# A quasi-digital approach to peptide sequencing using tandem cells with endo- and exo-peptidases

G. Sampath <sup>1</sup>

Abstract. A method of sequencing peptides using tandem cells (RSC Adv., 2015, 5, 167-171; RSC Adv., 2015, 5, 30694-30700) and peptidases is considered. A double tandem cell (two tandem cells in tandem) has three nanopores in series, an amino-acid-specific endopeptidase attached downstream of the first pore, and an exopeptidase attached downstream of the second pore. The endopeptidase cleaves a peptide threaded through the first pore into fragments that are well separated in time. Fragments pass through the second pore and are each cleaved by the exopeptidase into a series of single residues; the latter pass through the third pore and cause distinct current blockades that can be counted. This leads to an ordered list of integers corresponding to the number of residues in each fragment. With 20 cells, one per amino acid type, and 20 peptide copies, the resulting 20 lists of integers are used by a simple algorithm to assemble the sequence. This is a quasi-digital process that uses the lengths of subsequences to sequence the peptide, it differs from conventional analog methods which seek to identify monomers in a polymer via differences in blockade levels, residence times, or transverse currents. Several implementation issues are discussed. In particular the usually intransigent problem of high translocation speeds may be resolved through the use of a sufficiently long (40-60 nm) third pore. This translates to a resolution time of  $\sim 2 \mu s$ , which is within the range of currently available CMOS circuits.

### 1. Introduction

Nanopores, have been investigated over several years for their potential use in the analysis of polymers, in particular DNA [1]. There is now a growing interest in other kinds of polymers such as polyethylene glycol [2] and proteins/peptides [3,4]. Here a scheme for peptide sequencing is described that is based on a modified version of a tandem cell with cleaving enzymes that was proposed and studied earlier [5,6]. A tandem cell consists of two electrolytic cells joined in tandem and has the structure [cis1, membrane with upstream pore (UNP), trans1/cis2, membrane with downstream pore (DNP), trans2]. An enzyme attached to the downstream side of UNP successively cleaves the leading monomer in a polymer that has threaded through UNP; the cleaved monomer then translocates to and through DNP where the resulting ionic current blockade level (and/or other discriminators [6]) is used to identify it. With DNA the enzyme is an exonuclease [5], with peptides it is an amino or carboxy peptidase [6]. The approach does not use labels or immobilization.

The present communication describes a method of peptide sequencing using a double tandem cell (two tandem cells connected in tandem), an endopeptidase to break the peptide into fragments, and an exopeptidase to obtain the lengths of the latter. With 20 such cells the sequence can be assembled from these data by a simple algorithm.

# 2. Peptide sequencing using tandem cells with endo and exopeptidases: a method based on blockade counts

A double tandem cell is an electrolytic cell with four compartments connected in series and bridged by three nanopores. An amino-acid-specific endopeptidase is attached downstream of the first (or upstream) pore (UNP) and an exopeptidase is attached downstream of the second (or middle) pore (MNP). A peptide drawn into the first pore by a potential difference is cleaved by the endopeptidase after (or before) every occurrence of the amino acid. (Here, 'before' and 'after' may be interpreted as 'at the amino end of' and 'at the carboxy end of' or the reverse.) The resulting fragments pass through MNP and are each cleaved by the exopeptidase on the downstream side of MNP into a series of single residues. The latter, well separated in time, pass through the third (or downstream) pore (DNP) and cause ionic current blockades that are measured as distinct pulses with width given by a residue's residence time in DNP. By counting the number of pulses coming from each fragment, an ordered list of fragment lengths (where fragment length = number of residues in a fragment) is obtained. Length lists from 20 such cells and 20 peptide copies, one for each residue type, are then used by a simple algorithm to assemble the sequence. By using a sufficiently long pore (40-60 nm) the detection bandwidth can be brought down to 2-4 MHz, which is within the range of currently available CMOS circuits [7]. In this quasi-digital approach, subsequence lengths, rather than analog differences in current amplitudes, residence times, or transverse currents, are used to sequence a peptide. Modified amino acids can be handled the same way as natural amino acids.

The material that follows is summarized thus: In Section 3 the structure and function of the double tandem cell is briefly described and a procedure to obtain fragment length information from a cell outlined. Section 4 describes an algorithm to assemble the peptide sequence using length lists from 20 such cells and traces through the steps of an illustrative example. In Section 5 the minimum cleaving intervals required between successive cleavings by the endopeptidase and by the exopeptidase for accurate sequencing are obtained. Section 6 looks at the detection bandwidth required and its dependence on pore length and fragment and residue translocation times. Section 7 discusses error detection and correction. Section 8 concludes with a brief discussion of implementation issues. An appendix provides supplementary

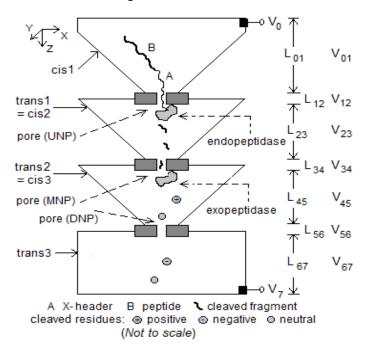
-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> E-mail: sampath\_2068@yahoo.com

information, including brief notes on the mathematical model of the tandem cell, details of calculations, additional notes on implementation, and a list of related references.

