

**HUMAN MONOCLONAL ANTIBODY FRAGMENTS THAT
NEUTRALIZE BIO-FUNCTIONS OF SURFACE EXPOSED
PROTEINS OF TYPE A INFLUENZA VIRUSES**



TIPPAWAN PISSAWONG

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
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Thesis
entitled

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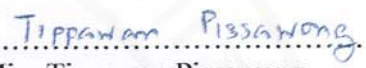
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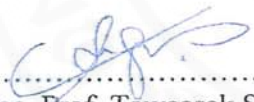
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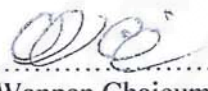
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ABSTRACT

The surface proteins of the influenza A virus, namely hemagglutinin (HA), neuraminidase (NA), and matrix protein-2 (M2) are surface exposed and thus are vulnerable targets for neutralizing antibodies. HA is the most abundant protein on the viral surface and the virus uses this protein as a ligand for host cell receptor binding and subsequent cellular entry by receptor mediated endocytosis. In the acidic endosome, a conformational change in the cleavage-active HA molecule induces fusion of the HA to the host endosomal membrane, allowing the exit of the viral RNPs into the host cytoplasm and subsequent nuclear import for replication. NA is a sialidase enzyme that cleaves the NeuAca_{2,3}Gal or NeuAca_{2,6}Gal on new virions and releases them from the infected cell. The M2 protein forms a homotetramer which is a highly selective channel for H⁺ influx into the intra-endosomal virion causing a dissociation of matrix protein-1 (M1) from the viral RNPs, allowing entry of the latter into the host cytosol. In the late stage of viral replication, M2 prevents acid-induced conformational change of newly synthesized hemagglutinin molecules that are cleaved in the trans-Golgi network. M2 functions also in inhibition of autophagy in infected cells causing accumulation of autophagosomes (macroautophagosome) to help the survival of the influenza virus in the infected cell. In addition, HA, NA, and M2 proteins also work together in viral assembly and budding. HA and NA help the M2 amphipathic helix in causing membrane curvature at the neck of the budding virion leading to membrane scission and virus release. As such, antibodies that interfere with HA, NA, and M2 functions have high potential as sole or adjunct therapeutic agents for influenza.

In this study, fully human monoclonal single chain antibody variable fragments (HuScFv) specific to HA, NA, and M2 of the influenza A virus were generated by using phage display technology. Influenza viruses adsorbed on the human erythrocyte ghosts were used as a phage biopanning antigen for selecting phage clones that displayed HuScFv from a human ScFv phage display library. The HuScFv specific to HA, NA and/or M2 derived from *huscfv*-phagemid transformed *E. coli* clones can be classified into 4 groups: HuScFv that bound to HA, NA, and M2 (clones no. 2, 10, 26, and 54); HuScFv that bound to HA and NA (clone no. 53); HuScFv that bound to M2 (clones no. 15 and 51); and HuScFv that bound to HA (clone no. 99). HuScFv from four selected clones which had different antigenic specificities and amino acid sequences particularly at their complementarity determining regions (CDRs), *i.e.*, clones no. 26, 51, 53, and 99, were tested for their efficacies in interfering with the influenza virus replication cycle in mammalian cell cultures. The results of the plaque assay revealed that the HuScFv of all clones could reduce the numbers of influenza virus foci in the HuScFv treated-infected cells.

Phage clones displaying HuScFv that bound specifically to full length recombinant M2 (rM2) were also selected from the human ScFv phage display library. Four *huscfv*-phagemid transformed *E. coli* clones, *i.e.*, no. 2, 19, 23 and 27, expressed HuScFv that bound not only to the rM2 but also to native M2 (nM2) in influenza virus infected cell homogenates and inside the cells. The HuScFv2, 19, 23, and 27 which had different amino acid sequences in immunoglobulin frameworks and CDRs could similarly reduce the amounts of viruses both in the culture supernatants and inside the cells infected with adamantane sensitive and resistant A/H5N1 strains belonging to different clades. A phage mimotope (peptide) search and multiple alignments revealed that conformational epitopes of HuScFv2 located at the residues important for ion channel activity, anti-autophagy, and M1 binding. Epitopic residues of HuScFv19 located at the M2 amphipathic helix and cytoplasmic tail important for anti-autophagy, virus assembly, morphogenesis, and release. The epitope of HuScFv23 involved residues important for the M2 activities similar to HuScFv2 and also amphipathic helix residues for viral budding and release. For the HuScFv27 epitope, it spanned ectodomain, ion channel, and anti-autophagy residues. The results of computerized homology modeling and molecular docking conformed to the epitope identification by phages. M2 epitopes bound by HuScFv2, 19, 23, and 27 are conserved across influenza A subtypes and human pathogenic clades of H5N1, indicating that the HuScFv have anti-influenza A activity.

Although molecular mechanisms of the HA-, NA-, and/or M2-specific-HuScFv(s) in interfering with the influenza virus replication cycle await experimental validations, these small antibody fragments which are fully human proteins have high potential for developing further as safe, novel, and mutation tolerable anti-influenza agents, especially against drug resistant variants.

KEY WORDS: INFLUENZA A VIRUSES/ HEMAGGLUTININ (HA)/ NEURAMINIDASE (NA) / MATRIX PROTEIN-2 (M2) / HUMAN SCFV/ PHAGE DISPLAY / MIMOTOPE / HOMOLOGY MODELING AND MOLECULAR DOCKING

216 pages

แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวมนุษย์แบบโมโนโคลนที่สามารถลดล้างฤทธิ์การทำงานของโปรตีนที่อยู่บริเวณผิวของไวรัสไข้หวัดใหญ่/ไวรัสไข้หวัดใหญ่/นก ชนิด เอ
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บทคัดย่อ

โปรตีนที่ผิวของไวรัสไข้หวัดใหญ่/นกชนิดเอชื่อ เอไอแมกกลูตินิน (เอชเอ), นิวรามิเนส (เอ็นเอ) และเมมบริกซ์สอง (เอ็มสอง) เป็นโปรตีนที่ผิวของไวรัสซึ่งง่าต่อการเป็นเป้าหมายของแอนติบอดีที่จะทำการลบล้างฤทธิ์ โดยที่โปรตีนเอชเอนั้นมีมากที่สุดบนผิวของไวรัสและไวรัสไข้หวัดใหญ่โปรตีนนี้เพื่อเป็นแกนสำหรับจับกับตัวรับซึ่งอยู่บนผิวของโฮสต์เซลล์ เพื่อใช้ในการเข้าสู่เซลล์เป้าหมายโดยขบวนการเอ็นโดไซโทสิส และในเอ็นโดไซโทมนั้นจะเกิดการเปลี่ยนแปลงของโมเลกุลเอชเอเพื่อให้เกิดการรวมกันของผิวไวรัสและผิวโฮสต์เซลล์เพื่อทำการปลดปล่อยสารพันธุกรรมของไวรัสเข้าสู่ไซโตพลาสซึมของโฮสต์เซลล์เพื่อทำการจำลองสารพันธุกรรมใหม่ของอนุภาคไวรัสตัวลูกต่อไป ส่วนโปรตีนเอ็นเอนั้นมีคุณสมบัติเป็นเอ็นไซม์ซีอีซีเอสที่ใช้ในการตัดพันธะ (NewAc₂,3Gal หรือ NeuAc₂,6Gal) ที่เชื่อมระหว่างโฮสต์และอนุภาคไวรัสตัวใหม่ เพื่อทำการปล่อยอนุภาคไวรัสตัวลูกออกจากเซลล์ที่ติดเชื้อมัน ในขณะที่โปรตีนเอ็มสองจะรวมตัวเป็นเทรามาเมอร์ซึ่งทำหน้าที่เป็นช่องที่ช่วยรับโปรตีนเข้ามาในอนุภาคไวรัสขณะที่อยู่ในเอ็นโดไซโทมเพื่อใช้ในการแยกกันของโปรตีนเอ็มหนึ่งและสารพันธุกรรมไวรัสออกจากกัน เพื่อที่สารพันธุกรรมของไวรัสจะเข้าสู่ไซโตพลาสซึมของโฮสต์เซลล์ต่อไป และในขั้นท้ายของการจำลองอนุภาคไวรัสใหม่นั้น โปรตีนเอ็มสองมีส่วนช่วยในการป้องกันการเปลี่ยนแปลงรูปร่างของโปรตีนเอชเอที่สังเคราะห์ใหม่ขณะที่อยู่ในทรานซอกอนจินต์ไวรัส โปรตีนเอ็มสองยังมีหน้าที่ในการยับยั้งกระบวนการออกโคพอกาจิในเซลล์ที่ติดเชื้อมี โดยการทำให้เกิดการสะสมตัวของถุงพากโซม (เม็กโครออกโคพอกาจิ) เพื่อช่วยในการอยู่รอดของไวรัสในเซลล์ที่ติดเชื้อ นอกจากนี้โปรตีนเอชเอ, เอ็นเอ และเอ็มสองยังทำงานร่วมกันในขณะจำลองอนุภาคใหม่และการปลดปล่อยจากเซลล์ที่ติดเชื้อ โดยที่โปรตีนเอชเอและเอ็มสองช่วยกับโปรตีนเอ็มสองส่วนแอมฟิพาทิกเฮลิคซ์ในการทำให้ผิวเมมเบรนของโฮสต์เซลล์เกิดการโค้งงอเพื่อให้ง่ายต่อการติดอนุภาคไวรัสตัวใหม่ออกจากโฮสต์เซลล์และปล่อยออกสู่ภายนอก จากเหตุผลดังกล่าวนี้เองแอนติบอดีที่สามารถรบกวนการทำงานของโปรตีนเอชเอ, เอ็นเอ และเอ็มสอง จึงน่าจะมีประสิทธิภาพสูงในการนำไปใช้ในการรักษาหรือเป็นตัวช่วยในการรักษาโรคไข้หวัดใหญ่/นก

ในการศึกษานี้ แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวของมนุษย์แบบโมโนโคลนที่จำเพาะกับโปรตีนเอชเอ, เอ็นเอ และเอ็มสองของไวรัสไข้หวัดใหญ่/นกถูกผลิตขึ้นโดยใช้เทคโนโลยีฟาจิสเทค โดยที่อนุภาคไวรัสไข้หวัดใหญ่ที่ถูกตรึงบนผิวของเม็ดเลือดแดงที่ไม่มีฮีโมโกลบินจะถูกใช้เป็นเป้าหมายสำหรับการคัดเลือกโคลนฟาจที่มีแอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวแสดงอยู่บนผิวจากคลังฟาจแอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวของมนุษย์ ซึ่งแอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวที่จำเพาะกับโปรตีนเอชเอ, เอ็นเอ และหรือเอ็มสองจะได้รับจากอีโคโนโลยีโคลนที่บรรจุฟาจมีดที่มียีนแอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวอยู่ และสามารถแบ่งแอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวที่ได้รับออกเป็นสี่กลุ่มดังนี้ แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวที่จำเพาะกับโปรตีนเอชเอ, เอ็นเอ และเอ็มสองจำนวน ๔ โคลน (โคลนเลขที่ ๒, ๑๐, ๒๖ และ ๕๔) แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวที่จำเพาะกับโปรตีนเอชเอและเอ็นเอจำนวน ๑ โคลน (โคลนเลขที่ ๕๓) แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวที่จำเพาะกับโปรตีนเอ็มสองจำนวน ๒ โคลน (โคลนเลขที่ ๑๕ และ ๕๑) และ แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวที่จำเพาะกับโปรตีนเอชเอจำนวน ๑ โคลน (โคลนเลขที่ ๕๕) โดยที่แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวจำนวน ๔ โคลน (โคลนเลขที่ ๒๖, ๕๑, ๕๓ และ ๕๕) ซึ่งจำเพาะกับโปรตีนเป้าหมายที่แตกต่างกัน และยังมีลำดับกรดอะมิโนที่แตกต่างกันโดยเฉพาะบริเวณซีดีอาร์ ถูกนำมาทดสอบความสามารถในการรบกวนกระบวนการจำลองอนุภาคไวรัสในเซลล์ที่เลี้ยงในหลอดทดลอง ซึ่งผลจำนวนเซลล์ที่ติดเชื้อ (ไวรัสไฟไซ) เผยให้เห็นว่าทุกโคลนของแอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวสามารถลดจำนวนไวรัสไฟไซได้ในเซลล์ที่ติดเชื้อที่ได้รับแอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยว

ฟาจโคลนที่คิสเพลย์แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวมนุษย์ที่จับจำเพาะกับตัวเต็มของโปรตีนริคอมบิเนนต์เอ็มสอง (อาร์เอ็มสอง) ยังถูกคัดเลือกจากคลังฟาจแอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวของมนุษย์อีกด้วย อีโคโนโลยีโคลนที่บรรจุฟาจมีดที่มียีนแอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวอยู่จำนวน ๔ โคลนดังนี้ โคลนเลขที่ ๒, ๑๕, ๒๓ และ ๒๗ สามารถจับได้กับโปรตีนอาร์เอ็มสอง และเนทีโปรตีนเอ็มสองที่ได้จากเซลล์โฮโมจินของเซลล์ที่ติดเชื้อไวรัสไข้หวัดใหญ่ และที่อยู่ภายในเซลล์ แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยว ๑, ๑๕, ๒๓ และ ๒๗ ซึ่งมีลำดับกรดอะมิโนที่แตกต่างกันในส่วนอิมมูโนโอบูลินเฟรมเวิร์คและซีดีอาร์ สามารถลดจำนวนไวรัสไฟไซได้ในส่วนอาหารเลี้ยงเซลล์และภายในเซลล์ที่ติดเชื้อกับไวรัสไข้หวัดใหญ่/นก ซัพแทย์ เอช๕เอ็น๑ ที่คือและไม่ใช่เอช๕เอ็น๑ ซึ่งแตกต่างกันตามเซลล์ที่อยู่ การหาฟาจมิโมโทป (เปปไทด์) และการทำการเปรียบเทียบลำดับกรดอะมิโนที่จะเป็นอีโทปบนโปรตีนเอ็มสอง เผยให้เห็นว่า แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยว ๒ จับบริเวณที่ทำหน้าที่เป็นอออนซาน, แอนติบอดีโคพอกาจิ และบริเวณที่ใช้จับกับโปรตีนเอ็มหนึ่ง แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยว ๑๕ จับบริเวณแอมฟิพาทิกเฮลิคซ์ และไซโตพลาสซึมของโปรตีนเอ็มสองที่สำคัญต่อการเป็นแอนติบอดีโคพอกาจิ และการประกอบและปลดปล่อยอนุภาคไวรัสใหม่ แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยว ๒๓ จับบริเวณที่สำคัญต่อการเป็นอออนซานคล้ายกับแอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยว ๒ แต่ยังสามารถจับส่วนแอมฟิพาทิกเฮลิคซ์ที่สำคัญต่อการปลดปล่อยอนุภาคไวรัสใหม่อีกด้วย ในขณะที่แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยว ๑๗ จะจับส่วนอีอีโคโนโลยี, อออนซาน และส่วนที่เป็นแอนติบอดีโคพอกาจิ นอกจากนี้ผลของโฮโมโลจีคลั่งและโมเลกุลาร์ค็อกซิ่งยังสนับสนุนผลอีโทปที่ได้จากฟาจอีกด้วย ซึ่งอีโทปบนเอ็มสองที่จับกับแอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยว ๒, ๑๕, ๒๓ และ ๒๗ มีลักษณะที่อนุรักษ์ในระหว่างซัพแทย์ของไวรัสไข้หวัดใหญ่/นก และไวรัสไข้หวัดนกซัพแทย์ เอช๕เอ็น๑ ที่ติดเชื้อในมนุษย์ จากผลครั้งนี้สามารถบอกเป็นนัยได้ว่าแอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวสามารถใช้เป็นสารต่อต้านไวรัสไข้หวัดใหญ่/นกได้ในวงกว้าง

ถึงแม้ว่ากลไกการทำงานของแอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยวที่จำเพาะกับโปรตีนเอชเอ, เอ็นเอ และหรือเอ็มสอง ที่ใช้ในการรบกวนการจำลองอนุภาคใหม่ของไวรัสไข้หวัดใหญ่/นกยังรอการทดลองที่จะมาประเมินผล แต่แอนติบอดีสายเดี่ยว โมเลกุลเล็กเหล่านี้ที่ผลิตจากมนุษย์ก็มีประสิทธิภาพสูงพอที่จะพัฒนาต่อไปเป็นสารที่ใช้ในการต้านไวรัสไข้หวัดใหญ่ที่ปลอดภัย และทนต่อการเปลี่ยนแปลงกรดอะมิโนของโปรตีนเป้าหมายในไวรัสสายพันธุ์ที่คล้าย

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation or symbol	Term
%	Percent
$\times g$	Specific gravity
$^{\circ}\text{C}$	Degree Celsius
-OH	Hydroxyl group
A	Absorbance
Å	Ångström
μg	Microgram
μl	Microliter
3D	Three-dimension
A or Ala	Alanine
ABTS	2,2'-azino-bis (3-ethylbenzthiazoline-6-sulphonic acid)
AP	Alkaline phosphatase
BCIP/NBT	Alternative reading frame protein 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl phosphate / nitro blue tetrazolium
bp	Base pairs
BSA	Bovine serum albumin
CI	Constant domain I of heavy chain
CII	Constant domain II of heavy chain
CBB	Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250
cDNA	Complementary deoxy-nucleic acid
CDRs	Complementarity determining regions
CL	Constant domain of light chain
CFU	Colony forming unit (s)
CRM1	Exportin I protein

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (cont.)

Abbreviation or symbol	Term
cRNA	Complimentary RNA
D or Asp	Aspartic acid
DAPI	4', 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole
DEPC	Diethylpyrocarbonate
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
DMEM	Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium
DW	Distilled water
<i>E. coli</i>	<i>Escherichia coli</i>
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
<i>e.g.</i>	<i>Exempli gratia</i>
ELISA	Enzyme linked-immunosorbent assay
ER	Endoplasmic Reticulum
<i>etc.</i>	<i>Et cetera</i>
F or Phe	Phenylalanine
Fab	Monovalent antigen binding fragment
F(ab)' ₂	bivalent antigen binding fragment
FBS	Fetal Bovine Serum
Fc	Fragment, crystalizable
FR	Framework
g	Gram
G or Gly	Glycine
Gal	Galactose
H or His	Histidine
H ⁺	Proton
HA	Hemagglutinin
HAMA	Human antibody to mouse antibody
HAU	Hemagglutination unit

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (cont.)

Abbreviation or symbol	Term
HI	Hemagglutination inhibition
hRBC	Human red blood cell
HRP	Horse radish per oxidase
HuScFvIgG	Human single chain antibody
<i>i.e.</i>	<i>Id est</i>
IgG	Immunoglobulin G
IMGT	The international ImMunoGeneTics information system for immunoglobulins or antibodies
IPTG	Isopropyl-1-thiol- β -D-galactopyranoside
kb	Kilo bases
kDa	Kilo Daltons
L or Leu	Leucine
LC-MS/MS	Liquid chromatography and tandem mass spectrometry
M	Molar
M1	Matrix protein 1
M2	Matrix protein 2
M2e	Extracellular domain of Matrix protein 2
MAHA	Mouse Anti-Human Antibody
MAb	Monoclonal antibody
MDCK	Madin-Darby Canine Kidney Cells
Mg	Milligram (s)

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (cont.)

Abbreviation or symbol	Term
min	Minute (s)
ml	Milliliter (s)
mM	Millimolar
mPAb	Mouse polyclonal antibody
<i>Mr</i>	Relative molecular mass
MOI	Multiplicity of infection
mRNA	Messenger ribonucleic acid
N or Asn	Asparagine
NA or N	neuraminidase
NC	Nitro cellulose membrane
NeuAc	N-Acetylneuraminic acid or sialic acid
NEP	Nuclear export protein
ng	Nanogram (s)
Ni-NTA	Nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid
NP	Nucleoprotein
NS	Non-structural protein
nt	Nucleotide
OD	Optical density
PA	Acidic polymerase protein
PB	Basic polymerase protein
PAb	Polyclonal antibody
PBS	Phosphate buffer saline
PBS-T	Phosphate buffer saline with Tween-20
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
PEG	Polyethylene glycol Restriction fragment length polymorphism

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (cont.)

Abbreviation or symbol	Term
qPCR	Real time RT-PCR
R or Arg	Arginine
RBC	Red blood cell
RFLP	Restriction fragment length polymorphism
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
rpm	Round per minute
RT-PCR	Reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction
S or Ser	Serine
ScFv	Single chain antibody
SD	Standard deviation
SDS	Sodium dodecyl sulfate
SDS-PAGE	Sodium dodecyl sulfate-poly acrylamide gel electrophoresis
Sec	Second (s)
SPF	specific pathogen-free
<i>Taq</i>	<i>Thermusaquaticus</i>
TBS	Tris buffered saline
TBS-T	Tris buffered saline with tween-20
TCID 50	median tissue culture infective dose
Tm	Time of mobile phase
UDW	Ultrapure distilled water
UV	Ultraviolet
W or Trp	Tryptophan
WHO	World Health Organization
V or val	Valine

LIST OF ABBREVIATION (cont.)

Abbreviation or symbol	Term
<i>vh</i> /VH	Variable region (sequence/segment) of immunoglobulin heavy chain gene/protein sequence of conventional antibody
<i>v_hh</i> /V _H H	Variable region (sequence/segment) of immunoglobulin heavy chain gene/protein sequence of heavy-chain antibody
VL	Variable region (sequence/segment) of immunoglobulin light chain
vRNP	viral ribonucleoprotein

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Influenza viruses are enveloped, negative-sense, single stranded-RNA viruses belonging to the family *Orthomyxoviridae*. They are divided into three types: A, B, and C, based on the host range and preference, epidemiological pattern and severity of symptoms. The type A viruses have the widest host range and cause disease of the most severity. They are subdivided into 16 antigenic hemagglutinin (H or HA) subtypes (H1-H16) and 9 antigenic neuraminidase (N or NA) subtypes (N1-N9). Virion of the type A may have any of the H and N subtypes, such as H1N1, H2N2, H3N2, H5N1, H7N9, *etc.* The type A influenza viruses are causative agents of an acute respiratory contagious disease, named influenza or flu, in avian and mammal species including humans, tigers, leopards, cats and dogs. Pattern of human influenza viruses may be sporadic, annual/seasonal epidemic or occasional pandemic. The disease severity varies, depending upon the host age and background immunity and the virus virulence, from acute febrile illness to bacterially superimposed pneumonitis which is highly fatal. Until the present, the world population has experienced several influenza A pandemics including Spanish flu caused by subtype H1N1 in 1918, H2N2 Asian flu in 1957, H3N2 Hong Kong flu in 1968, and the more recent H1N1-2009 pandemic in 2009. Nowadays, the newly emerged H1N1-2009 influenza virus has replaced the old seasonal H1N1 strain in seasonal epidemics throughout the world. For the avian influenza, there have been outbreaks of A/H5N1 in 1997 to 2011. Recently in 2012-2013, the A/H7N9 has killed not only poultry but also many infected human. Humans infected with avian influenza tend to develop severe pneumonia with high fatality rate. Fortunately there has been no evidence, as yet, of human to human transmission of the A/H7N9 avian influenza.

Current influenza vaccines for human use are trivalent consisting of type A H1N1 and H3N2 strains and an influenza B strain. The vaccine is given *via* either parenteral or mucosal route. The World Health Organization (WHO) recommended

that the H1N1 for vaccines since 2010 must be H1N1-2009 or the antigenically related strain. There are limitations in both production and use of the current seasonal flu vaccines. The vaccine viruses are propagated in specific pathogen-free (SPF) embryonated eggs which not only the supply is limited, but also the vaccines are contra-indicated for people who are allergic to egg proteins. The vaccines are strain/subtype specific. The vaccine strains must match antigenically with the circulating/infecting influenza viruses in order to confer adequate protection. As such, viruses in the vaccines have to be changed almost annually due to antigenic variation of the circulating influenza viruses from year to year (which are different strains for the northern and southern hemispheres). Besides, immunity elicited by the vaccines is rather short-lived and frequent vaccination is required to induce and sustain the protective immunity level. The vaccines confer low protective rates in elderly, small children and immune-compromised individuals.

There have been only two pharmacologic drug families used for influenza treatment. One family is ion channel blockers and another is neuraminidase inhibitors. Both drugs must be given to the infected subjects during the early phase of the infection in order to expect satisfactory therapeutic efficiency. Influenza virus mutants that resist the anti-viral activities of the drugs have emerged continuously, leading to increment of influenza treatment failure. There is a need of novel therapeutic agents for influenza especially the regimens that have a broad spectrum and can tolerate the virus antigenic variations.

Influenza A virus has eight genomic RNA segments which encodes 11 functionally different proteins. Among the 11 proteins, hemagglutinin (HA), neuraminidase (NA), and ion channel protein or matrix protein-2 (M2) are surface exposed. Thus, these three proteins are vulnerable targets of neutralizing antibodies. Recent studies have shown that membrane of cells infected with influenza virus had increased permeability (Gonzalez and Carraso, 2003; Wang *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, small anti-viral agents including antibodies such as single chain variable antibody fragments (ScFv) or single domain antibodies (nanobody/VH/V_HH) specific to intracellular influenza proteins could traverse the cell membrane during infection and interfere with the bio-functions of the targets which would eventually thwart the virus replication. The HA encoded by the fourth RNA segment, the most abundant proteins

on the influenza viral surface, is the virus ligand for host cell receptor binding and subsequent cellular entry by receptor mediated endocytosis. In the acidic endosome, a conformational change in the cleavage-active HA molecule induces HA-mediated host endosomal membrane fusion allowing the exit of the viral ribonucleoprotein (vRNP) (that has been released from the matrix protein-1 because of the ion channel activity of M2) into the host cytosol (the process called virus uncoating). Thus, the HA is an important target of neutralizing antibodies for prevention of the virus binding to cell surface receptor and inhibition of uncoating by the low pH mediated-conformational change in the HA molecule. The influenza virus NA is a sialicidase enzyme encoded by the sixth RNA segment. NA cleaves the NeuAc α 2,3Gal or NeuAc α 2,6Gal on new virions and release them from the infected cell. Thus, NA protein is another target of neutralizing antibodies which obstruct the virus release and spread. Recently, there has been evidence showing that the NA participates in cellular entry of the influenza virus. Thus, antibodies that neutralize NA function should reduce also the virus entry to cells (Su *et al.*, 2009). Influenza virus M2 protein forms homotetramer on the virus particles and acts as a channel for influx of H⁺ into the intra-endosomal virion causing a dissociation of the matrix protein-1 (M1) from the vRNPs allowing the latter to enter the host cytosol and subsequent nuclear import for replication. Moreover, M2 prevents acid-induced conformational change of the newly synthesized hemagglutinin molecules that are cleaved in trans-Golgi network. The M2 protein also functions in inhibition of fusion of autophagosomes to lysosomes in the influenza infected cells causing accumulation of the autophagosomes (macroautophagosome) for helping survival of influenza virus in infected cell. Besides, amphipathic helix of the M2 molecule also helps in altering membrane curvature at the neck of the budding virion, thus facilitating the membrane scission and the virus release. Hence, neutralizing antibodies specific to M2 should interfere with many steps of the influenza viral replication cycle. In addition, the HA, NA, and M2 proteins also work together in viral assembly and budding (Rossman and Lamb, 2011). From the above mentioned rationales, antibodies that inhibit functions of HA, NA and M2 should have high potential as therapeutic agents for influenza especially caused by drug resistant virus variants.

Legacy of influenza treatment annotated in the literature have shown that passive administration of specific antibody to influenza virus is highly effective for human influenza therapy and intervention of morbidity. For examples, passive transfer of the serum of the H5N1 convalescing subject could rescue readily the H5N1 infected recipient who was already refractory to the neuraminidase inhibitor (oseltamivir) (Zhou *et al.*, 2007). Nevertheless, the supply of the human immune serum to a particular influenza virus subtype is limited and the medical practice is unethical. Mouse monoclonal antibody specific to ectodomain of M2 was found to accelerate the lung viral clearance following a sublethal influenza A virus infection in mice (Treanor *et al.*, 1990). However, mouse antibodies are highly immunogenic in human and they are inappropriate for human use because of the adverse reaction subsequent to the human anti-mouse antibody (HAMA) response.

In this study, fully human single chain monoclonal antibody fragments (HuScFv) that bound specifically to- and interfere with- the biological functions of surface exposed proteins of influenza A virus, namely HuScFv to HA, NA and M2, were generated by using an established human ScFv phage display library as a biological tool. Focused was made on the therapeutic efficacies of the antibodies specific to M2 protein. The M2 specific HuScFv were characterized and evaluated: 1) *in vitro* by immunological assays for testing specific their specific binding to recombinant and native M2 across types and subtypes of influenza viruses, 2) *ex vivo* in the infected cell cultures to determine antibody efficacies in interfering with the replication cycles of both drug sensitive and resistant virus variants, and 3) *in silico* by homology modeling and molecular docking for determining interface binding and interactive residues of the antibodies with the targets in order to reveal the molecular mechanisms of the effective HuScFv. Experimental designs, the results thereof and discussion on the results form the basis of this thesis.

CHAPTER II

OBJECTIVES

ULTIMATE OBJECTIVE

To produce human single chain variable antibody fragment (HuScFv) that bind specifically to- and interfere with- the bio-functions of influenza virus surface exposed proteins, *i.e.*, hemagglutinin, neuraminidase and matrix protein-2 for using as a sole or adjunctive therapeutic agents of human influenza

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

1. To select phage clones that display HuScFv specific to native HA, NA and M2 of influenza A virus and to establish *Escherichia coli* transformants carrying the *huscfv*-phagemids that can express the recombinant HuScFv
2. To select phage clones that display HuScFv specific to recombinant M2 of influenza A virus and to establish *Escherichia coli* transformants carrying the *huscfv*-phagemids that can express the recombinant HuScFv
3. To characterize binding specificities of the bacterially derived-HuScFv to recombinant and/or native HA, NA and M2
4. To determine the ability of the HuScFv in neutralizing influenza A virus infectivity *ex vivo*
5. To identify epitopes on the target proteins that bound by the HuScFv
6. To test ability of the specific HuScFv in inhibition of the bio-functions of their respective antigens

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Influenza viruses

3.1.1 General description of influenza viruses

Influenza viruses cause sporadic and recurrent seasonal epidemics of varying severity, as well as occasional global pandemics during which acute febrile respiratory disease occurs explosively in all age groups. The viruses are enveloped, negative-sense, single stranded-RNA viruses belonging to the family *Orthomyxoviridae* (Lamb and Krug, 2001). The influenza viruses are classified into three types: A, B, C, depended on the host range and preference, epidemiological patterns, and symptom severity. Type A has the widest host range including human, mammals and avian and infection of the influenza A virus in animal can cause high mortality (Webster, 1998). Both types B and C have human preference that cause mild symptoms compared to the type A viruses. All three types of the influenza viruses share similar physical structure. They have 7-8 gene segments encoding 10-11 proteins of diverse biological functions (types A and B viruses have 8 gene segments while type C virus has 7 segments and lacks the segment encoding neuraminidase) (Lamb and Krug, 2001).

3.1.2 Transmission

Both avian influenza A viruses such as A/H5N1 and A/H7N9 and human influenza viruses such as A/H1N1 and A/H3N2 can cause human infections. Human infections result from direct contact with influenza viruses which are shed from infected animal or person (direct transmission), inhalation of the aerosols produced by an infected animal or person through coughing, sneezing or spitting (airborne transmission), or contact with contaminated surfaces (hand-to-eye, hand-to-nose, or hand-to-mouth transmission; fomites) (Brankston *et al.*, 2004; Tellier, 2006).

Shedding of the influenza virus starts at the day before symptoms appear and viruses are released for approximately 5 to 7 days. People who contract influenza are most infective between the second and third days after infection (Carrat *et al.*, 2006). The amount of virus shed appears to correlate with fever; higher amounts of virus shed when temperatures are highest. Children are much more infectious than adults and shed virus from just before they develop symptoms until two weeks after infection (Carrat *et al.*, 2006; Mitamura and Sugaya, 2006).

3.1.3 Pathogenesis in human

The viral hemagglutinin protein (HA) of influenza virus is responsible for determining which species a virus strain can infect and where in the human respiratory tract a strain of influenza will bind (Nicholl *et al.*, 2008). In mild and non-virulent viruses such as human influenza and low-pathogenic avian influenza, the structure of the HA can be cleaved only by proteases found in the throat and upper lungs while in highly virulent strains such as H5N1, the HA binds to receptors that are mostly found deep in the lungs (van Riel *et al.*, 2006) and it is cleaved by a wide variety of proteases that cause the virus spreading throughout the body (Korteweg and Gu, 2008). This difference in the site of infection may be part of the reasons why the H5N1 strain causes severe viral pneumonia in the lungs, but is not easily transmitted by people coughing and sneezing (Shinya *et al.*, 2006; van Riel *et al.*, 2007). **Figure 3.1** shows different sites and outcomes of H1N1 *versus* H5N1 influenza virus infection.

The incubation period of influenza infection may be typically two to four days or up to eight day after exposure (Yuen *et al.*, 1998; Chotpitayasunondh *et al.*, 2004). Common symptoms of the flu such as fever, headaches and fatigue are the result of the huge amounts of proinflammatory cytokines and chemokines (such as interferon or tumor necrosis factor) produced from influenza-infected cells (Eccles, 2005; Schmitz *et al.*, 2005). In contrast to the rhinovirus that causes the common cold, influenza does cause tissue damage; so the symptoms are not entirely due to the inflammatory response (Winther *et al.*, 1998). The massive immune response might produce a life-threatening “cytokine storm” cause unusual lethality of both the H5N1 and H7N9 avian influenza (Cheung *et al.*, 2002; Gao *et al.*, 2013) and the pandemic

strains (Kobasa *et al.*, 2007; Kach *et al.*, 2006; Fowlkes *et al.*, 2012). However, another possibility is that these large amounts of cytokines are just a result of the massive levels of viral replication produced by these strains and the immune response does not itself contribute to the disease (Beigel and Bray, 2008).

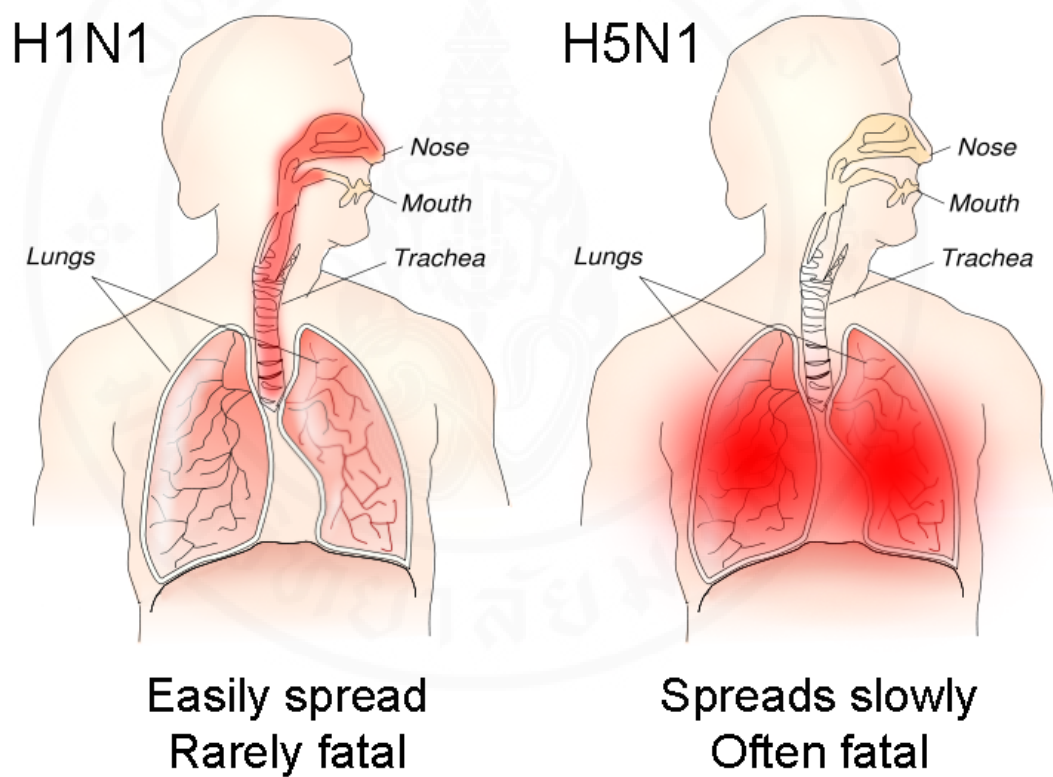


Figure 3.1 Different sites and outcomes of H1N1 *versus* H5N1 influenza virus infection

Source: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Influenza>

(Accessed on 31 May 2013)

3.1.4 Antigenic variation

The epidemiological success of influenza viruses is contributed mostly by two types of their antigenic variation that composed of antigenic drift and antigenic shift. The two mechanisms are described below.

3.1.4.1 RNA mutation (antigenic drift)

The antigenic drift (**Figure 3.2**) occurs in both influenza A and B viruses because of their low fidelity RNA polymerases, *i.e.*, lack proof-reading mechanisms to correct base-pairing mistakes during RNA replication resulting in genetic mutation during the influenza virus replication process. The estimated replication error rate is 1 per 10^3 - 10^4 nucleotides (Matrosovich *et al.*, 2004) and results in single amino acid substitutions (mutations) in viral proteins. In addition, the environment in the host cells especially from immune pressure causes also the antigenic drift by forcing influenza viruses to undergo antigenic change in order to escape the host immunity. The amino acid changes in the HA and NA proteins cause inability of the antibody to the previous infecting strains to neutralize the subsequently mutated virus (Bush *et al.*, 1999; Plotkin and Dushoff, 2003). Thus, the composition of the vaccine needs to be adapted to match the circulating variants which usually are different in northern and southern hemispheres almost every year (Webster *et al.*, 1982; CDC, 2009).

3.1.4.2 RNA segment re-assortment (antigenic shift)

The occurrence of devastating worldwide pandemics is based on an abrupt change in the subtypes of HA and NA (**Figure 3.3**). This antigenic change comes from the genetic re-assortment among two different influenza A subtypes that happened to be replicated in the same host cell. Antigenic shift is responsible for worldwide pandemics. For example, pandemic 2009-H1N1 emerged from re-assortment of: 1) NA and M gene segments of the Eurasian swine genetic lineage, originally derived from an avian influenza virus and thought to have entered the Eurasian swine population in 1979; 2) HA, NP, and NS gene segments of the classical swine lineage, thought to have entered swine around 1918; 3) PB2 and PA gene segments of the swine triple reassortant lineage, originally from avian origin and entered swine in North America around 1998; and 4) PB1 gene segment which was seeded in swine from humans at the time of the North America swine triple re-

assortment event (**Figure 3.4**). From the above information, swine is considered as incubator for such new subtype recombination since they have receptors for both human and avian influenza viruses (Scholtissek *et al.*, 1998).

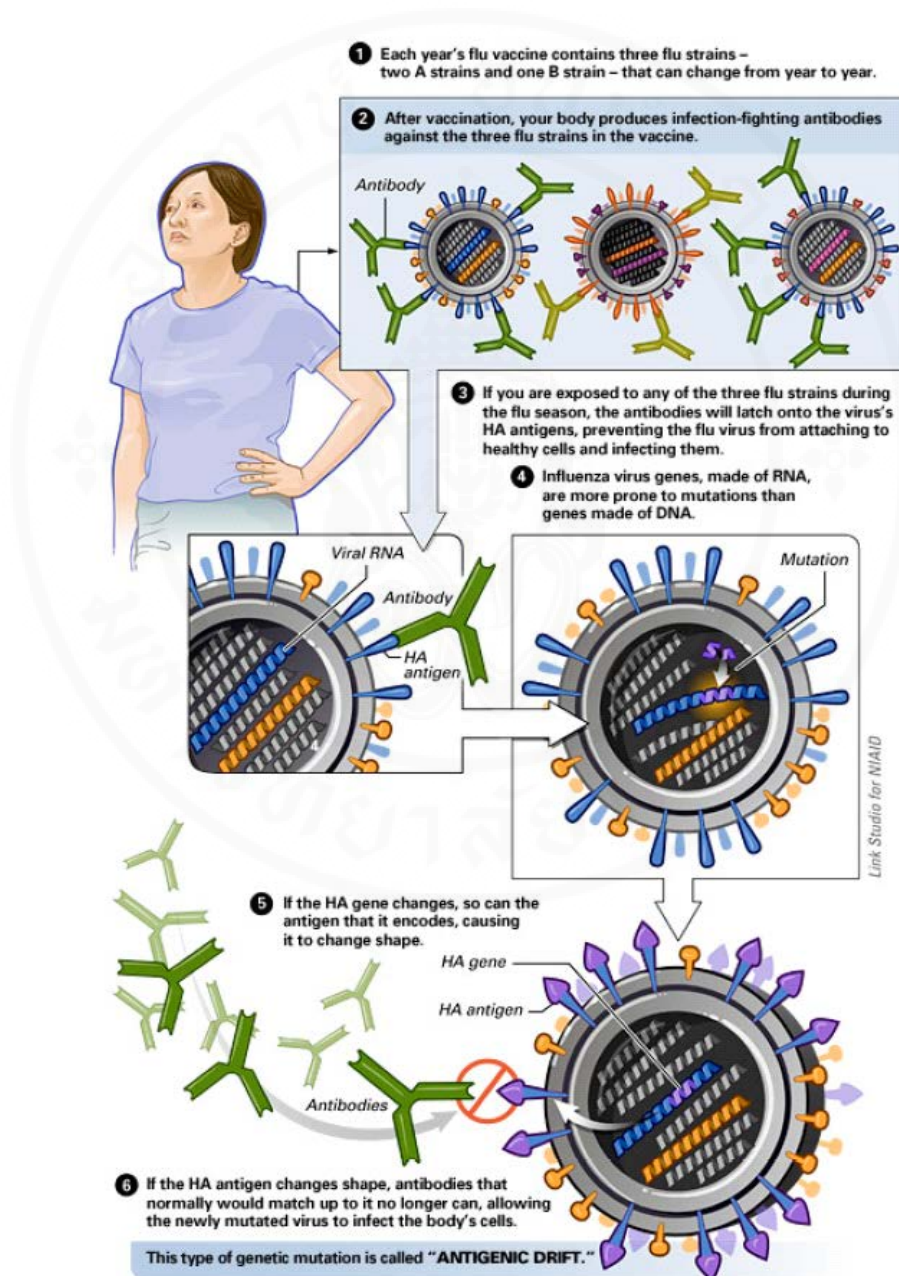


Figure 3.2 Schematic diagram of the antigenic drift of the influenza virus

Source: Kamps BS and Reyes-Teran G: www.InfluenzaReport.com

(Accessed on 20 January 2012)

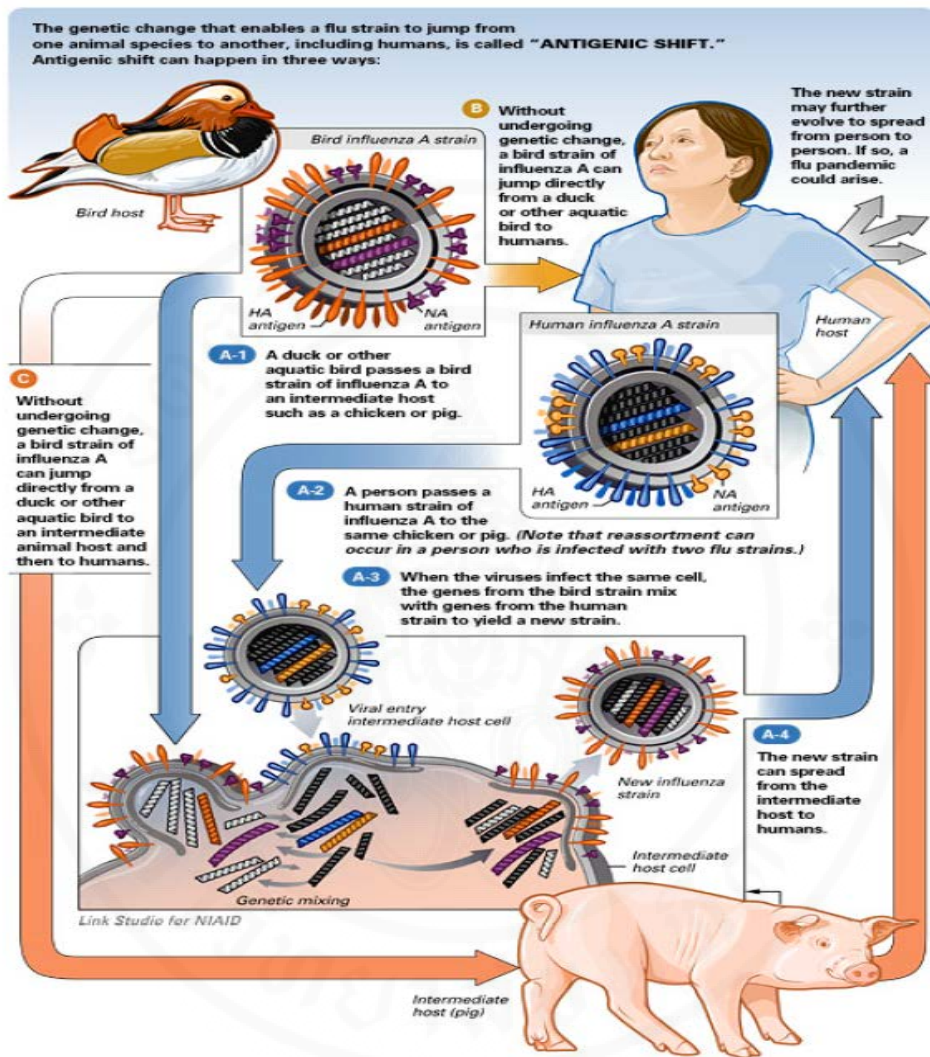


Figure 3.3 Schematic diagram of the antigenic shift of the influenza virus

Source: Kamps BS and Reyes-Teran G: www.InfluenzaReport.com

(Accessed on 20 January 2012)

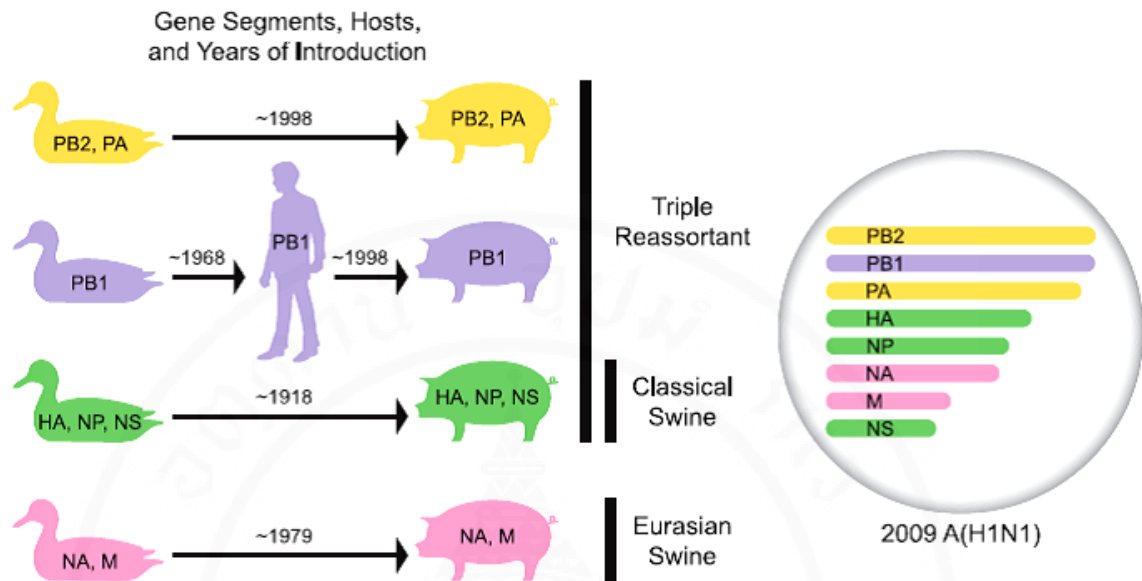


Figure 3.4 Schematic diagram of host and lineage origins for the gene segments of the 2009 A (H1N1) virus

Source: Garten *et al.*, 2009.

3.1.5 Epidemiology of influenza

3.1.5.1 Seasonal variations

In Thailand (southern hemisphere), the incidence of seasonal influenza (**Figure 3.5**) normally starts in the hot season (April) and continues to increase until the beginning of the rainy season in May to August, then decrease in the dry season from November to March (Yuthao *et al.*, 2008). In addition, the emerging of pandemic 2009-H1N1 has substituted season influenza H1N1 since 2009 and is also starting to resist both ion channel blocker and neuraminidase inhibitor drugs (Sheu *et al.*, 2011).

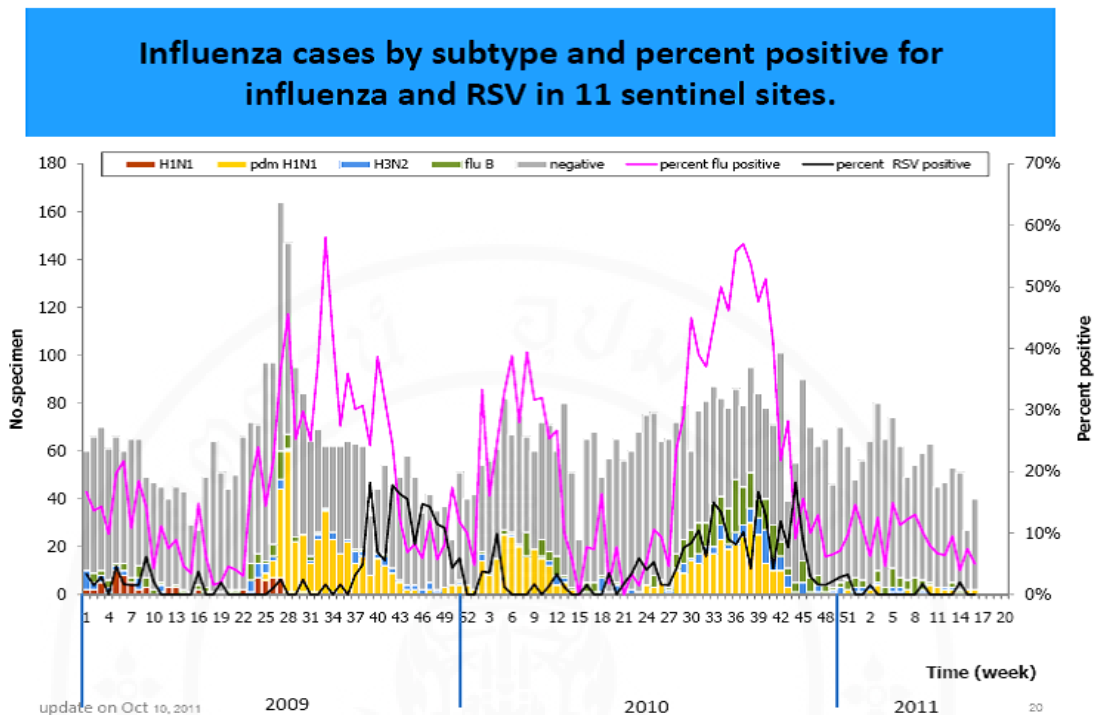


Figure 3.5 Incidence of influenza in Thailand (updated on Oct 10th, 2011)

Source: Department of Disease Control, Ministry of Public Health, Thailand

3.1.5.2 Epidemic and pandemic spread

Influenza occurs in distinct outbreaks of varying extent every year while an influenza pandemic is a rare but recurrent event. Historical influenza pandemics were caused by new influenza viruses that have adapted from avian and/or pig to humans. Four pandemics that occurred in the past included: “Spanish influenza (H1N1)” in 1918, “Asian influenza (H2N2)” in 1957, “Hong Kong influenza (H3N2)” in 1968, and “pandemic 2009-H1N1” in 2009. The A/H5N1 and A/H7N9 is newly emerged and highly pathogenic avian influenza virus. Since these strains have started to spread, most of infected people died after infection (Cheung *et al.*, 2002; Gao *et al.*, 2013). These pandemics killed millions of people worldwide and the unavailability of effective anti-viral drugs at the time. Therefore finding of new anti-influenza agents that are safe and tolerable to the virus mutations is needed.

3.2 Influenza A virus

3.2.1 Morphology of influenza A virus

Influenza A virus particles are pleomorphic with spherical or filamentous morphology, or mixture of both (**Figure 3.6**). They are envelope viruses which have 7-8 gene segments encoding 10-11 proteins. The known and proposed functions of the influenza virus-encoded proteins are listed in **Table 3.1**. The envelope of each influenza A virus derived from the host plasma membrane containing both cholesterol-enriched lipid rafts and non-raft lipids (Scheiffele *et al.*, 1999; Zang *et al.*, 2000; Nayak *et al.*, 2009). The envelope membrane has three viral proteins, *i.e.* hemagglutinin (HA), neuraminidase (NA) and ion-channel protein (M2), deposit on it. HA is the most abundant envelope protein at approximately 80 percent, followed by NA, which makes up around 17 percent of the viral envelope proteins. M2 is a minor component of the envelope, with only 16 to 20 molecules per virion. HA and NA are associated exclusively with the lipid rafts in the viral lipid membrane, whereas M2 is not (Samji, 2009). Under the viral envelope, there is underlined matrix 1 protein (M1) that serves as a docking site of vRNAs during influenza virus assembly. Inside the viral envelope are 8 helical vRNP segments; each contains: nucleoprotein (NP) which protects the viral RNA (vRNA) and three polymerase proteins, *i.e.*, basic polymerase protein-1 (PB1), basic polymerase protein-2 (PB2) and acidic polymerase protein (PA), which form the viral RNA polymerase (transcriptase) complex. The small amounts of a nuclear export protein (NEP or NS2) are also found in the particle. Some strains of influenza A virus have PB1 gene that contains a second open reading frame that can produce a second protein called PB1-F2. The PB1-F2 is believed to be an important determinant of virulence because it suppresses immune response by inducing apoptosis of CD8 T-cells and alveolar macrophages and prolongs viral polymerase activity upon interaction with PB1 in nucleus of infected epithelial cells (Chen *et al.*, 2001, Mazur *et al.*, 2008; Mitzner *et al.*, 2009).

