REVIEW PAPER

2-NAPHTHYLAMINE TOXICITY

Ewelina Czubacka, Sławomir Czerczak

Nofer Institute of Occupational Medicine, Łódź, Poland Department of Chemical Safety

ABSTRACT

In the past, 2-naphthylamine (2-NA) was used for the production of azo dyes, as an antioxidant in the cable industry and in the rubber industry. Despite the fact that 2-NA is not produced on an industrial scale, it is still used in small quantities as a model bladder carcinogen in laboratories, and also for sewage control, water analysis and oxytocinase assays. In addition, it is detected in the air in coke ovens, where it is formed as one of the pyrolysis products. The main aim of this work is to provide an actual literature review for health risk assessments related to 2-NA which is still used in laboratories. Occupational exposure to 2-NA is important for the respiratory tract, mucous membranes and the skin, and, to a lesser extent, for absorption from the gastro-intestinal tract. It is absorbed into the body through the skin and by inhalation, and then undergoes metabolic changes. Most of the absorbed 2-NA dose is excreted in the urine, in the form of metabolites, metabolites conjugated to acids, and even in an unchanged form. Based on literature data, the effects of 2-NA toxicity in sub-chronic and chronic exposure include contact dermatitis, chronic cystitis and bladder cancer. The authors have concluded that it is recommended to determine the occupational exposure limit which will allow preparing the exposure assessment of people at work. Med Pr. 2020;71(2):205–20

Key words: bladder cancer, occupational health, carcinogen, toxicology, health effects, 2-naphthylamine

Corresponding author: Ewelina Czubacka, Nofer Institute of Occupational Medicine, Department of Chemical Safety, św. Teresy 8, 91-348 Łódź, Poland, e-mail: ewelina.czubacka@imp.lodz.pl Received: July 30, 2019, accepted: October 18, 2019

BACKGROUND

Basically, 2-naphthylamine (2-NA; CAS 91-59-8) occurs as colorless crystals which turn pink under the influence of light, with a weak, aromatic odor. It is not found in the natural state and is currently not produced on an industrial scale [1]. In the past it was used as an antioxidant in the rubber industry to produce 2-chloronaphthalene, or as an intermediate in dye production and in the cable industry [2]. The European Union banned this procedure in 1998 due to its proven carcinogenic effect. The same prohibition took effect in Italy in 1960, in Great Britain in 1952, and in Switzerland in 1938 [2]. In the USA, 2-NA is considered carcinogenic and is regulated by the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA); therefore, the associated exposure must be closely monitored [3].

Nowadays, 2-NA is used in analytical laboratories for wastewater control, water analysis and oxytocinase as-

says [2,4]. Thus, occupational exposure to 2-NA occurs in laboratories in which it is used as a model substance in cancer research, in workers exposed to smoke containing 2-NA generated as a result of pyrolysis (foundry fumes, cigarette smoke, fumes arising during the heating of food oils), and in workers dealing with nitric polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons that are metabolized to 2-NA [1].

Exposure to 2-NA is possible not only in occupational environment, but also for the general population through exposure to tobacco smoke or other fumes containing 2-NA, as well as in contact with dyes and hair dyes. However, the Working Group of the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) has found no evidence of the presence of 2-NA in consumer products. In addition, exposure to 2-nitronaphthalene, which is obtained through an incomplete combustion of organic substances, and is present in the environment in a mixture with other aromatic nitro compounds and

PAHs, may be an indirect source of 2-NA [1]. Interesting is the fact that 2-NA has been detected in the fumes of cooking oil in the heating process [5].

According to the data from the Polish Registry on Exposure to Chemicals, Their Mixtures, Factors or Technological Processes on Carcinogenic or Mutagenic Effects, 201 workers were exposed to 2-NA in 2017. In 2015, 54 employees were reported to have been exposed to 2-NA, and in 2016 – 375.

According to Regulation (EC) No. 1272/2008 of the European Parliament and of the Council on classification, labeling and packaging of substances and mixtures, amending and repealing Directives 67/548/EEC and 1999/45/EC, and amending Regulation (EC) No. 1907/2006, 2-NA has been classified as a substance: carcinogenic category 1A (Carc. 1A), acute toxic category 4 (Acute tox. 4), and hazardous to the aquatic environment category 2 (Aquatic chronic 2) [6]. In addition, 2-NA has been included in Annex XVII of the REACH Regulation [7], containing a list of substances subject to restrictions (which may not be marketed or used, whether as separate substances or in mixtures, in concentrations greater than 0.1% by weight) [7].

METHODS

The literature review was made on the basis of the Internet databases of peer-reviewed scientific journals, including the EBSCO Discovery Service (EDS), PubMed, MedLine and data available on the European Chemicals Agency website. In the preparation of this study, papers published until 2019, mainly in English, were considered and the following key words: "2-naphthylamine application," "2-naphthylamine toxicity," "toxicokinetics," "exposure," and "occupational exposure limits" were used. The presented article includes all of the papers related to the influence of exposure to 2-NA on health.

RESULTS

Acute and sub-acute toxicity

There is limited literature data on the acute and sub-acute human toxicity, due to the fact that the carcinogenicity of 2-NA is a critical effect in occupational exposure conditions.

Acute toxicity of 2-NA in humans results in methemoglobinemia, hypoxia of the brain and other organs, as well as hemorrhagic cystitis – no data on the route of exposure. Symptoms of acute poisoning include weakness, dizziness, blue discoloration of the skin and mucous membranes, euphoria, painful urination and dys-

pnoea that may occur even several hours after the end of exposure. In addition, 2-NA dust can cause skin and eye irritation [4,8].

The median lethal doses (LD50) of 2-NA that were obtained in experimental animal studies indicate that 2-NA is a toxic substance when swallowed.

In the available literature, only 2 LD50 values were described for 2 routes of exposure: intragastric and intraperitoneal. The median value of lethal doses for rats after oral administration is 727 mg/kg, and after intraperitoneal exposure for mice – 200 mg/kg [9,10]. Toxic effects have not been described in detail except for LD50 [11]. The lethal dose low (LDL₀) for dogs after *per os* administration is 500 mg/kg. The dose of 200 mg/kg (via gavage) has been found to cause symptoms of methemoglobinemia [11].

Sub-chronic and chronic toxicity in humans

In the sensitization test of 2-NA in humans, chronic contact dermatitis was observed, as well as obstructed and painful urination, and blood appearance in the urine [12]. At the same time, employees exposed to 2-NA and benzidine showed a decrease in the peripheral blood count of CD4 subpopulations of T4 lymphocytes [13].

As a result of chronic, repeated exposure to 2-NA in increasing doses via gavage (0.3–100 mg/rat/day), for 5 days a week for 52 weeks, in the rats which died during the study, disturbances in weight gain, symptoms of gastritis, gastrointestinal hemorrhage, kidney and liver discoloration, hepatomegaly, intestinal bleeding and bladder deposits were observed [14].

Mutagenicity and genotoxicity

According to the current classification of chemical substances in the European Union, 2-NA is not classified as a mutagen; however, it may be included in the group of promutagens, thus agents that display a genotoxic activity after metabolic activation.

Data available in the literature clearly shows that, in the reaction of DNA with *N*-hydroxy-2-naphthylamine, 3 adducts are formed in pH 5.0 [15,16]. The first of these was characterized as a derivative of *N*-(deoxyguanosine-8-yl)-2-naphthylamine, which is formed in the greatest amount, followed by 1-(deoxyguanosine-N2-yl)-2-naphthylamine and 1-(deoxyadenosine-N6-yl)-2-naphthylamine. The same adducts were observed in the tissues of the urinary epithelium and liver in dogs as early as 2 days after oral administration of 2-NA [16].

It has been found that 2-NA exhibits weak mutagenic effects in both *in vitro* tests on bacteria and in selected

mammalian cells. In *in vivo* tests, 2-NA was positive in the *Drosophila melanogaster* study, but some of the micronucleus tests gave inconclusive results [17–20]. Positive results were obtained revealing a statistically significant increase in the frequency of cells with micronuclei in animals [21–24], as well as in humans [25]. Moreover, 2-NA induces DNA fragmentation in the rodent liver, based on *in vivo* studies [26] and DNA damage in *E. coli* PQ37 bacteria [27].

Positive results were also obtained in a spot test in mice [28], as well as in the case of gene mutations and recombination in yeast and plants [29]. In addition, 2-NA induces unplanned DNA synthesis in human cells [29], as well as single DNA strand breaks in rat hepatocytes and pituitary DNA in *in vitro* studies [28,30]. In an *in vivo* indirect host test, in which *E. coli* K-12 uvrB/recA cells were intravenously implanted into mice and 2-NA was given intraperitoneally (doses: 67 mg/kg, 200 mg/kg), a positive result was also obtained [31].

