440) of a putative chitobiase from *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron*, PDB 3GGL, Figure 3, the F_0-F_c map shows that the OM contains lower electron density

Table 4. Refinement statistics for three Class I models where the metals in the PDB were not present in the PIXE signal or obviously obtained through the crystallization cocktail

PDF	3_REDO	PIXE metal			
Å) R (%)	$R_{\rm free}$ (%)	R (%)	$R_{\rm free}$ (%)		
20.0	25.1	17.4	23.7		
21.4	26.5	21.7	28.4		
19.3	21.2	15.5	18.6		
	PDI Å) R (%) 20.0 21.4 19.3	PDB_REDO Å) R (%) R _{free} (%) 20.0 25.1 21.4 26.5 19.3 21.2	PDB_REDO PIX Å) R (%) R_{free} (%) R (%) 20.0 25.1 17.4 21.4 26.5 21.7 19.3 21.2 15.5		

^{*a*}In the case of 3KB1, PDB-REDO appeared to inflate the *B*-factors of two ligands in the structure which led to unmodeled density and a higher *R* and R_{free} than would have been expected.

than that for a Zn atom. For the refinement against the PIXE metals, Mn and Fe, negative density was eliminated. The resulting model was redeposited in the PDB as entry 6OE2 and has an Mn coordination number of 5 compared to 4 for the OM Zn. There were no other major structural changes. The model refines equally well with an iron in the metal site, with only slightly higher R and $R_{\rm free}$ values than for Mn. Unfortunately, for this sample the Se PIXE signal was too weak for accurate stoichiometric ratios to be obtained. While the PIXE data detected no Zn above the LoD, the inability of the model refinement to distinguish between Mn and Fe in the 3 Å diffraction data illustrates the challenge in identifying metals from the electron density alone.

For the nucleotide-binding protein AF_226 in complex with ADP from *Archaeoglobus fulgidus*, PDB 3KB1, Figure 4, the Zn built into the OM is not indicated by the electron density. On replacing this by the PIXE Co, the F_o - F_c map excess electron density is eliminated. The Co is bound to Cys 196 and 199 from chain B and Cys 196 from chain A, but the bond distance of 2.33 Å from Co to Cys 199 of chain A is outside the 2.25 Å distance expected³⁸ although within the standard deviation suggested for Co donor distances, especially given the limited accuracy of bond distances determined at 2.9 Å resolution. The Co binding site is interchain which may help explain why it was classed as a potential Co by PIXE, with a $1-3 \times \text{LoD}$,

rather than a definite Co had the signal been stronger with a metal in each chain. As with 3GGL, there are no other major structural differences between the original and the revised model (PDB 6OBY).

Protein 3DCP is a putative histidinol phosphatase, hisK, from *Listeria monocytogenes*. The OM of 3DCP contained excess electron density in the F_o-F_c map for the metal sites in all three of its chains, Figure 5, left. A related protein, *L*histidinol phosphate phosphatase from *Lactococcus lactis* (HPP), is a member of the polymerase and histidinol phosphatase (PHP) family of proteins,³⁹ which have trinuclear metal centers. They are part of the amidohydrolase superfamily (AHS) which can have either bi- or trinuclear metal centers. The two common metal sites are defined as α and β , with a third, γ , being seen in the PHP family.

By combining the PIXE information with the anomalous Xray scattering signal present in the deposited structure factor data, and positional data from the 3DCP OM, the correct metals could be assigned to each position in the trinuclear site. The calculated values of the absorptive component, f'', at 0.979 Å incident X-ray wavelength for Se, Zn, Co, Fe, Mn, and Ca, normalized to each metal sequentially according to their atomic number are shown in Table 2. Se, present in all the proteins studied, was used to phase all the crystallographic OMs. The measured electron density peak height in the maps for each of the three trinuclear metal sites in 3DCP was compared to the calculated f'', and the PIXE indicated metals were placed, Table 3. In chain A, the measured peak heights are only consistent with Co and Mn, in chain B they are compatible with Co and Fe, and in chain C they are consistent with Co, Fe, and Mn. The PIXE data yield a stoichiometry of 1.2 Fe, 1.2 Co, and 0.5 Mn per protein molecule, totaling 2.9 metal atoms for the three sites in each chain. The Mn occupancy refined to 0.83, 0.78, and 0.86 for the two A chain and one C chain sites, respectively. It is likely, given the apparent promiscuity of the β and γ sites, that there could be a small proportion of Fe and Co in these sites. The resolution of the X-ray data does not allow accurate refinement of these



