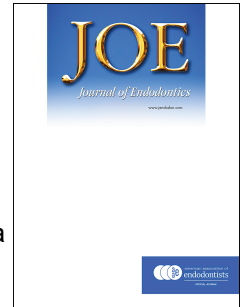


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Reparative dentin formation by dentin matrix proteins and small extracellular vesicles

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Reparative dentin formation by dentin matrix proteins and small extracellular vesicles

ABSTRACT

Introduction: Vital pulp therapy is aim at preserving pulp vitality and regenerating dentin. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore the effects of a combination of treated dentin matrix (TDM) proteins and dental pulp cell-derived small extracellular vesicle (sEV) on pulp-dentin complex repair. **Methods:** We prepared TDM by chemical demineralization and mechanical disruption of teeth to a powder preparation. The sEV were isolated from culture supernatants of dental pulp cells (DPCs) and identified by nanoparticle tracking analysis, western blotting, and transmission electron microscopy. The effect of a combination of TDM proteins and dental pulp cell-derived sEV on DPCs' proliferation, migration and odontogenic differentiation was evaluated *in vitro*. A mini-pig model of pulp injury was used to compare the clinical outcomes and tissue responses attributed to four materials including TDM, sEV-TDM, sEV and mineral trioxide aggregate (MTA). **Results:** The sEV isolated from the cell supernatant promoted DPCs proliferation and migration. The combination of TDM extracts and sEV synergistically promoted the migration of DPCs but suppressed their proliferation. RT-PCR and Western blot revealed that sEV-TDM enhanced the odontoblast related protein expressions in DPCs. *In vivo* studies, TDM and sEV-TDM promoted the formation of continuous reparative dentin. Furthermore, odontoblast-like high columnar cells were observed on the pulp side of the dentin bridge. **Conclusion:** The sEV-TDM complex exhibits intrinsic biological activities, which has potential applications as a bioactive pulp capping material.

KEYWORDS

Treated dentin matrix; Dental pulp cells; Extracellular vehicles; Vital pulp therapy

INTRODUCTION

Dental pulp tissue, as the only vascularized connective tissue in the teeth, plays a critical role in maintaining teeth stability and health. Damaged pulp tissue can significantly affect normal dental physiological functioning and survival¹. Direct and indirect dental pulp therapy induces tertiary mineralized dentin secretion to prevent dental pulp necrosis, preserve the integrity, and prolong the lifetime of the tooth during the early stages of pulp infection in

1 young patients². Recently, pulp capping materials such as calcium silicate-based cement (CSC)
 2 and calcium hydroxide (CH) have been utilized as natural tissue substitutes to mediate
 3 mineralized tissue formation by releasing Ca^{2+} and alkaline products³. The biological response
 4 of current pulp capping agents is considered to be a reparative process rather than a
 5 regeneration response. This is because it rarely catalyzes tissue regeneration to restore the
 6 dentin integrity and provide complete pulp defense⁴.

7 Studies have reported the secretion of specific growth factors and bioactive molecules
 8 sequestered within the remaining dentin matrix contributes to the formation of reactionary
 9 dentin⁵. Current research confirmed that the treated dentin matrix (TDM), derived from dentin
 10 matrix, contains extracellular matrix components such as dentin sialoprotein (DSP), dentin
 11 matrix protein-1 (DMP-1), and transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) that are associated
 12 with the occurrence, formation, and mineralization of dentin. When combined with dental
 13 follicle cells, TDM can be used to construct bio-root, as a dental implant replacement
 14 alternative for missing teeth⁶⁻⁸. *In vivo* and *in vitro*, research has shown that TDM, as
 15 mineralized dentin matrix proteins aggregates, exhibits superior bioactivity when compared to
 16 calcium hydroxide⁹.

17 In case of pulp infection and/or traumatic injuries, dental pulp stem cells (DPSCs) in the
 18 primary and permanent teeth pulp are recruited to participate in the regeneration of the
 19 dentin-pulp tissue¹⁰. DPSCs can be differentiated into odontoblast-like cells and other cell
 20 lineages, such as osteoblasts and neuronal progenitor cells, which have been a promising
 21 tool for clinical applications in dental pulp regeneration¹¹. But at present, stem cell therapy
 22 faces practical and regulatory obstacles such as donor matching, cell expansion and
 23 cryopreservation, which can restrict further research and wide clinical utility¹².

24 Accumulating evidence indicates that small extracellular vesicles (sEV) are considered being
 25 actively involved in intercellular functional activities associated with transfer mRNAs,
 26 miRNAs, and proteins transfer. It has been established that sEV play an important role in
 27 immunomodulation, cancer metastasis, and tissue regeneration¹³. Besides, mesenchymal
 28 stem cells (MSCs) derived sEV exhibit MSC-like characteristics and are involved in
 29 regenerative response regulation, which can be considered a capable induction unit to
 30 promote tissue regeneration as a promising cell-free bioactive molecule¹⁴. The sEV secreted

by DPSCs can promote odontoblast differentiation, attenuate neighboring cells apoptosis, exert a neuroprotective effect, and facilitate angiogenesis¹⁵⁻¹⁷.

Based on preliminary research^{6, 7, 9}, the objective of this study was to determine the effects of dentin matrix proteins from TDM and sEV from DPCs on cell behavior of hDPCs including migration, proliferation and odontoblastic differentiation, and to explore the effect of TDM powder combined with sEV on exposed pulp tissue and dentin-pulp complex.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fabrication of TDM materials

Human TDM (hTDM) was prepared from routinely extracted healthy human third molars at the Oral Surgery Department of West China Hospital of Stomatology, Sichuan University School. The study was conducted in accordance with the guidelines of the Ethical Review Committee (Reference No. WCHSIRB-D-2017-134). An informed consent was obtained from all participants. Pig TDM (pTDM) was made from porcine incisors of 7-month-old pig jaws. The periodontium, periodontium, dental crown, dental pulp, and predentin of teeth were all removed by mechanical means using a high-speed handpiece (Dentsply Sirona, USA). The teeth were soaked in 17% ethylene diamine tetra-acetic acid (EDTA; Sigma, USA) for 30min, 10% EDTA for 30 min and 5% EDTA for 30 min, respectively. They were then cleaned with deionized water, and lyophilized, after which TDM was obtained and stored at -80 °C.

TDM was grounded into powder using a frozen grinding machine (MM400, Retsch, Germany) for 5 min at 30 Hz and examined by a scanning electron microscope (SEM, Inspect F, FEI, USA). The TDM powder (TDMP) with a diameter smaller than 40 μm were employed to get aqueous TDM extracts. Materials were sterilized by radiation of Co₆₀ (Sichuan Institute of Atomic Energy, China). The extracts were obtained by introducing 1 g TDM in 5 ml α-MEM culture medium for 7 days⁹. Protein concentration in the TDM extracts was determined using the BCA method (keyGEN, China).

Cell culture of human DPCs

The extracted dental pulp tissues were sectioned into 1mm³ and digested with type I collagenase and dispase enzyme for 30 min¹⁸. The tissue fragments were transferred to sterile

1 α -minimal essential medium (α -MEM, Hyclone) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS,
 2 Hyclone, USA) and 1% (v/v) penicillin/streptomycin solution (Hyclone, USA) at 37 °C in 5%
 3 CO₂ to obtain primary cells. The third-generation cells were used in later experiments.
 4 Cellular cytokeratin 14 (CK-14) and vimentin expression were analyzed by
 5 immunofluorescence staining following the manufacturer's protocol. Immunostaining was
 6 performed using primary antibodies against Vimentin (at 1:200 dilution, Santa Cruz, USA)
 7 and CK14 (a 1:200 dilution, Abcam, UK). Secondary antibodies including Alexa Fluor 488
 8 (Goat anti Mouse at a 1:200 dilution, Invitrogen, USA), Alexa Fluor 555 (Goat anti Mouse at
 9 a 1:200 dilution, Invitrogen, USA) were used. After nuclei counterstained with DAPI reagent
 10 and the cells were examined under a fluorescence microscope (Leica Optical, Germany).

11 **Identification of human DPCs**

12 Several approaches such as osteogenic, adipogenic, and neurogenic differentiation have
 13 been used to characterize the stemness of hDPCs⁶. The hDPCs at a concentration of 1×10^5
 14 were cultured separately in osteogenic, adipogenic, and neurogenic media for 21 days, 21
 15 days, and 3 days. The osteogenic medium was supplemented with 10% FBS, 5 mM
 16 L-glycerophosphate (Sigma, USA), 100 nM dexamethasone (Sigma, USA), and 50 mg/ml
 17 ascorbic acid (Sigma, USA). The adipogenic medium was supplemented with 10% FBS, 2
 18 mM insulin (Sigma, USA), 0.5 mM isobutylmethylxanthine (IBMX; Sigma, USA), and 10
 19 nM dexamethasone (Sigma, USA). The neurogenic medium was supplemented with 2%
 20 Dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO), 200 mM butylated hydroxyanisole (Sigma, USA), 25 mM KCl
 21 (Kelong, China), 2 mM valproic acid (Sigma, USA), 10 mM forskolin (Sigma, USA), 1 mM
 22 hydrocortisone (Sigma, USA), 5 mg/mL insulin (Gibco, USA), and 2 mM L-glutamine
 23 (Sigma, USA). Cells in the control group were cultured in ordinary α -MEM supplemented
 24 with 10% FBS. After induction, the cells were stained with alizarin red solution (Sigma, USA)
 25 and Oil Red O solution (Sigma, USA) to assess their potential for osteogenic and adipogenic
 26 differentiation. Cells in the neurogenic medium were examined by immunofluorescent assay
 27 for Nestin (1:200, Abcam, USA) and analyzed under a fluorescence microscope (Leica
 28 Optical, Germany).

29 Flow cytometry was performed to determine the surface markers expression levels of
 30 hDPCs. The following antibodies were purchased from BD Life Sciences (BD, USA) and

used: CD29 (1:1000, PE), CD44 (1:1000, FITC), CD90 (1:1000, FITC), CD146 (1:1000, PE),
CD166 (1:1000, PE), CD33 (1:1000, FITC), CD34 (1:1000, FITC), CD45 (1:1000, FITC).

Flow cytometry analyses were performed on the Beckman Coulter Cytomics FC 500 MPL
system (Beckman Coulter, USA).

The sEV isolation and identification

The sEV were isolated from the supernatants of cultured DPCs as detailed previously¹⁹.
Briefly, DPCs at P3 generation were twice rinsed using PBS and cultured for 48h in α -MEM
containing 10% exosome-depleted fetal bovine serum (SBI, USA). Cell culture medium
supernatant was obtained, filtered using a 0.22- μ m filter, and centrifuged at 1,200rpm for 30
min to eliminate cellular debris. Sterile supernatants were concentrated by centrifugation into
Amicon® Ultra-50 Centrifugal Filter Units with Ultracel-3 membrane (3,000 Mw cut off
membrane, Millipore, USA) at 5,000g for 30 min. The concentrate was mixed with the Total
Exosome IsolationTM reagent (Life Technologies, USA) and incubated at 4 °C overnight.
Thereafter, it was spun at 10,000 g for 1 h at 4 °C. The resultant sEV-enriched fraction was
re-suspended in 100 μ l PBS and stored at -80 °C. The protein content of the isolated sEV was
determined by the BCA method (keyGEN, China). For transmission electron microscopy, the
sEV were fixed in 1% glutaraldehyde solution for 2h before the examination. Samples were
loaded onto formvar carbon-coated grids and examined using a transmission electron
microscope (TEM, Hitachi H7500, Japan) after negative staining with 1% aqueous
phosphotungstic acid for 60s. For Nanoparticle tracking analysis (NTA), the sEV were diluted
in PBS and analyzed using ZetaView® PMX 110 (Particle Metrix, Meerbusch, Germany).
The markers of sEV, including CD63 (Zen Bioscience, China), heat shock protein70 (HSP 70,
Zen Bioscience, China), and Alix (Zen Bioscience, China) were evaluated by Western
blotting.

Endocytosis experiments of sEV.

To locate the vesicles, the DPCs-sEV were pre-treated with a membrane-labeling dye
DiO (Invitrogen, USA) at 37°C for 30min as previously described²⁰. After precipitation with
Total Exosome IsolationTM reagent (Life Technologies, USA), the vesicles were washed and
resuspended in serum-free α -MEM. DPCs were seeded on confocal petri dishes and
cocultured with DiO-labeled vesicles for 6h. The cells were then washed three times with

PBS, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde, and stained with Phallotoxins (Invitrogen, USA). Finally, the stained cells were washed with PBS and imaged under a confocal microscope (Olympus FV1000, Japan).

