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## Excitonically coupled cyanine dye dimers as optical energy transfer relays on DNA templates

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# Excitonically coupled cyanine dye dimers as optical energy transfer relays on DNA templates

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11 KEYWORDS: Electronic energy transfer, FRET, Excitons, DNA nanotechnology, DNA  
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13 scaffolds, Molecular photonic wires  
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23 **ABSTRACT.** An attractive strategy to improve the energy transfer properties of synthetic dye  
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25 networks is to optimize the excitonic coupling between the dyes to increase energy transfer rates.  
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27 To explore this possibility, we investigate the use of J-like cyanine dye dimers (Cy3 and Cy5  
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29 dimers) on DNA duplexes as energy transfer relays in molecular photonic wires. This approach is  
30  
31 based on using the collective emission dipole of a J-dimer to enhance the FRET rate between the  
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33 dimer relay and a remote acceptor dye. Experimentally, we find that in room temperature aqueous  
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35 buffer conditions the dimer relay provided no benefit in energy transfer quantum yield relative to  
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37 a simple monomer relay. Further investigation led us to determine that enhanced non-radiative  
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39 relaxation, non-ideal dye orientation within the dimer, and unfavorable dye orientation between  
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41 the dimer and the acceptor dye limit energy transfer through the dimer relay. We hypothesized that  
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3 non-radiative relaxation was the largest factor, and demonstrated this by placing the sample in a  
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5 viscous solvent or cooling the sample, which dramatically improved energy transfer through the  
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7 J-like dimer relay. Similar to how the formation of DNA-templated J-like dimers has improved,  
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9 the practical use of J-like dimers to optimize energy transfer quantum efficiency will require  
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11 improvements in the ability to control orientation between dyes to reach its full potential.  
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## INTRODUCTION

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25 Efficient electronic energy transfer (EET) in dye molecule networks is an essential property  
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27 for applications in light harvesting,<sup>1-3</sup> organic solar cells,<sup>4, 5</sup> bio-sensing,<sup>6</sup> and exciton devices.<sup>3, 7-</sup>  
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32 While some applications only require a single efficient EET step, such as biosensors that use  
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35 EET to signal the presence of an analyte,<sup>13, 14</sup> others require multiple EET steps to transfer energy  
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37 over long distances, such as chemical sensing with conjugated polymers,<sup>15</sup> synthetic light  
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39 harvesting antennae,<sup>16-18</sup> and molecular photonic wires (MPWs).<sup>19-23</sup> In order to improve the  
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42 performance of synthetic molecular networks for efficient EET, it is necessary to optimize  
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45 excitonic coupling between the constituent dye molecules to increase energy transfer rates.  
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52 In this work, we explore using J-like cyanine dimers as optical energy relays (hereafter,  
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54 referred to simply as relays) to improve energy transfer quantum efficiency (EQE) in DNA  
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templated MPWs. We are motivated by the possibility that excitonically coupled chromophores can act collectively to enhance the rate of EET,<sup>24, 25</sup> which is a design principle used in natural light harvesting systems to achieve highly efficient EQE.<sup>24</sup>

In the dipole-dipole approximation the rate of EET can be written as,<sup>26</sup>

$$k_{EET} \propto \frac{\kappa^2 |\mu_D|^2 |\mu_A|^2}{R^6} J, \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

Where  $\mu_D$  and  $\mu_A$  are the transition dipole moments of the donor and acceptor, respectively,  $R$  is the center-to-center separation,  $J$  is the spectral overlap between the donor emission spectrum and the acceptor absorption spectrum, and  $\kappa$  is the orientation factor ( $\kappa = (\hat{\mu}_D \cdot \hat{\mu}_A - 3(\hat{\mu}_D \cdot \hat{R}) \cdot (\hat{\mu}_A \cdot \hat{R}))$ ), where the circumflex indicates a unit vector). Consider the situation shown in **Figure 1a** where a pair of identical donor dyes is coupled to a monomer acceptor dye. If the donor dyes are arranged in a head-to-tail configuration of a so-called J-dimer ( $\kappa = -2$ ), then the donor acts as a collective unit with an enhanced transition dipole of  $\sqrt{2}\mu_D$ .<sup>24</sup> In this case, **Equation 1** predicts a two-fold enhancement in  $k_{EET}$  when compared to the more common situation of two interacting monomers (assuming all other EET parameters remain the same). If both donor and acceptor are J-dimers, then a four-fold enhancement in EET is predicted.

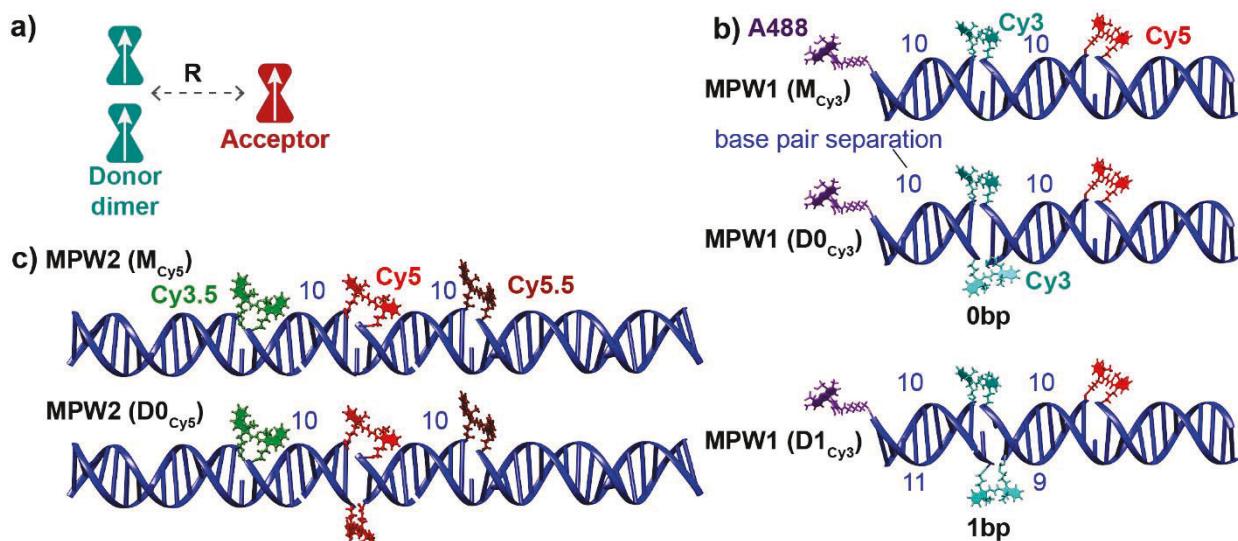


Figure 1. Dye-labeled DNA MPW structures utilized in this study. a) Schematic representation of an ideal J-dimer donor (green bowties) and a monomer acceptor (red bowtie) with a co-planar relative orientation, and with a center-to-center distance,  $R$ , between the J-dimer and the monomer. The white arrows inside the bowties represent the direction of transition dipole moments. b) and c) Schematic representations of molecular photonic wires (MPWs) using Cy3 (b) and Cy5 relay dyes (c). The Cy3 MPW consists of an initial A488 donor, Cy3 relay, and Cy5 terminal acceptor. The Cy5 MPW consists of an initial Cy3.5 donor, Cy5 relay, and Cy5.5 terminal acceptor. The separation between different dye types is given in base pairs (bp) between the attachment points of the dyes. The dimer relays  $D0_{Cy3}$  and  $D0_{Cy5}$  have Cy3 and Cy5 pairs attached at the same location along the DNA duplex, so-called 0 bp dimers. The dimer relay  $D1_{Cy3}$  has Cy3 pairs separated by 1 bp along the DNA duplex, so-called 1 bp dimer.

In the context of DNA scaffolding, many strongly coupled dye dimers covalently attached to DNA have shown the characteristics of H-dimers, where the dyes are orientated co-facially (

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3  $\kappa = 1$ ), and which exhibit blue-shifted absorption spectra compared to the monomer, and weak  
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5 fluorescence.<sup>27-30</sup> Using an H-dimer as the donor would suppress  $k_{EET}$  because the lowest excitonic  
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7 state of an ideal H-dimer carries no oscillator strength, though an H-dimer could be used as an  
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9 acceptor to boost  $k_{EET}$ . However, beginning with the work of Häner and co-workers,<sup>31</sup> several  
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11 examples of Cy3 and Cy5 dimers templated on DNA have shown J-like characteristics,<sup>29, 32-35</sup>  
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13 where the absorption spectra are red-shifted from the monomers. Theoretical modeling of these  
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15 cyanine dimers has suggested that they are not ideal J-dimers, rather they are better described as  
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17 oblique dimers that exhibit Davydov splitting.<sup>29, 32, 34, 35</sup> We seek to understand whether such Cy3  
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19 and Cy5 dimers, as approximations to ideal J-dimers, can result in improved energy transfer relays  
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21 in MPWs.  
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To this end, we designed two MPWs that utilize either a Cy3 dimer or Cy5 dimer as a relay  
between single dye initial donors and acceptors. The Cy3 dimer design is denoted MPW1, while  
the Cy5 dimer design is referred to as MPW2. The purpose for using two MPWs is to test whether  
the coupling strength of the dimers (Cy5 > Cy3) modifies the energy transfer throughput. The  
complete set of controls were also tested, including ‘no relay’ and ‘monomeric relay’ designs.