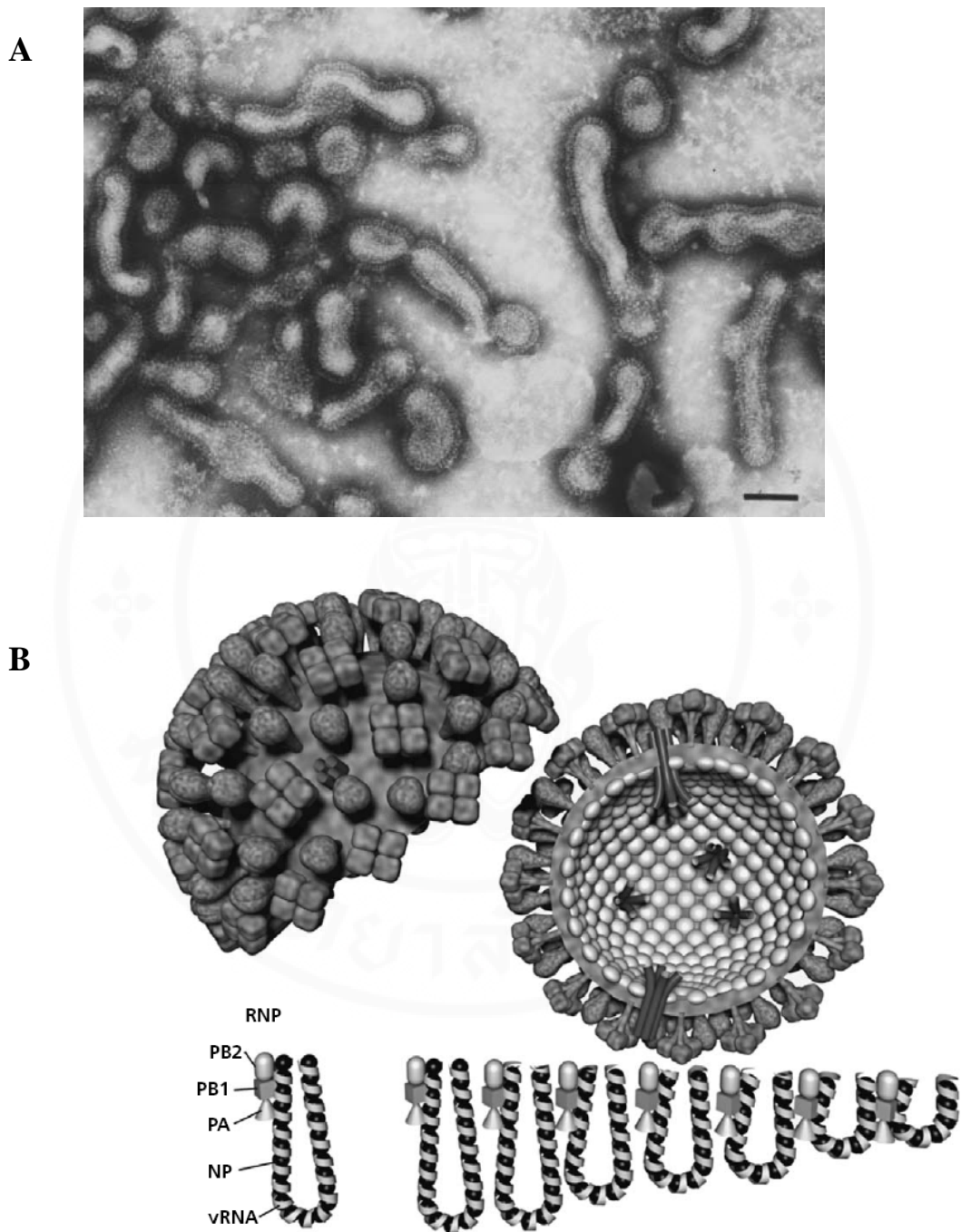


Figure 3.6 Influenza A virus particle

A, Appearance of pleomorphic influenza virus particles under electron microscopy

B, Schematic diagram showing the eight segmented RNA genome and vRNP complex of influenza virus

Source: Cox *et al.*, 2010

Table 3.1 Influenza A virus genome RNA and protein coding assignments (Adapted from Cox *et al.*, 2010)

RNA segment	Nucleotides ^(a)	Encoded polypeptide	Amino acids	Molecular weight (kDa)	Carbohydrates	Approximate copy no. per virion	Functions
1	2,341	PB2	759	87	-	30-60	Component of RNA transcriptase complex; host-cell capped mRNA recognition and binding
2	2,341	PB1	757	96	-	30-60	Component of RNA transcriptase complex; RNA-dependent RNA polymerase activity; capped mRNA endonuclease activity
		PB1-F2 ^(b)	87	10.5	-	2,650	Induction of apoptosis of CD8 T-cells and alveolar macrophages; prolongs viral polymerase activity in infected epithelial cells

a) The lengths of the HA and NA genes differ among strains

b) Not encode by all influenza A viruses; NA, not applicable

Table 3.1 Influenza A virus genome RNA and protein coding assignments (Adapted from Cox *et al.*, 2010) (cont.)

RNA segment	Nucleotides ^(a)	Encoded polypeptide	Amino acids	Molecular weight (kDa)	Carbohydrates	Approximate copy no. per virion	Functions
3	2,233	PA	716	85	-	30-60	Component of RNA transcriptase complex; required for replication; active in viral RNA synthesis
4	1,778	HA	566	63	+	500	Surface trimer glycoprotein cleaved into HA1 and HA2; major antigenic determinant; functions in virus binding to cell surface receptors and fusion; lipid raft association of HA is essential for viral replication
5	1,565	NP	498	56	-	1,000	Associated with RNA segments to form ribonucleoprotein (vRNPs)

a) The lengths of the HA and NA genes differ among strains

Table 3.1 Influenza A virus genome RNA and protein coding assignments (Adapted from Cox *et al.*, 2010) (cont.)

RNA segment	Nucleotides ^(a)	Encoded polypeptide	Amino acids	Molecular weight (kDa)	Carbohydrates	Approximate copy no. per virion	Functions
6	1,413	NA	454	60	+	100	Surface tetramer glycoprotein; neuraminidase activity; function in viral release; function in enhancement of HA mediated cell-cell fusion and virus entry
7	1,027	M1	252	27	-	3,000	Major protein of virion; interacting with vRNPs and NEP; viral uncoating, assembly and budding
		M2	97	14	-	20-60	Coded by spliced mRNA; ion channel activity; target of adamantanes. The M2 cytoplasmic tail and amphipathic helix domain may play role in viral assembly and budding; macroautophagy formation

a) The lengths of the HA and NA genes differ among strains

Table 3.1 Influenza A virus genome RNA and protein coding assignments (Adapted from Cox *et al.*, 2010) (cont.)

RNA segment	Nucleotides ^(a)	Encoded polypeptide	Amino acids	Molecular weight (kDa)	Carbohydrates	Approximate copy no. per virion	Functions
8	890	NS1	230	26	-	NA	Non-structural protein; inhibits mRNA transport from nucleus; interferon antagonist; important for evasion of host immunity
		NS2 (NEP)	121	14	-	130-200	Coded from spliced mRNA; viral nuclear export protein

a) The lengths of the HA and NA genes differ among strains

3.2.2 Replication cycle of an influenza virus (Figure 3.7)

The trafficking and processing steps that occur in infected cells with influenza virus play a crucial role in the outcome of the infection. These steps are targets for vaccines, anti-viral drugs and therapeutic antibodies.

3.2.2.1 Entry to the host cells (from attachment to uncoating)

Influenza A virus infects cell through binding of the viral surface glycoprotein HA to the sialic acid receptors on the host cell surface. Human influenza viruses recognize the $\alpha(2,6)$ linkage of the receptor, while avian influenza viruses recognize the $\alpha(2,3)$ linkages. Both receptors appear in pig which explains the importance of the animal as a good mixing vessel for avian and human influenza viruses, consequently producing dangerous pathogenic viruses (Roger *et al.*, 1983; Skehel *et al.*, 1982). Upon binding to the host cell sialic acid residues, receptor-mediated endocytosis occurs *via* clathrin-dependent and dependent-mechanism (Rust *et al.*, 2004), then the virus enters the host endosome. The low pH of the late endosome triggers a conformational change in the cleavage-active HA molecule (Skehel *et al.*, 1982) that leads to fusion of the viral and the endosomal membranes. The low pH also triggers the flow of protons into the virus *via* the M2 ion channel. Opening the M2 ion channels acidifies the viral M1 protein for dissociating the vRNPs into the host cell cytoplasm (Pinto *et al.*, 1992).

3.2.2.2 Import the vRNPs into the nucleus

Influenza viral transcription and replication occurs in the nucleus after the vRNPs enter the nucleus. The vRNPs are imported to the nucleus by nuclear localization signals (NLSs) on NP protein and all three polymerase proteins (Whittaker *et al.*, 2000). The NLSs can bind to the cellular nuclear import machinery *via* the CRM1-dependent pathway mediating vRNP entering into the nucleus (Boulo *et al.*, 2007).

3.2.2.3 Viral transcription and translation

In the host nucleus, the influenza viral polymerase initiates viral mRNA synthesis with 5' capped RNA fragments cleaved from host pre-mRNAs. The PB2 subunit binds the 5' cap of host pre-mRNAs (Ulmanen *et al.*, 1981) and the endonuclease domain in PB1 subunit cleaves the pre-mRNA 10-13 nucleotides downstream from the cap (Plotch *et al.*, 1981). Viral mRNA transcription is

subsequently initiated from the cleaved 3' end of the capped-RNA segment (Plotch *et al.*, 1981; Hagen *et al.*, 1994). Then viral mRNAs are transported to the cytoplasm for translation into viral proteins. The surface proteins HA, NA and M2 are processed in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), glycosylated HA and NA in the Golgi apparatus and transported to the cell membrane. At the same time, the NS1 protein of influenza A virus plays a role in suppressing the production of host mRNAs by inhibiting the 3' end processing of host pre-mRNA (Nemeroff *et al.*, 1998; Shimizu *et al.*, 1998), consequently blocking the production of host mRNAs, including interferon- β mRNAs. Unlike host pre-mRNAs, the viral mRNAs do not require 3' end processing by the host cell machinery. Hence, the viral mRNAs are transported to the cytoplasm, while the host mRNA synthesis is predominantly blocked. In addition, the viral polymerase unprimed replication of vRNAs in step of negative-sense stranded vRNA transcription to complementary RNA (cRNA), and using the cRNA as template to amplify negative-sense stranded vRNA for incorporating into new virion. The nucleoproteins are also required for these two steps of replication and are deposited on the cRNA and vRNA during RNA synthesis (Newcomb *et al.*, 2009). The vRNPs are subsequently transported to the cytoplasm, mediated by a M1-NEP complex that is bound to the vRNPs.

3.2.2.4 Export the vRNPs from the nucleus

Following virus replication in the nucleus, the initial event for virus assembly is the export of the newly formed vRNPs out of the nucleus through the nuclear pores into the cytoplasm with the help of M1 and nuclear export protein (NEP) (O'Neill *et al.*, 1998; Neumann *et al.*, 2000) via the CRM1-dependent pathway.

3.2.2.5 Virion morphogenesis and budding at the host cell plasma membrane

Budding of new virions occurs at the apical side of polarized cells (Nayak *et al.*, 2009) where the HA, NA and M2 are transported to this apical plasma membrane. In brief, the HA and NA are targeted to lipid rafts, causing the clustering of HA and NA that leads to deform of the host cell membrane and initiates the virus budding event. Then M1 binds to the cytoplasmic tails of HA and NA where it can polymerize and forms the interior structure of the emerging virion. The HA and NA bound M1 serves as a docking site for recruitment of the vRNPs which can

mediate the recruitment of M2 to the site of virus budding. Thereafter, the M2 initially stabilizes the site of budding and helps in the polymerization of the matrix protein (M1) and the formation of filamentous virions (Rossman *et al.*, 2011).

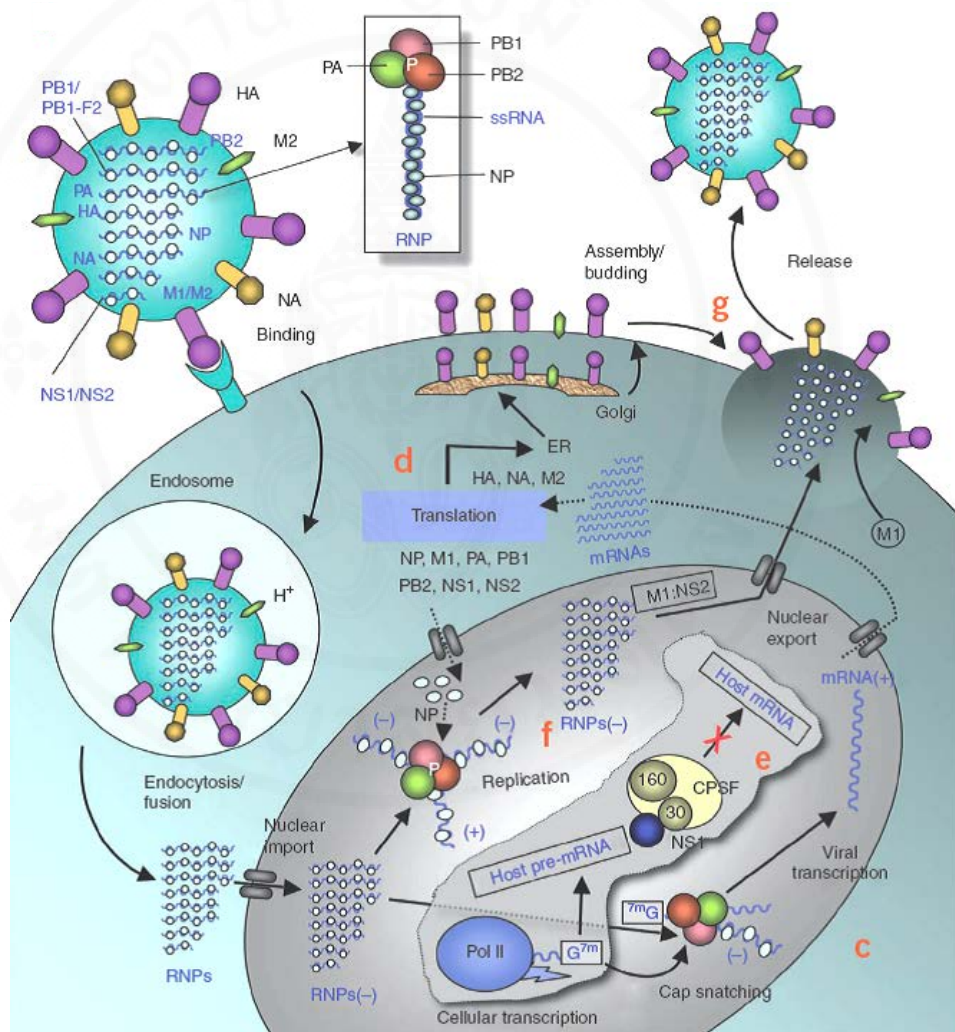


Figure 3.7 Schematic diagram of the influenza A virus life cycle

Source: Das K *et al.*, 2010

3.3 Surface proteins of influenza A virus

This thesis research focused has been made on three surface proteins of influenza virus, namely hemagglutinin (HA), neuraminidase (NA) and matrix-2 (M2) because they are vulnerable targets of anti-influenza agents. Detail attributes of these proteins are described:

3.3.1 Hemagglutinin (HA)

HA is the most abundant glycoprotein on the influenza viral surface. It is encoded by the fourth RNA segment which is the largest genomic segment of the virus. The HA forms homotrimer at the viral surface (**Figure 3.8**) and has functions in attachment and subsequent penetration of the virus into the host cell. Antigenicity of HA or H is subtype-specific and divided into 16 subtypes, H1-H16. Full length HA (called HA0) is folded into two distinct structural domains, *i.e.*, globular head (HA1) and a fibrous stalk (HA2). The HA1 contains receptor-binding site which is surrounded by highly variable antigenic loop structures. The HA1 C-terminus contains cleavage site. The HA0 is cleaved at this site by proteases into HA1 and HA2. In virulent H5 and H7 avian influenza viruses, the cleavage site contains multiple basic amino acids which are the cutting site of intracellularly ubiquitous endogenous protease. The non-avian influenza A and non-influenza A viruses lack these multiple basic amino acids and HA0 cutting is done by extracellular proteases including trypsin, Clara and plasmin that are found in the host respiratory epithelial cells. The receptor binding specificity differs among influenza viruses. The avian viruses prefer the NeuAc α 2,3 Gal linkage while human and classic H1N1 swine influenza viruses bind to the NeuAc α 2,6 Gal linkage on the cell surface sialyl-oligosaccharides. After binding of the HA1 to the host cell receptor, the virus particle is endocytosed. Low pH in the late endosome induces a conformational change in the cleavage-active HA molecule and triggers HA-mediated membrane fusion by inserting a 38 residue fusion peptide in N-terminal of HA2 into the endosomal membrane. The HA2 of influenza A viruses is highly conserved (Sui *et al.*, 2009) and plays important role in the HA-mediated membrane fusion **Figure 3.9**. Moreover, HA also has additional bio-activity in viral budding by serving as a docking site for the recruitment of the viral RNPs at cytoplasmic tail of the HA (Calder *et al.*, 2010).

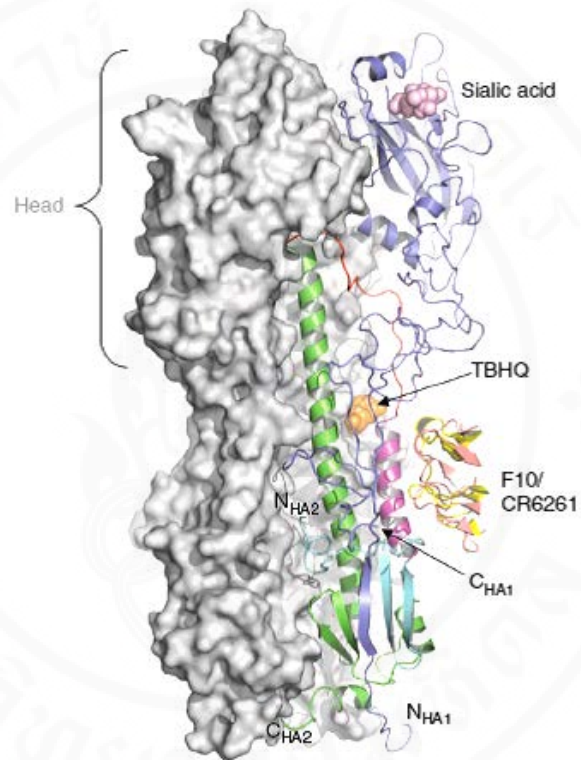
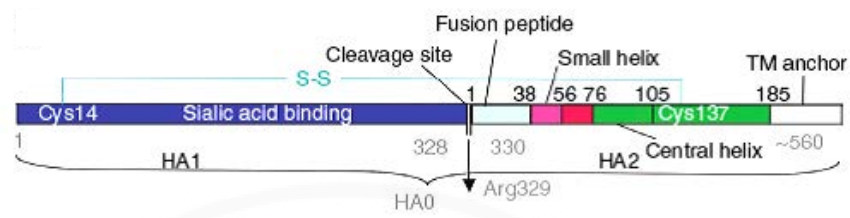


Figure 3.8 Schematic diagram of a hemagglutinin molecule of an influenza virus

Source: Das *et al.*, 2010

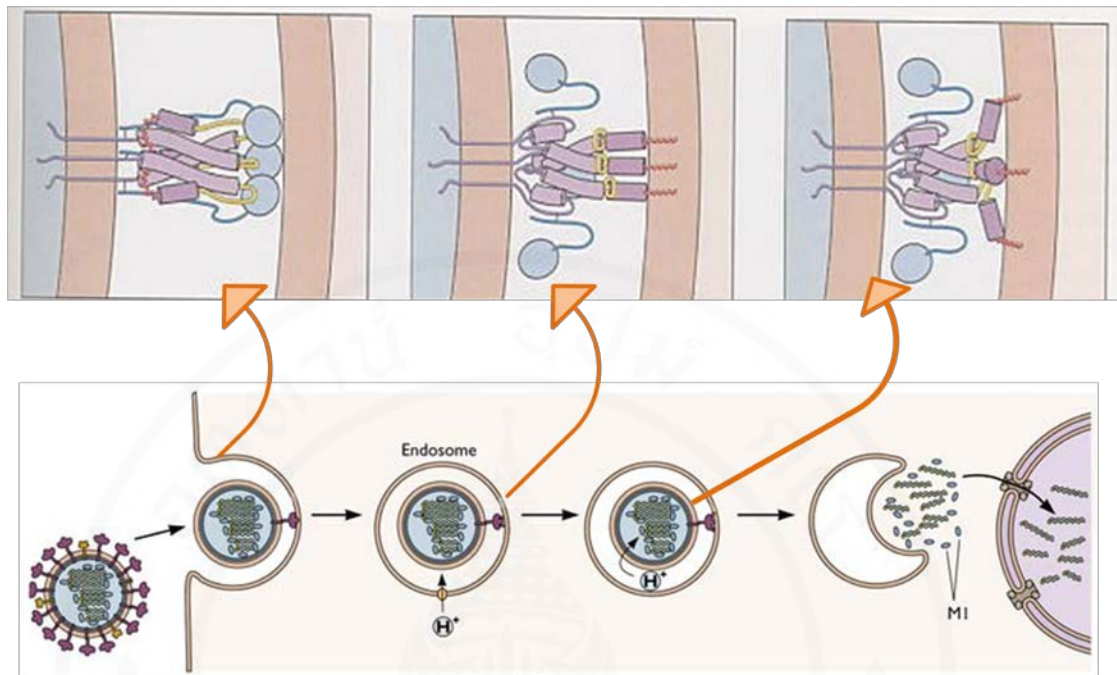


Figure 3.9 Hemagglutinin functions during influenza virus entry. The viral spike or fusion protein (HA), recognizes the host cell (*via* binding to sialic acid) and enters the endosome of the cell, where low pH triggers a conformational change in HA to expose the viral fusion peptide which inserts into the host cell membrane to initiate the process of membrane fusion and the delivery of the viral genome into the cytoplasm.

Source: Modified from Carr and Kim, 1994

3.3.2 Neuraminidase (NA)

NA is one of the two major glycoproteins on the influenza viral surface. It is encoded by the sixth segment of the influenza vRNA genome. NA protein forms homotetramer on the viral envelope. The tetrameric NA protein (**Figure 3.10**) is a type II glycoprotein (N-terminus is inside and C-terminus is outside the virion) (Air and Laver, 1989). NA composes of three major parts: box-shaped head, stalk, and cytoplasmic tail. The box-shaped head comprises four co-planar and roughly spherical subunits with the enzymatic activity at the center. NA is subdivided into 9 antigenic subtypes (N1-N9). The enzyme active-site forms a large pocket on the distal surface which is strictly conserved in all NA subtypes, and its function is the cleavage of the α -ketosidic linkage between a terminal sialic acid and adjacent sugar residues (Lenz *et*

al., 1987). Removal of sialic acid residues by the NA promotes both entry and release of influenza virus from infected cells (**Figure 3.11**). The NA has additional role in host range restriction because the avian NA (N3-N9) specific to substrate NeuAc α 2,3 Gal but human NA (N1 and N2) specific to substrate NeuAc α 2,6 Gal (Hinshaw *et al.*, 1983). The stalk region is attached centrally to head and it is flexible in length and sequence. NA cytoplasmic region is highly conserved among all NA subtypes of influenza A viruses (Blok and Air, 1982). This region is important for incorporation of the NA into the virion but is not essential for virus replication (Bilsel *et al.*, 1993; Garcia-Sastre and Palese, 1995). Recent study of the NA activity in influenza A virus life cycle showed that the NA protein of influenza A virus is not only required for virion release and spread but also plays a critical role in virion infectivity and HA-mediated membrane fusion (Su *et al.*, 2009).

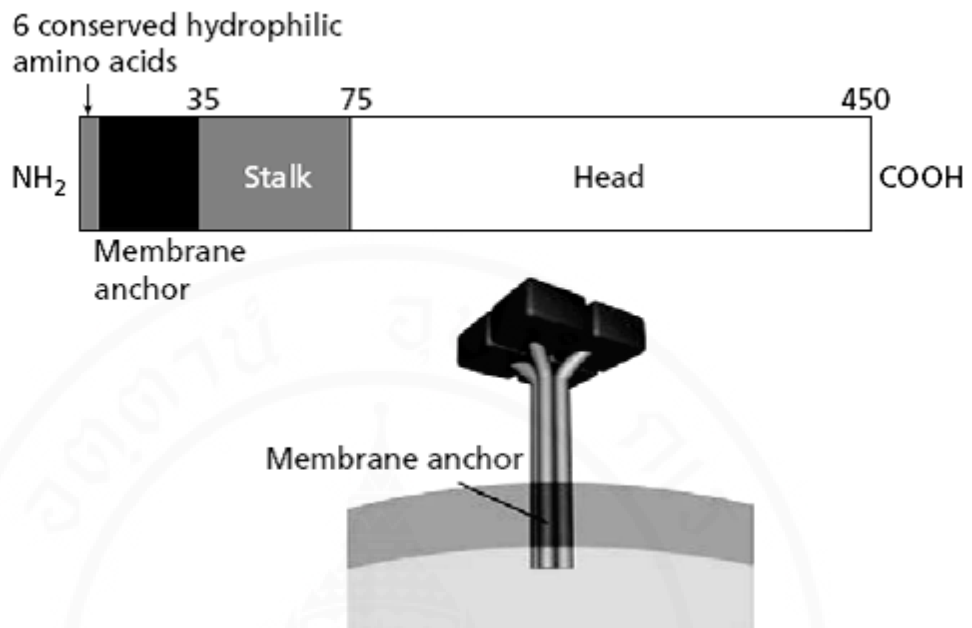


Figure 3.10 Schematic diagram of a neuraminidase molecule of influenza virus
 Source: Cox *et al.*, 2010

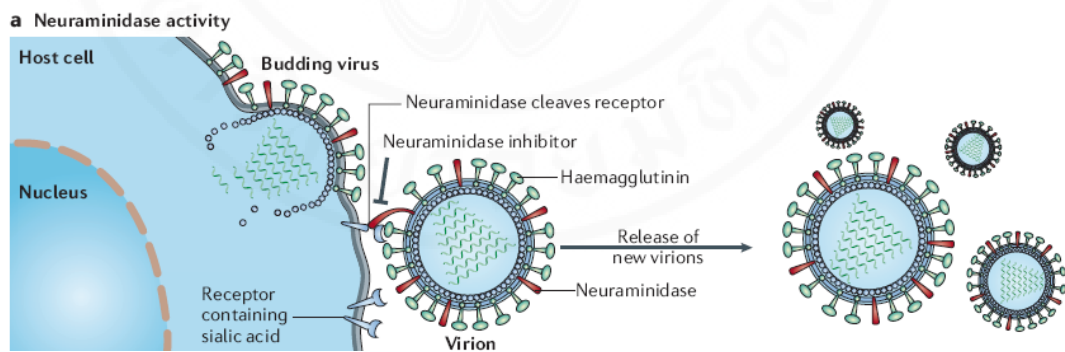


Figure 3.11 Mechanism of action of neuraminidase. This figure shows the action of neuraminidase in cleavage of sialic acid residues from hemagglutinin and promoting viral release.

Source: Moscona, 2005

3.3.3 Matrix-2 (M2)

The seventh RNA segment of influenza virus genome is bicistronic and encodes two functionally different proteins, M1 and M2. M2 protein has 97 amino acids that share 8 amino-terminal residues with M1 and followed by 88 residues in a +1 reading frame by being translated from a spliced mRNA (nt 1-26 at 5' end and nt 715-982 at 3' end) (Krung and Lamp, 1996). The M2 protein evolves slowly when compared to HA and NA (Ito *et al.*, 1991) and is also relatively conserved among the influenza A viruses. M2 protein is type III transmembrane protein (single pass-transmembrane protein that N-terminus is outside and the transmembrane domain is located close to the N-terminus of the protein and functions as an anchor) of a class IA viroporin family (Nieva *et al.*, 2012). The M2 molecule forms homotetramer by two disulfide bond linkage of cysteine residues in order to acts as selective ion channel on viral membrane (**Figure 3.12**). Each M2 molecule comprises different domains: N-terminal ectodomain (M2e; 25 residues; 1-25), transmembrane domain (21 residues; 26-46), amphipathic helix (16 residues; 47-62) and C-terminal (35 residues; 63-97) (Schnell *et al.*, 2008; Rossman and Lamb, 2011). Large numbers of M2 homotetrameric molecules are present on infected cell surface with ratio approximately two M2 molecules per one HA trimer on CV-1 cells (Lamb *et al.*, 1985), but appear only few (about 23-60 molecules) on the virion (Zebedee *et al.*, 1988). At the early phase of infection, the M2 protein functions as a pH-activated ion channel that allows protons to enter the virion during uncoating for dissociating vRNPs from M1 and releasing them to cytoplasm for further replication in nucleus (Helenius, 1992). The ion channel is regulated by His-37 as sensor and Trp-41 as gate. In the late phase of infection, M2 also functions as ion channel for prevention of acid-induced conformational changes of intracellularly cleaved HA (H5 and H7) in trans-Golgi network of newly synthesized HA (Sugrue *et al.*, 1990) (**Figure 3.13**). Recently, M2 was found to block fusion of autophagosomes to lysosomes and inhibit autophagy causing accumulation of the autophagosomes (formation of macroautophagosome) which compromised virus infected cell survival (Gannage *et al.*, 2009) (**Figure 3.14**). Moreover, M2 plays an important role in virus morphogenesis and assembly by acting as cofactor in virus budding where it interacts with M1 to determine virus morphology- spherical or filamentous (Lamb and Rossman, 2011). After that, M2

amphipathic helix alters membrane curvature at the neck of the budding virion causing membrane scission and the virus release (Lamb and Rossman, 2011) (**Figure 3.15**). Because of highly conserved in amino acid sequence and the multiple pivotal functions in the influenza virus infectious cycle, M2 has been an attractive target of anti-influenza agents. Previous studies on M2 were focused on the extracellular domain of M2 (M2e) and the transmembrane helices which forms ion channel have been interested. For examples, M2e was used as a component of a broad-spectrum anti-influenza vaccine and M2e-specific monoclonal antibody to mice accelerated the lung viral clearance following a sublethal influenza A virus infection (Treanor *et al.*, 1990). Single domain antibody (V_HH) blocked the M2 ion channel activity and neutralized influenza virus infection in mice (Wei *et al.*, 2011). Emerging of drug resistant viruses render a failure of adamantane drug family which block M2 ion channel in treatment of influenza (Sheu *et al.*, 2011).

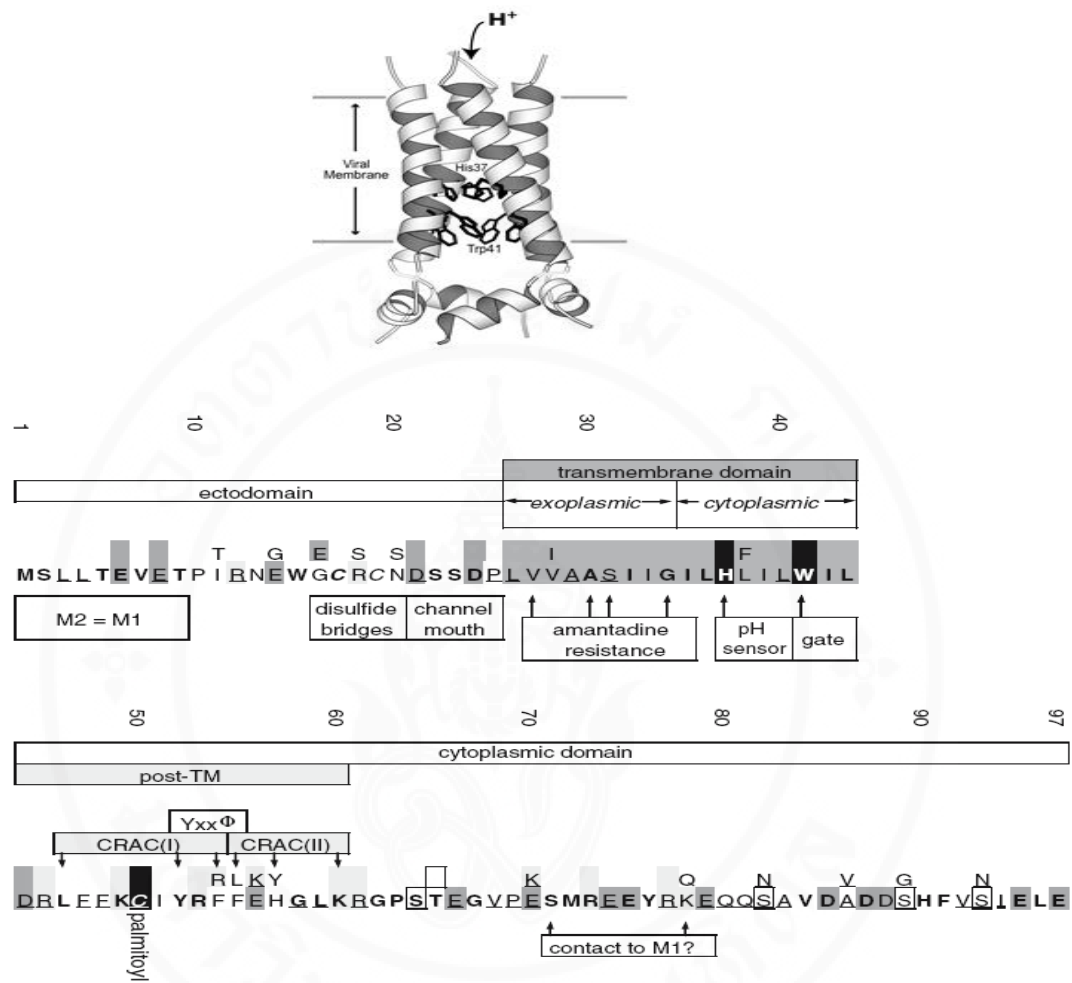


Figure 3.12 Schematic diagram of an M2 molecule of influenza virus

Source: *Viral Membrane Proteins: Structure, Function, and Drug Design*, edited by Wolfgang Fischer. Kluwer Academic / Plenum Publishers, New York, 2005.

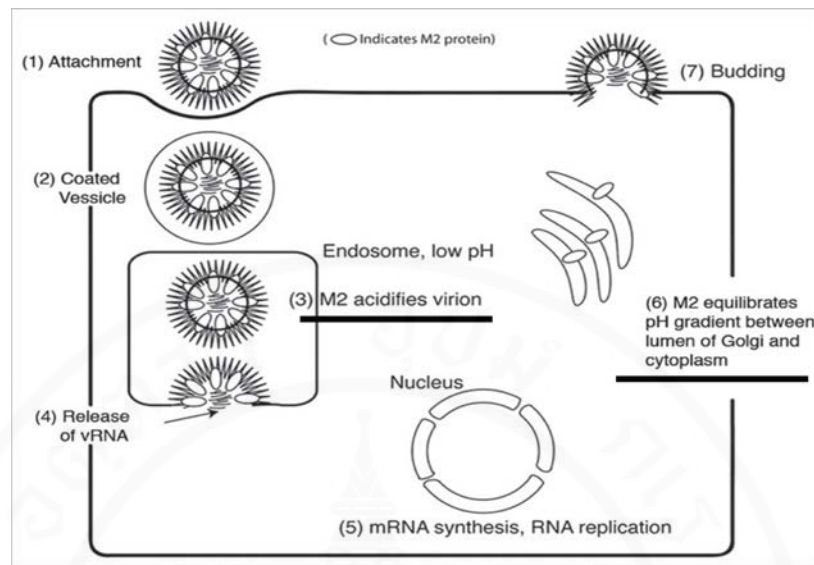


Figure 3.13 M2 protein acts as an ion channel for proton influx into the intra-endosomal virion for dissociating vRNPs from M1 and release them to cytoplasm and prevention of acid-induced conformational changes of intracellularly cleaved HA of H5 and H7 in trans-Golgi network of newly synthesized HA

Source: Kelly *et al.*, 2003

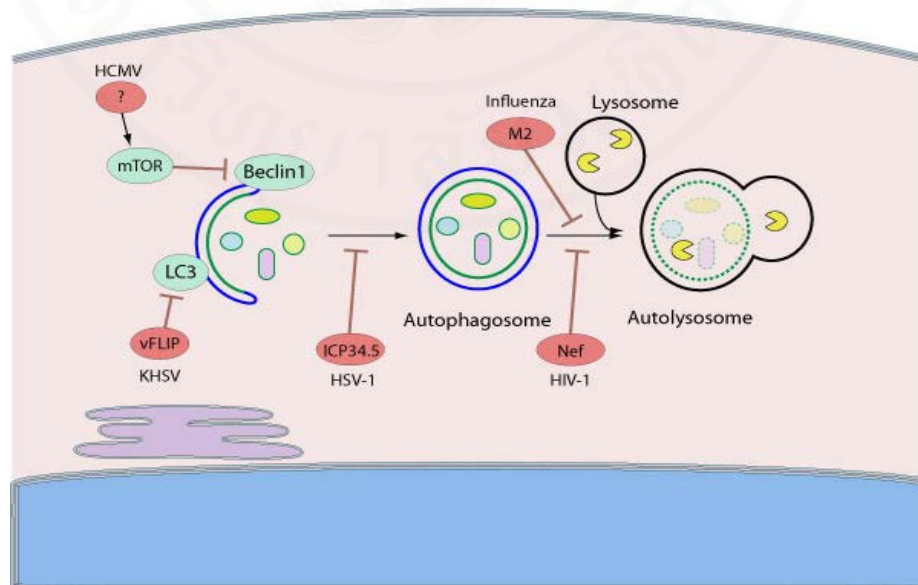


Figure 3.14 M2 function in blocking autophagosome maturation by preventing fusion with the lysosome.

Source: Gannage *et al.*, 2009

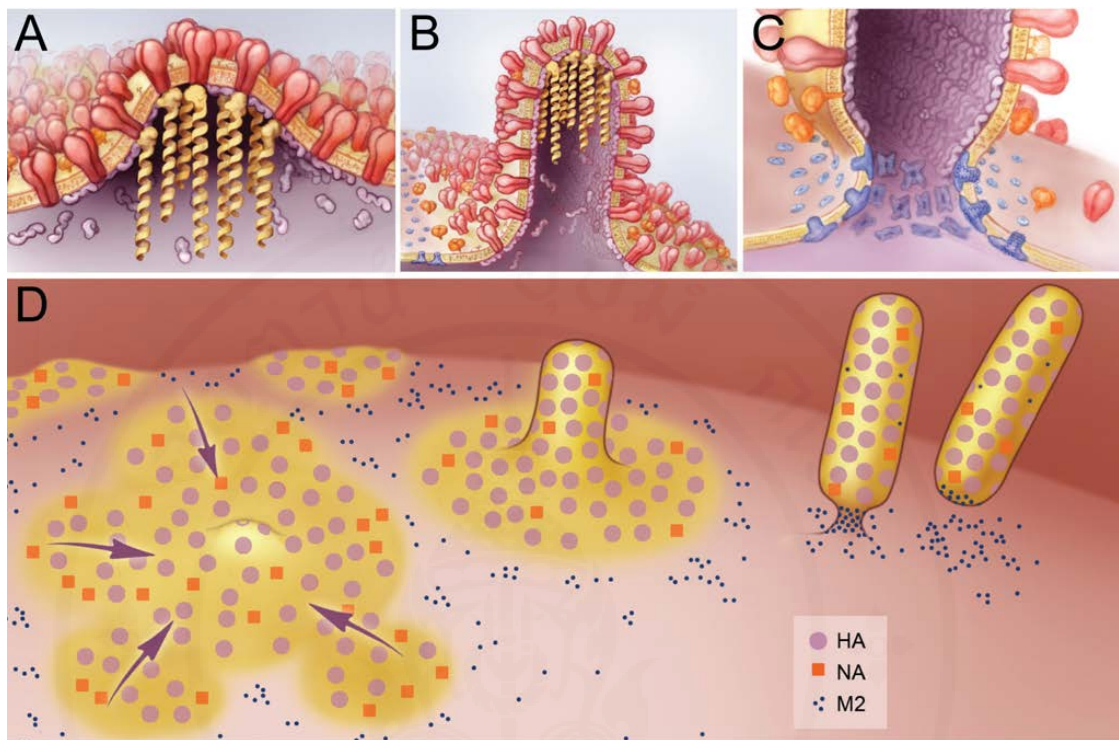


Figure 3.15 Model of influenza virus budding. **A**, The initiation of virus budding caused by clustering of HA (shown in red) and NA (shown in orange) in lipid raft domains. M1 (shown in purple) is seen binding to the cytoplasmic tails of HA and NA and serves as a docking site for the vRNPs (shown in yellow). **B**, Elongation of the budding virion caused by polymerization of the M1 protein, resulting in a polarized localization of the vRNPs. M2 (shown in blue) is recruited to the periphery of the budding virus through interactions with M1. **C**, Membrane scission caused by the insertion of the M2 amphipathic helix at the lipid phase boundary, altering membrane curvature at the neck of the budding virus and leading to release of the budding virus. **D**, Overview of the budding of influenza viruses, showing the coalescence of HA and NA containing lipid rafts (shown in yellow), the formation of a filamentous virion and membrane scission caused by M2 clustered at the neck of the budding virus.

Source: Lamb and Rossman, 2011

3.4 Vaccines against influenza

Current influenza vaccines for human use are divided into two main types. The first type contains either inactivated (killed) whole virus-, split product- or subunit-vaccines. The second type is live-attenuated vaccine for intranasal administration. All vaccines are still produced by growing viruses in allantoic sacs of embryonated chicken eggs. Several strategies have to be used in the vaccine production line, *e.g.*, to get as high as possible the virus yield and purity (elimination of as much as possible the egg proteins). The seasonal influenza vaccines are trivalent containing antigen from each three strains selected for that particular year. Two vaccine strains are type A -H1N1 and -H3N2, and one influenza B strain. The vaccines are protective only against the naturally occurring outbreaks of the year and do not cross-protect against pandemic from unexpected new strain and subtype.

3.5 Drug therapy of influenza virus infection

Presently, there are two families of anti-influenza drugs: the adamantanes and the neuraminidase inhibitors (Fiore *et al.*, 2011). These drugs must be taken at the early phase of infection for high therapeutic effectiveness (Jefferson *et al.*, 2012). Influenza viruses that resist both families of the anti-viral drugs have emerged continuously and cause influenza treatment failure (Sheu *et al.*, 2011).

3.5.1 The adamantanes

The adamantanes (amantadine and rimantadine) are the first family of pharmacologic agents for treatment of influenza. They are effective in interfering replication cycle of all subtypes of influenza A viruses but not type B viruses (van Voris and Newell, 1992; Hayden, 1996). Both drugs are effective when given within 48 hours of the disease onset. Besides, they cause central nervous system involved side-effects. The antiviral activity of both of these compounds is mediated by blocking the ion channel activity of influenza A viruses. Amantadine obstructs the ion channel pore by binding to Ser³¹ and the surrounding Val²⁷, Ala³⁰ and Gly³⁴ of the M2 protein (Stouffer *et al.*, 2008) while rimantadine binds to the gate at a lipid facing pocket of the channel formed by Trp⁴¹, Ile⁴², and Arg⁴⁵ from one transmembrane helix and

Leu⁴⁰, Leu⁴³, and Asp⁴⁴ of the nearby helix (Schnell and Chou, 2008). Resistance to the drugs has occurred in > 98% of transmissible A/H1N1, A/H3N2, A/H5N1 and A/H7N9 subtypes by mutations, most frequently S31N and less so V27A and L26F (Layne *et al.*, 2009; Balgi *et al.*, 2013; Hu *et al.*, 2013). The mutations cause failure of ion channel blocking by amantadine and ineffective fitting of rimantadine into the channel pocket due to the weakness of the TM helix packing (Pielak *et al.*, 2009). Several compounds that are potent inhibitors of V27A and L26F mutants have been produced and tested (Balannik *et al.*, 2009). However, effective inhibitor of S31N mutant has not been found (Du *et al.*, 2012).

3.5.2 The neuraminidase inhibitors

The neuraminidase inhibitors, *i.e.*, inhaled zanamivir (RelenzaTM) and oral oseltamivir (TamivirTM), block the enzymatic active site of the NA resulting in inhibition of release of influenza virus progeny from infected host cells. This process prevents infection of new host cells and consequently slowing down the spread of infection in the respiratory tract. The neuraminidase inhibitors are effective against both influenza A and B viruses (Hayden *et al.*, 1999). Nevertheless, they must be administered as early as possible. When administered within two days of the illness onset to healthy adults, both drugs can reduce the duration of uncomplicated influenza A and B illness by approximately one day, compared with placebo (Hayden *et al.*, 1999; Makela *et al.*, 2000; Demichelli *et al.*, 2000). Recently, a rise in resistance to the oseltamivir, due to the H275Y mutation (H274Y in N2 numbering) in the NA, was reported among seasonal influenza A (H1N1) viruses in 2007-2008 (Sheu *et al.*, 2008; Lackenby *et al.*, 2008). Prevalence of oseltamivir-resistant influenza A (H1N1) viruses increased to approximately 100% in many countries during 2008-2009 (Lackenby *et al.*, 2008).

The evidence of drug resistance in influenza A viruses indicates that anti-viral drugs might be less useful than anticipated if resistant of influenza A viruses become more prevalent and the virus gains the ability to pass easily from person to person. The incidence of anti-viral drug resistance indicates that the strategy for the treatment of influenza should include additional/new pharmacological agents or the sole alternatives.

3.6 Antibody for treatment of influenza

3.6.1 Antibodies for neutralizing influenza virus infectivity

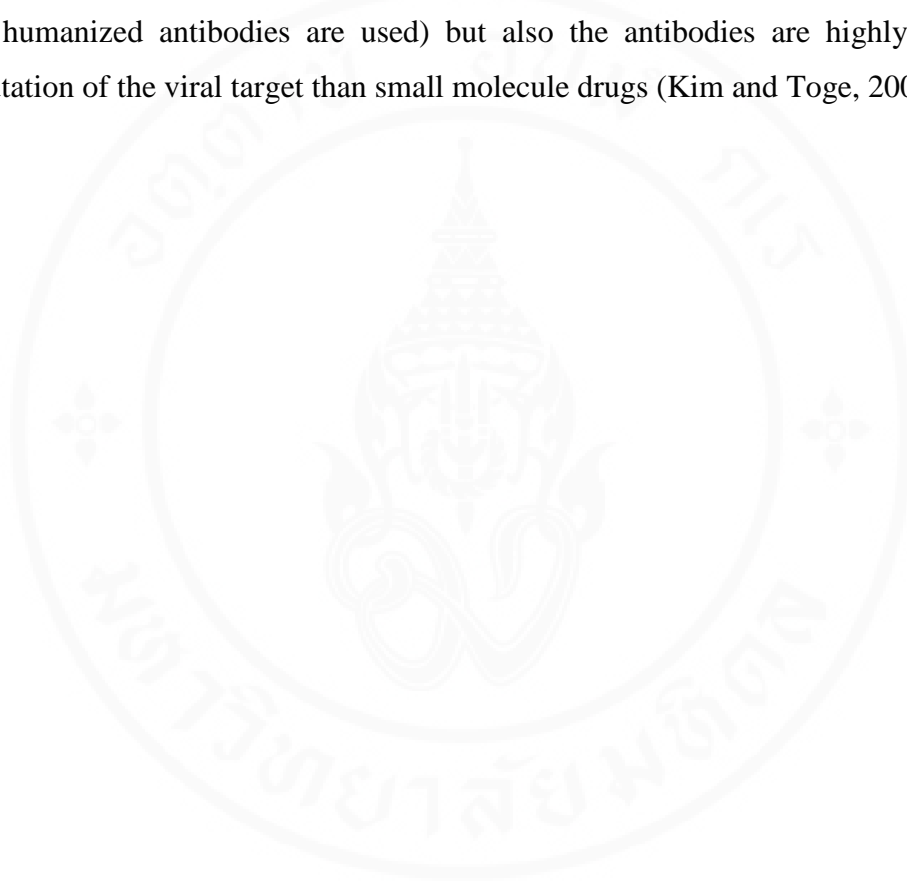
The antibody response is important for preventing influenza A virus infection and also help to resolve the infection. After being infected with influenza virus, antibodies are produced against many epitopes on multiple virus proteins. Some antibodies can block virus infection by a process that is called “*neutralization*”. The processes that antibodies neutralize viruses are shown in **Figure 3.16** (Lambert *et al.*, 2010). First, some of neutralizing antibodies can interfere with virion binding to host cell receptor by attaching to- or sterically hinder of- HA1 in the parts that help in binding to receptor site. Second, some of them can bind to HA2 portion for inhibition of conformational change in HA that leads to inhibition of fusion of viral and endosomal membranes (prevent uncoating). Third, binding of antibodies to M2 may lead to prevention of disassociating of the vRNPs from M1. Forth, the antibodies specific to the virus surface exposed proteins can cause aggregation of virus particles that prevent of infection and/or spreading.

Recently studies have shown that during influenza virus infection, cellular membrane has increased permeability (Gonzalez and Carraso, 2003; Wang *et al.*, 2010) allowing small anti-influenza agent including antibody fragments such as ScFv to become accessible to the intracellular targets. Thus, the antibodies may confer benefit to the host either as a sole therapeutic or adjunct anti-influenza agent.

3.6.2 Antibody therapy for influenza

Antibody has been used with success for influenza treatment. Examples are: the use of human blood product from patients recovering from Spanish flu for treatment of influenza in human (Luke *et al.*, 2006). Convalescing plasma could rescue patient infected with drug escape H5N1 virus mutant (Zhou *et al.*, 2007). The use of specific monoclonal antibody produced from immune B cells of immunized mice for treatment of influenza in mice (Smirnov *et al.*, 2000; Renegar *et al.*, 2004). The used of humanized and horse derived F(ab)₂ fragments specific to H5N1 for treatment of infected mice (Hanson *et al.*, 2006; Lu *et al.*, 2006). Human monoclonal single chain antibodies (HuScFv) specific to HA of H5N1 virus could rescue mice

from lethal infections with homologous and heterologous H5N1 strains (Maneewatch *et al.*, 2009). Using of single domain antibody (V_HH) blocked the M2 ion channel activity and neutralized influenza virus infection in mice (Wei *et al.*, 2011). Passively transferred M2e-specific monoclonal antibody to mice caused acceleration of the lung viral clearance (Treanor *et al.*, 1990). Antibody therapy is not only safe (when human or humanized antibodies are used) but also the antibodies are highly tolerable to mutation of the viral target than small molecule drugs (Kim and Toge, 2004).



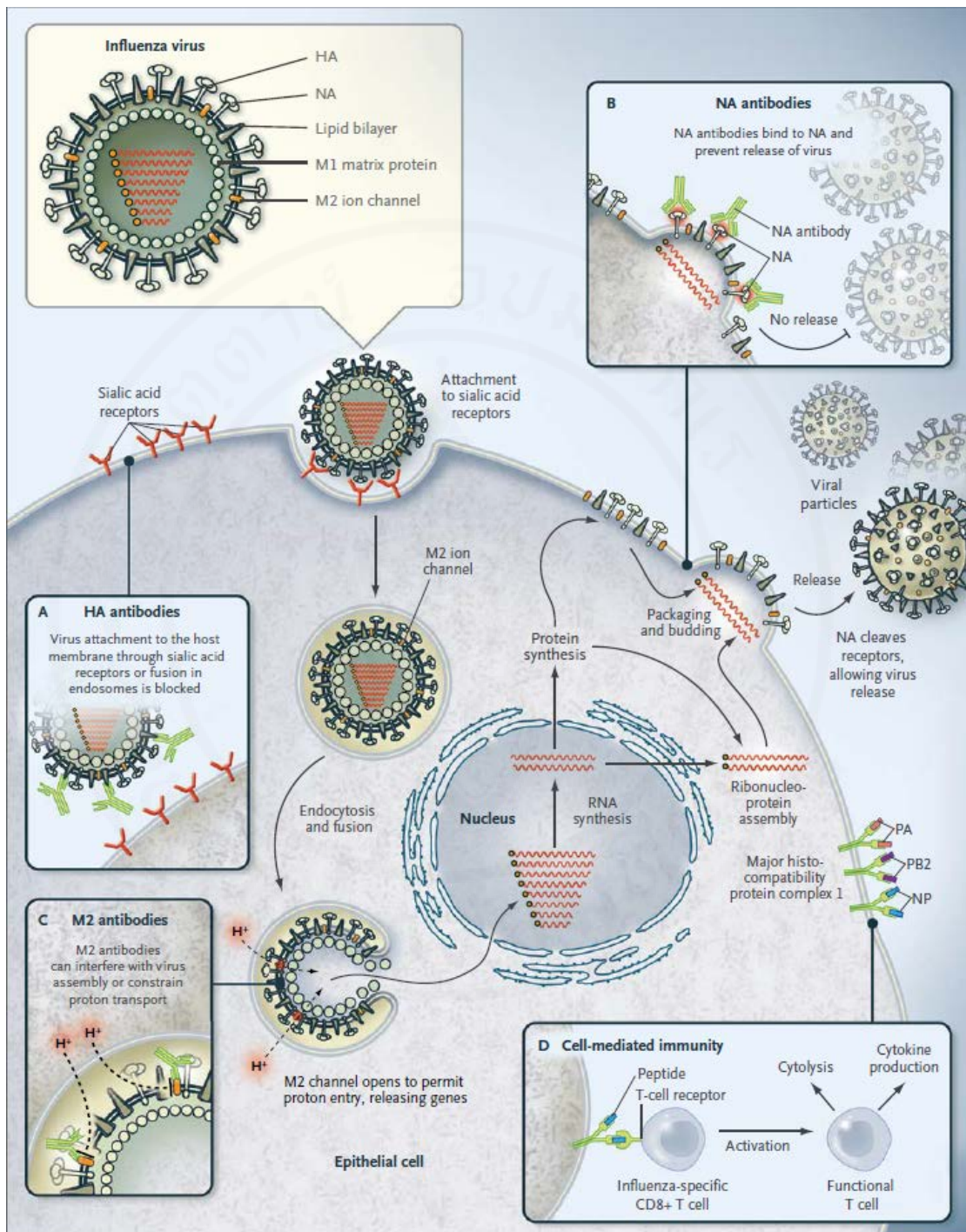


Figure 3.16 Structure and replication cycle of influenza A virus and neutralizing antibodies for influenza viruses (shown in block A, B and C)

Source: Linda *et al.*, 2010

3.7 Therapeutic antibody

Antibody has been used for treatment and intervention of disease/infection since the early 1900s even before the discovery of the antibacterial activity of the first antibiotic, penicillin. Moreover, antibody has been used as novel therapeutic agents for treatment of cancer, autoimmune diseases, and inflammations for more than 30 years (Brekke and Sandlie, 2004). Because of their high affinity and specificity for binding to their antigenic targets which involve several contact residues, most antibodies can cope up with pathogens that resist the pharmacologic drug by means of their single or multiple point mutation(s) (David *et al.*, 1996). Nowadays, antibody of various formats can be designed and produced by engineering of the molecule genetically to achieve the desired specificity. Fully-human or humanized-animal antibody molecules for use in human recipient can be produced readily *in vitro* without the prolonged *in vivo* immunization. **Figure 3.17** illustrates several formats of the human therapeutic antibodies.

3.7.1 Recombinant antibodies

Hybridoma technology invented by Kohler and Milstein in 1975 has been used for production of monoclonal antibody (MAb), usually of murine origin, for biological, bio-medical and therapeutic purposes. The MAb of the desired characteristics, *e.g.*, high specificity and affinity to the target antigen can be produced. However, immunotherapy using passively given mouse MAb to the human recipients has limitations. The mouse protein/antibody is foreign to the human immune system and human anti-mouse antibody (HAMA) is produced by the human recipient which causes adverse sequel such as anaphylaxis and serum sickness (Khazaeli *et al.*, 1994). Therapeutic antibody with minimal or no immunogenicity is needed for human therapy. The first attempt to reduce the mouse MAb in human was to produce human-mouse chimeric monoclonal antibody by molecular linking the antigen-binding fragment (Fab) encoding gene from the mouse hybridoma to human fragment crystallizable (Fc) coding sequence; the engineered antibody is called chimeric antibody (Morrison *et al.*, 1984). The chimeric antibody retains original specificity of the mouse antibody but the Fc-mediated functions, *e.g.*, complement fixation and opsonization, are attributable to the adjoined human Fc. However, the recombinant

chimeric antibody is still immunogenic in human because about half of the molecule remains murine. For further reduction of the mouse monoclonal antibody immunogenicity in human, the mouse single chain antibody fragments (ScFv) consisting of mouse VH-linker-VL was used in human therapy when the *in vivo* bio-functions of the Fc is not required. Nevertheless, ScFv still contains mouse immunoglobulin frameworks (FRs) which can induce human anti-mouse protein response. This obstacle was eliminated subsequently by replacing the mouse immunoglobulin frameworks (FRs) with the human immunoglobulin FRs by molecular grafting all of the mouse CDR sequences onto the most matched human FRs; the process which is called “Humanization” (Reichmann *et al.*, 1988). In addition, fully human monoclonal antibody can be produced by several strategies nowadays such as by using transgenic animals that carry human immunoglobulin transgenes, Epstein-Barr virus transformed antigen specific B cells, and antibody display technology including cell, ribosomal or phage. For the human antibody phage display system, a collection of human immunoglobulin genes isolated from B lymphocytes of multiple donors can be cloned into display phagemid vector (called human antibody phage display library) (Kulkeaw *et al.*, 2009). Fully human monoclonal antibody can be produced in any of the desired formats including full-size molecule (whole IgG), bivalent or monovalent antigen binding fragments [F(ab)₂ or Fab], single-chain variable fragment (VH-linker-VL; ScFv) or single domain antibody molecules (VH/V_HH/VL) (Nelson and Reichert 2009; Thanongsaksrikul *et al.*, 2010; Thueng-in *et al.*, 2012).

