

Fluoride-Induced Hypercholesterolemia Could Be Protective In Fluorosis: High Cholesterol Attenuates Fluoride Toxicity In *In Vitro* and *In Vivo* Assays

Alpha Raj M^{1*}, Adilaxmamma K¹, Muralidhar Y¹, Nissi Priya M², Sirisha P³

¹Department of Pharmacology & Toxicology, College of Veterinary Science, Proddatur-516 360(A.P) India

²Department of Microbiology, Kurnool Medical College, Kurnool – 518 002 (A.P) India

³Division of Pathology, Veterinary Biological Research Institute, Hyderabad – 500 030 (T.S) India

Available Online: 7th July, 2015

ABSTRACT

Hypercholesterolemia is a consistent finding in fluorosis. The implications of fluoride-induced hypercholesterolemia are not known. In this study, we investigated the effect of high cholesterol on fluoride toxicity in *in vitro* and *in vivo* models. *In vitro* MTT cytotoxicity was carried out on mouse spleenocytes exposed to fluoride (3.75, 7.5, 15 and 30 μ M) either in the presence (250 or 500 μ M) or absence of cholesterol. Acute oral toxicity was carried out in normal and triton wr-1339 (200mg/Kg *i.p*) induced hypercholesterolemic rats using up and down procedure (OECD 425 guidelines) assisted by AOT 425 software. Cholesterol effectively countered the cytotoxicity of fluoride. The half maximal inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀) of fluoride in 250 μ M cholesterol (190.23x10³ ppm) and 500 μ M cholesterol (459.95x10³ ppm) was significantly (P<0.05) elevated compared to control (0.052 ppm). Triton WR-1339 induced significant (P<0.05) hypercholesterolemia (222.44±13.55 mg/dL) compared to control (51.92 ± 8.68 mg/dL). In acute oral toxicity test, the LD₅₀ in hypercholesterolemic group was (170.20 mg/kg; 95% CL: 164.00-290.00) significantly (P<0.05) higher than control group (92.00 mg/kg; 95% CL: 54.07-480.00). It is concluded that fluoride induced hypercholesterolemia is a protective response against fluoride toxicity.

Key Words: Fluoride, Median lethal dose, Cholesterol, Triton WR 1339, Inhibitory concentration

INTRODUCTION

Fluorosis is a major worldwide problem affecting both human and animal life. In India, fluorosis is endemic in 17 states with an estimated 66 million people at risk and 6 million people seriously affected¹. In some countries like UK, fluoridation of water and many products to improve oral hygiene has resulted in increased exposure to fluoride². Fluoride enters the body mainly through water and excessive fluoride results in fluorosis characterized mottling of teeth, osteoporosis, osteosclerosis and physical deformities³.

High amounts of fluoride also causes metabolic disorders such as hyperglycemia^{4, 5}, oxidative stress⁶⁻⁸ and hypercholesterolemia^{9, 10}. Hypercholesterolemia is a consistent finding in fluorosis in both humans and animals^{8, 11-14}. Such an increase in cholesterol (elevated HDL cholesterol) was also observed in cadmium toxicity in chicken¹⁵. In case of fluoride, there is an increase in the influx of cholesterol into macrophages via scavenger CD36 receptor¹⁶. Further, cholesterol also accumulates in significant quantities, in erythrocyte membrane^{17, 18}. The physiological implications of hypercholesterolemia in fluorosis are hitherto not investigated. Hence, in this study, we investigated the toxicity of fluoride in the

presence of high cholesterol in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* assays.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Chemicals

Water soluble cholesterol and Triton WR 1339 (Sigma, St. Louis, USA); Sodium fluoride (Merck, Mumbai, India); RPMI-1640 medium (with HEPES and 2mM glutamine), Foetal calf serum, (3-(4, 5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2, 5-Diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) (Hi-Media, Mumbai, India). All other chemicals used in this study were of analytical grade.

