

See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/266572014>

Assessment of cytotoxic and genotoxic potential of pyracarbolid by Allium test and micronucleus assay

Article *in* Drug and Chemical Toxicology · October 2014

Impact Factor: 1.23 · DOI: 10.3109/01480545.2014.966831 · Source: PubMed

CITATION

1

READS

102

6 authors, including:



[Yasin Eren](#)

T.C. Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi

18 PUBLICATIONS 119 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)



[Sevim Feyza Erdoğmuş](#)

Afyon Kocatepe University

24 PUBLICATIONS 48 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)



[Muhsin Konuk](#)

Üsküdar University

117 PUBLICATIONS 847 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)



[Esra Sağlam](#)

Maltepe University

24 PUBLICATIONS 72 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Assessment of cytotoxic and genotoxic potential of pyracarbolid by *Allium* test and micronucleus assay

Arzu Özkar¹, Dilek Akyıl¹, Yasin Eren², S. Feyza Erdoğmuş³, Muhsin Konuk⁴, and Esra Sağlam⁴

¹Department of Biology, Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Afyon Kocatepe University, Afyonkarahisar, Turkey, ²Department of Science, Faculty of Education, Suleyman Demirel University, Isparta, Turkey, ³Department of Veterinary Sciences, Bayat Vocational High School, Afyon Kocatepe University, Afyonkarahisar, Turkey, and ⁴Department of Molecular Biology and Genetics, Faculty of Engineering and Natural Sciences, Uskudar University, Istanbul, Turkey

Abstract

The present study evaluates the cytotoxic and genotoxic potential of pyracarbolid using both micronucleus (MN) assay, in human lymphocytes, and *Allium cepa* assay, in the root meristem cells. In *Allium* test, EC₅₀ value was determined in order to selecting the test concentrations for the assay and the root tips were treated with 25 ppm (EC₅₀/2), 50 ppm (EC₅₀) and 100 ppm (EC₅₀ × 2) concentrations of pyracarbolid. One percent of dimethyl sulphoxide (DMSO) and methyl methane sulfonate (MMS) were used as negative and positive controls, respectively. In the micronucleus assay, the cultures were treated with four concentrations (250, 500, 750 and 1000 µg/ml) of pyracarbolid for 24 and 48 h, negative and positive controls were also used in the experiment parallelly. The results showed that mitotic index (MI) significantly reduced with increasing the pyracarbolid concentration at each exposure time. It was also obtained that prophase and metaphase index decreased significantly in all concentration at each exposure time. Anaphase index decreased as well and results were found to be statistically significant, except 24 h. A significant increase was observed in MN frequency in all concentrations and both treatment periods when compared with the controls. Pyracarbolid also caused a significant reduction in the cytokinesis block proliferation index (CBPI) in all concentration and both exposure time.

Introduction

Nowadays, pesticides are widely used all over the world, not only in agriculture to protect crops, but also in public health to control diseases (Ergene et al., 2007; Pastor et al., 2001). These chemicals or their derivatives could accumulate in the cell and cause risk of mutagenicity, carcinogenicity or genotoxicity (Ergene et al., 2007; Liman et al., 2011). Some pesticides' toxicity was studied by earlier researchers (Konuk et al., 2008; Liman et al., 2010, 2011; Ozakça & Silah, 2013; Sta et al., 2012; Yılmaz et al., 2013).

Plant bioassays are easy to analyze, more sensitive and easier tools to perform the genotoxicity (Grant, 1992; Türkoğlu, 2009). Additionally, these test systems are reliable and can be applied to detect the genetic damage(s). *Allium cepa* are routinely used for the determining the effects of toxic agents and this method is one of the best-established test systems (Fiskesjö, 1985; Konuk et al., 2007; Rank, 2003; Saxena et al., 2005). Moreover, *A. cepa* has been confirmed as indicator organisms for biomonitoring of environmental pollutants (Ateeq et al., 2002; Türkoğlu, 2007).

Address for correspondence: Arzu Özkar, Department of Biology, Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Afyon Kocatepe University, Afyonkarahisar, Turkey. E-mail: arzuozkara@gmail.com

Keywords

Allium test, genotoxicity, human blood lymphocyte, micronucleus assay, pyracarbolid

History

Received 27 February 2014

Revised 24 July 2014

Accepted 15 September 2014

Published online 1 October 2014

The *in vitro* micronucleus test detects small membrane bound DNA fragments in the cytoplasm of interphase cells. The method determinate the clastogenicity (chromosome breakage) and aneugenicity (changes in chromosome number) of test substances in cells that have undergone cell division during or after exposure (İla et al., 2008; İstifli & Topaktaş, 2013; Li et al., 2012; Vrdoljak et al., 2014).

