

## Evaluation of the Genetic Toxicity of Synthetic Chemicals (XI) - a Synthetic Sulfonylurea Herbicide, Pyrazosulfuron-ethyl-

Jae-Chun Ryu\*, Eun-Young Kim, Young-Seok Kim, and Hye-Jung Yun

Toxicology Laboratory, Korea Institute of Science and Technology, P.O. Box 131, Cheongryang, Seoul 130-650, Korea

(Received March 6, 2004 / Accepted March 20, 2004)

**ABSTRACT :** To validate and to estimate the chemical hazard play a very important role to environment and human health. The detection of many synthetic chemicals including agrochemicals that may pose a genetic hazard in our environment is of great concern at present. Since these substances are not limited to the original products, and enter the environment, they have become widespread environmental pollutants, thus leading to a variety of chemicals that possibly threaten the public health. Pyrazosulfuron-ethyl [Ethyl-5-(4,6-dimethoxypyrimidin-2-ylcarbamoylsulfamoyl)-1-methylpyrazole-4-carboxylate,  $C_{14}H_{18}N_6O_7S$ , M.W. = 414.39, CAS No. 93697-74-6], is one of well known rice herbicide belong in the sulfonyl urea group. To clarify the genotoxicity of this agrochemical, Ames bacterial reversion assay, *in vitro* chromosomal aberration assay with Chinese hamster lung (CHL) fibroblast and bone marrow micronucleus assay in mice were subjected. In Ames assay, although pyrazosulfuron-ethyl revealed cytotoxic at 5,000-140  $\mu\text{g}/\text{plate}$  in *Salmonella typhimurium* TA100, no dose-dependent mutagenic potential in 4.4-70  $\mu\text{g}/\text{plate}$  of *S. typhimurium* TA 98, TA 100, TA1535 and TA 1537 both in the absence and presence of S-9 metabolic activation system was observed. Using CHL fibroblasts, the 50% cell growth inhibition concentration ( $IC_{50}$ ) of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl was determined as 1,243  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ , and no chromosomal aberration was observed both in the absence and presence of S-9 mixture in the concentration range of 311-1,243  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ . And also, *in vivo* micronucleus assay using mouse bone marrow, pyrazosulfuron-ethyl revealed no remarkable induction of MNPCE (micronucleated polychromatic erythrocytes/1000 polychromatic erythrocytes) in the dose range of 625-2,500 mg/kg body weight when administered orally. Consequently, Ames bacterial gene mutation with *Salmonella typhimurium*, *in vitro* chromosome aberration with mammalian cells and *in vivo* bone marrow micronucleus assay revealed no clastogenic potential of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl in this study.

**Key words :** Genotoxicity, Clastogenicity, Pyrazosulfuron-ethyl, *Salmonella typhimurium*, Chromosome Aberration, Micronucleus, Chinese Hamster Lung Fibroblast

### Introduction

Since the tens of thousands of man-made chemicals that have been introduced into the environment in the last few decades must also be tested for their damaging effect on DNA, the agents that cause this damage must be identified. Despite the many toxicological researches on synthetic chemicals, there are few reports on the genotoxicity of some agrochemicals. Several assay systems having rapidity and reliability have been introduced for this purpose, such as reversion test with bacterial gene mutation (Ames *et al.*, 1973, 1975; Maron and Ames, 1983), chromosomal aberration assay with mammalian cells (Ishidate and Odashima, 1977), micronucleus assay with rodents (Hayashi *et al.*, 1992,

1994; Schmid, 1975). These assay systems are now well used to evaluate the genotoxicity of chemicals and also frequently adopted as methods for an index of genotoxicity worldwide. Furthermore, it was well applied as a screening probe for the detection of possible carcinogenic substances in our environment.