In addition, 2-NA causes an increase in the frequency of chromosomal aberrations and sister chromatide exchange in human and animal cells, in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies [29,32], and induces the formation of adducts from DNA in the bladder and liver cells of dogs in *in vivo* studies [33].

The 2-NA metabolite *N*-hydroxy-2-NA also causes single DNA strand breaks in human skin culture and lung fibroblasts [34,35]. Detailed information concerning mutagenicity are presented in Table 1.

Carcinogenicity

Humans

Detailed data regarding cohort studies is presented in Table 2. On the basis of the available data, several conclusions can be drawn. First of all, contact with 2-NA (production, use) causes a significant increase in the number of bladder cancer cases and hence deaths, in relation to the expected number of cases and deaths in a population that was not exposed [59-65]. In addition, employment in the production of 2-NA causes a much higher risk of bladder cancer than its use (e.g., in the production of antioxidants and dyes, in the rubber industry) or during the performance of ancillary activities [61,66,67]. However, it should be clear that the discrepancies associated with the period of bladder cancer are associated with exposure to 2-NA calculated over the years by mean values at a very wide range of extreme values, e.g., 16 (2-45) [59], 24.9 (12-41) [61], 15-20 [63], 17.6 (4-29) [65]. The exposure period to 2-NA is also an important factor influencing the increase in mortality [61] and the incidence of bladder cancer [62]. However, Case et al. [59] in their work claimed that the number of years worked in the conditions of exposure to 2-NA had no effect on the development of bladder cancer in employees. Stern et al. [63] gave an example of 2 deaths from bladder cancer after 10 and 18 years, which occurred due to short term exposure (2 months).

There is a relationship between the age of employees undertaking work in the conditions of 2-NA exposure, the latency period and age at which bladder cancer manifests. The period of latency is the longer, the lower the age of people commencing employment. In addition, there is a tendency to shorten the latency period with the increasing age of people undertaking work (a greater vulnerability of older people to cancer) [59,66].

People exposed to 2-NA are more likely to develop bladder tumors (cancer, papillomas), but also prostate, kidneys, esophagus or lung tumors [60].

On the basis of the above-mentioned data, it can be concluded that the results of the tests performed so far provide sufficient evidence of the carcinogenic effect of 2-NA on the urinary tract. Therefore, the International Agency for Research on Cancer has classified 2-NA as a category 1 carcinogen. However, the carcinogenicity of 2-NA to other organs has not been sufficiently documented in epidemiological studies yet. In addition, there is no data related to the concentration of 2-NA in workplaces.

Animals

Oral administration

All collected data concerning animal exposure to 2-NA is presented in Table 3 [14,82–103] and Table 4 [85, 95–97].

Bonser et al. [92] exposed rats (29 females, 18 males; 43 rats as a control group) to 0.01% 2-NA via diet. The authors observed 4 cases of bladder papillomas. Carcinomas were also observed. In the control group, there were no tumors.

Fisher rats were exposed to 0.5–150 mg of 2-NA/ week via gavage per week for 52 weeks. The authors observed many tumors (testicular intersticial cell tumor, adrenal adenoma, fibrosarcoma, mammary adenocarcinoma, mammary fibroadenoma, hepatoma) which were not statistically significant [14].

Hicks and Chowaniec [100] studied the influence of 2-NA given via gavage (in arachis oil) at a dose of 300 mg/kg b.w. per week for 1 year on Wistar rats, with 55 rats (males and females) serving as the control group. In 5 out of 17 rats, bladder tumors were observed.

Table 1. Mutagenicity of 2-naphthylamine

_	Re	sults	
Test type – dose	with metabolic activation	without metabolic activation	References
In vitro tests (bacteria, fungus)			
Salmonella typhimurium (TA1538, TA1537, TA1535, TA100, TA98) mutation*	+		36-41
Salmonella typhimurium TA100 mutation			
5–50 µg/plate	+		42
2.510 µg/plate			43
20–80 μg/plate			44
Salmonella typhimurium (TA100, TA102, TA98) mutation*	+		45
Salmonella typhimurium (TA1535) mutation			
10–50 μg/plate	+		46
Salmonella typhimurium (TA98) mutation			
20 μg/plate	+		47
Salmonella typhimurium (TA98, TAMix 7001–7006) mutation	+		48
$4-5000~\mu g/ml$			
Salmonella typhimurium (NM2009) mutation	_		49
$5~\mu\mathrm{M}$			
Salmonella typhimurium mutation	_		50
>100 µM			
Salmonella typhimurium (NM6001, NM6002, NM6000) mutation			
≥1 µM	+ (NM6001, NM6002) - (NM6000)		51
Salmonella typhimurium mutation	+		52
10 μg/plate			
Salmonella typhimurium (NM2009) mutation	+		53
10 μΜ			
Escherichia coli (uvrB-/rec-; uvrA+/rec+) mutation*	+	+	54
In vitro tests (mammalian cells)			
Chinese hamster ovary cells mutation			
$50-100 \mu g/ml$	+	+	55
Chinese hamster ovary cells mutation			
20 μg/ml	-		44
Chinese hamster embryo cells cell transformation test*	+		29, 56
In vivo tests			
${\it Drosophila\ melanogaster-mitotic\ recombinations}^{\star}$		+	57, 58

^{*} No dose information available.

Wistar rats (20 females) were exposed to 2-NA at a dose of 300 mg/kg b.w. once a week for 57 weeks via gavage (in arachis oil) [101], with 20 rats serving as the control group. One moribund animal was killed. Bladders of 18 rats were histologically tested revealing that

8 out of 18 animals had urothelial hyperplasia, and out of those 8, 4 also developed carcinoma.

Bonser et al. [92] exposed IF mice (12 females, 12 males) to a dose of 400 mg/kg b.w. per week for 90 weeks via gavage (in arachis oil). A group of 11 rats served as the control.

[&]quot;-" - negative result, "+" - positive result.

Table 2. Carcinogenicity of 2-NA (2-naphthylamine) - cohort studies

Country	Workers [n]	Minimal employment period	Observation time	Results/Risk assessment/Comments	References
United Kingdom	455	n.d.	n.d.	341 bladder cancer; 26 deaths caused by bladder cancer (SMR = 86.7)	59
Italy	906	l year	1922–1989	49 cases of bladder cancer (SMR = 30.4), SMR = 142.11 (2-NA production), SMR = 16.7 (2-NA and/or benzidine use), SMR = $150 (2-NA \text{ production})$	61, 66, 71
USA	1384	n.d.	1940–1992	8 deaths caused by bladder cancer (SMR = 5.6), 7 deaths caused by esophageal cancer (SMR = 2.0), 41 deaths caused by lung cancer (SMR = 1.67), 11 deaths caused by prostate cancer (SMR = 2.1), 21 deaths caused by digestive system cancer (SMR = 1.06), 1 death caused by mouth and throat cancer (SMR = 0.37) (2-NA and other aromatic amines)	62, 63, 76, 77
USA	590	n.d.	1922-2003	56 deaths caused by bladder cancer (SMR = 16.5) (aromatic amines)	64
United Kingdom	2090 men	n.d.	1945–1949	58 cases of bladder cancer (SIR = 1.7)	62, 69
Poland	8269	3 months	1945–1973	299 deaths caused by cancer (SMR = 112.7); 6 deaths caused by bladder cancer (SMR = 2.76)	29
USA	639 men	27 years	1938–1965	14 cases of bladder cancer (SMR = 17.7), 5 cases of prostate cancer, 2 cases of kidney cancer, 6 cases of pancreas cancer, 8 cases of lung cancer (2-NA and benzidine)	89
Japan	3322	n.d.	1950–1978	244 cases of genitourinary cancer, including 11 other cancer cases (liver, bile duct, large intestine, lungs, maxillary sinus cancer) (2-naphthylamine and benzidine)	70
USA	89 men	n.d.	1952–1988	17 deaths caused by cancer, including: 3 cases of bladder cancer (SMR = 12), 2 cases of kidney cancer (SMR = 9.52), 2 cases of nervous system cancer (SMR = 9.1) (benzidine and 2-naphthylamine)	72
Japan	604	n.d.	1945–1971	8 deaths caused by cancer, including: 2 cases of urinary tract cancer (SMR = 11.76), 2 cases of stomach cancer (SMR = 0.78), 2 lung tumors (SMR = 1.73) (benzidine and 2-naphthylamine)	73
Russia	4581 (2409 men, 2172 women)	1 month	1930–1989	8 cases of bladder cancer (SIR = 19.5); in the case of employees hired before attaining the age of 20 SIR = 49.4 (4 cases) (benzidine and 2-naphthylamine)	74
Japan	442 (437 men, 5 women)	n.d.	1935–1992	3 deaths caused by bladder cancer (SMR = 48.4), 3 deaths caused by urinary tract cancer (SMR = 24.4)	75
USA	400 (374 men, 26 women)	n.d.	1960-1998	28 deaths caused by cancer, including 4 deaths due to bladder cancer (SMR = 16.83), 12 deaths due to respiratory tract cancer (SMR = 3.9)	78
Poland	17 747 (11 660 men, 6087 women)	n.d.	1950–1995	increased incidence of cancer and tumors of the lip, tongue, esophagus, stomach, gall bladder, pancreas, peritoneum, cartilage, connective tissue, skin, testis, prostate, bladder, kidney, brain, Hodgkin's lymphoma, myeloma, leukemia (e.g., 2-naphthylamine, 4-aminodiphenol, benzidine, benzene, vinyl chloride, asbestos, styrene, acrylonitrile, N-phenyl-2-naphthylamine, formaldehyde, carbon tetrachloride)	79
Japan	224 men	n.d.	1953–2011	81 cancer cases (SIR = 1.58), 18 cases of lung tumors (SIR = 2.58), 7 cases of bladder cancer (SIR = 4.70), (2-NA and/or benzidine)	08
United Kingdom	n.d.	n.d.	1967-2015	stomach cancer (SMR = 1.26), lung cancer (SMR = 1.25), bladder cancer (SMR = 1.16)	81
n d no doto CID	grapioni pozipropuoto	n d – no data STR – standardized incidence ratio SMR – standardized mortality ratio	4 mortality ratio		

