

Dietary microparticles implicated in Crohn's disease can impair macrophage phagocytic activity and act as adjuvants in the presence of bacterial stimuli

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Abstract. *Objective and design:* Western diets regularly expose the gastrointestinal tract (GI) to large quantities ($>10^{12}$ /day) of man-made, submicron-sized, particles derived from food additives and excipients. These are taken up by M cells, accumulate in gut macrophages, and may influence the aetiology of inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD).

Materials: We investigated the effects of common dietary microparticles on the function of macrophages from healthy donors or active Crohn's disease (CD) patients.

Methods: Macrophages were incubated for 24 h with microparticles before being assayed for cytokine production and phagocytic activity.

Results: Microparticles alone were non-stimulatory but, in the presence of bacterial antigens such as LPS, they could act as adjuvants to induce potent cytokine responses. Uptake of high concentrations of microparticles also impaired macrophage phagocytic capacity – but not their ability – to take up 2 μ M fluorescent beads.

Conclusions: While dietary microparticles alone have limited effects on basic macrophage functions, their ability to act as adjuvants could aggravate ongoing inflammatory responses towards bacterial antigens in the GI tract.

Key words: Inflammatory bowel disease – Crohn's disease – Macrophage – Phagocytosis – Diet

Introduction

Inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD), such as Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis, are chronic inflammatory disorders of the gut involving genetic and environmental components and

are believed to be the result of an aberrant immune response towards common commensal microorganisms. While much progress has been made in identifying IBD-associated genetic polymorphisms, the incidence of Crohn's disease has also been linked to environmental factors such as diet. Indeed, the spread of diets rich in processed foods (such as the modern Western or 'urban' diet) closely parallels the epidemiology of Crohn's disease [1–4]. In addition to refined sugars, 'westernised' diets contain large quantities of inorganic, bacteria-sized, microparticles (typically 0.1–0.7 μ m diameter) mainly derived from foods and pharmaceuticals as additives or contaminants [5–10]. Two of the most common ingredients are aluminosilicates (AlSi) – used as anti-caking agents in the food industry (typically as kaolinite; E559) and titanium dioxide (TiO₂) – a common food brightener or whitener (typically as anatase; E171) [6]. The presence of these agents in the diet has been linked to the development of gastrointestinal "pigment cells" – often detected at the base of Peyer's patches and present in virtually all western Europeans after early childhood [7, 8]. These cells are frequently observed in areas where the first signs of Crohn's disease manifest themselves [6] and various authors have questioned their contribution to the development of IBD [7–9]. Phenotypic analysis has shown them to be CD68⁺ macrophages while the pigment itself consists of aluminium, silicon and titanium [9, 10].

Dietary microparticles can enter the body by crossing the intestinal epithelium via endocytic M cells in the dome of the Peyer's patch before reaching mature macrophages at the Peyer's patch base [9, 11, 12]. Cellular processes are apparently unable to degrade the material and an accumulation of particles can be observed in phagocytic vacuoles [11, 13, 14]. While these agents are believed to be 'immunologically inert' in the gut, similar particles can cause granulomatous diseases in other organs [15, 16] and recent research suggests dietary microparticles could be potent initiators and drivers of inflammation under the appropriate conditions [6, 17, 18].

Indeed, Powell *et al.* found that food-grade TiO₂ microparticles could act as adjuvants in the presence of lipopolysaccharide (LPS), significantly enhancing IL-1 β responses in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs), intestinal explants, and lamina propria mononuclear cells (LPMCs) [18, 19]. These effects resulted from adsorption of LPS, in the presence of excess calcium ions (4.5 mM), to the charged surfaces of TiO₂ microparticles, leading to uptake of particulate, rather than soluble LPS [18, 19]. It is currently unclear whether, in susceptible individuals, these particulate complexes could overcome tolerogenic processes and induce inflammation.

Under normal conditions macrophages in the gastrointestinal tract play a crucial role in maintaining homeostasis-phagocytosing apoptotic cells and producing anti-inflammatory cytokines such as TGF β and IL-10 [20]. However, upon stimulation, they can act as potent mediators of inflammation – releasing inflammatory cytokines, lipid mediators, nitric oxide, and reactive oxygen species that mediate cellular cytotoxicity [21, 22]. Since macrophages avidly scavenge dietary microparticles, we have investigated the effects of microparticle uptake on macrophage function with particular focus on cytokine responses and phagocytic activity. In addition, we have addressed the hypothesis that microparticles could play a role in the development of Crohn's disease.

Materials and methods

Generation of monocyte-derived macrophages

Heparinised blood (20 ml) was obtained from healthy volunteers (n = 8), or Crohn's disease patients with active disease but no current treatment (n = 6). Peripheral blood was separated by centrifugation on a ficoll-hypaque (Nycomed, UK) density gradient (according to the manufacturer's instructions). CD14⁺ monocytes were isolated from the PBMC layer by positive selection using MACS beads (Miltenyi Biotech, Germany) as per the manufacturer's instructions and were routinely found to be >95 % pure CD14⁺ cells by flow cytometry. Macrophages were differentiated in X-VIVO 15 serum-free medium (Biowhittaker, USA) containing 10 % AB human serum (Sigma Chemicals, Poole, UK) and 25 ng/ml M-CSF (First Link Ltd, Birmingham, UK) in 6 well tissue culture plates at a concentration of 3–5 \times 10⁵ cells per ml. Cells were incubated for 6 days at 37 °C in an atmosphere of 5 % CO₂/95 % air. Day 6 cells showed a distinct macrophage morphology and were CD14^{low}, MHC class II⁺, CD68⁺, CD206⁺ (macrophage mannose receptor) – data not shown.

