Principi di tossicologia genetica: meccanismi e valutazione

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CORSO TEORICO-PRATICO DI VALUTAZIONE DELLA SICUREZZA DEI COSMETICI MILANO 15 -19 aprile 2013 DNA is the informationally active chemical component of all genetic material. The primary structure of DNA is quite dynamic and subject to constant change in the chemistry and sequence of individual nucleotides.



SPONTANEOUS ALTERATIONS

MISMATCHES mispairing of bases during DNA synthesis

ALTERATIONS IN THE CHEMISTRY OF DNA BASES

TAUTOMERIC SHIFTS transient rearrangements of bonding

NH 2 (amino) C=O (keto) NH (imino) (cytosin or adenine) C=O (keto) C-OH (enol) (guanine or thymine)

DEPURINATION

DEAMINATION OF BASES the loss of amino groups occurs spontaneously in pH and temperature reactions of DNA.

cytosine —— uracil adenine —— hypoxanthine guanine —— xanthine

CHEMICAL CARCINOGENS/MUTAGENS

Direct-acting compounds reactive electrophiles Es. EMS

Indirect-acting compounds

can react with nucleic acid only after conversion to

reactive electhrophiles by metabolism (activation and detoxification)

Mode of action of chemical mutagenic agents

Alkylating agents are chemicals that donate alkyl groups to other molecules. Ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS) is an example.



Deaminating agents





Methyl nitrosourea (MNU)

Aflatoxin B₁ (Aspergillus flavus)



ASBESTOS GENOTOXICITY



Lung epithelium

Knaapen et , 2004



| Chemicals | Experimental models | ROS or effects | Reference | |
|---|---------------------|---|---|--|
| Genotoxic | | | | |
| N-nitroso compounds | Murine | MDA, 80HdG | Bartsch, Hietanen, and Malaveille (1989); Srinivasan and Glauert (1990); Chung and Xu (1992) | |
| BaP | Mice | 8OHdG | Mauthe et al. (1995) | |
| AFB-1 | Rats | 8OHdG | Shen et al. (1995) | |
| Heterocyclic amines | In vitro | OH | Sato et al. (1992) | |
| MMC and 2-acetylaminofluoene | In vitro | ОН | Komiyama, Kikuchi, and Sugiura (1982); Srinivasan and Glauert (1990) | |
| KBrO3 | Rats | 8OHdG | Umemura et al. (1995) | |
| Nongenotoxic | | | | |
| 2-butoxyethanol | Mice | | Siesky, Kamendulis, and Klaunig (2002) | |
| Acrylonitrile | Rats; in vitro | MDA, 80HdG | Jiang, Xu, and Klaunig (1998); Whysner et al. (1998); Kamendulis et al. (1999) | |
| Chlorinated compounds (TCDD, dieldrin, DTT, lindane) | Murine; in vitro | Lipid peroxidation, O2 , etc. | Videla, Barros, and Junqueira (1990); Junqueira et al. (1991); Alsharif, Lawson, and Stohs (1994) | |
| Phenobarbital | Murine | OH, 8OHdG, lipid peroxidation | Junqueira et al. (1991) | |
| Metal (nickel, BrCl, chromium, Fe-NTA iodobenzene) | Murine | OH, 8OHdG, MDA, NO | Klein, Frenkel, and Costa (1991); Sai et al. (1992); Bagchi and Stohs (1993); Iqbal, Giri, and Athar (1995) | |
| Peroxisome proliferator (DEHP, WY-14,643, clofibrate, ciprofibrate, PFDA) | Murine | OH, 8OHdG, etc. | Srinivasan and Glauert (1990); Tamura et al. (1990); Wada, Marsman, and Popp (1992); Cattley and Glover (1993); C. Y. Huang et al. (1994) | |
| CC14 | | Trichloromethyl peroxyl radical | Brattin, Glende, and Recknagel et al. (1985) | |
| Phorbol ester (TPA, PMA) | Murine; in vitro | OH, 8OHdG | Witz (1991) | |
| Quinones | V79 cells | 8OHdG | Dahlhaus et al. (1995) | |

TABLE 2.—Environmental and pharmaceutical carcinogens that can induce oxidative stress and damage.

Note for ROS = reactive oxygen species.





Cellular response to genotoxic damage





MUTATIONS





Types of mutation Chromosome Deletion Duplication Inversion Chromatid Chromatid Nucleus. Telomere Centromere Telomere Cell Insertion Chromosome 20 а Chromosome 20 Chromosome 4 Histones Base Chromosome 4 Translocation Derivative Chromosome 20 DNA(double helix) Chromosome 20 Derivative Chromosome 4 IST Chromosome 4

Mutagen an agent that lead to an increase in the frequency of occurrence of mutations Mutant frequency proportion of mutants in a population Mutation rate mutations giving a particular scorable phenotype per DNA replication Genomic mutation mutations per genome per DNA

replication.

Point mutations mutations that result from the substitution of one base pair for another or from the addition or deletion of a small number of base pair Transition or purine or one pyrimidine for another Transversion interchange of a purine for a pyrimidine or interchange of a pyrimidine for a purine Frameshift mutations addition or deletion of small number of base pairs that cause a sfift in the translational reading frame.

Mutations and cancer

Tumors are characterized by mutations.

Human tumorigenesis proceeds by the accumulation of inherited and somatic mutations:

- gene mutations: insertions, deletions, recombinations
- chromosomal mutations: dicentrics, rings, translocations, double minutes chromosomes, aneuploidy)

Boveri (1902) showed that abnormal development in sea urchin embryogenesis is associated with chromosomal alterations. He surmised that these changes are analogous to the multiple defects in intercellular cooperation seen in cancers.

Mutation and Cancer

Mutations in key regulatory genes (tumor suppressors and proto-oncogenes) alter the behavior of cells and can potentially lead to the unregulated growth seen in cancer.

For almost all types of cancer studied to date, it seems as if the transition from a normal, healthy cell to a cancer cell is step-wise progression that requires genetic changes in several different oncogenes and tumor suppressors. For almost all types of cancer studied to date, it seems as if the transition from a normal, healthy cell to a cancer cell is step-wise progression that requires genetic changes in several different oncogenes.





Loeb, L. A. Cancer Res 2001;61:3230-3239



Proto-oncogene activation

Oncogenes

These are altered forms of genes known as proto-oncogenes. Proto-oncogenes are responsible for promoting cell growth. When altered or mutated, they become oncogenes and then can promote tumor formation or growth. Mutations in proto-oncogenes are usually acquired.

Proto-oncogenes are often involved in signal transduction and execution of mitogenic signals, usually through their protein products.

Having a mutation in just one of the two copies of a particular proto-oncogene is enough to cause a change in cell growth and the formation of a tumor. For this reason, oncogenes are said to be "dominant" at the cellular level.