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3 We characterize the optical properties and EQEs of MPWs and control structures using  
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5 steady state and time resolved spectroscopy. Energy transfer is interpreted using Förster theory  
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7 within dynamic and static isotropic limits of dye orientation, as well as in the context of constrained  
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9 dye orientation that is observed from molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. After initial  
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11 characterization, viscosity alterations and temperature-dependent measurements allow us to  
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13 determine underlying mechanisms limiting EQE. For both MPWs, we find that rapid non-radiative  
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15 excited state relaxation of the dimer limits the EQE, and this is especially so for the more strongly  
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17 coupled Cy5 dimer. We show that suppressing non-radiative relaxation by increasing viscosity, or  
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19 by moderately cooling the sample, can dramatically improve EQE. In addition, in the case of  
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21 MPW1, we perform MD simulations, which suggest that the Cy3 dimer relay and Cy5 acceptor  
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23 are constrained in unfavorable orientations that limit the EQE.  
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## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### MPW design:

**Figure 1b** schematically represents the two MPWs (MPW1 and MPW2). The design uses a 32 base pair (bp) double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) scaffold with dye structures, DNA sequences, and dye placement on the DNA strands described in the Supporting Information (SI; **Figures S1, Schemes S1 and S2, and Tables S1 and S2**). Dye-labeled DNA strands were HPLC purified ensuring nearly 100% labeling efficiency of the oligonucleotide. For MPW1, Alexa 488 (A488) is the donor, Cy3 monomer or dimer is the relay unit, and Cy5 is the acceptor. The three relay variants include a monomer ( $M_{Cy3}$ ), a so-called 0 bp Cy3 dimer ( $D0_{Cy3}$ ), and a so-called 1 bp Cy3 dimer ( $D1_{Cy3}$ ). For  $D0_{Cy3}$ , one Cy3 dye is attached to each DNA strand at the same position along the DNA base stack positioning them directly opposite each other in the ds structure (**Scheme S1**). For  $D1_{Cy3}$ , the two Cy3 dyes are separated along the DNA base stack by one bp (**Scheme S1**). Cy3 and Cy5 are doubly attached to DNA using a three-carbon linker, whereas A488 is attached to the 5' end of a DNA strand using a flexible single-point linker (**Figure S1**). The three fully labeled MPW1s are called MPW1( $M_{Cy3}$ ), MPW1( $D0_{Cy3}$ ), and MPW1( $D1_{Cy3}$ ). MPW2 uses Cy3.5 as the donor, Cy5.5 as the acceptor, and two different relays: a Cy5 monomer,  $M_{Cy5}$ , and a 0 bp Cy5 dimer,  $D0_{Cy5}$ . All of the

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3 dyes in MPW2 are doubly attached using three-carbon linkers. For MPW2, an important  
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6 distinction is its modular design (**Scheme S2**) that uses four DNA strands to form the DNA duplex.  
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10 This design was used to mitigate the high cost and low synthetic yield of DNA strands labeled  
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12 with three dyes. In addition to fully labeled MPWs, we also assembled partially labeled control  
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14 structures (C) from the DNA strands in **Tables S1** and **S2**. The control structures are used to help  
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16 understand the individual energy transfer steps in the fully labeled MPWs, and to determine EQEs.  
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24 **Sample Preparation:** DNA duplexes were formed at 2  $\mu$ M by heating the complementary strands  
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26 to 94  $^{\circ}$ C and then ramping the temperature down to 4  $^{\circ}$ C, using a ramp with a 1  $^{\circ}$ C decrease every  
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28 30 second ramp. All experiments were performed in 2.5 $\times$  phosphate buffered saline (0.345 M  
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30 NaCl; 0.00675 M KCl; pH 7.4; henceforth referred to as PBS), and in a 2:1 glycerol:H<sub>2</sub>O mixture  
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33 at 2.5 $\times$  PBS after mixing with glycerol (henceforth referred to as Gly-PBS). The increase in solvent  
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35 viscosity by addition of glycerol has been shown to suppress photo-isomerization in cyanine dyes,  
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38 thereby leading to increased fluorescence quantum yields (QYs).<sup>32, 36</sup>  
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48 **Absorption and Fluorescence:** Steady-state absorption spectra at room temperature were measured  
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50 for 110  $\mu$ L samples at concentration between 1-2  $\mu$ M in a 1 cm path length cuvette using an Agilent  
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53 8453 diode array UV-vis spectrophotometer. Fluorescence emission spectra at a concentration of  
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3      $\lesssim 1 \mu\text{M}$  and with a peak optical density less than 0.1 were measured using a Multifunction  
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5     Microtiter Plate Reader (Tecan Infinite MR 1000 Pro) in a 96 well plate using 50  $\mu\text{L}$  of sample  
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7     with excitation at 466, 515, and 600 nm for excitation of A488, Cy3/Cy3.5, and Cy5/Cy5.5 dyes,  
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10     respectively. Temperature-dependent fluorescence measurements (down to 170 K) were  
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12     performed using a Fluoromax 3 spectrofluorometer (Horiba). The samples in Gly-PBS were loaded  
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14     in a 1 cm path length cryogenic quartz cell (Firefly Sci) and mounted in a Janis STVP-100 sample-  
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17     in-vapor cryostat. The sample concentration for the fluorescence measurements was 0.20  $\mu\text{M}$  in  
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19     ds DNA to keep the peak optical density below 0.1. All fluorescence emission spectra were  
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22     corrected for instrumental effects.  
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34     **Fluorescence Quantum Yields:** QYs were measured at room temperature using a Fluoromax 3  
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37     spectrofluorometer (Horiba) with an orthogonal excitation/detection geometry, and using known  
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40     standards: Fluorescein, Rhodamine B, Cresyl Violet for A488, Cy3, and Cy5, respectively. The  
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43     solutions were diluted so that peak optical densities were  $< 0.1$  to ensure a uniformly excited  
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46     volume and the linearity of the fluorescence emission spectra with concentration was confirmed  
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49     to rule-out inner-filter effects.<sup>37</sup> The A488 fluorescence intensity was referenced to Fluorescein in  
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52     basic ethanol (QY = 0.92),<sup>38</sup> Cy3 was referenced to Rhodamine B in ethanol (QY = 0.68),<sup>39</sup> Cy3.5  
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3 was referenced to Sulforhodamine 101 in ethanol (QY = 0.90),<sup>40</sup> Cy5 was referenced to Cresyl  
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7 Violet in ethanol (QY = 0.58),<sup>41</sup> and Cy5.5 was referenced to Rhodamine 800 in ethanol (QY =  
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10 0.25).<sup>41</sup>  
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15 **Circular Dichroism Spectra:** Circular dichroism measurements (CD) at room temperature were  
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17 performed using a JASCO J-1500 CD spectrophotometer. Measurements were performed within  
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19 the spectral range of 200-850 nm, with 1 nm step intervals, at 100 nm/min, four second digital  
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21 integration time, at room temperature. CD spectra were measured using a sample concentration of  
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24 2 $\mu$ M in a 1 cm path length quartz spectrophotometer cell.  
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32 **Fluorescence Lifetimes:** The fluorescence lifetimes were measured at room temperature using  
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34 time-correlated single photon counting (TCSPC). The excitation source was an 80 MHz, 7 ps  
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36 pulse, 532 nm, frequency-doubled diode-pumped Nd:YVO<sub>4</sub> laser (High-Q picoTRAIN). The dye-  
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38 DNA structures were placed in a 1 mm path quartz spectrophotometric cell at a concentration  
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40 between 1-2  $\mu$ M. Sample fluorescence was collected and sent through a polarizer set to the magic  
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42 angle and then filtered using a monochromator. A micro channel plate photomultiplier tube  
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44 (Hamamatsu) was used to detect the fluorescence with a ~40 ps instrument response function. The  
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47 TCSPC waveforms were collected with greater than 10,000 counts in the peak channel.  
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3 **Energy Transfer Measurements:** Sensitized acceptor fluorescence was used as the primary method  
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7 for determining the end-to-end (*ee*) energy transfer quantum efficiency ( $E_{ee,sens}$ ) of the MPWs.  
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10 Sensitized fluorescence determines  $E_{ee,sens}$  by quantifying the number of photons emitted by the  
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13 terminal dye per number of photons absorbed by the donor,<sup>42, 43</sup>  
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$$E_{ee,sens} = \left( \frac{F_{MPW} - F_C}{F_D} \right) \left( \frac{QY_D}{QY_A} \right) \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

22 where  $F_{MPW}$  is the integrated fluorescence spectrum of the acceptor in the fully labeled MPW,  $F_C$   
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25 is the integrated fluorescence of the control structure without the donor dye, which accounts for  
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28 fluorescence that does not come from exciting the donor dye, and  $F_D$  is the integrated fluorescence  
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31 from the donor-alone structure.  $QY_D$  and  $QY_A$  are the fluorescence quantum yields of the donor  
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34 dye and the terminal acceptor dye, respectively.  
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40 We also use a second method to evaluate EQE for MPW1s based on measuring steady state  
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42 donor fluorescence quenching (also called donor loss) within donor-acceptor pairs,  
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$$E_{DL} = 1 - \frac{F_{DA}}{F_D}, \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

52 where  $F_{DA}$  is the integrated fluorescence from the donor in the presence of the acceptor, and  $F_D$  is  
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55 the integrated fluorescence from the donor alone. Using donor loss measurements, the end-to-end  
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4 EQE ( $E_{ee,DL}$ ) of the MPWs are estimated by considering the energy transfer to be a two-step  
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6 sequential process,<sup>44</sup>  
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$$11 \quad E_{ee,DL} = E_{12} \times E_{23}, \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$
  
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15 where  $E_{12}$  is the EQE of the first step,  $E_{23}$  is the EQE of the second step, and labels 1, 2, and 3  
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17 represent the donor, relay, and acceptor dyes of the MPWs, respectively. We note that **Equation 4**  
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19 ignores the direct energy transfer from the first donor to the terminal acceptor, however for the  
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21 MPWs direct energy transfer is relatively small.<sup>45</sup>  
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30 **Förster Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) Analysis.** For each dye pair, the Förster distance ( $R_0$ )  
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32 corresponding to the donor-acceptor distance resulting in 50% EQE was determined using the  
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34 equation,<sup>46</sup>  
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$$40 \quad R_0^6 = 8.8 \times 10^{23} \frac{\kappa^2 QY_D}{n^4} J, \quad \text{Eq. 5}$$
  
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45 where  $QY_D$  is the fluorescence quantum yield of the donor in the absence of the acceptor,  $n$  is taken  
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47 to be the refractive index of the solvent ( $n = 1.33$  for the aqueous buffer, and  $n = 1.43$  for the  
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49 glycerol buffer),  $\kappa^2$  is the dipole orientation factor,<sup>46</sup> and  $J$  is the spectral overlap integral, given  
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52 by<sup>46</sup>  
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$$J = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon_A(v) f_D(v)}{v^4} dv, \quad \text{Eq. 6}$$

where  $f_D(v)$  is the fluorescence spectrum of the donor normalized to 1,  $\varepsilon_A(v)$  is the molar absorptivity spectrum of the acceptor, and  $v$  is the frequency in wavenumbers. We determined the theoretical EQEs between individual donor-acceptor pairs using the equation,

$$EQE = \frac{R_0^6}{R_0^6 + R^6} , \quad \text{Eq. 7}$$

where  $R$  is the center-center separation between the donor dye and the acceptor dye. Alternatively,

**Equation 7** can be written in terms of rate constants,

$$EQE = \frac{k_{FRET}}{k_{tot} + k_{FRET}} \quad \text{Eq. 8}$$

where  $k_{FRET}$  is the rate constant for FRET and  $k_{tot}$  is the total relaxation rate constant from the excited state, equal to the sum of radiative and non-radiative relaxation rates of the donor dye in the absence of the acceptor.