Microparticle uptake assay

The aluminosilicate (AlSi; kaolinite, BDH, Germany) and food-grade titanium dioxide (TiO₂ Anatase, Special AHR, Tioxide UK Ltd, Cleveland, UK) were added to cells over a range of doses (0.05–50 μ g/ml) and incubated for 24 h. Cells were analysed by flow cytometry (FACS-calibur, BD Biosciences) set to measure size (forward scatter; FSC) and granularity (side scatter; SSC) as originally described by Kobsik *et al.* [23]. Results were plotted as percentage increases in granularity (SSC) to enable direct comparisons between cells from healthy controls and patients with Crohn's disease.

Macrophage viability

Macrophages were assessed for viability by flow cytometric-observed staining with annexin-V-APC (BD Biosciences) and propidium iodide

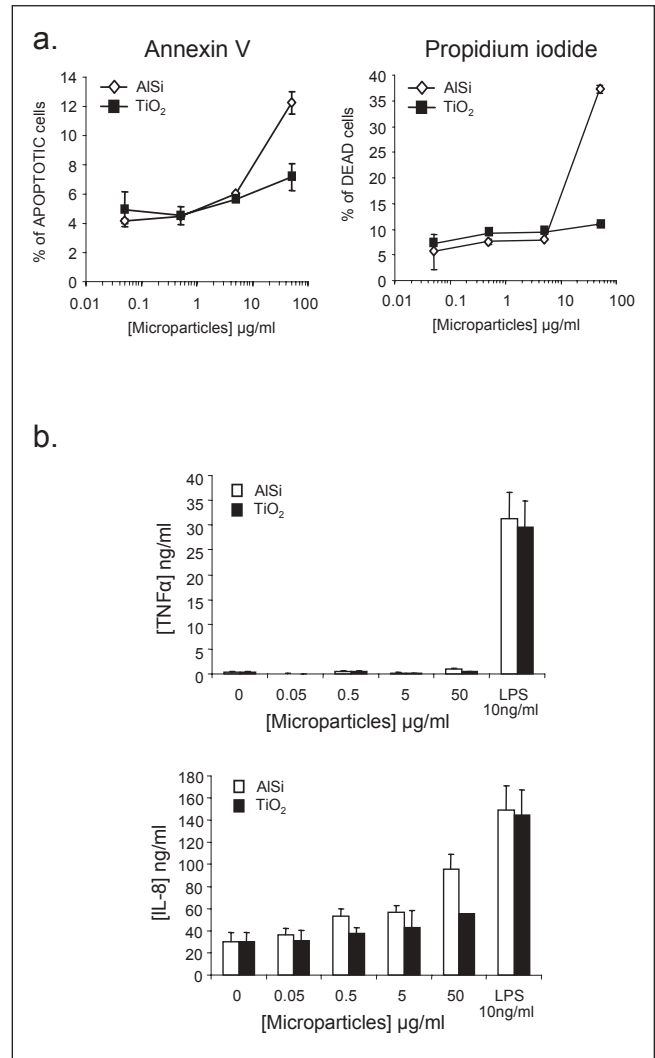


Fig. 1. Microparticle toxicity. (a) Macrophages were analysed for viability by annexin-V and propidium iodide staining. Graphs show mean percentage of annexin V-positive (apoptotic) cells and propidium iodide-positive (necrotic) cells following microparticle incubation for 24 h \pm standard deviations (SD) for triplicate samples. (b) Levels of IL-8 and TNF α in supernatants. Cells stimulated with 10 ng/ml LPS were used as positive controls. Data are representative of five experiments.

(Sigma) as per the manufacturer's instructions. Results are presented as the percentage of cells in a population undergoing apoptosis (annexin-V staining) or necrosis (propidium iodide uptake). Macrophage cell culture supernatants were also analysed for inflammatory cytokine (IL-8 and TNF α) secretion following treatment with microparticles.

Cytokine ELISA

Following culture with dietary microparticles and/or 10 ng/ml LPS (from *Escherichia coli* type 055: B5; Sigma), supernatants (from 5 \times 10⁵ macrophages in 500 μ l medium) were harvested and spun to remove cells and debris. IL-8 and TNF α were detected by sandwich ELISA using paired antibodies (BD Biosciences) and avidin-horseradish peroxidase (Biosource International Inc., California, USA), added at 0.1 μ g/ml