Pyrazosulfuron-ethyl [Ethyl-5-(4,6-dimethoxypyrimidin-2-ylcarbamoylsulfamoyl)-1-methylpyrazole-4-carboxylate,  $C_{14}H_{18}N_6O_7S$ , M.W. = 414.39, CAS No. 93697-74-6], is one of well known rice herbicide belong in the sulfonyl urea group. The chemical structure of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl is illustrated in Fig. 1. It has eminent activity against a broad spectrum of annual and perennial rice paddy weeds, especially broad leaf weeds and sedges, with pre-emergence and early post-emergence application and at extremely low use rates. The biochemical mode of action of this chemical is branched

\*To whom all correspondence should be addressed

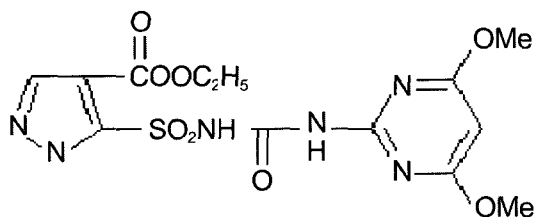


Fig. 1. The chemical structure of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl

chain amino acid synthesis inhibitor and acts by inhibiting biosynthesis of the essential amino acids, valine and isoleucine, hence stopping cell division and plant growth. Our laboratory has great concern to evaluate the chemical hazards, and conducted the toxicity evaluations of synthetic chemicals especially in genotoxicity (Ryu *et al.*, 1993, 1994, 1996a, b, 1997, 1998a, b, c, d, 1999a, b, 2000, 2001a, b, c, d, 2002a, b, c, d, 2003a, b, c, 2004; Kim *et al.*, 2001; Heo *et al.*, 1997; Tice *et al.*, 2000).

To elucidate the genotoxicity of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl, we performed bacterial gene mutation, *in vitro* chromosome aberration and *in vivo* micronucleus assay in this study.

## Materials and Methods

### Materials

Pyrazosulfuron-ethyl was white crystalline solid, and stock solution was prepared freshly in dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) before use. Eagles minimum essential medium (EMEM), 0.25% trypsin-EDTA, colcemid and fetal bovine serum (FBS) were the products of Gibco BRL Life Tech. Inc. (Gaithersburg, USA). All other chemicals used were of analytical grade or the highest grade available. The preparation of rat liver S-9 fraction for metabolic activation system was previously reported (Ames *et al.*, 1973; Maron and Ames, 1983). The S-9 fraction prepared was stored immediately at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  before use.

### Ames *Salmonella* Bacterial Mutagenicity Assay

This test performed essentially as described by Ames *et al.* (1973, 1975). The dose range for test chemical was determined by performing a toxicity assay using strain *Salmonella typhimurium* TA 100 and half-log dose intervals of the test substance up to 5 mg/plate. Strain TA 100 was chosen as the representative tester strain because of its high spontaneous reversion rate. Spon-

aneous revertant numbers were counted and plotted against the dose of the test chemical to produce a survival curve for the his<sup>+</sup> genotype.

The mutagenicity assay was performed by mixing one of the tester strains which was cultured overnight, with the test substance in the presence and in the absence of S-9 mixture condition, sodium phosphate buffer added instead of S-9 mixture both in negative and positive control in test tube. Then, incubating the mixture in water bath for 30 min at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$  and after incubation, the mixture mixed with top agar containing a minimal amount of histidine and then poured onto the surface of a r-ray sterile Petri dish (Falcon, USA) containing 25 mL of solidified bottom agar. The finished plates were incubated for 48 hr at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and revertant colonies were counted later. Negative control plates containing no added test chemical but positive control plates containing appropriate amounts of chemicals known to be active were included with each tester strain (Table 1). All platings were done in triplicate, and the results were tabulated as the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation for each condition. A response was considered to be positive in our criteria if there was a dose-dependent increase in revertants per plate resulting in (1) at least a doubling of the background reversion rate for strains TA 98 or TA 100 and (2) at least a tripling of the background reversion rate for strains TA 1535 or TA 1537.

