TITLE

Novel therapy for gastric cancer peritoneal dissemination using genetically modified dental

pulp cells and astatine-211

AUTHORS

Koumei Kuge[1,2], Wan-Ying Du[1], Hiroki Masuda[1,2], Tomohiko Yasuda[1,2], Toshifumi Tatsumi[3],

Xiaojie Yin[4], Masao Yoshino[5], Akira Sugiyama[6], Ryohei Numata[7], Wataru Yokoyama[7], Hidenori

Shibahara[7], Tomoko Tanaka[3], Mika Kobayashi[3], Akashi Taguchi[3], Takahide Kohro[8], Naoko

Takubo[3], Masahiro Nakamura[3], Jaewoong Jang[3], Yoshitaka Kumakura[3,9], Hiroshi Yoshida[2], Akira

Yoshikawa[5,10], Hiromitsu Haba[4], Youichiro Wada[3]*, Kiwamu Imagawa[7]**, and Sachiyo

Nomura[1,3,6]***

CORRESPONDENCE

*Co-corresponding author. Email: wada-y@ric.u-tokyo.ac.jp

** Co-corresponding author. Email: imagawa-k@jp.jcrpharm.com

*** Co-corresponding author. Email: sachiyo.nomura1012@gmail.com

AFFILIATIONS

[1] Department of Gastrointestinal Surgery, Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo

[2] Department of Surgery, Graduate School of Medicine, Nippon University

[3] Isotope Science Center, The University of Tokyo

[4] Nishina Center for Accelerator-Based Science, RIKEN

[5] Institute for Materials Research, Tohoku University

[6] School of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences, Hoshi University Clinical Pharmaceutical

Sciences

[7] Regenerative Medicine Unit, Drug Discovery Research Institute, Research Division, JCR

Pharmaceuticals Co., Ltd.

[8] Department of Cerebrovascular Medicine, Jichi Medical School

[9] Department of Diagnostic Radiology and Nuclear Medicine, Saitama Medical Center, Saitama

Medical University

[10] New Industry Creation Hatchery Center, Tohoku University

SUMMARY

Peritoneal dissemination of gastric cancer represents a terminal stage with limited therapeutic

options and a five-year survival rate below 10%. To develop a more effective treatment, we

established a novel α-particle–based approach using genetically engineered human dental pulp

stem cells (DPCs) expressing the sodium/iodide symporter (NIS) to deliver astatine-211 (At-

211) directly to tumor sites. DPCs, isolated and expanded under differentiation-suppressive

conditions, showed strong tumor-homing ability when injected intraperitoneally into a mouse

model of gastric cancer dissemination. Fluorescent imaging and histological analysis confirmed

selective accumulation of DPCs within tumor lesions through CXCR4/SDF-1–mediated

chemotaxis. Introduction of the NIS gene markedly increased SLC5A5 expression and enabled

efficient uptake of At-211. High-resolution α-particle imaging visualized α-ray emission

specifically from NIS-DPCs, confirming intracellular retention of the radionuclide. *In vivo*,

sequential administration of NIS-DPCs followed by Na[At-211] led to pronounced regression of

peritoneal tumors and significant survival extension compared with controls. The therapeutic

mechanism involves three coordinated steps: tumor-directed migration of NIS-DPCs, At-211

uptake via NIS transporters, and localized α-particle–mediated cytotoxicity. This study

introduces a novel concept of cell-based α-radiotherapy integrating regenerative and nuclear

medicine. Given the established clinical safety of DPCs in humans (J-REPAIR,

jRCT1080224505), this NIS-DPC platform offers a promising strategy for precise, short-range

irradiation of disseminated gastric cancer and potentially other intractable malignancies.

INTRODUCTION

Peritoneal dissemination is a common terminal manifestation of gastric cancer and is

classified as stage IV disease, with a 5-year survival rate of less than 10%. Current therapeutic

options are largely palliative, highlighting an urgent need for new treatment strategies with

curative potential.

We previously established a murine gastric cancer peritoneal dissemination cell line

(YTN16) and demonstrated proof-of-concept efficacy of targeted α-particle therapy using

astatine-211 (At-211), a high–linear energy transfer radionuclide with a 7.2-hour half-life. An

anti–fibroblast growth factor receptor 4 (FGFR4) antibody—selected for its high expression on

YTN16 cells—was conjugated to At-211 via a halogen–tin exchange reaction. In vivo

biodistribution studies in a syngeneic C57BL/6J peritoneal dissemination model showed that

intraperitoneal administration achieved peak peritoneal radioactivity at 4.5 hours, resulting in

marked tumor regression and significant survival extension compared with untreated controls.

However, the therapeutic window is constrained by the mismatch between the time

required for antigen–antibody binding (~24 hours) and the physical half-life of At-211. To

improve delivery kinetics, we sought a vehicle capable of rapidly homing to the tumor

microenvironment. Tumors actively recruit stromal fibroblasts to form cancer-associated

fibroblasts (CAFs), and mesenchymal cells (MSCs) share similar tumor-tropic properties. We

therefore investigated dental pulp cells (DPCs) developed by JCR Pharmaceuticals, which have

an established manufacturing process and demonstrated safety in a phase 1/2 clinical trial for

acute ischemic stroke (Ref. jRCT1080224505).

Here, we evaluate DPCs as a biologic vector for targeted α-particle therapy in gastric

cancer peritoneal dissemination. We hypothesize that leveraging the tumor-homing ability of

DPCs can facilitate At-211 delivery to the tumor niche, overcoming the limitations of

radioimmunotherapy and enabling improved therapeutic efficacy and survival outcomes.

RESULTS

Preparation and characteristics of DPCs

Dental pulp cells are located in the dental pulp, the soft connective tissue found in the

center of teeth (Figure 1a). They play key roles in tooth vitality by producing dentin, supporting

sensory functions, and participating in immune defense and tissue repair (Ref. Nito).

Dental pulp extraction is followed by mild enzymatic digestion to loosen the

extracellular matrix, then mechanical mincing to produce small tissue pieces. These explants are

placed in culture, allowing maintenance and expansion of dental pulp cells (DPCs) (Ref.

Gronthos) (Figure 1b).

DPCs could be expanded using culture medium, but no proliferation was observable in

soft agar, suggesting no tumorigenicity after injecting *in vivo* (Figure 1c).

Confirmation of DPC accumulation in peritoneal tumor tissue

To investigate that DPCs harbor the ability of tumor accumulation, we applied them into

the peritoneal cavity of gastric cancer dissemination model, which was established previously by

us (Ref.Yamamoto). Firstly, 5×10^5 cells of DPCs were prepared as described in materials and

methods. Then they were labeled with fluorescence dye (DiR) for living cells. After 24 hours,

injected mouse models were euthanized, and peritoneal surface was opened to apply florescence

detection camera. Localization of injected DPCs was visualized using in vivo imaging system

(IVIS Lumina III), and compared with distribution of disseminated visible lesions. As shown in

Figure 2, lesion occupied area was surrounded by blue line (right in Figure 2a, left in 2b).

Fluorescent images obtained by fluorescent camera was shown in Figure 2c (left) and 2d (right).

Significant colocalization was observable in both sides, suggesting accumulation of DPCs to

gastric cancer cells.

To further evaluate the specificity of tumor-directed accumulation, 1.0×10^6 DPCs were

injected intraperitoneally into a gastric cancer mouse model. Two days after the last injection of

DPCs, mice were sacrificed, and peritoneal tissues were fixed and subjected to

immunohistochemical staining using an anti-human Lamin B1 antibody. Brown staining,

indicative of DPC localization, was observed in tissues surrounding established tumor lesions

(Figure 2e, f), whereas no staining was detected in tissues lacking tumor cell engraftment (Figure

2g). These findings strongly suggest that intraperitoneally administered DPCs migrate to and

accumulate within peritoneal dissemination sites.

To validate the migratory ability of the DPCs towards the YTN16 cell line, a migration

assay was performed using a Transwell chamber. After $1x10^5$ DPCs were placed in the upper

chamber, a series of different numbers of YTN16 cells were placed in the lower chamber. The

migrated cells on the other side of the micropore membrane were stained with a Calcein solution,

and the absorbance was measured. Figure 2h shows that the presence of YTN16 cells induces

DPC migration in a cell number-dependent manner and proves the migration capability of DPCs

to YTN16 cells.

Functional transduction of NIS to DPC

The sodium-iodide symporter (NIS) is a transmembrane glycoprotein with 13

transmembrane domains that transports radioactive isotopes, such as I-131, I-123, I-125, I-124,

Tc-99m, Re-188, and At-211, into cells (Ref. Darrouzet). Therefore, we introduced the NIS gene

(SLC5A5) into DPC cells using lentivirus (Figure 3a). While there was no change in the

expression levels of other NIS-encoding genes, such as SLC26A4 and SLC26A7, the expression

level of SLC5A5 in NIS-DPC increased more than 100-fold.

Next, we verified the expression level of NIS molecules on the cell surface and

evaluated the correlation between uptake capacity and positive rate using iodine as a surrogate

molecule in vitro. The results are shown in Figure 3b and 3c. We confirmed that iodine uptake

increased in a NIS-positive rate-dependent manner and observed a trend where higher NIS-

positive rates correlated with higher iodine uptake (Figure 3c). When iodine uptake was

confirmed in three lots of NIS-DPC cells, more iodine uptake was observed compared to DPC

cells without gene introduction. This confirmed that the introduced NIS gene was expressed on

the cell surface and that its function was maintained (Figure 3b).

To validate that NIS-DPCs could migrate to dissemination lesions, NIS-DPCs were

injected into the peritoneal cavity, as was done with DPCs. Two days after injection, the peritoneal

tissues were subjected to immunohistochemical staining using an anti-human lamin B1 antibody.

As shown in Figure 2e and 2f, brown staining indicative of NIS-DPC localization was observed

in tissues surrounding established tumor lesions (Figures 3d and 3e), whereas no staining was

detected in tissues lacking tumor cell engraftment (Figure 3f). These findings strongly suggest

that the NIS-DPCs administered intraperitoneally were able to accumulate within peritoneal

dissemination lesions.

Uptake of At-211 by NIS-DPC

Recently, it has been reported that, due to its various chemical forms, purified At-211

undergoes nonspecific binding in vivo, and that this can be controlled by converting it to sodium

astatine-211 (Ref. Watabe 2022). Therefore, prior to in vivo administration, we prepared sodium

astatine-211 using the method shown in Figure 4a. We confirmed that the purified At -211 had a

uniform chemical form using thin layer chromatography (TLC) (Figure 4b).

152     Furthermore, we confirmed the amount of At-211 that was taken up by the cells. The

153 results are shown in Figure 4c. As with the results of the confirmation of uptake capacity using a

154 surrogate molecule, NIS-DPC cells with the introduced NIS gene took up more At-211 than

155 DPC cells without the introduced gene. Additionally, the highest uptake was observed at 5

156 minutes when comparing changes in uptake amount over time at 5, 10, and 60 minutes after At-

157 211 addition. These results suggest that At-211 is rapidly taken up by DPC cells via NIS.

158 Therefore, pre-accumulating NIS-DPC cells around the peritoneal dissemination site and then

159 administering At-211 allows the drug to be taken up by cells quickly enough to be effective

160 within its half-life.

