

Cemalettin AYBAY¹
Gülnur TARHAN²
Turgut İMİR¹
Başak KAYHAN¹

The Effect of Diphtheria Toxin on Nitric Oxide Induction From RAW264.7 Murine Macrophages

Received: February 24, 1997

Abstract: In this study the effect of diphtheria toxin (DT) on nitric oxide (NO) production from RAW 264.7 murine macrophages was investigated. Griess reagent was used to determine NO production by measuring nitrite levels in the culture supernatants. *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* G12/6 strain-produced DT (Limes flocculation activity and immunodiffusion assays were positive) demonstrated a dose-dependent effect on RAW 264.7 macrophages to induce NO production. L-NAME, an L-arginine analogue, inhibited NO production from DT-stimulated RAW 264.7 macrophages. At the given concentrations of DT, lipopolysaccharide (LPS or endotoxin)-induced NO production from RAW 264.7 macrophages was also inhibited. RAW 264.7

macrophage cells, incubated with various concentrations of DT for 3 days, were killed by DT in a dose dependent manner. Endotoxin contamination of DT was demonstrated with limulus amoebocyte lysate assay. Polymyxin B, frequently added to neutralize the effects of LPS in vitro, inhibited DT-induced NO production from RAW 264.7 cells. The misleading data concerning NO inducing capacity of DT was seemed to be related to endotoxin contamination. Thus, DT does not seem to be capable of inducing NO production from macrophages.

Key Words: Diphtheria toxin, nitric oxide, macrophage

¹Department of Microbiology, Immunological Research and Application Centre, Gazi University, Medical School,

06510 Beşevler, Ankara-Turkey

²R.S. Central Institute of Hygiene, Vaccine-Sera Production and Research Department, Ankara-Turkey

Introduction

Diphtheria is a bacterial respiratory infection caused by *Corynebacterium diphtheriae*, a gram positive bacillus. The major manifestations are a membranous inflammation of the upper respiratory tract, usually of the pharynx but sometimes of the posterior nasal passages, larynx and trachea, plus widespread damage to other organs, including the myocardium, nervous system and kidneys, caused by the organism's exotoxin. A cutaneous form of diphtheria also occurs (1).

Pathogenic *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* strains secrete a potent protein toxin called diphtheria toxin (DT). The ability to produce DT has been observed only in *C. diphtheriae* and closely related species (2-4). Diphtheria toxin is a single polypeptide of Mr 58,342 secreted by toxic strains of *Corynebacterium diphtheriae*, carrying the *tox* structural gene found in the lysogenic corynebacteriophages β *tox*⁺, γ *tox*⁺ and ω *tox*⁺. Avirulent strains also become lysogenic when infected with these phages (5). Diphtheria toxin is composed of two disulfide-linked subunits, both of which are involved in the intoxication process. The A subunit catalyzes ADP-

ribosylation of elongation factor-2 (EF-2), thereby stopping protein synthesis and killing the cells. The B subunit has two functions: binding to cell-surface receptors and translocation of the A subunit into the cytosol (6).

It was recently shown that diphtheria toxin can be crosslinked to 10-20-kDa molecules present at the surface of toxin-sensitive cells (7), but evidence that these molecules are the functional receptors is so far lacking. It has been shown earlier by other workers that, when diphtheria toxin or incomplete toxin molecules containing the hydrophobic regions of the B fragment are added to artificial lipid membranes at low pH, ion-conduction channels are formed in the membranes (8, 9). Since the artificial membranes lacked toxin receptors, this would imply that translocation of the A fragment is not dependent on the receptor. In addition, although it may be dependent on the number of the DT receptors on the cell surface, a broad spectrum of various cell lines such as Vero, CHO-K1, Jurkat, K562, CEM, WEHI-7 and mouse L cells binds DT to some extent (10-12). In addition, the binding function of DT can be separated from the translocation function of DT (13).

