

Safety Evaluation of *Chrysanthemum indicum* L. Flower Oil by Assessing Acute Oral Toxicity, Micronucleus Abnormalities, and Mutagenicity

Eun-Sun Hwang^{1,2} and Gun-Hee Kim³

¹Department of Nutrition and Culinary Science, ²Korean Foods Global Center, Hankyung National University, Gyeonggi 456-749, Korea
³Department of Food and Nutrition, Duksung Women's University, Seoul 132-714, Korea

ABSTRACT: *Chrysanthemum indicum* is widely used to treat immune-related and infectious disorders in East Asia. *C. indicum* flower oil contains 1,8-cineole, germacrene D, camphor, α -cadinol, camphene, pinocarvone, β -caryophyllene, 3-cyclohexen-1-ol, and γ -curcumene. We evaluated the safety of *C. indicum* flower oil by conducting acute oral toxicity, bone marrow micronucleus, and bacterial reverse mutation tests. Mortality, clinical signs and gross findings of mice were measured for 15 days after the oral single gavage administration of *C. indicum* flower oil. There were no mortality and clinical signs of toxicity at 2,000 mg/kg body weight/day of *C. indicum* flower oil throughout the 15 day period. Micronucleated erythrocyte cell counts for all treated groups were not significantly different between test and control groups. Levels of 15.63 ~ 500 μ g *C. indicum* flower oil/plate did not induce mutagenicity in *S. Typhimurium* and *E. coli*, with or without the introduction of a metabolic activation system. These results indicate that ingesting *C. indicum* flower oil produces no acute oral toxicity, bone marrow micronucleus, and bacterial reverse mutation.

Keywords: *Chrysanthemum indicum* flower oil, acute oral toxicity, bone marrow micronucleus, bacterial reverse mutation

INTRODUCTION

Chrysanthemum indicum L. (*C. indicum*), belonging to the Compositae family, is a perennial garden herb in many countries. *C. indicum* has been used to treat various immune-related disorders, hypertension symptoms, and several infectious diseases in Korean and Chinese medicine (1-3). *C. indicum* flowers are also commonly used as tea to treat antiinflammation, headache, and eye diseases (2,4). The pharmaceutical benefits of *C. indicum* were reportedly due to its antioxidant, antiviral, antibacterial, and immunomodulatory properties (5,6). In previous reports, the major volatile compounds of *Chrysanthemum* sp. were 1,8-cineole, germacrene D, camphor, α -cadinol, camphene, pinocarvone, β -caryophyllene, 3-cyclohexen-1-ol, and γ -curcumene (7-10).

The micronucleus test, an *in vivo* short-term screening test developed by Schmid (11) and Heddle (12), is useful in investigating the toxicity of compounds. The frequency of micronucleated polychromatic erythrocytes (MPCE) induced by mutagens increases after exposure to carbon monoxide (13), bleeding (14), or anoxia (15). Well-known, carbon monoxide causes tissue anoxia by producing a

carbon monoxide-hemoglobin complex.

Abnormalities in chromosomal structures such as increased chromosomal breakage or chromosomal loss are associated with enhanced risk of carcinogenesis and in the progression of neoplastic transformation (16). Detection of chromosomal aberrations has been widely used as a tool to indicate carcinogen induced DNA damage as well as to assess the antigenotoxic effect of natural or synthetic chemopreventive agents (11,17,18).

The available toxicological information on *C. indicum* flower oil is insufficient to assure its safe use in dietary supplements or functional materials. We evaluated the mutagenicity and toxicity of *C. indicum* flower oil based on acute oral toxicity, bone marrow micronucleus, and bacterial reverse mutation tests.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Extraction of *C. indicum* flower oil

Flowers of *C. indicum* were harvested in the fall of 2006 from Namwon (Jeollabuk-do) province, in western Korea, and purchased at Gyeongdong herbal market (Seoul, Korea)

Received February 19, 2013; Accepted May 21, 2013

Correspondence to Gun-Hee Kim, Tel: +82-2-901-8496, E-mail: ghkim@duksung.ac.kr

Copyright © 2013 by The Korean Society of Food Science and Nutrition. All rights Reserved.

© This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0>) which permits unrestricted non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

in the spring of 2007. Samples were stored at -70°C in airtight bags for later analysis. Oils of *C. indicum* flowers were extracted by steam distillation method (19). The obtained oils were dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate for 24 hr, and then stored in hermetically sealed glass containers at -4°C for later testing.

