

## Quantification of $CD59^-$ mutants in human–hamster hybrid ( $A_L$ ) cells by flow cytometry

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### Abstract

Mutation assay is an important approach in evaluating the genotoxic risk of potentially harmful environmental chemicals. The human–hamster hybrid ( $A_L$ ) cell mutagenesis system, based on the complement/antibody-mediated cytotoxicity principle, has been used successfully to evaluate the mutagenic potential of a variety of environmental toxicants. The  $A_L$  cells contain a standard set of CHO chromosomes and a single human chromosome 11, which expresses several cell surface proteins including CD59 encoded by the  $CD59$  gene at 11p13.5. A modified mutation assay by flow cytometry was developed to determine the yield of  $CD59^-$  mutants after either radiation or chemical treatment. After incubation with phycoerythrin-conjugated mouse monoclonal anti- $CD59$  antibody, the  $CD59^-$  mutant yields were determined by quantifying the fluorescence of the cells using flow cytometry. This method is faster and eliminates the commonly encountered toxicity problems of the complements with the traditional complement/antibody assay. By comparing the mutant fractions of radiation or chemically treated  $A_L$  cultures using the two methods, we show here that the flow cytometry assay is an excellent substitute in providing an efficient and highly sensitive method in mutant detection for the traditional complement/antibody assay.

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**Keywords:**  $A_L$  cells;  $CD59$ ; Gamma ray; MNU; Mutagenesis; Flow cytometry

### 1. Introduction

In vitro genotoxic assays to assess the potential DNA damaging and carcinogenic risk of environmental agents are part of an established human health risk evaluation program of the National Toxicology Program because of the close correlation between mutagenesis and carcinogenesis. In contrast to the high cost, societal concern and extensive time frame necessary for animal studies,

in vitro genotoxic assay systems represent an attractive alternative.

The human–hamster hybrid ( $A_L$ ) cell system is a well-established in vitro model for detecting mutagens that induce mutations ranging from large, multilocus deletions to small deletions as well as point mutations. The  $A_L$  cells contain a standard set of CHO chromosomes and a single human chromosome 11, which expresses several cell surface proteins including CD59 encoded by the  $CD59$  gene at 11p13.5 [1–3]. CD59 is a widely distributed, glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)-anchored cell surface protein, which acts as an inhibitor of complement [4,5]. Because only a

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small part of the human chromosome 11 (11p15.5) is required for the viability of the hybrid cells, mutations in the human chromosome ranging in size of up to 140 Mbp of DNA can be readily detected [6–8]. After exposure to mutagens, mutants lacking *CD59* antigen can be scored by using rabbit serum-complement plus anti-*CD59* antibody. While mutants will survive from the treatment and form colonies, wild-type cells are efficiently lysed. There is evidence that some *CD59*<sup>−</sup> mutants can maintain small amounts of wild-type *CD59* protein for several generations, which results in less efficient mutation detection. Furthermore, the spontaneous mutant fraction increases with the incubation period. On average, it takes 4–6 weeks to complete a mutagenic assay.

A modified mutation assay based on flow cytometry has been developed to determine the yield of *CD59*<sup>−</sup> mutations. After incubation with phycoerythrin-conjugated mouse monoclonal anti-*CD59* antibody, the *CD59*<sup>−</sup> mutant fraction was quantified based on fluorescent intensity using flow cytometry. In the present study, A<sub>L</sub> cells were treated with graded doses of an alkylating agent, *N*-methyl-*N*-nitrosourea (MNU), a well-known mutagenic and carcinogenic agent [9–11] or irradiated with graded doses of gamma rays. The mutant yields, determined by flow assay, were then compared with those obtained using the traditional complement/antibody mutation assay. We show here that mutant analyses by flow cytometry yields a clear dose response increase in mutation in A<sub>L</sub> cells treated with both MNU and gamma rays. The mutant yields detected by flow analyses, however, are consistently higher than the level obtained using the traditional antibody–complement assay.

## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1. Cell culture

The human–hamster hybrid A<sub>L</sub> cells that contain a standard set of Chinese hamster ovary-K1 chromosomes and a single copy of human chromosome 11 were used in this study. Chromosome 11 encodes cell surface markers that render A<sub>L</sub> cells sensitive to killing by a specific monoclonal antibody in the presence of complement. Rabbit serum-complement was from HPR (Denver, PA). Antibody specific to the *CD59* antigen was produced from hybridoma culture as described [2,3]. Cells were maintained in Ham's F-12 medium supplemented with 8% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum, 25 μg/ml gentamycin and 2 × 10<sup>−4</sup> M glycine at 37 °C in a humidified 5% CO<sub>2</sub> incubator and passaged as described [6–8,12–18].

### 2.2. Cytotoxicity of gamma irradiation or treatment with MNU

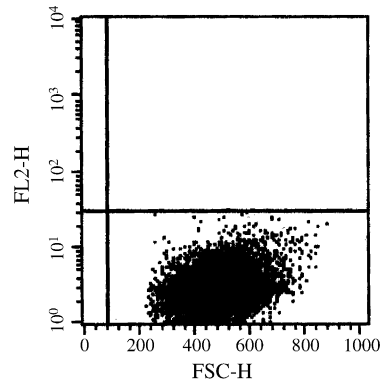
Exponentially growing A<sub>L</sub> cells were plated on T75 flasks 2 days before treatment. For MNU (Midwest Research Institute, Kansas City, MO) treatment, cells were treated with 0.125, 0.25 or 0.5 μM for 30 min; for gamma ray irradiation, cells were irradiated with 1, 3 or 5 Gy at an absorbed dose rate of 0.96 Gy/min using a <sup>137</sup>Cs irradiator. After treatment, cultures were washed twice with balanced salt solution, trypsinized to remove them from the culture flasks and replated into 100 mm diameter petri dishes for colony formation. Following incubation for 7–8 days, cultures were fixed with formaldehyde and stained with Giemsa. The number of colonies was counted to determine the surviving fraction as described [12–18]. Remaining cells were replated in new flasks for further mutation assay after the expression period.

### 2.3. Quantification of mutations at the *CD59* locus with complement/antibody assay

This 7-day expression period was needed to permit surviving cells to recover from the temporary growth lag caused by MNU or irradiation and to multiply sufficiently so that the progeny of the mutated cells were no longer expressing lethal amounts of *CD59* surface antigen. To determine the mutant fraction, 5 × 10<sup>4</sup> cells in 2 ml growth medium were plated into each of the six 60 mm dishes. The cultures were incubated for 2 h to allow the cells to attach, after which 0.3% *CD59* antiserum and 1.5% (v/v) freshly thawed complement were added to each dish as described [12–18]. The cultures were further incubated for 7–8 days. At this time, the cells were fixed and stained and the number of *CD59*<sup>−</sup> mutant colonies was scored. Controls included identical sets of dishes containing antiserum alone, complement alone or neither agent. The mutant fraction at each dose was calculated as the number of surviving colonies divided by the total number of cells plated after correction for any non-specific killing by the complement itself.

### 2.4. Preparations of cells for flow cytometry assay

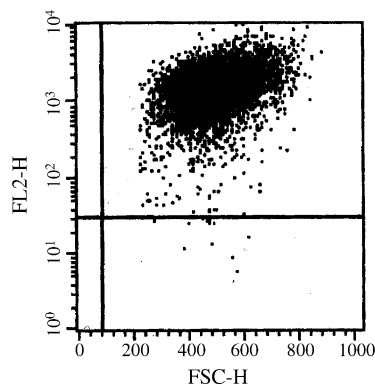
While mutations at the *CD59* locus were analysed by traditional complement/antibody method, the same batch of cells was prepared for flow cytometry assay at the same time. Cells were washed with PBS, counted and 1 × 10<sup>6</sup> cells were aliquoted into a 15 ml tube on ice. After centrifuged for 5 min at 1000 rpm, cells were suspended in 5 ml cold FACS buffer (1% BSA, 10 mM sodium azide in PBS). After a second round of centrifugation, supernatant was aspirated as thoroughly as possible. The bottom of the tube was then tapped gently to resuspend the cells in the residual buffer. A 1 ml of 1:200 diluted phycoerythrin-conjugated mouse monoclonal anti-*CD59* antibody (Catlag Laboratories, Burlingame, CA) was added to the cells and mixed well by pipetting up and down, followed by incubation on ice for 1 h. Cells were subsequently centrifuged and washed twice in 5 ml cold FACS buffer before



