

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

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DNA topoisomerase II-dependent cytotoxicity of alkylaminoanthraquinones and their N-oxides

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Abstract We studied the role of DNA topoisomerase II in the biological actions of a series of novel alkylaminoanthraquinones, including N-oxide derivatives designed as prodrugs liable to bioreductive activation in hypoxic tumour cells. Drug structures were based upon the DNA-binding anticancer topoisomerase II poison mitoxantrone with modifications to the alkylamino side chains. The agents included AQ4, 1,4-bis{[2-(dimethylamino)ethyl]amino} 5,8-dihydroxy-anthracene-9,10-dione, and AQ6, 1{[2-(dimethylamino)ethyl]amino} 4-{[2[(hydroxyethyl)amino]ethyl]amino} 5,8-dihydroxy-anthracene-9,10-dione, together with the corresponding mono-N-oxide (AQ6NO) and di-N-oxide (AQ4NO). The $R_3N^+-O^-$ modification renders the terminal nitrogen group electrically neutral and was found to reduce AQ6NO or effectively abolish AQ4NO-DNA binding. Comparative studies were carried out using two SV40-transformed fibroblast cell lines, MRC5-V1 and AT5BIVA, the latter being a relative overproducer of DNA topoisomerase II α . The inhibition of DNA topoisomerase II decatenation activity ranked according to DNA-binding capacity. A similar ranking was found for drug-induced DNA-protein cross-linking in intact cells, depending upon topoisomerase II availability. Inhibition of DNA synthesis in S-phase synchronized cultures ranked in the order of AQ6 > mitoxantrone >> AQ6NO and was in-

dependent of topoisomerase II availability. Cytotoxicity of acute 1-h exposures for all agents except the inactive AQ4NO was enhanced in the topoisomerase II-overproducing cell line. The results indicate an important role for enzyme targeting in anthraquinone action. However, DNA synthesis inhibition and cytotoxicity were greater than expected for AQ6, given its topoisomerase- and DNA-interaction properties, and parallel studies have provided evidence of an additional role for enhanced subcellular accumulation and nuclear targeting. The inactivity of AQ4NO and the retention of only partial activity of AQ6NO, allied with the effective topoisomerase II-targeting and high cytotoxic potential of their presumed metabolites, favour their use as prodrugs in tumour cells with enhanced bioreductive potential.

Key words Mitoxantrone · Anthraquinone prodrugs · Bioreduction · DNA intercalation · DNA topoisomerases

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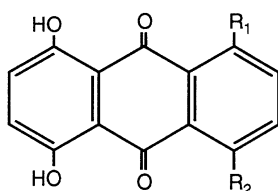
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Introduction

The anthraquinones are a group of synthetic DNA-binding agents that are structurally related to the DNA-intercalating anthracycline antibiotics. A major anticancer agent within this group, mitoxantrone (mitozantrone; Novantrone) is used clinically in the treatment of non-Hodgkin's lymphomas, acute myeloid leukaemias and advanced breast cancer [18]. DNA topoisomerase II is a major target for diverse groups of anticancer DNA-intercalating agents [5, 7, 16, 22], this nuclear enzyme being vital for the efficient condensation/decondensation of chromatin and for the segregation of replicated daughter chromosomes at cell division [22]. The enzyme can actively alter the topology of DNA molecules by the introduction of transient double-strand breaks through which

Table 1 Side-chain composition of mitoxantrone and analogues

Compound	R ₁	R ₂
Mitoxantrone	NHCH ₂ CH ₂ NCH ₂ CH ₂ OH	NHCH ₂ CH ₂ NCH ₂ CH ₂ OH
AQ4	NHCH ₂ CH ₂ N(CH ₃) ₂	NHCH ₂ CH ₂ N(CH ₃) ₂
AQ6	NHCH ₂ CH ₂ N(CH ₃) ₂	NHCH ₂ CH ₂ NCH ₂ CH ₂ OH
AQ4NO	NHCH ₂ CH ₂ N(O)(CH ₃) ₂	NHCH ₂ CH ₂ N(O)(CH ₃) ₂
AQ6NO	NHCH ₂ CH ₂ N(O)(CH ₃) ₂	NHCH ₂ CH ₂ NCH ₂ CH ₂ OH