Chemotaxis assay of hDPCs

Transwell chambers with 8 μ m pore polycarbonate membranes (Corning, New York, NY, USA) were used to assess the migration ability of the cells. Briefly, hDPCs (1×10^4) were seeded into the upper chamber of the Transwell apparatus. TDM extracts with various hDPCs-sEV concentrations (0, 10, 50, 100, and 200 μ g/mL) were placed in the lower chamber for 12 h. Cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 30 min, stained with crystal violet for 20 min, and counted by NIH Image J software. All experiments were done in triplicates.

Determination of the proliferative capacity of hDPCs

The Cell Counting Kit-8 kit (Dojindo, Japan) was used to determine the effect of sEV-TDM on the proliferation of hDPCs. The hDPCs were seeded in 96-well plates at a density of 5×10^3 cells per well overnight. The cells were then maintained in leaching liquid of TDM containing different hDPCs-sEV concentrations (0, 10, 50, 100, and 200 μ g/mL). The assay was performed following the manufacturer's instructions. The OD values were read on the Multiskan Go Spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA).

Quantitative Real-time Polymerase Chain Reaction (qRT-PCR)

The hDPCs were seeded at a concentration of 10^5 cells per well into six-well plates and cultured with TDM containing different hDPCs-sEV concentrations (0, 50, 100 μ g/mL) for 7 days. Total RNA was isolated with RNAiso Plus (TaKaRa Biotechnology, Japan) and reverse transcribed into cDNAs using the RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). The qRT-PCR was performed on the QuantStudio 6 Flex system (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) with SYBR Premix Ex Taq (TaKaRa Biotechnology, Japan). The $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method was used to calculate fold changes in target mRNA, and GAPDH was used as the housekeeping gene. The primer sequences used in this study are listed in Table 1.

Western blot analysis

The hDPCs were seeded into six-well plates at a density of 10^5 cells per well and cultured

with TDM extracts containing different hDPCs-sEV concentrations (0, 50, 100, 200 µg/ml) for 7 days. Total cellular proteins were extracted using the Total Protein Extraction Kit (KeyGene, China). The proteins were separated on polyacrylamide gels and blotted onto a nitrocellulose membrane. The antibodies used to detect the target protein were: alkaline phosphatase (ALP, 1:500; Abcam, UK); Dentin matrix protein-1(DMP-1,1:1000; Santa Cruz, USA); mouse monoclonal to RUNX-2 (1:1000; Abcam, UK); dentin sialophosphoprotein (DSPP, 1:1000; Zen, CN); Rabbit polyclonal to Osteopontin (OPN, 1:1000; Abcam, UK); Mouse monoclonal to Actin (Actin, 1:500; Abcam, UK). After incubation with the second antibody coupled with the species matched HRP (Zen Bioscience, China), the protein bands were visualized with ECL reagent (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, USA). Band intensity was quantified using NIH Image J software²¹.

Mini-pig pulp repair model in vivo

All animal experiments were approved by the Animal Experimental Ethics Committee of Sichuan University. Three female miniature pigs (12 months) were purchased from Chengdu Dashuo Bio-Technique Co. Ltd. (Chengdu, China). The teeth of each pig were divided into four groups (n=3 teeth per group), and different materials were used in per group. Grouping is summarized in Table 2. The DPCs-sEV concentration in the sEV-TDM group and the DPCs-sEV group was 1 mg/µl.

After anesthetization, using ultra-high-speed dental handpiece (Dentsply Sirona, USA) under deionized water as the coolant, class V or I cavities of 2 mm diameter were prepared on the lingual/occlusal surfaces of experimental teeth and the pulp tissue was mechanically exposed. The experimental materials were placed on the perforation sites immediately after hemostasis and then the cavities were filled with glass ionomer cement (Fuji, Japan). The samples were collected after six weeks, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde and then scanned with micro-computed tomography (Siemens, Germany). The tissue specimens were demineralized in 10% EDTA for 3 months, sliced into 5 mm thick sections following dehydration and embedded in paraffin for H&E stain as well as Masson's trichrome staining (Baso Diagnostic Inc., China).

Statistical analysis

All *in vitro* experiments were performed in triplicates and repeated at least 3 times. Data

were analyzed using GraphPad Prism v8.0 (GraphPad Software Inc, San Diego, CA, USA) and presented as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Differences between groups were determined using one-way ANOVA. P-value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Preparation and characterization of TDM

After mechanical preparation and demineralization, TDM was grounded into fine powder (**Fig. 1A**). SEM micrographs showed that dentinal tubule orifices were visible on the surface of TDM, while TDMP showed micron-sized particles without any dentinal tubule structure (**Fig. 2B**). The protein concentration of the pTDM extracts was $1.71 \pm 0.31 \mu\text{g}/\mu\text{l}$ while that of the hTDM extracts was $1.85 \pm 0.23 \mu\text{g}/\mu\text{l}$ (**Fig. 1C**).

Isolation, identification, and characterization of DPCs

The DPCs exhibited typical spindle-shaped morphologic characteristics of mesenchymal cells, and were stained positive for vimentin, a mesenchymal stem cell marker (**Fig. 2A** and **Fig. S1A-D**). The differentiation potential of the hDPCs was confirmed by adipogenic, osteogenic, and neurogenic induction with Oil red staining, Alizarin red staining, and immunofluorescence staining of Nestin, respectively (**Fig. S1E-H**). Flow cytometry analysis showed that hDPCs were positively stained for mesenchymal stem cell markers CD29, CD90, CD44, CD146, CD166, and negatively stained for hematopoietic cell markers CD33, CD34, CD45 as shown in **Fig. S1I**.

Isolation and Identification of sEV

The sEV isolated from DPCs were observed as round and double-membrane structures in TEM. The size of hDPCs-sEV and pDPCs-sEV ranged from 50 to 150 nm in diameter and separately exhibited peaks at 116 nm and 98 nm (**Fig. 2B**). Western blot analysis revealed the presence of CD63, HSP70, and Alix protein markers in the sEV (**Fig. 2C**). In endocytosis experiments, the DiO labeled (green) sEV were found to surround the nuclei after internalization by DPCs (**Fig. 2D**).

Effect of sEV-TDM on cell proliferation and migration

The hDPCs migrated through the polycarbonate membrane as shown in **Fig. 3A**. The TDM extracts and sEV promoted the migration of DPCs compared with the control group (0

1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$). In the sEV group, there was a gradual increase in cell migration ability that coincided
 2 with an increase in sEV concentration. However, in the sEV-TDM group, the cell migration
 3 ability was barely influenced by sEV concentration change ($10\mu\text{g/ml}$ - $200\mu\text{g/ml}$).

4 The hDPCs proliferative results are presented in Fig. 3B. Under the sEV induced
 5 environment, the proliferative ability was elevated when compared to the control group
 6 ($0\mu\text{g/ml}$). Furthermore, the high concentration of sEV ($>100\mu\text{g/ml}$) did not exhibit any
 7 additional effects on the proliferative capacity. TDM extracts combined with sEV induction
 8 showed minimal effect on cell proliferation. Meanwhile, at the constant of the same sEV
 9 concentration, from day 4, no significant cell proliferation was observed in the TDM extracts
 10 groups.

11 **Effect of sEV-TDM on the odontogenic differentiation of hDPCs**

12 The effects of sEV and sEV-TDM on RNA expression levels in odontogenic
 13 differentiation of hDPCs are presented in Fig. 3C. The sEV-TDM ($50\mu\text{g/ml}$ +TDM, 100
 14 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ +TDM) induction enhanced the expression of OPN in hDPCs when compared to the
 15 control ($0\mu\text{g/ml}$). Alterations in RUNX2, DSPP, COL- α , and ALP levels in the sEV-TDM
 16 group were not significant ($p>0.05$). The TDM extracts ($0\mu\text{g/ml}$ +TDM) significantly
 17 up-regulated the hDPC expression levels of DMP-1 ($p<0.001$) and OPN ($p<0.01$) expression
 18 of hDPCs when compared with the control. In the sEV group, DMP-1 expression was
 19 evidently up-regulated while ALP gene expression was significantly down-regulated at the
 20 concentration of $100\mu\text{g/ml}$ ($P<0.001$), meanwhile RUNX2 expression was elevated at
 21 $50\mu\text{g/ml}$ ($p<0.05$).

22 The expression levels of odontoblast-associated proteins after sEV-TDM are shown in
 23 Fig. 3D. It was revealed that sEV ($50\mu\text{g/ml}$, $100\mu\text{g/ml}$) enhanced the expressions of DMP-1,
 24 DSPP and RUNX-2 when compared to the control group ($0\mu\text{g/ml}$). The sEV-TDM moderately
 25 down-regulated RUNX2 expression ($p>0.05$) and significantly elevated the expression of
 26 DSPP ($p<0.01$) and DMP-1 ($p<0.01$) in hDPCs.

27 **The pulp capping material of sEV-TDM in miniature pigs**

28 The mini-pig dental pulp defect model preparation procedures are presented in Fig.
 29 S2A-D. The models with pulp capping and glass-ionomer cement sealed were intact after six
 30 weeks of pulp capping. There was a high-density shade at perforation in the TDM, sEV-TDM,

and MTA groups. The incomplete mineralization image was shown in the sEV group (**Fig. S2E** and **Fig. 4a-d**).

The thickness of the regenerated mineralized tissue in the TDM, sEV-TDM, MTA, and sEV groups are shown in **Table 3**. The dentin mineralized layers of the MTA group were thicker than those of the TDM and the sEV-TDM groups. There were no statistically significant differences in the hard tissue bridge max thickness was detected among the TDM, the sEV-TDM, and the MTA groups ($p>0.05$). However, an incomplete mineralized tissue was observed in 4 samples of the sEV group which failed to seal the perforation. There was no obvious mineralized tissue was found in the other 5 samples of the sEV group.

Histological analyses revealed a complete regeneration of the dentin bridge and tertiary dentin matrix in the TDM, sEV-TDM, and MTA groups, but not in the sEV group (**Fig. 4e-t**). In the dental pulp tissue next to the dentin bridge, polarizing and tall columnar odontoblast-like cells were observed in the TDM and the sEV-TDM groups (**Fig. 4A** and **B**). The reparative dentin of the MTA group appeared close to the osteoid dentin, and the cells were cubic or short column-shaped (**Fig. 4D**). In the sEV group, the reparative dentin layer was incomplete with calcified masses. Moreover, inflammatory reaction in the form of proliferation of fibrous tissue was observed in the pulp tissue (**Fig. 4C**).

DISCUSSION

The generation of high-quality reparative dentin is a critical factor for successful Vital Pulp therapy after externally stimulated pulp injury²². This process involves the recruitment and differentiation of odontoblast-like cells and the synthesis of new dentine-like hard tissues. To improve the properties of pulp capping materials for better biological functions, and to promote the balance between inflammation and regeneration, it is necessary to understand the biological regeneration mechanism of the dental pulp-dentin complex²³. Studies have documented that the formation of reactionary dentin is correlated to the release of bioactive molecules from the demineralized dentin matrix, and a series of DPC associated autocrine and paracrine signaling mediators^{5, 22}. Extracellular vesicles (EVs), are important cell secretion components used to promote tissue regeneration^{13, 14}. Therefore, in this study, TDM combined with sEV was found to exhibit superior effects in promoting the regeneration of reparative

1 dentin.

2 Prior studies have reported that EVs influence the proliferation, invasion, and migration
3 abilities of the recipient cells¹⁵. Chen et al.⁹ documented that DPCs cultured in high TDMP
4 extract concentrations showed decreased cell line proliferative ability. The proliferative ability
5 was, however, elevated at low concentrations. This study revealed that the sEV promoted cell
6 proliferation, while the sEV-TDM inhibited cell proliferation. This is attributed to the fact that
7 the cell proliferation and differentiation processes are inconsistent with different regulatory
8 mechanisms and complex influencing factors. The transwell assay also showed that sEV and
9 sEV-TDM promoted DPCs migration. However, the change in sEV concentration did not alter
10 the migratory capacity of the cells in the sEV-TDM groups. The TDM extracts effectively
11 promoted cell migration, masking the role of sEV.