Pyracarbolid is a systemic fungicide that is a member of the anilide family of compounds. It is a broad-spectrum fungicide and used to control rusts and smuts (Shamuganathan & Saravanapavan, 1978). In our knowledge, there has been no report on the genotoxic effects of pyracarbolid on the somatic cell of *A. cepa* and human peripheral lymphocyte in MN assay, yet. The main goal of this manuscript was to investigate the potential cytogenetic effects of pyracarbolid on both the root meristem cells of *A. cepa* using mitotic index (MI), and mitotic phases and genotoxic effects on human peripheral lymphocyte with MN assay.

Materials and methods**Chemicals**

The test substance pyracarbolid (CAS No: 24691-76-7, ≥99% purity, molecular formula: C₁₃H₁₅NO₂) was purchased from

Fluka (Turkey), and dissolved in dimethyl sulphoxide (1% DMSO, purity 99%). Mitomycin-C (MMC, CAS No: 50-07-7) was used as positive control and dissolved in sterile double-distilled water. Cytochalasin B (CAS no: 14930-96-2), chromosome medium B (Biochrom Cat. No. F5023) and DMSO (CAS No. 67-68-5) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Turkey). *A. cepa* ($2n=16$) onion bulbs, 25–30 mm diameter, without any treatments, were purchased from a local supermarket. The other chemicals were obtained from Merck and Riedel (Turkey).

Allium test

EC_{50} determination

Allium root inhibition test was performed to determine suitable concentrations for the genotoxicity assay. The procedure of the root inhibition test as described by Fiskejö (1985) was followed with some modifications (Rencüzoğulları et al., 2001). Outer scales of the bulbs and the dry bottom plates were removed without destroying the root primordia. The onions were grown in freshly distilled water for the first 24 h and afterwards exposed for 96 h to the pyracarbolid solutions (6.25, 12.5, 25, 50 and 100 ppm, respectively). In order to determine the EC_{50} values, the roots from each bundle were cut off on the fifth day and length of each root was measured from both pyracarbolid exposed bulbs and control group. EC_{50} value was considered as the concentration which retards the growth of root 50% less when compared with the control group.

MI analysis

The EC_{50} value for pyracarbolid was approximately 50 ppm. In order to demonstrate possible concentration-dependent effects of this pesticide, the root tips were treated with 25 ppm ($EC_{50}/2$), 50 ppm (EC_{50}) and 100 ppm ($EC_{50} \times 2$) concentrations of pyracarbolid and all application groups were tested 24, 48 and 72 h treatment periods.

After treatment, the roots were washed in distilled water and fixed in 3:1 ethanol:glacial acetic acid for 24 h and then roots were transferred 70% alcohol and stored +4 °C. Root tip cells were stained with Feulgen and five slides were prepared for each test group.

Micronucleus assay

Lymphocyte cultures

Peripheral venous blood was obtained from four healthy donors (two male and two female nonsmokers, aged 22–30 years) not exposed to any drug therapy or not known mutagenic agent over the past two years. In this part of the study, the method of Rothfuss et al. (2000) was followed. Informed consent was obtained from all donors and the study was carried out by the local ethics committee.

Experimental method

The blood from four healthy donors was added to 2.5 ml chromosome medium B and incubated at 37 °C for 68 h. The cells were treated with 250, 500, 750 and 1000 µg/ml concentrations of pyracarbolid for 24 and 48 h treatment

periods. Cytochalasin B was added to the cultures at final concentration of 6 mg/mL 44 h after initiating the cultures in order to block cytokinesis. A positive (Mitomycin-C 0.20 µg/ml) and a negative control (DMSO) were also used parallelly. At the end of the incubation period, the cells were treated with a hypotonic solution (0.4% KCl) at 37 °C for 10 min and fixed once with a fixative (glacial acetic acid/methanol/0.9% NaCl = 1/5/6) for 20 min and then fixed twice with another fixative (glacial acetic acid/methanol = 1/5) for 20 min. The MN slides were dried in air overnight and stained with 5% Giemsa for 14 min.