Little is known about the effects of diphtheria toxin on cells at the molecular level and there is apparently no specific target organ or cells. Thus, DT seemed to be likely to affect various cellular function via binding to or cross linking specific or non specific receptors on the cell membrane.

In the presence of diphtheria toxin, the adenosine diphosphate ribose moiety of NAD⁺ is transferred into covalent linkage with transferase II, producing an inactive derivative of the factor. The toxin acts catalytically in this reaction, in which nicotinamide and a proton are released concomitantly (14, 15).

$\text{NAD}^+ + \text{transferase II} \leftrightarrow \text{ADP-ribose-transferase II} + \text{nicotinamide} + \text{H}^+$

ADP-ribosylation of proteins catalyzed by toxins from bacteria, such as diphtheria, cholera, and pertussis, has been extensively studied (16). Carracedo et al. (17) reported that the G proteins involved in the regulation of activation-induced NK (natural killer) apoptosis are sensitive to pertussis toxin and to exert its apoptosis-inhibitory effect, pertussis toxin must be employed before cells are activated. In addition Zhang and Morrison (18) reported that pertussis toxin, which can ADP-ribosylate the α -subunits of certain types of G-proteins (i.e., G_o and G_i-proteins) (19), have marked effect on NO production from LPS-stimulated mouse peritoneal macrophages.

Recently Brune and Lapetina (20) reported that nitric oxide (NO) stimulates ADP-ribosylation of a protein in platelets. Because of the apparent importance of NO as a biological messenger in mediating the tumoricidal and bactericidal actions of macrophages (21), dilating blood vessels (22), and serving as a neurotransmitter in the central and peripheral nervous system (23), characterization of potential effect of DT on NO induction from macrophages may be of importance.

When taken into account all the above-mentioned data together, DT seemed to have a potential effect on NO production from RAW 264.7 macrophage cell line which is capable of generating nitric oxide. Thus, the primary aim of this study was to investigate whether DT has the potential effect on nitric oxide induction from macrophages.

Materials and Methods

Reagents: RPMI-1640 (supplemented with 0.3 g/l L-glutamine and NaHCO₃), Limulus Amoebocyte Lysate (LAL) kit (E-Toxate), Salmonella minnesota LPS, L-NAME (N ω -Nitro-L-Arginine Methyl Ester), NED (N-[1-naphthyl]

ethylenediamine dihydrochloride), Sulfanilamide, polymyxin B sulfate, and MTT (3-[4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide) were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. St. Louis MO, USA. Fetal Calf Serum (FCS) was purchased from Seromed, Biochrom KG, D-12247 Berlin, Germany. FCS was heat-inactivated by keeping at 56°C for 30 min before using in experiments.

Diphtheria toxin: The toxinogenic strain of *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* used in this study was G12/6 (originally obtained from The Lister Institute, Elstree, U.K.). Procedure for production of diphtherial toxin was performed according to the WHO Expert Committee on Biological Standardization (24).

Purification of DT: G12/6 strain-produced crude DT dialysate was fractionated on a size-exclusion chromatography (a paper concerning DT purification method by size exclusion chromatography is being currently under preparation by the DT supplying investigators). The protein content (0.96 mg/ml) and the potency (290 Lf/ml) of the pooled fractions were measured by spectrophotometrically ([protein] mg/ml=1.55 A₂₈₀ (1 cm) - 0.76 A₂₆₀ (1 cm) and by Limes flocculation (Lf) respectively as described elsewhere (25, 26). Active fractions were pooled and lyophilized (with the Virtis Benchtop 3L, New York). All of the experiments in this paper were performed with a single preparation of diphtheria toxin produced by growth of *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* G12/6.

Standard Diphtheria Antitoxin: National Standard Diphtheria Antitoxin (ST-AT; Lot:218/7752) (Equine) has the characteristics as follows; Contents=3000 IU/Amp (1000 IU per ml). ST-AT; Lot: 218/7752 was obtained from the R.S. Central Institute of Hygiene, Vaccine-Sera Production and Research Department.

