

Product Identification and Safety Evaluation of Aflatoxin B₁ Decontaminated by Electrolyzed Oxidizing Water

Ke Xiong, Hai jie Liu, and Li te Li*

College of Food Science and Nutritional Engineering, China Agricultural University, P.O. Box 40, No. 17 Qing hua dong lu, Hai dian, Beijing 100083, People's Republic of China

S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: In this study with aflatoxin-contaminated peanuts, the effectiveness of electrolyzed oxidizing water (EOW) in the decontamination of aflatoxin B₁ was investigated. The aflatoxin B₁ content was markedly reduced upon treatment with EOW, particularly with neutral electrolyzed oxidizing water (NEW). The conversion product of EOW treatment was isolated and identified as 8-chloro-9-hydroxy aflatoxin B₁ (compound **1**), which is an amphiphilic molecule, in contrast to fat-soluble aflatoxin B₁. A mutagenic response study revealed that the number of revertants per plate after treatment of bacterial strains TA-97, TA-98, TA-100, and TA-102 with NEW was within the standard value range. The HepG2 cell viability assay yielded an IC₅₀ value of compound **1** approximately 150 mM. This study indicates that EOW had the ability to decontaminate aflatoxin B₁, and the conversion product, compound **1**, did not exhibit mutagenic activity or cytotoxic effects.

KEYWORDS: aflatoxin B₁, electrolyzed oxidizing water (EOW), decontamination, 8-chloro-9-hydroxy-aflatoxin B₁, mutagenic and cytotoxic responses

INTRODUCTION

Aflatoxin B₁ is the most potent natural hepatocarcinogen, is produced primarily by *Aspergillus flavus* and *Aspergillus parasiticus*, and has been designated as a human liver carcinogen (group I) by the International Agency for Research on Cancer.¹ Aflatoxin B₁ has been reported in many food and food materials such as corn, wheat, peanuts, figs, spices, olives, pistachios, and rice.^{2–7} It is considered to be an unavoidable source of food contamination by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA).⁸ Controlling the infection by *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus* and decontaminating food-borne aflatoxins are significant concerns worldwide.⁹

Many current physical and chemical methods to control aflatoxin B₁ contamination focus on disinfecting fungi and decontaminating aflatoxin B₁, such as exposure of aflatoxin B₁ to ammonia vapor at high temperature; treatment of aflatoxin B₁ with ozone, sodium bisulphite, calcium hydroxide, and hydrogen peroxide; and the adsorption of aflatoxin B₁ with sorbents.^{10–14} Most of the proposed methods are not practical because they not only decompose aflatoxin B₁ but also deplete the quality of the food. Furthermore, the chemicals employed have carcinogenic and teratogenic attributes as well as residual toxicity.^{15–17} For these reasons, consumers tend to be suspicious of chemical additives, necessitating the development of safer and more socially acceptable measures to decontaminate aflatoxin B₁.

Previously, we reported that electrolyzed oxidizing water (EOW) exhibited strong antifungal activity against *A. flavus* and a significant reduction of *A. flavus* infection in peanuts. EOW could represent a novel control method that is superior to some physical methods and synthetic chemical fungicides.¹⁸ With the aim of identifying a secure, effective, and energy-saving method to disinfect aflatoxin-producing fungi and decontaminate aflatoxin, we evaluated the effectiveness of EOW in the decontamination of aflatoxin B₁.

The two major types of EOW are neutral electrolyzed oxidizing water [NEW, pH 5.0–6.5; high oxidation–reduction potential (ORP), 800–900 mV, high dissolved oxygen and containing available chlorine] and acidic electrolyzed oxidizing water (AcidEW, pH <3.0; high ORP, >1000 mV, high dissolved oxygen and containing available chlorine, which possess specific properties).^{19–21} The objectives of this work were to evaluate the ability of EOW to decontaminate aflatoxin B₁, isolate and identify the structure of the molecule produced by EOW treatment, and evaluate the mutagenic and cytotoxic properties of the conversion product.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals and Safety Precautions. Aflatoxin B₁ were obtained from Israel Fermentek Ltd. (Yatziv, Jerusalem, Israel). Acetonitrile and methanol were chromatographic grade (Dikma Technologies Inc., Ontario, Canada). Trifluoroacetic acid (Sigma-Aldrich Co. Ltd., MO) and sodium chloride (Sigma-Aldrich Co. Ltd.) were chromatographic grade. Water, resistance 18.2 MΩ cm, used in the preparation of standard solutions and samples, was obtained from a Millipore Milli-Q-System (Millipore Corp., Billerica, MA). Other chemicals were analytic grade obtained from chemical reagent services.

Handling and decontamination of aflatoxin B₁ were performed by mixing with 5% NaClO solutions. Contaminated glassware, vials, tubes, etc. were immersed in the 5% NaClO solutions for 1–2 h and then washed. As a safety precaution, pure aflatoxin B₁ reagents were handled in a glovebox or thoroughly controlled safety cabinet in a P2 level facility.

Peanut and Toxicogenic Fungus. Peanuts named CA108 of uniform size (0.97 ± 0.20 g) were wound- and rot-free, obtained from the Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences (CAAS, Beijing, China),

Received: June 1, 2012

Revised: September 5, 2012

Accepted: September 6, 2012

Published: September 6, 2012

and kept at 4 °C. The oil content of peanut was 55%, the protein content was 25%, and the oleic acid/linolic acid value was 1.1.

The toxigenic *A. flavus* strain was provided by the Oil Crops Research Institute (OCRI) of CAAS. The fungus was identified by the Microbial Identification System according to standard morphological methods.²² Fungal cultures were maintained in B. R. Grade Czapek medium (Shuang xuan Microorganism Culture Medium Product Factory, Beijing, China) at 4 °C for further experiments. For fungi activation, spores were taken from slant, transferred to B. R. Grade Rose Bengal medium (Aoboxing Biotech Co. Ltd., Beijing, China), and then incubated for 2–3 days at 30 °C.

Fungal Inoculation. The fungus spores were removed from the Petri dishes with a spatula. A sterile water spore suspension was prepared with approximately 1×10^5 cfu/L conidia, and this suspension was used to elevate the moisture content of the peanut.

The moisture content of the peanut was adjusted to 18%. The peanut was stored in plastic bottles (500 g of peanut per replicate). Bottles were covered with thin polyethylene film (Ultra Lab Co. Ltd., Col Roma, Mexico). Bottles were incubated at 27 °C for 12 and 14 day periods. After the incubation periods, the peanut was put under a 1000 mg/L ethylene oxide gas atmosphere for 5 h, to stop further development of the toxigenic fungus and to avoid the dispersal of viable spores. Finally, the aflatoxin-contaminated peanut was dried to 12.5% moisture capacity (MC).

Preparation of EOW. EOW primarily composed of NEW and AcidEW was prepared by two different generators.¹⁸ NEW was prepared using a NEW generator (OSG Company Ltd., Aichi, Japan), and AcidEW was prepared using an AcidEW generator (Sai Ai Environmental Protection and Technology Development Company Ltd., Guangzhou, China). AcidEW and NEW were obtained from the electrolysis of 8.2 mM NaCl and 8.2 mM HCl for 15 min, respectively. Both were used immediately after production.

Five physicochemical parameters of NEW and AcidEW were verified and compared with those of distilled water (DW), tap water (TW), and alkaline electrolyzed oxidizing water (AlkEW). In the assay, the stock NEW and AcidEW were diluted in ambient temperature (23 ± 3 °C) DW to obtain different chlorine concentrations.