Acute oral toxicity study in mice

Both 10 female and 10 male ICR mice (specific pathogen free, 6 weeks of age) were purchased from Orient Bio (Orient Bio Inc., Seongnam, South Korea). Mice were assigned to each group ($n=10$) and acclimated for a week in the housing. Temperature was maintained at $23\pm 3^{\circ}\text{C}$ and relative humidity was $50\pm 10\%$. A 12 hr light/dark cycle was observed and air was changed 10~20 times per day. Mice were freely accessed to stock rodent pellet (PMI Nutritional International, Richmond, IN, USA) and tap water. The study protocol was reviewed by IACUC (Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee, Daejeon, South Korea) and conducted in compliance with the Association for Assessment and internationally recognized Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care (AAALAC, Daejeon, South Korea) (20). Body weight of the mice at the beginning of the study was 29.6 ± 1.1 g for males and 21.5 ± 1.3 g for females. Mice were fasted for 4 hr prior to oral administration of *C. indicum* flower oil dissolved in carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC). Constant volume (10 mL/kg body weight) containing 200 mg/mL of *C. indicum* flower oil was orally administered to each of the five mice per sex to achieve a dose of 2,000 mg/kg body weight. CMC was used as negative control. Feeds and water were provided after 4 hr of oral administration. Overall symptoms, including mortality, clinical signs, and gross findings, were observed once a day for 15 days. Body weight was weighed just before oral administration (day 1) and after dosing (days 2, 4, 8, and 15). On day 15, all animals were euthanized under CO_2 gas overdose and examined for internal organ abnormalities.

Animal test subjects for bone marrow micronucleus test

Female and male Institute for Cancer Research (ICR) mice (30 each, specific pathogen free, 6 weeks old) were obtained (Orient Bio Inc.) and divided into 10 groups (five male, five female) of six mice each. Average body weight at the beginning of the study was about 35.5 g for males and 25.7 g for females. Six of the mice groups (three male, three female) were administered *C. indicum* flower oils orally at doses of 500, 1,000 and 2,000 mg/kg body weight for 2 days. Two groups (one male, one female) were given oral doses of corn oil as a negative control, and the remaining two groups were given cyclophosphamide monohydrate as a positive control. Animals were euthanized within 24 hr of final dose administ-

ration by an overdose of CO_2 gas.

Bone marrow micronucleus test

Micronucleus slides were prepared using the method described by Schmid (21). The femur bones of each mouse were separated and cleaned of surrounding muscle tissue. The upper end of the femur was cut until a small opening was visible. About 0.5 mL bovine albumin was injected into the opening of the bone via syringe, flushing the bone marrow into a clean, dry centrifuge tube. The flushing was repeated to ensure a homogeneous cell suspension. The suspension volume was increased to 3 mL and then centrifuged at 1,000 rpm for 5 min. The supernatant was discarded and the collected cells were disturbed by gently tapping the tube, then mixed well in a minimum quantity of bovine albumin.

One drop of the cell suspension was placed on a clean, dry slide and spread with another slide held at a 45° angle. Both slides were air dried and fixed in absolute methanol for 5 min. The slides were placed for 20 min in 5% Giemsa staining solution in 0.01 M phosphate buffer, with pH adjusted to 6.8. The slides were washed in running tap water, air dried, mounted with DPX (synthetic resin of distrene plasticiser xylene), then examined under oil immersion at $1,000\times$ magnification using bright-field illumination. All slides were randomly coded prior to microscopic analysis, and 2,000 bone marrow polychromatic erythrocytes (PCE) were examined from each animal, with the number of micronucleated PCE recorded. The percentage of PCE among 500 normochromatic erythrocytes (NCE) was determined for a given sample to evaluate treatment cytotoxicity. Mann-Whitney's U-test was used to evaluate results from the treatment and positive control groups with respect to micronucleus formation and PCE/(PCE+NCE) ratios.