**Fig. 1** General structure of the anthraquinones used in the present study (see Table 1 for details of the side-chain composition)

an intact helix can pass [22]. During this reaction the enzyme molecule forms a non-covalent protein-DNA complex that is in rapid equilibrium with a 'covalent cleavable' complex [7]. Mitoxantrone prevents re-ligation of transient double-strand DNA breaks by trapping the cleavable complex formed between DNA and topoisomerase II [1, 7]. It is thought that drug-DNA binding [3, 15, 20] and drug-induced DNA damage causes DNA synthesis inhibition [5], an arrest of cells in the G2 phase of the cell cycle and the progression through cell-death pathways.

Our aim is to improve selective chemotherapeutic activity by minimising systemic toxicity. One approach is to use prodrug design to harness tumour-cell selectivity for both the activation process and the mode of action of the metabolite. Accordingly, the basic concept pursued in the current study is that aliphatic tertiary amine N-oxides of cytotoxic anthraquinones are essentially deactivated DNA-binding agents that are capable of tumour selectivity through bioreductive conversion in hypoxic tumour cells [2, 9, 10, 12]. The activated agent would demonstrate persistent targeting of topoisomerase II β in quiescent cells or of topoisomerase II α in cells opting to enter the cell cycle [4]. We report herein on the DNA topoisomerase II targeting of mitoxantrone analogues and their prodrug forms.

We have studied mitoxantrone and four related alkylaminoanthraquinones [11–14] comprising two N-oxides (AQ4NO and AQ6NO) and their putative immediate metabolites (AQ4 and AQ6), their structures being indicated in Table 1 and Fig. 1. It should be noted that mitoxantrone, with its bis-secondary amine side chains, cannot be derivatised to an N-oxide. Two SV40 transformed fibroblast cell lines (MRC5-V1 and AT5BIVA) were used, the latter cell line expressing elevated levels of topoisomerase II in all phases of the

cell cycle, making it a useful hypersensitive indicator cell line for cellular responses to cleavable-complex-trapping agents (e.g. the aminoacridine mAMSA [19]). Our findings support the use of N-oxide alkylaminoanthraquinones as potential prodrugs of topoisomerase-targeting anticancer agents.

Materials and methods

Cell culture and drug sources

The SV40 transformed human fibroblast cell lines MRC5-V1 (normal donor) and AT5BIVA (ataxia telangiectasia homozygote donor) were grown as asynchronous cultures as described previously [19]. Synchronization was achieved by plating of cells followed by incubation for 48 h under normal conditions prior to exposure to 1 μ g/ml aphidicolin (Sigma) for 24 h to induce the accumulation of cells in the early S phase. Arrested cultures were released into fresh medium for 2 h prior to drug treatments. Synchronization was verified by flow-cytometric analysis. Mitoxantrone, {1,4-dihydroxy-5,8-bis[(2-[hydroxyethyl]amino)ethyl]amino)-9,10-anthracenedione dihydrochloride (Novantrone), was kindly supplied by Dr. A. Man (Lederle Laboratories, Gosport, UK) as a solid and was stored as aqueous stock solutions of 2 mM at 4 °C. The analogues (see Fig. 1, Table 1) were synthesised as previously described [11] and were stored at 4 °C as aqueous stock solutions of 2–11 mM.

Assay for clonogenic potential

Prior to drug treatment, cells were plated at a density of 250 cells/well in 6-well plates and then incubated overnight to allow attachment. After a 1-h period of incubation with drug, cells were washed twice in phosphate-buffered saline, then incubated in fresh growth medium for 14 days. Colonies were fixed, stained and counted. Survival data were analysed using a linear transform of the multi-target survival curve [23].

