1 Titania Nanoparticles Regulate Innate Immunity

Jacob J. Whittaker,[a,#,*] David Eikrem,[b,#] Gulaim A. Seisenbaeva,[a] Karin Fromell,[b] Kristina N.

Ekdahl,[b,c] Bo Nilsson,[b] Mats Sandgren,[a] and Vadim G. Kessler[a]

[a] Department of Molecular Sciences, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Uppsala, Sweden.

[b] Department of Immunology, Genetics and Pathology, Rudbeck Laboratory C5:3, Uppsala University, SE-751 85 Uppsala, Sweden.

[c] Linnæus Centre for Biomaterials Chemistry, Linnæus University, SE-391 82 Kalmar, Sweden

[#] Authors contributed equally

[*] Correspondence should be addressed to Jacob Whittaker (Jacob.whittaker@slu.se)

10 Abstract

Titanium dioxide (TiO_2) nanoparticles, widely incorporated in everyday products such as food additives

(E171), cosmetics, confectionary and surgical implants, represent one of the most prevalent forms of

engineered metal-based nanoparticles (MNPs) in modern environments. Despite their ubiquity, safety

data on their immunological impact remains limited. Of particular concern are sub-5 nm TiO_2

nanoparticles, which possess the capacity to cross cellular barriers and disrupt protein function. This

study investigates the interaction between 3.5 nm triethanolamine-terminated TiO_2 nanoparticles and

complement C3, a central protein in the human innate immune system. Using cryo-electron

microscopy, we reveal direct binding of TiO_2 nanoparticles to the surface of C3, leading to structural

restrictions that hinder its activation and subsequent complement cascade progression. Biochemical

and haemolytic assays confirm that these nanoparticles act as alternative pathway-specific inhibitors,

impairing normal immune function. These findings underscore the potential immunomodulatory effects

of TiO_2 nanoparticles and highlight the need for thorough evaluation of their biological impact,

particularly given their widespread human exposure.

25 Introduction

Throughout evolution, humans have been exposed to natural metal and metalloid nanoparticles formed

during extreme environmental events such as volcanic eruptions.[1] However, engineered nanoparticles,

such as silver, gold, zinc and titanium oxides, are products of modern science and have only been

introduced into the environment within the last few decades. In particular, titanium dioxide (TiO_2)

nanoparticles have usage in an immense range of everyday products such as a whitening food

additive (E171), confectionary, paint, hygiene and personal care products.[2-5] Despite the recent

increase in anthropogenic metal-based nanoparticles (MNPs) and increased daily exposure, very

limited safety information is available concerning their biological effect.[6] Synthesised TiO_2

nanoparticles can range from a couple of nanometres in diameter through to several hundred

nanometres, with each size class capable of eliciting distinct biological responses.[7] Toxicity

considerations are particularly relevant for TiO_2 nanoparticles <5 nm in diameter due to their ability to

cross the blood-brain barrier and penetrate cellular walls.[8, 9] A non-exhaustive list of MNP effects on

proteins ranges from misfolding, enzymatic inhibition, dysregulation, aggregation and structural

alteration.[10-13] Regardless of their biological influence, the ultimate fate of MNPs is bio-clearance and

destruction by the host immune system. Yet, some metal nanoparticles have shown to compromise

important proteins in the immune system, specifically, within the complement system.[14-16]

Over the course of 500 million years, the complement system in vertebrates has evolved into the highly

advanced and intricate defence mechanism found in humans today. This system involves the

coordination of ~50 different immune regulation factors and proteins.[17-19] The complement system

functions in tissue, plasma, intracellularly and demonstrates exceptional sensitivity to antibodies,

foreign microbial sugars and pathogens.[20] The C3 zymogen, an inactive enzyme precursor that

requires activation to function, is perhaps the most significant protein in the entire complement

cascade. It exists as the most abundant complement protein found in the blood of healthy humans at

concentrations above 1.0 mg/mL.[21] For activation of C3 to occur, a small 9 kDa domain (C3a) must be

cleaved from the main 176 kDa chain (C3b) by a C3 convertase or serine proteases.[22-24] This promotes

a significant conformational shift of C3b and the exposure of a highly reactive thioester which is

responsible for the opsonisation (tagging) of foreign particles for destruction by downstream immune

system machinery.[25]

Our groups have previously shown that triethanolamine terminated titania (TATT), consisting of size-

uniform 3.5 nm TiO_2 nanoparticles, upregulate the coagulant system, a system intricately linked with

the complement pathways.[26-28] Consequently, these nanoparticles demonstrated excellent wound

healing properties resulting from their impact on blood platelet aggregation.[28] Other research indicates

that TATT can either trigger or inhibit blood platelet aggregation in vitro and in vivo.[29, 30] Notably, macro-

scale titania from implanted surfaces or environmental exposure can be gradually etched away by

bodily fluids into smaller nanoparticle oxides, potentially contributing to systemic nanoparticle

exposure.[31-33] Given the increased human exposure to TiO_2, and the close crosstalk between the

complement and coagulant systems, [27, 34] we investigated whether the titania nanoparticles imparted

any effect on the structure and function of C3.

Here we present the seminal cryo-EM structure of a TiO_2 nanoparticle bound to wild-type human

complement C3. Biochemical and haemolytic assays show that these nanoparticles are responsible

for C3 immune activity in blood serum and function as an alternative pathway-specific inhibitor. These

findings are further supported by structural investigations which reveal an outer-shell interaction

between the nanoparticles and C3, restricting protein motion and impeding the formation of

complement complexes necessary for continued immune function.

Results

Biophysical analyses of complement C3

Prior to structural analyses, baseline characterisations of native C3 were undertaken, including melting

temperature (T_m) and hydrodynamic radius (R_h) at physiological and extreme conditions. DLS

experiments showed that within the range of 25 – 55 °C, the protein maintained a constant diameter of

~12 nm (120 Å) which, surprisingly, is 40 Å smaller than reported inactive C3 structures (Figure 1a).[35,]

[36] Polydispersity values were consistently low and the hydrodynamic size remained monodispersed

and unchanged after 90 minutes. Thermal stability tests demonstrated that heating the sample

incrementally produced notable and rapid C3 aggregation at around 58 °C, with 6 nm cumulative radii

protein reaching 100 nm at 62 °C. This result was supported by nanoDSF measurements which

showed fast protein denaturation and a resulting T_m of 60 °C (Figure 1b).

SDS-PAGE and size-exclusion chromatography were used to confirm whether the smaller-than-

expected protein diameter was due to missing or cleaved domains besides the 9 kDa anaphylatoxin

domain of C3a. Despite possessing the same number of domains, the inactive and hydrolysed states

of complement C3 have been shown to elute at significantly different times simply owing to

considerable inter-domain reorientation.[37-39] Following protein digestion under reducing conditions, the

gel showed all bands and their corresponding domains were accounted for. The size-exclusion

chromatogram further confirmed that all domains were present with the 2 separate elution peaks being

attributed to both inactive and hydrolysed C3. Importantly, no smaller peaks or contaminants were

detectable after the final C3-associated elution (ESI Figure S1).

Although all biophysical and purity analyses showed the C3 sample as homogenous, conflicting

evidence suggested the protein was significantly smaller than the crystallographic and cryo-EM

structures already reported. To explain this discrepancy, we turned to single-particle cryo-EM and

determined the structure of native complement C3 under the same physiological conditions as all

previous analyses. To our surprise, we observed several states of the complement protein achieving

an extreme range of inter-domain motion.