In vitro cytotoxicity assay

MTT assay for fluoride was carried out in mouse spleenocyte model¹⁹. Briefly, 100 μ L of mouse spleenocytes (cell density 1x10⁷ and cell viability more than 90 %) were incubated with serial dilutions of sodium fluoride (30 μ M, 15 μ M, 7.5 μ M and 3.75 μ M fluoride) with and without added cholesterol (250 or 500 μ M) in a micro titer plate. All the concentrations were maintained in triplicates with appropriate cell controls. The plate was incubated at 37°C in 5 % CO₂ incubator for 24h. 10 μ L of MTT was added to all the wells four hours prior to completion of incubation. The plate was centrifuged at 1200 g for 10 min and the supernatant was discarded.

Later, 100 μ L of DMSO was added to dissolve the formazan formed. The absorbance was read at 530 nm after 10 min with an ELISA reader.

Cell viability (%) = Absorbance of test well x 100 / Absorbance of cell control well

Determination of half maximal inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀)

Probit analysis was used for the determination of IC₅₀. The percent survivability in cytotoxicity assay was converted to probits and plotted against corresponding log₁₀ concentration of fluoride. Regression analysis was used to find the best-fit equation. IC₅₀ was determined from the regression equation as follows

Half maximal inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀) = (5-Y-intercept) / (Coefficient)

Animals

A total of 15 female Wistar albino rats of 150-170 g were housed at 24 \pm 1° C with 12 h light and dark cycle. The rats were maintained on standard pellet diet supplied by Hindustan Lever Ltd, India and *ad libitum* water. Permission was obtained from institutional animal ethics committee prior to the experiment.

Induction of hypercholesterolemia

Hypercholesterolemia was induced by injecting Triton WR 1339 @ 200 mg/Kg *i.p* after 18 h of fasting¹⁸. The control group animals were similarly fasted and were administered normal saline. After 12 h of injection, blood was collected from both the animals from tail vein and serum was separated. Serum cholesterol was determined using standard kits supplied by Span Diagnostics Pvt Ltd, Gujarat.

Acute oral toxicity testing

The oral LD₅₀ of fluoride was determined using Up and Down procedure (UDP) (OECD guideline 425)^{19, 20} in both control and hypercholesterolemic animals. Each animal was administered a dose of sodium fluoride, dissolved in distilled water, as suggested by Acute Oral Toxicity (AOT) 425 software²¹. After each dosing, the animals were observed for a period of 48 h. If the animal died during the observation period, subsequent animal is dosed next progressively lower dose and if the animal survived, the next animal was dosed next progressively higher dose. The experiment is continued until the stopping criteria are met as determined by the software.

Statistical Analysis

The data of serum cholesterol was presented as mean \pm standard error. Median lethal dose and lethal concentrations were presented as values with 95% confidence intervals (CI). The equality of means of serum cholesterol was tested by student's t-test. Half maximal inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀) and median lethal dose (LD₅₀) were determined by probit analysis. The statistical difference between the IC₅₀ and LD₅₀ values was compared by ratio method as described earlier²². Lethal dose or inhibitory concentration ratio was considered significant based on failure of the 95% CI of the ratio to bracket the value 1. Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS 19.0 V IBM, Illinois, Chicago) was used for the analysis. The level of significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

RESULTS

In vitro cytotoxicity assay

The survivability of spleenocytes decreased with progressive increase in fluoride concentration (IC₅₀ = 0.052ppm). Addition of cholesterol significantly ($P < 0.05$) increased the survivability of the spleenocytes in the presence of fluoride. In the presence of cholesterol, at 250 μ M concentration (IC₅₀ = 190.23 x 10³ ppm) and at 500 μ M concentration (IC₅₀ = 459.95 x 10³ ppm) the IC₅₀ was significantly elevated compared to control (Fig 1).

