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Enhancement of target-DNA hybridization efficiency by pre-hybridization on sequence-orientated micro-arrayed probes

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Abstract

The enhancement of hybridization efficiency of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) targets using oligonucleotide pre-hybridization is studied on two sequence-inversed micro-arrayed probes. The sequences for pre-hybridizing both oligo and target DNA are designed to be fully complementary with their shared DNA probe in a coaxial stacking configuration; i.e. they hybridize immediately alongside each other along the continuous complement probe strand. The pre-hybridizing oligo and target DNA are differentiated by being labeled with two distinct fluorescent dyes, and the cooperative effect on hybridization efficiency is investigated through the comparison of the stacking and individual hybridization configurations based on the detection signals of the labeling dyes. The results show that the pre-hybridization of a DNA oligo enhances the subsequent hybridization efficiency of the target-DNA coupling onto the same probe. The efficiency is enhanced if the hybridization position occurs at a site close to the substrate surface.

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Keywords: Hybridization efficiency; DNA micro-array; Molecular steric hindrance; DNA biochips; Pre-hybridization; DNA sequence orientation; DNA probes

1. Introduction

With the benefits inherited from the manufacturing process of the semiconductor industry and the completion of human gene decoding project in the 1980s and 1990s, deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) biochip technology has progressed rapidly and has been widely applied in clinical diagnosis (Wang and Cheng, 2005), drug screening (Schaack et al., 2005), agriculture (Douglas and Ehlting, 2005), and many other fields. Further development of this technology is still being undertaken, particularly in the area of improving the hybridization efficiency of immobilized DNA probes with their sample targets. The current research efforts are rooted in the understanding that the hybridization efficiency directly indicates the success of the experimental design and further data interpretation.

The hybridization efficiency of DNA chips is critically affected by the nucleotide structure of the probe and target (Koehler and Peyret, 2005), addition of a stabilizer (Maruyama et al., 2001), probe immobilization (Zammatteo et al., 2000), and also hybridization conditions such as incubation temperature and salt concentration (Rule et al., 1997), electric field (Fixe et al., 2004), agitation or mixing (Deng et al., 2006; McQuain et al., 2004), and substrate surface conditions (Guo et al., 1994; Wu et al., 2006). In addition to these overall conditions, the molecular-level approach has also been reported to improve the hybridization efficiency of micro-arrayed DNA. This approach builds on the theory that the DNA coupling efficiency is affected by the spatial molecular interaction (Wu and Prausnitz, 2002), so that the introduction of a spacer element in a probe is able to enhance the proceeding hybridization efficiency.

The steric effect on DNA hybridization efficiency in fact gives a broader consideration beyond the inter-molecular repulsion. It covers the effects resulting from the space and location occupied by DNA or other small molecules, and many research efforts have been devoted to this topic. Luo *et al.* (2002) introduced a spacer element and a minor groove binder molecule in a probe to enhance array hybridization efficiency. Ezaki et al. (2003) used p53 protein to promote spatial hybrid formation and identify mismatches. Tao et al. (2003) reported a

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novel technique to block the non-target strand of the doublestranded DNA sample and improve the molecular interaction to gain the hybridization efficiency. Hong et al. (2005) recently presented a nano-size substrate surface to confine probes within a spatial region to control non-specific hybridization. All of these efforts have focused on using complicated molecule-level techniques to improve the hybridization efficiency. There is still a lack of direct evidence to reveal how the steric effect influences the hybridization efficiency of DNA micro-arrayed chips.

In this regard, this study reports an approach to directly uncover the hindrance effect on the hybridization efficiency of micro-arrayed DNA. We designed two probes with two reverse sequence blocks, so that two oligonucleotide targets hybridize onto their shared probes in a coaxial stacking configuration; i.e. two targets hybridize immediately next to each other along the continuous complement probe strand, as shown in Fig. 1. The steric effect is investigated through the comparison between the stacking and individual hybridization schemes based on the detection signals of the labeling dyes. Through this simple, yet unique experimental design, we demonstrate the cooperative molecular steric effect on the hybridization efficiency of singlestranded DNAs with their complementary immobilized probes on DNA chips.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials and methods