Figure 3. Structural models with electron density maps of the metal site in 3GGL. On the left, the PDB-REDO results are shown with the original metal, Zn, modeled. On the right, the metal identified by PIXE, Mn, is shown. The blue $2F_o-F_c$ map is contoured at 2σ , and the F_o-F_c maps are shown as a semitransparent surface contoured at 3σ and -3σ in green and red, respectively. In each case, selected residues are identified. Bonds to the metal ions are also illustrated. Zn and Mn have coordination numbers of 4 and 5, respectively.



Figure 4. Structural models with electron density maps of the metal site in 3KB1. On the left, the PDB_REDO results are shown with the original metal, Zn, modeled. On the right, the metal identified by PIXE, Co, is shown. The blue $2F_o-F_c$ map is contoured at 2σ , and the F_o-F_c maps are shown as a semitransparent surface contoured at 3σ and -3σ as in Figure 3. In each case, select residues are identified. Bonds to the metal ions are also illustrated.

partial occupancies, and it would require anomalous X-ray data at specific wavelengths to confirm this postulate.

The recombinant HPP enzyme expressed in *Escherichia coli*. has a propensity for binding iron that reduces the catalytic activity. The structure of HPP was obtained from an iron-free protein expression system and crystallized with an excess of Zn^{2+} . Three structures were deposited with the enzyme containing (i) Zn^{2+} and a sulfate ion (PDB ID 4GC3), (ii) Zn^{2+} , an L-histidinol, and a phosphate ion (4GYF), and (iii) Zn^{2+} L-histidinol and arsenate (4GK8).³⁹ Zn is modeled in all three metal sites and at least for the sulfate and phosphate associated structures, displays a similar signature to that seen in the 3DCP OM.

3DCP (hisK) is structurally related to HPP³⁹ and has identical metal binding residues except for His 14 which is an Asp in HPP. 3DCP also has differences in three of the four residues interacting with the substrate, with Phe 36 replacing Tyr, Lys 87 replacing Arg, and Phe 88 replacing Tyr. In the 3DCP OM, electron density in the active site is attributed to water and there is a mixture of Fe and Zn in the trinuclear metal site (Figure 5 left). Rerefinement using the existing X-ray data coupled with the PIXE and anomalous X-ray signal analyses shows some of the Fe positions are correct, but that Co and Mn are present instead of Zn (Figure 5 right).

HPP has an L-histidinol and a phosphate in the active site (4GYF), presumably from the hydrolyzation of the L-histidinol phosphate. In our revised model, 3DCP has a sulfate in a similar location to the phosphate in 4GYF. The presence of the sulfate in 3DCP is somewhat unsurprising given that L-cysteine was present in the crystallization solution. Under these crystallization conditions, 3DCP appears to be acting as a sulfatase, cleaving the L-cysteine, and leaving the sulfate in a similar position and with binding distances to the sulfate as seen in HPP, PDB entry 4GC3. In the 3DCP structure, there is additional electron density associated with the active site that supports the presence of L-cysteine, but not at a level to model it confidently. The revised model was redeposited in the PDB as entry 6NLR. Without extensive biochemical studies, the biological relevance of the new model is unclear, we can only comment that when the correct metals were identified and

modeled, a ligand is identified in the active site that was unseen in the OM.

Metal identification is particularly important for NMR structural analysis, since the bound metals are usually not directly observed in the NMR experiment. PIXE showed that all three NMR samples contained Ca (Table 1), which is unsurprising since they were in buffers containing 20 mM CaCl₂. Although proteins 2KPN and 4EVW were refined with bound Ca and Mg, respectively, identified by independent biochemical studies, the observation of Fe in 2KW4 and 2K52 NMR samples is interesting and unexpected.