Decontamination of Aflatoxin B₁-Contaminated Peanuts with EOW. Contaminated peanuts (10 g; particle size, 2–3 mm; nearly 20–30 kernels) were weighed into a 300 mL short-neck flask, and 100 mL of NEW and AcidEW was added to the flask, respectively. The flask was then capped and agitated (150 rpm) with an agitator (Dong Lian Electronic and Technology Development Co. Ltd., Harbin, China) at 40 ± 1 °C for 15 min. In other experiments, the agitation times (0, 5, 10, 20, and 30 min) and concentration of available chlorine (0, 20, 60, 80, and 100 mg/L) were varied by dilution in DW. Reactions were terminated by the addition of 50 mL of freshly prepared, filter-sterilized, pH 7.4, neutral buffer (0.34 M NaH₂PO₄·H₂O and 0.47 M Na₂HPO₄·12H₂O) and drying.²³

Contaminated peanuts extracts were prepared according to method AOAC 991.31²⁴ and analyzed by HPLC. The percentage of remaining aflatoxin B₁ was calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{remaining aflatoxin B}_1 (\%) \\ &= \text{remaining aflatoxin B}_1 \text{ amount} / \text{original aflatoxin B}_1 \text{ amount} \times 100\% \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

HPLC Conditions for Determination of Aflatoxin B₁ in the Sample Extract by Chemical Derivatization. The contaminated peanuts was prepared and extracted according to the AOAC 991.31 method.²⁴ For contaminated peanuts without any treatment (control), 20 μ L of each preprepared extracted solution was subjected to HPLC. Aflatoxin B₁ was identified with Shimadzu HPLC equipment. For the analysis sample prepared, extracting solution was evaporated off under N₂, followed by trifluoroacetylation with the same volume of trifluoroacetic acid in a tightly sealed glass vial by vigorous shaking and then incubated for 15 min at room temperature (25 °C) in the dark. It was evaporated off under N₂ again, and then, 200 μ L of a 1:9 (v/v) mixture of acetone/water was added. The solution was further mixed vigorously, and then, 20 μ L of the solution was subjected to HPLC.

Aflatoxin B₁ identification was determined by means of Shimadzu HPLC equipment with LC-10ATVP model two pumps (Shimadzu Co., Japan). The column used was 250 mm \times 4.6 mm i.d., 5 μ m, Venusil MP RP-18 (Shimadzu Co., Japan) with CTO-10ATVP Plus model oven temperature (Shimadzu Co., Japan). Standards as well as samples were injected into a high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) and eluted isocratically with a mobile phase of pure water: acetonitrile (65:35, v/v) at a flow rate of 0.8 mL/min at 35 °C. Aflatoxin B₁ was fluorometrically detected and identified using a fluorescence detector Waters 474; the excitation and emission wavelengths were 365 and 412 nm, respectively. Aflatoxin B₁ was identified by its retention time (Rt), as compared with those for a pure aflatoxin B₁ standard solution under identical conditions. Chromatographic analysis was run three times.

Effect of the Form of Available Chlorine in EOW on Aflatoxin B₁ Decontamination. A 100 mL NaOCl solution with pH values ranging from 2 to 10 in intervals of 2 was added to flasks containing contaminated peanuts treated for 15 min. Contaminated peanut extracts were prepared and analyzed by HPLC using chemical derivatization described in "HPLC Conditions for Determination of Aflatoxin B₁ in the Sample Extract by Chemical Derivatization".

HPLC Conditions for Purification and Determination of the Conversion of Aflatoxin B₁ Treated with EOW without Chemical Derivatization. The treatments of aflatoxin B₁-contaminated peanut by EOW were analyzed on the HPLC without any chemical derivatization. For the analysis sample prepared, the extracting solution was evaporated off under N₂, and then, 200 μ L of a 1:9 (v/v) mixture of acetone/water was added. The solution was further mixed vigorously, and then, 20 μ L of the solution was subjected to HPLC. Gradient elution was used at a flow rate of 0.4 mL/min with 30% acetonitrile in water from 0 to 30 min, followed by a linear increase in acetonitrile from 30 to 35% between 30 and 45 min. From 45 to 60 min, the acetonitrile increase was linear from 35 to 100%. Eluents were monitored fluorometrically using an excitation wavelength at 365 nm and an emission wavelength at 450 nm. The chromatographic analysis was performed three times for each extract.

Analysis of the Structure of Conversion Products. The molecular formula of the conversion products was analyzed with a Fourier transform ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometer (FT-ICR-MS) (Bruker Co. Ltd., United States). ¹H NMR spectroscopy of the conversion products and aflatoxin B₁ was performed with a Bruker Avance-400 equipped with an SGI INDY computer workstation with the program TOPSPIN 2.0 (Bruker) to acquire and process the NMR data. The stock solutions of converted produces were diluted with H₂O:MeOH:acetic acid = 49:49:2 (v/v/v), giving a final concentration of converted produces of 10 μ M and 20% MeOH, and directly injected into the source region at the rate of 4 μ L/min. All ESI mass spectra in positive-ion mode were acquired using a Fourier transform ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometer (FT-ICR-MS) (Bruker Co. Ltd.). The ¹H NMR spectroscopy of conversion produced and the aflatoxin B₁ were measured at 25 °C on sealed samples, using a Bruker Avance-400 equipped with an SGI INDY computer workstation using TOPSPIN 2.0 program (Bruker), to acquire and process the NMR data.

Mutagenesis Assays *Salmonella typhimurium* Tester Strain. TA-97, TA-98, TA-100, and TA-102 were obtained from Dr. B. N. Ames (University of California, Berkeley, CA).²⁵ For the micro-suspension procedure, bacteria were grown overnight in an Erlenmeyer flask to approximately 1×10^9 – 2×10^9 cells/mL. The cells were collected by centrifugation (4500g, 10 min, 4 °C) and resuspended in ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (0.2 M PBS, pH 7.4). Rat-liver mix S9 (metabolic enzymes) was obtained from the Beijing Centres for Disease Control and Prevention Centre (Beijing, China) and contained 40 mg/mL protein. The concentration of S9 in the mix was 300 g/mL.

For the micro-suspension assay, ingredients were added in the following order to 12 mm \times 75 mm sterile glass culture tubes on ice: 0.5 mL of S9 mix, 0.1 mL of concentrated bacteria in PBS, and 0.02 mL of aflatoxin B₁ (5, 10, 50, and 100 ng/tube) or 0.02 mL of EOW-treated aflatoxin B₁ extract. The mixture was incubated in the

