Evaluating the Effect of Dye–Dye Interactions of Xanthene-Based Fluorophores in the Fluorosequencing of Peptides

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ABSTRACT: A peptide sequencing scheme utilizing fluorescence microscopy and Edman degradation to determine the amino acid position in fluorophore-labeled peptides was recently reported, referred to as fluorosequencing. It was observed that multiple fluorophores covalently linked to a peptide scaffold resulted in a decrease in the anticipated fluorescence output and worsened the single-molecule fluorescence analysis. In this study, we report an improvement in the photophysical properties of fluorophore-labeled peptides by incorporating long and flexible (PEG)$_{10}$ linkers at the peptide attachment points. Long linkers to the fluorophores were installed using copper-catalyzed azide–alkyne cycloaddition conditions. The photophysical properties of these peptides were analyzed in solution and immobilized on a microscope slide at the single-molecule level under peptide fluorosequencing conditions. Solution-phase fluorescence analysis showed improvements in both quantum yield and fluorescence lifetime with the long linkers. While on the solid support, photometry measurements showed significant increases in fluorescence brightness and 20 to 60% improvements in the ability to determine the amino acid position with fluorosequencing. This spatial distancing strategy demonstrates improvements in the peptide sequencing platform and provides a general approach for improving the photophysical properties in fluorophore-labeled macromolecules.

INTRODUCTION

Fluorescence imaging has been integral to the development of several impactful technologies, especially in the chemical biology toolset, including activity-based probes$^{1−11}$ and methods for visualizing cellular structures.$^{12−21}$ Small-molecule fluorophores are uniquely enabling in analytical applications due to their size, ease of use, and modularity.$^{22,23}$ In combination with single-molecule fluorescence microscopy techniques, these probes have shed light on a number of challenging biological problems.$^{24−27}$ One of the most widely used families of fluorescent probes are based on the xanthene scaffold. Ever since their initial discovery in the late 19th century, the xanthene fluorophores, fluorescein (1) and rhodamine (2), have found abundant use (Figure 1A).$^{28}$ The parent compounds themselves are highly modifiable at the xanthene core and through substituents at the pendant aryl group or aniline. In the case of rhodamine, variants have also been prepared by substituting the central oxygen atom to give fluorophores such as the carbopyronine Atto 647N (3),$^{29−32}$ among others.$^{33−37}$ Xanthene-based dyes generally possess desirable spectral properties, including high extinction coefficients and quantum yields (QYs), fluorescence in the visible region, and overall chemical stability.$^{38}$ However, a key drawback to these fluorescent probes is their tendency for fluorescence self-quenching.

The self-quenching of 1 is a well-documented observation in the fluorescence microscopy analysis of fluorescein-labeled biomolecules$^{39−41}$ and has also been shown to occur with rhodamine fluorophores.$^{42−45}$ Increasing the number of fluorophores on a scaffold gives rise to a nonlinear increase in fluorescence intensity and a shortened fluorescent lifetime (FLT)$^{46,47}$ and in extreme cases, actually leads to inhibition of fluorescence.$^{48}$ The fluorescence self-quenching of fluorescein has been attributed to interactions through a resonance-energy transfer (FRET) mechanism.$^{49,50}$ In contrast, rhodamines not only demonstrate dramatic fluorescence quenching primarily by dimerization through J- and H-aggregates depending upon the solvent but can also engage in FRET. Comparatively, carbopyronines such as 3 remain
underexplored in this regard. These two quenching mechanisms can operate in systems where multiple fluorescent probes of the same identity are covalently linked to scaffolds such as peptides and thus can complicate analyses that rely upon reading the fluorescence output.

These challenges were highlighted in a recent report by our group that detailed a strategy for identifying the amino acid sequence of short peptides by analyzing the fluorescence of xanthene fluorophores covalently attached to amino acid side chains in a scheme known as “fluorosequencing” (Figure 1B). Notably, fluorosequencing is just one of many emerging techniques in the field of single-molecule protein sequencing. While the next-generation techniques in the area of genomic sequencing have revolutionized diagnostics, the analogous technique for proteins is still lacking. In the fluorosequencing approach, fluorophore-labeled peptides are covalently attached to a solid support via the C-terminus, where fluorescence is analyzed using total internal reflection fluorescence (TIRF) microscopy at single-molecule resolution. During analysis, peptides are subjected to Edman degradation chemistry, which removes the N-terminal amino acid in each Edman cycle. Thus, when a nonlabeled amino acid is cleaved, no change in the fluorescence output is observed, but when a fluorophore-labeled amino acid is cleaved, the fluorescence signal for that residue is lost, which indicates the identity of the amino acid residue.