Gate: G1

Quad Location: 84,29

Quad	% Gated	X Mean	Y Mean
UL	0.00	***	***
UR	0.04	633.25	29.97
LL	0.00	***	***
LR	99.96	481.35	3.04



Gate: G1

Quad Location: 84,29

Quad	% Gated	X Mean	Y Mean
UL	0.00	***	***
UR	99.88	494.98	1594.94
LL	0.00	***	***
LR	0.12	469.75	19.39

Fig. 1. A typical experiment to detect  $CD59^-$  mutation using flow cytometry assay. The gate set for this experiment indicated that unstained  $A_L$  cells were 99.96%  $CD59$ -negative (A). In contrast, only 0.12% of the stained, wild-type  $A_L$  cells were found outside the gate setting indicating that the background  $CD59^-$  mutation in this experiment is 0.12% or 120 per  $10^5$  survivors (B).

resuspended in 0.5 ml FACS buffer for flow cytometry assay. Controls included non-stained wild-type  $A_L$  cells that served as an auto-fluorescence control; stained wild-type  $A_L$  cells (containing  $CD59$  antigen) as a positive control and mutant  $A_L$  cells that lack  $CD59$  antigens as a negative control.

### 2.5. Quantification of mutations at the $CD59$ locus with flow cytometry

Flow cytometry assay was performed using a flow cytometry (FACSCalibur™, Becton Dickinson). Samples were gated, based on  $90^\circ$  versus forward light scatter characteristics, to eliminate cell clumps and debris from the analysis. Voltage across the photomultiplier tubes was adjusted to obtain a good separation of fluorescent and non-fluorescent cells. The  $10^5$  cells per sample were collected for analysis. The percentage of cells/events in the non-fluorescent region of untreated, stained wild-type cells was taken as background and was subtracted from the stained, treated samples.

### 2.6. Statistical analysis

All numerical data were calculated as mean and standard deviation (S.D.). Comparisons of mutation frequency between

treatment groups and controls were performed by Student's  $t$ -test. A  $p$ -value of 0.05 or less between groups was considered significant.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Separation of cells with or without $CD59$ antigen using flow cytometry

To test the efficiency in separating  $CD59$ -negative cells from the positive ones by flow cytometry, stained and non-stained wild-type and known mutant  $CD59^-$   $A_L$  cells were analyzed. When samples were gated to eliminate debris, we found that unstained cultures of both the wild-type and  $CD59^-$  mutant  $A_L$  cells demonstrated similar background auto-fluorescence as the stained  $CD59^-$  mutant  $A_L$  cells. All of these samples were, therefore, considered to be negative. After repeated flow cytometry analyses until a similar background auto-fluorescent reading was consistently obtained between non-stained wild-type  $A_L$  cells and the stained  $CD59^-$

Table 1  
Comparison of gamma ray-induced  $CD59^-$  mutation in  $A_L$  cells using either flow cytometry or traditional complement/antibody assay

