การเปรียบเทียบลำคับนิวคลีโอไทค์ของ gene L1 ในเชื้อ Human papillomavirus ที่แยกได้จากตัวอย่างต้อเนื้อ และตัวอย่างมะเร็งปากมดลูกชนิด Adenocarcinoma

นางสาวลักคณา ธรรมโชติรุจน์

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาวิทยาศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาจุลชีววิทยาทางการแพทย์ (สหสาขาวิชา) บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

ปีการศึกษา 2554

ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย บทคัดย่อและแฟ้มข้อมูลฉบับเต็มของวิทยานิพนธ์ตั้งแต่ปการศึกษา 2554 ที่ให้บริการในคลังปัญญาจุฬาฯ (CUIR)

เป็นแฟ้มข้อมูลของนิสิตเจ้าของวิทยานิพนธ์ที่ส่งผ่านทางบัณฑิตวิทยาลัย

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 Graduate School.

# COMPARISON OF L1 GENE OF HUMAN PAPILLOMAVIRUS FROM PTERYGIUM AND ADENOCARCINOMA CERVICAL TISSUE

Miss Luckana Thammachoteruja

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 2011 Copyright of Chulalongkorn University

Thesis Title	COMPARISON OF L1 GENE OF HUMAN PAPILLOMAVIRUS FROM		
	PTERYGIUM AND ADENOCARCINOMA CERVICAL TISSUE		
Ву	Miss Luckana Thammachoteruja		
Field of Study	Medical Microbiology		
Thesis Advisor	Associate Professor Parvapan Bhattarakosol, Ph.D.		
Thesis Co-advisor	Associate Professor Somchai Niruthisard, M.D.		
Thesis Co-advisor	Associate Professor Ngamjit Kasetsuwan, 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 Pornpote Piumsomboon, Ph.D.)

#### THESIS COMMITTEE

..... Chairman

(Associate Professor Ariya Chindamporn, Ph.D.)

...... Thesis Advisor

(Associate Professor Parvapan Bhattarakosol, Ph.D.)

...... Thesis Co-advisor

(Associate Professor Somchai Niruthisard, M.D.)

...... Thesis Co-advisor

(Associate Professor Ngamjit Kasetsuwan, M.D.)

..... External Examiner

(Associate Professor Wasan Chantratita, Ph.D.)

ลักคณา ธรรมโชติรุจน์: การเปรียบเทียบลำดับนิวคลีโอไทด์ของ gene L1 ในเชื้อ Human papillomavirus ที่แยกได้จากตัวอย่างต้อเนื้อ และตัวอย่างมะเร็งปากมดลูกชนิด Adenocarcinoma (COMPARISON OF L1 GENE OF HUMAN PAPILLOMAVIRUS FROM PTERYGIUM AND ADENOCARCINOMA CERVICAL TISSUE) อ.ที่ปรึกษา วิทยานิพนธ์หลัก : รศ.ดร.ภาวพันธ์ ภัทรโกศล, อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์ร่วม : รศ.นพ.สม ชัย นิรุตติศาสน์ และ รศ.พญ.งามจิตต์ เกษตรสุวรรณ 87 หน้า

โรคด้อเนื้อ คืออาการที่เกิดเป็นรอยโรคของเนื้อเยื่อเส้นใยของหลอดนำส่งของเหลวบริเวณลูกตา ที่มีลักษณะเป็นเนื้องอก ของเยื่อตา การศึกษาเกี่ยวกับสาเหตุของโรค และกลไกในการเกิดโรคไม่เป็นที่แน่ชัด สันนิษฐานว่าน่าจะเกิดจากปัจจัยทางด้าน สิ่งแวคล้อม เช่นแสง ultraviolet จากควงอาทิตย์, ความผิดปกติในระดับโมเลกุล รวมถึงไวรัสที่ทำให้เกิดโรค ได้แก่ HPV ส่วน Adenocarcinoma คือชนิดของมะเร็งปากมดลูกที่แบ่งออกตามลักษณะพยาธิสภาพของเซลล์ ซึ่งเป็นมะเร็งที่เกิดขึ้นในเซลล์ต่อม เกิดขึ้นบริเวณ endocervix มีสาเหตุมาจากการติดเชื้อ HPV และปัจจัยเสี่ยงอื่นร่วมด้วย ได้แก่ ปัจจัยทางสิ่งแวคล้อม, ปัจจัยของโฮสต์ และ ปัจจัยของไวรัส ก่อนหน้านี้ได้มีการศึกษาอุบัติการณ์การพบและชนิดของ HPV ในตัวอย่างมะเร็งปากมดลูกชนิด adenocarcinoma พบ HPV ชนิด 18 และ 16 มากที่สุด ส่วนอุบัติการณ์การพบและชนิดของ HPV ในตัวอย่างต้อเนื้อ พบ HPV ชนิด 6 และ 11 มากที่สุด และยังพบ HPV ชนิด 16 และ 18 ด้วย วัตถุประสงก์ของการศึกษาครั้งนี้กือ ศึกษาเปรียบเทียบลำดับนิวคลีโอไทด์ ของ L1 gene ในเชื้อ HPV ชนิดที่ตรวจพบได้ในตัวอย่างต้อเนื้อ เปรียบเทียบกับลำดับนิวกลีโอไทด์ของ L1 gene ในเชื้อ HPV ชนิด ที่ตรวจพบได้ในด้วอย่างมะเร็งปากมดลูกชนิด adenocarcinoma

การสึกษาครั้งนี้ทำการหาชนิดของ HPV โดยวิธี reverse hybridization จากกลุ่มตัวอย่างที่เป็น DNA ที่สกัดได้จากเนื้อเยื่อ ของผู้ป่วยที่เป็น โรคต้อเนื้อจำนวน 25 ตัวอย่าง และกลุ่มมะเร็งปากมคลูกชนิด adenocarcinoma จำนวน 89 ตัวอย่าง จากผลการสึกษา ความชุกของ HPV ในกลุ่มตัวอย่างต้อเนื้อ สามารถตรวจหาชนิดของ HPV ได้ทั้งหมด 16 ตัวอย่าง คิดเป็น 64% โดยพบ HPV-16 ใน ทุกตัวอย่าง รองลงมาเป็นการติดเชื้อร่วมกับ HPV-18 (2/25, 8%) และ HPV-58 (2/25, 8%) ส่วนในกลุ่มของ มะเร็งปากมคลูกชนิด adenocarcinoma สามารถตรวจหาชนิดของ HPV ได้ทั้งหมด 23 ตัวอย่าง คิดเป็น 25.8% พบว่าเป็นการติดเชื้อร่วมกันของ HPV หลาย ชนิด โดยพบ HPV 51 มากที่สุด (7/23, 30.43%) รองลงมาเป็น HPV 58 (5/23, 21.74%) ตามมาด้วย HPV16 (4/23, 17.39%) และ HPV 53 (4/23, 17.39%)

ผลการศึกษาเปรียบเทียบลำดับเบสของ L1 gene ของ HPV-16, 31, 52, 53, 58, 59, 66 and 70 เทียบกับลำดับเบสของ reference HPV ในแต่ละชนิด พบว่ามีตำแหน่งเบสบางตำแหน่งเปลี่ยนไป นอกจากนี้ยังพบว่าตำแหน่งเบสที่เปลี่ยนไปในตัวอย่างที่ เป็น HPV-31, 53, 59 และ 70 มีผลทำให้ตำแหน่งของกรดอะมิโนของโปรตีน L1 เปลี่ยนไปเช่นกัน และจากการเปรียบเทียบลำดับ เบสของ HPV-16 ในกลุ่มตัวอย่างด้อเนื้อเทียบกับกลุ่มตัวอย่างมะเร็งปากมดลูกชนิด adenocarcinoma พบว่าตำแหน่งของนิวกลีโอ ไทด์ มีความแตกต่างกัน 3 ตำแหน่ง

การศึกษานี้แสดงให้เห็นว่า ลำดับนิวกลีโอไทด์ของ gene L1 ในเชื้อ HPV ที่แยกได้จากตัวอย่างต้อเนื้อ เทียบกับ ตัวอย่างมะเร็งปากมดลูกชนิด Adenocarcinoma มีความแตกต่างกันเล็กน้อย แต่ยังอยู่ในกิ่งเดียวกันของแผนภูมิค้นไม้

สาขาวิชา <u>จุลชีววิทยาทางการแพทย์</u> ปีการศึกษา <u>2554</u>

ลายมือชื่อนิสิต
ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก
ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์ร่วม
ลายปีอชื่อ อ ที่ปรึกษาวิทยาบิพบธ์ร่าน

#### ## 5187255620: MAJOR MEDICAL MICROBIOLOGY

#### KEY WORDS: HUMAN PAPILLOMAVIRUS/ L1 GENE

LUCKANA THAMMACHOTERUJA: COMPARISON OF L1 GENE OF HUMAN PAPILLOMAVIRUS FROM PTERYGIUM AND ADENOCARCINOMA CERVICAL TISSUE. ADVISOR: ASSOC. PROF. PARVAPAN BHATTARAKOSOL, Ph.D., CO-ADVISOR : ASSOC. PROF. SOMCHAI NIRUTHISARD, M.D., ASSOC. PROF. NGAMJIT KASETSUWAN, M.D.87 pp.

Pterygium is a common eye disease and is a fibrovascular lesion of the ocular surface. It is unknown pathogenesis and origin. Environment factors(UV-B light), genetic factors including viral infections may be implicated. Oncogenic virus, HPV has been hypothesized to be related with pterygium progress. Adenocarcinoma is a major histological types of cervical cancer, which emerges within glands and locates in the endocervix. In previous study, HPV 18 and 16 were the most common type found in adenocarcinoma, while HPV 6, 11, 16 and 18 have been previously reported in pterygium. Aim of this study was to determine the prevalence of HPV genotypes and compared the DNA sequence of L1 gene of HPV in pterygium and adenocarcinoma of cervical tissue.

In pterygium patients, HPV genotyping by using reverse hybridization was successfully done in 16 of 25 patients (64%). HPV-16 was the most common genotype. Among those 16 samples, 4 samples had mixed infection with HPV-18 (2/25, 8%) and HPV-58 (2/25, 8%). In cervical tissue, the infection of mixed genotypes was the most frequently found (17/23, 73.91%). HPV 51 was found 30.43% (7/23), HPV 58 was 21.74% (5/23), followed by each the HPV16 (4/23, 17.39%) and HPV 53 (4/23, 17.39%)

Intragenotypic variations in the L1 regions of each HPV type (HPV-16, 31, 52, 53, 58, 59, 66 and 70) were aligned with reference HPV. Several mutations were identified. The presence of different nucleotide mutations in HPV type 31, 53, 59 and 70 led to amino acid change in the L1 protein. The comparison of L1 gene sequences of HPV type 16 in pterygium and adenocarcinoma cervical tissue showed only 3 different single nucleotide mutations. The results indicate DNA sequence of L1 gene of Human papillomavirus from pterygium and adenocarcinoma cervical tissue were very few different in genomic variant and they were clustered in the same branch of Phylogenetic tree.

Field of Study: Medical Microbiology

Academic Year: 2011

Student's Signature..... Advisor's Signature.... Co-advisor's Signature ..... Co-advisor's Signature ....

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deepest and sincere appreciation to my advisor, Associate Professor Dr. Parvapan Bhattarakosol, Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, for her advices, kindness, valuable guidance, and devotion which has enabled me to carry out my study successfully.

I am particularly grateful to Associate Professor Somchai Niruthisard, Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital and Associate Professor Ngamjit Kasetsuwan, Department of Ophthalmology, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, my co-advisors, for their valuable suggestions and comments for completeness of the thesis.

I am also very grateful to the members of the thesis committee for their kindness, constructive critisms and helpful suggestions for completeness and correction of this thesis.

I am indebted to the Ratchadapiseksompotch Research Fund, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, for funding of this study.

I would like to extend my appreciation to the staff at the Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital for their kindness helping in histopathology preparation.

I would like to extend my appreciation to my friends of the Department of Microbiology for their help and friendship.

I also would like to thank to Miss Thitiya Loykaew, for her help in bioinformatics.

Finally, I am extreamly grateful to my mother and my aunt for their love, understanding, patience, support and encouragement throughout my life.

# CONTENTS

Page

ABSTRACT (THAI)			iv
ABST	ſRA	CT (ENGLISH)	v
ACK	NOV	VLEDGEMENTS	vi
CON	ΓEN	TS	vii
LIST	OF '	TABLES	Х
LIST	OF	FIGURES	xi
LIST	OF .	ABBREVIATIONS	xii
CHAI	PTE	R	
]	[	INTRODUCTION	1
]	II	HYPOTHESIS AND OBJECTIVES	3
]	III	REVIEW AND RELATED LITERATURES	4
		HPV:Structure and Genome	4
		Classification	8
HPV Lifecycle10			10
		Pathogenesis	10
		Transmission	12
		Epidemiology	12
		Clinical Manifestations	13
		Detection of HPV: Molecular Diagnostics	18
		Genome variation of HPV genotypes	19
]	IV	MATERIALS AND METHODS	20
		1. Study samples	20
		1.1 Pterygium specimen	20
		1.2 Cervical specimen	20
		1.3 Ehical approved	20
		1.4 HeLa cells	20

2. Extraction of DNA \_\_\_\_\_ 21

CHAPTI	CHAPTER	
	2.1 Formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded tissue	_ 21
	2.2 HeLa DNA	_ 22
	3. HPV DNA Detection	_ 22
	4. HPV genotyping	_ 24
	5. Sequencing analysis	_ 25
	5.1 Direct sequencing of HPV	_ 25
	5.1.1 Purification of PCR product	_ 25
	5.1.2 Analysis of DNA sequencing	_ 26
	5.2 Molecular cloning and nucleotide sequencing of HPV genome	26
	5.2.1 Ligation mixture	_ 26
	5.2.2 Transformation	_ 27
	5.2.3 Colony selection	_ 27
	5.2.4 Preparation of plasmid DNA	_ 28
	5.2.5 Sequencing	_ 29
V	RESULTS	31
	1. Detection of HPV DNA	31
	1.1 Pterygium specimens	31
	1.2 Cervical specimens	31
	2. HPV Genotyping	31
	3. DNA sequence analysis	37
	3.1 Pterygium specimens	37
	3.2 Cervical specimens	37
	4. Genetic Variability	_ 40
	4.1 HPV 16 L1 Sequence Variations	_ 40
	4.2 HPV 31 L1 Sequence Variations	_ 44
	4.3 HPV 52 L1 Sequence Variations	48
	4.4 HPV 53 L1 Sequence Variations	51
	4.5 HPV 58 L1 Sequence Variations	55
	4.6 HPV 59 L1 Sequence Variations	_ 57

CHAPTER	Page	
4.7 HPV 66 L1 Sequence Variations	60	
4.8 HPV 70 L1 Sequence Variations	62	
5. Phylogenetic analysis	66	
VI DISCUSSION	68	
REFERENCES		
APPENDICES		
APPENDIX A		
APPENDIX B	86	
BIOGRAPHY		

# LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	A summary of the functions of HPV open reading frames (ORFs)	7
2	Human papillomavirus types and clinical manifestations	
3	Sequence of oligonucleotides primers	
4	Condition of Ligation mixture	27
5	Condition of colony PCR master mix	
6	Reference of each genotype from GenBank	
7	HPV genotypes prevalence in pterygium specimens	
8	HPV genotypes prevalence in cervical specimens	
9	HPV genotypes prevalence in pterygium specimens by Direct sequencing	
	analysis	38
10	HPV genotypes prevalence in adenocarcinoma specimens by sequencing	
	analysis	
11	Abbreviation of amino acids	41
12	Mutation positions of HPV 16 comparing to references HPV strains	42
13	Mutation positions of HPV 31 comparing to references HPV strains	
14	Mutation positions of HPV 52 comparing to references HPV strains	50
15	Mutation positions of HPV 53 comparing to references HPV strains	54
16	Mutation positions of HPV 58 comparing to references HPV strains	55
17	Mutation positions of HPV 59 comparing to references HPV strains	
18	Mutation positions of HPV 66 comparing to references HPV strains	
19	Mutation positions of HPV 70 comparing to references HPV strains	
20	Human papillomavirus (HPV) DNA in pterygium	
	Comparison of published data	

# LIST OF FIGURES

Figures		Page
1	Genetic map of Human Papillomavirus	6
2	Phylogenetic tree containing the sequences of 118 papillomavirus types	
3	Life Cycle of Human Papillomavirus in the squamous Epithelium	11
4	Electrophoresis of PCR products on 1.5% agarose gel:	
	cervical specimens group	
5	Pattern of genotype band of HPV positive pterygium tissue cases	
	were determined by Reverse hybridization	
6	Pattern of genotype band of HPV positive cervical tissue cases	
	were determined by Reverse hybridization	
7	Nucleotide sequences alignment of HPV 16	43
8	Nucleotide sequences alignment of HPV 31	
9	Amino acid alignment of HPV 31	47
10	Nucleotide sequence alignment of HPV 52	49
11	Nucleotide sequence alignment of HPV 53	
12	Amino acid alignment of HPV 53	53
13	Nucleotide sequence alignment of HPV 58	56
14	Nucleotide sequence alignment of HPV 59	58
15	Amino acid alignment of HPV 59	59
16	Nucleotide sequence alignment of HPV 66	61
17	Nucleotide sequence alignment of HPV 70	63
18	Amino acid alignment of HPV 70	64
19	Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree based on L1 (331 bp)	67

# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AC	=	Adenocarcinoma
ATP	=	Adenosine triphosphate
$\beta$ -globin	=	Beta globin
bp	=	Base pair
<sup>0</sup> C	=	Degree Celsius
CIN	=	Cervical intraepithelial neoplasia
CSIL	=	Cervical squamous intraepithelial lesions
DNA	=	Deoxyribonucleic acid
dNTP	=	Deoxynucleotide triphosphate
E.coli	=	Escherichia coli
et al	=	et alii
EV	=	Epidermodysplasia verruciformis
HC1	=	Hydrochloric acid
HPV	=	Human papillomavirus
Hr	=	Hour
HSV	=	Herpes simplex virus
ICC	=	Invasive cervical cancer
Kbp	=	Kilo base pairs
KC1	=	Potassium chloride
LB	=	Luria Bertani medium
LCR	=	Long control region
М	=	Molar
MgCl <sub>2</sub>	=	Magnesium chloride
min	=	Minute
mL	=	Milliliter
mM	=	Millimolar
NCBI	=	National Center for Biotechnology Information
ng	=	Nanogram

nm	=	Nanometer
ORF	=	Open reading frame
PCR	=	Polymerase Chain Reaction
pmole	=	Picomole
pRb	=	Retinoblastoma protein
RRP	=	Recurrent respiratory papillomatosis
SCC	=	Squamous cell carcinoma
sec	=	Second
Tris	=	Tris-(hydroxymethyl)-aminoethane
μL	=	Microliter
UV	=	Ultraviolet
VLPs	=	Virus-like particles

#### CHAPTER I

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Human papillomavirus (HPV) is a member of the family *Papillomaviridae*. It is a small non-enveloped virus containing closed circular double stranded DNA genome. HPV particle is about 55 nm in size. The circular DNA genome, approximately 8 kb in length has 3 functional major regions: early (E: a gene coding early viral proteins), late (L: a gene coding late viral proteins), and a long control region (LCR or noncoding region [NCR]):(1). The early region encodes 6 non-structural proteins (E1, E2, E4, E5, E6 and E7). The E1, E2 and E4 contribute to the viral replication and E5 - E7 are oncogenic proteins that involve in malignant transforming of cervical cancer and associate undifferentiated or intermediately differentiated keratinocytes. E6 and E7 are two viral oncoproteins that inactivate, 2 cellular tumor suppressor proteins, p53 and retinoblastoma (pRb), respectively. The late region of all papillomavirus genomes encodes major (L1) and minor capsid (L2) proteins. The LCR regulates viral replication and gene expression(2-7).

There are different HPV genotypes more than 100 types and the genomes of more than 80 have been completely sequenced. The classification of different HPV types have been identified based on DNA sequence analysis, the genotype are considered distinct if they share less than 90% homology in the nucleotide sequence of the E6, E7 and L1 open reading frame (ORF). Subtypes have between 90% and 95% homology, and variants between 96% and 98% (3, 4, 8). Approximately 30-40 distinct HPV genotypes affect the genital tract, at least 15 genotypes (16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58, 59, 68, 73 and 82) are characterized as 'high-risk' group as they associate with the development of cervical cancer. HPV genotypes 16 and 18 are found in 70 to 80% of all cervical cancers. HPV genotypes designated as 'low-risk' group are such as 6,11,40,42,43,44, 54,61,70,72,81 and CP6108. HPV genotypes 6 and 11 associate with 90% of genital warts (3, 9). HPV can be classified into cutaneous and mucosal types. Cutaneous types infect the squamous epithelium of the skin and produce common warts, plantar warts and flat warts. Mucosal HPVs infect the mucous membranes and can cause cervical neoplasia in adults as well as anogenital warts(10-13).

There are 2 major histological types of cervical cancer, 80 - 85% are squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) while adenocarcinoma (AC) accounts for 15 - 20%. Squamous cell carcinoma arises from the squamous epithelia on the ectocervix while adenocarcinoma emerges within glands and located in the endocervix, usually at the area where the ectocervix connects to the endocervix. The patients with cervical adenocarcinoma present with symptoms such as abnormal vaginal bleeding or discharge, or with pelvic pain. Most cervical adenocarcinomas are characterized by an abnormal mass or growth on the cervix which can be seen during a colposcopy(14-17). HPV 18 and 16 were the most common types found in adenocarcinomas (18).

Pterygium is a common eye disease and most found in tropical countries. Pterygium is a fibrovascular lesion of the ocular surface; it is unknown pathogenesis and origin. The characteristic of disease is a wing-like of the conjunctiva onto cornea with inflammation of fibroblast and blood vessel. The development of pterygia appears to be involved to environmental factors, such as exposure to ultraviolet light, genetic factors and viral infections. Besides these, inflammatory reactions, degeneration of the cornea, fibroblastic proliferation, allergic factors, and immunopathological mechanisms are probably factors to induce the disease. Oncogenic virus, HPV has been hypothesized to be related with pterygium progress(19, 20). HPV 6, 11, 16 and 18 have been previously reported in pterygium(18, 21-29). It is interesting to know whether HPV of the same genotypes that cause pterygium are the same as that cause cervical carcinoma. This knowledge may support the use of HPV vaccine in prevention pterygium disease.

In this study, the nucleotides of HPV L1 gene among HPV-DNA obtained from pterygium and adenocarcinoma cervical tissues were analyzed and compared.

# **CHAPTER II**

# HYPOTHESIS AND OBJECTIVES

# Hypothesis

DNA sequence of L1 gene of Human papillomavirus from pterygium and adenocarcinoma cervical tissue are different

# Objectives

- 1. To determine the genotypes of HPV in pterygium
- 2. To determine the genotypes of HPV in adenocarcinoma cervical tissue
- 3. To compare the genotypes and DNA sequence of L1 gene of HPV from pterygium and adenocarcinoma cervical tissue

#### **CHAPTER II**

#### **REVIEW AND RELATED LITERATURES**

#### **HPV:Structure and Genome**

Human papillomavirus (HPV) is a member of the family *Papillomaviridae*. It is a small non-enveloped virus with a diameter of 40-55 nm in size. The particle of HPV has icosahedral symmetry, isometric capsid consists of 72 capsomers. HPV genome is closed circular double stranded DNA approximately 8 kbp. The genome includes of 8 - 10 open reading frames (ORFs), all locates on the same strand(1). The genome can be divided into 3 functional major regions: early (E: a gene coding early viral proteins), late (L: a gene coding late viral proteins), and a long control region (LCR or noncoding region [NCR]: a region between E and L)(Fig.1). Early genes encode proteins which play roles in HPV genome replication, transcriptional regulation and transformation. The late genes, L1 and L2, encode for major and minor capsid proteins (2-5, 7, 8, 13). E1 protein is a regulator of viral replication and transcription. E2, which is responsible for recognition and binding of origin of replication, forms a protein complex with E1 and regulates transcription of viral genome. The E4 protein involves in maturation and release of viral particles. E5 which involves in cell transformation binds with host membrane proteins such as growth factor receptors. The E6 and E7 proteins are proteins associated with malignant transformation activies. These proteins activate cell proliferation by interacting and suppressing the functions of tumour suppressor proteins p53 and pRb that are important in controlling cell proliferation. E6 encoded by high risk HPV is able to bind with p53 tumour suppressor protein, this interaction encourages the degradation of p53. The high risk HPV E7 protein binds to pRb tumor suppressor protein with a higher affinity than the low risk HPV E7 proteins. pRb plays an important role in cellular proliferation. The pRb releases E2F that stimulates cell cycle progression in hypophosphorylation form. The binding association of the E7 protein with pRb is in hypophosphorylation. Late region L1 ORF is the most conserved region, responsible for initial binding to the cell surface. L2 is the minor capsid protein, coexpressed with L1 to incorporate of the viral DNA into viral like-particles (VLPs) (3, 8, 11, 30-35). These functions of HPV genes are shown in Table 1.



Figure 1 Genetic map of human papillomavirus: The 3 major regions of the genome contain the long control region (LCR), the early (E) gene region and the late (L) gene region(36)

# Table 1 A summary of the functions of HPV open reading frames (ORFs)(37)

Viral Protein	Functions and Properties
E1	ATP-dependent DNA helicase. Role in segregation of genomes during
	cell division, genome replication
E2	Regulatory role in viral transcription and replication (binds to
	regulatory region on viral genome and forms initiation complex with
	E1 protein). Regulation of cellular gene expression; cell cycle and
	apoptosis regulation
E3	Unknown functions
E4	Remodels cytokeratin network; cell cycle arrest; virion assembly
E5	Control of cell growth and differentiation by complexed with
	epidermal-growth-factor receptor
E6	Binds to and degrades p53, inhibits apoptosis and differentiation
E7	Binds to the hypophosphorylation form and degrades of the
	retinoblastoma (pRb) protein promoting E2F release and S-phase entry
	of cell cycle
L1	Major capsid protein
L2	Minor capsid protein; virus assembly

#### Classification

The classification of different HPV types has been identified based on DNA sequence similarity. The genotype is considered distinct if they share less than 90% homology in the nucleotide sequence of the E6, E7 and L1 open reading frame (ORF). Subtypes have between 90% and 95% homology, and variants have between 96% and 98% homology (3, 4, 7, 38). At present, there are more than 100 different HPV genotypes and the genomes of more than 80 have been identified and completely sequenced. There are 40 distinct HPV genotypes that affect the genital tract. The genital type of HPV are further classified into 2 groups, high-risk and low-risk group. High-risk group, at least 15 genotypes (16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58, 59, 68, 73, 82) is associated with the development of cervical cancer. HPV genotypes 16 and 18 are the causative agents in 70 to 80% of all cervical cancers. HPV genotypes designated 'low-risk' group such as 6, 11, 40, 42, 43, 44, 54, 61, 70, 72, 81 and CP6108 (3, 9). HPV genotypes 6 and 11 associate with 90% of genital warts and 100% of recurrent respiratory papillomatosis (RRP)(39).

Phylogenetic analysis, a comparison of HPV genomic variations, is based on DNA sequences of different regions. Classification of viruses base on species of origin and relationship between viral genomes. The different HPV type is classified by comparison the nucleotide sequences among their viral genomes. HPV genotypes are grouped into subtypes and variants depending on the similarity of sequence in the L1 region (Fig.2)(3, 40, 41).



**Figure 2** Phylogenetic tree containing the sequences of 118 papillomavirus types. The numbers at the ends of each of the branches identify HPV type; c-numbers refer to candidate HPV types. All other abbreviations refer to animal papillomavirus types. The outermost semicircular symbols identify papillomavirus genera, e.g. the genus alpha-papillomavirus. The number at the inner semicircular symbol refers to papillomavirus species (3).

#### **HPV Life cycle**

HPV virion infects epithelial tissues through micro-abrasions within the squamous epithelium and enters the basal epithelial cells. The replication of HPV has two modes: stable and vegetative. The stable replicative form occurs as a circular episomal genome in the cells of the basal layers of low-risk HPV infected squamous epithelial cells while the vegetative form occurs in highly differentiated cells at the epithelial surface. Viral genome is replicated to multicopy episome and maintained the viral DNA as a low copy number in dividing basal epithelial cells. A round of viral DNA replication is independent of the cell cycle. Viral assembly occurs in the mature squamous epithelium and assembled virions are released in the terminally differentiated outer epithelial layer (Fig.3)(10, 37, 41-49).

#### Pathogenesis

HPV infection stimulates cellular proliferation in stratified squamous epithelial cells. Infection initiates with the viral entry via the proliferating of the epithelium cells, then the early proteins are expressed and viral DNA replicates from episomal DNA. Finally, the coat proteins L1 and L2 are expressed and assembly of infectious virus is in upper layer epithelium. HPV DNA persists in an episomal form in normal infected cells and can be integrated in the host cell chromosome in malignant cells(2, 37, 50, 51). The viral DNA integration, the breakage always occurs in the E1 region leading to the loss of functions of the E1/E2 genes cause of negatively control the expression of the E6 and E7 genes resulting in cellular transformation. HPV early genes E6 and E7 associated with malignant transformation that are produced in lower and upper layers of the epithelium. E6 protein is a protein that binds and forms complex with tumour suppressor proteins p53 and the enzyme ubiquitin ligase, producing its degradation. The HPV E7 is a protein that binds to the pRb resulting in interruption of complex between pRb and the E2F cellular transcription factor at the G1 cell cycle stage. The inhibition of genes expression relates to the replication of DNA and cell proliferation(37, 44, 51-53).



**Figure 3** Life Cycle of human papillomavirus in the squamous epithelium. HPV infects basal keratinocytes through microabrasions in the skin or mucosa. In the replication of viral DNA, the virus is amplified as a low copy number. The initial genome amplification is followed by an episomal maintenance phase in the basal cells then enters the suprabasal compartment. Early and late genes are expressed and productive genome amplification to high copy numbers. Viral assembly, L1 and L2 encapsidate the viral genome to form virion occurs in the upper layer of the squamous epithelium. Virions are released and can initiate a new infection(54).

#### Transmission

HPV transmission typically occurs through direct skin-to-skin contact. The sexual intercourse is primary route of genital HPV infection including both vaginal and anal. Thereby, the infection of HPV can cause warts (common warts, plantar warts and flat warts) of cutaneous epithelium. Transmission of skin warts are by direct contact with an infected tissue or indirectly by contact with virus contaminated objects. The factors of modulating progression of HPV infection period are dependent on pathogen and host factors, such as HPV exposure, molecular variant of HPV genotype, HPV viral load, intensity or rate of exposure and immune status of the host(55-57).