Microscopic evaluation

For MI, the different stages of mitosis were counted in at least 5000 cells (1000 cells/slide) per concentration, and expressed as a percentage. For the MN test, 8000 binucleate lymphocytes with well preserved cytoplasm were scored from each donor only one exposure time (2000 binucleate cells per concentration) for each experiment. A total of 2000 intact cells were scored to determine the frequency of cells with 1, 2, 3 or 4 nuclei. CBPI was calculated for cytotoxicity of pyracarbolid with using the formula below:

$$[(1 \times M1) + (2 \times M2) + (3 \times M3) + (4 \times M4)]/N;$$

where M1–M4 represent the number of cells with 1–4 nuclei and N is the total number of intact cells scored (Fenech, 2000).

Statistical analyses

Dunnett t-test (two tailed) was performed in order to compare the frequency of micronucleus cells between negative and positive control. The same test was also used for CBPI and *Allium* test results.

Results

In this study, we aimed to determine the potential cytotoxic effect of pyracarbolid by using both *Allium* test and micronucleus assay. Table 1 summarizes the results of *Allium* root growth inhibition test. The effective concentration (EC_{50}) value which retards 50% root growth was found approximately 50 ppm.

Table 2 shows the effects of pyracarbolid on MI and mitotic phases in the root cells of *A. cepa* treated for 24, 48 and 72 h. According to results, MI significantly decreased in all concentrations of pyracarbolid and at each exposure time.

Table 1. *Allium* root growth inhibition test.

Test substance	Concentrations (ppm)	Mean of root length ± SD
Negative control	–	4.40 ± 0.21
Positive control	–	1.02 ± 0.12 ^a
	6.25	3.63 ± 0.28 ^a
	12.5	2.80 ± 0.19 ^a
Pyracarbolid	25	2.74 ± 0.21 ^a
	50	2.32 ± 0.37 ^a
	100	2.27 ± 0.18 ^a

^aSignificantly different from negative control ($p < 0.05$ Dunnet t-test, 2-sided).

SD: Standard deviation, negative control: 1% DMSO, positive control: 10 ppm methyl methane sulfonate and cytotoxic.

Table 2. The effects of pyracarbolid on MI and mitotic phases in the root cells of *A. cepa*.

Concentration (ppm)	Treatment time (h)	Counted cell number	Mitotic index ± SD	Mitotic phases (%) ± SD			
				Prophase	Metaphase	Anaphase	Telophase
Negative control		5039	81.30 ± 10.83	77.34 ± 10.67	1.97 ± 0.28	1.05 ± 0.57	0.93 ± 0.48
Positive control		4439	40.36 ± 5.57 ^a	38.47 ± 5.36 ^a	0.75 ± 0.27 ^a	0.58 ± 0.24	0.55 ± 0.38
25	24	4861	49.14 ± 3.00 ^a	46.16 ± 2.81 ^a	1.15 ± 0.37 ^a	0.75 ± 0.34	1.09 ± 0.56
50		5033	39.39 ± 5.57 ^a	35.64 ± 5.09 ^a	1.27 ± 0.49 ^a	1.04 ± 0.69	1.32 ± 0.49
100		5250	36.28 ± 2.50 ^a	34.12 ± 2.66 ^a	0.98 ± 0.24 ^a	0.49 ± 0.14	0.68 ± 0.17
Negative control		5092	73.31 ± 1.78	68.87 ± 2.50	1.74 ± 0.27	1.37 ± 0.36	1.32 ± 0.28
Positive control		5073	36.16 ± 2.02 ^a	33.95 ± 2.12 ^a	0.75 ± 0.29 ^a	0.67 ± 0.40 ^a	0.77 ± 0.40
25	48	5177	29.60 ± 2.76 ^a	26.74 ± 2.68 ^a	0.82 ± 0.19 ^a	0.79 ± 0.02 ^a	1.25 ± 0.10
50		5207	24.45 ± 3.00 ^a	22.78 ± 3.07 ^a	0.45 ± 0.03 ^a	0.63 ± 0.17 ^a	0.60 ± 0.27 ^a
100		5186	22.42 ± 1.28 ^a	20.52 ± 1.62 ^a	0.38 ± 0.12 ^a	0.55 ± 0.18 ^a	0.97 ± 0.50
Negative control		5200	61.68 ± 2.26	57.59 ± 2.77	1.57 ± 0.42	1.53 ± 0.35	0.99 ± 0.45
Positive control		5233	32.11 ± 4.02 ^a	29.26 ± 3.79 ^a	1.05 ± 0.48	0.90 ± 0.25 ^a	0.91 ± 0.35
25	72	5152	25.26 ± 5.88 ^a	23.17 ± 5.74 ^a	0.84 ± 0.09 ^a	0.68 ± 0.15 ^a	0.57 ± 0.22
50		4786	24.04 ± 2.42 ^a	21.19 ± 1.84 ^a	0.75 ± 0.21 ^a	0.67 ± 0.49 ^a	0.60 ± 0.22
100		5425	13.12 ± 2.89*	11.55 ± 3.00*	0.55 ± 0.26*	0.33 ± 0.20*	0.69 ± 0.51

