The Biotin—(Strept)Avidin System: Principles and Applications in Biotechnology Eleftherios P. Diamandis^{1,2} and Theodore K. Christopoulos¹

The biotin—(strept)avidin system has been used for many years in a variety of different applications. Here we present a general overview of the system, describe its components and advantages, and show how the system is used in various applications, with emphasis on immunological and nucleic acid hybridization assays. This system is now considered a versatile independent technology with broad applications in many branches of biotechnology. Clearly, its use will continue to grow in the years to come.

Additional Keyphrases: nonisotopic immunoassay · nucleic acid hybridization · affinity chromatography · labeling techniques · DNA probes

Living organisms usually develop highly specific defense mechanisms, which help them survive in competitive and unfriendly environments. Scientists sometimes unravel such defense mechanisms and use them in vitro, in a completely different context. For example, bacterial restriction endonuclease enzymes revolutionized the field of molecular cloning when molecular biologists recognized in them a cheap, easy, and highly specific and versatile way of cutting nucleic acids. Here we will discuss the utility of avidin, a protein found in egg white, and streptavidin, a similar protein found in Streptomyces avidinii, which have the ability to bind with very high affinity the vitamin biotin (1). This interaction is thought to represent a natural defense mechanism because the binding with avidin or streptavidin of biotinylated enzymes that participate in CO₂ transfer inactivates the enzymes and thus inhibits the growth of bacteria that depend on biotinylated enzymes.

Although many other ligand—binder interactions are described in the literature (2), the biotin—avidin or biotin—streptavidin interaction has some unique characteristics that make it ideal as a general bridge system in many diverse applications:

(a) The noncovalent interaction of avidin or streptavidin with biotin is characterized by a formation (affinity) constant of 10^{15} L \cdot mol⁻¹. This is among the highest formation constants reported, about 10^3 – 10^6 times greater than for the interaction of ligands with

- (b) Avidin or streptavidin binding to biotin is specific enough to ensure that the binding is directed only to the target of interest.
- (c) Both streptavidin and avidin possess four binding sites per molecule. This very useful property makes it possible to use multiply biotinylated moieties (e.g., polybiotinylated enzymes) and avidin or streptavidin to create mixtures consisting of polymers of biotinylated moieties with avidin or streptavidin (3). These polymers could still have some free binding sites for biotin, thus becoming more-sensitive detection reagents in pertinent applications.
- (d) Biotin is a small molecule (244.31 Da) that, when introduced into biologically active macromolecules, in most cases does not affect their biological activity, e.g., enzymic catalysis or antibody binding. Moreover, using biotin to derivatize small molecules (e.g., mononucleotides or thyroid or steroid hormones) yields biotinylated moieties that still can act as enzyme substrates or are able to bind specific antibodies. Thus, biotinylation does not usually alter many properties of the molecules.
- (e) On many occasions, avidin or streptavidin must be chemically derivatized with various organic reagents for conjugation with low- or high- $M_{\rm r}$ compounds or solid supports. As a rule, both streptavidin and avidin are exceptionally stable molecules and their biotin-binding activity can survive harsh reaction conditions and extensive derivatizations (4).

In the biotin-avidin or biotin-streptavidin system, one participating component must always be biotinylated (Table 1). The various biotinylation strategies and chemical reactions will be mentioned in detail below. Fortunately, many biotinylation reagents are now commercially available; these are extremely easy to use by following well-established procedures available in the literature and from the reagent manufacturers. Also, highly purified avidin and streptavidin are commercially available and they are relatively cheap. Large collections of derivatized avidin and streptavidin-e.g., with fluorophores, enzymes, metals, proteins, solid phases—are also commercially available (Table 2). These reagents, in combination with biotinylated moieties (Table 1), have contributed in the quick dissemination of diverse applications and encouraged many investigators to use the system.

their specific antibodies. This high affinity ensures that, once formed, the complex is not disturbed by changes in pH, the presence of chaotropes, or manipulations such as multiple washings when the complex is immobilized.

¹Department of Clinical Biochemistry, Toronto Western Hospital, 399 Bathurst St., Toronto, Ontario M5T 2S8 Canada (address for correspondence).

²Department of Clinical Biochemistry, University of Toronto, 100 College St., Toronto, Ontario M5G 1L5 Canada.

Received December 7, 1990; accepted March 8, 1991.

Table 1. Selected List of Biotinylated Molecules and **Their Possible Applications**

Biotinylated molety

Anti-immunoglobulins, Protein A, Protein G

Lectins

Anti-lectins Enzymes (ALP, β -galactosidase, glucose oxidase, HRP) Ferritin, hemocyanin Agarose, cellulose Anti-avidin, anti-streptavidin **Nucleotides**

Hormones

Cells

DNA

Possible applications

Immunological assays, flow cytometry, cell sorting, immunohistochemistry. Western blots Glycoconjugate studies, mitogenic stimulation studies Localization of lectin receptors Immunological assays, nucleic acid hybridization

Electron microscopy Affinity chromatography **Amplification assays** Nucleic acid hybridization Nucleic acid hybridization. molecular mass markers, DNA sequencing Affinity chromatography. receptor-ligand interaction studies

Hybridoma production

ALP, alkaline phosphatase; HRP, horseradish peroxidase.

Table 2. Selected List of Avidin or Streptavidin **Conjugates and Their Possible Applications**

Conjugate of avidin or streptavidin with

Enzymes (ALP, HRP β -galactosidase, glucose oxidase, etc), fluorophores (fluorescein, coumarins, rhodamines, phycoerythrin, Texas Red), Eu3+, other

Eu3+-chelates^a

Ferritin, gold

Chemiluminescent labels

Agarose Magnetic particles

Polystyrene

metals

Immunological assays, flow cytometry, cell sorting, immunohistochemistry, Western blots, nucleic acid hybridization

Possible applications

Immunological assays, Western blots, nucleic acid

hybridization Electron microscopy

Immunological assays, Western

blots, nucleic acid hybridization

Affinity chromatography Nucleic acid hybridization,

affinity chromatography, DNA seguencing

Immunological assays

^a With 4,7-bis-chlorosulfophenyl-1,10-phenanthroline-2,9-dicarboxylic acid. Abbreviations as in Table 1.

The literature on the system has exploded during the last 10 years, and many specialized reviews have been published (5-11). A comprehensive volume of Methods in Enzymology is devoted to the avidin-biotin technology (12) and can serve as a reference for interested readers and experimentalists. Given the special interests of the readers of Clinical Chemistry, we will cover, with some detail, applications of the biotin-avidin system in immunochemical and nucleic acid hybridization techniques. Other applications will also be mentioned.

Avidin and Streptavidin

Avidin, a 67-kDa glycoprotein, consists of four identical subunits of 128 amino acids each. The amino acid sequence of the subunits is known (13). Recently, Gope et al. cloned the avidin gene from chicken oviduct (14). The cloned gene was successfully expressed in Escherichia coli, providing biologically active recombinant avidin.

In theory, avidin could be purified by adsorption on an insoluble biotinylated matrix; however, because of the very high affinity of the biotin-avidin complex, the avidin is not easily eluted. Today, affinity-purified avidin can be prepared by using insoluble matrices, e.g., Sepharose covalently linked with iminobiotin (15–19). Iminobiotin is a biotin derivative (Figure 1) containing a guanidinium group instead of a ureido group. When the guanidinium group is not protonated, i.e., is at relatively high pH (e.g., 11.0), iminobiotin binds strongly to avidin, although with ~ 100 -fold less affinity than biotin. At low pH (e.g., 4.0), the guanidinium group is protonated, and imidobiotin does not bind to avidin. Thus, avidin can be specifically adsorbed on an iminobiotin-Sepharose matrix at pH 11.0 and then eluted in pure form at pH 4.0.