### Epidemiology

HPV is estimated to be the most common cause of sexually transmitted disease in women worldwide. The prevalence of HPV has found highest in young persons within the first few years after sexual beginning. HPV infects the genital tract through sexual contact, in primarily the cervix, vagina, vulva, penis and anus. Genital HPV types are divided into high and low-risk groups, according to the association with genital tract cancer. Cervical cancer is the second most common cancer in women worldwide. High-risk HPV types are detected in 99.7% of cervical cancers, HPV type 16 was the most found in invasive cervical cancer (ICC) (55%), followed by HPV 18 (12.8%), HPV types 33, 45, and 31 are the next most frequently. In the adenocarcinoma of the cervix, HPV type 16 was the most prevalence (48%), followed by HPV 18 (36%) and HPV 45 (6%). The low-risk HPV types, the most common of which are HPV 6 and 11, can cause genital warts and was found approximately 90%(4, 53, 55, 56, 58).

#### **Clinical Manifestations**

HPV is a virus that presents in epithelial cells, causing infections of the skin and mucous membranes. HPV is divided by considering tissue tropism of stratified squamous epithelium and depending on the type of epithelium infected. There are 2 groups of HPV; cutaneous and mucosal types. Cutaneous HPV types infect the keratinizing epithelium causing warts (plantar warts, common warts and flat warts). Mucosal HPV types infect nonkeratinizing epithelium, and also be found in the oral mucosa, conjunctiva and respiratory tract(4, 59). HPV causes a wide range of disease processes, depending on HPV types (Table 2).

#### Cutaneous warts

Warts are benign proliferations of skin and the most common of HPV infection include common warts, plantar warts and flat warts. Common warts (verruca) are hyperkeratotic papulonodules most often seen on the hands, arms and legs. Flat warts are less than common warts, flat, smooth or slightly rough surface and color or pigment on skin which is slightly yellow to brownish. The locations, face and back of hands are the most common found. Plantar warts are warts that occur on the plantar region, these lesions lie deep and present in the skin of the hands and feet(4).

### Epidermodysplasia verruciformis

Epidermodysplasia verruciformis (EV) is a rare disease causing from genetic disorder especially defective in cellular immunity. The disease is characterized by the appearance of flat warts liked skin lesions on the face and neck, reddish-brown pigmented plaques. Patients with epidermodysplasia verruciformis are usually infected with multiple types of HPV. More than 30 HPV types, such as 4, 5, 8, 9, 12, 14, 15, 17, 19-25, 36-38, 47, and 50 have been identified in epidermodysplasia verruciformis lesions(4, 60-62)

#### Conjunctival papillomas

Conjunctival papillomas are benign and common tumour of the stratified squamous epithelium of the conjunctiva(63). The clinical signs associated with squamous cell papilloma. Most lesions are asymptomatic without associated conjunctivitis or folliculitis and locate in the inferior fornix, but it also may arise in the limbus, caruncle, and palpebral regions(64). HPV types 6 and 11 are the most commonly found in conjunctival papillomas(65).

#### Condylomata acuminata

Condylomata acuminate, the most common manifestations of HPV infection in the genital area are anogenital warts. The lesions of disease present as papules, nodules soft, filiform, pinkish, sessile or pedunculated growths and may present exophytic or cauliflower type(4). HPV types 6 and 11, are the most commonly isolated viruses and highrisk HPV 16 and 18 can also be isolated(66, 67).

Manifestation	HPV types
Nongenital	
Common warts(verrucae vulgaris)	<b>1, 2</b> , 4, 26, 27, 29, 41, 57, 65
Plantar warts	<b>1, 2</b> , 4, 63
Flat warts	<b>3, 10</b> , 27, 28, 38, 41, 49
Respiratory papillomatosis	6, 11
Squamous cell carcinoma of the lung	<b>6, 11</b> , 16, 18
Laryngeal papilloma	<b>6, 11</b> , 30
Laryngeal carcinoma	16, 18
Conjunctival papillomas	6, 11
Conjunctival carcinoma	16
Epidermodysplasia verruciformis	<b>2, 3, 10, 12, 15,</b> 19, 36, 46, 47, 50
Anogenital	
Condylomata acuminata	<b>6, 11</b> , 30, 42, 43, 44, 45, 51, 52, 54
Unspecified intraepithelial neoplasia	30, 34, 39, 40, 53, 57, 59, 61, 62, 64, 66, 67,
	68, 69
Low-grade intraepithelial neoplasia	<b>6, 11</b> , 43
High-grade intraepithelial neoplasia	<b>16, 18</b> , 56, 58
Carcinoma of cervix	<b>16, 18</b> , 31
Carcinoma of vagina	16
Carcinoma of anus	<b>16</b> , 31, 32, 33

 Table 2 Human papillomavirus types and clinical manifestations(4)

Bold type indicates most frequent association

#### Cervical cancer

Cervical cancer is the one most common cancer in women worldwide and is the second only to breast cancer as a cancer cause of death(68). HPV-16 and 18 are the most prevalent among the cervical cancers attributable of high-risk HPV infection(41, 53, 69, 70). High-risk HPV types have been related with other genital cancers, such as carcinoma of vagina, penis and anus. The clinical symptoms, abnormal Papanicolaou test results and patients with a indelicate lesion of the cervix are estimated by colposcopy and biopsy.

Cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN) is a premalignant cervical disease that is also called cervical dysplasia or cervical squamous intraepithelial lesions (CSIL). CIN is divided into grades 1, 2 and 3. CIN 1 corresponds to mild dysplasia, CIN 2 to moderate dysplasia, and CIN 3 corresponds to both severe dysplasia and carcinoma *in situ*(71).

The cofactors of cervical cancer are necessary by stimulation of the persistence of HPV infection or by stimulation of progression to an invasive cancer(72). Cofactors can be divided into 3 groups: (1) environmental factors; (2) host-related factors; and (3) viral factors. Environmental factors include smoking, parity, oral contraceptives and co-infection with sexually transmitted diseases. Host-related factors include hormone factor such as oestrogen, genetic factor and immune system factor. Viral factors are such as infections with high-risk types of HPV, infections with one type or multiple types and amount of virus (viral load) present in the cervix(14, 73).

#### Adenocarcinoma

Invasive cervical cancer can be divided into 2 major histological types: squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) and adenocarcinoma. In cases, 80–85% are squamous cell carcinoma, 10% are adenocarcinoma, and 3% are adenosquamous carcinoma and other rare tumours(15, 74). Squamous cell carcinoma arises from the squamous epithelia on the ectocervix, while adenocarcinoma arises from the glandular epithelia from the endocervix(14). Patients with cervical adenocarcinoma present with symptoms such as abnormal vaginal bleeding or discharge, or with pelvic pain. Most cervical adenocarcinomas are characterized by an abnormal mass or growth on the cervix which can be seen during a colposcopy(14-17). The cause of the cervical adenocarcinoma is unclear, probable risk factors include history of uterine disease, certain hormone use, sexual history and HPV infection. In adenocarcinoma, HPV 18 is predominantly while in SCC, HPV 16 is more frequently(18, 75, 76).

#### Pterygium

Pterygium is a common eye disease and found in tropical countries. Pterygium is a fibrovascular lesion of the ocular surface originating in the limbal conjunctiva within the palpebral fissure with progressive involvement of the cornea. It is unknown pathogenesis and origin. The characteristic of disease is a wing-like of the conjunctiva onto cornea with inflammation of fibroblast and blood vessel. The development of pterygia appears to be involved to environmental factors, such as exposure to ultraviolet light, genetic factors and viral infections may be associated with the disease. Besides these, inflammatory reactions, degeneration of the cornea , fibroblastic proliferation, allergic factors, and immunopathological mechanisms are probably factors to induce the disease. Oncogenic virus, HPV has been hypothesized to be related with pterygium progress(19, 20). HPV 6, 11, 16 and 18 have been previously reported in pterygium(18, 21-29).

#### **Detection of HPV: Molecular Diagnostics**

HPV can not grow on conventional culture media and serological diagnostic methods have limited(77). In a laboratory, molecular techniques are the only method available to detect HPV DNA. Molecular diagnostic method for detection HPV DNA can be divided into 2 techniques, amplified techniques and non- amplified techniques(78). Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) is the most commonly used in the detection of HPV DNA and the most sensitive method. PCR is a target amplification technique which duplicates fragments of DNA from a targeted gene sequence. The reaction consists of the following 3 basic steps: denaturation, annealing and extension. The PCR procedures for HPV DNA detection use consensus primers targeting to the conserved viral capsid L1 regions of HPV genome, which can detect numerous HPV types. L1 consensus primer sets, MY09/11, GP5+/6+, PGMY and SPF10 were used to detect HPV(79-82). Type specific PCR, amplified a single genotype of HPV by targeting a type specific DNA sequence are based on the E6 or E7 gene of HPV subtypes(83). After amplification of viral DNA by PCR, the techniques often used for typing of the DNA amplified are Southern blot, dot blot, reverse hybridization, restriction enzyme digestion, and sequencing analysis. The signal amplification technique uses branched DNA technology or hybrid capture to increase the DNA proportional signal to detectable level(4, 78). Real-time PCR methods can detect HPV-DNA by using type specific PCR primers combined with fluorescent probes for real-time detection. Moreover Real-time PCR can be multiplexing several type specific primers within one reaction which be detected the different HPV genotypes(84, 85).

Reverse hybridization is a method for hybridization of a PCR product to multiple oligonucleotide probes which are immobilized on a solid phase and added of the amplified PCR product in the liquid phase. The solid phase is a membrane strip containing multiple probes immobilized as parallel lines. Amplified PCR product are constructed, by using biotinylated primers and hybrids probe line can be detected after hybridization and washing. This method can detect multiple HPV genotypes in a single step and type specific infections(78, 86).

#### Genome variation of HPV genotypes

HPV are defined as types based on their nucleotide sequences of L1 gene. A newly discovered HPV genotype is at lease 10% difference to known HPV types, while HPV subtype is defined as HPV genomes with L1 gene that differs by 2 to 10% from that of the original HPV type. Variants are defined as the nucleotide sequence of their L1 genes that were different about 2% in most genes and 5% in less conserved region from the original isolated of the reference prototypes (3, 87). The variants of the same HPV type can result in amino acid change leading to distinct biologically and make a difference in the pathogenic risk. In L1 region, the change of one or more amino acid could lead to a conformational change in the capsid protein may affect the efficacy of viral infection or change of viral antigenicity (88, 89). Variations in LCR region may affect the viral replication rates and activity of early gene transcription. The change of amino acid may affect the activity of transformation in the E6 and E7 oncoproteins, the variations of E6 gene results to the p53 protein degradation involved in host immune recognition (90, 91). Previous study reported the distinct of HPV benefit to study the genetic variability of HPV variants for understanding of the molecular mechanisms, disease progression and transformation. In the L1 region, several studies were identified mutations in HPV protein regions. Cento et al presented 22 different nucleotide mutations led to amino acid change in the L1 protein in Italian women with abnormal cervical smear of variations HPV-31 and 58 (92). Pande et al (93) showed 13 nucleotide variations were detected in 11 cervical cancer patients of India, the variants led to mutations in amino acid. In E6 oncogenes, Chagas et al (94) reported 3 nucleotide changes in E6 which resulted in the characterization of E6 oncogenes genetic variability of HPV-31 isolated from cervical scraping samples of Northeastern Brazilian women.

### **CHAPTER III**

### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

## 1. Study samples

### **1.1 Pterygium specimen**

25 DNA samples extracted from pterygium specimens and confirmed the presence of HPV DNA were obtained from the previous study entitled, Incidence of Herpes simplex virus (HSV) and Human papilloma virus (HPV) whose Dr. Ngamjit Kasetsuwan was the principle investigator. In all cases, the location of pterygium was corneal limbus. 20 samples (CU) were from King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, 4 samples were from Chophaya Abhaibhubejhr Hospital (AP) and one sample was from Queen Sawangwattana Memorial Hospital (SS).

#### 1.2 Cervical specimen

89 formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded biopsy specimens were from the Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, Bangkok, Thailand between 2003 to 2009. All of them showed pathology of adenocarcinoma and approved by pathologist.

#### **1.3 Ethical approved**

This study protocol was approved by the ethical committee, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand. COA No. 1085/2009 IRB No. 417/52

# 1.3 HeLa cells

HeLa cells used as control in this study were obtained from Virology Unit, Department of Microbiology, Chulalongkorn University. HeLa cells containing HPV-18 genome were derived from cervical cancer patients. The cells were grown in MEM media (GIBCO BRL, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 50 unit/ml of penicillin and 50 ug/ml of streptomycin. The cells were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO<sub>2</sub> in atmosphere.

#### 2.Extraction of DNA

#### 2.1 Formalin-fixed paraffin- embedded tissues

A Formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded tissues was cut by a microtome with a disposable blade. At least 10 pieces of 5  $\mu$ m thick of tissues were placed in 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube and cut in to small pieces. The pieces of tissues were then deparafinized by adding 1 mL of xylene and incubated at room temperature until the paraffin was completely dissolved. After that, the tube was centrifuged for 2 min at 11,000 x g and the supernatant was discarded by pipetting. 1 mL of ethanol (96 – 100 %) was added to the pellet and mixed with vortex followed by centrifugation for 2 min at 11,000 x g and the supernatant was discarded by pipetting. The cells pellet was dried in open tube at 60 °C for 3 to 10 min.

The cells pellet was further extracted by using AmpliLute Liquid Media Extraction Kit (Roche Diagnostics, USA). Procedures followed the manufacturer's instructions. In brief, 80  $\mu$ L Buffer ATL and 20  $\mu$ L Proteinase K were added into the tube, and the cells pellet was incubated at 56°C for 30 min. After that, 250  $\mu$ L of AL buffer was added, and the tube was incubated at 70°C for 15 min. After the incubation, 300  $\mu$ L of absolute ethanol was added and incubated at room temperature for 5 min. The suspension was applied to QIAamp MinElute Column on the vacuum manifold and turned on the vacuum pump to remove all lysate. The QIAamp MinElute Column on the vacuum manifold was washed with 750  $\mu$ L of wash buffer, turned on the vacuum pump and washed again with 750  $\mu$ L of absolute ethanol. The QIAamp MinElute Column was placed into collection tube and centrifuged at 16,000 x g for 3 min. After that, the QIAamp MinElute Column was placed into another elution tube to remove alcohol in column by open the lid and incubated at room temperature for 15 min. The sample DNA was eluted from the QIAamp MinElute Column by adding 120  $\mu$ L of elution buffer (AVE), incubated at room

temperature for 5 min and centrifuged at  $16,000 \ge g$  for 1 min. The eluted DNA was stored at -80 °C until used.

#### 2.2 HeLa DNA

The HeLa DNA was extracted by using NucleoSpin Tissue kit (MACHEREY-NAGEL, Germany). The procedure of DNA purification was performed according to the manufacturer's instruction. In brief, the  $10^7$  cells was resuspended in Buffer T1 and 25 µL Proteinase K solution. The cells suspension was mixed by vortex and incubated at 56°C until the cells complete lysis. 200 µL of Buffer B3 was added and the lysed cells was mixed by vortex and incubated at 70°C for 10 min. After that, 210 µL of absolute ethanol was added and the suspension was mixed by vortex. The supernatant was applied to NucleoSpin Tissue column in a collection tube and centrifuged for 1 min at 11,000 x g. DNA on silica membrane was washed by 500  $\mu$ L Buffer BW and the tube was centrifuged for 1 min at 11,000 x g. The DNA was washed twice by 600  $\mu$ L Buffer B5 and the tube was centrifuged for 1 min at 11,000 x g. The silica membrane was dried by centrifugation for 1 min at 11,000 x g and DNA was eluted from column by adding 100  $\mu$ L of prewarmed Buffer BE (70°C), incubated at room temperature for 1 min and centrifuged at 11,000 x g for 1 min. The eluted DNA was kept at -80°C until used.