While a broad range of fluorophores were evaluated for this sequencing strategy, given the harsh conditions of Edman degradation, we found that only xanthene-based dyes tetramethyl rhodamine (2) and carbopyronine Atto 647N (3) possessed the desired survivability and photophysical properties required for fluorosequencing. However, as expected, peptides labeled with multiple fluorophores of the same identity were more challenging to sequence. Notably, the difficulty in sequencing was accentuated when the fluorophores were spatially close on the peptide backbone. As a result, we sought a strategy for minimizing the quenching interactions between appended fluorophores. The two avenues we considered to apply were the use of metals to enhance fluorescence, as demonstrated by a number of groups, or to alter the length of the fluorophore linker, a surprisingly understudied area. For the experimental setup, it was anticipated that metal additives could complicate analysis and potentially be degraded under Edman conditions. Thus, despite the considerable additional synthetic effort required to incorporate, we developed a methodology for attaching fluorophores 2 and 3 that possessed long, flexible linkers to cysteine residues using copper-catalyzed

Figure 1. Common xanthene fluorophores and overview of peptide fluorosequencing. (A) Structures of xanthene fluorophores and the two fluorophores used in the initial fluorosequencing report (2 and 3). (B) Bis-cysteine peptide with fluorophores at positions 3 and 4 being monitored with single-molecule fluorescence microscopy. A single fluorescent spot is representative of the di-labeled peptide, with corresponding loss of fluorescence for that spot occurring during the third and fourth Edman degradation cycles. (C) Initial report had short linkers between the fluorophores and the peptide backbone. The longer PEG10 linker shown is discussed herein.
A. Synthesis of fluorophore-labelled peptides with short linkers

\[
\text{R-NH-Gly-Ala-Cys-Cys-Ala-Gly-Arg-Tyr-Asp-COOH}
\]

For \( R = \text{Ac}, \) conditions (a): 1. Ac$_2$O, DMF on solid support; 2. IA 4 or 5, TCEP, DIPEA, DMF, 23 °C. For \( R = \text{H}, \) conditions (b): 1. IA 4 or 5, TCEP, pH 8 buffer/MeOH; 2. (Boc)$_2$O, DMF, 23 °C.

B. Synthesis of fluorophore-labelled peptides with long linkers

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\text{R-NH-Gly-Ala-Cys(Alk)-Cys(Alk)-Ala-Gly-Arg-Tyr-Asp-COOH}
\]

*The single fluorophore peptides 14 and 16 were prepared in a two-step procedure. After alkylation with 4 or 5, 2-iodoacetamide was used to cap the non-modified cysteine. The location \( X' \) refers to the second cysteine residue side chain (not drawn). For single fluorophore peptides 20 and 22, Cys(Alk)* matches the non-modified Cys(Alk) structure.

Figure 2. Design and synthesis of short- and long-linker peptides used to study photophysical and peptide fluorosequencing properties.
linker peptides, we performed both solution-phase and single-molecule fluorescence analyses.

Peptides for bulk fluorescence analysis, which included FLT and QY measurements, were acetylated at the N-terminus. Short-linker peptides for this purpose were 13–16, and long-linker peptides were 19–22. Within these sets of peptides, both single fluorophore-labeled and di-labeled peptides were prepared. The single fluorophore peptides represent the baseline for the photophysical properties that could be compared to the di-labeled peptides, where it was expected that fluorescence output would be modified by the introduction of the second fluorophore onto the peptide scaffold. The differences in FLT and QY between these sets of peptides then allowed quantification of linker length effects on ensemble photophysics.

Separately, another group of peptides were synthesized that possessed removable N-terminal protecting groups (Boc or Fmoc) for use in the single-molecule fluorosequencing routine: 17, 18, 23, and 24. For these peptides, the removable protecting group was necessary to allow for solid-support attachment followed by Edman degradation to carry out fluorosequencing.