Full-range of C3 flexibility revealed

The most compact state, shown in Figure 2a, appears as the dominant species in solution and

represents the inactive state conformation. This arrangement shows the thioester domain (TED)

compressed and adjacent to the macroglobulin ring (MG) domains of MG2 and MG6. The interactions

between the TED and MG domains are facilitated mainly through dipole contacts rather than strong

ionic interactions. This feature allows for the movement experienced by the MG domains to proceed

freely. In fact, of the three interacting domains in this region, there are almost no electrostatic

interactions or hydrogen bonds formed. Instead, a select few complementary hydrophobic and

hydrophilic pockets of amino acids are enough to stabilise this conformation (Figure 3).

3D Flexibility analysis shows two distinct states attributed to MG ring domains 1 - 6 which possess the

ability to locally swivel and pivot in-place (ESI Figure S2). This was an unexpected finding, as the

structurally well-characterised macroglobulin ring domain is reported as rigid.[40, 41] Combining both 3D

variability and 3D flexibility analyses, the global hinge-like motion between the contracted and

expanded states could be resolved in addition to the flexible local motions experienced by each

domain throughout the full movement. The MG domain movement between each conformational

endpoint was found to reach up to 28 Å, with the MG2 and MG6 connecting arm region shifting by 12

Å. Minor classes found in 2D classification suggest that the extension may actually be greater than

this, however these views were too rare to be reliably incorporated into the 3D variability constructions.

In biological systems, the thioester domain acts as a "warhead" to connect to the detected foreign

particle. The current structural series shows the MG2 and MG6 domains assist with this tagging

process by uncovering the thioester region and exposing it for binding. These domains act as an

extending arm which moves the bulky MG regions away from the TED by roughly 30°. Furthermore,

the MG7 domain exhibits a slight bending motion which affords more solvent-accessible space for the

linker domain to extend into.

Each "compact" and "stretched" conformation could be reconstructed to a $FSC_{0.143}$ of 3.0 Å and 4.0 Å,

respectively (ESI Supplementary Table 1). The local resolution range varied more depending on the

degree of flexibility demonstrated in each conformational state. The alpha chain of C3 remained rigid

with local resolution reconstructions of 2.5 Å possible. The flexible MG ring domains could be

reconstructed to approximately 5 Å in the extended pose while a higher resolution of 3.2 Å was

achievable in the contracted, more rigid conformation.

Biophysical assays suggest TiO$_2$ nanoparticles interact with human Complement C3

The alternative pathway of complement consists of continuously activated C3b and inactive C3 at low

concentrations. Therefore, it presented as an attractive testing ground for assessing the effect of TATT

nanoparticles on the immune system. Repeating the DLS and thermal unfolding experiments on TATT

in the same buffered system as C3 proved unsuccessful as the presence of salt promoted the near-

immediate aggregation and gelation of the nanoparticle colloid throughout a range of concentrations

(ESI Figure S3a). Instead using only filtered water, the nanoparticles showed no signs of aggregation

which was confirmed by DLS as the TiO$_2$ particles were found to be of a homogenous diameter and

stable at room temperature for 2 hours (ESI Figure S3b).

After confirming that C3 was also amenable in only filtered water, several concentrations of TiO$_2$

nanoparticles were added to differing aliquots of 0.4 mg/mL C3 for DLS and nanoDSF analysis (ESI

Figure S3c). DLS results showed no appreciable indications of protein or nanoparticle aggregation.

NanoDSF showed near identical T$_m$ inflection points for C3 in both water and buffered solution over a

range of temperatures. Importantly, the addition of TiO$_2$ resulted in an increase of T$_m$ by ~7 °C for

several separate concentrations of nanoparticle, demonstrating a meaningful interaction and

significant thermostabilising effect of the TiO$_2$ species on C3.

Biochemical assays show TiO$_2$ nanoparticles downregulate C3 activity

To test the effect TATT may have on C3 function, the formation of the alternative pathway (AP)

convertase, C3bBb was considered. In the presence of Mg^{2+} ions, factor B (FB) binds to C3b forming

the foundation of an AP convertase, allowing for the action of factor D (FD) to cleave FB into fragments

Ba and Bb. In turn, C3bBb is formed with a substrate specificity for native C3, the convertase cleaves

off C3a generating C3b. Using C3b as a positive control, native C3 (1 µM) was incubated with and

without TATT (1 µM) prior to the addition of FB and FD, relying on C3(H$_2$O) contamination or

spontaneous hydrolysis occurrence to enable convertase formation and Bb generation. To analyse

the effect of TATT, the ability for FB binding to native C3 was assessed by comparing peak area values

of FB and fragment Bb generation detected by a monoclonal antibody against Factor Bb neoepitopes.

The capillary electrophoresis data generated combined area for Factor B and Factor Bb that were

converted to percentage area in the Compass for Simple Western (v 6.1.0) programme after peak

naming. Figure 4A conveys the percent of Factor B remaining, indicating a reduction in the AP

convertase formation and activity, reducing Factor Bb generation. In the presence of TiO$_2$, after 5

minutes, 95.1% FB remains (Native C3; 71.8%, C3b; 64.3%), 30 minutes 69.6% remains (Native C3;

13.9%, C3b; 15.6%) and 60 minutes 18.5% remains (Native C3; 11.9%, C3b; 8.9%).

169 Haemolysis of red blood cells by C3 is inhibited with TiO_2

170 Building on the AP inhibition, the capacity for native C3 to maintain its haemolytic properties was

171 tested. Native C3 was incubated with incrementally increasing concentrations of TATT (0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8

172 and 16 µM). Rabbit red blood cells (RBCs) were used in this experiment as they fail to inhibit human

173 complement and therefore become rapidly opsonised with C3b, enabling AP convertase and

174 subsequent membrane attack complex formation (MAC) assembly, leading to haemolysis. In this

175 serum dependant assay, an absorbance at 540 nm was recorded from native serum (total lysis), C3

176 depleted serum (blank) and the test samples of C3 with or without nanoparticles. The test samples are

177 reported as a percentage of total haemolysis and show a significant reduction in haemolysis as

178 nanoparticle concentration increases compared to neat native C3 (4 µM TATT p= 0.0187; 8 µM TATT

179 p= 0.0268; 16µM TATT p= 0.003) as shown in Figure 4B.

180

181 Direct observation of TiO_2 nanoparticles interacting with human C3

182 Using these optimal conditions, C3 and TiO_2 at differing ratios were applied to Quantifoil EM grids and

183 plunge frozen in liquid ethane in preparation for cryo-EM. Despite their modest size of 3.5 nm, the

184 nanoparticles were readily visible as intense white spots on the micrograph with the ~185 kDa protein

185 in close proximity, barely visible as a blurred grey signal (ESI Figure S4a). Additional sample

186 processing in RELION 5.0 provided more discernible particles of both C3 protein, TiO_2 nanoparticles

187 as well as classes which showed both in close proximity (ESI Figure S4b, S4d). Several ATLAS and

188 eucentric height scans on different grids suggested that both particle distribution and contrast were

189 favourable in thicker ice. It was immediately obvious from the micrographs that the nanoparticles

190 further contributed to sample heterogeneity as they did not appear to interact with the protein in a

191 uniform manner. This became evident from particle picking and 2D classification as several potential

192 classes showed up to 3 nanoparticles may be interacting with a single protein, although at low

193 alignment resolutions, this may be attributed to increased particle densities in the thick ice regions.

194 Using a non-standard processing strategy in RELION 5.0 (Materials and Methods), we obtained a low-

195 resolution electron density map suitable for protein and nanoparticle fitting.