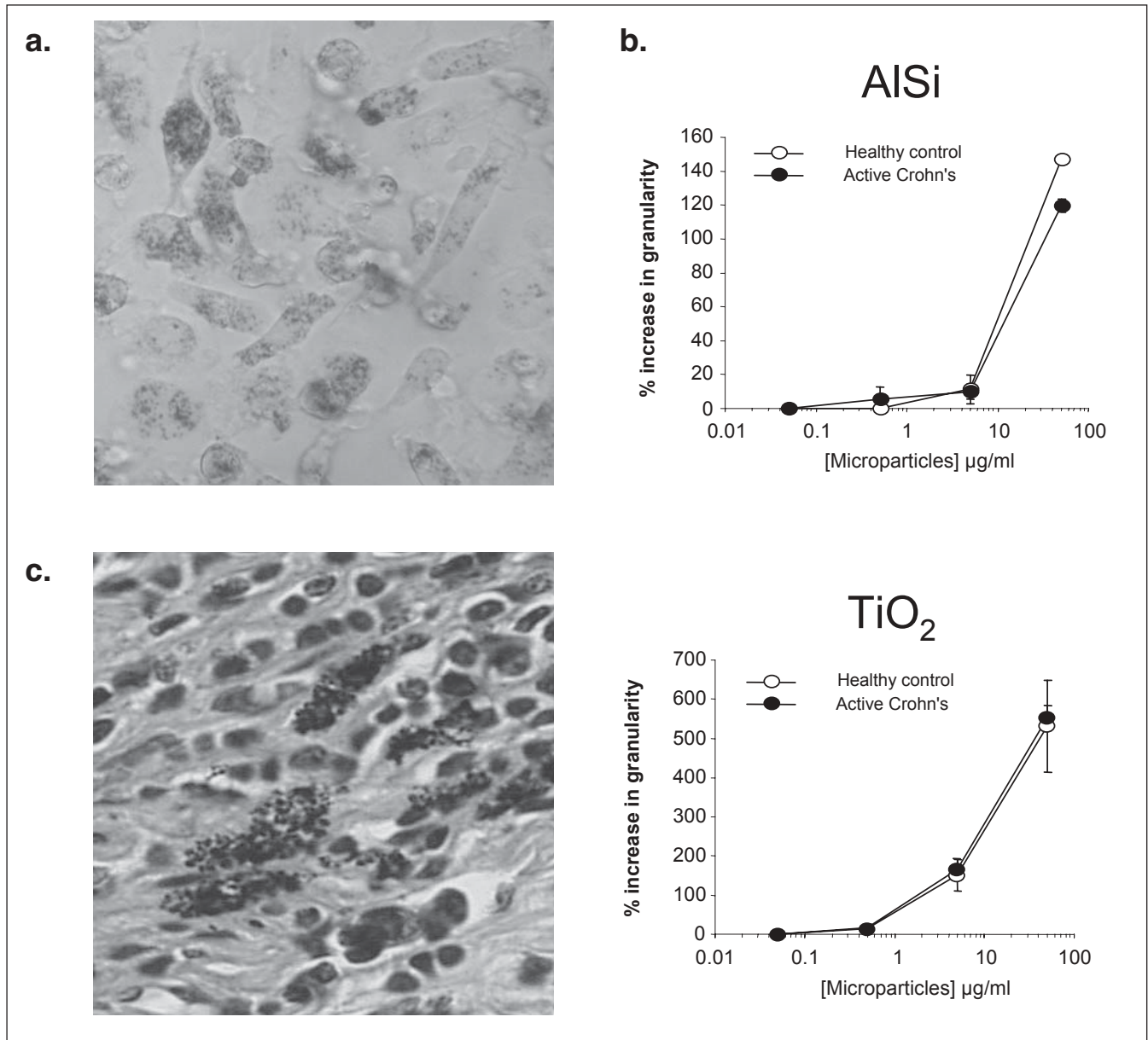


Fig. 2. Uptake of dietary microparticles. Macrophages from healthy controls or active Crohn's patients were incubated with dietary microparticles (5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) for 24 h then analysed by (a) light microscopy or (b) flow cytometry. (c) H+E stain for "pigment cells" at base of human peyer's patch. Large increases in cell granularity reflected microparticle uptake. Results show mean percentage increases in granularity \pm SD of macrophages from 8 healthy controls and 6 active Crohn's patients.

for 30 min. TMB (Zymed, San Francisco, USA) was used as a substrate. IL-10 and TGF β -1 were detected using duoset kits (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, USA) as per the manufacturer's instructions. Colour development was stopped by the addition of 0.5 M H_2SO_4 and plates were read for optical density at 450 nm (ELISA plate reader; Titertek Multiskan – Flow laboratories, Maryland, USA). Samples were analysed in triplicate and data are presented as 'box and whisker' plots to show spread of data (plotted using GraphPad Software, San Diego, California, USA). Data were analysed by Wilcoxon signed rank test (** $p < 0.005$; * $p < 0.05$). Comparisons between healthy control and Crohn's patient responses were analysed by Mann-Whitney U test (** $p < 0.005$; * $p < 0.05$).

Phagocytosis assay

Cells were incubated for 1 h with 500 μL of fresh medium containing green fluorescent 2 μM , carboxylate-modified, Fluospheres[®] (Molecular Probes; Invitrogen, California, USA) at a ratio of 5 beads to 1 cell. After incubation, cells were washed 3 times before harvesting with Trypsin-EDTA (Sigma). Cells phagocytosing fluorescent beads could be clearly distinguished by flow cytometry using a histogram plot. Peaks corresponding with cells taking up 1, 2, 3, or 4+ beads were gated and used to provide data. Data were analysed by Wilcoxon signed rank test (** $p < 0.005$; * $p < 0.05$).