It is unsurprising that metalloproteins incorporate metals present in the crystallization screen. There is likely to be a significant correlation between metalloprotein structure, the metal ligand, and the crystallization conditions used. Additionally, in the cases presented here, Ni and Co columns were used in the protein purification procedures, possibly providing potentially nonphysiological sources for these two metals. Metal incorporation is commonly determined through a balance between metal availability in the cell, and the relative affinity of the metal to the enzyme. The Irving-Williams ranks the relative stability of complexes formed by series⁴⁰ divalent metal ions in the order $Mg^{2+} < Mn^{2+} < Fe^{2+} < Co^{2+} <$ $Ni^{2+} < Cu^{2+} > Zn^{2+}$. The cellular concentrations of ions in the resting cell in general correlate inversely with the series with K, Mg, Mn, Fe, Co, Ca, Ni, Zn, and Cu having concentrations of approximately 10⁻¹, 10⁻³, 10⁻⁶, 10⁻⁶, 10⁻⁶, 10⁻⁷, 10⁻⁹, 10⁻¹², and 10^{-15} M respectively.^{41,42} The metal binding preferences of most metalloproteins do not match their metal requirements. It is estimated that one-third obtain their metal through metal delivery systems with the majority involving preassembled metal cofactors. The other 70% are presumed to compete for metals from buffered metal pools.⁴¹ In vivo, there is competition for metal binding to other metalloproteins, and in some cases compartmentalized protein formation allows acquisition of a specific metal.⁴³ The metal concentrations associated with crystallization are significant compared to cellular concentrations and challenge existing metals that are often present during crystallization.

Bioinformatic approaches are available to check metals in structural models, and these methods have been reviewed⁴⁴ by



Figure 5. Structural models with electron density maps of the metal sites of all three chains of 3DCP. In the left column, the PDB_REDO results are shown with the original metals modeled. In the right column, the metals identified by PIXE and positioned using the f'' analysis (see text) are shown. The blue F_0-F_c map is contoured at 2σ , and the F_0-F_c maps are shown as a semitransparent surface contoured at 3 and -3σ in green and red respectively. In each case, selected residues are identified. The metal ions are colored according to their identity and bonds to them illustrated. On the right, with the correct metals identified and positioned, an SO₄ ion is clearly resolved in the electron density.

the authors of a relevant software tool, CheckMyMetal. This server was used to examine all the models studied here. While useful in detecting irregularities, it was not able to separate the populations of metalloproteins experimentally flagged by PIXE. CheckMyMetal analyzes all metal-ligand bonds in the model. It recommended alternate metals for 5 of the 28 metal bonds in the class I cases (from four models), 4 of the 28 bonds in class II (from three models), and 1 of the 44 bonds in class III

Journal of the American Chemical Society

(from one model). In no case did the suggested metal agree with the experimental PIXE identified metal. The bioinformatic analysis, while useful to direct attention to outliers from a well-defined set of metalloprotein models, did not provide the same degree of clarity as the experimental PIXE measurements.

Knowledge of the precise metal present is vital for the correct biological interpretation. Some enzymes are only catalytically active with metals that have limited bioavailability in the cell, and they acquire these preferentially over others.^{45,46} Information on the presence or absence of a native metal can avoid an incorrect mechanistic understanding of the native system. However, from the experimental perspective, without a very detailed study of the metal environment of protein systems, the origin of some of the metals in the native protein cannot be traced. Metals found in protein crystals can be incorporated at many stages other than crystallization, e.g., during the expression, purification, and concentration where unexpected metal contamination could be present.⁴⁷ The true identity of metals in native proteins may remain uncertain.

4. CONCLUSIONS

We have developed a high-throughput PIXE approach and used it to define the identity and stoichiometry of metals present in a range of 30 metalloproteins. In over 50% of the randomly chosen metalloproteins, PIXE detected metals that were not in the PDB OM. The extra metal content in nine of the proteins could be explained from the crystallization conditions, but nine others contained metals that were originally misidentified. Two out of the three proteins in the latter group that were studied in detail displayed minimal structural changes when the correct metal was used to rerefine the new model against the original data. The third, hisK, was more dramatic. Building the correct metals into the model's multinuclear metal site revealed a previously unidentified ligand important for the understanding of mechanism. For the hisK multinuclear metal site, the anomalous signal in the deposited diffraction structure factor data were used to accurately place the PIXE identified metals. With information from PIXE alone, the correct metal identity could guide the collection of the appropriate anomalous X-ray signal. The overall fold of the protein was not impacted by this information, but subtle changes in the metal site, and even the presence of ligands not originally identified, can have a profound impact on understanding the overall mechanism, especially given the importance of metal ions in many biological systems.