*Significantly different from negative control ($p < 0.05$ Dunnett *t*-test, 2-sided).

SD: Standard deviation, negative control: 1% DMSO, positive control: 10 ppm methyl methane sulfonate and was cytotoxic.

Table 3. The frequency of MN and CBPI in cultured human lymphocytes treated with pyracarbolid.

Test Substance	Treatment time (h)	Concentration ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	Micronucleated binuclear cells (%) ± SD	Cytokinesis block proliferation index ± SD
DMSO			0.11 ± 0.01	1.46 ± 0.12
MMC		0.20	6.11 ± 0.10 ^a	1.18 ± 0.09 ^a
Pyracarbolid	24	250	0.55 ± 0.04 ^a	1.34 ± 0.08
		500	0.65 ± 0.04 ^a	1.31 ± 0.09
		750	1.03 ± 0.22 ^a	1.27 ± 0.09 ^a
		1000	1.22 ± 0.23 ^a	1.22 ± 0.1 ^a
DMSO			0.18 ± 0.06	1.52 ± 0.09 ^a
MMC		0.20	14.46 ± 1.76 ^a	1.02 ± 0.04 ^a
Pyracarbolid	48	250	0.43 ± 0.10 ^a	1.36 ± 0.06 ^a
		500	0.68 ± 0.02 ^a	1.32 ± 0.06 ^a
		750	1.14 ± 0.27 ^a	1.25 ± 0.09 ^a
		1000	1.38 ± 0.10 ^a	1.18 ± 0.07 ^a

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level Dunnett *t*-test (2-sided).

SD: Standard deviation, positive control: mitomycin-C (MMC) was cytotoxic.

The lowest MI values were obtained from 72 h applications of 100 ppm with the score of 13.12 and the highest one in 24 h applications of 25 ppm concentrations with the score of 49.14. All MI results were reduced significantly in all concentrations and at each exposure time of pyracarbolid. In addition percentage of particular phases (prophase, metaphase, anaphase and telophase) was determined in the experiment. In general, this pesticide decreased the percentages of the both prophase and metaphase stages, significantly in all concentrations in 24, 48 and 72 h periods. The percentages of the anaphase also decreased significantly except for 24 h period. Pyracarbolid caused differentiation in the stage of telophase when compared with the control but these results were not found significant statistically except 48 h applications of 50 ppm with the score of 0.60.

MN assay and CBPI results were given in Table 3. *In vitro* MN assay, the cultures were treated with four different

concentrations of pyracarbolid (250, 500, 750 and 1000 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) for 24 and 48 h. MN frequency significantly induced due to increasing pyracarbolid concentrations for the 24 and 48 h treatment periods. The highest MN value of pyracarbolid were obtained from 48 h applications of 1000 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ with the score of 1.38, the lowest one from 48 h applications of 250 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ with the score of 0.43. However, the frequencies of MN values were lower than the positive control. CBPI was also evaluated in this study for determinate to cytotoxicity of this substance. Pyracarbolid caused reduction in the CBPI for both 24 and 48 h treatment periods significantly when compared with negative control. Concentrations of this pesticide (250 and 500 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) decreased CBPI but these results were not found significant statistically.

Discussion

Genotoxicity tests and the determination of the carcinogenicity and mutagenicity of new chemicals are the most important part of the safety testing of these compounds. Genotoxicity tests are efficient, reliable and well-established methods for the evaluation of changes in the genetic material as a result of environmental and occupational exposure. To determinate the carcinogenic and mutagenic risks of compounds, genotoxicity testing is considered as a valuable tool (Soloneski & Larramendy, 2010). Therefore, the evaluation of the genotoxicity risks of environmental pollutants is important to provide useful information about carcinogenicity and mutagenicity. In the present study, we investigated the potential genotoxic and cytotoxic effects of pyracarbolid with two different reliable genotoxicity assays.