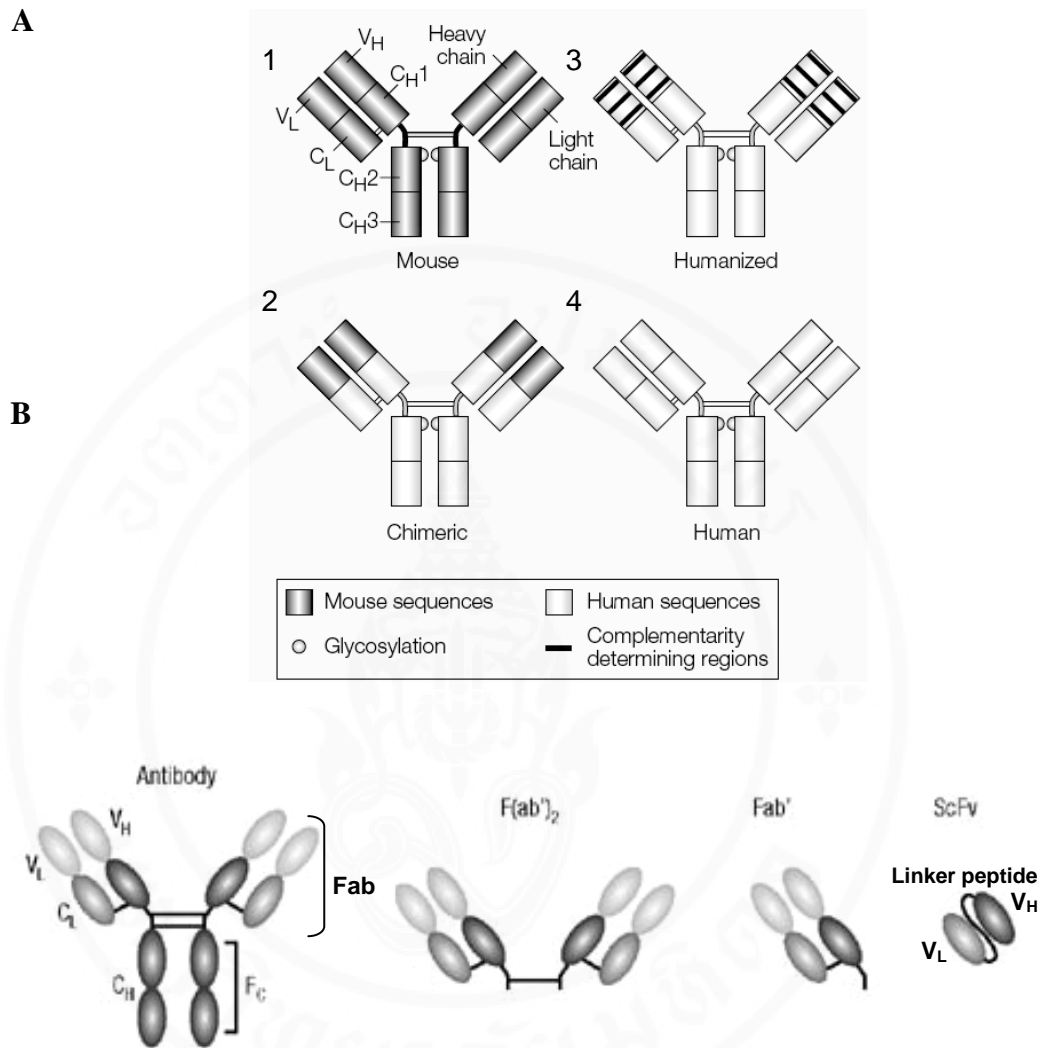


Figure 3.17 Schematic structures of monoclonal antibodies and antibody fragments.

A, Structures of full-size murine (panel 1), chimeric (panel 2), humanized- (panel 3), and human (panel 4) monoclonal antibodies

B, Structures of recombinant monoclonal antibody fragments. VL, variable domain of light chain; VH, variable domain of heavy-chain; CL, constant domain of light chain; C1, constant domain-I of heavy chain; CII, constant domain-II of heavy chain; Fab, antigen-binding fragment; Fc, fragment crystallisable; ScFv, single-chain variable fragment(s)

Source: www.nature.com

(Accessed on Jan 20th, 2012)

3.7.2 Phage display technology for antibody production (Figure 3.18)

A vast diversity of antibody gene repertoire which is generated by combinatorial immunoglobulin gene rearrangement made up to 10^{10} of antigen-binding site diversity (Goldsby *et al.*, 2003). This antibody gene repertoire can be generated *in vitro* by cloning of the immunoglobulin genes from B cells of donors such as humans or animals with or without immunization, into bacteriophages (phages in short) to construct antibody phage display library (McCafferty *et al.*, 1997). The antibody phage display technology allows convenient determination of direct interaction between displayed antibodies on the phage surface with their specific target molecules that mimics clonal selection process *in vivo* (Winter *et al.*, 1994). In recombinant antibody phage display library, the antibody molecule is displayed on the surface of phages, usually filamentous phages such as M13. Antigen-specific phages can be selected from the library by “biopanning” process. The desired antigen that immobilized on a solid phase will trap the specific phages by association with the displayed antibody molecule while the unbound phages removed. These antigen-bound phages can be either subjected to further multiple rounds of biopanning in order to enrich high affinity binders or proceed to infecting bacteria host (Winter *et al.*, 1994; Kulkeaw *et al.*, 2009). After infecting appropriate bacteria, the soluble recombinant antibody molecules can be produced by the bacteria grown under appropriate induction condition.

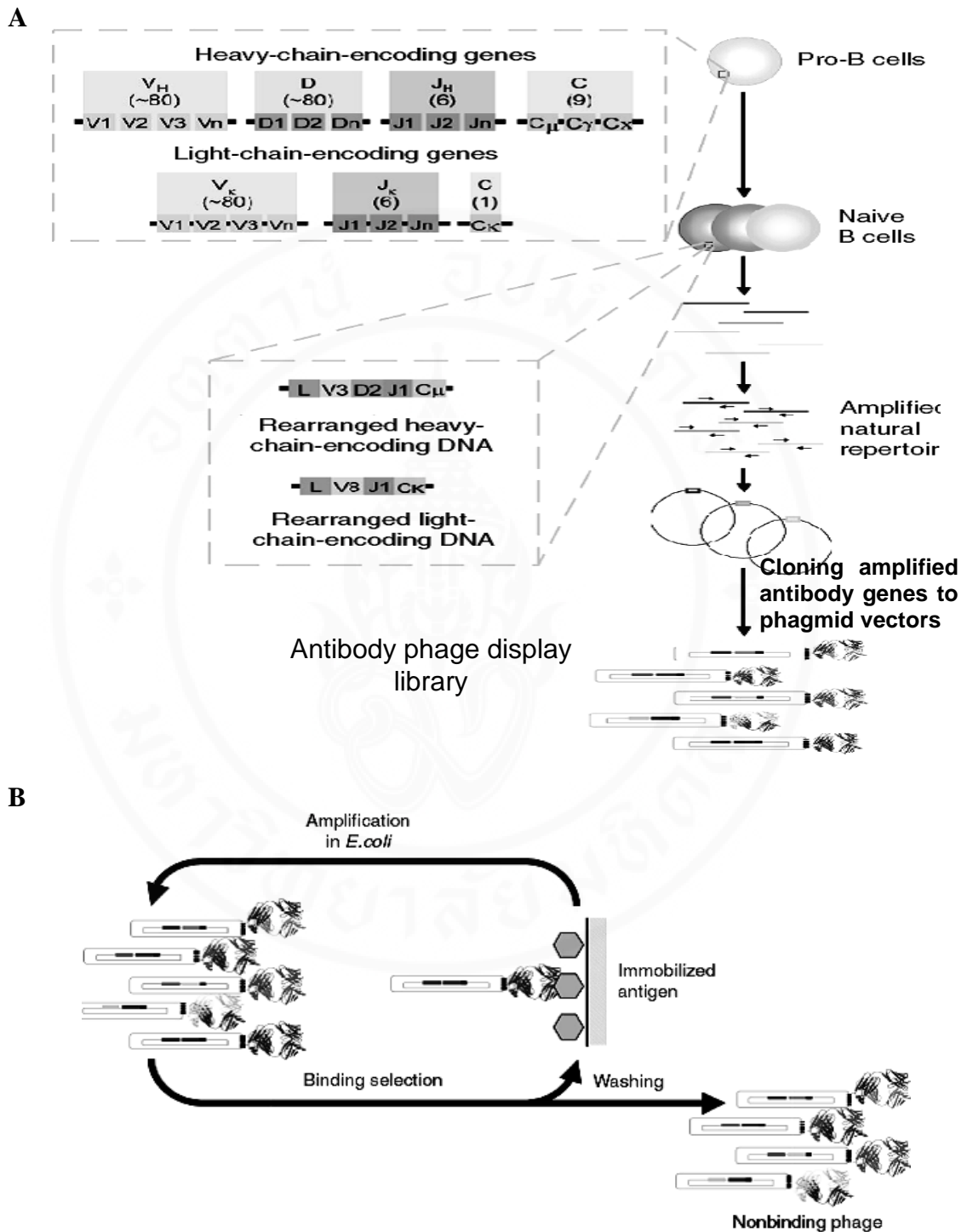


Figure 3.18 Schematic diagrams for construction of antibody phage display library (A) and selection of antigen specific phage by bio-panning (B)

Source: Sidhu and Fellouse, 2006

CHAPTER IV

MATERIAL AND METHODS

4.1 Influenza A viruses

The influenza viruses used in this study are listed in **Table 4.1**. They were propagated in 8-10 day old embryonated chicken eggs. The allantoic fluids containing living viruses were collected, pooled, filtrated through 0.2 µM membrane (Pall, Michigan, USA) and kept in small aliquots at -80 °C. Virus titers were determined by hemagglutination (HA) assay against 1% erythrocytes according to WHO protocol. Optimal multiplicity of infection (MOI) was calculated from titration of 50% tissue culture infected dose (TCID₅₀) which were performed in Mardin-Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells grown at 37 °C under 5% CO₂ atmosphere in viral growth medium [DMEM (Invitrogen, Michigan, USA) containing 2% FBS, 2 mM L-glutamine, penicillin (100 U/mL), streptomycin (100 µg/mL)] (Groves *et al.*, 1973; Wang, 2011; Carrasco, 1978; WHO manual, 2002).

4.1.1 Hemagglutination (HA) assay

Hemagglutination unit [HAU; the smallest amount of the virus that gave 100% agglutination of the red blood cells (human group O red blood cells for human influenza viruses and goose/chicken red blood cells for avian influenza viruses; recommended by WHO manual, 2002)] of individual influenza A viruses were determined. Serial dilutions of individual virus preparations were prepared in V-bottom microtiter plate (Greiner Laboratories, Alphen, The Netherlands) (25 µl/well); control well was added with only 25 µl PBS, pH 7.4 (without virus). Then 50 µl of 1% red blood cells (RBC) in PBS were added to mix with the virus. The plate was kept at 25 °C until the red blood cells in the control well (containing only red blood cells and PBS) set as a button at the well bottom. The hemagglutination titer of each virus preparation was determined. The HA titer was the highest dilution of the virus preparation that could agglutinated 100% of the RBC in the well and one HAU was

the smallest amount (highest dilution) of the virus which could agglutinate 100% of the RBC.

4.1.2 Tissue culture infected dose-50 (TCID₅₀) and multiplicity of infection (MOI)

Optimal multiplicity of infection (MOI) was calculated from titration of 50% tissue culture infected dose (TCID₅₀) which were performed in MDCK cells before keeping the virus preparations in small aliquots at -80 °C.

4.1.2.1 Preparation of MDCK cell monolayer

Monolayer of MDCK cells were established in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 100 µg/ml streptomycin and 100 units/ml penicillin. The cells were grown at 37 °C in a humidified 5% CO₂ incubator.

4.1.2.2 Infection of MDCK cell monolayer with influenza A virus

MDCK cell monolayer at 80% confluent growth were prepared as described in **section 4.1.2.1** in 96-well tissue culture plates (Costar[®], New York, USA). Cells were rinse twice with plain DMEM before added with 100 µl of undiluted or tenfold serial dilutions in plain DMEM of individual influenza viruses (for human influenza virus, TPCK-trypsin solution at 2 µg/ml final concentration was added in all media for cleaving hemagglutinin in order to help the virus infection) and the cellular entry was allowed at 37 °C for 1 hour for avian influenza viruses and 2 hours for human influenza viruses. Cells incubated with DMEM instead of the virus were used as non-infected control. The supernatant was removed and 150 µl of viral growth medium were added. Cells were grown further at 37 °C in humidified 5% CO₂ incubator for 24 hours.

4.1.2.3 Plaque (foci) formation assay for determination of TCID₅₀ and MOI of viruses

Infected cells in each tissue culture well from **section 4.1.2.2** were washed with PBS, fixed with cold absolute methanol at 25 °C for 1 hour, washed again, and permeabilized by using 0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS for 20 minutes. The cells were blocked by incubating with 3% FBS at 25 °C for 1 hour. After washing, mouse polyclonal antibody (PAb) to recombinant NP protein (1:1,000) from **section**

4.4 was added and incubated at 25 °C for 1 hour. Goat anti-mouse-alkaline phosphatase (AP) conjugate (Southern biotech, Alabama, USA) (1:3,000) was added, incubated at 25 °C for 1 hour and the cells were equilibrated in 0.15 M Tris-HCl, pH 9.6, at 25 °C for 15 minutes before adding with BCIP/NBT substrate (KPL, Maryland, USA) for color development. When the purple foci appeared under inverted light microscope, the reaction was stopped by rinsing with distilled water. The foci in the MDCK cell monolayer were observed and counted under an inverted light microscope.

The TCID₅₀ was calculated from the plaque numbers by the Reed-Muench method (Reed and Muench, 1938) and MOI was calculated from TCID₅₀ by multiple with 0.69 (Carrasco, 1978; WHO, 2002).

Table 4.1 List of influenza viruses used in the study

Nomenclature	Subtype	Clade	Host	HA reciprocal titer	Reference/ accession number
A/duck/Thailand/144/2005*	H5N1	1	Duck	nd	Songserm <i>et al.</i> , 2006
A/dog/Thailand-Suphanburi/KU-08/2004*	H5N1	1	Dog	256	DQ530170-7
A/chicken/Thailand/NP-172/2006**	H5N1	2.3.4	Chicken	32	DQ999872-3
A/Thailand/CU-H106/2009	H1N1 (pdm)		Human	128	GQ866928
A/Thailand/CU41/2006	H1N1 (seasonal)		Human	64	EU021246.1

nd, not determined; pdm, pandemic H1N1/2009 strain; *, adamantane resistance; **, adamantane sensitive (Pissawong *et al.*, 2013)

4.2 Production and purification of recombinant H1 (HA0, HA1, and HA2), NA, M2 and NP proteins

4.2.1 Production and purification of recombinant H1 (HA0, HA1 and HA2)

4.2.1.1 Viral RNA extraction

Viral RNA was extracted from living influenza A/Thailand/CU41/2006 (H1N1) freshly collected from infected MDCK cells by using QIAamp MinElute Virus Spin kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instruction in biosafety cabinet class II.

4.2.1.2 Synthesis of cDNA of influenza virus *h1*

The viral RNA was reverse-transcribed to cDNA by RevertAid™ first strand cDNA synthesis kit (Thermo scientific, Massachusetts, USA) according to the manufacturer's instruction using Uni 12 primer (**Table 4.2**). Composition of the reaction mixture is shown below.

Ingredient	Volume (μl)
5x Reaction buffer	4.0
2.5 mM each dNTP mix	2.0
10mM Uni 12 primer	2.0
RevertAid™ H minus M-MuLV reverse transcriptase (200 units/μl)	2.0
Viral RNA	10.0
Total	20.0

The cDNA was used as templates for amplification of HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences by conventional PCR.

4.2.1.3 Amplification of HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences

The nucleotide primers for PCR amplification of cDNA of H1-coding sequence (*ha0*, *ha1*, and *ha2*) were designed from the full length H1 gene

sequence deposited in the GenBank database (accession no. EU021246.1). Primer sequences for amplifications of the *ha0*, *ha1*, and *ha2* are shown in **Table 4.2**. For the cloning purpose, the *Bam*HI (ggatcc) and *Hind*III (aagctt) restricted sequences were included at the 5' ends of the forward and reverse primer sequences, respectively, to facilitate subsequent DNA cloning.

Table 4.2 List of oligonucleotide primers used for amplification of influenza virus gene segments

Target gene segment	Primer sequences (Reference)
Viral RNA gene segments	Uni 12: 5'-agcaaaagcagg-3' (Hoffmann <i>et al.</i> , 2001)
<i>ha0</i>	<i>ha1F</i> : 5'-aaggatccgacacaatatgtataggc-3' <i>ha2R</i> : 5' aagcttgatgcatattctactgc-3'
<i>ha1</i>	<i>ha1F</i> : 5'-aaggatccgacacaatatgtataggc-3' <i>ha1R</i> : 5'-aaaagctttctggattgaatggatgg-3'
<i>ha2</i>	<i>ha2F</i> : 5'-ggatccggtttggttgagccattgc-3' <i>ha2R</i> : 5'-aagcttgatgcatattctactgc-3'

The HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding DNA sequences were amplified by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using cDNA from **section 4.2.1.2** as the template and the primers from **Table 4.2**. The PCR amplicons were verified by 1% gel agarose electrophoresis and ethidium bromide staining.

Ingredients	Volume (μ l)
10x PCR buffer (High fidelity)	1.25
25 mM MgCl ₂	0.75
2 mM each dNTP	1.00
0.2 μ M Forward primer	0.50
0.2 μ M Reverse primer	0.50
High fidelity enzyme (5 units/ μ l) (Fermentas, California, USA)	0.10
cDNA template	1.00
Sterile ultrapure distilled water (UDW)	7.40
Total	12.5

The thermal cycles were set as the following:

1. Initial denaturation	at 94 °C for 10 minutes
2. Thirty cycles of :	
Denaturation	at 94 °C for 1 minute
Annealing	at 60 °C for 1 minute
Extension	at 72 °C for 2 minutes
3. Final extension	at 72 °C for 10 minutes

4.2.1.4 Verification of the nucleic acid preparations by agarose gel electrophoresis

The nucleic acid preparations, *e.g.*, PCR amplicons from **section 4.2.1.3**, were verified by using 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and ethidium bromide staining. For the electrophoresis, 1% agarose gel (USB, Ohio, USA) in TAE buffer (**Appendix A**) was prepared. Electrophoresis was carried out in a MINI-SUB[®]CELL CT apparatus (Bio-Rad, California, USA). Molten agarose was casted and allowed to polymerize in the gel casting apparatus at 25 °C for 1 hour. Each sample was mixed with 10x loading buffer (**Appendix A**) to the final concentration of 1x loading buffer. TAE buffer (1x) was used as an electrode buffer. Electrophoresis was carried out at 100 Volts for about 30 minutes. The nucleic acid band(s) was/were visualized, after staining with ethidium bromide (0.5 μ g/ml ethidium bromide in TAE

buffer) for 10-15 minutes, by using UV Transilluminator (BioDoc-It™ Imaging System, California, USA).

4.2.1.5 Ligation of cDNA of HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences into cloning vectors

The PCR amplicons containing 3' poly-A overhang were ligated into TOPO® vector (Invitrogen, Michigan, USA) using the ligation mixture as shown below. The mixture was kept at 4 °C for 16 hours.

Ingredients	Volume (µl)
Vector pT257R/T (55 ng/µl)	1.0
5x ligation buffer	2.0
PCR amplicon	2.0
Sterile UDW	4.7
T4 DNA ligase (5 units/µl)	0.3
Total	10

4.2.1.6 Preparation of chemically competent *E. coli* cells

A single isolated colony of JM109 *E. coli* on LB agar plate (**Appendix B**) was inoculated into 5 ml of LB broth (**Appendix B**) and grown at 37 °C with shaking at 250 rpm for 16 hours. One hundred microliters of the *E. coli* culture were inoculated into 10 ml of fresh LB broth and incubated at 37 °C with shaking at 250 rpm until the optical density (OD) at $A_{600\text{nm}}$ ($OD_{600\text{nm}}$) reach 0.5. The culture was kept in an ice-bath for 20 minutes then the bacterial cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4,000 ×g, 4 °C for 15 minutes. The bacterial pellet was dissolved in 10 ml of ice-cold 0.1 M MgCl₂ (**Appendix C**), resuspended in 10 ml of ice-cold 0.1 M CaCl₂ and kept in the ice-bath for 1 hour before using in the transformation. Aliquots of the so-prepared competent cells were kept at -80 °C for further use in 20% glycerol (**Appendix C**).

4.2.1.7 Transformation of the competent bacterial cells

One hundred microliters of the chemically competent JM109 *E. coli* from **section 4.2.1.6** were added to the tube containing 10 µl of the ligation mixture. After mixing, the tube was kept in ice for 20 minutes. Competent cells were

heated in a 42 °C water-bath for 2 minutes then brought to ice for 2 minutes before adding 900 µl of LB broth. The tube was incubated at 37 °C with shaking at 250 rpm for 30 minutes. One hundred microliters of the reaction mixture were spread onto LB-A agar plate (**Appendix B**); then the plate was incubated at 37 °C overnight.

4.2.1.8 Screening of transformed JM109 *E. coli* clones

White colonies grown on the overnight selective agar plate (LB-A agar plate) were randomly picked and used directly as templates for detecting the presence of the recombinant *ha0*-, *ha1*- and *ha2*-plasmid by PCR using M13 universal primers which annealed to the vector. Replica plates were also prepared for each bacterial colony by streaking a small portion of each of the transformed bacterial colony onto LB-A agar plate. The oligonucleotide primers used in the PCR were the pUC/M13-forward primer: 5'-cgccagggtttccagtcacgac-3' and the pUC/M13-reverse primer: 5'-tcacacaggaaacagctatgact-3'. The PCR reaction mixture was:

Ingredients	Volume (µl)
10x PCR buffer with KCl	1.25
25 mM MgCl ₂	0.75
2 mM each dNTP	1.00
0.1 µM pUC/M13-Forward primer	0.50
0.1 µM pUC/M13-Reverse primer	0.50
<i>Taq</i> polymerase enzyme (Fermentas, California, USA) (5 units/µl)	0.10
Small portion of colony	
Sterile UDW	8.40
Total	12.5

The thermal cycles were set as the following:

1. Initial denaturation	at 94 °C for 10 minutes
2. Thirty cycles of :	
Denaturation	at 94 °C for 1 minute
Annealing	at 54 °C for 1 minute
Extension	at 72 °C for 2 minutes
3. Final extension	at 72 °C for 10 minutes

4.2.1.9 Preparation of recombinant *ha0*-, *ha1*- and *ha2*-plasmids

The positive *ha0*, *ha1* and *ha2* amplicon-transformed JM109 *E. coli* colonies were picked from the replica plates and inoculated individually into 3 ml of LB-A broth (**Appendix B**) and grown at 37 °C with shaking overnight. The culture was centrifuged at 4,000 ×g for 5 minutes to pellet the bacterial cells. Plasmid DNAs were extracted from the cells by using QIAGEN plasmid mini kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instruction. Concentration of each plasmid DNA was determined by measuring the OD_{260nm}.

4.2.1.10 Restriction endonuclease digestion of the recombinant *ha0*-, *ha1*- and *ha2*-plasmids

For subcloning of the recombinant *ha0*-, *ha1*- and *ha2*-plasmids into expression vector, *i.e.*, pQE30 for *ha0* and *ha1* and pET23a⁺ for *ha2*, the recombinant plasmids extracted from the cloning vectors and the expression backbone plasmids (pQE30 and pET23a⁺) were digested doubly to create sticky ends at both 3' and 5' termini. The extracted plasmid DNA digestion reaction mixture is shown below.

Ingredient	Volume (μl)
10x <i>Bam</i> HI buffer	2.0
<i>Bam</i> HI (10 units/μl)	1.0
<i>Hind</i> III (10 units/μl)	2.0
Plasmid DNA (1 μg/μl)	5.0
Sterile DW	10.0
Total	20.0

The mixture was incubated at 37 °C for 5 hours and subjected to 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and ethidium bromide staining. The gel slices containing digested DNA fragments were collected and the DNA was extracted from the gel pieces by using NucleoSpin[®] Extract II (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instruction. Finally, DNA was eluted from silica gel by adding sterile UDW. After centrifugation, the supernatant was collected.

4.2.1.11 Ligation of the HA0-, HA1- and HA2- coding sequences with the expression vectors and introduction of the recombinant vectors into competent host cells for protein expressions

The digest HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences and the expression vectors (pQE30 and pET23a⁺) were ligated appropriately at 16 °C for 16 hours in a reaction mixture as shown below:

Ingredient	Volume (μl)
10x Ligation buffer	1.0
Digested <i>ha0</i> , <i>ha1</i> or <i>ha2</i> (10 ng/μl)	6.0
Digested pQE30 (for <i>ha 0</i> and <i>ha1</i>) or pET23a ⁺ (for <i>ha2</i>), 50 ng/μl	2.0
T4 DNA ligase (New England Biolabs, Massachusetts, USA) (400 units/μl)	1.0
Total	10.0

The chemically competent BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* expression host was prepared as described for the competent JM109 *E. coli* in **section 4.2.1.6**. The

ligation mixture between digested *ha0* and *ha1* and pQE30 was introduced into the competent M15 *E. coli* cells and the ligation mixture between digested *ha2* and pET23a⁺ was introduced into the competent BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* by using a heat-shock method. The transformed bacteria were selected by using the LB-AK plate (**Appendix B**) for the rHA0-pQE30 and rHA1-pQE30 and LB-A plate for rHA2-pET23a⁺ as described in **section 4.2.1.7**. A fraction of the transformed *E. coli* colonies grown on the selective agar plate was screened for the presence of the recombinant *ha0*- and *ha1*-pQE30 and *ha2*-pET23a⁺ by PCR using specific primers from **Table 4.2**. Each reaction mixture was used similarly as in **section 4.2.1.2**. Plasmid DNA of the *E. coli* clone carrying *ha0*, *ha1* and *ha2* gene inserts were extracted as described in **section 4.2.1.9** and subjected to DNA sequencing for verification. The nucleotide sequences were blasted against the sequences deposited in the NCBI database to determine degrees of identity between the cloned *ha0*, *ha1* and *ha2* sequences and the database sequences.

4.2.1.12 Production of recombinant rHA0, rHA1 and rHA2

Transformed M15 *E. coli* colonies carrying rHA0-pQE30 and rHA1-pQE30 were inoculated separately into 5 ml aliquots of LB-AK broth (**Appendix B**) while transformed BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* colonies carrying rHA2-pET23a⁺ was inoculated into 5 ml aliquots of LB-A broth for making starter. The starters were incubated at 37 °C with shaking at 250 rpm for 16 hours. Two Fresh LB-A or LB-AK broth culture (250 ml) was incubated with 2.5 ml of each starter and grown until the OD_{600nm} reached 0.4-0.5. IPTG (USB, Ohio, USA) was added to final concentration of 0.5 mM. The culture was incubated further for 4 hours. The bacterial cells were collected by centrifugation at 4,000 ×g, 25 °C for 20 minutes. The cells (100 µg) were re-suspended in 1 ml of phosphate buffer saline, pH 7.4 (PBS) and subjected to sonication on ice-bath by using sonication machine (LABSONIC[®]P, Sartorius Stedim Biotech, France). Proteins in the supernatants (soluble protein) and sediments (inclusion body or insoluble protein) were separated by centrifugation. Protein preparations were equally (v/v) mixed with 6x reducing sample buffer and boiled for 5 minutes before subjecting to 12% SDS-PAGE and Western blot analysis (**section 4.3**)

For Western blot analysis, the nitrocellulose membrane (NC) (GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK) blotted with the 12% SDS-PAGE-separated

components was incubated with 5% skim milk in PBS at 25 °C for 1 hour before washing with washing buffer (**Appendix F**). The blotted NC was incubated in a solution of mouse monoclonal anti-6xHis-tag antibody (Abcam[®], Cambridge, UK) diluted 1:5,000 in the washing buffer. Goat anti-mouse immunoglobulin (IgG)-Alkaline phosphatase (AP) conjugate and BCIP/T/NBT substrate were used for revealing bands of the recombinant proteins. Each NC was thoroughly rinsed with DW before air-drying.

4.2.1.13 Purification of recombinant HA0, HA1 and HA2

Bacterial cells (one gram of wet weight) were lysed by adding 10 ml of denaturing lysis buffer or buffer C (**Appendix D**). The preparation was sonicated on ice-bath for 5 minutes then it was centrifuged at 12,000 ×g, 4 °C for 15 minutes. The supernatant was collected. Ni-NTA beads (1 ml) (Invitrogen[™], Life Technologies, New York, USA) were pre-equilibrated with denaturing lysis buffer for 15 minutes. The pre-equilibrated Ni-NTA beads were mixed with the bacterial lysate and kept on rotating platform with gently agitation at 25 °C for 2 hours. The beads were allowed to set by gravity in a polystyrene column and washed serially with 30 ml of a denaturing washing buffer (**Appendix D**) and 20 ml of denaturing lysis buffer. The Ni-NTA bead bound proteins were then eluted with gradient fractions of 50-300 mM imidazole solutions made in buffer C. Three ml fractions were collected (6 fractions; labeled E1-E6). Proteins in each fraction were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and Western blot analysis. The rHA0, rHA1 and rHA2 proteins were revealed by Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250 (CBB) staining and Western blot analysis as described in **section 4.2.1.12**. Fractions containing purified HA0, HA1 or HA2 were pooled, refolded and dialyzed against PBS until molarity of the urea in each preparation was reduced to nil. The proteins were kept at -20 °C until use.

4.2.2 Recombinant N-terminally truncated-NA protein (Δ rN-NA) protein of influenza A virus, subtype N1

The purified recombinant N-terminally truncated NA (subtype N1) protein (~44 kDa) in small aliquots at concentration 0.11 µg/µl in 20% glycerol in PBS was a kind gift from Assist. Prof. Dr. Potjanee Srimanote, Faculty of Allied Health Sciences, Thammasat University, Rangsit campus, Pathumthani, Thailand. In briefly, coding

sequences of 5' deleted NA (1,167 bp) was PCR amplified from A/duck/Thailand/144/2005 (H5N1) cDNA by using uni 12 primer (**Table 4.2**). The amplicon was cloned into protein expression vector and introduced into BL21 (DE3) *E. coli*. Selected transformed *E. coli* clones were grown in LB-A (**Appendix B**) until the OD_{600nm} reached 0.5. The *E. coli* cultures were induced with 1 mM IPTG to express the recombinant truncated NA. The bacterial lysates containing 6x-His-tagged-rNA were verified by 12% SDS-PAGE and Western blot analysis.

4.2.3 Production and purification of recombinant M2 and NP

4.2.3.1 Production of recombinant M2 and NP

Transformed BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* carrying rM2- and rNP-pET20b⁺ were constructed by Dr. Kanyarat Thueng-in (Thueng-in *et al*, 2010). In briefly, coding sequences of NP (1,500 bp) and M2 (291 bp) were PCR amplified from A/duck/Thailand/144/2005 (H5N1) cDNA by using uni 12 primer (**Table 4.2**). Each amplicon was cloned into pET-20b⁺ vector (Novagen, Darmstadt, Germany) and introduced into BL21 (DE3) *E. coli*. Selected transformed *E. coli* clones were grown in LB-A (**Appendix B**) until the OD_{600nm} reached 0.5. The *E. coli* cultures were induced with 0.5 mM IPTG to express the recombinant proteins. The bacterial lysates containing 6x-His-tagged-NP and -M2 were verified by 12% or 14% SDS-PAGE, Western blot analysis and LC-MS/MS.

4.2.3.2 Purification of recombinant-M2 and -NP

Purifications of recombinant M2 and NP were done similarly to recombinant protein purification in section 4.2.1.13. Besides, the rM2 protein was also purified under native condition by using Ni-NTA beads. The purified proteins were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and Western blot analysis. The rM2 and rNP (protein bands at ~ 17 and 60 kDa, respectively) were revealed by CBB staining and Western blotting by reacting the NC blots with mouse monoclonal anti-6xHis tag antibody, goat anti-mouse immunoglobulin-AP conjugate and substrate, respectively. Fractions containing purified rM2 or rNP were pooled, refolded and dialyzed against PBS, pH 7.4 until molarity of the urea in the preparations was reduced to nil. The protein preparations were kept at -20 °C until use.

4.2.4 Protein quantification by Bradford reagent and/or NanoDrop Spectrophotometer

The microtiter plate protocol of Bio-Rad Protein Assay (Bio-Rad, USA) was followed for protein quantification. BSA was used as protein standard. Five dilutions of BSA were prepared: 0.05 to 0.5 mg/ml, which was a suitable linear range of the microtiter plate assay. Ten microliters of each diluted BSA solution and sample were added to individual wells of the microtiter plate (Corning[®], New York, USA) in duplicate. Diluted dye reagent (200 μ l) was added to each well and mixed. The mixtures were kept at 25 °C for 5 minutes. OD_{595nm} of the colored content in each well was measured. A protein standard curve was constructed by plotting the BSA concentrations against the respective OD read-outs. The protein content of the unknown was calculated from the curve.

The NanoDrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Massachusetts, USA) was used also in protein quantification in the case of small amount and volume of the protein preparation. After measuring protein concentration by using the NanoDrop spectrophotometer, amount of the protein was multiplied with co-efficiency according to the type of protein recommended from the spectrophotometer.

4.3 Sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and Western blot analysis (WB)

4.3.1 SDS-PAGE

4.3.1.1 Preparation of the sample for loading into slab gel

Five parts of the protein sample was mixed with one part of the 6x sample buffer (**Appendix E**) and boiled for 5 minutes. After boiling, the mixture was loaded into slots of the stacking gel. Pre-stained SDS-PAGE broad range standard (Bio-Rad) or PageRuler[™] pre-stained protein ladder (Fermentas, New York, USA) was included in at least one slot of each gel slab.

4.3.1.2 Sample separation

SDS-PAGE was performed by using the technique described by Laemmli (1970) with some modifications. In this study, a 4% acrylamide stacking gel (**Appendix E**) and 12% or 14% acrylamide separating gels (**Appendix E**) were used. The vertical slab gel (8.0 x 7.3 cm) was prepared using the casting apparatus (Minutei-PROTEAN[®]3 cell, Bio-Rad, California, USA) and electrophoresis was done in electrophoresis chamber at 20 mA per gel with an electric power supply (Model 3,000/300, Bio-Rad). At the end of the electrophoresis, the gel containing the separated proteins was either stained with CBB dye (**Appendix F**) for direct visualization of the separated components or subjected to Western blotting.

4.3.2 Staining of proteins in the polyacrylamide gel with Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250 dye

Proteins in polyacrylamide gel were fixed by using freshly prepared fixing buffer (1% *o*-phosphoric acid and 20% methanol in DW) at 25 °C for 1 hour. After fixing, the gel was immersed in a solution of freshly prepared dye [1% (w/v) Coomassie Brilliant G-250, 8% ammonium sulfate, 1% *o*-phosphoric acid and 20% methanol in DW] for 16 hours. The gel was removed from the dye solution, destained with destaining solution [Mixing of DW, methanol and acetic acid in ratio of 50/40/10 (v/v/v)] and kept in DW at 25 °C. The proteins in the gel were visualized directly or photograph was taken. For long-term storage, the gel was dried on cellophane membrane and kept at 25 °C.

4.3.3 Western blot analysis (WB)

The separated proteins on polyacrylamide gel were transblotted onto NC by using the Mini Trans-Blot[®] Electrophoresis Transfer Cell (Bio-Rad, California, USA). The protein containing polyacrylamide gel, NC, filter paper and filter pad were immersed with transfer buffer (**Appendix F**) at 25 °C for 15 minutes then the protein from polyacrylamide gel were transferred to NC by the electric current at 100 volts for 70 minutes. The NC was blocked with 5% skim milk in PBS at 25 °C with gently agitating for 1 hour. After washing three times with TBS-T (**Appendix F**), NC was reacted with mouse monoclonal anti-6xHis antibodies (1: 5,000 dilute in TBS-T) at 25

°C with gently agitating for 1 hour. After washing, the NC was reacted with goat anti-mouse IgG-AP (1:5,000 dilution) at 25 °C with gently agitating for 1 hour. The NC was thoroughly wash with washing buffer then rinsed with 0.15 M Tris-HCl, pH 9.6 before dipping in BCIP/NBT phosphatase substrate solution until the protein band(s) appeared. In finally, the NC was washed with DW and air-dried at 25 °C.

4.4 Production of mouse polyclonal antibodies to recombinant H1, N1, M2 and NP

4.4.1 Animal immunization

For mouse immunization, Five hundred microliters of the recombinant H1, M2, or NP in PBS (1 µg/µl) from **section 4.2** was mixed individually with 250 µl of alum adjuvant (Pierce, Illinois, USA) with agitation on platform shaking at 25 °C for 30 minutes. The mixture was injected intraperitoneally into ICR mice (100 µl per mouse). Two booster injections were given at 14-day intervals. The mice were bled one week following the second booster. The hyperimmune sera were designated mouse polyclonal anti-H1, -M2, and -NP (PAb-H1, PAb-M2, and PAb-NP).

The hyperimmune serum containing PAb to rN1 was a kind gift from Assist. Prof. Dr. Potjane Srimanote.

All animal experiments were approved by Veterinary Science-Animal Care and Use Committee (FVS-AUCU), Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Kasetsart University, Thailand (ID number ACKU 03455) (**Appendix J**).

4.4.2 Determination of binding specificity of PAb-H1, -M2, and -NP by indirect ELISA and Western blotting

Serum antibody titers against the homologous antigens were determined by indirect ELISA. Five-hundred nanograms of recombinant H1, M2, or NP from **section 4.2** in 100 µl of coating buffer (**Appendix G**) were added to each well of the ELISA plate and the plate were kept at 37 °C for 16 hours. Unbound protein was washed out and the unoccupied sites in each well were blocked by adding 150 µl of

3% BSA in PBS. After removing the blocking solution and washed, serially-diluted antibody preparation was added to the well and the plate was incubated in a humidified chamber at 37 °C for 1 hour. After washing with PBST, goat anti-mouse IgG-HRP conjugate (1:3,000) was added and incubated for 1 hour. After washing, ABTS substrate was added and kept in the dark for 30 minutes. The OD at $A_{405\text{nm}}$ of the content of each well was determined against a blank (wells filled with PBS instead of antibody). Pre-immunized mouse serum was tested and served as a baseline control of the PABs.

Western blot analysis was used for determining antigenic specificities of the antibody preparation. Recombinant H1, M2, and NP were subjected to 14 or 12% SDS-PAGE. The separated components were electroblotted onto NC. After unoccupied sites on the NC were blocked with 5% skim milk in PBS and washed, the NC was incubated with the mouse immune sera. Goat anti-mouse IgG-AP conjugate and BCIP/NBT substrate was used for revealing the rH1, rM2, and rNP-antibody reactive bands at ~60, 17, and 60 kDa, respectively.

4.5 Selection of phage clones displaying human single chain variable fragment (HuScFv) that bound to native HA, NA and M2 on influenza virus particle and HuScFv that bound to the purified rM2

4.5.1 Human antibody phage display library

A human ScFv phage library was constructed by Dr. Kasem Kulkeaw in Professor Dr. Wanpen Chaicumpa's laboratory (Kulkeaw *et al.*, 2009). Human immunoglobulin gene segments encoding for all families of human variable heavy (*vh*) and kappa variable light (*vκ*) chains were amplified from B lymphocytes of 60 Thai blood donors using degenerate primers. The amplified *vh* and *vκ* sequences were linked randomly *via* a polynucleotide linker into *scfv* sequences and the *scfv* repertoire was cloned into TG1 *E. coli*. After the phagemid transfection of *E. coli* and co-infecting the phagemid transformed TG1 *E. coli* with the helper phage (M13KO7), a large repertoire phage library ($\sim 6.5 \times 10^{12}$ cfu/ml) displaying a $\sim 2.6 \times 10^8$ human

antibody diversity and ~85% of phages in the library contained human *scfv* sequences (*huscfv*) were obtained.

4.5.2 Selection of phage clones that bound to native H1, N1 and M2 of influenza A virus

4.5.2.1 Preparation of human group O red blood cell (hRBC) ghosts (Homma and Ohuchi, 1973)

Human group O RBC (hRBC) was collected by using an EDTA blood tube. One ml of the packed hRBC was washed with 9 ml of PBS, pH 7.4, three times. Then the packed hRBC was lysed by mixing with 30 ml of 0.0004% acetic acid and kept in ice-bath (~1-3 °C) for 60 minutes with stirring. The hRBC ghosts were then washed several times in a 0.001 M chilled acetate buffer (pH 5.0) by centrifugation at 1,000 ×g for 5 minutes until the supernatant was de-colored. The same washing procedure was performed by using chilled PBS and the hRBC ghosts were kept at 4 °C for 16 hours. After the last wash, the hRBC ghosts were re-suspended in PBS at 20% v/v and kept at 4 °C.

4.5.2.2 Preparation of the hRBC ghosts with the H1N1 viruses adsorbed on the surface

Influenza A virus [A/Thailand/CU-H106/2009 (H1N1/2009)] (250 µl of HA reciprocal titer 32) was mixed with equal volume of 4% hRBC ghost (v/v) in biosafety cabinet class II and kept on rotating platform at 25 °C for 1 hour. The un-adsorbed viruses were removed by centrifugation at 5,000 ×g at 25 °C for 5 minutes. The virus adsorbed ghosts were washed and used as a panning antigen in selecting phage clones that displayed HuScFv to native surface proteins of the virus from a human antibody phage display library.

4.5.2.3 Single round phage bio-panning for selection of phage clones that displayed HuScFv specific to H1, N1 and M2 by using the influenza virus adsorbed hRBC ghosts as the panning antigen

4.5.2.3.1 Subtractive bio-panning with un-infected egg allantoic fluid

Two micrograms of allantoic fluid protein of un-infected egg in 100 µl of coating buffer (**Appendix G**) was added to an ELISA well

(Corning[®], New York, USA) and incubated at 37 °C for 16 hours. The unbound allantoic fluid proteins were removed by washing with PBST (**Appendix G**). The well was blocked with 200 µl of 3% BSA in PBS (**Appendix G**) at 25 °C for 1 hour. After washing the well with PBST, 200 µl of the phage display library (2.2×10^{10} cfu/ml) from section 4.5.2.1 were added to the well, incubated at 25 °C for 1 hour. The unbound phages were collected and the panning with the allantoic proteins was repeated two more times. After removing the phages that bound to the allantoic fluid proteins, the unbound phage library from the third panning round were collected for use in the next step.

4.5.2.3.2 Subtractive bio-panning with human red blood cell ghosts

The subtracted phage library from **section 4.5.2.3.1** was mixed with 200 µl of the 4% hRBC ghost (v/v) and incubated with rotation at 25 °C for 1 hour. After centrifugation at $5,000 \times g$ for 5 minutes, the unbound phage library was collected and repeated this subtractive step two more times. After the third panning round, the unbound phage library was collected for use in the positive bio-panning with the H1N1 virus adsorbed on the hRBC ghosts.

4.5.2.3.3 Positive bio-panning of the subtracted phage library with the H1N1/2009 virus adsorbed on hRBC ghosts

The subtracted phage library from **section 4.5.2.3.2** was mixed with equal volume of the hRBC ghosts which the H1N1/2009 virus had been adsorbed on the surface from **section 4.5.2.2** and incubated with rotation at 25 °C for 1 hour. After removing unbound phage by centrifugation at $5,000 \times g$ for 5 minutes, the pellet of phages that bound to the virus adsorbed on the hRBC ghosts was washed extensively with PBS to eliminate unbound phages. After washing, log phase grown HB2151 *E. coli* (200 µl) was added to the phage preparation, mixed thoroughly, and the phage transfection was allowed to occur at 37 °C for 30 minutes. An aliquot of the transformed *E. coli* preparation was spread onto 2xYT-AG agar plate (**Appendix B**) and the plate was incubated at 37 °C for 16 hour for screening of the phagemid transformed *E. coli*. The remaining portion of the phage transfected *E. coli* was kept properly in 20% sterile glycerol at -80 °C.

4.5.3 Selection of phage clones that bound to the recombinant M2 protein with single round phage bio-panning

Purified rM2 protein was used as antigens in the bio-panning for selecting phage clones that display rM2 bound-HuScFv. One microgram of the rM2 in 100 μ l of coating buffer (**Appendix G**) was added to a well of a microtiter plate (Corning®, NewYork, USA) and incubated at 37 °C for 16 hours. The antigen coated well was washed with PBS-T and blocked with 3% BSA in PBS. HuScFv phage display library (100 μ l) was added into the antigen coated well and kept at 25 °C for 1 hour. After discarding the fluid, the well was washed thoroughly with PBST to remove unbound phages. Log phase grown HB2151 *E. coli* (200 μ l) was added to the well containing rM2 bound-phages; the phage transfection was allowed to occur at 37 °C for 15 minutes in humidified chamber. A small aliquot of the content in the well was spread onto 2xYT-AG agar plate (**Appendix B**) and the plate was incubated at 37 °C for 16 hours for screening of the phagemid transformed *E. coli*. The remaining portion of the phage transfected *E. coli* was kept properly in 20% sterile glycerol at -80 °C.

4.6 Screening of transformed HB2151 *E. coli* colonies carrying *huscfv*-phagemids by colony PCR

Ampicillin resistant colonies of HB2151 *E. coli* colonies grown on the selective 2xYT-AG agar plate were screened for *huscfv*-phagemid containing clones by using a direct colony PCR and the primers for the antibody coding genes. The PCR primers were *R1* (forward): 5'-ccatgattacgccaagcttt-3' and *R2* (reverse): 5'-gctagatttcaaaacagcagaaagg-3'. The transformed *E. coli* colonies were randomly picked for the PCR and also streak on 2xYT-AG agar for preparing replica plates. The PCR products were resolved on 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and stain with ethidium bromide. The *E. coli* clones giving *huscfv* amplicons with expected size of ~ 1,000 bp were selected and the *huscfv*-positive *E. coli* clones were stored as bacterial stocks in 20% sterile glycerol at -80 °C for further use.

The direct colony PCR reaction mixture was prepared as the following:

Ingredients	Volume (μ l)
10x PCR buffer with KCl	1.25
25 mM MgCl ₂	0.75
2 mM each dNTP	1.00
0.1 μ M, R1-Forward primer	0.50
0.1 μ M, R2-Reverse primer	0.50
<i>Taq</i> polymerase enzyme (Fermentas) (5 units/ μ l)	0.10
Small portion of colony	
Sterile DW	8.40
Total	12.5

The thermal cycles were set as the following:

1. Initial denaturation	at 94 °C for 10 minutes
2. Thirty cycles of :	
Denaturation	at 94 °C for 1 minute
Annealing	at 55 °C for 1 minute
Extension	at 72 °C for 2 minutes
3. Final extension	at 72 °C for 10 minutes

4.7 Screening of phagemid-transduced *E. coli* that could express soluble HuScFv

The bacterial transformants carrying the recombinant *huscfv*-phagemid vectors were screened further for their ability to express soluble HuScFv by Western blot analysis. From the replica plate, each selected HB2151 *E. coli* clone was grown in 2xYT-AG broth to prepare a starter culture. One hundred microliters of the starter culture were inoculated into 10 ml of 2xYT-AG broth and grown at 37 °C with shaking at 250 rpm until the OD_{600nm} was 0.3-0.5. The culture was centrifuged at 3,000 \times g for 15 minutes and the 2xYT-AG broth was discarded. Ten ml of 2xYT-A broth was added to the bacterial cell pellet, mixed, and induced to express the HuScFv

by adding IPTG to a final concentration of 0.5 mM. The culture was incubated at 37 °C with shaking further for 5 hours. The bacterial cells were harvested by centrifugation at 3,000 ×g, 25 °C for 15 minutes. The cells in the pellet were re-suspended with 500 µl of PBS. The bacterial cells were lysed by sonication and the homogenate was centrifuged at 12,000 ×g, 4 °C for 15 minutes. The soluble antibody molecules in the bacterial lysate (supernatant) was detected by Western blot analysis using mouse monoclonal anti-E-TagTM antibody (Abcam[®], Cambridge, UK), goat-anti-mouse IgG-AP conjugate and BCIP/NBT substrate, respectively.

4.8 Antigen binding test

Indirect ELISA, Western blotting, and immunofluorescence assay were used for testing the binding of the selected soluble HuScFv derived from different recombinant phagemid transformed HB2151 *E. coli* clones to the recombinant HA (HA0, HA1, HA2), NA and M2 and native counterparts.

4.8.1 Indirect ELISA

One micrograms of the purified recombinant HA (HA0, HA1, and HA2), NA, M2, or BSA (irrelevant antigen control) in 100 µl of carbonate-bicarbonate buffer, pH 9.6 (**Appendix G**) were immobilized onto individual wells of an ELISA plate. After removing the excess antigens by washing, the antigen-coated wells were blocked with 3% BSA in PBS then the wells were incubated with 100 µl of individual HB2151 *E. coli* lysates which contained soluble HuScFv (from **section 4.7**). After washing, the amount of antigen-bound HuScFv in each well was detected using mouse monoclonal anti-E-Tag antibody, goat-anti-mouse immunoglobulin-horseradish peroxidase (HRP) conjugate and ABTS substrate, respectively. The OD_{405nm} of the content of each well was determined against a blank (wells filled with PBS instead of HuScFv containing *E. coli* lysate). A well added with lysate of normal HB2151 *E. coli* instead of HuScFv containing *E. coli* lysate served as background control. Polyclonal antibody specific to the antigens (HA, NA, and M2) served as positive control.

In addition, native antigens were used also in specificity binding test with individual HB2151 *E. coli* lysates containing the soluble HuScFv from bio-panning

with the influenza virus adsorbed hRBC ghosts. In briefly, 100 μ l of the H1N1/2009 influenza virus adsorbed hRBC ghosts (from section 4.5.2.2) in 0.6 ml Eppendorf tube was blocked with 3% BSA in PBS and incubated with rotation at 25 °C for 1 hour. After centrifugation at 5,000 $\times g$ for 5 minutes, the influenza virus adsorbed hRBC ghosts was mixed with 100 μ l of individual HB2151 *E. coli* lysates containing the soluble HuScFv and incubated with rotation at 25 °C for 2 hours. After washing, the amount of antigen bound-HuScFv was detected using mouse monoclonal anti-E-Tag antibody, goat-anti-mouse IgG-HRP conjugate and ABTS substrate, respectively. The OD_{405nm} of the content of each well was determined against a blank (wells filled with PBS instead of HuScFv containing *E. coli* lysate). A well added with lysate of normal HB2151 *E. coli* instead of HuScFv containing *E. coli* lysate served as background control. Polyclonal antibody specific to the antigens (HA, NA, and M2) served as positive control.

4.8.2 Western blot analysis

The purified recombinant HA, NA, or M2 (~15 μ g) was loaded into long slot 12% SDS-PAGE gel for rHA and rNA and 14% SDS-PAGE gel for rM2. The rHA, rNA, or rM2 was resolved by electrophoresis and transferred onto NC as described in **section 4.3.3**. The recombinant protein blotted NC was cut into several vertical strips which were probed individually with 1:2 diluted HuScFv lysates derived from different HB2151 *E. coli* clones. Lysate of normal HB2151 *E. coli* was used as negative control and polyclonal antibody specific to the antigens (HA, NA, and M2) served as positive controls. After 1 hour, the strips were washed with TBS-T, the bound antibody fragments on each strip were detected by mouse monoclonal anti-E-Tag antibody, goat-anti-mouse IgG-AP conjugate and a BCIP/NBT chromogenic substrate, respectively.

For native antigens, the MDCK cells infected with H1N1 or H5N1 viruses for 72 hours were harvested, washed and added with a volume of PBS. The cells were sonicated and the homogenates containing the viruses were collected after centrifugation at 12,000 $\times g$, 4 °C for 15 minutes. The viral homogenates were added individually with sample buffer and subjected to 12% SDS-PAGE. The separated components were blotted onto NC. The blotted NC was blocked and cut vertically into

strips. The strips were incubated appropriately with individual HuScFv preparations. Lysate of normal HB2151 *E. coli* was used as negative control, and polyclonal antibody specific to the antigen (HA, NA, and M2) (1:5,000 dilution) served as positive antibody control. The antigen-antibody reactive bands were revealed by using mouse monoclonal anti-E tag antibody, goat anti-mouse IgG-AP conjugate and BCIP/NBT chromogenic substrate.

4.8.3 Immunofluorescence assay

The selected HuScFv specific to M2 (**section 4.11**) and polyclonal antibody to rM2 (pAb-M2) were also tested by immunofluorescence assay for their binding to native M2 in MDCK cells infected with influenza A subtype H5N1 of clades 1 and 2. Briefly, The MDCK monolayer on 12mm diameter cover slip in 24 well-tissue culture well were infected with H5N1 at MOI 1 and incubated in 5% CO₂ atmosphere, 37 °C for 1 hour to allow the virus entry. After extracellular viruses in each well were discarded, the cells were rinsed with plain DMEM, replenished with viral growth medium, and incubated in 5% CO₂ atmosphere, 37 °C further for 24 hours. Then the infected cells with H5N1 were washed with PBS, fixed with cold absolute methanol, and permeabilized with 1% Triton-X 100 in PBS for 20 minutes. After blocking with 3% FBS in PBS, the well was probed with HuScFv or pAb-M2 (1:3,000) at 25 °C for 1 hour. The unbound materials were removed by washing with PBS. The cells were reacted with mouse monoclonal anti-6xHis tag antibody and incubated at 25 °C for 1 hour. Then Alexa Fluor[®] 488-labeled chicken anti mouse Ig (Amersham Biosciences, Uppsala, Sweden) (1:1,000) were added and incubated at 25 °C for 1 hour. The plate was then reacted with DAPI stain (Invitrogen, Oregon, USA) (1:3,000) at 25 °C for 30 minutes. After extensively washed with PBS, glass cover slips were applied to the glass slide, mounted with a drop of 50% glycerol, and sealed with nail polish on microscopic glass slides. Fluorescence emission was visualized by using fluorescence microscopy with a 40x magnification objective lens.

4.9 Characterization of HA, NA, or M2-specific HuScFv

4.9.1 Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) of the *huscfv* sequences

Diversity of the DNA sequences coding for HuScFv that could bind to the HA, NA, and/or M2 were determined by restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) technique as described previously (Shin *et al.*, 2003; Thathaisong *et al.*, 2008). The amplified *huscfv* products (from **section 4.6**) were digested with *MvaI* restriction endonuclease at 37 °C for 5 hours. The *MvaI* digestion mixture is shown in the table below. The digested mixtures (5 µl) were mixed individually with 10x DNA loading dye (**Appendix A**) and resolved on 12% polyacrylamide gel containing 0.5% glycerol (**Appendix H**). The electrophoresis was carried out in 0.5x TBE buffer (**Appendix H**) by applying 20 mA electric power per one slab gel. The resolved DNA bands were stained by ethidium bromide (**Appendix A**) and the RFLP DNA banding patterns were compared visually under UV illumination using BioDoc-It UV Transilluminator[®].