# 3. A double tandem cell for peptide sequencing

Figure 1 is a schematic of a double tandem cell. It has the structure [cis1, membrane with upstream pore (UNP), trans1/cis2, membrane with middle pore (MNP), trans2/cis3, membrane with downstream pore (DNP), trans3]. A peptide with a poly-X header (X = one of the charged amino acids: Arg, Lys, Glu, Asp; the charge on X depends on the pH value) is drawn into UNP by the electric field due to  $V_{07}$  (= 50-80 mV), most of which (~98%) drops across the three pores [1]. An endopeptidase specific to amino acid AA attached downstream of UNP cleaves the peptide after all n ( $\geq$  0) points where AA occurs, resulting in n+1 fragments that translocate to and through MNP. On the downstream side of MNP an exopeptidase (amino or carboxy) successively cleaves every residue in a fragment, these single residues translocate through DNP where they cause current blockades, one per residue. The resulting current record for the cell yields an ordered list of integers corresponding to the number of residues in each fragment.



**Fig. 1**. Modified tandem cell for peptide sequencing in 7 stages. Dimensions: 1) *cis*1: box of height 1 μm tapering to 10 nm²; 2) membrane with UNP: length 8-10 nm, radius 1-3 nm; 3) *trans*1/*cis*2: box of height 1 μm tapering from 1 μm² to 10 nm²; 4) membrane with MNP: length 8-10 nm, radius 1-3 nm; 5) *trans*2/*cis*3: box of height box of height 1 μm tapering from 1 μm² to 20 nm²; 6) membrane with DNP: length 40-60 nm, diameter 2-5 nm; 7) *trans*3: box of height 1 μm and cross-section 1 μm². Endopeptidase covalently attached to downstream side of UNP; exopeptidase covalently attached to downstream side of MNP. Electrodes at top of *cis*1 and bottom of *trans*3.  $V_{07}$  = 60-90 mV.

The basic tandem cell has been modeled mathematically with a Fokker-Planck equation [5]; the results can be applied separately to each compartment or pore in the double tandem cell. More information is provided in the Appendix, where formulas are given for the mean and standard deviation of the translocation time through a section of the cell in terms of the length of the section, the diffusion constant of a charged or uncharged particle, the mobility of a charged particle, and the drift velocity of a charged particle. Other relevant properties such as the hydrodynamic radius of a fragment and the relationship between residue/peptide charge and the pH value of the solution are included. Translocation statistics of peptides are used to estimate the minimum cleaving interval required of the endopeptidase and of the exopeptidase; this is discussed in Section 5 below.

#### 4. Sequence assembly from fragment length data

Sequencing with the double tandem cell can be described in the following terms:

- 1) Each of the 20 cells yields an ordered sequence of integers equal to the numbers of residues in the fragments cleaved by the corresponding endopeptidase. If a cell generates only one number, the target amino acid is not in the peptide.
- 2) From these data the peptide is assembled using the following steps:

- replace the fragment lengths from a cell with cumulative lengths (= positions) and the target amino acid identity (= index to a table of the 20 amino acids)
- invert the position-index pairs
- merge the resulting index sequences
- map indexes to amino acids

The following example illustrates the procedure.

Example. Let AA = [A, R, N, D, C, Q, E, G, H, I, L, K, M, F, P, S, T, W, Y, V] where AA[i] is the i-th amino acid,  $1 \le i \le 20$ . Consider the peptide KAYTIATRGGATCR. With 8 cells, one for each of the 8 AA types present in the peptide (K, A, Y, T, I, R, G, C), their fragment length lists are:  $12:\{1, 13\}, 1:\{2, 4, 5, 3\}, 19:\{3, 11\}, 17:\{4, 3, 5, 2\}, 10:\{5, 9\}, 2:\{8, 6\}, 8:\{9, 1, 4\},$  and  $5:\{13, 1\}$ , where the number before the colon is the index to AA of the cell's target amino acid type. (There are no sequences listed for the 12 AA types that do not occur in the peptide, but see the last sentence of this paragraph.) The last fragment in each list does not contribute to the sequence and is therefore not considered here. Residue position information is computed as  $12:\{1\}, 1:\{2, 6, 11\}, 19:\{3\}, 17:\{4, 7, 12\}, 10:\{5\}, 2:\{8\}, 8:\{9, 10\}, and <math>5:\{13\}$ , where  $i:\{i_1, i_2, ...\}$  means 'Amino acid i occurs in positions  $i_1, i_2, ...$  in the peptide'. This list is obtained by replacing a fragment length in the earlier list with the position in the peptide of the last residue in the fragment. The latter is obtained by summing all lengths up to that fragment in the first list. Inverting the target amino acid index and its position in the peptide leads to the sequence of amino acid indices (12, 1, 19, 17, 10, 1, 17, 2, 8, 8, 1, 17, 5), which maps to KAYTIATRGGATC. (The 12 cells for the absent amino acid types will still be used; all generate a single fragment and return a single number equal to the length of the peptide, indicating absence of the target amino acid type.)

Note that the last residue in the peptide sequence (R in the example) cannot be identified, even with the endopeptidase that targets it, because cleaving is assumed to occur after the target amino acid. To resolve this problem, 20 additional cells, each targeting a different one of the 20 amino acid types, can be used to sequence the peptide in reverse and obtain a sequence of fragments in the reverse order. The last residue in the last fragment of a forward sequencing cell will now appear as the first fragment in one of the reverse sequencing cells. A simpler alternative (which would require an extra step) would be to extend the peptide  $P_x$  with a short poly-Z trailer (with 1 or more Z residues); the last residue B in  $P_x$  will appear as a fragment in the list from cell B for the extended peptide. The set of fragment lists can be adjusted accordingly.