162 **Novel contact scintillator imaging of alpha-ray trajectories from alpha emitters**

163     Because the NIS-DPC cell fraction is radioactive, the uptake of At-211 was suggested.

164 However, to verify that the alpha rays emitted from At-211 originate from the NIS-DPC cells, a

165 camera that can visualize alpha rays on a 1 μm scale was used. Figure 5a shows the alpha

166 camera system configuration (Ref. Yamamoto 2023) (Ref. Yoshino 2025). It comprises three

167 principal components: (i) a 100-μm-thick GAGG thin-film scintillator screen; (ii) an infinity-

168 corrected magnification optical train consisting of an objective, an imaging lens; and (iii) a

169 CMOS imaging sensor, specifically the ORCA-Quest 2 qCMOS (C15550-22UP) from

Hamamatsu Photonics. Alpha particles emitted from within the cells are converted into photons

by a GAGG scintillator, magnified by a 20x objective, and detected by a CMOS sensor. Figure

5b shows an overview of the system. Eighteen thousand NIS-DPC and DPC cells were cultured

in an eight-well chamber slide. Then, 500 kBq of At-211 was added to the culture medium per

well, followed by a 30-minute incubation period. The cells were then fixed with formalin, and

observation with an alpha camera was conducted for ten minutes. Figure 5c shows an overview

of the NIS-DPC cells and Figure 5f shows an overview of the DPC cells. Both exhibit similar

morphology and distribution. However, as Figures 5d and 5g show, the alpha particle range was

detected only in the NIS-DPC cells. The merged image in Figure 5h confirms localization in the

NIS-DPC cells. These results indicate that At-211 was efficiently taken up by NIS-DPC cells

and that α-rays were emitted from these cells.

At-211 and NIS-DPC cell administration showed antitumor effects

Then, we preliminarily assessed the antitumor and survival prolongation effects of At-

211 and NIS-DPC administration in a mouse peritoneal dissemination model. Three weeks after

tumor cell transplantation, 0.5×10^6 NIS-DPC cells were administered intraperitoneally.

Twenty-four hours later, 0.6 MBq of astatine-211 was administered per animal. At one and a

half weeks post-transplantation, examination of the peritoneum revealed tumor cells in the

peritoneal dissemination group (Figure 6a), as well as in the NIS-DPC administration group

(Figure 6b) and the astatine-211 administration group (Figure 6c). However, the disappearance

of peritoneal seeding was observed in the group that received both NIS-DPC and astatine-211

(Figure 6d, asterisks).

To evaluate the effect of NIS-DPC&At-211 treatment, we scored the antitumor effects

visually on a 5-point scale (0–4) based on the extent of cancer cells adhering to the peritoneal

tissue at the time of death or at the end of the observation period (Figure 6e). We then evaluated

the results using the Tukey test.

The results of the antitumor effect evaluation are shown in a box-and-whisker plot

(Figure 6f). Compared to the untreated group (No Treatment) and the At-211 monotherapy

group (At-211), a significant reduction in score (i.e., reduction in disseminated tissue) was

observed in the At-211+NIS-DPC group (At-211+NIS-DPC). It was therefore suggested that the

administered NIS-DPC accumulated around implanted cancer cells in the peritoneum.

Subsequently, the cancer tissue was reduced by the cytolytic effect of α-rays after the uptake of

the administered At-211.

Using the same evaluation scale, we performed a series of experiments to optimize the

radioactivity of At-211 (Figure S6a), dose of NIS-DPC (Figure S6b), and repetition of NIS-DPC

injection (Figure S6c). Based on the macroscopic evaluation of the extent of peritoneal

dissemination, 0.6MBq of At-211/body, 5×10^5/body of NIS-DPC, three-time administration of

NIS-DPC, provided significantly higher score.

208   Using this optimized regimen, survival rates were evaluated using Kaplan-Meier

curves and Logrank tests. The survival rates of individual mice in each group after At-211

administration were evaluated. The results are shown in Figure 6g. Compared to the untreated

group and the At-211 treated group, a significant prolongation of survival was observed in the

At-211 + NIS-DPC group. Based on these results, the extension of the survival rate is

considered to be due to the damage and reduction of the implanted tumors by At-211 and NIS-

DPC in the mouse peritoneal dissemination model.

DISCUSSION

Brief summary

In this study, we created NIS-DPC cells by forcing the expression of the NIS gene,

which encodes an iodine transporter, in DPC cells that accumulate in the peritoneal cavity.

Forty-eight hours after administering these cells, we introduced astatine-211 into the peritoneal

cavity, demonstrating that the NIS-DPC cells accumulated around the tumor cells were rapidly

taken up, resulting in tumor cell death. This three-step treatment method is illustrated in Figure 7:

addition of NIS-DPC cells, addition of At-211, and α-ray irradiation. The first process involves

the accumulation of NIS-DPC cells in tumors. The second process involves the uptake of astatine-

211 by NIS-DPC cells. The third process involves tumor-killing effects.

Accumulation of DPC/NIS-DPC to cancer cells

It is known that cancer cells accumulate large numbers of cancer-associated fibroblasts

(CAFs) in their vicinity. However, mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) exhibit similar dynamics to

CAFs. MSCs migrate in response to chemokines, such as SDF-1, produced by cancer cells. They

recognize these chemokines via CXCR4. However, due to protein cross-reactivity between

humans and mice, human MSCs can migrate toward mouse tumors as well. Additionally, MSCs

have low immunogenicity and can be administered allogeneically. Since 2008, when it was

reported that DPC cells (a type of MSC) express CXCR4 and migrate in response to SDF-1 (Ref.

Jiang 2008), it has frequently been reported that DPC cells accumulate in inflammatory or

ischemic sites, particularly in oral and maxillofacial surgery (Ref. Yamaguchi et al., Sci. Rep.

2015) (Ref. Li et al., Sci. Rep. 2017)(Ref. Neves et al., Sci. Rep. 2020)(Ref. Kornsuthisopon et

al., Sci. Rep. 2022) (Ref. Irfan et al., Sci. Rep. 2023). DPCs produced by JCR Pharmaceuticals,

which have been administered to humans and proven safe (Ref. Suda 2022), were examined for

their ability to migrate and accumulate around tumor tissues in a mouse peritoneal dissemination

model.

As mentioned above, the first process of this therapy is accumulation of DPC cells to

cancer cells. To prove this, multimodal experiments were performed. Macroscopically, as shown

in Figures 2a to 2d, the localization of fluorescently labeled DPC cells coincided with the

localization of gastric cancer peritoneal dissemination lesions. Microscopically, as shown in

Figures 2e to 2g, DPC cells were observed within gastric cancer lesions via immunohistochemical

staining. These findings indicate that DPC cells accumulate in tumor cells.

In vitro, DPC cells were observed migrating toward gastric cancer cells (Figure 2h).

However, the molecular mechanism underlying this migration is suggested to involve the

induction of EGR1 in DPC cells by soluble factors released from cancer cells. Further clarification

of the migration mechanism is needed in further study.

Functional uptake of At-211 by NIS-DPC

The second step of this treatment method involves the uptake of At-211 by DPC cells.

Several experiments were conducted to determine if the introduced iodine transporter functions

in DPC cells. First, non-radioactive iodine and a non-radioactive ligand were added to DPC cells

expressing NIS, and the uptake efficiency was examined. As Figures 3b and 3c show, DPC cells

expressing NIS exhibited approximately 50-fold higher iodine uptake. The amount of uptake

increased in a NIS expression-dependent manner, demonstrating that NIS functionally takes up

the ligand. Furthermore, Figure 4c shows efficient uptake of At-211 by NIS-DPC starting five

minutes after At-211 addition. Using the newly developed α camera, we confirmed that the uptake

of At-211 and cell localization were consistent. This indicates that NIS-DPC cells take At-211

into the cell and emit α rays. In the future, it is expected that the lethal effect of α rays on tumor

cells will be directly visualized by co-culturing NIS-DPC cells with tumor cells and observing

them using the α camera.

Tumoricidal effect of NIS-DPC&At-211

As shown in Figure 6, this study demonstrated that administering At-211 after NIS-DPC

administration reduced peritoneal dissemination lesions and prolonged survival. This confirms

the tumor-killing effect, which is the third process in this treatment. In the evaluation of anticancer

drug efficacy in humans, the primary endpoint is survival rate extension. Therefore, when

evaluating the efficacy of cancer treatments using model animals, improvement in survival rate is

equally important as it is in humans. Furthermore, the proposed mechanism of action was strongly

implicated. However, it has been reported that immune function induced by neoantigens released

from tumor cells damaged by radiation exposure contributes to the efficacy of nuclear medicine

therapy (Ref. Nagaoka). Elucidating the detailed mechanism in the future may expand the

application of combined therapy with NIS-DPC cells and astatine-211.

Requirement for practical application

To commercialize this treatment method in the future, data on its efficacy must be

accumulated. Additionally, data on the safety and pharmacokinetics of the reagents used in this

study will be necessary. Since DPC cells have been administered to humans before and their safety

has been demonstrated (Ref. Suda 2022), data on the safety of NIS-DPC is necessary. In particular,

since lentiviruses are used to introduce the NIS gene, it is necessary to clarify whether they are

excreted from the administered animals. Furthermore, since astatine-211 is administered in the

form of sodium astatine into the abdominal cavity, pharmacokinetic data must be obtained in

medium-sized animals prior to human administration. Human clinical studies will be conducted

based on these data.

DPC cells can be administered allogenically. Since their procurement is minimally

invasive, the cells can be stored frozen, which makes it feasible to establish a supply system.

Additionally, meeting clinical demand for At-211 is possible through the future widespread

adoption of mass production technology and the development of dedicated accelerators.

Perspective

Here, we reported a new treatment method combining nuclear and regenerative

medicine products. Since the safety of DPC cells has already been proven in humans, a first-in-

human trial should be conducted after the safety of NIS-DPC and At-211 is evaluated.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Preparation of Dental Pulp Cells (DPCs)

Human dental pulp cells (DPCs) were isolated from extracted teeth under sterile

conditions, as previously described with minor modifications. Briefly, extracted teeth were first

disinfected by immersion in 1% formalin solution followed by washing with sterile physiological

saline to remove debris and surface contaminants.

The tooth structure was mechanically fractured using a dental rongeur, and the pulp

tissue was carefully extracted from the pulp chamber. The obtained pulp tissue was minced into

small fragments using sterile surgical scissors and transferred into a tube containing Liberase

digestion solution (Roche Diagnostics, Basel, Switzerland). The tissue suspension was incubated

at 37°C for enzymatic digestion with gentle agitation until the connective matrix was adequately

loosened.

After digestion, the suspension was mixed with Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium

(DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (P/S)

to terminate the enzymatic reaction. The mixture was centrifuged at $300 \times g$ for 5 min, and the

supernatant was discarded. The resulting pellet was resuspended in fresh DMEM containing 10%

FBS and 1% P/S and seeded onto tissue culture plates.