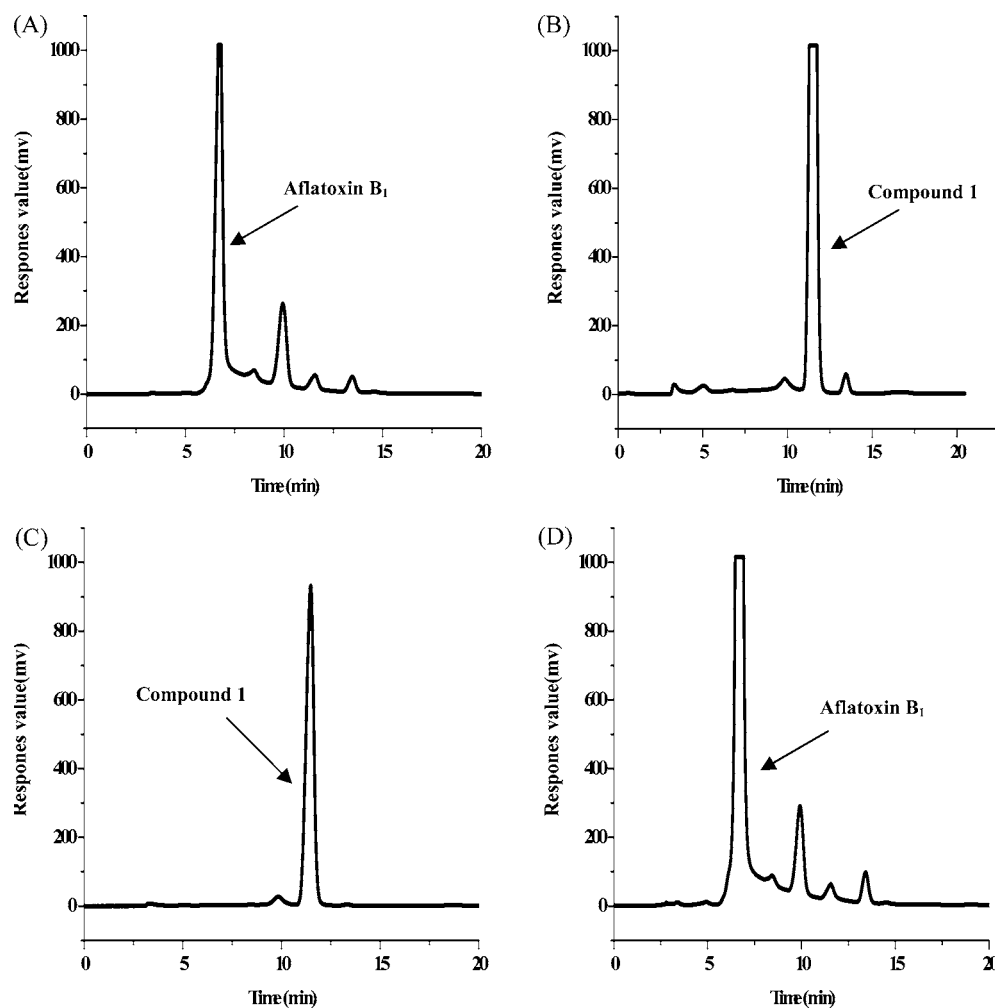


Figure 1. HPLC analysis of the changes in aflatoxin B₁ fluorescence peak height after exposure to the treatment solution. (A) Control, (B) aflatoxin B₁ exposed to NEW, (C) aflatoxin B₁ exposed to AcidEW, and (D) aflatoxin B₁ exposed to AlkEW.

dark at 37 °C with rapid shaking (1500 rpm). After 20 min, the tubes were placed in an ice bath. Tubes were removed one at a time, and 2 mL of molten top agar containing 0.5 mM histidine and biotin was added. The combined solutions were vortex-mixed and poured onto minimal glucose plates. Plates were incubated at 37 °C in the dark for 48 h, after which the number of revertant colonies was counted. Strain markers and bacterial survival were routinely monitored for each experiment. Each treatment was tested in triplicate for each independent experiment.

In Vitro Cytotoxicity Examination. The cytotoxicity was measured with the MTT assay.²⁶ Liver cancer cells (HepG2) in the exponential growth phase were cultured at a density of 1×10^4 cells/well in a 96-well plate. After treatment with various concentrations of aflatoxin B₁ or compound 1 (conversion product formed after aflatoxin B₁ exposure to EOW) for 48 h, MTT solution (5.0 mg/mL in phosphate-buffered saline) was added (20.0 μ L/well), and the plates were incubated for another 4 h at 37 °C. Purple formazan formation in the plates was read on a microplate reader (Bio-Tek Co. Ltd., United States) at 570 nm. Cells without aflatoxin B₁ or compound 1 were used as the control. Assays were performed in three independent experiments. The percentage of cytotoxicity was calculated as follows:

$$\text{cell viability (\%)} = \left(\frac{\text{OD of experimental well}}{\text{OD of control well}} \right) \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

The cytotoxicity was assessed by plotting cell viability versus compound concentration (on a log₁₀ X-scale), followed by polynomial curve fitting and determination of the IC₅₀ with the Origin 7.5 software package.

Statistical Analyses. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Duncan's multiple range tests (at $P \leq 0.05$) were performed to analyze statistical differences and discriminate between means. Values are shown as the means of two different tests with triplicate treatments per experiment.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Physicochemical Parameters of EOW. The physicochemical properties of NEW, AcidEW, AlkEW, TW, and DW, mainly including pH, ORP, dissolved oxygen (DO), electrical conductivity (EC), and available chlorine concentration (ACC). NEW was subacidic (pH 5.6 ± 0.5), and AcidEW was strongly acidic (pH 2.5 ± 0.1). By contrast, AlkEW was strongly alkaline (pH 11.6 ± 0.2), had a low level of DO, and had an extremely low ORP. Available chlorine was almost negligible in AlkEW. In other words, NEW and AcidEW are highly oxidative, whereas AlkEW is highly reductive. The parameters of both of these solutions were also distinctly different from those of TW and DW. However, the values of these parameters, in particular the available chlorine, which functions as an oxidant, were dependent on the concentration of electrolyte, the electrolytic efficiency, and the length of the electrolysis time.

HPLC Assessment of the Decontamination of Aflatoxin B₁ in the Sample Extracts. Figure 1 shows that the trifluoroacetylated aflatoxin B₁ peak with derivatization changes after exposure to the treatment solution. DW treatment of aflatoxin B₁-contaminated peanuts was used as a control.

The peak height of trifluoroacetylated aflatoxin B₁, which eluted at 6.9 min (Figure 1A), changed with different treatment solutions. Although the original concentrations of aflatoxin B₁ in the serial treatments are consistent with the control, the results show that there were significant discrepancies after exposure to different treatment solutions. AcidEW (Figure 1B) and NEW (Figure 1C) completely abolished the peak for trifluoroacetylated aflatoxin B₁. Although the peaks eluting at 9.8 and 11.5 min have not yet been assigned, the peak at 11.5 min (compound 1) is likely to be the main conversion product formed after aflatoxin B₁ exposure to NEW and AcidEW. However, AlkEW has no effect on aflatoxin B₁ (Figure 1D).

Treatment of Aflatoxin B₁-Contaminated Peanuts with EOW. HPLC analysis confirmed that the toxin in the contaminated peanuts was aflatoxin B₁, at a concentration of $95.9 \pm 2.9 \mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$. This aflatoxin B₁ concentration (approximately $100 \mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) is similar to the potential average concentration in commercial peanuts destined for consumption.^{27–30}

AcidEW and NEW containing various ACC exhibited different efficiencies with respect to aflatoxin B₁ decontamination in 15 min (Figure 2A). As the ACC level increased, the remaining

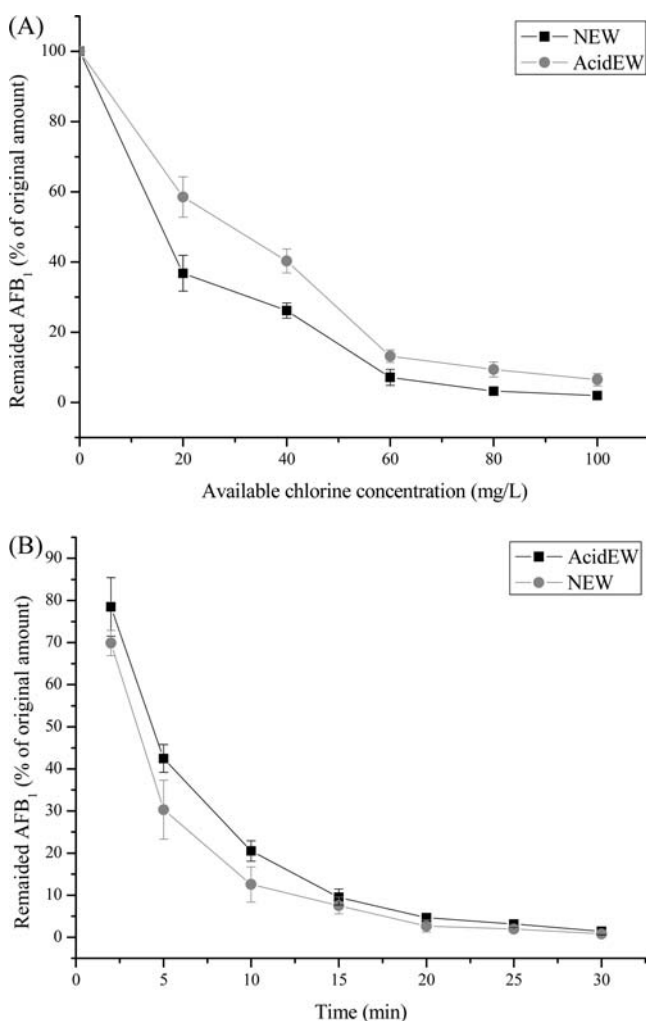
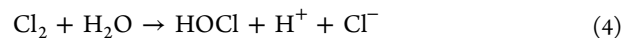