12 The TDM powder releases an extensive amount of soluble dentin matrix proteins in a
13 liquid environment⁸. The TDM extracts has been shown to promote mesenchymal stem cell
14 differentiation into odontogenic cell lineages^{6, 7, 9}. The EVs isolated from differentiating
15 DPSCs cultured in odontogenic differentiation media can also induce the odontogenic
16 differentiation of cells^{15, 17}. We found that there were notable differences in the effect of
17 sEV-TDM and sEV on inducing lineage-specific differentiation of DPCs. There was a
18 significant up-regulation of DSPP, DMP-1, RUNX-2, OPN in sEV cultured groups, however,
19 sEV down-regulated alkaline phosphatase (ALP). Under sEV-TDM culture conditions, ALP
20 and OPN were up-regulated while DMP-1 and RUNX-2 were down-regulated in DPCs (Fig.
21 3C). ALP promotes calcification and the expression level of ALP is positively correlated with
22 the degree of calcification²⁴. DSPP, DMP-1, and OPN are members of the SIBLING-family
23 that are secreted into the extracellular matrix during tooth and bone formation as well as
24 mineralization^{25, 26}. RUNX-2 is a transcription factor that regulates the osteogenic
25 differentiation of cells and is involved in bone and teeth formation and development²⁷. The
26 DMP-1 and DSPP protein expression levels were elevated in the sEV and sEV-TDM groups
27 when compared to the control group, while sEV-TDM did not exhibit any significant effect in
28 promoting the expression levels of ALP and OPN for 7 days of induction in hDPCs (Fig. 3D).

29 The mini-pig model of dental pulp defect is considered a classic model for evaluating
30 pulp injury and repair²⁸. Studies have established that the exposed human dental pulp covered

with MTA and BIODENTINE can form a mineralized seal in 6-8 weeks^{29, 30}. TDM and sEV-TDM induced calcified hard tissue barrier and reactionary dentin were similar. The effect of the pulp-capping material was evaluated using radiographs, micro-CT, and histological analysis. Pulp capping with TDM and sEV-TDM resulted in complete dentin bridge regeneration, without tunnel defect (**Fig. 4A and B**).

In the sEV group, it was difficult to seal the exposed pulp at the beginning of capping because sEV solution was incapable of residing in situ, hence there was no complete mineralized structure (**Fig. 4C**). The sEV concentration used in the experimental group was 1 mg/μl. Studies have reported that the concentration can influence the effect of sEV on the differentiation of angioblasts and endothelial cells. In addition, some studies have also revealed that the effect of low EVs concentration are better when compared to high concentrations³¹⁻³³. In the mineralized layer near the pulp, short column or flat fibroblast-like cells were observed in the MTA group, while columnar cell layers were observed in the TDM and sEV-TDM groups (**Fig. 4D**). Till et al.⁴ reported cells similar to fibroblasts but not odontoblast-like cells after pulp capping of human third molars with MTA. The visible cells in the cell layer of the mineralized tissue appeared cuboidal or flat, with some cell processes projecting towards the mineralized tissue^{34, 35}.

In vivo experiments confirmed that the dentin mineralized layers of sEV-TDM were thicker compared to those in the TDM group. *In vitro*, DPCs-sEV improved the dentin induction ability of dental pulp stem cells. As a mineralized extracellular matrix component, TDM is considered a natural scaffold material with diverse non-mineralized dentin matrix components such as glycosaminoglycan, chondroitin sulfate, type I collagen, BMP, and DSP, among others⁸. EVs can bind to type I collagen and fibronectin in a dose-dependent and saturable manner¹⁵. Therefore, the sEV and dentin matrix proteins loaded in TDM can be released into the dental pulp tissue and endocytosed by cells in the dental pulp to promote mineralization.

CONCLUSION

In summary, this study showed that sEV-TDM effectively recruits DPCs, induces the odontogenic process, and stimulates the formation of reactive dentin. Its composition of

sEV-TDM has more suitable odontogenic inductivity when compared to MTA. Therefore,
sEV-TDM is recommended as a potential bioactive pulp capping material for vital pulp
 therapy.

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1 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

2 **FIGURE 1**-The preparation of TDM. (A) TDM was fabricated from the isolated tooth and
3 used to prepare aqueous TDM extracts after triturated. (B) SEM observation of surface
4 morphology of TDM and TDMP. (C) The protein concentration of pTDM extraction and
5 hTDM extraction.

6 **FIGURE 2**-Isolation and identification of DPCs and sEV. (A) Culture and identification of
7 DPCs. The DPCs were the typical morphologic characteristics of mesenchymal cells in
8 fibroblastic and spindle-shaped (a, b) and were positive for vimentin (c) and negative for
9 CK-14 (d). (B) The sEV identification of TEM (a, c) and the size distribution of sEV with
10 NTA (b, d). (C) The expression of labeled proteins in sEV was detected by western blot of
11 CD63, HSP70, Alix. (D) Endocytosis of sEV by DPCs. The cell nucleus is visualized with the
12 nuclear marker DAPI (blue, a, e). The cytoskeleton was visualized with the Phalloidin (red, b,
13 f). The sEV is visualized with DiO (green, c, g).

14 **FIGURE 3**-The effect of sEV-TDM on hDPCs in vitro. (A) The DPCs migrated through the
15 polycarbonate membrane of the transwell chamber in the sEV group and the sEV-TDM
16 attraction group with different concentrations of sEV. (B) The proliferation of DPCs after
17 treatment with sEV in the α -MEM group and TDM attraction group. (C) The mRNA levels of
18 odontogenic differentiation marker genes DSPP, DMP-1, ALP, COL- I , OPN, and RUNX-2
19 after treatment with α -MEM group and TDM attraction group via different concentrations of
20 sEV. (D) The protein DSPP, DMP-1, ALP, OPN, and RUNX-2 expressions of TDM attraction
21 and sEV. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, and *** $p < 0.001$.

22 **FIGURE 4**-The sEV-TDM as pulp capping material, evaluated in vivo in miniature swine. (A)
23 The TDM group. (B) The sEV-TDM group. (C) The sEV group. (D) The MTA group.
24 Micro-CT images (a-d), the HE (e-l), and Masson (m-t) staining after 6 weeks of direct pulp
25 capping showed that complete dentin bridge formation could be seen in TDM group,
26 sEV-TDM group and MTA group, but not in the sEV group. D, dentin; P, pulp tissue; DB,
27 dental bridge.

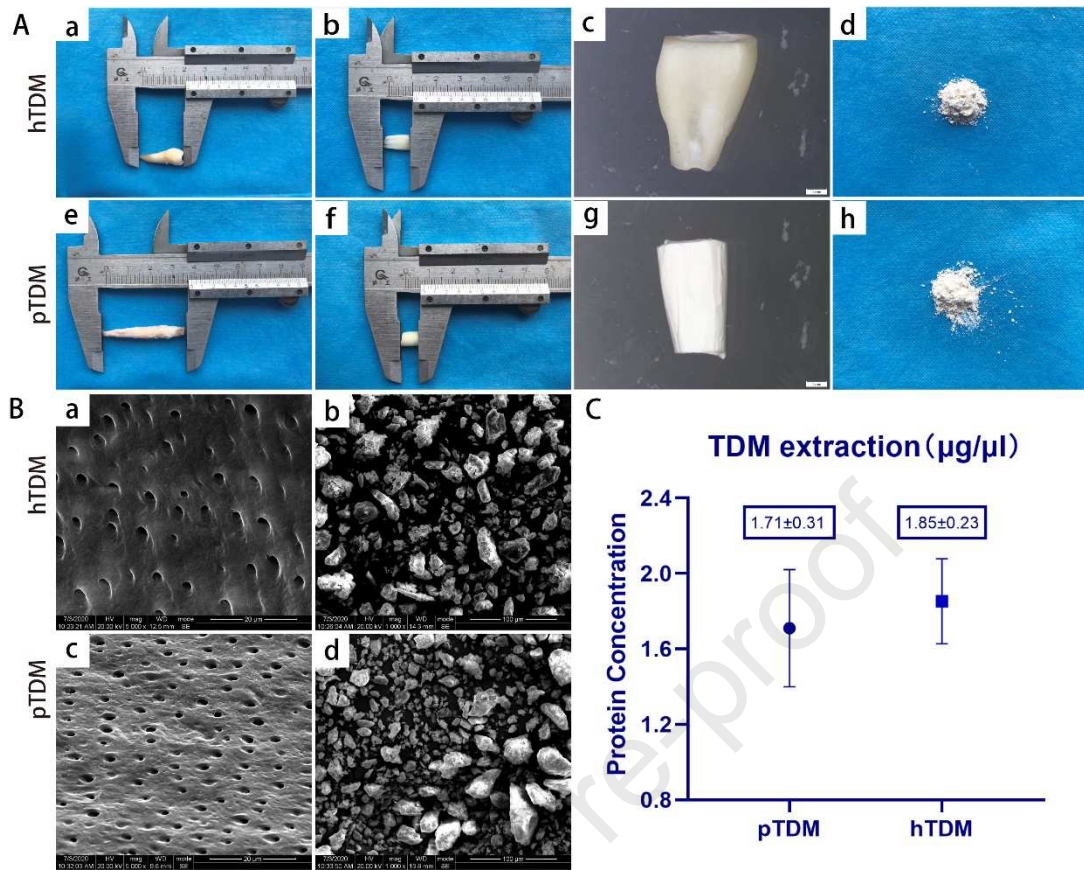


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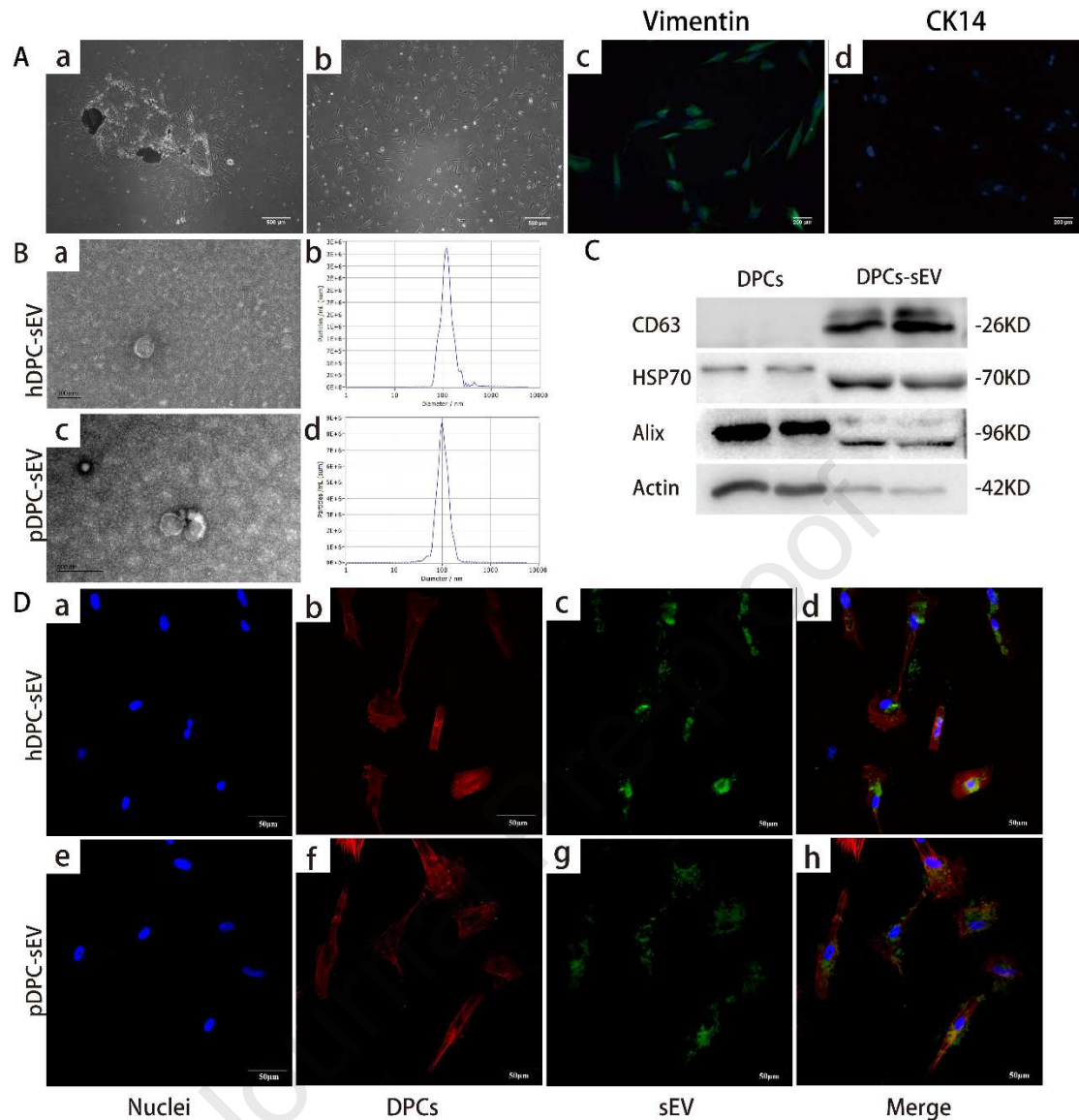