### *In vitro* chromosomal aberration assay in CHL cells

The experiment was performed as described by OECD (1993) and Ishidate and Odashima (1977) with some minor modifications (Ryu *et al.*, 1993, 1994, 1996a, b, 1998a, b, 2001b, c, d, 2002c, d, 2003a, b, 2004) which are briefly summarized as follows. Chinese hamster lung (CHL) fibroblast cells had been maintained by 3~4 day passages and grown in a mono-layer with EMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 50 units/mL penicillin and 50  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$  streptomycin. This cells were maintained at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$  in humidified 5%  $\text{CO}_2$  atmosphere.

Test article dose levels were determined prior to the main study in a dose range-finding study performed in the absence of a rat liver S-9 activation system. CHL cells were seeded at the density of  $5 \times 10^4$  cells/ml into 96 well plates after 24 hr seeding, several different doses of sample were separately added and incubated for 24 hrs. And then the 50% inhibition concentration ( $\text{IC}_{50}$ ) values were calculated by MTT assay (Mosmann, 1983).

**Table 1.** *Salmonella typhimurium* reversion assay of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl

Compound	Dose(/plate)	S-9 mixture	His <sup>+</sup> revertants/plate (Mean±S.D.)			
			TA 98	TA 100	TA 1535	TA 1537
DMSO		-	18±6	161±40	13±8	7±1
pyrazosulfuron-ethyl	4.4	-	13±3	143±10	10±4	6±2
	8.8	-	9±1	154±24	9±2	7±1
	17.5	-	13±6	175±13	11±3	7±5
	35.0	-	13±4	129±12	8±2	4±2
	70.0	-	18±1	143±20	12±5	3±3
SA	1	-	-	576±6	506±59	-
2-NF	0.2	-	44±6	-	-	-
9-AA	40	-	-	-	-	348±89
DMSO		+	24±9	123±13	10±2	6±2
pyrazosulfuron-ethyl	4.4	+	22±2	125±20	9±3	4±2
	8.8	+	19±8	132±26	7±3	5±2
	17.5	+	20±2	150±10	6±4	4±1
	35.0	+	12±6	131±28	6±2	6±1
	70.0	+	21±3	141±16	4±2	3±1
2-AA	0.5	+	40±14	-	-	-
2-AA	1	+	-	545±35	-	-
2-AA	2	+	-	-	51±11	64±12

DMSO: dimethyl sulfoxide, SA: Sodium Azide, 2-NF: 2-Nitrofluorene, 9-AA: 9-Aminoacridine, 2-AA: 2-Aminoanthracene

For the aberration assay, three different doses, including the IC<sub>50</sub> value as a maximum dose, were prepared and separately added to 3-day-old cultures (approximately 10<sup>5</sup> cells/60 mm dish). In the absence of metabolic activation, cultures were treated for 24 hrs with the test article, while in the presence of metabolic activation, cells were treated for 6 hrs because of toxicity of S-9 and then maintained for 18 hrs in the fresh medium to adjust a time equivalent to about 1.5 normal cell cycle lengths. Cyclophosphamide (CP) and mitomycin C (MMC) were used as a positive control in combination with or without S-9 mixture, respectively. After 22 hr incubation, treatment was followed by addition of colcemid at a concentration of 0.2 µg/mL. After 2 hr further incubation in the presence of colcemid, metaphase cells were harvested by centrifugation and trypsinization. The cells were swollen with hypotonic (0.075 M) KCl solution for 20 min at 37°C, and washed three times in ice-cold fixative (methanol:glacial acetic acid=3:1). After centrifugation, the fixative was removed, and cell pellet suspensions were prepared by pipetting gently. A few drop of cell pellet suspension were dropped onto pre-cleaned glass microscope slides, and air dried. Slides were stained with 5% Giemsa buffered

solution at pH 6.8 for scoring of chromosome aberrations. The number of cells with chromosomal aberrations was recorded on 200 well-spread metaphases at the magnification of 1,000 with Axioscope microscope (Karl Zeiss, FRG). The classification of aberration types referred to JEMS-MMS (1988). Breaks less than the width of a chromatid were designated as gaps in our criteria, and not included as chromosomal aberration. Aberration frequencies, defined as aberrations observed divided by number of cells counted, were analyzed using Fishers exact test (Altman, 1993) with Dunnetts adjustment and compared with results from the solvent controls. Therefore, dose-dependent responses and the statistical significance in p-value will be considered as positive results in our judgement.