It is salutary that over a third of the PIXE tested proteins contained an incorrect metal in the OM. The samples were taken from the High Throughput Crystallization Screening Center from those submitted as part of the protein structure initiative and are generally representative of those deposited in the PDB. An enormous number of researchers use PDB structures without knowledge of the potential fundamental errors that may be present. In 2017 there were on average 1.86 million structural downloads per day from the PDB in the US alone and over 200 data resources access and use PDB data. At the time of writing over 38% of the PDB models contain a metal.⁴⁸ Extrapolating our results (~50% misidentified or unidentified metals), over 350 000 models downloaded per day may contain incorrect or additional metals, with profound implications for those using the models as accurate representations of the structure. High throughput PIXE as

implemented here could theoretically provide verification for all metalloproteins in the PDB in less than a year, since approximately 5–10 min per protein sample is required to collect enough PIXE data to characterize the metal content. An unattended overnight run could measure between 84 and 168 samples. By developing HT PIXE analysis methods, further information is added to structural knowledge, thus improving the quality of the macromolecular models to reveal new detail and biological function in both crystallographic and NMR cases. The method presented here is needed to give accurate metal identification, stoichiometry, and position for metalloprotein systems, providing a more robust foundation to understand mechanism.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Authors

*E-mail: esnell@hwi.buffalo.edu.

*E-mail: elspeth.garman@bioch.ox.ac.uk.

ORCID 0

Geoffrey W. Grime: 0000-0002-4957-8175 Mary E. Snell: 0000-0002-5645-1439 Edward D. Lowe: 0000-0002-1757-0208 John F. Hunt: 0000-0003-0034-5167 Gaetano T. Montelione: 0000-0002-9440-3059 Liang Tong: 0000-0002-0563-6468 Edward H. Snell: 0000-0001-8714-3191 Elspeth F. Garman: 0000-0001-8329-5665

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

O.B.Z. was funded by a studentship through the University of Oxford Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council Life Science Interface Doctoral Training Centre. We thank Vladimir Palitsin for crucial technical support at the Surrey Ion Beam Centre and Nigel Saunders for early use of an Arrayjet printer at Oxford and Brunel Universities. E.H.S. is supported by NSF Grant 1231306.

REFERENCES

(1) Shi, W.; Chance, M. R. Metalloproteomics: forward and reverse approaches in metalloprotein structural and functional characterization. *Curr. Opin. Chem. Biol.* **2011**, *15* (1), 144–8.

(2) Chen, A. Y.; Adamek, R. N.; Dick, B. L.; Credille, C. V.; Morrison, C. N.; Cohen, S. M. Targeting Metalloenzymes for Therapeutic Intervention. *Chem. Rev.* **2019**, *119* (2), 1323–455.

(3) Zheng, H.; Chruszcz, M.; Lasota, P.; Lebioda, L.; Minor, W. Data mining of metal ion environments present in protein structures. *J. Inorg. Biochem.* **2008**, *102* (9), 1765–76.

(4) Mueller-Dieckmann, C.; Panjikar, S.; Schmidt, A.; Mueller, S.; Kuper, J.; Geerlof, A.; Wilmanns, M.; Singh, R. K.; Tucker, P. A.; Weiss, M. S. On the routine use of soft X-rays in macromolecular crystallography. Part IV. Efficient determination of anomalous substructures in biomacromolecules using longer X-ray wavelengths. *Acta Crystallogr, Sect. D: Biol. Crystallogr.* **2007**, *63* (3), 366–80.

(5) Liu, Q.; Liu, Q.; Hendrickson, W. A. Robust structural analysis of native biological macromolecules from multi-crystal anomalous diffraction data. *Acta Crystallogr., Sect. D: Biol. Crystallogr.* **2013**, 69 (7), 1314–32.