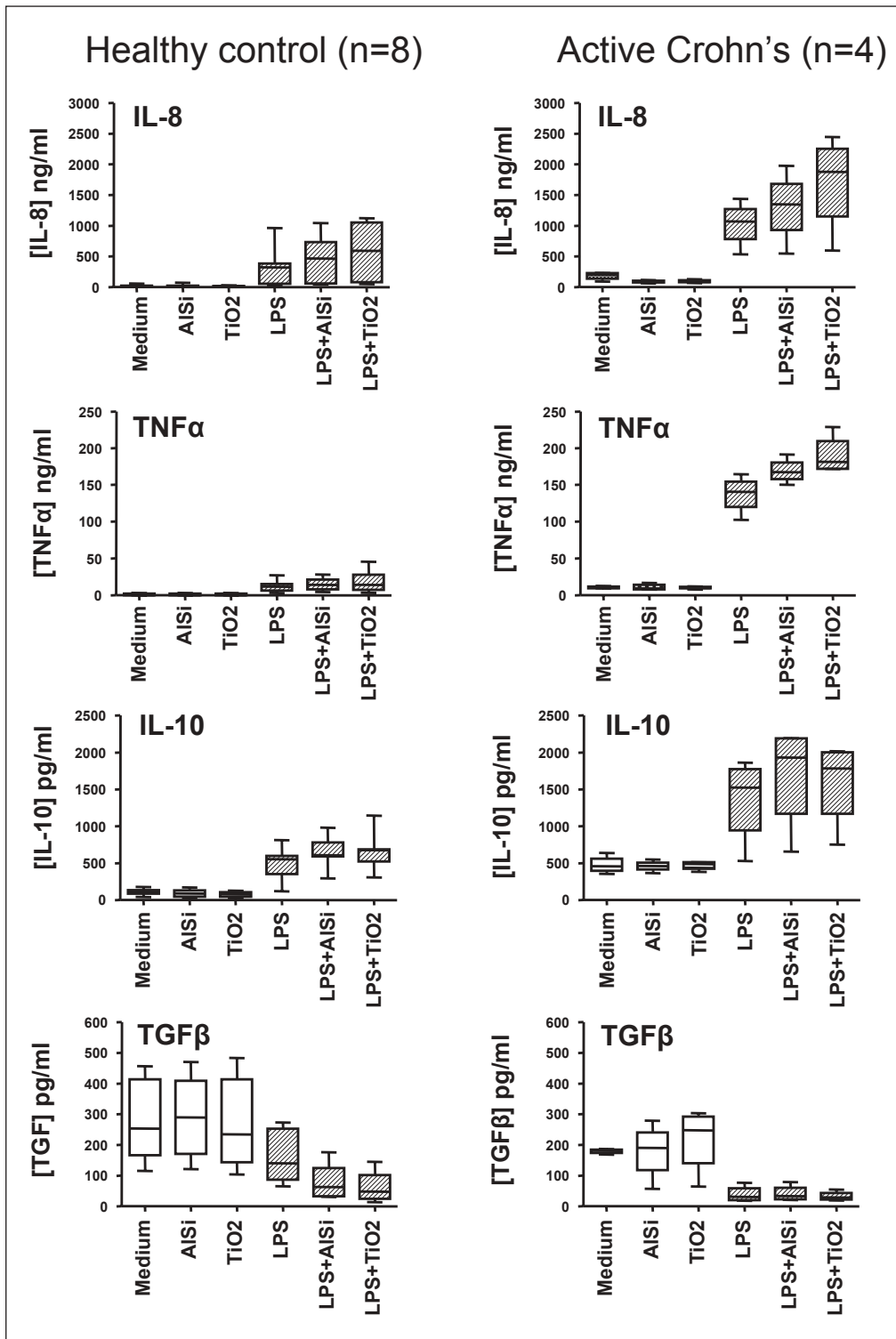


Fig. 3. Cytokine responses of macrophages following treatment with dietary microparticles. Macrophages from healthy controls were treated with 5 μ g/ml of dietary microparticles \pm 10 ng/ml LPS for 24 h. IL-8, TNF α , IL-10, and TGF β production were not significantly affected by incubation with either AISi or TiO₂ alone. However, upon activation with 10 ng/ml LPS, the presence of dietary microparticles had an adjuvant effect. Box and whisker plots show spread of data from multiple donors (n = 8 for healthy controls; n = 6 active Crohn's patients).

Results

Toxic effects of dietary microparticles at high concentrations

We first investigated the effects of microparticle incubation on macrophage viability and cytokine secretion. Macrophage-

es from healthy controls and Crohn's disease patients were not significantly affected by incubation with microparticles at concentrations at, or below, 5 μ g/ml as assessed by annexin-V and propidium iodide staining (Fig. 1a). However, when treated with 50 μ g/ml of microparticles, small increases in apoptosis and necrosis were detected in all samples. This was most apparent when using AISi particles although a sim-

Cytokines (response to LPS)	Healthy control (n = 8)			Active Crohn's (n = 6)		
	Medium	AlSi	TiO ₂	Medium	AlSi	TiO ₂
IL-8 (ng/ml)	292.3*	423.3 (+44%) **	544.7 (+86%) **	1030.7	1262.3 (+23%)*	1656.3 (+61%)
TNF α (ng/ml)	12.5	14.3 (+18%) *	19.3 (+59%) *	128.4	161.9 (+26%)*	188.3 (+47%)*
IL-10 (pg/ml)	473.4	614.3 (+30%) **	685.2 (+45%) NS	1269.8	1605.8 (+27%)*	1687.1 (+33%)*
TGF β NS (pg/ml)	206.5	121.5 (-41%) *	103.4 (-50%) *	54.0	49.7 (-8%) NS	38.9 (-28%)