#### In vivo bone marrow micronucleus assay in mice after oral administration

Outbred mice of strain ICR, 7~8 weeks old, were used in this study. The mice were allowed an adaptation period for 1 week, then randomized and subjected to the study. The six animals were housed for each group. The test article was applied orally in three doses in volumes of 10 mL/kg. The test substance was given

once, and then 24 hr interval, they killed by cervical dislocation. Normally, the tested dose range included the span from no effect up to complete halt of bone marrow proliferation. Preparation of bone marrow and staining were carried out according to the method worked out Schmid (1975). From the freshly killed animal both femora were removed in toto, which means that one was cutting through pelvis and tibia. The bones were then freed from muscle by the use of gauze and fingers. With the needle of appropriate size mounted, about 1 mL of serum was pulled from the tube into a disposable plastic syringe. Then the needle (24 gauge) was inserted a few mm into the proximal part of marrow canal to flush the marrow cells. After centrifugation, the supernatant was removed, and cell pellet suspension of bone marrow cells was dropped onto glass slides, and then air dried. After fixation in methanol, slides were stained with 4% Giemsa in 1/15 M sodium phosphate buffered saline (PBS, pH 6.8) for 30 min, washed with PBS, and then air dried for microscopic observation.

In scoring the preparations, micronuclei were counted in polychromatic and, separately in normochromatic erythrocytes. The rate of micronucleated cells, expressed in percentage, were based on the total of polychromatic erythrocytes present in the scored optic fields. This mode of scoring, which must always be followed where the test substance markedly influences the proliferation rate in the bone marrow, prevents a distortion of the results by the influx of peripheral blood into the damaged marrow. The scoring of micronucleated normocytes not only serves to recognize the presence of artifacts (which is rare in preparations from mouse) but provides additional interesting information on the mode of action of the test substance. Generally, an incidence of more than 1 micronucleated normocyte per thousand poly-chromatic erythrocytes indicates an effect on cell stages past the S-phase.

## Results and Discussion

It is well known that carcinogenicity of synthetic chemicals is the most serious problem in human health hazard. As one of the mechanisms of carcinogenicity, it has been widely assumed that mutation represents at least one step in carcinogenesis. The evidence supporting this idea is that the majority of mutagens are carcinogens (McCann *et al.*, 1975) and, for at least some compounds, mutagenic potency is closely correlated

with carcinogenic potency (Meselson and Russel, 1991). The detection and the regulation of man-made synthetic chemicals are subjects of great concern because of its close correlation between environmental contamination and human health. Nevertheless of the extensive use of agrochemicals, however, there has been few attention to evaluate the genotoxicity. Since these substances are not limited to the original products, and they may enter the environment and have become widespread environmental pollutants, thus leading to a variety of chemicals that possibly threaten the public health.

Since pyrazosulfuron-ethyl is one of well known synthetic sulfonylurea herbicide, it is subjected to elucidate the genotoxicity and clastogenicity in this study. The biochemical mode of action of this chemical is branched chain amino acid synthesis inhibitor and acts by inhibiting biosynthesis of the essential amino acids, valine and isoleucine, hence stopping cell division and plant growth. In rats, after 48 hr, 80% of applied pyrazosulfuron-ethyl is excreted in urine and feces. The major metabolic reaction is demethylation of the methoxy group. (Tomlin, 2000)

### Ames reverse mutation assay

The mutagenic potential of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl was investigated in the *Salmonella typhimurium* microsomal activation assay. This assay detects materials that cause specific point mutations such as base-pair substitution and frameshift mutation in different *S. typhimurium* strains (TA98, TA100, TA1535 and TA1537), in the presence and in the absence of S-9 mixture. Positive controls specific to each of the four tester strains resulted in the expected increases in the number of histidine revertants (Table 1). In observation of the background lawns of *S. typhimurium* strains TA100, pyrazosulfuron-ethyl revealed cytotoxic at 5,000-140 µg/plate in the absence and presence of S-9 mixture, and so, we adopted 70 µg/plate as optimal maximum concentrations of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl in this assay. As summarized in Table 1, pyrazosulfuron-ethyl revealed no dose-dependent mutagenic potential in 4.4~70 µg/plate of *Salmonella typhimurium* TA 98, TA 100, TA1535 and TA 1537 both in the absence and presence of S-9 metabolic activation system.