Avidin is a glycoprotein containing both mannose and N-acetylglucosamine (13) and has an isoelectric point (pI) of \sim 10 (2). The major problem of using avidin in some applications is the high nonspecific binding, which is attributed to both the presence of the sugars and the high pl. Nonglycosylated avidin has essentially the same biotin-binding characteristics as glycosylated avidin and can be isolated from crude avidin preparations (~30% of total) by using concanavalin-A affinity columns that adsorb only the glycosylated fraction (20, 21). Alternatively, deglycosylation by enzymatic cleavage could be used. Deglycosylated avidins are expected to have lower nonspecific binding. Commercial manufac-

Fig. 1. Chemical structures of biotin (A), iminobiotin (B), and biocytin

turers are using proprietary procedures to produce lownonspecific-binding avidins suitable for specialized applications, e.g., avidin-D and avidin-DN (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA).

The biotin-binding protein streptavidin also consists of four subunits but contains no carbohydrate; its pI is 5-6. Streptavidin is widely used in place of avidin because of its lower nonspecific binding. This protein is isolated from the culture broth of S. avidinii by ammonium sulfate precipitation, ion-exchange chromatography, and crystallization. Alternatively, iminobiotin columns can be used directly with the bacterial broth.

The streptavidin gene has recently been cloned and sequenced (22). From the complete nucleotide sequence, the amino acid sequence was deduced and compared with that of avidin. Many regions of the two molecules showed significant homology. The molecular mass of streptavidin was previously reported to be 60 kDa for the product isolated as described above by an initial ammonium sulfate precipitation (many commercially available products are prepared with such methods). From the gene sequence, a mass of 66 kDa was predicted; a 75-kDa product was isolated on iminobiotin columns. It is now known that native streptavidin of relatively high mass (66-75 kDa) can be converted to a lower-mass form (i.e., 60 kDa) by proteolytic digestion at both the N and C termini, which occurs during the ammonium sulfate precipitation step; this conversion is prevented if an iminobiotin column is used (18). The lower- $M_{\rm r}$ streptavidin is the commercially available product (called "core" or "truncated" streptavidin), which has better biotin-binding characteristics than the native protein. Native streptavidin can be converted to core streptavidin by a simple digestion with proteinase K (23).

Biotin

Biotin (Figure 1), also known as vitamin H, is present in minute amounts in every living cell. It acts as a co-factor of carboxylating enzymes, e.g., pyruvate carboxylase, which catalyzes the formation of oxaloacetate by condensation of pyruvate and CO2. The carboxyl group of biotin is the site of attachment of the molecule to ϵ -amino groups of lysine residues through an amide bond. During a carboxylation reaction, the CO2 is first fixed to the iminogroup of biotin to form carboxy-biotin, which in a second step passes CO₂ to the substrate, e.g., pyruvate.

Numerous biotin derivatives are available and will be discussed in a separate section. Biocytin, an adduct of biotin and lysine (N- ϵ -biotinyl-L-lysine), is found naturally but also is synthesized from biotin and lysine. Biocytin derivatives prepared for labeling are mentioned below.

Biotinylation Procedures

One of the basic components in a biotin-avidin-based system is the biotinylated moiety, which can be a protein, a polysaccharide, a nucleic acid, a low- M_r substance, etc. To biotinylate such diverse classes of com-

Table 3. Major Biotin Labeling Strategies for Proteins and Carbohydrates

una carbonyaratec			
Molecule for biotinylation	Reactive group or moiety	Biotinylation reagent	
Proteins, haptens, or peptides	Amine	NHS-biotin, NHS-LC-biotin	
	Tyrosyl, histidyl	p-Diazobenzoylbiocytin	
	Sulfhydryl	3-(N-Maleimidopropionyl) biocytin or iodoacetyl- LC-biotin	
	Carboxyl	Carbodiimide and biotin hydrazide	
Glycoconjugates, carbohydrates (including antibodies and ribonucleotides)	Vicinal hydroxyls	Periodate oxidation and biotin hydrazide	

pounds, researchers have developed several different biotinylation reagents (active biotin derivatives). In addition, other biotinylation reagents have been developed for specific applications: e.g., cleavable reagents that can be used for biotinylation with the option of removing biotin at a later stage by reduction of a disulfide bond or hydrolysis of phenyl ester linkages (24-27).

An exhaustive review of many different biotinylation reagents has been published recently (28). Below, we describe biotinylation procedures for proteins, sugars, and nucleic acids. However, the same procedures can be used for other compounds bearing reactive groups. These procedures are summarized in Tables 3 and 4.

Proteins

In the vast majority of cases, proteins are biotinylated via the ϵ -amino groups of lysines by using an N-hydroxysuccinimide ester (NHS-ester) of a biotin analog (29).3 Figure 2 shows the two most commonly used reagents, along with a typical biotinylation reaction. The more recently developed reagent, NHS-LC-biotin, is the reagent of choice: it decreases steric hindrance because it has an extra spacer arm between biotin and protein. Consequently, the biotin is more exposed from the protein surface and is more available to bind avidin or streptavidin.

Biotinylation reactions with NHS-biotin derivatives (available commercially from many companies) are simple to perform. We use a reaction pH of 9.1 adjusted with 0.25-0.50 mol/L carbonate buffer. Proteins are used at a concentration of 0.1-2 g/L and, before biotinylation, are extensively dialyzed in 0.1 mol/L bicarbonate solution, to remove any interfering small molecules (e.g., aminecontaining buffers). Biotin analogs, dissolved in a minimum volume of dimethyl sulfoxide, are added at 50- to

³Nonstandard abbreviations: NHS, N-hydroxysuccinimide; LC, long chain; dNTP, deoxynucleotide triphosphates; TdT, terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; AMPPD, 3-(2'-spiroadamantane)-4-methoxy-4-(3''-phosphoryloxy)phenyl-1,2-dioxetane; NBT, 4-nitroblue tetrazolium; and BCIP, 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl phosphate.

Table 4. Biotinylation of Nucleic Acids		
Method	Labeled nucleic acid	Principle
Nick translation	dsDNA	Enzymatic: DNAse I and DNA polymerase I with biotinylated dNTP or their biotinylable precursors
Random priming	dsDNA	Enzymatic: Klenow enzyme, random sequence deoxyribonucleotides and biotinylated dNTP or their biotinylable precursors
Transcription	RNA	Enzymatic: RNA polymerase and biotinylated NTP with dsDNA template
Photobiotin	dsDNA, ssDNA, RNA	Chemical bonding of photobiotin to nucleic acid
Transamination	ssDNA, dsDNA	Generation of biotinylable N ⁴ -substituted cytosines via sodium bisulfite and ethylenediamine
Psoralen derivatives	dsDNA with unlabeled ss regions	Intercalation of psoralen into dsDNA and interstrand link after irradiation
3'-end tailing	3'-end-labeled ssDNA or dsDNA	Enzymatic: TdT in the presence of biotinylated dNTP or biotinylable dNTP
Periodate oxidation	RNA	As in Fig. 3
T4 RNA ligase	RNA	Enzymatic 3'-end labeling with T4 RNA ligase and biotinylated ADP-derivatives
Linker or deoxythimidine phosphoramidite	Short 5'-end labeled ss synthetic oligonucleotide	Introduction of aliphatic amino group at 5'-end during automated phosphoramidite synthesis
Biotinylated nucleoside phosphoramidite	Short ss synthetic oligonucleotides labeled at any position	Introduction of biotinylated bases at any position during automated phosphoramidite synthesis
Nonnucleosidic biotinylated linker phosphoramidite	Short ss synthetic oligonucleotides biotinylated singly or multiply at their 5'-ends	Single or multiple introduction of nonnucleosidic biotinylated linker at 5'-end during automated phosphoramidite synthesis
PCR	dsDNA	Enzymatic incorporation of biotinylated nucleotides by Taq polymerase during PCR

ds, double-stranded; ss, single-stranded.