Acute oral toxicity

Administration of triton WR 1339 significantly ($p < 0.05$) increased serum cholesterol concentration (222.44 \pm 13.55 mg/dL) compared to control rats (51.92 \pm 8.68 mg/dL) animals. The Up and Down procedure assisted by AOT software determined the oral LD₅₀ of sodium fluoride in normal rats as 92.00 mg/kg (54.07 – 480.00). In hypercholesterolemic rats, there was significant ($P < 0.05$) elevation of oral LD₅₀ (170.20 mg/kg; CI: 164.00 – 290.00) compared to control group (Table 1).

DISCUSSION

Fluoride is highly reactive and easily crosses cell membrane in the form of hydrofluoric acid by passive nonionic diffusion²³. After entering the cell, fluoride affects cellular metabolism and physiology depending on the cell type, concentration, and time of exposure⁷. Fluoride can induce inflammation, cell contraction, inhibit protein synthesis and cell cycle progression, oxidative stress, and DNA damage⁷. Fluoride is toxic to several in vitro and in vivo systems. Spermatozoa incubated with 250 μ M of fluoride showed a significant decline in motility, glutathione level and altered lysosomal activity²⁴. Sodium fluoride caused cell arrest from S to G2/M stage and inhibited the activities of 5'-nucleotidase, succinate dehydrogenase and acyl-carrier-protein phosphodiesterase in rat cerebral cortex astrocytes²⁵. Fluoride is also cytotoxic to cultured human pulp cells and inhibits cell growth, proliferation, mitochondrial activity and protein synthesis²⁶. Fluoride induced apoptotic was reported in several organs like lungs, kidneys, liver, brain, bone marrow, erythrocytes⁷.

MTT assay measures living cells, which convert colorless MTT into a colored formazan through mitochondrial reduction²⁷. This assay is successfully employed to assess the cytotoxicity of variety of compounds²⁸⁻³⁰. Fluoride in a dose dependent fashion decreased the survivability of spleenocytes in MTT assay. The addition of cholesterol at 250 and 500 μ M significantly attenuated the cytotoxicity of fluoride. In earlier works, enrichment of media with cholesterol increased the resistance of PC12 cells to the cytotoxicity of amylin peptides (A β P: 1-40; 1-42)³¹. Similarly, high cholesterol in acute myeloid leukemia cells prevented the cytotoxicity of chemotherapy³². In the above studies, the protective effect diminished upon depleting cholesterol from plasma membrane.

In this study, UDP was used to determine the median lethal dose of sodium fluoride in normal and hypercholesterolemic rats. UDP is a stepwise procedure,