Group	No. of experiments	S.F.*	Traditional complement/antibody assay				Flow cytometry assay			
			No. of cells	P.E.*	No. of mutants	M.F.* ( $10^{-5}$ )	Means $\pm$ S.D.	Total no. of cells	M.F.* ( $10^{-5}$ )	Means $\pm$ S.D.
Control	5	100	$3 \times 10^5$	0.92	99	36	$56 \pm 18$	$1 \times 10^5$	60	$120 \pm 50$
		100	$3 \times 10^5$	0.90	157	58		$1 \times 10^5$	130	
		100	$3 \times 10^5$	0.94	118	42		$1 \times 10^5$	100	
		100	$3 \times 10^5$	0.81	199	82		$1 \times 10^5$	190	
		100	$3 \times 10^5$	0.88	164	62		$1 \times 10^5$	120	
1Gy	5	86	$3 \times 10^5$	0.85	260	102	$125 \pm 33$	$1 \times 10^5$	160	$240 \pm 60$
		78	$3 \times 10^5$	0.86	390	151		$1 \times 10^5$	250	
		64	$3 \times 10^5$	0.93	237	85		$1 \times 10^5$	240	
		68	$3 \times 10^5$	0.81	396	163		$1 \times 10^5$	320	
		70	$3 \times 10^5$	0.86	320	124		$1 \times 10^5$	230	
3Gy	5	71	$3 \times 10^5$	0.65	332	170	$211 \pm 47$	$1 \times 10^5$	360	$430 \pm 120$
		60	$3 \times 10^5$	0.68	530	260		$1 \times 10^5$	600	
		50	$3 \times 10^5$	0.61	287	157		$1 \times 10^5$	300	
		61	$3 \times 10^5$	0.58	444	255		$1 \times 10^5$	480	
		42	$3 \times 10^5$	0.60	383	213		$1 \times 10^5$	410	
5Gy	5	30	$3 \times 10^5$	0.45	346	256	$334 \pm 76$	$1 \times 10^5$	580	$790 \pm 170$
		27	$3 \times 10^5$	0.38	443	389		$1 \times 10^5$	1000	
		12	$3 \times 10^5$	0.40	328	273		$1 \times 10^5$	730	
		18	$3 \times 10^5$	0.42	538	427		$1 \times 10^5$	920	
		15	$3 \times 10^5$	0.36	362	335		$1 \times 10^5$	720	

\* S.F.: surviving fraction; P.E.: plating efficiency with complement in the medium; M.F.: mutation fraction.

mutant  $A_L$  cells, the former was used as a negative control in the present study. In general, stained wild-type  $A_L$  cells showed a very strong fluorescent staining pattern with less than 0.15% negatively staining cells in the population (background  $CD59^-$   $A_L$  cells). Fig. 1 shows a typical  $A_L$  cytometry experiment. With the setting gate, 99.96% of the unstained  $A_L$  cells were identified to be  $CD59$ -negative (fluorescence below the line). In contrast, only 0.12% of the stained wild-type  $A_L$  cells were found outside the gate setting, indicating that the background  $CD59^-$  mutation in this experiment was 0.12% or 120 per  $10^5$  survivors. Furthermore, the mean fluorescent intensity of stained wild-type  $A_L$  cells was more than 500 times higher than that of unstained  $A_L$  cells (Fig. 1). These data clearly illustrate the potential of using flow cytometry in detecting  $CD59^-$  mutant fraction in the  $A_L$  cell system.

### 3.2. Calibration of the flow cytometry analysis using pre-mixed samples

To determine the sensitivity and accuracy of  $CD59$  detection by flow cytometry, mutant  $A_L$  cells were mixed with wild-type cells in known proportions (0.1–10% mutant cells) and these samples were stained and analyzed. Fig. 2 shows the correlation between the percent-

age of pre-mixed  $A_L$  cultures and the ones identified by FACS analysis. A 2% pre-mixed culture of  $CD59^-$  mutant cells among wild-type  $A_L$  cells was screened as 2.1%, whereas a 0.1% pre-mixed cultures was detected as 0.12%. The results showed an excellent correlation between the pre-mixed ratio and the measured values obtained by flow cytometry. This validated the later approach in mutant quantification.

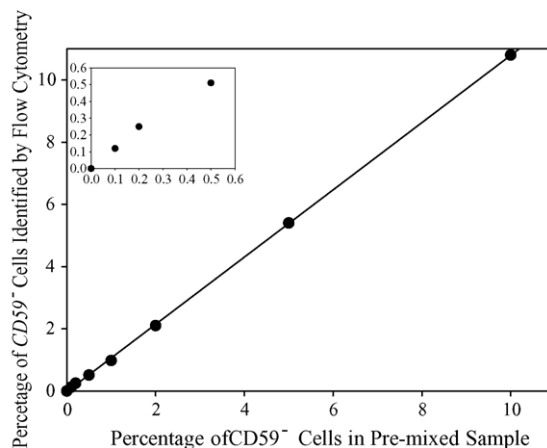


Fig. 2. Identification of  $CD59$ -negative mutant cells pre-mixed with wild-type  $A_L$  cells in various proportions before antibody labeling. Data were pooled from two independent experiments.