Cells were incubated at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO_2 atmosphere and expanded until

passage 5 (P5). From passage 1 (P1) onward, cultures were maintained in DMEM supplemented

with 10% FBS but without antibiotics, to avoid potential effects of antimicrobial agents on cell

proliferation or differentiation. All procedures were conducted under aseptic conditions using

biosafety level 2 (BSL-2) practices.

Soft Agar Colony Formation Assay

To evaluate anchorage-independent growth and confirm the non-transformed

characteristics of the cells, a soft agar colony formation assay was performed using the

CytoSelect™ 96-Well Cell Transformation Assay Kit (Cell Biolabs, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA),

according to the manufacturer's protocol.

HeLa, DPC, and NIS-DPC cells were cultured under standard conditions until reaching

logarithmic growth phase. Cells were then harvested and resuspended in assay medium at the

following densities: 8×10^3 cells/well for HeLa, and 8×10^4 cells/well for DPC and NIS-DPC.

Cell suspensions were seeded in duplicate 96-well soft agar plates (Plate ① and Plate ②) as

described in the kit instructions.

Plate ① was incubated for 7 days at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO_2 incubator to allow

potential colony formation. Plate ② was processed immediately after cell seeding for background

measurement following the manufacturer's procedures: agar dissolution, cell lysis, and nuclear

staining. The absorbance of each well was measured using a microplate reader to determine

baseline optical density (OD).

After the 7-day incubation period, Plate ① was subjected to the same lysis and staining

procedures, and absorbance was measured again. Colony formation was quantified by comparing

OD values between the 0-day (Plate ②) and 7-day (Plate ①) samples. As expected, a significant

increase in OD was observed only in the HeLa group, while DPC and NIS-DPC cells showed no

increase, confirming their non-transformed phenotype.

Preparation of mouse model and application of NIS-DPC followed by Na[At-211]

Six-week-old female C57BL/6J mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratoy Japan

and housed in a specific pathogen-free environment at the Animal Experiment Facility in

Isotope Science Center, the University of Tokyo. The animal use proposal and experimental

protocol were reviewed and approved by the University of Tokyo Animal Committee (ID: Med-

P22-084、A2024ISC003). The YTN16 cell line was maintained in Dulbecco's modified

Eagle's medium (DMEM, Sigma-Aldrich Merck, Tokyo, Japan) with 10% heat-inactivated fetal

bovine serum (FBS, BWT, France), 50 μg/mL streptomycin, 50 U/mL penicillin

(ThermoFisher, Tokyo, Japan), and MITO + serum extender (Corning, Corning, NY, USA). A

total of 1×10^7 YTN16 cells were suspended in 500 μL of Hanks' Balanced Salt Solution and

intraperitoneally injected into mice (Ref. Nagaoka). Starting the following day, 2 μg of

thyroxine was administered orally once daily. At 8, 10, and 12 days after YTN16 cell injection,

1×10^6 NIS-DPC cells, 1×10^6 DPC cells, or vehicle alone were administered intraperitoneally.

On day 14, Na[At-211] (0.6 MBq) dissolved in 0.5 mL of vehicle was injected intraperitoneally.

On day 35 after YTN16 cell injection, the peritoneal cavity was examined, or the mice were

observed until death or humane sacrifice, followed by examination of the peritoneal cavity.

Construction of Lentiviral Vector pLVSIN-EF1α-hNIS-Pur

A self-inactivating (SIN) lentiviral expression vector, pLVSIN-EF1α-hNIS-Pur, was

constructed based on the parental plasmid pLVSIN-EF1α-Pur (Takara Bio Inc.). The human

sodium/iodide symporter (hNIS) gene (sequence ID No. 2; NCBI accession number

NM_000453.3) was inserted into the multiple cloning site of the parental vector.

The DNA fragment encoding hNIS was synthesized with a Not I site at the 5′ end and a BamH I

site at the 3′ end. Both the hNIS insert and the pLVSIN-EF1α-Pur vector were digested with the

respective restriction enzymes Not I and BamH I (New England Biolabs or equivalent) to

generate compatible cohesive ends. The digested fragments were ligated using Ligation High

Ver. 2 (TOYOBO Co., Ltd.), yielding the recombinant plasmid pLVSIN-EF1α-hNIS-Pur.

All recombinant DNA manipulations were carried out under standard molecular cloning

conditions in accordance with institutional biosafety regulations.

Lentiviral Packaging and Production

Lentiviral particles carrying the pLVSIN-EF1α-hNIS-Pur construct were produced

using a self-inactivating lentiviral packaging system. In addition to the expression vector

described above, a mixture of packaging plasmids encoding HIV-1–derived structural and

regulatory proteins (Gag, Pol, Tat, and Rev) and the vesicular stomatitis virus G glycoprotein

(VSV-G) envelope was provided by the Lentiviral High Titer Packaging Mix (Takara Bio Inc.).

Viral particles were generated following a modified standard protocol.

Poly-L-lysine–coated culture dishes were seeded with cells at a density of

approximately 5×10^4 cells/cm^2 and incubated overnight at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO_2

incubator. On the following day, a DNA mixture was prepared by adding 7 μL of Packaging Mix

and 11 μL of pLVSIN-EF1α-hNIS-Pur plasmid DNA (0.5 μg/μL) to 1.5 mL of Opti-MEM I

Reduced Serum Medium (Gibco).

Transfection was performed using either FuGENE HD (Promega) or TransIT-Lenti Transfection

Reagent (Takara Bio Inc.), according to the manufacturers' instructions. The transfected cells

were incubated at 37°C in 5% CO_2 for approximately 24 hours, after which the culture supernatant

was replaced with 10 mL of DMEM (Gibco) and incubation continued for another 24 hours.

The culture supernatant containing lentiviral particles was collected and clarified by

centrifugation at $500 \times g$ for 10 minutes. The supernatant was then passed through a 0.45 μm filter

(Millipore, Cat. No. SLHPR33RB) to remove cellular debris. The filtered viral solution was

aliquoted into microtubes and stored at −80°C until use.

Generation of hNIS-Expressing Dermal Papilla Cells (hNIS-DPCs)

Dental pulp cells (DPCs) were seeded at a density of 2.0×10^4 cells/cm² and cultured

overnight at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO_2 incubator. On the following day, cells were transduced

with the hNIS lentiviral vector (hNIS-LV) at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10. To enhance

viral transduction efficiency, protamine sulfate (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. No. P4020) was added to

the viral inoculum at a final concentration of 100 μg/mL.

The viral supernatant was removed 24 hours after infection and replaced with fresh

DMEM (Gibco, Cat. No. 10567-014). Cells were cultured with medium changes every 2–3 days,

and cell morphology and confluence were monitored microscopically. When cultures reached

approximately 90% confluence, cells were passaged using standard trypsinization procedures.

For selection of transduced cells, puromycin was added to the culture medium at a final

concentration of 1 μg/mL during the first passage after viral infection. Resistant colonies were

expanded under puromycin selection. Thereafter, cells were maintained in standard DMEM

without selection antibiotic for one to two additional passages to establish a stable hNIS-DPC line.

Established cells were cryopreserved in liquid nitrogen for long-term storage.

Cell Culture

NIS-DPC and YTN16 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium

(DMEM; Gibco, Cat. No. 10567014) under standard conditions (37°C, 5% CO_2). Cells were

maintained for 3 to 4 days before use.

Cell Harvesting and Co-culture Setup

Cells were detached using 0.25% trypsin–EDTA (Gibco, Cat. No. 25200056) and

resuspended in fresh DMEM. Cell concentrations were adjusted to 1×10^5 cells/mL. For co-

culture experiments, cells were seeded into 24-well Transwell plates (Corning, Cat. No. 353504)

equipped with cell culture inserts (Corning, Cat. No. 351152). NIS-DPC cells (1×10^5 cells) were

seeded in the upper insert, and YTN16 cells (1×10^5 cells) were seeded in the lower chamber. The

co-cultures were incubated for 48 hours at 37°C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO_2.

Migration assay

After 48 hours of co-culture, the medium was aspirated and replaced with DMEM

containing 1% human serum albumin (HSA) prepared from 25% clinical-grade albumin solution

(Takeda Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd.). Cells were stained with Calcein (Dojindo, Cat. No. 341-

07901) according to the manufacturer's instructions to visualize viable cells. Fluorescence

intensity was quantified using a spectrophotometric plate reader, and fluorescent images were

captured using a fluorescence microscope under identical exposure conditions for all samples.

Cell Labeling with DiR and In Vivo Administration

NIS-DPC cells were suspended in medium at a concentration of 1×10^7 cells/mL. The

cell suspension was mixed with an equal volume of 20 μmol/L DiR dye solution (Thermo

Fisher Scientific or equivalent), resulting in a final dye concentration of 10 μmol/L. The mixture

was incubated for 15 minutes at room temperature in the dark, with gentle tapping every 5

minutes to ensure homogeneous labeling. After incubation, the cells were washed three times

with injection medium by centrifugation to remove excess dye. The labeled cells were

resuspended in injection medium at a final concentration of 1×10^6 cells/mL. Labeled NIS-DPC

cells were administered intraperitoneally to peritoneal dissemination model mice. All animal

experiments were conducted in accordance with institutional guidelines and approved by the

relevant Animal Care and Use Committee.

In Vivo Fluorescence Imaging

449   At predetermined time points after injection, mice were sacrificed, and peritoneal

450 tissues were harvested. DiR fluorescence signals were detected using an in vivo imaging system

451 (IVIS Lumina III; PerkinElmer) under the following parameters: excitation filter, 740 nm;

452 emission filter, 790 nm; and exposure time, automatic setting. Fluorescence images were

453 analyzed using the manufacturer's software.

Production of ^{211}At

456   According to the procedure described in Refs. (Yin 2023, Yin 2024), the radioisotope of

457 At-211 was produced in the nuclear reaction of ^{209}Bi$(\alpha,2n)^{211}$At using the AVF cyclotron of the

458 RIKEN RI Beam Factory.

Ppreparation of Na[At-211]

461   Dry solid At-211 of multiple chemical species in glass vial was dissolved the injection

462 water (100 µL). At-211 aqueous solution (63 MBq, 50 µL) was mixed with 1% ascorbic acid,

463 2.3% MEYLON Injection aqueous solution (1 mL). After stirreing briefly, the reaction solution

of At-211 was left to stand for 1hour at room temperature under sealed condition to afford the

Na[At-211]. The Na[At-211] solution was dissolved 1% ascorbic acid, 2.3% MEYLON Injection

aqueous solution, and used animal experiments and the cell tracer experiments.

Thin-Layer Chromatography (TLC) Analysis

Thin-layer chromatography (TLC) was performed using silica gel 60 plates (Merck) as

the stationary phase. Samples (5 μL, 280 kBq) were spotted onto the plate and developed in a

solvent system consisting of acetonitrile and Milli-Q water ($CH_3CN:MQ = 2:1$, v/v).

After development, the chromatograms were analyzed using a TLC scanner (Scan-RAM;

LabLogic Systems Ltd.) equipped with a ZnS scintillation detector. Radioactivity on the TLC

plates was quantified using the manufacturer's analysis software.