Bacterial reverse mutation assay

Mutagenic activity of *C. indicum* flower oil was evaluated using the Ames protocol (22). Histidine-requiring *Salmonella* Typhimurium (TA100, TA1535, TA98, and TA1537) and tryptophan-requiring *Escherichia coli* (WP2uvrA) strains were obtained from Molecular Toxicology Inc. (Boone, NC, USA). *C. indicum* flower oil was dissolved at a concentration of 2,000 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, 99.99% pure, Sigma-Aldrich Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO, USA). This base-concentration solution was further diluted with DMSO into a series of lower concentration test solutions (i.e., 500, 250, 125, 62.5, 31.25 and 15.63 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) in accordance with Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) guidelines (23). Triplicate mutagenicity assays were conducted with and without the rat liver S9 mix (Molecular Toxicology Inc.) metabolic activation system, and with negative and positive controls in accordance with OECD TG 471

guidelines (24). The sources and grades of positive control materials were as follows: sodium azide (100.1% pure, Sigma-Aldrich Chemical Co.), 2-nitrofluorene (98.1% pure, Aldrich Chemical Co., Milwaukee, WI, USA), 9-aminoacridine (97.7% pure, Merck Chemical Co., Whitehouse Station, NJ, USA), 4-nitroquinoline 1-oxide (99% pure, Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO, USA), 2-aminoanthracene (99.8% pure, Aldrich Chemical Co.), and benzo[a]pyrene (99.8% pure, Sigma-Aldrich Chemical Co.).

Statistical analysis

Changes in body weight and clinical signs observed for 15 days after oral administration were analyzed using the Path/Tox system (V4.2.2; Xybio Medical Systems Corp., Cedar Knolls, NJ, USA). All data were evaluated using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS, v8.2; SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). Differences between treatment and control group averages were assessed using a *t*-test. Differences in the frequency of chromosome aberration between negative control and treatment groups were evaluated using chi-square and Fisher's exact tests. The Cochran-Armitage trend test was used to assess

dose-response relationships. Differences between negative and positive control group means were assessed using the Fisher's exact test.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We previously determined the main components of *C. indicum* flower oil (Table 1) (7). Flower oil of *C. indicum* was characterized as having prominent (>3%) contents of α -pinene (14.63%), 1,8-cineol (10.71%), germacrene D (5.25%), (-)-sinularene (3.95%), β -bisabolene (3.95%), bornyl acetate (3.64%), β -elemene (3.18%), and borneol (3.02%). Zhang et al. (8) analyzed the volatile composition of *C. indicum* essential oils by GC/MS from eight populations in China. They found a total of 169 compounds and the predominant components were 1,8-cineole (0.62~7.34%), (+)-(1R, 4R)-camphor (0.17~27.56%), caryophyllene oxide (0.54~5.8%), β -phellandrene (0.72~1.87%), 2-methyl-6-(*p*-tolyl)hept-2-ene (0.3~8.6%), and hexadecanoic acid (0.72~15.97%). These results indicate that major compounds in *C. indicum* were varied with growing region, species, analytical tools, etc.

Table 1. Major components (%) of *Chrysanthemum indicum* flower oil

| Components | R.I. ¹⁾ | Contents (Relative %) |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| α -Pinene | 940 | 14.63 |
| 1,8-Cineol | 1,020 | 10.71 |
| Camphor | 1,152 | 2.64 |
| Borneol | 1,186 | 3.02 |
| Bornyl acetate | 1,289 | 3.64 |
| β -Elemene | 1,382 | 3.18 |
| Germacrene D | 1,502 | 5.25 |
| (-)-Sinularene | 1,514 | 3.95 |
| β -Bisabolene | 1,516 | 3.95 |
| β -Sesquiphellandrene | 1,532 | 1.19 |

¹⁾Retention indices (R.I.) were calculated using *n*-alkanes (C₈-C₂₂) as external references on an HP-5MS capillary column.

Acute oral toxicity test

Mortality, clinical signs and gross findings of mice were measured for 15 days after the oral single gavage admin-

Table 2. Mortality of mice during 15 days after oral administration of *Chrysanthemum indicum* flower oil

| Dose (mg/kg) | Dosing phase | | | | Mortality |
|--------------|--------------|--------|---------|---------|-----------|
| | 1 day | ≤5 day | ≤10 day | ≤15 day | |
| Male | | | | | |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0/5 |
| 2,000 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0/5 |
| Female | | | | | |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0/5 |
| 2,000 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0/5 |