**PEPTIDE SYNTHESIS**

As shown in Figure 2, a total of 12 peptides were prepared for this study, each of which was used in the manner presented above. The short-linker peptides used in ensemble analysis, 13, 14, 15, and 16, were prepared from acetylated peptide 6 using reaction conditions (a) (Figure 2A). Fluorophores were installed by alkylation under anhydrous conditions with the corresponding fluorophore-iodoacetamide derivative (4 or 5). Notably, single fluorophore peptides 14 and 16 were prepared in a two-step procedure by first alkylation with 1 equivalent of fluorophore followed by the corresponding 2-iodoacetamide (giving inseparable mixtures of position 3 and 4 labeling). Short-linker peptides for fluorosequencing analysis were prepared with a Boc protecting group on the N-terminus. Using reaction conditions (b) (Figure 2A), alkylation of peptide 7 with fluorophore 4 or 5 in aqueous buffer followed by subjection to Boc anhydride under anhydrous conditions gave peptides 17 and 18, respectively.

The long-linker peptides for this study were prepared from alkyne-functionalized peptides 10 and 11 (Figure 2B), which were accessed by alkylation of 6 or a variant of 6 (R = Fmoc, 28, see SI) with iodoacetamide click handle 12. The fluorophore-labeled peptides for ensemble analysis, 19, 20, 21, and 22, were prepared by subjecting peptide 10 to copper-catalyzed reactions using TBTA (Tris[(1-benzyl-1H-1,2,3-triazol-4-yl)methyl]amine) as a ligand with azide-fluorophores 8 or 9. As with the short-linker peptides, two peptides labeled with a single fluorophore and one nonfluorescent handle on the second cysteine residue were prepared, 20 and 22. The peptides for fluorosequencing were prepared from Fmoc-protected peptide 11, which was incorporated from the SPPS. Again, subjecting 11 to the same copper-catalyzed click conditions with 8 or 9 gave access to peptides 23 and 24, respectively. Overall, long-linker peptide preparation generally proceeded by way of lower yield than the corresponding short-linker peptides, likely due to the challenge of CuAAC occurring between such large subunits (1 KDa each). However, due to the very low concentrations required for both solution phase and single-molecule analyses, even low yielding reactions on sub milligram quantities enabled this study.

**ENSEMBLE FLUORESCENCE ANALYSIS**

With the peptides synthesized, we first characterized the ensemble fluorescent properties. Using short-linker peptides
13–16 and long-linker peptides 19–22, we sought to evaluate trends in the FLT ($\tau$) and QY ($\Phi$) between the two sets of peptides. This analysis would allow us to glean insights into the possible quenching pathways occurring in these peptides. Aggregation-induced fluorescence quenching occurs via a static mechanism, where the two or more fluorophores form a nonfluorescent species, decreasing fluorescence intensity and QY but minorly altering FLT. In contrast, FRET-based quenching is a dynamic, through-space mechanism, where a decrease in FLT is generally observed. The single fluorophore-labeled peptides represent the baseline of photophysical properties, with the di-labeled peptides representing an increase in the relative fluorophore concentration. The observed changes in QY and FLT upon an increase in fluorophore concentration can then give insight into the dye–dye interactions that are occurring.

The experimentally determined QY and FLT of peptides 13–16 and 19–22 are reported in Figure 3. To begin the analysis, starting from the mono-short-TMR peptide 14, the introduction of a second fluorophore, as in di-short-TMR peptide 13, resulted in a decrease in both the FLT and QY. The differences between the mono-fluorophore values and the di-fluorophore values for the short-linker TMR peptides are $\Delta$FLTST and $\Delta$QYST (ST = short-linker, TMR). To evaluate the improvement in photophysical properties seen by using the (PEG)$_{10}$ linkers, the values of $\Delta$FLTST and $\Delta$QYST are compared to the same values determined for the long-linker peptides (e.g., $\Delta$FLTLT and $\Delta$QYLT). In this way, the effect of long-linker tethers on the QY and FLT could be quantified.