**Molecular Dynamics Simulation:** MD simulations were carried out with the Gromacs 5.1.5 package<sup>47</sup> using Amber OL 15 force field parameters<sup>48</sup> for DNA and the general Amber force field (GAFF)<sup>49</sup> for dyes. The long-range electrostatics were computed using the particle-mesh Ewald

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3 method with a real-space Coulomb cutoff of 1.0 nm. The van der Waals interactions were cut off  
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5 at 1.0 nm. All bonds were constrained using the LINCS algorithm.<sup>50</sup> The neighbor searching  
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7 algorithm was used with a cutoff of 1.0 nm, and the neighbor list was updated every 10th step. A  
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9 time step of 2 fs was used for all simulations. The starting dye–DNA structures were built using  
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11 the UCSF Chimera software, production version 1.13.1.<sup>51</sup> Rectangular periodic boundary  
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13 conditions were used with the box dimensions of ~13.5 nm × 13.5 nm × 13.5 nm, ensuring a water  
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15 layer of at least 1 nm between the DNA and the edge of the box. The systems were solvated in  
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17 TIP3P water, and Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> ions were added to satisfy the salt concentration of 350 mM. The  
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19 systems were then energy-minimized using the steepest descent method for 1000 steps. The  
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21 systems were first equilibrated for 10 ns at a constant temperature of 300 K and pressure of 1 atm.  
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23 The dye–DNA and solvent were coupled separately to temperature baths of the reference  
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25 temperature (300 K) with a coupling time of 0.1 ps, whereas the pressure was kept constant to a  
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27 bath of the reference pressure (1 atm) using a coupling time of 1.0 ps. The production trajectories  
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29 of the dye–DNA complex were calculated for 1 μs, keeping the number of particles, temperature,  
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31 and pressure constant. The Langevin thermostat<sup>52</sup> was used at 300 K with a coupling constant of  
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33 1 ps applied to dye–DNA and water separately. The pressure was maintained at 1 atm isotropically  
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3 with the Parrinello–Rahman barostat<sup>53</sup> and a coupling constant of 2.0 ps. The coordinates were  
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6 written every 100 ps for the analysis.  
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## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Structural and photophysical characterizations were undertaken to provide context to the EET analysis. A 20% polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) determined that the formation efficiency of MPW1 and MPW2 was dye and design independent, and greater than 90% in each case (**Figure S2**) - we note that we have observed that for simple DNA nanostructures PAGE underestimates solution level formation percentages.<sup>54</sup> Our samples typically showed high reproducibility in their optical spectra. As an example, sample batches prepared under the same conditions over 3-4 years (**Figure S3**) show highly reproducible absorption and fluorescence spectra. In addition, dilution assays showed that the formation efficiency was not modified over an order of magnitude around the 2  $\mu$ M target concentration (**Figure S3**). DNA melting temperatures ranged from 35-75 °C, assuring well-formed structures at the buffer and working temperature (20 °C). We also determined the photophysical properties including the fluorescence QY for each dye (**Table 1**), and calculated the Förster radius,  $R_0$ , for each dye pair using the value for the dynamically averaged orientation factor,  $\kappa^2 = 2/3$  (**Table 2**). For this analysis, we considered the coupled Cy3 and Cy5 dimers as a single donor/acceptor unit. We assume that the distances between donor and relay, and relay and acceptor ( $\geq 36 \text{ \AA}$ ) are large enough so that EET can be

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3 described by FRET. When the dimer acts as an acceptor,  $R_0$  tends to increase with respect to the  
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5 monomer acceptor because of the increase in the density of acceptor states, while changes in QY  
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7 changes mean that dimers acting as donors can have either higher or lower efficiency than  
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9 monomers.  
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**Table 1.** Fluorescence quantum yields of dye monomers and dye dimers.

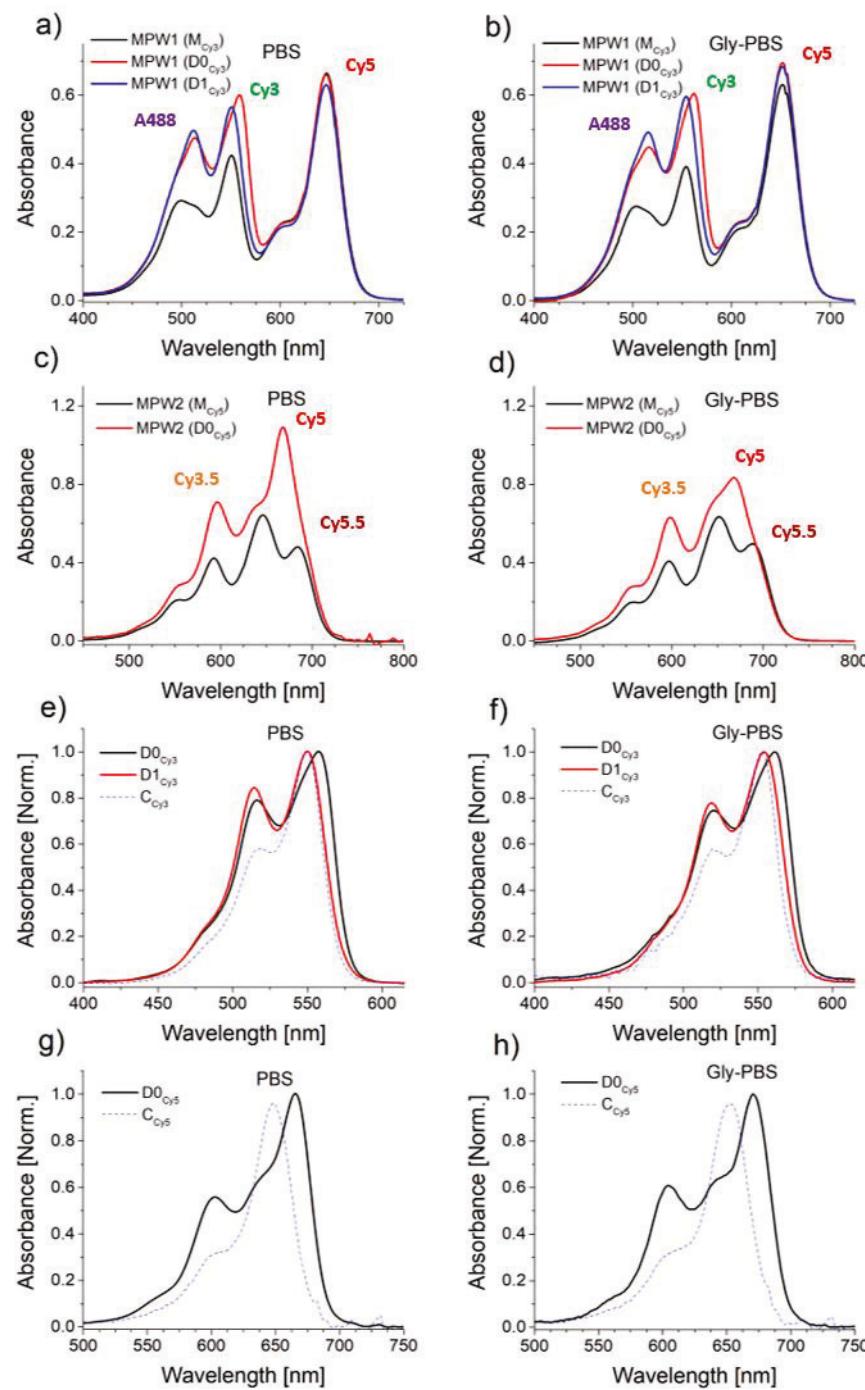
Solvent	A488	M <sub>Cy3</sub>	D0 <sub>Cy3</sub>	D1 <sub>Cy3</sub>	Cy3.5	M <sub>Cy5</sub>	D0 <sub>Cy5</sub>	Cy5.5
<b>PBS</b>	0.74±0.04	0.28±0.04	0.16±0.04	0.23±0.03	0.31±0.02	0.33±0.04	0.04±0.01	0.24±0.04
<b>Gly-PBS</b>	0.81±0.05	0.64±0.04	0.68±0.07	0.47±0.06	0.51±0.02	0.41±0.04	0.20±0.02	0.33±0.05

The uncertainty is the standard deviation of three measurements.

**Table 2.** Spectral overlaps ( $J$ ) and Forster radii ( $R_0$ ) for MPW1 FRET pairs.

Structure/Solvent	$J$ (cm <sup>6</sup> /mmol)	$R_0$ (Å)*
A488-M <sub>Cy3</sub> PBS	$5.57 \times 10^{-13}$	65±1
A488-M <sub>Cy3</sub> Gly	$5.45 \times 10^{-13}$	63±1
A488-D0 <sub>Cy3</sub> PBS	$12.0 \times 10^{-13}$	74±1
A488-D0 <sub>Cy3</sub> Gly	$11.7 \times 10^{-13}$	72±1
A488-D1 <sub>Cy3</sub> PBS	$11.9 \times 10^{-13}$	74±1
A488-D1 <sub>Cy3</sub> Gly	$11.7 \times 10^{-13}$	72±1
M <sub>Cy3</sub> -Cy5 PBS	$8.36 \times 10^{-13}$	59±2
M <sub>Cy3</sub> -Cy5 Gly	$8.60 \times 10^{-13}$	65±1
D0 <sub>Cy3</sub> -Cy5 PBS	$9.27 \times 10^{-13}$	55±2
D0 <sub>Cy3</sub> -Cy5 Gly	$9.15 \times 10^{-13}$	66±1
D1 <sub>Cy3</sub> -Cy5 PBS	$9.45 \times 10^{-13}$	59±2
D1 <sub>Cy3</sub> -Cy5 Gly	$9.72 \times 10^{-13}$	63±1

\* The values for  $R_0$  are calculated using  $\kappa^2 = 2/3$ . The uncertainty in  $R_0$  is calculated from the uncertainty in fluorescence quantum yields