Fig. 2. Chemical structures of NHS-biotin (A) and NHS-LC-biotin (B) (C) A biotinylation reaction (protein + NHS-biotin). Multiple biotinylation occurs when the protein bears more than one -NH $_2$ group. The size of the molecules is not shown to scale

500-fold molar excess in relation to the protein concentration and incubated at room temperature for 1 h. The mixture is then used either as is or dialyzed against a 0.1 mol/L NaHCO₃ solution to remove unreacted biotin.

As is well documented, excessive biotinylation may inactivate a biologically active molecule. To avoid this, it is a good practice to perform trial biotinylations with various amounts of excess biotin reagent to determine optimal performance. The extent of biotinylation does not usually need to be calculated; however, there are methods for doing so, and they are described in reference 30.

Alternative protein-biotinylation procedures are based on the targeting of groups other than the ϵ -amino groups of lysine residues. The reagent p-diazobenzoylbiocytin is specific for tyrosyl and histidyl amino acid side chains. Proteins that contain free -SH groups can be biotinylated by using 3-(N-maleimidopropionyl) biocytin or iodoacetyl-LC-biotin. The same reagents can be used with proteins whose S-S groups are reduced to -SH or proteins that are first thiolated. Carboxyl groups of proteins can also be used for biotinylation with biocytin hydrazide and a water-soluble carbodiimide reaction. Glycoproteins can be biotinylated through their sugar moieties by using biotin hydrazide or biotin-LC-hydrazide, as discussed further in the next section.

Carbohydrates

Carbohydrates, glycoproteins, or other glycoconjugates are easily biotinylated by using biotin-LC-hydrazide or biocytin hydrazide (31–33) (Figure 3). The glycoconjugate is first reacted with NaIO₄ to oxidize vicinal hydroxyl groups of the sugars to aldehyde groups. These groups are then allowed to react with biotin hydrazide, biotin-LC-hydrazide, or biocytin hydrazide to produce the biotinylated sugar moiety. This procedure has been used only occasionally to biotinylate antibodies. One group (26) found that this procedure gave inferior results in comparison with biotinylating

Fig. 3. Reaction of an aldehyde, generated from the oxidation of a cis-diol by NaIO4, with biotin hydrazide

antibodies through the ϵ -amino groups. In our hands, biotinylation of antibodies with NHS-LC-biotin yielded a twofold greater signal in time-resolved fluorometric immunoassays involving labeled streptavidin than did the same antibodies labeled via sugar moieties with biotin-LC-hydrazide. In addition, in biotinylation of other glycoproteins, e.g., bovine thyroglobulin, we have found that, during the NaIO₄ oxidation step, the aldehyde groups generated react with amino groups of the protein, resulting in protein polymerization.

Nucleic Acids

Nucleic acid biotinylation can be accomplished with several different procedures, most of which have evolved very recently. In general, cloned nucleotide fragments are biotinylated with different strategies from those used with small synthetic oligonucleotides. The major interest in biotinylating nucleotides arises mainly from the need to devise highly sensitive nonisotopic hybridization assays.

Many procedures for nucleic acid biotinylation are based on enzymatic catalysis; others are chemical methods. Enzymatic biotinylation procedures rely on the availability of biotinylated nucleotide analogs that can act as enzyme substrates. Alternatively, nonbiotinylated nucleotide derivatives can be used as substrates but, after they are incorporated into DNA, they can be chemically biotinylated because they carry into their structure an easily biotinylable group (e.g., an aliphatic primary amine group).

The first reported biotinylated nucleotides were biotinylated uridine triphosphate (UTP) and deoxyuridine triphosphate (dUTP) (Figure 4) (34, 35). Biotin is attached to the 5-position of uridine base through an allylamine linker. The distance of biotin from the nucleotide base, measured in numbers of atoms, is shown in the name of the molecule, as biotin-n-base, e.g., biotin-11-dUTP and biotin-16-dUTP. More recently, biotinylated dATP and dCTP with linkers of between three and 17 atoms long have been described (36). Precursors of these molecules are modified bases that contain linker arms with free -NH₂ groups, e.g., N^6 -(6-aminohexyl) dATP (Figure 4), and are thus easily biotinylated with NHS-LC-biotin. Many biotinylated nucleotides and some of their precursors are commercially available. Another useful class of biotinylated nucleotides consists of nucleotides that contain the S-S group within the structure of the linker arm. These "releasable" nucleotide analogs can be used in applications where the

Fig. 4. Biotinylated deoxynucleotide triphosphates (A) dUTP derivatives. L can be a variable structure; e.g., $L = CO(CH_2)_5$ will yield biotin-11-dUTP, and $L = CO(CH_2)_2SS(CH_2)_2$ will yield biotin-12-SSdUTP. (B) dATP derivatives. $L = (CH_2)_6$ yields biotin-7-dATP. When $L = (CH_2)_6$ NH₂, a biotinylable precursor of dATP is generated. (C) dCTP derivatives. $L = (CH_2)_6$ yields biotin-7-dCTP. Adapted by permission from ref. 12

nucleic acid needs to be released after its binding to streptavidin (25, 37).

The biotinylated nucleotide analogs or their precursors, e.g., N^6 -(6-aminohexyl) dATP, can be introduced into DNA by using two general and well-established enzymatic procedures: nick translation and random priming. In nick translation, relatively large (>1 kb) double-stranded DNA is allowed to be attacked by the enzyme DNAse I, which creates "nicks" (holes) at random points of one DNA strand. A second enzyme in the mixture, E. coli DNA polymerase I, repairs the nicks by both its $5' \rightarrow 3'$ exonuclease activity (to chew off more nucleotides) and its $5' \rightarrow 3'$ polymerase activity (to fill in the gap). During the $5' \rightarrow 3'$ polymerization, the biotinylated nucleotides or precursors in the reaction mixture are incorporated into the DNA. Although in theory one can incorporate more biotins by using only biotinylated dNTP in the reaction mixture, this is not usually attempted for two reasons: the highly biotinylated DNA may not be suitable to use as a probe (because it may not reassociate with the target with acceptable specificity, affinity, and kinetics), and incorporation of >40 biotinylated nucleotides per kilobase of DNA does not improve the sensitivity of the assays developed (probably because of steric hindrance problems associated with streptavidin binding) (36). We have also seen this effect with highly biotinylated proteins, e.g., antibodies labeled with >20 biotins. Nick translation not only labels

but also fragments the original DNA. The ratio of the enzymes DNase I and DNA polymerase I and the incubation time and temperature of the reaction are adjusted so that the labeled probes are 500–1500 bases long. Nick translation kits are commercially available from several manufacturers, making the procedure easy and reliable to apply even by nonspecialists. In these kits, usually one biotinylated nucleotide (e.g., biotin-7-dATP) is incorporated into the reaction mixture along with three unlabeled nucleotides.

The random priming method was originally developed to label DNA radioactively (38); it can be used with probes <500 bp long. The method is based on the denaturation of DNA by heating and the subsequent annealing to the DNA, upon cooling, of random-sequence oligodeoxyribonucleotides. The DNA-random oligonucleotide hybrids are substrates for the Klenow fragment of E. coli DNA polymerase I, which extends in the $5' \rightarrow 3'$ direction, incorporating nucleotides and any biotinylated nucleotides in the newly synthesized strands. Again, random priming kits are commercially available and are extremely easy to use. Protocols involving biotinylated nucleotides (e.g., biotin-11dUTP, which is incorporated as if it were dTTP, or biotin-7-dATP) are also available from these manufacturers.