MvaI digestion mixture:

Ingredient	Volume (µl)
UDW	17.4
10x Red buffer	2.5
<i>MvaI</i> restriction endonuclease (Fermentas) (10 units/µl)	0.1
<i>huscfv</i> amplicon	5.0
Total	25.0

Each reaction mixture was kept in a 37 °C water-bath for 5 hours.

4.10 Identification of immunoglobulin frameworks (FR) and complementarity determining regions (CDRs) of the HuScFv

The *huscfv* sequences coded for HA, NA, and/or M2 specific-HuScFv from HuScFv clones in individual *E. coli* clones that gave positive binding to recombinant HA, NA, and M2 by using indirect ELISA and Western blotting were extracted the *huscfv*-pCANTAB5E plasmid by using Fast-n-easy plasmid mini prep kit (Jena Bioscience GmbH, Germany). The nucleotide sequences of the selected *huscfv* were determined by DNA sequencing (FirstBase Laboratories, Malaysia). The deduced amino acid sequences of nucleotide sequences of all clones were aligned with human VH and VL sequences of IMGT database. The immunoglobulin frameworks (FRs) and the complementarity determining regions (CDRs) of individual HuScFv were determined using the IMGT server (http://www.imgt.org/IMGT_vquest).

4.11 Large scale production and purification of specific HuScFv

4.11.1 Subcloning of HuScFv genes into pET vector

For large scale production of the HuScFv, the *huscfv* of selected *E. coli* clones were subcloned into pET vectors (pET23b⁺ or pET32c⁺) which had T7 promoter. The pET vector backbone (pET23b⁺ or pET32c⁺) and the selected *huscfv*-pCANTAB5E were digested doubly with restriction endonucleases (*HindIII* and *NotI*) (Fermentas, California, USA). The mixture was incubated at 37 °C for 5 hours and subjected to 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and ethidium bromide staining. The digested pET vectors and *huscfv* amplicon were purified by using Agarose Gel extraction kit (Jena Bioscience GmbH, Germany). The composition of the digestion reaction was shown below.

Recombinant plasmid/*huscfv* digestion mixture:

Ingredient	Volume (μl)
UDW	11.0
10x Orange buffer	2.0
<i>Hind</i> III endonuclease enzyme (10 units/μl) (Fermentas)	1.5
<i>Not</i> I endonuclease enzyme (10 units/μl) (Fermentas)	0.5
The pET vector backbone and <i>huscfv</i> -pCANTAB5E	5.0
Total	20.0

The digested pET vector backbone and *huscfv* were ligated by using T4 DNA ligase enzyme (New England Biolabs, Massachusetts, USA). The ligation mixture (see below) was incubated at 16 °C for 16 hours.

Ligation mixture:

Ingredient	Volume (μl)
10x Buffer	1.5
Digested pET vector (1 μg/μl)	3.0
T4 DNA ligase (400 units/μl)	1.0
Digested <i>huscfv</i> amplicon	3.5
UDW	7.0
Total	15.0

4.11.2 Transformation of the recombinant plasmids

The recombinant pET plasmids (pET23b⁺ or pET32c⁺) containing *huscfv* inserts were introduced into competent BL21 (DE3) by heat shock method as shown in section 4.2.1.11. After incubating the mixture for 30 minutes, individual preparations were spread on 2xYT-A selective agar (**Appendix B**) and incubated for 16 hours. Colonies of transformed *E. coli* were picked randomly and replica plates were made on 2xYT-A selective agar. The transformed *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) clones were screened for the presence of inserted *huscfv* by PCR using T7 promoter and terminator primers,

i.e., T7 promoter (forward) primer: 5'-taatacgaactcactatagg-3' and T7 terminator (reverse) primer: 5'-gctagttattgctcagcgg-3'. The appropriateness of the *huscfv* insertions (~1,000 bp) in the plasmids were verified by DNA sequencing (as described in **section 4.9**). The size of *huscfv* amplicon including the flanking region of the plasmid vector sequence was ~1,000 bp. The *huscfv*-positive *E. coli* clones were screened further for their ability to express the 6xHis-tagged-antibody fusion HuScFv as described in **section 4.6**. The expressed 6xHis-tagged-HuScFv was detected by Western blot analysis using mouse monoclonal anti-6x His antibody, goat-anti-mouse IgG-AP conjugate and BCIP/NBT chromogenic substrate, respectively.

The direct colony PCR reaction mixture was prepared as the following:

Ingredient	Volume (μl)
UDW	9.4
10x PCR buffer with KCl	1.75
50 mM MgCl ₂	0.75
2 mM each dNTP mix	0.5
T7 promoter-forward primer (10μM)	0.25
T7 terminator-reverse primer (10μM)	0.25
<i>Taq</i> polymerase enzyme (Fermentas) (5 units/μl)	0.1
Total	12.5

The thermal cycle program was set as the following:

1. Initial denaturation	at 94 °C for 10 minutes
2. Thirty cycles of :	
Denaturation	at 94 °C for 1 minute
Annealing	at 55 °C for 1 minute
Extension	at 72 °C for 2 minutes
3. Final extension	at 72 °C for 10 minutes

4.11.3 Large scale expression of HuScFv

Large scale expression of His-tagged HuScFv (HuScFv-His) was done as described in **section 4.2.1.12**. Briefly, 2 liter sized-sterile glass flask was used for bacterial culture. Each flask was added with 250 ml of 2xYT-A broth (**Appendix B**), inoculated with 2.5 ml overnight culture (starter) of individual *E. coli* clones and grown until the OD_{600nm} reached 0.4-0.5. IPTG (USB, USA) was added to final concentration of 0.5 mM and the culture was incubated further for 4 hours. After harvesting the bacterial cells, an aliquot of the cells was used for checking HuScFv expression. The cells were homogenized and subjected to 12% SDS-PAGE and Western blot analysis using mouse monoclonal anti-6xHis tag antibody as described in **section 4.2.1.12**. HuScFv were then purified.

4.11.4 Purification and refolding of the 6xHis-tagged HuScFv

The HuScFv-His in *E. coli* homogenate were purified by using TALONTM affinity resin (Clontech Laborstories, California, USA) under denaturing condition. The bacterial pellets were lysed by sonication at 30% amplitude, 0.5 cycles for 5 minutes in 1x denaturing extraction buffer (**Appendix D**) (one gram of pellet per 10 ml of buffer). The translucent homogenate was centrifuged at 12,000 ×g, 4 °C for 20 minutes. The supernatant was transferred carefully to a clean tube without disturbing the cell debris. The TALONTM affinity resin kept in 20% ethanol was re-suspended in TALON resin suspension buffer and 2 ml of the resin suspension were transferred to a clean tube (2 ml of the resin suspension made 1 ml volume of packed resin). The resin suspension was centrifuged at 700 ×g, 25 °C for 3 minutes and the supernatant was discarded. Sterile water (20 ml) was added and mixed gently to wash the resin. The resin suspension was centrifuged and re-washed. The resin preparation after the last wash was added with 10 ml of 1x denaturing extraction buffer (**Appendix D**) and mixed gently to pre-equilibrate the resin. After spinning at 700 ×g, 25 °C for 3 minutes, the supernatant was discarded. The bacterial homogenate was added to the resin tube and mixed gently on a rocking platform at 25 °C for 2 hours to allow binding of the 6xHis-tagged HuScFv to the resin. The resin suspension was transferred to the gravity-flow column with an end-cap in place and allowed the resin to settle out of the suspension. The unbound fraction was allowed to flow through. The resin was

washed by adding 30 ml of 1x denaturing extraction buffer and allowed the buffer to drain out. The 6xHis-tagged protein bound to the resin was eluted by adding 10 ml of 1x denaturing elution buffer containing 500 mM imidazole (**Appendix D**) and kept as an eluted fraction. The resin was washed as above and kept in 20% ethanol for subsequent use. The purity of HuScFv-His preparation was analyzed by using 12% SDS-PAGE, CBB staining, and Western blotting as described in **section 4.2.1.12**. The purified HuScFv-His protein was refolded by adding gradually (drop-wise) PBS, at 4 °C with stirring slowly. The refolding buffer was added until the concentration of urea decreased to nil. The HuScFv preparations were dialyzed against PBS at 4 °C for 5 hours. Then, the preparation was centrifuged at 12,000 ×g, 4 °C for 15 minutes to removed aggregates. The supernatants containing refolded 6xHis tagged-HuScFv were collected and analyzed again by 12% SDS-PAGE, CBB staining, and Western blotting. The concentration of each purified 6xHis tagged-HuScFv preparation was quantified by NanoDrop machine and multiplied with extinction coefficient scfv ($\epsilon = 1.4$) (Layne, 1958; Stoscheck, 1990; Nielsen *et al*, 2000). The HuScFv(s) were kept appropriately at -20 °C for subsequent use. Reactivity of the purified HuScFv to rM2 was re-verified by indirect ELISA and Western blot analysis using rM2 as the antigen and mouse monoclonal anti-6x-His antibody as the primary antibody for detecting the 6x-His tagged-HuScFv.

4.12 HuScFv mediated interference of virus replication cycle (Figure 4.1)

Three experimental designs for studying the HuScFv mediated interference of influenza virus replication cycle were performed:

Experimental design 1: influenza A viruses, subtype H1N1/2009 or subtype H5N1 (MOI 0.1) were mixed with purified HuScFv (400 ng, $\sim 9.64 \times 10^{12}$ molecules) from individual *E. coli* clones at 25 °C for 2 hours before adding to MDCK cell monolayer in tissue culture wells (24-well tissue culture plates). Viruses exposed to rimantadine (0.8 μ M, $\sim 4.82 \times 10^{17}$ molecules) and pAb-M2 (10 μ g, $\sim 4 \times 10^{13}$ molecules) instead of the HuScFv were used as positive inhibition controls. The viruses in culture medium served as negative inhibition or infected cell control. The

plates were incubated in 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37 °C for 1 hour to allow virus entry. Extracellular viruses in each well were discarded; the cells were rinsed with plain DMEM and replenished with viral growth medium. After incubation for 15 hours, the spent culture fluid of each well was collected and the cells were washed with plain DMEM and harvested. Quantitative real-time RT-PCR was used for enumeration of the viruses in the culture fluids and inside the cells. Plaque (foci) assay was also performed for comparing intracellular viruses among treatments. Three independent experiments were done.

Experimental design 2: influenza A viruses, subtype H1N1/2009 or subtype H5N1 (MOI 0.1) were allowed to infect the MDCK cells in 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37 °C for 1 hour. After washing to remove extracellular viruses, purified HuScFv from individual *E. coli* clones, pAb-M2, and rimantadine in viral growth medium (at the same amounts that used in **experiment 1**) were added to individual well and incubated further for 15 hours. Then the spent culture fluid of each well and the cells were collected. Quantitative real-time RT-PCR and plaque (foci) assay were performed for comparing viruses among treatments.

Experimental design 3: influenza A viruses, subtype H1N1/2009 or subtype H5N1 (MOI 0.1) were mixed with purified HuScFv from individual *E. coli* clones, pAb-M2 and rimantadine (at the same amounts that used in **experiment 1**) at 25 °C for 2 hours before adding to MDCK cell monolayer in tissue culture wells. The plates were incubated in 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37 °C for 1 hour to allow virus entry. Extracellular viruses in each well were discarded; the cells were rinsed with plain DMEM and replenished with viral growth medium containing the purified HuScFv from individual *E. coli* clones, pAb-M2, and rimantadine, respectively. After incubation for 15 hours, the spent culture fluid of each well and the cells were collected. Quantitative real-time RT-PCR and plaque (foci) assay were performed for comparing viruses among treatments.

*For human influenza A virus infection (H1N1/2009), all three experimental designs were done in 96-well tissues culture plate, vaccinated/convalescent human serum was used as positive inhibition control, and only plaque assay was performed for enumeration of the virus in the samples. Three independent experiments were done.

4.12.1 Plaque (foci) assay

Influenza virus plaques (foci) in the infected cells were revealed as described in section 4.1.2.3. Infected cells in each tissue culture well were washed with PBS, fixed with cold absolute methanol at 25 °C for 1 hour, washed again, and permeabilized by using 0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS for 20 minutes. The cells were blocked by incubating with 3% FBS at 25 °C, 1 hour. After washing, mouse PAb to rNP (1:3,000), goat anti-mouse-AP, and BCIP/NBT substrate were added, respectively, for color development. When the purple foci appeared under inverted microscope, the reaction was stopped by rinsing the cells with distilled water. The foci in the MDCK cell monolayer were observed and counted under a light inverted microscope.

4.12.2 Quantitative real-time RT-PCR (qPCR)

Viral RNA was extracted from 500 µl of each culture supernatant by using viral nucleic acid extraction kit II (Geneaid, New Taipei, Taiwan). The RNA was dissolved with 20 µl of DEPC-treated water. Total RNA was extracted from the virus infected cells by using total RNA purification kit (Jena Bioscience, Jena, Germany). The amount of total RNA in each preparation was measured by using NanoDrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer and kept at -80 °C until use. In each qPCR reaction, either 2 µl of extracted RNA from the culture supernatant or 200 ng of total RNA from infected cells were subjected to viral RNA quantification using 1-step Brilliant II SYBR green qRT-PCR master mix kit (Agilent Technologies, California, USA). Each PCR master mix (12.5 µL) was prepared on ice with 2 × Brilliant II SYBR[®] Green QRT-PCR Master Mix, RT/RNase block enzyme, 200 nM of each primer specific to gene sequence coding for influenza A virus *M1*: forward 5'-cttctaaccgaggtcgaatcgta-3' and reverse 5'-tccatgagagcctcgagat-3', and RNA template. For total RNA from infected cell, amount of total RNA was normalized again with housekeeping gene: *actin* and each primer specific to *actin* gene coding sequence: forward 5'-gagcgggaaatcgtgcgtg-3' and reverse 5'-gaaggtagttcgtggatg-3'. The qPCR was performed using Mx 3000PTM instrument (Stratagene, California, USA). The reaction mixture and the qPCR condition are shown below. A standard curve was constructed from Ct of ten-fold dilutions of the pET20b⁺ carrying gene sequence coding for M1

(ranged from 1000 to 1 ng or 2.07×10^{11} to 2.07×10^8 copies). Ct of each sample was expressed as \log_2 of RNA copies calculated from the standard curve.

Real-time RT-PCR reaction mixture:

Ingredient	Volume (μl)
2x Brilliant II SYBR [®] Green QRT-PCR master mix	6.25
10 μ M Forward primer: <i>M1</i> or <i>actin</i>	0.2
10 μ M Reverse primer: <i>M1</i> or <i>actin</i>	0.2
RT/RNase block enzyme	0.1
RNA sample	x
UDW	5.75-x
Total	12.5

The thermal cycle program was set as the following:

1. Reverse transcription at 42 °C for 1 hour
2. First denaturation at 95 °C for 10 minutes
3. Denaturation at 95 °C for 1 minute
4. Annealing at 58 °C for 1 minute
5. Extension at 72 °C for 1 minute
6. Repeat steps 2-4 for 40 cycles
7. Analysis the dissociation curve and melting temperature: 95 °C for 1 minute then ramped down to 55 °C (0.5 °C/s) for 45 seconds and ramped up to 95 °C

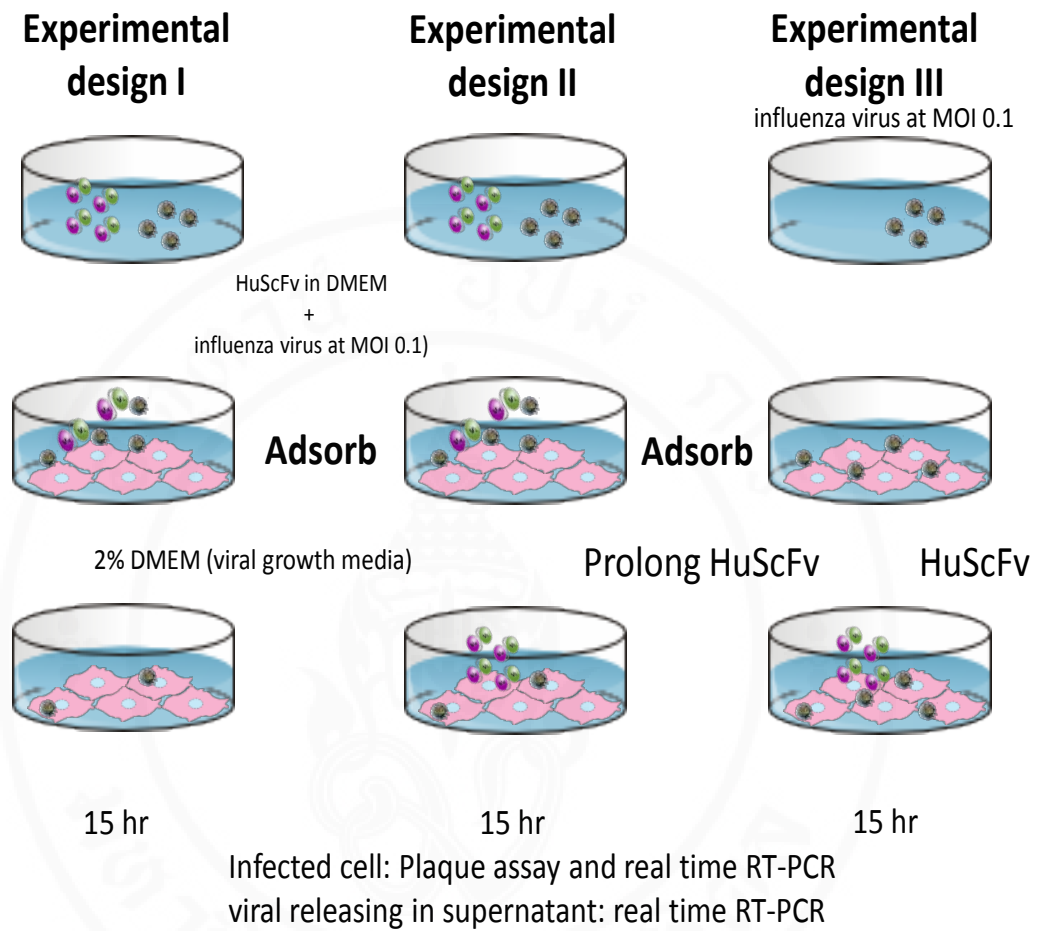


Figure 4.1 Three experimental designs for studying the HuScFv mediated interference of influenza virus replication cycle

4.13 Phage mimotope, HuScFv epitopes and validation of the phage mimotope

4.13.1 Determination of epitopes of the HuScFv by means of phage mimotope identification

The 12-mer peptides displayed on M13 phage [ph.D.-12TM Phage Display Peptide Library Kit (New England BioLabs, Massachusetts, USA)] was used to identify phage mimotopes (peptides) of the rM2 specific-HuScFv. Each well of an ELISA plate was coated with 1 µg of individual HuScFv in 100 µl of PBS at 4 °C for 16 hours. After washing the unbound protein with TBST, the coated wells were blocked with 3% BSA in TBS at 4 °C for 1 hour. Peptide displaying phages (100 µl of diluted 1:100 in TBST which contained $\sim 1.5 \times 10^{11}$ pfu) was added to the HuScFv coated well. The plate was agitated gently on a rocking platform at 25 °C for 1 hour. After extensive washing to remove unbound phages, HuScFv bound phages were eluted from the well surface by adding 100 µl of 0.2 M glycine-HCl, pH 2.2 (**Appendix I**) into the well and kept at 25 °C for 10 minutes. The eluate was added to a tube containing 15 µl of 2 M Tris-base solution (**Appendix I**) to neutralize the pH of the phage suspension. The phages were amplified by infecting 20 ml of early log phase ER2738 *E. coli* ($OD_{600nm} \sim 0.3-0.4$) at 37 °C with shaking at 250 rpm for 4 hours. After removing the bacterial cells by centrifugation, the amplified phages in the supernatant were precipitated by adding 1/6 volume of PEG/NaCl (**Appendix I**) and the mixture was kept on ice at 4 °C for 16 hours before centrifugation. The phages in the pellet were re-suspended in 0.1% TBST and used in the next round of bio-panning.

After three rounds of bio-panning, the eluted and neutralized phages from the last bio-panning round were diluted 1:1,000 with LB broth (**Appendix B**) and 10 µl of the diluted phage suspension were added to 200 µl of log phase ER2738 *E. coli* and the mixture was incubated at 25 °C for 5 minutes. The mixture was then added to 3 ml of 45 °C pre-warmed-top agarose and poured onto LB agar plate containing IPTG and X-gal. On the next day, phage titer was calculated from the number of blue plaques appeared on the agar plate.

The blue plaques of phages from the third round of bio-panning were individually picked and allowed to infect 5 ml of ER2738 *E. coli* for 6 hours. After removing bacterial cells, 1 ml of the phages was mixed with glycerol at final concentration 20% and kept at -80 °C. The phage genome was extracted from the culture supernatant by using equal volume of phenol/chloroform. A volume of the upper phase (900 µl) of the extraction mixture was collected and 900 µl of absolute ethanol were added to precipitate the phage DNA. DNA pellet was washed by adding 500 µl of 70% ethanol and centrifuged. The preparation was air-dried before re-suspending in 50 µl of UDW. The DNA was subjected to 0.8% agarose gel electrophoresis, ethidium bromide staining and visualized by UV-transilluminator before DNA sequencing by using 96 sequencing primer (5'-gccctcatagttagcgtaacg-3') according to kit manual protocol. The DNA sequences were translated by using TRANSEQ program and the peptide sequences (phage mimotopes) were aligned with monomeric or tetrameric M2 linear sequences of drug sensitive and resistant A/H5N1 viruses (Accession numbers AY651385.1 for clade 1 and AB478035.1 for clade 2) by using CLUSTALW 2.0.5 multiple sequence alignments for identification of presumptive M2 residues bound by the HuScFv (epitopes).

4.13.2 ELISA inhibition for verification of the phage mimotopes

Phage clones displaying the mimotopes that bound to the HuScFv were tested in competitive ELISA for determining their capacity in blocking the binding HuScFv to rM2. Mimotopic phages were propagated in ER2738 *E. coli* and the titers of the amplified phages were determined according to manufacturer's instruction. Various amounts (10^4 , 10^5 and 10^6 plaque forming units; pfu) of the phages (50 µl) were mixed individually with fixed amount of HuScFv (5 µg in 50 µl) and incubated at 37 °C for 1 hour. The HuScFv mixed with irrelevant phage mimotope [CF-6 (mimotope specific to Can f1): HIWWGPQPWMEP] served as background inhibition control and HuScFv in buffer were negative inhibition controls (maximum binding, 100%). After adding individual mixtures to the rM2 coated wells and incubated, all wells were washed and mouse monoclonal anti-E tag antibody, goat anti-mouse IgG-HRP conjugate and ABTS substrate were added, respectively, with washing between steps. OD_{405nm} of the content of each wells were determined against the background

binding controls. The % ELISA inhibition was calculated: % ELISA inhibition = $[(OD_{405nm} \text{ of maximum binding} - OD_{405nm} \text{ of test}) \div (OD_{405nm} \text{ maximum binding})]$.

4.14 Homology modeling and molecular docking to determine the regions and residues of tetrameric M2 ion channel bound by HuScFv

The selected HuScFv and M2 amino acid sequences were identified by using a Discovery studio (DS) database. Three dimensional (3D) structures of the sequences that provided maximum identities were used as templates for homology modeling. The modeled structures were validated by PROCHECK analysis. Complex structures between the modeled rM2 and HuScFv were predicted by using rigid bodies docking technique. The ZDOCK and RDOCK modules embedded on Discovery Studio program were used as tools for docking calculation and structural refinement, respectively. The modelled M2 was set as input receptor and the HuScFv as ligands. The dock complexes with the lowest RDOCK energy were determined for identification of the regions and residues of the tetrameric M2 ion channel interacting with the HuScFv.

4.15 Multiple alignments of M2 sequences of various subtypes and H5N1 clades causing human influenza infection

The M2 amino acid sequences of type A (AM2) influenza including H1N1, H3N2, H5N1 (clades 0, 1, 2 and 7 which infect humans), H7N3, H7N9 and H9N2 were retrieved from Influenza virus resource database available from the NCBI database (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/protein>). Multiple alignments were performed by using program MAFFT version 7. The alignments were verified following the algorithm of semi-homology. The verification concerned the possible genetic relationship between compared positions which were possible replacements by single transition/transversion.

4.16 Determination of hemagglutination inhibition (HI) activity of HA1-specific-HuScFv against 4HAU of H1N1/2009 virus

Hemagglutination inhibition assay (HI) was used for testing *in vitro* activity of the HA1 specific HuScFv in inhibiting the influenza virus binding to the host cell receptors. HuScFv derived from individual *E. coli* lysates were standardized based on the Western blot band intensities. Serial dilutions of the standardized HuScFv were prepared in wells of a microtiter plate (25 μ l per well). Equal volumes of the virus containing 4 HAU were added to all wells and the plate was kept at 25 °C for 1 hour. Vaccinated/convalescent human serum against was used as positive inhibition control. Fifty μ l of the 1% group O hRBC in PBS was added to each well and the plate was kept until 100% hemagglutination appeared in the hemagglutination positive control wells or well that contained only lysate of *E. coli* carrying only phagemid (no HuScFv), virus and hRBC. Wells that contained only the hRBC and PBS (without the virus; negative hemagglutination control) showed a button-like appearance at the well bottom. The HI titer is the highest dilution of HuScFv that caused complete inhibition of the 4 HAU of the virus.

4.17 Determination of ability of the M2 specific-HuScFv in inhibition of the bio-functions of their respective antigen

4.17.1 Determination of the ability of M2 specific-HuScFv in inhibiting influenza A virus forming macroautophagy (accumulation of autophagosomes) in infected cells

4.17.1.1 Protocol of neutralization [HuScFv mediated interference of macroautophagy (accumulation of autophagosomes) in influenza virus infected cells]

Influenza A viruses, subtype H5N1/NP172 (MOI 0.5) were allowed to infect the MDCK cells in 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37 °C for 1 hour. After washing to remove extracellular viruses, the purified HuScFv from individual *E. coli* clones, pAb-M2, and rimantadine in viral growth medium were added to individual

wells and incubated further in 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37 °C for 24 hours. Then cells in each well were collected. The amounts of LC3-II mRNA were determined by using qPCR in comparison with positive virus infected cell control (MDCK cells infected with the viruses) and normal MDCK cells.

4.17.1.2 Detection of macroautophagosome formation with LC3-II mRNA by using qPCR

Total RNA was extracted from the virus infected cells by using total RNA purification kit (Jena Bioscience, Jena, Germany). The amount of total RNA in each preparation was measured by using NanoDrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer and kept at -80 °C until use. In each qPCR reaction, 200 ng of total RNA of the infected cells/controls were subjected to viral RNA quantification using 1-step Brilliant II SYBR green qRT-PCR master mix kit (Agilent Technologies, California, USA). Each PCR master mix (12.5 µl) was prepared on ice with 2xBrilliant II SYBR® Green QRT-PCR Master Mix, RT/RNase block enzyme, 200 nM of each primer specific to gene sequence coding for *LC3-II*: forward 5'-gagaagcagcttctctgttctgg-3' and reverse 5'-gtgtccgttcaccaacagcaag-3', primer specific to gene sequence coding for influenza A virus *M1*: forward 5'-cttctaaccgaggtcgaatcgta-3' and reverse 5'-tccatgagagcctcgagat-3', and RNA template. For total RNA from infected cell, amount of total RNA was normalized again with house-keeping gene, *β-actin*. The primers specific to the *β-actin* gene coding sequence were: forward 5'-gagcgggaaatcgtgcgtg-3' and reverse 5'-gaaggtagttcgtggatg-3'. The qPCR was performed using Mx 3000PTM instrument (Stratagene, California, USA). The reaction mixture and the qPCR condition are shown below:

Real-time RT-PCR reaction mixture:

Ingredient	Volume (μl)
Brilliant II SYBR [®] Green QRT-PCR master mix, 2x	6.25
Forward primer (10 μ M): <i>LC3-II</i> , <i>M1</i> or <i>β-actin</i>	0.2
Reverse primer (10 μ M): <i>LC3-II</i> , <i>M1</i> or <i>β-actin</i>	0.2
RT/RNase block enzyme	0.1
RNA sample	x
UDW	5.75-x
Total	12.5

The thermal cycle program was set as the following:

1. Reverse transcription at 42 °C for 1 hour
2. First denaturation at 95 °C for 10 minutes
3. Denaturation at 95 °C for 1 minute
4. Annealing at 58 °C for 1 minute
5. Extension at 72 °C for 1 minute
6. Repeat steps 2-4 for 40 cycles
7. Analysis the dissociation curve and melting temperature: 95 °C for 1 min then ramped down to 55 °C (0.5 °C/s) for 45 seconds and ramped up to 95 °C

4.18 Statistical analysis

Means and standard deviations (SD) of \log_2 of M1 mRNA derived from triplicate cell culture wells of three independent experiments were used for comparison between tests and controls. *P* value < 0.05 of unpaired *t*-test was taken as significant difference by using SPSS program.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

5.1 Production and purification of recombinant influenza proteins [HA (HA0, HA1 and HA2), NA, M2, and NP]

5.1.1 Results of molecular cloning of cDNA of HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences

The recombinant HA (rHA) was designed into 3 types (rHA0, rHA1 and rHA2) which depended on topology and functions of HA protein. The rHA0 or full length rHA consists of HA1 and HA2 divided by cleavage site of protease enzyme, and this rHA0 composes of amino acid residue 37 to 585 (548 residue) which deleted signal peptide sequences. The rHA1 is the globular head of HA protein containing receptor-binding site that composes of amino acid residue 37 to 401 (364 residue). The rHA2 is stem of the HA protein containing fusion peptide that is important for fusion with host cell membrane in virus uncoating and this rHA2 composes of amino acid residue 401 to 585 (184 residue). The schematic of recombinant HA (rHA0, rHA1 and rHA2) show in **Figure 5.1**.

5.1.1.1 Viral RNA extraction

Total RNA of influenza virus A/Thailand/CU41/2006 (H1N1) was extracted from supernatant of infected MDCK cells. The ratio of optical densities at $A_{260\text{nm}}$ and $A_{280\text{nm}}$ of the preparation was 2.14 implying high purity of the preparation.

5.1.1.2 Complementary DNA (cDNA) synthesis and amplification of cDNA of HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences

First strand cDNA was synthesized from the viral RNA by using Uni-12 primers. Then the cDNA was used as a template for amplification of cDNA of HA0-, HA1- and HA2- coding sequences by using HA specific primers set

from **Table 4.2** of **Chapter IV**. The HA₀₃₇₋₅₈₅, HA₁₃₇₋₄₀₁ and HA₂₄₀₂₋₅₈₅ cDNA amplified products (1,644, 1,092 and 552 bp) are shown in **Figure 5.1**.

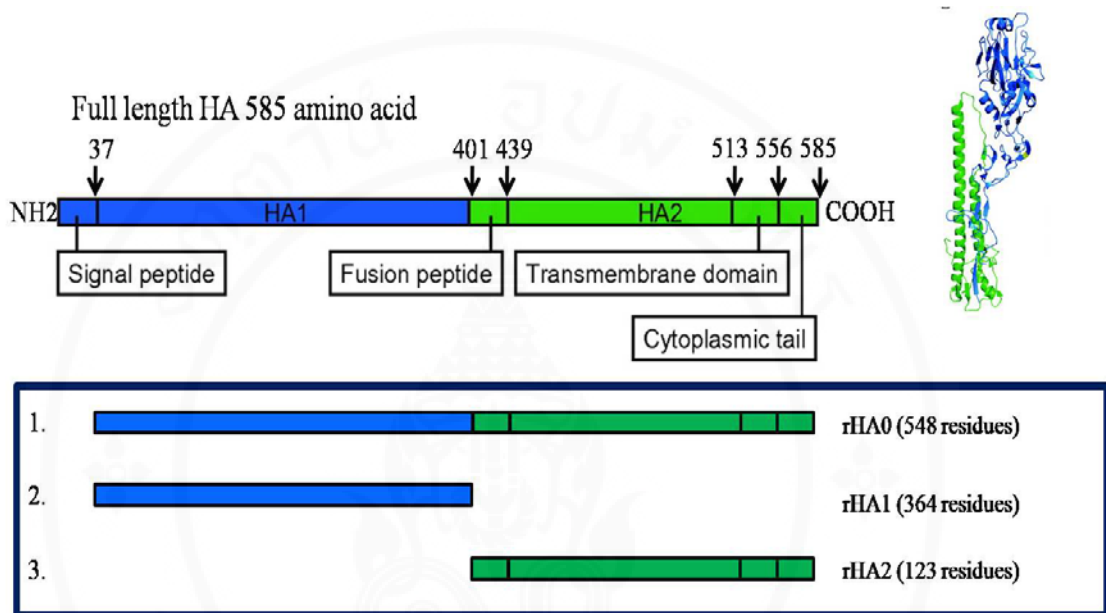


Figure 5.1 Schematic picture of the HA protein and the recombinant HA (rHA0, rHA1 and rHA2). The HA protein is divided into 2 parts (HA1 and HA2) depended on topology and their functions. The recombinant HA (rHA0, rHA1 and rHA2) show in blue box.

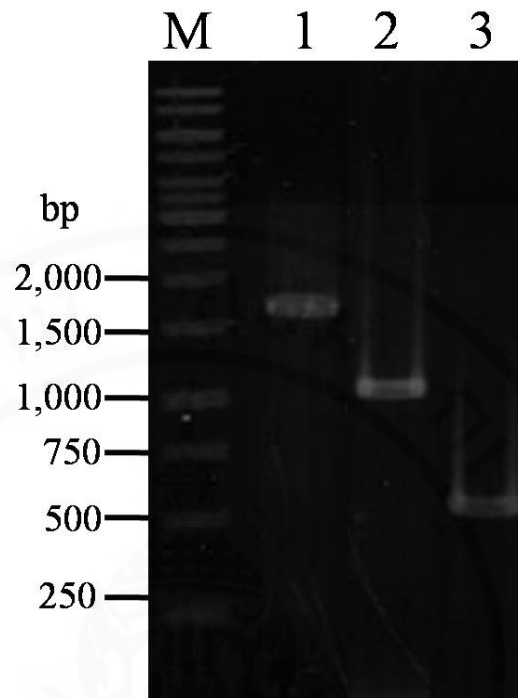


Figure 5.2 PCR amplicons of cDNA of HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences

Lane M, GeneRuler 1 kb DNA ladder

Lane 1, PCR amplicon of cDNA of HA0-coding sequence

Lane 2, PCR amplicon of cDNA of HA1-coding sequence

Lane 3, PCR amplicon of cDNA of HA2-coding sequence

Numbers at the left are DNA sizes in bp

5.1.1.3 Cloning of the HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences into cloning vector and introduction of the recombinant plasmids into competent *E. coli* (bacterial transformation)

HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences were separately ligated into TOPO[®] cloning vectors before introducing individual recombinant plasmids into the competent JM109 *E. coli*. Ten white colonies of the bacterial transformants that grown on each selective agar plates after incubation at 37 °C overnight were randomly selected and used as the templates for amplification of the HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences. It was found that some colonies revealed amplicons of the *ha0*, *ha1* and *ha2* gene inserts seen as DNA bands at ~1,800, 1,200 and 600 bp (including flanking region from M13 primer ~100 bp), respectively (**Figure 5.3**).

5.1.1.4 Extraction of the recombinant plasmids with the HA0, HA1 and HA2 gene inserts from the JM109 *E. coli* transformants and endonuclease digestions of the recombinant plasmids

Recombinant plasmids with the *ha0*, *ha1* and *ha2* gene inserts were extracted from the JM109 *E. coli* colonies of **section 4.2.1.11** by alkaline lysis method (lane 1-3 of **Figure 5.4**). After digesting doubly with *Bam*HI and *Hind*III, the cloning vectors were linearized as shown as an upper band (~2,500 bp) of **Figure 5.4**, while the band of HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences are as lower DNA bands at ~1,700, 1,100 and 500 bp, respectively (**lane 4, 5, and 6 of Figure 5.4**).

5.1.1.5 Cloning of the cut recombinant plasmids into expression vectors and introduction of the HA0, HA1, HA2-expression vectors into the competent *E. coli* (bacterial transformation)

The doubly digested HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences and expression plasmids (pQE30 and pET23a⁺) previously cut with the same endonucleases were ligated, then the rHA0-pQE30 and rHA1-pQE30 are introduced into M15 *E. coli* and rHA2-pET23a⁺ are introduced into BL21 (DE3) *E. coli*. The transformants grown on the selective agar plates were screened for the HA0, HA1 and HA2 gene sequences by PCR using specific primers. **Figure 5.5** shows the presence of gene amplicons at ~ 1,700, 1,100 and 500 bp from the selected transformant clones which are the expected sizes of the HA0, HA1 and HA2 gene amplicons, respectively.

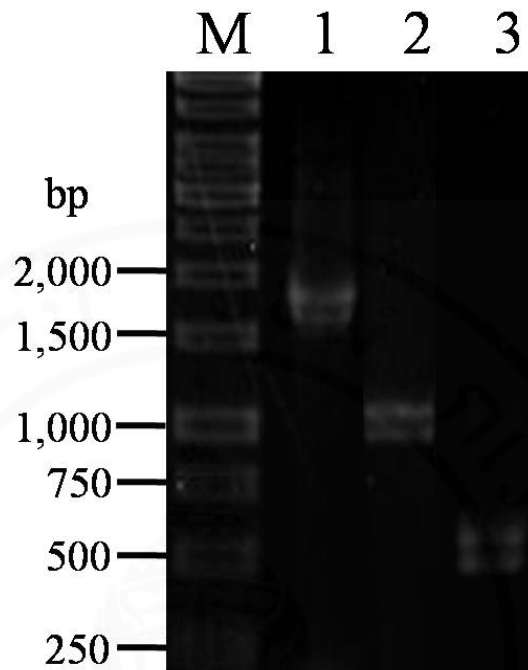


Figure 5.3 PCR amplicons of HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences (~1,800, 1,200 and 600 bp including flanking region from M13 primer ~100 bp) in TOPO[®] vectors amplified from randomized colonies (Figure shows representatives of positive clones) of JM109 *E. coli* as DNA templates (lanes 1-3); implying that all of the three representative colonies carried the recombinant plasmids with HA0, HA1 and HA2 DNA inserts, respectively.

Lane M, GeneRuler 1 kb DNA ladder

Lane 1, PCR amplicon of HA0-coding sequence in TOPO[®] vector

Lane 2, PCR amplicon of HA1-coding sequence in TOPO[®] vector

Lane 3, PCR amplicon of HA2-coding sequence in TOPO[®] vector

Numbers at the left are DNA sizes in bp

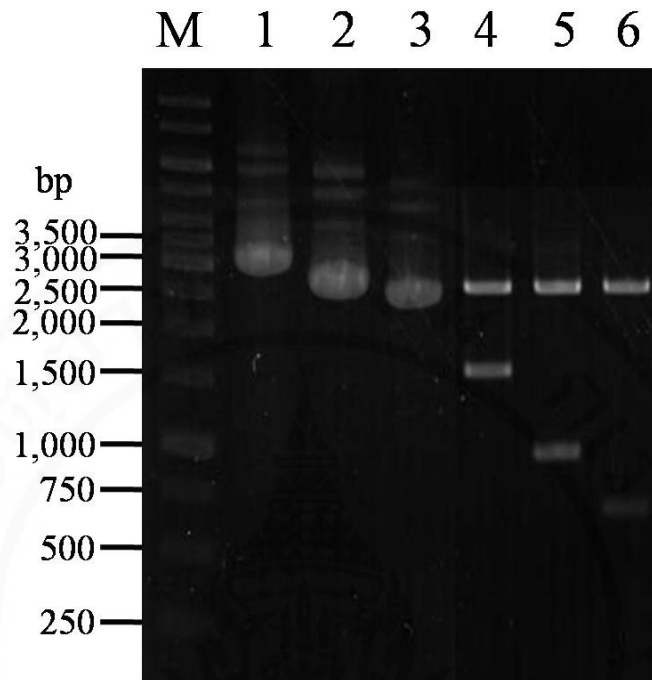


Figure 5.4 DNA patterns of cloning vectors harboring HA0-, HA1-, HA2-coding sequences extracted from JM109 *E. coli* transformants before and after restriction endonucleases digestion

Lane M, GeneRuler 1 kb DNA ladder

Lane 1, Recombinant plasmid DNA with HA0 gene insert

Lane 2, Recombinant plasmid DNA with HA1 gene insert

Lane 3, Recombinant plasmid DNA with HA2 gene insert

Lane 4, Recombinant plasmid DNA after *Bam*HI/*Hind*III restriction endonucleases digestion showing linearized vector (upper band) and HA0-coding sequence (lower band at ~1,700 bp)

Lane 5, Recombinant plasmid DNA after *Bam*HI/*Hind*III restriction endonucleases digestion showing linearized vector (upper band) and HA1-coding sequence (lower band at ~1,100 bp)

Lane 6, Recombinant plasmid DNA after *Bam*HI/*Hind*III restriction endonucleases digestion showing linearized vector (upper band) and HA2-coding sequence (lower band at ~500 bp)

Numbers at the left are DNA sizes in bp

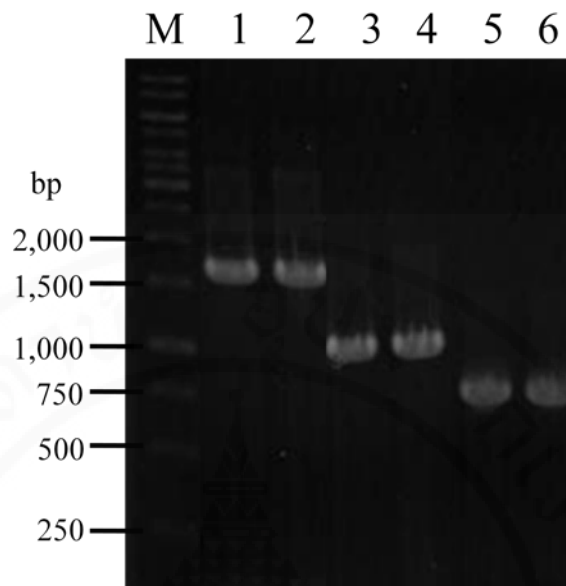


Figure 5.5 PCR amplicons of HA0-, HA1- and HA2-coding sequences in expression vectors (~1,700, 1,100 and 500 bp, respectively) from representative *E. coli* transformants

Lane M, GeneRuler 1 kb DNA ladder

Lane 1-2, Amplicons of HA0-coding sequences from two representative transformed M15 *E. coli* colonies

Lane 3-4, Amplicons of HA1-coding sequences from two representative transformed M15 *E. coli* colonies

Lane 5-6, Amplicons of HA2-coding sequences from two representative transformed BL21(DE3) *E. coli* colonies

Numbers at the left are DNA sizes in bp

For verification of amino acid sequences of the rHA0, rHA1 and rHA2, the recombinant plasmids were extracted and sequenced. The deduced amino acids which translated from nucleotide sequences were then aligned with the amino acid sequence coding for the influenza A virus HA from NCBI database. It was found that the cloned HA0, HA1 and HA2 deduced amino acids showed 100%, 99% and 100% identity, respectively, with the hemagglutinin amino acid sequence of influenza A virus [A/Thailand/CU41/2006 (H1N1) (accession number: ABS71664.1)] of the database which was used for preparing cDNA template for cloning (**Figures 5.6-5.8**).



Figure 5.6 Amino acid sequence which was deduced from the HA0-nucleotide sequence was subjected to BLASP search across HA0-coding sequence in the databases. (A), first ten amino acid sequences from NCBI database show that the rHA0 match with hemagglutinins of influenza A subtype H1N1. (B), the amino acid sequence of the cloned HA0 matched with 100% identity with the hemagglutinin of influenza A virus [A/Thailand/CU41/2006 (H1N1) (accession number: ABS71664.1)] of database which was used for preparing cDNA template for cloning of the HA0.

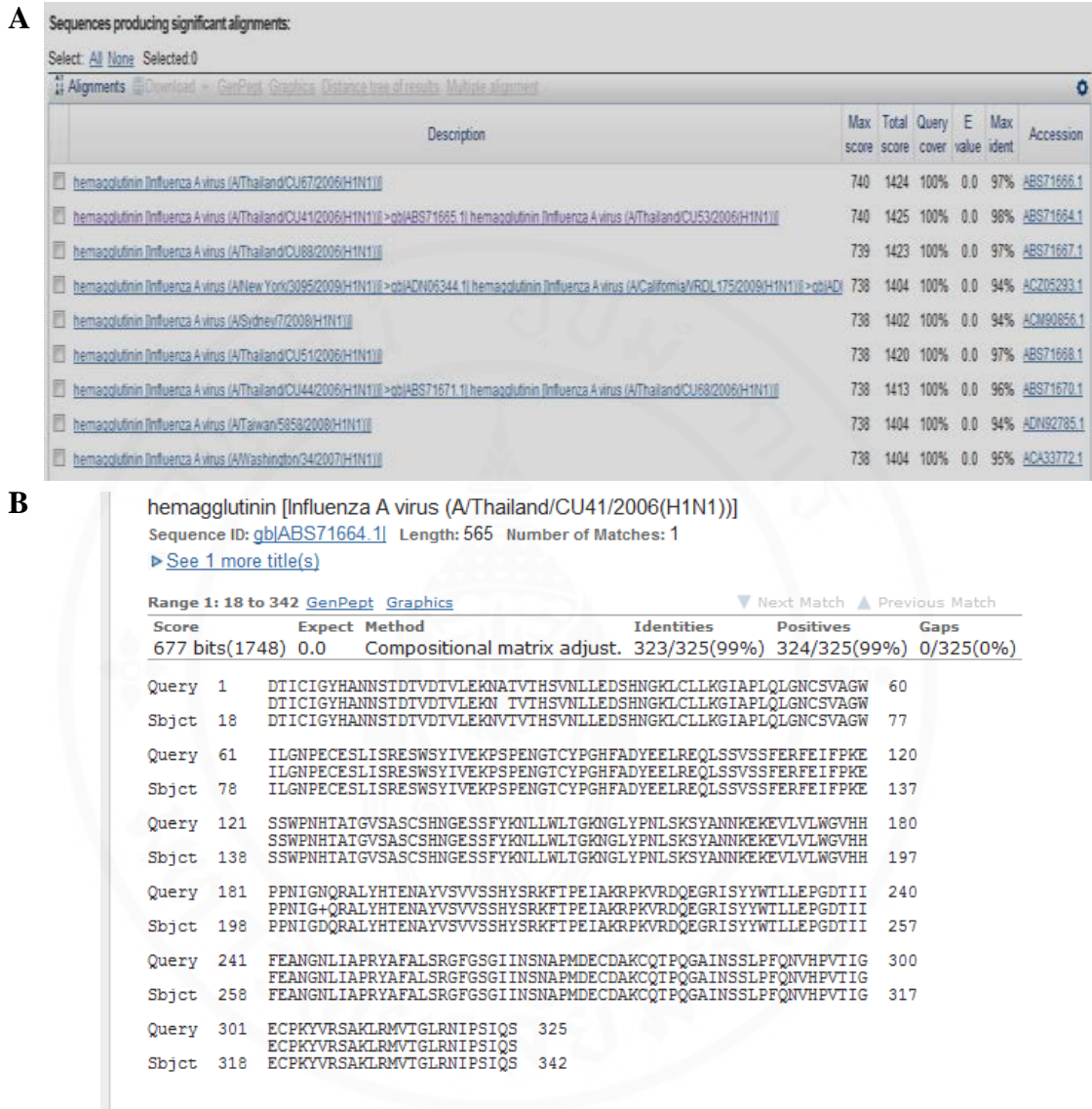


Figure 5.7 Amino acid sequence deduced from the HA1-nucleotide sequence was subjected to BLASTP search across HA1-coding sequence in the NCBI databases. (A), first ten amino acid sequences from NCBI database show that the rHA1 match with hemagglutinins of influenza A subtype H1N1. (B), the sequence of the cloned HA1 sequence matched with 99% identity (with V24A and D186N substitutions) with the hemagglutinin of influenza A virus [A/Thailand/CJ41/2006 (H1N1) (accession number: ABS71664.1)] of database which was used for preparing cDNA template for the HA1 cloning.

A Sequences producing significant alignments:

Select: All None Selected: 0

Alignments [Download] [GenPept] [Graphics] [Database tree of results] [Multiple alignment]

Description	Max score	Total score	Query cover	E value	Max ident	Accession
hemagglutinin Influenza A virus (A/Hong Kong/1131/1999(H1N1))	456	456	100%	7e-159	99%	AAK70464.1
hemagglutinin Influenza A virus (A/Novosibirsk/2/2009(H1N1))	460	460	100%	4e-158	100%	AD471158.2
hemagglutinin Influenza A virus (A/Boston/63/2009(H1N1))	460	460	100%	7e-158	100%	ADW10826.1
hemagglutinin Influenza A virus (A/Florida/03/2009(H1N1))	460	460	100%	7e-158	100%	ACU44379.1
hemagglutinin Influenza A virus (A/Missouri/05/2009(H1N1))	460	460	100%	7e-158	100%	AG55443.1
hemagglutinin Influenza A virus (A/Tianjin/15/2009(H1N1))	460	460	100%	8e-158	100%	ADP92455.1
hemagglutinin Influenza A virus (A/Hawaii/13/2009(H1N1))	460	460	100%	8e-158	100%	ACU44366.1
hemagglutinin Influenza A virus (A/Kuwait/WR41/119P/2009(H1N1))	460	460	100%	8e-158	100%	AET84229.2
hemagglutinin Influenza A virus (A/Canada/591/2004(H1N1))	460	460	100%	9e-158	100%	AF066235.1
hemagglutinin Influenza A virus (A/LongAn/HCM665/2006(H1N1))	460	460	100%	9e-158	100%	AEI34440.1

B hemagglutinin [Influenza A virus (A/Thailand/CU41/2006(H1N1))]
 Sequence ID: [gb|ABS71664.1](#) Length: 565 Number of Matches: 1
 ▶ See 1 more title(s)

Range 1: 345 to 565 [GenPept](#) [Graphics](#) ▼ Next Match ▲ Previous Match

Score	Expect	Method	Identities	Positives	Gaps
460 bits(1183)	1e-157	Compositional matrix adjust.	221/221(100%)	221/221(100%)	0/221(0%)
Query 1	LFGA IAGFIEGGW TGMVDGWYGYHHQNEQGS GYAADQKSTQNAINGITNKVNSVIEK MNT				60
Sbjct 345	LFGA IAGFIEGGW TGMVDGWYGYHHQNEQGS GYAADQKSTQNAINGITNKVNSVIEK MNT				404
Query 61	QFTAVGKEFNKLE RRMENLNKKVDDGFDIWTYNAELLV LLENERTLDFHDSNVKNLYEK				120
Sbjct 405	QFTAVGKEFNKLE RRMENLNKKVDDGFDIWTYNAELLV LLENERTLDFHDSNVKNLYEK				464
Query 121	VKSQ LKNNAKE I GNGCFE FYHKCNDECMESVKNGTYDYPKYSEESKLNREKIDGVKLESM				180
Sbjct 465	VKSQ LKNNAKE I GNGCFE FYHKCNDECMESVKNGTYDYPKYSEESKLNREKIDGVKLESM				524
Query 181	GVYQ I LAIYSTVASSLV LVLVSLG A ISFWMCSNGSLQCRICI		221		
Sbjct 525	GVYQ I LAIYSTVASSLV LVLVSLG A ISFWMCSNGSLQCRICI		565		

Figure 5.8 Amino acid sequences deduced from the HA2-nucleotide sequence was subjected to BLASTP search across HA2-coding sequence in the NCBI databases. (A), first ten amino acid sequences from NCBI database show that the rHA2 match with hemagglutinins of influenza A subtype H1N1. (B), the sequence of the cloned HA2 sequence matched with 100% identity with the hemagglutinin of influenza A virus [A/Thailand/CU41/2006 (H1N1) (accession number: ABS71664.1)] of database which was used for preparing cDNA template for HA2 cloning.

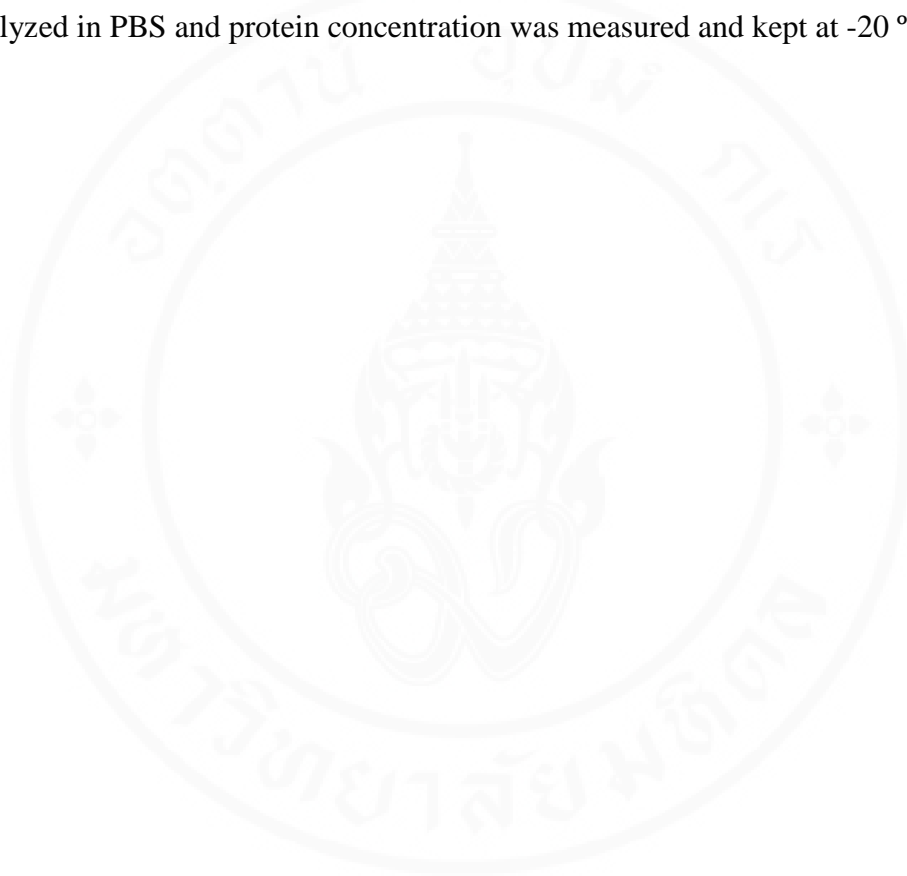
5.2 Production of recombinant HA (HA0, HA1, and HA2), NA, M2 and NP proteins

M15 *E. coli* clones carrying the recombinant expression plasmids with HA (HA0 and HA1) gene inserts and BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* clones carrying the recombinant expression plasmids with HA2, M2, or NP gene inserts were grown under optimal IPTG induction. The rHA0 and rHA1 with the 6xHis-tag at the N-termini (61 and 36 kDa) and the rHA2, rM2 and rNP proteins (24, 17, and 60 kDa, respectively) with the 6xHis-tag at the C-termini could be detected by Western blot analysis. **Figure 5.9** show only insoluble parts of the rHA0, rHA1, rHA2, rM2 and rNP, respectively which were detected by mouse monoclonal anti-6x-His antibody as the primary antibody for detecting the 6x-His tagged-HuScFv on Western blotting. The recombinant HA (HA0, HA1, and HA2), M2 and NP protein were successfully expressed by the respective transformed *E. coli* clones. The rNA protein (~44 kDa) with the 6xHis-tag at the C-terminus could be detected also by Western blot analysis as shown in **Figure 5.9**

5.3 Purification of the recombinant HA (HA0, HA1, and HA2), M2 and NP proteins

The recombinant HA (HA0, HA1, and HA2), M2 or NP proteins in the homogenate of transformed *E. coli* were affinity purified by using Ni-NTA resin under denaturing condition (solubilized in buffer containing 8 M urea). The resin-bound protein was eluted by using discontinuous gradients of imidazole. It was found that the recombinant proteins were present in some fractions after SDS-PAGE and CBB staining. **Figures 5.10A to 5.14A** show rHA (rHA0, rHA1, and rHA2), rM2, and rNP protein, respectively). These were confirmed by immune-detection by using anti-6xHis-tag antibody as shown the reactive bands in **Figures 5.10B to 5.14B**. The purified fractions containing the recombinant proteins were refolded and dialyzed against PBS until the molarity of the urea reduced to nil. The protein concentrations were measured and the preparations without glycerol preservation were kept at -20 °C until use.