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7 **MPWs with Cy3 relays.**

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52 **Figure 2. Absorption spectra for MPWs in PBS and Gly-PBS at room temperature.** Panels a) and  
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54 b) show absorption spectra for MPW1(M<sub>Cy3</sub>) (black curve), MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>) (red curve), and  
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3 MPW1(D1<sub>Cy3</sub>) (blue curve). Panels c) and d) show absorption spectra for MPW2(M<sub>Cy5</sub>) (black  
4 curve) and MPW2(D0<sub>Cy5</sub>) (red curve). The approximate absorption maxima for each dye is  
5 indicated. Panels e) and f) show absorption spectra for D0<sub>Cy3</sub> in PBS and Gly-PBS, respectively.  
6 Panels g) and h) show absorption spectra for D0<sub>Cy5</sub> in PBS and Gly-PBS, respectively. The blue  
7 dotted lines are the corresponding monomer absorption spectrum.  
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17 **Figures 2a and 2b** show absorption spectra of the MPW1s in PBS and Gly-PBS. Each case  
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19 shows absorption peaks due to A488, Cy3, and Cy5 near 500 nm, 550 nm, and 650 nm,  
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21 respectively. A notable feature is the increased absorption in the 550 nm region from the Cy3  
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23 dimer, and in the A488 region from the overlap of the vibronic bands of the Cy3 dimer with the  
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25 peak of the A488 absorption. For MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>), there is a red shift of the absorption peak in the  
26  
27 Cy3 region, which is suggestive of coupled Cy3 dyes in a J-like configuration. The differences in  
28  
29 the absorption band shapes for the Cy3 monomer and dimers are shown in **Figures 2e and 2f** and  
30  
31 **Figure S4**. With respect to Cy3, the absorption peak of D0<sub>Cy3</sub> is red-shifted by approximately 9 nm  
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33 and the vibronic absorption band near 515 nm is enhanced with respect to the Cy3 monomer. The  
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35 size of the red shift suggests a Davydov splitting of about 500 cm<sup>-1</sup> (i.e., twice the red shift), which  
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37 is consistent with previous J-like Cy3 dimers that we have studied.<sup>32</sup> In contrast, the D1<sub>Cy3</sub> does  
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39 not show a red-shifted peak absorption, however the vibronic peak is enhanced with respect to  
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3 Cy3.<sup>32</sup> This result shows that the Cy3 dyes in D1<sub>Cy3</sub> are more weakly coupled. The CD spectrum  
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5 for D0<sub>Cy3</sub> (Figure S5) shows a bisignate signal, confirming an excitonically coupled dimer. In  
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7 contrast, the CD signal for D1<sub>Cy3</sub> is barely resolvable from the noise floor, which is consistent with  
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9 much weaker coupling.  
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14 To quantify end-to-end energy transfer quantum yields ( $E_{ee,sens}$ ), we performed steady-state  
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16 fluorescence measurements while preferentially exciting the A488 donor dye at 466 nm (Figure  
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18 3). The fluorescence in the A488 region is highly quenched in all MPW1s with MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>) and  
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20 MPW1(D1<sub>Cy3</sub>) showing stronger quenching than MPW1(M<sub>Cy3</sub>). This result is consistent with the  
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22 increased molar absorptivity of D0<sub>Cy3</sub>, which leads to an increase in  $R_0$  for the A488  $\rightarrow$  D0<sub>Cy3</sub>  
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24 (D1<sub>Cy3</sub>) FRET step. Interestingly, quenching of A488 fluorescence in Gly-PBS is smaller than in  
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26 PBS. A possible explanation is that interactions between A488 and the DNA duplex are weaker in  
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28 Gly-PBS, which would allow the end attached A488 to move farther away from the DNA duplex  
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30 and increasing its distance from the downstream acceptor dyes. The terminal Cy5 fluorescence of  
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32 the MPW1s show different relative intensities in PBS and Gly-PBS. In PBS, the Cy5 fluorescence  
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34 intensity for MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>) is similar to MPW1(M<sub>Cy3</sub>), with both being lower than MPW1(D1<sub>Cy3</sub>).  
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36 In Gly-PBS, both MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>) and MPW1(D1<sub>Cy3</sub>) show similar fluorescence intensity from  
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 3 Cy5, with MPW1( $M_{Cy3}$ ) showing lower Cy5 fluorescence intensity. The MPW1 fluorescence  
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 5 spectra are decomposed into linear combinations of component spectra (Figure S6) while  
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 7 accounting for direct excitation of the downstream dyes. The  $E_{ee,sens}$  values (Table 3) for MPW1s  
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 9 were then determined using Equation 2. To calculate the theoretical  $E_{ee,dyn}$  for the MPW1s, we  
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 11 used  $R = 36 \text{ \AA}$  (10 bp separation at  $3.6 \text{ \AA/bp}$ )<sup>55</sup> in Equation 7 to estimate the distance between the  
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 13 Cy3 donors and the Cy5 acceptor, and  $R = 40 \text{ \AA}$  to estimate the distance between the A488 donor  
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 15 and the Cy3 monomer and dimer acceptors, where the extra 4  $\text{\AA}$  is used to account for the flexible  
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 17 linker of the A488 donor. The  $R_0$  values in Table 2 were used in Equation 7.  
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**Table 3.** Experimental and theoretical end-to-end energy transfer quantum efficiencies from fluorescence measurements at room temperature.

Structure/Solvent	Experimental		Theoretical	
	$E_{ee,sens}^*$	$E_{ee,DL}^{**}$	$E_{ee,dyn}^{***}$	$E_{ee,stat}$
MPW1( $M_{Cy3}$ ) PBS	$0.52 \pm 0.11$	0.68	0.90	0.62
MPW1( $M_{Cy3}$ ) Gly-PBS	$0.57 \pm 0.18$	0.66	0.93	0.66
MPW1( $D0_{Cy3}$ ) PBS	$0.36 \pm 0.08$	0.45	0.90	0.65
MPW1( $D0_{Cy3}$ ) Gly-PBS	$0.56 \pm 0.24$	0.65	0.96	0.72
MPW1( $D1_{Cy3}$ ) PBS	$0.53 \pm 0.12$	0.75	0.93	0.69
MPW1( $D1_{Cy3}$ ) Gly-PBS	$0.56 \pm 0.22$	0.74	0.95	0.71
MPW2( $D0_{Cy5}$ ) PBS	$0.10 \pm 0.04$	-	0.69	0.42
MPW2( $D0_{Cy5}$ ) Gly-PBS	$0.57 \pm 0.16$	-	0.69	-

56 \* Uncertainty is determined from the standard deviation of three measurements.  
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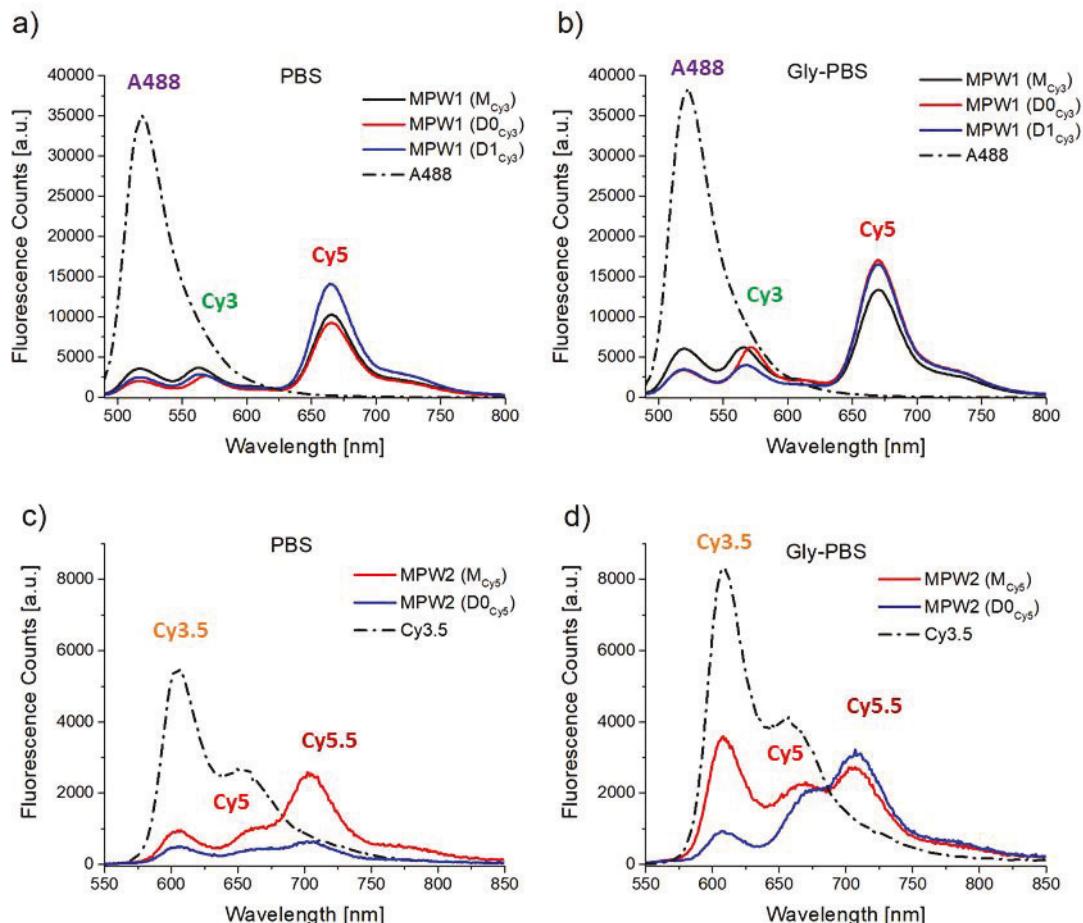
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3    \*\*  $E_{ee,DL}$  is determined from a single measurement. An uncertainty of  $\pm 5\%$  is assumed.

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5    \*\*\* The average value of  $R_0$  from Table 2 is used to compute the value of  $E_{ee,dyn}$ .

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7    "dyn" means dynamic averaging limit; "stat" means static isotropic limit.

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9    Blank entries mean the quantity was not measured/calculated.

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11    Equation 9 is used to calculate  $E_{ee,stat}$ .