Immunodiffusion assay: Active fraction and standard antitoxin were added into two separate holes, which were prepared 1 cm apart from each other on a 2% noble agar supplemented with 2% PEG, and incubated for 24 h at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere.

Stimulation of RAW 264.7 macrophages: RAW 264.7 cell line was used for nitric oxide (NO) generating cells (27). The macrophage cell line RAW 264.7 (certified mycoplasma free at the time of purchase) was obtained from American Type Culture Collection. RAW 264.7 cells were plated at a density of 5x10⁵ cells/250 μ l (in RPMI-1640 supplemented with 20% FCS) per well in 24-well tissue culture plates (Falcon, Oxnard, CA 93030 USA). In order to get the desired concentrations of DT, antitoxin, polymyxin B. and L-NAME (each was added into

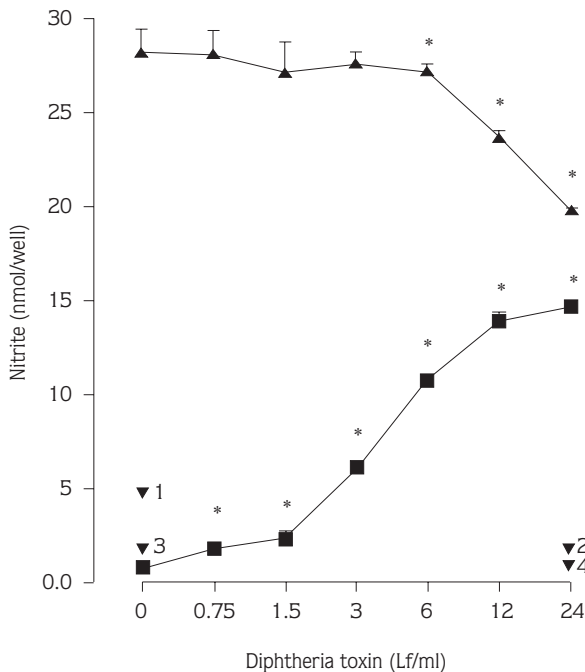


Figure 1. Effect of diphtheria toxin on NO_2^- production by RAW 264.7. Cells were stimulated with various concentrations of DT as indicated. Then 4 h later following pretreatment with DT, the cells were incubated either without (■) or with (▲) the presence of 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of *S. minnesota* LPS for an additional 20 h. Controls (no toxin and no LPS) were included in each plate. NO_2^- levels were almost undetectable (<1 nmol/well) in the control supernatants. Active fraction induced NO_2^- production from RAW cells in a dose dependent manner. In contrast, it inhibited LPS-dependent NO_2^- production at >6 Lf/ml. Symbol ▼1 and ▼2 denote the NO_2^- levels of the culture supernatants of LPS- (1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) and DT (24 Lf/ml)-stimulated macrophages respectively in the presence of 5 mM L-NAME. Symbol ▼3 and ▼4 denote the NO_2^- levels of culture supernatants of RAW 264.7 cells stimulated either with LPS (1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) or DT (24 Lf/ml) respectively in the presence of polymyxin B at 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$. Asterisk denotes a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) from control (0). Values are expressed as the mean \pm SD of six independent experiments.

appropriate wells in a volume of 250 μl), appropriate amounts were added to the macrophage cultures as indicated. The cells were then incubated at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 95% air/5% CO_2 incubator for 28 h.