(6) Andreini, C.; Bertini, I.; Rosato, A. Metalloproteomes: A Bioinformatic Approach. Acc. Chem. Res. 2009, 42 (10), 1471–1479.

Journal of the American Chemical Society

(7) Hare, D. J.; New, E. J.; de Jonge, M. D.; McColl, G. Imaging metals in biology: balancing sensitivity, selectivity and spatial resolution. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **2015**, *44* (17), 5941–58.

(8) Finney, L.; Chishti, Y.; Khare, T.; Giometti, C.; Levina, A.; Lay, P. A.; Vogt, S. Imaging metals in proteins by combining electrophoresis with rapid x-ray fluorescence mapping. *ACS Chem. Biol.* **2010**, 5 (6), 577–87.

(9) Robinson, C. V. Mass spectrometry: From plasma proteins to mitochondrial membranes. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 2019, 116 (8), 2814–2820.

(10) Fruncillo, S.; Trande, M.; Blanford, C. F.; Astegno, A.; Wong, L. S. A Method for Metal/Protein Stoichiometry Determination Using Thin-Film Energy Dispersive X-ray Fluorescence Spectroscopy. *Anal. Chem.* **2019**, *91* (18), 11502–11506.

(11) Elad, N.; Bellapadrona, G.; Houben, L.; Sagi, I.; Elbaum, M. Detection of isolated protein-bound metal ions by single-particle cryo-STEM. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **2017**, *114* (42), 11139–11144.

(12) Zhang, R.; Li, L.; Sultanbawa, Y.; Xu, Z. P. X-ray fluorescence imaging of metals and metalloids in biological systems. *Am. J. Nucl. Med. Mol. Imaging* **2018**, *8* (3), 169–188.

(13) Ugarte, M.; Grime, G. W.; Lord, G.; Geraki, K.; Collingwood, J. F.; Finnegan, M. E.; Farnfield, H.; Merchant, M.; Bailey, M. J.; Ward, N. I.; Foster, P. J.; Bishop, P. N.; Osborne, N. N. Concentration of various trace elements in the rat retina and their distribution in different structures. *Metallomics* **2012**, *4* (12), 1245–54.

(14) Smart, K. E.; Kilburn, M. R.; Salter, C. J.; Smith, J. A. C.; Grovenor, C. R. M. NanoSIMS and EPMA analysis of nickel localisation in leaves of the hyperaccumulator plant Alyssum lesbiacum. *Int. J. Mass Spectrom.* **2007**, *260*, 107–114.

(15) Ascone, I.; Strange, R. Biological X-ray absorption spectroscopy and metalloproteomics. J. Synchrotron Radiat. 2009, 16 (3), 413–21.

(16) Handing, K. B.; Niedziałkowska, E.; Shabalin, I. G.; Kuhn, M. L.; Zheng, H.; Minor, W. Characterizing metal-binding sites in proteins with X-ray crystallography. *Nat. Protoc.* **2018**, *13* (5), 1062–1090.

(17) Grime, G. W. High-Energy Ion Beam Analysis. In *Reference Module in Chemistry, Molecular Sciences and Chemical Engineering;* Reedijk, J., Ed.; Elsevier: Waltham, MA, 2014.

(18) Xiao, R.; Anderson, S.; Aramini, J.; Belote, R.; Buchwald, W. A.; Ciccosanti, C.; Conover, K.; Everett, J. K.; Hamilton, K.; Huang, Y. J.; Janjua, H.; Jiang, M.; Kornhaber, G. J.; Lee, D. Y.; Locke, J. Y.; Ma, L. C.; Maglaqui, M.; Mao, L.; Mitra, S.; Patel, D.; Rossi, P.; Sahdev, S.; Sharma, S.; Shastry, R.; Swapna, G. V.; Tong, S. N.; Wang, D.; Wang, H.; Zhao, L.; Montelione, G. T.; Acton, T. B. The high-throughput protein sample production platform of the Northeast Structural Genomics Consortium. *J. Struct. Biol.* **2010**, *172* (1), 21–33.

