การตรวจหาโปรตีน HPV 16 E6 และ HPV 16 L1 ด้วยวิธี Lateral flow



นางสาวพิชญา หุนานนทศักดิ์



บทคัดย่อและแฟ้มข้อมูลฉบับเต็มของวิทยานิพนธ์ตั้งแต่ปีการศึกษา 2554 ที่ให้บริการในคลังปัญญาจุหาฯ (CUIR) เป็นแฟ้มข้อมูลของนิสิตเจ้าของวิทยานิพนธ์ ที่ส่งผ่านทางบัณฑิตวิทยาลัย

The abstract and full text of theses from the academic year 2011 in Chulalongkorn University Intellectual Repository (CUIR) are the thesis authors' files submitted through the University Graduate School.

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาวิทยาศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาจุลชีววิทยาทางการแพทย์ (สหสาขาวิชา) บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย ปีการศึกษา 2557 ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

DETECTION OF HPV 16 E6 AND HPV 16 L1 PROTEINS BY LATERAL FLOW ASSAY

Miss Phitchaya Hunanonthasak



จุฬาสงกรณมหาวทยาลย Chulalongkorn University

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science Program in Medical Microbiology (Interdisciplinary Program) Graduate School Chulalongkorn University Academic Year 2014 Copyright of Chulalongkorn University

Thesis Title	DETECTION OF HPV 16 E6 AND HPV 16 L1 PROTEINS		
	BY LATERAL FLOW ASSAY		
Ву	Miss Phitchaya Hunanonthasak		
Field of Study	Medical Microbiology		
Thesis Advisor	Associate Professor Parvapan Bhattarakosol, Ph.D.		
Thesis Co-Advisor	Assistant Professor Amornpun Sereemaspun, M.D.,		
	Ph.D.		
	Associate Professor Somchai Niruthisard, M.D.		

Accepted by the Graduate School, Chulalongkorn University in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Master's Degree

Dean of the Graduate School

(Associate Professor Sunait Chutintaranond, Ph.D.)

THESIS COMMITTEE ______Chairman (Associate Professor Ariya Chindamporn, Ph.D.) ______Thesis Advisor (Associate Professor Parvapan Bhattarakosol, Ph.D.) ______Thesis Co-Advisor (Assistant Professor Amornpun Sereemaspun, M.D., Ph.D.) ______Thesis Co-Advisor (Associate Professor Somchai Niruthisard, M.D.) ______Thesis Co-Advisor

(Professor Wasun Chantratita, Ph.D.)

พิชญา หุนานนทศักดิ์ : การตรวจหาโปรตีน HPV 16 E6 และ HPV 16 L1 ด้วยวิธี Lateral flow (DETECTION OF HPV 16 E6 AND HPV 16 L1 PROTEINS BY LATERAL FLOW ASSAY) อ.ที่ ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก: รศ. ดร. ภาวพันธ์ ภัทรโกศล, อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์ร่วม: ผศ. ดร. นพ. อมรพันธุ์ เสรีมาศพันธุ์, รศ. นพ. สมชัย นิรุตติศาสน์, 79 หน้า.

มะเร็งปากมดลูกเป็นโรคมะเร็งที่คร่าชีวิตของผู้หญิงเป็นอันดับที่ 4 ของผู้หญิงทั่วโลก โดยสัมพันธ์กับ การคงอยู่ของการติดเชื้อไวรัสแปปิโลมา (Human Papillomavirus; HPV) โดยเฉพาะชนิด 16 ซึ่งพบได้มากกว่า ้ร้อยละ 50 ของผ้ป่วย ในการศึกษานี้พบ HPV DNA ในตัวอย่างป้ายปากมดลกจำนวน 185 ตัวอย่าง (ร้อยละ 71.71) จาก 258 ตัวอย่างซึ่งแบ่งระดับความผิดปกติเป็น CIN I (ร้อยละ 66.18),CIN II (ร้อยละ 69.57), CIN III (ร้อยละ 81.25) และมะเร็ง (ร้อยละ 79.10) โดยพบความชุกของ HPV 16 ต่อตัวอย่างที่ติดเชื้อร้อยละ 28.11 (52/185) และความชุกสูงสุดพบในตัวอย่างมะเร็งร้อยละ 49.06 (26/53) ปัจจุบันการตรวจคัดกรองโรคมะเร็ง ปากมดลูกใช้วิธีตรวจทางเซลล์วิทยาและการตรวจหาเชื้อ HPV ซึ่งใช้เวลานาน ต้องการแพทย์ผู้เชี่ยวชาญ และ เครื่องมือพิเศษ ระหว่างการพัฒนาเป็นมะเร็งนั้น จะมีการแสดงออกของโปรตีนก่อมะเร็ง E6 ในปริมาณสูง ในขณะที่การพบโปรตีน L1 บ่งบอกถึงระยะการสร้างอนุภาคใหม่ของไวรัส ดังนั้นการตรวจหาโปรตีน HPV 16 E6 น่าจะช่วยในการบ่งชี้ระยะแรกของการพัฒนาเป็นมะเร็ง และการตรวจหาโปรตีน L1 ช่วยในการบ่งชี้ระยะการติด เชื้อของไวรัสได้ เนื่องจากวิธี lateral flow assay เป็นวิธีที่ทำได้ง่าย รวดเร็ว ราคาถก และไม่ต้องการเครื่องมือ ในการศึกษาครั้งนี้จึงทำการพัฒนาวิธี lateral flow assay โดยอาศัยหลักการ sandwich immunochromatography ร่วมกับอนภาคนาโนทองคำที่เชื่อมต่อกับแอนติบอดีเพื่อตรวจหาโปรตีน HPV 16 E6 และ HPV 16 L1 โดยทำการผลิตโปรตีน HPV 16 E6 และ HPV 16 L1 ขึ้นเพื่อเป็นตัวอย่างควบคุมชนิดบวก การ พัฒนาวิธี lateral flow assay เพื่อตรวจหา HPV 16 L1 ล้มเหลวเนื่องจากการมีอยู่ของ urea จึงพัฒนาเฉพาะ วิธีการตรวจหา HPV 16 E6 เท่านั้น ทำการทดสอบหาสภาวะที่เหมาะสมของแอนติบอดีที่ใช้เชื่อมต่อกับอนภาค นาโนทองคำ (1-10 µg/ml gold), ขนาดของอนุภาคนาโนทองคำ (10 และ 40 นาโนเมตร), ชนิดของแอนติบอดี (polyclonal และ monoclonal) และสารละลาย blocking (3% PEG และ 10% BSA) สุดท้ายพบว่าใช้แอนติบอดี ชนิด mouse monoclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 เชื่อมต่อกับอนุภาคนาโนทองคำที่ความเข้มข้น 10 µg/ml gold, แอนติบอดีชนิด rabbit polyclonal anti- HPV 16 E6 ตรึงบริเวณเส้น test line และแอนติบอดีชนิด goat polyclonal anti-mouse ตรึงบริเวณเส้น control line สามารถสังเกตผลได้ด้วยตาเปล่าภายใน 15 นาที ้นอกจากนี้พบว่าอนภาคนาโนทองคำขนาด 40 นาโนเมตรให้ความไวของการทดสอบ (5 µg) มากกว่าขนาด 10 นาโนเมตร (20 µg) และไม่พบความจำเพาะต่อ HPV 18, 39 และ 45 แต่อย่างไรก็ตาม วิธีที่ได้พัฒนาขึ้นนี้มี ความไวต่ำมากและไม่สามารถนำไปใช้ตรวจสอบกับตัวอย่างผู้ป่วยได้ จึงเป็นความท้าทายที่จะพยายามพัฒนา วิลีให้มีความไวเพิ่มขึ้นต่คไป

สาขาวิชา	จุลชีววิทยาทางการแพทย์	ลายมือชื่อนิสิต
ปีการศึกษา	2557	ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาหลัก
		ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาร่วม
		ลายมือซื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาว่วม

5587151320 : MAJOR MEDICAL MICROBIOLOGY

KEYWORDS: LATERAL FLOW / GOLD NANOPARTICLES / HPV 16 E6 / HPV 16 L1

PHITCHAYA HUNANONTHASAK: DETECTION OF HPV 16 E6 AND HPV 16 L1 PROTEINS BY LATERAL FLOW ASSAY. ADVISOR: ASSOC. PROF. PARVAPAN BHATTARAKOSOL, Ph.D., CO-ADVISOR: ASST. PROF. AMORNPUN SEREEMASPUN, M.D., Ph.D., ASSOC. PROF. SOMCHAI NIRUTHISARD, M.D., 79 pp.

Cervical cancer, the fourth leading cause of cancer death in women worldwide, is associated with the persistence of Human Papillomarus (HPV) infection especially type 16 which covered more than 50% of the cases. In this study, HPV DNA was detected in 185 (71.71%) of 258 cervical swab samples with CIN I (66.18%), CIN II (69.57%), CIN III (81.25%) and SCC, (79.10%). The prevalence of HPV 16 among HPV DNA positive samples was 28.11% (52/185) and the highest prevalence was found in SCC 49.06% (26/53). Nowadays, the screening methods for cervical cancer are based on cytology and HPV detection which are time consuming, require pathologist and special equipments. During cancer development, high expression of E6 oncoprotein is demonstrated while the presence of L1 protein implies the productive stage. Thus detection of HPV 16 E6 might be helpful for early detection of cancer development and that of L1 protein helps in determining the stage of viral infection. Since the lateral flow assay is simple, rapid, cost-effective and no instrument requirement, in this study, a lateral flow assay based on sandwich immunochromatography combining gold nanoparticle-antibody conjugates was developed to detect HPV 16 E6 and L1 proteins. Recombinant HPV 16 E6 and L1 proteins were expressed and used as positive controls in the lateral flow assay. The lateral flow assay for detecting HPV 16 L1 was unsuccessfully developed because of the presence of urea. The developed HPV 16 E6 protein test has been only established. The antibody conjugated with AuNPs (1-10 µg/ml gold), sizes of AuNPs (10 and 40 nm), type of antibodies (polyclonal and monoclonal), and blocking solution (3% PEG and 10% BSA) were optimized. Finally, the mouse monoclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 conjugated AuNPs at the concentration of 10 µg/ml gold, rabbit polyclonal anti- HPV 16 E6 at the captured test line and goat polyclonal anti-mouse at the control line demonstrated the optimal condition providing the signal within 15 min observed by naked eyes. The 40-nm AuNPs gave better sensitivity of detection (5 µg) than the 10-nm AuNPs (20 µg). No cross reactions were found with HPV18, 39, and 45. Although, this developed assay showed very low sensitivity and was unable to test with clinical specimens, the challenge to improve the sensitivity should be further attempted.

Field of Study: Medical Microbiology Academic Year: 2014

Student's Signature
Advisor's Signature
Co-Advisor's Signature
Co-Advisor's Signature

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude and deep appreciation to my advisor Associate Professor Parvapan Bhattarakosol, Ph.D., Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University for her invaluable advice, helpful guidance, constructive criticism, indispensable help, and encouragement. All of this has enabled me to carry out my study successfully.

I gratefully acknowledge my co-advisors, Assistant Professor Amornpun Sereemaspun, M.D., Ph.D., Department of Anatomy and Associate Professor Somchai Niruthisard, M.D., Department of Gynecology, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University for their kindly advises and suggestions providing throughout this dissertation.

I am greatly indebted to Professor Kavi Ratanabanangkoon, M.D., Ph.D., Director of the Laboratory of Immunology, Chulabhorn Research Institute for his valuable suggestions and Akarin Intaramat, M.Sc., for their helpful criticism, kindness and important support throughout this work.

I also greatly appreciate Asada Leelahavanichkul, M.D., Ph.D., Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University for his kindness, generosity and helpful production of mouse polyclonal antibody.

I am very grateful to the members of the thesis committee for their constructive comments and correction of this thesis.

I also wish to express my gratitude to Arkom Chaiwongkot, Ph.D., Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University for his kindness, helpful suggestions and criticism.

I would like to thank the staffs of Obstetrics and Gynecology Department, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital for their kindness helpful in collection samples. This work would not be accomplished without their support.

I also wish to express special thanks to Natchaya Wongeakin, M.Sc., Fern Baedyananda, MPH, and all my colleges and my friends, whose names cannot be fully listed for their experimental assistance, kind support, and cheerfulness throughout the study.

This study was supported by a grant from National Research Council of Thailand (NRCT) and a Graduate School Thesis Grant, Chulalongkorn University.

Finally, I would like to express my profound gratitude to my parents, my sister and Mr Pakorn Jinorose for their encouragement, understanding, loving and support.

CONTENTS

	Page
THAI ABSTRACT	iv
ENGLISH ABSTRACT	V
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	X
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.	xiv
CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER II OBJECTIVE	3
CHAPTER III REVIEW OF LITERATURE	4
Virology of Human papillomaviruses	4
Pathogenesis of HPV infection	9
Diseases and clinical manifestations	11
Cervical cancer and HPV infection	13
Diagnosis of HPV and cervical cancer	16
Nanotechnology and gold nanoparticles	19
Lateral flow assay	22
CHAPTER IV MATERIALS AND METHODS	24
Part I. Prevalence of HPV type 16 infection in precancerous and cancerous	
lesions	24
1. Clinical specimen	24
2. Extraction of DNA	24

viii

3.	HPV DNA detection and typing	25
Part II. P	reparation of HPV16 E6 and L1 recombinant proteins	25
1.	Plasmid	25
2.	Induction of recombinant proteins	26
3.	Protein Extraction	26
4.	Protein Purification	26
5.	Quantitation of proteins	27
6.	Sodium dodecyl sulphate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-	
	PAGE) and Western blot analysis	28
Part III. F	Preparation of control cell lines	29
1.	Control cell lines and culture	29
2.	Cell lysis	30
Part IV. F	Preparation of gold nanoparticles-antibody conjugate	31
1.	Preparation of gold nanoparticles	
2.	Preparation of antibodies	32
3.	Optimization of the amount of antibody binding to gold nanoparticles	. 33
4.	Preparation of antibody-conjugated gold nanoparticles	33
Part V. L	ateral flow assay	34
CHAPTER	V RESULTS	36
Part I. Pr	evalence of HPV type 16 infection in precancerous and cancerous	
lesio	ns	36
Part II. E	xpression and purification of recombinant proteins	37
1.	HPV16 E6 recombinant proteins	37

Page

2.	HPV16 L1 recombinant proteins
Part III. L	ateral flow assay
1.	Optimal concentration of binding antibody to gold nanoparticles
2.	Optimization of the lateral flow assay41
	2.1 Size of AuNPs41
	2.2 Type of antibodies used in Lateral flow device
	2.3 Blocking solution
3.	Sensitivity of the assay
4.	Specificity of the assay50
5.	Attempts for improvement51
CHAPTER	VI DISCUSSION
REFERENC	ES
APPENDIC	ES
VITA	

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Human papillomavirus gene functions	6
Table 2	Clinical manifestations associated HPV types1	2
Table 3	The Bethesda Classification System for cervical squamous cell dysplasia 1	5
Table 4	Nanotechnologies with potential applications in molecular diagnostics2	20
Table 5	The application of lateral flow assay in infectious agent detection2	23
Table 6	Standard cell lines used in control experiment	30
Table 7	List of antibodies used in this study	32
Table 8	Histological classification and HPV positive	6
Table 9	The results of optimization of the lateral flow assay conditions4	3

LIST OF FIGURES

 Figure 1
 Map of HPV type 16 genome. LCR: Long control region; E1-E7: Early region;

 L1-L2: Late region .
 6

Figure 4 The E6 protein of HPV can bind with p53 and accelerate degradation of p53 via ubiquitin protease system. The E7 protein can disrupt the complex between pRB and E2F. The complex of E7/pRB releases the E2F to free form and continues its function as a transcription factor to activate DNA synthesis and cell proliferation....10

Figure 6 Schematic picture of protein adsorption onto colloidal gold particles21

 Figure 8 SDS-PAGE stained with coomasie blue (A) and western bolt determined by chemilluminescence (B) of GST-HPV 16 E6 from whole cell lysate (WCL) of E. coli BL-21 (DE3). Lane 1; non-induced WCL, lane 2 and 3; IPTG induced WCL from lot 1 and 2, respectively, (C) WB of proteins through GST affinity chromatography, lane 1; non-induced condition, lane 2; IPTG induced condition. M; molecular weight markers. . 37

Figure 11 Photograph of the AuNPs conjugation with mouse monoclonal antibody against HPV 16 E6 at various concentrations (0-9 µg/ml gold).40