Examples of proto-oncogenes include: RAS, MYC, WNT, ERK; TKR



Tumour suppressor genes

- The gene's normal function is to regulate cell division. Both alleles need to be mutated or removed in order to lose the gene activity.
- The first mutation may be inherited or somatic.
- The second mutation will often be a gross event leading to loss of heterozygosity in the surrounding area.

p53

- suppresses progression through the cell cycle in response to DNA damage
- initiates apoptosis if the damage to the cell is severe
- is a transcription factor and once activated, it represses transcription of one set of genes (several of which are involved in stimulating cell growth) while stimulating expression of other genes involved in cell cycle control

Role of genotoxicity tests in risk assessment

•Identify compounds with potential heritable effects

•Predict carcinogenic potential

•Provide informations on mode of action of carcinogenic agents

Genotoxic (or genotoxicity) refers to agents which interact with the DNA and/or the cellular apparatus which regulates the fidelity of the genome, eg the spindle apparatus, and enzymes such as the topoisomerases.

It is a broad term that includes mutation as well as damage to DNA or the production of DNA adducts, by the chemical itself or its metabolites. Mutation refers to a permanent change in the amount or structure of the genetic material of an organism, which may result in a heritable change in the characteristics of the organism. These alterations may involve:individual genes, blocks of genes, or whole chromosomes.

Gene mutation

Mutations involving single genes may be a consequence of effects on single DNA bases (point mutations) or of larger changes, including deletions and rearrangements of DNA.

Chromosomal mutation

Changes involving chromosomes as entities may be numerical or structural.



Clastogenicity is used for agents giving rise to structural chromosome aberrations. A clastogen can cause breaks in chromosomes that result in the loss or rearrangements of chromosome segments.

Aneugenicity (aneuploidy induction) refers to the effects of agents that give rise to a change (gain or loss) in chromosome number in cells. An aneugen can cause loss or gain of chromosomes resulting in cells that have not an exact multiple of the haploid number

Germ cell mutation

A mutation in the germ cells of sexually reproducing organisms may be transmitted to the offspring, whereas a mutation that occurs in somatic cells may be transferred only to descendent daughter cells. Mutagenic chemicals may present a hazard to health since exposure to a mutagen carries the risk of inducing germ-line mutations, with the possibility of inherited disorders, and the risk of somatic mutations including those leading to cancer.



GENE MUTATION TESTS

Salmonella reverse mutation (Ames Test)
E.coli reverse mutation

 ✓ Mammalian Cell Mutation Assay forward mutations HPRT, ouabain resistance etc

✓ Gene mutations in vivo in transgenic mice

AMES TEST OECD 471 (1997)

The Ames test uses a mutant strain of *Salmonella typhimurium* which cannot grow in the absence of the amino acid histidine because a mutation has occurred in a gene that encodes one of the nine enzymes used in the pathway of histidine synthesis.

These auxotrophic mutants are called *histidine-dependent* or his -mutants because they depend on an external source of histidine to grow.

Auxotrophs are mutant individuals that cannot make all the metabolic products that wild-type (prototrophic) individuals



AMES TEST

The bacterium used in the test is a strain of Salmonella typhimurium that carries a defective (mutant) gene making it unable to synthesize amino acid histidine (His) from the ingredients in its culture medium. However, some types of mutations (including this one) can be reversed, a back mutation, with the gene regaining its function. These revertants are able to grow on a medium lacking histidine.



Ames Test

Developed by Bruce Ames and his colleagues in the 1970s.

The picture (courtesy of Bruce Ames) shows a qualitative version of the Ames test. A suspension of a histidinerequiring (His-) strain of Salmonella typhimurium has been plated with a mixture of rat liver enzymes on agar lacking histidine. The disk of filter paper has been impregnated with <u>10µg</u> of 2-aminofluorene, a known carcinogen. The mutagenic effect of the chemical has caused many bacteria to regain the ability to grow without histidine, forming the colonies seen around the disk. The scattered colonies near the margin of the disk represent spontaneous revertants.



| S. <i>Typhimurium</i> strain | Gene Affected | DNA- repair | LPS | Biotin Requirement | Plasmide | Mutation Event |
|------------------------------------|------------------|----------------|-----|-----------------------|----------------|---------------------------------------|
| S. Typh. TA100 | hisG | uvrB | rfa | bio- | pkM101 | base-pair substitution |
| S. Typh. TA102 | hisG | - | rfa | bio- | pkM101 pAQ1 | base-pair substitution |
| S. Typh. TA1535 | hisG | uvrB | rfa | bio- | - | base-pair substitution missense |
| E. Coli WP2 uvrA | trp | uvrA | - | - | - | base-pair substitution |
| S. Typh. TA98 | hisD | uvrB | rfa | bio- | pkM101 | frameshift insertion |
| S. Typh. TA1537 | hisC | uvrB | rfa | bio- | - | frameshift deletion |
| S. Typh. TA1538 | hisC | uvrB | rfb | bio- | - | frameshift insertion |

In vitro assay for gene mutations in mammalian cells

•Culture set up

•Cytotoxicity test

•Treatment with the test compound in the presence and absence of metabolic activation system

•Expression period during which mutations are fixed in DNA and the endogenous levels of wild enzyme decrease

•Selection period during which cells are cloned in the presence of a selective agent

MAMMALIAN CELLS: FORWARD MUTATION ASSAYS OECD 476

•Hprt locus hypoxantinephosphoribosyl transferase resistance to 6-thioguanine CHO chinese hamster ovary cells V79 chinese hamster lung cells

•Na/K- ATPase resistance to ouabain CHO chinese hamster ovary cells V79 chinese hamster lung cells

•tk locus-thymidine kinase resistance to threefluorotymidine L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells

CHO-HGPRT mutation assay

HGPRT enzyme catalyzes phosphorylation of purines in one of the purine salvage pathway.

6-TG is a substrate for this enzyme.

Cells retaining the enzyme are susceptible to the cytoxic effects of 6-TG

Forward mutations that result in a loss of the functional HPRT gene render the cells resistant to 6-TG.

The mutant cells can be quantitated by cloning the cells in culture medium supplemented with 6-TG, the selective agents.

TK mouse lymphoma mutation assay

Utilizes a strain of mouse lymphoma cells that has made heterozygous at the TK locus.

TK enzyme catalyzes phosphorylation of thymidine in one of the salvage pathway.

Trifluorothymidine (TFT) is the selective agent: it can be phosphorylated by the TK enzyme and cells containing the enzyme are susceptible to the cytoxic effects of TFT.

Forward mutations that result in a loss of TK enzyme and acquisition of TFT resistance.


Gene mutations

Transgenic mice **BIG BLUE MICE**

Environmental Health Criteria 233

A transgenic animal carries a foreign gene that has been deliberately inserted into its genome.

The foreign gene is constructed using recombinant DNA methodology. In addition to a **structural gene**, the DNA usually includes other sequences to enable it to be incorporated into the DNA of the host and to be expressed correctly by the cells of the host.