(19) Acton, T. B.; Xiao, R.; Anderson, S.; Aramini, J.; Buchwald, W. A.; Ciccosanti, C.; Conover, K.; Everett, J.; Hamilton, K.; Huang, Y. J.; Janjua, H.; Kornhaber, G.; Lau, J.; Lee, D. Y.; Liu, G.; Maglaqui, M.; Ma, L.; Mao, L.; Patel, D.; Rossi, P.; Sahdev, S.; Shastry, R.; Swapna, G. V.; Tang, Y.; Tong, S.; Wang, D.; Wang, H.; Zhao, L.; Montelione, G. T. Preparation of protein samples for NMR structure, function, and small-molecule screening studies. *Methods Enzymol.* **2011**, *493*, 21–60.

(20) Goh, C. S.; Lan, N.; Echols, N.; Douglas, S. M.; Milburn, D.; Bertone, P.; Xiao, R.; Ma, L. C.; Zheng, D.; Wunderlich, Z.; Acton, T.; Montelione, G. T.; Gerstein, M. SPINE 2: a system for collaborative structural proteomics within a federated database framework. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **2003**, *31* (11), 2833–8.

(21) Luft, J. R.; Snell, E. H.; Detitta, G. T. Expert Opin. Drug Discovery 2011, 6, 465-480.

(22) Simon, A.; Jeynes, C.; Webb, R. P.; Finnis, R.; Tabatabaian, Z.; Sellin, P. J.; Breese, M. B. H.; Fellows, D. F.; van den Broek, R.; Gwilliam, R. M. The new Surrey ion beam analysis facility. *Nucl. Instrum. Methods Phys. Res., Sect. B* **2004**, 219-220, 405–409.

(23) Grime, G. W.; Dawson, M.; Marsh, M.; McArthur, I. C.; Watt,
F. The Oxford submicron nuclear microscopy facility. *Nucl. Instrum. Methods Phys. Res., Sect. B* 1991, 54, 52–63. (24) Graham, D. L.; Lowe, P. N.; Grime, G. W.; Marsh, M.; Rittinger, K.; Smerdon, S. J.; Gamblin, S. J.; Eccleston, J. F. MgF3—as a transition state analog of phosphoryl transfer. *Chem. Biol.* **2002**, *9*, 375–38.

(25) Garman, E. Leaving no element of doubt: analysis of proteins using microPIXE. *Structure* **1999**, 7 (12), R291–R299.

(26) Garman, E. F.; Grime, G. W. Elemental analysis of proteins by micro PIXE. *Prog. Biophys. Mol. Biol.* 2005, 89 (2), 173–205.

(27) Jeynes, C.; Barradas, N. P.; Szilágyi, E. Accurate Determination of Quantity of Material in Thin Films by Rutherford Backscattering Spectrometry. *Anal. Chem.* **2012**, *84*, 6061–6069.

(28) Hendrickson, W. A.; Horton, J. R.; LeMaster, D. M. Selenomethionyl proteins produced for analysis by multiwavelength anomalous diffraction (MAD): a vehicle for direct determination of three-dimensional structure. *EMBO J.* **1990**, *9* (5), 1665–1672.

(29) Campbell, J. L.; Boyd, N. I.; Grassi, N.; Bonnick, P.; Maxwell, J. A. The Guelph PIXE software package IV. *Nucl. Instrum. Methods Phys. Res., Sect. B* **2010**, 268 (20), 3356–3363.

(30) Gomez-Morilla, I.; Simon, A.; Simon, R.; Williams, C. T.; Kiss, A. Z.; Grime, G. W. An evaluation of the accuracy and precision of X-ray microanalysis techniques using BCR-126A glass reference material. *Nucl. Instrum. Methods Phys. Res., Sect. B* **2006**, 249 (1–2), 897–902.

(31) Abriola, D.; Barradas, N. P.; Bogdanovic-Radovic, I.; Chiari, M.; Gurbich, A. F.; Jeynes, C.; Kokkoris, M.; Mayer, M.; Ramos, A. R.; Shi, L.; Vickridge, I. Development of a reference database for Ion Beam Analysis and future perspectives. *Nucl. Instrum. Methods Phys. Res., Sect. B* 2011, 269 (24), 2972–2978.