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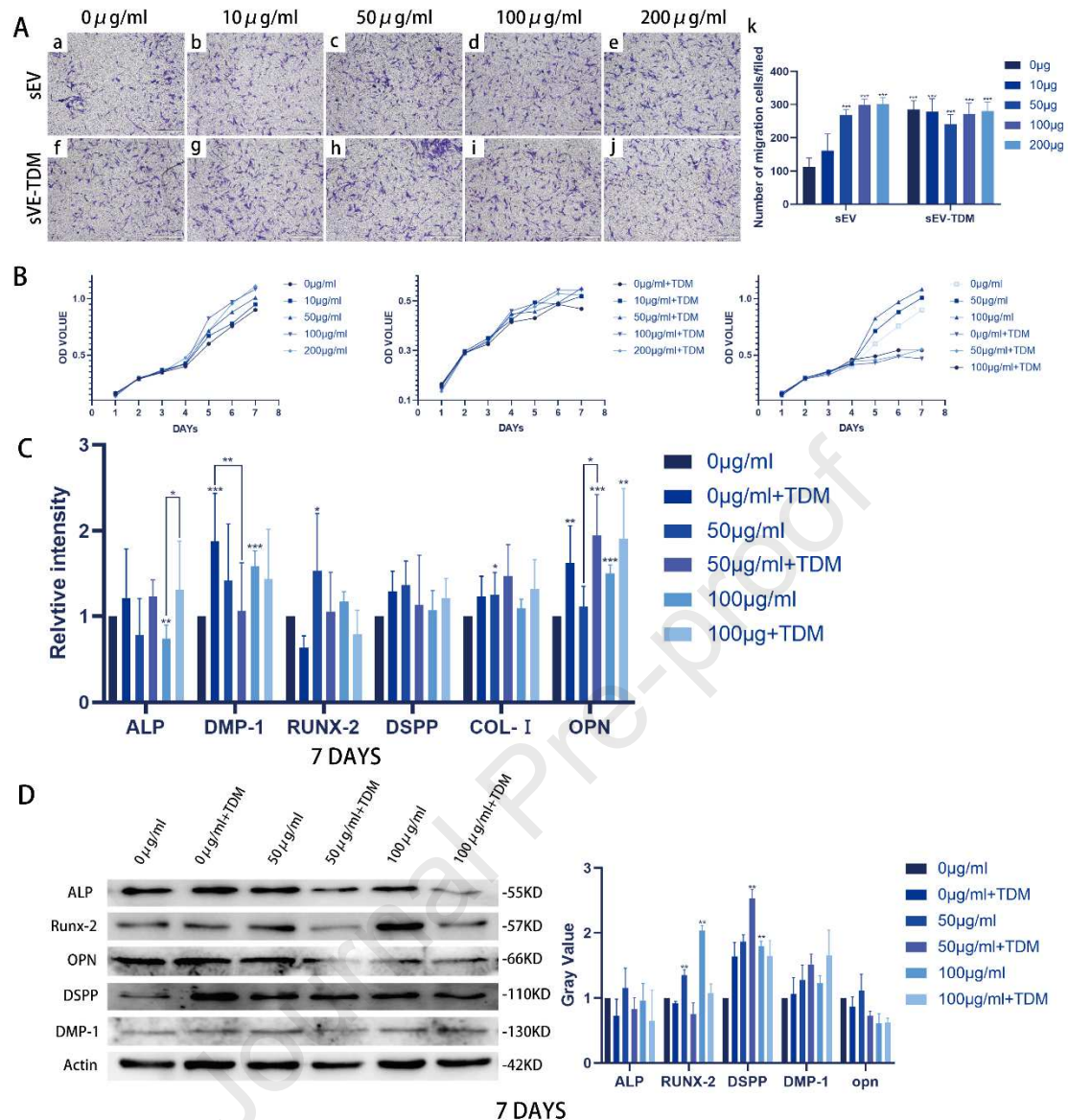


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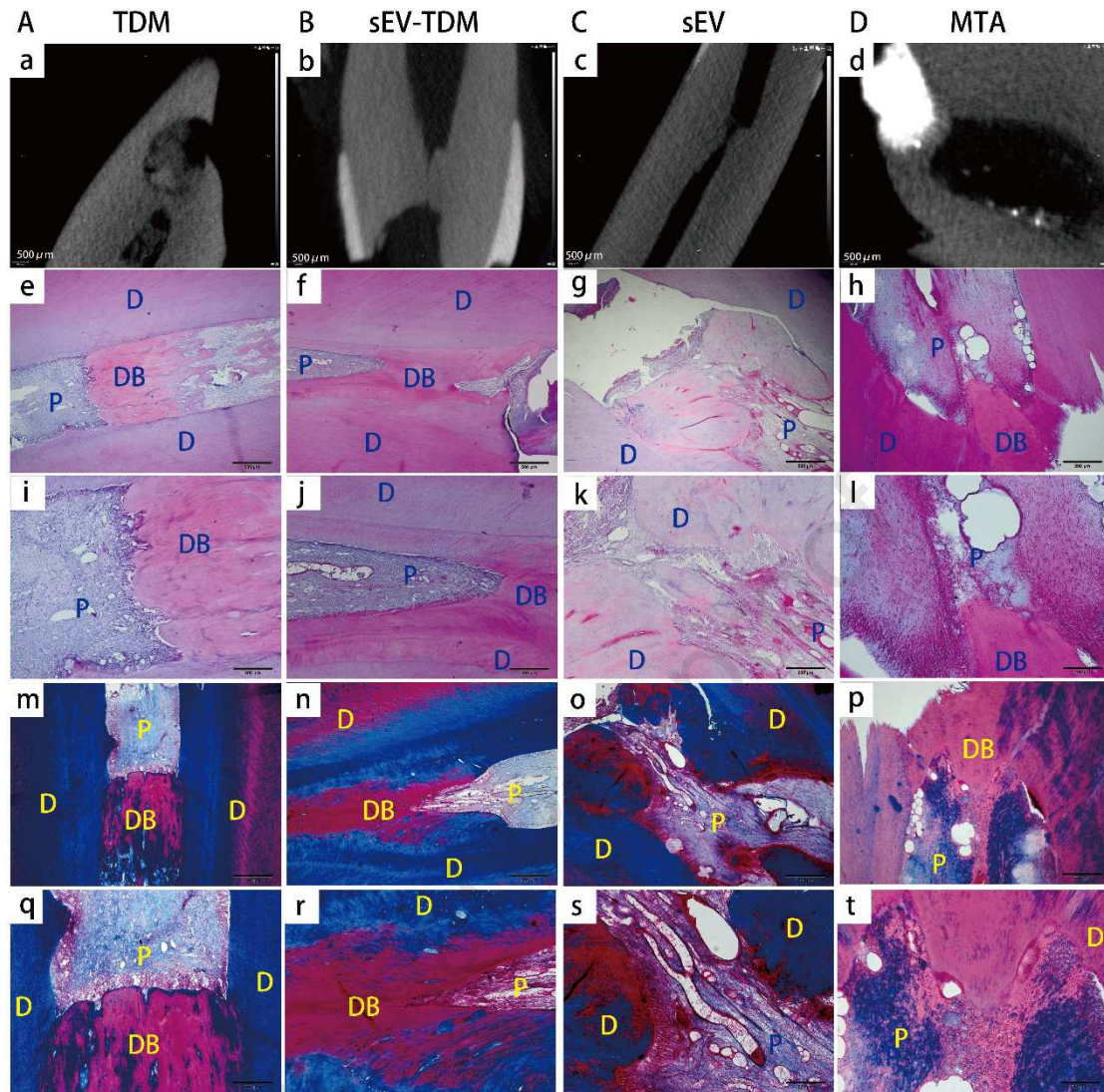


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1 **Table 1.** The primer sequences used for RT -qPCR

Gene	Forward sequence/reverse sequence
GAPDH	5`-CTTTGGTATCGTGGAAGGACTC-3`/ 5`-GTAGAGGCAGGGATGATGTTCT-3`
DMP-1	5`-CTCGCACACACTCTCCCACTCAAA-3`/ 5`-TGGCTTTCCTCGCTCTGACTCTCT-3`
ALP	5`-TAAGGACATCGCCTACCAGCTC-3`/ 5`-TCTTCCAGGTGTCAACGAGGT-3`
DSPP	5`-GGAGCCACAAACAGAAGCA-3`/ 5`-TGGACAACAGCGACATCCT-3`
RUNX-2	5`-CTTTACTTACACCCCGCCAGTC-3`/ AGAGATATGGAGTGCTGCTGGTC-3`
OPN	5`-CAGTTGTCCCCACAGTAGACAC-3`/ 5`-GTGATGGTCCTCGTCTGTAGCATC-3`
COL- I	5`-AACATGGAGACTGGTGAGACCT-3`/ 5`-CGCCATACTCGAACTGGAACCT-3`

2

3

1 **Table 2.** The Animal grouping and model design

Pulp-capping agent	Teeth total Number	The observation time	The surgical site
sEV	9	6 weeks	Left maxillary region
TDM	9	6 weeks	Right maxillary region
sEV-TDM	9	6 weeks	Right mandibular region
MTA	9	6 weeks	Left mandibular region

2

3

Table 3. The Mean Value and Standard Deviation of the Maximum Thickness of a Hard Tissue Bridge Formed after Capping Treatment with MTA, sEV, sEV-TDM and TDM

Pulp-capping agent	Teeth total Number	Continuity of mineralized tissue			Hard tissue bridge max thickness (μm)
		None	Partial	Complete	
sEV	9	5	4	0	--
TDM	9	1	0	9	84.7 \pm 26.5
sEV-TDM	9	0	0	9	97.7 \pm 25.6
MTA	9	0	0	9	110.2 \pm 21.7

Supplementary Materials

FIGURE S1-The identification, and characterization of DPCs. (A, B, C, and D) The micrographs of cultured DPCs from dental pulp tissue. (E) After adipogenic culture conditions that lipid droplets were shown by Oil red staining. (F) After osteogenic inductive, mineralized nodules can be observed with Alizarin red staining. (G and H) After neurogenic induction, the morphologic of induced hDPCs changed, and the neurogenic maker Nestin can be detected. (I) Flow cytometric analysis showed that hDPCs were stained positively for CD29, CD90, CD44, CD146, CD166, and negatively for CD33, CD34, CD45.

FIGURE S2-Imaging results of sEV-TDM as Pulp capping material in miniature swine. (A, B, and C) The model of dental pulp defect was made on the teeth of miniature swine, (D) X-ray films were taken after pulp capping. (E) Micro-CT scanning (1mm) and X-ray images after 6 weeks of direct pulp capping.

