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Immunocompetent Cell Targeting by Food-Additive Titanium Dioxide

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ABSTRACT

Food-grade titanium dioxide (fgTiO$_2$) is a bio-persistent particle under intense regulatory scrutiny. Paradoxically, meaningful *in vivo* cellular accumulation has never been demonstrated: the only known cell reservoirs for fgTiO$_2$ are 'graveyard' intestinal pigment cells which are metabolically and immunologically quiescent. Here we identify major new immunocompetent cell targets of fgTiO$_2$ in humans, most notably in the subepithelial dome region of intestinal Peyer's patches. Using multimodal microscopy techniques with single-particle detection and per-cell / vesicle image analysis we achieved correlative dosimetry, quantitatively recapitulating human cellular exposures in the terminal ileum of mice fed a fgTiO$_2$-containing diet. Epithelial microfold cells selectively funneled fgTiO$_2$ into LysoMac and LysoDC cells with ensuing accumulation. Notwithstanding, proximity extension analyses for 92 protein targets revealed no measureable perturbation of cell signalling pathways. When chased with oral Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella*, pro-inflammatory signalling was confirmed, but no augmentation by fgTiO$_2$ was revealed despite marked same-cell loading. Interestingly, *Salmonella* caused the fgTiO$_2$-recipient cells to migrate basolaterally in the patch and, sporadically, to the lamina propria, thereby fully recreating the intestinal tissue distribution of fgTiO$_2$ in humans. Immunocompetent cells that accumulate fgTiO$_2$ *in vivo* are now identified and we demonstrate a mouse model that finally enables human-relevant risk assessments of ingested, bio-persistent (nano)particles.

INTRODUCTION

Titanium dioxide (TiO$_2$) is a highly versatile nano- and micro- particulate mineral with widespread use in consumer products and manufacturing processes, including as a food and pharmaceutical additive. Although, for many years[1, 2], there have been question marks over a potential role of ingested TiO$_2$ in initiating or augmenting an inflammatory response in the intestine, the global industry, valued at >$17 billion per annum[3], is now facing a whole new 'bio-nano' challenge. In May 2021, the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) questioned the safety of food-grade TiO$_2$ (fgTiO$_2$; also termed E171) primarily citing unresolved genotoxicity concerns[4]. Based on this, European Commission member states agreed to remove fgTiO$_2$ as an additive in foods. This represented a seemingly pragmatic decision balancing need for this additive (*e.g.,* aesthetics) against hypothetical risk. However, the European Commission also requested that the European Medicines Agency (EMA) evaluate the impact of removal of fgTiO$_2$ from the list of authorised excipients that are permitted in medicinal products. In this case, fgTiO$_2$ is *not* merely about aesthetics: it delivers opacity and protects actives from UV light degradation whilst aiding moisture control and patient compliance. The EMA concluded that any foreseeable ban, impacting the ~91,000 medicinal products that contain this pigment in Europe, risks causing pharmaceutical shortages[5]. Moreover, they estimated that a period of 7-12 years would likely be required for implementation of suitable alternatives[5]. Meanwhile, consumer concerns over the safety of fgTiO$_2$ have been expressed beyond Europe. Notably, in 2022, a class action suit was filed against the multinational food company Mars Incorporated in the USA alleging that consumers of the hard-shell candy 'Skittles' are at heightened risk of health effects stemming from genotoxicity[6].

Whilst regulators in other continents / territories have not followed EFSA's 2021 decision, there is widespread agreement that the available data addressing the uptake, biological fate and effects of fgTiO$_2$ is insufficient[7, 8, 9]. In fact, direct toxicity of fgTiO$_2$ in cell culture experiments has not been

consistently demonstrated, especially when conditions are carefully controlled to avoid artefactual *in*

vitro cell gorging[10]. In contrast, it is recognised *in vitro* that fgTiO$_2$ can modestly augment cellular

responses to primary danger signals (*e.g.,* microbe-associated molecular patterns) although cell

loading of the particles needs to be relatively high[1]. Similarly, Kirkland *et al.,*[11] identified any

potential genotoxic activity of various titanium dioxide polymorphs as secondary to cell stress

which, certainly for fgTiO$_2,$ requires marked cell loading[1].

Aside from specific cells of the small intestine, there are no known circumstances under which

fgTiO$_2$ markedly accumulates *in vivo*. Systemic exposure to fgTiO$_2$ appears to be very low[12]. Even

allowing for lifetime accumulation in humans it appears that anticipated target organs (liver and

spleen) contain levels of Ti and Ti-rich particulates that are just above the tissue-free background,

and the origin of this slightly enhanced signal is unknown[13]. Consistent with this, many animal

feeding studies show almost no detectable systemic accumulation of fgTiO$_2$[12, 14] and, overall, there

are no convincing *ex vivo* imaging studies showing multiple, heavily-loaded cells. The exception, as

noted above, is the small intestine, in both humans and rodent models[15, 16], and specifically their

large lymphoid follicles termed Peyer's patches. In absence of afferent lymphatics, the apical

surfaces of these follicles possess a unique population of microfold (M) cells that avidly sample the

lumen for bulky macromolecules including small micro- and large nano- particles (herein referred to

as 'particles'). This material is passed to underlying immune cells in the apical, 'subepithelial dome'

(SED) region of the follicle which contains recognised populations of monocyte-derived, lysozyme-

expressing cells termed 'LysoMacs' and 'LysoDCs' that are specialised for anti-microbial defence[17].

Overall, the major role of Peyer's patches is initiating processes for the generation of mucosal IgA

and systemic IgG in response to intestinal antigen thereby orchestrating the sequence of events that

leads to gut-derived humoral immunity. Over time, fgTiO$_2$ is known to accumulate in Peyer's

patches, alongside other persistent particles, in basally located tissue-fixed macrophages termed

'pigment cells'[15, 16]. These cells are of low immunological and metabolic activity and appear to act as

lifetime 'graveyards' for persistent particles, presumably limiting systemic absorption through local

sequestration in the same way that tissue-fixed macrophages sequester particulate tattoo inks[15, 16, 18,

19].

So the paradox remains: whilst $fgTiO_2$ is under intense regulatory scrutiny, there is no known site of

accumulation in active (*e.g.,* immuno-competent) cells that could plausibly give cause for concern or

that allows informed risk assessment. Given that the intestine is the only known target of $fgTiO_2$

accumulation we have addressed whether similar, selective cell loading occurs elsewhere (*i.e.,* away

from the 'safe house' base-of-patch pigment cells) and, if so, what cells are targeted, at what

frequency and with what impact? The approach used quantitative image analysis of light and

electron microanalytical data, correlative mouse-human cell dosimetry and broad-target interrogation

of $fgTiO_2$'s capability to augment a primary cellular danger signal *in vivo*.

RESULTS

Titanium dioxide in human intestinal tissues. High-resolution reflectance confocal microscopy of

human small intestinal tissue samples identified bright foci at the base of Peyer's patches (**Figure**

1a) consistent with previous reports of pigment cells in this region[16, 18, 20]. These cells are known to

mostly accumulate ingested engineered aluminosilicates and $fgTiO_2$[16, 20]. Using Al and Ti as

biomarkers for these particles, correlative analyses using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and

energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) confirmed the presence and co-localisation of these

elements (**Figure 1b**; top row). Reflectant foci were found entirely attributable to Ti-rich particles, as

areas with Al but no Ti signals were not reflectant, whereas all detectable Ti foci yielded reflectance

(**Figure 1b**; rows 2-5). Alongside further checks using mouse tissues known to contain $fgTiO_2$ or not

Figure 1 – Titanium dioxide in human intestinal tissues. a, Tilescanned image acquired by confocal reflectance microscopy. Reflectant foci were detected along the follicle base consistent with previously-reported mineral particle-containing "pigment cells". Of note, similar reflectant foci were also present apically in the immuno-active, subepithelial dome tissue-region, and away from the patch in the (**c**) lamina propria of the regular villous mucosa (VM). Translucent red circle-markers are placed on the reflectant foci to aid visualisation. **b/d/e**, Correlative SEM/EDX analyses performed on the same tissue section shown in (**a/c**). The pigment cell region is shown in (**b**) where X-ray signal for both Al (attributable to aluminosilicates) and Ti (attributable to titanium dioxide) was found. EDX analyses in the (**d**) villous mucosa and (**e**) subepithelial dome regions showed reflectant foci were attributable to Ti. **b/d/e**, In all instances the elemental data for Ti were a near-exact match for the reflectant foci, whereas (**b**) areas with Al signal alone did not reflect. **f**, Reflectance microscopical analyses of nine, randomly-drawn human samples (six frozen, three formalin-fixed paraffin embedded (FFPE)) showed reflectant foci consistent with TiO$_2$ in the subepithelial dome of *every* sample. *Scale bars: **a** = 50 µm; **b** = 50 µm with 10 µm insets; **c-e** = 10 µm; **f** = 50 µm with 10 µm insets.*

(shown, **Supplementary Figure 1**), the reflectance imaging approach was confirmed as a robust,

high-throughput means to detect fgTiO$_2$ in tissue[15].

Of significant note, previously unreported populations of human cells containing similar, reflective

material were also identified (i) sporadically in the regular lamina propria (**Figure 1c**) and (ii)

densely in the immuno-active subepithelial dome (SED) region of Peyer's patches (**Figure 1a**).

These cell regions were also subjected to correlative SEM-EDX analyses and, again, reflectant foci

were a match for the Ti signal (**Figure 1d/e**). Given the unexpected density of the newly-identified

Peyer's patch population, whole SED regions from a randomly selected series of nine human

subjects were imaged using the analytically-validated confocal microscopy approach. Albeit with

marked inter-individual variability, reflectant signal was found in the SED of every human case

(**Figure 1f**). Importantly, the recipient cells often exhibited multiple foci per-cell (*i.e.,* high cellular

loading), suggesting specific cellular targeting and accumulation of fgTiO$_2$ (**Figure 1f** – insets) in a

non-pigment cell population.

Recapitulation in a mouse model. To investigate the pathways giving rise to the above

observations, and to phenotype the newly-identified population of fgTiO$_2$-accumulating cells, in

"Mouse Study 1", we turned to a recently reported murine model for human-relevant, oral exposure

to fgTiO$_2$[15]. Initially we tilescanned a complete ileal transverse section using high-resolution

confocal reflectance microscopy and used image analysis to segment all cells (cell segmentation

accuracies assessed, **Supplementary Figure 2**). This allowed the cellular dose of fgTiO$_2$ to be

measured in each cell-object (*i.e.,* the integrated intensity of the thresholded reflectance signal per

cell) enabling the subdivision and display of the cellular loading of fgTiO$_2$ in three groups: low,

intermediate and high (**Figure 2a**). As in the human samples (**Figure 1**), the patch region was

decorated with reflectance signal, notably in the SED and at the base, and cellular loading was often

high – especially in the SED (**Figure 2a**). However, unlike in human tissue, signal was entirely

absent away from the patch except for two small, isolated foci in the villous epithelium. The

resolution of the imaging process allowed detailed investigation of these latter events confirming that

this signal was not *inside* the tissue, but derived from material within goblet cell invaginations that

were open to the intestinal lumen (**Figure 2a** – inset).

To confirm the apparent selectivity of fgTiO$_2$ for the lymphoid follicles – rather than the regular

villous mucosa – we questioned whether a single particle in intestinal tissue would be missed by our

reflectance microscopy approach. To do this, a tissue region containing a single, small yet clearly

visible reflectant foci was milled out under correlative SEM, using a focussed ion beam (**Figure 2b-**

d). The milled-out lamella was then transferred to a transmission electron microscope for imaging

with analysis by EDX and electron diffraction. A single particle of fgTiO$_2$, with a diameter around

100 nm and an anatase diffraction pattern consistent with dietary exposure, was identified (**Figure**

2e-i). Since single, disperse particles of fgTiO$_2$ were therefore detectable by the reflectance imaging

strategy we could confirm that ingested fgTiO$_2$ had not been missed with our imaging approach in

the regular villous mucosa and thus was not taken up in this region (**Figure 2a**).