 Figure 15 The results of compared blocking solution between 10% BSA and 3% PEG



Chulalongkorn University

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APS	Ammonium persulfate
ASC	Atypical squamous cells
ATCC	American Type Culture Collection
AuNPs	Gold nanoparticles
BSA	Bovine serum albumin
pp	Base pair
CaCx	Cervical carcinoma
°C	Degree Celsius
CFTR	Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator
CIN	Cervical intraepithelial neoplasia
cm	Centimeter
DDW	Deionized distilled water
DI	Deionized
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
DW	Distilled water
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
EIA	Enzyme linked immunoassay
ELISA	Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay
FDA	Food and Drug Administration
GST	Glutathione S-transferase
h	Hour
HAuCl ₄	Chloroauric acid
HBV	Hepatitis B virus
HCI	Hydrocolic acid
hCG	Human chorionic gonadotropin
HEPES	N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-N-2-ethane sulfonic acid
HPV	Human Papillomavirus

HSIL	High-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions
IgG	Immunoglobulin G
IPTG	Isopropylthiogalactoside
KCI	Potassium chloride
kDa	Kilodalton
KH ₂ HPO ₄	Dipotassium hydrogen phosphate
LB	Luria-Bertani
LCR	Long control region
LSIL	Low-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions
Μ	Molar
mRNA	Messenger ribonucleic acid
min	Minute
ml	Milliliter
mM	Millimolar
MWCO	Molecular-weight cutoff
mV	Millivolt
Na ₂ HPO ₄	Sodium phosphate
NCM	Nitrocellulose membrane
nm	Nanometer
NMSCs	Non-melanoma skin cancers
OD	Optical density
ORF	Opening reading frame
Рар	Papanicolaou-stained
PBS	Phosphate buffered saline
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
PVDF	Polyvinylidene fluoride
Rb	Retinoblastoma protein
rcf	Relative centrifugal force
RFLP	Restriction fragment length polymorphism

RIA	Radioimmunoprecipitation assay
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
rpm	Revolutions per minute
RT	Room temperature
sec	Second
SCC	Squamous cell carcinoma
SDS	Sodium dodecyl sulphate
SDS-PAGE	Sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
TBS	Tris buffer saline
TTBS	Tris Buffered Saline and Tween 20
TEMED	Tetramethylethylenediamine
μΙ	Microliter
μg	Microgram
URR	Upstream regulatory region
WCL	Whole cell lysate

จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย Chulalongkorn University

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Human Papillomavirus (HPV) belongs to the *Papillomaviridae* family. The viral genome consists of a circular double-stranded DNA that contains several functional early genes (E1-E7), two late structural genes (L1-L2) and noncoding upstream regulatory region. Early genes encode proteins that involve in regulating viral replication, transcription and transformation. The late genes encode the major (L1) and minor (L2) capsid proteins. The E5, E6 and E7 proteins are the oncoproteins that play important role in malignant transforming of the infrectected cells. The E6 and E7 proteins can bind and inhibit function of tumor suppressor proteins p53 and pRB, respectively (1, 2). Several studies indicated that HPV is a causative agent of cervical cancer since Zur Hausen identified the association between HPV infection and cervical cancer in the 1970s (3). HPV DNA is found in more than 90% of cervical cancer (4-6). Up to date, over 170 types of HPV are recognized which 30-40 types are associated with anogenital infection. Approximately 30 types of anogenital HPV are in high risk group especially HPV 16 and 18, which are the most prevalent types at least 70-80% found in cervical cancer (7, 8).

Cervical cancer is the third most common diagnosed cancer and is the fourth leading cause of cancer death in women worldwide. There are more than 528,000 new cases of cervical cancer and approximately 266,000 deaths due to cervical cancer each year. More than 85% of the global burden occurs in developing countries, including Thailand (9). Nowadays, the diagnostic method of cervical cancer is based on the detection of cervical cell dysplasia and HPV DNA or mRNA. The clinical appearance of cervical cancer is observed for changing in cells of transform zone of cervix by cytology and histology. However, this method has some limitations. The results take time and false negative rate as high as 20-30% has been reported due to clumping cells. In contrast to HPV DNA detection, the method has high sensitivity and specificity but requires special instruments, experience technician and very expensive (10, 11). Moreover, the presence of HPV DNA does not always correlate to the cancer development. Previous studies strongly indicated that HPV E6 oncoprotein is overexpressed in cervical cancer cells (12); therefore a test to detect HPV E6 mRNA has been developed for early detection of cancer development stage. The recent FDA approval of Aptima HPVE6/E7 RNA test is a significant application of E6/E7 as specific markers for cervical cancer screening (13). However, RNA is inclined to degrade and its detection requires expensive instrument and complicated procedures. Besides mRNA, the protein is also another target for cancer screening test. The screening test based on the direct detection of E6 oncoprotein may have advantages for early detection of cancer development. In addition to L1 protein detection, it implies the productive stage of infection.

According to Kamonwan (2009), the immunogoldagglutination assay was developed for detecting HPV16 E6 and L1 protein directly from clinical specimen and the result was visibly detected by an agglutinate of the reaction. With nanotechnology, the assay used gold nanoparticle (AuNPs) conjugated with either HPV16 E6 or HPV16 L1 polyclonal antibodies(14). However, this assay has low sensitivity and takes time (overnight). Thus, this study aims to improve the sensitivity and time of the detection by using the lateral flow assay instead of agglutination assay.

The lateral flow assay based on the principle of immunochromatography exists for a wide array of target analytes. The first test was made for the detection of human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) (15). This method is simple, rapid, cost-effective and possibly future to be point-of-care test especially combining with gold nanoparticles, which are the most frequently used for developing biomarker platforms especially in clinical diagnostics. Gold nanoparticles have high surface areas and unique physiochemical properties. Several approaches are based on color changes of AuNPs upon aggregation. In addition, it can be tailored with a wide variety of surface functionalization to selectively bind biomarkers and also be coupled with metal deposition for signal enhancement (16-18).

The purpose of this study was to develop a lateral flow assay using AuNPsconjugated antibodies against either HPV 16 E6 or L1 proteins.

CHAPTER II

OBJECTIVE

The objective of this study is to develop the gold nanoparticles lateral flow strip assay for detection of human papillomavirus type 16 E6 and L1 proteins.



จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย Chulalongkorn University

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Virology of Human papillomaviruses

HPV is a small DNA virus belonging to the *Papillomaviridae* family. The virus is a non-enveloped, icosahedral symmetric virus about 55 nm in size. The HPV genome is a circular double-stranded DNA approximately 8 kb in length and divided into three regions, i.e., Long control region (LCR), early region, and late region (Figure 1). A noncoding upstream regulatory region (URR) or long control region (LCR) contains the origin of replication and transcription factor binding sites for repressors and activators that regulate DNA replication by controlling the transcription of opening reading frame (ORF). An early region, encoding of early proteins (E1, E2, E4, E5, E6, and E7), plays role in viral replication, transcription and oncogenesis especially E5-E7. A late region encodes two structural proteins for the viral capsid, i.e., major capsid protein (L1) and minor capsid protein (L2). The function of HPV genes are listed in Table 1 (1, 2).

HPV can be classified into various types based on the degree of genetic relatedness. HPV type is defined as having less than 90% nucleotide sequence homology of the L1, E6 and E7 ORFs to any other HPV types. Up to date, more than 170 types of HPV have been classified on the basis of DNA sequence. An updated phylogenetic analysis using metagenomic sequencing including all 170 HPV types, as well as single animal papillomaviruses, is presented in Figure 2 (7).

Besides typing by genetic similarity, HPV can also be classified according to their tissue tropism, resulting in two groups: cutaneous and mucosal HPV groups. The cutaneous HPV group (such as HPV 2, 5, 8, 24, 27, 57 and 93) (19) is commonly found in several skin lesions such as benign skin warts (20), non-melanoma skin cancers (NMSCs) (21), and also commonly detected on healthy skin (22). The mucosal HPV group is found in the oral mucosa, respiratory tract, conjunctiva, and anogenital tract. Among those anogenital HPVs, they can be divided by their association with cancer in two groups (23).

First, non-oncogenic or low-risk HPV types such as HPV 6, 11, 40, 42, 43, 44, 53, 54, 61, 72, 73 and 81, can cause benign or low-grade abnormalities of cervical cells, anogenital warts, and a disease of the respiratory tract called recurrent respiratory papillomatosis (RRP). Second, oncogenic or high-risk HPV types including types 16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58, 59 and 68 can cause intraepithelial neoplasia of the anogenital region, including cervical, vulvar, vaginal, penile, and anal cancers. HPV type 16 and 18 are the most closely associated with cervical carcinoma (1, 7, 23).

The progression of the life cycle of HPV depends on the differentiation of host cell. HPV infects the basal layer of squamous epithelium cells via micro-abrasion and interacts with heparin sulphate proteoglycans (24, 25) as a specific viral receptor on host cell surface. At the initially infected state, the nonproductive stage is usually found, the viral DNA is maintained in the nuclei of infected basal epithelial cells as a low copy number (50 \sim 100 copies per cell) (26). After leaving the basal membrane, the infected cells initiate the differentiation program. The E1 and E2 viral proteins are essential and play role in maintenance the viral DNA as episome. In the upper layers of the stratified epithelium, the viral genome is replicated to a high copy number per cell (27). When host cells proliferate to terminal differentiation, the synthesis of capsid proteins is triggered. The genomes are encapsidated to form progeny virions. Finally, the virions release out of the cells by cell lysis. The shed virions can re-infect the basal epithelium or spread to new hosts (Figure 3) (6, 28, 29).

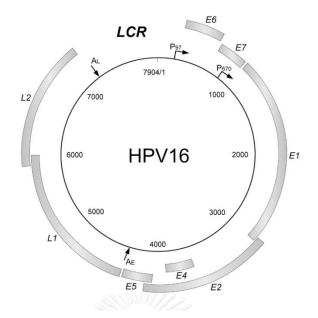


 Figure 1 Map of HPV type 16 genome. LCR: Long control region; E1-E7: Early region;

 L1-L2: Late region (30).

Table 1	Human	papillomavirus	gene	functions

gene	Function
E1	Helicase, ATPase, ATP-binding protein essential for viral DNA replication
E2	Viral transcription factor
	Binding E1 to facilitate initiation of viral DNA replication important in
	genome encapsidation
E4	Interacts with cytoskeletal proteins, allows viral assembly
E5	Weak transforming activity, up-regulates growth factor receptors
E6	Binds p53, directs p53 ubiqutin-mediated degradation with E7
	immobilizes primary keratinocytes
E7	Binds retinoblastoma protein, deregulates the G1/S checkpoint
L1	Major capsid protein
L2	Minor capsid protein

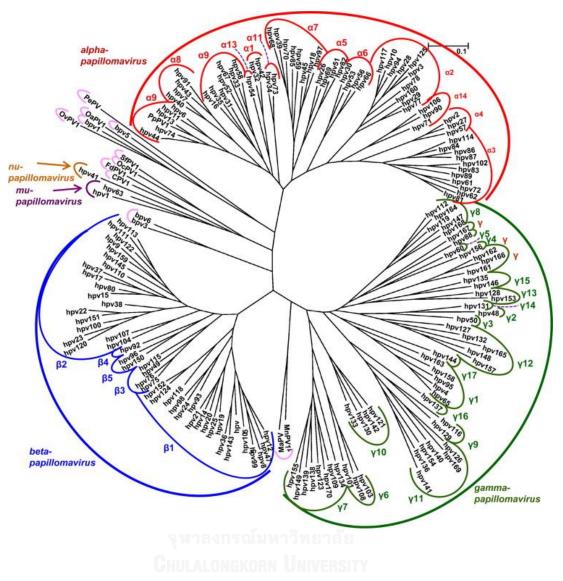


Figure 2 Phylogenetic tree containing the sequences of 170 HPV types, single animal papillomaviruses and newly identified human papillomaviruses using metagenomic sequencing (7).

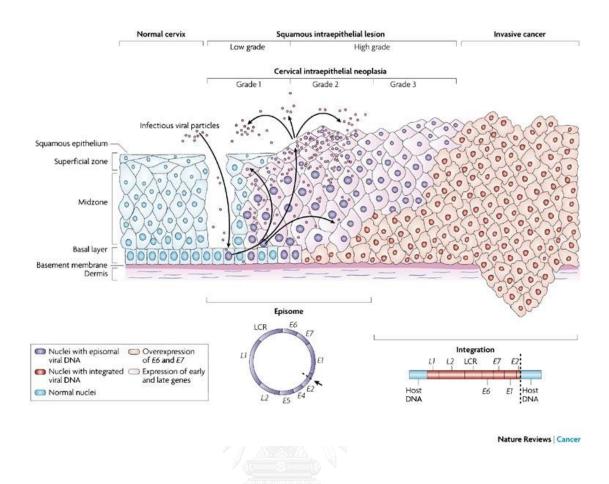
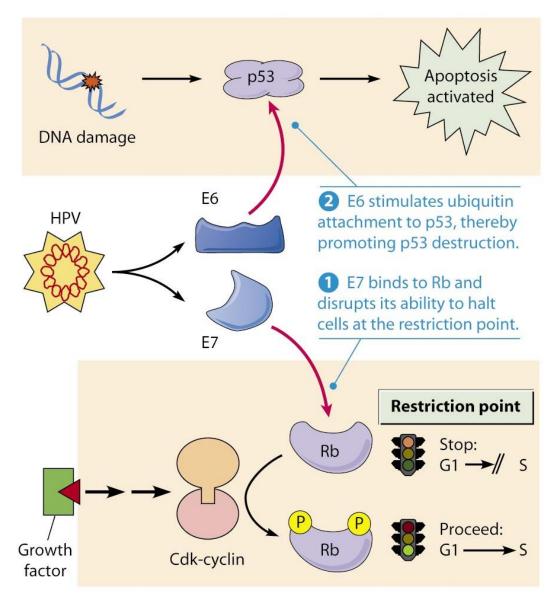


Figure 3 HPV mediated progression to cervical cancer. Uninfected epithelium is shown on the left and HPV infected epithelium is shown on the right. HPV is thought to access the basal cells through micro-abrasions in the cervical epithelium. In the nonproductive stage, early genes are expressed and viral DNA replicates from episome in the lower layers of epithelium. The productive stage occurs in the upper layer (the mid and superficial zone). The late genes are expressed and immensed DNA replication. L1 and L2 encapsudated newly synthesized viral genomes. The virus that is shed can re-infect the basal epithelium or spread to new hosts (6).

Pathogenesis of HPV infection

Transmission of HPV occurs primarily by skin-to-skin contact. All HPV types have a high degree of tissue specificity. Squamous epithelial cells are target of HPV infection. The beginning of HPV replication begins with viral entry through to require mild abrasion or microtrauma of the epidermis. In the basal layers, the viral replication is considered and established itself by using the host DNA replication. The early proteins are expressed and the viral DNA replicates from episomal DNA. In the upper layer, the virus synthesizes late proteins, as the capsid proteins, and viral assembly occurs. HPV infection has been associated with benign and malignant lesion. In benign lesion, HPV DNA is not integrated to the host DNA but rather persists as extrachromosomal (episomal) DNA, whereas in most malignant lesion, the HPV DNA integrate into the host cell chromosome. Most of integration occurs in E1/E2 region of HPV genome leading to loss function of E2 protein which plays important role in regulating the expression of E6 and E7 proteins. Under this condition, the deregulation of E6 and E7 genes result in increased E6 and E7 proteins expression leading to cellular transformation (Figure 3). The E6 and E7 oncoproteins play a central role in HPV dependent malignant transformation. The E6 and E7 proteins are able to bind and inactivate tumor suppressor proteins, p53 and pRB respectively, and also cell cyclins and cyclin-dependent kinase (1, 31, 32). In high-risk HPV types, the E6 and E7 proteins have a high affinity for p53 and pRB resulting in disruption the normal functions of these cellular proteins leading to an increased proliferation rate, cellular immortalization and genomic instability (Figure 4) (33, 34). In addition, potential mechanisms contribute to transformation in cellular pathway including methylation of viral and cellular DNA, telomerase activation, hormonal and immune factors (34, 35). Clinical and histopathologic evidences of HPV infection usually develop one to eight months after initial exposure. However, the progression and outcome of HPV infection depend on HPV type, location of infection, and tissue tropism (4).



Copyright © 2009 Pearson Education, Inc.