196

197 Despite a loss of resolution, the C3 core particle density, comprising of the thioester and surrounding

198 domains, matched very well with the previously-collected apo-C3 (amino acids ~550-1641). Similarly

199 to apo-C3, the macroglobulin ring density remained challenging to capture, however the location of

200 the missing domains could be approximated as the MG2 and MG6 domain densities connecting the

201 TED and MG ring, could be accounted for. The predominant pose of the C3 protein appears to be in

202 the most compressed state, where the MG2 and MG6 domains rest directly parallel to the thioester

domain. Several charged residues along the linker region form complementary interactions between

oppositely charged residues on the external face of the thioester domain, further stabilising this

conformation (Figure 5A, B). The vast majority of 2D classes also support this as we were unable to

locate any rare views of extended protein in close proximity to nanoparticle density. In fact, it seems

as though these extended forms of C3 are only observable in the absence of TiO_2.

Despite the lack of a defined binding site, protein flexibility and alignment challenges from spurious

classes, a clear density corresponding to the diameter of TiO_2 was located adjacent to the C3 electron

density. Owing to the signal thresholding during data processing, the most intense signal from the

interior of the nanoparticle has been eliminated, leaving just the periphery which resulted in a density

with a hollow interior. The pseudo-spherical density can be confidently attributed to the nanoparticle

rather than the missing macroglobulin ring domains as the TiO_2 density not only appears as the most

intense after map contouring compared to protein signal, but is approximately 40 Å from the expected

location of the macroglobulin ring. Furthermore, this region is situated well outside the latent axis of

motion displayed by the apo-C3 structure.

Overlaying the reported inactive structure with the nanoparticle-bound C3 shows that the majority of

the structure is unchanged, however producing a calculated RMSD of 4.27 Å relative to the MG7

domains of the native and TiO_2 structures (Figure 6A, B). This variability is largely due to the apparent

outward shift of the MG7 domain (residues 807-911), as the RMSD of the remaining protein is 0.912

Å. This macroglobulin domain is connected by two linker regions and is reported to move during

activation of C3, demonstrating a rotation of approximately 35°. This movement is facilitated by the

excision of the polypeptide chain between MG7 and MG8 by factor I, thus allowing the two MG

domains to nearly exchange positions.[36] Within an inactive C3, this domain is situated between the

linker and thioester domains, and has already been shown to move within the inactive state in the apo-

C3 structure. The location of MG7 in the current structure shows an outward shift of approximately 9

Å in the opposing direction to MG8. As the linkers are still intact, a slight rotation of this domain is

afforded to form an interaction with the nanoparticle which is positioned 6 Å adjacent to this domain.

Given the significant electronegative nanoparticle, it was anticipated that any interaction formed

between the species would occur at an acidic or phosphorylated region of the protein. A close

inspection of the solvent-accessible residues on MG7 indeed confirm that the nanoparticle is forming

an outer-sphere complexation with several electropositive residues (His846, Lys857, Arg858, Arg859,

His860) in addition to hydrogen bonding interactions with several more residues (Cys851, Thr855,

Thr856, Gln862).

Discussion/Conclusion

At present, this work represents the first example of a protein-nanoparticle interaction using a protein which lacks an engineered binding site specificity for the nanoparticle substrate. As such, this had evident repercussions on particle alignment and 2D classification challenges for non-specific interactions between the protein and nanoparticles.[42-44] Following a non-standard processing strategy for the C3-TiO$_2$ particles, a low-resolution reconstruction shows the interaction between C3 and a single TiO$_2$ nanoparticle. Despite the lack of a dedicated binding site for the nanoparticle, the location of TiO$_2$ does not appear to be random as it is situated adjacent to an electropositive, solvent-accessible region of the MG7 domain. This location demonstrates a charge complementarity between the highly electronegative, oxygen-coated, surface of the titania nanoparticle and the solvent-accessible arginine and lysine residues on MG7. Although the resolution is not sufficient to unambiguously determine the conformation of the amino acids participating in the interaction, the location of the nanoparticle throughout all classification steps remained consistent, indicating this interaction as non-transient and stable. Notably, the C3 has remained in an inactive conformation as the thioester domain, during activation, would produce a C3 diameter of ~160 Å. In the current structure, the compact density produced a diameter of 100 Å, much more similar to the size of reported inactive C3.[36] These structural findings were supported through the combination of Wes and haemolysis results: a significant functional deactivation of the C3 is imparted by the nanoparticle. In the context of the alternative pathway, this can be explained by the binding site obstruction for the C3 convertase, C3bBb. In the reported C3 convertase structure (2WIN),[45] the MG7 domain and C-terminal domain of C345C form a junction where Factor B is able to bind. Analysis of these inter-domain interfaces shows that they are stabilised mainly through hydrophilic interactions, particularly hydrogen bonds and polar side chain contacts, rather than by hydrophobic or charged interactions. Following this, Factor D cleaves bound into Bb and Ba, with the immediate expulsion of Ba. This leaves Bb attached to C3 to form the full C3 convertase of C3bBb, prepared to activate neighbouring C3 zymogens. In the current structure, the titania nanoparticle is situated almost exactly where Factor B would normally interact with C3 to activate the zymogen and form the convertase. Furthermore, the metal oxide nanoparticle, albeit not much larger than a Bb domain, is an extremely electronegative species as the titanium core is coated by oxygen. This results in a steric and electrostatic repulsive effect on the binding of Factor B to C3, producing no interaction between the two species. This was supported with a consistent melting temperature from nanoDSF of Factor B in water, buffer and in the presence and absence of TATT nanoparticles (ESI Figure S5). Additionally, the close proximity of the titania nanoparticles to MG7, a central domain involved in protein flexibility, has implications for the native motion of C3. The presence of the nanoparticles may sterically hinder conformational shifts in MG7 or disrupt intramolecular

interactions necessary for the propagation of structural changes, potentially altering the activation or

regulation of the complement cascade. Relatedly, a recent report managed to deny the translocation

of C3a and rearrangement of C3 by binding a specific nanobody to native C3.[46] To achieve this, the

nanobody was found to bind at the MG7 domain in the same position as the TiO_2 nanoparticles. These

interferences with the dynamic regions upon the protein could impair the ability of C3 to undergo the

structural rearrangements required for its conversion to C3b or subsequent binding events. Although

the C3-TiO_2 data are low resolution, it is clear by the predominant protein conformation that C3 indeed

remains in a native state. Recent evidence from our lab suggests that C3 can undergo conformational

shifts and adopt a C3b-like state even in the absence of Factors B and D, which promote cleavage.

Evidence of this can be extrapolated from both DLS and cryo-EM results. Particle radii of C3 from DLS

measurements remained reliably compact in the presence of nanoparticles when compared to apo

C3. This was further supported by cryo-EM electron densities, as all obtained classifications, both 2D

and 3D, showed the inactive (compact) form of C3. No evidence from the microscopy or biophysical

data suggests titania nanoparticles are associated with C3 in the extended conformation or that they

promote a major conformational shift to an active C3b-like state. Accordingly, given the inhibitory

biochemical and structural results, it is likely that these small, TATT nanoparticles are recognised as a

ligand inhibitor by C3, rather than as a foreign surface.[47, 48] Further experiments are necessary to

confirm whether this perception is due to the size, composition or charge of the MNPs. Interestingly,

the Compstatin family of cyclic peptide inhibitors, specific for C3, are shown to bind in a completely

separate area of the protein. These organic inhibitors are all documented to bind between the MG4

and MG5 domains, approximately 60 Å away from the observed TiO_2 binding site at the MG7 domain.