 $n.d.-no\ data, SIR-standardized\ incidence\ ratio, SMR-standardized\ mortality\ ratio.$

Table 3. Location and incidence of tumors in experimental animals, caused by 2-NA after oral exposure

Species	Dose/exposure period	Location and incidence of cancer	References
Mice			
BALB/c	2000 ppm/40 weeks	adenoma: 10 mice, hepatoma: 3 mice	93
A/J	600 mg/kg b.w./8 weeks	lung tumor: 8/14 males, 4/13 females	66
CBA mice	a) 160 mg/kg b.w./week/90weeks	a) hepatoma 24/57 males, 25/54 females, malignant hepatoma: 16 mic	92
	b) 240 mg/kg b.w./week/90 weeks	b) hepatoma: 6/9 males, 7/14 females	
IF mice	400 mg/kg b.w./week/90 weeks	liver cholangioma: 5/13 males, 5/12 females	92
Rats			
rats (no additional data)	whole life	bladder papilloma: 4/50	92
Fisher	a) 3 mg/rat/52 weeks	a) testicular interstitial cell tumor: 4/12, adrenal adenoma: 1/12	14
	b) 10 mg/rat/52 weeks	b) testicular interstitial cell tumor: 4/12, fibrosarcoma: 1/15, mammary adenocarcinoma: 1/14, mammary fibroadenomas: 2/14	
	c) 30 mg/rat/52 weeks	c) testicular interstitial cell tumor: 3/3, hepatoma: 1/3	
Wistar	a) 300 mg/kg b.w./week/1 year	a) bladder tumor: 5/17	100
	b) 300 mg/kg b.w./once a week/57 weeks	b) urothelial, hyperplasia: 8/18, including bladder carcinoma: 4/8	101
Hamsters			
Syrian golden hamsters	600 mg/week/whole life	bladder carcinoma: 10/23 males, 8/16 females, hepatoma: 1 male, 1 female	82
Rabbits	200 mg/twice a week/over 5 years	transitional-cell bladder papilloma, bladder epithelial hyperplasia	92
Dogs			
dogs (no additional	a) 5–30 mg/kg b.w./7.5 months	a) bladder carcinoma: 7/8	103
data)	b) 30 mg/kg b.w/8.5 months	b) bladder carcinoma: 7/8	
	c) 500600 mg/day/20–26 months	c) bladder carcinoma: 15/15	88
beagle	a) 5 mg/kg b.w/30 days	a) bladder carcinoma: 0/8	**68
	b) 25 mg/kg b.w./26 weeks	b) bladder epithelial carcinoma: 2/4	06
	c) 6.25, 12.5, 25 and 50 mg/kg b.w./2–26 months	c) bladder transitional cell carcinoma: 5/5	91
	d) 400 mg/34 months	d) bladder tumor: 24/34	87
mongrel*	a) 4 mg/day (dogs weighting ≤12 kg) and 5 mg/day (big dogs >12 kg)/14 weeks; for the following 12 weeks the doses were doubled, and tripled for the subsequent 63 weeks; starting oral dose: 100 mg/day, ending oral dose: 300 mg/day	a) bladder papillomas and carcinomas: 13/16	102
	b) 200 mg/day/6 months then 600 mg/day/2 years	b) bladder tumor: 2/4, bladder carcinoma: 1/2	85
	c) 400 mg/day/2 years	c) bladder tumor: 4/4	98
mongrel Airedale	100-700 mg/day	bladder papilloma: 3/3, anaplastic carcinoma: 1/3	84
Monkeys			
rhesus	6.25, 12.5, 25, 50, 100, 200, 400 mg/kg b.w./day/33-60 months	bladder carcinoma: 9/24	83

 $^{^{\}star}$ Oral route of exposure + subcutaneous injection, ** no data on the route of exposure.

Table 4. Location and incidence of tumors in experimental animals, caused by 2-NA after a subcutaneous or intraperitoneal injection

Species	Injection	Dose/exposure period	Location and incidence of cancer	References
Mice				
BALB/c	subcutaneous	a) 50 μg/mouse/single injection	a) lung tumors: 15/71, hepatoma: 1/71	96
		b) 100 µg/5 days	d) lung adenoma: 9/41	26
Swiss	subcutaneous	a) 30 μl of 3% solution in gelatin	a) bronchial adenoma: 6/63	L
		b) 30 μg/1, 3, 5 day of life	b) hepatoma: 2/26, lymphosarcoma: 1/21	c,
Swiss albino	subcutaneous	0.1 ml of a 3% solution of 2-NA/50 weeks	sarcoma: 0/13; 10/16, hepatoma: 2/4, 4/5	85
mice (no additional data)	subcutaneous	312 mg/mouse/52 weeks	sarcoma: 12 mice, hepatoma: 7 mice, intestinal tumor: 1 malignant, 1 non-malignant	94
CBA mice	subcutaneous	$0.1~\mathrm{ml}$ of a 3% solution of 2-NA-HCl/10 months	sarcoma 0/11, hepatoma 4/11	85
Rats				
Chester Beatty	intraperitoneal	intraperitoneal 50 mg/kg b.w./twice a week/3 months	sarcoma: 2/14, salivary gland tumor: 1/14	86

The authors observed only liver cholangiomas. There were no tumor incidences. In another study conducted by Bonser et al. [92] on 23 CBA mice (14 females, 9 males), where the animals were receiving 2-NA at a dose of 240 mg/kg b.w. per week for 90 weeks via gavage (in arachis oil), the authors observed only hepatoma incidences. There were no tumors even in the control group (14 mice).

Groups of CBA mice (12–15 females, 14–15 males) were exposed to 2-NA via diet at a dose of 160 mg/kg b.w. per week for 90 weeks. There was no data concerning the control group. The authors observed that 42% of males and 46% of females had developed hepatomas. Malignant hepatomas were observed in 16 mice [92].

BALB/c mice (20 females) were exposed to 2000 ppm of 2-NA via diet for 40 weeks. In 6 out of 16 animals, hyperplasia of the bladder epithelium was observed at week 55. In the livers of the surviving animals, 3 hepatomas, 10 adenomas and hyperplastic nodules were seen [93].

Stoner et al. [99] administered 2-NA in tricaprylin via gavage 3 times a week, resulting in a total dose of 600 mg/kg b.w. for 8 weeks. After treatment, 57% of males (8/14) and 31% of females (4/13) developed lung tumors although this was not a significant increase in comparison to the control group.

Golden Siberian hamsters (30 males, 30 females) were exposed to 2-NA via diet at a total dose of 600 mg/kg b.w. per week throughout their life. First bladder carcinomas appeared after 45 weeks in 43% of males (10/23) and in 50% of females (8/16). In addition, 2 hamsters developed hepatomas. There were no bladder carcinomas in the control group. In the second experiment where hamsters were exposed to a lower dose of 2-NA via gavage (10 mg for 40 weeks), no tumors were observed [82].