Inhibition of DNA topoisomerase II activity and drug-induced DNA-protein cross-linking

Decatenation activity was assayed according to the electrophoretic method of Sahai and Kaplan [17], with 350 mM NaCl-extracted nuclear protein preparations from AT5BIVA cells being used as described previously [19] to catalyse the decatenation of a network of kinetoplast DNA in the presence or absence of drug. The K⁺-sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) precipitation method was used to measure the tight association of protein with DNA and has been described elsewhere [5]. In brief, the method involves the precipitation of radiolabeled cellular DNA cross-linked to protein in lysates of drug-treated cells.

Measurement of DNA synthesis rates

The method has been described elsewhere [5]. In brief, cultures were labeled with 1.85×10^{-4} MBq/ml [^{14}C]-thymidine (sp. act. 1.92 GBq/mmol, Amersham International) for 48 h, which was followed by a 2-h chase period in fresh medium prior to drug treatment. Replicating DNA was labeled by incubation of cells with 0.37 MBq/ml [^3H]-thymidine (sp. act. 2.85 TBq/mmol, Amersham International) during the final 15 min of a 1-h drug exposure. Radioactivity in trichloroacetic acid (TCA) precipitates of cells was determined by liquid scintillometry. The relative rate of DNA synthesis was calculated as follows: $100 \times [^3\text{H}(\text{drug-treated})/^{14}\text{C}(\text{drug-treated})]/[^3\text{H}(\text{control})/^{14}\text{C}(\text{control})]$.

Results

DNA topoisomerase II inhibition

Inhibition of kinetoplast DNA decatenation activity was measured for the various drugs. The catenated DNA substrate cannot migrate from the well of an agarose gel unless it has previously been exposed to the catalytic action of topoisomerase II, resulting in the release of DNA circles from the catenated complex. Preliminary experiments confirmed the migration properties of kinetoplast preparations and the adenosine triphosphate (ATP) dependence of decatenation. When gel electrophoresis was carried out in the presence of ethidium bromide there was a loss of the fluorescence of DNA in the wells at high concentrations ($>20 \mu\text{M}$) of mitoxantrone, AQ4 and AQ6, which was also observed to a reduced degree with AQ6NO but not with AQ4NO (data not shown). Loss of fluorescence is indicative of displacement of ethidium bromide from DNA by residual drug binding. To abrogate ethidium displacement, gels were run in the presence of 0.1% SDS and stained after electrophoresis with ethidium bromide.

Figure 2 shows a representative assay in which the release of kinetoplast DNA from the well by the nuclear extract alone gives rise to species of monomers with different supercoiling states (topoisomers). Mitoxantrone and AQ6 inhibited release from the well, revealed a background of nicked monomers and produced rapidly migrating supercoiled intermediates. Inhibition by AQ6NO was detectable. Figure 2 also illustrates the effect of adding drug after the decatenation reaction had been completed (+), showing that the fluorescence intensity and migration patterns of the released DNA circles were not affected by the presence of the drug. In a parallel study [13] the various drugs were examined for their in vitro capacity to bind to calf-thymus DNA as determined by spectrophotometric titration of drug-DNA mixtures. In order of affinity constants the agents ranked as follows: mitoxantrone ($6.19 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}$) > AQ6 ($5.50 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}$) > AQ4 ($3.21 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}$) > AQ6NO ($1.29 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}$) > AQ4NO (DNA binding not detected). We observed the same ranking for ethidium