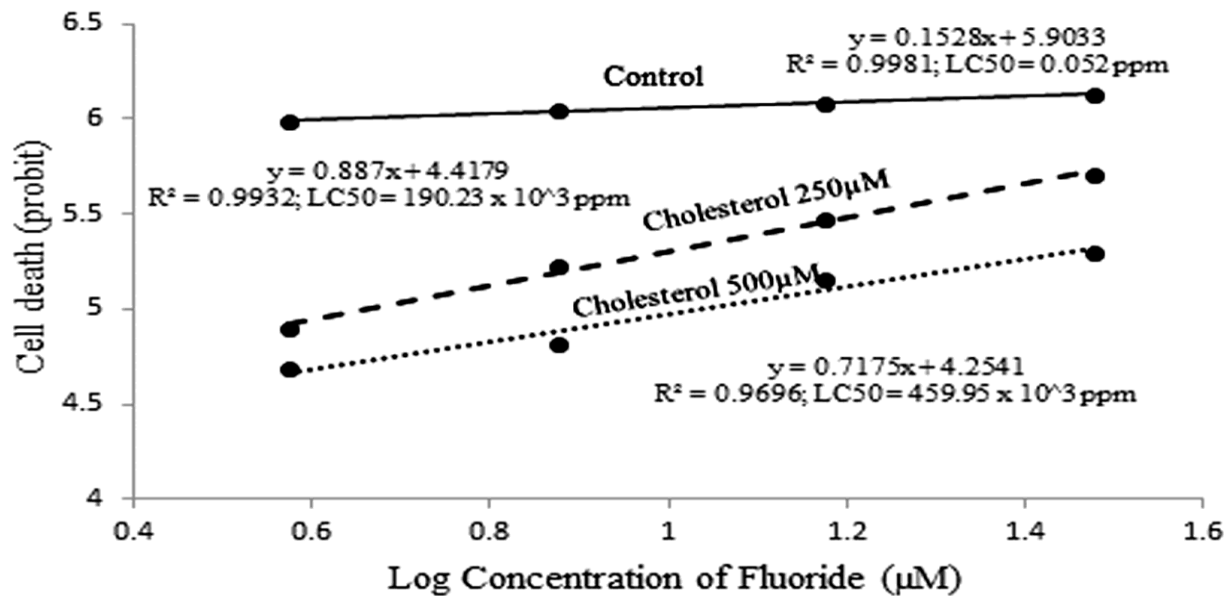


Figure 1: Half maximal inhibitory concentration (IC_{50}) of fluoride in the presence (250 and 500 μ M) and absence of cholesterol

Table 1: Median Lethal Dose of Sodium Fluoride (LD_{50} mg/kg) in normal and hypercholesterolemic rats

Group	No. of Rats	Body weight (g)	Serum Cholesterol (mg %)	Median lethal dose (Oral LD_{50}) (mg/kg)
1. Control	N = 6	158.56 \pm 21.15	51.92 \pm 8.68	92.00 (54.07 – 480.00)
2. Triton	N= 9	153.33 \pm 15.28	222.44 \pm 13.55**	170.20(164.00 – 290.00)*

Values are Mean \pm S.D ; Student's t-test assuming unequal variance using SPSS Software 19.0 (V); LD_{50} values (95% Confidence Intervals); Median lethal dose was determined using AOT software

* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$

in which individual animals are progressively dosed depending on the outcome from previous animal. The doses are generally increased or decreased by a factor of 3.2. This process continues until there is a reversal of the initial outcome (i.e., the point where an increasing dose results in death rather than survival, or decreasing dose results in survival rather than death). Further, additional animals are dosed until a stopping criterion is achieved or if selected upper (2000 or 5000 mg/kg) limit dose is reached³³. This method has the advantages of using single animals of one sex and species (usually female rodents) with an average number of animals used between 6 to 9 and expected deaths between 2 to 3. Further, this procedure provides a point-estimate of LD_{50} with confidence intervals which helps in classifying the chemical according to Globally Harmonized System (GHS). The 95% confidence interval for the LD_{50} are $\pm 32\%$ in UDP using 6 to 9 animals, compared to $\pm 15\%$ in conventional studies using 40 to 50 animals¹⁹.

The LD_{50} of sodium fluoride obtained by UDP in control group was 92.00 mg/kg (54.07 – 480.00), which is agreement with the previous reported value of 52mg/kg (43.16 - 60.84) for oral route³⁴. Large doses of soluble fluoride forms corrosive hydrofluoric acid, which interferes with ion gradients in excitable cells, and/or precipitates divalent cations in serum and interferes with various enzymes. The symptoms of acute fluorosis are generally manifested as gastroenteritis, cardiac

arrhythmias, and collapse³⁵. Further, the inhibitory effect on cholinesterase is also associated with the toxic effects of fluoride³⁶. In addition, fluoride is also reported to interfere with cellular respiration, generation of reactive oxygen species, apoptosis and interference with transport proteins of calcium, phosphate, glucose, Na-K ATPase^{37, 38}.