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42    **Figure 3. Steady state fluorescence spectra for MPWs in PBS and Gly-PBS at room temperature.**

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44    Panels a) and b) show fluorescence spectra of MPW1( $M_{Cy3}$ ) (black curve), MPW1( $D0_{Cy3}$ ) (red  
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46 curve), and MPW1( $D1_{Cy3}$ ) (blue curve). The dotted black line is the fluorescence spectrum from  
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48 the A488 donor-only control structure,  $C_{A488}$ . The excitation wavelength for MPW1s is 466 nm.  
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52 Panels c) and d) show fluorescence spectra of MPW2( $M_{Cy5}$ ) (black curve) and MPW2( $D0_{Cy5}$ ) (red  
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54 curve). The dotted black curve is the fluorescence spectrum from the Cy3.5 donor-only control  
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3 structure,  $C_{Cy3.5}$ . The excitation wavelength for MPW2s is 515 nm. Approximate fluorescence  
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5 maxima for each dye is indicated.  
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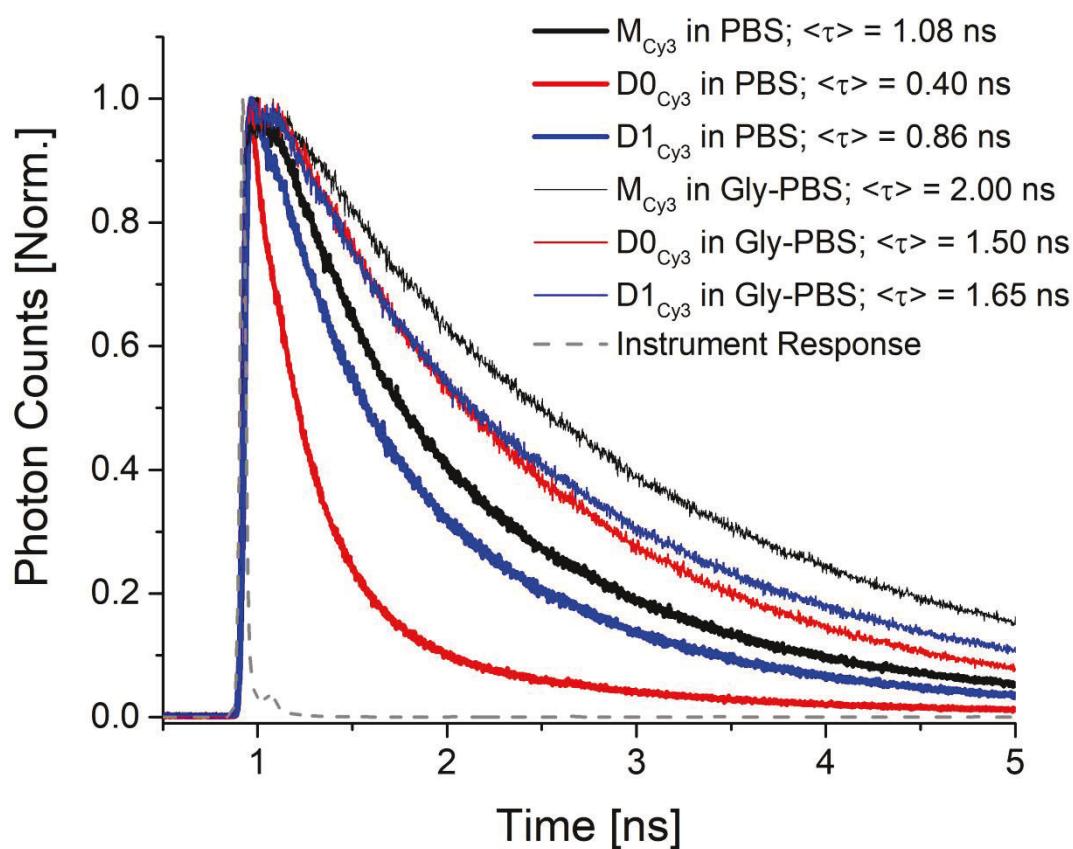
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10 In PBS,  $E_{ee,sens}$  for MPW1( $D0_{Cy3}$ ) is  $0.36 \pm 0.08$  and substantially lower than for both  
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12 MPW1( $M_{Cy3}$ ) ( $0.52 \pm 0.11$ ), and MPW1( $D1_{Cy3}$ ) ( $0.53 \pm 0.12$ ). In Gly-PBS,  $E_{ee,sens}$  for  
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14 MPW1( $D0_{Cy3}$ ) increases by 55% to  $0.56 \pm 0.24$ , reaching the same efficiency as MPW1( $M_{Cy3}$ ) and  
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16 MPW1( $D1_{Cy3}$ ). This result is counter to expectations; theoretical predictions based on  $R_0$  values  
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18 (Table 2) would predict that the  $D0_{Cy3}$  and  $D1_{Cy3}$  relays should be at least as efficient, if not more  
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20 efficient, than the  $M_{Cy3}$  relay. Two hypotheses can be drawn from this initial data set. The first is  
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22 that the non-radiative decay pathways created by the Cy3 dimerization have a larger impact on the  
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24 EQE than the increase in transition dipole, leading to a net decrease. This hypothesis is supported  
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26 by the substantial increase in EQE when in Gly-PBS. We note that the increase in EQE is  
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28 accompanied by a four-fold increase in the fluorescence QY of  $D0_{Cy3}$  in Gly-PBS (Table 1), and  
29  
30 an associated increase in  $R_0$  (Table 2).  
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35 To gain additional insight, we performed fluorescence lifetime measurements of the Cy3  
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37 relays in PBS and Gly-PBS (Figure 4). The average lifetime ( $\langle\tau\rangle$ ) of each curve was determined  
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39 from multi-exponential fits (Table S3). For each relay, the average fluorescence lifetime increased  
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41 in Gly-PBS, with  $D0_{Cy3}$  showing the largest increase consisting of a factor of 2.5. In the SI (Section  
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43 6), we calculate the non-radiative rate constants ( $k_{nr}$ ) for Cy3 and  $D0_{Cy3}$  relays in PBS and Gly-  
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3 PBS (**Table S4**) using  $\langle \tau \rangle$  and the fluorescence QYs in **Table 1**. In PBS,  $k_{nr}$  for D0<sub>Cy3</sub> ( $2.1 \times 10^9$   
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$s^{-1}$ ) is  $\sim 3.2 \times$  larger than  $k_{nr}$  for Cy3 ( $0.67 \times 10^9 s^{-1}$ ). This result is consistent with the lower

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4 EQE for MPW(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>) in PBS. In Gly-PBS,  $k_{nr}$  for D0<sub>Cy3</sub> ( $0.21 \times 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) is highly suppressed  
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6 compared to PBS and is only slightly larger than  $k_{nr}$  for Cy3 ( $0.18 \times 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). This is consistent  
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8 with the similar EQEs for MPW1(Cy3) and MPW(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>) in Gly-PBS. Increased fluorescence  
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10 lifetimes of Cy3 monomers in viscous environments has been attributed to suppression of  
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47 photoisomerization.<sup>32, 36</sup> While the exact mechanism for the increased fluorescence lifetime of  
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49 D0<sub>Cy3</sub> in Gly-PBS is not yet established, we can conclude that the increase in the EQE of  
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52 MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>) is due to suppression of non-radiative relaxation in D0<sub>Cy3</sub>.  
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3 **Figure 4. Fluorescence decay curves measured by TCSPC at room temperature for DNA duplexes**  
4 containing Cy3 monomers or dimers. Fluorescence decay curves measured by TCSPC at room  
5 temperature for DNA duplexes containing Cy3 monomers or dimers. The thick solid curves are  
6 fluorescence decays measured in PBS and the thin solid curves are fluorescence decays measured  
7 in Gly-PBS. The gray dashed line is the instrument response. The average fluorescence lifetime,  
8  $\langle\tau\rangle$ , for each construct is shown in the legend.  
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20 Using the fluorescence lifetimes in **Table S3** and **Equation 8**, we estimate the FRET rate  
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22 constants ( $k_{FRET}$ ) for the  $D0_{Cy3} \rightarrow Cy5$  and  $Cy3 \rightarrow Cy5$  steps. The calculation produces smaller  
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24  $k_{FRET}$  for  $D0_{Cy3} \rightarrow Cy5$  ( $k_{FRET} = 2.31 \times 10^9 s^{-1}$  in PBS;  $k_{FRET} = 2.25 \times 10^9 s^{-1}$  in Gly-PBS)  
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26 than for  $Cy3 \rightarrow Cy5$  ( $k_{FRET} = 2.85 \times 10^9 s^{-1}$  in PBS;  $k_{FRET} = 2.40 \times 10^9 s^{-1}$  in Gly-PBS). This  
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28 result is consistent with the lower energy transfer efficiency through the  $D0_{Cy3}$  relay relative to the  
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30  $Cy3$  monomer relay.  
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41 Theoretical considerations based on  $R_0$  values (**Table 3**) predict that the  $D0_{Cy3}$  and  $D1_{Cy3}$   
42 relays should be at least as efficient, if not more efficient, than the  $M_{Cy3}$  relay, while experimentally  
43 we find that  $D0_{Cy3}$  is less efficient and see no difference for  $D1_{Cy3}$  (based on  $E_{ee,sens}$ ), even in Gly-  
44 PBS where we showed that non-radiative relaxation in the Cy3 dimer is suppressed. We therefore  
45 suggest a second hypothesis to more completely explain the lower than expected EQE of MPW1s,  
46 particularly MPW1( $D0_{Cy3}$ ), which is that the dimers are not properly represented by the dynamic  
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3 averaging where  $\kappa^2$  is be approximated by 2/3. As is discussed later in the manuscript, we believe  
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5 that dimers result in lower  $\kappa^2$  values that limit the EQE.  
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9 To test the second hypothesis, we evaluated the EQEs for MPW1s based on donor  
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11 fluorescence quenching (**Equations 3 and 4**) using values of  $E_{ee,DL}$  shown in **Table S5**. The trend  
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13 in  $E_{ee,DL}$  over the MPW1s shows qualitative agreement with  $E_{ee,sens}$ , though  $E_{ee,DL}$  produced  
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15 between 15-35% higher efficiency (**Table 3**). We note that a similar discrepancy between the donor  
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17 loss and sensitized fluorescence methods in determining the EQE has been observed in other  
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19 works.<sup>44</sup> One observation from **Table 3** and **Table S5** is that the experimental EQE values for each  
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21 of the MPW1s are much lower than the theoretically predicted values in the dynamical averaging  
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23 limit ( $\kappa^2 = 2/3$ ). The large discrepancies between experimental and theoretical EQEs suggests that  
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25 the dynamical averaging limit is not appropriate to interpret the experimental measurements.  
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We next determined whether the experimental results could be interpreted by using a static  
isotropic distribution of dye orientations (see **Figure S9**).<sup>56,57</sup> In this limit, the dyes in the ensemble  
are considered to remain fixed during the FRET process and they can assume all possible dye  
orientations. The EQE is calculated by averaging **Equation 4** over an isotropic distribution of  
dipole orientation factors ( $\kappa^2$ ), which results in,

$$E_{ee,stat} = \langle E_{12} \rangle \times \langle E_{23} \rangle = \sum_i \bar{P}_i E_{12,i} \times \sum_j \bar{P}_j E_{12,j} . \quad \text{Eq. 9}$$