Yet, Compstatin binding does not arrest the conformation of C3, but instead prevents cleavage by

convertases (C4b2a in the classical/lectin pathway and C3bBb in the alternative pathway).

Accordingly, the titania nanoparticles may act to stabilise C3 in a compact, inactive form by

preferentially binding to flexible domains like MG7, thereby biasing the conformational landscape

toward a closed state. Such stabilisation could have functional implications, potentially dampening C3

activation by limiting the structural transitions required for convertase formation or cleavage.

The complement and coagulation systems are deeply intertwined, functioning not as isolated

cascades but as a coordinated network that responds dynamically to tissue injury. Crosstalk between

these systems ensures rapid haemostasis, immune cell recruitment, and tissue repair - functions that

are tightly regulated to prevent chronic inflammation or thrombosis. Our findings of TATT nanoparticles

inhibiting C3 activity introduce a novel mechanism by which these particles may influence the balance

between inflammation, coagulation, and regeneration, for example at wound sites. Our data suggest

that TiO_2 exerts active immunomodulatory effects by suppressing complement activation at the level

of C3. Furthermore, these results raise pertinent questions about the immunological effects these
nanoparticles may have on human immune systems. The inhibition of C3 by TATT nanoparticles
implies a downstream dampening of both the classical and alternative complement pathways, which
could translate into decreased anaphylatoxin generation (C3a, C5a), reduced opsonisation, and
eventual diminished membrane attack complex (MAC) formation. This modulation could directly alter
immune cell recruitment and activation at injury sites, potentially shifting the local environment from a
pro-inflammatory to a more regenerative state.

These findings reframe TiO_2 not just as a scaffold or surface-modifying agent, but as a bioactive
nanomaterial capable of modulating complex immune-coagulation networks. Our findings align with
emerging evidence that other metal or metal oxide-based nanoparticles, such as silver, zinc oxide,
cerium oxide, and gold, also exhibit immunomodulatory properties through diverse mechanisms.[49-51]
These insights support a paradigm shift in the use of nanomaterials in regenerative medicine,
positioning them not merely as passive scaffolds or antimicrobial agents, but as tuneable modulators
of host immune and haemostatic responses.

323 Materials and Methods

324 C3 isolation, purification and storage

Native C3 was isolated and purified in-house from human plasma according to previous reports.[52] The
final step of purification involved cation exchange chromatography which was performed using a Mono
S 5/50 GL column (GE Healthcare, Bio-Sciences AB, Uppsala, Sweden). The column was equilibrated
with 5 column volumes (CV) buffer A (20 mM phosphate buffer pH 6.8), followed by sample application
(0.25 CV). The column was washed with 3 CV of buffer A and then the elution was started using a
linear gradient of buffer B (20 mM phosphate buffer pH 6.8, ranging from 0 to 0.85M NaCl). The protein
elution was monitored with an UV detector at 280 nm and fractions of 0.5 mL were collected during
the elution procedure. C3 was precipitated in a low salt and pH buffer for storage by dialysis against
a 40 mM phosphate buffer with ionic strength 0.05 (mS) and pH 6.0 at +4°C with a buffer volume at
least 10-fold higher than the volume of C3. After 24 h the buffer was replaced with fresh buffer and
dialysis continued for another 24 h until a visible precipitate was formed. The stock solution of
precipitated native C3 was then suspended (without centrifugation) and aliquoted before storage at -
80°C. In order to dissolve the precipitated C3, 1-part VB++ (5x stock solution) was added to 4-parts of
precipitated C3 immediately before use.[37]

Preparation of sol-gel titania

The synthesis of the uniform titania colloids used in this work was performed by following a previously reported preparation.[53] The precursor of titanium ethoxide (5 mL) was dissolved in anhydrous ethanol (5 mL) followed by the addition of 1.5 mL of triethanolamine during continuous stirring. A hydrolysing solution (1 mL) was produced by mixing nitric acid (0.5 M) with ethanol (2 mL). The resulting lightly-yellow, transparent solution contained 120 mg/mL TiO_2 according to TGA measurements.[28] The obtained product was of high-enough purity to not require additional purification.

Biophysical measurements

DLS, thermal unfolding and nanoDSF measurements were performed on Prometheus Panta (NanoTemper, Munich, Germany) in technical triplicate. For apo-protein experiments, 0.5 mg/mL of C3 in filtered MQ water or buffered solution was added to separate capillaries at room temperature. For TiO_2 experiments, nanoparticles in a stock solution of 1 mM were suspended in filtered MQ water, briefly incubated with C3 and added to capillaries. All raw data were exported for analysis and graph generation in GraphPad Prism version 10.0.

Biochemical assays

For capillary electrophoresis analysis by Wes immunoassay and alternative pathway haemolysis, native C3 (1 µM) was preincubated with varying micromolar concentrations of TiO_2 nanoparticles in VBS++ for 30 minutes at 37°C.

For capillary electrophoresis, 70 µg/mL of C3, C3b and C3 incubated with nanoparticles were added to a preparation of Factor B (100 µg/mL) (Complement Technology Inc) and Factor D (0.5 µg/mL) (Complement Technology Inc) in VBS++ and incubated over a time course of 5, 30 and 60 mins. Individual time points were stopped with the addition of EDTA to a final concentration of 10 mM. The Wes immunoassay was performed under reducing conditions with a primary mouse monoclonal anti-human complement Factor Bb antibody (2 µg/mL) (Bio-Rad Laboratories).

The alternative pathway haemolysis assay was set up and adapted according to previous methods,[54, 55] where 25 µL of C3 (200 µg/mL) preincubated with 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8 and 16 µM of TiO_2 nanoparticles were added to 50 µL C3 depleted serum (Complement Technology Inc) followed by the addition of 100 µL 50% rabbit erythrocytes (v/v) in GVB Mg EGTA. These samples were then incubated in a shaking water bath for 20 mins at 37°C at 200 rpm before being stopped with the addition of cold VB-

374 EDTA. The samples were then centrifuged at 860 g for 10 mins at 4°C and absorbance measured at
375 540 nm on a CLARIOstar Plus (BMG Labtech).

Cryo-EM structure determination of native C3

C3 protein buffer was exchanged from VB^{++} to filtered MQ water and concentrated to 0.4 mg/mL before
grid freezing. Cryo-EM samples were prepared on UltrAuFoil R1.2/1.3 300 mesh holey gold grids
(Quantifoil Microtools). Once the grids were glow discharged with a PELCO easiGlow instrument (20
mA, 0.4 mBar, 1.5 min), 3 μL of C3 was applied to the glow-discharged grids. Vitrification was
performed with a Vitrobot Mark IV (Thermo Fisher Scientific) at 4 °C and 95 % humidity. Grids were
blotted in duplicate for 3 seconds and plunged into liquid ethane. Following vitrification, the grids were
clipped into autogrid cartridges (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for use with autoloader systems.

All grids were ATLAS screened on a Glacios 200 kV cryo-electron microscope mounted with a Falcon
III direct electron detector. Data were acquired in EER format at a pixel size of 0.7463 Å/pixel with a
dose rate of 0.91 electrons pixel^{-1} sec^{-1}. Approximately 1200 micrographs had 2x binning applied and
were processed using exposures fractionated into 50 frames for motion correction. This enabled for a
rapid assessment of the sample quality, particle density and distribution before high-resolution data
were collected. For full data collections, a 300 kV Titan Krios G2 (Thermo Scientific) transmission
electron microscope equipped with a K3 detector (Gatan) and a 20 eV BioQuantum energy filter
(Gatan), was used. Data were collected with the following settings: 0.648 Å/pixel (190 kx
magnification), 51 e^{-}/Å^2 total electron dose, −0.5 to −2.5 μm defocus range. Automated collection was
performed using the EPU software (Thermo Scientific) with 30° stage tilting. A total of 17,420 movies
were collected.