## 3. HPV DNA detection

The extracted DNA samples were first amplified by  $\beta$ -globin primers (GH20/PC04) to determine the adequate of DNA in samples, as a control for DNA amplification. The amplified product of 268 bp was expected (Table 3). In brief, a total volume of 50 µL reaction mixture contained 100 mM KCl, 20 mM Tris HCl (pH 8.0), 3 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 200 µM dNTPs, 25 pmole of primers GH20/PC04, 1.25 unit of Taq polymerase (Fermentas, EU) and 0.5 µL template DNA. The reaction was initially preheated at 94°C for 5 min, followed by 35 cycles

of denaturation at 94°C for 30 sec, annealing at 57°C for 30 sec, and extension at 72°C for 1 min, and a final extension at 72°C for 10 min.

All the  $\beta$ -globin positive samples were further assayed for the presence of HPV-DNA by nested PCR. The consensus primers MY09/MY11 as outer and Gp5/Gp6 as inner oligonucleotides were used to amplify the HPV L1 conserved region giving the product size of 450 bp and 150 bp (Table 3). In the first round of PCR, the PCR mixture of 25  $\mu$ L contained 100 mM KCl, 20 mM Tris HCl (pH 8.0), 2.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 200  $\mu$ M dNTPs, 25 pmole of primers MY09/MY11, 0.25 unit of proof reading Taq polymerase (Finnzymes, USA) and 1  $\mu$ L template DNA. The reaction started by preheating at 92°C for 4 min, followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 92°C for 30 sec, annealing at 53°C for 30 sec, and extension at 72°C for 30 sec, and a final extension at 72°C for 15 min. The 0.5  $\mu$ L of MY amplified product was added to the second PCR reaction mixture containing 100 mM KCl, 20 mM Tris HCl (pH 8.0), 2.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 100  $\mu$ M dNTPs, 25 pmole of Gp5/Gp6 primers and 0.25 unit of proof reading Taq polymerase. The reaction initiated by preheating at 92°C for 4 min, followed by 40 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 sec, annealing at 45°C for 30 sec, and extension at 72°C for 30 sec, and a final extension at 72°C for 15 min.

Amplified products were analysed by electrophoresis in 1.5% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide and photographed under ultraviolet (UV) transillumination. In every PCR assay, we used HPV-DNA from HeLa cells as a positive control and distilled water as a negative control.
Primers	Sequence (5' -3')	Target	PCR Product	Reference
			(bp)	
MY09	CGT CCM ARR GGA WAC TGA TC	L1	450	Manos et al., 1989
MY11	GCM CAG GGW CAT AAY AAT GG			
Gp5	TTT GTT ACT GTG GTA GAT AC	L1	142	Snijders et al., 1990
Gp6	GAA AAA TAA ACT GTA AAT CA			
GH20	GAA GAG CCA AGG ACA GGT AC	$\beta$ – globin	268	Bell et al., 1993
PC04	CAA CTT CAT CCA CGT TCA CC			

Table 3 Sequence of oligonucleotide primers

Note: R = G/A

W = T/A

M = C/AY = T/C

## 4. HPV genotyping

DNA extracted from HPV-DNA positive pterygium specimens and cervical specimens were determined for HPV genotypes by using LINEAR ARRAY HPV Genotyping Test Kit (Roche Diagnostics, USA) which can detect 37 HPV genotypes including 13 high risk genotypes (16,18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58, 59 and 68), 24 low risk genotypes (6,11, 26, 40, 42, 53, 54, 55, 61, 62, 64, 66, 67, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 81, 82, 83, 84, IS39 and CP6108) and  $\beta$ -globin gene. This test kit is based on the reverse hybridization principle. The assay used biotinylated primers to define a sequence of nucleotides within the polymorphic L1 region of the HPV genome (approximately 450 bp). The denatured biotin-labelled amplicons were hybridized with oligonucleotide probes that coated on membrane strip and detection of the probe-bound amplified products by colorimetric determination. The procedure of genotyping HPV was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, each strip with the probe line was placed into hybridization buffer in tray and 75  $\mu$ L of denatured amplicon was added. The mixture was incubated at 53°C ± 2°C in shaking water bath for 30

min. After that the strip was washed with 4 mL of ambient wash buffer and washed again with stringent wash buffer and incubated at  $53^{\circ}C \pm 2^{\circ}C$  in shaking water bath for 15 min. After 4 mL of working conjugate was added into each strip and incubated at room temperature (20-25°C) on orbital shaker for 30 min, the strip was washed 3 times with 4 mL of ambient wash buffer at room temperature for 10 min on orbital shaker. After that 4 mL of citrate buffer was added to each well containing a strip and incubated at room temperature on orbital shaker for 5 min. Finally, 4 mL of substrate buffer was added into each strip and incubated at room temperature for 5 min on orbital shaker and rinsed with 4 mL of distilled or deionized water.

### 5. Sequencing analysis

#### 5.1 Direct sequencing of HPV

HPV-DNA positive specimens were purified and sequenced. The sequence was analyzed and determined by NCBI Blast.

## 5.1.1 Purification of PCR product

Amplified products were analysed by electrophoresis in 1.5% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide and cut-out gel band for purification by NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Clean-up kit (MACHEREY-NAGEL, Germany). The procedures followed the manufacturer's instructions. In brief, the cut-out gel band was mixed with 200  $\mu$ L of binding Buffer NTI and dissolved the agarose by heat at 50°C for 5 – 10 min. After that, the suspension was applied to NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Clean-up column. The column was centrifuged for 30 sec at 11,000 x g. DNA on silica membrane was washed by adding 700  $\mu$ L Buffer NT3 into column and centrifuged for 30 sec at 11,000 x g and DNA was eluted from column by adding 15–30  $\mu$ L of distilled water PCR grade, incubated at room temperature for 1 min and centrifuged at 11,000 x g for 1 min.

## 5.1.2 Analysis of DNA Sequencing

The purified PCR product was submitted to Macrogen Inc. (Korea) for sequencing. The consensus primers MY09/MY11 and Gp5/Gp6 were used separately in sequencing in order to sequence both sense and antisense strands. The sequence was analyzed and determined by NCBI Blast. The sites of HPV DNA nucleotides on each genotype are numbered according to the HPV sequence published in GenBank.

### 5.2 Molecular cloning and nucleotide sequencing of HPV genome

The specimens that showed mixed HPV infections were further DNA cloning. The PCR products were cloned (CloneJET PCR Cloning kit, Fermentas) according to the instructions of the manufacturer, followed by DNA sequencing. The identification of the obtained sequence was verified by using alignment search tool (blast) analysis (<u>www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov</u>). This test kit features the novel positive selection cloning vector pJET 1.2/blunt, blunt-end PCR products generated by proofreading DNA polymerases can be directly ligated with the pJET 1.2/blunt cloning vector and transformed to common laboratory *E.coli* strains.

## 5.2.1 Ligation mixture

The blunt-end PCR products generated by proofreading DNA polymerase was directly ligated with the pJET 1.2/blunt cloning vector. The ligation reaction was set up on ice according to the instructions of the manufacturer. The ligation mixture was incubated at room temperature for 5 min. The reaction conditions were shown in table 4.

### Table 4 Conditions of Ligation mixture

Component	Volume
2X Reaction Buffer	10 µL
Purified PCR product	1 µL
pJET 1.2/blunt cloning vector (50 ng/ µL)	1 µL
Water, nuclease-free	Up to 19 µL
T4 DNA Ligase	1µL
Total volume	20 µL

#### 5.2.2 Transformation

This study used *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$  as competent cells and transformed bacteria by using heat shock. Briefly, the competent *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$  cells was thawed from -80°C on ice and aliquoted 50 µL of cells into pre-chilled microcentrifuge tube. Then, 5 µL of ligation mixture was added into cells and gently stirred. The tube was incubated on ice for 30 min. After that, the cells were heated shock for 45 sec at 42°C in water bath and the tube was placed immediately on ice for 2 min to reduce damage of the cells. Then 1 mL of warmed LB (Luria Bertani) (without antibiotic) was added and the tube was incubated at 37°C for 1 hr. After incubation, 100 µL of the culture was spread on LB agar plate containing the appropriate antibiotic (50ng/mL Ampicillin) and the plate was incubated at 37°C for overnight.

### 5.2.3 Colony selection

After incubating the plate at 37°C for overnight, the presence of DNA inserted colonies were analysed. An individual colony was resuspended in PCR master mix, according to table 5.

Component	Volume
10X Taq buffer	2 µL
dNTP mix, 2 mM each	2 µL
25 mM MgCl <sub>2</sub>	1.2 μL
pJET 1.2 Forward Sequencing Primer, 10 µM	0.4 μL
pJET 1.2 Reverse Sequencing Primer, 10 µM	0.4 μL
Water, nuclease-free	13.9 µL
<i>Taq</i> DNA Polymerase 5 u/ μL	0.1 µL
Total volume	20 µL

#### Table 5 Condition of colony PCR master mix

The reaction was initially preheated at 95°C for 3 min, followed by 25 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 sec, annealing at 60°C for 30 sec, and extension at 72°C for 1 min, and a final extension at 72°C for 10 min. After that, the product was analysed by electrophoresis in 1.5% agarose gel for the presence of DNA insert.

## 5.2.4 Preparation of plasmid DNA

The plasmids were isolated by using NucleoSpin Plasmid DNA Purification kit (MACHEREY-NAGEL, Germany). The procedure of purification was performed according to the manufacturer's instruction. In brief, the colony with DNA insertion was placed in 2 mL of LB (with antibiotic) and incubated at  $37^{\circ}$ C on shaker for 12 - 16 hr. Then, saturated *E.coli* LB culture was centrifuged at 11,000xg for 30 sec and the medium was discarded. 200 µL of Buffer A1 was added to resuspend the cell pellet and the tube was mixed by vortex. After that, 250 µL of Buffer A2 was added and the tube was mixed gently by inverting and incubated at room temperature for 5 min. The cell pellet was lysed by 300 µL of Buffer A3 and mixed by inverting again. The lysate cells were clarified by centrifugation at 11,000xg for 5 min.

The supernatant of 750  $\mu$ L was applied to NucleoSpin Plasmid/ Plasmid column in a collection tube and centrifuged for 1 min at 11,000 x g. Plasmid DNA on silica membrane was washed by 600  $\mu$ L Buffer A4 and the tube was centrifuged for 1 min at 11,000 x g. The silica membrane was dried by centrifugation for 2 min at 11,000 x g and plasmid DNA was eluted from column by adding 50  $\mu$ L of distilled water PCR grade, incubated at room temperature for 1 min and centrifuged at 11,000 x g for 1 min.

## 5.2.5 Sequencing

The purified plasmid DNA was submitted to Macrogen Inc. (Korea) for sequencing by using the consensus primers MY09/MY11 and Gp5/Gp6. The sequences were analysed by using alignment search tool (blast) analysis (<u>www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov</u>). The sites of HPV DNA nucleotides on each genotype are numbered according to the reference HPV sequence published in GenBank were shown in table 6.

Reference each Genotype	Accession No.	Country
HPV 16	DQ469930	Germany
	AY177679	South Africa
	AF534061	East Asian type
	FJ797754	Thailand
HPV 31	U37410	USA
	JN041176	Italy
	HQ537666	Zambia
	HQ537675	Thailand
HPV 52	X74481	Germany
	HQ537739	Costa Rica
	HQ537736	Zambia
	FJ797780	Thailand
HPV 53	X397046	Germany
	EU779756	Serbia
	DQ241374	Portugal
HPV 58	EU918765	China
	HQ537754	Costa Rica
	HQ537763	Zambia
	FJ797803	Thailand
HPV 59	U45930	USA
	AB437933	Korea
	DQ486471	Brazil
	FJ797809	Thailand
HPV 66	EF177191	USA
	U31794	Germany
	DQ486474	Brazil
HPV 70	U21941	Sweden
	EF626587	Brazil
	FJ797812	Thailand

 Table 6
 Reference of each genotype from GenBank

## **CHAPTER IV**

## RESULTS

## 1. Detection of HPV DNA

## 1.1 Pterygium specimens

25 HPV-DNA positive pterygium samples were obtained from the previous study entitled "Incidence of Herpes simplex virus and Human papilloma virus". 20 samples were from King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital (CU), 4 samples were from Chophaya Abhaibhubejhr Hospital (AP) and one sample was from Queen Sawangwattana Memorial Hospital (SS). HPV DNA was detected by nested PCR using primer MY09/MY11 and Gp5/Gp6.

## **1.2 Cervical specimens**

In group of cervical specimens,  $\beta$ -globin was detected in 82 of 89 samples (92.13%). The presence of HPV was detected in 23 samples (28.05%) by nested PCR using primer MY09/MY11 and followed by Gp5/Gp6 (Fig. 4).

## 2. HPV Genotyping

A total of 25 HPV positive pterygium tissues were genotyped using reverse hybridization test. HPV genotype was identified in 16 of 25 patients (64%) and HPV 16 was the most common genotype (16/25, 64%). Among those 16 samples, 4 samples had mixed infection with HPV 18 (2/25, 8%) and HPV 58 (2/25, 8%). There were 9 untyped samples detected in this study (9/25, 36%) (Fig. 5). The distribution of the HPV genotypes are shown in table 7.

In adenocarcinoma tissues, HPV genotyping was successfully done in all 23 specimens. The infection of mixed genotypes was the most frequently found (17/23, 73.91%)(Fig. 6). HPV 51 was the most found (7/23, 30.43%), followed by HPV 58 (5/23, 21.74%), HPV16 (4/23, 17.39%) and HPV 53 (4/23, 17.39%). The prevalence of HPV

infection and the distribution of the different HPV genotypes were shown in tables 8. The maximum number of HPV genotype in mix-infection was 6 genotypes.



**Figure 4** Electrophoresis of PCR products on 1.5% agarose gel: cervical specimens group; Lane M contains the DNA band marker. Lane 1 contains HeLa-DNA positive control and lane 6 is distilled water as negative control. Lane 2-5 are specimens. (A)  $\beta$ -globin PCR products (268 bp). (B) HPV amplified product of nested PCR (150 bp)



**Figure 5** Patterns of genotype band of HPV positive pterygium tissue cases were determined by Reverse hybridization. Strip 1 represents HPV type 16, strip 2 represents mix-infections of HPV type 16 and 18 and strip 3 represents mix-infections of HPV type 16 and 58.

Code of sample	Genotype
CU-011	16
CU-018	untyped
CU-025	16, 58
CU-031	16, 18
CU-038	untyped
CU-049	16
CU-050	16
CU-070	16
CU-087	16, 58
CU2-001	16
CU2-007	16, 18
CU2-008	untyped
CU2-019	16
CU2-027	untyped
CU2-029	16
CU2-031	16
CU2-036	16
CU2-042	16
CU2-044	16
CU2-057	16
SS-053	untyped
AP-037	untyped
AP-068	untyped
AP-084	untyped
AP-121	untyped

 Table 7 HPV genotypes prevalence in pterygium specimens



**Figure 6** Patterns of genotype band of HPV positive cervical tissue cases were determined by Reverse hybridization. Strip 1 represents HPV type 58; strip 2 represents mix-infection of HPV type 16, 58, 61, 66, 73 and 83; and strip 3 represents mix-infection of HPV type 59 and 64.