Bonser et al. [92] exposed orally 6 rabbits to 2-NA at a dose of 200 mg per animal twice a week for over 5 years. One animal developed epithelial hyperplasia with a downgrowth in the bladder and 1 had a bladder papilloma.

A group of mongrel Airedale dogs (3 males, 1 female) were exposed to 150 mg of 2-NA once a day in milk for 3 weeks. Then, the dose was reduced to 100 mg per day (no data concerning the period) and gradually increased to 700 mg. One animal died after 1 year of treatment. Multiple bladder papillomas developed between 3.7–5 years, and an anaplastic carcinoma developed in 1 animal [84].

Bonser et al. [85] exposed a group of 4 female mongrel dogs to 2-NA encapsulated in gelatin at a dose of

200 mg per animal for 6 months (6 days a week). After that time, the dose was raised to 600 mg per animal and the treatment was continued for 2 years. Bladder tumors were observed in 2 animals but only 1 had an invasive bladder carcinoma.

A group of 4 mongrel dogs (all 4 female) were exposed to 2-NA (400 mg per animal) once a day for 2 years. All the animals developed bladder tumors within 9–18 months from the beginning of the exposure. In addition, all the animals received 5-fluorouracyl intravenously and intracavitarily to observe transient tumor regression. The observation time was 23–55 months or until death/sacrifice. The authors observed metastases of the bladder carcinoma in the lungs of 2 animals and in the kidney of 1 animal [86].

Conzelman and Moulton [87] exposed beagle dogs (34 dogs; sex not specified) orally to 2-NA (doses: 6.25, 12.5, 25, 50 mg/kg b.w.), mixed with lactose encapsulated in gelatin, 6 days a week for 2–26 months. The control group included 2 males and 2 females. The authors observed the development of bladder tumors in 24 out of 34 animals in all dose groups. An invasive transitional-cell carcinoma was diagnosed in 6 dogs (in 2 animals in the groups receiving 6.25, 12.5 and 50 mg/kg b.w., and in 5 animals in the group receiving 25 mg/kg b.w.). Invasive squamous-cell carcinomas developed in 1, 2, 3 and 2 dogs, respectively, in the increasing dose groups. In addition, papillary carcinomas were noticed in 1, 3 and 4 dogs in the highest dose groups. No tumors were observed in the control group.

Romanenko and Martynenko [103] treated 8 dogs (females) with 2-NA given orally at doses of 5–30 mg/kg b.w. for 7.5 months (4–6 times a week) and 30 mg/kg b.w. for 8.5 months (4–6 times a week). Bladder carcinomas developed in 7 out of 8 dogs (55 months after the first exposure).

A group of 15 dogs (females) was exposed orally to a capsule containing 500–600 mg of 2-NA daily for 20–26 months. All the animals developed hematuria and bladder carcinomas [88].

Radomski et al. [90], in the first experiment, exposed beagle dogs (5 males) to 2-NA (25 mg/kg b.w.) in corn oil, given orally in the form of capsules, for 5 days a week for 26 weeks. In the second experiment, the authors exposed 4 beagle dogs (2 males, 2 females) to the same dose of the examined substance for 1, 6 or 36 weeks and, after that time, the animals were sacrificed. In the third experiment, 8 beagle dogs (4 males, 4 females) were treated with the same doses of 2-NA for 26 weeks, following which 4 animals were killed and the remain-

ing 4 lived for 3 years without any treatment. In some of the dogs, a loss of the bladder luminal membrane, lymphocyte infiltration of the submucosa and hyperplasia of the bladder epithelium were observed after 1 and 6 weeks of treatment. In addition, 2 out of 4 dogs developed bladder carcinomas.

Purchase et al. [91] exposed 5 beagle dogs (3 males, 2 females) to 400 mg of 2-NA encapsulated in gelatin for 5 days a week for 34 months. A group of 8 dogs (4 males, 4 females) served as the control. All the treated animals developed transitional cell carcinomas of the bladder. No neoplasia signs were found to occur in the control group.

In a study conducted by Conzelman et al. [83], rhesus monkeys were exposed to 2-NA, mixed with lactose given in gelatin capsules, for 6 days a week for 33–60 months, at doses of 6.25, 12.5, 25, 50, 100, 200 and 400 mg/kg b.w. per day. In 9 out of 24 treated animals, transitional cell bladder carcinomas, bladder papillary carcinomas or bladder carcinomas were observed.

Subcutaneous injections

Bonser et al. [85] exposed Swiss albino mice to 0.1 ml of a 3% solution of 2-NA in arachis oil twice a week for 50 weeks. The control group included 17 mice. There were no hepatomas in 13 mice, but in 2 out of 4 animals which had survived for more than 77 weeks hepatomas were observed. In a similar experiment, the prepared solution of 2-NA was left to stand for 4 weeks. The details were the same: 0.1 ml of a 3% solution of 2-NA in a subcutaneous injection twice a week for 50 weeks, which resulted in subcutaneous injection-site sarcomas in 10 out of 16 mice which had survived for more than 20 weeks. Four out of 5 animals which had survived for more than 80 weeks had hepatomas. No carcinomas were noted in the control group.

In the same study, Bonser et al. [85] administered 2-NA (a fresh solution of 2-NA-HCl) subcutaneously to CBA mice twice a week for 6 months, and then once a week for another 4 months. No sarcomas were observed, but 4 out of 11 mice developed hepatomas. In a similar experiment where 2-NA-HCl was purified by gradient sublimation, the authors observed the same results: no sarcomas and 4 of 11 mice developed hepatomas. In the control group consisting of 15 mice, 1 hepatoma had developed.

In another study, Bonser et al. [94] exposed a group of mice (45 males and 45 females) to a subcutaneous injection of 0.1 ml 2-NA in arachis oil (both freshly prepared and a 4-week-old suspension) twice a week for 52 weeks. The total dose was 312 mg per mouse. The

authors observed that 12 mice developed sarcomas, 7 mice hepatomas and 2 mice intestinal tumors (1 malignant, 1 benign). There is no data concerning the control group.

Roe et al. [96] exposed 91 newborn BALB/c mice to a single subcutaneous injection with 50 μ g of 2-NA in 1% aqueous gelatin. The authors observed that 15 out of 71 mice which had not been sacrificed developed lung tumors which were not significant, and 1 had hepatoma. In the control group, lung tumors were observed in 2 of 21 mice.

In another study, 12 groups of 50–60 newborn BALB/c mice were exposed to a single subcutaneous injection of 2-NA (100 μ g in 20 μ L arachis oil) within 24 hours after birth, or once a day for the first 5 days of their life. The authors observed that incidences of pulmonary adenomas were not statistically different between the treatment and control groups. In the second experiment, newborn BALB/c mice were given 100 μ g of 2-NA in 3% aqueous gelatin in subcutaneous injections for the first 5 days of their life. In 9 out of 41 surviving mice, and in 4 of 48 animals belonging to the control group, lung adenomas were observed, this number not being significant. The authors concluded that the metabolic system of newborn mice was immature and no tumors were observed [97].

Newborn Swiss mice (68 animals, sex unknown) were exposed to a single subcutaneous injection of 30 μ L 2-NA as a 3% suspension in gelatin. After 10 months of exposure, bronchial adenomas were observed in 6 out of 63 treated mice. In the control group (57 mice), no tumors were noted [95].

In another study, Radomski et al. [95] administered 30 μ g of 2-NA suspended in 3% gelatin (100 μ g/dose) in a subcutaneous injection on the first, third and fifth day of life to newborn Swiss mice (28 males, 23 females). After 12 months, 2 out of 26 surviving mice developed hepatoma and 1 female had a lymphosarcoma. In the control group, (20 males, 30 females) 1 case of lymphosarcoma was observed.

Mongrel dogs (16 females) were exposed to subcutaneous injections of 2-NA at doses of 4 mg/day for dogs weighting ≤12 kg, and 5 mg/day for larger dogs, for 14 weeks. These doses were doubled in the following 12 weeks and tripled in the following 63 weeks. For the subsequent 63 weeks, the animals also received a daily dose of 2-NA in capsules, directly to their food (the starting dose: 100 mg/day). Until the subcutaneous injections were terminated, a daily oral dose of 2-NA was 300 mg. The control group included 4 dogs. After

20–26 months of the completed treatment, bladder papillomas and carcinomas were observed in 13 out of 16 dogs [104].

Intraperitoneal injections

Chester Beatty rats (16 males) were exposed to an intraperitoneal injection of 2-NA (a dose of 50 mg/kg b.w.), suspended in arachis oil, twice a week for 3 months. Two out of 14 animals developed sarcomas, and in 1 animal a salivary gland tumor was observed. There is no data concerning the control group [98].