Cytotoxicity of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl in CHL cells  
Relative survival of CHL cells following exposure to

a range of concentrations of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl was determined by MTT assay. The survival percentage relative to solvent control (DMSO) was determined as a percentage of the number of cells survived after treatment without metabolic activation system. The 50% cell growth inhibition concentration (IC<sub>50</sub>) of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl was determined in the absence of metabolic activation system as 1,243 µg/mL in CHL fibroblast cells (data not shown)

*In vitro* chromosomal aberration assay in the CHL cells

The clastogenicity of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl was assessed by its ability to cause chromosomal aberrations in cultured CHL cells. The types and frequencies of chromosomal aberrations seen in treated and control cultures for 6 and 24 hr pyrazosulfuron-ethyl treatment in the presence and in the absence of S-9 metabolic activation, respectively, are listed in Table 2. The concentrations for the assay was determined as 311, 622 and 1,243 µg/mL in the absence and the presence of S-9 mixture. The solvent (DMSO)-treated control was revealed below 2% of spontaneous chromosomal aberrations in 200 metaphase cells. Cyclophosphamide (50 µg/mL) used as an indirect-acting mutagen that requires metabolic activation and mitomycin (0.1 µg/mL) as a direct-acting mutagen, induced remarkable chromosomal aberrations (about 20~30%) in CHL fibroblasts.

Low frequencies of breaks and fragments were seen in treated cultures and solvent controls, both with and without S-9 mixture. No statistically significant increases in the mean percentage of aberrant cells in the types of aberrations noted between treated and solvent-control were seen both with or without S-9 mixture (Table 2). No unusual types or distributions of aberrations were evident. The mean percentage of aberrant cells both with and without S-9 mixture ranged from 1.0 to 2.0%, compared with solvent control value of 0-1.0%. From this result, 6 hr treatment of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl was not revealed clastogenicity both in the presence and absence of S-9 mixture in this assay. Consequently, no clastogenicity of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl was observed both in the absence and presence of S-9 mixture in the concentration range of 311-1,243 µg/mL.

*In vivo* bone marrow micronucleus assay in mice after oral administration

The 50% lethal dose (LD50) after oral administration was reported as > 5,000 mg/kg (Tomlin, 2000) so we adopted half LD50 value as maximum dose. Each group was consisted of 6 mice and sampling time was 24 hr in this experiment. The positive control, mitomycin C (2 mg/kg) revealed remarkable induction of MNPCE (micronucleated polychromatic erythrocytes/1000 polychromatic erythrocytes). However, *in vivo* micronucleus assay using mouse bone marrow, pyrazosulfuron-ethyl

**Table 2.** Chromosome Aberration Assay of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl with Chinese hamster lung cells.

Treatment		S9 Mix		Chromosome aberrations/ 100 cell					Extra aberration					
				Chromatid Type		Chromosome Type		Total aberration (%)	ctg	csg	poly	endo	nor	
Compound	Con.(mg/ml)	hr		Br	Ex	Br	Ex	(%)						
DMSO	-	6	-	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	99	
	0.1	6	-	2	15	0	2	19	6	0	0	0	75	
	pyrazosulfuron-ethyl	311	6	-	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	99
		622	6	-	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	98
		1243	6	-	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	99
DMSO	-	6	+	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	98	
	50	6	+	5	24	0	1	30	5	6	0	0	65	
	pyrazosulfuron-ethyl	311	6	+	1	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	97
		622	6	+	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	99
		1243	6	+	1	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	0	97