Quantitative measurement of At-211 uptake

Na[At-211]　(10 kBq) was added to the DPC and NIS DPC cell and incubated for 5

min, 30 min, and 1 h, respectively. After incubation, the medium was removed and the cells were

collected. The radioactivity of the samples was then measured with a γ-counter, and the counts

per minute (CPM) were calculated.

Visualization of alpha-ray

Alpha-particle track images were acquired with a CMOS sensor at 1-s exposure,

yielding 600 frames each for NIS-DPS and DPC cells. Image analysis was conducted in ImageJ

(v1.54f). For each frame, a fixed intensity threshold was applied, followed by morphological

operations to generate a binarized mask of suprathreshold regions. Each image was then

accumulated with its corresponding mask to isolate regions of interest surrounding the α-particle

tracks, and the resulting stacks were Z-projected to produce composite track images.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

S.N. conceived and supervised the study and performed animal experiments. K.K., H.Y., H.M.,

T.Y., and W.-Y.D. conducted animal experiments. Y.W. performed α-particle therapy experiments

and contributed to manuscript preparation. T.T. performed sodium astatide (At-211) synthesis.

M.K. conducted cell culture experiments. A.T. performed RNA-seq data acquisition. T.Ta.

analyzed pathological specimens. J.J. conducted At-211 compound analyses. Y.K. performed

imaging studies. A.S. carried out α-particle uptake assays. R.N. prepared DPC cells. W.Y.

performed functional analyses of DPCs. H.S. performed genetic modification of DPCs. K.I.

managed DPC manufacturing and quality control. H.H. and X.Y. developed At-211 production

technology. M.Yo. performed direct α-particle imaging. A.Yo. developed scintillators. T.K. and

N.T. performed bioinformatics analyses. M.N. supervised bioinformatics and data integration. All

authors discussed the results and approved the final manuscript.

COMPETING INTERESTS

N/A

DATA AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

under preparation

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     FIGURE LEGENDS

     Figure 1. Isolation and characterization of dental pulp–derived stem cells (DPCs).

(a) The dental pulp is a soft connective tissue located within the interior of the tooth.

(b) After extraction of the dental pulp tissue, the connective components were enzymatically

digested, mechanically minced with a sharp blade, and cultured in growth medium supplemented

with differentiation inhibitors. Proliferating cells were isolated and purified as dental pulp–

derived stem cells (DPCs).

(c) Colony-forming assay of DPCs. HeLa cells were used as a control. Cells were stained with a

fluorescent dye and cultured for 0 or 7 days. Fluorescence intensity was quantified as relative

fluorescence units (RFU; n = 3). Representative microscopic images of colonies are shown. Scale

bar, 10 μm.

Figure 2. Confirmation of DPC accumulation in peritoneal tumor tissue.

(a–d) Macroscopic and fluorescence imaging analyses of a gastric cancer peritoneal dissemination

model after intraperitoneal administration of DiR-labeled dental pulp–derived stem cells (DPCs).

Panels (a) and (b) show macroscopic views of the peritoneal serosa, where blue lines outline the

regions of peritoneal tumor nodules. Corresponding in vivo imaging system (IVIS) fluorescence

images (c and d) demonstrate colocalization of fluorescence signals with the tumor lesions

identified in (a) and (b).

(e–g) Histological observation of peritoneal tumor tissue 1.5 weeks after intraperitoneal

administration of DPCs. Nuclei were counterstained with hematoxylin and eosin stain, and DPCs

were detected by immunostaining using an anti-human Lamin B1 antibody followed by an HRP-

conjugated secondary antibody. Panel (e) shows a low-magnification image, and (f) shows a high-

magnification view of the region. Arrows indicate DPCs accumulated within peritoneal tumor

lesions. Panel (g) shows tissue from a normal mouse injected with DPCs as a control.

(h) Migration assay evaluating DPC chemotaxis toward YTN16 gastric cancer cells. The lower

chamber contained 5×10^4 to 2×10^5 YTN16 cells, and 1×10^5 DiR-labeled DPCs were seeded

in the upper chamber. After 48 hours, fluorescence intensity of migrated cells was quantified.

DPC migration increased in proportion to the number of YTN16 cells in the lower chamber (n =

10; p < 0.001).

Figure 3. Functional transduction of the sodium/iodide symporter (NIS) into dental pulp–

derived stem cells (DPCs).

(a) Gene expression levels of parental DPCs and sodium/iodide symporter (NIS)–transduced

DPCs (NIS-DPCs) quantified from RNA-seq data and presented as transcripts per million (TPM)

values. Among iodide symporter genes, SLC5A5 was transduced and expressed in NIS-DPC.

GAPDH and beta-actin (ACTB) were controls.

(b) Comparison of iodide uptake between DPCs and NIS-DPCs. Data for NIS-DPCs were

obtained from three independent donors.

(c) Correlation analysis between NIS-positive cell fraction and iodide uptake levels in NIS-DPCs.

(d) In vivo localization of NIS-DPCs within tumor tissue, showing accumulation comparable to

that of unmodified DPCs.

(e) Migration assay using Transwell chambers with YTN16 gastric cancer cells placed in the lower

compartment. NIS-DPCs exhibited cell number–dependent migration similar to DPCs (n = 10; p

< 0.01).

Figure 4. Preparation and functional characterization of sodium astatide-211 (Na[At-211])

and its uptake by NIS-DPCs.

(a) Reaction protocol for converting purified free astatine-211 (At-211), produced at an

accelerator facility, into a homogeneous sodium astatide form (Na[At-211]). The free isotope can

exist in multiple chemical species, and sodium conjugation was performed to stabilize its form.

(b) Thin-layer chromatography (TLC) analysis of At-211 before and after sodium conjugation.

Left: TLC profile of free At-211 (~100 kBq). Right: TLC profile of Na[At-211] (~280 kBq).

Arrows indicate the Na[At-211] peak position.

(c) Cellular uptake of Na[At-211] by dental pulp–derived stem cells (DPCs) and NIS-expressing

DPCs (NIS-DPCs). DPCs or NIS-DPCs (5×10^4 cells per well) were seeded in 24-well plates and

incubated with 10 kBq Na[At-211]. At 5, 10, and 60 min, cells were collected, fractionated, and

measured for protein concentration and radioactivity. Radioactivity normalized to protein content

was calculated. NIS-DPCs exhibited approximately tenfold higher At-211 uptake than parental

DPCs (n = 3; black bars, DPCs; gray bars, NIS-DPCs).

Figure 5. Detection of α-particle emission from NIS-transduced dental pulp–derived stem

cells (NIS-DPCs).

(a) Schematic diagram of the α-particle detection system. α-particles emitted from cells (left) are

first converted into photons by a GAGG:Ce scintillator. The photons are then amplified and

reflected within the detector and captured by a cooled CMOS sensor positioned at the top.

(b) Overview of the α-particle detection device.

(c–d) NIS-DPCs (1×10^4 cells per well) were seeded in 8-well chamber slides and incubated for

30 min with 500 kBq of sodium astatide–211 (Na[At-211]). Cells were then fixed with formalin

and imaged. Arrowheads indicate the localization of individual cells.

(f–h) DPCs (1×10^4 cells per well) were similarly treated with 500 kBq Na[At-211], incubated

for 30 min, fixed with formalin, and imaged. Arrowheads indicate cell localization.

(c and f) Optical microscopic images of cells. (d and g) Corresponding α-camera signal images.

(e and h) Merged images combining optical and α-particle signals. Scale bar, 100 μm.

Figure 6. Therapeutic efficacy of NIS-DPCs combined with At-211 in a murine gastric

cancer peritoneal dissemination model.

C57BL/6 mice were inoculated intraperitoneally with 1×10^7 YTN16 gastric cancer cells to

establish a peritoneal dissemination model. One week later, 0.5×10^6 NIS-DPCs were

intraperitoneally administered every other day for three doses. Three days after the final cell

transplantation, 0.6 MBq of sodium astatide-211 (Na[At-211]) was injected intraperitoneally, and

mice were sacrificed 1.5 weeks later for macroscopic observation.

(a) Untreated control group.

(b–d) Mice receiving one, two, or three intraperitoneal administrations of NIS-DPCs followed by

Na[At-211], respectively. Peritoneal tumor burden decreased in proportion to the number of NIS-

DPC treatments.

(e) Macroscopic scoring of peritoneal dissemination was performed on a 0–4 scale.

(f) Quantitative comparison of macroscopic scores among the untreated group, Na[At-211]-only

group, and the group receiving three NIS-DPC administrations plus Na[At-211]. Statistical

analysis was performed using Tukey's test ($n = 10$; $p < 0.01$, *$p < 0.001$).

(g) Kaplan–Meier survival analysis after one month following Na[At-211] administration. Mice

treated with three doses of NIS-DPCs plus Na[At-211] (#3) showed a significant survival

advantage compared with the untreated group (#1) and the Na[At-211]-only group (#2). Control

groups without YTN16 cell implantation included Na[At-211]-only (#5) and NIS-DPC × 3 +

Na[At-211] (#6) treatments (n = Y; p <○○, *p < ○○).

Figure 7. Graphical Summary. Stepwise overview of the NIS-DPC cancer-targeting concept.

The schematic illustrates the translational workflow of sodium/iodide symporter (NIS)–

expressing dental pulp–derived stem cells (NIS-DPCs) as a targeted theranostic platform for

cancer therapy.

Step 1 (engineering). Dental pulp–derived stem cells were genetically modified to express the

sodium/iodide symporter (NIS), which mediates the cellular uptake of both iodide and astatine.

The lower panel depicts this dual transport function of NIS, highlighting its ability to internalize

iodide and the α-emitting radionuclide At-211.

Step 2 (targeting and accumulation). Following administration, NIS-DPCs preferentially

accumulated in cancer cells, enabling the selective delivery of At-211 to tumor sites.

Step 3 (localized therapy/outcome). Localized α radiation at the tumor site induced targeted

cytotoxicity, demonstrating the translational potential of NIS-DPC–mediated therapy for precise

cancer treatment.

TITLE

Novel therapy for gastric cancer peritoneal dissemination using genetically modified dental

pulp cells and astatine-211

AUTHORS

Koumei Kuge[1,2], Wan-Ying Du[1], Hiroki Masuda[1,2], Tomohiko Yasuda[1,2], Toshifumi Tatsumi[3],

Xiaojie Yin[4], Masao Yoshino[5], Akira Sugiyama[6], Ryohei Numata[7], Wataru Yokoyama[7], Hidenori

Shibahara[7], Tomoko Tanaka[3], Mika Kobayashi[3], Akashi Taguchi[3], Takahide Kohro[8], Naoko

Takubo[3], Masahiro Nakamura[3], Jaewoong Jang[3], Yoshitaka Kumakura[3,9], Hiroshi Yoshida[2], Akira

Yoshikawa[5,10], Hiromitsu Haba[4], Youichiro Wada[3]*, Kiwamu Imagawa[7]**, and Sachiyo

Nomura[1,3,6]***

CORRESPONDENCE

*Co-corresponding author. Email: wada-y@ric.u-tokyo.ac.jp

** Co-corresponding author. Email: imagawa-k@jp.jcrpharm.com

*** Co-corresponding author. Email: sachiyo.nomura1012@gmail.com

AFFILIATIONS

[1] Department of Gastrointestinal Surgery, Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo

[2] Department of Surgery, Graduate School of Medicine, Nippon University

[3] Isotope Science Center, The University of Tokyo

[4] Nishina Center for Accelerator-Based Science, RIKEN

[5] Institute for Materials Research, Tohoku University

[6] School of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences, Hoshi University Clinical Pharmaceutical

Sciences

[7] Regenerative Medicine Unit, Drug Discovery Research Institute, Research Division, JCR

Pharmaceuticals Co., Ltd.