During data collection, cryoSPARC live (cryoSPARC v4.1.1) was employed for on-the-fly data
processing for the first few hundred micrographs using the same settings as for the initial screening
dataset. Processing was performed in cryoSPARC v4.6.0[56] and included initial Patch Motion Correction
and Patch CTF being performed before micrograph curation. Micrographs were manually curated
based on CFT estimations, total frame motion, defocus, ice thickness and contamination. Using the
obtained template from the screening dataset, all particle picking was performed with template picker
and the Topaz[57] wrapper template picker in cryoSPARC. Once data collection was completed, the
template-based picks totalled ~5 million and were 2x downsampled and extracted with a 400 x 400
box size before being Fourier-cropped to 250 x 250 pixels. Particles were classified into 150 2D
classes (10 Å minimum separation distance, 170 - 200 Å circular mask inner-diameter, 2 final full

iterations, 40 online-EM iterations, 400 batch size per class). Following 2D class selection, this

classification/selection procedure was repeated twice more which resulted in ~1.9 million particles

suitable for *Ab-initio* reconstruction. *Ab-initio* reconstruction was followed by heterogenous refinement

using a few poor density "dummy" classes as seeds for junk particles. Two further rounds of

heterogenous refinement seeding resulted in 818,343 particles which displayed discrete

heterogeneity, which was elucidated using 3D variability analysis.[58] Masked refinement and

reconstruction jobs reliably produced densities at resolutions of ~2.5 Å. 3D variability analysis

demonstrated the inherent continuous disorder of the particles and was used to separate individual

latent dimensions of motion attributed to approximately 3 states experienced by the particles. Particles

responsible for each state were isolated and reconstructed independently to produce each individual

C3 pose.

A model was constructed by using the reported inactive C3 structure (PDB 2A73)[36] as a starting model.

Owing to the large conformational differences between the current particles and the reported structure,

the domains were individually docked and fitted into the electron density with UCSF ChimeraX version

1.9.[59] These hand-fitted domains were then quantitatively fitted into the density and refined using the

DockEM[60] and Refmac Servalcat[61] packages within CCP-EM 1.6.0.[62] The Coot[63] program was used for

manual rebuilding and inspection of the model in the electron density before a final real-space

refinement run in PHENIX.[64] The relevant structural validation metrics are shown in supplementary

Table 1.

Cryo-EM structure determination of C3-TiO$_2$

As previous, C3 protein buffer was exchanged from VB^{++} to filtered MQ water and concentrated to 0.4

mg/mL before grid freezing. Cryo-EM samples were prepared on UltrAuFoil R1.2/1.3 300 mesh holey

gold grids (Quantifoil Microtools). While the grids were glow discharged with a PELCO easiGlow

instrument (20 mA, 0.4 mBar, 1.5 min), C3 was incubated with nanoparticles at an equimolar

concentration for 5 minutes on ice before 3 µL of the mixture was applied to the glow-discharged grids.

Vitrification was performed with a Vitrobot Mark IV (Thermo Fisher Scientific) at 4 °C and 95 % humidity.

Grids were blotted in duplicate for 3 seconds and plunged into liquid ethane. Following vitrification,

the grids were clipped into autogrid cartridges (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for use with autoloader

systems.

A 300 kV Titan Krios G2 (Thermo Scientific) transmission electron microscope equipped with a K3

detector (Gatan) and a 20 eV BioQuantum energy filter (Gatan), was used for the full data collections.

Data were collected with the following settings: 0.648 Å/pixel (190 kx magnification), 51 e$^-$/Å^2 total

electron dose, −0.5 to −2.5 μm defocus range. Automated collection was performed using the EPU

software (Thermo Scientific) and a total of 17,706 movies were collected. Processing was performed

in cryoSPARC v4.6.0 and included initial Patch Motion Correction and Patch CTF being performed

before micrograph curation. Micrographs were manually curated based on CFT estimations, total

frame motion, defocus, ice thickness and contamination.

A visual inspection of the micrographs and blob-picked classes in cryoSPARC suggested there was

a clear picking bias which made further classification and alignment impossible (ESI Figure S4a). As

the electron dosage charged the TiO_2, the nanoparticles appeared as bright hotspots on the

micrographs which almost completely overpowered signals attributed to protein. Attempts to use the

previous C3 reconstruction as a picking template were unsuccessful due to the picking algorithm

being unable to locate any signal related to protein. Analysis of the protein and TiO_2 relative intensities

in EMAN2[65] showed that there was approximately a 1:10 intensity disparity between the protein and

nanoparticles, respectively (ESI Figure S4c). Attempts to enforce non-negativity, solvent-clamping and

template picking using native C3 prior to 2D classification proved unsuccessful as the picking was

strongly biased toward the most intense signals of the nanoparticles. To the best of our knowledge,

cryoSPARC does not have the ability for the user to manually threshold and normalise intensities, and

for this reason we attempted to complete the data processing using RELION 5.0.[66] Following a

standard pre-processing strategy up to CTF estimation, Topaz was trained on a small subset of

particles and once training converged, particles were extracted from all micrographs. The extraction

job settings were not default: particle box size 384 pixels, diameter background circle 40 pixels,

stddev white dust removal -1.0, stddev black dust removal 3.0, with normalisation on and a minimum

FOM of 1.0. The relion image handler tool was used to threshold a series of incremental values from

1.0 – 3.0 in order to find which cutoff yielded the best SNR of both protein and nanoparticle. After 2D

classification was run on each thresholded particle stack, normalisation was run using the relion stack

create and relion preprocess tools. Performing this step was found to improve particle alignment as

well as provide an intensity distribution favoured by RELION. A low-resolution map was obtained from

the thresholded and normalised particle stack after running through 2D classification, 3D

reconstruction and masked refinement.

The obtained density showed most domains present excluding those in the macroglobulin head region

(MG1-4). Excluding this missing area, the domains were individually docked and fitted into the electron

density with UCSF ChimeraX version 1.9, which conformed to the inactive state C3 conformation.

Structural and statistical image preparation

All cryo-EM images were prepared using ChimeraX. All biophysical and biochemical graphs and

analyses have been prepared, fitted and displayed using the program GraphPad Prism version 10.0.

Acknowledgements and funding

We gratefully acknowledge the Cryo-EM Uppsala facility for the use of the Glacios microscope,

computational facilities and the expert technical support of Daniel Larsson, all of which is funded by

the Department of Cell and Molecular Biology, the Disciplinary Domains of Science and Technology

and of Medicine and Pharmacy at Uppsala University. This work was supported by the SciLifeLab &

Wallenberg Data Driven Life Science Program, Knut and Alice Wallenberg Foundation (grants: KAW

2020.0239 and KAW 2017.0003), and by the National Bioinformatics Infrastructure Sweden (NBIS) at

SciLifeLab. We would like to especially thank Dustin Morado, Tim Schulte and Piotr Draczkowski for

their expert assistance with data collection and interpretation. The computations and data handling

were additionally enabled by resources provided by the National Academic Infrastructure for

Supercomputing in Sweden (NAISS), partially funded by the Swedish Research Council through grant

agreement no. 2022-06725. This work was supported by the Swedish research council grant number

2022-03971_VR.