The mono-short-TMR peptide 14 was found to have a FLT of 2.53 ns and a QY of 0.55. Upon the installation of a second TMR fluorophore as in di-short-TMR (13), a FLT of 2.19 ns and a QY of 0.33 were observed. The introduction of the second fluorophore resulted in FLT decrease of 13% ($\Delta$FLTST) and a QY decrease of 40% ($\Delta$QYST). The same calculations were performed for the long-linker TMR peptides 19 and 20, to determine the effect of the linker change. For the mono-long-TMR peptide 20, a FLT of 2.56 ns and a QY of 0.51 were found. Upon installation of a second TMR fluorophore, as in di-long-TMR (19), a FLT of 2.31 ns and a QY of 0.39 were observed. In this case, introducing the second fluorophore led to a FLT decrease of 9.8% ($\Delta$FLLT$_{LT}$) and a QY decrease of 24% ($\Delta$QY$_{LT}$).

For TMR-labeled peptides, a 13% decrease in FLT with the short-linker peptides ($\Delta$FLTST) was found, compared to a 9.8% decrease in FLT with the long-linker peptides ($\Delta$FLLT$_{LT}$). The longer linkers resulted in an improvement in fluorescence lifetime by a factor of 1.3. More pronounced, however, is the improvement in the QY. The QY decrease for the short-linker-TMR peptides of 40% ($\Delta$QYST) compared to the 24% QY decrease for the long-linker peptides ($\Delta$QY$_{LT}$) represents an improvement in the QY of the peptide–fluorophore conjugate by a factor of 1.7. Taken together, for TMR peptides, the improvements in both FLT and QY using the long-linker strategy validate our hypothesis that increasing the spacing and flexibility of peptide attachment points would improve the photophysical properties of the appended fluorophores.

The same analysis was performed for the Atto 647N-labeled peptides. The mono-short-Atto peptide 16 was found to have a FLT of 4.24 ns and a QY of 0.74. Comparatively, the di-short-Atto (15) had a FLT of 3.76 ns and a QY of 0.63. Taken together, for short-linker Atto 647N peptides, a decrease in FLT of 11% ($\Delta$FLT$_{LA}$) and a QY decrease of 15% ($\Delta$QY$_{LA}$) were observed when a second Atto 647N fluorophore was introduced to the peptide. The same calculations were then performed for the long-linker Atto 647N peptides. Mono-long-Atto peptide 22 had a FLT of 4.21 ns and a QY of 0.79 compared to di-long-Atto (21), which had a FLT of 4.01 ns and a QY of 0.75. Thus, for long-linker Atto 647N peptides, a FLT decrease of 4.8% ($\Delta$FLT$_{LA}$) and a QY decrease of 5.1% ($\Delta$QY$_{LA}$) were observed upon the introduction of the second fluorophore onto the peptide.

For short-linker Atto 647N-labeled peptides, the FLT decrease of 11% ($\Delta$FLT$_{LA}$) compared to the 4.8% decrease for the long-linker peptides ($\Delta$FLT$_{LA}$) shows an improvement in fluorescence lifetime by a factor of 2.3 using long (PEG)$_{10}$ linkers. Similarly, the decrease in QY for the short-linker peptides of 15% ($\Delta$QY$_{LA}$) as compared to 5.1% in the long-linker peptides ($\Delta$QY$_{LA}$) shows an improvement in the QY by a factor of 2.9. With these results, we reach a similar conclusion to the TMR-labeled peptides: the smaller decreases in fluorescence lifetime and QY reflect a decrease in fluorescence quenching and thus an improvement in photophysical properties.

In the TMR-labeled peptides, the relatively small improvements in FLT (1.3-fold) and QY (1.7-fold) found when using long-linkers can likely be rationalized by considering a fluorescence quenching mechanism that proceeds primarily by dimerization. It has been widely reported that rhodamine fluorophores engage in aggregation-induced quenching

# SINGLE-MOLECULE FLUOROSEQUENCING ANALYSIS

As a companion to the ensemble fluorescence analysis, we also employed single-molecule fluorescence microscopy to evaluate the effect of linker length on peptide fluorosequencing efficiencies. The purpose of fluorosequencing is to identify the position of the fluorophore-labeled amino acid residues within a peptide sequence, giving a partial sequence. In modeling, our group has previously demonstrated that proteins in complex mixtures can be identified from the information contained in partial peptide sequences. Fluorosequencing, like other single-molecule-based methods, enables decoupling of dynamic signal variance caused within a molecule from environmental variances observed between molecules. Additionally, the fluorosequencing method enables the analysis of the same peptide before and after the removal of a fluorophore-labeled amino acid.