Figure 2. Decontamination of aflatoxin-contaminated peanuts by different EOW treatments. (A) Exposure to EOW of different ACC in 15 min and (B) different exposure times. The remaining aflatoxin B₁ content was determined by HPLC and plotted. Ordinate, relative amount of remaining aflatoxin B₁ (percent); abscissa, different treatments. Each plot represents the mean of three measurements.

aflatoxin B₁ percentage in peanuts treated with AcidEW and NEW decreased significantly; when the ACC reached 60 mg/L in NEW and 80 mg/L in AcidEW, the remaining aflatoxin B₁ percentage was less than 10%. After treatment of aflatoxin B₁-contaminated peanuts for a variety of exposure times (0, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, and 30 min), there were differences in the ability of AcidEW and NEW to decontaminate aflatoxin B₁-contaminated peanuts (Figure 2B). As the exposure time increased, the remaining aflatoxin B₁ percentage decreased significantly; when the exposure time reached 10 min for NEW and 15 min for AcidEW, the remaining aflatoxin B₁ percentage was approximately 10%. These results indicated that AcidEW and NEW clearly react with aflatoxin B₁ in contaminated peanuts, and both types of EOW can decontaminate aflatoxin B₁.

In an additional experiment, 50 mL of NaOCl solution in a series of pH values between 2 and 10 in intervals of 2 pH units was prepared to identify differences in AcidEW- and NEW-mediated decontamination (Figure 3A). As the amount of aflatoxin B₁ decreased, the amount of compound 1 increased simultaneously. Compound 1 was the main conversion product produced by aflatoxin B₁ treated with EOW. When the pH reached 4, the compound 1 content reached its maximum, while the remaining aflatoxin B₁ content reached its minimum. The form of ACC present at the various pH values was an important factor in the conversion of aflatoxin B₁ to compound 1. The form of ACC present at the different pH values is shown in Figure 3B. As the pH changes, ionic chlorine undergoes the following reactions:



Between pH 10 and pH 8, the ClO⁻ ion (reaction 4) was the main form of available chlorine.³¹ The available chlorine usually exists in the form of ClO⁻, which is found in the NaClO dilute solution, confirming the conclusion. As the pH decreases, reaction 4 reverses. The available chlorine compounds derived from the ionic forms of ClO⁻ are converted to the HOCl. At approximately pH 4, the percentage of HOCl reaches its maximum. The pH values of NEW ranged from 5 to 6.5. Therefore, HOCl was the main form of ACC. As the pH decreases further, the primary form of ACC was partially converted to Cl₂ gas (reactions 2 and 3). The pH values of AcidEW ranged from 2 to 3. Therefore, the available chlorine was HOCl and Cl₂ gas.

Efforts were made in several countries to find an economically acceptable way of decontamination of aflatoxin B₁ into nontoxic products using different chemicals, such as ammonia, sodium hydroxide, and calcium hydroxide, etc., used particularly for decontamination of aflatoxin.³² Although such treatment reduces nearly completely the aflatoxin concentration, these chemicals cause losses of some nutrients.

The effect of oxidizing agents was also studied.^{33,34} Such treatment is too drastic for grain destined for food uses. It should be mentioned that some indigestible adsorbents may adsorb the aflatoxin, so that they are not absorbable in the digestive tract. Such adsorbents are used in some feed supplements.^{5–37} The possibility of adsorption of important micronutrient is a potential disadvantage of such methods of detoxification. Nevertheless, some adsorbents are commercially used in feed supplements. Although the different methods used at present are to some extent successful, they have big

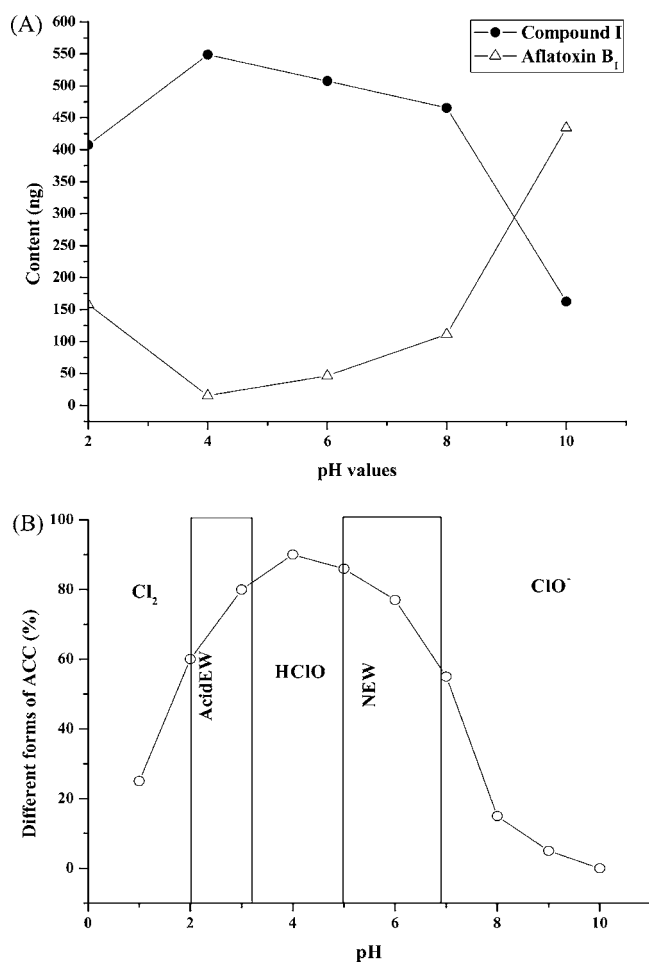


Figure 3. Effect of the available chlorine form in EOW on aflatoxin B₁ decontamination. (A) Change in the aflatoxin B₁ and compound 1 contents at different pH values in 15 min and (B) the form of ACC present at different pH values.

disadvantages with limited efficacy and possible losses of important nutrients and normally with high costs.

AcidEW has limited potential for long-term applications due to its strong acidity and Cl₂ gas content. Dissolved chlorine (Cl₂) can rapidly escape due to volatilization, decreasing the concentration of available chlorine and reducing the effective-

ness of the solution over time. Len et al.³⁸ have indicated that AcidEW can create a human health and safety issue and that the strong acidity of AcidEW may adversely affect equipment and surfaces by causing corrosion and may also be phytotoxic to plants. At pH 5–6.5, the main form of ACC in NEW was HOCl. NEW will be gradually restored to common water, thus making it a safer and more socially acceptable measure for decontaminating aflatoxin B₁.

