

## 19.4. Small-angle neutron scattering

BY D. M. ENGELMAN AND P. B. MOORE

### 19.4.1. Introduction

Diffuse scatter results when X-ray and neutron beams pass through gases and liquids. It is caused by local inhomogeneities, which all fluids invariably contain, at least transiently, and information about them can be obtained by analysis of the scatter they cause. This diffuse scatter is rotationally symmetric about the direction defined by the incident beam because, on average, gases and liquids are isotropic, and it does depend on scattering angle,  $2\theta$ . The intensity of the diffuse X-ray scatter of water, for example, is small at small  $2\theta$ , and it reaches a maximum at equivalent Bragg spacings equal to the reciprocal of the average oxygen–oxygen distance. In addition to a ‘water ring’ at high scattering angles, the diffuse scatter of macromolecular solutions includes a peak at  $2\theta = 0$ , due to the presence of the macromolecules themselves. If ångström-wavelength radiation is used, the central macromolecular peak is entirely contained in the region where  $\sin(2\theta) \simeq 2\theta$ . This is the region examined in small-angle scattering experiments.

Several properties of macromolecules can be determined by analysing their small-angle solution scattering, among them molecular weight, radius of gyration and maximum linear dimension. Approximate shapes can sometimes be obtained, and if a macromolecule is a complex of different chemical species, information about the distribution of its components may emerge. Hydration and conformational changes are also studied this way.

The molecular properties that can be investigated by small-angle scattering are the same for thermal neutrons and X-rays, but the advantages of neutrons are so great that if the equipment required were not so expensive, not many would do small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS). They are all manifestations of the differences between the ways in which neutrons and X-ray photons interact with matter. For example, thermal neutrons have very low kinetic energies ( $\simeq kT$ ), and, consequently, the energy they deposit in a sample when they are scattered inelastically is negligible. X-ray photons have large energies, and when they are absorbed or scattered inelastically, damaging amounts of energy are deposited. Thus, samples are ‘safer’ in neutron beams than they are in X-ray beams.

The cross section for X-ray absorption rises so fast with increasing wavelength that it is impractical to do solution-scattering experiments using X-rays with wavelengths much greater than 1.5 Å. The combination of this and the fact that X-ray beams scatter strongly off the edges of optical-track components makes it difficult to build small-angle X-ray spectrometers that measure diffuse scatter at equivalent reciprocal spacings of  $0.001 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$  or less. The cross section for thermal neutron absorption is small and nearly independent of wavelength over the range 1–10 Å. Furthermore, parasitic neutron scatter is easy to control. Thus, it is comparatively straightforward to build small-angle neutron scattering (SANS) spectrometers that measure diffuse scatter at reciprocal spacings considerably less than  $0.001 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ .

Even more important to those interested in SANS are the vistas opened up by the huge difference in scattering length that exists between  $^1\text{H}$  and  $^2\text{H}$  (henceforth termed H and D), to which we will return below. In brief, the scatter of macromolecular solutions can be significantly altered by replacing some or all of the H atoms with D atoms. This control greatly extends the range of problems that can be addressed by SANS, and the chemical ‘cost’ is minimal. A perdeuterated molecule is almost identical to its protonated counterpart. The X-ray scattering of substances depends on the number of electrons they contain, and when this number is changed, chemical properties change also.

Relative to SAXS, the sole disadvantage of SANS is a phenomenon called incoherent scatter, which is a comparatively minor aspect of X-ray work. Neutrons are scattered primarily by atomic nuclei, and if a nucleus has spin, its scattering length depends on the orientation of its spin relative to that of each neutron with which it interacts. Since nuclear spins are usually unoriented in SANS samples, this spin-orientation dependence leads to a random atom-to-atom variation in scattering length. Coherent scatter, on which all diffraction effects depend, is determined by average scattering-length values. The scatter due to fluctuations about the average is incoherent, and in the low-angle region incoherent scatter manifests itself as a featureless background that is independent of scattering angle. The cross section for incoherent scattering is very large for H atoms, and since both water and biological macromolecules contain large proportions of H atoms, incoherent scatter is often a dominant source of background.

Some useful general references for small-angle scattering in general and neutron scattering in particular are Bacon (1975), Glatter & Kratky (1982) and Guinier (1955, 1962).

### 19.4.2. Fundamental relationships

For most purposes, a dilute macromolecular solution can be thought of as a macromolecular gas, and for that reason it is appropriate to apply Debye’s theory for gas scatter to macromolecular solutions (Debye, 1915). Debye’s master equation can be cast into neutron terms as follows:

$$I(Q) \propto I_0 \sum \sum b_i b_j \sin(Qr_{ij}) / (Qr_{ij}), \quad (19.4.2.1)$$

where  $I(Q)$  is the amount of scattered radiation observed at  $Q$ ,  $I_0$  is the intensity of the incident beam,  $b_i$  and  $b_j$  are the scattering lengths of the  $i$ th and  $j$ th atoms in the molecule,  $r_{ij}$  is the distance between atoms  $i$  and  $j$ , and  $Q = (4\pi/\lambda) \sin \theta$ ,  $\lambda$  being the wavelength of the radiation used and  $\theta$  being half the scattering angle. When applied to molecules in solution, both summations must include not only all the atoms that are covalent components of the molecule in question, but also all the associated solvent atoms, because when a macromolecule dissolves, the inhomogeneity created includes the counterions associated with it, its solvation layer *etc.* Equation (19.4.2.1) holds for a single molecule; if the number of molecules contributing to scattering in some sample is  $N$ , the scattering profile measured will be  $N$  times the profile due to a single molecule. The inhomogeneities responsible for small-angle scatter have linear dimensions of the order of 10 Å or more and, hence, have volumes that contain large numbers of atoms. In addition, interatomic spacings cannot be resolved using small-angle data. Thus, it is appropriate to discuss small-angle scattering in terms of electron densities for X-rays or scattering-length densities for thermal neutrons. The scattering-length density of a volume,  $\rho$ , is given by

$$\rho \equiv \sum b_i / V, \quad (19.4.2.2)$$

where  $b_i$  is the scattering length of the  $i$ th atom in volume  $V$  and the summation runs over all atoms in the volume.

Recasting the Debye equation in terms of scattering lengths, one obtains

$$I(Q) \propto I_0 \int \int \rho(\mathbf{r}_i) \rho(\mathbf{r}_j) [\sin(Qr_{ij}) / (Qr_{ij})] dV_i dV_j,$$

where  $\rho(\mathbf{r}_i)$  and  $\rho(\mathbf{r}_j)$  are the scattering-length densities in volume elements whose positions are described by vectors  $\mathbf{r}_i$  and  $\mathbf{r}_j$ ,  $r_{ij} = |\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|$ , and both integrals run over the volume of the entire