The rM2 was also purified from the soluble *E. coli* fraction by using Ni-NTA beads under native condition. The resin bound protein was eluted by using discontinuous gradients of imidazole. It was found that the recombinant protein was present in some fractions after detecting by using SDS-PAGE and CBB staining (**Figure 5.13C**) and Western blotting (**Figure 5.13D**). The purified protein was also dialyzed in PBS and protein concentration was measured and kept at -20 °C until use.



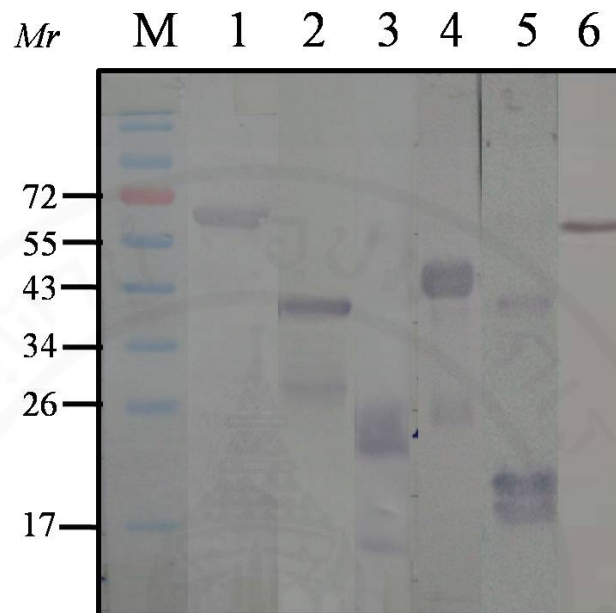


Figure 5.9 Patterns of HA (HA0, HA1, and HA2), NA, M2 and NP proteins in insoluble fractions of respective transformed *E. coli* clones.

Lanes M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard maker

Lane 1, Reactive band of recombinant HA0 (calculated 61 kDa)

Lane 2, Reactive band of recombinant HA1 (calculated 36 kDa)

Lane 3, Reactive band of recombinant HA2 (calculated 24 kDa)

Lane 4, Reactive band of recombinant NA (calculated 54 kDa)

Lane 5, Reactive bands of recombinant M2 [The lower band is mature rM2 (calculated 17 kDa); the upper band is rM2 linked with pelB1 leader peptide (calculated 21 kDa) of pET20b⁺ backbone and the uppermost band is suspected homodimeric rM2 (calculated 34 kDa)]

Lane 6, Reactive band of recombinant NP (calculated 60 kDa)

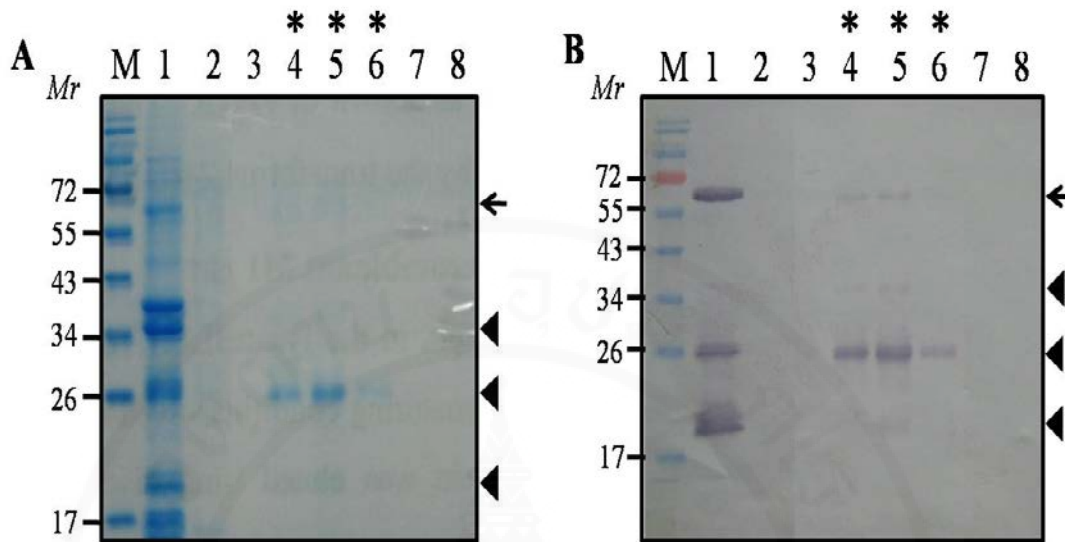


Figure 5.10 Results of recombinant HA0 purification by using Ni-NTA resin under denaturing condition

(A), SDS-PAGE-separated HA0 proteins in gel stained with CBB dye. (B), Western blot patterns of the SDS-PAGE-separated HA0 probed with anti-6xHis-tag antibody

- Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard marker
- Lane 1, Homogenate of M15 *E. coli* harboring recombinant *ha0*-plasmids
- Lane 2, Unbound *E. coli* protein fraction
- Lanes 3-8, Eluted protein fraction no. 1-6
[50, 100, 150, 200, 200 and 250 mM of imidazole, respectively]

Arrows indicate the location of intact recombinant HA0 protein (61 kDa)

Arrow heads indicate degraded rHA0 at ~34, 26 and 20 kDa

* indicated positive eluted fractions containing rHA0

Numbers as the left of both blocks are relative molecular masses (*Mr*) of proteins

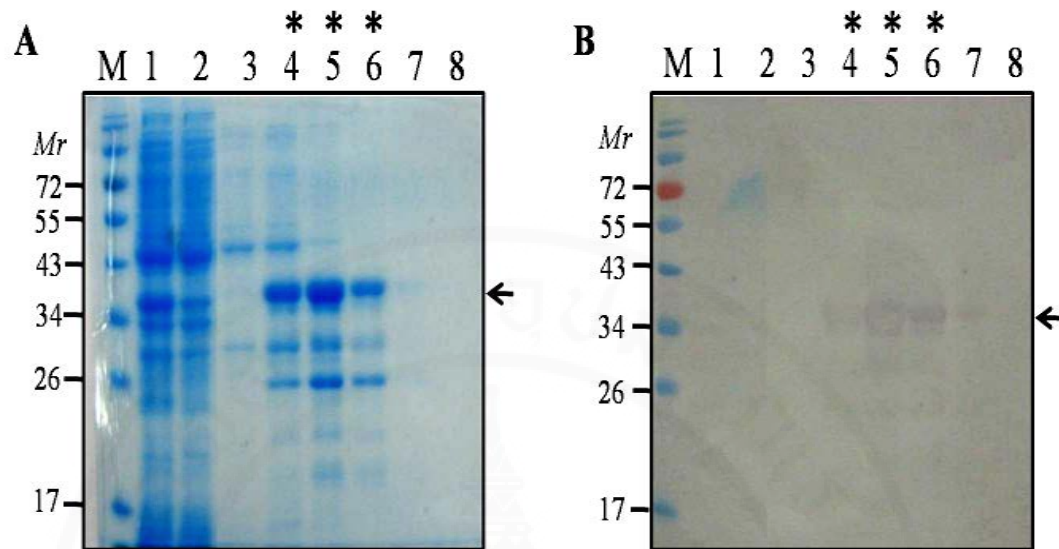


Figure 5.11 Results of recombinant HA1 purification by using Ni-NTA resin under denaturing condition

(A), SDS-PAGE-separated HA1 protein in gel stained with CBB dye. (B), Western blot patterns of the SDS-PAGE-separated HA1 protein probed with anti-6xHis-tag antibody.

Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard marker

Lane 1, Homogenate of M15 *E. coli* harboring recombinant *hal*-plasmids

Lane 2, Unbound *E. coli* protein fraction

Lanes 3-8, Eluted protein fraction no. 1-6

[50, 100, 150, 200, 200 and 250 mM of imidazole, respectively]

Arrows indicate the location of recombinant HA1 protein

* indicated positive eluted fractions containing rHA1

Numbers as the left of both blocks are relative molecular masses (*Mr*) of proteins

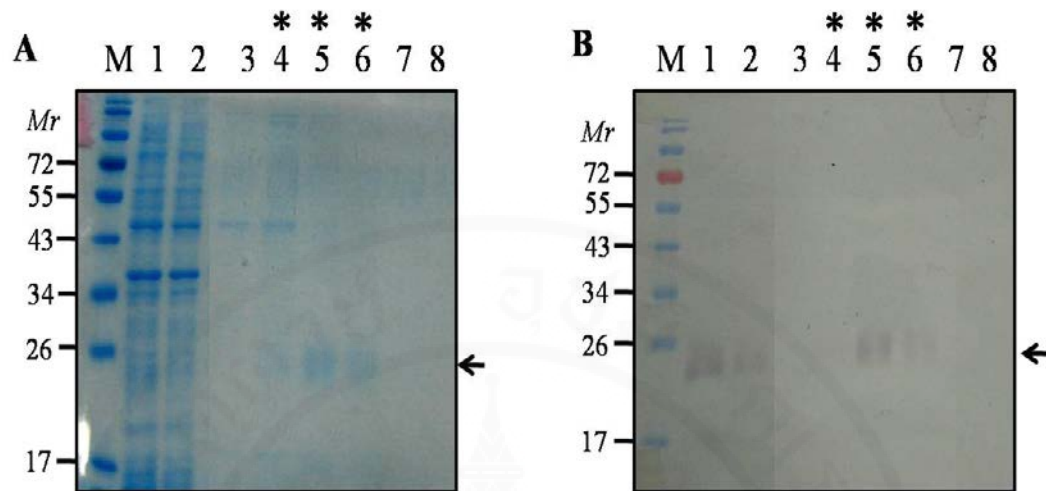


Figure 5.12 Results of recombinant HA2 purification by using Ni-NTA resin under denaturing condition.

(A), SDS-PAGE-separated HA2 proteins in gel stained with CBB dye. (B), Western blot patterns of the SDS-PAGE-separated HA2 protein probed with anti-6xHis-tag antibody.

Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard marker

Lane 1, Homogenate of BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* harboring recombinant *ha2*-plasmids

Lane 2, Unbound *E. coli* protein fraction

Lanes 3-8, Eluted protein fraction no. 1-6

[50, 100, 150, 200, 200 and 250 mM of imidazole, respectively]

Arrows indicate the location of recombinant HA2 protein

* indicated positive eluted fractions containing rHA2

Numbers as the left of both blocks are relative molecular masses (*Mr*) of proteins

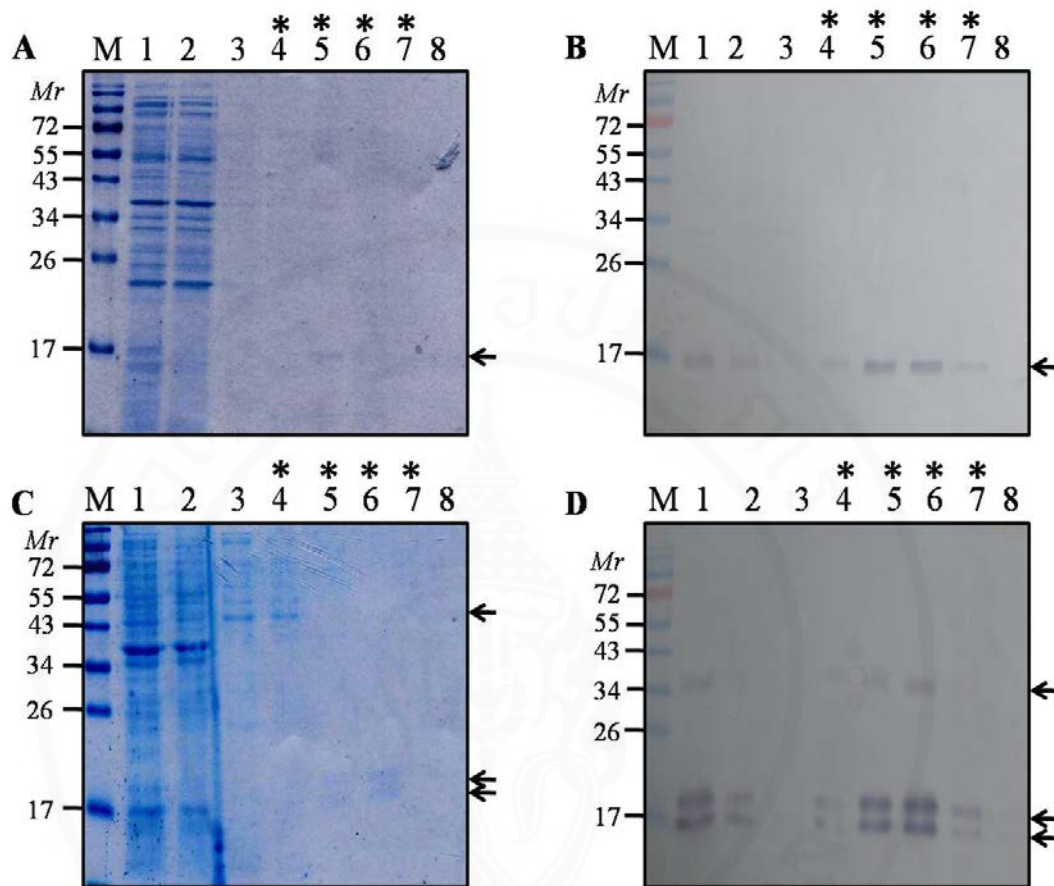


Figure 5.13 Results of recombinant M2 purification by using Ni-NTA resin.

(A and B), Soluble rM2 proteins were purified under native condition

(C and D), Insoluble rM2 proteins were purified under denaturing condition

(A and C), SDS-PAGE-separated M2 proteins in gel stained with CBB dye

(B and D), Western blot patterns of the SDS-PAGE-separated M2 proteins

probed with anti-6xHis-tag antibody

Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard marker

Lane 1, Homogenate of BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* harboring recombinant M2-plasmids

Lane 2, Unbound *E. coli* protein fraction

Lanes 3-8, Eluted protein fraction no. 1-6

[50, 100, 150, 200, 200 and 250 mM of imidazole, respectively]

Arrows indicate the location of recombinant M2 protein

* indicated positive eluted fractions containing rM2

Numbers as the left of all blocks are relative molecular masses (*Mr*) of proteins

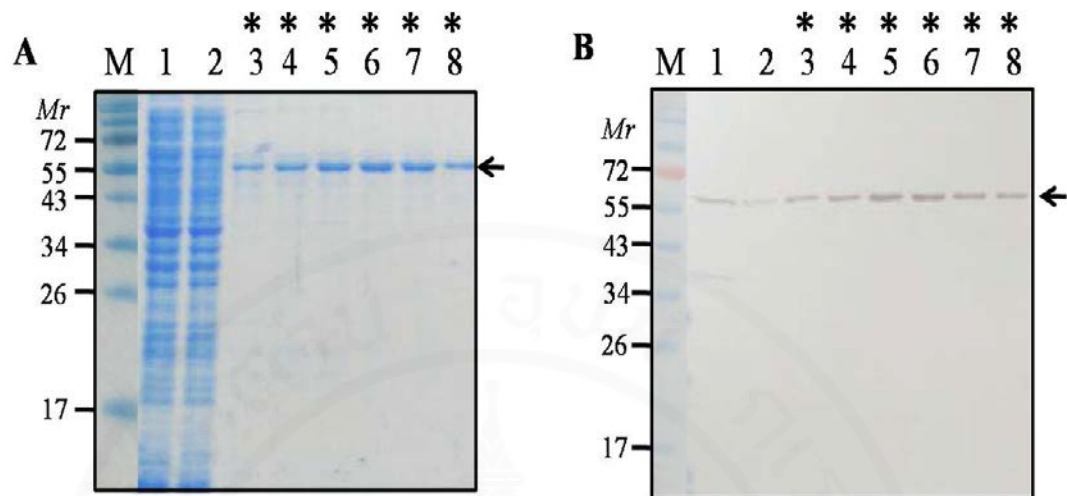


Figure 5.14 Results of recombinant NP purification by using Ni-NTA resin
(A), SDS-PAGE-separated NP proteins in gel stained with CBB dye. **(B)**, Western blot patterns of the SDS-PAGE-separated rNP probed with anti-6xHis-tag antibody.

- Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard marker
- Lane 1, Homogenate of BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* harboring recombinant NP-plasmids
- Lane 2, Unbound *E. coli* protein fraction
- Lanes 3-8, Eluted protein fraction no. 1-6
 [50, 100, 150, 200, 200 and 250 mM of imidazole, respectively]

Arrows indicate the location of recombinant NP protein

* indicated positive eluted fractions containing rNP

Numbers as the left of both blocks are relative molecular masses (*Mr*) of proteins

5.4 Production of mouse polyclonal antibodies to recombinant H1, N1, M2 and NP

All animal experiments were approved by Veterinary Science-Animal Care and Use Committee (FVS-AUCU), Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Kasetsart University, Thailand. The certificate ID number of animal experiment is ACKU 03455 (Appendix J).

Four groups of five ICR mice each were prepared. They were immunized with the purified recombinant H1, N1, M2 or NP as described in section 4.4 of Chapter IV. The individual immune mouse sera were tested by an indirect ELISA against the homologous antigens. The mouse sera showed the IgG ELISA titers equal to or higher than 1:12,800. The binding specificity of polyclonal antibodies against their respective recombinant H1, N1, M2 or NP was verified by using Western blotting (Figure 5.15). The purified recombinant proteins were used as target antigens and probed with their respective polyclonal antibodies. The mouse hyperimmune serum (the IgG ELISA titers equal to or higher than 1:12,800) to rNA was a kind gift from Assist. Prof. Dr. Potjanee Srimanote.

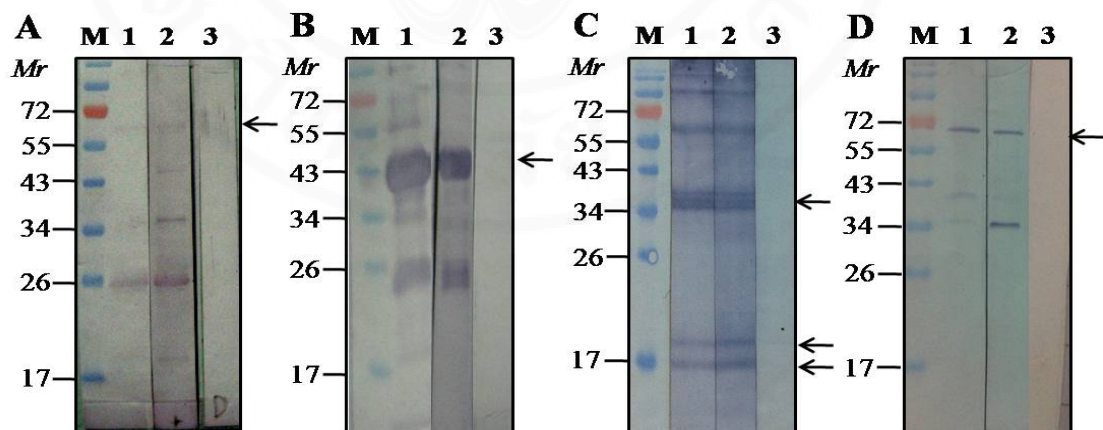


Figure 5.15 The binding specificity of polyclonal antibodies against their recombinant H1, N1, M2 or NP (A, B, C, and D, respectively)

- Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard marker
- Lane 1, Recombinant protein probed with anti 6xHis tag antibody
- Lane 2, Recombinant protein probed with respective polyclonal antibody
- Lane 3, Recombinant protein probed with diluents control

Arrows indicate the location of intact recombinant H1, N1, M2 or NP protein

5.5 Selection of phage clones harboring Human single chain antibody fragment gene (*huscfv*) and displaying the respective pIII-HuScFv that bound to the native HA, NA and M2 on influenza virus particle

5.5.1 Phages bio-panning with the native HA, NA and M2 on influenza virus particles adsorbed on human red blood cell ghosts

H1N1/2009 virus-adsorbed hRBC ghosts from **section 4.5.2.2** of **Chapter IV** were used as the target antigens in the phage bio-panning process (**section 4.5.2.3.3** of **Chapter IV**). After eluting the phages that bound to the target antigens on the hRBC ghost, the phages were allowed to infect the HB2151 *E. coli*. One hundred *E. coli* transformants were randomly selected from the selective agar plate. They were screened for the presence of *huscfv* by PCR using the phagemid specific pCANTAB-*R1* and pCANTAB-*R2* primers. Among the 100 screened colonies from bio-panning with H1N1/2009 virus-adsorbed hRBC ghosts, 34 clones (34%) revealed the *huscfv* amplicon at size ~1,000 bp (**Figure 5.16** show the representative clones (Lanes no. 3-6, 10, 11, and 15) that gave the *huscfv* amplicon at size ~1,000 bp).

5.5.2 Screening of the *huscfv*-phagemid transformed HB2151 *E. coli* clones that could produce soluble HuScFv

All of the 34 *huscfv*-positive HB2151 *E. coli* clones were grown under 0.5 mM IPTG induction and their cell lysates were analyzed for the presence of the soluble HuScFv by Western blot analysis (see method in **section 4.7** of **Chapter IV**) and 20 *E. coli* clones could express the soluble HuScFv which appeared as reactive bands at *Mr* ~26-35 kDa (**Figure 5.15**).

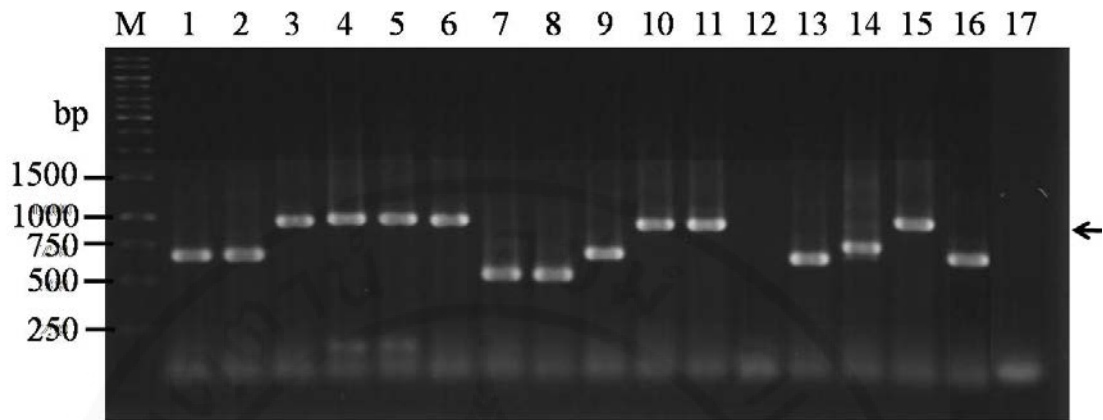


Figure 5.16 Amplicons of *huscfv* in representative phagemid transformed HB2151 *E. coli* clones

Lane M, GeneRuler 1 kb DNA ladder

Lanes 3-6, 10, 11 and 15 were positive for the *huscfv* in HB2151 *E. coli* Clones

Lane no. 12 was negative for the *huscfv* in HB2151 *E. coli* Clones (No insertion of *huscfv* in pCANTAB5E phagemid)

Arrows indicate the location of the expective *huscfv* amplicons (~1,000 bp)

Arrow head indicate the area of shorter PCR amplicons (~500- 750 bp) in lane no. 1-2, 7-9, 13, 14 and 16

Numbers at the left are DNA sizes in bp

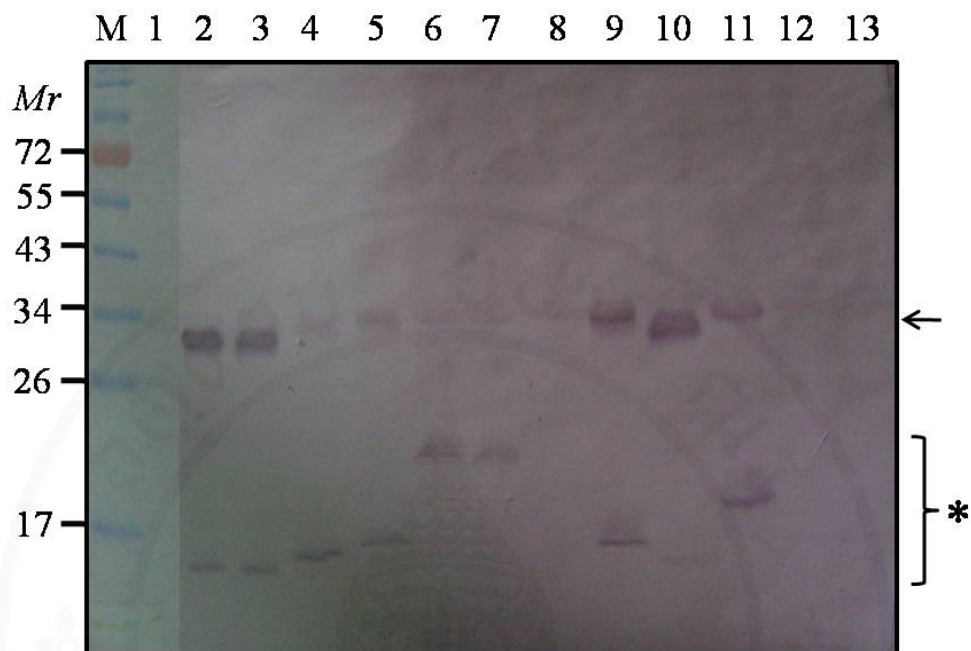


Figure 5.17 Western blot results for detection of HuScFv in lysates the representative *huscfv*-pCANTAB5E-transformed HB2151 *E. coli* colonies

Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard

Lane 1, Lysate of HB2151 *E. coli* without *huscfv*-phagemid

Lanes 2, 3 and 9-11, HuScFv in lysates *huscfv*-phagemid transformed HB2151 *E. coli* clones (~26-35 kDa)

Arrows indicate the location of the expected HuScFv protein

* indicate lower reactive bands of degraded products

5.6 Determination of the binding specificity of the HuScFv which selected from phage bio-panning with H1N1/2009 virus-adsorbed hRBC ghost

For determining binding activity specificity of HuScFv to the recombinant proteins (rHA0, rNA and rM2), cell lysates of the 20 transformed HB2151 *E. coli* clones that could express HuScFv from **section 5.5.2** were used in the indirect ELISA. BSA was used as an antigen control in the assay. Lysate of HB2151 *E. coli* without *huscfv*-phagemid and diluents were used as negative HuScFv control while the mPAb (**section 5.4**) was used as positive antibody controls. **Figures 5.18A-5.20A** show only 8 clones (clones no. 2, 10, 15, 26, 51, 53, 54 and 99) that gave positive results (significantly higher OD_{405nm} above lysate of HB2151 *E. coli* without HuScFv and more than 2x of the BSA control as a cut off criteria) in binding to recombinant proteins in indirect ELISA against rHA0, rNA1 and rM2, respectively. The OD_{405nm} of the positive control (mPAb) was high. Summary of binding activity and specificity of HuScFv against recombinant proteins by using indirect ELISA and Western blotting, respectively are shown in **Table 5.1**. In briefly, HuScFv of clones 2, 10, 26, 53, 54 and 99 bound to the rHA (**Figure 5.18A**), HuScFv of clones 2, 10, 26, 53 and 54 bound also to the rNA (**Figure 5.19A**), and HuScFv of clones 2, 10, 15, 26, 51 and 54 bound the rM2 (**Figure 5.20A**).

Table 5.1 Summary of the binding specificity of HuScFv against recombinant protein (HA0, NA and M2)

HuScFv clone no.	Recombinant protein					
	rHA0		rNA		rM2	
	Indirect ELISA	Western blotting	Indirect ELISA	Western blotting	Indirect ELISA	Western blotting
2	√	+	√	+	√	
10	√	+	√	+	√	
15					√	
26	√	+	√	+	√	
51					√	
53	√	+	√	+		
54	√	+	√	+	√	
99	√	+				

(√) positive binding by indirect ELISA against rHA0, rNA, or rM2

(+) positive binding by Western blotting against rHA0, rNA, or rM2

Binding specificity of the HuScFv to the recombinant proteins (rHA, rNA and rM2) were also determined by using Western blotting. The results of Western blotting show that all HuScFv that could bind to rHA0 (**Figure 5.18B**) and rNA (**Figure 5.97B**) in indirect ELISA also react to the recombinant target protein in Western blotting. However, the HuScFv that bound to rM2 in indirect ELISA could not bind to insoluble form rM2 protein on NC membrane (**Figure 5.20B**). Nevertheless, the HuScFv that gave positive results in binding to rM2 in indirect ELISA could bind to native M2 in homogenate of influenza A/H5N1 (**Figure 5.21A**) and A/H1N1(2009) (**Figure 5.21B**) infected MDCK cells.

From results of the determination of binding specificity to the target proteins by using indirect ELISA and Western blotting, the HuScFv could be divided according to their specific targets into 4 categories.

Table 5.2 Results of the determination of binding specificity to the target proteins by using indirect ELISA and Western blotting

Binding specificity	HuScFv clone no.
rHA0	99 [√]
rM2 (Indirect ELISA) and nM2* (Western blotting)	15 and 51 [√]
rHA0 and rNA	53 [√]
rHA0, rNA, rM2 (Indirect ELISA) and nM2* (Western blotting)	2, 10, 26 [√] and 54

[√] Selected for neutralization test and* lysate containing native M2 from A/H5N1 and A/H1N1 (2009)

From this summary, the HuScFv clone no. 26 (specific to HA, NA and M2), HuScFv clone no. 51 (specific to M2), HuScFv clone no. 53 (specific to HA and NA) and HuScFv of clone no. 99 (specific to HA) were selected for testing further in interfering with influenza virus replication cycle.

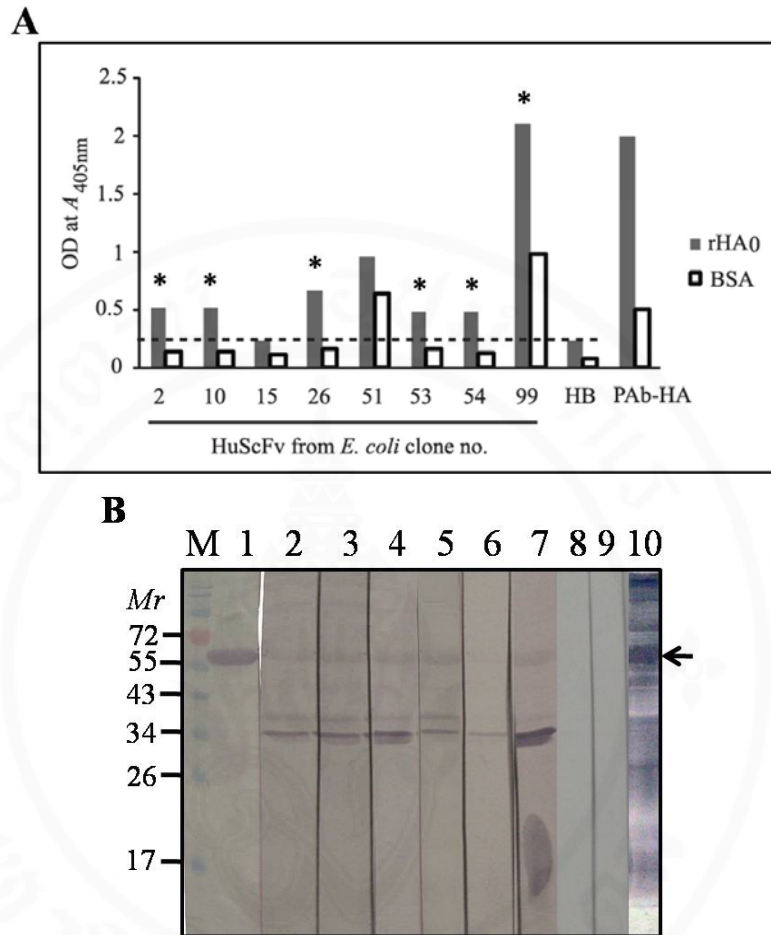


Figure 5.18 Results of indirect ELISA (**A**) and Western blotting (**B**) for determining the binding of HuScFv from eight *huscfv*-phagemid transformed-HB2151 *E. coli* clones to the rHA0.

In (**A**), * indicate positive binding and dash line indicate cut off criteria

In (**B**), Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard marker

Lane 1, SDS-PAGE separated rHA0 probed with anti-6x His tag

Lanes 2-7, SDS-PAGE separated rHA0 probed with lysates containing HuScFv of clones no. 2, 10, 26, 53, 54 and 99, respectively

Lane 8, SDS-PAGE separated the probed with diluent control

Lane 9, SDS-PAGE separated rHA0 probed with lysate of HB2151 *E. coli* without HuScFv

Lane 10, the rHA0 probed with mouse PAb-HA

Arrow indicates the location of intact recombinant HA0 protein (61 kDa)

Numbers as the left of the (**B**) block are relative molecular masses (*Mr*) of proteins

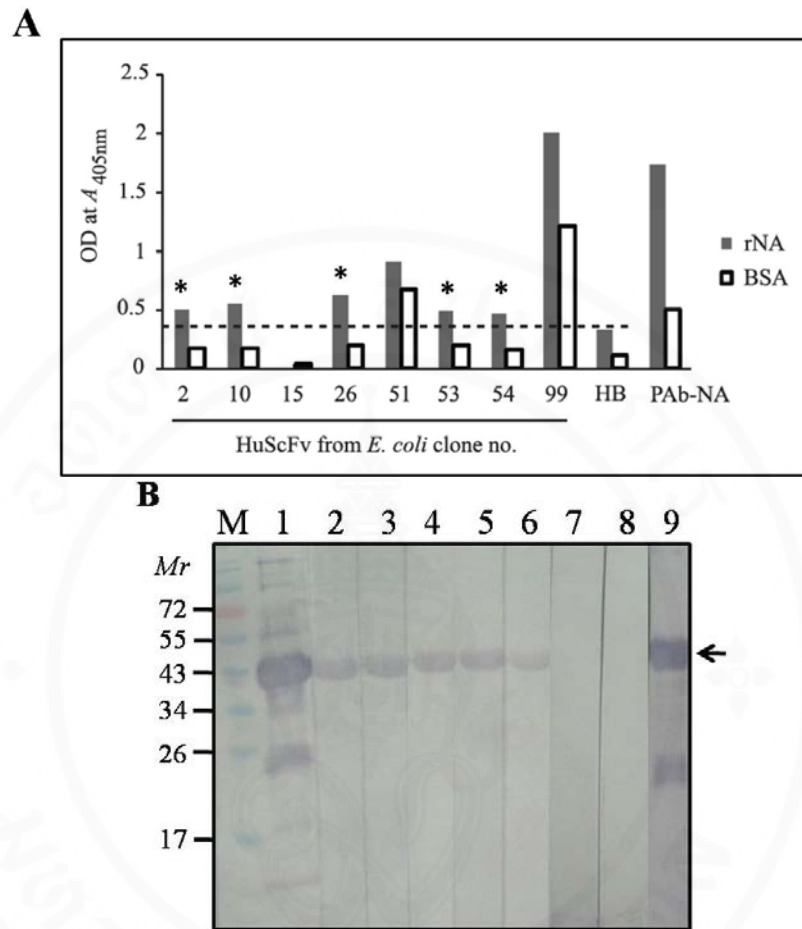


Figure 5.19 Results of indirect ELISA (**A**) and Western blotting (**B**) for determining the binding of HuScFv from eight *huscfv*-phagemid transformed-HB2151 *E. coli* clones to the rNA

In (**A**), * indicate positive binding and dash line indicate cut off criteria

In (**B**), Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard marker

Lane 1, SDS-PAGE separated rNA probed with anti-6x His tag

Lanes 2-7, SDS-PAGE separated rNA probed with lysates containing HuScFv of clones no. 2, 10, 26, 53 and 54, respectively

Lane 8, SDS-PAGE separated rNA probed with diluent control

Lane 9, SDS-PAGE separated rNA probed with lysate of HB2151 *E. coli* without HuScFv

Lane 10, SDS-PAGE separated rNA probed with mPAb to rNA

Arrow indicates the location of recombinant NA protein (54 kDa)

Numbers as the left of the (**B**) block are relative molecular masses (*Mr*) of Proteins

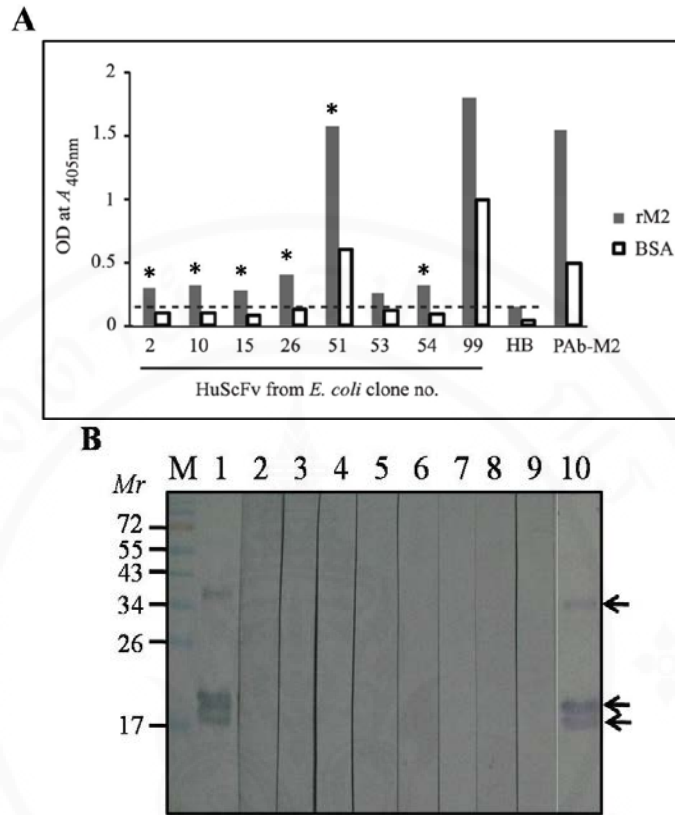


Figure 5.20 Results of indirect ELISA (A) and Western blotting (B) for determining the binding of HuScFv from eight *huscFv*-phagemid transformed-HB2151 *E. coli* clones to the rM2

In (A), * indicate positive binding and dash line indicate cut off criteria

In (B), Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard marker

Lane 1, SDS-PAGE separated rM2 probed with anti-6x His tag

Lanes 2-7, SDS-PAGE separated rM2 probed with lysates containing HuScFv of clones no. 2, 10, 15, 26, 51 and 54, respectively

Lane 8, SDS-PAGE separated rM2 probed with diluent control

Lane 9, SDS-PAGE separated rM2 probed with lysate of HB2151 *E. coli* without HuScFv

Lane 10, SDS-PAGE separated rM2 probed with mPAb to rM2 revealed dimeric rM2 (Upper arrow), immature rM2 with signal peptide (middle arrow) and monomeric rM2 (Lower arrow)

Numbers as the left of the B block are relative molecular masses (*Mr*) of proteins

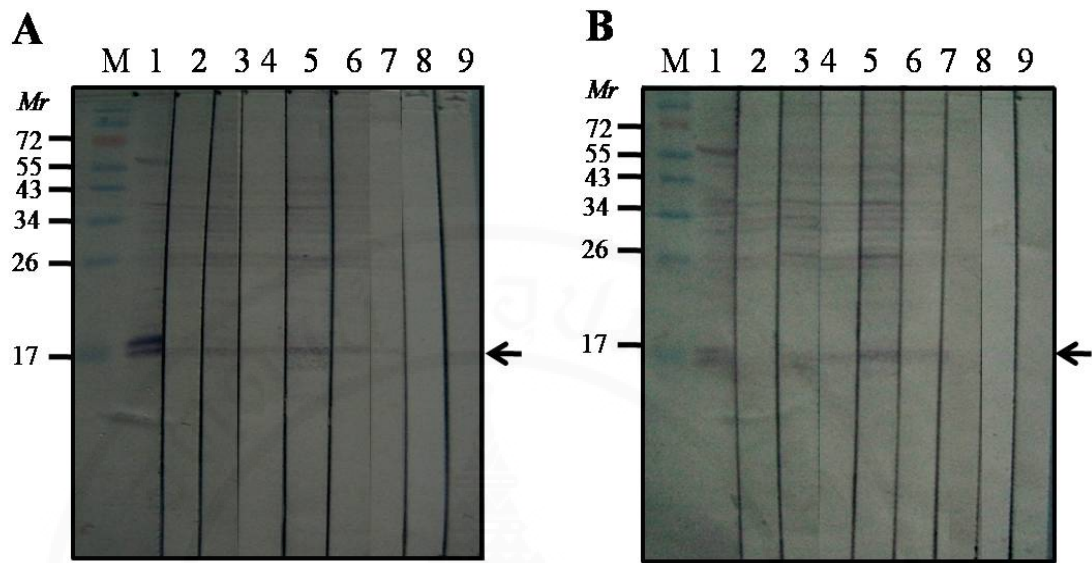


Figure 5.21 Western blot pattern of SDS-PAGE separated native M2 (nM2) in homogenate of MDCK cells infected cells with H5N1 (A) and homogenates of infected cells with H1N1/2009 (B) probed with HuScFv from huscfv-phagemid transformed *E. coli* clones that could bind to the rM2 in the indirect ELISA for determining the binding of HuScFv to native M2 protein

Lanes M of both A and B, Pre-stained broad range protein standard

Lanes 1 of both A and B, SDS-PAGE separated nM2 probed with mPAb to rM2

Lanes 2-7 of both A and B, SDS-PAGE separated rM2 probed with lysates containing HuScFv of clones no. 2, 10, 15, 26, 51 and 54, respectively

Lanes 8 of both A and B, SDS-PAGE separated rM2 probed with diluent control

Lanes 9 of both A and B, SDS-PAGE separated the rM2 probed with lysate of HB2151 *E. coli* without HuScFv

Arrows indicate the location of nM2 protein

Numbers as the left of both blocks are relative molecular masses (*Mr*) of proteins

5.7 Determination of the HA specific-HuScFv in inhibition of the hemagglutinin bio-function

5.7.1 Determination of the antigenic specificity of the HA-specific HuScFv to rHA1 or rHA2 by using indirect ELISA

HuScFv of *huscfv*-phagemid transformed *E. coli* clones that could bind to rHA0 of H1 were determined for binding specificity to rHA1 or rHA2 by using indirect ELISA before testing their ability in inhibiting the hemagglutinin bio-function. Cell lysates containing HA specific-HuScFv of clones no. 2, 10, 26, 53, 54 and 99 were used in the indirect ELISA using rHA1 or rHA2 as an antigen and BSA served as an antigen control. Lysate of HB2151 *E. coli* without HuScFv and diluents were used as negative controls while the mPAb to rHA were used as positive antibody control. **Figure 5.22A** shows that the HA specific-HuScFv of clones no. 2, 10, 26 and 54 gave OD_{405nm} value to rHA1 significantly higher than lysate of HB2151 *E. coli* alone and more than two times of the BSA control. HuScFv clone no. 53 and 99 gave significant OD_{405nm} to rHA2 (**Figure 5.22B**). The indirect ELISA results are summarized in **Table 5.3**.

The results indicated that HuScFv of clones no. 2, 10, 26 and 54 could bind to HA1 of the influenza virus HA. The HuScFv of these clones were tested for ability to inhibit hemagglutinin bio-function in the next experiment.

Table 5.3 Summary of antigenic specificities of HA specific-HuScFv

HuScFv clone no.	Recombinant protein	
	rHA1	rHA2
2	√	
10	√	
26	√	
53		√
54	√	
99		√

(√) positive binding by indirect ELISA against rHA1 or rHA2

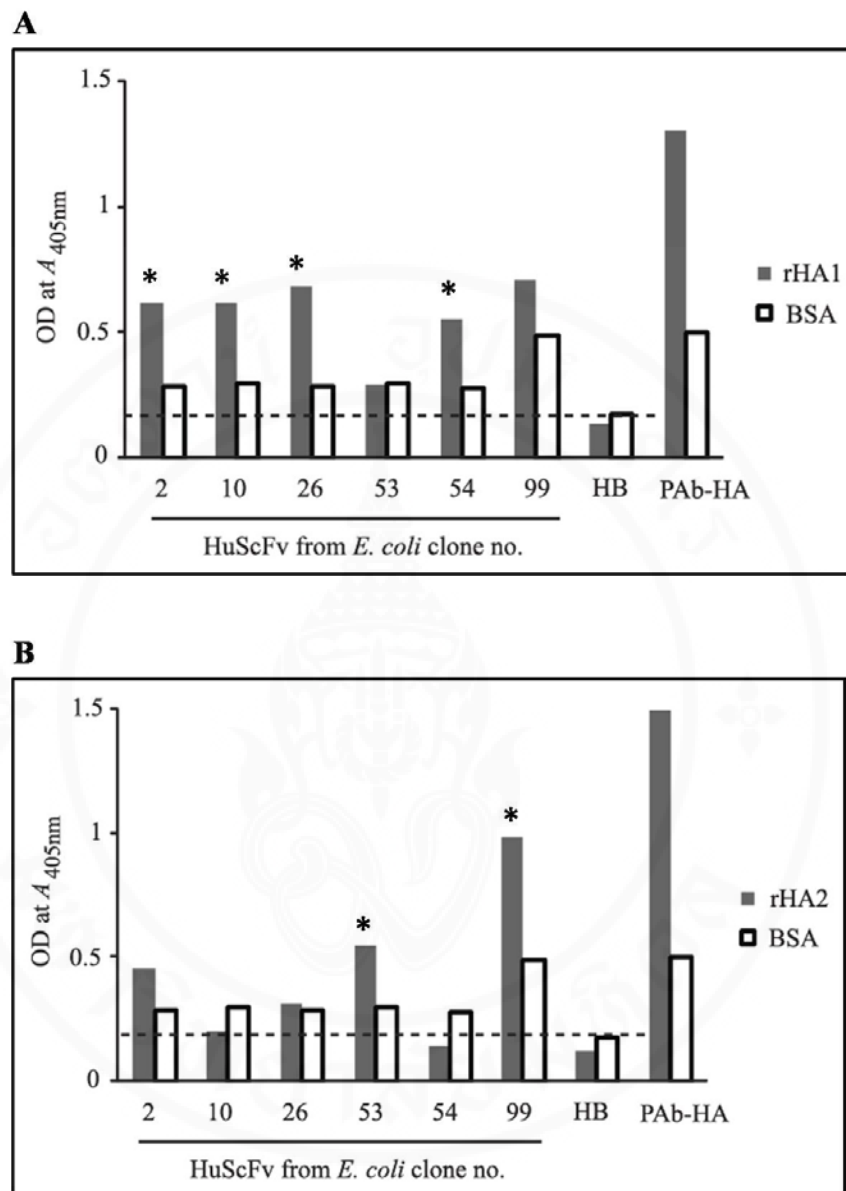


Figure 5.22 Results of indirect ELISA for determining the binding of HuScFv to the rHA1 (A) or rHA2 (B)

* indicate positive binding and dash line indicate cut off criteria

The results show that HuScFv of clones no. 2, 10, 26 and 54 gave significant OD_{405nm} against the rHA1 more than two times higher than to the BSA antigen control. HuScFv clones no. 53 and 99 gave OD_{405nm} to rHA2 more than two times higher than to BSA control. Lysate of HB2151 *E. coli* without HuScFv (HB) and mouse polyclonal antibody to HA (mPAb-HA) served as negative and positive controls, respectively.

5.7.2 Determination of hemagglutination inhibition (HI) of the HA1 specific-HuScFv

Hemagglutination inhibition assay (HI) was used for testing *in vitro* activity of the HA1 specific-HuScFv in inhibiting the hemagglutination activity of equal amount of HA1 specific-HuScFv in lysates of *E. coli* clones no. 2, 10, 26 and 54 were standardized based on the Western blot band intensities as determined spectrometrically. Serial two fold dilutions of the standardized HuScFv were mixed with equal volume of 4 HAU of H1N1/2009 virus. After adding 1% group O hRBC, the plate was kept until negative hemagglutination control showed a button-like appearance (see method in **Chapter 4.16**). The results in **Figure 5.23** show that HuScFv of clones no. 2, 10, 16 and 54 could inhibit the hemagglutination activity as shown in reciprocal titers of hemagglutination inhibition at 16, 16, 16 and 32, respectively. At equal amount of HuScFv, HA1 specific HuScFv clone no. 54 exhibit the highest reciprocal inhibition titer at 32 while the HB2151 lysate gave reciprocal inhibition titer at 4. The influenza vaccinated serum gave reciprocal inhibition titer at 64. Viral control (VC) could not inhibit hemagglutination while serum control (SC, which was the well added with undiluted lysate of *E. coli* containing HuscFv) could inhibit hemagglutination. These results indicated that HA1 specific-HuScFv could inhibit the hemagglutination activity of H1N1/2009 virus against hRBC.

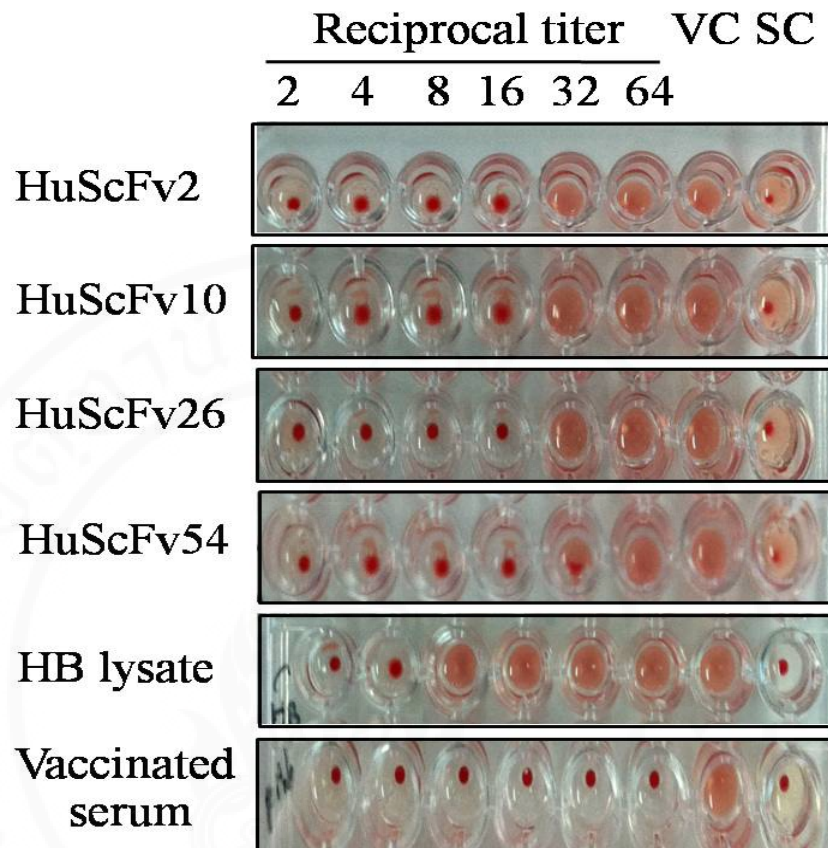


Figure 5.23 Result of hemagglutination inhibition assay (HI) for determination of HuScFv specific to HA1 in inhibiting the hemagglutination activity of H1N1/2009 virus against hRBC

5.8 Characterization of the HuScFv specific to rH1, rN1 and/or nM2 which derived from phage bio-panning with H1N1/2009 virus-adsorbed hRBC ghosts

From previous results, the HuScFv clone no. 26 (specific to rHA, rNA and nM2), HuScFv clone no. 51 (specific to nM2), HuScFv clone no. 53 (specific to rHA and rNA) and HuScFv of clone no. 99 (specific to rHA) were selected for characterization of the HuScFv before testing their interference on influenza virus replication cycle.

5.8.1 Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) of the *huscfv* sequences

The diversity of the DNA sequences coding for HuScFv of clones no. 26, 51, 53 and 99 were determined by *MvaI* restriction fragment length polymorphism (*MvaI*-RFLP) (Shin *et al.*, 2003; Thathaisong *et al.*, 2008). It was found that *huscfv* sequences of the 4 clones had different RFLP (DNA banding patterns) (**Figure 5.24**).

5.8.2 Identification of immunoglobulin frameworks (FRs) and complementarity determining regions (CDRs) of the HuScFv

The nucleotide sequences of the selected *huscfv* of clones no. 26, 51, 53 and 99) were sequenced. Multiple of the selected HuScFv amino acids were aligned by using ClustalW2 software available on <http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tool/services>. The results of multiple alignment of the selected HuScFv are shown in **Figure 5.25**. The deduced amino acid sequences of all clones were shown to be complete; containing VH-linker-VL domains. The immunoglobulin frameworks (FRs) and complementarity determining regions (CDRs) of the deduced amino acids of *huscfv* sequences were predicted using the Immunogenetics Information System server (IMGT/V-QUEST).

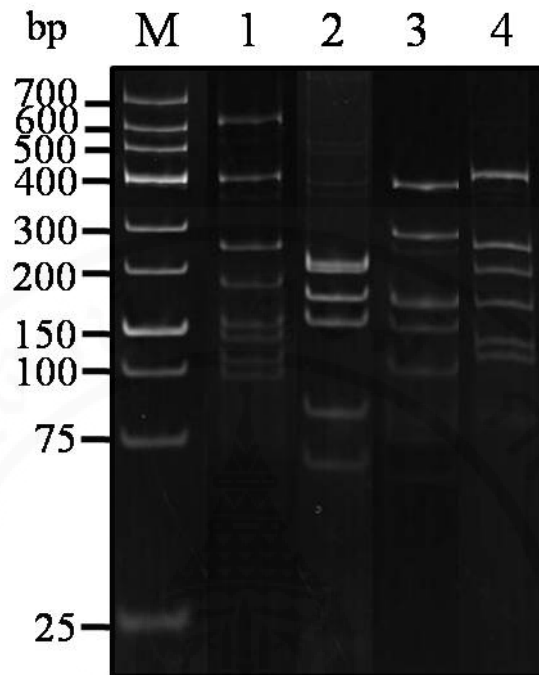


Figure 5.24 RFLP (DNA banding patterns) of *huscfv* sequences from HB2151 *E. coli* clones no. 26, 51, 53 and 99

Lane M, GeneRuler™ low range DNA ladder

Lanes 1-4, RFLP (DNA banding patterns) of *huscfv* sequences from HB2151 *E. coli* clones no. 26, 51, 53 and 99, respectively

Numbers at the left are DNA sizes in bp

The *huscfv* sequences of the four clones revealed different DNA banding patterns.