### 5. Necessary conditions for accurate sequencing

The proposed method relies on counting pulses due to single residues blockading the ionic current through DNP. For sequencing to be accurate the following conditions must be satisfied (see Appendix for the details):

Condition 1a: Cleaved residues must arrive at DNP in their natural order. (This is not a strict requirement as residues are being counted, not identified.)

Condition 1b: Blockade pulses in DNP must be distinct and therefore well separated in time. Thus there can be no more than one residue in DNP at any time.

Condition 2a: Successive fragments cleaved by the endopeptidase downstream of MNP must be separated in time so that the pulse count obtained at DNP for one fragment is not commingled with that due to the next fragment. (This requires the fragment generation rate at the endopeptidase to be acceptably lower than the residue cleaving rate at the exopeptidase.)

Condition 2b: Cleaved fragments must arrive at MNP in their natural order. (This is a strict requirement because fragments contribute their lengths to an ordered list.)

From the Appendix, for a maximum peptide length of 20 and a set of typical operating parameters ( $V_{07} = 90$  mV,  $V_{23} = \sim 0.3$  mV,  $V_{34} = \sim 15$  mV,  $V_{45} = \sim 0.3$  mV,  $V_{56} = \sim 60$  mV, pH = 7.0,  $L_{12} = 10$  nm,  $L_{23} = 1$  µm,  $L_{34} = 10$  nm,  $L_{45} = 1$  µm,  $L_{56} = 60$  nm) the minimum required cleaving intervals for the endopeptidase and the exopeptidase are

$$T_{\text{endo-c.min}} = 675 \text{ ms}$$
  $T_{\text{exo-c.min}} = 29.4 \text{ ms}$  (1)

# 6. Translocation time and detection bandwidth

The major factor in the present approach is the behavior of cleaved residues (rather than cleaved fragments). The most important consideration is the speed with which a residue translocates through DNP. Translocation times are ordinarily are 10s to 100s of nanoseconds, requiring detection bandwidths that are several tens of MHz. The usually prescribed solution to this is slowing down the residue. There are a variety of methods to do this, most of them have only a marginal effect [8]. Some in particular, such as magnetic or optical control, are unusable with peptide fragments or residues, as the latter are intermediate products of internal chemical reactions and cannot be controlled using external agents.

Translocation time (of a fragment or residue) is a function of several parameters: the potential across MNP or DNP, pore (MNP or DNP) length, and the fragment or residue's diffusion constant D and mobility  $\mu$ . D is a function of the hydrodynamic radius, which in turn depends on the residues making up the fragment. Mobility is a function of the electric charge on the residue or fragment, which in turn is a function of solution pH. Equations A-1 through A-7 in the Appendix show the relevant relationships. To illustrate the extent of variability, a peptide fragment 20 residues long can have an

electric charge anywhere in the range -18q to 18q (here q = electron charge), depending on the pH value of the solution.

In the present case the dominant factor is the contribution to the fragment length count from a blockade pulse due to a cleaved residue in DNP. If the pulse is wide (or equivalently, the residence time is high) the time resolution required to detect it is decreased; equivalently the required detection bandwidth is also reduced. Thus blockade pulses are wider with longer pores. With a DNP that is 40-60 nm long the pulse width is  $\sim 2~\mu s$  (see Table A-3, Columns 1, 3, and 5) and the required bandwidth is 2-4 MHz, which can be achieved with currently available CMOS circuits [7]. (Compare this with the usual preference in nanopore-based sequencing for shorter pores, where the goal is better discrimination between successive monomers in a polymer strand [1]. Such a high level of discrimination is not required here because the residues are well separated in time and are being counted rather than identified.)

Table A-3 in the Appendix gives translocation times of single residues in *trans*1/*cis*2 and DNP for three values of pH. Notice the wide difference in times between the more positive residues (R, K, H) and the other more negative ones. The roles are reversed if the sequencing is done with the applied potential reversed. For a given detection bandwidth if the faster residues are missed in one direction they can be picked up with the potential reversed. Thus the reliability of the counting process improves with two fragment lists, one for each of the two directions of applied potential. The error can be minimized over all fragments by experimentally varying the pH and finding the pH value that yields the best results. This can be done independently for each of the 20 cells.

### 7. Error detection and correction

1) *Symbol errors*. These usually arise from incorrect or spurious measurements. A symbol error can be a deletion (a symbol in the sequence is missing) or an insertion (a symbol is sensed in the current record where there is actually none). The most common deletion error arises from homopolymers, which are successive monomers that are identical (like the digram GG in the example in Section 4).

Homopolymer errors normally cannot occur in the present scheme because by design successive cleaved residues are sufficiently separated in time (see Equation 1 above) when passing through DNP and give rise to distinct pulses. Insertion errors are more likely; they are usually caused by membrane noise. This is discussed next.