To this end, peptides 17, 18, 23, and 24 were subjected to single-molecule fluorosequencing, as described by us in detail.
This particular analysis provides a fluorophore count assignment for each peptide after each round of Edman degradation, which is used to determine the position of the labeled amino acids. For peptides of parent sequence GACCAGRYD, the expected fluorophore count assignments after five rounds of Edman degradation would be 2, 2, 1, 0, 0 with a drop from 2 to 1 after the third Edman cycle and 1 to 0 at the fourth Edman cycle, representing the loss of the fluorophore-labeled cysteines (see Figure 1B). Four unique fluorosequencing analyses were performed for each peptide (17, 18, 23, and 24).

To evaluate quenching in these peptides, the count assignments from each sequencing experiment were collected for every Edman degradation cycle and then sorted by their fluorophore count based on photometry analysis. The number of one- and two-count assignments (i.e., loss of only one fluorophore and expected loss of two fluorophores, respectively) were plotted as separate histograms and fit with a Gaussian distribution to determine the mean spot intensity for short- (17, 18) and long-linker peptides (23, 24). Representative examples of these histograms and fits are shown in Figure 4A for the di-labeled short-linker Atto 647N peptide 18 and in Figure 4B for the di-labeled long-linker Atto 647N peptide 24, where the fits for one-count assignments are shown as a black solid line and the fits for two-count assignments are shown as a dashed teal line. The effects of self-quenching can be visualized by first plotting the expected distribution of the calculated unquenched two-count signal as a doubling of the mean of the single-count distribution, represented on Figure 4A, B as a dashed purple line. Second, we compare the two-count signal (teal line) to this doubling of the mean for a one-count peptide. We find that the dotted lines better overlay with the longer linkers; in other words, the experimental distribution for the peptides with two counts (Figure 4B) fits the calculated distribution better than that with the shorter-linker tethers (Figure 4A). Hence, the (PEG)10-linked attachment indeed improves the fluorosequencing results.

To quantify this improvement, the fluorescence quenching was calculated as the percent difference between the calculated, unquenched, two-fluorophore signal mean and the mean of the experimentally collected two-fluorophore signal distribution. The resultant values are plotted in Figure 4C and show a significant decrease in quenching from the short-linker peptides to long-linker peptides with TMR [from 22 ± 2% (17) to 16 ± 3% (23)]. A similar effect, albeit smaller, occurs with the Atto 647N-labeled peptides, where the fluorescence quenching drops from 17 ± 1% (18) to 15 ± 3% (24).

Lastly, the sequencing assignments were used to evaluate the degree to which the length of the linkers affects the correct positional assignments in the fluorosequencing analysis. Figure 4D shows the percent increase in correct assignments for long-linker peptides versus short-linker peptides. Here, the TMR case showed a dramatic effect, with a 60% improvement in sequencing long-linker peptide 23 compared to short-linker peptide 17. Again, for peptides labeled with Atto 647N, the change was less pronounced but still quite significant; a 23% improvement when sequencing long-linker peptide 24 compared to short-linker peptide 18. These results demonstrate that the strategy of spatially distancing fluorophores on a
peptide backbone led to improvements in the photophysical properties of the peptide–fluorophore conjugates and ease of application.

## CONCLUSIONS

Single-molecule techniques for the sequencing of biopolymers offer significant advantages for genomic and proteomic studies. For peptides, our method, referred to as fluorosequencing, uses iterative Edman degradation steps to remove fluorophore-labeled amino acid side chains, as monitored by TIRF microscopy. To improve the positional assignments of amino acids when proximal to one another by minimizing the static and dynamic quenching, we explored a strategy of increasing the spacing of the fluorophores from the peptide backbone by using longer linkers than those used in our first report. Using two different fluorophores, TMR and Atto-647N, the increased linker length (embodied by a PEG10) led to significant improvements in both QYs and FLTfs (factors of 1.3 to 2.9). More important, however, the improvements found in the correct positional assignments for fluorosequencing were significant. When adjacent, the correct assignments for two cysteine residues using TMR and Atto fluorophores improved by 60% and 23%, respectively. Thus, increasing the length and flexibility of the linkers between amino acid side chains and their corresponding fluorophores decreases quenching, thereby increasing QYs and FLTfs, and importantly the ability to correctly sequence labeled amino acids when positioned proximally in a peptide. This advance will become a general strategy to incorporate into our fluorosequencing routines and may inform more general fluorophore attachment strategies in various scaffolds. Similarly, the use of long and flexible linkers could benefit other quantitative single-molecule applications that involve counting applications. Although this study focuses on adjacent labels, other quenching processes could similarly benefit from increased freedom of motion and the resulting physical separation.