Structure of the Main Conversion Product. The conversion product in the sample extract was isolated and identified by liquid chromatography–mass spectrometry (LC-MS) in an experiment without chemical derivatization. The chemical formula of compound 1 was identified by high-resolution Fourier transform ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometer (HR-FT-ICR-MS) shown in Figure 4. In the positive mode, an [M + Na]⁺ ion peak at *m/z* 387 (relative intensity, 5.6 × 10⁶) was obtained. HR-FT-ICR-MS gave a [M + Na]⁺ ion peak at *m/z* 387.02 (calcd, 387.02), consistent with a molecular formula of C₁₇H₁₃NaClO₇. These data demonstrated that HOCl (the main ACC in EOW) underwent addition to aflatoxin B₁ (C₁₇H₁₂O₆). The sensitivity for compound 1 was very low in the negative mode. The difference in sensitivity between the positive and the negative modes indicated that compound 1 is positively charged. The chemical formula of compound 1 was C₁₇H₁₃ClO₇. According to the identified molecular formula, the structure of the conversion product confirms that EOW eliminates aflatoxin B₁ not by destroying the fundamental ring system of aflatoxin B₁ but rather by modifying its structure.

Comparing the ¹H spectroscopic data of compound 1 and aflatoxin B₁ further indicated that most of the ¹H signals of compound 1 were similar to those of aflatoxin B₁, except for atoms 8 and 9 (Table 1 and Figure 5). The chemical shifts of H (δ_H) in C₈–H and C₉–H of structure 1 were 6.49 and 5.51, respectively, while the chemical shifts of H (δ_H) in C₈–H and C₉–H of structure 2 were 5.78 and 4.71, respectively. There were significant changes in the H (δ_H) chemical shifts and ¹H peak style of C₈–H and C₉–H between structure 1 and structure 2, indicating that the formation of the conversion product affected the C₈–H and C₉–H double-linked carbon structure 1. We noticed that the H (δ_H) chemical shifts of structure 1 and structure 2 in C₁₈–H were 6.81 and 6.80 due to two oxygen atoms added to same carbon atom. If the –OH and –Cl groups, respectively, added to C-8 and C-9, the H (δ_H) chemical shift of structure 2 in C₈–H should also be similar

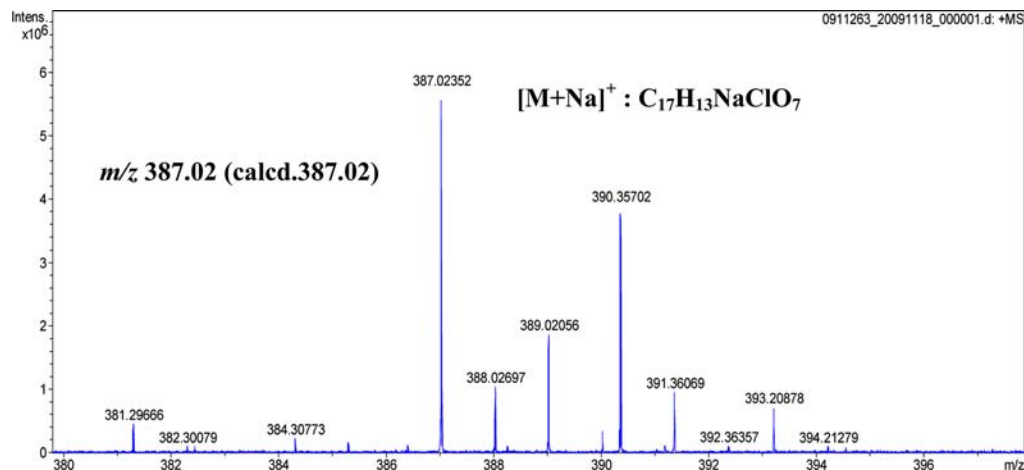


Figure 4. HR-FT-ICR-MS to analyze the structure of compound 1.

Table 1. ^1H NMR Data for Aflatoxin B_1 and Compound **1** (400 MHz)^a

atom no.	the chemical shift of H (δ_{H})	
	aflatoxin B_1 ^b	compound 1 ^c
2	3.40, m	3.52, m
3	2.67 (t, $J = 5.4$ Hz)	2.71 (t, $J = 5.7$ Hz)
5	6.45, s	6.64, s
8	6.49 (dd, $J = 2.7, 2.2$ Hz)	5.78, s
9	5.51 (dd, $J = 2.7, 2.2$ Hz)	4.71, s
18	6.81 (d, $J = 7.1$ Hz)	6.80 (d, $J = 6.1$ Hz)
19	4.77 (ddd, $J = 7.1, 2.7, 2.2$ Hz)	4.5 (d, $J = 6.1$ Hz)
23/25	3.95, s	4.01, s

^aThe atom no. in structures of aflatoxin B_1 and compound **1** according to Figure 5. Key: m, multiple peaks; ddd or t, triple peaks; dd, double peaks; s, single peak; and J , coupling constant. ^bSolvent CDCl_3 . ^cSolvent CD_3COCD_3 .

with the H (δ_{H}) chemical shift of structure **1** and structure **2** in $\text{C}_{18}\text{-H}$ due to two oxygen atom added to same carbon atom. However, the other H (δ_{H}) chemical shift of structure **2** in $\text{C}_8\text{-H}$ was significantly different from the H (δ_{H}) chemical shift in $\text{C}_{18}\text{-H}$, confirming that the -OH group was not bonded to the C-8 atom but to the C-9 atom. Thus, the -Cl and -OH groups were added to C-8 and C-9 , respectively. The results indicated that the conversion product structure **2** is 8-chloro-9-hydroxy-aflatoxin B_1 (compound **1**). The formation of chlorohydrins in compounds containing double bonds upon addition of hypochlorous acid is well-known from organic chemistry.³⁹ Winterbourn et al.^{40,41} also showed the formation of chlorohydrins in biological systems.

With respect to the toxicity, carcinogenicity, and biological metabolism of aflatoxin B_1 , recent studies strongly support the conversion of aflatoxin B_1 , a potent hepatocarcinogenic mycotoxin, to a highly reactive ultimate carcinogen, aflatoxin B_1 -8,9-oxide, in rat liver.^{42,43} The most conclusive evidence supports the formation of an RNA-aflatoxin adduct by microsomal oxidation of aflatoxin B_1 in the presence of RNA. Acid hydrolysis of the DNA- and RNA-bound derivatives of aflatoxin B_1 formed in vivo in the rat liver released a major portion of the bound aflatoxin B_1 as the dihydrodiol. The hepatocarcinogenicity of aflatoxin B_1 is greatly reduced when the 8,9-double bond is hydrogenated to yield AFB_2 . Aflatoxin B_1 has the strongest toxicity and carcinogenicity, followed by G_1 , with B_2 and G_2 being weaker. Aflatoxin B_1 was also the main constituent, followed by B_2 , G_1 , and G_2 . In our research, we found that the EOW was likely to attack the double bond between C_8 and C_9 . Aflatoxins B_1 and G_1 all contain the C-8

and C-9 double bond. We hypothesized that the -OH and -Cl groups were added to C-8 and C-9 of aflatoxin G_1 , respectively.

Aflatoxin B_1 8,9-epoxide is a strong candidate as the ultimate reactive and carcinogenic metabolite of aflatoxin B_1 . Goeger and Hsieh⁴⁴ reported that the mutagenicity of AFB_2 was 500 times less than that of aflatoxin B_1 , due to the lack of a double bond between C_8 and C_9 . For the same reason, the toxicity of aflatoxin G_2 was also less than that of aflatoxin G_1 . The toxicity of compound **1** was partially confirmed by the mutagenicity assay. Therefore, it is key to identify the stereostructure of compound **1** produced by EOW treatment of aflatoxin B_1 and its physical and chemical properties. It is also important to evaluate the structural conversion to aflatoxin B_1 that leads to the change in its toxicity, mutagenicity, and carcinogenicity and whether compound **1** can form the highly reactive ultimate carcinogen, aflatoxin B_1 -8,9-epoxide, via biological metabolism.