Code of sample	Genotype
ADC-002	58
ADC-003	16,58,61,66,73,83
ADC-004	31
ADC-005	59,64
ADC-006	55
ADC-007	6,54,62
ADC-008	31,59
ADC-012	52
ADC-015	51,56
ADC-019	16,53,62,81,84
ADC-020	52,70
ADC-022	51,52
ADC-028	51,53,70
ADC-036	71,81
ADC-044	42,53,54
ADC-048	51,58,59,42,73
ADC-052	39,84,IS39
ADC-060	16
ADC-061	51,66,72
ADC-064	31,58,53
ADC-072	16,51
ADC-078	45,58
ADC-079	51

 Table 8
 HPV genotypes in cervical specimens

## 3. DNA sequencing analysis

The amplified fragment of the L1 gene was used in a sequencing reaction to determine the HPV type. HPV genotype was assigned based on ≥98% sequence similarity over 400 nucleotides (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST).

## 3.1 Pterygium specimens

Among 12 specimens of HPV 16 monotype infection, 11 samples were amplified. The 9 PCR products amplified using the MY09/MY11 (450 bp) and 2 PCR products were amplified using the MY09/MY11 followed by Gp5/Gp6 primer (150 bp) (CU2-019 and CU2-029). All of 11 amplified fragments of the L1 gene were HPV-16 by subjected to DNA sequence analysis and subsequent BLAST (Table 9).

## 3.2 Cervical specimens

Among 6 monotype infected samples, only 3 samples could be amplified for direct sequencing by using the MY09/MY11 (450 bp). 11 samples of mixed HPV infections were cloned in pJET 1.2/blunt cloning vector with PCR products amplified by MY09/MY11 primers. At least 10 clones from each sample were further amplified and sequenced. Only 1 sample (ADC-064) could be cloned for all mixed HPV types. The rest 10 samples were found only one HPV type. Sequence identity of all amplified fragments of the L1 gene was determined using BLAST (Table 10).

Code of sample	Genotype	Genotype
	(by Reverse	(by Direct sequencing)
	hybridization)	
CU-049	16	16*
CU-050	16	16*
CU-070	16	16*
CU2-001	16	16*
CU2-031	16	16*
CU2-036	16	16*
CU2-042	16	16*
CU2-044	16	16*
CU2-057	16	16*
CU2-019	16	16**
CU2-029	16	16**

 Table 9 HPV genotypes prevalence in pterygium specimens by Direct sequencing analysis

\* 450 bp

\*\* 150 bp

Code of sample	Genotype	Genotype
	(by Reverse hybridization)	(by sequencing)
ADC-003	16,58,61,66,73,83	
Clone 1 - 5		16
ADC-004	31	31*
ADC-005	59,64	
Clone 1 - 9		59
ADC-008	31,59	
Clone 1		31
ADC-012	52	52*
ADC-019	16,53,62,81,84	
Clone 1 - 3		53
ADC-020	52,70	
Clone 1 - 10		52
ADC-022	51,52	
Clone 1 - 2		52
ADC-028	51,53,70	
Clone 1 - 10		70
ADC-044	42,53,54	
Clone 1 - 9		53
ADC-060	16	16*
ADC-061	51,66,72	
Clone 1 - 2		66
ADC-064	31,58,53	
Clone $1 - 3$ , clone $6$		31
Clone 4		53
Clone 5, clone 7		58
ADC-072	16,51	16
Clone 1 - 10		

Table 10 HPV genotypes prevalence in adenocarcinoma specimens by sequencing analysis

\* By direct sequencing

## 4. Genetic Variability

## 4.1 HPV 16 L1 Sequence Variations

In pterygium group, 11 out of 12 single HPV 16 infection samples were able to performed L1 gene sequencing. The nucleotide sequence of 9 samples (9/11, 81.82%) were similar to all HPV 16 L1 reference sequences. The different nucleotide mutations in 139 bp of the L1 gene of two samples (CU2-019 and CU2-029) were observed in 2 positions; T1078G and T1081A.

In adenocarcinoma cervical cancer group, ADC-060 and 10 clones of ADC-072 were identical to all of HPV-16 L1 gene reference sequences, while 5 clones of ADC-003 showed mutations at position A1390G.

The nucleotide sequences of HPV-16 L1 gene (420 bp) had 0.2% difference. Table 11 indicates the abbreviation of amino acids. Sequence variations observed among HPV 16 amplified products were summarized in table 12 and nucleotide mutations were shown in Fig. 7.

Amino acid name	Abbreviation
Alanine	Ala, A
Arginine	Arg, R
Asparagine	Asn, N
Aspartic acid	Asp, D
Cysteine	Cys, C
Glutamine	Gln, Q
Glutamic acid	Glu, E
Glycine	Gly, G
Histidine	His, H
Isoleucine	Ile, I
Leucine	Leu, L
Lysine	Lys, K
Methionine	Met, M
Phenylalanine	Phe, F
Proline	Pro, P
Serine	Ser, S
Threonine	Thr, T
Tryptophan	Trp, W
Tyrosine	Tyr, Y
Valine	Val, V

 Table 11 Abbreviation of amino acids

	Nucl	eotide P	osition
	(L1)		
HPV-16	1078	1081	1390
Reference HPV-16 DQ469930, Germany	Т	Т	А
Reference HPV-16 HPV-16 AY177679, South Africa	Т	Т	А
Reference HPV-16 HPV-16 AF534061, East Asian type	Т	Т	А
Reference HPV-16 HPV-16 FJ797754, Thailand	Т	Т	А
ADC-003*	Т	Т	G
ADC-072**	Т	Т	А
ADC-060	Т	Т	А
CU-049	Т	Т	А
CU-050	Т	Т	А
CU-070	Т	Т	А
CU2-001	Т	Т	А
CU2-031	Т	Т	А
CU2-036	Т	Т	А
CU2-042	Т	Т	А
CU2-044	Т	Т	А
CU2-057	Т	Т	А
CU2-019	G	Α	А
CU2-029	G	A	А

 Table 12 Mutation positions of HPV 16 comparing to reference HPV strains

\* ADC-003 (5 clones)

\*\* ADC-072 (10 clones)

	adiment of the second se	
٦		
	accivation to the provide a second accident to the second accidence of the sec	
Contract and Free Locality.	LIJO LIAO ZIAE ACTUALIOO TOOTACINOO AOOO	ALLO LANG DATA DATA DATA DATA DATA DATA DATA DAT
Transformation in the second s	Land 120 1200	1340 1370 1380
the burner of the second state of the second s	8	No.
The second s		



### 4.2 HPV 31 L1 Sequence Variations

All 3 specimens of cervical cancer group presented 4 patterns with 5 different single nucleotides (ADC-004, ADC-008 and 4 clones (2 patterns) of ADC-064). The nucleotide sequence of ADC-004 was similar to all of HPV-31 L1 gene reference sequences. The variations of 5 nucleotide positions of ADC-008 were T951G, A957C, C960T, T1113C and G1192A. The nucleotide mutation position of G1192A led to amino acid change in L1 protein. The non-synonymous A398T was identified. ADC-064 had at least 2 different HPV 31 patterns. 2 nucleotides mutations of ADC-064/pattern 1 (A957C and C960T), and mutations of ADC-064/pattern 2 in 3 positions (T951G, A957C and C960T) were observed when compared with the reference sequences.

The difference among nucleotide sequences of HPV-31 L1 gene (435 bp) was 0.5-1.1%. The nucleotide mutations and amino acid of HPV-31 isolates are summarized in table 13 and the nucleotide mutations and amino acid positions were shown in Fig. 8 and Fig 9.

		Nucleotide Position (L1)				
HPV-31	951	957	960	1035	1113	1192
Reference HPV-31 U37410, USA	Т	А	С	Т	Т	G
Reference HPV-31 JN041176, Italy	-	-	-	G	Т	G
Reference HPV-31 HQ537666, Zambia	Т	А	С	Т	Т	G
Reference HPV-31 HQ537675, Thailand	-	А	С	Т	Т	G
ADC-004	-	-	-	Т	Т	G
ADC-008	G	С	Т	Т	С	Α
ADC-064/pattern 1*	Т	С	Т	Т	Т	G
ADC-064/pattern 2**	G	С	Т	Т	Т	G
	Amino acid Position (L1)					
		An	nino acid	Position	(L1)	
HPV-31	317	An 319	nino acid 320	Position 345	(L1) 371	398
HPV-31 Reference HPV-31 U37410, USA	317 A	An 319 G	nino acid 320 H	Position 345 V	(L1) 371 F	<b>398</b> A
HPV-31 Reference HPV-31 U37410, USA Reference HPV-31 JN041176, Italy	317 A A	An 319 G G	nino acid 320 H H	Position 345 V V	(L1) 371 F F	398 A A
HPV-31 Reference HPV-31 U37410, USA Reference HPV-31 JN041176, Italy Reference HPV-31 HQ537666, Zambia	317 A A A	An 319 G G G	nino acid 320 H H H	Position 345 V V V	(L1) 371 F F F	398 A A A
HPV-31 Reference HPV-31 U37410, USA Reference HPV-31 JN041176, Italy Reference HPV-31 HQ537666, Zambia Reference HPV-31 HQ537675, Thailand	317 A A A A	An 319 G G G G	nino acid 320 H H H H	Position 345 V V V V	(L1) 371 F F F F	398 A A A A
HPV-31 Reference HPV-31 U37410, USA Reference HPV-31 JN041176, Italy Reference HPV-31 HQ537666, Zambia Reference HPV-31 HQ537675, Thailand ADC-004	317 A A A A A	An 319 G G G G G	nino acid 320 H H H H	Position 345 V V V V V V	(L1) 371 F F F F F F	398 A A A A A
HPV-31 Reference HPV-31 U37410, USA Reference HPV-31 JN041176, Italy Reference HPV-31 HQ537666, Zambia Reference HPV-31 HQ537675, Thailand ADC-004 ADC-008	317 A A A A A A	An 319 G G G G G	nino acid 320 H H H H H	Position 345 V V V V V V V	(L1) 371 F F F F F F F	398 A A A A A T
HPV-31 Reference HPV-31 U37410, USA Reference HPV-31 JN041176, Italy Reference HPV-31 HQ537666, Zambia Reference HPV-31 HQ537675, Thailand ADC-004 ADC-008 ADC-064/pattern 1*	317 A A A A A A A	An 319 G G G G G G G	nino acid 320 H H H H H H	Position 345 V V V V V V V V	(L1) 371 F F F F F F F F F	398 A A A A A A T A

Table 13 Mutation positions of HPV 31 comparing to references HPV strains

\* ADC-064/pattern 1 (clone 1, clone 2and clone 6)

\*\* ADC-064/pattern 2 (clone 3)

- No data available







Figure 9 Amino acid alignment of HPV 31

### 4.3 HPV 52 L1 Sequence Variations

The variations at nucleotide position of 3 cervical cancer specimens (ADC-012, 3 clones of ADC-020 and 2 clones of ADC-022) were aligned with 4 of HPV- 52 L1 gene references. The nucleotide sequence of ADC-012 was identical to the reference HPV-52 X74481, while nucleotide mutation of 3 clones of ADC-020 were found 5 positions (T1137G, T1200C, A1230G, C1260T and C1353A). Two nucleotide mutations (G1134A and C1353A) were shown in 2 clones of ADC-022 (Fig. 10). The difference among nucleotide sequences of HPV-52 L1 gene (368 bp) was 0.5-1.4%. Sequence variations observed in HPV-52 amplified products were summarized in table 14.



Figure 10 Nucleotide sequences alignment of HPV 52

		Nuc	leotide I	Position	(L1)	
HPV-52	1134	1137	1200	1230	1260	1353
Reference HPV-52 X74481, Germany	G	Т	Т	А	С	С
Reference HPV-52 HQ537739, Costa Rica	G	Т	Т	А	С	С
Reference HPV-52 HQ537736, Zambia	G	Т	Т	А	С	С
Reference HPV-52 FJ797780, Thailand	G	G	С	G	Т	А
ADC - 012	G	Т	Т	А	С	С
ADC - 020*	G	G	С	G	Т	Α
ADC - 022**	А	Т	Т	А	С	Α

 Table 14 Mutation positions of HPV 52 comparing to references HPV strains

\* ADC-020 (3 clones)

\*\* ADC-022 (2 clones)

#### 4.4 HPV 53 L1 Sequence Variations

3 cervical cancer specimens, i.e., ADC-064, 3 clones of ADC-019 and 9 clones of ADC-044 (3 patterns) revealed 9 different single nucleotides aligned with 3 HPV-53 L1 gene references. The nucleotide sequences of ADC-019 were similar to HPV-53 X397046 reference sequence. ADC-064 had 6 different nucleotide mutations (T1054A, C1060T, T1080C, A1117G, G1285A and G1375A). There are 3 patterns of the nucleotide position mutations of 9 clones of ADC-044. Pattern 1 of ADC-044 (clone 1, 3-4, and clone 6-8), were found 6 nucleotide mutations (C1060T, T1080C, A1117G, G1285A, C1319T and G1375A). The nucleotide mutations of ADC-044 pattern 2 (clone 2 and clone 8) were identified in 7 positions (T985A, C1060T, T1080C, A1117G, G1285A, C1319T and G1375A), while the difference of nucleotide mutations of ADC-044 pattern 3 (clone 5) was 7 positions (C1060T, T1080C, A1117G, C1270A, G1285A, C1319T and G1375A). The variation at nucleotide position T985A of ADC-044 pattern 2 caused the change N to K at position 318 of the L1 protein and the nucleotide mutation position C1319T led to amino acid change in position P430S of all 3 patterns of ADC-044. The difference among nucleotide sequences of HPV-53 L1 gene (429 bp) was 1.4-1.6%.

The nucleotide mutations and amino acid positions of HPV-53 isolates were shown in Fig. 11 and Fig 12 and summarized in table 15.