Figure 4 The E6 protein of HPV can bind with p53 and accelerate degradation of p53 via ubiquitin protease system. The E7 protein can disrupt the complex between pRB and E2F. The complex of E7/pRB releases the E2F to free form and continues its function as a transcription factor to activate DNA synthesis and cell proliferation. (From http://liveonearth.livejournal.com/612978.html accession date July 16, 2015)

Diseases and clinical manifestations

Most HPV infections are asymptomatic and result in no clinical disease. Clinical manifestations of HPV infection are associated with a wide range of disease processed, from benign verrucae vulgares, respiratory laryngeal papillomatosis, and condylomata acuminata to the malignancies of the cervix, anus, vagina, vulva, penile, and some head and neck. These variety of skin manifestations depend on HPV type (Table 2) (36). Diseases associated with HPV can be divided into skin and mucosal lesions of the genital and extragenital regions.

Anogenital HPV infection is recognized as the cause of anogenital warts which are usually found at penis, scrotum, pubic region, under the prepuce, glans and coronae sulcus, and rectal area in men, while in women are on vulva, vagina introitus, perineal area and cervix. Mostly isolated types are HPV 6, 11, 16 and 33 which are in low-risk group. The precancerous lesions represent dysplasia and atypical mitoses of basal cells which correlated with high-risk HPV infection in 90% of cases. Moreover, HPV infection plays role in the development of anogential cancers. The most common HPV types that associate with cervical cancer are high-risk HPV types 16 and 18 (34, 36-38).

Nongenital HPV infection is caused by cutaneous and mucosal HPV types. The most commonly seen cutaneous HPV lesion is the common wart or verruca vulgaris, caused by several low-risk HPV types, such as HPV 1, 2, 4, 27, and 57. Warts can occur anywhere on the skin surface. Other types of lesions include Epidermodysplasia verruciformis (EV), autosomal-recessive genetic disorder characterized by impaired cellular immunity to HPV infection. More than 90% of cases contain HPV types 5 or 8 (39). In addition, HPV infection can induce malignant mucosal lesions of oral cavity, respiratory tract, esophagus, and eyes. The HPV type 1-4, 6 and 11 are most commonly found in benign skin lesions, while type 16 and 18 are most found in cancers. (36-38, 40)

Manifestation	HPV types	
Anogenital lesions		
Genital wart (condylomata acuminata)	6, 11, 30, 42, 43, 44, 45, 51, 52, 54	
Bowenoid papulosis	16, 18, 34, 39, 42, 45	
Bowen disease	16, 18, 31, 34	
Gigantski kondilom (Buschke-Löwenstein)	6, 11	
Low-grade intraepithelial neoplasias	6, 11, 43	
High-grade intraepithelial neoplasias	16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 42, 44, 45, 51, 52,	
Invasive cancer	53, 56, 58, 59, 62, 66	
Nongenital skin lesions		
Common wart (verrucae vulgaris)	1, 2, 4, 26, 27, 29, 41, 57, 60, 63, 65	
Plantar wart	1, 2, 4, 63	
Flat wart (verrucae plana)	3, 10, 27, 28, 29, 38, 41, 49	
Mosaic wart	2, 27, 57	
Epidermodysplasia verruciformis	3, 4, 5a, 5b, 8, 9, 12, 14, 15, 17, 19-25, 36-	
	38, 47, 49, 50, etc.	
Nonmelanoma skin cancer (basal cell	8, 15, 20, 23, 36, 38	
carcinoma, squamous cell carcinomas,		
Bowen's disease)		
Dysplastic melanocytic naevi and melanoma	2, 16, 33	
Nongenital mucous lesions		
Recurrent laryngeal papillomatosis	6, 11	
Squamous cell lung cancer	6, 11, 16, 18	
Laryngeal cancer	16, 18	
Focal epithelial hyperplasia (Heck disease)	13, 32	
Conjuctival papillomas	6, 11	
Oral warts	2, 4	
Oral condyloma	6, 11	
Florid oral papillomatosis	6, 11	

Table 2 Clinical manifestations associated HPV types

Cervical cancer and HPV infection

Cervical cancer is a disease in which malignant neoplasm cells develop in tissues of the cervix. It may begin as asymptomatic pre-cancerous lesions and develops into invasive cancer over many years. According to the data from Globocan 2012, cervical cancer is the fourth most common cancer in women worldwide, with approximately 528,000 new cases and about 266,000 deaths in each year. More than 85% of the global burden occurs in the developing countries including Thailand (Figure 5) (9). It is now clear that HPV persistent infection is required for the development and maintenance of cervical cancer, and HPV DNA is found in almost all cervical cancers. These cancer-associated HPVs are classified as high-risk HPV types, which HPV16 and 18 are responsible for about 70% of the cervical cancers. HPV16 is the most prevalent high-risk HPV in the general population, and is responsible for approximately 50% of all cervical cancers (8).

The clinical appearance of cervical cancer is based on cytological and colposcopic examination. Cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN) system is classified according to the abnormalities of cervical epithelium detected by histological examination of tissue biopsies into three grades; grades I to III are used to describe the proportion of the thickness of abnormal epithelium cell. CIN I is referred to mild dysplasia and CIN II/III are referred to moderate or severe dysplasia (Table 3) (10, 41). The Bethesda System is classified as grades by cytological examination of cervical smear indicating how much the cervical epithelium is affected and how abnormal cells appear, i.e., atypical squamous cells (ASC), low-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions (LSIL), high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions (HSIL) and carcinoma (Table 3) (10, 41)

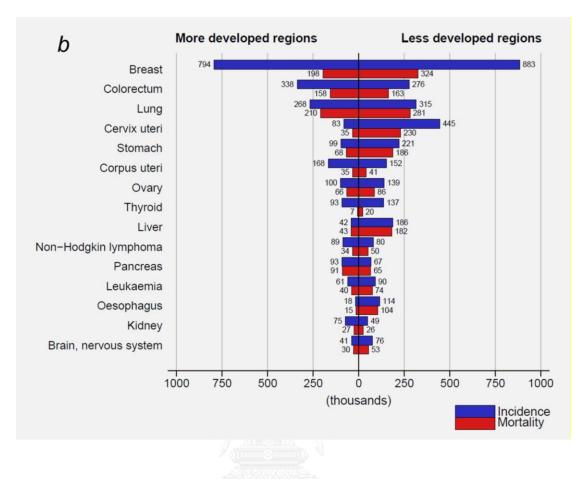


Figure 5 Data from Globocan 2012, cervical cancer is the fourth most common cancer in women worldwide. Estimated numbers (thousands) of new cancer cases (incidence) is shown in blue bar and deaths (mortality) in red bar of women in more developed and less developed regions.

Bethesda System	CIN System	Interpretation
Negative for intraepithelial lesions	Normal	No abnormal cells
or malignancy		
ASC		
ASC-US (atypical squamous		Squamous cells with
cells of undetermined		abnormalities greater than
significance)	31111120	those attributed to reactive
ASC-H (atypical squamous		changes but that do not meet
cells, cannot exclude		the criteria for a squamous
HSIL)		intraepithelial lesion
LSIL	CIN I	Mildly abnormal cells; changes
(low-grade squamous	W Cherry Constant	are almost always due to HPV
intraepithelial lesions)	CONTRACTOR OF	
HSIL	CIN II/III	Moderately to severely
(high-grade squamous and a state	รณ์มหาวิทยาลัย	abnormal squamous cells
intraepithelial lesions with	gkorn University	
features suspicious for invasion)		
Carcinoma	Invasive squamous	The possibility of cancer is
	cell carcinoma,	high enough to warrant
	Invasive glandular	immediate evaluation but does
	cell carcinoma	not mean that the patient
	(adenocarcinoma)	definitely has cancer

 Table 3
 The Bethesda Classification System for cervical squamous cell dysplasia (10)

Diagnosis of HPV and cervical cancer

The majority cause of cervical cancer is associated with the persistent infection of HPV high-risk types; thus, the good marker for diagnosis progress of cervical neoplasia is HPV detection. Because HPV cannot be cultured from clinical specimens, molecular method for HPV nucleic acid detection is necessary to confirm the presence of HPV infection. The conventional method for detection of cervical cancer is based on cytology and histology and methods for diagnosis of HPV infection are HPV DNA or mRNA detection, immunocytochemistry for detection of HPV proteins, electron microscopy, and HPV serology (10).

Conventional Cytology

The Papanicolaou-stained (Pap) smear has been cytology formed the conventional method for screening. This method detects cell dysplasia of transformation zone of the cervix. The specimen was spread directly on the microscope slide by hand. The report of Pap smear is based on the classification of the Bethesda system or CIN system. However, this method has some limitations. False negative rates as high as 20-30% have been reported due to the clumping of cells (10).

Monolayer Cytology

Monolayer Cytology is a method of collection and processing of specimens for Pap smears. It was developed to reduce the number of false-negative results. The preservative solution has to be used to collect the specimen. In this method, the cellular structure is better preserved because the cells are immediately fixed. The FDA has approved the devices that used in automatically staining. The results showed statistically significant improvement in the use as diagnostic test with increased sensitivity in detecting the epithelial cell abnormality.

Histopathology

In histopathology, patients with abnormal Pap smear findings who do not have a gross cervical lesion are usually evaluated by colposcopy and colposcopy-directed biopsy. Low-grade and high-grade dysplasias have been detected by colposcopy, but do not detect microinvasive disease. Biopsy can be used to confirm most diagnosis by observing epithelial hyperplasia (10).

HPV nucleic acid detection

The nucleic acid of HPV can be detected in specimens by various methods. The methods can be divided into non-amplified techniques and amplified techniques. Non-amplified techniques such as hybridization assay which is based on the use of labeled probes that specifically hybridize to intracellular HPV DNA. The probes are labeled with radioactive or non- radioactive compounds. However, the sensitivity of this method is limited and this technique is time-consuming (42). Southern blot or dot spot hybridization can identify HPV genotypes directly from specimen using type-specific probes in multiple *in situ* hybridization experiments. Nevertheless, the technique is low sensitivity, labor intensive and unsuitable for high throughput screening (43).

Nucleic acid amplification methods have been developed such as type specific primer polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and general primers PCR. Type specific PCR assays are based on the E6 and E7 genes of HPV subtypes. The sensitivity of these assays is 10-200 HPV copies per sample depending on HPV type. General primers PCR using consensus primers amplify a broad spectrum of HPV types in PCR amplification. These primers target conserved regions of the HPV L1 capsid gene. Various methods have been used to identify HPV genotypes after amplification with general and consensus primers such as sequence analysis, restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP), and hybridization with type-specific probes. Up to date, several new HPV detection assays have been commercialized incluing Cobas[™] HPV test, real-time PCR and CLART HPVDNA genotyping test (Genomica). The Hybrid Capture II

method is a signal amplified technique which uses probe hybridization and hybrid capture. The Hybrid Capture II method hybridizes full-length stabilized RNA probes of high-risk HPV types with the denatured target DNA followed by detection with antibodies and chemiluminescence. In addition, HPV mRNA testing is another promising option with potentially higher specificity and HPV mRNA test (Aptima) is now commercial available (10, 13, 44). The molecular methods for detecting of HPV nucleic acid have high sensitivity and high specificity. However, the method requires special instruments, experience technician and very expensive cost.

HPV Antigen detection

Detection of HPV antigen usually detected the late structural proteins by immunocytochemistry that can be applied to any tissue biopsies. It can confirm the presence of HPV induced morphological changes. These methods are highly specific for L1 capsid protein in superficial epithelial cells, but the sensitivity is less than HPV nucleic acid detection methods (10).

HPV antibody detection

Determination of sero-reactivity against targets other than the viral capsid proteins, such as E6, E2, E4 and E7 proteins, have been established in different formats, including Western blot, enzyme linked immunoassay (EIA), and radioimmunoprecipitation assay(RIA) (45). Although several studied showed HPV antibodies are generally more detectable in patients with HPV associated lesion than in control, HPV antibodies are not detectable in all patients with HPV pathology(10).

Nanotechnology and gold nanoparticles

Nanotechnology is the study of controlling of matter on the nanometer-length scale. It is creation and utilization of materials, devices, and systems within various applications such as in life sciences, medicine, electronic and energy production. Various nanotechnologies and their applications in life sciences have been used in molecular diagnostics under term nanodiagnostics. Molecular diagnostic technologies are used in biological research, detection of bioterrorism agents, clinical diagnostics, drug discovery and development, as well as in monitoring of treatment including novel methods such as gene therapy and RNA interference. The potential applications in molecular diagnostics are listed in Table 4. Nanotechnology is approached to manufacturing nanomaterials at the atomic and molecular level such as nanoparticles. It has a size from 1 to 100 nm in at least one dimension that has high surface area and unique physiochemical properties and easily tuned. It makes them useful tools in diagnostics and ideal candidates for producing biomarker platforms. Gold nanoparticles may improve technique suitable for application in clinical diagnosis with increased sensitivity at lower cost (16). The colloid gold which is directly visible to naked eye can be useful for developing rapid test. The tailoring of gold nanoparticle's surface by fabricating monolayer-protected nanoparticles has been employed in the rational design of peptide capping ligands (17). The proposed combinatorial approach enables the synthesis of exceptionally stable AuNPs with properties in aqueous media that are modulated by the amino acid sequence of the appended cysteine-terminated penta-peptide (18). Conjugation of gold nanoparticles with bio molecule, such as proteins, is synthesized based on the negative charge on the colloidal gold, providing an affinity for proteins that are positively charged as shown in Figure 6A. Some proteins may be attracted to gold surface by hydrophobic binding (Figure 6B) or conducting electrons of nitrogen and sulfur atoms of protein (Figure 6C) (46). We plan to conjugate antibodies against HPV16 E6 and L1 proteins with AuNPs to be used as a reagent for detection of HPV16 E6 and L1 by Lateral flow assay.

Table 4 Nanotechnologies with potential applications in molecular diagnostics (47)

Nanotechnology on a chip

Microfluidic chips for nanoliter volumes: NanoChip

Optical readout of nanoparticle labels

NanoArrays

Protein nanoarrays

Nanoparticle technologies

Gold particles

Nanobarcodes

Magnetic nanoparticles: ferrofluids, supramagnetic particles combined with MRI

Quantum dot technology

Nanoparticle probes

Nanopore technology

Measuring length of DNA fragments in a high-throughput manner

DNA fingerprinting

Haplotyping

Cantilever arrays

Multiple combined tests (such as protein and DNA) to be performed on the same

disposable chip

Prostate specific antigen binding to antibody

Resonance light scattering technology

Nanosensors

Living spores as nanodetectors

Nanopore nanosensors

Nanosensor glucose monitor

Optical biosensors: surface plasmon resonance technology

Probes Encapsulated by Biologically Localized Embedding (PEBBLE) nanosensors

Photostimulated luminescence in nanoparticles

Quartz nanobalance DNA sensor

Sensing of Phage-Triggered Ion Cascade

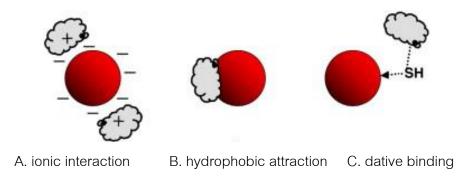


Figure 6 Schematic picture of protein adsorption onto colloidal gold particles (46), A: ionic interaction between the negatively charged nanoparticle and the positively charged sites on the protein, B: hydrophobic attraction between the protein and the metal surface and C: dative binding between the metal and the conducting electrons of nitrogen and sulphur atoms of the protein.



Lateral flow assay

Lateral flow assay, also called immunochromatographic assay or strip test, is a technology that is currently widely applied. The test is initially developed as a pregnancy test (15) and has become important for diagnostic purpose, e.g. to determine pregnancy, failure of internal organ (heart attack, renal failure or diabetes), infection or contaminate with specific antigens, presence of toxic compounds in food, feed or environment and abuse of drug (48). The lateral flow assay combining colloidal gold for detection of infectious agents in samples has been published on several applications including bacteria and viruses. Table 5 presents the method application and its sensitivity. The lateral flow device contains labeled detection proteins, such as nanoparticle-antibody conjugates, which will react with a specific antigen as liquid form. The liquid is pulled through the strip by the capillary force and passes through a capture zone where the trapped nanoparticle accumulate in concentration until visually detectable and results can be obtained within 5-20 min. The most common used label is colloidal gold, while other detection systems are mainly based on fluorescent nanoparticles, dyed latex, and silver or carbon black used in improvement the detection limit (49, 50). The advantage of lateral flow assay includes rapid testing, easy to use, easy interpretation by naked eye, low cost and no instrument requirement. These features make the lateral flow assay ideal for implementing as rapid point of care testing, and field application.