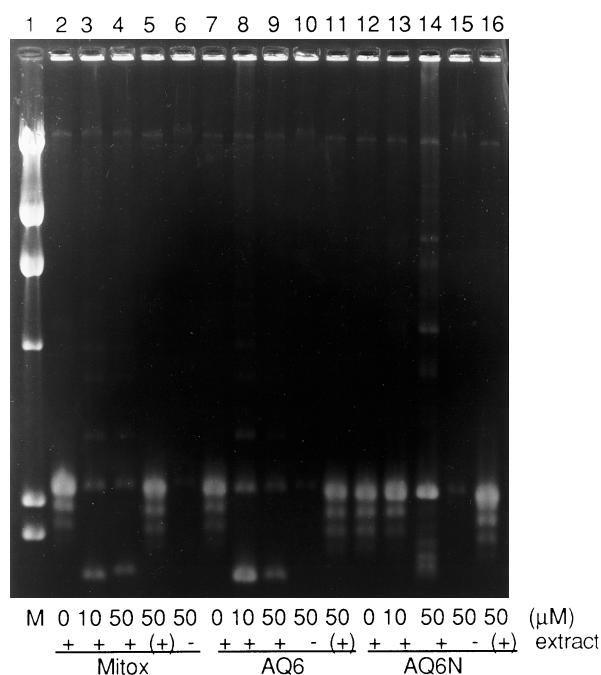


Fig. 2 Representative assay showing dose-dependent inhibition of the topoisomerase II-decatenation activity of a nuclear protein extract by mitoxantrone (*Mitox*), AQ6 and AQ6NO (*AQ6N*) (*M* Molecular-weight markers/*Hin* dIII digest of λ DNA representing 23.13, 9.42, 6.56, 4.36, 2.32 and 2.03 kb; *extract* nuclear protein extract containing topoisomerase II; (+) drug was added at the end of the incubation period). Samples were incubated for 90 min at 37°C in the presence or absence of drug

displacement in decatenation assays when ethidium was present during electrophoresis (data not shown).

The results of the assays for inhibition of the catalytic activity of topoisomerase II from nuclear extracts indicated that mitoxantrone had activity similar to that of AQ6, with AQ4 requiring approximately a doubling of the drug concentration to effect the same level of inhibition. AQ6NO required at least a 5-fold greater concentration than did the parental agent AQ6 to effect inhibition, whereas AQ4NO was inactive for concentrations up to $80 \mu\text{M}$. We conclude that the relative ability of the agents to inhibit topoisomerase II in a cell-free system reflects their DNA-binding capacity.

Drug-induced DNA-protein cross-linking

Topoisomerase II trapping, measured indirectly using the K^+ -SDS precipitation assay, was evaluated for each derivative using intact cells with low (MRC5-V1) and elevated (AT5BIVA) levels of topoisomerase II (Fig. 3). Cross-linking by mitoxantrone became saturated at doses above $5 \mu\text{M}$ but was clearly dependent upon enzyme availability. In MRC5-V1 cells, AQ6 showed activity similar to that of mitoxantrone, whereas AQ4 showed reduced activity. In AT5BIVA cells the

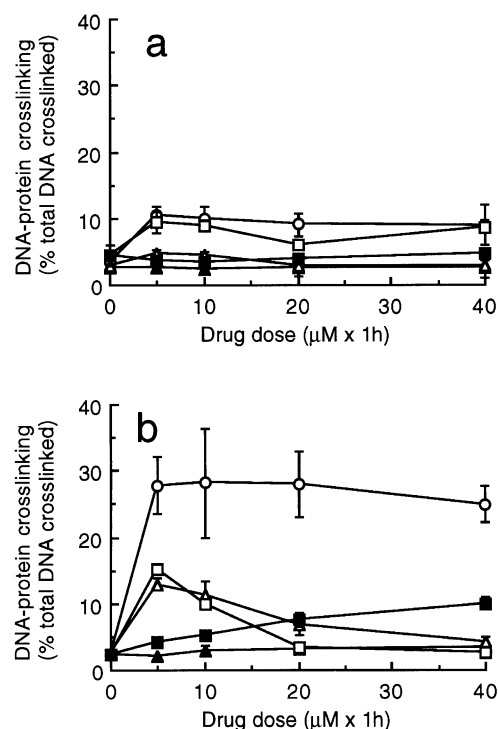


Fig. 3a, b Dose-dependent induction of DNA-protein cross-linking in human cells assayed immediately following 1 h exposure to anthraquinones. **a** MRC5-V1. **b** AT5BIVA. (○ Mitoxantrone, △ AQ4, □ AQ6, ▲ AQ4NO, ■ AQ6NO) Data represent mean values derived from 3 experiments (\pm SE)