[8] Department of Cerebrovascular Medicine, Jichi Medical School

[9] Department of Diagnostic Radiology and Nuclear Medicine, Saitama Medical Center, Saitama

Medical University

[10] New Industry Creation Hatchery Center, Tohoku University

SUMMARY

Peritoneal dissemination of gastric cancer represents a terminal stage with limited therapeutic

options and a five-year survival rate below 10%. To develop a more effective treatment, we

established a novel α-particle–based approach using genetically engineered human dental pulp

stem cells (DPCs) expressing the sodium/iodide symporter (NIS) to deliver astatine-211 (At-

211) directly to tumor sites. DPCs, isolated and expanded under differentiation-suppressive

conditions, showed strong tumor-homing ability when injected intraperitoneally into a mouse

model of gastric cancer dissemination. Fluorescent imaging and histological analysis confirmed

selective accumulation of DPCs within tumor lesions through CXCR4/SDF-1–mediated

chemotaxis. Introduction of the NIS gene markedly increased SLC5A5 expression and enabled

efficient uptake of At-211. High-resolution α-particle imaging visualized α-ray emission

specifically from NIS-DPCs, confirming intracellular retention of the radionuclide. *In vivo*,

sequential administration of NIS-DPCs followed by At-211-Na led to pronounced regression of

peritoneal tumors and significant survival extension compared with controls. The therapeutic

mechanism involves three coordinated steps: tumor-directed migration of NIS-DPCs, At-211

uptake via NIS transporters, and localized α-particle–mediated cytotoxicity. This study

introduces a novel concept of cell-based α-radiotherapy integrating regenerative and nuclear

medicine. Given the established clinical safety of DPCs in humans (J-REPAIR,

jRCT1080224505), this NIS-DPC platform offers a promising strategy for precise, short-range

irradiation of disseminated gastric cancer and potentially other intractable malignancies.

INTRODUCTION

Peritoneal dissemination is a common terminal manifestation of gastric cancer and is

classified as stage IV disease, with a 5-year survival rate of less than 10%. Current therapeutic

options are largely palliative, highlighting an urgent need for new treatment strategies with

curative potential.

We previously established a murine gastric cancer peritoneal dissemination cell line

(YTN16) and demonstrated proof-of-concept efficacy of targeted α-particle therapy using

astatine-211 (At-211), a high–linear energy transfer radionuclide with a 7.2-hour half-life. An

anti–fibroblast growth factor receptor 4 (FGFR4) antibody—selected for its high expression on

YTN16 cells—was conjugated to At-211 via a halogen–tin exchange reaction. In vivo

biodistribution studies in a syngeneic C57BL/6J peritoneal dissemination model showed that

intraperitoneal administration achieved peak peritoneal radioactivity at 4.5 hours, resulting in

marked tumor regression and significant survival extension compared with untreated controls.

However, the therapeutic window is constrained by the mismatch between the time

required for antigen–antibody binding (~24 hours) and the physical half-life of At-211. To

improve delivery kinetics, we sought a vehicle capable of rapidly homing to the tumor

microenvironment. Tumors actively recruit stromal fibroblasts to form cancer-associated

fibroblasts (CAFs), and mesenchymal cells (MSCs) share similar tumor-tropic properties. We

therefore investigated dental pulp cells (DPCs) developed by JCR Pharmaceuticals, which have

an established manufacturing process and demonstrated safety in a phase 1/2 clinical trial for

acute ischemic stroke (Ref. jRCT1080224505).

75   Here, we evaluate DPCs as a biologic vector for targeted α-particle therapy in gastric

76   cancer peritoneal dissemination. We hypothesize that leveraging the tumor-homing ability of

77   DPCs can facilitate At-211 delivery to the tumor niche, overcoming the limitations of

78   radioimmunotherapy and enabling improved therapeutic efficacy and survival outcomes.

82   **RESULTS**

83   **Preparation and characteristics of DPCs**

84   Dental pulp cells are located in the dental pulp, the soft connective tissue found in the

85   center of teeth (Figure 1a). They play key roles in tooth vitality by producing dentin, supporting

86   sensory functions, and participating in immune defense and tissue repair (Ref. Nito).

87   Dental pulp extraction is followed by mild enzymatic digestion to loosen the

88   extracellular matrix, then mechanical mincing to produce small tissue pieces. These explants are

89   placed in culture, allowing maintenance and expansion of dental pulp cells (DPCs) (Ref.

90   Gronthos) (Figure 1b).

91   DPCs could be expanded using culture medium, but no proliferation was observable in

92   soft agar, suggesting no tumorigenicity after injecting *in vivo* (Figure 1c).

94   **Confirmation of DPC accumulation in peritoneal tumor tissue**

95   To investigate that DPCs harbor the ability of tumor accumulation, we applied them into

the peritoneal cavity of gastric cancer dissemination model, which was established previously by

us (Ref.Yamamoto). Firstly, 5×10^5 cells of DPCs were prepared as described in materials and

methods. Then they were labeled with fluorescence dye (DiR) for living cells. After 24 hours,

injected mouse models were euthanized, and peritoneal surface was opened to apply florescence

detection camera. Localization of injected DPCs was visualized using in vivo imaging system

(IVIS Lumina III), and compared with distribution of disseminated visible lesions. As shown in

Figure 2, lesion occupied area was surrounded by blue line (right in Figure 2a, left in 2b).

Fluorescent images obtained by fluorescent camera was shown in Figure 2c (left) and 2d (right).

Significant colocalization was observable in both sides, suggesting accumulation of DPCs to

gastric cancer cells.

To further evaluate the specificity of tumor-directed accumulation, 1.0×10^6 DPCs were

injected intraperitoneally into a gastric cancer mouse model. Two days after the last injection of

DPCs, mice were sacrificed, and peritoneal tissues were fixed and subjected to

immunohistochemical staining using an anti-human Lamin B1 antibody. Brown staining,

indicative of DPC localization, was observed in tissues surrounding established tumor lesions

(Figure 2e, f), whereas no staining was detected in tissues lacking tumor cell engraftment (Figure

2g). These findings strongly suggest that intraperitoneally administered DPCs migrate to and

accumulate within peritoneal dissemination sites.

To validate the migratory ability of the DPCs towards the YTN16 cell line, a migration

assay was performed using a Transwell chamber. After 1×10^5 DPCs were placed in the upper

chamber, a series of different numbers of YTN16 cells were placed in the lower chamber. The

migrated cells on the other side of the micropore membrane were stained with a Calcein solution,

and the absorbance was measured. Figure 2h shows that the presence of YTN16 cells induces

DPC migration in a cell number-dependent manner and proves the migration capability of DPCs

to YTN16 cells.

Functional transduction of NIS to DPC

123   The sodium-iodide symporter (NIS) is a transmembrane glycoprotein with 13

124   transmembrane domains that transports radioactive isotopes, such as I-131, I-123, I-125, I-124,

125   Tc-99m, Re-188, and At-211, into cells (Ref. Darrouzet). Therefore, we introduced the NIS gene

126   (SLC5A5) into DPC cells using lentivirus (Figure 3a). While there was no change in the

127   expression levels of other NIS-encoding genes, such as SLC26A4 and SLC26A7, the expression

128   level of SLC5A5 in NIS-DPC increased more than 100-fold.

129   Next, we verified the expression level of NIS molecules on the cell surface and

evaluated the correlation between uptake capacity and positive rate using iodine as a surrogate

molecule in vitro. The results are shown in Figure 3b and 3c. We confirmed that iodine uptake

increased in a NIS-positive rate-dependent manner and observed a trend where higher NIS-

positive rates correlated with higher iodine uptake (Figure 3c). When iodine uptake was

confirmed in three lots of NIS-DPC cells, more iodine uptake was observed compared to DPC

cells without gene introduction. This confirmed that the introduced NIS gene was expressed on

the cell surface and that its function was maintained (Figure 3b).

To validate that NIS-DPCs could migrate to dissemination lesions, NIS-DPCs were

injected into the peritoneal cavity, as was done with DPCs. Two days after injection, the peritoneal

tissues were subjected to immunohistochemical staining using an anti-human lamin B1 antibody.

As shown in Figure 2e and 2f, brown staining indicative of NIS-DPC localization was observed

in tissues surrounding established tumor lesions (Figures 3d and 3e), whereas no staining was

detected in tissues lacking tumor cell engraftment (Figure 3f). These findings strongly suggest

that the NIS-DPCs administered intraperitoneally were able to accumulate within peritoneal

dissemination lesions.

Uptake of At-211 by NIS-DPC

Recently, it has been reported that, due to its various chemical forms, purified At-211

undergoes nonspecific binding in vivo, and that this can be controlled by converting it to sodium

astatine-211 (Ref. Watabe 2022). Therefore, prior to in vivo administration, we prepared sodium

astatine-211 using the method shown in Figure 4a. We confirmed that the purified At -211 had a

uniform chemical form using thin layer chromatography (TLC) (Figure 4b).

Furthermore, we confirmed the amount of At-211 that was taken up by the cells. The

results are shown in Figure 4c. As with the results of the confirmation of uptake capacity using a

surrogate molecule, NIS-DPC cells with the introduced NIS gene took up more At-211 than

DPC cells without the introduced gene. Additionally, the highest uptake was observed at 5

minutes when comparing changes in uptake amount over time at 5, 10, and 60 minutes after At-

211 addition. These results suggest that At-211 is rapidly taken up by DPC cells via NIS.

Therefore, pre-accumulating NIS-DPC cells around the peritoneal dissemination site and then

administering At-211 allows the drug to be taken up by cells quickly enough to be effective

within its half-life.

Novel contact scintillator imaging of alpha-ray trajectories from alpha emitters

Because the NIS-DPC cell fraction is radioactive, the uptake of At-211 was suggested.

However, to verify that the alpha rays emitted from At-211 originate from the NIS-DPC cells, a

camera that can visualize alpha rays on a 1 μm scale was used. Figure 5a shows the alpha

camera system configuration (Ref. Yamamoto 2023) (Ref. Yoshino 2025). It comprises three

principal components: (i) a 100-μm-thick GAGG thin-film scintillator screen; (ii) an infinity-

corrected magnification optical train consisting of an objective, an imaging lens; and (iii) a

CMOS imaging sensor, specifically the ORCA-Quest 2 qCMOS (C15550-22UP) from

Hamamatsu Photonics. Alpha particles emitted from within the cells are converted into photons

by a GAGG scintillator, magnified by a 20x objective, and detected by a CMOS sensor. Figure

5b shows an overview of the system. Eighteen thousand NIS-DPC and DPC cells were cultured

in an eight-well chamber slide. Then, 500 kBq of At-211 was added to the culture medium per

well, followed by a 30-minute incubation period. The cells were then fixed with formalin, and

observation with an alpha camera was conducted for ten minutes. Figure 5c shows an overview

of the NIS-DPC cells and Figure 5f shows an overview of the DPC cells. Both exhibit similar

morphology and distribution. However, as Figures 5d and 5g show, the alpha particle range was

detected only in the NIS-DPC cells. The merged image in Figure 5h confirms localization in the

NIS-DPC cells. These results indicate that At-211 was efficiently taken up by NIS-DPC cells

and that α-rays were emitted from these cells.