In any case involving a precursor of biotinylated nucleotides, e.g., N^6 -(6-aminohexyl) dATP, the product can be easily biotinylated through use of NHS-LC-biotin.

Cloned double-stranded probes inserted into transcription vectors that contain the promoters for SP6 and T7 RNA polymerase can be transcribed in the presence of biotinylated ribonucleotide triphosphates to produce single-stranded biotinylated riboprobes.

Labeling of DNA can also be achieved by other procedures. A new biotinylation reagent, photobiotin (Figure 5) (39), is now commercially available and has been used to label not only DNA but also proteins and RNA (40). Photobiotin contains the biotin moiety attached to a photoactive aryl azide group through a linker. Upon exposure to intense visible light (350–370 nm) for 15–20 min, the aryl azide group is converted to a highly reactive aryl nitrene, which reacts and biotinylates the DNA. The biotin incorporation is about 5–10 biotins per kilobase of DNA. The bond is very stable, although its exact nature is not known.

Fig. 5. Chemical structure of photobiotin Reprinted by permission from ref. 12

Another method used to label DNA chemically is based on the well-known transamination reaction of cytosine residues with sodium bisulfite and a diaminoalkane, e.g., ethylenediamine (Figure 6) (41). This reaction works with single-stranded DNA (prepared by heating double-stranded DNA at 100 °C for 3 min) in one step in the presence of both bisulfite and ethylenediamine. The end product (N4-substituted cytosine) can then be easily biotinylated by using an NHS-ester of biotin (see Figure 2). The biotin incorporation with this method can be as great as 30-100 biotins per kilobase of DNA and can be controlled somewhat by adjusting the pH and the bisulfite concentration in the reaction. In a variation of this technique, DNA can be labeled by reacting the cytidine residues with biotin hydrazide in the presence of sodium bisulfite (42).

Psoralen derivatives of biotin (Figure 7) have also been used as labeling reagents for DNA (43–45). Psoralen has the ability to intercalate into double-stranded nucleic acids and, when irradiated with light (360 nm), form interstrand crosslinks. Probes suitable for labeling with psoralen-biotin derivatives must have an appropriate structure: a single-stranded region that will hybridize to the target and a double-stranded region that will carry the label. Usually, the psoralen moiety and biotin are separated by a spacer arm (Figure 7) to increase the availability of biotin for streptavidin binding. About one biotinylated psoralen is present in every 10 bp in the double-stranded region of the probe.

In recent years, it has been possible to synthesize short (<50 bases) single-stranded oligonucleotide probes by automation and to use these probes for hybridization or as primers for the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) or sequencing. These probes can be biotinylated via several different procedures. For endlabeling at the 3'-end, one can use the enzyme terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase (TdT) and biotinylated nucleotides, e.g., biotin-11-dUTP (46). Alternatively, TdT can be used to introduce 4-thiouridine, which can then be reacted with haloacetamido derivatives of biotin, e.g., iodoacetyl-LC-biotin, to biotinylate the probes (47). RNA probes can also be labeled with biotin at their 3'-termini by first reacting the 2',3'-cis-hydroxyls of the terminal ribose with periodate, to produce aldehyde groups that can then be reacted with biotin hydrazide as described above (Figure 3) (48). RNA probes have also been biotinylated at their 3'-termini by use of the enzyme T4 RNA ligase (49). End-labeling at the 5' end

Fig. 6. Bisulfite-catalyzed transamination reaction with ethylenediamine

The $\it N^4$ -substituted cytosine residue is biotinylated with NHS-LC-biotin as shown in Fig. 2

Fig. 7. Biotinylated psoralen used to label DNA Reprinted by permission from ref. 12

of DNA has also been achieved with periodate oxidation (50): ribonucleotide monomers can be incorporated into short synthetic oligonucleotides by either the phosphotriester or the phosphoramidite routes and biotin-labeled with periodate oxidation and biotin hydrazide. Agrawal et al. (50) also synthesized another monomer (linker phosphoramidite), which could be incorporated at the 5'-end of a synthesized oligonucleotide. After deprotection, an -NH₂ group at the 5'-end of the oligonucleotide could be easily biotinylated with NHS-LC-biotin.

Many other methods can incorporate a free biotinylable amino group at the 5'-end of an oligonucleotide. For example, Smith et al. (51) used automated phosphoramidite chemistry to introduce deoxythimidine containing a linker arm with aliphatic amine.

By using the TdT tailing reaction, one can attach multiple biotins to the 3'-end of a synthetic polynucleotide. The products have greater sensitivity than probes singly biotinylated at their 5'-ends (46, 52).

Newer biotinylation methods allow for biotin introduction internally into an oligonucleotide. For example, Jablonski et al. (53) and Haralambidis et al. (54) reported the synthesis of C-5-substituted deoxyuridines carrying a masked primary aliphatic amino group. These modified bases can be used as phosphoramidites in automated oligonucleotide synthesis (52); after deprotection, they possess a free amino group available for biotinylation. For better availability, this amino group should be attached to the base through a linker arm. With such procedures, both the location and the number of amino groups can be controlled. Similarly, C-8-substituted deoxyadenosine phosphoramidites have been reported (55). In vet more-straightforward procedures. biotinylated nucleoside phosphoramidites were synthesized (56, 57) and used to produce by automated synthesis oligonucleotides that were multiply labeled at any site. More recently, nonnucleosidic phosphoramidite linker units carrying biotin have been synthesized and used to produce multiply biotinylated (e.g., eight biotins) short probes (58).

Cook et al. (52) examined in detail the achievable sensitivity in hybridization assays involving short 17-mer probes labeled with either one or up to three biotins at various sites internally or externally to the probe. They concluded that probes tailed with TdT gave the best overall results, whereas the poorest results were obtained with internally labeled probes. They also found that probes with internal biotins form less-stable hybrids than probes with external biotins. Others (58) also noticed that multiple biotinylation of short probes does not improve signal yield when streptavidin is the carrier of the label.

PCR is also a convenient method of producing relatively short labeled probes (59). During the PCR process, labeled nucleotides can be introduced into the final probe product. The enzyme Taq polymerase used in the PCR process incorporates biotinylated nucleotides, among others.

The degree of biotinylation of DNA, produced by any of the methods described above, can be assessed by at least two recently described procedures (60, 61).

The Avidin-Biotin Interaction as a Detection System

The avidin-biotin interaction can be used for detecting a diverse number of targets with three different basic configurations (62-64):

(a) Avidin or streptavidin is labeled with a detectable molecule, e.g., an enzyme, fluorescent, chemiluminescent, or radioactive probe; a metal; or some other moiety. Biotin present in another reactant (antibody, nucleotide, Protein A, lectin, etc.) links the target molecule with the labeling system (Figure 8A). This detection format is used widely for immunoassays, DNA hybridization assays, immunohistochemistry, and flow-cytometry. Avidin and streptavidin conjugates carrying a variety of detectable molecules are commercially available (Table 2).

(b) Streptavidin is used unlabeled and serves to link the biotinylated binder with the biotinylated detection molecule (Figure 8B). This variation of the system takes advantage of the multiple biotin-binding sites in each avidin or streptavidin molecule. It is also used widely in immunoassay and DNA hybridization techniques, especially with probes that can be easily biotinylated (e.g., enzymes and proteinaceous fluorescent molecules).