2.1.1. DNA probes and targets

The sequence of probe #1 is $5'$ -amine-C₆-(GTGATT-GGTCGCGGTGA)-(CGCAAGTTAGGTTTTGTCAAGAAA-GGGTGTAACGCAACTAAGTCATAGTCCGCCTAGAAG)-3'. The sequence of probe $#2$ is similar to that of probe $#1, 5'$ amine-C₆-(CGCAAGTTAGGTTTTGTCAAGAAAGGGTGT-AACGCAACTAAGTCATAGTCCGCCTAGAAG)-(GTGAT-TGGTCGCGGTGA)-3'. Note that these two sequences possess two identical but constituent blocks, RAFL09 (17 mers) and Bac-alP1 (60 mers), but the orders of the two blocks are reversed. RAFL09 is a fragment of an Arabidopsis thaliana

gene (Riken Database, accession number AY065271), and BacalP1 is a fragment of human beta actin gene (Riken Database, accession number AK223055). Three DNA oligos serve as the targets: (1) cBac-alP1-Cy5 (60 mer), a fully complementary sequence with Bac-alP1 and labeled with Cy5; (2) cRAFL09- Cy3 (17 mer), a fully complementary sequence with RAFL09 and labeled with Cy3; (3) T7-17-Cy3 (17 mer), serving as a negative target with sequence 5'-ATACGACTCACTATAGG-3'-Cy3, which is a complete sequence of plant expression vector pDuExB2 (pDuExD7; NCBI Database, accession number EF565885.1) labeled with Cy3 fluorescence. SP5- Cy5 (60 mer) serves as an immobilization control probe with sequence 5'-GCTGTAACTTATCACACCGTTTCTACAGGT-TAGCTAACGAGTGTGCGCAAGTATTAAGTG-amine-3'-C6-Cy5, which is a complete genome of SARS coronavirus strain CV7 (NCBI Database, accession number DQ898174.1) labeled with Cy5 fluorescence. Fig. 1 shows these hybridization configuration designs. All probes and targets were synthesized by ScinoPharm (Tainan, Taiwan) and concentrations were quantified by excluding modified and fluorescent molecules. The chemically coated DNA chips were provided by Phalanx Biotech (Hsinchu, Taiwan) with an amine-reactive surface property. The buffer for preparing probe micro-arrays is a mixture of $20 \times$ SSC (Amresco), glycerol (100%, ICN Biomedicals), and ddH2O (Milli-Q synthesis A10 system). The wash step used a series of concentrations of SSC and SDS buffers, all purchased from Amresco.

2.1.2. Instruments

Micro-arrays were printed with a Cartesian micro-arrayer (PixSys7500, Genomic Solutions, MI, USA). Before the hybridization step, targets were pre-heated to 95° C on a GeneAmp_PCR machine (9700, Applied Biosystems, CA, USA). Hybridization results were scanned on a GenePix Microarray scanner (4000B, Molecular Devices, CA, USA). The same provider also gave the software GenePix Pro 4.1 to analyze the scanning images. The hybridization was incubated in a Cocoon hybridization incubator (Bersing Bioscience Tech., Hsinchu, Taiwan) equipped with a plate shaking function. The DNA-chip washes were performed on a Firstek orbital shaker

Fig. 1. The experimental design of the DNA probes with their corresponding targets. (a) Two DNA oligos, cBac-alP1 (60 mer) and cRAFL09 (17 mer), labeled with two distinct fluorescent dyes, Cy3 and Cy5, serve as the targets with sequences fully complementary to their shared and immobilized DNA probes in a coaxial stacking configuration. (b) The individual-hybridized and stacking configurations. Note that only two of four individual-hybridized and one of two stacking configurations are shown. The probe molecules could probably also be multi-point attached to the surface due to physisorption or electrostatic interactions with the substrate.

(S101D, Firstek Scientific, Taipei, Taiwan). The TaKaRaTM spaced cover glass for hybridization was purchased from TaKaRa Biotechnology (Shiga, Japan). Wet chips were spun off to dry by a mini spinner (BTCPC100, Bersing Bioscience Tech., Hsinchu, Taiwan).