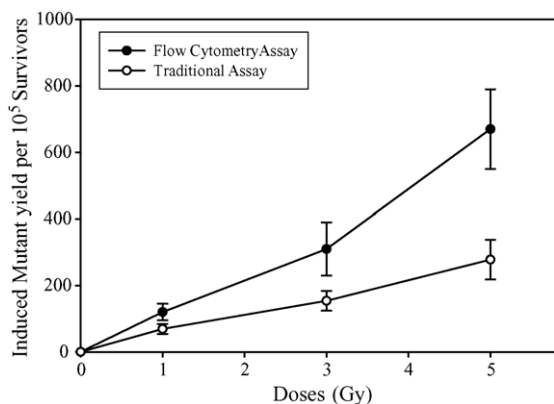


Fig. 3. Dose-dependent mutagenesis in  $A_L$  cells induced by graded doses of gamma ray. Data were pooled from five independent experiments. Bar represents  $\pm$ S.D.

### 3.3. Determination of radiation-induced mutation using flow cytometry and traditional assay

Using the traditional complement/antibody assay, we showed previously that gamma irradiation induces a dose-dependent mutagenesis in  $A_L$  cells after a 7- to 10-day expression period [8,19,20]. In the present study, the dose response survival levels of  $A_L$  cells to gamma rays were found to be comparable to previously published reports [8,19,20]. After a 7-day expression period, progeny of irradiated cells were prepared for mutation assay using both the traditional complement/antibody and flow cytometry assays. The background mutant fraction of  $A_L$  cells used in these experiments, based on the complement/antibody assay and flow cytometry assay, was  $56 \pm 18$  and  $120 \pm 50$  mutants per  $10^5$  survivors, respectively (Table 1). As shown in Fig. 3, both methods demonstrated clear a dose-dependent mutagenesis with increase in radiation dose. However, flow cytometry assay showed a higher induced mutation yield than that of traditional complement/antibody assay ( $p < 0.01$ ). These data suggested that flow cytometry approach might be more sensitive than the traditional method for scoring  $CD59^-$  mutations.

### 3.4. Comparison of MNU-induced mutation using flow cytometry and traditional assay

To further characterize the accuracy of flow cytometry method in detecting  $CD59^-$  mutations,  $A_L$  cells were treated with a well-known mutagen, MNU. After a 7-day expression period, cells were prepared as described before. Fig. 4 shows the mutant yield of  $A_L$  cells treated with graded dose of MNU and analyzed either by flow cytometry or the traditional complement/antibody assay.

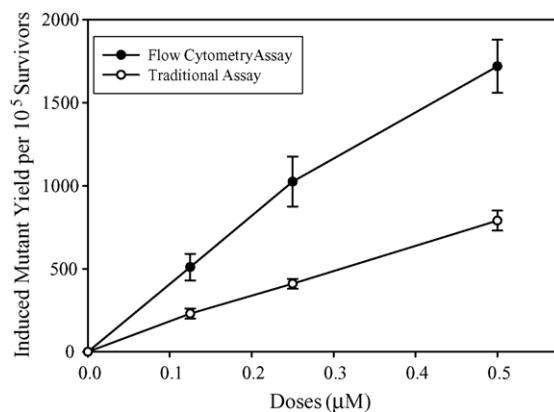


Fig. 4. Effects of MNU on the mutation yield in  $A_L$  cells detected by either the traditional complement/antibody mutation assay or flow cytometry method. Data were pooled from three independent experiments. Bar represents  $\pm$ S.D.

Similar results were found in MNU-induced mutagenesis as those described above with radiation-induced mutagenesis. In addition to being able to detect a dose response induction, flow cytometry method also showed higher induced mutant yields compared with the traditional assay (Fig. 4). For example, the induced mutation fraction of  $0.25 \mu\text{M}$  MNU treatment was  $413 \pm 32$  and  $1020 \pm 150$  mutants per  $10^5$  survivors based on the complement/antibody assay and flow cytometry assay, respectively ( $p < 0.001$ ). These results further confirmed that flow cytometry analysis was more sensitive in mutant detection than the traditional complement/antibody assay.