Con.: concentration, Br: breakage, Ex: exchange, ctg: chromatid gap, csg: chromosome gap, poly : polyploid, endo: endoreduplicate, nor: normal, MMC: mitomycin C, CP : cyclophosphamide, Total aberration (%): Number of chromosome aberration / total cell (100) \*100

**Table 3.** Micronucleus Assay of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl with ICR male mice (p.o.)

Test Compound	Dose (mg/kg)	No. of mice tested	Sampling time (hr)	MNPCE % (Mean±SD)	PCE/PCE+NCE (Mean±SD)
Corn oil	-	6	24	0.07±0.08	0.47±0.02
MMC	2	6	24	1.74±0.02	0.49±0.02
pyrazosulfuron-ethyl	625	6	24	0.07±0.08	0.49±0.02
	1250	6	24	0.02±0.04	0.48±0.03
	2500	6	24	0.05±0.05	0.49±0.01

MNPCE: Micronucleated Polychromatic Erythrocytes/1000 Polychromatic Erythrocytes, PCE/PCE+NCE: Polychromatic Erythrocytes/1000 Erythrocytes, MMC: Mitomycin C

revealed no clastogenic potential in the dose range of 625-2,500 mg/kg body weight when administered orally compared to control level (Table 3).

Consequently, Ames bacterial gene mutation with *Salmonella typhimurium*, *in vitro* chromosome aberration with mammalian cells and *in vivo* bone marrow micronucleus assay revealed no clastogenic potential of pyrazosulfuron-ethyl.

## References

- Altman DG. (1993): Comparing groups-categorical data : Practical Statistics for Medical Research. Chapman & Hall, London, 229-276.
- Ames BN, Durston WE, Yamasaki E and Lee FD. (1973): Carcinogens are mutagens : a simple test system combining liver homogenates for activation and bacteria for detection, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, **70**, 2281-2285.
- Ames BN, McCann J and Yamasaki E. (1975): Method for detecting carcinogens and mutagens with *Salmonella* mammalian-microsome mutagenicity test, *Mutation Res.*, **31**, 347-364.
- Hayashi M, Kodama Y, Awogi T, Suzuki T, Asita AO and Sofuni T. (1992): The micronucleus assay using peripheral blood reticulocytes from mitomycin C- and cyclophosphamide-treated rats, *Mutation Res.*, **278**, 209-213.
- Hayashi M, Maki-Paakkanen J, Tanabe H, Honma M, Suzuki T, Matsuoka A, Mizusawa H and Sofuni T. (1994): Isolation of micronuclei from mouse blood and fluorescence *in situ* hybridization with a mouse centromeric DNA probe, *Mutation Res.*, **307**, 245-251.
- Heo MY, Kim JH and Ryu JC. (1997): Anticlastogenicity of beta-carotene and galangin using *in vivo* supravital staining micronucleus test, *Environ. Mutagens & Carcinogens*, **17**, 92-96.
- Ishidate M and Odashima S. (1977): Chromosome test with 134 compounds on chinese hamster cells *in vitro*-A screening for chemical carcinogens, *Mutation Res.*, **48**, 337-354.
- JEMS-MMS Atlas of chromosome aberration by chemicals, Japanese Environmental Mutagen Society-Mammalian Mutagenicity Study Group. Tokyo, 1998.
- Kim YJ, Park HJ, Kim Y, Kim MK, Lee SH, Jung SH and Ryu JC. (2001): Genotoxicity Study of sophoricoside. A constituent of *Sophora japonica*, in bacterial and mammalian cell system, *Environmental Mutagens & Carcinogens*, **21**(2), 99-105
- Maron DM and Ames BN. (1983): Revised methods for the *Salmonella*/mutagenicity test, *Mutation Res.*, **113**, 173-215.
- McCann J, Choi E, Yamasaki E and Ames BN. (1975): Detection of carcinogens as mutagens in the *Salmonella* microsome test : assay of 300 chemicals, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, **72**, 5135-5139.
- Meselson M and Russell K. (1991): Comparison of carcinogenic and mutagenic potency. In Hiatt HH, Watson JD and Winstend JA (Eds.). Origin of Human Cancer. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York, 1473-1481.
- Mosmann T. (1983): Rapid colorimetric assay for cellular growth and survival : Application to proliferation and cytotoxicity assays, *J. Immunol. Methods*, **65**, 55-63.
- OECD. OECD guideline for the testing of chemicals, Documents 473, Genetic toxicology : *in vitro* mammalian cytogenetic test. Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, Paris, France. 1993.
- Ryu JC, Lee S, Kim KR, Kim M, Chang IM and Park JA. (1993): study on the clastogenicity of trichothecene mycotoxins in chinese hamster lung cells. *Korean J. Toxicol.*, **9**, 13-21.
- Ryu JC, Lee S, Kim KR and Park J. (1994): Evaluation of the genetic toxicity of synthetic chemicals (I). Chromosomal aberration test on chinese hamster lung cells *in vitro*, *Environ. Mutagens & Carcinogens*, **14**, 138-144.
- Ryu JC, Kim KR, Kim HJ, Ryu EK, Lee SY, Jung SO, Youn JY, Kim MH and Kwon OS. (1996a): Evaluation of the genetic toxicity of synthetic chemicals (II). a pyrethroid insecticide, fenprothrin, *Arch. Pharm. Res.*, **19**, 251-257.
- Ryu JC, Kim KR, Ryu EK, Kim HJ, Kwon OS, Song CE, Mar W and Chang IM. (1996b): Chromosomal aberration assay of taxol and 10-deacetyl baccatin III in chinese hamster lung cells *in vitro*, *Environ. Mutagens & Carcinogens*, **16**, 6-12.
- Ryu JC, Kim HJ, Seo YR and Kim KR. (1997): Single cell