** p < 0.005 * p < 0.05 NS = not significant (Wilcoxon)

ilar trend could also be detected following TiO₂ treatment. These changes were reflected in the cytokine responses (Fig. 1b). Elevated levels of IL-8 were detected from cells treated with 50 μ g/ml of both microparticle types although this never reached the concentration produced by cells following treatment with 10 ng/ml LPS (used as a positive control). TNF α levels were not significantly affected in these experiments. For subsequent experiments a dose of 5 μ g/ml of microparticles – reflecting the maximal, non-toxic, dose – was generally used unless otherwise stated.

Microparticles are efficiently taken up by macrophages from healthy control subjects and patients with Crohn's disease

Macrophages were next examined for their ability to capture and internalise dietary microparticles (Fig. 2a). Virtually all cells (>95%) were found to rapidly take up microparticles which were clearly visible and diversly spread within the cell cytoplasm after 24 h. The morphology of these cells also matched that of CD68⁺ 'pigment cells' detected by haematoxylin and eosin staining at the base of Peyer's patches in patients with Crohn's disease (Fig. 2b). Cells treated in the same way were also analysed by flow cytometry set to measure cell size (FSC) and granularity (SSC). Microparticle-treated cells showed increases in granularity following incubation with a range of microparticle concentrations (Fig. 2b). This analysis suggested both AlSi and TiO₂ microparticles were taken up with similar kinetics by cells from active Crohn's disease patients and healthy controls alike.

Dietary microparticles alone have no significant effect on macrophage cytokine responses but act as mild adjuvants in the presence of lipopolysaccharide

Cytokine responses of macrophages incubated for 24 h with 5 μ g/ml AlSi or TiO₂ were next analysed. Macrophage production of the inflammatory cytokines TNF α and IL-8, and the anti-inflammatory cytokines TGF β and IL-10, showed no difference following incubation with 5 μ g/ml AlSi or TiO₂ alone (Fig. 3). This was true for macrophages from healthy controls or active Crohn's patients although macrophages from active Crohn's patients showed elevated background levels of IL-8, TNF α and IL-10, and decreased background

levels of TGF β , as compared to macrophages from healthy controls. Taken together these data suggested that microparticles alone did not deliver strong inflammatory or anti-inflammatory signals and that macrophages from active Crohn's patients had an altered baseline cytokine response in general.

Macrophages were next incubated for 24 h with 5 μ g/ml AlSi or TiO₂ in the presence of bacterial LPS (Fig. 3 and Table 1). Unlike similar investigations by other groups, no excess calcium ions were added [18, 19]. In macrophages from healthy controls, LPS alone induced increased IL-8, TNF α and IL-10 responses with a concomitant decrease in TGF β production. In the presence of microparticles these responses were clearly enhanced. Thus, in healthy control samples the presence of dietary microparticles increased IL-8 responses (+44% for AlSi and +86% for TiO₂ compared to untreated cells); increased TNF α responses (+18% for AlSi and +59% for TiO₂); increased IL-10 responses (+30% for AlSi and +45% for TiO₂); and decreased TGF- β responses (-41% for AlSi and -50% for TiO₂) following LPS treatment. TiO₂ particles appeared to be the more potent adjuvants although there was considerable variation between donors. In the case of macrophages derived from patients with active Crohn's disease, the baseline responses alone, or to LPS, were found to be significantly elevated compared to the cytokine responses of healthy control cells ($p < 0.05$ for all cytokines by Mann-Whitney U test), with concomitant decreased production of TGF β (Fig. 3 and Table 1). Despite this, microparticle adjuvant activity was also detected in these cells with increased IL-8 responses (+23% for AlSi and +61% for TiO₂); increased TNF α responses (+26% for AlSi and +47% for TiO₂), increased IL-10 responses (+27% for AlSi and +33% for TiO₂); and decreased TGF β (-8% for AlSi and -28% for TiO₂). Again, TiO₂ appeared to have a larger adjuvant effect than AlSi. Overall, microparticle adjuvant activity appeared to be greater in the healthy control macrophages compared to those from subjects with active Crohn's disease.

Dietary microparticles impair macrophage phagocytic capacity

We next investigated the effects of dietary microparticle uptake on phagocytosis. We used 2 μ M fluospheres to analyse macrophage phagocytic activity over 60 min following 24 h incubation with the much smaller AlSi or TiO₂ micro-

Table 1. Accumulated data (n = 8 for healthy controls; n = 6 active Crohn's patients) from Figure 3 showing mean cytokine responses to LPS \pm microparticles. Figures in brackets are percentage increases/decreases based on cells treated with LPS only. Effect of microparticles was analysed by Wilcoxon signed ranks test **p < 0.005; *p < 0.05.