## 4. Discussion

Determining the carcinogenic potential of environmental and occupational chemicals is an important issue related to cancer prevention. Unfortunately, epidemiological and animal studies are expensive to conduct and information is unavailable for most of the chemicals. Mutagenesis tests can help in predicting carcinogenicity, but many short-term assays, such as the *HPRT* and *Oua* are limited in recovering mainly point mutations and small deletions. Among the various mutagenic assays currently in use, the  $A_L$  cell assay developed by Puck et al. [1–3] provided a sensitive system for mutation analysis. Although human chromosome 11 in the  $A_L$  hybrid resides in a hamster cell, there is no evidence that its function or structure is different than its human cell habitat. Banding patterns for the human chromosome 11 in the  $A_L$  cells are indistinguishable from any human chromosome number 11 [21]. Furthermore, there is no evidence that the high frequencies of  $CD59^-$  muta-

tions induced by a variety of mutagens, such as radiation, which induces predominately multilocus deletions, are caused by the intrinsic hypermutability of the  $A_L$  cells [4,6,7]. For example, its mutability at the *HPRT* locus is not different from that of other human or rodent cell lines [4,22]. The main reason that more  $CD59^-$  mutants than ouabain-resistant or  $HPRT^-$  mutants are obtained are that mutants with large deletions at the *HPRT* locus are poorly recovered.

The  $A_L$  cell  $CD59^-$  mutation complement/antibody assay has been used for more than 20 years in various laboratories to investigate mutagenesis [2,3,11–19]. The main advantage of this system is that mutant cells do not require the human chromosome 11 for survival except a small segment at the tip of the short arm (11p15.5) encoding the *Ras* gene. This made it possible to detect multilocus deletions as well as the small, point mutations. However, the traditional assay of  $CD59^-$  mutation depends on the antibody–complement complex-mediated cytotoxicity to select  $CD59^-$  mutants. Since complement is often toxic, it is necessary to pre-test rabbit serum lots and to adjust the mutant fraction based on the increased toxicity [13,19].

The flow cytometry-based mutation assay can easily avoid the complement issue and shortens the assay by about 1 week (colony formation period), thereby, reducing the cost. Although flow cytometry has been used to detect the  $CD59^-$  mutation in the  $A_L$  cell line [23], there were several deficiencies with this study. First of all, the background of the  $CD59^-$  level in this study was high (~0.45%), probably, because of higher spontaneous mutation or improper gate set for experiments. Secondly, the gate was manually set at a level such that cells whose fluorescent intensity was weaker than 10% of the maximal peak of  $CD59$ -positive cells were considered to be mutants. This resulted in the high background yield as well as the induced mutant fractions reported in the study. Thirdly, without the traditional complement/antibody assay as a parallel control, there was no reference point to compare both the sensitivity and specificity of the flow cytometry assay.

In the present study, results from both radiation and MNU-induced  $CD59^-$  mutation demonstrated higher induced mutant yields (total mutant yield minus background level) when quantified by flow cytometry in comparison with the traditional complement/antibody assay, which is an indication of increased sensitivity of this new method. However, our data also indicated less precision with flow cytometry compared to the traditional assay based on the large standard deviations in mutant yields in experiments using gamma rays and MNU. This difference may be caused by inherent fluctuations in

flow cytometric detection of mutants. In flow cytometry assay, various mutants may reveal various patterns of fluorescence, whereas in traditional assay, mutations that eliminate binding of the  $CD59$  antibody are phenotypically the same, i.e. these cells survive and form colonies after treatment with monoclonal antibody and complement. Point mutations may decrease the binding affinity of the  $CD59$  antibody, resulting in a relative decrease, but not complete elimination of fluorescence as detected by flow cytometry. Large deletions would be expected to completely eliminate antibody binding, and hence, fluorescence. Another possibility is that mutants with variable levels of fluorescence maybe occurred secondary to mutations in the *CHO* genes encoding the glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchor that secured  $CD59$  to the cell membrane [4,5].

Overall, our present study indicated that flow cytometry assay for  $CD59^-$  mutation in  $A_L$  cells is a reliable method, one that is more sensitive and efficient than the traditional assay. Using other fluorescence that tag to other human chromosome 11 genes, it is possible to determine the  $CD59^-$  spectrum of the mutants. These studies are currently underway in our laboratory.

## Acknowledgements

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