increased availability of topoisomerase II differentiated between high levels of cross-linking with mitoxantrone and reduced but similar cross-linking with AQ4 and AQ6. Cross-linking by AQ4 and AQ6 showed evidence of inhibition at high drug concentrations. The AQ4NO derivative was essentially inactive. In AT5BIVA cells, AQ6NO ($\geq 20 \mu\text{M}$) showed significant activity as reflected by a >8 -fold difference in the concentration of drug required to induce equivalent cross-linking as compared with AQ6. Thus, the general patterns observed were similar to those obtained in the cell-free system, namely (1) activity of mitoxantrone, AQ6 and AQ4; (2) significantly reduced but detectable activity of AQ6NO; and (3) inactivity of AQ4NO. Figure 4 shows that the DNA-protein cross-links induced by mitoxantrone or the analogues tended to persist or even accumulate during post-treatment incubation.

DNA synthesis inhibition

Figure 5 shows that there was no significant cell-line-dependent difference in the initial capacity of three selected anthraquinones to inhibit DNA synthesis. Inhibition in S-phase-synchronized cultures was biphasic for mitoxantrone and AQ6, the former showing a dose dependence that correlated with the level of cross-link-

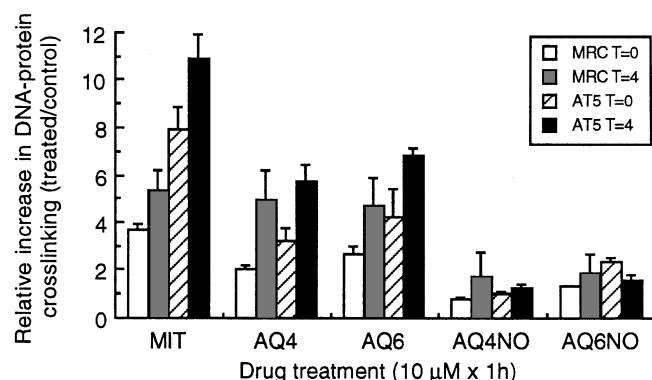


Fig. 4 Persistence of drug-induced DNA-protein cross-links in cells exposed for 1 h to anthraquinones. Cross-linking was determined either immediately after drug treatment ($T = 0$) or after a 4-h recovery period ($T = 4$) in drug-free medium. Data represent mean values derived from 3 experiments (\pm SE)

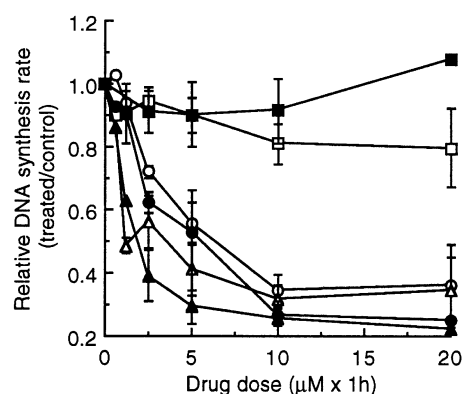


Fig. 5 Inhibition of DNA synthesis in S-phase-synchronized cultures as measured at the end of a 1-h exposure to either mitoxantrone (circles), AQ6 (triangles) or AQ6NO (squares). Drugs were added to cultures at 2 h after release from aphidicolin block. Details of APC synchronisation are given in Materials and methods. (○, △, □ MRC5-V1; ●, ▲, ■ AT5BIVA)

ing, whereas AQ6NO appeared to be relatively inactive. The results do not support a simple relationship between enzyme trapping and DNA synthesis inhibition, given the consistently enhanced activity of AQ6 (1.25–5 μM , Fig. 5) and the similarity of the cell-line responses.