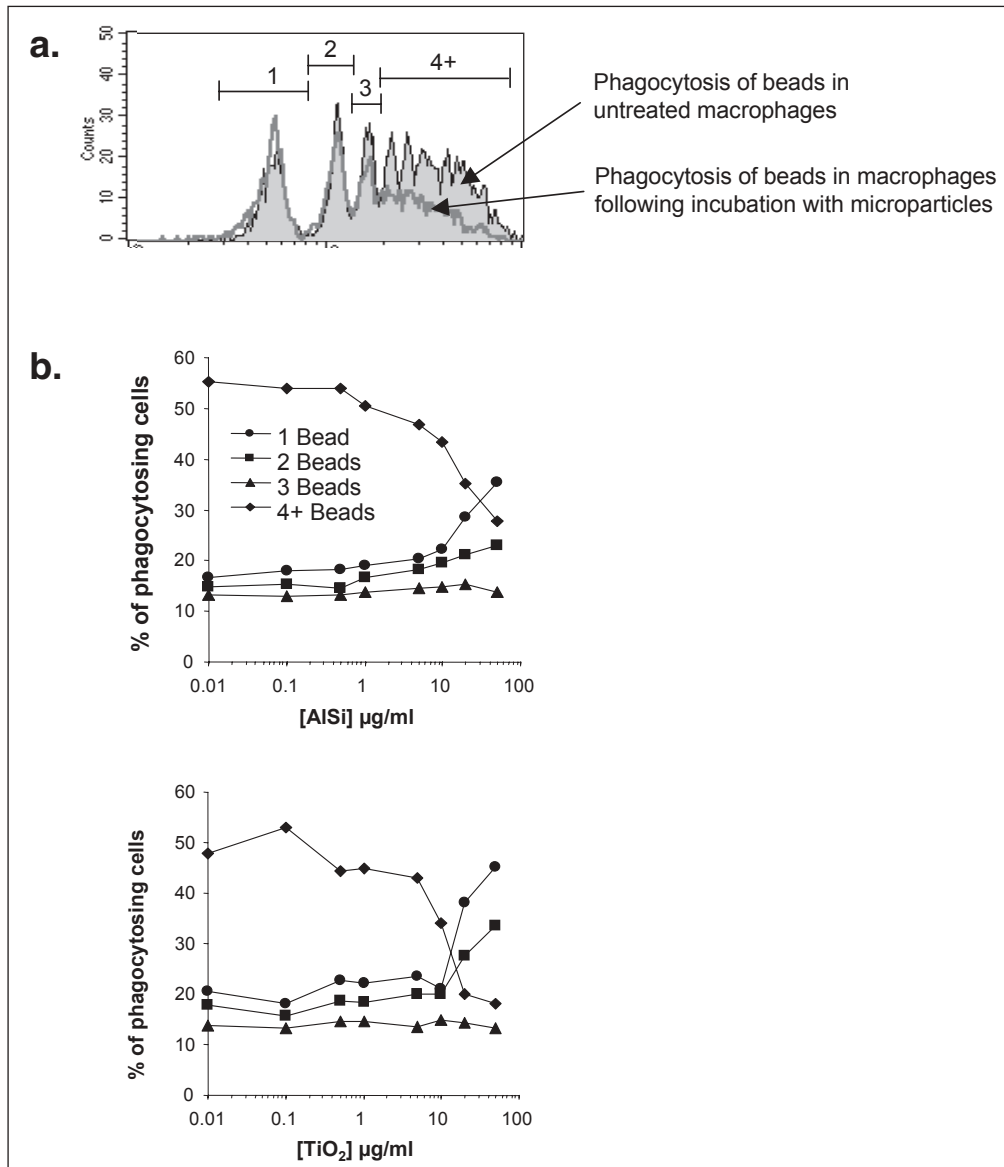


Fig. 4. Macrophage phagocytic activity following incubation with dietary microparticles. Macrophages from healthy controls or active Crohn's patients were incubated with dietary microparticles ($5 \mu\text{g/ml}$) for 24 h then analysed for phagocytic activity. (a) Flow cytometry by histogram allowed quantification of the number of beads taken up per cell. (b) Representative data showing phagocytosis of 1, 2, 3, or 4+ fluospheres following treatment with microparticles for 24 h.

particles. Fluorescence microscopy revealed bead uptake in $>90\%$ of the macrophages from patients and healthy controls (not shown). Flow cytometric analysis (Fig. 4a) showed that increasing concentrations of microparticles reduced the proportion of macrophages able to accumulate large numbers of beads (4+) in a dose-dependent manner. Conversely, the number of cells taking up only 1 or 2 beads was unaffected or slightly increased at higher microparticle concentrations (Fig. 4b). This suggested that, while there was little effect on the phagocytic process itself, the phagocytic *capacity* of the macrophage was compromised following microparticle uptake.

To compare the phagocytic activity of macrophages from controls and patients we assayed the number of viable (PI negative) macrophages taking up 4+ beads following incubation with a range of microparticles in the presence or absence of LPS (Fig. 4c). High concentrations ($50 \mu\text{g/ml}$) of AlSi inhibited phagocytic capacity of macrophages from both healthy controls ($51.4 \pm 17.3\%$ reduction) and from patients

($29.5 \pm 3.6\%$ reduction). Similar results were seen when the experiment was carried out in the presence of LPS – although the overall level of phagocytosis was reduced (Fig. 4c). High concentrations of TiO₂ also impaired phagocytic accumulation of beads in healthy control cells ($48.5 \pm 13.9\%$ reduction) and in patient's cells ($11.5 \pm 12.5\%$ reduction). Again, a similar effect was seen in the presence of LPS (Fig. 4c).