A lot of plant test systems such as *Tradescantia paludosa* (Mišik et al., 2006), *Vicia faba* (Sang & Li, 2004), *Pisum sativum* (Kluge & Podlesak, 1985), *Hordeum vulgare* (Amer et al., 1999; Özkar et al., 2011), *Crepis capillaris* (Gadeva & Dimitrov, 2008) and *A. cepa* (Barberio et al., 2011; Fiskesjö, 1985; Grant, 1992; Rank, 2003; Saxena et al., 2005; Yıldız et al., 2009), were developed for evaluating the genotoxicity and cytotoxicity of different pollutants.

The *A. cepa* test is one of the most sensitive and easier method in order to evaluate the toxicity of different substances and this test have been successfully carried out in previous research for pesticides (Barberio et al., 2011; Liman et al., 2010, 2011; Yıldız & Arıkan, 2008). In *Allium* test, EC₅₀ (50 ppm) value was firstly determined before setting up the experiments. The effective concentration value was used to be useful parameter for selecting the test concentrations for the genotoxicity assays (Chauhan et al., 1999; Ma et al., 1995). In *Allium* root growth inhibition test, dose-dependent significant inhibition referred to the potential cytotoxicity of substance which was used in the experiment. The inhibition of root growth in *A. cepa* test can be related with apical meristematic activity (Liu et al., 2003; Webster & MacLeod, 1996), the inhibition of cell elongation in the extension regions (Fusconi et al., 2006; Voutsinas et al., 1997) and the inhibition of protein synthesis (Seth et al., 2007).

MI is proved to be a useful parameter that allows one to evaluate the frequency of cellular division (Marcano et al., 2004). Estimation of potential cytotoxicity of substances is generally related to the inhibition of mitotic activities (Smaka-Kincl et al., 1996). In our study, the used concentrations of pyracarbolid also caused significant inhibition of MI. In the previous studies, a number of researchers have reported the inhibitions in MI by pesticides (Marcano et al., 2004; Pandey, 2008; Yıldız & Arıkan, 2008).

The significant decline of MI could be due to the inhibition of DNA synthesis or blocking of G1 suppressing DNA synthesis or the effect of test compound at G2 phase of the cell cycle (El-Ghamery et al., 2000; Majewska et al., 2003; Sudhakar et al., 2001). When a pesticide penetrates the cells and reach a critical concentration, it could be in active form, causing lesions during several following cellular cycles (Marcano et al., 2004; Rank, 2003). It is thought that the decline of MI in our study can be related to these reasons.

In this study, all concentrations of pyracarbolid caused the changes in the percentage of particular phases' distribution when compare with the control group. Generally, this pesticide decreased the percentages of the prophase and metaphase stages in *A. cepa* significantly in all concentration and at each exposure time. Beside this anaphase stage was also decreased but the data was not found significant. Pyracarbolid caused differentiation in the stage of telophase when compared with the control.

Pesticides accumulate in the cell and cannot step out of the cell easily after once penetrate the cell and may be highly toxic in the cell (Antunes-Madeira & Madeira, 1979). The accumulation of the pesticides into the cell may affect the phases of mitotic division. The similar results have been reported with different pesticides in *Allium* test (Andrioli et al., 2012; Liman et al., 2010; Pandey, 2008; Srivastava & Mishra, 2009; Yıldız & Arıkan, 2008).

The *in vitro* micronucleus assay is generally used routinely for the assessment of chemicals' safety. This assay defines clastogenic (compounds directly react with DNA) and aneugenic activity (compounds interact with the components of the mitotic and meiotic cell division cycle) of environmental pollutants (Kirkland, 2005).

In this study, increasing pyracarbolid concentrations caused to significant increase in MN frequency both treatment

periods when compared with negative control. Our results showed that pyracarbolid induced significant micronucleus formation in cells treated with concentrations. The similar results have been reported from the other investigators in MN assay with pesticides (Ali et al., 2008; Ergene et al., 2007; Graillot et al., 2012; Revankar & Shyama, 2009; Zeljezic & Garaj-Vrhovac, 2004).