Cytotoxicity studies

Representative survival curves are shown in Fig. 6, and the combined survival data are shown in Table 2 together with values for other topoisomerase II poisons. Considering MRC5-V1 cells first, D_0 values (the dose required to reduce survival by 37% as measured on the linear part of the survival curve) of 27.3 nM for mitoxantrone and 49.0 nM for AQ4 were obtained. Unexpectedly, given the results of the above-mentioned

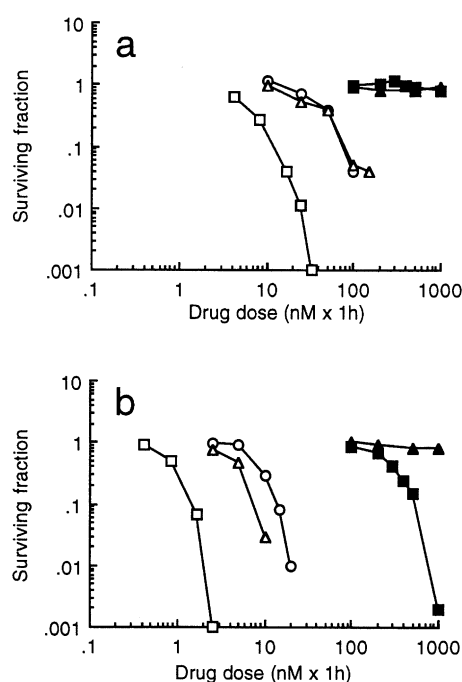


Fig. 6a, b Cytotoxicity of 1 h exposure to anthraquinones as determined by clonogenic potential. **a** MRC5-V1. **b** AT5BIVA. (○ Mitoxantrone, △ AQ4, □ AQ6, ▲ AQ4NO, ■ AQ6NO) Representative survival curves are shown (mean values for quadruplicate determinations, SD ≤ 10%)

studies, AQ6 (D_0 value 4.8 nM) was found to be more cytotoxic than either mitoxantrone or AQ4. D_0 values for AQ4NO and AQ6NO were estimated to be > 20 and > 1.4 μ M, respectively, indicating at least a 50-fold reduction in the toxicity of the N-oxides, with AQ6NO showing a potency similar to that of aminoacridine mAMSA (Table 2). AT5BIVA cells were 7, 21 and 14 times more sensitive than MRC5-V1 cells to mitoxantrone, AQ4 and AQ6, respectively (Table 2).

Although AQ6NO showed a significant cytotoxic effect (D_0 value 147 nM) towards AT5BIVA cells in the dose range used, AQ4NO showed low cytotoxicity (D_0 value 18.5 μ M as estimated by survival curve fitting).

Discussion

This report relates the structures of novel anthraquinones to one of the possible initiating events for cytotoxicity, namely topoisomerase inhibition. The in vitro capacity of the alkylaminoanthraquinones to bind calf-thymus DNA [13] reflected their in vitro capacity to inhibit kinetoplast DNA decatenation. The results are consistent with a requirement of DNA binding for efficient enzyme trapping by the analogues. In intact cell systems a similar general ranking was observed for drug-induced DNA-protein cross-linking, an indirect measure of topoisomerase II trapping, although the cross-linking activity of AQ4 and AQ6 appeared to be reduced at high concentration (> 10 μ M). Under conditions of overexpression of topoisomerase II the cytotoxic potential of AQ4, AQ6, AQ6NO and mitoxantrone was enhanced. The exception was AQ4NO, which was essentially inactive. The results confirm a requirement of DNA binding for efficient enzyme inhibition. The topoisomerase studies were carried out as supra-lethal drug concentrations, and it is possible that differences in the sequestration or availability of free drug in cells may affect the dynamics of interaction with the enzyme. Indeed, we present evidence that cross-linking continued to occur in cells released from drug treatment. However, the hypersensitivity of the topoisomerase II overproducer to the alkylaminoanthraquinones strongly implicates topoisomerase II-dependent DNA cleavage as an important factor in the cytotoxicity responses within the biological dose range.