Following from this, we next considered the caecal patches (*i.e.,* large lymphoid follicles of the first

part of the large intestine that adjoins the terminal ileum where Peyer's patches are located). Here,

transverse tissue sections revealed almost no reflectant foci showing that, unlike Peyer's patches, the

neighbouring caecal patch is spared from particle targeting (**Figure 2j**). In spite of the marked

similarity of these secondary lymphoid sites, the microfold (M) cell density of their overlying

epithelium differs greatly: caecal patches have very few (like the villous epithelium) with little

capacity for particle uptake, whereas Peyer's patch epithelium is enriched with mature M-cells that

exhibit distinct particle uptake capability for small particulates in general[21, 22]. Indeed, cells of the

Figure 2 – A mouse feeding study demonstrates fgTiO₂ specificity for Peyer's patches. a, Single-cell image analysis of a transverse mouse ileal tissue section imaged by tilescanning confocal reflectance microscopy. The cellular dose of fgTiO₂ – measured from the thresholded reflectance (RL) signal – is colour-coded at low (lo), intermediate (int) and high (hi) levels. As in humans (**Figure 1a/f**), fgTiO₂ loaded into the subepithelial dome of the Peyer's patch and there was evidence of 'precursor pigment cell' formation along the follicle base. Away from the Peyer's patch, two positive cells (**a**, insets) were found in the overlying villous mucosa. In contrast to the human findings (**Figure 1c**) however, both were caused by luminal fgTiO₂ trapped in the invaginated space of goblet cells. **b-d,** To investigate the sensitivity of fgTiO₂ detection by confocal reflectance microscopy, a tissue-region containing a single, isolated reflectant foci was milled out under correlative SEM using a focussed ion beam (**b/c** shows the registered SEM images transparently overlaid onto the confocal reflectance data before lift-out. The white 'rectangle' in (**c**) is caused by electron charging of the platinum strap laid down on the tissue region to be lifted out; (**d**) shows a side-view of the lifted-out lamella). **e-i,** Transfer of the lamella to a transmission electron microscope enabled high resolution imaging and X-ray (EDX) and electron diffraction analysis. A (**g/h**) single particle of fgTiO₂ with an (**i**) anatase diffraction pattern (*i.e.,* as added to the diet) was confirmed responsible for the single reflectant foci observed. **j,** Again, colour-coding the cellular dose of fgTiO₂ into lo, int and hi levels, tissue sections from adjacent caecal patches at the top of the colon were found to be almost completely devoid of fgTiO₂ (n = 4 animals). **k,** Immunofluorescence microscopy showed fgTiO₂ access to Peyer's patches was via GP2-positive microfold (M) cells (translucent red circle-markers are placed on thresholded reflectant foci to aid fgTiO₂ visualisation / the outline of the M-cell was manually drawn by tracing the actin-delineated cell boundary). **L,** Single-cell analysis of a longitudinal section of mouse ileum consistently showed the close association between an M-cell rich, follicle-associated epithelium and fgTiO₂ loading into Peyer's patches. **m/n,** Guided by CD11c and CD3 immunofluorescence labelling for phagocytic mononuclear cells and T-lymphocytes (respectively) sets of images were collected from the subepithelial dome (SED), germinal centre (GC) T-cell zone (TCZ) or overlying villous mucosa (VM) tissue regions from four mice fed the fgTiO₂-supplemented diet (WT + TiO₂) and four control-diet mice (WT). Some fgTiO₂ signal was observed in the GC and TCZ regions of the murine Peyer's patches but the majority was in the SED. In keeping with (**a**), and in contrast to the human findings (**Figure 1c**), in all four mice, no uptake was seen in the villous mucosa demonstrating specificity for M-cell mediated, Peyer's patch targeting. *Scale bars: **a** = 500 µm with insets 5 µm; **b** = 50 µm; **c** = 10 µm; **d** = 5 µm; **e** = 500 nm; **g** = 200 nm; **h** = 20 nm; **j** = 500 µm; **k** = 10 µm; **L/m** = 500 µm.*

Peyer's patch epithelium stained positively for the mature M-cell marker (GP2) and, here-and-there,

these M-cells were 'caught in the act' with co-signal for fgTiO$_2$ (**Figure 2k**) as had long been

assumed for fgTiO$_2$ but not actually demonstrated[18]. Indeed, longitudinal sections of ileal tissue

containing Peyer's patches consistently demonstrated the close association between fgTiO$_2$ signal

and an overlying, M-cell rich, follicle-associated epithelium (**Figure 2L**). In this way, the above

findings provide a rationale for the specificity of fgTiO$_2$ uptake by the Peyer's patches of the small

intestine. It would appear, therefore, that to explain the presence of fgTiO$_2$ in the human intestinal

lamina propria a mechanism other than direct uptake by the regular villous epithelium must exist

(this is addressed below in "Mouse Study 2"). First, however, we quantified how cell loading with

fgTiO$_2$ varied amongst the major different functional zones of the Peyer's patch.

Sets of confocal reflectance images were collected from the SED, germinal centre (GC), T-cell zone

(TCZ) and overlying villous mucosa (VM) tissue regions (indicated, **Figure 2m**) using tissue

sections taken from four mice fed with the fgTiO$_2$-supplemented diet (+fgTiO$_2$), alongside four

control mice from the same experiment and ingesting the same diet but without added fgTiO$_2$.

Single-cell analysis, using flow cytometry-type gating informed by the negative control tissues,

demonstrated some fgTiO$_2$ signal in the TCZ and GC but established the dominance of the signal,

and the highest cell loading, in the biologically-active SED (**Figure 2n**). As per the whole ileal

cross-section data (**Figure 2a**), in all sections analysed across the four mice, the villous mucosa was

entirely devoid of fgTiO$_2$-positive cells and consistently exhibited the same reflectance distribution

as the negative control mice (**Figure 2n**).

Establishing correlative human-mouse dosimetry. Rodent models provide pragmatic access to

healthy pristine tissue (*i.e.,* rapidly flash frozen at necropsy) from fully controlled experiments (*i.e.,*

population-matched with availability of fgTiO$_2$-negative tissues) in a way that human surgical

specimens do not. Nonetheless, it is critical that a murine feeding model appropriately reports on the

human situation. Next, therefore, we exploited the window-of-insight provided by precision image

analysis to consider how the cellular dosimetry of fgTiO$_2$ in the SED cells of the murine model

reflected SED-cell exposure in humans. To do this, the snap-frozen Peyer's patch tissue sections,

taken from six randomly-drawn human samples, were compared with six murine samples taken from

the fgTiO$_2$-fed group. Visually, in both species, there was marked inter-individual variability in

fgTiO$_2$ concentration in the SED (**Figure 3a-L**). To quantify this, we analysed the thresholded

reflectance signal in the tissue sections in four ways, namely: thresholded reflectance per unit tissue

area (*i.e.,* fgTiO$_2$ abundance; **Figure 3m),** thresholded reflectance per cell (*i.e.,* fgTiO$_2$ load per cell;

Figure 3n), the number of reflectant foci per cell (*i.e.,* cellular count of fgTiO$_2$-loaded vesicles;

Figure 3o), and finally the amount of reflectance signal per foci (*i.e.,* fgTiO$_2$ load per vesicle;

Figure 3p). The strategy is schematically explained in **Supplementary Figure 3**; cell segmentation

accuracy assessments are presented in **Supplementary Figure 2**; background reflectance

comparisons in mice and humans are shown in **Supplementary Figure 4** and examples of the raw

reflectance signal, resulting circle-marker placements and fgTiO$_2$-loaded vesicle segmentations are

shown in **Supplementary Figure 5**. By all metrics, the data from the two groups showed remarkable

overlap and under statistical comparison none of the measured fgTiO$_2$ distributions were found to be

entirely unique to either species (presented, **Supplementary Figure 6**). Notably when Peyer's patch

loading of fgTiO$_2$ from mice on lower-dose-fgTiO$_2$ diets was analysed, the cellular accumulation of

particles in the SED was several orders of magnitude lower compared to the human situation

(**Supplementary Figure 7**). The above findings therefore establish the apparent ability of the murine

model to provide human-relevant data – quantitatively as well as qualitatively – in terms of fgTiO$_2$

cell targeting and dosimetry in the biologically-active SED region of the Peyer's patch.

Figure 3 – Establishing correlative human-mouse dosimetry. a-L, Confocal reflectance microscopy showing the range of cellular loading in the subepithelial dome tissue region of (**a-f**), six randomly-drawn human and (**g-L**) six randomly-drawn mouse samples. After acquisition, the image-fields per specimen were manually laid out in order of lowest-to-highest fgTiO$_2$ SED accumulation to visually present the wide variation in fgTiO$_2$ cellular loading. Translucent red circle-markers were placed on thresholded reflectant foci to aid visualisation. **m-p**, Quantitative analysis of the image-data shown in **a-L**. **m**, Thresholded reflectance per unit tissue area (*i.e.,* amount of fgTiO$_2$ per unit tissue area). **n**, Thresholded reflectance per cell (*i.e.,* fgTiO$_2$ dose per cell). **o**, Number of thresholded reflectant foci per cell (*i.e.,* number of fgTiO$_2$-loaded vesicles (TLV) per cell). **p**, Thresholded reflectance signal per foci (*i.e.,* fgTiO$_2$ dose per TLV). Statistical comparison of the distributions is presented in **Supplementary Figure 6** (two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum analysis). None of the measured fgTiO$_2$ distributions were found to be entirely unique to either species. **m-p**, By all of the quantitative measures established, feeding a murine diet supplemented with 0.0625% (w/w) fgTiO$_2$ for eighteen weeks provides significant overlap with measured, real-world human exposures. *Scale bars: **a-L** = 50 µm with insets 10 µm; **n** = 20 µm; **p** = 5 µm.*

fgTiO₂ selectively targets immunocompetant cells. The fgTiO$_2$-targeted cells in the SED were,

unsurprisingly, CD11c$^+$ (*i.e.,* phagocytic mononuclear cells) and not only was the frequency of such

cells unaffected by the presence of fgTiO$_2$ particles so was their expression of the CD11c integrin

biomarker (**Figure 4a-h**). Neighbouring cells were chiefly CD3$^+$ (T cells) and B220$^+$ (B cells) and,

similarly, their expression patterns and frequencies were not significantly affected by the presence of

fgTiO$_2$ (P ≥ 0.26, two-sided unpaired samples T-tests) (**Figure 4a-h**). Within the Peyer's patch,

CD11c$^+$ cells are known to exhibit a number of sub-phenotypes in distinct follicular locations[17]. In

this regard, the SED localisation and autofluorescence of the fgTiO$_2$$^+$ cells were entirely consistent

with 'LysoMacs' and/or 'LysoDCs' which represent extensively-described macrophage and dendritic

cell subsets, respectively, that express high levels of lysozyme alongside a unique autofluorescence

signature[17, 23] (see **Figure 4i-s** and **Supplementary Figure 8** for the autofluorescence spectra

collected). Indeed, phenotypic markers that help differentiate LysoDCs from LysoMacs (cell surface

CD4 and MHCII) demonstrated a mixed population of these two cell types for the fgTiO$_2$$^+$ cells

(**Figure 4t/u**).

Whilst similar populations of autofluorescent^{hi} SED cells were observed in all mice regardless of

diet, these cells were strongly particle-positive in mice receiving the dietary fgTiO$_2$ (**Figure 4m/s,**

Supplementary Figure 9 and **Supplementary Video 1**). Upon quantification (**Figure 4o**), only

~7% of autofluorescent cells showed no clear particle signal for the +fgTiO$_2$ group (**Figure 4i-s**).

These cells are known to be important in the initial uptake and processing of luminal antigen which

other work suggests may be coated in calcium phosphate to facilitate enzyme resistance during the

early phases of the lumen-to-phagocyte sampling process[24]. Except in Crohn's disease, these cells

have been shown previously to be positive for the immunoregulatory cell surface ligand PD-L1[25].