Physicochemical Properties of Compound 1. The results indicated that the conversion product compound **1** is more stable than the conversion product 8-hydroxy-9-chloro-aflatoxin B_1 . The lipid/water partition coefficient ($\text{Log } P$) of compound **1** is -0.06 ± 0.52 . These physicochemical characteristics also suggest that the molecular structure is amphiphilic, in contrast to fat-soluble aflatoxin B_1 . The loss of the double bond in the bisfuran ring of aflatoxin B_1 and the amphiphilic nature of compound **1** may not readily be transmitted across biomembranes.

In our studies, NEW and AcidEW eliminated the contamination of aflatoxin B_1 on food materials such as peanuts and corn, among others. However, the EOW-mediated decontamination of aflatoxin B_1 -contaminated materials may require more time than the elimination of pure aflatoxin B_1 , particularly in food materials with surface wrinkles and damage. Oomori et al.⁴⁵ documented that the effect of EOW could be reduced by the presence of organic materials, including proteins and amino acids. The active components of EOW (e.g., available chlorine, etc.) may react with organic materials and reduce the level of decontamination.⁴⁶ Treatment of the whole peanut may be less effective than that of the peanut kernel because toxins deposited inside whole kernels are less likely to be exposed to EOW treatment than toxins in small peanut particles, although this possibility remains under investigation.

Mutagenic Response of the *S. typhimurium* Test Strains TA-97, TA-98, TA-100, and TA-102 to Aflatoxin B_1 Treated with EOW. In the mutagenic response study, the observed numbers of natural revertants/plate of the bacterial strains TA-97, TA-98, TA-100, and TA-102 were approximately 127 ± 12 , 35 ± 4 , 135 ± 22 , and 242 ± 18 , respectively (DMSO, negative control). The response is considered mutagenic when an agent or a sample doubles the number of

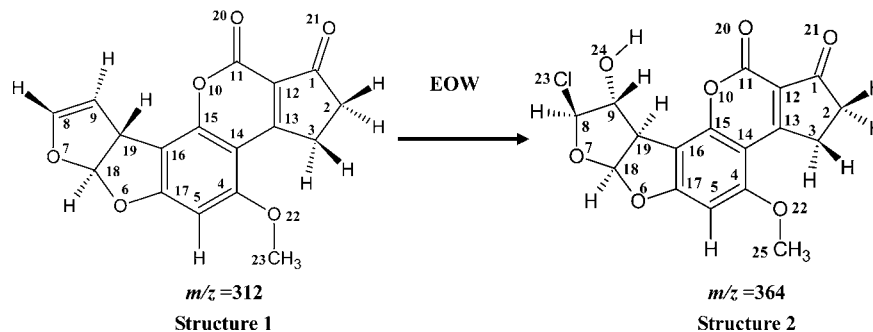
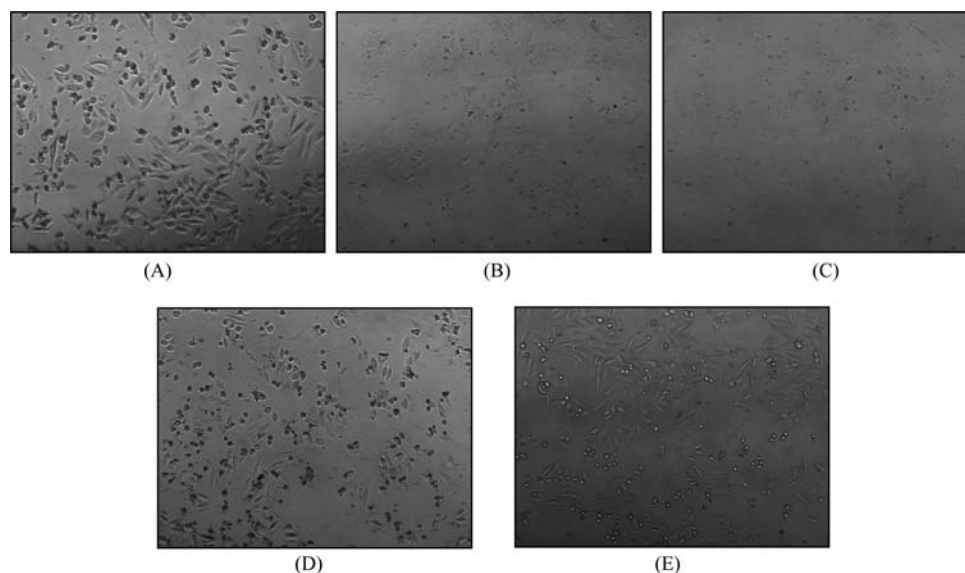
**Figure 5.** Structures of **1** and **2** formed with EOW.

Table 2. Mutagenic Response of *S. typhimurium* Test Strains TA-97, TA-98, TA-100, and TA-102 to Aflatoxin B₁ Treated with EOW

treatments	no. of revertants plate ⁻¹ mean ± standard deviation			
	TA-97	TA-98	TA-100	TA-102
negative control ^a	127 ± 12 d	35 ± 4 d	135 ± 22 d	242 ± 18 e
positive control ^b	1332 ± 187 b	104 ± 11 c	408 ± 11 c	448 ± 23 c
positive control ^c	2248 ± 147 a	496 ± 23 a	828 ± 79 a	832 ± 45 a
untreated extract ^d	936 ± 127 c	330 ± 42 b	504 ± 45 b	756 ± 85 b
AcidEW-treated extract ^e	300 ± 56 d	96 ± 13 c	162 ± 13 d	352 ± 15 d
NEW-treated extract ^f	166 ± 23 d	54 ± 3 d	100 ± 11 d	321 ± 23 d

^aDMSO. ^bAflatoxin B₁ at 50 ng/tube. ^cAflatoxin B₁ at 100 ng/tube. ^dTreated with TW. ^eTreated with AcidEW at ACC 1800 ng/tube. ^fTreated with NEW at ACC 1800 ng/tube. Means with same letter are not significantly different ($p < 0.05$).

**Figure 6.** Effect of different concentrations of aflatoxin B₁ and compound 1 on cell morphology. (A) Control, (B) aflatoxin B₁ (0.120 μM), (C) aflatoxin B₁ (1.20 μM), (D) compound 1 (0.120 μM), and (E) compound 1 (1.20 μM).

spontaneous or natural revertants/plate.⁴⁷ For these test strains treated with NEW, the ranges are 90–180, 30–50, 100–200, and 240–320 revertants/plate, respectively. It is clear that the spontaneous reversion values fall within the range of standard values. The mutagenicity assay demonstrated that the conversion product from peanuts treated with NEW did not exhibit mutagenic activity as compared with untreated aflatoxin B₁-contaminated peanut (Table 2).

For AcidEW, the bacterial strain reversion values of TA-97 and TA-98 were slightly higher than the standard values, while the reversion values of the other strains fell within the standard value range. AcidEW contains available chlorine main in the form of HOCl and Cl₂ gas. Dissolved chlorine (Cl₂) can induce some mutagenicity in the test strains. The NEW- and AcidEW-treated samples, which can reduce aflatoxin B₁ fluorescence almost completely, did not produce any more revertants than did the negative control (DMSO). These results showed that none of the decontaminated peanuts exhibited signs of mutagenicity against the *Salmonella* tester strains.

However, untreated aflatoxin B₁-contaminated samples (100 ng/tube approximately) exhibited mutagenic activity in the presence of rat liver S9 mix, as did the positive control at 50 and 100 ng/tube. With respect to the mutagenic response of the *S. typhimurium* tester strains TA-97, TA-98, TA-100, and TA-102 to aflatoxin B₁ treated with EOW, the possible effect of EOW treatment on the nutritional and organoleptic quality of

the peanut should be evaluated in future experiments. The mutagenic and toxicity response of compound 1 indicated that it has minor potential to induce a new safety risk from the contaminated peanut when aflatoxin B₁ is decontaminated with EOW.