The *Salmonella minnesota* LPS stock solution prepared in RPMI-1640 at 4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ was sonicated for 5 min, using a sonicator (Transsonic 660/H, Elma, Germany) before being adding (in a volume of 250 μl) into DT-stimulated RAW 264.7 cells. After a 4 h

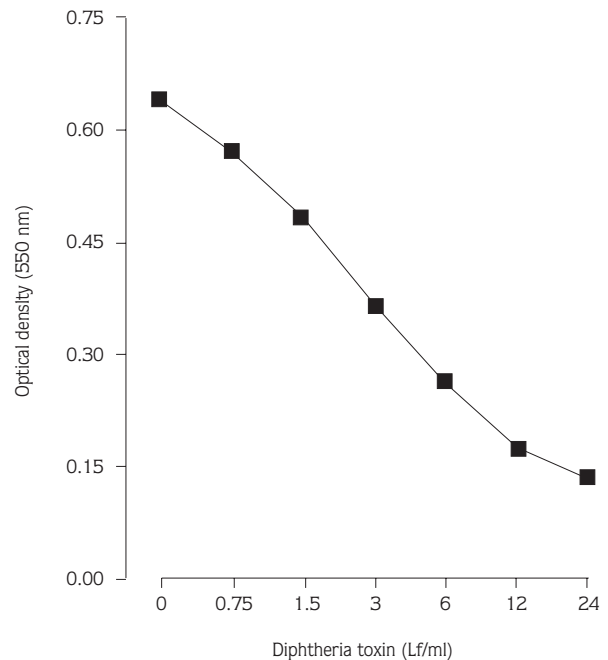


Figure 2. Effect of DT on the viability of RAW264.7 cells. Macrophages (5×10^5 cells/250 μl per well) were seeded at wells and incubated for 3 d with various concentrations of DT as indicated. Optical density was directly related to the number of viable RAW 264.7 cells (data not shown). After an incubation period of 3d, DT demonstrated a dose-dependent ($r = -0.8442$, $p = 0.0169$) lethal effect upon RAW 264.7 cells. Data are expressed as the mean for two independent experiments.

incubation period, LPS was added into RAW cells either stimulated with DT or unstimulated and incubated for 24h. Details of experimental designs are outlined in the text and figure legends. At the end of cell culture, supernatants from six identically treated wells were assayed for the presence of nitrite.

Analysis of Nitric Oxide (NO): The presence of NO in macrophage culture supernatants was determined by measuring the amount of nitrite (NO_2^-), a metabolic product of NO (28). Briefly, 100 μl of macrophage culture supernatant was directly mixed with 100 μl of Griess reagent (1:1, [vol/vol] of 0.1 % N-[1-naphthyl] ethylenediamine dihydrochloride (NED) in H_2O / 1% sulfanilamide in 5% H_2PO_4) in flat-bottomed 96-well microtiter immunoassay plates (Corning), and the absorbance at 550 nm was measured on a microplate reader (LP-400 Diagnostics Pasteur). The nitrite amount was calculated from a NaNO_2 standard curve.

Toxicity Assay: Toxicity of DT on RAW 264.7 cells was assessed with a colorimetric assay using MTT which is converted to water-insoluble formazan by viable eukaryotic cells (28). Briefly, two-fold dilutions of diphtheria toxin was prepared and added to macrophages (5×10^5 cell/ml per well of 24-well plate) in order to get the final concentrations from 24 to 0.75 Lf/ml. Duplicate wells for cell control (no toxin) were included in each plate. After an incubation period for 3 days in a humidified 5% CO₂ incubator, 50 μ l of MTT solution (5 mg/ml in saline) was added to each well and incubated for 3h more. Plates were centrifuged at 800xg for 15 min. Supernatants were aspirated and the formazan dye was dissolved in 1 ml of 2-propanol (Merck). A volume of 100 μ l from each well was transferred to flat-bottomed 96-well microtitre plate and the OD values were quantitated with an ELISA reader at 550 nm wave length.

Data presentation: Data reported are means \pm standard deviation from a representative experiment. When not shown in the figures, the standard deviation bars were smaller than the symbol indicating the value of mean. The students-t test was used to determine statistical significance between groups. Nitrite contents in culture supernatants were determined by Correlation-Regression Analysis based on a NaNO₂ standard curve. $p < 0.05$ was regarded as significant.