Big Blue mice are transgenic for a segment of DNA that contains:

the DNA of **bacteriophage lambda**, a virus that infects E. coli, and which serves here as the vector for 3 genetic elements from the **lac operon** of E. coli:

The lacl gene
the operator of the operon
the beta galactosidase (lacZ)



Chromosomal Aberration tests

Mammalian Chromosome Aberration Test In Vitro OECD TG 473(1997)

Mammalian Bone Marrow Chromosome Aberration Test OECD 475 (1997)

Mammalian Erythrocyte Micronucleus Test OECD 474 (1997)

In vitro micronucleus test OECD 487 (2004) Mammalian Chromosome Aberration Test In Vitro OECD TG 473(1997).

AIMS:

Structural chromosome damage: Chromatid-type aberrations Chromosome-type aberrations

Numerical aberrations: change in the number of chromosomes

Method:

Cells

A variety of cell lines, strains or primary cell cultures, including human cells, may be used (e.g. Chinese hamster fibroblasts, human or other mammalian peripheral blood lymphocytes).

Exposure

Cells should be exposed to the test substance both in the presence and absence of an appropriate metabolic activation system.

Doses: defined by a previous cytotoxicity test. At least three analysable concentrations should be use Concurrent positive and negative (solvent or vehicle) controls. the maximum test concentration should be 5 μ l/ml, 5 mg/ml or 0.01 M

Mammalian Bone Marrow Chromosome Aberration Test OECD 475 (1997)

Aims

The mammalian in vivo chromosome aberration test is used for the detection of structural chromosome aberrations induced by test compounds in bone marrow cells of rodents (mice or rats)

Method

Animals are exposed to the test substance by an appropriate route of exposure and are sacrificed at appropriate times after treatment. Prior to sacrifice, animals are treated with a metaphase-arresting agent (e.g.,

colchicine or Colcemid®).

Doses

the limit dose is 2000 mg/kg/body weight/day for treatment up to 14 days, and 1000 mg/kg/body weight/day for treatment longer than 14 days the first sampling interval is 1.5 normal cell cycle length (the latter being normally 12-18 hr)

Chromosome preparations are made from the bone marrow cells and stained, and metaphase cells are analysed for chromosome aberrations.

Classification of Chromosomal Aberrations

Definition for aberrations, including gaps:

number of cells with chromosome aberrations
type of chromosome aberrations given separately for each treated and control culture;





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FISH Painting

Fluorescent in situ hybridisation (FISH) method employs fluorescent-labelled probes for centromeres and chromosomes

Generally painting three of the larger chromosomes (i.e. $1 \rightarrow 12$) representing about 20% of the genome leads to about 33% efficiency in detecting translocations.

Data obtained by the analysis of only a few chromosomes (the painted ones) generally are scaled up to full genomic frequency by assuming a random distribution of breaks points.

The estimation of the genomic translocation frequency is carried out using the formula of Lucas (1992) which links the observed transloca⁻ =frequency on the painted chromosomes (F_p) to the genomic translocation frequency (F_q)





Micronucleus test

Micronuclei are the result of chromosome breakage and loss due to unrepaired or mis-repaired DNA lesions or chromosome malsegregation due to mitotic malfunction

Micronucleus test can be applied in interphase to any proliferating cell populations regardless of its karyotype.













In Vitro Mammalian Cell Micronucleus Test OECD 487, 2010

Cultured primary human peripheral blood lymphocytes) or rodent cell lines such as CHO, V79, CHL/IU, and L5178Y cells may be used.

> The use of other cell lines and types should be justified based on their demonstrated performance in the assay. Cell types with a low, stable background frequency of micronucleus formation be used

>Cell cultures of human or mammalian origin are exposed to the test substance both with and without an exogenous source of metabolic activation unless cells with an adequate metabolizing capability are used.

>During or after exposure to the test substance, the cells are grown for a period sufficient to allow chromosome or spindle damage to lead to the formation of micronuclei in interphase cells.

Cell cultures

Lymphocytes obtained from young (approximately 18-35 years of age), healthy, non-smoking individuals with no known recent exposures to genotoxic chemicals or radiation : whole blood treated with an anti-coagulant (e.g. heparin), or separated lymphocytes, are cultured in the presence of a mitogen e.g. phytohaemagglutinin (PHA) prior to exposure to the test substance and cytoB

Established cell lines are propagated from stock cultures, seeded in culture medium at a density such that the cultures will not reach confluency in monolayers, and suspension cultures will not reach excessive density before the time of harvest, and incubated at 37°C.

Use of CytB

CytB should be used of as a cytokinesis blocker when human lymphocytes are used because cell cycle times will be variable within cultures and among donors and because not all lymphocytes will respond to PHA.

In studies with cytoB, cytostasis/cytotoxicity can be quantified from the cytokinesis-block proliferation index (CBPI) or may be derived from the RI from at least 500 cells per culture

Cytotoxicity

>In studies with cytB, cytostasis/cytotoxicity can be quantified from the cytokinesis-block proliferation index (CBPI) or may be derived from the RI from at least 500 cells per culture.

>In studies without cytoB, it is necessary to demonstrate that the cells scored in the culture have undergone division during or following treatment with the test substance.

Methods that have been used for ensuring that divided cells are being scored include:

 ✓ incorporation and subsequent detection of bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU) to identify cells that have replicated

✓ the formation of clones when cells from permanent cell lines are treated and scored in situ on a microscope slide

 \checkmark (Proliferation Index (PI)) or the measurement of Relative Population Doubling (RPD) or Relative Increase in Cell Count (RICC) or other proven methods.

Table 1. Cell treatment and harvest times for the MNvit assay

| Lymphocytes, primary cells and cell lines treated with cytoB | + \$9 | Treat for 3-6 hrs in the presence of S9; remove the S9 and treatment medium; add fresh medium and cytoB; harvest 1.5 – 2.0 normal cell cycles later. | | | |
|--|--------------|---|--|--|--|
| | - S9 | Treat for 3-6 hrs; | | | |
| | Short | remove the treatment medium; | | | |
| | exposure | add fresh medium and cytoB; | | | |
| | | harvest 1.5 – 2.0 normal cell cycles later. | | | |
| | - S 9 | <u>Option A</u> : Treat for $1.5 - 2$ normal cell cycles in the presence | | | |
| | Extended | of cytoB; | | | |
| | exposure | are harvest at the end of the exposure period. | | | |
| | | <u>Option B</u> : Treat for 1.5 – 2.0 normal cell cycles; | | | |
| | | remove the test substance; | | | |
| | | add fresh medium and cytoB; | | | |
| | | harvest 1.5 – 2.0 normal cell cycles later. | | | |

Cell lines treated without cytoB

(Identical to the treatment schedules outlined above with the exception that no cytoB is added) For lymphocytes, the most efficient approach is to start the exposure to the test substance at 44-48 hrs after PHA stimulation, when cycle synchronisation will have disappeared

Cytokinesis-Block Micronucleus Assay

(I) PREPARATION OF CULTURES



Whole blood (0.4 ml) is added to complete medium RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 100 units/ml penicillyn, 100 μ g/ml streptomycin, 1,5 % phytoemoagglutinin.