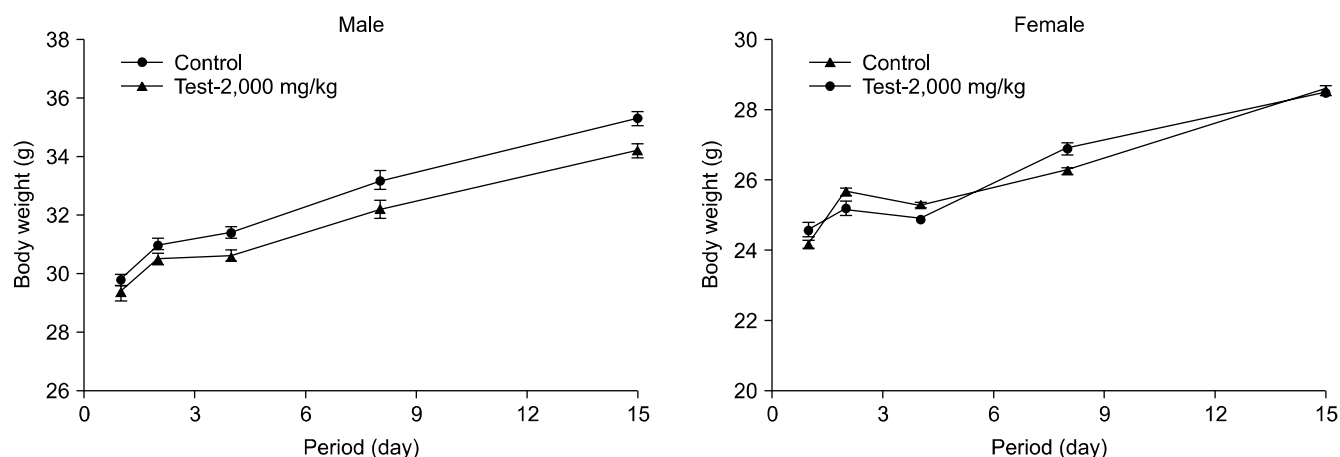


Fig. 1. Body weight changes for male and female rats after administered by *C. indicum* flower oil at 2,000 mg/kg body weight. Each value is expressed as mean \pm SD of measurement.

istration of *C. indicum* flower oil. No mortality and clinical signs of toxicity were observed throughout the 15 day period (Table 2). Therefore, the approximate lethal doses of *C. indicum* flower oil in male and female mice are higher than 2,000 mg/kg. Mean body weights for male and female rats at 2,000 mg/kg of *C. indicum* flower oil group were compared to control groups (Fig. 1). Slight body weight loss was observed from male mice in test group during the experimental periods but not statistically different from the control group. Slight body weight loss occurred among female mice at 4 days in both control and 2,000 mg/kg of *C. indicum* flower oil group but recovered after 8 days. After fifteen days of study, the mean body weights of control and *C. indicum* flower oil groups there were not significantly different.

Bone marrow micronucleus test

Micronucleated erythrocyte cell counts were not significantly different between test groups and negative control groups (Table 3). PCE content in relation to total erythrocytes was evaluated to assess erythropoiesis rate, a measure of cytotoxicity. The estimated PCE : NCE ratio in the bone marrow preparations showed no statistically significant difference in hematopoiesis alterations as a result of extract treatment, indicating no cytotoxic effects.

Bacterial reverse mutation assay

Mutagenicity of *C. indicum* flower derived essential oil was evaluated in a bacterial reverse mutation assay using histidine requiring *S. Typhimurium* (TA100, TA1535, TA98, and TA1537) and tryptophan-requiring *E. coli* (WP2uvrA) (Table 4). Regardless of S9 mix presence or absence, the

number of reverting colonies for all treatment concentrations was not significantly different from negative control. No cytotoxicity was observed in any bacterial systems used in the mutation assay. A marked increase in the number of revertant colonies was observed in the positive controls compared to the negative control. No mutagenic activity was observed for any test concentration of the *C. indicum* flower oil. According to a previous study, *d*-limonene does not elicit mutagenicity in four strains of *S. Typhimurium* (25), nor chromosomal aberrations or sister chromatid exchange in cultured Chinese hamster ovary cells, or cell mutations in the livers or kidneys of rats (26).