Table 2 Cytotoxicity data for anthraquinones and other DNA topoisomerase II poisons (Mitox Mitoxantrone, ND not determined, D_0 dose required to reduce survival by 37% as measured on the linear part of the survival curve, $D50$ dose required to reduce survival by 50%, n extrapolation number for the linear portion of the survival curve; see Watson [23])

Compound	Survival curve parameters ^a						Relative cytotoxicity (D ₀ MRC5-V1/D ₀ AT5BIVA)	D ₀ drug/D ₀ Mitox (for MRC5-VI cells)
	MRC5-V1 cells			AT5BIVA				
	D ₀ ^b	D50 ^b	<i>n</i>	D ₀ ^b	D50 ^b	<i>n</i>		
VP-16	7000							256
m-AMSA	2900							106
Doxorubicin	500							18.3
Mitoxantrone	27.3	38	1.6	3.8	7.3	2.2	7.2	Set at 1.0
AQ4	49.0	30	1.0	2.3	4.6	3.7	21.3	1.8
AQ4NO	>1000	>1000		>1000	>1000		ND	>730
AQ6	4.8	5.1	1.3	0.34	0.81	3.0	14.1	0.18
AQ6NO	1390	>1000	1.5	146.5	255	2.9	9.5	51

^a Values derived from the combined data from 3–4 experiments

^b Units of nM for a 1-h exposure

The N-oxide derivatives can be described formally as $R_3N^+-O^-$ yielding electrically neutral side chains and agents that are significantly less basic. Cationic charge and basicity are important physicochemical properties influencing the transport and macromolecule binding of drugs. In parallel studies we have employed flow cytometry, and confocal imaging [21] to investigate the uptake and subcellular distribution of these agents in intact cells (Smith and Blunt, unpublished observations). N-oxide substitution on one side chain diminished nuclear accumulation, whereas substitution on both side chains abolished it almost completely. No significant difference between the two cell lines in whole-cell or nuclear uptake of alkylaminoanthraquinones was detectable by fluorometry. However, AQ6 nuclear targeting was enhanced as compared with that noted for mitoxantrone. Thus, under low-dose conditions, within the biological range, preferential uptake of AQ6 as compared with the other agents may explain its high level of relative cytotoxicity.

DNA binding and presumably related nuclear targeting, but not topoisomerase II trapping per se, appear to be important features for the initial inhibition of DNA synthesis. The retention of some topoisomerase-II-targeting capacity in both cell-free and intact cell systems by AQ6NO is presumably a reflection of the residual DNA-binding activity contributed by the $H_2N(CH_2)_2NH(CH_2)_2OH$ side chain. In the case of AQ6NO the greater residual cytotoxic and DNA/nuclear targeting activities would serve to increase basal activity towards proliferating cells while offering a high level of differential toxicity in hypoxic cells, should the N-oxide be bio-reduced to AQ6, its putative metabolite. Thus, the persistent nature of anthraquinones and the longevity of topoisomerase-associated DNA damage described herein and elsewhere [5] should provide activity towards such cells attempting to re-enter the cell cycle.

This study supports the concept of the N-oxides as prodrugs of topoisomerase-targeting alkylaminoanthraquinones. For AQ6NO this is of interest because it retains activity against cells with appropriate presentation of topoisomerase II, whereas its putative metabolite AQ6 is up to 400 times more cytotoxic. Using a hypersensitive cell line, we have shown that AQ6NO clearly traps topoisomerase II in intact cells. Thus, the mono-N-oxide would show some activity against rapidly proliferating cells with generally elevated topoisomerase II α levels [6] while retaining the potential for bio-reductive conversion in hypoxic cells to a highly active product (AQ6). Indeed, the latter compound has an even greater in vitro cytotoxicity than does mitoxantrone. As a di-N-oxide, AQ4NO is effectively inactive as a cytotoxic agent but has the potential for conversion to a metabolite, AQ4, which has a cytotoxic potency similar to that of mitoxantrone. In support of the bio-reductive potential of these N-oxides, AQ4NO has been shown to undergo quantitative con-

version to AQ4 under anaerobic conditions in biological systems [12] and shows positive interaction with radiation in vivo [8]. AQ4NO and AQ6NO are currently undergoing further pre-clinical trials in vivo to establish their potential as bio-reductive agents.

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