Cytotoxic Effects of Compound 1 on Cell Growth, Viability, and Morphology of the HepG2 Cell Line. After the incubation (12–24 h) of cell suspensions with medium in the presence of different compound 1 and aflatoxin B₁ concentrations (0.006–1.20 μM) at 5% CO₂ and 37 °C, viability was assessed by the MTT assay at 570 nm. The data with the same concentrations of aflatoxin B₁ (0.006–1.20 μM) were compared. The polynomial dose–response curves of the tested compounds are programmed. The plot of cell viability (Y-scale) versus compound concentration (on a log₁₀ X-scale) was fit by a polynomial curve, and the IC₅₀ was determined. All curves have an R² greater than or equal to 0.95. Compound 1 was found to be less cytotoxic than aflatoxin B₁ after 48 h of exposure, even at the maximum compound 1 concentration of 1.20 μM. None of the test concentrations (0.006–1.20 μM) had any effects on the cell line when compared with the controls. The viability is 90–100% at 570 nm. The examined IC₅₀ value of compound 1 is near 150 mM. When cells were exposed to low concentrations of aflatoxin B₁ (0.006 μM, the safety limit in the European Union), their viability decreased to 70–80% at 570 nm. When cells were exposed to aflatoxin B₁

(0.120 μM), their viability diminished to 1–2% at 570 nm. The determined IC_{50} value of aflatoxin B_1 is less than 0.015 μM . The IC_{50} value of compound **1** is much greater than that of aflatoxin B_1 , 0.015 μM . Given its high IC_{50} value, compound **1** may be considered nontoxic.

The normal morphology of the HepG2 cell is visible in the control (Figure 6A). The cell grows adherently and has normal cell morphology, with sharp edges. Figure 6B shows HepG2 cells 48 h after the addition of a low concentration of aflatoxin B_1 as observed under an inverted microscope. As compared with the control shown in Figure 6A, the cell morphology changed markedly, including reduced cell size, loss of original morphology, a large amount of cell debris, and near death of the cell. The damage to the cell increased with high concentrations of aflatoxin B_1 . There are no surviving cells upon exposure to high concentrations of aflatoxin B_1 (1.20 μM) (Figure 6C). Compound **1** had little or no effect on the morphology of cells at low or high concentrations, as shown by the presence of regular morphology, sharp edges, no cell death, limited cell debris, and little reduction of cell size (Figure 6D,E). The mutagenic and toxicity response of compound **1** indicated that it has minor potential to induce a new safety risk in aflatoxin B_1 -contaminated peanuts decontaminated with EOW. Cell-based biological tests to assess the toxicity and mutagenicity of compound **1** support the feasibility of its application. However, this is an in vitro assay and hence limited in correlation with in vivo studies. Further animal toxicity studies are required to confirm the protective effect of EOW treatment against chronic aflatoxin B_1 toxicity, and this study demonstrates the prospects for using EOW to decontaminate aflatoxin B_1 in food and feed materials.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

■ Supporting Information

Highest occupied molecular orbital and lowest free molecular orbital of compound **1** (Figure S1), dose–response curves of compound **1** and aflatoxin B_1 cytotoxic response as tested with MTT assays analyzed at 570 nm (Figure S2), and physicochemical parameters of the different types of water (Table S1). This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

■ Corresponding Author

*Tel: +86-10-6273-6442. Fax: +86-10-6273-7331. E-mail: llt@cau.edu.cn.

■ Funding

This study was supported by NSFC (Natural Science Foundation of China), “Influence Factors and Reaction Mechanism of Aflatoxin B_1 Degradation by Electrolyzed Ion Water” (No. 31071553) and the Ministry of Science and Technology of the People's Republic of China (No. 2008GB23600457).

■ Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

■ ABBREVIATIONS USED

EOW, electrolyzed oxidizing waters; NEW, neutralized electrolyzed oxidizing water; AcidEW, acidic electrolyzed oxidizing water; AlkEW, alkaline electrolyzed oxidizing water; ACC, available chlorine concentration; ROS, reactive oxygen species; ORP, oxidation–reduction potential; $\bullet\text{OH}$, OH radical; DO, dissolved oxygen; EC, electrical conductivity

■ REFERENCES

- (1) International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC). Some naturally occurring substances: Food items and constituents, heterocyclic aromatic amines and mycotoxins. *IARC Monogr. Eval. Carcinog. Risks Hum.* **1993**, *56*, 245–395.
- (2) Boyacioglu, D.; Gonul, M. Survey of aflatoxin contamination of dried figs grown in Turkey in 1986. *Food Addit. Contam.* **1990**, *7*, 235–237.
- (3) Wilson, D. M.; Ryne, G. A. Factors affecting *Aspergillus flavus* group infection and aflatoxin contamination of crops. *The Toxicology of Aflatoxins*; Eaton, D. L., Groopman, J. D., Eds.; Academic Press Inc: San Diego, 1994; p 309.
- (4) Rustom, I. Y. S. Aflatoxin in food and feed, occurrence, legislation and inactivation by physical methods. *Food Chem.* **1997**, *59*, 57–67.
- (5) Njapau, H.; Muzungaile, E. M.; Changa, R. C. The effect of village processing techniques on the content of aflatoxins in corn and peanuts in Zambia. *J. Sci. Food Agric.* **1998**, *76*, 450–456.
- (6) Picco, M.; Nesci, A.; Barros, G.; Cavaglieri, L.; Etcheverry, M. Aflatoxin B_1 and fumosin B_1 in mixed cultures of *Aspergillus flavus* and *Fusarium proliferatum* on maize. *Nat. Toxins* **1999**, *7*, 331–336.
- (7) Bilotti, L. G.; Fernandez Pinto, V. E.; Vaamonde, G. Aflatoxin production in three selected samples of triticale, wheat and rye grown in Argentina. *J. Sci. Food Agric.* **2000**, *80*, 1981–1984.
- (8) Park, D. L.; Troxell, T. C. Perspective on mycotoxin regulatory issues. *Adv. Exp. Med. Biol.* **2002**, *504*, 227–285.
- (9) World Health Organization (WHO). Mycotoxins in African foods, implications to food safety and health. *AFRO Food Safety Newsletter. World Health Organization Food safety (FOS)*, 2006; <http://www.afro.who.int/des> (Accessed July, 2006).
- (10) Hagler, W. M.; Hutchins, J. E.; Hamilton, P. B. Destruction of aflatoxin B_1 with sodium bisulfate: Isolation of the major product aflatoxin B_1 . *J. Food Prot.* **1983**, *46*, 295–300.
- (11) Aman, I. Reduction of aflatoxin M_1 in milk using hydrogen peroxide and hydrogen peroxide plus heat treatment. *J. Vet. Med. Ser. B* **1992**, *39*, 692–694.
- (12) Farag, R. S.; Rashed, M. M.; Abo-Hgger, A. A. Aflatoxin destruction by microwave heating. *Int. J. Food. Sci. Nutr.* **1996**, *47*, 197–208.
- (13) Prudente, A. D.; King, J. M. Efficacy and safety evaluation of ozonation to degrade aflatoxin in corn. *J. Food Sci.* **2002**, *67*, 2866–2872.
- (14) Spotti, M.; Fracchiolla, M. L.; Arioli, F.; Caloni, F.; Pompa, G. Aflatoxin B_1 binding to sorbents in bovine ruminal fluid. *Vet. Res. Commun.* **2005**, *29*, 507–515.
- (15) Horie, M.; Nakazawa, H. Analysis of residual chemicals in food. *Bunseki. Kagaku.* **1996**, *45*, 279–308.
- (16) Nishijima, M. Scientific research related to food additives and residual chemicals in foods based on environmental hygiene chemistry. *J. Food Hyg. Soc. Jpn.* **2000**, *41*, 264–266.
- (17) Chonan, T. Studies on improved analysis methods of residual chemical compounds in foods. *J. Food Hyg. Soc. Jpn.* **2003**, *44*, 270–272.
- (18) Xiong, K.; Liu, H. J.; Liu, R.; Li, L. T. Differences in fungicidal efficiency against *Aspergillus flavus* for neutralized and acidic electrolyzed oxidizing waters. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* **2010**, *137*, 67–75.
- (19) Landa, S. C.; González, E. B.; Guzmán, S.M.; Snyder, G.; Reyes, T. K.; Torres, A. A. Gutierrez. MicrocynTM, a novel super-oxidized water with neutral pH and disinfectant activity. *J. Hosp. Infect.* **2005**, *61*, 291–299.
- (20) Guentzel, J. L.; Lam, K. L.; Callan, M. A.; Emmons, S. A.; Dunham, V. L. Reduction of bacteria on spinach, lettuce, and surfaces in food service areas using neutral electrolyzed oxidizing water. *Food Microbiol.* **2008**, *25*, 36–41.
- (21) Abadias, M.; Usall, J.; Márcia, O.; Alegre, I.; Inmaculada, V. Efficacy of neutral electrolyzed water (NEW) for reducing microbial contamination on minimally-processed vegetables. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* **2008**, *123*, 151–158.