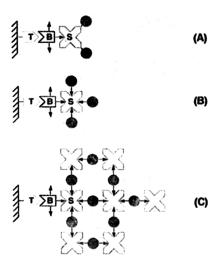


Fig. 8. Basic configurations of the biotin—streptavidin system In all cases, the target molecule (T) is shown immobilized on a solid support. (A) The specific binder (B) of the target is biotinylated (→), and streptavidin (S) carries a label (O). (B) Same as (A) but streptavidin is used unlabeled to link the biotinylated binder and the biotinylated label. (C) Unlabeled streptavidin is mixed with biotinylated label to form a polymeric complex with some residual biotin-binding activity. This polymer binds to the biotinylated binder as in (A)

(c) The third method combines effectively the principles of (a) and (b) to yield a significantly more sensitive system (3). The basic idea is to mix, under controlled conditions, unlabeled streptavidin or avidin and a biotinylated detection reagent, e.g., an enzyme. Given the multiple biotin binding sites on avidin or streptavidin, one can generate a polymer having some free biotin-binding sites. This reagent is then used as in (a) but affords superior sensitivity. Kits offering the streptavidin or avidin and biotinylated enzymes at optimized concentrations, so that one can form the complex by simply mixing the reagents, are commercially available and are known as ABC (avidin-biotin complex) kits.

The Avidin-Biotin Interaction as an Affinity System

Immobilized avidin or streptavidin can be used to retrieve, purify, and characterize various moieties of interest (2). For example, a protein present in cells can be reacted with a specific biotinylated probe (antibody, receptor, lectin, hormone, etc.), which can then be retrieved by being placed in contact with a column or magnetic beads with immobilized avidin or streptavidin. The protein of interest can be released by disrupting the protein-biotinylated probe complex (2, 26, 65, 66). This approach can also be used with cleavable biotin analogs, facilitating easy release of the bound complex (25, 37). Biotinylated DNA can be retrieved by using similar procedures.

Avidin- or streptavidin-coated solid phases have been used effectively as separation agents in heterogeneous immunoassays (67, 68) and in DNA-hybridization assays (69). Two examples are given in Figure 9. Other applications include isolating and purifying DNA-binding proteins by use of streptavidin–DNA-biotin solid-phase (70), solid-phase DNA sequencing in combination with PCR (71), separation of cells tagged with biotiny-lated antibodies (72), and efficient fusion in hybridoma production (73) (see below).

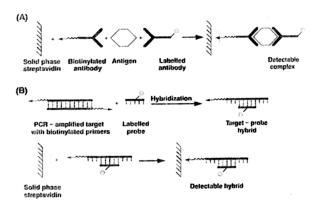


Fig. 9. Immobilized streptavidin used as a separation agent in immunoassays (A) and nucleic acid hybridization assays (B) Washing removes unreacted detection antibody or labeled probe (not shown)

Selected Applications of the Biotin–(Strept)Avidin System

Immunological Assays

With the existence of biotinylation reagents and various avidin- or streptavidin-based detection systems (Tables 1 and 2), one would expect that many manual or automated avidin-biotin based immunoassays would be available commercially. This is not the case, however, and most of the available immunoassay kits or methods rely on direct labeling of the detection antibodies of interest. This is generally advantageous through avoiding the extra step of adding streptavidin label. On the other hand, the versatility of the avidin-biotin system makes it very attractive for research applications, as has been recently stressed in the literature (74), for the following reasons: For research applications, when appropriate antibodies are available, one of them can be immobilized on a solid support (e.g., polystyrene microtiter wells) and the other can be easily biotinylated as described before; streptavidin-enzyme conjugates, as well as many enzyme substrates, or other conjugates are available from many manufacturers; with such assay configurations (Figure 8A), excellent sensitivity can be achieved because of the amplification introduced by the avidin-biotin system. This amplification can be as high as 100-fold (10-20 active biotins per antibody and three to six enzymes per streptavidin). Competitive-type immunoassays can also be devised by using either the immobilized antigen approach and biotinylated antibody (75, 76) or the immobilized antibody approach and biotinylated antigens (77). In our hands, if good antibodies and calibration material are available, excellent assays can be set up in a few working days.

The most widely used enzyme conjugates for immunoassay are streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase (EC 1.11.1.7) and streptavidin-alkaline phosphatase (EC 3.1.3.1). With peroxidase, many substrates that yield colored products can be used (78). With alkaline phosphatase, the colorimetric substrate p-nitrophenyl phosphate, the fluorogenic substrate 4-methylumbelliferyl phosphate (79), or the chemiluminogenic substrate 3-(2'-spiroadamantane)-4-methoxy-4-(3''-phosphoryloxy) phenyl-1,2-dioxetane, disodium salt (AMPPD) (80, 81), is used, the latter two having the better sensitivity. Recently, streptavidin conjugates have been used in timeresolved fluorometric applications (82-89). In one variation, Eu³⁺ is noncovalently attached to streptavidin by a strong Eu3+ chelator of the aminopolycarboxylic acid type (82, 83). After the immunological reaction is completed and excess biotinylated antibody is washed off, Eu³⁺-labeled streptavidin is added (Figure 8A). The Eu³⁺ on the complex is then released in solution by lowering the pH and is re-complexed with ligands to form fluorescent complexes of long fluorescence lifetime. These complexes are quantified by using time-resolved fluorometry.

A different approach involves labeling streptavidin with the europium chelate of 4,7-bis(chlorosulfophenyl)-1,10-phenanthroline-2,9-dicarboxylic acid (84–89).

Streptavidin carrying a variable load of these chelates, ranging from 14 to 480 per molecule, has been synthesized and used to devise highly sensitive time-resolved fluorescence immunoassays.

Recently, Ishikawa et al. (90) used the avidin—biotin system to devise noncompetitive immunoassays for haptens. They biotinylated the hapten, which could then be bound by both its specific antibody and labeled streptavidin. Daunert et al. (91) devised a homogeneous assay for biotin, based on the observation that biotinylated glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase is inhibited if bound to avidin.

A very interesting variation of the avidin-biotin system in immunoassay has been developed by Bobrow et al. (92). In this assay, called catalyzed reporter deposition, horseradish peroxidase is used as label in a typical "two-site" immunoassay. However, the peroxidase, instead of producing a measurable signal, is used to catalyze the deposition of biotin-derivatives on the solid-phase, which is then detected by using streptavidin-enzyme conjugates. This approach amplifies manyfold the signal generated and shows promise for future applications that require very high sensitivity.

Many commercial sources apply the biotin-avidin technology not as a detection technique but as a high-affinity separation method of bound and free labeled reagent (Figure 9) (67, 68).

Nucleic Acid Hybridization Assays

The dominant labeling systems for various DNAbased assays are still radionuclides, i.e., ³²P and ³⁵S. These radionuclides offer superior sensitivity to that of the nonisotopic alternatives available today (93). However, ³²P and other radionuclides have some major disadvantages. Many laboratories, especially those interested in routine applications in the field of infectious disease, genetic disease, forensics, and cancer, are exploring alternative systems. Nonisotopic methodologies are now entering nucleic acid-based testing, with excellent prospects. In many applications (e.g., infectious disease), extreme sensitivity is not always needed; moreover, with the advent of PCR, the amplified product can be easily detected with nonisotopic methods. Some new nonisotopic assays claim to be as sensitive as ³²P assays (94, 95).

Because biotin can be easily and multiply incorporated into DNA without altering its ability to hybridize with its targets, it is the label of choice in many nonisotopic systems, with conjugated streptavidin being used for detection. Streptavidin—alkaline phosphatase conjugates have been widely used in combination with the colorimetric reagent NBT-BCIP (94), but more recently the chemiluminometric reagent AMPPD has been used for more-sensitive assays (80, 95). Streptavidin labeled with europium in combination with time-resolved fluorometry has also been used (83), or more recently, streptavidin labeled with europium chelates (95). From the information given before, one can easily deduce that any type of DNA assay (Southern, Northern, Western, dot-blot, etc.) can be performed by using

the biotin-avidin interaction: biotinylated probes for Southern and Northern blotting and biotinylated antibodies for Western blotting.