CBPI was also evaluated in this study. A significant reduction was obtained in CBPI by pyracarbolid for both 24 and 48 h treatment periods when compared with negative control. Concentrations of this pesticide (250 and 500 µg/ml) decreased CBPI, but these results were not found to be statistically significant. In accordance to these results, pyracarbolid has cytotoxic effect due to decreasing of CBPI and the similar results have been reported from the other researchers with our work (Ila et al., 2008; İstifli & Topaktaş, 2013).

The tested substances with different test systems can be genotoxic or not genotoxic depending on a number of factors such as chemical structure and biological activity, having rings in the structure and the positions of the binding location (Kutlu et al., 2011). In addition to these, it might be related to differences in test conditions, such as exposure time, cell types, concentrations of substances, the dispersal of the materials and physico-chemical characteristics of the compounds (Ema et al., 2012). Therefore, it could be explained why some studies find an increase of genetic damage while in others result as negative.

In conclusion, pyracarbolid was found to be cytotoxic due to the decrease of MI in *Allium* test and CBPI in MN test. This pesticide also induced MN frequency. However, we suggest that further ongoing assays, using other *in vitro* and *in vivo* systems, to test the genotoxicity of the same pesticide will improve our knowledge on the base of estimating the genotoxic risks and the main characteristics of their toxicity.

Declaration of interest

The authors report no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content and writing of this article.

References

- Ali D, Nagpure NS, Kumar S, et al. (2008). Genotoxicity assessment of acute exposure of chlorpyrifos to freshwater fish *Channa punctatus* (Bloch) using micronucleus assay and alkaline single-cell gel electrophoresis. Chemosphere 71:1823–1831.
- Amer SM, Mohammed FI, Ashry ZM. (1999). Cytogenetic effects of the fungicide benomyl on *Vicia faba* and *Pisum sativum*. Bull Nat Res Cent 24:481–494.
- Andrioli NB, Soloneski S, Laramendi ML, et al. (2012). Cytogenetic and microtubule array effects of the zineb-containing commercial fungicide formulation Azzurro® on meristematic root cells of *Allium cepa* L. Mutat Res 742:48–53.
- Antunes-Madeira MC, Madeira VMC. (1979). Interaction of insecticides with lipid membranes. Biophys Acta 550:384–392.
- Ateeq B, Farah MA, Niamat AM, et al. (2002). Clastogenicity of pentachlorophenol, 2,4-D and butachor evaluated by *Allium* root tip test. Mutat Res 514:105–113.
- Barberio A, Voltolini JC, Mello MLS. (2011). Standardization of bulb and root sample sizes for the *Allium cepa* test. Ecotoxicology 20:927–935.
- Chauhan LKS, Saxena PN, Gupta SK. (1999). Cytogenetic effects of cypermethrin and fenvalerate on the root meristem cells of *Allium cepa*. Environ Exp Bot 42:181–189.
- El-Ghamery AA, El-Nahas AI, Mansour MM. (2000). The action of atrazine herbicide as an inhibitor of cell division on chromosomes and