- (22) Klich, M. A. *Identification of Common Aspergillus Species*, 1st ed.; Kurtzman, C. P., Fell, J. W., Eds.; Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures: Utrecht, Netherlands, 2002; p 122.
- (23) Buck, J. W.; Ierse, M. W.; Oetting, R. D.; Hung, Y. C. In-vitro fungicidal activity of acidic electrolyzed oxidizing water. *Plant Dis.* **2002**, *86*, 278–281.
- (24) Anonymous. AOAC Official Method 959.08. Paralytic Shellfish Poison. Biological method. *AOAC Official Methods for Analysis*, 18th ed., Natural Toxins; Truckses, M. W., Eds.; AOAC International: Gaithersburg, MD, 2005; pp 79–80.
- (25) Maron, D. M.; Ames, B. N. Revised methods for the *Salmonella* mutagenicity test. *Mutat. Res.* **1983**, *113*, 173–215.
- (26) Hassan, R. M. Evaluation of cytotoxic effect of zinc on raji cell-line by MTT Assay. *Iran. J. Toxicol.* **2011**, *4*, 390–396.
- (27) Juan, C.; Zinedine, A.; Moltó, J., C.; Idrissi, L.; Mañes, J. Aflatoxins levels in dried fruits and nuts from Rabat-Salé area Morocco. *Food Control.* **2008**, *19*, 849–853.
- (28) Haydar, M.; Benelli, L.; Brera, C. Occurrence of aflatoxins in Syrian foods and foodstuffs: A preliminary study. *Food Chem.* **1990**, *37*, 261–268.
- (29) Mphande, F. A.; Siame, B. A.; Taylor, J. E. Fungi, aflatoxins, and cyclopiazonic acid associated with peanut retailing in Botswana. *J. Food Prot.* **2004**, *67*, 96–102.
- (30) Wang, J.; Liu, X. M. Surveillance on contamination of total aflatoxins in corn, peanut, rice, walnut and pine nut in several areas in China. *Chin. J. Prev. Vet. Med.* **2006**, *4*, 33–37.
- (31) Beuchat, L. R.; Nail, B. V.; Adler, B. B.; Clavero, M. R. S. Efficacy of spray application of chlorine in killing pathogenic bacteria on raw apples, tomatoes, and lettuce. *J. Food Prot.* **1998**, *61*, 1305–1311.
- (32) Duvick, J. Prospects for reducing fumonisin contamination of corn through genetic modification. *Environ. Health Perspect.* **2001**, *109*, 337–342.
- (33) Higa, A.; Kimura, M.; Mimori, K.; Ochiai-Fukuda, T.; Tokai, T.; Takahashi-Ando, N.; Nishuichi, T.; Igawa, T.; Fujimura, M.; Hamamoto, H.; Usami, R.; Yamaguchi, I. Expression in cereal plants of genes that inactivate *Fusarium* mycotoxins. *Biosci., Biotechnol., Biochem.* **2003**, *67*, 914–918.
- (34) Cleveland, T. E.; Dowd, P. F.; Desjardins, A. E.; Bhatnagar, D.; Cotty, P. J. United States Department of Agriculture-Agricultural Research Service research on pre-harvest prevention of mycotoxins and mycotoxigenic fungi in US crops. *Pest Manage. Sci.* **2003**, *59*, 629–642.
- (35) Trenholm, H. L.; Prelusky, D. B.; Young, J. C.; Miller, J. D. A practical guide the prevention of *Fusarium* mycotoxin in grain and animal feedstuffs. *Arch. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* **1988**, *18*, 443–451.
- (36) Zalka, L. L.; Buchanan, R. L. Review of compounds affecting the biosynthesis or bioregulation of aflatoxins. *J. Food Prot.* **1987**, *50*, 691–708.
- (37) Rodriguez, S. B.; Mahoney, N. E. Inhibition of aflatoxin production by surfactants. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **1994**, *60*, 106–110.
- (38) Len, S. V.; Hung, Y. C.; Erickson, M. C.; Kim, C. Ultraviolet spectrophotometric characterizations and bacterial properties of electrolyzed oxidizing water as influenced by amperage and pH. *J. Food Prot.* **2000**, *63*, 1534–1537.
- (39) Arnhold, J.; Panasenko, O. M.; Schiller, J.; Vladimirov, Y.; Arnold, K. The action of hypochlorous acid on phosphatidylcholine liposomes in dependence on the content of double bonds. Stoichiometry and NMR analysis. *Chem. Phys. Lipids* **1995**, *78*, 55–64.
- (40) Winterbourn, C. C.; Van den berg, J. J. M.; Roitman, E.; Kuypers, F. A. Chlorohydrin formation from unsaturated fatty acids reacted with hypochlorous acid. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* **1992**, *296*, 547–555.
- (41) Van den berg, J. J. M.; Winterbourn, C. C.; Kuypers, F. A. Hypochlorous acid-mediated oxidation of cholesterol and phospholipid: analysis of reaction products by gas chromatography mass spectrometry. *J. Lipid Res.* **1993**, *34*, 2005–2012.
- (42) Goeger, D. E.; Hsie, A. W.; Anderson, K. E. Co-mutagenicity of coumarin (1, 2-benzopyrone) with aflatoxin B₁ and human liver S9 in mammalian cells. *Food Chem. Toxicol.* **1999**, *37*, 581–589.
- (43) Woo, L. L.; Egner, P. A.; Belanger, C. L.; Wattanawaraporn, R.; Trudel, L. J.; Croy, R. G.; Groopman, J. D.; Essigmann, J. M.; Wogan, G. N. Aflatoxin B₁-DNA adduct formation and mutagenicity in livers of neonatal female B6C3F1 mice. *Toxicol. Sci.* **2011**, *122*, 38–44.
- (44) Robert, R. M.; Paterson, N. L. Toxicology of mycotoxins. *Mol. Clin. Environ. Toxicol.* **2010**, *100*, 31–63.
- (45) Oomori, T.; Oka, T.; Inuta, T.; Arata, Y. The efficiency of disinfection of acidic electrolyzed water in the presence of organic materials. *Anal. Sci.* **2000**, *16*, 465–469.
- (46) White, G. C. *Handbook of Chlorination Alternative Disinfectants*, 3rd ed.; Van Nostrand Reinhold International: New York, 1992; pp 184–240.
- (47) Kim, B. S.; Margolin, B. H. Prediction of rodent carcinogenicity utilizing a battery of in vitro and in vivo genotoxicity tests. *Environ. Mol. Mutagen.* **1999**, *34*, 297–304.