Hypercholesterolemia induced by Triton WR-1339 is a result of inhibition of endothelial lipase - in the initial period of injection (up to 3 h)- and due to increased hepatic synthesis by stimulating HMG-CoA reductase activity- in the later (from 9-12 h) period^{39, 40}. The blocking of uptake of lipoproteins by extrahepatic tissues also contributes to increased cholesterol in blood^{39,41,42}. In the hypercholesterolemic group, there was a significant elevation of oral LD_{50} (170.20 mg/kg; CI: 164.00 – 290.00) compared to 92.00 mg/kg (CI: 54.07 – 480.00) control group. Elevation of LD_{50} of fluoride in hypercholesterolemic group indicates protective effect of cholesterol against fluoride toxicity. Cholesterol is an antioxidant⁴³ and cholesterol derivatives such as glucocorticoids, testosterone, progesterone, and estrogen can act as free radical scavengers⁴⁴. Hence, it is possible for high cholesterol to prevent fluoride induced oxidative stress and therefore prevent damage. In previous reports, induced-hypercholesterolemia offered significant protection against infection⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷, neutralized *Staphylococcus aureus* α toxin⁴⁸, inhibited endotoxin

mediated cytokine release^{49,50} and improved the survivability of rats injected with endotoxin^{51,52}. In conclusion, high cholesterol attenuated fluoride toxicity in both in vitro and in vivo systems. Hence, fluoride induced hypercholesterolemia could be a protective response against fluoride toxicity. The antioxidant and free radical scavenging properties of cholesterol might be responsible for protection against fluoride-induced free radical damage. However, further studies are required to corroborate and substantiate the present findings.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests with respect to this research work.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to express deepest appreciation to Dr. Aswani Kumar, Head of Veterinary Biochemistry for technical support during the research work.

REFERENCES

- Bawaskar HS, Bawaskar PH. Endemic fluorosis in an isolated village in western Maharashtra, India. *Tropical Doctor* 2006; 36: 221-23.
- McDonagh MS, Whiting PF, Wilson PM, et al. Systematic review of water fluoridation. *British Medical Journal* 2000; 321: 855.
- Whitford GM, Pashley DH, Reynolds KE. Fluoride tissue distribution: short-term kinetics. *American Journal of Physiology* 1979; 236: F141-8.
- Vasant RA, Dhruvign RK, Krutika LB, et al. Therapeutic benefits of glibenclamide in fluoride intoxicated diabetic rats. *Fluoride* 2010; 43:141-9.
- Garcia-Montalvo EA, Reyes-Perez H, Del-Razo LM. Fluoride exposure impairs glucose tolerance via decreased insulin expression and oxidative stress. *Toxicology* 2009; 263: 75-83.
- Vasant RA, Narasimhacharya AVRL. Ameliorative effect of tamarind leaf on fluoride-induced metabolic alterations. *Environmental Health Preventive Medicine* 2012; 17:484-93.
- Barbier O, Arreola-Mendoza L, Del Razo LM. Molecular mechanisms of fluoride toxicity. *Chemico-Biological Interactions* 2010; 188: 319-33.