Results

Corynebacterium diphtheriae G12/6 -produced diphtheria toxin was extracted and checked for its Lf activity. Extracted DT demonstrated an Lf activity of 800 Lf/ml. DT dialysate was further purified by high-performance liquid chromatography on a size-exclusion based column. Among the fractions collected, the active fraction demonstrated an immunoprecipitation band with the use of standard antitoxin on a 2% agar matrix (data not depicted). Thus, throughout the study the active fraction (also referred to as DT from now on) was used in all experiments.

Diphtheria toxin demonstrated a dose dependent effect on NO induction from RAW 264.7 murine macrophages. At the concentrations of equal and higher than 6 Lf/ml, DT demonstrated an inhibitory action on LPS-dependent NO production from RAW 264.7 cells. Polymyxin B, at a concentration of 20 μ g/ml abolished the NO inducing capacity of active fraction as well as of LPS. NO inducing capacities of active fraction and LPS were also inhibited by L-NAME (Fig. 1). Since L-NAME is a specific inhibitor of inorganic nitrogen oxide synthesis from L-arginine, nitrite (NO₂⁻) accumulated in the culture

supernatant was originally derived from NO.

Diphtheria toxin demonstrated a dose dependent killing effect on RAW 264.7 macrophage cells after a 3 days of incubation period (Fig. 2).

Discussion

Experiments in rats showed that the urinary NO₃⁻ levels could be elevated about tenfold when fever was induced by an intraperitoneal injection of *E. coli* LPS (29). This finding suggested that this elevated synthesis might be related to the immunostimulation known to be brought about by LPS. This LPS-induced synthesis was then reproduced by treatment of murine peritoneal macrophages in culture (30). Further in vivo studies showed that strong immunostimulants such as *Bacillus Calmette-Guerin* increased urinary NO₃⁻ excretion in mice up to 50-fold (30), suggesting that endogenous lymphokines could also stimulate macrophages to carry out this synthesis. Subsequent experiments showed that a major lymphokine involved in this response was interferon- γ (IFN- γ) (31). Further studies with the RAW 264.7 macrophage cell line showed that the chemical precursor to NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ was exclusively the amino acid L-arginine which was converted to citrulline (27). Investigations revealed that nitric oxide (.N=O) was an intermediate in the production of both NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ from L-arginine. NO is derived from the oxidation of the terminal guanidino nitrogen atom of L-arginine by the NADPH-dependent enzyme NO synthase, of which there are two types (22). One is constitutive, Ca²⁺/calmodulin dependent and is found mainly in the brain, endothelial cells and platelets. The other is inducible Ca²⁺ independent and is found in a variety of sites, including smooth muscle and macrophages. The activity of both enzymes can be specifically inhibited by some L-arginine analogues.

G12/6 strain-produced DT was purified and fractionated on a size exclusion chromatography. Among the fractions detected, only major fraction (active fraction, DT) demonstrated Lf activity. Major fraction was specifically reacted with standard antitoxin and demonstrated a single immunoprecipitation band on an agar matrix. In addition, active fraction demonstrated a conventional lethal effect upon Vero cells (data not shown) and RAW 264.7 macrophages after a 3 days of incubation period (Fig. 2). Hence, the active fraction was regarded as DT. It seemed to be likely that specific or nonspecific receptors are present on RAW 264.7 macrophages since DT killed macrophages in a dose dependent manner. Although diphtheria toxin is secreted

by *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* as a single polypeptide chain, it is usually partially digested in the culture medium by proteolytic enzymes released from the bacteria. Preparations of toxin may contain peptides smaller than whole toxin and are present even in highly purified toxin preparations. Gill and Pappenheimer (15) showed that some of these fragments are responsible for the entire enzymatic activity of toxin in vitro. But in the aspect of Lf activity and NO inducing capacity, only with the active fraction these were observed. It was clear that active fraction-induced NO_2^- accumulation in the culture supernatant was originally derived from NO, since L-NAME, a specific inhibitor of inorganic nitrogen oxide synthesis from L-arginine, was able to inhibit the stimulatory effect of active fraction (Fig. 1).