2) Errors due to noise. Independent of the available bandwidth, noise of one type or another is always present. In an electrolytic cell used for polymer sequencing the type with the most impact is high frequency membrane noise, which arises because the cis and trans compartments and the membrane in between form a capacitor, as a result of which ions and counterions positioned on either side of the membrane generate random high frequency fluctuations in the pore current [1]. With high detector bandwidth the resulting current spikes increase the probability of false positives (that is, a noise spike is incorrectly counted as a residue), leading to incorrect fragment lengths in the output. A bandpass filter may be used to eliminate spikes outside the band, the required passband can be determined from the mean translocation time of the fastest cleaved residue passing through DNP (see Table A-3 in the Appendix).

Error detection and correction may be based on:

- a) standard methods [9], which can be combined to greater effect with the redundancy that is found in abundance in the 20 or more fragment lists;
- b) segmentation methods that use hidden Markov models to identify transitions between noise and signal [10];
- c) database identification methods; these are commonly used in mass spectrometry [11] and make use of algorithms like Peptide Sequence Tags and Sequest, they can be adapted to the present purpose.

# 8. Some implementation considerations

There are a number of factors to consider in implementation, and several parameters may be used to arrive at an optimum design. They include choice of pores, applied voltage, translocation speed, solution pH, detector bandwidth, membrane noise, peptide length, choice of electrolyte, and temperature. Some of these issues are considered next.

- 1) Choice of pores. As discussed in Section 6, a long pore for DNP is necessitated by the need to decrease the detection bandwidth. Synthetic pores made of silicon compounds, such as nitride  $(Si_3N_4)$ , are well-suited for this purpose, having a length of 30-100 nm, although the fabrication process makes them double-conical rather than cylindrical [12], which would require design parameters to be adjusted suitably. The purpose of UNP and DNP is mainly to feed a peptide or peptide fragment to the associated peptidase for cleaving. Biological pores like AHL may be better suited because of the need to covalently attach the peptidase to the downstream side of the pore.
- 2) Order of fragment entry into MNP. With a narrow pore, it is possible for a cleaved fragment in trans1/cis2 translocating single file through a narrow MNP to enter it from the wrong end (C-terminal if the exopeptidase is amino, or N-terminal if carboxy). One way to resolve this problem is to use a wider pore and position the exopeptidase so that it can bind to the fragment and successively cleave the residues from the correct end. The larger width has no adverse effects because MNP's role is only to serve as a conduit for the fragment to be drawn processively to the exopeptidase for the purpose of cleaving.
- 3) Current levels and signal-to-noise ratio (SNR). The measured quantity of interest is the ionic current through DNP; its value ~50-60 picoamperes (based on pore conductances of ~1 nS [12,13]). A commonly used method of increasing SNR is to use a bandpass filter. Higher voltages, even if they increase the SNR, can cause problems in sequence order; see Section 3

in the Appendix. For further improvement, error correction methods may be used. (Also see the last paragraph of Section 6.) 4) *Entropy barriers*. It is assumed that the entropy barrier [1] faced by a fragment during its entry into MNP is negligible. When not negligible, it can still be taken into account. Thus the minimum cleaving intervals in Equation 1 may be increased to allow for the additional time taken by a fragment to overcome the barrier. The tapers shown in Figure 1 also help lower the entropy barrier for peptide entry into UNP, fragment entry into MNP, and residue entry into DNP.

- 5) Solution pH. Solution pH plays an important role for two reasons: a) the charge carried by a fragment, which is highly variable and not known in advance, is a function of pH; this is unlike with DNA, where all nucleotide types have approximately the same charge of -q; b) its effect on enzyme reaction rates. The choice of pH is therefore a tradeoff between enzyme efficiency and the need to control translocation speeds. The optimum pH value is best determined by experiment.
- 6) *Modified amino acids*. The proposed device can be used to sequence peptides containing modified amino acids; this only requires the use of an additional cell with an endopeptidase and peptide copy for each modified amino acid type. (Information on peptidases is available in the MEROPS database, which is accessible at <a href="http://merops.sanger.ac.uk">http://merops.sanger.ac.uk</a>. Also see recent review [14].)

For other issues, see 'Additional Notes' in the Appendix.