At-211 and NIS-DPC cell administration showed antitumor effects

Then, we preliminarily assessed the antitumor and survival prolongation effects of At-

211 and NIS-DPC administration in a mouse peritoneal dissemination model. Three weeks after

tumor cell transplantation, 0.5×10^6 NIS-DPC cells were administered intraperitoneally.

Twenty-four hours later, 0.6 MBq of astatine-211 was administered per animal. At one and a

half weeks post-transplantation, examination of the peritoneum revealed tumor cells in the

peritoneal dissemination group (Figure 6a), as well as in the NIS-DPC administration group

(Figure 6b) and the astatine-211 administration group (Figure 6c). However, the disappearance

of peritoneal seeding was observed in the group that received both NIS-DPC and astatine-211

(Figure 6d, asterisks).

To evaluate the effect of NIS-DPC&At-211 treatment, we scored the antitumor effects

visually on a 5-point scale (0–4) based on the extent of cancer cells adhering to the peritoneal

tissue at the time of death or at the end of the observation period (Figure 6e). We then evaluated

the results using the Tukey test.

The results of the antitumor effect evaluation are shown in a box-and-whisker plot

(Figure 6f). Compared to the untreated group (No Treatment) and the At-211 monotherapy

group (At-211), a significant reduction in score (i.e., reduction in disseminated tissue) was

observed in the At-211+NIS-DPC group (At-211+NIS-DPC). It was therefore suggested that the

administered NIS-DPC accumulated around implanted cancer cells in the peritoneum.

Subsequently, the cancer tissue was reduced by the cytolytic effect of α-rays after the uptake of

the administered At-211.

Using the same evaluation scale, we performed a series of experiments to optimize the

radioactivity of At-211 (Figure S6a), dose of NIS-DPC (Figure S6b), and repetition of NIS-DPC

injection (Figure S6c). Based on the macroscopic evaluation of the extent of peritoneal

dissemination, 0.6MBq of At-211/body, 5×10^5/body of NIS-DPC, three-time administration of

NIS-DPC, provided significantly higher score.

Using this optimized regimen, survival rates were evaluated using Kaplan-Meier

curves and Logrank tests. The survival rates of individual mice in each group after At-211

administration were evaluated. The results are shown in Figure 6g. Compared to the untreated

group and the At-211 treated group, a significant prolongation of survival was observed in the

At-211 + NIS-DPC group. Based on these results, the extension of the survival rate is

considered to be due to the damage and reduction of the implanted tumors by At-211 and NIS-

DPC in the mouse peritoneal dissemination model.

DISCUSSION

Brief summary

In this study, we created NIS-DPC cells by forcing the expression of the NIS gene,

which encodes an iodine transporter, in DPC cells that accumulate in the peritoneal cavity.

Forty-eight hours after administering these cells, we introduced astatine-211 into the peritoneal

cavity, demonstrating that the NIS-DPC cells accumulated around the tumor cells were rapidly

taken up, resulting in tumor cell death. This three-step treatment method is illustrated in Figure 7:

addition of NIS-DPC cells, addition of At-211, and α-ray irradiation. The first process involves

the accumulation of NIS-DPC cells in tumors. The second process involves the uptake of astatine-

211 by NIS-DPC cells. The third process involves tumor-killing effects.

Accumulation of DPC/NIS-DPC to cancer cells

It is known that cancer cells accumulate large numbers of cancer-associated fibroblasts

(CAFs) in their vicinity. However, mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) exhibit similar dynamics to

CAFs. MSCs migrate in response to chemokines, such as SDF-1, produced by cancer cells. They

recognize these chemokines via CXCR4. However, due to protein cross-reactivity between

humans and mice, human MSCs can migrate toward mouse tumors as well. Additionally, MSCs

have low immunogenicity and can be administered allogeneically. Since 2008, when it was

reported that DPC cells (a type of MSC) express CXCR4 and migrate in response to SDF-1 (Ref.

Jiang 2008), it has frequently been reported that DPC cells accumulate in inflammatory or

ischemic sites, particularly in oral and maxillofacial surgery (Ref. Yamaguchi et al., Sci. Rep.

2015) (Ref. Li et al., Sci. Rep. 2017)(Ref. Neves et al., Sci. Rep. 2020)(Ref. Kornsuthisopon et

al., Sci. Rep. 2022) (Ref. Irfan et al., Sci. Rep. 2023). DPCs produced by JCR Pharmaceuticals,

which have been administered to humans and proven safe (Ref. Suda 2022), were examined for

their ability to migrate and accumulate around tumor tissues in a mouse peritoneal dissemination

model.

As mentioned above, the first process of this therapy is accumulation of DPC cells to

cancer cells. To prove this, multimodal experiments were performed. Macroscopically, as shown

in Figures 2a to 2d, the localization of fluorescently labeled DPC cells coincided with the

localization of gastric cancer peritoneal dissemination lesions. Microscopically, as shown in

Figures 2e to 2g, DPC cells were observed within gastric cancer lesions via immunohistochemical

staining. These findings indicate that DPC cells accumulate in tumor cells.

In vitro, DPC cells were observed migrating toward gastric cancer cells (Figure 2h).

However, the molecular mechanism underlying this migration is suggested to involve the

induction of EGR1 in DPC cells by soluble factors released from cancer cells. Further clarification

of the migration mechanism is needed in further study.

Functional uptake of At-211 by NIS-DPC

The second step of this treatment method involves the uptake of At-211 by DPC cells.

Several experiments were conducted to determine if the introduced iodine transporter functions

in DPC cells. First, non-radioactive iodine and a non-radioactive ligand were added to DPC cells

expressing NIS, and the uptake efficiency was examined. As Figures 3b and 3c show, DPC cells

expressing NIS exhibited approximately 50-fold higher iodine uptake. The amount of uptake

increased in a NIS expression-dependent manner, demonstrating that NIS functionally takes up

the ligand. Furthermore, Figure 4c shows efficient uptake of At-211 by NIS-DPC starting five

minutes after At-211 addition. Using the newly developed α camera, we confirmed that the uptake

of At-211 and cell localization were consistent. This indicates that NIS-DPC cells take At-211

into the cell and emit α rays. In the future, it is expected that the lethal effect of α rays on tumor

cells will be directly visualized by co-culturing NIS-DPC cells with tumor cells and observing

them using the α camera.

Tumoricidal effect of NIS-DPC&At-211

As shown in Figure 6, this study demonstrated that administering At-211 after NIS-DPC

administration reduced peritoneal dissemination lesions and prolonged survival. This confirms

the tumor-killing effect, which is the third process in this treatment. In the evaluation of anticancer

drug efficacy in humans, the primary endpoint is survival rate extension. Therefore, when

evaluating the efficacy of cancer treatments using model animals, improvement in survival rate is

equally important as it is in humans. Furthermore, the proposed mechanism of action was strongly

implicated. However, it has been reported that immune function induced by neoantigens released

from tumor cells damaged by radiation exposure contributes to the efficacy of nuclear medicine

therapy (Ref. Nagaoka). Elucidating the detailed mechanism in the future may expand the

application of combined therapy with NIS-DPC cells and astatine-211.

Requirement for practical application

To commercialize this treatment method in the future, data on its efficacy must be

accumulated. Additionally, data on the safety and pharmacokinetics of the reagents used in this

study will be necessary. Since DPC cells have been administered to humans before and their safety

has been demonstrated (Ref. Suda 2022), data on the safety of NIS-DPC is necessary. In particular,

since lentiviruses are used to introduce the NIS gene, it is necessary to clarify whether they are

excreted from the administered animals. Furthermore, since astatine-211 is administered in the

form of sodium astatine into the abdominal cavity, pharmacokinetic data must be obtained in

medium-sized animals prior to human administration. Human clinical studies will be conducted

based on these data.

DPC cells can be administered allogenically. Since their procurement is minimally

invasive, the cells can be stored frozen, which makes it feasible to establish a supply system.

Additionally, meeting clinical demand for At-211 is possible through the future widespread

adoption of mass production technology and the development of dedicated accelerators.

Perspective

Here, we reported a new treatment method combining nuclear and regenerative

medicine products. Since the safety of DPC cells has already been proven in humans, a first-in-

human trial should be conducted after the safety of NIS-DPC and At-211 is evaluated.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Preparation of Dental Pulp Cells (DPCs)

Human dental pulp cells (DPCs) were isolated from extracted teeth under sterile

conditions, as previously described with minor modifications. Briefly, extracted teeth were first

disinfected by immersion in 1% formalin solution followed by washing with sterile physiological

saline to remove debris and surface contaminants.

The tooth structure was mechanically fractured using a dental rongeur, and the pulp

tissue was carefully extracted from the pulp chamber. The obtained pulp tissue was minced into

small fragments using sterile surgical scissors and transferred into a tube containing Liberase

digestion solution (Roche Diagnostics, Basel, Switzerland). The tissue suspension was incubated

at 37°C for enzymatic digestion with gentle agitation until the connective matrix was adequately

loosened.

After digestion, the suspension was mixed with Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium

(DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (P/S)

to terminate the enzymatic reaction. The mixture was centrifuged at $300 \times g$ for 5 min, and the

supernatant was discarded. The resulting pellet was resuspended in fresh DMEM containing 10%

FBS and 1% P/S and seeded onto tissue culture plates.

Cells were incubated at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO_2 atmosphere and expanded until

passage 5 (P5). From passage 1 (P1) onward, cultures were maintained in DMEM supplemented

with 10% FBS but without antibiotics, to avoid potential effects of antimicrobial agents on cell

proliferation or differentiation. All procedures were conducted under aseptic conditions using

biosafety level 2 (BSL-2) practices.

Soft Agar Colony Formation Assay

To evaluate anchorage-independent growth and confirm the non-transformed

characteristics of the cells, a soft agar colony formation assay was performed using the

CytoSelect™ 96-Well Cell Transformation Assay Kit (Cell Biolabs, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA),

according to the manufacturer's protocol.

HeLa, DPC, and NIS-DPC cells were cultured under standard conditions until reaching

logarithmic growth phase. Cells were then harvested and resuspended in assay medium at the

following densities: 8×10^3 cells/well for HeLa, and 8×10^4 cells/well for DPC and NIS-DPC.

Cell suspensions were seeded in duplicate 96-well soft agar plates (Plate ① and Plate ②) as

described in the kit instructions.

Plate ① was incubated for 7 days at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO_2 incubator to allow

potential colony formation. Plate ② was processed immediately after cell seeding for background

measurement following the manufacturer's procedures: agar dissolution, cell lysis, and nuclear

staining. The absorbance of each well was measured using a microplate reader to determine

baseline optical density (OD).