2	12	1	$\frac{1}{2}$			1			
<b>1</b> 333			12		2	-			
2550	12		-	1	-	- 1			
2.22				21	1	-	-		
- 1987 - 1987 - 1987 - 1987 - 1987 - 1987 - 1987 - 1987 - 1987 - 1987 - 1987 - 1987 - 1987 - 1987 - 1987 - 1987	83		1		1	1			
	E.		-	1	÷				
5	12			21		1	123		
	3	28				- 5			
-	22		1		-	1			
-	10		181	120		2			
5.000	51					1	12	÷.	
	菜			5	2		12.1		
	100	3			-				
-	R	5	5			1			
-			1	10					
	22	1	14	1	1		220	4	
	5					2			
<b>-</b> 32	14		1.		-	-			
2	E.		10		E	3	3	8 -	
	8				-			S -	
	1	1		-		- 3		8	
	12	1	10	1	-	2	8		
	Ħ.		100			÷			
- 3		2		5	-	2		8 -	
	R.		-		1	1		5	
	臣	13	-	3	1	- 2	12	8 -	
-	20	1		10	12				
日本	Ξ.			20		- 8			
2				33	-	12			
	2.	1.	1	20	1	-			
	100	1							
- 23	13.	1	1	1	-	- 2	-	1	
	8	1÷.	120	1	1	3	3	S	
100	54	64	-	4.	1	- 21	100		
2553	E.	3		1	-	1			
上開				21			- 24		
1000	Sec.		14	- 12	12	-			
-	12	1	-	10		1			
201	12	12		3.1	1	1		1	
2.8	8			173					
2. 1000	22		1		-	- 2	1		
	12				Ξ.	-	1	S	
200			12	20	-	1		21	
1.000	83		-	Ð	-	- 5			
- 65	ぞ.		÷.,		-				
-	12	1		1.	1	1	120	1	
-				19					
2 -	臣		1	20	1	1		8	
1.22	邕			27	120	1		5	
	識				12	1		÷	
132	5				-	- 2	100	£	
2 -	E.				1	- 2		8	
5.23	5	1		10		÷		3	
	6		10		1	1		3	
	18		1		-	÷		3 -	
2	12	1			-	÷		S -	
5.24	8	1		$\overline{\mathcal{M}}$	-		3	3	
	8		1			8	12	5	
	1		1	12	-	-		3	
	Germany	Sarbia .	Portugal						
100000 - M	53 X397046,	1951/61/002 (15	53 pg241374,	8		044/patteril	044/pattent2	044/pattern2	
	-Mill			쇷	ģ	넒	ģ	ģ	

Figure 12 Amino acid alignment of HPV 53

				Nucleo	tide Posi	tion (L1)			
HPV-53	985	1054	1060	1080	1117	1270	1285	1319	1375
Reference HPV-53 X397046, Germany	Т	Т	С	Т	А	С	G	С	G
Reference HPV-53 EU779756, Serbia	_	Т	С	Т	А	С	G	С	-
Reference HPV-53 DQ241374, Portugal	_	Т	Т	С	G	С	А	Т	А
ADC-019	Т	Т	С	Т	А	С	G	С	G
ADC-064*	Т	А	Т	С	G	С	Α	С	А
ADC-044/pattern 1 <sup>A</sup>	Т	Т	Т	С	G	С	Α	Т	А
ADC-044/pattern 2 <sup>B</sup>	А	Т	Т	С	G	С	Α	Т	А
ADC-044/pattern 3 <sup>°</sup>	Т	Т	Т	С	G	Α	Α	Т	А
				Amino	acid Posi	tion (L1)			
HPV-53	318	341	343	Amino 350	acid Posi 362	tion (L1) 413	418	430	448
HPV-53 Reference HPV-53 X397046, Germany	318 N	341 T	343 S	Amino 350 S	acid Posi 362 R	tion (L1) 413 D	418 V	430 P	448 L
HPV-53 Reference HPV-53 X397046, Germany Reference HPV-53 EU779756, Serbia	318 N N	341 T T	343 S S	Amino 350 S S	acid Posi 362 R R	tion (L1) 413 D D	418 V V	<b>430</b> <b>P</b> P	448 L L
HPV-53 Reference HPV-53 X397046, Germany Reference HPV-53 EU779756, Serbia Reference HPV-53 DQ241374, Portugal	318 N N N	341 T T T	343 S S S	Amino 350 S S S	acid Posi 362 R R R	tion (L1) 413 D D D	418 V V V	<b>430</b> <b>P</b> P S	448 L L L
HPV-53 Reference HPV-53 X397046, Germany Reference HPV-53 EU779756, Serbia Reference HPV-53 DQ241374, Portugal ADC-019	318 N N N N	341 T T T T	343 S S S S	Amino 350 S S S S	acid Posi 362 R R R R	tion (L1) 413 D D D	418 V V V V	<b>430</b> Р Р S	448 L L L L
HPV-53 Reference HPV-53 X397046, Germany Reference HPV-53 EU779756, Serbia Reference HPV-53 DQ241374, Portugal ADC-019 ADC-064*	318 N N N N	341 T T T T T	343 S S S S S	Amino 350 S S S S S	acid Posi 362 R R R R R	tion (L1) 413 D D D D D	418 V V V V V	430 P P S P P	448 L L L L L
HPV-53 Reference HPV-53 X397046, Germany Reference HPV-53 EU779756, Serbia Reference HPV-53 DQ241374, Portugal ADC-019 ADC-064* ADC-064*	318 N N N N N	341 T T T T T T	343 S S S S S S	Amino           350           S           S           S           S           S           S           S           S           S           S           S           S	acid Posi 362 R R R R R R R	tion (L1) 413 D D D D D D D D D D D	418 V V V V V V V	430 P P S P P S	448 L L L L L L
HPV-53 Reference HPV-53 X397046, Germany Reference HPV-53 EU779756, Serbia Reference HPV-53 DQ241374, Portugal ADC-019 ADC-064* ADC-064* ADC-044/pattern 1 <sup>A</sup> ADC-044/pattern 2 <sup>B</sup>	318 N N N N N N K	341 T T T T T T T	343 S S S S S S S S	Amino           350           S           S           S           S           S           S           S           S           S           S           S           S           S	acid Posi 362 R R R R R R R R	tion (L1) 413 D D D D D D D D D D	418 V V V V V V V V V V V	430 P P S P P P S S S	448 L L L L L L L L

Table 15 Mutation positions of HPV 53 comparing to references HPV strains

\* ADC-064 (clone 4)

A: ADC-044/pattern 1 (clone 1, 3-4, and clone 6-8)

B: ADC-044/pattern 2 (clone 2 and clone 8)

C: ADC-044/pattern 3 (clone 5)

- No data available

# 4.5 HPV 58 L1 Sequence Variations

2 clones of ADC-064 had 7 mutation positions (G1105A, A110G, A1112G, T1115G, C1121T, G1265A and C1346A) when compared with the HPV-58 L1 gene reference. The nucleotide sequence difference of 440 bp HPV-58 L1 gene was 1.6% (Table 16 and Fig. 13).

Table 16 Mutation positions of HPV 58 comparing to references HPV strains

			Nucleo	otide Posi	tion (L1)		
HPV-58	1105	1109	1112	1115	1121	1265	1346
Reference HPV-58 EU918765, China	G	Α	А	Т	С	G	С
Reference HPV-58 HQ537754, Costa Rica	G	A	Α	Т	С	Α	С
Reference HPV-58 HQ537763, Zambia	G	A	Α	Т	С	А	A
Reference HPV-58 FJ797803, Thailand	-	-	-	-	-	Α	С
ADC-064*	Α	G	G	G	Т	Α	Α

\* ADC-064 (clone 5 and clone 7)

- No data available





# 4.6 HPV 59 L1 Sequence Variations

Only one nucleotide mutation (C1052T) was observed in 9 clones of ADC-005) when compared with 4 HPV- 59 references (Fig.14). At this position, the amino acid of L1 protein was changed P35S (Table 17 and Fig. 15). The nucleotide sequence of ADC-005 L1 gene (331 bp) in HPV-59 differed from reference strain about 0.3%.

	Nucleotide Position (L1)
HPV-59	1052
Reference HPV-59 U45930, USA	С
Reference HPV-59 AB437933, Korea	Т
Reference HPV-59 DQ486471, Brazil	G
Reference HPV-59 FJ797809, Thailand	Т
ADC-005*	Т
	Amino acid Position (L1)
HPV-59	Amino acid Position (L1) 35
HPV-59 Reference HPV-59 U45930, USA	Amino acid Position (L1) 35 P
HPV-59 Reference HPV-59 U45930, USA Reference HPV-59 AB437933, Korea	Amino acid Position (L1) 35 P S
HPV-59 Reference HPV-59 U45930, USA Reference HPV-59 AB437933, Korea Reference HPV-59 DQ486471, Brazil	Amino acid Position (L1) 35 P S A
HPV-59 Reference HPV-59 U45930, USA Reference HPV-59 AB437933, Korea Reference HPV-59 DQ486471, Brazil Reference HPV-59 FJ797809, Thailand	Amino acid Position (L1)         35         P         S         A         S

Table 17 Mutation positions of HPV 59 comparing to references HPV strains

\* ADC-005 (9 clones)







Figure 15 Amino acid alignment of HPV 59
## 4.7 HPV 66 L1 Sequence Variations

The variation of 2 nucleotide positions of ADC-061 (A1050G and C1056G) was demonstrated when compared with the 3 of HPV- 66 L1 gene references. The nucleotide sequence of ADC-061 HPV-66 L1 gene (424 bp) was 0.5% different (Table 18 and Fig.16).

 Table 18 Mutation positions of HPV 66 comparing to references HPV strains

	Nucleotide Position (L1)	
HPV-66	1050	1056
Reference HPV-66 EF177191, USA	А	С
Reference HPV-66 U31794, Germany	А	С
Reference HPV-66 DQ486474, Brazil	Α	Т
ADC-061	G	G

\* ADC-061 (2 clones)





### 4.8 HPV 70 L1 Sequence Variations

There were 2 patterns of HPV-70 L1 mutation obtained from 10 clones of ADC- 028 which had 3 mutation positions compared with the 3 HPV-70 references. The pattern 1 has 2 nucleotide mutations (T1152A and G1324A), while mutations of ADC-028/pattern 2 were observed in 3 positions (T1152A, G1311A and G1324A). The variation at nucleotide position G1324A caused the change of D to N at position 442 of the L1 protein. The difference among nucleotide sequences of HPV-70 L1 gene (419 bp) was 0.5-0.7%.

The nucleotide mutations and amino acid of HPV-70 isolates were shown in Fig. 17 and Fig 18 and summarized in table 19.







Figure 18 Amino acid alignment of HPV 70

	Nucleotide Position (L1)		
HPV-70	1152	1311	1324
Reference HPV-70 U21941, Sweden	Т	G	G
Reference HPV-70 EF626587, Brazil	А	G	G
Reference HPV-70 FJ797812, Thailand	А	G	G
ADC-028/pattern 1*	А	G	А
ADC-028/pattern 2**	А	А	А
	Amino	acid Positi	ion (L1)
HPV-70	Amino 384	acid Positi 437	ion (L1) 442
HPV-70 Reference HPV-70 U21941, Sweden	Amino 384 A	acid Positi 437 K	ion (L1) 442 D
HPV-70 Reference HPV-70 U21941, Sweden Reference HPV-70 EF626587, Brazil	Amino 384 A A	acid Positi 437 K K	ion (L1) 442 D D
<b>HPV-70</b> Reference HPV-70 U21941, Sweden Reference HPV-70 EF626587, Brazil Reference HPV-70 FJ797812, Thailand	Amino 384 A A A	acid Positi 437 K K K	ion (L1) 442 D D D
HPV-70 Reference HPV-70 U21941, Sweden Reference HPV-70 EF626587, Brazil Reference HPV-70 FJ797812, Thailand ADC-028/pattern 1*	Amino 384 A A A A	acid Positi 437 K K K K	ion (L1) 442 D D D N

 Table 19 Mutation positions of HPV 70 comparing to references HPV strains

\* ADC-028/pattern 1 (clone 1, 3-4, 6, and 8-10 )

\*\* ADC-028/pattern21 (clone 2, 5 and 7 )

#### 5. Phylogenetic Analysis

Phylogenetic analysis of the L1 gene (331 bp) of HPV-DNA from pterygium specimens and cervical specimens was shown in Figure 19. The different levels of sequence variability among the L1 regions and phenogram with different branching have been obtained. All HPV 16 isolates in this study (not included 139 bp L1 gene of CU2-019 and CU2-029) were clustered with those HPV 16 reference sequences (Europe, South Africa, East Asian and Thailand) presumably they come from the same origin (branch B6). All patterns of ADC-044 and ADC-064 were clustered with the HPV 53 reference from Portugal (branch B1). ADC-019 isolate clustered with HPV 53 reference from Germany. In branch of HPV 66, the ADC-061 isolate clustered together with the HPV reference from Germany, USA and Brazil (branch B2). The ADC-005 isolate clustered with the HPV 59 reference sequences originating from USA, Brazil, Korea and Thailand (branch B3). In branch of HPV 70, ADC-028 pattern 1 and pattern 2 isolates clustered with HPV 70 references from Brazil, Sweden and Thailand (branch B4). ADC-008, ADC-064 pattern 1 and ADC-064 pattern 2 isolates clustered with HPV 31 references from USA, Zambia, and Thailand (branch B5). In branch of HPV 52, isolates were clustered together with HPV52 references originating from 4 countries; Germany, Zambia, Costa Rica and Thailand. ADC-012 isolate clustered with the HPV references of Germany, Zambia and Costa Rica while ADC-020 closed to the HPV reference from Thailand (branch B7). Interestingly, the ADC-022 was separated to a new branch. The ADC-064 isolates (clone 5 and clone 7) clustered with the HPV 58 reference sequences originating from China, Costa Rica and Zambia (branch B8).



**Figure 19** Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree based on L1 (331 bp), samples labeled pterygium specimens (CU) and cervical carcinoma (ADC). Reference sequences for HPV genotypes are included in the tree. The branch leading to phylogenetic clusters B1-B8 is shown. Bootstrap values (1000 replicates) was represented in the branches.

#### **CHAPTER V**

### DISCUSSION

This study describes the distribution of HPV types in pterygium tissues and adenocarcinoma cervical cancer of Thai patients. HPV infection in pterygium of Thai patients has been previously detected by nested PCR using MY09/MY11 followed by Gp5/Gp6 primers. The prevalence of HPV infection in pterygium was 6.43% (25/389, unpublished data). All 25 HPV positive samples were recruited for typing in this study. The result revealed that HPV type 16 was the most prevalence (64%). The prevalence of HPV in pterygium has been reported in many countries as shown in Table 20 (25-29). All studies were determined by PCR and the results of the prevalence of HPV infection were varied from 4.4 to 53.6% (25-29). Moreover, HPV genotypes were also different. Piecyk-Sidor et al (95) from Poland showed the prevalence of HPV in pterygium was 27.6% (16/58) and 56% were HPV type 16. In United Kingdom, Gallagher et al (28) detected HPV in pterygium and conjunctival papilloma. They showed that 5 of 10 (50%) HPV-positive pterygia which 2 were HPV type 6 (40%), 2 were HPV type 11 (40%) and one was HPV type 16 (20%) while in conjunctival papilloma, HPV type 6 was the most prevalent (40%, 4/10) followed by HPV type 11 (30%) and HPV type 16 (20%). Detorakis et al (29) found HPV type 18 in all HPV positive pterygium samples (24%, 12/50) in Greece. In Denmark, SjÖ et al (26) reported 4.4% (4/90) of HPV-positive pterygia and all of them were The results reported by Piras et al (25) indicated the presence of HPV-HPV type 6 (100%). DNA in 17 (100%) pterygia from Italy and 5 (21%) of 24 pterygia from Ecuador which HPV type 52 (50%) was found the most. In Asia, Hsiao et al (96) detected the presence of HPV type 18 (3.1%) in 2 of 65 patients in Taiwan. Altogether, HPV prevalence and HPV genotype in pterygium may be different according to the geographical regions. HPV either low risk (type 6 and 11) or high risk (type 16 and 18) involves in the pathogenesis of pterygium but in Thailand, HPV type 16 plays important role. Recently, Rootman DB, et al (97) in 2012 reported intraocular extension of conjunctival invasive squamous cell carcinoma after pterygium surgery. Unfortunately, they did not perform HPV-DNA detection. However, the presence of HPV-16 which is highly oncogenic type in pterygium may be a causative agent of conjunctival squamous cell carcinoma.