The carcinogenic effects of 2-NA have been repeatedly tested on various animal species, via various routes of exposure, but there is no data regarding inhalation exposure. Detailed data regarding the incidence and location of tumors is presented in Table 3. However, malignant and benign tumors were most often found in the bladder and liver. Urinary bladder cancers (adenomas and carcinomas from transient cells) were observed in hamsters, dogs and monkeys after oral administration of 2-NA [82–91].

A small number of bladder tumors were observed in rats receiving 2-NA for 57 weeks via gavage at a dose of 30 mg/rat [14]. Chronic oral exposure to 2-NA at doses of 0.1–30 mg/rat for 52 weeks resulted in male adenocarcinomas and mammary fibroadenomas [14].

One of 6 rabbits exposed to 2-NA for 5 years developed bladder papilloma [92].

It was found that 2-NA administered via gavage to the stomach or via diet resulted in hepatocellular carcinomas of the liver [92,93]. Following subcutaneous administration in both mice and rats, sarcomas were observed at the injection site [94,95,98], and pulmonary carcinomas were observed following intraperitoneal administration in mice [96].

Intravesical administration of 2-NA (10 mg) in dogs did not cause bladder tumors or other cancers within 45 months [90].

In addition, 2-NA metabolites have been tested for carcinogenicity, with N-hydroxy-2-naphthylamine being shown to be much more carcinogenic than 2-NA. Direct evidence was obtained from a study conducted on neonatal mice in which lung adenomas had developed after a subcutaneous injection of N-hydroxy-2-naphthylamine [97]. The incidence of adenoma after administration of N-hydroxy-2-naphthylamine was higher than after administration of 2-NA. Studies conducted on mice, rats and dogs, intravesically doped with N-hydroxy-2-naphthylamine, confirmed the carcinogenic effects of this 2-NA metabolite [104,105].

Table 5. Hygienic standards for 2-naphthylamine in the world [106]

Country	OEL-TWA [ppm]	OEL-TWA [mg/m³]	STEL [mg/m³]
France	0.001	0.005	_
Poland		0	0
Hungary		_	0.005
Italy			0.001

OEL-TWA - occupational exposure limit - time weighted average, STEL - short term exposure limit.

Table 6. Concentration of 2-naphthylamine in the air, corresponding to the subsequent risk levels

2-NA concentration [mg/m³]
0.000318
0.00318
0.0318

In the available literature, there is a lack of data on the carcinogenicity of 2-NA on experimental animals after inhalation and through skin exposure.

Embryotoxicity, teratogenicity and reprotoxicity

The authors of this article have not found any data confirming the embryotoxicity, teratogenicity and reprotoxicity in human studies. However, they have identified 1 study carried out on Wistar rats where histopathological data revealed testicular atrophy in males and uterine polyps in females [14].

Occupational exposure limits in the world

The hygienic standards of 2-NA are presented in Table 5, where the occupational exposure limit values have been divided into 2 standards (occupational exposure limit – time weighted average – OEL-TWA and short term exposure limit – STEL). Many countries have not set their OEL for 2-NA due to its proven carcinogenicity and the fact that bladder cancer is assumed as a critical effect.

In 1974, the International Agency for Research on Cancer assumed 2-NA as a carcinogen to humans (category 1). The Slope Factor coefficient value (the dose-response ratio, the tangent of the dose-response curve in the low-dose range with a positive OX axis direction) estimated for humans, and published by California Environmental Protection Agency [107], is SF = 1.8 (mg/kg-day)⁻¹. The lifetime average daily dose (LADD) was calculated based on the risk level of 10⁻⁵ as 0.4 μg/day [107], based on a study conducted by Conzelman et al. [83]:

$$D = \frac{RSI}{70} = \frac{0.0004}{70} = 5.7 \times 10^{-6} \,\text{mg/kg b.w./day}$$
 (1)

where:

D - LADD [mg/kg b.w./day],

RSI – the risk specific intake (0.0004 mg/day on the basis of the risk level of 10^{-5}),

70 – human body weight [kg].

The risk of developing cancer caused by exposure to the tested carcinogen was calculated based on the formula:

$$R = SF \times D = 1.8 \times 5.7 \times 10^{-6} = 0.00001$$
 (2)

where:

R - risk.

D - LADD [mg/kg b.w./day],

SF - slope factor.

After substituting the formula, the appropriate OEL-TWA value is obtained:

OEL =
$$D \times \frac{24}{8} \times \frac{365}{240} \times \frac{70}{40} \times \frac{1}{10} \times 70 = 0.000318 \text{ mg/m}^3$$
 (3)

where:

 $D - LADD [5.7 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mg/kg b.w./day}],$

24 – number of hours,

8 – number of working hours,

365 - number of days in a year,

240 - number of working days,

70 - age [years],

40 - seniority [years],

10 – human lung ventilation [m³],

70 – human body weight [kg].

The concentration values of 2-NA in the air were obtained, corresponding to the subsequent risk levels, and are presented in Table 6.

Assuming an acceptable risk of cancer as 10^{-4} , the authors propose to adopt the OEL value for 2-NA at 0.003 mg/m^3 .

CONCLUSIONS

In the past, 2-NA was used for the production of azo dyes, as an antioxidant in the cable industry and in the rubber industry. Currently, it is used mainly in research laboratories, *inter alia*, as a model substance in cancer research, in workers exposed to fumes containing 2-NA generated as a result of pyrolysis, as well as in workers dealing with nitric polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons that are metabolized to 2-NA. Exposure can also occur on products in which 2-NA is present as an impurity (some rubber components).

In addition, exposure to 2-NA is possible not only in the occupational environment but also in general, through exposure to tobacco smoke or other fumes containing 2-NA (during the heating of food oils).

Occupational exposure to 2-NA is important for the respiratory tract, mucous membranes and the skin, and, to a lesser extent, for absorption from the gastro-intestinal tract. It is absorbed into the body through the skin and by inhalation, and then undergoes metabolic changes. Most of the absorbed 2-NA dose is excreted in the urine, in the form of free metabolites, metabolites conjugated to acids, and even in an unchanged form. Based on literature data, the effects of 2-NA toxicity in sub-chronic and chronic exposure include contact dermatitis, chronic cystitis and bladder cancer. In addition, 2-NA may be included in the group of promutagens, thus agents that display a genotoxic activity after metabolic activation. Literature data clearly shows that adducts are formed in the reaction of DNA.

The authors concluded that it is recommended to determine OEL values which will allow preparing an exposure assessment of people at work and propose a value at a level of 0.003 mg/m3. Unfortunately, this value fails to guarantee full protection against cancer risk. It merely implies that 1 cancer case per 10 000 cases is an acceptable risk.

REFERENCES

- International Agency for Research on Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans. Some aromatic amines, organic dyes, and related exposures. Lyon: International Agency for Research on Cancer; 2010.
- International Agency for Research on Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans. Chemical agents and related occupations. A review of human carcinogens. Lyon: International Agency for Research on Cancer; 2012.

- 3. The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health [Internet]. Appendix B Thirteen OSHA-Regulated Carcinogens. Cincinnati: The Institute; 2007 [cited 2019 Jul 12]. Highlights on health in USA 1974. Available from: https://www.cdc.gov/niosh/npg/nengapdxb.html.
- 4. National Institutes of Health. U.S. National Library of Medicine [Internet]. Rockville: National Institutes of Health. U.S. National Library of Medicine; 2020 [cited 2019 Jul 2]. Hazardous Substances Data Bank: 2-Naphthylamine. Available from: https://toxnet.nlm.nih.gov/cgi-bin/sis/search2/f?./temp/~tHuaty:1.
- 5. Chiang TA, Pei-Fen W, Ying LS, Wang LF, Ko YC. Mutagenicity and aromatic amine content of fumes from heated cooking oils produced in Taiwan. Food Chem Toxicol. 1999;37(2–3):125–34, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0278-6915 (98)00081-7.
- 6. Regulation (EC) No 1272/2008 of the European Parliament and of the Council on classification, labelling and packaging of substances and mixtures, amending and repealing Directive 67/548/EWG and 1999/45/EC and amending Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006. Off J Eur Union L 353/1.
- 7. Regulation (EC) No. 1907/2006 of the European Parliament and of the Council concerning the Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals (REACH), establishing a European Chemicals Agency, amending Directive 1999/45/EC and repealing Council Regulation (EEC) No 793/93 and Commission Regulation (EC) No 1488/94 as well as Council Directive 76/769/EEC and Commission Directives 91/155/EEC, 93/67/EEC, 93/105/EC and 2000/21/EC. Off J Eur Union L 396/1.
- 8. β-Naphthylamine. In: Pohanish RP. Sittig's Handbook of Toxic and Hazardous Chemicals and Carcinogens. Oxford: Elsevier Inc.; 2017. p. 2113–4.
- Marhold J. Prehled Prumyslove Toxikologie. Prague: Avicenum; 1986.
- Institute for Occupational Safety and Health of the German Social Accident Insurance. GESTIS Substance Database:
 2-Naphthylamine [Internet]. The Institute [cited 2019 Jul 3] Available from: https://www.dguv.de/ifa/gestis-database.
- 11. Clayton DG, Clayton FE. Patty's Industrial hygiene and toxicology. New York: John Wiley and Sons; 1981.
- 12. Patnaik P. Comprehensive Guide to the Hazardous Properties of Chemical Substances. Hoboken: John Wiley and Sons; 2007, https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470134955.
- 13. Sung HL, Araki S, Tanigawa T, Sakurai S. Selective decrease of the suppressorinducer (CD4+CD45RA+) T limphocytes in workers exposed to benzidine and β -naphthylamine. Arch Environ Health. 1995;53(3):196–9, https://doi.org/10. 1080/00039896.1995.9940387.