(II) ADDITION OF CYTOCHALASIN B

Cytochalasin B ($6 \mu g/ml$) is added.



(III) CELLS HARVESTING AND PREPARATION OF SLIDES

After 72 h cells are centrifuged, treated with hypotonic solution (0.075 M KCl) and then fixed in methanol and acetic acid 5:1.



(IV) SLIDE PREPARATION



Lymphocytes are dropped onto clean iced slides, air dried and stained with Giemsa 3 %.

MICRONUCLEUS IN HUMAN LYMPHOCYTES/ESTABLISHED CELL LINES

Experimental protocol

Experimental protocol was standardized in isolated lymphocytes and in whole blood culture to evaluate:

- Genotoxic damage
- micronuclei (chromosome breakage and chromosome loss)
- Nucleoplasmic bridges
- Buds

•Cytoxic effects

- necrosis
- apoptosis

•Cytostatic effects

- Nuclear division index
- % binucleated cells

PROTOCOL

Cytokinesis-block micronucleus cytome assay

Michael Fenech

1984 | VOL.2 NO.5 | 2007 | NATURE PROTOCOLS

Genome Health Nutrigenomics Laboratory, CSIRO Human Nutrition, Food Science Australia, FO Box 10041, Adelaide 5000, South Australia, Acastralia, Correspondence should be addressed to M.F. (michaeldessed/@csiro.au.).

PERIPHERAL LYMPHOCYTES : CYTOKINESIS-BLOCK MICRONUCLEUS ASSAY



• IST Struttura di Cancerogenesi Ambientale

SCORING

>In cytB-treated cultures, micronucleus frequencies should be analysed in at least 2000 binucleated cells per concentration (at least 1000 binucleated cells per culture; two cultures per concentration).

➢In cell lines assayed without cytoB treatment, micronuclei should be scored in at least 2000 cells per concentration (at least 1000 cells per culture; two cultures per concentration). Where only one culture per concentration is used, at least 2000 cells should be scored from that culture



Automated scoring



Micronuclei, can be automatically detected with the *Metafer MSearch* micronucleus software module (*MicroNuclei*). Within a region of interest around a bi-nucleated cell the number of micronuclei is determined automatically. Mammalian Erythrocyte Micronucleus Test OECD 474 (1997)



Mice or rats are recommended if bone marrow is used, although any appropriate mammalian species may be used.

Animals are treated with the test substance once. Samples of bone marrow are taken at least twice, starting not earlier than 24 hours after treatment, but not extending beyond 48 hours after treatment with appropriate interval(s) between samples

Bone marrow cells are usually obtained from the femurs or tibias immediately following sacrifice.

Mammalian Erythrocyte Micronucleus Test OECD 474 (1997)

Analysis

The proportion of immature among total (immature + mature) erythrocytes is determined for each animal by counting a total of at least 200 erythrocytes for bone marrow and 1000 erythrocytes for peripheral blood.

Flow cytometry

Microscopic analysis



Mutation Research 698 (2010) 30-37



Evaluation of a liver micronucleus assay in young rats (III): A study using nine hepatotoxicants by the Collaborative Study Group for the Micronucleus Test (CSGMT)/Japanese Environmental Mutagen Society (JEMS)–Mammalian Mutagenicity Study Group (MMS)

Hironao Takasawa^{a,}*, Hiroshi Suzuki^b, Izumi Ogawa^c, Yasushi Shimada^d, Kazuo Kobayashi^e, Yukari Terashima^e, Hirotaka Matsumoto^f, Chinami Aruga^g, Keiyu Oshida^h, Ryo Ohta^f, Tadashi Imamura^b, Atsushi Miyazaki^b, Masayoshi Kawabata^a, Shigenori Minowa^a, Makoto Hayashiⁱ

Profiles of hepatotoxic agents and results of micronucleus assays in comparison with the published data of genotoxicity and carcinogenicity.

| Test chemical | Result of MN | | Genotoxicity | | | Carcinogenicity |
|--|--------------|------------|---|------------------------------------|---|--|
| | L | PB | Ames | In vitro CA | In vivo BM MN* | Target organ# |
| Necrotic compound 2,6-Dinitrotoluene (2,6-DNT) Bromobenzene (BBZ) | + E | | + [18] [19] | +[18] - [19]/+[29] | – [18] (+ in mice) [19] | +L[18] -[19] |
| Isoniazid Phenacetin Allyl alcohol Thioacetamide (TAA) | - - - | E E | + [26] + [58,59] - [38] - [60] | – [28] +[26] +[38] – [61] | ND [32]/+ in mice [32] [38] ND | + Lu [26,27] + UB, K [34,35] - [36] + L [56,57] |
| Cholestatic compound Chlorpromazine HCl (CPZ) α-Naphthyl isothiocyanate (ANIT) | - | ± NT | – [23] – [39] | – [23] ND | + [24,25] ND | + P [22] ND |
| Oxidative stress inducer Clofibrate | - | NT | - [62] | (-)[63] | ND | + L, P [53–55] |

MN: micronucleus assay, L: liver, PB: peripheral blood, CA: chromosomal aberration assay (parentheses show *in vitro* MN result), BM: bone marrow (parentheses show PB MN result), NT: not tested, ND: no data found, P: pancreas, +: clear positive, -: negative, E: equivocal, ±: weakly positive, P: pancreas, Lu: lung, UB: urinary bladder, K: kidney, #: data in rats.

FISH MN

Aim: Characterize micronuclei

FISH was performed with directly labelled human pancentromeric and pantelomeric probes.





PERIPHERAL LYMPHOCYTES CYTOKINESIS-BLOCK MICRONUCLEUS ASSAY Characterization of MN after fluorescence in situ hybridization with a pancentromeric probe







C+MN

DNA DAMAGE TESTS

Unscheduled DNA Synthesis (UDS) Test in Mammalian Cells *in vitro*

Unscheduled DNA Synthesis (UDS) Test with Mammalian Liver Cells *In Vivo* OECD 486 (1997)

COMET ASSAY

Unscheduled DNA synthesis (UDS)

This assay measures a cell's ability to perform global genomic nucleotide excision repair (NER). Repair is quantified by the amount of radioactive thymidine incorporated after this insult, and the length of time allowed for this incorporation is specific for repair of particular lesions.



This can be detected by autoradiography associated with image analysis. This method involves culturing cells on glass slides, exposing them to the test substances in the presence of medium containing high specific radioactivity [3H]-thymidine and observing the radiolabel incorporated during UDS into those cells Unscheduled DNA Synthesis (UDS) Test in Mammalian Cells in vitro

Primary mammalian hepatocytes, established cell lines and lymphocytes

Treatment

Cells are treated with the test substance in a medium containing 3H-TdR for an appropriate length of time.