Discussion

We have investigated the possibility that dietary microparticles have a role to play in the development of IBD via their effects on macrophage activity. To this end, we studied the functional responses of macrophages isolated from healthy controls and active Crohn's disease patients following exposure to two types of common dietary microparticles – AlSi and TiO₂. In addition, we investigated the effects of these particles in the presence of bacterial LPS since it has been

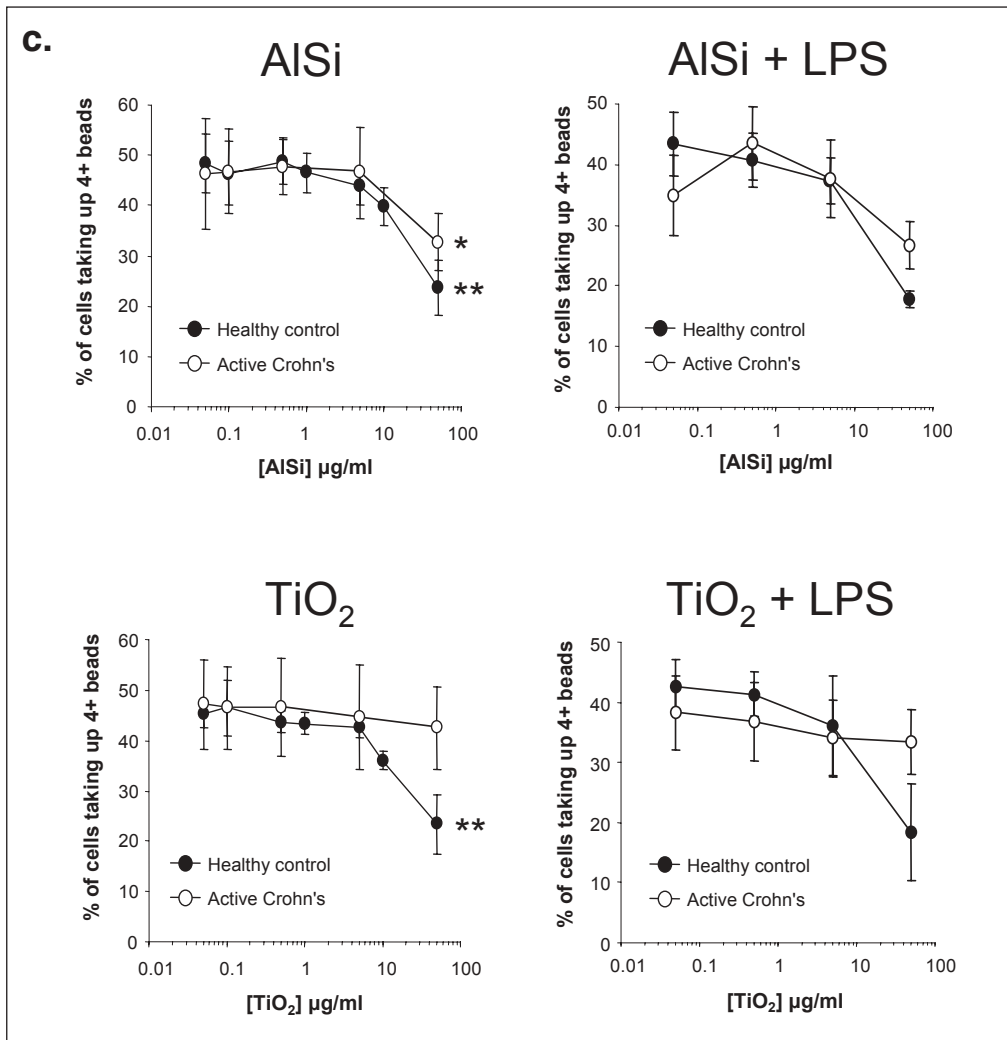


Fig. 4. (c) Accumulated data from 8 healthy control and 6 active Crohn's patient samples showing mean percentage of cells accumulating 4+ fluo-spheres following treatment with microparticles in the presence or absence of 10ng/ml. Error bars are \pm SD. Wilcoxon signed ranks test ** $p < 0.005$; * $p < 0.05$.

postulated that absorption of bacterial antigens to the surface of particles could overcome tolerising mechanisms and trigger inflammatory responses in the gut [6]. Although mildly toxic at high concentrations ($>50 \mu\text{g/ml}$), AISi and TiO_2 were rapidly phagocytosed and accumulated in diffuse intracellular spaces. The morphology of the cells closely resembled that of CD68^+ macrophages which are frequently observed at the base of Peyer's patches in subjects consuming diets rich in processed foods [7, 8]. While incubation with microparticles alone had no effect on macrophage cytokine production, their presence following treatment with bacterial LPS appeared to enhance IL-8, TNF α , and IL-10 production (whilst simultaneously impairing the secretion of TGF β). These data suggested that both AISi and TiO_2 particles possess adjuvant activity and corresponded with reports indicating AISi and TiO_2 particles require surface modification before they become stimulatory [17]. Adjuvant activity was most potent when using TiO_2 microparticles and has been previously observed in the IL-1 β response of PBMCs and LPMCs to LPS in the presence of additional calcium cations [18, 19]. Indeed, TiO_2 microparticles have been shown to avidly bind LPS and other biomolecules [6, 18]. Interestingly, we were also able to detect adjuvant activity of TiO_2 microparticles in the presence of other TLR and NOD2 agonists, such as

Pam3CSK4 (TLR2 agonist) and muramyl-dipeptide (NOD2 agonist) (M. Butler, unpublished observations), implying dietary microparticles could act as adjuvants in the presence of a large number of bacterial antigens and lead to enhancement of inflammatory responses (IL-8, TNF α) and suppression of regulatory mechanisms (TGF β) *in vivo*.