References	Assay for Typing	HPV types
Gallagher et al (2001)	Dot-blot hybridization	HPV 6 (2/10, 40%)
United Kingdom		HPV 11 (2/10, 40%)
		HPV 16 (1/10, 20%)
Detorakis et al (2001)	DNA sequence analysis	HPV 18 (12/12, 100%)
Greece		
Piras <i>et al</i> (2003)	DNA sequence analysis	HPV 52 (11/22, 50%)
Italy a Ecuador		HPV 90 (5/22, 23%)
		HPV 54 (4/22, 18%)
Sjo et al. (2007)	DNA in situ hybridisation	HPV 6 (4/4, 100%)
Denmark	(ISH)	
		HPV 16 (9/16, 56%)
Piecyk-Sidor et al (2009)	Reverse hybridization	HPV 6 and 16 (3/16, 18%)
Poland	(INNOLiPA)	HPV 6 and 18 (2/16, 12.5%)
		HPV 16 and 31 (1/16, 6.25%)
		HPV 11, 16, 18, 52, 53, 59 (1/16, 6.25%)
Hsiao <i>et al (2010)</i>	Fluorescence in situ	HPV 18 (2/65, 3.1%)
Taiwan	hybridization	

Table 20 Human papillomavirus (HPV) DNA in pterygium. Comparison of published data

HPV DNA was detected in 23 of 89 (25.8%) adenocarcinoma cervical cancer tissues of Thai patients. The prevalence of HPV infection in this study seemed to be lower than other studies which reported the prevalence varied between 80-90% (98, 99). The reason is hardly explained. Actually the method of HPV-DNA detection in this study have higher sensitivity than those previous studies because nested PCR was used instead of conventional PCR. Moreover, beta-globin, house keeping gene, was detected in nearly all samples meaning that samples have enough DNA. Only possible explaination might rely on low HPV-DNA in tissues and possibly that HPV-DNA was very short due to fragmentation which caused false negative results.

It was clearly showed that multiple type infection was the most frequently found (17/23, 73.91%), while monotype infection was detected in 6 samples (26.09%). HPV 51 was predominantly found (7/23, 30.43%), followed by HPV 58 (5/23, 21.74%), HPV16 (4/23, 17.39%) and HPV 53 (4/23, 17.39%). A few study has previously described the HPV genotypes detected in adenocarcinoma cervical cancer. In contrast to our results, An *et al* (98) reported the prevalence of HPV infection was 90% (121/135) in Korean women with adenocarcinoma of uterine cervix. HPV type 16 (42%) was the most prevalent followed by HPV type 18 (29%), HPV type 16 and 18 (7%) and HPV 33 (5%). Li *et al* (99) showed the presence of HPV-18 more common in adenocarcinomas than HPV-16 (21.4% vs 3.1%, p<0.02) and 94% of them had at least one of the 2 types. Here, no any HPV-18 was detected and HPV-16 was less than 20%. Since no information of HPV detection and typing in Thai patients with adenocarcinoma has been reported, more investigation by increase number of samples should be done.

In this study, the genetic variability of L1 gene of HPV 16, 31 52, 53, 58, 59, 66 and 70 of the pterygium and adenocarcinoma cervical cancer isolates were aligned with HPV reference sequences. The sizes of the partial genome L1 sequences ranged from 139 to 440 bp. Every types showed 98.4–99.8% nucleotide similarity to the HPV L1 reference sequences obtained from different geographical worldwide. These results suggested no new variants was isolated in this study. Moreover, it may imply that HPV genotypes around the world are the same origin. Few intragenotypic variations of L1 gene is expected because this gene plays important role in attachment and penetration into host cells. In addition, HPV is a DNA virus which its replication

control by DNA polymerase that has proofreading function. Although the sequence variations of the HPV 16, 52, 58 and 66 L1 genomic region isolates were demonstrated, they did not affect the amino acid sequences. However, the nucleotide mutations of HPV 31, 53, 59 and 70 led to amino acid change. Among those amino acid changes, A398T in HPV 31 isolate, N318K in HPV 53 isolate, P430S in HPV 59 isolate and D442N in HPV 70 isolate were the position that firstly found by this study. Pande et al (93) showed the data of 13 nucleotide variations of HPV type 16 variants were detected in 11 cervical cancer patients of India; of four variants of L1 gene led to mutation in amino acid serine at codons 343 and 351, serine to phenylalanine at position 423 and glutamine to proline at position 429. Cento et al (92) reported intratypic variation of HPV-31 was identified in Italian women with abnormal cervical smear, the presented of 22 different nucleotide mutations led to amino acid change in the L1 protein (L365F, F371Y, K381Q, H393Y and E454K). The phylogenetic comparison of HPV genomic variants isolated from pterygium and adenocarcinoma cervical cancer showed that all Thais isolates were clustered with HPV reference type from other parts of the world although 2 types (HPV-31 ADC 008 and HPV-52 ADC022) were separated in a new branch. However, the difference in nucleotide sequence was less than 2%. These results suggested no new variants was isolated and no difference of HPV genotypes that cause pterygium and adenocacinoma cervical cancer. These may imply that HPV genotypes around the world were from the same origin. Intragenotypic variations of L1 gene was demonstrated ranging from one to several single nucleotide polymorphisms. It indicated that L1 gene should be conserved region and required for viral survive, which we have already known that this gene plays important role in viral attachment and penetration into host cells. In addition, proof reading viral DNA polymerase property of HPV may result in low genomic variations.

In this study, HPV type 16 was found the most prevalent in pterygium, followed by HPV 16 and 18. Recently, HPV vaccines are highly effective in preventing infections with high risk types HPV 16 and 18. Our study suggested that in Thailand, HPV vaccine can efficiency protect the infection since the L1 gene of HPV 16 was not much different from others. Moreover, the vaccine may beneficially to protect pterygium which might associate with the development of conjunctival squamous cell carcinoma.

#### REFERENCES

- Modis Y, Trus BL, Harrison SC. Atomic model of the papillomavirus capsid. <u>EMBO</u> <u>J.21(September 2002):4754-62.</u>
- Chow LT, Broker TR, Steinberg BM. The natural history of human papillomavirusinfections of the mucosal epithelia. <u>APMIS</u>. 118(June 2010):422-49.
- (3) de Villiers EM, Fauquet C, Broker TR, Bernard HU, zur Hausen H. Classification of

papillomaviruses. Virology. 324(June 2004):17-27.

- (4) Leto MG, Santos Junior GF, Porro AM, Tomimori J. Human papillomavirus infection: etiopathogenesis, molecular biology and clinical manifestations. <u>An Bras</u> <u>Dermatol.</u> 86(April 2011):306-17.
- (5) Zheng ZM, Baker CC. Papillomavirus genome structure, expression, and post-transcriptional regulation. <u>Front Biosci</u>. (September 2006):2286-302.
- (6) Thomas M, Pim D, Banks L. The role of the E6-p53 interaction in the molecular pathogenesis of HPV. <u>Oncogene</u>. 18(December 1999):7690-700.
- (7) Wheeler CM. Natural history of human papillomavirus infections, cytologic and histologic abnormalities, and cancer. <u>Obstet Gynecol Clin North Am</u>. 35(December 2008):519-36; vii.
- (8) Doorbar J. Molecular biology of human papillomavirus infection and cervical cancer. <u>Clin</u> <u>Sci (Lond)</u>. 110(May 2006):525-41.
- (9) Castellsague X, Diaz M, de Sanjose S, Munoz N, Herrero R, Franceschi S, et al. Worldwide human papillomavirus etiology of cervical adenocarcinoma and its cofactors: implications for screening and prevention. <u>J Natl Cancer Inst</u>. 98(March 2006):303-15.

- (10) Carter JR, Ding Z, Rose BR. HPV infection and cervical disease: a review. <u>Aust N Z J</u> <u>Obstet Gynaecol</u>. 51(April 2011):103-8.
- (11) Burk RD, Chen Z, Van Doorslaer K. Human papillomaviruses: genetic basis of carcinogenicity. <u>Public Health Genomics</u>. (August 2009):281-90.
- (12) Schiffman M, Herrero R, Desalle R, Hildesheim A, Wacholder S, Rodriguez AC, et al. The carcinogenicity of human papillomavirus types reflects viral evolution. <u>Virology</u>. 337(June 2005):76-84.
- (13) Munger K, Baldwin A, Edwards KM, Hayakawa H, Nguyen CL, Owens M, et al. Mechanisms of human papillomavirus-induced oncogenesis. <u>J Virol</u>. 78(November 2004):11451-60.
- (14) Tjalma WA, Van Waes TR, Van den Eeden LE, Bogers JJ. Role of human papillomavirus in the carcinogenesis of squamous cell carcinoma and adenocarcinoma of the cervix. <u>Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol</u>. 19 (August 2005):469-83.
- (15) Green J, Berrington de Gonzalez A, Sweetland S, Beral V, Chilvers C, Crossley B, et al. Risk factors for adenocarcinoma and squamous cell carcinoma of the cervix in women aged 20-44 years: the UK National Case-Control Study of Cervical Cancer. <u>Br J Cancer</u>. 89(December 2003):2078-86.
- (16) Kinney W, Fetterman B, Cox JT, Lorey T, Flanagan T, Castle PE. Characteristics of 44 cervical cancers diagnosed following Pap-negative, high risk HPV-positive screening in routine clinical practice. <u>Gynecol Oncol</u>. 121(May 2011):309-13.
- (17) Giorgadze T, Kanhere R, Pang C, Ganote C, Miller LE, Tabaczka P, et al. Small cell carcinoma of the cervix in liquid-based Pap test: Utilization of split-sample immunocytochemical and molecular analysis. <u>Diagn Cytopathol</u>. 40(March 2012):214-9.

- (18) Hadzisejdic I, Simat M, Bosak A, Krasevic M, Grahovac B. Prevalence of human papillomavirus genotypes in cervical cancer and precursor lesions. <u>Coll</u> <u>Antropol.</u> 30(December 2006):879-83.
- Wong WW. A hypothesis on the pathogenesis of pterygiums. <u>Ann Ophthalmol</u>. 10(March 1978):303-8.
- (20) Detorakis ET, Spandidos DA. Pathogenetic mechanisms and treatment options for ophthalmic pterygium: trends and perspectives (Review). <u>Int J Mol Med.</u> 23(April 2009):439-47.
- (21) Shiroma H, Higa A, Sawaguchi S, Iwase A, Tomidokoro A, Amano S, et al. Prevalence and risk factors of pterygium in a southwestern island of Japan: the Kumejima Study. <u>Am J Ophthalmol</u>. 148(November 2009):766-71 e1.
- (22) Moukoury Nyolo E, Epee E, Nsangou JFI, Noa Noa Tina B. [Pterygiun in a tropical region. Analysis of 344 cases in Cameroon]. <u>Bull Soc Belge Ophtalmol</u>. (January 2009):11-5.
- West S, Munoz B. Prevalence of pterygium in Latinos: Proyecto VER. <u>Br J Ophthalmol</u>.
   93(October 2009):1287-90.
- (24) Ma K, Xu L, Jie Y, Jonas JB. Prevalence of and factors associated with pterygium in adult Chinese: the Beijing Eye Study. <u>Cornea</u>. 26(December 2007):1184-6.
- (25) Piras F, Moore PS, Ugalde J, Perra MT, Scarpa A, Sirigu P. Detection of human papillomavirus DNA in pterygia from different geographical regions. <u>Br J</u> <u>Ophthalmol.</u> 87(July 2003):864-6.
- (26) Sjo NC, von Buchwald C, Prause JU, Norrild B, Vinding T, Heegaard S. Human papillomavirus and pterygium. Is the virus a risk factor? <u>Br J Ophthalmol</u>. 91(August 2007):1016-8.

- (27) Piecyk-Sidor M, Polz-Dacewicz M, Zagorski Z, Zarnowski T. Occurrence of human papillomavirus in pterygia. <u>Acta Ophthalmol</u>. 87(November 2009):890-5.
- (28) Gallagher MJ, Giannoudis A, Herrington CS, Hiscott P. Human papillomavirus in pterygium. <u>Br J Ophthalmol</u>. 85(July 2001):782-4.
- (29) Detorakis ET, Sourvinos G, Spandidos DA. Detection of herpes simplex virus and human papilloma virus in ophthalmic pterygium. <u>Cornea</u>. 20(March 2001):164-7.
- (30) Frati E, Bianchi S, Colzani D, Zappa A, Orlando G, Tanzi E. Genetic variability in the major capsid L1 protein of human papillomavirus type 16 (HPV-16) and 18 (HPV-18). Infect Genet Evol. 11(December 2011):2119-24.
- (31) Zhang Y, Dasgupta J, Ma RZ, Banks L, Thomas M, Chen XS. Structures of a human papillomavirus (HPV) E6 polypeptide bound to MAGUK proteins: mechanisms of targeting tumor suppressors by a high-risk HPV oncoprotein. <u>J Virol</u>. 81(April 2007):3618-26.
- (32) Munger K, Howley PM. Human papillomavirus immortalization and transformation functions. <u>Virus Res</u>. 89(November 2002):213-28.
- (33) Maufort JP, Shai A, Pitot HC, Lambert PF. A role for HPV16 E5 in cervical carcinogenesis. <u>Cancer Res</u>. 70(April 2010):2924-31.
- (34) von Knebel Doeberitz M, Oltersdorf T, Schwarz E, Gissmann L. Correlation of modified human papilloma virus early gene expression with altered growth properties in C4-1 cervical carcinoma cells. <u>Cancer Res</u>. 48(July 1988):3780-6.
- (35) Wilson R, Fehrmann F, Laimins LA. Role of the E1--E4 protein in the differentiationdependent life cycle of human papillomavirus type 31. <u>J Virol</u>. 79(June 2005):6732-40.
- (36) Lie AK, Kristensen G. Human papillomavirus E6/E7 mRNA testing as a predictive marker for cervical carcinoma. <u>Expert Rev Mol Diagn</u>. 8(July 2008):405-15.

- (37) Malik AI. The role of human papilloma virus (HPV) in the aetiology of cervical cancer. J <u>Pak Med Assoc.</u> 55(December 2005):553-8.
- (38) Bernard HU. The clinical importance of the nomenclature, evolution and taxonomy of human papillomaviruses. <u>J Clin Virol</u>. 32 Suppl 1(March 2005):S1-6.
- (39) Lacey CJ, Lowndes CM, Shah KV. Chapter 4: Burden and management of non-cancerous HPV-related conditions: HPV-6/11 disease. <u>Vaccine</u>. 24 Suppl 3(August 2006):S3/35-41.
- (40) Bernard HU, Calleja-Macias IE, Dunn ST. Genome variation of human papillomavirus types: phylogenetic and medical implications. <u>Int J Cancer</u>. 118(March 2006):1071-6.
- (41) zur Hausen H. Papillomaviruses and cancer: from basic studies to clinical application. <u>Nat</u> <u>Rev Cancer</u>. 2(May 2002):342-50.
- (42) Doorbar J. The papillomavirus life cycle. <u>J Clin Virol</u>. 32 Suppl 1(March 2005):S7-15.
- (43) Schiller JT, Day PM, Kines RC. Current understanding of the mechanism of HPV infection. <u>Gynecol Oncol</u>. 118(June 2010):S12-7.
- (44) Longworth MS, Laimins LA. Pathogenesis of human papillomaviruses in differentiating epithelia. <u>Microbiol Mol Biol Rev</u>. 68(June 2004):362-72.
- (45) Joyce JG, Tung JS, Przysiecki CT, Cook JC, Lehman ED, Sands JA, et al. The L1 major capsid protein of human papillomavirus type 11 recombinant virus-like particles interacts with heparin and cell-surface glycosaminoglycans on human keratinocytes. J Biol Chem. 274(February 1999):5810-22.
- (46) Conger KL, Liu JS, Kuo SR, Chow LT, Wang TS. Human papillomavirus DNA replication. Interactions between the viral E1 protein and two subunits of human dna polymerase alpha/primase. J Biol Chem. 274(January 1999):2696-705.