At the end of the treatment period, medium should be removed from the cells, which are then rinsed, fixed and dried.

In order to discriminate between UDS and normal semi-conservative DNA replication, the latter may be reduced or inhibited, for example, by the use of an arginine-deficient medium, low serum content, or by hydroxyurea in the culture medium.

Autoradiographic determinations

At least 50 cells per culture should be counted determining UDS, Sphase nuclei are not counted. Unscheduled DNA Synthesis (UDS) Test with Mammalian Liver Cells In Vivo OECD 486 (1997)

Aim of the test:

to identify substances that induce DNA repair in liver cells of treated animals

The endpoint of unscheduled DNA synthesis (UDS) is measured by determining the uptake of labelled nucleosides in cells that are not undergoing scheduled (S-phase) DNA synthesis.

uptake of tritium-labelled thymidine (3H-TdR) by autoradiography.

The detection of a UDS response is dependent on the number of DNA bases excised and replaced at the site of the damage.

Limitations: UDS test detect mainly substance-induced "longpatch repair" (20-30 bases) NER pathway Unscheduled DNA Synthesis (UDS) Test with Mammalian Liver Cells In Vivo

Procedure:

Treatment *in vivo* by gavage



Preparation of liver cells

Liver cells are prepared by perfusion from treated animals normally 12-16 hours after dosing

Determination of UDS

Freshly isolated mammalian liver cells are incubated in vitro usually with medium containing 3HTdR for an appropriate length of time, e.g. 3 - 8 hours

Results

- number of "cells in repair" if determined;
- number of S-phase cells if determined;
- historical negative (solvent/vehicle) and positive control da with range, means and standard deviations



DNA DAMAGE





to DNA break frequency

CRITICAL STEPS

- Isolation of cells. Most animal cells can be used if it is possible to disaggregate them to release single cells
- Embedding cells
- Lysis of cells
- Alkaline treatment and electrophoresis
- Ways of measuring comets: manual scoring on a photomicrograph Visual scoring Image analysis

Image analysis:

% DNA in tail?

Tail moment?

Tail length?

- `% DNA in tail' is linearly related to DNA break frequency over wide range of damage.
- 'Tail length' increases only over very low range of breaks.
- 'Tail moment' combines these measures and is non-linear.
- `Tail moment' has no recognised units and is impossible to visualise.

USE % DNA IN TAIL!

Ways of measuring Comet

Visual scoring

Comets are selected for scoring

Overlapping comet cannot be scored with image analysis





Collins, A. R. et al. Mutagenesis 2008 23:143-151; doi:10.1093/mutage/gem051



Copyright restrictions may apply.

Ways of measuring Comet

Visual scoring vs image analysis

Correlation and reproducibility





This assay allows us to estimate the level of oxidative base damage in lymphocytes

The enzymes; repair glycosylases (endonucleases)

- Formamidopyrimidine DNA glycosylase (FPG) recognises ring-opened purines (fapy-adenine, fapy-guanine) and 8-oxoguanine; the latter is thought to be its main substrate *in vivo*.
- Endonuclease III detects oxidised pyrimidines.
- AlkA detects 3-methyladenine (but is not very specific)
- T4 endonuclease V detects UV-induced pyrimidine dimers
- Uracil DNA glycosylase (misincorporated U)
- UvrABC? (Bulky adducts, helix distortions) Not yet working satisfactorily




COMET ASSAY IN VIVO

Experimental design

| Compound | Dose (mg/kg/day) | Number of animals (see note 1) |
|----------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Vehicle (negative control) | 0 | 5 |
| EMS (positive control) | 200 | 5 |
| Test compound | Low (1/4 of high) | 5 |
| Test compound | Medium (1/2 of high) | 5 |
| Test compound | High* | 5 |

COMET ASSAY IN VIVO

Treatment schedule



| Assay | Strain | End point | Comments | Published guidelines | References |
|--|--|--|---|--|------------|
| Salmonella typhimurium reverse mutation assay | TA1535, TA1537 (or TA97 or TA97a), TA98, TA100 | Primarily detects G/C base pair and frameshift mutations | Contain specific mutations in one of several genes involved in histidine biosynthesis that must be reverted to function normally. Testing with and without appropriate exogenous metabolic activation system. May not detect some oxidizing mutagens and cross-linking agents. | OECD Test Guideline 471 (replaces old OECD Test Guidelines 471 and 472) | (17–19) |
| S.typhimurium | TA102 | Primarily detects A/T base pair damage and small deletions | Detects oxidizing mutagens and cross-linking agents | OECD Test Guideline 471 | (19,20) |
| Other S.typhimurium mutants | YG1021, YG1026 (NR overexpression); YG1024, YG1029 (NAT overexpression) | | For detection of mutagenicity of nitroaromatic and aminoaromatic substances that are bioactivated by NR and NAT. More sensitive than conventional strains. Used for detecting mutagenicity of toxic pollutants in air, water and food. | | (21,22) |
| Escherichia coli reverse mutation assay | WP2, WP2uvrA | Primarily detects A/T base pair damage | Detects oxidizing mutagens and cross-linking agents | OECD Test Guideline 471 | (19) |

Table I. Common in vitro bacterial assays

A, adenine; C, cytosine; G, guanine; NAT, N-acetyltransferase; NR, nitroreductase; T, thymine.

| Assay | Method/end point | Main attributes | Comments | Published guidelines | References |
|---|--|---|--|--|-------------|
| Mouse lymphoma TK gene mutation assay | L5178Y mouse lymphoma cell line; using a selective medium, mutant frequencies are determined | Detects not only point mutations but also various sizes of chromosome deletions and other effects that can lead to loss of heterozygosity (e.g. mitotic recombination, gene conversion and translocations) | Use of positive controls and colony sizing essential for quality control. Evaluation and interpretation changed over the years. Recent protocol updates recommendations. Can be used as alternative to metaphase analysis. | OECD Test Guideline 476; IWGT guidelines | e (3,23–26) |
| HPRT gene mutation assay | Chinese hamster ovary, AS52 or other suitable cell line; using a selective medium, mutant frequencies are determined | Detects not only point mutations but also small deletions; larger deletions may be detected in AS52 cells | Use of positive controls essential for quality control | OECD Test Guideline 476 | (23,27) |
| Metaphase analysis (<i>in vitro</i> mammalian chromosome aberration test) | A metaphase-arresting substance (e.g. colchicine) is applied; metaphase cells are analysed for the presence of structural chromosome aberrations | Detects clastogenicity; some information on aneugenicity can be obtained with extended culture times | A variety of cell lines, strains or primary cell cultures, including human cells, may be used (e.g. Chinese hamster fibroblasts, human or other mammalian peripheral blood lymphocytes) (28) | OECD Test Guideline 473 | (29–31) |
| Micronucleus test | Detects micronuclei in the cytoplasm of cultured mammalian cells during interphase | Detects both aneugenic and clastogenic substances; established mammalian lines, cultured human peripheral blood lymphocytes or Syrian hamster embryo cells may be used | Several developments in updating the protocol. Immunochemical labelling of kinetochores or hybridization with general or chromosome-specific centromeric/ telomeric probes gives information on the nature and mechanism of formation of micronuclei induced (whole chromosomes or fragments). | Draft OECD Test Guideline 487 | (13,32–36) |