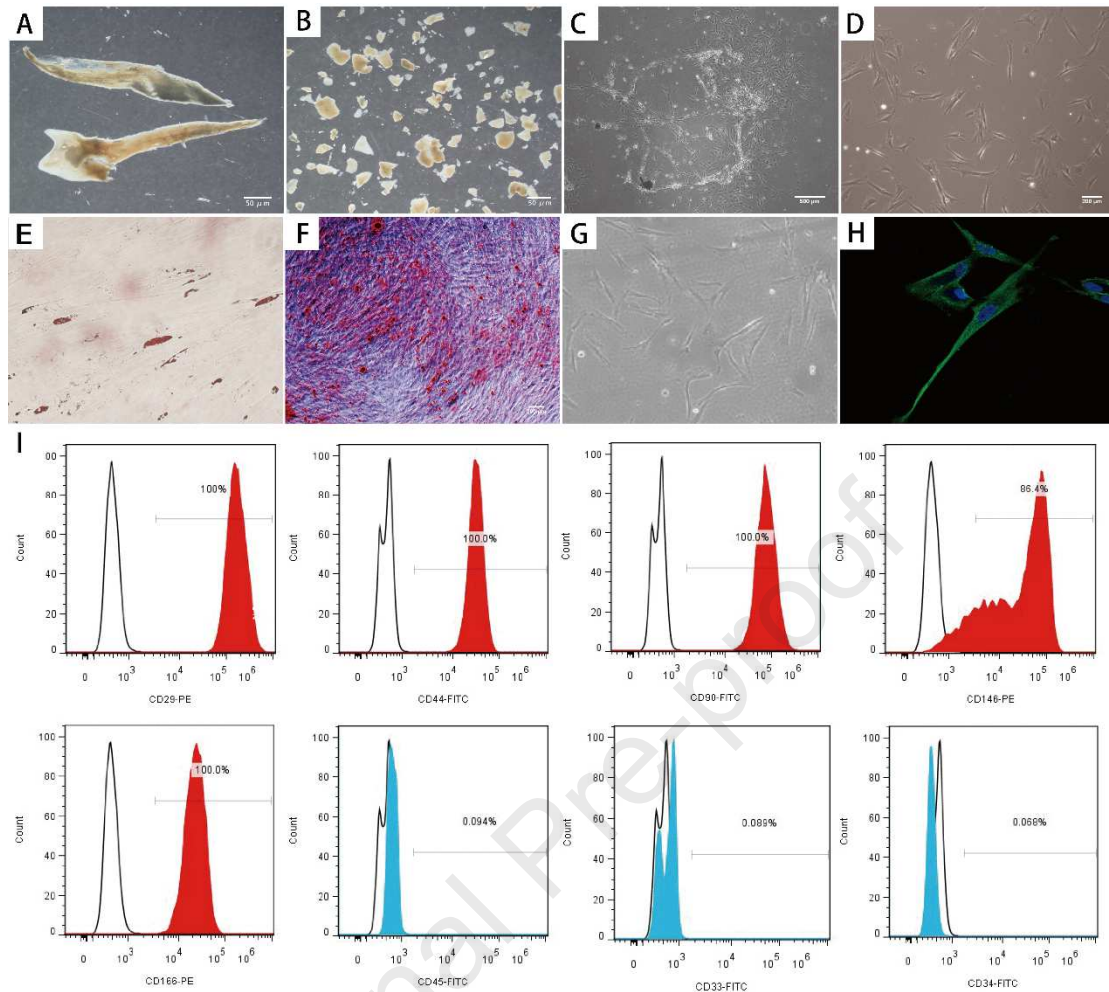


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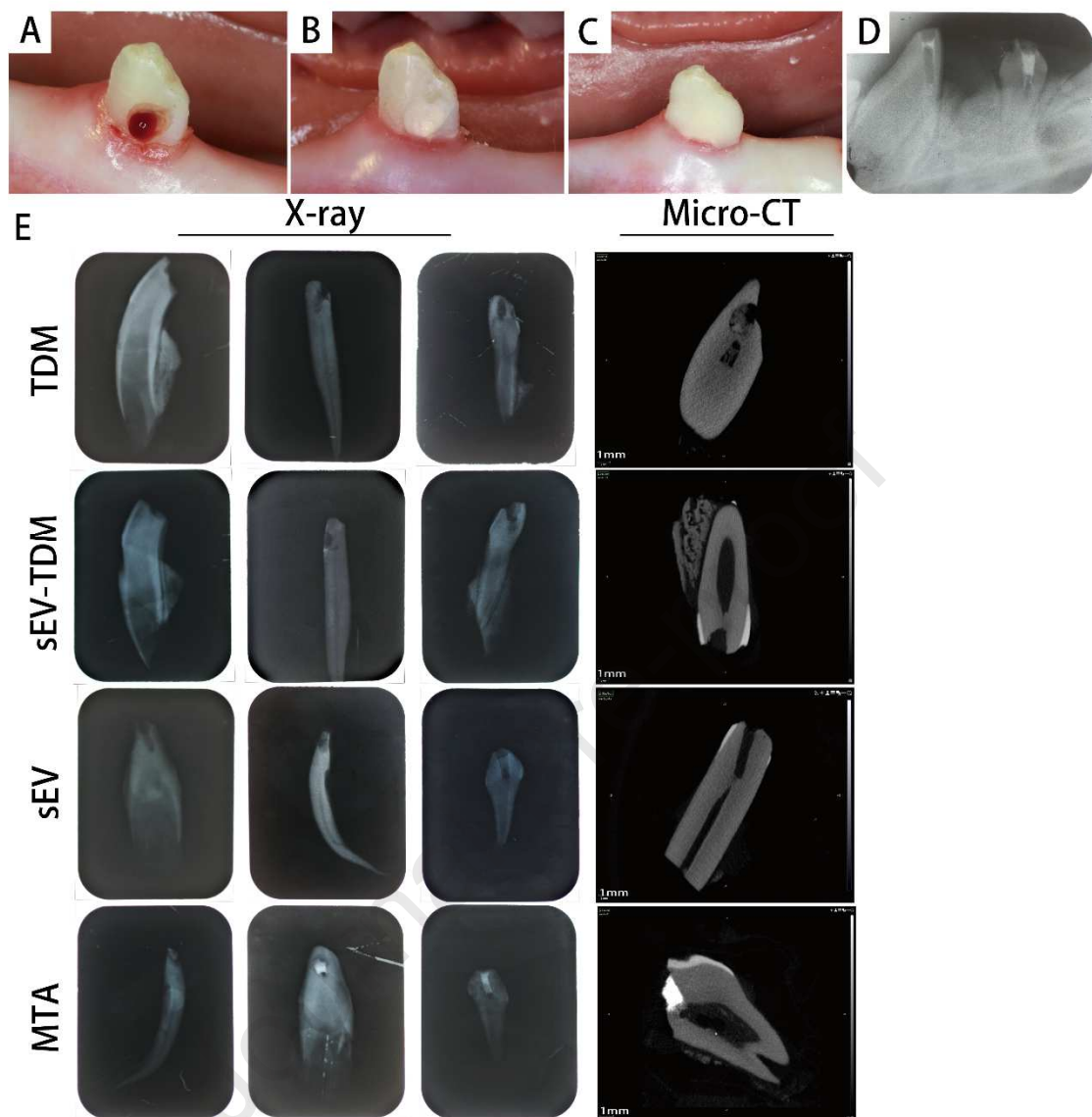
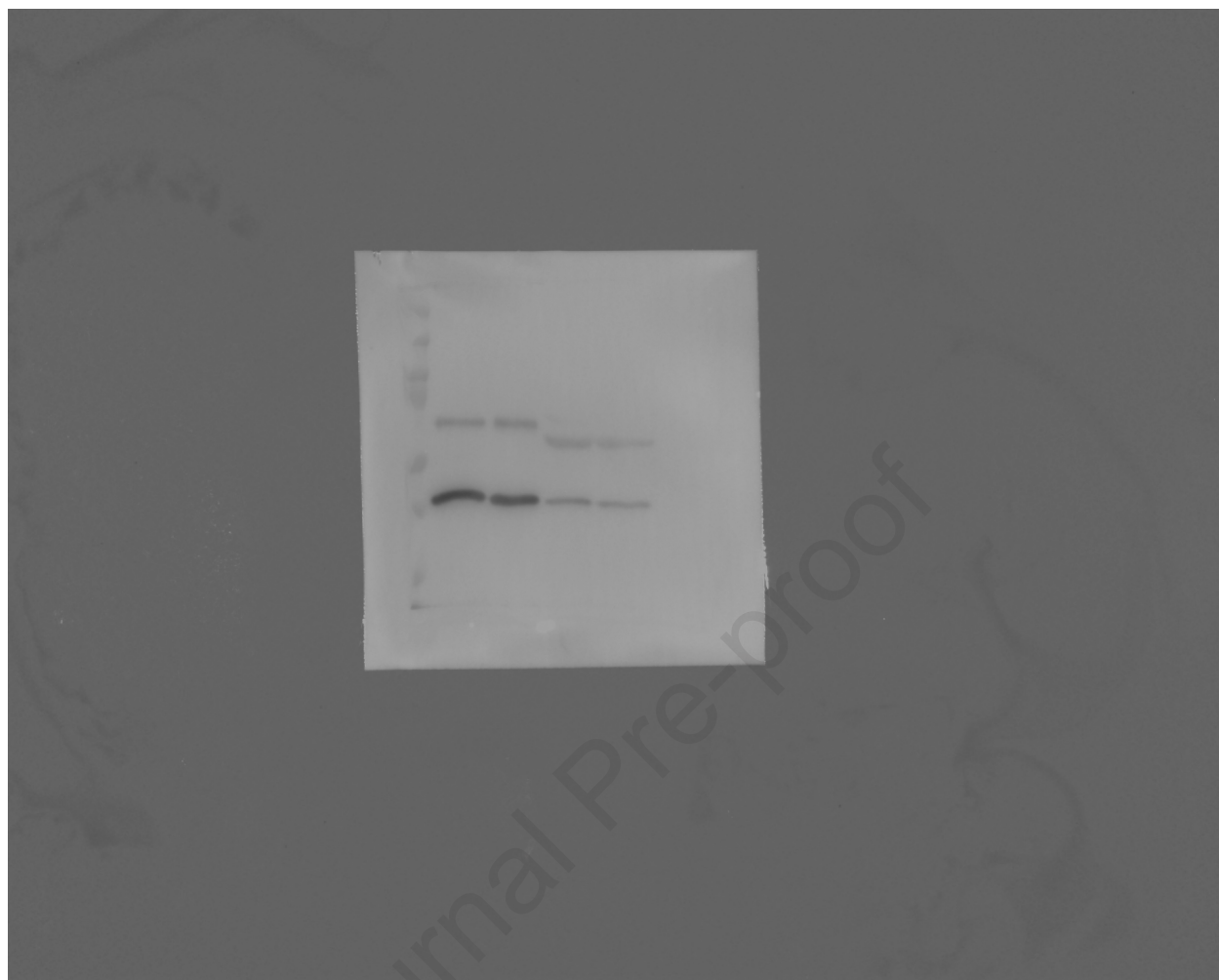
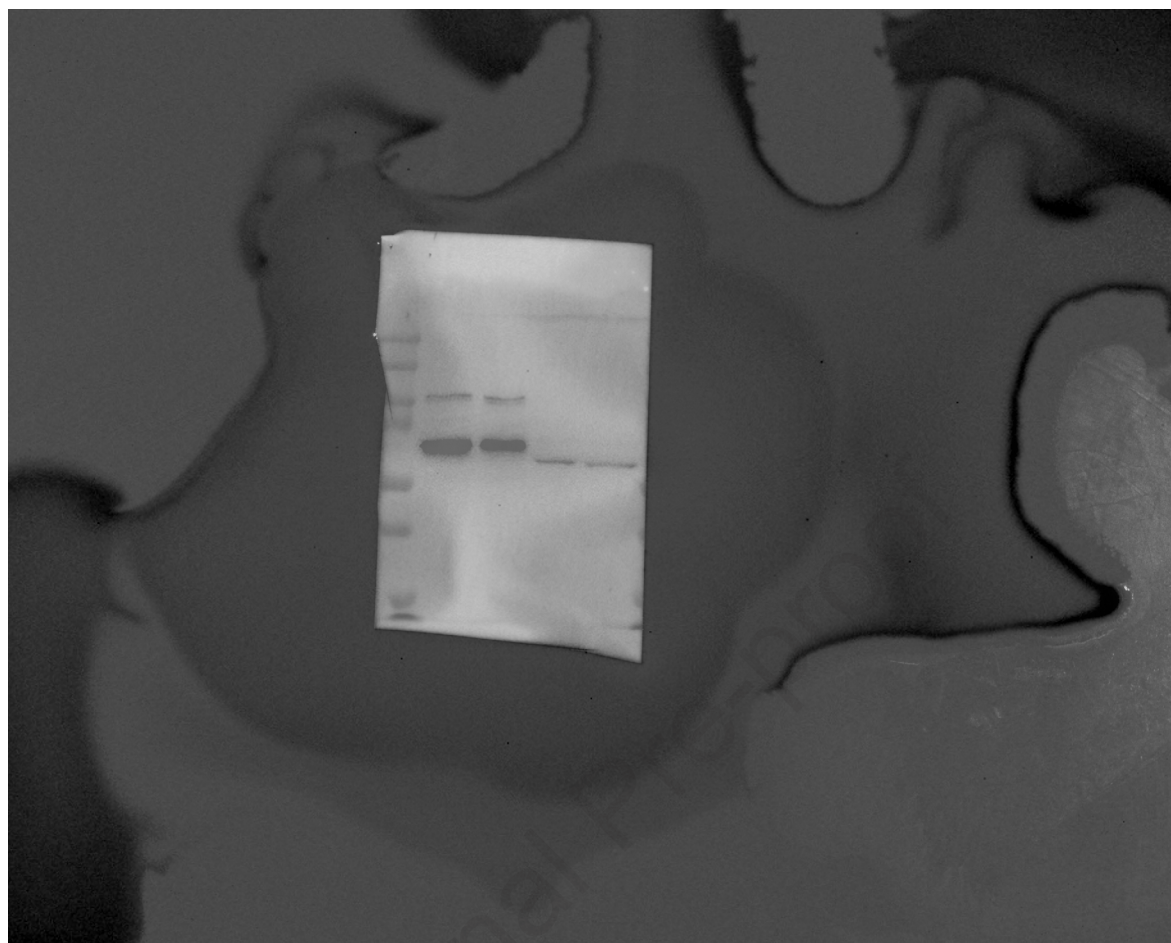
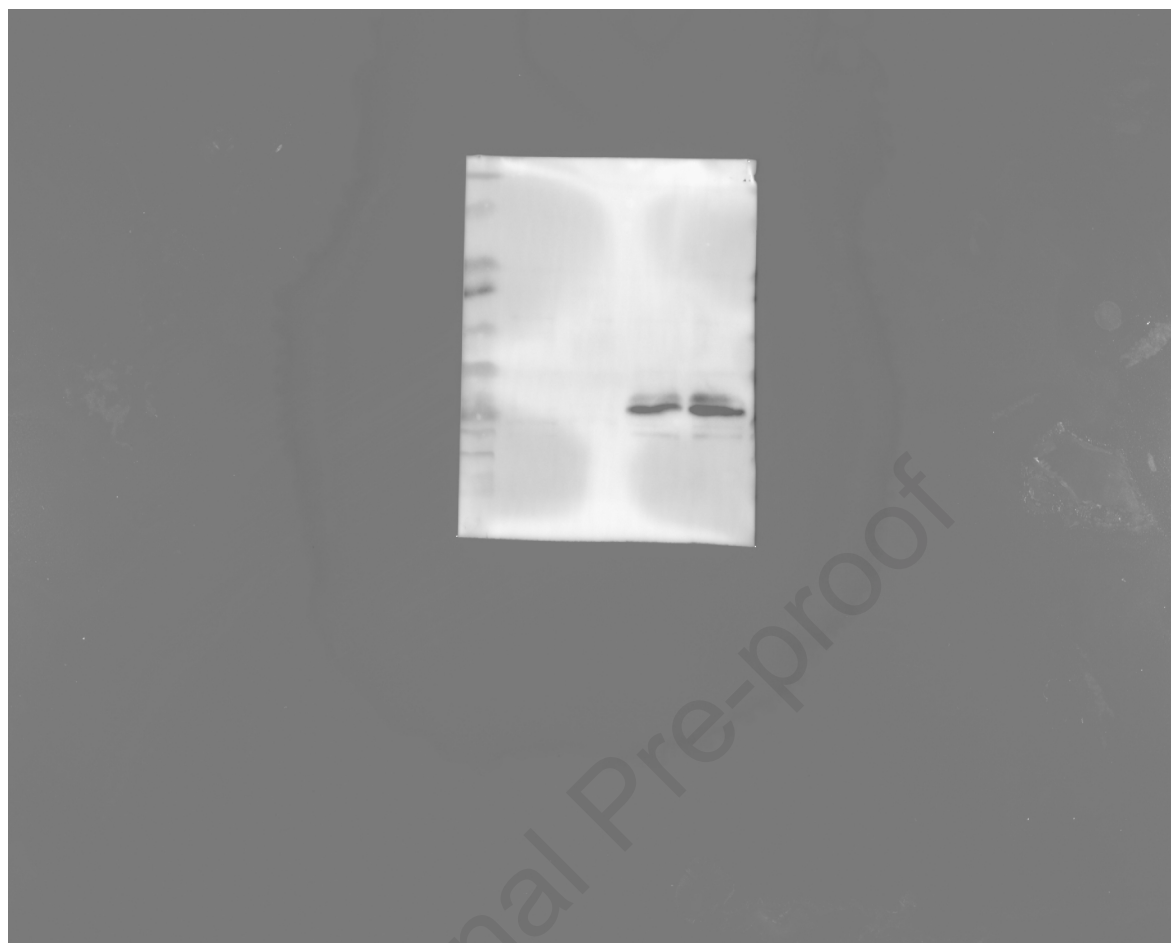