Other Applications

The application of the system for DNA sequencing has recently been reported in different formats (71, 96). In one assay (96), based on the dideoxy chain termination sequencing method, biotinylated primers are used with direct blotting electrophoresis, which facilitates the transfer of the generated DNA fragments from the polyacrylamide gel to a nylon membrane (97, 98). The fragments, all containing the biotinylated primer, are then made visible by using streptavidin—alkaline phosphatase and the NBT-BCIP substrate.

In flow cytometry, biotinylated antibodies are used to react with specific membrane targets; the cells are made fluorescent by further reaction with streptavidin–fluorochrome conjugates. In receptor-hormone studies, the hormone can be biotinylated, provided biotinylation does not alter its ability to bind to the receptor (99). In electron microscopy, ultrastructure can be localized by using specific antibodies and avidin–gold or avidin–ferritin conjugates or unlabeled streptavidin and biotinylated ferritin (31, 100).

More recently, some new reagents have been described for use with the avidin-biotin system. Antibiotin antibodies can be used when the high affinity of the avidin-biotin interaction is not desirable (35). In this case, the biotin moiety is used as a hapten in a manner similar to other "hapten-anti-hapten" systems, e.g., the digoxigenin system (101). Antibodies against avidin and streptavidin have also been prepared and are available conjugated with enzymes or biotinylated. Biotinylated anti-avidin and anti-streptavidin are interesting reagents because they can react with avidin or streptavidin from two different sites. They can thus be used as amplifiers, as described elsewhere (102–105).

Another novel application of the biotin-avidin system has been the facilitated cell fusion for hybridoma production (73). In this method, biotin is attached to the membrane of myeloma cell lines used for hybridoma production. An antigen-avidin conjugate is mixed with the spleen cells suspension that is producing the antigen-specific antibodies. The spleen cells producing antibodies express the antibodies on their surfaces and are selectively labeled with avidin. Mixing the biotinylated myeloma cells and the avidin-labeled antibody-producing spleen cells yields complexes of the form myeloma cell-biotin-avidin-antigen-spleen cell, which will fuse efficiently by electrofusion. The close proximity of myeloma cells with antibody-producing spleen cells (but not non-antibody-producing spleen cells) facilitates greater yields during electrofusion. Alternatively, the myeloma cells can be avidinylated and the antigen of interest can be biotinylated and attached to the antibody-producing spleen cells.

Other interesting applications of the system for targeted imaging and drug delivery in combination with specific antibodies have been reported (10, 106).

In conclusion, the extreme versatility of the avidinbiotin system and the commercial availability of many auxiliary reagents will undoubtedly contribute to the more widespread use of this system in diverse areas of biotechnology.

References

- Green MN. Avidin [Review]. Adv Protein Chem 1975;29:85– 133.
- 2. Bayer EA, Wilchek M. Application of the avidin-biotin technology to affinity-based separations [Review]. J Chromatogr 1990;510:3-11.
- 3. Hsu SM, Raine L, Fanger H. Use of avidin-biotin-peroxidase complex (ABC) in immunoperoxidase techniques. J Histochem Cytochem 1981;29:577-80.
- 4. Diamandis EP, Morton RC. Time-resolved fluorescence using a europium chelate of 4,7-bis(chlorosulfophenyl)-1,10-phenanthroline-2,9-dicarboxylic acid (BCPDA). Labelling procedures and applications in immunoassays. J Immunol Methods 1988;112:43–52.
- Bayer EA, Wilchek M. The use of the avidin-biotin complex as a tool in molecular biology [Review]. Methods Biochem Anal 1980;26:1-45.
- 6. Madri JA, Barwick KW. Use of the avidin-biotin complex in an ELISA system: a quantitative comparison of two other immunoperoxidase detection systems using keratin antisera. Lab Invest 1983:48-98-107
- 7. Shamsuddin AM, Harris CC. Improved enzyme immunoassays using biotin-avidin-enzyme complex. Arch Pathol Lab Med 1983:107:514-7.
- Wilchek M, Bayer EA. The avidin-biotin complex in immunology. Immunol Today 1984;5:39-43.
- 9. Wilchek M, Bayer EA. The avidin-biotin complex in bioanalytical applications [Review]. Anal Biochem 1988;171:1-32.
- 10. Hnatowich DJ, Virzi F, Rusckowski M. Investigations of avidin and biotin for imaging applications. J Nucl Med 1987;28:1294-302.
- 11. Diamandis EP. Analytical methodology for immunoassays and DNA hybridization assays—current status and selected systems. Clin Chim Acta 1990;194:19–50.
- Wilchek M, Bayer EA, eds. Methods of enzymology. Vol. 184.
 New York: Academic Press, 1990.
- DeLange RJ, Huang TS. Egg white avidin. J Biol Chem 1971;246:698-709.
- Gope ML, Keinanen RA, Kristo PA, et al. Molecular cloning of the chicken avidin cDNA. Nucleic Acids Res 1987;15:3595

 –606.
- Hofmann K, Wood SW, Brinton CC, Finn FM. Iminobiotin affinity columns and their application to retrieval of streptavidin. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1980;77:4666–8.
 Orr GA, Heney GC, Zeheb R. Purification of avidin and its
- Orr GA, Heney GC, Zeheb R. Purification of avidin and its derivatives on 2-iminobiotin-6-aminohexyl-Sepharose 4B. Methods Enzymol 1986;122:83–94.
- 17. Fudem-Goldin B, Orr GA. 2-Iminobiotin-containing reagent and affinity columns. Methods Enzymol 1990;184:167-73.
- 18. Bayer EA, Ben-Hur H, Gitlin G, Wilchek M. An improved method for the single-step purification of streptavidin. J Biochem Biophys Methods 1986;13:103–12.
- 19. Green MN. Thermodynamics of the binding of biotin and some analogues by avidin. Biochem J 1966;101:774–80.
- Hiller Y, Gershoni JM, Bayer EA, Wilchek M. Biotin binding to avidin. Biochem J 1987;248:167-71.
- 21. Hiller Y, Bayer EA, Wilchek M. Nonglycosylated avidin. Methods Enzymol 1990;184:68-70.
- 22. Argarana CE, Kuntz ID, Birken S, Axel R, Cantor RC. Molecular cloning and nucleotide sequence of the streptavidin gene. Nucleic Acids Res 1986;14:1871–82.
- 23. Bayer EA, Ben-Hur H, Wilchek M. Isolation and properties of streptavidin. Methods Enzymol 1990;184:80–9.
- 24. Mouton CA, Pang D, Natraj CV, Shater JA. A reagent for covalently attaching biotin to proteins via a cleavable connector arm. Arch Biochem Biophys 1982;218:101-8.
- 25. Shimkus M, Levy T, Herman T. A chemically cleavable biotinylated nucleotide: usefulness in the recovery of protein-DNA complexes from avidin affinity columns. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1985;82:2593–7.