Table II. Common in vitro mammalian assays

Table III. Common in vivo genotoxicity assays

| Assay | End point | Main attributes | Comments | Published guideline | s References |
|--|--|--|---|----------------------------|---|
| Micronucleus test in erythropoietic cells | Structural and numerical chromosome alterations | Long history, regulatory acceptance, high relevance of end point | Has potential for application to other tissues | OECD Test Guideline 474 | (15,28), and references cited therein |
| Metaphase analysis in vivo | Structural and numerical chromosome aberrations | Long history, regulatory acceptance, high relevance of end point | Has potential for application to other tissues | OECD Test Guideline 475 | (39) |
| Transgenic animal models | Gene mutation | Can be applied to many tissues. Gene specific. No selective pressure on mutations. Relevant end point. | Need to optimize protocols overall and for each tissue. <i>lacI</i> , <i>lacZ</i> , <i>gpt</i> systems not sensitive to the detection of large deletions. Spi ⁻ system detects large deletions. | IWGT, IPCS guidance | (40-44) |
| Chemically modified DNA | Covalent DNA adducts, oxidative lesions (e.g. 8-OH-dG) | Can be applied to many tissues. Can be highly sensitive (³² P-postlabelling or AMS) or chemically specific (MS). Other methods include immunochemical techniques, fluorescence, ECD (for 8-OH-dG). | Indicator test detecting premutagenic lesions. Interpretation of results can be complicated. | IWGT guidance | (45) |
| DNA strand breakage assays (e.g. comet assay) | DNA strand breaks, alkali-labile lesions | Can be applied to many tissues. Incorporation of enzymes can improve specificity. Cell division not required. | Indicator tests. Need to optimize protocols for different tissues. May be unable to detect mutagens that do not induce strand breaks or alkali-labile lesions, but may detect repair-induced breaks. Apoptosis/necrosis need to be controlled. | IWGT guidance | (14,46–49) |
| Liver UDS | Thymidine incorporation outside S phase | Long history of use; useful for some classes of substances. | Indicator test detecting repair activity. Uncertain acceptability and questionable sensitivity. Limited use in other tissues. | OECD Test Guideline 486 | (50,51) |

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8-OH-dG, 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine; AMS, accelerator mass spectrometry; ECD, electrochemical detection; MS, mass spectrometry; UDS, unscheduled DNA synthesis.

| Table IV | V. Ge | erm ce | ll ass | avs |
|----------|-------|--------|--------|-----|
|----------|-------|--------|--------|-----|

| Assay | End point | Main attributes ^a | Comments | Published guidelines | References |
|---|---|--|--|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| Class 1: tests in germ cells per se | | | | | |
| Transgenic animal models | Gene mutation | Gene specific. No selective pressure on mutations. Relevant end point. | See Table III | See Table III | See Table III |
| ESTR assay | Non-coding tandem repeat DNA mutation | Potentially relevant end point. Detects heritable mutations at ambient exposure levels. Uses relatively few animals. Can be conducted in humans. | Some tandem repeat mutations also occur in, or near, coding genes. Although there are parallels with mutations in coding genes, the human health outcomes require further study. | | (52–55) |
| Mammalian spermatogonial chromosome aberration test | Structural chromosome aberrations | Relevant end point | | OECD Test Guideline 483 | (56) |
| FISH assays | Structural chromosome aberrations; sperm aneuploidy | Relevant end points. Can be conducted in humans. | See Table III | See Table III | (57,58) |
| Comet assay | DNA strand breaks or alkali-labile sites | See Table III. Can be conducted in humans. | See Table III | See Table III | (59) |
| Chemically modified DNA Class 2: tests to detect effects in the offspring (or potential offspring | DNA adducts | See Table III. Can be conducted in humans. | See Table III | See Table III | (60) |
| ESTR assay | As above for class 1 tests | As above for class 1 tests | As above for class 1 tests | | As above for class |
| Dominant lethal test | Reduction in viable embryos attributed to chromosome or gene mutations | Relevant end point. Provides data for quantification of pregnancy loss. | | OECD Test Guideline 478 | (61) |
| Mouse visible specific locus test | Gene mutation | Provides data for quantification of inherited mutation frequency. Relevant end point | Uses large number of animals | EPA OPPTS 870.5200 | (62) |
| Mouse biochemical specific locus test | Gene mutation | Provides data for quantification of inherited mutation frequency. Relevant end point | Uses large number of animals | EPA OPPTS 870.5195 | (63) |
| Mouse heritable translocation assay | Structural chromosome aberrations | Provides data for quantification of inherited mutation frequency. Relevant end point. | Uses large number of animals | OECD Test Guideline 485 | (64) |

EPA OPPTS, United States Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Prevention, Pesticides and Toxic Substances; ESTR, Expanded Simple Tandem Repeat; FISH, fluorescence *in situ* hybridization. ^a'Relevant end point' means relevant to the estimation of human heritable health risk.

OECD GUIDELINES FOR THE TESTING OF CHEMICALS

- Bacterial Reverse Mutation Test
- □ In Vitro Mammalian Chromosome Aberration Test
- Mammalian Erythrocyte Micronucleus Test
- Mammalian Bone Marrow Chromosome Aberration Test
- □ In Vitro Mammalian Cell Gene Mutation Test
- Genetic Toxicology: Sex-linked Recessive Lethal Test in Drosophila Melanogaster
- Genetic Toxicology: Rodent Dominant Lethal Test
- Genetic Toxicology: in Vitro Sister Chromatid Exchange Assay in Mammalian Cells
- Genetic Toxicology: Saccharomyces Cerevisae, Gene Mutation Assay
- Genetic Toxicology: Saccharomyces Cerevisae, Miotic Recombination Assay
- Genetic Toxicology: DNA Damage And Repair, Unscheduled DNA Synthesis in Mammalian Cells *in Vitro*
- □ Mammalian Spermatogonial Chromosome Aberration Test
- □ Genetic Toxicology: Mouse Spot Test
- □ Genetic Toxicology: Mouse Heritable Translocation Assay
- Unscheduled DNA Synthesis (USD) Test With Mammalian Liver Cells in Vivo