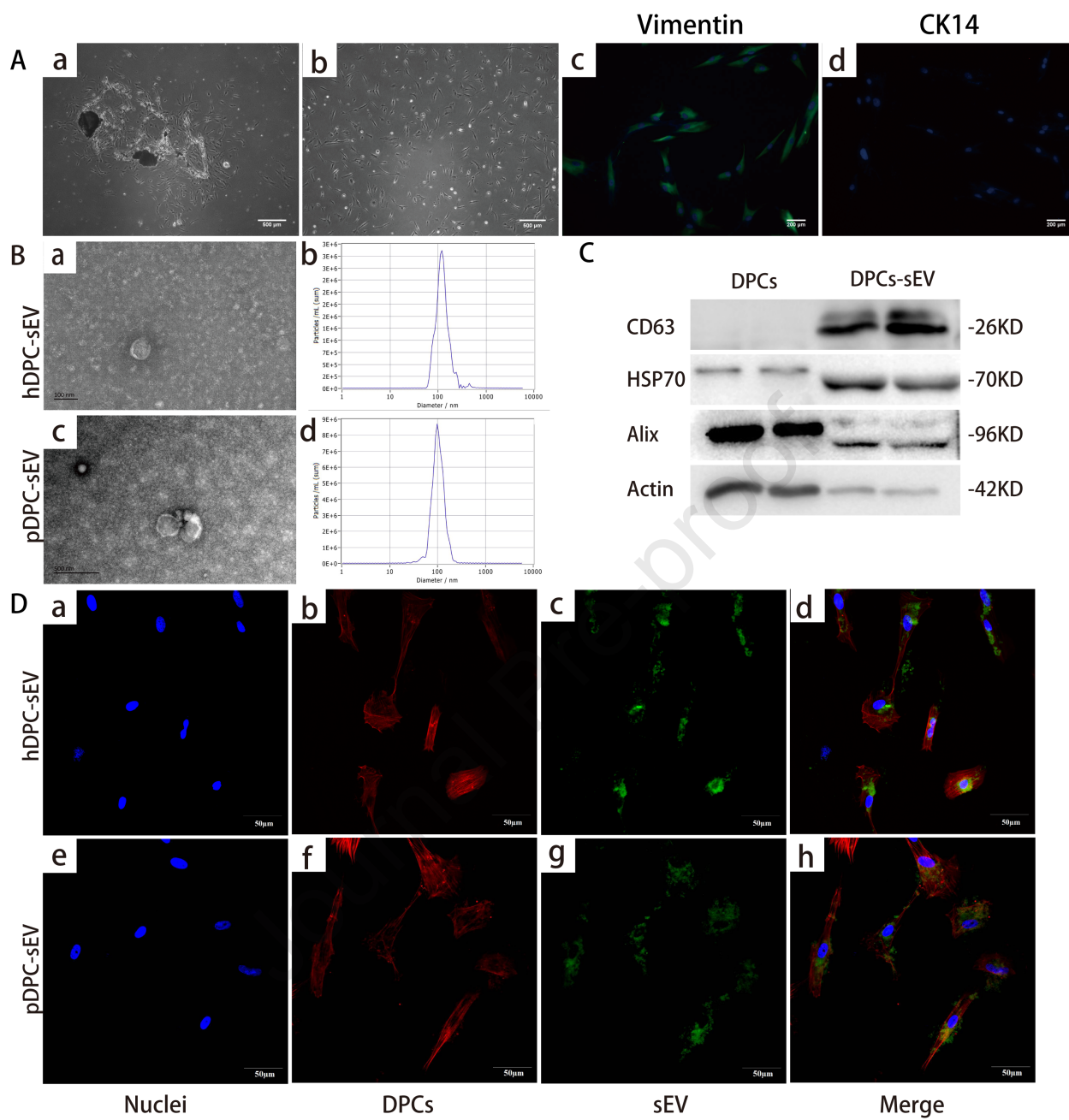
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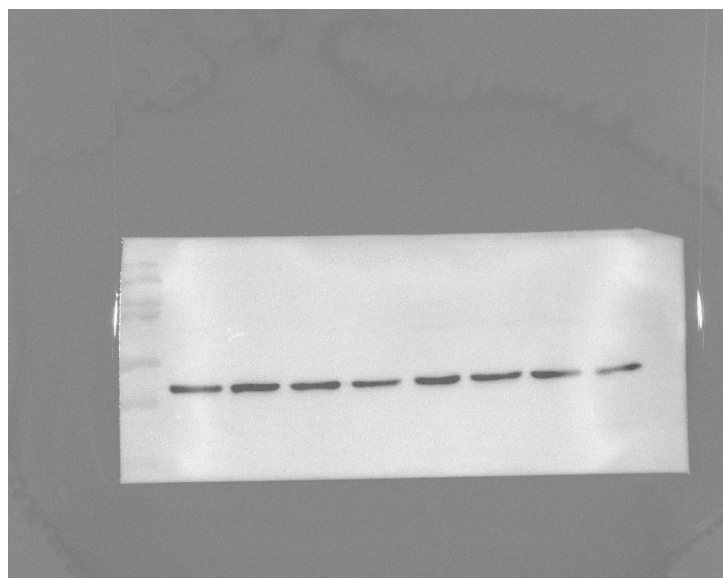