- nucleic acids content in root meristems of *Allium cepa* and *Vicia faba*. *Cytologia* 65:277–287.
- Ema M, Immura T, Suzuki H, et al. (2012). Evaluation of genotoxicity of multi-walled carbon nanotubes in a battery of *in vitro* and *in vivo* assays. *Regul Toxicol Pharmacol* 63:188–195.
- Ergene S, Çelik A, Çavuş T, et al. (2007). Genotoxic biomonitoring study of population residing in pesticide contaminated regions in Göksu Delta: micronucleus, chromosomal aberrations and sister chromatid exchanges. *Environ Int* 33:877–885.
- Fenech M. (2000). The *in vitro* micronucleus technique. *Mutat Res* 455: 81–95.
- Fiskešjo G. (1985). The *Allium* test as a standart in environmental monitoring. *Hereditas* 102:99–112.
- Fusconi A, Repetto O, Bona E, et al. (2006). Effect of cadmium on meristem activity and nucleus ploidy in roots of *Pisum sativum* L. cv. Frisson seedlings. *Environ Exp Bot* 58:253–260.
- Gadeva P, Dimitrov B. (2008). Genotoxic effects of the pesticides Rubigan, Omite and Rovral in root-meristem cells of *Crepis capillaris* L. *Genet Toxicol Environ Mutagen* 652:191–197.
- Graillot V, Tomasetta F, Cravedia JP, et al. (2012). Evidence of the *in vitro* genotoxicity of methyl-pyrazole pesticides in human cells. *Mutat Res* 748:8–16.
- Grant WF. (1992). Cytogenetics studies of agricultural chemicals in plants in genetic toxicology an agricultural perspective. New York: Plenum Press, 335–378.
- Ila HB, Topaktaş M, Rencüzoğulları E, et al. (2008). Genotoxic potential of cyfluthrin. *Mutat Res* 656:49–54.
- Istifli ES, Topaktaş M. (2013). Genotoxicity of pemetrexed in human peripheral blood lymphocytes. *Cytotechnology* 65:621–628.
- Kirkland D, Aardema M, Henderson L, et al. (2005). Evaluation of the ability of abattery of three *in vitro* genotoxicity tests to discriminate rodent carcinogens and non-carcinogens. I. Sensitivity, specificity and relative predictivity. *Mutat Res* 584:1–256.
- Kluge R, Podlesak W. (1985). Plant critical levels for the evaluation of boron toxicity in spring barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.). *Plant Soil* 83: 381–388.
- Konuk M, Liman R, Cigerci IH. (2007). Determination of genotoxic effect of boron on *Allium cepa* root meristematic cells. *Pak J Bot* 39: 73–79.
- Konuk M, Akyil D, Liman R, et al. (2008). Examination of the mutagenic effects of some pesticides. *Fresenius Environ Bull* 17:439–442.
- Kutlu M, Öztaş E, Aydoğan G, et al. (2011). An investigation of mutagenic activities of some 9-substituted phenanthrene derivatives with Ames/*Salmonella*/microsome test. *Anadolu University J Sci Tech – C* 1:83–94.
- Li Y, Chen DH, Yan J, et al. (2012). Genotoxicity of silver nanoparticles evaluated using the Ames test and *in vitro* micronucleus assay. *Mutat Res* 745:4–10.
- Liman R, Akyil D, Eren Y, et al. (2010). Testing of the mutagenicity and genotoxicity of metolcarb by using both Ames/*Salmonella* and *Allium* test. *Chemosphere* 80:1056–1061.
- Liman R, Cigerci IH, Akyil D, et al. (2011). Determination of genotoxicity of fenamino sulf by *Allium* and comet tests. *Pestic Biochem Phys* 99:61–64.
- Liu D, Jiang W, Gao X. (2003). Effects of cadmium on root growth, cell division and nucleoli in root tips of garlic. *Biol Plant* 47:79–83.
- Ma TH, Xu ZD, Xu C, et al. (1995). The improved *Allium/Vicia* root tip micronucleus assay for clastogenicity of environmental pollutants. *Mutat Res* 334:185–195.
- Majewska AE, Wolska E, Sliwinska M, et al. (2003). Antimitotic effect, G2/M accumulation, chromosomal and ultrastructure changes in meristematic cells of *Allium cepa* L. root tips treated with the extract from *Rhadiola rosea* roots. *Caryologia* 56:337–351.
- Marcano L, Carruyo I, Del Campo A, et al. (2004). Cytotoxicity and mode of action of maleic hydrazide in root tips of *Allium cepa* L. *Environ Res* 94:221–226.
- Mišik M, Solenska M, Miščieta K, et al. (2006). *In situ* monitoring of clastogenicity of ambient air in Bratislava, Slovakia using the *Tradescantia* micronucleus assay and pollen abortion assays. *Genet Toxicol Environ Mutagen* 605:1–6.
- Ozakca DU, Silah H. (2013). Genotoxicity effects of flusilazole on the somatic cells of *Allium cepa*. *Pestic Biochem Phy* 107:38–43.
- Özkara A, Akyil D, Erdoğmuş SF, et al. (2011). Evaluation of germination, root growth and cytological effects of wastewater of sugar factory (Afyonkarahisar) using *Hordeum vulgare* bioassays. *Environ Monit Assess* 183:517–524.