Our results suggest that *C. indicum* flower oil produces no bone marrow micronucleus abnormalities, mutagenicity, or chromosomal aberrations, and thus might be considered a functional food or medicinal ingredient. However, further detailed studies, such as *in vivo* animal studies that further define toxicological properties, are required to understand the potential of adverse health effects from routine ingestion by humans.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors wish to thank the Institute of Toxicology for technical assistance in conducting the animal and *in vitro* research studies. This study was supported by the Agriculture R&D Promotion Center, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Republic of Korea (204024-03-3-SB010), and through a Korea Research Foundation Grant funded by the Korean Government (MOEHRD) (KRF-2005-005-J13001).

Table 3. Micronucleus test of *Chrysanthemum indicum* flower oil in mice

| Chemical tested | Dose (mg/kg) | No. of animals | MNPCE/2000 PCEs (mean±SD) | PCE/(PCE+NCE) (mean±SD) |
|-------------------------|--------------|----------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| Male | | | | |
| Vehicle ¹⁾ | 0 | 6 | 0.67±0.82 | 0.49±0.01 |
| Test item ²⁾ | 500 | 6 | 0.83±1.17 | 0.48±0.03 |
| Test item | 1,000 | 6 | 0.67±0.82 | 0.48±0.04 |
| Test item | 2,000 | 6 | 1.17±0.75 | 0.46±0.05 |
| CPA | 70 | 6 | 67.00±7.24* | 0.43±0.02* |
| Female | | | | |
| Vehicle | 0 | 6 | 1.17±0.75 | 0.54±0.03 |
| Test item | 500 | 6 | 0.67±1.03 | 0.54±0.03 |
| Test item | 1,000 | 6 | 0.50±0.55 | 0.51±0.03 |
| Test item | 2,000 | 6 | 0.67±0.52 | 0.47±0.01* |
| CPA | 70 | 6 | 52.00±5.22* | 0.47±0.03* |

*Significantly different from the control at $P < 0.01$.

¹⁾Vehicle: corn oil.

²⁾Test item: *C. indicum* flower oil.

MNPCE, PCE with one or more micronuclei; PCE, polychromatic erythrocyte; NCE, normochromatic erythrocyte; CPA, cyclophosphamide monohydrate (positive control article).

Table 4. Bacterial reverse mutation assay with *Chrysanthemum indicum* flower oil