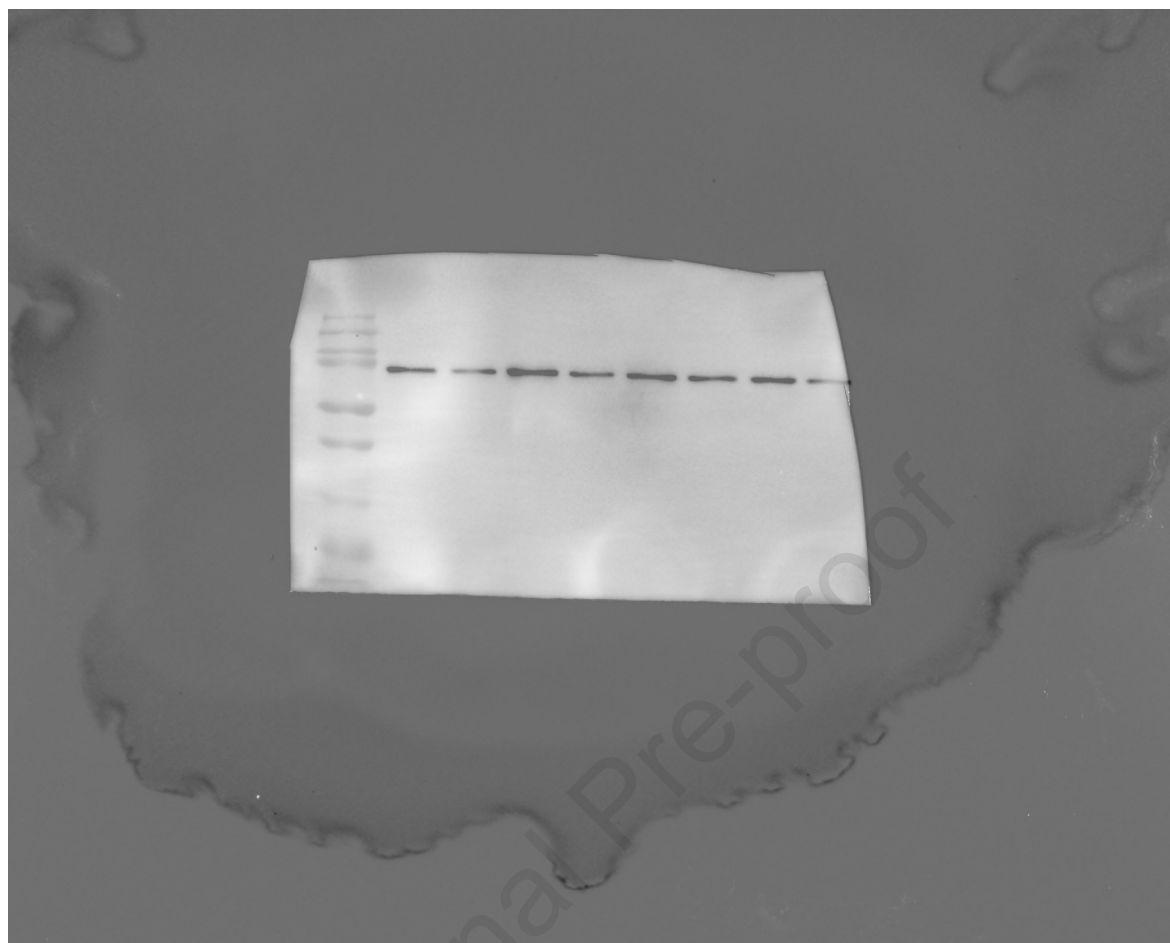


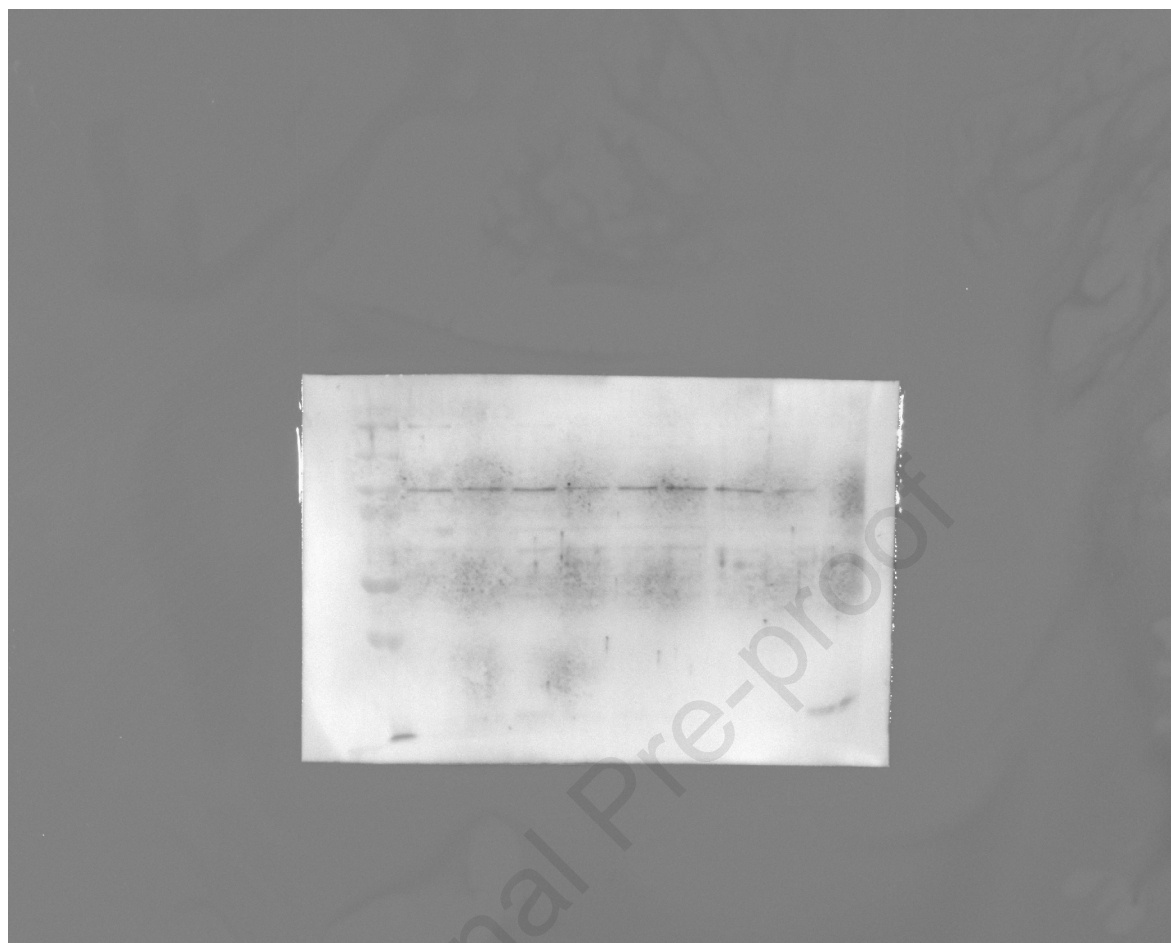


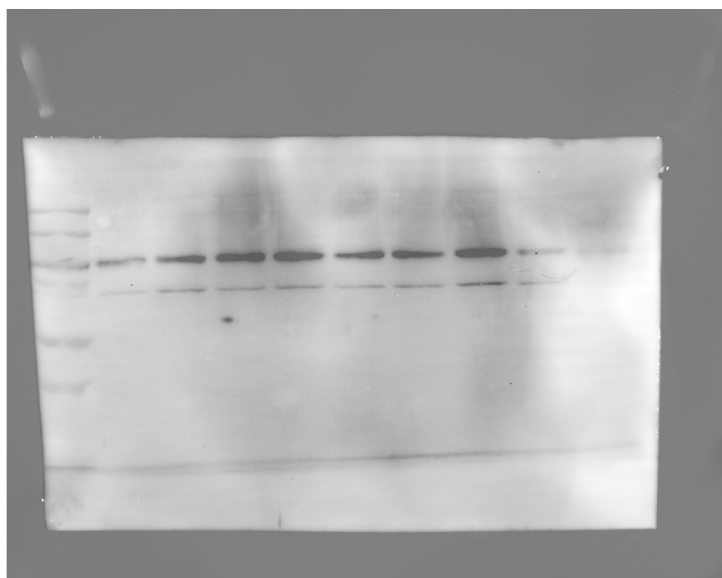


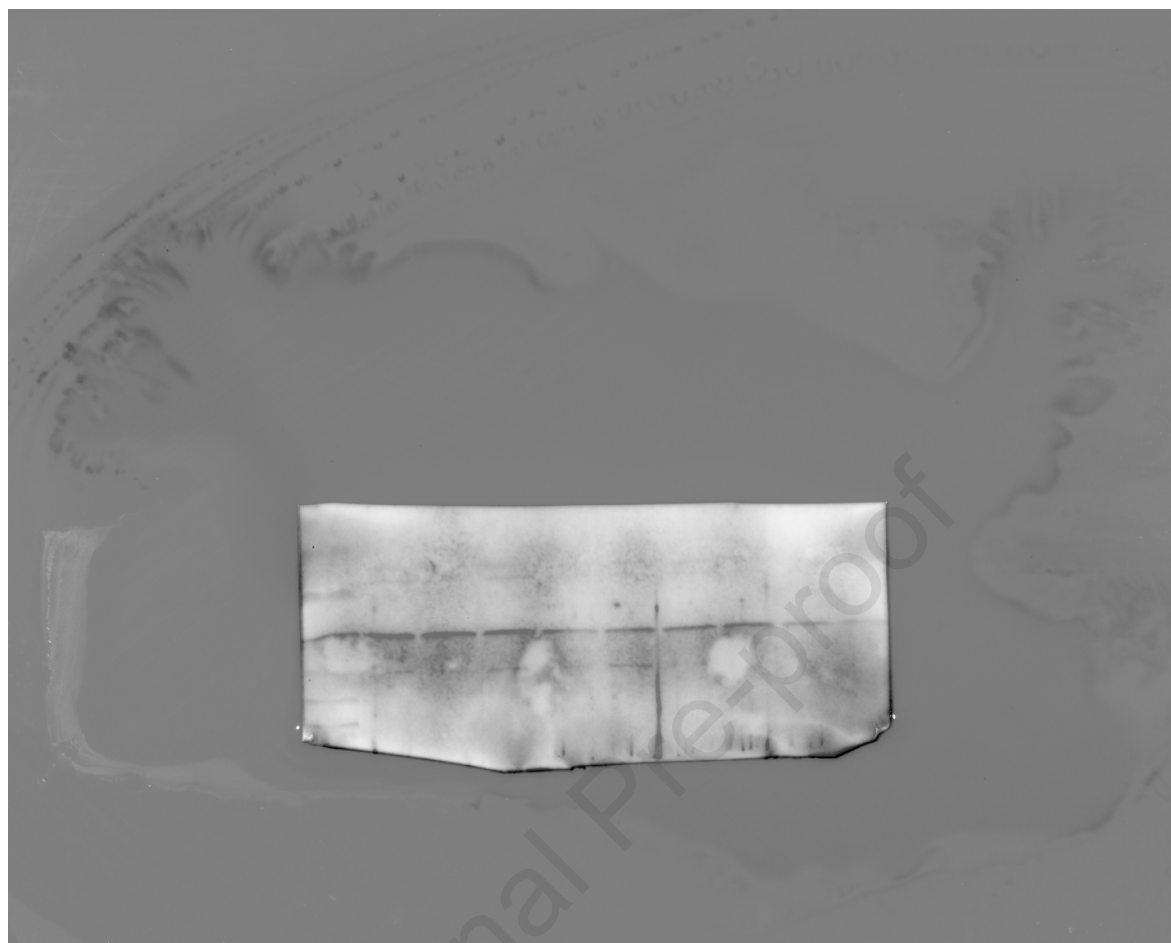


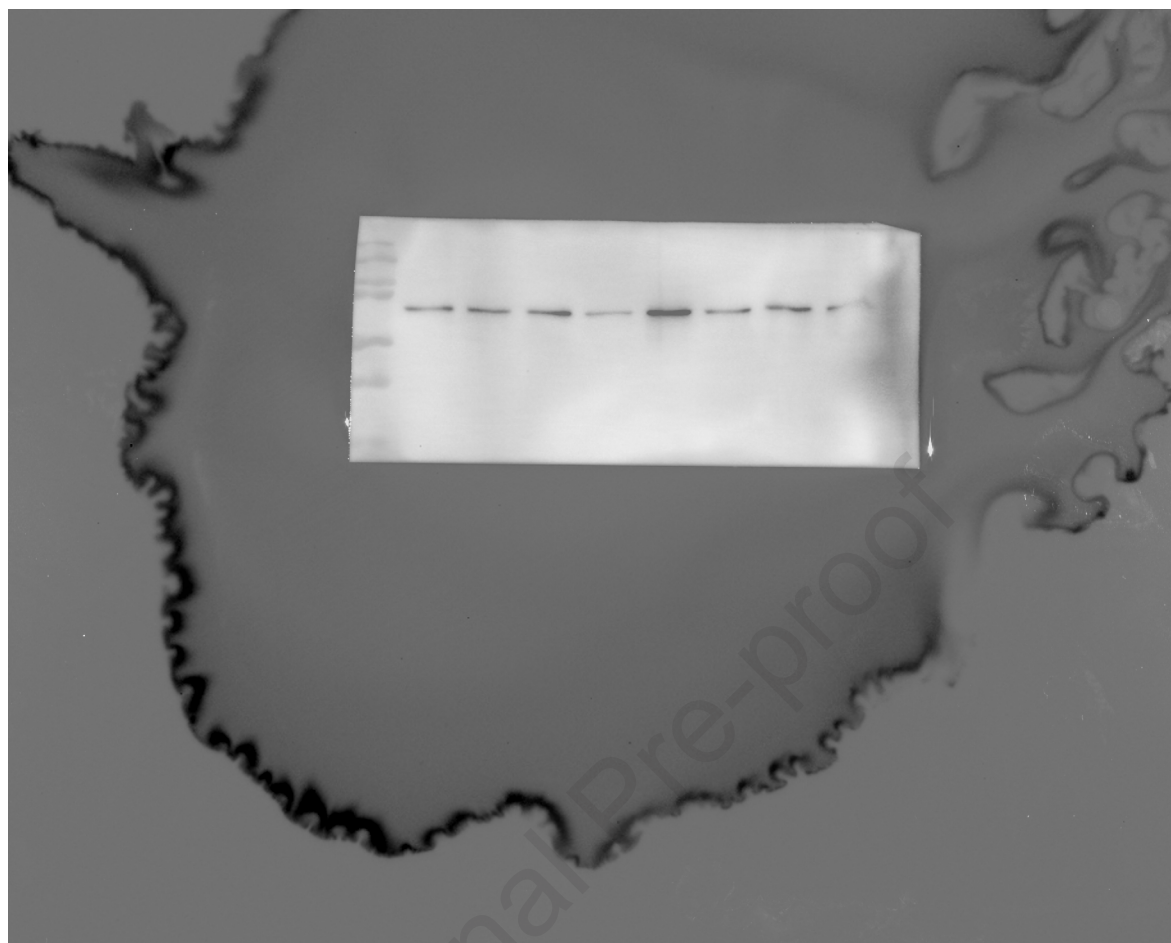


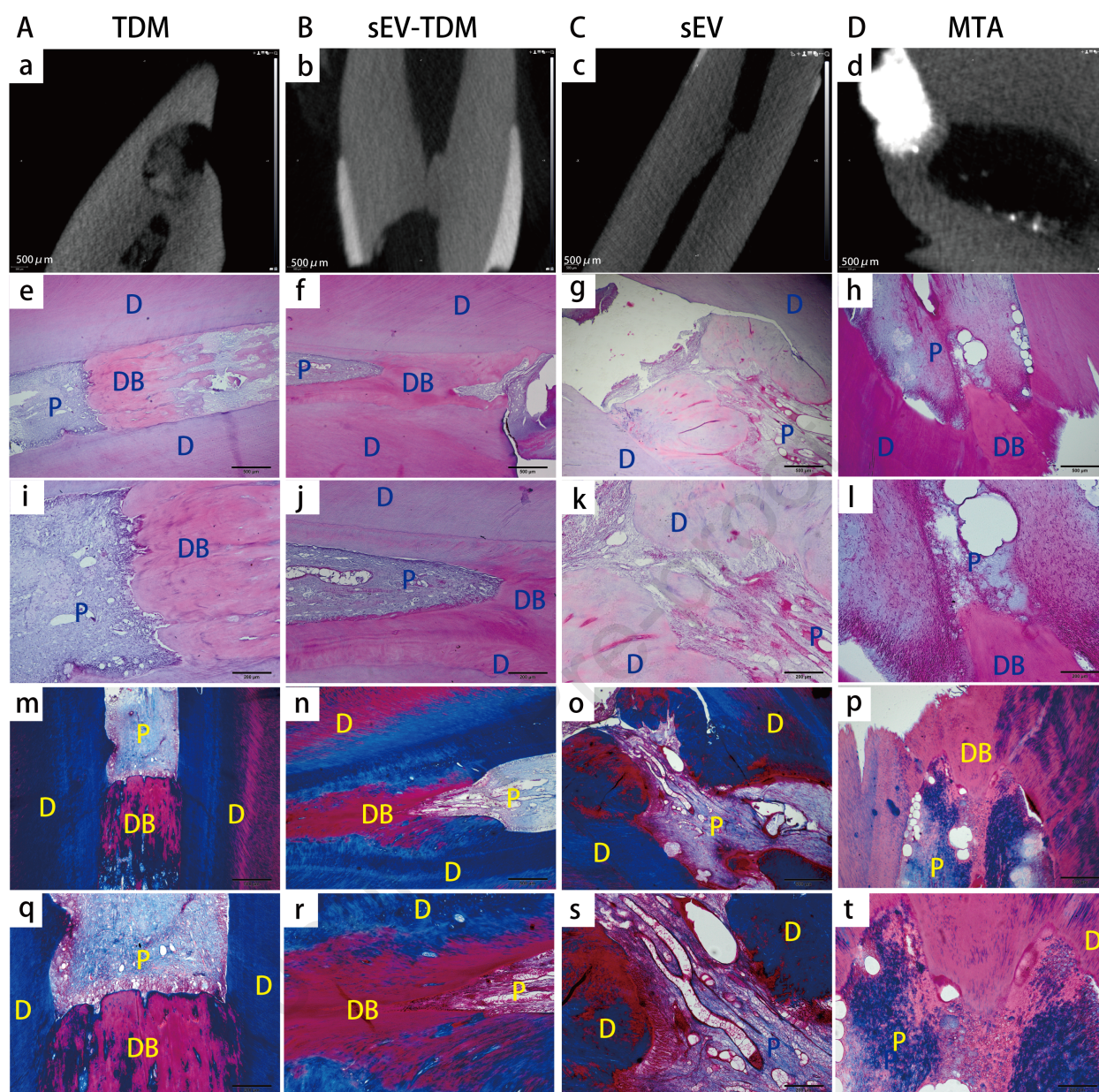