Analyte	Method	Application	Sensitivity	References
PCR amplified product with	Colloidal gold labelled	Bacterial	10 cells of	(51)
dA tail of 23S ribosomal RNA	oligo dT strands	infections	S. aureus	
Brucella-specific IgM		in arthroplasty		
antibodies in serum				
Rotavirus in bovine faeces	Colloidal gold labelled	Detection of	70% of positives	(52)
	primary antibody	Rotavirus		
		infection		
Satsuma dwarf virus in	Colloidal gold labelled	Detection of		(53)
fruit extracts	antibody	virus infections		
Influenza virus (H5N1)	Colloidal gold labelled	Detection of	1:1000 dilutions of	(54)
	antibody	H5N1 infection	allantoic fluid	
Influenza virus type A and B	Colloidal gold labelled	Detection of	94.4% compared	(55)
	antibody	Influenza virus	with viral culture	
		type A and B	method	
Antibody to Trichinella in	Colloidal gold labelled	Trichinellosis	100% of positives	(56)
swine serum	antigen			
Recombinant nucleoprotein	Colloidal gold labelled	Diagnosis of	95.5% compared	(57)
of Rabies virus	antibody	rabies	with PCR method	

 Table 5
 The application of lateral flow assay in infectious agent detection

CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

CHAPTER IV

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Part I. Prevalence of HPV type 16 infection in precancerous and cancerous lesions

1. Clinical specimen

A total of 258 samples with histologically diagnosed as 191 CIN (136 CIN I, 23 CIN II, and 32 CIN III) and 67 squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) was recruited. These samples collecting from May 2012 to October 2013 were from the Department of Gynecology, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand. All cervical cells samples were collected and stored in SurePath[™] sample collection and kept at room temperature (RT) no longer than three months. They were further analyzed for HPV DNA detection and genotyping.

2. Extraction of DNA

DNA from cervical sample was extracted using High pure viral nucleic acid kit (Roche, USA) following manufacturer's instruction. In brief, one ml of cervical sample solution was placed in 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube and centrifuged at 3000 rcf for 10 min. The cell pellet was resuspended in 200 μ l of PBS, then was added with 200 μ l of binding buffer supplemented with poly (A) and 50 μ l of proteinase K. The suspensions were mixed immediately, incubated for 10 min at 72 °C, then 100 μ l of binding buffer was added to with the suspension. The mixture was applied to High pure spin column and centrifuged for 1 min at 8,000 rcf. The spin column was washed with 500 μ l of inhibitor removal buffer, centrifuged for 1 min at 8,000 rcf, and washed twice with 450 μ l of wash buffer. After centrifugation (1 min at 8,000 rcf), it was centrifuged again for 10 sec at 13,000 rcf. The column was then placed in a clean 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube. To elute DNA, 50 μ l of

elution buffer was added onto the spin column, incubated at RT for 1 min and centrifuged for 1 min at 8,000 rcf. The eluate was kept at -20 °C until use.

3. HPV DNA detection and typing

HPV detection and typing was performed using CLART HPV2 Amplification kit (Genomica, Spain) based on the amplification of a 450 bp fragment within genotype specific HPV L1 region. Moreover, the reaction contains a primer set specific to a fragment of the human gene cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) for use as a genomic DNA control to confirm the sufficient quantity and quality of samples. The reaction also contains another primer set specific to a modified plasmid used as the amplification reaction control to check the ability of PCR reaction whether it contains DNA polymerase inhibitors. In the reaction, 5 µl of extracted DNA were used as template. The PCR program was started at 95 °C 5 min, one cycle and followed by 40 cycles of denaturing at 95 °C for 30 sec, annealing at 55 °C for 60 sec and extension at 72 °C for 90 sec. A cycle of extension 72 °C for 8 min was added at the end of the program. During amplification the PCR products were labeled with biotin. Prior to visualization, the PCR products were denatured at 95°C for 10 min. Hybridization was performed, using 10 µl of the denatured PCR products, between the amplicon and specific probes on CLART microarray. The results were obtained as an insoluble precipitate of peroxidase that occurred when a streptavidin conjugate bound to the biotin-labeled PCR products. The genotyping results were analyzed on the Clinical Array Reader (Genomica, Spain).

Part II. Preparation of HPV16 E6 and L1 recombinant proteins

1. Plasmid

Plasmid pGEX-3X-MT-E6 containing HPV 16 E6 fused with GST and pGEX-4T-2-L1 containing HPV 16 L1 fused with GST were kindly provided by Prof. Peter C Angeletti, Nebraska Centre for Virology, School of Biological Sciences, University of Nebraska Lincoln, USA. The plasmids were transformed in *E. coli* BL-21(DE3) by Kamonwan Phlaingam of Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.

2. Induction of recombinant proteins

The procedure is followed to Kamonwan (2009). In short, the E. coli BL-21(DE3) clones containing pGEX-3X-MT-E6 and pGEX-4T-2-L1 were streaked in Luria-Bertani (LB) agar plus 100 µg/ml ampicillin, and incubated at 37 °C overnight. A single colony was picked up and re-suspended in 20 ml LB broth containing 100 µg/ml ampicillin. The bacterial culture was incubated in shaking incubator at 37 °C overnight. Then, it was transferred into 2 liters of LB broth and continuously grown at 37 °C with shaking until the O.D. value reaches 0.6-0.8 at absorbance wavelength of 600 nm. The E6 recombinant were induced to express protein by adding 0.25 IPTG bacteria mΜ (isopropylthiogalactoside) and incubating for another 6 h at 25°C. Whereas L1 recombinant bacteria were induced at the condition 1.0 mM IPTG and incubated for 4 h at 37 °C. After that, the bacteria were then harvested by centrifugation at 10,000 rpm, 4°C for 5 min, washed with phosphate buffered saline (PBS), pH 7.4 twice, and kept frozen at -80°C until use.

3. Protein Extraction

The induced bacteria were thawed, resuspended in lysis buffer (see Appendix B) and let the suspension incubating for 20 min at RT, or until the suspension becomes turbid and viscously. Then the suspension was lysed by sonicator (High intensity ultrasonic processor VC505, SONICS) at amplitude of 35% with pulse on 30-sec and pulse off 50-sec for a total of 6 cycles. The supernatant and cell lysate were seperately collected by centrifugation at 17,000 rpm, 4°C for 30 min and kept at -20°C until use or further analysis by SDS-PAGE.

4. Protein Purification

Supernatant containing E6 was further purified by GST fusion protein affinity column purification kit (GE healthcare Co., USA). Before the sample was applied to the

column, it was filtered through a 45 µm filter. The procedure of E6 purification was followed the recommendation of the company. In brief, the column was equilibrated with 5 ml of binding buffer (see Appendix B), then the supernatant containing E6 was applied at a flow rate of 0.2 to 1 ml/min using a syringe fit to the luer connector onto the column. After that, column was washed with 5 to 10 ml of binding buffer at flow rate of 1 to 2 ml/min until no material appears in the effluent. In order to elute E6 protein, 5 to 10 ml of elution buffer (see Appendix B) was added at flow rate of 1 to 2 ml/min. In final step, Amicon® Ultra 15 ml filters [10 kDa molecular-weight cutoff (MWCO) Merck Millipore, USA] were used to concentrate the elution protein. The concentrated protein was collected from the filter device sample reservoir, mix proteinase inhibitor was added (see Appendix B), and kept at -80°C until use.

The L1 pellet was washed with buffer (see Appendix B) and solubilized in 8M urea solution (see Appendix B) at RT for 2 h. Debris was removed by centrifugation at 20,000 rpm, for 30 min at 20°C and supernatant containing L1 proteins was collected. The L1 proteins were desalted and buffer exchanged using Snakeskin dialysis tubing (Thermo scientific, USA) with 10kDa MWCO. After that, the dialysate was applied to Amicon® Ultra 15 ml filters [30 kDa MWCO, Merck Millipore, USA] to concentrate protein. The concentrated L1 protein was then suspended in a mix proteinase inhibitor (see Appendix B) and kept at -80°C until use.

5. Quantitation of proteins

Total proteins amount of E6 and L1 were determined by Quant-iT protein assay kit (Qubit fluorometer; Invitrogen Co., USA). The mixture of the E6 or L1 proteins and QuantiT buffer were incubated at RT for 15 min. The concentration of E6 and L1 proteins were measured by Qubit fluorometer. The Qubit fluorometer generates concentration data based on the relationship between the three standards that used in calibration which are provided by manufacturer.

Sodium dodecyl sulphate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and Western blot analysis

Purity of fusion proteins E6 and L1 were analysed by SDS-PAGE and Western blot using mouse anti-HPV 16 E6 and L1 monoclonal antibody (Santa cruz and Abcam), respectively. For SDS-PAGE, the solutions of proteins to be analyzed were mixed with 6X SDS-sample buffer (see Appendix B). Samples were heated for 5 min at 95 °C and separated using 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gel (see Appendix B) in running buffer (see Appendix). Following electrophoresis, the gels were either stained with Coomassie blue or transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane (GE Healthcare, UK) by wet system (Biorad, USA) using transfer buffer (see Appendix B). Membrane were blocked with 3% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in Tris buffer saline (TBS) for 1 h at RT, washed three times with TTBS (TBS, 0.1% Tween 20) and incubated with primary antibody using 1:100 dilution of mouse anti-HPV 16 E6 monoclonal antibody (Santa cruz, USA) or 1:5000 dilution of mouse anti-HPV 16 E6 monoclonal antibody antibody (Abcam, USA) and 1:100 dilution of mouse anti-HPV 16 L1 monoclonal antibody (Santa cruz, USA) at 4°C overnight. After washing three times with TTBS, the membrane was incubated with secondary antibody using 1:5000 dilution of goat anti-mouse IgG labeled horseradish peroxidase (HRP) (Santa cruz, USA) at RT for one h. After washing three times with TTBS, proteins were detected by incubating with chemiluminescence (ECL) reagent (Prierce Biotechnology, USA) for 1 min and then exposed to X-ray film (Agfa Drystar DT2, Finemed, Belgium) according to the manufacturer's instructions. In case of L1, the proteins were analyzed by chromogenic detection using H₂O₂ substrate and 3, 3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB) to produce a brown precipitate at the precise site of enzymatic activity on the blot.

Part III. Preparation of control cell lines

1. Control cell lines and culture

CaSki and SiHa, human cervical carcinoma cell lines with about 600 copies and 1-2 copies of HPV 16 DNA were used as positive control cells for the E6 protein. C33A, a human cervical carcinoma cell line without HPV DNA was used as a negative control cell. Cervical HPV containing, except type 16 cell lines (HeLa, ME-180, MS751) and another HPV DNA negative laryngeal carcinoma cell (HEp-2) were used in specificity assay. Details of them were shown in Table 6. All of them were obtained from Virology Unit, Department of Microbiology, Chulalongkorn University. All cells were grown in Eagle's Minimum Essential Medium (GIBCO, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (PAA laboratories GmbH, Austria), 100 unit/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin (Bio Basic Inc., Canada) and 0.01 M N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-N-2-ethane sulfonic acid (HEPES) (Sigma Aldrich, USA). When the cells were grown in monolayer, subculturing was done. The culture media was removed and the monolayer cell was washed by PBS (see Appendix B) twice. Then, pre-warmed 0.25% trypsin-EDTA (see Appendix B) was added and incubated for 1-5 min at RT or until most of the cells shrinked and seperated under microscope followed by discarding of trypsin. Cells were detached by gently tapping and growth medium was added. The monolayer cell was subcultured at 2-3 days intervals with split-ratio of 1:3. The cells were cultured at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ air atmosphere.

 Table 6
 Standard cell lines used in control experiment

Cell lines	Type of cell line	HPV DNA
CaSki	Human cervical carcinoma	600 copies HPV16 DNA
SiHa	Human cervical carcinoma	1-2 copies HPV16 DNA
HeLa	Human cervical carcinoma	HPV18 DNA
ME-180	Human cervical carcinoma	HPV39 DNA, HPV18 DNA
MS751	Human cervical carcinoma	HPV18 DNA, HPV45 DNA
C33A	Human cervical carcinoma	Negative for HPV DNA
HEp-2	Human laryngeal carcinoma	Negative for HPV DNA

2. Cell lysis

Cells were detached from the culture flask by trypsinization and were washed with PBS. The cells were centrifuged for 5 min at 1500 rpm. Then the pellet of approximately 10⁷ cells were resuspended with 300 µl of of Lysis-M reagent containing complete, EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail tablet (Roche, USA), incubated for 10 min on ice with gentle shaking. The lysate was centrifuged at 14,000 rcf for 10 min. The supernatant containing soluble protein was transferred to a new tube and kept at -20°C until use.

Part IV. Preparation of gold nanoparticles-antibody conjugate

1. Preparation of gold nanoparticles

Unconjugated AuNPs in diameter 10- and 40-nm used in this study are listed as follows.

I. 10-nm AuNPs were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, USA (cat G1527). All unconjugated gold colloids contain approximately 0.01% of $HAuCl_4$ suspended in 0.01% tannin acid with 0.04% trisodium citrate, 0.26 mM potassium carbonate, and 0.02% sodium azide as preservative.

II. 40-nm in-house AuNPs was synthesized and kindly provided from Assist. Prof.Dr. Amornpun Sereemaspun, Laboratory of Nanobiomedicine, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University.

III. 40-nm AuNPs were purchased from Cytodiagnostics, Canada (Cat G-40-20). The particles were suspended in 0.1 mM phosphate buffered saline (0.01 X PBS).

IV. 40-nm AuNPs from Arista biologicals, USA were kindly provided by Prof. Dr. Kavi Ratanabanangkoon, Laboratory of Immunology, Chulabhorn Research Institute. The particles were suspended in deionized (DI) water with no preservative.

จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย Chulalongkorn University

2. Preparation of antibodies

The antibodies used in this study are listed in Table 7.

Table 7 List of antibodies used in this study

Type of antibody	Company	Concentration	
Polyclonal goat anti HPV16 E6	Santa Cruz Biotechnology,	1-10 µg/ml gold or	
(sc-1584)	USA	1-2 µg/ line	
Monoclonal donkey anti-goat	Santa Cruz Biotechnology,	0.5-2 µg/ line	
(sc-2020)	USA		
Monoclonal mouse anti HPV16	Santa Cruz Biotechnology,	1-10 µg/ml gold or	
E6 (sc-460)	USA	1-2 μg/ line	
Monoclonal goat anti-rabbit	Santa Cruz Biotechnology,	0.5-2 µg/ line	
(sc-2004)	USA		
Monoclonal goat anti-mouse	Pierce, USA	0.5-2 µg/ line	
(Pierce 31160)	Constant Con		
Monoclonal mouse anti HPV16	Abcam, UK	1-10 µg/ml gold or	
E6 (ab30716)		1-2 μg/ line	
Monoclonal mouse anti HPV16	Abcam, UK	1-10 µg/ml gold or	
E6 (ab70) CHULALON	gkorn University	1-2 μg/ line	
Polyclonal rabbit anti HPV16 E6	Antibodies-online.com,	1-10 µg/ml gold or	
(ABIN733448)	Germany	1-2 µg/ line	

3. Optimization of the amount of antibody binding to gold nanoparticles

First, the conditions of AuNPs and antibody were optimized. Flocculation curves were determined for each antibody in order to determine the minimum amount of antibody that stabilizes gold nanoparticle (58). One ml of AuNPs solution (10-nm and 40-nm) was adjusted to pH 8 with 0.2 M Na₂CO₃ and checked by pH paper or pH meter. A range of antibody amounts (final concentration 0 to 10 μ g/ml gold) was added to 100 μ l of AuNPs. After that, the mixtures were incubated for 10 min at RT, 10 μ l of 10% NaCl were added to each tube. The solution was mixed rapidly and allowed to stand for 5 min before determining the optical density (O.D.) at 580 nm. The color of samples changes from brilliant red to blue as the concentration of antibody decreases. The optimum concentration of antibody for AuNPs labeling was the lowest concentration of antibody that did not change the color.