| Test strain | Chemical treated | Dose ($\mu\text{g}/\text{plate}$) | Revertant colonies/plate (mean) [Factor] ¹⁾ | | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|--|--|--------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| | | | Without S9 mix | With S9 mix | | |
| TA 100 | Test item ²⁾ | 0 | 120 \pm 9 | 133 \pm 6 | | |
| | | 15.63 | 131 \pm 11 [1.1] | | | |
| | | 31.25 | 118 \pm 3 [1.0] | 132 \pm 19 [1.0] | | |
| | | 62.5 | 121 \pm 7 [1.0] | 145 \pm 5 [1.1] | | |
| | | 125 | 116 \pm 13 [1.0] | 144 \pm 12 [1.1] | | |
| | | 250 | 112 \pm 17 [0.9] | 133 \pm 15 [1.0] | | |
| | | 500 | 76 \pm 5 [0.6] | 137 \pm 6 [1.0] | | |
| | | 750 | | 133 \pm 12 [1.0] | | |
| TA 1535 | Test item | 0 | 13 \pm 3 | 12 \pm 1 | | |
| | | 15.63 | 13 \pm 2 [1.0] | | | |
| | | 31.25 | 13 \pm 2 [1.0] | 9 \pm 2 [0.8] | | |
| | | 62.6 | 15 \pm 1 [1.2] | 10 \pm 1 [0.8] | | |
| | | 125 | 15 \pm 2 [1.2] | 10 \pm 3 [0.8] | | |
| | | 250 | 12 \pm 2 [0.9] | 9 \pm 1 [0.8] | | |
| | | 500 | 10 \pm 1 [0.8] | 10 \pm 3 [0.8] | | |
| | | 750 | | 9 \pm 7 [0.8] | | |
| TA 98 | Test item | 0 | 29 \pm 5 | 35 \pm 3 | | |
| | | 15.63 | 23 \pm 3 [0.8] | | | |
| | | 31.25 | 29 \pm 6 [1.0] | 36 \pm 1 [1.0] | | |
| | | 62.5 | 22 \pm 3 [0.8] | 34 \pm 3 [1.0] | | |
| | | 125 | 24 \pm 2 [0.8] | 42 \pm 1 [1.2] | | |
| | | 250 | 24 \pm 1 [0.8] | 34 \pm 3 [1.0] | | |
| | | 500 | 17 \pm 2 [0.6] | 33 \pm 6 [0.9] | | |
| | | 1,000 | | 37 \pm 5 [1.1] | | |
| TA 1537 | Test item | 0 | 5 \pm 1 | 18 \pm 3 | | |
| | | 15.63 | 7 \pm 1 [1.4] | | | |
| | | 31.25 | 6 \pm 2 [1.2] | 17 \pm 2 [0.9] | | |
| | | 62.5 | 6 \pm 2 [1.2] | 17 \pm 3 [0.9] | | |
| | | 125 | 6 \pm 1 [1.2] | 21 \pm 3 [1.2] | | |
| | | 250 | 6 \pm 0 [1.2] | 16 \pm 2 [0.9] | | |
| | | 500 | 3 \pm 2 [0.6] | 14 \pm 3 [0.8] | | |
| | | 750 | | 7 \pm 2 [0.4] | | |
| <i>E. coli</i> WP2uvrA | Test item | 0 | 32 \pm 4 | 35 \pm 7 | | |
| | | 125 | 34 \pm 1 [1.1] | 40 \pm 3 [1.1] | | |
| | | 250 | 31 \pm 3 [1.0] | 35 \pm 1 [1.0] | | |
| | | 500 | 29 \pm 5 [0.9] | 32 \pm 3 [0.9] | | |
| | | 1,000 | 28 \pm 4 [0.9] | 33 \pm 3 [0.9] | | |
| | | 2,000 | 19 \pm 1 [0.6] | 23 \pm 3 [0.7] | | |
| Positive controls | | 2,500 | 15 \pm 2 [0.5] | 18 \pm 0 [0.5] | | |
| | | TA 100 | SA | 0.5 | 426 \pm 11 [3.6] | |
| | | TA 1535 | SA | 0.5 | 232 \pm 23 [17.8] | |
| | | TA 98 | 2-NF | 2 | 443 \pm 40 [15.3] | |
| | | TA 1537 | 9-AA | 50 | 467 \pm 42 [93.4] | |
| | | WP2uvrA | 4NQO | 0.5 | 13 \pm 16 [4.3] | |
| | | TA 100 | BP | 2 | | 1,081 \pm 48 [8.1] |
| | | TA 1535 | 2-AA | 2 | 11 \pm 2 [0.8] | 110 \pm 35 [9.2] |
| | | TA 98 | BP | 2 | 24 \pm 3 [0.8] | 457 \pm 11 [13.1] |
| | | TA 1537 | BP | 2 | | 112 \pm 17 [6.2] |
| | | WP2uvrA | 2-AA | 4 | | 185 \pm 13 [5.3] |

¹⁾Number of relevant colonies on treated plate/ Number of relevant colonies on vehicle control plate.

²⁾Test item: *C. indicum* flower oil.

SA, sodium azide; 2-NF, 2-nitrofluorene; 4NQO, 4-nitroquinoline 1-oxide; 2-AA, 2-aminoanthracene; BP, benzyl[a]pyrene.

AUTHOR DISCLOSURE STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

REFERENCES

1. Yu DO, Xie FZ, He WY, Liang XT. 1992. Application of 2D NMR techniques in the structure determination of chrysanthein. *Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica* 27: 191-196.
2. Matsuda H, Morikawa T, Toguchida I, Harima S, Yoshikawa M. 2002. Medicinal flowers. VI. absolute stereostructures of two new flavanone glycosides and a phenylbutanoid glycoside from the flowers of *Chrysanthemum indicum* L.: their inhibitory activities for rat lens aldose reductase. *Chem Pharm Bull* 50: 972-975.
3. Cheng W, Li J, You T, Hu C. 2005. Anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory activities of the extracts from the inflo-