#### References

- [1] M. Wanunu, "Nanopores: a journey towards DNA sequencing." Phys Life Rev, 2012, 9, 125–158.
- [2] J. E. Reiner, J. J. Kasianowicz, B. J. Nablo, and J. W. F. Robertson, "Theory for polymer analysis using nanopore-based single-molecule mass spectrometry," *PNAS*, 2010, **107**, 12080–12085.
- [3] W. Timp, A. M. Nice, E. M. Nelson, V. Kurz, K. Mckelvey, and G. Timp. "Think Small: Nanopores for Sensing and Synthesis." *IEEE Access*, 2014, **2**, 1396-1408.
- [4] C. Madampage, O. Tavassoly, C. Christensen, M. Kumari, and J. S. Lee, "Nanopore analysis: an emerging technique for studying the folding and misfolding of proteins," *Prion*, 2012, 6, 116-123.
- [5] G. Sampath, "A tandem cell for nanopore-based DNA sequencing with exonuclease," *RSC Adv.*, 2015, **5**, 167-171. (For an earlier version see: dx.doi.org/10.1101/005934.)
- [6] G. Sampath, "Amino acid discrimination in a nanopore and the feasibility of sequencing peptides with a tandem cell and exopeptidase," RSC Adv., 2015, 5, 30694 30700. (For an earlier version see: dx.doi.org/10.1101/015297.)
- [7] J. K. Rosenstein, M. Wanunu, C. A. Merchant, M, Drndic, and K. L. Shepard, "Integrated nanopore sensing platform with sub-microsecond temporal resolution," *Nature Methods*, 2012, **9**, 487–492.
- [8] S. Carson, J. Wilson, A. Aksimentiev, and M. Wanunu, "Smooth DNA transport through a narrowed pore geometry", *Biophys. J.*, 2014, **107**, 2381–2393.
- [9] R. E. Blahut. Theory and Practice of Error Control Codes. Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA, 1983.
- [10] J. Schreiber and K. Karplus, "Analysis of nanopore data using hidden Markov models," Bioinformatics, 2015, doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btv046.
- [11] H. Steen and M. Mann. "The ABC'S (and XYZ's) of peptide sequencing." Nature Reviews, 2004, 5, 699-711.
- [12] S. W. Kowalczyk, A. Y. Grosberg, Y. Rabin, and C. Dekker, "Modeling the conductance and DNA blockade of solid-state nanopores," *Nanotechnology*, 2011, **22**, 315101.
- [13] A. Aksimentiev and K. Schulten, "Imaging a-Hemolysin with molecular dynamics: ionic conductance, osmotic permeability, and the electrostatic potential map," *Biophys. J.*, 2005, **88**, 3745-3761.
- [14] N. D. Rawlings, M. Waller, A. J. Barrett, and A. Bateman, "MEROPS: the database of proteolytic enzymes, their substrates and inhibitors," *Nucleic Acids Res.*, 2014, **42**, D503-D509.

# **Appendix**

### A-1 Translocation statistics of tandem cell

Following [5], the mean E(T) and variance  $\sigma^2(T)$  of the translocation time T over a channel of length L that is reflective at the top and absorptive at the bottom with applied potential difference of V are given by

$$E(T) = (L^{2}/D\alpha)[1 - (1/\alpha)(1 - \exp(-\alpha))]$$
(A-1)

and

$$\sigma^{2}(T) = (L^{2}/D\alpha^{2})^{2} (2\alpha + 4\alpha \exp(-\alpha) - 5 + 4\exp(-\alpha) + \exp(-2\alpha))$$
(A-2)

where

$$\alpha = v_z L/D$$
  $v_z = \mu V/L$  (A-3)

Here  $v_z$  is the drift velocity due to the electrophoretic force experienced by a charged particle in the z direction, which can

be 0, negative, or positive. For  $v_z = 0$ , these two statistics are

$$E_0(T) = L^2/2D;$$
  $\sigma_0^2(T) = (1/6)(L^4/D^2)$  (A-4)

If each section in the double tandem cell is considered independently these formulas can be applied to all the relevant sections: trans1/cis2 (T =  $T_{trans1/cis2}$ ; L =  $L_{23}$ ), MNP (T =  $T_{MNP}$ ; L =  $L_{34}$ ), trans2/cis3 (T =  $T_{trans2/cis3}$ ; L =  $L_{45}$ ), DNP (T =  $T_{DNP}$ ; L =  $L_{56}$ ), and trans3 (T =  $T_{trans3}$ ; L =  $L_{67}$ ). For an analysis of behavior at the interface between two sections see [5,6].

### A-2 Dependence of peptide translocation on solution pH, charge, diffusion constant, and mobility

Equations A-1 through A-4 involve a number of physical-chemical properties of amino acids: electrical charge (itself dependent on solution pH [15]), hydrodynamic radius, diffusion constant, and mobility. The following paragraphs provide a quantitative description of this dependence and allow calculation of fragment properties as they apply to peptide sequencing in a tandem cell with endopeptidase and exopeptidase. In particular this information is used in the next section to derive a required condition for effective sequencing.

1) The electrical charge carried by a peptide (fragment)  $P_x$  can be calculated with the Henderson-Hasselbach equation. Let the set of amino acids be AA = [A, R, N, D, C, Q, E, G, H, I, L, K, M, F, P, S, T, W, Y, V] where AA[i] is the i-th amino acid,  $1 \le i \le 20$ . Let the pH value of the solution (electrolyte) be p, kC = kA value of the carboxy end = 9.69, kN = kA value of the amino end = 2.34,  $N_X$  the number of times residue X occurs in the peptide (X = R, H, K),  $N_Z$  the number of times residue Z occurs (Z = D, C, E, Y), and kX and kZ the kA values of X and Z respectively. kA values are given by the following table:

Table A-1

Amino acid / peptide end	Amino end	Carboxy end	R	D	C	E	Н	K	Y
kA value	2.34	9.69	12.48	3.86	8.33	4.25	6.0	10.53	10.07

The charge multiplier  $C_{Px}$  on the peptide is given by

$$C_{Px} = 10^{kC} / (10^p + 10^{kC}) - 10^p / (10^p + 10^{kN}) + \sum_{X} 10^{kX} / (10^p + 10^{kX}) - \sum_{Z} 10^p / (10^p + 10^{kZ})$$
(A-5)

where the summations are over the N<sub>X</sub> and N<sub>Z</sub> occurrences of X and Z respectively in P<sub>x</sub>.