At this stage of all the experiments performed, one may understand that DT has the capacity to induce NO production from macrophages. It is well known that LPS (endotoxin) has the capacity to induce NO from macrophages. In order to exclude any endotoxin contamination we checked the induce NO from macrophages. In order to exclude any endotoxin contamination we checked the active fraction for the presence of LPS. Active fraction demonstrated a positive result (contaminated with endotoxin) with a commercially available endotoxin search kit (LAL). Polymyxin B is the polycationic antibiotic most frequently added to neutralize the effect of LPS in vitro (32). When RAW 264.7 cell were stimulated either with DT or LPS in the presence of polymyxin B, NO_2^- synthesis was inhibited (Fig. 1). Thus, we concluded that results concerning the NO inducing capacity of DT were misleading and might be directly related to its endotoxin contents.

Zhang and Morrison (18) demonstrated that pertussis toxin (PT) treatment of mouse peritoneal macrophages enhanced LPS-induced TNF- α production and inhibited LPS-mediated NO production. The effect of PT on these LPS responses has been shown to correlate with PT-

mediated ADP-ribosylation of a 41-kDa protein (s). These result suggested that a PT-sensitive G-protein(s) might be involved in these LPS-dependent macrophage activation processes. As that of PT, diphtheriae toxin also demonstrated a similar action on LPS-induced NO production from macrophages (Fig. 1). Thus, apart from its direct effect on NO induction, it is reasonable to speculate that DT may serve a PT-like signal transduction pathways.

In addition to exhibiting antitumor cell activity, reactive nitrogen intermediates exert potent antimicrobial activity in vitro against a variety of pathogens including *Cryptococcus neoformans* (33), *Leishmania major* (34) *Schistosoma mansoni* (35), *Toxoplasma gondii* (36). and *Francisella tularensis* (37). The mechanism of the NO-mediated nonspecific killing of tumour cells and pathogens has yet to be clarified. Several workers (38) have postulated that NO reacts with Fe-S groups, resulting in the formation of iron-nitrosyl complexes that cause the inactivation and degradation of Fe-S prosthetic groups of aconitase and complex I and complex II of the mitochondrial electron transport chain.

Despite earlier hopes that the induction of nonspecific immunity might be a valuable tool in the fight against infectious diseases and tumours with the subsequent production of immunostimulants of various kinds, it is now clear that such responses can be extremely dangerous unless carefully controlled. Reactive oxygen intermediates, such as superoxide, cause vascular endothelial damage (39), TNF is largely responsible for the pathology associated with malaria (40) and nitric oxide can profoundly effect blood pressure and flow (41), inhibits platelet adhesion and aggregation (42).

Whether the capacity of DT to modulate NO production from LPS-stimulated macrophages would be detrimental or beneficial for host remains to be further investigated.

References

1. Boyd RF. *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* and related bacteria, in Basic Medical Microbiology, Schnittman ER, Odmark K. (Eds.), Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1995, pp. 284-91.
2. Buck GA, Cross RE, Wong TP, Loera J, Groman N. DNA relationship among tox-bearing corynebacteriophages. *Infect Immun*, 49: 679-84, 1985.
3. Colman G, Weaver E, Efstratiou A. Screening tests for pathogenic corynebacteria. *J Clin Pathol*, 45: 46-48, 1992.
4. Hauser D, Popoff MR, Kiredjian M, Boquet P, Bimet F. Polymerase Chain Reaction Assay for Diagnosis of Potentially Toxinogenic *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* Strains: Correlation with ADP-Ribosylation Activity Assay. *J Clin Microbiol*, 31: 2720-23, 1993.
5. Lubran MM. Bacterial Toxins. *Ann Clin Lab Sci*, 18: 58-71, 1988.
6. Drazin R, Kandel J, Collier RJ. Structure and Activity of Diphtheria Toxin. *J Biol Chem*, 246: 1504-10, 1971.