2.1.3. Probe micro-arraying and immobilization

The probes were spotted in micro-arrays with a concentration titration of 150 μ M, 100 μ M, 50 μ M, 10 μ M, and 5 μ M for the objective probes and $25 \mu M$ for the control probe. Ten chips were prepared with two duplicated 6×4 -array blocks on each chip. The micro-array layout is shown in Fig. 2. The probes were mixed with $20 \times$ SSC and 100% glycerol to the fixed final concentrations and loaded onto a 384-hole microtiter plate to perform the micro-arraying, followed by incubation in a humid box at 30 \degree C for 16–18 h to immobilize the probes on the glass substrates. The spot size was around $600 \mu m$ with a vertical spot-to-spot spacing of 1.5 mm and horizontal 1 mm. A wash step was then applied after the immobilization step to remove the free probes by 0.5% SDS for 10 min with shaking at 80 rpm. The slides were then rinsed with $ddH₂O$ and spun to dry.

2.1.4. DNA hybridization

In the pre-hybridization treatment, the chips were pre-heated to 50 \degree C and the 100%-fluorescently labeled target, cRAFL09-Cy3 or cBac-alP1-Cy5, (made by $10 \text{ nM+1} \times$ hybridization buffer) was prepared in 45 μ L. The target was then spread over the chip surface and covered with a TaKaRaTM spaced cover to form a flat reaction slit chamber. Care was taken to avoid creation of trapped air bubbles. The chip was then enclosed in a humid box and incubated at 50° C for 2 h. The melting temperatures of the target sequences, cRAFL09-Cy3 (17 mer) and cBac-alP1-Cy5 (60 mer), were about 49 \degree C and 72 \degree C, respectively. To ensure hybridization efficiency as well as sequence specificity, hybridization temperatures in this study were chosen as 20° C below melting temperatures of the targets, i.e. around 30 \degree C and 50 \degree C, respectively. However, technically, there was no way to hybridize the two targets at two

9mm 9mm 10_{mm} 000000 probe 1 dd wate 000000 Ŧ 000000 $Sp5-Cy5$ probe 2 000000 75_{mm} 150 100 50 10 5 µM probe concentration **LABEL** 25mm

Fig. 2. Layout of the micro-arrays of objective probes. The objective probes were spotted in concentrations of, from left to the right, $150 \mu M$, $100 \mu M$, 50 μ M, 10 μ M, and 5 μ M. The most right column is for the negative (dd water) and positive control (Sp5-Cy5). Two duplicated 6×4 -array blocks (in shadow) are micro-arrayed on the chip.

temperatures as they simultaneously existed on the same slide. Therefore, we understood that the hybridization of the 17 mer target at 50° C was unfavorable, and without the optimal hybridization temperature, Cy3-labeled target would not receive the maximal signal intensity. The fluorescent signals in this study were, however, mainly focused on their relative variation from case to case. Through comparison of various hybridization scenarios at a fixed temperature, it was found that lower intensity readings would not hinder the trend of relative signal variation.

In the post-hybridization treatment, the DNA chips were placed in a container and washed in $2 \times$ SSC/SDS for 10 min with shaking at 80 rpm. The chips were then washed with $2\times$ SSC in the same condition but without SDS, followed by another wash with $0.2 \times$ SSC for 10 min. Finally, the slides were rinsed with $ddH₂O$ and spun to dry.

2.1.5. Data acquisition and analysis

The dried chips were scanned by the AXON 4000B scanner with appropriate laser power and PMT settings. The excitation/ emission wavelengths of Cy3 were set at 550/570 nm, Cy5 at 649/670, and the scanning resolution at $10 \mu m$. All these parameters were fixed through the study. The raw spot intensities were generated by GenePix Pro version 4.1 software. The analysis process is described as follows. Once the fluorescent images were generated, the software, GenePix Pro 4.1, was executed to analyze the images. It was set to generate a 6×4 circle array to cover all micro-arrayed spots to measure the fluorescent signal. The software then automatically saved the analyzed data as excel-format files. The calculation of signal average and standard deviation was then manually undertaken over replicate spots. In this study, there were four replicates located in two zones, with two in each zone. The error bars were produced by taking \pm half of their standard deviation.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Negative sample test

To check the non-specific binding of the objective probes, we did a negative sample test by spreading a totally mismatched sample T7-17-Cy3 onto a spotted area and performing hybridization treatments that were identical to the two target sequences to see if any fluorescence was detected. The results showed that the signal detected was less than 0.8% of the lowest reported intensity in Figs. 3–5.