2) The hydrodynamic radius  $R_{Px}$  of peptide  $P_x = X_1 X_2 ... X_N$  is obtained recursively as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} R_{X1\;...\;Xk} = R_{X1\;...\;X\;k-1} \left( 1 + 3 \; (V_{Xk} - \delta v/2) \; / \; 4\pi \; (R_{X1\;...\;X\;k-1})^3 \right)^{1/3}, \qquad k > 1 \\ = R_{X1}, \qquad \qquad k = 1 \end{array} \tag{A-6}$$

where  $V_{Xk}$  and and  $\delta v$  are the van der Waals volumes of  $X_k$  and a single molecule of water. Hydrodynamic radii of individual amino acids are given in [16] and van der Waals volumes in [17] (both sets of values are reproduced in the Supplement to [6]). This formula holds for small peptides (up to ~20 residues).

3) The diffusion constant and mobility of P<sub>x</sub> are given by

$$D_{Px} = k_B T_R / 6\pi \eta R_{Px}$$
  $\mu_{Px} = C_{Px} q / 6\pi \eta R_{Px}$  (A-7)

Here  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant (1.3806  $\times$  10<sup>-23</sup> J/K),  $T_R$  is the room temperature (298° K),  $\eta$  is the solvent viscosity (0.001 Pa.s), and q is the electron charge (1.619  $\times$  10<sup>-19</sup> coulomb).

Table A-2

	Translocation time in trans1/cis2 (10 <sup>-3</sup> s)						Translocation time in MNP (10 <sup>-6</sup> s)					
Peptide fragment	pH=	= 3.0	pH:	= 7.0	pH =	11.0	pH =	= 3.0	pH=	= 7.0	pH =	11.0
1 0												

	Mean	Std dev	Mean	Std dev	Mean	Std dev	Mean	Std dev	Mean	Std dev	Mean	Std dev
$F_1 = RRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRR$	147.5404	147.5239	135.2212	135.2046	46.1967	46.1787	0.5324	0.4412	0.5321	0.4408	0.5272	0.4360
$F_2 = E$	0.0472	0.0387	0.0382	0.0300	0.0326	0.0245	0.1799	0.1470	0.1791	0.1461	0.1785	0.1455

trans 1/cis2: height = 0.5  $\mu$ m radius =  $0.5 \mu$ m  $V_{23} = 0.3 \text{mV}$  MNP: height = 8nm radius = 2 nm  $V_{34} = 15 \text{ mV}$ 

Similar calculations for translocation times of single residues through trans2/cis3 and DNP lead to the results in Table A-3.

Table A-3

	Translocation time in DNP (10-6 s)							Translocation time in trans2/cis3 (10 <sup>-3</sup> s)						
Amino acid	pI	H=3	pH=7		pH=11		pH=3		pH=7		pH=11			
	Mean	Std dev	Mean	Std dev	Mean	Std dev	Mean	Std dev	Mean	Std dev	Mean	Std dev		
A	2.5355	2.1271	2.1903	1.7878	1.1808	0.8193	0.1526	0.1246	0.1523	0.1244	0.1512	0.1233		
R	9.3647	8.7947	7.6052	7.0346	3.0031	2.4576	0.2081	0.1702	0.2078	0.1699	0.2062	0.1683		
N	2.8405	2.3830	2.4538	2.0029	1.3229	0.9178	0.1709	0.1396	0.1707	0.1394	0.1694	0.1381		
D	2.6075	2.1482	1.3069	0.8990	0.8548	0.4994	0.1730	0.1413	0.1716	0.1399	0.1704	0.1387		
С	2.7261	2.2871	2.2752	1.8441	0.8102	0.4735	0.1640	0.1340	0.1637	0.1337	0.1613	0.1313		
Q	3.0788	2.5829	2.6597	2.1709	1.4339	0.9948	0.1852	0.1513	0.1850	0.1510	0.1836	0.1497		
Е	2.8642	2.3841	1.3595	0.9354	0.8888	0.5192	0.1800	0.1470	0.1784	0.1455	0.1771	0.1442		
G	2.2114	1.8552	1.9103	1.5593	1.0299	0.7146	0.1331	0.1087	0.1329	0.1085	0.1319	0.1075		
Н	9.0679	8.5153	3.0883	2.5562	1.5493	1.0749	0.2017	0.1650	0.2000	0.1633	0.1984	0.1618		
I	3.0883	2.5909	2.6679	2.1776	1.4383	0.9979	0.1858	0.1518	0.1856	0.1515	0.1842	0.1502		
L	3.2313	2.7109	2.7914	2.2785	1.5049	1.0441	0.1944	0.1588	0.1942	0.1585	0.1927	0.1571		
K	9.5988	9.0145	7.7928	7.2080	1.8892	1.3710	0.2133	0.1745	0.2130	0.1742	0.2102	0.1714		
M	2.9358	2.4630	2.5361	2.0701	1.3673	0.9486	0.1766	0.1443	0.1764	0.1440	0.1751	0.1428		
F	3.1932	2.6789	2.7585	2.2516	1.4871	1.0318	0.1921	0.1569	0.1919	0.1567	0.1904	0.1553		
P	2.5545	2.1431	2.2068	1.8013	1.1897	0.8254	0.1537	0.1255	0.1535	0.1253	0.1524	0.1242		
S	2.6308	2.2071	2.2726	1.8550	1.2252	0.8501	0.1583	0.1293	0.1581	0.1291	0.1569	0.1279		
T	2.8977	2.4310	2.5032	2.0432	1.3495	0.9363	0.1744	0.1424	0.1741	0.1422	0.1728	0.1409		
W	3.3361	2.7989	2.8820	2.3524	1.5537	1.0780	0.2007	0.1639	0.2005	0.1637	0.1990	0.1622		
Y	3.4029	2.8548	2.9377	2.3975	1.0521	0.6253	0.2047	0.1672	0.2045	0.1669	0.2015	0.1641		
V	3.1646	2.6549	2.7338	2.2314	1.4738	1.0226	0.1904	0.1555	0.1901	0.1553	0.1887	0.1539		

trans2/cis3: height = 0.5  $\mu$ m radius = 0.5  $\mu$ m  $V_{23}$  = 0.6 mV DNP: height = 60 nm radius = 2 nm  $V_{34}$  = 60 mV