**Equation 9** ignores contributions of direct energy transfer from donor to acceptor that do not involve the relay dyes. For example, the control structure C<sub>A488-Cy5</sub>, lacking the intermediary Cy3 dye, has  $E_{ee,sens}$  values of  $0.068 \pm 0.025$  and  $0.080 \pm 0.024$  in PBS and Gly-PBS, respectively, which are small compared to the values of the fully labeled MPW1s. Further, it has also been previously demonstrated that in linear arrays the direct transfer is further minimized in the presence of relay dyes.<sup>45</sup> **Equation 9** also ignores the possible dependences of the A488-D0<sub>Cy3</sub> spectral overlap and fluorescence QY of D0<sub>Cy3</sub> on the relative orientation of the Cy3 dyes. In principle, both of these factors can affect the EQE. Accounting for these effects requires a much more sophisticated theory than used here. In **Equation 9**,  $\bar{P}_i$  represents the normalized isotropic distribution of dipole orientation factors,  $E_{12}$  represents the A488  $\rightarrow$  D0<sub>Cy3</sub> (Cy3) FRET step, and  $E_{23}$  represents the D0<sub>Cy3</sub> (Cy3)  $\rightarrow$  Cy5 FRET step. The average was performed using Monte Carlo sampling of  $\bar{P}_i$  (**Figure S9**).<sup>56,57</sup> The results shown in **Table 3** generally show improved agreement with experimental EQE measurements. An outlier is MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>) in PBS where the discrepancy between the experimental and theoretical  $E_{ee,stat}$  is 45%. The source of the relatively low experimental end-to-end EQE is from the relatively low FRET efficiency of the D0<sub>Cy3</sub>  $\rightarrow$  Cy5 step

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3 in PBS (**Table S5**). This observation suggests that, while the dyes might be static on the FRET  
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5 timescale, the distribution of orientations may not be isotropic. We note evidence from  
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7 experimental measurements<sup>58-60</sup> and molecular dynamics (MD)<sup>58, 59</sup> simulation that suggest that  
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10 Cy3 and Cy5 dyes have constrained orientations when they are doubly attached to DNA origami  
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12 scaffolds. For 0 bp Cy3 and Cy5 dimers on DNA duplexes, theoretical modeling of experimental  
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14 optical spectra<sup>34</sup> and MD simulation<sup>32, 61</sup> suggest that the dyes assume a preferred distribution of  
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16 orientations. In the context of this evidence, a plausible explanation for the relatively low energy  
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18 transfer efficiency of MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>) is that the 0bp Cy3 dimer, and to a lesser extent the 1bp dimer,  
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20 have unfavorable orientations with the Cy5 acceptor for high efficiency FRET.  
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35 **Tables 3 and S5** suggest that the D0<sub>Cy3</sub> → Cy5 FRET step is mainly responsible for the  
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37 lower than anticipated EQE of MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>). To help understand whether unfavorable dye  
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39 orientation is the reason for the low EQE of the D0<sub>Cy3</sub> → Cy5 FRET step, we performed MD  
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41 simulations of MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>) and MPW1(M<sub>Cy3</sub>) and focused on characterizing the fluctuations in  
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43  
44  $\kappa^2$  for the Cy3 monomers in D0<sub>Cy3</sub>, and in  $\kappa^2$  for the D0<sub>Cy3</sub> – Cy5 pair. The results over one  
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46 microsecond of MD simulation time are summarized in **Figure 5** and **Figures S10-S13**. The  
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48 procedure for calculating the dipole orientation factors, inter-dye separations, and EQE from the  
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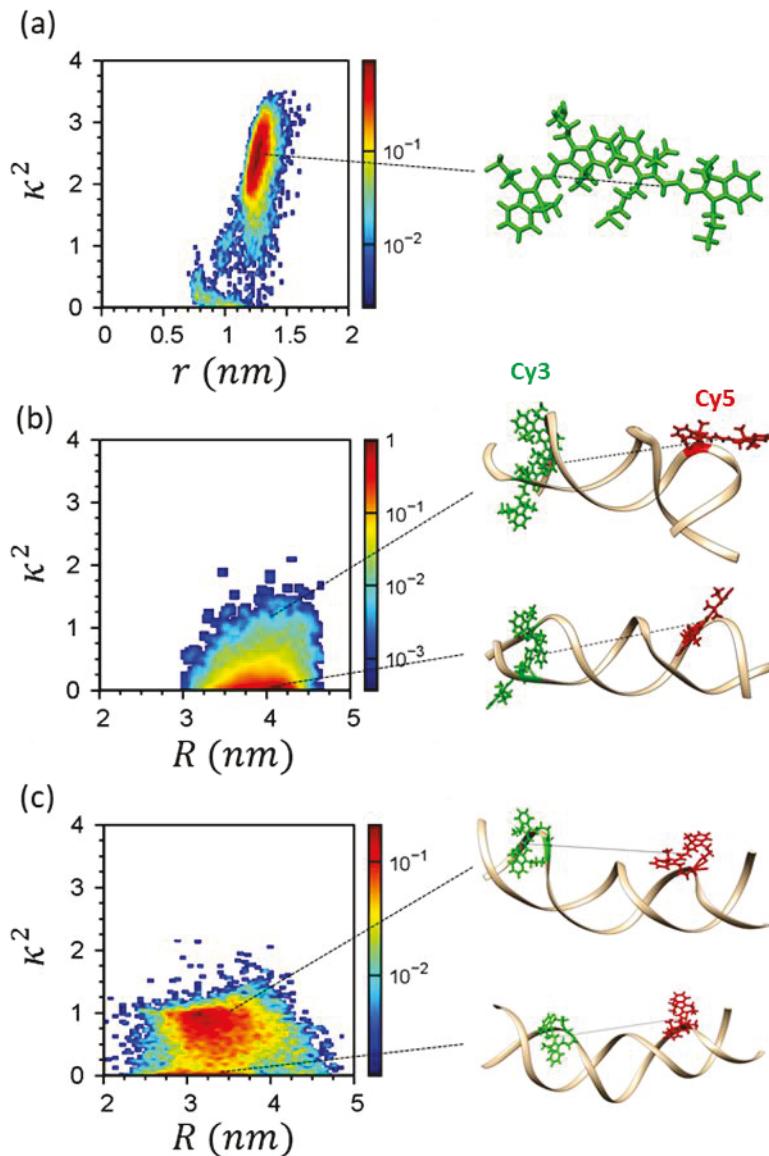
MD data is given in the **SI (Section 8)**. **Figure 5a** shows a heat map of the intra-Cy3  $\kappa^2$  for the Cy3 dimer vs the center-to-center separation ( $r$ ) between the Cy3 dyes. The heat map indicates that approximately 90% of the occurrences have a  $\kappa^2$  value between 2 and 3 and with  $r$  between 11.5 and 14 Å. These are the most probable dimer configurations and they are best described as oblique dimers that are intercalated into the DNA base stack (e.g., **Figure S10a**). Within these configurations, the larger values of  $\kappa^2$  correspond to larger oblique angles and Cy3 dimers that are closer to the ideal J-dimer. The heat map also shows minor occurrences near  $\kappa^2 = 1$ , which correspond to an H-like Cy3 dimer configuration. Finally, the heat map also shows minor occurrences near  $\kappa^2 \sim 0$ . It's not clear whether these configurations are monomer-like or strongly coupled because the dye separations are less than about 1 nm, which are smaller than the length of the Cy3 dye (~ 1.4 nm). Understanding this situation likely requires a numerical calculation using a vibronic exciton model.<sup>29, 62, 63</sup> A representative Cy3 dimer structure with an oblique angle of 115° and  $r = 12.5$  Å is shown to the right of **Figure 5a**. **Figure 5b** shows a heat map of the dipole orientation factor between the Cy3 dimer and the Cy5 acceptor vs the center-to-center distance,  $R$ . Here,  $\kappa^2$  is strongly biased to low values ( $\kappa^2 < 0.5$ ), and  $R$  is centered near 40 Å. While the Cy3 dimer remains largely intercalated, we note that Cy5 assumes partially intercalated orientations

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that result in values of  $\kappa^2$  near zero, and non-intercalated orientations that result in larger values of  $\kappa^2$ . Representative configurations of D0<sub>Cy3</sub> and Cy5 on the DNA duplex are shown in **Figures 5b** and **S10b**. Fluctuations of the  $\kappa^2$ ,  $R$ , and EQE are shown in **Figure S12**, from which the following ensemble averaged values of FRET quantities for the D0<sub>Cy3</sub>  $\rightarrow$  Cy5 step are calculated:  $\langle \kappa^2 \rangle = 0.18$ ,  $\langle R \rangle = 39 \text{ \AA}$ , and  $\langle \text{EQE} \rangle = 0.45$  (SI; Section 8), which is in good agreement with the experimental value from donor fluorescence quenching:  $E_{DL} = 0.48$ .

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The results of the MD simulation for MPW1(M<sub>Cy3</sub>) are shown in **Figure 5c**. The heat map shows that  $\kappa^2$  varies between values near 0 and 1.1 and  $R$  varies between 30 – 40  $\text{\AA}$ . As above, from the fluctuations of the  $\kappa^2$ ,  $R$ , and EQE (**Figure S13**), we calculate the ensemble averaged values of FRET quantities for the Cy3 – Cy5 step:  $\langle \kappa^2 \rangle = 0.63$ ,  $\langle R \rangle = 35 \text{ \AA}$ , and  $\langle \text{EQE} \rangle = 0.89$ , which is somewhat higher than the experimental  $E_{DL} = 0.76$  (**Table S5**). The  $\sim 2 \times$  higher EQE for the Cy3  $\rightarrow$  Cy5 step is mainly due to the  $\sim 3.5$  larger value of  $\langle \kappa^2 \rangle$ . Both the Cy3 and Cy5 dyes in MPW1(M<sub>Cy3</sub>) fluctuate between partly intercalated and non-intercalated configurations on DNA, which is responsible for the larger value of  $\langle \kappa^2 \rangle$ . Overall, the reasonable agreements in EQE between experimental measurements and MD simulations support the hypothesis that unfavorable

relative orientations between D0Cy3 and Cy5 are responsible for the relatively low EQE of MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>).

Figure 5. Heat maps of the dipole orientation factor ( $\kappa^2$ ) vs inter-dye center-to-center distances for



MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>) and MPW1(M<sub>Cy3</sub>). (a): Heat map for the Cy3 dimer (D0<sub>Cy3</sub>). (b): Heat map for the D0<sub>Cy3</sub>-Cy5 pair. (c): Heat map for the Cy3 - Cy5 pair. Representative MD snapshots for D0<sub>Cy3</sub>

(DNA not shown), D0<sub>Cy3</sub> – Cy5, and Cy3 – Cy5 are shown to the right of each heat map. In (b), the structure on the top corresponds to  $\kappa^2$  near 1 and is distinguished by a non-intercalated Cy5. The structure on the bottom corresponds to  $\kappa^2$  near 0 and is distinguished by a partly intercalated Cy5. In (c), the structure on the top has both dyes in a near co-planar orientation. The structure on the bottom has the Cy3 partially intercalated and is nearly orthogonal to the non-intercalated Cy5. The color bars on the right indicate the normalized frequency of occurrence.