- 14. Hadidian Z, Fredrickson TN, Weisburger EK, Weisburger JH, Glass RM, Mantel N. Tests for chemical carcinogens. Report on the activity of derivatives of aromatic amines, nitrosamines, quinolines, nitroalkanes, amides, epoxides, aziridines, and purine antimetabolites. J Natl Cancer Inst. 1968; 41:985–1036.
- Beland FA, Beranek DT, Dooley KL, Heflich RH, Kadlubar FF. Arylamine-DNA adducts in vitro and in vivo: their role in bacterial mutagenesis and urinary bladder carcinogenesis. Environ Health Perspect. 1983;49:125–34, https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.8349125.
- 16. Beland FA, Kadlubar FF. Formation and persistence of arylamine DNA adducts in vivo. Environ Health Perspect. 1985;62:19–30, https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.856219.
- 17. Bruce WR, Heddle JA. The mutagenic activity of 61 agents as determined by the micronucleus, *Salmonella* and sperm abnormality assays. Can J Genet Cytol. 1979;21:319–34, https://doi.org/10.1139/g79-036.
- 18. Salamone MF, Heddle JA, Katz M. Mutagenic activity of 41 coded compounds in the in vivo micronucleus assay. In: de Serres FJ, Ashby J, editors. Progress in Mutation Research. Vol. 1. New York: Elsevier/North-Holland; 1981. p. 686–97.
- 19. Trzos RJ, Petzold GL, Brunden MN, Swenberg JA. The evaluation of sixteen carcinogens in the rat using the micronucleus test. Mutat Res. 1978;58:79–86, https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-1218(78)90097-6.
- 20. Tsuchimoto T, Matter FE. Activity of coded compounds in the micronucleus test. In: de Serres FJ, Ashby J., editors. Progress in Mutation Research. Vol. 1. New York: Elsevier/North Holland; 1981. p. 705–11.
- Mirkova E, Ashby J. Activity of the human carcinogens benzidine and 2-naphthylamine in male mouse bone marrow micronucleus assays. Mutagenesis. 1988;3(5):437–9, https://doi.org/10.1093/mutage/3.5.437.
- Le Curieux F, Marzin D, Erb F. Genotoxic activity of three carcinogens in peripheral blood erythrocytes of the new Pleurodeles waltl. Mutat Res. 1992;283(3):157–60, https:// doi.org/10.1016/0165-7992(92)90101-M.
- 23. Mirkova E. Activity of the human carcinogens benzidine and 2-naphthylamine in triple and single dose mouse bone marrow micronucleus assays: results for a combine test protocol. Mutat Res. 1990;234(3/4):161–3, https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-1161(90)90009-D.
- 24. Suzuki Y, Shimizu H, Nagae Y, Fukumoto M, Okonogi H, Kadokura M. Micronucleus test and erythropoiesis: effect of cobalt on the induction of micronuclei by mutagens. Environ Mol Mutagen. 1993;22(2):101–6, https://doi.org/ 10.1002/em.2850220208.
- 25. Mirkova E, Ivanova-Chemishanska L, Khinkova L, Antov G, Mukhtarova M. Cytogenic effects (frequency of micronu-

- clei) in peripheral lymphocyte cultures from workers in automobile tyre manufacture. Probl Khig. 1995;20:146–62.
- 26. Parodi S, Taningher M, Russo P, Pala M, Tamaro M, Monti-Bragadin C. DNA-damaging activity in vivo and bacterial mutagenicity of sixteen aromatic amines and azo-derivatives, as related quantitatively to their carcinogenicity. Carcinogenesis. 1981;2:1317–26, https://doi.org/10.1093/carcin/2.12.1317.
- Le Curieux, Marzin D, Erb F. Comparison of three short-term assays, results on seven chemicals. Potential contribution of the control of water genotoxicity. Mutat Res. 1993;319:223–36, https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-1218(93)90082-O.
- 28. Chauhan PS, Neuhäuser-Klaus A, Ehling UH. Induction of presumed somatic gene mutations in mice by 2-naphthylamine. Mutat Res. 1983;121:267–72, https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-7992(83)90213-0.
- 29. International Agency for Research on Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans. Overall evaluations of carcinogenicity: an updating of IARC Monographs volumes 1 to 42. Suppl. 7. Lyon: International Agency for Research on Cancer; 1987.
- Adams SP, Laws GM, Storer RD, DeLuca JG, Nichols WW. Detection of DNA damage induced by human carcinogens in acellular assays: potential application for determining genotoxic mechanisms. Mutat Res. 1996;34:235–48, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0165-1218(96)90065-8.
- 31. Hellmér L, Bolcsfoldi G. An evaluation of the E. coli K-12 uvrB/rec A DNA repair host mediated assay. II. In vivo results for 36 compunds tested in the mouse. Mutat Res. 1992; 272:161–73, https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-1161(92)90043-L.
- 32. Górecka-Turska D, Mekier U, Górski T. [Replacement of sister chromatids in the bone marrow of BALB/C mice under the influence of carcinogenic and non-carcinogenic intermediates and products of the dye industry]. Bromat. Chem. Toxicol. 1983;16:37–42. Polish.
- 33. Kadlubar FF, Unruh LE, Beland FA, Straub KM, Evans FE. Formation of DNA adducts by carcinogen N-hydro-xy-2-naphthylamine. Natl Cancer Inst Monogr. 1981;58: 143–52.
- 34. Kaneko M, Nakayama T, Kodama M, Nagata C. Detection of DNA lession in cultured human fibroblasts induced by active oxygen species generated from a hydroxylated metabolite of 2-naphthylamine. Gan. 1984;75:349–54.
- 35. Kaneko M, Nagata C, Kodama M. Repair of indirectly induced DNA damage in human skin fibroblasts treated with N-hydroxy-2-naphthylamine. Mutat Res. 1985;143(3): 1038, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0165-7992(85)80017-8.
- Duverger-Van-Bogaert M, Crutzen-Fayt MC, Stecca C. Activation of some aromatic amines to mutagenic products by human red blood cell cytosol. Mutat Res. 1991;

- 263(4):249–55, https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-7992(91) 90009-S.
- 37. Pogodina ON. [Correlation of mutagenic and carcinogenic activity of some aromatic amines]. Exper Onkol. 1984;6(4):23–5. Russian.
- 38. Raineri R, Andrews AW, Poiley JA. Effect of donor age on the levels of activity of rat, hamster and human liver S9 preparation in the Salmonella mutagenicity assay. J Appl Toxicol. 1986;6(2):101–8, https://doi.org/10.1002/jat.2550060207.
- 39. Sarkar FH, Radcliff G, Callewaert DM. Purified prostaglandin synthetase activates aromatic amines to derivatives that are mutagenic to Salmonella typhimurium. Mutat Res. 1992;282(4):273–81, https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-7992(92)90134-4.
- 40. Takahashi K, Kaiya T, Kawazoe Y. Structure-mutagenicity relationship among aminoquinolines aza-analogues of naphthylamine and their N-acetyl derivatives. Mutat Res. 1987;187(4):190–7, https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-1218(87) 90036-X.
- Wagner ED, Smith SR, Xin H, Plewa MJ. Comparative mutagenicity of plant-activated aromatic amines using Salmonella strains with different acetylotransferase activities. Environ Mol Mutagen. 1994;23(1):64–9, https://doi. org/10.1002/em.2850230110.
- 42. Phillipson CE, Ioannides C. Activation of aromatic amines to mutagens by various animal species including man. Mutat Res. 1983;124(3–4):325–36, https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-1218(83)90203-3.
- 43. Baker RS, Bonin AM, Stupans I, Holder GM. Comparison of rat and guinea pig as sources of the S9 fraction in the Salmonella/mammalian microsome mutagenicity test. Mutat Res. 1980;71(1):43–52, https://doi.org/10.1016/0027-5107(80)90005-6.
- 44. Oglesby LA, Hix C, Snow L, MacNair P, Seig M, Langenbach R. Bovine bladder urothelial cell activation of carcinogens to metabolites mutagenic to Chinese hamster V79 cells and Salmonella typhimurium. Cancer Res. 1983; 43(11):5194–9.
- 45. Le Curieux F, Marzin D, Erb F. Comparison of three short-term assays, results on seven chemicals. Potential contribution of the control of water genotoxicity. Mutat Res. 1993;319(3):223–36, https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-12 18(93)90082-O.
- 46. Bock-Hennig BS, Ullrich D, Bock KW. Activating and inactivating reactions controlling 2-naphthylamine mutagenicity. Arch Toxicol. 1982;50(3–4):259–66, https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00310858.
- 47. Hix C, Oglesby L, MacNair P, Sieg M, Langenbach R. Bovine bladder and liver cell and homogenate-mediated