- Czerny BA, Put A, Mysliwiec Z, et al. The influence of quercetin on some biochemical parameters in rats exposed to environmental contamination with fluorine compounds. *Polish Journal of Environmental Studies* 2000; 9: 157-61.
- Strunecka A, Patocka J, Blaylock RL, et al. Fluoride interactions: from molecules to disease. *Current Signal Transduction Therapy* 2007; 2:190-213.
- Afolabi OK, Oyewo EB, Adekunle AS, et al. Oxidative indices correlate with dyslipidemia and pro-inflammatory cytokine levels in fluoride-exposed rats. *Arhiv Za Higijenu Rada I Toksikologiju* 2013; 64: 521-29.
- Grucka-Mamczar E, Birkner E, Kasperczyk S, et al. Lipid balance in rats with fluoride-induced hyperglycemia. *Fluoride* 2004; 37:195-200.
- Karn SS, Pandavadara SB, Vasant RA, et al. Lovastatin improves fluoride-induced hypercholesterolemia in albino rats. *Fluoride* 2014; 47: 69-77.
- Raj MA, Reddy AG, Reddy AR, et al. Effect of Dietary Vanaspati Alone and in Combination with Stressors on Sero-biochemical Profile and Immunity in White Leghorn Layers. *Toxicology International* 2011; 18:31-34.
- Gutowska I, Baranowska-Bosiacka I, Siennicka A, et al. Fluoride effects on cholesterol influx and expression of the scavenger CD36 in THP1 differentiated monocyte/macrophage cells. *Fluoride* 2011; 44: 135-42.
- Sashi A, Meenakshi G. Clinical study of lipid monains in erythrocyte membrane in chronic fluorosis. *International Journal of Basic and Applied Medical Sciences* 2014; 4:152-62.
- Kumari DS, Rao PR. Red cell membrane alterations in human chronic fluoride toxicity. *Biochemistry Research International* 1991; 23: 639-48.
- Mosmann T. Rapid colorimetric assay for cellular growth and survival: application to proliferation and cytotoxicity assays. *Journal of Immunological Methods* 1983; 65: 55-63.
- Vogel GH. Drug discovery and evaluation: Pharmacological assays. Edn 2, Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg, Germany, 2002.
- Bruce RD. An Up-and-Down Procedure for Acute Toxicity Testing. *Fundamentals of Applied Toxicology* 1985; 5:151-7.
- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. Testing Regulations and Guidelines: Document on Acute Oral Toxicity, Acute Oral Toxicity-Up-And-Down Procedure, Environmental Health and Safety Monograph Series on Testing and Assessment No. 425", Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, France, 2006.
- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. Acute Oral Toxicity (OECD Test Guideline 425) Statistical Programme (AOT 425 StatPgm), Version: 1.0, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, France, 2001.
- Robertson JH, Preisler HK, Ng SS, et al. Natural variation: a complicating factor in bioassays with chemical and microbial pesticides. *Journal of Economic Entomology* 1995; 88:1-10.
- Whitford GM. Intake and metabolism of fluoride. *Advances in Dental Research* 1994; 8: 5-14.
- Chinoy NJ, Narayana MV. In vitro fluoride toxicity in human spermatozoa. *Reproductive Toxicology* 1994; 8:155-9.
- Li H, Huang H, Xu Y, et al. Toxic effects of fluoride on rat cerebral cortex astrocytes in vitro. *Wei Sheng Yan Jiu* 2010; 39: 86-8.
- Chang YC, Chou MY. Cytotoxicity of fluoride on human pulp cell cultures in vitro. *Oral Surgery, Oral*