Performance of genotoxicity tests to predict rodent carcinogenicity

| | Carcinogens | Non-carcinogens |
|-----------------------|-------------|-----------------|
| Genotoxicity positive | А | В |
| Genotoxicity negative | С | D |

| Sensitivity | % correctly identified carcinogens | A/(A+C) * 100 |
|--------------|---|-----------------------|
| Specificity | % correctly identified non-carcinogens | D/(B+D) * 100 |
| Concordance | % correctly identified carcinogens and non- | (A+D)/(A+B+C+D) * 100 |
| | carcinogens | |
| Positive | % carcinogens among positive genotoxicity | A/(A+B) *100 |
| predictivity | results | |
| Negative | % non-carcinogens among negative | D/(C+D) * 100 |
| predictivity | genotoxicity results | |

Performance of *in vitro* genotoxicity tests in detecting rodent carcinogens

| | MN | MLA | Ames | CA |
|--------------------------|------|------|------|------|
| Ν | 115 | 350 | 717 | 488 |
| Sensitivity | 78.7 | 73.1 | 58.8 | 65.6 |
| Specificity | 30.8 | 39.0 | 73.9 | 44.9 |
| Positive predictivity | 79.5 | 73.7 | 87.4 | 75.5 |
| Negative predictivity | 29.6 | 38.3 | 36.8 | 33.5 |

Sensitivity=TP/TP + FN

Specificity =TN/FP +TN

Positive predictivity= %carcinogens/total positive compounds Negative predictivity= % non carcinogens/total negative compounds

Performance of *in vivo* genotoxicity tests in detecting rodent carcinogens

| | CA Kim and Margolin | MN Kim and Margolin | UDS Lambert | Comet Sasaki |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|----------------|-----------------|
| Ν | 82 | 82 | 37 | 190 |
| Sensitivity | 43.6 | 36.4 | 69.0 | 78.1 |
| Specificity | 66.7 | 77.8 | 60.0 | 80.0 |
| Positive predictivity | 72.7 | 76.9 | 92.0 | 95.4 |
| Negative predictivity | 36.7 | 37.5 | 23.0 | 40.7 |

Sensitivity=TP/TP + FN Specificity =TN/FP +TN Positive predictivity= %carcinogens/total positive compounds Negative predictivity= % non carcinogens/total negative compounds

Genotoxicity testing

An adequate evaluation of the genotoxic potential of a chemical substance involve the assessment of multiple genetic endpoints:

- •Gene mutation
- •Structural Chromosomal alterations
- •Numerical Chromosomal alterations

An adequate coverage of all the genetic endpoints can only be obtained by the use of multiple test systems : a test battery.

No individual test can simultaneously provide information on all end points.

WHO/IPCS HARMONIZED SCHEME

Strategy for mutagenicity testing







WHO/IPCS HARMONIZED SCHEME

Strategy for germ cell mutagenicity testing





Scientific Committee on Consumer Safety

SCCS

THE SCCS'S NOTES OF GUIDANCE FOR THE TESTING OF COSMETIC INGREDIENTS AND THEIR SAFETY EVALUATION

7TH REVISION



The SCCS adopted this opinion at its 9th plenary meeting of 14 December 2010.

IN VITRO CORE BATTERY

•test for gene mutation in bacteria Ames

•Test for gene mutation in mammalian cells

•cytogenetic test for structural and numerical chromosomal damage

metaphase chromosome aberration test or micronucleus test

Generation and evaluation of data on genotoxic potential

A step-wise approach involves:

> a basic battery of *in vitro tests*

>consideration of whether specific features of the test substance might require substitution of one or more of the recommended in vitro tests by other in vitro or in vivo tests in the basic battery

> in the event of positive results from the basic battery, review of all the available relevant data on the test substance

>- where necessary, conduct of an appropriate in vivo study (or studies) to assess whether the genotoxic potential observed in vitro is expressed in vivo.

REGOLAMENTO (CE) n. 1223/2009 DEL PARLAMENTO EUROPEO E DEL CONSIGLIO del 30 novembre 2009 sui prodotti cosmetici

(9) I prodotti cosmetici dovrebbero essere sicuri nelle condizioni normali o ragionevolmente prevedibili di uso. In particolare, i rischi per la salute umana non dovrebbero essere giustificati attraverso un'analisi rischi-benefici.

Limitazioni di talune sostanze

Il regolamento vieta l'impiego delle sostanze classificate come cancerogene, mutagene o tossiche per la riproduzione (CMR), salvo casi eccezionali. Prevede un elevato livello di protezione della salute umana in caso di impiego di nanomateriali nei prodotti cosmetici.

Gli allegati al presente regolamento riportano un elenco di sostanze il cui impiego è vietato (allegato II) o limitato (allegato III) nei prodotti cosmetici. Sono altresì vietati alcuni coloranti (diversi da quelli dell'allegato IV), conservanti (diversi da quelli dell'allegato V) e filtri UV (diversi da quelli dell'allegato VI).

REGOLAMENTO (CE) N. 1272/2008 DEL PARLAMENTO EUROPEO E DEL CONSIGLIO

del 16 dicembre 2008

Tabella 3.6.1

Categorie di pericolo per le sostanze cancerogene

| Categorie | Criteri | | |
|---------------|--|--|--|
| CATEGORIA 1: | Sostanze cancerogene per l'uomo accertate o presunte La classificazione di una sostanza come cancerogena di categoria 1 avviene sulla base di dati epidemiologici e/o di dati ottenuti con sperimentazioni su animali. | | |
| Categoria 1A: | categoria 1 A può avvenire ove ne siano noti effetti cancerogeni per l'uomo sulla base di studi sull'uomo, oppure di | | |
| Categoria 1B: | Categoria 1B per le sostanze di cui si presumono effetti cancerogeni per l'uomo, prevalentemente sulla base di studi su animali. La classificazione di una sostanza nelle categorie 1A e 1B si basa sulla forza probante dei dati e su altre considerazioni (cfr. punto 3.6.2.2). I dati possono provenire da: | | |
| | studi condotti sull'uomo da cui risulta un rapporto di causalità tra l'esposizione umana a una sostanza e l'insorgenza di un cancro (sostanze di cui sono accertati effetti cancerogeni per l'uomo); o sperimentazioni animali i cui risultati (¹) permettono di dimostrare effetti cancerogeni per gli animali (sostanze di cui si presumono effetti cancerogeni per l'uomo). | | |
| | Inoltre, caso per caso, in base a una valutazione scientifica può essere deciso di considerare una sostanza come presunta sostanza cancerogena se esistono studi che dimostrano la presenza di effetti cancerogeni limitati per l'uomo e per gli animali. | | |
| CATEGORIA 2: | Sostanze di cui si sospettano effetti cancerogeni per l'uomo La classificazione di una sostanza nella categoria 2 si basa sui risultati di studi sull'uomo e/o su animali non sufficientemente convincenti per giustificare la classificazione della sostanza nelle categorie 1 A o 1B, tenendo conto della forza probante dei dati e di altre considerazioni (cfr. punto 3.6.2.2). Tali dati possono essere tratti da studi che dimostrano la presenza di effetti cancerogeni limitati (¹) per l'uomo o per gli animali. | | |