Again, consistent with this prior work, our quantitative single-cell tissue analyses showed that the

fgTiO$_2$$^+$ (and therefore CD11c$^+$, autofluorescence^{hi}) cells of the SED were PD-L1$^+$ (**Figure 4v-y,**

Figure 4 – fgTiO2 selectively targets PD-L1+ LysoMac and LysoDC cells. a-h, *In situ*, single-cell analysis of key immune-cell subtypes of the mouse subepithelial dome. **a/b**, Example images immunofluorescently labelled for B220, CD3 and CD11c (*i.e.,* identifying B-lymphocytes, T-lymphocytes and phagocytic mononuclear cells, respectively) from wild-type (WT) mice fed (**a**) without (WT) or (**b**) with (WT + TiO2) fgTiO2 dietary supplementation (0.0625% w/w of diet). fgTiO2 was measured from thresholded reflectance images. Translucent red circle-markers are placed on reflectant foci to aid visualisation. **c/d**, Flow cytometry-type plots showing cell area / cell aspect ratio, (**e-g**) immunofluorescence distributions and (**h**) cell counts for B220+, CD11c+ and CD3+ cells (n = 3 animals). All measures remained similar regardless of fgTiO2 feeding (cell count comparison (**h**), P = ≥0.26, two-sided unpaired samples T-tests). **i-L**, fgTiO2-recipient cells of the subepithelial dome were CD11c+ in ~ 95% of cases. **m-o**, These cells also exhibited a unique, highly autofluorescent signature as previously-described for subepithelial dome 'lysomac' and 'lysoDC' mononuclear phagocyte cells. **o**, Again, this was true for almost all fgTiO2+/CD11c+ cells and, equally, these autofluorescent cells were similarly present in (**n**) controls without fgTiO2 feeding (further data shown, **Supplementary Figure 8**). **p-u**, Montaged CD11c+/fgTiO2+ or CD11c+/fgTiO2- cell populations from the SEDs of mice fed the fgTiO2 supplemented diet visualised in terms of (**r/s**) autofluorescence signature. fgTiO2 is seen to both selectively and specifically target the autofluorescent cells and (**t/u**) the diversity of CD4 and MHCII expression confirms that both lysomac and lysoDCs take up fgTiO2. **v-z**, fgTiO2+ cells of the SED expressed the immunotolerance marker programmed death ligand 1 (PD-L1) whereas fgTiO2+ pigment cells at the base of the Peyer's patch tended to lose PD-L1 expression (**y** versus **z**, respectively). **w**, PD-L1 expression in the Peyer's patches was not significantly perturbed by feeding the fgTiO2-supplemented diet (P = 0.34, z = -0.96, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum analysis, n = 6 animals). *Scale bars: **a/b** = 50 µm; **i/m**, **p-u** = 10 µm; **x** = 500 µm; **y/z** = 10 µm.*

antibody controls presented **Supplementary Figure 10**). This contrasted with precursor pigment

cells at the base of the Peyer's patch which were PD-L1[lo], despite their fgTiO$_2$ content (**Figure 4v-z**).

In other words, based on this finding, and that mice unexposed to fgTiO$_2$ show similar PD-L1[+]

distributions (**Figure 4w**), we can conclude that expression of this immunoregulatory molecule is

unaffected by fgTiO$_2$ uptake (P = 0.34, z = -0.96, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum analysis) and,

rather, fgTiO$_2$ is selectively and specifically shuttled into already-PD-L1[+] LysoMacs/LysoDCs in the

SED of Peyer's patches in the small intestine. As such, for the first time, we show that there *is* an

immunocompetent cell population that accumulates fgTiO$_2$ in humans, and in a rodent model, which

will now allow the proposed adverse effects of the particulates to be tested.

Potential for fgTiO$_2$ – *Salmonella* interactions. As noted above, in earlier *in vitro* work, we have

shown that the phagocyte proinflammatory response can be augmented by cellular loading with

fgTiO$_2$[1]. As such "Mouse Study 2" considered the potential for fgTiO$_2$ to initiate or augment an

inflammatory response, precisely in the Peyer's patch-rich, terminal ileal region where the particles

accumulate. Initiation was measured directly whilst, for augmentation, we investigated the synergy

between fgTiO$_2$ and an orally-delivered auxotrophic *Salmonella* strain, namely Δ*aroA*-deficient

Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium (Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella*). The choice of bacterial infection

was because (i) again, it is human-relevant (*i.e.,* commonly experienced[26]) (ii) it targets LysoDCs

and LysoMacs[27] resulting in a modest immuno-inflammatory response (unlike bacterial fragments, to

which the intestine is uniquely tolerant) and (iii) this response can be augmented leaving headroom

for any interactions to be observed[28, 29]. Regarding this latter point, it is known that same-cell

concurrence of an amplification signal, such as over-expressed bacterial flagellin or co-expressed

vectorised cytokines, is required to augment the *Salmonella*-induced immuno-inflammatory

response[29, 30]. For this reason, we first demonstrated substantial same-cell occurrence of the particles

and bacteria, in the SED of Peyer's patches, when fgTiO$_2$-fed mice (for 16 weeks) were immediately

chased with a single oral dose of $\Delta aroA$-*Salmonella* and tissues collected 3 days later (+ 3 days;

Figure 5a-c). *Salmonella*-specific faecal IgA was undetectable at this time-point but was clearly

demonstrated in a second group at + 28 days following the *Salmonella* challenge. This pattern was

irrespective of fgTiO$_2$ ingestion (**Figure 5d**) and is consistent with a latent immuno-inflammatory

response following oral exposure to the pathogen[31, 32].

To investigate both initiation and augmentation of an inflammatory response, and to cover a broad

array of potential outcomes, we undertook protein quantification using the sensitive and accurate

(*i.e.,* dual antibodies per target) proximity extension assay (Olink Mouse Exploratory Panel) which

provided data for 92 different protein biomarkers (repeat-sample and dilution controls presented,

Supplementary Figure 11; full protein names shown in **Supplementary Table 1)**. Since

Salmonella Typhimurium induces a Th1 profile in the ileum[33] we first confirmed, using this

analytical approach, that associated cytokines/chemokines were enhanced in ileal tissue from mice

that had been challenged with $\Delta aroA$-*Salmonella*. Of Th1 relevance, the proximity extension panel

detects IL-1 (α&β), TNFα, IL-6, CXCL9 and CCL3[33, 34] and four of these markers (CCL3, CXCL9,

IL1β and TNFα) showed significantly ($P \leq 0.026$, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum tests) increased

protein expression in the ileum of $\Delta aroA$-*Salmonella*-exposed mice versus unexposed matched

controls at the +28 day time-point (**Figure 5e**). Next we considered the effect on the ileum of chronic

oral exposure to fgTiO$_2$ (*i.e.,* mimicking the Peyer's patch loading seen in humans) in the absence of

Salmonella. The proximity extension assay data showed remarkable consistency between the two

groups for all measurable proteins and, therefore, no suggestion that long-term fgTiO$_2$ ingestion

initiates inflammatory signalling in the ileum of wild-type mice (**Figure 5f** and **Supplementary**

Figure 12). In a similar fashion, we considered the effect on the ileum of chronic oral exposure to

fgTiO$_2$ plus *Salmonella* infection. Again, not one protein differed significantly in its expression

between the groups receiving *Salmonella* and *Salmonella* + fgTiO$_2$ (**Figure 5f** and **Supplementary**

Figure 5 – fgTiO₂-*Salmonella* interactions. To enable studies of particle adjuvanticity and cell migration, in "Mouse Study 2", after the 16-week fgTiO₂ feeding period all animals were switched to a normal laboratory chow diet (*i.e.,* without fgTiO₂-supplementation) then half were orally inoculated with attenuated, Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella*. Tissues were harvested +3 or +28 days after infection. **a-c**, Confocal reflectance micrographs displayed as z-stack maximum projections showing immunofluorescent labelling for flagellin (FliC) to detect the Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella* in the Peyer's patch SED region. Marked accumulation of both fgTiO₂ and Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella* was observed in autofluorescent, phagocytic mononuclear cells at the +3 timepoint. **d**, Faecal ELISA studies confirmed a marked, *Salmonella*-specific IgA response at the +28 timepoint (bars represent medians with interquartile range error-bars, n = 3-6 samples per treatment group). **e-g**, Protein expression analyses of ileal tissue digests by proximity extension assay (OLINK mouse exploratory panel). **e,** Comparison of ileal tissues taken from wild-type (WT) mice unexposed to fgTiO₂ but with (WT +*Sal*) or without (WT) Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella* infection confirmed significant increases in expression of key cytokines / chemokines associated with a Th1 immune response (P ≤ 0.026, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test, n = 5-6 tissues per group). **f**, Inflammation-associated protein expression analyses of ileal tissue digests in the WT, WT +TiO₂, WT +*Sal* and WT +TiO₂ +*Sal* treatment groups at the +3 and +28-day timepoints. No significant differences were observed between the WT and WT +TiO₂ (P ≥ 0.53, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test, n = 3 animals per group) or WT + *Sal* and WT +TiO₂ +*Sal* groups (P ≥ 0.79, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test, n = 6 animals per group). Full dataset is shown in **Supplementary Figure 12**. **g**, Peyer's patch-focussed inflammation-associated protein expression analyses using carefully-excised patch digests in mice treated with either Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella* alone (WT +*Sal*) or with fgTiO₂ and Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella* (WT +TiO₂ +*Sal*) at +3 or +28 timepoints. No significant differences were observed between the two groups (P ≥ 0.2, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test, n = 6 animals per group) at either timepoint demonstrating no interaction of fgTiO₂ and Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella* despite (**a-c**) heavy loading into the same cells (full dataset shown in **Supplementary Figure 13**). OLINK protein abbreviations are defined in **Supplementary Table 1**. *Scale bars: **a-c** = 10 μm.*

Figure 12) indicating no measurable augmentation of fgTiO$_2$ on *Salmonella*-induced immuno-

inflammatory signalling in the ileum of wild type mice, in spite of substantial same-cell uptake of the

bacteria and the fgTiO$_2$ particles. To ensure that some small effect, localised to the Peyer's patch as

the site of particle accumulation, had not been missed (*e.g.,* 'diluted-out' by surrounding, unaffected

tissue) we made the same analyses for a potential augmentation effect using ileal tissue samples that

were trimmed tightly to either side of Peyer's patch such that each sample primarily consisted of

only the patch itself. But, again, no significant differences in protein expression were measureable by

the Olink array (**Figure 5g** and **Supplementary Figure 13**).