(32) Southworth-Davies, R. J.; Leath, K.; Grime, G. W.; Garman, E. F. In *The Characterisation of a Contaminant-free Support Film for MicroPIXE Analysis of Biological Samples, XI International Conference on PIXE and its Analytical Applications, Puebla, Mexico; Miranda, J.; de Lucio, R. O. G., Eds.; UNAM, Mexico: Puebla, Mexico, 2007; pp C2–1–4.*

(33) Joosten, R. P.; Long, F.; Murshudov, G. N.; Perrakis, A. The PDB_REDO server for macromolecular structure model optimization. *IUCrJ* 2014, *1* (4), 213–20.

(34) Emsley, P.; Lohkamp, B.; Scott, W. G.; Cowtan, K. Features and development of Coot. *Acta Crystallogr., Sect. D: Biol. Crystallogr.* **2010**, *66* (4), 486–501.

(35) Winn, M. D. An overview of the CCP4 project in protein crystallography: an example of a collaborative project. *J. Synchrotron Radiat.* **2003**, *10* (1), 23–5.

(36) Adams, P. D.; Afonine, P. V.; Bunkoczi, G.; Chen, V. B.; Davis, I. W.; Echols, N.; Headd, J. J.; Hung, L. W.; Kapral, G. J.; Grosse-Kunstleve, R. W.; McCoy, A. J.; Moriarty, N. W.; Oeffner, R.; Read, R. J.; Richardson, D. C.; Richardson, J. S.; Terwilliger, T. C.; Zwart, P. H. PHENIX: a comprehensive Python-based system for macro-molecular structure solution. *Acta Crystallogr., Sect. D: Biol. Crystallogr.* 2010, *66*, 213–221.

(37) McNicholas, S.; Potterton, E.; Wilson, K. S.; Noble, M. E. Presenting your structures: the CCP4mg molecular-graphics software. *Acta Crystallogr., Sect. D: Biol. Crystallogr.* **2011**, *67* (4), 386–94.

(38) Harding, M. M.; Nowicki, M. W.; Walkinshaw, M. D. Metals in protein structures: a review of their principal features. *Crystallogr. Rev.* **2010**, *16* (4), 247–302.

(39) Ghodge, S. V.; Fedorov, A. A.; Fedorov, E. V.; Hillerich, B.; Seidel, R.; Almo, S. C.; Raushel, F. M. Structural and mechanistic characterization of L-histidinol phosphate phosphatase from the polymerase and histidinol phosphatase family of proteins. *Biochemistry* **2013**, 52 (6), 1101–12.

(40) Irving, H.; Williams, R. J. P. Order of Stability of Metal Complexes. *Nature* **1948**, *162* (4123), 746–747.

(41) Foster, A. W.; Osman, D.; Robinson, N. J. Metal Preferences and Metallation. J. Biol. Chem. 2014, 289 (41), 28095-28103.

(42) Dudev, T.; Lim, C. Competition among Metal Ions for Protein Binding Sites: Determinants of Metal Ion Selectivity in Proteins. *Chem. Rev.* **2014**, *114* (1), 538–556. (43) Waldron, K. J.; Rutherford, J. C.; Ford, D.; Robinson, N. J. Metalloproteins and metal sensing. *Nature* **2009**, *460* (7257), 823–830.

(44) Zheng, H. P.; Chordia, M. D.; Cooper, D. R.; Chruszcz, M.; Muller, P.; Sheldrick, G. M.; Minor, W. Validation of metal-binding sites in macromolecular structures with the CheckMyMetal web server. *Nat. Protoc.* **2014**, *9* (1), 156–170.

(45) Ragsdale, S. W. Nickel-based Enzyme Systems. J. Biol. Chem. 2009, 284 (28), 18571-5.

(46) Kobayashi, M.; Shimizu, S. Cobalt proteins. Eur. J. Biochem. 1999, 261 (1), 1-9.

(47) Maret, W. Metalloproteomics, metalloproteomes, and the annotation of metalloproteins. *Metallomics* **2010**, *2*, 117–125.

(48) Putignano, V.; Rosato, A.; Banci, L.; Andreini, C. MetalPDB in 2018: a database of metal sites in biological macromolecular structures. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **2018**, *46*, D459–D464.