7. Cieplak W, Gaudin HM, Eidels L. Diphtheria toxin receptor. Identification of specific diphtheria toxin-binding proteins on the surface of vero and BS-C-1 cells, *J Biol Chem*, 262: 13246-53, 1987.
8. Kagan BL, Finkelstein A, Colombini M. Diphtheria toxin fragment forms large pores in phospholipid bilayer membranes, *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, 78: 4950-54, 1981.
9. Donovan JJ, Simon MI, Draper RK, Montal M. Diphtheria toxin forms transmembrane channels in planar lipid bilayer, *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, 78: 172-76, 1981.
10. Schaefer EM, Moehring JM, Moehring TJ. Binding of Diphtheria Toxin to CHO-K1 and Vero Cells Is Dependent on Cell Density, *J Cell Physiol*, 135: 407-15, 1988.
11. Stenmark H, Olsnes S, Sandvig K. Requirement of Specific Receptors for Efficient Translocation of Diphtheria Toxin A Fragment across the Plasma Membrane, *J Biol Chem*, 263: 13449-55, 1988.
12. Johnsen VG, Wilson D, Greenfield L, Youle R. The Role of the Diphtheria Toxin Receptor in Cytosol Translocation, *J Biol Chem*, 263: 1295-30, 1988.
13. Greenfield L, Johnson VG, Youle RJ. Mutations in diphtheria toxin separate binding from entry and amplify immunotoxin selectivity, *Science*, 238: 536-39, 1987.
14. Collier RJ, Kandel J. Structure and Activity of Diphtheria Toxin, *J Biol Chem*, 246: 1496-503, 1971.
15. Gill DM, Pappenheimer Jr AM. Structure-Activity Relationships in Diphtheria Toxin, *J Biol Chem*, 246: 1492-95, 1971.
16. Ueda K. ADP-Ribosylation, *Ann Rev Biochem*, 54: 73-100, 1985.
17. Carracedo J, Ramirez R, Marchetti P, Pintado OC, Baixeras E, Martinez C, Kroemer G. Pertussis toxin-sensitive GTP-binding proteins regulate activation-induced apoptotic cell death of human natural killer cells, *Eur J Immunol*, 25: 3094-99, 1995.
18. Zhang X, Morrison DC. Pertussis Toxin-Sensitive Factor Differentially Regulates Lipopolysaccharide-Induced Tumor Necrosis Factor- α and Nitric Oxide Production in Mouse Peritoneal Macrophages, *J Immunol*, 150: 1011-18, 1993.
19. Codine J, Yatani A, VanDongen AMJ, Padrell E, Carty D, Mattera R, Brown AM, Iyengar R, Birnbaumer L. Receptor-effector coupling by pertussis toxin substrates: studies with recombinant and native G-protein α subunits, In *G Proteins*, Iyengar R, Birnbaumer L (Eds.), Academic Press, New York, 1990; p. 267.
20. Brüne B, Lapetina EG. Activation of Cytosolic ADP-ribosyltransferase by Nitric Oxide-generating Agents, *J Biol Chem*, 264: 8455-58, 1989.
21. Nathan CF, Hibbs JB Jr. Role of nitric oxide synthesis in macrophage antimicrobial activity, *Curr Opin Immunol*, 3: 65-70, 1991.
22. Moncada S, Palmer RMJ, Higgs EA. Nitric Oxide: Physiology, Pathophysiology, and Pharmacology, *Pharmacol Rev*, 43: 109-42, 1991.
23. Bredt DS, Snyder SH. Nitric Oxide, a Novel Neuronal Messenger, *Neuron*, 8: 3-11, 1992.
24. WHO Manual for The Production and Control of Vaccines, *Diphtheriae Toxoid*, BLG/UNDP/77.1 Rev.1.
25. Segal IH. *Biochemical Calculations*, 2nd Ed., John Wiley&Sons, New York, 1975, pp: 333-37.
26. Lyng J. Quantitative Estimation of Diphtheria and Tetanus Toxoids. 4. Toxoids as International References Materials Defining Lf-units for Diphtheria and Tetanus Toxoids, *Biologicals*, 18: 11-17, 1990.
27. Iyengar R, Stuehr DJ, Marletta MA. Macrophage synthesis of nitrite, nitrate, and N-nitrosamines: Precursors and role of the respiratory burst, *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, 84: 6369-73, 1987.
28. Mossman T. Rapid colorimetric assay for cellular growth and survival: application to proliferation and cytotoxicity assays, *J. Immunol. Methods*, 65: 55-63, 1983.
29. Marletta MA. Mammalian synthesis of nitrite, nitrate, nitric oxide and N-nitrosating agents, *Chem Res Toxicol*, 1: 249-57, 1988.
30. Stuehr DJ, Marletta MA. Mammalian nitrate biosynthesis: Mouse macrophages produce nitrite and nitrate in response to Escherichia coli lipopolysaccharide, *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, 82, 7738-42, 1985.
31. Stuehr DJ, Marletta MA. Induction of nitrite/nitrate synthesis in murine macrophages by BCG infection, lymphokines, or interferon-gamma, *J Immunol*, 139, 518-25, 1987.
32. Coyne CP, Fenwick BW. Inhibition of lipopolysaccharide-induced macrophage tumor necrosis factor- α synthesis by polymyxin B sulfate, *Am J Vet Res*, 54: 305-14, 1993.
33. Granger DL, Hibbs JB Jr, Perfect JR, Durack DT. Specific amino acid (L-arginine) requirement for the microbistatic activity of murine macrophages, *J Clin Invest*, 81: 1129-36, 1988.
34. Liew FY, Millott S, Parkinson C, Palmer RM, Moncada S. Macrophage killing of Leishmania parasite in vivo is mediated by nitric oxide from L-arginine, *J Immunol*, 144: 4794-97, 1990.