Cellular dosimetry and ileal tissue distribution. Finally, we considered what factors influenced

fgTiO$_2$ distribution in the Peyer's patch. In the absence of *Salmonella* challenge we observed fgTiO$_2$

in autofluorescent cells of the Peyer's patch SED region, as well as some further towards the base of

the patch, at both the +3 and +28 day time-points (**Figure 6a/b**), consistent with observations in

Mouse Study 1. Quantitatively, however, between the two time points, there was a measurable

increase in the number of fgTiO$_2$-loaded vesicles per cell, without a change in load per vesicle, in the

mid-region of the follicle (**Figure 6c-j**), suggesting a natural history of vesicular inheritance by

certain cells and gradual development towards the well-reported basal pigment cells[15, 16, 20]. Along

this pathway, cells maintained the same autofluorescent profile and mixed MHCII and CD4

expression as described in Mouse Study 1 suggesting that any such process does not give rise to a

new population of cells. Visually however, with increasing distance from the SED, an increase in

CD4 expression in conjunction with a decrease in MHCII expression was observed, suggesting an

shift to sequestration in cells with the longer-lived, LysoMac phenotype (shown, **Supplementary**

Figure 14). A more remarkable influence on the spatial distribution of fgTiO$_2$ was caused by the

single oral dose of Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella*. SEDs were almost entirely devoid of fgTiO$_2$ and

autofluorescence-positive cells at +28 days (**Figure 6k**), while some cells of the regular villous

Figure 6 – Cellular dosimetry of fgTiO₂ across timepoints and *Salmonella*-induced migration. a/b/k, Confocal reflectance micrographs from Mouse Study 2 showing the subepithelial dome (SED) tissue region (n = 3 animals per group). After the 16-week fgTiO₂ feeding period, all animals were switched to normal laboratory chow diet (without fgTiO₂ supplementation) and half were orally dosed with ΔaroA-*Salmonella* before tissue harvest at +3 or +28-day timepoints. **a/b**, In the animals fed the fgTiO₂-supplemented diet without *Salmonella* exposure (WT +TiO₂), fgTiO₂-loaded cells were present in the SEDs at both +3 and +28 timepoints. **c-j**, To gain insights into cellular dosimetry changes across the two timepoints, quantitative image analysis of complete Peyer's patch transverse sections was used to precisely measure the number of reflectant foci per-cell (*i.e.*, the fgTiO₂-loaded vesicle (TLV) count per-cell) and the amount of reflectance per foci (*i.e.*, equivalent to the fgTiO₂ dose per-vesicle). **d/e**, At the +28 timepoint, the TLV count per-cell was markedly elevated with a new population of cells with TLV counts >13 forming in the mid-to-base regions of the follicle. **f/g**, Randomly sampling and montaging the reflectance (RL) information in cells from each of the two timepoints visually demonstrates this, showing (**g**) more heavily-loaded cells at the +28 timepoint. **h**, Moving from cell to vesicle information, in contrast, the amount of reflected light per individual foci remained near-identical across the two timepoints and this was again borne out visually when (**i/j**) individual TLVs were randomly montaged. Collectively, the results suggest that once fgTiO2-loaded cells move below the SED, there is a process of vesicular inheritance by certain cells over time, providing a route to the formation of heavily-loaded pigment cells at the follicle base – as is well-described in humans (**Figure 1**). **k**, Challenge with ΔaroA-*Salmonella* (WT +TiO₂ +*Sal*) markedly changed this picture (n = 4 animals per group). At the +28 timepoint, SEDs were almost completely devoid of both fgTiO₂ and autofluorescence-positive cells. Out of four SEDs imaged, only one reflectant foci was detectable (indicated by arrow) showing marked migration of fgTiO₂ from the SED tissue compartment after ΔaroA-*Salmonella* exposure. *Scale bars: **a/b/k** = 50 µm, **c/d** = 250 µm, **f/g/i/j**, = 10 µm.*

lamina propria, as well as of the basal aspect of the Peyer's patch, were now positive for fgTiO$_2$

(**Figure 7a-c**; enlarged display with counterstaining context, **Supplementary Figure 15**).

Consistently, it has been reported that oral danger signals, including *Salmonella*, deplete the Peyer's

patch SED region of prior-absorbed plastic microparticles[35]. The pathway that then enables

appearance of fgTiO$_2$ in sporadic cells of the regular mucosa, as we show here, is not clear but (i)

fgTiO$_2$ loading per cell was low versus most Peyer's patch cells (**Figure 7b/c**) and (ii) many of these

cells showed an autofluorescent signature (**Figure 7d**). As such, LysoDC migration from the patch

with re-homing to the gut mucosa should be considered.

DISCUSSION

In this work, we have exploited the growing accessibility of machine learning methods[36] to enable

precise analyses of complex images yielding *in situ* single-cell and single-vesicle data from tissue

samples with full locational data retained. Particle selectivity of cellular targets in distinct tissue

regions can thus be assessed[37, 38]. Access to quantitative single-cell and vesicle measurements has

provided an unprecedented opportunity to compare and establish cell-dose equivalence between

humans and mice. The findings move the field forward in four important areas of persistent particle

exposure via the oral route, namely: (i) human relevance (ii) mechanism of absorption and intestinal

distribution (iii) role in intestinal inflammation and (iv) provision of a model for cogent risk

assessment.

Human relevance. The human small intestine is the only known site of cellular accumulation of

dietary microparticles, as exemplified by fgTiO$_2$[16, 18, 20] (**Figure 1**). We show here that all features of

this can be qualitatively and quantitatively recapitulated in a murine model, but full achieving this

requires exposure to human-relevant microbial 'danger signals'. Consistently, in this work, murine

dosing with fgTiO$_2$ was undertaken in a manner that reflects real-life exposures (*i.e.,* via the diet at

Figure 7 – Ileal distribution of fgTiO$_2$ following *Salmonella* challenge. a, Single-cell image analysis of tilescanned confocal reflectance images collected from transverse sections of mouse ileal tissue from the fgTiO$_2$-exposed, Δ*aroA-Salmonella*-infected treatment group (+28-day timepoint, n = 3 animals). fgTiO$_2$-positive cells in the Peyer's patches are displayed in red. As in **Figure 6**, the subepithelial dome (SED) regions were devoid of fgTiO$_2$ with the majority of the positive cells located basally around the follicle margins. In contrast to all previous data collected without Δ*aroA-Salmonella* exposure, fgTiO$_2$-positive cells (displayed in white) were now also present in the villous mucosa. Bigger versions of the single-cell analyses presented in (**a**) are available in **Supplementary Figure 15**. **b**, Montaging positive events from villous mucosa regions showed that particle loading was low compared to Peyer's patch cells with the majority containing single reflectant foci. **c**, High resolution imaging of optically cross-sectioned villi confirmed reflectant foci deep in the lamina propria in the same manner as observed in humans (**Figure 1c**). **d**, The majority of the fgTiO$_2$-positive events in the villous mucosa also displayed the same autofluorescence signature as was observed in the particle-recipient cells of the SED. *Scale bars: **a** = 250 µm; **b-d** = 20 µm.*

relatively low levels for a long period of time). Our findings contrast with a prior study, which used

bolus dosing via oral gavage or surgical intervention in fasted animals, where direct fgTiO$_2$ uptake

via the epithelium was reported[39]. Future work may wish to consider the necessity of natural

ingestion and concomitant normal microbial exposures, versus non-physiological dosing in specific

pathogen free environments, to recapitulate the human situation and address risk accurately for oral

particle exposures.

Mechanism of absorption and intestinal distribution. Seminal early work from Frey and Mantis[40,]

[41] showed that the mucus-rich glycocalyx markedly impairs model particle uptake by the regular

villous epithelium, whereas the near-absence of these features overlying Peyer's patches allows

direct access of particulates to M-cells. These cells have an extraordinary ability to engulf luminal

particles and macromolecules, passing them through to abutting cells at their basolateral membrane.

We first confirmed, unequivocally, that this uptake mechanism holds true for fgTiO$_2$ and, next,

demonstrated that specific SED immuno-competent phagocytes (LysoMacs and LysoDCs) are the

direct recipient cells that accumulate cargo from the M-cell. Taking all of our data together, we

believe that there is an on-going process of slow re-arrangement, typified by vesicular inheritance by

some of the cells and gradual particle-loaded-cell movement to the base of the patch. This migration

(presumed to occur in LysoMacs), which must ultimately result in mature pigment cell formation[16,]

[18], is greatly accelerated by oral exposure to the bacterial pathogen *S.* Typhimurium. In addition,

some particulate migration out of the patch, to the villous lamina propria, also occurs (typically low-

loaded cells, presumed LysoDCs). Again, building on formative work on the fate of reporter particles

of fluorescent plastic in the Peyer's patch[35], it is likely that the 'danger signal effect' holds true for

oral exposure to soluble enterotoxin adjuvants as well as pathogenic bacteria (*i.e.* multiple human-

relevant danger signals). Continuous exposure to fgTiO$_2$, as happens for many human populations,

would then re-load the apical (SED) phagocytes until another danger signal event occurs. Thus, for

the first time, we describe the natural history of persistent particle routing through – and beyond –

the Peyer's patch following oral exposure. This explains basal pigment cell accumulation of multiple

particle types, including titanium dioxide, silica and aluminosilicates, in human Peyer's patches as

well as the occurrence of sporadic particles elsewhere in cells of the small intestine[16, 18, 20].

Role in intestinal pathology. By extension of the above observations, our findings also imply that

$fgTiO_2$ is not in itself perceived as a danger signal in the intestine of wild-type mice since a

secondary (microbial) signal is still required for the 'acute' migration. Moreover, using highly

sensitive and selective protein analyses, that captured a broad array of biomarkers of immuno-

inflammatory signalling, we were unable to identify either direct or augmented perturbation of tissue

homeostasis at the site of particle accumulation. Indeed, mammals have very likely evolved with oral

exposure to other fine particles (*e.g.,* geologically-derived and soot). Certainly aluminosilicates, in

abundance, and some forms of silica are reported in human Peyer's patches alongside titanium

dioxide[16, 18]. Perhaps therefore, effective compensatory mechanisms generally exist, which may

include constitutive cell expression of immuno-inhibitory PD-L1 (**Figure 4v-z**).

Notwithstanding, the potential for $fgTiO_2$- induction or augmentation of intestinal pathology still

deserves scrutiny. First, in subjects with Crohn's disease, fine-particle-targeted macrophages of the

Peyer's patch do *not* express PD-L1[25]. Interestingly, Crohn's disease is a relatively modern

inflammatory disorder and there is good evidence that it may initiate in the Peyer's patches[42]. The

most commonly-associated single gene mutation with the disease is NOD2 and there is *in vitro*

evidence that when NOD2 is perturbed $fgTiO_2$ augments enhanced inflammatory activity with

microbial fragments[1]. So it should now be carefully considered what impact the ingestion of $fgTiO_2$

has on at-risk genotypes and, especially, where NOD2 functionality is diminished or removed.

Secondly, it is important to note that conclusions from this work refer to the distal small intestine

where there is uptake of $fgTiO_2$. As noted previously[12], however, it does not shed light on potential

effects of $fgTiO_2$ where it is *not* absorbed such as in the large intestine. Direct luminal effects (on

microbiome or apical enterocytes for example) cannot be precluded, especially given that this is

where exposure will be by far the greatest. Indeed, both Urrutia-Ortega *et al.,*[43] and Bettini *et al.,*[44]

have provided evidence for direct, pro-tumorigenic effects of $fgTiO_2$ on the colon which deserves

further attention[12].

A model for cogent risk assessment. Finally, we note that the particulate-accumulating population

of apical SED cells are clearly (i) immunocompetent (*i.e.,* non-quiescent) based upon their migration

characteristics, expression of cell surface immunoregulatory PD-L1 and their previously-described

qualities in terms of antimicrobial defence[17, 27, 45, 46] and (ii) capable of becoming heavily loaded with

$fgTiO_2$. Indeed, the exquisite particle selectivity for this tissue region means that the concentration

gradient for area-corrected reflectance signal was ~14-fold higher than for the Peyer's patch overall

and, therefore, ~1,245 fold higher than that of villous mucosa (**Supplementary Figure 16**). Given

that the particulate-loaded phagocytic cells make up only a minority of the SED[17, 23], then the cell

concentration of $fgTiO_2$ is *very* high (**Supplementary Video 1**).

We know of no other active particle-funnelling and specific cell-targeting strategy elsewhere in

mammalian biology so it is very likely that SED LysoMacs and LysoDCs provide the first and only

target to enable highly sensitive, single-cell risk assessment of $fgTiO_2$ and other persistent oral

particulates *in vivo*. By exemplification, we addressed the question of whether $fgTiO_2$ could initiate

or augment inflammatory signaling in the ileum / Peyer's patches of wild type mice: a long standing

question in the field. The clear answer was 'no', at least in wild-type genotypes, despite some *in*

vitro evidence to the contrary[1]. To explain such differences it is worth noting that cell culture studies

fail to replicate *in vivo* fidelity in many ways including rates of particle uptake, presence of

functional lymphatics and vasculature, cellular cross-talk, compensatory mechanisms and cell

migration prior to particle saturation (cell gorging). Whatever the reasons, after decades of

uncertainty, other questions regarding the safety of persistent oral particles can now be precisely

addressed using *in vivo* studies with human-relevant dosimetry and identified target cells. Indeed,

understanding the consequences of LysoMac / LysoDC accumulation of persistent particles in terms

of genotoxicity and any differential responses resultant from distinct host genotypes is now key to

understanding human risk following oral exposure to nanoparticles and microparticles.