After the 7-day incubation period, Plate ① was subjected to the same lysis and staining

procedures, and absorbance was measured again. Colony formation was quantified by comparing

OD values between the 0-day (Plate ②) and 7-day (Plate ①) samples. As expected, a significant

increase in OD was observed only in the HeLa group, while DPC and NIS-DPC cells showed no

increase, confirming their non-transformed phenotype.

Preparation of mouse model and application of NIS-DPC followed by Na[At-211]

Six-week-old female C57BL/6J mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratoy Japan

and housed in a specific pathogen-free environment at the Animal Experiment Facility in

Isotope Science Center, the University of Tokyo. The animal use proposal and experimental

protocol were reviewed and approved by the University of Tokyo Animal Committee (ID: Med-

P22-084、A2024ISC003). The YTN16 cell line was maintained in Dulbecco's modified

Eagle's medium (DMEM, Sigma-Aldrich Merck, Tokyo, Japan) with 10% heat-inactivated fetal

bovine serum (FBS, BWT, France), 50 μg/mL streptomycin, 50 U/mL penicillin

(ThermoFisher, Tokyo, Japan), and MITO + serum extender (Corning, Corning, NY, USA). A

total of 1×10^7 YTN16 cells were suspended in 500 µL of Hanks' Balanced Salt Solution and

intraperitoneally injected into mice (Ref. Nagaoka). Starting the following day, 2 μg of

thyroxine was administered orally once daily. At 8, 10, and 12 days after YTN16 cell injection,

$1×10^6$ NIS-DPC cells, $1×10^6$ DPC cells, or vehicle alone were administered intraperitoneally.

On day 14, Na[At-211]　(0.6 MBq) dissolved in 0.5 mL of vehicle was injected

intraperitoneally. On day 35 after YTN16 cell injection, the peritoneal cavity was examined, or

the mice were observed until death or humane sacrifice, followed by examination of the

peritoneal cavity.

Construction of Lentiviral Vector pLVSIN-EF1α-hNIS-Pur

A self-inactivating (SIN) lentiviral expression vector, pLVSIN-EF1α-hNIS-Pur, was

constructed based on the parental plasmid pLVSIN-EF1α-Pur (Takara Bio Inc.). The human

sodium/iodide symporter (hNIS) gene (sequence ID No. 2; NCBI accession number

NM_000453.3) was inserted into the multiple cloning site of the parental vector.

The DNA fragment encoding hNIS was synthesized with a Not I site at the 5′ end and a BamH I

site at the 3′ end. Both the hNIS insert and the pLVSIN-EF1α-Pur vector were digested with the

respective restriction enzymes Not I and BamH I (New England Biolabs or equivalent) to

generate compatible cohesive ends. The digested fragments were ligated using Ligation High

Ver. 2 (TOYOBO Co., Ltd.), yielding the recombinant plasmid pLVSIN-EF1α-hNIS-Pur.

All recombinant DNA manipulations were carried out under standard molecular cloning

conditions in accordance with institutional biosafety regulations.

Lentiviral Packaging and Production

Lentiviral particles carrying the pLVSIN-EF1α-hNIS-Pur construct were produced

using a self-inactivating lentiviral packaging system. In addition to the expression vector

described above, a mixture of packaging plasmids encoding HIV-1–derived structural and

regulatory proteins (Gag, Pol, Tat, and Rev) and the vesicular stomatitis virus G glycoprotein

(VSV-G) envelope was provided by the Lentiviral High Titer Packaging Mix (Takara Bio Inc.).

Viral particles were generated following a modified standard protocol.

Poly-L-lysine–coated culture dishes were seeded with cells at a density of

approximately 5×10^4 cells/cm² and incubated overnight at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO_2

incubator. On the following day, a DNA mixture was prepared by adding 7 μL of Packaging Mix

and 11 μL of pLVSIN-EF1α-hNIS-Pur plasmid DNA (0.5 μg/μL) to 1.5 mL of Opti-MEM I

Reduced Serum Medium (Gibco).

Transfection was performed using either FuGENE HD (Promega) or TransIT-Lenti Transfection

Reagent (Takara Bio Inc.), according to the manufacturers' instructions. The transfected cells

were incubated at 37°C in 5% CO_2 for approximately 24 hours, after which the culture supernatant

was replaced with 10 mL of DMEM (Gibco) and incubation continued for another 24 hours.

The culture supernatant containing lentiviral particles was collected and clarified by

centrifugation at 500 × g for 10 minutes. The supernatant was then passed through a 0.45 μm filter

(Millipore, Cat. No. SLHPR33RB) to remove cellular debris. The filtered viral solution was

aliquoted into microtubes and stored at −80°C until use.

400   Generation of hNIS-Expressing Dermal Papilla Cells (hNIS-DPCs)

Dental pulp cells (DPCs) were seeded at a density of 2.0×10^4 cells/cm² and cultured

overnight at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO_2 incubator. On the following day, cells were transduced

with the hNIS lentiviral vector (hNIS-LV) at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10. To enhance

viral transduction efficiency, protamine sulfate (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. No. P4020) was added to

the viral inoculum at a final concentration of 100 μg/mL.

The viral supernatant was removed 24 hours after infection and replaced with fresh

DMEM (Gibco, Cat. No. 10567-014). Cells were cultured with medium changes every 2–3 days,

and cell morphology and confluence were monitored microscopically. When cultures reached

approximately 90% confluence, cells were passaged using standard trypsinization procedures.

For selection of transduced cells, puromycin was added to the culture medium at a final

concentration of 1 μg/mL during the first passage after viral infection. Resistant colonies were

expanded under puromycin selection. Thereafter, cells were maintained in standard DMEM

without selection antibiotic for one to two additional passages to establish a stable hNIS-DPC line.

Established cells were cryopreserved in liquid nitrogen for long-term storage.

Cell Culture

NIS-DPC and YTN16 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium

(DMEM; Gibco, Cat. No. 10567014) under standard conditions (37°C, 5% CO_2). Cells were

maintained for 3 to 4 days before use.

Cell Harvesting and Co-culture Setup

Cells were detached using 0.25% trypsin–EDTA (Gibco, Cat. No. 25200056) and

resuspended in fresh DMEM. Cell concentrations were adjusted to 1×10^5 cells/mL. For co-

culture experiments, cells were seeded into 24-well Transwell plates (Corning, Cat. No. 353504)

equipped with cell culture inserts (Corning, Cat. No. 351152). NIS-DPC cells (1×10^5 cells) were

seeded in the upper insert, and YTN16 cells (1×10^5 cells) were seeded in the lower chamber. The

co-cultures were incubated for 48 hours at 37°C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO_2.

Migration assay

After 48 hours of co-culture, the medium was aspirated and replaced with DMEM

containing 1% human serum albumin (HSA) prepared from 25% clinical-grade albumin solution

(Takeda Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd.). Cells were stained with Calcein (Dojindo, Cat. No. 341-

07901) according to the manufacturer's instructions to visualize viable cells. Fluorescence

intensity was quantified using a spectrophotometric plate reader, and fluorescent images were

captured using a fluorescence microscope under identical exposure conditions for all samples.

Cell Labeling with DiR and In Vivo Administration

NIS-DPC cells were suspended in medium at a concentration of 1×10^7 cells/mL. The

cell suspension was mixed with an equal volume of 20 μmol/L DiR dye solution (Thermo

Fisher Scientific or equivalent), resulting in a final dye concentration of 10 μmol/L. The mixture

was incubated for 15 minutes at room temperature in the dark, with gentle tapping every 5

minutes to ensure homogeneous labeling. After incubation, the cells were washed three times

with injection medium by centrifugation to remove excess dye. The labeled cells were

resuspended in injection medium at a final concentration of 1×10^6 cells/mL. Labeled NIS-DPC

cells were administered intraperitoneally to peritoneal dissemination model mice. All animal

experiments were conducted in accordance with institutional guidelines and approved by the

relevant Animal Care and Use Committee.

In Vivo Fluorescence Imaging

At predetermined time points after injection, mice were sacrificed, and peritoneal

tissues were harvested. DiR fluorescence signals were detected using an in vivo imaging system

(IVIS Lumina III; PerkinElmer) under the following parameters: excitation filter, 740 nm;

emission filter, 790 nm; and exposure time, automatic setting. Fluorescence images were

analyzed using the manufacturer's software.

Production of ^{211}At

According to the procedure described in Refs. (Yin 2023, Yin 2024), the radioisotope of

At-211 was produced in the nuclear reaction of $^{209}Bi(\alpha,2n)^{211}$At using the AVF cyclotron of the

RIKEN RI Beam Factory.

Ppreparation of Na[At-211]

Dry solid At-211 of multiple chemical species in glass vial was dissolved the injection

water (100 μL). At-211 aqueous solution (63 MBq, 50 μL) was mixed with 1% ascorbic acid,

2.3% MEYLON Injection aqueous solution (1 mL). After stirreing briefly, the reaction solution

of At-211 was left to stand for 1hour at room temperature under sealed condition to afford the

Na[At-211]. The Na[At-211] solution was dissolved 1% ascorbic acid, 2.3% MEYLON Injection

aqueous solution, and used animal experiments and the cell tracer experiments.

Thin-Layer Chromatography (TLC) Analysis

Thin-layer chromatography (TLC) was performed using silica gel 60 plates (Merck) as

the stationary phase. Samples (5 μL, 280 kBq) were spotted onto the plate and developed in a

solvent system consisting of acetonitrile and Milli-Q water ($CH_3CN:MQ = 2:1$, v/v).

After development, the chromatograms were analyzed using a TLC scanner (Scan-RAM;

LabLogic Systems Ltd.) equipped with a ZnS scintillation detector. Radioactivity on the TLC

plates was quantified using the manufacturer's analysis software.

Quantitative measurement of At-211 uptake

Na[At-211]　(10 kBq) was added to the DPC and NIS DPC cell and incubated for 5

min, 30 min, and 1 h, respectively. After incubation, the medium was removed and the cells were

480 collected. The radioactivity of the samples was then measured with a γ-counter, and the counts

481 per minute (CPM) were calculated.

483 **Visualization of alpha-ray**

484  Alpha-particle track images were acquired with a CMOS sensor at 1-s exposure,

485 yielding 600 frames each for NIS-DPS and DPC cells. Image analysis was conducted in ImageJ

486 (v1.54f). For each frame, a fixed intensity threshold was applied, followed by morphological

487 operations to generate a binarized mask of suprathreshold regions. Each image was then

488 accumulated with its corresponding mask to isolate regions of interest surrounding the α-particle

489 tracks, and the resulting stacks were Z-projected to produce composite track images.

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513   radionuclides").

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

S.N. conceived and supervised the study and performed animal experiments. K.K., H.Y., H.M.,

T.Y., and W.-Y.D. conducted animal experiments. Y.W. performed α-particle therapy experiments

and contributed to manuscript preparation. T.T. performed sodium astatide (At-211) synthesis.