REGOLAMENTO (CE) N. 1272/2008 DEL PARLAMENTO EUROPEO E DEL CONSIGLIO

del 16 dicembre 2008

Categoria di rischio Categorie di pericolo per le sostanze mutagene delle cellule germinali

| Categorie | Criteri |
|---------------|---|
| CATEGORIA 1: | Sostanze di cui è accertata la capacità di causare mutazioni ereditarie o da considerare come capaci di causare mutazioni ereditarie nelle cellule germinali umane. Sostanze di cui è accertata la capacità di causare mutazioni ereditarie nelle cellule germinali umane. |
| Categoria 1A: | La classificazione nella categoria 1 A si basa su risultati positivi di studi epidemiologici sull'uomo. Sostanze da considerare come capaci di causare mutazioni ereditarie nelle cellule germinali umane. |
| Categoria 1B: | La classificazione nella categoria 1B si basa su: risultati positivi di test in vivo di mutagenicità su cellule germinali di mammiferi, o risultati positivi di test in vivo di mutagenicità su cellule somatiche di mammiferi, associati a dati che dimostrano che la sostanza può causare mutazioni nelle cellule germinali. Questi dati supplementari possono provenire da test in vivo di mutagenicità/genotossicità su cellule germinali o dimostrare la capacità della sostanza o dei suoi metaboliti di interagire con il materiale genetico delle cellule germinali, o risultati positivi di test che dimostrano effetti mutageni in cellule germinali umane, ma non la trasmissione delle mutazioni alla progenie; per esempio, un aumento della frequenza dell'aneuploidia negli spermatozoi dei soggetti esposti. |
| CATEGORIA 2: | Sostanze che destano preoccupazione per il fatto che potrebbero causare mutazioni ereditarie nelle cellule germinali umane La classificazione nella categoria 2 si basa su: — risultati positivi di esperimenti su mammiferi e/o in taluni casi di esperimenti in vitro, ottenuti per mezzo di: — test in vivo di mutagenicità su cellule somatiche di mammiferi, o — altri test in vivo di genotossicità su cellule somatiche confermati da risultati positivi di test in vitro di mutagenicità. Nota: Le sostanze che danno risultati positivi in test in vitro di mutagenicità su mammiferi e che presentano un'analogia nella relazione struttura chimica-attività con sostanze di cui è accertata la mutagenicità sulle cellule germinali sono prese in considerazione per la classificazione come sostanze mutagene di categoria 2, |

Una valutazione della sicurezza delle sostanze, in particolare di quelle classificate come sostanze CMR 1A o 1B, dovrebbe tenere conto dell'esposizione complessiva a tali sostanze provenienti da tutte le fonti. Di conseguenza, è opportuno che la Commissione, in stretta cooperazione con il CSSC, l'Agenzia europea per le sostanze chimiche (ECHA), l'Autorità europea per la sicurezza alimentare (EFSA) e altre parti interessate, proceda con urgenza a una revisione e metta a punto linee guida riguardanti la produzione e l'utilizzo delle stime relative all'esposizione complessiva a tali sostanze.

La valutazione da parte del CSSC concernente l'impiego di sostanze classificate come CMR 1A e 1B nei prodotti cosmetici dovrebbe tener conto anche dell'esposizione a tali sostanze dei gruppi di popolazione vulnerabili, come bambini di età inferiore a tre anni, persone anziane, donne incinte e che allattano nonché persone con un sistema immunitario compromesso

Sperimentazione animale

La sperimentazione animale va sostituita con metodi alternativi. Il regolamento vieta la realizzazione di sperimentazioni animali all'interno dell'Unione europea per: i prodotti finiti; gli ingredienti o le combinazioni di ingredienti.

Il regolamento vieta altresì l'immissione sul mercato europeo di prodotti la cui formulazione finale sia stata oggetto di una sperimentazione animale; prodotti contenenti ingredienti o combinazioni di ingredienti che siano stati oggetto di una sperimentazione animale.

La direttiva 86/609/CEE del Consiglio, del 24 novembre 1986,

concernente il ravvicinamento delle disposizioni legislative, regolamentari e amministrative degli Stati membri relative alla protezione degli animali utilizzati a fini sperimentali o ad altri fini scientifici(1) GU L 358 del 18.12.1986, pag. 1. (1) ha stabilito regole comuni per l'utilizzo degli animali a fini sperimentali nella Comunità e ha fissato le condizioni alle quali tali esperimenti devono essere condotti nel territorio degli Stati membri. In particolare, l'articolo 7 di tale direttiva prescrive che gli esperimenti su animali siano sostituiti da metodi alternativi, laddove essi esistano e siano scientificamente validi.

(40) È possibile garantire la sicurezza dei prodotti cosmetici e dei loro ingredienti attraverso metodi alternativi non necessariamente applicabili a tutti gli usi dei componenti chimici.

La sicurezza degli ingredienti utilizzati nei prodotti cosmetici potrà essere garantita progressivamente applicando metodi alternativi che non comportino l'impiego di animali, convalidati a livello comunitario, oppure approvati in quanto scientificamente validi dal Centro europeo per la convalida di metodi alternativi (ECVAM) e tenendo nel debito conto lo sviluppo della convalida in seno all'Organizzazione per la cooperazione e lo sviluppo economici (OCSE).





REPLACEMENT sostituzione degli animali con tecniche alternative

REFINEMENT ottimizzazione dei protocolli sperimentali per minimizzare la sofferenza degli animali.

REDUCTION riduzione del numero degli animali mediante la conduzione di test multipli sugli stessi



Computational Toxicology

Metodi computazionali (in silico) possono essere utilizzati per predire gli effetti delle sostanze chimiche sulla salute dell'uomo e delle specie animali ed il loro destino ambientale



(Q)SAR

The REACH regulation foresee the application of (Q)SARs in a number of ways, mainly to:

>provide information for use in priority setting procedures

>guide the design of an experimental test or testing strategy

> improve the evaluation of existing test data

➢ provide mechanistic information (which could be used, for example, to support the grouping of chemicals into categories)

≻fill data gaps for classification and labelling and for risk assessment.

READ ACROSS



Metodi Alternativi: test in vitro



I sistemi in vitro permettono l'identificazione di metaboliti tossici in ambiente controllato e sono importanti per la definizione del meccanismo d'azione dei composti

Genotossicità (Luglio 2010) Test del micronucleo in vitro

Irritazione dermica (Luglio 2010) Metodi in vitro sull'epidermide umana ricostituita

Sensibilizzazione cutanea (Luglio 2010) OECD Test Guidelines No. 429 Local Lymph Node Assay (LLNA)

test di trasformazione cellulare in vitro (CTA) predittivo della cancerogenesi (marzo 2012)