4. Preparation of antibody-conjugated gold nanoparticles

The gold nanoparticle labeled antibody was prepared according to the method of Yokota et al (1992) (59). One ml of AuNPs solution was adjusted by varying pH (pH 7, 8, 9) with 0.2 M Na₂CO₃. For preparing an AuNPs conjugate, the anti-HPV16 E6 antibody (Table 7) was added to the 1 ml of the 10-nm or 40-nm AuNPs solution at an optimal antibody concentration. After gently mixing for either 60 min or 30 min as indicated, at RT, 0.1 ml of blocking solution (either 10% BSA or 3% PEG in Milli Q water) was added to block the AuNPs surface. After gently mixing for either 30 min or 15 min as indicated, at RT, the mixture was centrifuged at 25,000 rcf for 10-nm AuNPs at 4 °C for 30 min and 6,000 rcf for 40-nm AuNPs at 4 °C for 15 min. The supernatant was discarded and the AuNPs conjugate was resuspended in storage buffer (20 mmol/L sodium borate, pH 8, 1% BSA and 0.1% sodium azide). The centrifugation and resuspension steps were repeated and the AuNPs conjugate was finally suspended in 0.1 ml storage buffer and then stored at 4 °C.

Part V. Lateral flow assay

The lateral flow device consists of four components: a sample pad $(1.5 \times 0.4 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ cellulose fiber, Millipore})$, a conjugation pad $(0.8 \times 0.4 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ glass fiber, Millipore})$, a nitrocellulose membrane $(2.2 \times 0.4 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ NCM}, \text{Millipore})$, and an absorbent pad $(1.5 \times 0.4 \text{ cm}^2)$. Most components were fixed on a backing pad $(6 \times 0.4 \text{ cm}^2)$. A schematic diagram of the lateral flow device is shown in Figure 7. Primary antibody, anti HPV 16 E6 polyclonal or monoclonal antibody, and the secondary antibody (against the antibody on the AuNPs surface) were applied in a test line and a control line, respectively on a piece of NCM. The distance between the test line and control line was 0.5 cm. Various types of antibody, sizes of AuNPs, and blocking solution were optimized. After drying for 1 h in desiccator at RT, the membrane was blocked with 10% BSA and then dried, washed with Milli Q water twice, dried and stored under dry conditions.

The conjugate pad was prepared by pouring the 10 μ I of AuNPs-antibody conjugate and then drying for at least one h in desiccator at RT.

Finally, the sample pad, conjugate pad, NCM, and absorbent pad were assembled sequentially on backing pad. Each segment overlapped 0.2 cm to facilitate the migration of solution during the assay. The 20 μ l of samples were applied on the sample pad, and 30 μ l of the running buffer (see Appendix B) was then added. The result was interpreted as positive when the color signals appeared at both the test and control lines whereas the negative result showed no signal on the test line and positive signal at the control line. The results were read as invalid when control lines did not give expected positive signals.

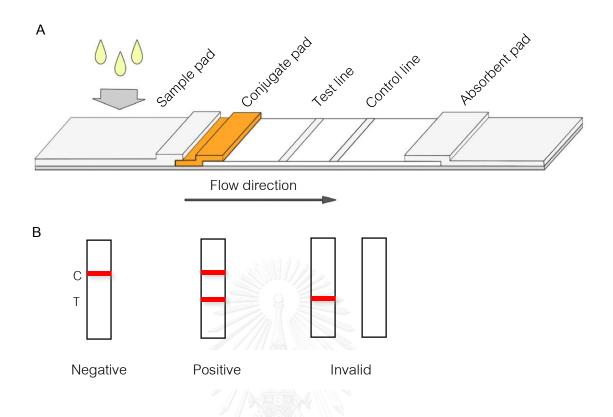


Figure 7 A schematic diagram of the lateral flow assay, A: The preparation and assembly of the lateral flow device (60), B: Result judgment of the strip (C, control line; T, test line)

35

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Part I. Prevalence of HPV type 16 infection in precancerous and cancerous lesions

HPV detection and typing in clinical samples were performed by CLART Human Papillomavirus 2 kit based on PCR amplification of 450 bp fragment within the L1 region. The genotyping results were analyzed and automatically reported from Clinical Array Reader. All samples were positive for genomic DNA control and amplification reaction control. HPV DNA was detected in 185 (71.71%) of 258 clinical samples. The distribution of HPVDNA among each histological status, i.e., CIN I 90/136 (66.18%) CIN II 16/23 (69.57%), CIN III 26/32 (81.25%), SCC 53/67 (79.10%) was shown in Table 8. The prevalence of HPV type 16 infections per total cases was 20.16% (52/258) whereas the prevalence of HPV 16 among HPV DNA positive samples was 28.11% (52/185). The prevalence of HPV infection between CIN III (81.25%) and SCC (79.10%) was not different. The highest prevalence of HPV 16 infection was found in SCC (26/53, 49.06%).

งหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Histology	CIN I	CIN II	CIN III	SCC	Total
Number	136	36 23 32		67	258
Cases with HPV (+)	90	16	26	53	185
% HPV (+) per number	66.18%	69.57%	81.25%	79.10%	71.71%
Cases with 16 (+)	14	7	5	26	52
% cases per number	10.29%	30.43%	15.63%	38.81%	20.16%
% cases per HPV (+)	15.56%	43.75%	19.23%	49.06%	28.11%

 Table 8
 Histological classification and HPV positive

Part II. Expression and purification of recombinant proteins

1. HPV16 E6 recombinant proteins

Recombinant HPV 16 E6 was successfully expressed in *E.coli* BL-21 (DE3) containing pGEX-3X-MT-E6 by inducing with 0.25 mM IPTG at 25°C for 6 h after that the protein was purified by GST affinity chromatography and further analyzed by SDS-PAGE and WB as shown in Figure 8. The E6 fusion protein band was about 43 kDa and the GST band was about 26 kDa.

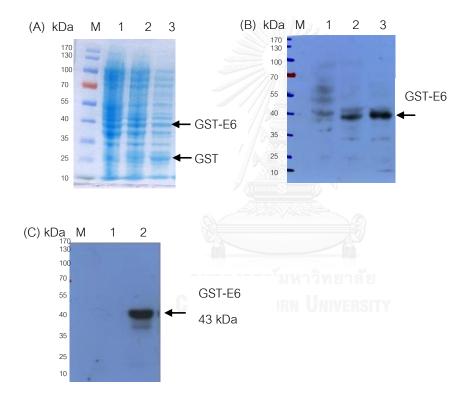


Figure 8 SDS-PAGE stained with coomasie blue (A) and western bolt determined by chemilluminescence (B) of GST-HPV 16 E6 from whole cell lysate (WCL) of E. coli BL-21 (DE3). Lane 1; non-induced WCL, lane 2 and 3; IPTG induced WCL from lot 1 and 2, respectively, (C) WB of proteins through GST affinity chromatography, lane 1; non-induced condition, lane 2; IPTG induced condition. M; molecular weight markers.

lane 1; WCL from E. coli BL-21 (DE3) non-induced by IPTG, lane 2; purified of GST-HPV 16 E6

2. HPV16 L1 recombinant proteins

The expression of *E.coli* BL-21 (DE3) containing pGEX-4T-2-L1 induced by 1 mM IPTG was at 37°C for 4 h. Since the recombinant HPV 16 L1 was found in inclusion bodies, the L1 in cell pellet of bacterial lysate was solubilized in 8M urea solution. The 8M urea solution protein containing recombinant HPV 16 L1 was analyzed by SDS-PAGE and Western blot showing the fusion protein band at about 80 kDa (Figure 9).

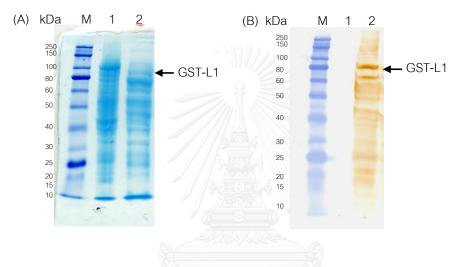


Figure 9 SDS-PAGE stained with coomasie blue (A) and western blot detected by chromogenic (DAB) reagent (B) of GST-HPV16 L1 after solubilized with 8M urea solution, lane 1; non-induced WCL, lane 2; IPTG induced WCL, M; molecular weight markers.

Part III. Lateral flow assay

1. Optimal concentration of binding antibody to gold nanoparticles

Prior to conjugation, the optimal amount of antibody that could stabilize AuNPs was determined. This can be obtained from a flocculation curve. 10% NaCl was added to each tube containing the mixture of various antibody concentration (0-10 µg/ml gold) and AuNPs solution. Flocculation was induced by addition of NaCl and absorbance was measured at 580 nm. The flocculation curve was generated by plotting the O.D. against the concentration of antibody (Figure 10). For anti-HPV 16 E6, the minimal antibody concentration that could saturate or stabilize the AuNPs was 6 µg/ml of AuNPs (arrow in Figure 10). In order to assure that the antibody was more than enough, the concentration of antibody used throughout this study was chosen at 10 µg per ml of gold solution. The color change of gold suspension was able to observe by naked eyes (Figure 11). The original color of the AuNPs suspension was pink and turned into blue when the antibody was inadequate. In contrast, the color remained stable when the antibody was enough or excess. From the picture, the blue color was shown at the concentration less than 6 µg/ml of AuNPs which corresponded to the results of flocculation curve.

Similar study was done with anti-HPV 16 L1 and the results were the same as anti-HPV 16 E6 (data not shown). Thus, the concentration of anti-HPV 16 L1 was at 10 μ g per ml of gold solution as well.

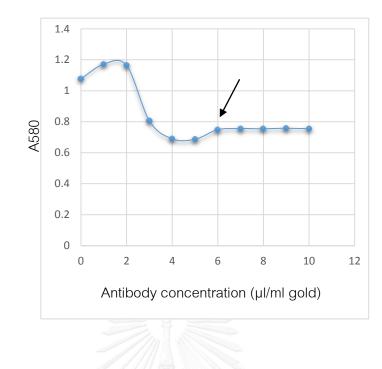


Figure 10 Example of Flocculation curve of the AuNPs conjugation with mouse monoclonal antibody against HPV 16 E6 at concentrations 0-10 μ g/ml gold. The arrow indicates the minimal antibody (6 μ g of antibody per 1 ml of gold solution) that was adequately bound to AuNPs.

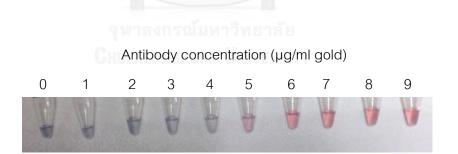


Figure 11 Photograph of the AuNPs conjugation with mouse monoclonal antibody against HPV 16 E6 at various concentrations (0-9 μ g/ml gold).

2. Optimization of the lateral flow assay

The lateral flow assay to detect HPV 16 E6 or L1 antigen based on sandwich principle was developed and optimized. DW, Milli Q water or 0.1x PBS were used as a negative control while HPV 16 E6 or L1 recombinant protein was a positive control.

The lateral flow assay for HPV 16 L1 detection was optimized. The recombinant protein was applied on the lateral flow strip that goat polyclonal anti-HPV 16 L1 conjugated with 10-nm AuNPs and goat polyclonal anti-HPV 16 L1 was also immobilized on the test line and donkey anti-goat was on the control line. The result showed no signal on both test and control lines whereas the negative sample (Milli Q water) gave no signal at the test line and positive signal at the control line. This finding suggested the condition of 8M urea solution used to dissolve insoluble HPV 16 L1 recombinant proteins directly affected the immunological reaction on the strip. Then, the recombinant protein HPV 16 L1 was dialyzed serially to dilute out of the urea solution from 8M to 6M to 4M to 2M and finally Tris buffer, pH 8. It was found that L1 protein precipitated when the concentration of urea solution was less than 2M urea. However, HPV16 L1 solubilized in 2M Urea solution still showed no signal on both test and control lines indicating invalid results. Therefore, the development of lateral flow assay for detecting HPV 16 L1 was unsuccessfully attempted.

For development of lateral flow assay for detecting HPV 16 E6, the parameters that affected in the assay were optimized as follows.

2.1 Size of AuNPs.

Previous study of Kamolwan (14), 10-nm AuNPs was used in agglutination assay. So the study was continued using 10-nm AuNPs. However, several studies reported using 40 –nm size in lateral flow assay (48). Thus, in this study, both sizes of AuNPs have been compared. The AuNPs were obtained from both in-house and commercial AuNPs. To evaluate the efficiency of gold particle size, the various setting conditions involving antibody conjugated gold and antibody used on the test and control lines were performed. The results were summarized in Table 9. Under optimized condition (Table 9; Attempt 9), both 10-nm and 40-nm AuNPs could be used. However, the 40-nm AuNPs gave better sensitivity of detection (5 μ g of E6 recombinant proteins) than the 10-nm AuNPs (20 μ g of E6 recombinant proteins).



จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย Chulalongkorn University

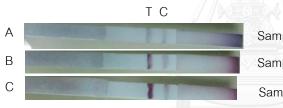
Anti-E6 conjuga		jugated gold	Capture Ab		Results				
Attempt	Size of AuNPs (nm)	Ab Conc. (ug/ ml gold)	Туре	Test line(anti-E6), T	Capture Ab Control line, C	Sample	т	С	Interpre- tation
	10	2, 10	Goat	Goat	Donkey anti-	DW	+	+	False
1	40	4, 6, 10	polyclonal	polyclonal	goat	Milli Q	+	+	positive
			(sc-1584)	(sc-1584)	(sc-2020)	0.1xPBS	+	+	
2	10, 40	10	Goat polyclonal	Mouse monoclonal	Donkey anti- goat	Milli Q	+	+	False
			(sc-1584)	(sc-460)	(sc-2020)	0.1xPBS	+	+	positive
3	40	10	Mouse monoclonal	Goat polyclonal	Goat anti- mouse (Pierce	Milli Q	+	+	False
	40 10		(sc-460)	(sc-1584)	31160)	0.1xPBS	+	+	positive
4	40	10	Mouse	Mouse	Goat anti- mouse (Pierce	Milli Q	+	+	False
40 10	10	(sc-460)	(sc-460)	31160)	0.1xPBS	+	+	positive	
5	10, 40	10	Goat polyclonal	Normal Goat IgG	Donkey anti-	Milli Q	+	+	False
			(sc-1584)	Milli Q	goat (sc-2020)	Milli Q	-	+	positive
6	40	10	Mouse monoclonal	Normal Goat IgG	Goat anti- mouse	Milli Q	+	+	False
		2	(sc-460)	Milli Q	(Pierce 31160)	Milli Q	-	+	positive
7		จุห	Mouse	Mouse	Goat anti-	Milli Q	-	+	
10, 40 10		monoclonal	ONCKOPN INVERS	Mouse (Pierce 31160)	E6 protein	-	+	False Negative	
			Rabbit	Mouse	Goat anti-	Milli Q	-	+	
8	10, 40	10	polyclonal (ABIN733448)	monoclonal (ab 70)	mouse (Pierce 31160)	E6 protein	-	+	False Negative
			Mouse	Rabbit	Goat anti-	Milli Q	_	+	
9	10, 40	10	monoclonal (ab 70)	polyclonal (ABIN733448)	Mouse (Pierce 31160)	E6 protein	+	+	Valid test

Table 9 The results of optimization of the lateral flow assay conditions

2.2 Type of antibodies used in Lateral flow device

Polyclonal and monoclonal from difference animal species (goat, mouse and rabbit) were used in this experiment as the AuNPs-labeled detection antibody and the capture antibody (on the test line). The antibody for control line was varied according to the antibody conjugated to AuNPs.

The 40-nm in-house AuNPs was first attempted to optimize the condition. The AuNPs were conjugated with goat polyclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 (sc-1584). Goat polyclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 (sc-1584) was also immobilized on the test line and donkey anti-goat (sc-2020) was on control line (Figure 12, T: test line, C: control line). After adding the samples (purified recombinant HPV 16 E6, Milli Q water and 0.1x PBS), false positive results occurred for all any given negative samples (Figure 12).



Sample: 20 µg of HPV16 E6 recombinant protein Sample: Milli Q water Sample: 0.1x PBS

Figure 12 The false-positive results on lateral flow strip. Goat polyclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 (sc-1584) conjugated with 40-nm in-house AuNPs and goat polyclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 (sc-1584) was also immobilized on test line and donkey anti-goat (sc-2020) was on control line (T: test line, C: control line), A: 20 μ g of HPV 16 E6 recombinant protein, B: Milli Q water, C: 0.1x PBS.

To characterize the AuNPs conjugate, the zeta potential measurement was used. Zeta potential is the potential difference between the dispersion medium and the stationary layer of fluid attached to the dispersed particle. The zeta potential can indicate the stability of colloidal gold. The colloids with high zeta potential (more than ±30 mV) are electrically stabilized while colloids with low zeta potentials (from 0 to ±30) tend to aggregate. Besides zeta potential, the instrument can also calculate the mean size of particles. The zeta potential (-0.0553) and mean size of 40-nm in-house AuNPs conjugated goat polyclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 antibody (132 nm) were measured. The results indicated that the AuNPs conjugate was unstable and formed aggregation resulting to the false positive lines in lateral flow assay.