- gel electrophoresis (comet assay) to detect DNA damage and apoptosis in cell level, *Environ. Mutagens & Carcinogens*, **17**, 71-77.
- Ryu JC, Kim KR, Kim HJ, Jung SO, Kim MK, Park HS and Kim YH. (1998a): Acute and Genetic Toxicity Study of DK 1002, a Drug Candidate for Analgesics, *J. Toxicol. Pub. Health*, **14**(3), 427-433.
- Ryu JC, Kim KR, Kim HJ, Myung SW, Kim GH, Lee MJ and Chang IM. (1998b): Genotoxicity Study of Bojungchisuptang, an oriental herbal decoction-*in vitro* chromosome aberration assay in chinese hamster lung cells and *in vitro* supravital-staining micronucleus assay with mouse peripheral reticulocytes, *Arch. Pharm. Res.*, **21**(4), 391-397.
- Ryu JC, Youn JY, Kim Cho KH and Chang IM. (1998c): Transgenic Mutagenesis assay to elucidate the mechanism of mutation in gene level, *Environ. Mutagen & Carcinogen*, **18**(1), 1-7.
- Ryu JC, Youn JY, Cho KH and Chang IM. (1998d): Mutation spectrum in lac I gene of transgenic Big Blue cell line following to short term exposure 4-nitroquinoline N-oxide, *Environ. Mol. Mutagenesis*, **31**(29), 16.
- Ryu JC, Kim KR and Choi YJ. (1999a): *in vitro* mouse lymphoma thymidine kinase (tk+/-) gene forward mutation assay in mammalian cells, *Environ. Mutagen & Carcinogen*, **19**(1), 7-13.
- Ryu JC, Youn JY, Kim YJ, Kwon OS, Kim HT, Cho KH and Chang IM. (1999b): Mutation spectrum of 4-nitroquinoline N-oxide in the lac I transgenic Big Blue Rat2 cell line, *Mutation Res.*, **445**, 127-135.
- Ryu JC, Kim YJ, Kim HT and Chai YG. (2000): Genotoxicity Assessment of atrazine in the Big Blue rat2 lac I transgenic cell line, *Environ. Mol. Mutagenesis*, **35**(31), 52 (No. 176).
- Ryu JC, Seo YR, Smith MA and Han SS. (2001a): The Effect of methyl methanesulfonate (MMS)-induced excision repair on p53-dependent apoptosis in human lymphoid cells, *Res. Comm. Mol. Pathol. and Pharmacol.*, **109**(1, 2), 35-51.
- Ryu JC, Kim KR, Lee S and Park J. (2001b): Evaluation of the genetic toxicity of synthetic chemicals (III), Chromosomal aberration assay with 28 chemicals in chinese hamster lung cells *in vitro*, *Environ. Mutagens & Carcinogens*, **21**(1), 14-22.
- Ryu JC and Park KY. (2001c): Anticlastogenic effect of Baechu (Chinese cabbage) Kimchi and Buchu (leek) Kimchi in supravital staining micronucleus assay using peripheral reticulocytes of mouse, *Environ. Mutagens & Carcinogens*, **21**(1), 51-56.