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.bioconjchem.2c00103.

Detailed experimental data, compound characterization data, and other information (PDF)

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### Author Contributions


### Notes

The authors declare the following competing financial interest(s): J.S., E.M.M., A.B. and E.V.A. are co-founders and shareholders of Erisyon, Inc.

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(59) The amino acid residue is identified by the chemical modification strategy used to attach the fluorophore. A representative example can be seen here Hernandez, E. T.; Swaminathan, J.; Marcotte, E. M.; Anslyn, E. V. Solution-phase and Solid-phase Nucleophiles in Proteases. J. Chem. Res. 2013, 2870.

(60) Edman degradation requires treatment of the surface-bound peptides with phenyl isothiocyanate (PITC) and pyridine, and separately, neat trifluoroacetic acid (TFA). Both conditions require 40 °C and several hours of incubation per treatment.

(61) To identify fluorophores ideal for fluorosequencing, a broad range of different fluorescent probes were evaluated prior to this study. Fluorophores were attached to solid supported TentaGel resins and incubated for over 20 h with either PITC and pyridine or TFA. The fluorescence outcome of the beads was evaluated before and after treatment to identify fluorophores that could be used for this strategy. See ref 55 Supporting Information for additional details.

(62) While we hoped to explore peptides bearing multiple fluorophores of different identity (e.g. both 2 and 3 on different residues as in ref 21), this required quite significant synthetic effort for orthogonal labeling in the context of the long-linker strategy. Effort was instead focused on multiple fluorophores of the same identity for ease of synthetic manipulation.


(69) Despite that fluorophores 2 and 3 were the most robust fluorophores identified for fluorosequencing, photobleaching as well as loss of fluorescence still occur with longer times subjected to Edman degradation chemistry as well as fluorescent excitation.


(71) While the forster radius of the fluorophores homo-FRET interactions could likely still occur with (PEG)10 (<100 Å), even longer heterofunctionalized spacers were not readily available at the time of this study. We anticipated that this spacing would still provide an ample distance relative to the shorter linkers inherent with the fluorophores.

(72) The CuAAC installation strategy was selected due to the ease of preparation of the peptides relative to the commercial cost of the specialized fluorophores. We initially envisioned functionalizing the fluorophores with iodoacetamide handles directly, however, due to the cost of minute quantities of fluorophores and the additional synthetic manipulations required, that strategy was not pursued.

(73) Acetylation was performed to inhibit photo-induced electron transfer (PET) quenching from the free lonepairs of terminal nitrogen atoms with the appended fluorophores.

(74) Attempts to separate the constitutional isomers by chromatography were unsuccessful. This was further the case with all single-fluorophore labelled peptides (14, 16, 20, 22).

(75) While the click reaction was initially attempted using the Boc cation strategy used to attach the fluorophore, a representative example can be seen here Hernandez, E. T.; Swaminathan, J.; Marcotte, E. M.; Anslyn, E. V. Solution-phase and Solid-phase Sequential, Selective Modification of Side Chains in KDYWEC and KDYWE as Models for Usage in Single-molecule Protein Sequencing. New J. Chem. 2017, 41, 462–469.

(76) Edman degradation requires treatment of the surface-bound peptides with phenyl isothiocyanate (PITC) and pyridine, and separately, neat trifluoroacetic acid (TFA). Both conditions require 40 °C and several hours of incubation per treatment.
deprotected during the reaction, leading to free amine that likely coordinated to copper. As such, switching to the Fmoc protecting group was performed. Although, this was further met with minor challenges as well, see the Supporting Information for more detail.

(76) FLT for Atto peptides was calculated based on fitting to a single-exponential decay function. FLT for TMR peptides is reported as the intensity weighted average lifetime following fit to a double-exponential decay. Additional information on FLT can be found in the Solution phase Fluorescence Analysis section of the SI.