- mutagenesis of Salmonella typhimurium with aromatic amines. Carcinogenesis. 1983;4(11):1401–7, https://doi.org/10.1093/carcin/4.11.1401.
- 48. Flückiger-Isler S, Baumeister M, Braun K, Gervais V, Hasler-Nguyen N, Reimann R, et al. Assessment of the performance of the Ames IITM assay: a collaborative study with 19 coded compounds. Mutat Res. 2004;558(1–2):181–97, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mrgentox.2003.12.001.
- 49. Shimada T, Hayes CL, Yamazaki H, Amin S, Hecht SS, Guengerich FP, et al. Activation of chemically diverse procarcinogens by human cytochrome P-450 1B1. Cancer Res. 1996;56:1504–7.
- 50. Oda Y, Aryal P, Terashita T, Gillam EM, Guengerich FP, Shimada T. Metabolic activation of heterocyclic amines and other procarcinogens in Salmonella typhimurium umu tester strains expressing human cytochrome P4501A1, 1A2, 1B1, 2C9, 2D6, 2E1, and 3A4 and human NADPH-P450 reductase and bacterial O-acetyltransferase. Mutat. Res. 2001;492(1–2):81–90, https://doi.org/10.1016/S1383-5718 (01)00154-1.
- Oda Y. Analysis of the involvement of human N-acetyltransferase 1 in the genotoxic activation of bladder carcinogenic arylamines using a SOS/umu assay system. Mutat Res. 2004;554:399–406, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mrfmmm.2004.06.033.
- 52. Verschueren K. Handbook of Environmental Data On Organic Chemicals. 2nd ed. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold; 1983.
- 53. Imaoka S, Yoneda Y, Matsuda T, Degawa M, Fukushima S, Funae Y. Mutagenic activation of urinary bladder carcinogens by CYP4B1 and the presence of CYP4B1 in bladder mucosa. Biochem Pharmacol. 1997;54(6):677–83, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0006-2952(97)00216-5.
- 54. Hellmer L, Bolcsfoldi G. An evaluation of the E. coli K-12 uvrB/recA DNA repair host mediated assay. I. In vitro sensitivity of the bacteria to 61 compounds. Mutat Res. 1992;272 (2):145–60, https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-1161(92)90043-L.
- 55. Gupta RS, Singh B. Mutagenic responses of five independent genetic loci in CHO cells to a variety of mutagens. Development and characteristics of a mutagen screening system based on selection for multiple drug-resistant markers. Mutat Res. 1982;94(2):449–66, https://doi.org/10.1016/0027-5107(82)90307-4.
- 56. McCarvill JT, Lubet RA, Schechtman LM, Kouri RE, Putman DL. Morphological transformation of BALB/3T3 cells by various procarcinogens in the presence of rat liver S-9 activation system. Environ Mol Mutagen. 1990;16(4): 304–10, https://doi.org/10.1002/em.2850160410.
- 57. Vogel EW. Variation of spontaneous and induced mitotic recombination in different Drosophila populations:

- a pilot study hydrocarbons in six newly constructed tester strains. Mutat Res. 1991;250(1-2):291–8, https://doi.org/10.1016/0027-5107(91)90184-P.
- 58. Vogel EW, Nivard MJ. Performance of 181 chemicals in a Drosophila assay prodominantly monitoring interchromosomal mitotic recombination. Mutagenesis. 1993;8(1): 57–82, https://doi.org/10.1093/mutage/8.1.57.
- 59. Case RAM, Hosker ME, Mcdonald DB, Pearson JT. Tumours of the urinary bladder in workmen engaged in the manufacture and use of certain dyestuff intermediates in the british chemical industry. Part I. The role of aniline, benzidine, aplha-naphthylamine, and beta-naphthylamine. Br J Ind Med. 1954;11:75–104, https://doi.org/10.1136/oem.11.2.75.
- 60. Masuda Y, Hoffmann D. Quantitative determination of 1-naphthylamine and 2-naphthylamine in cigarette smoke. Anal Chem. 1969;41(4):650–2.
- 61. Rubino GR, Scansetti G, Piolatto G, Pira E. The carcinogenic effects of aromatic amines: an epidemiological study on the role of o-toluidine and 4,4'-methylene bis (2-mathylaniline) in inducing bladder cancer in man. Environ Res. 1982;27(2):241–54, https://doi.org/10.1016/0013-9351(82)90079-2.
- 62. Schulte PA, Ringen K, Hemstreet GP, Altekruse EB, Gullen WH, Tillett S, et al. Risk factors for bladder cancer in a cohort exposed to aromatic amines. Cancer. 1986;58(9):2156–62, https://doi.org/10.1002/1097-0142(19861101)58:9<2156::AID-CNCR2820580933>3.0.CO;2-Y.
- 63. Stern FB, Murthy LI, Beaumont JJ, Schulte PA, Halperin WE. Notification and risk assessment for bladder cancer of a cohort exposed to aromatic amines. III. Mortality among workers exposed to aromatic amines in the last beta-naphthylamine manufacturing facility in the United States. J Occup Med. 1985;27(7):495–500.
- 64. PiraE, Piolatto G, Negri E, Romano C, Boffetta P, Lipworth L, et al. Bladder cancer mortality of workers exposed to aromatic amines: A 58-year follow-up. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2010;102(14):1096–9, https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djq214.
- Veys CA. Two epidemiological inquires into the incidence of bladder tumors in industrial workers. J Natl Cancer Inst. 1969;43(1):219–26, https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/43.1.219.
- 66. Decarli A, Peto J, Piolatto G, La Vecchia C. Bladder cancer mortality of workers exposed to aromatic amines: analysis of models of carcinogenesis. Br J Cancer. 1985;51(5):707– 12, https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.1985.106.
- 67. Szeszenia-Dąbrowska N, Wilczyńska U, Kaczmarek T, Szymczak W. Cancer mortality among male workers in the Polish rubber industry. Pol J Occup Med Environ Health. 1991;4(2):149–57.