VH				
	←FR1→	←CDR1→	←FR2→	←CDR2→
HuScFv no. 26	---SELVESGGRLVPEPGGSLRFSCAAS	GLTFSRDW	MHWVRQVPGEGLVWVSR	ITSDGTDI
HuScFv no. 51	--EVQLVQSGAEVKKPGASVKVSKAS	GFMFTNYY	IDWVRQTPEQGLEWIGW	V----GGT
HuScFv no. 53	MAQVKLQQ-GTEVVKPGASVKLSCKAS	GYIFTSYD	MHWVRQVPQGQLEWMI	IFPGEGST
HuScFv no. 99	--EVQLVQSGAEVKKPGASVKVSKAS	GYTYTGY	THWVRQAPQGQLEWMI	VNPNNGAT
	:* : * .: **:*.*:..** **	* : :	.****.* :** *.: :	: *
VL				
	←FR1→	←CDR1→	←FR2→	CDR2
HuScFv no. 26	SYIVMTQTPLSVSITPGQPASISCRSS	QSLVHSDGDTY	LNWFQQRPGQSPRRLIH	KVS
HuScFv no. 51	SAIRMTQSPSSLSASVGDRTITCRAS	QSIFI-----Y	LNWYQEKPGKAPNLLIY	AAS
HuScFv no. 53	SDIELTQSPAIMSASVGDRTITCRAS	SSIR-----Y	IYWYQQKPGSSPRLLIY	DTS
HuScFv no. 99	SDIQMTQSPSSLSASVGDRTITCRAS	QSISI-----Y	LNWYQQKPGKAPKLLIY	AAS
	* * :**.* :* : * .:*** :*	.* :	: **::**.:* .** :	.*
	←FR3→	←CDR3→	←FR4→	
HuScFv no. 26	NRDSGVPDFRFSGSGTDFTLKISRVEAEDLVVY	CMQATHWPYT	FGQGTKLEIK-	
HuScFv no. 51	SLQSGVPSRFSGSGTDFTLTISLQAEDVAVVY	CQQYHESPT	FGPGTKVDIK-	
HuScFv no. 53	NVAPGVPRFSGSGTDFTLTINRMEADAATYY	CQEWSGYPYT	FGGGTKLEAET	
HuScFv no. 99	SLQSGVPSRFSGSGTDFTLTISLQPEDFATYY	CQQSYITPLT	FGGGTKLEIK-	
	. .*** ***,****.:***. :..** ..**	* : *	** ***: : :	

Figure 5.25 Immunoglobulin frameworks (FRs) and complementarity determining regions (CDRs) of heavy (VH) and light (VL) chains HuScFv sequence of clones no. 26, 51, 53 and 99. Three CDRs and four FRs of the HuScFv from the four HB2151 *E. coli* clones were determined by using the IMGT server. Multiple alignments of amino acid sequence diversities in CDRs of VH and VL of the four clones were verified by using ClustalW server.

- * indicates identical amino acid
- : indicates conservative amino acid substitution
- . indicates a semiconservative amino acid substitution

5.9 Subcloning of HuScFv coding sequences into pET plasmid

5.9.1 Large scale expression of the selected HuScFv clones

The HuScFv coding sequences (*huscfv*) of clones no. 26, 51, 53 and 99 were subcloned from original pCANTAB5E phagemid into pET plasmid system to increase the yield of the recombinant antibody expression. Colony PCR was performed to screen the positive transformed BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* clones that carry the *huscfv* fragments with the expected size at ~1,000 bp (**Figure 5.26**).

The recombinant HuScFv 6xHis tag fusion proteins (HuScFv-6xHis) expressed by these clones were located predominantly in the insoluble parts of the *E. coli* homogenates. Large scale expression and purification of HuScFv-His by using TALON Metal Affinity resin under denaturing condition were performed. **Figure 5.27A** shows CBB stained purified HuScFv-6xHis from the respective transformed BL21 (DE3) clones after SDS-PAGE separation as well as their respective Western blot patterns (**Figure 5.27B**).

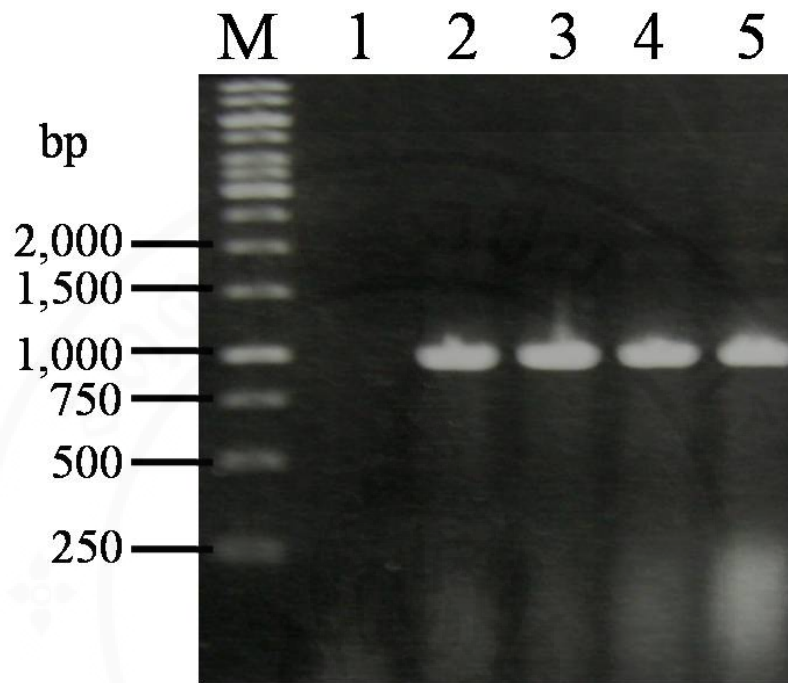


Figure 5.26 Results of PCR screening of transformed BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* colonies carrying *huscfv*-pET plasmid by using T7 primers and randomly selected *E. coli* colonies as DNA templates. Positive clones revealed the *huscfv* DNA amplicons at ~1,000 kb.

Lane M, GeneRuler™ 1 kb DNA ladder

Lane 1, Negative control (no DNA template)

Lanes 2-5, DNA amplicons of HuScFv26, HuScFv51, HuScFv53 and HuScFv99 sequences, respectively.

Numbers at the left are DNA sizes in bp

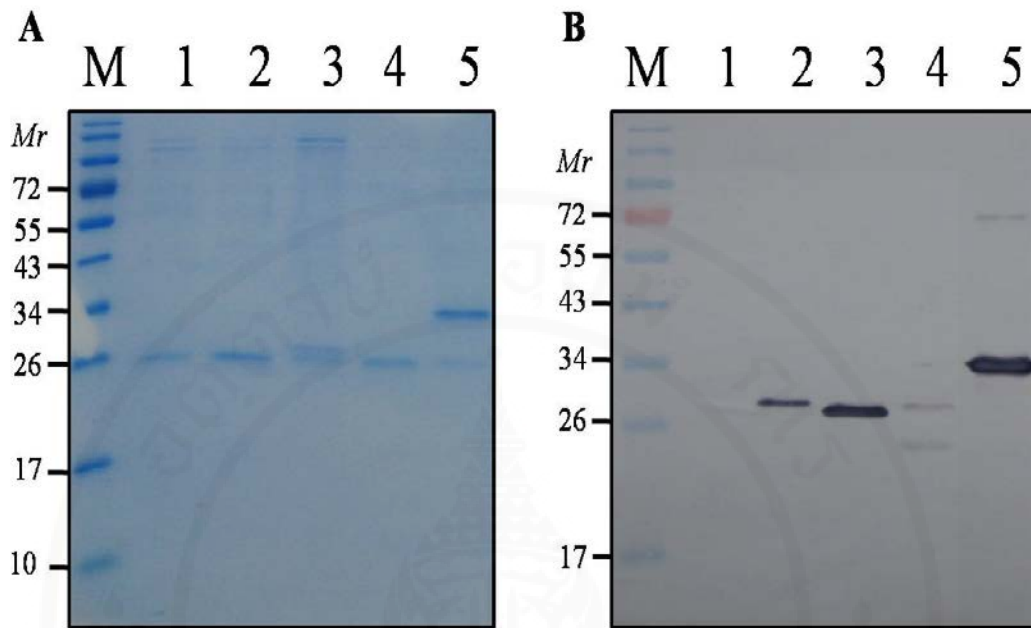


Figure 5.27 CBB stained SDS-PAGE separated purified HuScFv-6xHis purified from transformed BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* clones carrying recombinant pET plasmids with *huscfv26*, *huscfv51*, *huscfv53* and *huscfv99* inserts (A). Western blot patterns of the same preparations as detected with anti-His antibody (B).

Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard

Lane 1, Lysate of *E. coli* containing pET plasmids

Lanes 2-5, Purified HuScFv (~26-34 kDa) of clones no. 26, 51, 53 and 99, respectively

Numbers at the left of both blocks are relative molecular masses (*Mr*) of proteins

5.9.2 Determination of binding specificity of HuScFv to the native proteins (H1, N1 and M2) on influenza viruses

Before using purified HuScFv in testing interference of the virus replication cycle, all HuScFv were also determined for binding specificity to the native proteins (H1, N1 and M2) on influenza virion. The purified HuScFv of clones no. 26, 51, 53 and 99 were tested binding activity to the H1N1/2009 virus adsorbed on the hRBC ghost (see method in **section 4.8.1**). The purified lysate of *E. coli* containing pET plasmids and diluents were used as negative controls while the PAb(s) (**section 5.4**) were used as positive antibody controls (**Figure 5.28**). It was found that HuScFv of all clones gave higher OD_{405nm} signal than the purified lysate of BL21 (DE3) containing pET plasmids; implying that HuScFv of all selected clones could bind to the native protein on the virus.

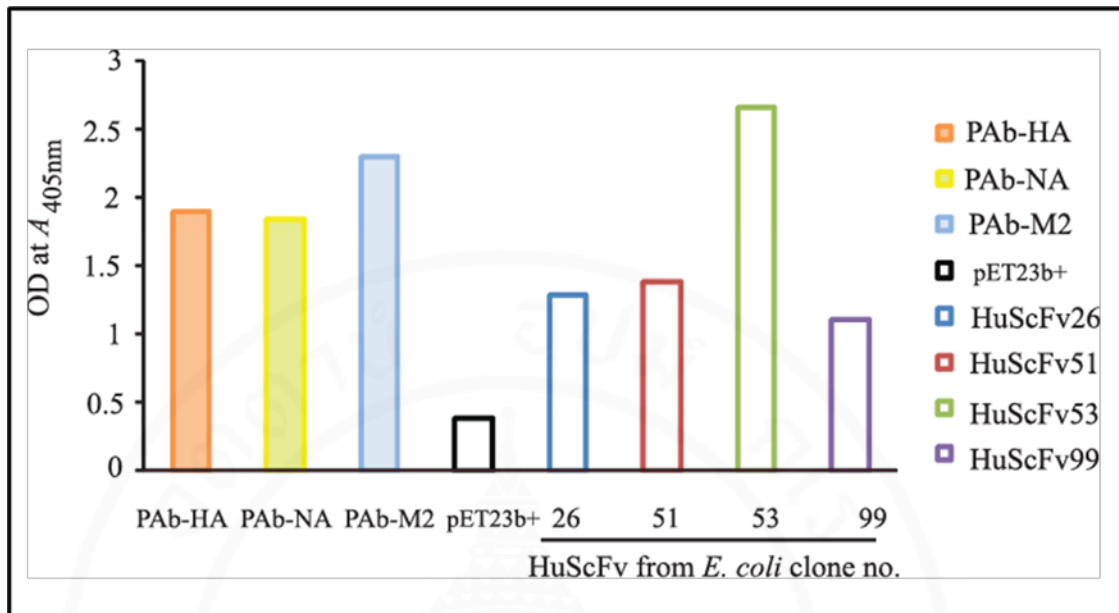


Figure 5.28 Results of indirect ELISA for determining the binding of the HuScFv of clones no. 26, 51, 53 and 99 to the native proteins (H1, N1 and M2) on H1N1/2009 influenza viruses. The results show that HuScFv of all clones gave higher OD_{405nm} than the lysate of BL21 (DE3) containing pET plasmids (bET23b⁺). PAb-HA, polyclonal antibody to rHA; PAb-NA, polyclonal antibody to rNA; PAb-M2, polyclonal antibody to rM2.

5.10 Determination of HuScFv mediated interference of virus replication cycle

5.10.1 Determination of HuScFv in interference of virus binding and uncoating to the target cells (see method in experimental design I of Chapter 4.12)

Influenza viruses were mixed with inhibitors, *i.e.*, HuScFv26, HuScFv51, HuScFv53, HuScFv99, HuScFv-NA (received from Assist. Prof. Dr. Potjane Srimanote), vaccinated serum (1:1,280) or medium alone before adding to the MDCK monolayer. After allowing cellular entry and discarding extracellular viruses, the infected cells were grown in the medium for 15 hours. Thereafter, the cells were washed and subjected to plaque assay. Numbers of virus foci in MDCK cells of all treatments were counted. **Figures 5.29A** and **5.29B** show numbers of virus foci and % inhibition mediated by the inhibitors and controls, respectively. The effectiveness in reducing intracellular virus by increasing order of magnitudes, were HuScFv-NA < HuScFv99 < HuScFv26 < HuScFv51 < HuScFv53. The vaccinated serum control gave ~80% inhibition. The infected cell controls had the highest virus foci (100%) and the least % inhibition.

5.10.2 Determination of HuScFv in interference of virus binding, uncoating, replicating and budding (see method in experimental design II of Chapter 4.12)

For experimental design 2, the viruses had been exposed to HuScFv26, HuScFv51, HuScFv53, HuScFv99, HuScFv-NA, vaccinated serum (1:1,280) or medium alone before adding to the cells and the infected cells were cultured in the medium containing the respective inhibitors or medium alone. The numbers of virus foci and % inhibition by the inhibitors and control are shown in **Figure 5.30A** and **5.30B**, respectively. The effectiveness in reducing intracellular virus, in increasing order of magnitude, were HuScFv-NA < HuScFv99 = HuScFv26 < HuScFv53 < HuScFv51. The H1N1/2009 infected cells control [viruses that treated with lysate of BL21 (DE3)] had the highest number of the virus foci or the lowest % inhibition. The

vaccinated serum control gave ~80% inhibition. The appearances of the virus foci in MDCK cells are shown in **Figure 5.31**.

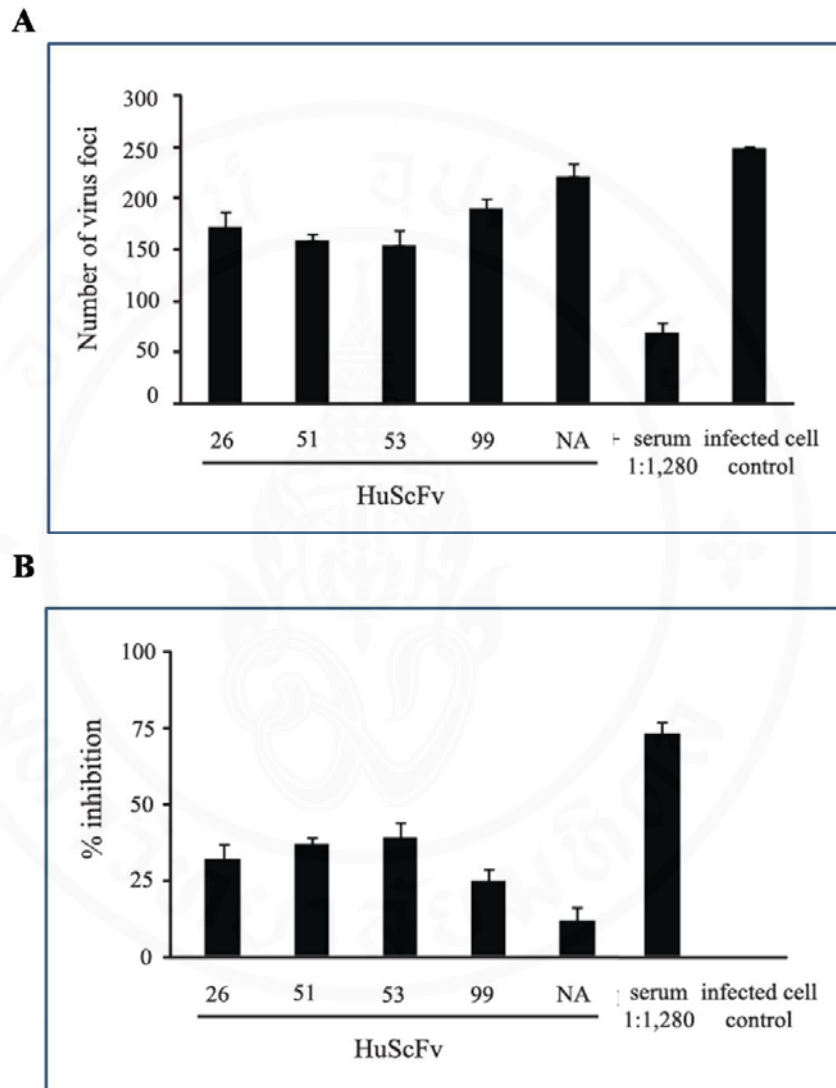


Figure 5.29 Numbers of virus foci (**A**) and percent inhibition of the virus focal formation (**B**) in MDCK cells infected with H1N1/2009 that had been exposed to various inhibitors and controls before adding to the cells and the infected cells were cultured for 15 hours. The virus infected cells exposed to plain medium had the highest number of the virus foci or the lowest % virus replication inhibition. The vaccinated serum control gave ~80% inhibition. The effectiveness in reducing intracellular virus, in increasing order of magnitude, were HuScFv-NA < HuScFv99 < HuScFv26 < HuScFv51 < HuScFv53.

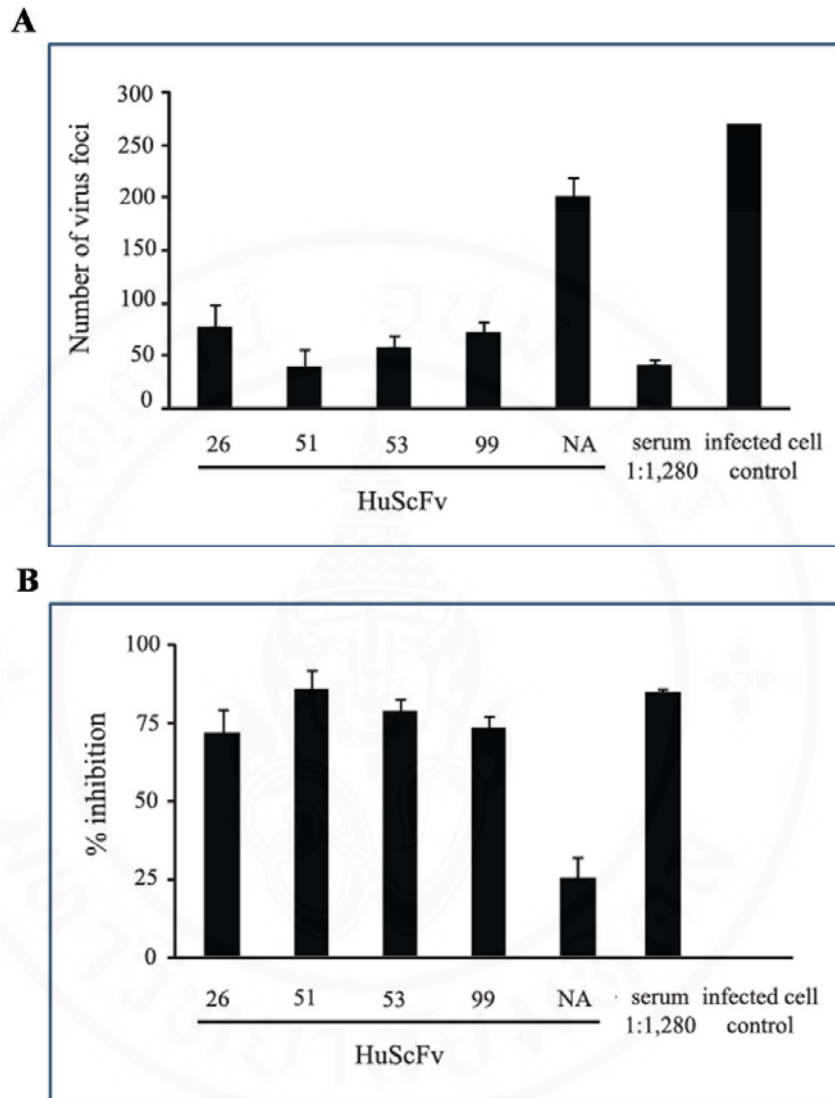


Figure 5.30 Numbers of virus foci (A) and % inhibition of virus replication (B) of experimental design II which the viruses were mixed with the respective inhibitors or control before adding to the cell monolayer. After allowing cellular entry and removing extracellular viruses, the infected cells were cultured in the medium containing inhibitors or controls for 15 hours. The intracellular virus foci were determined. The effectiveness in reducing intracellular virus of the inhibitors, in increasing order of magnitude, were $\text{HuScFv-NA} < \text{HuScFv99} = \text{HuScFv26} < \text{HuScFv53} < \text{HuScFv51}$. The H1N1/2009 infected cells controls had the highest number of the virus foci or the lowest % inhibition. The vaccinated serum control gave ~80% inhibition.

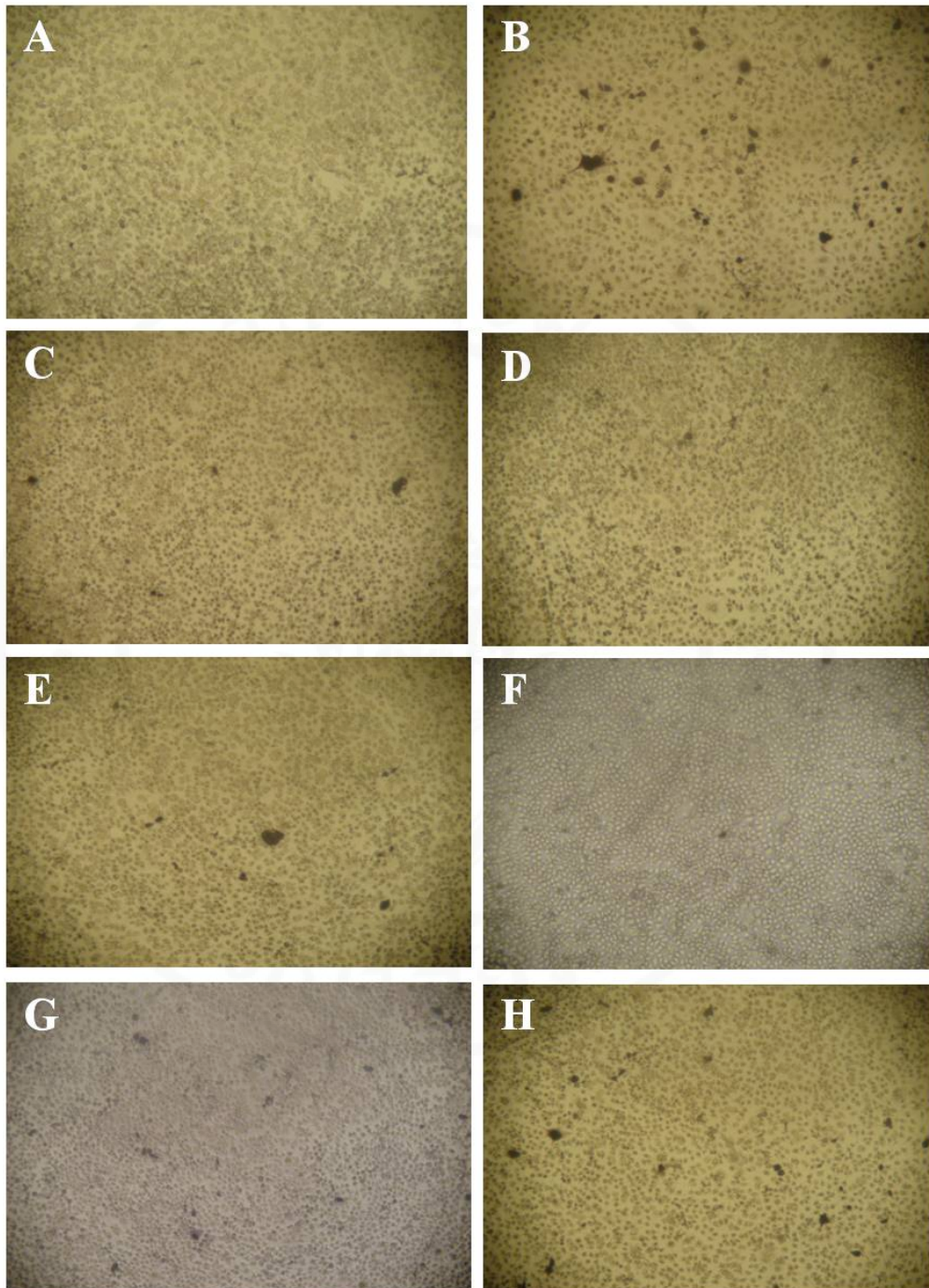


Figure 5.31 Appearances of influenza virus foci in infected MDCK cells treated with HuScFv, purified *E. coli* lysate and vaccinated serum in **Experiment design II**. **A**, Uninfected MDCK cell monolayer; **B**, negative inhibition controls (MDCK cells infected with the viruses); **C**, MDCK cells infected with viruses exposed to vaccinated serum; **D**, **E**, **F**, **G** and **H**, MDCK cells infected with viruses exposed to HuScFv26, HuScFv51, HuScFv53, HuScFv27, HuScFv99 and HuScFv-NA, respectively.

5.10.3 Determination of HuScFv in interfering of virus release and secondary infection and replication (see method in experimental design III of Chapter 4.12)

MDCK cells were infected directly with H1N1/2009. After cellular entry, the extracellular viruses were removed and the infected cells were cultured for 15 hours in the medium containing inhibitors or controls. **Figure 5.32A** and **5.32B** show numbers of virus foci and % inhibition. The effectiveness in reducing intracellular virus, in increasing order of magnitude, were HuScFv-NA < HuScFv99 < HuScFv51 < HuScFv26 < HuScFv 53. In the H1N1/2009 infected cells control had the highest numbers of the virus foci or the lowest % inhibition. The vaccinated serum control gave ~50%. HuScFv-NA had the lowest effect.

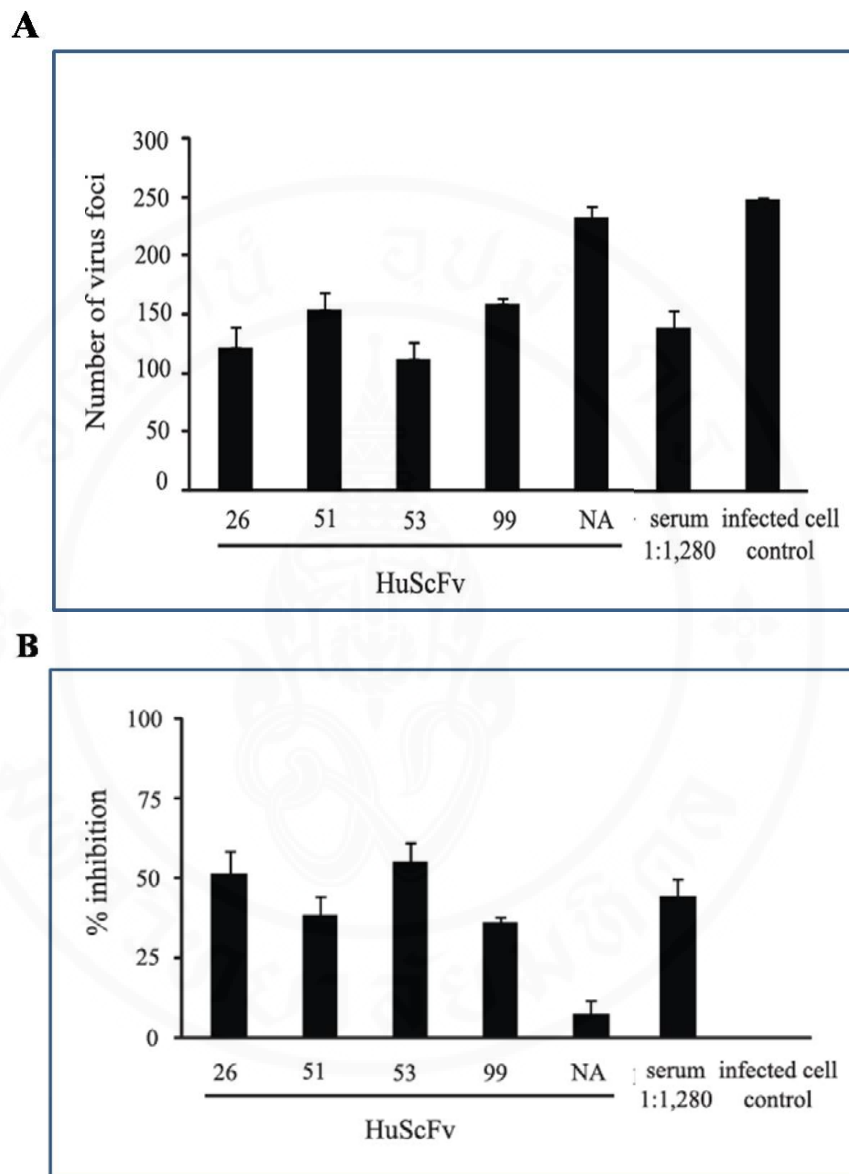


Figure 5.32 Numbers of virus foci (**A**) and % inhibition (**B**) of experiment design III. MDCK cells were infected directly with H1N1/2009. After cellular entry, the extracellular viruses were removed and the infected cells were cultured for 15 hours in the medium containing inhibitors or controls. The effectiveness in reducing intracellular virus, increasing order of magnitude, were HuScFv-NA < HuScFv99 < HuScFv51 < HuScFv26 < HuScFv 53. In the H1N1/2009 infected cells control gave the highest number of the virus foci or the lowest in % inhibition. The vaccinated serum control gave ~50% inhibition. HuScFv-NA had the lowest effect.

5.11 Selection of HuScFv display phage clones that bound to rM2

5.11.1 Results of phage bio-panning with the rM2

The purified soluble rM2 proteins from **section 4.2.3.2** of **Chapter IV** were used as the target antigen in the phage bio-panning (**section 4.5.3** of **Chapter IV**). The antigen bound phages were allowed to infect the HB2151 *E. coli*. Thirty *E. coli* transformants were randomly selected from the selective agar plate. They were verified for the presence of *huscfv* by PCR using the pCANTAB-*R1* and pCANTAB-*R2* primers. Among the 30 screened colonies, 27 clones (90%) revealed the *huscfv* amplicon at size ~1,000 bp (**Figure 5.33**).

5.11.2 Production of soluble HuScFv by the positive *E. coli* clones carrying *huscfv*-phagemids

All of the 27 *huscfv*-positive HB2151 *E. coli* clones were grown under IPTG induction and their cell lysates were analyzed for the presence of the soluble HuScFv by Western blot analysis (methodology in **section 4.7** of **section IV**). There were 17 clones (57%) that could express the soluble HuScFv which appeared as protein bands at *Mr* ~25-27 kDa (**Figure 5.34**).

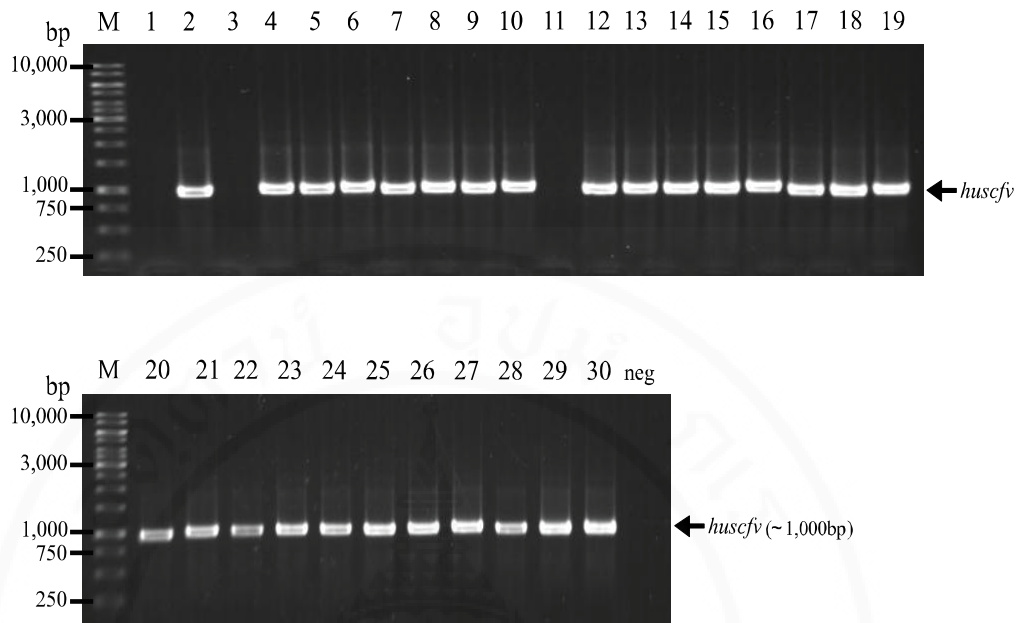


Figure 5.33 Amplicons of *huscfv* in 30 randomly picked phagemid transformed HB2151 *E. coli* clones

- Lane M, GeneRuler 1 kb DNA ladder
- Lanes 2, 4-10 and 12-30, HB2151 *E. coli* clones that were positive for the *Huscfv*
- Lanes 3 and 11, HB2151 *E. coli* clones that were negative for the *huscfv*
- Neg, Negative control (no DNA template)
- Arrows indicate the location of *huscfv* amplicons (~1,000 bp)
- Numbers at the left of both blocks are DNA sizes in bp

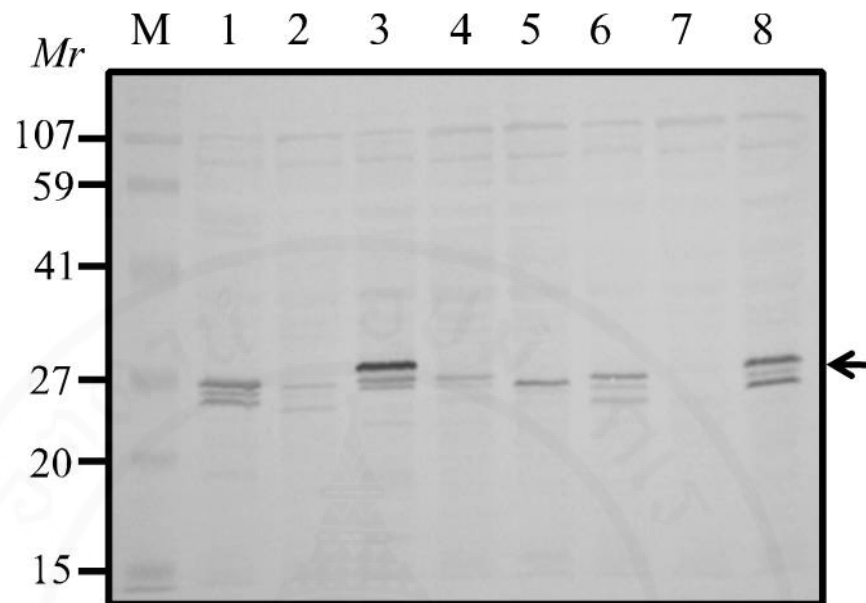


Figure 5.34 Western blot results for detection of HuScFv in lysates of representative *huscfv*-pCANTAB5E-transformed HB2151 *E. coli* colonies

- Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard marker
- Lanes 1-6 and 8, Reactive bands of HuScFv in lysates of HB2151 *E. coli*
- Lane 7, Negative detection of HuScFv in lysate of HB2151 *E. coli*

Arrow indicates location of HuScFv protein (~25-27 kDa) which tends to appear as a protein doublet which the upper band is immature protein with signal peptide and the lower band is mature HuScFv (other faint bands are degraded product of the principal protein)

5.12 Characterization of the M2 specific-HuScFv

5.12.1 Binding specificity of the HuScFv as determined by indirect ELISA

Whole cell lysates of all transformed HB2151 *E. coli* clones that could express HuScFv from **section 5.11** were used in the indirect ELISA for determining the HuScFv binding to the purified rM2 using BSA as an antigen control in the assay. Lysate of HB2151 *E. coli* without *huscfv*-phagemid and diluents were used as negative controls while the mPAb-M2 (**section 5.4**) was used as positive antibody control. HuScFv in lysates of 10/17 *E. coli* clones (no. 2, 5, 9, 13, 14, 19, 20, 23, 27 and 29) gave significant binding to the rM2 by indirect ELISA (**Figure 5.35**) while the OD_{405nm} of the negative control was negligible and the OD_{405nm} of the positive control was high.

5.12.2 Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) of the coding sequences of the HuScFv

The restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) or diversity of the DNA sequences coding for selected 10 HuScFv clones (no. 2, 5, 9, 13, 14, 19, 20, 23, 27 and 29) from **section 5.12** were determined. The *huscfv* sequences of the 10 *E. coli* clones showed 6 different DNA banding patterns after *MvaI* digestion, 14% SDS-PAGE and ethidium bromide staining (**Figure 5.36**). Clones no. 5 and 20 had pattern 2 (lane 2); clones no. 14 and 29 had pattern 3 (lane 3), clones no. 13 and 23 had pattern 3 (lane 3), clones no. 13 and 23 had pattern 5 (lane 5) and clones no. 2, 19, 27 had patterns 1, 4 and 6, respectively (lanes 1, 4 and 6).

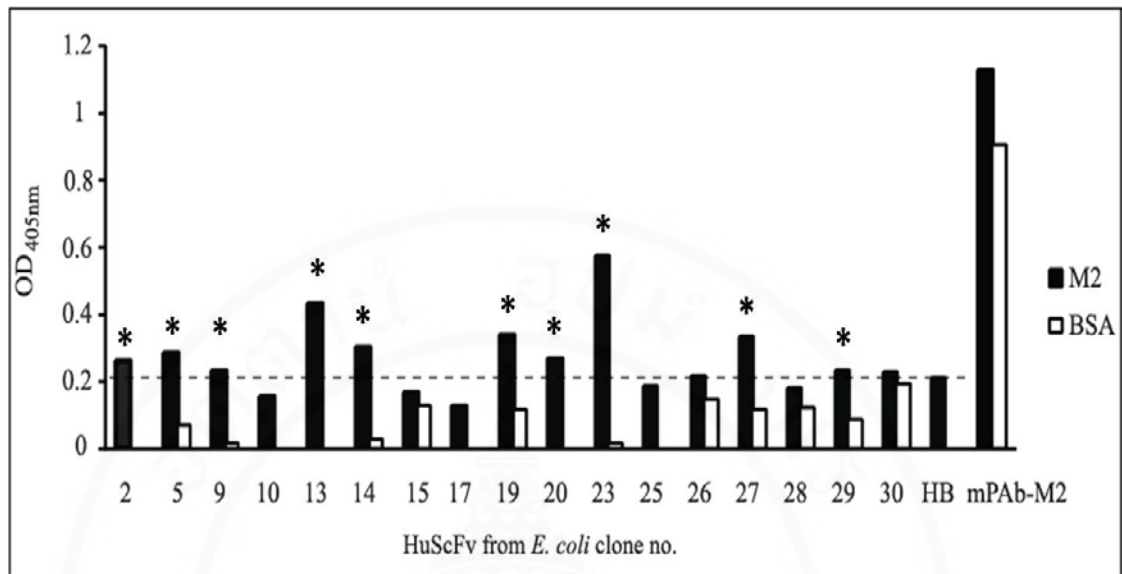


Figure 5.35 Indirect ELISA results showing the binding of HuScFv in lysates of 17 *huscfv* positive *E. coli* clones to rM2 and BSA control. HuScFv of 10 clones (no. 2, 5, 9, 13, 14, 19, 20, 23, 27 and 29) bound specifically to the rM2.

* indicate positive binding and dash line indicate cut off criteria

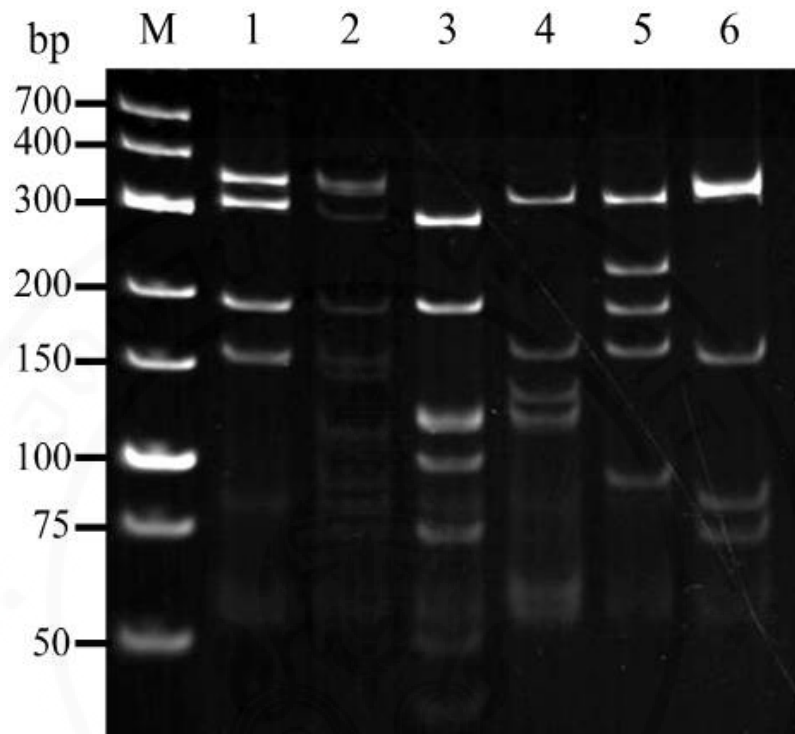


Figure 5.36 RFLP or DNA banding patterns of *huscfv* sequences in 10 HB2151 *E. coli* clones, *i.e.*, no. 2, 5, 9, 13, 14, 19, 20, 23, 27 and 29. The 10 clones revealed 6 different DNA banding patterns.

- Lane M, GeneRuler™ low range DNA ladder
 - Lane 1, DNA banding pattern of *huscfv* of clone no.2
 - Lane 2, DNA banding pattern of *huscfv* of clones no.5 and 20
 - Lane 3, DNA banding pattern of *huscfv* of clones no.9 and 14
 - Lane 4, DNA banding pattern of *huscfv* of clone no.19
 - Lane 5, DNA banding pattern of *huscfv* of clones no.13 and 23
 - Lans 6, DNA banding pattern of *huscfv* of clone no. 27
- Numbers at the left are DNA sizes in bp

5.12.3 Binding of the HuScFv to recombinant and native M2 as determined by Western blotting and immunofluorescence assay

Whole cell lysates of 6 selected HB2151 *E. coli* clones containing HuScFv, *i.e.*, clones no. 2, 5, 14, 19, 23, and 27, that gave 6 different DNA banding patterns were used to test the binding of their HuScFv to the recombinant and native M2 (from homogenate of influenza A/H5N1infected MDCK cells). Western blot results showed that HuScFv of clones no. 2, 19, 23, and 27 (HuScFv2, HuScFv19, HuScFv23 and HuScFv27, respectively) bound to rM2 and nM2 (**Figure 5.37** and **Figure 5.38**, respectively). The HuScFv of these 4 clones also bound to the nM2 in virus infected MDCK cells as tested by immunofluorescence assay (**Figure 5.39**).

5.12.4 Identification of immunoglobulin frameworks (FRs) and complementarity determining regions (CDRs) of HuScFv

The nucleotide sequences of the HuScFv2, 19, 23, and 27 that gave positive binding to the rM2 and nM2 were sequenced. Multiple of the selected HuScFv amino acids were aligned by using ClustalW2 software available on <http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tool/services>. The deduced amino acid sequences of all clones were shown to be complete (**Figure 5.40**), *i.e.*, containing full length VH-linker-VL domains. The immunoglobulin frameworks (FRs) and complementarity determining regions (CDRs) of the deduced amino acids of the *huscfv* sequences were predicted using the Immunogenetics Information System server (IMGT/V-QUEST).

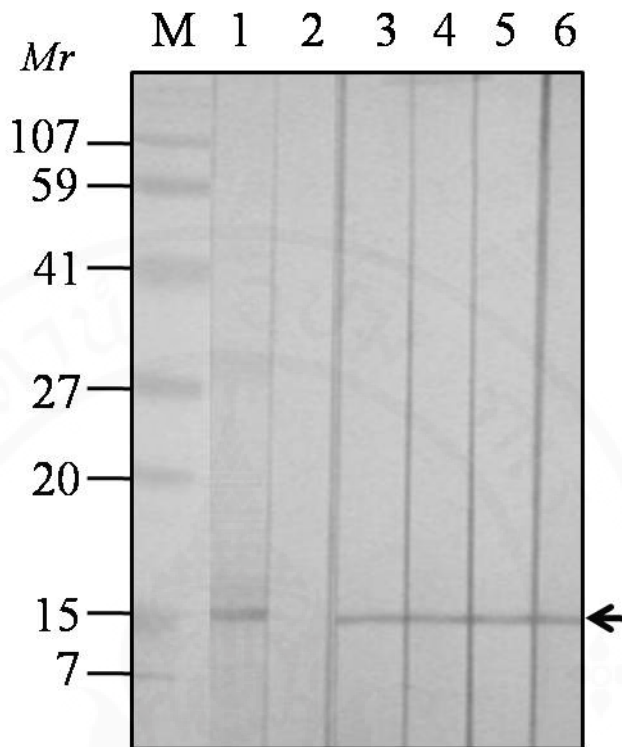


Figure 5.37 Western blot patterns of HuScFv2, 19, 23 and 27 that bound to the rM2 HuScFv5 and 14 did not bind to the rM2 (data not shown).

Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard marker

Lane 1, SDS-PAGE separated rM2 probed with mPAb-M2

Lane 2, SDS-PAGE separated rM2 probed with lysate of HB2151 *E. coli* without HuScFv

Lanes 3-6, SDS-PAGE separated rM2 probed with lysates of *E. coli* clones no. 2, 19, 23 and 27 containing HuScFv2, 19, 23 and 27, respectively

Arrow indicates the location of reactive band of HuScFv bound to rM2

Numbers as the left are relative molecular masses (M_r) of proteins

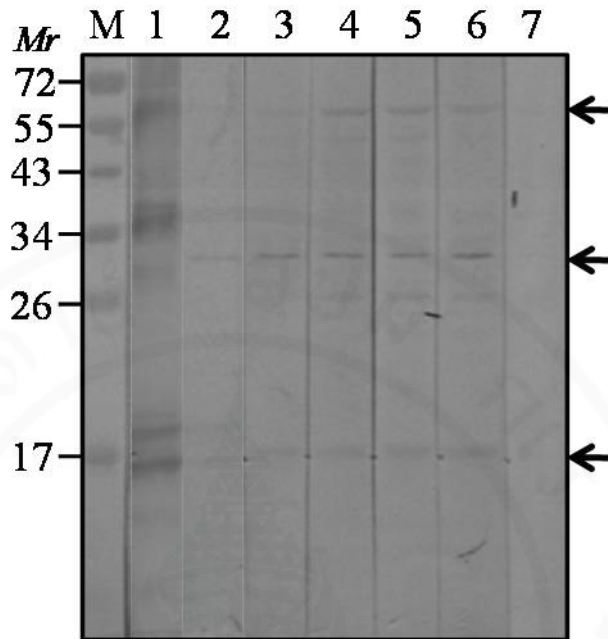


Figure 5.38 Western blot patterns of HuScFv2, 19, 23 and 27 that bound to the nM2

- Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard marker
- Lane 1, SDS-PAGE separated lysate of influenza virus infected MDCK cells containing nM2 probed with anti-6xHis antibody
- Lane 2, SDS-PAGE separated lysate of influenza virus infected MDCK cells containing nM2 probed with PAb-M2
- Lanes 3-6, SDS-PAGE separated lysate of influenza virus infected MDCK cells containing nM2 probed with *E. coli* lysates containing HuScFv2, 19, 23 and 27, respectively
- Lane 7, SDS-PAGE separated lysate of influenza virus infected MDCK cells containing nM2 probed with lysate of HB2151 *E. coli* without HuScFv

Lower arrow indicated the location of monomeric nM2; middle arrow indicates dimeric nM2 and uppermost arrow indicates tetrameric nM2

Numbers as the left of both blocks are relative molecular masses (*Mr*)

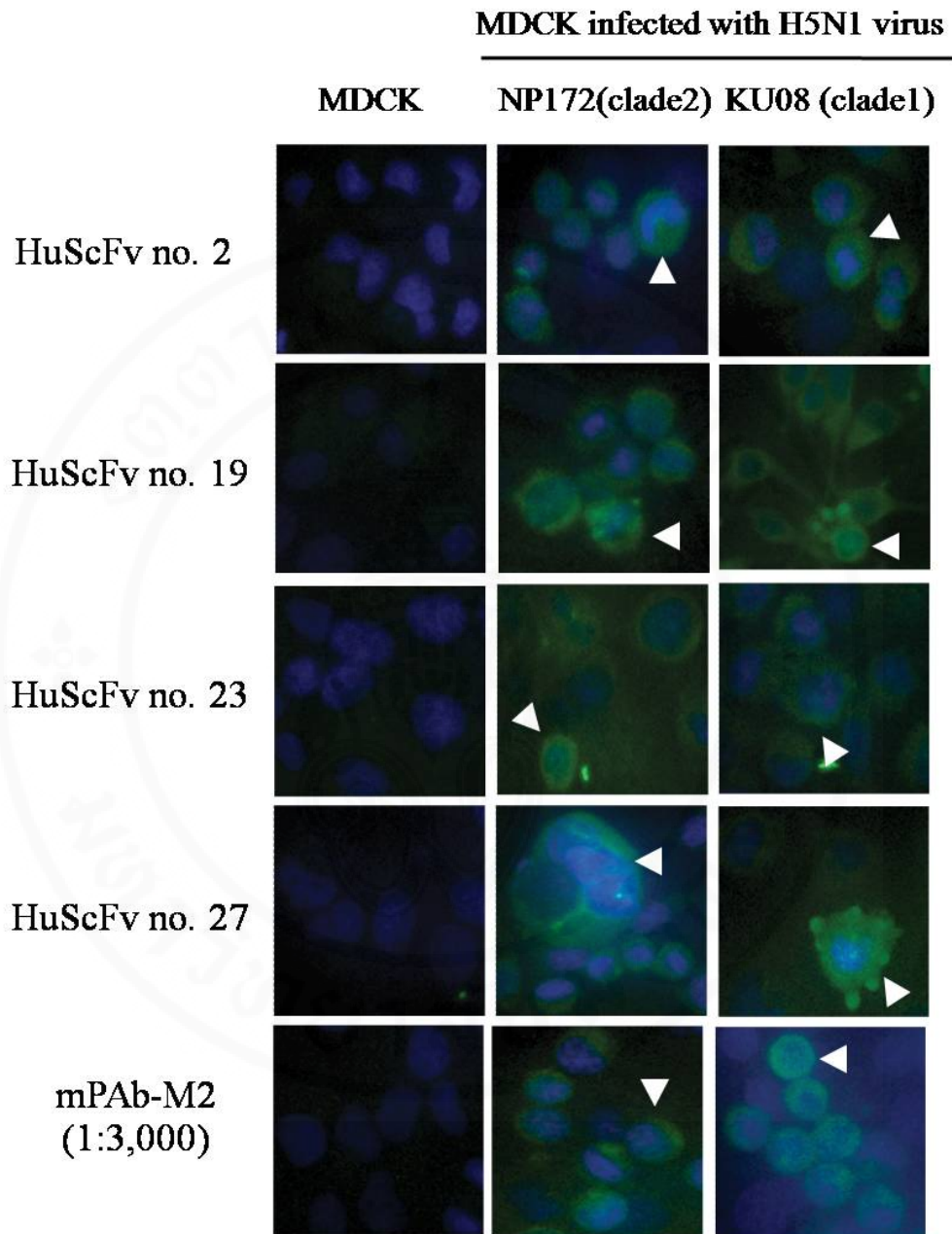


Figure 5.39 Determination of binding activity of M2 specific HuScFv to H5N1 viruses infected MDCK cells by immunofluorescence. Binding of HuScFv2, 19, 23 and 27 and mPAb-M2 (Green, arrow head) in the MDCK cells infected with H5N1 viruses which were amantadine sensitive (NP-172) (blocks of middle column, respectively) and resistant (KU08) (blocks of right column, respectively). Non-infected cells reacted with HuScFv or mPAb-M2 is shown in the respective blocks of the left column.

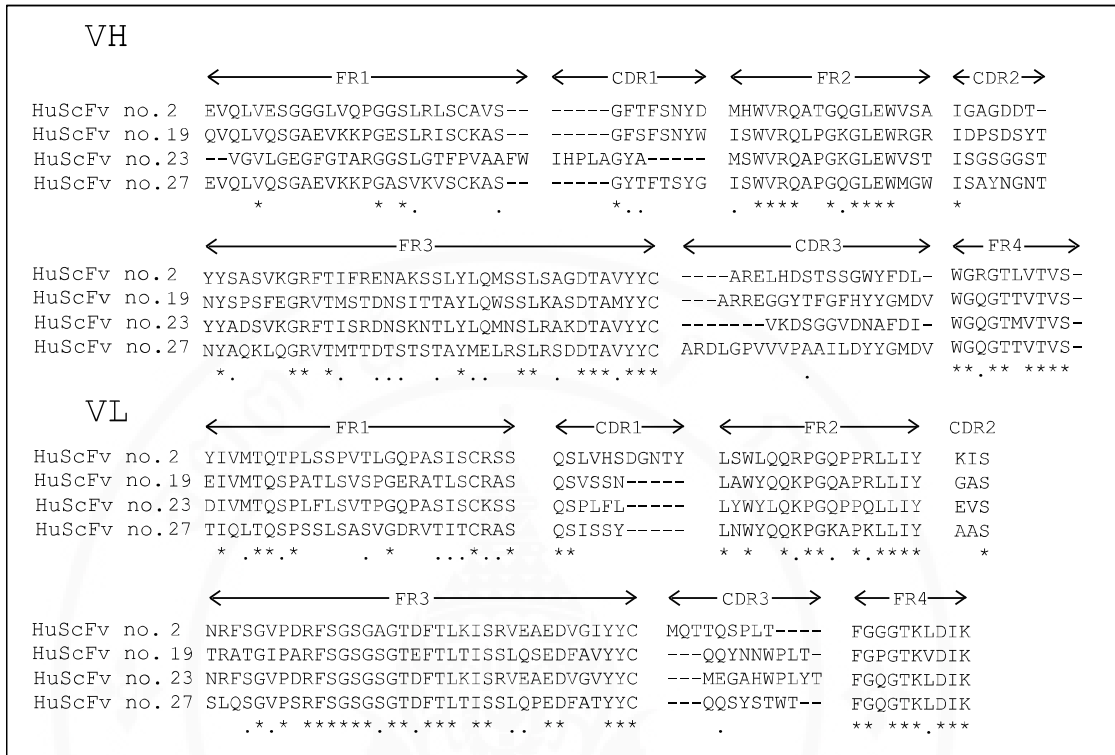


Figure 5.40 Immunoglobulin frameworks (FRs) and complementarity determining regions (CDRs) of heavy (VH) and light (VL) chains HuScFv sequence of clones no. 2, 19, 23 and 27. Three CDRs and four FRs of the HuScFv from the four HB2151 *E. coli* clones were determined by using the IMGT server. Multiple alignments of amino acid sequence diversities in CDRs of VH and VL of the four clones were verified by using ClustalW server.

- * indicates identical amino acid
- : indicates conservative amino acid substitution
- . indicates semi-conservative amino acid substitution

5.13 HuScFv coding sequences in pET plasmid

5.13.1 Large scale expression of the selected HuScFv clones

The HuScFv coding sequences of clones no. 2, 19, 23 and 27 were subcloned from pCANTAB5E phagemid into pET plasmid system to increasing yields of recombinant HuScFv protein. Colony PCR was performed to screen the positive transformed BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* clones that carry the *huscfv* fragments with the expected size at ~1,000 bp (**Figure 5.41**).

According to HuScFv expression condition (**section 4.11 of Chapter IV**), the expressed HuScFv were predominantly located in the insoluble parts of crude *E. coli* homogenates. Large scale expression and purification of HuScFv-His by using TALON Metal Affinity resin under denaturing condition were performed. **Figure 5.42A** shows CBB stained purified of HuScFv-His from the respective transformed BL21 (DE3) clones after SDS-PAGE separation as well as their respective Western blot patterns (**Figure 5.42B**).