According to that result, several combination of the antibodies either monoclonal or polyclonal, were performed as followed.

- (i) Polyclonal antibody-conjugated AuNPs, Polyclonal antibody-capture test line
- (ii) Polyclonal antibody-conjugated AuNPs, Monoclonal antibody-capture test line
- (iii) Monoclonal antibody-conjugated AuNPs, Polyclonal antibody-capture test line
- (iv) Monoclonal antibody-conjugated AuNPs, Monoclonal antibody-capture test line

าหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

To confirm the presence of antibody on the test line, protein A/G, a recombinant fusion protein containing immunoglobulin Fc binding sites of both protein A and protein G, directly conjugated AuNPs was used to react with immobilized rabbit polyclonal or mouse monoclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 on lateral flow strip. The positive signal appeared on both strips confirmed the presence of antibody (Figure 13).



Figure 13 The positive signal of protein A/G conjugated with 40-nm commercial AuNPs on lateral flow strip, A: rabbit polyclonal anti-HPV 16 (ABIN733448) and B: mouse monoclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 were immobilized.

Most of the results in those attempts (Table 9; 1 to 8) gave non-specific binding to test line indicating false positive. Moreover, false negative results were also demonstrated. Until the 9th attempt, mouse monoclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 (ab70) was used as the AuNPs-conjugated antibody and rabbit polyclonal anti- HPV 16 E6 antibody (1 mg/ml) was used at the test line. The valid results were seen as in Figure 14.

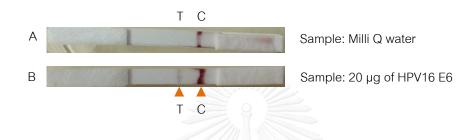


Figure 14 The valid results of lateral flow assay in condition of mouse monoclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 (ab70) conjugated with 10-nm commercial AuNPs. The rabbit polyclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 (ABIN733448) was immobilized on the test line and goat anti-mouse (Pierce 31160) on the control line (T: test line, C: control line), A: Milli Q water, B: 20 µg of HPV16 E6 recombinant protein

2.3 Blocking solution

Blocking solution was one factor so optimization between 10% BSA and 3% PEG was compared. From Figure 15, when 3% PEG was used as blocking solution in 10-nm AuNPs conjugation in control negative sample (Milli Q water), the result showed stronger positive signal compared to 10% BSA. In the meantime, using the 40-nm AuNPs conjugates, 10% BSA blocking solution gave more strongly positive signal than 3% PEG. The results indicated that 10% BSA was appropriate for 40 nm AuNPs, while 3% PEG was appropriate for 10 nm AuNPs.

Blocking solutions	10-nm AuNPs	40-nm AuNPs			
10% BSA					
3% PEG					

Figure 15 The results of compared blocking solution between 10% BSA and 3% PEG

Finally, the condition for detecting HPV 16 E6 protein by the lateral flow assay was as followed

- (i) Size 40-nm commercial AuNPs
- (ii) Mouse monoclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 (ab70) (10 μg/ml AuNPs) as the AuNPsconjugated Ab.
- (iii) Polyclonal rabbit anti- HPV 16 E6 (ABIN733448) 1 µg at the test line
- (iv) Goat anti-mouse immunoglobulin G (Pierce 31160) 0.5 μ g at the control line
- (v) 10% BSA as blocking solution

Under the optimized condition, recombinant HPV 16 E6 proteins were detectable at 5 µg of total proteins within 5 min after reaction whereas negative samples showed no signal until 30 min. All control lines gave completely clear. The test line was very faint signal but able to see by naked eyes.

3. Sensitivity of the assay

Sensitivity of the assay was determined using purified HPV 16 E6 recombinant protein at various amount of 5, 10, 15 and 20 μ g. The assay using 40-nm commercial AuNPs indicated that at least 5 μ g of purified HPV 16 E6 recombinant proteins was detectable by naked eye while at least 20 μ g of total E6 proteins were detectable when 10-nm commercial AuNPs was used (Figure 14).

Since it showed quite low sensitivity of detection, Protein A/G precipitation assay was used to evaluate the binding conformation of antibody on the surface of the gold particles. Protein A/G was immobilized on the membrane of lateral flow strip. The AuNPs conjugated with mouse monoclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 (ab 70) and running buffer were applied on the strip. The result showed a positive signal suggesting that Fab part of the antibodies bind to the gold particles and inversely present Fc portion out of the surface (Figure 16). This was one possible explanation why the sensitivity of the assay was low.



Figure 16 The positive signal of immobilized protein A/G after binding with mouse monoclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 (ab70) conjugated 40-nm commercial AuNPs on lateral flow strip.

Consequently, to increase sensitivity, higher amount of polyclonal antibody was applied on the test line (from 1 μ g to 2 μ g). Unfortunately, no difference of signal was observed. In addition, the pH of system was also varied (pH 7, 8, 9), i.e., AuNPs conjugate solution and running buffer. As the results, the detection signal was still the same (faint positive signal in the test line) in all pHs.

Beside HPV 16 E6 recombinant protein, cervical cell lines containing HPV 16 for example CaSki and SiHa cell lines were used as positive samples to mimic the clinical

specimens used in the assay. The results found approximately 6.7x10⁵ of both CaSki and SiHa cell lysate gave positive signal on the test line by naked eye observations.

To examine that antibody-conjugated AuNPs can bind with HPV 16 E6 antigen on membrane directly, negative (Milli Q water and C33A cell line) and positive samples (recombinant HPV 16 E6,) were immobilized onto membrane and then the solution of antibody-conjugated gold was run through the membrane. As a result, no signal was detected in negative sample while the positive sample gave the obviously signal on the membrane and some result was shown in Figure 17. The detection signal from direct detection was more obviously observed than that from sandwich format.



Figure 17 Direct detection of lateral flow assay, A: C33A, B: SiHa, C: CaSki protein were immobilized on membrane and mouse monoclonal (ab70) conjugated with 40-nm commercial AuNPs was applied on lateral flow assay (T: test line).

4. Specificity of the assay

The specificity of the developed lateral flow assay was tested against different human tumor cell lysate containing other HPV, i.e. Hela containing HPV type 18, ME-180 containing type 18 and 39, MS751 containing HPV type 18 and 45, C33A, and HEp-2 (human laryngeal carcinoma) without HPV DNA. No positive signal on the test line was observed indicating no cross-reactivity with at least HPV type 18, 39, and 45 (Figure 18).

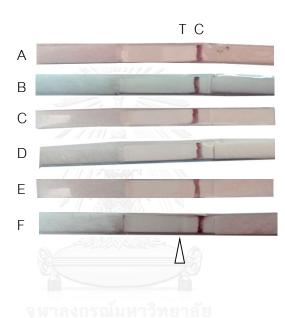


Figure 18 Lateral flow strip test with control cell lysates, A: HeLa, B: ME-180, C: MS751, D: C33A, E: HEp-2, and F: CaSki as positive control

5. Attempts for improvement

From the result, faint positive signal on the test line was the problem yet to be solved. The attempts were made to improve the sensitivity of the test. First, the principle of the assay was changed to competitive principle. Recombinant HPV 16 E6 proteins were immobilized at the test line. If the sample does not contain an excess of free antigen (HPV 16 E6), the antibody conjugated AuNPs can bind at the capture test line, giving a signal, whereas positive sample will block the binding sites on the antibodies, giving no signal. Nevertheless, this principle was not successful developed. There are always signal on the test line even with or without the antigen.

Moreover, an attempt to produce the polyclonal antibody specific to recombinant HPV 16 E6 protein was done using mouse model. Three injections was immunized using HPV 16E6 combining with complete Freund's adjuvant at the first time for a week followed by incomplete Freund's adjuvant twice 2 weeks apart. The blood sample was collected a week after the second and third immunization. The anti-HPV 16 E6 titer (2-fold dilution from 1:10-1:160) was determined in serum by immunofluorescence assay using CaSki cell line. The titer of both samples was 1:10. To concentrate the antibody, ammonium sulphate was used to precipitate the immunoglobulins from mouse serum. The concentrated antibody was then dialyzed in Tris buffer, pH 8 and applied as the captured test line. The result showed false positive signal.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

Cervical cancer worldwide is infected with specific types of HPV DNA mainly HPV 16 and HPV 18 (7, 8). In Thailand, the incidence of cervical cancer ranks top among cancers in women and is reported that HPV16 causes more than 50% of cervical cancer (8). In this study, among 258 clinical samples, HPV DNA was able to detect in 185 (71.71%) samples with CIN I (66.18%), CIN II (69.57%), CIN III (81.25%) and SCC, (79.10%). The recent information of the percentage of HPV infection in CIN I and CIN II was almost double time higher than previous study which reported that HPV infection was 33.3% in CIN-I and 36.8% in CIN-II (61). It suggested that the incidence of HPV infection increases with time among women. However, the percentage of HPV infection in CIN III and SCC in this study was not different from other studies, i.e., 74% CIN III (62), 75% CIN-III (61) and 82% in SCC (63). It is interesting that the highest prevalence of HPV 16 infection was found mostly in CIN II (43.75%) and SCC (49.06%) but not in CIN III (19.23%) which previously reported to be 48.65% by Lertworapreecha M, et al, 1998 (62). The reason of declining in HPV 16 prevalence might be due to the increase of another HPV type such as type 52 which was found up to 23.08% (data not shown). Some study showed that not only HPV 16 but also HPV 52 is the most common found in cervical cancer such as 16.3% (64) and 20.3% (65) in Taiwan and 15% in China (66). Moreover, Kantathavorn N, et al, in 2015 (67) from Thailand reported HPV type 52, 16, and 51 are the most common high risk genotypes found in 5906 Thai women who visit gynecology clinic for screening program. However, HPV 16 and 52 are classified in the same group.

Nowadays, the cervical cancer screening test is co-testing which based on cervical cytology screening and HPV testing (68). However, those tests cannot imply the stage of cancer development and also require for experience technician and expensive instrument. To early diagnosis of the cancer development, HPV 16 E6 is suggested to be a candidate marker. Since it is well known that HPV E6 oncoprotein is overexpressed in

cervical cancer cells, the presence of HPV E6 oncoprotein is a significant marker to early diagnosis of cervical cancer development. At present, HPV E6 mRNA detection kit is commercially available. Disadvantage of this assay is required laboratory and instrument. Therefore, an idea to detect HPV E6 protein instead of mRNA might solve the limitation since protein is more stable than mRNA. Additional with HPV L1 protein detection may have advantages for evaluating the HPV productive stage. In this study, a rapid lateral flow assay was developed to detect HPV 16 E6 and L1 proteins using antibody combining nanogold technology.

Recombinant HPV16 E6 and L1 proteins were used as positive control in the lateral flow assay development. Two recombinant fusion proteins, GST-HPV 16 E6 and GST-HPV 16 L1, were successfully prepared from *E. coli*. The method was followed by Kamonwan (14). The localizations of GST-HPV 16 E6 proteins was in soluble fraction and of recombinant HPV 16 L1 was in inclusion bodies which accordance with other reports (10, 69). Urea solution (8M) was used as solubilizer in extraction of recombinant HPV 16 L1 protein directly affected the immunological reaction on the strip though it was dialyzed in Tris buffer. Thus, the development of lateral flow assay for detecting HPV 16 L1 was unsuccessfully attempted. The expressed GST-HPV 16 E6 proteins were easily purified by GST fusion protein affinity column purification kit. It can be further used in the lateral flow assay development.

To optimize the antibody required to coat on AuNPs, the flocculation curve followed Safenkova I, *et al.* (58) was created. The minimum antibody concentration was chosen in order to prevent the aggregation of AuNPs in the presence of excess salt (10 % NaCl) (70). Flocculation curve was generated between the absorbance at 580 nm in the presence of 10 % NaCl and the antibody concentration. The curve shows the characteristic behavior in agreement with flocculation curve previously reported (58) as expected. The region of the concentration dependence starting from a concentration of 6 µg/ml gold corresponds to the completion of stabilization of AuNPs by antibodies (arrow in Figure 10). However, the optimum antibody concentration (as estimated from the

flocculation curve) resulted in approximately 50-90 % coverage of the AuNPs surface (58). Choi DH, *et al.* (71) showed that the conjugated antibody concentration of 10 μ g/ml gold could bind to many sizes of AuNPs (10, 20, 40 and 60 nm) without significant difference. Moreover, a study of Safenkova I, *et al.* (58) found that the concentration of 15 μ g/ml gold demonstrated maximum binding with the analyte after varying the concentration of antibody from 10 to 100 μ g/ml gold. However, higher concentration of antibody up to 23 μ g/ml gold has been reported (72). For these reasons, the excess concentration of antibody at 10 μ g/ml gold was used in this further experiment to ensure the completeness of the reaction.

The factors which may affect the lateral flow reaction were examined. The size of the AuNPs influences the optical properties of the particle (73, 74). Several publications report on a comparison of the size (5 to 80 nm) of the nanoparticles (58, 75, 76). Safenkova I, *et al.* (58) showed the sensitivity using larger particles was observed. They found that the detection limit decreased from 80 to 3 ng/ml for a series of particles with a diameter from 6.4 to 33.4 nm. However, Laitinen MPA and Vuento M showed the instability of AuNPs decreased as the size increased (75). In this study, the AuNPs in diameter of 10 nm was used followed previous study of Kamolwan (14) and the AuNPs in diameter of 40 nm was another chosen since the size in diameter of 39 \pm 5 nm provided best performance for gold nanoparticles in lateral flow assay (48). All attempts in this study used both 10-nm and 40-nm commercial AuNPs.

The antibody is another important factor that affects directly to the immunologic reaction on the strip. It should be high affinity and specific to provide a satisfying response. The type of antibody used in sandwich principle should be a combination of monoclonal antibodies in different epitopes for giving high specificity. However, the antibodies used in this study are purchases from commercial available. Thus, the limitation of this study is the selection of antibody epitope which was restricted and no different epitope monoclonal antibodies are in the market to purchase. Polyclonal and monoclonal antibodies from different animal species (goat, mouse and rabbit) were used in optimization. When preliminary attempts were performed to find the optimal

combination of antibodies using both polyclonal and monoclonal antibodies as indicated in Table 9, we found mostly false-positive results. One reason is that polyclonal antibody is produced by the immunization of whole antigens resulted in low specificity (77, 78). After optimization, the optimal antibody used to conjugate with AuNPs is mouse monoclonal antibody whereas the capture antibody on the test line is rabbit polyclonal antibody (Table 9; attempt 9). Interestingly, species of the animal produced antibody might affect the reaction as well.

In the first optimization of conjugated antibody, zeta potential measurements (-0.0553) revealed the antibody conjugated nanoparticles were unstable and the mean size of conjugated gold particles was 132 nm which was correlated to the false positive results of lateral flow due to aggregation of the particles. It is noted that the zeta potential and the mean size are not further used because the measurement requires a large number of conjugated gold particles (at least 1 ml).

Blocking solution between 10% BSA and 3% PEG were compared. From Figure 15, the results indicated that 3% PEG was suitable for 10-nm AuNPs blocking and 10% BSA was for 40-nm AuNPs blocking. There are 3 types of gold suspension solutions, i.e., Tannic acid solution (0.01% of HAuCl₄ suspended in 0.01% tannin acid with 0.04% trisodium citrate, 0.26 mM potassium carbonate, and 0.02% sodium azide), DI and PBS. The difference of the gold solution also one factor affected types of blocking solution. Tannic acid solution was good with 3% PEG whereas DI and PBS were good with 10%BSA.

Finally, the optimal condition for detecting HPV 16 E6 protein was mouse monoclonal anti-HPV 16 E6 as conjugated AuNPs, polyclonal rabbit anti- HPV 16 E6 as captured antibody at the test line and goat anti-mouse immunoglobulin G at the control line. Under this condition, 40-nm commercial AuNPs gave the detectable positive line by naked eye at least 5 μ g of recombinant HPV 16 E6 proteins while at least 20 μ g of recombinant HPV16 E6 proteins was detectable when 10-nm commercial AuNPs was used. Then, the assay was tested with the cervical cell lines containing HPV 16 for example CaSki and SiHa to mimic the clinical specimens. Approximately 6.7x10⁵ of both CaSki and SiHa cell lysate gave positive signal on the test line by naked eye observations. However, this developed test showed very low sensitivity of detection and may not be sensitive enough to detect HPV 16 E6 in clinical specimens. The sensitivity and limit of detection of lateral flow assay can be improved by various means, such as optimizing size of gold nanoparticles, adjusting concentration of antibody used for detection on the test line or conjugation with AuNPs, optimizing the conditions of the conjugation of AuNPs with the antibody and conditions of antigen-antibody binding (46, 79). Although we tried to improve the sensitivity of the assay, the results still showed faint positive signal on the test line.