It is currently unclear how particulate delivery (vs soluble) affects LPS recognition leading to enhanced immune responses. Recognition of soluble LPS involves a receptor complex consisting of CD14, LPS binding protein, TLR4 and MD-2 – assembly of which might be enhanced by receptor cross-linking when particulate LPS is present [25]. In addition, particulate LPS is known to require recognition by phagocytic receptors such as the β 2-integrins (CD11b/CD18), scavenger receptors, and Fc receptors [26, 27] and activation of these phagocytic pathways could potentiate LPS recognition pathways. Indeed, TLR2 responses to bacterial lipoproteins are known to be enhanced following engagement of the endocytic C-type lectin, dectin-1 [28, 29]. Furthermore, recent reports have shown that TLRs are recruited to newly formed phagosomes even in the absence of activation [30, 31] which suggests that sampling by TLRs following internalisation of bacterial antigens might be more efficient than recognition at the cell surface. By utilising

such mechanisms to distinguish soluble LPS from particulate LPS, cells also have the potential to detect the break-down products of infection as well as the microbes themselves and to respond accordingly.

While the adjuvant effect of the microparticles was detectable in both groups, macrophages from patients with active Crohn's disease exhibited elevated baseline levels of IL-8, TNF α , and IL-10 and responded to LPS stimulation with larger increases in cytokine production overall compared to controls. This effect did not involve microparticles since it occurred in macrophages treated with LPS alone. PBMC from Crohn's disease patients have long been known to elicit enhanced inflammatory responses to various stimuli although the mechanisms behind this remain elusive [32–35]. One possibility is that bacterial antigens, such as LPS, gain access to the serum and maintain circulating mononuclear cells in a state of 'semi-activation' [36], thus reducing their threshold for stimulation.

In our phagocytosis experiments, macrophages rapidly took up 2 μ m fluorospheres (as well as labelled apoptotic Jurkat T cells – unpublished observations) and accumulated them in intracellular compartments. Microparticles impaired the accumulation of phagocytosed beads, with a sharp decrease in the number of macrophages accumulating 4+ latex beads. These results suggested that dietary microparticle uptake decreased the phagocytic *capacity* of macrophages rather than affecting the process of phagocytosis itself and is consistent with the 'particle overload' hypothesis proposed by Morrow *et al.* to explain the toxicity of inhaled particles [37]. Studies using alveolar macrophages found that when the phagocytosed particle burden occupied ~6% of the internal cell volume, clearance mechanisms were impaired and completely blocked when the burden reached ~60% [38, 39]. Effects such as these could have important implications *in vivo*. Phagocytosis of apoptotic cells by macrophages has been shown to induce the production of anti-inflammatory cytokines such as TGF β [20] and results in the presentation of self-antigens via MHC molecules leading to the induction of tolerance [40, 41]. Conversely, uptake of necrotic cells promotes the upregulation of co-stimulatory molecules and leads to inflammatory responses [42, 43]. Accumulation of dietary microparticles inside intestinal macrophages could prevent the adequate clearance of apoptotic cells allowing the development of secondary necrosis which could contribute to inflammation [44]. Alternatively, uptake of non-degradable particles could also lead to granuloma formation. Granulomas are a 'foreign-body' immune response normally associated with persistent pathogens such as *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* [45]. However, granulomas can also be induced by inorganic particles such as silica and beryllium oxide in the lung, leading to diseases such as sarcoidosis and berylliosis [46, 47]. Significantly, granuloma formation is also a common clinical feature of Crohn's disease and their aetiology still requires adequate explanation [48].

Currently, clinical data on the role of dietary microparticles remains inconclusive. A small pilot study, in which Crohn's patients were fed a microparticle-low diet, showed improvements in disease symptoms [49]. However a more recent placebo controlled study, incorporating a larger cohort of active Crohn's disease patients, was unable to detect significant benefits of a reduced microparticle diet – although

these patients were also treated with corticosteroids thus potentially masking subtle dietary effects [50]. Based on this recent clinical trial data, and the data presented here, it seems unlikely that low-level accumulation of dietary microparticles in macrophages is a significant driving factor for the pathogenesis of Crohn's disease. However, it is currently not known if dietary microparticles can affect the development of adaptive immune responses – perhaps via subtle effects on dendritic cells and skewing of Th1/Th2 responses, or if they have a role to play in NOD2-associated Crohn's disease. Furthermore, their ability to impair macrophage phagocytic activity and act as adjuvants in the presence of bacterial antigens (which are known to drive IBD) suggests that high concentrations of dietary microparticles should not be completely ruled out as a potential contributors to intestinal inflammation.

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