METHODS

Mouse Study 1

The first mouse $fgTiO_2$ feeding study was approved by the Grasslands Animal Ethics Committee (Palmerston North, New Zealand) in accordance with the New Zealand Animal Welfare Act 1999. Food-grade, anatase TiO_2 particles ($fgTiO_2$) were purchased from Sensient Colors (St. Louis, MO, USA). Physico-chemical characterisation of these particles in our previous work shows a particle diameter distribution of ~ 50 – 300 nm, with a median diameter of ~ 130 nm[1]. As described and extensively characterised previously[15], to enable successful oral delivery, the standard rodent diet American Institute of Nutrition (AIN)-76A was supplemented with 0.000625%, 0.00625% or 0.0625% (w/w) $fgTiO_2$ (translating to approximately 1, 10 or 100 mg $fgTiO_2$ / kg body-weight / day respectively[15]). These diets were prepared by Research Diets (New Brunswick, NJ, USA), with straight AIN-76A without $fgTiO_2$ supplementation used as the 'negative control diet'. Six-week-old mice (C57BL/6, 50:50 male:female) were housed conventionally with normal feed intake and weight-gain confirmed bi-weekly[15]. After eighteen weeks feeding, mice were euthanised by CO_2 asphyxiation and cervical dislocation. The gastrointestinal tract was quickly removed and placed in cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Ileal tissues containing the most distal Peyer's patches (*i.e.,* closest to the ileal/caecal junction) and adjacent caecal patches were excised and frozen on a cold, stainless steel bar embedded in dry ice. Tissues were then transferred into cryomolds filled with pre-cooled optimal cutting temperature compound (OCT) and transferred to – 80°C for storage.

Mouse Study 2

Animal experiments conducted at Cambridge were performed under the authority of Home Office personal license number PIL IEDB62633, and project license number PPL PF86EABB1. Female mice (C57BL/6) were purchased from Charles River Laboratories (UK). Upon arrival, mice were housed conventionally and were monitored for signs of normal health, food ingestion and body-

weight gain throughout the study period. At the start of the study, thirty-six mice (six weeks old)

were randomly divided into two feeding groups. As before, one group received the standard rodent

diet American Institute of Nutrition (AIN)-76A supplemented with 0.0625% (w/w) $fgTiO_2$

(translating to approximately 100 mg $fgTiO_2$ / kg body-weight / day respectively[15]) whereas the

other received straight AIN-76A without $fgTiO_2$ supplementation (*i.e.,* the negative control diet).

After sixteen weeks of feeding, all mice were switched to the negative control diet, and twelve mice

from each diet-group were orally challenged with $\Delta aroA$-deficient, *S*. Typhimurium strain SL3261[47]

($\Delta aroA$-*Salmonella)*. We marginally separated the administrations of bacteria and $fgTiO_2$ to (i)

prevent artefactual adsorption due to co-administration (ii) enable luminal interactions between

gavaged bacteria and residual luminal particles (demonstrated by faecal ICP-MS studies,

Supplementary Figure 17) should such interactions occur and (iii) ensure that some food also was

in the lumen under these circumstances as would be expected with normal feeding. Mice were lightly

anaesthetised with isofluorane then orally gavaged with 0.2 mL of inoculum prepared at 5.25×10^9

CFU/mL. Mice were then euthanised by CO_2 asphyxiation and cervical dislocation at two time-

points, either +3 or +28 days after *Salmonella* inoculation (*i.e.,* 16 weeks +3 days or 16 weeks +28

days). In this way, four treatment groups (n = 6 control diet, n = 12 control diet + *Salmonella*, n = 6

$fgTiO_2$ diet, n = 12 $fgTiO_2$ diet + *Salmonella*) were established, with half of the animals analysed at

each of the two time-points. Alongside, faecal samples were collected at three time-points (pre-

study, 16 weeks +3 days and 16 weeks +28 days) to enable enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay

(ELISA) studies for *Salmonella*-specific IgA and faecal Ti measurements by ICP-MS.

Human tissue collection

Following informed consent, and after approval from the Regional Ethical Review Board,

Linköping, Sweden, surgical specimens containing Peyer's patches were collected from the neo-

terminal ileum from six patients with Crohn's disease or colonic cancer (3 males, 3 females;

resection date-range 2017-2018; median age 48 years; age-range 21 – 77 years). In all instances the

ileal tissue specimens formed the resection margins and were macroscopically normal. Peyer's

patches were microscopically identified as previously described[48]. The tissue specimens were fixed

with 4% PBS-buffered (pH 7.4) paraformaldehyde for 12 h at 4°C before immersion in 30% sucrose

and freezing in OCT (LAMB/OCT, Thermo Scientific) in cryomolds. For analysis, the OCT-

embedded tissue samples were rapidly shipped overnight to Cambridge on dry ice. Three

anonymised, formalin-fixed paraffin embedded (FFPE) tissue samples containing ileal Peyer's patch

lymphoid tissue were also analysed to confirm the presence of $fgTiO_2$ in the FFPE specimen-type.

Studies using human tissues at Cambridge were also approved by the UK NHS Health Research

Authority, North West – Greater Manchester East Research Ethics Committee, REC reference

18/NW/0690.

Tissue sectioning and immunofluorescence labeling

Frozen sections were cut at 20-micron thickness using a Leica CM 1900 cryostat, picked up on

Superfrost Plus slides (ThermoFisher, J1800AMNT) and rested at room temperature for 2 h prior to

labelling. FFPE sections were cut at 5-micron thickness, then dewaxed and rehydrated by baking at

60°C for 1 h, transferring through two changes of xylene, a reverse ethanol series (100%, 70%, 50%,

10%) followed by 1 minute rehydration in water. Sections were ringed with hydrophobic barrier pen

(Vector Laboratories, H-4000) and cryostat sections fixed by exposure to fresh 4%, 0.1M PBS-

buffered paraformaldehyde (pH 7.4) for 10 min. All subsequent steps were conducted under gentle

agitation on a rotating shaker. To facilitate antibody penetration, sections were permeabilised for 90

min using 0.3 % (vol/vol) Triton X-100 in 0.1 M PBS (pH 7.4). Block buffer (10% goat serum, 2%

bovine serum albumin, 25 mM glycine diluted in 25 mM Tris-buffered (pH 7.4) saline (TBS)) was

then added to all sections for 1 hour. Primary antibodies or concentration-matched isotype controls

were diluted in block-buffer and incubated at 4°C overnight. All subsequent steps took place at room

temperature. Sections were washed with three changes of block-buffer. Secondary antibodies (where

directly-conjugated primary antibodies were not used) were diluted 1:400 in block buffer and

incubated for 2 h. All antibody concentrations, fluorophore conjugations and manufacturer

information are provided in **Supplementary Table 2**. 500 nM phalloidin-AlexaFluor 647

(ThermoFisher, A22287) and 2 μg/mL Hoechst 33342 (ThermoFisher, H3570) were also included

alongside secondary antibodies to simultaneously label cell outlines (*i.e.,* cytoskeletal f-actin) and

cell nuclei (respectively). Sections were then washed once with TBS prior to mounting with #1.5

coverslips in Prolong Diamond (ThermoFisher, P36965).

Confocal microscopy & imaging controls

Fluorescence and reflectance image-data (2048x2048 pixels per tile) were collected using a diode-

controlled (retrofitted) Zeiss LSM780 confocal microscope equipped with plan-apochromat 63X/1.4

and 40X/1.3 oil-immersion objectives. Fluorescence and reflectance data were collected at the same

time during the same imaging run by sequential scanning with reflected (*i.e.,* back-scattered) light

from a 488 nm excitation laser collected in the range 485 – 491 nm to detect $fgTiO_2$[15]. Where

tilescanning was used, images were acquired with 10% edge overlap. Tiles were stitched using the

Zen Black 2011 SP2 software (Carl-Zeiss, UK) using the nuclei and actin channels for registration

and a 'strict' correlation threshold setting of 1.0. For all datasets under comparison, images were

obtained in a single run using identical settings. For the reflectance imaging, tissues from negative

control mice (*i.e.,* fed the AIN-76 diet only, so no $fgTiO_2$ present) were used to determine the image

acquisition settings and thresholding for $fgTiO_2$ detection (strategy shown, **Supplementary Figure**

1). For immunofluorescence work, supporting secondary-only and concentration-matched isotype

antibody controls in tissue-matched serial sections were included. For datasets collected as sets of

single images from the villous mucosa (VM), sub-epithelial dome (SED), germinal center (GC) and

TCZ (T-cell zone) regions of mouse Peyer's patches, landmarks (*e.g.,* villi / follicle-associated

epithelium) and T cell (CD3), B cell (B220) and mononuclear phagocyte (CD11c)

immunofluorescence staining in adjacent sections were used to inform imaging locations. When

tilescanning was performed, images were collected with 10% edge-overlap using focus mapping to

facilitate accurate image stitching whilst minimising acquisition time. To define the autofluorescence

signature of the $fgTiO_2$-recipient cells in the mouse Peyer's patches, lambda scans were performed

using the LSM 780 microscope. Using unstained tissue sections, autofluorescence upon excitation

from a 405 nm laser was detected in ~ 10 nm intervals in the range 415-700 nm (spectra presented,

Supplementary Figure 8).

Deconvolution

Z-stacked image-data (pixel size (XYZ) 1024x1024x123; voxel size (XYZ) 26x26x100 nm) of

$fgTiO_2$-recipient cells was collected using a Zeiss LSM 780 confocal microscope equipped with a

63X/1.4 plan-apochromat oil immersion objective using murine tissue sections embedded in Prolong

Glass (P36984, ThermoFisher) anti-fade reagent (refractive index ~ 1.5). Cell autofluorescence was

excited using the 405 nm laser. The image-stacks were registered to correct spatial drift using

StackReg[49]. The Born and Wolf scalar-based diffraction model[50] was then used to estimate a

theoretical point spread function assuming a refractive index of 1.51 and a autofluorescence emission

maximum of 495 nm (measured, **Supplementary Figure 8**). The registered Z-stack was then

deconvolved using the Richardson-Lucy total variation algorithm (75 iterations, regularisation 1e-12)

within the open-source DeconvolutionLab2[51] software.

$fgTiO_2$ detection using reflected light and circle-marker placement

To enable $fgTiO_2$ detection in biological tissue sections, reflected light and immunofluorescence

information was collected at the same time using a Zeiss LSM780 confocal microscope. The

reflectance images were thresholded to isolate the punctate, reflectant foci caused by the $fgTiO_2$

particles from the background light scatter caused by the biological tissue. As the background level

was similar in both mouse and human specimens (shown, **Supplementary Figure 4**) the same

threshold was used for both mouse and human images, and was determined as the level required to

remove all signal in the reflectance channel for images collected for tissue sections taken from the

negative control mice (*i.e.,* fed the AIN-76 diet only, so no fgTiO$_2$ present). This approach was then

further validated using correlative scanning electron microscopy and energy dispersive X-ray

analyses to confirm that the signal remaining after thresholding contained the expected X-ray signal

for titanium (strategy shown, **Supplementary Figure 1**). Given the small size of the reflectant foci

caused by fgTiO$_2$, a translucent circle-marker was placed on each pixel above the threshold using the

'insertShape' function in MATLAB R2021a (MathWorks) to aid visualisation given the relatively

small size of display in the Figure panels[15]. Examples of the raw signal and subsequent marker

placements are shown for mouse and humans in **Supplementary Figure 5**. Example data and code

demonstrating thresholding and circle marker placement are available at the BioStudies database

under accession number S-BSST875.

Correlative confocal-electron microscopy and energy dispersive X-ray analyses

Once fgTiO$_2$ detection by confocal reflectance microscopy was completed, Prolong-mounted

coverslips were removed from the tissue sections by overnight incubation in PBS at 37°C. Slides

were air dried at room temperature for 24 h, cut down and mounted on aluminum SEM stubs using

colloidal graphite and coated with a thin (~ 15 nm) layer of amorphous carbon (evaporative coater).

Tissue sections were then loaded into a Helios G4 CX Dual Beam high-resolution, monochromated,

field emission gun, scanning electron microscope (SEM) equipped with a precise focused ion beam

(FIB) and in-lens secondary electron and circular backscattered detectors (FEI/ThermoFisher).