From Figure 16, protein A/G was immobilized on the membrane to evaluate the binding conformation of antibody on the surface of the gold particles. The results showed a positive signal suggesting that Fab part of the antibodies bind to the gold particles and inversely present Fc portion out of the surface. This was one possible explanation why the sensitivity of the assay was low. After that the assay was determined for specificity using different human tumor cell lysates (Table 6). The results indicated that no cross-reactivity with at least HPV type 18, 39, and 45 (Figure 18).

An attempt to increase sensitivity was performed by changing the sandwich principle to competitive principle but it was not succeeded. In addition, another attempt to produce the mouse polyclonal antibody specific to recombinant HPV 16 E6 protein inhouse gave very low anti-HPV E6 titer with high non-specific background. As expected, E6 is a poor immunogenic protein (80, 81).

In conclusion, our study could develop a sandwich lateral flow assay using gold nanoparticles. But it still could not apply to clinical samples due to very low sensitivity. However, this has just begun for the future improvement of the assay. The sensitivity and the specificity of the test will be further enhanced since the lateral flow assay is a promising tool as a point of care test for early and rapid screening test especially in the clinical field, low cost and no instrument requirement.

REFERENCES

- 1. Tommasino M. The human papillomavirus family and its role in carcinogenesis. *Seminars in cancer biology*. 2014 Jun;26:13-21.
- 2. Zheng ZM, Baker CC. Papillomavirus genome structure, expression, and posttranscriptional regulation. *Frontiers in bioscience*. 2006;11:2286-302.
- 3. Petry KU. HPV and cervical cancer. *Scandinavian journal of clinical and laboratory investigation*. 2014;244:59-62.
- 4. Bosch FX, Lorincz A, Munoz N, Meijer CJ, Shah KV. The causal relation between human papillomavirus and cervical cancer. *Journal of clinical pathology*. 2002 Apr;55(4):244-65.
- Schiffman M, Glass AG, Wentzensen N, Rush BB, Castle PE, Scott DR, et al. A Long-Term Prospective Study of Type-Specific Human Papillomavirus Infection and Risk of Cervical Neoplasia among 20,000 Women in the Portland Kaiser Cohort Study. *Cancer epidemiology, biomarkers & prevention.* 2011 05/20;20(7):1398-409.
- 6. Woodman CB, Collins SI, Young LS. The natural history of cervical HPV infection: unresolved issues. *Nature reviews Cancer*. 2007 Jan;7(1):11-22.
- de Villiers EM. Cross-roads in the classification of papillomaviruses. *Virology*. 2013 Oct;445(1-2):2-10.
- de Sanjose S, Quint WG, Alemany L, Geraets DT, Klaustermeier JE, Lloveras B, et al. Human papillomavirus genotype attribution in invasive cervical cancer: a retrospective cross-sectional worldwide study. *The Lancet Oncology*. 2010 Nov;11(11):1048-56.
- Ferlay J, Soerjomataram I, Dikshit R, Eser S, Mathers C, Rebelo M, et al. Cancer incidence and mortality worldwide: sources, methods and major patterns in GLOBOCAN 2012. *International journal of cancer Journal international du cancer*. 2015 Mar 1;136(5):E359-86.
- Burd EM. Human papillomavirus and cervical cancer. *Clinical microbiology reviews*.
 2003 Jan;16(1):1-17.

- Schwaiger C, Aruda M, LaCoursiere S, Rubin R. Current guidelines for cervical cancer screening. *Journal of the American Academy of Nurse Practitioners*. 2012 Jul;24(7):417-24.
- 12. Ganguly N, Parihar SP. Human papillomavirus E6 and E7 oncoproteins as risk factors for tumorigenesis. *Journal of biosciences*. 2009 Mar;34(1):113-23.
- 13. Lynge E, Rygaard C, Baillet MV, Dugue PA, Sander BB, Bonde J, et al. Cervical cancer screening at crossroads. *APMIS : acta pathologica, microbiologica, et immunologica Scandinavica*. 2014 Aug;122(8):667-73.
- Phlaingam K. Detection of Human Papillomavirus type 16 by Goldnanoparticle immunoagglutination. Master's Thesis, Department of Medical microbiology (Interdisciplinary program), Faculty of Graduate School: Chulalongkorn University; 2009.
- Leuvering JH, Goverde BC, Thal PJ, Schuurs AH. A homogeneous sol particle immunoassay for human chorionic gonadotrophin using monoclonal antibodies. *Journal of immunological methods*. 1983 May 27;60(1-2):9-23.
- 16. Jain KK. Nanodiagnostics: application of nanotechnology in molecular diagnostics. *Expert review of molecular diagnostics*. 2003 Mar;3(2):153-61.
- 17. Levy R. Peptide-capped gold nanoparticles: towards artificial proteins. *Chembiochem : a European journal of chemical biology*. 2006 Aug;7(8):1141-5.
- 18. Wang Z, Levy R, Fernig DG, Brust M. The peptide route to multifunctional gold nanoparticles. *Bioconjugate chemistry*. 2005 May-Jun;16(3):497-500.
- Bzhalava D, Guan P, Franceschi S, Dillner J, Clifford G. A systematic review of the prevalence of mucosal and cutaneous human papillomavirus types. *Virology*. 2013 Oct;445(1–2):224-31.
- 20. Pfister H, Ter Schegget J. Role of HPV in cutaneous premalignant and malignant tumors. *Clinics in dermatology*. 1997 Jun;15(3):335-47.
- 21. Curado MP, Edwards B, Shin HR, Ferlay J, Heanue M, Boyle P, et al. Cancer incidence in five continents. *IARC Scientific Publications*. 2008:1-837.

- 22. Forslund O, Lindelof B, Hradil E, Nordin P, Stenquist B, Kirnbauer R, et al. High prevalence of cutaneous human papillomavirus DNA on the top of skin tumors but not in "Stripped" biopsies from the same tumors. *The Journal of investigative dermatology*. 2004 Aug;123(2):388-94.
- 23. Munoz N, Bosch FX, de Sanjose S, Herrero R, Castellsague X, Shah KV, et al. Epidemiologic classification of human papillomavirus types associated with cervical cancer. *The New England journal of medicine*. 2003 Feb 6;348(6):518-27.
- 24. Johnson KM, Kines RC, Roberts JN, Lowy DR, Schiller JT, Day PM. Role of heparan sulfate in attachment to and infection of the murine female genital tract by human papillomavirus. *Journal of virology*. 2009 Mar;83(5):2067-74.
- 25. Giroglou T, Florin L, Schafer F, Streeck RE, Sapp M. Human papillomavirus infection requires cell surface heparan sulfate. *Journal of virology*. 2001 Feb;75(3):1565-70.
- 26. Moody CA, Laimins LA. Human papillomavirus oncoproteins: pathways to transformation. *Nature reviews Cancer*. 2010 Aug;10(8):550-60.
- 27. Bedell MA, Hudson JB, Golub TR, Turyk ME, Hosken M, Wilbanks GD, et al. Amplification of human papillomavirus genomes in vitro is dependent on epithelial differentiation. *Journal of virology*. 1991 May;65(5):2254-60.
- 28. Doorbar J. The papillomavirus life cycle. *Journal of clinical virology : the official publication of the Pan American Society for Clinical Virology*. 2005 Mar;32 Suppl 1:S7-15.
- 29. Doorbar J, Quint W, Banks L, Bravo IG, Stoler M, Broker TR, et al. The Biology and Life-Cycle of Human Papillomaviruses. *Vaccine*. 2012 Nov 20;30 Suppl 5:F55-F70.
- Kajitani N, Satsuka A, Kawate A, Sakai H. Productive lifecycle of human papillomaviruses that depends upon squamous epithelial differentiation. *Frontiers in Microbiology*. 2012 April 24;3.
- 31. Thomas M, Pim D, Banks L. The role of the E6-p53 interaction in the molecular pathogenesis of HPV. *Oncogene*. 1999 Dec 13;18(53):7690-700.
- 32. Syrjanen SM, Syrjanen KJ. New concepts on the role of human papillomavirus in cell cycle regulation. *Annals of medicine*. 1999 Jun;31(3):175-87.

- 33. Yim EK, Park JS. The role of HPV E6 and E7 oncoproteins in HPV-associated cervical carcinogenesis. *Cancer research and treatment : official journal of Korean Cancer Association*. 2005 Dec;37(6):319-24.
- 34. Carr J, Gyorfi T. Human papillomavirus. Epidemiology, transmission, and pathogenesis. *Clinics in laboratory medicine*. 2000 Jun;20(2):235-55.
- 35. Holowaty P, Miller AB, Rohan T, To T. Natural history of dysplasia of the uterine cervix. *Journal of the National Cancer Institute*. 1999 Feb 3;91(3):252-8.
- Ljubojevic S, Skerlev M. HPV-associated diseases. *Clinics in dermatology*. 2014 Mar;32(2):227-34.
- 37. Dunne EF, Park IU. HPV and HPV-associated diseases. *Infectious disease clinics* of North America. 2013 Dec;27(4):765-78.
- 38. Bharti AH, Chotaliya K, Marfatia YS. An update on oral human papillomavirus infection. *Indian journal of sexually transmitted diseases*. 2013 Jul;34(2):77-82.
- Sterling JC. Human papillomaviruses and skin cancer. *Journal of Clinical Virology*. 2005;32:S67-S71.
- 40. Lynde C, Vender R, Bourcier M, Bhatia N. Clinical features of external genital warts. *Journal of cutaneous medicine and surgery*. 2013 Dec;17 Suppl 2:S55-60.
- Wright, Jr TC, Cox J, Massad L, Twiggs LB, Wilkinson EJ, et al. 2001 consensus guidelines for the management of women with cervical cytological abnormalities. *JAMA*. 2002;287(16):2120-9.
- 42. Sato S, Maruta J, Konno R, Yajima A. In situ detection of HPV in a cervical smear with in situ hybridization. *Acta cytologica*. 1998 Dec;42(6):1483-5.
- 43. Kuypers JM, Critchlow CW, Gravitt PE, Vernon DA, Sayer JB, Manos MM, et al. Comparison of dot filter hybridization, Southern transfer hybridization, and polymerase chain reaction amplification for diagnosis of anal human papillomavirus infection. *Journal of clinical microbiology*. 1993 Apr;31(4):1003-6.
- 44. Ikenberg H. Laboratory diagnosis of human papillomavirus infection. *Current problems in dermatology*. 2014;45:166-74.

- 45. Dillner J. The serological response to papillomaviruses. *Seminars in cancer biology*.1999 Dec;9(6):423-30.
- Thobhani S, Attree S, Boyd R, Kumarswami N, Noble J, Szymanski M, et al. Bioconjugation and characterisation of gold colloid-labelled proteins. *Journal of immunological methods*. 2010 Apr 30;356(1-2):60-9.
- 47. Jain KK. Nanotechnology in clinical laboratory diagnostics. *Clinica Chimica Acta*.2005 Aug;358(1–2):37-54.
- 48. Posthuma-Trumpie GA, Korf J, van Amerongen A. Lateral flow (immuno)assay: its strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. A literature survey. *Analytical and bioanalytical chemistry*. 2009 Jan;393(2):569-82.
- 49. Lonnberg M, Carlsson J. Quantitative detection in the attomole range for immunochromatographic tests by means of a flatbed scanner. *Analytical biochemistry*. 2001 Jun 15;293(2):224-31.
- 50. Nareoja T, Maattanen A, Peltonen J, Hanninen PE, Harma H. Impact of surface defects and denaturation of capture surface proteins on nonspecific binding in immunoassays using antibody-coated polystyrene nanoparticle labels. *Journal of immunological methods*. 2009 Aug 15;347(1-2):24-30.
- Kalogianni DP, Goura S, Aletras AJ, Christopoulos TK, Chanos MG, Christofidou M, et al. Dry reagent dipstick test combined with 23S rRNA PCR for molecular diagnosis of bacterial infection in arthroplasty. *Analytical biochemistry*. 2007 Feb 15;361(2):169-75.
- Al-Yousif Y, Anderson J, Chard-Bergstrom C, Kapil S. Development, evaluation, and application of lateral-flow immunoassay (immunochromatography) for detection of rotavirus in bovine fecal samples. *Clinical and diagnostic laboratory immunology*. 2002 May;9(3):723-5.
- 53. Kusano N, Hirashima K, Kuwahara M, Narahara K, Imamura T, Mimori T, et al. Immunochromatographic assay for simple and rapid detection of Satsuma dwarf virus and related viruses using monoclonal antibodies. *Journal of General Plant Pathology*. 2007 Feb 1;73(1):66-71.

- 54. Cui S, Tong G. A chromatographic strip test for rapid detection of one lineage of the H5 subtype of highly pathogenic avian influenza. *Journal of veterinary diagnostic investigation : official publication of the American Association of Veterinary Laboratory Diagnosticians, Inc.* 2008 Sep;20(5):567-71.
- 55. Cazacu AC, Demmler GJ, Neuman MA, Forbes BA, Chung S, Greer J, et al. Comparison of a New Lateral-Flow Chromatographic Membrane Immunoassay to Viral Culture for Rapid Detection and Differentiation of Influenza A and B Viruses in Respiratory Specimens. *Journal of clinical microbiology*. 2004 Apr 26;42(8):3661-4.
- 56. Zhang GP, Guo JQ, Wang XN, Yang JX, Yang YY, Li QM, et al. Development and evaluation of an immunochromatographic strip for trichinellosis detection. *Veterinary parasitology*. 2006 Apr 30;137(3-4):286-93.
- 57. Nishizono A, Khawplod P, Ahmed K, Goto K, Shiota S, Mifune K, et al. A simple and rapid immunochromatographic test kit for rabies diagnosis. *Microbiology and immunology*. 2008 Apr;52(4):243-9.
- 58. Safenkova I, Zherdev A, Dzantiev B. Factors influencing the detection limit of the lateral-flow sandwich immunoassay: a case study with potato virus X. *Analytical and bioanalytical chemistry*. 2012 Jun;403(6):1595-605.
- Yokota S, Fujimori O. Methods of immunogold staining. *Soft Science Publications*.
 Tokyo, Japan 1992: 29–47.
- 60. Wang Z, Zhi D, Zhao Y, Zhang H, Wang X, Ru Y, et al. Lateral flow test strip based on colloidal selenium immunoassay for rapid detection of melamine in milk, milk powder, and animal feed. *International journal of nanomedicine*. 2014 May;9:1699-707.
- Bhattarakosol P, Lertworapreecha M, Kitkumthorn N, Triratanachai S, Niruthisard S.
 Survey of human papillomavirus infection in cervical intraepithelial neoplasia in Thai women. *Journal of the Medical Association of Thailand.* 2002 Jun;85 Suppl 1:S360-5.
- 62. Lertworapreecha M, Bhattarakosol P, Niruthisard S. Detection and typing of human papillomavirus in cervical intraepithelial neoplasia grade III in Thai women. *The*

Southeast Asian journal of tropical medicine and public health. 1998 Sep;29(3):507-11.

- 63. Bhattarakosol P, Poonnaniti A, Niruthisard S. Detection and typing of human papillomavirus in cervical cancer in the Thai. *Journal of the Medical Association of Thailand.* 1996 Dec;79 Suppl 1:S56-64.
- 64. Liaw KL, Hsing AW, Schiffman MH, You SL, Zhang T, Burk R, et al. Human papillomavirus types 52 and 58 are prevalent in cervical cancer from Chinese women. *International journal of cancer Journal international du cancer*. 1997 Nov 27;73(5):775-6.
- 65. Kim TE, Kim HW, Lee KE. Distribution of Human Papillomavirus 52 and 58 Genotypes, and Their Expression of p16 and p53 in Cervical Neoplasia. *Korean Journal of Pathology*. 2014 Feb 10;48(1):24-9.
- Huang S, Afonina I, Miller BA, Beckmann AM. Human papillomavirus types 52 and 58 are prevalent in cervical cancers from Chinese women. *International Journal of Cancer*. 1997;70(4):408-11.
- 67. Kantathavorn N, Mahidol C, Sritana N, Sricharunrat T, Phoolcharoen N, Auewarakul C, et al. Genotypic distribution of human papillomavirus (HPV) and cervical cytology findings in 5906 Thai women undergoing cervical cancer screening programs. *Infectious agents and cancer.* 2015;10:7.
- 68. ACOG Practice Bulletin Number 131: Screening for cervical cancer. *Obstetrics and gynecology*. 2012 Nov;120(5):1222-38.
- 69. Yamada T, Manos MM, Peto J, Greer CE, Munoz N, Bosch FX, et al. Human papillomavirus type 16 sequence variation in cervical cancers: a worldwide perspective. *Journal of virology*. 1997 Mar;71(3):2463-72.
- 70. Geoghegan WD, Ackerman GA. Adsorption of horseradish peroxidase, ovomucoid and anti-immunoglobulin to colloidal gold for the indirect detection of concanavalin A, wheat germ agglutinin and goat anti-human immunoglobulin G on cell surfaces at the electron microscopic level: a new method, theory and application. *The journal* of histochemistry and cytochemistry. 1977 Nov;25(11):1187-200.