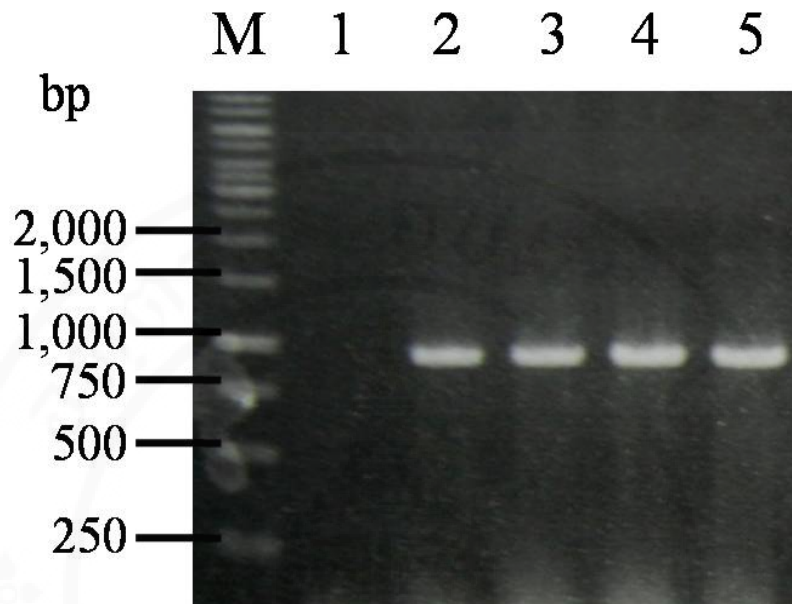


Figure 5.41 Amplicons of *huscfv* of clones no. 2, 19, 23 and 27 after colony PCR for screening of transformed BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* sibling colonies carrying *huscfv*-pET plasmids by using T7 primers and randomly selected colonies of the *E. coli* siblings as DNA templates. Positive clones revealed the *huscfv* DNA amplicons at ~1,000 kb.

Lane M, GeneRuler™ 1 kb DNA ladder marker

Lane 1, Negative internal control (no DNA template)

Lanes 2-5, DNA amplicons of *huscfv* from siblings of *E. coli* clones no. 2, 19, 23 and 27, respectively

Numbers at the left are DNA sizes in bp

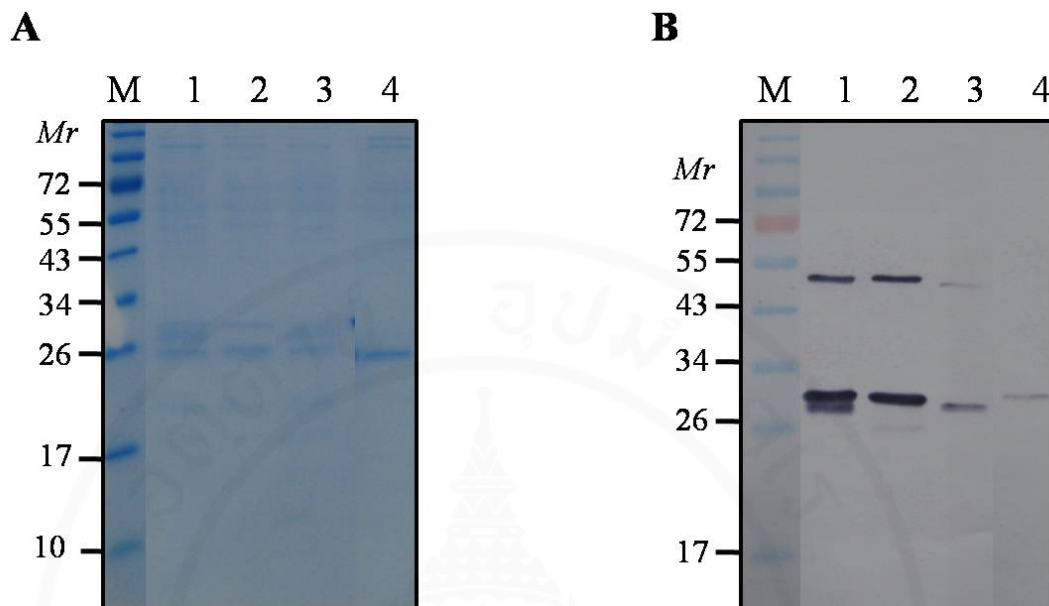


Figure 5.42 CBB stained SDS-PAGE separated HuScFv-6xHis purified from transformed BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* clones carrying recombinant pET plasmids with *huscfv2*, *huscfv19*, *huscfv23* and *huscfv27* inserts (**A**). Western blot patterns of the purified HuScFv-6xHis detected with anti-6xHis antibody (**B**).

Lane M, Pre-stained broad range protein standard marker

Lane 1, SDS-PAGE separated purified lysate of *E. coli* containing pET plasmids

Lanes 2-5, SDS-PAGE separated purified lysates of siblings of *E. coli* clones no. 2, 19, 23 and 27, respectively

Numbers at the left of both blocks are relative molecular masses (*Mr*) of proteins

5.14 M2 specific-HuScFv mediated interference of influenza virus replication

5.14.1 HuScFv interfered with virus binding and uncoating to the target cells (see method in experiment design I of Chapter 4.12)

MDCK cells infected with the adamantane sensitive and resistant viruses [A/chicken/Thailand/NP-172/2006 (H5N1) clade 2 and A/dog/Thailand/KU08/2004 (H5N1) clade 1, respectively] were mixed with the test inhibitors, *i.e.*, HuScFv2, HuScFv19, HuScFv23, HuScFv27, control inhibitors rimantadine and PAb-M2) or medium alone (infected control), before adding to MDCK monolayer. After cellular entry and extracellular virus removal, the infected cells were grown for 15 hours.

Numbers of virus foci in MDCK cells were counted. **Figure 5.43A** shows numbers of virus foci in all treatments. The effectiveness of test and control inhibitors in reducing the virus foci in MDCK cells infected with the adamantane sensitive viruses (H5N1/NP172) compared with the infected control, in increasing order of magnitude, were: mPAb-M2 < HuScFv27 < HuScFv2 < rimantadine. The numbers of virus foci in the infected cells treated with HuScFv19 and 23 were not different from the infected cell control.

In MDCK cells infected with the adamantane resistance viruses (H5N1/KU08), the effectiveness in reducing virus foci, in increasing order of magnitude, were rimantadine = PAb-M2 < HuScFv27 < HuScFv19. The virus foci in the groups treated with HuScFv-2 and -23 were not different from infected cell control.

In addition, M1 vRNA in culture supernatants and inside the cells of experimental design I of **Figure 5.44** (cells infected with adamantine sensitive H5N1/NP172) and **Figure 5.45** (cells infected with adamantine resistant H5N1/KU08)] were also quantified by qPCR. Rimantadine was the best in reducing of M1 vRNA in culture supernatants as well as inside the cells of both adamantane sensitive and resistance viruses. In experimental design I of the sensitive virus, HuScFv23 could reduce a little of M1 vRNA in culture supernatant while HuScFv27 and PAb-M2 could reduce M1 mRNA inside the cells. For the resistant virus,

HuScFv19 and rimantadine could reduce M1 RNA both in culture supernatants and inside the cells.

5.14.2 Determination of HuScFv in interference of virus binding, replicating and budding (see method in **experiment design II** of **Chapter 4.12**)

For experiment design 2 which the viruses had been exposed to HuScFv2, HuScFv23, HuScFv19, HuScFv23, HuScFv27, rimantadine, PAb-M2 or medium alone before adding to the cells and the infected cells were cultured in the respective inhibitors or medium alone, the number of virus foci (**Figure 5.43B**) show the adamantane sensitive virus foci were not found in the cells exposed to all inhibitors. Numbers of foci of the amantadine resistant virus treated with the HuScFv, PAb-M2 and rimantadine were markedly reduced compared with the infected cell control. **Figure 5.46** show appearances of the virus foci in MDCK cells

The qPCR results of M1 RNA in culture supernatants and inside the cells were also verified [**Experiment design II** of **Figure 5.44** (H5N1/NP172) and **Experiment design II** of **Figure 5.45** (H5N1/KU08)]. For the sensitive virus, rimantadine show the best in reducing of M1 vRNA both in culture supernatants and inside the cells. The HuScFv of all clones and PAb-M2 could reduce significantly the virus in both culture supernatants and inside the cells in comparison with the infected cells ($p < 0.05$). For the resistant virus the effectiveness of the inhibitors in reducing the virus release were rimantadine = PAb-M2 < HuScFv2 < HuScFv27 < HuScFv23 < HuScFv19 while the reduction of intracellular virus, HuScFv of clones no. 19 and 27 were most effective.

5.14.3 Determination of HuScFv in interference of virus budding (see method in **experiment design III** of **Chapter 4.12**)

Figure 5.43C show numbers of virus foci in MDCK cells infected directly with the viruses and the cells were grown in medium containing inhibitors or medium alone. No foci of the rimantadine sensitive virus were found in the infected cells cultured with HuScFv of clones no. 19 and 23 and rimantadine while only few foci were seen in cells exposed to HuScFv of clones no. 2 and 27 and PAb-M2. The numbers of amantadine-resistant virus foci in infected cells cultured in HuScFv, PAb-

M2 and rimantadine supplemented medium were markedly reduced compared with the infected cell control.

The qPCR results of M1 RNA in culture supernatants and inside the cells were also verified [**Experiment design III** of **Figure 5.44** (H5N1/NP172) and **Experiment design III** of **Figure 5.45** (H5N1/KU08)]. For the sensitive virus, rimantadine show the best in reducing of M1 vRNA both in culture supernatants and inside the cells. The HuScFv of all clones and PAb-M2 could reduce significantly the virus in both culture supernatants and inside the cells in comparison with the infected cells.

In **experiment design III** of drug resistant virus, rimantadine was less effective than the HuScFv 23, HuScFv 27 and mPAb-M2 in reducing the M1 vRNA in the culture supernatants, but equally effective to the HuScFv 2 and HuScFv19. The effectiveness in reducing intracellular virus, in increasing order of magnitude, were HuScFv2 < HuScFv19 < rimantadine < HuScFv27 = mPAb-M2 < HuScFv23.

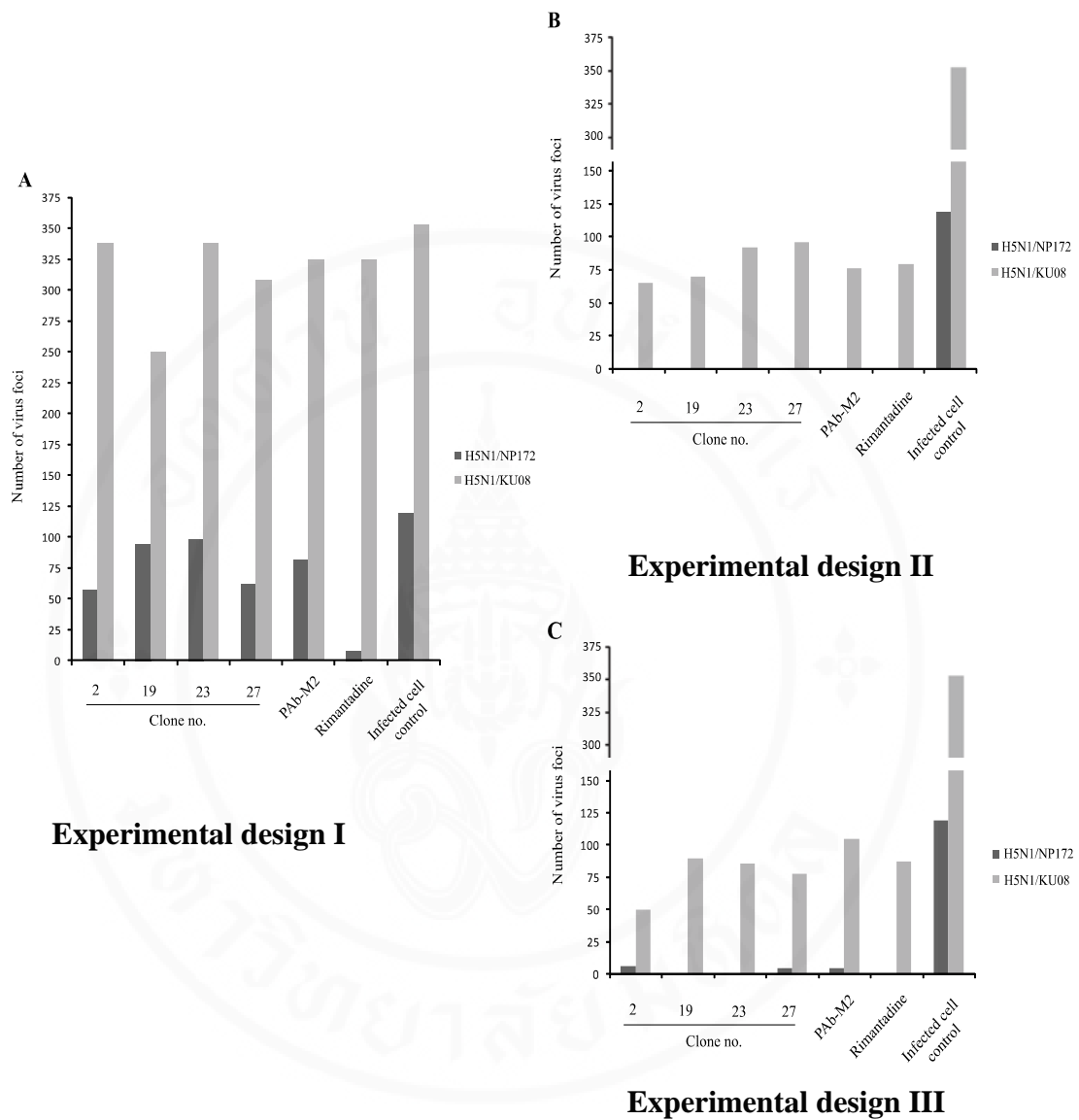


Figure 5.43 Number of virus foci in the MDCK cells infected with adamantane sensitive and resistant viruses

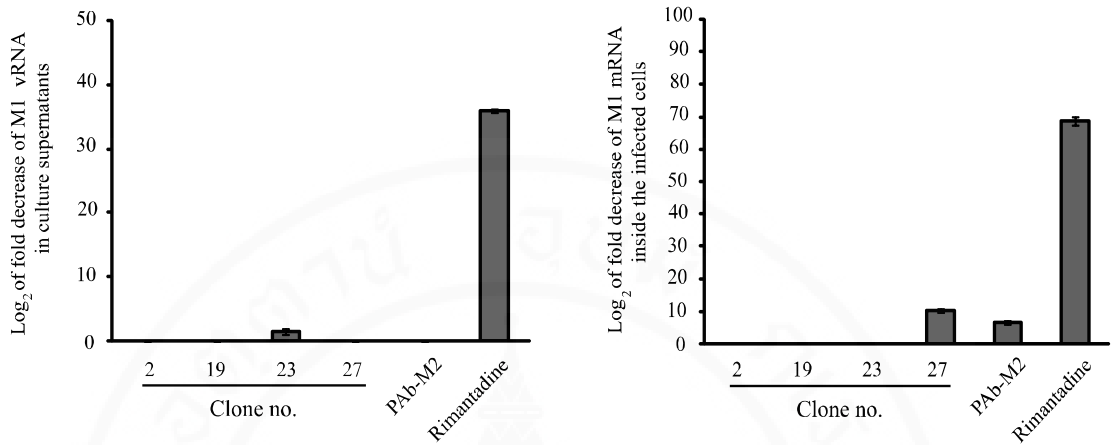
A, Results of experiment design I (viruses were mixed with the test inhibitors or medium alone before adding to MDCK monolayer. After cellular entry and extracellular virus removal, the infected cells were grown in medium alone for 15 hours).

B, Results of experiment design II (viruses had been exposed to inhibitors or medium alone before adding to the cells and the infected cells were cultured in the respective inhibitors or medium alone for 15 hours)

C, Results of experiment design III (MDCK cells infected directly with the viruses and the cells were grown in medium containing inhibitors or medium alone for 15 hours).

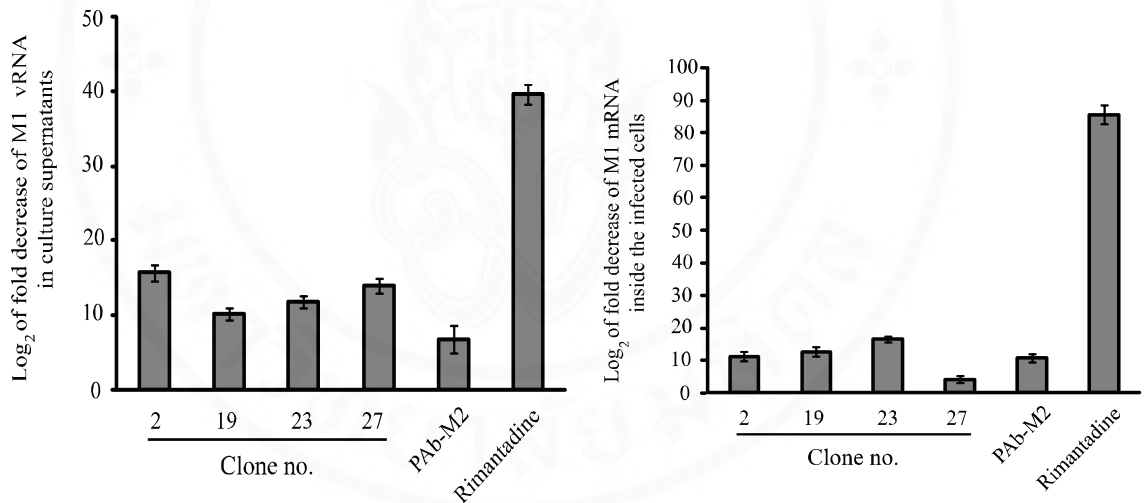
Experimental design I: virus exposed to inhibitors/control before adding to cells and cultured in

medium alone



Experiment design II: virus exposed to inhibitors/control before adding to cells and cultured in

medium containing inhibitors/medium alone (control)



Experiment design III: viruses were added directly to cells; after cellular entry and extracellular

virus removal, the infected cells were grown in medium containing inhibitors/control (medium alone)

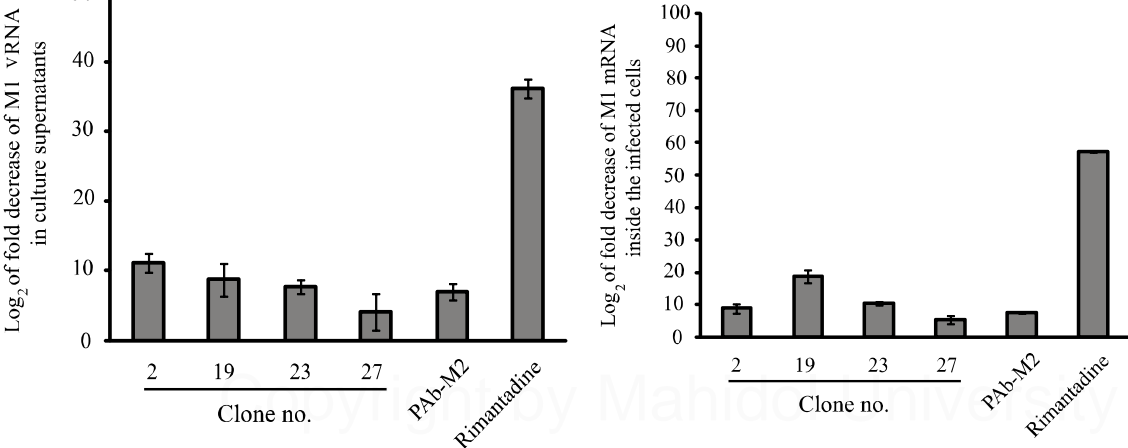


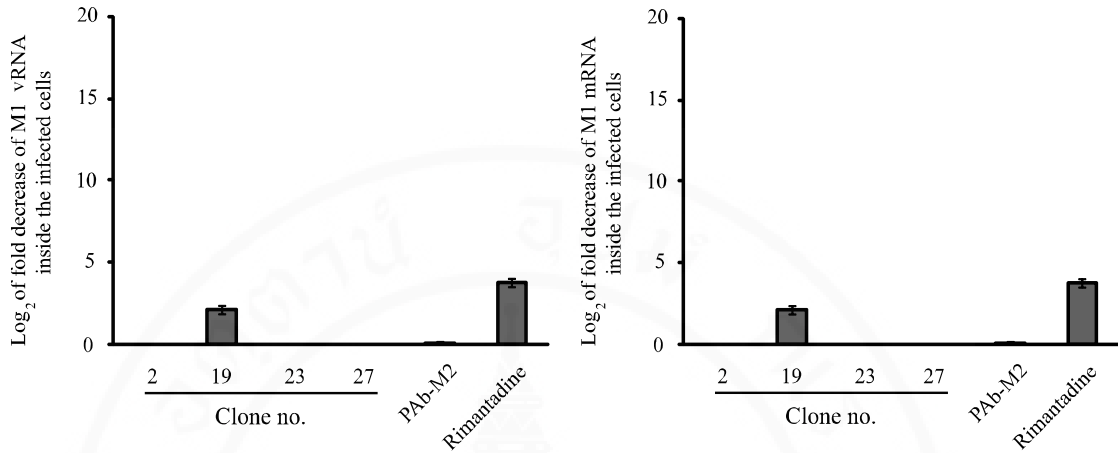
Figure 5.44 (please see legend in the next page)

Figure 5.44 Log₂ of fold decrease in M1 RNA in culture supernatants and inside the cells infected with amantadine sensitive influenza viruses

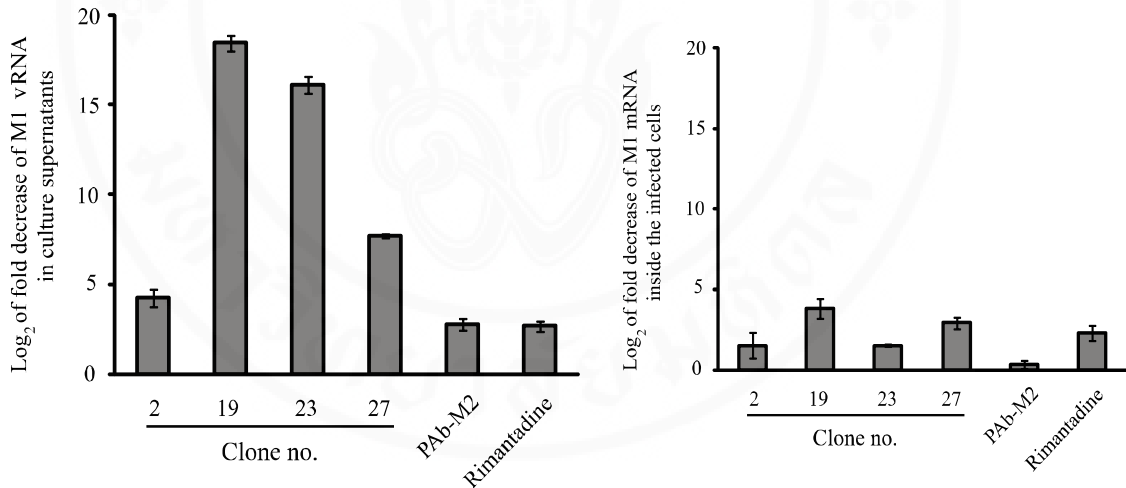
[A/chicken/Thailand/NP172/2006 (clade 2)] treated differently with inhibitors (HuScFv, rimantadine, PAb-M2) in comparison with control (medium alone)



Experimental design I: virus exposed to inhibitors/control before adding to cells and cultured in medium alone



Experiment design II: virus exposed to inhibitors/control before adding to cells and cultured in medium containing inhibitors/medium alone (control)



Experiment design III: viruses were added directly to cells; after cellular entry and extracellular virus removal, the infected cells were grown in medium containing inhibitors/control (medium alone)

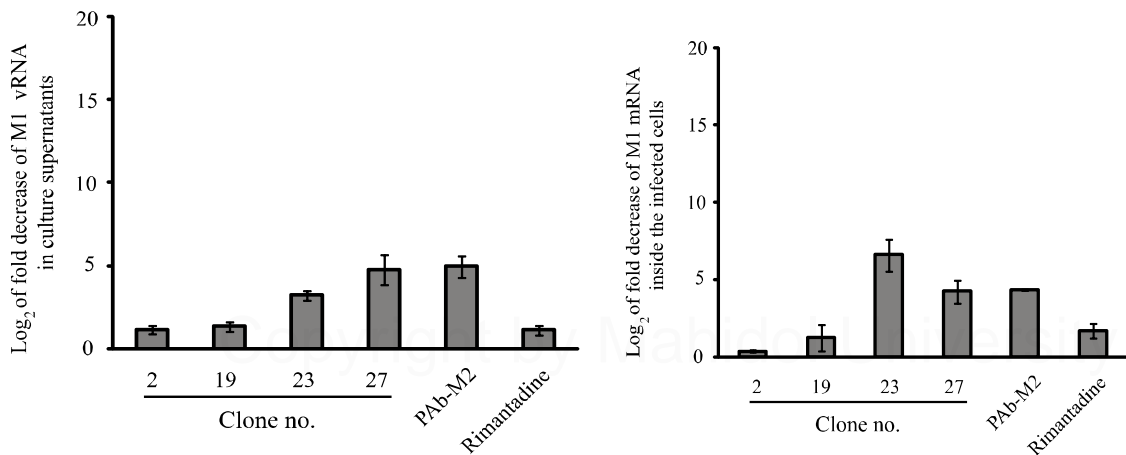


Figure 5.45(please see legend in the next page)

Figure 5.45 Log₂ of fold decrease in RNA in culture supernatants and inside the cells infected with adamantane resistant influenza viruses [A/dog/Thailand/KU08/2004 (clade 1)] treated differently with inhibitors (HuScFv, rimantadine, PAb-M2) in comparison with control (medium alone)



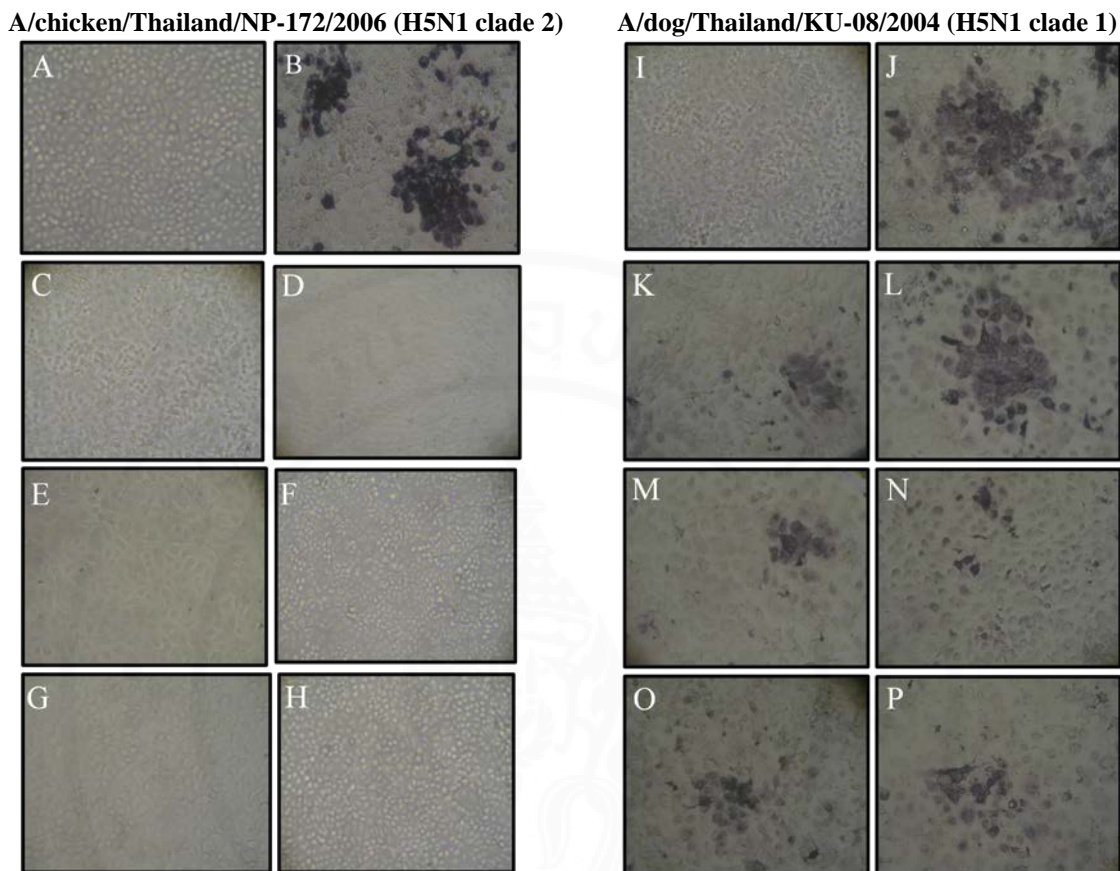


Figure 5.46 Appearances of influenza virus foci in infected MDCK cells treated with HuScFv, PAb to M2 and rimantadine in **Experimental design II**. Adamantane sensitive [A/chicken/Thailand/NP-172/2006 (H5N1 clade 2)] and resistant [A/dog/Thailand/KU-08/2004 (H5N1 clade 1)] viruses were incubated with M2 specific-HuScFv, rimantadine, PAb to M2 or medium alone before adding to MDCK cell monolayer. The cells were cultured in the medium containing respective HuScFv, rimantadine, PAb to M2 and medium alone for 15 hours. Extracellular viruses were removed and the cells were washed before subjecting to immune-staining for virus plaques (foci). **A** and **I**: Uninfected MDCK cell monolayer; **B** and **J**: negative inhibition controls (MDCK cells infected with the viruses); **C** and **K**: MDCK cells infected with viruses exposed to PAb to M2; **D** and **L**: MDCK cells infected with rimantadine exposed viruses; **E** and **M**, **F** and **N**, **G** and **O** and **H** and **P**: MDCK cells infected with viruses exposed to HuScFv2, HuScFv19, HuScFv23 and HuScFv27, respectively.

5.15 Phage peptides that bound to HuScFv (mimotopes) and HuScFv epitopes on M2

In order to determine the sequence of the M2 which the HuScFv could bind to, the HuScFv were immobilized in the ELISA wells and allowed to bind with 12-mer peptides displayed phage bio-panning (**section 4.13.1 of Chapter IV**). After three rounds of the bio-panning, 10 blue plaques were randomly picked and individual phage genomes were extracted and sequenced. All 10 phage clones that bound to HuScFv2 revealed identical peptide sequence (ELWPPNPHAGPP) designated mimotope type M2-1. There was also one mimotope type, *i.e.*, M19-1 (VQIPLSYGQYYK) of HuScFv19. HuScFv23 had three mimotope types: M23-1 (ALWPPNLHAWVP), M23-2 (QYALWPPNLQAGVP) and M23-3 (HSNWDMPPIRLVAS). Two mimotope types were deduced from 10 HuScFv27 bound phage clones: M27-1 (EDVDEIHNQSHV) and M27-2 (ALWPPNLHAWVP). Sequences of all mimotope types were aligned with the monomeric M2 sequences of A/H5N1 of the database, *i.e.*, clade 1: AY651385.1 and clade 2: AB478035.1, in order to locate tentative regions and residues on the monomeric M2 bound by the HuScFv (epitopes) (**Figure 5.47**). The 12 residue phage mimotope peptide of HuScFv of clone no. 2 (M2-1) matched with 39ILWILD44 in transmembrane domain and 63P-TAGVP69 in cytoplasmic domain of M2 of both clades. The mimotope M19-1 matched with 51IYRRLKYG58 of amphipathic helix and 74EEYR77 of cytoplasmic domain. The M23-1 matched with residues 39ILWILD44 of transmembrane helix and 59LK60 of amphipathic helix and 66AGVP69 of cytoplasmic domain; M23-2 matched with 37HLILWILD44 of transmembrane helix, 59LK60 of amphipathic helix and 66AGVP69 of cytoplasmic domain and M23-3 matched with 38LILWILDR45 of transmembrane helix, 59LK60 of amphipathic helix and 67GVPE70 of cytoplasmic domain. The mimotope M27-1 matched with 5TEVE8 and 18RCSDDSDP25 in ectodomain and M27-2: matched with 21DSSDDP26 in ectodomain and 37HLILWIL43 in transmembrane helix.

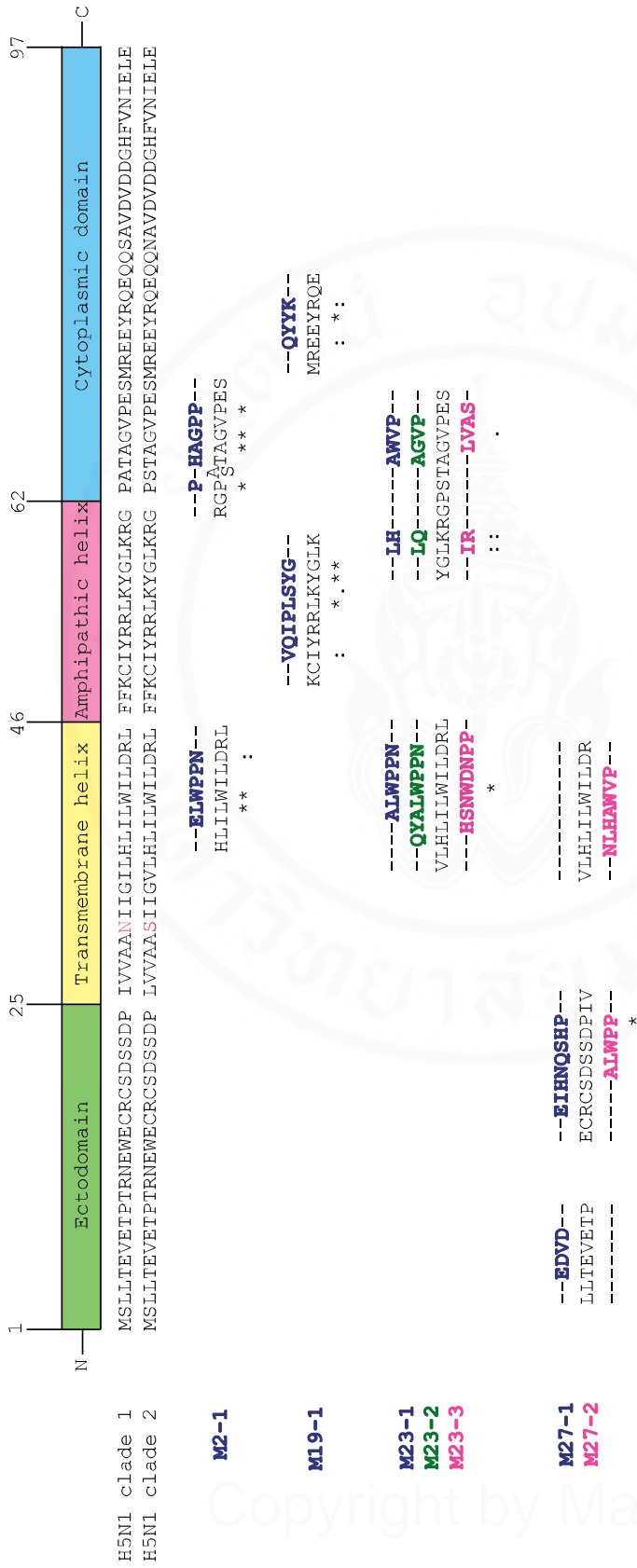


Figure 5.47 Results of the phage peptide sequences matched with residues of A/H5N1 monomeric M2 molecule (epitopes of HuScFv). HuScFv2 mimotope type (M2-1: ELWPPNPHAGPP) matched with amino acid residues in transmembrane helix and cytoplasmic C-terminal of M2 of both viruses; HuScFv19 mimotope type (M19-1: VQIPLSYGQYVK) matched with residues of the M2 amphipathic helix and cytoplasmic C-terminal; HuScFv23 mimotope types (M23-1:ALWPPNLHAWVP, M23-2: QYALWPPNLQAGVP, M23-3: HSNWDNPPIRLVAS) matched with residues in ransmembrane domain, amphipathic helix and cytoplasmic C-terminal; mimotope types of HuScFv27 (M27-1: EDVDIEHNSHP and M27-2: ALWPPNLHANVP) matched with M2 residues in ectodomain and transmembrane helix.

5.16 Determination of the ability of the phage mimotopes in inhibiting the HuScFv binding to the rM2 by using competitive ELISA

Competitive ELISA (see method in **section 4.13.2** of **Chapter IV**) for determining the ability of the phage mimotopes and irrelevant phage mimotope in inhibiting the HuScFv binding to the rM2 are shown in **Figure 5.48**. Binding of the HuScFv clones no. 2, 19, 23, and 27 to the M2 was partially inhibited by the phage mimotope types. The percent inhibition was not 100% for all HuScFv due to binding of the phage peptides to only partial regions of M2. Nevertheless, the results indicated that the mimotopes carried the amino acid residues analogous to the native M2 which verified the mimotope search data.

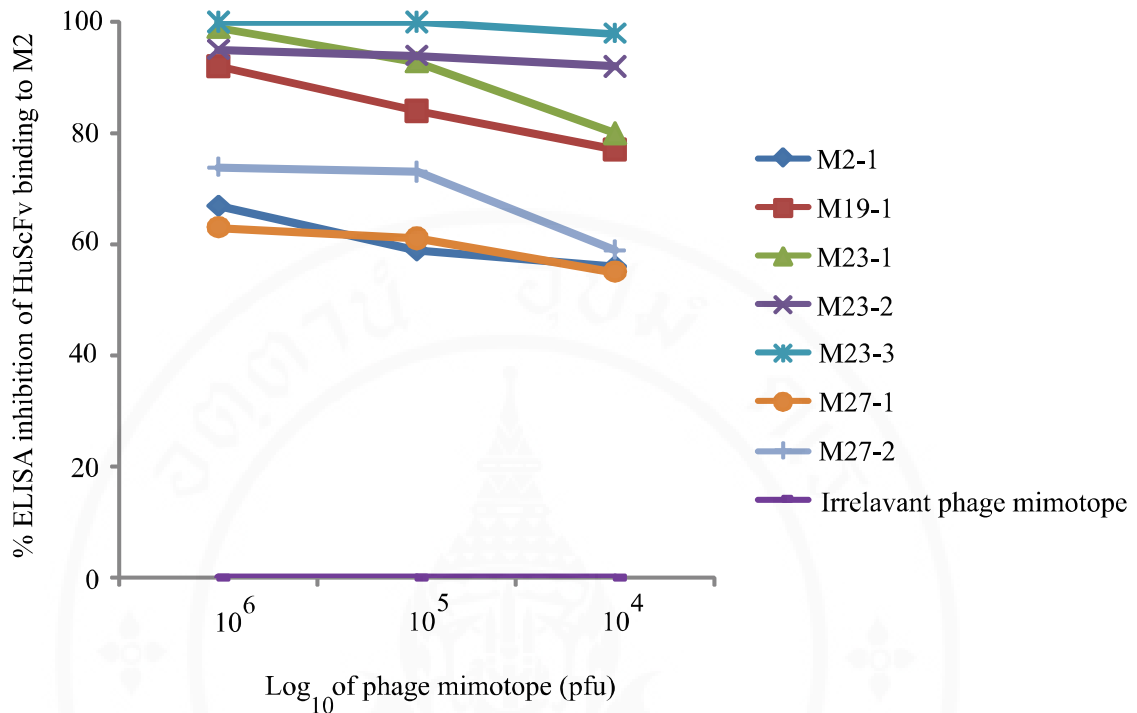


Figure 5.48 Results of competitive ELISA for determining efficiencies of phage mimotopes in blocking the HuScFv binding to rM2. In the assay, individual phage mimotope types, *i.e.*, M2-1: ALWPPNLHAWVP, M19-1: VQIPLSYGQYYK, M23-1: HSNWDMPPIRLVAS, M23-2: QYALWPPNQAGVP, and M23-3: HSNWDMPPIRLVAS, M27-1: EDVDEIHNQSHV and M27-2: ALWPPNLHAWVP at 10^4 , 10^5 and 10^6 pfu were mixed with individual HuScFv ($5 \mu\text{g}$) before adding to the ELISA well containing immobilized rM2 ($10 \mu\text{g}$). HuScFv mixed with irrelevant phage mimotope [CF-6 (mimotope specific to Can f1): HIWWGPQPWMEP] served as background inhibition controls. The percent ELISA inhibition was calculated. The results indicated that the mimotopes could inhibit the HuScFv binding to rM2; implying that they carried the amino acid residues analogous to the native M2 residues that could be bound by the respective HuScFv.

5.17 Regions and residues of tetrameric M2 ion channel bound by HuScFv as determined by homology modeling and molecular docking

The RDOCK and interactive M2 residues for all HuScFv are shown in **Figure 5.49**. The RDOCK between the HuScFv2 and the tetrameric M2 ion channel was -30.38; the HuScFv2 bound to residues 38LIL-ILDRLF47 of the first monomer, residues 25P---A--II-IL--ILW-LD44 of the third monomer and residues 31NIIGILHLILWIL-RL-F48 of the fourth monomer. The RDOCK between HuScFv19 and the M2 tetramer was also -30.48; the HuScFv19 bound to 25PI---AA-II--L--IL--L--LF48 of the first monomer and 31NI---IL-LILWIL-RLFF49 of the second monomer. The RDOCK between the HuScFv23 and the M2 tetramer was -21.99; the HuScFv23 bound to residues 24DPI-VAA-II--L--L----L44 of the third monomer and 28V--NI--IL-LILWIL-RLFF49 of the fourth monomer. The RDOCK between the HuScFv27 and the M2 tetramer was -27.92; the HuScFv27 bound to residues 25PI-VAA-II--LH-IL--L43 of the third monomer and 31N---LILWIL-LFFK50 of the fourth monomer.

Regions of individual monomers of the tetrameric M2 ion channel template obtained from PDB entry 2LY0 that interacted with the HuScFv2, 19, 23 and 27 were obtained from computerized molecular docking in **Figure 5.50**. The so-obtained structure of this PDB entry contained only six residues of ectodomain, complete transmembrane helix and 3 residues of amphipathic helix but lacks completely the C-terminal residues.

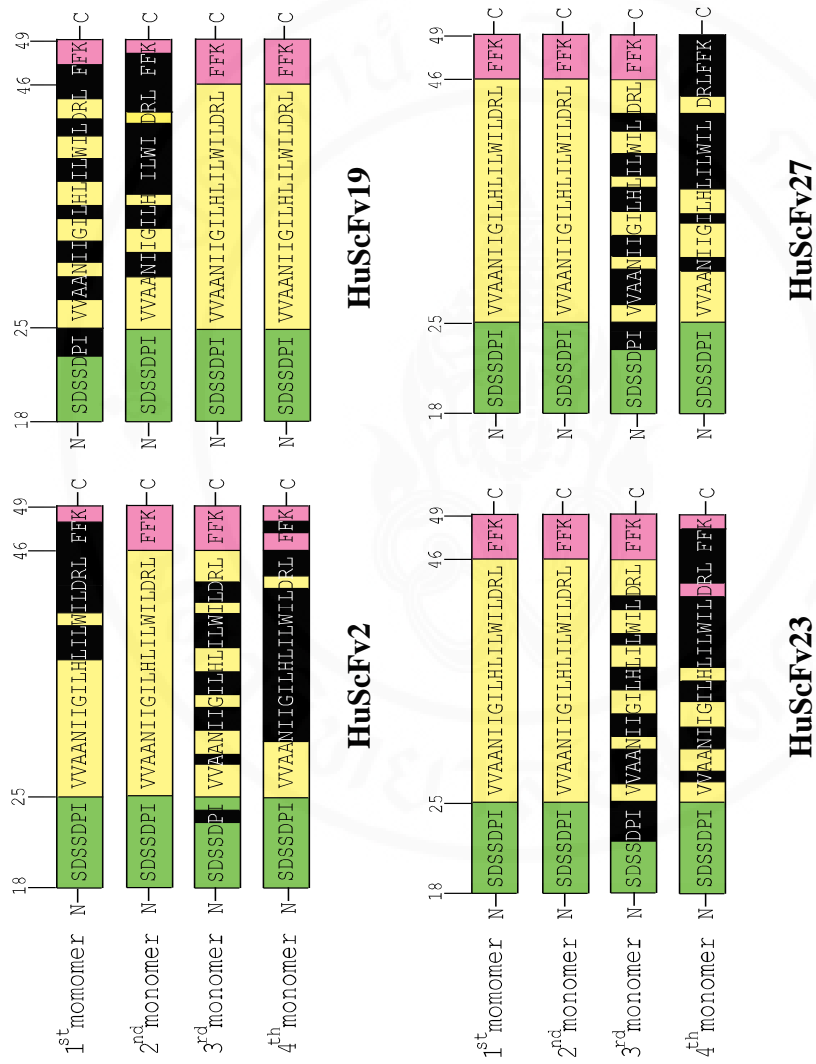


Figure 5.49 Predicted M2 residues (black shades) in individual monomers of the M2 ion channel (tetramer) which were bound by the HuScFv2, 19, 23 and 27

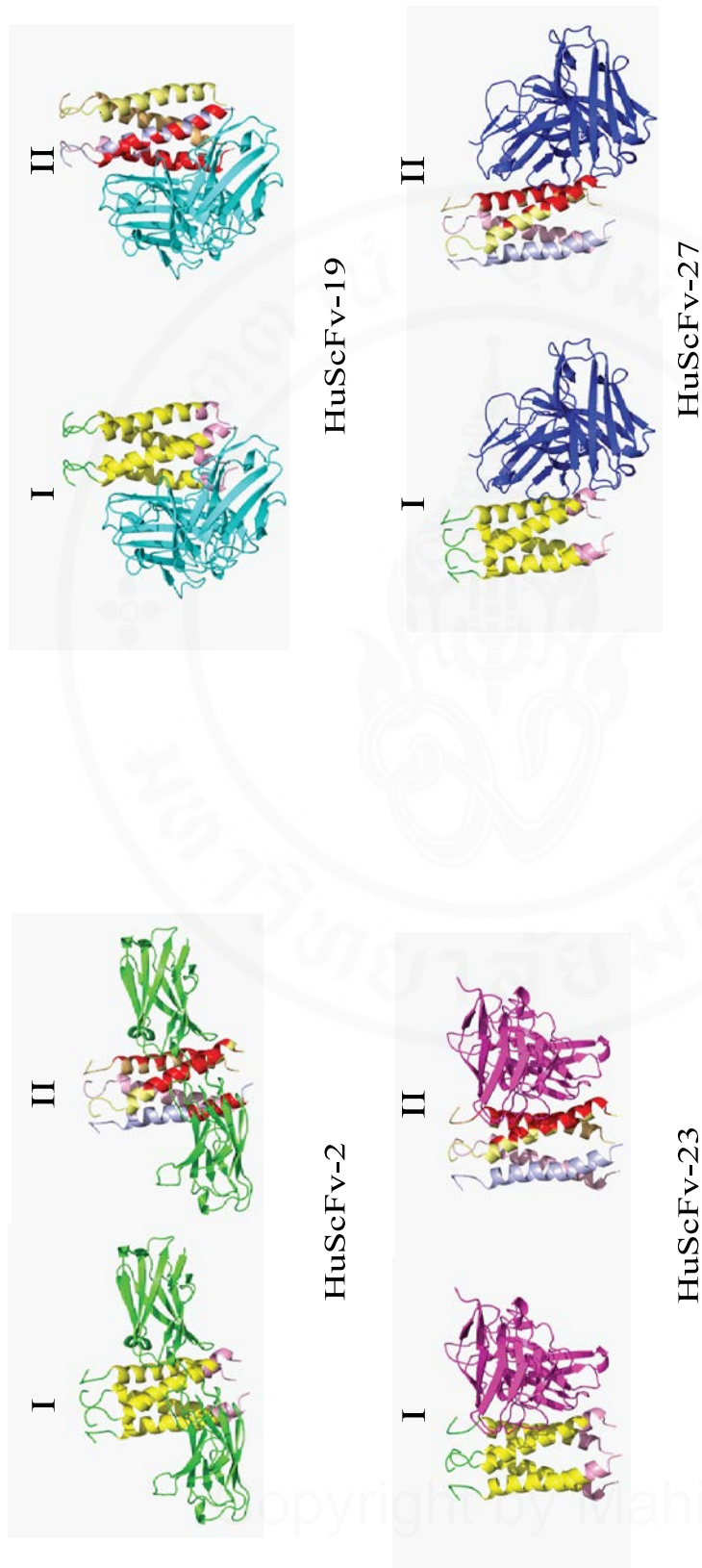


Figure 5.50 Results of molecular docking between the HuScFv with the tetrameric M2 ion channel template which was obtained from PDB entry 2LY0. (I) Interaction of HuScFv2 (green), 19 (cyan), 23 (violet) and 27 (blue) with tetrameric M2 ion channel template. The so-obtained template contained only six residues of ectodomain (green), complete transmembrane helix (yellow) and 3 residues of amphipathic helix (pink) but lacked completely the C-terminal residues. (II) Regions (red shades) of individual M2 monomers (colored in light blue, light pink, light brown and pale yellow for monomers 1-4, respectively) that interacted with the HuScFv.

5.18 Epitopes conservation of M2-specific HuScFv among subtypes and H5N1 clades of type A influenza

Based on M2 sequences of type A influenza deposited in NCBI database (accessed on June, 2013), total unique 1,754 sequences (excluded mixed subtypes and Lab strains) of subtype H5N1, H1N1, H3N2, H7N3, H7N9, and H9N2 which causing human disease were subjected to multiply aligned. **Figure 5.51** illustrates alignments of whole M2 sequences which shown highly conserved as demonstrated in blue shaded (>80% identity) among influenza type A strains. The result implied that the HuScFv should be able to counteract the M2 activities across influenza A virus subtypes and H5N1 clades.

The M2 specific HuScFv binding sites were located at amino acid residue 24 to 50 mapped to transmembrane domain (26-46) and four residues (47-50) of amphipathic helix domain from 97 amino acids length of M2 sequence (from tetrameric M2-HuScFvs docking results, **Figure 5.49**). There are some epitope variants with 11 point mutations in part of transmembrane domain, *i.e.*, L26I, V28I, V27A, I32V, S31N, I32V, L36 V, L43I, T, or F, R45H, F48S, and C50S, or F (**Table 5.4**) and two variants at V27A, and S31N were markers of adamantane resistance found in the region of M2-specific HuScFv epitope.

Table 5.4 Epitope variants of M2 specific HuScFv among type A influenza

Influenza A virus subtype	Clade	Strain	Transmembrane domain (residue 26 to 46) and amphipathic helix domain (residues 47 to 50)
H5N1	0	A/duck/Vietnam/1/2005	24---I---N-----50
H5N1	1	A/Thailand/1(KAN-1)/2004	24-DPLVVAAASIIIGILHLILWILDRLFFKC-50*
		A/chicken/Thailand/PC-340/2008	
		A/duck/Thailand/CU-328/07	
H5N1	7	A/chicken/Vietnam/NCVD-093/2008	24-----N-----H-----50
		A/chicken/Shanxi/2/2006	
H7N3		A/maxico/InDRE7218/2012	24-----I-----50
		A/Canada/rv504/2004	
H7N9		A/northern shoverl/Mississippi/110s145/2011	24-----I-----F-----50
H7N9		A/Hangzhou/1/2013	24-----N-----50
		A/Zhejiang/DTID-ZJU01/2013	

* indicates M2 wild type of amantadine sensitive strain (Influenza A/duck/Nong-Khai/Thailand/KU-56/2007)

Dash line indicates amino acid identity

Table 5.4 Epitope variants of M2 specific HuScFv among type A influenza (cont.)

Influenza A virus subtype	Clade	Strain	Transmembrane domain (residue 26 to 46) and amphipathic helix domain (residues 47 to 50)
H5N1	2.1	A/Indonesia/6/2005	24-----A-----V-----F-50
H1N1		A/Thailand/CU23/2006	24-----V-----I-----S-S-50
H3N2		A/Hangzhou/1/2013	24-----N-----50
H1N1		A/Zhejiang/DTID-ZJU01/2013	24-----I--N-----T-----50
H3N2		A/Thailand/CU-H106/2006	
		A/Thailand/CU-H2911/2011	
		A/Indiana/10/2011	

* indicates M2 wild type of amantadine sensitive strain (Influenza A/duck/Nong-Khai/Thailand/KU-56/2007)

Dash line indicates amino acid identity

5.19 Inhibition of M2 mediated LC3-II upregulation by M2 specific-HuScFv

Four clones of M2 specific HuScFv exhibited neutralizing activity (from section 5.14) and epitope function at the 60 amino acids at N-terminus of M2 related to anti-autophagy activity.

5.19.1 Determination of LC3-II transcriptional levels of H5N1 /NP172 infected MDCK cells.

Preliminary comparative qPCR results of LC3-II mRNA inside the MDCK cells infected with H5N1/NP172 (MOI 0.5) with and without HuScFv were determined. MDCK cells infected with H5N1/NP172 were used as autophagy negative control which the baseline of fold decrease of LC3-II mRNA was set at 0. Uninfected MDCK cells and infected cells treated with rimantadine were used as autophagy positive controls. The comparative mRNA levels compared to H5N1/NP172 infected cells revealed that rimantadine had the most effect in inhibiting the influenza virus mediated anti-autophagy. HuScFv2 and 27 could up-regulated LC3-II mRNA while HuScfv19, HuScFv23 and pAb-M2 down-regulated LC3-II mRNA. (Figure 5.52).

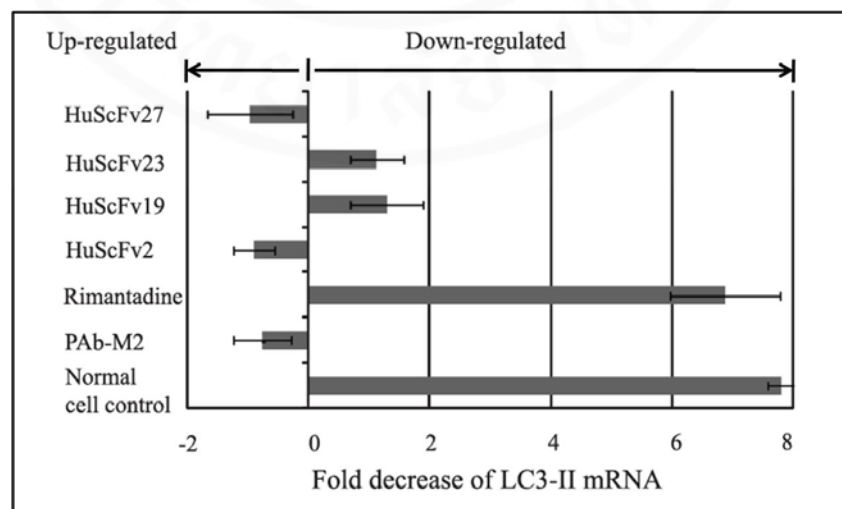


Figure 5.52 Comparative real-time RT-PCR of LC3-II mRNA of H5N1/NP172 (MOI 0.5) infected MDCK cells compared to M2 specific HuScFv2, 19, 23 and 27 treatments. Rimantadine and pAb-M2 were used as positive control and infected cells in medium was used as negative control.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSIONS

An unprecedented influenza pandemic caused either by newly re-assorted or highly pathogenic avian influenza viruses (including H5, H7 and H9) that have adapted to more efficient human to human transmission is the current global public health threat (Horimoto and Kawaoka, 1994; Cheung *et al.*, 2002; Jia *et al.*, 2009; Trifonov *et al.*, 2009; Gao *et al.*, 2013). This is not only because the world population lack background immunity to the new virus, but also the current seasonal vaccines are not going to be effective against the new pandemic strain. Moreover, the supply of anti-influenza drugs may not be adequate during the pandemic/large epidemic and the virus might resist the currently available anti-influenza agents. Besides, there has been a continuous emergence of the circulating influenza virus variants that are refractory to the influenza treatment (Sheu *et al.*, 2011). Extensive research for developing a broad spectrum influenza vaccine which could protect across influenza virus subtypes and a search for new anti-influenza chemicals are ongoing (Saladino *et al.*, 2010).