Secondary and backscattered electron images were collected at $3 - 5$ kV as tilescans for the complete

tissue surface, permitting manual overlay onto the previously-collected confocal tilescans. To enable

correlative confocal-SEM imaging, the 'outline' of the Peyer's patch – particularly the follicle

associated epithelium and basal muscularis layer – were manually registered together using image

overlay, enabling triangulation to target specific regions containing reflectance-positive cells. The

correlative confocal-to-EDX analyses of the human tissues were then carried out directly in the

SEM, using a 150 mm^2 silicon drift detector and AZTEC software (Oxford Instruments). For the

correlative scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) used to confirm single-particle

detection by reflectance microscopy, thin lamella of the tissue sample were prepared in the SEM via

the *in situ* lift-out method. Once sites-of-interest had been identified, 500 nm of electron beam

platinum (Pt) was deposited (at 5 kV, 6.4 nA for the electron source) to the surface of the target area.

This was followed by a second Pt layer (1 μm) using the FIB (at 30 kV, 80 pA for the liquid

gallium (Ga) ion source). A bulk lamella was initially cut using the FIB (at 30 kV, 9 nA), before the

final cut-out was performed (at 30 kV, 80 pA). The lamella was attached, using ion beam Pt, to a

copper FIB lift-out grid (Omniprobe, USA) mounted within the SEM chamber (*i.e., in situ*). Final

thinning and polishing of the lamella to electron translucency was performed with a gentle

polish/clean using the ion beam (5 kV, 41 pA). A lamella was then transferred into a Titan[3] Themis

G2 300 kV S/TEM equipped with an S-TWIN objective lens, monochromator, HAADF detector and

a Super-X 4-detector EDX system in a double-tilt specimen holder (FEI/ThermoFisher).

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images and on-zone diffraction patterns were recorded

using a OneView CMOS camera (Gatan) and STEM-EDX elemental maps were recorded and

processed using the Velox software (FEI/ThermoFisher).

Cell segmentation of intestinal tissue images

In previous work, we carefully developed and validated staining and image analysis methods

enabling extraction of single-cell data from confocal microscopy images of gastrointestinal tissues[37].

Based on this framework, three cell segmentation pipelines were used to accommodate different

tissue types and differing availabilities of training data. To confirm the reliability of our previously-

published pipelines with the new image-data presented here, the accuracy of the outputs from all

three cell segmentation pipelines were assessed relative to manually-segmented cells by Jaccard

index (presented, **Supplementary Figure 2)**.

Cell segmentation: mouse villous mucosa images

Villous image-fields were directly segmented into cell-objects using the freely-available CellProfiler

software[52]. Using the Hoechst 33342 fluorescence information, nuclei were first segmented as

primary objects. These were then used as seeds during a marker-controlled watershed process to

segment each cell's outline using fluorescence information from the actin channel. The process is

schematically demonstrated in **Supplementary Figure 18** with the complete CellProfiler pipeline

shown in **Supplementary Note 1**. Test images and the CellProfiler pipeline are also available for

download at the BioStudies database under accession number S-BSST875.

Cell segmentation: mouse lymphoid tissue images

Lymphoid tissues (*e.g.,* Peyer's patches and caecal patches) exhibit extremely high cell densities

leading to poor cell segmentation accuracies using the simple, marker-controlled watershed approach

used for the villous mucosa images[37]. Pixel-classification machine learning can be used to alleviate

this problem through the generation of probability images that more precisely delineate each cell's

boundary[37]. Here, in mouse lymphoid tissues, these probability images were provided using a 2-D U-

Net fully convolutional neural network[53] deployed in MATLAB R2021a (MathWorks, MA). The

network has a 256x256x2 (x, y, channels) input layer and uses the nuclear and actin fluorescence

information to predict the probability that each pixel belongs to either 'cell outline', 'intracellular

environment' or 'background' classifications. The training data consisted of twelve lymphoid tissues

images (each containing 2138 x 1900 annotated pixels covering ~16,000 cells prepared by an

experienced cell biologist). The image-data flows through a four-layer contracting convolutional

path before complete up-convolutional expansion, yielding probability images that exactly match the

input-image dimensions. The network was trained for 50 epochs using a batch-size of 12 for 1,200

iterations/epoch. Patches were shuffled every epoch and augmented by simple, random x / y

reflection and rotation. Model training was optimised under stochastic gradient descent using cross-

entropy loss. The initial learning rate was 0.05, dropping every 10 epochs by 0.1 under momentum

0.9 and L2 regularisation 1×10^{-4}. The resultant 'Cell Outline' probability images were then loaded

into the CellProfiler pipeline alongside immunofluorescence and reflectance information collected

by the confocal microscope and were used to enable segmentation of individual cells via an

'IdentifyPrimaryObjects module'. This process is schematically demonstrated in **Supplementary**

Figure 19. The complete CellProfiler image analysis pipeline is presented in **Supplementary Note**

2. All U-Net code, the trained network with test-data and the complete CellProfiler pipeline are

available for download from the BioStudies database under accession number S-BSST875.

Cell / TLV segmentation: correlative mouse-human dosimetry

For the correlative analyses investigating the relative amounts of $fgTiO_2$ delivered to individual SED

cells in mice versus in normally-exposed humans, frozen ileal tissue sections containing Peyer's

patches were collected at random from six normally-exposed humans, and six mice fed the AIN-67

diet supplemented with 0.0625% (w/w) $fgTiO_2$. In every instance, care was taken to collect tissue

sections with clear follicle-associated epithelium (*i.e.,* without any overlying villi) to ensure

maintenance of similar histological positioning near the 'center of the dome' of each Peyer's patch.

Reflectance confocal images of the murine and human tissues were then acquired in a single run

under identical settings. After acquisition, the image-fields per specimen were manually laid out in

order of lowest-to-highest $fgTiO_2$ accumulation to visually present the spectrum of (wide) variation

in $fgTiO_2$ cellular loading observed across samples in both the mouse and human tissue specimens.

This was followed by quantitative image analysis to determine the thresholded reflectance per unit

tissue area; then the integrated intensity of the threshold reflectance information per-cell and per-

vesicle objects (method exemplified, **Supplementary Figure 3**). To extract the single-cell and

single-vesicle data, a CellProfiler pipeline was used. To tackle cell segmentation in lymphoid tissues

with high cell densities we have shown in previous work[37] that pixel-classification machine learning

can be used to produce probability images that more precisely delineate each cell's boundary

improving segmentation accuracies when compared to using the raw fluorescence information.

Unlike in mouse lymphoid tissues (method described above), because large amounts of manually-

annotated training data for the human lymphoid images was not available, these probability images

were created by sparse annotation pixel-classification machine learning in the ILASTIK software[54].

Two ILASTIK pixel-classification projects were created (one for the human images, one for the

mouse). Pixel annotations representing 'intracellular environment', 'cell outlines' and 'other'

classifications were made on the fluorescence channel describing the cell outlines (*i.e.,* the actin

channel) (method shown schematically, **Supplementary Figure 20**). The ILASTIK software then

generated probability images representing the probability of each pixel belonging to each

classification. The resultant 'Cell Outline' probability images were loaded into the CellProfiler

pipeline alongside the fluorescence and reflectance information captured by the confocal microscope

and were used to segment individual cells via an 'IdentifyPrimaryObjects' module. As part of this

pipeline, the reflectant foci representing fgTiO$_2$ events were also directly-segmented from the

thresholded reflectance images into 'fgTiO$_2$-loaded vesicle' (TLV) objects using a second,

'IdentifyPrimaryObjects' module (method schematically demonstrated, **Supplementary Figure 21**).

The complete image analysis pipeline is presented in **Supplementary Note 3**. Test images and the

complete CellProfiler pipeline are available for download from the BioStudies database under

accession number S-BSST875. The accuracy of the segmented-cell outputs were checked by Jaccard

index relative to manually-segmented cells (presented, **Supplementary Figure 2)**. The accuracy of

TLV segmentation from the raw reflectance information is explored in both mouse and human

images in **Supplementary Figure 5.**

Cell / TLV feature extraction

As described in previous work[37], raw immunofluorescence data were pre-processed by manual

thresholding at the level required to remove $\geq$ 95% of fluorescence in tissue-matched, secondary

antibody-only control images. Alongside, the reflectance data were carefully thresholded at the level

required to remove all signal from the images collected from the negative control group mice (*e.g.,*

fed the AIN-67 diet alone; strategy shown, **Supplementary Figure 1**). Thresholded reflectance and

fluorescence intensity information per cell or TLV object, alongside size and shape features were

then measured for both the immunofluorescence and reflectance channels using the

'MeasureObjectSizeShape' and 'MeasureObjectIntensity' modules in CellProfiler. The number of

TLV objects per cell was measured using a 'RelateObjects' module. Data were preprocessed by

discarding objects outside of the 5th and 95th percentiles by size prior to analysis as is recommended

best-practice[55].

Cell segmentation: block processing tilescans

To avoid memory limitations, when necessary, tilescanned images were cut into smaller pieces, run

through one of the CellProfiler pipelines before reassembling the object segmentation masks and

assigning global cell position coordinates to the extracted object features. This was achieved using

two MATLAB functions developed in our previous work[37]. The first 'TilescanToCellProfiler', reads

stitched images in most microscopy formats and cuts them into manageable tiles with edge-overlap

for processing. The second, 'CellProfilerToTilescan' reassembles the object masks, removes 'double

hits' on overlap edges and assigns global position coordinates values to the extracted features.

Example images and MATLAB code demonstrating these functions is available for download at the

BioStudies database under accession number S-BSST875.

Cell segmentation: accuracy assessment by Jaccard index

The Jaccard index (intersection over union) approach was used to check the accuracy of the cell

segmentation results used in this work. This was achieved by comparing pixel positions inside the

automatically-segmented cell objects against those obtained by manual annotations performed by an

experience cell biologist. The Jaccard index was calculated as:

$$J(A, M) = \frac{|A \cap M|}{|A \cup M|} = \frac{|A \cap M|}{|A| + |M| - |A \cap M|} \qquad \text{(Equation 1)}$$

Where J is the Jaccard distance for two sets of pixel positions for the automated (A) and manual (M)

segmentations, respectively. Scores of zero represent no overlap (false negatives) whereas scores of

1 represent exact pixel-for-pixel intersection. In this way, it is acknowledged that this approach is a

relatively harsh success measure, and that scores of ~ 0.7 indicate a good segmentation result[53]. This

is partially due to the inevitable inaccuracies that are present – even in the manually-annotated data

(*e.g.,* due to outline smoothing, ambiguity in determining the precise position of each cell's boundary

from the fluorescent staining information, and the available image resolution *etc.*).

Cell segmentation: cell mapping visualisations

The cell map visualisations displaying the delivered cellular doses of fgTiO$_2$ or TLV counts per-cell

were produced using cell feature information extracted by the CellProfiler

'MeasureObjectIntensities' and 'RelateObjects' modules alongside the object segmentation masks

outputted by each pipeline. Using MATLAB scripts, object feature data were binned into categories

(*e.g.,* 'low, 'intermediate' and 'high' fgTiO$_2$-load based on the integrated intensity of the thresholded

reflectance signal per-cell). Using the segmentation masks, individual cell-objects were then colour-

coded according to these categories to provide a 'tissue map' visualisation. Example data and

MATLAB code demonstrating the creation of these visualisations are available for download from

the BioStudies database under accession number S-BSST875.

Statistical analysis of image-based data

Integrated intensity per object (*i.e.,* per cell or NLV) distributions were compared using two-sided

Wilcoxon rank-sum analysis. This non-parametric approach was chosen for compatibility with

unpaired samples with unequal group sizes[37]. The approach tests the null hypothesis that the

distributions under comparison might reasonably be drawn from one continuous distribution with

equal medians ($P > 0.05$) versus the alternate hypothesis that the distributions are distinct ($P \leq 0.05$).

Pairwise comparisons of cell counts were first checked for distribution normality and variance

homogeneity using Shapiro-Wilk and Barlett tests, respectively. Where these tests were passed (P

>0.05), groups were compared using a two-sided, unpaired samples T-test assuming equal variance.