3.2. Hybridization of cBac-alP1-Cy5 and cRAFL09-Cy3 with their corresponding probes

In order to not generate complicated graphs that puzzle the readers, we plot each hybridization condition separately in one figure. We will initially show the individual and then the stacking hybridizing scenarios to step by step demonstrate the readers the steric effect caused by the DNA oligo prehybridization on DNA chips.

Fig. 3. Individual hybridization of target with two probes. (a and b) Plot of signal intensity versus various probe concentration. Figures presenting in a line style and a bar graph is mainly for facilitating readers to identify fluorescent sources; (c and d) corresponding experimental design of this result.

Fig. 4. After consecutive hybridization of probes, first with the 17-mer cRAFL09-Cy3 then the 60-mer Bac-alP1-Cy5 targets. (a) Plot of signal intensity versus probe concentration; (b) corresponding experimental design of this result.

Fig. 5. After consecutive hybridization of probes, first with the 60-mer BacalP1-Cy5 then the 17-mer cRAFL09-Cy3 targets. (a) Plot of signal intensity versus probe concentration; (b) corresponding experimental design of this result.

Fig. 3 shows the results for cRAFL09-Cy3 and cBac-alP1- Cy5 individually hybridized with their corresponding probes. The counter-intuitive negative correlation between probe concentration and intensity shown in this figure essentially came from the densely immobilized probes restricting the access of target samples to their complementary binding sites. Comparing these two curves in Fig. 3(a), one may also find that the hindrance effect becomes manifest when the binding sites are located close to the chip surfaces. This site-dependent effect, however, almost disappears for the much larger sized samples labeled with Cy5, as indicated in Fig. 3(b). This is because the whole probe is almost entirely hybridized, so that the location of the binding site on the probe is no longer an important issue. However, further investigation of the effect of probe concentrations on the molecular hindrance should be conducted if a more complete conclusion is desired.

In this study, we are more concerned with the enhancement of hybridization efficiency by the pre-hybridization of DNA sample than the probe-concentration variation. Thus, a second DNA target was added to further demonstrate that issue, as shown in the following section.

3.3. cRAFL09-Cy3 followed with cBac-alP1-Cy5 hybridization

Fig. 4 shows the results for the scenario of cRAFL09-Cy3 pre-hybridization on the shared probes followed with cBacalP1-Cy5. As shown in the figure, with the pre-hybridization of cRAFL09-Cy3, the targeted Cy5 intensities of both hybridized probes dramatically increases up to 87% higher than those of the corresponding hybridization of bare probes shown in Fig. 3(b). This remarkable intensity increase could be attributed to the steric void space created around the bare section of the probe, after the Cy3-labeled sample hybridized, to facilitate the docking of the subsequent Cy5-labeled samples to their binding site in the restricted environment. This demonstration implies that the pre-hybridization of a smaller sized target on the top zone of probes could result in detection-intensity amplification. In addition, from comparison of the two Cy3 curves in Figs. 3(a) and 4(a), one may observe that the Cy3 intensity of probe #2 dramatically drops up to 69% due to the subsequent Cy5sample hybridization, but intensity of probe #1 has minimal change. The pre-hybridized sample located on the top zone (probe #2) is sacrificed to dissociate from the probe during the subsequent hybridization, however this dissociation is not evident for probe #1. Therefore, the smaller pre-hybridized samples would be easier to dissociate into the free buffer phase above the immobilized probes than into the restricted environment close to the chip surface. Another possibility causing the intensity decrease was the ddH2O rinse at the end of each wash. $ddH₂O$ is salt free and provides no counter ion; hence, there is no charge shielding for the negatively charged DNA sequences and may cause the DNA duplex to be denaturized.