Even though we did not observe higher energy transfer efficiency through the Cy3 dimer relay compared to the Cy3 monomer relay, it is still useful to estimate the extent to which the Cy3 dyes in D0<sub>Cy3</sub> act as a collective unit. The size of exciton delocalization ( $N_{coh}$ ) in the Cy3 dimer can be estimated from<sup>64</sup>

$$N_{coh} = \frac{QY_{dimer} \tau_{monomer}}{QY_{monomer} \tau_{dimer}} \quad \text{Eq. 10}$$

where the QYs and fluorescence lifetimes of Cy3 and D0<sub>Cy3</sub> are used in **Equation 10**. Using values in **Table 1** and **Table S3**,  $N_{coh} = 1.50 \pm 0.2$  for D0<sub>Cy3</sub> in PBS and  $N_{coh} = 1.42 \pm 0.2$  for D0<sub>Cy3</sub> in Gly-PBS. A fully delocalized exciton in a dimer would achieve  $N_{coh} = 2$ ,<sup>62</sup> thus we conclude that collective effects make a moderate contribution to the D0<sub>Cy3</sub> → Cy5 FRET rate.

#### MPWs with Cy5 relays

We used Cy5 as the relay dye in a similar MPW system in order to test our initial conclusions and investigate energy transfer through a dimer relay with stronger excitonic coupling.

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3 Cy5 has a larger transition dipole moment (~ 16 D)<sup>61</sup> and molar absorptivity (~ 250,000 M<sup>-1</sup>cm<sup>-1</sup>),<sup>43</sup> which makes it an excellent choice for creating strongly coupled dimers on DNA scaffolds.  
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7 **Figures 2c and 2d** show absorption spectra of MPW2s with M<sub>Cy5</sub> and D0<sub>Cy5</sub> relays in PBS and Gly-  
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9 PBS. In PBS, MPW2(M<sub>Cy5</sub>) shows absorption peaks due to the Cy3.5 donor, the Cy5 monomer  
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11 relay, and the terminal Cy5.5 acceptor near 590 nm, 630 nm, and 690 nm, respectively. In contrast,  
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13 MPW2(D0<sub>Cy5</sub>) shows a relatively intense red-shifted peak near 667 nm indicative of strong J-like  
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15 excitonic coupling, and a shoulder on the red edge of the absorption spectrum due to the peak of  
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17 the Cy5.5 absorption spectrum. The absorption band shapes for C<sub>Cy5</sub> and D0<sub>Cy5</sub> are shown in **Figure**  
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19 **S4**. In PBS, with respect to C<sub>Cy5</sub>, the low energy absorption of D0<sub>Cy5</sub> shows a clear Davydov  
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21 splitting into two bands with a separation of approximately 33 nm, or about 780 cm<sup>-1</sup>. In contrast,  
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23 in Gly-PBS, the absorption band in the Cy5 region appears as a broadened peak (**Figure 2d**).  
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25 Interestingly, the absorption spectrum of D0<sub>Cy5</sub> in Gly-PBS (without the donor and acceptor dyes),  
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27 shows characteristic Davydov splitting (**Figure S4d**). These results suggest that in Gly-PBS, the  
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29 presence of Cy3.5 and/or Cy5.5 destabilizes the modular DNA duplex, likely due to dye  
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31 intercalations, producing a distribution of Cy5 dimer configurations. This appears true, even  
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3 though the melting temperature of the strand should be near 35 °C in our buffer conditions taking  
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6 into account base stacking.<sup>65</sup>  
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11 CD spectra available in **Figure S5** provide additional insight into the stability of the  
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13 modular DNA duplex. In PBS, the fully labeled MPW2(D0<sub>Cy5</sub>) and the control structures D0<sub>Cy5</sub>  
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15 and C<sub>D0Cy5-Cy5.5</sub> produce essentially the same CD spectra. In contrast, for MPW2(D0<sub>Cy5</sub>) in the Gly-  
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17 PBS environment, the ~ 2 × weaker CD signal suggests that approximately half of the ensemble  
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19 contains Cy5 dimers that have relaxed into monomer-like configurations with relatively larger  
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21 separation between Cy5 dyes compared to D0<sub>Cy5</sub>.  
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32 **Figures 3c and 3d** show steady-state fluorescence spectra for MPW2(M<sub>Cy5</sub>),  
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34 MPW2(D0<sub>Cy5</sub>), and the donor only control C<sub>Cy3.5</sub> in PBS and Gly-PBS when preferentially exciting  
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36 Cy3.5 at 515 nm, and **Figure S7** shows the fluorescence spectra of the other control structures. In  
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38 PBS, both MPW2s show strong quenching of Cy3.5 fluorescence. Stronger quenching of Cy3.5  
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40 fluorescence occurs in MPW2(D0<sub>Cy5</sub>), which is consistent with the presence of a second Cy5 dye  
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42 increasing the density of final states of the acceptor. The most striking observation is the relatively  
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44 low fluorescence intensity from the terminal Cy5.5 dye in MPW2(D0<sub>Cy5</sub>), which is 4-5 times  
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3 weaker than the Cy5.5 fluorescence from MPW2( $M_{Cy5}$ ). From **Equation 2**,  $E_{ee,sens}$  is  $0.53 \pm 0.11$   
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5 for MPW2( $M_{Cy5}$ ), but only  $0.10 \pm 0.04$  for MPW2( $D0_{Cy5}$ ) (**Table 3**). Considering the strong  
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7 quenching of Cy3.5 fluorescence, the relatively low  $E_{ee,sens}$  for MPW2( $D0_{Cy5}$ ) is likely due to a  
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9 low EQE for the  $D0_{Cy5} \rightarrow Cy5.5$  step. In contrast, in Gly-PBS the fraction of the total fluorescence  
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11 that comes from the terminal Cy5.5 dye increases substantially for MPW2( $D0_{Cy5}$ ) and  $E_{ee,sens}$   
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13 increases to  $0.57 \pm 0.16$ . However, as described above, understanding the origin of the increased  
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15 efficiency is complicated because the Cy5 dimer relay consists of a mixture of monomer-like  
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17 species and coupled dimers. In the case of MPW2( $M_{Cy5}$ ) in PBS-Gly,  $E_{ee,sens}$  actually decreases to  
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20  $0.38 \pm 0.10$ . The decrease in efficiency appears to be due to inefficient energy transfer from the  
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22 Cy3.5 donor. This may be related to partial separation of the DNA strand containing Cy3.5 from  
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24 the template strand, or DNA ‘breathing’ around that dye.  
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To better understand the low value of  $E_{ee,sens}$  for MPW2( $D0_{Cy5}$ ) in PBS, we compare the experimental result to the theoretical predictions in the dynamic and static isotropic limits. The estimation of  $R_0$  is complicated by very weak fluorescence from the 0bp Cy5 dimer due to rapid picosecond timescale non-radiative relaxation at room temperature.<sup>66</sup> Thus, we refer to excited state lifetimes in the literature ( $\tau$ ) measured by ultrafast transient absorption measurements of

similar 0 bp Cy5 dimers ( $\tau_{D0_{Cy5}} = 11$  ps)<sup>66</sup> and Cy5 monomers ( $\tau_{Cy5} = 1500$  ps)<sup>66</sup> on DNA duplexes, from which we infer the fluorescence QY to be approximately 0.01. Using this value for the fluorescence QY in **Equation 7** results in  $R_0 \sim 4.1$  nm for D0<sub>Cy5</sub> – Cy5.5. For MPW2(D0<sub>Cy5</sub>), the theoretical estimates for end-to-end EQE are 0.69 in the dynamic averaging limit, and 0.42 in the static isotropic limit (**Table 3**). Both of these theoretical estimates are much larger than the experimental  $E_{ee,sens} = 0.10 \pm 0.04$ . As with the case of MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>), a plausible explanation is that the dye orientations are static on the timescale of FRET, but are constrained in net orientations with low values of  $\kappa^2$ . The combination of rapid non-radiative relaxation and unfavorable dye orientation can account for the overall low EQE through the 0 bp Cy5 relay.

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3 Instead of analyzing the individual energy transfer steps, as done for the MPW1s, we  
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5 investigated whether we could increase EQE by suppressing rapid non-radiative excited state  
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7 relaxation at lower temperatures. We measured temperature-dependent fluorescence emission  
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9 spectra of MPW2(D0<sub>Cy5</sub>) and the controls C<sub>Cy3.5</sub>, C<sub>Cy5.5</sub> and C<sub>Cy5-Cy5.5</sub> in Gly-PBS because the  
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11 samples retain high optical quality until about 170 K, below which a solid glass forms producing  
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13 increased light scattering. **Figures 6a and 6b** show temperature-dependent fluorescence emission  
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15 spectra and fluorescence excitation spectra for MPW2(D0<sub>Cy5</sub>). As the temperature is lowered the  
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17 fluorescence emission bands narrow and the relative fluorescence intensity from Cy5.5 increases  
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19 with respect to the residual fluorescence from Cy3.5 and D0<sub>Cy5</sub>. Interestingly, just below room  
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21 temperature at 270 K the fluorescence spectrum undergoes an abrupt transition. The D0<sub>Cy5</sub>  
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23 fluorescence band (near 665 nm) red shifts and weakens in intensity with respect to the Cy5.5  
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25 fluorescence band (near 695 nm). A residual fluorescence band from Cy3.5 is observed near 600  
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27 nm. The fluorescence excitation spectrum (**Figure 6b**) also shows an abrupt transition at 270 K.  
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30 The relatively broad band in the Cy5 region at 297 K has red shifted and evolved into two bands  
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32 (near 635 nm and 667 nm) indicative of Davydov splitting. The Cy5.5 band is present in the  
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34 excitation spectrum as a shoulder near 695 nm. These observations indicate that relatively  
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moderate cooling stabilizes the modular DNA duplex, and, as a consequence, favors formation of