Author contributions

M.S, K.N.E, B.N and V.G.K conceptualised the research. G.A.S synthesised the pure titania colloidal

nanoparticles. D.E and K.F purified the C3 protein and performed all biochemical and haemolysis

assays. J.J.W performed all biophysical characterisations with C3 and TiO_2. J.J.W prepared all TEM

grids, performed data collection, processing, model refinement and validation of all cryo-EM

structures. J.J.W and D.E compiled and analysed the data, wrote the original manuscript and prepared

all figures and tables. Editorial assistance was provided by V.G.K, G.A.S, M.S, B.N and K.N.E. All

authors have reviewed, edited and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Data availability

Original data points are shown in the manuscript. Additional information can be obtained from the

corresponding author upon request.

References

1. Ermolin, M. S.; Ivaneev, A. I.; Fedyunina, N. N.; Fedotov, P. S. Nanospeciation of metals and metalloids in volcanic ash using single particle inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry. *Chemosphere* **2021**, *281*, 130950. DOI: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2021.130950.

2. Zhang, C.; Derrien, M.; Levenez, F.; Brazeilles, R.; Ballal, S. A.; Kim, J.; Degivry, M. C.; Quere, G.; Garault, P.; van Hylckama Vlieg, J. E.; et al. Ecological robustness of the gut microbiota in response to ingestion of transient food-borne microbes. *ISME J* **2016**, *10* (9), 2235-2245. DOI: 10.1038/ismej.2016.13.

3. Sadeghi, R.; Rodriguez, R. J.; Yao, Y.; Kokini, J. L. Advances in Nanotechnology as They Pertain to Food and Agriculture: Benefits and Risks. *Annu Rev Food Sci Technol* **2017**, *8*, 467-492. DOI: 10.1146/annurev-food-041715-033338.

4. Baranowska-Wojcik, E. Factors Conditioning the Potential Effects TiO2 NPs Exposure on Human Microbiota: a Mini-Review. *Biol Trace Elem Res* **2021**, *199* (12), 4458-4465. DOI: 10.1007/s12011-021-02578-5.

5. Baranowska-Wojcik, E.; Szwajgier, D.; Oleszczuk, P.; Winiarska-Mieczan, A. Effects of Titanium Dioxide Nanoparticles Exposure on Human Health-a Review. *Biol Trace Elem Res* **2020**, *193* (1), 118-129. DOI: 10.1007/s12011-019-01706-6.

6. Shim, K. H.; Hulme, J.; Maeng, E. H.; Kim, M. K.; An, S. S. Analysis of zinc oxide nanoparticles binding proteins in rat blood and brain homogenate. *Int J Nanomedicine* **2014**, *9 Suppl 2* (Suppl 2), 217-224. DOI: 10.2147/IJN.S58204.

7. Liao, F.; Chen, L.; Liu, Y.; Zhao, D.; Peng, W.; Wang, W.; Feng, S. The size-dependent genotoxic potentials of titanium dioxide nanoparticles to endothelial cells. *Environ Toxicol* **2019**, *34* (11), 1199-1207. DOI: 10.1002/tox.22821.

8. Brun, E.; Carriere, M.; Mabondzo, A. In vitro evidence of dysregulation of blood-brain barrier function after acute and repeated/long-term exposure to TiO(2) nanoparticles. *Biomaterials* **2012**, *33* (3), 886-896. DOI: 10.1016/j.biomaterials.2011.10.025.

9. Liu, X.; Sui, B.; Sun, J. Size- and shape-dependent effects of titanium dioxide nanoparticles on the permeabilization of the blood-brain barrier. *J Mater Chem B* **2017**, *5* (48), 9558-9570. DOI: 10.1039/c7tb01314k.

10. Shemetov, A. A.; Nabiev, I.; Sukhanova, A. Molecular interaction of proteins and peptides with nanoparticles. *ACS Nano* **2012**, *6* (6), 4585-4602. DOI: 10.1021/nn300415x.

11. Saptarshi, S. R.; Duschl, A.; Lopata, A. L. Interaction of nanoparticles with proteins: relation to bio-reactivity of the nanoparticle. *J Nanobiotechnology* **2013**, *11*, 26. DOI: 10.1186/1477-3155-11-26.

12. Li, J. J.; Zou, L.; Hartono, D.; Ong, C. N.; Bay, B. H.; Lanry Yung, L. Y. Gold Nanoparticles Induce Oxidative Damage in Lung Fibroblasts In Vitro. *Advanced Materials* **2007**, *20* (1), 138-142. DOI: 10.1002/adma.200701853.

13. Monopoli, M. P.; Aberg, C.; Salvati, A.; Dawson, K. A. Biomolecular coronas provide the biological identity of nanosized materials. *Nat Nanotechnol* **2012**, *7* (12), 779-786. DOI: 10.1038/nnano.2012.207.

14. Chen, F.; Wang, G.; Griffin, J. I.; Brenneman, B.; Banda, N. K.; Holers, V. M.; Backos, D. S.; Wu, L.; Moghimi, S. M.; Simberg, D. Complement proteins bind to nanoparticle protein corona and undergo dynamic exchange in vivo. *Nat Nanotechnol* **2017**, *12* (4), 387-393. DOI: 10.1038/nnano.2016.269.

15. Simberg, D.; Park, J. H.; Karmali, P. P.; Zhang, W. M.; Merkulov, S.; McCrae, K.; Bhatia, S. N.; Sailor, M.; Ruoslahti, E. Differential proteomics analysis of the surface heterogeneity of dextran iron oxide nanoparticles and the implications for their in vivo clearance. *Biomaterials* **2009**, *30* (23-24), 3926-3933. DOI: 10.1016/j.biomaterials.2009.03.056.

16. Chowdhury, S. M.; Kanakia, S.; Toussaint, J. D.; Frame, M. D.; Dewar, A. M.; Shroyer, K. R.; Moore, W.; Sitharaman, B. In vitro hematological and in vivo vasoactivity assessment of dextran functionalized graphene. *Sci Rep* **2013**, *3*, 2584. DOI: 10.1038/srep02584.

17. Nesargikar, P. N.; Spiller, B.; Chavez, R. The complement system: history, pathways, cascade and inhibitors. *Eur J Microbiol Immunol (Bp)* **2012**, *2* (2), 103-111.

18. Ricklin, D.; Hajishengallis, G.; Yang, K.; Lambris, J. D. Complement: a key system for immune surveillance and homeostasis. *Nat Immunol* **2010**, *11* (9), 785-797. DOI: 10.1038/ni.1923.