- Ryu JC, Kwon OS and Kim HT. (2001d): Optimal conditions of Single Cell Gel Electrophoresis (Comet) Assay to detect DNA single strand breaks in mouse lymphoma L5178Y cells, *Environ. Mutagens & Carcinogens*, **21**(2), 89-94.
- Ryu JC, Kim YJ and Chai YG. (2002a): Mutation spectrum of 1, 2-dibromo-3-chloropropane, an endocrine disruptor, in the lac I transgenic Big Blue Rat2 fibroblast cell line, *Mutagenesis*, **17**(4), 301-307.
- Ryu JC, Kim HT and Kim YJ. (2002b): Studies on DNA single strand break of seven phthalate analogues in mouse lymphoma cells, *Environ. Mutagens & Carcinogens*, **22**(3), 164-168.
- Ryu JC, Kim KR and Kim YJ. (2002c): Evaluation of the Genetic Toxicity of Synthetic Chemicals (IV)-*in vitro* chromosomal aberration assay with 18 chemicals in Chinese hamster lung cells-, *Environ. Mutagens & Carcinogens*, **22**(3), 149-156.
- Ryu JC, Kim KR, Kim YJ and Choi HY. (2002d): Evaluation of the Genetic Toxicity of Synthetic Chemicals (V)-*in vitro* chromosomal aberration assay with 17 chemicals in Chinese hamster lung cells-, *Environ. Mutagens & Carcinogens*, **22**(4), 215-222.
- Ryu JC, Kim KR, Kim YJ and Jeon HK. (2003a): Evaluation of the genetic toxicity of synthetic chemicals (VI)-*in vitro* chromosomal aberration assay with 17 chemicals in Chinese hamster lung cells-, *J. Environ. Toxicol.*, **18**(2), 111-120.
- Ryu JC and Kim KR. (2003b): Evaluation of the genetic toxicity of synthetic chemicals (VII)-a synthetic selective herbicide, pendimethalin-, *J. Environ. Toxicol.*, **18**(2), 121-129
- Ryu JC, Kim KR and Kim YJ. (2003c): Evaluation of the genetic toxicity of synthetic chemicals (VIII)-*in vivo* bone marrow micronucleus assay of 8 synthetic chemicals in mice, *J. Environ. Toxicol.*, **18**(2), 137-143
- Ryu JC and Kim YJ. (2004): Evaluation of the genetic toxicity of synthetic chemicals (IX)-a synthetic selective herbicide, Pretilachlor-, *J. Environ. Toxicol.*, **19**(1), 93-100
- Schmid W. (1975): The micronucleus test. *Mutation Res.*, **31**, 9-15.
- Tice RR, Agurell E, Anderson D, Burlinson B, Hartmann A, Kobayashi H, Miyamae Y, Rojas E, Ryu JC and Sasaki YF. (2000): Single cell gel/comet assay : Guidelines for *in vitro* and *in vivo* genetic toxicology testing, *Environ. Mol. Mutagenesis*, **35**(3), 206-221.
- Tomlin CDS. (2000): The pesticide manual, British Crop Protection Council, **12**, 795-797.