- Choi DH, Lee SK, Oh YK, Bae BW, Lee SD, Kim S, et al. A dual gold nanoparticle conjugate-based lateral flow assay (LFA) method for the analysis of troponin I. *Biosensors & bioelectronics*. 2010 Apr 15;25(8):1999-2002.
- Widiyanti D, Koizumi N, Fukui T, Muslich LT, Segawa T, Villanueva SYAM, et al. Development of Immunochromatography-Based Methods for Detection of Leptospiral Lipopolysaccharide Antigen in Urine. *Clinical and Vaccine Immunology*. 2013 Feb 27;20(5):683-90.
- 73. Khlebtsov NG, Dykman LA. Optical properties and biomedical applications of plasmonic nanoparticles. *Journal of Quantitative Spectroscopy and Radiative Transfer*. 2010;111(1):1-35.
- 74. Liu X, Atwater M, Wang J, Huo Q. Extinction coefficient of gold nanoparticles with different sizes and different capping ligands. *Colloids and surfaces B, Biointerfaces*. 2007 Jul 1;58(1):3-7.
- 75. Laitinen MPA, Vuento M. Affinity immunosensor for milk progesterone: identification of critical parameters. *Biosensors and Bioelectronics*. 1996;11(12):1207-14.
- 76. Aveyard J, Mehrabi M, Cossins A, Braven H, Wilson R. One step visual detection of PCR products with gold nanoparticles and a nucleic acid lateral flow (NALF) device. *Chemical communications*. 2007 Nov 7(41):4251-3.
- Varma M, Morgan M, Jasani B, Tamboli P, Amin MB. Polyclonal anti-PSA is more sensitive but less specific than monoclonal anti-PSA: Implications for diagnostic prostatic pathology. *American journal of clinical pathology*. 2002 Aug;118(2):202-7.
- 78. Lipman NS, Jackson LR, Trudel LJ, Weis-Garcia F. Monoclonal versus polyclonal antibodies: distinguishing characteristics, applications, and information resources. *Institute of Laboratory Animal Resources*. 2005;46(3):258-68.
- 79. Ching KH, Lin A, McGarvey JA, Stanker LH, Hnasko R. Rapid and selective detection of botulinum neurotoxin serotype -A and -B with a single immunochromatographic test strip. *Journal of immunological methods*. 2012 Jun 29;380(1-2):23-9.

- 80. Satyaprakash A, Creed R, Ravanfar P, Mendoza N. Human papillomavirus vaccines. *Dermatologic therapy*. 2009;22(2):150-7.
- Frazer IH. Immunology of papillomavirus infection. *Current Opinion in Immunology*. 1996;8(4):484-91.



จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย Chulalongkorn University



APPENDIX A

REAGENTS, MATERIALS AND INSTRUMENTS

A. Media and Reagents

Absolute ethanol AccuGel[™] 29:1 (40% Acrylamide) Acetic acid Amersham ECL Prime Ammonium persulfate Amplicilin Bovine serum albumin Coomassie blue cOmplete Lysis-M CLART HPV2 Amplification kit DAB (3,3'-diaminobenzidine) Substrate Solution DTT Donkey anti-goat IgG ECL reagent **EDTA** Fetal bovine serum Glutathione reduced Goal colloidal solution (10 nm) Goal colloidal solution (40 nm) Goat anti-mouse IgG conjugate HRP Goat anti-mouse IgG unconjugated Goat anti-rabbit IgG conjugate HRP Guanidine hydrochloride **HEPES**

(Merck, Germany) (National diagnosis, USA) (Merck, Germany) (GE healthcare life science, UK) (Bio Basic, USA) (Bio Basic, USA) (Sigma Aldrich, USA) (Sigma Aldrich, USA) (Roche, USA) (Genomica, Spain) (Sigma Aldrich, USA) (Bio Basic, USA) (Santa Cruz, USA) (Prierce Biotechnology, USA) (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) (GIBCO, USA) (USB, USA) (Sigma Aldrich, USA) (Cytodiagnostics, Canada) (Santa Cruz, USA) (Pierce, USA) (Santa Cruz, USA) (Bio Basic, USA) (Sigma Aldrich, USA)

High pure viral nucleic acid kit HPV 16 E6 goat polyclonal antibody HPV 16 E6 rabbit polyclonal antibody HPV 16 E6 mouse monoclonal antibody HPV 16 E6 mouse monoclonal antibody HPV 16 L1 goat polyclonal antibody HPV 16 L1 mouse monoclonal antibody Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) solution IPTG LB broth powder LB agar powder Lysozyme **MEM** medium Methanol NaHCO₃ Penicillin G Polyethyleneglycon Potassium chloride Potassium phosphate Prestained protein ladder

Proteases inhibitor cocktail tablets Quant-IT protein assay kit Sodium bicarbonate Sodium chloride Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) Sodium phosphate Sodium tetraborate decahydrate Streptomycin TEMED (Roche, USA) (Santa Cruz, USA) (Antibodies-online, Germany) (Abcam, UK) (Santa Cruz, USA) (Santa Cruz, USA) (Santa Cruz, USA) (Sigma Aldrich, USA) (Bio Basic, USA) (Oxoid, UK) (Oxoid, UK) (Sigma Aldrich, USA) (GIBCO, USA) (Merck, Germany) (Merck, Geramany) (GIBCO, USA) (Sigma Aldrich, USA) (Merck, Germany) (Bio Basic, USA) (Thermo Scientific, USA) (Roche, USA) (Invitrogen, UK) (Bio Basic, USA) (Merck, Germany) (Bio Basic, USA) (Bio Basic, USA) (Sigma Aldrich, USA) (Invitrogen, USA) (Bio Basic, USA)

Triton X-100	(Sigma Aldrich, USA)
Trypsin	(Bio Basic, USA)
Tris (hydroxymethyl) aminonethane (Trizma base)	(Sigma Aldrich, USA)
Tween 20	(USB, USA)

B. Materials

Absorbent pad (Merck Millipore, Germany) Affinity column GSTrap FF (GE healthcare, USA) Amicon® Ultra 15 ml filters (Merck Millipore, Germany) Centrifuge tube (Labcon, Germany) Conjugation pad (glass fiber) (Merck Millipore, Germany) Disposable cuvettes (BIO-RAD, USA Filter tip (Sorenson, USA) Microcentrifuge tube (Sorenson, USA) Nitrocellulose membrane (Merck Millipore, Germany) Polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane (GE Healthcare, UK) Sample pad (cellulose fiber) (Merck Millipore, Germany) Snakeskin dialysis tubing (Thermo scientific, USA) SurePath sample collection kit (BD, USA) Tissue culture flask (T25 and T75) (Nunc, Denmark) X-ray film (Agfa healthcare, Belgium)

C. Instruments

Autoclave (model-SX-700)	(Tomy, Japan)
ChemiDoc	(Bio-rad, UK)
Clinical Array Reader	(Genomica, Spain)
Centrifuge (Biofuge Stratos)	(SORVALLR, Germany)
CO ₂ incubator	(Thermo Forma, USA)
Incubator	(Memmert, Germany)

Inverted microscope Microcentrifuge (model: Froce 1418) Microscope Mini Analytical Protein Electrophoresis Cells Mixer-vortex pH meter Qubit fluorometer Refrigerator Spectrophotometer (SmartSpect[™] 3000) Sonicator Thermal cycler Trans-Blot[®] Cell Water bath

(OLYMPUS, Japan) (Edison, USA) (OLYMPUS, Japan) (BIO-RAD, USA) (Scientific industrial, USA) (Accmet Basic, Singapore) (Invitrogen[™], UK) (Sanyo, Japan) (BIO-RAD, USA) (BIO-RAD, USA) (BIOER, China) (BIO-RAD, USA) (Julabo, Gernany)

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย Chulalongkorn University

APPENDIX B

REAGENTS PREPARATION

Reagent for preparation of recombinant HPV 16 proteins

1. Luria-Bertani broth

	LB broth powder		40	g
	DW to		1	L
	Sterilized by autoclav	e		
2. L	₋uria-Bertani agar			
	LB agar powder		30	g
	DW to		1	L

Sterilized by autoclave

To pour plate, agar was allowed to cool about 50 °C and then amplicilin 100 mg/ml was added. After drying, plates were stored at 4 °C until used.

3. Lysis buffer

PBS (steriled)	9.65	ml	
100 mM DTT CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY	200	μΙ	
Triton X-100	100	μΙ	
200 KU Lysozyme	50	μΙ	
Proteases inhibitor cocktail tablets		tabblet	
Stored at 4°C			

4. Binding buffer

NaCl	8	g
KCI	20	mg
Na ₂ HPO ₄	1.1	g
KH ₂ PO ₄	20	mg
DDW to	90	ml

Adjusted to pH 7.3 and adjusted volume to 100 ml with additional DDW Sterilized by filtration (0.45 μ m) and stored at room temperature

5. Elution buffer

Tris-HCI	1.21	g
Glutathione reduced	0.61	g
DDW to	190	ml
Adjusted to pH 8.0 and adjusted volume to 200 ml with addit	ional D	DW

Adjusted to pH 8.0 and adjusted volume to 200 ml with additional JL Sterilized by filtration and stored at room temperature

6. L1 washing buffer

-			
Tris		6.06	g
NaCl		5.84	g
DTT		0.15	g
EDTA		0.37	g
DDW (steriled)) to	800	ml

Adjusted to pH 8.0 and adjusted volume to 1000 ml with additional DDW (steriled) and stored at $4^\circ \rm C$

7. 8M Urea solution

Urea	240.24	g
NaH ₂ PO ₄	6	g
EDTA	0.19	g
DTT	0.08	g
Tris	0.61	g
DDW(steriled) to	800	ml

Adjusted to pH 8.0 and adjusted volume to 1000 ml with additional DDW and stored at 4°C

Reagent for SDS-PAGE and western blot

10% Ammonium persulfate (APS)

TEMED

1.	Resolving gel (10% Acrylamide)		
	DDW	4.9	ml
	1.5M Tris-HCI (pH 8.8)	2.5	ml
	40% Acrylamide/bis 37.5:1	2.5	ml
	10% SDS	100	μΙ
	10% APS	50	μΙ
	TEMED	20	μΙ
2.	Stacking gel (5% Acrylamide)		
	DDW	2.4	ml
	40% Acrylamide/bis 37.5:1	0.5	ml
	0.5M Tris-HCI (pH 6.8)	1	ml
	10% SDS	40	μΙ

40

4

μl

μl

3. 1.5M Tris-HCI (pH 8.8)

Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminonethane-hydrochloride DW Stored at room temperature	18.5 100	g ml
4. 0.5M Tris-HCI (pH 6.8)		
Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminonethane-hydrochloride	3	g
DW	50	ml
Stored at room temperature		
5. 10X Running buffer		
Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminonethane	30.3	g
Glycine	144	g
SDS	10	g
DW	1000	g
Stored at 4°C		
1X Running buffer		
10X Running buffer	100	ml
DW	900	ml
Stored at room temperature		
6. 10x Blotting buffer		
Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminonethane	30.3	g

Ths(hydroxymethyr)armnonethane	30.5	y
Glycine	144	g
Stored at 4°C		

7. 1X Blotting buffer

		10X Blotting buffer	100	ml
		Methanol	200	ml
		DW	800	ml
		Stored at room temperature		
8.	20	X Tris buffer saline (TBS, pH 7.5)		
		Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminonethane	24.23	g
		NaCl	175.32	g
		DW	1000	ml
		Stored at room temperature		
9.	1X	TBST		
		20X TBS	50	ml
		Tween20	1	ml
		DW	950	ml
		Stored at room temperature		
10	6X	Sample buffer		
10	. 07		0.000	G
		Bromophenol blue	0.002	g
		SDS	1	g
		Glyceral	3	ml
		5% eta -mercaptoethanol	0.5	ml
		0.5M Tris-HCl pH 6.8	7	ml
		Stored at -20°C		
11.	. 0.1	% Bovine serum albumin (for dilute antibody)		
		Bovine serum albumin	0.05	g
		1X TBST	50	ml

Stored at 4°C

12.	3% Bovine serum albumin (membrane blocking reagent)						
	Bovine serum albumin	0.9	g				
	1X TBST	30	ml				
	This reagent should be fresh preparation						
Reagent for cells cultivation							
1.	1M HEPES						
	HEPES	23.83	g				
	DDW (steriled)	100	ml				
	Sterilized by autoclave and stored at 4°C						
2.	10% Na ₂ HCO ₃						
	Na ₂ HCO ₃	10	g				
	DDW (steriled)	100	ml				
	Sterilized by autoclave and stored at 4°C						
3.	2X MEM						
	MEM medium	20.8	g				
	DDW (steriled)	1000	ml				
	Sterilized by filtration and stored at 4°C						
4.	10% MEM						
	2X MEM	100	ml				
	Fetal bovine serum	20	ml				
	1M HEPES	2	ml				
	Pen/Strep Antibiotic (5,000U/ml)	2	ml				
		2	ml				
	$10\% \text{ Na}_2\text{HCO}_3$						
	DDW (steriled)	73	ml				
	Stored at 4°C						

5. 5% Trypsin

6.

7.

8.

9.

Trypsin	5	g				
DDW (steriled)	100	ml				
Sterilized by filtration (0.2 $\mu m)$ and stored at -20°C						
0.25% Trypsin-EDTA						
5% Trypsin (steriled)	5	ml				
1% EDTA (steriled)	2	ml				
1X PBS (steriled)	93	ml				
Stored at 4°C						
1% EDTA						
EDTA	1	g				
DDW (steriled)	100	ml				
Sterilized by autoclave and stored at 4°C						
10X PBS pH 7.4						
NaCl	80	g				
KCI	2	g				
Na ₂ HPO ₄	11.50	g				
KH ₂ PO ₄	2	g				
DDW (steriled)	1000	ml				
Sterilized by autoclave and stored at room temperature						
1X PBS						
10X PBS (steriled)	50	ml				
DDW (steriled)	450	ml				
Stored at room temperature						

Reagent for Lateral flow assay

1. 10% NaCl

	NaCl	1	g	
	DDW (steriled)	10	ml	
	Stored at room temperature			
2.	10% BSA			
	BSA	1	g	
	DDW (steriled)	10	ml	
	Stored at 4°C			
3.	10% PEG			
	PEG	1	g	
	DDW (steriled)	10	ml	
	Stored at 4°C			
4.	Storage buffer			
	Sodium tetraborate decahydrate (Na ₂ B ₄ O ₇)	0.4	g	
	BSA	1	g	
	Sodium azide	0.1	g	
	Milli Q water	90	ml	
	Adjusted to pH 8.0 and adjusted volume to 100 ml with additional Milli Q wa			

Adjusted to pH 8.0 and adjusted volume to 100 ml with additional Milli Q water and stored at 4°C

5. Running buffer

0.1X PBS	99	ml		
Tween 20	1	ml		
Stored at room temperature				

VITA

Name : Phitchaya Hunanonthasak

Date of birth : January 8, 1986

Place of birth : Bangkok, Thailand

Education :

2004-2007 Bachelor degree of Science (Medical Technology),

Faculty of Associated Medical Sciences, Chiang Mai University,

Chiang Mai, Thailand.

Publication : Phitchaya Hunanonthasak, Amornpun Sereemaspun,

Somchai Niruthisard, and Parvapan Bhattarakosol.

Development of Lateral Flow Assay for Detecting HPV-16 E6

Oncoprotein. Proceeding of The 34th National Graduate

Research Conference, Graduate school Khon Kaen University. March 2015: 1073-1079