19.   Wang, Z.; Hood, E. D.; Nong, J.; Ding, J.; Marcos-Contreras, O. A.; Glassman, P. M.; Rubey, K.
M.; Zaleski, M.; Espy, C. L.; Gullipali, D.; et al. Combating Complement's Deleterious Effects on
Nanomedicine by Conjugating Complement Regulatory Proteins to Nanoparticles. *Adv Mater*
2022, *34* (8), e2107070. DOI: 10.1002/adma.202107070.
20.   Merle, N. S.; Church, S. E.; Fremeaux-Bacchi, V.; Roumenina, L. T. Complement System Part I
- Molecular Mechanisms of Activation and Regulation. *Front Immunol* **2015**, *6*, 262. DOI:
10.3389/fimmu.2015.00262.
21.   Zarantonello, A.; Revel, M.; Grunenwald, A.; Roumenina, L. T. C3-dependent effector functions
of complement. *Immunol Rev* **2023**, *313* (1), 120-138. DOI: 10.1111/imr.13147.
22.   Tack, B. F.; Harrison, R. A.; Janatova, J.; Thomas, M. L.; Prahl, J. W. Evidence for presence of
an internal thiolester bond in third component of human complement. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*
1980, *77* (10), 5764-5768. DOI: 10.1073/pnas.77.10.5764.
23.   Gros, P.; Milder, F. J.; Janssen, B. J. Complement driven by conformational changes. *Nat Rev*
Immunol **2008**, *8* (1), 48-58. DOI: 10.1038/nri2231.
24.   Markiewski, M. M.; Nilsson, B.; Ekdahl, K. N.; Mollnes, T. E.; Lambris, J. D. Complement and
coagulation: strangers or partners in crime? *Trends Immunol* **2007**, *28* (4), 184-192. DOI:
10.1016/j.it.2007.02.006.
25.   Ricklin, D.; Reis, E. S.; Mastellos, D. C.; Gros, P.; Lambris, J. D. Complement component C3 -
The "Swiss Army Knife" of innate immunity and host defense. *Immunol Rev* **2016**, *274* (1), 33-
58. DOI: 10.1111/imr.12500.
26.   Dzik, S. Complement and Coagulation: Cross Talk Through Time. *Transfus Med Rev* **2019**, *33*
(4), 199-206. DOI: 10.1016/j.tmrv.2019.08.004.
27.   Ekdahl, K. N.; Teramura, Y.; Hamad, O. A.; Asif, S.; Duehrkop, C.; Fromell, K.; Gustafson, E.;
Hong, J.; Kozarcanin, H.; Magnusson, P. U.; et al. Dangerous liaisons: complement,
coagulation, and kallikrein/kinin cross-talk act as a linchpin in the events leading to
thromboinflammation. *Immunol Rev* **2016**, *274* (1), 245-269. DOI: 10.1111/imr.12471.
28.   Seisenbaeva, G. A.; Fromell, K.; Vinogradov, V. V.; Terekhov, A. N.; Pakhomov, A. V.; Nilsson,
B.; Ekdahl, K. N.; Vinogradov, V. V.; Kessler, V. G. Dispersion of TiO(2) nanoparticles improves
burn wound healing and tissue regeneration through specific interaction with blood serum
proteins. *Sci Rep* **2017**, *7* (1), 15448. DOI: 10.1038/s41598-017-15792-w.
29.   Akinola, P. O.; Lateef, A.; Asafa, T. B.; Beukes, L. S.; Hakeem, A. S.; Irshad, H. M.
Multifunctional titanium dioxide nanoparticles biofabricated via phytosynthetic route using
extracts of Cola nitida: antimicrobial, dye degradation, antioxidant and anticoagulant activities.
Heliyon **2020**, *6* (8), e04610. DOI: 10.1016/j.heliyon.2020.e04610.
30.   Nemmar, A.; Melghit, K.; Ali, B. H. The acute proinflammatory and prothrombotic effects of
pulmonary exposure to rutile TiO2 nanorods in rats. *Exp Biol Med (Maywood)* **2008**, *233* (5),
610-619. DOI: 10.3181/0706-RM-165.
31.   Chouirfa, H.; Bouloussa, H.; Migonney, V.; Falentin-Daudre, C. Review of titanium surface
modification techniques and coatings for antibacterial applications. *Acta Biomater* **2019**, *83*, 37-
54. DOI: 10.1016/j.actbio.2018.10.036.
32.   Seisenbaeva, G. A.; Daniel, G.; Nedelec, J. M.; Kessler, V. G. Solution equilibrium behind the
room-temperature synthesis of nanocrystalline titanium dioxide. *Nanoscale* **2013**, *5* (8), 3330-
3336. DOI: 10.1039/c3nr34068f.
33.   Mudunkotuwa, I. A.; Grassian, V. H. Citric acid adsorption on TiO2 nanoparticles in aqueous
suspensions at acidic and circumneutral pH: surface coverage, surface speciation, and its
impact on nanoparticle-nanoparticle interactions. *J Am Chem Soc* **2010**, *132* (42), 14986-
14994. DOI: 10.1021/ja106091q.
34.   Eriksson, O.; Mohlin, C.; Nilsson, B.; Ekdahl, K. N. The Human Platelet as an Innate Immune
Cell: Interactions Between Activated Platelets and the Complement System. *Front Immunol*
2019, *10*, 1590. DOI: 10.3389/fimmu.2019.01590.
35.   Fredslund, F.; Jenner, L.; Husted, L. B.; Nyborg, J.; Andersen, G. R.; Sottrup-Jensen, L. The
structure of bovine complement component 3 reveals the basis for thioester function. *J Mol Biol*
2006, *361* (1), 115-127. DOI: 10.1016/j.jmb.2006.06.009.
36.   Janssen, B. J.; Huizinga, E. G.; Raaijmakers, H. C.; Roos, A.; Daha, M. R.; Nilsson-Ekdahl, K.;
Nilsson, B.; Gros, P. Structures of complement component C3 provide insights into the function
and evolution of immunity. *Nature* **2005**, *437* (7058), 505-511. DOI: 10.1038/nature04005.