- 68. Mancuso TF, el-Attar AA. Cohort study of workers exposed to betanaphthylamine and benzidine. J Occup Med. 1967;9(6):277–85.
- 69. Veys CA. Bladder tumours in rubber workers: a factory study 1946–1995. Occup Med. (Lond.) 2004;54(5):322–9, https://doi.org/10.1093/occmed/kqh010.
- Morinaga K, Oshima A, Hara I. Multiple primary cancers following exposure to benzidine and beta-naphthylamine. Am. J. Ind. Med. 1982;3(3):243–6, https://doi.org/10.1002/ ajim.4700030303.
- 71. Piolatto G, Negri E, La Vecchia C, Pira E, Decarli A, Peto J. Bladder cancer mortality of workers exposed to aromatic amines: an updated analysis. Br J Cancer. 1991;63:457–9, https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.1991.106.
- 72. Delzell E, Macaluso M, Cole P. A follow-up study of workers at a dye and resin manufacturing plant. J Occup Med. 1989;31(3):273–8, https://doi.org/10.1097/00043764-1989 03000-00016.
- Morinaga K, Yutani S, Hara I. Cancer mortality of male workers exposed to benzidine and/or beta-naphthylamine. Nihon Eiseigaku Zasshi. 1990;45(4):909–18, https://doi.org/ 10.1265/jjh.45.909.
- 74. Bulbulyan MA, Figgs LW, Zahm SH, Savitskaya T, Goldfarb A, Astashevsky S, et al. Cancer incidence and mortality among beta-naphthylamine and benzidine dye workers in Moscow. Int J Epidem. 1995;24(2):266–75, https://doi.org/10.1093/ije/24.2.266.
- 75. Naito S, Tanaka K, Koga H, Kotoh S, Hirohata T, Kumazawa J. Cancer occurence among dyestuff workers exposed to aromatic amines. A long term follow-up study. Cancer. 1995;76(8):1445–52, https://doi.org/10.1002/1097-0142(19951015)76:8<1445::AID-CNCR2820760823>3.0.CO;2-R.
- Schulte PA, Ringen K., Hemstreet GP, Altekruse EB, Gullen WH, Patton MG, et al. Risk assessment of a cohort exposed to aromatic amines. Initial results. J Occup Med. 1985; 27(2):115–21.
- 77. Axtell CD, Ward EM, McCabe GP, Schulte PA, Stern FB, Glickman LT. Underlying and multiple cause mortality in a cohort of workers exposed to aromatic amines. Am J IndMed. 1998;34(5):506–11, https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1097-0274(199811)34:5<506::AID-AJIM12>3.0. CO;2-5.
- 78. Cassidy LD, Youk AO, Marsh GM. The Drake Health Registry Study: cause-specific mortality experience of workers potentially exposed to beta-naphthylamine. Am J Ind Med. 2003;44(3):282–90, https://doi.org/10.1002/ajim.10268.
- 79. Wilczyńska U, Szadkowska-Stańczyk I, Szeszenia-Dabrowska N, Sobala W, Strzelecka A. Cancer mortality in rubber tire workers in Poland. Med Pr. 2001;14(2):115–25.

- 80. Tomioka K, Obayashi K, Saeki K, Okamoto N, Kurumatani N. Increased risk of lung cancer associated with occupational exposure to benzidine and/or beta-naphthylamine. Int Arch Occup Environ Health. 2015;88(4):455–65, https://doi.org/10.1007/s00420-014-0974-1.
- 81. McElvenny DM, Mueller W, Ritchie P, Cherrie JW, Hidajat M, Darnton AJ, et al. British rubber and cable industry cohort: 49-year mortality follow-up. Occup Environ Med. 2018;75(12):848–55, https://doi.org/10.1136/oemed-2017-104834.
- 82. Saffiotti U, Ceils F, Montesano R, Sellakumar AR. Induction of bladder cancer in hamsters fed aromatic amines. In: Bladder Cancer: Deichmann, W., Lampe, K.G., editors. A Symposium; Birmingham: Aesculapius; 1967. p. 129–35.
- 83. Conzelman GM Jr, Moulton JE, Flanders LE 3rd, Springer K, Crout DW. Induction of transitional cell carcinomas of the urinary bladder in monkeys fed 2-naphthylamine. J Natl Cancer Inst. 1969;42(5):825–36, https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/42.5.825.
- 84. Bonser GM. Epithelial tumours of the bladder in dogs induced by pure b-naphthylamine. J Path Bacteriol. 1943; 55(1):1–6, https://doi.org/10.1002/path.1700550102.
- 85. Bonser GM, Clayson DB, Jull JW, Pyrah LN. The carcinogenic activity of 2-naphthylamine. Br J Cancer. 1956; 10(3):533–8, https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.1956.62.
- 86. Harrison LH, Cox CE, Banks KW, Boyce WH. Distant metastases from beta-naphthylamine induced vesical tumours in dogs. J Urol. 1969;102(5):586–9, https://doi.org/10.1016/s0022-5347(17)62205-5.
- 87. Conzelman GM Jr, Moulton JE. Dose-response relationships of the bladder tumorigen 2-naphthylamine: a study in beagle dogs. J Natl Cancer Inst. 1972;49(1):193–205, https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/49.1.193.
- 88. Rigotti E, Fontana D, Negri GL, Palestro G, Randone DF, Borgno M. Results of hyperthermia on the bladder carcinomas of the dog. J Urol Nephrol (Paris). 1977;83(3):175–84, https://doi.org/10.1046/j.0306-5251.2001.01449.x.
- 89. Radomski JL, Radomski T, MacDonald WE. Cocarcinogenic interaction between D,L-tryptophan and 4-aminobiphenyl or 2-naphthylamine in dogs. J Natl Cancer Inst. 1977;58(6):1831–4, https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/58.6.1831.
- 90. Radomski JL, Krischer C, Krischer KN. Histologic and histochemical preneoplastic changes in the bladder mucosae of dogs given 2-naphthylamine. J Natl Cancer Inst. 1978;60(2):327–33, https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/60.2.327.
- 91. Purchase IF, Kalinowski AE, Ishmael J, Wilson J, Gore CW, Chart IS. Lifetime carcinogenicity study of 1- and 2-naphthylamine in dogs. Br J Cancer 1981;44(6):892901, https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.1981.289.

- 92. Bonser GM, Clayson DB, Jull JW, Pyrah LN. The carcinogenic properties of 2-amino-1-naphthol hydrochloride and its parent amine 2-naphthylamine. Br J Cancer. 1952;6(4): 412–24, https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.1952.47.
- 93. Yoshida M, Numoto S, Otsuka H. Histopathological changes induced in the urinary bladder and liver of female BALB/c mice treated simultaneously with 2-naphthylamine and cyclophosphamide. Gan. 1979;70:645–52, https://doi.org/10.20772/cancersci1959.70.5_645.
- 94. Bonser GM, Clayson DB, Jull JW. The induction of tumours of the subcutaneous tissues, liver and intestine in the mouse by certain dye-stuffs and their intermediates. Br J Cancer. 1956;10(4):653–67, https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.1956.79.
- 95. Radomski JL, Brill E, Deichmann WB, Glass EM. Carcinogenicity testing of N-hydroxy and other oxidation and decomposition products of 1- and 2-naphthylamine. Cancer Res. 1971;31(10):1461–7.
- 96. Roe FJ, Mitchley BC, Walters M. Tests for carcinogenesis using newborn mice: 1,2-benzanthracene, 2-naphthylamine, 2-naphthylhydroxylamine and ethyl methane sulphonate. Br J Cancer. 1963;17(2):255–60, https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.1963.36.
- 97. Walters MA. Further tests for carcinogenesis using newborn mice: 2-naphthylamine, 2-naphthylhydroxylamine, 2-acetolaminofluorene and ethyl methane sulphonate. Br J Cancer. 1967;21(2):367–72, https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.1967.42.
- 98. Boyland E, Dukes CE, Grover PL. Carcinogenicity of 2-naphthylhydroxyamine and 2-naphthylamine. Br J Cancer. 1963;17:79–84, https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc. 1963.12.
- 99. Stoner GD, Conran PB, Greisiger EA, Stober J, Morgan M, Pereira MA. Comparison of two routes of chemical administration on the lung adenoma response in strain A/J mice. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol. 1986;82(1):19–31, https://doi.org/10.1016/0041-008X(86)90433-3.
- 100. Hicks RM, Chowaniec J. The importance of synergy between weak carcinogens in the induction of bladder cancer in experimental animals and humans. Cancer Res. 1977;37:2943–9.
- 101. Hicks RM, Wright R, Wakefield JS. The induction of rat bladder cancer by 2-naphthylamine. Br J Cancer 1982;46 (4):64661, https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.1982.250.
- 102. Hueper WC, Wiley FH, Wolfe HD. Experimental production of bladder tumors in dogs by administration of beta-naphthylamine. J Ind Hyg Toxicol. 1938;20:46–84.
- 103. Romanenko AM, Martynenko AG. Morphology of bladder neoplasms induced by beta-naphthylamine in dogs. Vopr Onkol. 1972;18(11):70–5.

- 104. Bonser GM, Boyland E, Busby ER, Clayson DB, Grover PL, Jull JW. A further study of bladder implantation in the mouse as a means of detecting carcinogenic activity: use of crushed paraffin wax or stearic acids as the vehicle. Br J Cancer. 1963;17:127–36, https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.1963.19.
- 105. International Agency for Research on Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans. Vol. 4: Some Aromatic Amines, Hydrazine and Related Substances, N-Nitroso Compounds and Miscellaneous Alkylating
- Agents. Lyon: International Agency for Research on Cancer: 1974.
- 106. Institute for Occupational Safety and Health of the German Social Accident Insurance GESTIS International Limit Values [Internet]. The Institute [cited 2019 Jul 4]. Available from: https://limitvalue.ifa.dguv.de.
- 107. California Environmental Protection Agency. Expedited Cancer Potency Values and Proposed Regulatory Levels for Certain Proposition 65 Carcinogens. California: Office of Environmental Health Hazard Assessment; 1992.