35. James SL, Glaven J. Macrophage cytotoxicity against schistosomula of *Schistosoma mansoni* involves arginine-dependent production of reactive nitrogen intermediates, *J Immunol*, 143: 4208-12, 1989.
36. Adams LB, Hibbs JB Jr, Taintor RR, Krahenbuhl JL. Microbiostatic effect of murine-activated macrophage for *Toxoplasma gondii*: role for synthesis of inorganic nitrogen oxides from L-arginine, *J Immunol*, 144: 2725-29, 1990.
37. Anthony LSD, Morrisey PJ, Nano FE. Growth inhibition of *Francisella tularensis* live vaccine strain by IFN- γ -activated macrophages is mediated by reactive nitrogen intermediates derived from L-arginine metabolism, *J Immunol*, 148: 1829-34, 1992.
38. Lancaster JR Jr, Hibbs JB Jr. EPR demonstration of iron-nitrosyl complex formation by cytotoxic activated macrophages, *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, 87: 1223-27, 1990.
39. Halliwell B. Superoxide, iron, vascular endothelium and perfusion injury, *Free Radic Res Commun*, 5: 315-18, 1989.
40. Clark IA, Chaudhri G, Cowden JB. Roles of tumor necrosis factor in the illness and pathology of malaria, *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg*, 83: 436-40, 1989.
41. Vallance P, Collier J, Moncada S. Effects of endothelium derived nitric oxide on peripheral arteriolar tone in man, *Lancet*, Oct. 28: 2 (8670): 997-1000, 1989.
42. Radomski MW, Palmer RMJ, Moncada S. The anti-aggregating properties of vascular endothelium: interactions between prostacyclin and nitric oxide, *Br J Pharmac*, 92: 639-46, 1987.