- Pandey RM. (2008). Cytotoxic effects of pesticides in somatic cells of *Vicia faba* L. *Cytol Genet* 42:373–377.
- Pastor S, Gutiérrez S, Creus A, et al. (2001). Micronuclei in peripheral blood lymphocytes and buccal epithelial cells of Polish farmers exposed to pesticides. *Mutat Res* 495:147–156.
- Rank J. (2003). The method of *Allium* anaphase–telophase chromosome aberration assay. *Ekologija* 1:38–42.
- Rencuzogulları E, Ila HB, Kayraldız A, et al. (2001). Chromosome aberrations and sister chromatid exchanges in cultured human lymphocytes treated with sodium metabisulfite, a food preservative. *Mutat Res* 490:107–112.
- Revankar PR, Shyama SK. (2009). Genotoxic effects of monocrotophos, an organophosphorous pesticide, on an estuarine bivalve, *Meretrix ovum*. *Food ChemTox* 47:1618–1623.
- Rothfuss A, Schutz P, Bochum S, et al. (2000). Induced micronucleus frequencies in peripheral lymphocytes as a screening test or carriers of a BRCA1 mutation in breast cancer families. *Cancer Res* 60:390–394.
- Sang N, Li G. (2004). Genotoxicity of municipal landfill leachate on root tips of *Vicia faba*. *Mutat Res* 560:159–165.
- Saxena PN, Chauhan LKS, Gupta SK. (2005). Cytogenetic effects of commercial formulation of cypermethrin in root meristem cells of *Allium sativum*: spectroscopic basis of chromosome damage. *Toxicology* 216:244–252.
- Seth CS, Chaturvedi PK, Misra V. (2007). Toxic effect of arsenate and cadmium alone and in combination on giant duckweed (*Spirodela polyrrhiza* L.) in response to its accumulation. *Environ Toxicol* 22: 539–549.
- Shanmuganathan N, Saravanapavan TV. (1978). The Effectiveness of pyracarbolid against tea leaf blister blight (*Exobasidium vexans*). *PANS* 24:43–52.
- Smaka-Kincl V, Stegnar P, Lovka M, et al. (1996). The evaluation of waste, surface and ground water quality using the *Allium* test procedure. *Mutat Res* 368:171–179.
- Soloneski S, Larramendy M. (2010). Sister chromatid exchanges and chromosomal aberrations in Chinese hamster ovary (CHO-K1) cells treated with insecticide pirimicarb. *J Hazard Mater* 174:410–415.
- Srivastava K, Mishra KK. (2009). Cytogenetic effects of commercially formulated atrazine on the somatic cells of *Allium cepa* and *Vicia faba*. *Pestic Biochem Physiol* 93:8–12.
- Sta C, Ledoigt G, Ferjani E, et al. (2012). Exposure of *Vicia faba* to sulcotrione pesticide induced genotoxicity. *Pestic Biochem Phy* 103: 9–14.
- Sudhakar R, Gowda N, Venu G, et al. (2001). Mitotic abnormalities induced by silk dyeing industry effluents in the cells of *Allium cepa*. *Cytologia* 66:235–239.
- Türkoğlu S. (2007). Genotoxicity of five food preservatives tested on root tips of *Allium cepa* L. *Mutat Res* 626:4–14.
- Türkoğlu S. (2009). Genotoxic effects of mono-, di-, and trisodium phosphosphate on mitotic activity, DNA content and nuclear volume in *Allium cepa* L. *Caryologia* 62:171–179.
- Voutsinas G, Zarani FE, Kappas A. (1997). The effect of environmental aneuploidy-inducing agents on the microtubule architecture of mitotic meristematic root cells in *Hordeum vulgare*. *Cell Biol Int* 21:411–418.
- Vrdoljak AL, Žunec B, Radic R, et al. (2014). Evaluation of the cyto/genotoxicity profile of oxime K048 using human peripheral blood lymphocytes: an introductory study. *Toxicol in vitro* 28:39–45.
- Webster PL, MacLeod RD. (1996). The root apical meristem and its margin. In: Waishel Y, Eshel A, Kafkafi U, eds. *Plant roots. The hidden half*, second ed. New York: Marcel Dekker, 51–76.
- Yıldız M, Arıkan ES. (2008). Genotoxicity testing of quinalofop-P-ethyl herbicide using the *Allium cepa* anaphase–telophase chromosome aberration assay. *Caryologia* 61:45–52.
- Yıldız M, Cigerci IH, Konuk M, et al. (2009). Determination of genotoxic effects of copper sulphate and cobalt chloride in *Allium cepa* root cells by chromosome aberration and comet assays. *Chemosphere* 75:934–938.
- Yılmaz S, Ünal F, Yılmaz E, et al. (2013). Evaluation of the genotoxicity of clomiphene citrate. *Mutat Res* 759:21–27.
- Zeljezic D, Garaj-Vrhovac V. (2004). Chromosomal aberrations, micronuclei and nuclear buds induced in human lymphocytes by 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid pesticide formulation. *Toxicology* 200:39–47.