- 26. Gretch DR, Suter M, Stinski MF. The use of biotinylated monoclonal antibodies and streptavidin affinity chromatography of isolated Herpesvirus hydrophobic proteins or glycoproteins. Anal Biochem 1987;163:270–7.
- 27. Ghebrehiwet B, Bossone S. Reversible biotinylation of Clq with a cleavable biotinylated derivative. Application in Clq receptor (ClqR) purification. J Immunol Methods 1988;110:251-60.
- 28. Wilchek M, Bayer EA. Biotin-containing reagents [Review]. Methods Enzymol 1990;184:123–38.
- 29. Becker JM, Wilchek M, Katchalski E. Irreversible inhibition of biotin transport in yeast by biotinyl-p-nitrophenyl ester. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1971;68:2604—7.
- 30. Bayer EA, Wilchek M. Protein biotinylation. Methods Enzymol 1990;184:138-62.
- 31. Heitzmann H, Richards FM. Use of the avidin-biotin complex for specific staining of biological membranes in electron microscopy. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1974;71:3537—41.
- 32. O'Shannessy DJ, Quarles RH. Labeling of the oligosaccharide moieties of immunoglobulins. J Immunol Methods 1987;99:153–61.
- 33. O'Shannessy DJ, Dobersen MJ, Quarles RH. A novel procedure for labeling immunoglobulins by conjugation to oligosaccharide moieties. Immun Lett 1984;8:273–7.
- 34. Langer PR, Waldrop AA, Ward DC. Enzymatic synthesis of biotin-labeled polynucleotides: novel nucleic acid affinity probes. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1981;78:6633–7.
- 35. Brigati DJ, Myerson D, Leary JJ, et al. Detection of viral genomes in cultured cells and paraffin-embedded tissue sections using biotin-labeled hybridization probes. Virology 1983;126:32–50
- 36. Gebeyebu G, Rao PY, SooChan P, Simms DA, Klevan L. Novel biotinylated nucleotide—analogs for labeling and colorimetric detection of DNA. Nucleic Acids Res 1987;15:4513–34.
- 37. Rigas B, Welcher AA, Ward DC, Weissman SM. Rapid plasmid library screening using RecA-coated biotinylated probes. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1986;83:9591–5.
- 38. Freiberg AP, Vogelstein B. A technique for radiolabeling DNA restriction endonuclease fragments to high specific activity. Anal Biochem 1983;132:6–13.
- 39. Forster AC, McInnes JL, Skingle DC, Symons RH. Non-radioactive hybridization probes prepared by the chemical labelling of DNA and RNA with a novel reagent, photobiotin. Nucleic Acids Res 1985;13:745–61.
- 40. Lacey E, Grant WN. Photobiotin as a sensitive probe for protein labeling. Anal Biochem 1987;163:151-8.
- 41. Viscidi RP, Connelly CJ, Yolken RH. Novel chemical method for the preparation of nucleic acids for nonisotopic hybridization. J Clin Microbiol 1986;23:311-7.
- 42. Reisfeld A, Rottenberg JM, Bayer EA, Wilchek M. Non-radioactive hybridization probes prepared by the reaction of biotin hydrazide with DNA. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 1987; 142:519-26.
- 43. Isaacs ST, Shen C-KJ, Hearst JE, Rapoport H. Synthesis and characterization of new psoralen derivatives with superior photoreactivity with DNA and RNA. Biochemistry 1977;16:1058-64.
- 44. Brown DM, Frampton J, Goelet P, Karn J. Sensitive detection of RNA using strand-specific M13 probes. Gene 1982;20:139–44.
- 45. Sheldon EL, Kellogg DE, Watson R, Levenson CH, Erlich HA. Use of nonisotopic M13 probes for genetic analysis: application to HLA class II loci. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1986;83:9085–9.
- 46. Guitteny A-F, Fouque B, Mougin C, Teoule R, Bloch B. Histological detection of messenger RNAs with biotinylated synthetic oligonucleotide probes. J Histochem Cytochem 1988;36:563–71.
- 47. Eshaghpour H, Soll D, Crothers DM. Specific chemical labeling of DNA fragments. Nucleic Acids Res 1979;7:1485–95.
- 48. Brocker TR, Angerer LM, Yen PH, Hershey ND, Davidson N. Electron microscopic visualization of tRNA genes from ferritinavidin: biotin labels. Nucleic Acids Res 1978;5:363–84.
- 49. Richardson RW, Gumport RI. Biotin and fluorescent labeling of RNA using T4 RNA ligase. Nucleic Acids Res 1983;11:6167–84. 50. Agrawal S, Christodoulou C, Gait MJ. Efficient methods for attaching non-radioactive labels to the 5' ends of synthetic oligodeoxyribonucleotides. Nucleic Acids Res 1986;14:6227–45.
- 51. Smith LM, Fung S, Hunkapiller MW, Hunkapiller T, Hood LE. The synthesis of oligonucleotides containing an aliphatic

- amino group at the 5' terminus: synthesis of fluorescent DNA primers for use in DNA sequence analysis. Nucleic Acids Res 1985;13:2399-412.
- 52. Cook AF, Vuocolo E, Brakel CL. Synthesis and hybridization of a series of biotinylated oligonucleotides. Nucleic Acids Res 1988:16:4077-95.
- 53. Jablonski E, Moomaw EW, Tullis RH, Ruth JL. Preparation of oligodeoxynucleotide-alkaline phosphatase conjugates and their use as hybridization probes. Nucleic Acids Res 1986;14:6115–28.
- 54. Haralambidis J, Chai M, Tregear GW. Preparation of base-modified nucleosides suitable for non-radioactive label attachment and their incorporation into synthetic oligodeoxyribonucleotides. Nucleic Acids Res 1987;15:4857–76.
- 55. Roduit J-P, Shaw J, Chollet A, Chollet A. Synthesis of oligodeoxyribonucleotides containing an aliphatic amino linker arm at selected adenine bases and derivatization with biotin. Nucleosides Nucleotides 1987;6:349–52.
- 56. Roget A, Bazin H, Teoule R. Synthesis and use of labelled nucleoside phosphoramidite building blocks bearing a reporter group: biotinyl, dinitrophenyl, pyrenyl and dansyl. Nucleic Acids Res 1989;17:7643–51.
- 57. Pieles U, Sproat BS, Lamm GM. A protected biotin containing deoxycytidine building block for solid phase synthesis of biotiny-lated oligonucleotides. Nucleic Acids Res 1990;18:4355–60.
- 58. Misiura K, Durrant I, Evans MR, Gait MJ. Biotinyl and phosphotyrosinyl phosphoramidite derivatives useful in the incorporation of multiple reporter groups on synthetic oligonucleotides. Nucleic Acids Res 1990;18:4345–54.
- 59. Lanzillo JJ. Preparation of digoxigenin-labeled probes by the polymerase chain reaction. Biotechnology 1990;8:621-2.
- 60. Fenn BJ, Herman TM. Direct quantitation of biotin-labeled nucleotide analogs in RNA transcripts. Anal Biochem 1990;190:78–83.
- 61. Holmstrom K, Rasmussen OF. An easy method to check the efficiency of biotin end-labelling of DNA-fragments. Nucleic Acids Res 1990;18:4632.
- 62. Guesdon JL, Ternynck T, Avrameas S. The use of the avidinbiotin interaction in immunoenzymatic techniques. J Histochem Cytochem 1979;27:1131–9.
- 63. Fehskens E, Burgett MW. Measurement of serum chorionic gonadotropin by a biotin-avidin labeled enzyme immunoassay. Ann Clin Lab Sci 1985;15:241-5.
- 64. Preissner CM, Klee GG, Krco CJ. Non-isotopic sandwich immunoassay of thyroglobulin in serum by the biotin-streptavidin technique: evaluation and comparison with an immunoradiometric assay. Clin Chem 1988;34:1794—8.
- 65. Hazum E. Purification of gonadotropin releasing hormone receptor using the avidin-biotin technique. J Chromatogr 1990; 510:233-8
- 66. Hofmann K, Finn FM, Kiso Y. Avidin-biotin affinity columns. General methods for attaching biotin to pepticdes and proteins. J Am Chem Soc 1978;100:3585–92.
- 67. Odell WD, Griffin J, Zahradnik R. Two-monoclonal-antibody sandwich-type assay for thyrotropin with use of the avidin-biotin separation technique. Clin Chem 1986;32:1873–8.
- 68. Zahradnik R, Brennan G, Hutchison JS, Odell WD. Immunoradiometric assay of corticotropin with use of avidin-biotin separation. Clin Chem 1989;35:804-7.
- 69. Uhlen M. Magnetic separation of DNA. Nature (London) 1989;340:733-4.
- 70. Gabrielsen OS, Hornes E, Korsnes L, Ruet A, Oyen TB. Magnetic DNA affinity purification of yeast transcription factor τ —a new purification principle for the ultrarapid isolation of near homogeneous factor. Nucleic Acids Res 1989;15:6253–67.
- 71. Hultman T, Stahl S, Hornes E, Uhlen M. Direct solid-phase sequencing of genomic and plasmid DNA using magnetic beads as solid support. Nucleic Acids Res 1989;17:4937—46.
- 72. Kvalheim G, Fjeld JG, Pihl A, et al. Immunomagnetic removal of B-lymphoma cells using a novel monosized magnetizable polymer bead, M280, in conjunction with primary IgM and IgG antibodies. Bone Marrow Transplant 1989;4:567-75.
- 73. Lo MMS, Tsong TY, Conrad MK, Strittmatter SM, Hester LD, Snyder SH. Monoclonal antibody production by receptor-mediated electrically induced cell fusion. Nature (London) 1984;310:792-4.
- 74. Diamandis EP. A time-resolved fluorescence immunoassay