Olink[®] proximity extension assay

Frozen mouse ileal samples were weighed and stored in Kimble pellet pestle tubes (DWK Life

Sciences, K-749520-0000) at -70°C until processing. The Peyer's patch-enriched samples were first

trimmed tightly to either side of Peyer's patch using a cold safety razorblade such that each sample

primarily consisted of only the patch itself. Tissues were lysed using the BioPlex Cell Lysis Kit

(BioRad, 171-304011). 500 μL of Cell Wash Buffer per sample was used for rinsing the tissues. Cell

Lysis Buffer was prepared by adding Factors 1 and 2 as per the manufacturer's instructions, as well

as Halt Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (ThermoFisher, 78437; 10 μL of cocktail per 1 mL of buffer).

Following a rinse, tissues were homogenised by adding 500 μL of ice-cold Cell Lysis Buffer and

hand grinding on ice using disposable pestles (DWK Life Sciences, 749520-0000; 20 strokes).

Homogenised samples were frozen at -70°C for at least 4 hours, thawed on ice, sonicated in an

Ultrawave U300 ultrasonic bath (44 kHz, 35 W) on ice for 40 seconds and centrifuged for 5 min at

6,000 x g. Supernatant was collected into 2 mL cryogenic vials (Corning, 430659) and frozen at -

70°C until quantification. Quantification was performed using the DC Protein Quantification Kit I

(BioRad, 5000111) as per the manufacturer's instructions (Microplate Assay Protocol). Plates

(Greiner Bio-One, 650185) were read using FLUOstar Omega microplate reader at 750 nm and

protein concentrations were calculated by the Omega's MARS Data Analysis software using linear

regression fit. All samples were normalised to 0.77 mg/mL (+/- 0.12) by dilution with Cell Lysis

Buffer and re-quantified to confirm protein concentration. A microplate was prepared for the

proximity extension assay by transferring 40 μL aliquots of all samples, negative controls (Cell Lysis

Buffer), duplicates of 6 samples, and dilutions (1:4, 1:8 and 1:16 v/v) of two samples into a 96-well

skirted plate (ThermoFisher, AB0800) in a randomised manner (controls presented, **Supplementary**

Figure 11). The plate was sealed (ThermoFisher, 4306311) and stored at -70°C until shipment on

dry ice to Olink (Uppsala, Sweden) for analysis using the Target 96 Mouse Exploratory panel

(www.olink.com/mouse-exploratory). All protein names and abbreviations are listed in

Supplementary Table 1. Statistical analysis was performed using the Olink Analyze 3.6.0 R-

package (https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=OlinkAnalyze). Treatment groups were compared

using a two-sample Mann-Whitney U test with correction for multiple testing using the Benjamini-

Hochberg method. In the main text, results for proteins that could be involved in immuno-

inflammatory signaling are shown (**Figure 5**) whereas in the Supplementary Information results of

the entire protein set are shown alongside repeat-sample, serial dilution and blank sample proximity

extension assay controls (**Supplementary Figures 11-13**). The proximity extension assay data are

available for download at the BioStudies database under accession number S-BSST875.

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for *Salmonella*-specific IgA

During Mouse Study 2, faecal pellets were collected pre-study and at the 16-week +3 day and 16-

week +28 day time-points. Samples were weighed and diluted 1:10 (w/v) in 10% PBS containing 1

mM EDTA. The resulting suspension was vortexed for 15 min to facilitate liquefaction then

centrifuged at 400 x g at 4°C for 5 min. The supernatant was aspirated and centrifuged for a second

time at 12,000 x g for 10 min at 4°C. *Salmonella*-specific IgA quantification was then carried by

sandwich ELISA method. Plates were coated with 50 μL lipopolysaccharide (LPS), (Sigma, L2262)

diluted in Reggiardo's buffer (0.05 M glycine, 0.1 M NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.05 M NaF and 0.1%

sodium deoxycholate). Plates were then sealed and incubated overnight at 37°C. Next day, the plates

were washed 3 times with PBS-tween and blotted dry. Blocking buffer from the whole IgA kit

(Affymetrix, 88-50450) was added to each well for 1 hr at 37°C. The faecal supernatant was then

diluted in kit buffer A (Affymetrix, 88-50450) and 50 μL of diluted sample was added to each well.

After three hours of incubation, the plates were washed three times with PBS-tween before addition

of 50 μL horseradish peroxidase-conjugated IgA. Three more washes were carried out before the

addition of 50 μL tetramethylbenzidine substrate for 10 min. This was followed by 50 μL of stop

solution prior to absorption reading at 492 nm on a plate reader. All outputs were calibrated using a

standard curve and corrected for dilution.

Faecal ICP-MS analysis

Faecal samples were collected and stored at -80°C. Samples were weighed and a digestion solution

of 1:1 (vol/vol) nitric acid (Fisher, 7697-37-2) and hydrogen peroxide (Sigma, 7722-84-1) was added

to the samples (20-70 mg faecal weight) at a 1:10 (wt/vol) ratio. Samples were digested at room

temperature for 72 h before loosely-capped sample containers were transferred to a water bath

(40°C) for 5-6 h to release the peroxide. Samples were then transferred to a PTFE vial and sulphuric

acid was added (1:1 vol acid/sample weight) prior to final digestion using a Milestone UltraWave

microwave. The resultant liquid was decanted and diluted 1:10 (vol/vol) using ultra-high purity

water. Quantification of elemental Ti was performed using an 8900 triple quadruple inductively-

coupled plasma mass spectrometer (Agilent, USA). Scans were performed in MS/MS mode with the

reaction cell adjusted for analysis in H_2/O_2 gas. The instrument was set up to identify the mass pairs

48 and 64 for isotopic Ti-48 and TiO_2-64. Calibration standards were prepared in 2% nitric acid and

spiked with elemental Ti (Sigma, 12237) to final concentrations between 0 and 1 ppm. All samples

were spiked with an internal standard solution containing gallium (Sigma, 16639), germanium

(Sigma, 05419), yttrium (Sigma, 01357) & europium (Sigma, 05779) at final concentrations of 2

ppb. Counts per-second (cps) values for yttrium were collected to reference signal stability. A 2%

solution of nitric acid was used as sample carrier and rinse.

ONLINE CONTENT

Data and code are available at the BioStudies database (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/biostudies/) under

accession number S-BSST875.

DATA AVAILABILITY

Data supporting the presented analyses are available for download from the BioStudies database

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/biostudies/) under accession number S-BSST875. Source data are provided

with this submission.

CODE AVAILABILITY

MATLAB code (using Deep Learning, Image Processing and Computer Vision toolboxes) and

CellProfiler pipelines enabling the presented image analysis workflows are downloadable from the

BioStudies database (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/biostudies) under accession number S-BSST875.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1 – Titanium dioxide in human intestinal tissues. a, Tilescanned image acquired by

confocal reflectance microscopy. Reflectant foci were detected along the follicle base consistent with

previously-reported mineral particle-containing "pigment cells". Of note, similar reflectant foci were

also present apically in the immuno-active, subepithelial dome tissue-region, and away from the

patch in the (**c**) lamina propria of the regular villous mucosa (VM). Translucent red circle-markers

are placed on the reflectant foci to aid visualisation. **b/d/e**, Correlative SEM/EDX analyses

performed on the same tissue section shown in (**a/c**). The pigment cell region is shown in (**b**) where

X-ray signal for both Al (attributable to aluminosilicates) and Ti (attributable to titanium dioxide)

was found. EDX analyses in the (**d**) villous mucosa and (**e**) subepithelial dome regions showed

reflectant foci were attributable to Ti. **b/d/e**, In all instances the elemental data for Ti were a near-

exact match for the reflectant foci, whereas (**b**) areas with Al signal alone did not reflect. **f**,

Reflectance microscopical analyses of nine, randomly-drawn human samples (six frozen, three

formalin-fixed paraffin embedded (FFPE)) showed reflectant foci consistent with TiO_2 in the

subepithelial dome of *every* sample. *Scale bars: **a** = 50 μm; **b** = 50 μm with 10 μm insets; **c-e** = 10*

*μm; **f** = 50 μm with 10 μm insets.*

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Figure 2 – A mouse feeding study demonstrates fgTiO$_2$ specificity for Peyer's patches. a, Single-

cell image analysis of a transverse mouse ileal tissue section imaged by tilescanning confocal

reflectance microscopy. The cellular dose of $fgTiO_2$ – measured from the thresholded reflectance

(RL) signal – is colour-coded at low (lo), intermediate (int) and high (hi) levels. As in humans

(**Figure 1a/f**), $fgTiO_2$ loaded into the subepithelial dome of the Peyer's patch and there was evidence

of 'precursor pigment cell' formation along the follicle base. Away from the Peyer's patch, two

positive cells (**a**, insets) were found in the overlying villous mucosa. In contrast to the human

findings (**Figure 1c**) however, both were caused by luminal $fgTiO_2$ trapped in the invaginated space

of goblet cells. **b-d,** To investigate the sensitivity of $fgTiO_2$ detection by confocal reflectance

microscopy, a tissue-region containing a single, isolated reflectant foci was milled out under

correlative SEM using a focussed ion beam (**b/c** shows the registered SEM images transparently

overlaid onto the confocal reflectance data before lift-out. The white 'rectangle' in (**c**) is caused by

electron charging of the platinum strap laid down on the tissue region to be lifted out; (**d**) shows a

side-view of the lifted-out lamella). **e-i,** Transfer of the lamella to a transmission electron microscope

enabled high resolution imaging and X-ray (EDX) and electron diffraction analysis. A (**g/h**) single

particle of $fgTiO_2$ with an (**i**) anatase diffraction pattern (*i.e.,* as added to the diet) was confirmed

responsible for the single reflectant foci observed. **j**, Again, colour-coding the cellular dose of $fgTiO_2$

into lo, int and hi levels, tissue sections from adjacent caecal patches at the top of the colon were

found to be almost completely devoid of $fgTiO_2$ (n = 4 animals). **k**, Immunofluorescence microscopy

showed fgTiO$_2$ access to Peyer's patches was via GP2-positive microfold (M) cells (translucent red

circle-markers are placed on thresholded reflectant foci to aid fgTiO$_2$ visualisation / the outline of the

M-cell was manually drawn by tracing the actin-delineated cell boundary). **L**, Single-cell analysis of

a longitudinal section of mouse ileum consistently showed the close association between an M-cell

rich, follicle-associated epithelium and fgTiO$_2$ loading into Peyer's patches. **m/n**, Guided by CD11c

and CD3 immunofluorescence labelling for phagocytic mononuclear cells and T-lymphocytes

(respectively) sets of images were collected from the subepithelial dome (SED), germinal centre

(GC) T-cell zone (TCZ) or overlying villous mucosa (VM) tissue regions from four mice fed the

fgTiO$_2$-supplemented diet (WT + TiO$_2$) and four control-diet mice (WT). Some fgTiO$_2$ signal was

observed in the GC and TCZ regions of the murine Peyer's patches but the majority was in the SED.