M.K. conducted cell culture experiments. A.T. performed RNA-seq data acquisition. T.Ta.

analyzed pathological specimens. J.J. conducted At-211 compound analyses. Y.K. performed

imaging studies. A.S. carried out α-particle uptake assays. R.N. prepared DPC cells. W.Y.

performed functional analyses of DPCs. H.S. performed genetic modification of DPCs. K.I.

managed DPC manufacturing and quality control. H.H. and X.Y. developed At-211 production

technology. M.Yo. performed direct α-particle imaging. A.Yo. developed scintillators. T.K. and

N.T. performed bioinformatics analyses. M.N. supervised bioinformatics and data integration. All

authors discussed the results and approved the final manuscript.

COMPETING INTERESTS

N/A

DATA AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

under preparation

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Isolation and characterization of dental pulp–derived stem cells (DPCs).

(a) The dental pulp is a soft connective tissue located within the interior of the tooth.

(b) After extraction of the dental pulp tissue, the connective components were enzymatically

digested, mechanically minced with a sharp blade, and cultured in growth medium supplemented

with differentiation inhibitors. Proliferating cells were isolated and purified as dental pulp–

derived stem cells (DPCs).

(c) Colony-forming assay of DPCs. HeLa cells were used as a control. Cells were stained with a

fluorescent dye and cultured for 0 or 7 days. Fluorescence intensity was quantified as relative

fluorescence units (RFU; n = 3). Representative microscopic images of colonies are shown. Scale

bar, 10 μm.

Figure 2. Confirmation of DPC accumulation in peritoneal tumor tissue.

(a–d) Macroscopic and fluorescence imaging analyses of a gastric cancer peritoneal dissemination

model after intraperitoneal administration of DiR-labeled dental pulp–derived stem cells (DPCs).

Panels (a) and (b) show macroscopic views of the peritoneal serosa, where blue lines outline the

regions of peritoneal tumor nodules. Corresponding in vivo imaging system (IVIS) fluorescence

images (c and d) demonstrate colocalization of fluorescence signals with the tumor lesions

identified in (a) and (b).

(e–g) Histological observation of peritoneal tumor tissue 1.5 weeks after intraperitoneal

administration of DPCs. Nuclei were counterstained with hematoxylin and eosin stain, and DPCs

were detected by immunostaining using an anti-human Lamin B1 antibody followed by an HRP-

conjugated secondary antibody. Panel (e) shows a low-magnification image, and (f) shows a high-

magnification view of the region. Arrows indicate DPCs accumulated within peritoneal tumor

lesions. Panel (g) shows tissue from a normal mouse injected with DPCs as a control.

(h) Migration assay evaluating DPC chemotaxis toward YTN16 gastric cancer cells. The lower

chamber contained 5×10^4 to 2×10^5 YTN16 cells, and 1×10^5 DiR-labeled DPCs were seeded

in the upper chamber. After 48 hours, fluorescence intensity of migrated cells was quantified.

DPC migration increased in proportion to the number of YTN16 cells in the lower chamber (n =

10; p < 0.001).

Figure 3. Functional transduction of the sodium/iodide symporter (NIS) into dental pulp–

derived stem cells (DPCs).

(a) Gene expression levels of parental DPCs and sodium/iodide symporter (NIS)–transduced

DPCs (NIS-DPCs) quantified from RNA-seq data and presented as transcripts per million (TPM)

values. Among iodide symporter genes, SLC5A5 was transduced and expressed in NIS-DPC.

GAPDH and beta-actin (ACTB) were controls.

(b) Comparison of iodide uptake between DPCs and NIS-DPCs. Data for NIS-DPCs were

obtained from three independent donors.

(c) Correlation analysis between NIS-positive cell fraction and iodide uptake levels in NIS-DPCs.

(d) In vivo localization of NIS-DPCs within tumor tissue, showing accumulation comparable to

that of unmodified DPCs.

(e) Migration assay using Transwell chambers with YTN16 gastric cancer cells placed in the lower

compartment. NIS-DPCs exhibited cell number–dependent migration similar to DPCs (n = 10; p

< 0.01).

Figure 4. Preparation and functional characterization of sodium astatide-211 (Na[At-211])

and its uptake by NIS-DPCs.

(a) Reaction protocol for converting purified free astatine-211 (At-211), produced at an

accelerator facility, into a homogeneous sodium astatide form (Na[At-211]). The free isotope can

exist in multiple chemical species, and sodium conjugation was performed to stabilize its form.

(b) Thin-layer chromatography (TLC) analysis of At-211 before and after sodium conjugation.

Left: TLC profile of free At-211 (~100 kBq). Right: TLC profile of Na[At-211] (~280 kBq).

Arrows indicate the Na[At-211] peak position.

(c) Cellular uptake of Na[At-211] by dental pulp–derived stem cells (DPCs) and NIS-expressing

DPCs (NIS-DPCs). DPCs or NIS-DPCs (5×10^4 cells per well) were seeded in 24-well plates and

incubated with 10 kBq Na[At-211]. At 5, 10, and 60 min, cells were collected, fractionated, and

measured for protein concentration and radioactivity. Radioactivity normalized to protein content

was calculated. NIS-DPCs exhibited approximately tenfold higher At-211 uptake than parental

DPCs (n = 3; black bars, DPCs; gray bars, NIS-DPCs).

Figure 5. Detection of α-particle emission from NIS-transduced dental pulp–derived stem

cells (NIS-DPCs).

(a) Schematic diagram of the α-particle detection system. α-particles emitted from cells (left) are

first converted into photons by a GAGG:Ce scintillator. The photons are then amplified and

reflected within the detector and captured by a cooled CMOS sensor positioned at the top.

(b) Overview of the α-particle detection device.

(c–d) NIS-DPCs (1×10^4 cells per well) were seeded in 8-well chamber slides and incubated for

30 min with 500 kBq of sodium astatide–211 (Na[At-211]). Cells were then fixed with formalin

and imaged. Arrowheads indicate the localization of individual cells.

(f–h) DPCs (1×10^4 cells per well) were similarly treated with 500 kBq Na[At-211], incubated

for 30 min, fixed with formalin, and imaged. Arrowheads indicate cell localization.

(c and f) Optical microscopic images of cells. (d and g) Corresponding α-camera signal images.

(e and h) Merged images combining optical and α-particle signals. Scale bar, 100 μm.

Figure 6. Therapeutic efficacy of NIS-DPCs combined with At-211 in a murine gastric

cancer peritoneal dissemination model.

C57BL/6 mice were inoculated intraperitoneally with 1×10^7 YTN16 gastric cancer cells to

establish a peritoneal dissemination model. One week later, 0.5×10^6 NIS-DPCs were

intraperitoneally administered every other day for three doses. Three days after the final cell

transplantation, 0.6 MBq of sodium astatide-211 (Na[At-211]) was injected intraperitoneally, and

mice were sacrificed 1.5 weeks later for macroscopic observation.

(a) Untreated control group.

(b–d) Mice receiving one, two, or three intraperitoneal administrations of NIS-DPCs followed by

Na[At-211], respectively. Peritoneal tumor burden decreased in proportion to the number of NIS-

DPC treatments.

(e) Macroscopic scoring of peritoneal dissemination was performed on a 0–4 scale.

(f) Quantitative comparison of macroscopic scores among the untreated group, Na[At-211]-only

group, and the group receiving three NIS-DPC administrations plus Na[At-211]. Statistical

analysis was performed using Tukey's test (n = 10; p < 0.01, *p < 0.001).

(g) Kaplan–Meier survival analysis after one month following Na[At-211] administration. Mice

treated with three doses of NIS-DPCs plus Na[At-211] (#3) showed a significant survival

advantage compared with the untreated group (#1) and the Na[At-211]-only group (#2). Control

groups without YTN16 cell implantation included Na[At-211]-only (#5) and NIS-DPC × 3 +

Na[At-211] (#6) treatments (n = Y; $p < \circ\circ$, *$p < \circ\circ$).

Figure 7. Graphical Summary. Stepwise overview of the NIS-DPC cancer-targeting concept.

The schematic illustrates the translational workflow of sodium/iodide symporter (NIS)–

expressing dental pulp–derived stem cells (NIS-DPCs) as a targeted theranostic platform for

cancer therapy.

Step 1 (engineering). Dental pulp–derived stem cells were genetically modified to express the

sodium/iodide symporter (NIS), which mediates the cellular uptake of both iodide and astatine.

The lower panel depicts this dual transport function of NIS, highlighting its ability to internalize

iodide and the α-emitting radionuclide At-211.

Step 2 (targeting and accumulation). Following administration, NIS-DPCs preferentially

accumulated in cancer cells, enabling the selective delivery of At-211 to tumor sites.

Step 3 (localized therapy/outcome). Localized α radiation at the tumor site induced targeted

cytotoxicity, demonstrating the translational potential of NIS-DPC–mediated therapy for precise

cancer treatment.

a.

Pulp

b.

Pulp extraction

Liberase
Digestion

mince processing

Precipitate

Expand
from P1 to
P5 without
antibiotics

DMEM medium With antibiotics (P0)

DPCs

c.

	Culture Medium	Hela	DPC (DC1751)
Day0	350.1	399.7	612.4
Day7	357.2	912.5	542.3

Fig. 2h

h.

	10%FBS	YTN16 (5×10^4cells)	YTN16 (1×10^5cells)	YTN16 (2×10^5cells)
■	257.4	617.8	744.8	857.6

a.

Fig. 3a

b.

c.

Fig.3g

g.

	10%FBS	YTN16 (2.5×10^4cells)	YTN16 (1×10^5cells)	YTN16 (4×10^5cells)
☐ DPC P10	533.9	812.8	1128.2	1147.7
◼ NIS-DPC P10	555.0	839.6	1113.5	1170.5

Fig. 4a&b

a.

^{211}At (^{211}At$^{\oplus}$, ^{211}At$^{\ominus}$, ^{211}At$_2$, etc)

multiple chemical species

dry solid

→ injection water →

1% ascorbic acid,
2.3% MEYLON Injection aqueous solution

r.t., 1 h

Na^{211}At

solution

b.

C.

a. 1. Scintillation screen (GAGG:Ce) 3. Sensor segment (Cooled CMOS sensor) Cell Alpha particle Objective lens Tube lens mirror 2. Infinity corrected optics

b. GAGG scintillator α-ray GAGG scintillator 5x5x0.1mmt Hole for α-ray α-ray CMOS / EM-CCD Tube lens Objective lens mirror

NIS-DPC 500kBq c. d. e. 100 µm

DPC 500kBq f. g. h. 100 µm

Fig.6a~d

Fig.6e&f

e.

Macroscopic Score Evaluation of Peritoneal Tissue by Gross Examination
Rating scale: 0 (lowest) to 4 (highest)

4	3	2	1	0
The grains are large and uniform throughout.	There are some grains, but not all over.	Clearly present, but the grains are small and watery.	Upon closer inspection, it exists only faintly.	No tumor

f.

P*** < 0.001(0.00068)

P** < 0.01(0.00875)

* Tukey test

☐ No Treatment
▫ 211At
▪ 211At+NIS-DPC

g.

Days after At-211 administration

Fig. 7

NIS

NIS

DPC

Cancer cells

NIS

DPC

DPC

DPC

NIS

NIS

DPC

NIS

Process ①
Accumulation
to cancer cells

At-211

NIS

α-ray

Process ②
Acquisition of
At-211

Process ③
Antitumor
effect

I, At

NIS : sodium-iodide symporter