3.4. cBac-alP1-Cy5 followed with cRAFL09-Cy3 hybridization

Fig. 5 shows the results for the case of cBac-alP1-Cy5 prehybridization on the shared probes followed with cRAFL09- Cy3 target. This is the reverse scenario of that discussed in the previous section. Similar to the earlier findings, pre-hybridization enhanced the efficiency of the subsequent targeted hybridization. The latter-hybridized Cy3-labeled sample received a tremendous increase in signal intensity up to 82% higher than that of the corresponding individually hybridized case shown in Fig. 3(a). The first-hybridized Cy5-labeled sample was sacrificed up to 66% more than that of the corresponding individual hybridization.

3.5. Effect of fluorescent resonance energy transfer

In this study, the targets were 100% fluorescently labeled, such that they might suffer from self-quenching if the dye molecules were in close proximity to one another, i.e. within 10 nm, due to the fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET). Thus, the FRET effect was evaluated by comparing the fluorescent intensity generated by 100% with that by 10% or 1% dye-labeled targets. Fig. 6 shows the analysis result for the self-quenching FRET effect. The proportional ratio of Cy5 intensity over various probe concentrations in the figure suggested that there was no self-quenching FRET occurring in

Fig. 6. Investigation of the self-quenching FRET effect over various probe concentrations. (a) Ratio of the Cy5 intensity generated by 100% to that by 1% Cy5 labeled targets. If no self-quenching FRET effect occurred, the ratio should hang around 100. (b) Ratio of the intensity generated by 100% to that by 10% Cy3-labeled targets. If no self-quenching FRET effect occurred, the ratio should hang around 10.

Fig. 7. Investigation of the cross-quenching FRET effect over various probe concentrations. (a) Ratio of the Cy5 intensity quenched by 100% to that by 10% Cy3labeled targets. (b) Ratio of the Cy3 intensity quenched by 100% to that by 10% Cy5-labeled targets. If no cross-quenching FRET effect occurred, the ratio should both hang around unity.

our original Cy5-fluorescent labeling system. However, the Cy3 dye did suffer a little self-quenching FRET effect, though the quenching extent varied minimally over various probe concentrations. Therefore, our original analysis (Fig. 3(a)) reported a lower intensity reading than reality, but the relative curve trend remained about the same.

Aside from the self-quenching of dyes, our labeling system could also quench the transferred fluorescent energy crossly between Cy3 and Cy5 dyes, which might occur when the two dyes were within 10 nm and were favorably oriented. Particularly in Fig. 4(b), probe #1, the two dyes were separated by a 17 mer DNA, which was around 7–10 nm in length. As a result, a reference study was necessary to ensure that FRET was not present. To perform this study, the single dye-labeled target, cBac-alP1-Cy5, was designed to hybridize onto the probe shared with a target mixture containing 10% cRAFL09-Cy3 and 90% unlabeled cRAFL09. Another experiment was also conducted for the single dye-labeled target, cRAFL09-Cy3, shared probe #1 with 10% cBac-alP1-Cy5 and 90% unlabeled cBac-alP1. By comparing results from this reference study with the original study using both 100% labeled dyes, the effect of FRET can be evaluated. The comparison is shown in Fig. 7.

From Fig. 7(a), the readers can confirm that there was no cross-quenching of Cy5 by Cy3 occurring in our labeling system, since either 100% or 10% Cy3 content made Cy5 reading no difference. However, our labeling system had cross-quenching of Cy3 by Cy5 on both probes, and the quenching effect was more significant on probe #1. This finding could explain why the intensity of Cy3-labeled target decreased after sharing the same probe with Cy5-labeled target in our original study.

4. Conclusion

The enhancement of hybridization efficiency by target prehybridization on the micro-arrayed-DNA chips was demonstrated by two specially designed DNA probes in two inverse hybridization sequences. The hybridization efficiency was observed to have negative correlation with probe concentration when the oligo target individually hybridizes with its complementary probe. This correlation became manifest when the hybridizing sites were closer to the chip surfaces. Prehybridizing the DNA target onto the probe remarkably improved the hybridization efficiency of the subsequent sample hybridized onto the same probe, but the first-hybridized target dissociated and lost detection intensity. Although the two probes in our study did not provide a sufficient data pool to give a global conclusion, the results still implied that an appropriate design of pre-hybridization of probes is able to improve the DNA hybridization efficiency of micro-arrayed gene chips.

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