In keeping with (**a**), and in contrast to the human findings (**Figure 1c**), in all four mice, no uptake

was seen in the villous mucosa demonstrating specificity for M-cell mediated, Peyer's patch

targeting. *Scale bars: **a** = 500 μm with insets 5 μm; **b** = 50 μm; **c** = 10 μm; **d** = 5 μm; **e** = 500 nm; **g***

*= 200 nm; **h** = 20 nm; **j** = 500 μm; **k** = 10 μm; **L/m** = 500 μm.*

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Figure 3 – Establishing correlative human-mouse dosimetry. a-L, Confocal reflectance

microscopy showing the range of cellular loading in the subepithelial dome tissue region of (**a-f**), six

randomly-drawn human and (**g-L**) six randomly-drawn mouse samples. After acquisition, the image-

fields per specimen were manually laid out in order of lowest-to-highest fgTiO$_2$ SED accumulation

to visually present the wide variation in fgTiO$_2$ cellular loading. Translucent red circle-markers were

placed on thresholded reflectant foci to aid visualisation. **m-p**, Quantitative analysis of the image-

data shown in **a-L**. **m**, Thresholded reflectance per unit tissue area (*i.e.,* amount of fgTiO$_2$ per unit

tissue area). **n**, Thresholded reflectance per cell (*i.e.,* fgTiO$_2$ dose per cell). **o**, Number of thresholded

reflectant foci per cell (*i.e.,* number of fgTiO$_2$-loaded vesicles (TLV) per cell). **p**, Thresholded

reflectance signal per foci (*i.e.,* fgTiO$_2$ dose per TLV). Statistical comparison of the distributions is

presented in **Supplementary Figure 6** (two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum analysis). None of the measured fgTiO$_2$ distributions were found to be entirely unique to either species. **m-p**, By all of the quantitative measures established, feeding a murine diet supplemented with 0.0625% (w/w) fgTiO$_2$ for eighteen weeks provides significant overlap with measured, real-world human exposures. *Scale bars: **a-L** = 50 μm with insets 10 μm; **n** = 20 μm; **p** = 5 μm.*

Figure 4 – fgTiO$_2$ selectively targets PD-L1$^+$ LysoMac and LysoDC cells. a-h, *In situ*, single-cell analysis of key immune-cell subtypes of the mouse subepithelial dome. **a/b**, Example images immunofluorescently labelled for B220, CD3 and CD11c (*i.e.,* identifying B-lymphocytes, T-lymphocytes and phagocytic mononuclear cells, respectively) from wild-type (WT) mice fed (**a**) without (WT) or (**b**) with (WT + TiO$_2$) fgTiO$_2$ dietary supplementation (0.0625% w/w of diet). fgTiO$_2$ was measured from thresholded reflectance images. Translucent red circle-markers are placed on reflectant foci to aid visualisation. **c/d**, Flow cytometry-type plots showing cell area / cell aspect ratio, (**e-g**) immunofluorescence distributions and (**h**) cell counts for B220$^+$, CD11c$^+$ and CD3$^+$ cells (n = 3 animals). All measures remained similar regardless of fgTiO$_2$ feeding (cell count comparison (**h**), P = ≥0.26, two-sided unpaired samples T-tests). **i-L**, fgTiO$_2$-recipient cells of the subepithelial dome were CD11c$^+$ in ~ 95% of cases. **m-o**, These cells also exhibited a unique, highly autofluorescent signature as previously-described for subepithelial dome 'lysomac' and 'lysoDC' mononuclear phagocyte cells. **o**, Again, this was true for almost all fgTiO2$^+$/CD11c$^+$ cells and, equally, these autofluorescent cells were similarly present in (**n**) controls without fgTiO$_2$ feeding (further data shown, **Supplementary Figure 8**). **p-u**, Montaged CD11c$^+$/fgTiO$_2$$^+$ or CD11c$^+$/fgTiO$_2$$^-$ cell populations from the SEDs of mice fed the fgTiO$_2$ supplemented diet visualised in terms of (**r/s**) autofluorescence signature. fgTiO$_2$ is seen to both selectively and specifically target the autofluorescent cells and (**t/u**) the diversity of CD4 and MHCII expression confirms that both

lysomac and lysoDCs take up fgTiO$_2$. **v-z**, fgTiO$_2$$^+$ cells of the SED expressed the immunotolerance

marker programmed death ligand 1 (PD-L1) whereas fgTiO$_2$$^+$ pigment cells at the base of the Peyer's

patch tended to lose PD-L1 expression (**y** versus **z**, respectively). **w**, PD-L1 expression in the Peyer's

patches was not significantly perturbed by feeding the fgTiO$_2$-supplemented diet (P = 0.34, z = -0.96,

two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum analysis, n = 6 animals). *Scale bars: **a/b** = 50 μm; **i/m, p-u** = 10 μm; **x***

*= 500 μm; **y/z** = 10 μm.*

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Figure 5 – fgTiO$_2$-Salmonella interactions. To enable studies of particle adjuvanticity and cell

migration, in "Mouse Study 2", after the 16-week fgTiO$_2$ feeding period all animals were switched to

a normal laboratory chow diet (*i.e.,* without fgTiO$_2$-supplementation) then half were orally

inoculated with attenuated, Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella*. Tissues were harvested +3 or +28 days after

infection. **a-c**, Confocal reflectance micrographs displayed as z-stack maximum projections showing

immunofluorescent labelling for flagellin (FliC) to detect the Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella* in the Peyer's patch

SED region. Marked accumulation of both fgTiO$_2$ and Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella* was observed in

autofluorescent, phagocytic mononuclear cells at the +3 timepoint. **d**, Faecal ELISA studies

confirmed a marked, *Salmonella*-specific IgA response at the +28 timepoint (bars represent medians

with interquartile range error-bars, n = 3-6 samples per treatment group). **e-g**, Protein expression

analyses of ileal tissue digests by proximity extension assay (OLINK mouse exploratory panel). **e,**

Comparison of ileal tissues taken from wild-type (WT) mice unexposed to fgTiO$_2$ but with (WT

+*Sal*) or without (WT) Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella* infection confirmed significant increases in expression of

key cytokines / chemokines associated with a Th1 immune response (P ≤ 0.026, two-sided Wilcoxon

rank-sum test, n = 5-6 tissues per group). **f**, Inflammation-associated protein expression analyses of

ileal tissue digests in the WT, WT +TiO$_2$, WT +*Sal* and WT +TiO$_2$ +*Sal* treatment groups at the +3

and +28-day timepoints. No significant differences were observed between the WT and WT +TiO$_2$ (P

≥ 0.53, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test, n = 3 animals per group) or WT + *Sal* and WT +TiO$_2$

+*Sal* groups (P ≥ 0.79, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test, n = 6 animals per group). Full dataset is

shown in **Supplementary Figure 12**. **g**, Peyer's patch-focussed inflammation-associated protein

expression analyses using carefully-excised patch digests in mice treated with either Δ*aroA*-

Salmonella alone (WT +*Sal*) or with fgTiO$_2$ and Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella* (WT +TiO$_2$ +*Sal*) at +3 or +28

timepoints. No significant differences were observed between the two groups (P ≥ 0.2, two-sided

Wilcoxon rank-sum test, n = 6 animals per group) at either timepoint demonstrating no interaction of

fgTiO$_2$ and Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella* despite (**a-c**) heavy loading into the same cells (full dataset shown in

Supplementary Figure 13). OLINK protein abbreviations are defined in **Supplementary Table 1**.

*Scale bars: **a-c** = 10 μm.*

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Figure 6 – Cellular dosimetry of fgTiO$_2$ across timepoints and *Salmonella*-induced migration.

a/b/k, Confocal reflectance micrographs from Mouse Study 2 showing the subepithelial dome (SED)

tissue region (n = 3 animals per group). After the 16-week fgTiO$_2$ feeding period, all animals were

switched to normal laboratory chow diet (without fgTiO$_2$ supplementation) and half were orally

dosed with Δ*aroA*-*Salmonella* before tissue harvest at +3 or +28-day timepoints. **a/b**, In the animals

fed the fgTiO$_2$-supplemented diet without *Salmonella* exposure (WT +TiO$_2$), fgTiO$_2$-loaded cells

were present in the SEDs at both +3 and +28 timepoints. **c-j**, To gain insights into cellular dosimetry

changes across the two timepoints, quantitative image analysis of complete Peyer's patch transverse

sections was used to precisely measure the number of reflectant foci per-cell (*i.e.,* the fgTiO$_2$-loaded

vesicle (TLV) count per-cell) and the amount of reflectance per foci (*i.e.,* equivalent to the fgTiO$_2$

dose per-vesicle). **d/e**, At the +28 timepoint, the TLV count per-cell was markedly elevated with a

new population of cells with TLV counts >13 forming in the mid-to-base regions of the follicle. **f/g**,

Randomly sampling and montaging the reflectance (RL) information in cells from each of the two

timepoints visually demonstrates this, showing (**g**) more heavily-loaded cells at the +28 timepoint. **h**,

Moving from cell to vesicle information, in contrast, the amount of reflected light per individual foci

remained near-identical across the two timepoints and this was again borne out visually when (**i/j**)

individual TLVs were randomly montaged. Collectively, the results suggest that once fgTiO2-loaded

cells move below the SED, there is a process of vesicular inheritance by certain cells over time,

providing a route to the formation of heavily-loaded pigment cells at the follicle base – as is well-

described in humans (**Figure 1**). **k**, Challenge with Δ*aroA-Salmonella* (WT +TiO$_2$ +*Sal*) markedly

changed this picture (n = 4 animals per group). At the +28 timepoint, SEDs were almost completely

devoid of both fgTiO$_2$ and autofluorescence-positive cells. Out of four SEDs imaged, only one

reflectant foci was detectable (indicated by arrow) showing marked migration of fgTiO$_2$ from the

SED tissue compartment after Δ*aroA-Salmonella* exposure. *Scale bars: **a/b/k** = 50 μm, **c/d** = 250*

*μm, **f/g/i/j**, = 10 μm.*

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Figure 7 – Ileal distribution of fgTiO$_2$ following *Salmonella* challenge. a, Single-cell image

analysis of tilescanned confocal reflectance images collected from transverse sections of mouse ileal

tissue from the fgTiO$_2$-exposed, Δ*aroA-Salmonella*-infected treatment group (+28-day timepoint, n =

3 animals). fgTiO$_2$-positive cells in the Peyer's patches are displayed in red. As in **Figure 6**, the

subepithelial dome (SED) regions were devoid of fgTiO$_2$ with the majority of the positive cells

located basally around the follicle margins. In contrast to all previous data collected without Δ*aroA-*

Salmonella exposure, fgTiO$_2$-positive cells (displayed in white) were now also present in the villous

mucosa. Bigger versions of the single-cell analyses presented in (**a**) are available in **Supplementary**

Figure 15. **b**, Montaging positive events from villous mucosa regions showed that particle loading

was low compared to Peyer's patch cells with the majority containing single reflectant foci. **c**, High

resolution imaging of optically cross-sectioned villi confirmed reflectant foci deep in the lamina

propria in the same manner as observed in humans (**Figure 1c**). **d**, The majority of the fgTiO$_2$-

positive events in the villous mucosa also displayed the same autofluorescence signature as was

observed in the particle-recipient cells of the SED. *Scale bars: **a** = 250 μm; **b-d** = 20 μm.*

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors acknowledge the UK Medical Research Council (grant number MR/R005699/1), the UK

Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (grant EP/N013506/1) and the UK

Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (grant number BB/P026818/1) for

supporting the work. J.W.W. is grateful to Girton College and the University of Cambridge Herchel-

Smith Fund for supporting him with Fellowships. J.W.W. thanks Debbie Edwards for her assistance

with the microscopy studies and Guy Dew for his comments on the manuscript. The authors thank

Prof. Neil Mabbot and Prof. Simon Milling for their helpful comments. J.D.S. and Å.V.K. were

supported by Swedish Research Council Grant No. 2021-02566. Mouse Study 1 was funded by the

Riddet Institute through its Centre of Research Excellence funding which was awarded by the New

Zealand government. Additional funding was provided by the Ministry for Science and Innovation

contract C11 × 1009 through Nutrigenomics New Zealand, a collaboration between AgResearch,

Plant and Food Research, and The University of Auckland. S.R. was supported by doctoral

scholarships from Massey University. The authors are grateful to Dr. Andrew Grant for his input into

the study design for Mouse Study 2.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

JWW and JJP conceived the concept and designed the analyses. NR obtained funding for SR Ph.D.

studies including Mouse Study 1. SR, NR and DO carried out Mouse Study 1. RJ, ABDS, MM, CB,

JW, PM and JJP carried out Mouse Study 2. AVK and JDS collected the human surgical specimens.

JWW, JR, MM, AF and REH conducted the light microscopical studies. AD, MM, JWW and JJP

performed the protein expression analyses. APB, SM and JWW carried out the electron

microanalytical work. JWW, PR, HDS and JJP performed the data analysis. JWW and JJP wrote the

manuscript in close collaboration with all authors.

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1229   **COMPETING INTERESTS**

1230   The authors declare no competing interests.