- Medicine, Oral Pathology, Oral Radiology and Endodontics 2001; 91:230-4.
27. van Meerloo J, Kaspers GJ, Cloos J. Cell sensitivity assays: MTT assay. *Methods in Microbiology* 2011; 731: 237-45.
 28. Jahan A, Raj MA, Reddy NA, et al. Low doses of thiourea and thiomersal induces hormetic cell proliferation cytotoxicity assay. *Haryana Veterinarian* 2014; 53: 110-112.
 29. Kumar TVC, Muralidhar Y, Prasad PE, et al. Evaluation of therapeutic potential of nanosilver particles synthesized using aloin in experimental murine mastitis model. *IET Nanobiotechnology* 2013; 7: 78-82.
 30. Kumar TVC, Prasad TNVKV, Adilaxmamma K, et al. Novel synthesis of nanosilver particles using plant active principle aloin and evaluation of their cytotoxic effect against *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Disease* 2014; 4: S92-96.
 31. Arispe N, Doh M. Plasma membrane cholesterol controls the cytotoxicity of Alzheimer's disease A β P (1-40) and (1-42) peptides. *The FASEB Journal* 2002; 16:1526-36.
 32. Banker DE, Mayer SJ, Li YH, et al. Cholesterol synthesis and import contribute to protective increments in acute myeloid leukemia cells. *Blood* 2004; 104: 1816-24.
 33. Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. OECD Environment, Health and Safety Publications :Series on Testing and Assessment: Guidance Document on Acute Oral Toxicity Testing No 24, Environment Directorate - Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, France, 2001.
 34. de Lopez OH, Smith FA, Hodge HC. Plasma fluoride concentrations in rats acutely poisoned with sodium fluoride. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology* 1976; 37:75-83.
 35. Dybing O, Loe LV. Fluoride Poisoning and Cholinesterases in Rats. *Acta Pharmacologica et Toxicologica* 1956; 12:364-8.
 36. Cimasoni G. Inhibition of cholinesterases by fluoride in vitro. *Journal of Biochemistry* 1966; 99: 133-7.
 37. Barbier O, Arreola-Mendoza L, Del Razo LM. Molecular mechanisms of fluoride toxicity. *Chemico-Biological Interactions* 2010; 188: 319-33.
 38. Vinita A, Gupta RC, Gupta SK, et al. Oxidative Stress In Cases Of Chronic Fluoride Intoxication. *Indian Journal of Clinical Biochemistry* 2009; 24: 426-9.
 39. Schurr PE, Schultz JR, Parkinson TM. Triton induced hyperlipidemia in rats as an animal model for screening of hypolipidemic drugs. *Lipids* 1972; 7: 68-74.
 40. Janicki BS, Aron SA. Effect of Triton WR 1339 on lipoproteins and lipoprotein lipase of guinea pig plasma. *Proceedings of the Society for Experimental Biology and Medicine* 1962; 109: 507-9.
 41. Harnafi H, Caid HS, Bouanani NH, et al. Hypolipemic activity of polyphenol-rich extracts from *Ocimum basilicum* in Triton WR-1339-induced hyperlipidemic mice. *Food Chemistry* 2008; 108: 205-12.
 42. Xie W, Wang W, Su H, et al. Hypolipidemic mechanisms of *Ananas comosus* L. leaves in mice: different from fibrates but similar to statins. *Journal of Pharmacological Sciences* 2007; 103: 267-74.
 43. Smith LL. Another cholesterol hypothesis: cholesterol as antioxidant. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine* 1991; 11: 47-61.
 44. Seligman ML, Mitamura J, Shera N, et al. Corticosteroid (methylprednisolone) modulation of photoperoxidation by ultraviolet light in liposomes. *Photochemistry and Photobiology* 1979; 29:549-58.
 45. Jacobs D, Blackburn H, Higgins M, et al. Report of the conference on low blood cholesterol: Mortality associations. *Circulation* 1992; 86:1046-60.
 46. Iribarren C, Jr Jacobs DR, Sidney S, et al. Serum total cholesterol and risk of hospitalization, and death from respiratory disease. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 1997; 26: 1191-202.
 47. Iribarren C, Jr Jacobs DR, Sidney S, et al. Cohort study of serum total cholesterol and in-hospital incidence of infectious diseases. *Epidemiology and Infection* 1998; 121:335-47.
 48. Bhakdi S, Tranum-Jensen J, Utermann G, et al. Binding and partial inactivation of *Staphylococcus aureus* α -toxin by human plasma low density lipoprotein. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 1983; 258: 5899-904.
 49. Flegel WA, Baumstark MW, Weinstock C, et al. Inhibition of endotoxin-induced activation of human monocytes by human lipoproteins. *Infection and Immunity* 1989; 57: 2237-45.
 50. Weinstock CW, Ullrich H, Hohe R, et al. Low density lipoproteins inhibit endotoxin activation of monocytes. *J Arteriosclerosis and Thrombosis* 1992; 12: 341-7.
 51. Feingold KR, Funk JL, Moser AH, et al. Role for circulating lipoproteins in protection from endotoxin toxicity. *Infection and Immunity* 1995; 63:2041-6.
 52. Netea MG, Demacker PNM, Kullberg BJ, et al. Low-density lipoprotein receptor-deficient mice are protected against lethal endotoxemia and severe gram-negative infections. *Journal of Clinical Investigation* 1996; 97: 1366-72.