37. Adler, A.; Manivel, V. A.; Fromell, K.; Teramura, Y.; Ekdahl, K. N.; Nilsson, B. A Robust Method
to Store Complement C3 With Superior Ability to Maintain the Native Structure and Function of
the Protein. *Front Immunol* **2022**, *13*, 891994. DOI: 10.3389/fimmu.2022.891994.
38. Hack, C. E.; Paardekooper, J.; Van Milligen, F. Demonstration in human plasma of a form of C3
that has the conformation of "C3b-like C3". *The Journal of Immunology* **1990**, *144* (11), 4249-
4255. DOI: 10.4049/jimmunol.144.11.4249.
39. Pangburn, M. K.; Schreiber, R. D.; Muller-Eberhard, H. J. Formation of the initial C3 convertase
of the alternative complement pathway. Acquisition of C3b-like activities by spontaneous
hydrolysis of the putative thioester in native C3. *J Exp Med* **1981**, *154* (3), 856-867. DOI:
10.1084/jem.154.3.856.
40. Janssen, B. J.; Gros, P. Structural insights into the central complement component C3. *Mol
Immunol* **2007**, *44* (1-3), 3-10. DOI: 10.1016/j.molimm.2006.06.017.
41. Nishida, N.; Walz, T.; Springer, T. A. Structural transitions of complement component C3 and
its activation products. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **2006**, *103* (52), 19737-19742. DOI:
10.1073/pnas.0609791104.
42. Yu, G.; Yan, R.; Zhang, C.; Mao, C.; Jiang, W. Single-Particle Cryo-EM and 3D Reconstruction
of Hybrid Nanoparticles with Electron-Dense Components. *Small* **2015**, *11* (38), 5157-5163.
DOI: 10.1002/smll.201500531.
43. Montesano-Roditis, L.; Glitz, D. G.; Traut, R. R.; Stewart, P. L. Cryo-electron microscopic
localization of protein L7/L12 within the Escherichia coli 70 S ribosome by difference mapping
and Nanogold labeling. *J Biol Chem* **2001**, *276* (17), 14117-14123. DOI:
10.1074/jbc.M008430200.
44. Chen, C.; Daniel, M. C.; Quinkert, Z. T.; De, M.; Stein, B.; Bowman, V. D.; Chipman, P. R.;
Rotello, V. M.; Kao, C. C.; Dragnea, B. Nanoparticle-templated assembly of viral protein cages.
Nano Lett **2006**, *6* (4), 611-615. DOI: 10.1021/nl0600878.
45. Rooijakkers, S. H.; Wu, J.; Ruyken, M.; van Domselaar, R.; Planken, K. L.; Tzekou, A.; Ricklin,
D.; Lambris, J. D.; Janssen, B. J.; van Strijp, J. A.; et al. Structural and functional implications of
the alternative complement pathway C3 convertase stabilized by a staphylococcal inhibitor. *Nat
Immunol* **2009**, *10* (7), 721-727. DOI: 10.1038/ni.1756.
46. Gadeberg, T. A. F.; Jorgensen, M. H.; Olesen, H. G.; Lorentzen, J.; Harwood, S. L.; Almeida, A.
V.; Fruergaard, M. U.; Jensen, R. K.; Kanis, P.; Pedersen, H.; et al. Cryo-EM analysis of
complement C3 reveals a reversible major opening of the macroglobulin ring. *Nat Struct Mol
Biol* **2025**, *32* (5), 884-895. DOI: 10.1038/s41594-024-01467-4.
47. Pangburn, M. K.; Morrison, D. C.; Schreiber, R. D.; Müller-Eberhard, H. J. Activation of the
alternative complement pathway: recognition of surface structures on activators by bound C3b.
The Journal of Immunology **1980**, *124* (2), 977-982. DOI: 10.4049/jimmunol.124.2.977.
48. Bajic, G.; Yatime, L.; Sim, R. B.; Vorup-Jensen, T.; Andersen, G. R. Structural insight on the
recognition of surface-bound opsonins by the integrin I domain of complement receptor 3. *Proc
Natl Acad Sci U S A* **2013**, *110* (41), 16426-16431. DOI: 10.1073/pnas.1311261110.
49. Moyano, D. F.; Liu, Y.; Ayaz, F.; Hou, S.; Puangploy, P.; Duncan, B.; Osborne, B. A.; Rotello,
V. M. Immunomodulatory effects of coated gold nanoparticles in LPS-stimulated in vitro and in
vivo murine model systems. *Chem* **2016**, *1* (2), 320-327. DOI: 10.1016/j.chempr.2016.07.007.
50. Hirst, S. M.; Karakoti, A. S.; Tyler, R. D.; Sriranganathan, N.; Seal, S.; Reilly, C. M. Anti-
inflammatory properties of cerium oxide nanoparticles. *Small* **2009**, *5* (24), 2848-2856. DOI:
10.1002/smll.200901048.
51. Poon, W. L.; Alenius, H.; Ndika, J.; Fortino, V.; Kolhinen, V.; Mesceriakovas, A.; Wang, M.;
Greco, D.; Lahde, A.; Jokiniemi, J.; et al. Nano-sized zinc oxide and silver, but not titanium
dioxide, induce innate and adaptive immunity and antiviral response in differentiated THP-1
cells. *Nanotoxicology* **2017**, *11* (7), 936-951. DOI: 10.1080/17435390.2017.1382600.
52. Hammer, C. H.; Wirtz, G. H.; Renfer, L.; Gresham, H. D.; Tack, B. F. Large scale isolation of
functionally active components of the human complement system. *Journal of Biological
Chemistry* **1981**, *256* (8), 3995-4006. DOI: 10.1016/s0021-9258(19)69557-8.
53. Kessler, V. G.; Seisenbaeva, G. A.; Unell, M.; Hakansson, S. Chemically triggered biodelivery
using metal-organic sol-gel synthesis. *Angew Chem Int Ed Engl* **2008**, *47* (44), 8506-8509. DOI:
10.1002/anie.200803307.
54. Fromell, K.; Adler, A.; Aman, A.; Manivel, V. A.; Huang, S.; Duhrkop, C.; Sandholm, K.; Ekdahl,
K. N.; Nilsson, B. Assessment of the Role of C3(H(2)O) in the Alternative Pathway. *Front
Immunol* **2020**, *11*, 530. DOI: 10.3389/fimmu.2020.00530.

55. Nilsson, U. R.; Nilsson, B. Simplified assays of hemolytic activity of the classical and alternative
complement pathways. *J Immunol Methods* **1984**, *72* (1), 49-59. DOI: 10.1016/0022-
1759(84)90432-0.
56. Punjani, A.; Rubinstein, J. L.; Fleet, D. J.; Brubaker, M. A. cryoSPARC: algorithms for rapid
unsupervised cryo-EM structure determination. *Nat Methods* **2017**, *14* (3), 290-296. DOI:
10.1038/nmeth.4169.
57. Bepler, T.; Morin, A.; Rapp, M.; Brasch, J.; Shapiro, L.; Noble, A. J.; Berger, B. Positive-
unlabeled convolutional neural networks for particle picking in cryo-electron micrographs. *Nat*
Methods **2019**, *16* (11), 1153-1160. DOI: 10.1038/s41592-019-0575-8.
58. Punjani, A.; Fleet, D. J. 3D variability analysis: Resolving continuous flexibility and discrete
heterogeneity from single particle cryo-EM. *J Struct Biol* **2021**, *213* (2), 107702. DOI:
10.1016/j.jsb.2021.107702.
59. Meng, E. C.; Goddard, T. D.; Pettersen, E. F.; Couch, G. S.; Pearson, Z. J.; Morris, J. H.;
Ferrin, T. E. UCSF ChimeraX: Tools for structure building and analysis. *Protein Sci* **2023**, *32*
(11), e4792. DOI: 10.1002/pro.4792.
60. Zou, J.; Zhang, W.; Hu, J.; Zhou, X.; Zhang, B. DockEM: an enhanced method for atomic-scale
protein-ligand docking refinement leveraging low-to-medium resolution cryo-EM density maps.
Brief Bioinform **2025**, *26* (2). DOI: 10.1093/bib/bbaf091.
61. Yamashita, K.; Palmer, C. M.; Burnley, T.; Murshudov, G. N. Cryo-EM single-particle structure
refinement and map calculation using Servalcat. *Acta Crystallogr D Struct Biol* **2021**, *77* (Pt 10),
1282-1291. DOI: 10.1107/S2059798321009475.
62. Wood, C.; Burnley, T.; Patwardhan, A.; Scheres, S.; Topf, M.; Roseman, A.; Winn, M.
Collaborative computational project for electron cryo-microscopy. *Acta Crystallogr D Biol*
Crystallogr **2015**, *71* (Pt 1), 123-126. DOI: 10.1107/S1399004714018070.
63. Emsley, P.; Cowtan, K. Coot: model-building tools for molecular graphics. *Acta Crystallogr D*
Biol Crystallogr **2004**, *60* (Pt 12 Pt 1), 2126-2132. DOI: 10.1107/S0907444904019158.
64. Afonine, P. V.; Poon, B. K.; Read, R. J.; Sobolev, O. V.; Terwilliger, T. C.; Urzhumtsev, A.;
Adams, P. D. Real-space refinement in PHENIX for cryo-EM and crystallography. *Acta*
Crystallogr D Struct Biol **2018**, *74* (Pt 6), 531-544. DOI: 10.1107/S2059798318006551.
65. Tang, G.; Peng, L.; Baldwin, P. R.; Mann, D. S.; Jiang, W.; Rees, I.; Ludtke, S. J. EMAN2: an
extensible image processing suite for electron microscopy. *J Struct Biol* **2007**, *157* (1), 38-46.
DOI: 10.1016/j.jsb.2006.05.009.
66. Kimanius, D.; Dong, L.; Sharov, G.; Nakane, T.; Scheres, S. H. W. New tools for automated
cryo-EM single-particle analysis in RELION-4.0. *Biochem J* **2021**, *478* (24), 4169-4185. DOI:
10.1042/BCJ20210708.

716