### A-3 Conditions for ordered fragment entry into MNP and single residue occupancy in DNP

The proposed method relies on counting pulses due to single residues blockading the ionic current through DNP. Therefore for sequencing to be accurate the following conditions must be satisfied.

Condition 1a: Blockade pulses in DNP must be distinct and therefore well separated in time. Thus there can be no more than one residue in DNP at any time.

Condition 1b: Cleaved residues must arrive at DNP in their natural order. (This is not a strict requirement as residues are being counted, not identified.)

Condition 2a: Successive fragments cleaved by the endopeptidase downstream of UNP must be separated in time so that the pulse count from one fragment is distinct from that due to the next fragment. At the very least the rate at which the endopeptidase cleaves fragments must be lower than the rate at which the exopeptidase cleaves residues in a fragment.

Condition 2b: Cleaved fragments must arrive at MNP in their natural order. (This is a strict requirement because fragments contribute integers to an ordered list.)

Each of these conditions sets a minimum time for the interval between successive cleavings by the two enzymes. Let  $T_{\text{exo-c-min-1a}}$ ,  $T_{\text{exo-c-min-1b}}$ ,  $T_{\text{endo-c-min-2a}}$ , and  $T_{\text{endo-c-min-2b}}$ , be the minimum cleaving intervals of the two enzymes that satisfy the above four conditions. Assume that the translocation times have distributions with  $6\sigma$  support ( $\sigma$  is the standard deviation, see Equations A-2 and A-4). Following the procedure in [6] (see Supplement therein), if  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are two residues cleaved in succession by the exopeptidase, then for a pH value of 7.0 (physiological pH),

$$E(T_{trans2/cis3-X1}) + 3\sigma_{trans2/cis3-X1} < T_{exo-e.min-1a} + max (0, E(T_{trans2/cis3-X2}) - 3\sigma_{trans2/cis3-X2})$$
 (A-8)

From columns 3 and 4 in Table A-3, the second term in the inequality on the right is 0 so that

$$T_{\text{exo-c.min-la}} > \max_{X} \left\{ E(T_{\text{trans2/cis3-X}}) + 3\sigma_{\text{trans2/cis2-X}} \right\} \tag{A-9}$$

where X ranges over all the 20 amino acids. The maximum occurs for X = K (Lys). Using the data for Lys in columns 4 and 5 in Table A-3

$$T_{\text{exo-c.min-la}} = 0.73 \text{ ms} \tag{A-10}$$

Following the same routine for DNP

$$T_{\text{exo-c.min-1b}} > E(T_{\text{DNP-X1}}) + 3\sigma_{\text{DNP-X1}} \tag{A-11}$$

The final result is

$$T_{\text{exo-c.min-1b}} = 29.4 \text{ ms}$$
 (A-12)

The minimum cleaving interval for the exopeptidase is the larger of the two values

$$T_{\text{exo-c.min}} = \max (T_{\text{exo-c.min-la}}, T_{\text{exo-c.min-lb}}) = 29.4 \text{ ms}$$
 (A-13)

 $F_1$  has maximum positive charge and  $F_2$  has a negative charge. Thus the translocation times in *trans* 1/*cis*2 and DNP are maximum for  $F_1$  and minimum for  $F_2$ . The following must be satisfied for  $F_1$  to enter DNP before  $F_2$  (Condition 2a):

$$E(T_{trans1/cis2-F1}) + 3\sigma_{trans1/cis2-F1} < T_{endo-c-min-1a} + max (0, E(T_{trans1/cis2-F2}) - 3\sigma_{trans1/cis2-F2})$$
 (A-14)

which on using Table A-2 gives

$$T_{\text{endo-c-min-1a}} = 0.13 \text{ ms}$$
 (A-15)

Similarly for Condition 2b to be satisfied

$$E(T_{trans1/cis2-F1}) + 3\sigma_{trans1/cis2-F1} + E(T_{DNP-F1}) + 3\sigma_{DNP-F1} < T_{endo-c-min-1b} + max (0, E(T_{trans1/cis2-F2}) - 3\sigma_{trans1/cis2-F2})$$
(A-16)

Again, using Table 1

$$T_{\text{endo-c-min-1b}} = 675 \text{ ms}$$
 (A-17)

The minimum cleaving interval for the exopeptidase is the larger of the two values

$$T_{\text{endo-c.min}} = \max (T_{\text{exo-c.min-1a}}, T_{\text{exo-c.min-1b}}) = 675 \text{ ms}$$
 (A-18)

Notice that the solution pH plays an indirect role in the above calculation, it is also a major contributing factor to peptidase functioning. The optimal value of pH to use can be determined by experiment independently for each of the 20 cells.