- (47) Frattini MG, Laimins LA. Binding of the human papillomavirus E1 origin-recognition protein is regulated through complex formation with the E2 enhancer-binding protein. <u>Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A</u>. 91(December 1994):12398-402.
- (48) Mohr IJ, Clark R, Sun S, Androphy EJ, MacPherson P, Botchan MR. Targeting the E1 replication protein to the papillomavirus origin of replication by complex formation with the E2 transactivator. <u>Science</u>. 250(December 1990):1694-9.
- (49) Hughes FJ, Romanos MA. E1 protein of human papillomavirus is a DNA helicase/ATPase. <u>Nucleic Acids Res.</u> 21(December 1993):5817-23.
- (50) Boccardo E, Lepique AP, Villa LL. The role of inflammation in HPV carcinogenesis. <u>Carcinogenesis</u>. 31(November 2010):1905-12.
- (51) Conway MJ, Meyers C. Replication and assembly of human papillomaviruses. <u>J Dent Res</u>. 88(April 2009):307-17.
- (52) Bodily J, Laimins LA. Persistence of human papillomavirus infection: keys to malignant progression. <u>Trends Microbiol</u>. 19(January 2011):33-9.
- (53) Stanley M. Pathology and epidemiology of HPV infection in females. <u>Gynecol Oncol</u>. 117(May 2010):S5-10.
- (54) Kahn JA. HPV vaccination for the prevention of cervical intraepithelial neoplasia. <u>N Engl</u> <u>J Med.</u> 361(July 2009):271-8.
- (55) Burchell AN, Winer RL, de Sanjose S, Franco EL. Chapter 6: Epidemiology and transmission dynamics of genital HPV infection. <u>Vaccine</u>. 24(August 2006):S3/52-61.
- (56) Tota JE, Chevarie-Davis M, Richardson LA, Devries M, Franco EL. Epidemiology and burden of HPV infection and related diseases: implications for prevention strategies. <u>Prev Med.</u> 53(October 2011):S12-21.

- (57) Veldhuijzen NJ, Snijders PJ, Reiss P, Meijer CJ, van de Wijgert JH. Factors affecting transmission of mucosal human papillomavirus. <u>Lancet Infect Dis</u>. 10(December 2010):862-74.
- (58) Duenas-Gonzalez A, Lizano M, Candelaria M, Cetina L, Arce C, Cervera E. Epigenetics of cervical cancer. An overview and therapeutic perspectives. <u>Mol Cancer</u>. (October 2005):38.
- (59) Forcier M, Musacchio N. An overview of human papillomavirus infection for the dermatologist: disease, diagnosis, management, and prevention. <u>Dermatol Ther</u>. 23(September-October 2010):458-76.
- (60) Androphy EJ, Dvoretzky I, Lowy DR. X-linked inheritance of epidermodysplasia verruciformis. Genetic and virologic studies of a kindred. <u>Arch Dermatol</u>. 121(July 1985):864-8.
- (61) Gober MD, Rady PL, He Q, Tucker SB, Tyring SK, Gaspari AA. Novel homozygous frameshift mutation of EVER1 gene in an epidermodysplasia verruciformis patient. <u>J Invest Dermatol</u>. 127(April 2007):817-20.
- (62) Patel T, Morrison LK, Rady P, Tyring S. Epidermodysplasia vertuciformis and susceptibility to HPV. <u>Dis Markers</u>. (2010):199-206.
- (63) Santos A, Gomez-Leal A. Lesions of the lacrimal caruncle. Clinicopathologic features. <u>Ophthalmology</u>. 101(May 1994):943-9.
- (64) Miller DM, Brodell RT, Levine MR. The conjunctival wart: report of a case and review of treatment options. <u>Ophthalmic Surg</u>. 25(August 1994):545-8.
- (65) McDonnell PJ, McDonnell JM, Kessis T, Green WR, Shah KV. Detection of human papillomavirus type 6/11 DNA in conjunctival papillomas by in situ hybridization with radioactive probes. <u>Hum Pathol</u>. 18(November 1987):1115-9.

- (66) Asato Y, Taira K, Yamamoto Y, Uezato H. Detection of human papillomavirus type 11 in a case of Buschke-Lowenstein tumor. <u>Eur J Dermatol</u>. 18(May-June 2008):329-31.
- (67) Chan PK, Luk AC, Luk TN, Lee KF, Cheung JL, Ho KM, et al. Distribution of human papillomavirus types in anogenital warts of men. <u>J Clin Virol</u>. 44(February 2009):111-4.
- (68) Parkin DM, Bray F. Chapter 2: The burden of HPV-related cancers. <u>Vaccine</u>. 24 Suppl 3(August 2006):S3/11-25.
- (69) Munoz N, Castellsague X, de Gonzalez AB, Gissmann L. Chapter 1: HPV in the etiology of human cancer. <u>Vaccine</u>. 24 Suppl 3(August 2006):S3/1-10.
- (70) Koutsky L. The epidemiology behind the HPV vaccine discovery. <u>Ann Epidemiol</u>. 19(April 2009):239-44.
- (71) Schiffman MH, Bauer HM, Hoover RN, Glass AG, Cadell DM, Rush BB, et al. Epidemiologic evidence showing that human papillomavirus infection causes most cervical intraepithelial neoplasia. <u>J Natl Cancer Inst</u>. 85(June 1993):958-64.
- (72) Walboomers JM, Jacobs MV, Manos MM, Bosch FX, Kummer JA, Shah KV, et al. Human papillomavirus is a necessary cause of invasive cervical cancer worldwide. <u>J Pathol</u>. 189(September 1999):12-9.
- (73) Rousseau MC, Abrahamowicz M, Villa LL, Costa MC, Rohan TE, Franco EL. Predictors of cervical coinfection with multiple human papillomavirus types. <u>Cancer</u> <u>Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.</u> 12(October 2003):1029-37.
- (74) Trinh XB, Bogers JJ, Van Marck EA, Tjalma WA. Treatment policy of neuroendocrine small cell cancer of the cervix. <u>Eur J Gynaecol Oncol</u>. 25(2004):40-4.

- (75) Clifford GM, Smith JS, Plummer M, Munoz N, Franceschi S. Human papillomavirus types in invasive cervical cancer worldwide: a meta-analysis. <u>Br J Cancer</u>. 88(January 2003):63-73.
- (76) Iwasawa A, Nieminen P, Lehtinen M, Paavonen J. Human papillomavirus DNA in uterine cervix squamous cell carcinoma and adenocarcinoma detected by polymerase chain reaction. <u>Cancer</u>. 77(June 1996):2275-9.
- (77) Dillner J. The serological response to papillomaviruses. <u>Semin Cancer Biol</u>. 9(December 1999):423-30.
- Molijn A, Kleter B, Quint W, van Doorn LJ. Molecular diagnosis of human papillomavirus (HPV) infections. <u>J Clin Virol</u>. 32 Suppl 1(March 2005):S43-51.
- (79) Hildesheim A, Schiffman MH, Gravitt PE, Glass AG, Greer CE, Zhang T, et al. Persistence of type-specific human papillomavirus infection among cytologically normal women. <u>J Infect Dis</u>. 169(February 1994):235-40.
- (80) de Roda Husman AM, Walboomers JM, Hopman E, Bleker OP, Helmerhorst TM, Rozendaal L, et al. HPV prevalence in cytomorphologically normal cervical scrapes of pregnant women as determined by PCR: the age-related pattern. J <u>Med Virol</u>. 46(June 1995):97-102.
- (81) Gravitt PE, Peyton CL, Alessi TQ, Wheeler CM, Coutlee F, Hildesheim A, et al. Improved amplification of genital human papillomaviruses. <u>J Clin Microbiol</u>. 38(January 2000):357-61.
- (82) Kleter B, van Doorn LJ, ter Schegget J, Schrauwen L, van Krimpen K, Burger M, et al. Novel short-fragment PCR assay for highly sensitive broad-spectrum detection of anogenital human papillomaviruses. <u>Am J Pathol</u>. 153(December 1998):1731-9.
- (83) Chin-Hong PV, Klausner JD. New diagnostic tests for HPV in the developed and the developing world. <u>MLO Med Lab Obs</u>. 40(November 2008):48, 50, 2-3.

- (84) Tucker RA, Unger ER, Holloway BP, Swan DC. Real-time PCR-based fluorescent assay for quantitation of human papillomavirus types 6, 11, 16, and 18. <u>Mol Diagn</u>. 6(March 2001):39-47.
- (85) Strauss S, Desselberger U, Gray JJ. Detection of genital and cutaneous human papillomavirus types: differences in the sensitivity of generic PCRs, and consequences for clinical virological diagnosis. <u>Br J Biomed Sci</u>. 57(2000):221-5.
- (86) Quint WG, Scholte G, van Doorn LJ, Kleter B, Smits PH, Lindeman J. Comparative analysis of human papillomavirus infections in cervical scrapes and biopsy specimens by general SPF(10) PCR and HPV genotyping. <u>J Pathol</u>. 194(May 2001):51-8.
- (87) Bernard HU, Burk RD, Chen Z, van Doorslaer K, Hausen H, de Villiers EM. Classification of papillomaviruses (PVs) based on 189 PV types and proposal of taxonomic amendments. <u>Virology</u>. 401(May 2010):70-9.
- (88) Bernard HU. Gene expression of genital human papillomaviruses and considerations on potential antiviral approaches. <u>Antivir Ther</u>. 7(December 2002):219-37.
- (89) Lee K, Magalhaes I, Clavel C, Briolat J, Birembaut P, Tommasino M, et al. Human papillomavirus 16 E6, L1, L2 and E2 gene variants in cervical lesion progression. <u>Virus Res</u>. 131(January 2008):106-10.
- (90) Pastrana DV, Vass WC, Lowy DR, Schiller JT. NHPV16 VLP vaccine induces human antibodies that neutralize divergent variants of HPV16. <u>Virology</u>. 279(January 2001):361-9.
- (91) Kast WM, Brandt RM, Sidney J, Drijfhout JW, Kubo RT, Grey HM, et al. Role of HLA-A motifs in identification of potential CTL epitopes in human papillomavirus type 16 E6 and E7 proteins. <u>J Immunol</u>. 152(April 1994):3904-12.

- (92) Cento V, Rahmatalla N, Ciccozzi M, Perno CF, Ciotti M. Intratype variations of HPV 31 and 58 in Italian women with abnormal cervical cytology. <u>J Med Virol</u>. 83(October 2011):1752-61.
- (93) Pande S, Jain N, Prusty BK, Bhambhani S, Gupta S, Sharma R, et al. Human papillomavirus type 16 variant analysis of E6, E7, and L1 genes and long control region in biopsy samples from cervical cancer patients in north India. <u>J Clin</u> <u>Microbiol</u>. 46(March 2008):1060-6.
- (94) Chagas BS, Batista MV, Guimaraes V, Balbino VQ, Crovella S, Freitas AC. New variants of E6 and E7 oncogenes of human papillomavirus type 31 identified in Northeastern Brazil. <u>Gynecol Oncol</u>. 123(November 2011):284-8.
- (95) Piecyk-Sidor M, Polz-Dacewicz M, Zagorski Z, Zarnowski T. Occurrence of human papillomavirus in pterygia. <u>Acta Ophthalmol</u>. (March 2009):890-5.
- (96) Hsiao CH, Lee BH, Ngan KW, Chuang WY, Yeung L, Yeh LK, et al. Presence of human papillomavirus in pterygium in Taiwan. <u>Cornea</u>. 29(February 2010):123-7.
- (97) Rootman DB, McGowan HD, Yucel YH, Pavlin CJ, Simpson ER. Intraocular extension of conjunctival invasive squamous cell carcinoma after pterygium surgery and cataract extraction. <u>Eye Contact Lens</u>. 38(March 2012):133-6.
- (98) An HJ, Kim KR, Kim IS, Kim DW, Park MH, Park IA, et al. Prevalence of human papillomavirus DNA in various histological subtypes of cervical adenocarcinoma: a population-based study. <u>Mod Pathol</u>. 18(April 2005):528-34.
- (99) Li J, Zhang D, Zhang Y, Wang X, Lin Y, Hu L. Prevalence and genotype distribution of human papillomavirus in women with cervical cancer or high-grade precancerous lesions in Chengdu, western China. <u>Int J Gynaecol Obstet</u>. 112(February 2011):131-4.

APPENDICES

# APPENDIX A

# **REAGENTS, MATERIALS and INSTRUMENTS**

# A. Media and Reagents

Absolute ethanol	(Merck, Germany)
Agarose	(Reserch Organic, Inc.,
	U.S.A.)
Ampicillin	(Bio Basic, U.S.A.)
100 bp DNA ladder	(Fermentas,EU)
DNA extraction kit	(Roche Diagnostics, USA),
	(MACHEREY-NAGEL,
	Germany)
dNTPs	(Fermentas,EU)
Ethidium bromide	(Bio-Rad, U.S.A.)
Genotyping Test Kit	(Roche Diagnostics, USA)
LB (Luria Bertani) broth powder	(Merck, Germany)
Na <sub>2</sub> EDTA.2H <sub>2</sub> O	(Merck, Germany)
PCR Cloning kit	(Fermentas,EU)
Plasmid extraction kit	(MACHEREY-NAGEL,
	Germany)
Proof reading Taq DNA polymerase	(Finnzymes, U.S.A.)
Purify PCR product kit	(MACHEREY-NAGEL,
	Germany)
Taq DNA polymerase	(Fermentas, U.S.A.)
Tris Base	(Reserch Organic, Inc.,
	U.S.A.)
Xylene	(Merck, Germany)

# **B.** Materials

Disposible serological pipette	(Labcon, Germany)
Filter tip	(Sorenson, U.S.A.)
Microcentrifuge tube	(Sorenson, U.S.A.)
Centrifuge tube	(Labcon, Germany)

## C. Instruments

Autoclave	(Tomy, Japan)
Culturing shaking incubator	(Ztictene, China)
Electrophoresis chamber	(BIOER, China)
Gel Documentation	(Bio-Rad, U.S.A.)
Microcentrifuge	(Denville, U.S.A.)
PCR Thermal cycler	(Takara, Japan)
Refrigerator	(Sanyo, Japan)
Water bath	(GFL, Germany)

### **APPENDIX B**

### **REAGENTS PREPARATION**

### 1. Luria-Bertani broth

Tryptone	10 g
Yeast extract	5 g
NaCl	10 g
Distilled water to	1 L
Sterilized by autoclaving 121°C, 15 minutes	

### 2. Luria-Bertani agar plate

Tryptone			10 g
Yeast extract			5 g
NaCl			10 g
Distilled water to			1 L
Sterilized by autoclaving 121°C	15 minutes		
		0	

To pour plates, the medium was allowed to cool to  $55^{\circ}$ C and added 2 mL of ampicillin (50 ng/mL) to a final concentration of 100 µg/mL

# 3. Ampicillin (50 mg/mL)

Ampicillin	2.5 g
Distilled water	50 mL
Sterilized by filter and stored in aliquots at 4 <sup>0</sup> C	

#### 4. 10X Tris-borate buffer

Tris-base	60.50 g
Boric acid	30.85 g
Na <sub>2</sub> EDTA.2H <sub>2</sub> O	3.72 g
Distilled water to	1 L

Sterilized by autoclaving 121°C, 15 minutes and stored at room temperature

# BIOGRAPHY

Name:	Miss Luckana Thammachoteruja
Date of birth:	20 August 1975
Place of birth:	Bangkok, Thailand
Education:	Bachelor degree of Science (Microbiology) Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand
Publication:	Luckana Thammachotruja, Parvapan Bhattarakosol, Ngamjit Kasetsuwan. Prevalence of Human papillomavirus genotypes in pterygium. Proceeding in The 20 <sup>th</sup> Annual Scientific Meeting. The Virology Association (Thailand), Nov 2010:139-147