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3       the strongly coupled 0 bp Cy5 dimer relay. Further cooling to 170 K results in a relatively large  
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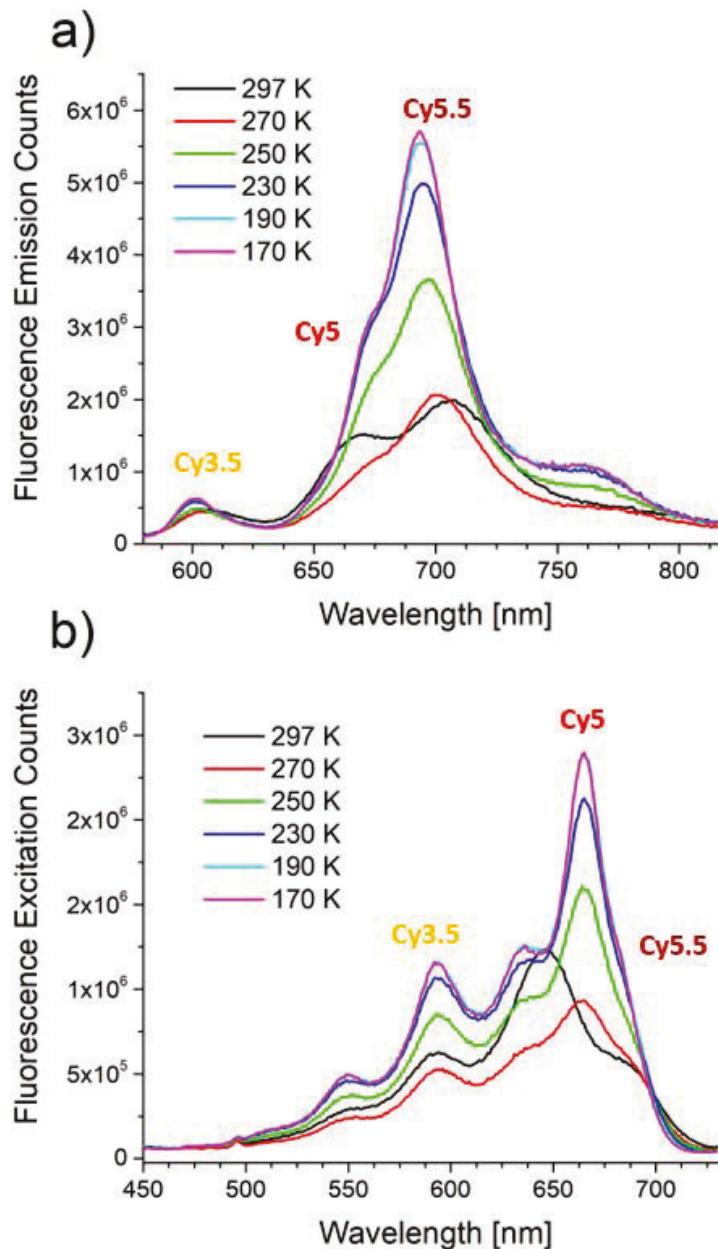
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3 increase in terminal fluorescence from Cy5.5 and increased resolution of the two lowest excitonic  
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transitions of D0<sub>Cy5</sub> in the excitation spectrum. The gradual changes in the spectroscopic features

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3 in the fluorescence emission and excitation spectra – gradual narrowing of the bands, gradual blue  
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shift the emission peaks, and gradual resolution of the Cy5 dimer Davydov splitting (**Figure 6B**) –

are consistent with the DNA duplex remaining stable as the temperature is lowered from 270 K to



170 K. At 170 K, the two lowest excitonic transitions of D0<sub>Cy5</sub> in the fluorescence excitation

51 spectrum can be resolved at 666 nm and 634 nm, indicating a Davydov splitting of about 760 cm<sup>-1</sup>

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3 **Figure 6. Temperature-dependent fluorescence spectra.** a) Temperature-dependent fluorescence  
4 emission spectra of MPW2(D0<sub>Cy5</sub>) in Gly-PBS from 515 nm excitation. Approximate emission  
5 maxima for each dye indicated. b) Temperature-dependent fluorescence excitation spectra of  
6 MPW2(D0<sub>Cy5</sub>) in Gly-PBS for detection at 750 nm. Approximate excitation maxima for each dye  
7 is indicated.  
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17  $E_{ee,sens}$  at 170 K was estimated by extracting the Cy5.5 fluorescence band from the  
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19 MPW2(D0<sub>Cy5</sub>) fluorescence emission spectrum using C<sub>Cy3.5</sub> and C<sub>Cy5</sub> fluorescence emission  
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21 spectra measured at 170 K, accounting for direct excitation, and estimating the fluorescence  
22  
23 quantum yields of C<sub>Cy3.5</sub> and C<sub>Cy5.5</sub> at 170 K (Figures S14 a-d). Using this procedure, we estimate  
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25  $E_{ee,sens}$  at 170 K to be  $0.75 \pm 0.10$ . This represents approximately a 7-fold increase in EQE  
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27 compared to  $E_{ee,sens}$  at room temperature in PBS. The large increase is consistent with suppressed  
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29 non-radiative relaxation in 0 bp cyanine dimers at low temperature.<sup>34, 67-69</sup> The experimental value  
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31 may be compared to the theoretical prediction of 92% for end-to-end EQE for each transfer step  
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33 occurring in the limit of static isotropic dyes. As in the case of MPW1(D0<sub>Cy3</sub>), a plausible  
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35 explanation for the discrepancy between experimental and theoretical EQEs is related to  
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37 constrained transition dipoles in unfavorable relative orientations for FRET.  
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3 As a final comment, we note that the predicted benefit of J-dimer donor compared to a  
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5 monomer donor is rather modest for a single FRET step. However, in the **SI (Section 10)**, we show  
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7 theoretically that a substantial benefit can be obtained from arrays of J-dimer relays over arrays  
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9 monomer relays in MPWs where energy transfer occurs by multi-step homoFRET.<sup>70, 71</sup> For  
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11 example, for an array consisting of six relay units (**Figure S15**), the energy transfer from an array  
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13 of ideal Cy3 J-dimers can be as much as a factor of 2 higher than from a corresponding array of  
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15 ideal Cy3 monomers (**SI, Section 10**). This theoretical result underlies the potential benefit of using  
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17 an extended J-dimer relay for efficient long-range FRET.  
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## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we experimentally characterized the energy transfer properties of DNA-templated MPWs that use J-like Cy3 and Cy5 dimers as relay units between a dye monomer donor and a dye monomer acceptor. We also performed MD simulations to provide insight into how dye orientation affected the EQE. While we did not observe that the dimer relays produce greater EQEs than cyanine monomer relays, we were still able to draw useful conclusions from the study. One conclusion is that while strong excitonic coupling in J-like Cy3 and Cy5 dimers leads to strong excited state quenching of the dimer, the quenching could be mitigated by using a viscous solvent

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3 or by moderate sample cooling. These approaches led to substantial increases in the EQE in both  
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5 MPWs and especially so for the more strongly coupled Cy5 dimer, which exhibited a ~7-fold  
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7 increase in EQE when measured at 170 K. Furthermore, because the excited state quenching  
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9 correlates with cyanine dye flexibility about the methine bridge, one could attempt to add rigidity  
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11 to the nano-environment through DNA crowding. For example, DNA origami structures and DNA  
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13 crystal scaffolds have been shown to constrain the rotational flexibility of Cy3,<sup>58, 72</sup> which is  
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15 supported by increases in the Cy3 excited state lifetime and fluorescence anisotropy time. We  
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17 speculate that the increased rigidity of DNA origami and DNA crystal scaffolds would  
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19 substantially increase the excited state lifetimes of strongly coupled Cy3 and Cy5 dimers at room  
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21 temperature. Recently, the Mathur and Veneziano labs demonstrated the use of asymmetric  
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23 polymerase chain reaction to obtain precisely modified DNA origami template sequences at high  
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25 yield.<sup>73</sup> This is a key factor, as only modifying DNA origami staple strands limits the capability to  
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27 create closely spaced dye dimers. In addition to providing extra rigidity, DNA origami also  
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29 provides a high density of dye attachment sites in two- and three dimensions and therefore offers  
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31 high flexibility to design dye aggregates for efficient energy transfer.<sup>58</sup>

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A second conclusion is that there is room to improve energy transfer through the J-like dimer by optimizing dye orientation for larger FRET rates. Because the Cy3 dimer is oblique, the oscillator strength is distributed between the J-like and H-like states. Realizing a dimer configuration that is closer to an ideal J-dimer would increase the collective emission dipole, which in turn would enhance the FRET rate to the acceptor dye. Even more important is the necessity to achieve a more favorable relative orientation between the dimer relay emission dipole and the terminal acceptor. These results emphasize the need to attain better control of dye orientation on DNA scaffolds, which is a challenging problem for the field of DNA nanotechnology. Current approaches include tuning the chemical structure of the dye molecule in order to control intermolecular interactions between closely spaced dyes,<sup>74, 75</sup> and tuning dye-DNA interactions through altering the properties of the local DNA scaffold to control the orientation covalently attached dye molecules.<sup>28, 58-60, 76</sup> We anticipate that these initial studies will inspire further efforts to improve the performance of DNA-templated dye aggregates for photonic applications.

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#### 14 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST** 15

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17 The Authors declare no conflict of interests.  
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## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

The Supporting Information file includes dye structures; schematics and sequences of MPWs; analytical characterization of MPWs and control structures and reproducibility of optical spectra; additional absorption, CD and fluorescence spectra of MPWs and control structures; fluorescence decay measurements and fits; energy transfer quantum yields from donor fluorescence loss measurements; additional results from MD simulations including representative MD snapshots dye-DNA structures; estimations of EQEs, and fluctuations in  $\kappa^2$  and  $R$ ; estimation of EQE from cryogenic fluorescence measurements; simulation of homoFRET via random walks on ideal MPWs.

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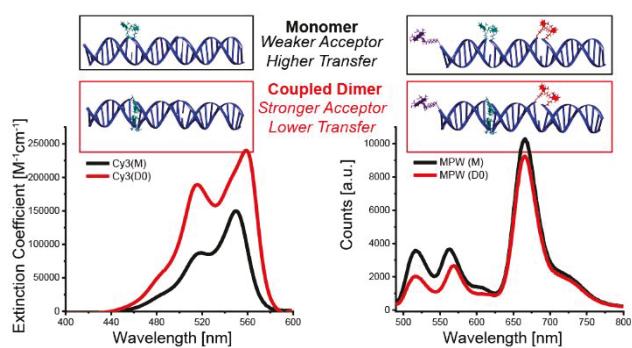
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## TOC GRAPHIC.



Schematic depicting end-to-end energy transfer in DNA templated molecular photonic wires

through either a monomer intermediate or an excitonic Cy3 dimer intermediate.