### A-4 Additional notes

- 1) Fragment length. Alternative definitions of fragment length may be based on: 1) contour length (= physical length of the fragment when stretched; here it is assumed that in a narrow pore with radius ~1 nm a fragment is stretched out and remains rigid as it passes through); 2) the time of translocation of the fragment through the pore. The first is not practical because it cannot be measured in the present setup. The second may be approximated from the width of the blockade pulse measured when the fragment translocates through DNP, but the error can be considerable.
- 2) *Identifying the last residue in a peptide*. An alternative to the use of reverse sequencing cells to identify the last residue in a peptide is to sequence a copy of the peptide in the forward direction using a second cell with an endopeptidase that cleaves before rather than after the target amino acid.
- 3) Order of fragment entry into DNP. A fragment can enter DNP amino-end first or carboxy-end first. However the order is not important as the information sought is the number of residues, not their identity or sequence.
- 4) Order of entry of peptide into UNF. The assembly algorithm described in Section 4 implicitly assumes that entry of a peptide into UNP in each of the cells is for all of them N-terminal first or all of them C-terminal first. This is a reasonable assumption because of the charged X-header. However, there is a non-zero probability that the peptide may enter wrong end first, so some of the fragment length lists obtained will be in the reverse order. The assembly algorithm needs to be modified to take this into account. Preliminary analysis suggests that the required modification may not be a major one.
- 5) *Independence of cells*. Each cell targets a different amino acid and operates independent of the other cells. This means that the cell can be independently optimized for enzyme reaction rates, applied voltage, pH value, etc.
- 6) Effect of the X-header. A charged X-header of length M attached to the target peptide is used to induce the peptide to enter UNP. As it is itself cleaved by the cell targeting X it generates M additional fragments containing a single X residue, The output of the X cell has to be adjusted accordingly.
- 7) Entropy barrier at entrance to DNP. As noted earlier, a fragment entering DNP may face an entropy barrier [1]. For short peptides with lengths up to ~20, this may not be significant. A longer fragment, however, may be coiled on itself and take more time to enter DNP. This would mean an increase in the required minimum cleaving interval (see Section A-3); the value in Equation 1 can be multiplied by a suitable factor to account for barrier effects.
- 8) *Sticky fragments/residues*. The problem of fragments or residues sticking to pore or compartment walls may be resolved through the use of non-stick additives [18] or wall coatings [19].
- 9) Whole protein sequencing. If fragment lengths created by the cleaving enzyme are not large (~20) a folded protein could be loaded into the tandem cell and unfolded by an unfoldase enzyme like ClpX [20] before cleaving and sequencing.
- 10) Hafnium oxide pores. Recent studies using high bandwidth ( $\sim$ 4 MHz) detectors have shown that a HfO<sub>2</sub> membrane < 10 nm thick can slow down translocating DNA molecules [21]. (The slowdown is believed to be due to interactions of the DNA with the walls of the pore.) At the present time, however, fabrication of such pores appears to require an inordinate amount of time.
- 11) Other measurements. While the proposed method is centered on extracting sequence identity from integers representing the lengths of cleaved fragments, other parts of the current record (blockade levels, blockade pulse widths, translocation times, etc.) simultaneously yield information such as higher-order correlations. This additional information can be used for correction of sequence assembly errors or in bioinformatics applications.
- 12) Applicability of the proposed approach to DNA sequencing. The question whether this approach can be applied to DNA sequencing has to be answered at present in the negative because separate nucleotide-specific endonucleases, one for each of A, T, C, and G, would be required but are not available. Known endonucleases excise a strand at an incision point without distinguishing among base types.

For other implementation-related issues affecting tandem cells see discussions in [5,6]. For a review of nanopore fabrication methods see [22].

#### References

- [15] D. L. Nelson and M. M. Cox, Lehninger's Principles of Biochemistry, 4th Edition, W. H. Freeman and Company, New York, 2005.
- [16] M. W. Germann, T. Turner, and S. A. Allison, "Translational diffusion constants of the amino acids: measurement by NMR and their use in modeling the transport of peptides," *J. Phys. Chem. A*, 2007, **111**, 1452-1455.
- [17] R. J. Simpson, *Proteins and Proteomics: A Laboratory Manual*, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor, NY, 2008
- [18] G. F. Schneider, S. W. Kowalczyk, V. E. Calado, G. Pandraud, H. W. Zandbergen, L. M. K. Vandersypen, and C. Dekker, "DNA translocation through graphene nanopores", *Nano Lett.*, 2010, **10**, 3163–3167.
- [19] E. C. Yusko, J. M. Johnson, S. Majd, P. Prangkio, R. C. Rollings, J. Li, J. Yang, and M. Mayer, "Controlling protein translocation through nanopores with bio-inspired fluid walls", *Nature Nanotech.*, 2011, **6**, 253–260.
- [20] J. Nivala, D. B. Marks and M. Akeson, "Unfoldase-mediated protein translocation through an a-hemolysin nanopore," *Nature Biotech.*, 2013, **31**, 247–250.
- [21] J. Larkin, R. Henley, D. C. Bell, T. Cohen-Karni, J. K. Rosenstein, and M. Wanunu, "Slow DNA transport through nanopores in hafnium oxide membranes," *ACS Nano*, 2013, 7, 10121–10128.
- [22] Y. Wang, Q. Yang, and Z. Wang, "The evolution of nanopore sequencing," *Front. Genet.*, 2015, **5**, 449. (doi:10.3389/fgene.2014.00449)