- system especially suitable for research applications [Tech Brief]. Clin Chem 1989;35:491.
- 75. Diamandis ÉP, Bhayana V, Conway K, Reichstein E, Papanastasiou-Diamandi A. Time-resolved fluoroimmunoassay of cortisol in serum with a europium chelate as label. Clin Biochem 1988;21:291–6.
- 76. Papanastasiou-Diamandi A, Conway K, Diamandis EP. Digoxin immunoassay with monoclonal and polyclonal antibodies using time-resolved fluorometry. J Pharm Sci 1989;78:617–21.
- 77. Papanastasiou-Diamandi A, Morton RC, Khosravi MJ, Diamandis EP. New assay configurations for competitive-type time-resolved fluoroimmunoassays of haptens [Abstract]. Clin Biochem 1989;22:260–1.
- 78. Tijssen P. Practice and theory of enzyme immunoassays. New York: Elsevier, 1985.
- 79. Shalev A, Greenberg AH, McAlpine PJ. Detection of attograms of antigen by a high-sensitivity enzyme-linked immunoabsorbent assay (HS-ELISA) using a fluorogenic substrate. J Immunol Methods 1980;38:125–39.
- 80. Bronstein I, McGrath P. Chemiluminescence lights up. Nature (London) 1989;338:599–600.
- 81. Bronstein I, Voyta JC, Thorpe GHG, Kricka LJ, Armstrong G. Chemiluminescent assay of alkaline phosphatase applied in an ultrasensitive enzyme immunoassay of thyrotropin. Clin Chem 1989;35:1441–6.
- 82. Soini E, Lövgren T. Time-resolved fluorescence of lanthanide probes and applications in biotechnology [Review]. Crit Rev Anal Chem 1987;18:105–54.
- 83. Dahlen P. Detection of biotinylated DNA probes by using Eu³⁺-labeled streptavidin and time-resolved fluorometry. Anal Biochem 1987;164:78–83.
- 84. Evangelista RA, Pollak A, Allore B, Templeton EF, Morton RC, Diamandis EP. A new europium chelate for protein labelling and time-resolved fluorometric applications. Clin Biochem 1988;21:173—8.
- 85. Khosravi MJ, Diamandis EP. Immunofluorometry of choriogonadotropin by time-resolved fluoroescence spectroscopy, with a new europium chelate as label. Clin Chem 1987;33:1994—9.
- 86. Reichstein E, Morton RC, Diamandis EP. Sensitive timeresolved immunofluorometric assay of thyrotropin in serum. Clin Biochem 1989;22:23–9.
- 87. Reichstein E, Shami Y, Ramjeesingh M, Diamandis EP. Laser-excited time-resolved solid-phase fluoroimmunoassays with the new europium chelate 4,7-bis(chlorosulfophenyl)-1,10-phenanthroline-2,9-dicarboxylic acid as label. Anal Chem 1988;60:1069–74
- 88. Diamandis EP, Morton RC, Reichstein E, Khosravi MJ. Multiple fluorescence labeling with europium chelators. Application to time-resolved fluoroimmunoassays. Anal Chem 1989;61:48–53.
- 89. Morton RC, Diamandis EP. Streptavidin-based macromolecular complex labelled with a europium chelator suitable for time-resolved fluorescence immunoassay applications. Anal Chem 1990:62:1841–5.
- 90. Ishikawa E, Tanaka K, Hashida S, Yamaguchi K, Uno T. Novel and sensitive noncompetitive (two-site) immunoassay for haptens with emphasis on peptides. Clin Biochem 1990;23:445–53.

 91. Daunert S, Bachas LG, Meyerhoff ME. Homogeneous enzymelinked competitive binding assay for biotin based on the avidinbiotin interaction. Anal Chim Acta 1988;208:43–52.
- 92. Bobrow MN, Harris TD, Shaughnessy KJ, Litt GJ. Catalyzed reporter deposition, a novel method of signal amplification. Application to immunoassays. J Immunol Methods 1989;125:279–85.
- 93. Landegren U, Kaiser R, Caskey CT, Hood L. DNA diagnostics—molecular techniques and automation. Science 1988; 242:229–37.
- 94. Keller GH, Manak MM. DNA probes. New York: Stockton Press, 1989.
- 95. Diamandis EP. Detection techniques for immunoassay and DNA probing applications. Clin Biochem 1990;23:437–43.
- 96. Beck S. Colorimetric detected DNA sequencing. Methods Enzymol 1990;184:612-9.
- 97. Church GM, Gilbert W. Genomic sequencing. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1984;81:1991-5.
- 98. Beck S, Pohl FM. DNA sequencing with direct blotting electrophoresis. EMBO J 1984;20:139-44.
- 99. Newman W, Dawson-Beall L, Randhawa Z. Biotinylation of

peptide hormones: structural analysis and applications to flowcytometry. Methods Enzymol 1990;184:275-85.

- 100. Polans AS, Altman LG, Papermaster DS. Immunocytochemical binding of anti-opsin N-terminal-specific antibodies to the extracellular surface of rod outer segment plasma membranes. Fixation induces antibody binding. J Histochem Cytochem 1986;34:659-64.
- 101. Product insert. Nonradioactive DNA labeling and detection kit. Indianapolis: Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals, 1990.
- 102. Simmons PJ, Przepiorka D, Thomas ED, Torob-Storb B. Host origin of marrow stromal cells following allogeneic bone marrow transplantation. Nature (London) 1987;328:429-32.
- 103. Przepiorta D, Myerson D. A single-step silver enhancement method permitting rapid diagnosis of cytomegalovirus infection in formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded tissue sections by in situ hybrid-

- ization and immunoperoxidase detection. J Histochem Cytochem 1986;34:1731-4.
- 104. Pinkel D, Straume T, Gray JW. Cytogenetic analysis using quantitative high-sensitivity, fluorescence hybridization. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1986;83:2934-8.
- 105. Philips HS, Nicolics K, Branton D, Seeburg PH. Immunocytochemical localization in rat brain of a prolactin release-inhibiting sequence of gonadotropin-releasing hormone prohormone. Nature (London) 1985;316:542-5.
- 106. Hakomori S, Young WW Jr, Urdal D. Glycolipid tumor cell markers and their monoclonal antibodies: drug targeting and immunosuppression. In: August JT, ed. Monoclonal antibodies in drug development. Bethesda, MD: Am Soc Pharm Exp Ther, 1982:177-99.