Antibody has been used as therapeutic agents of infectious diseases and intoxication even before the era of antimicrobials (Casadevall, 1996). It is known that antibody is more tolerable to the target mutation than small molecular drugs because of the multiple target contact points created by amino acids in the complementarity determining regions (CDRs) (Davies *et al.*, 1996; Kim & Toge, 2004). Antibodies have been used successfully for influenza treatment. For examples, specific monoclonal antibody produced from immune B cells of immunized mice could cure influenza virus infected mice (Smirnov *et al.*, 2000; Renegar *et al.*, 2004). Humanized- and horse derived F(ab)₂ fragments specific to H5N1 could treat influenza in the mouse model (Lu *et al.*, 2006; Hanson *et al.*, 2006). Human monoclonal single chain variable antibody fragments (HuScFv) specific to HA of H5N1 virus could rescue mice from lethal infections with homologous and heterologous H5N1 strains (Maneewatch *et al.*, 2009). Single domain antibody (V_HH) blocked the M2 ion channel activity and neutralized influenza virus infection in mice (Wei *et al.*, 2011). Passively

transferred M2e-specific monoclonal antibody to mice caused acceleration of the lung viral clearance (Treanor *et al.*, 1990). Serum of H5N1 convalescing subject could rescue the patient infected with drug resistant H5N1 (Zhou *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, influenza therapy by engineered human antibody which could be produced adequately *in vitro* without a prolonged immunization or seeking for the disease convalescing subjects (which the supply is limited) is of interest. The fully human antibodies should be safe and more tolerable also to viral mutation than the small molecule drugs.

Among the 11 proteins of the influenza A viruses, three proteins, namely hemagglutinin (HA), neuraminidase (NA) and matrix protein-2 (M2), are surface exposed on influenza virus envelope and infected cell membrane which are vulnerable targets for immune apparatus including antibodies and cytotoxic lymphocytes (Nayak *et al.*, 2010). Recent evidences have shown that during influenza virus infection, cellular membrane has increased permeability (Gonzalez and Carraso, 2003; Wang *et al.*, 2010). Thus, therapeutic antibodies especially the small molecular sizes such as single chain antibodies could traverse the cell membrane and become accessible to the intracellular target epitopes.

HuScFv specific to HA, NA and M2 of influenza A virus

Living H1N1-2009 virus adsorbed on the hRBC ghosts were used as panning antigen to select phage clones displaying HuScFv that bound to the functional forms of native HA, NA and M2 from the previously constructed human ScFv (HuScFv) phage display library (Kulkeaw *et al.*, 2009). Live, unfixed influenza viruses were used in order to preserve the native/functional epitope configurations of the proteins (Shi *et al.*, 1997). The human group O red blood cell ghosts were used for capturing the human influenza virus because the ghosts have $\alpha 2,6$ Gal on the membrane which is the human influenza virus receptor (Hirst, 1948; Nicholls *et al.*, 2012) and also the O red cells devoid of interferences from A and B antigens and hemoglobin protein (Dean, 2005).

The HB2151 *E. coli* transfected with phages that bound to H1N1-2009 virus antigen on the hRBC ghosts were selected from the HuScFv phage display library which had been subtracted by panning with the hRBC ghosts without virus for three panning rounds in order to avoid/minimize selection of hRBC ghost bound

phages. The phage transfected bacteria grown on the selective agar plate were screened firstly for the presence of *huscfv* sequences. From the 100 randomly selected phagemid transformed HB2151 *E. coli*, only 34% (34 clones) were positive for the *huscfv* sequences, seen as DNA band at ~ 1,000 bp. Originally, 85% of the phages in the HuScFv display phage library were positive for *huscfv* (Kulkeaw *et al*, 2009). The lower percentage of the *huscfv* carrying *E. coli* clones obtained in this study might be due to a prolonged storage of the phage library (more than 5 years) which some of the clones might have lost the *huscfv* inserts. Among the 34 *huscfv*-phagemid carrying clones, 20 (20%) could express HuScFv seen as protein bands at ~26-35 kDa. The lysates containing HuScFv of these 20 clones were tested for binding to recombinant HA, NA and M2 proteins of influenza virus by indirect ELISA and HuScFv of 8 clones could bind to the target proteins implying that the HuScFv of the other 12 clones bound to the hRBC ghost proteins which were more abundant (Steck, 1974) even though the phage library had been subtracted for three rounds with the hRBC ghosts.

The 8 *huscfv*-phagemid transformed *E. coli* clones could be divided according to the binding specificities of their HuScFv into 4 groups: 1) HuScFv that bound to rHA0, rNA and M2 (clone nos. 2, 10, 26 and 54), HuScFv that bound to rHA0 and rNA (clone no. 53), HuScFv that bound M2 (clone nos. 15 and 51) and HuScFv that bound rHA (clone no. 99). There are many reasons for the multiple protein binding specificities of the HuScFv. First, clustering of native HA, NA and M2 at the budding site of influenza virus from infected cell (Lamb and Rossman, 2011) might have created a unique structure formed by amino acids of individual proteins that have been brought to juxtaposition. Second, similar epitopes might exist on the different influenza virus proteins. Indeed, from multiple alignments of the HA, NA and M2 sequences, a common amino acid sequence with identical, conserved and semi-conserved amino acids were found as the following:

CLUSTAL 2.1 multiple sequence alignment

```

M2   MSLLT-EVET 9   (1-9)
HA   LSSVS-SFER 9   (104-112)
NA   INWLTIGISG 10 (111-120)
      .. :: ..

```

Nevertheless, the similar epitopes on the three proteins may or may not have similar molecular function in the virus life cycle. Many previous studies have shown that unknown epitopes of these three proteins contributed the same or synergistic function. For examples, membrane pores could be formed by viral glycoproteins (HA and NA) during the entry and infectivity of M2-deficient influenza virus (Watanabe *et al.*, 2001). Similar observation was observed for p7 viroporin deficient HCV (Steinmann, 2007; Wozniak *et al.*, 2010). The NA protein of influenza A virus is not only required for virion release and spread but also plays a critical role in virion infectivity and HA-mediated membrane fusion (Su *et al.*, 2009). M2 is important for virus budding before NA mediated release of the virion (Rossamn and Lamb, 2011).

The HuScFv specific to native M2 derived from phage bio-panning with virus particles adsorbed onto hRBC ghosts did not bind to SDS-PAGE separated rM2 on Western blot membrane (**Figure 5.20, Chapter V**) but bound in the indirect ELISA. This might be because the nM2 specific-HuScFv bound to the functional epitopes of correctly folded ectodomain of native M2 formed on the viral target cell (Pietzsch, 2003). The conformation of the native epitope was not preserved in the Western blotting condition. In the ELISA, the refolded rM2 dissolved in PBS and coated onto the surface of the ELISA well may acquire the epitope configuration, *i.e.*, the epitope bound by the nM2 specific-HuScFv was present.

The full length HA (HA0) composed of globular head (HA1) and stem (HA2). After determining the binding specificity by using indirect ELISA and Western blotting, the native HA specific-HuScFv could be divided into two groups depended on the domain of the HA molecule that they bound. HuScFv of clone nos. 2, 10, 26 and 54 (HuScFv2, 10, 26 and 54) reacted to HA1 and HuScFv53 and 99 bound to HA2. The binding specificity of the HuScFv2, 10, 26 and 54 was confirmed by the

finding that they could inhibit hemagglutinin function of the HA1 in the hemagglutination inhibition (HI) assay. HB2151 *E. coli* lysate had background inhibition of the viral hemagglutinin binding to the sialic acid receptor on red blood cells because it contained mannose-specific activity (Rosenthal, 1943; Öhman *et al*, 1982; Vaithilingan *et al*, 2012). However, after normalization of the total proteins in the *E. coli* lysate before testing the HI activity, *E. coli* lysates containing HuScFv2, 10, 26 and 54 could give the HI titers higher than that of the lysate of the original HB2151 *E. coli*.

The amino acid sequences of representative *huscfv*-phagemid transformed *E. coli* clones from each antigen binding groups (clone nos. 26, 51, 53 and 99 for groups 1-4, respectively) were determined before use in the HuScFv mediated-interference of the virus replication cycle. All of the selected HuScFv had different amino acid sequences especially at the CDRs implying that they bound to different epitopes and thus should mediate different mechanisms in interfering the influenza virus replication cycle. Large amounts of the HuScFv of the for clones could be produced after subcloning of the *huscfv* sequences from phagemids to pET plasmids while the antibodies still retained their original antigenic specificities.

Three experimental designs were used in testing efficacy of the HuScFv in interfering with the viral replication cycles. The amounts of viral foci were lowest in experimental design-II (which the HuScFv were mixed with the virus before adding to MDCK cell monolayer as well as adding to the cell culture medium). This should be because the HuScFv could interfere with many processes of the virus infectious cycle including binding to receptor, uncoating, replication and budding. The numbers of viral foci of experimental design-I (HuScFv were mixed with the virus before adding to cells; after incubation, the extracellular fluid was removed and the infected cells were cultured in medium alone without antibody) were highest because the HuScFv could block only at the initial virus adsorption and uncoating. The amount of viral foci in experimental design-III (viruses were allowed to infect cells directly and the infected cells were cultured in the medium containing HuScFv which could block at the steps of virus replication and budding) were moderate (less efficient than experimental design-II but more efficient than experimental design-I).

Vaccinated (immune) serum had the highest efficiency in experimental design-I (blocking at steps of binding and uncoating), because the serum contained polyclonal antibodies specific to HA, NA and M2 which could blocked the binding and uncoating of influenza virus. HuScFv53 (specific to HA and NA) had high efficacy because HuScFv-53 block the virus entry played by HA and NA (Roger *et al.*, 1983; Skehel *et al.*, 1982; Su *et al.*, 2009). HuScFv26 had high efficacy too because it could bind to HA, NA and M2. Although percent of inhibition of HuScFv26 would be lower than HuScFv53 in the experimental design-I, this might be due to different epitope specificity; the epitope of HuScFv26 might not contribute directly to the virus entry and uncoating. The HuScFv51 had high efficacy too because the binding epitope on M2 might involve in virus uncoating. While HuScFv99 (specific to HA) and HuScFv-NA had minimal effect (less than that of HuScFv53 and HuScFv26), this might be because the amino acid epitopes of these HuScFv may not be critical for binding and uncoating.

For comparison of each HuScFv in experimental design-II (blocking virus binding, uncoating as well as replication and budding), vaccinated serum has also the highest efficiency. HuScFv26 (specific to HA, NA and M2) and HuScFv53 (specific to HA and NA) showed high efficacy in these experiment because HuScFv specific to HA and NA might involved in blocking virus binding and uncoating and HuScFv specific to HA, NA and M2 might obstruct virus release from infected cells. HuScFv51 (specific to M2) had high efficacy in inhibition of virus infection too. This may be due to the ability of the eM2 specific-HuScFv to block the ion channel activity and anti-autophagy. HuScFv99 (specific to HA) also gave high efficacy in percent inhibition of virus foci because HuScFv specific to HA might obstruct uncoating of both primary and interfering of viral uncoating of the progeny virion (secondary infection of influenza virus). While HuScFvNA had the lowest efficacy in percent inhibition of virus foci among all HuScFv, these might be because HuScFv specific to NA might only have ability in blocking viral release and budding.

HuScFv53 (specific to HA and NA) and HuScFv26 (specific to HA, NA and M2) had similar efficacy in interference of the influenza virus replication cycle in experimental design-III as they might interfere with the viral release and budding (Su

et al., 2009; Rossman and Lamb, 2011). HuScFv51 (specific to eM2) and HuScFv99 (specific to HA) had lower efficacy in interference of the influenza virus replication cycle than that of HuScFv53 and HuScFv26 because they might interfere only virus entry to the cell. The vaccinated serum had less efficiency than the HuScFv-53 and -26 which might be because of their inability to enter the cells. HuScFv-NA had the lowest efficacy in percent inhibition of virus foci among all HuScFv because HuScFv specific to NA might only have ability in blocking viral release and budding.

From all three experimental designs, HuScFv-NA gave low percent inhibition of virus foci. These might be because HuScFv-NA received from HuScFv phage display library bio-panning with recombinant N1 of H5N1, thus HuScFv-NA may bind N1 of H1N1/2009 in low affinity caused low efficacy in interfering H1N1 replication cycle.

All of the speculative HuScFv mediated mechanisms await experimental clarification by determining the HuScFv epitopic peptides or at least computerized molecular docking.

HuScFv specific to M2 of influenza A virus

Because the HuScFv secreted by *E. coli* clones derived from phage bio-panning with live H1N1-2009 virus adsorbed on hRBC ghosts should react only to the surface exposed portion of the M2, *i.e.*, ectodomain, therefore, the soluble recombinant M2 protein in relatively pure form was used as an antigen in another phage panning for selection of phage clones for production of transformed *E. coli* that could produce HuScFv specific to other M2 domains. The next paragraph gives a brief account on pivotal functions of M2 domains on the influenza virus infectious cycle.

The first known M2 function is the pH dependent selective proton channel activity formed by homotetrameric M2 molecules on the virus surface. The channel is important for vRNP uncoating from endosome into cytoplasm and subsequent replication in nucleus (Helenius, 1992). The ion channel pore is lined by the polar amino acids Val²⁷, Ser³¹, Gly³⁴, His³⁷, Trp⁴¹, Asp⁴⁴ and Arg⁴⁵ of the transmembrane (TM) tetrahelices while the channel integrity is maintained by TM non-polar residues

and the positively charged residues of the TM and the amphipathic helix (Sharma *et al.*, 2010). At the high pH, the pore is closed by the TM helices and the constrictive gates mediated by Val²⁷ at the N-terminal ion entrance and Trp⁴¹ at the C-terminal ion exit (Helenius, 1992; Sharma *et al.*, 2010). Under endosomal low pH condition, the highly proton selective His³⁷ senses the acidification at the N-terminal and allows inward flow of H⁺ through the channel, whereas the gate formed by linking the Trp⁴¹ indole ring side chain with Asp⁴⁴ and Arg⁴⁵ is open; thus allowing the outward flow of the proton to the C-terminal and release (Achaya *et al.*, 2010). Adamantane compounds, including amantadine and its derivative rimantadine, block the ion channel activity of influenza A viruses. Amantadine obstructs the ion channel pore by binding to Ser³¹ and the surrounding Val²⁷, Ala³⁰ and Gly³⁴ (Stouffeer *et al.*, 2008). The rimantadine binds to the gate at a lipid facing pocket of the channel formed by Trp⁴¹, Ile⁴², and Arg⁴⁵ from one TM helix and Leu⁴⁰, Leu⁴³, and Asp⁴⁴ of the nearby helix (Helenius, 1992). Resistance to the drugs has occurred in > 98% of transmissible A/H1N1, A/H5N1, A/H7N9 and A/H3N2 strains by mutations, most frequently S31N and less so V27A and L26F (Layne *et al.*, 2009; Balgi *et al.*, 2013). The mutations cause failure of ion channel blocking by amantadine and ineffective fitting of rimantadine into the channel pocket due to the weakness of the TM helix packing (Pielak *et al.*, 2009). Several compounds that are potent inhibitors of V27A and L26F mutants have been produced and tested (Balannik *et al.*, 2009). However, effective inhibitor of S31N mutant has not been found (Du *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, the M2 protein has been attractive target of anti-influenza agents.

In the second part of this study, fully human single chain antibody variable fragments (HuScFv) that bound specifically to recombinant and native M2 of A/H5N1 viruses belonging to different clades were successfully produced using phage display technology. The so-produced small antibodies were tested for their ability to inhibit the virus replication using rimantadine and polyclonal antibodies to full length recombinant M2 (PAb) as positive inhibitors. As expected, rimantadine was highly effective for the drug sensitive virus variant and rather refractory for the resistant mutant. The observed ability of the PAb in reducing the viruses inside the cells and in cell culture supernatant should be due to viral aggregation and steric hindrance of the ion channel activity. The HuScFv derived from all four *E. coli* clones also caused

significant reduction of the amounts of both drug sensitive and resistant A/H5N1 viruses in the infected cells and the culture supernatants in experimental designs-II and -III while these HuScFv(s) had low effect in experimental design-I which the reasons are given below:

In experimental design-I, HuScFv and mPAb-M2 could interact only in the area of eM2 thus amount of virus foci and viral M1 RNA of both infected cells and viral supernatants did not decrease comparing with the infected cell control. Small size of rimantadine drug which can get into the target in the M2 ion channel could decrease amounts of the viral foci and M1 RNA in the H5N1 sensitive strain. HuScFv19, 23, 27 and PAb-M2 caused a decrease of the amount of M1 RNA because they could interact with eM2 (molecular docking revealed that HuScFv19 and 23 bound also to amino acids in eM2).

In experimental design-II, sustained exposure to inhibitors (HuScFv, PAb-M2 and rimantadine) could reduce the virus foci in cells infected both H5N1 sensitive and resistant strains. The amounts of viral M1 RNA of infected cells in all inhibitor treatments were not different significantly. Nevertheless, the viral M1 RNA in supernatants of infected cells with H5N1 resistance strain (viral release) treated with HuScFv were significantly less than infected cells treated with PAb-M2 and rimantadine. This should be due to the ability of the HuScFv to enter the cells and interfered with M2 domains involved in new virion assembly and release. HuScFv19 and 23 gave the most effectiveness in reducing the M1 RNA of adamantane resistant strain as they should interact with the M2 amphipathic helix and cytoplasmic domain which has important role in viral assembly and release (Rossman and Lamb, 2011). HuScFv2 and 27 have lower effect than that of HuScFv19 and 23 because they interact with the M2 ectodomain and transmembrane domains which function in viral uncoating. PAb-M2 has lower effect than that of all HuScFv treatment because they could interfere only ectodomain of M2. Rimantadine has also lower effect than that of all HuScFv treatment because it inhibits only in ion channel function of M2.

In experimental design-III, influenza virus infection increases permeability of membranes of the infected cells. The HuScFv could easily access to the M2 target; thus the HuScFv could reduce the virus foci in cells infected both H5N1 sensitive and

resistant strains. In H5N1 adamantane sensitive strain, the amounts of viral M1 RNA in both infected cells and viral supernatant of rimantadine treatment show the highest reduction while HuScFv and PAb-M2 were not different significantly. In H5N1 adamantane resistant strain, PAb-M2 and HuScFv23 and 27 that interact with transmembrane domain gave high effect in reduction of viral M1 RNA in both infected cells and viral supernatant because they involved in interfering of viral uncoating of the progeny virion (secondary infection). Moreover, HuScFv23 that interact with amphipathic helix domain of M2 also interfere viral assembly and budding, and HuScFv27 that interact with eM2 domain may be help in blocking of viral uncoating (interference of ion channel M2 activity). HuScFv2 and HuScFv19 could interact with only transmembrane domain and amphipathic helix domain, respectively therefore efficacy in reduction of viral M1 RNA were lower than that of HuScFv23 and HuScFv27. Rimantadine has also only one target at transmembrane domain too so the efficacy in reduction of viral M1 RNA were equal with HuScFv2 and HuScFv19

It is known that during various virus infections, such as hepatitis C, human immunodeficiency, polio, toga and influenza, cellular membrane has increased permeability (Carrasco, 1978 & 1995; Gonzalez & Carrasco, 2003; Hout, 2004; Wang *et al*, 2011; Thueng-in *et al*, 2012). Intracellular entry of HuScFv specific to influenza virus protein and co-localization of the antibody with the specific protein target inside the infected cells have been observed by confocal microscopy (data not shown). In this study, the monovalent HuScFv which devoid of virus agglutinating ability were effective in inhibiting the virus replication indicating that the small antibodies could enter the virus infected cells and exerted M2 function interference. Epitopes of the HuScFv identified by means of phage mimotope searching and mimotope inhibition ELISA as well as molecular docking pointed out that the HuScFv of clones no. 2, 23, and 27 bound to the gate area (Trp⁴¹) of the M2 ion channel Therefore, the observed ability of the HuScFv of these clones in inhibiting the influenza virus replication was likely to be a consequence of the antibody mediated interference of the ion channel activity leading to failure of the virus uncoating. Moreover, the pH gradient equilibration between the trans-Golgi network and cytosol by the ion channel activity could be interrupted also, causing pre-mature maturation of the virus hemagglutinin

(Sugrue *et al.*, 1990). The amphipathic helix and cytoplasmic domain of the influenza virus M2 induces cellular membrane curvature during the virus assembly, increases vRNP packaging by M1-M2 interaction and assists the membrane scission in virus budding process (reference). The finding that peptide epitopes of the HuScFv of clones no. 2, 19 and 23 located in the amphipathic and cytoplasmic domains of the M2 indicated that the antibodies might inhibit the virus replication by interfering with the functions of the amphipathic helix and the cytoplasmic tail. During the infection, the N-terminal 1-60 residues of the influenza virus M2 compromises survival of influenza virus-infected cells by inhibiting the cellular macroautophagy formation (Gannage *et al.*, 2009). The finding that many epitopic residues of M2 potentially bound by the HuScFv of all clones also located in the N-terminal portion indicating that the antibodies might as well counteract the M2 function on anti-autophagosome-lysosome fusion.

Multiple alignments of the M2 amino acid sequences of various influenza A subtypes and human pathogenic clades of subtype H5N1 revealed that the HuScFv epitopic peptides are highly conserved among the viruses implying that the HuScFv should be able to counteract the M2 activities across subtypes and H5N1 clades.

There was a trend that HuScFv19 and 23 could down-regulated LC3-II mRNA in the influenza virus infected cells treated with the HuScFv indicating that the HuScFv could rescue the host cells from the M2 mediated anti-autophagy. Nevertheless, demonstration on the reduction in amount of the LC3-II protein and the host proteins involved in the HuScFv mediated inhibition of the anti-autophagy need further experiments.

Although the speculated molecular mechanisms of the HuScFv produced in this study in interfering with the influenza virus replication await experimental verification, the HuScFv have high potential for developing further as a safe, novel and mutation tolerable pan anti-influenza agent.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS

The ultimate goal of this research was to produce human monoclonal single chain variable antibody fragments (HuScFv) specific to influenza type A surface exposed protein (HA, NA, and/or M2) that neutralize bio-functions of the surface exposed proteins for developing further into human anti-influenza agents. The experimental results could be summarized as the followings:

Production of recombinant influenza virus proteins including HA (HA0, HA1 and HA2), M2 and NP

1. Viral RNA from culture supernatant of MDCK cells infected with influenza virus A/Thailand/CU41/2006 (H1N1) and cDNA of HA0-, HA1- and HA2- coding sequences were successfully prepared.
2. The amino acid sequences of HA0, HA1 and HA2 had 100%, 99% and 100% identity, respectively, compared to hemagglutinin sequence of NCBI database, *i.e.*, influenza A virus [A/Thailand/CU41/2006 (H1N1) (accession no.: ABS71664.1)] which was the virus strain used for preparing cDNA template for cloning.
3. Recombinant HA0, HA1 and HA2 and NP were produced from appropriate transformed *E. coli* clones. The recombinant HA0, HA1 and HA2 and NP were found in the insoluble fractions of the respective transformed *E. coli* homogenates. Thus the recombinant proteins were purified under denaturing condition by using buffer containing 8 M urea and Ni-NTATM affinity resin. Then the purified recombinant proteins were prepared by refolding against PBS.
4. The recombinant M2 were found in both soluble and insoluble fractions of the transformed *E. coli* homogenate; thus the protein was affinity purified under native condition from the soluble *E. coli* fraction.

HuScFv specific to HA, NA and M2 of influenza A virus

1. H1N1/2009 virus adsorbed-hRBC ghosts were used as target antigen in a single round phage bio-panning to select phage clones displaying HuScFv that could recognize to native conformation of H1, N1 and M2 from a HuScFv phage display library constructed from immunoglobulin genes of Thai blood donors.
2. From 100 randomly selected *huscfv*-phagemid transformed HB2151 *E. coli* colonies, 34 carried *huscfv* genes as determined by colony PCR and 20 clones could produce HuScFv.
3. The HuScFv were tested for binding to rHA0, rHA and rM2 by indirect ELISA and Western blotting. HuScFv from 8 clones could bind to antigens. They were classified into four groups:
 - HuScFv of clone no. 2, 10, 26 and 54 bound to rHA0, rNA and nM2
 - HuScFv of clone no. 53 bound to rHA0 and rNA
 - HuScFv of clone no. 15 and 51 bound to nM2
 - HuScFv of clone 99 bound to rHA
4. HuScFv2, 10, 26 and 54 bound to HA1 while HuScFv53 and 99 bound to HA2.
5. HuScFv2, 10, 26 and 54 (specific to HA) inhibited hemagglutinin activity against H1N1/2009 virus at 4 HAU by using HI assay (HI titers were 1:16, 1:16, 1:16 and 1:32, respectively).
6. HuScFv26 (specific to HA, NA and M2), HuScFv51 (specific to M2), HuScFv53 (specific to HA and NA) and HuScFv99 (specific to HA) had different RFLP (DNA banding patterns) and deduced amino acid sequences.
7. HuScFv26, 51, 53 and 99 were produced in large scale and purified by affinity chromatography under denaturing condition. After refolding against PBS, the purified HuScFv retained binding activity to the target antigen(s) in native conformation of viral particles as determined by indirect ELISA.
8. HuScFv26, 51, 53 and 99 and HuScFv to NA1 (HuScFvN1) interfered with replication cycle of H1N1/2009 (A/Thailand/CU-H106/2009). The replication inhibition in terms of the percentages of virus foci reduction were:
 - a) In experimental design I (interference with virus binding and uncoating to the target cells), the percentages of plaque reduction in increasing

order of magnitudes were: HuScFv-N1 < HuScFv99 < HuScFv26 < HuScFv51 < HuScFv53.

- b) In experimental design II (interference of virus binding, replicating and budding), the effectiveness in reducing intracellular virus (plaque number) in increasing order of magnitude were HuScFvN1 < HuScFv99 = HuScFv26 < HuScFv53 < HuScFv51.
- c) In experimental design III (interference of viral release), the effectiveness in reducing intracellular virus (plaque number) in increasing order of magnitude were HuScFvN1 < HuScFv99 < HuScFv51 < HuScFv26 < HuScFv53

From the three experiments, HuScFv of the the experimental design I conferred the lowest effectiveness in reducing intracellular virus while the experimental design II conferred the most.

HuScFv specific to M2 of influenza A virus

1. Soluble form of rM2 was used as target antigen in a single round phage bio-panning to select phage clones displaying HuScFv from the previously constructed HuScFv phage display library.
2. From 30 randomly selected *huscfv*-phagemid-transformed HB2151 *E. coli* colonies, 27 carried *huscfv* genes as determined by colony PCR and 17 clones could produce HuScFv.
3. HuScFv from 10 clones (clone nos. 2, 5, 9, 13, 14, 19, 20, 23, 27 and 29) bound to rM2 by indirect ELISA. The *huscfv* of these 10 clones showed 6 different RFLP patterns.
4. HuScFv2, 19, 23, and 27 which were representatives of individual RFLP patterns bound to both recombinant and native M2 proteins (in homogenate of MDCK cells infected with influenza A/H5N1) as determined by Western blotting. They also reacted with native M2 conformation of M2 protein from virus infected cells as tested by immunofluorescence assay.
5. Amino acid sequences of HuScFv2, 19, 23, and 27 were different especially at CDRs suggesting differences in epitope specificities.

6. HuScFv2, 19, 23, and 27 were produced in large scale and purified by affinity chromatography.
7. M2 specific HuScFv2, 19, 23, and 27 could interfere with replication cycles of both adamantane sensitive and resistant strains of influenza virus when used to treat MDCK infected cells in different experimental designs.
8. By mimotope searching and multiple alignments, conformational epitopes of the HuScFv2, 19, 23, and 27 were revealed:
 - Epitope of HuScFv2 located at the residues important for ion channel activity, anti-autophagy and M1 binding.
 - Epitope of HuScFv19 located at the M2 amphipathic helix and cytoplasmic tail important for anti-autophagy, virus assembly, morphogenesis and release.
 - Epitope of HuScFv23 involved residues important for ion channel activity, anti-autophagy and M1 binding and also amphipathic helix residues for viral budding and release.
 - Epitope of HuScFv27 spanned ectodomain, ion channel and anti-autophagy residues.
9. Results of computerized homology modeling and molecular docking conformed to the results of epitope identification by phages.
10. The epitopes of the HuScFv2, 19, 23, and -7 are conserved among influenza A viruses subtypes and H5N1 clades that could infect human.
11. HuScFv19 and 23 could down-regulated LC3-II mRNA accumulation in H5N1/NP172 infected cells at MOI 0.5 indicating that the antibodies might inhibit M2 mediated anti-autophagy mechanism of the influenza virus.
12. The fully human single chain variable antibody fragments that bound specifically to M2 produced in this study have high potential for developing further as a safe, novel and mutation tolerable anti-influenza agent especially against drug resistant influenza virus variants.

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APPENDIX A

Reagents for DNA manipulation and electrophoresis

1. Tris-EDTA buffer

The buffer was prepared by dissolving Tris (USB, USA) 1.21 g and EDTA (USB, Cleveland, USA) 0.29 g in 700 ml of DW. After completely dissolving, pH of the solution was adjusted to 8.0 with HCl (Merk, Darmstadt, Germany). The volume was made up to 1 liter with DW.

2. Sodium acetate solution (3 M, pH 5.2)

Sodium acetate 40.8 g was dissolved in 50 ml of DW. After dissolving, pH of the solution was adjusted to 5.2 with glacial acetic acid (Merk, Darmstadt, Germany). The volume was made up to 100 ml with DW.

3. TBE buffer (5x)

The following ingredients were dissolved in 700 ml of DW:

Tris-base	52.0	g
Boric acid (USB, Cleveland, USA)	27.5	g
EDTA.2H ₂ O (USB, Cleveland, USA)	4.65	g

The pH of the solution was adjusted to 8.3 with concentrate HCl before the volume was made to 1,000 ml with DW. This buffer was sterilized by autoclaving.

4. Ethidium bromide solution

To prepare stock ethidium bromide solution, a tablet of ethidium bromide (USB, Corporation, USA) was dissolved in 1 ml of DW to make 10 mg/ml concentration. Fifty microliters of the stock solution was then added to 100 ml of 1x TAE to make 0.5 µg/ml working concentration. The solution was protected from light.

5. DNA loading dye (10x)

DNA loading dye stock was prepared by dissolving 0.25 g each of bromophenol blue (Bio-Rad, USA) and xylene cyanol (USB, Cleveland, USA) in 50 ml of glycerol. The volume of the preparation was adjusted to 100 ml with DW.

6. TAE buffer (50x)

The buffer was prepared by dissolving the following ingredients in 700 ml of DW:

Tris-base	242.0 g
EDTA.2H ₂ O	18.16 g
Glacial acetic acid	57.1 ml

The buffer pH was adjusted to 8.3 with glacial acetic. The volume was made up to 1,000 ml with DW and the solution was sterilized by autoclaving. To prepare 1x TAE working solution, 20 ml of the 50x TAE buffer were added to 980 ml of DW and mixed.

7. Agarose gel preparation (1%)

Agarose (USB Corporation, USA) 0.3 g was dissolved in 30 ml of 1x TAE buffer by heating. Melted agarose solution was poured into a gel casting apparatus and allowed to solidify at 25 °C for minutes.

APPENDIX B

Bacterial media

1. Luria-Bertani (LB) broth

The medium was prepared by dissolving 10 g of casein enzyme hydrolysate, type-I (Himedia[®], Mumbai, India), 5 g of yeast extract powder (Himedia[®], Mumbai, India), and 5 g of NaCl (UNIVAR, NSW, Australia) in 1,000 ml of DW. After mixing the mixture, the broth was sterilized by autoclaving and kept at 25 °C.

2. LB-Ampicillin (LB-A) broth

The LB broth was prepared as described in (1). After autoclaving and cooling down, ampicillin (General Drug House, Thailand) was added to the final concentration of 100 µg/ml. The broth was kept at 4 °C.

3. LB-Ampicillin and Kanamycin (LB-AK) broth

The LB broth was prepared as described in (1). After autoclaving and cooling down, ampicillin and kanamycin (General Drug House, Thailand) were added to the final concentration of 100 µg/ml and 25 µg/ml, respectively. The broth was kept at 4 °C.

4. LB-Ampicillin-Glucose (LB-AG) broth

The LB broth was prepared as described in (1). After autoclaving and cooling down, 55.6 ml of 2 M glucose solution and ampicillin was added to final concentration of 100 µg/ml. The broth was kept at 4 °C.

5. LB agar

One liter of LB medium was prepared as described in (1). Bacto agar powder (Himedia) 17 g was added and dissolved by heating. After autoclaving and cooling down, the preparation was poured into 100-mm petridishes (25 ml/plate). The plate was stored at 4 °C until use. Before using, surface of the agar was dried at 37 °C for 1 hour.

6. LB-A agar

LB agar was prepared as described in (4). After autoclaving and cooling down, ampicillin was added to the final concentration of 100 µg/ml. Homogeneous melted agar was poured into 100-mm petridishes (25 ml/plate). The plate was stored at 4 °C until use. Before using, surface of the agar was dried at 37 °C for 1 hour.

7. LB-AK agar

LB agar was prepared as described in (4). After autoclaving and cooling down, ampicillin and kanamycin were added to the final concentration of 100 µg/ml and 25 µg/ml, respectively. Homogeneous melted agar was poured into 100-mm petridishes (25 ml/plate). The plate was stored at 4 °C until use. Before using, surface of the agar was dried at 37 °C for 1 hour.

8. LB-AG agar

LB agar was prepared as described in (4). After autoclaving and cooling down, 55.6 ml of 2 M glucose solution and ampicillin was added to the final concentration of 100 µg/ml. The broth was kept at 4 °C. Homogeneous melted agar was poured into 100-mm petridishes (25 ml/plate). The plate was stored at 4 °C until use. Before using, surface of the agar was dried at 37 °C for 1 hour.

9. 2x Yeast extract and Tryptone (2xYT) broth

The medium was prepared by dissolving 17 g of casein enzyme hydrolysate, type-I, 10 g of yeast extract powder, and 5 g of NaCl in 1,000 ml of DW. After mixing the mixture, the broth was sterilized by autoclaving and kept at 25 °C.

10. 2xYT-Ampicillin (2xYT-A) broth

The 2xYT broth was prepared as described in (7). After autoclaving and cooling down, ampicillin was added to the final concentration of 100 µg/ml. The broth was kept at 4 °C.

11. 2xYT-Ampicillin-Glucose (2xYT-AG) broth

The 2x YT broth was prepared as described in (7). After autoclaving and cooling down, 55.6 ml of 2 M glucose solution and ampicillin was added to the final concentration of 100 µg/ml. The broth was kept at 4 °C.

12. 2xYT agar

One liter of 2x YT medium was prepared as described in (7). Bacto agar powder 17 g was added and dissolved by heating. After autoclaving and cooling down, the preparation was poured into 100-mm petridishes (25 ml/plate). The plate was stored at 4 °C until use. Before using, surface of the agar was dried at 37 °C for 1 hour.

13. 2xYT-A agar

2xYT agar was prepared as described in (10). After autoclaving and cooling down, ampicillin was added to the final concentration of 100 µg/ml. Homogeneous melted agar was poured into 100-mm petridishes (25 ml/plate). The plate was stored at 4 °C until use. Before using, surface of the agar was dried at 37 °C for 1 hour.

14. 2xYT-AG agar

LB agar was prepared as described in (10). After autoclaving and cooling down, 55.6 ml of 2 M glucose solution and ampicillin was added to the final concentration of 100 µg/ml. The broth was kept at 4 °C. Homogeneous melted agar was poured into 100-mm petridishes (25 ml/plate). The plate was stored at 4 °C until use. Before using, surface of the agar was dried at 37 °C for 1 hour.

APPENDIX C

Reagents for plasmid preparation and bacterial transformation

1. Magnesium chloride solution (0.1 M)

MgCl₂ (Sigma, St. Louis, USA) 0.95 g was dissolved in 100 ml of DW. The mixture was sterilized by filtering through a sterile 0.2 µm membrane. The solution was kept at 4 °C.

2. Calcium chloride solution (0.1)

CaCl₂ (Sigma, St. Louis, USA) 1.1 g was dissolved in 100 ml of DW. After completely dissolving, the preparation was sterilized by filtering through a sterile 0.2 µm membrane. The solution was kept at 4 °C.

3. Reagents for mini-scale plasmid extraction from *E. coli*

3.1 Solution-I (50 mM glucose, 10mM EDTA, 25 mMTris-HCl, pH 8.0)

The solution was prepared by dissolving the following ingredients in 80 ml DW:

Glucose	0.9	g
Tris	0.33	g
EDTA	0.37	g

After completely dissolved, the pH was adjusted to 8.0 with 1 M HCl or 1 N NaOH. The solution was sterilized by autoclaving and then stored at 25 °C.

3.2 Solution-II (0.2 M NaOH, 1% SDS)

The solution was freshly prepared by mixing the following ingredients together:

NaOH (5N) (Merck, Germany)	0.2	ml
SDS (10%) (USB, Cleveland, USA)	0.5	ml
DW	4.3	ml

3.3 Solution-III (3 M potassium acetate, pH 5.2)

2.44 g of potassium acetate (Univar, NSW, Australia) was dissolved in 70 ml DW. The pH of the solution was adjusted to 5.2 with glacial acetic acid. The volume was made up to 100 ml with DW before autoclaving. The solution was stored at 25 °C.

3.4 Glycerol (80%)

Eighty microliters of Glycerol (Univar, NSW, Australia) was mixed with 20 ml of DW. After thoroughly mixing, the solution was sterilized by autoclaving.

APPENDIX D

Reagents for recombinant protein purification

1. Affinity chromatography by Ni-NTATM bead (denaturing purification condition)

1.1 Lysis buffer C (8 M Urea, 100 mM NaH₂PO₄, 0.5 M NaCl, 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.3)

100 mM NaH ₂ PO ₄	7 g
0.5 mM NaCl	29.2 g
100 mM Tris	12 g
8 M Urea	480.5g

All ingredients were dissolved in 800 ml of UDW. After completely dissolving, the pH of the solution was adjusted to 8.0 with NaOH. The final volume was made to 1,000 ml with UDW. The solution was filtered through a filter paper WhatmanTM grade no.1.

1.2 Washing buffer Buffer B (8 M Urea, 100 mM NaH₂PO₄, 0.5 M NaCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0)

100 mM NaH ₂ PO ₄	7 g
0.5 mM NaCl	29.2 g
10 mM Tris	1.2g
8 M Urea	480.5g

All ingredients were dissolved in 800 ml of UDW. After completely dissolving, the pH of the solution was adjusted to 8.0 with NaOH. The final volume was made to 1,000 ml with UDW. The solution was filtered through a filter paper WhatmanTM grade no.1

1.3 Imidazole (3 M)

Imidazole (USB) (20.4 g) was dissolved in 70 ml of buffer C. After dissolving, the volume was made up to 100 ml with buffer C. The solution was kept as stock at 4 °C.

2. Affinity chromatography by TALON™ resin (denaturing condition)

2.1 Extraction/wash buffer pH 7.0

50 mM Na ₂ HPO ₄	7.098 g
280 mM NaCl	17.532 g
8 M urea	480.48 g

All ingredients were added to 700 ml of UDW to dissolve the urea. The pH of the solution was adjusted to 7.0 with 1 M HCl or 1 N NaOH and the volume was brought up to 1,000 ml with UDW. The solution was filtered through a filter paper Whatman™ grade no.1.

2.2 Elution buffer pH 7.0

45 mM Na ₂ HPO ₄	6.3882 g
270 mM NaCl	15.7788 g
8 M urea	480.48 g
150 mM imidazole	10.212 g

All ingredients were added to 700 ml of UDW to dissolve the urea. The pH of the solution was adjusted to 7.0 with 1 M HCl or 1 N NaOH and the volume was brought up to 1,000 ml with UDW. The solution was filtered through a filter paper Whatman™ grade no.1.

APPENDIX E

Reagents for Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate-Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and Colloidal Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250 stain

1. Reducing SDS-PAGE sample buffer (6x)

This buffer was prepared as a 6x solution by combining the following ingredients:

SDS	0.6	mg
Bromophenol blue	0.5	mg
Tris-HCl (0.5 M, pH 8.8)	3.75	ml
Glycerol (USB Corporation, OH, USA)	4.6	ml
β -mercaptoethanol	1.5	ml

The volume of the preparation was made to 10 ml by adding UDW. The complete sample buffer was kept in a 1 ml-aliquot at -20 °C until use.

For SDS-PAGE, five parts of the sample was diluted with one part of 6x sample buffer and heated at 100 °C for 5 minutes before loading into the casted SDS-PAGE gel.

2. Tris-HCl solution (1.5 M, pH 8.8)

To prepare this solution, 18.15 g of Tris-base (Affymetrix, Inc., OH, USA) were dissolved in 50 ml of UDW, and then the pH was adjusted to 8.8 with 1 N HCl. The volume was brought up to 100 ml with UDW. The solution was sterile by autoclaving and stored at 4 °C until use.

3. Tris-HCl (0.5 M, pH 6.8)

To prepare the solution, 6.05 g of Tris-base were dissolved in 50 ml of UDW, then pH was adjusted to 6.8 with 1 N HCl. The volume was brought up to 100 ml with UDW. The solution was sterile by autoclaving and stored at 4 °C until use.

4. Sodium dodecyl sulfate solution (SDS, 10%)

The solution was prepared by dissolving 10 g of SDS (USB Corporation, OH, USA) in 100 ml of UDW. The solution was filtered through a filter paper Whatman™ grade no.1 membrane (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, United Kingdom).

5. Ammonium persulfate solution (10%)

The solution was freshly prepared by dissolving 50 mg of ammonium persulfate (UNIVAR, Australia) in 0.5 ml of UDW.

6. Polyacrylamide resolving gel (12%)

The following solutions were combined with 3.4 ml of UDW

Tris-HCl, pH 8.8 (1.5 M)	2.5	ml
SDS solution (10%)	0.1	ml
Stock polyacrylamide solution 30%	4.0	ml

(Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA)

The preparation was degassed under a vacuum for at least 5 minutes. Gel polymerization was initiated by adding 50 µl of 10% ammonium persulfate and 5 µl of TEMED (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA). The preparation was poured into the gel casting apparatus, over-layered with UDW and allowed to polymerize at 25 °C for at least 30 minutes.

7. Polyacrylamide stacking gel (4%)

The following solutions were combined with 3.05 ml of UDW:

Tris-HCl, pH 6.8 (0.5 M)	1.25	ml
SDS solution (10%)	0.05	ml
Stock polyacrylamide solution 30%	0.65	ml

(Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA)

The preparation was degassed under a vacuum for at least 5 minutes. Gel polymerization was initiated by adding 25 μ l of 10% ammonium persulfate and 5 μ l of TEMED (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA). The preparation was gently layered onto the polymerized 12% resolving gel in the gel casting apparatus, a comb was properly placed and the gel was allowed to polymerize at 25 °C for at least 30 minutes before use.

8. SDS electrophoresis running buffer (Tris-glycine buffer)

The buffer contained the following ingredients:

Tris	30.3	g
Glycine	144	g
SDS	10	g

The reagents were dissolved in UDW and the volume was made up to 1 liters with UDW. The buffer could be stored at 25 °C for up to 3 months.

9. Collidal Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250 (CBB) Staining

9.1 Fixing solution

The solution was freshly prepared by mixing 500 μ l of 85% *o*-phosphoric acid with 20 ml UDW. The 5 ml of methanol was added and mixed.

9.2 Staining solution

The solution consisted of 10 ml of 20% $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, 500 μ l of 85% *o*-phosphoric acid, and 0.025 g of Coomassie Brilliant Blue G250 in 10 ml DW. Then 5 ml of methanol was added and mixed.

9.3 Neutralization solution

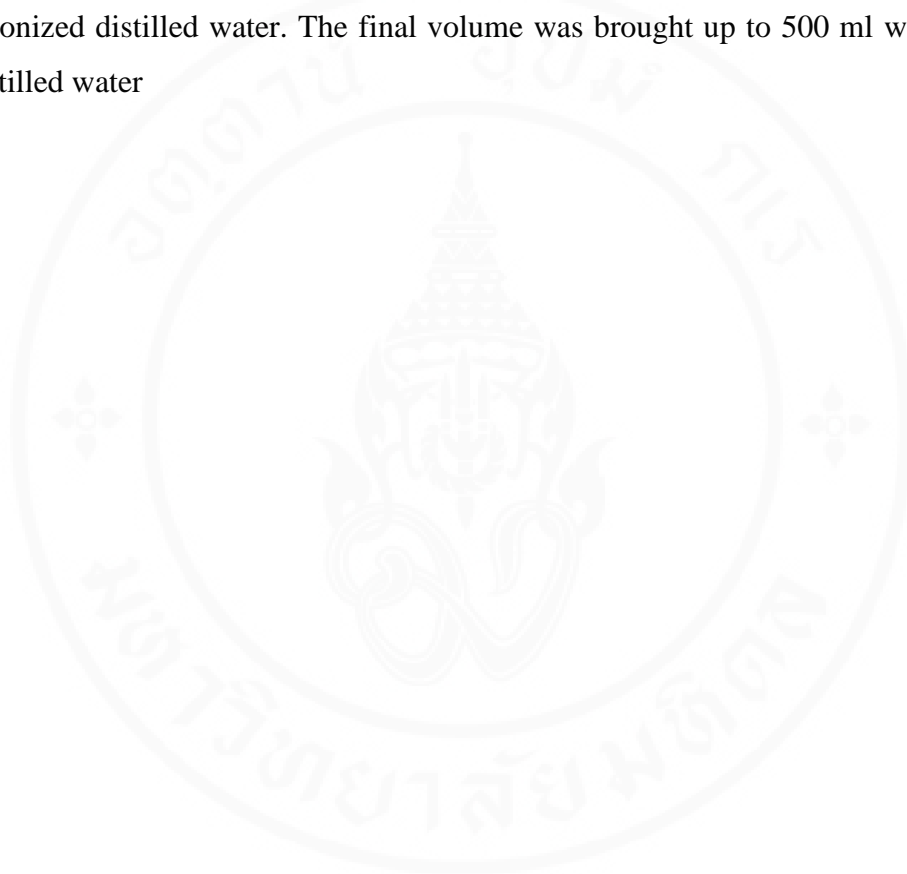
The solution was prepared by dissolving 6 g of Tris-base in 250 ml of deionized distilled water. The pH was adjusted to 6.5 with *o*-phosphoric acid and the final volume was brought up to 500 ml with deionized distilled water.

9.4 Washing solution

The solution was prepared by adding 125 ml of methanol in 375 ml of deionized distilled water.

9.5 Stabilizing solution

The solution was prepared by dissolving 100 g of ammonium sulfate in 250 ml of deionized distilled water. The final volume was brought up to 500 ml with deionized distilled water



APPENDIX F

Reagents for Western blotting

1. Transfer buffer [25mM Tris, 192 mM glycine and 20% (v/v) methanol]

To prepare 1 liter of transfer buffer, 3.03 g of Tris-base (Hydroxymethylaminomethane) and 14.4 g of Glycine was dissolved in 800 ml of UDW. Finally 200 ml (20% v/v) of methanol was added.

2. Blocking solution (5% skimmed milk or 3% BSA in PBS)

The solution was prepared by dissolving 5 g of skim milk (HYMEDIA[®], India) or 3 g of BSA (SIGMA-ALDRICH, Inc., Germany) in 100 ml of PBS, pH 7.4.

3. Washing buffer or diluents solution (0.05% Tween-20 in TBS, pH 7.4; TBS-T)

Tris-base 1.21 g and 8.77 g of sodium chloride were dissolved in 500 ml of UDW. The pH was adjusted to 7.4 with HCl. The total volume was brought up to 1,000 ml. TBS-T solution was prepared by adding 0.5 ml Tween-20.

4. Equilibrating buffer (0.15 M Tris-HCl, pH 9.6)

To prepare Tris buffer, 18.15 g of Tris-base were dissolved in 700 ml of UDW. After dissolving, the pH of the solution was adjusted to 9.6 with 1 N HCl and the volume was made up to 1 liter with UDW.

5. Substrate solution

Commercial BCIP/NBT substrate solution was purchased from Kirkegaard & Perry Laboratory (KPL), USA. To prepare this solution, one part of concentrate substrate was diluted with three part of diluent (0.15 M Tris-HCl, pH 9.6). This substrate should be prepared freshly and protected from the light.

APPENDIX G

Reagents for indirect ELISA

1. Coating buffer (0.05 M carbonate-bicarbonate buffer, pH 9.6)

The buffer was prepared by dissolving 2.1 g of NaHCO₃ in 400 ml of DW. After completely dissolving, the pH of the solution was adjusted to 9.6 with 0.05 Na₂CO₃ (0.53 g in 100 ml of UDW). The volume was made up to 500 ml with DW.

2. Diluent (0.2% BSA and 0.2% gelatin in PBS)

This buffer was prepared by dissolving 0.2g of gelatin (Sigma) in 100 ml of PBS with heating (50-60 °C) for completely dissolved. After cooling, the preparation was added with 0.2 g of BSA. The solution was filtered through a sterile 0.2 µm filter membrane and stored at 4 °C until use.

3. Phosphate buffered saline (PBS, 0.01 M, pH 7.4)

The buffer was prepared by mixing the following ingredients in 900 ml of DW:

NaCl	8	g
KCl	0.2	g
Na ₂ HO ₄	1.44	g
KH ₂ PO ₄	0.24	g

The solution was adjusted to pH 7.4 with NaOH or HCl, and DW was added to 1 liter. The solution was sterilized by autoclaving.

4. PBS-T buffer (0.05% Tween-20 in PBS)

The solution was prepared by mixing 0.5 ml of Tween-20 (Sigma) with 1 liter of PBS, pH 7.4.

APPENDIX H

Reagent for restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP)

1. TBE buffer (5x)

The buffer was prepared by dissolving 52.0 g of Tris-base, 27.5 g of boric acid (USB) and 4.65 g of EDTA in 700 ml of UDW. The pH of the solution was adjusted to 8.3 with concentrate HCl and then the volume was made to 1,000 ml with UDW. This buffer was sterilized by autoclaving. For 1x working solution, 200 ml of the stock were added to 800 ml of UDW.

2. Polyacrylamide gel for RFLP (14% acrylamide gel containing 0.5% glycerol)

The following solutions were combined with 3.73 ml of DW:

Glycerol	0.06	ml
TBE buffer (5x)	2.4	ml
Stock acrylamide solution (30%) (Bio-Rad)	5.6	ml

The preparation was degassed under a vacuum for at least 5 minutes. Gel polymerization was initiated by adding 200 μ l of 10% ammonium persulfate (freshly prepared) and 10 μ l of TEMED (Sigma). The preparation was poured into the gel casting apparatus, over-layered with DW and allowed to polymerize at 25 °C for at least 30 minutes before use.

APPENDIX I

Reagents for mimotope searching

1. Tris buffered saline (0.05 M Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.5; 1x TBS or TBS)

Tris (16.0757 g) and NaCl (8.77 g) were dissolved in 900 ml of DW. After dissolving, pH of the solution was adjusted to 7.5 with 1 N HCl. The volume was brought to 1 liter with DW and sterilized by autoclaving.

2. Washing solution (0.1% TBST)

The solution was prepared by adding 1.0 ml of Tween-20 to 1 liter of TBS, pH 7.5 and mixed well.

3. Elution buffer (0.1% BSA in 0.1 M glycine-HCl, pH 2.2)

The buffer was prepared by dissolving 0.75 g of glycine in 70 ml of UDW. The pH of the solution was adjusted to 2.2 with concentrate HCl, and then the volume was made up to 100 ml with DW. Ten milligrams of BSA were dissolved in 10 ml of the solution before use.

4. Neutralizing buffer (2 M Tris)

The buffer was prepared by dissolving 24.22 g of Tris-base in 70 ml of UDW. The volume of the solution was adjusted to 100 ml with UDW.

APPENDIX J

ใบรับรองการอนุมัติให้ดำเนินการเลี้ยงและใช้สัตว์เพื่องานทางวิทยาศาสตร์
มหาวิทยาลัยเกษตรศาสตร์

ฝ่ายประสานงานวิจัยและประเมินผล
เลขรับที่.....0155
วันที่..... 12 ก.พ. 2556
เวลา..... 10.30 น.

ID# ACKU 03455

ชื่อข้อเสนอการวิจัย

(ภาษาไทย) การผลิตแอนติบอดีตายเดี่ยวของมนุษย์ชนิดโมโนโคลนาลต่อต้านโปรตีนเมทริกซ์เอ็มหนึ่งชิ้น
ส่วนกลางของเชื้อให้หวัดใหญ่ชนิดเอและทดสอบกลไกการทำงานระดับโมเลกุลในการรบกวนไวรัส...

(ภาษาอังกฤษ) Human single chain antibody (HuScFv) specific to middle domain of matrix protein;
1. of influenza A virus and their molecular mechanism in the virus interference

ชื่อ-สกุล ผู้เสนอข้อเสนอการวิจัย

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หน่วยงานที่สังกัด (คณะ/สถาบัน) คณะสัตวแพทยศาสตร์

(มหาวิทยาลัย) มหาวิทยาลัยเกษตรศาสตร์

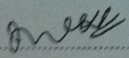

(กระทรวง) ศึกษาธิการ

สถานที่ดำเนินการเลี้ยงและใช้สัตว์

ห้องปฏิบัติการให้หวัดนก งานพันธุวิศวกรรมโรคสัตว์ คณะสัตวแพทยศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยเกษตรศาสตร์

วิทยาเขต/กิ่ง/แหล่ง

ข้อเสนอการวิจัยนี้ได้ผ่านการพิจารณาจากคณะกรรมการกำกับดูแลการเลี้ยงและใช้สัตว์ฯ แล้ว เห็นว่ามี
ความสอดคล้องกับจรรยาบรรณการใช้สัตว์เพื่องานทางวิทยาศาสตร์ สภาวิจัยแห่งชาติ จึงเห็นสมควรให้ดำเนินการ
เลี้ยงและใช้สัตว์ ตามข้อเสนอการวิจัยนี้ได้


ลงนาม  ลงนาม 

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วันเดือนปี 11 ธ.ค. 2555 วันเดือนปี 19 กุมภาพันธ์ 2556

ลงนาม  (รศ. ดร. ตี๋ ปรางค์ ใจสุวรรณงาม)

รองอธิการบดีฝ่ายวิจัย

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PUBLICATION

1. Pissawong, T., Maneewatch, S., Thueng-In, K., Srimanote, P., Dong-Din-On, F., Thanongsaksrikul, J., Songserm, T., Tongtawe, P., Bangphoomi, K. & Chaicumpa, W. (2013) Human monoclonal ScFv that bind to different functional domains of M2 and inhibit H5N1 influenza virus replication. *Virology*, 10, 148
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PRESENTATIONS

ORAL PRESENTATIONS

1. Human ScFv to M2 protein that interferes influenza virus cycle. Graduate research forum 2012 international conference in medicine and public health to commemorate the 150th anniversary of birth of Queen Sri Savaridira on 18-19 September 2012. **(The first prize for best oral presentation award)**

2. Human ScFv to M2 protein that interferes influenza virus cycle. Joint International Tropical Medicine Meeting 2012 (JITMM2012) on 12-14 December 2012. **(The consolidation prize for oral presentation)**

POSTER PRESENTATIONS

1. Human monoclonal antibodies specific to native hemagglutinin of A/H1N1 influenza virus. CHE-USDC II on 27-29 September 2009.

2. Human monoclonal antibodies that bind specifically to- and interfere with- the bio-functions of influenza virus surface exposed proteins: hemagglutinin-1 and M2 protein. Molecular Medicine Conference (MMC2012) on 19-22 December 2012.