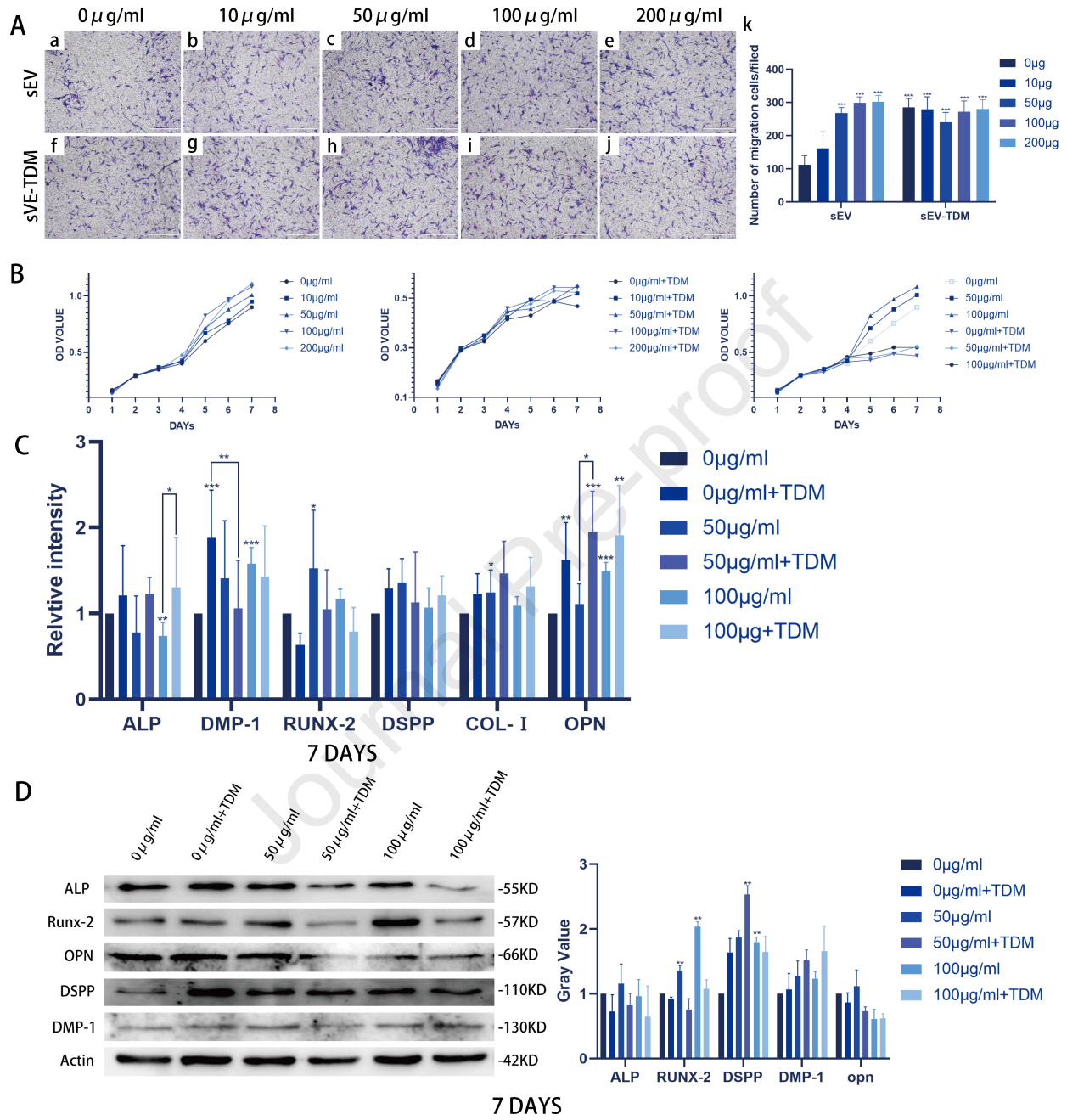


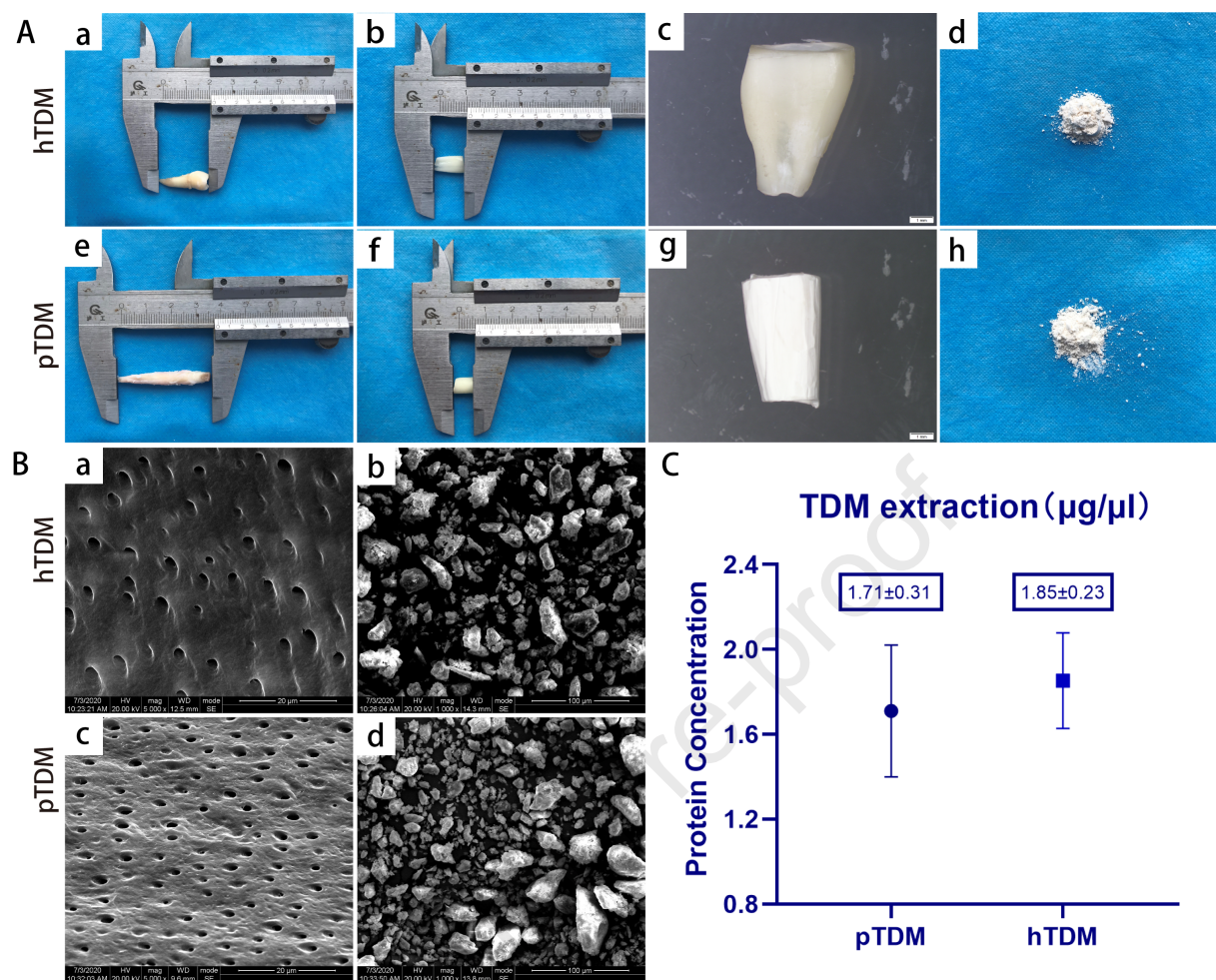












Statement of Clinical Relevance

In this manuscript that informed consent was obtained for experimentation with human subjects. The privacy rights of human subjects must always be observed.