- rescence of *Chrysanthemum indicum* Linne. *J Ethnopharmacol* 101: 334-337.
4. Kim HG, Kim YE, Do JR, Lee YC, Lee BY. 1995. Antioxidative activity and physiological activity of some Korean medicinal plants. *Korean J Food Sci Technol* 27: 80-85.
 5. Lee JH, Chang KM, Kim GH. 2008. Anti-inflammatory activities of *Chopi* (*Zanthoxylum piperitum* A.P. DC) essential oil: suppression of the inducible nitric oxide synthase and cellular adhesion. *Food Sci Biotechnol* 18: 123-132.
 6. Shunying Z, Yang Y, Huaidong Y, Yue Y, Guolin Z. 2005. Chemical composition and antimicrobial activity of the essential oils of *Chrysanthemum indicum*. *J Ethnopharmacol* 96: 151-158.
 7. Chang KM, Kim GH. 2009. Comparative chemical composition of domestic and imported *Chrysanthemum indicum* L. flower oils. *Food Sci Biotechnol* 18: 1288-1292.
 8. Zhang C, Qin MJ, Shu P, Hong JL, Lu L, He DX. 2010. Chemical variations of the essential oils in flower heads of *Chrysanthemum indicum* L. from China. *Chem Biodiver* 7: 2951-2962.
 9. Jiang H, Li F, Zeng S. 2005. Capillary GC determination of β -elemene, camphor and borneol in *Chrysanthemum morifolium*. *Yaowu Fenxi Zazhi* 25: 508-511.
 10. Wang Y, Yang X. 2006. GC-MS analysis of essential oil of the flower of the *Chrysanthemum morifolium* by the different processing methods. *Zhongguo Zhongyao Zazhi* 31: 456-459.
 11. Schmid W. 1973. Chemical mutagen testing on *in vivo* somatic mammalian cells. *Agents Act* 3: 77-85.
 12. Heddle LA. 1973. A rapid *in vivo* test for chromosomal damage. *Mutat Res* 18: 187-190.
 13. Suzuki Y, Nagashima T, Shimizu H. 1998. Effects of carbon monoxide on the micronucleus test, Occupational Health in the Chemical Industry. WHO Regional Office for Europe, Copenhagen, Denmark. p 156-166.
 14. Heddle JA, Gimino MC, Hayashi M, Romagna F. 1991. Micronuclei as an index of cytogenetic damage: past, present, and future. *Environ Mol Mutagen* 18: 277-291.
 15. Nagashima T, Okonogi H, Suzuki Y. 1993. Effects of anoxia on chromosomal aberration. *Tokyo Jikeikai Med J* 108: 71-78.
 16. Guerin MR. 1978. Energy sources of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. In *Polycyclic Hydrocarbons and Cancer: Chemistry, Molecular Biology and Environment*. Gelboin HV, Ts'o POP, eds. Academic Press, New York, NY, USA. p 1-42.
 17. Miyamoto CT, Santanna JR, Franco CC, Castro-Prado MA. 2007. Genotoxicity (mitotic recombination) of the cancer chemotherapeutic agents' cisplatin and cytosine arabinoside in *Aspergillus nidulans*. *Food Chem Toxicol* 45: 1091-1095.
 18. Han EH, Hwang YP, Jeong TC, Lee SS, Shin JG, Jeong HG. 2007. Eugenol inhibit 7,12-dimethylbenz[a]anthracene-induced genotoxicity in MCF-7 cells: Bifunctional effects on CYP1 and NAD(P)H: quinine oxidoreductase. *FEBS Lett* 581: 749-756.
 19. Gomez NE, Witte L. 2001. A simple method to extract essential oils from tissue samples by using microwave radiation. *J Chem Ecol* 27: 2351-2359.
 20. AAALAC international 1998. Association for Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care. <http://www.aaalac.org> (accessed July 2006).
 21. Schmid W. 1975. The micronucleus test. *Mutat Res* 31: 9-15.
 22. Maron DM, Ames BN. 1983. Revised methods for the *Salmonella* mutagenicity test. *Mutat Res* 113: 173-215.
 23. OECD. 1997. *OECD Principles on Good Laboratory Practice*. Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.
 24. OECD. 1997. Guidelines for the testing of chemicals. TG No. 471 'Bacterial reverse mutation test'. Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.
 25. Sun J. 2007. D-Limonene: Safety and clinical applications. *Alternative Med Rev* 12: 259-264.
 26. Turner SD, Tinwell H, Piegorsch W, Schmezer P, Ashby J. 2001. The male rat carcinogens limonene and sodium saccharine are not mutagenic to male big blue rats. *Mutagen* 16: 329-332.